

Utah State University

DigitalCommons@USU

All Graduate Theses and Dissertations

Graduate Studies

5-2018

Bovine Mastitis Resistance: Novel Quantitative Trait Loci and the Role of Bovine Mammary Epithelial Cells

Jacqueline P. Kurz
Utah State University

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digitalcommons.usu.edu/etd>



Part of the [Dairy Science Commons](#), and the [Veterinary Medicine Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Kurz, Jacqueline P., "Bovine Mastitis Resistance: Novel Quantitative Trait Loci and the Role of Bovine Mammary Epithelial Cells" (2018). *All Graduate Theses and Dissertations*. 6910.
<https://digitalcommons.usu.edu/etd/6910>

This Dissertation is brought to you for free and open access by the Graduate Studies at DigitalCommons@USU. It has been accepted for inclusion in All Graduate Theses and Dissertations by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@USU. For more information, please contact digitalcommons@usu.edu.



BOVINE MASTITIS RESISTANCE: NOVEL QUANTITATIVE TRAIT LOCI AND
THE ROLE OF BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS

by

Jacqueline P. Kurz

A dissertation submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree

of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

in

Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Sciences

Approved:

Zhongde Wang, Ph.D.
Major Professor

Lee Rickords, Ph.D.
Committee Member

Brett Adams, Ph.D.
Committee Member

Kerry A. Rood, MS, DVM, MPH
Committee Member

Thomas J. Baldwin, DVM, Ph.D.
Committee Member

David J. Wilson, DVM, Ph.D.
Committee Member

Mark R. McLellan, Ph.D.
Vice President for Research and
Dean of the School of Graduate Studies

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY
Logan, Utah

2017

Copyright © Jacqueline P. Kurz 2017

All Rights Reserved

ABSTRACT

Novel Quantitative Trait Loci and the Role of Bovine Mammary Epithelial Cells in
Bovine Mastitis Resistance

By

Jacqueline P. Kurz, Doctor of Philosophy

Utah State University, 2017

Major Professor: Dr. Zhongde Wang
Department: Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Sciences

Bovine mastitis causes substantial economic losses and animal welfare issues in the dairy industry, making the pursuit of preventative strategies a major area of focus in the field of dairy science. Identification of genetic markers and the investigation of underlying mechanisms of the genetic basis of mastitis resistance facilitate the development of preventative and therapeutic approaches. The main objectives of this dissertation research were to identify genetic markers of mastitis resistance in Holstein dairy cattle and to define contributions of bovine mammary epithelial cells, the milk-secreting cells of the mammary gland, to mastitis and mastitis resistance.

A genome-wide association study of a population of Holstein dairy cattle was carried out to identify genetic markers for mastitis resistance. One hundred seventeen single nucleotide polymorphism genetic markers were detected suggestive of genome-wide significance. From these identified genetic markers, 27 regions within the bovine

genome suggestive of an association with mastitis resistance were defined, of which ten have not been reported previously.

An *in vitro* model was used to investigate contributions of bovine mammary epithelial cells to the mechanisms of mastitis resistance. Differential expression of 42 genes relevant to inflammation by primary bovine mammary epithelial cells from mastitis-resistant versus mastitis-susceptible cattle was observed following exposure to bacterial lipopolysaccharide, implicating the bovine mammary epithelial cell as an important cell type in mastitis resistance.

Comparisons between primary bovine mammary epithelial cells and primary bovine fibroblasts revealed both similarities and differences in pro-inflammatory gene expression responses to lipopolysaccharide. This finding emphasizes cell type-specific contributions to mastitis, which should be considered when selecting an *in vitro* model. To facilitate future mastitis studies, a method for the establishment of milk-derived bovine mammary epithelial cell lines with extended growth potential via transfection with the viral protein simian virus large T antigen is described.

Examination of the effects of exogenous administration of the enzyme phospholipase A2 on primary bovine mammary epithelial cells revealed altered expression of several pro-inflammatory genes in response to lipopolysaccharide. Because modulation of the inflammatory responses of bovine mammary epithelial cells has the potential to influence the course of mastitis, this finding highlights phospholipase A2 as a potential therapeutic candidate.

PUBLIC ABSTRACT

Novel Quantitative Trait Loci and the Role of Bovine Mammary Epithelial Cells in
Bovine Mastitis Resistance

Jacqueline P. Kurz

Bovine mastitis, or inflammation of the mammary gland, has substantial economic and animal welfare implications. A genetic basis for mastitis resistance traits is recognized and can be used to guide selective breeding programs. The discovery of regions of the genome associated with mastitis resistance, and knowledge of the underlying molecular mechanisms responsible, can facilitate development of efficient mastitis control and therapeutic strategies. The objectives of this dissertation research were to identify sites of genetic variation associated with mastitis resistance, and to define the contributions of the milk-secreting epithelial cells to mammary gland immune responses and mastitis resistance. Twenty seven regions of the bovine genome potentially involved in mastitis resistance were identified in Holstein dairy cattle. Additionally, this research demonstrates a role of bovine mammary epithelial cells in mastitis resistance, and provides guidance for the use of an *in vitro* model for mastitis studies. Primary bovine mammary epithelial cells from mastitis-resistant cows have differential expression of 42 inflammatory genes compared with cells from mastitis-susceptible cows, highlighting the importance of epithelial cells in mastitis resistance. Bovine mammary epithelial cells display both similarities and differences in pro-inflammatory gene

expression compared to fibroblasts, and their expression of inflammatory genes is influenced by administration of the enzyme phospholipase A2. The growth potential of milk-derived bovine mammary epithelial cells *in vitro* can be extended, facilitating their use in mastitis studies, by transfection with a viral protein. Collectively, this research contributes to current knowledge on bovine mastitis resistance and *in vitro* models.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

I would like to thank my committee members, Dr. Zhongde Wang, Dr. Thomas Baldwin, Dr. Lee Rickords, Dr. Kerry Rood, Dr. David Wilson, and Dr. Brett Adams, for their support and assistance throughout this project.

I would also like to thank the Utah Agriculture Experiment Station Grants Program for providing funding for this project.

Jacqueline P. Kurz

CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	iii
PUBLIC ABSTRACT	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vii
LIST OF TABLES	xi
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
LIST OF NOTATIONS	xiii
CHAPTER	
I. INTRODUCTION	1
Mastitis Definitions and Pathogens	1
Innate Immunity of the Bovine Mammary Gland	6
Damage to the Mammary Gland During Mastitis	13
Changes to Milk During Mastitis	15
Somatic Cell Count as an Indicator of Intramammary Infection	16
Factors Influencing Mastitis Resistance	19
An Introduction to Genome-Wide Association Studies	21
Genome-Wide Association Study Methodology	24
The Application of Marker-Assisted Selection for Mastitis Traits	30
Research Objective and Findings	32
II. A GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION STUDY FOR MASTITIS RESISTANCE IN PHENOTYPICALLY WELL-CHARACTERIZED HOLSTEIN DAIRY CATTLE USING A SELECTIVE GENOTYPING DESIGN	35
Abstract	35
Background	36
Methods	38
Results	42
Discussion	44
Conclusions	48

III. BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS FROM MASTITIS-RESISTANT AND MASTITIS-SUSCEPTIBLE LACTATING HOLSTEIN COWS DISPLAY DIFFERENTIAL EXPRESSION OF INFLAMMATORY GENES IN RESPONSE TO LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE	61
Abstract	61
Background	62
Methods	65
Results	69
Discussion	71
Conclusions	75
IV. PRIMARY BOVINE DERMAL FIBROBLASTS DISPLAY SIMILAR INTERLEUKIN 1B EXPRESSION CHANGES TO PRIMARY BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS IN RESPONSE TO LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE	80
Abstract	80
Background	81
Methods	84
Results	89
Discussion	92
Conclusions	99
V. EXOGENOUS PHOSPHOLIPASE A2 AFFECTS EXPRESSION OF INTERLEUKIN-8 AND CHEMOKINE (C-X-C MOTIF) LIGAND 1 BY PRIMARY BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS IN RESPONSE TO LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE	102
Abstract	102
Background	103
Methods	106
Results	110
Discussion	111
Conclusions	113
VI. ESTABLISHMENT OF A MILK-DERIVED BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELL LINE WITH EXTENDED GROWTH CAPABILITIES BY TRANSFECTION WITH A SIMIAN VIRUS 40 LARGE T ANTIGEN-CONTAINING PLASMID CONSTRUCT	116
Abstract	116
Background	117

Methods and Results	120
Conclusions	124
VII. CONCLUSIONS	127
REFERENCES	131
APPENDICES	180
CURRICULUM VITAE	198

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1A Lactation number and phenotypic classification data for mastitis-resistant cows.....	50
1B Lactation number and phenotypic classification data for mastitis-susceptible cows.	51
2 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms Suggestive of Genome-Wide Significance for Bovine Mastitis Resistance	52
3 Quantitative Trait Loci Identified for Bovine Mastitis Resistance	56
4 Overlap of QTLs for Bovine Mastitis Resistance with Previously-Reported QTLs for Bovine Mastitis or Udder Conformation Traits	57
5 Significant Inflammatory Gene Expression Fold-Changes in LPS-Challenged Relative to Unchallenged bMECs from Mastitis-Resistant and Mastitis-Susceptible Cows	77
6 Fold Expression Differences in Unchallenged bMECs from Mastitis-Resistant Relative to Mastitis-Susceptible Cattle	79
7 Primers used for qPCR	100
8 Genes differentially expressed between bFs and bMECs under unchallenged conditions	101
9 Genes downregulated following LPS challenge in bFs and bMECs	101
10 Primers used for qPCR	114
11 Genes downregulated following LPS challenge in untreated and PLA2-treated bMECs	115
12 Single Nucleotide Polymorphisms Suggestive of Genome-Wide Significance for Bovine Mastitis Resistance	181

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
1A Manhattan Plot of Genome-Wide Associations for Mastitis Resistance in 43 Holstein Cows.....	59
1B Quantile-Quantile Plot of Observed and Expected p-Values.....	60
2 Cytokeratin expression among non-immortalized (A) and immortalized (B) bMECs	126
3 Growth Rates of Transfected and Non-transfected bMEC Lines	126

LIST OF NOTATIONS

A: adenine

bF: bovine fibroblast

bMEC: bovine mammary epithelial cell

BTA: *Bos taurus* autosome

C: cytosine

C5: complement component 5

CBP: CREB-binding protein

CCL: C-C motif chemokine ligand

CCR: C-C motif chemokine receptor

CD: cluster of differentiation

cDNA: complementary DNA

Chr: chromosome

CNV: copy number variation

CO₂: carbon dioxide

CXCL: chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand

CXCL8: interleukin-8

DHIA: Dairy Herd Improvement Association

DNA: deoxyribonucleic acid

FBS: fetal bovine serum

FCS: fetal calf serum

FDR: false detection rate

G: guanine

GAPDH: glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase

gBLUP: genomic best linear unbiased prediction

GRO1: chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2

GWAS: genome-wide association study

IL: interleukin

IL1A: IL-1 alpha

IL1B: IL-1 beta

IL1R1: IL1 receptor type 1

IL1RN: IL-1 receptor antagonist

IL2RG: IL2 receptor subunit gamma

KER8: cytokeratin 8

LB: lysogeny broth

LD: linkage disequilibrium

LPS: lipopolysaccharide

QTL: quantitative trait locus

MEC: mammary epithelial cell

MHC: major histocompatibility complex

MLMM: multi-locus mixed model

MMP: matrix metalloproteinase

NAPDH: nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate

NFκB: nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells

NK: natural killer

P_x: passage *x*

PCR: polymerase chain reaction

PLA2: phospholipase A2

qPCR: quantitative PCR

RASGRP1: RAS guanyl releasing protein 1

RNA: ribonucleic acid

SCC: somatic cell count

SCS: somatic cell score

SE: standard error

SLMM: single-locus mixed model

SNP: single nucleotide polymorphism

SORCS3: sortilin related VSP10 domain containing receptor 3

sPLA2: secreted PLA2

SV40 L Tag: Simian virus 40 large T antigen

T: thymine

T_H1: T-cell helper 1

TLR: Toll-like receptor

TNF: tumor necrosis factor

UXT: ubiquitously expressed transcript protein

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Mastitis Definition and Pathogens

Mastitis is the costliest disease in the dairy industry [1,2] due to loss of production, decreased milk quality, discarded milk, labor, veterinary treatments, mastitis-related culls, and diagnostics [3]. Additionally, the widespread use of preventative measures against mastitis are an ongoing source of economic losses [4].

Mastitis is defined as inflammation of the mammary gland. Most commonly, mastitis is a result of invasion of mammary tissue by bacterial pathogens entering through the teat canal [5], but may also result from invasion by fungal or algal pathogens, mechanical trauma, chemical injury, or thermal insult [6]. Inflammation results in temporary or permanent loss of function due to direct microbial and/or inflammatory-mediated damage to anatomic components, including the milk-secreting mammary epithelial cells (MECs). Mastitis is endemic among dairy cattle worldwide, with prevalence within dairy herds ranging from 5-75%, and among mammary quarters from 2-40% [7].

Bacterial infection is by far the most common cause of mastitis among dairy cattle. Mastitis-causing bacteria are traditionally categorized as environmental pathogens or contagious pathogens [5,6,8]. Classification of bacteria into one of these two categories is based on the predominant source of infection, although overlap may be seen

with some bacterial strains such as environmental pathogens with host-adapted virulence factors [9,10].

Important environmental pathogens include *Escherichia coli*, *Streptococcus uberis*, *Streptococcus dysgalactiae*, *Serratia* spp., *Klebsiella* spp., and *Enterobacter* spp. [10,11]. In comparison to contagious pathogens, a higher proportion of environmental pathogens cause clinical, rather than subclinical, mastitis [11]. The source of environmental pathogens is primarily the cows' surroundings, where these bacterial species are normally ubiquitous and capable of long-term survival and growth [6,10]. Manure, bedding, milking equipment, pre- and post-dip preparations, and flies are common sources [7,10]. Seasonal variation in the incidence of mastitis caused by environmental pathogens has been observed, with incidence increasing during hot or damp weather [12]. Entry of environmental pathogens into the teat canal occurs by propulsion during milking or by passive penetration of the teat canal. Environmental hygiene and pre-milking teat dipping are important management factors that impact levels of exposure to environmental pathogens. However, the prevalence of mastitis caused by environmental pathogens within individual herds is not consistently associated with management practices traditionally considered to reduce exposure to environmental pathogens [10]. Despite the widespread implementation of management practices that are successful in reducing the incidence of contagious mastitis, the control of environmental mastitis remains a substantial challenge within most dairy herds. As a consequence, environmental mastitis has become more common than contagious mastitis in the majority of well-managed herds [10]. Due to the ubiquitous nature of environmental

pathogens, antibiotic therapy, with the exception of treatment during the early dry period, is relatively ineffective in preventing mastitis caused by these pathogens [11].

The universally recognized contagious mastitis pathogens are *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Streptococcus agalactiae*, *Mycoplasma* spp., and *Corynebacterium bovis* [6,7,10]. Contagious pathogens are spread between cows and generally cannot persist long-term off the host [6,13]. Adherence factors allow colonization of the teat end or teat canal, and infection of the mammary gland occurs via the teat canal [13]. Hematogenous spread to the mammary gland or between mammary gland quarters is uncommon but has been reported for *Mycoplasma* spp. [14]. Infection most commonly occurs at milking, where milking equipment and workers' hands serve as fomites in the spread of the bacteria between cows.

Mastitis, whether caused by environmental or contagious pathogens, may be clinical or subclinical. Clinical signs of mastitis include mammary gland edema and hyperemia, changes to milk appearance or consistency, and/or systemic manifestations such as pyrexia and obtundation [6,15]. Intramammary infection without clinically detectable signs is termed subclinical mastitis. Because subclinical mastitis requires ancillary testing for diagnosis, it may not be readily detected on-farm and so may persist chronically, resulting in long-term detrimental effects on mammary gland function, milk quality, and milk somatic cell count (SCC). *Staphylococcus aureus*, a contagious mastitis pathogen, is a particularly important cause of chronic, subclinical mastitis in dairy cattle that is often accompanied by large increases in SCC [16,17]. Somatic cell count is a measure of the concentration of cells, particularly leukocytes, within milk, and is often

used as an indicator of intramammary infection status. Somatic cell count is discussed in further detail below. Strategies used to detect subclinical mastitis include regular monitoring of SCC, milk electrical conductivity testing to detect changes in ion concentrations, milk bacterial culture, polymerase chain reaction (PCR)-based pathogen detection, and assessment of milk pH [18–20]. Several methods exist for SCC monitoring, ranging from cow-side tests (California Mastitis Test) to more precise methods such as nuclear staining and optical fluorescence (Fossometric SCC; Delaval cell counter) [20].

Escherichia coli is an environmental pathogen capable of causing mild to severe, usually clinical mastitis variably accompanied by systemic illness. *Escherichia coli* has been used in many bovine mastitis studies because of its importance as a mastitis pathogen as well as its capacity to induce a strong inflammatory response in the mammary gland [21]. In this dissertation, lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *E. coli* was used in several studies to stimulate immune responses of bovine MECs. Pathogenicity of *E. coli* in intramammary infections generally is not strain-dependent [22,23], except in instances where host-specific virulence factors develop [9]. Pathogenicity is attributable predominantly to the presence of LPS, common to all *E. coli* strains, and is dose-dependent [22]. Recognition of the presence of LPS by host cells occurs predominantly through Toll-like receptor (TLR) 4. Bound TLR4 initiates transcription of various factors via the NF κ B signaling pathway, ultimately resulting in production of cytokines, antimicrobial defense proteins, and lipid mediators. Excessive cytokine production induced by LPS is an important contributor to the severity and clinical signs of *E. coli*-

associated mastitis. For example, the degree of production of the cytokine tumor necrosis factor (TNF) α is an important factor in determining the severity of clinical signs [24]. High levels of TNF α induce both local and systemic effects contributing to the morbidity and mortality in *E. coli* mastitis. Locally, TNF α promotes leukocyte-mediated tissue damage via its effects on leukocyte recruitment, activation, and nitric oxide production. Tumor necrosis factor α -induced increases in vascular permeability contribute to mammary gland hyperemia, edema, and altered milk composition due to leakage of plasma components into the milk. Systemic effects of TNF α include cardiovascular compromise via decreased cardiac output, systemic vasodilation, and increased vascular permeability; promotion of a pro-thrombotic state via endothelial cell activation; induction of pyrexia; and metabolic disturbances [6,25]. Other important proinflammatory mediators in the pathogenesis of *E. coli* mastitis include interleukin (IL)-1, IL-6, IL-8, platelet-activating factor, prostaglandins, and complement components [25].

Mastitis caused by *E. coli* occurs most commonly in periparturient or early-lactation cattle, and tends to be most severe in these animals. Intramammary infection by *E. coli* is an important cause of acute toxic mastitis in early-lactation cows [26]. Periparturient immunosuppression contributes to the increased incidence and severity of mastitis during this time. Weak or delayed neutrophil influx following intramammary infection is of particular relevance in *E. coli* infection [11,27], particularly when compounded by bacterial capsule production by some strains. Encapsulation serves a

protective function in bacteria against neutrophil-dependent defenses and contributes to prolonged infection by these strains [11].

Innate Immunity of the Bovine Mammary Gland

The pathogenesis of mastitis involves complex interactions between the etiologic agent and host tissues, influenced by a wide variety of environmental and genetic factors that contribute to disease susceptibility and outcome of infection [28]. Innate immunity, comprising relatively non pathogen-specific host responses, plays a particularly important role in mastitis pathogenesis[29]. Defense mechanisms of innate immunity that are of particular importance in prevention and elimination of intramammary infection include the epithelial barrier, secretions in milk, and leukocytes [30].

The teat canal is by far the most common portal of entry for mastitis pathogens [28]. Adaptations of the teat canal therefore comprise the first barrier to entry and establishment of pathogens [31,32]. Keratin and lipids continuously produced by keratinocytes lining the teat canal provide an impermeable barrier to most bacterial pathogens, and are of particular importance in forming a protective plug during mammary gland involution and the dry period [28,31,33]. In the lactating cow, the keratin plug is lost but the teat orifice closes between milkings due to the contraction of the teat sphincter muscle, which is responsive to acetylcholine and tension from milk fill [32]. Closure by the teat sphincter following milking takes up to two hours or longer [28,30], during which time the mammary gland is susceptible to entry by mastitis pathogens. The common management practice of feeding lactating cows directly

following milking is in part a measure to reduce mastitis incidence [34], as feeding activity delays lying behavior, reducing contact between the open teat end and sources of environmental contamination such as bedding material and manure. Continual shedding of teat canal keratinocytes as well as the flushing action of milk during milking provide additional defenses against bacterial colonization of the mammary gland [31].

Mammary epithelial cells lining the teat canal, ductal system, and gland acini provide a second line of defense. In addition to providing a dynamic physical barrier against bacterial entry, these cells contribute to inflammatory responses during intramammary infection [30]. Tight junctions between MECs are a major component of the physical barrier between the milk space (acinar and cisternal spaces and duct lumens) and the interstitial space of the mammary gland. The permeability of this barrier varies with lactational stage and intramammary infection status, and is influenced by factors such as epithelial growth factor and transforming growth factor β , which in turn are under hormonal control by prolactin, progesterone, and glucocorticoids [35]. Permeability is increased, for example, during the dry period in uninfected glands [30]. Impermeability is important during lactation to prevent microbial entry. However, during active intramammary infection, permeability is increased as a result of direct damage by bacterial toxins as well as the influence of pro-inflammatory mediators such as histamine, TNF α , and interferon γ [25,30]. Although increased permeability may compromise barrier function, it facilitates entry of effectors of innate immunity into the milk compartment. Natural (opsonic) antibodies, complement components, transferrin, and acute-phase proteins are some examples [30].

Mammary epithelial cells are capable of recognizing antigen from invading organisms through expression of pattern recognition receptors, including TLRs 2 and 4 [36]. A soluble form of CD14 (sCD14) which binds LPS and facilitates its interaction with TLR4, is present in milk and is produced by MECs [28,37]. Binding of pathogen components to TLRs initiates a cellular signal transduction pathway that ultimately leads to the production of inflammatory mediators. Toll-like receptor 2 binds components of Gram-positive bacteria, such as lipoteichoic acid and peptidoglycan, while TLR4 binds mainly LPS. Initially, LPS binding protein binds LPS, subsequently forming a complex with sCD14. Lipopolysaccharide is then transferred to the LPS receptor complex composed of TLR4 and lymphocyte antigen 96 (MD2), inducing homodimerization of TLR4. Transmembrane signaling results in activation of nuclear factors NF- κ B and activated protein-1 and initiates production of pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines [6,24,30]. Specific cytokines generated as a result of intramammary infection vary by pathogen, as demonstrated by *in vivo* and *in vitro* studies examining cytokine expression profiles of MEC challenged with various bacterial species and/or bacterial components [36,38,39].

Alveolar and ductal MECs additionally produce non-cytokine secreted factors that contribute to innate immunity. Lactoferrin and citrate from MECs contribute to iron chelation, which exerts a bacteriostatic effect on bacterial species with high iron requirements, such as *E. coli* and *S. aureus*. Lactoferrin additionally has bactericidal effects (including synergism with other bactericidal proteins), anti-inflammatory effects via LPS binding, and modulatory effects on complement activation [30,40]. The enzyme

xanthine oxidase, derived from milk fat globule membranes produced by MECs, additionally has bactericidal effects through generation of reactive oxygen species [30,41].

Neutrophils and macrophages are the major effector leukocytes involved in the innate immune response against intramammary infection. In the uninfected mammary gland, macrophages are the predominant cell type in milk, comprising 66-88% of somatic cells, accompanied by low numbers of neutrophils ($<10^5$ cells/ml; 0-11% of milk somatic cells) [42,43]. Lymphocytes are also present, comprising 10-27% of milk somatic cells, and are predominantly CD8⁺ T-lymphocytes expressing the $\alpha\beta$ receptor [43]. These populations shift with intramammary infection.

In the acute stages of inflammation, neutrophils become the predominant cell type, making up >90% of the total leukocyte population in milk [42]. Neutrophils are recruited from circulation by inflammatory mediators produced by MECs as well as by other leukocytes, predominantly macrophages. Inflammatory cytokines such as TNF α and interleukins (ILs) stimulate the expression of endothelial selectins (E-selectin, P-selectin) and adhesion molecule (intercellular adhesion molecule 1, vascular cellular adhesion molecule 1) as well as expression of neutrophil adhesion molecule Mac-1, enabling neutrophil migration from the circulation to sites of inflammation [6,43]. Migration of neutrophils in the extravascular compartment to target sites occurs along concentration gradients of a number of factors, including complement components C5a and C3a, LPS, IL-1, IL-2, and IL-8 [30]. Neutrophils act as effector cells of innate immunity via phagocytosis of bacteria as well as through bactericidal effects of secreted

molecules. Bactericidal effects are mediated mainly through the respiratory burst, in which nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide phosphate (NADPH) oxidases produce superoxide anions which then dismutate into hydrogen peroxide, hydroxyl, and other reactive oxygen species capable of destroying bacteria [44]. Other anti-microbial molecules released by neutrophils include defensins, lactoferrin, and bactenecins [30,42].

Although neutrophil numbers are low in the healthy mammary gland, the concentration and viability of neutrophils in the healthy mammary gland is inversely related to the risk of intramammary infection and the severity of coliform mastitis. Additionally, the degree and rapidity of neutrophil recruitment vary between individuals and are important factors in the outcome of infection [45]. Factors reported to affect the functionality of neutrophils within the mammary gland include cow parity, stage of lactation, nutritional/metabolic status, and genetic factors [25,30]. Neutrophils are highly effective at combating bacterial infection, but their responses secondarily contribute to mammary gland damage as a result of the release of lysosomal contents, reactive oxygen species, and tissue disruption associated with trans epithelial migration [25,46,47].

Macrophages comprise 9-32% of milk somatic cells in acutely infected quarters [43]. These cells are important in pathogen recognition, antigen presentation, and leukocyte recruitment. Pathogens are destroyed through phagocytosis and exposure to reactive oxygen species (superoxide, produced from O_2 by NADPH oxidase) and proteases. Phagocytosis is enhanced by opsonization of pathogens by complement components and by natural or pathogen-specific antibody that is recognized by macrophage Fc receptors [6,48]. The contribution of macrophages to phagocytosis during

mastitis is considered fairly minor in comparison with that of neutrophils [43]. More importantly, macrophages contribute to the innate and adaptive immune response through secretion of nitric oxide and inflammatory mediators as well as antigen processing and presentation via major histocompatibility complex (MHC) class II receptors. Activated macrophages secrete prostaglandins, leukotrienes, and cytokines to influence various aspects of the inflammatory response, including development and recruitment of other leukocytes. For example, IL-12 produced by macrophages enhances the development of CD8⁺ (cytotoxic) T-lymphocytes while simultaneously driving a T_H1 response, stimulating cell-mediated adaptive immune mechanisms [6,43]. As inflammation resolves, macrophages participate in phagocytosis and clearing of neutrophils [46,48]. Macrophage function is diminished during the periparturient period, contributing to an increased susceptibility to intramammary infection during this time [30].

Lymphocyte populations with a role in the response to intramammary infection include natural killer (NK) cells, CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T-lymphocytes, $\gamma\delta$ T-lymphocytes, and B-lymphocytes. Total lymphocytes comprise 14-24% of milk somatic cells from infected quarters [43].

Natural killer cells are a subset of cytotoxic lymphocytes capable of exerting their effects independently of interaction with antigen presented by MHC molecules, and are an important component of innate immunity [6]. Contributions of NK cells during bovine mastitis have not yet been fully defined, but cells with NK-like activity have been demonstrated in the mammary gland [26] and may be an important component of innate immunity against intramammary infection [28–30]. In general, NK cells identify and

destroy injured or infected cells via recognition of decreased MHC I expression, increased expression of activating receptors, and decreased expression of inhibitory receptors by target cells, and can recognize antibody-bound cells via Fc receptor binding [6]. Natural killer cells are capable of secreting TNF- α and other factors that promote pro-inflammatory responses [29].

Besides NK cells, lymphocytes are primarily involved in the adaptive, rather than innate, immune response. The relative degree of expansion of CD8⁺ and CD4⁺ $\alpha\beta$ T-lymphocyte populations in response to intramammary infection varies depending on the causal pathogen and the stage of infection [21,49]. For example, increased lymphocyte numbers during intramammary infection are due primarily to CD4⁺ T-lymphocyte expansion during staphylococcal infection, whereas both CD4⁺ and CD8⁺ T-lymphocyte expansion occurs during streptococcal infection [49]. In the uninfected mammary gland, B-cell levels remain fairly consistent throughout stages of lactation. In the infected mammary gland, B-cell differentiation and clonal expansion occurs in response to IL-2 secreted from CD4⁺ T-lymphocytes, constituting the humoral component of the immune response [29].

Depression of immunity against mastitis and other diseases during the periparturient and early lactation periods is a widely-recognized phenomenon in cattle [50,51]. Several mechanisms are involved, including decreased leukocyte function, altered leukocyte trafficking, changes in circulating and mammary gland leukocyte populations, altered cytokine production, and decreased leukocyte survival [51–53].

Important factors driving these changes include increased glucocorticoid levels associated with the stress of calving and nutritional and genetic factors [53].

Damage to the Mammary Gland during Mastitis

Mastitis-induced mammary gland damage and disruption of function are consequences of direct effects of pathogens as well as effects from the host immune response, namely those associated with leukocyte responses, proteases, and inflammatory mediators.

The presence of some bacterial components such as LPS can induce apoptosis in MECs via upregulation of pro-apoptotic factors (Bax, IL-1 β -converting enzyme) and simultaneous downregulation of anti-apoptotic factors such as Bcl-2. Some bacteria, such as *S. aureus*, induce apoptosis of MECs and other cells through cellular injury associated with direct invasion [54]. Direct bacterial effects contribute also to necrosis during mastitis. Virulence factors of causative bacteria may include toxin production, inducing cell death through host cellular membrane damage or intracytoplasmic enzymatic activity. Some pathogens produce effector proteins such as proteinases, while others induce damage through the production of superantigens [55].

Reactive oxygen species, produced by neutrophils and macrophages during the respiratory burst, are an important cause of tissue injury and necrosis during mastitis. The purpose of the respiratory burst is to destroy bacterial pathogens, but local host cells frequently become casualties during this process. Reactive oxygen species are damaging

to lipids, proteins, carbohydrates, and nucleic acids, and therefore exert a wide range of detrimental effects on exposed host cells, including MECs [55].

In addition to production of reactive oxygen species, neutrophils initiate cellular damage through degranulation. Among other constituents, granules contain neutral and acidic proteases such as elastase, cathepsins G, B, and D, and matrix metalloproteinase (MMP). These proteases are capable of damaging mammary gland membrane proteins and interstitial matrix components, thereby exerting damaging effects on MECs and other mammary gland components [33].

Inflammatory cytokines such as $\text{TNF}\alpha$ produced during mastitis contribute to increased vascular and MEC barrier permeability. This, in turn, facilitates entry of potentially damaging plasma proteins into the mammary gland. For example, plasmin and plasminogen concentrations in the milk increase during mastitis as a result of increased MEC barrier permeability. The presence of these higher concentrations is further compounded by release of plasminogen-activating factors from neutrophils and some bacterial pathogens. Plasmin exerts damaging effects on MECs through direct degradation of matrix proteins (fibrin, laminin) as well as through activation of MMP precursors. Other potentially damaging plasma proteins increased in the mammary gland during mastitis include MMP-9, MMP-2, 120-kDa gelatinase, and stromelysin-1. Degradation of matrix proteins by these proteases contributes to compromise of MEC attachment to the extracellular matrix, and thereby to MEC damage [28,55].

Inflammatory cytokines produced during mastitis may also have direct damaging effects on host cells. Exposure to $\text{TNF}\alpha$ and IL-1 induces apoptosis in bovine endothelial cells and human MECs. A similar effect on bovine MECs is possible [55].

Changes to Milk during Mastitis

One of the most economically important consequences of mastitis is the decrease in milk production that accompanies the disease. Damage to MECs, and therefore reduced production capacity, is a result of direct damage by mastitis pathogens as well as injury secondary to the inflammatory response [6], as discussed above. Even with therapeutic intervention, milk production may be affected for several weeks following intramammary infection before returning to expected levels [56]. Irreversible damage can occur as a result of severe or prolonged intramammary infection, in which secretory cells may be sloughed or permanently replaced by fibrous tissue [6]. In these cases, milk production is affected throughout the current as well as all subsequent lactations.

In addition to lowering the volume of milk produced, mastitis results in substantial changes in milk composition. Decreases occur in lactose, α -lactalbumin, fat, and potassium. Increased vascular permeability as a result of inflammation results in leakage of sodium, chloride, and plasma proteins into the milk, particularly proteins associated with inflammatory responses. Additional proteins are released by mammary epithelial cells and leukocytes. Proteins increased in milk from infected quarters include whey, serum albumin, immunoglobulins, transferrin, lactoferrin, and various enzymes including xanthine oxidase, acid phosphatase, α 1-antitrypsin, and n-Acetyl- β -D-

glucosaminidase [57,58]. Some of these enzymes, such as plasmin, may alter milk quality further via cleavage of milk components such as casein both prior to and following milking [28,58]. The pH of milk from mastitis quarters is frequently elevated due to the presence of plasma components [58]. During active infection, the causative organisms, usually bacteria, are present in variable numbers in the milk, and may be accompanied by bacterial toxins [58,59]. Milk SCC rises as a result of an influx of large numbers of leukocytes into the milk. In cases of clinical mastitis, milk from affected quarters may have altered color and/or consistency, often characterized by decreased viscosity with or without clots due to coagulation of leukocytes and clotting factors [58].

Somatic Cell Count as an Indicator of Intramammary Infection

Measurement of milk SCC is frequently used as a diagnostic indicator of mammary gland health status. As an indicator of intramammary infection, SCC is used in the dairy industry in public health regulatory programs as a factor in determining the suitability of milk for human consumption. In the US dairy industry, for example, requirements of the Pasteurized Milk Ordinance place a limit on the SCC of milk (<750,000 cells/ml in Grade A raw milk) [60]. Additionally, SCC limits are used in some milk quality incentive programs, since mastitis can result in altered milk composition (discussed previously) and decreased shelf-life [60]. These applications of SCC measurement demonstrate aspects of the economic importance of minimizing mastitis in dairy cattle, as high SCC can potentially result in decreased milk value or even exclusion of milk from the food supply.

Intramammary infection is by far the largest contributor to an increased SCC, but a number of other factors can also affect SCC. Variation exists in the degree of SCC increase between pathogens. Bacteria that elicit marked cellular responses, with resultant large increases in SCC, are known as major pathogens. Common examples include coliforms and *S. aureus*. Infection by major pathogens results in an average SCC of >600,000 cells/ml [61]. Minor pathogens result in a less pronounced cellular response and thus a smaller increase in SCC. Minor pathogens include *Corynebacterium bovis* and coagulase-negative staphylococci. Infection by minor pathogens can result in SCCs of near or even less than 200,000 cells/ml [61]. Therefore, detection of cattle infected with minor pathogens may be poor unless additional testing is not carried out [16].

The stage of infection additionally affects SCC. In experimentally infected cows, SCC was highest during the acute stages of infection. Variation due to the challenge organism existed in the time to peak SCC after infection, but occurred within hours to days [62]. Somatic cell count may be elevated 10 days prior to clinical mastitis in naturally-infected cows [63] and can persist for variable amounts of time following clearance of intramammary infection [64,65]. As elevated SCC may persist after an infection is cleared, a cow in this stage may be falsely classified as actively infected despite having cleared the causative organism.

The stage of lactation also influences SCC. In uninfected cows, the highest SCC occurs at drying off, followed by directly after calving, and the lowest occurs from peak to mid-lactation. This trend is the inverse of milk volume production, suggesting a

dilution effect [16]. Variation in this trend may be influenced by parity, as somatic cell linear scores in first-lactation cows may conversely be higher in early lactation [66].

Hourly and daily variations in SCC occur. Hourly variations are influenced by the milking schedule, with the highest SCC generally detected at milk stripping and within 1-3 hours after milking. Differences between daily high and low SCC ranges from 4- to 70-fold for individual quarters [58]. Therefore, a single daily SCC measurement may not be representative of overall SCC. Day-to-day variation is particularly of relevance among infected cows [16].

Because milk somatic cells represent a component of the immune defense against mastitis pathogens, a low SCC (<200,000 cells per ml during intramammary infection) in some cattle may indicate a depressed or ineffective immune response to intramammary infection rather than an absence of intramammary infection. In fact, low SCC has been reported as a risk factor in the subsequent development of clinical mastitis [67,68].

Somatic cell count is a widely used but imperfect indicator of intramammary infection status, with the potential to be influenced by the above factors. Measures other than SCC have been used to determine the infection status of cows. Milk bacterial culture is useful and can be carried out on-farm [69]. Identification of mastitis pathogens via PCR or immunoassays provides an alternative to bacterial culture for detection of specific pathogens, and is becoming more widely available in recent years but may still be cost-prohibitive [20]. The potential for sample contamination as well as the potential for a lack of bacterial shedding during intramammary infection must be considered in the interpretation of pathogen detection methods. Regular observation of milk and the

mammary gland for changes consistent with mastitis (e.g. altered milk consistency, visibly inflamed mammary gland tissue) allows for detection of clinical mastitis, but gives no indication of subclinical mastitis. Tests for biomarkers of mastitis, such as measurement of milk lactate dehydrogenase levels [70], have been proposed, but the use of these for commercial purposes has limitations [20]. Reliable determination of infection status is best achieved through a combination of SCC measurement, pathogen detection, and examination for clinical mastitis [71].

