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1 **Changes in biochemical analytes in calves infected by nematode parasites in field**  
2 **conditions\*<sup>1</sup>**

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20  
21 **Abstract**

22 Parasitic infections caused by nematodes are a major problem in bovines that resulting  
23 in losses in animal health and production. Thus, the aim of this study was to evaluate

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\*<sup>1</sup> The data regarding the nematode parasites prevalence was originally presented at the 42nd Brazilian Congress of Veterinary Medicine: Cezaro, M.C., Cury, J.R.L.M., Oliveira, R.M., Schmidt, E.M.S., 2015. Ocorrência de infecção por *Dictyocaulus viviparus* em bezerros no município de Botucatu, SP. In: 42º Congresso Brasileiro de Medicina Veterinária e 1º Congresso Sul-Brasileiro da ANCLIVEPA, Curitiba-PR, Brazil, 0204-0208.

24 alterations in selected serum biochemical analytes in calves naturally infected with  
25 gastrointestinal (GI) and pulmonary nematodes without clinical signs. For this, samples of  
26 feces and blood of 86 calves were collected. Fecal egg counts (FEC) were determined using  
27 the modified McMaster technique with a sensitivity of 50 eggs per gram of feces (EPG).  
28 Positive nematode FEC was processed for coproculture using pooled samples to identify  
29 Strongylidae infective larvae (L3). First stage-larvae (L1) of *Dictyocaulus viviparus* were  
30 identified by a modified Baermann method. The biochemical analytes determined were:  
31 acute phase proteins such as haptoglobin and paraoxonase type 1 ; the enzymes  
32 acetylcholinesterase ; butyrylcholinesterase ; the lipid profile (triglycerides and total, HDL,  
33 and LDL-cholesterol); serum iron profile (iron and unsaturated iron-binding capacity ; total  
34 protein and albumin; pancreatic profile (amylase and lipase); and minerals (phosphorus and  
35 calcium). The calves were divided into four groups according to the results of EPG and the  
36 modified Baermann method. Group 1: healthy control animals (n=16); Group 2: calves with  
37 only GI parasites (n=51): This group was sub-divided into sub-groups according to the EPG  
38 threshold: 2a - GI parasites with low EPG (n=23), and 2b - GI parasites with high EPG  
39 (n=28). Group 3: animals with only lungworms (n=5), and Group 4: calves with lung + GI  
40 parasites (n=14). The more prevalent genera in all coprocultures were: *Cooperia* spp.,  
41 *Haemonchus* spp., *Oesophagostomum* spp., and *Trichostrongylus* spp. The nonparametric  
42 Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compare the groups and Dunn's post-test was used for  
43 multiple comparisons as the data was not normally distributed ( $P<0.05$ ). The haptoglobin  
44 concentration increased in calves with GI and pulmonary parasites. A significant increase in  
45 acetylcholinesterase was observed in calves infected with lungworms. Cholesterol,  
46 triglycerides, HDL, and LDL concentrations decreased but lipase concentration increased in  
47 calves with GI parasites. Therefore, this paper provides an overview of the biochemical  
48 effects produced by nematode parasites in calves in field conditions. These findings in calves

49 without any evident clinical signs of disease could provide an indication of GI parasites and  
50 lungworm infection, especially in an endemic area for these parasites.

51

52 **Keywords:** haptoglobin; acetylcholinesterase; cholesterol; *Cooperia* spp.; *Dictyocaulus*  
53 *viviparus*; nematodes

54

## 55 **1. Introduction**

56 Parasitic infections caused by nematodes in cattle are a major health problem around  
57 the world. Disease caused by nematodes both in clinical and subclinical presentations result  
58 in major losses to animal health and production (Charlier et al., 2009). In Brazil, the  
59 distribution of these parasites is favored by the predominance of tropical and subtropical  
60 climates. Estimated economic losses caused by gastrointestinal (GI) nematodes are around  
61 7.11 billion dollars/year in Brazil (Grisi et al., 2014).

