

1 **Compilation of 29-year *postmortem* examinations**  
2 **identifies a “Millennium bug” in equine parasite**  
3 **communities**

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20 **Abstract**

21 Horses are infected by a wide range of parasite species that form complex communities.  
22 Parasite control imposes significant constraints on parasite species assemblage whose  
23 monitoring remains however difficult to track through time. *Postmortem* examination is a  
24 reliable method to quantify parasite communities. Here, we compiled 1,673 necropsy reports  
25 accumulated over 29 years, in the reference necropsy centre from Normandy (France). The  
26 burden of non-strongylid species was quantified. Details of horse deworming history and the  
27 cause of death (resulting from a parasitic infection or not) were registered. Data analyses  
28 revealed the seasonal fluctuations of non-strongylid parasite species and the least exposure  
29 of race horses to these parasites. Beyond these observations, we found a shift in the species  
30 responsible for fatal parasitic infection from the year 2000 onward, whereby fatal  
31 cyathostomiasis and *Parascaris* spp. infection have replaced death cases caused by *S.*  
32 *vulgaris* and tapeworms. Concomitant break in the temporal trend of parasite species  
33 prevalence was also found within a 10-year window (1998-2007) that has seen the rise of  
34 *Parascaris* spp. and the decline of both *Gasterophilus* spp. and tapeworms. A few cases of  
35 parasite persistence following deworming were identified that all occurred after 2000.  
36 Altogether, these findings provide a unique assessment of the major remodelling of equine  
37 parasitic communities over the last 29 years. They also underscore the critical importance of  
38 *Parascaris* spp. in young equids.

39

40 **Keywords:** horse; parasite; necropsy; *Parascaris*; *Strongylus*; cyathostomin; *Gasterophilus*;  
41 *Anoplocephala*;

42

## 43 1. Introduction

44 Horses harbour complex macroparasite communities along their digestive tract,  
45 encompassing among other *Gasterophilus* larval stages (bots), nematodes (mainly  
46 strongylids and ascarids) and tapeworms (Anoplocephalidae). The control of this vast  
47 parasite community has largely relied on the regular use of safe and highly active  
48 anthelmintics. Following a few decades of treatments, parasitologists have reported  
49 alteration of strongylid communities: *Strongylus* spp. prevalence drastically decreased over  
50 time whereas cyathostomin infection has become a major issue (Love and Duncan, 1991).  
51 This shift in species importance was derived from independent scattered pieces of evidence  
52 in the field (Love and Duncan, 1991). It was also associated with the development of drug  
53 resistant cyathostomin populations across the world (Fischer et al., 2015; Nielsen et al.,  
54 2018; Sallé et al., 2017; Tzelos et al., 2017). Independent evidence of ivermectin resistant  
55 *Parascaris* spp. populations have also been accumulating in recent years (Laugier et al.,  
56 2012; Lyons et al., 2008; Tyden et al., 2013). However, the quantification of parasitic  
57 community evolution through time remains difficult and limited reports have been made so  
58 far.

59 Necropsy is a reliable method for the diagnosis of infection with equine intestinal parasites,  
60 especially those which are not detected (immature or larval stages) or may be  
61 underestimated (tapeworms) by routine coproscopy (Lyons et al., 1984, 1981; Proudman and  
62 Edwards, 1992; Rehbein et al., 2013). Moreover, large parasites are easily recovered by  
63 careful examination of bowel contents and intestinal mucosal surfaces. Data derived by  
64 specific *post-mortem* examinations are hence more definitive than those obtained from other  
65 methods of investigation, that provide an invaluable tool for determining the parasitic status  
66 of each horse examined and the prevalence of internal parasites (Lyons et al., 1981). Using  
67 this technique, Tolliver et al. reported observations on the composition of equine parasite  
68 communities and their respective prevalence over a 28-year period in Kentucky (Tolliver et  
69 al., 1987). This work is, to our knowledge, the most extensive time series to date but it was

70 based on a subset of horses selected to have patent strongyle infection (Tolliver et al., 1987).  
71 A decade later, further reports suggested a decrease in the prevalence of *Gasterophilus* spp.  
72 but a steady rate of infection by *Parascaris* spp. in young horses (Lyons et al., 2000). Most  
73 recent report from the same region suggested an increased infection rate by bots and  
74 tapeworms but was in line with the vanishing of *Strongylus* spp. (Lyons et al., 2018).  
75 To our knowledge, there is no other example of comprehensive longitudinal analysis of  
76 equine parasite communities in any other region than Kentucky. In France, only scarce data  
77 are currently available on prevalence and intensity of equine intestinal parasites and they  
78 mainly rely on coproscopy results (Traversa et al., 2012; Laugier et al., 2012). The equine  
79 necropsy unit from the French agency for food, environmental and occupational health safety  
80 (ANSES, France) has been performing around 300 necropsies a year since 1987, following  
81 the same procedure. This source of dead horses offers both a random snapshot of non-  
82 strongylid communities and an assessment of cyathostomiasis and verminous arteritis in  
83 the same young equid population from Normandy. We restricted our analysis to this subset  
84 of the total population as they are more at risk of infection by the parasite species of interest,  
85 and to avoid heterogeneity in the data.  
86 Here, we present the parasitological data recorded in 1,673 young horses examined during a  
87 29-year period to establish overall infection pattern in relation to host and environmental  
88 factors. Using known deworming history, we identified likely cases of drug resistance, and we  
89 relied on histo-pathological conclusions to determine parasite species contribution to the  
90 death of examined horses. We also estimated changes in species prevalence and  
91 abundance over time.

