

UNIVERSIDADE FEDERAL DE MINAS GERAIS
ESCOLA DE VETERINÁRIA
Colegiado de Pós-Graduação em Zootecnia

Hilton do Carmo Diniz Neto

**EFEITOS DA VACINAÇÃO CONTRA BRUCELOSE E CLOSTRIDIOSE SOBRE O
CONSUMO, DESEMPENHO, COMPORTAMENTO ALIMENTAR, PARÂMETROS
SANGUÍNEOS E RESPOSTA IMUNE DE BEZERRAS LEITEIRAS**

BELO HORIZONTE
2019

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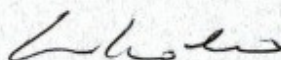
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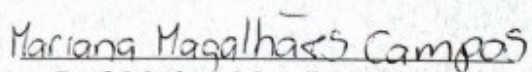
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Aos meus pais, meus irmãos, a vó Sueli e todos os familiares e amigos que me apoiaram e incentivaram em todos os momentos.

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*Não é sobre ter
Todas as pessoas do mundo pra si
É sobre saber que em algum lugar
Alguém zela por ti
É sobre cantar e poder escutar
Mais do que a própria voz
É sobre dançar na chuva de vida
Que cai sobre nós*

*É saber se sentir infinito
Num universo tão vasto e bonito
É saber sonhar
E, então, fazer valer a pena cada verso
Daquela poema sobre acreditar
Não é sobre chegar no topo do mundo
E saber que venceu
É sobre escalar e sentir
Que o caminho te fortaleceu
É sobre ser abrigo
E também ter morada em outros corações
E assim ter amigos contigo
Em todas as situações
A gente não pode ter tudo
Qual seria a graça do mundo se fosse assim?
Por isso, eu prefiro sorrisos
E os presentes que a vida trouxe
Pra perto de mim
Não é sobre tudo que o seu dinheiro
É capaz de comprar
E sim sobre cada momento
Sorriso a se compartilhar
Também não é sobre correr
Contra o tempo pra ter sempre mais
Porque quando menos se espera
A vida já ficou pra trás
Segura teu filho no colo
Sorria e abraça teus pais
Enquanto estão aqui
Que a vida é trem-bala, parceiro
E a gente é só passageiro prestes a partir*

(Ana Vilela, Trem-bala).

RESUMO

O objetivo deste estudo foi identificar possíveis efeitos de diferentes estratégias de vacinação (concomitante ou não) contra brucelose e clostridiose sobre a ingestão, desempenho, comportamento alimentar, parâmetros sanguíneos e resposta imune de bezerras leiteiras. Cinquenta bezerras foram utilizadas [38 Gir (Zebu, *Bos taurus indicus*) e 12 (5/8 Holandês x Gir)]. Aos 120 dias de idade, os animais foram distribuídos aleatoriamente em três grupos: B (n = 18), vacinado contra a brucelose; C (n = 14), vacinado contra clostridiose e CB (n = 18), vacinado concomitantemente para ambos. A temperatura retal (RT) e termográfica foram avaliadas nos dias -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14 e 28 dias relativos à vacinação. O consumo de alimento e água, o peso corporal (PC) e o comportamento alimentar foram monitorados diariamente por um sistema eletrônico. Foi coletado sangue nos dias 0, 3, 7, 14 e 28, em relação à vacinação para determinação das concentrações de glicose (GLC) e beta-hidroxiacetato (BHBA). Amostras de sangue coletadas no dia 0 (pré-vacinação) e nos dias 28 e 42 foram utilizadas para avaliar a resposta imune contra *Brucella abortus* e clostrídios. Houve aumento da temperatura retal entre o primeiro e o terceiro dia pós-vacinal nos três grupos. A termografia revelou aumento da temperatura local por sete dias nos grupos B e CB. O grupo C teve aumento da temperatura local por um período mais longo, com duração de até 14 dias. O consumo de matéria seca apresentou redução para os grupos B e CB, mas nenhuma alteração foi observada para o grupo C. Não foram observadas alterações em relação ao PV inicial, ao peso final, ao ganho de peso médio diário (GPD) e à eficiência alimentar. Não foram observadas diferenças para os três grupos de vacinação para os parâmetros sanguíneos ao longo do período de avaliação. A vacinação concomitante contra brucelose e clostrídios levou a menores títulos de anticorpos neutralizantes contra a toxina épsilon de *C. perfringens* e a toxina botulínica tipo C de *C. botulinum* (C > CB > B). Quando o ensaio de proliferação celular e os testes sorológicos para *B. abortus* foram avaliados, não foram observadas diferenças entre os grupos B e CB. Os

presentes resultados indicam que a vacinação concomitante contra brucelose e clostrídios não tem impacto relevante no consumo, desempenho e comportamento alimentar de bezerros leiteiros. No entanto, a vacinação concomitante de vacinas contra esses dois patógenos impacta a imunidade animal contra infecções clostridiais.

Palavras-chave: *Brucella abortus*, *Clostridium botulinum*, *Clostridium perfringens*, consumo.

ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to identify possible effects of different vaccination strategies (concomitantly or not) against brucellosis and clostridia on intake, performance, feeding behavior, blood parameters, and immune responses of dairy heifers calves. Fifty heifers calves were enrolled [38 Gyr (Zebu, *Bos taurus indicus*) and 12 5/8 Holstein x Gyr]. At 120 days of age, animals were randomly distributed among three groups: B (n = 18), vaccinated against brucellosis; C (n = 14), vaccinated against clostridia and CB (n = 18), vaccinated concomitantly for both. Rectal (RT) and thermographic temperatures were evaluated on days -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, and 28 relative to the vaccination day. Feed and water intake, body weight (BW) and feeding behavior were monitored daily by an electronic feeding system. Blood was sampled on days 0, 3, 7, 14, and 28, relative to the vaccination day for determination of glucose (GLC) and beta-hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) concentrations. Blood sampled on day 0 (pre-vaccination) and on day 28 and 42 were used to evaluate the immune response against *Brucella abortus* and clostridia. There was an increase in rectal temperature between the first and the third day post-vaccination in the three groups. The thermography revealed an increase of local temperature for seven days on groups B and CB. Group C had increased local temperature for a longer period, lasting for up to 14 d. Dry matter intake was reduced for groups B and CB, but no alteration was observed for group C. No alterations regarding initial BW, final BW, average daily weight gain (ADG) and feed efficiency were observed. No differences were observed for the three vaccination groups for blood parameters throughout the evaluation period. The concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia led to lower neutralizing antibody titers against epsilon toxin of *C. perfringens* and botulinum toxin type C of *C. botulinum* (C > CB > B). When cellular proliferation assay and serological tests to *B. abortus* were evaluated, no differences were observed between groups B and CB. The present results indicate that the concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia has no relevant impact on the intake,

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Key words: *Brucella abortus*, *Clostridium botulinum*, *Clostridium perfringens*, intake

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LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIGLAS

ADG	Average daily weight gain
AGVs	Ácidos graxos voláteis
AAT	Antígeno Acidificado Tamponado
B	Animais vacinados contra brucelose
BHBA	Beta-hidroxibutirato
BVD	Diarreia viral bovina
BW	Body weight
C	Animais vacinados contra clostridioses
CB	Animais vacinados contra brucelose e clostridioses
CD4+	Grupamento de diferenciação 4
CD8+	Grupamento de diferenciação 8
CD 21	Receptor de complemento tipo-2
CAPES	Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior
CFR	American Code of Federal Regulations
CFU	Colony-forming unit
CFSE	Carboxifluoresceína diacetato succinimidyl éster
cm	Centímetro
CMS	Consumo de matéria seca
d	Dia
DMI	Dry matter intake
EDTA	Ácido etilenodiaminotetracético
EMBRAPA	Empresa Brasileira de Pesquisa Agropecuária
ERT	Erythocytes
FAPEMIG	Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de Minas Gerais
FC	Fixação do Complemento
FEPE	Fundação de Apoio ao Ensino, Pesquisa e Extensão
g	Gramma
GLC	Glicose / glucose
GPD	Ganho de peso médio diário
h	Horas
HEMO	Hemoglobin
IFN- γ	Interferon gama

Ig	Imunoglobulinas
IL	Interleucina
IU	International unit
IRT	Infrared thermography
kg	Quilograma
L	Litro
LFDA	Laboratório Federal de Defesa Agropecuária
LYM	Lymphocytes
MAPA	Ministério de Agricultura Pecuária e Abastecimento
MCHC	Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration
MCV	Mean corpuscular volume
m ²	Metro quadrado
min	Minutos
mL	Mililitro
n	Número
NK	Células natural killer
NVWC	Total number of visits with water consumption
NVCD	Total number of visits with diet consumption
OMS	Organização Mundial da Saúde
PAMPs	Padrões moleculares associados ao patógeno
PC	Peso corporal
PBMC	Cultivo das células mononucleares do sangue Periférico
PFA	Proteínas de fase aguda
RFID	Radiofrequency sensors
PNCEBT	Programa Nacional de Controle e Erradicação de Brucelose e Tuberculose Animal
RT	Rectal temperatures
S	Semana
SD	Standard deviation
SEGN	Segmented neutrophils
T	Tratamento
TCD	Time of diet consumption
Th1	T helper 1
Th2	T helper 2

Th17	T helper 17
TIV	Termografia infravermelho
TMR	Total mixed ration
TNF- α	Fator de necrose tumoral alfa
TR	Temperatura retal
TWC	Time of water consumption
T X W	Interação tratamento x semana
UFPA	Universidade Federal de Lavras
UFMG	Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais
VG	Globular volume
°C	Graus Celsius
%	Porcentagem
μ g	Micrograma
μ l	Microlitro
WC	Water consumption

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1. INTRODUÇÃO

Estima-se que a população mundial crescerá de 7,6 para 10,5 bilhões de habitantes entre 2017 e 2067 (Nações Unidas, 2017). Metade desse contingente irá morar em 10 países, entre eles, o Brasil. O crescimento da população associado às mudanças nos hábitos de consumo alimentar, poder aquisitivo, condições de saúde e bem-estar, resultará em aumento no consumo de produtos lácteos nos próximos 50 anos. De modo geral, garantir a produção de um leite saudável e seguro para toda essa população, de forma sustentável e econômica é um dos grandes desafios da pecuária de leite.

O Brasil figura-se atualmente como o quinto maior produtor de leite do mundo, com produção em 2017 de 34,9 bilhões litros de leite, segundo o Serviço Nacional de Estatísticas Agrícolas do Departamento de Agricultura dos Estados Unidos (USDA-NASS, 2016). Produção esta, reflexo de um estruturado processo de desenvolvimento, que elevou não só a produtividade como também a qualidade do produto brasileiro. No cenário mundial encontra-se atrás somente da União Europeia, Estados Unidos, Índia e China.

A bovinocultura de leite possui importante papel econômico e social no Brasil e para que se mantenha em crescimento e conquiste novos mercados, a questão sanitária se tornou um importante foco dentro das propriedades. As doenças que atingem os rebanhos podem provocar sérios impactos econômicos, que vão desde a perda em produtividade animal a embargos econômicos. Segundo Oliveira (2006) as doenças mais importantes dentro de um sistema de produção de leite são: mastites, tuberculose, brucelose, clostridioses, leptospirose, rinotraqueíte infecciosa bovina, diarreia viral bovina (BVD), febre aftosa, raiva, leucose enzoótica bovina e doenças de bezerros (diarreia, e doenças pulmonares).

A brucelose é uma doença bacteriana mundialmente disseminada, de caráter zoonótico e por isso, de grande importância em saúde pública e animal (Arasoglu et al., 2013; Qasem et al.,

2015). Segundo Santos (2013), as perdas atribuídas à brucelose bovina são estimadas em aproximadamente R\$ 892 milhões, sendo que cada aumento ou redução de 1% na prevalência da doença corresponde à perda ou ganho, de aproximadamente R\$ 155 milhões.

Devido à sua importância, em inúmeros países a brucelose tem sido alvo de programas de controle desde o início do século XX, com registros de sucessos e fracassos. No Brasil, foi lançado em 2001 o Programa Nacional de Controle e Erradicação da Brucelose e Tuberculose (PNCEBT). Trata-se de um programa bem fundamentado, com condutas preconizadas por entidades internacionais e flexíveis para implementação nos estados brasileiros (BRASIL, 2006). Neste programa, a vacinação de fêmeas bovinas de 3-8 meses com uma única dose ainda é o ponto central, uma vez que apresenta resultados satisfatórios na literatura, com redução significativa da prevalência da doença (Nicoletti, 1990; Koh e Morley, 1981).

As clostridioses são doenças causadas por bactérias do gênero *Clostridium* e estão entre as principais enfermidades que acometem os animais domésticos, com elevadas taxas de morbidade e mortalidade. No Brasil, não existe um programa de controle específico para as clostridioses, mas há no mercado vacinas disponíveis para serem utilizadas (Brasil, 2009) no controle da doença. A vacinação é a principal medida preventiva contra as clostridioses, sendo responsável por redução significativa na taxa de mortalidade dos animais dentro do rebanho e redução das perdas econômicas (Knott et al., 1985). A imunização deve ser realizada em bovinos com idade entre 3 e 6 meses de idade, sendo realizadas duas aplicações com um intervalo de 28 dias. A revacinação deve ser anual até o animal completar três anos de idade.

Para facilitar as condições de manejo e reduzir o estresse e desconforto dos animais, é comum nas propriedades a administração conjunta de vacinas com diferentes antígenos. Entretanto, os efeitos da vacinação contra brucelose e clostridioses sobre desempenho e comportamento de bezerras leiteiras ainda não foi descrito na literatura científica e vem sendo

uma questão debatida entre muitos produtores de leite. O impacto da vacinação contra clostridioses sobre o desempenho de bezerros somente foi avaliada por Stokka et al. (1994) e Arthington et al. (2014), porém em bovinos de corte. Além disso, outra preocupação crescente sem respaldo científico diz respeito aos efeitos da administração concomitante das vacinas contra brucelose e clostridioses sobre a resposta imunológica, já que apresentam perfis de resposta imunológica distintos.

Diante desses desafios e dada a rotina das propriedades de bovinos em usar variedade de vacinas com diversidade de antígenos na imunização de bezerros, faz-se necessário conhecer a influência dos mecanismos de resposta às duas vacinas sobre o consumo, desempenho, comportamento alimentar e resposta imunológica de bezerras leiteiras.

