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3 **Title**

4 Relationship between selected perinatal paratuberculosis management interventions and passive
5 transfer of immunity in dairy calves

6 **Abstract**

7 The objective of this cohort study was to assess the relationship between perinatal calf management
8 practices relevant to the control of paratuberculosis, and passive transfer of immunoglobulin in
9 calves born in an endemically infected Irish dairy herd. Data from 176 calves were used to assess the
10 effect of time spent in the calving area, individual versus non-designated calving and colostrum
11 pasteurisation on serum total protein, zinc sulphate turbidity, globulin and gamma-
12 glutamyltransferase. In addition, the effects of colostrum quality, volume of colostrum fed, method
13 of colostrum administration and calving season on passive transfer were quantified. Serum samples
14 were collected as part of routine herd health monitoring from calves aged between 1-7 days of age.
15 Multivariate linear and logistic regression models were used to assess the effect of each variable on
16 the test result and failure of passive transfer as determined using a cut-off point for each diagnostic
17 test. Colostrum pasteurisation and calving area were not significantly associated with passive
18 transfer whereas increased time spent in the calving pen was consistently associated with a
19 detrimental effect. In addition, a strong seasonal effect was apparent which appeared to be
20 unrelated to colostrum quality and calf management. The authors are unaware of published studies
21 documenting such a significant seasonal effect on passive transfer.

22 **Introduction**

23 Bovine paratuberculosis is a disease characterised by chronic granulomatous enteritis which
24 manifests clinically as a protein-losing enteropathy causing diarrhoea, hypoproteinaemia,

25 emaciation and, eventually death (Sweeney 2011). Calves are recognised as being most susceptible
26 to infection (Windsor and Whittington 2010) and protective calf management is regularly advised as
27 part of national control programmes (Geraghty and others 2014). Common “protective calf
28 management” interventions advocated in order to reduce transmission of paratuberculosis in
29 infected herds include the use of individual calving pens, prompt removal of the calf from the calving
30 environment and feeding of low risk feeds with the aim of reducing exposure of calves to the
31 aetiological agent, *Mycobacterium avium* subspecies *paratuberculosis* (MAP).

32 The use of an individual calving pen over a group calving pen has been associated with reduced
33 transmission of paratuberculosis in endemically infected herds (Pithua and others 2013) or reduced
34 number of seropositive animals in positive herds (Tiwari and others 2009). In addition, during the
35 course of the calving season on a commercial farm, a small number of cows are often not moved to
36 the calving pen in time and calves may be born in “non-designated” calving areas such as close-up or
37 far-off dry pens. Whilst there is no direct evidence to suggest these animals are at a greater risk of
38 infection, environmental samples from adult cow areas are often more likely to be positive than
39 those collected from calving areas (Raizman and others, 2004), suggesting a greater risk of exposure
40 to MAP for calves born in these areas.

41 Prompt separation of the calf from the dam and removal from the calving area is commonly
42 advocated as part of a JD control programme. The probability of testing positive has been reported
43 to be higher in herds where calving was not supervised (Cashman and others 2013), or in herds
44 where there was late separation from the dam with possible suckling (Beaudeau and others 2005).

45 MAP has also been isolated from milk and colostrum of subclinical animals (Sweeney and others
46 1992; Streeter and others 1995) and the feeding of milk replacer has been advocated as a result.
47 More recently the use of on-farm pasteurisers has gained popularity as an intervention for the
48 control of paratuberculosis. Whilst a reduction in levels of MAP in milk (Stabel, 2001) and colostrum
49 (Godden and others 2006) has been shown, a definitive effect on within herd transmission is yet to

50 be demonstrated (Godden and others 2015). Separation of the calf from the dam within 2 hours is
51 also commonly advocated in order to promote passive transfer and calf health (McGuirk and Collins
52 2004). Bovine neonates are born virtually agammaglobulinaemic (Klaus and others 1969) and
53 successful passive transfer of maternal immunoglobulin depends on efficient absorption of an
54 adequate volume of colostrum of sufficient quality. Immunoglobulin absorption by enterocytes in
55 the neonatal calf is greatest for the first 4 hours of life and declines rapidly from 12 hours of age
56 (Weaver and others 2000). Similarly, in the dam, colostrum immunoglobulin is highest immediately
57 after calving and progressively declines from 6 hours post calving, the mechanism for this decline is
58 unclear (Moore and others 2005).

