

Respiratory disease in calves: Microbiological investigations on trans-tracheally aspirated bronchoalveolar fluid and acute phase protein response

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- 1 Respiratory disease in calves: Microbiological investigations
- 2 on trans-tracheally aspirated bronchoalveolar fluid and acute
- 3 phase protein response
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Abstract

Trans-tracheal aspirations from 56 apparently healthy calves and 34 calves with clinical signs of
pneumonia were collected in six different herds during September and November 2002. The 90
samples were cultivated and investigated by PCR tests targeting the species Histophilus somni,
Mannheimia haemolytica, Pasteurella multocida, Mycoplasma bovis, Mycoplasma dispar, and
Mycoplasma bovirhinis. A PCR test amplifying the lktC-artJ intergenic region was evaluated and
shown to be specific for the two species M. haemolytica and M. glucosida. All 90 aspirations were
also analyzed for bovine respiratory syncytial virus (BRSV), parainfluenza-3 virus, and bovine
corona virus by antigen ELISA. Surprisingly, 63% of the apparently healthy calves harbored
potentially pathogenic bacteria in the lower respiratory tract, 60% of these samples contained either
pure cultures or many pathogenic bacteria in mixed culture. Among diseased calves, all samples
showed growth of pathogenic bacteria in the lower respiratory tract. All of these were classified as
pure culture or many pathogenic bacteria in mixed culture. A higher percentage of the samples were
positive for all bacterial species in the group of diseased animals compared to the clinically healthy
animals, however this difference was only significant for M. dispar and M. bovirhinis. M. bovis was
not detected in any of the samples. BRSV was detected in diseased calves in two herds but not in
the clinically healthy animals. Among the diseased calves in these two herds a significant increase
in haptoglobin and serum amyloid A levels was observed compared to the healthy calves. The
results indicate, that haptoglobin might be the best choice for detecting disease under field
conditions. For <i>H. somni</i> and <i>M. haemolytica</i> , a higher percentage of the samples were found
positive by PCR than by cultivation, whereas the opposite result was found for <i>P. multocida</i> .
Detection of <i>P. multocida</i> by PCR or cultivation was found to be significantly associated with the
disease status of the calves. For <i>H. somni</i> a similar association with disease status was only
observed for cultivation and not for PCR.

1. Introduction

Respiratory disease in calves causes great economic losses for the dairy and beef
industry worldwide (Snowder et al., 2006). Blom (1982) reported that the annual calf mortality
between day 2 and 180 was 7% in Danish dairy herds. He reported that on average 4.5% of the
calves died due to respiratory disease. A mortality rate in the range 1.5-4.2% has also been reported
from other countries (Ames, 1997; Andrews, 2000).
In Denmark, bovine respiratory syncytial virus (BRSV) and coronavirus are the most
common viral agents found in relation to calf pneumonia (Larsen et al., 1999). Histophilus somni,
Pasteurella multocida, Mannheimia haemolytica, and Arcanobacterium pyogenes are the bacteria
most commonly isolated from calf pneumonia (Tegtmeier et al., 1999). Several Mycoplasma
species have been isolated in Denmark from bovine lungs. Friis and Krogh (1983) found <i>M. dispar</i> ,
M. bovirhinis, and Ureaplasma spp. to be the most prevalent of these, whereas M. bovis and M.
bovigenitalium were isolated infrequently.
The aim of the present investigation was to study the presence and interaction of
bacteria and virus in the lower respiratory tract in calves with and without clinical symptoms of
respiratory disease from six Danish herds. In addition, the serum concentrations of haptoglobin and
serum amyloid A (SAA) were determined to describe the correlation between presence of infectious
agents and acute phase protein response. In order to avoid contamination from bacteria resident in
the upper respiratory tract, the sampling was performed by trans-tracheal aspiration. This method
has been recommended as optimal for evaluation of the microbiological status of the lower
respiratory tract in order to elucidate the etiology of pneumonia in an animal (Espinasse et al., 1991;
Rebhun, 1995; Virtala et al., 1996; Pommier, 1999; Pommier and Wessel, 2002). Finally, an aim
was to evaluate whether PCR tests are suitable for obtaining a reliable and quick diagnosis of
pneumonia related to bacterial pathogens.