2. REVISÃO DE LITERATURA

2.1. Imunidade dos bezerros

A imunocompetência é definida como a capacidade imunológica do organismo de se defender contra patógenos potencialmente prejudiciais (Dantzer et al., 2008; Fleshner, 2013). Diversos artifícios usados pelo corpo são responsáveis em promover a imunocompetência, dentre eles: sistema de barreiras, vigilância, combate e controle. Os sistemas de barreiras incluem o tecido cutâneo e mucoso. Os sistemas de vigilância, combate e controle incluem células do sistema imune inato como monócitos, macrófagos, granulócitos e células natural killer (NK). Um ponto comum entre essas células é a capacidade de reconhecer e eliminar microrganismos sem contato prévio. A imunidade adquirida, representada pelos anticorpos e linfócitos T e B, também exerce papel importante, mas necessita de um contato prévio para ser desenvolvida (Kampen et al., 2006).

Os bezerros após o nascimento apresentam-se agamaglobulinêmicos e com sistema imune imaturo, devido a dois principais fatores: tipo de placenta dos bovinos e fisiologia endócrina.

A placenta dos bovinos é do tipo sindesmocorial, que apesar de proteger o feto contra a maioria das ações microbianas, impede a passagem de imunoglobulinas (Ig) da circulação materna para a fetal, devido ao seu elevado peso molecular.

Além disso, no final da gestação e no dia do parto há aumento nas concentrações hormonais (cortisol e estrógeno) e citocinas do tipo interleucinas (IL-4 e IL-10) responsáveis por provocar neutrofilia, linfopenia, redução da atividade fagocítica dos macrófagos e neutrófilos (Firth et al., 2005) além de suprimir a função dos linfócitos T (Chase et al., 2008; Fischer et al., 1981). Desta forma, a transferência de imunoglobulinas da mãe para o neonato através do colostro (transferência de imunidade passiva), é o único mecanismo de defesa disponível para o neonato, e por isso, fundamental sua proteção frente às doenças infecciosas.

As imunoglobulinas maternas do colostro permanecem no organismo dos bezerros nas primeiras três semanas de vida, período no qual impedem o desenvolvimento do sistema imune adaptativo dos bezerros (Ellis et al., 2001). Com a redução das imunoglobulinas maternas, os bezerros iniciam o desenvolvimento da resposta imune autóloga, e se tornam capazes de responder ao contato com os antígenos (Kampen et al., 2006).

A maioria dos anticorpos maternos tem período de meia-vida que varia de 16 a 28 dias. O momento ideal para administrar vacina por via parenteral deve ser quando a concentração de anticorpos maternos é baixa o suficiente para que a resposta imune ativa progrida e forneça imunidade frente ao antígeno utilizado (Chase et al., 2008). Porém, o intervalo ou janela principal para a realização da vacinação pode ser de algumas semanas a oito meses de idade. Essa variação pode ser atribuída a diferenças individuais, títulos de anticorpos maternos e patógenos (Fulton et al. 2004; Kirkpatrick et al. 2008). Esses fatores impossibilitam prever o melhor momento para vacinar os bezerros (Chase et al., 2008).

2.2. Clostridioses

Clostridium spp. são bastonetes Gram positivos, anaeróbios estritos, esporulados, móveis e flagelados. Habitam o trato digestivo do homem e dos animais, porém apenas algumas espécies são capazes de causar enfermidades nos animais. Os esporos são encontrados em pastagem, solo, água e alimentos de origem animal e vegetal (Kriek e Odendaal, 2004).

As bactérias do gênero *Clostridium* são responsáveis por ocasionar muitos dos processos infecciosos e intoxicações que afetam os animais domésticos. Estas doenças são chamadas de clostridioses (Quinn et al., 1994). No Brasil, as clostridioses estão entre as principais enfermidades que acometem os animais domésticos, com elevadas taxas de morbidade e mortalidade, e provocam grandes prejuízos econômicos aos sistemas de produção.

Devido à alta capacidade de esporulação, as bactérias desse gênero podem permanecer no solo por longos períodos, mantendo-se potencialmente infectantes, o que representa risco constante para a população animal e humana (Titball et al., 2006). Apesar disso, raramente são considerados agentes zoonóticos (Lobato et al., 2013).

Dois mecanismos básicos são utilizados pelas bactérias patogênicas que compõem este gênero para provocar doença: invasão dos tecidos e produção de toxinas. A penetração no organismo se dá pela forma esporulada, por meio de feridas, alimento contaminado ou por inalação. As toxinas são produzidas no organismo do animal ou são ingeridas pré-formadas (Lobato et al., 2013). A ocorrência da doença se dá em circunstâncias incomuns, como estresse, lesões, mudanças no manejo alimentar, parasitismo que permite a criação de ambiente favorável para crescimento e produção de toxinas pelos *Clostridium*.

Os principais agentes envolvidos e as enfermidades causadas pelas bactérias do gênero *Clostridium* são apresentadas na tabela 1.

Tabela 1. Agentes envolvidos e enfermidades causadas por bactérias do gênero *Clostridium*

Espécie	Doença
<i>Clostridium tetani</i>	Tétano
<i>Clostridium botulinum</i>	Botulismo
<i>Clostridium novyi</i> tipo B	Hepatite necrótica, gangrena gasosa
<i>Clostridium haemolyticum</i>	Hemoglobinúria bacilar
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> tipos A	Síndrome do jejuno hemorrágico, úlcera de abomaso, timpanismo, gangrena gasosa, e morte súbita
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> tipos B	Enterite
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> tipos C	Enterite necrótica
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> tipos D	Enterotoxemia
<i>Clostridium perfringens</i> tipos E	Enterotoxemia
<i>Clostridium chauvoei</i>	Carbúnculo sintomático
<i>Clostridium septicum</i>	Edema maligno, gangrena gasosa, e enterotoxemia
<i>Clostridium sordellii</i>	Enterotoxemia
<i>Clostridium novyi</i> tipo A	Gangrena gasosa
<i>Clostridium difficile</i>	Colite pseudomembranosa

As principais espécies de *Clostridium* que provocam doenças em bovinos são: *Clostridium chauvoei*, *C. haemolyticum*, *C. novyi*, *C. perfringens* e *C. botulinum*.

Em geral, as clostridioses apresentam prognóstico desfavorável e normalmente a morte de animais no rebanho é o primeiro sinal da doença. Pelo caráter agudo da doença e dificuldade de tratamentos eficazes, medidas preventivas devem ser adotadas. A medida adotada atualmente para prevenção das clostridioses é a vacinação.

2.2.1 Vacina contra clostridioses

As vacinas clostridiais são utilizadas há muito na imunização de bovinos (Stokka et al., 1994) e são eficazes na prevenção de doenças geralmente fatais, resultantes da exposição a toxinas produzidas por espécies como *Clostridium sordellii*, *Clostridium chauvoe* e, *Clostridium perfringens*.

A vacinação é a principal medida preventiva dentro de um programa de controle das clostridioses. Sua utilização é responsável por redução significativa na taxa de mortalidade dos animais dentro do rebanho e conseqüentemente redução das perdas econômicas (Knott et al., 1985). A vacinação contra clostridioses é de adesão voluntária, o que evidencia a importância do reconhecimento e necessidade desta medida preventiva nos sistemas de produção.

No Brasil, o Ministério da Agricultura, Pecuária e Abastecimento (MAPA) é responsável em realizar o controle das partidas de vacinas comercializadas ao verificar a inocuidade, a esterilidade e se as vacinas atendem aos requisitos do teste de eficiência em cobaias. Porém, somente os antígenos de *C. chauvoei* e o toxóide botulínico são testados oficialmente, os demais ficam a critério dos laboratórios produtores.

Atualmente, as vacinas comerciais disponíveis no mercado são polivalentes, baseadas em toxóides (Moreira et al., 2016). Sua composição conta com hidróxido de alumínio, adjuvante responsável em melhorar e modular a resposta imunológica e conseqüentemente a eficácia da vacina (Pulendran e Ahmed, 2006).

Inúmeras vacinas comerciais contendo um ou mais antígenos, dentre eles: *C. chauvoei*, *C. botulinum*, *C. tetani*, *C. sordellii*, *C. novyi*, *C. septicum*, *C. perfrings* tipo C e D foram avaliadas em relação à proteção oferecida (Brown et al., 1976; Cameron et al., 1986; Knott et al., 1985). Bom grau de imunidade pode ser obtido após a utilização de vacinas polivalentes, entretanto, é necessário reforço para elevar o tempo de imunidade (Sterne et al., 1962). Dessa forma, a vacinação para clostridioses deve ser realizada a partir dos quatro meses de idade, com reforço 28 dias após a primovacinação. Após este período, a vacinação deve ser realizada anualmente até os três anos de idade (Kriek e Odendaal, 2004).

2.2.2 Resposta imunológica à vacinação contra clostridioses

De uma forma geral, nas vacinas inativadas, como no caso das vacinas contra clostridioses, os antígenos atuam como antígenos exógenos, e estimulam respostas de linfócitos CD4+ Th2 (Tizard, 2014). Os linfócitos Th2 auxiliam no desenvolvimento da resposta imune mediada por anticorpos. Contudo, dados sobre desencadeamento da resposta imunológica do organismo após ser vacinado contra clostridioses são escassos na literatura científica.

2.3 Brucelose

O gênero *Brucella* é formado por bactérias intracelulares facultativas, Gram-negativas, não capsuladas, sem capacidade de locomoção e de formar esporos (Pessegueiro et al., 2003). São classificadas como patógeno de biossegurança de nível três e consideradas potenciais agentes bioterroristas (Pappas et al., 2005). São responsáveis por provocar a brucelose, doença infecciosa que afeta diversas espécies de mamíferos, além do homem (Corbel, 2006). A brucelose é uma doença mundialmente disseminada, de caráter zoonótico e de grande importância em saúde pública e animal (Arasoglu et al., 2013; Qasem et al., 2015). Anualmente, 500.000 casos de brucelose na espécie humana são reportados para a Organização Mundial da Saúde (OMS) (Pappas et al., 2005).

Entre o gênero *Brucella*, a *Brucella abortus* é a espécie mais comum, responsável pela infecção nos bovinos (Amin et al., 2012). A importância econômica atribuída à brucelose bovina é baseada em perdas diretas causadas por abortos, natimortos, perda de peso, diminuição da produção de leite e estabelecimento de barreiras sanitárias ao comércio internacional de produtos de origem animal (Bernues et al., 1997; Smirnova et al., 2013).

Em um rebanho, a principal via de transmissão da doença se dá pelos animais infectados, por meio de anexos placentários, leite e secreções genitais, os quais constituem as vias de eliminação do agente (Castro e Gonzalez, 2005). A infecção no homem é quase invariavelmente transmitida por contato direto ou indireto com animais infectados, vacinas e por meio da ingestão de leite e produtos lácteos contaminados (Vemulapalli et al., 1999; Smirnova et al., 2013).

O tratamento para brucelose em animais de produção não é permitido pelo PNCEBT (Brasil, 2006). As medidas de controle da brucelose bovina justificam-se pela sua importância para a saúde e as perdas econômicas associadas a ela. A identificação dos animais portadores por meio de métodos diagnósticos como: testes do Antígeno Acidificado Tamponado (AAT), 2-Mercaptoetanol e Fixação do Complemento (FC) e a eliminação dos mesmos se torna necessária para controlar e posteriormente erradicar a doença no país (Mólnar et al., 2002). Além disso, a vacinação é a medida mais eficaz na redução da prevalência e incidência da brucelose, por isso, é utilizada em muitos programas ao redor do mundo (Olsen e Stoffregen, 2005). A vacinação é essencial nos programas de controle, principalmente quando ainda se encontram na fase de controle da doença.

2.3.1 Vacina contra brucelose

Devido à importância da brucelose na saúde pública e aos prejuízos causados na pecuária leiteira, muitos esforços são realizados para controlar e erradicar a doença nos bovinos. Há muitos anos, o desenvolvimento de uma vacina eficaz para controle e erradicação da doença

tem sido alvo de estudo em todo o mundo (Manthei, 1959). A cepa de *B. abortus* B19 foi primeiramente isolada em 1923, experimentalmente avaliada em 1930 e só em 1941 foi utilizada nos EUA em vacinação à campo (Olsen e Stoffregen, 2005). Após esse período, a crescente busca de uma vacina ideal levou à produção de diversas vacinas como: B19, RB51, 45/20 e SR82 sendo a B19 e RB51 as mais utilizadas até os dias atuais (Olsen e Stoffregen, 2005). Além destas, vacinas de subunidade, recombinantes e vetores recombinantes foram desenvolvidas e testadas em camundongos (Vemulapalli et al., 2000; Splitter et al., 1996). Na maioria delas, o efeito protetor ainda não foi elucidado em bovinos.

A eficácia da vacina B19 já está bem fundamentada na literatura científica, com estudos desenvolvidos com bovinos em condições experimentais e a campo (Manthei, 1959; Nicoletti, 1990; Koh e Morley, 1981). Segundo Mingle et al. (1941), as principais características da B19 são: estabilidade, antigenicidade moderada, baixa patogenicidade e alta imunogenicidade. Além disso, a vacinação com B19 permite longa duração da imunidade, podendo proteger o bovino durante quase toda sua vida produtiva (Manthei, 1959).

Inúmeros países adotaram medidas de controle e prevenção da brucelose bovina, com o objetivo de reduzir a prevalência da doença no rebanho e em humanos e assim, reduzir os prejuízos impostos pela doença. A vacinação de fêmeas de 3-8 meses com uma única dose (Nicoletti, 1990) ainda é o ponto central dentro do programa, uma vez que apresenta resultados satisfatórios na literatura, com redução significativa na prevalência da doença (Nicoletti, 1990; Koh e Morley, 1981). Porém, segundo Olsen e Stoffregen (2005), somente a vacinação não é suficiente em um programa, sendo necessárias outras medidas como: diagnóstico, abate dos animais positivos, medidas de higiene e vigilância epidemiológica.

2.3.2 Resposta imunológica à vacinação contra brucelose

A imunidade celular é fundamental na proteção contra infecção por *B. abortus*, enquanto que a contribuição exata da imunidade humoral ainda não está muito clara (Araya et al., 1989).

A vacinação com B19 induz forte resposta Th1 com produção de IL-2, TNF- α e interferon gama (IFN- γ) e elevados níveis de células T CD4+ e T CD8+ (Dorneles et al., 2015). As células T CD4+ são as principais indutoras da liberação de IFN- γ , enquanto as células T CD8+ se multiplicam e diferenciam-se em células T citotóxicas (Dorneles et al., 2014; Dorneles et al., 2015). Esse padrão de resposta imunológica é fundamental quando se trata da resistência à infecção por *B. abortus* (Zhan et al., 1993; Schurig et al., 1995; Splitter et al., 1996; Ko e Splitter, 2003). Aumentos significativos foram encontrados nas concentrações de IL-17A, produzido principalmente pelas células T CD4+ (Dorneles et al., 2015).