62 The most frequent GI nematodes in cattle in São Paulo State in southeastern Brazil  
63 are: *Haemonchus* sp. and *Ostertagia* sp., parasites of the abomasum; *Cooperia* spp.,  
64 *Trichostrongylus* spp., and *Strongyloides* spp., parasites of the small intestine and  
65 *Oesophagostomum* spp., parasite of the large intestine. Additionally, the lung nematode *D.*  
66 *viviparous* has been reported in ruminants in São Paulo State (Oliveira, 1988; Gonçalves et  
67 al., 2000; Borges et al., 2001; Landim et al., 2001). These species of gastrointestinal  
68 nematodes are reported to be present worldwide (Keyyu et al., 2005; Holland et al., 2000;  
69 Jimenéz et al., 2010), while, *D. viviparous* is most frequently described in temperate climates  
70 (Ploeger., 2002; Wapenaar et al., 2007; Lat-Lat et al., 2010). For all these parasites, the  
71 definitive host is infected by ingestion of infective larvae (L3) from contaminated pasture  
72 (Anderson, 2000) with the infection, in general being caused by mixed nematode species.

73 A variety of pathological effects occur during infection with these parasites such as  
74 anemia, weight loss, anorexia, dehydration, diarrhea, and submandibular edema (*bottle jaw*)  
75 among others (Taylor et al., 2007; Hogg et al., 2010), and when the lung parasite is also  
76 present, there could be coughing and tachypnea (Anderson, 2000; Silva et al., 2005). The  
77 clinical presentations of cattle with these parasitic infections differ by multiples factors,  
78 including the age of the animal. Calves are highly susceptible, because of the immature  
79 immune system, thus, in their first grazing season they commonly display clinical signs  
80 (Höglund et al., 2001). However, in many cases, individuals with a high parasite burden may  
81 not show any clinical signs. These subclinically infected calves are potential contaminators of  
82 pasture for the other animals (Taylor et al., 2007). Additionally, there is a decrease in  
83 production and weight gain, resulting in delayed development and furthermore this condition  
84 also adversely affects the animal's welfare (Gibbs, 1992).

85 We hypothesized that calves infected with GI and/or pulmonary nematodes but  
86 without clinical signs have changes in selected biochemical analytes related to inflammation,  
87 lipid and iron metabolism, pancreatic function and Ca-P metabolism, which could be used as  
88 tools to raise the possibility of infection despite the absence of clinical signs. Therefore, the  
89 aim of this study was to evaluate a panel of various serum analytes in calves naturally infected  
90 with GI and pulmonary nematode but without clinical signs. For this purpose the  
91 concentrations of selected acute phase proteins: haptoglobin (Hp), and paraoxonase-1 (PON-  
92 1), the enzymes acetylcholinesterase (AChE) and butyrylcholinesterase (BChe), a lipid profile  
93 (cholesterol, triglycerides, HDL, and LDL), a serum iron profile: iron and unsaturated iron-  
94 binding capacity (UIBC), total protein and albumin, a pancreatic profile (amylase and lipase)  
95 and minerals (phosphorus and calcium) were determined.

96

## 97 **2. Material and Methods**

98        *2.1. Animals*

99            The study population comprised 86 crossbreed (Holstein x Girolanda) calves from 2 to  
100 24 months old. The animals belonged to two small private farms in the municipalities of  
101 Botucatu and Manduri, São Paulo State, in the southeastern region of Brazil. The study  
102 population comprised 86 crossbreed (Holstein x Girolanda) calves from 2 to 24 months old.  
103 The animals belonged to two small private farms in the municipalities of Botucatu and  
104 Manduri, São Paulo State, in the southeastern region of Brazil. The calves were monitored for  
105 12 months (from September 2014 to August 2015). Blood and feces samples were collected  
106 every three months during the same week for both farms. This study was approved by the  
107 Faculty's Animal Experimentation Ethics Committee of the São Paulo State University –  
108 FMVZ, UNESP, Botucatu (18/2015 – CEUA).

109            The calves were monitored clinically in both farms by weekly veterinary inspections,  
110 including a general visual inspection, evaluation of body condition score, oral mucous  
111 membranes examination, feces visual inspection, and rectal temperatures measurements. The  
112 animals were considered to be healthy if they did not show any evident clinical signs at the  
113 inspection and had rectal temperatures less than 39.5°C. The animals were vaccinated for foot  
114 and mouth disease, and brucellosis according to current legislation in the Animal Health  
115 National Programs in Brazil (MAPA, 2009).