Factors Influencing Mastitis Resistance

An individual's phenotype for any given trait, including disease resistance, may be influenced by genetic and environmental factors. The relative contribution of each of these factors varies by trait [6,72]. In disease resistance, environmental factors may include nutritional and metabolic status, age, concurrent disease, hormonal status, environmental temperatures, and, for infectious diseases, the type and dose of pathogen exposure. Genetic factors that impact disease severity vary greatly between different diseases, but by definition include any variation within the genome that influences an individual's susceptibility. Many traits are considered quantitative, meaning that the cumulative influence of and interaction between multiple genes (polygenes) determines the phenotype. These traits display polygenic inheritance, yielding a continuous gradient of phenotypes among individuals rather than distinct phenotypic categories [73]. Environmental factors often have substantial influences on expression patterns of the genotype, thereby contributing to the phenotype (multifactorial inheritance) [28,74].

Mastitis resistance is a multifactorial, quantitative trait [28,72,75]. In dairy cattle, recognized external environmental factors influencing mastitis susceptibility are many, including nutritional management, housing type and management, bedding material, milking routine, maintenance and performance of milking equipment, season, dry cow management, and the use of preventative disease programs [12,76–78]. Additional, cow-dependent, non-genetic factors include stage of lactation, reproductive status, concurrent disease, and metabolic status [53,76,79,80]. These factors have variable but often substantial effects on mastitis traits, and much research has focused on optimizing the management of environmental factors and milking practices in an effort to decrease mastitis incidence.

Genetic factors are also known to contribute to mastitis susceptibility. Heritability for clinical mastitis is reported by most studies to be within the range of 0.003 to 0.17 [81–88], but has been reported to be as high as 0.42 [89]. Heritability for subclinical mastitis is reported within the range of 0.04 to 0.14 [87,88], with one study reporting differences in heritability to subclinical mastitis based on the causative agent [88]. Heritability for somatic cell score (SCS; a derivative of SCC) is reported within the range of 0.01 to 0.187 [84,90–93]. Although the heritability of mastitis traits appears to be relatively low, genetic selection for mastitis resistance nevertheless has been demonstrated to reduce the incidence of mastitis, particularly when genetic markers of mastitis traits are used [89,94]. Because of the potentially substantial benefits of marker-assisted selection, discovery of genetic markers of mastitis resistance is an ongoing pursuit within the field of dairy science.

An Introduction to Genome-Wide Association Studies

Regions of the genome associated with quantitative traits, such as mastitis susceptibility, are termed quantitative trait loci (QTLs). Identification of QTLs, and the specific variants within them associated with phenotype for a given trait, provide the basis for marker-assisted selection in animal breeding.

Within QTLs, a number of recognized types of variation can influence phenotype. These include differences in copy numbers of genes, gene segments, or non-coding sequences (copy number variations, CNVs); micro- and minisatellites; and sequence polymorphisms [95]. Single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), the most common form of variation [96], are sites within the genome where allelic variations in a single nucleotide base are present in greater than 1% of the population. They may occur in coding or non-coding regions, and can affect gene expression or gene products [95,97]. Single nucleotide polymorphisms have been associated with variations in specific phenotypic traits in many species, including mastitis traits in cattle.

Single nucleotide polymorphisms significantly associated with a particular trait can be identified through candidate gene studies or genome-wide association studies (GWAS). In candidate gene studies, specific genes or genomic regions hypothesized or known to be relevant to the phenotype of interest are selected and genotyped. These genotyped regions are then examined for SNPs, and whether specific alleles of these SNPs vary significantly among phenotypically divergent individuals (e.g. cattle with a high level of susceptibility versus those with high level of resistance to a disease). Selection of candidate genes may be based on knowledge of biological function or on

results of previous genomic studies [97,98]. Genome-wide association studies, on the other hand, allow genotyping of large numbers of SNPs across the genome. Detection of SNPs that are significantly associated with the trait of interest is not limited to previously-identified regions known to be associated with the trait, thus allowing for an expanded potential to detect novel variants (previously unidentified SNPs) [97]. In the context of disease, GWAS can potentially highlight previously unknown contributions of specific genes or regions to disease susceptibility, thereby contributing to elucidation of disease mechanisms in addition to detection of novel genetic markers. Genome-wide association studies are appropriate if the common disease/common variant hypothesis is true, in which a common, complex disease is influenced by genetic variants that are common within the population. Complex diseases influenced by multiple loci, each with a small effect, are most well suited to GWAS [98,99].

Using GWAS, the number of SNPs genotyped varies by assay. Low-density (several thousand SNPs), medium-density, and high-density (hundreds of thousands of SNPs) arrays are available for GWAS in cattle. Increased marker density increases the power to detect significant associations [100], and is particularly important when numerous loci with small effects are studied. Even with high-density arrays, however, only a small proportion of the total SNPs in the genome are genotyped. Genome-wide association studies rely on the concept of linkage disequilibrium (LD), defined as the non-random association of alleles at different loci due to non-random patterns of genetic recombination [101]. Single nucleotide polymorphisms located together between two areas in the genome where recombination commonly occurs may be inherited together

more frequently than would be expected by chance, and thus would be considered in LD with each other [96]. The degree of LD is commonly expressed as an r^2 statistic, defined as the square of the correlation coefficient between the presence or absence of a specific allele at one locus and the presence or absence of a specific allele at a second locus [102]. The r^2 values range from 0 to 1, where $r^2 = 1$ indicates that specific alleles of the SNPs are inherited together in all individuals of the study population, whereas $r^2 = 0$ indicates that the alleles are independently inherited and thus in linkage *equilibrium* [96]. Linkage disequilibrium among some groups of SNPs is strong enough that a relatively small number of associated allele sets, or haplotypes, account for the majority of the variation at that genomic region within a population. Because of LD, the causal SNP of the phenotypic variation does not itself need to be genotyped so long as a SNP with which it is in strong LD is genotyped. Genotyped SNPs in high LD with a causal SNP are called tag SNPs, and can be used to predict phenotype due to their LD relationship with the causal SNP [96,98]. In the human genome, for example, LD allows for the majority of genomic variation to be detected in subjects of European ancestry using 300,000 well-chosen tag SNPs. Single nucleotide polymorphisms can be chosen for GWAS arrays based on existing knowledge of SNP-phenotype associations, such as that provided by the human HapMap project, or, more commonly, are an unbiased selection distributed uniformly across the genome [98].

Genome-Wide Association Study Methodology

The first step in a successful GWAS is study population selection. Sample size is one factor that influences the power of detection of significant SNPs, and is particularly important in detection of rare variants [95,99]. Additionally, robust methods for phenotypic classification of individuals within the sample population are essential in order for true associations to be detected [99]. Due to the high expense of GWAS arrays and data analysis, studies may be carried out as two-stage designs, in which a relatively small sample size is used initially. Single nucleotide polymorphisms found to be significantly associated with the trait of interest within the initial sample population can be selected for further analysis in the second stage of the study, within an expanded population. Thus, the number of SNPs to be genotyped in the second stage of the study can be greatly reduced by eliminating SNPs with no evidence of association to the trait. In some studies, the initial stage is used to select specific areas of the genome to examine in more detail by increasing marker density at that area for the second stage of the study [95,98]. For single-stage studies, an approach to reduce sample size while retaining statistical power has been described (“selective genotyping”). In this approach, only the phenotypically extreme individuals (e.g. the most highly resistant and most highly susceptible individuals to a disease) are genotyped; the number of individuals characterized as phenotypically extreme should not exceed 20-25% of the population [103]. This approach is based on the assumption that allelic frequencies of causal variants are most highly divergent between the high and low phenotypic extremes within a

population. Selective genotyping therefore provides an enrichment effect of causal alleles within the genotyped population [104].

Genotyping is carried out using a SNP microarray following genomic DNA isolation and purification. Several SNP array platforms exist, with widely used arrays available from Affymetrix (Santa Clara, CA) and Illumina (San Diego, CA). Both are based on hybridization of DNA fragments containing a SNP of interest to a complementary oligonucleotide probe on the array, combined with a detection chemistry to generate nucleotide-specific signals at each SNP site. Affymetrix arrays consist of short oligonucleotides affixed directly to the array chip surface. Illumina arrays are microbead-based, with oligonucleotide probes affixed to microbeads on the chip. Illumina chips are more expensive to manufacture, but have a higher specificity than Affymetrix arrays due to the use of longer oligonucleotide probes [99].

For analysis using Illumina arrays, genomic DNA is first processed by fragmentation and whole-genome amplification before hybridization to the array. Each probe on the array consists of an oligonucleotide sequence complementary to a sample genomic DNA sequence, with its 3' end directly adjacent to a SNP site. Hybridization of genomic DNA to its complementary probe results in overhang of the genomic DNA fragment directly at the SNP site. Subsequently, single base extension at the 3' end of the probe incorporates a labeled nucleotide complementary to the SNP allele. A wash step then eliminates remaining, unbound labeled nucleotides from the array. The chip is then scanned, and signals emitted by the labeled nucleotides are recorded. Because each of the four nucleotides (A, C, T, G) are differentially labeled, and the positions of the

oligonucleotide probes on the array are known, the signal emitted at each microbead position is used to determine the allele(s) present at each specific SNP site [105,106]. Pixel values obtained from the array scan are first converted to signal intensity values at each position. Signal intensities are then subjected to intensive quality control measures, also called low-level analyses, before the genotype (the allele present at each SNP site) can be called. Many factors affect signal intensities, including DNA concentration and differences in probe affinities between individual alleles. Genotype calling algorithms account for these factors, normalizing signal intensities to facilitate accurate genotype calling. A number of algorithms have been developed, reviewed elsewhere [98], and commonly employ a Bayesian approach. Genotypes that cannot be accurately called following these quality control measures are excluded from the data set. Ultimately, three signal intensities are possible, indicating that an individual is homozygous for the major (more common) allele, homozygous for the minor (less common) allele, or heterozygous [98].

The data are filtered by a number of further quality control steps after genotype calling. Individual samples for which more than a few SNPs could not be called are assumed to be of poor quality and are excluded from the data set. In most studies, samples with a call rate of less than 97% of SNPs are excluded. Individual SNPs for which genotyping failed in multiple animals are also excluded from the dataset. A threshold of 2 to 3% is usually set, such that any SNP with a failed call rate above this is excluded. Additionally, SNPs for which the minor (less common) allele frequency is low are excluded from the data set, as there is insufficient statistical power to detect a true

association of these SNPs to the trait using GWAS. Single nucleotide polymorphisms with minor allele frequencies of less than 1 to 5% are usually excluded [98].

Following quality control measures, GWAS require adjustment for familial relatedness between animals in order to avoid artificial inflation of significance values. One method to account for familial relatedness is the genomic best linear unbiased prediction (gBLUP) method, which generates a marker-based genomic kinship matrix for integration into the analysis. Covariance between individuals is determined based on comparison between samples of a large number of genetic markers such as SNPs, and is used to determine relatedness with more accuracy than pedigree-based methods [107]. The kinship matrix generated by gBLUP is then incorporated into mixed linear model analysis, with relatedness corrected for as a random effect [108].

Once genotype calling, data filtering, and generation of a kinship matrix have been completed, data analysis can proceed. Linear regression, the single locus mixed model (SLMM), and the multi-locus mixed model (MLMM) are three alternative methods commonly used in GWAS. Of these, the mixed models incorporate both fixed and random effects, and thus are able to take into account familial relatedness using a kinship matrix, as discussed above [109,110]. The SLMM detects associations between a trait and individual markers, examining the relationship of each SNP to the phenotype independently of other SNPs [110]. The MLMM is used for complex traits influenced by multiple moderate- to large-effect loci, and examines interaction effects between SNPs throughout the genome. It employs a stepwise mixed model regression and a forward inclusion and backward elimination of multiple loci as cofactors, thereby reducing

confounding effects of background loci across the genome. Compared with the single locus MLM, the MLMM generally yields lower false detection rates (FDR) and higher power [108,110].

In mixed model analysis, a genetic model must be specified. An additive, dominant, recessive, or multiplicative inheritance pattern is selected based on knowledge from previous studies, if available [99,108]. Frequently, the inheritance pattern of the SNPs of interest is unknown. In these cases, the additive inheritance model is selected, as this has the power to detect both additive and dominant effects. Additive inheritance assumes a linear, uniform increase in risk for expression of the phenotype in question (e.g. disease susceptibility) for each copy of the risk-associated allele. In other words, if two alleles, *a* and *A*, exist for a particular SNP, and the *A* allele is associated with increased disease susceptibility, an animal with the genotype *AA* will be twice as disease-susceptible as an animal with the *Aa* genotype. If an animal with the *Aa* genotype is three times more susceptible to developing the disease than an animal with the *aa* genotype, an animal with the *AA* genotype will be twice as susceptible than the *Aa* animal, or six times more susceptible than the *aa* animal. The dominant model, on the other hand, assumes equal risk for *Aa* and *AA* animals, while the recessive model assumes that an animal must have two copies of the causative allele (*AA*) in order to have increased susceptibility. The multiplicative model assumes that an animal with the genotype *AA* is x^2 more susceptible than an animal with the *Aa* genotype. [99].

Depending on the study population, additional covariates (other known factors that may influence the trait) must be considered and incorporated into the model if

appropriate. These may include population stratification (e.g. different ethnic groups), sex, age, and study site [99,108].

Due to the large number of individual statistical tests carried out in mixed model analysis, p-values generated by the analysis must be corrected for multiple testing. The Bonferroni and FDR methods are two commonly used methods. The Bonferroni correction adjusts the false positive rate for the number of statistical tests; the alpha value (significance value) is divided by the number of statistical tests run. This method assumes that each association test for every SNP is independent of all other tests, and therefore does not account for LD. The FDR method allows adjustment of the false positive rate through providing an estimate of the proportion of significant results that are false positives [99]. This method has increased power over the Bonferroni method, with an increasing advantage as the number of tests increase, but may overestimate false positives [111].

The corrected p-values indicate the level of association between each SNP and the trait of interest. A universal threshold for genome-wide significance has not been established, although 5.5×10^{-8} has been suggested by the International HapMap Consortium [112] and has been used in many GWAS [98,113]. However, less stringent thresholds have been proposed to account for factors such as allele frequency [113] and LD [98]. Recently, guidelines for determining appropriate significance thresholds adapted for individual GWAS have been suggested [113].

Although GWAS provide a powerful tool for genetic marker discovery, the risk of falsely identifying associations is a notable limitation [114]. Follow-on studies are

therefore required to validate GWAS findings, and should include replication of results in a separate but comparable and ideally expanded population [114]. Consideration of the functional relevance (known or demonstrable influences on the phenotype of interest) of candidate genes identified by GWAS can also assist in distinguishing false positives from true associations and serve as a guide for the direction of follow-on studies [115,116].

The Application of Marker-Assisted Selection for Mastitis Traits

In livestock species, selection for health or production traits may be based on phenotypic measures or the use of genetic marker-assisted methods for single-gene or quantitative traits [117]. The potential for marker-assisted methods to improve the efficiency and precision of selection over conventional methods has been demonstrated in a number of production species. In dairy cattle, for example, marker-assisted selection for decreased SCS in first-lactation heifers resulted in a higher level of discrimination between high and low SCS heifers than did a conventional strategy relying on parental relative estimated breeding values for SCS [94]. Similar conventional and marker-assisted selection strategies were used in a separate study to identify mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cattle [118]. In that study, primary MECs from cattle within the marker-assisted groups displayed marked differences in inflammatory gene expression between resistant and susceptible cattle following challenge by *E. coli* and *S. aureus*. In contrast, differences in inflammatory gene expression by MECs between resistant and susceptible cattle within the conventionally selected group were limited to a single gene,

at a single timepoint, after challenge by *E. coli* only. These and other studies illustrate the potential of marker-assisted selection in improving mastitis traits in dairy cattle.

The search for genetic markers of mastitis traits for use in selection programs has focused on identification of QTLs and candidate genes. As of March 2017, the cattle QTL database (<http://animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>), which catalogues publicly available QTLs in cattle [119], lists 244 distinct QTLs of mastitis traits. These include 69 QTLs for clinical mastitis, 28 QTLs for SCC, and 147 QTLs for SCS. Numerous candidate genes with recognized genetic variants have been proposed as likely contributors to mastitis traits due to their roles in the pathogenesis of mastitis. Examples of promising candidate genes proposed by multiple independent studies include C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 1 (CXCR1) [120–127], TLR4 [128–131], and TLR2 [132–134]. C-X-C motif chemokine receptor 1 is a high-affinity receptor for IL-8. Receptor-ligand interaction promotes cell migration, production of reactive oxygen species, and phagocytosis, and affects cell survival regulation and cytokine production [135]. Significant upregulation of CXCR1 expression occurs rapidly in the bovine mammary gland following intramammary infusion of bacteria [136]. Toll-like receptors 2 and 4 are involved in pathogen recognition [6], and are upregulated in the bovine mammary gland during mastitis [137].

Before any selection method, including marker-assisted selection, is implemented, the effects of selection on other traits must be considered. In some instances, selection for a single trait can have detrimental effects on the selection progress of separate traits [117]. For example, an unfavorable genetic correlation for mastitis traits and milk production

traits has been demonstrated [93,138,139]. Linkage disequilibrium between causal variants of these two traits exists in some regions of the genome, with common haplotypes containing unfavorable alleles for one trait and favorable alleles for the other [138,140]. Because these two traits are both considered important in dairy cattle, care should be taken not to unacceptably compromise one trait for improvement of the other. However, selection for both traits simultaneously is possible by, for example, selecting for less common haplotypes that confer favorable alleles for both traits [140,141].

The identification and validation of genetic markers of mastitis traits, as well as their implementation in selective breeding programs, are not without challenges. Genome-wide association studies provide a powerful tool for discovery of genetic markers and QTLs, but results must be repeatable for validation of true associations [114]. Identification of candidate genes can serve as a guide for follow-on studies to define the functional relevance of variants and can advance knowledge of disease pathogenesis. Additionally, in applying marker-assisted techniques to livestock improvement, the effects of selection for a single trait on other important health or production traits must be considered.

Research Objectives and Findings

The first objective of this dissertation was to identify QTLs of mastitis resistance based on SNPs in Holstein dairy cattle. Phenotypic characterization of lactating Holstein cattle was based on monitoring for clinical mastitis and milk bacterial culture, supplemented by monthly SCC measurements, over an eight-month period. Phenotypic

extremes (highly mastitis-resistant cattle and highly mastitis-susceptible cattle) were identified and included in a GWAS using a selective genotyping approach. Using a SLMM analysis, 117 SNPs suggestive of genome-wide significance ($p < 1E-04$) for mastitis resistance were identified. From these, 27 QTLs, including 10 novel QTLs, of mastitis resistance were identified.

The remaining objectives of this dissertation involved assessment of bovine MEC inflammatory responses. In order to accomplish these objectives, a method to establish primary bovine MEC lines from a small volume of bovine milk was developed. The first objective was to compare expression of inflammatory genes between bMECs from mastitis-resistant cows, before and after stimulation of an inflammatory response, to those of bMECs from mastitis-susceptible cows. The expression of genes relevant to inflammation by unchallenged and LPS-challenged bovine MECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cattle were identified. An enhanced ability of bovine MECs from mastitis-resistant cattle over those from mastitis-susceptible cattle to rapidly respond to LPS challenge by differential expression of inflammatory genes was demonstrated. Secondly, the expression of pro-inflammatory genes by unchallenged and LPS-challenged bovine MECs and bovine fibroblasts was compared, and a similar expression pattern of interleukin 1 beta between the two cell types but a divergent expression pattern of C-C motif chemokine ligand 20 was demonstrated. Next, the effect of exogenous phospholipase A2 (PLA2), an enzyme involved in inflammatory mediator generation, on the expression of pro-inflammatory genes by unchallenged and LPS-challenged bovine MECs was examined. It was determined that PLA2 influences bMEC pro-inflammatory

gene expression in response to LPS challenge but does not influence constitutive expression. Finally, a milk-derived primary bovine MEC line with an extended capacity for division through transfection with simian virus 40 large T antigen was established. This cell line, as well as the methods used in its establishment, may be used to facilitate future studies that require large numbers or extended growth of primary bMECs.

CHAPTER 2

A GENOME-WIDE ASSOCIATION STUDY FOR MASTITIS RESISTANCE IN
PHENOTYPICALLY WELL-CHARACTERIZED HOLSTEIN DAIRY CATTLE
USING A SELECTIVE GENOTYPING DESIGN**Abstract**Background

A decrease in the incidence of bovine mastitis, the costliest disease in the dairy industry, can be facilitated through genetic marker-assisted selective breeding programs.

Identification of genomic variants associated with mastitis resistance is an ongoing endeavor for which genome-wide association studies (GWAS) using high-density arrays provide a valuable tool.

Results

We identified single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs) in Holstein dairy cattle associated with mastitis resistance in a GWAS by using a high-density SNP array. Mastitis-resistant (15) and mastitis-susceptible (28) phenotypic extremes were identified from 224 lactating dairy cows on commercial dairy farm located in Utah based on multiple criteria of mastitis resistance over an 8-month period. Twenty-seven quantitative trait loci (QTLs) for mastitis resistance were identified based on 117 SNPs suggestive of genome-wide significance for mastitis resistance ($p < 0.0001$), including 10 novel QTLs. Seventeen QTLs overlapped previously-reported QTLs of traits relevant to mastitis, including four

QTLs for teat length. One QTL includes the RAS guanyl releasing protein 1 (RASGRP1) gene, a candidate gene for mastitis resistance.

Conclusions

This GWAS identifies 117 candidate SNPs and 27 QTLs for mastitis resistance using a selective genotyping approach, including ten novel QTLs. Based on overlap with previously-identified QTLs, teat length appears to be an important trait in mastitis resistance. The RASGRP1 gene, overlapped by one QTL, is a candidate gene for mastitis resistance.

Key words

Genome-wide association study; bovine mastitis resistance; selective genotyping; cattle

Background

Mastitis, defined as inflammation of the mammary gland, is the costliest disease in the dairy industry [1,2]. In the United States, the cost of bovine mastitis is estimated at a value of approximately 10% of total milk sales [89]. Associated costs include loss of production, decreased milk quality, discarded milk, labor, veterinary treatments, mastitis-related culls, diagnostics, and preventative measures [3].

Conventional methods to reduce the incidence of mastitis within a herd encompass both management practices and selection for mastitis-resistant phenotypes. Recent technical advancement in cattle genomics, such as genome-wide association

studies (GWAS), has led to the identification of quantitative trait loci (QTLs) associated with mastitis traits [75,142,143]. Genetic selection for mastitis resistance traits provides a valuable tool for decreasing mastitis incidence. Genetic marker-assisted selection for mastitis traits results in a higher level of discrimination between phenotypes and a greater uniformity than does conventional selection [94], highlighting the importance of identifying robust genetic markers for mastitis resistance. Genome-wide association studies are well-suited to identifying genetic markers of complex traits such as mastitis, enabling genotyping of large numbers of potential genetic markers, such single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), across the genome [98,99]. Indeed, GWAS carried out over the past several years have identified genetic markers, candidate genes, and QTLs for individual mastitis traits such as somatic cell count (SCC), somatic cells score (SCS) and clinical mastitis [142,144,145]. Many of these studies use low- or medium-marker density arrays to detect genetic markers [75,145,146]. High-density bovine arrays capable of genotyping close to one million SNPs are available for cattle and offer the advantage of increased genomic coverage and statistical power [144]. Studies using such high-density arrays have the potential to identify novel genetic markers as well as verify the significance of previously identified markers.

In this study, we performed a GWAS using a high-density array to identify SNP genetic markers and define QTLs of mastitis resistance in Holstein dairy cows. We used a selective genotyping approach, identifying the most mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible animals within the sample population. This approach facilitated detection of causative alleles due to an enrichment effect of these alleles among phenotypically

extreme individuals [104]. Phenotypic characterization was based on multiple criteria of intramammary infection status in order to achieve more accurate characterization of phenotypic extremes of mastitis resistance and mastitis susceptibility than could be achieved with use of a single measure of mastitis alone.

Methods

The aim of this study is to identify SNP genetic markers and QTLs of mastitis resistance in dairy cattle. A genome-wide association study was performed using a selective genotyping approach.

Selection of phenotypically extreme cattle

Cattle used in the study were adult lactating Holstein cattle from a single farm, and phenotypically extreme individuals of mastitis resistance and mastitis susceptibility were identified and selected for genotyping. Phenotypic characterization was based on a combination of milk bacterial culture, observation for clinical mastitis, and SCC evaluation over an eight-month period. Subclinical mastitis was defined as cases in which intramammary infection was detected by bacterial culture of milk but no changes were detected in the appearance of the mammary gland or milk. Clinical mastitis was defined as intramammary infection accompanied by clinically detectable inflammatory changes in the mammary gland and/or changes in the consistency or color of the milk.

To detect of clinical and subclinical mastitis, monthly bacterial cultures were performed by using aseptically collected composite milk samples. Milk microbial culture

was carried out according to the guidelines outlined by the National Mastitis Council [147]. Isolation of at least one bacterial colony from a 0.01 ml inoculum of a single milk culture sample was considered sufficient to diagnose intramammary infection, as proposed by the Mastitis Research Workers [71]. Detection of clinical and subclinical mastitis was also based on bi-monthly veterinary clinical evaluations to detect abnormal mammary gland quarters or secretions; continuous monitoring for clinical mastitis by farm staff; and individual quarter bacterial culture of milk from suspect intramammary infection cases at the time of detection. Monthly SCCs were used as supplementary evidence for the absence of intramammary infection in animals from which no bacteria were isolated from milk samples and no clinical mastitis was detected. Monthly SCC measures were obtained from the Dairy Herd Improvement Association (DHIA).

Chronic (continuing) cases of clinical and subclinical mastitis were distinguished from new cases on the basis of time elapsed between detection of sequential episodes, time elapsed after treatment from a previous episode, quarter(s) affected, and etiologic agent [148–150]. For the purposes of this study, cattle with multiple new episodes of mastitis were selected as mastitis-susceptible over those with few but chronic episodes. Criteria for classification as mastitis-resistant included an absence of clinical mastitis, an absence of bacteria cultured from milk samples throughout the eight-month period, and consistently low SCCs (<250,000 cells/ml). The criterion for classification as mastitis-susceptible was detection of at least four separate episodes of mastitis. Episodes of mastitis were defined by any of: isolation of one or more mastitis pathogens from a milk sample, detection of clinical mastitis, and/or elevated composite SCC >250,000 cells/ml.

Isolates from more than one quarter on one date contributed as many mastitis episodes as there were culture-positive quarters. Clinical mastitis detected in more than one quarter on one date contributed as many mastitis episodes as there were clinically mastitic quarters.

DNA isolation

Genomic DNA of cows characterized as mastitis-resistant or mastitis-susceptible was isolated from ear notches or hair follicles. Isolation and purification of DNA was carried out using the Genra Puregene Tissue Kit (Qiagen, Valencia, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

SNP genotyping

Genotype calling was carried out by the Core Facility at the University of Utah for SNP genotyping using the Illumina BovineHD BeadChip (part # WG-450-1002; Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA), an array with 777,962 SNPs that uniformly span the entire bovine genome. Bead chips were processed according to the Infinium protocol from Illumina, and scanning carried out by the iScan scanner (Illumina Inc., San Diego, CA). Quality control measures included removal of animals with low call rates (<96%), SNPs with low call rates (<0.95), and SNPs with low minor allele frequencies (<5%).

Statistical analysis

Significant associations between SNPs and mastitis resistance were detected using a single locus mixed model approach as implemented by the SNP and Variation Suite software (SVS version 8.4, Golden Helix, Bozeman, MT). Familial relatedness was corrected for as a random effect by incorporation of a genomic best linear unbiased prediction (gBLUP) kinship matrix [107] into the model, constructed from genome-wide SNPs after pruning for linkage disequilibrium (LD). Genome-wide association mapping used a mixed linear model analysis [110] using the gBLUP matrix to correct for cryptic relatedness, with mastitis resistance/susceptibility coded as a binary phenotype. A genome-wide suggestive threshold was set at an uncorrected p-value of $p < 0.0001$, with $p < 0.001$ considered nominal.

Defining QTLs

Quantitative trait loci were defined as described previously [142]. A QTL surrounding each SNP detected as significant ($p < 0.0001$) was defined based on local LD structure. Pairwise LD between the target SNP and all individual genotyped SNPs within 1 Mb upstream and downstream was calculated using PLINK [151]. Within this region, visualized using the *ggplot* function of the R Studio statistical package [152], the furthest upstream and downstream SNPs in strong LD with the target SNP ($r^2 \geq 0.8$) were used to define QTLs. Quantitative trait loci comprised of a single SNP only were excluded. Overlapping QTLs were combined into a single QTL, defined by the furthest upstream and downstream SNPs for the combined region. Once defined, QTLs were aligned to the

bovine genome (Bos_taurus_3.1.1/bosTau8 assembly; [153]) using the University of California Santa Cruz (UCSC) Genome Browser tool (<https://genome.ucsc.edu/>) and dbSNP [154] to identify genes overlapping these regions. These QTLs were checked for overlap with known bovine QTLs using the cattle QTL database (<http://animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>) as of April 2017 [155].

Results

Sample population

Mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows in a commercial dairy herd with 224 lactating Holstein cows were identified following monitoring for clinical and subclinical mastitis over an eight-month period. From this rigorous mastitis-screening program, 15 animals were characterized as mastitis-resistant (Table 1A) and 28 animals as mastitis-susceptible (Table 1B). All mastitis-susceptible cows with the exception of one had four confirmed cases of mastitis. One cow had three cases of mastitis confirmed by isolation of three separate pathogens, and one tentative case where sample contamination precluded definitive pathogen isolation. Cattle within the mastitis-resistant group ranged from second to sixth lactation, and cattle within the mastitis-susceptible group ranged from first to sixth lactation. Among the mastitis-resistant group, individual composite milk SCCs over the eight-month period ranged from 5,000 to 220,000 cells/ml, with an average of 56,300 cells/ml. Among the mastitis-susceptible group, the number of clinical mastitis episodes ranged from none to three. Individual quarter and composite milk SCCs ranged from 6,000 to 2,676,000 cells/ml, with an average of

303,000 cells/ml. Commonly isolated bacterial species from composite and individual quarter milk samples from mastitis-susceptible cattle included coagulase-negative staphylococci, *Streptococcus* sp., *Corynebacterium* sp., and *Escherichia coli*.

Genome-wide associations

In order to identify SNP genetic markers and QTLs of mastitis resistance, we carried out a GWAS using a selective genotyping approach. Of 224 lactating Holstein dairy cows, we selected the top 15 most mastitis-resistant and the top 28 most mastitis-susceptible cows for genotyping.

Following data quality control measures, 585,949 SNPs remained for association testing using data from 43 animals (28 mastitis-susceptible, 15 mastitis-resistant), represented in Figure 1A as a Manhattan plot. Based on deviation from a linear relationship between observed and expected p-values, as illustrated in Figure 1B in a quantile-quantile plot, a p-value threshold of 0.0001 was set as suggestive of genome-wide significance and a p-value of $> 0.0001, \leq 0.001$ was considered nominal for association.

One hundred and seventeen SNPs were suggestive of genome-wide significance (Table 2). Based on these 117 SNPs, we identified 27 QTLs of mastitis resistance, distributed across 14 chromosomes (2, 3, 7, 8, 10, 11, 12, 15, 16, 17, 18, 26, 27, and 28) and overlapping a total of 29 genes (Table 3). Of these QTLs, 10 have not been reported previously. Thorough phenotypic characterization using both direct (clinical mastitis and milk bacterial culture) and indirect (SCC) measures to detect mastitis over an eight-

month period, as well as use of a selective genotyping approach, facilitated identification of these 10 novel QTLs.

The three QTLs most highly suggestive of genome-wide significance ($-\log_{10}(\text{p-value}) \geq 5.41$) are located on *Bos taurus* autosome (BTA) 26 and overlap the sortilin related VSP10 domain containing receptor 3 (SORCS3) gene as well as a previously-identified QTL for teat length. The SORCS3 gene has no known function in bovine mastitis. Another QTL suggestive of genome-wide significance overlaps the RAS guanyl-releasing protein 1 (RASGRP1) gene, a candidate gene for mastitis resistance. Seven hundred and sixty-three SNPs were nominal for genome-wide significance (Table 12, Appendix), distributed across all autosomal and the X chromosome.

Seventeen of the QTLs we identified overlap with previously identified QTLs of mastitis traits (somatic cell score, SCC, and clinical mastitis) and/or udder conformation traits (teat length, teat number, udder attachment, and udder depth; Table 4). Our findings reinforce the discovery of these 17 QTLs and provide supporting evidence that these QTLs may influence mastitis resistance. The top 3 QTLs overlap with a known QTL for teat length, which may provide the basis of mastitis resistance at these regions.

Discussion

We carried out a GWAS using a selective genotyping approach and a high-density bovine SNP array, and identified 117 SNPs suggestive of genome-wide association for mastitis resistance in Holstein dairy cattle. Based on these 117 SNPs, we identified 27 QTLs of mastitis resistance, including 10 novel QTLs.

The *RASGRP1* gene is located within a QTL we identified on BTA10, defined by 8 SNPs genotyped in our GWAS. *RASGRP1* is involved in the regulation of lymphocyte development, activation, and function and in T-cell receptor signaling [156]. Differential expression of *RASGRP1* as a result of pathogen challenge occurs in primary bMECs [157] and in ovine milk somatic cells [156], indicating a potential role in mastitis in ruminants. Overlap of *RASGRP1* by one of the QTLs indicates this gene as a strong candidate for mastitis resistance, warranting further investigation.

In dairy cattle, both immune functions and udder conformation traits are recognized factors affecting mastitis resistance [158]. Udder attachment and udder depth have been associated previously with SCC and clinical mastitis [159,160]. Teat placement has been associated with SCC [160], and various studies show conflicting results of the association between teat length and SCC and clinical mastitis [161]. The presence of supernumerary teats is considered a risk factor in bovine mastitis, and their surgical removal may affect subclinical mastitis incidence in heifers [162]. Seventeen QTLs that overlap with previously identified QTLs of udder conformation traits (teat length, teat number, udder attachment, and udder depth) as well as mastitis traits (somatic cell score, SCC, and clinical mastitis) were identified. Overall, 11 of these 17 QTLs overlap with QTLs for mastitis traits, and 13 overlap with QTLs for udder conformation traits.

Ten of these 17 QTLs overlap with previously identified QTLs for teat length. Six of these, including the top 3 where the strongest association signals were detected overall, are located on BTA26 and overlap with a single previously-identified QTL for teat length

[158]. The remaining overlap with QTLs for teat length on BTA16 [158], BTA18 [163], and BTA10 [163]. This finding provides strong supportive evidence for an effect of teat length on bovine mastitis resistance, highlighting the importance of udder conformation traits as factors in the pathogenesis of this disease.

A notable strength of this study lies in the methods used for phenotypic classification, wherein multiple measures were used to determine intramammary infection status over time and identify mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible phenotypic extremes. The effectiveness of selection for mastitis resistance increases when more than a single trait is measured for determination of intramammary infection status. For example, the use of SCC and clinical mastitis together is approximately 20% more effective than the use of either of these traits alone in selecting for mastitis resistance [164,165]. The use of multiple measures to detect mastitis helps to overcome limitations of any one method. For example, patterns of bacterial shedding in milk during the course of infection may affect the sensitivity of milk bacterial culture to detect intramammary infection [166]. Examination for clinical mastitis alone by definition excludes cases of subclinical mastitis, potentially excluding a substantial number of intramammary infections from being detected. Indirect measures such as SCC or its derivatives (linear score and estimated breeding values for these traits) can be influenced by a number of management and cow-dependent factors such as immune status, parity, lactation stage, diurnal variation, and sudden changes in feed or water management [62,65,167]. Additionally, although low SCC is commonly accepted as indicative of an absence of intramammary infection, some studies have demonstrated low SCC as a risk

factor in the subsequent development of clinical mastitis [67,68]. Thus, the use of SCC to indicate mastitis resistance could be misleading in some cases if not supplemented by additional measures.

In consideration of the above limitations, phenotypic characterization was based on multiple criteria in order to accurately identify phenotypic extremes of mastitis resistance and susceptibility. Reliable determination of intramammary infection status is best achieved through a combination of SCC measurement, bacterial culture, and clinical detection [71], as used in this study. Regular monitoring using these three parameters facilitates detection of clinical and subclinical mastitis, including infections resulting in minor increases in SCC. Additionally, identification of the causative bacteria allows distinction between continuing and new intramammary infections, yielding a more accurate picture of the frequency of intramammary infection in individual cows (i.e., whether increased SCC or clinical mastitis over time represents an ongoing infection or multiple separate infections).

All cows within the current study were within the same herd and were subjected to the same management conditions. Thus, effects of environmental variables on mastitis susceptibility are expected to be low relative to studies in which cattle from different farms and thereby under different environmental and management conditions are included. Identification of 10 novel QTLs of mastitis resistance was likely facilitated by particularly stringent phenotypic characterization methods and sample population selection.

A potential limitation to the current study is the relatively small sample size. Out of 224 lactating cows, 43 were characterized as phenotypic extremes for mastitis resistance or susceptibility. In GWAS, sample size is one of the factors influencing statistical power, and sample sizes in the thousands are often used [96]. In this study, meticulous phenotypic characterization was chosen at the expense of large sample size in order to identify individual cattle representative of phenotypic extremes. Genotyping only individuals that represent phenotypic extremes for a trait (no more than 20-25% of the sample population) can be used to detect QTLs for single traits among a small sample size while preserving statistical power in a selective genotyping approach [103,168]. Out of 224 cows, only the highest and lowest extremes for mastitis resistance of the population at 6.7% and 12.5%, respectively, were genotyped. The use of selective genotyping provides an enrichment effect, as causal and protective variants are more likely to be concentrated in these individuals as compared with individuals sampled randomly from the population. Thus, the power to detect causal and protective variants, particularly rare variants, is increased, although the effect size will be overestimated [104]. Follow-on studies to replicate results are therefore important [104]. We believe that, in addition to phenotypic characterization methods, the use of selective genotyping along with a high-density SNP array facilitated identification of the 10 novel QTLs.