59 Recently, colostral bacterial count has also been shown to negatively impact the efficiency of
60 immunoglobulin absorption (Gelsinger and others 2015). Consequently, colostrum pasteurisation
61 has been developed as a method of reducing bacterial counts with limited effect on immunoglobulin
62 content (Donahue and others 2012). Heat treatment of colostrum has also been studied as a method
63 of significantly reducing the level of MAP in colostrum (Godden and others 2006).

64 Therefore, considerable crossover exists between recommendations for control of paratuberculosis
65 in infected dairy herds and practices advocated in order to promote calf health. However, whilst
66 there is some anecdotal evidence to suggest that the implementation of a paratuberculosis control
67 programme is likely to have positive implications for calf health (Garry 2011), there is little empirical
68 evidence to support this.

69 The aim of this study was to investigate the association between the degree to which calf
70 management practices, introduced with the aim of reducing the spread of paratuberculosis, affected
71 passive transfer as measured by serum total protein (STP), zinc sulphate turbidity (ZST), globulin and
72 gamma glutamyl transferase (GGT).

73 **Materials and Methods**

74 One hundred and seventy-six (176) calves born between September 2014 and June 2015, were
75 monitored in a 350-cow, split (autumn and spring) seasonal calving dairy herd in southwest Ireland.
76 The average 305 day yield of lactating cows in the herd was approximately 5900 litres. Considerable
77 data regarding the perinatal management of individual calves in the herd were available due to the
78 herd's involvement in a HACCP-based paratuberculosis control programme (McAloon and others
79 2015). This system involved intensive monitoring of control measures at critical control points
80 relating to peri-parturient area management, calving, new-born calving management and colostrum
81 management. As part of the implementation of this programme, a tailored on-farm written
82 recording system was developed with farm management and workers, capturing data on traceability
83 and management of cows and calves in the periparturient period including area calved in and time
84 spent in the calving area for each calf.

85 For the purpose of this study, the recording system was further developed to investigate the effects
86 of the control measures relevant to paratuberculosis, whilst also quantifying and controlling for the
87 effects of possible confounding factors such as volume, method and timing of colostrum
88 administration. The final dataset consisted of date of birth, calving area, calving difficulty, time of
89 calving, time of calf removal from calving area, time of colostrum administration, volume of
90 colostrum administered and method of colostrum administration for each calf born on the farm.
91 Calving difficulty was initially recorded on a 4-point scale ranging from a normal calving to
92 considerable difficulty requiring veterinary assistance, however, given the small number of difficult
93 calvings recorded on the farm, this was subsequently simplified to a 2-point scale; non-assisted and
94 assisted calvings.

95 A total of 8 individual calving pens were present on the farm to which cows were moved
96 immediately prior to calving. Each pen was cleaned out and bedded with straw following every
97 calving. Calvings occurring accidentally in areas other than these calving pens, such as the far-off or
98 close-up dry cow pen were recorded as non-designated calvings. Calves were removed from the

99 calving pen or non-designated calving area as soon as possible after calving to a pre-weaning calving
100 shed where they were grouped in batches of 8 until weaning. Heifer and bull calves were reared in
101 separate pens within the same shed. From day 3 of life, heifers were fed a commercial milk replacer
102 (Triple A Golden Maverick, Volac Ireland, Co. Cavan, Ireland) until weaning, whereas bulls were
103 reared on waste milk.

104 All calves in the herd were fed low-risk donor colostrum. Each calf was fed one feed of the first milk
105 from a donor cow, followed by 2 feeds from the second milking. Risk status of animals in the herd
106 was assigned based on ongoing paratuberculosis testing and the ID of the donor was recorded for
107 each calf.

108 Colostrum quality was measured before and after pasteurisation using an on-farm portable brix
109 refractometer with a range of 0-32% Brix. All colostrum and transition milk intended for heifer calves
110 was pasteurised using a commercial colostrum pasteuriser (MilkWorks GOLD, DairyTech Inc., Greely,
111 Colorado, USA), frozen for storage and thawed when required. All colostrum and transition milk
112 used for bull calves was frozen on collection and thawed before use. Calves were fed from a milk
113 bottle fitted with a teat and those not ingesting sufficient quantities were tube fed via oesophageal
114 tube feeder.

