Original Article

Prevalence of zoonotic helminths in Italian house dogs

Francesco La Torre¹, Angela Di Cesare², Giulia Simonato³, Rudi Cassini³, Donato Traversa², Antonio Frangipane di Regalbono³

¹ Zoetis Italia S.r.l., Rome, Italy

² Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Teramo, Piano d'Accio, Teramo, Italy

³ Department of Animal Medicine, Production and Health, University of Padua, Padua, Italy

Abstract

Introduction: Dogs may act as potential sources of zoonotic parasites, e.g. intestinal helminths like *Toxocara* spp., *Ancylostoma* spp., *Echinococcus* spp. In particular circumstances, the environment contaminated by parasitic elements represents a source of infection for people and animals. The present study has evaluated the presence of zoonotic helminths in house dogs from central and north-eastern Italy.

Methodology: Stool samples from 493 dogs were examined by a qualitative copromicroscopic technique and differences in prevalence of zoonotic parasites were statistically examined in relation to canine individual data.

Results: 48/493 (9.7%) were positive for at least one parasite. Helminths recovered were *Trichuris vulpis* (5.5%), *Toxocara canis* (4.3%), *Ancylostoma* spp. (0.6%) and *Eucoleus aerophilus* (0.4%), while no cestodes were detected. Age and living with other dogs resulted risk factors for *T. canis* infection.

Conclusions: The health risk associated with the occurrence of parasitic nematodes in privately owned dogs, along with the current anthelmintic treatment plans, are discussed.

Key words: Owned dogs; helminths; zoonoses; public health, Italy.

J Infect Dev Ctries 2018; 12(8):666-672. doi:10.3855/jidc.9865

(Received 23 October 2017 – Accepted 18 June 2018)

Copyright © 2018 La Torre *et al.* This is an open-access article distributed under the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution, and reproduction in any medium, provided the original work is properly cited.

Introduction

Dogs may be infected by several species of zoonotic helminths, being intestinal nematodes such as ascarids and ancylostomatids, the most globally distributed [1,2]. Importantly, besides these nematodes, cestodes inhabiting the gut of dogs, e.g. *Echinococcus* granulosus or *Dipylidium caninum*, have also the potential to infect people [3]. Infected dogs shed parasitic eggs with their faeces and contaminate the environment, i.e. the most important source of infections for people and animals *via* the faecal-oral route [2,4].

The worldwide distributed roundworm *Toxocara canis* induces intestinal and respiratory diseases in dogs, that become infected through vertical transmissions, or ingesting infectious eggs from the environment or tissues of paratenic hosts [2,5]. A number of clinical syndromes may occur when people inadvertently ingest larvated eggs or raw or undercooked meat of paratenic hosts [6-8]. The most important syndromes are "visceral *larva migrans*" (VLM), involving organs like liver or lungs, "ocular *larva migrans*" (OLM), where damages to eye and optic nerve occur [6,9], and neurotoxocarosis [10], when the

central nervous system is involved. In the recent years it became also clear that infection of children with *Toxocara* may be related with reduced cognitive function [11,12]. Thus, the frequent involvement of children and toddlers as subjects at risk of VLM and OLM is of major sanitary relevance [13].

Different hookworms may infect the dog gut, causing a potentially life-threatening disease especially in puppies. Some of them may cause zoonotic skin, enteric and pulmonary infections. The environmental larvae of the globally spread Ancylostoma caninum, i.e. one of the most pathogenic parasites of companion animals [14,15], infect a suitable host by actively penetrating the skin and/or via the oral route. The role of A. caninum as a cause of cutaneous larva migrans is still questioned [16], but in humans this parasite is associated to folliculitis, ephemeral and papular/pustular eruptions, penetration of muscle fibers, lung infiltrates and eosinophilic enteritis [17-20].

The canine whipworm *Trichuris vulpis* is another widespread nematode inducing intestinal damages in dogs. The ubiquitous presence of this parasite is due to the high resistance of its eggs in the environment even in harsh conditions [1]. Although cases of VLM

syndromes and patent intestinal infections have been hypothesized to occur in people, the zoonotic potential of *T. vulpis* is doubtful [1,21]. A definitive evidence of the zoonotic role of dog whipworms is yet to be provided and *T. vulpis* is currently not included among causes of human intestinal infections and/or VLM syndromes.