Conclusions

One hundred seventeen candidate SNPs and 27 QTLs for mastitis resistance within a population of phenotypically well-characterized dairy cattle were identified. The

three QTLs most suggestive of genome-wide significance are located on BTA26 and overlap *SORCS3* and a previously identified QTL for teat length. Ten of the 27 QTLs have not been reported previously, while 17 overlap previously identified QTLs for mastitis or udder conformation traits relevant to mastitis. One QTL on BTA10 overlaps *RASGRP1*, considered a candidate gene of mastitis resistance requiring further study. Validation of these QTLs as genetic markers of mastitis resistance in an expanded population is required.

Table 1A: Lactation number and phenotypic classification data for mastitis-resistant cows.

Lactation Number	Mean SCC, x1000 cells/ml	SCC Range, x1000 cells/ml	Clinical Mastitis Episodes	Pathogens Isolated
2	24.7	16-33	0	None
6	57.8	32-84	0	None
5	84.5	22-155	0	None
4	48.0	21-125	0	None
4	31.3	16-50	0	None
3	86.3	20-150	0	None
3	69.7	21-123	0	None
3	70.5	19-107	0	None
3	40.5	5-61	0	None
3	21.4	9-47	0	None
2	23.8	20-29	0	None
2	100.3	35-167	0	None
2	15.0	5-27	0	None
2	33.6	9-69	0	None
2	123.0	30-220	0	None

Table 1B: Lactation number and phenotypic classification data for mastitis-susceptible cows.

Lactation Number	Average SCC, x1000 cells/ml	SCC Range, x1000 cells/ml	Clinical Mastitis Episodes	Pathogens ¹ Isolated (Number of Times)
2	519.7	21-2406	1	CNS (2); CNS and St (2)
6	217.6	146-1327	0	CNS (1); St (2); CNS and St (3)
4	136.1	88-197	0	CNS (1); C (1); Y (1)
4	617.3	8-1464	3	St (2); CNS and St (1); C and St (3)
3	298.3	120-622	0	CNS (4); CNS and St (2)
4	477.4	86-1899	0	CNS (5); CNS and E (1)
4	391.0	210-868	2	CNS (2); CNS and St (3)
3	463.0	270-591	2	St (6)
3	1292.7	401-2945	0	CNS (2); CNS and St (4); E and St (1)
3	144.2	26-332	0	St (4)
2	49.0	16-84	0	CNS (5); CNS and C (1)
2	704.6	6-1605	0	CNS (2); St (5)
2	154.0	14-937	0	CNS (1); CNS and St (2); C (1)
2	258.8	9-981	3	CNS and St (1); St (1); C (2); E (1)
2	20.3	10-30	0	CNS (2); C and St (1); C (1)
2	81.0	10-248	1	CNS (1); CNS and St (2); CNS and C (1)
1	33.7	7-58	0	CNS (2); CNS and St (2); CNS and C (1)
1	108.9	55-191	0	CNS (5)
1	60.0	48-88	0	CNS (4); E (1)
1	112.9	76-139	0	CNS (6)
1	32.0	17-58	0	CNS (4)
1	97.3	55-238	0	CNS (5)
1	129.4	79-287	0	CNS (4)
2	615.2	13-2676	1	CNS (4); Y (1)
1	43.3	27-74	0	CNS (3); St (1)
1	197.0	35-568	0	CNS (5); CNS and St (1)
1	18.1	7-33	0	CNS (3); C (2)
1	115.4	60-175	1	CNS (2); St (2); CNS and St (1)

¹C: *Corynebacterium* sp.; CNS: coagulase-negative staphylococci; E: *Escherichia coli*; St: *Streptococcus* sp.; Y: yeast.

Table 2: Single nucleotide polymorphisms suggestive of genome-wide significance for bovine mastitis resistance. The allele associated with mastitis resistance is shown.

Marker	Chr ¹	Position	$-\log_{10}(\text{p-value})$	Protective allele
rs43503386	7	31648926	6.33	A
rs110130285	26	26080988	5.81	G
rs110925919	26	26081853	5.81	T
rs135137805	26	26083915	5.81	C
rs109051904	26	26085037	5.81	A
rs134424973	26	26086114	5.81	G
rs136355517	26	26202415	5.55	A
rs137057269	26	26207987	5.55	G
rs109151150	7	31002352	5.51	T
rs135679846	26	26213600	5.42	C
rs136832332	26	26214187	5.42	T
rs135349914	26	26216213	5.42	C
rs135745332	26	26170699	5.41	C
rs29026516	26	26171235	5.41	G
rs133973225	26	26190210	5.41	A
rs42094305	26	26078080	5.14	C
rs42094275	26	26097110	5.14	C
rs110448143	8	103092247	4.98	G
rs110566862	8	103096670	4.98	T
rs134258818	26	26093838	4.92	T
rs109674792	17	41771455	4.85	G
rs110306521	17	41773340	4.85	A
rs109747092	17	41775569	4.85	C
rs110239244	17	41777130	4.85	C
rs109757388	17	41785932	4.85	G
rs41837662	26	28202019	4.80	T
rs109555679	24	53848687	4.73	C
rs41257394	18	49690172	4.64	A
rs110711227	15	47742405	4.57	A
rs109993951	15	47747052	4.57	A
rs137210653	15	47752356	4.57	C
rs109366311	15	47769743	4.57	C
rs110973322	15	47771595	4.57	A
rs110039012	15	47774554	4.57	C
rs110259421	15	47775426	4.57	C

rs136099077	7	32661575	4.55	G
rs133992636	7	32662549	4.55	G
rs135340284	7	32667624	4.55	A
rs29016545	7	32677080	4.55	T
rs134516100	7	32678638	4.55	T
rs41836660	26	28154738	4.55	C
rs41604819	26	28155692	4.55	T
rs41837669	26	28204944	4.55	G
rs133596831	16	20614247	4.48	C
rs133973886	2	118870124	4.47	T
rs41858359	18	5268101	4.44	T
rs41858365	18	5268998	4.44	T
rs109361888	26	26164774	4.42	T
rs135248266	9	93691403	4.42	C
rs135549815	15	51302501	4.40	C
rs136596564	15	51303719	4.40	C
rs110825365	17	41777826	4.37	A
rs137547715	3	91427052	4.35	T
rs136877205	17	10393778	4.35	T
rs110090917	11	96629841	4.32	T
rs381266606	11	96715963	4.32	T
rs136634740	11	96720014	4.32	G
rs133879444	11	96730359	4.32	T
rs134973228	11	96734171	4.32	T
rs132794203	11	96739382	4.32	G
rs134297845	11	96745000	4.32	G
rs109277843	11	96758826	4.32	C
rs135608670	11	96767134	4.32	T
rs134694194	17	10162372	4.31	T
rs109623385	10	34452835	4.29	A
rs109758936	10	34455599	4.29	T
rs133303871	11	86660988	4.28	T
rs42434953	26	28796634	4.28	T
rs42434958	26	28799734	4.28	A
rs42434984	26	28813937	4.28	A
rs42349819	3	91442018	4.27	A
rs42349795	3	91449020	4.27	A
rs109782486	7	31997138	4.25	C
rs109397365	7	31999677	4.25	T
rs135897745	7	32000505	4.25	T

rs109305062	7	32001031	4.25	C
rs135287427	7	32001859	4.25	A
rs132918628	7	32002610	4.25	C
rs109653519	7	32003545	4.25	T
rs109153790	7	32004528	4.25	C
rs133045718	7	32005033	4.25	T
rs137193453	7	32005542	4.25	G
rs133716861	3	91429028	4.23	A
rs42704013	12	76820530	4.22	A
rs136350185	10	27915567	4.19	A
rs41840890	26	27751543	4.17	G
rs41840882	26	27754542	4.17	T
rs41840873	26	27756172	4.17	G
rs41840864	26	27762180	4.17	A
rs137165178	26	27763096	4.17	T
rs41840922	26	27779611	4.17	A
rs41840912	26	27790973	4.17	G
rs135563166	26	28157430	4.16	G
rs41636626	26	28159060	4.16	C
rs133999463	26	28159800	4.16	C
rs133395250	26	28161303	4.16	G
rs135413917	26	28161892	4.16	G
rs133282066	26	28163345	4.16	A
rs135170589	26	28165109	4.16	T
rs136506930	26	28165749	4.16	G
rs134913097	26	28167337	4.16	A
rs137741079	26	28168568	4.16	C
rs133840132	26	28170114	4.16	A
rs135204195	26	28172302	4.16	A
rs133679609	17	42208979	4.14	C
rs41645946	11	96814663	4.12	C
rs133086162	27	24405764	4.11	C
rs132797061	X	10123521	4.10	T
rs110373429	26	27935893	4.10	C
rs110554155	4	41207992	4.08	T
rs43506093	7	32187800	4.07	C
rs134956968	28	30879841	4.07	G
rs110413607	10	34258059	4.06	T
rs41668080	12	76870470	4.05	T
rs110442181	11	102314941	4.02	C

rs41879775	18	43568128	4.00	G
rs135753929	18	43596859	4.00	A

¹Chr: chromosome.

Table 3: Quantitative trait loci identified for bovine mastitis resistance. Overlapped genes are shown.

Chr	QTL start	QTL end	QTL length (bp)	No. SNPs	Tag SNP	-log10(p-value)	No. Genes	Genes
26	26078080	26097110	19030	7	rs110130285	5.8056407	1	SORCS3
26	26202415	26216213	13798	5	rs136355517	5.5513441	1	SORCS3
26	26170699	26190210	19511	3	rs135745332	5.4109618	1	SORCS3
8	103092247	103096670	4423	2	rs110448143	4.9800087	0	None
17	41733436	41785932	52496	10	rs109674792	4.851678	1	FAM198B
26	28154738	28204944	50206	15	rs41837662	4.79832714	1	SORCS1
18	49684020	49690172	6152	2	rs41257394	4.6439513	2	FBL, PSMC4
15	47742405	47775426	33021	7	rs110711227	4.5675268	1	OR52E4
7	32661575	32678638	17063	5	rs136099077	4.5538269	0	None
16	20608750	20623978	15228	12	rs133596831	4.4783498	1	ESRRG
2	118870124	118870999	875	2	rs133973886	4.4696943	1	FBXO36
18	5268101	5268998	897	2	rs41858359	4.4439869	0	None
15	51068247	51303719	235472	3	rs135549815	4.40396843	1	LOC618050
17	10393778	10411003	17225	2	rs136877205	4.3453674	1	ARHGAP10
11	96629841	96777054	147213	11	rs110090917	4.32303429	1	PBX3
10	34258059	34455599	197540	8	rs109623385	4.2941828	2	RASGRP1, LOC104973119
26	28796634	28813937	17303	3	rs42434953	4.276744	0	None
3	91429028	91852910	423882	4	rs42349819	4.27157104	1	USP24
7	31997138	32005542	8404	10	rs109782486	4.2477407	1	PRDM6
10	27798183	28002566	204383	31	rs136350185	4.1880203	3	LOC784925, LOC785050, LOC785050
26	27751543	27790973	39430	7	rs41840890	4.1697935	0	None
17	42046346	42208979	162633	7	rs133679609	4.13810535	0	None
27	24405764	24803258	397494	2	rs133086162	4.1081123	1	TNKS
28	30834105	30879841	45736	8	rs134956968	4.07061418	2	MIR584-3, KAT6B
12	76826267	76870470	44203	3	rs41668080	4.0468275	2	CLDN10, DZIP1
11	102314941	102336231	21290	8	rs110442181	4.0153069	3	NTNG2, SETX, LOC101906746
18	43568128	43596859	28731	5	rs135753929	4.00357851	3	FAAP24, RHPN2, CEP89

Table 4: Overlap of QTLs for bovine mastitis resistance with previously-reported QTLs¹ for bovine mastitis or udder conformation traits.

Chr	QTL position (bp)	Tag SNP	-log ₁₀ (p-value)	Known QTLs	Known QTL ID ¹	Known QTL position (bp)
26	26078080-26097110	rs110130285	5.8056407	Teat length	1651	25267910-30988113
26	26202415-26216213	rs136355517	5.5513441	Teat length	1651	26:25267910-30988113
26	26170699-26190210	rs135745332	5.4109618	Teat length	1651	25267910-30988113
8	103092247-103096670	rs110448143	4.9800087	None		
17	41733436-41785932	rs109674792	4.851678	Teat number	20841	34618653-44087629
26	28154738-28204944	rs41837662	4.79832714	Udder attachment	4995	27602977-30988113
				Clinical mastitis	4994	27602977-30988113
				Teat length	1651	25267910-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2785	27602977-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2736	27602977-30988113
18	49684020-49690172	rs41257394	4.6439513	Somatic cell score	18471	46178647-52998234
				Somatic cell score	18470	46178647-52983181
				Teat length	1703	44616854-55337025
15	47742405-47775426	rs110711227	4.5675268	None		
7	32661575-32678638	rs136099077	4.5538269	Somatic cell score	2667	27358606-42831622
16	20608750-20623978	rs133596831	4.4783498	Teat length	1608	12209667-26166559
2	118870124-118870999	rs133973886	4.4696943	None		
18	5268101-5268998	rs41858359	4.4439869	Somatic cell score	3554	4992421-18045667
				Udder attachment	1701	1891819-7214579
15	51068247-51303719	rs135549815	4.40396843	None		
17	10393778-10411003	rs136877205	4.3453674	None		
11	96629841-96777054	rs110090917	4.32303429	None		
10	34258059-34455599	rs109623385	4.2941828	Udder attachment	10294	10323420-79980762
				Teat length	10296	10323420-79980762
				Udder attachment	44454	34275633-34275673
				Somatic cell score	44457	34275633-34275673

				Udder depth	44459	34275633-34275673
				Somatic cell count	2701	22939631-40797089
26	Chr26:28796634-28813937	rs42434953	4.276744	Udder attachment	4995	27602977-30988113
				Clinical mastitis	4994	27602977-30988113
				Teat length	1651	25267910-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2785	27602977-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2736	27602977-30988113
3	91429028-91852910	rs42349819	4.27157104	None		
7	31997138-32005542	rs109782486	4.2477407	Somatic cell score	2667	27358606-42831622
10	27798183-28002566	rs136350185	4.1880203	Udder attachment	10294	10323420-79980762
				Teat length	10296	10323420-79980762
				Somatic cell count	2701	22939631-40797089
26	27751543-27790973	rs41840890	4.1697935	Udder attachment	4995	27602977-30988113
				Clinical mastitis	4994	27602977-30988113
				Teat length	1651	25267910-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2785	27602977-30988113
				Somatic cell score	2736	27602977-30988113
17	42046346-42208979	rs133679609	4.13810535	Teat number	20841	34618653-44087629
27	24405764-24803258	rs133086162	4.1081123	Clinical mastitis	2786	24311474-24427274
28	30834105-30879841	rs134956968	4.07061418	None		
12	76826267-76870470	rs41668080	4.0468275	None		
11	102314941-102336231	rs110442181	4.0153069	None		
18	43568128-43596859	rs135753929	4.00357851	Somatic cell score	9904	33939994-43945245
				Somatic cell score	18469	11438802-46178647

¹QTLs as listed on the cattle QTL database (<http://animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>).

Figure 1A: Manhattan plot of genome-wide associations for mastitis resistance in 43 Holstein cows. The genome-wide significance threshold is indicated by the solid line ($p < 0.0001$). Bovine chromosome position is shown on the x-axis. Strength of association for a single-locus mixed model GWAS is shown on the y-axis.

a

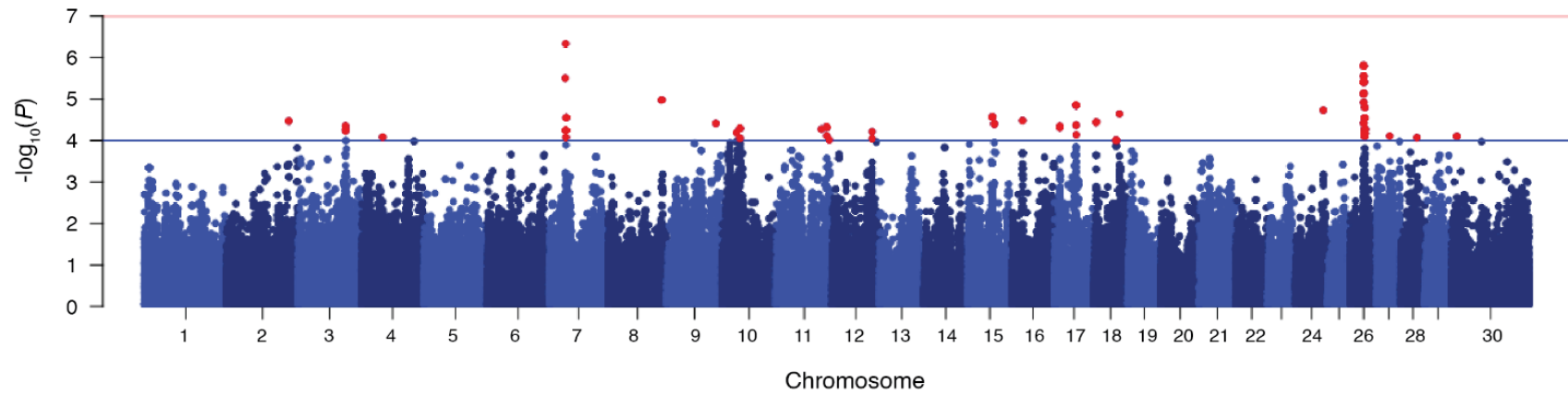
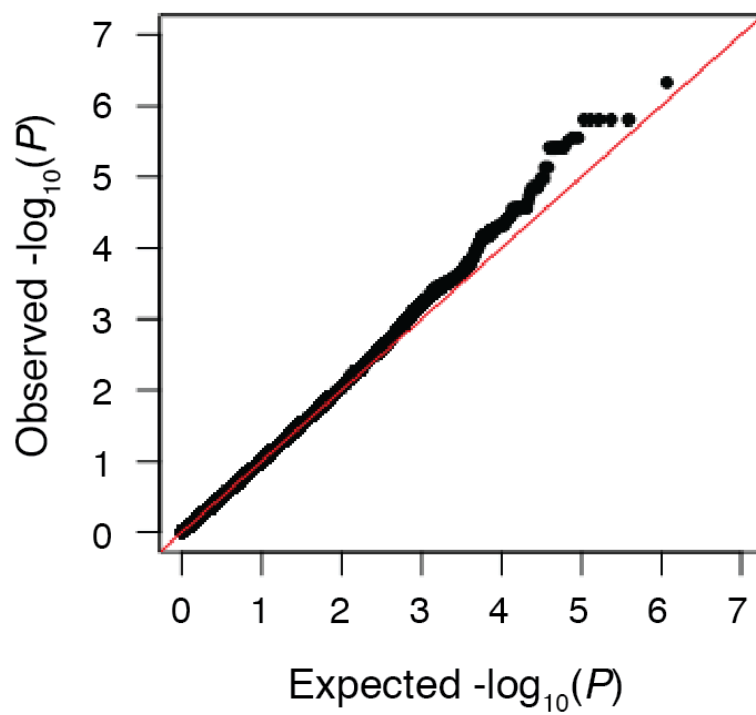


Figure 1B: Quantile-quantile plot of observed and expected p-values.

b



CHAPTER 3
BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS FROM MASTITIS-RESISTANT AND
MASTITIS-SUSCEPTIBLE LACTATING HOLSTEIN COWS DISPLAY
DIFFERENTIAL EXPRESSION OF INFLAMMATORY GENES IN RESPONSE TO
LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE

Abstract

Bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs) are the milk-producing cells of the mammary gland, and are important contributors to innate immunity against intramammary infection. As such, differences in their innate immune responses against mastitis-causing pathogens may contribute to inherent differences in susceptibility to mastitis among individual cattle. In order to understand the immunogenetics of mastitis resistance conferred by bMECs, we carried out a gene expression polymerase chain reaction (PCR) array to characterize and compare the expression of 84 genes relevant to inflammation by bMECs isolated from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible lactating cows in response to lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Escherichia coli*. Primary bMEC lines were established from lactating Holstein cows characterized as mastitis-resistant or mastitis-susceptible based on clinical mastitis incidence, milk bacterial culture results, and monthly milk somatic cell counts (SCC) over an eight-month period. Exposure to LPS for 6 hours *in vitro* stimulated two-fold or greater differential expression of 43 genes ($p < 0.05$) in bMECs from mastitis-resistant cows, but only one gene in bMECs from mastitis-susceptible cows. These results suggest that the ability of

bMECs to respond rapidly to mastitis pathogens may be a mechanism by which bMECs contribute to mastitis resistance. Among upregulated genes, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5 (*CXCL5*) was upregulated in bMECs from both mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows, while chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2 (*GRO1*) and interleukin 8 (*CXCL8*) were upregulated in bMECs from mastitis-resistant cows only. Tumor necrosis factor (*TNF*) was among the genes downregulated in bMEC from mastitis-resistant cows. In contrast, no significant differences in gene expression were noted between mastitis-susceptible and mastitis-resistant bMECs under unchallenged conditions, indicating that constitutive expression of inflammatory genes is unlikely to be a mechanism for mastitis resistance mediated by bMECs.

Background

Bovine mastitis is a major source of economic loss in the dairy industry worldwide. Strategies to reduce the prevalence of mastitis among dairy cattle are based on management of environmental factors as well as selection for cattle with increased resistance to mastitis. A genetic basis for between-cow variation in mastitis traits, such as clinical mastitis and somatic cell count (SCC), is widely recognized and is reflected in the use of estimated breeding values for these traits to guide selective breeding programs [169]. Many quantitative trait loci (QTLs) for mastitis traits have been identified (catalogued on the cattle QTL database, <http://animalgenome.org/cgi-bin/QTLdb/BT/index>; [155]), and genetic marker-based selection methods are

increasingly recognized as valuable tools in reducing the prevalence of mastitis within dairy herds. Cellular mechanisms underlying bovine mastitis resistance are complex, involving multiple cell types and pathogen-specific immune responses [79], and remain incompletely defined.

An important cell type involved in immune responses to intramammary infection and mastitis resistance is the bovine mammary epithelial cell (bMEC). Bovine MECs are the milk-producing cells of the mammary gland, and also have roles in innate immunity through barrier functions, pathogen recognition, and production of inflammatory mediators, including leukocyte chemotactic factors [30]. Primary bMECs have been used as a model for studies of immune responses of the mammary gland [39,170,171]. *In vitro* models based on epithelial cell culture provide several notable advantages over *in vivo* systems for studying disease processes. *In vitro* systems allow for greater control over environmental variables, and provide economic and ethical advantages over *in vivo* systems [172]. Additionally, monoculture-based systems facilitate the study of the roles of individual cell types in disease processes, whereas differentiation between the contributions of multiple cell types in *in vivo* systems may present substantial challenges [170,172]. Epithelial monoculture systems have been used extensively in the study of host-pathogen interactions in infectious disease processes [172]. The capacity of primary bMECs to mount pathogen-specific immune responses has been clearly demonstrated [38,157,170,171,173]. Expression of many inflammatory genes involved in these responses are also demonstrated in bMECs *in vivo* in response to inflammatory stimuli, reflecting the usefulness of primary bMECs as a model for the bovine mammary gland in mastitis studies [36,174,175].

Variation in the immune responses of bMECs from different individual cows have been demonstrated, including significant differences between the responses of bMECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows. For example, when primary bMECs isolated from animals classified as exhibiting high and low susceptibility to mastitis with the QTL on *Bos taurus* autosome (BTA) 18 were challenged by mastitis pathogens, differential expression of several key innate immune genes was observed, including Toll-like receptor 2, tumor necrosis factor-alpha, interleukin-8 (IL-8), IL-6, chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 5, complement component C3, and lactoferrin [176]. In primary bMECs isolated from mastitis-resistant cows, compared to those isolated from mastitis-susceptible cows, a number of genes involved in leukocyte migration and acute-phase response signaling were expressed earlier and at higher levels following pathogen challenge [157]. These studies indicate an important role of bMECs in mastitis resistance that warrants further study.

The objective of this study was to compare immune responses of bMECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows in order to identify potential contributions of bMECs to mastitis resistance. The relative expression of 84 immune-related genes was determined by polymerase chain reaction (PCR) array, and compared between the two cell lines before and after challenge by lipopolysaccharide (LPS) from *Escherichia coli*.

Methods

Cow characterization

Lactating Holstein cows were classified as resistant or susceptible to mastitis based on individual incidence of clinical and subclinical mastitis over an eight-month period. Detection of clinical and subclinical mastitis was based on monthly bacterial and mycoplasma cultures of aseptically collected composite milk samples; bi-monthly clinical evaluations to detect abnormal mammary gland quarters or secretions; continuous monitoring for clinical mastitis by farm staff; bacterial culture of milk from suspect intramammary infection cases; and monthly SCC measurements obtained from the Dairy Herd Improvement Association. Milk microbial cultures were carried out according to the guidelines outlined by the National Mastitis Council [147].

The criterion for classification as mastitis-susceptible was detection of at least four separate episodes of mastitis. Episodes of mastitis were defined by any of: isolation of one or more mastitis pathogens from a milk sample, detection of clinical mastitis, and/or elevated composite SCC >250,000 cells/ml. Isolates from more than one quarter on one date contributed as many mastitis episodes as there were culture-positive quarters. Clinical mastitis detected in more than one quarter on one date contributed as many mastitis episodes as there were clinically mastitic quarters. Cattle with no clinical mastitis detected, consistently negative milk bacterial culture results, and consistently low (<250,000 cells/ml) milk SCC were characterized as mastitis-resistant.

Bovine MEC collection, isolation, and establishment

Primary bMEC lines were established from bovine milk. Four hundred milliliters of hand-stripped milk were aseptically collected into an equal volume of collection media consisting of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with penicillin (60 µg/ml), streptomycin (200 µg/ml), gentamycin (120 µg/ml), and nystatin (50 mg/L). Samples were transported on ice to the laboratory.

Bovine MEC isolation was carried out as previously reported [39,177], with some modifications. Briefly, 400 ml of hand-stripped milk were subjected to a series of wash and centrifugation steps (3000 rpm for 10 minutes each) followed by passage of the resuspended cell pellet through a 100 µm pore size cell strainer to separate cell pellets from debris and other milk components. Following a final centrifugation step, the cell pellet was resuspended in 5 ml of growth media consisting of HuMEC Ready Medium (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with penicillin (60 µg/ml), streptomycin (200 µg/ml), gentamycin (120 µg/ml), nystatin (50 µg/ml), and 10% fetal bovine serum, and seeded into a T-25 culture flask. Cells were incubated at 38.5°C with 5% CO₂. After 12-18 hours, media was exchanged for fetal bovine serum-free growth media. Growth media was changed every 2-3 days thereafter.

Cells were passaged when confluency was reached using trypsin 0.05%/EDTA 0.02% (product 59417C, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Cells were maintained to the second to third passage, at which point LPS challenge was carried out.

Cell lineage verification

Cell lines were evaluated at all passage numbers for the cobblestone morphology typical of epithelial cells on monolayer culture. Epithelial lineage was verified using PCR to detect expression of cytokeratin 8 (KER8) [178]. Primers were designed using Primer3Plus (<http://primer3plus.com/cgi-bin/dev/primer3plus.cgi>) based on NCBI reference sequence NM_001033610.1 and were as follows: forward primer AATCAAGTATGAGGAGCTGC; reverse primer CATCCTTAACAGCCATCTCA. Polymerase chain reaction conditions were as follows: initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 seconds followed by 32 cycles of 98°C for 10 seconds, 57 °C for 15 seconds, and 72°C for 30 seconds. Gel electrophoresis was used to confirm the presence of PCR product. Sequencing of PCR product to confirm KER8 amplification was carried out by the Center for Integrated Biotechnology, Utah State University (Logan, UT).

LPS challenge and RNA isolation

Second to third passage bMECs were exposed to LPS from *Escherichia coli* 0111:B4 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) to mimic exposure to a mastitis-causing pathogen. Lipopolysaccharide challenge methods were similar to those described previously [173]. Briefly, bMECs were split after the first or second passage into two T-25 culture flasks. Once 50-100% confluence was reached, media was exchanged for growth media with or without (unchallenged) 50 µg/ml LPS. Cells were incubated at culture conditions for 6 hours, after which media was removed.

Following LPS challenge, bMECs were lysed and total RNA was isolated and purified using the Purelink RNA Mini Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Spectrophotometric verification of RNA quality and generation of cDNA was carried out by QIAGEN Genomic Services (Frederick, MD).

PCR Array

The QIAGEN RT² ProfilerTM PCR Array Cow Inflammatory Cytokines and Receptors array (product PABT-011Z, QIAGEN, Frederick, MD) was used to profile the expression of 84 genes involved in inflammation. Gene expression profiling and data analysis were carried out by QIAGEN Genomic Services (Frederick, MD). The delta-delta CT method was used for fold-change/regulation analysis, with data normalized using four internal control genes (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase; actin, beta; hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase 1; tyrosine 3-monooxygenase/tryptophan 5-monooxygenase activation protein, zeta polypeptide). P-values were calculated using a Student's t-test of the replicate $2^{(-\Delta\Delta CT)}$ values for each gene in the groups being compared. Fold change/regulation values and p-values were generated for comparison of the following groupings: 1) unchallenged and LPS-challenged mastitis-resistant bMEC lines; 2) unchallenged and LPS-challenged mastitis-susceptible bMEC lines; and 3) unchallenged mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMEC lines.

Results

Sample population

Bovine MEC lines were established from five mastitis susceptible and three mastitis resistant cattle. Cattle within the mastitis-resistant group ranged from second to third lactation, and cattle within the mastitis-susceptible group ranged from second to sixth lactation. All bMEC lines were morphologically consistent with epithelial cells and expressed KER8.

Among the mastitis-resistant group, composite milk SCC ranged from 16,000 to 220,000 cells/ml, with an average of 75,000 cells/ml. Among the mastitis-susceptible group, pathogens isolated from composite and individual quarter milk samples included *Streptococcus* sp., coagulase-negative staphylococci, and *Corynebacterium* sp. In this group, composite milk SCC ranged from 14,000 to 2,406,000 cells/ml, with an average of 290,000 cells/ml.

PCR Array

Bovine MECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows respond to LPS differently. Gene expression following LPS challenge varied between mastitis-susceptible and mastitis-resistant bMEC lines. Among mastitis-resistant cell lines, three genes, C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5 (CXCL5), chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2 (GRO1), and interleukin 8 (CXCL8), were significantly ($p < 0.05$) upregulated by at least two-fold, while 40 genes were significantly downregulated by at least two-fold in LPS-challenged versus unchallenged bMEC lines (Table 5). Among the latter, complement

component 5 (C5), chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 5 (CCR5), and interleukin 13 (IL13) showed the highest magnitudes of downregulation, at -18.93-fold, -18.89-fold, and -18.74-fold, respectively. In contrast to the mastitis-resistant group, among mastitis-susceptible bMEC lines, only one gene, CXCL5, was differentially expressed as a result of LPS challenge. C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5 was upregulated by 8.25-fold in LPS-challenged versus unchallenged bMECs. Upregulation of CXCL5 in both mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs following LPS challenge suggests that this is a particularly important gene involved in the innate immune response of bMECs. A lack of differential expression of additional genes among mastitis-susceptible bMECs following LPS challenge contrasts with the differential expression of 42 additional genes by mastitis-resistant bMECs. This finding indicates inherent differences in the immune response capabilities of bMECs from the two groups.

Mastitis-resistant and -susceptible bMECs show similar expression under unchallenged conditions. Gene expression between the mastitis-susceptible and mastitis-resistant groups were investigated under unchallenged conditions. No genes were significantly differently expressed between these two groups (Table 6). Such data indicate that bMECs isolated from mastitis-resistant and -susceptible cows, while displaying distinct gene expression patterns in responding to LPS, have similar innate immune activities under unchallenged conditions. Therefore, it is likely that the contribution of bMECs to mastitis resistance depends on their capability of mounting

successful innate immune responses to mastitis pathogens, but not on the basal level activities of the inflammatory genes.

Discussion

The objective of this study was to investigate the molecular and cellular mechanisms by which bMECs contribute to mastitis resistance. To accomplish this, we established multiple bMEC lines from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows and compared the expression profiles of genes relevant to inflammation between these two groups of bMECs using the QIAGEN's RT² ProfilerTM PCR Array before and after LPS challenge.

No significant differences in gene expression between mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs under unchallenged conditions were observed. This is in agreement with other studies that demonstrate no significant differences in the expression of genes relevant to inflammation between bMECs from mastitis-susceptible and mastitis-resistant cattle under unchallenged conditions [118,157]. Such data suggest that constitutive expression of genes relevant to inflammation does not drive contributions of bMECs to mastitis resistance.

In contrast, expression of genes related to inflammation differed between mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs following LPS challenge. Three genes relevant to inflammation were significantly upregulated and 40 were downregulated in response to LPS challenge in mastitis-resistant bMECs, while only one gene was significantly upregulated and none downregulated in mastitis-susceptible bMECs. This data

demonstrates a clear difference between the responses of mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs after a 6-hour exposure to LPS. A similar effect has been previously demonstrated in bMECs from cattle with high and low mastitis susceptibilities based on a QTL and molecular marked-based selection strategy for milk somatic cell score [157]. In that study, bMEC lines from cattle with low mastitis susceptibility demonstrated more rapid and robust differential regulation of genes involved in cell death, neutrophil chemotaxis, complement system, leukocyte migration, and cell trafficking after challenge with *E. coli* or *S. aureus* than did bMECs from cattle with high mastitis susceptibility. Changes in the expression of some genes which were ultimately upregulated in both groups in response to pathogen challenge were not apparent until 24 hours after pathogen inoculation in bMECs from cattle with high mastitis susceptibility. In contrast, these genes were upregulated in bMECs from cattle with low mastitis susceptibility by 6 hours after pathogen inoculation, thereby demonstrating more rapid responses to pathogen challenge [157]. Differences in gene expression noted at 6 hours in this study may reflect variation in response times between mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs, with bMECs from mastitis-resistant cattle displaying more rapid changes in expression of genes relevant to inflammation. This study provides further evidence that an ability for rapid inflammatory responses to mastitis pathogens may be an important mechanism for mastitis resistance mediated by bMECs.

Three genes, *CXCL5*, *GRO1*, and *CXCL8*, were upregulated in either mastitis-resistant bMECs only (*GRO1* and *CXCL8*) or in both mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs (*CXCL5*) following LPS challenge. Among other functions, these

three genes are involved in neutrophil chemotaxis and activation [179–181]. During the acute stages of mastitis, neutrophils surpass macrophages as the most numerous leukocyte type in the mammary gland, comprising >90% of the total leukocyte population in milk [42]. Neutrophils act as effector cells of innate immunity via phagocytosis of bacteria as well as through bactericidal effects of reactive oxygen species and other secreted factors [30,42,44]. The rapid upregulation of genes such as *CXCL5*, *GRO1*, and *CXCL8* is therefore an expected response following LPS challenge, and demonstrates the ability of primary bMECs to retain pathogen recognition and inflammatory response capabilities, as reported by others [39,173].

Upregulation of *CXCL5* was noted in both mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs following LPS challenge. In addition to its roles as a chemoattractant and activator of neutrophils, *CXCL5* promotes angiogenesis [182] and fibrosis [183], two processes involved in tissue repair following inflammation. Expression of *CXCL5* is upregulated in *E. coli*-infected bovine mammary gland tissue [184] and in primary bMECs exposed to LPS [173], *E. coli* [185,186], *S. aureus* [186], or *Klebsiella pneumoniae* [186]. These observations, supported by our findings, highlight *CXCL5* as an important chemokine in bovine mastitis. Interestingly, a QTL for clinical mastitis has been identified in Norwegian Red cattle within 1 Mb of a cluster of genes encoding CXC chemokines, including *CXCL5* [187], providing further evidence that that variation in this gene could contribute to mastitis resistance.

Two genes involved in neutrophil recruitment, *GRO1* and *CXCL8*, were upregulated following LPS challenge in mastitis-resistant bMECs only. This suggests that

bMECs from mastitis-resistant cattle may have an enhanced ability over bMECs from mastitis-susceptible cows to rapidly recruit neutrophils to the mammary gland following exposure to mastitis pathogens. *In vivo*, the intensity and rapidity of neutrophil recruitment varies between individual cows, and can contribute to the speed of bacterial clearance and recovery from mastitis [30].

Among the genes downregulated in mastitis-resistant bMECs following LPS challenge, downregulation of tumor necrosis factor (TNF) is particularly noteworthy. Tumor necrosis factor is a multifunctional, pro-inflammatory cytokine with well-known roles in the pathogenesis of mastitis, and is upregulated by mammary gland macrophages and bMECs during mastitis [188]. Similarly, TNF is upregulated in primary bMECs following challenge by *E. coli* or LPS, with most studies reporting increased expression by 6 hours after challenge and more marked increases after 12-24 hours [39,118,170]. In this study, TNF expression was not significantly different following a 6-hour LPS challenge in mastitis-susceptible bMECs, but was significantly different between unchallenged and LPS-challenged, mastitis-resistant bMECs. As discussed above, the time required for mastitis-susceptible bMEC to respond to LPS may exceed the 6-hour time period used in this study, providing a possible explanation for the lack of an observed change in TNF expression.

