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Estratégias de diagnóstico e tratamento da gestação de risco em éguas

Fernanda Timbó D'el Rey Dantas

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Resumo

D'EL REY DANTAS, Fernanda Timbó. **Estratégias de diagnóstico e tratamento da gestação de risco em éguas**. 2019. 77f. Dissertação (Mestrado em Ciências) - Programa de Pós-Graduação em Veterinária, Faculdade de Veterinária, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2019.

A placentite ascendente é uma das principais causas de aborto, natimorto e parto prematuro em equinos. Dosagens hormonais tem sido utilizadas como auxílio no diagnóstico e manejo terapêutico da placentite. Poucas moléculas foram avaliadas quanto a sua difusão placentária e aplicabilidade no tratamento desta enfermidade. Os objetivos do presente trabalho foram: (1) verificar se há passagem transplacentária de doxiciclina em éguas híidas; (2) avaliar a utilização da mensuração plasmática de estradiol 17- β , estrógenos totais, progestinas e progesterona como marcadores de prognóstico gestacional em éguas com placentite induzida experimentalmente. Para o primeiro experimento, foram utilizadas 12 éguas saudáveis aos 320 dias de gestação; seis receberam doxiciclina manipulada (10mg/kg, via oral a cada 12h) até o parto, enquanto outras seis formaram o grupo controle. O parto das éguas tratadas foi induzido (ocitocina, 10UI, IM) quando o pH da secreção mamária era ≤ 6.4 . Durante a segunda fase do parto, os líquidos alantoideano e amnióticos foram coletados espontaneamente e por punção do âmnio, respectivamente. Amostras de plasma e líquido sinovial do potro foram obtidas imediatamente após o parto. As concentrações de doxiciclina no plasma e líquidos fetais/sinovial foram mensuradas por LC-MS/MS. Para o segundo experimento, éguas foram aleatoriamente divididas aos 300 dias de gestação em grupo controle saudável (CONT, n=8) e éguas nas quais a placentite ascendente foi induzida através da inoculação intracervical de *Streptococcus equi* subespécie *zooepidemicus* (n=38). As éguas com placentite induzida foram divididas em grupos tratados com sulfametoxazol-trimetoprim (TMS), flunixin meglumine (FM), altrenogest (ALT) e/ou cipionato de estradiol (ECP), conforme segue: (1) TMS+FM, n=8; (2) TMS+FM+ALT, n=8; (3) TMS+FM+ALT+ECP, n=6; (4) TMS+FM+ECP, n=6; e (5) sem tratamento (INOC), n=10. Os tratamentos foram iniciados 48h após a indução. Amostras de sangue foram obtidas de todas as éguas imediatamente antes da inoculação, diariamente por 12 dias (ou até o parto prematuro) e no dia do parto. As concentrações de estradiol 17- β e progesterona foram determinadas por quimiluminescência, enquanto os estrógenos totais e progestinas foram mensurados por radioimunoensaio. A doxiciclina atravessa a barreira placentária, atinge a unidade feto-placentária e deposita-se na articulação dos potros. Não foram observados sinais sugestivos de toxicidade causada pelo uso prolongado da doxiciclina nos potros ou nas éguas. No presente estudo, as concentrações de estradiol 17- β , progesterona, progestinas e estrógenos totais não apresentaram um padrão que pudesse auxiliar no prognóstico da gestação.

Palavras-chave: Placentite; Doxiciclina; Antibacteriano; Difusão placentária; Hormônios.

Abstract

D'EL REY DANTAS, Fernanda Timbó. **Diagnosis and treatment strategies of compromised pregnancies in mares**. 2019. 77f. Dissertation (Master degree in Science) - Programa de Pós-Graduação em Veterinária, Faculdade de Veterinária, Universidade Federal de Pelotas, Pelotas, 2019.

Ascending placentitis is one of the main causes of abortion, stillbirth and premature labor in the equine species. Plasma hormone concentrations have been used to aid in the diagnosis and therapeutic management of placentitis. Few molecules have been assessed regarding its diffusion through the placenta and suitability in the treatment of this pathology. The aims of this study were: (1) to verify placental diffusion of doxycycline in healthy mares; (2) to assess the usefulness of 17- β estradiol, progesterone, progestins and total estrogens concentrations as pregnancy prognostic markers in mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis. For the first experiment, twelve healthy mares were enrolled in this study at 320 days of gestation; six received compounded doxycycline (10mg/kg, PO, q12h) until delivery, while six were the control group. Foaling of the treated group was induced with oxytocin (10IU, IM) when mammary secretion pH was ≤ 6.4 . During second stage of labor, allantoic fluid was collected by free catch and amniotic fluid by puncture. Blood and synovial fluid samples from foals were collected immediately after parturition. Concentrations of doxycycline in plasma and fetal fluids were assessed with LC-MS/MS. As for the second experiment, on the 300th day of pregnancy, mares were randomly divided into a healthy control group (CONT, n=8) and mares in which ascending placentitis was experimentally induced via intracervical inoculation of *Streptococcus equi* subspecies *zooepidemicus* (n=38). Mares with experimentally induced placentitis were assigned to groups treated with sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim (TMS), flunixin meglumine (FM), altrenogest (ALT), and/or estradiol cypionate (ECP) as follows: (1) TMS+FM, n=8; (2) TMS+FM+ALT, n=8; (3) TMS+FM+ALT+ECP, n=6; (4) TMS+FM+ECP, n=6; and (5) no treatment (INOC, n=10). Treatment was started 48h after inoculation. Blood samples were obtained from all mares immediately prior to inoculation, daily for 12 days (or until premature delivery) and on foaling day. 17- β estradiol and progesterone concentrations were determined by chemiluminescence, whilst total estrogens and progestins were assessed via radioimmunoassay. Doxycycline crosses the equine placenta, reaches the fetoplacental unit and accumulates on foals' synovial fluid. Neither mares nor foals presented any clinical signs suggestive of doxycycline toxicity, despite prolonged usage of this antimicrobial. In the present study, 17- β estradiol, progesterone, progestins and total estrogens concentrations lacked a pattern that could indicate pregnancy prognosis.

Keywords: Placentitis; Doxycycline; Antibiotics; Placental diffusion; Hormones.

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Lista de abreviaturas e siglas

ALT	Altrenogest
ANOVA	Análise de variância
AST	Aspartato aminotransferase
CIM	Concentração inibitória mínima
CONT	Grupo controle
CV	Coefficient of variation
D1...12	Dias após inoculação
ECP	Cipionato de estradiol
EDTA	Ácido etilenodiaminotetracético
FM	Flunixin meglumine
GGT	Gama glutamil transferase
IM	Intramuscular
INOC	Grupo inoculado sem tratamento
LC-MS/MS	Cromatografia líquida acoplada à espectrometria de massas em série
LSM	Média dos mínimos quadrados
mg/kg	Miligramas por kilo
MMP	Metaloproteinase
ng/ml	Nanogramas por mililitro
P4	Progesterona

PO	Via oral
µg/ml	Microgramas por mililitro
q12h	A cada 12 horas
SEM	Erro padrão da média
Tet	Proteínas transmembranar
TMS	Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole
tRNA	Ácido ribonucleico transportador
UI	Unidades internacionais

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1 Introdução

A placentite ascendente é uma das principais causas de aborto, natimorto e parto prematuro em equinos, situações que geram grandes perdas econômicas (Hong et al., 1993a). Os agentes etiológicos envolvidos são fungos e bactérias, principalmente *Streptococcus equi* subspecies *zooepidemicus*, *Leptospira spp.* e *Escherichia coli* (Giles et al., 1993; Hong et al., 1993a, 1993b). A infecção ocorre com a penetração do agente no útero através da cérvix, causando um processo inflamatório necrosante na estrela cervical do alantocóron (Mays et al., 2002). Inicialmente, foi proposto que esta infecção poderia seguir pelo cordão umbilical ou pelo líquido amniótico (Mays et al., 2002). Porém, CANISSO et al., (2015a) em estudo com indução de placentite ascendente, realizou culturas de líquido alantoide e amniótico e não observou crescimento bacteriano nas amostras alantoideanas, apenas em uma amostra de líquido amniótico. Com isso, sugeriu que a infecção fetal se dá primariamente pelo cordão umbilical e que o líquido amniótico se contamina com secreções fetais, não sendo importante fonte de infecção do feto.

Os sinais clínicos observados em éguas com placentite ascendente são secreção vulvar purulenta e desenvolvimento mamário precoce, apesar destes não estarem sempre presentes (LeBlanc et al., 2004). O diagnóstico pode ser realizado aliando-se os referidos sinais clínicos a achados ultrassonográficos, como espessamento da junção útero-placentária e áreas de descolamento placentário, que podem evidenciar ou não a presença de secreção purulenta local (Canisso et al., 2015a; Morris et al., 2007).

A unidade feto-placentária é quem produz a maior parte dos hormônios que fazem a manutenção do terço final da gestação em equinos (Conley, 2016). Muitos destes hormônios são esteroides e o conhecimento acerca das suas funções ainda é limitado, especialmente na unidade feto-placentária (Canisso et al., 2015a). O perfil hormonal de éguas com alterações gestacionais vem sendo estudado há alguns anos em busca de ferramentas auxiliares no diagnóstico e tratamento destas alterações (Douglas, 2004; Morris et al., 2007; Ousey et al., 2005; Shikichi et al., 2017).

As progestinas são os hormônios mais importantes na manutenção da gestação. Durante os primeiros 150 dias, a progesterona é a principal progestina, sendo produzida pelos ovários maternos (Ousey et al., 2005). Após este período, a principal fonte passa a ser a placenta, que converte a pregnenolona produzida pela adrenal fetal (Ousey et al., 2005). Há então níveis muito baixos de progesterona e um predomínio da 5α -dihidroprogesterona, que é igualmente potente na ativação dos receptores equinos de progesterona (Scholtz et al., 2014). Algumas semanas antes do parto há um aumento gradual na concentração plasmática materna desses hormônios até que, dois ou três dias antes do parto, há uma queda (Legacki et al., 2016; Rossdale et al., 1991). Esse aumento das progestinas está relacionado ao desenvolvimento mamário e o início de mudanças eletrolíticas na secreção mamária, enquanto a queda acontece concomitantemente ao aumento do cortisol fetal (LeBlanc, 2010).

Assim como as progestinas, os estrógenos também são produzidos na unidade feto-placentária. Porém, neste caso, a produção se dá com a aromatização de andrógenos produzidos pelas gônadas fetais (Fowden et al., 2008; Pashen and Allen, 1979). As concentrações de estrógenos aumentam durante o segundo trimestre da gestação, tendo seu pico ao redor do 180º dia, quando começam a reduzir progressivamente (Douglas, 2004). Entretanto, nos últimos dias antes do parto as concentrações de 17β estradiol aumentam consideravelmente, especialmente à noite, coincidindo com um aumento na atividade mioelétrica do útero (Mcglathlin et al., 2004; O'Donnell et al., 2003).

Entre o 150º e o 280º dia de gestação, éguas com placentite geralmente apresentam concentrações plasmáticas mais altas de progestinas e mais baixas de estrógenos, quando comparadas com éguas híidas (Ball et al., 2013; Douglas, 2004). Deve-se observar, no entanto, que em casos de afecções placentárias mais agudas, as progestinas tendem a estar diminuídas, provavelmente pela falta de tempo hábil para uma resposta fetal com maior produção de pregnenolona (Ousey et al., 2005).

O tratamento da placentite tem três objetivos principais: reduzir a carga microbiana e sua dispersão pelos tecidos fetais, manter a quiescência uterina e bloquear a produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias (LeBlanc, 2010). Com isso, diversos protocolos terapêuticos tem sido testados. A utilização de antimicrobianos por si só já demonstrou melhorar substancialmente os resultados gestacionais, porém outras drogas, como anti-inflamatórios e hormônios, tem sido adicionadas aos

protocolos para aumentar as chances de sobrevivência do potro (Bailey et al., 2010; Christiansen et al., 2010; Curcio et al., 2017).

Um grande desafio na escolha dos fármacos utilizados é a falta de literatura acerca da passagem de moléculas pela placenta equina. Atualmente sabe-se que gentamicina, penicilina potássica, enrofloxacina, sulfametoxazol e trimetoprim são capazes de ultrapassar a barreira placentária (Ellerbrock et al., 2018; Murchie et al., 2006; Rebello et al., 2006). A combinação de sulfametoxazol e trimetoprim é a mais comumente utilizada no tratamento de placentite, especialmente pela biodisponibilidade oral do fármaco e sua boa penetração no útero (LeBlanc et al., 2004). A doxiciclina é uma tetraciclina de segunda geração caracterizada por maior biodisponibilidade oral, maior caráter lipofílico e penetração tecidual, além de melhor atividade contra gram-positivos e maior ligação a proteínas (Agwuh and Macgowan, 2006). Por essas características, teria grande potencial no tratamento da placentite, porém sua utilização nessa situação clínica ainda não foi avaliada.

A inflamação causada pela infecção da placenta leva a produção de prostaglandinas e aumenta a expressão de citocinas inflamatórias (Leblanc et al., 2012). Com isso, há aumento das contrações uterinas, o que pode levar ao parto prematuro (Mcglathlin et al., 2004). Para evitar que isso ocorra, é preconizado o uso de anti-inflamatórios, pois sabe-se que o prolongamento da gestação com consequente cronificação da placentite está associada a aceleração da maturação fetal (Rossdale et al., 1991). Nesse sentido, diversos anti-inflamatórios já foram empregados no tratamento de éguas com placentite como dexametasona, ácido acetil salicílico e flunixin meglumine (Christiansen et al., 2010; Curcio et al., 2017; LeBlanc, 2010).

Terapias hormonais também são bastante empregadas no tratamento da placentite. A mais comumente utilizada baseia-se na administração de progesterona exógena, especialmente o altrenogest (Bailey et al., 2010; LeBlanc, 2010). A duração do tratamento ainda é alvo de controvérsia. Em relação ao altrenogest, a recomendação é que não se prolongue o tratamento após os 320 dias de gestação, visto que observou-se aumento da duração do segundo estágio do parto e maior número de complicações neonatais em pôneis tratadas com este progestágeno até o parto (Neuhauser et al., 2008). Mais recentemente, CURCIO et al. (2017) demonstraram que éguas tratadas por 10 dias com sulfametoxazol + trimetoprim, flunixin meglumine e cipionato de estradiol tiveram tempo gestacional normal e não

houveram perdas gestacionais ou partos prematuros. Além disso, nenhum potro destas éguas foi classificado como “alto risco”, o que diferiu dos outros grupos de tratamentos. As respostas endócrinas dos potros com este tratamento também foram mais satisfatórias que as dos outros grupos (Müller et al., 2018).

