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Additional Information

1 **Novel microbiological system for antibiotic detection in ovine milk**

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7 **Abstract**

8 This article presents a microbiological system composed of a “BT” bioassay (Beta-
9 lactams and Tetracyclines) and a “QS” bioassay (Quinolones and Sulfonamides). The
10 “BT” bioassay contains spores of *Geobacillus stearothermophilus*, bromocresol purple
11 and cloramphenicol in a culture medium (incubation time: 2.45 h), while the “QS”
12 bioassay uses spores of *Bacillus subtilis*, trifenylnitrophenol - toluidine blue and
13 trimethoprim in a suitable culture medium (incubation time: 5.5 h). The detection
14 capability (CC_β) of 27 antimicrobial agents in ovine milk were determined by logistic
15 regression models. Thus, the “BT” bioassay detects amoxicillin, ampicillin, penicillin
16 "G", cloxacillin, oxacillin, cephalexin, cefoperazone, ceftiofur, chlortetracycline,
17 oxytetracycline, tetracycline, neomycin, gentamicin and tylosin, while “QS” bioassay
18 detects: ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, marbofloxacin, sulfadiazine, sulfadimethoxine,
19 sulfamerazine, sulfamethazine, sulfamethoxazole, sulfathiazole, erythromycin,
20 lincomycin and spiramycin at levels close to their respective Maximum Residue Limits.
21 The simultaneous use of both bioassays detects a large number of antibiotics in milk
22 given each method’s adequate complementary sensitivity.

23 **Keywords:** ovine milk; system; bioassay; detection

24 **1. Introduction**

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25 In recent years, increased use of antibiotics to treat mastitis and other diseases of small
26 ruminants was observed due to the intensification of milk production (Buswell and
27 Barber, 1989).

28 The presence of antibiotic residuals in milk poses a potential risk for the consumers as
29 they may cause allergic type reactions, and may interfere with intestinal flora and the
30 development of resistance to antibiotics (Demoly and Romano, 2005; Dewdney et al.,
31 1991; Currie et al., 1998; Wilke et al., 2005). Furthermore, antibiotic residues in milk
32 can lead to important losses in fermented products, such as cheese-making (Berruga et
33 al., 2007; Brady and Katz, 1988; Mouroto and Loussouorn, 1981; Packham et al., 2001).

34 Therefore, monitoring antibiotic residues is very important in controlling food safety.
35 For these reasons, several control authorities such as the European Union (Council
36 Directive, 2009) and Codex (Codex Alimentarius, 2009) determine the Maximum
37 Residue Level (MRL) for the presence of specified veterinary residues in milk.

38 To this end, several commercially available tests have been developed for the swiftly
39 and precisely detect of the presence of antibiotic residuals in milk (Toldra and Reig,
40 2006). Many of the screening tests are based on the inhibition of *G. stearothermophilus*
41 subsp. *calidolactis* caused by the presence of drug residues. However, this bacteria does
42 not have sensitivity to detect many of the antibiotics used to treat livestock such as
43 quinolones (Montero et al., 2005), spiramycin, lincomycin (Linage et al., 2007),
44 erythromycin and streptomycin (Molina et al., 2003; Althaus et al., 2002, 2003).

45 In addition, rapid methods are specific to small groups of antibiotics, but cannot
46 increase the number of molecules to be controlled (Althaus et al., 2001; Roca et al.,
47 2009).

48 Given the absence of a single ideal screening method that is sensitive to a large number
49 of antimicrobial agents in ovine milk, the objective of this study was to evaluate the

50 application of a microbiological system that uses two bacteria test (*G.*
51 *stearothermophilus* and *B. subtilis*) to detect a larger number of antibiotics in milk and
52 to ensure consumer food safety.