The most important zoonotic tapeworms infecting the intestine of dogs are Echinococcus granulosus and Dipylidium caninum. Despite the globally distributed taeniid E. granulosus has a scarce pathogenic potential in dogs, it is responsible for human cystic echinococcosis (CE), a zoonotic disease of major public health importance [22]. This cestode is primarily transmitted in a synanthropic cycle where dogs are definitive hosts, and livestock, especially sheep, act as intermediate hosts [23]. Therefore, E. granulosus is highly prevalent in rural and sub-urban regions where livestock operations are present. In these settings, humans are at risk of CE when ingesting highly resistant eggs of E. granulosus shed by infected dogs via their faeces, from the environment or from the dog fur. The flea-transmitted tapeworm D. caninum also causes a most often subclinical intestinal infection in dogs. This tapeworm is transmitted to people through the accidental ingestion of infected adult fleas. Human infections are rare, but mostly children, one third of them being infants under 6 months old, are at risk of infection and may suffer of non-specific intestinal distress [24].

The prevalence of zoonotic helminths in owned dogs and the potential risks for human health have been worldwide investigated [25-31], but few surveys have been recently carried out in Italy [29,30,32]. Given the merit of a continuous update on parasite occurrence in dogs in contact with people, the present study evaluated the prevalence of zoonotic helminths in privately owned dogs from areas of central and north-eastern Italy where this info is outdated and incomplete [33].

Methodology

Study sites and sample collection

Thirteen veterinarian practices and clinics, six and seven located in Rome (site A, Central Italy) and Padua (site B, North-Eastern Italy) respectively, were enrolled in the study. Veterinarians in each site were asked to randomly collect faecal samples from privately owned dogs referred for routine procedures. In order to estimate the prevalence values, a minimum number of 196 individual faecal samples was foreseen in each city, considering infinite population size, maximum expected copromicroscopic prevalence, 5% maximum error desired, and 95% Confidence Interval (C.I.). The prevalence of 15% detected for *T. vulpis* in previous surveys in north-eastern Italy [33] was chosen as maximum expected value. Stool samples were individually identified, stored at refrigerated conditions and shipped by an express courier as soon as possible to the Parasitology Laboratory of the Department of Animal Medicine, Production and Health (University of Padua), where they were analysed within 48 hours.

Questionnaire

A questionnaire including signalment (e.g. city of provenance, age, gender, breed), anamnestic data (e.g. life-style as indoor or outdoor, cohabitation with other dogs, attendance of green public areas, intestinal distress), and number (from 1 to 4) of annual anthelmintic treatments planned by veterinarians, was filled for each study animal. Dogs that received an anthelmintic treatment within the previous three months were excluded from sampling.

Faecal examinations

All faecal samples were grossly examined for the presence of tapeworm segments or spontaneously expelled nematodes. Then, 2 grams of each stool sample were submitted to qualitative а copromicroscopic technique based on a double-step procedure with sedimentation followed by floatation in sodium-nitrate solution (specific gravity 1.3) [34]. Faeces were stirred in 15 ml of water, and poured into a test tube using a tea strainer. After centrifugation (5 min at 2000 rpm), the sediment was stirred in flotation fluid, and centrifuged again. Then, the test tube was gently topped off with the flotation fluid leaving a convex meniscus at the top of the tube, a coverslip was carefully placed for at least 5 min on the top, and then placed on a clean slide for microscopy. Each sample was examined under 100x and 400x magnifications, and parasitic elements were morphologically and morphometrically identified according to existing keys [35,36].

Statistical analyses

Differences in prevalence of parasites were analysed in relation to individual signalment and anamnestic data (i.e. risk factors) by Pearson's Chisquared test or Fisher exact test (significance level p <0.05) using SPSS Statistics software, version 22.0.0 (IBM, New York, USA). Parasites with low prevalence values (i.e. below 3.0%) were not included in the statistical analysis.

Results

A total of 493 stool samples was collected, 257 in site A and 236 in site B. All data available on signalment and anamnesis of dogs are reported in Table 1.

