

Diagnosis of bovine dictyocaulosis by bronchoalveolar lavage technique: A comparative study using a Bayesian approach

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19 Abstract

20 Bovine dictyocaulosis is a pulmonary parasitic disease present in temperate countries, with potential 21 important clinical and economic impacts. The Baermann technique is routinely used despite its low 22 sensitivity in adult cows. Recently developed serological tests seem to offer better sensitivity, but 23 validations of these tests in field conditions are few. We aimed to study two non-previously 24 evaluated diagnosis methods of dictyocaulosis based on bronchoalveolar lavage sampling (BAL), 25 which allows finding lungworm stages in the lungs as well as determination of eosinophilia. We 26 compared them to the Baermann technique and serological tests. As no gold standard was available, 27 we performed a Bayesian analysis by the simultaneous use of latent class and mixture models. The 28 study was carried out during the 2015 pasture season on 60 adult cows originating from 11 herds 29 with clinical signs of dictyocaulosis, and 10 apparently healthy cows originating from the teaching 30 herd of VetAgro Sup, in France. Prevalence of infection was highly variable among herds with clinical 31 signs (10-90%). Despite a maximal specificity (100%), the sensitivity of parasitological methods was 32 low (7.4% for the Baermann sedimentation and 24.7% for the examination of BAL fluids). Better 33 results were observed with serology (Se = 74.9%, Sp = 85.5%) with an optimal cut-off value estimated 34 at 0.397 for the optical density ratio. Even better results were obtained with the count of eosinophil in BAL (Se = 89.4%, Sp = 85.2%) with an optimal cut-off value estimated at 4.77% for the eosinophil 35 proportion. The BAL is a relevant diagnostic method of dictyocaulosis for practitioners due to the 36 37 opportunity to perform two analyses (direct parasitic research and the eosinophil count) and to its 38 good sensitivity and specificity.

39 Highlights:

40 - Parasitological methods for dictyocaulosis in field lack sensitivity

41 - Bronchoalveolar lavage allows diagnosis of dictyocaulosis by direct observation of the parasite and

42 indirect through eosinophil proportion in fluids

- 43 Bronchoalveolar cytology has a better sensitivity than the serology to diagnose dictyocaulosis at the
- 44 individual level and allows the detection of pre-patent infection

- Keywords: Baermann, bronchoalveolar cytology, *Dictyocaulus*, ELISA, latent class model, mixture
 model
- 48
- 49

50 Introduction

51 Parasitic bronchitis caused by Dictyocaulus viviparus is a clinically and economically important parasitic disease in temperate countries. In Europe, recent studies in dairy cattle revealed the 52 53 circulation of this parasite in at least 17.1 to 64.5% herds (Schunn et al., 2013; Bloemhoff et al., 2015) 54 with an individual prevalence ranging from 6.0 to 13.75% in infected herds (Borgsteede et al., 2000; 55 Chartier et al., 2013). The disease occurs during the pasture season and main clinical signs are 56 coughing, nasal discharge and severe dyspnoea resulting in increased mortality in the herd and 57 important economic losses for the farmer (Holzhauer et al., 2011). Dictyocaulus viviparus has a direct life cycle with cows being infected by swallowing third-stage larvae (L3) present on contaminated 58 59 pastures. Historically, first grazing season animals were clinically the most affected by this parasite. 60 However, since the 1990's, the epidemiology of dictyocaulosis changed in dairy herds with an 61 increasing occurrence of outbreaks in older animals, mainly explained by weak contact with the parasite during previous years of life (Ploeger, 2002; van Dijk, 2004). 62

63 The routine diagnostic method used in veterinary clinics and diagnostic laboratories is the Baermann 64 method, based on the isolation and morphological identification of larvae in the faeces (Baermann, 65 1917). This method has a high sensitivity (100%) for primary infection in young animals (Eysker, 66 1997), but it seems to be lower for older animals (Eysker, 1997; Ploeger et al., 2012). Different 67 hypotheses have been proposed to explain this change of sensitivity with age, such as the higher 68 dilution of larvae in the faeces of adults and the previously acquired immune response, limiting the 69 development of D. viviparus to the adult stage and the egg-laying in the lungs (Eysker, 1997; Ploeger 70 et al., 2012). The low sensitivity of this method to diagnose dictyocaulosis in clinically affected adult 71 dairy cattle reveals the need to develop more sensitive tools for practitioners.

