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1 **Microclimate has a greater influence than macroclimate on the**
2 **availability of infective *Haemonchus contortus* larvae on herbage in a**
3 **warmed temperate environment**

4
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18 **Abstract**

19 Global climate change is altering epidemiological patterns of gastrointestinal nematode
20 infections in grazing livestock, including through effects of temperature and moisture
21 on the availability of infective third-stage larvae (L3). While considerable experimental
22 effort has been devoted to the influences of climate on L3 development and survival in
23 major nematode species, knowledge of effects on L3 migration out of faeces and onto
24 herbage is more limited. In this study, we examined elements of this process for
25 *Haemonchus contortus* in controlled and natural climates. The effect of temperature on
26 migration rate from faeces was quantified and found to peak at 15 °C. In glasshouses, a
27 3 °C difference in mean temperature failed to produce a statistically significant
28 difference in the number of L3 reaching herbage after a single rainfall event, and faecal
29 moisture content (FMC) did not decline significantly more rapidly at the higher
30 temperatures. Most larvae left the faeces and reached the grass within 3 hours after
31 simulated rainfall. On natural pasture in temperate summer, FMC was strongly affected
32 by microclimate, with shade and long grass both significantly slowing drying. Results
33 suggest that microclimate is important in determining FMC and larval migration, and
34 that its effects can be greater than those of macroclimate, e.g. moderate differences in
35 average ambient temperature. More work is needed to develop a full predictive
36 understanding of larval availability in natural settings, which is the product of
37 interacting factors acting on overlapping parasite cohorts.

38 *Key words:* nematode, parasite, climate change, transmission, epidemiology, faecal
39 moisture content, temperature, rainfall, migration

40 **1. Introduction**

41 The abomasal nematode parasite *Haemonchus contortus* causes major problems to
42 the health and productivity of sheep and goats, especially in tropical and sub-tropical
43 areas with adequate rainfall (Waller, 1997; Perry and Randolph, 1999; O'Connor et al.,
44 2006; van Dijk et al., 2010; Besier et al., 2016). Improved conditions for transmission
45 are further predicted in temperate areas under climate change scenarios (Rose et al.,
46 2016), where resistance to anthelmintic drugs threatens to undermine control (Rose et
47 al. 2015a). Temperature and moisture have long been known to be important for the
48 development, survival and translation of infective third stage *H. contortus* larvae (L3)
49 onto herbage (Veglia, 1915; Rossanigo and Gruner, 1995; O'Connor et al., 2007; 2008).
50 Previous experiments have attempted to characterize the effects of individual climatic
51 factors on components of the *H. contortus* life cycle under controlled conditions (e.g.
52 Hsu & Levine, 1977; Coyne & Smith, 1992), and relationships between climate and
53 infection pressure have been widely observed in the field (e.g. Rose 1963; Onyali et al.,
54 1990; Troell et al., 2005; Silva et al., 2008).

55 How temperature and rainfall interact to influence L3 migration out of faeces has
56 received less attention (Todd et al., 1976; Hsu & Levine, 1977, Pandey et al., 1989; Van
57 Dijk and Morgan, 2011; Wang et al., 2014). Under climate change scenarios, variability
58 in temperature and rainfall is predicted to increase (Mason et al., 1999; Pinault, 2012),
59 so the effect of short-term climatic conditions on larval availability, e.g. following brief
60 rainfall events, and the modifying influence of pasture microclimate, might
61 significantly alter transmission patterns. Increased temperatures could hypothetically

62 accelerate larval movement out of faeces, while simultaneously leading to faster drying
63 of faeces and thus a shorter period of migration. The net effect of warmer temperatures
64 on migration is therefore hard to predict.

65 This study aims to determine how temperature and rainfall interact to influence
66 migration of infective *H. contortus* larvae from faeces onto grass, and how this is
67 modified by variation in microclimate. Hence, to assess the likely net impact of realistic
68 gradual climate warming on L3 availability in temperate environments. The overall
69 objective is to improve ability to predict infection patterns under climate change, in
70 order to inform farm adaptation strategies (Morgan and Wall 2009), as part of wider
71 attempts to understand ecological responses of parasites to global change (Cable et al.
72 2017).

73

74 **2. Materials and methods**

75 *2.1 General methods*

76 *2.1.1 Mono-infected faecal samples*

77 Faecal samples from mono-cultures of MHco3(ISE) isolate *H. contortus* in sheep
78 (Rose Vineer et al., 2017) were provided by the Moredun Research Institute (Edinburgh,
79 U.K.). Briefly, lambs were born and reared indoors to ensure that they were free of pre-
80 existing nematode infections. Donor lambs were drenched orally by syringe with 5,000
81 L3 in a suspension of tap water. Faecal egg counts (FEC) were checked 21 days later,
82 and individual sheep with sufficient egg output were harnessed and a bag attached to
83 collect faeces over a 24-hour period. Faecal samples were placed in a sealed plastic bag

84 and sent by post to the laboratory in Bristol, to arrive within 24 hours. A modified
85 McMaster method (MAFF, 1986) was used to verify estimated egg density on arrival
86 and ensure that development of eggs was not discernible before starting the experiments.