116

117        *2.2. Fecal testing*

118            Samples of feces were collected directly from the rectum of each animal and stored in  
119 a labeled plastic bag. Feces were transported at 4°C to the Laboratory of Animal Parasitic  
120 Diseases of the Veterinary Teaching Hospital of the Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and  
121 Animal Science (FMVZ), Botucatu, São Paulo State, Brazil for analysis. Fecal egg counts  
122 were determined using the modified McMaster technique with a sensitivity of 50 eggs per

123 gram of feces (EPG) (Gordon and Whitlock, 1939). Depending on the EPG results, the  
124 animals were divided into subgroups, according to the threshold defined by Vercruysse and  
125 Claerebout (2001) and Antonello et al. (2010). Positive nematode egg feces were processed  
126 for coproculture (Roberts and O'Sullivan, 1950). In brief, coprocultures were prepared by  
127 mixing approximately 2g of feces from each EPG positive animal to make farm pools which  
128 were macerated with distilled water, sterilized wood shavings, and incubated at 27°C for  
129 seven days. One hundred larvae were counted under a microscope and the results were  
130 expressed as the proportion (%) of L3 recovered. Identification of Strongylidae infective  
131 larvae (L3) and the percentage of L3 were determined according to Ueno and Gonçalves  
132 (1998); Amarante et al. (2011) and Van Wyk et al. (2013), using pooled samples. Fecal first  
133 larval stage (L1) of *D. viviparus* was determined by a modified Baermann method described  
134 by Rugai, Mattos and Brisola (1954).

### 135 2.3. Blood analysis

136 Blood samples were collected from the jugular vein in plain tubes with gel separators,  
137 which were allowed to clot at room temperature for 30 minutes. After centrifugation (1500 x  
138 g for 5 min) sera were stored in Eppendorf microtubes at -20°C.

#### 139 2.3.1. Biochemical profile

140 Serum haptoglobin concentrations were measured via a hemoglobin binding assay  
141 previously validated for use in bovine (Eckersall et al., 1999). Serum PON-1 was determined  
142 using p-nitrophenyl acetate as substrate in an automated clinical chemistry analyzer (Olympus  
143 AU2700, Olympus Diagnostica GmbH) using an adaptation of a previously described assay  
144 (TvariJonaviciute et al, 2012).

145 The Ache and BChE concentrations were determined using previously described  
146 method (Tecles and Cerón, 2001) adapted to an automated analyser (Olympus AU400,  
147 Olympus Diagnostica GmbH).

148 Total serum cholesterol, triglycerides, HDL and LDL; total protein, albumin; amylase,  
149 lipase, calcium, and phosphorus were measured using an automated analyzer (Olympus  
150 AU600, Olympus Diagnostica GmbH), following the instructions of the manufacturer using  
151 Olympus commercial kits.

152 Serum iron (Iron OSR6186, Beckman Coulter), and the unsaturated iron-binding  
153 capacity (UIBC) (UIBC OSR6124, Beckman Coulter) concentrations were determined via  
154 quantitative assays with an automated analyzer (Olympus AU2700, Olympus Diagnostica  
155 GmbH).

156 All the intra and inter-assays showed a within run variation of less than 10%.

157

#### 158 *2.4. Statistical analysis*

159 Statistics were performed using the statistical software (GraphPad Prism Version 6 for  
160 Windows, GraphPad Software, San Diego, CA, USA). Data are reported as median,  
161 percentiles (25 and 75%), and range (minimum and maximum) unless otherwise stated. All  
162 variables were first assessed for normality using the Shapiro-Wilk test. The nonparametric  
163 Kruskal-Wallis test was used to compare the groups and Dunn's post-test was used for  
164 multiple comparisons as the data was not normally distributed. Statistical significance was set  
165 at  $P < 0.05$  for all analyses.

166

### 167 **3. Results**

168 The calves were divided into four groups according to the results of the EPG and by  
169 modified Baermann method. Group 1 consisted of 16 healthy control animals (negative EPG,  
170 and negative modified Baermann); Group 2 consisted of 51 calves with only GI parasites  
171 (EPG positive and negative modified Baermann). This group was sub-divided into sub-  
172 groups: 2a - **GI parasites with low EPG** (n=23) and 2b - **GI parasites with high EPG**



173 (n=28) according to the EPG threshold (Group 2a: < 200; Group 2b: >200) (Vercruyssen and  
174 Claerebout, 2001; Antonello et al., 2010). Group 3 consisted of five animals with only  
175 **lungworms** (EPG negative and positive Baermann method), and Group 4 consisted of 14  
176 calves with **lung + GI parasites** (positive EPG and positive Baermann method) (Figure 1).”  
177 First larval stage of *D. viviparus* was identified in calves of groups 3 and 4, and the more  
178 prevalent genera in all coprocultures were: *Cooperia* sp., *Haemonchus placei*,  
179 *Oesophagostomum* sp. and *Trichostrongylus* sp., respectively, for all animals of groups 2a,  
180 2b, and 4. Both farms showed the same prevalent genera of GI nematodes and were small  
181 dairy properties with very similar hygiene sanitary system.