92

## 93 **2. Material and methods**

### 94 **2.1. Animals**

95 Material consisted of 1,740 young equids (2 to 24 months old) from 758 stud farms. Animals  
96 were derived from an equine population of 8,564 equids that were submitted for routine

97 necropsy at the ANSES laboratory for animal health in Normandy from January 1987 to  
98 December 2015. Foals younger than 2 months were excluded from the study because none  
99 of them harbored the parasites searched. Necropsies were usually performed within a few  
100 hours after death but some were delayed for periods up to 24 hours. About 90% of the  
101 equids examined were from Normandy, which is the leading horse breeding region in France  
102 with roughly 10,500 foal births per year.

103 For every animal, relevant metadata including age, sex, breed, date of death, original stud  
104 farm were recorded. Indications about the last anthelmintic treatment administered were also  
105 collected in most cases. Equids fell into three breed types: Thoroughbred (TB), French  
106 Trotter (FT) and miscellaneous (MISC) that encompassed French Saddlebreds (66.9%),  
107 other sport horses (6.6%), ponies (13.3%), Arabians (5.9) and draft horses (4.8%).

108 A few observations were discarded before analysis, including an individual whose age was  
109 unknown and 32 records collected from geldings (as it was not possible to estimate any sex  
110 effect with so few observations). In addition, 33 cases from a bankrupted stud farm and one  
111 horse from a farm where no anthelmintics were given were also removed from the dataset to  
112 avoid spurious signal linked to a lack of parasite management. In the end, 1,673 cases from  
113 735 studs were retained for analysis.

114 Foals were generally born in spring thereby resulting in a collinear relationship between the  
115 age at necropsy and the month when the necropsy took place. To account for this structure  
116 in the data, age was rounded to the closest month and clustered into two categories, being  
117 either less than or 1-year-old (foal) or strictly older (yearling). Month of necropsy was binned  
118 into seasonal categories : winter (January to March), spring (April to June), summer (July to  
119 September) and autumn (October to December).

120

## 121 **2.2. Necropsy technique and parasitological procedures**

122 The focus was brought on non-strongylid large parasites as these species are relatively easy  
123 to detect upon visual inspection. Routine examination also included a research of encysted

124 cyathostomin larvae in the mucosa and submucosa of the large intestine and of migrating  
125 *Strongylus vulgaris* larvae in the major arteries of the gastro-intestinal tract.

126 Throughout the study period, all necropsies were performed using the same complete  
127 protocol (Collobert, 1995; Rooney, 1970) and were implemented by the team. Particularly,  
128 evisceration of the different parts of the digestive tract was carried out according to the  
129 procedure described by Rooney (1970) and specific examinations were performed for  
130 parasite recovery.

131 During evisceration, the stomach, small intestine, cecum and ascending colon were isolated  
132 with ligatures. Then, every organ was opened with scissors and their content was collected  
133 separately, spread on large trays and examined grossly for parasites. The mucosal surfaces  
134 were gently flushed with tap water and visually inspected for attached parasites. The other  
135 parts of the digestive tract such as the pharynx and the esophagus were also examined.  
136 Species were searched in and in the vicinity of their preferential niche. Therefore, special  
137 attention was paid to bots in the oral cavity, pharynx, esophagus and stomach; tapeworms  
138 were looked for in the small intestine, ileocaecal junction, cecum and right ventral colon,  
139 whereas ascarids and pinworms were looked for in the small intestine and in the ascending  
140 and small colon respectively.

141 Parasite specimens recovered were identified as to family (Anoplocephalidae), subfamily  
142 (Cyathostominae), genus (*Gasterophilus*, *Parascaris*, *Strongylus*) or species (*Oxyuris equi*)  
143 according to their anatomical location and published keys and illustrations (Jacobs, 1986;  
144 Lichtenfels, 1975; Price and Stromberg, 1987). Regarding tapeworms, specimens recovered  
145 from the small intestine, caecum and right ventral colon were preserved separately in 10%  
146 formalin in order to be microscopically examined later for the purpose of specific identification  
147 (Euzéby, 1966; Lichtenfels, 1975). Tapeworms recovered from the small intestine were all  
148 examined and identified. For tapeworms present in other intestinal segments, the following  
149 protocol was implemented: when less than 100 specimens were counted, all the worms  
150 were identified. In cases of heavier infection (more than 100 tapeworms), a 10% aliquot was  
151 examined.

152 The cranial mesenteric artery and its major branches were opened and evaluated for lesions  
153 secondary to the migration of *Strongylus vulgaris* larvae. Adherent thrombi and granulation  
154 tissue were removed by scraping the intimal surface ; then the parasites were recovered by  
155 dissecting carefully all these fragments and counted.

156 A special procedure was applied to detect cyathostomin larvae. At each site of the large  
157 intestines where the presence of parietal larvae was suspected by careful visual inspection, a  
158 10 cm<sup>2</sup> fragment of the digestive wall was removed, examined by mural transillumination  
159 technique (Reinemeyer and Herd, 1986) and then dissected under a binocular loupe to  
160 confirm the presence of cyathostomin larvae. The number of larvae per cm<sup>2</sup> was recorded.

161

### 162 **2.3. Determination of the cause of death**

163 The cause of death was determined according to horse clinical history (duration of the  
164 disease and evolution, clinical signs and results of laboratory tests), observed lesions and  
165 the epidemiological context. Deaths were categorized as being mediated by parasite  
166 infection or not by the same person throughout the study period, thereby making  
167 observations comparable across the years.