No parasitic elements were isolated at the macroscopic examination, while the microscopic analysis revealed at least one parasite in 48 (9.7%) of the 493 examined samples, i.e. 23 (8.9%) in site A and 25 (10.6%) in site B (Table 2). The vast majority (44/48, 91.7%) of the positive animals had a monospecific infection, while four dogs examined in site B had a concurrent infection by *T. vulpis* and *T. canis* (3 dogs) and by *T. vulpis*, *T. canis* and *Ancylostoma* spp./*Uncinaria* spp. (1 dog).

Statistical analysis was performed for *T. vulpis* and *T. canis*, that showed prevalence values of 5.5% (27/493) and 4.3% (21/493), respectively. Other recorded intestinal helminths were ancylostomatids (3/493, 0.6%), while no samples were positive for cestodes. Eggs of the respiratory nematode *Eucoleus*

Table 1. Signalment and anamnestic data of examined dogs.

aerophilus were isolated in two dogs from site B (Table 2).

No significant differences in prevalence were found between dogs from site A and B, both for T. vulpis and T. canis (5.1% vs. 5.9% and 3.1% vs. 5.5%, respectively). The analysis of risk factors showed prevalence differences for T. vulpis and for T. canis. In particular, T. vulpis was significantly ($\chi^2 = 8.043$; p < (0.01) more present in crossbreed dogs (9.1%) than in pure-breed dogs (3.1%), while T. canis was more frequently ($\chi^2 = 6.059$; p < 0.05) detected in younger dogs (< 12 months, 8.7%) than in dogs belonging to the other two age-classes (1-5 years: 3.6%; > 5 years: 2.7%). Moreover, the infection prevalence value for T. *canis* was significantly ($\chi^2 = 5.244$; p < 0.05) higher in dogs living with other dogs (6.5%) than in animals living alone or with other animal species (2.2%). No other significant differences were recovered. With regard to worm control programs, 307 questionnaires were filled in, and annual (n = 170, 55.4%) or twice (n = 170, 55.4%)= 119, 38.8%) yearly anthelmintic treatments were indicated in most cases.

	Rome (site A)		Padua (site B)		Total	
Signalment data	n	%	n	%	n	%
Gender						
Male	120	47.6	112	48.9	232	48.2
Female	132	52.4	117	51.1	249	51.8
Total	252	100.0	229	100.0	481	100.0
Breed	n	%	n	%	n	%
Pure-breed	144	56.7	144	62.3	288	59.4
Cross-breed	110	43.3	87	37.7	197	40.6
Total	254	100.0	231	100.0	485	100.0
Age classes	n	%	n	%	n	%
<1 year	36	15.5	68	30.4	104	22.8
1-5 years	93	39.9	74	33.0	167	36.5
>5 years	104	44.6	82	36.6	186	40.7
Total	233	100.0	224	100.0	457	100.0
Anamnestic data						
Life-style	n	%	n	%	n	%
Indoor	170	69.1	62	26.6	232	48.4
Outdoor	76	30.9	171	73.4	247	51.6
Total	246	100.0	233	100.0	479	100.0
Cohabitation with other dogs	n	%	n	%	n	%
No	98	39.2	133	58.1	231	48.2
Yes	152	60.8	96	41.9	248	51.8
Total	250	100.0	229	100.0	479	100.0
Attendance of green public areas	n	%	n	%	n	%
No	26	10.5	63	27.2	89	18.6
Yes	221	89.5	169	72.8	390	81.4
Total	247	100.0	232	100.0	479	100.0
Intestinal distress	n	%	n	%	n	%
Yes	55	21.6	34	14.7	89	18.3
No	200	78.4	197	85.3	397	81.7
Total	255	100.0	231	100.0	486	100.0

	Rome	Rome (site A)		Padua (site B)		Total	
Copromicroscopic results	n	%	n	%	n	%	
Total samples	257	100.0	236	100.0	493	100.0	
Positive samples	23	8.9	25	10.6	48	9.7	
Trichuris vulpis	13	5.1	14	5.9	27	5.5	
Toxocara canis	8	3.1	13	5.5	21	4.3	
Ancylostomatids	2	0.8	1	0.4	3	0.6	
Eucoleus aerophilus	0	0	2	0.8	2	0.4	

Table 2. Intestinal helminth eggs in examined dogs.

