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**Antimicrobial susceptibility of *Mannheimia haemolytica* and
Pasteurella multocida isolated from ovine respiratory clinical cases
in Spain and Portugal**

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Short title: Antimicrobial susceptibility of ovine respiratory pathogens

27 **Abstract**

28 Antimicrobials are used to control respiratory disorders during the ovine rearing
29 period. There is an urgent need to optimize the use of different antimicrobial families
30 in livestock to tackle the general problem of antimicrobial resistance. The first step to
31 addressing this problem is gaining insight into the antimicrobial susceptibility
32 (pharmacodynamic) parameters of ovine pathogens. In this study, the key
33 pharmacodynamic parameter (MIC) was determined for *Pasteurella multocida* and
34 *Mannhaemia haemolytica* isolated from ovine respiratory clinical cases using
35 accepted laboratory methods for bacterial isolation, identification and MIC
36 determination. In the case of *Pasteurella multocida*, for
37 sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, MIC_{range}, MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ values were 0.004–32
38 µg/mL, 0.063 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL; for tetracycline 0.016-256 µg/mL, 1 µg/mL, and 32
39 µg/mL; for enrofloxacin 0.002–32 µg/mL, 0.016 µg/mL and 0.5 µg/mL; for doxycycline
40 0.063–32 µg/mL, 1 µg/mL and 16 µg/mL. In the case of *Mannhaemia haemolytica* for
41 sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, MIC_{range}, MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ values were 0.004–1024
42 µg/mL, 0.063 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL; for tetracycline 0.063-256 µg/mL, 8 µg/mL, and 64
43 µg/mL; for enrofloxacin 0.004–32 µg/mL, 0.032 µg/mL and 16 µg/mL; for doxycycline
44 0.063–256 µg/mL, 2 µg/mL L and 16 µg/mL. The antimicrobial pattern showed good
45 susceptibility for ovine respiratory pathogens to various licensed antibiotics including
46 fluoroquinolones and sulfonamides. However, the antimicrobial susceptibility of
47 antibiotics in the tetracycline family was variable. Doxycycline showed a better
48 antimicrobial pattern than tetracycline. Finally, antimicrobial susceptibility monitoring
49 programs are recommended to provide evidence-based guidance for antimicrobial
50 therapy of bacterial diseases.

51 **Keywords:** Ovine, respiratory pathogens, MIC, Ovine respiratory disease complex

52

53 **Introduction**

54 In Spain and Portugal, the production of lambs is based on small ewe production
55 farms. However, the market of fattening animals needs lambs from many farms to
56 achieve a minimum size in feedlots (Gonzalez et al, 2016), such that these facilities
57 have sufficient volume to satisfy meat distribution channels. This industry
58 organization has advantages in terms of achieving market goals but has serious
59 drawbacks in terms of disease management because mixing animals of different
60 origins is a well-known risk factor for disease outbreak in many veterinary species
61 (Thursfield, 2018).

62

63 Respiratory disease remains one of the most challenging problems in intensive ovine
64 production systems. The term ovine respiratory disease complex (ORDC) describes
65 a polymicrobial syndrome that results from a combination of infectious agents,
66 environmental stressors, population size, management strategies, age, and genetics.
67 This syndrome causes reduced performance, and an increase in mortality rates and
68 production costs in the ovine fattening industry worldwide (Black et al, 1997; Luzon
69 and de las Heras, 1999; Gonzalez et al, 2001; Vilallonga 2013). The aetiology of the
70 ORDC has been in continuous progression due to pathogen evolution as well as in
71 management and stressor changes in ovine feedlots (Gonzalez et al, 2016). This
72 ORDC is the consequence of impairment of the normal respiratory immune system
73 due to pathogens that are able to damage these defences and establish infection on
74 their own. Several pathogens have been involved in ORDC, making it a multifactorial