168 Parasites were declared as the most likely cause of death when parasite recovery was  
169 associated with the following lesions:

- 170 - *Parascaris* sp.: intestinal obstruction, intussusception or rupture, toxemia and allergic  
171 shock following treatment in heavily infected foals;
- 172 - Tapeworms: ileal, ileo-caecal, caeco-caecal and caeco-colic intussusception,  
173 thickening of the ileal wall with obstruction, paralytic ileus at the ileocaecal valve;
- 174 - Larval cyathostominosis was suspected in case of extensive typhlocolitis including  
175 mucosal congestion, oedema, ulceration and necrosis, along with the presence of  
176 numerous encysted larvae (more than 10 larvae per cm<sup>2</sup>) and or numerous emerged  
177 L4 larvae in the bowel content.

178 - Infection with *S. vulgaris* larvae was considered as the cause of death when arterial  
179 infarction and necrosis of a bowel segment was diagnosed and was associated with  
180 verminous arteritis and thromboembolism.

181

## 182 **2.4. Statistical analyses**

183 Statistical analyses were carried out with the R software v3.5 (R Core Team, 2016).

184 Parasitological data were analyzed following a binary outcome, *i.e.* infected or not, or as a  
185 continuous trait that quantifies the severity of the infection. The binary trait was modeled  
186 using logistic regression and a binomial link function, while raw worm counts were assumed  
187 to follow a negative binomial distribution, which is common for overdispersed data.

188 For both type of trait, models were built as the sum of known fixed effects, *i.e.* horse sex,  
189 breed (French trotter, Thoroughbred, miscellaneous), age class (older than one year of age  
190 or not), and the season at which the horse died. We also added a binary variable encoding  
191 the time period, *i.e.* before or after the observed break in species prevalence through time.

192 The break in species prevalence occurring around the year 2000 was inferred after  
193 regression species prevalence upon the year, using the segmented package (Muggeo,  
194 2017). This strategy was chosen to account for the temporal trends in species prevalence  
195 and abundance; more complex mixed models including year as a random effect did not  
196 provide precise year effect estimates and were faced with convergence issues when  
197 combined with a negative binomial link function. Fixed effects were subsequently kept or  
198 discarded by an AIC-based variable selection using the *stepAIC()* function from the MASS  
199 package (Venables and Ripley, 2002). This procedure aims at minimizing the residual  
200 variance while avoiding model overfitting. Horse sex was never retained during the variable  
201 selection procedure.

202 The cause of death was registered and classified as a binary outcome, *i.e.* of parasitic origin  
203 or not, and regressed upon horse breed and the season at which the horse was examined



204 using logistic regression. The prevalence of fatal parasite infection was regressed upon the  
205 year of examination to establish whether it varied significantly between 1987 and 2015.

206 Mean estimates of the logistic regressions were exponentiated to obtain the relative risk  
207 associated with each variable level.

208 Due to the very low prevalence of *Parascaris* spp. in yearlings, modelling of worm burden  
209 and prevalence for this species was performed on the only foal data (n = 1,174 out of the  
210 1,673 available observations).

211 Any test with *P*-value below 5% was deemed significant.

212

### 213 **3. Results**

#### 214 **3.1. Overall infection pattern by non-strongylid species**

215 Average non-strongylid parasite burden and prevalence were in a lower range of values  
216 (Figure 1). Only 14 horses harboured *O. equi* and this species was not considered further.

217 Bots were recovered from 409 out of the 1,673 equids examined *post-mortem* (24.4%  
218 prevalence, 95% c.i. : 22% - 26%). The number of *Gasterophilus* spp. per infected equid  
219 ranged between 1 and 889 (mean = 65.03 ± 90.46 and median = 35) and these were found  
220 in the stomach in most cases (380 out the 385 cases with observations; 10 horses presented  
221 instar attached to the oesophagus and five horses had larvae attached to their pharynx).

222 Tapeworms were found in 289 equids (17.2% prevalence, 95% c.i. : 15% - 19%), and were  
223 almost exclusively located in the caecum (n = 224 cases). *A. magna* and *P. mamillana* were  
224 recovered in 2 horses each, including a co-infection with *A. perfoliata* in both cases.  
225 *Parascaris* sp. was recovered from the small intestine of 207 foals (17.6% prevalence, 95%  
226 c.i. : 15.5% - 19.9%) with an average abundance of 95 worms recovered (ranging from 1 to  
227 1605 individuals).

228 Co-infection by three non-strongylid species rarely occurred (n = 20), but 12.4% of the  
229 examined cases presented two non-strongylid species. In that latter case, parasites were

230 twice as likely to be responsible for the death of the horse (14.4% of cases against 6.8% in  
231 the total population of cases).

232 The youngest foals with gastro-intestinal macroparasites were two months of age. Bots and  
233 *Parascaris* spp. were found in respectively 6 and 10 foals of that age with counts ranging  
234 from 1 to 34 and 1 to 75 individuals for bots and *Parascaris* nematodes respectively. The  
235 youngest foals infected with tapeworms were four months of age ( $n = 3$ ) and harboured  
236 between 2 and 34 cestodes.

