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Lactoferrin quantification in cattle faeces by ELISA

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Background: Promoting and maintaining health is critical to ruminant welfare and productivity. Within human medicine, faecal lactoferrin is quantified for routine assessment of various gastrointestinal illnesses avoiding the need for blood sampling. This approach might also be adapted and applied for non-invasive health assessments in animals.

Methods: In this proof-of-concept study a bovine lactoferrin enzyme-linked immunosorbent assays (ELISA), designed for serum and milk, was applied to a faecal supernatant to assess its potential for quantifying lactoferrin in the faeces of cattle. Faecal lactoferrin concentrations were compared to background levels to assess the viability of the technique. A comparison was then made against serum lactoferrin levels to determine if they were or were not reflective of one another.

Results: The optical densities of faecal samples were significantly greater than background readings, supporting the hypothesis that the assay was effective in quantifying faecal lactoferrin ($T_{13, 115} = 11.99$, $p < 0.0005$, $n = 115$). Lactoferrin concentrations of faecal and serum samples, taken from the same animals on the same day, were significantly different ($T_{21} = 2.49$, $p = 0.022$) and did not correlate ($r = 0.069$, $p = 0.767$).

1 **Lactoferrin quantification in cattle faeces by ELISA**

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26 **i. Abstract**

27 **Background:** Promoting and maintaining health is critical to ruminant welfare and productivity.
28 Within human medicine, faecal lactoferrin is quantified for routine assessment of various
29 gastrointestinal illnesses avoiding the need for blood sampling. This approach might also be
30 adapted and applied for non-invasive health assessments in animals.

31 **Methods:** In this proof-of-concept study a bovine lactoferrin enzyme-linked immunosorbent
32 assays (ELISA), designed for serum and milk, was applied to a faecal supernatant to assess its
33 potential for quantifying lactoferrin in the faeces of cattle. Faecal lactoferrin concentrations were
34 compared to background levels to assess the viability of the technique. A comparison was then
35 made against serum lactoferrin levels to determine if they were or were not reflective of one
36 another.

37 **Results:** The optical densities of faecal samples were significantly greater than background
38 readings, supporting the hypothesis that the assay was effective in quantifying faecal lactoferrin
39 ($T_{13, 115} = 11.99$, $p < 0.0005$, $n = 115$). Lactoferrin concentrations of faecal and serum samples,
40 taken from the same animals on the same day, were significantly different ($T_{21} = 2.49$, $p = 0.022$)
41 and did not correlate ($r = 0.069$, $p = 0.767$).

42 **1 Introduction**

43 Ruminant gastrointestinal health is central to ensuring animal welfare and to facilitating
44 productivity and sustainability in commercial ruminant systems. Gut inflammation can be
45 symptomatic of poor health and cause economic losses related to reduced feed conversion and
46 productivity [1–5]. As worldwide demand for meat increases [6], along with pressures on the
47 natural resources that support its production [7], it is essential that gut health is optimised to
48 improve the efficiency and sustainability of livestock production systems. This calls for the urgent
49 development of economically viable diagnostic tools for the rapid diagnosis of gut disease, to
50 support prevention and rapid correction of poor gut function.

51 Recently, Watt *et al.* [8] and Cooke *et al.* [9] both demonstrated that enzyme-linked
52 immunosorbent assays (ELISA), designed for use on serum and milk, can be utilised for
53 quantifying anti-parasite antibodies in the faeces of sheep and cattle [8, 9]. Such techniques can

54 provide valuable insights into the health of livestock, particularly in relation to parasitic diseases
55 and potentially gastrointestinal health in general. Another advantage of faeces-based methods is
56 that samples can be collected non-invasively and without negative impacts on welfare. Wider
57 potential benefits include the immunological assessment of animals that cannot be directly
58 sampled, e.g. if they are evasive or dangerous.

59 Lactoferrin is an inflammatory marker and key indicator of gut damage. Lactoferrin binds to iron,
60 preventing its utilisation by bacteria and producing a bacteriostatic effect [10]. Furthermore, it can
61 regulate immune responses against infection, preventing inflammation by modulating immune cell
62 function, migration and maturation [11, 12]. Although predominantly found at mucosal surfaces,
63 lactoferrin can be detected in milk and serum [13]. In human medicine, faecal lactoferrin is used
64 as an inflammatory marker in the diagnosis of gastrointestinal conditions such as inflammatory
65 bowel diseases and Crohn's disease [14–17]. In contrast, quantification of lactoferrin is not
66 routinely conducted within veterinary medicine, other than for the analysis of bulk-tank milk [18–
67 21].