75 complex. In any case, *Mannheimia haemolytica* (MH), *Pasteurella multocida* (PM),
76 *Mycoplasma ovipneumoniae* and *Biberstenia threalosi* are the most common
77 etiologic agents involved (Gonzalez 2015) but viruses like Parainfluenza 3,
78 Pestivirus, Adenovirus 6 and Syncytial Respiratory Virus could predispose an animal
79 to bacterial colonization in some cases (Brodgen et al, 1998; Martin and Cid, 2013;
80 Gonzalez et al, 2016). On the other hand, many non-infectious predisposing factors
81 are involved in the ORDC, such as poor environmental conditions (e.g., deficient
82 ventilation), density, stressors (weaning, feeding changes, transport and social
83 stress), subacute acidosis, season of the year (summer in Spain and Portugal) and
84 oxidative stress (pulmonary hypertension and damage to epithelia). Finally,
85 coccidiosis could be one of the most important trigger factors (Gonzalez et al, 2016)
86 mainly during the first week at the feedlot.

87 The clinical manifestation of affected lambs can be septicemic, acute, subacute,
88 chronic and subclinical (Gomez and Garijo, 2013; Gonzalez 2015). Although ORDC
89 is the most important cause of mortality in lambs older than 42 days of age (Lacasta
90 et al, 2008), clinical signs of the syndrome may not be as evident highlighting the
91 importance of the chronic or subclinical form. Thus, close to 33% of lambs raised in
92 current feedlots have some degree of lesions in their lungs at the slaughterhouse
93 (Gonzalez 2015). Moreover, 75% of lambs were asymptomatic and had never been
94 treated despite presenting some lung lesions at slaughter (Luzon and De las Heras,
95 1999).

96

97 The diagnosis, prophylaxis and treatment strategies for ovine respiratory disease
98 complex should be adapted, in a case-by-case situation, depending on the relevance
99 of the agents involved. As a general approach, the medical preventive programs

100 should be based on applying measures to control diseases in a cost-effective way
101 such as improving environmental conditions, decreasing density, mitigating stressors
102 and controlling subacute acidosis and parasitism. Other measures include
103 vaccinating against the major bacterial diseases and the use of antimicrobials to
104 control bacterial diseases with a therapeutic or metaphylactic goal. Unfortunately,
105 there are few registered vaccines and antimicrobials to apply in ovine animals. Thus,
106 antimicrobials remain an essential tool to control ORDC under field conditions (Martin
107 and Cid, 2013, Fernandez and Rey, 2013).

108

109 The major issues for practitioners when treating a large population of animals with
110 antimicrobials are maximizing the likelihood of a favorable clinical outcome and
111 minimizing the appearance and development of antimicrobial resistance. To optimize
112 the use of these drugs, it is critical to have updated pharmacokinetic (PK) and
113 pharmadynamic (PD) data about antimicrobials (Mckellar et al, 2004). Unfortunately,
114 there is a scarcity of public knowledge about the PK and PD of antimicrobials in ovine
115 medicine. On the other hand, it has been strongly recommended that program be
116 developed to monitor the usage of antimicrobial agents and the occurrence of
117 antimicrobial resistance among food animals at the European level (Aarestrup et al.,
118 2008; EMA AMEG 2014; EMA AMEG 2019). In Spain, a national antimicrobial
119 resistance monitoring program has been underway since 2014 (PRAN 2014). The
120 bacterial species monitored, the antimicrobial agents tested, as well as the
121 methodology used, are being homogenized to make data comparable between and
122 across species in Spain (PRAN, 2019). In addition, this program also provides data
123 on the consumption of antimicrobial agents in all veterinary species. Today, there is
124 no public or updated information about antimicrobial susceptibility of ovine pathogens

125 involved in ORDC in Spain and Portugal. Much of the information available is very
126 old, was obtained by obsolete methodology (Diker et al, 1994) or comes from a
127 geographical area unrelated to the European context (Marru et al, 2013).

128 The main objective of this work was to obtain pharmacodynamic information about
129 *Pasteurella multocida* and *Mannhaemia haemolytica* in ovine animals following a
130 methodology recommended by a national antimicrobial resistance control program in
131 Spain. This information is necessary to obtain updated information to optimize the
132 use of antimicrobials for this species following the general recommendations about
133 prudent use of antimicrobials.