53 **2. Materials and methods**

54 *2.1. Preparation of microplates*

55 **The “BT” bioassay** (*G. stearothermophilus*): Plate Count Agar (Difco[®], Ref. 247940)
56 culture medium (6.25 g/l casein peptone, 2.25 g/l yeast extract and 15 g/l agar) fortified
57 with glucose (10 g/l; Sigma[®], Ref 158968) was used. The culture medium was sterilized
58 to 121°C for 15 min. Then, it was cooled to 50±1°C and the pH was adjusted to a value
59 of 7.0±0.1. Once prepared, the spores suspension of *G. stearothermophilus* subsp.
60 *calidolactis* C-953 (10⁷ spores/ml, Merck[®], Ref. 1.11499), bromocresol purple indicator
61 (0.05 mg/l, Mallinckrodt[®], Ref. 2090) and chloramphenicol (400 µg/ml, Sigma
62 Aldrich[®], Ref. C0378) were added in accordance with Nagel et al. (2009).

63 **The “QS” bioassay** (*B. subtilis*): Müller Hinton (38 g/l, Biokar Diagnostics[®], Ref.
64 BK048HA) culture medium fortified with glucose (10 g/l; Sigma Aldrich[®], Ref.
65 G7528), trimethoprim (400 mg/l; Sigma Aldrich[®], Ref. T7883), 2,3,5-
66 triphenyltetrazolium chloride (150 mg/l; Sigma Aldrich[®], Ref. T8877) and toluidine blue
67 (15 mg/l; Sigma Aldrich[®], Ref. 198161) was employed. Once prepared, the culture
68 medium was inoculated with the spore’s suspension of *B. subtilis* BGA (Merck[®], Ref.
69 1.10649) under sterile conditions in accordance with Nagel (2009).

70 Then 100 µl of the culture medium were added to each individual well of microtiter
71 plate using an electronic pipette (Eppendorf Research[®] Pro). Next, these microplates
72 were sealed with aluminized film and conserved at 4°C until use.

73 *2.2. Animals and ewe milk samples*

74 The ewes were fed with natural pastures of *Melilotus albus*, *Trifolium repens* and
75 *Lolium multiflorum*, during the lactation period. Individual samples were collected from
76 40 Pampinta (Milchschaaff x Corriedale) ewes from the experimental farm at the Escuela
77 de Agricultura Ganadería y Granja of the Universidad Nacional del Litoral in Argentina
78 (south latitude: 31° 28', west longitude: 60° 55'). Animals did not receive any
79 antimicrobial substances, and the samples were collected from ewes in the period
80 between 30 and 90 days postpartum, from the recorder jar during morning milking and
81 placed in 100 ml sterile plastic containers. Milk samples were kept at 4° C throughout
82 the experiment.

83 2.3. Antimicrobial solutions and spiked samples

84 Drugs for the preparation of antimicrobial solutions were stored and handled according
85 to the manufacturers' instructions before use. All the dilutions were prepared in 10 mL
86 volumetric flasks at the time when analyses were carried out to avoid possible
87 inconvenience due to instability. Antimicrobial solutions were prepared from the
88 respective stock solution in a single step using antimicrobial-free milk (IDF, 2002), as
89 determined by the “BT” and “QS” bioassays.

90 The dose-response curves of the antimicrobial agents were established in line with the
91 Codex Alimentarius guidelines (Codex Alimentarius, 2010). To this end, 8
92 concentrations were prepared with different levels of each drug (Table 1). For each
93 concentration, 24 replicates were prepared using antibiotic-free ovine milk samples
94 obtained from individual animals. Then, 50 µl milk samples were added to the
95 individual wells of the “BT” and “QS” Bioassays. Plates were sealed with adhesive
96 bands and incubated at 64±1°C for 2.5 h (“BT” Bioassay) and 40±1°C for 5.5 h (“QS”
97 Bioassay) according to the colour change of the negative samples. Visual interpretation
98 was carried out by 3 qualified individuals and evaluated as “negative” (BT” bioassay:

99 yellow and “QS” bioassay: rose) or “positive” (BT” bioassay: purple and “QS”
100 bioassay: blue). For the statistical calculations, those visual results that presented at
101 least 2 similar interpretations were considered.