Levando-se em consideração esses dados, este trabalho teve duas hipóteses principais: 1) Éguas com placentite ascendente induzida tratadas com cipionato de estradiol apresentam perfil hormonal similar a éguas com gestações saudáveis; 2) A doxiciclina atravessa a placenta, atingindo a circulação e os líquidos fetais.

Portanto, o objetivo do presente trabalho foi avaliar a utilização da mensuração plasmática de estradiol 17- β , estrógenos totais, progesterina e progesterona como marcadores de prognóstico gestacional em éguas com placentite induzida experimentalmente e verificar se há passagem transplacentária de doxiciclina em éguas híidas.

2 Artigos

2.1 Artigo 1

Doxiciclina: uma revisão sobre particularidades e utilização clínica na espécie equina

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DOXICICLINA: UMA REVISÃO SOBRE PARTICULARIDADES E UTILIZAÇÃO CLÍNICA NA ESPÉCIE EQUINA

RESUMO

As tetraciclina foram os primeiros antibacterianos de amplo espectro descritos, sendo uma das classes de antibacterianos mais utilizada na medicina veterinária. O uso em equinos não é tão expressivo, mas vem aumentando ao longo dos anos, especialmente por seu espectro de ação e baixo custo. O objetivo do presente trabalho foi descrever as particularidades e aplicações da doxiciclina na prática clínica de equinos, bem como as perspectivas futuras de utilização deste fármaco. O levantamento de informações foi realizado através de pesquisa nas plataformas Pubmed e Mendeley. A doxiciclina é um antibacteriano bacteriostático utilizado principalmente em infecções causadas por microorganismos intracelulares, porém é eficaz também contra bactérias gram negativas e positivas, clamídias, rickettsias, micoplasmas e alguns protozoários. Estudos recentes têm demonstrado outras propriedades desse fármaco além da antibacteriana, tais como ação anti-inflamatória e de inibição da lipase, colagenase, apoptose e angiogênese. Desta forma, a doxiciclina pode ser empregada como coadjuvante em diversas circunstâncias clínicas, com destaque para as afecções articulares. Os efeitos adversos são raros e estão relacionados ao desequilíbrio da microbiota intestinal. Mais estudos ainda são necessários acerca das propriedades não-antibacterianas da doxiciclina e sua segurança, porém as perspectivas são promissoras.

Palavras-chave: Tetraciclina. Metaloproteinasas. Osteoartrite. Teratogenicidade.

INTRODUÇÃO

As tetraciclina foram os primeiros antibacterianos de amplo espectro descritos, tendo eficácia contra bactérias gram-positivas, gram-negativas, clamídias, micoplasmas, rickettsias e alguns protozoários (CHOPRA; ROBERTS, 2001). É a classe de antibacterianos mais utilizada na medicina veterinária, sendo rotineiramente empregadas na produção animal. O uso em equinos e animais de companhia não é tão expressivo, mas vem aumentando ao longo dos anos, especialmente por seu espectro de ação e baixo custo (CASTILLO, 2013). Após descoberta da primeira molécula dessa classe, a clortetraciclina, realizada por Benjamin Duggar em 1945, grandes esforços foram feitos para que novas tetraciclina fossem obtidas. Deste modo, entre 1950 e 1970 ocorreu o desenvolvimento de diversos membros desta classe de antimicrobianos, tanto na forma de produtos naturais quanto semissintéticos (PEREIRA-MAIA et al., 2010).

A doxiciclina foi desenvolvida em 1966, sendo uma molécula da segunda geração de tetraciclina (CASTILLO, 2013). Dentro de sua classe, caracteriza-se por maior biodisponibilidade oral, maior caráter lipofílico e penetração tecidual, melhor atividade contra gram-positivos e maior ligação

a proteínas (AGWUH; MACGOWAN, 2006). As tetraciclina são utilizadas em menor escala em equinos, quando comparado ao uso em animais de produção, mesmo sendo um fármaco de fácil acesso e com amplo potencial terapêutico (CASTILLO, 2013). O objetivo do presente trabalho foi descrever as particularidades e aplicações da doxiciclina na prática clínica de equinos, bem como as perspectivas futuras de utilização deste fármaco.

METODOLOGIA

Para se realizar o levantamento de informações sobre a utilização da doxiciclina na espécie equina, foram utilizados os termos “doxycycline” e “equine” nas plataformas de busca do Mendeleey e do Pubmed, obtendo-se 46 e 73 artigos, respectivamente. A maior parte dos artigos foi encontrada pelas duas plataformas e todos os resumos foram lidos para avaliação da relevância. A exclusão dos artigos baseou-se na falta de correlação com o tema proposto e/ou ausência de achados relevantes para a revisão. Durante a construção deste manuscrito, esta busca foi repetida em diversas ocasiões.

MECANISMO DE AÇÃO E RESISTÊNCIA

As tetraciclina são antimicrobianos bacteriostáticos. Penetram na célula bacteriana através de transporte ativo ou passivo e se ligam de forma reversível à subunidade 30s do ribossomo bacteriano, impedindo que o tRNA associe-se ao ribossomo e promova a síntese proteica (SPEER et al., 1992). Moléculas mais lipofílicas são mais ativas que as hidrofílicas, por isso doxiciclina, minociclina e gliciliclina possuem maior atividade antimicrobiana que as demais tetraciclina (CHOPRA; ROBERTS, 2001).

Com a disseminação e o uso indiscriminado das tetraciclina no final dos anos 90, a resistência bacteriana contra os fármacos desta classe aumentou (PEREIRA-MAIA et al., 2010; SPEER et al., 1992). Existem dois mecanismos de resistência às tetraciclina de maior relevância clínica: o efluxo de medicamento e a proteção ribossomal (PEREIRA-MAIA et al., 2010). No mecanismo por efluxo, proteínas transmembranares (Tet A) ejetam as tetraciclina para fora da célula bacteriana, diminuindo seu nível intracelular. A proteção ribossomal é realizada por proteínas citoplasmáticas que impedem a ligação das tetraciclina aos ribossomos (PEREIRA-MAIA et al., 2010; SPEER et al, 1992).

ESPECTRO DE AÇÃO

A utilização mais notória da doxiciclina em equinos é no tratamento da infecção por *Anaplasma phagocytophilum* (antiga *Ehrliquia equi*), agente etiológico da Erliquiose Granulocítica Equina. As tetraciclinas são as drogas de eleição no tratamento de erliquioses em diversas espécies, inclusive em humanos, sendo extremamente eficientes no controle destas bactérias intracelulares, apesar da pressão de seleção (DUMLER; BAKKER, 1995; NEER et al., 2002; PAPICH, 2003). Maurin et al. (2003) avaliaram a sensibilidade a diversos antimicrobianos de oito cepas de *A. phagocytophilum* isoladas de diferentes espécies animais, incluindo equinos. Todas as cepas foram suscetíveis a doxiciclina (concentração inibitória mínima $\leq 0,03\mu\text{g/ml}$), sendo resistentes a ampicilina, amicacina, ceftriaxona, azitromicina e eritromicina.

A infecção causada por *Neorickettsia risticii*, que caracteriza-se por causar diarreia aguda em equinos, é conhecida como Febre do Rio Potomac ou Erliquiose Monocítica Equina. Esta afecção também pode ser tratada com a doxiciclina (MAGDESIAN, 2015). É uma enfermidade sazonal que ocorre de forma endêmica na região sul do Rio Grande do Sul e Uruguai, especialmente nas proximidades da Lagoa Mirim. Apresenta alta letalidade, mas muitos animais se recuperam após o tratamento com tetraciclinas (COIMBRA et al., 2006; DUTRA et al., 2001).

Outros microorganismos intracelulares que acometem os equinos, como a *Lawsonia intracellularis*, também são sensíveis a doxiciclina (SAMPIERI et al., 2006). Conforme já mencionado, este antibacteriano possui espectro de ação muito amplo, sendo eficaz contra diversos patógenos que causam infecções nesta espécie (CASTILLO, 2013).

Em estudo com 168 isolados bacterianos de equinos, Bryant et al. (2000) observaram sensibilidade significativa a doxiciclina (Tabela 1). Nos últimos anos, estudos com isolados clínicos de equinos tem demonstrado sensibilidade satisfatória a este antimicrobiano. Ferrer e Palomares (2018) analisaram dados retrospectivos de culturas e antibiogramas realizados a partir de swabs uterinos de éguas com metrite e observaram sensibilidade à doxiciclina em isolados gram negativos e gram positivos. Apenas o gênero *Enterobacter spp.* apresentou maior índice de resistência, com apenas 40% dos isolados demonstrando sensibilidade a doxiciclina.

TABELA 1 - CONCENTRAÇÃO INIBITÓRIA MÍNIMA DE DOXICICLINA ($\mu\text{g/ml}$) NECESSÁRIA PARA INIBIR O CRESCIMENTO EM 50% (CIM50%) E 90% (CIM90%) EM 168 ISOLADOS BACTERIANOS DE EQUINOS ENVIADOS A UM HOSPITAL VETERINÁRIO.

Microorganismo	N	CIM _{50%}	CIM _{90%}	Varição
Gram-negativos				
<i>Acintobacter spp.</i>	6	$\leq 0,12$	$\leq 0,25$	$\leq 0,6 - 2$
<i>Aeromonas spp.</i>	1	-	-	0,25
<i>Citrobacter freundii</i>	1	-	-	>4
<i>Enterobacter aerogenes</i>	8	>4	>4	1 - >4

<i>Enterobacter cloacae</i>	13	>4	>4	2 – >4
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	22	≤ 1	>4	0,5 – >4
<i>Flavobacterium</i> spp.	1	-	-	0,12
Gram-negative rod (unspeciated)	4	≤ 0,12	≤ 0,12	0,12 – 1
<i>Klebsiella pneumoniae</i>	9	≤ 2	>4	0,12 – >4
<i>Klebsiella oxytoca</i>	2	-	-	1
<i>Pasteurella haemolytica</i>	2	-	-	0,12 – 0,5
<i>Pasteurella pneumotropica</i>	6	≤ 0,25	≤ 0,25	0,12 – 1
<i>Pasteurella</i> spp.	7	≤ 0,25	≤ 0,25	0,12 – 0,5
<i>Proteus vulgaris</i>	1	-	-	2
<i>Providencia rettgeri</i>	1	-	-	>4
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	13	>4	>4	>4
<i>Pseudomonas</i> spp.	5	≤ 0,12	>4	≤ 0,06 – >4
<i>Pseudomonas stutzeri</i>	1	-	-	1
<i>Salmonella</i> Group C1	4	2	2	2
<i>Salmonella</i> Group D	2	-	-	2
<i>Serratia marcescens</i>	6	>4	>4	2 – >4
Gram-positivos				
<i>Rhodococcus equi</i>	5	≤ 0,25	≤ 0,25	≤ 0,06 – 2
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	15	≤ 0,12	≤ 0,25	0,12 – >4
<i>Staphylococcus</i> spp.	3	≤ 0,06	>4	≤ 0,06 – >4
<i>Streptococcus</i> Gr. D <i>Enterococcus</i>	5	≤ 0,12	>4	0,12 – >4
<i>Streptococcus</i> spp.	2	-	-	≤ 0,06
<i>Streptococcus zooepidemicus</i>	20	≤ 0,06	≤ 1	≤ 0,06 – >4
<i>Streptococcus equi</i>	3	≤ 0,06	≤ 0,12	≤ 0,06 – 0,12

Fonte: Adaptado de BRYANT et al. (2000).

De forma semelhante, só que em estudo com isolados bacterianos de sinovite séptica, Robinson et al. (2016) avaliaram a sensibilidade bacteriana a diversos antibacterianos de primeira e segunda linha. A doxiciclina foi um dos mais eficientes in vitro, sendo eficaz contra a maior parte dos isolados gram positivos e negativos.

POSOLOGIA

A doxiciclina está disponível em apresentações orais e injetáveis. Entretanto, em equinos, sua única indicação é a oral, visto que há relatos de colapso cardiovascular após a administração intravenosa (RIOND et al., 1992).

Em humanos, assim como em outras espécies, a alimentação não parece influenciar na absorção oral da doxiciclina, diferentemente do que acontece com as demais tetraciclina (WELLING et al., 1977). Em equinos, no entanto, Davis et al. (2006) constataram melhor absorção da doxiciclina em jejum (12 horas), possivelmente pelo conteúdo fibroso da ingesta desta espécie, que formaria uma barreira física à absorção. Na rotina clínica é inviável a realização de jejum prévio às administrações de doxiciclina, visto que a posologia recomendada é 10mg/kg a cada

12 horas. Entretanto, o ideal é que a alimentação seja evitada imediatamente antes e após a administração do medicamento, de forma que haja a mínima interferência possível na absorção (DAVIS et al., 2006).

Apesar da baixa biodisponibilidade relatada após administração oral em equinos (2,7%), a doxiciclina atinge concentrações plasmáticas adequadas e é uma opção para o tratamento de infecções causadas por microorganismos suscetíveis nesta espécie (DAVIS et al, 2006). Por ser altamente lipofílico, este fármaco tem a capacidade de se acumular no interior das células atingindo níveis intracelulares tão altos quanto os séricos. Em estudo realizado com equinos hígidos, Davis et al. (2006) observaram concentração máxima de doxiciclina 17 vezes mais alta em células polimorfonucleadas em relação ao plasma.

Em potros, a biodisponibilidade oral da doxiciclina parece ser superior, quando comparada a de equinos adultos (WOMBLE et al., 2007). A dose de 10mg/kg a cada 12 horas resulta em concentrações plasmáticas mais altas que em adultos, além de níveis pulmonares considerados eficientes contra *Rhodococcus equi* e *Streptococcus* beta-hemolíticos, as quais são as principais causas de pneumonia em potros até 6 meses de idade (WOMBLE et al., 2007). Entretanto, apesar de atingir níveis plasmáticos que seriam eficazes, em estudo com a utilização de culturas de macrófagos de equinos infectados experimentalmente, a doxiciclina não se mostrou eficaz contra o *Rhodococcus equi* (GIGUÈRE et al, 2015).