87

88 *2.1.2 Larval culture and recovery*

89 For Experiments 1 and 2 below, L3 were prepared as follows. Faeces containing *H.*
90 *contortus* eggs were placed in six-well plates (Sterilin, U.K.) with a loose lid and
91 incubated at 20 °C for seven days (Versatile Environmental Test Chamber, Sanyo,
92 Japan). Lids were removed briefly each day to ensure enough air exchange for
93 development, without the danger of excessive drying. Faeces containing fully
94 developed L3 were used for the experiments, which aimed to test larval emergence from
95 faeces. Following the various treatments, L3 were harvested from cultured faeces using
96 a modified Baermann technique (Gruner, 1986), and species identity confirmed using
97 the identification keys described in Van Wyk & Mayhew (2013).

98

99 *2.1.3 Larval extraction from herbage*

100 The method used in Experiment 2 to recover L3 from herbage was derived from
101 several different studies (Martin et al., 1990; Couvillion, 1993; Van Bezooijen, 2006).
102 Grass was cut using scissors at the base of the plant, as close to the soil as possible
103 without including soil or roots, and immediately wrapped in a square of woven cotton
104 muslin cloth, forming a loose ball, and the muslin secured with a clip. A 250 ml inverse
105 conical flask was filled with water until it reached about 1 cm below the rim, a few drops

106 of detergent were added, and herbage samples were submerged in the water. After
107 standing for 12 hours, samples were removed and set aside, and the water decanted,
108 leaving about 10ml of water containing the sediment, including larvae and debris. This
109 residue was agitated and poured into a soft-walled flexible plastic test tube and
110 centrifuged for 2 minutes at 1500rpm (c. 400g). Supernatant was then carefully
111 removed by siphoning from the top of the tube, leaving 1ml of sediment. Sucrose
112 solution of specific gravity 1.17 was added to fill two thirds of the tube, which was then
113 centrifuged again at 400g to float the larvae. In order to capture all the larvae, the test
114 tube was clamped with haemostatic forceps about 5mm below the surface, and inverted
115 to pour the larval suspension into a beaker. The top portion of the clamped tube was
116 then rinsed with water to recover any remaining larvae, and the rinsing water combined
117 with the larval suspension. The whole suspension was then transferred to a standard test
118 tube, topped up to 10ml with water, and inverted several times to mix the larval
119 suspension. A 1ml aliquot of the suspension was transferred into a Sedgewick Rafter
120 nematode counting chamber together with one drop of Lugol's iodine, and the larvae
121 counted under $\times 40$ total magnification. The number of larvae obtained was multiplied
122 by 10 to estimate total number present in the herbage sample.

123 The efficiency of the above method was evaluated as follows. Herbage from un-
124 grazed pasture was harvested as above, and 10 equal 5 g aliquots cut into 1 cm pieces
125 and each wetted with 1ml larval suspension that contained 399 ± 25 (mean \pm standard
126 deviation) *H. contortus* L3, evenly distributed by pipette throughout the herbage. After
127 settling for 30 minutes, larvae were recovered from herbage using the above method

128 and counted to estimate the recovery rate.

129

130 *2.1.4 Rainfall simulation*

131 A portable rainfall simulator was applied in Experiment 2 below to standardize
132 rainfall delivery. This consisted of a pressurized nozzle with a rubber hose connected
133 to a tap, from which water was released at uniform intensity. For the purpose of
134 calibration, the simulator was run for 1 minute, 1 m above an array of cylindrical
135 beakers, and the vertical height and volume of water recovered from each beaker was
136 recorded. The average value showed that rainfall was delivered at a rate of 1.4 mm/min,
137 and this was applied to estimates of rainfall requirements for larval migration.

138

139 *2.2 Experimental design*

140 This study aimed to quantify the rate of L3 migration from faeces at a range of constant
141 temperatures without moisture limitation (experiment 1). Secondly, to quantify L3
142 migration following temporary rewetting of faeces in controlled environments
143 (experiment 2) and, finally, the rate of drying of faeces on natural pasture (experiment
144 3).

145

146 *2.2.1 Experiment 1: Effect of temperature on the migration of H. contortus L3 from* 147 *faeces*

148 Migration of L3 was assessed using a mesh sieve apparatus based on that in Wang
149 et al. (2014). Five faecal pellets containing *H. contortus* L3 were placed on a sieve 10

150 cm in diameter and of aperture 0.9 mm, which was inserted into a plastic cup. In order
151 to create ideal moisture for migration, a fine water mist was applied to the pellets using
152 a pressurized garden sprayer (Spraymist 1.25l, Hozelock, UK) for 20 s from a distance
153 of around 1 m. The experimental units were then transferred immediately to, and
154 maintained in, covered plastic boxes at relative humidity (RH) of 95 %, which were
155 kept stored at 7, 10, 15, 20, 25 and 33 °C for one hour, with four units in each box.
156 Faecal pellets were then transferred to a series of new sieves, each of which was inserted
157 into a new plastic cup, and the same spraying treatment was once more applied to keep
158 the faeces moist, before again placing them into the constant temperature boxes. Larvae
159 that had migrated from the faeces onto the first sieve during incubation were washed
160 into the respective cups and allowed to sediment for 12 h, after which the supernatant
161 was siphoned off with a pipette. The bottom 10 ml of water containing larvae was mixed
162 and a 1 ml aliquot was transferred into a nematode counting chamber. The process of
163 larval recovery was repeated eight times at intervals of one hour. At the end of the
164 experiment, the number of larvae remaining in the pellets was estimated by Baermann
165 extraction, enabling calculation of the proportion of total recoverable L3 present that
166 had migrated out of the faeces at each time point, and at each temperature. Owing to
167 the ideal moisture conditions and short experimental time, mortality of L3 was ignored.

