

1 **Systematic map of the most recent evidence (2010 to 2019) on ruminant production-**  
2 **limiting disease prevalence and associated mortality in Ethiopia**

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11 **Running title:** Ethiopian ruminant disease systematic map

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21 **Abstract**

22 Ethiopia's livestock sector supports the livelihoods of millions of smallholder farmers.  
23 However, despite the improvements of recent years, livestock productivity remains low due to  
24 critical constraints, including infectious diseases. The aim of this study was to collate and  
25 synthesise the published evidence on ruminant disease frequency and disease-associated  
26 mortality in Ethiopia, by identifying knowledge gaps and clusters in the literature to provide  
27 the basis for a decision-making tool. Searches on both bibliographic and organisation databases  
28 were conducted in English and were restricted to the period 2010-2019. Search results were  
29 screened for relevance at title, abstract and full text level, which identified 716 articles relevant  
30 to the research question. The systematic map revealed an increased publication output from  
31 2012-2017, compared to 2010-2011 and 2018-2019. Most studies were conducted in Oromia,  
32 Amhara and SNNPR. A substantial body of evidence was found for trypanosomosis,  
33 ectoparasite infestation, fasciolosis, nematodiasis, echinococcosis, brucellosis and bovine  
34 brucellosis. This study suggests that despite the high output of epidemiological publications,  
35 further understanding of a considerable number of diseases is required and where evidence is  
36 abundant, synthesis of information should be carried out in order to better inform decisions on  
37 disease control priorities in the livestock sector.

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40 **Keywords**

41 Cattle; disease frequency; small ruminants; sub-Saharan Africa; systematic mapping;

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## 44 **Introduction**

45 Livestock are catalytic in supporting the livelihoods of millions of poor smallholders in sub-  
46 Saharan Africa, in both rural and peri-urban settings (Randolph *et al.*, 2007). Ethiopia has the  
47 largest livestock population in Africa and the ninth largest population in the world. Ruminants  
48 account for 80% of the national herd and contribute significantly to poverty alleviation, with  
49 small ruminants being key to the improvement of the income status of female smallholder  
50 farmers (Shapiro *et al.*, 2017). Despite the constantly growing ruminant population and the  
51 dairy sector's potential over the last decade, the livestock subsector in Ethiopia is facing serious  
52 constraints, such as reduced livestock productivity, which impair its growth (Minten *et al.*,  
53 2020; Leta and Mesele, 2014). Infectious diseases are a highly ranked cause of compromised  
54 livestock productivity in the country, with disease- associated losses amounting to hundreds of  
55 millions of dollars in specific years (Berhanu, 2002). The absence of a clear policy framework  
56 for specific aspects of livestock development, including disease control, has been considered  
57 an additional hurdle to the sector's growth (Legese and Fadiga, 2014). On these grounds,  
58 disease-associated livestock morbidity and mortality have become a highly relevant topic for  
59 international policy and research in Ethiopia, and a considerable number of research initiatives  
60 have been generated over recent years, resulting in an increasing volume of evidence.  
61 Although, there have been some comprehensive efforts to collate evidence for specific  
62 ruminant diseases in the country, no systematic mapping of the whole body of evidence has so  
63 far been undertaken. This significant knowledge gap thus poses a considerable challenge for  
64 decision-makers who strive to define the problem and establish its magnitude.

65

66 Systematic evidence mapping is a methodology extensively used in the social sciences and the  
67 environmental sector to provide an overview of the evidence landscape in a research area by

68 exposing knowledge gaps and clusters (Wolffe *et al.*, 2019). Although systematic mapping  
69 reviews share the rigorous approach of a systematic review, they usually answer research  
70 questions with a wider scope and do not typically involve full data extraction, validity  
71 assessment or quantitative synthesis (i.e. meta-analysis) of the research results (Dicks *et al.*,  
72 2014). Systematic maps can additionally include bibliometric data, which can be used to assess  
73 journal quality, worldwide research trends and priorities, and the dynamics of interdisciplinary  
74 collaborations. Researchers and decision-makers can use systematic maps to gain information  
75 about gaps or under-reported topics in the current evidence base, as well as to benefit from  
76 highlighted knowledge clusters that allow for a full systematic review synthesis. Researchers  
77 can also benefit from the identification of deficiencies and best practices across the evidence  
78 base, which may be used to increase consistency across studies (Haddaway *et al.*, 2016). Most  
79 importantly, funders can appreciate research areas that have previously received a considerable  
80 amount of attention and can therefore, identify priorities and allocate accordingly their funds  
81 to future research (Haddaway *et al.*, 2016).

82

83 Data gaps impact investments in the livestock sector and thus curtail its potential for future  
84 growth, economic development, and poverty alleviation. An estimated 25-40% of published  
85 literature on specific livestock diseases in sub-Saharan Africa is of poor quality and difficult to  
86 summarize due to the diversity of studies (Alonso *et al.*, 2016). Improvements in livestock  
87 health data accessibility and quality have therefore, been identified as key actions to increase  
88 livestock productivity in Low- and Middle-income countries (LMICs). The systematic map  
89 methodology could be a promising decision-making tool for LMICs, as disparate evidence  
90 hampers evidence-based decision-making.

91

92 Considering the above, the objective of this systematic mapping review was to: i) collate and  
93 synthesise the published evidence on ruminant disease frequency and disease-associated  
94 mortality in Ethiopia, ii) identify knowledge gaps and clusters in the literature in order to  
95 inform future research and iii) provide the basis for a decision-making tool in the livestock  
96 sector.

97

## 98 **Stakeholder engagement**

99 The topic for this systematic map arose from a Bill and Melinda Gates Foundation funded  
100 project, Supporting Evidence Based Interventions-Livestock (SEBI-Livestock), established to  
101 collate better livestock data to help inform decision-making. The scope of the project was then  
102 refined through expert discussions, which helped to formulate the research question. A diverse  
103 group of stakeholders were involved in discussions of the scope, protocol review, search  
104 strategy and final presentation of the map, all of whom were members of the Livestock Data  
105 for Decisions Community of Practice (<https://www.livestockdata.org>).

106

## 107 **Objectives of the map**

108 The main research question of this systematic mapping review was:

109 *“What is the most recent available evidence on ruminant infectious disease frequency and*  
110 *disease- associated mortality in Ethiopia?”*

111

112 The key objective, as requested by the stakeholders, was to catalogue the existing evidence  
113 across several production-limiting ruminant infectious diseases and of disease-associated  
114 mortality. Moreover, although systematic maps do not typically capture study details, we chose

115 also to extract the prevalence values for the respective diseases, as this was identified as  
116 important information for our stakeholders. The envisaged output of this process was to  
117 establish a comprehensive interactive evidence map of ruminant disease and mortality research  
118 in Ethiopia, along with the respective reported prevalence.

119

120 The research question framed according to the Population and Outcome (PO) scheme was:

- 121 - **Population:** Ruminants (cattle, sheep, and goats) reared in Ethiopia
- 122 - **Outcome:** Distribution of evidence, disease incidence/prevalence, disease-associated  
123 mortality

124

## 125 **Methods**

### 126 **Registration of the protocol**

127 The present review was conducted in accordance with the protocol previously published  
128 (Tsouloufi *et al.*, 2020), which conformed to the Reporting Standards for Systematic Evidence  
129 Syntheses (ROSES) and PRISMA-ScR standards (Haddaway *et al.*, 2017). Reporting standards  
130 such as ROSES and PRISMA are widely accepted in the evidence synthesis community to  
131 support transparency and rigor of the research (Haddaway and Macura, 2018).

132

### 133 **Deviations from the protocol**

134 A few modifications to the original protocol were made in order to facilitate the review process.  
135 Although we stated in our protocol that we would consider an evaluation of the methodological  
136 quality of the included papers, we have not included such an analysis in this review due to time  
137 and resource constraints. This will be discussed extensively in the context of a future  
138 publication and is not considered a critical omission for this analysis, as the quality of included  
139 studies is not typically appraised in the context of a systematic map, according to the  
140 established methodological guidance (James *et al.*, 2016). Critical appraisal in systematic maps  
141 is optional since there is no synthesis of the results and it is difficult to assess external validity  
142 when the research question is not explicitly specified as it is with a systematic review.  
143 Furthermore, although this was not intended to be a bibliometric study, we added a quality  
144 metric of the published studies according to their journal ranking, as we felt that this would  
145 give a preliminary insight to the quality of research produced. For this purpose, we opted for  
146 Scimago Journal & Country Rank for the scientific journals (<https://scimagojr.com>), as this has  
147 previously been used in systematic maps (Alla and Nafil, 2019). Finally, we excluded the “case  
148 definition” category from the data extraction form, as almost none of the included studies  
149 succinctly defined the suspected/confirmed case for the respective diseases, which thus  
150 precluded any further evaluation.

151

## 152 **Searches**

153 A comprehensive search of multiple information sources attempted to capture an un-biased  
154 sample of literature to encompass both published and grey literature. Initially all searches  
155 were conducted within a period of 3 months (January-March 2020). In addition to these  
156 searches, the bibliographic database searches were repeated within the time period of a month  
157 (November 2021).

