

1 **Title page**

2

3 **Title**

4 Successful management of aspiration pneumopathy without antimicrobial agents in 14 dogs

5

6 **Authors**

7 Simon Cook BSc BVSc MVetMed DipACVECC DipECVECC FHEA MRCVS

8 Thomas Greensmith BVetMed MVetMed DipACVECC DipECVECC MRCVS

9 Karen Humm MA VetMB MSc CertVA DipACVECC DipECVECC FHEA MRCVS

10

11 **Corresponding author**

12 Simon Cook

13 Queen Mother Hospital for Animals, Royal Veterinary College, AL9 7TA

14 Tel: [01707 666366](tel:01707666366)

15

16 **Sources of support**

17 N/A

18

19 **Title**

20 Successful management of aspiration pneumopathy without antimicrobial agents in 14 dogs

21 **Keywords:** antimicrobial resistance, prescription, pneumonia

22 **Abstract**

23 **Objectives**

24 To describe clinical cases of aspiration pneumonitis and pneumonia in dogs which were  
25 successfully managed without antimicrobials.

26 **Methods**

27 Retrospective case review of dogs presenting to a referral teaching hospital between  
28 February 2014 and February 2021. Cases were included when a clinical diagnosis of aspiration  
29 pneumopathy was made (requiring one or more of the following: radiographic evidence of an  
30 aspiration pneumopathy, endotracheal airway sampling consistent with aspiration, and/or a  
31 positive endotracheal airway sample culture) which was not treated with antimicrobial  
32 therapy.

33 **Results**

34 Fourteen cases were identified of which 9 had respiratory signs including increased  
35 respiratory rate or effort (n=8), arterial hypoxaemia (n=2), or a clinician-determined  
36 requirement for oxygen therapy (n=4). Where haematology was performed, 6/9 displayed a  
37 normal neutrophil count with toxic changes, 2 displayed neutrophilia, and 1 displayed  
38 neutropenia with toxic changes. Endotracheal airway sample cytology in 4 cases revealed  
39 neutrophilic inflammation with bacteria, plant material, yeasts and unidentified foreign  
40 material. Where respiratory signs were present, these resolved within 12-36 hours.

41 **Clinical relevance**

42 Immunocompetent animals sustaining aspiration events, even with classical evidence of  
43 pneumonitis or pneumonia, may be managed successfully without antimicrobials.  
44 Radiography alone cannot be used to determine the requirement for antimicrobials. Better  
45 characterisation of the trajectory of the aspiration pneumopathy may enable a significant  
46 reduction in antimicrobial prescription.

47

48

## 49 Introduction

50 The term 'aspiration' is generally used to refer to the inhalation of gastric or oropharyngeal  
51 contents into the respiratory tract beyond the larynx (Raghavendran et al., 2011). The exact  
52 constituents are variable though and may include gastric acid, bacteria, blood, saliva or food  
53 particles (Marik, 2001). Aspiration pneumonitis can be defined as pulmonary injury caused by  
54 inhalation of chemical irritants, while aspiration pneumonia refers to the bacterial infection  
55 that can develop after aspiration, (Goggs, 2014, Marik, 2001) although both direct bacterial  
56 inoculation and subsequent bacterial colonisation are possible explanations for a bacterial  
57 infection after an aspiration event. Clinically aspiration pneumonitis and pneumonia can be  
58 difficult to distinguish as the early phase of both disease courses can be dynamic, and the  
59 exact components of aspirated material are generally unknown (oropharyngeal flora, gastric  
60 contents, or a combination of the two). Bacterial colonisation, infection and any further lung  
61 injury are determined not simply by the pathogen, but also by the host response (Casadevall  
62 and Pirofski, 1999) and may well be prevented by the immune response, the mucociliary  
63 escalator and coughing. Patients in which aspiration pneumonia develops, alongside routine  
64 supportive care, may benefit from antimicrobials. Identification of those patients that will or  
65 will not benefit from antimicrobials alongside routine supportive care, however, has not been  
66 explored.

