

ABSTRACT

Livestock production has thrived and sustained the livelihood of farmers while reducing poverty and improving the economy of developing nations. It has also contributed largely to the spread of pathogenic bacteria. This study evaluated the bacterial quality of air, water, soil, feed samples, and hand swabs in Aba, Umuahia, Mbaise, and Okigwe in Southeastern Nigeria. Air, water, soil, feeds, and hand swabs were sampled using standard microbiology laboratory procedures. Air samples were expressed in CFU/plate/hour while water, soil, feed and hand swabs were expressed in CFU/ml. Total heterotrophic bacterial count (THBC), total coliform count (TCC), and total potential pathogenic bacterial count (TPPBC) were all analyzed by growing the samples on general purpose, differential, and selective media after serial dilution respectively. Isolates were confirmed by subjecting them to biochemical tests. The highest THBC, TPPBC, and TCC values were obtained in the Aba pig farm, cow abattoir, and poultry farms respectively while Mbaise recorded the lowest values for THBC, TPPBC, and TCC. A total of 1531 bacterial isolates were obtained in all the four cities. *Escherichia coli*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, *Pseudomonas aeruginosa*, *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Bacillus subtilis*, *Salmonella enterica*, *Streptococcus pyogenes*, *Vibrio cholerae* and *Shigella* sp. were isolated. *Escherichia coli* had the highest total percentage distribution (16.1%; 259/1531) in all four cities and *Shigella* sp (4.8%; 74/1531) was the least distributed. Of the four cities studied, Aba farm had the highest percentages of *E. coli* (31.67%; 82/259), *K. pneumoniae* (33.67%; 68/218), *P. aeruginosa* (30.28%; 43/135), *E. aerogenes* (31.85%; 43/135) and *S. pyogenes* (36.57%; 49/134). Among the bacterial isolates, *Streptococcus enterica* had the highest percentage values (42.38%; 64/151) while *Shigella* sp had the lowest percentage values (12.16%; 9/74). Overall, the bacterial burden in all the farms in the four cities, especially Aba was very high; thorough surveillance by health workers should be encouraged to help reduce the spread of bacteria and bacterial infections among livestock farms.

28 1.0 INTRODUCTION

29 Livestock production as practised globally has thrived and sustained the livelihood of farmers while
30 reducing poverty and improving the economy of developing and underdeveloped countries (Upton, 2016).
31 In developing countries, cows, goats, pigs, and poultry are the commonly reared animals. These animals
32 are managed for meat, skin, milk, and egg production for domestic consumption and industrial purposes
33 (Steinfeld et al., 2006). While livestock farming has helped to improve the economy, it has unfortunately
34 heightened the level of microbial loads in the environment, which has directly or indirectly affected the
35 health conditions of the people (Manyi-Loh et al., 2018).

36 Nigeria is a developing country with people from different diverse cultural backgrounds. It is estimated
37 that before 2040, the population will rise four times the current assumed figure of 200 (Asadu et al.,
38 2021). Due to geopolitical arrangement, the country is grouped into six zones namely Southeast,
39 Southsouth, Southwest, Northeast, Northwest, and Northcentral. Each of these zones has its peculiarities
40 in terms of economy and agriculture, especially livestock farming. The Southeast region has 5 states and
41 is known for its commercial and agricultural activities. Due to food insecurity, and poverty, people from
42 this zone living in rural areas moved to urban centres to engage in livestock farming (Asadu et al., 2021;
43 Mouratidis, 2019). Livestock farming in Southeast Nigeria aside from reducing hunger and poverty has
44 contributed negatively to public health (Nwokoro et al., 2017).

45 Bacteria are ubiquitous and are capable of surviving on farms and could further spread to farmers through
46 direct contact with infected animals, unhygienic practices of farmers and the consumption of undercooked
47 meats (Rayman et al., 2020). Furthermore, while it is advantageous using the droppings of this livestock
48 as a source of manure to improve soil fertility, they could be a source of bacterial contamination
49 (McAllister & Topp, 2012). Therefore, absolute caution should be taken before any agricultural practices
50 are considered. Bacteria from these dropping could percolate to nearby rivers during rain splash (Agodo
51 et al., 2016). These bacterial cells could be pathogenic to humans and might surreptitiously affect the skin
52 and some vital organs (Klous et al., 2016). Diseases produced from these farms and abattoirs through the
53 spread of bacteria affect urban dwellers through air, water and meat consumption (WHO, 2018),

54 especially people living close to the farms. This study shall evaluate the bacterial loads in farms and
55 abattoirs in the Southeast, using Aba, Umuahia, Okigwe, and Mbaise as case studies.

56 **METHODS**

57 **Study area**

58 Aba and Umuahia in Abia State and Okigwe and Mbaise in Imo State were selected based on the rapid
59 livestock activities taking place there. The samples were collected from urban areas where livestock
60 farming is vigorously practised. These four cities stretch from latitude 4°50' to 7°20' N and longitude 6°51'
61 to 8°20'E. It has a common boundary with Benue State in the North, in the East it is bounded by Cross
62 River and Akwa Ibom States, in the West by Delta State and River Niger (Kalu & Zakiora, 2019). The zone
63 has diverse ecological variations and a land mass of 22,525 km² (Madu, 2006). Its annual rainfall is
64 between March and October while the dry season starts in November and ends in February (Kalu
65 & Zakiora, 2019). The study was carried out from December 2019 to April 2022. A total of 600 samples
66 (air, water, soil, feeds) were collected from pig and poultry farms and cow abattoir including hand swabs
67 of their keepers. Feeds were obtained **aseptically** only from poultry and pig farms in Aba, Umuahia,
68 Okigwe and Mbaise while air, water and soil samples were collected **aseptically** from pig and poultry
69 farms and cow abattoir in the four cities of the two states using scientific standards. Hand swabs of the
70 livestock workers were also collected with sterile swab sticks in all the farms.