158

159 **Search terms**

160 Boolean search strings in the form of (Population) AND Ethiopia AND (Outcome) were  
161 developed for each of the studied conditions according to the suggestions made by specialist  
162 librarians within the University of Edinburgh. The respective search strings were tested in the  
163 first instance in the selected databases and were accordingly adapted in reviewers' meetings  
164 until finalized. Specifically, a benchmark of 5 highly relevant articles (Supplementary File 1)  
165 were screened against scoping search results to examine whether searches could locate  
166 relevant evidence. If the database did not allow for a full search string, a shortened version  
167 was produced and adapted as necessary. Searches were restricted on publication dates from  
168 January 2010 to December 2019. Details of the terms used in each of the searches are  
169 provided in Supplementary File 1, as there were variations between search terms employed  
170 across the different databases. The number of articles retrieved by each search term were  
171 recorded in the Supplementary File 1. The initial searches were performed in 2020. The  
172 bibliographic databases and the Addis Ababa University repository searches were repeated in  
173 2021. Despite the number of search results being recorded in 2020, the associated endnote  
174 files were not archived before screening. In 2021, the searches were repeated in order to  
175 ensure that there were copies of the Endnote files archived and the process could be repeated.  
176 These repeated searches were also performed to generate metrics on the relative importance  
177 of each database to the final search results. These results are informing the prioritisation of  
178 ongoing work automating the process using machine learning techniques (Goldfarb-Tarrant *et*  
179 *al.*, 2020). Supplementary File 1 details the results of both the searches in 2020, as well as the  
180 searches in 2021.

181

182 **Bibliographic databases**



183 The following online bibliographic databases were searched to identify relevant literature:

184 Scopus, Web of Science (Core collection), MEDLINE<sup>®</sup> via NCBI<sup>®</sup> and CAB direct<sup>®</sup> via

185 CABI<sup>®</sup>.

186

### 187 **Search engines and specialist websites**

188 Grey literature was captured by search engine searches using Google Scholar (500 first

189 results sorted by relevance) and GrayLit network. Additionally, the databases Networked

190 Digital Library of Theses and Dissertations and the website African Journals Online were

191 searched.

192

### 193 **Organisational websites**

194 The following specialist websites were also searched:

195 International Livestock Research Institute (<https://www.ilri.org>), the Consultative Group for

196 International Agricultural Research (CGIAR) (<https://www.cgiar.org>), the Food and

197 Agriculture Organization of the United Nations (FAO, <http://www.fao.org>), the United States

198 Agency for International Development (USAID, <https://www.usaid.gov/>), World

199 Organization for Animal Health (OIE, <http://www.oie.int/>) and, the electronic repository of

200 the Addis Ababa University (<http://etd.aau.edu.et/>)

201

### 202 **Endnote files and compilation of search results**

203 Results of the searches in bibliographic databases were downloaded as reference files and

204 assembled as a final library using the desktop version of Endnote<sup>®</sup> X9 (Clarivate Analytics).

205 Duplicates were automatically removed after all endnote files were combined. Results from  
206 the other sources (search engines and websites) were saved as screen captures and were  
207 categorised into separate files. Duplicates of these searches were manually removed prior to  
208 screening.

209

210 Records from bibliographic databases were introduced into the screening workflow. Records  
211 from other sources were screened separately before they were combined with other records.  
212 Due to the project's restricted timelines, snowballing (i.e. use of paper's reference list to  
213 identify additional papers) and update searches were not performed.

214

## 215 **Study screening**

216 All studies retrieved from searches were screened via a two-stage screening process (title-  
217 abstract and full-text level) following the CEE guidelines (CEE, 2018), and by applying the  
218 pre-defined eligibility criteria. In the first stage, all titles and abstracts were prospectively  
219 evaluated by two independent reviewers (TKT, ISMV) in terms of their relevance to the  
220 research questions. Studies where the title and abstracts meet the eligibility criteria were  
221 evaluated in their full length for inclusion. Any doubt over the presence of a relevant  
222 inclusion criterion or where abstracts were lacking, resulted in the articles being retained for  
223 assessment at a full-text level. At the beginning of each stage, the agreement between the two  
224 reviewers (LMD and ISMV) was evaluated in a random subset of papers (1000 articles  
225 screened at both the title and abstract stage, as well as the full-text stage) with the use of the  
226 Cohen's Kappa statistic and in order to ensure consistency and common understanding of the  
227 eligibility criteria. A Kappa score of 0.69 indicated substantial agreement for inclusion  
228 between the reviewers and this was considered acceptable. A few discrepancies were

229 resolved in discussion until mutual understanding of the inclusion criteria was improved and  
230 consensus was reached.

231

## 232 **Study inclusion**

233 For the purposes of the present systematic map, searches included studies written in the English  
234 language that were published from 1<sup>st</sup> January 2010 to 31<sup>st</sup> December 2019. Observational  
235 (cross-sectional or cohort) studies that reported on the incidence and/or prevalence or mortality  
236 of selected infectious diseases affecting Ethiopian ruminants (cattle, sheep or goats) were  
237 considered for inclusion. The specific diseases to be studied were chosen based on experts'  
238 opinion. Experimental studies, preliminary or pilot studies, studies that report on aggregated  
239 livestock data or outbreaks, studies which cover non-infectious diseases or other conditions  
240 (e.g. drought), as well as case report/series studies were excluded. Retrospective studies and  
241 surveys were also excluded. Narrative reviews, systematic reviews, maps and meta-analyses  
242 were included when primary data was available and these were recorded separately.

243

## 244 **Data collection process and items**

245 After screening at full-text, two reviewers (TKT, ISMV) independently extracted  
246 bibliographical meta-data and study details from each study considered for inclusion into a pre-  
247 trialled extraction template. The template was piloted in 10 sample articles and all the  
248 discrepancies were discussed in detail by the reviewers. A coding scheme was developed  
249 iteratively during the systematic map screening process.

250

251 Bibliographical information extracted included the reference, year of publication, article, and  
252 journal title. Study details extracted included start and end date of data collection, experimental  
253 design, experimental factors, sampling method and statistical analysis. Study location details  
254 extracted included geographical region and agroecology. Population level details extracted  
255 included ruminant species, animal age (days, months and years and/or young, adult and old),  
256 breed, as well as the production system. The type of sample and the diagnostic method used,  
257 as well as the disease were also extracted. In addition, herd prevalence/incidence (%),  
258 individual prevalence/incidence (%) and mortality (%) were also extracted. Finally, a  
259 comments category allowed the entry of any potential reviewer's comments to add further  
260 context to extracted information.

261

262 Primary data made available from published systematic reviews and meta-analyses were  
263 separately extracted and subsequently added to the main data set. In the coding scheme used,  
264 each line of the extraction form represented one prevalence value and not one article. For some  
265 categories multiple codes were applied, (for example, articles that reported results from more  
266 than one region, agroecology or experimental factor). If the relevant information could not be  
267 identified within the text, the field was left blank.

268

269 Upon completion of the data extraction, the dataset was harmonised and systematically checked  
270 for consistency by another author (LMD) to reduce entry errors. The extracted data were  
271 automatically cleaned using the statistical language R (<https://www.r-project.org/>).

272

273 **Systematic map data stored on Edinburgh DataShare.**

274 A copy of the Systematic map evidence base in the form of an excel file is stored on the  
275 Edinburgh DataShare platform (Tsouloufi *et al.*, 2021). Thereby ensuring the long-term storage  
276 of the evidence base and allowing a persistent Digital Object Identifier (DOI) to be provided.  
277 As new searches are performed, the evidence base will be updated, therefore the data on  
278 Edinburgh DataShare represents a snapshot of the evidence base at the time of publication of  
279 this manuscript. The definitions of the categories and codes used in the systematic map are  
280 detailed in the meta-data of the excel file.

281

## 282 **Synthesis of the results**

283 The evidence base identified within this systematic map is described in a narrative report and  
284 the descriptive statistics are presented in the form of figures. The evidence base is also visually  
285 presented as an interactive evidence map using the visualization platform Tableau  
286 (Washington, USA). The visualization includes multiple views of the dataset ranging from  
287 bibliographic information to study specific information targeted to specific users. In addition,  
288 the prevalence and mortality rates can also be explored (which are not reported on in this  
289 paper). The interactive evidence map can be accessed at <https://www.livestockdata.org> and  
290 aims to reduce time and resources required to retrieve evidence, thereby facilitating evidence  
291 based decision-making. The dashboard will be updated and act as a living systematic map of  
292 the ruminant disease evidence in Ethiopia. Updates will happen at least twice a year using a  
293 machine learning methodology applied by informatics experts (Goldfarb-Tarrant *et al.*, 2020),  
294 a model used by other groups synthesising human health data (Shemilt *et al.*, 2021).

295

## 296 **Study validity assessment**

297 The validity of articles was not appraised as part of this systematic map in accordance with  
298 accepted systematic mapping methodological guidance (James *et al.*, 2016). However, meta-  
299 data, such as study design, sampling method and experimental procedures, were extracted,  
300 allowing for internal and external validity of the included studies to be undertaken in future  
301 systematic reviews.