2. Materials and methods

70	2.1 Herds and samples
71	The investigation included six dairy herds, which in previous years had experienced problems with
72	calf pneumonia during the winter period. In September 2002, 56 trans-tracheally aspirated samples
73	were taken from clinically healthy animals in these herds (herds 1, 3, 4, and 6: 10 samples; herd 2: 9
74	samples; herd 5: 7 samples). In November, 34 samples from calves suffering from respiratory
75	distress were taken from 4 of the herds (herd 1: 10 samples; herd 3: 13 samples; herd 5: 6 samples;
76	herd 6: 5 samples). No animals were treated by antibiotics at the time of sampling. In two herds
77	(herds 2 and 4), respiratory disease was not observed and, consequently, no samples were taken. In
78	total, 90 trans-tracheal aspirations were obtained.
79	The first samples were taken during a warm and dry September from clinically
80	healthy calves (rectal temperatures below 39.5°C, no nasal discharge, no coughing, and an
81	unprovoked respiration frequency lower than 40 per min). All calves sampled in November showed
82	clinical symptoms of pneumonic disease. Clinical disease was defined as a rectal temperature above
83	39.5°C in connection with nasal discharge, coughing, or an unprovoked respiration frequency
84	higher than 40 per min. The age of the calves ranged from 14 days to 4 months. The average age of
85	the clinically healthy calves sampled in September was 2.1 months (SD=1.1) and for the pneumonic
86	calves sampled in November 2.8 months (SD=0.9). Only four of the calves were sampled on both
87	occasions (one calf in each of herd 3 and 5, and two calves in herd 6).
88	Blood samples were taken from all clinically healthy calves in connection with the
89	first visit in September. In addition, paired blood samples (3 weeks interval) were taken in
90	November-December after onset of clinical disease in the 4 herds where pneumonia was observed.
91	An area of 3x3 cm located 7 to 10 cm distal to the larynx was shaved and
92	decontaminated with 70% alcohol and iodophors. The calves were sedated by intramuscular

injection of 0.1-0.2 mg/kg xylasine. After injection of local analgesic (0.5 ml 2% lidocain), a
longitudinal incision of 1 cm was made in the midline directly above the trachea. Perforation of
trachea was done with an Intraflon® 12G between 2 cartilage rings. A male dog urinary catheter was
inserted into the Intraflon® and pushed down into the airway until a slight resistance was felt.
Between 20 and 40 ml sterile 0.9% NaCl were injected through the catheter and followed by
immediate aspiration. This resulted normally in $5-7$ ml aspirated fluid.
One ml aspirated fluid was centrifuged for 3 min at 16.000 g. The supernatant was
removed and a loopful (approx. 10µl) of the sedimented material was used for bacterial cultivation.
The growth of the different bacterial species was recorded on a semi-quantitative scale (pure
culture, many bacteria in mixed culture, mixed culture, few bacteria in mixed culture, no growth).
Bacterial identification was done according to the standard procedures of the laboratory (Tegtmeier
et al., 1999). For M. haemolytica, the identification was based on the methods given by Angen et al.
(2002). The identification of <i>H. somni</i> was performed by PCR as described by Angen et al. (1998).
Cultivation and identification of Mycoplasma spp. were performed according to the procedures
described by Friis and Krogh (1983). The samples had been stored at -20 °C for 2 years before
cultivation for mycoplasmas was initiated.
The collection of samples in the herds was performed in connection with herd
diagnosis by a trained veterinary surgeon according to the Law for veterinarians in Denmark and is
thereby accepted by the Danish Animal Experiments Inspectorate.
2.2 PCR detection
DNA was extracted by addition of 200 μl PrepMan TM Ultra (Applied Biosystems) to the sedimented
trans-tracheal sample according to the manufacturer's recommendations. The DNA preparation was
stored at -20°C until used for PCR analysis. Species specific detection using previously published

