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BRUNA PARAPINSKI DOS SANTOS

MICROBIOTA RUMINAL:
USO DE VIRGINIAMICINA COMO PROMOTOR DE
CRESCIMENTO E EFEITO DA TRANSFAUNAÇÃO INTER-
ESPÉCIE

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como requisito parcial para a obtenção do título de
Doutor.

Orientador: Prof. Dr. Júlio Augusto Naylor Lisbôa

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3 Ciência Animal) – Universidade Estadual de Londrina, Londrina, 2019.

4 RESUMO

5
6
7 A microbiota ruminal é uma complexa comunidade de micro-organismos composta por
8 bactérias, arqueia, fungos, protozoários e vírus. Várias técnicas são utilizadas para caracterizar
9 essa microbiota, dentre elas o sequenciamento de nova geração. O presente projeto visou
10 estudar diferentes formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal de bovinos e ovinos, para
11 isso foram realizados dois experimentos. O primeiro estudo foi conduzido em uma fazenda de
12 confinamento bovino com o objetivo de avaliar se a virginiamicina usada como promotora de
13 crescimento modifica o microbioma ruminal em bovinos confinados. Para isso, setenta e seis
14 bovinos foram divididos em dois lotes em diferentes estações do ano (B1 e B2). Animais de
15 ambos os lotes foram divididos em dois grupos, alojados em baias vizinhas, um grupo
16 recebendo virginimicina (ATB) como promotora de crescimento (340mg/ 360kg PV) e o
17 outro recebendo a mesma dieta sem promotor de crescimento (CON). Um terceiro grupo de
18 vacas nelore (20), criadas na mesma propriedade, mas mantidas a pasto (*Brachiararia spp.*) foi
19 utilizado (PAS). A virginiamicina induziu mudanças na estrutura e na composição da
20 microbiota apenas no primeiro lote (B1). O perfil metagenômico foi similar entre os grupos
21 CON e ATB. Concluiu-se com esse estudo que a virginiamicina modificou a estrutura e a
22 composição da microbiota, mas que essas mudanças não ocorreram nos principais filos e
23 gêneros, e o efeito não foi consistente em diferentes estações do ano. O segundo estudo teve
24 como objetivo estudar a colonização bacteriana e de protozoários de ovinos saudáveis
25 transfaunados com líquido ruminal de bovinos. Foram utilizados 11 ovinos como receptores e
26 três bovinos como doadores de líquido ruminal. O líquido ruminal das três vacas foi colhido e
27 misturado e fornecido 1,5L para cada uma das seis ovelhas do grupo transfaunado (TRANS),
28 e os cinco animais do grupo controle (CON) receberam 1,5L de solução fisiológica morna.
29 Foi feita a avaliação da microbiota bacteriana, da população de protozoários e a avaliação
30 física, química e biológica do líquido ruminal do doador e dos receptores em cinco momentos:
31 antes da transfaunação (D0) e com 2 (D2), 7 (D7), 14 (D14) e 28 (D28) dias após. A
32 transfaunação não modificou a riqueza e a diversidade da microbiota ruminal das ovelhas,
33 porém modificou a estrutura da microbiota por até 28 dias, mas essas mudanças não
34 ocorreram nos principais filos e gêneros. O gênero de protozoário *Charonina* foi capaz de se
35 estabelecer no rúmen das ovelhas. Mesmo não havendo mudança no manejo dos animais,
36 variações ao longo do tempo ocorreram na população bacteriana e de protozoários. Conclui-se
37 que a transfaunação é um procedimento seguro para ser feito inter-espécie e que o
38 procedimento foi capaz de modificar a estrutura da microbiota dos animais que receberam o
39 líquido ruminal. A dinâmica ruminal é complexa e antibiótico promotor de crescimento e o
40 fornecimento de uma grande quantidade de bactérias e protozoários tiveram ação limitada na
41 microbiota ruminal.

42
43 **Palavras-chave:** Rúmen. Sequenciamento de nova geração. Ovinos. Bovinos. Bactérias.
44 Protozoários

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2 promoter and inter-specie transfaunation impact. 2019. 103f. Thesis (Doctor's Degree in
3 Animal Science) – Universidade Estadual de Londrina, Londrina, 2019.

4 5 6 **ABSTRACT** 7 8

9 The ruminal microbiota is a complex community of microorganisms composed of bacteria,
10 archaea, fungi, protozoa and viruses. Several techniques are used to characterize this
11 microbiota, among them, the new generation sequencing. The aim of the present study was to
12 study different forms for manipulation the bovine and ovine ruminal microbiota, for this, two
13 experiments was performed. The first one was conducted on a cattle farm and two
14 confinement lots were carried out to evaluate whether virginiamycin used as a growth
15 promoter modifies the ruminal microbiome in feedlot cattle. For this, seventy-six cattle were
16 divided in two batches in different seasons of the year (B1 and B2). Animals from both
17 batches were divided into two groups, housed in neighboring pens in the same feedlot, one
18 group receiving virginiamycin as a growth promoter (340mg/360kg bw) (ATB) and the other
19 receiving the same diet without growth promoter (CON). A third group of Nelore cows (20),
20 reared on the same property but kept on pasture (*Brachiaria* spp.) was also analysed (PAS).
21 Virginiamycin induced changes in structure and composition of the microbiota only in the
22 first batch (B1. The metagenomic profile was very similar between the CON and TRANS. It
23 was concluded with this study that virginiamycin modified the structure and composition of
24 the microbiota but that these changes did not occur in the main phyla and genera, and the
25 effect was not consistent at different seasons of the year. The second study aimed to evaluate
26 the bacterial and protozoan colonization of healthy sheep transfaunated with ruminal fluid
27 from cows. Eleven healthy sheep were used as receptors and three healthy cows as donors of
28 ruminal fluid. The ruminal fluid from the three cows was collected and mixed and 1.5L was
29 given for each of the six sheep of the TRANS group. The five animals from the CON group
30 received 1,5L of warm physiological solution. Bacterial microbiota and protozoa population
31 were evaluated as the physical, chemical and biological parameters of the ruminal liquid from
32 the donor and from the receptors in five moments: before transfaunation (D0) and with 2
33 (D2), 7 (D7), 14 (D14) and 28 (D28) days after. Transfaunation did not change the richness
34 and diversity of the sheep's ruminal microbiota, but modified the community structure for up
35 to 28 days, although these changes did not occur in the main phyla and genus. The *Charonina*
36 protozoa genus was able to establish in the rumen of the sheep. Even though there was no
37 change in the management of the animals, variations over time occurred in the bacterial and
38 protozoan population. It can be concluded that transfaunation is a safe procedure to be done
39 between cows and sheeps and this procedure can change the ruminal microbiota structure.
40 Ruminal microbiota dynamics is complex and antibiotic growth promoter and the supply of a
41 large amount of bacteria and protozoa were not able to modify the main phyla and genus of
42 ruminal bacteria and protozoa
43

44 **Key words:** Rumen. New generation sequencing. Sheep. Bacteria. Protozoa. Cattle.
45

LISTA DE ILUSTRAÇÕES

REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO

Figura 1. Teoria sobre a ação dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento 24

ARTIGO A

Figure 1. Relative abundances of the phyla found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) during dry season (B1) (a) and during rain season (B2) (b) 52

Figure 2 – Relative abundances of the genera found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches. a: dry season (B1); b: rain season (B2)..... 53

Figure 3 – LEfSe analysis indicating ruminal bacterial taxa associated with treatment with virginiamycin (ATB), control feedlot animals (CON) and in pasture based-diet (PAS) in beef cattle during the dry season (B1). 54

Figure 4 – PCoA representing similarities in bacterial communities' membership (Jaccard index) and structure (Yue and Clayton index) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (red), control animals (blue) and from animals kept at pasture (green)..... 55

Figure 5 – Dendrograms representing similarities in bacterial communities' membership (a) and structure (b) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (dark red lines), control animals (dark blue lines) and from animals kept at pasture (green lines) during the dry season (B1), and in cattle treated with virginiamycin (light red lines) and control animals (light blue lines) housed during the rain season (B2)..... 56

Figure 6 – LEfSe analysis indicating ruminal bacterial taxa associated with high and low average daily weight gain in feedlot cattle during the dry season (B1) (a) and rain seasons (B2) (b). 57

Figure 7 –	Metagenomic analysis of ruminal bacterial communities of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), and controls (CON) using SEED categories at level 1 (a) level 2 (b).....	58
-------------------	--	----

ARTIGO B

Figure 1 –	Phyla with more than 1% of relative abundance in control (A) and transfaunated (B) ewes along time.....	93
Figure 2 –	Genera with more than 1% of relative abundance in control (A) and transfaunated (B) ewes along time.....	94
Figure 3 –	Lefse analysis indicating bacterial taxa associated with time of sampling in transfaunated ewes (A) and controls (B).....	95
Figure 4 –	Dendrograms representing the similarity between community membership (A, B) and structure (C, D) within treatment in TRANS (A, C) and CON (B, D) animals.....	96
Figure 5 –	Protozoa in the ruminal fluid stained by lugol solution. The arrowhead is pointing the protozoa: A- <i>Entodinium</i> , B- <i>Charonina</i> , C- <i>Epidinium</i> , D- <i>Polyplastrum</i>	97

LISTA DE TABELAS

ARTIGO A

- Table 1** – Mean and standard deviation (\pm) of the number of genera, Simpson's, Chao and Shannon indices and median, inter quartile range (Q1-Q3) values of Good's coverage (%) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches (dry and rain seasons)..... 59
- Table 2** – Median, inter quartile range (Q1-Q3) values of relative abundances of the main phyla present in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches (Dry and rain seasons). 60
- Table 3** – Table 3. Median, interquartile range (Q1-Q3) of relative abundances of the main genera present in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches (Dry and rain seasons). 61

ARTIGO B

- Table 1** – Mean \pm SD of pH and Methylene blue reduction test in groups CON and TRANS. Comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days. 87
- Table 2** - Alpha diversity calculated by coverage (%), Chao index and inverted Simpson index comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days. 88
- Table 3** - Phyla in control and transfaunated animals. Comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days. 89
- Table 4** - Genera in control and transfaunated animals. Comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days 90
- Table 5** - *P* values of membership (Jaccard index) and structure (Yue and Clayton index) similarity within treatments. 91
- Table 6** - Mean of protozoa total counting ($\times 10^5$) and abundance of genera in the cows and in ewes in D0, D2, D7, D14 and D28. 92

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

16S rRNA	RNA ribossômico 16S
ADG	Average Daily Gain
AGPs	Antibiotic growth promoters
AGV's	Ácidos graxos voláteis
ATB	Antibiotic
B1	Batch 1
B2	Batch 2
CON	Control
FAO	Food and Agriculture Organization
FDA	Food and Drug Administration
LefSe	Linear Discriminant Analysis Effective Size
OTU	Operational Taxonomic Unit
PAS	Pasture
TRANS	Transfaunated

SUMÁRIO

1	INTRODUÇÃO	12
2	REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO	14
2.1	TERMINOLOGIA UTILIZADA NO ESTUDO DE MICROBIOMA	14
2.2	A MICROBIOTA RUMINAL	16
2.2.1	Bactérias	16
2.2.2	Arqueias	18
2.2.3	Protozoários	18
2.2.4	Fungos e Vírus	19
2.3	TÉCNICAS INDEPENDENTES DE CULTURA	20
2.4	MANIPULAÇÃO DA MICROBIOTA RUMINAL	20
2.4.1	Uso de Antibióticos Promotores de Crescimento	23
2.4.2	Transfaunação	25
	REFERÊNCIAS	29
3	HIPÓTESES	38
4	OBJETIVOS	39
4.1	OBJETIVO GERAL	39
4.2	OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICO	39
5	ARTIGO A – Impact of virginiamycin on the ruminal microbiota of feedlot cattle	40
6	ARTIGO B –Transfaunation with cow rumen fluid alters bacterial structure of ruminal microbiota but not dominant bacteria and protozoa in healthy sheep	72
7	PERSPECTIVAS	98
8	CONCLUSÕES	99
	ANEXOS	100
	ANEXO A – Aprovação do Comitê de Ética no uso de animais do artigo A	101
	ANEXO B – Aprovação do Comitê de Ética no uso de animais do artigo B	102

1 INTRODUÇÃO

Os ruminantes são mamíferos muito importantes para a humanidade, que durante séculos, caçaram várias espécies selvagens e muitas foram domesticadas incluindo bovinos, ovinos, caprinos, camelídeos e bubalinos. Os ruminantes se diferenciam das outras espécies animais pela presença dos pré-estômagos, dentre eles o rúmen, que é o órgão responsável por manutenção de condições ideais para o estabelecimento de uma comunidade complexa de micro-organismos composta por bactérias, arqueias, fungos, protozoários e vírus (HUNGATE 1966). Esses micro-organismos mantêm uma relação simbiótica com o hospedeiro e, através da fermentação dos alimentos, são os principais responsáveis pela disponibilização de energia e proteína para o animal na forma de ácidos graxos voláteis e proteína celular microbiana além de algumas vitaminas essenciais.

Estudos têm sido conduzidos visando caracterizar e manipular essa complexa comunidade, com o objetivo principal de aumentar a eficiência alimentar e diminuir as perdas energéticas e a formação de compostos prejudiciais ao meio ambiente como o metano e a amônia, além de prevenir o desequilíbrio e o aparecimento de doenças como por exemplo a acidose láctica ruminal e a acidose ruminal subaguda (HUO; ZHU; MAO, 2014; JEWEL *et al.*, 2015). Contudo, em animais adultos, a microbiota ruminal possui algumas características que possibilitam estabilidade apesar de mecanismos de intervenção.

Com o advento das tecnologias moleculares criou-se a perspectiva de métodos independentes de cultura microbiológica, o que favorece o estudo de espécies que não crescem em meios de cultura convencionais. De fato, a maioria das espécies bacterianas presentes no rúmen não crescem nesses meios e, portanto, permaneceram desconhecidas até recentemente (CREEVEY *et al.*, 2014).

Uma das formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal é pelo uso de antibióticos (JI *et al.*, 2018). Antibióticos em dose subterapêutica são adicionados ao sal ou a ração e utilizados por produtores de carne e leite para melhorar a produtividade do rebanho. O mecanismo que pelos quais os antibióticos promotores de crescimento atuam ainda não está completamente elucidado. Suspeita-se que essas drogas selecionem espécies mais eficientes na extração de energia dos alimentos. Já existem evidências de que o uso de antibióticos em baixas doses é capaz de aumentar o ganho de peso, e que, esse aumento de ganho de peso é atribuído a alterações na microbiota, pois a transferência dessa microbiota alterada para animais “*germ free*” também promove aumento de ganho de peso (COX *et al.*, 2014)

1 Atualmente existe uma preocupação mundial em relação ao uso indiscriminado
2 de antibióticos, uma vez que o uso destes em larga escala tem sido associado com o
3 aparecimento de resistência antimicrobiana em bactérias patogênicas com caráter zoonótico
4 (FUNK *et al.*, 2006; LHERMIE *et al.*, 2017; MIR; KUDVA, 2018). Essas restrições têm
5 levado os pesquisadores a procurar por alternativas para o uso desses aditivos convencionais.
6 Várias alternativas têm sido propostas, mas apresentam resultados variáveis, dentre elas está o
7 uso de prebióticos e probióticos, que vem sendo explorados na modulação da microbiota de
8 ruminantes e não ruminantes (SAMANTA *et al.*, 2013).

9 O uso de probióticos e prebióticos tem sido amplamente estudado atualmente.
10 O resultado das pesquisas ainda não é satisfatório quanto a capacidade das bactérias
11 fornecidas pelo probiótico conseguirem se estabelecer no rúmen (DESNOYERS *et al.*, 2009).
12 Isso ocorre, devido a estabilidade da comunidade microbiana ruminal no animal adulto
13 (WEIMER, 2015). Por outro lado, acredita-se que a transferência de uma comunidade
14 complexa estável de um animal para outro seja capaz de modificar o ambiente ruminal do
15 animal que recebeu o fluido ruminal. Nesse procedimento, também chamado de
16 transfaunação, utiliza-se animais saudáveis com a microbiota equilibrada como doadores de
17 líquido ruminal. A transfaunação tem sido feita para tratar ruminantes doentes há muitos anos
18 (BRAG; HENSEN, 1994) e é recomendada por livros textos de clínica veterinária em grandes
19 animais, com o objetivo de restituir a microbiota ruminal perdida nas diversas doenças gastro-
20 entéricas (GARRY; MCCONNEL, 2015). Essa prática é muito utilizada no Brasil para
21 tratamento de pacientes com diferentes tipos de doenças (CÂMARA *et al.*, 2009; CÂMARA
22 *et al.*, 2010; RIZZO *et al.*, 2015; LEAL; MARUTA; ORTOLANI, 2007), mesmo que muitas
23 vezes de forma empírica e com pouco embasamento científico pois ainda são escassos os
24 estudos que comprovem a real eficácia dessa técnica. Portanto, devido a importância da
25 utilização da técnica, e da difusão com a qual é utilizada, é fundamental que estudos sejam
26 realizados para verificar a capacidade da microbiota fornecida em colonizar o rúmen,
27 principalmente utilizando-se as novas técnicas disponíveis.

2 REFERENCIAL TEÓRICO

Os ruminantes são mamíferos biungulados da ordem Artiodactyla, herbívoros que obtém sua alimentação de plantas. O principal carboidrato das plantas é a celulose, entretanto todas as espécies de animais vertebrados são desprovidas de celulases, enzimas que fazem a hidrólise da celulose. Dessa forma, para o aproveitamento dessa importante fonte de energia, os herbívoros mantêm uma comunidade bacteriana com a capacidade de degradá-la (RUSSEL *et al.*, 2009). Para viabilizar a população microbiana, o organismo precisa de uma área que seja bem separada da secreção ácida do estômago, e com capacidade para que o movimento da ingesta demore o suficiente para que a digestão microbiana aconteça. Nos ruminantes, esse local é o rúmen, que é o maior dos pré estômagos e onde ocorre a fermentação microbiana (DEHORITY, 2003).

O ambiente ruminal é bem adaptado para a manutenção de uma rica e diversa população de micro-organismos. O fornecimento de alimento e água, ocorre de forma relativamente constante, a temperatura é mantida por volta de 39°C e o pH da ingesta que geralmente é ligeiramente ácido, é mantido constante por influxo de comida, água e saliva altamente tamponante (HUNGATE, 1966). Além disso ocorre constante remoção dos produtos resultantes da fermentação pela continuação através do trato gastrointestinal, absorção dos ácidos graxos voláteis (AGV's) e eructação (LEAN *et al.*, 2014).

Esses micro-organismos mantêm uma relação simbiótica com o hospedeiro, e são de vital importância para a saúde e produtividade do ruminante (FANIYI *et al.*, 2019). Dessa forma, uma revisão sobre essa microbiota ruminal e algumas formas de manipulação dessa comunidade será apresentada nas páginas a seguir e, para isso, é importante fazer a definição de alguns termos que estão apresentados na próxima seção e resumidos em um quadro para busca rápida (Quadro 1).

2.1 TERMINOLOGIA UTILIZADA NO ESTUDO DE MICROBIOMA

O avanço dos estudos com tecnologias moleculares tem transformado as análises de comunidades microbianas. Essa transformação veio acompanhada de confusão do vocabulário utilizado para descrever os diferentes aspectos dessas comunidades e do ambiente. O uso incorreto de termos como microbioma, microbiota, metagenoma e metagenômica, dentre outros contribuem para a má interpretação de estudos pela comunidade

1 científica e para o público geral. Dessa forma foi adicionado a essa revisão definições claras
 2 de alguns termos de acordo com o proposto por Marchesi e Ravel (2015). A definição do
 3 termo **microbiota** é o conjunto de micro-organismos presentes em um ambiente definido.
 4 Esse censo microbiano é estabelecido usando métodos moleculares baseados principalmente
 5 nas análises dos genes 16S rRNA ou 18S rRNA ou outros marcadores genéticos e regiões.
 6 Muitas vezes o termo microbiota é utilizado para se referir somente às comunidades
 7 bacterianas. O termo **genoma** significa o conjunto de genes de um indivíduo. Por sua vez, o
 8 termo **metagenoma** é mais amplo e envolve a compilação dos genes ou genomas da
 9 microbiota. Essa compilação é obtida pelo sequenciamento do DNA pelo método *shotgun*, ou
 10 metagenômica, seguido pela montagem do gene ou genoma e comparação com um banco de
 11 dados com anotações. O termo **microbioma** se refere ao habitat completo, incluindo os
 12 micro-organismos, seus genomas e condições do ambiente que os cercam. Esse termo
 13 originou do termo “bioma” que envolve os fatores bióticos e abióticos de um ambiente. O
 14 microbioma é obtido por uma ou pela combinação de metagenômica, metabonômica,
 15 metatranscriptômica e metaproteômica. Além disso, o termo **flora** quando descrito
 16 originalmente, se remete as plantas de um ambiente, e dessa forma o termo flora ruminal ou
 17 **microflora** ruminal deve ser evitado.

18 Alguns termos de estudo de biodiversidade e comunidades da biologia são aplicados
 19 nas comunidades de micro-organismos. Para esclarecimento, foi feita uma compilação dos
 20 termos utilizados nessa tese e organizados no **quadro 1**.

21

Termo	Termo (inglês)	Significado	Referência
Alfa diversidade	Alfa diversity	Diversidade ou riqueza de um habitat específico	1
Beta diversidade	Beta diversity	Comparação na diversidade entre diferentes comunidades ou ao longo do tempo	1
Riqueza de espécies	species richness	Número de espécies em uma comunidade ou em uma região	1
Índice de diversidade	Diversity index	Uma expressão matemática que combina a riqueza das espécies e uniformidade como uma medida de diversidade	1
Uniformidade	Eveness	Mensuração de homogeneidade de abundância em uma amostra ou comunidade	1
Composição	Membership	Medida de beta diversidade que leva em consideração a riqueza dos micro-organismos presentes nas comunidades que estão sendo comparados	2
Estrutura	Structure	Medida de beta diversidade que leva em consideração os micro-organismos e suas respectivas abundâncias (diversidade) presentes nas comunidades que estão sendo comparados	3
Microbiota	Microbiota	Conjunto de micro-organismos presentes em um ambiente definido	4

Microbioma	Microbiome	Habitat completo, incluindo os micro-organismos, seus genomas e condições do ambiente que os cercam	4
Metabolômica	Metabolomics	Abordagem analítica usada para determinar um perfil metabólico em uma determinada cepa ou tecido. O conjunto resultante de todos os metabólitos é o metaboloma.	4
Metabonômica	Metabonomics	Esse termo é uma variante da metabolômica, entretanto descreve a abordagem para gerar o perfil metabólico de sistemas complexos, ex. mamíferos onde mais de uma cepa ou tecido contribuem para o pool metabólico.	4
Metagenoma	Metagenome	A compilação dos genes ou genomas da microbiota	4
Metagenômica	Metagenomics	Técnica utilizada para obter o metagenoma	4
Metaproteômica	Metaproteomics	Caracterização em larga escala das proteínas presentes em um ambiente ou amostras clínicas em determinado tempo	4
Metatranscriptômica	Metatranscriptomics	Análise do conjunto de RNA expresso por análise de seus DNA complementares correspondentes	4
Abundância relativa	Relative abundance	O padrão quantitativo de raridade e comunidade entre espécies em uma amostra ou comunidade	1

1 1- COLWELL (2009); 2- SMITH *et al.* (1996); 3- YUE; CLAYTON (2005); 4- MARCHESI; RAVEL (2015).

2

3 2.2 A MICROBIOTA RUMINAL

4

5 A microbiota ruminal é uma comunidade rica e complexa muito importante
6 para a saúde do hospedeiro e também para a produção animal, pois é a principal responsável
7 pelo fornecimento de energia para os ruminantes por meio da fermentação anaeróbica
8 (McCANN *et al.*, 2014). A fermentação microbiana é responsável pela digestão dos
9 polissacarídeos complexos que os ruminantes são incapazes de digerir sozinhos, devido a
10 incapacidade de produzir as enzimas necessárias para isso (HUNGATE, 1966). Não existe um
11 único micro-organismo que é responsável pela degradação dos substratos complexos como a
12 celulose, mas ocorre uma sucessão de reações que envolvem vários micro-organismos e no
13 final resultam em energia, proteína e vitaminas para o hospedeiro. Os principais produtos da
14 fermentação são os ácidos graxos voláteis (AGV's) e proteína microbiana. Os AGV's se
15 difundem pelo epitélio ruminal e as proteínas microbianas são absorvidas pelo intestino
16 delgado. Os produtos finais da fermentação são liberados pela eructação e incluem gás
17 carbônico e metano, e por terem carbono na sua composição, são considerados perda de
18 energia, além de serem considerados gases que contribuem para o efeito estufa (KREHBIEL,
19 2014).

20

21 2.2.1 Bactérias

1 As bactérias são os micro-organismos mais numerosos no rúmen, e estão em
2 concentração de até 10^{10-11} /g. O estudo desses micro-organismos no rúmen ocorreu com
3 sucesso a partir dos estudos do grupo de pesquisa liderado por Robert Hungate, que deram ao
4 pesquisador a homenagem de ser chamado de “pai da microbiologia ruminal”. Foram
5 desenvolvidas técnicas de anaerobiose *in vitro* que possibilitaram a cultura, o isolamento de
6 bactérias e a descrição detalhada da função de várias bactérias ruminais (HUNGATE, 1966).
7 Na época, foram realizadas tantas descrições novas que eles acreditavam que aquela tinha
8 sido a década de maiores descobertas, que os principais grupos bacterianos já tinham sido
9 descobertos e que no futuro nenhum grupo de pesquisadores chegaria nem perto de divulgar a
10 quantidade de novos grupos bacterianos que foram relatados (BRYANT, 1959).

11 Contudo, sabe-se que a maior parte das bactérias são difíceis de cultivar e
12 estima-se que apenas 20% das bactérias crescem em meios de cultura padrão (KRAUSE *et*
13 *al.*, 2013). O advento de tecnologias moleculares para estudo do DNA bacteriano levou a
14 estudos independentes de cultura, e que não sofrem com o viés causado pela cultura. Bactérias
15 que eram tidas como muito importantes, passaram a ser encontradas em proporção muito mais
16 baixa do que se descreveu inicialmente (McCANN *et al.*, 2014). O uso de equipamentos que
17 fazem o sequenciamento de DNA em paralelo, ou também chamado de sequenciamento de
18 nova geração tem possibilitado estudar a microbiota de forma mais abrangente (MATTHEWS
19 *et al.*, 2018).