67 Inappropriate antimicrobial prescription habits in veterinary medicine are likely to be  
68 contributing to antimicrobial resistance and multidrug resistance (Rantala et al., 2004,  
69 Schmidt et al., 2018). Antimicrobial stewardship orientated consensus statements and the  
70 subsequent implementation of their recommendations are targeted at reducing antimicrobial  
71 prescriptions (Weese et al., 2015, Lappin et al., 2017, Singleton et al., 2021, BSAVA/SAMSoc,

72 2018) to promote the use of antimicrobials only in situations in which they are truly required,  
73 thus reducing our reliance on such agents and minimising selection for multidrug resistant  
74 organisms. In dogs with bacterial pneumonia the duration of antimicrobial therapy can often  
75 be reduced without clinical detriment (Wayne et al., 2017, Viitanen et al., 2017) but evidence  
76 of the management of such patients without the use of antimicrobial agents is lacking.

77 It is recognised that antimicrobials are not always required in dogs and cats that have  
78 sustained an aspiration event, even where cytological, microbiological or radiographic  
79 evidence suggests infection (Lappin et al., 2017). There is, however, a lack of published  
80 information to support this. The aims of this study were to review the management of  
81 patients with documented aspiration pneumopathy without the use of antimicrobial agents,  
82 and to generate hypotheses over which cases may be appropriately managed in this way.

83

84

85 **Materials and methods**

86 Computerised records from the [REDACTED] were retrospectively  
87 reviewed for cases of dogs with aspiration pneumopathy between February 2014 and  
88 February 2021. Inclusion criteria were a clinical diagnosis of aspiration pneumopathy that had  
89 been managed without antimicrobials with at least 14 days of follow up clinical notes noting  
90 no antimicrobials being prescribed. Aspiration pneumopathy was defined as one or more of  
91 the following: radiographic or computed tomographic evidence of aspiration as reported by  
92 a board-certified specialist in diagnostic imaging (such as cranioventrally distributed  
93 increased attenuation, alveolar pattern, air bronchograms and consolidation with  
94 maintenance of lung volume)(**Fig 1**), endotracheal airway sampling consistent with aspiration  
95 pneumopathy (such as neutrophilic inflammation, the presence of foreign material, evidence  
96 of oropharyngeal contamination with or without presence of microorganisms), and/or a  
97 positive endotracheal airway sample culture. Data collected included signalment, cause for  
98 the pneumopathy, underlying disease, results of diagnostics performed (complete blood  
99 count, C-reactive protein (CRP), radiographic findings, airway sample analyses) and physical  
100 examination findings at the time of diagnosis of aspiration pneumopathy, including whether  
101 respiratory distress was noted in the clinical record. Respiratory distress was defined as an  
102 increase in respiratory effort, tachypnoea above a rate of 36 breaths per minute at rest, a  
103 clinician-determined requirement for oxygen therapy, documented pulmonary function  
104 impairment on arterial blood gas analysis ( $\text{PaO}_2$  less than or equal to 80mmHg) or a  
105 combination thereof.

106

107

108

109 **Results**

110 Sixteen possible cases were identified for inclusion in the study. Two cases were excluded due  
111 to insufficient follow up, leaving 14 cases in the final study population. The study population  
112 comprised 7 females (of which 5 were neutered) and 7 males (of which 5 were neutered). The  
113 most frequently represented breeds were Labradors (4) and English bulldogs (2), and the  
114 median age was 30 months (range 4-164).

115

116 Seven dogs had an elevated rectal temperature ( $\geq 39^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) but two of these were suspected to  
117 be due to hyperthermia rather than genuine pyrexia. Those considered pyrexia had rectal  
118 temperatures of  $39.1^{\circ}\text{C}$  (n=2),  $39.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  (n=1),  $39.7^{\circ}\text{C}$  (n=1) and  $39.8^{\circ}\text{C}$  (n=1).

