

1 **Management of Bovine Respiratory Disease in Beef Stocker Calves –An Overview of**  
2 **Current Evidence and Recommendations**

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7 **BOVINE RESPIRATORY DISEASE AND THE NORTH AMERICAN CATTLE**  
8 **INDUSTRY**

9 *Prevalence*

10 Bovine respiratory disease (BRD) is one the most common and costly diseases affecting  
11 beef and dairy cattle of all age groups and production classes in North America. Recent studies  
12 have shown that BRD affects nursing beef calves on more than 20% of cow-calf operations in  
13 the United States (US) and is responsible for more than 90% of all morbidity and mortality on  
14 stocker operations.<sup>1-3</sup> In feedlots, BRD affects nearly 20% of all animals on feed and is  
15 responsible for approximately 75% of all morbidity and 50% of all mortality. Similarly, BRD is  
16 estimated to affect more than 22% of all nursing dairy calves and is responsible for approximately  
17 20% of all deaths that occur in this population.<sup>4</sup> Moreover, BRD is the leading cause of  
18 morbidity and mortality in weaned dairy heifers and this single disease syndrome is responsible  
19 for nearly 60% of all producer reported deaths in this age group.

20  
21 *Economic Impact*

22 The economic impacts of BRD can be significant, as demonstrated by losses of more than  
23 \$260 million in cow-calf and \$2 billion in stocker and feedlot operations annually.<sup>5</sup> Indeed, the  
24 Texas A&M Ranch to Rail studies conducted from 1992-2001 found that cattle diagnosed with  
25 BRD were worth \$50-150 less than cattle that remained healthy.<sup>5</sup> In nursing dairy calves, the  
26 short-term and long-term costs of BRD have been estimated to exceed \$42 and \$280 per affected

27 animal, respectively.<sup>4</sup> Direct costs associated with losses due to BRD come from pharmaceuticals  
28 and biologics (antimicrobials, anti-inflammatories, vaccines, etc) used for disease prevention,  
29 treatment, and control, as well as reductions in animal performance (reduced average daily gain,  
30 poorer carcass quality, longer days on feed, lower lifetime milk production, etc).<sup>6</sup> In addition,  
31 cattle that succumb to BRD bear production costs incurred up to the time of death, the  
32 opportunity cost of failure to market the animal or failure of the animal to enter future stages of  
33 production (lactation, feeding, etc), and the costs of carcass disposal.<sup>6</sup>

34

### 35 *Emerging Issues*

36 An increasing prevalence of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) in bacterial respiratory  
37 pathogens and the negative impacts of BRD on animal welfare are two of the most significant  
38 issues facing the cattle industry as it relates to BRD. While BRD is a multifactorial disease  
39 syndrome with numerous risk factors, bacteria are ultimately responsible for the clinical signs  
40 observed in affected cattle. For this reason, antimicrobials are a mainstay of BRD treatment and  
41 control; however, antimicrobial resistance is an emerging issue in common bacterial BRD  
42 pathogens and isolation of multi-drug resistant (MDR) strains harboring integrative conjugative  
43 elements (ICE) has become a more frequent occurrence.<sup>7-11</sup> The emergence of MDR bacterial  
44 strains could complicate the treatment of animals with clinical BRD, making some animals less  
45 likely to respond to antimicrobial administration, a factor that perpetuates the negative economic  
46 impact of BRD. In addition, the use of antimicrobials in production animal agriculture has come  
47 under intense scrutiny by consumers, human health professionals, and regulatory organizations.  
48 Driven by concerns that overuse of antimicrobials in animal agriculture contributes to  
49 antimicrobial resistance challenges being faced in human medicine, numerous new regulations

50 have been implemented that affect both the use and availability of commonly used, medically  
51 important antimicrobial agents. Moreover, consumer demand for antibiotic-free, all-natural, and  
52 organic animal products continues to increase and will further serve to place pressure on cattle  
53 producers and veterinarians to reevaluate their antimicrobial use and prescribing habits.

54 As it relates to animal welfare, it is important to recognize that welfare plays an  
55 increasingly important role in the public perception of animal agriculture and consumer  
56 purchasing decisions. Additionally, veterinarians are ethically bound to recognize and respond to  
57 impaired animal welfare as part of the veterinary oath. Thus, it is imperative that welfare be at  
58 the forefront of all considerations and discussions regarding management of cattle health so that  
59 our social license to operate can be maintained. In the case of BRD, many risk factors for  
60 disease development are known, and numerous studies have shown that common management  
61 practices (weaning, vaccination, deworming, adaptation to feed bunks and water troughs,  
62 provision of shade, increasing nutritional plane, etc) can be used to reduce disease prevalence.  
63 Nevertheless, these practices are not commonly adopted and, despite decades of research and the  
64 widespread availability of effective vaccines and pharmaceutical agents, neither the prevalence  
65 nor impact of BRD have changed over time. Instead, deleterious management practices remain  
66 commonplace, complicating our best efforts to mitigate the impact of this complex disease  
67 syndrome. For example, less than 40% of US cow-calf producers vaccinate calves against  
68 common viral respiratory pathogens between birth and weaning and fewer than 60% of bull  
69 calves are castrated prior to sale. In addition, more than 40% of cow-calf producers sell calves  
70 the same day they are weaned and, of those that do keep calves on farm after weaning, less than  
71 70% keep calves for the recommended 45-day preconditioning period. Moreover, feeder calves  
72 are often transported in small spaces over long distances without regular access to feed or water

73 and commingled with cattle from many different operations, factors that result in increased levels  
74 of psychological and physiologic stress. There is also an increasing amount of evidence  
75 suggesting that BRD can be associated with significant pain and discomfort. Over the long term,  
76 addressing these issues will require forward-thinking leadership, honest and open discussions  
77 amongst all industry stakeholders, sincere effort, and financial incentives.