20 Recentemente tem se tentado estabelecer os principais grupos de bactérias
21 compartilhadas pelas diferentes espécies animais, mesmo recebendo diferentes dietas e em
22 manejos diversos. Em um estudo avaliando 742 amostras de conteúdo ruminal, Henderson e
23 colaboradores (2015) encontraram os sete principais gêneros bacterianos, que foram
24 detectadas em todas as amostras avaliadas, e constituíram 60,1% de todos os dados de
25 sequencias bacterianas. São elas *Prevotella*, *Butyrivibrio*, e *Ruminococcus*, e também os
26 gêneros não classificados de *Lachnospiraceae*, *Ruminococcaceae*, *Bacteroidales* e
27 *Clostridiales*. As arqueias são mais similares entre todas as amostras, e os protozoários são os
28 micro-organismos que mais variam de acordo com a localização geográfica. A microbiota
29 ruminal é altamente responsiva às mudanças na dieta, idade, ao uso de antibióticos e ao estado
30 de saúde do animal, e varia de acordo com a localização geográfica, estação do ano, manejo
31 alimentar (McCANN *et al.*, 2014) e espécie animal (HENDERSON *et al.*, 2015).

32 Com o objetivo de aumentar a eficiência alimentar e reduzir os compostos
33 prejudiciais ao meio ambiente, vários estudos têm sido conduzidos em bovinos
34 (MALMHUTAGE *et al.*, 2017; ZEINELDIN *et al.*, 2018). Associações entre a microbiota

1 ruminal e a eficiência alimentar em bovinos de corte demonstraram que o perfil bacteriano no
2 rúmen de bovinos eficientes diferem dos ineficientes e a abundância de vários gêneros foi
3 associada com características de eficiência alimentar que incluem consumo alimentar residual,
4 conversão alimentar, ingestão de matéria seca e ganho de peso diário (MYER *et al.*, 2015, LI
5 e GUAN, 2017); além de bactérias identificadas com maior ou menor abundância em animais
6 mais eficientes em produção de leite, eficiência alimentar, e características de composição de
7 leite (JAMI *et al.*, 2014; JEWEL *et al.*, 2015). Em ovinos, sabe-se que animais que possuem
8 melhor eficiência alimentar também apresentam um perfil diferente da microbiota ruminal
9 (ELLISON *et al.*, 2017), reforçando a importância das bactérias presentes no rúmen,
10 incluindo a manutenção da saúde e a produtividade animal.

11 12 2.2.2 Arqueias

13
14 Apesar das bactérias serem os micro-organismos mais numerosos no rúmen,
15 arqueias, protozoários, fungos e vírus também fazem parte dessa rica comunidade (KRAUSE
16 *et al.*, 2013). As arqueias são micro-organismos unicelulares e são encontradas no rúmen em
17 densidades de 10^{4-6} células/mL, representando menos de 4% da comunidade microbiana. As
18 arqueias, representam um domínio que é morfológicamente semelhante as bactérias, mas
19 geneticamente é tão distante das bactérias quanto dos eucariotos (KREHBIEL, 2014). Esse
20 domínio é capaz de sobreviver nos mais diversos ambientes. No rúmen, as arqueias presentes
21 são produtoras de metano e pertencem ao filo *Euryarcheota* (HOOK *et al.*, 2010).

22 23 2.2.3 Protozoários

24
25 Os protozoários ruminais podem atingir concentração de 10^{4-6} células/mL,
26 numericamente muito inferior a quantidade de bactérias, mas devido ao tamanho, podem
27 representar até 50% da massa microbiana no rúmen (WILLIAMS, COLLEMAN, 1993).
28 Desde a primeira descrição dos protozoários ciliados no rúmen em 1983 por Gruby e
29 Delafond, o estudo desses micro-organismos é realizado por microscopia ótica (NEWBOLD
30 *et al.*, 2015). Essa técnica continua sendo considerada a técnica padrão ouro, apesar de
31 estudos moleculares baseados no gene 18S rRNA terem aumentado recentemente. A
32 microscopia apresenta várias vantagens comparadas com as técnicas baseadas em PCR no
33 estudo dos protozoários ruminais, primeiramente porque existem muitas descrições e
34 esquemas do caráter morfológico dos protozoários, mas ainda existe uma lacuna no banco de

1 dados do gene 18S rRNA, e também por que diferentes gêneros têm diferentes quantidades de
2 cópias do gene de 18S rRNA, o que dificulta a caracterização da α -diversidade. Nos estudos
3 utilizando as técnicas moleculares, protozoários pequenos como os do gênero *Entodinium*
4 geralmente são subestimados e protozoários grandes como os dos gêneros *Poliplastrum* ou
5 *Epidinium* são superestimados (KITTELMANN *et al.*, 2015).

6 A função dos protozoários para o hospedeiro ainda não está totalmente
7 elucidada. Sabe-se que esses micro-organismos não são vitais ao hospedeiro, mas os
8 resultados da defaunação, como é denominada a remoção dos protozoários do rúmen, são
9 inconsistentes. Newbold e colaboradores (2015) realizaram uma meta-análise com os estudos
10 em que fizeram defaunação e verificaram que esta reduz a emissão de metano e aumenta a
11 conversão alimentar dos animais sem protozoários, por reduzir a ingestão de matéria seca
12 além de melhorar a digestão da proteína. Porém, eles ressaltam que esses resultados devem
13 ser avaliados com cautela pois muitos estudos analisados apresentam algumas limitações,
14 como o tempo de adaptação a dieta e dietas de baixo valor nutricional.

15 O principal gênero de protozoários encontrado no rúmen dos animais
16 domésticos é o *Entodinium*. Os gêneros *Dasytrychia* e *Isotrichia* também são frequentemente
17 encontrados. Porém, existem protozoários que são mutualmente excludentes, ou seja, a
18 presença de um determina a ausência do outro, e eles não são encontrados juntos (EADIE,
19 1962). Por isso, foi feita uma classificação de tipos de população de protozoário de acordo
20 com a presença desses. A presença de *Polyplastrum multivesiculatum* e/ou *Diploplastrum*
21 *affine* determinam o tipo A, já a presença de *Epidium* spp. e/ou *Eudiplodinium maggii*
22 determinam o tipo B. O tipo K é caracterizado pela presença de *Elytroplastrum bubali* e o tipo
23 O por nenhum desses (WILLIAMS, COLLEMAN, 1993).

24 25 2.2.4 Fungos e Vírus

26
27 Fungos e vírus também são encontrados na microbiota ruminal. Os fungos
28 encontrados no rúmen (10^{3-6} zoosporos/mL) são anaeróbicos e seu descobrimento ocorreu em
29 1975, com a mudança de um antigo dogma da biologia de que todos os fungos eram
30 aeróbicos. Os fungos ruminais tem grande capacidade de degradação de fibra e capacidade de
31 colonizar rapidamente o rúmen, entretanto a função destes ainda necessita ser determinada
32 (KRAUSE *et al.*, 2013). Outro micro-organismo encontrado no rúmen que necessita de maior
33 entendimento sobre a função são os vírus bacteriófagos. Estes são encontrados em altas

1 densidades ($10^{7-9}/g$), e acredita-se que podem estar ligados a transferência de genes entre os
2 outros micro-organismos (MATTHEW *et al.*, 2018).

3 2.3 TÉCNICAS INDEPENDENTES DE CULTURA

4
5 Os métodos de identificação e detecção de micro-organismos independentes de
6 cultura baseados no DNA permitiram uma nova revolução no estudo da microbiologia
7 ruminal.

8 Inicialmente técnicas conhecidas no inglês como *fingerprinting* ou traduzidas para o
9 português como “impressão digital” foram, e ainda são utilizadas com o objetivo de monitorar
10 a composição microbiana e mudanças que ocorrem nessa comunidade (JUSTÉ *et al.*, 2008).

11 Esses métodos permitem o estudo e comparação entre diferentes comunidades, porém
12 possuem valor limitado por não permitir a classificação taxonômica dos organismos. O
13 sequenciamento de nova geração – *Next Generation Sequencing*, em inglês, ou simplesmente
14 NGS – são processos de sequenciamento de DNA que utilizam processamento paralelo
15 massivo de fragmentos de DNA, de forma que milhões de fragmentos de DNA são
16 sequenciados ao mesmo tempo, com o objetivo de acelerar e baixar o custo do processo de
17 sequenciamento (GRADA; WEINBRECHT, 2013). A maioria dos estudos para
18 caracterização da microbiota bacteriana utiliza o sequenciamento de um fragmento do gene
19 16S rRNA, pois esse gene possui regiões altamente conservadas e regiões variáveis, além
20 disso existe um grande banco de dados. O sequenciamento do gene todo não é possível pela
21 maior parte das plataformas, por isso se utiliza um fragmento do gene. Entretanto, essa
22 tecnologia possui algumas limitações pois possibilita uma baixa resolução taxonômica e não
23 permite obter informações sobre as funções do microbioma (MATTHEWS *et al.*, 2018). A
24 tecnologia de sequenciamento metagenômica conhecida como “*shotgun*”, por outro lado,
25 possibilita o sequenciamento de vários genes presentes no microbioma, ao invés de uma única
26 fração. O uso dessa tecnologia é mais caro, por requerer maior quantidade de sequenciamento,
27 mas análises do metagenoma do rúmen têm sido realizadas recentemente (STEWART *et al.*
28 2018).

29 Com a redução do custo e desenvolvimento de plataformas tecnológicas para
30 facilitar as análises bioinformáticas outras tecnologias das chamadas ciências “omicas” que
31 não baseadas no DNA como as análises transcriptômicas, metabolômicas e proteômicas
32 estão sendo utilizadas para estudo da microbiota ruminal (KUMAR; PITTA, 2015).

2.4 MANIPULAÇÃO DA MICROBIOTA RUMINAL

A fermentação microbiana ruminal assume um papel de importância central na nutrição animal, e a possibilidade de manipulação dessa comunidade objetivando a otimização do processo para melhorar a saúde e a produtividade do animal tem atraído o interesse de pesquisadores (MIZRAHI; JAMI 2018).

Algumas características de macroecologia são discutidas por Weimer (2015) e podem ser encontradas na microbiota ruminal, e geram grandes dificuldades na manipulação dessa comunidade no animal adulto. Dentre as características estão a redundância, resiliência e especificidade do hospedeiro. A redundância se caracteriza pela sobreposição de vários gêneros bacterianos para exercer a mesma função fisiológica, ou seja, existem várias espécies bacterianas capazes de realizar a digestão do mesmo substrato. Vários estudos mostram que apesar de mudanças na microbiota ruminal, os parâmetros utilizados para mensurar a fermentação como o pH e a concentração de ácidos graxos voláteis não mudam (WEIMER, 2015) A resiliência é a habilidade de um sistema de se recuperar após um distúrbio (WESTMAN, 1978). Como o rúmen tem uma enorme diversidade de espécies interagindo nesse complexo ecossistema, isso sustenta bases teóricas de discussão de como ou sobre quais condições a microbiota ruminal pode ser manipulada. A especificidade do hospedeiro se caracteriza por diferentes respostas de cada animal aos mesmos estímulos na microbiota, e isso dificulta a consistência quando a mesma intervenção é aplicada a diferentes espécies ou a diferentes animais no mesmo rebanho (MALMUTHUGE, GUAN; 2017)

O aumento da eficiência alimentar e da produtividade agropecuária é um dos maiores enfoques atuais de manipulação ruminal. Objetiva-se a otimização do processo de aproveitamento da energia disponível na dieta, seja por adição de substâncias como aditivos alimentares, dentre eles os antibióticos promotores de crescimento ou ainda pela manipulação da dieta (ANGELAKIS, 2016).

A dieta é o principal fator que determina as alterações na microbiota ruminal, sendo mais importante do que localização geográfica e espécie animal (HENDERSON *et al.*, 2015). Além disso a dieta é o fator de maior relevância econômica em uma criação de ruminantes, representando entre 60 – 70% dos custos de produção (HERD *et al.*, 2003; ARTHUR *et al.*, 2004). Mudanças na dieta promovem grandes alterações na microbiota ruminal (SCHÄREN *et al.*, 2017) e fecal (BESSEGATO *et al.*, 2017), e se forem feitas de forma abrupta podem causar doença no hospedeiro (MYER; BRYANT, 2017).

1 Os antibióticos também modificam a microbiota, e antibióticos promotores de
2 crescimento são utilizados atualmente, porém restrições ao uso desses antimicrobianos têm
3 levado os pesquisadores a procurar por alternativas para o uso desses aditivos convencionais.
4 Várias alternativas têm sido propostas, mas apresentam resultados variáveis, dentre elas está o
5 uso de prebióticos e probióticos, que vem sendo explorados na modulação da microbiota de
6 ruminantes e não ruminantes (SAMANTA *et al.*, 2013).

7 Os probióticos são micro-organismos vivos que quando administrados em
8 quantidade suficiente trazem benefício para a saúde do hospedeiro de forma segura e eficaz
9 (HILL *et al.*, 2014). Em humanos, probióticos são muito utilizados, e movimentam um
10 mercado bilionário, estima-se que nos Estados Unidos da América 60% dos profissionais da
11 área da saúde recomendam a sua utilização (DRAPER *et al.*, 2017). Contudo, a capacidade
12 dos probióticos em colonizar o intestino em humanos saudáveis ainda não está completamente
13 elucidada. Sabe-se que as pessoas são capazes de eliminar as bactérias presentes nos
14 probióticos pelas fezes somente enquanto estão sendo suplementadas, ou por pouco tempo
15 depois (LAHTI *et al.*, 2013; WANG *et al.* 2015; ZMORA *et al.*, 2018). Entretanto a
16 eliminação fecal das bactérias provenientes dos probióticos não significa que essas bactérias
17 colonizaram o intestino, e existem evidências de que o microbioma do hospedeiro influencia
18 na colonização intestinal (ZMORA *et al.*, 2018). Uma revisão sistemática realizada em 2016
19 sobre o uso de probióticos em humanos verificou que existem muitas publicações sobre o uso
20 de probióticos em humanos, porém falta rigor científico na maioria delas. A conclusão dessa
21 revisão foi de que não existem evidências suficientes que comprovem que os probióticos são
22 capazes de modificar a microbiota das fezes em humanos saudáveis comparados com grupo
23 controle (KRISTENSEN *et al.* 2016).

24 Em ruminantes, os probióticos são utilizados buscando a melhora da eficiência
25 alimentar, aumento de produção animal e a prevenção de desequilíbrios na microbiota ruminal
26 e as doenças consequentes dessa disbiose (McCANN *et al.*, 2017). Os mais utilizados e
27 efetivos são a base de leveduras, principalmente o *Saccharomyces cerevisiae*. A adição dessa
28 levedura na alimentação animal promove estabilidade do pH ruminal, aumento de populações
29 celulolíticas (MOSONI *et al.*, 2007; UYENO *et al.*, 2017), melhora na degradação de fibras
30 (ELGHANDOUR *et al.* 2014) e melhora na anaerobiose por redução do oxigênio disponível
31 no rúmen (NEWBOLD *et al.*, 1996). Apesar do potencial desses aditivos estar bem
32 estabelecido e vários probióticos e prebióticos estarem disponíveis comercialmente,
33 resultados inconsistentes têm sido encontrados *in vivo*, e dependem de vários fatores, tais
34 como a dieta, a dose de probiótico e a cepa utilizada (DESNOYERS *et al.*, 2009).

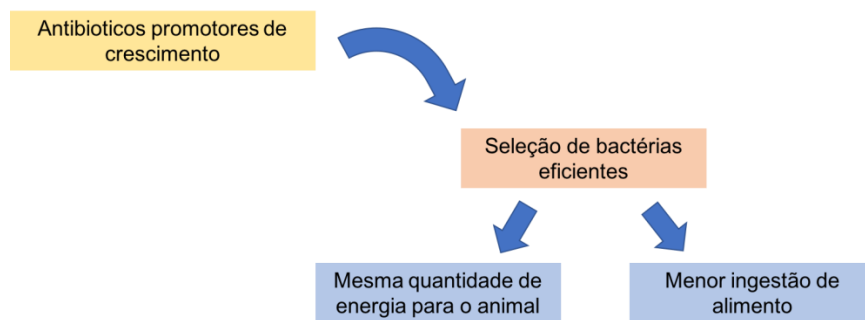
1 Outra forma de manipulação da microbiota ruminal é pela utilização dos
2 prebióticos. Prebióticos são ingredientes não digestíveis que quando consumidos em
3 quantidade suficiente estimulam seletivamente o crescimento e/ou a atividade de uma ou de
4 um limitado número de micróbios no sistema gastro-intestinal (GIBSON *et al.*, 2004). Os
5 principais prebióticos utilizados são substratos de carboidratos como oligossacarídeos ou
6 fibras de baixa digestibilidade (UYENO *et al.*, 2015). A suplementação com oligossacarídeos,
7 fruto-oligossacarídeos e galactosyl-lactatos podem melhorar a performance de crescimento
8 em bezerros no desmame (HASUNAMA *et al.*, 2011). Em monogástricos o efeito dos
9 prebióticos em melhorar a composição e a função da microbiota do intestino já foi
10 comprovada em suínos (PABLACK *et al.*, 2015; SAMANTA *et al.*, 2015) e em aves (RICKE,
11 2015).

12 Outro ponto de interesse nas pesquisas atuais é na manipulação bacteriana para
13 diminuir a formação do gás metano. Esse gás é produzido pelos micro-organismos
14 metanogênicos no rúmen e é um dos gases do efeito estufa (GEE). O metano tem o potencial
15 de aquecimento 25 vezes maior que o dióxido de carbono (CO₂). Estima-se que
16 aproximadamente 11,6% da produção de metano antropogênica seja oriunda da fermentação
17 ruminal. Além disso, a emissão desse gás é responsável pela perda de energia ruminal
18 (RIPPLE *et al.*, 2014). Busca-se, portanto, aumentar a eficiência produtiva e diminuir os GEE
19 no ambiente através do desenvolvimento de estratégias para reduzir a produção relativa de
20 metano (metano/kg do produto).

21 22 2.4.1 Uso de Antibióticos Promotores de Crescimento

23
24 Os antibióticos em doses sub-terapêuticas são muito utilizados como
25 promotores de crescimento na produção de bovinos. Essa estratégia visa obter maior
26 produtividade otimizando a performance dos animais por reduzir a ingestão de matéria seca
27 sem modificar o ganho de peso, ou seja, melhorando a conversão alimentar (ROGERS *et al.*,
28 1995; SALINAS-CHAVIRA *et al.*, 2009; NUÑEZ *et al.*, 2013). Apesar do mecanismo de
29 ação dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento não estar completamente elucidado, em
30 animais monogástricos é presumido que esse efeito seja atingido por diminuição do número
31 total e/ou do número de espécies bacterianas intestinais (CLOSE, 2000; COLLIER *et al.*,
32 2003; BROOM, 2017). Essa teoria baseia-se no fato de que não existe ganho de peso em aves
33 germ-free tratadas com antibióticos promotores de crescimento (COATES *et al.*, 1963).

1 Estudos com tecnologia baseada em cultura de bactérias ruminais
 2 demonstraram que antibióticos adicionadas na ração modificam significativamente a
 3 microbiota ruminal, melhorando a digestão de proteínas e obtenção de energia
 4 (RICHARDSON *et al.*, 1976; RUSSEL; STROBEL, 1989; SPEARS, 1990). Suspeita-se que
 5 essas drogas selecionem espécies mais eficientes na extração de energia dos alimentos,
 6 embora o mecanismo com que isso ocorra não esteja completamente elucidado (Figura 1).



8
 9 Figura 1. Teoria sobre a ação dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento.

10
 11 A virginiamicina é um antibiótico bactericida, produzido pelo fungo
 12 *Streptomyces virginiae*, e amplamente utilizado como promotor de crescimento em animais de
 13 produção. Trabalhos em suínos mostram melhora na digestibilidade do alimento e no
 14 aproveitamento de aminoácidos (STEWART *et al.*, 2010). Estudos clássicos demonstram que
 15 tanto os ionóforos quanto a virginiamicina são antibióticos que atuam principalmente em
 16 bactérias Gram-positivas, selecionando as bactérias Gram-negativas, que são resistentes a
 17 esses princípios. Vários estudos já demonstraram que essa seleção microbiana favorece a
 18 eficiência da fermentação ruminal pois diminui a produção de metano e aumenta a proporção
 19 de ácido propiônico : ácido acético, melhorando o aproveitamento de energia no ruminante.
 20 Além disso, essas drogas reduzem o processo de deaminação e degradação de proteína
 21 microbiana, aumentando a passagem para o intestino delgado e sua absorção (RICHARDSON
 22 *et al.*, 1976; RUSSEL; STROBEL, 1989; SPEARS, 2000). Porém, evidências recentes têm
 23 indicado que a atuação desses fármacos é mais complexa. Um estudo com o uso de
 24 monensina por 39 dias em garrotes holandeses criados para produção de carne realizou a
 25 análise metagenômica e mostrou que o uso da monensina reduziu tanto bactérias Gram
 26 positivas quanto Gram negativas, e além disso, demonstrou modificação funcional e
 27 metabólica com modificação da concentração relativa de 31 metabólitos dos 247 analisados
 28 (OGUNADE *et al.*, 2018). Outro estudo avaliou a produção de metano de garrotes

1 suplementados com monensina por até 53 dias, e verificou que o uso desse ionóforo não
2 modificou as principais bactérias Gram positivas, nem as metanogênicas e também não
3 reduziu a quantidade produzida de metano, porém modificou 14 OTUs, sendo nove deles com
4 18 dias de suplementação e cinco aos 53 dias, indicando que pode haver adaptação da
5 microbiota ao uso da monensina (MELCHIOR *et al.*, 2018).

6 A adaptação da microbiota ao uso de antibióticos promotores de crescimento
7 parece ocorrer quando são estes usados por mais de seis semanas. Nas semanas iniciais os
8 efeitos do uso do antibiótico e as modificações na microbiota são mais proeminentes do que
9 com o uso por longo período (GUAN *et al.*, 2006; WEIMER *et al.*, 2008; MELCHIOR *et al.*,
10 2018). Essa adaptação foi verificada também na microbiota fecal de bovinos confinados
11 suplementados com virginiamicina, na qual foi verificada mudança na composição da
12 comunidade bacteriana com 25 dias de suplementação, mas não no final do período de
13 confinamento (BESSEGATO *et al.*, 2017). Após o término do tratamento com diferentes
14 antibióticos promotores de crescimento também não foi verificada diferença na microbiota
15 ruminal e fecal em bovinos confinados nem em vacas leiteiras (McGARVEY *et al.*, 2010;
16 RETI *et al.*, 2013).

17 Antibióticos promotores de crescimento também são utilizados por diminuir
18 a incidência e a gravidade dos abscessos hepáticos e diminuir o risco de acidose ruminal em
19 animais recebendo dietas com alto teor de carboidratos (ROGERS *et al.*, 1995;
20 HERNANDEZ *et al.*, 2008; SALINAS-CHAVIRA *et al.*, 2009). Porém, na maioria das vezes
21 esses fatores não são capazes de explicar a melhora de performance animal. (RUSSEL;
22 STROBEL, 1989).

23 Atualmente existe uma preocupação mundial em relação ao uso indiscriminado
24 de antibióticos, uma vez que o uso de antibióticos promotores de crescimento em larga escala
25 tem sido associado com o aparecimento de resistência antimicrobiana em patógenos com
26 caráter zoonótico (FUNK *et al.*, 2006; LHERMIE *et al.*, 2017; MIR; KUDVA, 2018). Como
27 medida de precaução, a União Europeia banuiu a utilização de antibióticos promotores de
28 crescimento (doses sub-terapêuticas) nos seus rebanhos em 2003 (CASEWELL *et al.*, 2003) e
29 os Estados Unidos da América em 2015 (FDA, 2015). Acredita-se que em pouco tempo, o
30 Brasil também irá banir os antibióticos promotores de crescimento, aumentando a necessidade
31 de estudo de outras formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal.

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2.4.2 Transfaunação

Outra forma de manipular a microbiota ruminal é através da inoculação de fluido ruminal de outro animal. Nesse procedimento, chamado de transfaunação, utiliza-se animais saudáveis com a microbiota equilibrada como doadores de líquido ruminal (DEPETERS; GEORGE, 2014). A transfaunação é a transferência do conteúdo ruminal, incluindo bactérias, arquea, fungos e protozoários do doador para o receptor. Essa prática era realizada na Suécia por conhecimento popular muito antes das pesquisas confirmarem a importância dos micro-organismos para o hospedeiro. O primeiro relato escrito nesse país é de 1776, e a população acreditava que o conteúdo ruminal era um ser vivo, que teria morrido no animal doente, portanto era necessário a transferência do “conteúdo vivo” de um animal saudável para um animal doente (BRAG; HANSEN, 1994).

No Brasil, essa prática é muito utilizada e descrita para tratamento de animais com diferentes tipos de doenças, como compactação de abomaso (CÂMARA *et al.*, 2009) deslocamento de abomaso (CÂMARA *et al.*, 2010), mastite gangrenosa (RIZZO *et al.*, 2015), acidose láctica ruminal (LEAL *et al.*, 2007), entre outras, mesmo que muitas vezes de forma empírica e sem embasamento científico. Livros textos recomendam a utilização da transfaunação com o objetivo de restituir a microbiota ruminal perdida nas diversas doenças gastro-entéricas (GARRY; MCCONNEL, 2015), mas estudos que comprovam a eficácia dessa técnica são poucos.

Um dos trabalhos que comprovou os benefícios da transfaunação foi realizado por Rager *et al.* (2004) na Universidade da Califórnia. Os autores estudaram 20 vacas durante o pós-operatório de cirurgia de deslocamento de abomaso, sendo 10 transfaunadas logo após a cirurgia e no dia seguinte, e 10 animais do grupo controle. Eles observaram que os animais transfaunados tiveram maior ingestão de matéria seca, menor concentração de β -hidroxi-butirato sérico nos dias seguintes e menor proporção acetato:propionato no fluido ruminal um dia após a cirurgia quando comparados ao grupo controle. Além disso, os animais transfaunados foram tratados para cetose com menor quantidade de dextrose e tiveram maior produção de leite nos dias subsequentes à cirurgia.