UTILIZAÇÃO TERAPÊUTICA

Além da atividade antibacteriana, outras propriedades das tetraciclina vêm sendo estudadas. Em menor ou maior grau, a depender do efeito estudado, as moléculas desta classe apresentam ação anti-inflamatória e de inibição da lipase, colagenase, apoptose e angiogênese, além de outras funções (SAPADIN; FLEISHMAJER, 2006).

Diversos estudos (BRYANT et al., 2000; FORTIER, 2009; MAHER et al., 2014; SCHNABEL et al., 2010; WANG et al., 2017) vem sendo realizados avaliando outras aplicações da doxiciclina, notadamente em doenças degenerativas. Mais recentemente, Wang et al. (2017) evidenciaram possíveis efeitos benéficos de baixas doses de doxiciclina no metabolismo da glicose em modelo experimental animal de diabetes. Neste estudo foi observada diminuição da inflamação sistêmica e melhora no controle glicêmico, perfil lipídico, além de morfologia e função de ilhotas pancreáticas, abrindo novas perspectivas para a utilização deste fármaco.

Em equinos, os efeitos não-antimicrobianos da doxiciclina têm sido pesquisados desde o início dos anos 2000. A aplicação mais promissora é como adjuvante no tratamento da osteoartrite, visto que a administração oral promove altas concentrações intra-articulares (BRYANT et al., 2000; SCHNABEL et al, 2010). Estudos recentes com doses mais baixas (5mg/kg) que as preconizadas para tratamento de infecções demonstraram, além do acúmulo intra-articular do fármaco, inibição de metaloproteinases no líquido sinovial, o que seria desejável no tratamento das osteoartrites (MAHER et al., 2014). É importante ressaltar ainda que esses estudos sugerem que não há risco de indução de resistência bacteriana nessa posologia, já que as concentrações de doxiciclina no plasma e no líquido sinovial permanecem abaixo do CIM₅₀ da maior parte dos microorganismos (MAHER et al., 2014; SCHNABEL et al., 2010). Essa é uma observação particularmente importante no contexto atual de emergência de bactérias super-resistentes e é mais um fator encorajador de pesquisas na área.

Atualmente a recomendação de baixas doses de doxiciclina como tratamento adjuvante da osteoartrite tem sido realizada da seguinte forma: durante a primeira semana de tratamento, administra-se 5mg/kg uma vez por dia. Na segunda semana, utiliza-se 5mg/kg a cada 48h e, na terceira semana, esta mesma dosagem a cada 72h (FORTIER, 2009). Uma observação importante é que as tetraciclina possuem alta ligação proteica (DAVIS et al., 2006) e, portanto, não devem ser utilizadas concomitantemente a outras drogas com essa característica, como a fenilbutazona, por exemplo.

EFEITOS ADVERSOS

Em geral, a doxiciclina e outras tetraciclina são drogas seguras (CASTILLO, 2013). Assim como outros antimicrobianos, o principal efeito adverso que pode ser observado com seu uso em equinos é a diarreia causada pela alteração da microbiota intestinal. Esse efeito, no entanto, é pouco frequente. Com a utilização da dose terapêutica de doxiciclina (10mg/kg), apenas Barr et al. (2013) relataram incidência de diarreia. Mesmo assim, de 453 animais que receberam o fármaco, apenas quatro desenvolveram esse tipo de alteração.

Em humanos, o uso das tetraciclina não é recomendado durante a gestação e em indivíduos em fase de crescimento devido o risco de deposição em ossos e dentes durante a calcificação (PEREIRA-MAIA et al., 2010). Entretanto, é questionável se isso seria válido para todos os fármacos desta classe. Cross et al. (2016) realizaram uma revisão sistemática avaliando o uso de

doxiciclina em mulheres gestantes e crianças e observaram que não há correlação entre a utilização do antibacteriano e efeitos teratogênicos ou descoloramento dos dentes em crianças. Isso sugere que, diferentemente da tetraciclina, a doxiciclina é um antibiótico de uso seguro nestas categorias.

Em equinos, existem poucos estudos avaliando o uso de antibacterianos durante a gestação (MACPHERSON et al., 2012; MACPHERSON et al., 2017; MURCHIE et al., 2006; SANTSCHI; PAPICH, 2000). Com relação à doxiciclina, bem como qualquer outra tetraciclina, ainda não foram publicados resultados em éguas gestantes. Dados preliminares de estudos conduzidos pelo nosso grupo demonstram não haver qualquer prejuízo a curto prazo para o potro na utilização da doxiciclina a partir dos 300 dias de gestação em dose única e a partir dos 320 dias na posologia recomendada (dados não publicados). Entretanto, mais avaliações ainda são necessárias para atestar a segurança deste fármaco nestas circunstâncias.

CONCLUSÃO

A doxiciclina é um antibacteriano com amplas possibilidades de aplicação na clínica de equinos, porém muitas vezes subutilizado. Além do amplo espectro de ação contra microorganismos que comumente infectam esta espécie, sua utilização como anti-inflamatório e adjuvante no tratamento da osteoartrite apresentam grande potencial na medicina equina. Ademais, a perspectiva de utilização com segurança durante a gestação representa uma possibilidade promissora para a doxiciclina na espécie equina. Mais estudos são necessários visando melhor esclarecer suas propriedades não-antibacterianas e segurança na utilização nessas situações.

DOXYCYCLINE: A REVIEW REGARDING PROPERTIES AND CLINICAL USE IN THE EQUINE SPECIES

ABSTRACT

Tetracyclines were the first broad spectrum antibacterials described, being one of the most widely used classes of antibacterials in veterinary medicine. The use in the equine species is not as expressive, but has been increasing over the years, especially for its broad spectrum and low cost. The aim of the present study was to describe the particularities and applications of doxycycline in the clinical practice of horses, as well as the future prospects of usage. The

information was collected using Pubmed and Mendeley platforms. Doxycycline is a bacteriostatic antibacterial used mainly in infections caused by intracellular microorganisms, but its spectrum of action goes far beyond, being effective against Gram negative and positive bacteria, chlamydia, rickettsia, mycoplasma and some protozoa. Recent studies have demonstrated other properties besides the antibacterial, such as anti-inflammatory action and inhibition of lipase, collagenase, apoptosis and angiogenesis. In this way, doxycycline can be used as a coadjuvant in several clinical circumstances, especially articular affections. Adverse effects are rare and related to intestinal microbiota imbalance. Further studies are still needed on the non-antibacterial properties of doxycycline and its safety, but the prospects are promising.

Keywords: Tetracyclines. Metalloproteinases. Osteoarthritis. Teratogenicity.

DOXICICLINA: UNA REVISIÓN SOBRE PARTICULARIDADES Y UTILIZACIÓN CLÍNICA EN LA ESPECIE EQUINA

RESUMEN

Las tetraciclinas fueron los primeros antibacterianos de amplio espectro descritos, siendo una de las clases de antibacterianos más utilizada en la medicina veterinaria. El uso en equinos no es tan expresivo, pero viene aumentando a lo largo de los años, especialmente por su espectro de acción y bajo costo. El objetivo del presente trabajo fue describir las particularidades y aplicaciones de la doxiciclina en la práctica clínica de equinos, así como las perspectivas futuras de utilización de este fármaco. El levantamiento de informaciones fue realizado a través de investigación en las plataformas Pubmed y Mendeley. La doxiciclina es un antibacteriano bacteriostático utilizado principalmente en las infecciones causadas por microorganismos intracelulares, pero su espectro de acción va mucho más allá, siendo eficaz contra bacterias gram negativas y positivas, clamidias, rickettsias, micoplasmas y algunos protozoarios. Los estudios recientes han demostrado otras propiedades de este fármaco además de la antibacteriana, tales como la acción antiinflamatoria y la inhibición de la lipasa, la colagenasa, la apoptosis y la angiogénesis. De esta forma, la doxiciclina puede ser empleada como coadyuvante en diversas circunstancias clínicas, con destaque para las afecciones articulares. Los efectos adversos son raros y están relacionados con el desequilibrio de la microbiota intestinal. Más estudios todavía son necesarios acerca de las propiedades no antibacterianas de la doxiciclina y su seguridad, pero las perspectivas son prometedoras.

Palabras clave: Tetraciclinas. Metaloproteinases. Osteoarthritis. Teratogenicidad.

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3.2 Artigo 2

Doxycycline diffuses through the fetoplacental unit of late pregnant mares and accumulates in the joints of resulting foals

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Aceito para apresentação na 67^a Annual Convention of the American Association of Equine Practitioners

Doxycycline diffuses through the fetoplacental unit of late pregnant mares and accumulates in the joints of resulting foals

Take home message. Doxycycline crosses equine placenta accumulates in foal's joints of and did not result in side effects to mares or respective foals.

Introduction

Evolving antimicrobial resistance dictates the need for expansion of the armamentarium, however, unfortunately, there is no data on the toxicity and transplacental diffusion of tetracyclines in the mare. Doxycycline is a broad-spectrum antimicrobial used to treat intracellular microorganisms due to its high cellular penetration. This study assessed doxycycline diffusion to the fetoplacental unit during late pregnancy and potential toxicity to the resulting foal.

Materials and Methods

Twelve healthy light-breed mares were enrolled at 320 days of gestation. Six mares received compounded doxycycline_a (10mg/kg, PO, q12h) until delivery, while other six served as controls. All mares had daily physical examinations and mammary gland secretions assessment to detect impending foaling. Foaling was induced with oxytocin (10IU, IM) when mammary secretion pH was ≤ 6.4 . During second stage labor, allantoic fluid was collected by free catch and amniotic fluid by puncture. Synovial fluid and plasma samples from foals were collected immediately after parturition. Concentrations of doxycycline in plasma and fetal fluids were assessed with LC-MS/MS.

Results and discussion

Mares received 15 ± 2 days (Range 9-23days) of doxycycline. Doxycycline concentrations in allantoic fluid were higher (73.5 ± 13.9 ng/mL) than amniotic fluid (8.3 ± 3.3 ng/mL). Doxycycline was detected in foal plasma (35.5 ± 4.3 ng/mL) and foal joints (23.6 ± 4.2 ng/mL) at parturition. Neither mares nor foals presented clinical signs of doxycycline toxicity (e.g., diarrhea and jaundice). This is the first study to demonstrate that doxycycline crosses the equine placenta. While additional longitudinal studies assessing potential side effects of doxycycline on foals born

from treated mares are needed, doxycycline may be a useful drug to treat various infections in pregnant mares.

Acknowledgments

The authors have adhered to the Principles of the Veterinary Medical Ethics of the AVMA and declare no conflicts of interest.

Footnotes

^aDoxycycline Rood and Riddle Pharmacy, Lexington KY.

Doxycycline diffuses through the fetoplacental unit of late pregnant mares and accumulates in the joints of resulting foals

Introduction

Tetracyclines are bacteriostatic antibiotics acting through inhibition of bacterial protein synthesis by blocking the interaction of aminoacyl-tRNA with ribosome.¹ Doxycycline is a second-generation tetracycline characterized by greater tissue penetration, protein binding and lipophilic character.^{2,3} For this reason, doxycycline is recommended in the treatment of intracellular bacteria that affect horses, such as *Anaplasma phagocytophilum*, *Neorickettsia risticii* and *Lawsonia intracellularis*.^{4,5,6} Despite low bioavailability after oral administration in horses, optimal plasma levels are achieved and this is the election route in the equine species, since cardiovascular collapse has been described after intravenous administration.^{7,8} Recent studies have evidenced doxycycline accumulates in synovial fluid compared to plasma and diminish MMP-13 expression.^{9,10} This opened new perspectives for using this drug in the treatment of osteoarthritis as a disease modifying drug.

Pregnancy leads to physiologic changes. Expansion of plasma volume, increased drug clearance and extracellular water (especially because of fetal fluids) and alterations in drug protein binding are among these changes.¹¹ Also, drugs diffusion through placenta ought to be taken into account, since there might be consequences to the foal with its usage (e.g. renal toxicity).

Doxycycline was developed after other tetracyclines, so it was labeled as potentially harmful during pregnancy because of severe side effects, including teratogenicity, that have been reported after tetracyclines use. Nevertheless, a critical evaluation of that potential is warranted since evidence disassociates it from the permanent tooth discoloration, bone growth disturbance and teratogenicity seen with tetracycline when administered during pregnancy or early childhood in humans.¹² Evolving antimicrobial resistance dictates the need for expansion of the armamentarium, however, unfortunately, there is no data on the toxicity and transplacental

diffusion of tetracyclines in the mare. This study assessed doxycycline diffusion to the fetoplacental unit during late pregnancy and potential toxicity to the resulting foal.

Material and methods

Animals and design

Twelve healthy light-breed mares were enrolled at 320 days of gestation. Six mares received compounded doxycycline (10mg/kg, PO, q12h) until delivery, while the remaining six untreated mares served as controls. Daily physical examinations and mammary gland secretions pH testing was performed on all mares to predict impending foaling. Blood samples were collected on day 320, and then every seven days until parturition for complete blood cell counts, serum chemistries, and plasma doxycycline concentrations. Foaling was induced with oxytocin (10 units, IM) when mammary secretion pH was ≤ 6.4 . During second stage labor, allantoic fluid was collected by free catch and amniotic fluid by puncture of the amniotic membrane. Blood samples from the mares and foals were collected immediately after parturition and 7 days post-partum. Foals were examined twice a day for 7 days post-partum. Plasma (mare and foal) and fetal fluids doxycycline concentrations were assessed with LC-MS/MS. Assay between- run and within-run CVs for doxycycline were 3.3% and 7.7%, respectively. All mares and foals received standard post-partum care for 60 days. Blood parameters were assessed for normal distribution with Shapiro-Wilk's test and then compared with (ANOVA) Test (Statistix 10).

Blood samples were collected from the jugular vein in heparin tubes using vacutainer needle systems immediately before administration and then 0.25, 0.5, 0.75, 1, 2, 3, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours after it. Synovial fluid samples were collected using 21G needles from the radiocarpal, intermediate carpal, metacarpophalangeal or talocrural joints immediately prior to doxycycline administration and after 1, 12, 24, 48, 72 and 96 hours. Samples were deposited into heparin tubes right after collection and each joint was sampled only once to minimize blood

contamination. Blood and synovial fluid samples were centrifuged (1000g for 10min) and supernatants were frozen at -70°C until analysis.