302

### 303 **Journal ranking**

304 Along with the bibliographic information, a SCImago Journal Rank (SJR) indicator  
305 measurement was recorded. This is a relatively new, quantitative indicator metric that  
306 illustrates the journal's scientific influence. It uses citation data from the Scopus database by  
307 calculating the average number of weighted citations received during a selected year for each  
308 document published in that journal during the previous three years. This indicator has been  
309 evaluated against the Thomson Reuters Scientific Impact Factor and was found to be a useful  
310 alternative for journal impact evaluation (Gonzalez-Pereira *et al.*, 2010). This scheme  
311 categorises journals that are included in the Scopus database into quarters (Q1 to Q4, Q1  
312 indicating journals with the highest prestige), while for a number of journals it is either not  
313 yet available (NA) or not indexed (NI). A single reviewer (ISMV) categorised the papers  
314 considered for inclusion according to their SJR indicators.

315

## 316 **Results**

### 317 **Overall review descriptive statistics**

318 The searches in the bibliographical databases resulted in 3164 records being collected from  
319 bibliographic databases and 66381 records were retrieved from search engines, specialist

320 websites and organisational websites (Figure 1) in 2020. There were 1,456 articles in total  
321 considered eligible for full-text screening and data retrieval. Of the 1,456 articles screened, 716  
322 were eligible for data extraction and subsequent inclusion in the systematic map database  
323 (Figure 1). The original endnote files were not archived for the bibliographic searches and  
324 therefore the searches were repeated in 2021. The searches in the bibliographical databases  
325 resulted in 3666 records in 2021, of which 3,073 were duplicates.

326

327 There were differences noted between the search results collected in 2020 and 2021 which are  
328 detailed in Supplementary File 1. These differences may be the result of bibliographic database  
329 changes during this time, but we also acknowledge the potential existence of human errors  
330 during the recording of search results. In 2021, a subset of searches were performed by a second  
331 author for validation.

332

### 333 **Bibliographical details and journal rankings**

334 Journal articles were the most common type of publication (n= 696; 97.2%) followed by  
335 academic theses (n=17; 2.4%) and then conference proceedings (n=3; 0.23 %). Out of the 716  
336 articles included in the map, 56 (7.8%) were published in a journal that ranked as Q1 in  
337 SCImago journal ranking system, 86 (12.0%) in a journal ranked as Q2, 24 (3.4%) in a Q3  
338 journal and 34 (4.7%) in a Q4 journal. For 114 (15.9%) of the included papers the indicator  
339 was not calculated, while for 402 (56.1%) articles the indicator was not available as the  
340 respective journals were not included in the Scopus database (Figure 2). The journals chosen  
341 most often for publication were the *Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health* (NI)  
342 (n=65; 9.1%), followed by the *Ethiopian Veterinary Journal* (NI) (n=49; 6.8%) and *Tropical*  
343 *Animal Health and Production* (Q2) (n=47; 6.6%) as depicted in Figure 3.

### 344 **Distribution of studies per publication year**

345 Figure 4 shows the number of studies published per year for the selected infectious diseases  
346 and their associated mortality in Ethiopia. Between the years 2012 and 2017 a considerable  
347 increase in the number of published studies was noted, with a peak of 101 and 97 studies  
348 observed in 2012 and 2017 respectively, when compared to 51 and 53 studies observed in 2010  
349 and 2011 respectively. The number of published studies observed declined to 54 and 25 in 2018  
350 and 2019 respectively.

351

### 352 **Distribution of studies per geographical location**

353 The distribution of published studies per disease and Ethiopian regional states is presented in  
354 Figure 5. Overall, most of the published studies (n=321; 44.8%) were conducted in Oromia,  
355 followed by Amhara (n=153; 21.4%) and the Southern Nations, Nationalities, and Peoples'  
356 Region (n=128; 17.9%). The next most frequently studied regional states were Tigray (n=53;  
357 7.4%), Addis Ababa (n=32; 4.5%) and Benishangul-Gumuz (n=31; 4.3%). The least studied  
358 Ethiopian regional states were Afar (n=23; 3.2%), Somali (n=17; 2.4%), the city of Dire Dawa  
359 (n=11; 1.5%), Gambella (n=7; 1.0%) and Harari (n=7; 1.0%). The most studied agroecological  
360 zone was the midland zone (n=398;5.6%), whereas lowland (n=158;22.1%) and highland  
361 (n=156;22.1%) zones were equally studied.

362

### 363 **Distribution of studies per population and production system**

364 Cattle (n=4469; 65.5%) were the most commonly studied population, followed by sheep  
365 (n=234; 32.7%) and then goats (n=203; 28.4%). Some studies reported their results as “small  
366 ruminants” (n=138; 19.3%). In almost half the studies animal breed was described



367 (n=326;45.5%) and in certain cases the specific breed was mentioned such as Zebu, Boran or  
368 Holstein, however, more frequently generic categories were used such as local, cross, or exotic.  
369 There was considerable variation in the description of animal age amongst the studies, there  
370 are 128 (17.9%) studies in the dataset that have a description in terms of days, months and  
371 years, whereas a smaller number of studies (n=49;6.8%) are coded using the terms young, adult  
372 and old (the former coding took precedence to the later by the authors). There was considerable  
373 variation in terminology used to describe production systems and classifications such as  
374 extensive (156=n;21.8%), mixed (97=n;13.5%) or semi-intensive (40=n;5.6%) often being  
375 used.

376

#### 377 **Distribution of studies per outcome**

378 Regarding the outcomes measured, most of the included studies reported on individual disease  
379 prevalence (n=709; 98.3%), 65 studies (9.1%) reported on herd prevalence and 14 studies  
380 reported on mortality (2%).

381

#### 382 **Distribution of studies per disease**

383 Figure 6 shows the number of studies published for the selected infectious diseases and  
384 associated mortality in Ethiopia. Between 2010 and 2019, trypanosomosis was identified as the  
385 most studied disease in Ethiopia with 127 articles published overall (17.7%), followed by  
386 ectoparasite infestation (n=107; 14.9%), fasciolosis (n=87; 12.2%) and nematodiasis (n=87;  
387 12.2%). The next most frequently studied diseases were echinococcosis (n=73; 10.2%),  
388 brucellosis (n=66; 9.2%) and bovine tuberculosis (n=53; 7.4%). Relatively low study numbers  
389 of studies were identified for cysticercosis (n=35; 4.9%), foot and mouth disease (n=26; 3.6%),  
390 contagious bovine pleuropneumonia (n=17; 2.4%), peste des petits ruminants (n=14; 2.0%),

391 contagious caprine pleuropneumonia (n=14; 2.0%), pasteurellosis (n=14, 2.0%),  
392 dermatophilosis (n=11; 1.5%) and toxoplasmosis (n=11; 1.5%). For the selected publication  
393 years, infrequently studied ruminant diseases were lumpy skin disease (n=9; 1.3%), babesiosis  
394 (n=8; 1.1 %), sheep and goat pox (n=7; 1%) and cryptosporidiosis (n=7; 1.1%). Fewer than 5  
395 articles were found for bovine anaplasmosis (n=5; 0.7%), bovine viral diarrhoea (n=3; 0.4%),  
396 cowdriosis (n=3; 0.4%), dermatophytosis (n=3; 0.4%), salmonellosis (n=3; 0.4%), bluetongue  
397 (n=3; 0.4%), rabies (n=3; 0.4%), Q fever (n=2; 0.3%), caseous lymphadenitis (n=2; 0.3%) and  
398 neosporosis (n=2; 0.3%). Only 1 article was found for each of the following diseases; blackleg,  
399 haemorrhagic septicemia, anthrax and infectious bovine rhinotracheitis. No evidence was  
400 found for the following ruminant diseases for the selected publication years when using our  
401 search strings: bovine genital campylobacteriosis, bovine spongiform encephalopathy,  
402 contagious agalactia, enzootic bovine leucosis, infectious necrotic hepatitis, leptospirosis,  
403 listeriosis, malignant catarrhal fever, ovine epididymitis, paratuberculosis, sarcocystosis,  
404 scrapie and trichomonosis.

405

#### 406 **Distribution of studies per diagnostic test**

407 Figure 7 shows the number of studies published using a particular diagnostic test. In most of  
408 the included studies, the tests recommended by OIE were used for the detection of the  
409 respective disease agents. Specifically, most of the published studies used microscopy as a  
410 diagnostic test (n=324; 45.3%), followed by physical/post-mortem examination (PM  
411 examination) (n=146; 20.4%). There were 158 studies (22.1%) reporting to use serology  
412 techniques, covering a mixture of diagnostic tests (e.g. CFT, RBT, CIDT and ELISA). A small  
413 number of studies employed molecular tests or microbiological methods for the detection of

414 the respective infectious agents. Frequently collected samples were serum (n=158;22.1%),  
415 whole blood (n=141;19.7%), carcass (n=128;17.9%) and faeces (n=116;16.2%).