Discussion

Companion animals are usually considered members of the family and the consequent psychophysical well-being of humans is widely described [7,37,38]. However, next to the benefits, there are potential health risks associated, for instance, to some canine zoonotic helminths of great significance for both veterinary medicine and public health [39]. The presence and distribution of canine intestinal helminths strictly depend by many factors, primarily by the investigated population, e.g. stray, kennelled or shelter, breeding, "neighbourhood" pets (i.e. free-ranging animals belonging to people living in the same neighbourhood), or privately owned dogs. In fact, dog lifestyle may significantly increase the risk of acquiring different diseases, including helminthoses, despite a generally acceptable veterinary care. This aspect also represents a key epizootiological factor in privately owned dogs that may contribute to the environmental contamination of recreational, public and urban areas with infective parasitic elements [5].

The overall helminth prevalence recorded in the present survey (9.7%) is in agreement with data recently reported in restricted areas of central and northwestern Italy [29,30,32]. Moreover, single infections were more frequent than mixed infections, as already reported in other studies [26,40,41]. The higher prevalence rates of T. vulpis and T. canis are probably related to the high resistance of their infectious eggs in the environment, and to the transplacental and transmammary transmission of ascarid larvae [2]. On the other side, the lower prevalence values detected for ancylostomatids may be due to the limited resistance of their infectious stages, i.e. filariform larvae present in the soil. This is the primary reason for why hookworms are spread in warm countries, especially where hygiene measures are poor and animals usually defecate on humid and unpaved soils. Therefore, prevention of human infection with both canine roundworms and hookworms is dependant from adequate hygiene measures (e.g. contact with the soil, hand and feet washings), and removal of dog faeces in areas where

animals usually defecate. Serological findings (seroprevalence of 1.6-14.5%) indicate that human infection with T. canis also occurs in Italy, with highest values in young subjects, adult epileptics, Strongyloides stercoralis-infected patients, and outdoors or soil related workers [42-44]. It is worthy of note that the presence of pets at home is not correlated with seroprevalence [45], while the most important factor that increases the seropositivity in human beings is represented by the habit of frequenting public soils contaminated with a high load of infectious Toxocara eggs [46]. These observations highlight that Toxocara infections in people mainly originate through a saprozoonotic route, i.e. accidental ingestion of embryonated eggs from the soil [47], while the presence of ascarid eggs on animal coats is a less likely source of infection. In fact, *Toxocara* eggs need about 2-6 weeks to become infective, they are strongly adhesive on the fur and difficult to ingest, most of them are not viable, and several fur grams should be swallowed to cause infection [2,7,8].

In general, T. vulpis is among the most frequent parasitic helminth in dog populations, including privately owned animals. The zoonotic role of this trichuroid whipworm is debated among the scientific community, because there is no an ultimate microscopic and molecular evidence on the ability of T. vulpis in causing intestinal infections in humans [1]. On the contrary, in this survey the zoonotic lungworm E. aerophilus (syn. Capillaria aerophila) was detected in two dogs from the site B. This respiratory parasite may cause subclinical infections or various respiratory signs in cats and dogs [48], while bronchitis, pulmonary carcinoma-like masses and several symptoms (coughing, mucoid sputum, presence of blood in the mucus, fever, dyspnoea) have been described in humans [49].

The absence of tapeworms should be considered in relation to the investigated dog population. In fact, the typical "prey-predator" life cycle of the majority of cestodes (except the flea-borne *D. caninum*) is very unlikely to occur in privately owned animals living in metropolitan areas. Furthermore, a single copromicroscopic examination has very low sensitivity to detect tapeworms, due to the inconstant elimination of proglottids and the undistributed eggs in the faeces [50].

The association between *T. vulpis* and breed may be due to other factors that have not been investigated, e.g. by different management between cross and pure-breed dogs. The association between *T. canis* and age is not surprising [51] and likely due to the immature immune system and the vertical transmissions in puppies [52]. Moreover, the higher prevalences of *T. canis* in coliving dogs confirms the higher risk of exposure for these animals due to the limited area contaminated by *Toxocara* eggs and the high environmental resistance.