134

135 **Material and methods**

136 **Animals and sampling**

137 One-hundred twenty-eight respiratory clinical cases from 60 ovine feedlots were
138 studied between February of 2015 and March of 2019 in Spain and Portugal. In these
139 cases, a percentage of the feedlot showed respiratory symptoms (cough, fever,
140 depression and dyspnoea) and the mortality rate significantly increased versus the
141 baseline situation during the respiratory outbreak due mainly to respiratory causes. It
142 was not sampled any animal that was treated with antimicrobials prior to sample
143 collection. In each clinical case, a minimum and maximum number of 3 and 5
144 animals, with overt respiratory symptoms, were sampled, respectively. These animals
145 were randomly selected if more than 5 animals showed respiratory symptoms at the
146 same time. Unfortunately, it was not possible to have information about exact age,
147 breed and days on feed of the animals because this data is not individually recorded
148 in ovine fattening farms. Samples were drawn from pneumonic lesions in the lung
149 during necropsy (64 samples) or from tracheobronchial lavages of live animals

150 showing respiratory symptoms (63 samples). In the case of lung sample collection, a
151 section of 5x5 cm of lung was collected from a lobule including healthy and
152 pneumonic tissue. On the other hand, tracheobronchial lavage was carried out using
153 a previous published method adapted to ovine (Hoffman et al, 2008). Briefly, 30-40
154 cm of a catheter of 2.7 mm of diameter was inserted through one of the nostrils into
155 the trachea. Then, 20 cm³ of physiological serum were flushed and immediately
156 aspirated with the same syringe. Afterwards, between 3 to 10 cm³ of tracheobronchial
157 lavage were drawn. This sample was stored in a sterile container and sent
158 immediately to the laboratory. In only one case, a nasal swab (one sample) was also
159 collected from a sick lamb.

160

161 Bacterial isolation and identification

162 The surface of the lung was sterilized using surgical material at high temperature.
163 Afterwards, an incision was performed with a scalpel and a sterile loop was used to
164 sample inside the lung. In the case of tracheobronchial lavages, samples were
165 uniformly mixed, and 10 µl were streaked on the blood agar plate surface with a
166 sterile loop. Finally, swab samples were surfaced onto the blood agar. For all the
167 samples, sterile loops were surfaced onto blood agar (tryptic soy agar containing 5%
168 sheep red blood cells) (BA) plates (Oxoid PB 5039A) with an incubation at 35–37°C
169 in aerobic conditions for 24–48 hours. Identification of isolates were carried out by
170 matrix-assisted laser desorption ionization-time of flight (MALDI-TOF, Bruker
171 Daltonics, Bremen, Germany). Individual strains were stored at -70°C in skim milk.
172 For MIC testing, bacteria were thawed and cultured two times on the same agar
173 media.

174

175 Antimicrobial compounds

176 Trimetopim (batch J1511036) and sulfadiazine (batch PX1-SD-1510033) were
177 kindly provided by Laboratorios Jaer SA whereas doxycycline hyclate (batch
178 YD140201015) was provided by Laboratorios SP Veterinaria. Tetracycline
179 hydrochloride (batch T8032) and enrofloxacin (batch17849) were purchased
180 commercially from Sigma Aldrich. All the antimicrobials were reconstituted based on
181 manufacturer's recommendations. Fresh stock solutions or those prepared from
182 frozen samples (-70°C) were used. For quality control, *Staphylococcus aureus* ATCC
183 29213 from American Type Culture Collection (ATCC) control strain was included in
184 each susceptible assay to ensure performance of the susceptibility assays; MIC
185 values needed to be within acceptable ranges for each organism/drug.

186 MIC determination

187 MIC testing was carried out following the recommended CLSI procedure for ten
188 strains, five of PM and MH (VET08, 2018) that were randomly chosen between all
189 the available ones. Briefly, Mueller-Hinton broth (MHB) containing a two-fold
190 concentration of drug was added to the first column of a 96-well micro-dilution tray
191 and serially diluted concentrations with MHB solution were prepared (from 0.001 to
192 1024 µg/mL for all the antimicrobials). A 0.5 McFarland density, established with a
193 calibrated nephelometer (Biosan Medical-Biological Research & Technologies, Riga,
194 Latvia), of *Pasteurella multocida* and *Mannheimia haemolytica* was further diluted to
195 5×10^5 cfu/ml, added to the microdilution tray containing drug and incubated for 18–
196 24 hours (35–37°C) in aerobic conditions. To ensure the inoculum concentration, the
197 counting of bacterial colonies per mL (cfu/mL) was carried out by serial dilution over
198 the surface of a blood agar plate for 10 strains. The MIC was established as the
199 lowest drug concentration inhibiting visible growth. This standard MIC procedure was