168 For each temperature treatment, the mean cumulative proportion of L3 that had left
169 the faeces was calculated for each time point (h) and then logistically transformed as
170 follows:

$$171 \quad y = \log_{10} \left(\frac{x}{1-x} \right) \quad (1)$$

172 where x is the proportion of L3. Linear regression of y against time (h) was applied
173 to identify the intercept on the horizontal axis, which identifies the number of hours
174 needed for 50 % of L3 to migrate out of faeces (M_{50}) (Azam et al., 2012).

175 The hourly migration rate, γ , for each temperature was then calculated as follows:

$$176 \quad \gamma = -\ln(0.5)/M_{50} \quad (2)$$

177 Regression analysis was then used to estimate the relationship between migration rate
178 and temperature.

179

180 *2.2.2 Experiment 2: Migration of larvae onto grass in baseline and warmed temperate* 181 *conditions*

182 The experiment was conducted in two glasshouses, one of which was cooled by air
183 conditioning by around 3°C (baseline = cool) relative to the unregulated glasshouse
184 (warmed). Use of glasshouses allowed for comparison of larval dynamics between
185 treatments similar in the range and pattern of temperature fluctuation, but consistently
186 different in mean temperature level. Mean temperatures in the glasshouses during the
187 experiment were $19.4 \pm 1.0^\circ\text{C}$ (mean \pm standard deviation; range 17.8-22.5) and $22.5 \pm$
188 2.3°C (range 19.1-28.7). The temperature difference between glasshouses was
189 constrained by the ability of the air conditioning unit to cool the large uninsulated air
190 space under solar irradiation, and in any case approximate to those observed in
191 temperate summers, and match medium term climate change projections (Rose et al.
192 2015a). Relative air humidity averaged 76% in the cool and 62% in the warm
193 greenhouse. Grass turf squares measuring 20 x 20 cm were used to evaluate larval

194 migration onto herbage in the hours after a single rainfall event: these dimensions were
195 chosen because Skinner & Todd (1980) showed that over 90% of larvae on grass were
196 found within 10cm of the faeces from which they originated. Turf was approximately
197 2 cm thick and composed of natural grass turf purchased from a garden centre, with no
198 prior exposure to livestock faeces. Experiments were conducted in daylight, beginning
199 around 9am.

200 A pilot study was first conducted to determine the approximate duration of the
201 window of opportunity for L3 migration following a single rainfall event. Five moist
202 faecal pellets containing L3 (average 2824 per square, standard deviation 659) were
203 placed on each turf square and four replicates were included in each glasshouse. A
204 single simulated rainfall event of approximately 2 mm was applied with the calibrated
205 rainfall simulator immediately after faecal deposition, based on the threshold amount
206 needed for larval migration from hydrated pellets in Wang et al. (2014). Six and 24
207 hours after rain, faecal pellets were carefully transferred to a new turf square with
208 forceps and the old square was collected in a sealed plastic bag and brought to the
209 laboratory. Herbage was processed using the technique described in 2.1.3 above to
210 recover migrated L3 from the grass. L3 remaining in the faeces were recovered by the
211 modified Baermann technique at the end of the experiment. Recovery of larvae
212 sequestered in the soil-root layer was also attempted by the Baermann method, but none
213 were recovered and this compartment was ignored in the main experiment.

214 The main experiment followed the same method of the pilot and used the same
215 faecal material but included two extensions. Firstly, additional turf squares with faecal

216 pellets were placed in equal numbers beside the experimental replicates to determine
217 FMC at intervals by weighing the pellets and drying in an oven at 90 °C for 12 hours
218 before re-weighing. Secondly, L3 recovery was undertaken every three hours, for the
219 first nine hours after rainfall. L3 remaining in the faeces were again recovered by the
220 modified Baermann technique after 24 hours.