The absence of differences in parasite prevalence between dogs from site A and site B suggests that privately owned dogs receive in both cities similar worm control programs. At the same time the overall prevalence of zoonotic nematodes recorded in this survey in site B is similar to that (24/156; 15.4%) observed for the same parasites about 10 years ago [33]. To the Authors' knowledge, no previous data on prevalence of zoonotic helminths in owned dogs have recently been generated for site A, thus no any comparison is possible. Anyway, with regard to worm control programs, questionnaires filled by veterinarians showed that one or two anthelmintic treatments per year were suggested in the majority of cases. These findings are not consistent with guidelines by the European Scientific Counsel Companion Animal Parasites (ESCCAP) [53]. Specifically, ESCCAP Guideline 1 (2017) advises that 1-2 treatments/year for Toxocara spp. do not reduce the risk of patent infections while a treatment frequency of at least 4 times per year is a general recommendation. This suggestion might be applied also for T. vulpis, whose eggs, similarly to ascarids, have a very high resistance in the environment, thus favouring re-infections. When no regular anthelmintic treatments are applied, monthly or 3 monthly faecal examinations are proposed by ESCCAP Guideline 1 (2017) as a feasible alternative. In a recent survey (Traversa and Frangipane di Regalbono, unpublished results), performed in the city of Rome and Padua by a questionnaire delivered to the dog owners, a very few percentage of respondents declared to bring their dog more than once a year to the veterinarian for faecal examinations. This means 3.7% (3/82) and 14.1% (31/220) for each town, respectively, while the majority affirmed to perform a faecal examination once a year (36.6% and 21.8%) "only if required" (42.7% and 45.9%) or never (17.1% and 18.2%). Moreover, out of a total of 469 questionnaires administered in the same survey to both dog- and nondog owners, only 51 (10.9%) were aware on the potential transmission of parasites via animal faeces, with no significant differences between the two categories of respondents. These findings prove that people often have a low awareness of the health risks associated with canine zoonotic helminths, along with a limited willingness of pet owners to engage correct collaborations with veterinarians, towards regular copromicroscopic anthelmintic therapy and examinations. It is crucial to emphasize that the closecontact with dogs infected by intestinal helminths should not be considered as a relevant risk for human beings, and there is no association between dog ownership and infection occurrence in humans [13,32,54]. Nonetheless, infected owned dogs could contaminate the environment and act as an indirect source of infection for children or other categories (e.g., retarded mentally patients, adult epileptics, co-infected or immunodeficient patients, soil related workers), that are more exposed to the risk of infection mainly due to their behaviour [55].

Conclusion

In this study the 9.7% of the examined dog faeces was positive for at least one helminth species, i.e. T. vulpis, T. canis, Ancylostoma spp. and E. aerophilus, and all these species, except for T. vulpis, are potentially zoonotic. On the other hand. administered questionnaires revealed that number of anthelmintic treatments per year usually performed are lower than what recommended by ESCCAP and not sufficient to reduce the risk of patent infections. Dogs infected by intestinal helminths contaminate the environment and act as an indirect source of infection for people, in particular children and immunocompromised subjects. Prevention of dog and human infections necessitates regular check-up of animals and adoption of adequate hygienic measures including the removal of faeces from soil, to avoid the environmental dispersion of parasitic elements.

In conclusion, it is mandatory to trust that ownership of companion dogs is beneficial and safe as long as animals are healthy. However, there is still much to do in terms of continuing education to enhance awareness of pet owners and the general public, and collaboration with veterinary practitioners in constant epidemiological vigilance and appropriate control measures, to prevent intestinal helminth infections in dogs and minimize the risk of their transmission to people.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to all veterinarians who have collaborated in the study. Rome: Francesca Carocci, Marco Colaceci, Angelo De Luca, Fabio Di Natale, Costantino Melis, Ludovico Pozzi, Sylvie Michele Renaud. Padua: Stelvio Boaretto, Silvia Bortolini, Edoardo La Cava, Andrea Mazzocchin, Lucia Morosin, Ferdinando Zanin, Maria Antonia Zerbetto.