68 The purpose of this study is to apply the principles of this common practice in human medicine to
69 veterinary medicine, using techniques analogous to those presented by Watt *et al.* [8] and Cooke
70 *et al.* [9]. That is, to assess if lactoferrin can be quantified in the faeces of ruminants by using
71 ELISA. If successful, this proof-of-concept would demonstrate potential for the future
72 development of ruminant faecal lactoferrin ELISA as an indicator of animal health and gut
73 function.

74 **2 Methods**

75 **2.1 Sample populations**

76 Faecal samples were collected from three herds of beef cattle located in Cornwall, Angus, and
77 Hertfordshire in the UK (C1, C2, C3 respectively) (**Error! Reference source not found.**). Groups
78 C1 and C3 were fed on grass silage for at least one month prior to sampling, and group C2 was
79 permanently grazed on pasture. A total of 117 faecal samples were collected from the three farms
80 (65, 30 and 22 from C1, C2 and C3 respectively), and 22 blood samples were collected from C3.

81 Sheep and deer samples (faeces and blood) were available from other experiments. No commercial
82 lactoferrin ELISA was available for analysis of those samples, so they were subject to the bovine
83 lactoferrin ELISA protocol. Further details of the analysis of sheep and deer samples is available
84 in the supplementary material.

85 **2.2 Sample collection & preparation**

86 **2.2.1 Faecal samples**

87 Fresh faeces were collected from the ground immediately after defecation was observed. Faecal
88 samples were stored in screw-top 100 mL plastic containers and stored at -18°C until processing.
89 Samples were defrosted at room temperature and mixed with a protease inhibitor (cOmplete™,
90 EDTA-free Protease Inhibitor Cocktail) at a ratio of 1:1 - 1:2 (w:v) with phosphate buffered saline,
91 depending upon consistency and moisture. This mixture was homogenised and centrifuged at 3-
92 6°C and 12000 x g (Sorvall SLA-3000 rotor in a Sorvall RC-5B centrifuge, ThermoFisher
93 Scientific, USA) for 5 min. The faecal supernatant was then removed by pipette and stored at -
94 18°C.

95 **2.2.2 Blood samples**

96 Blood samples were collected by tail venepuncture into glass Vacutainers® (Becton Dickinson,
97 USA). Samples were left >30 min to clot and were centrifuged at 1056 x g (Sorvall SLA-3000
98 rotor in a Sorvall RC-5B centrifuge) for 15 min to separate serum, which was removed by pipette
99 and stored at -18°C.

100 **2.2.3 Serial dilutions**

101 Test plates were conducted to determine the optimum concentration of faecal supernatants and
102 serum (diluted with Tris-buffer saline with 0.05% Tween™ 20 (TBST)) to achieve optical
103 densities within the detection limits of the plate reader and to best show the variation in the
104 datasets. The optimum dilution was qualitatively determined as the dilution at which no notable
105 plateauing or data clumping had begun, which can both be features of more dilute samples. If two
106 dilutions presented similar qualities, the least concentrated was chosen to ensure the capture of
107 lactoferrin samples higher than those on the trial plates and to preserve sample quantity. Test plates

108 were conducted on 63 cattle faecal samples at concentrations of 1/1, 1/2, 1/8 and 1/32, and on 25
109 cattle serum samples at concentrations of 1/5, 1/10, 1/20, and 1/40.

110 On each plate, a seven-point halving series dilution of bovine lactoferrin standard was included
111 (Bethyl Laboratories; RC10-126-8) for reference and as a positive control. Stock solution was
112 $1000 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$, and for the first standard in the series was diluted to $0.5 \mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ with TBST.
113 Subsequent dilutions added 500 μL of the previous solution in the series to 500 μL of TBST. Each
114 plate also included three negative control blanks of TBST.

115 **2.3 ELISA protocol**

116 The ELISA were conducted using a commercially available bovine lactoferrin ELISA set (Bethyl
117 Laboratories Inc., E10-126) which is produced primarily for use on bovine milk samples.

118 The plate coat was made by mixing affinity purified antibody (Bethyl Laboratories Inc. A10-126A)
119 with carbonate buffer at a ratio of 1:100 (v:v). Then, 100 μL of the formed coat was added to each
120 well and the plates (Nunc-Immuno Maxsorp 96-well) were covered in cling film and incubated at
121 20°C for 1 h.

122 After the first incubation, the plates were washed 5 times with TBST using an automated plate
123 washer. Two hundred μL of TBST was added to each well as a blocking solution and plates were
124 covered in cling film and incubated at 20°C for 30 min.

125 After the second incubation, the plates were washed 5 times in TBST before 100 μL of sample
126 was added to each well (except blanks) and plates were covered in cling film and incubated at
127 20°C for 1h.