Porém outro trabalho desenvolvido na mesma universidade, avaliando a utilização de transfaunação e também de drench comercial uma única vez no pós-parto imediato, não verificou diferença entre os animais tratados e o grupo controle para produção e constituintes de leite avaliados por seis meses, nem para os níveis de minerais séricos, parâmetros metabólicos, doenças no pós parto e eficiência reprodutiva (TANKERSLEY *et al.*,

1 2007). Esses autores discutem que talvez a suplementação no pós-parto, realizada com *drench*
2 ou transfaunação, pudesse ser justificada em animais com algum tipo de doença, mas que nos
3 animais saudáveis alojados em um rebanho com um bom manejo, essas práticas não se
4 justificam.

5 A transfaunação pode ser utilizada quando é necessário realizar mudança
6 abrupta na alimentação, por exemplo na época do desmame. Em cordeiros, esse procedimento
7 foi capaz de aumentar a taxa de crescimento e a taxa de conversão alimentar (ZHONG *et al.*,
8 2014). Nos neonatos a transfaunação propiciou a colonização bacteriana ruminal mudando a
9 estrutura da comunidade bacteriana no desmame e ainda favoreceu o aumento do consumo de
10 matéria seca após esse período. Porém, a performance desses animais não foi diferente
11 daqueles que não receberam o inóculo (BARBIERI *et al.*, 2015a; BARBIERI *et al.*, 2015b).

12 Um estudo recente avaliou a transfaunação como forma de reconstituição da
13 comunidade ruminal após disbiose induzida por antibióticos. Foi verificado que os animais
14 que receberam a transfaunação tiveram o retorno da microbiota ruminal saudável mais
15 rapidamente do que os animais que não receberam a transfaunação. A transfaunação também
16 foi efetiva em acelerar a restauração da microbiota fecal desses animais (JI *et al.*, 2018). Em
17 seres humanos, o transplante de microbiota fecal é muito eficiente para tratamento de doenças
18 que causam disbiose na microbiota entérica. Infecções recorrentes por *Clostridium difficile*
19 são causas comuns de complicações após tratamento com antibióticos, essas infecções
20 apresentam grandes índices de cura sem recidiva quando usado o transplante de microbiota
21 fecal (SHONGBESAN *et al.*, 2018).

22 Para entender a dinâmica ruminal após a transfaunação, foi realizada a troca de
23 conteúdo entre bovinos. Em um dos estudos, vacas com diferentes pH ruminal e perfil de
24 AGV foram utilizadas, e foi avaliado o pH, perfil de AGV e o tempo que a microbiota
25 retornou ao padrão inicial após ser removida e substituída por conteúdo ruminal de outra vaca.
26 Verificou-se que o hospedeiro tem importância muito grande nessa dinâmica, pois o pH
27 ruminal e o perfil de AGV retornaram ao padrão pré-transfaunação em menos de 24 horas,
28 porém constatou-se diferença importante entre os animais no tempo de retorno da microbiota
29 sendo que um dos animais retornou ao padrão inicial em 14 dias e o outro animal, em 61 dias;
30 outros dois animais ainda não haviam retornado ao padrão inicial após 61 dias. Isso
31 demonstrou como cada indivíduo responde de forma diferente a manejos na microbiota
32 (WEIMER *et al.*, 2010).

33 Com o objetivo de verificar se a troca de conteúdo ruminal conseguiria
34 modificar a eficiência alimentar do animal que recebeu o conteúdo, Zhou e colaboradores

1 (2018) removeram o conteúdo de vacas e transfaunaram com o conteúdo de outras vacas
2 classificadas em eficientes ou ineficientes no aproveitamento de energia. Nesse estudo o fator
3 indivíduo também teve grande importância na resposta da microbiota, e foi mais importante
4 do que a eficiência alimentar das doadoras. Em alguns animais houve uma aproximação da
5 microbiota com a microbiota do doador e ao longo do tempo foram retornando ao padrão
6 inicial; em outros animais logo após a troca do conteúdo ruminal a microbiota já estava
7 parecida com a microbiota inicial.

8 Os poucos estudos que se encontram na literatura investigando a transfaunação
9 utilizaram a mesma espécie como doador e receptor do conteúdo ruminal, porém estudos que
10 trabalham com a transferência de líquido ruminal de bovinos para ovinos são poucos.
11 Dehority (1978) trabalhou com transferência de conteúdo ruminal bovino para ovinos
12 defaunados, ou seja, que nascem de cesariana e permanecem sem contato com outros animais,
13 e dessa forma não possuem protozoários, mas possuem bactérias no rúmen. Foi avaliado o
14 estabelecimento dos protozoários oriundos de bovinos no rúmen de ovinos recebendo duas
15 dietas diferentes e observou-se que a dieta foi mais importante do que o fator genético para
16 determinar qual a espécie de protozoário se estabeleceu no rúmen, já que as 24 espécies
17 observadas no líquido ruminal do doador também foram observadas nos receptores que
18 estavam sobre mesma dieta a base de alfafa; porém nos animais recebendo alimentação rica
19 em concentrado, apenas nove das 24 espécies foram encontradas.

20 Um estudo realizado no Brasil, avaliou a eficácia da recuperação clínica de
21 ovinos e caprinos após a indução experimental de acidose lática ruminal que receberam a
22 transferência de líquido ruminal de bovinos. Foi observado que a transfaunação acelerou a
23 recuperação dos parâmetros físicos do suco ruminal e o aparecimento dos protozoários,
24 porém não modificou o tempo de retorno ao apetite nem a recuperação dos movimentos
25 ruminais comparados com o grupo controle, que não recebeu a transfaunação. Não foi
26 realizada a avaliação da microbiota por técnicas de análise do DNA, mas esse estudo avaliou
27 a função das bactérias pelo teste de redução do azul de metileno, porém também não foi
28 encontrado diferença entre o grupo controle e o grupo transfaunado (Pereira *et al.*, 2018).

29 Um estudo recente avaliou a transferência do líquido ruminal de bisão para
30 bovinos. Devido ao fato do bisão ser um animal que apresenta melhor digestibilidade de
31 forragens de baixa qualidade, Ribeiro e colaboradores (2017) fizeram duas transfaunações
32 consecutivas, removendo o conteúdo ruminal das novilhas e substituindo por líquido ruminal
33 obtido de bisões no abatedouro. Foi observada modificação na estrutura da comunidade
34 bacteriana, e aumento dos protozoários até 27 dias após os procedimentos. Também

1 observaram melhor digestibilidade das proteínas. Apesar disso, a transfaunação de líquido
2 ruminal de bisão para bovinos não é uma prática realizada por veterinários. Porém a
3 transfaunação de bovinos para ovinos é uma prática comum, devido a facilidade de obtenção
4 de grandes quantidades de líquido ruminal na vaca, sem a necessidade de fistular o animal.

5 Dessa forma, verifica-se a necessidade de estudar essa forma de manipulação
6 da microbiota ruminal utilizando tecnologia independente de cultura para avaliar a
7 transfaunação inter-espécie em animais saudáveis, e também os antibióticos promotores de
8 crescimento.

9

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1 **3. HIPÓTESES**

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O uso da virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento modifica a estrutura e composição da microbiota bacteriana e o perfil metabólico do rúmen.

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A transfaunação com suco ruminal de bovinos aumenta a riqueza e a diversidade da microbiota bacteriana em ovinos saudáveis e muda a estrutura e a composição das comunidades bacterianas.

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A transfaunação com o suco ruminal de bovinos aumenta a contagem total de protozoários no suco ruminal de ovinos e muda a distribuição dos gêneros encontrados.

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As mudanças observadas pela transfaunação ocorrem após o procedimento e retornam gradualmente ao nível inicial.

12

4 OBJETIVOS

4.1 OBJETIVO GERAL

Utilizar o sequenciamento de nova geração para estudar a estrutura e composição bacterianas ruminal de bovinos e ovinos diante de duas possíveis formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal.

4.2 OBJETIVOS ESPECÍFICOS

Caracterizar a microbiota ruminal de bovinos confinados e criados a campo utilizando-se da tecnologia de sequenciamento de nova geração.

Comparar a estrutura e composição bacterianas presentes no rúmen de bovinos confinados recebendo virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento com um grupo controle confinado sem a adição do antibiótico e com um grupo mantido a pasto.

Identificar espécies bacterianas presentes no rúmen de bovinos confinados recebendo virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento que estejam relacionadas ao maior ganho de peso.

Comparar o perfil metabólico avaliado por análise metagenômica (sequenciamento de nova geração) presente no rúmen de bovinos confinados recebendo virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento com um grupo controle confinado sem a adição do antibiótico.

Comparar a estrutura e composição bacterianas presentes no rúmen de ovinos saudáveis antes e até 28 dias após a transfaunação com líquido ruminal de bovinos saudáveis recebendo a mesma alimentação.

Avaliar a dinâmica da população de protozoários presentes no rúmen de ovinos saudáveis antes e até 28 dias após a transfaunação com líquido ruminal de bovinos saudáveis recebendo a mesma alimentação.

1 **5 ARTIGO A**

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4 **IMPACT OF VIRGINIAMYCIN ON THE RUMINAL MICROBIOTA OF FEEDLOT**
5 **CATTLE.¹**

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14 **Abstract**

15 Growth promoter antibiotics have been used in cattle, but the concern regarding antimicrobial overuse has
16 prompted to a re-evaluation of this practice and study its consequences in the bovine rumen. To evaluate changes
17 in the ruminal microbiota of feedlot cattle caused by virginiamycin, two batches of beef cattle (B1 and B2) were
18 divided into two groups: one receiving virginiamycin (ATB) and the other receiving the same diet without any
19 growth promoter (CON). A third group of beef cows kept at pasture was also enrolled (PAS). PAS animals had
20 greater richness and diversity and different communities compared to ATB and CON. Virginiamycin induced
21 changes in ruminal microbiota of B1 only. The linear discriminant analysis (LDA) Effective Size (LefSe)
22 algorithm indicated a genus of the TM7 phylum as representative of samples from CON, and *Treponema*,
23 *Hallella*, *Holdemanina* and *Moryella* spp. from ATB. *Holdemanina* was also associated with highest average daily
24 weight gain in B1 and B2. Profiles revealed by metagenomics analysis was very similar between CON and ATB.
25 In conclusion, virginiamycin can modify the ruminal microbiota structure and membership, but did not change
26 the most abundant phyla and genera in rumen and its effect was not consistent over different seasons of the year.
27 Future studies are necessary to understand the factors that are associated with the virginiamycin activity on
28 ruminal microbiota. *Holdemanina* should be highlighted for future studies for its association with better
29 performance in cattle.

30
31 **Key words: beef cattle; rumen microbiota; antibiotic growth promoter; 16S rRNA gene, metagenomics.**
32

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1 INTRODUCTION

2
3 The ruminal microbiota is a complex ecosystem composed by bacteria, archaea, fungi, protozoa and
4 viruses. These microorganisms have a close relationship with the host and are the main providers of energy and
5 protein to ruminants¹. DNA sequencing has been used to characterize the ruminal microbiota and factors, such as
6 age, diet and geographic localization have been shown to influence the ruminal microbiome^{2,3}. Furthermore,
7 specific bacterial patterns have been associated with milk yield and feed efficiency^{4,5} highlighting the importance
8 of ruminal bacteria on animal performance.

9 Among factors influencing ruminal microbiota, diet is one of the most important. Marked differences
10 were found between forage and high carbohydrate based diets, with increased feeding of carbohydrates normally
11 associated with decreased richness and diversity^{2,6}. However, most studies comparing diets have been performed
12 in dairy cows^{7,8} and the characterization of the ruminal microbiota of beef cattle kept at pasture deserves further
13 investigation.

14 The use of antibiotics is another important factor that can impact the rumen microbiota⁹. Sub therapeutic
15 doses of antibiotics are extensively used in developing countries as antibiotic growth promoters (AGPs) for
16 animals. In cattle, antibiotics added to diet can provide better protein digestion and energy harvesting¹⁰⁻¹⁴.
17 Previous studies showed that some bacteria are related with better performance in domestic animals¹⁵⁻¹⁸ and in
18 laboratory animals is clear that intestinal bacteria play a major role in food digestion that can cause obesity, and
19 that low doses of antibiotics select bacterial species that can increase weight gain¹⁹. Identifying species selected
20 by antibiotics and associated with better performance could enhance animal production and decrease the use of
21 antibiotics. Indeed, there is a global concern regarding antimicrobial overuse and the development of
22 antimicrobial resistance^{20,21}.

23 Virginiamycin is a streptogramin antimicrobial produced by a mutant strain of *Streptomyces virginiae*,
24 active mainly against Gram-positive bacteria, both aerobe and anaerobe. This drug has been widely used in
25 developing countries to improve growth performance, to reduce incidence and severity of liver abscesses, and to
26 reduce the risk of acidosis in cattle fed with diets with high concentrations of carbohydrates^{11,14,22,23}. Studies
27 investigating the impact of virginiamycin on the ruminal microbiota are scarce and used culture-based
28 methods^{22,24}. The objective of this study was to use high throughput sequencing to evaluate the impact of
29 virginiamycin used as growth promoter on the ruminal microbiome of feedlot cattle. Further, the ruminal
30 microbiota of beef cows maintained at pasture in the same farm was characterized.

31 RESULTS

32 *Performance*

33 Mean weight at slaughter was 437.24 (\pm 56.35) kg in ATB and 426.60 (\pm 60.08) kg in CON in B1, with
34 no statistical difference between groups (P=0.521). In B2, mean weight was 501 (\pm 33.94) kg in ATB and 494.05
35 (\pm 35.04) kg in CON with no statistical difference between groups (P=0.366).

36 There was no statistical difference of body weight between B1 (335 \pm 35.18 kg) and B2 (345 \pm 16.34
37 kg) at arrival to the feedlot (P= 0.082), but males from B1 (360.42 \pm 27.18 kg) were statistically heavier than
38 from B2 (345.00 \pm 16.34 kg) (P=0.0177). Interestingly, weight at slaughter was higher (P<0.001) in animals
39 from B2 (497.53 \pm 34.17 kg) compared to B1 (431.92 \pm 57.90 kg), even when only males from B1 were
40 considered (P=0.0158; 472.38 \pm 44.02 kg in B1 and 497.53 \pm 34.17 kg in B2), indicating a higher ADG in B2. In
41

fact, overall ADG during confinement was 1.07 ± 0.04 kg in B1 and 1.37 ± 0.03 kg in B2 ($P < 0.0001$). When only males were considered, there was also a greater weight gain ($P = 0.0004$) in animals from B2 (1.37 ± 0.03 kg) compared to B1 (1.12 ± 0.06 kg). The comparison of ADG between ATB and CON within each batch revealed no statistical difference (1.16 ± 0.29 kg for ATB and 1.02 ± 0.32 kg for CON in B1, $P = 0.296$; and 1.44 ± 0.19 kg for ATB and 1.32 ± 0.20 kg for CON in B2, $P = 0.065$).

Bioinformatic analysis

A total of 7,835,474 good quality sequences remained from 14,124,022 sequences after data cleaning (median: 79,902 reads per sample; min-max: 38,934 - 129,103 reads). A subsample of 38,934 reads per sample was randomly selected for the analysis to normalize sequence numbers. Overall Good's coverage median was 95.65% (90.03 - 97.70) (Table 1).

Community analyses

Alpha diversity results represented by the number of OTUs in each sample and the Simpson's and Chao indexes are presented in Table 1. Cattle kept at pasture (PAS) had significantly higher richness ($P < 0.0001$) and diversity ($P < 0.0001$) when compared to the ATB and CON from B1. ATB did not differ from CON in richness or diversity in B1 or B2 (all $P > 0.05$). Rarefaction curves are presented in Supplementary Figure S1 and demonstrate the clear difference in alpha diversity present in the rumen of pasture fed animals.

Relative abundances at the phylum levels found in each group are presented in Table 2 and Figure 1. Results from statistical analysis comparing the main phyla (greater than 1%) between treatments are presented in Table 2. Sequences were classified into 23 different phyla, of which, only nine had relative abundances greater than 1%. The two dominant phyla observed in all groups and treatments were Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes, with the first representing more than 50% of bacteria in all groups. Fibrobacteres was the third most abundant phylum in B1 and Proteobacteria in B2. Overall, 529 genera were identified. The genera relative abundances higher than 1% are present in Table 3 and Figure 2. OTUs classified as Clostridiales were the most abundant in all groups (Figure 2). The second most abundant taxon in B1 was *Saccharofermentans* spp. and in B2 was an unclassified Lachnospiraceae. Genera that were statistically different between CON and ATB in B1, indicated by the LefSe analysis are listed in Figure 3. No bacterial genera were associated with the use of virginiamycin in B2.

The similarity between community membership (that considers only presence or absence of the different genera) and structure (considering each genus and their relative abundances) within each batch (B1 and B2) is illustrated in Figure 4 and Supplementary Figure S2. The comparison between batches is presented in Figure 5. Animals from the PAS group had statistically different membership and structure addressed by the Parsimony and the AMOVA tests compared to CON and ATB from B1. Interestingly, the use of virginiamycin significantly impacted community membership compared to controls in B1, but not in B2 (Supplementary Table S1). All comparisons of community membership and structure between B1 and B2 (ATB B1 x ATB B2, ATB B1 x CON B2, CON B1 x CON B2, CON B1 X ATB B2) were statistically different using the parsimony and AMOVA tests ($P < 0.001$), demonstrating a marked difference of the microbiota between the two batches.

Performance LefSe analyses

The average weight in the five animals with the highest ADG in B1 was 1.48 kg/day (± 0.07 kg) that differed from the group with the lowest ADG (0.86 kg/day ± 0.29 kg; $P = 0.002$). In B2, there was also a significant difference ($P < 0.001$) in animals with the highest ADG (1.69 kg/day ± 0.08 kg) compared to the lowest ADG (1.07 kg/day ± 0.08 kg). LefSe analysis was used to identify bacterial taxa associated with increased

1 performance considering each batch separately (Figure 6) and to compare the bacteria taxa between batches (B1
2 x B2), using treatment (ATB and CON) as variables (Supplementary Figure S3).

3 4 *Metagenomics - Functional annotation*

5 The DNA of five samples from each group (ATB and CON) from B2 were pooled for metagenomics
6 analysis (shotgun sequencing). A total of 8,954,992 sequences were uploaded in MG-RAST. After quality
7 control filters, 8,653,838 sequences were annotated: 36,903 ribosomal RNA, 4,992,698 known sequences, and
8 3,624,237 unknown sequences. Functional annotation using SEED subsystems database, revealed 28 categories
9 at level 1, which were very similar between groups. The categories with proportions greater than 1% are shown
10 in Figure 7a and all level 1 categories are presented in Supplementary Table S2. Both groups showed highest
11 abundance for carbohydrates metabolism, followed by clustering-based subsystems and protein metabolism

12 At level 2, the highest abundance was to protein biosynthesis category, followed by the plant prokaryote
13 project (Department of Energy USA, DOE), lysine, threonine, methionine, and cysteine. The distribution of genes
14 with proportions greater than 1% at level 2 are represented in Figure 7b. Level 2 categories with abundance
15 lower than 1% are presented in Supplementary Table S3.

16 17 **DISCUSSION**

18
19 The use of virginiamycin was associated with changes in bacterial membership and structure in the
20 rumen of cattle from the first batch (B1) analyzed in this study, demonstrating the selective action of this
21 antimicrobial against certain species of bacteria present in this complex ecosystem. Virginiamycin did not
22 change the most prevalent phyla and genera, but had a marked effect in decreasing relative abundance of phylum
23 TM7, which was further supported by the LEfSe analysis that indicated a genus of this phylum as representative
24 of the CON group. This group of bacteria are widely distributed and it has been reported in the bovine rumen^{25,26}
25 are difficult to culture, and are thought to have limited fermentative pathway for lactate and acetate production²⁷.
26 The depletion of this phylum in antibiotic treated animals deserves further investigations.

27 *Holdemania* and *Treponema* were associated with virginiamycin in B1. *Treponema* is a genus that
28 belongs to the Spirochaetes phylum, and unknown species of *Treponema* are majority compared to already
29 cultured representatives of this genus²⁸. *In vitro* studies suggested association with pectin utilization and fiber
30 metabolism²⁹. The microbial analysis of fecal samples³⁰ from the same animals used in our study also showed
31 greater relative abundance of *Treponema* in virginiamycin treated animals compared to controls, demonstrating
32 that the action of the drug is consistent throughout the intestinal tract of cattle, as previously suggested³¹.
33 Interestingly, *Holdemania* spp. were associated with the use of virginiamycin in B1, and also with greater ADG
34 in both batches. This finding might corroborate for the understanding of the mechanisms of action of AGPs on
35 the ruminal microbiota and might be of importance for the development of alternatives to decrease antimicrobial
36 overuse in food animals.

37 The consistency of the impact of virginiamycin on the ruminal microbiota was tested in this study by
38 repeating the experiment in two consecutive batches of animals entering the same facility. It would be expected
39 that the species selected by the drug would be consistent in the two different batches, but no differences in
40 community membership or structure were observed in B2. Reasons that could potentially explain the lack of

1 activity of the antibiotic in B2 include the different time of the year in which the trial was performed: B1 was
2 confined between May and September (dry winter in the Brazil) and B2 was confined between January and May
3 (summer and rain season). Therefore, temperature could have affected food intake (higher in B1) and rain
4 volume (higher in B2) could have altered the bioavailability of virginiamycin, since pens were not covered.
5 Furthermore, orange pulp was given *in natura* to animals from B1 and as silage to B2. The fermentation of the
6 substrate may cause changes in feed composition and therefore favor or disfavor certain species of bacteria.
7 Belanche et al.³² used rumen simulation to show different microbial communities in animals receiving fresh
8 grass or hay, demonstrating that the preservation method of forage can also impact the microbial composition.
9 Finally, differences in microbial communities between batches as revealed by the comparison between ATB-
10 B1 versus ATB-B2 and CON-B1 versus CON-B2, might have contributed to the lack of action of virginiamycin in
11 B2. The factors overwriting the antibiotic effect on the ruminal microbiota could not be determined with the
12 proposed study design, and requires further investigation.

13 Likewise, the distribution of categories of the metabolic profiles revealed by metagenomics analysis
14 was very similar between CON and ATB. This is expected since there was no difference between microbial
15 communities. Unfortunately, those samples were selected between samples from B2 with the best DNA quality
16 before microbial analysis, and therefore, the lack of effect of virginiamycin on that group was still unknown.
17 Potentially, the metabolic profile would be different if samples from B1 were used instead. Regardless the
18 reasons for this lack of action, this finding highlights the need for an extremely controlled environment to
19 perform microbiota studies and emphasizes the caution needed when comparing studies in the literature.

20 Higher richness and diversity were found in the rumen of cows kept at pasture. It can be observed that
21 the overall mean coverage in this group was decreased due to the high richness. Elisson et al.³³ also found more
22 diverse rumen bacteria in animals fed forage-based diets compared to concentrate supplementation. In feces,
23 diets with higher carbohydrate levels are also associated with decreased microbial diversity, likely due to
24 reduction in pH and increased VFA production³⁴. Likewise, increased production of lactic acid byproducts from
25 carbohydrate fermentation decrease ruminal pH, eliminating several susceptible bacterial species. Indeed,
26 archaeal, and fungi communities were also richer and more diverse in animals receiving higher forage to
27 concentrate ratio⁶, possibly due to increased levels of dissolved hydrogen³⁵. Higher richness has been associated
28 with health in others species^{36,37}, but low diversity and richness were associated with more efficient cows¹⁶.

29 Some differences in relative abundance from concentrate and forage based diets were found at the genus
30 level. As previously described in literature, *Prevotella* spp. were more abundant in animals fed with
31 carbohydrates^{2,6,30,38}, possibly because those are propionate producers, and therefore high grain diets can provide
32 an enabling environment with high levels of ruminal hydrogen³⁵. However, other studies found higher relative
33 abundance of Prevotellaceae family or *Prevotella* genera in animals fed with pasture based diets^{7,8,33}.
34 Unexpectedly, the relative abundance of *Fibrobacter* was lower in animals at pasture. *Fibrobacter* is a genus
35 recognized as major degraders of lignocellulose in the herbivore gut³⁹, and diets with high forage ratio usually
36 lead to higher relative abundance of this genus^{2,35,40}. Although, results of this study agree with one study that
37 showed more Fibrobactereaceae in animals with total mixed ration than in animals at pasture⁷. Studies using
38 quantitative methods for microbial analysis demonstrated that the amount of *Fibrobacter succinogenes* was
39 higher with increased proportion of dietary roughage^{41,42}. Since the present study did not use quantitative

1 methods, it is possible that the higher richness observed in animals at pasture is not truly representing the
2 absolute abundance of fibrolytic bacteria if compared with animals with lower richness.

3 The comparison of animals with the highest and the lowest ADG, revealed that *Paraeggerthella* and
4 *Holdemanina* were associated with more efficient animals from B1 and B2. Interestingly, *Holdemanina* was also
5 pointed by LEfSe as a marker of animals receiving virginiamycin in B1. This bacterial genus is described in
6 humans with high levels of blood cholesterol and others lipid metabolism parameters that are known predictors
7 for metabolic syndrome⁴³.

8 The genus *Megasphaera* was associated with highest ADG in B1. This genus belongs to Firmicutes
9 phylum and comprises *M. elsdenii* and others species. These are lactate consuming bacteria, found in diets rich
10 in grains and used as probiotics to prevent acidosis in animals challenged with high levels of grains diet⁴⁴. The
11 *Megasphaera* genus is more abundant in animals that produce less methane, with potentially decreased loss of
12 carbon and therefore, considered more efficient^{16,45}. Conversely, subdivision 5 of the Verrucomicrobia phylum
13 was associated with lowest ADG in B1. This fastidious bacterium was recently cultured and proposed as a novel
14 sister phylum to Verrucomicrobia⁴⁶. High abundance of this genus has been reported, and can be associated with
15 methodological biases⁴⁷. The genus *Pseudobutyrvibrio* was associated with lowest ADG in B2. Interestingly,
16 this bacterium has been associated with weight loss in mice consuming black tea polyphenols⁴⁸.

