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**Research Paper** 

## A DIAGNOSTIC SURVEY OF EXTERNAL PARASITES OF FREE-RANGE CHICKENS, IN THE RURAL AREAS OF EASTERN CAPE, SOUTH AFRICA

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External parasites are regarded as the basic causes of retardation in growth, poor conditions and lowered production in free-range chickens. However, information is lacking on the occurrence of external parasites of free-range chickens in the rural areas of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. A study was conducted to determine the occurrence and identity of external parasites in free-range chickens. Fifty chickens were randomly selected and examined for external parasites. The majority (96%) of chickens examined, harboured at least one species of external parasite; Fleas (*Echidnophaga gallinacea*) (50.7%); lice *Menopon gallinae* (12.4%); *Menacanthus stramineus* (5.3%) and *Knemidocoptes mutan*s (0.57%). Age, sex and physiological status of the chickens influenced the burden of E gallinacea. Cocks, broody hens and hens had a significantly (P < 0.05) higher loads of external parasites than chicks. Different types of external parasites were found to be present in free-range chickens in the study area.

Keywords: Free-range chickens, External parasites, Infestation, Occurrence

## INTRODUCTION

Almost every household in rural areas of South Africa keeps free range chickens mainly for food security, socio-economic, religious and cultural aspects (Swatson *et al.*, 2001; and Mwale and Masika, 2009). However their rearing system differs, depending upon the prevailing agro ecosystem and the resources available (Kumaresan *et al.*, 2008). Free-range chicken production systems are run by farmers implementing their local knowledge of breeding, feeding and health practices (Abdelqader *et al.*, 2007; and Nyoni and Masika, 2012). Under this system the free-range chickens have good

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adaptation to harsh environmental conditions. Low-input low-output production system for freerange chickens conforms well to the socioeconomic conditions of rural farmers. However inappropriate housing and lack of appreciable pest control efforts also reduce chicken productivity because of parasitic infestation (Mungube *et al.*, 2006).

Like other domestic livestock species, free range chickens (Gallus gallus) also suffer from serious health and productivity consequences when infested by external parasites (Mungube et al., 2008). They are at constant risk of infestation by external parasites, mainly lice, mites (feather, body and leg mites), and soft ticks, which is attributed to their feeding habit, because they scavenge and forage for feed to meet their nutritional requirements (Poulsen et al., 2000; Permin et al., 2002; Mungube et al., 2006; and Nyoni and Masika, 2012) hence exposing themselves to parasites infestations. External parasites affect the chickens by causing irritation, loss of weight, skin lesions that may be site of secondary infection, sucking blood, hence leading to anemia and death at times (Mullen and Durden, 2002). Irritation results in chickens concentrating at scratching their bodies at the expense of feeding (Permin et al., 2002) hence they do not perform as expected. Lice cause multi-focal skin lesions on the affected birds and leg-scale mites cause inflammation with exudates and subsequently keratinization of the legs (Permin and Hansen, 1998; Njunga, 2003; and Prelezov and Kolnarski, 2006). In addition, external parasites act as mechanical or biological vectors transmitting a number of pathogens (Salam et al., 2009). Fleas are a vector of bacterioses (Bartonella spp., rickettsiosis) and the intermediate host for filarid and cestode parasites and viroses (Merck Veterinary Manual, 2006).

The occurrence and intensity of parasitic infestations may be influenced by a number of epidemiological factors including host, sex, age, breed and environment (Nadeem *et al.*, 2007). There is a lack of information on the occurrence of external parasites of free-range chickens in rural areas of the Eastern Cape, South Africa. Hence the present study was conducted to examine the occurrence of external parasites in free-range chickens and to determine the most prevalent parasite which would inform subsequent experiments.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

#### Study Site

This study was conducted at Amatola Basin, in Amathole District of the Eastern Cape Province of South Africa. Three villages out of 13 in the Basin were randomly selected. The villages lie at an altitude of 1 807 m above sea level and within 32° 31'00"S, 26° 57'00"E on the eastern slopes of the Amatola mountain range (Bembridge et al. 1982). The summer minimum temperatures range from 19 °C and a maximum range is 31 °C. In winter, the average minimum temperature is 7 °C while the maximum temperature is 21 °C. The area receives an average annual rainfall of 580-800 mm (ISCW, 2008).

#### **Data Collection**

Amatola Basin was stratified into villages, from which Komkhulu, Ndlovhura and Zixinene villages were randomly selected. Subsequently snowball sampling technique was used to select 7, 11 and 12 households with chickens respectively. Meetings were held with the selected farmers to explain details and implications of the study. Chickens were given feed either out in the open or in their shelter depending on whether the chickens were housed or not, so that they could

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be easily caught and examined for the presence of external parasites. Fifty chickens comprised of 12% cocks, 26% hens, 24% broody hens and 38% chicks, non-descript breed, belonging to different age groups were examined for external parasites. A whole body inspection was done and all external parasites seen were collected and put into labeled bottles containing 70% ethanol to preserve the parasites. Further identification was done with the aid of a dissecting microscope (Kyowa optical model 5DZ-PL-Italy), using keys by Wall and Shearer (2001) and Walker et al. (2003).