128 After the third incubation, the plates were washed 5 times in TBST before 100 μL of horseradish
129 peroxidase (HRP) detection (0.5% with carbonate buffer) antibody was added to each well and the
130 plates were covered in cling film and incubated at 20°C for 1h.

131 After the fourth incubation, the plates were washed 5 times in TBST before 100 μL of enzyme
132 substrate (SureBlue™ TMB Microwell Peroxidase Substrate Kit) was added to each well before
133 the plates were placed in opaque boxes and incubated at 20°C for 15 min. Then, 100 μL of stop
134 solution, 0.18m H_2SO_4 , was added to each well and plates were immediately read for optical
135 density at 450nm by a plate reader.

136 2.4 Dry matter and optical density assessment

137 The moisture content of fresh faeces depends on animal diet and state of hydration. Temporal
138 variation in faecal moisture content may significantly influence the concentrations of components,
139 including lactoferrin, within the faeces. Thus, a simple test was conducted to investigate whether
140 faecal moisture content or sample background optical density were related to lactoferrin
141 concentrations.

142 For 56 of the cattle faecal samples (from groups C1, C2, and C3), faecal supernatants at 1:2 (w:v)
143 ratio of faeces to protease inhibitor, were measured to determine optical density. This was
144 conducted twice using 100 μ L and 50 μ L of supernatant. Blank 96-well plates were initially read
145 to determine background optical density. Aliquots of each supernatant were pipetted into
146 individual wells, avoiding the outer two rows and columns, to avoid potential edge effects. Plates
147 were then read using a plate reader, to determine optical density, from which the background value
148 was subtracted. Supernatant optical densities were then correlated to lactoferrin concentration and
149 subsequent regression analysis conducted.

150 Twenty-nine of the faecal cattle samples (from groups C1, C2, and C3) were analysed for dry
151 matter content by gravimetric loss at 65°C to a constant weight.

152 2.5 Statistical analysis

153 All statistical analyses were performed to a confidence level of 95% in Minitab 18 (Minitab Ltd.,
154 UK). Prior to statistical testing outliers were identified using a Grubb's outlier test and
155 subsequently removed from relevant analysis. Two-sample *T*-tests were used to determine if faecal
156 supernatant ODs were significantly above background levels (TBST blanks). Pearson's
157 correlations were performed to determine if the test results for serum and faecal samples, matched
158 per individual and taken on the same day, were correlated. A Pearson's correlation was also
159 performed to assess if faecal sample moisture correlated to lactoferrin concentration.

160

161 **3 Results**

162 **3.1 Controls, references, and calibration**

163 Negative controls of TBST were consistent across all plates and had a mean background optical
164 density of 0.0486, ranging from 0.0467 to 0.0506, with a relative standard error of 0.77%.
165 Reference material gave consistent curves with a mean relative standard error of 1.51% across all
166 dilutions.

167 Based on the results of three initial test plates, it was determined that a sample concentration of
168 50% was optimum for cattle faecal samples. At this dilution, all samples yielded optical densities
169 significantly above background levels, as determined using 2-sample *T*-tests that compared
170 background levels to faecal supernatants ($T_{13, 115} = 11.99, p < 0.0005$) (Figure 1).

171 **3.2 Lactoferrin concentrations**

172 A Grubbs' test found one outlier value within the cattle faecal data set (1.937 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$). This
173 sample was removed from consideration during statistical analyses.

174 The mean lactoferrin concentration across all cattle faecal samples was 0.258 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ (S.E. 0.027)
175 (Figure 2). For serum samples, the mean concentration was 0.075 $\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$ (S.E. 0.004) (Figure 3).
176 A paired *T*-test comparing matched faecal and serum samples from the same individuals, taken on
177 the same day, found a statistically significant difference between serum and faecal lactoferrin (T_{21}
178 = 2.49, $p = 0.022$). Furthermore, no statistically significant correlation was found between faecal
179 and serum lactoferrin concentrations taken from the same individuals on the same day ($r = 0.069$,
180 $p = 0.767$).

181 **3.3 Faecal dry matter and optical density assessment**

182 Optical density of faecal supernatants correlated significantly with lactoferrin concentration at 100
183 μL ($\rho = 0.377, p = 0.004$) but not 50 μL (Pearson's correlation = 0.135, $p = 0.135$) (Figure 4).
184 Subsequent regression analysis of lactoferrin concentration as a response to optical density at 100
185 μL yielded an r^2 of 14.2%.

186 Dry matter content of faeces was not significantly correlated with lactoferrin concentration ($\rho = -$
187 0.148, $p = 0.161$) (Figure 5).