A IL-17A é uma citocina que está associada ao desenvolvimento de resposta imune Th17, e tem sido relatada sua participação na proteção contra inúmeras doenças infecciosas (Hirota et al., 2010). A vacinação também se mostrou eficaz no desenvolvimento de células de memória (CD4+, CD8+, linfócitos B) com expressão de CD 21. A geração de células de memória é fundamental na proteção a longo prazo, uma vez que, após segunda exposição ao antígeno, as células do sistema imune já se encontram aptas a reativarem rapidamente e realizarem sua função.

Aumentos significativos foram encontrados nas concentrações de IL-10 e IL-6 (Dorneles et al., 2015). A IL-10 é uma citocina com função regulatória, que participa no controle de síntese de citocinas produzidas por células Th1 e na diferenciação de macrófagos M2, que apresenta efeitos anti-inflamatórios (Pasquali et al., 2001; Xavier et al., 2013). A IL-6 é uma citocina pró-inflamatória fundamental no desenvolvimento da resposta Th1 e Th17, e na transição da imunidade inata para imunidade adquirida, o que favorece a eliminação do patógeno.

Em relação à produção de anticorpos, Dorneles et al. (2015) verificaram aumentos significativos na concentração de IgG1 após a vacinação com B19. No entanto, esses dados contrastam com o perfil da resposta imunológica Th1, uma vez que em bovinos o isotipo IgG1 está associado a resposta do tipo Th2 e IgG2 com Th1 (Estes e Brown, 2002).

2.4 Efeitos da Vacinação

2.4.1 Consumo, ganho de peso e eficiência alimentar

A vacinação contra clostridioses provoca uma resposta inflamatória sistêmica que pode ser associada à redução no consumo de alimento dos animais e consequentemente impacto no crescimento e produtividade animal (Stokka et al., 1994; Chirase et al., 2001). O aumento na concentração de proteínas de fase aguda está correlacionado negativamente com o ganho de peso dos animais (Qiu et al., 2007; Cooke et al., 2009).

Stokka et al (1994) avaliaram o desempenho de 24 novilhos de corte antes e após vacinação. Os animais foram divididos em: grupo 1 (injeção de solução salina); grupo 2 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium perfringens* tipo C e D) e grupo 3 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium chauvoei*, *sordellii*, *septicum*, *novyi*, e *perfringens* tipo C e D). Após a realização da primeira dose da vacina, houve redução no consumo dos animais em 1%, 2% e 10% para os grupos 1, 2 e 3, respectivamente, porém sem diferença estatística. Também não houve diferença no peso dos animais durante este período. Após a segunda dose da vacina (realizada após 34 dias da primeira dose), houve aumento de 4% no consumo do grupo 1 enquanto no grupo 2 e 3 houve redução de 8% e 20%, respectivamente.

Arthington et al. (2014), conduziram dois experimentos para avaliar a resposta vacinal em bovinos. No primeiro utilizaram 24 bezerros Brahman × Angus com oito meses de idade e alocados em: grupo 1 (injeção de solução salina), 2 (vacina atenuada contra *Mannheimia haemolytica*) e 3 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium chauvoei*, *sordellii*, *septicum*, *novyi*, e *perfringens* tipo C e D). Realizaram avaliação do GPD durante 21 dias e não encontraram diferença entre os grupos avaliados. No segundo experimento utilizaram 23 novilhas Brahman × Angus com um ano de idade e dividiram em dois grupos de tratamento: controle (injeção de solução salina; n=11) e vacinado (vacina atenuada contra *Mannheimia haemolytica*; n=12). Os pesquisadores avaliaram os seguintes parâmetros: consumo de matéria seca (CMS), peso

corporal, GPD e eficiência alimentar durante 16 dias após a vacinação. Só foi observada diferença entre o grupo controle e vacinado no GPD (1,14 e 0,87, respectivamente) e eficiência alimentar (0,13 e 0,10, respectivamente).

Até o presente momento, não há dados na literatura científica avaliando consumo e desempenho de animais vacinados contra brucelose e nem relatando os efeitos da associação com vacina contra clostridioses. Porém, experimento conduzido por Gaspers et al. (2016) avaliou CMS de animais vacinados com vacina viva (Bovishield Gold VL5) e não foi encontrada diferença entre os grupos.

2.4.2 Comportamento Alimentar

As citocinas pró-inflamatórias como TNF- α , IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-6 e prostaglandina E2 são responsáveis em provocar pirexia, além de induzir uma série de alterações comportamentais como anorexia, adipisia, depressão e redução das interações sociais (Pecchi et al., 2009). Estas mudanças comportamentais ocorrem simultaneamente com alterações fisiológicas e são respostas adaptativas que auxiliam os animais a lidarem com a doença (Owen-Ashley et al., 2006).

Os estudos de comportamento alimentar associado com a ocorrência de doenças se concentraram em bezerros na fase de aleitamento (Svensson e Jensen, 2007; Borderas et al., 2009). Poucos trabalhos realizaram essa avaliação na fase de pós-desaleitamento. Oliveira et al. (2018) avaliaram o comportamento ingestivo de água e alimento (ingestão diária total, frequência de visitas e duração total das visitas) de bezerros com tristeza parasitária no pós-desaleitamento. Os animais doentes apresentaram menor consumo de alimento nos tempos -1, 0 e +1 dias, e menor frequência e duração total das visitas nos tempos +3 e +4 dias, em relação ao diagnóstico da doença. Em relação à água, os animais apresentaram redução no consumo somente no dia 0, e não alteraram a frequência e duração das visitas no compartimento de água.

Gaspers et al. (2016) avaliaram os efeitos da vacinação contra doença respiratória no consumo e comportamento de bezerros de corte. Foram utilizados 76 animais distribuídos em quatro tratamentos (1- receberam solução salina estéril; 2- Bovishield Gold; 3- Inforce 3 e Bovishield BVD e 4- Inforce 3 e Bovishield BVD). Não foram observadas alterações no CMS, número e tempo de visitas no comportamento alimentar.

Até o momento, os efeitos da vacinação contra brucelose e clostridioses sobre o comportamento alimentar de bezerras leiteiras ainda não foi elucidado.

2.4.3 Glicose e beta-hidroxibutirato

A fermentação ruminal inicia-se nos animais ainda muito jovens, e as concentrações de ácidos graxos voláteis (AGVs) aumentam com o aumento da ingestão de concentrado (Khan et al., 2016). Com o desenvolvimento ruminal, há um aumento da área de superfície epitelial por meio da proliferação celular para absorver o crescente aumento nas concentrações de AGVs. Além disso, há desenvolvimento das camadas musculares que permite as contrações, responsáveis em homogeneizar a mistura que se encontra no rúmen, além de permitir a ocorrência do processo de eructação (Khan et al., 2016).

A população microbiana no rúmen é responsável por fermentar os carboidratos em AGVs, que incluem principalmente acetato, butirato e propionato. Esses AGVs são a principal fonte de energia para os ruminantes (Brown et al., 1960). Dentre os AGVs, o butirato é o mais bioativo, sendo absorvido pelo epitélio ruminal e oxidado em cetonas (Baldwin et al., 2004; Khan et al., 2016). Uma dessas cetonas, o beta-hidroxibutirato (BHBA), pode ser utilizado como indicador de maturação do epitélio ruminal e da capacidade de utilização dos AGVs pelo organismo (Quigley et al., 1991).

Suarez-mena et al. (2017) avaliaram o efeito da vacinação contra *Pasteurella* em bezerros de três a quatro semanas de idade, sobre as concentrações de BHBA. A vacina utilizada no

estudo foi responsável por provocar hipertemia e letargia nos bezerros (duração de 12 a 36 horas) e foi utilizada para avaliação do estresse. Foi observada redução nas concentrações de BHBA nos animais vacinados após quatro e oito horas da vacinação. Possivelmente isso ocorreu devido à redução no CMS decorrente da hipertermia.

Não há dados na literatura científica avaliando os efeitos da vacinação contra brucelose e clostridioses sobre a concentração de BHBA sanguíneo.

A glicose tem sido sugerida como um dos substratos metabólicos mais importantes necessários para a imunidade mediada por células e anticorpos, produção de citocinas, sistema complemento e funções de células fagocitárias, eventos importantes quando se refere à resposta à vacinação. A imunoativação desencadeia alterações na homeostase da glicose, caracterizada por alto consumo desse combustível (Michaeli et al., 2012). Calder et al. (2007) e Palsson-McDermott e O'Neill (2013), em experimento *in vitro*, demonstraram um aumento substancial no consumo de glicose pelas células imunes ativadas, já que a glicose é seu principal combustível e importante precursor biossintético.

Para assegurar o suprimento da glicose para o sistema imunológico há um aumento no processo de glicogenólise, gliconeogênese hepática (McGuinness, 1994; Waldron et al., 2003a) e resistência periférica à insulina. Esses mecanismos conduzem à redução na captação de glicose pelo músculo esquelético e tecido adiposo (Lang et al., 1993; Song et al., 2006). Nesse momento, toda a glicose é desviada como fonte de energia para os órgãos linfóides como baço, fígado, pulmão e íleo (Lang et al., 1993). Apesar dos esforços em aumentar a produção de glicose e poupar sua utilização, a hipoglicemia geralmente se desenvolve porque a taxa de utilização pelo sistema imune excede a capacidade de absorção e produção de glicose (McGuinness, 2005).

Segundo Kvidera et al. (2017), a homeostase da glicose na imunoativação pode ocorrer em duas fases. A primeira fase é caracterizada pela ocorrência de hiperglicemia, resultante da

insensibilidade à insulina periférica e aumento da produção de glicose hepática, não acompanhada pela capacidade de utilização pelas células imunes. A segunda fase caracteriza-se pela ocorrência de hipoglicemia e representa a incapacidade de tais mecanismos poupadores de glicose em acompanhar o ritmo de consumo de glicose pelo sistema imunológico.

Ao avaliar os efeitos da vacinação contra brucelose, Tabynov et al. (2015) não observaram alterações nos níveis de glicose que ultrapassassem os limites fisiológicos nos animais. Não há dados na literatura científica avaliando os efeitos da vacinação contra clostridioses sobre a concentração de glicose sanguínea de bovinos.

2.4.4 Termografia infravermelha

As técnicas de obtenção de imagens de um corpo são diversas, capazes de fornecer uma gama de informações, dentre elas: fotografia, radiografia, ultrassonografia, e mais recentemente usada em Medicina Veterinária, a termografia por infravermelho (TIV). A TIV é um método não invasivo e indireto que possui várias aplicações na medicina veterinária, produção animal e também nas pesquisas científicas (Luzi et al., 2013).

O princípio da termografia tem como fundamento que todos os corpos formados de matéria, ou massa emitem radiação infravermelha que pode ser mensurada e correlacionada com a temperatura corporal (Knizkova et al., 2007). A radiação térmica pode ser definida como a porção do espectro eletromagnético que se estende de aproximadamente 0,1 a 100 mm (Incropera e DeWitt, 2008). As câmaras térmicas recolhem a radiação infravermelha emitida pela superfície, convertem-na em sinais radiométricos e criam uma imagem térmica que representa a distribuição da temperatura da superfície corporal (Incropera e DeWitt, 2008; DiGiacomo et al., 2014). Neste sistema, cada cor capturada no termograma expressa uma faixa de temperatura específica (Eddy et al., 2001; Ludwing, 2013). Os dados obtidos por digitalização são processados por *softwares* específicos das câmeras termográficas e permitem análise de dados de qualquer área do termograma (Godyn et al., 2013).

A radiação é uma forma de perda de calor por raios infravermelhos envolvendo a transferência de calor de um objeto para outro sem contato físico. A termometria cutânea é um método de avaliação do sistema vascular da pele, microcirculação, onde as emissões infravermelhas do animal estão diretamente relacionadas à perfusão e metabolismo dos tecidos. Variações na temperatura da superfície do tecido geralmente são resultados de mudanças na vascularização da área avaliada, que provoca alterações na emissão de radiação infravermelha da área afetada (Stelletta et al., 2012). Com isso, a TIV tem sido útil para avaliar a presença de doença, edema e estresse em animais (Chiu et al., 2005; Bouzida et al., 2009).

Recentemente, a literatura científica mundial tem dado atenção à utilização da TIV nos animais de produção para diagnóstico de doenças antes mesmo do aparecimento dos sinais clínicos (Schaefer et al., 2004). A utilização da TIV tem se mostrado diversificada nesse âmbito ao realizar identificação de lesões de pele (Poikalainen et al., 2012), doença respiratória bovina (Schaefer et al., 2012), doença respiratória em bezerros (Schaefer et al., 2007; Schaefer et al., 2011), claudicação (Alsaad e Büscher, 2012), laminite e dermatite digital (Alsaad et al., 2014), dor (Stewart et al., 2017) e estresse térmico (Daltro et al., 2017).

Até o presente momento, a utilização da termografia para avaliação dos efeitos da vacinação em bovinos ainda não foi descrita na literatura científica. Estudo conduzido por Cook et al. (2015), avaliou a utilização da TIV na detecção do estado febril e comportamento de suínos em resposta à vacinação. Foi observado aumento da temperatura do termógrafo a partir de três horas após a vacinação, com pico após 10 horas. A avaliação termográfica foi realizada em 24 horas.

2.4.5 Parâmetros Hematológicos

Os efeitos da utilização da vacina contra brucelose e clostridioses (utilizadas separadamente ou em conjunto) nos parâmetros hematológicos (hemograma e leucograma) apresentam poucos resultados na literatura científica. Tabynov et al. (2015) compararam a

utilização de duas vacinas contra brucelose: *B. abortus 19* e *B. abortus 544*. Foram avaliados os seguintes parâmetros: concentração de hemoglobina, hematócrito, hemácias, neutrófilos segmentados, eosinófilos, linfócitos e monócitos. Todos os parâmetros se mantiveram dentro da faixa fisiológica normal em todos os períodos de avaliações (0, 7, 14, 30, 37, 44 e 60 dias em relação à data da vacinação). Foi observado aumento na contagem de neutrófilos somente sete dias após a vacinação, sendo associado a um processo infeccioso leve (Gromyko, 2005) provocado possivelmente pela vacinação.