102 2.3. Detection capability (CC_{β}) and statistical analysis

103 To determine the detection capability (CC_{β}), 8 betalactams (amoxicillin, ampicillin,
104 penicillin "G", cloxacillin, oxacillin, cephalixin, cefoperazone, ceftiofur), 3
105 aminoglycosides (gentamicina, neomycin, streptomycin), 4 macrolides (erythromycin,
106 lincomycin, tylosin, spiramycin), 3 quinolones (ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin,
107 marbofloxacin), 6 sulfonamides (sulfadiazine, sulfadimethoxine, sulfamerazine,
108 sulfamethazine, sulfamethoxazole, sulfathiazole) and 3 tetracyclines (chlortetracycline,
109 oxytetracycline, tetracycline) were analyzed according to Codex Alimentarius
110 guidelines (Codex Alimentarius, 2010).

111 The results were obtained using the SAS[®] Logistic procedure (SAS[®], 2001). The logistic
112 regression model was also used to calculate the detection limits, as follows:

$$113 \quad L_{ij} = \text{logit} [P_{ij}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 [A]_i + \varepsilon_{ij} \quad (1)$$

114 Where: L_{ij} = lineal logistic model; $[P_{ij}] = \text{logit} [P_p/(1-P_p)]$: the probability of a “positive”
115 response / probability of a “negative” response); β_0, β_1 = the coefficients estimated for the
116 logistic regression models; $[A]_i$ = antimicrobial concentration. ε_{ij} = residual error. The
117 concordance coefficient (SAS[®], 2001) was applied as a rank correlation between the
118 observed responses and the predicted probabilities.

119 The CC_{β} were estimated as concentrations at which 95% of the positive results (Codex
120 Alimentarius, 2010).

121 3. Results and discussion

122 Table 2 shows the results obtained by applying the logistic regression model to the
123 visual interpretations of the “BT” and “QS” bioassays for the 27 antimicrobials
124 analyzed in sheep’s milk.

125 The “ β_1 ” parameters indicate the slopes of the dose-response curves. Therefore, high
126 values of this coefficient show a good sensitivity of the bacteria test to detect a
127 particular antibiotic in milk.

128 The “BT” bioassay presents high “ β_1 ” coefficients values to beta-lactam antibiotics,
129 tetracyclines, tylosin and neomycin, while the “QS” bioassay offers high values for this
130 coefficients for most beta-lactams (except cloxacillin, cefoperazone and ceftiofur[®]),
131 macrolides, quinolones and sulfonamides.

132 The high “ β_1 ” coefficients values, which use *G. stearothersophilus* for the detection of
133 tylosin and beta-lactam antibiotics in ovine milk, were indicated with the BRT[®] AiM
134 (Molina et al., 2003), Delvotest[®] SP (Althaus et al., 2002), Charm Blue-Yellow (Linage
135 et al., 2007) and Eclipse[®] 100ov (Montero et al., 2005) methods. In addition, the last
136 two methods presented high “ β_1 ” parameters to sulfonamides. For the “QS” bioassay,
137 Nagel (2009) indicated high “ β_1 ” coefficients values when analyzing samples of cow's
138 milk fortified with sulfonamide.

139 The concordance coefficients obtained by applying of the logistic model were high for
140 both bioassays. They fell between 70.49% for amoxicillin (“BT” bioassay) and 91.67%
141 for sulfadimethoxine (“BT” bioassay), demonstrating the correct adjustment achieved
142 by the logistic model.

143 The detection capability (CC_{β}), calculated as concentrations which produce 95% of the
144 positive results in dose-response curves (Codex Alimentarius, 2010), are summarized in
145 Table 3.

