



J. Dairy Sci. 99:1–6  
<http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.2015-10813>  
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## Short communication: Relationship between the level of bovine leukemia virus antibody and provirus in blood and milk of cows from a naturally infected herd

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### ABSTRACT

We explored the relationship between the level of bovine leukemia virus antibodies and provirus load during natural infection. For that purpose, a set of 50 blood and milk paired samples were analyzed for the presence of bovine leukemia virus provirus and antibodies. Additionally, provirus load and antibody titers were measured and the relationship between these variables was investigated. Bovine leukemia provirus was detected in 59% of milk samples and a negative correlation was observed between the level of milk provirus load and milk antibody titers. By the consumption of raw milk, calves might be exposed to bovine leukemia virus favoring the perinatal transmission of this disease.

**Key words:** bovine leukemia virus, mammary gland secretions, antibodies, dairy cattle, perinatal transmission

### Short Communication

Bovine leukemia virus (BLV) is distributed worldwide, with the exception of western Europe. The virus was first described in Argentina in 1973 (Ciprian, 1973). At the beginning of the 21st century, the individual cow prevalence was 33% (Trono et al., 2001); however, more than 80% of farms were infected with BLV, denoting a rapid spread of the virus in the territory (Trono et al., 2001). In a recent study, an individual prevalence of 80% has been observed in dairy farms of the main productive areas of Argentina (Gutiérrez et al., 2012).

Several routes of transmission of BLV have been described (Hopkins and DiGiacomo, 1997). In addition to horizontal and intrauterine transmission, the ingestion

of colostrum and milk with provirus or free virus particles might be important for BLV perinatal transmission in calves. It has been demonstrated that the mother's provirus load (PVL) and the duration of lactation are associated with the risk of perinatal transmission of human T-lymphotropic virus and human immunodeficiency virus (HIV), 2 related viruses (Kinoshita et al., 1984; Miotti et al., 1999; Li et al., 2004; Martin-Latil et al., 2012; Milligan and Overbaugh, 2014). On the other hand, the administration of BLV-specific antibodies (Ab) has been effective blocking the oral infection with BLV (Van Der Maaten et al., 1981). However, information is scarce about the factors involved in transmission and progression of BLV in Argentinean dairy herds (Monti et al., 2005; Gutiérrez et al., 2011).

To explore the relationship between PVL and Ab in blood and milk of lactating cows under natural settings, a set of 50 paired samples was analyzed. The samples were obtained from a dairy farm located in Rafaela, Santa Fe, Argentina (31°16'S, 61°29'W). This region belongs to the main dairy producing area of the country. The herd was composed of 332 Holstein cows (>1 lactation) and was naturally infected with BLV. The procedures used for animal handling and sampling were approved by the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the Instituto Nacional de Tecnología Agropecuaria. The guidelines described in the Institutional Manual were followed at all times.

Plasma-specific Ab against the whole BLV viral particle were measured by indirect ELISA as described previously (Trono et al., 2001). Briefly, ELISA plates were coated with antigen purified from fetal lamb kidney cells persistently infected with BLV by centrifugation on a sucrose gradient. The samples to be tested were added to the plate in duplicates. Based on preliminary data plasma samples were prediluted 1:40. The Ab titers were assayed by the end-point dilution method using 2-fold dilutions of sera. After incubation and washing, anti-bovine IgG peroxidase conjugated was added to each well. The presence of secondary antibody was

Received December 23, 2015.

Accepted March 6, 2016.