416

#### 417 **Distribution of studies per experimental factor**

418 Figure 8 shows the most studied experimental factors. There was considerable variation in the  
419 use of terminology and factors studied. Age was the most commonly recorded factor (n=410;  
420 57.3%), followed by sex (n=362; 50.6%) and then body condition score (n=257; 35.9%). Other  
421 commonly studied factors were geographical area, species, breed and management system.

422

#### 423 **Distribution of studies per experimental design and sampling method**

424 Most of the studies included in the present systematic map (n=697) were cross-sectional  
425 observational studies, while 5 were longitudinal observational studies. Most of the studies  
426 (n=642; 89.7%) reported on sample size. A considerable number of studies used a combination  
427 of sampling methodologies, with over half of the studies using simple random sampling  
428 (n=385; 53.8%).

429

## 430 **Discussion**

### 431 **Summary of evidence**

432 This review provides an up-to-date systematic map illustrating the available evidence for a  
433 diverse selection of ruminant diseases in Ethiopia between 2010 and 2019. Research funders  
434 and decision-makers have limited time and sometimes limited resources or knowledge to  
435 evaluate the existing evidence. A clear understanding and learning from previous efforts in the

436 field of ruminant infectious diseases is necessary to prevent future redundant research. Hence,  
437 this map aimed to close a current synthesis gap by highlighting the knowledge gaps and clusters  
438 of this constantly growing research area. Most importantly, it should also improve the visibility  
439 of Ethiopian researchers by presenting research results from both published and grey literature.

440

441 Overall, primary research in ruminant infectious diseases seems to be relatively well reported  
442 in journal articles and the contribution of grey literature was not significant. Between 2010 and  
443 2017, we noted a steady increase in the number of studies published for selected infectious  
444 diseases in Ethiopia (including two peaks in 2012 and 2017), followed by a sharp decline  
445 thereafter. The increase noted between 2012 to 2017 followed a publication momentum from  
446 1996 to 2010, the number of veterinary articles being almost the same as those produced in  
447 Western Europe, North America, and the Pacific region when article output was normalized  
448 for GDP (Christopher and Marusic, 2013). According to the UNESCO institute for statistics  
449 (<http://uis.unesco.org/>), the gross domestic expenditures on research and development in  
450 Ethiopia peaked to 0.6% GDP in 2013 and sharply declined by about 50% in 2017. It is  
451 possible, therefore, that the decline in publications observed is due to the limited resources  
452 available. During the study period, there seems to be an uneven distribution of publications  
453 among the Ethiopian Regional States, with the vast majority concentrated in the most populous  
454 states, namely Oromia, SNNPR and Amhara. These states have the largest livestock density in  
455 the country, hosting 40% of the country's livestock population (Leta and Mesela, 2014).  
456 Moreover, these states also concentrate the largest proportion of research institutes and  
457 veterinary schools in the country, which might account for the increased research output.  
458 Conversely, less populous Ethiopian states that rely heavily on extensive livestock production,  
459 such as Afar, Somali and Gambella, are under-represented in recent literature. All three states  
460 are considered Developing Regional States by the Ethiopian government due to the high

461 poverty prevalence ([www.unicef.org](http://www.unicef.org)) and with the exception of Somali, have a considerably  
462 lower livestock population comprised mostly of small ruminants. This considerably fewer  
463 studies detected might be due to the mobility of the pastoral systems affecting accessibility,  
464 security, and resources.

465

466 For the purposes of this systematic map, we followed a comprehensive approach and we chose  
467 to include 52 infectious diseases that are known to affect ruminant productivity in LMICs. Our  
468 findings illustrate that the most researched diseases in the country for the selected period were  
469 trypanosomosis, ectoparasite infestations and nematodiasis, followed by fasciolosis,  
470 echinococcosis, brucellosis, and bovine tuberculosis. Regarding trypanosomosis, we identified  
471 over 100 studies (including 12 studies on small ruminant trypanosomosis), most of which were  
472 conducted in the western and south-western parts of the country (mostly in Oromia and  
473 Benishangul-Gumuz). This was an expected finding, as this area is known to be the major tsetse  
474 belt in Ethiopia (Balis and Bergeon, 1970). Our findings are partly confirmed by a recently  
475 published meta-analysis, which also identified a considerable number of publications on bovine  
476 trypanosomosis in Ethiopia from 1997 to 2015 (Leta *et al.*, 2016). According to our findings,  
477 the increased research interest around trypanosomosis in the country contributed to the  
478 publication peak in 2012 and continued beyond 2015, with over 30 studies published between  
479 2016 and 2019. Bovine trypanosomosis directly affects animal productivity and is implicated  
480 in increased mortality rates, incurring significant direct and indirect economic losses (Mattioli  
481 and Slingenbergh, 2013). In Ethiopia, there are a considerable number of veterinary  
482 parasitologists and projects e.g. Southern rift valley Tsetse Eradication Project (STEP) focused  
483 on the study of trypanosomosis (personal communication). Understandably, this topic has  
484 gathered a considerable research interest, which is reflected by the increase in number of  
485 publications. The most recent literature covers four *Trypanosoma* species (*T. vivax*, *T.*

486 *congolense*, *T. brucei* and *T. evansi*) and the prevalence values reported vary greatly between  
487 the respective states and publication years, potentially reflecting different control and  
488 eradication efforts. Moreover, almost all the studies employed the micro-haematocrit  
489 centrifugation technique for the disease diagnosis, which is a simple and cost-effective  
490 diagnostic test that might also account for the high number of studies observed.

491

492 Infestation with ectoparasites is an important and often neglected condition in ruminants that  
493 leads to considerable economic losses due to impaired productivity, increased mortality and  
494 skin defects, while some ectoparasites (e.g. ticks) are vectors of important zoonotic agents. The  
495 most recent literature is evenly distributed across the publication years, with a publication peak  
496 noted in 2012, as with trypanosomosis. Most of the studies covering tick infestations in cattle,  
497 were conducted in the SNNPR regional state and reported highly variable prevalence values  
498 across the country. Nematodirases, in turn, seems to have been well-studied in Oromia and  
499 Amhara, mostly in the context of sheep gastrointestinal parasites; this is expected since the  
500 disease is considered one of the major constraints in the development of the Ethiopian livestock  
501 sector and was associated with 25% mortality and 3.8% weight loss in highland sheep (Bekele  
502 *et al.*, 1992). Fasciolosis and echinococcosis are both widely prevalent in Ethiopia and incur  
503 significant economic losses due to the condemnation of the infected organs. Most of the  
504 published studies were conducted in Oromia and Amhara, which is an expected finding  
505 considering the number of abattoirs in these areas. Bovine brucellosis and tuberculosis, in turn,  
506 are important zoonoses that are widely prevalent in Ethiopia, and have a considerable economic  
507 impact due to animal productivity and market/trade impairments in urban and peri-urban areas.  
508 Both diseases are thought to follow a similar distribution within the country (Tschopp *et al.*,  
509 2013). This is reflected in the distribution of the recent literature as almost all regional states  
510 were represented (however there was low or no evidence from Harari, Dire Dawa, Gambella

511 and Benishangul-Gumuz), while the majority of studies were conducted in Oromia, which is  
512 one of the highest milk producing areas in the country (Tschopp *et al.*, 2013). Of note, we  
513 identified 12 publications on small ruminant tuberculosis, the majority of which were carried  
514 out in Afar pastoralist community and reported highly variable prevalence values.

515

516 Conversely, we identified limited evidence for specific infectious disease studies over the last  
517 decade, which are listed as important by OIE. Interestingly, we identified only 14 studies on  
518 PPR during the course of this review, eight of which were conducted after 2015, when the PPR  
519 Global Control and Eradication strategy was launched (OIE, 2016). Most of the studies were  
520 conducted in pastoral areas (e.g. Afar, Gambella) and suggest extensive circulation of PPR  
521 virus among the small ruminant population. PPR is a disease of considerable economic  
522 importance due to its high morbidity and mortality and is endemic in most pastoral areas of  
523 Ethiopia. A new PPR elimination program is currently underway in pastoralist areas; however,  
524 the currently insufficient understanding of PPR epidemiology in the country is likely to  
525 undermine future elimination or vaccination efforts. An effective local vaccine roll-out  
526 strategy, in turn, might account for the limited research interest observed for diseases, such as  
527 black leg, haemorrhagic septicaemia, sheep and goat pox, CBPP and CCPP. With regard to  
528 CCPP, a published meta-analysis highlighted the lack of data for this particular disease  
529 (Asmare *et al.*, 2016); the research interest in this disease seems to be declining recently, as we  
530 identified only five studies published between 2015 and 2019. The evidence for CBPP follows  
531 a reverse pattern, with most studies published between 2015 and 2019; even though there is a  
532 paucity of research in the country, the disease is widespread and considered to be one of the  
533 most important impediments to livestock development in Ethiopia (Abdela and Yune, 2017).  
534 Moreover, we found very few studies investigating vector-borne diseases, excluding  
535 trypanosomosis (e.g. piroplasmosis, cowdriosis, LSD, bluetongue), which was somewhat

536 expected considering the generally limited research evidence available for these diseases  
537 (Asmare *et al.*, 2017). It was also noted that there is a considerable lack of research on the  
538 pathogens implicated in calf diarrhoeas (e.g. BVD, *Escherichia coli*, *Salmonella* spp., and  
539 *Cryptosporidium* spp.), which is the most common cause of neonatal calf mortality. In Ethiopia,  
540 calf morbidity and mortality were ranked as the second biggest issues for dairy production in  
541 Ethiopia after mastitis (ILCA, 1994). Finally, diseases like IBR and BVD that are prevalent  
542 throughout the country seem to be less studied, potentially due to the lack of diagnostic  
543 resources.