146 As regards the beta-lactam antibiotics analyzed, the “BT” bioassay presented similar
147 CC_{β} to the respective MRLs (except cefoperazone), while the “QS” bioassay detected
148 only to penicillin residues at the MRL level. The detection capability for the “BT”
149 bioassay for beta-lactams were similar to the values calculated for BRT[®] AiM
150 ($CC_{\beta\text{Amoxicillin}} = 6 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Ampicillin}} = 6 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cloxacillin}} = 51 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Penicillin}} = 2 \mu\text{g/l}$,
151 $CC_{\beta\text{Cephalexin}} = 270 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cefoperazone}} = 92 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Ceftiofur}} = 120 \mu\text{g/l}$) for Molina et
152 al. (2003), Eclipse[®] 100ov ($CC_{\beta\text{Amoxicillin}} = 7 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cloxacillin}} = 68 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Penicillin}} = 5$
153 $\mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cephalexin}} = 115 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Cefoperazone}} = 110 \mu\text{g/l}$) for Montero et al. (2005) and
154 Charm[®] Blue-Yellow ($CC_{\beta\text{Ampicillin}} = 5\text{-}6 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cloxacillin}} = 33\text{-}42 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Penicillin}} = 3\text{-}4$
155 $\mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cephalexin}} = 160\text{-}202 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cefoperazone}} = 73\text{-}82 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Ceftiofur}} = 96\text{-}107$
156 $\mu\text{g/l}$) for Linage et al. (2007), which also used *G. stearotherophilus* as the bacteria
157 test. However, Althaus et al. (2002) indicated lower detection capability when using the
158 Delvotest[®] SP method with ovine milk samples ($CC_{\beta\text{Amoxicillin}} = 3 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Ampicillin}} = 2$
159 $\mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cloxacillin}} = 18 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Penicillin}} = 1 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cephalexin}} = 40 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Cefoperazone}} =$
160 $20 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Ceftiofur}} = 33 \mu\text{g/l}$).

161 Of the three aminoglycosides analyzed, only neomycin residues were detected by the
162 “BT” bioassay at levels close to the MRL (1500 $\mu\text{g/l}$), while gentamycin must be
163 present at higher concentrations (450 $\mu\text{g/l}$) to be detected by this bioassay. Neither
164 bioassay was able to detect streptomycin residues (5000 $\mu\text{g/l}$ for “BT” bioassay and
165 4500 $\mu\text{g/l}$ for “SQ” bioassay). It is necessary to emphasize that the BRT[®] AiM (630 $\mu\text{g/l}$
166 of neomycin, 3700 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of gentamycin and 6000 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of streptomycin), Delvotest[®] SP
167 (2600 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of neomycin, 1200 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of gentamycin and 6100 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of streptomycin),
168 Eclipse[®] 100ov (9100 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of neomycin, 3140 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of gentamycin and 10100 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of
169 streptomycin) and Charm[®] Blue-Yellow (444-542 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of neomycin, 355-382 $\mu\text{g/l}$ of

170 gentamycin and 3063-3593 µg/l of streptomycin) methods obtained appropriate
171 detection capability for neomycin (except Eclipse[®] 100ov), high ones for gentamicin,
172 but proved inadequate for streptomycin in ovine milk according to Althaus et al. (2002),
173 Linage et al. (2007), Molina et al. (2003) and Montero et al. (2005), respectively.

174 For macrolides, Table 3 shows that the CC_β for the “QS” bioassay for erythromycin (60
175 µg/l), lincomycin (280 µg/l), tylosin (140 µg/l) and spiramycin (380 µg/l) were slightly
176 above their respective MRLs, indicating good sensitivity for *B. subtilis* for that family
177 of antibiotics in milk. On the contrary, “BT” bioassay presents a detection capability for
178 tylosin (100 µg/l) closer to their MRL (50 µg/l) if compared to the “QS” bioassay. The
179 low sensitivity of *G. stearothermophilus* to detect erythromycin (630 µg/l for BRT[®]
180 AiM, 830 µg/l for Delvotest[®] SP, 750 µg/l for Eclipse[®] 100ov, and 444-522 µg/l for
181 Charm[®] Blue-Yellow) and spiramycin (18100 µg/l for Eclipse[®] 100ov, and 1106-1346
182 µg/l for Charm Blue-Yellow) was pointed out by those authors.