#### **Data Analysis**

Data collected were analyzed using GLM procedures of Statistics Analysis Systems (SAS, 2003) comparison of means was performed using the PDIFF procedure of (SAS, 2003).

#### RESULTS

Of the fifty chickens examined for external parasites (96%) were infested with one or more species of external parasites and 4% were not infested at all. Of all the parasites collected 80% came from households with poor housing for chickens and those who keep dogs and cats and 20% came from neither of the above. It was observed that of the 30 households which participated in the study 70% shared accommodation with chickens whereby chickens are kept in the kitchens overnight and released the following morning. The occurrence of various chicken external parasites found in the different predilection sites is summarized in (Table 1). Most of the fleas attach on sites without or less feathers. A total of 1 211 external parasites were collected from the chickens. There were four species of lice (*M. gallinae*. *M.* stramineus, Gonoides gigas and Gonoicotes gallinae, two of mites (Dermannyssus gallinae, K. mutans), one tick species (Rhipicephalus sanguines) and one flea species (E. gallinacea). Echidnophaga gallinacea had a significantly higher (P > 0.05) occurrence in old chickens than young ones. The occurrence of in Knemidocoptes mutans was insignificant (P < 0.05) compared to other parasites, and it mostly infested adult chickens. The mean load of external parasites varied significantly (P > 0.05) with chicken classes (Table 2).

#### DISCUSSION

The study revealed that external parasites occur among free-range chickens in the study area. Almost all the chickens were found to harbor more than one type of external parasites. This

Table 1: External Parasite of Chickens with their Location and Occurrence								
External Parasite Species	Location	% Prevalence						
Echidnophaga gallinacean	Comb, wattles, eyelids and around ears	50.7						
Menopon gallinae	Thigh, breast and areas near cloaca	12.2						
Dermannysus gallinae	Entire body	10.1						
Rhipicephalus sanguineus	Breast and around ears	8.3						
Gonoides gigas	Thigh, breast and areas near cloaca	6.5						
Gonoicotes gallinae	Base of feathers	6.1						
Menacathus stramineus	Thigh, breast and areas near cloaca	5.3						
Knemidocoptes mutans	Lower limbs	0.57						

Chicken Classes									
Class	E. gallinacea	M. gallinae	G. gallinae	G. gigas	M. stramineus	D. gallinae	R. sanguines	K. mutans	
Chicks	4.39±1.96°	1.86±0.71℃	0.31±0.55℃	0.53±0.29 <sup>d</sup>	0.39±0.71⁵	0.78±1.20°	0.42±1.12 <sup>d</sup>	0.00±0.13 <sup>d</sup>	
Hens	16.31±2.49ª	4.86±0.91ª	2.36±0.70ª	1.72±0.37⁵	1.94±0.90ª	2.22±1.12 <sup>b</sup>	1.41±1.42℃	0.63±0.12 <sup>b</sup>	
Broody hens	15.58±1.88ª	2.64±1.18 <sup>♭</sup>	1.05±0.53⁵	1.23±0.28°	1.22±0.68ª	6.03±1.48ª	3.89±1.07⁵	0.33±0.16°	
Cocks	9.33±2.94 <sup>b</sup>	4.17±1.07ª	2.00±0.83ª	3.50±0.43ª	1.83±1.10ª	0.50±1.74°	8.83±1.67ª	1.00±0.19ª	
Note: a,b,c,d Means within a column with different superscript letters differ significantly									

Table 2: Mean Load of Various External Parasites Species on Naturally Infested Free-Range

observation is in accordance with other workers (Prevezov and Koinarski 2006; and Sychra et al., 2008). The external parasites identified included fleas, lice, ticks and mites. The findings are in agreement with Ashenafi and Eshetu (2005). However fleas were the most common in this study which concurs with Mungube et al. (2008) who also reported fleas to be most common on free-range chickens in Kenya. However, the results are in contrast with results of Ashenafi and Eshetu (2005) who recorded lice to be the most common. Beside climatic condition, these investigators did their work in different ecological locations where differences in breed and general husbandry practices would account for the difference in findings. Echidnophaga gallinacea had a significantly higher occurrence in old chickens than in young ones. The frequency of E. gallinacea (50.7%) was comparable with the findings of Mungube et al. (2008) who recorded occurrence of 56.7% in a study conducted in Kenya. Also a study conducted in Zimbabwe (Permin et al., 2002) reported high prevalence of E. gallinacea 72% in adult chickens and 74% in chicks. While in India quite a low prevalence of (6.7%) was reported (Rani et al., 2008). These differences in prevalence may be attributed to differences in geographical areas, sample size and period of study. Different geographical areas and period of study have different climatic conditions (temperature and humidity) which may alter the population dynamics of the parasites

(Magwisha et al., 2002). In addition, longer period of study might show the prevalence pattern of the parasites compared to the shorter one. The bigger sample sizes depict true reflection of what is on the ground compared to smaller sample sizes, hence the variation encountered.