188 4 Discussion

189 The optical densities of faecal and blood samples, isolated according to the extraction methods,
190 significantly exceeded those from blank controls (TBST). It is, therefore, concluded that the
191 ELISA protocol was successful for the detection of lactoferrin in faeces of cattle. Furthermore, we
192 observed similar results for samples from sheep and deer sampled in Scotland (see supplementary
193 material). We, therefore, accept the hypothesis that lactoferrin can be quantified in the faeces of
194 ruminants using commercially available ELISA products.

195 The lack of correlation between faecal lactoferrin and serum lactoferrin taken from the same
196 individual cattle on the same day suggests that faecal lactoferrin quantification cannot necessarily
197 be used as a proxy for serum or milk lactoferrin. This finding strongly indicates the potential
198 further development of the assay to specifically measure gut health, as opposed to systemic health.
199 This lack of correlation between lactoferrin concentrations from blood serum and faecal
200 supernatant is likely due to multiple sites of lactoferrin production within the body, including at
201 the mucosal surface of the gut, and the contrasting metabolic sources of milk, serum, and faeces.
202 This has been previously described for lactoferrin production in the human body [22, 23].
203 Confirmation of the gut as the physiological source of the lactoferrin in the faeces of ruminants
204 could be achieved by taking swab samples for analysis along gastrointestinal transects of recently
205 slaughtered individuals and comparison with matched faecal samples taken immediately prior to
206 death. However, the contrasting chemistries of ruminant faeces and blood, and the manner in which
207 lactoferrin reacts to different organic and inorganic molecules therein, may affect the successful
208 extraction of the immune-marker from the different substrates. For example, inconsistent avidity
209 of the ELISA to different physical forms of lactoferrin has been identified [24–27]. Based on the
210 complexities related to the presentation of lactoferrin in faeces, future methodological
211 development should include comparison with complementary established techniques in molecular
212 biology that detect specific proteins, e.g. western blot, to ratify the results obtained by ELISA to
213 establish its reliability. However, lactoferrin ELISAs are established and recognised [28], and
214 widely used to quantify human lactoferrin in faeces [14, 15, 29] and bovine lactoferrin in milk and
215 serum [30], supporting the use of this technique for quantifying bovine faecal lactoferrin.

216 The comparison of faecal sample dry matter and background optical density to lactoferrin
217 concentration highlighted an important consideration when using faecal material for any molecular

218 quantification techniques. The physical composition of faeces can vary greatly [32], not just
219 between individuals, but for the same individual at different times, diluting or concentrating
220 immunomarkers within sampled faeces. Furthermore, diarrhoea (high faecal moisture content) can
221 be symptomatic of gastrointestinal disease or pathology or infection [33–35], creating a
222 confounding factor. The mechanism driving the significant relationship between supernatant
223 optical density and lactoferrin is unknown but may relate to the effects of gut damage on faecal
224 composition. Further investigation is required to determine any systematic adjustment or
225 interpretation of ELISA results related to potential confounding factors.

226 **5 Conclusion**

227 The objective of this research was to assess the feasibility of quantifying lactoferrin in the faeces
228 of cattle. The development of a rapid and non-invasive test for the gut health of ruminants using
229 faecal lactoferrin quantification has potentially wide-reaching benefits. Immunological
230 assessments of mammals are typically invasive and can be logistically difficult due to animal
231 aggression, evasiveness and animal welfare legislation. Faecal sampling, therefore, offers an
232 opportunity for the wide-ranging assessment of gut health in mammals.

233 This study trialled an existing ELISA developed to quantify lactoferrin concentrations in milk
234 through the application to the supernatant of faecal samples of ruminants (beef cattle) from three
235 geographically distinct regions of the UK. There was no relationship between the concentrations
236 of lactoferrin in faecal supernatant and serum, suggesting different metabolic sources of
237 lactoferrin, or differences in the success of lactoferrin extraction from two different substrates.
238 Therefore, faecal lactoferrin may provide novel information that can provide new insight into
239 animal health. Robust interpretation of faecal lactoferrin ELISA results will require substantial
240 future work. Nevertheless, this successful proof-of-concept highlights the how lactoferrin, and
241 potentially other immune-markers, can be quantified non-invasively for the assessment of animal
242 health.

243 **6 Abbreviations**

244 ANOVA – analysis of variance

245 EDTA - ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid

246 ELISA – enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay

247 GIN – gastrointestinal nematode(s)

248 H₂SO₄ – sulfuric acid

249 HRP – horseradish peroxidase

250 OD – optical density

251 TBST – tris-buffered saline with Tween 20

252 **7 Declarations**

253 **7.1 Ethical approval and consent to participate**

254 All cattle blood samples were taken by a trained and qualified veterinary surgeon who was
255 conducting routine analysis in support of animal health under the UK Veterinary Surgeons Act
256 1966. Samples were analysed on request of the veterinary surgeon using excess samples and did
257 not require excess blood being drawn in addition to what was required under routine practice.