Synovial fluid samples from the foal were collected at birth and 24 hours later. Blood samples were collected daily in heparin tubes and tubes without anticoagulant until neonates were 7 days old, when blood samples were also collected in a EDTA tube for hematological evaluation. All blood samples (except those collected in EDTA tubes) were centrifuged (1000g for 10min) and plasma and serum were frozen at -70°C until analysis.

Biochemical analysis

Serum concentrations of AST, GGT, total, unconjugated and conjugated bilirubin, urea and creatinine were analysed in an automatic biochemical system (Labmax Plenno, Labtest Diagnóstica SA, Lagoa Santa, Brazil). Results are demonstrated by mean \pm standard error (SE) and were submitted to Shapiro-Wilk normality test. Parametric variables were compared through analysis of variance (ANOVA) and Tukey's Test.

LC/MS/MS method description

Samples were analyzed by Thermo Altis Triple Quadrupole LC/MS/MS system in [removed to preserve confidentiality]. Software TraceFinder 4.1 is used for data acquisition and analysis. The LC separation is performed on a Thermo Accucore Vanquish C18+ column (2.1 x 100mm, 1.5 μm) with mobile phase A (0.1% formic acid in water) and mobile phase B (0.1% formic acid in acetone) with the flow rate was 0.4 mL/min. The linear gradient was as follows: 0-0.5 min, 2% B; 3.5-6.5 min, 100% B; 7-9 min, 2%B. The autosampler was set at 10°C . The injection volume was 5 μL . Mass spectra was acquired under positive electrospray ionization (ESI) with the ion spray voltage of 3500 V. Other ESI conditions were as follows: Sheath gas - 41; Aux gas - 18; Ion transfer tube - 335°C ; Vaporizer - 260°C , respectively. Multiple reaction monitoring (MRM) was used for quantitation: Doxycycline m/z 445.1 --> m/z 428.1; internal standard demeclocycline m/z 465.1 --> m/z 448.1.

Sample preparation

An aliquot of 50 μL plasma sample was mixed with 80 μL methanol and spiked with 20 μL 1 $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$ demeclocycline. After vortex, the mixture was subject to centrifugation for 10 minutes at 12,000 rpm. The supernatant was collected for LC/MS/MS instrument injection.

Statistical analysis

Descriptive statistics were applied for all but biochemical analysis and hematological parameters. Results are described as mean \pm SEM. The statistical analysis was conducted using the software Statistix 10.0 (Analytical Software, Tallahassee, Florida, USA). Significance was set as $p < 0.05$.

Results and discussion

The concentration time curve of doxycycline in pregnant mares can be visualized in Figure 1. On average, mares in the second experiment received 15 ± 2 days of doxycycline (Range 9-23 days). Two mares foaled without having their allantoic fluid collected. Doxycycline concentrations in allantoic fluid were higher ($73.55 \pm 13.93 \text{ ng/mL}$) than amniotic fluid ($8.32 \pm 3.31 \text{ ng/mL}$), as shown in Table 1. This is expected once there is placental diffusion of a drug, since the allantoic cavity stores fetal excretions. Ellerbrock and collaborators¹³ evaluated the diffusion of enrofloxacin and ciprofloxacin and observed higher allantoic fluid concentrations of ciprofloxacin, but not of enrofloxacin. This difference between the drugs was not expected, since both would be preferentially excreted in the allantoic cavity but might be due to placental metabolism of the drug or diffusion back to the maternal plasma.

Doxycycline was detected in foal plasma ($35.52 \pm 4.28 \text{ ng/mL}$) and joints ($23.66 \pm 4.25 \text{ ng/mL}$) at the time of parturition. To the best of our knowledge, there is no other study assessing distribution of antimicrobials to the equine neonate joints. This ought to be taken into account when using this drug in broodmares, since its local effects in neonatal foal joints is

unknown. Also, this might affect drug distribution and consequently plasma levels in the mare and target tissues.

Neither mares nor foals presented any clinical signs suggestive of doxycycline toxicity (e.g., diarrhea and jaundice), despite prolonged usage of this antimicrobial. Hematological and biochemical evaluations did not show any differences between treated vs. non-treated control foals (Tables 2 and 3). This is the first study to demonstrate that doxycycline crosses the equine placenta and accumulates on foals' synovial fluid. While additional longitudinal studies assessing potential side effects of doxycycline on foals born from treated mares are needed, doxycycline may be a useful drug to treat various infections in pregnant mares.

Acknowledgments

The authors have adhered to the Principles of the Veterinary Medical Ethics of the AVMA and declare no conflicts of interest.

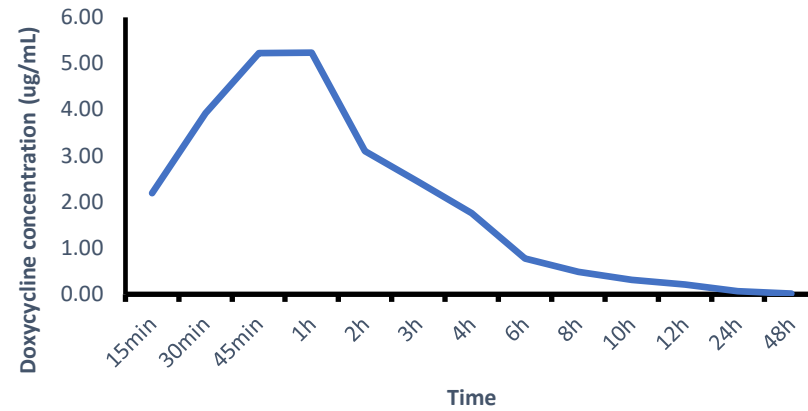
Footnotes

^aDoxycycline Rood and Riddle Pharmacy, Lexington KY.

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Figure 1. Concentration time curve of doxycycline in pregnant mares.**Table 1.** Doxycycline concentrations in allantoid, amniotic and synovial fluid and plasma of foals.

Sample	Mare #1 (ng/mL)	Mare #2 (ng/mL)	Mare #3 (ng/mL)	Mare #4 (ng/mL)	Mare #5 (ng/mL)	Mare #6 (ng/mL)	Mean±SEM (ng/mL)
Allantoic fluid	-	46.1	55.6	106.8	85.7	-	73.55±13.93
Amniotic fluid	14.0	5.4	ND	5.9	21.8	2.8	9.99±3.31
Foal plasma	35.5	42.1	29.9	21.6	32.1	51.9	35.52±4.28
Foal Synovial fluid	25.3	42.9	12.2	19.9	22.8	18.8	23.66±4.25

ND: not detected.

Table 2. Mean \pm SEM of hematological parameters of foals at birth, 24 and 48 hours, and 7 days of age of the Control and Doxycycline group.

Hematology	Control Group (n=6)				Doxycycline Group (n=7)			
	Birth	24h	48h	7 days	Birth	24h	48h	7 days
Red blood cells ($\times 10^6/\mu\text{L}$)	11.64 \pm 0.43	9.64 \pm 0.43	9.34 \pm 0.43	8.92 \pm 0.43	9.78 \pm 0.43	9.17 \pm 0.43	8.52 \pm 0.43	8.00 \pm 0.43
Hemoglobin (g/dL)	14.36 \pm 0.35	12.50 \pm 0.35	11.68 \pm 0.35	10.88 \pm 0.35	13.94 \pm 0.35	12.40 \pm 0.35	11.88 \pm 0.35	11.02 \pm 0.35
Hematocrit (%)	47.24 \pm 1.21	39.42 \pm 1.21	36.02 \pm 1.21	33.98 \pm 1.21	42.14 \pm 1.21	35.78 \pm 1.21	33.34 \pm 1.21	32.82 \pm 1.21
Mean Cell Volume (fL)	40.52 \pm 1.37	41.04 \pm 1.37	38.44 \pm 1.37	38.02 \pm 1.37	40.30 \pm 1.53	38.47 \pm 1.53	39.50 \pm 1.53	41 \pm 1.53
Mean Cell Hemoglobin Concentration (%)	30.46 \pm 0.45	31.72 \pm 0.45	32.53 \pm 0.45	32.08 \pm 0.45	33.12 \pm 0.45	34.74 \pm 0.45	35.40 \pm 0.45	33.70 \pm 0.45
Total Plasma Proteins (g/dL)	4.6 \pm 0.27	6.44 \pm 0.27	6.2 \pm 0.27	6.36 \pm 0.27	5.43 \pm 0.35	7.77 \pm 0.35	8.37 \pm 0.35	6.80 \pm 0.35
Platelets ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	360 \pm 61.71	235 \pm 61.71	390 \pm 61.71	298 \pm 61.71	290 \pm 61.71	209 \pm 61.71	213 \pm 61.71	210 \pm 61.71
White Blood Cells ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	8,540 \pm 1,005	7,900 \pm 1,005	7,360 \pm 1,005	11,900 \pm 1,005	9,223 \pm 1,297	9,000 \pm 1,297	7,307 \pm 1,297	12,567 \pm 1,297
Segmented neutrophils ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	6,261 \pm 922.55	5,636 \pm 922.55	5,735 \pm 922.55	9,314 \pm 922.55	6,448 \pm 922.55	6,356 \pm 922.55	4,594 \pm 922.55	8,087 \pm 922.55
Lymphocytes ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	2,143 \pm 366.81	2,041 \pm 366.81	1,538 \pm 366.81	2,345 \pm 366.81	2,406 \pm 366.81	2,050 \pm 366.81	1,914 \pm 366.81	3,429 \pm 366.81

Table 3. Mean \pm SEM of biochemistry metabolites of foals at birth, 24, 48, 72h and 7 days of age of the Control and Doxycycline group.

Blood Biochemistry	Control Group (n=6)					Doxycycline Group (n=7)				
	Birth	24h	48h	72h	7 days	Birth	24h	48h	72h	7 days
Creatinine (mg/dL)	2.42 \pm 0.35 ^A	1.18 \pm 0.20 ^{BC}	0.95 \pm 0.13 ^{BCD}	0.94 \pm 0.13 ^{BCD}	0.83 \pm 0.10 ^{BCD}	3.12 \pm 0.13 ^A	1.22 \pm 0.23 ^B	0.66 \pm 0.08 ^{CD}	0.65 \pm 0.25 ^D	0.71 \pm 0.12 ^{CD}
Urea (mg/dL)	41 \pm 1.61 ^A	26 \pm 1.61 ^{BC}	21 \pm 1.61 ^{BCD}	16 \pm 1.61 ^{DE}	17 \pm 1.61 ^{DE}	44 \pm 1.49 ^A	31 \pm 1.49 ^{AB}	27 \pm 1.49 ^B	18 \pm 1.49 ^{CD}	13 \pm 1.49 ^E
Conjugated bilirubin (mg/dL)	0.68 \pm 0.12	0.80 \pm 0.12	1.12 \pm 0.12	1.32 \pm 0.12	1.26 \pm 0.12	0.44 \pm 0.12	0.58 \pm 0.12	0.77 \pm 0.12	1.24 \pm 0.12	0.93 \pm 0.12
Unconjugated bilirubin (mg/dL)	3.31 \pm 0.31	4.10 \pm 0.31	3.24 \pm 0.31	3.08 \pm 0.31	2.17 \pm 0.31	3.54 \pm 0.29	4.53 \pm 0.29	3.76 \pm 0.29	3.01 \pm 0.29	2.42 \pm 0.29
Total bilirubin (mg/dL)	3.99 \pm 0.30	4.89 \pm 0.30	4.36 \pm 0.30	4.40 \pm 0.30	3.43 \pm 0.30	3.98 \pm 0.28	5.11 \pm 0.28	4.53 \pm 0.28	4.24 \pm 0.28	3.34 \pm 0.28
GGT (U/L)	29 \pm 6.65	41 \pm 6.65	49 \pm 6.65	64 \pm 6.65	82 \pm 6.65	18 \pm 6.15	27 \pm 6.15	28 \pm 6.15	33 \pm 6.15	50 \pm 6.15
AST (U/L)	122 \pm 9.17	183 \pm 9.17	203 \pm 9.17	230 \pm 9.17	276 \pm 9.17	89 \pm 8.49	162 \pm 8.49	178 \pm 8.49	204 \pm 8.49	270 \pm 8.49

^{AB} Different superscript letters in rows indicate a statistically significant difference between moments (P<0.05).

3.3 Artigo 3

Are estrogens and progestins useful pregnancy prognostics markers in equine ascending placentitis?

Fernanda Timbó D'el Rey Dantas; Igor Frederico Canisso; Vitor R. G. Mercadante, Robert H. Douglas, Maicon Nardino, Lorena S. Feijó, Carlos W. Nogueira, Bruna R. Curcio

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Are estrogens and progestins useful pregnancy prognostics markers in equine ascending placentitis?

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Abstract

Immunoreactive fetoplacental unit steroids have been extensively used to assess fetal wellbeing and placental health in mares. This study aimed to assess the usefulness of 17- β estradiol, progesterone, progestins and total estrogens concentrations as pregnancy prognostic markers in mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis receiving different therapeutic protocols. At 300 days of gestation mares were randomly divided into a healthy control group (CONT, n=8) and mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis (n=38). Mares with placentitis were assigned to groups treated with sulfamethoxazole-trimethoprim (TMS), flunixin meglumine (FM), altrenogest (ALT), and/or estradiol cypionate (ECP) as follows: (1)

TMS+FM, n=8; (2) TMS+FM+ALT, n=8; (3) TMS+FM+ALT+ECP, n=6; (4) TMS+FM+ECP, n=6; and (5) no treatment (INOC, n=10). Treatment was started 48h after inoculation and was carried out for ten consecutive days. Blood samples were obtained from all mares immediately prior to inoculation, daily for 12 days (or until premature delivery) and on foaling day. 17- β estradiol and progesterone concentrations were determined by chemiluminescence, whilst total estrogens and progestins were assessed via radioimmunoassay. Data were analyzed using the procedure MIXED of the Statistical Analysis System, along with METHOD REML and COVTEST. On the last treatment day, 17- β estradiol concentrations in mares that received ALT were lower than control group. Progestins concentrations in CONT and TMS+FM+ECP groups were lower than TMS+FM+ALT group on foaling day. In conclusion, progestins and estrogens lack a pattern that could aid in the assessment of pregnancy prognosis during treatment for experimentally induced placentitis in mares. 17- β estradiol concentrations were considerably lower in the group with worst pregnancy outcome.

