

# Seroprevalence and Molecular Detection of Canine Leptospirosis in and around Navsari, South Gujarat, India

Sunayana Kanthala<sup>1</sup>, Dharmesh R. Patel<sup>1\*</sup>, V. Balamurugan<sup>2</sup>, Pushpa M. Makwana<sup>1</sup>, Dixit K. Parasana<sup>1</sup>, Prahlad S. Chaudhary<sup>3</sup>, Irsadullahkhan H. Kalyani<sup>1</sup>

## ABSTRACT

Leptospirosis, an anthroponotic disease, is a growing global public health concern due to its increasing prevalence in both developing and developed countries caused by serovars of *Leptospira*. The present study was conducted to estimate the seroprevalence, and associated risk factors of leptospirosis in and around Navsari district (Surat and Valsad) of Southern Gujarat, India. The data was collected through a pretested questionnaire to detect the risk factors associated with disease occurrence. Samples were collected from 410 dogs (410 sera samples, 66 blood and 66 urine samples). Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) was conducted to determine the seroprevalence of predominant leptospirosis serovars. Out of 410 sera samples, 45 were found positive with seroprevalence of 10.98%, and serovar Pyrogenes followed by Shermani and Djasiman were found to be predominant. In ImmunoComb dot assay, out of 108 samples 53 (49.07%) were found positive for leptospiral antibodies. Overall seroprevalence was found to be 15.37% with MAT and ImmunoComb dot assay. A total of 6/66 (9.09%) blood and 4/66 (6.06%) urine samples were found positive by PCR using Primers lep1 & lep2 and LipL32 F and R showing amplicon band length at 331 bp and 242 bp, respectively. The overall prevalence of leptospirosis was found to be 16.59% by MAT, ImmunoComb and PCR. The risk factor analysis using a multivariable logistic model revealed that animals' clinical status ( $\chi^2=7.7$ ,  $p<0.01$  with odds ratio[OR] 0.45), walking and other activities in the surrounding forest ( $\chi^2=11.7$ ,  $p<0.01$  with OR 5.49), sanitation of dog and housing area ( $\chi^2=14.04$ ,  $p<0.01$  with OR 5.69) and owners own house/land ( $\chi^2=4.42$ ,  $p<0.05$  with OR 2.68), were significantly associated risk factors with the occurrence of the disease. Further investigation must be taken to determine the serovars responsible for occurrence of the disease and its associated risk factors

**Key words:** Canine leptospirosis, Molecular detection, Seroprevalence, South Gujarat.

*Ind J Vet Sci and Biotech* (2023): 10.48165/ijvsbt.19.3.13

## INTRODUCTION

Leptospirosis is a growing global public health concern due to its increasing prevalence in developing and developed countries (Ahmad *et al.*, 2005; Vijayachari *et al.*, 2008; Pratt *et al.*, 2017). It is a significant zoonotic disease brought on by pathogenic *Leptospira* spirochetes, which are distributed worldwide in various hosts. Numerous mammalian species, including feral, farm and pet animals serve as maintenance hosts (natural carriers) for this disease (Levett, 2001), while humans serve as incidental hosts (Ko *et al.*, 2009). Domestic animals such as cattle, pigs, goats, sheep, dogs and horses have been infected with the disease. The reservoir hosts, such as rodents, spread the disease either directly or indirectly through contaminated urine in water, feed, and soil (Schneider *et al.*, 2015). This disease affects farmers, veterinarians, butchers, abattoir workers, rodent control workers and other vocations that need frequent contact with animals. As a result, Leptospirosis is an occupational threat for them.

*Leptospira* organism does not multiply outside of host. Their survival is very crucial and depends on the environmental conditions in which they are found. *Leptospira* are sensitive to drying, high temperature and pH changes can be fatal (Bierque *et al.*, 2020). In India, leptospirosis is known

<sup>1</sup>Department of Veterinary Microbiology, College of Veterinary Science & Animal Husbandry, Kamdhenu University, Navsari, Gujarat, India.