200 repeated twice on separate days and the average value was accepted as the final
201 one. In parallel, MIC for the same *Pasteurella multocida* and *Mannheimia*
202 *haemolytica* strains were performed by test strip (Epsilon test or E-test) to evaluate
203 the agreement between the two techniques. For MIC determination by test strip,
204 tetracycline (TET) (Oxoid Limited, Hampshire, United Kingdom), doxycycline (DOX)
205 (Liofilchem S.R.L., Roseto degli Abruzzi, Italy), trimethoprim/sulfamethoxazole (SXT)
206 (Liofilchem S.R.L., Roseto degli Abruzzi, Italy), and enrofloxacin (ENR) (Liofilchem
207 S.R.L., Roseto degli Abruzzi, Italy) strips were used. It was not feasible to use the E-
208 test with sulfadiazine/trimethoprim because it is not commercially available. The
209 inoculum was prepared as previously described. Briefly, a 0.5 McFarland density,
210 established with a nephelometer (Biosan Medical-Biological Research &
211 Technologies, Riga, Latvia), of *Pasteurella multocida* and *Mannheimia haemolytica*
212 was spread on a Muller Hinton Agar plate (Oxoid Limited, Hampshire, United
213 Kingdom) using a sterile cotton swab and the test strip was applied to the agar
214 surface. After 18 hours of incubation at 37°C the MIC value was read from the scale
215 in units of µg/mL where the ellipse edge intersects the side strip.

216 For the rest of the bacterial strains of PM and MH, minimum Inhibitory
217 Concentrations (MIC) of SXT, TET, ENR and DOX were determined using the E-Test
218 technique based on the results obtained using both techniques.

219

220 Data analysis

221 MIC distributions were determined for each species-antimicrobial combination. The
222 MIC distributions were used to define MIC₅₀, MIC₉₀, and a tentative epidemiological
223 breakpoint ECOFF for differentiation between susceptibility and strains with some
224 gene of resistance. MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ were defined as MICs inhibiting 50% and 90%

225 of the strains, respectively. ECOFFs were determined from MIC distributions for each
226 species-drug combination, as recommended by EUCAST (Turnidge et al, 2006), with
227 susceptible strains being the population with MIC at or below the ECOFF and strains
228 with some gene of resistance having a MIC of > ECOFF from an epidemiological
229 point of view.

230 The agreement between the microdilution and E-test technique to determine MIC
231 was assessed using the Lin's concordance correlation coefficient as described by
232 Watson and Petrie, 2010.

233

234 **Results**

235 *Pasteurella multocida* (n=60) and *Mannheimia haemolytica* (n=68) were isolated in
236 most cases, although *Biberstenia threalosi* and *Escherichia coli* were found, but only
237 in a few cases. These latter microorganisms were not included in the study due to the
238 low number of available strains. As explained in the Material and Methods section,
239 the MIC value was determined using microdilution and E-test techniques for 10
240 randomly selected strains whose MIC values were highly variable. The agreement
241 between the two techniques was perfect (>0.999) for enrofloxacin, and substantial
242 (between 0.950 and 0.990) for tetracycline and sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim. In the
243 case of doxycycline, the agreement between the two techniques was moderate
244 (0.930). Based on these results (Table 1), the E-test was used to determine the
245 antimicrobial susceptibility for all the strains included in the study.