221 The number of L3 recovered at each time point (N_i) was expressed as the proportion
222 of the total number of L3 estimated to be present by adding those recovered at all time
223 points from the grass and from the faeces at the end of the experiment. The arithmetic
224 mean proportion of L3 recovered was plotted against time for each glasshouse, and
225 subjected to arcsine transformation prior to formal analysis. A general linear model
226 (GLM) was used to test the effect of variables on the proportion of L3 present on the
227 herbage, with Tukey's *post hoc* test applied to significant outcomes. The variables
228 included were glasshouse condition (cool or warm) and collection time (3 h and 6 h).
229 Recovery at 9 h was not analyzed because no additional L3 were recovered from
230 herbage 9 h after rain. The effect of glasshouse condition (cool or warm) on FMC after
231 rainfall was analyzed using the Mann-Whitney U test. Temperature data and L3 results
232 were then applied together to determine the duration of the 'migration window'. Thus,
233 the known number of starting L3 in each replicate, the proportion of L3 observed to
234 leave faeces, and the rate of migration derived from the regression on temperature
235 derived in section 2.2.1 above, were used to estimate the duration for which migration
236 was possible. Observed and predicted numbers of L3 during that period were compared
237 using Pearson's correlation. Model efficiency (EF; Mayer & Butler, 1993) was applied

238 to evaluate the model (Equation 3):

$$239 \quad EF = 1 - \frac{\sum(y_i - \hat{y}_i)^2}{\sum(y_i - \bar{y})^2} \quad (3)$$

240 where y_i = observed number of migrated L3 and \hat{y} = predicted number of migrated L3.

241

242 *2.2.3 Experiment 3: Faecal moisture loss in the field*

243 A field study was carried out to investigate the rate of moisture loss from faeces on
244 pasture under natural conditions, on un-grazed pasture in a sheep farming area in south-
245 west France. The pasture was mown every few weeks, but unevenly such that it
246 included different heights of grass. During the experiment, the air temperature taken at
247 surface level varied from 21 °C to 37 °C, with wide diurnal fluctuations. Faecal samples
248 were collected from grazing lambs on a nearby farm. Faecal moisture loss was
249 measured under four different conditions, with four replicates for each group: short
250 grass (< 1 cm) with and without shade and long grass (10-25 cm) with and without
251 shade. Shade was produced by fixing a square of cardboard 15 cm above the ground,
252 allowing for circulation of air beneath the canopy. Faeces were placed on plastic mesh
253 (1 mm grid size) to facilitate transfer for weighing and to reduce loss from dung-burying
254 beetles. All replicates were placed in position at 12:30 pm on day 1 and weighed five
255 times, at 1 pm, 5 pm, and 8 pm on day 1 and 10:30 am and 5 pm on day 2. FMC was
256 plotted against time for each treatment, then arcsine transformed to stabilise the
257 variance and analysed in a GLM with grass length and shade included as factors.

258

259 **3. Results**

260 3.1 Experiment 1: Effect of temperature on the migration of *H. contortus* L3 from faeces

261 Migration rate was lowest at low and high temperatures, so a polynomial regression
262 model was fitted, which predicted maximum migration rate at 15 °C (Fig. 1).

263

264 3.2 Experiment 2: Migration of larvae onto grass in baseline and warmed conditions

265 The proportion of *H. contortus* L3 recovered from grass using the modified
266 Baermann technique was 0.68 ± 0.14 (mean of 10 replicates \pm standard deviation).

267 Results of the pilot study showed that almost all migration onto grass occurred between
268 0 h and 6 h after wetting by simulated rainfall (Fig. 2), with no significant difference
269 between cool and warm glasshouses.

270 In the main experiment, FMC on the day of deposition was 64 % in both glasshouses
271 and increased to 69 % (cool house) and 68% (warm house) after rainfall, then decreased
272 gradually. Change in FMC in warm and cool glasshouses did not differ significantly
273 over the course of the experiment (Mann-Whitney $U_{46} = 284.5$, $p = 0.947$) (Fig. 3).

274 There was no significant difference in L3 migration between warm and cool
275 glasshouses ($F_{1, 18} = 0.8$, $p = 0.783$), but the proportion of L3 recovered differed with
276 time of collection ($F_{2, 18} = 24.8$, $p < 0.001$). *Post hoc* Tukey's HSD tests showed that
277 significantly more L3 were recovered from herbage in the first collection, i.e. more
278 larvae migrated onto the grass 0–3 h (mean proportion = $0.57 \pm$ standard deviation 0.26)
279 than 3–6 h (0.05 ± 0.05) after rain ($p < 0.001$) (Fig. 4). No further L3 were recovered 9
280 h after rain. On average, a proportion of 0.38 ± 0.21 of L3 remained in the faeces at the
281 end of the 24-hour experiment.

282 In the first 3 h after rainfall, the cumulative number of L3 observed correlated with
283 that predicted from temperature (section 3.1) and the duration of permissive FMC
284 (Pearson $r = 0.912$, $p = 0.002$), notwithstanding some over- and under-prediction (Fig.
285 5). Model efficiency (EF) was calculated to be 0.64, a reasonably good fit to the
286 available data.

287

288 *3.3 Experiment 3: Faecal moisture loss in the field*

289 FMC change in the field in the 52 h following deposition is shown in Fig. 6. There
290 was a decreasing trend of FMC over time in all treatments, briefly interrupted by a light
291 rain shower between 28 and 44 h post deposition. Faecal weight decreased most
292 significantly in the ‘short sun’ group, with the lowest FMC recorded as 37 %, after 52
293 h. Faeces became desiccated more slowly in long grass or under artificial shade.
294 Statistically, both sunlight ($F_{1,218} = 67.517$, $p < 0.001$) and grass length ($F_{1,218} = 12.759$,
295 $p < 0.001$) significantly affected FMC after 52 h. Dung beetles actively transferred and
296 buried faecal samples throughout the experiments, resulting in about 30 % of the
297 samples being removed or destroyed in this way and thus excluded from the analysis.