Since 1993, two serological tests have been developed, both based on the detection of specific antibodies against adult lungworms by ELISA. In a first approach, a low molecular-weight fraction enriched for a 17 kDa protein, close to the major sperm protein (MSP), was extracted from adult

75 lungworms and used as antigen (de Leeuw and Cornelissen, 1993). Later, an ELISA based on 76 recombinant expressed MSP was developed (Von Holtum et al., 2008). These tests were promising 77 due to their high sensitivity and specificity (>99%) during patent infections as determined from 78 experimental infections. However, recent studies under field conditions, using the Baermann 79 technique as a gold standard, demonstrated lower sensitivity and specificity of the method 80 developed by Von Holtum et al. (2008) with seasonal variations (Se=58.7% and Sp=94.9% in spring and Se=80% and Sp=83.7% in autumn; Ploeger et al., 2012, 2014). Considering the observed 81 82 differences in the diagnostic abilities of these methods between experimental and field conditions 83 and the potential biases associated with the use of the weakly sensitive Baermann test as a gold 84 standard, further evaluations under field conditions are necessary.

85 Due to the pulmonary location of most developmental stages of D. viviparus, bronchoalveolar lavage 86 (BAL) could be a promising method for the diagnosis of dictyocaulosis. The analysis of collected BAL fluids (BALF) may allow both direct and indirect diagnosis of dictyocaulosis: the observation of 87 88 macroscopical lungworm stages (Hagberg et al., 2005; Holmgren et al., 2014) and the measurement 89 of BAL's eosinophil proportion (EP). The latter measure points out the local immune response 90 developed by the host when the parasite arrives into its lung (Schnieder and Daugschies, 1993; Hagberg et al., 2005; Holmgren et al., 2014). To our knowledge, BAL has only been used to 91 92 characterize the immune pulmonary response of cattle to D. viviparus (Schnieder and Daugschies, 93 1993; Hagberg et al., 2005; Holmgren et al., 2014), but tests on its suitability to diagnose parasitic 94 bronchitis are lacking yet. On healthy calves, eosinophil proportion represents less than 1% of the 95 total pulmonary white cells (Trigo et al., 1984; Taylor et al., 1989; Hagberg et al., 2005), while it 96 increases to 20-50% during primary infection and up to 70-80% during secondary infection 97 (Schnieder and Daugschies, 1993; Hagberg et al., 2005; Holmgren et al., 2014). This eosinophilia 98 appears as of 2 weeks after infection and remains for at least 12 weeks without re-infection 99 (Schnieder and Daugschies, 1993; Hagberg et al., 2005; Holmgren et al., 2014). To our knowledge, 100 there is no other disease which leads to pulmonary eosinophilia in cattle except when an acute

hypersensitivity reaction occurs, e.g. after fungal infections with *Micropolyspora faeni* (Wilkie, 1978;
Gershwin *et al.*, 1990). Nevertheless, the epidemiology of these infections differs from dictyocaulosis
as they are observed mostly in animals housed during wintertime.

104 None of the potential diagnostic methods could be considered as a gold standard as the true status 105 of each animal remains uncertain, except when the parasite is detected by the Baermann method 106 and/or in the BALF. In this context, we could use a latent class model to estimate the sensitivity and 107 the specificity of each test by maximum likelihood (MLE) (Hui and Walter, 1980) or within a Bayesian 108 framework (Enøe et al., 2000; Chaka et al., 2015; White et al., 2016). Serology and pulmonary 109 eosinophilia supply quantitative results for which cut-off values need to be estimated during natural 110 infection (previously estimated only for serology after experimental infections; Von Holtum et al., 111 2008). Estimating such cut-off values could be done using mixture models, as it has been widely 112 suggested for serological diagnosis either by MLE (Greiner et al., 1995; Gay, 1996) or within a 113 Bayesian framework (Nielsen et al., 2007; Opsteegh et al., 2010; Peel et al., 2013).

114 The present study aims to compare the four diagnostic methods (Baermann technique, serology, 115 detection of the parasite and eosinophil proportion in the BALF) for detecting infected adult cows (clinical and subclinical dictyocaulosis) in herds with clinical signs of parasitic bronchitis. Bayesian 116 117 approach is proposed to estimate the prevalence of infection in each herd, the cut-off values for the 118 two quantitative methods (serology and pulmonary eosinophilia) and the characteristics of the four methods (sensitivity and specificity). This approach is based on a model simultaneously describing 119 120 the results obtained with the four diagnostic methods using both latent class and mixture model 121 principles.

122 Materials and Methods

123 Study design and animals

The study is a prospective field study performed in France during the 2015 pasture season. We 124 125 collaborated with treating veterinarians from five veterinary clinics near Lyon (France) to report 126 pasturing dairy herds with an enzootic coughing (at least 30% of coughing cows) and supporting 127 presumption of dictyocaulosis. Eleven herds were reported and identified by a number from 1 to 11. 128 Once we trapped all the cows from the herd at the feeding fence, five or six individuals were 129 randomly sampled in each herd to get a representative sample of the herd (including clinically healthy and primiparous cows). We sampled a maximum of six individuals per herd to ensure of the 130 131 farmer approval. Ten additional cows from the teaching herd of VetAgro Sup, without clinical sign, were included in the study (the 12th herd). This last herd was included to have a sufficient diversity of 132 herd prevalences in order to insure the model convergence. Even if this herd does not fit the 133 134 inclusion criteria (herds with enzootic couching), we assume that individual characteristics of the diagnostic methods for cows originated from this herd are similar to those of non-clinical and non-135

infected cows originated from the other herds. We collected blood samples, faeces and
bronchoalveolar lavage fluids (BALF) on each sampled cow. The experimental protocol was approved
by the ethical comity of VetAgro Sup (n° 1539-2015).