117	methods was performed for <i>H. somni</i> (Angen et al., 1998), <i>P. multocida</i> (Miflin and Blackall,
118	2001), M. dispar and M. bovirhinis (Miles et al., 2004), and M. bovis (Subramaniam et al., 1998)
119	using 2 µl of the extracted DNA per reaction.
120	For M. haemolytica, the lktA-artJ intergenic region was used for PCR
121	amplification. From pure cultures, one bacterial colony was resuspended in 100 μl distilled water
122	and lysed by boiling for 10 min. One μl sample from lysed bacteria or 2 μl of DNA extracted by
123	PrepMan TM Ultra was added to respectively 49 μl and 48 μl prepared reaction mixture containing
124	$10~\text{mM}$ Tris/HCl pH 8.3, 50mM KCl, 2.5mM MgCl $_2$, $100~\mu\text{M}$ of each dNTP, $65~\text{pmol}$ of each
125	primer (forward primer: GTCCCTGTGTTTTCATTATAAG; reverse primer:
126	CACTCGATAATTATTCTAAATTAG), and 0.5 U of Taq polymerase (Applied Biosystems,
127	Foster City, CA, USA). The reaction mixture was covered with 50 µl of paraffin oil. Samples were
128	subjected to an initial denaturation step at 94 °C for 3 min followed by 35 cycles of denaturation at
129	94 °C for 1 min, annealing at 58 °C for 1 min, and extension at 72 °C for 1 min in a thermal cycler.
130	Samples of PCR amplification products (10 µl) were subjected to electrophoresis in a 1.2% agarose
131	gel in Tris/borate buffer according to standard protocols. DNA was visualized by UV fluorescence
132	after staining with ethidium bromide. The PCR test was expected to give a specific amplicon of 385
133	bp. For evaluation of the species specificity of this test, see supplementary material.
134	
135	2.3 Detection of viral antigens and antibodies to BRSV
136	The transtracheal aspirations were investigated for the presence of antigens from bovine respiratory
137	syncytial virus (BRSV), parainfluenza-3 virus (PI-3) and corona virus using the ELISA tests
138	described by Uttenthal et al. (1996). Blood samples from diseased calves were tested for IgG ₁
139	antibodies against BRSV according to Uttenthal et al. (2000).

140	
141	2.4 Measurement of acute phase proteins
142	Serum haptoglobin and serum amyloid A (SAA) were determined as earlier described (Heegaard et
143	al., 2000). For these analyses, only the sera from diseased calves in herds 1, 3, and 5 were available
144	in addition to the sera from clinically healthy calves in all herds.
145	
146	2.5 Statistical methods
147	Differences in frequencies were evaluated using least-squares test statistics and the relationship
148	between disease status and test results by a logistic regression model evaluated with the chi-square
149	test using the statistical software package S-Plus 6.1 for Windows (Profession Release 1;
150	Insightful). Data from the acute phase protein measurements were analyzed using a two-sided t-test.
151	The similarity of the different populations was tested using the Mann-Whitney non-parametric test
152	as some of the sample sets proved to be not normally distributed.
153	
154	3. Results
155	3.1 Clinically healthy animals
156	Among the 56 clinically healthy calves, potentially pathogenic bacteria were detected either by
157	cultivation or PCR from 68% of the animals (Table 1), this number varied from 29% to 90%
158	between the herds (Table 2). Bacteria were cultivated from 33 samples (59%). From 18 of the
159	calves (32%), H. somni, P. multocida, M. haemolytica, or A. pyogenes were isolated in high
160	numbers in pure culture or as the dominating flora in a mixed culture. From three of the calves only
161	few P. multocida in pure culture was cultivated. M. dispar and M. bovirhinis were detected by PCR
162	from 21% and 14% of the samples, respectively. M. bovis was not detected. Forty-one percent of
163	the samples tested positive in one or more of the PCR tests applied. By cultivation or PCR, P.

164	multocida was detected in 48%, H. somni in 20%, and M. haemolytica in 23% of the calves. A.
165	pyogenes was isolated from 3 of the calves and Moraxella sp. from one calf. From 23 samples
166	(41%) two or more bacterial species were detected. Only one of the samples contained virus
167	antigens (corona virus).
168	
169	3.2 Diseased animals
170	Among the 34 diseased animals, potentially pathogenic bacteria were isolated in high numbers in
171	pure culture or as the dominant flora in a mixed culture from all animals (Table 1). P. multocida, H.
172	somni, and M. haemolytica were cultivated or detected by PCR in 82%, 41%, and 29% of the
173	calves, respectively. A. pyogenes was isolated from 2 of the calves and Moraxella sp. from one calf.
174	M. dispar and M. bovirhinis were both detected from 79% of the calves. M. bovis was not detected.
175	From 33 of the samples (97%) two or more bacterial species were detected. A higher percentage of
176	the samples were positive for all bacterial species investigated in the group of diseased animals
177	compared to the clinically healthy animals, however this difference was statistical significant only
178	for <i>M. dispar</i> and <i>M. bovirhinis</i> (p<0.01 for both).
179	
180	3.3 Herd prevalences
181	Some differences between the herds in the prevalence of the different microorganisms were
182	observed (Table 2). P. multocida, M. haemolytica, M. dispar and M. bovirhinis were found in all 6
183	herds. <i>H. somni</i> was found in all herds except for herd 3. Coronavirus antigen was only detected in
184	herds 1 and 5. BRSV antigens were detected in 60% and 100% of the calves from herds 1 and 3,
185	respectively (Table 2). In herds 5 and 6, no BRSV antigens were detected. The test of paired sera
186	from these two herds showed that seroconversion to BRSV had not taken place. M. bovis and PI-3
187	were not detected in any of the herds.