Estudo desenvolvido por Stokka et al. (1994) avaliou três grupos de tratamento: grupo controle; vacinado contra clostridioses - *Clostridium perfringens* tipo C e D; e vacinado contra clostridioses - *Clostridium chauvoei*, *sordellii*, *septicum*, *novyi*, e *perfringens* tipo C e D). Os pesquisadores não encontram diferenças entre os grupos na contagem de leucócitos totais, linfócitos e neutrófilos segmentados.

2.4.6 Alterações imunológicas e temperatura retal

A imunoativação inicia-se quando padrões moleculares associados ao patógeno (PAMPs) são reconhecidos pelo sistema imunológico (Cecilian et al. 2012), por infecção natural ou pela utilização de vacinas (Tizard, 2013). Esse processo induz a transcrição e produção de citocinas inflamatórias como TNF- α , IL-1 e IL-6, a partir de macrófagos e monócitos no local da lesão inflamatória. Esses fatores são estímulos à produção de proteínas de fase aguda (PFAs) (Moshage, 1997). As proteínas de fase aguda são produzidas principalmente pelo fígado (Cole et al. 1997) e liberadas durante o processo inflamatório local, infecções e estresse (Murata et al., 2004). Segundo Murata et al. (2004), essas proteínas podem ser consideradas indicadores potenciais de doença inflamatória e do bem-estar animal.

Além da vacinação, outros eventos são responsáveis por aumentar a concentração de PFAs, como: desaleitamento, transporte (Arthington et al., 2005), mudanças na dieta dos animais (Gozho et al., 2005) e vacinação (Stokka et al., 1994).

Trabalho conduzido por Stokka et al. (1994) utilizaram 24 novilhos de corte, distribuídos em três grupos de tratamento: grupo 1 (injeção de solução salina); grupo 2 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium perfringens* tipo C e D) e grupo 3 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium chauvoei*, *sordellii*, *septicum*, *novyi*, e *perfringens* tipo C e D). Para avaliar a resposta de PFAs, foram coletadas amostras de sangue nos tempos 0, 3, 6, 9, 15 e 25 dias em relação à vacinação para mensurar as concentrações de fibrinogênio e haptoglobina. Não foram encontradas diferenças entre os grupos na concentração de fibrinogênio, enquanto que concentrações elevadas de haptoglobina foram encontradas no grupo 2 e 3 no dia 3.

Arthington et al (2014), utilizaram 24 bezerros Brahman × Angus com oito meses de idade em três tratamentos: grupo 1 (injeção de solução salina; n=8), 2 (vacina atenuada contra *Mannheimia haemolytica*) e 3 (vacina contra clostridioses - *Clostridium chauvoei*, *sordellii*, *septicum*, *novyi*, e *perfringens* tipo C e D). A vacinação foi realizada logo após o desaleitamento dos animais. Para avaliação da resposta de PFAs, foram coletadas amostras de sangue nos tempos 0, 1, 2, 5, 7, 10 e 14 dias em relação à vacinação. Foram mensurados haptoglobina, fibrinogênio e ceruloplasmina. Nos dias 1 e 3, as concentrações de haptoglobina foram maiores ($P < 0,01$) para o grupo 2. O pico de concentração no grupo 3 ocorreu mais tarde (dia 5), sendo este superior aos outros grupos. As concentrações de fibrinogênio foram maiores para o grupo 2 nos dias 3 e 5. Não foram encontradas diferenças entre o grupo 3 e 1 durante o período de avaliação. Não foram encontradas diferenças nas concentrações de ceruloplasmina entre os grupos avaliados.

As citocinas pró-inflamatórias, como TNF- α , IL-1 α , IL-1 β , IL-6 e prostaglandina E2, são responsáveis em provocar pirexia (Pecchi et al., 2009; Ceciliani et al., 2012). A hipertermia auxilia o hospedeiro no combate à infecção de duas diferentes formas (Kluger, 1991). Primeiro, temperaturas elevadas potencializam a imunidade inata e adaptativa, permitindo a fagocitose dos antígenos pelos neutrófilos e reforçam a proliferação de linfócitos e produção de anticorpos.

Segundo, muitos patógenos têm uma temperatura ótima para o crescimento, sendo assim, a hipertermia pode fornecer um ambiente com temperaturas menos adequadas ao patógeno. A aferição de temperatura corporal é um parâmetro útil e sensível para elucidar as reações dos animais a diversas funções fisiológicas, desafios ambientais e processos patológicos.

Tabynov et al. (2015) compararam a utilização de duas vacinas contra brucelose: *B. abortus* 19 e *B. abortus* 544. Os animais vacinados com *B. abortus* 19 apresentaram aumento na temperatura retal (até 40,9 °C) durante os três primeiros dias pós-vacinação. Até o presente momento, não há dados na literatura científica em relação à temperatura retal de animais vacinados contra clostridioses.

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4 ARTIGO

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Running head: Vaccination in dairy heifers calves

Effects of vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia on the intake, performance, feeding behavior, blood parameters, and immune responses of dairy heifers calves¹

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ABSTRACT: The aim of this study was to identify possible effects of different vaccination strategies (concomitantly or not) against brucellosis and clostridia on intake, performance, feeding behavior, blood parameters, and immune responses of dairy heifers calves. Fifty heifers calves were enrolled [38 Gyr (*Zebu, Bos taurus indicus*) and 12 5/8 Holstein x Gyr]. At 120 days of age, animals were randomly distributed among three groups: B (n = 18), vaccinated against brucellosis; C (n = 14), vaccinated against clostridia and CB (n = 18), vaccinated concomitantly for both. Rectal (RT) and thermographic temperatures were evaluated on days -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, and 28 relatives to the vaccination day. Feed and water intake, body weight (BW) and feeding behavior were monitored daily by an electronic feeding system. Blood was sampled on days 0, 3, 7, 14, and 28, relative to the vaccination day for determination of glucose (GLC) and beta-hydroxybutyrate (BHBA) concentrations. Blood sampled on day 0 (pre-vaccination) and on day 28 and 42 were used to evaluate the immune response against *Brucella abortus* and clostridia. There was an increase in rectal temperature between the first and the third day post-vaccination in the three groups. The thermography revealed an increase

of local temperature for seven days on groups B and CB. Group C had increased local temperature for a longer period, lasting for up to 14 d. Dry matter intake was reduced for groups B and CB, but no alteration was observed for group C. No alterations regarding initial BW, final BW, average daily weight gain (ADG) and feed efficiency were observed. No differences were observed for the three vaccination groups for blood parameters throughout the evaluation period. The concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia led to lower neutralizing antibody titers against epsilon toxin of *C. perfringens* and botulinum toxin type C of *C. botulinum* ($C > CB > B$). When cellular proliferation assay and serological tests to *B. abortus* were evaluated, no differences were observed between groups B and CB. The present results indicate that the concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia has no relevant impact on the intake, performance, and feeding behavior of dairy calves. However, the concomitant vaccination of vaccines against these two pathogens impacts animal immunity against clostridial infections.

Key words: *Brucella abortus*, *Clostridium botulinum*, *Clostridium perfringens*, intake.

List of Abbreviations: B = calves vaccinated against brucellosis, C = calves vaccinated against clostridia, CB = calves vaccinated against brucellosis and clostridia concomitantly, RT = rectal temperature, IRT = infrared thermography, WC = water consumption, DMI = dry matter intake, BW = body weight, ADG = average daily gain, NVDC = total number of visits with diet consumption, NVWC = total number of visits with water consumption, TDC = time of diet consumption, TWC = time of water consumption, BHBA = beta-hydroxybutyrate, GLC = glucose.

INTRODUCTION

Brucellosis is an important zoonotic disease of worldwide distribution (Corbel, 2006). Clinical signs are determined by a combination of factors regarding the pathogen and the host (Carvalho Neta et al., 2010). In cattle, the disease is mainly caused by *Brucella abortus* and is characterized, in females, by abortion in the last trimester of pregnancy, perinatal mortality, and infertility, whereas in males, brucellosis can cause orchitis and infertility (Lage et al., 2008; Carvalho Neta et al., 2010).

Vaccination is the most important strategy to reduce the occurrence of brucellosis and it has been used as an important component of the disease's control programs worldwide (Olsen and Stoffregen, 2005; Dorneles et al., 2017). The S19, an attenuated live vaccine, was the first vaccine against *B. abortus* to be used extensively in the control of bovine brucellosis (Dorneles et al., 2015a). The protection conferred by vaccines against bovine brucellosis is mainly mediated by the cellular immune response, with strong Th1 polarization, which allows the elimination of the intracellular pathogen (Dorneles et al., 2015c).

Clostridiosis is an infection or intoxication caused by bacteria of the genus *Clostridium* that affect human and livestock. Clostridial diseases are among the major occurrences that affect cattle and are characterized by high morbidity and mortality rates, leading to large economical losses (Ferreira et al., 2016). As the success of the treatment is limited and the eradication of clostridia is unlikely, the systematic vaccination of herds remains the foremost prevention method for this group of diseases (Uzal et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2016). Different from the vaccine against brucellosis, the vaccine against epsilon and botulinic toxins is responsible for generating a strong humoral response probably due to of the stimulation of CD4⁺ helper T cells of type 2 subgroup (Comoy et al., 1997).

To improve management and reduce stress and discomfort of animals, multiple vaccination against more than one pathogen is a usual practice in many farms. However, the effects of this practice have not been thoroughly studied and it is still unknown if concomitant vaccination affects the immune response for these immunogens. In addition, it is unknown if this procedure could impair animal intake and performance. So far, Stokka et al. (1994) and Arthington et al. (2013) evaluated the impact of vaccination against clostridia, exclusively, on the intake and performance of calves. In both studies, no changes in consumption were observed in association with vaccination. Nevertheless, Arthington et al. (2013) observed a decrease in weight gain and feed efficiency in the vaccinated animals. Currently, studies evaluating the interference of the vaccination against brucellosis on the intake, performance and behavior of dairy calves have not been described in the scientific literature.

Therefore, the objective of this study was to determine the effects of two different vaccination strategies - dual administration of a brucellosis and a clostridia vaccine at the same time point versus administration of either singular vaccine on intake, performance, feeding behavior, blood parameters and immune response of dairy heifers calves. The hypothesis was that the simultaneous application of bovine brucellosis and clostridia vaccines would not interfere with long-term intake, performance and feeding behavior. Additionally, we hypothesized that T-helper type 1 (Th1) immunological cellular response triggered by *B. abortus* S19 vaccine would interfere with T-helper type 2 (Th2) immunological response stimulated by clostridial vaccines, and vice versa.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The experiment was conducted at the Embrapa Gado de Leite (Embrapa Dairy Cattle Experimental Farm) and at Escola de Veterinária da Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais (UFMG), both located in Minas Gerais, Brazil. The experiment was conducted during the spring, temperature ($33.7\text{ °C} \pm 4.7$) and humidity (73 ± 9.56). All procedures were approved by the Animal Use Ethics Committee of Embrapa Gado de Leite under the protocol number 7194210316.

Animals, facilities, management, and treatments

Fifty heifers calves, 38 Gyr (*Zebu, Bos taurus indicus*) and 12 5/8 crossbreed Holstein x Gyr were enrolled in the study. Immediately after birth, calves were separated from their dams, had their navel treated with iodine at 10% (this process was repeated twice a day for three days) and received, up to six hours after birth, 10% of their body weight (**BW**) of colostrum with $> 50\text{g}$ of IgG / L. After these procedures, calves were placed in individual sand bedded pens. From the second day of life, animals received *ad libitum* fresh water and concentrate (*Soymax Rumen Pré-Inicial Floc - Total Alimentos*, Minas Gerais, Brazil), and a volume of milk corresponding to 42% of their metabolic BW at birth. From the thirtieth day of age, hay was added to the diet in a ratio of 5% of the concentrate dry matter.

Heifer calves were weaned at 80 days of age but were kept on individual pens for another ten days until 90 d of age. At 90 d of life, animals were transferred to paddocks (450 m^2) with electronic feeders (AF-1000 Júnior; Intergado Ltda., Minas Gerais, Brazil), and electronic waterers attached to an automatic weight scale (WD-1000 Junior, Intergado Ltda., Minas Gerais, Brazil). At this time animals started receiving a TMR. The heifer calves went through a 21 days adaptation period to the diet and electronic feeders.

The TMR consisted of 75% corn silage and 25% concentrate, formulated for heifers calves according to the NRC (2001) and offered twice a day (8:00 AM and 3:00 PM). Feed was mixed in a forage wagon (Tratomix, 4.0; Ipacol Ltd., Rio Grande do Sul, Brazil). The leftovers of TMR were removed daily, before morning feed delivery, and the amount offered was adjusted to 10%orts. Water was offered *ad libitum*.

At 120 d of age (± 7.6 d), with an average BW of 104.6 kg (± 18.76 kg), animals were grouped according to their date of birth, initial BW, and genetic composition and randomized to 3 different treatment groups: group **B** (n = 18) all animals vaccinated against brucellosis (Brucelina, Vallée - Merck Sharp and Dohme – MSD, São Paulo, Brazil; $0.6 - 1.2 \times 10^{11}$ colony forming units of S19, 2 mL, subcutaneous); group **C** (n = 14) vaccinated against clostridia with a commercial vaccine (Poli-Star, Vallée - MSD, São Paulo, Brazil; inactive culture of *Clostridium chauvoei* and toxoids of *C. botulinum* type C and D, *C. septicum*, *C. novyi*, *C. perfringens* type B, C and D, and *C. sordelli*, 5 mL, subcutaneous); and group **CB** (n = 18) vaccinated against brucellosis and clostridia concomitantly (2 mL and 5 mL subcutaneous, respectively). After 28 days of the first vaccination against clostridia, animals in groups C and CB received a booster with the same vaccine described (Figure 1). Both commercial vaccines followed quality standards established by Brazilian legislation (Brasil, 2002) and are market under MAPA's approval. Randomization to treatment group was conducted by people other than those in the research group, and research personnel were blinded to treatment assignment.

The site of vaccination was standardized and identified by an area that was clipped of hair (10 cm x 10 cm – Figure 2a, b and c). Vaccination for groups B and C was performed in the center of the defined area (Figure 2a and b), while for group CB the vaccination was performed with 4 cm between the brucellosis (cranial) and clostridial (caudal) vaccines (Figure 2c). No

other vaccine was administered to the studied animals throughout the duration of the experiment.

Rectal temperature

Rectal temperature (**RT**) was evaluated in the morning (6:00 AM) on days -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14, and 28 relative to the vaccination day, using a digital thermometer (Ombo Electronics, iColor®, Modelo G-Tech, Shenzhen, China) with a scale range from 32 °C to 43.9 °C.

