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1 **Original research paper**

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3 **Gastrointestinal nematode and lungworm infections in organic dairy calves reared with nurse cows**
4 **during their first grazing season in western France**

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24 **Abstract**

25 The rearing system of dairy calves with nurse cows has been developing since 2010 in organic farms
26 in western France. This system allows cow-calf contact until a weaning age close to the natural
27 weaning for cattle and is characterized by an early turnout for calves at around one month of age
28 with their nurse cows and a first grazing season with mixed grazing of calves and adults at a ratio of
29 2-4 calves per nurse cow. The objectives of this study were to assess the gastrointestinal (GIN) and
30 lungworm infections in such reared calves and their variability during the first grazing season. Faecal
31 egg count (FEC), pepsinogen (PEP) concentration and *Ostertagia* ELISA optical density ratio (ODR)
32 were determined in calves (n=497) at housing in 33 groups from 24 farms in 2018, and in calves
33 (n=405) and nurse cows (n=199) throughout the 2019 grazing season in 41 groups from 20 farms. For
34 lungworm infection, information was obtained during 2019 through the recording of coughing
35 episodes along the grazing season and the *Dictyocaulus* ELISA ODR determination at housing both in
36 calves and nurses. Results indicated that the level of GIN infection was overall low for calves during
37 the first grazing season with PEP and *Ostertagia* ODR group-average values ranging from 0.97 to 1.6
38 U Tyr and 0.23 to 0.71 ODR respectively. No anthelmintic treatment being given in any group of
39 calves. *Ostertagia* ODR values increased with the duration of the grazing season (>240 d) and with
40 the ratio calves/nurse (>2). GIN parameters for nurses remained fairly stable during the grazing
41 season with mean FEC, PEP and *Ostertagia* ODR group-average values of 13 epg, 2.28 U Tyr and 0.81
42 ODR, respectively. Antibodies against lungworms were detected in 3 to 62 % of calves depending on
43 the duration of grazing, but only 6% of calves showed a coughing episode. The dilution effect due to
44 the mixed grazing of resistant (nurse cows) and susceptible (calves) animals associated with
45 predominant milk diet of calves during the first months of grazing in combination with protective
46 grazing management allow calves to be turned out at an early age without using anthelmintic
47 treatments. Further studies are needed to assess the GIN infection dynamics during the second
48 grazing season in weaned heifers.

49

50 *Keywords:* Dairy calves, Nurse cows, Cow-calf contact, Gastrointestinal nematodes, lungworm,

51 *Ostertagia ostertagi, Dictyocaulus viviparus, organic farming, first grazing season*

52

53 1. **Introduction**

54 The rearing of dairy calves with a nurse cow is a long-term suckling system without additional milking
55 where two to four calves have free access to suckle the cow (Krohn, 2001). This calf rearing system
56 has spread in France since its introduction in 2010, especially in organic farming in the west of France
57 (Pailler, 2013). This practice allows for cow-calf contact and, in some way, meets a societal demand
58 not to separate the calf from the adult cow until the calf is weaned (Agenäs et al. 2017). Indeed, the
59 weaning of calves reared with nurse cows is mostly done between 7 and 9 months of age and is close
60 to a natural weaning of cattle between 8 and 11 months of age (Reinhardt and Reinhardt, 1981).
61 Moreover, this more natural calf rearing is part of self-sustaining systems where all ruminants have
62 access to pasture throughout the grazing season satisfying the physiological needs and natural
63 behaviour of the animals (Dumont et al., 2018). Several publications are available concerning the
64 positive effects of nurse/adult cow system on calf growth and welfare (Krohn, 2001; Meagher et al.,
65 2019; Michaud et al., 2018; Vaarst et al., 2020; Wagenaar and Langhout, 2007 among others).

66 In contrast, few data are available regarding the impact of such a system on the health status of
67 calves. Previous studies focused on the neonatal period, reporting a lower frequency of neonatal
68 diarrhoea (Weary and Chua, 2000; Wagenaar and Langhout, 2007; Michaud et al., 2018) and a lesser
69 intensity of neonatal *Cryptosporidium* infection compared to classically reared calves (Constancis et
70 al., 2021). On the other hand, the nurse cow system involves an early turnout of calves with their
71 nurse (around one month old at turnout) and a first grazing season (FGS) with other fostered calves
72 at a ratio of 2-4 calves per nurse (Constancis et al., 2020). However, no study addressed common
73 infections by pasture borne parasites in temperate environments to which grazing cattle are
74 naturally exposed to, such as gastrointestinal nematodes (GIN) and lungworms (Takeuchi-Storm et
75 al., 2019). *Ostertagia ostertagi* is the most pathogenic GIN and can cause losses related to clinical
76 signs such as diarrhoea or to subclinical reduced weight gains, while *Dictyocaulus viviparus* can cause
77 serious respiratory disorders (Charlier et al., 2016). It is known that the epidemiology of strongylosis
78 in cattle is related to the seasonal amount of available free-living stages on pasture in relation with

79 the grazing management practices and to the development of an immune response of the host
80 (Armour, 1982). Therefore, the potential long exposure of FGS calves to nematodes coupled with an
81 early age at turnout together with mixed grazing between young and adult may deeply alter the
82 epidemiology of lungworm and GIN infection. It can be assumed that strongyle infections of such
83 reared calves are not comparable to that of classically reared dairy calves or beef suckling calves.
84 Indeed, in the standard dairy calves rearing system, calves graze once weaned, without adult cows,
85 and are at least 6-8 months old at turnout, while in the beef cattle system, the ratio suckling calf/cow
86 is equal to one and breeds, nutrition plan and grazing management practices are somewhat
87 different. Moreover, as the nurse cow system has been developed particularly in organic farming, it
88 cannot be excluded that some general characteristics of organic farming also impact strongyle
89 infections of such reared calves (Thamsborg et al., 1999). Epidemiology of GIN infection of standard
90 reared FGS calves has been extensively studied both in conventional and organic dairy farms in
91 western France in recent years (Merlin et al., 2016, 2017a, 2017b), but to the best of our knowledge,
92 no data is currently available for this developing calf-nurse cow system.