71 **Environmental samples collection**

72 Air from the pig, poultry farms, and cow abattoir were sampled using the settle plates technique. Newly
73 prepared selective and differential media plates such as blood agar (BA), Salmonella-Shigella agar
74 (SSA), MacConkey (MCA), eosin methylene blue agar (EMB), mannitol salt agar (MSA) and Thiosulphate
75 citrate bile salt sucrose (TCBS) plates were exposed to the air at different locations of the farms and
76 abattoir at approximately 1.5 m height for 1 h. the sample collection was repeated three times. Also,
77 nutrient agar plates were exposed at the same height for the total heterotrophic bacterial count. All the
78 plates were carefully covered, labelled, and transported to the laboratory in a polyethene bag. The plates
79 were returned to the incubator for the growth of bacteria at 30°C for 24 h. The livestock's drinking water

80 was sampled with transparent sterile flasks (5 litres) and transported to the laboratory for analysis
81 (Ugboguet *et al.*, 2016). Ten-fold serial dilution of the water samples collected from Aba, Umuahia, Okigwe
82 and Mbaise was performed according to the method described by Harley and Prescott (2002). Soil
83 samples were collected using a soil auger at a 5 cm depth (Bhat *et al.*, 2011) where microbial population
84 and activities take place. From different locations in the pig farm, poultry farm and cow abattoir, 50 g of
85 each soil was collected, transferred into a black polyethene bag, labelled and transported under cold
86 conditions (4 ± 2 °C) to the laboratory for analysis. Hand swabs from cow butchers, and pig and poultry
87 farm workers were also collected using sterile swab sticks. Twenty grammes of feed samples from all the
88 farms in the four cities were collected in plastic bags straight from the feed containers and transported to
89 the laboratory.

90 **Laboratory analysis**

91 Soil, feed and water samples **aseptically** collected were analysed using a 10-fold dilution (10^1 - 10^7).
92 Briefly, 10 g from each soil sample was dissolved in 90 ml of distilled water. After proper mixing by
93 constant shaking, 10 ml from the first tube containing the dilution factor was transferred **aseptically** to the
94 next tube and continued till the last tube, after which 10 ml was discarded (Adhikari *et al.*, 2007). The
95 same procedure used for the serial dilution of soil was used for water analysis except that 10 ml from
96 each water sample was serially diluted. For hand swab analysis, each labelled swab stick was placed into
97 7 ml of peptone water and allowed for 10 min (Sampson *et al.*, 2019). Thereafter, the solution was serially
98 diluted between 10^{-1} and 10^{-4} . The serial dilutions of soil, feeds, water and hand swabs were repeated
99 three times.

100 **Bacterial enumeration**

101 **Total heterotrophic bacterial count (THBC)**

102 Briefly, 1 ml from each of the fourth dilution tubes was **aseptically** transferred to nutrient agar plates with a
103 pasture pipette. The discrete colonies on each nutrient agar plate exposed to air and inoculated with
104 drops of solutions from water, feed and hand swab samples respectively between ≥ 30 and ≤ 300 were
105 counted and recorded. The colonies counted represent the heterotrophic bacterial count (THBC).

106

107

108 **Total potential pathogenic bacteria**

109 Briefly, 1 ml from the fourth tube of water, feed, hand swabs, and soil dilutions were transferred
110 aseptically to the already prepared blood, MSA, MacConkey, EMB, SSA, TCBS agar plates with sterile
111 Pasteur pipette. The microorganisms suspected in the plates include *Streptococcus aureus*, *S. aureus*, *E.*
112 *coli*, *E. aerogenes*, *Vibrio cholera* and *Vibrio parahaemolyticus* respectively. The inoculum from each
113 blood and MSA agar plates was subjected to catalase and citrate biochemical tests. For air samples, the
114 selective media plates earlier mentioned were exposed for a period of 1 h at approximately 1.5 m high.
115 After incubating all the plates for a period of 24 h at 30°C, the discrete colonies were counted with a hand
116 lens and reported as TPPBC. The colony from each plate was identified by their cultural and
117 morphological characteristics and further confirmed by chemical tests (Lama *et al.*, 2013).

118 **Total Coliform Bacterial Count (TCC)**

119 **Water samples**

120 Briefly, 50 ml from the fourth dilution tube after 10-fold serial dilution was transferred **aseptically** against a
121 membrane filter (0.45 µm pore size). After percolation of the filtrate, the filter paper was carefully placed
122 on the already prepared MacConkey agar plates with the help of a pair of sterilized tweezers. After
123 incubating the plates for 24 h at 30°C, the colonies were counted with the help of a hand lens and
124 presented as TCC (Harley and Prescott, 2002).

125

126 **Soil samples**

127 After serial dilution, 50 ml solution from the fourth dilution tube was transferred **aseptically** against a
128 membrane filter with a pore size of 0.45 µm. After the filtration process, the filter paper was laid onto the
129 MacConkey agar plate, already prepared. The plates were incubated for 24 h at 30°C. The inoculums

130 from the MacConkey agar plates were transferred aseptically into tubes containing 10 ml of lactose bile
131 broth (Adhikari *et al.*, 2007). After incubation for 24 h at 30°C, the mixture was observed for fermentation.

132 **Hand swabs**

133 For enumeration of TCC of hand swab samples, 1 ml from the fourth dilution tubes were transferred
134 directly to the MacConkey agar plates and spread uniformly on the plates with bent glass rod. The plates
135 were incubated for 24 h at 30°C.

136 **Identification and characterization of bacterial isolates.**

137 All the bacterial isolates were identified using their cultural characteristics, including elevation, margin,
138 colour, size and surface texture. The Gram stain was conducted on all the bacteria and microscopically
139 examined to differentiate between Gram-positive and Gram-negative bacteria. Furthermore, the isolates
140 were subjected to biochemical tests (Onyeagba 2015). The results were compared with standard
141 reference of Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology (Buchanan and Gibbons, 1974).

142

143 **Pure culture**

144 Each bacterial isolate biochemically confirmed was sub-cultured and transferred to already prepared
145 nutrient agar slants in Makati bottles by streaking the media surfaces. The slant bottles were incubated at
146 30°C for 24 h. After incubation, the slant bottles were kept in the refrigerator at -4°C for storage for further
147 use.