Infrared thermography

Temperature at the site of vaccine application (Figure 2a, b and c) was evaluated with a portable infrared thermometer (FLIR T420, FLIR Systems, Inc., Wilsonville, Oregon, USA) (Figure 2d). The IRT was performed in the morning period (6:00 AM) on days -1, 0, 1, 2, 3, 5, 7, 10, 14 and 28 relative to vaccination day. A one-meter standard distance was used between the thermographer and the anatomic region, using settings of 20 °C of reflective temperature and 0.98 of emissivity, as recommended for biological tissues (Menegassi et al., 2015; Stewart et al., 2017). Data were processed using the software FLIR Tools 5.6 (FLIR Systems, Oregon, USA). The *iron* palette was used for colors and the tool “circle measure” (86 x 86 mm) was used for selecting the temperature analysis point. Maximum, minimum, and median temperature values of the area were determined. The maximum temperature of each region was used for statistical analysis.

Consumption and performance

Feed and water consumption (**WC**) and BW of the animals were monitored daily from 110 d of age, for 13 d (5 d pre-vaccination and one-week post-vaccination). For the consumption evaluation, all calves received an electronic identification ear tag, implanted in the center of the left ear (FDX-ISO 11784/11785; Allflex, Santa Catarina, Brazil). The device,

validated by Oliveira et al. (2018), allowed the registration of daily feed and water intake, and the BW of animals in the electronic weight scale attached to the feeders and waterers (Intergado® Ltda., Minas Gerais, Brazil). Feed efficiency was calculated by the ratio between dry matter intake (**DMI**) and the average daily gain (**ADG**) (Khan et al., 2007).

Feeding behavior

Feeders and waterers were equipped with radiofrequency sensors (RFID) to identify the animals during consumption. All data collected by the system were continually stored by the software (Intergado® Ltda., Minas Gerais, Brazil). Frequency (total number of visits with diet consumption – **NVDC** and water consumption – **NVWC**) and time data (difference between the time of the initial and the final visit; time of diet consumption – **TDC** and water consumption **TWC**) were evaluated for a period of 13 d (5 d pre-vaccination and one-week post-vaccination).

Blood sampling and analysis

For determination of beta-hydroxybutyrate (**BHBA**) and glucose (**GLC**) concentration, blood samples were collected on days 0, 3, 7, 14 and 28 relative to vaccination date, using tubes without anti-coagulants and with sodium fluoride, respectively (Vacutainer, Becton, Dickinson and Company, São Paulo, Brazil). Samples were collected after local antisepsis using 70° alcohol via jugular vein puncture, 3 h after morning feed delivery. The tubes were refrigerated until centrifugation at 1.800 x g for 10 min at room temperature (22 - 25 °C). Sample aliquots of serum and plasma (2 mL) were stored at -20 °C.

Concentration of BHBA was analyzed using an enzymatic kinetic kit (Kit RANBUT, RANDOX Laboratories – Life Sciences Ltd, Antrim, Northern Ireland, United Kingdom). The GLC was measured using a kit based on enzyme colorimetric method (Kovalent do Brasil Ltda., Rio de Janeiro, Brazil). Both readings were conducted on a microplate ELISA reader (Instruments Inc., Vermont, USA).

Hemograms were done on blood samples collected by jugular venipuncture on days 0, 2, 7, 14 and 28 relatives to the vaccination day. Samples were obtained in tubes containing the anticoagulant ethylenediaminetetraacetic (EDTA) (Vacutainer, Becton, Dickinson and Company, São Paulo, Brazil) and conditioned in thermal boxes for posterior analysis. After sampling, blood smears were made in glass slides, stained with a fast Romanowsky stain (LaborClin, Paraná, Brazil), dried and stored in proper recipients. Erythrocyte and leukocyte data were analyzed by automatic cell counter CC530 (CELM, São Paulo, Brazil). The differential exam of leucocytes was performed evaluating 100 leucocytes with a 1.000 x magnification (Harvey, 2001).

Blood sampled by jugular venipuncture on days 0, 28, and 42 relatives to prime vaccination date were used for immunological analysis (Figure 1). Samples were obtained in tubes without anticoagulant and in tubes with heparin (Vacutainer, Becton, Dickinson and Company, São Paulo, Brazil). Tubes without anticoagulant were refrigerated, centrifuged at 1.800 x g for 10 min at room temperature (22 - 25 °C). Serum aliquots (2 mL) were stored at -20 °C for posterior analysis of antibody concentration against clostridia and brucellosis (samples from days 0 and 42). Heparinized tubes were kept under room temperature and transported within 24 h to the Laboratório de Bacteriologia Aplicada, Escola de Veterinária, UFMG (Belo Horizonte, Minas Gerais, Brazil) for cell culture and proliferation assay (samples from days 0 and 28).

Isolation, culture, proliferation, and immunophenotyping of peripheral blood mononuclear cells (PBMC)

Peripheral blood mononuclear leucocytes were isolated from heparinized blood samples by centrifugation under Ficoll® gradient (GE Healthcare, Stockholm, Sweden) (Palmer et al., 1997; Dorneles et al., 2015b). Carboxyfluorescein Diacetate Succinimidyl Ester (CFSE) (Life Technologies, California, USA) was used to stain PBMC according to manufacturer's

instructions, followed by preparation of cultures with RPMI 1640 medium (Sigma-Aldrich, Missouri, USA) in 48-well cell culture plates (1×10^6 cells/well) (Corning, New York, USA), for 6 days at 37 °C, and 5% CO₂. For each sample, cell culture was conducted without antigenic stimulation (negative control) and with antigenic stimulation (incubation of samples with 10^8 CFU/mL of *B. abortus* strain 2308 γ -irradiated; Dorneles et al., 2015b). Additionally, 2.5 and 5 μ g/mL of the phytohemagglutinin-P (PHA-P) (Medicago, Uppsala, Sweden) were used as positive controls of the assay. Cell viability was monitored by trypan blue staining using light microscopy. Only the data on cell culture with antigenic stimulation was used for statistical analysis.

After the cultivation period, cells were recovered and stained with antibodies anti-bovine CD4 (clone CC8) and anti-bovine CD8 (clone CC63), conjugated with phycoerythrin (PE) and Alexa-Fluor 647 (AbD Serotec, North Carolina, USA) (Dorneles et al., 2015b).

Flow cytometry data acquisition and analysis

The proliferation and immunophenotyping assays were analyzed in a flow cytometer the (FACSCalibur, Becton Dickinson, New Jersey, USA) taking at least 30.000 cells/sample. Data analysis was conducted on FlowJo 7.6.1 software (Tree Star, Oregon, USA). A selective analysis was performed on CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T cells subsets by initially selecting lymphocytes on forward scatter (FSC) versus side scatter (SSC) dot plot distribution, followed by individual analysis of CD4⁺ and anti-CD8⁺ versus CFSE. Lymphocyte proliferation was quantified by setting quadrants in dot plot distribution to segregate the fraction of lymphocytes that had divided. Proliferation was calculated as the percentage of lymphocytes expressing CD4 or CD8 that proliferated divided by the percentage of surface marker of interest expressed by the lymphocytes.

Detection of neutralizing antibodies against epsilon toxin of *C. perfringens* and *C. botulinum* type C toxin

For *C. botulinum* type C toxin, the determination of antitoxin amount in serum was performed through serum neutralization in mice as described by European Pharmacopeia (2017) and Brazilian normative for potency test of clostridial vaccines (Brasil, 2002). Briefly, serial serum dilutions were incubated with the standard antitoxin at a test level of L+/10 (detection limit of 1 IU/mL) and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C. Forthwith, 0.2 mL of each dilution was inoculated via intravenous in two mice (Swiss Webster), weighing between 18 and 22 g. The animals were observed for 72 h regarding mortality for the titration of neutralizing antibodies.

For *C. perfringens* type D, the concentration of epsilon antitoxins was determined by serum neutralization of MDCK cell culture (Madin-Darby Canine Kidney cells – ATCC/CCL-34), as described in previous studies (Silva et al., 2018; Oliveira Junior et al., 2019). Briefly, serum was serially diluted on base 2 (pure at 1:1024) and incubated for 30 min at 37 °C with the standard antitoxin, at a test level L0/50, that allows the detection limit of 0.4 IU/mL of epsilon antitoxin. Thus, a total of 4×10^4 MDCK cells were added per well and the plates were incubated for 48 h. Titration was calculated considering the highest dilution in which there was no cytopathic effect (Silva et al., 2018).

The protection titers of the animals against the clostridial antigens used in the study were based on the American Code of Federal Regulations (CFR) and the European Pharmacopeia. They recommend titers ≥ 2.0 IU/mL against *C. perfringens* epsilon or ≥ 5.0 IU/mL against type C botulinic toxin (USDA, 2014; European Pharmacopeia, 2017) to approve a vaccine on the official potency test. These standards are also followed by the Brazilian legislation (Brasil, 2002).

Brucellosis serology

Antibodies anti-S19 were detected by indirect ELISA (I-ELISA), using an antigen produced from *B. abortus* S19 (Colby et al., 2002) by Laboratório Federal de Defesa

Agropecuária (LFDA, Pedro Leopoldo, Minas Gerais, Brazil) and performed according to Dorneles et al., (2015b). In addition to I-ELISA, serum was tested by standard tube agglutination test, and 2-mercaptoethanol test (Alton et al., 1988) according to the recommendations of the Programa Nacional de Controle e Erradicação de Brucelose e Tuberculose Animal - PNCEBT (National Program for the Control and Eradication of Animal Brucellosis and Tuberculosis; Brasil, 2006).

Statistical analyses

Statistical analyses were conducted on SAS (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, version 9.4) and R (R Core Team, 2020, version 3.6.3) software. Sample size was estimated in two ways: first, it was calculated using a two-sided test to provide sufficient experimental units to detect statistical significance in the DMI (power = 80%, SD = 0.185 kg and alpha = 0.05). The sample size required, according to these assumptions was at least 14 animals / group. Second, it was calculated for the Kruskal-Wallis test (Jankowski, 2020) using a power of 85%, increased to inflate the sample size due to the variability previously observed in the immunological variables to be studied (Dorneles et al., 2014; Dorneles et al, 2015b). The required sample size using those parameters was $17.16 \approx 18$ animals / group. Therefore, the large sample size, 18 animals / group, was used.

Mean, standard deviation, and normality and homogeneity of variables, were analyzed using PROC UNIVARIATE procedure. When statistical assumptions did not meet, the variable was transformed (TWC). Rectal temperature, thermography, ADG, intake, feed efficiency, feeding behavior, blood parameters and hematological parameters data were analyzed with repeated measurements in time (PROC MIXED) models, including calf as the random term and treatment, genetic composition, day/week, and their interaction as fixed variables. Measurements obtained on enrollment day (BW) were used as covariates in the models for ADG, intake, and feed efficiency.

Variables with a single measurement during the study (initial and final BW) were analyzed including calf as the random term and treatment and genetic composition as fixed variables (PROC GLM).

Data from 13 days were used (five days pre-vaccination and seven days post-vaccination) for feed and water intake and feeding behavior analyses. Data were compared at pre-vaccination with post-vaccination. Performance data (ADG) and feed efficiency were analyzed for a five-week interval (one-week pre-vaccination up to four weeks post-vaccination). Rectal temperature and thermography data were compared at pre-vaccination (day 0) with pre-vaccination (day -1) and post (day 1 to 28).

Serological data among groups were analyzed by the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test (Conover, 1999) followed by post-hoc pairwise comparisons using Conover's all-pairs Test with Bonferroni Adjustment (Conover and Iman, 1979) with PMCMR plus R package (Pohlert, 2020). The frequency of animals with titers ≥ 2.0 IU/mL against *C. perfringens* epsilon or ≥ 5.0 IU/mL against type C botulinic toxin (USDA, 2014; European Pharmacopeia, 2017) was analyzed by the Pearson's Chi-squared test or Fisher's Exact Test, whichever appropriate (Conover, 1999). Flow cytometry data between groups B and CB were analyzed by the Wilcoxon rank sum test (Mann-Whitney U test) (Conover, 1999). For all the analyses performed, values of $P < 0.05$ were considered statistically significant.

RESULTS

Rectal temperature

There was an increase in RT on the first day post-vaccination in all three groups, with RT being above the physiological values until the third day post-vaccination (Figure 3). Interestingly, group B showed an increase in RT from the first to the second day after vaccination ($P < 0.001$ - Figure 3), remaining elevated until the third day post- vaccination.

Calves of groups C and CB had a decrease in RT from the second to the third day post-vaccination ($P < 0.01$), but RT was still above the normal range (Figure 3).

Comparison of RT among groups (Figure 3) indicated greater values for C and CB groups on the first-day post-vaccination ($P < 0.01$), while groups B and CB had greater RT values than group C on the second-and third-days post-vaccination ($P < 0.001$).

Infrared thermography

In the present study, group B showed an increase local temperature at days 1 ($P = 0.001$), 2 ($P = 0.001$), 3 ($P = 0.001$), 5 ($P = 0.01$) and 7 ($P = 0.001$) in relation to day 0. The temperature returned to normal condition pre-vaccination on day 10 post-vaccination ($P = 0.02$). Interestingly, for group C (E-Supplements - Figure 1) the temperature increase at the application site was more prolonged, being observed on days 1 ($P = 0.001$), 2 ($P = 0.001$), 3 ($P = 0.006$), 5 ($P = 0.01$), 7 ($P < 0.001$), 10 ($P = 0.005$) and 14 ($P = 0.01$) in relation to day 0. The group CB showed an increase local temperature for less time, until day 7 post-vaccination ($P < 0.001$) in relation to day 0. The temperature returned to normal on day 10 post-vaccination, a similar pattern to that of group B (E-Supplements - Figure 1).

Comparing the local temperature among groups (E-Supplements - Figure 1), differences were observed only on day 1 and day 3 post-vaccination. On the first post-vaccination day, group B had lower temperature compared to group C and CB ($P < 0.01$). On day 3, group B exhibited greater temperature than group C ($P = 0.03$), but not when compared to group CB ($P = 0.09$).

Consumption and feeding behavior

On the post-vaccine period, group B showed a decrease in DMI from day 2 and 3 ($P < 0.01$) compared with day -1 (Figure 4a). The reestablishment of consumption to the values observed during the pre-vaccination period only occurred on day 4 ($P = 0.24$). Consumption time (TDC) was reduced from day 6 to 7 ($P = 0.02$ – E-Supplements - Figure 2a). Furthermore,

there was a reduction in the total number of feeders visits with diet consumption (NVDC) from day -1 until day 5 ($P < 0.01$; E-Supplements - Figure 2b), returning to pre-vaccination values only after the sixth day ($P = 0.71$).