93 Thus, the objectives of this study were to assess the GIN and lungworm infections and their
94 variability in FGS calves reared with nurse cows.

95

96 **2. Materials and Methods**

97 *2.1. Farms, animals and sampling dates*

98 The study sample was a convenience sample of organic dairy farms rearing calves with nurse cows
99 during the FGS of calves. These farms were recruited *via* professional organic farmers' organizations
100 and the contact network of farmers who have implemented this nurse cow system. They were all
101 located in the north-west of France (Pays-de-la-Loire, Brittany and Normandy regions). The INRAE
102 experimental farm of the ASTER research unit located in the east of France (Mirecourt) was added to
103 this sample.

104 This study was performed in two consecutive years (2018 and 2019). Each year, and in each farm, the
105 epidemiological unit was the “group”, defined as a definite number of FGS calves with their nurse
106 cows characterized by a same grazing schedule, i.e. same dates of turnout and housing as well as
107 same number of paddocks and time spent on each paddock. One or several groups were followed on
108 each farm.

109 In 2018, 33 groups from 24 farms were included in the study (1 to 3 groups per farm, 497 calves and
110 176 nurse cows). In each group, only calves were sampled once at housing at the end of the grazing
111 season. The time between housing and sampling was on average 7 ± 7 days. The groups were
112 composed of 3 to 40 calves and 1 to 18 nurse cows, with an average of 2.6 calves (1.5 to 3.3) per
113 nurse cow.

114 In 2019, 41 groups from 20 farms were included in the study (1 to 4 groups per farm, 405 calves and
115 199 nurse cows), with some of the farms already included the previous year. In each group, all calves
116 and nurse cows were sampled between 1 and 4 times during the grazing season: in April to May, in
117 mid-June to mid-July, in September and finally at housing (late November to early January). As a
118 result, calves born early in the year were sampled 4 times, whereas calves born after September
119 were sampled once. The intervals between turnout and the first sampling and between the last
120 sampling and housing were 25 ± 22 days and 6 ± 15 days, respectively. The groups were composed of
121 4 to 19 calves and 2 to 10 nurse cows, with an average of 2.0 calves (1.0 to 3.3) per nurse cow. The
122 global stocking rate expressed as livestock unit/ha was calculated as followed for each farm:
123 $[(\text{number of heifers} \times 0,6) + \text{number of cows} + \text{number of nurse cows}] / \text{grazed area}$ (Delaby, personal
124 communication).

125 The majority of the calves were crossbred (75%), mainly with Holstein, Jersey, Normande,
126 Monbéliard, Swedish red polled, Brown Swiss, and Flemish Red breeds. The nurse cows were of
127 Holstein breed (49%) or crossbred with the same breeds as the calves.

128

129 *2.2. Assessment of nematode infection in animals and GIN infectivity of pasture*

130 Faecal and blood samples were individually collected at each sampling occasion in accordance
131 with animal welfare and without causing stress, according to the Oniris Veterinary Clinical and
132 Epidemiological Research Ethics Committee (CERVO-2018-9-V). Faeces were collected directly in the
133 rectum and blood samples were taken from the tail vein.

134 Individual GIN faecal egg counts (FEC) were determined according to the Mini-Flotac technique
135 (Cringoli et al., 2017) with a single chamber read per sample (sensitivity of 10 epg) and results were
136 expressed in eggs per gram of faeces (epg). At the group-level, mean values > 200 epg were
137 considered as indicative of a high level of excretion potentially related to clinical parasitic
138 gastroenteritis (Shaw et al., 1997). Individual serum pepsinogen concentrations (PEP) were
139 determined following the simplified method described by Kerboeuf et al. (2002) and results were
140 expressed in Units Tyrosine (U Tyr) with mean values higher than 2.0 U Tyr suggesting potential type
141 1 ostertagiosis. Individual anti-*Ostertagia* antibody levels were determined from sera diluted at
142 1/160 (Charlier, personal communication), using the SVANOVIR® *O. ostertagi*-Ab ELISA kit (Svanova
143 Biotech, Uppsala, Sweden) with results expressed as optical density ratio (ODR). Mean values of
144 *Ostertagia* ODR > 0.7 were used as an indicator of high exposure level to GIN according to Merlin et
145 al. (2016). Individual antibody levels against *D. viviparus* were measured only in the blood samples
146 taken at the end of the 2019 grazing season, and determined with the MSP (Major Sperm Protein)
147 ELISA technique as previously described (von Holtum et al., 2008), results being also expressed as
148 ODR. The results of *D. viviparus* ELISA were also given qualitatively (positive *versus* negative) based
149 on the cut-off value of 0.5 ODR (von Holtum et al., 2008).

150 For each sampling occasion, the mean and the standard deviation of individual PEP levels, *Ostertagia*
151 ODRs and FECs were calculated at the group-level. Then, these group-level values were averaged
152 according to the date of turnout in 2018 and in 2019. The same was applied to the individual
153 *Dictyoacaulus* ODRs measured at housing in 2019. Moreover, the percentages of lungworm
154 seropositive calves and cows were calculated in each group and this percentage was also averaged
155 according to the date of turnout.