237 Worm burden and prevalence followed seasonal fluctuations (Figure 1). *Parascaris* spp.  
238 were significantly more abundant in summer and autumn (averaged corrected burden of  $34 \pm$   
239  $1.32$  and  $19.5 \pm 1.42$  nematodes/horse,  $P < 10^{-4}$  and  $2 \times 10^{-3}$ ), with a peak of infection in  
240 August. The same pattern was found for prevalence, whereby the highest risk of infection  
241 was observed in autumn (odds ratio = 3.43, 95% c.i. = 2.12 - 5.57;  $P < 10^{-4}$ ). Bots and  
242 tapeworms hit their highest abundance later in the second half of the year, *i.e.* in autumn ( $P <$   
243  $10^{-4}$ ) and winter ( $P = 0.018$ ). During their respective most favourable season, bot and  
244 tapeworm infection risk was 14.67- (95% c.i. : 9.34 - 23.03) and 4.23-fold (95% c.i.: 2.77 -  
245 6.46) as high as that observed in spring, respectively. Of note, tapeworms were more  
246 frequently found in yearlings than in foals (odds ratio = 2.54, 95% c.i. = 1.94 - 3.32) whereas  
247 horse age category neither contributed to bot burden variance nor to their prevalence  
248 variance.

249 Horse breeds were variously infected by non-strongylid parasites. Substantial variation was  
250 found in bot abundance and prevalence across the considered breed categories:  
251 Thoroughbred horses were significantly twice less likely to be infected by bots as  
252 miscellaneous horses (difference in relative risk = 0.45, 95% c.i. = 0.32 - 0.64;  $P < 10^{-4}$ ). In  
253 that case, parasite abundance was lower ( $8.58 \pm 1.17$  bots on average,  $P = 9.8 \times 10^{-3}$ ) in  
254 Thoroughbred horses than for the two other breeds ( $13.46 \pm 1.16$  and  $18.54 \pm 1.29$  bots on  
255 average for French trotter and miscellaneous horses respectively). Thoroughbred horses

256 also displayed lower tapeworm burden on average (average burden of  $11 \pm 1.24$  cestodes  
257 vs.  $20 \pm 1.24$  and  $39 \pm 1.39$  in French trotters and miscellaneous horses). However their  
258 infection rate was not significantly different from that observed in other breeds ( $\chi^2 = 2.63$ , *d.f.*  
259 = 2;  $P = 0.27$ ). No difference in *Parascaris* spp. ( $\chi^2 = 0.92$ , *d.f.* = 2;  $P = 0.63$ ) infection rate  
260 was found between the three breed types considered.

261

### 262 **3.2. A shift in parasite species causing the death of young horses** 263 **through time**

264 Out the 1,673 horses, most of them died spontaneously ( $n = 1347$ ) whereas the remainder  
265 were euthanized by a veterinarian ( $n = 326$ ). Overall, the cause of death was ascertained in  
266 93.4% of horses ( $n = 1563$ ), suspected for 92 cases or remained unknown in 18 cases.  
267 Parasite were identified as being responsible for the death of 111 horses and highly  
268 suspected for 3 additional horses (Figure 2). Out of these, cyathostominosis was the most  
269 frequent cause of death ( $n = 38$ ), followed by caeco-colic invagination caused by  
270 *Anoplocephala* sp. infection ( $n = 25$ ). Thrombo-embolic disease caused by *S. vulgaris* ( $n =$   
271 22) and fatal *Parascaris* spp. infection ( $n = 19$ ) were the main remaining causes of parasitic  
272 death.

273 The annual proportion of death caused by parasites remained relatively constant ( $6.5\% \pm$   
274  $3.8\%$  of total deaths) throughout the considered 29 years ( $F_{1,27} = 0.34$ ;  $P = 0.56$ ). It reached  
275 its highest in 2010 (18% of young horses necropsied) but was null in 2013. The relative risk  
276 of fatal parasitic infection was higher late in the year (4.1- and 6.4-fold increase in relative  
277 risk in autumn and winter respectively,  $P < 10^{-4}$ ). It was also significantly reduced in race  
278 horses (odd ratios of 0.37 and 0.39,  $P < 10^{-4}$  for both Thoroughbreds and French trotters  
279 respectively). In miscellaneous horses, cyathostominosis represented more than half of total  
280 deaths of parasitic origin (29 out of 38 cases) but this affection was less often seen in race  
281 horses (5 and 4 cases out of 31 Thoroughbreds and 37 French trotters respectively; Figure

282 2). French trotters were however more subject to fatal infection by tapeworms and *S. vulgaris*  
283 infection (Figure 2).

284 Of note, the yearly number of deaths caused by parasitic infection significantly increased  
285 after 2000 ( $2.53 \pm 0.64$  cases more,  $P = 10^{-3}$ ). A shift in the species responsible for the death  
286 of horses was also found from 2000 onward, whereby *S. vulgaris* and tapeworms have been  
287 progressively replaced by cyathostomins and *Parascaris* spp. in more recent times. *S.*  
288 *vulgaris* and tapeworms were responsible for  $4.53 \pm 0.92$  ( $P < 10^{-4}$ ) more cases per year  
289 before 2000.

290

### 291 **3.3. Persistence of gastro-intestinal helminths in recently dewormed** 292 **horses**

293 Complete deworming history including the date and class of the last anthelmintics used for  
294 deworming was available in 647 cases, 552 of which had been dewormed within the last 90  
295 days. We found five cases (one French trotter, four Thoroughbred horses) of patent  
296 *Parascaris* spp. infection in foals that had been treated with ivermectin within the last 30 days  
297 before necropsy (4 to 22 days before death). These cases were noticed between 2004 and  
298 2010. Two foals died because of *Parascaris* spp. mediated intestinal perforation, but the  
299 three others had non-parasitic causes of death.