78

## 79 **BEEF STOCKER INDUSTRY – STRUCTURE, FUNCTION, AND CHALLENGES**

80 Although often seen as a single entity, the North American beef industry is divided into  
81 multiple distinct segments that operate with different management focuses and end goals in  
82 mind. One critically important segment of the beef industry is the stocker segment, as stockers  
83 represent a link between cow-calf producers and cattle feeders. In the US, between 2/3 and 3/4  
84 of calves spend some amount of time in a stocker-type facility before entering a feedlot. One of  
85 the reasons for this is that cow-calf operations market calves on a semi-seasonal schedule with  
86 most calves being marketed in the early to late fall. Cattle feeding, however, is constant  
87 throughout the course of the year so that industry and consumer needs can be effectively met.  
88 Stocker operations play a critical role in managing this seasonal and irregular supply of feeder  
89 cattle, buffering both excess and inadequate animal availability.

90 More importantly, however, cultural and economic factors often result in North American  
91 cow-calf producers marketing calves before they are adequately prepared for finishing. As a  
92 result, stocker facilities often purchase cattle in small lots and the cattle in these lots are usually  
93 lightweight, in poor nutritional status, recently weaned, of unknown health status (i.e.,  
94 unvaccinated, not dewormed), and males often remain intact. These cattle are then commingled  
95 with cattle from multiple other sources to build larger groups. Dehydration and negative energy

96 balance are also common due to long transport distances and limited access to water and feed  
97 being a part of this process. Ultimately, stocker enterprises function to improve the health and  
98 well-being of mismanaged calves, with a particular focus on improving immune status, adding  
99 weight and sorting cattle into groups of uniform size, weight and color. These practices allow  
100 stocker calves to be marketed to cattle feeders as a value-added product. Without this industry  
101 segment, many North American cow-calf producers would have little to no potential to market  
102 their cattle in a cost-effective manner. As a result, stocker operators provide a way for small-scale  
103 cow-calf producers to remain viable and competitive in the modern beef industry. Thus, the  
104 stocker segment is a significant contributor to the US agricultural economy and the sustainability  
105 of the US beef industry.

106         Unfortunately, the very factors that make stocker operations an integral component of the  
107 beef industry also increase the risk that BRD will develop in a high proportion of calves. The  
108 inherent structure of the beef cattle marketing system and procedures commonly performed at  
109 the time of initial animal processing impose a significant amount of stress on the animal's  
110 normal homeostatic mechanisms. Indeed, the processes of weaning, marketing, transportation, and  
111 adapting to high energy density feedlot rations likely represent the most challenging experiences  
112 a calf will ever face. These stresses can be manifested in several ways and include: 1) disruption  
113 of the hypothalamic-pituitary-adrenal (HPA) axis; 2) alterations in energy and protein  
114 metabolism; 3) decreases in appetite and growth rate; 4) changes in immunologic function; and  
115 5) compromised rumen function. In the end, these different factors interact to increase  
116 susceptibility of stocker calves to infection with viral and bacterial pathogens ubiquitous in their  
117 environment and negatively affect health, well-being, productivity, and profitability. Therefore,  
118 the goals of these proceedings are to describe how stresses imposed upon stocker cattle affect

119 physiologic and immunologic function and use this information to provide recommendations for  
120 the design of practical, evidence-based receiving programs with a particular focus on arrival  
121 facility design, vaccines, immunostimulants, and metaphylaxis.

122

## 123 **STRESS –DEFINITION, PURPOSE, PHYSIOLOGY, AND PATHOLOGIC EFFECTS**

### 124 *Definition and Purpose*

125         Simply defined as the non-specific response of the body to change, stress represents the  
126 psychological, emotional, or physiologic strain imposed by exposure to adverse  
127 circumstances.<sup>12,13</sup> Stress responses are mediated through an interaction of body systems that  
128 activate the sympathetic-adreno-medullar (SAM) axis, the HPA axis, and immune system. Stress  
129 responses allow the body to adapt to internal or external challenges faced by an animal, with the  
130 ultimate goals being removal of the animal from a stressful environment, prevention or  
131 attenuation of tissue damage, and restoration of psychologic and physiologic homeostasis.  
132 Nevertheless, when a specific stress or series of stressors are overly intense, repetitive, or  
133 prolonged, stress responses become maladaptive and can be detrimental to host physiology.  
134 These types of stresses cause anxiety, alter appetite, stimulate mobilization of muscle and fat, and  
135 precipitate the mounting of dysfunctional, and potentially harmful, immune responses.