139 Bronchoalveolar lavage technique

BAL was performed on non-sedated animals. After cleaning the nostril (chlorhexidine solution diluted at 2%), a naso-tracheal tube (Cook®) was passed to the lungs. Two 60 ml aliquots of 0.9% sterile NaCl solution were introduced by the catheter and 30 to 40 mL of fluid was re-aspirated immediately. The collected fluid was then split into two 4 ml EDTA tubes for cytological analysis and the remaining fluid was placed in a sterile container for parasitological examination. Samples were stored 24-48 h at 4°C before laboratory analyses. 146 Cytology

We pipetted 200 μl of homogenized BALF from one of the EDTA tubes to prepare one
cytocentrifugated smear (10 min, 106g) which was automatically stained (Aerospray 7150, Wescor[®]).
We then assessed the eosinophil proportion (EP) by performing a differential count on at least 400
leucocytes on each cytospin.

151 Parasitological tests

152 Two parasitological tests were performed, (1) the Baermann sedimentation technique on faecal 153 samples (BS test) and (2) the visual examination of the BALF for last stages of *D. viviparus* (BAL test). 154 Faeces were sampled directly from the rectum of each selected cow and stored at 4°C. Within 12h 155 after collection, we placed 50g of faeces in a sieve (1 mm mesh size) with a standard gauze compress 156 at the surface of the water on a funnel. After 24 h, we collected and centrifuged (5 min, 700g) the 157 first 12 ml of water at the bottom of the funnel, and performed microscopic examination (x25-40 158 magnification) of the sediments. As it allows the isolation of *D. viviparus* larvae, the BS test could only 159 diagnose patent infection with adult breeding parasites in the lungs. The two aliquots of BALF were 160 directly examined macroscopically for the presence of lungworm stages. As this method could 161 potentially detect any pulmonary stages of the parasite, we assume that it could diagnose both 162 patent and pre-patent infection. Given that the identification of the larvae or adults of Dictyocaulus 163 viviparus is reliably feasible (Eysker, 1997), and as regard to the definition of the infection status (i.e. 164 non infected, infected by D.viviparus and infected by breeding D.viviparus), we assumed the 165 specificity of the two parasitological tests to be equal to one.

166 MSP Elisa

The ELISA analysis was performed at the Institute for Parasitology of the University of Veterinary
Medicine Hannover (Germany) according to the protocol previously described by von Holtum et al.
(2008). All sera were kept at -80°C until analysis. This ELISA developed by von Holtum et al. (2008)

uses the major sperm protein from adult male lungworms as recombinantly expressed antigen. Thus,

171 it could only diagnose patent infection. Results were expressed as optical density ratios (ODRs).

172 Statistical analysis

We built a global model to describe all the available data for each animal of the twelve herds. The unknown infection status of the j^{th} animal sampled in the i^{th} herd, denoted $Sinf_{ij}$ is equal to 1 for infected and 0 for non-infected cows. It is supposed to have a Bernoulli distribution, with a Bernoulli parameter $Pinf_i$ being the prevalence in the herd. This prevalence is unknown but supposed to be dependent of the herd.

178
$$Sinf_{ij}: Bern(Pinf_i)$$

Given that the BS and the serology only diagnose patent infection, we also defined the unknown patent status of the j^{th} animal sampled in the i^{th} herd, denoted $Spatent_{ij}$. It is equal to 1 for patent cows and 0 for pre-patent and non-infected cows. It is supposed to have a Bernoulli distribution among infected animals, with a Bernoulli parameter *Ppatent* being the overall proportion of patent animals among infected animals that can be defined as a function of the infection status:

184
If
$$Sinf = 0$$
, $Spatent_{ij} = 0$
If $Sinf = 1$, $Spatent_{ij}$: $Bern(Ppatent)$

Given that the identification of the larvae or adult of *Dictyocaulus viviparus* is reliably feasible, and as regard to the definition of this infection status (*i.e.* presence or absence of infection), the specificity of the two parasitological tests is assumed to be equal to one, and their respective sensitivities are denoted Se^{BS} and Se^{BAL} . Note that the model also includes $Seth^{BS}$ the theoretical sensitivity based on the diagnosis of patent infected animals and not all infected animals simply linked to the true sensitivity (Se^{BS}) by $Se^{BS} = Seth^{BS} \times Ppatent$. The results of those tests on each animal, denoted BS_{ij} and BAL_{ij} (1 if the test is positive, 0 in the other case), can simply be expressed as a stochastic function of sensitivities of the test and of the patent or infection status:

193
$$BS_{ij}: Bern(Seth^{BS} \times Spatent_{ij}) \text{ and } BAL_{ij}: Bern(Se^{BAL} \times Sinf_{ij})$$

194 Concerning the result of the MSP-ELISA, expressed as ODR and denoted ODR_{ij} , conditioned on the 195 latent patent status $Spatent_{ij}$, the model assumes that the decimal logarithm of the ODR follows a 196 normal distribution, where the mean μ_{ij} and standard deviation σ_{ij} are controlled only by the 197 patent status:

198
$$\log 10 (ODR_{ij}): N(\mu_{ij}, \sigma_{ij})$$

The mean of the normal distribution for patent animals was supposed to be greater than that of nonpatent animals ($\mu_{non-patent}$), and parameterized by θ , the positive difference between these two means ($\mu_{patent} = \mu_{non-patent} + \theta$). This parameterization was chosen to prevent the classical unidentifiability of any mixture model (is group 1 the patent or the non-patent group?). Standard deviations for patent (σ_{patent}) and non-patent ($\sigma_{non-patent}$) groups were not supposed equal.

The results of the eosinophil count were also modelled in close way by a Gaussian mixture with two 204 205 components representing infected and non-infected animals, characterized as for the previous mixture by parameters $\mu'_{non-inf}$, θ' , σ'_{inf} and $\sigma'_{non-inf}$. This mixture Gaussian distribution was used 206 207 to describe the logit distribution of the eosinophil proportion (EP_{ii}) in the pulmonary leucocytes. This former variable is not directly measured but estimated on each animal from the count of EC_n 208 eosinophils among a total count of TC_{ij} leucocytes (the total count is indexed by i and \dot{J} and 209 considered as a covariate in the model as it was not exactly equal to 400 for each animal). The count 210 of eosinophils for each animal EC_{ii} is thus modelled by a binomial distribution of size parameter 211

212 TC_{ij} and probability parameter the latent variable EP_{ij} , the logit of which is defined by the 213 Gaussian mixture:

214
$$EC_{ij}: Binom(TC_{ij}, EP_{ij})$$
 with $logit(EP_{ij}): N(\mu'_{ij}, \sigma'_{ij})$

215 Vaguely informative uniform prior were assigned to each parameter allowing variation within a realistic range and forcing probability parameters ($Seth^{BS}$, Se^{BAL} , $Pinf_i$ and Ppatent) to be 216 between 0 and 1 and θ and θ' to be positive (Table 1). Monte Carlo Markov-Chain (MCMC) 217 218 techniques were used to estimate the full joint posterior distribution of parameters from prior distributions and data. Computations were performed using the JAGS software via the R package 219 rjags (Plummer et al., 2016) (a corresponding R script is provided in Supplementary material both in 220 221 Appendix A and in a runnable script with corresponding data). Three independent MCMC chains 222 were run in parallel. For each chain 110,000 samples were produced. We discarded the first 10,000 223 as burn-in. To avoid autocorrelation, we thinned the remaining 100,000 samples by selecting one out 224 of 20 samples, thus keeping 5000 samples per chain. We checked the convergence again by displaying MCMC chain traces and autocorrelation plots and by computing the Gelman and Rubin's 225 226 statistics as modified by Brooks and Gelman (Brooks and Gelman, 1998). For each parameter, its 227 point estimate was defined as the median of its marginal posterior distribution, and the 95% credible 228 interval was defined from the 2.5 and 97.5 percentiles of this distribution.

For both Gaussian mixtures, ROC curves accompanied with their 95% credibility bands were built from the joint posterior distribution using the 15,000 MCMC samples obtained by pooling the 5000 samples of each chain (Details of the computation are given in Appendix B. Supplementary material). For each of the 15,000 sampled ROC curves, an optimal cut-off was estimated by minimizing the distance to the upper left corner corresponding to sensitivity and specificity equal to one (Perkins and Schisterman, 2006). For each test the final optimal cut-off was estimated using the median of the 15,000 sampled optimal cut-off values. We then estimated the sensibility and specificity of each test

at this optimal cut-off value using once again the joint posterior distribution. We also computed the posterior probabilities of each animal to be infected and to be patent using the 15,000 MCMC samples of the latent variables $Sinf_{ii}$ and $Spatent_{ii}$ in the model.

For representation of continuous observed data from serology and cytology, we used transformed data on which we assumed a mixture Gaussian distribution: we represented the optical density ratios (ODR_{ij}) in decimal logarithm and the eosinophil proportions (EP_{ij}) in logit. As some eosinophil proportions were estimated to 0, for representing data we fixed the corresponding values to an arbitrary value of -7. In fact, these values are censored and only estimated to be below the detection limit equal to 1/400 (roughly -6 in logit). This censoring was not a problem for modelling as the model directly describes the raw data (eosinophil count EC_{ij}).