246

247 MIC data for PM and MH strains and the four antimicrobials are shown in Table 2. In
248 the case of *Pasteurella multocida*, for sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, MIC_{range}, MIC₅₀

249 and MIC₉₀ values were 0.004–32 µg/mL, 0.063 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL; for tetracycline
250 0.016-256 µg/mL, 1 µg/mL, and 32 µg/mL; for enrofloxacin 0.002–32 µg/mL, 0.016
251 µg/mL and 0.5 µg/mL; and for doxycycline 0.063–32 µg/mL, 1 µg/mL and 16 µg/mL.
252 On the other hand, in the case of *Mannhaemia haemolytica* for
253 sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim, MIC_{range}, MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ values were 0.004–1024
254 µg/mL, 0.063 µg/mL and 1 µg/mL; for tetracycline 0.063-256 µg/mL, 8 µg/mL, and 64
255 µg/mL; for enrofloxacin 0.004–32 µg/mL, 0.032 µg/mL and 16 µg/mL; and for
256 doxycycline 0.063–256 µg/mL, 2 µg/mL L and 16 µg/mL.

257

258 The distributions of MIC for SXT, TET, ENR and DOX are shown in Figures 1, 2, 3
259 and 4, respectively, and tentative ECOFF values are superposed on the figures as a
260 red line. The distributions of SXT and ENR are clearly unimodal for PM and MH. The
261 percentage of strains with a MIC value above the ECOFF value at 99% of the
262 confidence level (Figures 1 and 3) of SXT and ENR were 16.7 and 15% for PM and
263 25 and 33.8% for MH, respectively. On the other hand, the distributions for TET and
264 DOX were bimodal for both pathogens. The percentage of strains with a MIC value
265 above the ECOFF value at 99% of the confidence level of TET and DOX were 40
266 and 11.7% for PM and 52.9 and 25% for MH, respectively (Figure 2 and 4).

267

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273 Table 1. Lin's concordance correlation coefficient between the MIC value obtained
 274 using microdilution techniques versus the E-test method.

275

Lin's concordance correlation coefficient	MIC Sulfadiazine/trimethoprim	MIC TET	MIC ENR	MIC DOX
E-test SXT	0.980	NA	NA	NA
E-test TET	NA	0.980	NA	NA
E-test ENR	NA	NA	0.999	NA
E-test DOX	NA	NA	NA	0.930

276 NA: Non-applicable

277

278 Table 2 MIC₅₀, MIC₉₀ and tentative epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) with a
 279 confidence level of 99% for *Pasteurella multocida* (n=60 strains) and *Mannhaemia*
 280 *haemolytica* (n=68 strains) isolated from lung or tracheobronchial lavage of lambs
 281 with respiratory symptoms.

282

Antimicrobial	Bacterial species	MIC ₅₀ (µg/mL)	MIC ₉₀ (µg/mL)	Tentative Epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) (µg/mL)
Sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim (SXT)	<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	0.063	1	0.5
	<i>Mannhaemia haemolytica</i>	0.063	1	0.25
Tetracycline (TET)	<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	1	32	2
		8	64	4

	<i>Mannhaemia haemolytica</i>			
Enrofloxacin (ENR)	<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	0.016	0.5	0.125
	<i>Mannhaemia haemolytica</i>	0.032	16	0.25
Doxycycline (DOX)	<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	1	16	8
	<i>Mannhaemia haemolytica</i>	2	16	4

283

284

285 Discussion

286 The choice of an antimicrobial and the design of a rational dosing regimen depends
287 on the knowledge of the microorganism that causes the disease (clinical experience
288 or isolation), the action of the drug on the microorganism (pharmacodynamics), the
289 action of the drug on the animal treated (toxicity) and the availability of the drug for
290 the animal in question (pharmacokinetics). Other considerations include the
291 appearance of antimicrobial resistance, animal welfare and the economic cost of the
292 treatment (Fraile, 2013). In the current work, updated information was obtained about
293 antimicrobial susceptibility (pharmacodynamic parameter) of ovine respiratory
294 pathogens under field conditions in Spain and Portugal. Currently, little is known
295 about antibacterial susceptibility distributions among the target pathogens of sheep
296 and lambs in EU countries. The current study aims to address this gap by
297 determining the minimal inhibitory concentrations (MICs) for two major respiratory
298 tract pathogens recovered, prior to antibiotic treatment, from diseased lambs in Spain

299 and Portugal. One of the critical points is the selection of antimicrobials to be tested.
300 In this case, we focused on the antibiotics most frequently used through oral (premix
301 or water) administration for lambs in Spain and Portugal. Thus, sulfadiazine and
302 trimethoprim (SXT), tetracycline (TET), enrofloxacin (ENR) and doxycycline (DOX)
303 were chosen following this criteria. From a strictly scientific point of view, it would
304 have been advisable to include antimicrobials of the macrolide, fenicol and beta-
305 lactamic families to monitor more precisely the antimicrobial susceptibility of these
306 ovine pathogens but there is a shortage of veterinary medicinal products for use in
307 lambs with these active ingredients. Thus, information gained would have been of
308 little practical use.