156 Coughing, possibly related to lungworm infection, was recorded individually at each sampling
157 occasion during the 2019 follow-up. Whenever a calf or a nurse cow coughed, individual analyses for
158 the presence of L1 lungworm larvae were performed using the modified Baermann technique with
159 30 g of faeces (Eysker, 1997) .

160 In addition, data on grazing management practices of each group were collected from the farmers at
161 each sampling occasion and were entered in the Parasit'Sim model to assess the GIN infectivity of
162 pasture by calculating the number of *Ostertagia* parasitic cycles realized since turnout for each group
163 and each paddock (Chauvin et al., 2009; Merlin et al., 2017a). This model takes into account the local
164 meteorological conditions and the specific management of each group: daily temperatures of the
165 nearest weather station to the farm, periods of drought and high supplementation in the diet and
166 grazing schedule (date of turnout and housing, number of paddocks, time spent on each paddock).
167 The model output is the maximum number of larval generations (Lgmax) met by calves in each
168 group. Lgmax was used as an indicator of the GIN larval challenge.

169 The time of effective contact (TEC) with GIN infective larvae was calculated in days in each group of
170 calves at housing as described by Ravinet et al. (2014). As no anthelmintic treatment was applied
171 during the grazing season, the TEC was: duration of the grazing season minus duration of drought
172 periods with high supplementation of calves (i.e. supplementation feeding representing the largest
173 part of the intake according to the farmer).

174

175 2.3. *Statistical analysis*

176 The data collected throughout the grazing season in 2019 allowed the description of the kinetics of
177 the different markers of infection (PEP level, *Ostertagia* ODR, FEC) in calves and in nurses. The data
178 collected at housing in 2018 and 2019 in calves were combined in a single dataset (n= 74 groups),
179 and PEP and *Ostertagia* ODR group-level values were selected as relevant GIN infection indicators to
180 analyse the between-group variability of GIN infection. FEC was not selected as it has been previously

181 shown that the egg output peak occurred during the grazing season and decreased thereafter making
182 this indicator irrelevant at housing (Merlin et al., 2017b; Shaw et al., 1998).

183 Linear regression models (lme4 package) were used using R software version 3.5.3 (R Foundation for
184 Statistical Computing). The outcome variables were the calves' PEP values and *Ostertagia* ODRs
185 averaged at the group level and the categorical explanatory variables tested for each outcome
186 variable were the following: year (2018 or 2019), number of calves per nurse cow (< 2 or ≥ 2), calves
187 weaned during the grazing season (yes, no), date of turnout (February to April, May to June, July to
188 October), date of housing (1st third (08/18 to 11/21), 2nd third (11/22 to 12/09), 3rd third (12/10 to
189 01/28)), grazing duration (1st quarter (≤ 133 days), 2nd quarter (134 to 207 days), 3rd quarter (208 to
190 239 days), 4th quarter (≥ 240 days)), duration of drought (≤ 20 , > 20 days), Lgmax (0 to 2, 3 to 4, 5 to
191 7), age at turnout (< 45 , ≥ 45 days). All these variables were potential factors to explain the variations
192 in PEP levels and *Ostertagia* ELISA ODRs.

193 The factors were first tested in an ANOVA univariable analysis. Then, we selected for the
194 multivariable analysis all the factors with a P-value < 0.20 in the univariable analysis. Collinearity
195 between selected variables was checked by the calculation of the variance inflation factor (VIF). The
196 variables with a VIF more than 5 were excluded from the model. All the remaining variables were
197 included in a multivariable model and then chosen by backward stepwise selection (P-value ≤ 0.05).
198 The presence of confounders was investigated by verifying that the estimates were not changed by
199 more than 20 % when a variable was withdrawn from the model. For each model constructed,
200 residuals and predicted values were plotted to evaluate their heteroscedasticity and their normality.

201 Differences in *Dictyoacaulus* ELISA results (ODR values and percentages of positive calves or cows per
202 group) were analysed according to the date of turnout. Linear regression tests were used (level of
203 significance set at P-value ≤ 0.05) and adjusted means (lsmean) calculated for each level of the factor
204 and compared using a Tukey test.

205

206 3. Results

207

208 *3.1. Characteristics of the grazing management practices*

209 The description of the study sample and grazing management practices are given in Table 1. Calves
210 and their nurse cows were turned out from mid-March in 2018 and from mid-February in 2019, with
211 subsequent turnouts taking place later according to the birth date of calves. The calves were on
212 average one month old at turnout. The majority of groups (n=55/74) grazed on rotational grazing
213 system (with 3 to 30 paddocks used), 14 groups grazed on successive paddocks (one passage per
214 paddock, with no return, 2 to 53 paddocks used), and 5 groups, composed of late-born calves, were
215 continuously grazing on 1 paddock. The median stocking rate for the farms included in this study was
216 1.2 livestock unit/ha. The average grazing duration was 184 ± 71 days with 16 groups grazing for
217 more than 240 days. More than half of the groups (n = 42) were supplemented during a drought
218 period for an average of 81 days in 2018 and 53 days in 2019. Cattle were housed from mid-October
219 to the end of January for the 2018 groups and from mid-September to early January for the 2019
220 groups, with only one group being housed in mid-August (at the time of weaning). The calves were
221 on average 7 months old (3 to 14 months) at housing. The calves belonging to the 14 groups weaned
222 during the grazing season were on average 6 months old (3-9 months) at weaning. The weaned
223 calves then grazed alone (without adult nurse cows) for an average of 92 ± 62 days (post-weaning
224 grazing). The other groups of calves were weaned in the barn after the FGS with the nurse cows.
225 None of the animals in the study received any anthelmintic treatment during the grazing season.
226 According to the Parasit'sim model, Lgmax met by calves ranged from 0 to 7, this number being
227 higher for longer grazing durations (Table 1). The average TEC with GIN infective larvae was 157 ± 73
228 days and reached 200 ± 49 days in 2018 and 187 ± 53 days in 2019 for animals with the longest
229 grazing seasons.