115 Routine evaluation of passive transfer on the farm was conducted by the farm's private veterinary
116 practitioner as a part of routine herd health diagnostics. Blood samples were collected from all
117 calves from 1-7 days of age at the time of the practitioner's visit. Samples were transported to the
118 local regional veterinary laboratory. Samples were centrifuged on arrival and the tests for FPT
119 performed without delay. The ZST test used the standard operating procedure in place at Limerick
120 Regional Veterinary Laboratory, as described by McEwan (1970) with the modification that the
121 concentration of the zinc sulphate solution used was 250 mg/L rather than 208 mg/L (Hudgens and
122 others 1996). Testing for GGT, STP and albumin was carried out using an Rx Daytona autoanalyser;
123 globulin levels were then determined by subtracting albumin levels from STP. GGT levels were

124 evaluated by a colourimetric method where the L- γ -glutamyl-3-carboxy-4-nitroanilide is converted in
125 the presence of glycylglycine by GGT to 5-amino-2-nitro-benzoate which absorbs at 405nm (Szasz
126 1974). Total protein levels were determined by formation of a coloured complex between protein
127 and cupric ions in an alkaline medium (Weichselbaum 1946). Albumin levels were determined by
128 quantitative binding to the indicator 3,3',5,5'-tetrabromo-m cresol sulphonphthalein (bromocresol
129 green) (Doumas and others 1971).

130 Statistical Analysis

131 Paper records were collected from the farm at the end of the calving season and transferred to an
132 Excel spreadsheet (Microsoft Corporation, USA), statistical analysis was conducted using MLwiN
133 (version 2.29, Centre for Multilevel Modelling, University of Bristol 2013) and Stata (version 13.1,
134 StataCorp, College Station, Texas, USA).

135 Four outcomes of interest were evaluated; serum total protein, zinc sulphate turbidity (ZST), globulin
136 and GGT. Each outcome was investigated as a continuous outcome and as a binary outcome (success
137 or failure of passive transfer).

138 Univariate linear regression was first used to evaluate the effect of each explanatory variable on
139 each continuous outcome. Serum GGT was not normally distributed and was natural log
140 transformed to meet the assumptions of the linear model.

141 All explanatory variables with a P value <0.2 were carried forward to a multivariate linear regression
142 and a backwards stepwise elimination was conducted to fit the final model. Variables remained in
143 the final model when P<0.05.

144 Logistic regression was used to evaluate the association between the measured variables and the
145 outcome 'failure of passive transfer' as determined by the cut-off points selected for each outcome.
146 Cut-off points of 52mg/mL (Calloway and others 2002), 20 units (McEwan and others 1970),

147 20mg/ml (Garry and others 1993) and 100IU/L (Parish and others 1997) were selected for serum
148 total protein, ZST, globulin and GGT respectively.

149 **Results**

150 Data were available for 176 calves including 102 females and 74 males. Mean serum total protein,
151 ZST, globulin and GGT were 57.1, 22.8, 28.8, and 360.6 respectively. Using the cut-off points
152 identified in the literature, the prevalence of FPT in the herd was 32.4%, 42.0%, 8.5% and 22.5%
153 when using STP, ZST, globulin and GGT respectively.

154 Linear Regression Model

155 Univariate analysis

156 Results of the univariate analysis are shown in Table 1. Season, time spent in calving pen, time until
157 administration of colostrum, volume of colostrum administered were identified as $P < 0.2$ across 3 of
158 the methods of assessing passive transfer. Method of colostrum administration yielded P-values of
159 0.162, 0.157, 0.118, when passive transfer was assessed by serum total protein, ZST and globulin
160 respectively. Colostrum quality was associated with elevated STP and globulin, pasteurisation was
161 associated with an elevated globulin and volume of colostrum administered was associated with
162 elevations across all 4 measures of passive transfer.