182 Biochemistry analytes in healthy and infected calves are presented in Figure 2. The  
183 groups with GI parasites with high EPG (Group 2b), lungworm only (Group 3) and lung + GI  
184 parasites (Group 4) had significant higher concentrations of haptoglobin than the healthy  
185 control group. In addition, the groups with lungworms had significant higher AChE  
186 concentrations compared with the healthy group and groups with only GI parasites (Group 2).

187 The group of GI parasites with high EPG (Group 2b) showed a significant decrease of  
188 the lipid profile analytes: triglycerides (1.2x fold decrease), total cholesterol (1.5x fold  
189 decrease), HDL (1.4x fold decrease), and LDL (1.1x fold decrease) compared with the control  
190 and the lung + GI parasites (Group 4) groups. In addition, in the animals with GI parasites, the  
191 group with high EPG had lower total cholesterol (1.6x fold decrease) and LDL-cholesterol  
192 concentrations (1.3x fold decrease) than the low EPG GI parasites group (2a).

193 The groups of GI parasites (2a and 2b) showed significant higher concentrations of  
194 lipase than the control and the lung + GI parasites groups (Group 4).

195 Iron, UIBC, total protein, albumin, amylase, phosphorus, calcium, PON-1, and BChE  
196 concentrations were not significantly different among the groups (Table 1).

197

198 **4. Discussion**

199 The GI parasites genera found in our study were *Cooperia* spp., *Haemonchus* spp.,  
200 *Trichostrongylus* spp. and *Oesophagostomum* spp. The lung parasite identified in our study  
201 was *D. viviparus*. These parasites were also the most prevalent observed in previous reports  
202 from different parts of Brazil: São Paulo, Rio de Janeiro, and Minas Gerais State (Oliveira,  
203 1988; Gonçalves et al., 2000; Borges et al., 2001; Landim et al., 2001; Neto and Fonseca,  
204 2002; Bruhn et al., 2012), as well in other countries with similar climates, characterized by  
205 two well-defined periods: a rainy season (summer) and a dry season (winter), such as in Costa  
206 Rica (Jiménez et al., 2010), and Vietnam (Holland et al., 2000).

207 In our study, Hp increased in all the groups of animals with parasites except the group  
208 with low amount of GI parasites. This would indicate that the parasites, when presented in  
209 high amounts, could produce an inflammatory status in calves, since Hp is a major acute  
210 phase protein in ruminants (Ceciliani et al., 2012). In the case of GI parasites, the cause of  
211 increases in Hp could be the damage caused to the GI tract, whereas in the lung parasites the  
212 increases in Hp could reflect subclinical chronic parasitic bronchitis and pneumonia caused by  
213 *D. viviparous* infection (Radostitis et al., 2007). Increased Hp concentrations in calves were  
214 described in experimental *D. viviparous* and *Eimeria zuernii* infections (Gånheim et al., 2004;  
215 Lassen et al., 2015).

216 In *D. viviparous* experimental infection, the Hp concentration showed a peak 14 days  
217 after inoculation with L3 larvae, and although the animals had clinical signs of the infection  
218 (Gånheim et al., 2004), the Hp concentration was similar to our findings. These results were  
219 also similar to experimental infection with oocysts of *Eimeria zuernii* in calves, as Hp  
220 concentration peaked at 24 days after inoculation (Lassen et al., 2015), reaching similar Hp  
221 concentrations that were found in the group of GI parasites, demonstrating an inflammatory

222 response caused by the effect of nematode and protozoan parasites in the small intestine  
223 mucosae.