<sup>2</sup>ICAR-NIVEDI, Ramagondanahalli, Post Box No. 6450, Yelahanka, Bengaluru-560064, Karnataka, India

<sup>3</sup>Nandini Veterinary Hospital, Opp. Children Traffic Training Park, Ghod Dod Road, Surat – 395001, Gujarat, India.

**Corresponding Author:** Dharmesh R. Patel, Department of Veterinary Microbiology, College of Veterinary Science & Animal Husbandry, Kamdhenu University, Navsari, Gujarat, India, e-mail: vetdharmesh74@yahoo.com

**How to cite this article:** Kanthala, S., Patel, D.R., Balamurugan, V., Makwana, P.M., Parasana, D.K., Chaudhary, P.S., & Kalyani, I.H. (2023). Seroprevalence and Molecular Detection of Canine Leptospirosis in and around Navsari, South Gujarat, . *Ind J Vet Sci and Biotech*. 19(3), 58-64.

**Source of support:** Nil

**Conflict of interest:** The authors declare that there is no conflict of interest.

**Submitted** 03/03/2023 **Accepted** 29/03/2023 **published** 10/05/2023

to be an endemic illness (Vijayachari *et al.*, 2008; Himani *et al.*, 2013). The majority of leptospirosis outbreaks are recorded from the coastal areas of West Bengal, Orissa, Kerala, Tamil

Nadu, Karnataka, Maharashtra, Gujarat and the Andaman Islands (Himani *et al.*, 2013). In these areas, the highest rates occur during the monsoon season. Canine leptospirosis is more common during the rainy season, when there is a lot of stagnant water and swampy situations. Direct touch, stagnant water, polluted urine, contaminated water, plants, soils, and contaminated food are the most common ways for dogs to become infected. To prevent the illness, vaccines for dogs are available (Desai *et al.*, 2020), though vaccinated dogs were typically diagnosed with leptospirosis caused by non-vaccinal serovars (Abhinay *et al.*, 2012). Prior to 1960, most clinical cases of canine leptospirosis were thought to be caused by *L. interrogans* serovars *icterohaemorrhagiae* and *canicola*, characterized by acute haemorrhagic diathesis, icterus, or uraemia (Brown *et al.*, 1996).

An early diagnosis of the disease allows for the development of a more effective treatment plan and increases the likelihood of recovery. Due to the ambiguity of disease recurrence patterns, disease may go untreated and dog owners may be unaware of vaccination requirements, resulting in a lack of complete immunization coverage (Desai *et al.*, 2020). However, there is paucity of research data on prevalence as well as sero-incidence study in dogs in Southern Gujarat. Thus, keeping in view on global impact, paucity of published reports and clinical significance, it was planned to investigate the occurrence of leptospirosis in dogs in and around Navsari district of Southern Gujarat.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Selection of Animals

Dogs presented to Veterinary Clinical Complex (VCC), College of Veterinary Science & A.H., Navsari and Nandini Veterinary Hospital, Surat (South Gujarat, India) with clinical history of any one of the clinical signs of leptospirosis mentioned in the questionnaire, and information regarding age, sex, breed of dog, owners' details, locality and presence of rodents etc. were also filled in the proforma.

### Collection and Processing of Samples

Blood samples were collected aseptically from cephalic or saphenous vein of dogs in EDTA vials (K<sub>2</sub>E Vacuette) and clot activator vials (BD Vacutainer). Blood samples were stored at 2 to 8°C refrigerated temperature till further use. The serum was collected from clot activator vials in screw capped plastic vials and was stored at -20°C temperature till further use. The

sera samples were collected from all 410 dogs under study and were subjected to Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) and ImmunoComb test at NIVEDI, Bengaluru.