230

231 *3.2. Descriptive data on GIN infection of calves at housing in 2018 and of calves and nurses*
232 *throughout the 2019 grazing season*

233 In calves, the mean values of the three indicators of GIN infection at housing in 2018 are given in
234 Table 2. The figures showed that the level of GIN infection was low on average for calves reared with
235 nurse cows during the FGS. Pepsinogen and *Ostertagia* ODR values were higher for the longest
236 grazing season groups: 1.22 U Tyr vs. 1.07 U Tyr and 0.71 vs. 0.54 ODR in calves turned out in March
237 to June vs. July to October, respectively. In contrast, FECs were higher for the shortest grazing season
238 groups.

239 The same parameters obtained at the 4 sampling occasions during the 2019 grazing season are given
240 in Table 3. Mean pepsinogen values increased overall during the 2019 grazing season, but, as
241 observed in 2018, remained low overall even at the end of the grazing season, with the highest
242 housing values (on average, 1.6 and 1.45 U Tyr) for the longest grazing season groups (calves turned
243 out in February to May and May to late June). Whatever the period of turnout, mean *Ostertagia* ODR
244 values decreased below 0.3 at the 2nd sampling point and then increased although remaining low
245 (average values < 0.7 at housing whatever the duration of the grazing season) as observed in 2018.
246 Groups of calves turned out in February to May showed a peak in FECs at the second sampling
247 occasion in June-July (222 epg), whereas in groups of calves turned out later (May - June) this peak
248 was a little bit higher (289 epg) and later (at the 3rd sampling point which corresponds to housing).
249 When considering results at housing for 2018 and 2019, we observed that only 25% of the groups
250 had PEP values > 1,68 U Tyr and ODR values > 0,81 ODR.

251 In nurse cows, the three indicators of GIN infection remained reasonably stable during the 2019
252 grazing season (data not shown). The nurse cows excreted on average 13 ± 19 epg during the whole
253 grazing season (ranging from 7.7 epg in April – May to 15 epg in September). The average cows'
254 pepsinogen value over the whole grazing season was 2.28 ± 0.72 U Tyr (max = 2.49 U Tyr in June –
255 July and min = 2.10 U Tyr at housing). The average cows' *Ostertagia* ODR value over the whole
256 grazing season was 0.81 ± 0.24 (min = 0.77 in April - May and max = 0.85 ODR in June - July).

257

258 *3.3. Between-group variability of GIN infection in calves at housing*

259 Results of the univariable analysis testing each potential factor to explain the variations in group
260 means of PEP levels and *Ostertagia* ODRs at housing are given in Table 4. Grazing duration, age at
261 turnout, year, weaning during the grazing season, date of turnout and date of housing were retained
262 for the multivariable analysis regarding PEP values at housing. Regarding the *Ostertagia* ELISA, all the
263 factors tested were significantly associated (P-value <0.05) with ODR values in calves at housing,
264 except the date of housing and the duration of drought which were still retained for the
265 multivariable analysis (P-value < 0.20).

266 For PEP, the final multivariable model included the grazing duration as the only significant variable:
267 PEPs were significantly higher (P-value < 0.05) when the grazing duration was longer than 240 days.
268 This final model explained 19% of the variability of PEP according to the adjusted R². For *Ostertagia*
269 ODRs, the final multivariable model included the grazing duration and the number of calves per
270 nurse cow as significant variables (Table 5): *Ostertagia* ODR values increased with the length of the
271 grazing duration, and were significantly higher when the number of calves per nurse was ≥ 2 (P-value
272 <0.05). Noticeably, this final model explained 48% of the variability of *Ostertagia* ODR according to
273 the adjusted R².

274

275 3.4. Coughing records and ELISA results for *D. viviparus*

276 Coughing was recorded at least once in 27 of the 41 groups in 2019 with a prevalence of 0 to 27%
277 (calf or nurse cow) per group and sampling occasion. Of the 93 cough records in total, 17 % were
278 recorded at turnout, 44 % in the second and third sampling dates and 39 % at housing, showing an
279 increase in the proportion of coughing animals during the grazing season. The overall proportions of
280 coughing calves and nurses appeared quite similar (5.9 % and 6.5 % respectively). However, in these
281 93 occurrences, the presence of *D. viviparus* L1 in the faeces was observed in only 4 calves at housing
282 (all these calves being from one group with turnout in spring). Three of these four calves were also
283 positive in the *Dictyocaulus* MSP ELISA.

284 At housing in 2019, 78 % of groups (32/41) included at least one seropositive animal (calf or nurse
285 cow). The mean ODR and the mean percentage of ELISA positive calves per group increased with the
286 grazing season duration (Table 6), *Dictyocaulus* ODR values being significantly higher in calves turned
287 out early (February-May) compared to calves turned out late (October). In contrast, in nurse cows,
288 *Dictyocaulus* ODR values did not significantly differ depending on the duration of the grazing season.

289

290 4. Discussion

291

292 The objectives of this study were to assess GIN and lungworm infections in calves reared with nurse
293 cows during their FGS and the variability of these infections within the nurse cow rearing system.