17 The ADG in B2 was higher than in B1, even that the diet was almost the same between the two batches.
18 The microbiota may have influence on this difference. *Succinivibrio* spp. was representative of animals from B2
19 and has been found in more efficient animals^{4,5}. In addition, Succinivibrionaceae family has been associated with
20 high milk yielding in dairy cows⁴⁹. Inconsistences in ADG and feed efficiency in animals treated with
21 virginiamycin between different batches has been previously reported, suggesting that other factors can interfere
22 in the dry matter ingestion, ADG and feed efficiency²². In fact, B1 was composed by mixed genders, and the
23 behavior of males in contact with females may interfere in feed ingestion, leading to a lower dry matter ingestion
24 and consequently lower ADG. The body weight at entrance was lower in B2, but the ADG and body weight at
25 slaughter were higher.

26 In conclusion, virginiamycin can affect bacterial membership and structure in the rumen of feedlot
27 cattle but does not change the most abundant phyla and genera. Its' effect in changing the community structure
28 and membership is not consistent over different seasons of the year, highlighting the importance of standardizing
29 research conditions and increasing caution before extrapolating results and comparing studies. *Holdemanina* spp.
30 should be considered to future studies investigating feed efficiency in ruminants.

31 32 **METHODS**

33 34 *Animals and samples*

35
36 This study was approved by the Animal Care Committee of the “Universidade Estadual de Londrina”
37 (#23932.2015.95).

38 The study was conducted in a commercial feedlot facility in the northern region of Paraná State, Brazil.
39 Seventy-six crossbreed cattle (*Bos taurus taurus* x *Bos taurus indicus*) with approximately 18 months of age
40 raised on pasture were enrolled. Animals were originated from different farms at the same region and arrived at

1 two different moments (batches B1 and B2). The first batch (B1) arrived to the feedlot during the dry season of
2 the South Hemisphere (50 animals entering feedlot on May and 40 was selected for the study) and the second
3 batch (B2) during the rain season (36 steers entering feedlot on January). At arrival, the animals were randomly
4 assigned into two groups housed in neighbouring pens: one group receiving virginiamycin (ATB) at the growth
5 promotion dose (340mg / 360 kg b.w. – estimated daily intake) and the other group receiving the same diet
6 without any growth promoter (CON). For the microbiota characterization, samples collected from 20 steers and
7 20 heifers from B1 were randomly selected to be analyzed with the 36 samples collected from B2. A third group
8 of animals kept at pasture (PAS) was also enrolled. This group was comprised by 20 cows *Bos taurus indicus*
9 raised in the same facility, but kept at pasture (*Brachiaria* spp.) and receiving mineral salt supplementation
10 (n=96 samples in total).

11 Exit from the feedlot occurred as animals achieved an adequate fat covering required for slaughtering,
12 which was visually evaluated by the veterinarian responsible for the farm. Consequently, there were three
13 slaughter dates in B1 (66 days, 88 days and 116 days of confinement) and two slaughter dates in B2 (100 days
14 and 122 days of confinement). The PAS group was slaughtered on the same day of B1 (66 days).

15 Feedlot animals were fed with approximately 1.6% of body weight (dry matter) of corn silage (47.60%),
16 concentrate (31.40%) and orange pulp (21%) calculated on natural matter. Orange pulp was given *in natura* to
17 B1 and as silage to B2. The concentrate mixture was composed of fat corn germ (42.90%), ground corn (49%),
18 soybean meal (3.40%), urea (1.1%), encapsulated urea (0.8% Optigen®, Alltech Brazil, PR, Brazil) and mineral
19 supplement (2.8% Beephós 40, Nutristar, PR, Brazil). Virginiamycin was added to the mineral supplement
20 during manufacturing.

21 Animals were weighed at arrival and exit of feedlot for calculation of average daily gain (ADG). After
22 desensitization by stunning air, animals were slaughtered by exsanguination and internal organs were removed.
23 The rumen was opened between dorsal and ventral sack, and ruminal contents collected in 50 mL sterile plastic
24 tubes. Samples were kept refrigerated until arrival to the laboratory (approximately 1.5 h) and frozen at - 80°C
25 until processing.

26 Samples were thawed at 5°C for approximately 14 hours and vigorously vortexed for 3 minutes for
27 homogenization and detaching of bacteria adhered to vegetal fibers⁵⁰. Samples with high proportion of solids
28 were added by sodium chloride 0.9% sterile solution in a 1:1 ratio, before homogenization. Samples were then
29 centrifuged at 500 x g at 4 °C for 15 minutes to remove solid particles, but maintain bacteria in the supernatant⁵¹
30 and supernatant was used to DNA extraction.

31 32 *DNA Extraction and sequencing* 33

34 DNA extraction was performed with 200µL of the supernatant using a glass bead based commercial kit
35 (E.Z.N.A., Omega Bio-Tek, Norcross, GA, USA) according to manufacturer's instructions. The V4
36 hypervariable region of the gene 16S rRNA was amplified by PCR in two steps: first, 2.5µL of DNA were added
37 to a mixture containing 9µL of water, 12.5µL of Kapa 2X ReadMix (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA, USA)
38 and 0.5µL (10 pmol/µL) of primer forward S-D-Bact-0564-a-S-15 and 0.5µL (10 pmol/µL) of reverse primers S-
39 D-Bact-0785-b-A-18⁵², both primers containing an overlapping region of the Illumina sequencing primers. PCR
40 conditions consisted of an initial denaturing step of 94°C for 3 min, followed by 26 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 53°C

1 for 1 min for annealing, and 72°C for 90 s for elongation, and a final period of 72°C for 10 min, and kept at 4°C.
2 PCR products were purified with 20 µL of Agencourt AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter, Indianapolis, IN, USA)
3 magnetic beads and eluted in 52.5µl of Tris buffer (10mM, pH 8.5). The second PCR step was carried by adding
4 4µL of purified product to a mixture with 9.6µL of water, 20µL of 2X Ready Mix and 3.2µL of each Illumina
5 index primer (2.5pmol/µL). PCR conditions consisted of 3 min at 94°C, and 7 cycles of 45s at 94°C, 60s at
6 50°C, 90s at 72°C, a final period of 10 min at 72°C and kept at 4°C. A second purification was performed by
7 using 40µL of AMPure beads and eluted in 32µL of Tris buffer (10mM, pH 8.5). Sequencing was performed
8 with an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA) with the V2 reagents kit for 250 cycles from each
9 end at the Genomics Facility of the University of Guelph.

10 Sequence data will be made available in the NCBI sequence read archive (SRA) upon acceptance for
11 publication.

13 *Bioinformatic and statistical analyses*

14
15 Bioinformatic analysis was performed using the software mothur (v.1.36.1) following the protocol
16 described by Kozich and colleagues⁵³. Sequences were clustered with reference-based-clustering method and
17 classified according to the Ribosomal Databases Project (2012)⁵⁴. Relative abundances of the main phyla and
18 genera (abundance >1%) found in each group were represented by column charts.

19 A subsample from the main dataset was used for alpha and beta diversity analyses to normalize
20 sequence numbers and decrease bias caused by non-uniform sample sizes. In order to ensure that the cutoff
21 adopted for subsampling was representative of original samples, Good's coverage was calculated. Chao1 was
22 used to estimate richness and the inverse of the Simpson's index to estimate diversity. After passing normality
23 test performed by Kolmogorov and Smirnov, comparison between groups (CON, ATB and PAS) was performed
24 by ANOVA and t test considering each batch (B1 and B2) individually.

25 Community membership that takes into account the different species present in each sample, and
26 community structure that into account the different species along with their evenness (relative abundances) were
27 addressed by the classic Jaccard and the Yue and Clayton indexes, respectively⁵⁵. The similarity between
28 community membership and structure within samples was represented by dendrograms visualized with FigTree
29 (v1.4.2), and by the Principal Coordinate Analysis (PCoA) with two dimensions. Statistical comparison between
30 community membership and structure from each group was carried by the Parsimony test and the analysis of
31 molecular variance (AMOVA).

32 The linear discriminant analysis (LDA) Effective Size (LefSe) algorithm⁵⁶ was used to identify genera
33 that could discriminate differences among groups and also between animals with the highest and lowest ADG. In
34 addition, all phyla and genera with relative abundances greater than 1% were compared using the Kruskal-Wallis
35 with the Dunn's multiple comparison test to compare relative abundances in B1 and with the Mann-Whitney test
36 in B2. P values were adjusted for false discovery rate with the Benjamini-Hochberg, considering a P value <0.05
37 as significant.

38 Average daily weight gain was calculated and compared between treatments in each batch using a t test.

40 *Metagenomics functional analysis*

1
2 For the metagenomic functional analysis, samples with the best DNA quality addressed by
3 spectrophotometry from ATB (n=5) and CON (n=5) were pooled and submitted for metagenomics (shotgun
4 analysis) using an Illumina MiSeq platform with the V3 reagents kit (2x300). Raw reads from sequencing were
5 uploaded to the MG-RAST (Metagenomic Rapid Annotations using Subsystems Technology v3.4) server
6 (<http://metagenomics.anl.gov/>) and the SEED subsystems database was used with minimum identity of 60% and
7 maximum e-value of 1 e-5 for functional classification. Accession numbers will be provided upon publication
8
9

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20 **Additional Information**

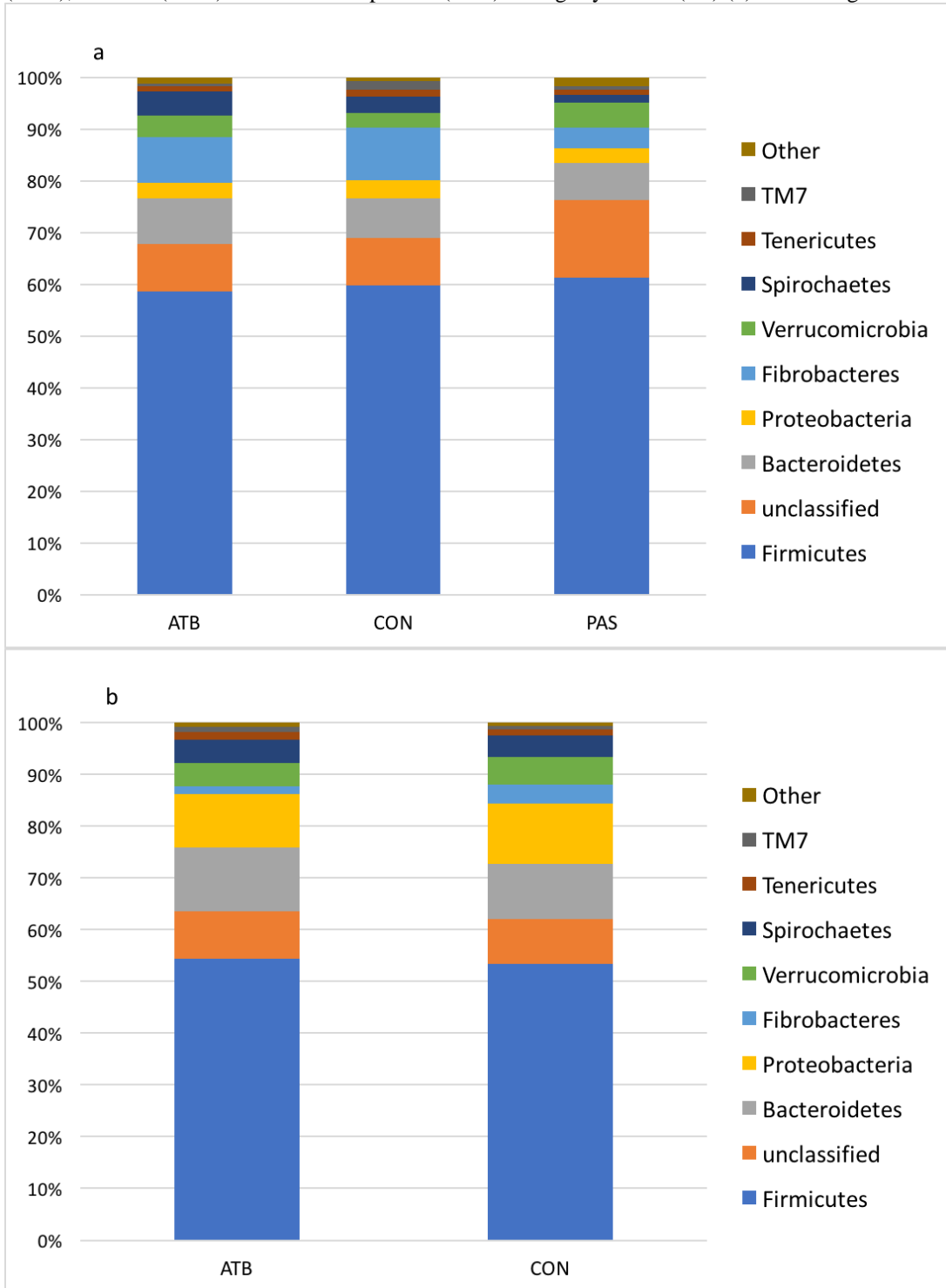
21 Competing interests

22 The author(s) declare no competing and commercial interests

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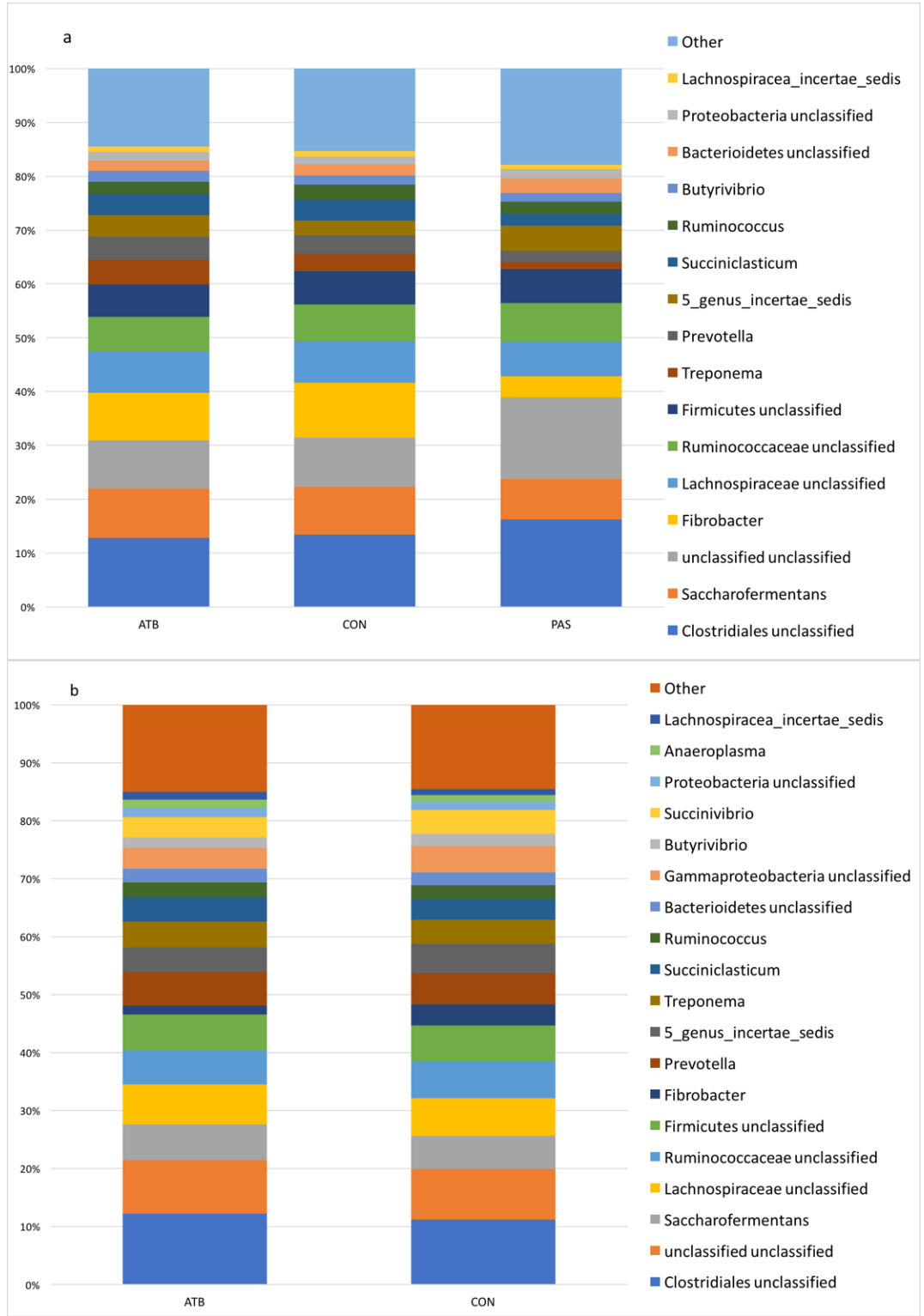
1 **Figures**

2 **Figure 1.** Relative abundances of the phyla found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin
 3 (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) during dry season (B1) (a) and during rain season (B2) (b).



4

1 **Figure 2.** Relative abundances of the genera found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin
 2 (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches. **a** dry season (B1); **b** rain
 3 season (B2).

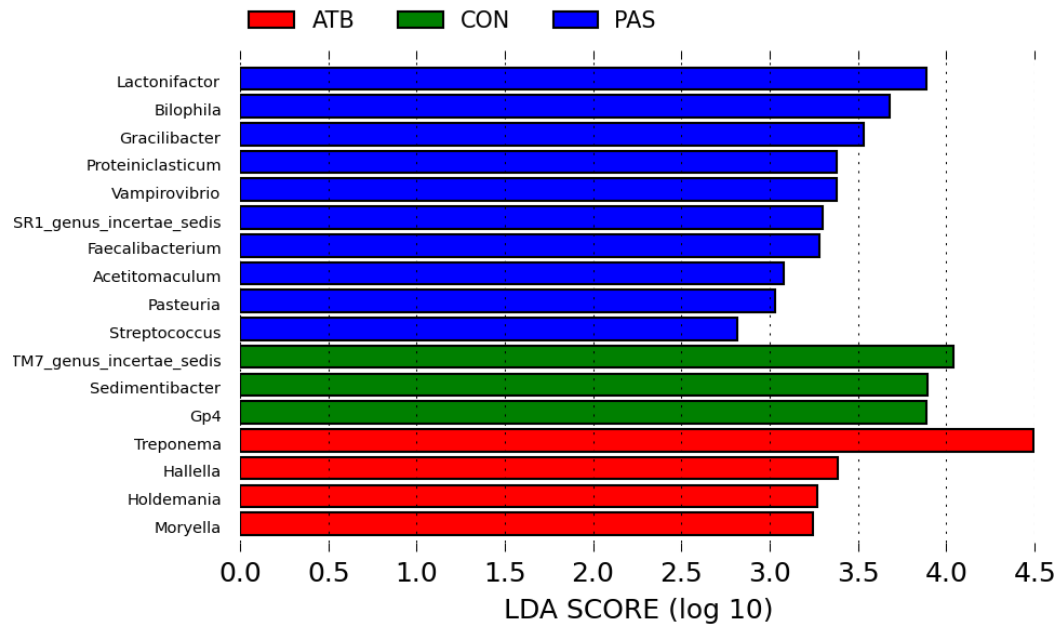


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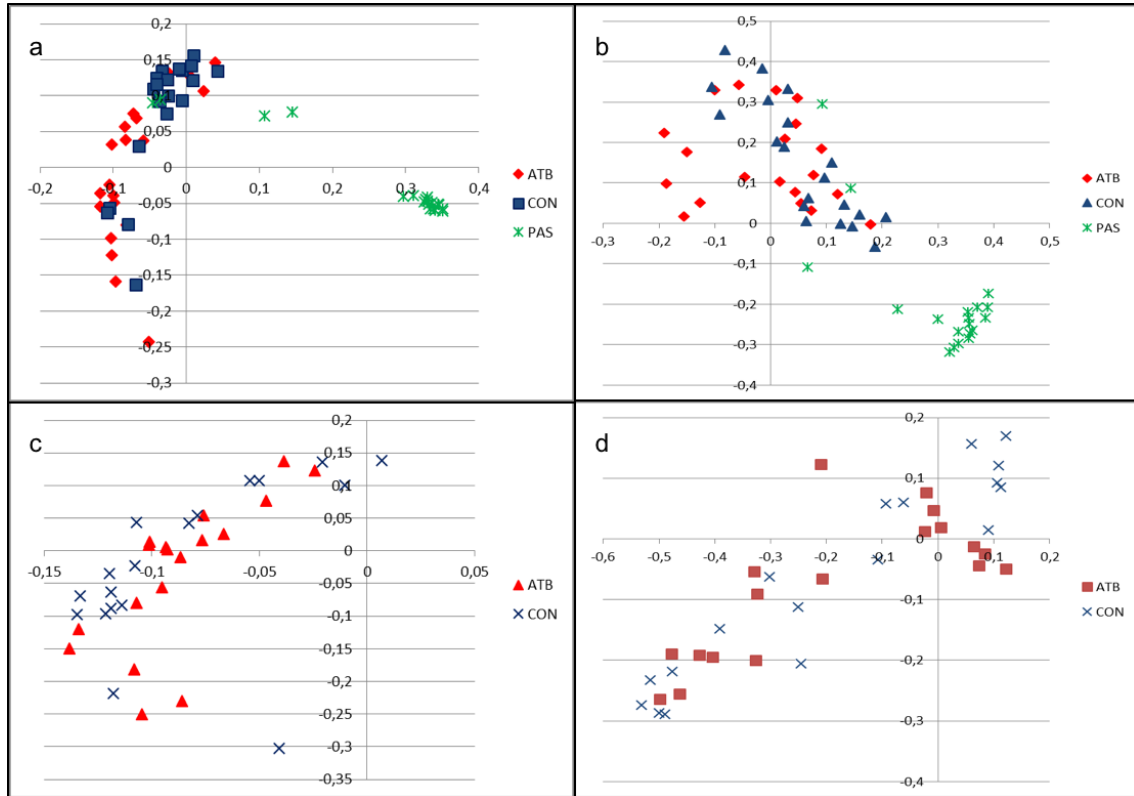
- 1 **Figure 3.** LEfSe analysis indicating ruminal bacterial taxa associated with treatment with virginiamycin (ATB),
- 2 control feedlot animals (CON) and in pasture based-diet (PAS) in beef cattle during the dry season (B1).



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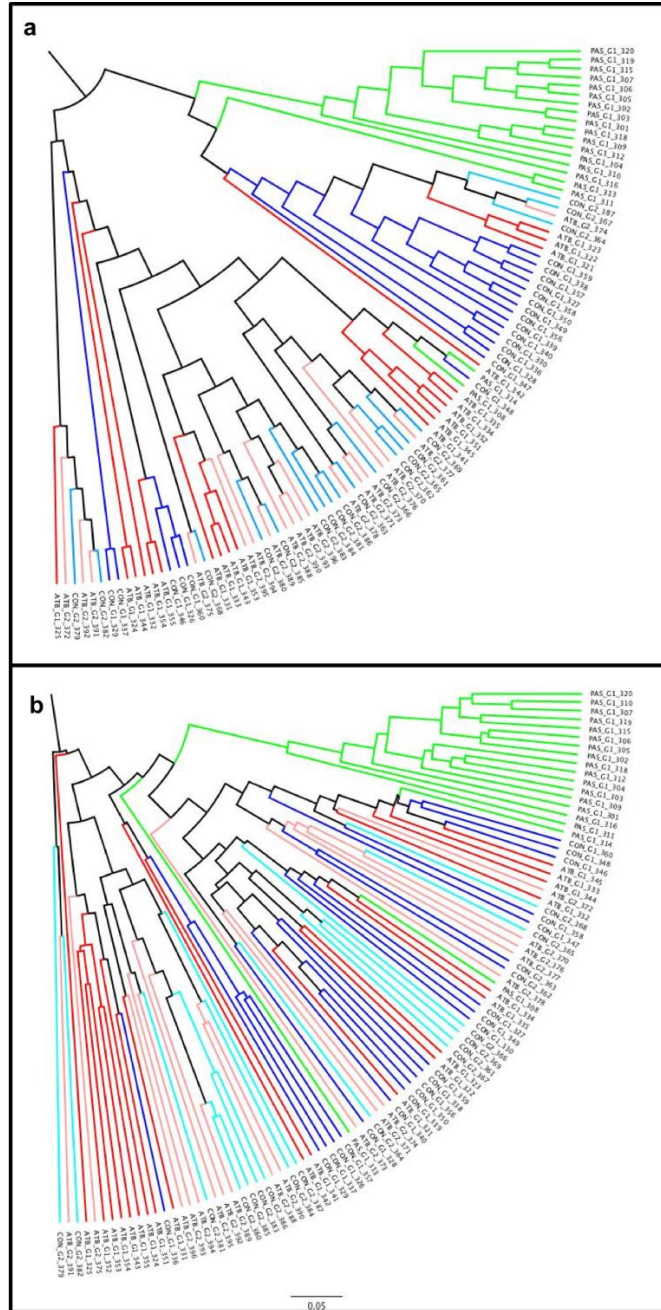
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1 **Figure 4.** PCoA representing similarities in bacterial communities' membership (Jaccard index) and structure
 2 (Yue and Clayton index) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (red), control animals
 3 (blue) and from animals kept at pasture (green). **a** and **b**: Community membership and structure, respectively
 4 found in animals housed during the dry season (B1); **c** and **d**: Community membership and structure,
 5 respectively found in animals housed during rain season (B2).