We performed a posterior predictive check with the fitted model by comparing predicted and observed values of the numbers of animals in each combination of the four tests, predicted and observed cumulative distribution functions of both quantitative measures (ODR and EP values), and predicted and observed numbers of individuals above and below the chosen cut-off values. In order to check the constant accuracy of tests across population, we also repeat the analysis with the exclusion of each herd of the study one a time(Kostoulas et al., 2017; Mahmmod et al., 2013).

252 Results

Prior distributions and descriptive statistics of posterior distributions (medians and 95% credible intervals) of all model parameters are summarized in Table 1 and representation of both Gaussian mixtures are shown in Figure 3. Posterior distributions of parameters characterizing the two mixture models and the test sensitivities were highly shrunk using data in comparison to prior distribution, as it is generally expected in such an inference. The fitted model seems to present a high overall goodness of fit regarding the results of the posterior predictive check (Table C1 and Figures C1, C2, and C3 in Appendix C, Supplementary material). Table C1 shows that 12 out of the 16 observed numbers of animals in each test pattern are equal to their posterior median, and none are outside of
the 95% credibility interval. Similarly, the observed numbers of animals above and below the chosen
cut-off values for both continuous tests match their predicted posterior modes (Figure C1).
Furthermore, Figure C2 and C3 also point out that the two modelled Gaussian mixtures well describe
the observed cumulative distribution of ODR and EP values.

Infection prevalences of herds were sometimes difficult to estimate, with 95% credible intervals (95% 265 266 CI) not far from the maximal interval [0, 1] (herds 1, 2, 4, 9), while the others were more precisely 267 estimated. The overall proportion of patent animals among infected ones was estimated at 0.75 (95% 268 CI [0.48; 0.96]). These patent animals are those with relative high EP and ODR values (red circle 269 points in Figure 3). We estimated the sensitivities of parasitological tests to relatively low values: 270 7.4% (95% CI [1.7; 19.4]) for the BS test and 24.7% (95% CI [11.9; 42.9]) for the BAL test. Note that we 271 detected only one or two immature lungworms (less than 2 cm) in each bronchoalveolar fluid of the 272 eight BAL positive cows. For the serology and cytology tests, the sensitivity (Se) and specificity (Sp) 273 depend on the chosen cut-off value. For each of these two continuous variables (log(ODR) for the 274 serology and logit(EP) for the cytology), Se and Sp were plotted as a function of the cut-off within a 275 classical ROC curve analysis (Figures 1 and 2). The optimal cut-off value for serology was estimated at 0.397 ODR, corresponding to a sensitivity of 74.9% (95% CI [62.7; 79.7]) and a specificity of 85.5% 276 277 (95% CI [72.1; 93.8]). We also estimated the theoretical sensitivity of the serology at the optimal cut-278 off, if used to diagnose only patent animals and not all the infected animals. This theoretical 279 sensitivity was estimated at 96.9% (95% CI [80.3; 99.8]).

The optimal cut-off value for the cytology was estimated at 4.77% corresponding to a sensitivity of 89.4% (95% CI [76.9; 96.7]) and a specificity of 85.2% (95% CI [68.8; 99.4]). As shown in Figure 3, the detection limit of the cytology (-5.99 in logit) was far lower than the optimal cut-off value (-2.85 in logit). Thus, counting 400 cells during the cytology test seemed sufficient to prevent an impact of censored values on the diagnosis. As the bronchoalveolar lavage combines two diagnostic methods,

the parasite identification in the BALF and the pulmonary eosinophilia, we estimated the sensitivity and specificity of a global BAL test combining these two methods. We considered an animal positive if at least one of the two tests was positive, and negative if both tests were negative. Thus, the sensitivity of the global BAL test was estimated at 91.4% (95% CI [80.7; 97.4]) and the specificity at 85.2% (95% CI [68.8; 99.5]).

290 At the herd level, for the case where these methods would be applied to confirm a dictyocaulosis 291 presumption (*i.e.* to find at least one positive animals in the herd), we calculated the number of 292 samples required to reach a herd sensitivity of 95%. Veterinarians would have to perform a minimum 293 of either 40 Baermann sedimentation tests (95% CI [14; 170]), 11 BAL parasitological tests (95% CI [6; 294 24]), 3 serology tests (95% CI [2; 4]) or 2 eosinophil proportion counts (95% CI [1; 3]). For the two last 295 methods, the herd specificity corresponding to the probability to find at least one positive animal in 296 an uninfected herd would drop to 62.2% (95% CI [37.3; 83.0]) and 72.7% (95% CI [47.7; 98.9]) 297 respectively.