Urine samples were collected with commercially available sterile container (5 mL). Voided midstream urine was collected in container through catheterization or manually from males and females, and transported to laboratory as quickly as possible. Approximately 1 mL of phosphate buffered saline was added to urine sample to maintain alkalinity of the sample. Samples were then stored at -20°C temperature till further use.

### Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) and ImmunoComb Test

The MAT was performed for the detection of *Leptospira* agglutinating antibodies as per the procedure of Faine *et al.* (1999) using a battery of 20 reference *Leptospira* serovars covering 18 serogroups preserved at NIVEDI, Bengaluru, It was performed in doubling dilutions, starting from a dilution of 1 in 25. Positive samples were titrated up to end titres. A MAT titre of ≥ 1:50 was considered as positive reactor to monitor associated epidemiological factors.

The MAT seropositive samples (1:50) of dogs were further tested for ImmunoComb - a modified ELISA - assay to determine the antibody titre to different pathogenic serovars of *Leptospira interrogans* i.e., *L. icterohaemorrhagiae* (Copenhageni and RGA), *L. canicola*, *L. pomona* and *L. grippityphosa*. It was done by following the manufacture's instruction manual.

### Molecular Assay

Genomic DNA was extracted from 66 clinical samples (66- each blood and urine) by using DNeasy® Blood & Tissue Kit, Qiagen by following manufacture's protocol. PCR was carried out in a final reaction mixture of 20 µL with 10 µL (2X) Master mix, 5 µL DNA template, 1 µL each forward and reverse primer and 3 µL Nuclease Free Water. The leptospira genus specific (Lep 1/2) and pathogenic primers (LipL32 F/R) were used for the detection of *Leptospira* (Table 1) (Merien *et al.*, 1992; Stoddard *et al.*, 2009). The protocol used for the PCR amplification is given in Table 2. Four µL of the PCR product was mixed with 1 µL of 5X gel loading buffer and checked on 2.0% agarose gel containing ethidium bromide along with 100 bp DNA molecular weight marker (Gelipilot® Cat. No. 239045, Qiagen) at constant 80V for 30 min in 0.5X TBE buffer. The amplified product was visualized as a single compact

**Table 1:** Details of the primers used for conventional PCR

Target gene	Primer sequence 5'-3'	Primer length	Product length (bp)	Reference
16s rRNA	(Lep1) GGCGGCGCGTCTTAAACATG	20	331 bp	(Merien <i>et al.</i> , 1992)
(Genus specific)	(Lep2) TTCCCCCATTGAGCAAGATT	21		
LipL32	(LipL32-F) AAG CAT TAC CGC TTG TGG TG	20	242 bp	(Stoddard <i>et al.</i> , 2009)
(Pathogenic gene specific)	(LipL32-R) GAA CTC CCA TTT CAG CGA TT	20		

band of expected size under UV light and documented by gel documentation system.

**Table 2:** Steps and conditions of the thermal cycling for 16s RNA and LipL32 gene PCR

Stage	Temperature	Time	Cycles
Initial denaturation	94°C	5 min	1 cycle
Denaturation	94°C	1 min	
Annealing	57°C	1 min	40 cycles
Extension	72°C	1 min	
Final extension	72°C	10 min	1 cycle

**Statistical Analysis**

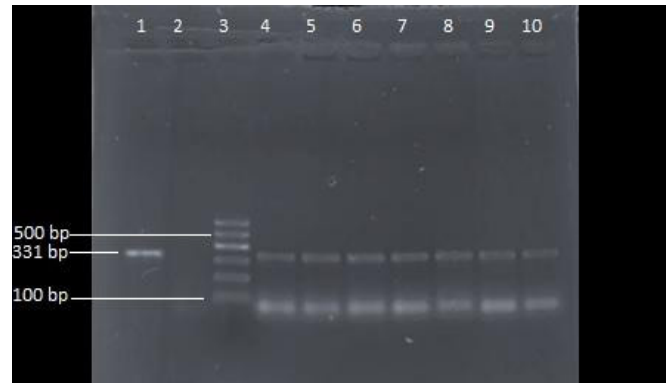
Data generated from laboratory investigations and questionnaire surveys were coded and recorded using Microsoft® Excel 2016. The Chi-square test and odds ratio were calculated using the IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, version 22 (IBM Corp., Armonk, NY, USA) to determine the associated risk factors. Differences among groups of each factor were considered significant at  $p < 0.05$  and highly significant at  $p < 0.01$  for all parameters tested.

**RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

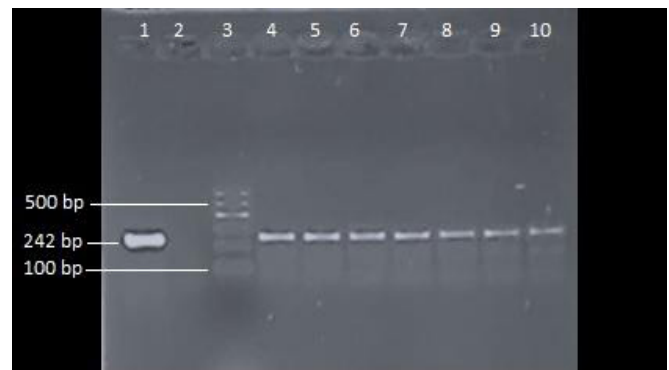
Among 410 sera samples of dogs tested, 45 samples had antibodies against at least one serogroup of *Leptospira* (MAT Titre  $\geq 1:50$ ). Serovars found in our study were Pyrogenes (24.40%), Shermani (22.20%), Djasiman (20.00%), Hurstbridge (17.80%), Canicola (15.60%), Grippytyphosa (15.60%), Panama (13.30%), Ballum (11.10%), Javanica (4.40%), Icterohaemorrhagiae (2.20%), and Lai (2.20%). Seroprevalence of leptospirosis by MAT was found to be 10.98%, whereas Godhani (2021) observed 53.13% seroprevalence in Navsari. Many authors reported a wide range of seroprevalence in different cities of the country with lowest overall prevalence (7.07%) in Izatnagar, Delhi, Paramilitary forces and Chennai (Kumar *et al.*, 2009), and highest (75.44%) in Thrissur, Kerala (Abhinay *et al.*, 2012). The predominant serovars present in our study were Pyrogens, Shermani and Djasiman, which were in accordance with Patil *et al.* (2014), who reported that Pyrogenes was found to be most prevalent serovar followed by the Icterohaemorrhagiae in Mumbai, while Godhani (2021) reported Pomona (70.58%) and Grippytyphosa (11.76%) predominant in and around Navsari. Amrutha *et al.* (2019) summarized that serovar Pyrogenes was highly prevalent followed by Australis, Grippytyphosa, Icterohaemorrhagiae, Tarasovi and Javanica. Contrary to this, Meera (2016) reported Javanica as the most predominant serovar in Tiruchirappalli, Tamil Nadu, while Abdullathief *et al.* (2018) observed serovars *L. interrogans* serovar Australis followed by serovar Autumnalis and Canicola in Mannuthy, Kerala. The difference might be due to difference in the amount of sample size, geography, location of kennel or its (dog) location and the number of serovars included in the MAT.

In this study, 108 MAT positive as well as some apparently healthy dogs samples were further analysed by ImmunoComb test for antibody where 49.07 % (53/108) were found positive. Desai *et al.* (2020) noted 36.95% seroprevalence in dogs in and around Navsari, Gujarat, whereas Tuemmers *et al.* (2013) found 21.30 % seropositivity in Temuco city, Chile, and Ojha *et al.* (2018) reported 11.40 % seroprevalence in Kathmandu valley, Nepal. Seroprevalence rate in our study is considerably higher than previous studies. This might be due to incorporation of more clinically suspected and MAT positive samples in our study. Overall seroprevalence was assessed in and around Navsari district by Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT) and Canine *Leptospira* Antibody Test (IgG based Immuno Comb Antibody test) (Positive in either of the test is considered) and said to be 15.37% (63/410).