300 Two additional cases were found in foals treated with pyrantel two or six days before  
301 necropsy in 1999 and 2015 respectively. The former French trotter died following deworming,  
302 while the latter Thoroughbred suffered a fatal canon fracture.

303 A last case of patent *Parascaris* sp. infection was noticed on a 7.5 month-old Thoroughbred  
304 foal that had been drenched with fenbendazole four days before its death but harboured 54  
305 worms.

306 An 18-month old Thoroughbred horse euthanized for a jaw lymphosarcoma in 2012,  
307 exhibited 836 *A. perfoliata* whereas he had been treated with a mixture of ivermectin and  
308 praziquantel 45 days before. The presence of 134 bots in its stomach would suggest that the  
309 drug was at least badly administered.

310

### 311 **3.4. An increased prevalence of *Parascaris* spp. from 2008 onward**

312 In relationship with the observed shift in species responsible for the death of young equids,  
313 we quantified the temporal variation of parasite prevalence and abundance across the 29-  
314 year period (Figure 3, supplementary Table 1). Breakpoints in non-strongylid prevalence  
315 were found to occur within a ten-year period around 2000, *i.e.* 1998, 2005 and 2007 for bots,  
316 tapeworms and *Parascaris* spp. respectively (Figure 3).

317 This analysis revealed a 1.97-fold increase in the risk of *Parascaris* spp. infection after 2007  
318 (95% c.i. = 1.41 - 2.75;  $P < 10^{-4}$ ). On average, 2.2 as many worms were observed in foals  
319 after 2007 relative to pre-2007 observations ( $P = 0.03$ ). This suggests that following 2007,  
320 foals were significantly more at risk of *Parascaris* spp. infection and had increased worm  
321 loads.

322 An opposite pattern was found for bots and tapeworms (Figure 3). A break occurred in bots  
323 prevalence from 1998 onward, that resulted in a 1.35-fold (95% c.i.: 1.33 - 2.18;  $P < 10^{-4}$ )  
324 reduction of its infection rate. This trend was also conserved for the abundance of bots found  
325 upon necropsy, with average count shifting from  $17.8 \pm 1.18$  to  $9.58 \pm 1.15$  after 1998 ( $P =$   
326  $2.3 \times 10^{-3}$ ). A similar significant reduction was found for tapeworm after 2005 (odds ratio =  
327 0.62; 95% c.i.: 0.46 - 0.82; Figure 3), but their abundance was not significantly altered  
328 through time ( $\chi^2 = 0.12$ , *d.f.* = 1;  $P = 0.73$ ).

329

330

## 331 4. Discussion

332 Our survey provides one of the most comprehensive long-term surveys of equine gastro-  
333 intestinal parasite dynamics. It is similar to a previous extensive report of 513 *postmortem*  
334 examinations performed between the mid-1950's and 1983 in the USA (Tolliver et al., 1987).  
335 These horses had been however chosen because of their patent strongylid infection and the  
336 authors had limited information regarding their deworming history (Tolliver et al., 1987). This  
337 latter piece of information is difficult to obtain in field conditions and is often missing in  
338 *postmortem* examination (Lyons et al., 2018, 2000) or abattoir surveys (Rehbein et al.,  
339 2013). In some studies, specific parasite species are searched for in a subset of individuals  
340 (Lyons et al., 2000). Here, we analyzed the long-term dynamics of parasite population in  
341 young horses, using the same examination protocol and the relevant background for each  
342 horse. The working subset of young animals reflected the diversity of equine production in  
343 Normandy. Indeed, horses were coming from 25% of the 2,981 stud-farms present in Basse-  
344 Normandy in 2014 (Anonymous, 2015). In addition, the diverse aetiologies underpinning the  
345 death of young equids suggest that these horses were not coming from the sole farms facing  
346 major issues in parasite control. A sampling bias remains however possible, as it is likely that  
347 all dead horses in the region were not sent for necropsy.

348 The data collected on this subset of young horses highlighted a seasonal pattern in non-  
349 strongylid parasite abundance and prevalence. In agreement with previous reports from  
350 temperate areas, bots (Bucknell et al., 1995; Höglund et al., 1997; Lyons et al., 2000, 1994,  
351 1985; Mfitilodze and Hutchinson, 1989; Price and Stromberg, 1987; Rehbein et al., 2013)  
352 and tapeworms (Benton and Lyons, 1994; Bucknell et al., 1995; Meana et al., 2005; Nilsson  
353 et al., 1995; Rehbein et al., 2013; Tomczuk et al., 2015) were more abundant and prevalent  
354 in autumn and winter seasons. This suggests that the subset of young equids, that were  
355 examined throughout the year, was a good proxy to investigate the regional parasite  
356 community dynamics. However, a peak of *Parascaris* spp. abundance was found in August  
357 and highest prevalence occurred in autumn. A similar seasonality was found in Northern

358 Queensland (Australia), whereby *Parascaris* spp. infection was more prevalent in wetter  
359 months (Mfitilodze and Hutchinson, 1989). This finding is in contrast with multiple reports that  
360 did not find any evidence of a seasonal pattern (Bucknell et al., 1995; Fabiani et al., 2016;  
361 Lyons et al., 1994; Rehbein et al., 2013) and could result from the collinearity between the  
362 season when necropsies were performed and foal age. To this regard, the median foal age in  
363 August, when *Parascaris* spp. were the most abundant, was 4 months of age, which  
364 corroborates recent report (Fabiani et al., 2016).