136

### 137 *Physiology*

138         There are two affective systems in the brain that drive an animal's psychological and  
139 physiologic responses to stressful situations.<sup>14</sup> The first, the fear system, is localized to the  
140 amygdala and, when stimulated, promotes activation of the autonomic nervous system and  
141 secretion of both catecholamines and cortisol from the adrenal gland. The second, the separation

142 distress system, is in the stria terminalis of the thalamus and is activated when youngstock are  
143 separated from their dam, single animals are separated from their herd mates, and when animals  
144 are placed into novel social structures.<sup>14</sup> Like the effects of fear system activation, stimulation of  
145 the separation distress system increases secretions from the adrenal gland.

146         Once the fear and/or separation distress systems have been activated, stress responses are  
147 initiated. There are two components to the stress response: 1) A fast response mediated by the  
148 SPA axis and 2) a slow response mediated by the HPA axis. Activation of the fast response  
149 results in increased secretion of epinephrine and norepinephrine from the adrenal medulla. These  
150 hormones function to increase blood pressure and heart rate, as well as stimulate gluconeogenesis  
151 and lipolysis. In addition, intestinal motility is reduced, bronchioles are dilated, and behavioral  
152 changes such as arousal, agitation, and alertness occur. Activation of the slow response causes  
153 release of cortisol into the circulation. Cortisol and other steroid hormones function to enhance  
154 catecholamine release and upregulate the expression of catecholamine receptors, antagonize the  
155 effects of insulin, mobilize body energy stores, stimulate the resorption of water and electrolytes  
156 in the kidney and, ideally, reduce the magnitude of inflammatory response. In the end, these  
157 responses are designed to conserve and maintain energy supply, sustain fluid and electrolyte  
158 homeostasis, reduce inflammation, and remove unnecessary or malfunctioning cellular  
159 components to support the physiologic functions needed to adequately manage stressful  
160 situations.

161

## 162 **PATHOLOGIC EFFECTS**

### 163 ***Role of stress in the development of BRD***

164 In both people and mice, a link between respiratory infections and common stressors has  
165 been suggested. Numerous epidemiologic studies have found that, when people are exposed to  
166 psychological stressors, the incidence and severity of respiratory infections increases. Indeed,  
167 when experimentally challenged with a laboratory strain of Influenza A, people experiencing  
168 higher levels of psychological stress had increased plasma concentrations of IL-6 and greater  
169 clinical symptom scores than those with lower levels of stress. In mice, the effects of stress on  
170 respiratory infections are more nuanced.<sup>15-17</sup> For example, restraint stress imposed prior to  
171 experimental infection with Influenza A was found to reduce both the production of pro-  
172 inflammatory cytokines and infiltration of immune cells into the lung.<sup>18</sup> Additional work found  
173 that administration of RU486, a selective glucocorticoid receptor antagonist, resulted in enhanced  
174 pro-inflammatory responses and increased mouse mortality, a finding that confirmed corticosteroid  
175 hormones were responsible for the disease modifying effects of restraint. In contrast, stress  
176 imposed through social reorganization was found to increase cellular infiltration into the lung, as  
177 well as disease severity and mortality following Influenza A challenge.<sup>16</sup> Interestingly, the  
178 increased mortality seen in this study was found to correlate with a state of corticosteroid  
179 insensitivity induced by high concentrations of nerve growth factor (NGF).<sup>15</sup> Thus, it appears as  
180 though that the nature and type of the stressor imposed upon the animal can have conflicting  
181 effects on the immune response to subsequent infection and contribute to the marked differences  
182 seen across different studies.

183 Stocker calves are exposed to considerable amounts of stress and encounter a wide variety  
184 of stressors during the weaning, marketing and transportation processes. Of these stressors,  
185 weaning and disruption of established social structures are likely the most significant. Previous  
186 work has shown that weaning and disruption of social structure cause significant increases in



187 epinephrine and norepinephrine.<sup>19</sup> Also, weaning and social disruption, when combined with  
188 transport, result in increased serum cortisol concentrations, as well as alterations in protein and  
189 fatty acid metabolism/excretion. More recent work, however, has shown that the effects of  
190 weaning and transport stress on serum cortisol concentrations, when evaluated serially with more  
191 clinically relevant stress models, might be more complex than previously described. A study by  
192 Hudson et al found that peak serum cortisol concentrations in stressed calves were nearly 30%  
193 lower than peak cortisol concentrations in control calves.<sup>20</sup> Moreover, concentrations of cortisol  
194 measured serially in the serum of stressed steers were approximately 50% lower than what was  
195 measured in control steers.<sup>20</sup> Another study evaluating a model of weaning stress combined with  
196 experimental challenge with both Bovine Herpesvirus-1 (BHV-1) and *M. haemolytica* (*Mh*)  
197 found that patterns of serum cortisol secretion mimicked that of Hudson et al, with stressed  
198 calves having lower peak cortisol concentrations and reduced cortisol persistence.<sup>21</sup> In fact, the  
199 duration of hypercortisolaemia in stressed calves was less than half that of the control calves.<sup>21</sup>