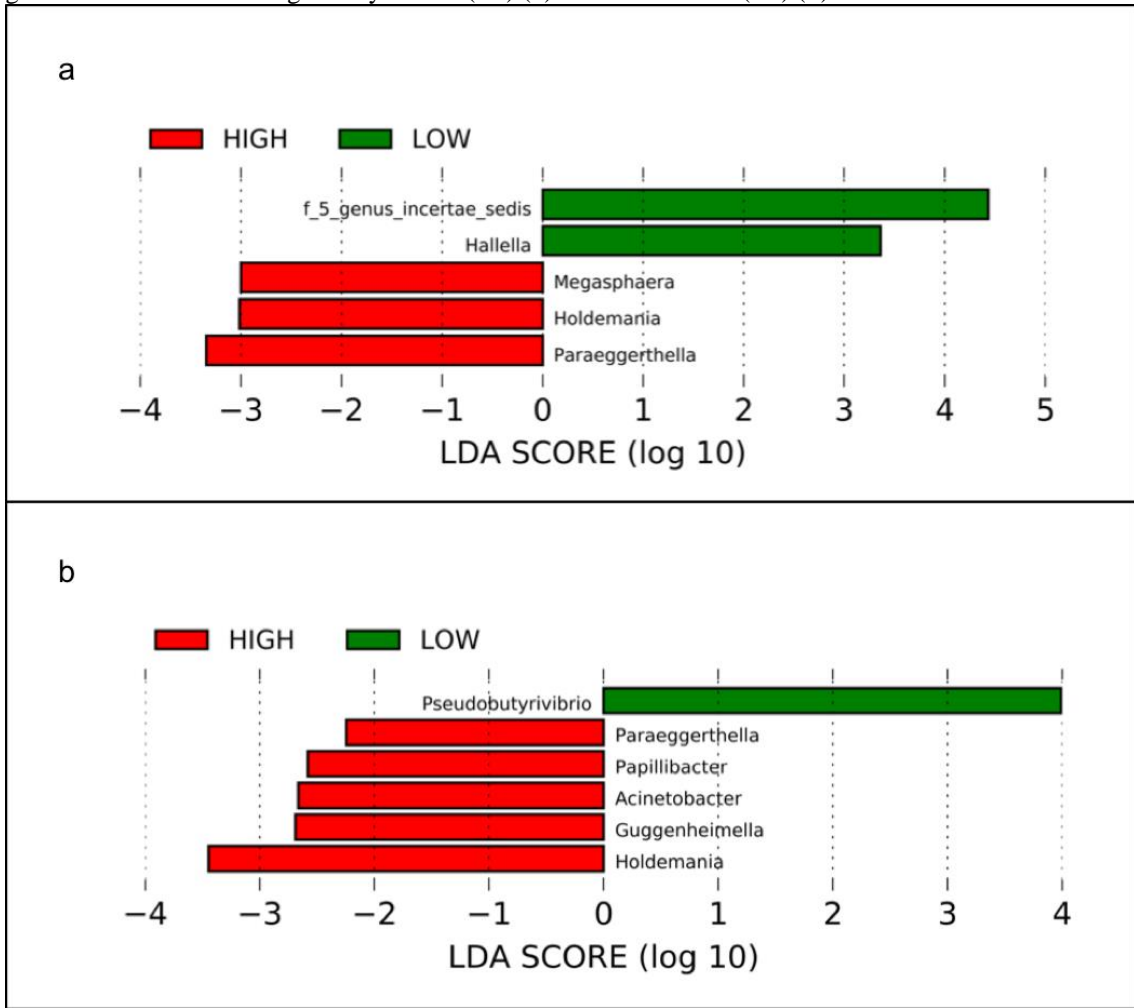
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1 **Figure 5.** Dendrograms representing similarities in bacterial communities' membership (a) and structure (b)
2 found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (dark red lines), control animals (dark blue lines)
3 and from animals kept at pasture (green lines) during the dry season (B1), and in cattle treated with
4 virginiamycin (light red lines) and control animals (light blue lines) housed during the rain season (B2).



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1 **Figure 6.** LEfSe analysis indicating ruminal bacterial taxa associated with high and low average daily weight
2 gain in feedlot cattle during the dry season (B1) (a) and rain seasons (B2) (b).



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1 **Tables**

2 **Table 1.** Mean and standard deviation (\pm) of the number of genera, Simpson's, Chao and Shannon indices and
3 median, inter quartile range (Q1-Q3) values of Good's coverage (%) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated
4 with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches (dry and
5 rain seasons). P values obtained from statistical comparison between groups within each season. Different letters
6 in same line express difference ($P < 0.05$).

	Dry Season (B1)				Rain Season (B2)		
	CON	ATB	PAS	P	CON	ATB	P
# OTUs	3613 ^a ± 540.52	3005.8 ^a ± 558.30	6112 ^b ± 1321.7	<0.001	3009.61 ^a ± 552.08	3107.17 ^a ± 473.84	0.5732
Coverage (%)	95.19 ^a 94.72-95.53	96.00 ^a 95.83-96.47	91.76 ^b 90.66-92.10	<0.001	96.03 ^a 95.61-96.47	95.88 ^a 95.57-96.20	0.3757
Simpson	92.782 ^a ± 40.892	83.811 ^a ± 36.651	207.92 ^b ± 91.346	<0.0001	74.937 ^a ± 32.291	87.462 ^a ± 36.662	0.2844
Chao	6754.3 ^a ± 948.36	5682.9 ^a ± 1045.5	11089 ^b ± 2354.6	<0.0001	5666.6 ^a ± 1176.9	5899 ^a ± 966.33	0.5210
Shannon	6.106 ^a ± 0.3601	5.823 ^a ± 0.3803	7.112 ^b ± 0.5459	<0.0001	5.772 ^a ± 0.3946	5.886 ^a ± 0.3817	0.3849

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1 **Table 2.** Median, inter quartile range (Q1-Q3) values of relative abundances of the main phyla present in the rumen of
 2 feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) from two different batches
 3 (Dry and rain seasons). Different letters in same line express difference (P<0.05).

	Dry Season (B1)				Rain Season (B2)		
	CON	ATB	PAS	P	CON	ATB	P
Firmicutes	59.03 ^a 55.62-63.43	59.65 ^a 55.15-61.68	61.49 ^a 58.71-63.71	0.3999	52.63 ^a 48.46-57.23	53.40 ^a 49.75-55.80	0.9234
Unclassified	9.65 ^a 7.66-10.51	9.99 ^a 5.88-11.10	15.08 ^b 13.84-16.65	0.00025	9.42 ^a 7.03-11.21	10.03 ^a 6.48-11.58	0.9234
Bacteroidetes	7.36 ^{ab} 6.30-8.32	9.35 ^a 7.75-10.58	7.13 ^b 6.28-7.78	0.0247	10.79 ^a 9.19-11.62	11.99 ^a 11.26-13.13	0.354
Proteobacteria	3.11 ^a 2.36-3.59	2.75 ^a 2.56-3.19	2.60 ^a 2.41-3.10	0.6790	7.18 ^a 3.15-18.58	6.95 ^a 4.05-14.44	0.9874
Fibrobacteres	8.80 ^a 4.98-16.01	7.96 ^a 4.61-12.63	2.97 ^b 2.26-4.57	0.00025	0.16 ^a 0.052-7.17	0.21 ^a 0.041-3.11	0.9234
Verrucomicrobia	2.48 ^a 2.03-4.16	3.25 ^{ab} 2.72-5.57	4.42 ^b 3.80-5.85	0.024	4.62 ^a 3.29-7.43	4.59 ^a 1.17-6.94	0.9246
Spirochaetes	2.87 ^a 2.21-3.85	3.89 ^a 2.89-6.51	0.96 ^b 0.78-1.67	0.00025	3.83 ^a 2.82-4.91	4.04 ^a 2.94-6.47	0.9234
Tenericutes	1.18 ^a 0.81-1.96	0.67 ^a 0.044-1.44	0.81 ^a 0.55-1.23	0.1673	0.965 ^a 0.44-1.80	0.818 ^a 0.40-2.02	0.9874
TM7	1.43 ^a 0.92-1.87	0.477 ^b 0.25-0.67	0.670 ^b 0.53-0.89	0.00025	0.67 ^a 0.27-0.80	0.65 ^a 0.52-1.06	0.9234
Actinobacteria	0.145 ^a 0.09-0.22	0.11 ^{ab} 0.07-0.35	0.087 ^b 0.055-0.096	0.0243	0.0898 ^a 0.05-0.11	0.096 ^a 0.07-0.17	0.9234

1 **Table 3.** Median, interquartile range (Q1-Q3) of relative abundances of the main genera present in the
 2 rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS)
 3 from two different batches (Dry and rain seasons). Different letters in same line express difference
 4 (P<0.05).
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	Dry Season (B1)				Rain Season (B2)		
	CON	ATB	PAS	P	CON	ATB	P
Unclassified	13.55 ^a	12.18 ^a	17.22 ^b	0.00364	11.16 ^a	11.58 ^a	0.9374
<i>Clostridiales</i>	12.23-14.92	11.03-13.49	13.31-18.23		8.92-12.91	10.74-14.09	
Unclassified	9.64 ^a	9.99 ^a	15.08 ^b	0.00025	9.41 ^a	10.03 ^a	0.9374
Unclassified	7.67-10.51	5.89-11.10	13.84-16.65		7.03-11.21	6.48-11.58	
<i>Saccharofermentans</i>	8.32 ^a	8.84 ^a	7.94 ^a	0.3081	4.94 ^a	5.69 ^a	0.9374
	6.76-11.24	6.58-12.50	5.36-8.91		3.84-8.00	4.67-7.15	
Unclassified	8.21 ^a	6.92 ^a	5.99 ^a	0.1233	6.54 ^a	6.85 ^a	0.9374
<i>Lachnospiracea</i>	6.62-8.99	5.69-9.08	5.58-7.32		5.46-7.09	6.03-7.13	
Unclassified	7.07 ^a	6.81 ^a	7.42 ^a	0.4186	6.12 ^a	5.14 ^a	0.9374
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	6.32-7.69	5.05-7.55	6.96-7.57		5.29-7.50	4.37-7.47	
Unclassified Firmicutes	6.20 ^a	6.16 ^a	6.45 ^a	0.7119	6.25 ^a	6.07 ^a	0.9374
	4.97-7.16	4.86-7.17	5.90-7.14		4.80-7.50	5.30-7.26	
<i>Fibrobacter</i>	8.80 ^a	7.96 ^a	2.97 ^b	0.00025	0.16 ^a	0.212 ^a	0.9374
	4.93-16.01	4.61-12.62	2.26-4.57		0.052-7.17	0.041-3.11	
<i>Prevotella</i>	3.71 ^a	3.87 ^a	2.03 ^b	0.00025	4.53 ^a	4.95 ^a	0.9374
	2.41-4.22	2.88-5.61	1.39-2.48		3.38-7.30	4.36-7.28	
<i>5_genus_incertae_sedis</i>	2.41 ^a	3.21 ^{ab}	4.20 ^b	0.0276	4.45 ^a	4.18 ^a	0.9374
	2.17-4.10	2.70-5.28	3.55-5.46		3.04-7.35	0.97-6.83	
<i>Treponema</i>	2.85 ^a	3.87 ^a	0.928 ^b	0.00025	3.78 ^a	4.01 ^a	0.9374
	2.19-3.79	2.84-6.45	0.71-1.56		2.81-4.80	2.84-6.37	
<i>Succiniclasticum</i>	3.94 ^a	3.52 ^a	2.13 ^b	0.00025	3.33 ^a	3.13 ^a	0.9374
	3.01-4.72	2.93-4.36	1.55-2.72		2.81-3.94	2.80-4.95	
<i>Ruminococcus</i>	2.50 ^a	2.28 ^a	1.67 ^a	0.3549	2.13 ^a	2.09 ^a	0.9622
	1.81-3.93	1.66-3.26	1.45-2.74		1.49-3.73	1.79-3.23	
Unclassified	1.79 ^a	1.62 ^a	2.68 ^b	0.0138	2.15 ^a	2.08 ^a	0.9622
<i>Bacteroidetes</i>	1.40-2.44	1.43-2.28	2.41-3.07		1.65-2.77	1.38-2.96	
Unclassified	0.45 ^a	0.37 ^a	0.026 ^b	0.00025	1.34 ^a	0.95 ^a	0.9374
<i>Gammaproteobacteria</i>	0.26-0.85	0.26-0.64	0.015-0.051		0.55-7.15	0.48-5.27	
<i>Butyivibrio</i>	1.65 ^a	1.78 ^a	1.19 ^a	0.1237	1.92 ^a	1.76 ^a	0.9374
	1.15-2.16	1.37-2.30	0.85-1.76		1.57-2.28	1.62-1.98	

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Material suplementar do artigo A
IMPACT OF VIRGINIAMYCIN ON THE RUMINAL MICROBIOTA OF FEEDLOT
CATTLE.

1 **Supplementary table S1.** P values obtained from the comparison of communities'
 2 membership (Jaccard index) and structure (Yue and Clayton index) in the ruminal bacteria of
 3 feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS)
 4 from two different batches (B1 and B2).

	Membership		Structure	
	AMOVA	Parsimony	AMOVA	Parsimony
B1: ATB x CON	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	0.005
B1: PAS x CON	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	0.001
B1: PAS x ATB	<0.001	0.001	<0.001	0.001
B2: ATB x CON	0.953	0.758	0.816	0.565

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7

Supplementary table S2. Level 1 categories of SEED subsystems functional analysis and percentage of genes within control and virginiamycin groups.

level 1	Control	Virginiamycin
Carbohydrates	14,59013676	14,85277639
Clustering-based subsystems	12,66420595	12,50074387
Protein Metabolism	11,82302808	11,44678615
Amino Acids and Derivatives	11,51873401	11,72445666
DNA Metabolism	6,841173874	6,732971632
Miscellaneous	5,514943066	5,620896826
Cell Wall and Capsule	5,078824848	4,940331862
RNA Metabolism	4,783219186	4,655317586
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	4,41271344	4,58491868
Nucleosides and Nucleotides	4,204191608	4,205321701
Respiration	2,669139368	2,656292535
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	2,606522898	2,877365359
Membrane Transport	2,307621633	2,193634977
Virulence, Disease and Defense	2,124066495	2,222503593
Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids	1,446270675	1,449635027
Stress Response	1,222768826	1,198554037
Cell Division and Cell Cycle	1,181723581	1,15031306
Nitrogen Metabolism	1,108421366	1,135498902
Regulation and Cell signaling	0,685585429	0,675373678
Motility and Chemotaxis	0,656024863	0,598643935
Phosphorus Metabolism	0,618175354	0,610166058
Sulfur Metabolism	0,514214038	0,506973417
Iron acquisition and metabolism	0,46767612	0,533183081
Dormancy and Sporulation	0,283621649	0,276784188
Potassium metabolism	0,265146295	0,278430206
Metabolism of Aromatic Compounds	0,263348693	0,230948929
Secondary Metabolism	0,141910691	0,136746076
Photosynthesis	0,006591207	0,004431586

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1 **Supplementary table S3.** Level 2 categories of SEED subsystems functional analysis and
 2 percentage of genes within control and virginiamycin groups.
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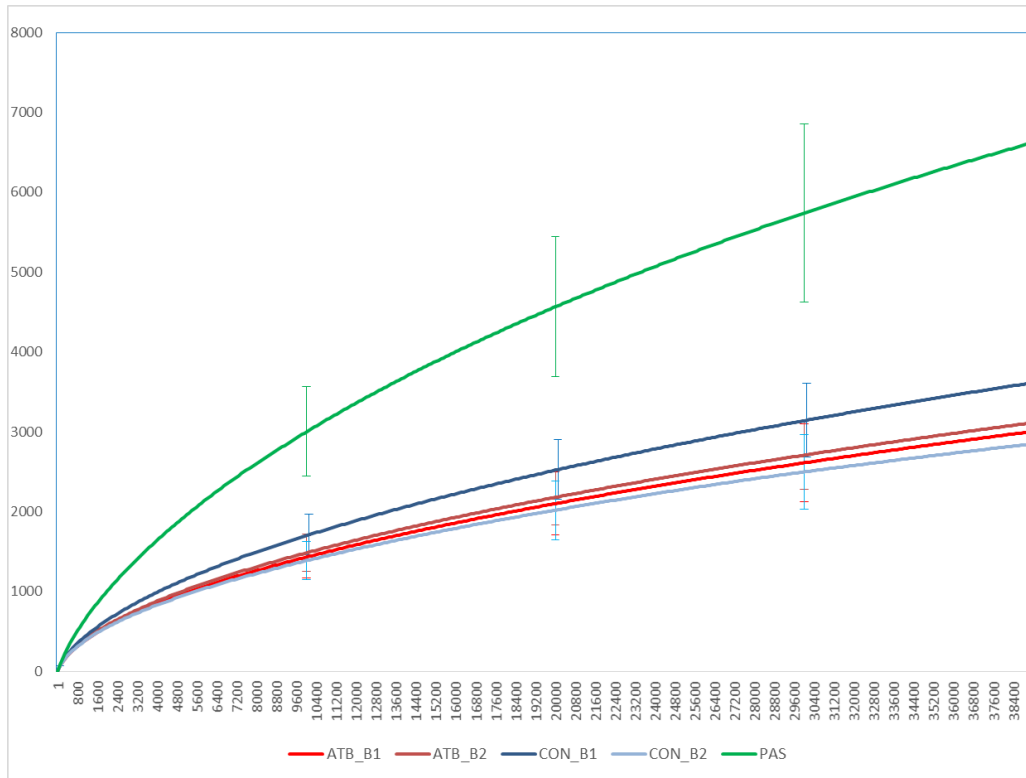
Level1	Level2	control (%)	virginiamycin (%)
Clustering-based subsystems	NULL	20,44	20,53
Protein Metabolism	Protein biosynthesis	7,55	7,43
Miscellaneous	Plant-Prokaryote DOE project	5,43	5,54
DNA Metabolism	DNA repair	3,43	3,39
Carbohydrates	Monosaccharides	3,35	3,53
RNA Metabolism	RNA processing and modification	3,31	3,16
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Lysine, threonine, methionine, and cysteine	3,22	3,27
Carbohydrates	Central carbohydrate metabolism	2,89	2,83
Cell Wall and Capsule	Capsular and extracellular polysacchrides	2,63	2,62
Carbohydrates	Di- and oligosaccharides	2,49	2,53
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	Phages, Prophages	2,36	2,31
Nucleosides and Nucleotides	Purines	1,80	1,83
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Aromatic amino acids and derivatives	1,76	1,85
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Resistance to antibiotics and toxic compounds	1,76	1,82
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Arginine; urea cycle, polyamines	1,51	1,49
Respiration	Electron donating reactions	1,42	1,43
DNA Metabolism	DNA replication	1,41	1,43
RNA Metabolism	Transcription	1,36	1,36
Protein Metabolism	Protein degradation	1,27	1,25
Nucleosides and Nucleotides	Pyrimidines	1,25	1,26
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Folate and pterines	1,22	1,22
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Glutamine, glutamate, aspartate, asparagine; ammonia assimilation	1,18	1,21
Cell Wall and Capsule	Gram-Negative cell wall components	1,16	1,04
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Tetrapyrroles	1,03	1,14
Carbohydrates	One-carbon Metabolism	1,01	1,01
Carbohydrates	Fermentation	1,00	1,01
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Branched-chain amino acids	0,89	0,88
Protein Metabolism	Protein folding	0,84	0,81
Carbohydrates	Polysaccharides	0,80	0,86
Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids	Fatty acids	0,79	0,75
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	NAD and NADP	0,75	0,78
Membrane Transport	ABC transporters	0,70	0,70
Membrane Transport	Protein translocation across cytoplasmic membrane	0,69	0,68
Respiration	ATP synthases	0,69	0,67
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Histidine Metabolism	0,67	0,69
Protein Metabolism	Protein processing and modification	0,64	0,64
Motility and Chemotaxis	Flagellar motility in Prokaryota	0,60	0,54
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Alanine, serine, and glycine	0,57	0,55
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	Transposable elements	0,57	0,78
Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids	Isoprenoids	0,55	0,52
Clustering-based subsystems	Biosynthesis of galactoglycans and related lipopolysaccharides	0,51	0,52
Stress Response	Oxidative stress	0,50	0,49
Stress Response	Heat shock	0,49	0,48
Carbohydrates	CO2 fixation	0,47	0,46
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Pyridoxine	0,46	0,44

Clustering-based subsystems	Cell Division	0,45	0,47
Clustering-based subsystems	Fatty acid metabolic cluster	0,43	0,40
Clustering-based subsystems	Clustering-based subsystems	0,40	0,39
Carbohydrates	Organic acids	0,37	0,37
Carbohydrates	Sugar alcohols	0,36	0,37
Clustering-based subsystems	Protein export?	0,35	0,34
Carbohydrates	Aminosugars	0,34	0,34
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Coenzyme A	0,31	0,30
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Riboflavin, FMN, FAD	0,29	0,28
Cell Wall and Capsule	Gram-Positive cell wall components	0,28	0,30
Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids	Phospholipids	0,27	0,27
Clustering-based subsystems	Isoprenoid/cell wall biosynthesis: PREDICTED UNDECAPRENYL DIPHOSPHATE PHOSPHATASE	0,26	0,24
Nucleosides and Nucleotides	Detoxification	0,24	0,24
Regulation and Cell signaling	Regulation of virulence	0,23	0,24
Clustering-based subsystems	Cytochrome biogenesis	0,23	0,23
Metabolism of Aromatic Compounds	Peripheral pathways for catabolism of aromatic compounds	0,20	0,19
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	Pathogenicity islands	0,20	0,19
Clustering-based subsystems	Translation	0,19	0,18
Sulfur Metabolism	Inorganic sulfur assimilation	0,17	0,17
Membrane Transport	Protein and nucleoprotein secretion system, Type IV	0,16	0,14
Clustering-based subsystems	Hypothetical protein possible functionally linked with Alanine-tRNA synthetase	0,16	0,14
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type II	0,16	0,12
Clustering-based subsystems	Ribosomal Protein L28P relates to a set of uncharacterized proteins	0,16	0,14
Clustering-based subsystems	Probably GTP or GMP signaling related	0,16	0,14
Clustering-based subsystems	Nucleotidyl-phosphate metabolic cluster	0,15	0,16
DNA Metabolism	DNA uptake, competence	0,15	0,14
Clustering-based subsystems	Two related proteases	0,14	0,14
Amino Acids and Derivatives	Proline and 4-hydroxyproline	0,14	0,13
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Biotin	0,13	0,11
Stress Response	Osmotic stress	0,13	0,13
Respiration	Electron accepting reactions	0,13	0,12
Clustering-based subsystems	Hypothetical in Lysine biosynthetic cluster	0,12	0,12
Clustering-based subsystems	Ribosome-related cluster	0,12	0,12
Cell Wall and Capsule	Cell wall of Mycobacteria	0,12	0,11
DNA Metabolism	DNA recombination	0,11	0,12
Clustering-based subsystems	Carbohydrates	0,11	0,10
Carbohydrates	Glycoside hydrolases	0,11	0,10
Respiration	Sodium Ion-Coupled Energetics	0,11	0,12
Membrane Transport	Uni- Sym- and Antiporters	0,09	0,11
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Adhesion	0,09	0,10
Clustering-based subsystems	Recombination related cluster	0,09	0,09
Sulfur Metabolism	Organic sulfur assimilation	0,09	0,08
Regulation and Cell signaling	Programmed Cell Death and Toxin-antitoxin Systems	0,08	0,09
Protein Metabolism	Selenoproteins	0,08	0,07
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Quinone cofactors	0,08	0,08
Secondary Metabolism	Plant Hormones	0,08	0,08
Clustering-based subsystems	Shiga toxin cluster	0,08	0,08
DNA Metabolism	CRISPs	0,08	0,09
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type VI	0,08	0,06
Clustering-based subsystems	Probably Pyrimidine biosynthesis-related	0,08	0,07

Clustering-based subsystems	Choline bitartrate degradation, putative	0,07	0,07
Clustering-based subsystems	Chromosome Replication	0,07	0,06
Regulation and Cell signaling	Quorum sensing and biofilm formation	0,07	0,08
Clustering-based subsystems	Tricarboxylate transporter	0,06	0,06
Respiration	Reverse electron transport	0,06	0,06
Metabolism of Aromatic Compounds	Metabolism of central aromatic intermediates	0,06	0,05
Clustering-based subsystems	tRNA sulfuration	0,06	0,05
Stress Response	Acid stress	0,05	0,05
Membrane Transport	Sugar Phosphotransferase Systems, PTS	0,05	0,05
Clustering-based subsystems	Putative associate of RNA polymerase sigma-54 factor rpoN	0,05	0,04
Clustering-based subsystems	Methylamine utilization	0,04	0,04
Clustering-based subsystems	TldD cluster	0,04	0,05
Clustering-based subsystems	Three hypotheticals linked to lipoprotein biosynthesis	0,04	0,04
Iron acquisition and metabolism	Siderophores	0,04	0,04
Stress Response	Periplasmic Stress	0,04	0,04
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Detection	0,04	0,04
Clustering-based subsystems	D-tyrosyl-tRNA(Tyr) deacylase (EC 3.1.-.-) cluster	0,04	0,04
Clustering-based subsystems	Pyruvate kinase associated cluster	0,04	0,04
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type III	0,03	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	Chemotaxis, response regulators	0,03	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	proteosome related	0,03	0,03
Clustering-based subsystems	Sulfatases and sulfatase modifying factor 1 (and a hypothetical)	0,03	0,03
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Invasion and intracellular resistance	0,03	0,03
Clustering-based subsystems	DNA polymerase III epsilon cluster	0,03	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	Probably organic hydroperoxide resistance related hypothetical protein	0,02	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	Probably Ybbk-related hypothetical membrane proteins	0,02	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	Hypothetical lipase related to Phosphatidate metabolism	0,02	0,02
Metabolism of Aromatic Compounds	Anaerobic degradation of aromatic compounds	0,02	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	Putrescine/GABA utilization cluster-temporal, to add to SSs	0,02	0,01
Secondary Metabolism	Plant Alkaloids	0,02	0,02
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Bacteriocins, ribosomally synthesized antibacterial peptides	0,02	0,02
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type VIII (Extracellular nucleation/precipitation pathway, ENP)	0,02	0,02
Fatty Acids, Lipids, and Isoprenoids	Triacylglycerols	0,02	0,02
Clustering-based subsystems	CRISPRs and associated hypotheticals	0,01	0,01
Dormancy and Sporulation	Spore DNA protection	0,01	0,01
Clustering-based subsystems	Phosphate metabolism	0,01	0,01
Clustering-based subsystems	recX and regulatory cluster	0,01	0,01
Secondary Metabolism	Bacterial cytostatics, differentiation factors and antibiotics	0,01	0,01
Stress Response	Cold shock	0,01	0,01
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type V	0,01	0,01
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Coenzyme M	0,01	0,01
Virulence, Disease and Defense	Toxins and superantigens	0,01	0,01
Clustering-based subsystems	Proteasome related clusters	0,01	0,00
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Coenzyme B	0,01	0,01
Secondary Metabolism	Lipid-derived mediators	0,01	0,01
Photosynthesis	Light-harvesting complexes	0,01	0,01
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Coenzyme F420	0,01	0,01
Clustering-based subsystems	Hypothetical Related to Dihydroorotate Dehydrogenase	0,00	0,01