365 Our prevalence estimates for bots and tapeworms were in the lower range of previously  
366 reported values, that varied between 15% (Lyons et al., 2000) to 94% (Tolliver et al., 1987)  
367 for bots and 30% (Mfitilodze and Hutchinson, 1989) to 80% for tapeworms (Benton and  
368 Lyons, 1994). This certainly reflects the important contribution of race horses to our dataset  
369 (84%), as these are usually subjected to intensive deworming programs. For instance, a  
370 2013-survey across eight French Trotter studs revealed that foals were given eight  
371 anthelmintics a year (*Sallé et al.*, unpublished observations).

372 Of note, a significant break in non-strongylid prevalences has occurred within a ten-year  
373 window ranging from 1998 to 2008, whereby *Parascaris* spp. arose in contrast to bots and  
374 tapeworms that suffered strong reduction in their respective prevalences. The decrease in  
375 bot prevalence was likely underpinned by the release of ivermectin in 1983 (marketing  
376 authorization number FR/V/6151318 9/1983) and moxidectin in 1997 (marketing  
377 authorization number FR/V/0805751 8/1997). Their decline was however lower than the 85%  
378 drop-off in *G. intestinalis* prevalence found between 1980 and 2000 in Kentucky (Lyons et al.,  
379 2000). On the contrary, the sharp decline of tapeworm prevalence followed closely the  
380 release of praziquantel between 2001 and 2005, commercialized either alone (marketing  
381 authorization number FR/V/8052367 3/2001) or combined with ivermectin (marketing  
382 authorization number FR/V/1889939 3/2004) or with moxidectin (marketing authorization  
383 number FR/V/3281212 3/2005). The increased awareness of the association between  
384 tapeworm infection and clinical intestinal disease in horses in the 1990's has also certainly  
385 contributed to the implementation of a tapeworm-killing treatment in late fall or winter. At that

386 time, tapeworm control relied on the off-label use of niclosamide (100 mg/kg) or a double  
387 dose of pyrantel embonate.

388 We also identified a significant shift in the species responsible for the death of young horses.

389 Fatal tapeworm and *S. vulgaris* infections strongly declined after 2000, before a rise in

390 *Parascaris* spp. and cyathostomin mediated deaths occurred. In the lack of farm

391 management data or any climatic trend, a definitive explanation remains elusive. The

392 decrease in fatal tapeworm infection is likely connected to its reduced prevalence starting in

393 early 2000's. The *S. vulgaris* decline has been reported since the 1990's from various

394 strands of evidence (Herd, 1990), although this is, to our knowledge, the first longitudinal

395 quantification of this phenomenon. Of note, cyathostominosis has remained the most

396 frequent aetiology in death cases of parasitic origin. The miscellaneous horse category was

397 particularly at risk in comparison to race horses. The suboptimal parasite management for

398 this type of horses may be related to the reduced awareness of non-professional horse

399 owners or the more frequent use of benzimidazole drugs that are cheaper or both. In the

400 case of *Parascaris* spp., our observations suggest that a few cases of suboptimal drug

401 efficacy occurred over the same time period. This is in line with other observations gathered

402 from the same region (Laugier et al., 2012), from other European countries (Boersema et al.,

403 2002; Martin et al., 2018; Näreaho et al., 2011; Schougaard and Nielsen, 2007; von Samson-

404 Himmelstjerna et al., 2007) or from more distant areas, like in Australia (Beasley et al., 2015)

405 or in the USA (Craig et al., 2007). This epidemiological context would hence suggest that the

406 rise of *Parascaris*-mediated death might be linked to a decrease in anthelmintic efficacy.

407 As a conclusion, this compilation of *postmortem* examination over a 29-year period in a

408 unique spatial entity, quantified major shifts in equine parasite communities that occurred

409 within a 10-year window from early 2000 onwards. Observed patterns suggested that the

410 release of macrocyclic lactones and praziquantel were major drivers of these shifts. The

411 prevalence of fatal parasite infection remained constant through time, but fatal

412 cyathostominosis cases have been increasing since the year 2000. This likely mirrors both a

413 confusion with other causes of chronic diarrhoea and a lack of awareness about drug



414 resistance in cyathostomin populations. Worryingly, the rise of *Parascaris* spp. infection  
415 cases was concomitant with suboptimal anthelmintic efficacy cases that have appeared  
416 within the last decade. While additional education efforts among veterinarians and horse  
417 owners should contribute to dampen cyathostominosis cases, other strategies should be  
418 leveraged for the control of *Parascaris* spp. in foals.

419

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424

425

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560  
561

## 562 **Legend to figures**

563 **Figure 1. Non-strongylid species distribution across season and horse breed**

564 The figure depicts the distribution of worm burden measured in each breed type (MISC:  
565 Miscellaneous; TB: Thoroughbred; FT: French Trotter) and across seasons.