148 **Statistical analysis**

149 The mean in triplicates was expressed as mean± SD; two-way ANOVA compared the means followed by
150 Bonferroni post hoc test using graph pad prism graphical statistical package version 5.

151 **3.0 RESULTS**

152 **Bacterial profile of the Pig, Poultry farms, and Cow abattoir in Aba**

153 The THBC in the Aba pig farm obtained from soil samples was significantly higher than those obtained
154 from air and hand samples. In the pig farm, the TPPBC of soil samples was significantly higher than other
155 samples while drinking water had the lowest values. The highest values of TCC was seen in feeds while
156 hand swab had the lowest values. Drinking water had the highest TCC while hand swabs had the least. In
157 the cow abattoir, the highest value of THBC was seen in soil samples while air (18.56 ± 0.3) has the
158 lowest. In the study, the THBC, TPPBC and TCC of drinking water and feeds were not determined in cow
159 abattoir. The TCC in cow abattoir was significantly higher in soil samples than hand swabs. In poultry
160 farm, the THBC of soil samples was significantly higher than the values obtained in drinking water, hand
161 swabs and feeds while the air samples of poultry farm had the highest values, and drinking water had the
162 lowest. were higher. The TCC of samples was higher than in drinking water and hand swabs. The feed
163 samples had the least values of TCC. In all the two farms and cow abattoir, The TCC were not
164 determined. In all the farms and cow abattoir examined, pig farm had the highest values of THBC,
165 TPPBC, and TCC. The bacterial loads of pig and poultry farms and cow abattoir are presented in Figure
166 1.

167

168

169 **Bacterial profile of the Pig and Poultry farms and Cow abattoir in Umuahia**

170 The THBC of soil in pig farm is significantly higher than in feeds, hand swabs, drinking water, and air
171 samples with hand swabs having the least values. The soil samples had appreciable values of TPPBC
172 and TCC than the other samples studied while drinking water and hand swabs had the lowest values of
173 TPPBC and TCC respectively. In cow abattoir, the THBC of soil samples was significantly higher than in
174 air and hand swabs. For feed and drinking water, the TPPBC and TCC were not determined. Whereas
175 the TCC of soil samples was significantly higher than hand swab, TCC for drinking water, air and feeds
176 were not determined. The THBC of soil samples was significantly higher than in feed, hand swab,
177 drinking water, and air samples. In poultry farm, the lowest value was obtained from air samples. The

178 TCC of air samples was not determined. Among the three farms evaluated, pig farms had the highest
179 THBC, TPPBC and TCC while cow abattoir had the lowest values for THBC, TPPBC and TCC (Figure 2).

180 **Bacterial profile of the Pig and Poultry farms and Cow abattoir in Okigwe**

181 In pig farms, the THBC and TPPBC of soil are significantly higher than in feeds, hand swabs, drinking
182 water, and air samples. The hand swabs had the lowest value of THBC and TPPBC. The TCC of feeds
183 was significantly higher than the other samples with hand swabs being the lowest. In cow abattoir, the soil
184 samples had significant values of THBC, TPPC and TCC while air samples hand swabs had the lowest
185 values of THBC and PPBC and TCC respectively. The THBC, TPPBC and TCC of drinking water, as well
186 as the TCC of air samples, were not determined. In poultry farms, the THBC and TCC of soil samples
187 were significantly higher than those obtained from hand swabs, drinking water and air samples while the
188 TPPBC of air samples were significantly higher than samples. THBC of air samples had the lowest values
189 while TPPBC and TCC of drinking water and hand swabs respectively had the lowest values. The TCC of
190 air samples was determined. Among the three farms, cow abattoir had the highest values of THBC while
191 poultry farms had the highest values of TPPBC and TCC. The bacterial profile of the pig and poultry
192 farms and cow abattoirs in Okigwe is presented in Figure 3.

193 **Bacterial profile of the Pig and Poultry farms and Cow abattoir in Mbaise**

194 In poultry farms, the THBC and TCC were significantly higher in soil samples when compared with other
195 samples. Air had the highest values of TPPBC. The lowest values of THBC, TPPBC and TCC were
196 obtained from air, drinking water and feeds respectively. The TCC of air samples were not determined in
197 poultry farms. In the cow abattoir, the THBC, TPPBC and TCC of soil samples were significantly higher
198 than hand swabs which had the lowest values. For drinking water samples, no THBC, TPPBC or TCC
199 were determined. The TCC of air samples were not determined also. The THBC of pig farms were
200 significantly higher than those obtained in other farms, while, hand swabs and drinking water produced
201 the highest TPPBC and TCC values respectively. The lowest values of TPPBC and TCC were obtained in
202 drinking water and feeds. The TCC of air samples was not determined. Cow abattoirs had the lowest

203 values of THBC, TPPBC and TCC. Among the three farms evaluated, poultry farms had the highest
 204 THBC, and TCC while pig farms had the highest values of TPPBC (Figure 4).

205 **Percentage distributions of bacterial isolates in Aba, Umuahia, Okigwe and Mbaise**

206 Aba farm had the highest percentage of *E. coli* (31.67%; 82/259), *K. pneumoniae* (33.67%;68/218), *P.*
 207 *aeruginosa* (30.28%; 43/31.85%), *E. aerogenes* (31.85%; 43/135) and *S. pyogenes* (36.57%; 49/134);
 208 Umuahia had the highest percentage of *S. aureus*. *Vibrio cholerae* and *Shigellasp* were prevalent in
 209 Okigwe while *S. enterica* was highest in Mbaise. Among the bacterial isolates, *S. enterica* had the highest
 210 percentage value (42.38%; 64/151). The *E. coli* (259) had the highest distributions in all the four cities
 211 while *Shigellasp* (74) had the lowest distribution (Table 1).