119

120 The cause of the aspiration event was an oesophageal foreign body in 5 cases. Other causes  
121 were tremorgenic mycotoxicosis (n=1), tremorgenic mycotoxicosis with cardiopulmonary  
122 arrest (n=1), brachycephalic obstructive airway syndrome (n=2), metaldehyde toxicity (n=1),  
123 pharyngeal stick injury (n=1), paroxysmal movement disorder (n=1) and vomiting (n=1). The  
124 cause of aspiration was unknown in one dog.

125

126 The aspiration pneumopathy was confirmed by radiography alone in 10 cases, and by  
127 endotracheal wash cytology and culture alone in 4 cases. Where the timescale from onset of  
128 aspiration to radiographic documentation of a pneumopathy was confirmed, these were after  
129 6, 12, 22, 24 and 36 hours.

130

131 Respiratory distress was present in 9/14 dogs. These included dogs with increased respiratory  
132 rate (RR) (n=3), or increased effort (n=1) alone; increased RR and receipt of oxygen (n=2),

133 increased RR, increased respiratory effort and receipt of oxygen therapy (n=1), increased RR,  
134 receipt of oxygen and arterial hypoxemia (n=1), and increased RR and effort and arterial  
135 hypoxemia (n=1).

136

137 In the 2 dogs that were documented to be hypoxemic PaO<sub>2</sub> was noted to be 58.9mmHg and  
138 74.9mmHg, PaO<sub>2</sub>:FiO<sub>2</sub> 280 and 356 and A-a gradient 43.6 and 38.5, respectively.

139

140 Of the 9 cases in which a contemporaneous complete blood count was performed, 6 displayed  
141 neutrophil toxicity without neutrophilia (median 11.05 x 10<sup>9</sup>/L, range 3.83 – 14.97), 2  
142 displayed neutrophilia (16.84 x 10<sup>9</sup>/L (reference interval 3 - 11.5); 19.35 x 10<sup>9</sup>/L (reference  
143 interval 6-17.1)) with unremarkable neutrophil morphology, and one displayed neutropenia  
144 (1.93 x 10<sup>9</sup>/L, reference interval 3 - 11.5) with mild toxic changes.

145

146 Of the 8 cases in which serum CRP was measured contemporaneously, 5 were elevated  
147 (>30mg/L) at 351.5 mg/L, 143.5mg/L, 113 mg/L, 96.5 mg/L and 79.9mg/L. The other three  
148 dogs had serum CRP concentrations of 5 mg/L, 10.2 mg/L and 17.4 mg/L. Two patients were  
149 documented to be hypoglycaemic (3.9mmol/L and 4.6mmol/L (RI 4.7-7.3mmol/L)).

150

151 Endotracheal airway sample cytology from the four cases in which it was available revealed  
152 marked neutrophilic inflammation with extracellular bacteria, pollen and yeast (culture  
153 yielded *Streptococcus equi subsp. Zooepidemicus*); abundant heterogenous bacteria, yeasts  
154 and foreign material (plant material and suspected charcoal) with evidence of squamous  
155 epithelial cells (culture yielded all of the following: two types of *E. coli*, alpha-haemolytic  
156 *Streptococcus* spp, *Enterococcus faecium*, *Klebsiella pneumoniae*, another uncharacterised



157 gram negative bacilli, and a profuse growth of *Penicillium* spp); neutrophilic inflammation  
158 without evidence of bacteria (culture negative); and neutrophilic inflammation with  
159 extracellular rods and unidentified crystalline material (culture yielded bacterial growth but  
160 was not further classified or identified).

161

162 Where respiratory signs were documented, these normalised in 12-36 hours in all cases. The  
163 dog with arterial hypoxemia of 58.9mmHg had a PaO<sub>2</sub> of 76.1mmHg (PaO<sub>2</sub>:FiO<sub>2</sub> 362)  
164 documented 48 hours later. The other dog with documented hypoxemia was not sampled  
165 again due to clinical improvement. All dogs were discharged with normal respiratory rate and  
166 effort after a median of 2 (range 1-5) days.