224         The increased AChE concentrations found in calves with pulmonary parasites in the  
225 present study could reflect the secretion of AChE by the parasites, as *D. viviparous* and GI  
226 parasites such as *Oesophagostomum* spp., *Trichostrongylus* spp. which are known to secrete  
227 this enzyme (Lee, 1996; McKeand et al., 1994). The release of AChE by the parasites is  
228 influenced by various factors such as: species, life cycle, and gender of the parasite (Lee,  
229 1996). A hypothesis explaining why animals with pulmonary parasites present higher serum  
230 AChE activity compared with GI parasites, would be that *D. viviparous* has close contact with  
231 the pulmonary alveoli allowing direct transfer of AChE secreted by the parasite to the animal  
232 systemic circulation, while AChE secreted by GI parasites would have to transfer across the  
233 less permeable GI barrier.

234         The analytes of the lipid profile decreased in our study in the calves with a high  
235 burden of GI parasites. This could indicate impairment in intestinal absorption of lipids, and  
236 diminished appetite and low digestibility of food mainly caused by the damage to the  
237 intestinal mucosae with villus flattening, and widespread loss of the superficial epithelium,  
238 produced by the GI nematodes (Hoste et al., 2010; Trapani et al., 2013). Lipase  
239 concentrations were higher in the calves with GI parasites; which could indicate a pancreatic  
240 involvement or damage as previously described in horses infected with Strongyloidea  
241 (*Strongylus equinus* and *Strongylus edentatus*) GI parasites (Petty et al., 1992).

242         It is known that there could be changes in serum analytes in animals with clinical signs  
243 of disease; however, in our study the calves did not show clinical signs of parasitism. Visual  
244 inspection did not detect coughing or any respiratory signs, weight loss or pale oral mucous  
245 membrane, and feces were regular in color and consistency.

246 No changes in iron and UIBC were found, although hematophagous parasites such as  
247 *Haemonchus* spp. could produce changes in iron and UIBC (Gennari et al., 1991). In addition  
248 total protein, albumin and globulin did not change in the parasitized animals. These  
249 information suggeststhat the GI parasites affected mainly lipid absorption or metabolism but  
250 they did not produced significant GI blood loss which would be be detected by iron or UIBC  
251 or GI protein losses or malabsorption. Phosphorus concentration did not change between  
252 groups; this could indicate that the parasites affecting respiratory system (*D. viviparus*) in our  
253 study conditions would not produce enough respiratory dysfunction for inducing changes in  
254 phosphorus due to respiratory alkalosis. No changes were detected in PON-1 between the  
255 groups; indicating that despite the influence that inflammation has in PON1 (Silveira et al.,  
256 2015) in our study this enzyme has shown a lower sensitivity to detect inflammation produced  
257 by the parasites studied in calves compared to Hp. Ideally individual experimental infections  
258 with different concentrations of each of the parasites found could be made in order to properly  
259 characterize the biochemical effects produced by each species of parasites, as well the  
260 influence of the parasite burden in analytes. However, this paper provides an overview of the  
261 biochemical effects produced by nematode parasites in calves in field conditions.

## 262 **Conclusions**

263 In this study, calves were subclinically infected by low and high burdens of GI  
264 nematode parasites, by lungworm parasites alone and by concurrent infection with lungworm  
265 and GI nematodes. Both GI and pulmonary parasites increased haptoglobin concentrations,  
266 lungworms caused increases in acetylcholinesterase and only GI parasites caused decreases in  
267 the lipid profile but an increase in lipase. These findings in calves without any evident clinical  
268 signs of disease could provide an indication of GI parasites and lungworm infection, which  
269 should be considered in differential diagnosis, especially in an endemic area for these  
270 parasites.

271 **Conflict of interest statement**

272 None of the authors of this article has a financial or personal relationship with other  
273 people or organizations that could inappropriately influence or bias the content of the paper.

274

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283

284

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391

392 **Legend to Table 1**

393 Biochemical analytes concentrations in healthy calves (Group 1); calves with GI parasites  
 394 with low EPG (Group 2a); and with GI parasites with high EPG (Group 2b); calves with only  
 395 lungworm (Group 3) and calves with lung + GI parasites (Group 4).

