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1 **Antimicrobial resistance in bacteria associated with porcine respiratory disease in**
2 **Australia**

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13

14 **Abstract**

15 The porcine respiratory disease complex greatly affects the health and production of
16 pigs. While antimicrobial agents are used to treat the respiratory infections caused by
17 bacterial pathogens, there is no current information on antimicrobial resistance in Australian
18 pig respiratory bacterial isolates. The aim of this study was to determine the antimicrobial
19 resistance profiles, by determining the minimum inhibitory concentration of nine
20 antimicrobial agents for 71 *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae*, 51 *Pasteurella multocida* and
21 18 *Bordetella bronchiseptica* cultured from Australian pigs. The majority of
22 *A. pleuropneumoniae* isolates were resistant to erythromycin (89%) and tetracycline (75%).
23 Resistance to ampicillin (8.5%), penicillin (8.5%) and tilmicosin (25%) was also identified.
24 The *P. multocida* isolates exhibited resistance to co-trimoxazole (2%), florfenicol (2%),
25 ampicillin (4%), penicillin (4%), erythromycin (14%) and tetracycline (28%). While all the
26 *B. bronchiseptica* isolates showed resistance to beta-lactams (ampicillin, ceftiofur and
27 penicillin), some were resistant to erythromycin (94%), florfenicol (6%), tilmicosin (22%)
28 and tetracycline (39%). The incidence of multiple drug resistance (MDR) varied across the
29 species – in *B. bronchiseptica*, 27.8% of resistant isolates showed MDR, while 9.1% of the
30 resistant isolates in *A. pleuropneumoniae*, and 4.8% in *P. multocida* showed MDR. This
31 study illustrated that Australian pig strains of bacterial respiratory pathogens exhibited low
32 levels of resistance to antimicrobial agents commonly used in the pig industry.

33 Keywords: Porcine respiratory disease; antimicrobial susceptibility testing;
34 antimicrobial resistance

35 1. Introduction

36 The porcine respiratory disease complex (PRDC), one of the most significant problems
37 affecting health and production in the pig industry worldwide, is described as a multifactorial
38 pneumonic state resulting from the interaction of bacteria, viruses and stresses caused by
39 management, environment and genetic conditions (Opriessnig et al., 2011). A range of
40 bacterial pathogens is associated with the initiation and progress of PRDC, with *Mycoplasma*
41 *hyopneumoniae*, *Actinobacillus pleuropneumoniae*, *Haemophilus parasuis*, *Pasteurella*
42 *multocida* and *Bordetella bronchiseptica* having significant roles (Fablet et al., 2011;
43 Opriessnig et al., 2011).

44 The use of antimicrobial agents, beta-lactams (ampicillin, penicillin and
45 cephalosporins) (except for *B. bronchiseptica*), co-trimoxazole (sulfonamide and
46 trimethoprim combination), florfenicol, macrolides (erythromycin, tilmicosin and
47 tulathromycin) and tetracyclines remains the best treatment option to control PRDC (Karriker
48 et al., 2013). The usage of antimicrobial agents has the potential to select for antimicrobial
49 resistance (Barton et al., 2003). Resistance to antimicrobials commonly used to treat PRDC
50 have been detected previously in porcine respiratory disease pathogens from many countries
51 (Vicca et al., 2004; de la Fuente et al., 2007; San Millan et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2009;
52 Chander et al., 2011; Kucerova et al., 2011; Nedbalcová et al., 2013).

53 In the past, antimicrobial resistance in Australia was reported in *A. pleuropneumoniae*
54 (Eaves et al., 1989) and *P. multocida* (Stephens et al., 1995). However, no information exists
55 for *B. bronchiseptica*. Thus, this study aimed to determine the antimicrobial susceptibility of
56 *A. pleuropneumoniae*, *P. multocida* and *B. bronchiseptica* Australian isolates against
57 antimicrobial agents used for bacterial respiratory pathogens.