566

567 **Figure 2. Parasite species responsible for the death of young horses across breeds**

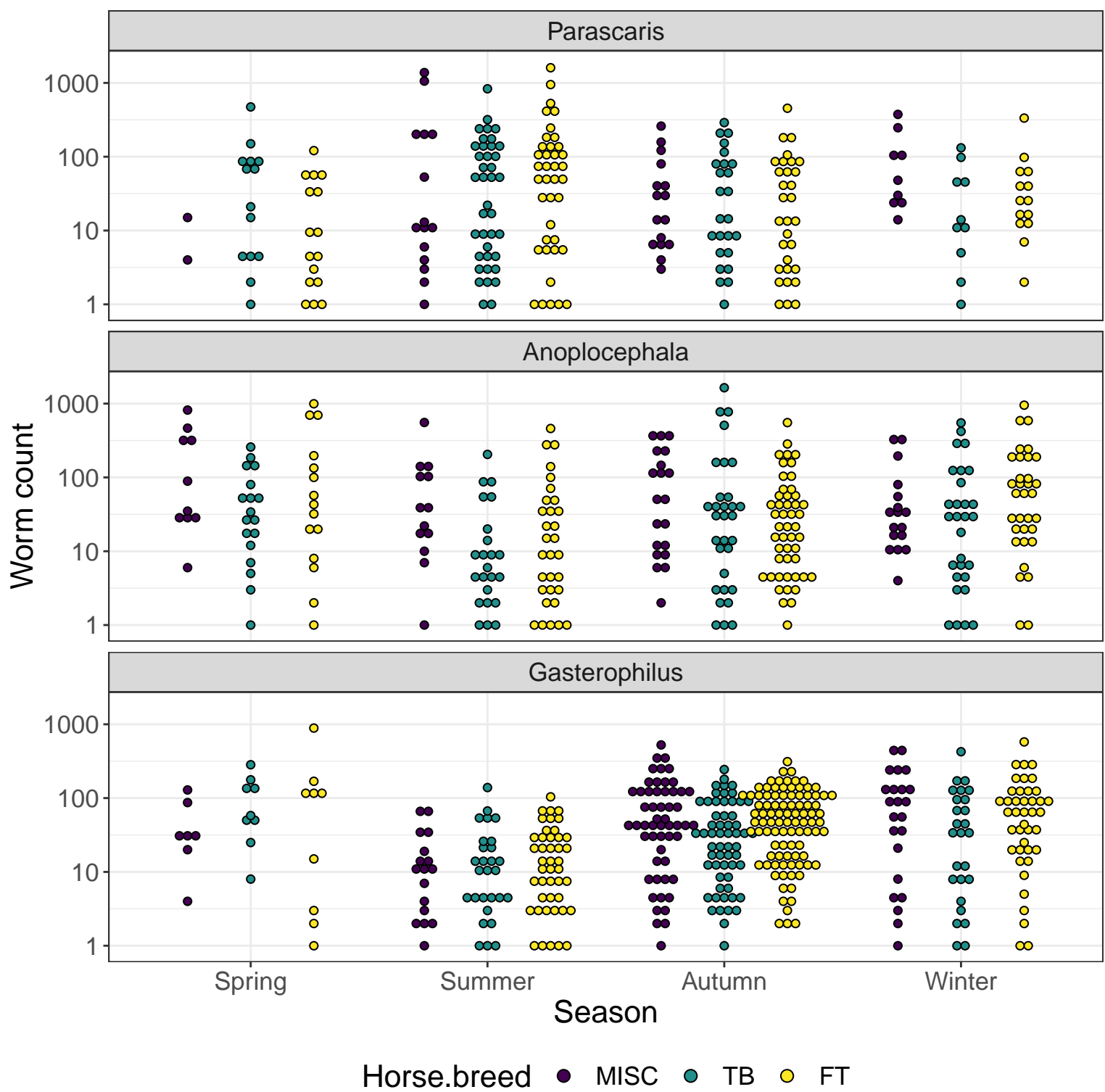
568 The relative contribution of parasite species to the death of young horses (114 cases) is  
569 plotted for each breed type considered (FT: French trotter; MISC: miscellaneous; TB:  
570 Thoroughbred). The figure highlights the higher contribution of cyathostomiasis cases in the  
571 miscellaneous breed type.