298

299 **4. Discussion**

300 The results presented provide first direct estimates on rates of *H. contortus* larval
301 migration from faeces and how this is affected by faecal drying, while also making
302 preliminary comparisons of the relative influences of macroclimate and microclimate
303 on larval migration. While there have been some previous studies on the effect of

304 temperature on the vertical migration of gastrointestinal nematode larvae onto herbage
305 (e.g. Silangwa & Todd, 1964; Callinan & Westcott, 1986), none have specifically
306 reported on the impact of temperature on horizontal migration out of faeces. In the
307 absence of moisture limitation, our results showed a convex curve, with the fastest
308 migration occurring at intermediate temperatures around 15 °C. There was very little
309 difference in average migration rate between 7 and 20 °C, and rates decreased at 25-30
310 °C. This was unexpected given the general tendency of metabolism to accelerate with
311 increasing temperature, and could be an adaptation to conserve limited energy resources
312 (Fenton and Rands, 2004) or to avoid exposure to adverse conditions for survival such
313 as lethal ultraviolet radiation high on herbage in sunny conditions (Van Dijk et al., 2009),
314 by remaining in protected micro-environments. Although the experimental conditions
315 and methods were different, Buckley (1940) and Callinan and Westcott (1986) also
316 regarded 15 °C to be the optimal temperature for the migration of trichostrongylid L3,
317 while Rees (1950) and Callinan and Westcott (1986) further found that extremes of very
318 high and very low temperatures inhibited directional larval movement. Even at
319 temperatures of 25-30 °C in the present study, however, more than 10 % of L3 were
320 able to leave the faeces per hour. It is clear from the present and previous results (Wang
321 et al., 2014) that, at least in temperate conditions, temperature is a less important factor
322 than availability of moisture for the migration process, which occurs rapidly when
323 conditions permit.

324 In the glasshouses, temperature fluctuated with outdoor temperature, but remained
325 in a range favourable for larval migration. The average overall temperature difference

326 between the two glasshouses was 3.1 °C, which equates to moderate global climate
327 warming scenarios for temperate areas (Rose et al. 2016). Our working hypothesis
328 before the experiment was that hydrated faeces dry faster at high temperatures and the
329 window of opportunity for migration following wetting by a rainfall event will therefore
330 be shorter than at low temperatures. In fact, faecal drying rate was similar in both
331 greenhouses, with only 9 % FMC loss in the first 9 hours, and ambient temperature
332 consequently made little difference to L3 migration rate. In field conditions, different
333 microclimatic conditions showed strong effects on faecal drying rates. Faeces deposited
334 in sunshine on short grass dried much more quickly than those placed in long grass
335 under shade, and within 24 hours FMC was below 60% and therefore too dry to permit
336 L3 migration following light rainfall (Wang et al. 2014). Under artificial shade or that
337 provided by long grass, FMC remained well above 60% for at least twice as long,
338 prolonging the window during which larval migration would occur following a light
339 rain shower.

340 By quantifying L3 migration rates under different conditions, the present study
341 provides additional information to support mechanistic prediction of climatic impacts
342 on infection patterns. Thus, most migration onto grass occurred within 3 h after rain,
343 with migration declining thereafter. An average of 38 % of L3 remained in faecal pellets
344 6-24 h after rain, indicating the closure of the migration window within 6 h, presumably
345 as a result of disappearance of the surface water film (Van Dijk et al. 2011; Wang et al.
346 2014). Under continuous moisture, L3 migration is generally complete within 24 hours
347 (Silangwa and Todd, 1964; Callinan and Westcott, 1986). Further studies will be needed

348 to more thoroughly characterize L3 migration across a wider range of temperature,
349 rainfall and other environmental conditions such as wind (Krecek et al., 1992) and
350 irradiation (Van Dijk et al. 2009), in order to refine existing predictive models (e.g.
351 Rose et al. 2015b; Walker et al. 2018). The present results show that factors influencing
352 microclimate on pasture should be taken into account in such studies, and could be
353 especially important in environments more extreme than considered here. The interface
354 between faeces, soil and herbage on natural pasture also mediates larval migration onto
355 grass, with complex L3 movement between these compartments (Rose et al., 2015b),
356 while soil moisture is already known to strongly influence L3 development in faeces
357 (Khadijah et al. 2013a,b) and possibly translation onto pasture (Khadijah et al. 2013c).
358 Dung burial, e.g. by invertebrates, has been shown to affect L3 availability (Fincher,
359 1973; Gronvold, 1979; Waghorn et al. 2002; Sands and Wall 2018), with net effects
360 probably depending on climate, soil type and biodiversity. Although larval recovery
361 from soil was unsuccessful in the experiments reported on here, possibly due to the
362 dense turf structure and shallow soil/root layer with little free soil present, sequestration
363 in soil could be an important modifier of larval availability under natural field
364 conditions. Previous results vary widely, sometimes finding many larvae in soil
365 (Callinan & Westcott, 1986; Krecek, et al., 1995; Leathwick, et al., 2011) and
366 sometimes not (Crofton, 1948; Rose & Small, 1985).