183 Of the three quinolones tested, ciprofloxacin (160 µg/l) and enrofloxacin (230 µg/l)
184 were detected by the “QS” bioassay at levels near their MRL (100 µg/l), while
185 marbofloxacin residues must be present in milk at a higher level (280 µg/l) than the
186 MRL (75 µg/l) to be detected by this method. In contrast, the “BT” bioassay was not
187 sensitive to these antibiotics because it presented high CC_β for ciprofloxacin (2280
188 µg/l), enrofloxacin (2770 µg/l) and marbofloxacin (5540 µg/l) in ovine milk. It is
189 noteworthy that Montero, Althaus et al. (2005) reported high CC_β for ciprofloxacin
190 (5100 µg/l) and enrofloxacin (4000 µg/l) when using the Eclipse[®] 100ov method to
191 analyze ovine milk samples fortified with quinolones. Similarly, Linage et al. (2007)
192 reported a wide range (41000-46000 µg/l) for the enrofloxacin residues analyzed by the
193 Charm[®] Blue-Yellow method.

194 Once again, these studies indicate that the use of these commercial methods containing
195 *G. stearotherophilus* is inadequate to control quinolones residues in ovine milk, and
196 that the use of another bacteria test (e.g., *B. subtilis*) is necessary.

197 Regarding sulfonamides, Table 3 shows that the "QS" bioassay presented similar
198 detection capability ($CC_{\beta\text{Sulfadiazine}} = 157 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfadimethoxine}} = 136 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamerazine}} =$
199 $115 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamethazine}} = 200 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamethoxazole}} = 123 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfathiazole}} = 122$
200 $\mu\text{g/l}$) to the MRLs. However, the "BT" Bioassay did not provide good limits for this
201 family of antibiotics because there was no trimethoprim in the culture medium (Nagel et
202 al., 2009).

203 These limits were similar to those reported for the Charm[®] Blue-Yellow test
204 ($CC_{\beta\text{Sulfadimethoxine}} = 101\text{-}119 \mu\text{g/l}$; $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamethazine}} = 309\text{-}328 \mu\text{g/l}$, $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfathiazole}} = 122\text{-}151$
205 $\mu\text{g/l}$) by Linage et al. (2007), but were lower than the levels obtained for Eclipse[®] 100ov
206 ($CC_{\beta\text{Sulfadimethoxine}} = 170 \mu\text{g/l}$; $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamethazine}} = 750 \mu\text{g/l}$, and $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfathiazole}} = 250 \mu\text{g/l}$)
207 reported by Montero et al. (2005) when using *G. stearotherophilus* instead of *B.*
208 *subtilis*. Nevertheless, Althaus et al. (2002) calculated lower detection capability
209 ($CC_{\beta\text{Sulfadiazine}} = 88 \mu\text{g/l}$ and $CC_{\beta\text{Sulfamethoxazole}} = 44 \mu\text{g/l}$) than those obtained in this work
210 (Table 3) when analyzing ovine milk samples by the Delvotest[®] SP method.

211 To synthesize, the Figure 1 shows the detection pattern by the simultaneous
212 implementation of "BT" and "QS" bioassays. This scale was constructed by applying
213 the logarithmic transformation to CC_{β}/MRL for each antimicrobial. The interior, central
214 and outer polygons corresponds to concentrations equivalent to 10 MRL, MRL, and 0.1
215 MRL, respectively.