200 In addition to stimulation of stress responses, weaning and social reorganization have  
201 profound impacts on local and systemic immune responses. Historically, it has been assumed that  
202 the increase in catecholamines and cortisol seen in traditional stress models had an  
203 immunosuppressive effect. New evidence, however, has begun to challenge this  
204 assumption. Studies performed using isolated populations of neutrophils and eosinophils have  
205 shown that both epinephrine and norepinephrine increase the production of reactive oxygen  
206 species and the expression of CD11b, molecules responsible for pathogen killing, facilitation of  
207 leukocyte migration and pathogen phagocytosis.<sup>22</sup> Also, serum concentrations of  
208 haptoglobin have been found to increase more than 3-fold in stressed calves when compared to  
209 unstressed calves.<sup>20,21</sup> Work performed by researchers in the UK evaluating immune

210 responses associated with weaning stress found that weaning stress increased the expression of  
211 genes for the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-1 $\beta$ , IL-8, IFN- $\gamma$ , and TNF- $\alpha$ , as well as the receptor  
212 for endotoxin, TLR4.<sup>23,24</sup> Additionally, there was decreased expression of genes encoding  
213 glucocorticoid receptors. This same group, using RNA-Seq technology, found that expression of  
214 genes encoding pro-inflammatory cytokines, chemokines, and integrins was consistently  
215 upregulated in calves subjected to weaning stress and these responses were maintained for up to  
216 7 days following weaning.<sup>24</sup> Studies from researchers at Mississippi State University evaluating  
217 the transcriptomic profile of cattle arriving at a stocker research facility found that genes  
218 promoting immune activation were upregulated in the blood of auction market derived calves  
219 when compared to unstressed, single-source controls. More specifically, auction market derived  
220 calves had increased expression of genes associated with enhanced innate immune responses and  
221 microbial killing, interferon production, and TLR4.<sup>25-27</sup> Stressed calves were also found to have a  
222 decrease in expression of genes associated with mediation of inflammatory responses. This  
223 change was found to involve a decrease in the expression of genes for pro-resolvin mediators and  
224 endogenous metabolism of angiotensinogen.<sup>27</sup>

### 226 ***Stress-pathogen synergy and BRD***

227 While the development of BRD has been linked to weaning stress and social  
228 reorganization, severe and fatal cases are most often seen when a primary viral infection allows  
229 for colonization of the lungs with bacterial pathogens. Viral infections of the bovine respiratory  
230 tract damage epithelial cells and the function of neutrophils and macrophages within the airway.  
231 <sup>28,29</sup> Additionally, common viral pathogens, namely Bovine Respiratory Syncytial Virus (BRSV)  
232 and Coronavirus, have been shown to upregulate the expression of various receptors that allow

233 for pathogenic bacteria to adhere to respiratory epithelial cells and invade the lower airway.  
234 Also, it has been shown that coinfection of isolated lung cell cultures with BRSV and *P.*  
235 *multocida* (*Pm*) results in an increase in the expression of numerous pro-inflammatory cytokines.  
236 In a study evaluating a model of weaning stress combined with experimental challenge with both  
237 Bovine Herpesvirus-1 (BHV-1) and *M. haemolytica* (*Mh*) concentrations of the proinflammatory  
238 molecules haptoglobin, IFN- $\gamma$ , and TNF- $\alpha$  in the serum of stressed calves were significantly  
239 higher than in control calves following challenge.<sup>21</sup> Moreover, expression of genes encoding  
240 CD14 and TLR4 in isolated populations of peripheral blood mononuclear cells was also  
241 significantly higher in stressed than control calves.<sup>21</sup> In the end, stressed calves had a mortality  
242 risk (80%) more than double that of control calves (40%).<sup>21</sup> From this work, it appears as though  
243 stressors, viruses, and bacteria interact synergistically with one another to enhance the  
244 inflammatory response caused by infection of the lower respiratory tract with common  
245 pathogens. Much of this enhanced inflammatory response seems to be mediated by a  
246 combination of elevations in epinephrine/norepinephrine, reduced cortisol peak/persistence and  
247 viral infection of the respiratory tract, factors that result in increased production of pro-  
248 inflammatory molecules, decreased production of anti-inflammatory molecules, and enhanced  
249 attachment of bacterial pathogens to the respiratory epithelium.

250 Thus, the relationship between stress, BRD, and pulmonary pathology is complex,  
251 involving multiple body systems and exposure to pathogenic microorganisms. Nevertheless, the  
252 common stressors imposed upon the typical stocker calf seem to promote inflammation rather  
253 than dampen it. In other words, in the same way that acute stress responses prepare an animal to  
254 mount an effective and efficient fight-or-flight response, it also prepares the immune system for  
255 challenges commonly encountered as part of the stressful event. In summary, data would suggest

256 that when calves are provided a period of adaptation prior to a stressful event (i.e.,  
257 preconditioning), are spared significant social disruptions, or have health managed appropriately,  
258 cortisol concentrations rise and persist at appropriate levels until the stressor is removed. This  
259 adaptive response likely allows the animal to shunt metabolic resources to tissues needing them  
260 most and successfully dampen deleterious pro-inflammatory immune responses to preserve  
261 physiologic homeostasis following exposure to infectious agents. However, when a stressful  
262 episode is prolonged or severe, episodes are repetitive, or no prior period of adaptation is  
263 provided (i.e., abrupt weaning combined with long distance transport and social  
264 reorganization) prior to the event, stress responses become dysregulated. This likely results from  
265 disruption of the HPA axis, hypocortisolemia, and/or glucocorticoid resistance. These factors,  
266 combined with exposure to novel respiratory viruses and pathogenic bacteria, prevent the animal  
267 from controlling wayward immune responses and lung pathology is subsequently enhanced.