544

545 Most importantly, a knowledge gap was identified for some diseases including anthrax,  
546 enzootic bovine leucosis, leptospirosis, listeriosis, contagious agalactia, enterotoxaemia or  
547 paratuberculosis. This was not surprising considering that most of these diseases are rarely  
548 occurring (e.g. listeriosis, enzootic bovine leucosis), and are underdiagnosed (e.g. contagious  
549 agalactia) or typically documented during large outbreaks (e.g. anthrax). The complete absence  
550 of data on leptospirosis over the last decade is deemed a major limitation of the current evidence  
551 base, however, as it is a globally important zoonotic disease and the available  
552 prevalence/incidence studies in Ethiopia are rather outdated (de Vries *et al.*, 2014)

553

554 The diagnostic tests used in epidemiological studies have a major impact on reported  
555 prevalence and introduce specific limitations to the understanding of the current evidence base.  
556 According to our findings, most of the studies employed tests recommended by the World  
557 Organization for Animal Health (2012). Although the tests varied according to their respective  
558 disease, the overall most used diagnostic tests were microscopy and serology followed by  
559 physical examination/post-mortem diagnosis (i.e. abattoirs), whereas a very small number of



560 studies employed molecular or microbiological methods. Microscopy is a simple and cost-  
561 effective diagnostic method; however, despite its high specificity, it has low analytical  
562 sensitivity, particularly for parasitic diseases, due to variable levels of parasitaemia. Cross-  
563 sectional studies, in turn, that employ serological tests, are unable to conclude on the true  
564 prevalence, as antibody levels can fluctuate, especially during the early course of infection.  
565 The utility of antibody tests should be further considered, particularly in the context of resource  
566 limiting settings, as cattle are managed poorly under chronic malnutrition, high burden of  
567 gastrointestinal parasites and concurrent infections, which could potentially affect their  
568 immune responses. Hence, more sensitive techniques including isolation and molecular  
569 detection of agents need to become more accessible for rapid diagnosis, to improve the  
570 accuracy of prevalence estimates. Finally, in our review we identified studies that were  
571 conducted in abattoirs, mostly covering cattle echinococcosis and fasciolosis in Oromia,  
572 SNNPR and Amhara. While this is a cost-effective option for an epidemiological study that  
573 enables access to larger sample sizes, it is prone to non-random error and information biases  
574 (e.g. poor record keeping) that can affect the prevalence estimates (Delgado-Rodriguez and  
575 Llorca, 2004).

576

577 Regarding disease-associated mortality, our review findings indicate that data are remarkably  
578 scarce for Ethiopia and are mostly in the context of surveys or outbreak investigations. The  
579 studies identified reported on mortality in Oromia, SNNPR, Amhara and Tigray, but age was  
580 often not recorded, however young stock mortality is generally considered high in Sub-Saharan  
581 Africa and approximately ranges from 9% to 45% (Wymann *et al.*, 2006; Bolajoko *et al.*, 2020;  
582 Wong *et al.*, 2021). The reported mortality percentages ranged from 1 to 25% for studies  
583 published from 2010 to 2019, although no clear definition of the measure of mortality was  
584 provided. This is an unsurprising finding, as measuring ruminant mortality in LMICs can prove

585 challenging due to the significant under-reporting of livestock losses and the limited baseline  
586 data in livestock numbers (Catley *et al.*, 2014; Wong *et al.*, 2021). Moreover, mortality rates  
587 are higher when reported in farmer surveys; this might be attributed to the assignment of  
588 livestock culling or sales in this category by the respondents or the underestimation of other  
589 concurrent factors that can cause livestock mortality, such as poor nutrition, mycotoxins etc.  
590 Determining a measure of mortality can be challenging (Wong *et al.*, 2021); future studies  
591 focussing on this aspect should include information about the measure of mortality (mortality  
592 rate, mortality risk or other) and adequate contextual data, such as study design, sampling  
593 method, sample sizes etc., which will aid the interpretation of the findings.

594

#### 595 **Limitations of the evidence base**

596 A limiting factor to the current evidence base is the lack of established ontologies or agreed  
597 definitions with regards to specific data categories such age, mortality and production systems,  
598 which limits the comparability of results across studies. Furthermore, there is specific  
599 information that was occasionally not reported in the compiled studies, such as the descriptive  
600 statistics of the included population, the validity or performance characteristics of each  
601 diagnostic assay used and the standards followed for each assay or the vaccination status of the  
602 animals when serology was used. All these concur with the already recognised issue of  
603 reporting inadequacies in veterinary observational studies and the need for wider application  
604 of reporting standards (e.g. STROBE) (Sargeant and Connor, 2014).

605

#### 606 **Limitations of the review**

607 This systematic mapping review bears limitations that should be considered for future  
608 iterations. Firstly, a few deviations from the original protocol (Tsouloufi *et al.*, 2020) were

609 made, mostly due to time and resource constraints. Secondly, books and monographs were not  
610 accessed for the purposes of the present study, and no snowballing technique was applied to  
611 retrieve extra references; therefore, there is a possibility that a small number of resources were  
612 inadvertently missed. Secondly, this study aimed to explore the evidence with specific date and  
613 language limitations, which may have affected the final distribution of the evidence.  
614 Specifically, the searches were limited to English language and it is possible that manuscripts  
615 written in the Amharic or other local languages were missed. However, although these are  
616 expected to represent a small percentage of the published literature, the inclusion of non-  
617 English language databases would be a worthwhile addition for any future updates. Similarly,  
618 as we focused on publication years 2010 to 2019 and no updated searches have yet been  
619 performed, this review fails to cover any research performed between then and the publication  
620 of this paper. Thirdly, although the review follows a comprehensive approach and covers 52  
621 infectious diseases, there is a possibility that some conditions were omitted. Fourthly, we only  
622 studied disease prevalence at a regional level; future iterations should consider study status on  
623 a district level to fully understand the epidemiology of the problem. Although we described the  
624 distribution of papers according to their SCImago ranking, this was not intended to be a  
625 comprehensive bibliometric study and thus, no definitive conclusions should be drawn in these  
626 respects. Finally, the original Endnote files for the bibliographic searches were not archived,  
627 which has resulted in the paper not reporting on all the intermediate steps of the screening  
628 process as recommended by the guidelines (Haddaway *et al.*, 2017) e.g. duplicate removal,  
629 records after title screening etc.

630

## 631 **Review conclusions and recommendations**

632 This systematic map provides a first comprehensive synthesis of recent evidence available on  
633 ruminant infectious disease frequency and disease-associated mortality in Ethiopia. Overall,  
634 the published research seems concentrated on a few infectious diseases of parasitic and  
635 bacterial origin, whereas most of the selected diseases are either under-represented or absent.  
636 This review is intended to form the basis for further primary research by identifying key  
637 knowledge gaps and be a starting point for the synthesis of information in focused systematic  
638 reviews. As the intention is to keep this map an Open Access source, interested stakeholders  
639 will have the opportunity to view study data with unlimited accessibility, the lack of which is  
640 often mentioned to hamper evidence use (Haddaway *et al.*, 2016). The work underway on  
641 automating the process will enable evidence to be represented as living map accessible form  
642 the online visualisation (Goldfarb-Tarrant *et al.*, 2020).

643

#### 644 **Implications and recommendations for policy and research**

645 Future primary research efforts should focus on addressing the aforementioned limitations of  
646 the evidence base. Specifically, when conducting an observational study, efforts should be  
647 made to adhere to specific reporting standards (e.g. STROBE), so that internal and external  
648 validity can be adequately evaluated. On these grounds, it is vital that consensus statements are  
649 released on livestock ontologies, particularly in areas such as animal age or mortality, as this  
650 will ensure the interoperability of the reported results. Future studies should also focus on  
651 consolidating evidence from geographically distinct literature (i.e. states such as Afar, Somali  
652 and Gambella which have been underrepresented over the last decade) and local languages to  
653 ensure that local knowledge has an appropriate coverage. At this point, it should be noted that  
654 the number of publications for a selected diseases is a measure of research productivity and  
655 does not necessarily correlate with the burden or impact of illness in the country; this map

656 should therefore not be consulted solely for the disease prioritization in the country. Some  
657 significant knowledge gaps in the country were identified regarding the frequency of some  
658 diseases and are presented in Table.1.