1. Introduction

Placentitis is a common cause of late-term abortion, stillbirth and neonatal losses (Giles et al., 1993; Hong et al., 1993a). Four types of placentitis have been identified according to the morphologic lesions: ascending, hematogenous, diffuse, and focal mucoid (Williams et al., 2004). Ascending placentitis, the most common type, results from infection of the caudal placental pole disseminating cranio-ventrally from the cervical star to the uterine body of the chorioallantois (Canisso et al., 2015). Wide range of infectious agents have been associated with ascending placentitis, however, β hemolytic Streptococcus (*S. equi* subspecies zooepidemicus and *S. equisimilis*) predominate (Hong et al., 1993b).

In clinical practice, the presence of clinical signs such as premature mammary gland development and vulvar discharge in mid to late term pregnant mare triggers owners and farm

personnel to contact a clinician to examine the mare for ascending placentitis. In the presence of such signs, practitioners will perform a transrectal palpation and ultrasonography of the caudal placental pole and cervix (Canisso et al., 2015). Additionally, clinicians may collect blood samples to assess fetoplacental unit steroids, inflammatory proteins (e.g., serum amyloid A, fibrinogen), or complete blood cells count as ancillary diagnostic tools for placentitis and, less commonly, as prognostic markers (Carrick et al., 2010; Crabtree, 2018). However, complete blood count does not appear to be a useful tool for ascending placentitis, as evidenced by the lack of changes in experimentally induced placentitis (Canisso et al., 2014). While serum amyloid A is a sensitive marker of inflammation in experimentally induced ascending placentitis (Canisso et al., 2014), anecdotal experiences suggest that this acute phase protein may not be useful in spontaneous placentitis as it might be suppressed in mares receiving altrenogest preventively and may increase in unspecific conditions causing inflammation. For that reason, fetoplacental steroids have been perhaps more commonly used in clinical practice.

The equine fetoplacental unit is an intricate network involving the fetal gonads, the chorioallantois, the maternal endometrial and fetal adrenal gland. The fetal gonads secretes androgens (i.e., DEHA, 7-dihydroDEHA), which are converted by the chorioallantois and maternal endometrium into classic (e.g., estradiol β , α , estrone) and ring-B estrogens and conjugated into sulfate forms that are more soluble (Bhavnani, 1988; Pashen and Allen, 1979; Raeside et al., 1979). Worth noting that the sulfoconjugate forms of estrogens predominate in maternal plasma during late pregnancy, whilst the non-conjugates represent a much smaller amount of the total (Ousey, 2011). Progestins can be subclassified as pregnenes and 5α pregnanes. Pregnenes include pregnenolone, progesterone, and 5-pregnene- 3β , 20β -diol (P $5\beta\beta$); 5α -pregnanes include 5α dihydroprogesterone (5α -DHP), 3β 5P, 20α -5P, $\beta\beta$ diol, and 5-pregnene- 3β , 20α -diol ($\beta\alpha$ diol); however, 5α DHP, 20α 5P, and $\beta\alpha$ -diol predominate. It is

thought that progestins are synthesized from pregnenolone in the fetal adrenal glands (Ousey et al., 2003).

A seminal work suggested that placentitis was associated with an increase in progesterone concentration (Rossdale et al., 1991). More recently, a study involving mares with experimentally induced placentitis showed that mares who aborted within less than 8 days after inoculation had a drop in progesterone concentrations (Wynn et al., 2018a). On the other hand, in the same study, mares who aborted more than 8 days after inoculation showed significantly higher progestins concentrations suggesting that an increase in progesterone concentration is seen only in chronic placentitis.

Shikichi et al. (2017) assessed 459 pregnant thoroughbred mares and concluded progestin and estrogen maternal concentrations after 241 days of pregnancy differ between mares that deliver dead or healthy foals. Based on that, cutoff values were proposed for each period of pregnancy as a diagnostic aid in placentitis cases.

Despite controversial results, hormonal treatment protocols have been proposed for mares with placentitis based on their blood hormonal profile. Recently, our concurrent study assessed the efficacy of different therapeutic protocols in the treatment of experimentally induced placentitis, including trimethoprim-sulfametoxazole, flunixin meglumine, altrenogest and/or estradiol cypionate (Curcio et al., 2017). Our results showed normal gestation length and no pregnancy loss or premature foaling in the group supplemented with estradiol cypionate (Curcio et al., 2017). Thus, our main hypothesis was that mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis treated with different therapeutic protocols would present particular hormonal profiles that could aid in the prognosis of pregnancy. Specifically, we hypothesized that the better pregnancy outcome of mares treated with estradiol cypionate would be related to higher estrogen and lower progestins levels when compared to other treatments. Immunoreactive fetoplacental unit steroids have been extensively used to assess fetal wellbeing

and placental health in mares, however, the wide ranges of assay types, sensitivity, specificity, and cross reactivity vary remarkable. Additionally, limited work has been done on how various fetoplacental unit steroids of commercially available immunoassays behave in response to treatment for placentitis.

The objective of this study was to assess the usefulness of 17- β estradiol, progesterone, progestins and total estrogens concentrations as pregnancy prognostic markers in mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis receiving different therapeutic protocols. In this scenario, a comparison between protocols was attempted.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Mares and animal husbandry

All procedures carried out in the present study were approved by the Ethical Committee on Animal Experimentation of the Universidade Federal de Pelotas (UFPel) under protocol #4750. Forty-six normal pregnancies from 27 multiparous Criollo and Criollo-type mares (age 10 ± 2 years; parity 3 ± 0.5 ; body weight 437 ± 22 kg) were used in the experiment, as described in a parallel publication (Curcio et al., 2017). None of the mares enrolled in this study had a history of subfertility or late-term pregnancy abnormality. This study was carried out during the natural breeding season of the Southern Hemisphere (September-December) of 2012, 2013 and 2014.

2.2. Experimental induction of placentitis and therapeutic regimens

Before the beginning of the study, all mares had reproductive examinations, and transrectal ultrasonography of the caudal placental pole was performed. A lack of ultrasound and clinical signs of pregnancy abnormality was imperative to mares' selection. On the 300th day of pregnancy (mean 301.7 ± 2.7 , range 295-303 days), mares were randomly divided into a healthy control group (CONT, n=8) and mares in which ascending placentitis was

experimentally induced (n=38). The 300th day of pregnancy was considered “induction day” (IND) for all groups. Mares with experimentally induced placentitis were randomly assigned to treatment groups as follows: (1) Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole + Flunixin meglumine (TMS+FM, n=8); (2) Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole + Flunixin meglumine + Altrenogest (TMS+FM+ALT, n=8); (3) Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole + Flunixin meglumine + Altrenogest + Estradiol cypionate (TMS+FM+ALT+ECP, n=6); (4) Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole + Flunixin meglumine + Estradiol cypionate (TMS+FM+ECP, n=6); and (5) no treatment (INOC, n=10). Treatment was started 48h post experimental induction of ascending placentitis (D3 – day 3) and carried out for 10 consecutive days (D12 – day 12) (Table 1).

Ascending placentitis was experimentally induced via intracervical inoculation of 10⁷ colony forming units of *Streptococcus equi* subspecies *zooepidemicus* (*S. zooepidemicus*) as previously described in Curcio et al. 2017. None of the healthy control mares showed signs of ascending placentitis, whereas 89% (n = 34/38) of inoculated mares started to show purulent vulvar discharge by 48h post inoculation. The four mares that failed to develop vulvar discharge were on the INOC group.

2.3. Blood sampling and immunoassay

Blood samples were obtained by jugular venipuncture from all mares immediately prior to inoculation (IND) and thereafter daily for 12 days (D1-D12), or until premature delivery (in this occasion sampling was discontinued). Blood samples were also collected on foaling day (FOALING). Samples were allowed to clot and then centrifuged at 600 x g for 10 min. Plasma was harvested and preserved at -20°C until analysis.

2.3.1. Chemiluminescence: estradiol 17-β and progesterone

Estradiol 17- β and progesterone (Table 2) concentrations were determined by chemiluminescence (Immulite 2000, Siemens) at the Department of Animal Science, College of Agricultural and Life Sciences, Virginia Polytechnic Institute and State University, Blacksburg, VA, USA. For the estradiol 17- β assay, the highest cross-reactivity reported by the manufacturer was with d-equilenin (3.3%), but it also cross reacts with ethiny-estradiol (1.38%), β -Estradiol-17-propionate (1.25%), β -Estradiol-17-valerate (1.14%), equilin (0.38%) and other hormones in smaller percentages. The standard range was 20 – 2000pg/mL, with a 15pg/mL of sensitivity.

As for the progesterone assay, the reported cross reactivity was: 11-deoxycorticosterone (1.82%), 17 α -OH-progesterone (0.444%), corticosterone (0.417%), testosterone (0.119%), androstenedione (0.076%), pregnenolone (0.047%), medroxyprogesterone (0.029%), cortisol (0.003%). Standard range 0.2 – 40ng/mL and sensitivity of 0.1ng/mL.

2.3.2. Radioimmunoassay: total estrogens and progestins

Progestins and total estrogens (Table 2) assay were analyzed at the BET Laboratory in Lexington Kentucky, USA. The reported cross-reactivity for the total estrogens assay was 100% with estradiol-17 β , 20% with oestrone, 1.51% with estriol and 0.68% with estradiol-17 α . Standard range: 0 – 3000pg/mL; Sensitivity: 5.0pg/mL.

For the progestins assay, cross-reactivity was: progesterone (100%), 17 α -OH-progesterone (2.5%), corticosterone (0.3%), desoxycorticosterone (0.3), 20 α -OH-progesterone (0.1%), 20 β -OH-progesterone (0.1%), 11-desoxycortisol (0.07%), testosterone (0.06%), androstenedione (0.05%), and dihydrotestosterone (0.02). Standard range 0.15 – 80ng/mL; Sensitivity: 0.02ng/mL

2.4 Parturition and clinical assessment of foals

Mares were kept in paddocks near the foaling barn. When imminent signs of parturition were observed, mares were brought inside foaling stalls for assisted vaginal delivery. All mares were closely monitored until the passage of fetal membranes, which went through microbiological and histopathological evaluations.

Immediately after delivery, all foals had a full physical examination performed and birth weight recorded. Foal attitude and demeanor was carefully assessed immediately after delivery. Foal classification of high-risk or low-risk (Morresey, 2005) was carried out immediately after parturition, and all foals clearly fell into one category or the other.

Time from inoculation to delivery, gestational length, number of dystocia, foal birth weight, risk classification, survival at parturition and at 7 days post-delivery were described previously (Curcio et al., 2017). Briefly, mares in the INOC group had the highest number of dystocia and premature parturition. The TMS+FM+ECP group had the longest time from inoculation to delivery between treatment groups ($p < 0.05$) and foals had similar body weight as those from CONT group. Groups TMS+FM+ECP and TMS+FM+ALT+ECP had gestational lengths similar to CONT group. Foal survival at parturition and 7 days post-delivery were not different between treatment and control groups, but the INOC group presented lower survival rates ($p < 0.05$). These results are summarized in Tables 3 and 4.

2.5. Statistical analyses

Data were analyzed using the procedure MIXED of the Statistical Analysis System (SAS), along with METHOD REML and COVTEST (Statistical Analysis System, Release 9.4, SAS Institute, Cary, NC, 2014). The research was carried out with three factors: group, time and mare. Time was considered a random effect whilst group, mare and the interactions were fixed factors. Once the interaction was significant (GROUP*MOMEN), the means were dismembered in simple effects and then corrected to the other effects of the model (least square

means – LSM of SAS). The LSM were compared considering an alpha of 5% error probability with estimation of a standard error of the mean (SEM) considering $n \cong 312$ to the construction of the confidence interval.

3. Results

On day 12 after induction, treatment groups which protocols included altrenogest (TMS+FM+ALT and TMS+FM+ALT+ECP) presented lower 17- β estradiol concentrations comparing to healthy control group (CONT). On foaling day, the same altrenogest groups and TMS+FM showed a similar pattern, with smaller 17- β estradiol concentrations (Fig.1 and S-Table 1). Interestingly, mares from INOC showed extremely low 17- β estradiol concentrations on D3 and D4, exactly when most of them delivered.

Inconsistent isolated differences between groups were observed in total estrogens concentrations until D5, but in general all groups showed similar concentrations as CONT (Fig. 2 and S-Table 2). Progesterone concentrations were higher in TMS+FM+ALT+ECP than in CONT on foaling day (Fig. 3 and S-Table 3). As for progestins, on foaling day TMS+FM+ALT presented higher concentrations than CONT and TMS+FM+ECP (Fig. 4 and S-Table 4).

4. Discussion

The present study showed that estrogens and progestins concentrations in pregnant mares subjected to different therapeutic protocols to treat induced ascending placentitis lack a pattern that could indicate pregnancy prognosis after treatment.

Significant differences on hormones concentrations between groups on D1 and D2 were not expected, since the first moment after the beginning of treatment was D3. However, differences were observed in concentrations of 17- β estradiol and total estrogens on both days and only on D1, respectively. This situation demonstrates the considerable individual variation

seen in hormonal responses in placentitis mares that lead to controversial findings between experimental studies. Also, the frequent oscillation of concentrations precludes direct conclusions about this matter. Nevertheless, low estrogen levels have been advised as markers for placental abnormalities for decades (Bucca, 2006; Douglas, 2004; Shikichi et al., 2017), but results are still conflicting, as this pattern is not always reproduced (Beachler et al., 2019; Stawicki et al., 2002). In our study, total estrogens levels varied considerably between groups and moments, preventing any possible correlations with placentitis diagnosis or pregnancy prognosis. That, along with conflicting previous reports allows for questioning the usage of this hormonal evaluation and proposes the assessment of 17- β estradiol as a more reliable marker.