294 The evolution of the three markers of GIN infection in calves throughout the 2019 grazing season was
295 consistent with previous descriptions of GIN infection in FGS calves. PEP concentrations increased
296 regularly starting from 1 U Tyr around turnout whereas *Ostertagia* ODRs showed a slight drop at the
297 second sampling date before increasing again until housing. Such variations in *Ostertagia* ODRs have
298 already been described in beef cattle and could be explained by a passive transfer of antibodies via
299 the ingestion of colostrum (Höglund et al., 2013). Regarding FEC, an epg peak was observed two
300 months after turnout. This pattern was frequently reported in both dairy and beef cattle systems (
301 Šarkunas et al., 2000; Nogareda et al., 2006; Höglund et al., 2013) and could be due to *Cooperia*
302 establishment (Eysker and Ploeger, 2000).

303 When considering PEP concentrations and *Ostertagia* ODRs in calves at the end of both grazing
304 seasons, mean values indicated low levels of infection and exposure overall (PEP ranging from 0.97 to
305 1.6 U Tyr and *Ostertagia* ODR from 0.23 to 0.71). However, 15% of the groups (11 out of 74) showed
306 PEP values consistent with Type 1 ostertagiosis (around 2-2.5 U Tyr according to Kerboeuf et al.,
307 2002) which is noticeably higher than the figure of 2-6% found in an extensive survey on classically
308 reared FGS dairy calves in Northern Europe (Charlier et al., 2010). As expected, PEP and *Ostertagia*
309 ODR values were strongly correlated with grazing duration and this relationship is consistent with

310 previous results by Sidikou et al. (2005), Charlier et al. (2011) and Höglund et al. (2013). However,
311 mean values remained low to moderate even for a long grazing season and in the absence of
312 anthelmintic treatment. These figures are close to those obtained in low exposed (i.e. *Ostertagia*
313 ODR <0.7 at housing) groups of dairy calves grazing alone during their 1st grazing season in the same
314 area, with mean PEP value and *Ostertagia* ODR of 1.84 U Tyr and 0.65, respectively (Merlin et al.,
315 2016). At the opposite, values for high exposed (*Ostertagia* ODR >0.7) dairy calf groups reached 2.19
316 U Tyr for PEP and 0.87 for *Ostertagia* ODR in the same study (Merlin et al., 2017a). Regarding FEC,
317 our values showed a higher variability and ranged from 15 to 289 egg at housing. Similarly, Merlin et
318 al. (2017a) showed FEC values of 3-241 egg with no difference between low and high exposed
319 groups.

320 In our study, several factors may have contributed to keeping GIN exposure and infection at low
321 levels in calves: the presence of adult nurse cows with calves, the predominant milk diet of calves
322 during their first month of life, the grazing management practices, and the meteorological
323 conditions. Each of these factors is discussed in the following.

324 The presence of nurse cows among calves i.e. the concurrent grazing of susceptible young and
325 resistant adult animals is supposed to reduce nematode infection of the former through a cleaning
326 effect by adult animals, which ingest infective larvae while excreting few eggs in their faeces as
327 demonstrated in beef cattle (Jäger et al., 2005; Thatcher, 2012; Forbes, 2016). However, when
328 comparing several groups of grazing cow-calf pairs during two grazing seasons, Agneessens et al.
329 (1997) showed that the level of faecal egg counts in cows at turnout could be responsible for higher
330 GIN infection in calves in autumn. Moreover, the dilution effect due to adult cows can be
331 counterbalanced by a higher calf to adult ratio, which is one of the specific traits of nurse cow system
332 in dairy production. Indeed, a significant effect of the number of calves per nurse cow on *Ostertagia*
333 ODR was observed in the multivariable analysis and indicated that the greater the number of calves
334 per nurse cow, the greater the contact of calves with GIN, suggesting a lesser dilution effect by the
335 adults. Moreover, interactions between calves and nurse cows could also include a behavioural

336 component that may impact calf GIN infection. Indeed, although not being a part of this experiment,
337 some farmers of our study actually indicated that nurse cows learn calves not to graze around the
338 dung confirming previous observations about the role of adult in calf grazing learning (Arrazola et al.,
339 2020; Nicolao et al., 2020; Vaarst et al., 2020).

340 The rearing of dairy calves on pasture with nurse cows implies an early turnout of calves with free
341 access to the udder. Indeed, as soon as fostering is completed, turnout occurs at one month of age
342 on average, whereas calves are at least 6-8 months old when turned out in the regular (organic) dairy
343 system (Merlin et al., 2017b). A suckling calf on pasture has predominantly a milk diet during its first
344 three months of life (Sepchat et al., 2017), which strongly limits the ingestion of infective larvae.
345 Thereafter, the grass intake increases considerably between 3 and 8 months of age, while milk
346 consumption decreases from 9.3 kg to 4.5 kg (Le Neindre et al., 1976). In beef cow-calf systems in
347 Belgium and Germany, it has been shown that a higher age of the calves at turnout was associated
348 with higher egg excretion during the grazing season, probably in relation to a higher amount of grass
349 and larvae intake (Agneessens et al., 1997; Jäger et al., 2005). A similar relationship was seen in our
350 study with higher level of PEP and *Ostertagia* ODRs at housing for calf ≥ 45 d at turnout, although this
351 variable was not kept in the final multivariable models. In addition to the increase of GIN larval intake
352 with grass, Satrija et al. (1991) have shown that the establishment of *Ostertagia* larvae increased
353 with the development of ruminal function. In contrast, milk proteins could reduce larval motility and
354 worm establishment as demonstrated *in vitro* with *Ostertagia (Teladorsagia) circumcincta* (Zeng et
355 al., 2003).