268

## 269 **MANAGING HIGH-RISK CALF HEALTH – ARRIVAL FACILITY DESIGN,** 270 **VACCINATION, METAPHYLAXIS, AND IMMUNOSTIMULANTS**

### 271 ***Overview***

272 Because of the effects that stress, pathogen exposure, and immune dysfunction have on  
273 the health of high-risk calves, they are put into stocker production systems to most  
274 efficiently address challenges associated with the increased risk of BRD commonly seen in these  
275 populations. As a result, veterinarians consulting with stocker operations spend a large part of  
276 their time developing arrival health programs. Volumes of scientific information regarding the  
277 design of effective arrival protocols have been published and practitioners often combine these  
278 data with personal observations, clinical experience, and knowledge of different production

279 systems to develop protocols tailored to individual operations. Nevertheless, no one protocol is  
280 appropriate for all operations and there is tremendous opportunity to refine health protocols  
281 using rational, evidence-based, and sustainable decision-making principles.

282         Of the various tools used to mitigate the impact of BRD of stocker calves at the time of  
283 arrival processing, the use of vaccines, metaphylaxis, and immunostimulants has received the  
284 most consistent and well-researched attention. While pharmaceuticals and biologics are  
285 considered the standards for management of BRD risk in stocker facilities, arrival facility design  
286 and considerations related to animal flow are often overlooked. Proper facility design allows for  
287 the development of efficient and effective biocontainment and biosecurity protocols. It also  
288 assists with management of environmental extremes and facilitation of recovery from  
289 transportation events by allowing for the provision of high-quality feedstuffs, clean water, and  
290 comfortable resting areas. Surveys have shown that nearly 100% of calves classified as high-risk  
291 will receive at least one vaccine at arrival processing and another 53% will be revaccinated  
292 between 14 and 21 days on feed. These same surveys also found that nearly 100% of consultants  
293 recommend the use of metaphylaxis to control BRD. Unfortunately, results of trials evaluating  
294 the use of modified-live vaccines in stocker calves at the time of arrival processing have been  
295 conflicting and some data would suggest that this practice might be more harmful than it is  
296 beneficial. Also, not all antimicrobials labeled for metaphylactic use have equivalent efficacies  
297 and the emergence of MDR bacterial pathogens following metaphylaxis is a threat to the long-  
298 term sustainability of this practice. While the use of immunostimulants has not been evaluated to  
299 the same extent, several recent studies have evaluated their impact on morbidity, mortality, and  
300 performance in experimental and commercial settings and the results of these trials, while  
301 somewhat limited, show promise. With these things in mind, the remainder of these proceedings

302 will focus on how the rational implementation of these tools can be used to improve stocker calf  
303 health and welfare, as well as to enhance operational productivity and profitability.

304

### 305 *Arrival facility design*

306 It has been the author's observation that facilities designed to receive cattle are poorly  
307 designed and inadequately utilized. Facilities are often too small for their intended use, and this  
308 necessitates regrouping and resorting arrival cohorts, factors that further increase social stresses  
309 experienced by stocker calves. Also, the size of the carryover population (i.e., processed calves  
310 that remain in the receiving facilities as new groups arrive) can be substantial on some operations  
311 and this allows for carryover of pathogens from one group to the next. In addition, receiving areas  
312 are often unshaded, poorly ventilated and, in some cases, have substantial amounts of  
313 mud/manure accumulation. Poor management of these areas can lead to increased nutritional  
314 demands, reduced performance, decreased comfort, and higher levels of morbidity and mortality.

315 As a general practice, receiving pens should be managed on an all in-all out basis and  
316 resident cattle populations should never be kept in or near the arrival barn to reduce sharing of  
317 pathogens among groups. They should also be designed so that each calf has least 14-20 sq ft of  
318 space and, at times of the year when heat is of concern, a minimum of 2m<sup>2</sup> of shaded area/calf  
319 (natural or artificial) should be provided. Because newly received cattle will often walk the  
320 periphery of their enclosure, feed bunks and water troughs should be placed along fence lines and  
321 oriented perpendicularly to the long axis of the fence to force cattle to run into them. There  
322 should be 18-24 linear inches of feed bunk space and 2 linear inches of water trough space per  
323 calf to provide enough space for all cattle to eat and drink without antagonistic social  
324 interactions. It is often recommended that feed be placed bunks prior to arrival and that this feed

325 be top-dressed with high-quality grass hay to stimulate feed intake and reinvigorate rumen  
326 microbes. Waterers should be allowed to overflow so that the sounds of running water are  
327 recreated and water flow should be such that it allows the consumption of up to 15L water/100  
328 kg of BW/day during hotter times of the year.