There was no variation in DMI in the post-vaccination period in group C (Figure 4a). Moreover, no changes were found in diet TDC either post-vaccination in group C (E-Supplements - Figure 2a). Reduction was observed on NVDC, only on days 0 and 1 ($P < 0.01$), returning to normal values after the second day post-vaccination ($P = 0.16$; E-Supplements - Figure 2b).

A decrease in DMI was observed for group CB on days 0, 1, 2, and 3 ($P < 0.01$) relatively to day -1, and the reestablishment of consumption occurred on day 4 ($P = 0.88$). No differences were found on diet TDC at post-vaccination periods (E-Supplements - Figure 2a). After vaccination, there was a reduction on NVDC on days 1 and 2 ($P < 0.01$) relatively to day -1, returning to normal values after the third day ($P = 0.10$; E-Supplements - Figure 2b).

Post-vaccination (day 2 – Figure 4a), a smaller DMI was observed for group B ($P = 0.002$) and CB ($P = 0.03$) compared with group C. In the evaluation of TDC post-vaccination, group B had reduced in comparison with group C on day 2 ($P = 0.03$). On day 1, NVDC for group CB was lower when compared with groups B ($P = 0.03$) and C ($P = 0.005$). On day 2, NVDC for group C was more than group B ($P = 0.004$) and CB ($P < 0.001$). On day 3, group CB had less NVDC than group C ($P = 0.003$) and on day 4 group B had less NVCD than group C ($P = 0.04$).

Water consumption (WC; Figure 4b) was also affected by vaccination. An increase in WC was observed from day -1 to 2 ($P = 0.03$). The WC returned to pre-vaccination values from the third day ($P = 0.85$). There was an increase of WC on day 6 ($P = 0.03$) compared to day -1. In addition to presenting greater WC during this period, an increase in time of water consumption (TWC) was observed from day -1 to 1 ($P = 0.03$) and 2 ($P = 0.005$), reestablishing

to pre-vaccination values from the third day ($P = 0.18$; E-Supplements - Figure 2c). There were no changes in the number of visits with water consumption (NVWC) in the post-vaccination period (E-Supplements - Figure 2d).

An increase in WC post-vaccination was observed in group C only at day 7 compared with day -1 ($P = 0.002$ – Figure 4b). There was an increase of TWC from day 0 to 1 ($P = 0.008$), and a decrease from day 1 to 2 ($P = 0.004$) (E-Supplements - Figure 2c). Furthermore, an increase in NVWC was observed from day -1 to 7 ($P = 0.02$) and from day 5 to 6 ($P = 0.005$) (E-Supplements - Figure 2d).

No alterations were observed in WC in the post-vaccination period for group CB (Figure 4b). In the post-vaccination period, increase of TWC occurred from day -1 to 1 ($P = 0.006$), reestablishing pre-vaccination values on the second day ($P = 0.12$; E-Supplements - Figure 2c). During the post-vaccination period, only an increase of NVWC from day 5 to 6 ($P = 0.04$) (E-Supplements - Figure 2d) was observed.

In the comparison among the groups (Figures 4d, e and f), no differences regarding WC, TWC were observed in post-vaccination periods. In relation to NVWC, group C exhibited inferior values compared with group CB ($P = 0.01$) only on day 4.

Performance

There were no differences between groups in the initial and final BW ($P = 0.97$ and $P = 0.34$, respectively). Average ADG was not different among groups ($P = 0.85$) neither among the evaluation weeks ($P = 0.06$) and in interaction ($P = 0.10$). There was no interference of group on feed efficiency ($P = 0.13$; Table 1).

Blood metabolites

No differences among treatments B, C or CB ($P = 0.15$) or the interaction of treatment and day ($P = 0.69$) were observed in blood concentration of glucose, however, differences in blood concentration of glucose were observed for time ($P < 0.001$; Table 1). Group B depicted

increase of glucose concentration on day 7 ($P = 0.01$; 60.89 mg/dL) post-vaccination compared with day 0 (46.46 mg/dL), returning to pre-vaccination values after day 14 (50.11 mg/dL).

Group C had increased blood glucose concentration after the third day post- vaccination (55.8 mg/dL), returning to pre-vaccination values only 28 days thereafter (48.6 mg/dL). As in group B, group C glucose concentration was within the normal physiological range (Bouda and Jagos, 1984). For group CB, no oscillation of glucose concentrations was observed in the evaluated periods.

No differences among treatment ($P = 0.13$), time ($P = 0.52$) and interaction ($P = 0.40$) were observed in blood concentration of BHBA (Table 1).

Immune response to vaccines against brucellosis and clostridium

On the first evaluation, day 0, no difference in immune response among the groups was observed. On day 42, after the boost vaccination, the median titer of neutralizing antibodies against epsilon toxin of *C. perfringens* was 12 IU/mL, for group C (IQR = 11.1 IU / mL), greater than for animals in group CB (4.4 IU/mL, IQR = 12 IU/mL; $P = 0.01$; Figure 5a). Likewise, animals from group CB also exhibited a lower median neutralizing antibody titer (0 IU/ mL; IQR = 2.0 IU / mL) against *C. botulinum* type C toxin than those of group C (2.0 IU/mL; IQR = 7.0 IU/mL; $P < 0.001$; Figure 5b). No neutralizing antibody titer against both clostridial toxins tested was detected in animals of group B ($P < 0.001$).

In this study, 100% of animals in group C showed titers ≥ 2.0 IU / mL against *C. perfringens* epsilon toxin, which was observed in only 66.6% of animals from group CB ($P = 0.0238$). Regarding anti- *C. botulinum* C toxin titers, 42.9% of animals in group C had titers above the recommended ones, whereas in group CB this was observed only for 16.7% animals ($P = 0.1317$).

There were no differences in I-ELISA serological response (Figure 5c) to brucellosis between groups B and CB (median optical density values of 0.235, IQR = 0.140 and 0.288, IQR

= 115, respectively; $P = 1.0$), whereas I-ELISA titers were lower for animals that were only vaccinated against clostridia (median optical density value of 0.056, IQR = 0.007, $P < 0.001$). STAT and 2ME titers were not different between groups B and CB ($P = 0.25$ and $P = 0.45$, respectively).

When assessing cellular immune response, no differences were observed in the percentage of total lymphocytes ($P = 0.15$); total proliferated lymphocytes ($P = 0.48$); CD4⁺ lymphocytes ($P = 0.46$); proliferated CD4⁺ lymphocytes ($P = 0.37$); CD8⁺ lymphocytes ($P = 0.88$) and proliferated CD8⁺ lymphocytes ($P = 0.09$) in animals from groups B and CB.

Hemogram and leucogram

No differences were observed in erythrocyte, globular volume, hemoglobin, mean corpuscular volume, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, segmented neutrophils, and monocytes concentrations, in the hemogram of the evaluated groups (E-Supplements - Figure 3).

An alteration was observed on total leucocyte count only in group CB, with an increase from day 14 to 28 post-vaccination (Figure 6a). Comparing the leucocyte count among groups, group B demonstrated greater values than group CB on the second- and fourteenth-day post-vaccination ($P = 0.001$; Figure 6a). Group C had greater lymphocytes count on day 14 post-vaccination compared to group CB ($P = 0.03$; Figure 6b). In general, the results were within normal physiological ranges (Hussain et al., 2013).

DISCUSSION

This study investigated intake, performance, feeding behavior, blood parameters, and immune response of dairy calves vaccinated with two different vaccination strategies - dual administration of brucellosis and a clostridia vaccine at the same time point versus administration of either vaccine singularly. To the best of our knowledge, there are no published

papers investigating the effects of vaccination against brucellosis and clostridiosis in the evaluated parameters.

RT measurement is recognized as a useful parameter to elucidate animal reaction to several physiological functions, environmental challenges, and pathological processes (Nakamura and Shimizu, 1983, Tabynov et al., 2015). In present study, the group B showed an increase in RT from the first to the second day after vaccination, remaining elevated until the third day post-vaccination. This elevation in RT is in agreement with the results of Tabynov et al. (2015), which reported an increase in calves RT (up to 40.9 °C) on the first three days post-vaccination with S19. However, calves of groups C and CB had a decrease in RT from the second to the third day post-vaccination, despite the values still being above the normal range. Previous research on vaccines against clostridia showed an increase in the concentrations of acute phase proteins after immunization (Stokka et al., 1994; Arthington et al., 2013), suggesting that the increase in RT seen in the present study may be due, at least partially, to the active inflammatory process induced by the vaccine.

The vaccination processes commonly lead to local inflammation as a result of the production of proinflammatory cytokines, provoking pyrexia, anorexia and metabolic changes, which can vary according to the vaccine and its composition (Johnson, 1998; Pecchi et al., 2009; Ceciliani et al., 2012). Interestingly, the differences observed between the groups suggest that the systemic changes triggered by vaccination against clostridia occur in the first 24 h post-vaccination, whereas the reactions caused by S19 occur after 24 h post-vaccination. The observed difference in the kinetics of RT increase may be due to the marked difference between the vaccines, since *B. abortus* S19 is a live vaccine, whereas the clostridial vaccine is an inactivated plus toxoid vaccine. Indeed, as the vaccine against brucellosis mimics infection, it also induces a delay in the immune signaling and response (Carvalho Neta et al., 2008, Dorneles et al., 2015c), which probably has a kinetics different from the clostridial vaccines. In

vaccination with live bacterial vaccines, a relatively short phase is expected, characterized by no growth or even a decline in the number of microorganisms inoculated, which is then followed by an exponential multiplication phase, generating a prolonged inflammatory reaction (Siegrist, 2018). This pattern may explain the differences observed in RT during the first days after vaccination, considering the animals vaccinated against clostridiosis and brucellosis. Moreover, it is necessary to consider that the adjuvants present in clostridial vaccines were chosen based on their ability to trigger a strong immune response, which is usually characterized by pyrexia.

It is important to highlight that when both vaccines were administered together (CB), RT varied in a similar fashion to that observed in the group vaccinated only against brucellosis (B), on the second- and third-day post-vaccination. Possibly this is due the dominant profile of the response against brucellosis in comparison to exclusive clostridia vaccination (C). Those observations could probably be the result of the modulatory action of S19 on the clostridial vaccine response. In this modulatory action, the strong Th1 response promoted by the S19 vaccine (Dorneles et al., 2015b) produces IFN- γ and other related cytokines, responsible for stimulating the cell-mediated Th1 response, but downregulates the Th2 response promoted by the vaccine against clostridia (Spellberg and Edwards, 2001), which could justify the observed results.

IRT is a non-contact method for measurement of radiated surface temperature of animals (Cook et al., 2015). This technique has been increasingly used to diagnose and study local inflammation in cattle (Colak et al., 2008; Hovinen et al., 2008; Rainwater-Lovett et al., 2009), however, literature on using IRT to study vaccinal responses in animals is scarce. The prolonged high temperature at the vaccination site observed in group C (up until day 14 post-vaccination) probably occurred due to the presence of aluminum hydroxide on vaccine composition, which extends the antigenic stimulation and leads to a more persistent

inflammatory process at the application site (Lambrecht et al., 2009). Interestingly, Stokka et al., (1994) evaluated the reaction at the clostridial vaccine application site and observed an increase in volume at the vaccine application site for a period greater than 25 days. In that study, the researchers did not evaluate the temperature at the vaccination site, but the observed volume increase was the result of the local inflammatory reaction at the vaccination site.

There is a lack of studies using IRT to evaluate the effects of vaccination in animals. In fact, this is the first study on this matter in calves. Previously, a study conducted by Cook et al. (2015) evaluated the use of IRT for detection of fever in swine in response to vaccine against parvovirus, *Leptospira* spp and *Erysipelothrix rhusiopathiae* infection. The authors reported an increase in the temperature from 3 h post-vaccination with a peak after 10 h (Cook et al., 2015). However, thermographic evaluation was conducted only during a 24 h period post-vaccination, specifically at the ceiling of the nursery barn, taking “whole animal” images, which precludes comparisons. Anyway, using IRT we were able to detect differences in local temperature after vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia showing the usefulness of the technique for local or safety vaccination effects evaluation in calves. Moreover, the present study revealed that, in response to all three protocols tested, calves experienced a long-lasting temperature increase at the vaccination site, which lasted longer when the vaccine against clostridia was administered alone. Moreover, similar to the results of observed RT, when both vaccines were administered together (CB), the temperature of the vaccination site varied similarly to that observed in group B, possibly this is due to the dominant profile of the response against brucellosis.

In the present study, the reduction in DMI and NVDC observed for group B is probably due to the systemic reaction led by inflammatory process, responsible for fever, anorexia, depression, and reduction of social interactions (Pecchi et al., 2009). These behavioral changes occur simultaneously to physiological alterations and are known as adaptive responses (Owen-Ashley et al., 2006). Previously, Gaspers et al. (2015) evaluated DMI, consumption time and

number of feeders' visits of animals vaccinated against bovine infectious rhinotracheitis virus, bovine viral diarrhoea virus, bovine respiratory syncytial virus, and parainfluenza 3. In contrast, the authors did not find differences regarding DMI between treatments, which could be possible due to the intensity of the immune response elicited. In fact, the initial innate response stimulated by vaccination against brucellosis is similar to that occurring after a natural infection, being marked by an inflammatory response that explains fever and decreased consumption, and at the same time the development of a higher immunogenicity comparing live versus "nonlive" vaccines (Dorneles et al., 2015c).

There was no variation in DMI in group C, even animals exhibit greater RT on the first three days post-vaccination, and vaccination site temperature was greater up to day 14 after immunization. Consistent with these findings, Stokka et al. (1994) reported no decrease in DMI in beef heifers vaccinated against clostridia. However, the application of the two vaccines concomitantly led to increased RT on the first three days post-vaccination, which can be associated with the observed decrease in DMI, similarly to that observed for group B. The impact of vaccination of CB group on NVDC and DMI seems to be intermediate in comparison with groups B and C, which could be the result of a modulation of the strong Th1 (proinflammatory) profile induced by the brucellosis vaccination (Dorneles et al., 2015c) by the Th2 profile triggered after clostridia vaccination (Comoy et al., 1997). Smaller DMI was observed for group B and CB compared with group C in post-vaccination (day 2). This decrease in consumption observed for groups B and CB is possibly associated with the greater RT observed on day 2 after vaccination and with the immune response elicited by a live vaccine discussed earlier.