188	
189	3.4 PCR and cultivation
190	For <i>H. somni</i> and <i>M. haemolytica</i> , a significantly higher number of samples were found positive by
191	the PCR tests than by cultivation (p=0.04 and p=0.01, respectively). For <i>P. multocida</i> , a higher
192	number of samples were found positive by cultivation than by PCR but the difference was not
193	statistically significant (p=0.10).
194	There was a significant correlation between detection of <i>H. somni</i> by cultivation and
195	pneumonia (p<0.01) but no significant correlation between presence of pneumonia and detection of
196	H. somni by PCR (p=0.05). For P. multocida a significant correlation (p<0.01) was found between
197	disease status and both cultivation and PCR, whereas there were no significant correlations
198	observed for detection of <i>M. haemolytica</i> and disease status.
199	Cultivation for mycoplasma was performed on 10 samples representing each sampling
200	event per herd. M. dispar was isolated from five of these samples and M. bovirhinis from two
201	samples.
202	
203	3.5 Acute phase proteins
204	Comparing the three diseased versus healthy calf populations within each of the herds 1, 3 and 5,
205	statistically significant differences were found for haptoglobin as well as SAA concentrations for all
206	herds with the clear exception of SAA in herd 5 where no difference was found (Fig. 1).
207	Haptoglobin concentrations also showed a less significant increase in herd 5 compared to herds 1
208	and 3. This increase was, however, significant for all 3 herds. The SAA concentrations of the
209	healthy populations were generally closer to the values of the diseased calves than what was found
210	for haptoglobin. Thus, for SAA both herd 3 and 5 diseased populations were not significantly
211	different from the healthy population taken as a whole.

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In the present investigation, 68% of the clinically healthy calves were found to harbor potentially pathogenic bacteria in the lower respiratory tract. Only a limited number of reports have been published on the normal flora of the lower respiratory tract. Viso et al. (1982) sampled 23 healthy animals and found bacteria in 52% of the calves and 83% of these bacteria were identified as "Pasteurella sp.". Espinasse et al. (1991) performed trans-tracheal aspiration on 49 healthy calves. P. multocida and M. haemolytica were each found in 8 of these calves. Virtala et al. (1996) also performed trans-tracheal aspiration on 47 healthy calves and found 55% of these to harbor pathogenic bacteria, finding Mycoplasma spp. and P. multocida in 47% and 17% of the samples, respectively. Autio et al. (2007) investigated a group of 144 healthy calves by tracheobronchial lavage using a double catheter and found pathogenic bacteria (excluding mycoplasmas), Mycoplasma spp., and pathogenic bacteria including mycoplasmas in 27%, 75%, and 83% of the samples, respectively. However, none of these investigations reported the quantity of bacteria isolated in the healthy animals. In the present investigation, a striking observation was that 32% of the healthy calves harbored bacteria in the lower respiratory tract in high numbers without showing clinical disease.

These observations underline the multi-factorial nature of calf pneumonia and supports earlier reports that bacteria seldom act as primary pathogens in relation to calf pneumonia (Tegtmeier et al., 1999, 2000a). Both Baudet et al. (1994) and Babiuk et al. (1988) concluded that virus-infections precede 90% of all bacterial pneumonias.

Samples from clinically diseased animals were only obtained from four of the six herds. Among the calves in herds 1 and 3, BRSV antigens could be detected in 83% of the diseased calves. In these herds, a viral infection is probably the primary cause for development of clinical

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disease. These observations are in accordance with previous results, showing that BRSV plays an
important role for development of calf pneumonia in Denmark (Larsen et al., 1999; Uttenthal et al.,
2000). On the other hand, no BRSV-antigens could be detected in herds 5 and 6 and the test of
paired sera from these two herds showed that seroconversion to BRSV had not taken place.
Consequently, the etiology of pneumonic disease in these two herds was probably dependent on the
presence of bacteria alone. However, as a number of different bacterial species were isolated from
these herds and no autopsies were performed, firm conclusions about the etiology of the observed
pneumonia cannot be drawn.