212
 213

214

215

216

217

218

219

220

221

222

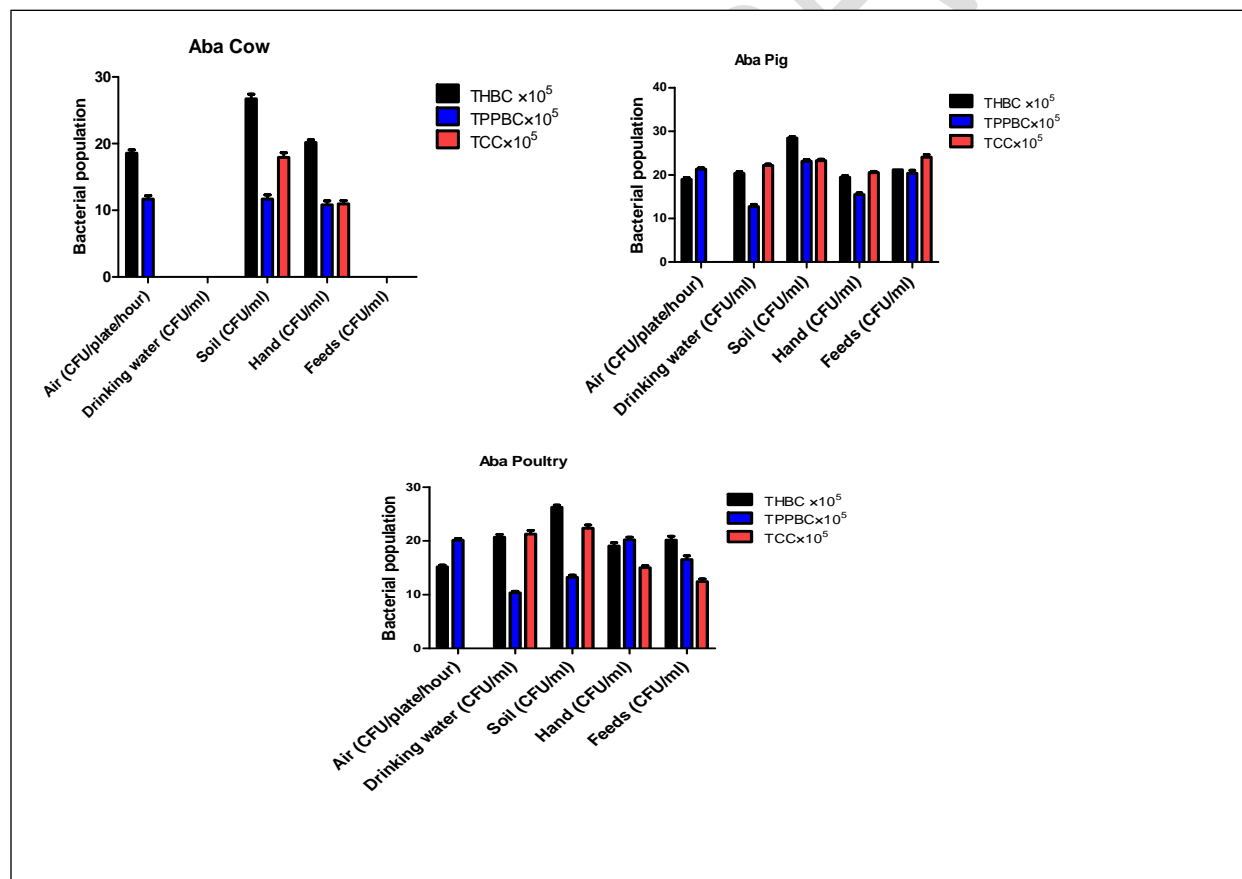
223

224

225

226

227



228 Figure 1: The THBC, TPPBC and TCC obtained from pig, poultry farms and cow abattoirs in Aba.

229

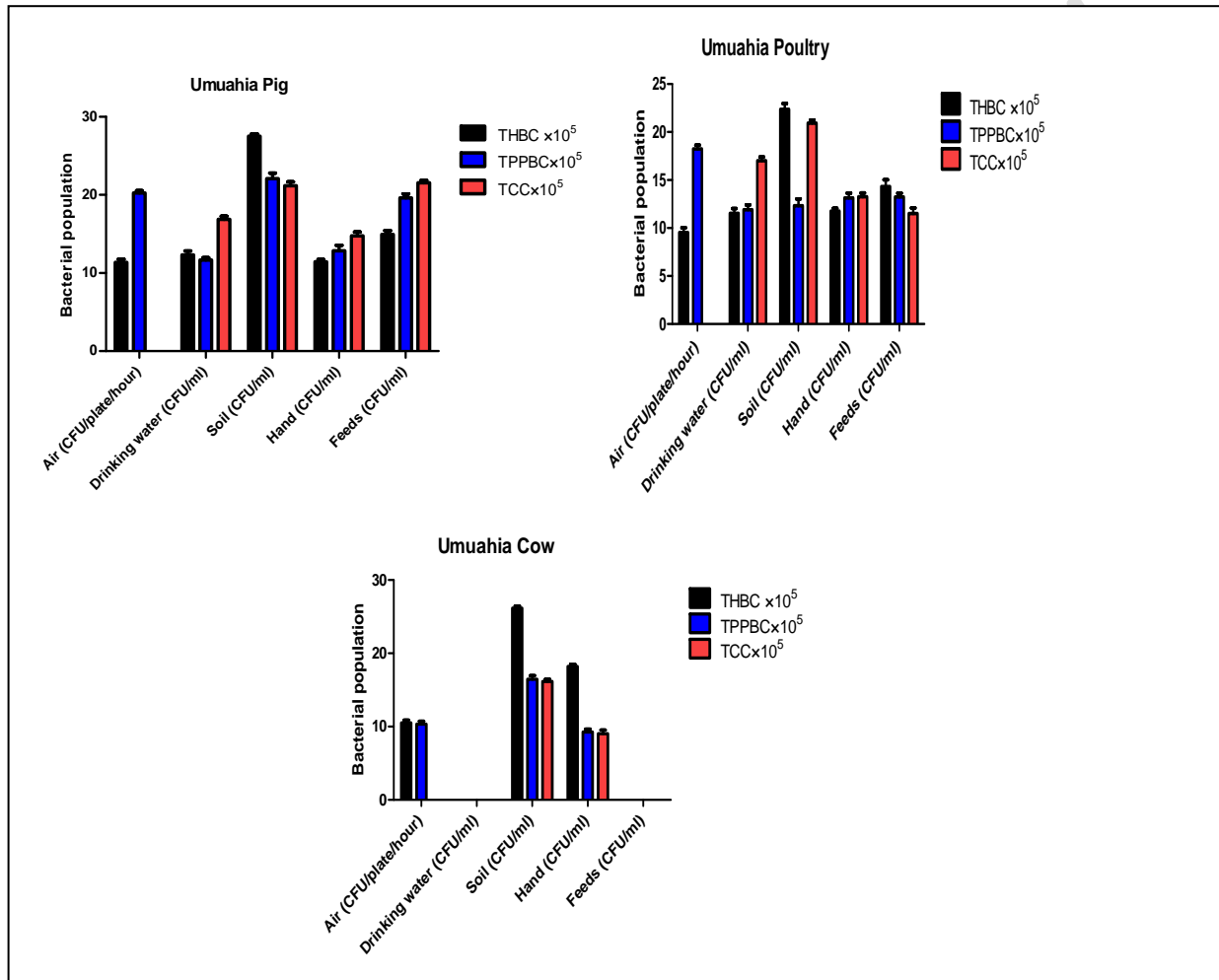
230

231

232

233

234



235

236 Figure 2: The THBC, TPPBC and TCC obtained from pig, poultry farms and cow abattoirs in Umuahia.

237

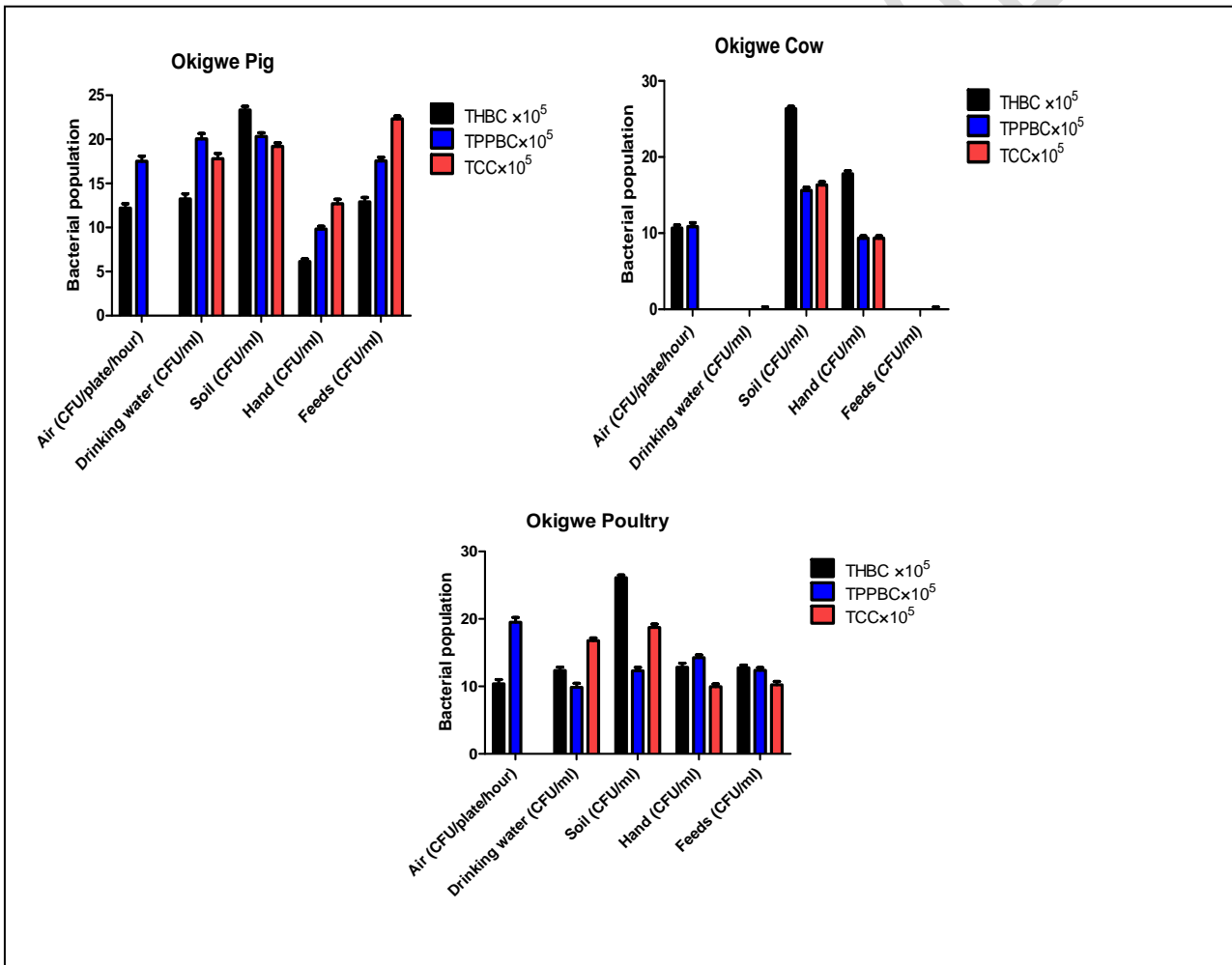
238

239

240

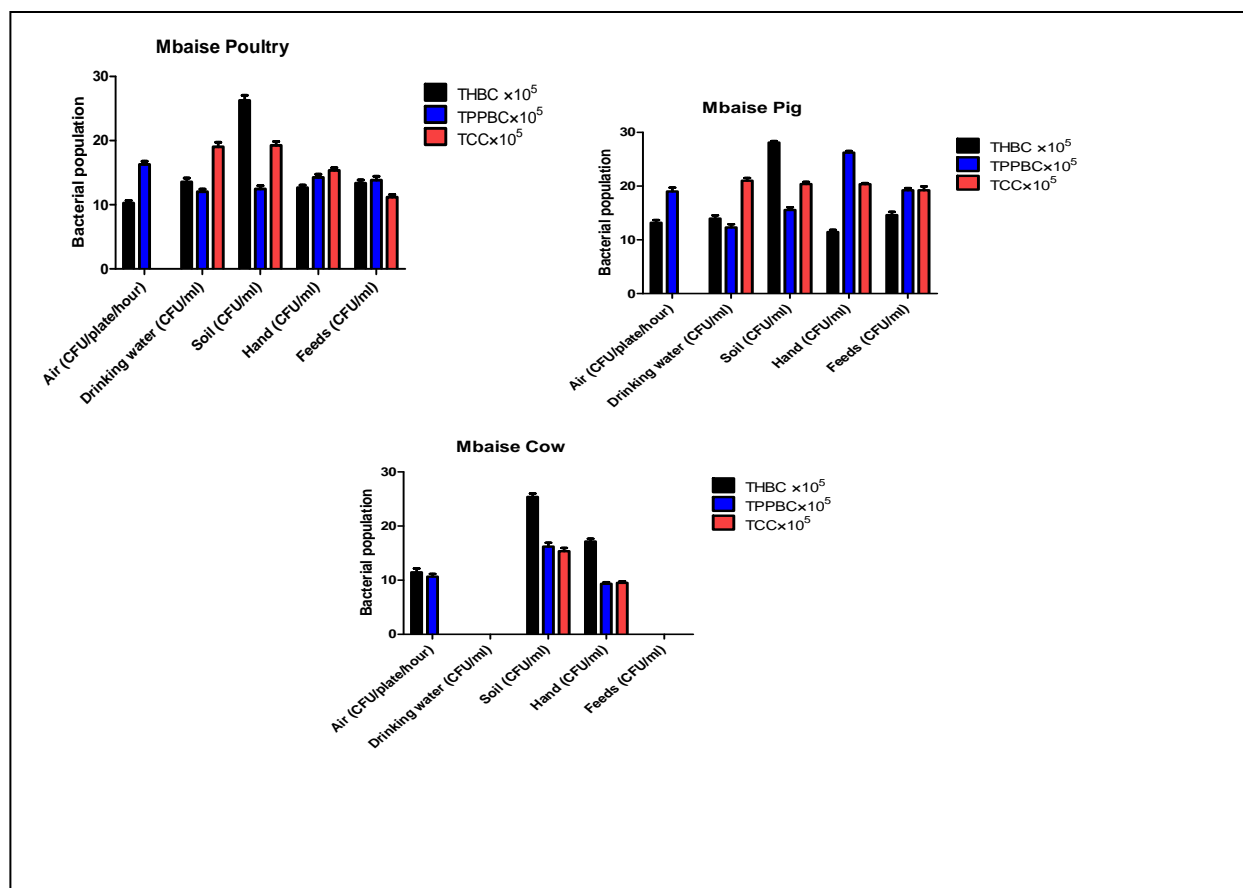
241

242
243
244
245
246
247
248
249



250
251
252

Figure 3: The THBC, TPPBC and TCC obtained from pig, poultry farms and cow abattoirs in Okigwe



254 Figure 4: The THBC, TPPBC and TCC obtained from pig, poultry farms and cow abattoirs in Mbai

255 **Table 1:** Percentage occurrence of bacteria in Aba, Umuahia, Okigwe and Mbaise

Bacteria	Aba	Umuahia	Okigwe	Mbaise	Total
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	82 (31.67%)	45 (17.37%)	76 (29.34)	56 (21.62)	259 (100%)
<i>K. pneumoniae</i>	68 (33.67%)	45 (20.64%)	47 (21.56%)	58 (26.60%)	218 (100%)
<i>S. aureus</i>	56 (27.72%)	62 (30.69%)	54 (26.73%)	30 (14.85%)	202(100%)