659

## 660 **Implications for future evidence synthesis**

661 The map highlights areas where there may be sufficient data to justify a systematic review. We  
662 would strongly advise the inclusion of stakeholder engagement for the formulation and  
663 prioritization of the research question to ensure the relevance of the intended outputs.  
664 Furthermore, the present systematic mapping review will be updated, to ensure new evidence  
665 is included in a timely manner. Areas for future evidence synthesis have been highlighted by  
666 this map, in some cases they have been addressed by recent publications.

667 i) The results of a meta-analysis on trypanosomosis published in 2016 could be updated as 60  
668 additional studies were published up to the end of 2019 (Leta *et al.*, 2016).

669 ii) The results of a meta-analysis on brucellosis conducted in 2014 has been updated (Tesfaye  
670 *et al.*, 2014).

671 iii) Although tick infestations are mostly covered in a recent systematic review 2017, evidence  
672 is constantly growing, but there is no recent systematic review covering all ectoparasites  
673 (Asmare *al.*, 2017).

674 iv) No recent systematic review or meta-analysis covering different endoparasites has been  
675 published.

676

677

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- 844
- 845
- 846

847 Table 1

848 Gaps in knowledge of certain diseases

<b>Disease</b>	<b>Gaps in knowledge</b>
<b>PPR</b>	Targeted for eradication by 2030; limited evidence collected from most states, no recent evidence for some Ethiopian states (e.g. Afar and Gambella)
<b>CCPP and CBPP</b>	Some Ethiopian states (e.g. Amhara) have no collected evidence or have no recent evidence (e.g. Afar)
<b>Q fever</b>	Emerging zoonotic disease in LMICs, with significant socio-economic implications; only two studies identified
<b>Leptospirosis</b>	Significant zoonotic disease with generally limited and dated evidence, no study in the last decade identified
<b>Vector-borne diseases excluding trypanosomosis (e.g. piroplasmosis, cowdriosis, bluetongue and dermatophilosis)</b>	Well-recognised causes of compromised productive and reproductive performance of small ruminants in SSA; a dearth of published evidence over the last decade
<b>Small ruminant brucellosis</b>	Compared to bovine brucellosis, a dearth of studies discusses small ruminant brucellosis recently
<b>Diarrhoea-inducing infectious agents (e.g. BVDV, <i>Salmonella</i> spp, <i>Cryptosporidium</i> spp, <i>Escherichia coli</i>)</b>	Despite the importance of the condition in cattle production, very little is known about its status

<b>Disease co-infections</b>	Their role in livestock productivity is commonly underestimated, as specific diseases are usually targeted
<b>Disease-associated mortality</b>	Current knowledge comes exclusively from farmer surveys; best measure of mortality needs to be decided
<b>Paratuberculosis</b>	Only case reports and limited prevalence studies are available in SSA

849

## 850 **Legends**

851 Figure 1 = A conceptual diagram displaying the process of study selection and the respective number  
852 of studies included in the systematic map.

853 Figure 2 = Number of retrieved studies categorised by SCImago journal ranking system (SJR).

854 Figure 3 = Number of retrieved studies published in each scientific journal (only journals with 20 or  
855 more retrieved studies are displayed).

856 Figure 4 = Number of retrieved studies published each year between 2010-2019

857 Figure 5 = Number of retrieved studies by geographical region across Ethiopia (some studies  
858 included more than one geographical region)

859 Figure 6 = Number of retrieved studies published on each disease (only diseases with 5 or more  
860 retrieved studies are displayed, some studies included multiple diseases)

861 Figure 7 = Number of retrieved studies published using each diagnostic test (only tests with 20 or  
862 more retrieved studies are displayed, studies frequently included multiple diagnostic tests).

863 Figure 8 = Number of retrieved studies published on each experimental factor (only experimental  
864 factors with 50 or more retrieved studies are displayed, studies frequently included multiple  
865 experimental factors).

Searching

Records identified through  
database searching  
(n = 3164 )

Records identified through  
other sources, listed  
(n = 66381)

Screening

Records after title and abstract screening  
(duplicates removed)  
(n = 1456 )

Excluded titles and  
abstracts  
(n = 740)

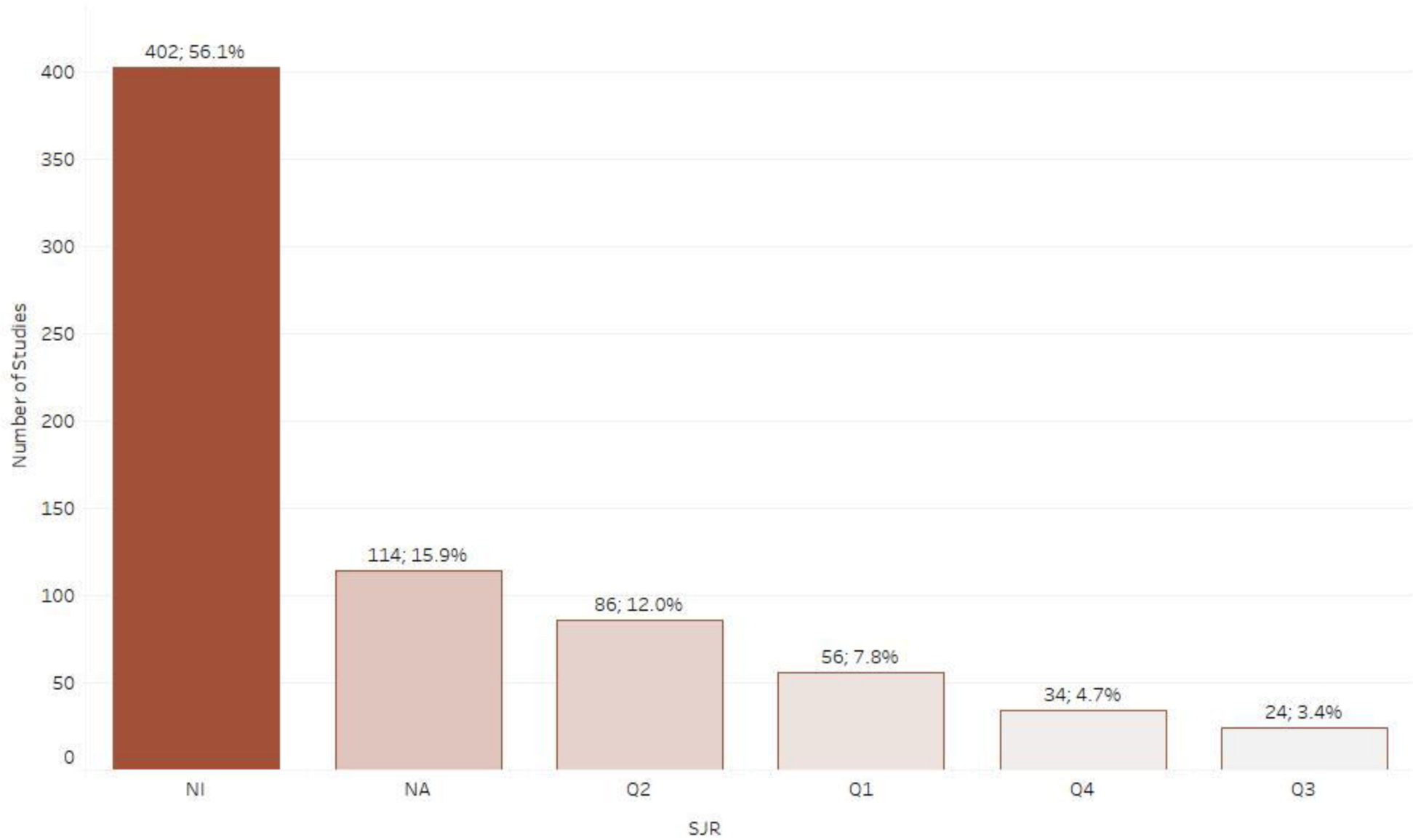
Articles after full text screening  
(n = 716)

Articles

Studies

Synthesis

Studies included in the systematic map database and  
narrative synthesis  
(n = 716 )