Further 66 clinically suspected samples (66 each of blood and urine) were subjected to PCR, in which six out of 66 blood samples (9.09%) and four of 66 urine samples (6.06%) were found positive with lep1/lep2 primers having amplicon size of 331 bp (Fig. 1). All PCR positive samples tested with lep1/lep2 primers were screened with pathogenic specific LipL32 primers having amplicon size of 242 bp (Fig. 2) meant for pathogenic leptospires.



**Fig. 1:** Agarose gel electrophoresis showing 16S rRNA gene specific PCR product (331 bp) amplified with Lep1 & Lep2 Lane 1 Positive control, Lane 2 Negative control, Lane 3 DNA Ladder of 100 bp, Lane 4-10 Field samples



**Fig. 2:** Agarose gel electrophoresis showing LipL32 gene specific PCR product (242 bp) amplified with LipL32 F and LipL32 R primer Lane 1 Positive control, Lane 2 Negative control, Lane 3 DNA Ladder of 100 bp, Lane 4-10 Field samples



This is the first comprehensive study of overall prevalence of canine leptospirosis in and around Navsari in Gujarat. Overall prevalence of Leptospirosis in dogs was assessed in and around Navsari district by Microscopic Agglutination Test (MAT), Canine Leptospira Antibody Test (IgG based Immuno Comb Antibody test) and PCR. Out of 410 samples tested 68 samples were found positive in either of the test. Risk factor analysis using a multivariable logistic model (Table 3) in the present study revealed that statistically age, breed, sex, district and vaccination status of dogs has no correlation with occurrence of the disease. Whereas, animal clinical status ( $\chi^2=7.7$ ,  $p<0.01$  with odds ratio 0.45), walking and other

activities in the surrounding forest ( $\chi^2=11.7$ ,  $p<0.01$  with odds ratio 5.49), sanitation of dog and housing area ( $\chi^2=14.04$ ,  $p<0.01$  with odds ratio 5.69) and owners own house/land ( $\chi^2=4.42$ ,  $p<0.05$  with odds ratio 2.68) were found to be significantly associated risk factors with the occurrence of the disease according to the data collected from the owners.

In the present study, Pyrogenes was found to be the most predominant serovar followed by Shermani and Djasiman. Though the dogs were vaccinated, the serovar present in vaccine didn't provide cross protection against other leptospiral serovars. So, the serovars' which are endemic in a particular geographic area must be incorporated in the

**Table 3:** Multivariable logistic regression model to identify factors associated with leptospira positivity for dogs (n = 410)

Variable	Categories	Negative No. (%)	Positive No. (%)	OR (95% CI)	$\chi^2$	P value
<b>Age group</b>	0-1 Yr	11 (100)	0 (0)	Ref	4.87	0.3
	1-3 Yr	101 (85.59)	17 (14.41)	2.08 (0.76-5.67)		
	3-6 Yr	112 (84.21)	21 (15.79)	1.87 (0.7-4.97)		
	6-9 Yr	98 (80.99)	23 (19.01)	1.49 (0.56-3.95)		
	9 Yr or more	20 (74.07)	7 (25.93)	-		
<b>Sex</b>	Female	117 (84.17)	22 (15.83)	Ref	0.09	0.77
	Male	225 (83.03)	46 (16.97)	0.92 (0.53-1.6)		
<b>District</b>	Navsari	161 (85.64)	27 (14.36)	Ref	1.73	0.42
	Surat	179 (81.74)	40 (18.26)	2.24 (0.2-25.28)		
	Valsad	2 (66.67)	1 (33.33)	2.98 (0.26-34.03)		
<b>Location/Area</b>	Rural	59 (83.10)	12 (16.90)	Ref	0.01	0.94
	Urban	283 (83.48)	56 (16.52)	0.97 (0.49-1.93)		
<b>Water bodies in the vicinity</b>	No	271 (83.13)	55 (16.87)	Ref	0.09	0.76
	Yes	71 (84.52)	13 (15.48)	0.9 (0.47-1.74)		
<b>Owners own house/land</b>	No	60 (92.31)	5 (7.69)	Ref	4.42	0.04*
	Yes	282 (81.74)	63 (18.26)	2.68 (1.03-6.95)		
<b>Condition of area surroundings the owners house</b>	Dry	289 (84.26)	54 (15.74)	Ref	1.08	0.3
	Wet	53 (79.10)	14 (20.90)	1.41 (0.73-2.73)		
<b>Rivers/Streams nearby</b>	No	320 (84.21)	60 (15.79)	Ref	2.38	0.12
	Yes	22 (73.33)	8 (26.67)	1.94 (0.83-4.56)		