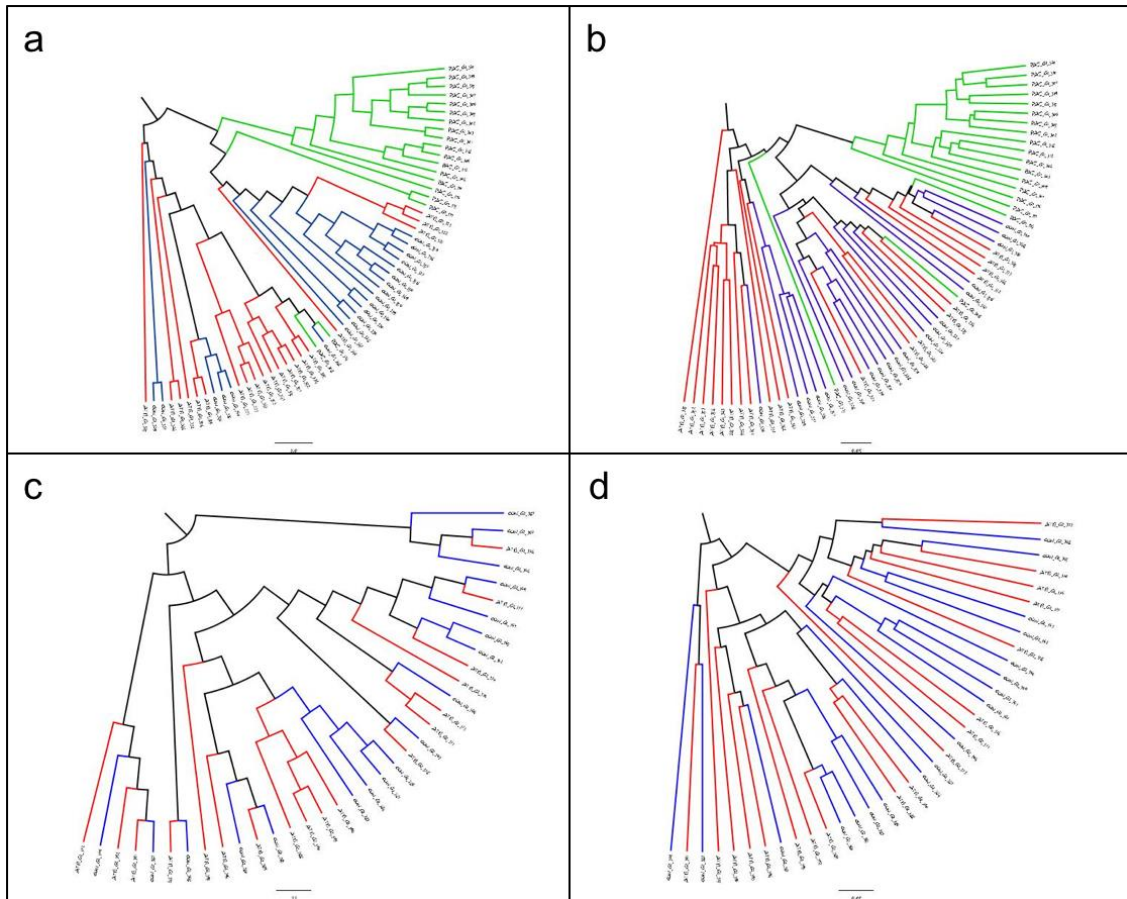
Clustering-based subsystems	Flagella protein	0,00	0,01
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	Plasmid related functions	0,00	0,00
Cofactors, Vitamins, Prosthetic Groups, Pigments	Lipoic acid	0,00	0,00
Secondary Metabolism	Biologically active compounds in metazoan cell defence and differentiation	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Hypothetical associated with RecF	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	DNA metabolism	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Putative GGDEF domain protein related to agglutinin secretion	0,00	0,00
Membrane Transport	Protein secretion system, Type I	0,00	0,00
Secondary Metabolism	Biosynthesis of phenylpropanoids	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Carotenoid biosynthesis	0,00	0,00
Motility and Chemotaxis	Social motility and nonflagellar swimming in bacteria	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Lysine Biosynthesis	0,00	0,00
Stress Response	Dessication stress	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Catabolism of an unknown compound	0,00	0,00
Regulation and Cell signaling	Proteolytic pathway	0,00	0,00
Phages, Prophages, Transposable elements, Plasmids	Gene Transfer Agent (GTA)	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	alpha-proteobacterial cluster of hypotheticals	0,00	0,00
Photosynthesis	Electron transport and photophosphorylation	0,00	0,00
Clustering-based subsystems	Molybdopterin oxidoreductase	0,00	0,00
	Total	100,00	100,00

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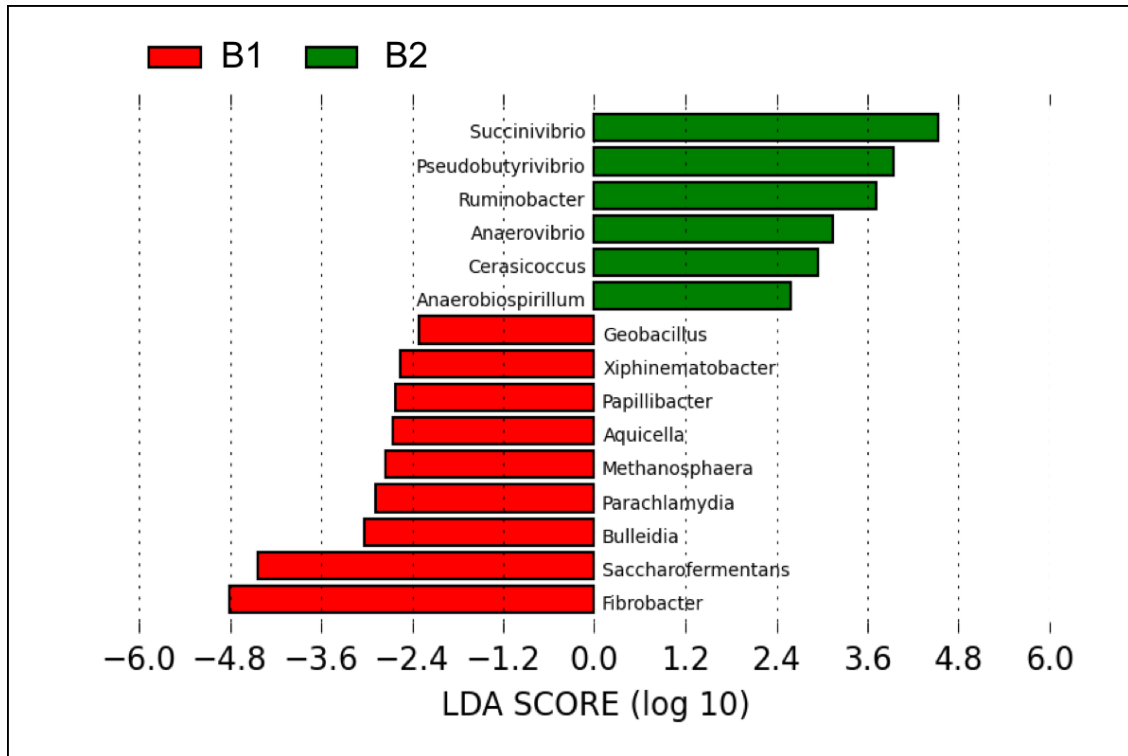


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Supplementary figure S1. Rarefaction curves representing richness and diversity found in bacterial communities in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with virginiamycin (ATB), controls (CON) and animals at pasture (PAS) during the dry season (B1) and the rain season (B2). Error bars indicate standard deviations.



1
 2 **Supplementary figure S2.** Dendrograms representing similarities in bacterial communities' membership
 3 (Jaccard index) and structure (Yue and Clayton index) found in the rumen of feedlot cattle treated with
 4 virginiamycin (red), control animals (blue) and from animals kept at pasture (green). A and B: Community
 5 membership and structure, respectively found in animals housed during the dry season; C and D: Community
 6 membership and structure, respectively found in animals housed during rain season.
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Supplementary figure S3. LEfSe analysis indicating ruminal bacterial taxa associated housing during the dry (A) and rain (B) seasons.

1 **6 ARTIGO B**2
3
4 **TRANSFAUNATION OF THE RUMINAL FLUID FROM COWS ALTERS**
5 **RUMINAL MICROBIOTA STRUCTURE BUT NOT DOMINANT PROTOZOA IN**
6 **HEALTHY SHEEP¹**7
8 **Bruna Parapinski Santos^{a*}**9
10 a. CNPq scholarship holder. Department of Veterinary Clinical Studies, Universidade Estadual de
11 Londrina, Rodovia Celso Garcia Cid - Pr 445 Km 86057-970 - Londrina, Paraná, Brazil12
13 **Abstract**14
15 The ruminal microbiota is a complex and rich community that is stable and difficult to
16 manipulate. Transfaunation is considered a useful method to re-establish a dysbiotic
17 community, such as in cases of ruminal acidosis. The aim of this study was to evaluate the
18 consequences of transfaunation in healthy sheep receiving bovine ruminal fluid. For this,
19 three healthy cows were used as donors and their ruminal fluid mixed and transfaunated into
20 six healthy sheep (TRANS). Five sheep were kept as controls (CON) in the same
21 management conditions, but received warm saline solution instead. The bacterial microbiota
22 was analyzed by sequencing the V4 region of the 16S rRNA gene and protozoals by optical
23 microscopy just before transfaunation and 2, 7, 14 and 28 days after the proceeding. Despite a
24 much richer microbiota present in the fluid from cows, bacterial richness and diversity were
25 not changed by transfaunation. Transfaunation changed the structure of ruminal bacterial
26 communities affecting mainly low abundant (rare) species. Transfaunation with type B
27 protozoa population from cows was not able to change the type A population already
28 established in sheep. Protozoa counting did not change after transfaunation, however,
29 *Charonina* spp. in particular appeared in the rumen of ewes after transfaunation and remained
30 until 28 days in five animals. It can be concluded that inter-species transfaunation can change
31 microbiota structure.32
33 **Keywords:** Sequencing, 16S rRNA, ruminants, microbiota transference, microbiome, ewes.

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1 INTRODUCTION

2
3 The ruminal microbiota is a rich and complex ecosystem and is very important for
4 animal health and production. The microbiota is the main responsible for digestion of
5 complex polysaccharides, because of their inability to produce cellulolytic enzymes. Complex
6 substrates like cellulose, starch and proteins are degraded by an interaction of many microbes
7 resulting in energy, protein and vitamins available to the host (Russel et al., 2009). Bacteria
8 are the most numerous microorganisms in the rumen reaching concentrations of $10^{10-11}/g$, but
9 archaea, protozoa ($10^{4-6}/g$), fungi ($10^{3-5}/g$) and bacteriophage ($10^{7-9}/g$) also take part in this
10 complex community (Choudhury et al., 2015). This host-microbiota interaction is a two-way
11 relationship and the host's species is an important factor responsible for ruminal microbiota
12 specificity (Henderson et al., 2015).

13 Although bacteria are the main component of the rumen microbiota, protozoa account
14 for up to 50% of nitrogen production (Williams and Coleman, 1991). Even though,
15 knowledge of the involvement of the different ciliate genera in ruminal fermentations and its
16 interactions with other members of the microbial community are not well understood. To date,
17 microscopic counting is still the gold standard for studying the diversity of rumen ciliates
18 (Kittelman et al., 2015; Newbold et al., 2015). *Entodinium*, *Isotrichia* and *Dasytrichia*
19 protozoa are found in most sheep and cattle under normal conditions. Some larger protozoa
20 are mutually exclusive and populations types have been described. Type A population is
21 characterized by the presence of *Polyplastrum multivesiculatum* which can be accompanied
22 by *Diploplastrum affine*. Type B is characterized by the presence of *Epidinium* spp. and/or
23 *Eudiplodinium maggi* (Williams and Coleman, 1993).

24 Microbiota manipulation has been attempted to improve energy harvesting, reduce
25 methane emission and to prevent and treat ruminal diseases (Malmuthuge and Guan, 2017;
26 McCann et al., 2017). There are many ways to manipulate the ruminal microbiota including
27 probiotics, prebiotics, antibiotics and microbiota transplantation (transfaunation), in which the
28 rumen fluid from one animal (donor) is transferred into another. Despite all these techniques,
29 the ruminal microbiota is very stable in adult animals, mainly for two reasons: redundancy,
30 that is a function overlap among multiple microbial species, and resilience, that is a resistance
31 to perturbation and capacity to recover (Weimer, 2015). These two aspects are very important
32 because even with changes in managements it maintain the stability of digestive function from
33 the host; however, it also provides a challenge to veterinarians and animal nutritionists for
34 microbiota manipulation.

1 In humans, the transplant of fecal microbiota comprises transferring an entire and
2 balanced microbial community from one individual to another, and has been very efficient to
3 restore a disrupted microbiota (dysbiosis), such as in cases of recurrent *Clostridium difficile*
4 infection (Fuentes et al., 2014; Shogbesan et al., 2018) and in some cases of inflammatory
5 bowel disease (Fang et al., 2018).

6 Rumen microbiota transfaunation is a method used by veterinarians for a long time
7 and recommended by text books to restore ruminal homeostasis (Brag and Hansen, 1994;
8 Garry and McConel, 2015). Recently, a study showed that one transfaunation was capable to
9 restore the ruminal microbiota after dysbiosis caused by treatment with antibiotics (Ji et al.,
10 2018). Transfaunation can benefit cows recovering for abomasum displacement surgery, by
11 improving dry matter intake and milk production, in addition to reducing post-surgical serum
12 β -hydroxi-butirate and acetate:propionate ratio in the rumen fluid (Rager et al., 2004).
13 However, transfaunation failed to increase milk yield and to reduce incidence of retained
14 placenta, displaced abomasum, lameness and mastitis in one herd of cows during the
15 transition period compared to control animals (Tankersley et al., 2007).

16 Large volumes of ruminal fluid (8-10L) are recommended to treat a sick adult cow,
17 and much less (1-4L) is needed for an adult sheep (DePeters and George, 2014). For
18 convenience, practitioners frequently use cattle ruminal fluid to be transferred into a sick
19 sheep because it is easier to obtain this volume of ruminal fluid from a cow. Although this is a
20 common practice, very little is known about the consequences of this cross-species
21 transfaunation. The objectives of this study were to characterize the consequences on the
22 ruminal microbiota of sheep after transfaunation with bovine ruminal fluid.

23 24 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

25 26 **Animals, samples collection and proceedings**

27 This study was approved by the Animal Care Committee of the “Universidade
28 Estadual de Londrina” (#2016-23933.2015.38). The study was conducted at the veterinary
29 hospital of the "Universidade Estadual de Londrina".

30 Three healthy adult cows were used as donors for ruminal fluid, and 11 healthy sheep
31 as receptors. The sheep were randomly divided in two groups: transfaunated (TRANS) and
32 controls (CON). The group TRANS was composed by six sheep receiving 1.5L of cows’
33 ruminal fluid given via a stomach tube. The group CON, was composed by five sheep
34 receiving 1.5L of warm saline solution (NaCl 0,9%). The cows’ ruminal fluid was a pool from

1 three healthy cows and was obtained with a stomach tube with a metal strainer at the end to
2 ensure that the end of the tube would stay in the liquid part of the rumen stratification and the
3 gross particles did not clog the tube. The fluid was collected in bottles and kept closed to
4 avoid oxygen exposure until the last cow was collected. Samples were pooled and
5 homogenized in a bucket within 1 hour after collection and the mixture was administered to
6 the ewes within 30 minutes after pooling. An aliquot of the cows' fluid was separated for
7 analysis. Cows and ewes were kept on a pasture of *Brachiaria* spp for more than a year and
8 received the same sorghum silage twice a day.

9 The ruminal fluid from sheep was obtained for analysis in five moments: just before
10 transfaunation (D0), and after 2 (D2), 7 (D7), 14 (D14) and 28 (D28) days. Physical
11 examination including heart rate, respiratory rate, ruminal movements frequency,
12 temperature, and mucosal evaluation was performed in all animals before sampling. Ruminal
13 fluid was collected with a stomach tube with a metal filter at the end and samples were
14 separated in three aliquots. The first was placed in a 2mL sterile tube for genetic sequencing
15 of the microbiota and frozen immediately at -20°C. Samples were transferred to a -80°C
16 freezer until DNA extraction. The second aliquot was designated to protozoa evaluation:
17 20mL of ruminal fluid fixed with 20mL of formalin 18,5% in a tight flask for posterior
18 analysis (D'Agosto and Carneiro, 1999). The third aliquot was analyzed immediately for
19 physical and chemical evaluation: color, odor, consistency, pH, and methylene blue reduction
20 test performed according to Dirksen, Gründer and Stöber (1993).

21

22 **DNA Extraction and sequencing**

23 DNA extraction was performed using a repeated bead beat protocol described by Yu
24 and Morisson (2004). The V4 hypervariable region of the gene 16S rRNA was amplified by
25 PCR in two steps: first, 2.5µL of DNA were added to a mixture containing 9µL of water,
26 12.5µL of Kapa 2X ReadMix (Kapa Biosystems, Wilmington, MA, USA) and 0.5µL
27 (10pmol/µL) of primer forward S-D-Bact-0564-a-S-15 and 0.5µL (10pmol/µL) of reverse
28 primers S-D-Bact-0785-b-A-18 (Klindworth et al., 2013), both primers containing an
29 overlapping region of the Illumina sequencing primers. PCR conditions consisted of an initial
30 denaturing step of 94°C for 3 min, followed by 27 cycles of 94°C for 45 s, 53°C for 1 min for
31 annealing, and 72°C for 90 s for elongation, and a final period of 72°C for 10 min, and kept at
32 10°C. PCR products were purified with 20µL of Agencourt AMPure XP (Beckman Coulter,
33 Indianapolis, IN, USA) magnetic beads and eluted in 32µL of Tris buffer (10mM, pH 8.5).
34 The second PCR step was carried by adding 5µL of purified product to a mixture with 12µL

1 of water, 25 μ L of 2X Ready Mix and 4 μ L of each Illumina index primer (2.5pmol/ μ L). PCR
2 conditions consisted of 3 min at 93°C, and 8 cycles of 30 s at 95°C, 30 s at 55°C, 30 s at
3 72°C, a final period of 5 min at 72°C and kept at 10°C. A second purification was performed
4 by using 50 μ L of AMPure beads and eluted in 32 μ L of Tris buffer (10mM, pH 8.5).
5 Sequencing was performed with an Illumina MiSeq (Illumina, Inc., San Diego, CA, USA)
6 with the V2 reagents kit for 250 cycles from each end at the Genomics Facility of the
7 University of Guelph. Sequence data will be made available in the NCBI sequence read
8 archive (SRA) upon acceptance for publication.

9 10 **Bioinformatic analysis**

11
12 Bioinformatic analysis was performed using the software mothur (v.1.36.1) following
13 the protocol described by Kozich and colleagues (2013). Sequences were assigned into OTUs
14 at the genus level and classified according to the Ribosomal Databases Project (Cole et al.,
15 2014). A mock community was used for quality control. A subsample from the main dataset
16 was used for alpha and beta diversity analyses to decrease bias caused by non-uniform sample
17 sizes. In order to ensure that the cutoff adopted for subsampling was representative of original
18 samples, the Good's coverage was calculated. Chao1 was used to estimate richness and the
19 inverse of the Simpson's index to estimate diversity. Community membership, that takes into
20 account which species are present, was calculated by the classic Jaccard index and community
21 structure, that considers which species but also their abundance was calculated using the Yue
22 and Clayton index (Yue and Clayton, 2005). Dendrograms generated by Figtree (v1.4.2) were
23 used to visualize the similarity between samples' structure and membership (beta diversity).
24 The linear discriminant analysis (LDA) Effective Size (LefSe) algorithm (Segata et al., 2011)
25 was used to identify genera that could discriminate differences overtime and between TRANS
26 and CON animals.

27 28 **Protozoa analysis**

29 Blinded counting of protozoa was performed according to D'Agosto and Carneiro
30 (1999). Briefly, 3 drops of lugol were added to 1mL of the fixed samples and 9mL of glicerol
31 solution (30%). After 15 minutes, the counting was performed in a Sedgewick Rafter
32 Counting chamber. The genus classification was performed according to Ogimoto and Imai
33 (1981).

1 **Statistical analysis**

2 The pH, time for methylene blue reduction test, Good's coverage, Chao1, inverted
3 Simpson index, protozoa total counting and the abundance of the protozoal genera were
4 submitted to the Kolmogorov-Smirnov normality test and compared by two-way repeated
5 measures ANOVA, followed by the Bonferroni test. The relative abundances of the main
6 bacterial phyla and genera (abundance >1%) were analyzed with same statistical protocol and
7 *P* values were further adjusted for false discovery rate with the Benjamini-Hochberg test. *P*
8 value <0.05 was considered as significant.

9 Statistical comparison between community membership and structure was carried by
10 the Parsimony test and the analysis of molecular variance (AMOVA). LEfSe analysis was
11 performed with all-against-all comparison and the threshold on the linear discriminant
12 analysis (LDA) score was set at 2.0.

14 **RESULTS**

16 **Animals and ruminal fluid analysis**

17 All animals remained healthy during the experiment. The physical and chemical
18 evaluation of the ruminal fluid of sheep and cows were within normal values. Rumen fluid
19 was green with an aromatic odor and a slightly viscous consistency. Live protozoa (small,
20 medium and large) were present in all samples. There were no differences between treatments
21 in any parameter of the ruminal fluid analysis. The overall average pH was 7.10 (± 0.22), and
22 pH at D14 was lower when compared to D0 and D28 ($P=0.007$) (Table 1). The overall
23 average time to the methylene blue reduction test was 289 ± 119.11 seconds (4 min 49 sec \pm 1
24 min 59 sec), which was longer at D28 compared to D2, D7 and D14 ($P<0.001$) (Table 1).

26 **Community analysis**

27 A total of 1,480,012 good quality sequences remained after bioinformatics. The error
28 rate calculated based on a mock community was 1.57%. A subsample of 12,144 reads per
29 sample was randomly selected for the analysis to normalize sequence numbers, yielding an
30 average coverage of 99.95% indicating adequacy of subsampling.

31 Alpha diversity results represented by the number of genera in each sample and the
32 Simpson's and Chao's indexes are presented in Table 2. The bovine sample had a bacterial
33 community that was twice as rich as ewes' samples (Chao index). Transfaunation did not

1 change richness ($P=0.841$) or diversity ($P=0.998$) but time of sampling was a significant
2 factor in both CON and TRANS groups. Richness was significantly reduced in both groups in
3 D2, D7 and D14 ($P=0.004$) and diversity in D2, D7, D14 and D28 ($P<0.001$).

4 Relative abundances at the phylum and genus levels found in each group are presented
5 in Fig 1 and 2. Results from statistical analysis comparing the main taxa overtime and
6 between treatments and the interactions between them are presented in Table 3 and 4.
7 Sequences were classified into 26 different phyla, of which, three were present exclusively in
8 the bovine sample. Seven phyla had relative abundance above 1% and are shown in Figure 1.
9 Firmicutes was the most abundant phylum in all samples. Fibrobacter was the second most
10 abundant in ewes. While Bacteroidetes were the second most abundant in cows, it was the
11 fifth main phylum in ewes. Transfaunation did not change the dominant phyla already present
12 in the ovine rumen, but there were overtime changes in both groups (Table 3). There was a
13 decrease in Firmicutes ($P=0.002$), and an increase in Fibrobacteres ($P=0.002$) in all days after
14 transfaunation and Proteobacteria ($P=0.002$) in D14.

15 Overall, 296 genera were identified of which, 97 were present exclusively in the
16 bovine sample. Fifteen genera had relative abundance above 1% and are shown in Fig 2 and
17 Table 4. There was an interaction between time of sampling and treatment in the genus
18 *Selenomonas*, that was decreased in TRANS and increased in CON animals at D28
19 ($P=0.030$). Transfaunation did not change any other genera above 1% of abundance.
20 *Fibrobacter* ($P=0.002$), unclassified Proteobacteria ($P=0.002$), unclassified Firmicutes
21 ($P=0.002$), unclassified *Clostridiales* ($P=0.002$), unclassified *Lachnospiraceae* ($P=0.002$) and
22 unclassified *Ruminococcaceae* ($P=0.002$) varied overtime (Table 4). The genera that were
23 statistically different between sampling times within each treatment, indicated by the LEfSe
24 analysis, are listed in Fig 3.

25 The similarity between community membership and structure within TRANS and
26 CON is illustrated in Fig 4. Community structure was statistically different only in
27 transfaunated animals in all samples collected after transfaunation compared to D0 in both
28 statistical tests used ($P<0.05$, Table 5). Structure in D7 also differed from D14 in TRANS and
29 D14 differed from D0, D2 and D7 in CON animals pointed by the AMOVA test ($P<0.05$), but
30 there was no variation in CON detected by the parsimony test. Although not supported by the
31 parsimony test (Table 5), transfaunation was also associated with long term changes indicated
32 by the AMOVA test, indicating that there was a shift in the composition of the main species
33 present in the rumen of sheep after receiving bovine fluid.

1 **Protozoa analysis:**

2 Total protozoa counting and genera distribution are presented in Table 6. Total
3 protozoa counting was not different between treatments ($P=0.841$), but was lower in D14 and
4 D28 compared to D0 ($P=0.001$). Overall, the most prevalent genus was *Entodinium* (Fig 5A)
5 in both treatments, as well as in the bovine sample. The percentage of *Ostracodinium* spp.
6 increased in D28 in TRANS ($P=0.026$) compared to the others days, and also it was greater
7 than CON in D28.

8 The genus *Charonina* (Fig 5B) was also increased by transfaunation: the overall mean
9 in CON was 0.016% (± 0.138) and in TRANS was 0.554% (± 0.122) ($P=0.017$). Interesting,
10 this genus was present in the bovine rumen fluid (1.36%), but only in one ewe before
11 transfaunation. Two days after the transfer, all transfaunated sheep presented at least one
12 specimen of this genus, which was not present in any of the control animals. The dynamics of
13 the genus *Charonina* was variable between individuals, but five sheep presented the genus
14 until D28, suggesting that transfaunation induced colonization.