329

### 330 *Vaccination*

331 Vaccination against common viral and bacterial respiratory pathogens is a frequently used  
332 and almost universally preferred approach for controlling BRD in almost all cattle populations  
333 and studies have shown that nearly all North American stocker calves are given a vaccine at the  
334 time of arrival processing. Even though the use of vaccines is common, there is very little  
335 evidence available to support this practice. In fact, a recently published systematic review and  
336 network meta-analysis showed no evidence to suggest that the use of viral or bacterial vaccines  
337 at or near arrival reduced the incidence of BRD in feedlot cattle.<sup>30</sup> Moreover, results of recent  
338 trials would suggest that arrival viral vaccination might, in certain situations, even serve to  
339 enhance BRD-associated BRD morbidity and mortality. Indeed, a meta-analysis recently  
340 published by our group found that vaccination (arrival or delayed) had no impact on morbidity  
341 but showed that delaying vaccination by 2-4 weeks reduced mortality by nearly 20%.<sup>31</sup> As a  
342 result, there has been an increasing amount of focus given to delaying vaccination for 14-30 days  
343 to allow stress responses and immune function to return to a homeostatic state. This work has  
344 shown that delaying viral vaccination by 2-4 weeks can improve performance, reduce relapse  
345 risk, decrease mortality, and increase profit per heifer sold when compared to arrival vaccination  
346 or no vaccination at all.<sup>31-33</sup>

347 In onestudy that evaluated the effect of arrival vs delayed viral vaccination, 528 high-risk  
348 calves were assigned to either an arrival vaccination or delayed vaccination (14-days after  
349 arrival) group.<sup>34</sup> Calves in the delayed vaccination group had improved performance and  
350 numerically less BRD-associated morbidity and mortality. Another study that enrolled nearly  
351 5200 auction market derived heifers found that calves receiving their first viral vaccine 30 days  
352 following arrival had a reduced risk of 2<sup>nd</sup> treatment and numerically lower risks of overall  
353 morbidity, total mortality, and BRD-associated mortality than calves vaccinated at arrival.<sup>33</sup> In  
354 another trial that evaluated the impact of arrival vaccination on BRD morbidity and mortality, 80  
355 auction market derived calves were assigned to receive either an arrival viral vaccine or no  
356 vaccine at all. In the calves that received an arrival vaccine, BRD-associated morbidity and  
357 mortality were 3.2 and 8.3 times higher, respectively, than in calves that did not receive a  
358 vaccine.<sup>35</sup> In a study that enrolled 370 high-risk calves and evaluated the effects of arrival viral  
359 vaccination, delayed viral vaccination or no vaccination, calves in the delayed vaccination group  
360 had significantly higher average daily gain and a lower risk of relapse than calves assigned to the  
361 two other treatment groups.<sup>36</sup> In another trial in which 2,600 high-risk heifers were enrolled to  
362 evaluate the effect of 3 different vaccine programs on health and performance, overall mortality  
363 and case fatality risk were lower, while profit/heifer sold was \$10-20 higher in the delayed  
364 vaccination group than in the two arrival vaccination groups.<sup>32</sup>

365 In contrast to viral vaccines, the use of vaccines labeled control of BRD associated with  
366 bacterial pathogens show more promise, specifically those products commonly used for  
367 reduction in disease prevalence and severity associated with *Mh*. Currently available vaccines  
368 contain either modified live *Mh* and/or *Pm*, inactivated bacteria, leukotoxin, or leukotoxin and  
369 other bacterial products. A meta-analysis published in 2012 evaluating the available published



370 research found that *Mhv*vaccines significantly decreased BRD morbidity and tended to reduce  
371 crude mortality in feedlot cattle and beef and dairy calves.<sup>37</sup> In fact, this study showed that  
372 morbidity and mortality associated with BRD in cattle were reduced by 7% and 24%,  
373 respectively, in vaccinated cattle.<sup>37</sup> Nevertheless, a more recently published meta-analysis found  
374 that there were too few published trials using bacterial vaccines in comparable populations to  
375 perform a formal statistical analysis.<sup>38</sup> Therefore, while the use of these products for reducing  
376 disease prevalence and severity is intriguing, more data derived from well-designed clinical trials  
377 are needed before their ultimate benefit can be fully assessed.

378

### 379 *Metaphylaxis*

380 Despite decades of research, the risk of morbidity and mortality associated with BRD has  
381 remained relatively unchanged and common interventions (i.e., vaccination) have been shown to  
382 have little impact on its incidence. However, the use of antimicrobial metaphylaxis in animals  
383 considered to be high-risk for the development of clinical BRD has been shown to reduce  
384 morbidity and mortality significantly when compared to controls. Work recently published by  
385 our group showed that cattle receiving metaphylactic tulathromycin were 78% less likely to be  
386 treated for BRD than cattle given saline.<sup>3</sup> Similarly, Crosby et al found that cattle given  
387 tulathromycin at the time of arrival processing were 3 times less likely to be treated for BRD  
388 than untreated controls.<sup>8</sup> Additionally, these same trials showed significant improvements in  
389 animal performance with cattle receiving metaphylaxis gaining 0.15-0.32 kg/day more than cattle  
390 that not treated.<sup>3,8</sup> In the end, it has been estimated that the use of metaphylaxis in fed cattle has a  
391 direct net return of more than \$530 million and that eliminating metaphylaxis would result in  
392 nearly \$2 billion in surplus losses to beef producers.<sup>39</sup>