A general conclusion from the present study is that haptoglobin is the more sensitive indicator of disease in the herds investigated, while neither haptoglobin nor SAA levels were affected by the potentially harmful agents in the lower respiratory tract if animals were healthy. SAA concentrations of the healthy calves were much closer to those of the diseased populations than what was found for haptoglobin. Of the three herds in which healthy and diseased populations were compared to each other, BRSV could be demonstrated in the diseased subpopulations of herds 1 and 3 but not in the diseased population of herd 5. SAA concentrations in herd 5 did not differ between the diseased and the normal subpopulation. This might indicate that SAA needs virus to be present in order to respond while haptoglobin is fully induced by bacterial infection alone. It has previously been shown that SAA seems to be a more sensitive marker for viral infections (Heegaard et al. 2000) and acute inflammation (Alsemgeest et al., 1994; Horadagoda et al., 1999) compared to haptoglobin. In experimental bacterial infections (intratracheal inoculation of Mannheimia haemolytica), SAA was found to be more rapidly induced than haptoglobin (Horadagoda et al., 1994). The results presented here show that even if SAA is more sensitive and rapidly reacting, haptoglobin might be preferable in the field, its bigger and more prolonged response giving rise to its higher sensitivity in detecting disease.

In the present investigation, a higher percentage of the samples were found positive
for P. multocida, M. dispar, M. bovirhinis and H. somni in the group of diseased animals compared
to the clinically healthy animals (Table 1), this increase was however not statistically significant. In
herds 3, 5, and 6, P. multocida was found in all diseased animals, indicating a possible role for this
organism in the development of pneumonia. Autrio et al. (2007) also reported an association
between <i>P. multocida</i> and clinical respiratory disease among calves in Finland, provided <i>P.</i>
multocida was found together with other bacterial pathogens. This supports the common opinion
that <i>P. multocida</i> should be regarded as an opportunistic pathogen (Maheswaran et al., 2002). On
the other hand, Nikunen et al. (2007) in another Finnish study found strong indications for <i>P</i> .
multocida having a pathogenic role, provided other known pathogens were absent.
Virtala et al. (1996) found a significant association between clinical disease and increased isolation
rate of <i>P. multocida</i> and <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp., alone or in combination.
In the present investigation we found a significantly higher detection rate of <i>M. dispar</i>
and M. bovirhinis among clinically diseased calves although a high proportion of the healthy calves
also harbored these organisms. On the other hand, in two Finnish studies, no association between
clinical disease and the presence of <i>Mycoplasma</i> spp. was observed (Autio et al., 2007; Nikunen et
al., 2007).
M. bovis is in many countries regarded as one of the major causes of respiratory
M. bovis is in many countries regarded as one of the major causes of respiratorydisease in cattle with reports of increasing prevalence (Nicolas and Ayling, 2003). M. bovis was not
disease in cattle with reports of increasing prevalence (Nicolas and Ayling, 2003). <i>M. bovis</i> was not
disease in cattle with reports of increasing prevalence (Nicolas and Ayling, 2003). <i>M. bovis</i> was not found in any of the 6 herds in the present investigation. Earlier studies in Denmark have only found
disease in cattle with reports of increasing prevalence (Nicolas and Ayling, 2003). <i>M. bovis</i> was not found in any of the 6 herds in the present investigation. Earlier studies in Denmark have only found a low prevalence of this organism (Friis and Krogh, 1983; Feenstra et al., 1991), so apparently <i>M</i> .

successful from seven of these samples. The cultivation nevertheless confirmed the presence of *M*. *dispar* and *M*. *bovirhinis* in these samples as found by PCR.