258 Sheep blood samples were taken under the Animal Scientific Procedures Act (1986). Samples used
259 in this study were remnant samples taken under project license no: PPL 60/4211, personal license
260 no: PIL 60/623.

261 The single deer blood sample was taken with the landowner's permission from an animal shot for
262 food.

263 **7.2 Consent for publication**

264 Not required

265 **7.3 Availability of data and material**

266 Data generated and or analysed during this study are included in this published article [and its
267 supplementary information file].

268 7.4 Competing interests

269 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

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275 7.6 Author's contributions

276 A.S. Cooke instigated the research project and the collaboration between Rothamsted
277 Research/University of Bristol and the University of Edinburgh. He was involved in all the cattle
278 sample collection, protocol development, and all laboratory and statistical analyses, and led the
279 writing of the manuscript.

280 K. Watt was central to developing the ELISA protocols within the study, laboratory analysis of
281 samples, and assistance with manuscript preparation.

282 G. Albery collected deer faecal samples and extracted them and provided input and feedback on
283 the manuscript.

284 E.R. Morgan contributed by gaining the funding for the project with J. A. J. Dungait and advising
285 on and contributing to manuscript content, especially to contextualise the work from a veterinary
286 perspective.

287 J. A. J. Dungait contributed by winning the funding which was used for this project. J. A. J. Dungait
288 also facilitated the development of the project by gaining support from the farms within the study.
289 Professor Dungait provided valuable support and scientific input throughout the length of the
290 experiment and manuscript preparation.

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293 research and collaboration that this work was based on.

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Figure 1

Bar chart showing average optical densities, after ELISA process, of faecal, serum, and TBST blank samples. Error bars represent standard error.

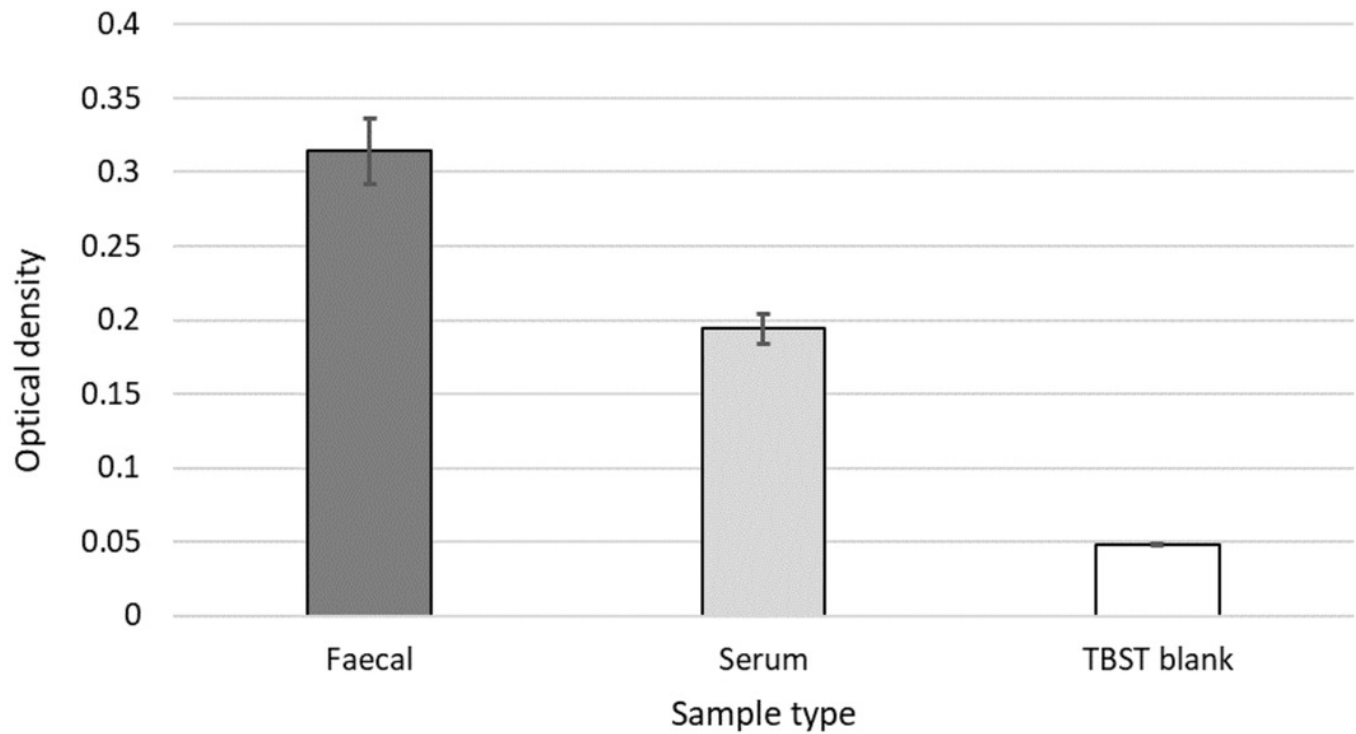


Figure 2

Kite graph showing the distribution of cattle faecal lactoferrin concentrations ($\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) (n = 115).