356 Grazing management practices can strongly influence the seasonal amount of available free-living
357 stages on pasture (Armour, 1982). In our study, in addition to mixed calf/nurse grazing mentioned
358 earlier, almost all the farms had adopted grazing management practices that can be seen as
359 protective against GIN infection: a rotational grazing or successive paddocks use and a lower stocking
360 rate median value of 1.2 cattle/ha compared to 2.5 cattle/ha in the same area (Chartier, unpublished
361 data), both of which being considered as evasive and diluting strategies (Waller, 2006). The grazing

362 schedule (dates of turnout and housing, number of paddocks and time spent on each paddock) was
363 taken into account in the Parasit'Sim simulations to estimate the Lgmax met by calves in each group.
364 Lgmax were ≥ 3 for 70 % of groups and ≥ 5 for 25 % of groups which is an indicator of medium to high
365 parasitic risk for non-immune weaned dairy heifers grazing alone (Chauvin et al., 2009; Merlin et al.,
366 2017a). The discrepancy between Parasit'Sim estimates and low PEP/ELISA results strongly suggests
367 that the risk prediction i.e. the Lgmax range has to be fitted to such mixed grazing of
368 susceptible/resistant cattle under low stocking rate condition, for example by setting the risk one
369 generation later.

370 The pasture infectivity level and the resulting level of GIN infection of calves also depend on weather
371 conditions (Armour, 1982). Our observational study was performed during two consecutive years in
372 order to mitigate the effects of particular weather conditions. Compared to normal values, summer
373 2018 was characterized by a deficit of cumulative rainfall of 63 mm (- 40 %) but it was the opposite
374 for summer 2019 (+ 40 mm, 25 %). Summer monthly temperatures in 2018 and 2019 were between
375 0.5 and 2°C higher than the normal values. These data are difficult to interpret precisely but one
376 could rule out that drought alone is responsible for the low infection levels observed.

377 The impact of mixed grazing between dairy calves and nurse cows on the GIN infection of adults was
378 difficult to evaluate as parasitological indicators are considered of less value for adults than for calves
379 (Vercruysse and Claerebout, 2001). In our study, average PEP concentrations and *Ostertagia* ODRs at
380 housing were higher in nurse cows (2.1 U Tyr and 0.82, respectively) compared to grazing lactating
381 cows (1.3 U tyr and 0.5) (Ravinet et al., 2014). Higher *Ostertagia* ODR values suggest that nurse cows
382 were more exposed to GIN than adult cows grazing under classical conditions and, interestingly,
383 these figures are similar to those of beef cows (Höglund et al., 2013). FEC averaging 13 epg was
384 consistent with values found in dairy cows (Agneessens et al., 2000; Borgsteede et al., 2000) or beef
385 cows (Forbes et al., 2002; Höglund, et al., 2013). A potential greater exposure to infective larvae
386 could induce a detrimental GIN challenge in lactating cows, especially if nutritional requirements are
387 unmet (Barger, 1993). It has been shown that nurse cows generally have a higher milk production

388 than milking cows (Meagher et al., 2019), a marked decrease in body weight and in body condition
389 score during early lactation (Kälber and Barth, 2014 ; Johnsen et al., 2016) when grass-fed only with
390 little or no supplementation during the grazing season (Constancis et al., 2020). As a result, a more
391 accurate assessment of GIN impact on nurse cows in this new system remains to be implemented.

392 Regarding *Dictyocaulus* infections, 78% of the groups exhibited at least one MSP ELISA positive calf or
393 nurse cow at the end of the 2019 grazing season. The percentage of positive calves increased for
394 longer grazing seasons and reached 58-62 % for January-May turnout. These results are quite similar
395 to those by Schnieder et al. (1993) who investigated FGS weaned dairy calves reared in a standard
396 system in Germany. In contrast, such ODR variations in relation to the duration of the grazing season
397 were not observed for nurse cows, showing a stable percentage of positive animals between 0 and
398 12.4. In adult cattle, it has been shown that the *Dictyocaulus* MSP antibody response was of limited
399 magnitude and duration following reinfection and seropositivity lasted only for short periods of time
400 (Strube et al., 2017). On the other hand, the proportion of coughing animals was low at about 6% in
401 both calves and nurse cow, and no anthelmintic treatment was applied in any group by the farmers.
402 These preliminary results suggest that lungworm infection may not be considered as a particular risk
403 in this nurse cow system both for young and adult cattle. However, *Dictyocaulus* epidemiology is
404 highly dependent of weather conditions and the relatively hot summer experienced in 2019 probably
405 has had an adverse effect on the survival of larvae on pastures (Eysker et al., 1994).

406 Finally, the development of immunity against GIN and lungworm depends both on the duration and
407 magnitude of exposure to infective larvae, and, in case of *Ostertagia*, requires approximatively 6 to 8
408 months of contact to be effective (Vercruysse and Claerebout, 1997; Claerebout et al., 1998; Ravinet
409 et al., 2014). More than half of the groups (42/74) have grazed for more than 6 months and a quarter
410 for more than 8 months but the level of exposure to GIN was rather low when considering *Ostertagia*
411 ODR values. Data obtained in experimental or natural condition by Claerebout et al. (1998) and
412 Eysker et al. (2000) have shown a positive relationship between the level of *Ostertagia*/GIN infection
413 and the level of acquired resistance or early weight gains in the second grazing season. Thus, further

414 studies are needed in weaned heifers to assess the GIN infection dynamics during the second grazing
415 season with a special focus on animals that have had a short FGS with nurses.