More striking is the *pattern* of TNF expression difference noted among mastitis-resistant bMECs. Tumor necrosis factor expression was significantly downregulated, rather than upregulated, by nearly ten-fold following LPS challenge. Tumor necrosis factor is known to influence the severity of clinical signs of mastitis [24]. High levels of

TNF induce both local and systemic effects contributing to the morbidity and mortality in *E. coli* mastitis, including promoting the development of endotoxic shock during coliform mastitis [189]. High milk and plasma TNF concentrations as a result of LPS-induced mastitis have been noted conjunction with excessive milk concentrations of nitric oxide and severe systemic clinical signs [190]. Conversely, inhibition of TNF expression during mastitis appears to have a protective effect on the mammary gland. For example, decreased severity of histopathologic changes in the mammary gland in a mouse model of mastitis [191] and the severity of *E. coli* mastitis-induced local and systemic signs in cattle [189] were noted in conjunction with administration of treatments that decreased TNF expression. Given the known contributions of TNF to mastitis severity, downregulation could be an important mechanism for mastitis resistance. In fact, a parity-dependent association was identified between, and polymorphism within, the TNF gene and clinical mastitis variables in Holstein-Friesian dairy cattle [192], further supporting a potential role of this gene in mastitis resistance.

Conclusions

Bovine MECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cattle display differences in the expression of genes relevant to inflammation in response to LPS challenge. Upregulation of *CXCL5*, a gene involved in neutrophil recruitment and activation, occurs in both groups, while upregulation of two additional genes involved in neutrophil recruitment was observed in mastitis-resistant but not mastitis-susceptible bMECs. Additionally, 40 immune genes were downregulated in mastitis-resistant

bMECs, including *TNF*, which may be beneficial in minimizing the clinical severity of mastitis. These results suggest that a possible mechanism for mastitis resistance provided by bMECs may be an enhanced capacity by mastitis-resistant bMECs as compared with mastitis-susceptible bMECs to respond rapidly to exposure to mastitis pathogens.

Differences in gene expression were not observed between mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs under unchallenged conditions, indicating that immune responses rather than constitutive immune gene expression are more important in the contribution of bMECs to mastitis resistance.

Table 5: Significant ($p < 0.05$) inflammatory gene expression fold-changes (≥ 2) in LPS-challenged relative to unchallenged bMECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cows. P-values are shown.

Gene Symbol	Gene	Fold-change	P-value
<u>Mastitis-resistant bMECs</u>			
Upregulated			
CXCL5	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5	9.1	0.004001
GRO1	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2	5.84	0.001459
CXCL8	Interleukin 8	3.76	0.008736
Downregulated			
C5	Complement component 5	-18.93	0.009573
CCR5	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 5	-18.89	0.009591
IL13	Interleukin 13	-18.74	0.012933
PF4	Platelet factor 4	-17.81	0.009447
CCL11	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 11	-17.56	0.009998
LOC510185	Interleukin 2 receptor, beta	-17.34	0.010016
CCR2	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 2	-17.34	0.010016
CXCL10	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 10	-17.3	0.010019
CD40LG	CD40 ligand	-16.29	0.010186
CCR1	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 1	-16.22	0.010134
IL7	Interleukin 7	-15.74	0.010203
CXCR1	Chemokine (C-X3-C motif) receptor 1	-15.68	0.010319
CCR4	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 4	-15.47	0.010258
IL27	Interleukin 27	-15.45	0.010259
IL3	Interleukin 3	-14.8	0.010412
CXCR3	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 3	-14.68	0.010452
IL16	Interleukin 16	-14.38	0.010472
CCR8	Chemokine (C-C motif) receptor 8	-14.35	0.010453
CX3CR1	Chemokine (C-X3-C motif) receptor 1	-14.23	0.008799
CXCL9	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 9	-13.91	0.010708
TNFSF14	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 14	-13.51	0.009462
CSF3	Colony stimulating factor 3 (granulocyte)	-13.17	0.010952
IL17B	Interleukin 17B	-13.04	0.010758
LTB	Lymphotoxin beta	-12.49	0.011005
TNFRSF11B	Tumor necrosis factor receptor superfamily, member 11b	-11.28	0.010725
CCL4	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 4	-11.22	0.012553

IL9R	Interleukin 9 receptor	-10.95	0.009601
OSM	Oncostatin M	-10.34	0.011304
IL2RG	Interleukin 2 receptor, gamma	-10.12	0.011248
TNF	Tumor necrosis factor	-9.96	0.013403
IL4	Interleukin 4	-9.11	0.013379
CXCR5	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 5	-7.9	0.012634
IL15	Interleukin 15	-6.82	0.003445
LTA	Lymphotoxin alpha	-4.92	0.013147
CXCL12	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 12	-4.46	0.04327
TNFSF13B	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 13b	-4.16	0.040672
IL10RA	Interleukin 10 receptor, alpha	-3.71	0.016316
CCL17	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 17	-3.61	0.030804
IL6R	Interleukin 6 receptor	-2.5	0.009601
TNFSF4	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 4	-2.16	0.024155

Mastitis-susceptible bMECs

Upregulated

CXCL5	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5	8.25	0.001102
-------	----------------------------------	------	----------

Downregulated

None

Table 6: Fold expression differences (≥ 2) in unchallenged bMECs from mastitis-resistant relative to mastitis-susceptible cattle. P-values are shown; none are significant ($p < 0.05$).

Gene Symbol	Gene	Fold-difference	P-value
Higher expression			
CXCR1	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) receptor 1	2.01	0.282959
FASLG	Fas ligand	40.67	0.207079
IL15	Interleukin 15	2.4	0.283571
IL33	Interleukin 33	4.44	0.291716
Lower expression			
BMP2	Bone morphogenetic protein 2	-4.31	0.166194
CCL2	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 2	-3.84	0.242192
CCL5	Chemokine (C-C motif) ligand 5	-4.4	0.277475
CXCL5	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5	-3.49	0.067625
CXCL8	Interleukin 8	-3.06	0.25974
GRO1	Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 2	-4.09	0.112732
HPRT1	Hypoxanthine phosphoribosyltransferase 1	-2	0.116871
IL10RB	Interleukin 10 receptor, beta	-2.78	0.255559
IL1A	Interleukin 1, alpha	-2.36	0.269131
IL1R1	Interleukin 1 receptor, type 1	-2.08	0.276355
IL1RN	Interleukin 1 receptor antagonist	-3.04	0.276084
IL6R	Interleukin 6 receptor	-2.23	0.276033
TBP	TATA box binding protein	-2.65	0.252476
TNFSF10	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 10	-2.42	0.279517
TNFSF13	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 13	-2.5	0.2726
TNFSF4	Tumor necrosis factor (ligand) superfamily, member 4	-2.08	0.457644
VEGFA	Vascular endothelial growth factor A	-2.73	0.063398

CHAPTER 4

PRIMARY BOVINE DERMAL FIBROBLASTS DISPLAY SIMILAR INTERLEUKIN
1 β EXPRESSION CHANGES TO PRIMARY BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL
CELLS IN RESPONSE TO LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE**Abstract**

Mastitis is an important disease among dairy cattle worldwide. Primary bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs) provide an *in vitro* model for studies of the bovine mammary gland, including investigations of the cellular mechanisms involved in mastitis. Bovine milk provides a source of viable bMECs and establishment of bMECs from this source is a non-invasive, repeatable method that is more practical than explant methods. However, establishment of primary bMECs from bovine milk is challenging due to the low concentration of bMECs, generally requiring a large volume of milk. Bovine fibroblasts (bFs) are a second resident cell type involved in immune responses to intramammary infection, and are readily established and maintained in culture. In order to systematically investigate the common or differential innate immune responses to mastitis-causing pathogens between bMECs and bFs, we established primary bMEC and bF lines from seven lactating Holstein cattle and profiled the inflammatory responses of bMECs and bFs to lipopolysaccharide (LPS) challenge using the Fluidigm Biomark HD system. Additionally, we describe a method for establishment of primary bMECs from bovine milk with reduced milk volume and FBS requirements. Under static (unchallenged) conditions, bFs demonstrate significantly different expression from

bMECs of interleukin 1 α (IL1A), IL-1 receptor antagonist (IL1RN), C-C motif chemokine ligand 20 (CCL20), C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5 (CXCL5), IL-1 receptor 1 (IL1R1), and IL-6. In response to LPS challenge, both bMECs and bFs downregulate IL-1 β (IL1B), and bMECs additionally downregulate CCL20. Therefore, bFs could potentially be used as a model for bMEC IL1B responses but may not provide a universal model for bMEC inflammatory gene responses.

Background

Mastitis is the most prevalent production-related disease among dairy cattle and is associated with substantial economic impacts [193]. Decreased milk yield accounts for much of the cost associated with mastitis [194] and is a result of temporary or permanent functional compromise of the mammary gland by direct pathogen effects or inflammatory-mediated damage [55].

The inflammatory response to mastitis pathogens is due to contributions from multiple cell types. Bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs), lining the teat canal, ductal system, and alveoli, are extensively involved in innate defenses against invading pathogens. In addition to providing a physical barrier against bacterial entry into mammary tissue via tight junctions, these cells have the capacity to initiate components of the inflammatory response through the production of cytokines, chemokines, and other secreted factors. Secreted factors with bacteriostatic, bactericidal, and/or modulatory effects on inflammation include lactoferrin, citrate, xanthine oxidase, arachidonic acid metabolites, and host defense peptides [30]. Mammary epithelial cells are capable of

recognizing antigen from invading organisms through expression of pattern recognition receptors, including Toll-like receptors (TLR) 2 and 4, facilitating generation of pathogen-specific cytokine/chemokine profiles. Intramammary infection by *Escherichia coli*, an important mastitis pathogen, initiates the release of cytokines by bMECs, including interleukins (ILs), chemokines, and tumor necrosis factor (TNF) [30,195].

Because of the importance of bMECs in mastitis, bMEC immune responses have been examined in numerous *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies. *In vitro* studies provide a practical approach whereby immune responses of bMECs can be isolated from other mammary gland and systemic components within a highly controlled environment. Primary bMECs retain characteristics of MECs *in vivo*, including epithelial morphology, desmosomes, abundant tonofilaments, and formation of acinar structures [177,196], and gene expression of cytokeratins, casein, and whey proteins [197,198]. Additionally, primary bMECs are capable of eliciting pathogen-specific inflammatory responses by differential expression of multiple inflammatory components, including lactoferrin, IL-1 β , IL-8, TNF- α , serum amyloid A, and β -defensin [38,170]. Furthermore, the effects of factors such as energy balance in the donor animal on bMEC responses can be studied [171]. Variation in immune responses of primary bMECs from donor animals with differing levels of susceptibility to mastitis have been demonstrated. For example, primary bMECs from animals classified as exhibiting high and low susceptibility to mastitis based on genotype at a quantitative trait locus for udder health traits on BTA 18 showed differential expression of several key innate immune genes in response to challenge by two mastitis pathogens [118]. Additionally, a faster and stronger immune

response was initiated in primary bMECs from less susceptible animals [157]. These and other studies support the usefulness of primary bMECs in studies to elucidate specific mechanisms underlying mastitis pathogenesis, including mastitis resistance.

Primary bMECs may be established from explant culture of mammary gland tissue or from isolation from bovine milk. Explant culture requires postmortem or biopsy tissue, the acquisition of which requires euthanasia or an invasive procedure. As stated in its policy on the use of animals in research, the American Veterinary Medical Association recommends the use of non-animal methods and “refinement of experimental methods to eliminate animal pain and distress” [199], which can be achieved with the use of *in vitro* models attained by minimally-invasive methods. Bovine milk provides a source of viable bMECs for primary culture and presents a non-invasive, repeatable, and practical alternative to explant methods. Previously reported methods of bMEC establishment from milk require collection of a large volume of milk, which may be impractical under some circumstances. Here, we describe a method by which bMECs can be successfully established from a reduced volume of milk.

In addition to bMECs, bovine fibroblasts (bFs) are a resident component of the mammary gland and contribute to inflammatory responses during mastitis [200]. Differences in inflammatory responses of primary bFs between individual animals have been demonstrated to be reflective of mammary gland immune responses *in vivo* [201]. Like bMECs, bFs should be considered as potential contributors to mastitis susceptibility.

In vitro models based on primary cell culture are vital in differentiating the contributions of specific cell types to mastitis under highly controlled conditions. As the

inflammatory responses of both bMECs and bFs may contribute to mastitis susceptibility, defining the responses of both to inflammatory stimuli is expected to yield a more complete picture of the mechanisms of mastitis resistance than would the study of one cell type alone. Direct comparisons between the responses of these two cell types from the same individual cattle are needed to better define the mechanisms of mastitis resistance. In order to compare inflammatory responses, we isolated bMECs and bFs from seven lactating Holstein dairy cows and examined differences between the two cell types in the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes under unchallenged as well as lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-challenged conditions.

Methods

Bovine MEC collection, isolation, and establishment

Seven primary bMEC lines were established from bovine milk using methods modified from those previously reported [39,177]. Milk samples for bMEC isolation were collected from lactating Holstein cows in the milking parlor prior to attachment of the milking cluster. Prior to milk collection, teat ends were cleaned and disinfected with a 7.5% povidone-iodine solution applied with a spray bottle. Disinfectant was allowed approximately ten seconds contact time before being removed using a clean paper towel. Four hundred ml of milk was then hand-stripped from one or more mammary gland quarters into sterile, 1 liter-capacity plastic bottles containing an equal volume of collection media. Collection media consisted of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with penicillin (60 µg/ml), streptomycin (200

$\mu\text{g/ml}$), gentamycin (120 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), and nystatin (50 mg/L). Samples were kept on ice within an insulated container for transport to the laboratory and short-term storage (up to four hours) prior to cell isolation.

In all subsequent steps where sample containers were open, samples were handled within a cell culture hood to maintain asepsis. Milk samples were divided into two 500-ml capacity conical centrifuge bottles and centrifuged for ten minutes at 3000 rpm at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded, and the cell pellets were resuspended in 12 ml of fresh collection media and transferred into a 50 ml sterile conical tube. Resuspended cell pellets from the same individual animal were combined into the same 50 ml tube. Samples were centrifuged for ten minutes at 3000 rpm at room temperature. The supernatant was discarded, and the remaining cell pellet resuspended in 24 ml of fresh collection media and transferred to a new 50 ml conical tube through a 100 μm cell strainer. Samples were centrifuged again at 3000 rpm for ten minutes at room temperature, and the supernatant discarded. The cell pellet was resuspended in 5 ml of growth media with 10% FBS, seeded into a T-25 culture flask, and incubated at 38.5°C with 5% CO₂. Growth media consisted of HuMEC Ready Medium (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with penicillin (60 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), streptomycin (200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), gentamycin (120 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), and nystatin (50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$). After 12-18 hours, media was exchanged for growth media without FBS. Media was changed every 2-3 days. After large, coalescing colonies formed or the culture had reached confluence, cells were passaged using trypsin 0.05%/EDTA 0.02% (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Cells were maintained to the second, at which point LPS challenge was carried out.

Bovine fibroblast collection, isolation, and establishment

Bovine fibroblast primary cultures were established as previously described [202], with some modifications, from dermal ear notch samples from the cows for which bMEC lines were established. Ear notches were rinsed in a 7.5% povidone-iodine solution followed by 70% ethanol, and transferred into collection media as described above for transport to the laboratory on ice. Under a cell culture hood, ear notches were minced to 2 mm³ pieces, with exclusion of the epidermis and hair. Tissue pieces were rinsed twice with collection media and transferred to cell culture wells containing 0.25% trypsin. After a one-hour incubation at 37°C with 5% CO₂, trypsin was exchanged for growth media as described above with 10% FBS. Media was exchanged every 2-3 days thereafter. Once adherent monolayer cells morphologically consistent with fibroblasts had formed around explant tissue pieces, tissue was removed. Cells were passaged when confluence was reached as described for bMECs. Cells were maintained to the second passage, at which point LPS challenge was carried out.

Cell lineage verification

Verification of epithelial lineage of representative bMECs was achieved using observation of cell morphology and cytokeratin 8 (KER8) expression as determined by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Observations of cell morphology were made at P₀ and all subsequent passages using phase-contrast microscopy. Primers for KER8 were designed using Primer3Plus (<http://primer3plus.com/cgi-bin/dev/primer3plus.cgi>) and based on NCBI reference sequence NM_001033610.1 and were as follows: forward

primer AATCAAGTATGAGGAGCTGC; reverse primer CATCCTTAACAGCCATCTCA. Polymerase chain reaction conditions consisted of initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 seconds followed by 32 cycles of 98°C for 10 seconds, 57 °C for 15 seconds, and 72°C for 30 seconds. Gel electrophoresis was used to confirm the presence of PCR product. Sequencing of PCR product to confirm KER8 amplification was carried out by the Center for Integrated Biotechnology, Utah State University (Logan, UT). Uniformity of cytokeratin expression was also confirmed by immunocytochemistry using a rabbit anti-cytokeratin, wide spectrum screening primary antibody (Z0622; Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA), carried out by the Utah Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory (Logan, UT).

LPS challenge and RNA isolation

Bovine MECs and bFs were exposed to LPS from *Escherichia coli* 0111:B4 (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) to mimic exposure to a mastitis-causing pathogen. Lipopolysaccharide challenge methods were similar to those described previously [173]. Briefly, bMECs and bFs were split after the second passage into two T-25 culture flasks. Once 50-100% confluence was reached, media was exchanged for growth media with or without 50 µg/ml LPS. Cells were incubated at culture conditions for 6 hours, after which media was removed.

Following LPS challenge, bMECs and bFs were lysed and total RNA was isolated and purified using the Purelink RNA Mini Kit (Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quality of the RNA (RNA integrity number

> 8.0) was verified using the Agilent 2100 Bioanalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA). Complementary DNA was generated using the SuperScript® VILO™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with reverse transcription PCR conditions as follows: primer annealing at 25°C for 10 minutes, reverse transcription at 42°C for 1 hour, and enzyme inactivation at 85°C for 5 minutes.

Quantitative PCR for gene expression

Relative expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes was assessed via quantitative PCR (qPCR). Genes were selected based on known roles in inflammation and/or bovine mastitis and included Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), interleukin-6 (IL6), IL33, IL1 α , IL1 β , IL2 receptor subunit gamma (IL2RG), IL1 receptor antagonist (IL1RN), IL1 receptor type 1 (IL1R1), C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5 (CXCL5), interleukin 8 (CXCL8), C-C motif chemokine receptor 2 (CCR2), C-C motif chemokine ligand 20 (CCL20), and chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 (GRO1). Glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH) and ubiquitously expressed transcript protein (UXT) were used as reference genes. Primers were designed using Primer3Plus (<http://primer3plus.com/cgi-bin/dev/primer3plus.cgi>) and are shown in Table 7. Efficiency of all primers was between 80-110%.

Quantitative PCR was performed by the Utah State University Center for Integrated Technology (Logan, UT) using BioMark technology (Fluidigm) and EvaGreen (Bio-Rad) detection chemistry. The $\Delta\Delta C_t$ normalization method was used for relative

quantification as implemented by Fluidigm Real-Time PCR Analysis software (Fluidigm). Results were analyzed in a mixed model approach implemented in SAS[®] statistical software, Version 9.4 [203], using the “proc mixed” command, with a significance level set at $p < 0.05$. Comparisons in expression of the 13 genes were made between bMECs and bFs under unchallenged conditions. Additionally, expression of these genes was compared between unchallenged and LPS-challenged bMECs and between unchallenged and LPS-challenged bFs.

Results

Improved bMEC isolation methods

Methods described for bMEC establishment include explant culture from mammary gland biopsies or postmortem tissue and isolation from bovine milk. Establishment of primary bMECs from postmortem tissue carries the disadvantage that further cultures at a later time cannot be obtained from the same cow. Additionally, slaughter of cattle solely to obtain such tissue may be economically impractical as well as ethically questionable. Mammary gland biopsies can overcome these problems, but are time-consuming and may not be practical under some circumstances, particularly if repeated establishment of cell lines from the same animals is required. With both these methods, other cell types such as bFs are isolated along with bMECs and steps must be taken to remove these contaminating cell types [170,176]. Establishment of primary bMECs from bovine milk is a non-invasive method that minimizes contamination of bMEC lines by bFs and other cell types relative to explant-based methods [177,204].

We successfully established bMEC primary cultures from bovine milk from a reduced volume of milk (400 ml) as compared with previously-reported methods. Moreover, use of hand-milking for milk collection, use of collection media supplemented by antimicrobials, and centrifugation speed of 3000 rpm during isolation steps were important factors. Additionally, use of FBS in bMEC culture media can be minimized, as FBS was eliminated from the culture media from the first media change onward.

All established bMEC lines demonstrated cell and colony morphology uniformly consistent with their respective expected cell types. Among bMEC lines, rare to moderate numbers of individual, adherent cells with polygonal morphology, oval nuclei, and elongated cytoplasmic processes were present by 12 hours after seeding. By four days after seeding, colonies of 2-5 cells were observed, demonstrating the cobblestone arrangement and polygonal individual cell morphology consistent with MECs grown on monolayer [205–207]. Cultures had formed large, coalescing colonies by 21-28 days after seeding and were initially passaged at this time. Cellular senescence was identified by prominent flattening, enlargement, and nuclear vacuolation of cells in addition to a cessation of cell division. Senescence among a majority of cells, with no further growth of colonies, was observed in occasional cell lines at initial passage (P₀) and P₁ and these cultures were excluded from the LPS challenge study. However, most cell lines did not exhibit senescence among a majority of cells by confluence at P₂. All bMEC lines expressed KER8. Immunocytochemistry demonstrated cytokeratin expression in the majority of cells in a representative bMEC line.

Primary bFs formed small colonies of spindle-shaped cells bordering explant tissue pieces and reached confluence within 7-10 days. All bF lines demonstrated uniform sheets and individual cell morphology consistent with primary fibroblasts on monolayer.

Our results demonstrate that primary bMEC lines can be established from 400 ml of bovine milk. The use of a small volume of milk allows for a reduction in the time required for sample collection, improving the utility of this method.

Constitutive expression of inflammatory genes differs between bMECs and bFs

To investigate differences in constitutive expression of pro-inflammatory genes between bFs and bMECs, we evaluated the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes by qRT-PCR in unchallenged cell lines. Four genes, IL6, ILR1, CXCL5, and CCL20, were significantly ($p < 0.05$) more highly expressed in bMECs than bFs under unchallenged conditions, while two genes, IL1RN and IL1A, were more highly expressed in bFs (Table 8). Results show that constitutive expression of a number of pro-inflammatory genes varies between bFs and bMECs. This finding highlights the importance of examining the two cell types separately when conclusions are drawn regarding possible influences of mammary gland constitutive gene expression in mastitis.

Expression of pro-inflammatory genes between bMECs and bFs upon LPS challenge

Changes in the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes between the two cell types as a result of LPS challenge were compared.

Lipopolysaccharide challenge resulted in differential expression of two pro-inflammatory genes among bMECs and one pro-inflammatory gene among bFs. Among bMECs, both IL1B and CCL20 were significantly downregulated. Among bFs, IL1B was significantly downregulated (Table 9). The expression of the remaining 11 genes examined was not significantly affected by LPS challenge in either cell type. These findings demonstrate that in response to LPS, both cell types respond similarly with regard to changes in expression of IL1B, an important cytokine in bovine mastitis. The pattern of expression of CCL20, however, differs between the two cell types in response to LPS. Therefore, bFs could potentially be used as a model for bMEC IL1B responses but may not provide a good universal model for bMEC inflammatory gene responses.

Discussion

Primary bMEC cultures can be established from a small volume of bovine milk with minimal use of FBS

Our results reinforce that bovine milk provides a source of viable bMECs that can be collected non-invasively and repeatedly. Challenges encountered in bMEC primary culture from bovine milk include recovery of an adequate number of viable bMECs and avoidance of culture contamination by bacterial and fungal organisms. In our experience, obtaining milk through hand-milking, use of collection media and antimicrobials, and a

centrifugation speed of 3000 rpm during isolation steps contributed to the success of establishing bMEC primary cultures from a 400 ml volume of milk.

The concentration of viable bMECs detected within milk from dairy cattle tends to be low [204,208]. As such, previously-reported methods for bMEC isolation from milk require relatively large volumes of milk, at 950 ml or greater [39,171,177], which may be impractical in some settings. For example, as we experienced, sampling of cows on a commercial farm within the milking parlor may unduly disrupt the milking schedule due to the time required to collect a large volume of milk. Reducing the volume of milk needed allows disruption to be minimized.

In previously reported methods of bMEC establishment from milk [39,171,177], the technique of milk collection is unspecified. In our experience, collection of milk by mechanical milking equipment resulted in a lower rate of successful bMEC establishment, as well as a higher number of cultures discarded as a result of bacterial contamination, than did manual collection by hand-milking. We speculate that manual collection may result in less cellular damage from shearing stress to bMECs, and therefore a higher success rate, than does milking by mechanical means. In the setting of a commercial dairy farm, as was used in our study, hand milking additionally lends a higher degree of control over maintaining asepsis, thereby reducing bacterial and fungal contamination. We observed a lower frequency of bacterial contamination of bMEC cultures obtained through manual sampling than those obtained through mechanical milking, in agreement with a previous study [209].

During the initial centrifugation step in bMEC isolation, cells are separated from the majority of the liquid and fat components of the milk. A variable amount of fat separates from the liquid component and forms a layer on the surface of the milk during centrifugation, while cells, debris, and some fat form a pellet beneath the liquid layer. However, in agreement with a previous study [210], we suspect that some cells may become trapped in the upper fat layer of the milk during centrifugation. Dilution of the sample with collection media may help to minimize cell trapping by reducing the viscosity of the milk and the concentration of lipids, allowing cells to more easily pellet during centrifugation.

We experimented with low (2000 rpm) to high (4000 rpm) centrifugation speeds during bMEC isolation attempts, and found that centrifugation at 3000 rpm was optimal for establishment of bMEC lines. We believe that low-speed centrifugation may cause less damage to cells, preserving viability, but may leave many cells remaining in suspension. High-speed centrifugation may result in a larger number of cells recovered from suspension, but may cause cellular damage and decreased viability (Gertrude C. Beuhring, personal communication).

Antimicrobials in collection media and growth media were used to prevent bacterial and fungal contamination of bMEC and bF cultures. Prior to the use of antimicrobial-supplemented collection media, we observed a higher rate of contamination of bMEC and bF cultures at initial establishment or early passages. Although milk samples for bMEC establishment were collected with asepsis in mind, some level of contamination by environmental debris nevertheless occurred, evident as grossly or

microscopically visible acellular debris embedded within the cell pellet following centrifugation. We expect that the use of antimicrobials helped to control bacterial and fungal proliferation in milk and ear notch samples prior to seeding of isolated cell pellets or explant tissue, respectively, into antimicrobial-supplemented growth media. Overall, evidence of bacterial contamination was uncommon when milk was collected manually. However, fungal contamination of cultures at early passages was common in both bMEC and bF lines when no collection media was used or when amphotericin B was used as an antifungal. As a result, we substituted nystatin for amphotericin B in both collection and growth media. Concurrently, the source of the iodine disinfectant used to clean teats prior to sampling was switched from the on-farm pre-dip solution to a solution prepared aseptically in the laboratory. The use of this iodine disinfectant was also added to the bF isolation protocol, wherein ear notches were rinsed with the iodine solution prior to ethanol rinsing. The implementation of these changes successfully prevented fungal contamination in bMEC and most bF lines.

In previously reported methods of bMEC isolation and culture from milk, FBS or fetal calf serum (FCS) is used in the culture media at concentrations of 5-10% in growth media in order to facilitate cell-substrate attachment and achieve sustained growth of bMECs [38,39,170,177]. However, the use of serum in cell culture media has a number of disadvantages. The components of serum, as well as their concentrations, are incompletely defined, and may exhibit large lot-to-lot variation. Serum is additionally a potential source of hemoglobin, endotoxin, and microbial contaminants, all of which have the potential to influence cellular responses and experimental results [211]. Serum can

inhibit the growth of some epithelial cell types, including human mammary epithelial cells [206,212]; a similar effect on bMECs is possible. Furthermore, the presence of serum in media may influence inflammatory cytokine secretion or bioactivity by bMECs [213]. These considerations, in addition to the expense and ethical concerns regarding the collection of serum from bovine fetuses, justify development of cell culture methods that minimize or eliminate the use of serum in cell culture [211,214]. Human MECs have been cultured successfully in serum-free media, and may in fact be more easily cultured using alternatives to FBS [206]. In our studies, we found that FBS is required for initial attachment of bMECs, as reported previously [177]. However, using a specialized serum-free media developed for human MEC culture, we were able to eliminate FBS from the growth media from the first media change onward.

Isolation of bMECs from bovine milk has some disadvantages, such as a low number of cells relative to what can be achieved through explant culture [177]. However, in studies that do not require a large number of cells, isolation from milk provides a number of advantages over explant culture. The modifications described here to previously-reported milk isolation methods improve the versatility of bMEC isolation from milk by reducing the volume of milk needed and minimizing the requirement for serum.

The use of bFs in mastitis studies

Fibroblasts are a component of the bovine mammary gland and respond to intramammary infection by secretion of cytokines such as TNF- α and IL-6 [215]. *In vitro*,

mammary gland-derived bFs from donor animals with and without intramammary infection display differential expression of genes involved in cell junction and adhesion, immune response, and biosynthesis/metabolism cellular pathways, and additionally affect proliferation and secretion of TNF- α and IL-8 by co-cultured bMEC [215]. Dermal bFs exposed *in vitro* to LPS display increased expression of IL-8, IL-6, and some matrix metalloproteinases [201,216,217].

Similar to bMECs, individual animal variation has been observed in immune responses of primary bFs. Variability in IL-6, IL-8, and TLR-4 expression between dermal bF lines from different animals was noted upon *in vitro* exposure of these cells to LPS or IL-1 β [201,216,218]. Intriguingly, responses of dermal bFs to LPS *in vitro* were predictive of the rate of mastitis resolution and return to mammary gland productive capacity upon intramammary infusion of *Escherichia coli* in lactating Holstein cows [201]. These findings indicate that primary bFs, like bMECs, have the potential to provide a suitable model for certain mastitis studies. We demonstrate that bFs and bMECs respond similarly to LPS challenge in their expression of IL1B, but demonstrate differences in CCL20 expression.

IL1B is downregulated by both bMECs and bFs following LPS challenge

The role of IL1B in bovine mastitis is well recognized. Interleukin 1 β has been detected in both healthy and infected bovine mammary glands [219] and is produced by monocytes/macrophages, bMECs, and possibly mammary gland endothelial cells [213,220]. Functions during mastitis include neutrophil chemotaxis and adhesion

molecule expression by endothelial cells. The relative importance of IL1B responses in mastitis varies by pathogen [220], but increased expression in the mammary gland is observed in the acute stages of mastitis caused by several important pathogens, including *Streptococcus uberis* [221], *Escherichia coli* [195,222], and *Staphylococcus aureus* [222]. Measurement of serum IL1B and calculation of the serum IL1RN:IL1B ratio has been suggested as a predictive assay for mastitis severity in cattle [219]. Our finding that IL1B was downregulated following LPS exposure is in contrast to many studies that demonstrate upregulation of IL1B in response to inflammatory stimuli, although downregulation of IL1B in bovine mammary tissue with mastitis has been reported [223].

The finding that bFs show similar IL1B responses to LPS to bMECs suggests that bFs could be used in place of bMECs in understanding some aspects of the immune responses of mastitis. Changes in IL1B expression by bFs could potentially be used as a tool for predicting bMEC immune responsiveness to various conditions. For example, bFs could be used in the initial investigation of compounds theorized to dampen bMEC responses and thereby reduce inflammatory-mediated damage to the mammary gland during mastitis. The responsiveness of bFs in place of bMECs to LPS in the presence of these compounds could be evaluated. Because bFs grow more readily and rapidly in culture than bMECs, bF-based models have the potential to improve the efficiency of such initial investigations, the findings of which could be used as guidance for the direction of more targeted investigations using bMECs or *in vivo* models.

CCL20 is downregulated in bMECs but not in bFs following LPS challenge

CCL20 is a pro-inflammatory chemokine involved in recruitment of leukocytes [224]. Upregulation of CCL20 by the mammary gland and primary bMECs in response to mastitis pathogens has been demonstrated [225].

Although IL1B responses of bFs and bMECs were similar, the two cell types displayed distinct CCL20 responses following LPS challenge, with differential expression noted only in bMECs. This finding demonstrates that bFs cannot be assumed to universally mimic bMECs and as such cannot be used in place of bMECs for some mastitis studies.

Conclusions

Constitutive expression of IL6, ILR1, CXCL5, CCL20, IL1RN, and IL1A differ between primary bFs and bMECs under unchallenged conditions, indicating a need to examine each cell type separately in studies of constitutive mammary gland gene expression. Following LPS challenge, both cell types respond by downregulating IL1B, while CCL20 is downregulated in bMECs only. Bovine fibroblasts may therefore be of use as a model for bMEC IL1B expression responses during mastitis but may not be appropriate when the expression of some other inflammatory genes are examined. Primary bMEC cultures can be established from 400 ml of bovine milk and with reduced FBS use by the methods described here.

Table 7: Primers used for qPCR.

Symbol	Gene	Primer	Sequence	NCBI sequence
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	F	TTGATGTCAGTGCTATTGCT	NM_174263.2
		R	ACCCACTTCTTCTTTGGATC	
CCR2	C-C motif chemokine receptor 2	F	GTGCCCTTATTTTCCACTA	NM_001194959.1
		R	GAGCCCAGAAGAGAAAGTAG	
CXCL5	C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5	F	TGTGTTTAACCACCACACC	NM_174300.2
		R	TTGTTCTTCCACTGTCCA	
CXCL8	Interleukin 8	F	AAACACATTCCACACCTTTC	NM_173925.2
		R	TCTTCACAAATACCTGCACA	
GRO1	chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1	F	ATTCACCTCAAGAATCCA	NM_175700.1
		R	GCACTAGCCTTGTTTAGCAT	
IL1A	Interleukin 1 alpha	F	GAAGAGGATTCTCAGCTTCC	NM_174092.1
		R	GATGGGCAACTGATTTGAAG	
IL1B	Interleukin 1 beta	F	CTTGGGTATCAAGGACAAGA	NM_174093.1
		R	TGAGAAGTGCTGATGTACCA	
IL1R1	Interleukin 1 receptor type 1	F	GAGACAATGGAAGTGGTCTT	NM_001206735.1
		R	GAAATATTAAGCCGTGCGAG	
IL1RN	Interleukin 1 receptor antagonist	F	CACTGACTTGAACCAGAACA	AB005148.1
		R	GCTGGAAGTAGAACTTGGTG	
IL2RG	Interleukin 2 receptor subunit gamma	F	AATCCAGCTAGAACTGAGC	NM_174359.1
		R	TTCCGCAAAGTGGGTTATAA	
IL33	Interleukin 33	F	CAACCAAGAGAAAGACAAGG	NM_001075297.1
		R	CTCCACAGAGTGCTCCTTAC	
IL6	Interleukin 6	F	ACTGCTGGTCTTCTGGAGTA	NM_173923.2
		R	CTTTACCCACTCGTTTGAAG	
TLR4	Toll-like receptor 4	F	GCATGGAGCTGAATCTCTAC	NM_174198.6
		R	ATAGGGTTTCCCGTCAGTAT	

Table 8: Genes differentially expressed between bFs and bMECs under unchallenged conditions.

Symbol	Gene	P-value	SE
More highly expressed in bFs			
IL1A	Interleukin 1 alpha	0.0003	1.1784
IL1RN	Interleukin 1 receptor antagonist	<0.0001	1.1848
More highly expressed in bMECs			
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	0.0003	1.36
CXCL5	C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5	0.0415	0.8957
IL1R1	Interleukin 1 receptor type 1	0.0071	1.4813
IL6	Interleukin 6	0.0026	2.1505

SE: Standard Error

Table 9: Genes downregulated following LPS challenge in bFs and bMECs.

Symbol	Gene	P-value	SE
Downregulated in bFs			
IL1B	Interleukin 1 beta	0.0322	1.2603
Downregulated in bMECs			
IL1B	Interleukin 1 beta	0.0009	1.2603
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	<0.0001	1.36

CHAPTER 5

EXOGENOUS PHOSPHOLIPASE A2 AFFECTS EXPRESSION OF INTERLEUKIN-8
AND CHEMOKINE (C-X-C MOTIF) LIGAND 1 BY PRIMARY BOVINE
MAMMARY EPITHELIAL CELLS IN RESPONSE TO LIPOPOLYSACCHARIDE**Abstract**

Bovine mastitis causes substantial economic losses to the dairy industry. Phospholipase A2 (PLA2) is an endogenous enzyme involved in phospholipid metabolism in all mammalian tissues and has both pro-inflammatory and anti-inflammatory functions as well as bactericidal characteristics. Modulation of PLA2 levels locally within tissue has been proposed as a therapeutic approach to various diseases, and evidence exists for an anti-inflammatory effect when administered as an intramammary treatment during murine mastitis. Little is known about the effects of exogenous PLA2 on the bovine mammary gland and its effects on bovine mastitis. We used an *in vitro* model to investigate the effects of exogenous PLA2 on primary bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs). We established bMEC lines from 12 lactating Holstein dairy cows and compared the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes under unchallenged and lipopolysaccharide (LPS)-challenged conditions with and without concurrent treatment with bovine pancreatic PLA2G1B. No differences in the expression of these genes were noted between PLA2-treated and untreated bMECs under unchallenged conditions. However, following LPS challenge, untreated bMECs exhibited significant ($p < 0.05$) downregulation of interleukin-8 (IL8), interleukin-1 β (IL1B), C-C motif chemokine

ligand 20 (CCL20), and chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 (GRO1). In contrast, PLA2-treated bMECs exhibited significant downregulation of IL1B and CCL20 only, indicating that exogenous PLA2 affects the expression of some pro-inflammatory factors in immune-stimulated bMECs. Further studies are required to determine whether PLA2 affects the expression of other inflammatory genes by bMECs or other mammary gland cell types, or if a dose-dependent effect exists that was not apparent in this study.