216 This figure summarizes the adequate detection capability of the microbiological system,
217 since most of the antibiotics have detection capability near their corresponding MRLs,

218 with the exception of streptomycin. It is noted that the CC_{β} of the different antibiotics
219 analyzed by this microbiological system are located close to central polygon (MRL).

220 **4. Conclusions**

221 The microbiological system consists of two bioassays using *G. stearothermophilus* and
222 *B. Subtilis*, which can detect a large number of antibiotics in milk (beta-lactams,
223 quinolones, sulfonamides, tetracyclines, erythromycin, lincomycin, neomycin,
224 spiramycin and tylosin) if compared with other currently used microbiological methods.
225 This improved detection of antibiotic residues is achieved by using two bacteria tests
226 with complementary sensitivity to detect different antibiotics.

227 Therefore, this microbiological system proves to be a valuable tool to control the quality
228 of ovine milk. The implementation of this system with two bacteria tests enables a more
229 rigorous control of antibiotic residues in milk and, consequently, helps protect
230 consumers' health.

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Table 1

Antimicrobial agent concentrations using for microbiological system.

<i>Antibiotics</i>	“BT” bioassay	“QS” bioassay
<i>Betalactams</i>		
Amoxycillin	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8	0, 1, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12
Ampicillin	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 8	0, 5, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60
Cloxacillin	0, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 40, 60	0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400
Oxacillin	0, 2, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30	0, 25, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300
Penicillin “G”	0, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0	0, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0
Cephalexin	0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 300	0, 25, 50, 100, 125, 150, 200, 300
Cefoperazone	0, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 300, 400	0, 50, 100, 125, 150, 200, 300, 400
Ceftiofur [®]	0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 300	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.8*
<i>Aminoglycosides</i>		
Gentamycin	0, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8*	0, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7, 0.8, 1.0*
Neomycin	0, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0*	0, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, 8*
Streptomycin	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7*	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7*
<i>Macrolides</i>		
Erythromycin	0, 0.05, 0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.25, 0.3, 0.4*	0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70
Lincomycin	0, 0.1, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, 0.40, 0.50*	0, 0.10, 0.15, 0.20, 0.25, 0.30, 0.40, 0.50*
Tylosin	0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 125, 150, 200	0, 60, 80, 100, 120, 140, 160, 180
Spiramycin	0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7*	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7*
<i>Quinolones</i>		
Ciprofloxacin	0, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0*	0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400
Enrofloxacin	0, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0*	0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400
Marbofloxacin	0, 2.0, 2.5, 3.0, 4.0, 5.0, 6.0, 7.0*	0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 250, 300, 400
<i>Sulphonamides</i>		
Sulfadiazine	0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
Sulfadimethoxine	0, 0.5, 0.8, 1.0, 1.3, 1.5, 2.0, 3.0*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
Sulfamerazine	0, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
Sulfamethazine	0, 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 80*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
Sulfamethoxazole	0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
Sulfathiazole	0, 5, 10, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35*	0, 50, 100, 200, 300, 400, 500, 600
<i>Tetracyclines</i>		
Clortetracycline	0, 50, 100, 150, 200, 300, 400, 500	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7*
Oxytetracycline	0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 300	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.3, 0.4, 0.5, 0.6, 0.7*
Tetracycline	0, 25, 50, 75, 100, 150, 200, 300	0, 0.1, 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1.0, 1.2*

Units: µg/l or *mg/l.

Table 2

Summary of logistic regression model parameters of antibiotics in ovine milk for microbiological system.