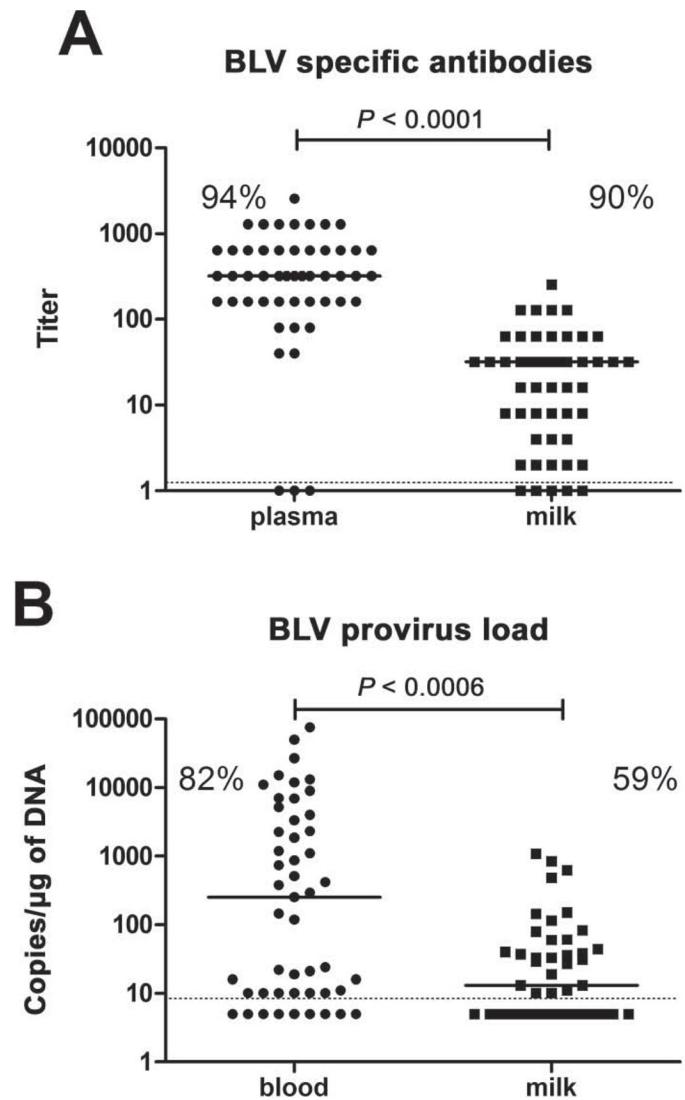
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revealed with 3,3',5,5'-tetramethylbenzidine and  $H_2O_2$ . Reaction was stopped using  $H_2SO_4$  and the absorbance was read at 450 nm. Normalized results were obtained as a sample-to-positive ratio. A weak positive control serum was used to calculate the ratio; its reactivity was set to 100% and all tested samples were referred to it. A cut-off level of 25% was established in the original work (Trono et al., 2001) over 339 serum samples, using PCR and Southern blot as confirmatory tests. The sensitivity and specificity of the assay were 97.2 and 97.5%, respectively; those samples with reactivity above the cut-off level were considered positive. Titers were expressed as the reciprocal of the last dilution with reactivity above the cut-off level. The presence of BLV-specific Ab was detected in 94 and 90% of plasma and milk samples, respectively ( $n = 50$ ; Figure 1A). Although the proportions of BLV Ab in plasma and milk samples were similar, the mean Ab titer in the plasma was 10-fold higher than in milk (493 vs. 36, respectively; Mann-Whitney U-test,  $P < 0.0001$ ; Figure 1A).

Whole blood and milk DNA was extracted using the High Pure PCR Template Preparation Kit (Roche, Penzberg, Germany) according to the manufacturer's instructions. As not enough material was obtained from 1 blood and 4 milk samples ( $<5 \text{ ng}/\mu\text{L}$ ), these were excluded from the following analysis. The BLV DNA was detected in 82 and 59% of blood and milk samples, respectively ( $n = 49$  and 46, respectively; Figure 1B). Furthermore, PVL was quantified by a real-time quantitative PCR (qPCR). Briefly, each qPCR reaction contained Fast Start Universal SYBR Green Master Mix (Roche), 800 nM forward and reverse primers (BLVpol5f: 5'-CCTCAATTCCCTTTAAACTA-3'; BLVpol3r: 5'-GTACCGGGAAGACTGGATTA-3') and 500 ng of DNA template. The reaction was performed on an ABI 7500 machine (Applied Biosystems, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA) with the following cycling conditions: 2 min at 50°C, 95°C for 10 min, followed by 40 cycles at 95°C for 15 s, 55°C for 15 s, and at 60°C for 1 min. The specificity of each reaction was confirmed by dissociation curve analysis. As standard, a plasmid pBLV1 (provided by Jacek Kuzmak, National Veterinary Research Institute, Pulawy, Poland) containing BLV pol fragment was used. Ten-fold dilutions of this standard were made from  $1 \times 10^6$  to 1 copy/ $\mu\text{L}$ . A strong and a weak positive control and 2 negative controls were included in each plate. The limit of detection of the assay was 5 BLV copies per reaction (10 BLV copies/ $\mu\text{g}$  of DNA). The PVL in blood was significantly higher than PVL in milk (Mann Whitney U-test,  $P = 0.0006$ ; Figure 1B) and no correlation was observed between PVL measured in these body

compartments (Figure 2A). Furthermore, plasma and milk BLV Ab titers positively correlated with blood PVL (Figure 2B and C, respectively) and a positive correlation was noted between the level of Ab in plasma and milk (Figure 2D). In contrast, a weak negative correlation was observed between milk Ab titers and milk PVL (Figure 2E). To further explore the relationship



**Figure 1.** Comparison of bovine leukemia virus (BLV)-specific antibody titers and provirus load (PVL) in blood and milk. (A) BLV antibody titers and (B) PVL in cow's blood (or plasma) and milk samples were plotted. Horizontal solid bars represent median values. The  $P$ -value is indicated (Mann-Whitney U test). The proportion of positive samples is stated as a percentage in each graph. The BLV antibody titers were assayed by ELISA and PVL by real-time PCR; the horizontal dotted line shows the limit of detection for each assay. Fifty plasma and milk samples were used for the BLV antibody analyses. Forty-nine blood samples and 46 milk samples were used for the BLV PVL analyses.

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