(Table continued)

(Table continued)

Variable	Categories	Negative No. (%)	Positive No. (%)	OR (95% CI)	$\chi^2$	P value
<b>House/Land location</b>	High Land	80 (83.33)	16 (16.67)	Ref		
	Low land	262 (83.71)	51 (16.29)	0.99 (0.54-1.83)	0.01	0.93
<b>Rat/ Rodents infestation/ presence</b>	No	72 (83.72)	14 (16.28)	Ref		
	Yes	269 (83.28)	54 (16.72)	0.97 (0.51-1.84)	0.01	0.92
<b>Housing pattern of the animal</b>	Indoor	221 (84.67)	40 (15.33)	Ref		
	Outdoor	121 (81.21)	28 (18.79)	1.28 (0.75-2.18)	0.82	0.36
<b>Sanitation of the dog and housing area</b>	High	1 (50.00)	1 (50.00)	Ref		
	less	11 (55.00)	9 (45.00)	1.22 (0.07-22.4)	14.04	<0.001**
<b>Dog Housing area condition</b>	Moderate	330 (85.05)	58 (14.95)	5.69 (0.35-92.25)		
	Dry	332 (83.84)	64 (16.16)	Ref		
<b>Contact with other animal/ Presence of other animals in house</b>	Wet	10 (71.43)	4 (28.57)	2.08 (0.63-6.82)	1.51	0.22
	Yes (dogs)	58 (86.57)	9 (13.43)	Ref		
<b>Exposure to rain water/ flood water</b>	No	283 (82.99)	58 (17.01)	6.44 (0.37-112.46)	0.52	0.47
	Yes	162 (84.82)	29 (15.18)	Ref		
<b>Walking and other activities in forest area</b>	No	180 (82.19)	39 (17.81)	1.21 (0.72-2.05)	0.51	0.48
	Yes	335 (84.60)	61 (15.40)	Ref		
<b>Activities in public park or gardens</b>	Yes	7 (50.00)	7 (50.00)	5.49 (1.86-16.21)	11.7	<0.001**
	No	149 (82.32)	32 (17.68)	Ref		
<b>Recent Visits to veterinarian/clinic</b>	Yes	192 (84.21)	36 (15.79)	0.87 (0.52-1.47)	0.26	0.61
	No	220 (85.94)	36 (14.06)	Ref		
<b>Previous Leptospirosis incidence history to the animal</b>	Yes	122 (79.22)	32 (20.78)	1.6 (0.95-2.71)	3.14	0.08
	No	338 (84.08)	64 (15.92)	Ref		
<b>Status of Leptospirosis vaccination</b>	Yes	4 (57.14)	3 (42.86)	3.96 (0.87-18.12)	3.64	0.06
	Not Vaccinated	40 (80.00)	10 (20.00)	Ref		
<b>Clinical status of animal</b>	Vaccinated	302 (83.89)	58 (16.11)	1.38 (0.65-2.92)	0.48	0.49
	Apparently Healthy	281 (85.93)	46 (14.07)	Ref		
	Symptomatic/ Suspected	60 (73.17)	22 (26.83)	0.45 (0.25-0.8)	7.7	0.01*