58 2. Materials and Methods

59 The bacterial isolates tested were obtained from Australian pigs in diagnostic disease
60 investigations and then submitted to the Microbiology Research Group, EcoSciences
61 Precinct, Department of Agriculture Fisheries and Forestry (DAFF), Queensland, Australia
62 for confirmatory identification and/or serotyping. A total of 71 *A. pleuropneumoniae*, 51
63 *P. multocida* and 18 *B. bronchiseptica* isolates collected between the years 2002 to 2013 were
64 selected from the culture collection of the Microbiology Research Group. All isolates were
65 diagnostic submissions from Australian pig herds. The *A. pleuropneumoniae* isolates
66 represent 19% of the total available culture collection of the Microbiology Research Group
67 and originated from New South Wales (8 isolates), Queensland (24 isolates), South Australia
68 (8 isolates), Victoria (24 isolates) and Western Australia (7 isolates). The *P. multocida*
69 isolates came from New South Wales (12 isolates), Queensland (22 isolates), South Australia
70 (3 isolates), Victoria (1 isolate) and Western Australia (13 isolates). The *B. bronchiseptica*
71 isolates came from New South Wales (4 isolates), Queensland (13 isolates) and South
72 Australia (1 isolate). All isolates of *P. multocida* and *B. bronchiseptica* existing in the culture
73 collection were included in this study. With the exception of *B. bronchiseptica*, all the
74 isolates had been previously identified by a relevant species specific polymerase chain
75 reaction (Gram and Ahrens, 1998; Townsend et al., 1998; Miflin and Blackall, 2001). The
76 *B. bronchiseptica* isolates had been previously identified by sequencing of the 16S rDNA
77 gene using a previously described method (Blackall et al., 2001).

78 Antimicrobial resistance was detected by determination of MIC in duplicate using CLSI
79 standards and recommendations (CLSI, 2013). The media used were chocolate Mueller
80 Hinton agar (BD) for *A. pleuropneumoniae*; and cation adjusted Mueller Hinton broth (BD)
81 for *P. multocida* and *B. bronchiseptica*. The antimicrobials used were ampicillin, ceftiofur,

82 co-trimoxazole, florfenicol, erythromycin, penicillin, tetracycline, tilmicosin and
83 tulathromycin. As per the CLSI (2013), the quality control strains used were
84 *A. pleuropneumoniae* (ATCC 27090) and *S. aureus* (ATCC 29213).

85 The MIC was defined as the lowest antimicrobial concentration that inhibited bacterial
86 growth. The interpretation of MIC of each antimicrobial agent against the three bacterial
87 species was based on the breakpoints provided by the CLSI (2013), where available. As there
88 are no CLSI interpretative breakpoints for penicillin, the one for ampicillin was used (CLSI,
89 2013). The breakpoints (shown in Table 1) for some antimicrobial agents were taken from
90 other published studies and are detailed in the following text. For *A. pleuropneumoniae*,
91 breakpoints for erythromycin and co-trimoxazole were the ones used by Archambault et al.
92 (2012). For *P. multocida*, the breakpoints used were from the CLSI guidelines (CLSI, 2013)
93 except for erythromycin (Tang et al., 2009) and co-trimoxazole (Archambault et al., 2012).
94 The breakpoints used for *B. bronchiseptica* were the values provided by the CLSI guidelines
95 (CLSI, 2013) where available while some were taken from the published literature -
96 erythromycin (Tang et al., 2009) and co-trimoxazole (Archambault et al., 2012).

97

98 3. Results and Discussion

99 The MIC distribution of 71 *A. pleuropneumoniae*, 51 *P. multocida* and 18
100 *B. bronchiseptica* isolates, the percentage of resistance in each antimicrobial as well as the
101 MIC₅₀ and MIC₉₀ are shown in Table 1. The MICs of the reference strains in each test run
102 were within the CLSI acceptable quality control ranges. All *A. pleuropneumoniae* were
103 susceptible to ceftiofur, co-trimoxazole, florfenicol and tulathromycin. Overall, 66 of 71
104 (93%) of the *A. pleuropneumoniae* isolates were resistant to one or more antimicrobials,
105 showing seven antimicrobial resistance patterns. Resistance to ampicillin (8.5%), penicillin

106 (8.5%), tilmicosin (25%), tetracycline (75%) and erythromycin (89%) was detected. All
107 *P. multocida* isolates were susceptible to ceftiofur, tilmicosin and tulathromycin. Twenty one
108 (41%) of the isolates exhibited resistance, showing five antimicrobial resistance patterns in
109 which 2% were resistant to co-trimoxazole, 2% to florfenicol 4% to ampicillin and penicillin,
110 14% to erythromycin and 28% to tetracycline. All *B. bronchiseptica* isolates were susceptible
111 to co-trimoxazole and tulathromycin and resistant to all beta-lactams included in this study.
112 The obtained MICs showed resistance to florfenicol (6%), tilmicosin (22%), tetracycline
113 (39%) and erythromycin (94%). The antimicrobial resistance of *B. bronchiseptica* isolates
114 demonstrated six patterns.