367 The experiments reported here used a laboratory-maintained strain of *H. contortus*
368 whose origin is obscure and likely tropical, and this might have affected its response to
369 climate (Besier et al. 2016). The temperature-development profile of this isolate was

370 found to be similar to field isolates from Europe (Rose Vineer et al. 2016). Nevertheless,
371 use of field populations for future experiments on climatic drivers of transmission
372 would be preferable, to take account of natural variation and potential adaptation to
373 local environments. Work on related nematode species has further shown wide within-
374 population variability in response to climate, which might constitute adaptation to
375 unpredictable environmental conditions (Van Dijk and Morgan 2010).

376 This study shows the potential importance of microclimate, in contrast to
377 macroclimate, in determining rate of faecal drying and hence the effects of subsequent
378 rainfall on L3 release. In the field, pasture will contain faecal pellets at a wide range of
379 times since deposition, and in a range of microclimates, as well as larvae in soil, dung
380 beetles and the herbage mat; the effect of rainfall on larval migration onto herbage is
381 therefore likely to be complex. More sophisticated models and supporting experiments
382 will therefore be needed to adequately predict the effects of climate change on larval
383 availability.

384

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394

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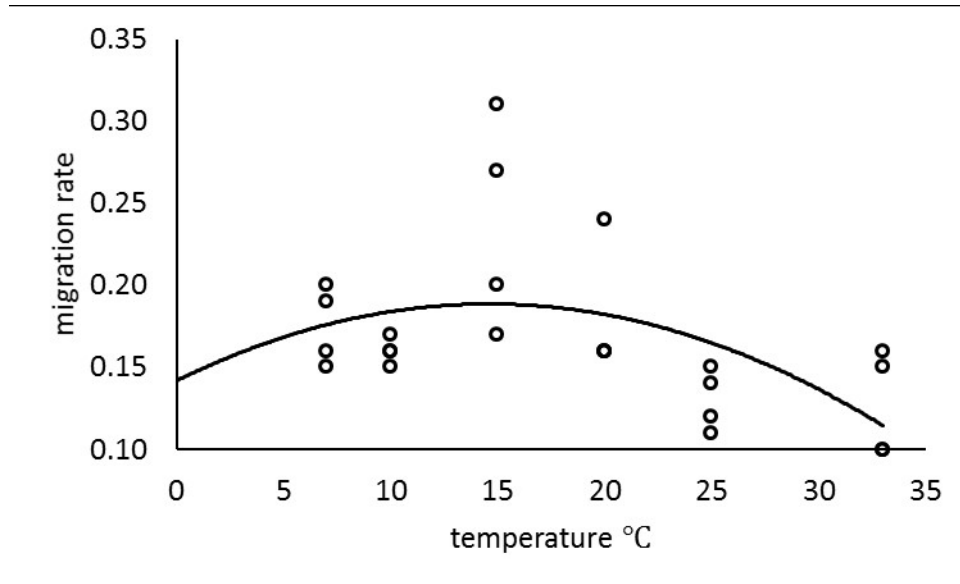
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565

566 **Figure legends**

567 **Fig. 1.** Regression of hourly migration rate out of sheep faeces against temperature for

568 *Haemonchus contortus* L3. $R^2 = 0.292$, $F_{2,21} = 4.341$, $p = 0.026$; regression equation y

569 $= -0.0002T^2 + 0.0065T + 0.1417$.



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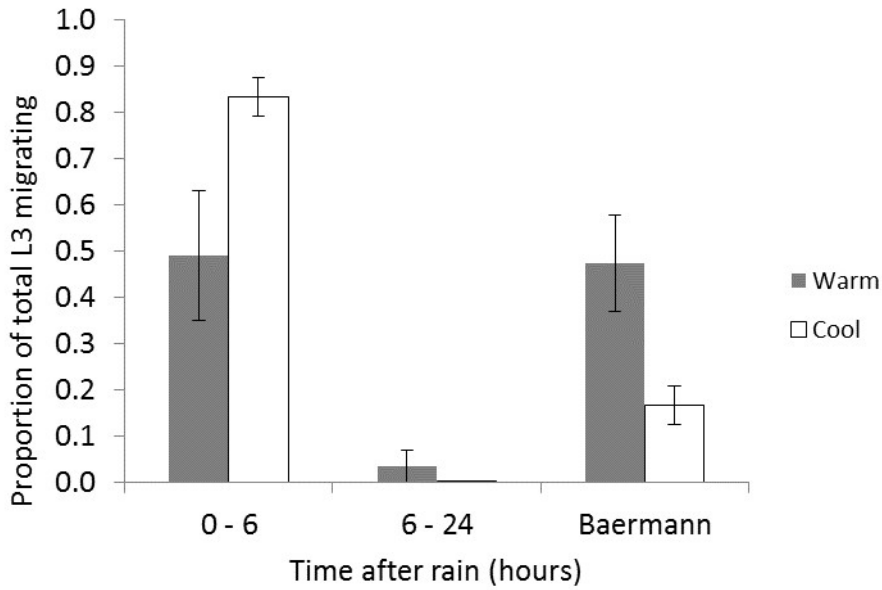
572 **Fig. 2.** Recovery of *Haemonchus contortus* L3 from grass 6 and 24 hours following