Hyperthermia is often associated with a reduction in WC (Hart, 1988). However, the increase in WC observed in group B seems to be unrelated to the treatment performed, since in treatment C and CB an increase in RT was also observed, but without interference in

consumption. However, this increase observed in group B can be a physiological strategy of the organism, trying to reestablish normal body temperatures. The scarcity of scientific work evaluating the water consumption and consumption behavior of young animals makes it difficult for a complete understanding of our findings.

As expected, regardless of the vaccination protocol used, the decrease of DMI was not sufficient to determine changes of BW, ADG and feed efficiency, most likely because of the short period in which a reduction of DMI was observed. Similarly, Arthington et al. (2013) did not find differences on ADG (day 0 - 21 post-vaccination) of animals vaccinated against clostridia.

Blood measurements are an effective tool to gain insight into the animal metabolic mechanisms. Glucose has been suggested as one of the most important metabolic substrates needed for cell and antibody-mediated immunity, cytokine production, complement system and phagocytic cell functions, which are important events when it comes to vaccination response (Woodward, 1998). Although there was a statistically significant variation in glucose in group B and C, this stayed within the normal range, according to the values reported by Bouda and Jagos (1984). Tabynov et al. (2015), also reported no alterations in glucose concentrations above the physiological limits on animals vaccinated with S19. The maintenance of normal blood glucose levels may be due to physiological mechanisms of the body. To ensure the supply of this fuel to the immune system, there is an increase in the glycogenolysis, gluconeogenesis in the liver (McGuinness, 1994; Waldron et al., 2003a) and peripheral resistance to insulin. These mechanisms lead to a reduction of glucose capture by skeletal muscles and adipose tissue (Lang et al., 1993). The majority of the glucose is then deviated to organs such as spleen, liver, lungs, and ileum as an energy source (Lang et al., 1993). Despite the efforts to increase glucose production and to decrease its use, hypoglycemia usually develops because the rate of glucose usage by the immune system exceeds the organism's capacity to absorb and produce glucose

(McGuinness, 2005). However, we did not observe hypoglycemia, possibly due to the fact that these were still growing animals, with increase of DMI and a consequent increase in circulating glucose.

Concentration of BHBA can be used as a parameter for assessing the energy metabolism of the animal, being used in several studies, including those involving vaccination (Suarez-Mena et al., 2017). We expected that the drop in DMI would increase the concentration of BHBA, however, this was not observed, possibly due to the small reduction in the DMI of the groups evaluated. However, a retrospective analysis using the data from the study revealed that the experimental power was 60% for BHBA, which limits the inferential capacity of the variable.

A key finding of the present study is that the vaccination with S19 interferes with the humoral and immune response triggered by the vaccine against clostridia when both vaccinations were performed concomitantly (Fig. 5). The opposite, however, did not seem to occur, as the response to S19 vaccine (humoral and cellular immune response) was unchanged even when administered concomitantly with the clostridial vaccine (Fig. 6). Interference in response to vaccination in cattle has been previously described (Harland et al., 1992; Cortese et al., 2011). These authors showed that the vaccination with a modified live vaccine against bovine herpesvirus 1 can affect the response of a vaccine against or *Mannheimia haemolytica*. Although these works used a live-virus vaccine in contrast with an attenuated bacterial vaccine of the present study, these two immunogens likely have similarities in the immune response for being live vaccines and intracellular pathogens. Together, these results suggest that live vaccines can interfere in the immune response of non-live vaccines, especially if different immune response profiles are induced (i.e., Th1 vs. Th2).

The reduction in antibody levels against clostridial toxins observed in the CB group could be the result of the immune response profile differentiated induced by each vaccine.

Vaccine against epsilon and botulinic toxins was reported to induce a Th2 immune response (Comoy et al., 1997). Differently from the vaccine against clostridia, the vaccine against brucellosis (S19) is a live attenuated vaccine that induces a strong Th1 response (Dorneles et al., 2015b, c). The main cytokines produced by Th1 cells, IFN- γ , and Th2 cells, IL-4, could negatively regulate each other cell type response, i.e., IFN- γ stimulates the cell-mediated Th1 response, but down-regulates the Th2 response, and IL-4 stimulates the Th2 humoral response, but decreases a cell-mediated response (Spellberg and Edwards, 2001). Therefore, the different cytokine environment produced by both vaccines may explain the reduced response against epsilon toxin of *C. perfringens* and C toxin of *C. botulinum*, observed in group CB, since S19 elicits a strong Th1 response (Dorneles et al., 2015b) whose IFN- γ could overwhelm the antibody response induced by clostridia vaccine. In addition to this main hypothesis, it is also possible that other immunological mechanisms can be also triggering these changes in the immune response, leading to a reduction in the antibodies titers against clostridial toxins when S19 vaccine is coadministrated. However, unfortunately, the lack of studies on this matter in the literature makes difficult to hypothesize other mechanisms involved.

In contrast, the hematological parameters tested were not influenced by the dual vaccination, as we found no differences in erythrocyte, globular volume, hemoglobin, mean corpuscular volume, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration, segmented neutrophils and lymphocytes counts on the hemogram of the evaluated groups. The effects of concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridiosis on blood parameters are largely unknown in the literature, which, in addition to its close connection with the immune system, motivated its investigation by the present study. Our results are in agreement with Tabynov et al. (2015), who compared hematological parameters of animals vaccinated against brucellosis and reported that the parameters were kept within the normal physiological range in all periods (0, 7, 14, 30, 37, 44 and 60 days relative to the vaccination date). An increase in the neutrophil count was

observed only seven days post-vaccination, being possibly associated to a light infectious process led by the vaccination per se, but the values were still within the normal range. Like this study, Stokka et al. (1994) did not observe differences between control group and those vaccinated against clostridia on total leucocyte, lymphocyte and neutrophil counts. There are few results in the literature regarding the effects of vaccines against brucellosis and clostridia on hematology data, which makes it difficult to compare with other results of scientific research.

To the best of our knowledge, there are no published papers investigating the effects of vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia on the performance, consumption, feeding behavior, blood parameters, and immune responses of heifer's dairy calves. For many years, livestock producers performed the dual vaccination of the calves against brucellosis and clostridia, to facilitate management and reduce stress and discomfort of animals. These data support the potential risk of carrying out this management. Despite the observed alterations, effects of inflammatory process on consumption and feeding behavior had short duration and did not interfere on BW, ADG or feed efficiency, fundamental parameters regarding calf rearing performance. However, the concomitant vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia resulted in reduced titration for antibodies anti-*C. perfringens* epsilon and anti-*C. botulinum* type C toxins. Interestingly, the simultaneous vaccination against brucellosis and clostridiosis did not affect the evaluated parameters of immune response against brucellosis vaccination. The present study suggests that vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia should be performed on separated occasions.

The main limitation of this study is the absence of a control group (for instance, a group inoculated only with a saline solution), which would allow more conclusions regarding the effect of each vaccine used on the evaluated parameters. Anyway, the experimental design used was chosen due to its suitability with variables with a high coefficient of variation (Kaps and

Lamberson, 2017) and allowed conclusions regarding effects of simultaneous vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia in dairy heifers calves.

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TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Performance, feed efficiency (-1 to the 4th week) and blood metabolites (days 0, 3, 7, 14 and 28) in relation to vaccination data of animals vaccinated against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous clostridia and brucellosis vaccines (CB)

Parameters	Treatment ¹ (mean)			SEM ²	P-value ³		
	B	C	CB		T	W/D	T x W/D
Performance							
Initial BW	104.14	104.53	105.08	3.84	0.97	-	-
Final BW	119.49	121.67	127.47	3.29	0.34	-	-
ADG, g/d ⁵	0.58	0.63	0.55	0.13	0.85	0.06	0.10
Feed efficiency	0.19	0.12	0.15	0.08	0.13	0.23	0.87
Blood Metabolites⁶							
BHBA, mmol/L ⁷	0.81	0.87	0.81	0.05	0.13	0.52	0.41
Glucose, mg/dL	51.03	54.01	49.86	3.46	0.15	<0.001	0.69

¹ Treatments: brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous clostridia and brucellosis vaccines (CB);

²SEM = standard error of mean;

³T = treatment effect; W/D = week (performance and feed efficiency) or day effect (blood metabolites), T x W/D = treatment by week or day interactions;

⁴BW = body weight;

⁵ADG = average daily weight gain;

⁶ Blood metabolites = mean of assessments performed on the days 0, 3, 7, 14 and 28 in relation to vaccination;

⁷BHBA = beta-hydroxybutyrate.

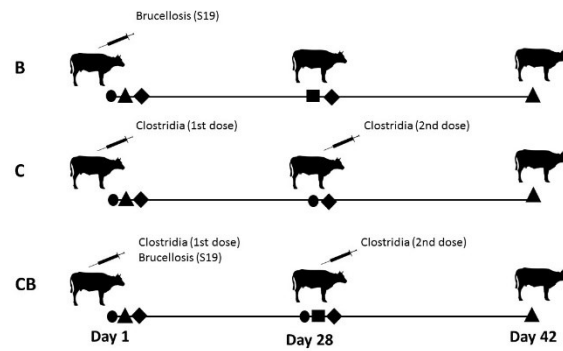


Figure 1. Vaccination protocol and blood sampling schema for evaluation of immune response against brucellosis and *C. perfringens* epsilon and *C. botulinum* type C toxins. Group B – animals vaccinated against brucellosis, Group C – animals vaccinated against clostridia and Group CB animals vaccinated against brucellosis and clostridia. Legend: ● - vaccine administration; ■ - total blood sampling for immunophenotyping against *B. abortus*; ▲ - serum sampling for titration of neutralizing antibodies against *C. perfringens* epsilon and *C. botulinum* type C toxins and ◆ - serum sampling for titration of antibodies against *B. abortus*.

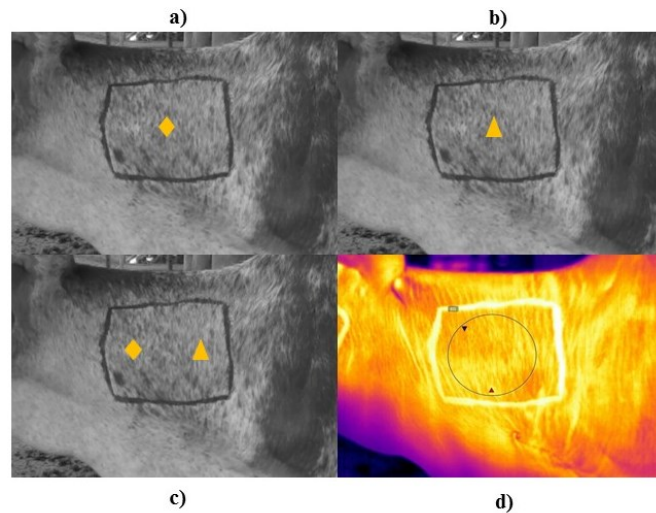


Figure 2. (a, b and c) Photography of vaccine administration site (left side of neck) delimited by trichotomy (10 cm x 10 cm). Group B – animals vaccinated against brucellosis, Group C – animals vaccinated against clostridia and Group CB animals vaccinated against brucellosis and clostridia. Legend: ◆ - vaccine administration against brucellosis and ▲ - vaccine administration against clostridia. Vaccination for groups B (a) and C (b) was performed in the center of the defined area, while for group CB the vaccination was performed with 4 cm between the brucellosis and clostridial vaccines (c); (d) thermographic image of site of vaccine administration.

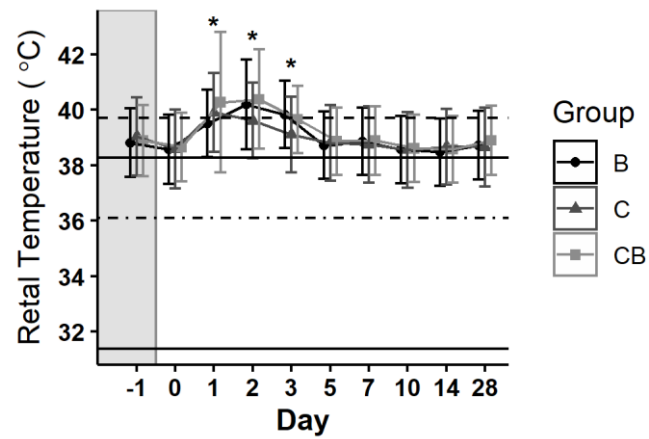


Figure 3. Rectal temperature (°C) from day -1 to 28 relative to the immunization of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia (CB). Gray band indicates pre-vaccination period. Dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower physiologic limits (Batista et al., 2019). Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

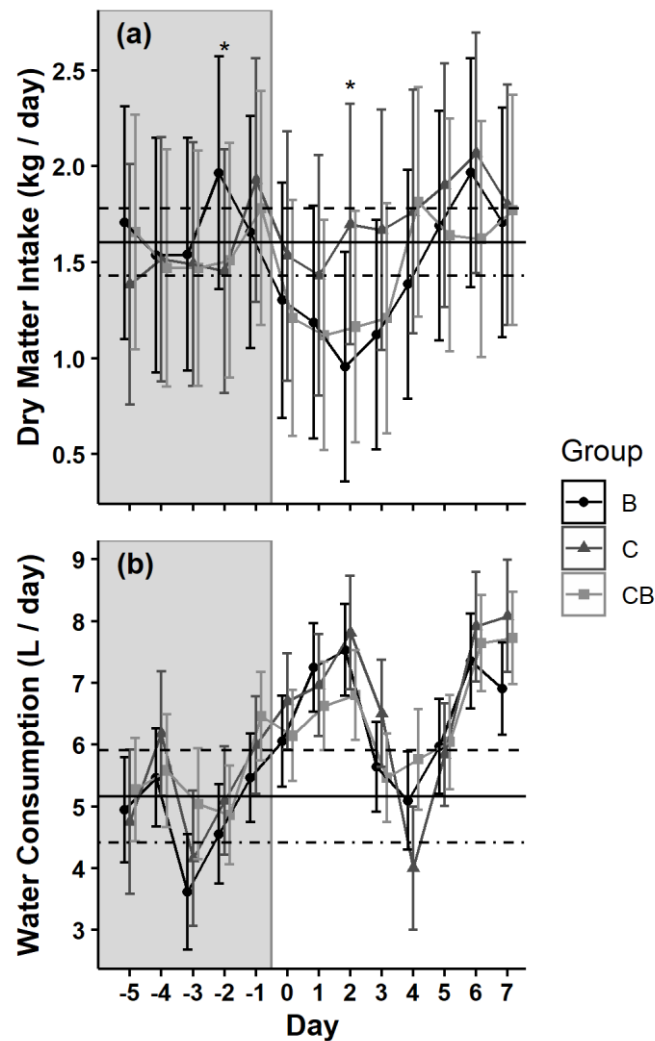


Figure 4. (a) Dry matter intake (kg/day) and (b) water consumption (L/day) from -5 to 7 days relative to vaccination of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against clostridia and brucellosis (CB). Gray bands indicate pre-vaccination period. Solid lines indicate mean, dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower standard deviation of the values observed for all groups during the pre-vaccination period. Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