163 Multivariate analysis

164 The results of the multivariate analysis are displayed in Table 2. Season was identified as a significant
165 factor across 3 of the outcomes assessed. Markers of passive transfer were consistently higher in
166 autumn born calves even when volume and quality of colostrum administered were corrected for.
167 The amount of time spent in the calving pen was also significant across 3 of the outcomes assessed,
168 markers of passive transfer declined with increasing time spent in the calving pen. Colostrum quality
169 as measured on farm by means of a Brix refractometer was associated with improved passive
170 transfer across 2 of the outcomes assessed. Volume of colostrum administered was associated with

171 improved passive transfer across all 4 outcomes. Calf serum markers of passive transfer increased
172 from less than 3 litres to 3 litres and from 3 litres to 3.5, however PT declined when the volume of
173 colostrum administered increased from 3.5 greater than 4 litres. Tube feeding of colostrum was
174 significantly associated with poorer passive transfer compared with bottle and tube feeding.

175 Logistic regression model

176 Univariate analysis

177 Results of the univariate analysis with failure of passive transfer as a binary response variable are
178 displayed in Table 3. Season, time spent in calving area and method of colostrum administration
179 were significantly associated with failure of passive transfer as determined by serum total protein,
180 globulin and GGT. Volume of colostrum administered was significantly associated with FPT as
181 identified by ZST and GGT. Calving area and level of calving assistance and time spent in calving pen
182 were considered significant when FPT was evaluated by globulin. Colostrum quality and feeding of
183 pasteurised colostrum were significantly associated with ZST assessment of FPT. In addition, calving
184 area, time spent in calving pen and time until colostrum administration were considered significant
185 when FPT was evaluated by GGT.

186 Multivariate analysis

187 Results of logistic regression are shown in Table 4. Season had a significant effect on the OR for FPT.
188 The odds ratio (95% CI) ranged from 3.00 (1.40, 6.41) for serum total protein, to 5.3 (1.86, 15.22) for
189 GGT ($P < 0.05$). The seasonal effect size for FPT when determined by globulin was also large (OR=4.23,
190 95% CI = 0.90, 19.83), however this association was not significant ($p = 0.067$). Increased time spent in
191 the calving area was associated with increased odds of FPT as evaluated by STP, globulin or GGT.
192 Tube feeding of colostrum rather than feeding from bottle and teat was significantly associated with
193 FPT when assessed by GGT, this observation was also observed with STP but the effect did not quite
194 reach significance ($p = 0.053$). Volume of colostrum administered was significantly associated with

195 FPT risk as assessed by ZST; odds ratios were lowest for 3.5 litres, followed by 3 litres and greater
196 than 4 litres, all of these categories were significantly better than feeding less than 3 litres.

197 **Discussion**

198 Estimation of the prevalence of FPT in this herd varied considerably from 8.5% as identified by serum
199 globulin, to 42% as measured by ZST. However, 17% of all samples tested were classified as having a
200 FPT on ZST, despite being negative on all 3 of the remaining tests. Zinc Sulphate Turbidity is
201 commonly associated with comparably poor specificity for the detection of FPT (Hogan and others
202 2015). It therefore seems likely that the true prevalence of FPT in the herd was lower than that as
203 estimated by ZST. There are limited published data regarding the prevalence of FPT in commercial
204 Irish dairy herds, however a recent UK study found that this prevalence varied from 5-51% across 7
205 commercial dairies which was in agreement with similar estimates from North America (MacFarlane
206 and others 2015).

207 The present study found that there was no difference in passive transfer between calves born in
208 individual calving pens compared to those born in non-designated calving areas. This contrasts with
209 a Swedish study which found that calf plasma IgG was greatest in calves born in individual calving
210 pens when compared to group pens (Michanek and Ventorp 1993). However, a US study found no
211 difference in calf health between calves born in individual calving pens and those born in group
212 calving pens (Pithua and others 2009).

213 Calving difficulty was not significantly associated with FPT in any of the models. However there was a
214 tendency for those calves which required some degree of farmer intervention during parturition to
215 have a greater chance of FPT as determined by serum globulin ($p=0.051$). Dystocia is often
216 commonly cited as a reason for FPT, however the biological mechanism behind this finding is
217 somewhat unclear, and may be related to the fact that calves suffering from combined respiratory
218 and metabolic acidosis as a result of dystocia, are less likely get up and suckle, rather than any
219 inability to absorb immunoglobulin *per se* (Weaver and others 2000).