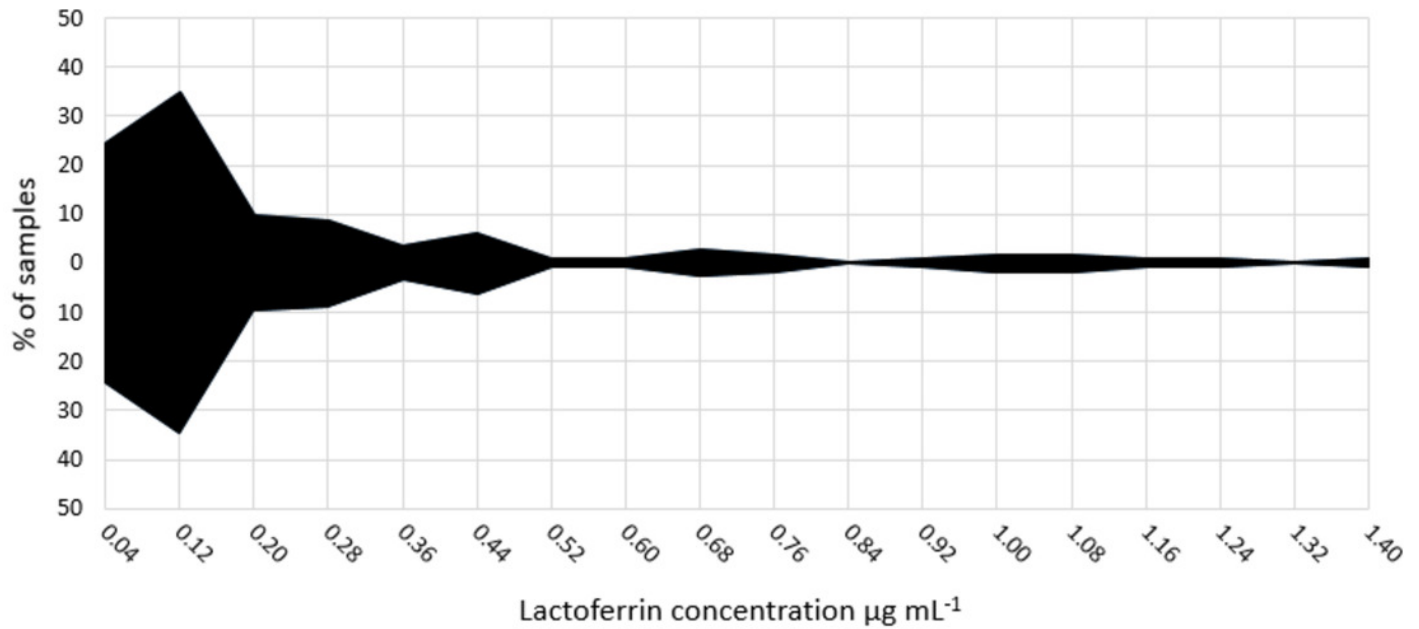


Figure 3

Kite graph showing the distribution of cattle faecal lactoferrin concentrations ($\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$) (n = 22).