<i>Pseudomonas aerogenes</i>	43 (30.28%)	35 (24.65%)	ND	32 (22.53%)	142 (100%)
<i>S. enterica</i>	54 (35.76%)	18 (11.92%)	15 (9.93%)	64 (42.38%)	151 (100%)
<i>E. aerogenes</i>	43 (31.85%)	23 (17.04%)	27 (20.00%)	42 (31.11%)	135 (100%)
<i>Bacillus subtilis</i>	12 (14.81%)	32 (39.51%)	14 (17.28%)	23 (28.39%)	81 (100%)
<i>Vibrio cholerae</i>	48 (35.56%)	ND	55 (40.74%)	32 (23.70)	135 (100%)
<i>Streptococcus pyogenes</i>	49 (36.57%)	ND	37 (27.61%)	48 (35.52%)	134 (100%)

<i>Shigella</i> sp.	9 (12.16%)	15 (20.27%)	25 (33.70%)	25 (33.70%)	74 (100%)
---------------------	------------	-------------	-------------	-------------	-----------

256
257
258
259
260
261
262
263
264
265
266
267
268
269
270
271
272
273
274
275
276
277
278
279
280
281
282
283
284

Discussion

Livestock farming has tremendously improved the livelihood of the populace, it creates opportunities for farmers to thrive as well as consumers of have value for their money. Figures 1, 2 and 3 expressed the THBC, TPPBC, and TCC of pig and poultry farms and cow abattoirs in Aba, Umuahia, Okigwe and Mbaise. The THBC has the highest microbial load when compared to others. The high values of THBC which are significantly different than TPPBC and TCC are as a result of the ubiquity of bacteria and their ability to survive in water (Nwaiwu et al., 2016), soil and air. Through frequent contact of feeds with the farmers and the unhygienic nature of the farms, microorganisms can survive and spread. Of all the farms, pig farm had the highest THBC; the THBC in pig farms is significantly higher than in poultry farms and cow abattoir. Pig farms are rendezvous of ammonia and other toxic chemicals like hydrogen sulfide that affect delicate regions of the human body; these wastes released from urine by these pigs and their faeces. When the waste water and the faeces are not properly disposed, they contribute to heterotrophic bacteria count (Samarin et al., 2021). Because the water, soil and air within pig farms are not taken care of by the farmers, therefore they could be harbingers of bacteria (Andretta et al., 2021). The soil is considered a good reservoir of microorganisms; it possesses water, nutrients, and protections for the sustenance of microorganisms.