Journal

Journal of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Health

65; 9.1%

Ethiopian Veterinary Journal

49; 6.8%

Tropical Animal Health and Production

47; 6.6%

Global Veterinaria

46; 6.4%

Journal of Veterinary Science and Technology

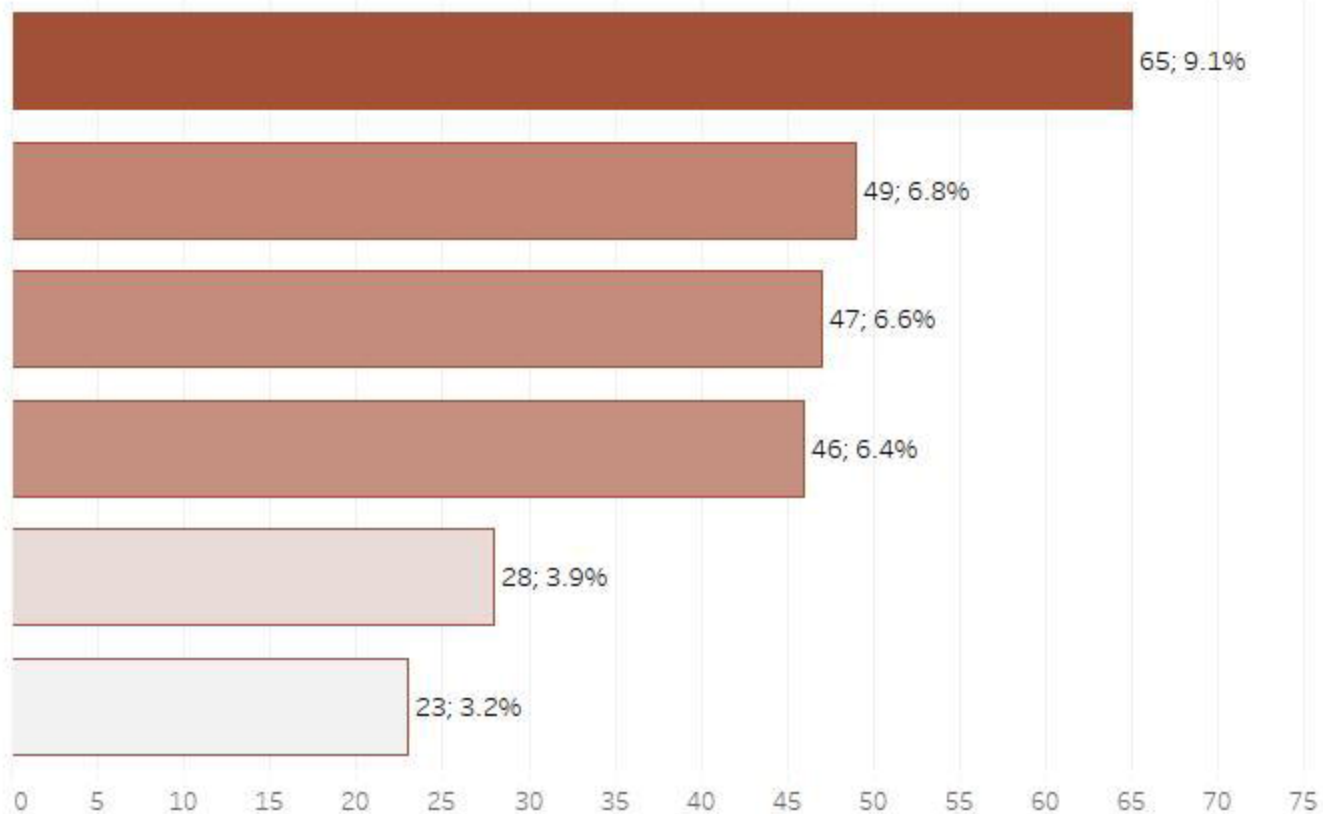
28; 3.9%