References

- 1. Traversa D (2011) Are we paying too much attention to cardiopulmonary nematodes and neglecting old-fashioned worms like *Trichuris vulpis*? Parasit Vectors 4: 32.
- 2. Traversa D (2012) Pet roundworms and hookworms: a continuing need for global worming. Parasit Vectors 5: 91.
- Soriano SV, Pierangeli NB, Roccia I, Bergagna HFJ, Lazzarini LE, Celescinco A, Saiz MS, Kossman A, Contreras PA, Arias C, Basualdo JA (2010) A wide diversity of zoonotic intestinal parasites infects urban and rural dogs in Neuquén, Patagonia, Argentina. Vet Parasitol 167: 81–85.
- Okoye IC, Obiezue NR, Okorie CE, Ofoezie IE (2011) Epidemiology of intestinal helminth parasites in stray dogs from markets in south-eastern Nigeria. J Helminthol 85: 415– 420.
- Traversa D, Frangipane di Regalbono A, Di Cesare A, La Torre F, Drake J, Pietrobelli M (2014) Environmental contamination by canine geohelminths. Parasit Vectors 7: 67.
- Despommier D (2003) Toxocariasis: clinical aspects, epidemiology, medical ecology, and molecular aspects. Clin Microbiol Rev 16: 265–272.
- Overgaauw PAM, Van Zutphen L, Hoek D, Yaya FO, Roelfsema J, Pinelli E, Van Knapen F, Kortbeek LM (2009) Zoonotic parasites in fecal samples and fur from dogs and cats in The Netherlands. Vet Parasitol 163: 115–122.
- Roddie G, Stafford P, Holland C, Wolfe A (2008) Contamination of dog hair with eggs of *Toxocara canis*. Vet Parasitol 152: 85–93.
- 9. Holland CV, Smith HV (2006) *Toxocara*: the enigmatic parasite. Wallingford, Oxfordshire, UK: CABI Publishing 324 p.
- Holland CV (2017) Knowledge gaps in the epidemiology of *Toxocara*: the enigma remains. Parasitology 144(: 81-94.
- Erickson LD, Gale SD, Berrett A, Brown BL, Hedges DW (2015) Association between toxocariasis and cognitive function in young to middle-aged adults. Folia Parasitol 62: 2015.048.
- 12. Walsh MG, Haseeb MA (2012) Reduced cognitive function in children with toxocariasis in a nationally representative sample of the United States. Int J Parasitol 42: 1159-1163.
- 13. Overgaauw PAM (1997) Aspects of *Toxocara* epidemiology: human toxocarosis. Crit Rev Microbiol 23: 215-231.
- Bowman DD (2003) Companion and exotic animal parasitology, Bowman DD Ed. Available: http://www.ivis.org/advances/toc_advances.asp. Accessed 12 October 2017.
- de Silva NR, Brooker S, Hotez PJ, Montresor A, Engels D, Savioli L (2003) Soil-transmitted helminth infections: updating the global picture. Trends Parasitol 19: 547-551.
- Lee ACY, Schantz PM, Kazacos KR, Montgomery SP, Bowman DD (2010) Epidemiologic and zoonotic aspects of ascarid infections in dogs and cats. Trends Parasitol 26: 155– 161.