Background

Bovine mastitis has a major impact on the dairy industry due to the substantial impacts of decreased milk yield, altered milk production, and the costs of diagnostic, therapeutic, and preventative measures [3,193]. Currently, the majority of dairy cattle with mastitis are treated with antibiotics, despite evidence indicating that bacteriological cure rates may not be improved with antibiotic treatment over spontaneous cure rates [226,227].

Changes in the production capacity of the mammary gland as well as alterations in milk composition are a result of damage to bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs), the milk-producing compartment. Damage can result from direct effects of mastitis pathogens on bMECs [228,229]. A substantial portion of damage, however, is a consequence of the host immune response itself, wherein host defense mechanisms such as neutrophil degranulation cause bystander-effect cellular injury [47]. Minimizing the damaging effects of host inflammatory responses should be considered an important factor in the management of inflammatory diseases such as mastitis. With the use of

antibiotics alone in cases of bovine mastitis, minimizing inflammation-induced host tissue damage relies solely on elimination of the infecting organism. Alternative therapeutic approaches to bovine mastitis that include strategies to minimize host-induced damage to mammary gland tissue are needed.

One proposed therapeutic approach in the treatment of a number of inflammatory diseases in various species involves modulation of phospholipase A₂ [230]. The phospholipase A₂ superfamily of enzymes are involved in several cellular processes, including influencing inflammatory processes, predominantly via generation of lipid mediators. Inhibition of PLA₂ activity has therefore been proposed in the treatment of inflammatory diseases [231]. However, because of the involvement of PLA₂ in other cellular processes such as normal phospholipid metabolism, universal PLA₂ inhibition has potentially detrimental effects, including impairment of cell viability [230]. Therefore, selective modulation of specific PLA₂ subtypes, such as secreted PLA₂ (sPLA₂), may be a more optimal approach [230].

Pro-inflammatory actions of sPLA₂ are mediated through intrinsic enzymatic and bactericidal activity as well as via interaction with the PLA₂ receptor expressed on various mammalian cell types [232,233]. Secreted PLA₂ enzymatic activity results in cell membrane and extracellular phospholipid hydrolysis and the consequent release of arachidonic acid, which is subsequently converted into eicosanoids to potentiate inflammation [232,234]. Binding of sPLA₂ to transmembrane and soluble forms of the PLA₂ receptor (*PLA2R1*) evokes additional cell type-specific biological responses, including initiating receptor-mediated activation of eicosanoid formation independent of

sPLA2 enzymatic activity [232]. For some sPLA2 subtypes, such as sPLA2-1B, this receptor-mediated activity is particularly important, as intrinsic hydrolyzing activity toward intact cell membranes of sPLA2-1B is relatively weak [235]. Additional receptor-mediated pro-inflammatory effects include influences on plasma pro-inflammatory cytokine levels during endotoxic shock [232]. Evidence exists for sPLA2 subtype-specific effects upon receptor binding [232]. Interestingly, in addition to potentiating PLA2 function, *PLA2R1*-sPLA2 binding also has negative regulatory effects on PLA2 activity. The intrinsic enzymatic activity of sPLA2 is abolished upon receptor binding [232], and receptor-mediated endocytosis of sPLA2 facilitates clearance of these enzymes [235]. Binding of sPLA2 to a circulating, soluble form of PLA2 receptor upregulated during endotoxic shock additionally blocks the biological functions of some sPLA2 subtypes [235].

Little information is available on the role of PLA2 in the pathogenesis of bovine mastitis. It is unknown whether endogenous PLA2 activity in the bovine mammary gland changes as a result of mastitis [236]. Effects of PLA2 noted in other species and tissues may be extrapolated to the bovine mammary gland only tentatively, as variation in PLA2-receptor-binding activity is noted among different mammalian species. For example, PLA2 receptor binding affinity of sPLA2 subtype sPLA2-1B is high in rodents but low in humans, and binding of sPLA2-IIA to the PLA2 receptor does not occur in humans [235]. Although PLA2 activity contributes to inflammation-induced damage in some diseases, as discussed above, there is some evidence for an *anti*-inflammatory effect of sPLA2 during mastitis. Intramammary administration of bovine PLA2G1B in mice with

experimental, LPS-induced mastitis reduced inflammation despite displaying no bactericidal activity [233]. Additionally, the effects of murine PLA2G2D are known to include the production of anti-inflammatory lipid mediators [237]. Information on the effects of PLA2 on inflammation in bovine mammary tissue is lacking. Whether PLA2 in the bovine mammary gland during mastitis has beneficial or detrimental effects has yet to be described.

Investigation of the effects of PLA2 on bovine mammary gland tissue will indicate whether further studies of PLA2 or PLA2 inhibitors as potential therapeutic agents are warranted. The objective of this study was to examine the effects of exogenously administered PLA2 on inflammatory responses of primary bMECs. To achieve this, we established primary bMEC lines from 12 lactating Holstein cows and compared the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes in PLA2-treated and untreated cell lines at unchallenged as well as LPS-challenged conditions.

Methods

Bovine MEC collection, isolation, and establishment

Milk-derived primary bMEC lines were established from adult lactating Holstein dairy cows. Four hundred milliliters of hand-stripped milk were aseptically collected into an equal volume of collection media consisting of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Sigma) supplemented with penicillin (60 µg/ml), streptomycin (200 µg/ml), gentamycin (120 µg/ml), and nystatin (50 mg/L).

Bovine MEC isolation was carried out as previously reported [39,177] with some modifications. Briefly, milk samples were subjected to a series of wash and centrifugation steps (3000 rpm for 10 minutes each) followed by passage of the resuspended cell pellet through a 100 μ m pore size cell strainer to separate cell pellets from debris and other milk components. Following a final centrifugation step, the cell pellet was resuspended in 5 ml of growth media consisting of HuMEC Ready Medium (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with penicillin (60 μ g/ml), streptomycin (200 μ g/ml), gentamycin (120 μ g/ml), nystatin (50 μ g/ml), and 10% fetal bovine serum, and seeded into a T-25 culture flask. Cells were incubated at 38.5°C with 5% CO₂. After 12-18 hours, media was exchanged for FBS-free growth media. Media was changed every 2-3 days thereafter.

Cells were passaged when confluency was reached using trypsin 0.05%/EDTA 0.02% (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Cells were maintained to the third passage, at which point LPS challenge was carried out.

Cell lineage verification

Verification of epithelial and mesenchymal lineage of bMEC was achieved using observation of cell morphology and expression of keratin 8 (KER8). Observations of cell morphology were made at P₀ and subsequent passages using phase-contrast microscopy. Colonies that demonstrated a cobblestone pattern comprised of polygonal cells with round to oval nuclei typical of epithelial cells were considered likely to be of bMEC origin. Expression of KER 8, a product of both basal and luminal MECs [178], was

determined via polymerase chain reaction (PCR). Primers were designed using Primer3Plus (<http://primer3plus.com/cgi-bin/dev/primer3plus.cgi>) based on NCBI reference sequence NM_001033610.1 and were as follows: forward primer AATCAAGTATGAGGAGCTGC; reverse primer CATCCTTAACAGCCATCTCA. Polymerase chain reactions were: initial denaturation at 98°C for 30 seconds followed by 32 cycles of 98°C for 10 seconds, 57 °C for 15 seconds, and 72°C for 30 seconds. Gel electrophoresis was used to confirm the presence of PCR product. Sequencing of PCR product to confirm KER8 amplification was carried out by the Center for Integrated Biotechnology, Utah State University (Logan, UT).

PLA2 treatment, LPS challenge, and RNA isolation

Each cell line was split into four treatment groups at the second to third passage: unchallenged, LPS-challenged, unchallenged with PLA2 treatment, and LPS-challenged with PLA2 treatment. Third-passage bMEC were exposed to LPS from *Escherichia coli* to mimic exposure to a mastitis-causing pathogen. Lipopolysaccharide challenge methods were similar to those described previously [173], with some modifications. Briefly, once 50-100% confluency was reached, media was exchanged for growth media with or without 50 µg/ml LPS from *Escherichia coli* (Sigma) and/or 50 µg/ml PLA2G1B from bovine pancreas (product P8913, Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Cells were incubated at culture conditions for 6 hours, after which media was removed. Cells were immediately lysed, and total RNA was isolated and purified using the Purelink RNA isolation kit (Life Technologies) according to the manufacturer's instructions. Quality of RNA was

determined using the BioAnalyzer (Agilent Technologies, Santa Clara, CA).

Complimentary DNA was generated using the SuperScript® VILO™ cDNA Synthesis Kit (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions, with RT-PCR conditions as follows: primer annealing at 25°C for 10 minutes, reverse transcription at 42°C for 1 hour, and enzyme inactivation at 85°C for 5 minutes.

Quantitative PCR for gene expression

Relative expression of 13 genes related to inflammation were assessed via quantitative PCR (qPCR). Genes were selected based on known roles in inflammation and/or bovine mastitis and included Toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4), Interleukin-6 (IL6), IL33, IL8, IL1 α , IL1 β , IL2 receptor subunit gamma (IL2RG), IL1 receptor antagonist (IL1RN), IL1 receptor type 1 (IL1R1), C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5 (CXCL5), CXCL8, C-C motif chemokine receptor 2 (CCR2), C-C motif chemokine ligand 20 (CCL20), and chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 (GRO1). GAPDH was used as a reference gene. Primers were designed using Primer3Plus (<http://primer3plus.com/cgi-bin/dev/primer3plus.cgi>) and are shown in Table 10. Efficiency of all primers was between 80-110%.

Quantitative PCR was performed by the Utah State University Center for Integrated Technology (Logan, UT) using Fluidigm Biomark technology and EvaGreen detection chemistry. The $\Delta\Delta C_t$ normalization method was used for relative quantification as implemented by Fluidigm Real-Time PCR Analysis software, using GAPDH as a reference gene. Results were analyzed in a mixed model approach implemented in SAS®

statistical software, Version 9.4, using the “proc mixed” command. Comparisons in expression of the 13 genes were made between bMEC from the four treatment groups in each of the 12 cell lines. A significance level was set at $p < 0.05$.

Results

Cell lines

Primary bMEC lines were established from 12 cattle. The cellular morphology of all cell lines was consistent with epithelial cells on monolayer culture, and all cell lines expressed KER8 as determined by PCR. Quality of RNA for all cell lines had an RIN >7.0 .

Effects of PLA2 on proinflammatory gene expression by bMECs

In order to investigate the effects of endogenously administered PLA2 on bMEC inflammatory responses, we compared the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes by bMECs with and without treatment with PLA2 under unchallenged conditions and following LPS challenge. These results are shown in Table 11.

None of the 14 genes were significantly differentially expressed between unchallenged, PLA2-treated bMECs versus unchallenged, untreated bMECs. Four of the 13 genes were significantly differentially expressed between unchallenged and LPS-challenged cell lines with no PLA2 treatment. These were CCL20, IL8, IL1B, and GRO1. All four were downregulated in LPS-challenged versus unchallenged bMEC. Two of

these genes, CCL20 and IL1B, were also downregulated in PLA2 treated, LPS-challenged bMEC compared with PLA2 treated, unchallenged bMEC.

Based on these findings, exogenous PLA2 treatment does not affect constitutive expression of pro-inflammatory genes by bMECs. However, PLA2 has a dampening effect on the responses of bMECs to LPS, as indicated by a lack of differential IL8 and GRO1 expression responses by PLA2-treated bMECs in contrast to untreated bMECs.

Discussion

The actions of sPLA2 in inflammation are complex, comprising both stimulatory and inhibitory effects on other inflammatory factors, and vary by species as well as tissue. We demonstrate an effect of exogenous PLA2 on pro-inflammatory gene expression by primary bMECs following LPS challenge but not on constitutive expression of these genes. Unexpectedly, several pro-inflammatory cytokines were downregulated in primary bMECs as a result of LPS challenge. Both IL1B and CCL20 were downregulated regardless of PLA2 treatment. Two additional genes, IL8 and GRO1, were downregulated only in bMECs that were not treated with PLA2.

The chemokine ligand CCL20, also known as macrophage inflammatory protein 3-alpha, is involved in leukocyte migration and formation of ectopic lymphoid tissue during inflammation [238] as well as possessing antimicrobial activity [239]. The presence of CCL20 has been demonstrated in human milk early in lactation [240], indicating a potential role in mammary gland defenses. In cattle, upregulation of CCL20 by the liver occurs in conjunction with leukocytosis following intramammary LPS

challenge [241]. Although little information is available on the expression of CCL20 in the bovine mammary gland, our study demonstrates basal expression of CCL20 by primary bMECs as well as its downregulation by LPS challenge, regardless of the presence of exogenous PLA2.

Interleukin 1B is a pro-inflammatory cytokine present in the bovine mammary gland during the acute stages of mastitis caused by a number of mastitis pathogens [195,221,222] and is involved in neutrophil chemotaxis and adhesion [220]. Our findings indicate that the expression of IL1B by bMECs is not affected by exogenous PLA2.

Downregulation of IL8 did not occur following LPS challenge in PLA2-treated bMECs, in contrast to untreated bMECs. Interleukin-8 is a pro-inflammatory chemokine involved in neutrophil chemotaxis and activation [181]. During acute bovine mastitis, neutrophils are the major effector leukocyte [242]. Interleukin-8 is upregulated in the mammary gland during mastitis [195,243] and in bMECs *in vitro* in response to mastitis pathogens [157,244]. Correlations between PLA2 and IL8 levels may exist in some tissues during inflammatory diseases. For example, suppression of PLA2-II during pancreatitis in rats resulted in decreased serum levels of IL8 and other pro-inflammatory cytokines [245]. Studies investigating a potential similar correlation are lacking in bovine mammary tissue. Our results show that exposure to increased levels of PLA2 via exogenous administration may affect IL8 expression by bMECs following LPS challenge. However, PLA2 treatment alone, in the absence of LPS, was not sufficient to alter IL8 expression in these cells.

Similarly, downregulation of GRO1 in responses to LPS challenge was prevented by treatment with PLA2. Chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1 is a neutrophil-specific chemoattractant [246]. Upregulation of GRO1 has been demonstrated in the bovine mammary gland during mastitis [247] and in a murine model of bovine mastitis following LPS challenge [248]. Similar to IL8, GRO1 appears to be an important factor in neutrophil chemotaxis during bovine mastitis and its expression by primary bMECs following LPS challenge is influenced by treatment with exogenous PLA2.

Our findings show that exogenous PLA2 affects the expression of two neutrophil chemotactic factors, IL8 and GRO1, by primary bMECs. Further studies are needed in order to demonstrate whether exogenous PLA2 has an overall pro- or anti-inflammatory effect on bMECs and other bovine mammary gland cell types and the bovine mammary gland *in vivo*.

Conclusions

This study provides preliminary evidence that exogenously-administered PLA2 may affect the inflammatory responses of the bovine mammary gland. We demonstrated downregulation of four pro-inflammatory genes following LPS challenge in primary bMECs. In contrast, bMECs that were concurrently treated with PLA2 demonstrated downregulation of only two of these genes, CCL20 and IL1B. Future studies are needed to investigate the effects of exogenous PLA2 on the expression of additional inflammatory genes by bMEC, other bovine mammary gland cell types, and *in vivo* effects.

Table 10: Primers used for qPCR.

Symbol	Gene	Primer	Sequence	NCBI sequence
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	F	TTGATGTCAGTGCTATTGCT	NM_174263.2
		R	ACCCACTTCTTCTTTGGATC	
CCR2	C-C motif chemokine receptor 2	F	GTGCCCTTATTTTCCACTA	NM_001194959.1
		R	GAGCCCAGAAGAGAAAGTA G	
CXCL5	C-X-C motif chemokine ligand 5	F	TGTGTTTAACCACCACACC	NM_174300.2
		R	TTGTTCTTTCCACTGTCCA	
CXCL8	Interleukin 8	F	AAACACATTCCACACCTTTC	NM_173925.2
		R	TCTTCACAAATACCTGCACA	
GRO1	chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1	F	ATTCACCTCAAGAACATCCA	NM_175700.1
		R	GCACTAGCCTTGTTTAGCAT	
IL1A	Interleukin 1 alpha	F	GAAGAGGATTCTCAGCTTCC	NM_174092.1
		R	GATGGGCAACTGATTTGAAG	
IL1B	Interleukin 1 beta	F	CTTGGGTATCAAGGACAAGA	NM_174093.1
		R	TGAGAAGTGCTGATGTACCA	
IL1R1	Interleukin 1 receptor type 1	F	GAGACAATGGAAGTGGTCTT	NM_001206735.1
		R	GAAATATTAAGCCGTGCGAG	
IL1RN	Interleukin 1 receptor antagonist	F	CACTGACTTGAACCAGAACA	AB005148.1
		R	GCTGGAAGTAGAACTTGGTG	
IL2RG	Interleukin 2 receptor subunit gamma	F	AATCCAGCTAGAACTGAGC	NM_174359.1
		R	TTCCGCAAAGTGGGTTATAA	
IL33	Interleukin 33	F	CAACCAAGAGAAAGACAAGG	NM_001075297.1
		R	CTCCACAGAGTGCTCCTTAC	
IL6	Interleukin 6	F	ACTGCTGGTCTTCTGGAGTA	NM_173923.2
		R	CTTTACCCACTCGTTTGAAG	
TLR4	Toll-like receptor 4	F	GCATGGAGCTGAATCTCTAC	NM_174198.6
		R	ATAGGGTTTCCCGTCAGTAT	

Table 11: Genes downregulated following LPS challenge in untreated and PLA2-treated bMECs. P-values are shown.

Symbol	Gene	P-value	SE
Untreated bMECs			
IL1B	Interleukin-1 beta	<0.0001	0.7311
IL8	Interleukin-8	0.0272	1.0043
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	<0.0001	1.0126
GRO1	chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 1	0.0084	0.8879
PLA2-treated bMECs			
IL1B	Interleukin-1 beta	<0.0001	0.7311
CCL20	C-C motif chemokine ligand 20	<0.0001	1.0126

CHAPTER 6

ESTABLISHMENT OF A MILK-DERIVED BOVINE MAMMARY EPITHELIAL
CELL LINE WITH EXTENDED GROWTH CAPABILITIES BY TRANSFECTION
WITH A SIMIAN VIRUS 40 LARGE T ANTIGEN-CONTAINING
PLASMID CONSTRUCT

Abstract

Primary bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs) have been used as models of bovine mammary gland immunity and milk production. However, challenges associated with the establishment and maintenance of primary bMECs from bovine milk may limit their use in some studies that require long-term cell line maintenance or large numbers of cells. Immortalization can facilitate long-term growth of primary bMECs and thereby improve their versatility. In order to create an immortalized bMEC line, we established milk-derived primary bMECs and transfected them with a plasmid containing Simian Virus large T antigen (SV40 L Tag), a protein known to facilitate cell cycle progression and reduce apoptosis and a well-established method of primary cell immortalization. The transfected cell line was grown through passage 27 (P₂₇), at which time it was cryopreserved, with morphologic characteristics of cellular senescence not evident in any cells after P₉. In contrast, all cells in a non-transfected bMEC line established from the same initial isolation exhibited morphologic characteristics of cellular senescence and complete cessation of division by P₁₁. Cellular morphologic characteristics and cytokeratin expression suggest preservation of basic bMEC characteristics. This bMEC

line could provide a valuable model of the bovine mammary gland with the advantage over primary bMECs of continued growth. Our establishment of an immortalized bMEC line derived from bovine milk is unique, and the methods described here could be used in studies that require the use of continuous cell lines from multiple cows.

Background

Bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs) are the milk-producing cells of the mammary gland, and are also important contributors to innate immunity. Primary bMECs provide an alternative to animal-based studies within a controlled environment, and have been used as a model for milk synthesis and secretion [249], the response of the mammary gland to mastitis-causing pathogens [250], and factors influencing mastitis susceptibility [204].

Primary bMECs may be established from explant culture or bovine milk. Establishment of bMECs from bovine milk provides several advantages over explant culture, including a decreased risk of contamination by other cell types, facilitation of bMEC line establishment from large numbers of animals, and decreased cost [177]. An additional advantage of this method that it is non-invasive, minimizing animal pain and distress as compared with biopsy explant methods and eliminating the need for euthanasia as required by explant methods using postmortem tissue. These principles are in keeping with the American Veterinary Medical Association's policy on the use of animals in research [199].

However, a major limitation of milk-derived bMEC establishment is the low number of cells that can be obtained as compared with explant methods, limiting the use of this technique in studies that require large numbers of cells [177]. In our experience, many milk-derived bMEC lines rapidly undergo cellular senescence and a cessation of division at a low passage number (unpublished data), allowing for only a low number of population doublings before growth has ceased. Immortalization of primary cell lines provides a tool by which the division potential of cell lines can be extended. As this immortalization using SV40 L Tag has been proven in explant-derived bMECs [196,251], we chose to use this method for immortalization of milk-derived bMECs.

In nature, the SV40 L Tag protein, produced by a simian polyomavirus, promotes survival and replication of the virus via increasing proliferative potential and decreasing apoptosis of infected host cells. Host cell expression of SV40 L Tag can result in tumorigenesis *in vivo*, and cell line immortalization *in vivo* [252] through alteration of the function of tumor suppressor and cell cycle regulatory proteins and suppression of apoptosis [253].

SV40 large T antigen affects the function of retinoblastoma proteins pRB, p107, and p130. In the normal cell, pRB proteins serve as a block to progression from the G1 to S phase of the cell cycle by binding in their hypophosphorylated state to members of the E2F transcription factor family, preventing E2F-mediated transcription. This block is lifted in the presence of cyclins E/cdk2 and D1/cdk4, which induce hyperphosphorylation of pRB proteins and concurrent release of E2F. The SV40 large T antigen induces release of the normal block on E2F-mediated transcription by binding pRB proteins in their

hypophosphorylated state, thereby sequestering the proteins so they are unavailable for binding to E2F. Additionally, SV40 large T antigen promotes dissociation of p130 from E2F-4 as well as degradation of p130 [6,252].

The SV40 large T antigen additionally affects p53, a tumor suppressor protein. In the normal cell, p53 levels increase in response to stimuli indicative of cellular damage, such as when DNA damage occurs. As a transcription factor, p53 promotes transcription of a number of genes involved in cell cycle arrest and apoptosis, thus preventing damaged cells from replicating. Important genes involved include p21, bax, cyclin G1, and mdm2. The SV40 large T antigen, however, is hypothesized to interfere with p53-dependent transcription via binding to p53, which results in an inability of p53 to bind DNA as well as preventing its degradation via the ubiquitin pathway [253].

Another effect of the SV40 large T antigen is through its effects on p300 and CREB-binding protein (CBP). In the normal cell, these proteins interact with p53, mdm2, and the NFκB p65 subunit, contributing to a number of effects including p53-dependent transcription and degradation of p53. Additionally, CPB/p300 is known to interact with the E2F-1 transcription factor, increasing its transcriptional activity of factors promoting cell cycle progression. The SV40 large T antigen binds CPB and p300, possibly in association with p53, which may facilitate E2F-mediated transcription as well as inhibition of p53 degradation. SV40 large T antigen has also been shown to bind p400, a protein similar in structure to p300 and CPB, although the exact function of this protein and the effects of its interaction with SV40 large T antigen has yet to be defined [252,253].

Finally, SV40 large T antigen has anti-apoptotic effects due to a partial structural homology with the bcl-2 family's BH1 domain. The BH1 domain is integral to the anti-apoptotic activity of the bcl-2 proteins mainly through interaction with pro-apoptotic proteins Bax and Bak [254]. Additional mechanisms of SV40 large T antigen-induced transformation and immortalization remain to be fully defined.

Here, we describe the method by which we created an immortalized bMEC line by transfecting an SV40 L Tag-containing plasmid into first-passage bMECs isolated from the milk of a Holstein dairy cow. This cell line was grown through passage 27 (P₂₇) before cryopreservation, with no morphologic evidence of cellular senescence. Although morphologic features of this cell line were consistent with bMECs and cytokeratin expression was demonstrated, further investigation is needed to characterize this cell line for retention of specific bMEC characteristics. This bMEC line could potentially provide a useful model for bovine mammary gland studies.

Methods and Results

Bovine MEC collection, isolation, and establishment

Bovine MECs were isolated from bovine milk using methods modified from those previously reported [39,177]. Briefly, 400 ml of bovine milk was collected into an equal volume of Hank's Balanced Salt Solution (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO) supplemented with penicillin (60 µg/ml), streptomycin (200 µg/ml), gentamycin (120 µg/ml), and nystatin (50 mg/L). Milk was subjected to a series of wash and centrifugation steps similar to those described using a centrifugation speed of 3000 rpm. Bovine MECs

isolated by this method were seeded into a T-25 culture flask in growth media consisting of HuMEC Ready Medium (Life Technologies, Grand Island, NY) supplemented with penicillin (60 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), streptomycin (200 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), gentamycin (120 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), and nystatin (50 $\mu\text{g/ml}$), with 10% fetal bovine serum (FBS). Cells were cultured at 38.5°C with 5% CO₂. Growth media was changed after 12 hours and every 2-3 days thereafter.

Cells were passaged after large, coalescing colonies had formed using trypsin 0.05%/EDTA 0.02% (Sigma-Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Growth media was removed and cells rinsed with one ml of wash media. One ml of trypsin solution was added and the culture flask returned to the incubator. Every five minutes, cell lines were observed by phase-contrast light microscopy for cell detachment. After the majority of cells had detached, the trypsin solution with suspended cells was removed, added to an equal volume of growth media, and centrifuged at 2000 rpm for three minutes. The supernatant was discarded and the cell pellet re-suspended in one ml of growth media, split, and seeded into 2 T-25 flasks. After reaching confluency, bMECs were trypsinized as described, with one flask used for transfection (transfected line) as described below and the other seeded directly into a new T-25 flask (non-transfected line). Cultures were passaged once 70-100% confluency was reached in all subsequent passages. For all passages in non-transfected bMECs and up to P₁₆ in transfected bMECs, trypsinized cells were seeded at a 1:2 or 1:3 dilution. At P₁₆, transfected bMECs were seeded at a 1:6 dilution, and thereafter at a 1:10 dilution until final cryopreservation at P₂₇.

Transfection of bMECs with SV40 L Tag

Bovine MECs were immortalized by transfection with a plasmid construct containing the SV40 L Tag amino acids 109-708 (SV40 1:pBSSVD2005, Addgene plasmid # 21826, David Ron) and an ampicillin resistance gene, provided within transformed bacteria in an agar stab preparation. Bacteria were plated onto lysogeny broth (LB) agar containing ampicillin. After incubation at 37°C for 12 hours, a single bacterial colony was transferred to vial containing 50 ml of LB and incubated at 37°C for a further 12 hours. Bacteria were pelleted by centrifugation at 4.4 rpm for 6 minutes and the supernatant discarded. Plasmids were isolated from bacteria using the QIAGEN Plasmid Plus Midi Prep kit (QIAGEN, Hilden, Germany).

First-passage bMECs were transfected with the SV40 1:pBSSVD2005 plasmid using the Amaxa 4D-Nucleofector kit (Lonza) and 4D-Nucleofector X Unit (Lonza) according to the Amaxa 4D-Nucleofector protocol for transfection of human mammary epithelial cells in suspension. Following trypsinization, approximately 5,000,000 cells were used for transfection with 5 µg of plasmid. Following transfection, cells were re-suspended in growth media and returned to culture conditions.

Cryopreservation of P₂₇ transfected bMECs

Following detachment of bMECs and centrifugation during trypsinization as described, cell pellets were re-suspended in one ml of growth media with 10% dimethyl sulfoxide and transferred to two 2-ml capacity cryopreservation tubes. The cryopreservation tubes were cooled at a rate of approximately -1°C per minute until

reaching -80°C . After 24 hours, cryopreservation tubes were transferred to a liquid nitrogen storage unit for long-term storage.

Cell characterization and growth

Verification of epithelial origin of the cultured cells was achieved through observations of cellular and colony morphology and cytokeratin expression.

Cytokeratin expression was verified by immunocytochemistry in the transfected (P₂₁) and non-transfected (P₂) cell lines using a monoclonal mouse anti-human cytokeratin antibody (cytokeratin AE1/AE3, product M3515, Dako, Glostrup, Denmark) and an anti-mouse secondary antibody (Mouse-On-Farma AP-Polymer, product BRR4010, Biocare Medical, Concord, CA), with IP Warp Red chromogen (product IPK5024, Biocare Medical) and IP FLX hematoxylin counterstain (IPCS5006, Biocare Medical). Immunocytochemistry was carried out by the Utah Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory (Logan, UT). Both cell lines exhibited cytokeratin expression in the majority of cells (Figure 2).

Observations of cell colony morphology were made at P₀ and subsequent passages using phase-contrast microscopy. At all passages, both cell lines demonstrated colony and individual cell morphology consistent with MECs on monolayer [207]. Two types of cells were recognized, consistent with morphology of milk-derived bMECs described previously [177]. The first type was characterized by small to moderate amounts of cytoplasm and formation of colonies. Individualized, squamous-like cells with large amounts of variably vacuolated cytoplasm comprised the second type.

Characteristics of the second cell type were considered indicative of cellular senescence, as these cells exhibited no further division. Small numbers of senescent cells were observed at P₀ to P₉ in transfected bMECs but not thereafter. Small to moderate numbers of senescent cells were observed in non-transfected bMECs at P₀ to P₇. In subsequent passages, senescent cells predominated, and comprised all cells at P₁₁. After 30 days at P₁₁ with no growth observed, this cell line was terminated. The continued growth of transfected cells with a lack of senescent cells after P₉ suggests that immortalization was successful in removing blocks to cell cycle progression, in contrast with non-transfected cells that all underwent senescence by P₁₁ (Figure 3). Our laboratory has established numerous additional non-transfected bMEC lines by the methods described here, all of which underwent senescence at P₁₀ or earlier (unpublished data).

No steps were undertaken to verify SV40 L Tag expression in the transfected cell line to verify this mechanism as responsible for the continued growth observed. Non-transfected bMECs were not subjected to sham transfection; therefore, we cannot rule out the possibility that continued growth was the result of the transfection process itself rather than SV40 L Tag expression. Nevertheless, promotion of cell cycle progression through expression of SV40 L Tag is considered most likely.

Conclusions

We established a milk-derived bMEC line with extended growth by transfection with an SV40 L Tag-containing plasmid. This cell line was successfully grown to confluence at P₂₇, with cellular morphology consistent with bMECs throughout all

passages and cytokeratin expression demonstrated at P₂₁. In contrast, a non-transfected bMEC line established from the same cell line split after P₁ ceased further growth and exhibited cellular morphology consistent with cellular senescence at P₁₁. Further characterization is needed on this cell line to determine whether characteristics of bMECs besides cytokeratin expression are preserved, to verify the expression of SV40 L Tag, and to determine whether growth is continuous after P₂₇. With further characterization, this cell line could provide a valuable tool as a model for the bovine mammary gland.

Figure 2: Cytokeratin expression among non-immortalized (A) and immortalized (B) bMECs. In both bMEC lines, the majority of cells are cytokeratin-positive. Monoclonal mouse anti-human cytokeratin AE1/AE3 primary antibody; 100x magnification.

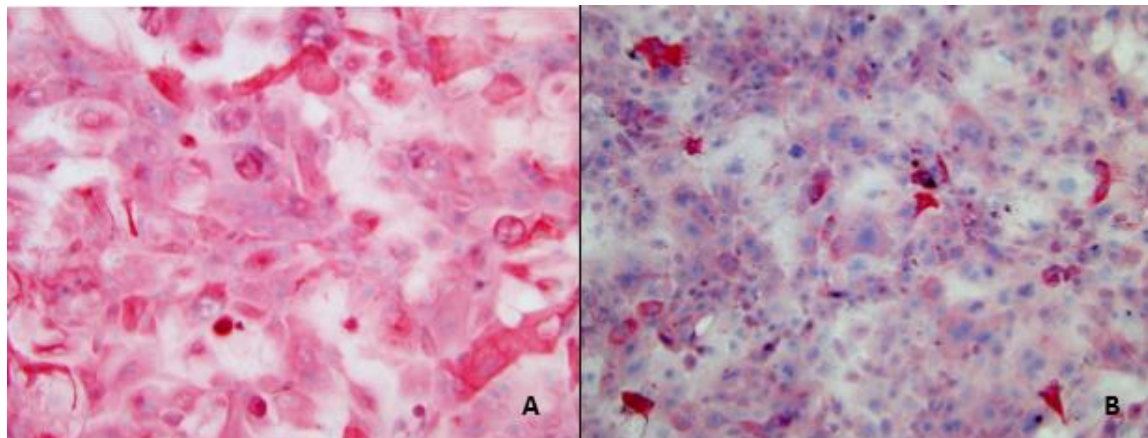
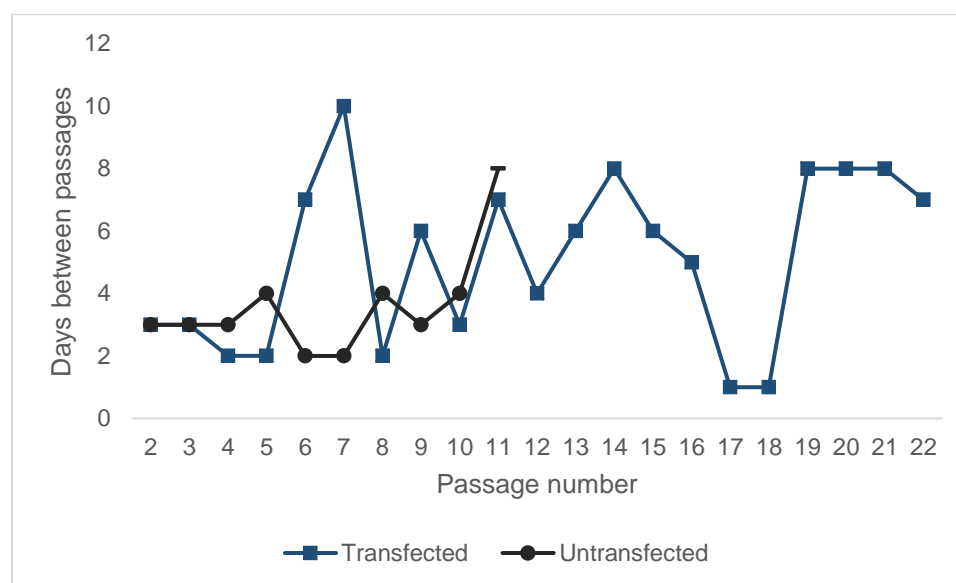


Figure 3: Growth rates of transfected and non-transfected bMEC lines from P₂ to P₂₂. Transfection with the SV40 L Tag-containing plasmid in the immortalized line occurred at P₁. The non-immortalized cell line ceased growth at P₁₁.



CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

Bovine mastitis results in substantial economic losses to the dairy industry worldwide and presents considerable animal welfare issues. As such, the development of strategies to decrease the prevalence of mastitis among dairy cattle is a major focus in the field of dairy science. Additionally, novel therapeutic approaches are needed in order to overcome problems associated with reliance on antibiotics as a treatment for mastitis. A genetic basis for mastitis resistance has previously been demonstrated. Despite relatively low heritability of some individual mastitis traits, genomic-based approaches to decreasing mastitis incidence among dairy cattle have proven effective and valuable. The application of genetics to guide mastitis prevention strategies relies on the identification of robust genetic markers of mastitis resistance as well as an understanding of the mechanisms underlying the relevant genetic factors.

My dissertation research identified single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) genetic factors and quantitative trait loci of mastitis resistance in Holstein dairy cattle. In addition, I have demonstrated that bovine mammary epithelial cells (bMECs), the milk-producing cells of the mammary gland, may contribute to mastitis resistance, display distinct responses from primary bovine fibroblasts (bFs), and respond to exogenously-administered phospholipase A2 (PLA2) through differential expression of pro-inflammatory genes. Additionally, I described a method for establishment of milk-

derived primary bMECs with extended division potential through transfection with a viral protein.

Through a genome-wide association study (GWAS) using a selective genotyping approach and a single-locus mixed model (SLMM), I identified 117 SNPs suggestive of genome-wide significance for mastitis resistance. From these 117 SNPs, I identified 27 quantitative trait loci (QTLs) potentially associated with mastitis resistance, including ten QTLs that have not been reported previously. The remaining QTLs overlap with previously identified QTLs of mastitis or udder conformation traits, including several QTLs for teat length, suggesting that this trait is potentially important in mastitis resistance. Additionally, I identified a candidate gene, RAS guanyl releasing Protein 1, which may be involved in bovine mastitis and is overlapped by a SNP suggestive of genome-wide association in this study. The cows used in this study were rigorously phenotypically characterized using multiple measures of intramammary infection status over an eight-month period. Identification of the most mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible animals within the sample population for use in a selective genotyping approach GWAS may have facilitated identification of the ten novel QTLs.

A subset of the cattle genotyped in the GWAS were selected for establishment of milk-derived primary bMECs. I used a polymerase chain reaction (PCR) array covering 84 bovine genes relevant to inflammation to examine inflammatory responses of bMEC from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cattle. The constitutive expression of these 84 genes did not differ between bMECs from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible cattle. However, following a six-hour lipopolysaccharide (LPS) challenge,

mastitis-resistant bMECs demonstrated differential regulation of 43 genes, while mastitis-susceptible bMECs demonstrated differential regulation of one gene only. This gene, chemokine (C-X-C motif) ligand 5, was upregulated in both groups and is involved in neutrophil chemotaxis and activation. The differences observed between mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible bMECs in this study suggest that rapid differential expression of inflammatory genes by bMECs in response to inflammatory stimuli may comprise one mechanism of mastitis resistance in cattle.