416

417 **5. Conclusion**

418 In conclusion, rearing dairy calves with nurse cows allows calves to be turned out at an early age in a
419 protective grazing management system during the FGS. Such procedure is characterized by a GIN risk
420 dilution by the adult cows and a progressive larval intake by calves while lungworm infection may not
421 be considered as a particular risk both for young and adult cattle. The potential GIN risk factors for
422 calves include the ratio of calves per nurse cow and the grazing season duration. Finally, this system
423 can be implemented without or with few anthelmintic use.

424

425 **Conflict of interest statement**

426 The authors declare having no conflict of interest.

427

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440

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621

622

623 **Table 1:** Description of the study sample (first season grazing dairy calves with nurse cows) and grazing management practices in 2018 and 2019 according
 624 to turnout periods

Year	Date of turnout (month/day) (min – max)	Calving period	No. of groups	No. of calves per group (mean (sd))	No. of nurse cows per group (mean (sd))	No. of calves per nurse cows (mean (sd))	Age at turnout (days, mean (sd))	Date of housing (month /day) (min - max)	Age at housing (days, mean (sd))	Grazing duration (days, mean (sd))	No. groups with drought	Duration of drought (days, mean (sd))	Lgmax	No. of groups weaned during the grazing season	Duration of post weaning grazing (days, mean (sd))
2018	03/15 - 06/30	Jan to May ¹	26	16.1 (9.9)	6.1 (3.7)	2.63 (0.51)	45 (38)	12/01 - 01/31	266 (60)	223 (38)	8	81 (40)	4.0 (1.4)	5	130 (61)
	07/15 - 10/15	July to Sept	7	6.4 (5.3)	2.6 (2.1)	2.59 (0.45)	32 (16)	10/15 - 01/15	131 (42)	102 (33)	3	81 (26)	1.7 (1.5)	0	-
2019	02/15 - 05/15	Jan to March	21	9.5 (5.0)	4.9 (2.4)	2.14 (0.58)	27 (18)	08/15 - 12/21	249 (52)	230 (43)	17	52 (29)	3.7 (1.2)	8	75 (34)
	05/15 - 06/30	April to May	6	3.3 (0.5)	2.0 (1.1)	2.32 (0.65)	27 (20)	11/01 - 12/21	207 (22)	179 (24)	3	57 (34)	4.0 (1.4)	1	31
	07/15 - 09/30	July to Aug	10	9.2 (5.6)	5.0 (3.5)	1.67 (0.55)	21 (11)	10/01 - 01/15	115 (23)	100 (24)	7	52 (30)	2.4 (2.0)	0	-
	10/01 - 10/31	Sept to Oct	4	7.0 (5.6)	6.3 (2.8)	1.60 (0.77)	13 (10)	15/11 - 01/15	60 (28)	47 (30)	4	55 (10)	1.3 (0.4)	0	-
Total/Mean			74	10.8 (8.1)	5.0 (3.2)	2.27 (0.65)	32 (27)	08/15 - 01/15	212 (83)	184 (71)	42	60 (32)	3.3 (1.7)	14	92 (62)

625 Lgmax: maximal number of larval generations met on pasture, sd: standard deviation.

626 ¹ Calves in 4 groups were born between October and December 2017 but did not graze in 2017 and were turned out in 2018, so they were considered with
 627 the groups of calves born and turned out from January to May 2019

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630 **Table 2:** Descriptive data (mean values and standard deviation) of the three indicators of
 631 gastrointestinal nematode infection measured at housing in 2018 in first season grazing dairy calves
 632 reared with nurse cows (n=33 groups). Average values are given according to the period of turnout.

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Indicators	Date of turnout (month/day) (min – max)	Indicator values at housing (Oct- Jan) (Mean (sd))
Pepsinogen (U Tyr)	03/15 - 06/30	1.22 (0.65)
	07/15 - 10/15	1.07 (0.68)
<i>Ostertagia</i> ELISA (ODR)	03/15 - 06/30	0.71 (0.20)
	07/15 - 10/15	0.54 (0.16)
Fecal egg count (epg)	03/15 - 06/30	124 (113)
	07/15 - 10/15	187 (200)

634 U Tyr: unit of tyrosine; ODR: optical density ratio; epg: eggs per gram of faeces; sd: standard
 635 deviation

636

637 **Table 3:** Descriptive data (mean values and standard deviation) of the three indicators of
 638 gastrointestinal nematode infection measured at 4 sampling occasions throughout the 2019 grazing
 639 season in first season grazing dairy calves reared with nurse cows (n = 41 groups). Average values are
 640 given according to date of turnout.

Indicators	Date of turnout (month/day) (min – max)	Sampling dates in 2019			
		April - May	June - July	September	Nov-Jan (Housing)
Pepsinogen (U Tyr)	02/15 - 05/15	1.08 (0.32)	1.47 (0.34)	1.38 (0.58)	1.60 (0.53)
	05/15 - 06/30	-	1.02 (0.29)	1.42 (0.91)	1.45 (0.68)
	07/15 - 09/30	-	-	0.97 (0.36)	1.16 (0.26)
	10/01 - 10/31	-	-	-	0.97 (0.16)
<i>Ostertagia</i> ELISA (ODR)	02/15 - 05/15	0.47 (0.23)	0.20 (0.12)	0.62 (0.19)	0.68 (0.27)
	05/15 - 06/30	-	0.47 (0.13)	0.28 (0.09)	0.63 (0.20)
	07/15 - 09/30	-	-	0.66 (0.18)	0.23 (0.14)
	10/01 - 10/31	-	-	-	0.34 (0.15)
Fecal egg count (epg)	02/15 - 05/15	68 (282)	222 (284)	111 (85)	106 (102)
	05/15 - 06/30	-	16 (15)	141 (222)	289 (319)
	07/15 - 09/30	-	-	7.9 (16)	169 (201)
	10/01 - 10/31	-	-	-	15 (17)

641 U Tyr: unit of tyrosine; ODR: optical density ratio; epg: eggs per gram of faeces

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643 **Table 4:** Results of the univariable analyses (linear regression models): factors associated with calves'
 644 pepsinogen values or *Ostertagia* ELISA ODR values measured at housing and averaged at the group-
 645 level (n = 74 groups).