572

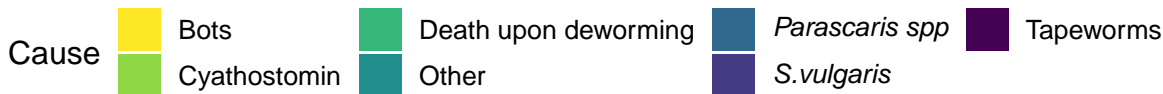
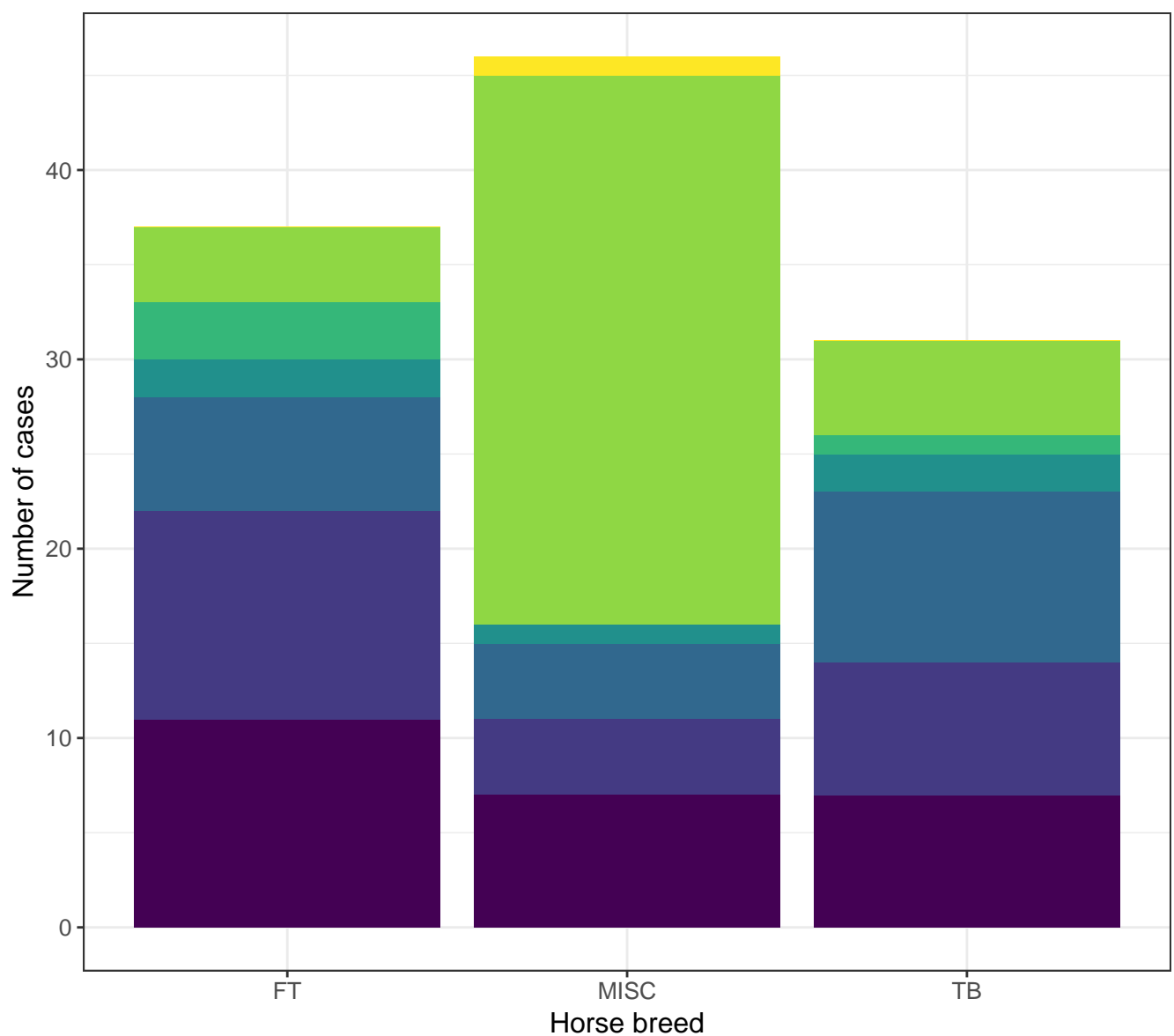
573 **Figure 3. Temporal variation of non-strongylid parasite prevalence**

574 The figure illustrates the breakpoints in species prevalence around the year 2000 for each of  
575 the three non-strongylid species considered, *i.e.* 1998, 2007 and 2005 for *Gasterophilus*  
576 spp., *Parascaris* spp. and tapeworms respectively. Points are coloured according to the  
577 considered time period, and the respective regression line is given with associated 95%  
578 confidence interval (shaded area).

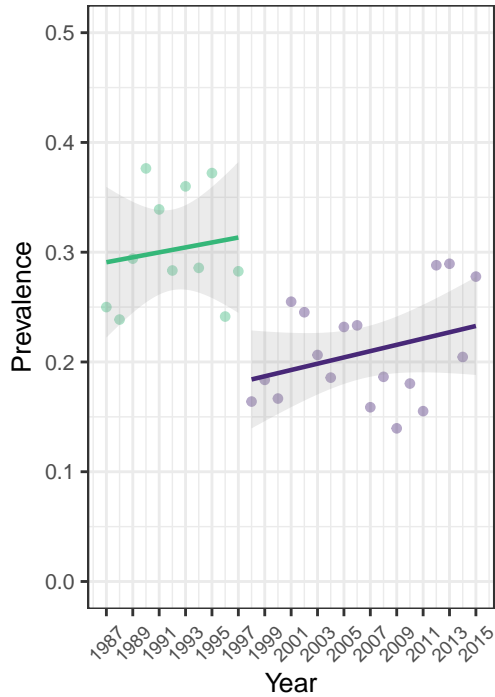
579



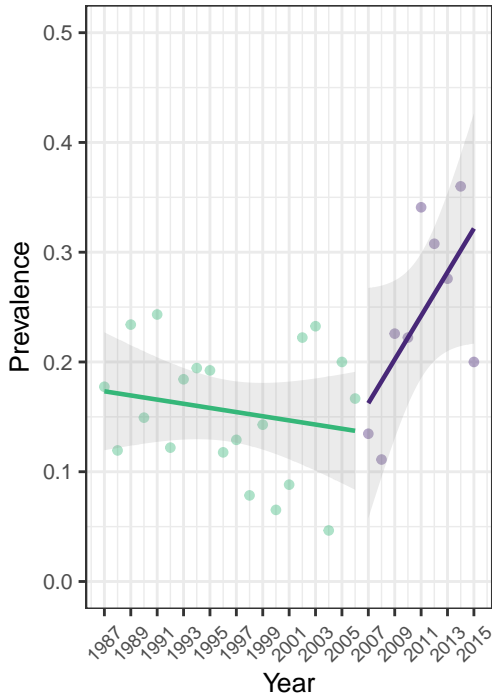




*Gasterophilus sp.*



*Parascaris sp.*



Tapeworms