167 **Discussion**

168 This study documents the concept that aspiration events can induce a spectrum of clinical  
169 scenarios including clinically silent but radiographically and cytologically evident  
170 inflammation and infection. Furthermore, even when a more classical clinical picture of an  
171 aspiration pneumopathy is present, including respiratory distress, hypoxemia, pyrexia and  
172 evidenc of systemic inflammation, that antimicrobials are not always required.

173

174 The decision-making and patient selection for withholding of antimicrobials in such patients  
175 is an emerging field, without clear recommendations available. Without clinical signs, or with  
176 documentation of a purely inflammatory insult, antimicrobials are not justified  
177 (Raghavendran et al., 2011). Several of the cases described here would appear to bridge the  
178 gap between purely a chemical pneumonitis and an established pneumonia which may  
179 normally be considered to require antimicrobials.

180 In people, where a pneumonitis is suspected or diagnosed, antimicrobials do not tend to be  
181 prescribed, but are considered in more severe cases, in patients receiving gastric acid  
182 suppressant medications or in those with small bowel obstruction due to the greater risk of a  
183 larger or more pathogenic bacterial load. (Mandell and Niederman, 2019). Similar caveats  
184 may be applicable in veterinary medicine considering the known, albeit poorly characterised,  
185 alteration of gastrointestinal flora by proton pump inhibition (Garcia-Mazcorro et al., 2012,  
186 Sullivan et al., 2016).

187

188 At the authors' hospital the criteria utilised when considering antimicrobial therapy in cases  
189 of aspiration pneumopathy include the patient's systemic stability, the underlying cause, the  
190 subjective severity of any respiratory distress, and the time after which the aspiration was  
191 suspected to have occurred that the patient is being evaluated. For example, a systemically  
192 well patient with recent (<12 hours) suspicion or documentation of an aspiration event and a  
193 transient disease process such as oesophageal foreign body or intoxication, even if displaying  
194 mild to moderate respiratory clinical signs, would be considered a candidate for monitoring  
195 further rather than immediate prescription of antimicrobials. Should the patient fail to  
196 improve or show signs of deterioration during monitoring, antimicrobials could then be  
197 instituted. This would especially be the case where culture is outstanding, and is based on the  
198 pathophysiology of sterile aspiration events, which experimentally includes biphasic  
199 inflammation (at approximately 1 and 4 hours)(Kennedy et al., 1989) but which is maximal at  
200 6-8 hours and occurs independently of the presence or proliferation of any bacterial isolates  
201 (Knight et al., 1993).

202 The authors' approach is not novel practice. The International Society for Companion Animal  
203 Infectious Diseases (ISCAID) guidelines suggest that 'no treatment' is an option in acutely  
204 affected patients after aspiration events where there is no evidence of systemic sepsis (Lappin  
205 et al., 2017). However, this study is the first documentation of such a practice in clinical  
206 veterinary medicine for aspiration pneumopathy. In the current climate of antimicrobial  
207 prescription tendencies, it is likely that many practitioners would have prescribed  
208 antimicrobials in many of these cases, and indeed it is likely many cases excluded due to use  
209 of antimicrobials could also have been managed without such agents. In people, it is similarly  
210 difficult to distinguish between aspiration pneumonitis and aspiration pneumonia, and

211 despite recommendations, prescription of broad-spectrum antimicrobials for patients that  
212 are likely only to have pneumonitis appears common, at least while bacterial culture results  
213 are outstanding (Rebuck et al., 2001, Son et al., 2017), although it has specifically been  
214 appreciated that anaerobic cover appears less important than aerobic (Marik and Careau,  
215 1999).