298 **Discussion**

299 This study evaluated the performance of four diagnostic methods for dictyocaulosis in adult cattle 300 under field conditions and in the absence of a known gold standard test. The sensitivity and 301 specificity of each test, as well as cut-off values for the two quantitative methods, were estimated by 302 Bayesian inference, fitting a global model describing all the raw data collected in the experiment. 303 One of the main benefits of such an approach is the global consideration of the four test results to 304 estimate the individual status of each cow. Likewise, the two mixture models are fitted 305 simultaneously but not independently, allowing a better consideration of discordant results and 306 limiting the animal misclassification for both tests. Furthermore, the censoring of low values of 307 eosinophil proportions is naturally included in the Bayesian approach by directly modelling the count 308 of eosinophils, without any need of specific methods dedicated to censored data.

309 In a Bayesian framework, the posterior estimation depends upon both prior information and 310 observed data. In our study, prior information was particularly poor because none of the four 311 diagnostic methods has been characterized in the field with adult cows. Ploeger et al. (2014) 312 determined in a field study the sensitivity and the specificity of the serology with the faecal larvae 313 excretion (i.e. the Baermann technique) as reference test, while it has a poor sensitivity in adults. 314 Similarly, there are few data about the BALF cytology in cows. Even if none of the previous publications we have had access to mentions healthy cows with an eosinophil rate at over one 315 316 percent, we cannot be sure that every healthy cow has an eosinophil rate less than one percent. 317 Therefore, all prior information was chosen only vaguely informative.

318 One assumption of the latent class analysis is that all diagnostic methods measure the same infection 319 status. This assumption is however not respected in our study as the Baermann sedimentation and 320 the serology require mature worms (patent infection) to be positive whereas pulmonary eosinophilia and BAL test only require the presence of immature or adult parasites (i.e., pre-patent and patent 321 322 infection) in the lung. By modelling the three class latent status (non-infected, pre-patent and patent) 323 the latent class model remains valid. The use of multiple latent disease status is also a method 324 allowing for the consideration of conditional dependence between tests (Dendukuri et al., 2009). 325 Indeed, in our case, BS and serology could not have been considered as independent conditionally to 326 the infection status because they both detect only patent infection. However, conditionally to the 327 three class latent status, the four diagnostic methods could be considered as independent because 328 they are based on different biological principles.

The model assumes that the overall proportion of patent animals among infected animals is constant in all herds. It is an important constraint that allows an easy consideration of pre-patent and patent infections. However, this proportion might vary from one herd to another especially if the outbreak occurs at different times before the sampling or if cows are well immune against *Dictyocaulus viviparus*. The model could be improved by taking into account this proportion variability for instance

using a hierarchical model but the simple proposed model already provides a good fit to the data as shown by the results of the posterior predictive check (see Table C1 and Figure C1, C2 and C3 in the supplementary material).

337 The Bayesian latent class model requires herds with different prevalences to ensure a proper 338 convergence of the algorithm. It led us to include a clinically healthy herd with no history of dictyocaulosis (the 12th herd). Then, the assumption of constant accuracy of tests across populations 339 might not have been appropriate. We checked this assumption by repeating the analysis with the 340 341 exclusion of each herd of the study one at a time and results are presented in the table D in the 342 supplementary material. The exclusion of each herd led to slightly different point estimate of cutoff, 343 sensitivity and specificity of each test but every credibility interval stay very close to the original estimations. In particular, the exclusion of the 12th herd led to guite similar point estimate but wider 344 credibility intervals. Then the assumption of constant accuracy of test across population could be 345 considered as a reasonable assumption. 346

347 Parasitological results are quite different compared to previous studies (Ploeger et al., 2012). Only 3.3% of cows originating from clinically positive herds were positive with the BS test, with a low level 348 349 of larval excretion (less than 1 larvae per 10g of faeces; data not shown), whereas it was 20.1% in the 350 quoted study. The climatic conditions could partly explain these differences, as spring and summer 351 2015 were very dry. These particular climatic conditions may have lowered larvae survival in the environment and consequently reduced the number of larvae ingested by the cows, resulting in 352 353 rather low infection intensities. Furthermore, acquired immunity during the present or previous 354 pasture season may have prevented invasion and maturation of a large number of ingested parasites, 355 again resulting in reduced larval excretion by infected cows. We might have found perhaps more 356 larvae and positive cows by using the McKenna modified method of sedimentation instead of the 357 Baermann method (McKenna, 1999), even if it could have been compensated by the use of a higher amount of faeces (50g vs 30g). As the sensitivity of faecal examination may vary according to the 358