<i>Antibiotics</i>	"BT" Bioassay			"QS" Bioassay		
	β_0	β_1	C	β_0	β_1	C
<i>Betalactams</i>						
Amoxicillin	-4,950	2,123	70,49	-4,508	1,324	73,79
Ampicillin	-5,652	2,424	74,63	-6,055	0,723	88,29
Cloxacillin	-4,771	0,308	75,47	-5,406	0,036	66,95
Oxacillin	-3,064	0,402	73,02	-5,870	0,133	86,30
Penicillin "G"	-10,975	5,270	77,43	-10,320	3,707	71,34
Cephalexin	-3,237	0,048	79,14	-8,196	0,079	75,82
Cefoperazone	-11,619	0,084	75,72	-9,332	0,046	75,71
Ceftiofur [®]	-11,421	0,125	88,82	-5,722	0,026	75,54
<i>Aminoglycosides</i>						
Gentamycin	-7,959	0,024	74,06	-14,330	0,026	77,02
Neomycin	-6,143	0,007	79,30	-16,381	0,003	78,27
Streptomycin	-8,749	0,002	86,32	-11,179	0,003	81,25
<i>Macrolides</i>						
Erythromycin	-9,732	0,056	78,86	-13,493	0,289	78,23
Lincomycin	-11,560	0,044	74,27	-12,445	0,055	78,87
Tylosin	-7,572	0,104	76,69	-132,074	0,951	89,08
Spiramycin	-8,380	0,003	77,42	-10,915	0,036	86,38
<i>Quinolones</i>						
Ciprofloxacin	-8,679	0,005	87,03	-22,162	0,152	88,26
Enrofloxacin	-9,809	0,005	86,33	-13,963	0,071	86,56
Marbofloxacin	-11,628	0,003	87,17	-11,672	0,051	75,76
<i>Sulphonamides</i>						
Sulfadiazine	-4,956	0,000	84,56	-5,850	0,056	80,64
Sulfadimethoxine	-16,157	0,001	91,67	-4,449	0,054	78,41
Sulfamerazine	-19,487	0,001	86,32	-4,494	0,065	76,74
Sulfamethazine	-20,267	0,001	92,65	-3,769	0,034	73,58
Sulfamethoxazole	-18,659	0,001	90,78	-5,183	0,066	79,15
Sulfathiazole	-20,429	0,001	89,46	-3,749	0,055	79,78
<i>Tetracyclines</i>						
Clortetracycline	-8,730	0,043	85,6	-9,254	0,026	82,4
Oxytetracycline	-6,611	0,074	72,65	-9,827	0,022	72,38
Tetracycline	-6,081	0,058	70,55	-8,053	0,013	76,67

β_0 , β_1 = coefficients estimated for the logistic regression models; C: percentage concordance coefficients.

Table 3Microbiological system detection capability ($\mu\text{g/l}$) for antibiotics in milk.

<i>Antibiotics</i>	“BT” Bioassay ^a	“QS” Bioassay ^a	MRL ^b
<i>Betalactams</i>			
Amoxicillin	4	6	4
Ampicillin	4	12	4
Cloxacillin	25	232	30
Oxacillin	15	66	30
Penicillin “G”	3	4	4
Cephalexin	128	141	100
Cefoperazone	174	266	50
Ceftiofur [®]	115	328	100
<i>Aminoglycosides</i>			
Gentamycin	450	670	100
Neomycin	1360	6700	1500
Streptomycin	5000	4500	200
<i>Macrolides</i>			
Erythromycin	230	60	40
Lincomycin	330	280	150
Tylosin	100	140	50
Spiramycin	4280	380	200
<i>Quinolones</i>			
Ciprofloxacin	2280	160	100
Enrofloxacin	2770	230	100
Marbofloxacin	5540	280	75
<i>Sulphonamides</i>			
Sulfadiazine	53000	157	100
Sulfadimethoxine	1300	136	100
Sulfamerazine	23000	115	100
Sulfamethazine	35000	200	100
Sulfamethoxazole	17000	123	100
Sulfathiazole	17000	122	100
<i>Tetracyclines</i>			
Clortetracycline	271	470	100
Oxytetracycline	129	570	100
Tetracycline	154	840	100

^a Detection capabilities estimated as concentrations at which 95% of the positive results^b MRLs ($\mu\text{g/l}$).