216

217 In addition to the volume of material aspirated, the two variables that appear most significant  
218 in inducing an inflammatory response are the acidity and the particulate matter content of  
219 the aspirated material. Both a pH <2.5 and the presence of particulate matter resulted in a  
220 more extensive inflammatory response in an experimental rabbit model than delivery of fluid  
221 with a higher pH or filtered fluid into the lungs. The presence of particulate matter in  
222 particular appearing to propagate a macrophagic infiltration on top of the initial neutrophilic  
223 component (Teabeaut, 1952, Knight et al., 1993). It is possible that dogs with a pneumonitis  
224 originating from aspiration of saliva develop less of an inflammatory response owing to the  
225 alkalinity of the material aspirated, but this cannot be safely assumed without more  
226 information.

227

228 Antimicrobial resistance is, rightfully, of great concern in both human and veterinary  
229 medicine. Reducing both the frequency with which antimicrobials are prescribed, and the  
230 length of time for which they are prescribed, is expected to be of benefit to both disciplines  
231 and is a core tenet of antimicrobial stewardship in both human and veterinary healthcare.  
232 (Lappin et al., 2017, Weese et al., 2015)

233 Many of the recommended treatment protocols for antimicrobial use in veterinary medicine  
234 have little or no evidence base. Although stated in many reference texts, it is out-dated to  
235 administer antimicrobials for 3-4 weeks to patients with aspiration pneumonia or until 1 week  
236 after radiographic resolution. Significantly shorter prescription lengths will usually suffice  
237 (Wayne et al., 2017, Viitanen et al., 2017) and the ISCAID guidelines suggest antimicrobial use  
238 be re-evaluated within 10-14 days, being extended, adjusted or ceased based on the clinical  
239 response (Lappin et al., 2017). In people with aspiration pneumonia, courses of 5-7 days in  
240 length are recommended where no extrapulmonary foci of infection exist, and where a good  
241 response to initial treatment has been demonstrated (Mandell and Niederman, 2019).

242 According to the American College of Veterinary Internal Medicine (ACVIM) consensus  
243 statement on therapeutic antimicrobial use in animals and antimicrobial resistance “a  
244 common misconception is the need to complete a minimum duration of an antimicrobial drug  
245 to prevent the emergence of resistance”. The committee also goes on to state that  
246 antimicrobials should never be continued once there is clinical and microbiological evidence  
247 that an infection has been eliminated simply because of a perceived need for a minimum  
248 duration of administration (Weese et al., 2015).

249

250 Another common misconception that has been partly addressed by the cases described  
251 herein, is that radiographic evidence of aspiration pneumonia or pneumonitis lags  
252 significantly behind the aspiration event. Whilst this can happen, two of the dogs described  
253 had radiographic evidence of aspiration pneumonitis within 12 hours of the onset of clinical  
254 signs, one after just 6 hours. If the patient has clinical signs of aspiration, and radiography  
255 would help in the decision-making process, then pursuing radiography early should be

256 considered, without concern for a false negative result. If alternative confirmation of  
257 aspiration is required whilst the lesion is radiographically silent, then airway sampling,  
258 clinicopathological variables, and point of care ultrasound examinations may also be used.  
259 Ultrasonographic findings are not reported in this study but would be particularly useful in  
260 any prospective evaluation. It is interesting to note that an inflammatory leukogram and (in  
261 some cases quite markedly) elevated CRP were present in many of these patients, suggesting  
262 these parameters are not necessarily useful in determining whether antimicrobial therapy is  
263 required, which is consistent with human medicine (Raghavendran et al., 2011).

264

265 This study is inherently limited by its retrospective nature, with cases expected to have been  
266 lost due to inadequate data capture. Also, many patients which may have been successfully  
267 treated without antimicrobials are likely to have been prescribed them, reducing the number  
268 available for the study. There may also have been patients in which this approach was initially  
269 attempted but was unsuccessful. The importance of careful monitoring of patients treated in  
270 this manner, to identify any deterioration or progression of respiratory distress which would  
271 likely indicate the need for more aggressive therapy including administration of  
272 antimicrobials, should therefore be emphasised.