The percentage distribution of *E. coli* in all four cities in Table 1 is predominantly higher than the other bacterial isolates. *Escherichia coli* is a Gram-negative bacterium which served as an indicator organism, especially in water and feeds. It measures the level of contaminants in faecal droppings due to unhygienic practices (Carvalho et al., 2018). The high values recorded could be a result of the warm weather conditions experienced in these parts of the country which makes the bacterium thrive (Nwaiwu et al., 2016). Olorunleke et al. (2022) asserted that the widespread *E. coli* strains in Southeastern Nigeria could be due to resistance to antibiotics. There might be other strains of *E. coli*, going forward that might be responsible if molecular studies were conducted (Carvalho et al., 2018). In the study, the bacterial population in Aba was more than in the other cities. *E. coli*, *K. pneumoniae*, *P. aeruginosa*, *E.*

285 *aerogenes* and *S. pyogenes* were prevalent in Aba. Aba is a cosmopolitan city, with rich commercial
286 activities (Federal Ministry of Works., 2021); taking advantage of this, people from all walks of life flood
287 into the city for livestock farming and other activities. Apart from improper waste disposal (Tolera et al.,
288 2022), in order to feed the rising population, several sharp practices in the farms and abattoirs are
289 performed. They are, the use of antibiotics in feeds for quick growth which inadvertently produced
290 resistant bacterial strains (Amaechi, 2014, 2015), and the selling of meat infected with bacteria or their
291 dead animals. These are done to the detriment of the consumers. These illicit activities increased the
292 microbial loads within the city, especially in areas close to the farms. The high percentage of *S. aureus*,
293 *S. enterica* and *V. cholerae* recorded in Umuahia, Mbaise, and Okigwe could be a result of unhygienic
294 conditions of the farms and abattoirs in the southeast, faecal contaminants (Chibuzo & Okike, 2021), the
295 lack of basic amenities in the processing of meat and inappropriate disposal of livestock solid and liquid
296 wastes (Kalu, 2019). *S. aureus* is resident on skin surfaces and can spread via direct contact with
297 livestock. *S. enterica* can be transmitted through the fecal-oral route which might endanger the lives of
298 meat and egg consumers (Chibuzo & Okike, 2021).

299 *Shigella* species is a Gram-negative bacterium often isolated from poultry farms. It is responsible for
300 causing shigellosis and cross-contamination in humans (Shi et al., 2014). In the study, it is the least
301 isolated bacterium in the four cities. The low value recorded is unprecedented. As a developing nation
302 coupled with the unhygienic practices of the southeasterners regarding livestock farm management, the
303 values should have been higher than we had. The low result could be because only a few sites of poultry
304 farms were assessed for the study. Meanwhile, the only city that had the highest percentage prevalence
305 of *Shigella* was Okigwe; this is because Okigwe had more poultry farms than the other three cities. Apart
306 from the multiple farms, the city is known for its polluted water due to its topography.

307 **CONCLUSION**

308 Livestock farming, despite being a source of job creation and food production has contributed to the
309 spread of diseases. Microorganisms spread easily through water, air, direct contact with infected animals
310 and animal feeds. By drinking contaminated water and consuming infested meat, the causative bacteria
311 thrive. From the study, Aba recorded the highest THBC, evidence of an increased bacterial burdens. The

312 *E. coli* as seen in the study was the most distributed in the four cities which suggest poor hygienic
313 practices among the farmers and butchers. In order to reduce the bacterial burdens in cities, government
314 agencies should ensure total compliance to standard practices by farmers especially in the abattoirs
315 where the meat is directly sold to consumers.

316

317 **References**

- 318 1. Adhikari H, Barnes DL, Schiewer S., White DM. Total coliform survival characteristics in frozen
319 soils. *Journal of Environmental Engineering*, 2007; 133(12): 1098-1105.
- 320 2. Agodo LY, Ajiji MA, Anyanwu NCJ & Ajide B. *Bacteriological and physicochemical*, 2016;
- 321 3. Amaechi N. A Survey on Antibiotic Usage in Pigs and Poultry Birds in Abia State, Nigeria. *Global*
322 *Journal of Medical Research: C Microbiology and Pathology* 2014; 14(5) :11–14.
- 323 4. Amaechi N. Plasmid profile and antimicrobial resistance ratings of *enterococci* isolates from pigs
324 and poultry birds in Abia state, Nigeria. *African Journal of Clinical and Experimental Microbiology*
325 2015;16(2): 54. doi.org/10.4314/ajcem.v16i2.
- 326 5. Andretta I, Hickmann FMW, Remus A, Franceschi CH, Mariani AB, Orso C, Kipper M,
327 Létourneau-Montminy MP., Pomar C. Environmental Impacts of Pig and Poultry Production:
328 Insights From a Systematic Review. *Frontiers in Veterinary Science*, 8(October), 2021; 1–14.
329 doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2021.750733
- 330 6. Asadu AN, Chah JM, Attamah CO, Igbokwe EM. Knowledge of Hazards Associated With Urban
331 Livestock Farming in Southeast Nigeria. *Frontiers in Veterinary Science*, 8(March), 2021; 1–10.
332 doi.org/10.3389/fvets.2021.600299
- 333 7. Bhat MM, Shankar S, Shkha Yunus M., Shukla RN. Remediation of hydrocarbon contaminated
334 soil through microbial degradation-FTIR based prediction. *Advances in Applied Sciences*
335 *Research*, 2011; 2(2): 321-326.
- 336 8. Buchanan RE & Gibbons NE. *Bergey's Manual of Determinative Bacteriology* (8th Edn.). Williams
337 & Wilkins Co., Baltimore, USA, 1974.
- 338 9. Carvalho F, George J, Sheikh HMA, Selvin R. Advances in screening, detection and enumeration
339 of *Escherichia coli* using nanotechnology-based methods: A review. *Journal of Biomedical*
340 *Nanotechnology*, 2018; 14(5): 829–846. doi.org/10.1166/jbn.2018.2549
- 341 10. Chibuzo C., Okike D. Isolation And Identification Of *Salmonella* Spp . And *Shigella* Spp . From
342 Different Poultry Feeds , Droppings And Drinking Water Used In Poultry Farms In Ishiagu ,
343 Ebonyi State. *International Journal of Innovative Research and Advanced Studies*, 8(4), 2021,
- 344 11. Federal Ministry of Works. PROJECT INFORMATION MEMORANDUM : In partnership with,
345 2021.
- 346 12. Harley JP., Prescott LM. *Laboratory exercise in Microbiology*. (5th edn.). McGraw Hill Company,
347 USA. pp, 2002; 291-297.