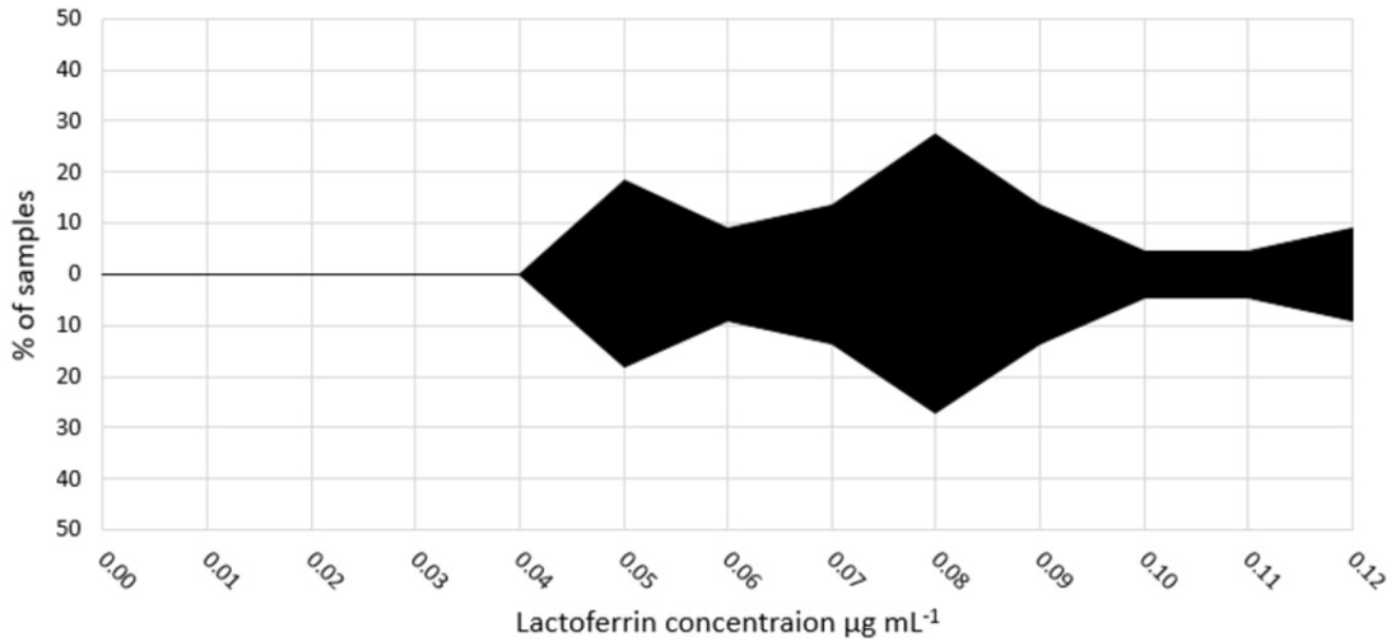


Figure 4

Scatterplot with trendlines showing the relationship between faecal supernatant optical densities (at 50 μL and 100 μL) and lactoferrin concentration ($\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$).