220 Increased time spent in the calving pen was consistently associated with a lower assessment of
221 passive transfer and an increased risk of FPT when assessed by methods other than ZST. This finding
222 is somewhat unsurprising as time spent within the calving pen is likely to be related to time from
223 birth to colostrum administration which has a well-defined role in the efficiency of immunoglobulin
224 absorption. In this dataset, time spent in the calving pen and time until administration of colostrum
225 were moderately correlated ($r=0.476$). However, it is interesting to note that the majority of calves
226 in this study were removed from the dam within 1 hour of birth and that a significant effect of time
227 spent in calving pen was observed even within the relatively small spread of removal times. Feeding
228 of colostrum shortly after birth may result in earlier intestinal closure in the neonate than if feeding
229 is delayed (Stott and others 1979). Calves that have opportunity to suckle in the calving pen may
230 therefore experience earlier cessation of absorption and a poorer efficiency of absorption of
231 subsequent colostrum feeds.

232 Colostrum quality as determined by Brix refractometer was observed to have a significant effect on
233 passive transfer as measured by STP and globulin in the linear regression and when measured by ZST
234 in the logistic regression. Optical brix refractometry is known to correlate quite well with the gold
235 standard, radial immunodiffusion method for quantifying colostral immunoglobulin concentration
236 (Bielmann and others 2010).

237 Volume of colostrum administered was significantly associated with passive transfer in the linear
238 analysis for all 4 evaluation methods, however logistic regression identified this factor as being only
239 significant when evaluated by ZST. Improvement in passive transfer increased when volume of
240 colostrum increased from less than 3 litres to 3.5 litres. However, the coefficient for feeding greater
241 than 4 litres was consistently less than 3.5 litres across all models, although the difference between
242 these two groups was not statistically significant. Interestingly, a recent Irish study found that
243 feeding colostrum at 8.5% body weight resulted in better passive transfer than 10% bodyweight

244 (Conneely and others 2014) although the biological mechanism behind this observation is somewhat
245 unclear.

246 Colostrum pasteurisation produced contradictory results from the 2 statistical analyses conducted.

247 In the linear models there was no significant effect of pasteurisation though the model coefficients

248 suggested a non-significant positive effect of pasteurisation. However in the logistic regression,

249 pasteurisation was significantly associated with an increased risk of FPT as determined by ZST this

250 may be the result of poor specificity associated with ZST for the diagnosis of STP.

251 Feeding of colostrum by tube was generally associated with poorer passive transfer when assessed

252 by STP and globulin and an increased risk of FPT as determined by STP. This observation has been

253 made before (Adams and others 1985), and has been attributed to closure of the oesophageal groove

254 with earlier delivery of colostrum to the abomasum and small intestine. However the magnitude of

255 this effect is generally considered to be small and not clinically significant (Godden 2008). A recent

256 randomised control trial found that this effect was only significant when small (1.5 litre) volumes of

257 colostrum were administered (Godden and others 2009). In the present study calves were

258 preferentially fed colostrum by bottle and teat and only tube fed when they did not drink a sufficient

259 quantity of colostrum. Therefore, it is possible that these calves may have been suffering from

260 acidosis as a result of unobserved or undocumented dystocia which may have affected efficiency of

261 absorption.

262 An interesting outcome of this study was the strong seasonal effect on passive transfer. Spring born

263 calves had significantly poorer passive transfer and a greater risk of FPT when compared to autumn

264 born herd mates. Poorer calf health is often observed in the spring born population of calves in Irish

265 dairy herds, when compared with autumn born herd mates. The most likely explanation for this is

266 that the proportion of cows calving in autumn in a split calving season dairy herd is usually smaller

267 than the proportion calving in the spring. Higher numbers of calves born in spring may result in

268 strains on farm labour, and a delay in the average time from calving to colostrum administration may