(Table continued)



Variable	Categories	Negative No. (%)	Positive No. (%)	OR (95% CI)	$\chi^2$	P value
Months since vaccinated	0-6	10 (12.99)	67 (87.01)	Ref	2	0.37
	6-12	45 (16.36)	230 (83.64)	2.87 (0.64-12.96)		
	>12	3 (30.00)	7 (70.00)	2.19 (0.55-8.79)		
Sample collected on which day of symptom	0-3 days	18 (12.24)	129 (87.76)	Ref	4.99	0.17
	4-7 days	40 (18.10)	181 (81.90)	7.17 (0.43-119.68)		
	8-21 days	7 (23.33)	23 (76.67)	4.53 (0.28-73.88)		
	>22 days	1 (50.00)	1 (50.00)	3.29 (0.18-59.6)		

$\chi^2$ : Chi-Squared \*p-value at 5 % significance \*\*p-value at 1% significance, OR – Odds Ratio, CI – Confidence Interval.

vaccine to decrease the occurrence of the disease in that area. The symptoms of leptospirosis in animals are nonspecific. Early identification of carrier animals as well as information on the shedding condition are key to prevent the transmission of leptospiral infection to other animals and human beings.

### CONCLUSIONS

Leptospira seropositivity prevalence with inclusions / involvement of emerging serovars in dogs suggest that leptospirosis could be a major public health and animal health problem that needs appropriate attention in respective areas of study in Southern Gujarat to reduce the occurrence of disease. Isolation and identification of infecting serovars should be emphasized along with serodiagnosis to better understand the prevalent serovars for appropriate control strategies. Awareness of leptospirosis disease among health communities and public is much needed.

### ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We are grateful to ICAR-NIVEDI staff for constant support and timely help during research work. Our sincere gratitude to staff of Dept. of Veterinary Medicine, Kamdhenu University, Navsari as well as Dr. P.S. Chaudhary, Nandini Veterinary Hospital, Surat for untiring support and efforts.

### REFERENCES

Abdullathief, K.A., Usha, N.P., Ajithkumar, S., Alex, P.C., & Joseph, S. (2018). Clinico-pathological studies on leptospirosis in dogs in Thrissur. *Journal of Veterinary and Animal Sciences*, 49(1), 9-13.

Abhinay, G., Joseph, S., & Ambily, R. (2012). Seroprevalence of canine leptospirosis. *Indian Veterinary Journal*, 89(2), 72.

Ahmad, S.N., Shah, S., & Ahmad, F.H. (2005). Laboratory diagnosis of leptospirosis. *Journal of Postgraduate Medicine*, 51(3), 195.

Amrutha, C.N., Bipin, K.C., Deepa, P.M., Vijaykumar, K., & Joseph, S. (2019). Prevalence of *Leptospira interrogans* sero var pyrogenes

among clinically ill dogs in Wayanad district. *Journal of Veterinary and Animal Sciences*, 50(1), 71-73.

Bierque, E., Thibeaux, R., Girault, D., Soupé-Gilbert, M.E., & Goarant, C. (2020). A systematic review of *Leptospira* in water and soil environments. *PLoS One*, 15(1), e0227055.

Brown, C.A., Roberts, A.W., Miller, M.A., Davis, D.A., Brown, S.A., Bolin, C. A., & Miller-Liebl, D. (1996). *Leptospira interrogans* serovar grippotyphosa infection in dogs. *Journal of the American Veterinary Medical Association*, 209(7), 1265-1267.

Desai, D., Makwana, P., Solanki, J., Kalyani, I., Patel, D., Mehta, S., & Parmar, S. (2020). Detection and Prevalence of Canine Leptospirosis from Navsari District of South Gujarat, India. *Microbiology Research Journal International*, 30(9),103-110.