115 In examining the results of the current study, there are a number of issues that need to
116 be considered. Firstly, it is important to understand that the study is based on a collection of
117 isolates submitted for identification and/or serotyping from across Australia. The collection,
118 however, cannot be regarded as being representative of the full diversity of these pathogens
119 present in the Australian pig herd. A much larger study, seen for example in the recent North
120 American study by Portis et al. (2013), would be required to gain insight into the national
121 picture in Australia. Secondly, while there is no specific knowledge, it is highly likely that the
122 isolates used in the current study would have come from pigs exposed to antimicrobial
123 treatment. Indeed, the antimicrobial agents used in this study are all registered for use in
124 Australian pigs (<https://portal.apvma.gov.au/pubcris>). The VetPath program in Europe
125 (de Jong et al., 2012) is seeking to address this issue by examining isolates obtained prior to
126 the commencement of any antimicrobial treatment program. Because of these issues (i.e. use
127 of a collection based on diagnostic submissions with an unknown history of antimicrobial
128 treatment), no direct comparisons of the levels of resistance found in the current study with
129 those reported in other studies in other countries will be made.

130 There was a lower prevalence of antimicrobial resistance found in *P. multocida* isolates
131 compared with the detected resistance in *A. pleuropneumoniae* (41% showed resistance to at
132 least one antimicrobial agent compared to 93% of *A. pleuropneumoniae* isolates). One isolate
133 showed co-resistance to all antimicrobials except for ceftiofur, tilmicosin and tulathromycin
134 and gave a high MIC to florfenicol ($\geq 128 \mu\text{g/ml}$). This particular *P. multocida* strain and one
135 *B. bronchiseptica* are the only isolates amongst all strains in this study to show florfenicol
136 resistance. Florfenicol resistance has previously been detected in *P. multocida* isolates in
137 Germany (Kehrenberg et al., 2005) and in the Czech Republic (Nedbalcová et al., 2013). The
138 *B. bronchiseptica* isolates showed resistance to all antimicrobial agents tested except for
139 tulathromycin and gave high MICs (64 to $\geq 128 \mu\text{g/ml}$) to ceftiofur and penicillin. Resistance
140 to beta-lactam agents (ampicillin, ceftiofur and penicillin) matches previous reports (Kadlec
141 et al., 2004; Chander et al., 2011). The beta-lactam resistance of *B. bronchiseptica* has been
142 previously detected to be associated with the production of beta lactamase enzymes and
143 reduced membrane permeability to ceftiofur (Kadlec et al., 2007; Chander et al., 2011).

144 For the purpose of this study, multidrug-resistance (MDR) was defined as resistance to
145 three or more antimicrobial classes. The MDR patterns obtained from the tested isolates are
146 shown in Table 2. In this study, there were two MDR patterns detected in 9.1% (6/66) of the
147 antimicrobial resistant *A. pleuropneumoniae* isolates. Only one (1/21) *P. multocida* isolate
148 showed MDR, while five *B. bronchiseptica* isolates (5/18) showed MDR. Interestingly, the
149 MDR patterns detected differed between Australian bacterial species. The variation across
150 species might be associated with the resistance mechanisms distinctive to each species which
151 can be evaluated by genetic characterisation (Kehrenberg et al., 2005; San Millan et al., 2009;
152 Chander et al., 2011; Archambault et al., 2012). Further investigations are essential to explain
153 the mechanisms involved in the antimicrobial resistance of Australian species.