On the last treatment day (D12), 17- β estradiol concentrations in TMS+FM+ALT and TMS+FM+ALT+ECP were lower than control group. TMS+FM+ECP, along with TMS+FM group, showed similar concentrations as CONT group. This suggests the inclusion of estradiol cypionate as part of treatment for experimental ascending placentitis might be more favorable than altrenogest. Optimal 17- β estradiol and estrone sulfate concentrations are important in the fetal growth process and contribute to adequate fetal development (Esteller-vico et al., 2017). Also, 17- β estradiol concentrations in placentitis-induced mares were most of the time far below 150 – 200pg/mL, the proposed cutoff for placentitis (Canisso et al., 2020). Non-treated ascending-placentitis mares (INOC) presented very low 17- β estradiol concentrations, especially on D3 and D4. There was severe damage on fetal-placental function, deliver of high-risk foals 3.5 ± 0.7 days after inoculation and only 20% survival until seven days of life in this group. This is in accordance with previous work that shows mares with low estrogen concentrations were likely to deliver aborted dead foals during mid-to-late gestation (Shikichi et al., 2017) and reaffirms the need for further studies in this matter.

Two assays were used to evaluate plasma concentration of progestagens in the present study. A very sensitive and specific assay (chemiluminescence) was used to quantify

progesterone levels, what led to the detection of even incipient levels of this hormone. On the other hand, a radioimmunoassay was used to quantify progesterone and its metabolites (progestins). Healthy late pregnant mares usually present very low blood concentrations of progesterone and even undetectable levels depending on the assay employed (Ousey et al., 2005; Wynn et al., 2018b). Previous studies reported a rise in progestins concentration in naturally and experimentally compromised pregnancies (Ousey et al., 2005; Rossdale et al., 1991; Shikichi et al., 2017), but more recently Beachler et al. (2018) had different observations. In this latter study, neither progesterone nor estradiol-17 β presented good value as diagnostic tools as their plasmatic concentrations did not differ significantly between control and experimentally induced placentitis group.

One interesting observation was the lower progestins concentrations in CONT and TMS+FM+ECP groups when compared to TMS+FM+ALT group on foaling day. Rossdale et al. (1991) reported higher progestagens concentrations in maternal plasma in premature deliveries and fetal losses cases occurred during late gestation, particularly those related to placental pathologies. Although progestins and progesterone plasma concentrations were not good markers of ascending placentitis in the present study, neonatal outcome is noticeably different between groups, especially in foals from TMS+FM+ECP group. Thereby, 17- β estradiol and progestins concentrations differences between groups on foaling day, along with pregnancy outcome and the lower 17- β estradiol concentrations on the last day of treatment of groups receiving ALT, suggest ALT treatment had a negative effect on the final process of fetal maturation, as suggested elsewhere (Neuhauser et al., 2008).

In the present study, mares in the INOC group aborted in less than 7 days after developing acute placentitis, while other groups showed both acute and/or chronic placentitis (histopathology details on that are provided in Curcio et al. (2017)). In a recent study with an analogous model of experimental induction of placentitis, Wynn et al. (2018a) reported that an

increase in progestins levels occurs only in cases of chronic disease, in a similar way others reported before (Ousey et al., 2005; Rossdale et al., 1991; Stawicki et al., 2002). Mares that aborted in less than 8 days were classified as having acute placentitis (Stawicki et al., 2002) and did not show this increment, probably because there wasn't sufficient time for fetal pregnenolone production. In our study, a rise in progestin levels was observed only on foaling day in TMS+FM+ALT, when compared to CONT.

5. Conclusion

In conclusion, the present assay showed progestins and estrogens lack a pattern that could aid in the assessment of pregnancy prognosis during treatment for experimentally induced placentitis in mares. However, 17- β estradiol concentrations were somehow related to pregnancy outcomes; lower concentrations were observed in the group with worst outcome.

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Author contribution

All authors have made substantial contributions to the manuscript. LSF, IFC, FTDRD, BRC and CEWN designed the experiment and planned the study. LSF, VRG, RHD, IFC carried out laboratory analysis, acquisition of data and table production. FTDRD, MN and BRC carried out analysis and interpretation of data. FTDRD, IFC and BRC drafted the article, LSF and

CEWN revised it critically for important intellectual content. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Competing interests

RHD owns the company where progestins and total estrogen assays were analyzed. None of the remaining authors have any conflict of interest to declare.

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Table 1.

Drugs used in the treatment of mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis.

Drugs	Dose	Route	Manufacturer
Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole	30mg/kg	IV, q12h for 10d	Trissulfim®, Ouro Fino Saude Animal, São Paulo, Brazil
Flunixin meglumine	1.1mg/kg	IV, q24h for 10d	Desflan®, Ouro Fino Saude Animal, São Paulo, Brazil
Altrenogest (long action)	0.088mg/kg	IM, q7d for 2 treatments	Altrenogest®, Botupharma, São Paulo, Brazil
Estradiol cypionate	10mg/mare	IM, q3d for 3 treatments	E.C.P.®, Zoetis, São Paulo, Brazil

Table 2.

Intra-assay CV, sensitivity, standard range, technique, manufacturer and catalog number of the immunoassays used to measure hormone concentrations in mares.

Hormone	Intra-assay CV (%)	Sensitivity	Standard range	Technique	Manufacturer	Catalog #
Progesterone	9	0.1ng/mL	0.2 – 40ng/mL	Chemiluminescence	Siemens	L2KPW2
Progestin	10.3	0.02ng/mL	0.15 – 80ng/mL	Radioimmunoassay	MP Biomedicals	07 – 270102
17- β estradiol	3.7 – 7.8	15.0pg/mL	20 – 2000pg/mL	Chemiluminescence	Siemens	LKE21
Total estrogens	4.3	5.0pg/mL	0 – 3000pg/mL	Radioimmunoassay	MP Biomedicals	07 – 138102

Table 3.

Time from inoculation to delivery, gestation length and occurrence of dystocia for groups with experimentally induced ascending placentitis and gestationally age-matched healthy control group.

Groups (n)	Time from inoculation-delivery (days)		Gestational length (days)		Dystocia	
	Mean \pm SEM	Range	Mean \pm SEM	Range	(%)	n
CONT (n=8)	35 \pm 4.9 _{ab}	20 – 50	335 \pm 5 _{ab}	320 – 350	0 _b	0
TMS + FM (n=8)	27.6 \pm 8.6 _b	10 – 82	322 \pm 6.5 _b	310 – 353	12.5 _b	1
TMS + FM + ALT (n=8)	21.3 \pm 4.1 _b	9 – 39	322 \pm 3.8 _b	312 – 339	0 _b	0
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP (n=6)	22.2 \pm 6.4 _b	5 – 52	330 \pm 11.2 _{ab}	317 – 352	16.7 _b	1
TMS + FM + ECP (n=6)	46 \pm 4.2 _a	36 – 65	346 \pm 5.2 _a	336 – 365	0 _b	0
INOC (n=10)	3.5 \pm 0.7 _c	1 – 7	305 \pm 2.3 _c	296 – 307	70 _a	7

CONT: Healthy control group; TMS: Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; FM: flunixin meglumine; ALT: altrenogest; ECP: estradiol cypionate (ECP); INOC: inoculation and no treatment. Different letters within columns denote differences with LSD's test (time from inoculation to delivery, and gestational length) or Fisher's exact test (dystocia) ($p < 0.05$). Also described in our parallel publication (Curcio et al., 2017).

Table 4.

Risk classification, survival rate at seven days and body weight of foals born from mares with experimentally induced ascending placentitis and gestationally age-matched healthy control mares.

Groups (n)	Foals classified as high-risk		Survival at seven days		Body weight at birth (kg)	
	(%)	n	(%)	n	Mean \pm SEM	Range

CONT (n=8)	0 ^a	0	100 ^a	8	39.2 ± 2.4 ^a	29 – 45
TMS + FM (n=8)	75 ^b	6	75 ^a	6	31.1 ± 1.7 ^c	26 – 40
TMS + FM + ALT (n=8)	50 ^b	4	87.5 ^a	7	28.4 ± 1.5 ^c	21 – 32
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP (n=6)	50 ^b	3	66.7 ^{ab}	4	32.5 ± 2.7 ^{bc}	25 – 39
TMS + FM + ECP (n=6)	0 ^a	0	100 ^a	6	36.4 ± 1 ^{ab}	34 – 40
INOC (n=10)	90 ^b	9	20 ^b	2	29.4 ± 1.8 ^c	25 – 39.5

CONT: healthy control group; TMS: Trimethoprim-sulfamethoxazole; FM: flunixin meglumine; ALT: altrenogest; ECP: estradiol cypionate (ECP); INOC: inoculation and no treatment. Different letters within columns denote differences with Fisher's exact test (foal survival and risk classification), or with LSD's (body weight) ($p < 0.05$). Also described in our parallel publication (Curcio et al., 2017).

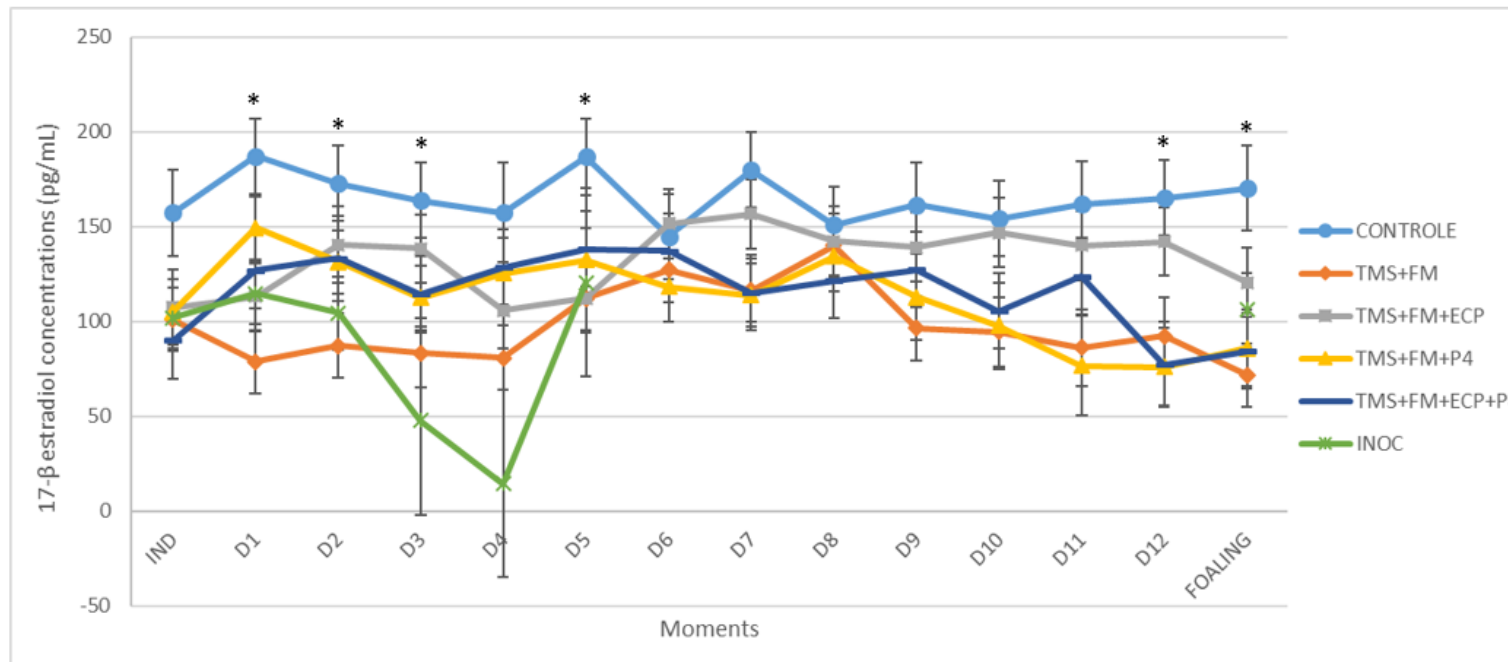


Fig 1. 17- β estradiol concentrations \pm SEM in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING). * Denotes moments which groups were different with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

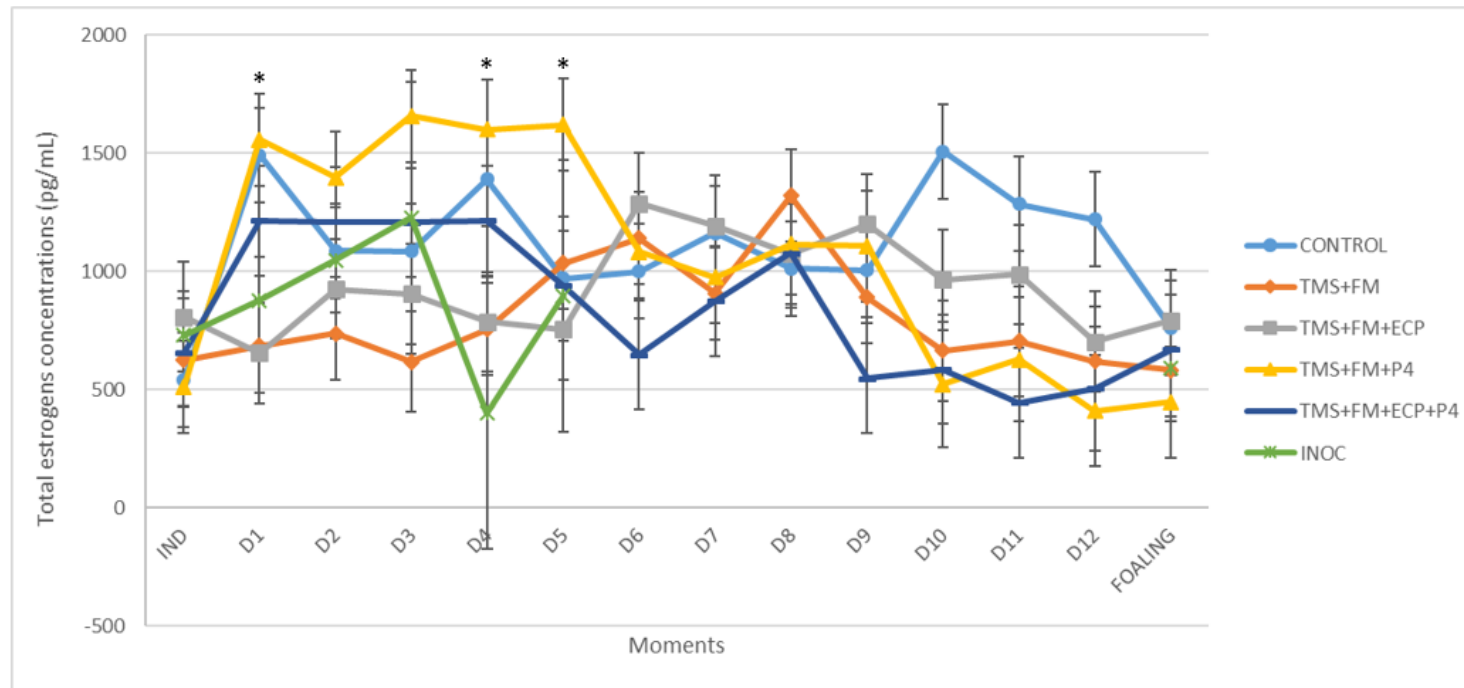


Fig 2. Total estrogen concentrations \pm SEM in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING). * Denotes moments which groups were different with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