Factors	Levels	No. of groups	Pepsinogen (U Tyr)		<i>Ostertagia</i> ELISA (ODR)			
			Mean (sd)	P-value	Mean (sd)	P-value		
Year	2018	33	1.18 (0.10)	0.10	0.68 (0.05)	b	0.01	
	2019	41	1.41 (0.09)		0.53 (0.04)	a		
No. of calves per nurse cow	< 2	22	1.25 (0.13)	0.60	0.44 (0.05)	a	<0.001	
	≥ 2	52	1.33 (0.08)		0.66 (0.04)	b		
Weaning during grazing season	No	60	1.27 (0.08)	0.19	0.56 (0.04)	a	0.01	
	Yes	14	1.49 (0.15)		0.74 (0.07)	b		
Age at turnout (days)	< 45	58	1.24 (0.08)	a	0.06	0.56 (0.03)	a	0.03
	≥ 45	16	1.55 (0.14)	b		0.73 (0.07)	b	
Date of turnout	February to April	40	1.42 (0.09)	0.13	0.72 (0.03)	b	<0.001	
	May to June	12	1.29 (0.17)		0.60 (0.06)	b		
	July to October	22	1.11 (0.12)		0.36 (0.05)	a		
Date of housing (month/day)	1st third (08/18 to 11/21)	25	1.12 (0.11)	0.09	0.52 (0.05)	0,19		
	2nd third (11/22 to 12/09)	24	1.48 (1.12)		0.66 (0.06)			
	3rd third (12/10 to 01/28)	25	1.33 (0.11)		0.61 (0.05)			
Grazing duration (days)	1st quarter (≤133)	19	1.04 (0.12)	a	<0.001	0.33 (0.05)	a	<0.001
	2nd quarter (134 to 207)	19	1.27 (0.12)	a		0.55 (0.05)	b	
	3rd quarter (208 to 239)	18	1.17 (0.13)	a		0.71 (0.05)	c	
	4th quarter (≥ 240)	18	1.77 (0.13)	b		0.81 (0.05)	c	
Duration of drought (days)	≤ 20	38	1.35 (0.10)	0.50	0.65 (0.04)	0.08		
	> 20	36	1.26 (0.10)		0.54 (0.05)			
Lgmax	0 to 2	23	1.16 (0.12)	0.26	0.46 (0.05)	a	0.02	
	3 to 4	32	1.32 (0.10)		0.65 (0.05)	b		
	5 to 7	19	1.46 (0.13)		0.66 (0.06)	b		

646 a, b, c: different letters indicate significant differences between categories of a given factor (P-value
 647 <0.05)

648 ODR: optical density ratio; U Tyr: unit of tyrosine; Lgmax: Maximal larval generations met on pasture;
 649 sd: standard deviation.

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652 **Table 5:** Results of the final multivariable analysis (linear regression models): factors associated with
 653 calves *Ostertagia* ELISA ODR values measured at housing and averaged at the group-level (n = 74
 654 groups).

Factors	Levels	Ostertagia ELISA (ODR)	
		Mean (sd)	P-value
No. of calves per nurse cow	<2	0.51 (0.04) a	0.02
	≥2	0.64 (0.03) b	
Grazing duration (days)	1st quarter (≤133)	0.33 (0.05) a	<0.001
	2nd quarter (134 to 207)	0.54 (0.04) b	
	3rd quarter (208 to 239)	0.65 (0.05) bc	
	4th quarter (> 239)	0.79 (0.05) c	

655 a, b, c: different letters indicate significant differences between categories of a given factor (P<0.05)

656 ODR: optical density ratio; U Tyr: unit of tyrosine; sd: standard deviation.

657

658 **Table 6:** Mean ODR values and mean percentages of *D. viviparus* MSP ELISA positive calves and
 659 nurse cows per group at housing in 2019 (n = 41 groups). Average values are given according to the
 660 date of turnout.

Date of turnout (month/day) (min – max)	Dictyocaulus ELISA (ODR)		Percentage of positive* animals per group	
	Calves (mean (sd))	Nurse cows (mean (sd))	Calves (mean (sd))	Nurse cows (mean (sd))
02/15 - 05/15	0.55 (0.20) a	0.30 (0.12)	58.6 (31.7) c	10.4 (19.8)
05/15 - 06/30	0.53 (0.28) ab	0.39 (0.13)	62.5 (32.4) bc	0.0 (0.0)
07/15 - 09/30	0.33 (0.13) ab	0.30 (0.09)	28.5 (18.7) ab	12.4 (19.4)
10/01 - 10/31	0.25 (0.13) b	0.28 (0.11)	2.78 (5.56) a	3.6 (7.1)
total	0.45 (0.22)	0.30 (10.3)	45.2 (33.2)	8.7 (16.7)
P-value	0.003	ns	0.002	ns

661 a, b, c: different letters indicate significant differences between categories of a given factor (P-value
 662 <0.05)

663 ODR: optical density ratio; sd: standard deviation; ns: not significant.

664 *positivity threshold: 0.5 ODR.