393 Today, multiple antimicrobials are labeled for metaphylactic use and the decision to use a  
394 specific antimicrobial is often based on combinations of label approvals, efficacy (real or  
395 perceived), cost-effectiveness, and familiarity.<sup>40</sup> What is most important to the clinician  
396 prescribing antimicrobials for metaphylactic use, however; is clinical efficacy. Choosing  
397 metaphylactic antimicrobials with greater efficacy has the potential to enhance economic returns  
398 to the operation by reducing morbidity, retreatment, and case fatality risks, as well as enhancing  
399 performance. In the ideal world, conclusions related to efficacy are based on evidence from  
400 well-designed, randomized, controlled clinical trials. Fortunately, multiple clinical trials have  
401 been performed to investigate the comparative efficacy of the various antimicrobials commonly  
402 used for metaphylaxis and, in recent years, several meta-analyses have been published to  
403 summarize the results of these trials. A meta-analysis is a statistical representation and summary  
404 of the results of multiple studies. These types of studies provide a combined effect size of a  
405 specific intervention across multiple studies and provide the results in a single location. The  
406 results of one meta-analysis showed that macrolide antimicrobials, specifically tulathromycin,  
407 tilmicosin, and gamithromycin, were more efficacious than other antimicrobials evaluated.<sup>41</sup> A  
408 mixed-treatment meta-analysis published in 2020 showed similar results, with macrolide  
409 antimicrobials, namely tulathromycin and gamithromycin, ranking consistently higher than all  
410 other antimicrobial classes.<sup>42</sup> In addition to meta-analyses, the NNT statistic has been used to  
411 evaluate antimicrobial efficacy.<sup>43</sup> The NNT is the reciprocal of the attributable risk reduction  
412 (ARR), a parameter that describes the difference in the probabilities of an event occurring in  
413 control and treatment groups.<sup>43</sup> Compared to the ARR, the NNT is more straightforward to  
414 interpret and is defined as the number of treatments needed to make a difference in the outcome  
415 of 1 patient. The use of NNT, by expressing the effect of the drug relative to the likelihood of

416 recovery of untreated controls, has the added benefit of incorporating the severity of the disease  
417 challenge into the estimate of drug effect.<sup>43</sup> When efficacy is evaluated using the NNT statistic,  
418 the NNT for macrolides ranges from 2-3 while the NNT for other antimicrobial agents ranges  
419 from 7 to more than 10.<sup>43</sup>

420 Historically, the efficacy of metaphylaxis was rooted in the effect of the antimicrobial  
421 effect of the administered drug on pathogenic bacterial populations. While some of the  
422 numerous benefits of metaphylaxis are certainly related to treatment of animals with subclinical  
423 disease at the time of drug administration, it is likely that metaphylaxis also modifies the  
424 epidemiologic parameters associated with BRD outbreaks in high-risk cattle populations.<sup>44</sup> More  
425 specifically, metaphylactic antimicrobial administration reduces the susceptibility of animals to  
426 BRD by reducing bacterial burdens to a level that is below a threshold sufficient to cause clinical  
427 disease. During this time, stress responses dissipate, and protective immune responses are  
428 mounted. Once therapeutic antimicrobial concentrations are no longer present, specific  
429 immunity is at such level that calves remain healthy in the face of additional challenge.<sup>44</sup>

430 In addition to their disease modifying effects, the macrolides have been shown to have  
431 potent immunomodulatory properties.<sup>45-47</sup> Work performed with this class of antimicrobials in  
432 both cattle and swine has shown that these drugs reduce the secretion of IL-8 from activated  
433 immune cells, decrease the production of reactive oxygen species, induce apoptosis in activated  
434 neutrophils, and enhance macrophage-mediated clearance of necrotic cells.<sup>46,47</sup> Also,  
435 tulathromycin has been shown to prevent alterations in neutrophil phagocytic function caused by  
436 infection with viral respiratory pathogens. In live animals, these immunomodulatory effects  
437 have been shown to reduce pulmonary damage and progression of existing pulmonary lesions.  
438 Thus, the macrolides, in addition to their antimicrobial activity, dampen pro-inflammatory

439 immune responses and have pro-resolving effects that are likely responsible for their clinical  
440 effects. Therefore, metaphylaxis effectively functions as a modifier of the disease reproduction  
441 factor ( $R_0$ ) by forcing a temporary change in the susceptible population that allows animals to  
442 move permanently to a resolved/resistant state through a combination of pathogen burden  
443 reduction, promotion of specific immunity, and modulation of inflammatory responses.