To compare the expression of bMEC and bFs, two cell types present in the mammary gland, I examined the expression of 13 pro-inflammatory genes by primary bMECs and bFs isolated from the same cattle. These two cell types display differences in the constitutive expression of six of these genes. As a result of LPS challenge, both cell types upregulated interleukin-1 β , while only bMECs upregulated C-C motif chemokine ligand 20. Thus, both similarities and differences exist in the responses of these two cell types to inflammatory stimuli. Because challenges exist in the establishment and maintenance of primary bMECs, the use of primary bFs could be considered for some but not all types of bovine mastitis studies.

Phospholipase A2 is an enzyme involved in generation of inflammatory mediators in mammalian tissues. I demonstrated that PLA2 influences the expression of pro-inflammatory genes by primary bMECs, reducing their responsiveness to LPS. Whereas four pro-inflammatory genes out of 13 examined were differentially regulated following LPS challenge in untreated cells, only two of these genes were differentially regulated following LPS challenge in bMECs treated concurrently with exogenous bovine PLA2.

This finding highlights PLA2 as a candidate for future studies to investigate its potential effects on mastitis severity in cattle.

Cessation of primary bMEC division at early passage numbers presents a major limitation to their use in some studies requiring large numbers of cells or long-term maintenance. I describe the establishment of a milk-derived bMEC line with extended division potential through transfection with simian virus large T antigen (SV40 L Tag), a protein known to influence progression of the cell cycle and apoptosis. This bMEC line demonstrated continued division that far exceeded that of a non-transfected line derived from the same animal, with continued division and an absence of morphologic evidence of cellular senescence through passage 27 as compared with complete cellular senescence by passage 11 in the non-transfected line. The methods used to establish this bMEC line, as well as the cell line itself, could facilitate future studies using the bMEC model.

Collectively, the findings of this dissertation research contribute to knowledge of genetic factors of mastitis resistance in dairy cattle, the underlying molecular mechanisms that may be involved, and the use and versatility of a primary bMEC-based model for bovine mammary gland studies.

REFERENCES

1. Kaneene JB, Scott Hurd H. The national animal health monitoring system in Michigan. III. Cost estimates of selected dairy cattle diseases. *Prev. Vet. Med.* Elsevier; 1990;8:127–40.
2. Seegers H, Fourichon C, Beaudeau F. Production effects related to mastitis and mastitis economics in dairy cattle herds [Internet]. *Vet. Res.* EDP Sciences; 2003 [cited 2016 Dec 27]. p. 475–91. Available from: <http://www.edpsciences.org/10.1051/vetres:2003027>
3. Halasa T, Huijps K, Østerås O, Hogeveen H. Economic effects of bovine mastitis and mastitis management: A review. *Vet. Q.* [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2016 Dec 27];29:18–31. Available from: <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/abs/10.1080/01652176.2007.9695224>
4. van Soest FJS, Santman-Berends IMGA, Lam TJGM, Hogeveen H. Failure and preventive costs of mastitis on Dutch dairy farms. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2016;99:8365–74. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030216304817>
5. Sandholm M, Kaartinen L, Pyörälä S. Bovine mastitis -- why does antibiotic therapy not always work? An overview [Internet]. *J. Vet. Pharmacol. Ther.* Blackwell Publishing Ltd; 1990 [cited 2017 Jan 31]. p. 248–60. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/j.1365-2885.1990.tb00774.x>

6. Zachary F, McGavin MD. Pathologic Basis of Veterinary Disease5: Pathologic Basis of Veterinary Disease [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 19]. Available from: https://elsevier.ca/product.jsp?isbn=9780323075336%5Cnhttp://books.google.com/books?hl=de&lr=&id=fdq9D_69FRAC&pgis=1
7. Erskine RJ. Mastitis in Cattle. Merck Vet. Man. [Internet]. 11th ed. Kenilworth, NJ: Merck Sharp & Dohme Corp.; 2016. Available from: <http://www.merckvetmanual.com/reproductive-system/mastitis-in-large-animals/mastitis-in-cattle>
8. Katholm J, Bennedsgaard T, Koskinen M, Rattenborg E. Quality of bulk tank milk samples from Danish dairy herds based on real-time polymerase chain reaction identification of mastitis pathogens. J. Dairy Sci. [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 20];95:5702–8. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030212006133/1-s2.0-S0022030212006133-main.pdf?_tid=2227e80c-0d7b-11e7-a8fb-00000aacb361&acdnat=1490020996_34d5448ca7b0b5f017280271ae225b58
9. Bradley AJ, Green MJ. Adaptation of Escherichia coli to the bovine mammary gland. J. Clin. Microbiol. [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 2001 [cited 2017 Jan 31];39:1845–9. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/11326001>
10. Bradley AJ. Bovine mastitis: An evolving disease [Internet]. Vet. J. 2002 [cited 2017 Mar 22]. p. 116–28. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090023302907240/1-s2.0-S1090023302907240-main.pdf?_tid=1a98affe-0f1a-11e7-b9e0-00000aacb35e&acdnat=1490199224_0d9328c5914dbb933fe45a9596587038

11. Smith KL, Hogan JS. Environmental Mastitis. *Vet. Clin. North Am. Food Anim. Pract.* 1993;9:489–98.
12. Costa EO, Ribeiro AR, Watanabe ET, Melville PA. Infectious bovine mastitis caused by environmental organisms. *Zentralblatt für Veterinärmedizin. R. B. J. Vet. Med. Ser. B* [Internet]. 1998;45:65–71. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9557128>
13. Fox LK, Gay JM. Contagious mastitis. *Vet. Clin. North Am. Food Anim. Pract.* [Internet]. 1993 [cited 2017 Mar 22];9:475–87. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8242453>
14. Bennett RH, Jasper DE. Bovine *Mycoplasma* mastitis from intramammary inoculation of small numbers of *Mycoplasma bovis*: Microbiology and pathology. *Vet. Microbiol.* 1977;2:341–55.
15. Pinzón-Sánchez C, Ruegg P. Risk factors associated with short-term post-treatment outcomes of clinical mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 20];94:3397–410. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S002203021100333X/1-s2.0-S002203021100333X-main.pdf?_tid=e46855fc-0d7e-11e7-9d85-00000aacb362&acdnat=1490022610_4fde8153d785e2150f36d228e3be64e8
16. Renau JK. Effective Use of Dairy Herd Improvement Somatic Cell Counts in Mastitis Control. *J. Dairy Sci.* 1986;69:1708–1720.
17. Paradis M-È, Bouchard É, Scholl DT, Miglior F, Roy J-P. Effect of nonclinical

Staphylococcus aureus or coagulase-negative staphylococci intramammary infection during the first month of lactation on somatic cell count and milk yield in heifers. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 20];93:2989–97. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030210003085>

18. Kamal RM, Bayoumi MA, Abd El Aal SFA. Correlation between some direct and indirect tests for screen detection of subclinical mastitis. *Int. Food Res. J.* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Mar 20];21:1249–54. Available from: [http://www.ifrj.upm.edu.my/21 \(03\) 2014/59 IFRJ 21 \(03\) 2014 Abd El 648.pdf](http://www.ifrj.upm.edu.my/21%20(03)2014/59%20IFRJ%2021%20(03)2014%20Abd%20El%20648.pdf)

19. Koskinen MT, Wellenberg GJ, Sampimon OC, Holopainen J, Rothkamp A, Salmikivi L, et al. Field comparison of real-time polymerase chain reaction and bacterial culture for identification of bovine mastitis bacteria. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 20];93:5707–15. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S002203021000620X/1-s2.0-S002203021000620X-main.pdf?_tid=4dc9c0be-0d82-11e7-a9b7-00000aab0f27&acdnat=1490024076_34d23c9d2e181426b695dec94ceabc48

20. Viguier C, Arora S, Gilmartin N, Welbeck K, O’Kennedy R. Mastitis detection: current trends and future perspectives [Internet]. *Trends Biotechnol.* 2009 [cited 2017 Mar 23]. p. 486–93. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0167779909001127/1-s2.0-S0167779909001127-main.pdf?_tid=1120876e-0fdb-11e7-9f6a-00000aacb35d&acdnat=1490282101_075698f3c099dcb95a243dea34426b7d

21. Schukken YH, Günther J, Fitzpatrick J, Fontaine MC, Goetze L, Holst O, et al. Host-response patterns of intramammary infections in dairy cows. *Vet. Immunol.*

Immunopathol. 2011;144:270–89.

22. Burvenich C, Bannerman DD, Lippolis JD, Peelman L, Nonnecke BJ, Kehrlı ME, et al. Cumulative Physiological Events Influence the Inflammatory Response of the Bovine Udder to *Escherichia coli* Infections During the Transition Period. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet].

BioMed Central; 2007 [cited 2016 Dec 27];90:E39–54. Available from:

<http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030207720593>

23. Bean A, Williamson J, Cursons RT. Virulence Genes of *Escherichia coli* Strains Isolated from Mastitic Milk. *J. Vet. Med. Ser. B* [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Jan

31];51:285–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15458491>

24. Wellnitz O, Bruckmaier RM. The innate immune response of the bovine mammary gland to bacterial infection. *Vet. J.* 2012. p. 148–52.

25. Burvenich C, Van Merris V, Mehrzad J, Diez-Fraile A, Duchateau L. Severity of *E. coli* mastitis is mainly determined by cow factors [Internet]. *Vet. Res.* 2003 [cited 2017 Feb 1]. p. 521–64. Available from: <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00902764>

26. Sordillo LM, Campos M, Babiuk LA, Campos M, Rossi CR, Campos M, et al. Antibacterial activity of bovine mammary gland lymphocytes following treatment with interleukin-2. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1991 [cited 2016 Dec 27];74:3370–5.

Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1744266>

27. Shuster DE, Lee EK, Kehrlı ME. Bacterial growth, inflammatory cytokine production, and neutrophil recruitment during coliform mastitis in cows within ten days

- after calving, compared with cows at midlactation. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* [Internet]. 1996 [cited 2017 Mar 22];57:1569–75. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8915431>
28. Ezzat Alnakip M, Quintela-Baluja M, Böhme K, Fernández-No I, Caamaño-Antelo S, Calo-Mata P, et al. The Immunology of Mammary Gland of Dairy Ruminants between Healthy and Inflammatory Conditions. *J. Vet. Med.* [Internet]. Hindawi Publishing Corporation; 2014 [cited 2016 Dec 1];2014:1–31. Available from:
<http://www.hindawi.com/journals/jvm/2014/659801/>
29. Sordillo LM, Shafer-Weaver K, DeRosa D. Immunobiology of the Mammary Gland. *J. Dairy Sci.* Elsevier; 1997;80:1851–65.
30. Rainard P, Riollet C. Innate immunity of the bovine mammary gland. *Vet. Res.* 2006. p. 369–400.
31. Paulrud CO. Basic Concepts of the Bovine Teat Canal. *Vet. Res. Commun.* 2005;29:215–45.
32. Witzel DA. Rhythmic Contractions of the Teat Sphincter in the Bovine. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Jan 31];48:251–2. Available from:
[http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302\(65\)88208-X](http://dx.doi.org/10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(65)88208-X)
33. Mehrzad J, Desrosiers C, Lauzon K, Robitaille G, Zhao X, Lacasse P. Proteases Involved in Mammary Tissue Damage During Endotoxin-Induced Mastitis in Dairy Cows*. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2017 Jan 31];88:211–22. Available from:

[http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030205726795%5Cnhttp://www.journalofdairyscience.org/article/S0022-0302\(05\)72679-5/pdf](http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030205726795%5Cnhttp://www.journalofdairyscience.org/article/S0022-0302(05)72679-5/pdf)

34. Peeler EJ, Green MJ, Fitzpatrick JL, Morgan KL, Green LE. Risk Factors Associated with Clinical Mastitis in Low Somatic Cell Count British Dairy Herds. *J. Dairy Sci.*

[Internet]. 2000 [cited 2017 Feb 1];83:2464–72. Available from:

<http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030200751381>

35. Nguyen DA, Neville MC. Tight junction regulation in the mammary gland. *J.*

Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia [Internet]. 1998 [cited 2017 Mar 20];3:233–46.

Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10819511>

36. Yang W, Zerbe H, Petzl W, Brunner RM, Günther J, Draing C, et al. Bovine TLR2 and TLR4 properly transduce signals from *Staphylococcus aureus* and *E. coli*, but *S.*

aureus fails to both activate NF- κ B in mammary epithelial cells and to quickly induce

TNF α and interleukin-8 (CXCL8) expression in the udder. *Mol. Immunol.*

2008;45:1385–97.

37. Labéta MO, Vidal K, Nores JER, Arias M, Vita N, Morgan BP, et al. Brief Definitive

Report Innate Recognition of Bacteria in Human Milk Is Mediated by a Milk-derived

Highly Expressed Pattern Recognition Receptor, Soluble CD14. *J. Exp. Med* [Internet].

2000 [cited 2017 Mar 19];0:1807–12. Available from:

<http://www.jem.org/cgi/current/full/191/10/1807>

38. Strandberg Y, Gray C, Vuocolo T, Donaldson L, Broadway M, Tellam R.

Lipopolysaccharide and lipoteichoic acid induce different innate immune responses in

- bovine mammary epithelial cells. *Cytokine*. 2005;31:72–86.
39. Wellnitz O, Reith P, Haas SC, Meyer HHD. Immune relevant gene expression of mammary epithelial cells and their influence on leukocyte chemotaxis in response to different mastitis pathogens. *Vet. Med. (Praha)*. 2006;51:125–32.
40. Ellison RT. *The Effects of Lactoferrin on Gram-Negative Bacteria*. Springer US; 1994 [cited 2017 Mar 20]. p. 71–90. Available from:
http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-1-4615-2548-6_8
41. Sato E, Mokudai T, Niwano Y, Kohno M. Kinetic analysis of reactive oxygen species generated by the in vitro reconstituted NADPH oxidase and xanthine oxidase systems. *J. Biochem.* [Internet]. Oxford University Press; 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 19];150:173–81. Available from: <https://academic.oup.com/jb/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/jb/mvr051>
42. Sordillo LM. Factors affecting mammary gland immunity and mastitis susceptibility. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* 2005. p. 89–99.
43. Riollet C, Rainard P, Poutrel B. Cells and cytokines in inflammatory secretions of bovine mammary gland. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.* [Internet]. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 2000 [cited 2017 Jan 31];480:247–58. Available from:
http://link.springer.com/10.1007/0-306-46832-8_30
44. Bokoch GM, Knaus UG. NADPH oxidases: Not just for leukocytes anymore! *Trends Biochem. Sci.* 2003. p. 502–8.
45. Mehrzad J, Duchateau L, Burvenich C. Viability of Milk Neutrophils and Severity of

Bovine Coliform Mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Mar 20];87:4150–62.

Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030204735584>

46. Sladek Z, Rysanek D, Ryznarova H, Faldyna M. Neutrophil apoptosis during experimentally induced *Staphylococcus aureus* mastitis. *629 Vet. Res* [Internet]. 2005

[cited 2017 Mar 20];36:629–43. Available from:

<http://www.vetres.org/articles/vetres/pdf/2005/04/v4075.pdf>

47. Akers RM, Nickerson SC. Mastitis and its impact on structure and function in the ruminant mammary gland. *J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia* [Internet]. Springer US;

2011 [cited 2017 Mar 20];16:275–89. Available from:

<http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10911-011-9231-3>

48. Aitken SL, Corl CM, Sordillo LM. Immunopathology of Mastitis: Insights into Disease Recognition and Resolution. *J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia* [Internet].

Springer US; 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 20];16:291–304. Available from:

<http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10911-011-9230-4>

49. Soltys J, Quinn MT. Selective recruitment of T-cell subsets to the udder during staphylococcal and streptococcal mastitis: analysis of lymphocyte subsets and adhesion molecule expression. *Infect. Immun.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology

(ASM); 1999 [cited 2017 Jan 31];67:6293–302. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10569740>

50. Trevisi E, Zecconi A, Bertoni G, Piccinini R. Blood and milk immune and inflammatory profiles in periparturient dairy cows showing a different liver activity

index. J. Dairy Res. [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 20];77:310–7. Available from:

<https://www.cambridge.org/core/services/aop-cambridge-core/content/view/S0022029910000178>

51. Trevisi E, Amadori M, Cogrossi S, Razzuoli E, Bertoni G. Metabolic stress and inflammatory response in high-yielding, periparturient dairy cows. Res. Vet. Sci.

[Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 20];93:695–704. Available from:

<http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0034528811004619>

52. Wenz JR, Fox LK, Muller FJ, Rinaldi M, Zeng R, Bannerman DD, et al. Factors associated with concentrations of select cytokine and acute phase proteins in dairy cows with naturally occurring clinical mastitis. J. Dairy Sci. [Internet]. Cambridge University

Press, New York, NY; 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 19];93:2458–70. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20494154>

53. Waller KP. Mammary Gland Immunology Around Parturition. Biol. Mammary Gland [Internet]. Boston: Kluwer Academic Publishers; 2002 [cited 2017 Jan 31]. p. 231–45.

Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/0-306-46832-8_29

54. Dego OK, van Dijk JE, Nederbragt H. Factors involved in the early pathogenesis of bovine *Staphylococcus aureus* mastitis with emphasis on bacterial adhesion and invasion.

A review. Vet. Q. [Internet]. 2002 [cited 2017 Jan 31];24:181–98. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12540135>

55. Zhao X, Lacasse P. Mammary tissue damage during bovine mastitis: causes and

control. [Internet]. J. Anim. Sci. American Society of Animal Science; 2008 [cited 2016

Nov 21]. p. 57–65. Available from:

<http://www.animalsciencepublications.org/publications/jas/abstracts/86/13/13>

56. Fogsgaard K, Løvendahl P, Bennedsgaard T, Østergaard S. Changes in milk yield, lactate dehydrogenase, milking frequency, and interquarter yield ratio persist for up to 8 weeks after antibiotic treatment of mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2017 Mar 22];98. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030215006414/1-s2.0-S0022030215006414-main.pdf?_tid=6eebf3d6-0f2e-11e7-9d13-00000aacb35e&acdnat=1490207956_62ea94b8a3303d2c594020a2cd210129

57. Urech E, Puhan Z, Schällibaum M. Changes in Milk Protein Fraction as Affected by Subclinical Mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 1999 [cited 2017 Mar 21];82:2402–11. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030299754913/1-s2.0-S0022030299754913-main.pdf?_tid=26c4637a-0e6d-11e7-88c1-00000aacb35f&acdnat=1490124942_69f7c48e4ef05e75320d4104fcdf9093

58. Harmon RJ. *Physiology of Mastitis and Factors Affecting Somatic Cell Counts*. *J. Dairy Sci.* Elsevier; 1994;77:2103–12.

59. Oliver SP, Calvinho LF. Influence of Inflammation on Mammary Gland Metabolism and Milk Composition. *J. Anim. Sci.* [Internet]. American Society of Animal Science; 1995 [cited 2017 Mar 21];73:18. Available from: https://www.animalsciencepublications.org/publications/jas/abstracts/73/suppl_2/18

60. Barbano DM, Ma Y, Santos MV. Influence of Raw Milk Quality on Fluid Milk Shelf Life. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2006 [cited 2017 Oct 9];89:E15–9. Available

from:

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030206723608?via%3Dihub>

61. Pantoja JCF, Hulland C, Ruegg PL. Dynamics of somatic cell counts and intramammary infections across the dry period. *Prev. Vet. Med.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2009 [cited 2017 Oct 9];90:43–54. Available from:

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0167587709000786?via%3Dihub>

62. Harmon RJ, Anderson KL, Kindahl H, Petroni A, Smith AR, Gustafsson BK, et al. Physiology of mastitis and factors affecting somatic cell counts. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1994 [cited 2016 Nov 2];77:2103–12. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7929968>

63. Deluyker HA, Gay JM, Weaver LD, Bakken G, Gudding R, Bunch K, et al. Interrelationships of somatic cell count, mastitis, and milk yield in a low somatic cell count herd. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1993 [cited 2016 Nov 2];76:3445–52.

Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/8270687>

64. Blum SE, Heller ED, Leitner G. Long term effects of *Escherichia coli* mastitis. *Vet. J.* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Mar 22];201:72–7. Available from: [http://ac.els-](http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090023314001543/1-s2.0-S1090023314001543-main.pdf?_tid=9f885192-0f4c-11e7-94ee-00000aacb360&acdnat=1490220922_0bd6c02f884b6fa6b1b7cc1a598f7ace)

[cdn.com/S1090023314001543/1-s2.0-S1090023314001543-main.pdf?_tid=9f885192-0f4c-11e7-94ee-](http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090023314001543/1-s2.0-S1090023314001543-main.pdf?_tid=9f885192-0f4c-11e7-94ee-00000aacb360&acdnat=1490220922_0bd6c02f884b6fa6b1b7cc1a598f7ace)

[00000aacb360&acdnat=1490220922_0bd6c02f884b6fa6b1b7cc1a598f7ace](http://ac.els-cdn.com/S1090023314001543/1-s2.0-S1090023314001543-main.pdf?_tid=9f885192-0f4c-11e7-94ee-00000aacb360&acdnat=1490220922_0bd6c02f884b6fa6b1b7cc1a598f7ace)

65. Schultz LH. Somatic Cells in Milk-Physiological Aspects and Relationship to Amount and Composition of Milk. *J. o.f Food Prot.* 1977;40:125–31.

66. Quist MA, LeBlanc SJ, Hand KJ, Lazenby D, Miglior F, Kelton DF. Milking-to-Milking Variability for Milk Yield, Fat and Protein Percentage, and Somatic Cell Count. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2008;91:3412–23.
67. Suriyasathaporn W, Schukken YH, Nielen M, Brand A. Low Somatic Cell Count: a Risk Factor for Subsequent Clinical Mastitis in a Dairy Herd. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2000 [cited 2017 Jan 31];83:1248–55. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030200749915>
68. Waage S, Sviland S, Ødegaard SA. Identification of Risk Factors for Clinical Mastitis in Dairy Heifers. *J. Dairy Sci.* 1998;81:1275–84.
69. Lago A, Godden S, Bey R, Ruegg P, Leslie K. The selective treatment of clinical mastitis based on on-farm culture results: I. Effects on antibiotic use, milk withholding time, and short-term clinical and bacteriological outcomes. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 23];94:4441–56. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030211004565/1-s2.0-S0022030211004565-main.pdf?_tid=a1ac4892-0fd9-11e7-90de-00000aacb35f&acdnat=1490281485_acd39abdf6f83413fba7b55ac6573585
70. Chagunda MG, Larsen T, Bjerring M, Ingvarsten KL. L-lactate dehydrogenase and N-acetyl-beta-D-glucosaminidase activities in bovine milk as indicators of non-specific mastitis. *J. Dairy Res.* [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2017 Mar 23];73:431–40. Available from: <https://www.cambridge.org/core/services/aop-cambridge-core/content/view/S0022029906001956>

71. Dohoo IR, Smith J, Andersen S, Kelton DF, Godden S. Diagnosing intramammary infections: Evaluation of definitions based on a single milk sample. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2011;94:250–61.
72. Morris CA. A review of genetic resistance to disease in *Bos taurus* cattle. *Vet. J.* 2007;174:481–91.
73. Quantitative trait [Internet]. [cited 2017 Mar 23]. Available from:
<http://www.nature.com/subjects/quantitative-trait>
74. Finegold DN. Multifactorial (Complex) Inheritance [Internet]. [cited 2017 Mar 23]. Available from: <http://www.merckmanuals.com/professional/special-subjects/general-principles-of-medical-genetics/multifactorial-complex-inheritance>
75. Tiezzi F, Parker-Gaddis KL, Cole JB, Clay JS, Maltecca C. A genome-wide association study for clinical mastitis in first parity US Holstein cows using single-step approach and genomic matrix re-weighting procedure. *PLoS One* [Internet]. Public Library of Science; 2015 [cited 2016 Dec 27];10:e0114919. Available from:
<http://dx.plos.org/10.1371/journal.pone.0114919>
76. Barkema HW, Schukken YH, Lam TJGM, Beiboer ML, Benedictus G, Brand A. Management Practices Associated with the Incidence Rate of Clinical Mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* 1999;82:1643–54.
77. Barnouin J, Bord S, Bazin S, Chassagne M. Dairy Management Practices Associated with Incidence Rate of Clinical Mastitis in Low Somatic Cell Score Herds in France. *J.*

Dairy Sci. 2005;88:3700–9.

78. Green MJ, Bradley AJ, Medley GF, Browne WJ. Cow, Farm, and Management Factors During the Dry Period that Determine the Rate of Clinical Mastitis After Calving. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2007;90:3764–76.

79. Sordillo LM, Streicher KL. Mammary gland immunity and mastitis susceptibility. *J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia* [Internet]. Kluwer Academic Publishers-Plenum Publishers; 2002 [cited 2016 Dec 27];7:135–46. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1023/A:1020347818725>

80. Sordillo LM, Contreras GA, Aitken SL, Aitken SL, Karcher EL, Rezamand P, et al. Metabolic factors affecting the inflammatory response of periparturient dairy cows. *Anim. Heal. Res. Rev.* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2009 [cited 2017 Feb 1];10:53–63. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S1466252309990016

81. Govignon-Gion A, Dassonneville R, Baloche G, Ducrocq V, Carlén E, Emanuelson U, et al. Multiple trait genetic evaluation of clinical mastitis in three dairy cattle breeds. *animal* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2016 [cited 2016 Nov 2];10:558–65. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S1751731115002529

82. Zavadilová L, Štípková M, Šebková N, Svitáková A. Genetic analysis of clinical mastitis data for Holstein cattle in the Czech Republic. *Arch. Anim. Breed* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2016 Nov 2];58:199–204. Available from: www.arch-animal-breed.net/58/199/2015/

83. Koeck A, Fuerst C, Egger-Danner C. Farmer-observed health data around calving—Genetic parameters and association with veterinarian diagnoses in Austrian Fleckvieh cows. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2015;98:2753–8.
84. Koeck A, Loker S, Miglior F, Kelton DF, Jamrozik J, Schenkel FS. Genetic relationships of clinical mastitis, cystic ovaries, and lameness with milk yield and somatic cell score in first-lactation Canadian Holsteins. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2014;97:5806–13.
85. Yin T, Bapst B, von Borstel UU, Simianer H, König S. Genetic analyses of binary longitudinal health data in small low input dairy cattle herds using generalized linear mixed models. *Livest. Sci.* 2014;162:31–41.
86. Rehbein P, Brügemann K, Yin T, v. Borstel UK, Wu X-L, König S. Inferring relationships between clinical mastitis, productivity and fertility: A recursive model application including genetics, farm associated herd management, and cow-specific antibiotic treatments. *Prev. Vet. Med.* 2013;112:58–67.
87. Windig JJ, Urioste JI, Strandberg E. Integration of epidemiology into the genetic analysis of mastitis in Swedish Holstein. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2013;96:2617–26.
88. Haugaard K, Heringstad B, Whist AC. Genetic associations between somatic cell score and pathogen-specific subclinical mastitis in Norwegian Red cows. *J. Anim. Breed. Genet.* [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2016 Nov 2];130:98–105. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/jbg.12019>
89. Nash DL, Rogers GW, Cooper JB, Hargrove GL, Keown JF, Hansen LB. Heritability

of Clinical Mastitis Incidence and Relationships with Sire Transmitting Abilities for Somatic Cell Score, Udder Type Traits, Productive Life, and Protein Yield. *J. Dairy Sci.* Elsevier; 2000;83:2350–60.

90. Costa CN, Santos GG, Cobuci JA, Thompson G, Carvalheira JG V. Genetic parameters for test day somatic cell score in Brazilian Holstein cattle. *Genet. Mol. Res.* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2016 Nov 2];14:19117–27. Available from: <http://www.funpecrp.com.br/gmr/year2015/vol14-4/pdf/gmr7440.pdf>

91. Rincón J, Zambrano J, Echeverri J. Estimation of genetic and phenotypic parameters for production traits in Holstein and Jersey from Colombia. *Rev.MVZ Córdoba.* 2015;20:4962–73.

92. Lembeye F, Lopez-Villalobos N, Burke JL, Davis SR. Estimation of genetic parameters for milk traits in cows milked once- or twice-daily in New Zealand. *Livest. Sci.* 2016;185:142–7.

93. Zhao F ping, Guo G, Wang Y chun, Guo X yu, Zhang Y, Du L xin. Genetic parameters for somatic cell score and production traits in the first three lactations of Chinese Holstein cows. *J. Integr. Agric.* Elsevier; 2015;14:125–30.

94. Kühn C, Reinhardt F, Schwerin M. Marker assisted selection of heifers improved milk somatic cell count compared to selection on conventional pedigree breeding values. *Arch. Tierz. Dummerstorf.* 2008;51:23–32.

95. Wang TH, Wang HS. *A Genome-Wide Association Study Primer for Clinicians.*

Taiwan. *J. Obstet. Gynecol.* 2009. p. 89–95.

96. Pearson TA, Manolio TA. How to Interpret a Genome-wide Association Study.

JAMA Stat. Res. Methods; Genet. Genet. [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2016 Nov

2];29929911:1335–44. Available from: <http://jama.ama->

[assn.org/cgi/content/full/299/11/1335](http://jama.ama-assn.org/cgi/content/full/299/11/1335)

97. Vignal A, Milan D, SanCristobal M, Eggen A. A review on SNP and other types of

molecular markers and their use in animal genetics. *Genet. Sel. Evol.* [Internet]. 2002

[cited 2017 Mar 23];34:275–305. Available from:

<http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/946/art%253A10.1186%252F1297-9686-34-3->

[275.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fgsejournal.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.11](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/946/art%253A10.1186%252F1297-9686-34-3-275.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fgsejournal.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.11)

[86%2F1297-9686-34-3-](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/946/art%253A10.1186%252F1297-9686-34-3-)

[275&token2=exp=1490306113~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F946%2Fart%25253A10.1186](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/946/art%253A10.1186%252F1297-9686-34-3-275&token2=exp=1490306113~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F946%2Fart%25253A10.1186)

[%25252F1](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/946/art%253A10.1186%252F1297-9686-34-3-275&token2=exp=1490306113~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F946%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1)

98. Ziegler A, König IR, Thompson JR. Biostatistical Aspects of Genome-Wide

Association Studies. *Biometrical J.* [Internet]. WILEY-VCH Verlag; 2008 [cited 2016

Nov 2];50:8–28. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1002/bimj.200710398>

99. Bush WS, Moore JH. Chapter 11: Genome-Wide Association Studies. 2012;

100. Wu Y, Fan H, Jing S, Xia J, Chen Y, Zhang L, et al. Wu, Y., Fan, H., Jing, S., Xia,

J., Chen, Y., Zhang, L., ... Ren, H. (2015). A genome-wide scan for copy number

variations using high-density single nucleotide polymorphism array in Simmental cattle.

Animal Genetics, 46(3), 289–298. <https://doi.org/10.1111/>. *Anim. Genet.* [Internet]. 2015

[cited 2016 Nov 2];46:289–98. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/age.12288>

101. Slatkin M. Linkage disequilibrium — understanding the evolutionary past and mapping the medical future. *Nat. Rev. Genet.* [Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2008 [cited 2017 Feb 1];9:477–85. Available from:

<http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/nrg2361>

102. VanLiere JM, Rosenberg NA. Mathematical properties of the r^2 measure of linkage disequilibrium. *Theor. Popul. Biol.* [Internet]. NIH Public Access; 2008 [cited 2017 Oct 9];74:130–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18572214>

103. Darvasi A. The effect of selective genotyping on QTL mapping accuracy. *Mamm. Genome* [Internet]. Springer-Verlag; 1997 [cited 2017 Jan 5];8:67–8. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s003359900353>

104. Guey LT, Kravic J, Melander O, Burt NP, Laramie JM, Lyssenko V, et al. Power in the Phenotypic Extremes: A Simulation Study of Power in Discovery and Replication of Rare Variants. *Genet. Epidemiol. Swedish Res. Counc. (Scania Diabetes Regist.* 2011;35:236–46.

105. Illumina. Infinium HD Methylation Assay Protocol Guide [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 24]. p. Available from: https://support.illumina.com/content/dam/illumina-support/documents/myillumina/05340b1f-c179-495d-b790-fa91ecbb6ff2/inf_hd_super_assay_ug_11322427_rev.c.pdf

106. Fan B, Du Z-Q, Gorbach DM, Rothschild MF. Development and Application of

High-density SNP Arrays in Genomic Studies of Domestic Animals. *Asian-Australasian J. Anim. Sci.* [Internet]. Asian Australasian Association of Animal Production Societies; 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 20];23:833–47. Available from:

<http://ajas.info/journal/view.php?doi=10.5713/ajas.2010.r.03>

107. Clark SA, van der Werf J. Genomic Best Linear Unbiased Prediction (gBLUP) for the Estimation of Genomic Breeding Values. 2013 [cited 2017 Feb 1]. p. 321–30.

Available from: http://link.springer.com/10.1007/978-1-62703-447-0_13

108. Mixed Linear Model Analysis — SNP & Variation Suite v8.7.0 Manual [Internet].

[cited 2017 Mar 23]. Available from:

http://doc.goldenhelix.com/SVS/latest/svsmanual/mixedModelMethods/mlm_analysis.html#mixedlinearmodelanalysis

109. Kang HM, Sul JH, Service SK, Zaitlen NA, Kong S, Freimer NB, et al. Variance component model to account for sample structure in genome-wide association studies.

Nat. Genet. [Internet]. Nature Research; 2010 [cited 2017 Mar 23];42:348–54. Available from: <http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/ng.548>

110. Segura V, Vilhjálmsson BJ, Platt A, Korte A, Seren Ü, Long Q, et al. An efficient multi-locus mixed-model approach for genome-wide association studies in structured populations. *Nat. Genet.* 2012;44.

111. Hochberg Y, Benjamini Y. Controlling the False Discovery Rate: A Practical and Powerful Approach to Multiple Testing. *J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser. B J. R. Stat. Soc. Ser.*

B J. R. Stat. Soc. B [Internet]. 1995 [cited 2017 Feb 1];57:289–300. Available from:

<http://www.jstor.org/stable/2346101>

112. The International HapMap Consortium TIH. A haplotype map of the human genome. Nature [Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2005 [cited 2017 Mar

23];437:1299–320. Available from:

<http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/nature04226>

113. Fadista J, Manning AK, Florez JC, Groop L. The (in)famous GWAS P-value threshold revisited and updated for low-frequency variants. Eur. J. Hum. Genet.

[Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2016 [cited 2017 Mar 23];24:1–4. Available from:

<http://www.nature.com/doifinder/10.1038/ejhg.2015.269>

114. Group NW. Replicating genotype–phenotype associations. Nature [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Mar 23];447:655–60. Available from:

<http://www.nature.com/nature/journal/v447/n7145/pdf/447655a.pdf>

115. Xu Z, Taylor JA. SNPinfo: Integrating GWAS and candidate gene information into functional SNP selection for genetic association studies. Nucleic Acids Res. [Internet].

2009 [cited 2017 Mar 23];37. Available from: <https://oup.silverchair->

[cdn.com/oup/backfile/Content_public/Journal/nar/37/suppl_2/10.1093/nar/gkp290/2/gkp290.pdf?Expires=1490652789&Signature=Ac2m5vIoP54ecKdPzhEU-](https://oup.silverchair-cdn.com/oup/backfile/Content_public/Journal/nar/37/suppl_2/10.1093/nar/gkp290/2/gkp290.pdf?Expires=1490652789&Signature=Ac2m5vIoP54ecKdPzhEU-)

[LO1spOgyIgCDMDsPuej49tOJfvlGZ8MLazIVxFCI~52d4Mn5~iDRI5q0aSgKLkeaZPHhnU5fYyMQSWoRUsmVTQVLuy](https://oup.silverchair-cdn.com/oup/backfile/Content_public/Journal/nar/37/suppl_2/10.1093/nar/gkp290/2/gkp290.pdf?Expires=1490652789&Signature=Ac2m5vIoP54ecKdPzhEU-L01spOgyIgCDMDsPuej49tOJfvlGZ8MLazIVxFCI~52d4Mn5~iDRI5q0aSgKLkeaZPHhnU5fYyMQSWoRUsmVTQVLuy)

116. Hindorff LA, Sethupathy P, Junkins HA, Ramos EM, Mehta JP, Collins FS, et al.

Potential etiologic and functional implications of genome-wide association loci for human diseases and traits. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2017 Mar 23];106:9362–7. Available from: <http://www.pnas.org/content/106/23/9362.full.pdf>

117. Dekkers JCM. Commercial application of marker- and gene-assisted selection in livestock: Strategies and lessons. *J. Anim. Sci.* [Internet]. American Society of Animal Science; 2004 [cited 2017 Mar 24];82:E313–28. Available from: https://dl.sciencesocieties.org/publications/jas/articles/82/13_suppl/E313

118. Griesbeck-Zilch B, Osman M, Kühn C, Schwerin M, Bruckmaier RH, Pfaffl MW, et al. Analysis of key molecules of the innate immune system in mammary epithelial cells isolated from marker-assisted and conventionally selected cattle. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2009;92:4621–33.

119. Hu Z-L, Park CA, Wu X-L, Reecy JM. Animal QTLdb: an improved database tool for livestock animal QTL/association data dissemination in the post-genome era. *Nucleic Acids Res.* [Internet]. Oxford University Press; 2013 [cited 2017 Mar 23];41:D871–9. Available from: <https://academic.oup.com/nar/article-lookup/doi/10.1093/nar/gks1150>

120. Verbeke J, Van Poucke M, Peelman L, Piepers S, De Vliegher S. Associations between CXCR1 polymorphisms and pathogen-specific incidence rate of clinical mastitis, test-day somatic cell count, and test-day milk yield. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Mar 24];97:7927–39. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030214007085>

121. Rambeaud M, Pighetti GM. Differential calcium signaling in dairy cows with

specific CXCR1 genotypes potentially related to interleukin-8 receptor functionality.