573 wetting of sheep faeces by simulated rainfall, and from the faeces by Baermann

574 extraction after 24 hours. Warm and cooled treatments were applied in glasshouses at

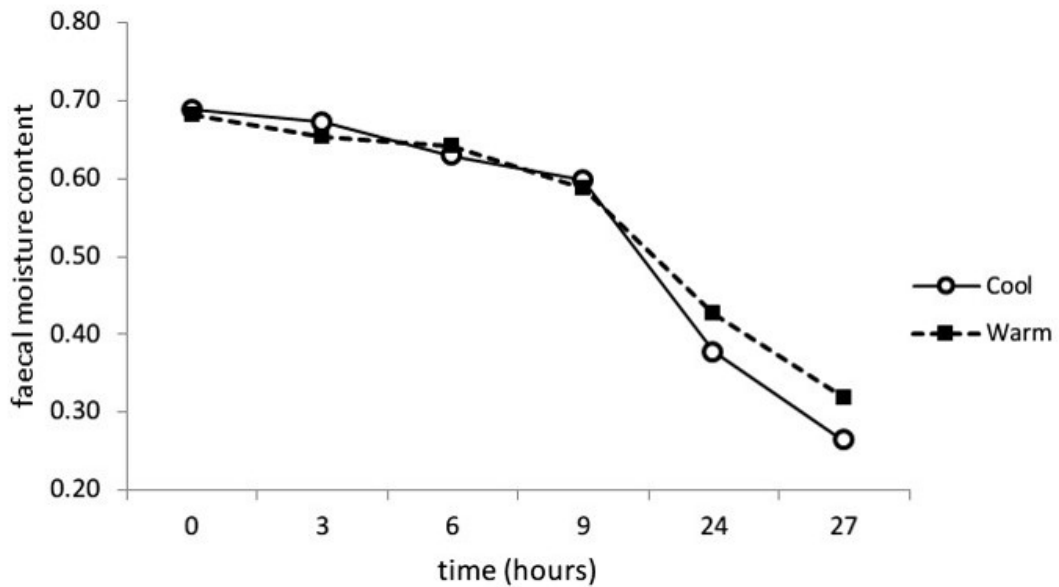
575 22.5 and 19.4 °C respectively. Error bars represent standard error. There was no

576 significant difference in FMC change between the two greenhouses.



577

578 **Fig. 3.** Mean faecal moisture content (FMC) change in sheep faecal samples placed on
 579 grass turf in warm (22.5 °C) and cooled (19.4 °C) glasshouses. Artificial rainfall was
 580 administered once at the starting point (9 am). Error bars represent standard error. There
 581 was no significant difference in FMC change between the two greenhouses.