- 348 13. Kalu, E. Waste Management Practices in Selected Abattoirs in South- and Their Waste
349 Management Practices in Selected. August, 2019.
- 350 14. Kalu NN & Zakirova YL. A review in Southeastern Nigeria: environmental problems and
351 management solutions. *Journal of Ecology and Life safety*, 2019; 27 (3): 231-240.
- 352 15. Klous G, Huss A, Heederik DJJ & Coutinho RA. Human-livestock contacts and their relationship
353 to transmission of zoonotic pathogens, a systematic review of literature. *One Health*, 2016; 2: 65-
354 76.
- 355 16. Lama A, Bates M, Covington AD, Allen SC., Antunes APM. Methods of isolation and
356 identification of pathogenic and potential pathogenic bacteria from skins and tannery effluents.
357 *Journal-American Leather Chemists Association*, 2013; 108: 49-61.
- 358 17. Manyi-Loh C, Mamphweli S, Meyer E., Okoh A. Antibiotic use in agriculture and its consequential
359 resistance in environmental sources: Potential public health implications. In *Molecules* (Vol. 23,
360 Issue 4), 2018; doi.org/10.3390/molecules23040795
- 361 18. McAllister TA & Topp E. Role of livestock in microbiological contamination of water: Commonly
362 the blame, but not always the source. *Animal Frontiers*, 2012; 2(2): 17–27.
363 doi.org/10.2527/af.2012-0039
- 364 19. Mouratidis K. Compact city, urban sprawl, and subjective well-being. *Cities*, 92(November 2018),
365 2019; 261–272. doi.org/10.1016/j.cities.2019.04.013
- 366 20. Nwaiwu O, Chiugo CA., Oni EO. We are IntechOpen , the world ' s leading publisher of Open
367 Access books Built by scientists , for scientists TOP 1 %. Intech, 11(tourism), 2016; 13.
368 https://www.intechopen.com/books/advanced-biometric-technologies/liveness-detection-in-
369 biometrics
- 370 21. Nwanta JA, Shoyinka SVO, Chah KF, Onunkwo JI, Onyenwe IW, Eze JI, Iheagwam CN, Njoga
371 EO, Onyema I, Ogbu KI, Mbegbu EC, Nnadozie PN, Ibe EC., Oladimeji KT. Production
372 characteristics, disease prevalence, and herd-health management of pigs in Southeast Nigeria.
373 *Journal of Swine Health Production*, 2011; 19(6): 331–339.
- 374 22. Onyeagba RA. Laboratory guide for Microbiology. Revised edition. Crystal Publisher. Okigwe,
375 Imo State, 2015.
- 376 23. Olorunleke SO, Kirchner M, Duggett N, AbuOun M, Okorie-Kanu OJ, Stevens K, Card RM, Chah
377 KF, Nwanta JA, Brunton LA., Anjum MF. Molecular characterization of extended spectrum
378 cephalosporin resistant *Escherichia coli* isolated from livestock and in-contact humans in
379 Southeast Nigeria. *Frontiers in Microbiology*, 13(July), 2022; 1–12.
380 doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.937968
- 381 24. Samarin G, Vasilyev A, Tikhomirov D, Normov D, Pavlov A, Kokunova I, Solovieva M., Dvoretckii
382 L. The Environmental Impact of Pig Farming. *KnE Life Sciences*, 2021; 932–941.
383 doi.org/10.18502/cls.v0i0.9031

- 384 25. Shi R, Yang X, Chen L, Chang HT, Liu HY, Zhao J, Wang XW., Wang CQ. Pathogenicity of
385 Shigella in chickens. PLoS ONE, 2014; 9(6): 1–7. doi.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0100264
- 386 26. Steinfeld H, Wassenaar T., Jutzi S. Livestock production systems in developing countries: Status,
387 drivers, trends. OIE Revue Scientifique et Technique, 2006; 25(2): 505–516.
388 doi.org/10.20506/rst.25.2.1677
- 389 27. Tolera ST, Alemu FK., Mengistu DA. Knowledge, Attitude, and Practice of Abattoir Workers
390 Toward Abattoirs Waste Management in Eastern Ethiopia. Environmental Health Insights, 2022;
391 16. doi.org/10.1177/11786302221075450
- 392 28. Ugbogu OC, Onyeagba RA, Ugbogu EA., Nwaugo VO. Heavy metal levels and potential
393 pathogens of surface water sediments of two man-made lakes at Lokpa Umuchieze, Abia State,
394 Nigeria. International Journal of Environmental Biology, 2016; 6 (1): 4-10
- 395 29. Upton M. The role of finance in economic development, income inequality and poverty reduction.
396 PPLPI Working Paper N° 10, 2016;
397 Ageconsearch.Umn.Edu/Img/Main_logo.Png, 10.

398
399
400
401
402
403
404
405
406
407
408

UNDER PEER REVIEW