273

274 Reviewing these cases serves two main purposes; to challenge the blanket prescription of  
275 antimicrobials in dogs with aspiration, and as a starting point for interrogation of the criteria  
276 that ought to be satisfied for justification of antimicrobial prescription in such cases. Further  
277 investigations into the incidence and clinical relevance of aspiration events are required,  
278 including improved stratification and identification of those subsequently requiring

279 antimicrobials. The recommended course length of antimicrobial prescription for dogs with  
280 aspiration pneumonia also requires a more evidence-based approach.

281

282 Incidental documentation of aspiration without the presence of clinical signs does not require  
283 antimicrobial treatment and simply monitoring of those patients would be appropriate. In  
284 patients with clinical signs of pneumonia, but which are systemically stable, the utility of a  
285 'delayed prescription' may also be considered, i.e., antimicrobial provision if the patient fails  
286 to improve in the expected timeframe or displays more overt or concerning clinical signs  
287 referable to pneumonia. There is very likely a subpopulation of immunocompromised animals  
288 in which this approach is undesirable. Characterisation of the canine pulmonary microbiome  
289 and interactions between that and the gastrointestinal microbiome may also be prerequisites  
290 to truly comprehending the pathogenesis of aspiration events (Mandell and Niederman,  
291 2019).

292

293

294

295

296 **Figure Legend**

297

298 **Fig 1**

299 Representative examples of radiographs displaying aspiration pneumopathy affecting the  
300 right middle (a) and left cranial lung lobes (b and c).



301 **References**

302

303 BSAVA/SAMSOC 2018. BSAVA/SAMSoc Guide to Responsible Use of Antibacterials: PROTECT  
304 ME. *In: SAMSOC, B. A.* (ed.).

305 CASADEVALL, A. & PIROFSKI, L. A. 1999. Host-pathogen interactions: redefining the basic  
306 concepts of virulence and pathogenicity. *Infect Immun*, 67, 3703-13.

307 GARCIA-MAZCORRO, J. F., SUCHODOLSKI, J. S., JONES, K. R., CLARK-PRICE, S. C., DOWD, S. E.,  
308 MINAMOTO, Y., MARKEL, M., STEINER, J. M. & DOSSIN, O. 2012. Effect of the proton  
309 pump inhibitor omeprazole on the gastrointestinal bacterial microbiota of healthy  
310 dogs. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*, 80, 624-36.

311 GOGGS, R. A. N., BOAG, A. K. 2014. Aspiration pneumonitis and pneumonia. *In: SILVERSTEIN,*  
312 *D. C., HOPPER, K.* (ed.) *Small animal critical care medicine*. 2nd ed.: Elsevier.

313 KENNEDY, T. P., JOHNSON, K. J., KUNKEL, R. G., WARD, P. A., KNIGHT, P. R. & FINCH, J. S. 1989.  
314 Acute acid aspiration lung injury in the rat: biphasic pathogenesis. *Anesth Analg*, 69,  
315 87-92.

316 KNIGHT, P. R., RUTTER, T., TAIT, A. R., COLEMAN, E. & JOHNSON, K. 1993. Pathogenesis of  
317 gastric particulate lung injury: a comparison and interaction with acidic pneumonitis.  
318 *Anesth Analg*, 77, 754-60.

319 LAPPIN, M. R., BLONDEAU, J., BOOTHE, D., BREITSCHWERDT, E. B., GUARDABASSI, L., LLOYD,  
320 D. H., PAPICH, M. G., RANKIN, S. C., SYKES, J. E., TURNIDGE, J. & WEESE, J. S. 2017.  
321 Antimicrobial use Guidelines for Treatment of Respiratory Tract Disease in Dogs and  
322 Cats: Antimicrobial Guidelines Working Group of the International Society for  
323 Companion Animal Infectious Diseases. *J Vet Intern Med*, 31, 279-294.