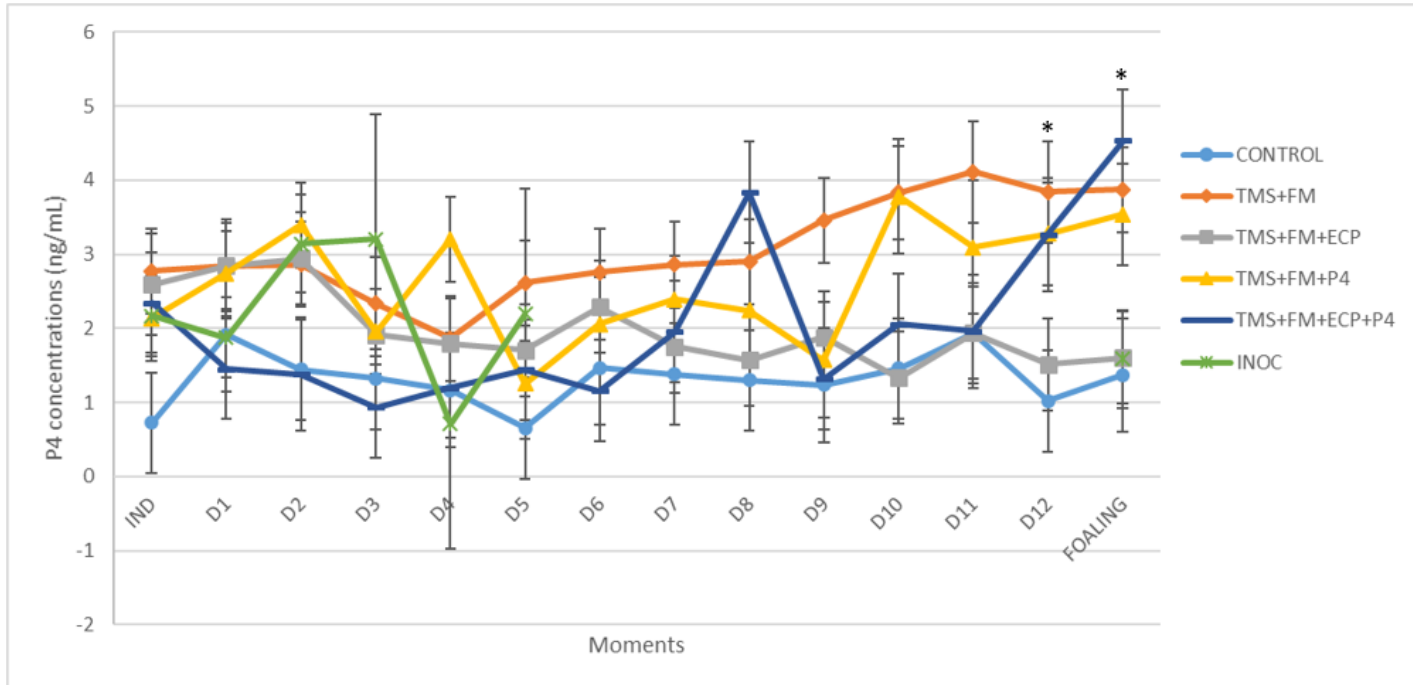


Fig 3. Progesterone (P4) concentrations \pm SEM in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING). * Denotes moments which groups were different with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

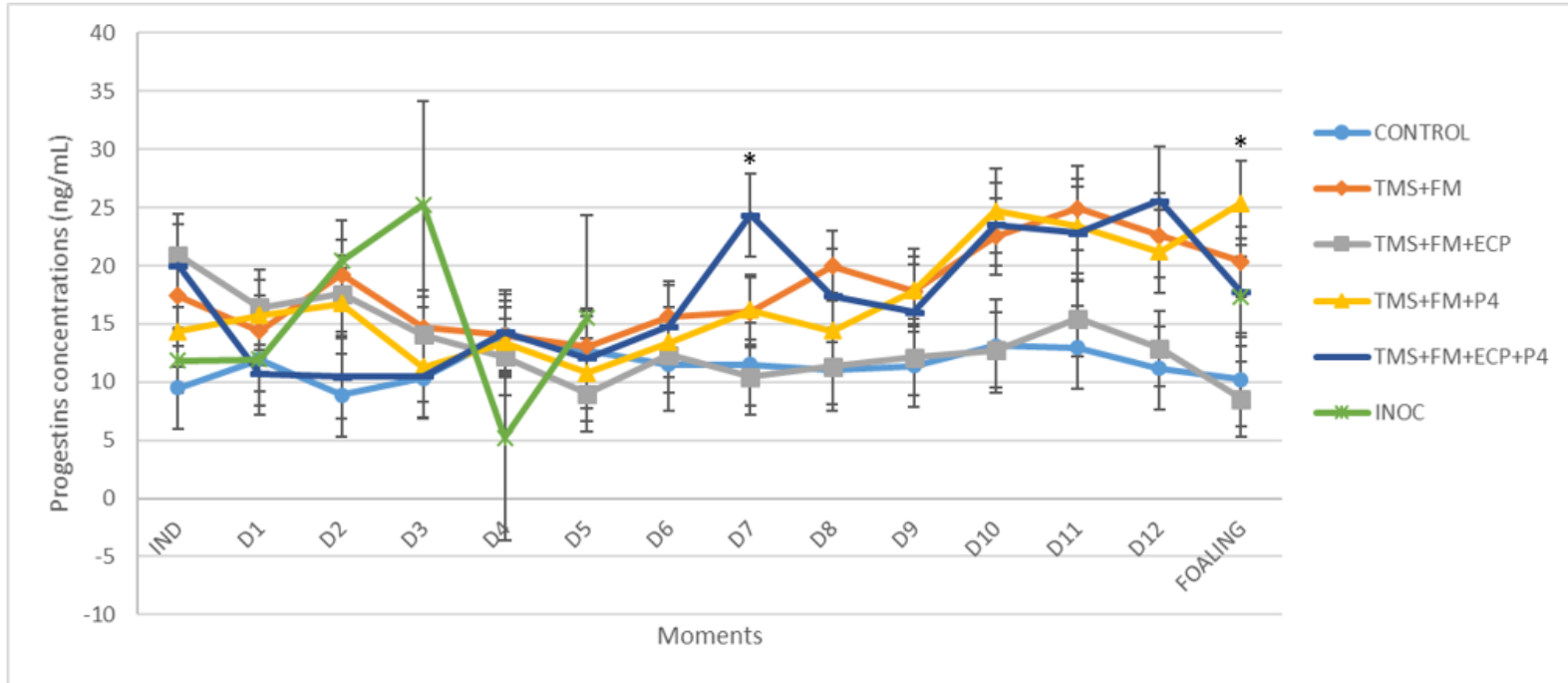


Fig 4. Progesterone concentrations \pm SEM in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING). * Denotes moments which groups were different with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

S-Table 1.

LSM±SE (confidence intervals) 17-β estradiol concentrations in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING).

Groups	Moments													
	IND	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11	D12	FOALING
CONT	157,3±22, 5 (112,9 - 201,6)A	187,1±20 (147,8 - 226,4)A	172,8±20 (133,5 - 212,1)A	163,9±20 (124,6 - 203,1)A	157,3±26, 2 (105,7 - 208,9)A	186,7±20 (147,4 - 226)A	144,8±22, 5 (100,5 - 189,1)A	179,9±20 (140,6 - 219,2)A	151±20 (111,7 - 190,3)A	161,5±22, 5 (117,3 - 205,8)A	154,2±20 (114,9 - 193,5)A	161,8±22, 5 (117,6 - 206,1)A	165±20 (125,7 - 204,3)A	170,1±22, 5 (125,8 - 214,4)A
TMS + FM	101±16,9 (67,8 - 134,2)A	78,8±16,9 (45,6 - 112)B	87,2±16,9 (54 - 120,4)B	83,3±18,3 (47,2 - 119,4)	80,8±16,9 (47,6 - 114)A	112,2±16, 9 (79 - 145,4)B	127,2±16, 9 (94 - 160,4)A	116,4±16, 9 (83,2 - 149,6)A	140±16,9 (106,8 - 173,2)A	96,4±16,9 (63,2 - 129,6)A	94,4±18,3 (58,3 - 130,5)A	86,4±20,2 (46,6 - 126,1)A	92,2±20,2 (52,5 - 132)AB	71,7±16,9 (38,5 - 104,9)B
TMS + FM + ECP	107,5±20, 1 (68 - 147)A	113,1±18, 2 (77,2 - 148,9)AB	140,4±20, 1 (100,9 - 180)AB	138,3±18, 2 (102,5 - 174,2)A	105,9±20, 1 (66,3 - 145,4)A	112,1±18, 2 (76,3 - 148)AB	151,6±18, 2 (115,7 - 187,4)A	156,8±18, 2 (120,9 - 192,6)A	142,3±18, 2 (106,4 - 178,1)A	139,1±18, 2 (103,3 - 175)A	146,9±18, 2 (111,1 - 182,8)A	140±18,2 (104,1 - 175,8)A	142,1±18, 2 (106,3 - 178)AB	120,4±18, 2 (84,6 - 156,3)AB
TMS + FM + ALT	105,2±16, 9 (72 - 138,4)A	149,3±16, 9 (116,1 - 182,5)AB	131,3±16, 9 (98,1 - 164,5)AB	112,4±16, 9 (79,2 - 145,6)A	125,4±18, 4 (89,3 - 161,6)A	132,2±16, 9 (99 - 165,4)AB	118,2±18, 4 (82,1 - 154,4)A	113,9±16, 9 (80,7 - 147,1)A	134,3±18, 4 (98,1 - 170,5)A	112,9±22, 8 (68 - 157,8)A	97,8±22,8 (52,9 - 142,7)A	76,8±26,5 (24,7 - 128,8)A	76,1±20,3 (36,2 - 116)B	85,9±20,2 (46,1 - 125,7)B
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP	89,9±20 (50,7 - 129,2)A	127,1±20 (87,8 - 166,3)AB	133,2±22, 5 (88,9 - 177,5)AB	114,4±20 (75,1 - 153,6)A	128,6±20 (89,3 - 167,9)A	138,2±20 (98,9 - 177,4)AB	137,2±20 (97,9 - 176,5)A	115,2±20 (75,9 - 154,4)A	121,5±20 (82,2 - 160,8)A	127,3±20 (88 - 166,6)A	105,6±20 (66,3 - 144,8)A	123,8±20 (84,6 - 163,1)A	77,3±22,5 (33 - 121,6)B	84,3±20 (45 - 123,6)B
INOC	101,8±15, 8 (70,7 - 132,9)A	114,7±15, 8 (83,6 - 145,7)B	104,4±19, 3 (66,3 - 142,4)AB	47,8±49,5 (-49,6 - 145,1)A	14,6±49,5 (-82,8 - 111,9)A	120,6±49, 5 (23,2 - 217,9)AB	47,8±49,5 (-49,6 - 145,1)A	-	-	-	-	-	-	105,9±19, 3 (67,9 - 144)A

Different letters denote difference between groups with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

S-Table 2.

LSM±SE (confidence intervals) total estrogens in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING).

Groups	Moments													FOALING
	IND	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11	D12	
CONT	539,1±231, 6 (83,5 - 994,6)A	1493,1±231 ,6 (1037,6 - 1948,7)AB	1086,3±231 ,6 (630,8 - 1541,9)A	1085,9±231 ,6 (630,4 - 1541,5)A	1389±261 (875,5 - 1902,6)AB	968,9±231, 6 (513,3 - 1424,4)AB	1000,3±261 (486,8 - 1513,9)A	1161,2±231 ,6 (705,7 - 1616,8)A	1012,9±231 ,6 (557,4 - 1468,5)A	1005,8±231 ,6 (550,3 - 1461,4)A	1507,9±231 ,6 (1052,4 - 1963,5)A	1285,2±231 ,6 (829,7 - 1740,8)A	1220,9±231 ,6 (765,3 - 1676,5)A	758,7±231, 6 (303,2 - 1214,3)A
TMS + FM	625,3±195, 7 (240,3 - 1010,3)A	684,1±195, 7 (299,1 - 1069,1)B	736,6±195, 7 (351,6 - 1121,6)A	618±212,6 (199,8 - 1036,2)A	755,7±195, 7 (370,7 - 1140,8)B	1035,3±195 ,7 (650,3 - 1420,3)AB	1140,4±195 ,7 (755,4 - 1525,4)A	906,6±195, 7 (521,6 - 1291,7)A	1319,9±195 ,7 (934,8 - 1704,9)A	890,4±195, 7 (505,4 - 1275,4)A	665,7±212, 8 (247,1 - 1084,3)A	703,9±234, 4 (242,7 - 1165,1)A	619,1±234, 4 (157,9 - 1080,3)A	582,5±195, 7 (197,5 - 967,5)A
TMS + FM + ECP	807,9±233 (349,4 - 1266,3)A	654,5±211, 4 (238,6 - 1070,3)B	925±211,4 (509,2 - 1340,9)A	904,6±211, 4 (488,7 - 1320,4)A	786,7±211, 4 (370,8 - 1202,6)AB	754,3±211, 4 (338,4 - 1170,1)B	1287,9±211 ,4 (872 - 1703,8)A	1193,6±211 ,4 (777,7 - 1609,5)A	1074,9±211 ,4 (659 - 1490,7)A	1200,1±211 ,4 (784,2 - 1615,9)A	964,9±211, 4 (549,1 - 1380,8)A	986,2±211, 4 (570,3 - 1402,1)A	702,9±211, 4 (287 - 1118,7)A	793±211,4 (377,1 - 1208,8)A
TMS + FM + ALT	510,9±195, 7 (125,9 - 895,9)A	1558±195,7 (1173 - 1943)A	1397,7±195 ,7 (1012,7 - 1782,7)A	1658,1±195 ,7 (1273,1 - 2043,1)A	1598,9±212 ,6 (1180,7 - 2017,2)A	1619,7±195 ,7 (1234,7 - 2004,7)A	1082,1±195 ,7 (697,1 - 1467,2)A	975,3±195, 7 (590,3 - 1360,4)A	1115,2±213 ,3 (695,6 - 1534,8)A	1106,5±235 ,2 (643,7 - 1569,3)A	522,4±264, 3 (2,5 - 1042,3)A	628,4±264, 2 (108,6 - 1148,2)A	409,4±235, 2 (-53,4 - 872,1)A	447,4±234, 9 (-14,8 - 909,6)A
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP	655,6±231, 6 (200,1 - 1111,2)A	1214±231,6 (758,4 - 1669,6)AB	1209±231,6 (753,5 - 1664,6)A	1206,5±231 ,6 (750,9 - 1662,1)A	1214,5±231 ,6 (759 - 1670,1)AB	939,5±231, 6 (483,9 - 1395)AB	646,4±231, 6 (190,9 - 1102)A	874,5±231, 6 (419 - 1330,1)A	1078,1±231 ,6 (622,5 - 1533,6)A	548±231,6 (92,4 - 1003,6)A	586±231,6 (130,5 - 1041,6)A	444,4±231, 6 (-11,1 - 900)A	504±260,9 (-9,2 - 1017,3)A	668,7±231, 6 (213,1 - 1124,3)A
INOC	730,7±183, 1 (370,6 - 1090,9)A	877,1±183, 1 (516,9 - 1237,2)AB	1048,5±224 ,2 (607,4 - 1489,6)A	1227±574 (97,7 - 2356,4)A	400,4±574 (-729 - 1529,8)AB	896,4±574 (-233 - 2025,8)AB	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	590,3±224, 2 (149,2 - 1031,4)A