309

310 The measurement of growth inhibition is carried out by minimum inhibitory
311 concentration (MIC) determination. The MIC is the lowest antimicrobial concentration
312 that inhibits *in vitro* the growth of the target bacteria in specific conditions of
313 incubation *in vitro* (usually after 18 to 24 hours in a culture medium at 37°C and with
314 a standard amount of inoculums) (Mckellar et al., 2004). In this study, the
315 antimicrobial susceptibility was determined using artificial culture media as
316 recommended by international guidelines on antimicrobial susceptibility
317 determination (CLSI, 2018). This methodology does not emulate the natural biophase
318 in which bacteria grow *in vivo*, such as blood, or interstitial and intracellular fluid. This
319 could lead to a deviation when using the information obtained *in vitro* to predict the
320 clinical outcomes *in vivo*, but the results are more reproducible and comparable
321 between laboratories and the prediction of clinical efficacy, taking into account this
322 pharmacodynamic information, is acceptable from a practical point of view (Mckellar
323 et al, 2004).

324 Our samples were collected from diagnostic specimens and we do not have the
325 whole history of antimicrobial treatments received in those animals before arriving at
326 the finishing farm. This could have biased the results towards a more resistant
327 bacterial population that may not be representative for animals that have never
328 received any antimicrobial therapy. The methods used to test the activity of
329 antimicrobials against pathogens are mainly agar dilution, broth microdilution, E-test
330 and diffusion disk (Kelly et al, 1999). Nowadays, broth microdilution is the standard
331 method for this determination because the diffusion disk technique and E-test were
332 found to be unreliable for some antimicrobials (e.g., colistin) due to poor diffusion
333 properties in agar. Nevertheless, other methods may also be used if correctly
334 validated as in the case of the E-test. This procedure consists of a continuous stable
335 gradient of antimicrobial agent corresponding to 15 two-fold dilutions on a strip. We
336 have carried out studies with the E-test to test its agreement with broth microdilution
337 (BM) for two ovine pathogens and four antimicrobials. Our results indicate that the
338 agreement is good enough to use in place of BM for our research. The E-test
339 technique is less labor-intensive and more cost-effective than BM for this particular
340 case. The good agreement between the E-test and BM was previously demonstrated
341 for cefditoren with *Streptococcus pneumoniae* (Kelly et al, 1999) and for telithromycin
342 with pneumococci (Davies et al, 2000). Nevertheless, it must be studied on a case-
343 by-case basis as a lack of agreement between the E-test and BM was recently
344 published for colistin and enterobacteriaceae, probably due to its poor diffusion
345 properties in agar (Turlej-Rogacka et al, 2018).

346

347 Empirical treatment is generally based on knowledge of susceptibility patterns of the
348 different bacterial pathogens to antimicrobial agents used in the particular animal

349 species. However, there is a shortage of information regarding the antimicrobial
350 susceptibility among disease-causing bacteria from lambs. For the current work,
351 clinical veterinary breakpoints are not available for lambs. Thus, isolates were not
352 categorized as susceptible or resistant from a clinical point of view. It is, therefore,
353 important to present the MIC frequency distributions to allow some interpretation from
354 a practical point of view (Schwarz et al, 2010). This is feasible because the
355 susceptible population, referred to as wild type by EUCAST, is also characterized by
356 the absence of acquired resistance mechanisms and/or mutations leading to
357 resistance.