154 In summary, this study presented data on the antimicrobial resistance profiles of
155 *A. pleuropneumoniae*, *P. multocida* and *B. bronchiseptica* isolated from Australian pigs. The
156 study found that Australian strains showed resistance to older (ampicillin, co-trimoxazole,
157 erythromycin, penicillin and tetracycline) and newer (ceftiofur, florfenicol, tilmicosin and
158 tulathromycin) generation antimicrobial agents. Antimicrobial susceptibility monitoring
159 programs of important veterinary pathogens are necessary to provide evidence based
160 guidance for antimicrobial therapy of bacterial diseases.

161

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167

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241

Table 1

Minimum inhibitory concentration distribution of 71 *A. pleuropneumoniae*, 51 *P. multocida* and 18 *B. bronchiseptica*.

Antimicrobial agents and bacterial species	Number of isolates with MIC ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) of											MIC ₅₀	MIC ₉₀	% R	
	≤ 0.12	0.25	0.5	1	2	4	8	16	32	64	≥ 128				
Ampicillin															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>	38	27				2	4						≤ 0.12	0.25	8.5
<i>P. multocida</i>	38	11	0	0	0	0	1	1					≤ 0.12	0.25	4
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>						5	8	3	2				9	16	100
Ceftiofur															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>	71												≤ 0.12	≤ 0.12	0
<i>P. multocida</i>	49	2											≤ 0.12	≤ 0.12	0
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>										14	4		64	≥ 128	100
Co-trimoxazole															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>	70	1											≤ 0.12	≤ 0.12	0
<i>P. multocida</i>	49	1				1							≤ 0.12	≤ 0.12	2
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>	9			9									≤ 0.12	1	0
Erythromycin															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>						8	38	25					8	16	89
<i>P. multocida</i>			3	3	20	18	7						2	8	14
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>						1	15	1	1				8	8	94
Florfenicol															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>		3	40	28									0.25	0.5	0
<i>P. multocida</i>	1		35	13		1					1		0.5	1	2
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>					4	13			1				4	4	6
Penicillin															
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>	7	40	18			1	5						0.25	0.5	8.5
<i>P. multocida</i>	46	2		1			2						≤ 0.12	≤ 0.12	4
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>										14	4		64	≥ 128	100
Tetracycline															

<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>		2	16	5	7	8	14	14	5	8	32	75
<i>P. multocida</i>	1	22	14	5	4	4		1		1	2	28
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>		11		7						0.5	2	39
Tilmicosin												
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>						7	46	16	2	16	32	25
<i>P. multocida</i>			2	16	17	13	3			4	8	0
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>						2	12	3	1	16	32	22
Tulathromycin												
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>							20	51		32	32	0
<i>P. multocida</i>	1	22	19	9						0.5	1	0
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>			2	9	5	2				1	2	0

Vertical lines indicate breakpoints for resistance; % R means percentage of resistance

MIC₅₀, MIC₉₀ - the lowest concentration of antimicrobial agent capable of inhibiting the growth of 50% and 90% of isolates, respectively

Co-trimoxazole- trimethoprim and sulfamethoxazole in the ratio 1:19; test ranges are expressed as the trimethoprim concentration.

Table 2
Antimicrobial resistant (AMR) patterns detected in *A. pleuropneumoniae*, *H. parasuis*,
P. multocida and *B. bronchiseptica* cultured from Australian pigs

Species	AMR pattern	Number of isolates ^a
<i>A. pleuropneumoniae</i>	EryTet	31
	EryTetTil	13
	Ery	12
	^b AmpEryPenTetTil	4
	Tet	3
	^b AmpEryPenTet	2
	EryTil	1
<i>P. multocida</i>	Tet	13
	Ery	5
	EryTet	1
	AmpPen	1
	^b AmpCotriEryFfcPenTet	1
<i>B. bronchiseptica</i>	AmpCefEryPen	9
	AmpCefEryPenTil	3
	^b AmpCefEryPenTetTil	2
	^b AmpCefEryTetPen	2
	^b AmpCefEryFfcPenTetTil	1
	AmpCefPen	1

^aNumber of isolates showing respective AMR pattern

^bMultidrug-resistant patterns exhibited by resistant isolates

Amp- ampicillin, Cef- ceftiofur, Cotri- cotrimoxazole, Ery- erythromycin, Ffc- florfenicol,
Pen- penicillin, Til- tilmicosin and Tula- tulathromycin