Different letters denote difference between groups with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

S-Table 3.

LSM±SE (confidence intervals) progesterone in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING).

Groups	Moments													
	IND	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11	D12	FOALING
CONT	0,7±0,7A (-0,6 - 2,1)	1,9±0,8A (0,4 - 3,4)	1,4±0,7A (0,1 - 2,8)	1,3±0,7A (0 - 2,7)	1,2±0,8A (-0,3 - 2,7)	0,7±0,7A (-0,7 - 2)	1,5±0,8A (0 - 3)	1,4±0,7A (0 - 2,7)	1,3±0,7A (0 - 2,6)	1,2±0,8A (-0,3 - 2,7)	1,5±0,7A (0,1 - 2,8)	1,9±0,7A (0,6 - 3,3)	1±0,7B (-0,3 - 2,4)	1,4±0,8B (-0,1 - 2,9)
TMS + FM	2,8±0,6A (1,6 - 3,9)	2,8±0,6A (1,7 - 4)	2,9±0,6A (1,7 - 4)	2,3±0,6A (1,1 - 3,6)	1,9±0,6A (0,7 - 3)	2,6±0,6A (1,5 - 3,7)	2,8±0,6A (1,6 - 3,9)	2,9±0,6A (1,7 - 4)	2,9±0,6A (1,8 - 4)	3,5±0,6A (2,3 - 4,6)	3,8±0,6A (2,6 - 5,1)	4,1±0,7A (2,8 - 5,5)	3,8±0,7A (2,5 - 5,2)	3,9±0,6AB (2,7 - 5)
TMS + FM + ECP	2,6±0,7A (1,2 - 3,9)	2,8±0,6A (1,6 - 4,1)	2,9±0,6A (1,7 - 4,2)	1,9±0,6A (0,7 - 3,1)	1,8±0,6A (0,6 - 3)	1,7±0,6A (0,5 - 2,9)	2,3±0,6A (1,1 - 3,5)	1,8±0,6A (0,5 - 3)	1,6±0,6A (0,4 - 2,8)	1,9±0,6A (0,7 - 3,1)	1,3±0,6A (0,1 - 2,6)	1,9±0,6A (0,7 - 3,2)	1,5±0,6AB (0,3 - 2,7)	1,6±0,6B (0,4 - 2,8)
TMS + FM + ALT	2,1±0,6A (1 - 3,3)	2,7±0,6A (1,6 - 3,9)	3,4±0,6A (2,3 - 4,5)	2±0,6A (0,8 - 3,1)	3,2±0,6A (2,1 - 4,3)	1,2±0,6A (0,1 - 2,4)	2,1±0,6A (0,8 - 3,3)	2,4±0,6A (1,3 - 3,5)	2,2±0,6A (1 - 3,5)	1,6±0,8A (0 - 3,1)	3,8±0,8A (2,2 - 5,3)	3,1±0,9A (1,3 - 4,9)	3,3±0,7AB (1,9 - 4,6)	3,5±0,7AB (2,2 - 4,9)
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP	2,3±0,7A (1 - 3,7)	1,5±0,7A (0,1 - 2,8)	1,4±0,8A (-0,1 - 2,9)	0,9±0,7A (-0,4 - 2,3)	1,2±0,7A (-0,1 - 2,5)	1,4±0,7A (0,1 - 2,8)	1,2±0,7A (-0,2 - 2,5)	2±0,7A (0,6 - 3,3)	3,8±0,7A (2,5 - 5,2)	1,3±0,7A (0 - 2,7)	2,1±0,7A (0,7 - 3,4)	2±0,8A (0,5 - 3,5)	3,3±0,8AB (1,8 - 4,8)	4,5±0,7A (3,2 - 5,9)
INOC	2,2±0,5A (1,1 - 3,2)	1,9±0,5A (0,8 - 2,9)	3,1±0,7A (1,8 - 4,4)	3,2±1,7A (-0,1 - 6,5)	0,7±1,7A (-2,6 - 4)	2,2±1,7A (-1,1 - 5,5)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	1,6±0,7B (0,3 - 2,9)

Different letters denote difference between groups with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

S-Table 4.

LSM±SE (confidence intervals) progesterone in mares before induction of placentitis (IND), on the 12 days after induction (D1-D12) and on foaling day (FOALING).

Groups	Moments													FOALING
	IND	D1	D2	D3	D4	D5	D6	D7	D8	D9	D10	D11	D12	
CONT	9,5±3,6A (2,5 - 16,5)	12±4A (4,1 - 19,8)	8,9±3,6A (1,9 - 15,9)	10,4±3,6A (3,4 - 17,4)	14±3,6A (7 - 21)	12,7±3,6A (5,7 - 19,7)	11,5±4A (3,6 - 19,4)	11,5±3,6AB (4,5 - 18,5)	11,1±3,6A (4,1 - 18,1)	11,4±3,6A (4,4 - 18,4)	13,1±4A (5,2 - 21)	13±3,6A (6 - 20)	11,2±3,6A (4,2 - 18,2)	10,2±4B (2,3 - 18,1)
TMS + FM	17,4±3A (11,5 - 23,3)	14,4±3A (8,5 - 20,3)	19,3±3A (13,3 - 25,2)	14,7±3,3A (8,2 - 21,1)	14±3A (8,1 - 19,9)	13,1±3A (7,2 - 19)	15,6±3A (9,7 - 21,5)	16±3AB (10,1 - 22)	20±3A (14,1 - 25,9)	17,8±3A (11,9 - 23,7)	22,5±3,3A (16,1 - 29)	24,9±3,6A (17,8 - 32)	22,6±3,6A (15,5 - 29,7)	20,4±3AB (14,5 - 26,3)
TMS + FM + ECP	20,9±3,6A (13,9 - 28)	16,4±3,2A (10 - 22,8)	17,6±3,2A (11,2 - 24)	14,1±3,2A (7,7 - 20,5)	12,2±3,2A (5,8 - 18,5)	9±3,2A (2,6 - 15,4)	12,3±3,2A (5,9 - 18,7)	10,4±3,2B (4 - 16,8)	11,3±3,2A (4,9 - 17,7)	12,1±3,2A (5,7 - 18,5)	12,7±3,2A (6,3 - 19,1)	15,5±3,2A (9,1 - 21,9)	12,9±3,2A (6,5 - 19,3)	8,5±3,2B (2,1 - 14,9)
TMS + FM + ALT	14,3±3A (8,4 - 20,2)	15,8±3A (9,8 - 21,7)	16,8±3A (10,8 - 22,7)	11,3±3A (5,4 - 17,2)	13,4±3A (7,5 - 19,3)	10,8±3A (4,9 - 16,7)	13,4±3A (7,5 - 19,3)	16,2±3AB (10,3 - 22,1)	14,4±3,3A (8 - 20,9)	17,9±3,6A (10,8 - 25)	24,7±3,6A (17,6 - 31,8)	23,3±4,1A (15,4 - 31,3)	21,2±3,6A (14,1 - 28,3)	25,4±3,6A (18,3 - 32,5)
TMS + FM + ALT + ECP	20±3,6A (13 - 27)	10,7±3,6A (3,7 - 17,7)	10,4±3,6A (3,4 - 17,4)	10,5±3,6A (3,5 - 17,5)	14,3±3,6A (7,3 - 21,3)	12±3,6A (5 - 19)	14,8±3,6A (7,8 - 21,8)	24,4±3,6A (17,4 - 31,4)	17,4±4A (9,5 - 25,3)	16±4A (8,1 - 23,9)	23,6±3,6A (16,6 - 30,6)	22,8±4A (14,9 - 30,7)	25,6±4,7A (16,4 - 34,8)	17,7±4,7AB (8,5 - 26,9)
INOC	11,9±2,8A (6,3 - 17,4)	12±2,8A (6,4 - 17,5)	20,4±3,4A (13,6 - 27,2)	25,3±8,8A (7,9 - 42,6)	5,2±8,8A (-12,2 - 22,5)	15,5±8,8A (-1,9 - 32,8)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	17,3±10,5AB (10,5 - 24,1)

Different letters denote difference between groups with confidence intervals of 5% probability.

3 Considerações Finais

A doxiciclina atravessa a barreira placentária, sendo detectada nos líquidos amniótico e alantoide, assim como no plasma e líquido sinovial neonatal. Este foi o primeiro estudo a demonstrar a difusão deste fármaco para a unidade fetoplacentária equina e seu acúmulo na articulação neonatal. A administração prolongada da doxiciclina não ocasionou toxicidade materna ou fetal, sugerindo que a utilização deste fármaco é segura na fase final da gestação.

No presente trabalho as concentrações plasmáticas de estrógenos e progestinas não foram capazes de predizer o resultado gestacional de éguas com placentite induzida experimentalmente. Entretanto, concentrações mais baixas de estradiol 17- β se relacionaram, de certa forma, com piores resultados gestacionais.

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Anexos

**Anexo I - Documento da Comissão de Ética e Experimentação Animal CEEA
3891**



Pelotas, 06 de Janeiro de 2014

De: Prof. Dr. Éverton Fagonde da Silva

Presidente da Comissão de Ética em Experimentação Animal (CEEA)

Para: Professor Carlos Eduardo Wayne Nogueira

Faculdade de Veterinária

Senhor Professor:

A *CEEA* analisou o projeto intitulado: “**Avaliação do efeito da hormonioterapia em éguas com placentite através da identificação de receptores na placenta e grau de perfusão sanguínea uterina e sua relação com a viabilidade do neonato**”, processo nº23110.003891/2013-37, sendo de parecer **FAVORÁVEL** a sua execução, considerando ser o assunto pertinente e a metodologia compatível com os princípios éticos em experimentação animal e com os objetivos propostos.

Solicitamos, após tomar ciência do parecer, reenviar o processo à *CEEA*.

Salientamos também a necessidade deste projeto ser cadastrado junto ao Departamento de Pesquisa e Iniciação Científica para posterior registro no *COCEPE* (código para cadastro nº *CEEA 3891*).

Sendo o que tínhamos para o momento, subscrevemo-nos.

Atenciosamente,

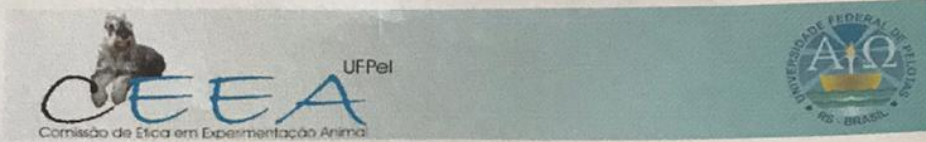
Prof. Dr. Éverton Fagonde da Silva

Presidente da CEEA

Ciente em: 7/1/2014

Assinatura do Professor Responsável:

**Anexo II - Documento da Comissão de Ética e Experimentação Animal CEEA
8319-2017**



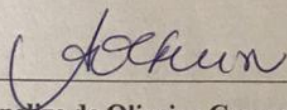
Pelotas, 29 de novembro de 2017

Certificado

Certificamos a proposta intitulada “**Farmacocinética da doxiciclina em éguas gestantes e sua distribuição para o neonato e colostro**” registrada na CEEA sob o número **8319-2017**, de responsabilidade de **Bruna da Rosa Curcio** - que envolve a produção, manutenção ou utilização de animais pertencentes ao filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto humanos), para fins de pesquisa científica (ou ensino) – encontra-se de acordo com os preceitos da Lei nº 11.794, de 8 de outubro de 2008, do Decreto nº 6.899, de 15 de julho de 2009, e com as normas editadas pelo Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), e recebeu parecer **FAVORÁVEL** a sua complementação pela Comissão de Ética em Experimentação Animal, em reunião de 06/11/2017.

Finalidade	(X) Pesquisa	() Ensino
Vigência da autorização	01/12/2017 a 01/11/2019	
Espécie/linhagem/raça	Equina/Mestiço	
Nº de animais	24	
Idade	24 fêmeas adultas e 24 potros	
Sexo	Fêmeas	
Origem	Centro Agropecuário da Palma - UFPEL	

Solicitamos, após tomar ciência do parecer, reenviar o processo à CEEA.



M.V. Dra. Anélize de Oliveira Campello Felix
Presidente da CEEA