269 occur as a result. In addition, an increase in stocking density may also result in poorer hygiene and
270 increased pathogen exposure. The dry period diet of spring calving cows is likely to differ
271 substantially from those calving in the autumn, body condition scores were also not available for
272 autumn and spring calving cows. However the role of the dry cow diet in determining colostrum
273 quality is somewhat unclear and studies have generally shown that colostrum quality is relatively
274 insensitive to manipulation of the dry cow diet (Godden 2008). Similarly, the relationship between
275 BCS and colostrum quality and passive transfer is also unclear with studies often finding a lack of
276 association between BCS at calving and passive transfer (Lake and others 2002), others have found
277 increases in colostrum quality only when BCS increased from dry-off to calving, but not the BCS at
278 calving *per se* (Shearer and others 1992). However, the dry-cow diet and BCS could only be expected
279 to affect passive transfer by affecting colostrum quality whereas in the present study, both the
280 quality of colostrum as assessed by refractometer and the time from calving to colostrum
281 administration were recorded and included in the final models when appropriate. Therefore it was
282 expected that both the quality of colostrum and the length of time until colostrum was administered
283 would have had a limited effect on this particular finding in the final model. Indeed, the average
284 refractometer reading for colostrum was higher in spring (27.2%) than in autumn (26.1%), whereas
285 poorer passive transfer was observed in the spring born calves. These findings would suggest that on
286 this particular farm there was an unidentified factor affecting apparent efficiency of absorption
287 resulting in increased passive transfer in autumn born calves as opposed to spring born calves. The
288 authors are unaware of similar studies investigating the seasonality associated with passive transfer
289 having accounted for quality of colostrum and time until administration. This finding warrants
290 further investigation.

291 This study utilised a range of non-gold standard methods for assessing passive transfer in calves,
292 each method has varying sensitivities and specificities when compared with the gold standard
293 method (Hogan and others 2015). In addition, GGT levels can vary significantly according to the age
294 of the calf with levels declining after 24 hours of age. The most significant decline occurs between 24

295 and 48 hours with the recommended cut-off dropping from 200 to 135 IU/L. A moderate decline is
296 expected between 2 and 7 days of age with the recommended cut-off reduced from 135 to 75 IU/L
297 (Parish and others 1997). In this study the age of the calf at sampling was not available, therefore
298 given that all calves were known to be less than 7 days of age, the cut-off point for a 4 day old calf,
299 i.e. 100IU/L was used.

300 Caution must be taken when extrapolating the results of studies conducted on a single herd to the
301 wider population of dairy herds, particularly those operating widely different management systems
302 to study herds. However, due to the level of data available on individual calves, many of the known
303 confounders for passive transfer could be accounted for in the statistical analysis. Similarly, assigning
304 colostrum treatments according to male and female calves facilitates possible confounding as a
305 result of the sex of the calf. Whilst the authors are unaware of biological reasons why apparent
306 efficiency of absorption may vary between sexes, management of heifer and bull calves often differs
307 on farms with the health of heifers often prioritised on dairy farms. However in the present study,
308 management issues known to affect passive transfer in neonatal calves such as volume, timing and
309 method of colostrum administration, were quantified and controlled for in the statistical analysis.

310 In conclusion, this study utilised detailed data on the perinatal management of calves born in a herd
311 endemically infected with paratuberculosis. The effect of management practices on calf passive
312 transfer were assessed. Increased time spent in the calving pen was consistently associated with a
313 detrimental effect on passive transfer. In addition, a strong seasonal effect was apparent which was
314 unrelated to colostrum quality and calf management.

315 **Acknowledgements**

316 This work was carried out as part of the ICONMAP multidisciplinary research programme funded by
317 the Irish Department of Agriculture, Food and the Marine. The authors also wish to thank the
318 herdowner, farm manager and farm workers of the study herd for their assistance and co-operation
319 over the course of the study.

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441 **TABLE 1:** Univariate linear regression of the effect of measured variables on Serum Total Protein

442 (STP), Zinc Sulphate Turbidity (ZST), globulin and loge transformed Gamma-glutamyltransferase

443 (lnGGT)