15 *Epidinium* (Fig 5C) was present only in the bovine sample (200/mL), and did not
16 appear in any sample from sheep. *Polyplastrum* (Fig 5D) was present exclusively in the
17 samples from sheep. *Eodinium* was present in 7 samples from ewes and *Enoplastrum* was
18 present in the bovine sample and in 2 samples from ewes.

19

20 **DISCUSSION**

21 This study was performed to better understand the consequences of inter-species (non-
22 homologous) transfaunation of the ruminal microbiota in sheep receiving cows' ruminal fluid.
23 It was surprising that after adding a very rich community (more than twice as many bacterial
24 species), the bacterial richness and diversity did not change in transfaunated sheep.
25 Conversely, it has been reported that three consecutive transfaunations increased richness and
26 diversity until 18 days after transfaunation in the ruminal microbiota of cows with dysbiosis
27 induced by antibiotics. Microbiota from transfaunation was able to colonize the rumen and
28 increase (Ji et al., 2018). In humans, fecal microbiota transplantation can also significantly
29 increase the diversity in patients with microbial dysbiosis caused by antibiotics and
30 *Clostridium difficile* infection (Vrieze et al., 2012). In the growing rumen of lambs
31 transfaunated seven times during early life, this method also increased richness compared to
32 control animals receiving water (De Barbieri et al., 2015). Higher richness and diversity is
33 associated with health in other species (Costa et al., 2012; Larsen and Claassen, 2018; Le
34 Chatelier et al., 2013). Therefore, our results along with those evidences are suggestive that it

1 is easier to manipulate a dysbiotic or a stabilising community (i.e. in young animals), rather
2 than trying to manipulate ruminal microbiota of adult healthy sheep that harbor a resilient
3 community (Weimer et al., 2015).

4 In our study, transfaunation was associated with changes in community structure of
5 the ruminal microbiota 2 days after the procedure, not returning to its baseline state 28 days
6 later, indicating that transfaunation had long-term consequences. However, those changes
7 were not detectable in the main phyla and genera comprising those communities. One study
8 evaluating inter-species transfer of ruminal microbiota, reported increase in richness and
9 diversity as well as changes in bacterial communities (beta diversity) one day after
10 transferring 30% of the rumen content from a bison into healthy cows, remaining altered until
11 27 days (Ribeiro et al., 2017). In another study, the exchange of total rumen content from cow
12 to cow also changed community structure for 28 days (Zhou et al., 2018), with some animals
13 presenting great similarity to the donor's microbiota after transfaunation and gradually
14 returning to its baseline, and other animals recovering right after transfaunation. The same
15 would be expected in the present study, but although transfaunation induced changes in
16 community structure, their bacterial profile did not resemble the donor's microbiota. Weimer
17 and colleagues (2010) also observed great individual variation after exchange of rumen
18 contents in cows. In the present study, the rumen content was not removed before
19 transfaunation and transfaunation procedure was performed only once. Yet, the cows' rumen
20 fluid was able to change the structure of the sheep ruminal microbiota suggesting that even in
21 a complex and stable microbial environment, the addition of another microbiota induced
22 changes.

23 Community structure was different in control animals in D14 against the other days
24 showed only in AMOVA test. Transfaunated animals also had change in community structure
25 and membership in D14. In this day, changes in firmicutes and proteobacteria was observed in
26 both groups. The animal managements remained unchanged during all the experiment, and
27 also changes in richness, diversity, pH, some phyla and some genera were observed overtime
28 in transfaunated as well as control animals. These changes highlight the fact that the ruminal
29 microbiota is a dynamic community that can be sensitive to external factors, emphasizing the
30 need and importance of control groups for this type of study. We are not able to establish the
31 factors that could be responsible for those changes. The overtime changes in healthy cows
32 was also demonstrated in the control group in a study (Zhou et al., 2018).

33 The main phyla found in the present study were Firmicutes followed by Fibrobacteres.
34 In other studies, Bacteroidetes were frequently reported as the first or second most prevalent

1 (Ellison et al., 2014; Henderson et al., 2015). In the present study, Bacteroidetes were the fifth
2 more abundant phyla found in the samples from sheep, which may be due to differences in
3 diet, environment and methodologies used for microbiota characterization. The only bacterial
4 genus greater than 1% that showed an interaction between day and treatment was
5 *Selenomonas* ($P=0.03$). This genus was decreased in TRANS and increased in CON at D28.
6 This genus was also associated with the baseline microbiota (D0) in transfaunated animals, as
7 pointed by the LefSe analysis, along with other 13 genera with abundance lower than 1%.

8 The protozoa quantification performed in this study did not show significant
9 alterations after transfaunation ($P>0.05$). Noteworthy, was the absence of *Charonina* spp. in
10 sheep before transfaunation, which appeared after the procedure. This corroborate with one
11 study, in which ruminal fluid from a cow was given to a protozoa free sheep and all the 24
12 species present in the cow's rumen fluid were able to colonize the sheep rumen until 28 days
13 (Dehority, 1978).

14 In this study, the bovine ruminal fluid had a type B protozoal population and all sheep
15 had a type A. After transfaunation, sheep continuous to be type A, and *Epidinium* spp. was
16 not observed in any sheep. The type A seems to be dominant in sheep, and it was previously
17 demonstrated that the transference of type B population to a sheep does not change the
18 already established type A, and when occur the opposite, and type A is given to a type B
19 sheep, type A is able to establish in their rumen (Eadie, 1962). Even though there are this
20 mutually exclusive relation between *Polyplastrum* spp. and *Epidinium* spp., in the present
21 study, these different types of protozoa populations did not affect the *Charonina* spp.
22 colonization in the rumen, at least for 28 days.

23 Although the methodology adopted in this study is descriptive it is suitable to detect
24 changes in the microbiota, increasing our understanding of ruminal microbiota dynamics after
25 non-homologous transfaunation in healthy sheep. Future studies using with ruminal dysbiosis
26 (e.g. ruminal acidosis) are necessary to better understand this procedure in sickness.

27 **Conclusion**

28 Cross species transfaunation is a safe procedure from cows to sheep. The
29 transfaunation of bovine ruminal fluid was associated with changes in the ruminal microbiota
30 of healthy sheep for at least 28 days. These changes occurred in the less abundant bacteria.
31 Evaluation for a longer time would be necessary to observe if the ruminal community can
32 return to its baseline. Type A ruminal protozoa community is not changed by type B
33 population transfaunation, and *Charonina* spp. was able to colonize the rumen of sheep.
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CONFLICT OF INTEREST STATEMENT

The author(s) declare no competing and commercial interests

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29

1 **TABLES**
2

3 Table 1. Mean \pm SD of pH and Methylene blue reduction test in groups CON and TRANS.
4 Comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days.

		D0	D2	D7	D14	D28	COW	P (D)	P (T)	P (D x T)
pH	CON	7.26 ^a ± 0.30	7.08 ^{ab} ± 0.10	7.26 ^{ab} ± 0.21	7.10 ^b ± 0.19	7.27 ^a ± 0.21	6,95	0.007	0.050	0.209
	TRANS	7.19 ^a ± 0.21	7.03 ^{ab} ± 0.15	6.90 ^{ab} ± 0.16	6.89 ^b ± 0.11	7.14 ^a ± 0.15				
Methylene blue reduction time (seconds)	CON	373.8 ^{ab} ± 87.56	274.75 ^b ± 82.77	215 ^b ± 81.83	265.8 ^b ± 124.88	491.5 ^a ± 172.68	240	<0.001	0.168	0.258
	TRANS	258.5 ^{ab} ± 109.74	245.5 ^b ± 87.32	234.67 ^b ± 65.98	259.67 ^b ± 90.01	346.5 ^a ± 117.1				

5 D: Day, T: treatment, D x T: interaction between treatment and day. Labeled means with different lowercase
6 letters means statistical difference ($P < 0.05$). CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day
7 before transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after
8 transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation.

1 Table 2. Alpha diversity calculated by coverage (%), Chao index and inverted Simpson index
 2 comparison within treatment, days and interaction between treatment and days.

		D0	D2	D7	D14	D28	COW	P (D)	P (T)	P (D x T)
Coverage (%)	CON	99.93 ^b	99.95 ^{ab}	99.96 ^{ab}	99.95 ^a	99.95 ^{ab}	99.70	0.013	0.973	0.606
	TRANS	99.91 ^b	99.96 ^{ab}	99.97 ^{ab}	99.97 ^a	99.96 ^{ab}				
Chao	CON	64.77 ^a	49.99 ^b	48.13 ^b	49.42 ^b	50.04 ^{ab}	163	0.004	0.841	0.846
	TRANS	72.13 ^a	49.97 ^b	47.54 ^b	43.21 ^b	51.01 ^{ab}				
Inverted Simpson	CON	7.85 ^a	6.97 ^b	6.25 ^b	6.62 ^b	6.67 ^b	7.67	<0.001	0.998	0.350
	TRANS	8.32 ^a	6.54 ^b	6.75 ^b	5.92 ^b	6.80 ^b				
		±0.75	±0.62	±0.66	±0.90	±0.75				

3 D: Day, T: treatment, D x T: interaction between treatment and day. Labeled means with different lowercase
 4 letters means statistical difference ($P < 0.05$). CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day
 5 before transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after
 6 transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation.

1 Table 3. Phyla in control and transfaunated animals. Comparison within treatment, days and
 2 interaction between treatment and days.

		D0	D2	D7	D14	D28	COW	P (D)	P (T)	P (D x T)
Firmicutes	CON	37.3 ^a ±7.80	30.79 ^b ±4.92	27.07 ^b ±3.48	22.82 ^c ±4.23	30.56 ^b ±2.70	42.24	0.002	0.602	0.479
	TRANS	40.56 ^a ±2.57	25.81 ^b ±4.22	27.72 ^b ±4.55	20.14 ^c ±3.13	28.04 ^b ±4.15				
Unclassified Bacteria	CON	28.00 ±4.18	29.04 ±7.19	32.90 ±7.95	26.57 ±3.05	30.45 ±2.74	31.51	0.123	0.198	0.710
	TRANS	27.29 ±2.86	23.36 ±4.81	28.38 ±2.30	23.52 ±2.89	26.63 ±4.04				
Fibrobacteres	CON	10.85 ^b ±4.30	16.09 ^a ±2.13	17.45 ^a ±3.08	16.10 ^a ±3.53	17.38 ^a ±3.84	5.04	0.002	0.974	0.710
	TRANS	9.6 ^b ±4.84	14.98 ^a ±5.38	17.89 ^a ±2.85	14.90 ^a ±2.87	20.33 ^a ±5.23				
Proteobacteria	CON	9.67 ^{bc} ±6.01	9.44 ^b ±6.80	8.34 ^{bc} ±5.65	22.66 ^a ±6.60	5.70 ^c ±3.53	5.84	0.002	0.084	0.479
	TRANS	8.65 ^{bc} ±2.92	24.46 ^b ±8.37	10.23 ^{bc} ±8.09	29.37 ^a ±6.99	9.15 ^c ±6.18				
Verrucomicrobia	CON	7.90 ±1.59	9.08 ±2.70	8.20 ±2.14	6.96 ±1.84	8.95 ±1.53	4.20	0.080	0.198	0.497
	TRANS	6.87 ±2.35	6.75 ±2.11	9.48 ±1.72	6.95 ±0.92	8.50 ±2.03				
Bacteroidetes	CON	2.79 ±1.36	3.02 ±0.88	2.84 ±0.30	2.61 ±0.76	4.17 ±1.67	7.76	0.460	0.345	0.479
	TRANS	4.13 ±1.10	3.04 ±0.76	3.52 ±0.51	3.35 ±0.78	3.67 ±0.84				
Synergistetes	CON	2.34 ±1.62	1.09 ±0.84	1.77 ±1.55	1.42 ±1.51	1.43 ±1.89	1.26	0.124	0.848	0.479
	TRANS	1.24 ±1.18	0.81 ±0.80	1.46 ±2.07	0.96 ±0.73	2.30 ±2.41				

3 D: Day, T: treatment, D x T: interaction between treatment and day. Labeled means with different lowercase
 4 letters means statistical difference ($P < 0.05$). CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day
 5 before transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after
 6 transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation.

1 Table 4. Genera in control and transfaunated animals. Comparison within treatment, days and
 2 interaction between treatment and days.

		D0	D2	D7	D14	D28	COW	P (D)	P (T)	P (D x T)
Unclassified Bacteria	CON	28.00 ^{ab} ±4.18	29.04 ^{ab} ±7.19	32.90 ^a ±7.95	26.57 ^b ±3.05	30.45 ^{ab} ±2.74	31.51	0.021	0.318	0.819
	TRANS	27.29 ^{ab} ±2.86	23.36 ^{ab} ±4.81	28.38 ^a ±2.30	23.52 ^b ±2.89	26.63 ^{ab} ±4.04				
<i>Fibrobacter</i>	CON	10.85 ^b ±4.30	16.09 ^a ±2.13	17.45 ^a ±3.08	16.10 ^a ±3.53	17.38 ^a ±3.84	5.04	0.002	0.976	0.819
	TRANS	9.61 ^b ±4.84	14.98 ^a ±5.38	17.89 ^a ±2.85	14.90 ^a ±2.87	20.33 ^a ±5.23				
Unclassified Proteobacteria	CON	8.56 ^{bc} ±6.09	8.45 ^b ±6.49	6.79 ^{bc} ±5.63	19.90 ^a ±6.46	4.79 ^c ±3.46	2.96	0.002	0.195	0.600
	TRANS	7.53 ^{bc} ±2.85	23.09 ^b ±7.95	8.77 ^{bc} ±7.44	27.71 ^a ±7.67	8.19 ^c ±6.28				
Unclassified Subdivision 5	CON	7.89 ±1.59	9.07 ±2.70	8.19 ±2.14	6.96 ±1.84	8.95 ±1.53	4.18	0.103	0.968	0.752
	TRANS	6.83 ±2.85	6.75 ±2.11	9.48 ±1.72	6.94 ±0.92	8.49 ±2.02				
Unclassified Firmicutes	CON	8.88 ^a ±2.55	7.52 ^b ±1.77	5.47 ^{bc} ±1.50	4.59 ^c ±1.01	7.72 ^{ab} ±1.79	6.90	0.002	0.976	0.792
	TRANS	8.74 ^a ±6.01	6.01 ^b ±1.36	6.85 ^{bc} ±1.63	4.49 ^c ±0.92	7.81 ^{ab} ±1.92				
Unclassified Clostridiales	CON	5.19 ^a ±1.76	4.69 ^b ±1.21	3.33 ^b ±0.78	2.91 ^b ±0.49	3.59 ^b ±1.07	7.03	0.002	0.976	0.752
	TRANS	5.73 ^a ±1.87	3.44 ^b ±0.48	4.07 ^b ±0.91	2.50 ^b ±0.58	3.81 ^b ±0.91				
Unclassified Lachnospiraceae	CON	4.38 ^a ±0.87	2.76 ^b ±0.93	2.23 ^b ±0.55	1.82 ^b ±0.21	2.70 ^b ±1.06	7.62	0.002	0.976	0.903
	TRANS	4.66 ^a ±1.44	2.40 ^b ±0.43	2.60 ^b ±0.61	1.70 ^b ±0.38	2.66 ^b ±1.03				
Unclassified Ruminococcaceae	CON	3.73 ^a ±1.63	3.91 ^{ab} ±1.02	2.47 ^b ±0.80	2.28 ^b ±0.52	2.49 ^b ±0.81	4.39	0.002	0.971	0.600
	TRANS	4.51 ^a ±1.61	2.89 ^{ab} ±0.41	3.35 ^b ±1.37	2.03 ^b ±0.45	3.18 ^b ±0.63				
<i>Succiniclasticum</i>	CON	3.40 ±0.91	2.23 ±0.63	3.11 ±1.66	2.95 ±0.52	2.79 ±0.73	3.13	0.071	0.622	0.903
	TRANS	4.07 ±1.48	2.40 ±0.52	3.16 ±0.79	2.86 ±0.84	3.15 ±0.49				
<i>Saccharofermentans</i>	CON	3.89 ±2.63	3.07 ±0.83	2.85 ±1.40	2.75 ±0.80	2.46 ±1.09	1.68	0.176	0.976	0.819
	TRANS	3.98 ±1.45	2.34 ±0.56	2.78 ±1.12	2.63 ±0.78	3.46 ±1.11				
Unclassified Veillonellaceae	CON	3.27 ±1.88	2.46 ±2.22	3.39 ±2.37	2.55 ±1.23	3.89 ±2.98	1.26	0.390	0.462	0.819
	TRANS	2.72 ±1.30	2.39 ±2.20	1.92 ±1.02	1.23 ±0.59	1.57 ±1.07				
Unclassified Bacteroidetes	CON	1.43 ±0.73	1.76 ±0.71	1.62 ±0.44	1.57 ±0.69	2.20 ±0.57	2.91	0.509	0.976	0.792
	TRANS	1.87 ±0.66	1.72 ±0.64	1.96 ±0.35	1.73 ±0.53	1.84 ±0.53				
<i>Prevotella</i>	CON	1.20 ±0.65	1.14 ±0.23	1.12 ±0.27	0.97 ±0.13	1.88 ±1.12	3.61	0.096	0.210	0.752
	TRANS	1.98 ±0.43	1.24 ±0.27	1.46 ±0.36	1.53 ±0.44	1.72 ±0.61				
<i>Selenomonas</i>	CON	1.74 ^{Aab} ±0.69	1.75 ^{Aab} ±0.86	2.43 ^{Aab} ±1.48	1.32 ^{Aa} ±0.38	3.46 ^{Ab} ±2.49	2.03	0.103	0.318	0.030
	TRANS	2.31 ^{Aa} ±1.04	1.66 ^{Aab} ±0.40	0.97 ^{Bab} ±0.49	0.98 ^{Aab} ±0.57	0.88 ^{Bb} ±0.53				
Unclassified Synergistaceae	CON	1.83 ±1.59	0.79 ±0.86	1.45 ±1.54	1.24 ±1.56	1.16 ±1.84	0.06	0.155	0.976	0.752
	TRANS	1.03 ±1.11	0.68 ±0.73	1.37 ±2.06	0.86 ±0.68	2.18 ±2.40				

3 D: Day, T: treatment, D x T: interaction between treatment and day. Labeled means with different lowercase letters means
 4 statistical difference ($P < 0.05$). CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day before transfaunation, D2 –
 5 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after
 6 transfaunation.

1 Table 5. *P* values of membership (Jaccard index) and structure (Yue and Clayton index)
 2 similarity within treatments.

	Structure				Membership			
	AMOVA		Parsimony		AMOVA		PARSIMONY	
	CON	TRANS	CON	TRANS	CON	TRANS	CON	TRANS
D0 x D2	0.459	0.002	0.621	0.027	0.843	0.343	1	0.946
D0 x D7	0.104	0.009	0.413	0.023	0.299	0.07	0.877	0.544
D0 x D14	0.016	0.002	0.398	0.002	0.037	0.004	0.072	0.16
D0 x D28	0.103	0.003	0.153	0.019	0.399	0.07	1	0.197
D2 x D7	0.569	0.01	1	0.191	0.624	0.827	1	0.928
D2 x D14	0.043	0.525	0.631	0.922	0.01	0.019	0.632	0.178
D2 x D28	0.714	0.002	0.224	0.19	0.265	0.049	1	0.178
D7 x D14	0.012	0.002	0.405	0.021	0.715	0.051	0.4	0.032
D7 x D28	0.806	0.624	0.609	0.555	0.538	0.004	0.594	0.189
D14 x D28	0.014	0.004	0.152	0.028	0.293	0.106	0.131	0.184

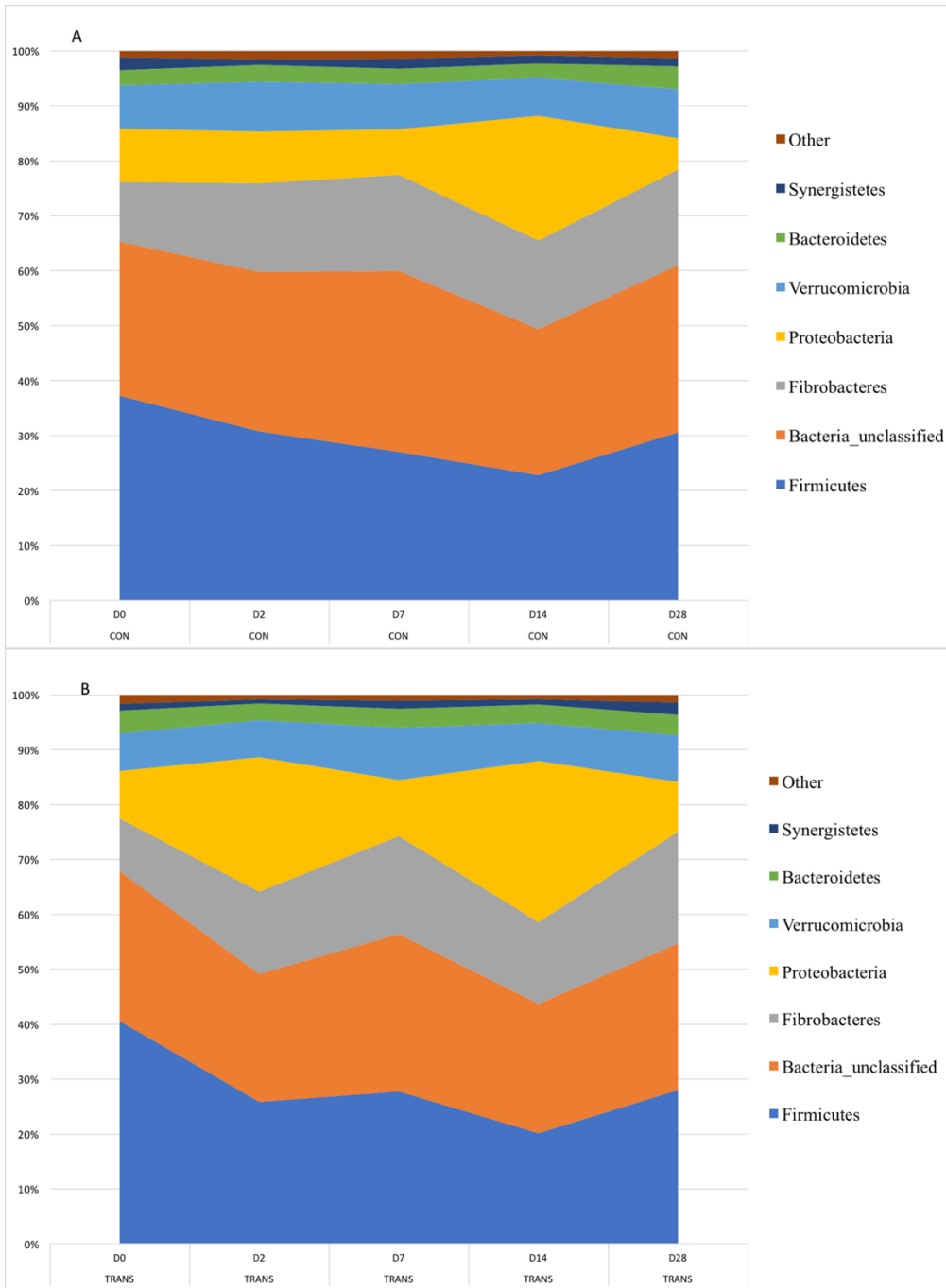
3 CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day before transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after
 4 transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after
 5 transfaunation.

1 Table 6. Mean of protozoa total counting ($\times 10^5$) and abundance of genera in the cows and in
 2 ewes in D0, D2, D7, D14 and D28.