Immunogenetics [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Mar 24];59:53–8. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17119953>

122. Leyva-Baca I, Schenkel F, Martin J, Karrow NA. Polymorphisms in the 5' Upstream

Region of the CXCR1 Chemokine Receptor Gene, and Their Association with Somatic

Cell Score in Holstein Cattle in Canada. J. Dairy Sci. [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2017 Mar

24];91:407–17. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18096965>

123. Beecher C, Daly M, Childs S, Berry DP, Magee DA, McCarthy T V, et al.

Polymorphisms in bovine immune genes and their associations with somatic cell count

and milk production in dairy cattle. BMC Genet. [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Mar

24];11:99. Available from:

[http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2156-11-99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2156)

[99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2156-11-99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2156)

[6%2F1471-2156-11-](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2156-11-99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2156)

[99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2156-11-99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2156)

[%25252F1471-2156](http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/465/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2156-11-99.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenet.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2156-11-99&token2=exp=1490380068~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F465%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2156)

124. Verbeke J, Piepers S, Peelman L, Van Poucke M, De Vliegher S. Pathogen-group

specific association between CXCR1 polymorphisms and subclinical mastitis in dairy

heifers. J. Dairy Res. [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 24];79:341–51. Available from:

http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0022029912000349

125. Pawlik A, Sender G, Kapera M, Korwin-Kossakowska A. Association between

- interleukin 8 receptor α gene (CXCR1) and mastitis in dairy cattle. *Cent. J. Immunol.* [Internet]. Termedia Publishing; 2015 [cited 2017 Mar 24];40:153–8. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26557028>
126. Bagheri M, Moradi-Sharhrbabak M, Miraie-Ashtiani R, Safdari-Shahroudi M, Abdollahi-Arpanahi R. Case-control approach application for finding a relationship between candidate genes and clinical mastitis in Holstein dairy cattle. *J. Appl. Genet.* [Internet]. 2016 [cited 2017 Mar 24];57:107–12. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26126595>
127. Verbeke J, Piepers S, Peelman L, Van Poucke M, De Vlieghe S. Association of CXCR1 polymorphisms with apoptosis, necrosis and concentration of milk neutrophils in early lactating dairy heifers. *Res. Vet. Sci.* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Mar 24];97:55–9. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24934516>
128. Wang X-P, Xu S-Z, Gao X, Li J-Y, Ren H-Y, Luoren Z-M. Cloning and SNP screening of the TLR4 gene and the association between its polymorphism and somatic cell score in dairy cattle. *S. Afr. J. Anim. Sci.* [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2017 Mar 24];38. Available from: <http://www.scielo.org.za/pdf/sajas/v38n2/04.pdf>
129. Mesquita AQ de, Rezende CSM e, Mesquita AJ de, Jardim EAG da V, Kipnis APJ. Association of TLR4 polymorphisms with subclinical mastitis in Brazilian holsteins. *Brazilian J. Microbiol.* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 24];43:692–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24031881>
130. Wang X, Xu S, Gao X, Ren H, Chen J. Genetic Polymorphism of TLR4 Gene and

- Correlation with Mastitis in Cattle. *J. Genet. Genomics* [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Mar 24];34:406–12. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/17560526>
131. Sharma BS, Leyva I, Schenkel F, Karrow NA. Association of toll-like receptor 4 polymorphisms with somatic cell score and lactation persistency in Holstein bulls. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2017 Mar 24];89:3626–35. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16899698>
132. Huang J, Liu L, Wang H, Zhang C, Ju Z, Wang C, et al. Variants and gene expression of the TLR2 gene and susceptibility to mastitis in cattle. *Asian J. Anim. Vet. Adv.* [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 24];6:51–61. Available from: www.academicjournals.com
133. Zhang LP, Gan QF, Ma TH, Li HD, Wang XP, Li JY, et al. Toll-like receptor 2 gene polymorphism and its relationship with SCS in dairy cattle. *Anim. Biotechnol.* [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2017 Mar 24];20:87–95. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19544205>
134. Bai J, Lin J, Li W, Liu M. Association of toll-like receptor 2 polymorphisms with somatic cell score in Xinjiang Brown cattle. *Anim. Sci. J.* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Mar 24];83:23–30. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22250735>
135. Pighetti GM, Elliott AA. Gene Polymorphisms: The Keys for Marker Assisted Selection and Unraveling Core Regulatory Pathways for Mastitis Resistance. *J. Mammary Gland Biol. Neoplasia* [Internet]. Springer US; 2011 [cited 2016 Dec 1];16:421–32. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10911-011-9238-9>

136. Beecher C, Daly M, Berry DP, Klostermann K, Flynn J, Meaney W, et al. Administration of a live culture of *Lactococcus lactis* DPC 3147 into the bovine mammary gland stimulates the local host immune response, particularly IL-1 β and IL-8 gene expression. *J. Dairy Res.* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2009 [cited 2016 Dec 1];76:340. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0022029909004154
137. Goldammer T, Zerbe H, Molenaar A, Schuberth H-J, Brunner RM, Kata SR, et al. Mastitis increases mammary mRNA abundance of beta-defensin 5, toll-like-receptor 2 (TLR2), and TLR4 but not TLR9 in cattle. *Clin. Diagn. Lab. Immunol.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 2004 [cited 2017 Mar 24];11:174–85. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14715566>
138. Sodeland M, Grove H, Kent M, Taylor S, Svendsen M, Hayes BJ, et al. Molecular characterization of a long range haplotype affecting protein yield and mastitis susceptibility in Norwegian Red cattle. *BMC Genet.* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2011 [cited 2016 Dec 5];12:70. Available from: <http://bmcgenet.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2156-12-70>
139. Rupp R, Boichard D. Genetic parameters for clinical mastitis, somatic cell score, production, udder type traits, and milking ease in first lactation Holsteins. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 1999 [cited 2017 Mar 24];82:2198–204. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030299754652/1-s2.0-S0022030299754652-main.pdf?_tid=dc6040c2-10b2-11e7-bd6a-

00000aab0f02&acdnat=1490374784_333869d6e9b80ec1f62b842c519a716b

140. Kadri NK, Guldbbrandtsen B, Lund MS, Sahana G. Genetic dissection of milk yield traits and mastitis resistance quantitative trait loci on chromosome 20 in dairy cattle. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2015;98:9015–25.

141. Bagheri M, Miraie-Ashtiani R, Moradi-Shahrbabak M, Nejati-Javaremi A, Pakdel A, von Borstel UU, et al. Selective genotyping and logistic regression analyses to identify favorable SNP-genotypes for clinical mastitis and production traits in Holstein dairy cattle. *Livest. Sci.* [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2017 Mar 24];151:140–51. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S1871141312004398>

142. Meredith BK, Berry DP, Kearney F, Finlay EK, Fahey AG, Bradley DG, et al. A genome-wide association study for somatic cell score using the Illumina high-density bovine beadchip identifies several novel QTL potentially related to mastitis susceptibility. *Front. Genet.* [Internet]. Frontiers Media SA; 2013 [cited 2016 Nov 2];4:229. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24223582>

143. Holmbeg M, Andersson-Eklund L. Quantitative Trait Loci Affecting Health Traits in Swedish Dairy Cattle. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2004;87:2653–9.

144. Wu X, Lund MS, Sahana G, Guldbbrandtsen B, Sun D, Zhang Q, et al. Association analysis for udder health based on SNP-panel and sequence data in Danish Holsteins. *Genet. Sel. Evol.* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2015 [cited 2017 Feb 17];47:50. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/26087655>

145. Sodeland M, Kent MP, Olsen HG, Opsal MA, Svendsen M, Sehested E, et al. Quantitative trait loci for clinical mastitis on chromosomes 2, 6, 14 and 20 in Norwegian Red cattle. *Anim. Genet.* 2011;42:457–65.
146. Sahana G, Guldbbrandtsen B, Thomsen B, Lund MS. Confirmation and fine-mapping of clinical mastitis and somatic cell score QTL in Nordic Holstein cattle. *Anim. Genet.* [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2016 Dec 27];44:620–6. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/age.12053>
147. Laboratory Handbook on Bovine Mastitis. Revised. Madison, WI: National Mastitis Council; 1999.
148. Wilson DJ, Bartlett PC, Kirk JH, Mellenberger RW, Mather EC. N-acetyl-beta-D-glucosaminidase as a predictor of milk loss and recovery after clinical mastitis. *Am. J. Vet. Res.* [Internet]. 1991 [cited 2016 Nov 2];52:1110–6. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1892265>
149. Wilson DJ, Mallard BA, Burton JL, Schukken YH, Grohn YT. Association of *Escherichia coli* J5-specific serum antibody responses with clinical mastitis outcome for J5 vaccinate and control dairy cattle. *Clin. Vaccine Immunol.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 2009 [cited 2016 Nov 2];16:209–17. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19052158>
150. Gröhn YT, Wilson DJ, González RN, Hertl JA, Schulte H, Bennett G, et al. Effect of Pathogen-Specific Clinical Mastitis on Milk Yield in Dairy Cows. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2004;87:3358–74.

151. Purcell S, Neale B, Todd-Brown K, Thomas L, Ferreira MAR, Bender D, et al. PLINK: A tool set for whole-genome association and population-based linkage analyses. *Am. J. Hum. Genet.* 2007;81:559–75.
152. R Core Team RF for SC. R: A Language and Environment for Statistical Computing [Internet]. Vienna, Austria; 2016. Available from: <https://www.r-project.org>
153. Zimin A V, Delcher AL, Florea L, Kelley DR, Schatz MC, Puiu D, et al. A whole-genome assembly of the domestic cow, *Bos taurus*. *Genome Biol.* [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2017 Mar 31];10:R42. Available from: <http://genomebiology.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/gb-2009-10-4-r42>
154. Sherry ST, Ward MH, Kholodov M, Baker J, Phan L, Smigielski EM, et al. dbSNP: the NCBI database of genetic variation. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2001;29:308–11.
155. Hu ZL, Park CA, Wu XL, Reecy JM. Animal QTLdb: An improved database tool for livestock animal QTL/association data dissemination in the post-genome era. *Nucleic Acids Res.* 2013;
156. Bonnefont CMD, Toufeer M, Caubet C, Foulon E, Tasca C, Aurel M-R, et al. Transcriptomic analysis of milk somatic cells in mastitis resistant and susceptible sheep upon challenge with *Staphylococcus epidermidis* and *Staphylococcus aureus*. *BMC Genomics* [Internet]. 2011 [cited 2017 Apr 12];12:208. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/21527017>
157. Brand B, Hartmann A, Repsilber D, Griesbeck-Zilch B, Wellnitz O, Kühn C, et al.

Comparative expression profiling of *E. coli* and *S. aureus* inoculated primary mammary gland cells sampled from cows with different genetic predispositions for somatic cell score. *Genet. Sel. Evol.* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2011 [cited 2016 Nov 14];43:24.

Available from: <http://www.gsejournal.org/content/43/1/24>

158. Ashwell MS, Heyen DW, Weller JI, Ron M, Sonstegard TS, Van Tassell CP, et al. Detection of quantitative trait loci influencing conformation traits and calving ease in Holstein-Friesian cattle. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2017 Apr 12];88:4111–9.

Available from: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030205730952>

159. Rupp R, Boichard D. Genetics of resistance to mastitis in dairy cattle. *671 Vet. Res.* 2003;34:671–88.

160. Seykora AJ, McDaniel BT. Genetics statistics and relationships of teat and udder traits, somatic cell counts, and milk production. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1986 [cited 2017 Feb 16];69:2395–407. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3782591>

161. Detilleux JC. Genetic factors affecting susceptibility of dairy cows to udder pathogens. *Vet. Immunol. Immunopathol.* 2002;88:103–10.

162. Santman-Berends IM, Olde Riekerink RG, Sampimon OC, van Schaik G, Lam TJ. Incidence of subclinical mastitis in Dutch dairy heifers in the first 100 days in lactation and associated risk factors. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Apr 11];95:2476–84.

Available from: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030212002135>

163. Schnabel RD, Sonstegard TS, Taylor JF, Ashwell MS. Whole-genome scan to detect QTL for milk production, conformation, fertility and functional traits in two US Holstein families. *Anim. Genet.* [Internet]. Blackwell Science Ltd; 2005 [cited 2017 Apr 12];36:408–16. Available from: <http://doi.wiley.com/10.1111/j.1365-2052.2005.01337.x>
164. Philipsson J, Ral G, Berglund B. Somatic cell count as a selection criterion for mastitis resistance in dairy cattle. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* [Internet]. 1995 [cited 2017 Jan 23];41:195–200. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/030162269400067H>
165. Odegård J, Klemetsdal G, Heringstad B, Beaudeau F, Fourichon C, Seegers H, et al. Genetic improvement of mastitis resistance: validation of somatic cell score and clinical mastitis as selection criteria. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2003 [cited 2017 Jan 23];86:4129–36. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14740854>
166. Sears PM, Smith BS, English PB, Herer PS, Gonzalez RN. Shedding Pattern of *Staphylococcus aureus* from Bovine Intramammary Infections. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 1990 [cited 2017 Apr 12];73:2785–9. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030290789643>
167. Reneau JK, Andrews RJ, Kitchen BJ, Kwee WS, Duncalfe F, Appleman RD, et al. Effective use of dairy herd improvement somatic cell counts in mastitis control. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1986 [cited 2016 Nov 2];69:1708–20. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/3528248>
168. Lander ES, Botstein S. Mapping mendelian factors underlying quantitative traits

using RFLP linkage maps. *Genetics*. 1989;121:185.

169. Rupp R, Boichard D. Genetics of resistance to mastitis in dairy cattle. *Vet. Res.* [Internet]. EDP Sciences; 2003 [cited 2016 Nov 11];34:671–88. Available from: <http://www.edpsciences.org/10.1051/vetres:2003020>

170. Wellnitz O, Kerr DE. Cryopreserved bovine mammary cells to model epithelial response to infection. *Vet. Immunol. Immunopathol.* [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Mar 6];101:191–202. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0165242704001357/1-s2.0-S0165242704001357-main.pdf?_tid=ce2c9d44-02b0-11e7-8c45-00000aacb361&acdnat=1488834585_1a79a801f33eb7362582b4788a9b876c

171. Danowski K, Sorg D, Gross J, Meyer HHD, Kliem H. Innate defense capability of challenged primary bovine mammary epithelial cells after an induced negative energy balance in vivo. *Czech J. Anim. Sci.* 2012;57:207–19.

172. Duell BL, Cripps AW, Schembri MA, Ulett GC. Epithelial cell coculture models for studying infectious diseases: Benefits and limitations [Internet]. *J. Biomed. Biotechnol.* Hindawi Publishing Corporation; 2011 [cited 2017 Mar 25]. p. 852419. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/22007147>

173. Pareek R, Wellnitz O, Van Dorp R, Burton J, Kerr D. Immunorelevant gene expression in LPS-challenged bovine mammary epithelial cells. *J. Appl. Genet.* [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2016 Nov 14];46:171–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15876684>

174. Goldammer T, Zerbe H, Molenaar A, Schuberth H-J, Brunner RM, Kata SR, et al. Mastitis increases mammary mRNA abundance of beta-defensin 5, toll-like-receptor 2 (TLR2), and TLR4 but not TLR9 in cattle. *Clin. Diagn. Lab. Immunol.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology (ASM); 2004 [cited 2017 Jan 24];11:174–85. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14715566>
175. Bruckmaier RM. Gene expression of factors related to the immune reaction in response to intramammary *Escherichia coli* lipopolysaccharide challenge. *J. Dairy Res.* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2005 [cited 2017 Jan 24];72:120. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0022029905001159
176. Griesbeck-Zilch B, Osman M, Kühn C, Schwerin M, Bruckmaier RH, Pfaffl MW, et al. Analysis of key molecules of the innate immune system in mammary epithelial cells isolated from marker-assisted and conventionally selected cattle. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 2009 [cited 2017 Jan 23];92:4621–33. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19700725>
177. Buehring GC, Bessis M, Weed RI, Buehring GC, Buehring GC, McGrath MF, et al. Culture of mammary epithelial cells from bovine milk. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. Elsevier; 1990 [cited 2016 Nov 11];73:956–63. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1693154>
178. Taylor-Papadimitriou J, Stampfer M, Bartek J, Lewis A, Boshell M, Lane EB, et al. Keratin expression in human mammary epithelial cells cultured from normal and malignant tissue: relation to in vivo phenotypes and influence of medium. *J. Cell Sci.*

1989;94 (Pt 3):403–13.

179. Moser B, Clark-Lewis I, Zwahlen R, Baggiolini M. Neutrophil-activating properties of the melanoma growth-stimulatory activity. *J. Exp. Med.* [Internet]. The Rockefeller University Press; 1990 [cited 2017 Mar 7];171:1797–802. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/2185333>

180. Walz A, Burgener R, Car B, Baggiolini M, Kunkel SL, Strieter RM. Structure and neutrophil-activating properties of a novel inflammatory peptide (ENA-78) with homology to interleukin 8. *J. Exp. Med.* [Internet]. 1991 [cited 2017 Jan 27];174:1355–62. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/1744577><http://www.pubmedcentral.nih.gov/articlerender.fcgi?artid=PMC2119025>

181. Baggiolini M. Chemotactic and inflammatory cytokines--CXC and CC proteins. *Adv. Exp. Med. Biol.* 1993;351:1–11.

182. Strieter RM, Belperio JA, Keane MP. CXC chemokines in vascular remodeling related to pulmonary fibrosis. *Am. J. Respir. Cell Mol. Biol.* [Internet]. 2003 [cited 2017 Jan 27];29:S67-9. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/14503558>

183. Eferl R, Hasselblatt P, Rath M, Popper H, Zenz R, Komnenovic V, et al. Development of pulmonary fibrosis through a pathway involving the transcription factor Fra-2/AP-1. *Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci. U. S. A.* [Internet]. National Academy of Sciences; 2008 [cited 2017 Jan 27];105:10525–30. Available from:

<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/18641127>

184. Buitenhuis B, Røntved CM, Edwards SM, Ingvarsen KL, Sørensen P, Bradley A, et al. In depth analysis of genes and pathways of the mammary gland involved in the pathogenesis of bovine *Escherichia coli*- mastitis. *BMC Genomics* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2011 [cited 2016 Dec 5];12:130. Available from:

<http://bmcgenomics.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2164-12-130>

185. Sorg D, Danowski K, Korenkova V, Rusnakova V, Küffner R, Zimmer R, et al. Microfluidic high-throughput RT-qPCR measurements of the immune response of primary bovine mammary epithelial cells cultured from milk to mastitis pathogens. *animal* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2013 [cited 2016 Dec 1];7:799–805. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S1751731112002315

186. Xiu L, Fu Y, Deng Y, Shi X, Bian Z, Ruhan A, et al. Deep sequencing-based analysis of gene expression in bovine mammary epithelial cells after *Staphylococcus aureus*, *Escherichia coli*, and *Klebsiella pneumoniae* infection. *funpecrp.com.br Genet. Mol. Res.* 2015;14:16948–65.

187. Sodeland M, Grove H, Kent M, Taylor S, Svendsen M, Hayes BJ, et al. Molecular characterization of a long range haplotype affecting protein yield and mastitis susceptibility in Norwegian Red cattle. *BMC Genet.* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2011 [cited 2016 Dec 1];12:70. Available from:

<http://bmcgenet.biomedcentral.com/articles/10.1186/1471-2156-12-70>

188. Ruifeng G, Yunhe F, Zhengkai W, Ershun zhou, Yimeng L, Minjun Y, et al. Chlorogenic acid attenuates lipopolysaccharide-induced mice mastitis by suppressing

TLR4-mediated NF- κ B signaling pathway. *Eur. J. Pharmacol.* [Internet]. 2014 [cited 2017 Mar 6];729:54–8. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0014299914000168/1-s2.0-S0014299914000168-main.pdf?_tid=a6d3d93c-0293-11e7-b7ea-00000aab0f6c&acdnat=1488822064_6d755b1672c8f550c64b03b63d91be58

189. Sordillo LM, Peel JE. Effect of interferon-gamma on the production of tumor necrosis factor during acute *Escherichia coli* mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 1992 [cited 2017 Mar 6];75:2119–25. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0022030292779715>

190. Blum JW, Dosogne H, Hoeben D, Vangroenweghe F, Hammon HM, Bruckmaier RM, et al. Tumor necrosis factor- α and nitrite/nitrate responses during acute mastitis induced by *Escherichia coli* infection and endotoxin in dairy cows. *Domest. Anim. Endocrinol.* [Internet]. 2000 [cited 2017 Mar 6];19:223–35. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0739724000000795/1-s2.0-S0739724000000795-main.pdf?_tid=3617865e-028d-11e7-af7a-00000aacb362&acdnat=1488819298_b18cd56fcfbe900550129f563184a5a8

191. Piotrowska-Tomala KK, Bah MM, Jankowska K, Lukasik K, Warmowski P, Galvao AM, et al. Lipopolysaccharides, cytokines, and nitric oxide affect secretion of prostaglandins and leukotrienes by bovine mammary gland during experimentally induced mastitis in vivo and in vitro. *Domest. Anim. Endocrinol.* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2017 Mar 6];52:90–9. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0739724015000235/1-s2.0-S0739724015000235-main.pdf?_tid=3c0439f0-0291-11e7-9b58-

00000aacb35d&acdnat=1488821025_6b860f78097fb7d86af42997b0d90c48

192. Wojdak-Maksymiec K, Szyda J, Strabel T. Parity-dependent association between TNF- α and LTF gene polymorphisms and clinical mastitis in dairy cattle. *BMC Vet. Res.* [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2017 Mar 6];9:1. Available from:

<http://www.biomedcentral.com/1746-6148/9/114>

193. Seegers H, Fourichon C, Beaudeau F. Production effects related to mastitis and mastitis economics in dairy cattle herds [Internet]. *Vet. Res.* 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 6]. p. 475–91. Available from: <http://www.vetres.org/articles/vetres/pdf/2003/05/V3508.pdf>

194. DeGraves FJ, Fetrow J. Economics of Mastitis and Mastitis Control. *Vet. Clin. North Am. Food Anim. Pract.* [Internet]. 1993 [cited 2017 Apr 6];9:421–34. Available from: <http://linkinghub.elsevier.com/retrieve/pii/S0749072015306113>

195. Persson Waller K, Colditz IG, Lun S, Östensson K. Cytokines in mammary lymph and milk during endotoxin-induced bovine mastitis [Internet]. *Res. Vet. Sci.* 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 3]. p. 31–6. Available from: [http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0034528802001479/1-s2.0-S0034528802001479-main.pdf?_tid=a97675aa-18be-11e7-ac8a-](http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0034528802001479/1-s2.0-S0034528802001479-main.pdf?_tid=a97675aa-18be-11e7-ac8a-00000aab0f6b&acdnat=1491259462_5084a68141b83e7ff3976cf668a56196)

[00000aab0f6b&acdnat=1491259462_5084a68141b83e7ff3976cf668a56196](http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0034528802001479/1-s2.0-S0034528802001479-main.pdf?_tid=a97675aa-18be-11e7-ac8a-00000aab0f6b&acdnat=1491259462_5084a68141b83e7ff3976cf668a56196)

196. Zavizion B, van Duffelen M, Schaeffer W, Politis I. Establishment and characterization of a bovine mammary epithelial cell line with unique properties. *Vitr. Cell. Dev. Biol. - Anim.* [Internet]. Springer-Verlag; 1996 [cited 2016 Nov 11];32:138–48. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/BF02723679>

197. Zhao K, Liu H-Y, Zhou M-M, Liu J-X. Establishment and characterization of a lactating bovine mammary epithelial cell model for the study of milk synthesis. *Cell Biol. Int.* [Internet]. 2010;34:717–21. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20214659>
198. Jedrzejczak M, Szatkowska I. Bovine mammary epithelial cell cultures for the study of mammary gland functions. *In Vitro Cell. Dev. Biol. Anim.* [Internet]. Springer; 2014 [cited 2016 Nov 11];50:389–98. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/24234512>
199. American Veterinary Medical Association. Use of Animals in Research, Testing, and Education [Internet]. [cited 2017 Apr 15]. Available from:
<https://www.avma.org/KB/Policies/Pages/Use-of-Animals-in-Research-Testing-and-Education.aspx>
200. Chen Q, He G, Zhang W, Xu T, Qi H, Li J, et al. Stromal fibroblasts derived from mammary gland of bovine with mastitis display inflammation-specific changes. *Sci. Rep.* [Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2016 [cited 2017 Apr 3];6:27462. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/27272504>
201. Kandasamy S, Green BB, Benjamin AL, Kerr DE. Between-cow variation in dermal fibroblast response to lipopolysaccharide reflected in resolution of inflammation during *Escherichia coli* mastitis. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2011;94:5963–75.
202. Kubota C, Yamakuchi H, Todoroki J, Mizoshita K, Tabara N, Barber M, et al. Six cloned calves produced from adult fibroblast cells after long-term culture. *Proc. Natl.*

Acad. Sci. U. S. A. [Internet]. National Academy of Sciences; 2000 [cited 2017 Apr 3];97:990–5. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10655472>

203. SAS Statistical Software. Cary, NC: SAS Institute Inc.; 2016.

204. Boutinaud M, Jammes H. Potential uses of milk epithelial cells: a review. *Reprod. Nutr. Dev.* [Internet]. 2002 [cited 2017 Apr 6];42:133–47. Available from: <https://hal.archives-ouvertes.fr/hal-00900346/document>

205. Rose MT, Aso H, Yonekura S, Komatsu T, Hagino A, Ozutsumi K, et al. In vitro differentiation of a cloned bovine mammary epithelial cell. *J. Dairy Res.* [Internet]. Cambridge University Press; 2002 [cited 2016 Nov 11];69:345–55. Available from: http://www.journals.cambridge.org/abstract_S0022029902005551

206. Hammond SL, Ham RG, Stampfert MR, Prescott DM. Serum-free growth of human mammary epithelial cells: Rapid clonal growth in defined medium and extended serial passage with pituitary extract (prostaglandin E1/cyclic AMP/ethanolamine/insulin/epidermal growth factor). *Cell Biol.* [Internet]. 1984 [cited 2017 Mar 30];81:5435–9. Available from: <http://www.pnas.org/content/81/17/5435.full.pdf>

207. Sordillo L, Oliver S, Akers R. Culture of bovine mammary epithelial cells in D-valine modified medium: Selective removal of contaminating fibroblasts. *Cell Biol. Int. Rep.* [Internet]. 1988 [cited 2017 Apr 3];12:355–64. Available from: [http://doi.wiley.com/10.1016/0309-1651\(88\)90060-4](http://doi.wiley.com/10.1016/0309-1651(88)90060-4)

208. Feng S, Salter AM, Parr T, Garnsworthy PC. Extraction and quantitative analysis of stearoyl-coenzyme A desaturase mRNA from dairy cow milk somatic cells. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Apr 4];90:4128–36. Available from: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030207718714>
209. Vangroenweghe F, Dosogne H, Mehrzad J, Burvenich C. Effect of milk sampling techniques on milk composition, bacterial contamination, viability and functions of resident cells in milk. *Vet. Res.* [Internet]. 2001 [cited 2017 Apr 4];32:565–79. Available from: <http://www.vetres.org/articles/vetres/pdf/2001/05/v1603.pdf>
210. Boutinaud M, Rulquin H, Keisler DH, Djiane J, Jammes H. Use of somatic cells from goat milk for dynamic studies of gene expression in the mammary gland. *J. Anim. Sci.* [Internet]. 2002 [cited 2017 Apr 6];80:1258–69. Available from: <https://www.animalsciencepublications.org/publications/jas/abstracts/80/5/1258>
211. Gstraunthaler G. Alternatives to the use of fetal bovine serum: serum-free cell culture. *ALTEX* [Internet]. 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 6];20:275–81. Available from: http://www.altex.ch/resources/Altex_2003_4_275_281_Gstraunthaler.pdf
212. Lechner JF, Haugen A, McClendon IA, Pettis EW. Clonal growth of normal adult human bronchial epithelial cells in a serum-free medium. *In Vitro* [Internet]. 1982 [cited 2017 Apr 3];18:633–42. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/7141447>
213. Okada H, Ito T, Ohtsuka H, Kirisawa R, Iwai H, Yamashita K, et al. Detection of interleukin-1 and interleukin-6 on cryopreserved bovine mammary epithelial cells in vitro. *J. Vet. Med. Sci.* [Internet]. 1997 [cited 2017 Apr 5];59:503–7. Available from:

https://www.jstage.jst.go.jp/article/jvms/59/7/59_7_503/_pdf

214. Van Der Valk J, Mellor D, Brands R, Fischer R, Gruber F, Gstraunthaler G, et al. The humane collection of fetal bovine serum and possibilities for serum-free cell and tissue culture. *Toxicol. Vitro*. [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Apr 6]. p. 1–12. Available from: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0887233303001590>

215. Chen Q, He G, Zhang W, Xu T, Qi H, Li J, et al. Stromal fibroblasts derived from mammary gland of bovine with mastitis display inflammation-specific changes. *Sci. Rep.* [Internet]. Nature Publishing Group; 2016 [cited 2016 Nov 14];6:27462. Available from: <http://www.nature.com/articles/srep27462>

216. Kandasamy S, Kerr DE. Genomic analysis of between-cow variation in dermal fibroblast response to lipopolysaccharide. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2012;95:3852–64.

217. Akkoc A, Kahraman MM, Vatansever A, Gunaydin E, Akdesir E. Lipopolysaccharide (LPS) Induces Matrix Metalloproteinase-2 and -9 (MMP-2 and MMP-9) in Bovine Dermal Fibroblasts. *Pak. Vet. J.* 2016;ISSN:253–8318.

218. Green BB, Kandasamy S, Elsasser TH, Kerr DE. The use of dermal fibroblasts as a predictive tool of the toll-like receptor 4 response pathway and its development in Holstein heifers. *J. Dairy Sci.* 2011;94:5502–14.

219. Yamanaka H, Hisaeda K, Hagiwara K, Kirisawa R, Iwai H. ELISA for bovine interleukin-1 receptor antagonist and its application to mastitic sera and whey. *J. Vet. Med. Sci.* [Internet]. 2000 [cited 2017 Apr 5];62:661–4. Available from:

https://www.jstage.jst.go.jp/article/jvms/62/6/62_6_661/_pdf

220. Oviedo-Boyso J, Valdez-Alarcón JJ, Cajero-Juárez M, Ochoa-Zarzosa A, López-Meza JE, Bravo-Patiño A, et al. Innate immune response of bovine mammary gland to pathogenic bacteria responsible for mastitis. *J. Infect.* 2007;54:399–409.

221. Rambeaud M, Almeida RA, Pighetti GM, Oliver SP. Dynamics of leukocytes and cytokines during experimentally induced *Streptococcus uberis* mastitis. *Vet. Immunol. Immunopathol.* [Internet]. 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 3];96:193–205. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0165242703001909/1-s2.0-S0165242703001909-main.pdf?_tid=47e1bcf6-18bd-11e7-9918-00000aacb362&acdnt=1491258869_3d8afd5cc544b03da02cae3916a954f3

222. Bannerman DD, Paape MJ, Lee J-W, Zhao X, Hope JC, Rainard P. *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus aureus* elicit differential innate immune responses following intramammary infection. *Clin. Diagn. Lab. Immunol.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 2004 [cited 2017 Apr 6];11:463–72. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15138171>

223. Wu J, Li L, Sun Y, Huang S, Tang J, Yu P, et al. Altered molecular expression of the TLR4/NF- κ B signaling pathway in mammary tissue of Chinese Holstein cattle with mastitis. *PLoS One* [Internet]. 2015 [cited 2017 Apr 3];10. Available from: <http://journals.plos.org/plosone/article/file?id=10.1371/journal.pone.0118458&type=printable>

224. Bosco MC, Puppo M, Santangelo C, Anfosso L, Pfeffer U, Fardin P, et al. Hypoxia

Modifies the Transcriptome of Primary Human Monocytes: Modulation of Novel Immune-Related Genes and Identification Of CC-Chemokine Ligand 20 as a New Hypoxia-Inducible Gene. *J. Immunol.* [Internet]. 2006 [cited 2017 Apr 6];177:1941–55. Available from: <http://www.jimmunol.org/content/177/3/1941.long>

225. Günther J, Koczan D, Yang W, Nürnberg G, Repsilber D, Schuberth HJ, et al. Assessment of the immune capacity of mammary epithelial cells: Comparison with mammary tissue after challenge with *Escherichia coli*. *Vet. Res.* [Internet]. BioMed Central; 2009 [cited 2016 Dec 5];40:31. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19321125>

226. Werner C, Sobiraj A, Sundrum A. Efficacy of homeopathic and antibiotic treatment strategies in cases of mild and moderate bovine clinical mastitis. *J. Dairy Res.* [Internet]. 2010 [cited 2017 Apr 17];77:460–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/20822562>

227. De Vliegher S, Fox LK, Piepers S, McDougall S, Barkema HW. Invited review: Mastitis in dairy heifers: nature of the disease, potential impact, prevention, and control. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Apr 17];95:1025–40. Available from: <http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S0022030212000628>

228. Bayles KW, Wesson CA, Liou LE, Fox LK, Bohach GA, Trumble WR. Intracellular *Staphylococcus aureus* escapes the endosome and induces apoptosis in epithelial cells. *Infect. Immun.* [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 1998 [cited 2016 Nov 21];66:336–42. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/9423876>

229. Long E, Capuco A, Wood D, Sonstegard T, Tomita G, Paape M, et al. *Escherichia coli* induces apoptosis and proliferation of mammary cells. *Cell Death Differ.* 2001;8:808–16.
230. Yedgar S, Lichtenberg D, Schnitzer E. Inhibition of phospholipase A2 as a therapeutic target. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta - Mol. Cell Biol. Lipids.* 2000;1488:182–7.
231. Magrioti V, Kokotos G. Phospholipase A2 inhibitors as potential therapeutic agents for the treatment of inflammatory diseases. *Expert Opin Ther Pat* [Internet]. Taylor & Francis; 2010 [cited 2017 Apr 17];20:1–18. Available from: <http://www.tandfonline.com/doi/full/10.1517/13543770903463905>
232. Hanasaki K, Arita H. Biological and pathological functions of phospholipase A(2) receptor. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.* [Internet]. 1999 [cited 2016 Nov 16];372:215–23. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10600158>
233. Seroussi E, Klompus S, Silanikove M, Krifucks O, Shapiro F, Gertler A, et al. Nonbactericidal secreted phospholipase A2s are potential anti-inflammatory factors in the mammary gland. *Immunogenetics* [Internet]. Springer Berlin Heidelberg; 2013 [cited 2016 Nov 16];65:861–71. Available from: <http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s00251-013-0738-1>
234. Burke JE, Dennis EA. Phospholipase A2 structure/function, mechanism, and signaling. *J. Lipid Res.* [Internet]. American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology; 2009 [cited 2016 Nov 16];50 Suppl:S237-42. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/19011112>

235. Hanasaki K. Mammalian Phospholipase A2: Phospholipase A2 Receptor. *Biol. Pharm. Bull.* [Internet]. The Pharmaceutical Society of Japan; 2004 [cited 2016 Nov 16];27:1165–7. Available from:
<http://joi.jlc.jst.go.jp/JST.JSTAGE/bpb/27.1165?from=CrossRef>
236. Katoh N. Inhibition by Melittin of Phosphorylation by Protein Kinase C of Annexin I from Cow Mammary Gland. *J. Vet. Med. Sci* [Internet]. JAPANESE SOCIETY OF VETERINARY SCIENCE; 2002 [cited 2016 Nov 17];64:779–83. Available from:
<http://joi.jlc.jst.go.jp/JST.JSTAGE/jvms/64.779?from=CrossRef>
237. Miki Y, Yamamoto K, Taketomi Y, Sato H, Shimo K, Kobayashi T, et al. Lymphoid tissue phospholipase A2 group IID resolves contact hypersensitivity by driving antiinflammatory lipid mediators. *J. Exp. Med.* [Internet]. The Rockefeller University Press; 2013 [cited 2017 Apr 17];210:1217–34. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/23690440>
238. Rot A, Von Andrian UH. CHEMOKINES IN INNATE AND ADAPTIVE HOST DEFENSE: Basic Chemokinese Grammar for Immune Cells. *Annu. Rev. Immunol* [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Apr 17];22:891–928. Available from:
<http://www.annualreviews.org/doi/pdf/10.1146/annurev.immunol.22.012703.104543>
239. Yang D, Chen Q, Hoover DM, Staley P, Tucker KD, Lubkowski J, et al. Many chemokines including CCL20/MIP-3 α display antimicrobial activity. *J. Leukoc. Biol.* [Internet]. 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 17];74:448–55. Available from:
<http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12949249>

240. Lourenço AG, Komesu MC, Duarte G, Del Ciampo LA, Mussi-Pinhata MM, Yamamoto AY. High Levels of Chemokine C-C Motif Ligand 20 in Human Milk and Its Production by Oral Keratinocytes. *Breastfeed. Med.* [Internet]. 2017 [cited 2017 Apr 17];12:116–21. Available from: <http://online.liebertpub.com/doi/10.1089/bfm.2016.0067>
241. Jiang L, Sorensen P, Rontved C, Vels L, Ingvarstsen K. Gene expression profiling of liver from dairy cows treated intra-mammary with lipopolysaccharide. *BMC Genomics* [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2017 Apr 17];9:443. Available from: <http://download.springer.com/static/pdf/784/art%253A10.1186%252F1471-2164-9-443.pdf?originUrl=http%3A%2F%2Fbmcgenomics.biomedcentral.com%2Farticle%2F10.1186%2F1471-2164-9-443&token2=exp=1492441182~acl=%2Fstatic%2Fpdf%2F784%2Fart%25253A10.1186%25252F1471-2>
242. Sordillo LM. Factors affecting mammary gland immunity and mastitis susceptibility. *Livest. Prod. Sci.* [Internet]. 2005 [cited 2017 Mar 29]. p. 89–99. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12463736>
243. Rainard P, Fromageau A, Cunha P, Gilbert FB. www.vetres.org Staphylococcus aureus lipoteichoic acid triggers inflammation in the lactating bovine mammary gland. *Vet. Res* [Internet]. 2008 [cited 2017 Apr 17];39. Available from: <http://www.vetres.org/articles/vetres/pdf/2008/05/v08221.pdf>
244. Lahouassa H, Moussay E, Rainard P, Riollot C. Differential cytokine and chemokine responses of bovine mammary epithelial cells to Staphylococcus aureus and Escherichia

- coli. Cytokine [Internet]. 2007 [cited 2017 Apr 17];38:12–21. Available from:
<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1043466607000853>
245. Zhang K, Zhang D, Jiao X. full-text. Eur Rev Med Pharmacol [Internet]. 2013 [cited 2017 Apr 17];17:3279–84. Available from: <http://www.europeanreview.org/wp/wp-content/uploads/3279-3284.pdf>
246. Wuyts A, Govaerts C, Struyf S, Lenaerts JP, Put W, Conings R, et al. Isolation of the CXC chemokines ENA-78, GRO alpha and GRO gamma from tumor cells and leukocytes reveals NH2-terminal heterogeneity: Functional comparison of different natural isoforms. Eur. J. Biochem. [Internet]. 1999 [cited 2017 Apr 17];260:421–9. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/10095777>
247. Rinaldi M, Li RW, Bannerman DD, Daniels KM, Evock-Clover C, Silva MVB, et al. A sentinel function for teat tissues in dairy cows: Dominant innate immune response elements define early response to E. coli mastitis. Funct. Integr. Genomics [Internet]. Springer-Verlag; 2010 [cited 2017 Apr 17];10:21–38. Available from:
<http://link.springer.com/10.1007/s10142-009-0133-z>
248. Zheng J, Watson AD, Kerr DE. Genome-wide expression analysis of lipopolysaccharide-induced mastitis in a mouse model. Infect. Immun. [Internet]. American Society for Microbiology; 2006 [cited 2017 Apr 17];74:1907–15. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/16495566>
249. Peterson DG, Matitashvili EA, Bauman DE. The inhibitory effect of trans-10, cis-12 CLA on lipid synthesis in bovine mammary epithelial cells involves reduced proteolytic

- activation of the transcription factor SREBP-1. *J. Nutr.* [Internet]. 2004 [cited 2017 Nov 15];134:2523–7. Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/15465741>
250. Swanson KM, Stelwagen K, Dobson J, Henderson H V, Davis SR, Farr VC, et al. Transcriptome profiling of *Streptococcus uberis*-induced mastitis reveals fundamental differences between immune gene expression in the mammary gland and in a primary cell culture model. *J. Dairy Sci.* [Internet]. 2009 [cited 2017 Apr 17];92:117–29. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/S0022030209703169/1-s2.0-S0022030209703169-main.pdf?_tid=2fd6f76e-2396-11e7-aaff-0000aab0f6b&acdnat=1492451541_b5cee565d6ec31e95379afa298b7b4d3
251. Huynh HT, Robitaille G, Turner JD. Establishment of bovine mammary epithelial cells (MAC-T): An in vitro model for bovine lactation. *Exp. Cell Res.* [Internet]. 1991 [cited 2017 Mar 22];197:191–9. Available from: http://ac.els-cdn.com/001448279190422Q/1-s2.0-001448279190422Q-main.pdf?_tid=202d737a-0f40-11e7-aa7b-0000aacb35e&acdnat=1490215555_d2ece723c399a728d428ba13db06f892
252. An P, Sáenz Robles MT, Pipas JM. Large T antigens of polyomaviruses: amazing molecular machines. *Annu. Rev. Microbiol.* [Internet]. 2012 [cited 2017 Apr 18];66:213–36. Available from: www.annualreviews.org
253. Ali SH, DeCaprio JA. Cellular transformation by SV40 large T antigen: interaction with host proteins. *Semin Cancer Biol* [Internet]. 2001 [cited 2017 Apr 18];11:15–23. Available from: <http://www.idealibrary.com>

254. Kawatani M, Imoto M. Deletion of the BH1 domain of Bcl-2 accelerates apoptosis by acting in a dominant negative fashion. *J. Biol. Chem.* [Internet]. American Society for Biochemistry and Molecular Biology; 2003 [cited 2017 Apr 18];278:19732–42.