Variable		STP			ZST			Globulin			lnGGT		
		β	SE	<i>p</i>	β	SE	<i>p</i>	β	SE	<i>p</i>	β	SE	<i>p</i>
Season	Autumn	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Spring	-	1.32	<0.00	-	1.64	0.286	-	1.37	0.000	-	0.17	0.000
		5.37		1	1.75			6.20			0.87		
Calving Area	Individual	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	NonDes	-	1.39	0.632	-	1.65	0.400	-	1.45	0.482	-	0.18	0.354
		0.66			1.38			1.02			0.17		
Assisted Calving	No	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Yes	-	1.98	0.679	-	2.35	0.859	-	2.07	0.770	-	0.26	0.562
		0.82			0.42			0.61			0.15		
Time in calving pen (minutes)	Continuou	-	0.03	0.017	-	0.03	0.186	-	0.03	0.009	-	0.00	0.024
	s	0.07			0.05			0.08			0.01		
	0	2.68	2.06	0.193	1.44	2.47	0.560	2.98	2.15	0.166	0.29	0.27	0.273
	0-10	3.62	1.70	0.033	1.80	2.04	0.378	4.13	1.78	0.020	0.45	0.22	0.040
	10-60	4.88	2.26	0.030	4.34	2.71	0.109	5.32	2.36	0.024	0.66	0.29	0.025
	60+	REF			REF			REF			REF		
Colostrum Quality (%)		0.44	0.26	0.088	0.31	0.31	0.308	0.38	0.27	0.162	-	0.03	0.362
											0.03		
Time until colostrum admin	Continuou	-	0.01	0.253	0.01	0.01	0.382	-	0.01	0.199	0.00	0.00	1.000
	s	0.01						0.01					
	0-30	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	31-60	-	1.87	0.647	0.00	2.25	0.999	-	1.95	0.305	-	0.25	0.367
		0.86						2.00			0.22		

	61-120	- 2.05	1.75	0.242	- 2.07	2.10	0.324	- 2.78	1.83	0.128	- 0.40	0.23	0.084
	121+	- 4.09	1.80	0.023	- 0.42	2.16	0.847	- 4.84	1.88	0.010	- 0.32	0.24	0.171
Volume of Colostrum (litres)	<3.0	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	3	4.63	2.85	0.103	6.75	3.38	0.046	5.16	2.98	0.084	0.68	0.37	0.068
	3.5	7.12	2.72	0.009	9.77	3.22	0.002	7.62	2.85	0.007	0.87	0.36	0.015
	4+	5.19	2.77	0.061	7.07	3.28	0.031	6.39	2.90	0.027	0.82	0.36	0.024
Method	Teat	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Tube	- 2.66	1.90	0.162	- 3.19	2.26	0.157	- 3.11	1.99	0.118	- 0.24	0.25	0.331
Pasteurised	No	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Yes	1.60	1.35	0.235	- 0.14	1.61	0.930	2.04	1.41	0.147	0.18	0.18	0.293

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445 β =coefficient of variable, SE = Standard Error, REF = referent category, NonDes = non-designated

446 calving area

447 **TABLE 2:** Multivariate linear regression models of the effect of measured variables on Serum Total

448 Protein (STP), Zinc Sulphate Turbidity (ZST), globulin and loge transformed Gamma-

449 glutamyltransferase (lnGGT)

Variable		STP			ZST			Globulin			lnGGT		
		β	SE	p	β	SE	p	β	SE	p	β	SE	p
Season	Autumn	REF											
	Spring	-5.82	1.34	<0.001				-6.55	1.39	<0.001	-0.83	0.17	0.000
Time spent in calving pen (mins)	continuous	-0.05	0.03	0.046				-0.06	0.03	0.024	-0.01	0.003	0.020
Colostrum quality (%)		0.75	0.25	0.003				0.73	0.26	0.005			
	<3.0	REF			REF			REF					
	3	4.00	3.01	0.184	6.75	3.38	0.046	4.26	3.13	0.174	0.47	0.38	0.222

Volume of colostrum (litres)	3.5	6.43	2.92	0.028	9.77	3.22	0.002	6.47	3.04	0.033	0.66	0.37	0.073
	4+	4.19	3.00	0.161	7.07	3.28	0.031	4.92	3.12	0.114	0.52	0.37	0.166
Method	Teat	REF						REF					
	Tube	-3.43	1.96	0.080				-3.70	2.04	0.069			

450

451 β =coefficient of variable, SE = Standard Error, REF = referent category

452 **TABLE 3:** Univariate logistic regression of the effect of measured variables on failure of passive

453 transfer as determined by Serum Total Protein (STP), Zinc Sulphate Turbidity (ZST), globulin and

454 gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT)