For *H. somni* and *M. haemolytica*, a significantly higher number of samples were found positive by the PCR tests than by cultivation. For *P. multocida*, a higher number of samples were found positive by cultivation than by PCR, but the difference was not statistically significant. The lower sensitivity of the *P. multocida* PCR compared to cultivation may be due to the large size of the amplicon produced by this method (1250 bp) compared to the *H. somni* and *M. haemolytica* PCRs (both approximately 400 bp). Detection of *P. multocida* by both cultivation and PCR was significantly associated with the disease status of the animal, whereas no such association was observed for M. haemolytica. A previous study on H. somni demonstrated a higher sensitivity of a species-specific PCR test (Tegtmeier et al., 2000b) compared to bacterial cultivation. However, the present investigation indicates that PCR nevertheless is less suited for prediction of H. somnirelated pneumonia compared to bacterial cultivation. These observations might be related to the fact that the use of a highly sensitive method such as PCR will also detect the presence of a very low number of bacteria that not necessarily have any correlation with disease. On the other hand, a higher diagnostic value of a PCR test could be obtained if real-time PCR tests were developed, whereby the infectious agents can be quantified and give a result which might better reflect the clinical status of the animal.

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307	Figure legend
308	Concentrations of haptoglobin (top) and SAA (bottom) in the different populations of animals
309	sampled at the different farms as indicated. Mean values and SD are given for each population
310	sampled. Significance of differences between healthy and diseased populations within the same
311	herd is indicated by stars as explained in the figure.

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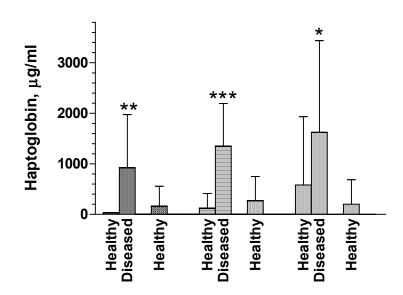
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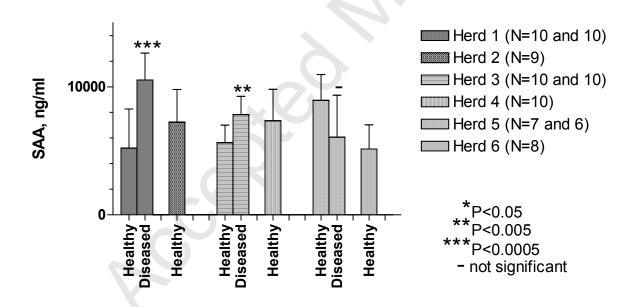


Table 1. Bacteriological investigation of trans-tracheally aspirated bronchoalveolar fluid from clinically normal calves (n=56) and calves with pneumonia (n=34) from 6 Danish herds.

	Clinic	ally normal c (% positive)	alves	Diseased calves (% positive)			
	Cultivation or PCR	Cultivation	PCR	Cultivation or PCR	Cultivation	PCR	
Pasteurella multocida	48	43	32	82	82	74	
Histophilus somni	20	4	20	41	29	38	
Mannheimia haemolytica	23	16	23	29	6	29	
Arcanobacterium pyogenes	5	5	ND	6	6	ND	
Moraxella sp.	2	2	ND	3	3	ND	
Mycoplasma dispar	ND	ND	21	ND	ND	79	
Mycoplasma bovirhinis	ND	ND	14	ND	ND	79	
Mycoplasma bovis	ND	ND	0	ND	ND	0	
Total number of positive samples	68	59	41	100	100	97	

ND: not done

Table 2. Herd prevalences (%) of pathogenic microorganisms found in trans-tracheally aspirated bronchoalveolar fluid from clinically normal calves (N) and calves with pneumonia (P) from 6 Danish herds.

Microorganism present	Herd 1		Herd 2 ^a	Herd 3		Herd 4 ^a	Herd 5		Herd 6	
	N	P	N	N	P	N	N	P	N	P
	n=10	n=10	n=9	n=10	n=13	n=10	n=7	n=6	n=10	n=5
Pasteurella multocida	60	40	44	50	100	50	29	100	50	100
Histophilus somni	30	90	11	0	0	30	0	50	40	40
Mannheimia haemolytica	10	30	11	20	31	20	14	17	60	40
Arcanobacterium pyogenes	0	10	22	0	0	0	0	17	10	0
Moraxella sp.	0	0	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0
Mycoplasma dispar	0	50	44	0	92	20	14	83	50	20
Mycoplasma bovirhinis	0	70	11	10	85	10	29	67	30	80
Mycoplasma bovis	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
No bacteria detected	30	0	22	50	0	20	71	0	10	0
BRSV antigen	0	60	0	0	100	0	0	$0_{\rm p}$	0	0 _p
PI-3 antigen	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Coronavirus antigen	0	40	0	0	0	0	14	0	0	0

^a: Pneumonic disease not observed during study period. ^b: No seroconversion to BRSV detected in herds 5 and 6.