Dharanesh, C.D., Suryanarayan, T., Veeregowda, B.M., Rathnamma, D., Gajendragad, M.R., Prabhudas, K., & Yathiraj, S. (2009). Seroprevalence of leptospirosis in dogs from Bangalore. *Indian Journal of Animal Sciences*, 79(2), 159-160.

Faine, S., Adler, B., Bolin, C., & Perolat, P. (1999). Clinical leptospirosis in humans. In: *Leptospira and Leptospirosis*. Medi-Science Melbourne, Australia, p. 272-277.

Godhani, R. (2021). Sero-clinical diagnostic study of leptospirosis in dogs. *M.V.Sc. dissertation*, Kamdhenu University, Navsari, Gujarat, India.

Himani, D., Suman, M.K., & Mane, B.G. (2013). Epidemiology of leptospirosis: an Indian perspective. *Journal of Food Borne Zoonotic Diseases*, 1(1), 6-13.

Ko, A. I., Goarant, C., & Picardeau, M. (2009). Leptospira: the dawn of the molecular genetics era for an emerging zoonotic pathogen. *Nature Reviews Microbiology*, 7(10), 736-747.

Kumar, A., Sinha, D.K., Chaudhury, P., Shankar, H., & Srivastava, S.K. (2009). Comparative studies on seroepidemiology of canine leptospirosis by micro agglutination test (MAT) and recombinant Lip L32 ELISA. *Indian Journal of Animal Science*, 79(11), 1089-1094

Levett, P.N. (2001). Leptospirosis. *Clinical Microbiology*, 14, 296-326.

Meera, J. (2016). Prevalence of Leptospirosis: A study among canines and canine pet owners and other occupational risk groups. *Doctoral dissertation*. Chennai Medical College Hospital and Research Centre, Trichy, India.

- Merien, F., Amouriaux, P., Perolat, P., Baranton, G., & Saint Girons, I. (1992). Polymerase chain reaction for detection of *Leptospira* spp. in clinical samples. *Journal of Clinical Microbiology*, 30(9), 2219-2224.
- Ojha, K.C., Singh, D.K., Kaphle, K., Shah, Y., & Pant, D.K. (2018). Sero-prevalence of leptospirosis and differentiation in blood parameters between positive and negative cases in dogs of Kathmandu Valley. *Transactions of The Royal Society of Tropical Medicine and Hygiene*, 112(8), 378-382
- Patil, D., Dahake, R., Roy, S., Mukherjee, S., Chowdhary, A., & Deshmukh, R. (2014). Prevalence of leptospirosis among dogs and rodents and their possible role in human leptospirosis from Mumbai, India. *Indian Journal of Medical Microbiology*, 32(1), 64-67.
- Pratt, N., Conan, A., & Rajeev, S. (2017). *Leptospira* seroprevalence in domestic dogs and cats on the Caribbean Island of Saint Kitts. *Veterinary Medicine International*, 2017, 1-6.
- Schneider, M.C., Najera, P., Pereira, M.M., Machado, G., dos Anjos, C.B., Rodrigues, R.O., & Espinal, M.A. (2015). Leptospirosis in Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil: an ecosystem approach in the animal-human interface. *Plos Neglected Tropical Diseases*, 9(11), e0004095.
- Stoddard, R.A., Gee, J.E., Wilkins, P.P., McCaustland, K., & Hoffmaster, A.R. (2009). Detection of pathogenic *Leptospira* spp. through TaqMan polymerase chain reaction targeting the LipL32 gene. *Diagnostic Microbiology and Infectious Disease*, 64, 247-255.
- Tuermers, C., Luders, C., Rojas, C., Espinoza, R., & Castillo, C. (2013). Prevalencia de leptospirosis en perros vagos capturados en la ciudad de Temuco, 2011. *Revista Chilena de infectología*, 30(3), 252-257.
- Vijayachari, P., Sugunan, A. P., & Shriram, A. N. (2008). Leptospirosis: an emerging global public health problem. *Journal of Biosciences*, 33(4), 557-569.