Variable		STP			ZST			Globulin			GGT		
		β	SE	p	β	SE	p	β	SE	p	β	SE	p
Season	Autumn	REF			REF	SE		REF			REF		
	Spring	1.08	0.37	0.004	0.21	0.32	0.502	1.44	0.77	0.062	1.68	0.51	0.001
Calving area	Individual	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	NonDes	0.14	0.33	0.670	0.11	0.32	0.729	0.76	0.54	0.161	0.47	0.37	0.199
Assisted calving	No	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Yes	0.34	0.46	0.459	-	0.47	0.451	1.00	0.63	0.114	0.46	0.49	0.348
Time spent in calving pen (mins)	continuous	0.01	0.01	0.086	0.00	0.01	0.462	0.02	0.01	0.024	0.02	0.01	0.004
	0	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	0-10	-	0.45	0.868	0.41	0.43	0.337	1.12	1.09	0.304	-	0.51	0.884
		0.08									0.07		
	10-60	-	0.59	0.927	-	0.58	0.570	0.00	0.90	1.000	-	0.85	0.200
	0.05			0.33						1.09			
	60+	0.58	0.50	0.248	0.41	0.48	0.403	1.95	1.10	0.076	0.84	0.54	0.118
Colostrum quality (%)		-	0.06	0.747	-	0.06	0.072	-	0.10	0.586	0.06	0.07	0.394
		0.02			0.11			0.06					
Time until colostrum admin (mins)	continuous	0.00	0.00	0.968	0.00	0.00	0.699	0.00	0.00	0.757	0.00	0.00	0.183
	0-30	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	31-60	0.29	0.46	0.530	0.01	0.45	0.977	-	1.14	0.409	0.60	0.55	0.282
								0.94					

	61-120	0.28	0.43	0.516	0.54	0.41	0.186	0.53	0.70	0.451	0.59	0.52	0.261
	121+	0.32	0.44	0.468	0.34	0.42	0.421	0.64	0.71	0.365	1.19	0.51	0.018
VolCol	<3.0	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	3	- 0.11	0.67	0.869	- 2.06	0.84	0.014	0.63	1.13	0.575	- 0.32	0.67	0.634
	3.5	- 0.74	0.65	0.253	- 2.26	0.82	0.006	- 0.36	1.16	0.757	- 1.09	0.66	0.100
	4+	- 0.27	0.65	0.674	- 1.83	0.82	0.026	- 0.13	1.17	0.913	- 1.41	0.70	0.044
Method	Teat	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Tube	0.78	0.44	0.076	0.66	0.44	0.131	- 0.08	0.79	0.920	0.78	0.46	0.093
Pasteurised	No	REF			REF			REF			REF		
	Yes	0.21	0.33	0.521	0.50	0.31	0.115	0.41	0.57	0.477	- 0.29	0.36	0.428

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456 β =coefficient of variable, SE = Standard Error, REF = referent category, NonDes = non-designated

457 calving area

458 **TABLE 4:** Multivariate logistic regression of the effect of measured variables on failure of passive

459 transfer as determined by Serum Total Protein (STP), Zinc Sulphate Turbidity (ZST), globulin and

460 gamma-glutamyltransferase (GGT)

Variable		STP			ZST			Globulin			GGT		
		OR	95% C.I.	<i>p</i>	OR	95% C.I.	<i>p</i>	OR	95% C.I.	<i>p</i>	OR	95% C.I.	<i>p</i>
Season	Autum n	1.00			1.0			1.0			1.0		
	Spring	3.00	1.40, 6.41	0.005				4.23	0.90, 19.83	0.067	5.33	1.86, 15.22	0.002
Assisted Calving	No							1.00					
	Yes							4.08	0.99,	0.051			

									16.76				
Time spent in calving pen (mins)	Continuous	1.01	1.00, 1.03	0.049				1.03	1.00, 1.05	0.018	1.03	1.01, 1.04	0.002
Colostrum Quality (%)					0.86	0.76, 0.98	0.022						
Volume of colostrum (litres)	<3.0				1.00								
	3				0.10	0.02, 0.56	0.009						
	3.5				0.08	0.02, 0.44	0.003						
	4+				0.15	0.03, 0.81	0.027						
Method of colostrum admin	Teat	1.00									1.0		
	Tube	2.61	0.99, 6.91	0.053							3.2	1.08, 9.50	0.04
Pasteurised	No				1.00						1.0		
	Yes				2.22	1.09, 4.53	0.029				3.2	1.08, 9.50	0.04

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462 OR = odds ratio, 95% CI = 95% confidence intervals