358

359 Unfortunately, it is not possible to compare the MIC data in our study with other
360 studies in lambs because there are no recent studies using similar antimicrobial
361 agents and guidelines. The information available is very old, was obtained by
362 obsolete methodology (Diker et al, 1994), comes from a geographical area unrelated
363 to the European context (Marru et al, 2013) and/or was obtained with pathogens
364 isolated from mastitis cases (Lollai et al, 2016; Serrano-Rodriguez et al 2017). On the
365 other hand, the majority of bovine respiratory cases are associated with *Pasteurella*
366 *multocida* (PM) and *Mannhaemia haemolytica* (MH) infections, which makes
367 comparisons across species feasible. Our study demonstrates that, taken as a
368 whole, antimicrobial susceptibility of PM and MH in Spain and Portugal is relatively
369 high for many licensed antibiotics for ovine respiratory disease, as was previously
370 published for bovine animals (El Garch et al, 2016). Curiously, the antimicrobial
371 susceptibility profile is better for PM than for MH not only in ovine but also in bovine
372 animals (El Garch et al, 2016). On the other hand, the antimicrobial susceptibility is
373 not similar across antimicrobial families for ovine animals. Thus, for enrofloxacin,

374 doxycycline and sulfonamides, the percentage of PM and MH strains with a MIC
375 value above ECOFF was relatively low (less than 25% in most of the cases)
376 suggesting that many of them could obtain a positive clinical outcome after treatment
377 with these antimicrobials. However, the situation is different for tetracycline for which
378 the former percentage was higher (40% and 53% for PM and MH, respectively) than
379 that previously described for the rest of the antimicrobials suggesting that the
380 treatment with this drug could be associated with poor clinical outcomes in many
381 cases. Finally, the clinical breakpoint described for tetracycline in PM and MH
382 isolated from bovine (2 µg/mL) has the same value for PM (2 µg/mL) or is one
383 dilution lower (4 µg/mL) for MH than the tentative ECOFF value described for ovine
384 animals. On the other hand, the clinical breakpoint described for enrofloxacin in PM
385 and MH isolated from bovine (0,25 µg/mL) is one dilution higher (0.125 µg/mL) or a
386 similar value (0.25 µg/mL) than the ECOFF value described for PM and MH in ovine
387 animals, respectively. Both results suggest that the clinical breakpoints for
388 tetracycline and enrofloxacin could have the same value as those described for
389 bovine animals. These data should be validated with accepted methods to establish
390 clinical breakpoints (Turnidge et al, 2017; Toutain et al, 2017). Unfortunately, a
391 similar analysis cannot be performed for SXT and DOX due to the lack of clinical
392 breakpoints.

393

394 **Conclusions**

395 The results of this study showed an antimicrobial pattern with good susceptibility of
396 ovine respiratory pathogens to various licensed antibiotics including fluoroquinolones
397 and sulfonamides. The antimicrobial susceptibility of antibiotics in the tetracycline
398 family is variable. Doxycycline showed an antimicrobial pattern better than

399 tetracycline. Tetracycline should only be used when the susceptibility test has shown
400 efficacy. Finally, antimicrobial susceptibility monitoring programs of important
401 veterinary pathogens are necessary to provide evidence-based guidance for
402 antimicrobial therapy of bacterial diseases.

403

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407

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602 **Figure captions**

603

604 **Fig 1.** MIC distribution of sulfamethoxazole/trimethoprim for *Pasteurella multocida* (A)
605 and *Mannhaemia haemolytica* (B) isolated from lung or bronchoalveolar lavage of
606 lambs with respiratory symptoms. Epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) is indicated
607 by a red line.

608

609 **Fig 2.** MIC distribution of tetracycline for *Pasteurella multocida* (A) and *Mannhaemia*
610 *haemolytica* (B) isolated from lung or bronchoalveolar lavage of lambs with
611 respiratory symptoms. Epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) is indicated by a red line.

612

613 **Fig 3.** MIC distribution of enrofloxacin for *Pasteurella multocida* (A) and *Mannhaemia*
614 *haemolytica* (B) isolated from lung or bronchoalveolar lavage of lambs with
615 respiratory symptoms. Epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) is indicated by a red line.

616

617 **Fig 4.** MIC distribution of doxycycline for *Pasteurella multocida* (A) and *Mannhaemia*
618 *haemolytica* (B) isolated from lung or bronchoalveolar lavage of lambs with
619 respiratory symptoms. Epidemiological breakpoint (ECOFF) is indicated by a red line.

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