396

	Group 1	Group 2a	Group 2b	Group 3	Group 4
Iron (µg/dL)	160.5 [111.8 – 178]	132.7 [97.63 – 161.0]	126.9 [95.7 – 169.7]	111.6 [105.9 – 161.4]	147.5 [113 – 169]
UIBC (µg/dL)	194.1 [171.1 – 248.3]	202.6 [143.8 – 259.9]	209.7 [151.3 – 239.7]	232.7 [172.3 – 287.4]	207.5 [181.2 – 272.3]
Total protein (g/dL)	6.31 [5.97 – 6.99]	6.8 [6.44 – 7.15]	6.93 [6.03 – 7.26]	6.7 [5.88 – 7.22]	6.64 [6.35 – 7.06]
Albumin (g/dL)	2.88 [2.54 – 3.0]	2.77 [2.64 – 3.02]	2.87 [2.64 – 3.1]	2.74 [2.61 – 3.01]	2.93 [2.75 – 2.98]
Amylase (UI/L)	110.5 [83.63 – 135.2]	107.1 [77.05 -132.6]	105.9 [77.4 – 129.8]	99.4 [75.6 – 139.7]	101.6 [89 – 121.3]
Phosphorus (mg/dL)	7.78 [7.04 – 8.95]	7.64 [7.03 – 8.59]	7.27 [6.47 – 8.4]	6.9 [6.46 – 7.54]	8.3 [7.75 – 8.98]
Calcium (mg/dL)	12.06 [11.73 – 12.59]	11.99 [11.74 – 12.53]	11.78 [11.22 – 12.2]	12.02 [11.43 – 12.11]	12.02 [11.75 – 12.35]
PON-1 (UI/mL)	6.81 [5.25 – 9.26]	7.35 [5.46 – 8.75]	6.19 [3.9 – 7.05]	8.76 [5.93 – 9.38]	7.86 [4.55 – 9.69]
BChE (mmol/mL)	0.55 [0.4 – 0.7]	0.6 [0.4 – 0.7]	0.5 [0.4 – 0.6]	0.7 [0.55 – 0.8]	0.6 [0.5 – 0.62]

397

398

399 **Legend to Figures**

400

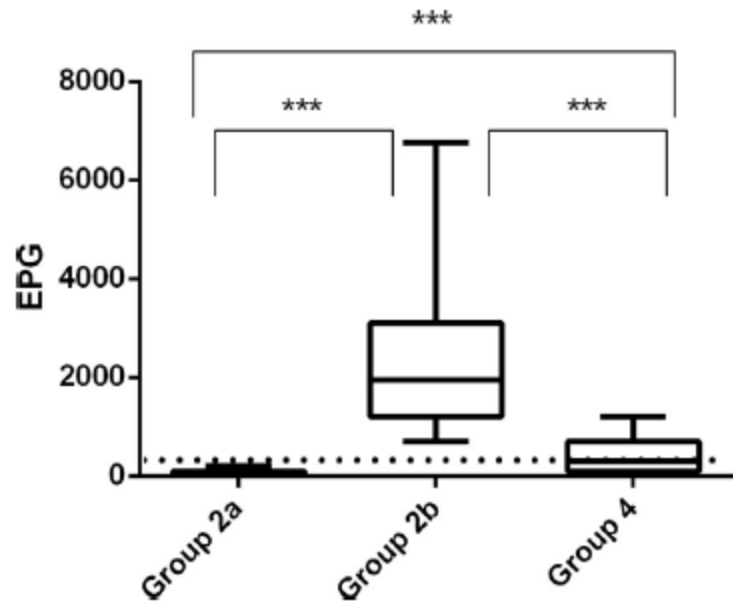
401 **Figure 1** – “**Figure 1** – Fecal egg counts (eggs per gram of feces - EPG) among calves  
402 naturally infected by GI parasites (Groups 2a and 2b), and with lung + GI parasites (Group 4).  
403 Horizontal dotted line (200 EPG threshold). \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ . Groups 1 and 3 are not included  
404 (EPG = 0).”

405

406 **Figure 2** – Biochemical analytes concentrations in healthy calves (Group 1); calves with GI  
407 parasites with low EPG (Group 2a); and with GI parasites with high EPG (Group 2b); calves  
408 with only lungworm (Group 3) and calves with lung + GI parasites (Group 4). Horizontal  
409 lines represent the median and interquartile ranges. 2A) Haptoglobin; 2B) AChe; 2C)  
410 Cholesterol; 2D) HDL; 2E) LDL; 2F) Triglycerides; 2G) Lipase. \* $P < 0.01$ , \*\* $P < 0.001$ ,  
411 \*\*\* $P < 0.0001$ .

412

413 **Figure 1**



414  
415