In this study households with dogs and cats reported many cases of fleas in chickens. This is attributed to the fact that fleas also attack dogs and cats (Soulsby, 1982; and Mungube et al., 2006). Fleas can move from one livestock to another when the environment is not conducive for their survival. In the rural set up dogs and cats are rarely dipped and this provides a breeding place for these

The predilection sites of external parasites vary with animal species. Fleas were attached to the combs, wattles, and around the eyes of the chickens. This finding is in agreement with Soulsby (1982). The predilection sites are soft tissues and where there is less feather coverage. This is why naked-neck chickens are very susceptible to flea infestation (Shanta et al., 2006).

The study also revealed the occurrence of four species of lice, a result similar to those reported by Chaddha et al. (2005) who also identified M. gallinae. M. stramineus, G. gigas and G. gallinae. However, Mukaratiwa and Khumalo (2012) reported five spices, which

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included Lipeurus caponis. Most of these lice species are cosmopolitan and apparently highly adaptive to various geographical regions and climatic conditions (Njunga, 2003; and Prelezov and Kolnarski, 2006). In addition, external parasites can cohabit without causing any harmful effect on each other (Adang et al., 2008). It also suggests that the prevailing environmental conditions and free-range management system are favourable to their simultaneous development. Menopon gallinae was the most dominant as has been reported previously by several workers (Saxena et al., 2004; Ashenafi and Ashetu, 2005; Prelezov and Koinarski, 2006; and Mukaratiwa and Khumalo, 2012). There was no significant difference in the *M. gallinae* load on cocks and hens. This is a similar observation as that of Senlik et al. (2005). Sex related physiology may not confer any differences in infestations. The study revealed the presence of G. gigas in free-range chickens. Similar findings had been reported by Permin et al. (2002), Sadig et al. (2004) and Sychra et al. (2008). This could be due to that they are primarily found in tropic and subtropic climate (Gabaj et al., 1993). The high prevalence of lice in this study could be attributed to warm temperatures that are found at Amatola which provide conducive environment for their multiplication.

The mite *D. gallinae* exhibited high occurrence and infested mainly broody hens. Broody hens have high prolactin levels which depress the immune system of the chicken to resist parasite infestation (Shanta *et al.*, 2006). The farmers in this study reported that *D. gallinae* coupled with high temperatures is responsible for egg abandonment by the broody hens as also previously reported by Mungube *et al.* (2008). This adversely affects hatchability as the broody hens would leave the eggs. Dermanyssus gallinae is most prevalent in summer and the conditions will be favorable for its growth and multiplication (Mungube *et al.*, 2008). The study also revealed that *D. gallinae* parasitizes humans, this concurs with (Mungube *et al.*, 2008) especially where they share accommodation with chickens. However, in such instances farmers are quick to intervene in the control of the external parasites because they are also affected

In this current study the mite, *K. mutans* had the least prevalence and this concurs with the findings of Shanta *et al.* (2006) who also recorded *K. mutans* being the least indentified parasite. Knemidocoptes mutans was mostly found in adult chickens and the findings are in agreement with (Permin *et al.*, 2002; Arends, 2003; and Shanta *et al.*, 2006). This could be attributed to genetic factors. Morishita *et al.* (2005) reported that a genetic predisposition to knemidocoptes infections has been suggested, based on the observations that only a few chickens in a flock become infected.

*Rhipicephalus sanguines* ticks, the dog tick, were one of the external parasites infesting chickens. The presences of *R. sanguines* which mainly infests dogs may be attributed to chickens scavenging through a wider area that exposes them to the source of infestation. Free range chickens scavenge for food in grassy areas where the ticks mostly stay searching for the host. Also this type of tick attacks any warm blooded animal (Jacobs *et al.*, 2001). Controlling of ticks by dipping of dogs could probably reduce the incidence of tick infestation in free range chickens.

The infestation levels of the cocks were significantly different from the hens. High

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infestation levels of external parasites in cocks and broody hens revealed in this study agrees with findings by Okursoy and Yilmaz (2002). This could be attributed to the fact that that the male sex hormone testosterone makes the chicken more susceptible to parasitic infestation and mean parasitic burden is high in cocks (Shanta et al., 2006). Furthermore, broody hens have increased levels of prolactin which depresses the body immune system (Jiang et al., 2005) and this probably explains why they were severely infested. On the other hand, broody hens usually spend most of their time incubating and less time is devoted to grooming, preening, parching and rocking. This could have contributed to the high levels of external parasite infestations. In addition adult chickens scavenge through a wider area of the farmers' homesteads and beyond that makes them more exposed to the source of infestation (Permin et al., 2002; and Shanta et al., 2006). As a result, they have a diversity of parasites (Abebe et al., 1997) than chicks which are sometimes confined.

The study revealed the presence of fleas, lice, mites and tick in the study area. Most of the free range chickens examined had some external parasites of some kind. This showed that external parasites occur among free-range chickens in the study area. The findings confirm farmers' perceptions that external parasites of chickens occur in their flocks and are one of the major challenges to chicken production in rural areas.

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