359 technique and the amount of faeces used, the estimated sensitivity of the Baermann sedimentation 360 in this study may perhaps not be generalised to other faecal examination techniques. The sensitivity 361 of the BS test was evaluated at 7.4% (95% IC [1.7; 19.4]) in adult cows. Identification of D. viviparus in 362 the BALF (BAL test) seems to be more sensitive (Se = 24.7% (95% IC [11.9; 42.9]) than the BS test. 363 Despite a relatively high proportion of patent animals (0.75; 95% CI [0.48; 0.96]) which should host 364 fully developed worms, we only recovered immature D.viviparus in the BALF of BAL positives cows. It seems not to be due to the diameter of the lung catheter as we already recovered adult parasites (5 365 366 to 6 cm) with the same device during preliminary tests (unpublished data), but rather to the 367 immunity of adult cows, which may slow down the *D.viviparus* development in the lungs. Then, they 368 may not be able to reach the mature stage, which could explain the low recovery of adult worms in 369 the BALF and also the low sensitivity of the Baermann sedimentation.

370 The lung cytology and serology seem to be better-suited diagnostic tools for dictyocaulosis than parasitological tests. The optimal cut-off value of the serology proposed by the model (i.e. 0.397 371 372 ODR) is lower than the recommended cut-off (i.e. 0.500 ODR) by Von Holtum et al. (2008). This 373 model-proposed cut-off value of 0.397 ODR is probably adapted to adult cows but it seems too low 374 for reliable differentiation between infected and non-infected calves, as in the study by Von Holtum 375 et al. (2008) the sera from helminth-negative calves reached values up to 0.490 ODR. Otherwise, 376 according to our model, at the cut-off indicated by Von Holtum et al. (2008), the sensitivity would be 377 61.2% (95% CI [40.8; 82.6]) and the specificity 96.1% (95% CI [87.8; 99.2]). As expected, these values 378 were lower than those estimated from controlled experimental infections (Se and Sp > 99%; (Von 379 Holtum et al., 2008)), especially for the sensitivity. Most of the differences observed on the serology 380 characteristics between field and experimental studies must be due to the presence of pre-patent 381 infections which reduce the observed sensitivity of the serology. A seasonal variation of the 382 proportion of pre-patent infected animals could also explain the observed seasonal variation of the 383 sensitivity and specificity of the serology (Ploeger et al., 2012, 2014).

384 To our knowledge, this study is the first to provide a cut-off (-2.99 in logit or 4.77% eosinophils in 385 cellular proportion of BAL, designed by the model) as well as sensitivity and specificity values (89.4% 386 with 95% CI [76.9; 96.7] and 85.2% with 95% CI [68.8; 99.4], respectively) for bronchoalveolar 387 cytological measurement for the diagnosis of dictyocaulosis in adult cows. The proposed cut-off 388 (4.77%) is relatively high compared to previously reported eosinophil proportion values in healthy 389 calves (all <1%, n=15; Hagberg et al., 2005). The combined bronchoalveolar lavage diagnostic method 390 (the parasite identification in the BALF and the pulmonary eosinophilia) is as specific as the 391 pulmonary eosinophilia alone but slightly more sensitive (91.4% with 95% CI [80.7; 97.4]). This 392 difference comes from few cows with EP values under the cut-off value despite we found parasites in 393 the BALF.

394 At the herd level, we calculated the number of infected animals to sample to reach a herd sensitivity 395 of 95%. Unfortunately, as we did not monitor the clinical status of cows, we could not predict if 396 clinical cows were more likely to be positive than sub-clinical ones. It could be interesting to refine 397 our analysis based on cows with known clinical status. The two parasitological methods seem to be 398 limited, because they had to be performed on a large number of infected animals to reach 95% 399 sensitivity. The individual serology seems to be more suitable than the parasitological methods to 400 diagnose dictyocaulosis infection at the herd level because it only requires 3 samples to reach a herd 401 sensitivity of 95% even if it has a low herd specificity. Collecting BAL fluid is more complicated than 402 collecting blood or faeces, but it can be a relevant technique as it may allow diagnosing 403 dictyocaulosis in a herd with only two samples. Moreover, the bronchoalveolar lavage combines two 404 diagnostic methods, increasing the opportunities to diagnose dictyocaulosis. If BAL is performed on 405 two animals suffering from dictyocaulosis in a herd, the probability of isolating *D. viviparus* in the 406 BALF is 43% (95% CI [22; 68]) and if negative, cytological examination could be performed with a 95% 407 probability to diagnose dictyocaulosis with an eosinophil proportion superior to 4.77%.

Performing analyses on pooled samples could be an interesting alternative to screen more animals, with limited time and financial costs, but this might be at the expense of the sensitivity. Bulk tank milk ELISA (Fiedor et al., 2009; Schunn et al., 2012) or ELISA on pooled serums (Chartier *et al.*, 2015) could also be interesting methods of herd diagnosis. Serology is also easier than the BAL to carry out on the farm and is more suitable for large epidemiological studies. Furthermore, the serology only detects patent infections whereas BAL detects both patent and pre-patent infections. Thus, at the individual level, BAL should be preferred to confirm a dictyocaulosis presumption.