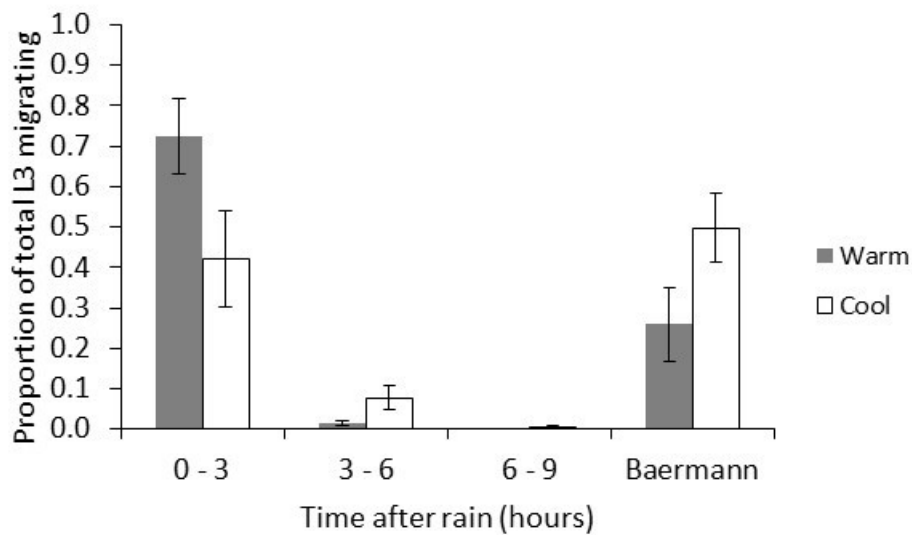


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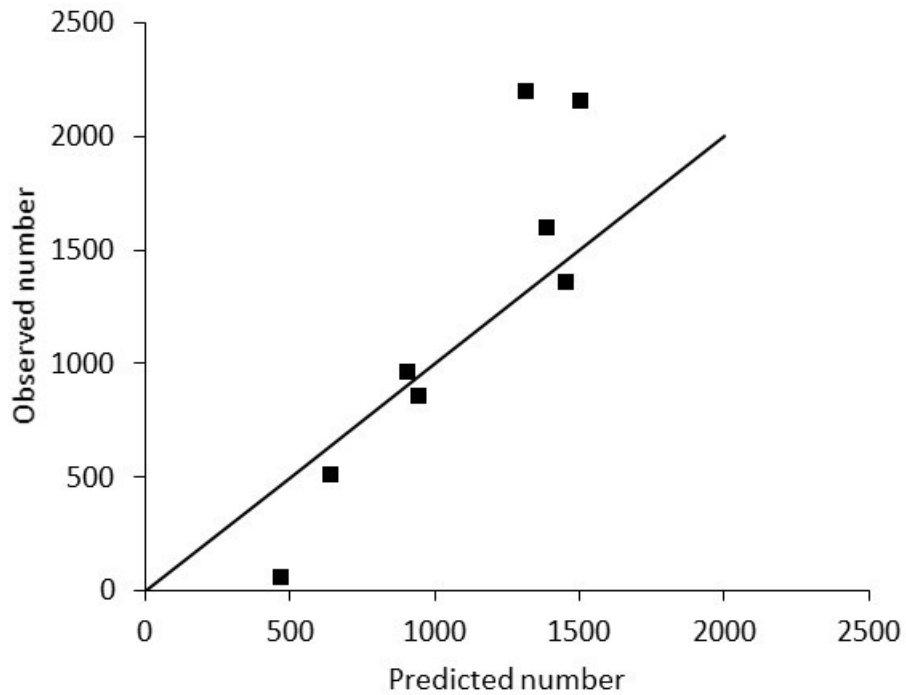
584 **Fig. 4.** Proportion of *Haemonchus contortus* L3 recovered from herbage after different

585 time periods (0-3, 3-6 and 6-9 hours) following a single artificial rainfall event applied
586 to sheep faeces containing mature L3, and the proportion of L3 remaining in faeces
587 after 24 hours (Baermann). The same rainfall treatment was applied in warm (22.5 °C)
588 and cooled (19.4 °C) greenhouses. Error bars indicate standard error.



589
590

591 **Fig. 5.** The number of L3 observed in the first 3 hours after artificial rainfall and the
592 number predicted from the regression of migration rate against temperature (Pearson r
593 = 0.912, $p = 0.002$). Data from warm and cooled greenhouses were pooled for analysis.
594 The solid line represents unity (i.e. the line of perfect prediction).



595

596 **Fig. 6.** Change in faecal moisture content (FMC) of sheep faeces over time, in the field

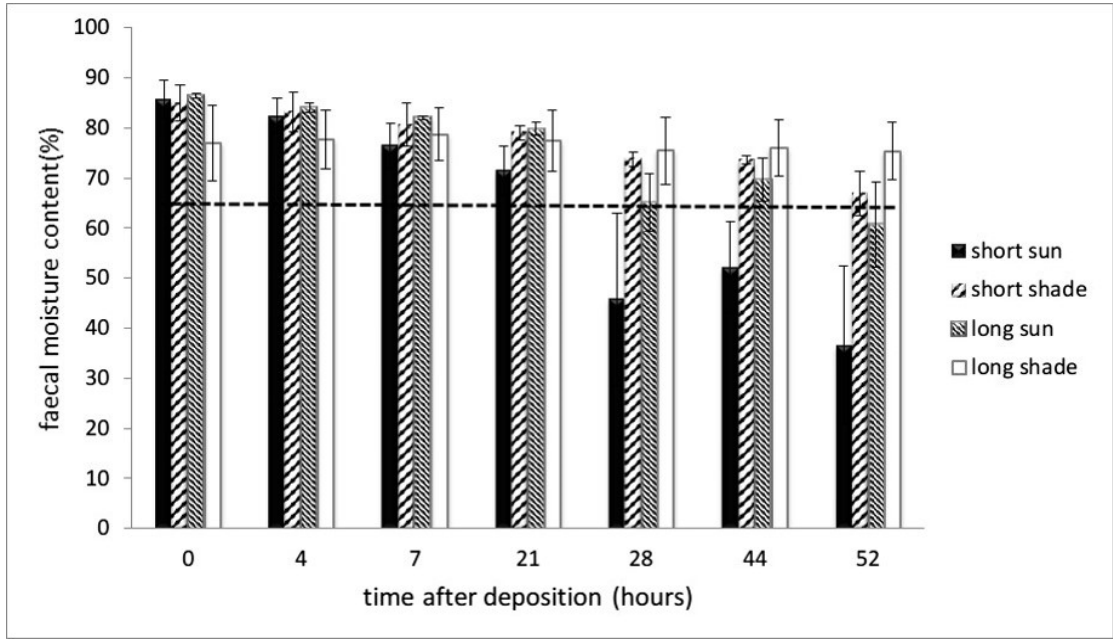
597 under four different treatments. Error bars represent standard error of four replicates.

598 There was a rain event between 28 and 44 hours; the amount of rain was not measured.

599 Short / long = short and long grass; sun / shade = unshaded or shaded by cardboard

600 canopy. The dotted line represents the approximate lower FMC threshold that stops L3

601 migration from faeces (Wang et al. 2014).



602