- 17. Caumes E, Ly F, Bricaire F (2002) Cutaneous *larva migrans* with folliculitis: report of seven cases and review of the literature. Br J Dermatol 146: 314-316.
- Rivera-Roig V, Sánchez JL, Hillyer GV (2008) Hookworm folliculitis. Int J Dermatol 47: 246-248.
- Little MD, Halsey NA, Cline BL, Katz SP (1983) Ancylostoma larva in a muscle fiber of man following cutaneous larva migrans. Am J Trop Med Hyg 32: 1285-1288.
- Bowman DD, Montgomery SP, Zajac AM, Eberhard ML, Kazacos KR (2010) Hookworms of dogs and cats as agents of cutaneous *larva migrans*. Trends Parasitol 26: 162–167.
- Marques J, Guimarães C, Vilas Boas A, Carnaúba P, de Moraes J (2012) Contamination of public parks and squares from Guarulhos (São Paulo State, Brazil) by *Toxocara* spp. and *Ancylostoma* spp. Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo 54: 267–271.
- 22. Carmena D, Cardona GA (2013) Canine echinococcosis: global epidemiology and genotypic diversity. Acta Trop 128: 441-460.
- 23. McManus DP, Zhang W, Li J, Bartley PB (2003) Echinococcosis. Lancet 362: 1295-1304.
- 24. Cabello RR, Ruiz AC, Feregrino RR, Romero LC, Feregrino RR, Zavala JT (2011) *Dipylidium caninum* infection. BMJ Case Rep. Available: https://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pmc/articles/PMC3229318. Accessed 12 October 2017.
- 25. Batchelor DJ, Tzannes S, Graham PA, Wastling JM, Pinchbeck GL, German AJ (2008) Detection of endoparasites with zoonotic potential in dogs with gastrointestinal disease in the UK. Transbound Emerg Dis 55: 99–104.
- Itoh N, Kanai K, Hori Y, Hoshi F, Higuchi S (2009) Prevalence of *Giardia intestinalis* and other zoonotic intestinal parasites in private household dogs of the Hachinohe area in Aomori prefecture, Japan in 1997, 2002 and 2007. J Vet Sci 10: 305– 308.
- Katagiri S, Oliveira-Sequeira TCG (2008) Prevalence of dog intestinal parasites and risk perception of zoonotic infection by dog owners in São Paulo State, Brazil. Zoonoses Public Health 55: 406–413.
- Nikolic A, Dimitrijevic S, Katic-Radivojevic S, Klun I, Bobre B, Djurkovic-Djakovic O (2008) High prevalence of intestinal zoonotic parasites in dogs from Belgrade, Serbia. Acta Vet Hung 56: 335–340.
- 29. Paoletti B, Traversa D, Iorio R, De Berardinis A, Bartolini R, Salini R, Di Cesare A (2015) Zoonotic parasites in feces and fur of stray and private dogs from Italy. Parasitol Res 114: 2135–2141.
- Riggio F, Mannella R, Ariti G, Perrucci S (2013) Intestinal and lung parasites in owned dogs and cats from Central Italy. Vet Parasitol 193: 78–84.
- Uehlinger FD, Greenwood SJ, McClure JT, Conboy G, O'Handley R, Barkema HW (2013) Zoonotic potential of *Giardia duodenalis* and *Cryptosporidium* spp. and prevalence of intestinal parasites in young dogs from different populations on Prince Edward Island, Canada. Vet Parasitol 196: 509–514.
- 32. Zanzani SA, Gazzonis AL, Scarpa P, Berrilli F, Manfredi MT (2014) Intestinal parasites of owned dogs and cats from metropolitan and micropolitan areas: prevalence, zoonotic risks, and pet owner awareness in Northern Italy. Biomed Res Int. Available: https://www.hindawi.com/journals/bmri/2014/696508.

Accessed 12 October 2017.

 Capelli G, Frangipane di Regalbono A, Iorio R, Pietrobelli M, Paoletti B, Giangaspero A (2006) *Giardia* species and other