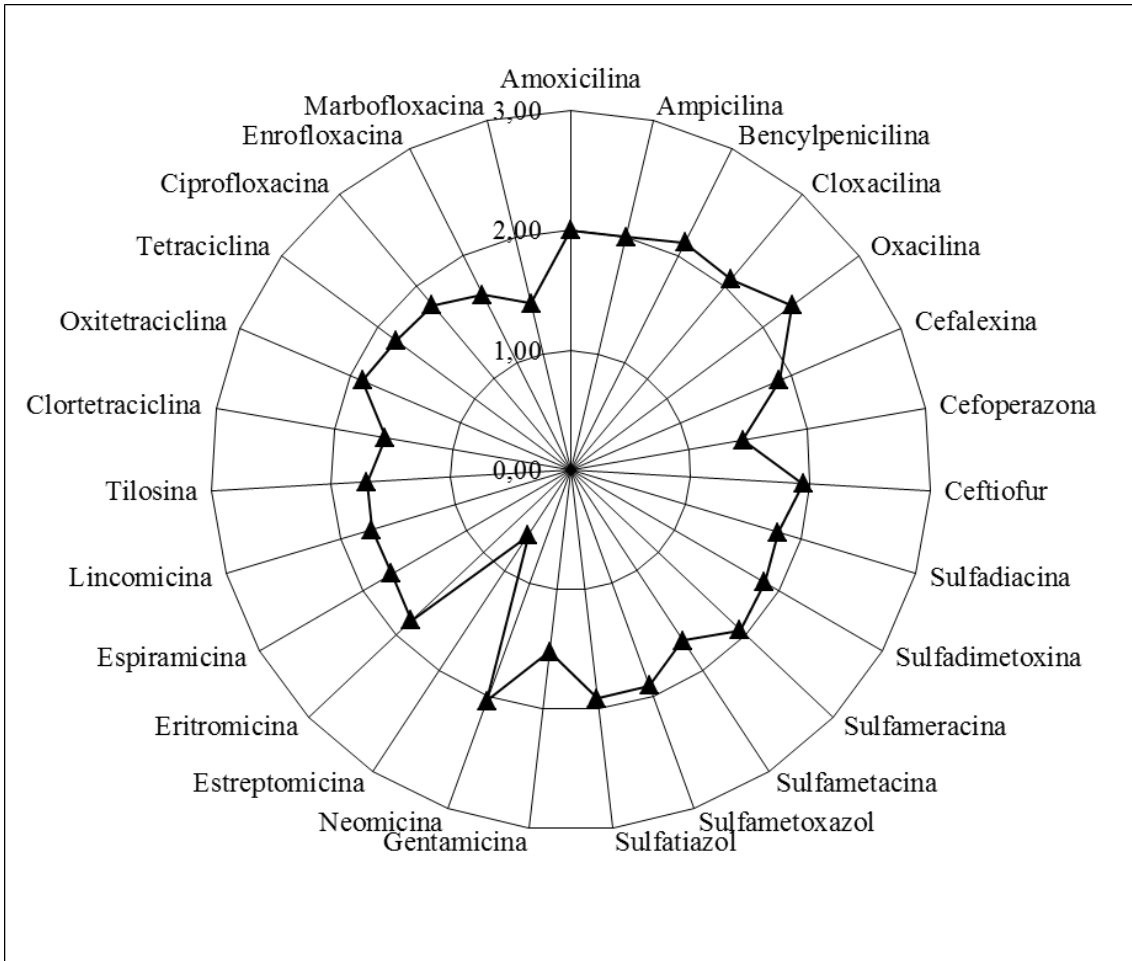


Fig. 1. Detection pattern by simultaneous implementation of BT and QS bioassays. Line 1: 10 CC_β/LMR, Line 2: CC_β/LMR and Line 3: 0.1 CC_β/LMR. Note: The figure uses the lowest CC_β of antibiotics listed in Table 3.