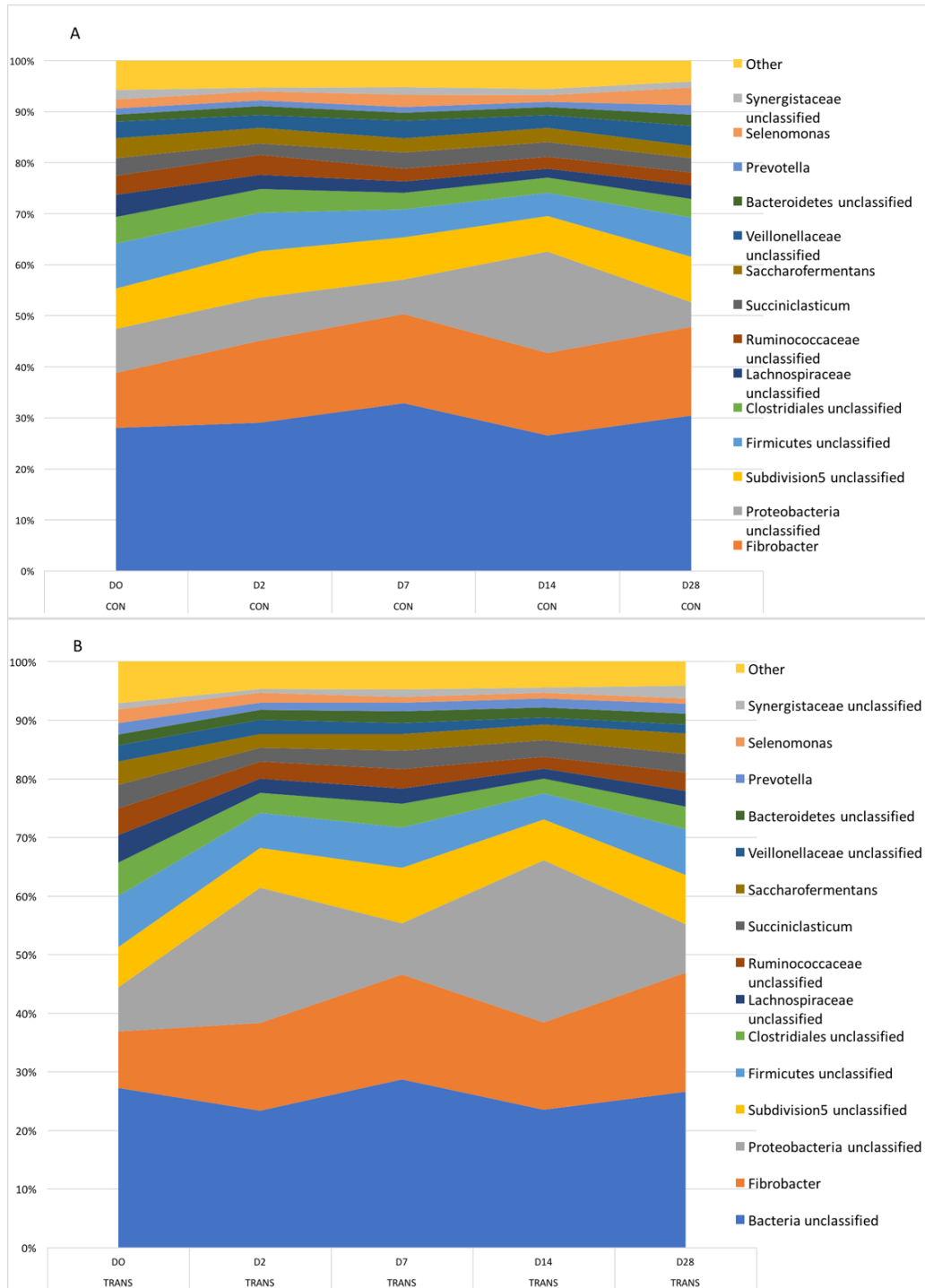
		D0	D2	D7	D14	D28	COW	P (D)	P (T)	P (D x T)
Total counting ($\times 10^5$)	CON	6.56 ^a ± 2.45	4.68 ^{ab} ± 2.06	4.93 ^{ab} ± 3.12	3.44 ^b ± 1.49	3.45 ^b ± 1.96	2.64	0.001	0.841	0.787
	TRANS	7.45 ^a ± 4.08	5.17 ^{ab} ± 2.56	4.39 ^{ab} ± 3.24	4.35 ^b ± 1.83	3.38 ^b ± 0.43				
<i>Entodinium</i> (%)	CON	97.68 ± 1.49	97.43 ± 1.51	98.05 ± 0.81	98.33 ± 0.64	96.04 ± 2.21	93.40	0.128	0.535	0.182
	TRANS	97.73 ± 0.62	97.64 ± 1.51	97.33 ± 0.68	98.43 ± 0.52	97.83 ± 1.20				
<i>Isotrichia</i> (%)	CON	0.42 ± 0.30	0.84 ± 1.40	0.22 ± 0.29	0.25 ± 0.46	0.52 ± 0.88	2.42	0.115	0.695	0.452
	TRANS	0.76 ± 0.77	0.33 ± 0.28	0.07 ± 0.04	0.08 ± 0.11	0.37 ± 0.82				
<i>Dasytrichia</i> (%)	CON	0.21 ± 0.38	0.043 ± 0.086	0.245 ± 0.38	0.078 ± 0.108	0.045 ± 0.059	1.744	0.315	0.323	0.489
	TRANS	0.06 ± 0.16	0.06 ± 0.10	0.03 ± 0.07	0.07 ± 0.08	0 ± 0.08				
<i>Diplodinium</i> (%)	CON	0.75 ^a ± 0.47	0.78 ^a ± 0.60	1.16 ^a ± 0.72	0.63 ^a ± 0.39	1.25 ^a ± 0.88	0.148	0.036	0.566	0.841
	TRANS	0.55 ^a ± 0.32	0.83 ^a ± 0.43	0.85 ^a ± 0.52	0.48 ^a ± 0.30	1.05 ^a ± 0.44				
<i>Ostracodinium</i> (%)	CON	0.107 ^{Aa} ± 0.05	0.109 ^{Aa} ± 0.05	0.149 ^{Aa} ± 0.11	0.109 ^{Aa} ± 0.06	0.05 ^{Aa} ± 0.11	0.303	0.399	0.973	0.026
	TRANS	0.10 ^{Ab} ± 0.17	0.07 ^{Aa} ± 0.09	0.05 ^{Aa} ± 0.06	0.05 ^{Aa} ± 0.06	0.26 ^{Bb} ± 0.26				
<i>Diploplastrum</i> (%)	CON	0.248 ± 0.26	0.26 ± 0.28	0.09 ± 0.11	0.21 0.16	0.174 ± 0.19	0.07	0.651	0.096	0.747
	TRANS	0.44 ± 0.27	0.42 ± 0.28	0.50 ± 0.28	0.45 ± 0.30	0.60 ± 0.52				
<i>Metadinium</i> (%)	CON	1.36 ^{ab} ± 0.10	0.08 ^{ab} ± 0.04	0.05 ^a ± 0.08	0.05 ^{ab} ± 0.04	0.11 ^b ± 0.13	0.303	0.010	0.455	0.213
	TRANS	0.14 ^{ab} ± 0.12	0.04 ^{ab} ± 0.08	0.03 ^a ± 0.06	0.06 ^{ab} ± 0.07	0.26 ^b ± 0.16				
<i>Polyplastrum</i> (%)	CON	0.37 ± 0.40	0.22 ± 0.20	0.61 ± 1.09	0.15 ± 0.13	0.013 ± 0.02	0	0.587	0.205	0.298
	TRANS	0.08 ± 0.10	0.13 ± 0.12	0.05 ± 0.05	0.09 ± 0.08	0.11 ± 0.13				
<i>Charonina</i> (%)	CON	0	0	0	0.07 ± 0.16	0	1.36	0.683	0.017	0.681
	TRANS	0.15 ± 0.36	0.66 ± 1.10	0.33 ± 0.58	0.38 ± 0.52	1.24 ± 2.00				

4
 5 D: Day, T: treatment, D x T: interaction between treatment and day. CON – Control group, TRANS –
 6 Transfaunated group, D0 – Day before transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after
 7 transfaunation, D14 – 14 days after transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation. P value in the end of
 8 column is referent to the statistical analysis within treatment. P value in the lines in referent to comparison within
 9 days between treatment. Data present with mean \pm standard deviation. Labeled means with different lowercase
 10 letters means statistical difference ($P < 0.05$) within treatment in line and different uppercase letter means
 11 statistical difference ($P < 0.05$) within each day in column.

1 FIGURES

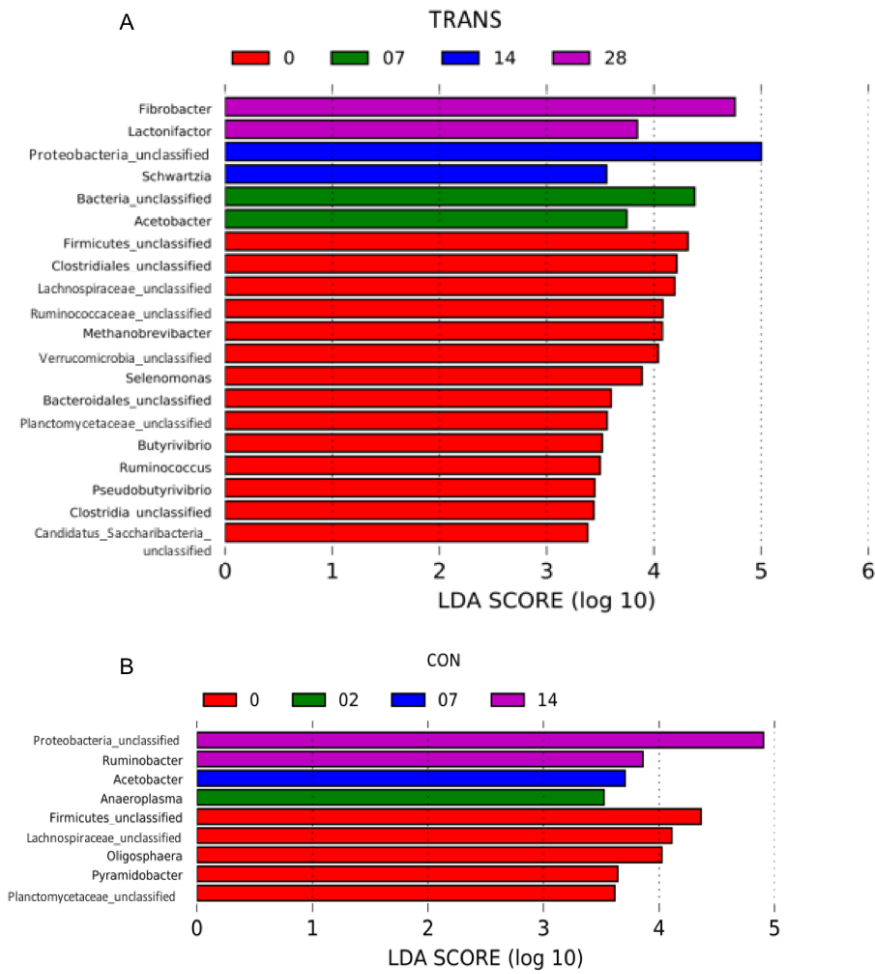


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 3 Fig 1. Phyla with more than 1% of relative abundance in control (A) and transfaunated (B)
 4 ewes along time. CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day before
 5 transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14
 6 days after transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation.

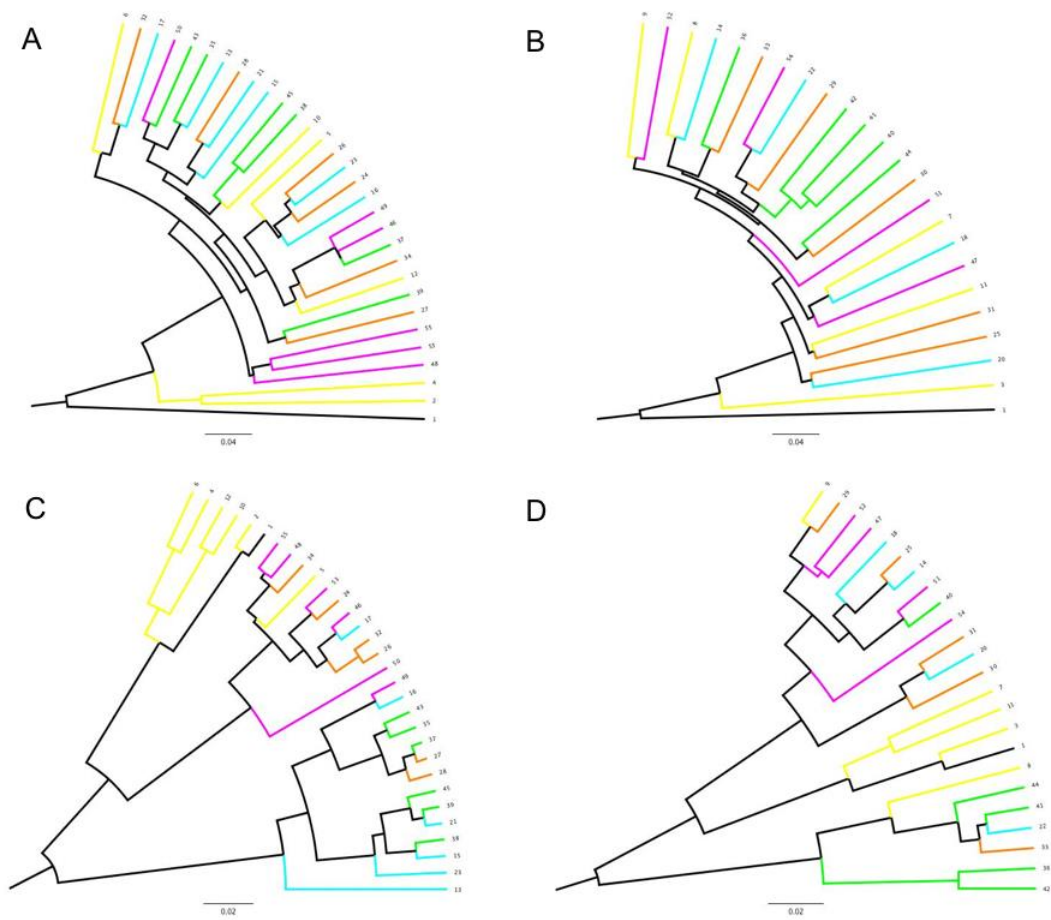


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2 Fig 2. Genera with more than 1% of relative abundance in control (A) and transfaunated (B)
 3 ewes along time. CON – Control group, TRANS – Transfaunated group, D0 – Day before
 4 transfaunation, D2 – 2 days after transfaunation, D7 – 7 days after transfaunation, D14 – 14
 5 days after transfaunation, D28 – 28 days after transfaunation.



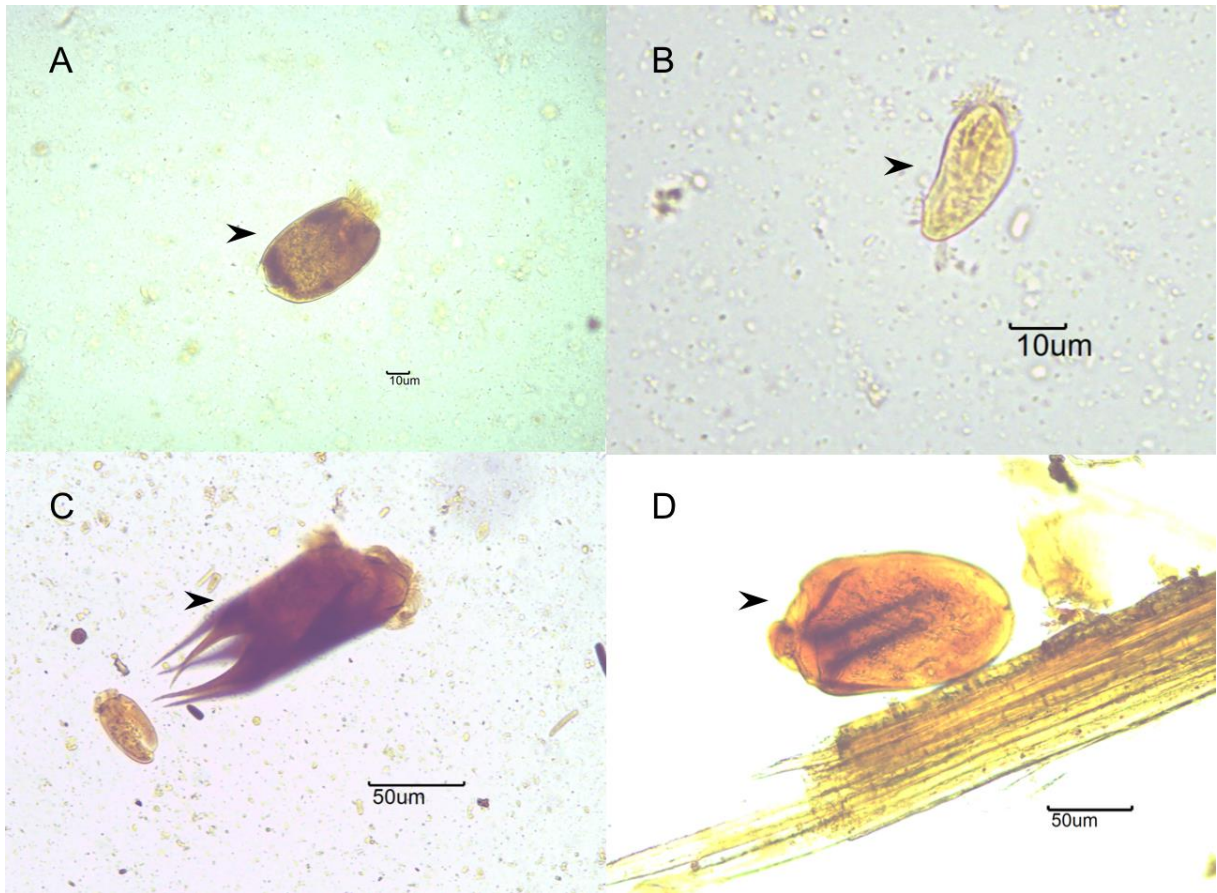
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2 Fig. 3. Lefse analysis indicating bacterial taxa associated with time of sampling in
3 transfaunated ewes (A) and controls (B)



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2 Fig. 4. Dendrograms representing the similarity between community membership (A, B) and
 3 structure (C, D) within treatment in TRANS (A, C) and CON (B, D) animals. Lines with
 4 different colors means different days. Yellow – D0, Blue – D2, Orange – D7, Green – D14,
 5 Pink – D28, Black – Cow. A- Membership in transfaunated ewes. B – Membership in
 6 controls. C – Structure in transfaunated ewes. D – Structure in controls.

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Fig. 5. Protozoa in the ruminal fluid stained by lugol solution. The arrowhead is pointing the protozoa: A- *Entodinium*, B- *Charonina*, C- *Epidinium*, D- *Polyplastrum*.

1 **7 PERSPECTIVAS**

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3 O presente estudo permitiu verificar que a complexidade e a estabilidade da
4 microbiota ruminal saudável dificultam a manipulação da mesma, seja em bovinos ou em
5 ovinos. O uso de promotor de crescimento e da transfaunação com líquido ruminal inter-
6 espécie não permitiu evidentes modificações na distribuição dos principais filos e gêneros
7 bacterianos mas modificou a beta diversidade. A transfaunação também não foi capaz de
8 promover modificação nos principais gêneros dos protozoários ruminais. O nicho encontrado
9 pelo gênero *Charonina* possibilitou o estabelecimento desse protozoário no rúmen das
10 ovelhas. A tecnologia de sequenciamento de nova geração é uma ferramenta muito
11 interessante no estudo de dinâmica ruminal, pois permite verificar grande quantidade de
12 sequências de DNA, entretanto também possui limitações por não propiciar a identificação
13 das espécies.

14 Acredita-se que na doença, como no caso da acidose láctica ruminal aguda, a
15 transfaunação atue diferente, e por encontrar o rúmen completamente alterado pela doença
16 seja capaz de reestabelecer a microbiota ruminal mais rapidamente. Estudos futuros com
17 disbiose e a transfaunação inter-espécie seriam necessários para verificar a dinâmica da
18 microbiota bovina no rúmen das ovelhas.

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1 8. CONCLUSÕES

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A virginiamicina usada como promotor de crescimento modificou a estrutura e composição da microbiota bacteriana de bovinos confinados, mas não os principais filos e gêneros. Essa mudança não foi consistente nos dois lotes analisados em diferentes estações do ano.

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A microbiota de bovinos confinados e criados a campo é completamente diferente em composição e estrutura da microbiota de animais confinados.

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O perfil metabólico avaliado por análise metagenômica não foi diferente entre os animais tratados ou não tratados com virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento.

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A transfaunação com líquido ruminal de vacas foi capaz de modificar a estrutura bacteriana da microbiota ruminal de ovelhas por até 28 dias após o procedimento, mas não modificou a composição nem os principais filos e gêneros bacterianos.

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A transfaunação com líquido ruminal de bovinos não alterou a contagem total de protozoários no rúmen de ovelhas saudáveis, mas favoreceu a colonização de protozoários do gênero *Charonina*. As ovelhas apresentaram a população de protozoários tipo B e continuaram sendo tipo B mesmo após a transfaunação com líquido ruminal tipo A.

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ANEXOS

ANEXO A

Aprovação do CEUA do artigo A



UNIVERSIDADE
ESTADUAL DE LONDRINA

COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS

OF. CIRC. CEUA Nº 49/2016

Londrina, 11 de Março de 2016.

Prezado Pesquisador,


Certificamos que o projeto intitulado "**Caracterização das alterações causadas por antibióticos promotores de crescimento na microbiota ruminal de bovinos avaliadas por sequenciamento de nova geração**", protocolo CEUA nº **23932.2015.95**, sob a responsabilidade de **Julio Augusto Naylor Lisboa**, que envolve a produção, manutenção e/ou utilização de animais pertencentes ao filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto o homem), 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 da Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), foi **aprovado** pela Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais da Universidade Estadual de Londrina (CEUA/UEL), em reunião realizada em **01/03/2016**.

O projeto tem como objetivo caracterizar a microbiota ruminal de bovinos confinados e criados a campo utilizando-se da tecnologia de sequenciamento de nova geração. Para isso os animais serão divididos em três grupos: G1) animais confinados recebendo virginiamicina como promotor de crescimento; G2) animais confinados sem a suplementação com antibiótico promotor de crescimento e G3) animais mantidos a pasto. A virginiamicina será misturada ao concentrado no momento do preparo, proporcionando uma ingestão de 340 mg de virginiamicina/animal/dia. Os animais serão pesados na entrada e na saída do confinamento, seguindo o manejo da propriedade. A coleta das amostras será feita no abatedouro após a morte do animal. O rúmen será aberto na porção medial e uma amostra com a porção sólida e líquida será coletada em tubo tipo falcon de 50 mL. GI 1.

Vigência do Projeto	01/04/2016 a 31/04/2018
Espécie/linhagem	Bovino
Nº de animais	75 (25 Machos e 50 Fêmeas)
Peso/Idade	Adulto / 400 kg
Sexo	Machos e Fêmeas
Origem	Fazenda Poty - Jaguapitã-PR
Amostras a serem coletadas	Conteúdo ruminal

Cumprir orientar que caso pretendam-se quaisquer alterações no protocolo experimental aprovado, deve-se submeter o novo protocolo à apreciação da CEUA/UEL anteriormente à execução das modificações.

Coloco-me à disposição para quaisquer esclarecimentos que se fizerem necessária. Sem mais para o momento, subscrevo, cordialmente,


Profa. Dra. Glaucia Scantamburlo Alves Fernandes
Coordenadora da CEUA/UEL

Ilmo. Sr.

Prof. Dr. Julio Augusto Naylor Lisboa

Coordenador do Projeto

Departamento de Clínicas Veterinárias / Centro de Ciências Agrárias

Com cópia para André Junior da Conceição (Chefe da DP-IC/PROPPG), Chefe do Departamento de Clínicas Veterinárias e Diretor(a) do Centro de Ciências Agrárias

Campus Universitário: Rodovia Celso Garcia Cid (PR 445), km 380 - Fone (043) 3371-4000 PABX - Fax 3328-4440 - Caixa Postal 10.011 - CEP 86057-970 - Internet <http://www.uel.br>

LONDRINA - PARANÁ - BRASIL

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ANEXO B

Aprovação do CEUA do artigo B



COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS

OF. CIRC. CEUA Nº 48/2016

Londrina, 11 de Março de 2016.

Prezado Pesquisador,


Certificamos que o projeto intitulado "**Diferentes formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal em bovinos e ovinos**", protocolo CEUA nº **23933.2015.38**, sob a responsabilidade de **Julio Augusto Naylor Lisboa**, que envolve a produção, manutenção e/ou utilização de animais pertencentes ao filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto o homem), 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 da Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), foi **aprovado** pela Comissão de Ética no Uso de Animais da Universidade Estadual de Londrina (CEUA/UDEL), em reunião realizada em **01/03/2016**.

O projeto tem como objetivo comparar a estrutura e composição bacterianas ruminal de ovinos e bovinos diante de duas formas de manipulação da microbiota ruminal. Para isso o projeto será dividido em 2 estudos, sendo um dividido em duas fases. No estudo 1, Fase1: será realizada a transfaunação de 2L de líquido ruminal de um bovino ruminostomizado para seis ovinos saudáveis, e de 2L solução fisiológica morna para quatro ovinos saudáveis. Será coletada amostra de líquido ruminal após a transfaunação dos ovinos nos dias D0, D2, D7, D14 e D28. Na Fase2: Será realizada a indução de ALRA com 15g/kg de sacarose em 12 ovinos previamente saudáveis. Todos os ovinos serão tratados, após 18 horas da indução, com a retirada do excesso de ácido láctico acumulado no rúmen por meio da lavagem ruminal com sifonamento; com a infusão intravenosa de solução comercial de bicarbonato de sódio (NaHCO₃) a 6% na proporção de 3 a 4 mmol de ion bicarbonato (HCO₃⁻) por quilo de peso corporal para a correção da acidose metabólica; e com a infusão intravenosa da solução de Ringer com lactato em volume correspondente a 100mL/kg para a correção da desidratação. A transfaunação do líquido ruminal será feita após os procedimentos de tratamento da ALRA, em metade dos ovinos (n=6). Esses indivíduos receberão 2L do suco ruminal fresco colhido do bovino saudável fistulado. Os outros ovinos (n=6) receberão 2L de Solução de NaCl 0,9% morna. Será coletada amostra de líquido ruminal no dia da indução da ALRA (D-1) e após a transfaunação dos ovinos nos dias D0, D2, D7, D14 e D28. No **estudo 2**: As vacas lactantes e os seus respectivos bezerros serão mantidos, desde o parto até a desmama, em regime de manejo extensivo em pastagem nativa, e receberão mistura mineral *ad libitum* em cocho coberto. Serão utilizados 60 animais (30 vacas e os seus 30 bezerros) alocados em dois grupos: ATB com adição de virginiamicina à mistura mineral estimulando-se a ingestão diária de 45 mg do antibiótico /100kg de PV; e CON (controle) sem ingestão de virginiamicina. Amostras de suco ruminal serão coletadas das vacas e dos bezerros em momento único na desmama, por sondagem esofageana. Estudo 1, fase 1 e Estudo 2: GI 1; Estudo 1, fase 2: GI 2.

Vigência do Projeto	01/04/2016 a 28/02/2019
Espécie/linhagem	Estudo 1: Bovino / Ovino Estudo 2: Bovino
Nº de animais	Estudo 1: 1 Bovino Macho e 22 Ovinos Fêmeas Estudo 2: 30 Bovino Fêmea Adulto, 30 Bovinos com 8 meses (15 Machos e 15 Fêmeas)
Peso/Idade	Bovinos: 8 meses e Adulto / 170 a 450kg Ovinos: Adulto / 50 kg
Sexo	Machos e Fêmeas
Origem	Estudo 1: Bovino / Fazenda Escola da UEL Ovino / Hospital Veterinário da UEL Estudo 2: Propriedade Rural Santa Paula / Lavinia-SP
Amostras a serem coletadas	Suco ruminal, sangue

Cumpra-se orientar que caso pretendam-se quaisquer alterações no protocolo experimental aprovado, deve-se submeter o novo protocolo à apreciação da CEUA/UDEL anteriormente à execução das modificações.

Coloco-me à disposição para quaisquer esclarecimentos que se fizerem necessária. Sem mais para o momento, subscrevo, cordialmente,


 Profa. Dra. Glaura Scantamburlo Alves Fernandes
 Coordenadora da CEUA/UDEL

Ilmo. Sr.
Prof. Dr. Julio Augusto Naylor Lisboa
 Coordenador do Projeto
 Departamento de Clínicas Veterinárias / Centro de Ciências Agrárias
 Com cópia para André Junior da Conceição (Chefe da DP-IC/PROPPG), Diretor da Fazenda Escola, Diretor do Hospital Veterinário, Chefe do Departamento de Clínicas Veterinárias e Diretor(a) do Centro de Ciências Agrárias

4