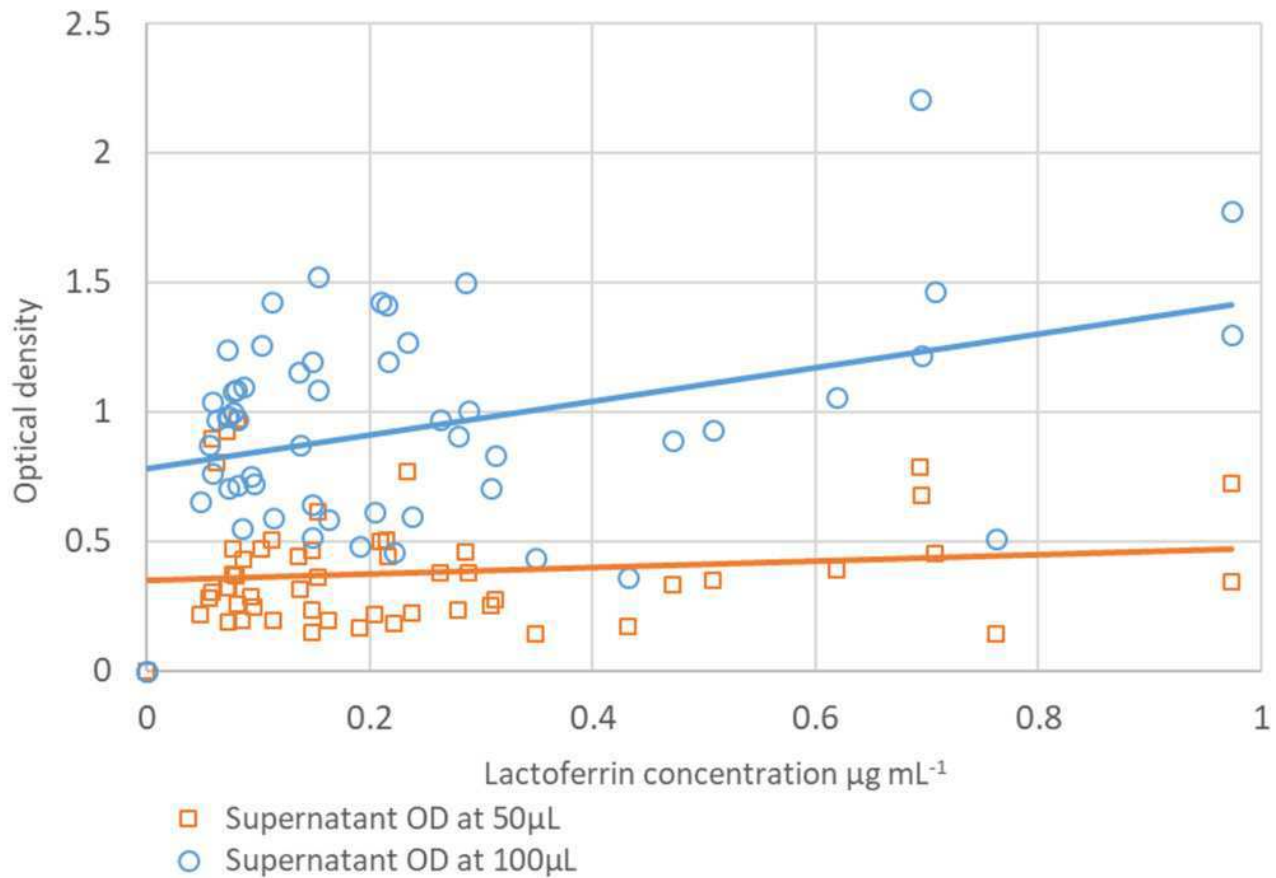


Figure 5

Scatterplot with trendlines showing the relationship between faecal dry matter content (%) and faecal lactoferrin concentration ($\mu\text{g mL}^{-1}$).

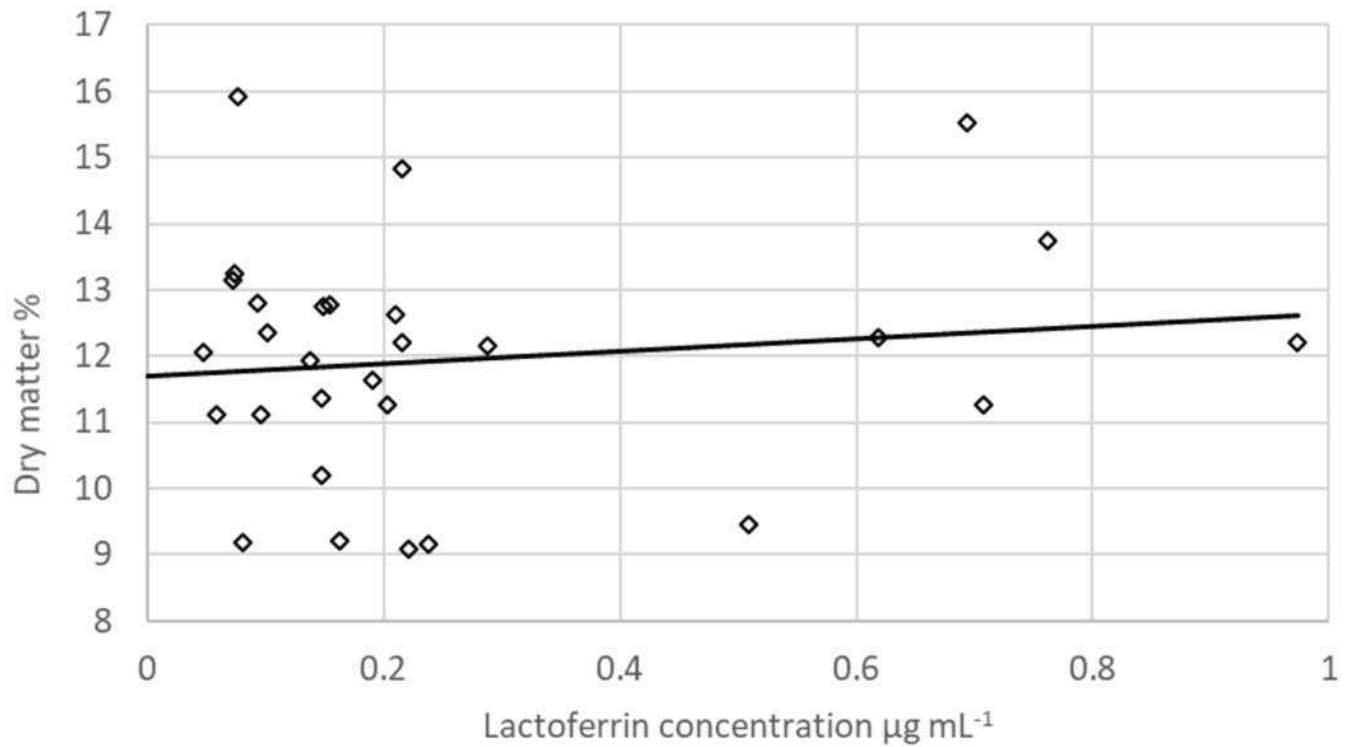


Table 1 (on next page)

Sample numbers and associated information herds within the study. Cattle were kept in traditional farm settings, with regular human interaction, controlled grazing patterns, and fenced fields.

Group	Species	<i>n</i> faecals	<i>n</i> bloods
C1	Cattle	65	0
C2	Cattle	30	0
C3	Cattle	22	22