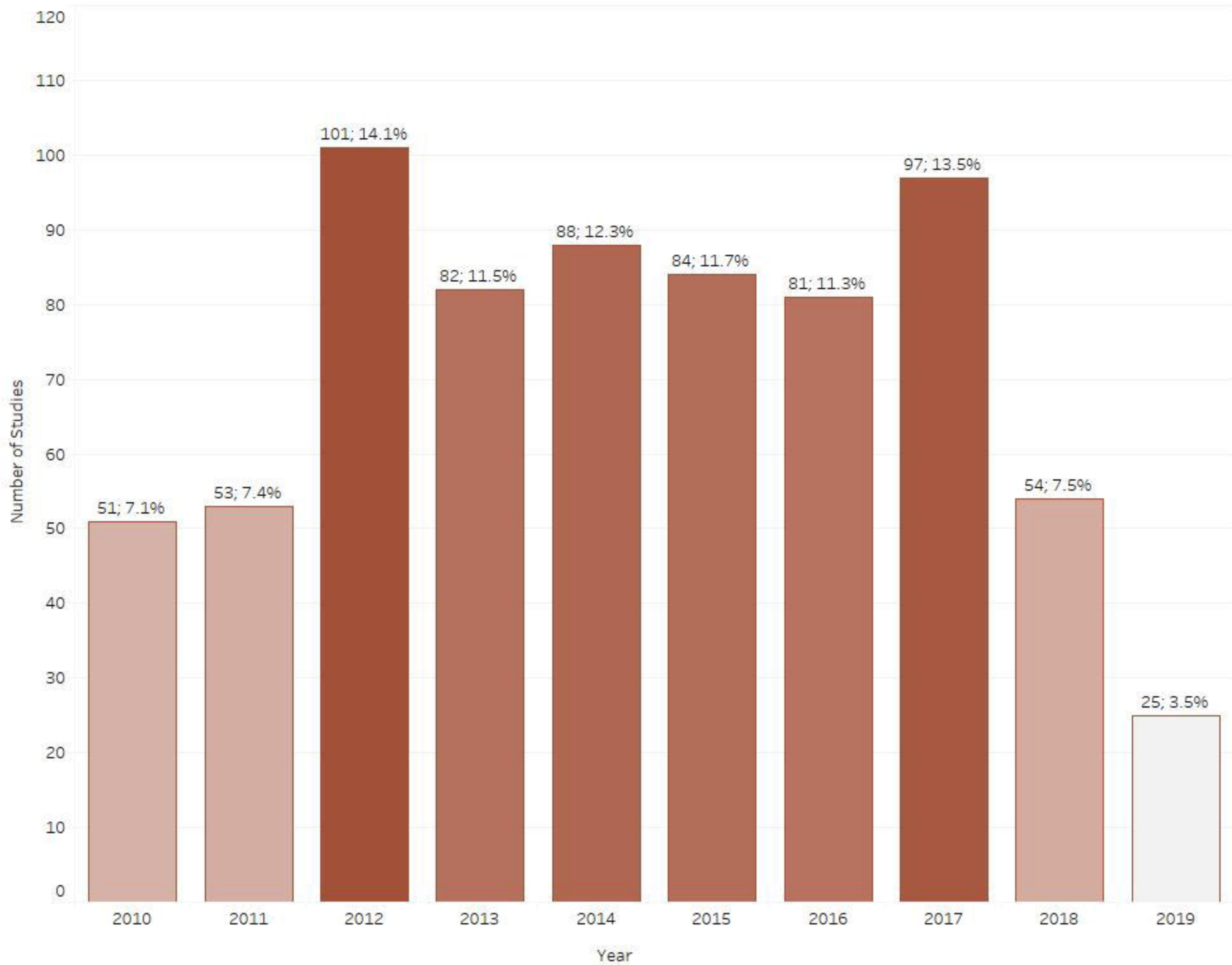
Acta Parasitologica Globalis

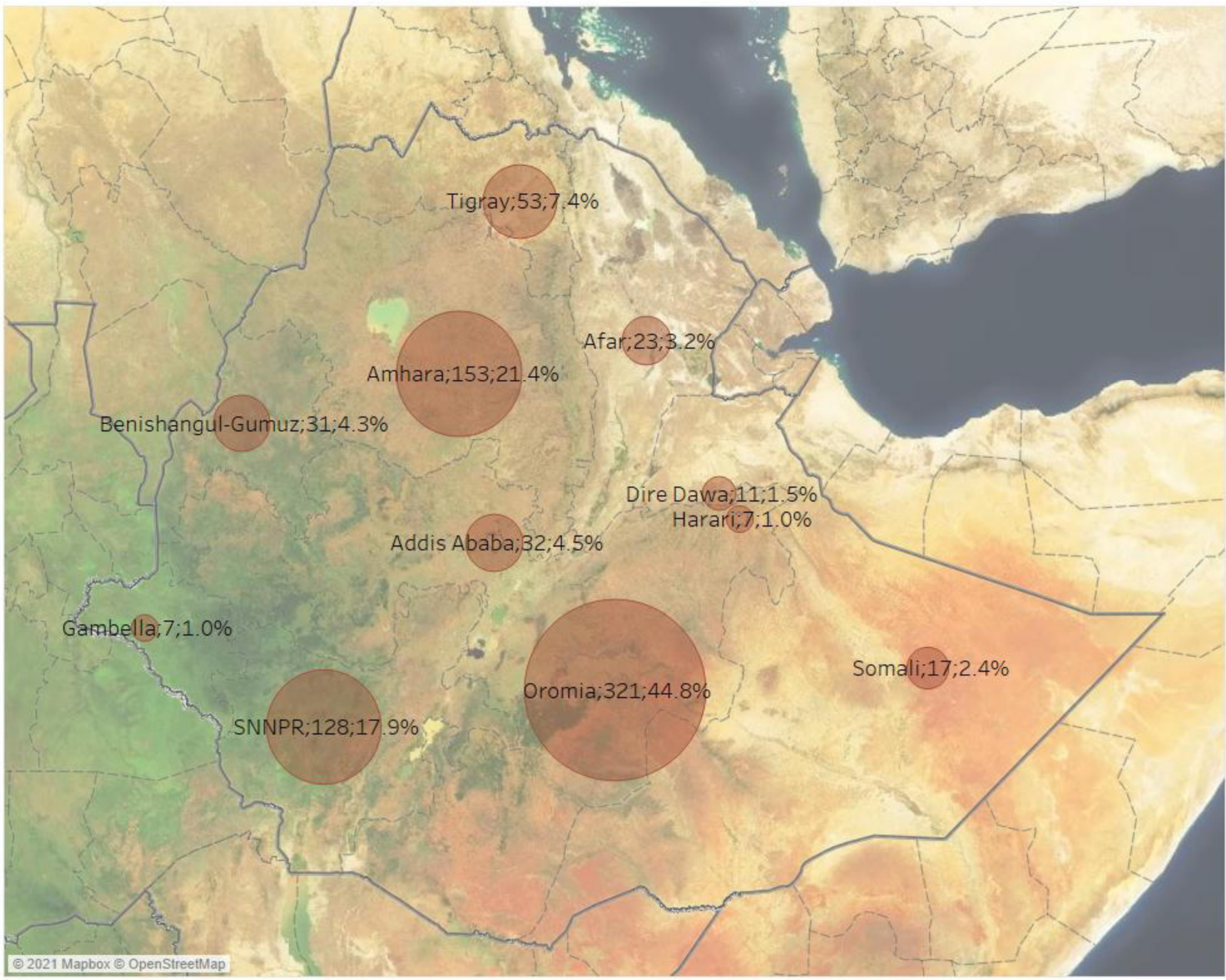
23; 3.2%

0 5 10 15 20 25 30 35 40 45 50 55 60 65 70 75

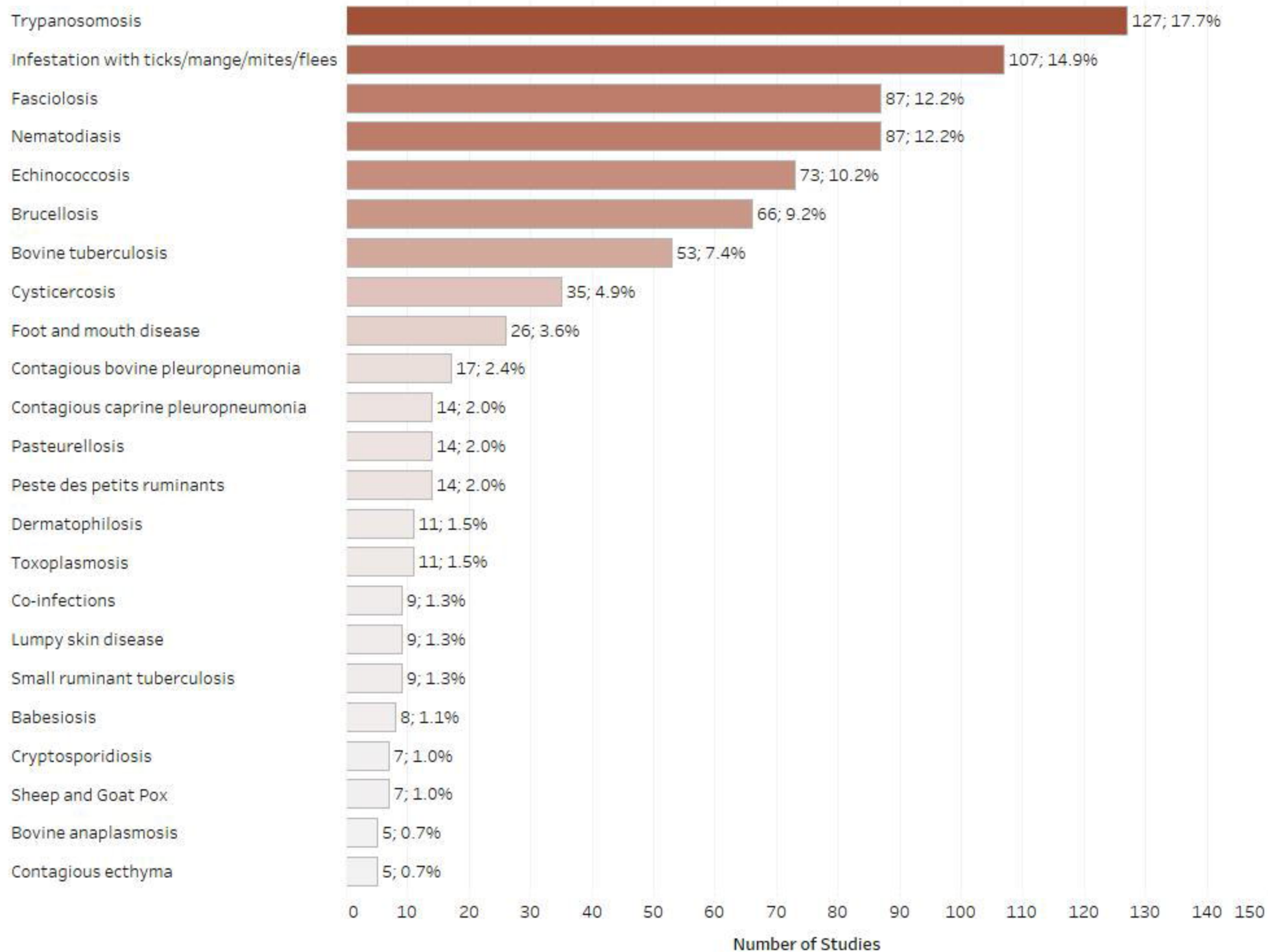
Number of Studies



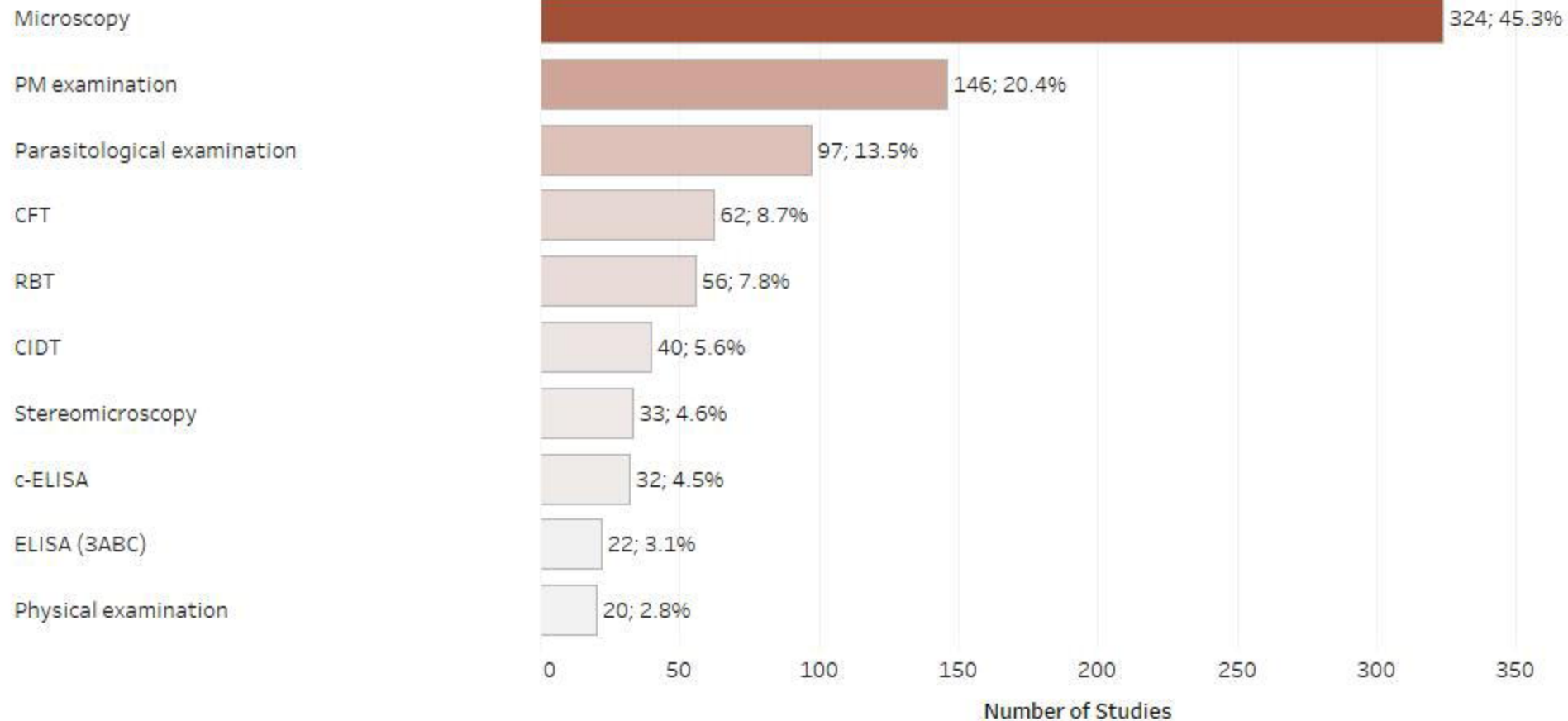




Disease



## Diagnostic test



Experimental Factor