- 34. Ministry of Agriculture, Fisheries and Food, Great Britain (1986) Manual of veterinary parasitological laboratory techniques, 3rd edition. London: Her Majesty's Stationary Office 418 p.
- Sloss MW, Kemp RL, Zajac AM (1994) Veterinary Clinical Parasitology, 6th edition. Ames: Iowa State University Press 198 p.
- Di Cesare A, Castagna G, Meloni S, Otranto D, Traversa D (2012) Mixed trichuroid infestation in a dog from Italy. Parasit Vectors 5: 128.
- Friedmann E, Son H (2009) The human-companion animal bond: how humans benefit. Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract 39: 293–326.
- Hemsworth S, Pizer B (2006) Pet ownership in immunocompromised children - a review of the literature and survey of existing guidelines. Eur J Oncol Nurs 10: 117–127.
- Baneth G, Thamsborg SM, Otranto D, Guillot J, Blaga R, Deplazes P, Solano-Gallego L (2016) Major parasitic zoonoses associated with dogs and cats in Europe. J Comp Pathol 155 1 Suppl 1: 54-74.
- 40. Ramírez-Barrios RA, Barboza-Mena G, Muñoz J, Angulo-Cubillán F, Hernández E, González F, Escalona F (2004) Prevalence of intestinal parasites in dogs under veterinary care in Maracaibo, Venezuela. Vet Parasitol 121: 11–20.
- Simonato G, Frangipane di Regalbono A, Cassini R, Traversa D, Beraldo P, Tessarin C, Pietrobelli M (2015) Copromicroscopic and molecular investigations on intestinal parasites in kenneled dogs. Parasitol Res 114: 1963–1970.
- 42. Beraldo P, Candusso S, Mingotto F, Arzese A (2014) Canine faecal contamination in Udine and evaluation of health risk. In G. Cancrini (Ed.), Proceedings of XXVIII National Congress of Italian Society of Parasitology (p. 258). Rome, Italy.
- Genchi C, Di Sacco B, Gatti S, Sangalli G, Scaglia M (1990) Epidemiology of human toxocariasis in Northern Italy. Parassitologia 32: 313–319.
- 44. Habluetzel A, Traldi G, Ruggieri S, Attili AR, Scuppa P, Marchetti R, Menghini G, Esposito F (2003) An estimation of *Toxocara canis* prevalence in dogs, environmental egg contamination and risk of human infection in the Marche region of Italy. Vet Parasitol 113: 243–252.
- 45. Guilherme EV, Marchioro AA, Araujo SM, Falavigna DL, Adami C, Falavigna-Guilherme G, Rubinsky-Elefant G, Falavigna-Guilherme AL (2013) Toxocariasis in children attending a Public Health Service Pneumology Unit in Paraná State, Brazil. Rev Inst Med Trop Sao Paulo 55: 189-192.
- 46. Manini MP, Marchioro AA, Colli CM, Nishi L, Falavigna-Guilherme AL (2012) Association between contamination of public squares and seropositivity for *Toxocara* spp. in children. Vet Parasitol 188: 48-52.

- Glickman LT, Shofer FS (1987) Zoonotic visceral and ocular larva migrans. Vet Clin North Am Small Anim Pract 17: 39-53.
- Traversa D, Di Cesare A, Milillo P, Iorio R, Otranto D (2009) Infection by *Eucoleus aerophilus* in dogs and cats: is another extra-intestinal parasitic nematode of pets emerging in Italy? Res Vet Sci 87: 270–272.
- Lalošević D, Lalošević V, Klem I, Stanojev-Jovanović D, Pozio E (2008) Pulmonary capillariasis miming bronchial carcinoma. Am J Trop Med Hyg 78: 14-16.
- Barutzki D, Schaper R (2011) Results of parasitological examinations of faecal samples from cats and dogs in Germany between 2003 and 2010. Parasitol Res 109 Suppl 1: 45-60.
- Fontanarrosa MF, Vezzani D, Basabe J, Eiras DF (2006) An epidemiological study of gastrointestinal parasites of dogs from Southern Greater Buenos Aires (Argentina): age, gender, breed, mixed infections, and seasonal and spatial patterns. Vet Parasitol 136: 283–295.
- Gates MC, Nolan TJ (2009) Endoparasite prevalence and recurrence across different age groups of dogs and cats. Vet Parasitol 166: 153–158.
- 53. European Scientific Counsel Companion Animal Parasites (2017). Worm Control in Dogs and Cats, Guideline 01, 3rd edition. http://www.esccap.org/uploads/docs/0x007jda_ESCCAP_Gui http://www.esccap.org/uploads/docs/0x007jda_ESCCAP_Gui

deline_01_Third_Edition_July_2017.pdf. Accessed 25 august 2018

- Matos M, Alho AM, Owen SP, Nunes T, Madeira de Carvalho L (2015) Parasite control practices and public perception of parasitic diseases: A survey of dog and cat owners. Prev Vet Med 122: 174–180.
- Macpherson CNL (2005) Human behaviour and the epidemiology of parasitic zoonoses. Int J Parasitol 35: 1319– 1331.

Corresponding author

Giulia Simonato, DVM. MSc. PhD. Department of Animal Medicine, Production and Health Viale dell'Università 16, 35020 Legnaro (PD), Italy Tel.: +39 049 8272969 Fax: +39 049 8272669 Email: giulia.simonato@unipd.it

Conflict of interests: The study was financed by Novartis Animal Health (nowadays Elanco), of which FLT was employee and PhD student at the University of Teramo during the study. FLT is currently employed at Zoetis Italia srl. AFdR and DT are the scientific responsible for the unpublished results reported in the study, and obtained within the research project n. CPDA110843 financed by the University of Padua.