444 While the use of metaphylaxis has significant benefits for the stocker producer, this  
445 practice is not without its detriments. Recent trials have shown an association between the use of  
446 metaphylaxis and the emergence of MDR bacterial isolates in high-risk calves.<sup>8</sup> In addition,  
447 metaphylaxis has been shown to increase total antimicrobial use relative to the use of a pull-and-  
448 treat strategy.<sup>3</sup> With the public perception of antimicrobial use in animal agriculture being what it  
449 is, it is necessary to revisit the approaches taken when deciding whether metaphylaxis is justified  
450 in a specific population. Additionally, economic analyses have shown that identifying and  
451 focusing metaphylactic therapy on only those groups of animals with the highest likelihood of  
452 BRD development has the highest potential for economic payback, a factor that becomes  
453 increasingly important as animal prices, feed costs, and cost of gain increase.<sup>48</sup> It has been shown  
454 in one clinical trial that selective metaphylaxis with florfenicol in only calves with elevated rectal  
455 temperature was not significantly different from metaphylaxis of the entire group when  
456 considering clinical, pathological, and productivity outcomes. Another more recent trial using  
457 216 lightweight beef steers found that the use of random metaphylaxis with tildipirosin in just  
458 66% of calves was not different than medicating 100% of animals when considering health  
459 outcomes. Moreover, this trial showed that production outcomes were maintained, total  
460 antimicrobial use was reduced, and medication costs per steer were decreased. Thus, the use of a  
461 precision medicine approach will become more important in the future and allow for treating

462 animals selectively at the herd level. Taking a targeted, precision-oriented approach will allow  
463 producers to benefit from the numerous benefits of metaphylaxis, while also having the net effect  
464 of dissociating it from the negative connotations that come with mass medication.  
465 Unfortunately, large scale data on when metaphylaxis can be selectively initiated are lacking.  
466 The lack of validated diagnostic tests that have acceptable sensitivity and specificity is a major  
467 limitation to such a strategy. Nevertheless, radio frequency identification (RFID) technologies,  
468 chuteside blood leukocyte differentials, and other precision technologies are under investigation  
469 and hold promise for the future.

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#### 471 ***Immunostimulants***

472 Immunologic dysfunction is common in high-risk stocker calves and modulation of these  
473 dysfunctional responses has the potential to be leveraged to improve outcomes in BRD-affected  
474 cattle. One of the best studied immunostimulants is Zelnote, a product containing non-coding  
475 DNA in a cationic lipid matrix. This product is intended to modulate immune responses through  
476 activation of the innate immune system. *In vitro* work has shown that Zelnote activates IRF3 in  
477 innate immune cells via GAS-STING pathway.<sup>49</sup> Activation of this pathway leads to the  
478 production of type I interferons and, while type I interferons are known primarily for their  
479 antiviral activity, they have also been shown to have potent anti-inflammatory effects. Work has  
480 shown that this interferon subtype increases concentration of the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-  
481 10 in response to LPS exposure or viral infection. In addition, increased concentrations of type I  
482 interferons suppress the activity of the pro-inflammatory cytokines IFN- $\gamma$ , TNF- $\alpha$ , IL-8, and IL-  
483 17. Also, type I interferons promote the differentiation and proliferation of regulatory T cells,  
484 suppress inflammasome activity, and stimulate lymphocyte apoptosis. Thus, stimulation of type I

485 interferon production could lead to a wide array of beneficial immunomodulatory functions in  
486 animals at risk for BRD.

487 In an experimental challenge model, Zelnate was found to be safe for use and reduced  
488 both lung lesion severity (36% reduction) and mortality (5% vs 20%) in treated animals.<sup>50</sup> In a  
489 study evaluating delayed viral respiratory vaccination and immunostimulant inclusion in an  
490 arrival protocol, the addition of Zelnate was found to reduce the number of cattle requiring 3  
491 treatments, BRD case fatality risk, BRD mortality, and overall mortality.<sup>33</sup> In fact, cattle  
492 receiving Zelnate and subsequently diagnosed with BRD were 22% less likely to die than cattle  
493 not receiving treatment.<sup>33</sup> In another trial comparing on-arrival treatment with tulathromycin or  
494 the combination of tulathromycin and Zelnate, cattle given the combination treatment had a  
495 reduction in BRD-associated morbidity, BRD case fatality, and BRD-associated mortality.<sup>51</sup> More  
496 recent work performed in 64 single-source, recently weaned, cross-bred beef calves found that  
497 calves treated with Zelnate had a tendency for improved performance (higher ADG and  
498 feed:gain) than control calves.<sup>52</sup> In addition, cytokine expression profiles in mononuclear cells  
499 isolated from treated calves were different than those of control calves, with calves given Zelnate  
500 having higher levels of IFN- $\gamma$  and lower levels of IL-4 and TNF- $\alpha$ .<sup>52</sup> These data suggest that  
501 Zelnate promoted the development of robust Th-1 immune responses and Th-1 responses are  
502 known to be important for protection against viral and extracellular bacterial  
503 infections. Interestingly, there was an outbreak of BRD that occurred during the trial and 6 of the  
504 63 cattle included in the study died. Of the 6 that died, 5 were in the control group and only 1  
505 was in the treatment group.<sup>52</sup> While these numbers are too small to make definitive conclusions,  
506 they do suggest that inclusion of Zelnate in a receiving protocol might have had a benefit on  
507 reducing mortality in the recently weaned steers included in this study. Therefore, there is

508 evidence to suggest that the use of Zelna has the potential to improve performance, decrease the  
509 number of cattle requiring multiple antimicrobial treatments, reduce disease severity, and  
510 improve survival through restoration of immune homeostasis through modulation of immune  
511 responses.

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