324 MANDELL, L. A. & NIEDERMAN, M. S. 2019. Aspiration Pneumonia. *N Engl J Med*, 380, 651-  
325 663.

326 MARIK, P. E. 2001. Aspiration pneumonitis and aspiration pneumonia. *N Engl J Med*, 344, 665-  
327 71.

328 MARIK, P. E. & CAREAU, P. 1999. The role of anaerobes in patients with ventilator-associated  
329 pneumonia and aspiration pneumonia: a prospective study. *Chest*, 115, 178-83.

330 RAGHAVENDRAN, K., NEMZEK, J., NAPOLITANO, L. M. & KNIGHT, P. R. 2011. Aspiration-  
331 induced lung injury. *Crit Care Med*, 39, 818-26.

332 RANTALA, M., LAHTI, E., KUHALAMPIL, J., PESONEN, S., JARVINEN, A. K., SAIJONMAA, K. &  
333 HONKANEN-BUZALSKI, T. 2004. Antimicrobial resistance in *Staphylococcus* spp.,  
334 *Escherichia coli* and *Enterococcus* spp. in dogs given antibiotics for chronic  
335 dermatological disorders, compared with non-treated control dogs. *Acta Vet Scand*,  
336 45, 37-45.

337 REBUCK, J. A., RASMUSSEN, J. R. & OLSEN, K. M. 2001. Clinical aspiration-related practice  
338 patterns in the intensive care unit: a physician survey. *Crit Care Med*, 29, 2239-44.

339 SCHMIDT, V. M., PINCHBECK, G., MCINTYRE, K. M., NUTTALL, T., MCEWAN, N., DAWSON, S.  
340 & WILLIAMS, N. J. 2018. Routine antibiotic therapy in dogs increases the detection of  
341 antimicrobial-resistant faecal *Escherichia coli*. *J Antimicrob Chemother*, 73, 3305-  
342 3316.

343 SINGLETON, D. A., RAYNER, A., BRANT, B., SMYTH, S., NOBLE, P. M., RADFORD, A. D. &  
344 PINCHBECK, G. L. 2021. A randomised controlled trial to reduce highest priority  
345 critically important antimicrobial prescription in companion animals. *Nat Commun*,  
346 12, 1593.

347 SON, Y. G., SHIN, J. & RYU, H. G. 2017. Pneumonitis and pneumonia after aspiration. *J Dent*  
348 *Anesth Pain Med*, 17, 1-12.

349 SULLIVAN, L. A., WAKAYAMA, J., BOSCAN, P. L., HYATT, D. R., TWEDT, D. C., LAPPIN, M. R. &  
350 DARGATZ, D. A. 2016. The effects of omeprazole therapy on bacterial colonization of  
351 the pharynx in healthy dogs. *J Vet Emerg Crit Care (San Antonio)*, 26, 300-4.

352 TEABEAUT, J. R., 2ND 1952. Aspiration of gastric contents; an experimental study. *Am J Pathol*,  
353 28, 51-67.

354 VIITANEN, S. J., LAPPALAINEN, A. K., CHRISTENSEN, M. B., SANKARI, S. & RAJAMAKI, M. M.  
355 2017. The Utility of Acute-Phase Proteins in the Assessment of Treatment Response  
356 in Dogs With Bacterial Pneumonia. *J Vet Intern Med*, 31, 124-133.

357 WAYNE, A., DAVIS, M., SINNOTT, V. B. & BRACKER, K. 2017. Outcomes in dogs with  
358 uncomplicated, presumptive bacterial pneumonia treated with short or long course  
359 antibiotics. *Can Vet J*, 58, 610-613.

360 WEESE, J. S., GIGUERE, S., GUARDABASSI, L., MORLEY, P. S., PAPICH, M., RICCIUTO, D. R. &  
361 SYKES, J. E. 2015. ACVIM consensus statement on therapeutic antimicrobial use in  
362 animals and antimicrobial resistance. *J Vet Intern Med*, 29, 487-98.

363