415 **Conclusion**

416 This study provides for the first time a combined estimation of the characteristics of different 417 commonly used methods to diagnose dictyocaulosis, including the first evaluation of the BAL 418 technique. Overall, we confirmed the rather low sensitivity of the Baermann technique in adult cows 419 (7.4%). Furthermore, bronchoalveolar lavage proved to be a suitable technique to confirm a 420 dictyocaulosis suspicion at the individual level in dairy cows. This technique is interesting as it 421 combines two complementary and relevant diagnostic methods: first, the BAL parasitic test which 422 can potentially provide a quick result on the farm, and second, the eosinophil proportion, a highly 423 sensitive diagnostic measure of dictyocaulosis at the veterinary office. Despite a lower sensitivity due 424 to pre-patent infections, the serology remains a suitable method to confirm a hypothesis of 425 dictyocaulosis in adult cow herds and it is more practicable for large epidemiologic studies.

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431 **Conflict of interest**

432 No conflict of interest to be declared.

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434 Supplementary material

- 435 Appendices A, B, C and D and a runnable R script with corresponding data can be found in the online
- 436 version of this article.

437 **References**

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			Posterior estimate
	Parameter	Prior distribution	Median [95% credible interval]
Test sensitivities	Se^{BS}	Unif(0, 1)	0.074 [0.017; 0.194]
	Se^{BAL}	Unif(0, 1)	0.247 [0.119; 0.429]
Herd prevalences	P_1	Unif(0, 1)	0.395 [0.035; 0.843]
	P_2	Unif(0, 1)	0.331 [0.0147; 0.856]
	P_3	Unif(0, 1)	0.797 [0.28; 0.991]
	P_4	Unif(0, 1)	0.665 [0.153; 0.982]
	P_5	Unif(0, 1)	0.888 [0.536; 0.996]
	P_6	Unif(0, 1)	0.727 [0.337; 0.957]
	P_7	Unif(0, 1)	0.102 [0.004; 0.439]
	P_8	Unif(0, 1)	0.903 [0.589; 0.996]
	P_9	Unif(0, 1)	0.596 [0.172; 0.928]
	P_{10}	Unif(0, 1)	0.392 [0.081; 0.77]
	P_{11}	Unif(0, 1)	0.311 [0.048; 0.7981]
	P_{12}	Unif(0, 1)	0.06 [0.002; 0.29]
Proportion of patent animals among infected ones	Ppatent	Unif(0, 1)	0.749 [0.479; 0.958]
ODR mixture parameters	$\mu_{non-inf}$	Unif(-10, 10)	-0.587 [-0.640; -0.526]

Table 1 : Model parameters with corresponding prior distributions and posterior estimates.

		heta	Unif(0, 10)	0.400 [0.316; 0.471]
		$\sigma_{ m non-inf}$	Unif(0, 5)	0.162 [0.128; 0.213]
		$\sigma_{ m inf}$	Unif(0, 5)	0.123 [0.087; 0.195]
	EP mixture parameters	$\mu'_{non-inf}$	Unif(-10, 10)	-4.87 [-5.81; -4.01]
		heta'	Unif(0, 10)	3.23 [2.33; 4.12]
		$\sigma'_{ ext{non-inf}}$	Unif(0, 5)	1.76 [0.94; 2.54]
		$\sigma'_{ ext{inf}}$	Unif(0, 5)	1.07 [0.83; 1.45]
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556				



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Figure 1: ROC curve for the serology. Dotted lines represent a 95% credible interval around the ROC
curve and the point on the ROC curve corresponds to the estimated cut-off of 0.397 for the optical

563 density ratio (ODR; -0.415 in decimal logarithm).



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565 Figure 2: ROC curve for the cytology. Dotted lines represent a 95% credible interval around the ROC

566 curve and the point on the ROC curve corresponds to the estimated cut-off of 4.77% for the





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Figure 3: Scatter plot of observed data from the serology and the cytology tests, with points coloured 569 570 according the posterior probability of infection of each animal calculated from the model (colour gradient from blue for 0 to red for 1). Circular points represent animals with a posterior probability of 571 572 being patent superior to 0.5, triangular points the ones with a probability of infection inferior to 0.5 573 and square points the ones with a probability of infection superior to 0.5 but a probability of being patent inferior 0.5. These three clusters are surrounded by ellipses respectively coloured in red, blue 574 575 and purple. Red and blue curves represent the estimated density of the two components of the 576 Gaussian mixture for each test (the red ones for positive animals and the blue ones for negative 577 animals). Plain vertical and horizontal lines indicate optimal cut-off estimates respectively for the 578 eosinophil proportion and the optimal density ratio. The vertical dotted line represents the detection 579 limit for the eosinophil proportion (one eosinophil out of 400 total cells counted).