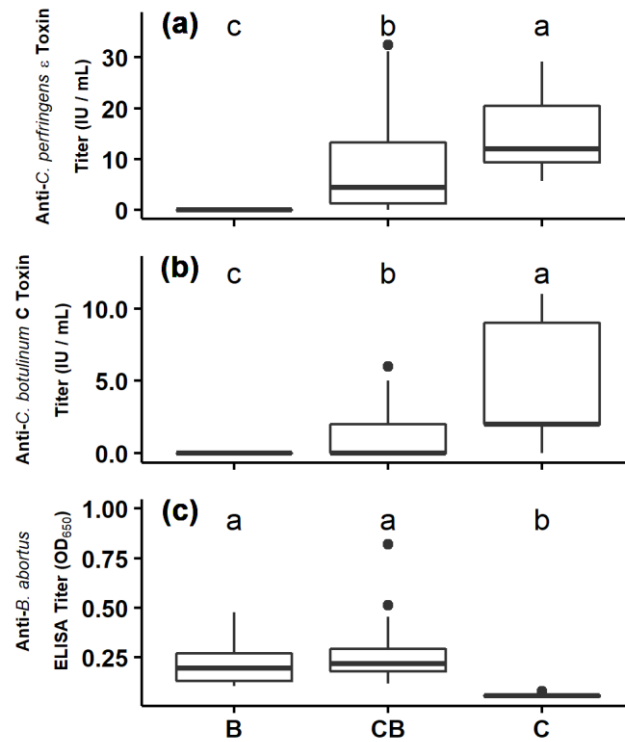


Figure 5. (a) Titration of antibodies antitoxin epsilon of *C. perfringens* (IU/mL); (b) Titration of antibodies antitoxin C of *C. botulinum* and (c) Antibodies anti-S19, from animals vaccinated against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against clostridia and brucellosis (CB). Bars represent the largest and the smallest values no further than 1.5 * IQR (inter-quartile range) from the hinge. Different letters indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

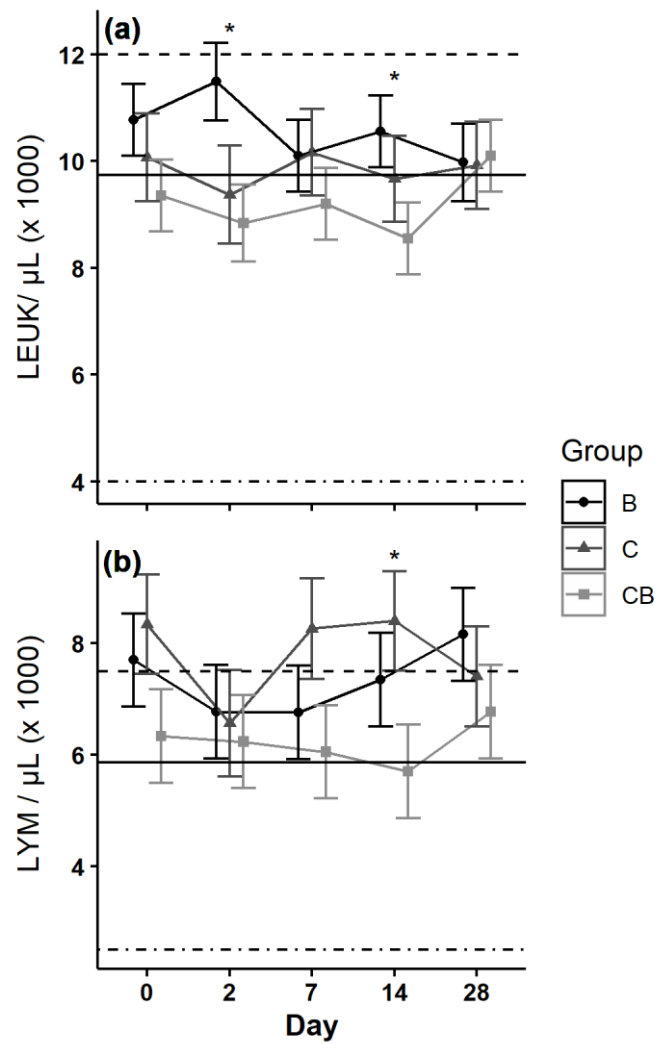


Figure 6. (a) LEUK - Leukocytes/ $\mu\text{L} \times 1000$ and (b) LYM - Lymphocytes/ $\mu\text{L} \times 1000$ from 0, 2, 7, 14 and 28 days relative to vaccination of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against clostridia and brucellosis (CB). Dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower physiologic limits (Hussain et al., 2013). Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

E-SUPPLEMENTS

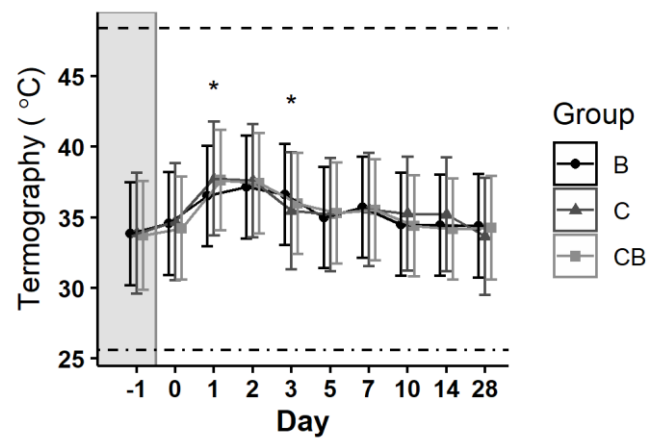


Figure 1. Vaccination site thermography (°C) from day -1 to 28 relative to the immunization of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against brucellosis and clostridia (CB). Gray band indicates pre-vaccination period. Dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower physiologic limits (Batista et al., 2019). Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

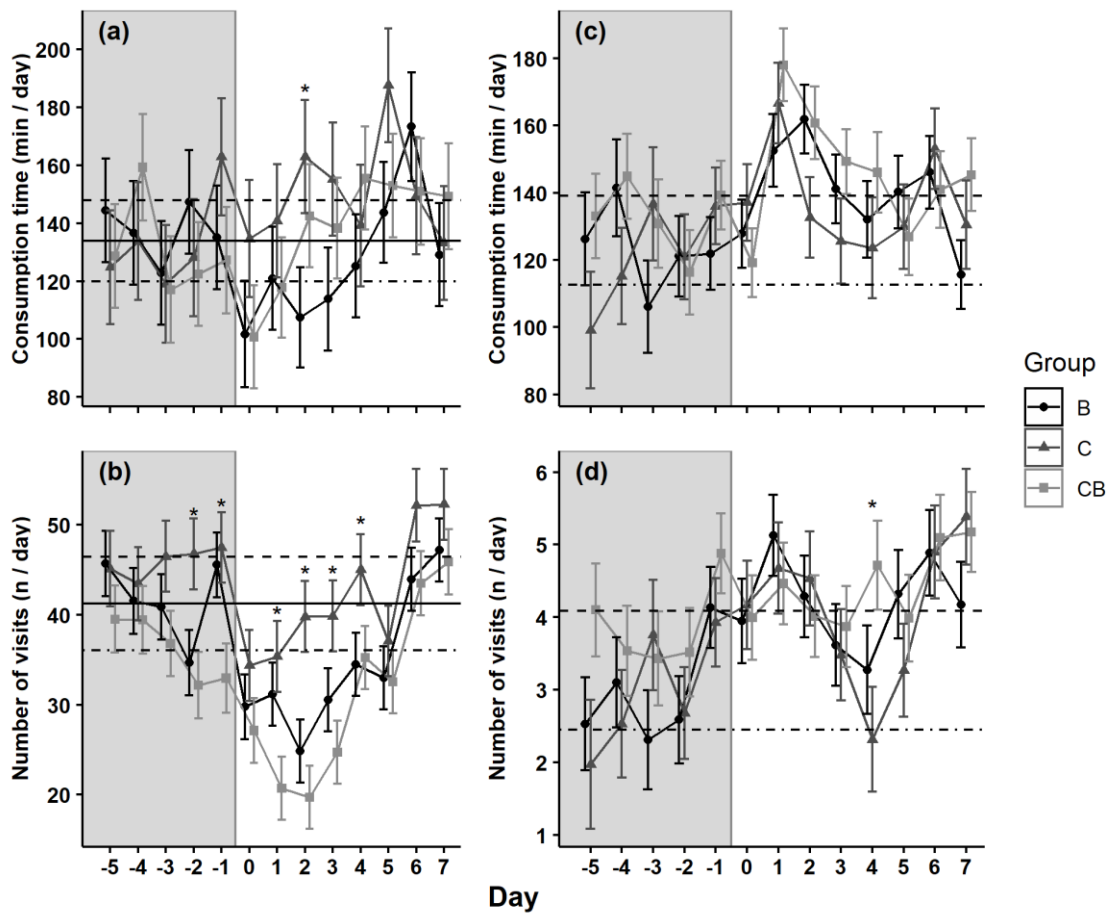


Figure 2. (a) Time of diet consumption (min/day); (b) Number of visits with diet consumption (number/day); (c) Time of water consumption (min/day) and (d) Number of visits with water consumption (number/day) from -5 to 7 days relative to vaccination of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against clostridia and brucellosis (CB). Gray bands indicate pre-vaccination period. Solid lines indicate mean, dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower standard deviation of the values observed for all groups during the pre-vaccination period. Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).

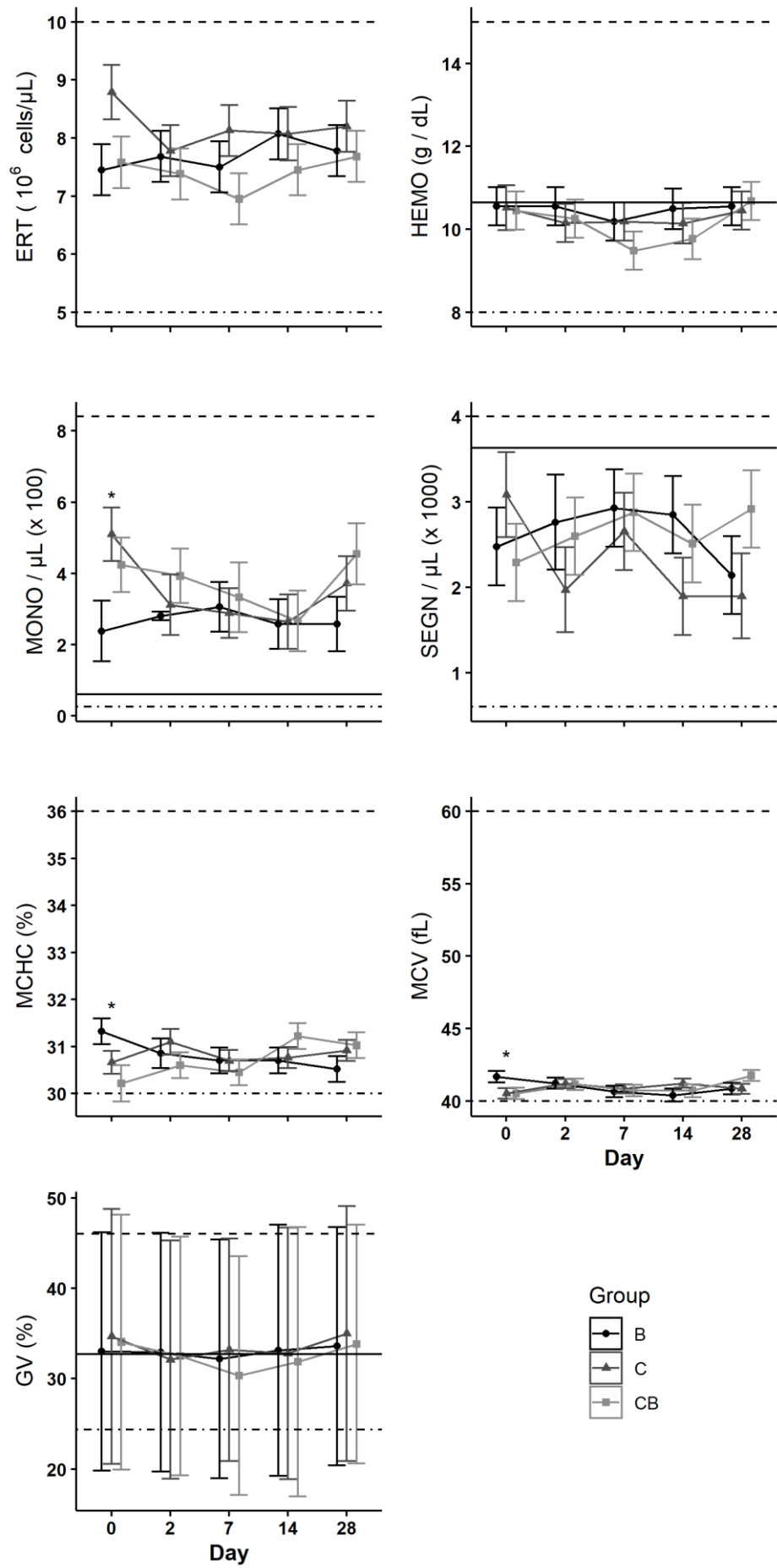


Figure 3. Hematological parameters (Erythrocytes - ERT; Hemoglobin - HEMO; Monocytes - MONO; Segmented neutrophils - SEGN; Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration - MCHC; Mean corpuscular volume - MCV and Globular volume - VG) from 0, 2, 7, 14 and 28 days relative to vaccination of animals against brucellosis (B), clostridia (C) and simultaneous vaccination against clostridia and brucellosis (CB). Dashed lines indicate maximum and dot dash lines indicate lower physiologic limits (Hussain et al., 2013). Bars represent SEM. Asterisk indicate statistical difference among groups ($P < 0.05$).