Available from: <http://www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/pubmed/12644466>

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

Table 12: Single nucleotide polymorphisms suggestive of genome-wide significance for bovine mastitis resistance. The allele associated with mastitis resistance is shown.

Marker	Chr	Position	$-\log_{10}(\text{P-Value})$	Protective Allele
rs43358044	3	91840020	3.996653467	G
rs137266495	3	91852910	3.996653467	A
rs109319807	4	101537884	3.980910125	T
rs136808611	27	42783896	3.97700887	A
rs136937812	X	57802477	3.975335219	A
rs110284739	10	27951935	3.974500075	A
rs109526058	12	84803111	3.964518728	C
rs134217424	15	51068247	3.952684594	G
rs111020787	10	15230978	3.939244754	T
rs109587178	10	34260761	3.936591969	C
rs135295512	9	53003499	3.929227883	C
rs110055960	15	3927915	3.9101623	C
rs109308232	10	34184801	3.903017995	G
rs43506128	7	32204119	3.894230637	C
rs134337435	18	43565043	3.869328826	T
rs135850795	18	43566644	3.869328826	C
rs41879780	18	43568721	3.869328826	G
rs42748473	27	151528	3.866788625	C
rs135442750	17	41733436	3.843632627	A
rs110555626	17	41739893	3.843632627	G
rs109816246	17	41753937	3.843632627	T
rs42781654	17	41758421	3.843632627	T
rs43616389	10	14261766	3.839667402	T
rs110785064	14	40832903	3.835638804	C
rs133822572	14	40834978	3.835638804	G
rs109701184	2	135044225	3.826885025	A
rs134262073	2	135061232	3.826885025	G
rs110866096	10	34482573	3.826134783	T
rs41604830	26	28196945	3.815561566	G
rs43354976	3	92983189	3.802056534	A
rs135734418	10	29032168	3.77771954	T
rs43700325	11	29205354	3.763347317	G
rs43701535	11	29206310	3.763347317	A
rs109119871	11	29207614	3.763347317	G
rs43701552	11	29208446	3.763347317	G
rs43048540	11	29228506	3.763347317	A
rs42306995	17	41702459	3.761873315	G
rs135443516	9	65859392	3.753918619	A
rs133087401	9	65860153	3.753918619	C
rs134332052	9	65861243	3.753918619	C
rs135270243	9	65879171	3.753918619	G
rs133800930	9	65889358	3.753918619	T
rs137234024	9	65890250	3.753918619	C

rs136293798	9	65891235	3.753918619	T
rs136979275	9	65895727	3.753918619	G
rs109202959	19	7514783	3.746281982	A
rs134340673	10	15144718	3.7416025	C
rs109711228	15	50978021	3.719140182	T
rs135987526	28	18520683	3.714851977	G
rs136467850	15	54649868	3.704686149	T
rs43618989	10	11496248	3.701449371	G
rs111023847	16	20608750	3.694447987	C
rs110918390	16	20609335	3.694447987	G
rs110001905	16	20610171	3.694447987	A
rs109403663	16	20612167	3.694447987	A
rs108942580	16	20614885	3.694447987	A
rs109726329	16	20615451	3.694447987	C
rs110132689	16	20616455	3.694447987	A
rs109513395	16	20617139	3.694447987	A
rs110663077	10	39854351	3.693917704	C
rs42435974	26	28877559	3.677934056	T
rs137733108	12	12976126	3.675972311	G
rs42422111	3	90823349	3.675190282	A
rs42422098	3	90825605	3.675190282	C
rs42422096	3	90826586	3.675190282	C
rs110502897	6	45848609	3.668025217	C
rs109139712	10	11478732	3.666290057	T
rs135391817	10	11482238	3.666290057	T
rs43488809	6	109419395	3.661360545	C
rs109048873	17	37988898	3.653290211	T
rs109752781	17	37999567	3.653290211	T
rs135575219	17	41741046	3.651960319	T
rs41611251	17	41742069	3.651960319	T
rs109407328	17	41742777	3.651960319	T
rs110264878	17	41746116	3.651960319	T
rs109199653	17	41747600	3.651960319	G
rs137323892	19	11786116	3.64943487	T
rs136457662	29	28578533	3.648974591	A
rs41856186	18	5214466	3.648636063	A
rs109442613	18	5225895	3.648636063	A
rs110805371	10	34407598	3.64764349	T
rs134256203	29	46072112	3.640522943	A
rs42230220	10	29751247	3.638958744	G
rs110803408	9	103674333	3.637892378	C
rs41708297	13	61537602	3.631269978	G
rs109484288	6	108468990	3.628915132	C
rs109133788	18	49684020	3.627804715	T
rs136768665	3	91342794	3.623859956	T
rs109699387	11	42600063	3.622735086	G
rs43617435	10	14229935	3.617247186	T
rs43616344	10	14279631	3.617247186	T
rs42179869	7	89788219	3.604189492	A
rs110465605	7	89800236	3.604189492	T

rs42179853	7	89808465	3.604189492	T
rs42179846	7	89816912	3.604189492	A
rs42179845	7	89820454	3.604189492	G
rs136757535	7	89821932	3.604189492	T
rs42178916	7	89831709	3.604189492	A
rs42178892	7	89842459	3.604189492	A
rs109533174	16	62901191	3.59584457	G
rs110257587	12	12918128	3.583356138	A
rs110745310	12	12925593	3.583356138	A
rs109716027	12	12935119	3.583356138	A
rs135512574	12	12941960	3.583356138	C
rs110541423	12	12946676	3.583356138	T
rs210940686	12	12950359	3.583356138	C
rs110770556	12	12959938	3.583356138	T
rs109138785	12	12980738	3.583356138	A
rs109474774	12	13002261	3.583356138	A
rs110219834	12	13008208	3.583356138	A
rs110094067	12	13020618	3.583356138	A
rs109450381	26	26296160	3.577415756	C
rs43418248	26	27874379	3.575512545	T
rs43418238	26	27878019	3.575512545	G
rs43418237	26	27879888	3.575512545	T
rs109126903	11	46523735	3.575329135	G
rs137303803	21	21173650	3.567662303	C
rs110079373	11	96756491	3.56603655	G
rs110796580	11	96777054	3.56603655	A
rs136932995	26	25658416	3.5653789	C
rs137549287	3	5770104	3.554231467	G
rs132946079	17	10716265	3.552360613	C
rs41573750	17	10726289	3.552360613	T
rs110260876	17	10727750	3.552360613	G
rs42572201	4	91124601	3.547840315	T
rs42572206	4	91127591	3.547840315	T
rs110741324	4	91130350	3.547840315	A
rs109847541	4	91136670	3.547840315	T
rs109527045	4	91158590	3.547840315	G
rs43019584	4	91161129	3.547840315	T
rs43019591	4	91163203	3.547840315	G
rs42957734	4	91180659	3.547840315	C
rs42956722	4	91181932	3.547840315	T
rs42956709	4	91183368	3.547840315	T
rs42573425	4	91311286	3.547840315	G
rs110656903	21	21893359	3.545937526	A
rs109351174	3	56556783	3.544667915	A
rs109747432	3	56570552	3.544667915	A
rs109256407	3	56585697	3.544667915	C
rs133343209	29	26200863	3.539963879	A

rs135942451	4	90401943	3.53243049	A
rs43061363	4	90407999	3.53243049	G
rs134862481	4	90414075	3.53243049	C
rs42953972	4	90415012	3.53243049	T
rs42954026	4	90422526	3.53243049	A
rs110623899	4	90425762	3.53243049	G
rs135621455	4	90428930	3.53243049	A
rs136015399	4	90431785	3.53243049	T
rs42954434	4	90456245	3.53243049	A
rs42436989	4	90502505	3.53243049	T
rs42954027	19	11469210	3.53243049	T
rs110459211	15	22583487	3.531664681	A
rs132635669	10	11663811	3.527354767	A
rs110383759	2	135067905	3.52190773	C
rs110296238	2	135069441	3.52190773	T
rs137654606	11	30120909	3.519420207	G
rs110578425	10	34260119	3.517448796	T
rs110822305	10	34269720	3.517448796	G
rs110174252	10	34271375	3.517448796	A
rs109718130	10	34278604	3.517448796	A
rs135485607	15	3936865	3.510710974	G
rs110521330	27	43792463	3.509502691	G
rs109247220	27	43795174	3.509502691	G
rs134139377	15	46032011	3.503671841	T
rs136575211	27	25015766	3.502020606	T
rs109202339	10	27908334	3.501847277	T
rs134911710	10	27913156	3.501847277	T
rs109630946	10	27923467	3.501847277	A
rs135108032	10	27926282	3.501847277	A
rs110174162	10	27948713	3.501847277	A
rs137223718	10	27949701	3.501847277	G
rs136175781	10	27950452	3.501847277	C
rs133857484	10	27951385	3.501847277	A
rs109055367	10	27953197	3.501847277	G
rs109712672	10	27969361	3.501847277	A
rs135060899	10	27971131	3.501847277	G
rs109834818	10	27975781	3.501847277	A
rs109929709	10	27976538	3.501847277	A
rs137395442	10	27978253	3.501847277	C
rs110948714	10	27981920	3.501847277	C
rs109276009	10	27983389	3.501847277	T
rs109119406	10	27987774	3.501847277	T
rs109393053	10	27989220	3.501847277	G
rs110741778	10	27990512	3.501847277	C
rs109718041	10	27991328	3.501847277	A
rs110676082	10	27993659	3.501847277	A
rs110933562	10	27994618	3.501847277	A

rs110968891	10	27998032	3.501847277	A
rs109263205	10	27998826	3.501847277	C
rs110438571	10	28000036	3.501847277	T
rs110061866	10	28001148	3.501847277	A
rs109345446	10	28001876	3.501847277	G
rs109406918	10	28002566	3.501847277	C
rs137404908	X	106584624	3.491051617	C
rs134000682	X	106601943	3.491051617	G
rs41641989	19	7511302	3.49066656	G
rs135723042	17	42173612	3.48390421	T
rs109491704	17	42186164	3.48390421	T
rs109795284	17	42189018	3.48390421	T
rs136231792	17	42190919	3.48390421	T
rs110808681	10	34182291	3.47996144	A
rs41623451	10	34193887	3.47996144	T
rs134408007	10	34201327	3.47996144	G
rs110049315	12	76826267	3.479667966	C
rs137547770	12	76832234	3.479667966	T
rs135018781	28	43884340	3.479083948	G
rs109004955	10	15226746	3.477491518	G
rs110644177	10	15231607	3.477491518	C
rs137247805	28	30866421	3.458749724	A
rs136227126	28	30867142	3.458749724	T
rs110234333	10	34393478	3.458190041	C
rs137236292	21	8053012	3.457490709	T
rs41963113	21	8061425	3.457490709	T
rs41963125	21	8062897	3.457490709	T
rs110332445	21	8065472	3.457490709	G
rs41963076	21	8071325	3.457490709	T
rs135664235	26	25265647	3.45634136	T
rs110429039	9	97571198	3.455458218	C
rs109503693	9	97572172	3.455458218	A
rs134754035	9	97573217	3.455458218	T
rs110418388	9	97574028	3.455458218	C
rs137051476	3	24671921	3.452247361	G
rs134675792	16	80383679	3.448342703	T
rs136087996	16	80385720	3.448342703	A
rs134310314	15	47264048	3.448021966	C
rs41766844	15	47264872	3.448021966	T
rs41766852	15	47266773	3.448021966	T
rs41766857	15	47268306	3.448021966	A
rs41631859	15	47274125	3.448021966	T
rs41766870	15	47274957	3.448021966	A
rs41766877	15	47275830	3.448021966	T
rs41766891	15	47278941	3.448021966	T
rs110616111	15	47279621	3.448021966	A
rs110069583	15	47280330	3.448021966	A

rs135331709	15	47283531	3.448021966	T
rs41764625	15	47290269	3.448021966	G
rs41764630	15	47290932	3.448021966	G
rs41765840	15	47294915	3.448021966	T
rs41765850	15	47297442	3.448021966	T
rs135103940	15	47298250	3.448021966	A
rs41765859	15	47299091	3.448021966	C
rs41765876	15	47302403	3.448021966	T
rs41765898	15	47304572	3.448021966	A
rs41765904	15	47305423	3.448021966	C
rs41765907	15	47306109	3.448021966	T
rs109916280	15	47307206	3.448021966	G
rs41765913	15	47307914	3.448021966	C
rs42669165	15	47336499	3.448021966	G
rs42669195	15	47357365	3.448021966	C
rs42669201	15	47358546	3.448021966	G
rs42669211	15	47359452	3.448021966	A
rs42669215	15	47360926	3.448021966	A
rs110650579	15	47363154	3.448021966	T
rs110477122	16	20611330	3.437492686	G
rs134322109	10	35133400	3.436990559	A
rs135507523	10	35134070	3.436990559	T
rs42976756	3	5907195	3.435443723	T
rs42976790	3	5909921	3.435443723	T
rs137400107	2	118870999	3.430142009	C
rs109940736	11	102335697	3.427253851	C
rs109462487	26	26358551	3.423511281	T
rs43418314	26	27866959	3.421461295	A
rs43418304	26	27867615	3.421461295	A
rs43418296	26	27868998	3.421461295	A
rs43418241	26	27875295	3.421461295	C
rs136871582	25	29026876	3.418423118	C
rs134778236	25	29028549	3.418423118	G
rs109296602	25	29029462	3.418423118	T
rs133195919	25	29030397	3.418423118	T
rs134990112	25	29032886	3.418423118	A
rs29026849	25	29033600	3.418423118	T
rs134505616	10	14915348	3.417097085	C
rs134775008	10	14992318	3.417097085	G
rs135993868	11	36693585	3.41288933	T
rs109550935	10	14509430	3.410021525	A
rs800022227	18	49707682	3.406825082	C
rs110936103	18	49826315	3.406825082	A
rs109752915	18	49827804	3.406825082	T
rs110052628	18	49829235	3.406825082	G
rs109584832	18	49830124	3.406825082	T
rs110511465	18	49830798	3.406825082	C

rs110721957	18	49831451	3.406825082	C
rs109371909	18	49832385	3.406825082	A
rs136730838	5	68586107	3.4002011	T
rs43615154	10	14374841	3.399155241	T
rs41973031	21	21202324	3.397541583	T
rs41972130	21	21203119	3.397541583	A
rs41972127	21	21205862	3.397541583	T
rs29011369	2	116210744	3.396737757	A
rs43326486	2	116261117	3.396737757	T
rs43326515	2	116317216	3.396737757	C
rs43327275	2	116368014	3.396737757	T
rs43327284	2	116379355	3.396737757	A
rs43328231	2	116433069	3.396737757	A
rs136608836	2	116443823	3.396737757	T
rs110463452	2	116450940	3.396737757	A
rs134877611	2	116481181	3.396737757	T
rs134785162	2	116502303	3.396737757	C
rs110836924	2	116515561	3.396737757	C
rs42350539	3	91406267	3.396283165	T
rs109276053	17	37366043	3.38905385	C
rs42822799	4	91392323	3.388029393	G
rs42822793	4	91401157	3.388029393	A
rs42822797	4	91410156	3.388029393	G
rs110781216	11	16185893	3.38300674	A
rs110700817	17	39991047	3.379336817	T
rs137095327	23	42900015	3.377386947	T
rs132738542	11	43746272	3.371605441	T
rs109954573	2	97056987	3.369612574	A
rs110583355	3	20726185	3.367102737	A
rs110891235	2	135043582	3.362086163	C
rs134075027	16	80373783	3.360130724	C
rs29012884	16	80375118	3.360130724	T
rs137539857	16	80380895	3.360130724	T
rs134130295	11	96300378	3.356836108	A
rs137130502	17	42379744	3.355224205	G
rs110952236	28	14587431	3.352891958	A
rs110529357	27	3587344	3.347190698	G
rs136309760	27	3603082	3.347190698	C
rs136752551	27	3603744	3.347190698	T
rs137721609	27	3605490	3.347190698	C
rs109053110	27	3606725	3.347190698	G
rs133569944	27	3613160	3.347190698	A
rs135112745	27	3619112	3.347190698	A
rs109004577	27	3621325	3.347190698	C
rs133566198	27	3632970	3.347190698	A
rs109288278	1	9155528	3.343575742	C
rs137423771	1	9172574	3.343575742	G

rs132926852	1	9173252	3.343575742	T
rs137188372	1	9174446	3.343575742	G
rs109367978	1	9180914	3.343575742	T
rs109114614	1	9191421	3.343575742	A
rs110149968	1	9196480	3.343575742	A
rs134043952	9	103827095	3.338846162	C
rs132692297	9	96392290	3.337454701	G
rs133696224	18	51793677	3.332942754	T
rs110030120	18	51795302	3.332942754	T
rs137178064	18	51798613	3.332942754	G
rs135147402	18	51800010	3.332942754	T
rs41665411	9	97377573	3.331594763	G
rs134859031	12	76761791	3.327441429	G
rs109206774	28	20301025	3.324366482	G
rs137374997	28	20301881	3.324366482	C
rs110611090	28	20303194	3.324366482	G
rs109913025	28	20307480	3.324366482	T
rs109964809	28	20313646	3.324366482	G
rs109577685	28	20329418	3.324366482	G
rs136797470	28	20330518	3.324366482	T
rs110075596	28	20332119	3.324366482	A
rs109137280	16	20617894	3.320623615	C
rs134411715	16	20619357	3.320623615	A
rs110533869	16	20623978	3.320623615	A
rs43306722	10	39537032	3.317268784	A
rs43306706	10	39546139	3.317268784	T
rs109817054	10	15265576	3.316082909	T
rs109344511	10	15267025	3.316082909	A
rs109679240	10	15269153	3.316082909	A
rs109755527	10	15272047	3.316082909	G
rs109793858	10	15274224	3.316082909	G
rs109985287	10	15291183	3.316082909	A
rs133459576	10	15295267	3.316082909	C
rs42620822	27	42776720	3.312793511	A
rs135051801	18	5113990	3.305450691	A
rs109846857	11	15610039	3.30211409	A
rs42743027	4	91044644	3.299742379	T
rs42743021	4	91045511	3.299742379	G
rs135959622	4	91086150	3.299742379	C
rs42741696	4	91090805	3.299742379	G
rs137081039	4	91095329	3.299742379	C
rs41706372	13	61992391	3.299725575	C
rs110493658	10	34438367	3.298523546	C
rs137347983	10	34447107	3.298523546	A
rs136416791	10	34449394	3.298523546	G
rs134051160	10	34451675	3.298523546	C
rs136476283	10	34454792	3.298523546	C

rs109477546	27	9014873	3.294251483	G
rs134296530	15	3805680	3.286903941	G
rs42188223	29	46051097	3.286597099	C
rs135076653	29	46069381	3.286597099	T
rs137786194	29	46071340	3.286597099	A
rs135523988	29	46073378	3.286597099	A
rs133850293	18	49844762	3.285519188	A
rs137429611	18	49846906	3.285519188	T
rs134644515	18	49854465	3.285519188	T
rs42625901	6	108569050	3.285445958	A
rs136596415	18	51803425	3.283718544	C
rs134480471	18	51808317	3.283718544	T
rs136382907	18	51810825	3.283718544	C
rs110216131	27	2537760	3.283312314	T
rs110326002	27	2538848	3.283312314	C
rs109126345	X	120798197	3.281319397	A
rs110770536	26	27897409	3.280053399	A
rs135171829	4	91013071	3.272038183	C
rs42743846	4	91025117	3.272038183	G
rs134940524	4	91029900	3.272038183	T
rs42743839	4	91030631	3.272038183	G
rs41571562	4	91051469	3.272038183	A
rs42742989	4	91053740	3.272038183	G
rs109212509	4	91054564	3.272038183	T
rs42742950	4	91056364	3.272038183	G
rs42742955	4	91057950	3.272038183	A
rs42742959	4	91059678	3.272038183	C
rs42742963	4	91060347	3.272038183	C
rs42742969	4	91060986	3.272038183	C
rs42742974	4	91061839	3.272038183	G
rs42742985	4	91064044	3.272038183	C
rs137402389	4	91074086	3.272038183	C
rs133246170	4	91114783	3.272038183	G
rs109558636	21	5418214	3.271931695	G
rs110195286	21	5421568	3.271931695	C
rs109620070	21	5422909	3.271931695	C
rs133390385	21	5430195	3.271931695	T
rs134693433	21	5432530	3.271931695	A
rs137550200	21	5433346	3.271931695	G
rs109326223	21	5440289	3.271931695	T
rs110785020	21	5442814	3.271931695	T
rs133787467	21	5444628	3.271931695	T
rs42307500	17	41682839	3.268182182	A
rs110950041	10	15240169	3.268062731	G
rs134759074	10	15240747	3.268062731	T
rs110608086	10	15241322	3.268062731	T
rs110739273	10	15244368	3.268062731	G

rs110774021	10	15245376	3.268062731	A
rs110954734	10	15262140	3.268062731	A
rs110353392	11	102319320	3.266517518	T
rs133980943	4	91528967	3.265842726	T
rs136842498	6	10677303	3.261761701	T
rs134993675	27	43799710	3.261477609	C
rs109829168	27	43801103	3.261477609	T
rs42434777	9	62300403	3.260836335	C
rs133369187	6	108463671	3.259525167	T
rs43706008	12	68755240	3.257897754	C
rs136633863	X	17647347	3.252831054	C
rs137201853	28	20353894	3.249712305	C
rs133190904	11	102309223	3.249568667	G
rs134715529	11	102310272	3.249568667	T
rs136173225	17	10404541	3.246660635	T
rs132676958	9	65909445	3.245590821	G
rs110893833	17	41778376	3.243968586	G
rs110946010	9	103692309	3.242853175	T
rs109631568	9	103692964	3.242853175	G
rs110789880	9	103697889	3.242853175	A
rs132729670	9	103722885	3.242853175	A
rs110277541	9	103724091	3.242853175	A
rs110296542	6	45833672	3.237847779	G
rs110860625	7	89520670	3.233998582	C
rs109391677	9	98238057	3.233200069	C
rs41667147	17	41720570	3.227988184	A
rs41667178	17	41723453	3.227988184	T
rs41679969	12	76906934	3.227322103	G
rs135237762	9	97532057	3.22542096	T
rs132843341	9	97532971	3.22542096	T
rs43354180	3	92472331	3.22451027	T
rs43354182	3	92484809	3.22451027	T
rs43354191	3	92500456	3.22451027	T
rs43354201	3	92505029	3.22451027	A
rs42199706	7	31224439	3.224271457	G
rs42890503	29	28662664	3.218625428	C
rs134551478	18	49841563	3.214677758	T
rs110499373	27	24803258	3.213846196	A
rs41703808	13	60739302	3.209255175	C
rs41703814	13	60740826	3.209255175	A
rs135915757	2	72801094	3.208396431	A
rs135464279	12	67062990	3.207516544	A
rs42094261	26	26098742	3.206601056	A
rs42309434	4	118211468	3.204172924	T
rs109072712	27	30671561	3.201586133	C
rs137813779	15	6996317	3.200806888	G
rs41574223	11	102329426	3.200555935	T

rs41571435	11	102331407	3.200555935	T
rs136400600	11	102333185	3.200555935	G
rs109104765	11	102336231	3.200555935	G
rs134244722	11	102347819	3.200555935	C
rs110950384	10	34633682	3.199509483	C
rs110976214	10	34636005	3.199509483	C
rs133491211	28	18509947	3.199087297	A
rs133796959	28	18515950	3.199087297	A
rs134041938	7	98557529	3.197304808	A
rs109354718	7	98566391	3.197304808	C
rs110620868	14	37960177	3.195762246	G
rs109588849	4	9155979	3.194702115	A
rs134925464	4	9157466	3.194702115	T
rs110747955	4	9169373	3.194702115	G
rs108978929	4	9171340	3.194702115	G
rs109200993	4	9175665	3.194702115	A
rs109550058	4	9176248	3.194702115	A
rs110782546	4	9180014	3.194702115	C
rs110766969	4	9181924	3.194702115	G
rs110542894	4	9184443	3.194702115	A
rs109872926	4	9186322	3.194702115	G
rs109555021	4	9187560	3.194702115	T
rs133113391	4	9188973	3.194702115	G
rs110008785	4	9190080	3.194702115	T
rs109830573	4	9192487	3.194702115	A
rs136833626	4	9193149	3.194702115	C
rs110227344	4	9194698	3.194702115	T
rs137741495	4	9195864	3.194702115	C
rs109582833	4	9196384	3.194702115	C
rs110996175	4	9202160	3.194702115	C
rs41649756	4	9203380	3.194702115	T
rs109304683	4	9203946	3.194702115	C
rs135642012	4	90507887	3.192964556	C
rs110508072	4	90510460	3.192964556	C
rs135728603	4	90522341	3.192964556	T
rs110807111	4	90525031	3.192964556	T
rs134895773	4	90525835	3.192964556	C
rs110041213	4	90529431	3.192964556	G
rs109847272	4	90533691	3.192964556	C
rs135236859	4	90535585	3.192964556	G
rs133775221	4	90540601	3.192964556	C
rs109172349	4	90541223	3.192964556	G
rs136148020	4	90545284	3.192964556	G
rs110575673	11	42584714	3.191254642	G
rs109447838	11	42585516	3.191254642	T
rs109438861	11	42593606	3.191254642	C
rs109889274	11	42596497	3.191254642	T

rs42287596	7	33883766	3.189005816	T
rs133957935	4	19344855	3.188761105	T
rs135986439	4	19346351	3.188761105	T
rs132639525	4	19347907	3.188761105	G
rs134542151	4	19350451	3.188761105	T
rs132948098	3	91375387	3.187737698	G
rs136849824	11	37467110	3.183881606	G
rs137255173	11	37487155	3.183881606	G
rs109278103	11	37493130	3.183881606	A
rs110025285	11	37494839	3.183881606	A
rs132976440	7	31015249	3.183524696	A
rs43579588	8	105240087	3.181751899	A
rs110453415	24	53850563	3.181485439	G
rs135719064	16	20502906	3.179219707	A
rs109920725	16	20509935	3.179219707	A
rs110536976	16	20547179	3.179219707	T
rs41255381	11	102372360	3.176418169	G
rs108986684	11	102384045	3.176418169	G
rs109581668	24	54495215	3.176163505	A
rs110134632	24	54495934	3.176163505	C
rs137033644	X	90821291	3.174601939	T
rs135644841	26	25671490	3.171533024	G
rs42097093	26	25675473	3.171533024	G
rs109399466	10	28046636	3.16912882	G
rs41668105	12	76851725	3.169066788	C
rs41884306	18	49803763	3.166440454	G
rs109818611	4	17256442	3.165984424	C
rs137621015	4	17265172	3.165984424	G
rs110756908	4	17265949	3.165984424	T
rs110291582	4	17266853	3.165984424	T
rs109783538	4	17267806	3.165984424	A
rs133565311	4	17271497	3.165984424	A
rs110884608	4	17273366	3.165984424	G
rs109154308	4	17274912	3.165984424	G
rs109585036	19	8240893	3.161083557	A
rs41666998	12	68271937	3.159651103	A
rs136402214	23	40834768	3.159447603	T
rs133897861	23	40836579	3.159447603	A
rs41569491	10	13373269	3.157691601	C
rs41619924	17	11367675	3.151175936	A
rs41619926	17	11391752	3.151175936	A
rs42880540	17	11407035	3.151175936	C
rs42691544	15	5058540	3.150457207	T
rs42415316	10	39028282	3.150169767	C
rs136359869	10	39029090	3.150169767	A
rs42415320	10	39029787	3.150169767	T
rs42410538	10	39032213	3.150169767	C

rs109328536	10	39037912	3.150169767	T
rs43618980	10	11495213	3.149188625	G
rs133096287	11	69539045	3.148441969	G
rs109986884	11	69540272	3.148441969	A
rs41604688	3	90770539	3.148305403	G
rs42423304	3	90765771	3.148305403	A
rs42423302	3	90769435	3.148305403	A
rs41836702	26	28192862	3.144206218	C
rs41604826	26	28193472	3.144206218	A
rs41836713	26	28194285	3.144206218	G
rs41837632	26	28195737	3.144206218	G
rs41837646	26	28197815	3.144206218	A
rs41837651	26	28199991	3.144206218	C
rs134942554	26	28200869	3.144206218	A
rs41837664	26	28202542	3.144206218	G
rs41837665	26	28203265	3.144206218	A
rs109135855	6	45845263	3.144023491	T
rs135890677	6	45853339	3.144023491	G
rs110858846	6	45861086	3.144023491	T
rs136076532	9	97586690	3.142161648	G
rs132952962	10	14658435	3.137810362	G
rs109180951	28	31204958	3.136475937	T
rs136456101	28	31206165	3.136475937	G
rs136341552	X	92725516	3.134137478	A
rs42584654	6	4888244	3.134052041	G
rs110946154	5	97426617	3.129526615	T
rs110729080	5	97435197	3.129526615	A
rs136811150	7	39875547	3.12811969	G
rs109542089	11	78673403	3.128089748	A
rs136068749	11	78679962	3.128089748	G
rs110792012	11	78687979	3.128089748	A
rs109788835	11	78693214	3.128089748	A
rs42718765	3	93811195	3.127079567	T
rs133304868	17	33892418	3.126364031	C
rs137641657	27	309276	3.12223744	A
rs29013678	2	119390554	3.122146871	C
rs110184871	2	119404166	3.122146871	A
rs110397335	2	119405235	3.122146871	C
rs110037371	18	49703830	3.119651106	C
rs134829952	26	8468758	3.117604293	A
rs136971417	4	20277122	3.11717339	T
rs136177868	8	7488870	3.116148286	T
rs42914113	10	90274472	3.113837034	T
rs137408584	10	90294811	3.113837034	C
rs43619617	10	31072492	3.11062073	C
rs43619619	10	31079958	3.11062073	C
rs134753825	10	31093137	3.11062073	A

rs43769813	10	31100363	3.11062073	A
rs137148762	17	37971352	3.108355235	T
rs135668452	17	37974917	3.108355235	A
rs110458553	17	37975827	3.108355235	C
rs134482616	17	37976731	3.108355235	G
rs133316400	17	37991827	3.108355235	T
rs41567083	17	38001105	3.108355235	A
rs137692466	29	22208092	3.106706804	A
rs133730050	10	18557936	3.105290125	C
rs42307494	17	41686505	3.102338037	A
rs136937470	17	41687319	3.102338037	T
rs42306997	17	41701959	3.102338037	T
rs42306988	17	41710220	3.102338037	G
rs41594602	17	41710814	3.102338037	G
rs42306972	17	41714001	3.102338037	G
rs110262369	11	80363995	3.101961624	G
rs110066674	11	80365976	3.101961624	C
rs109072977	7	33452602	3.099882435	T
rs43618994	10	11498562	3.096714343	T
rs43619004	10	11502981	3.096714343	A
rs108947346	10	11504567	3.096714343	G
rs109320019	10	11505110	3.096714343	C
rs136837752	2	77402401	3.095079099	A
rs134898712	2	77408791	3.095079099	G
rs43114451	2	77410104	3.095079099	A
rs133646028	9	96369957	3.092594656	A
rs137193544	20	12386335	3.089779692	A
rs135048392	4	9321332	3.089742433	G
rs109123301	27	3808044	3.089295934	C
rs110915880	27	3809006	3.089295934	C
rs110727594	27	3810639	3.089295934	T
rs109338247	27	3820475	3.089295934	T
rs41971212	21	21547822	3.087393124	G
rs134446726	13	61484398	3.083348862	T
rs109300977	16	21376068	3.082209646	T
rs137292613	15	23175841	3.08175322	G
rs110258423	10	29718121	3.079582163	C
rs43616376	10	14258096	3.078740179	T
rs109609662	10	14264457	3.078740179	T
rs110956596	10	14271326	3.078740179	C
rs137608138	27	20504395	3.076785852	T
rs133261547	27	20505934	3.076785852	C
rs41598713	10	11571743	3.07580214	A
rs29022854	4	106321900	3.070621877	A
rs136741195	4	106328752	3.070621877	G
rs136442787	5	41037898	3.069245785	A
rs134869709	5	41048689	3.069245785	C

rs137793969	5	41051042	3.069245785	G
rs41619458	17	10396137	3.067403711	G
rs109460994	7	32226154	3.066312091	A
rs110338491	9	20446443	3.06585316	C
rs137384335	9	20474683	3.06585316	C
rs41566638	11	94071468	3.061720153	G
rs41566639	11	94095363	3.061720153	G
rs41566640	11	94101466	3.061720153	T
rs137848095	11	94103660	3.061720153	C
rs137111321	11	94125261	3.061720153	A
rs135844990	11	94126990	3.061720153	C
rs133488368	11	94130741	3.061720153	A
rs135362767	11	94137569	3.061720153	G
rs133163960	11	94142045	3.061720153	C
rs133228922	11	94157282	3.061720153	C
rs137261893	11	94161778	3.061720153	A
rs41566641	11	94446742	3.061720153	T
rs136735251	11	94458546	3.061720153	A
rs134890269	22	38209582	3.060969843	G
rs110151708	24	53584633	3.059266467	G
rs134469680	24	53647985	3.059266467	C
rs41587428	3	20727422	3.058836777	A
rs133503031	17	41750810	3.055687311	G
rs109685974	6	1646307	3.054860245	C
rs42998566	6	1712714	3.054860245	G
rs42873303	6	1776509	3.054860245	G
rs109101146	11	37436464	3.052703378	T
rs135507951	11	37499319	3.052703378	T
rs134539773	1	9136608	3.051983047	G
rs134476953	3	90818585	3.050303974	A
rs134508681	27	25171321	3.047656763	T
rs42633912	26	36608784	3.046595379	G
rs43120804	17	11784143	3.045144937	C
rs134112858	4	91304669	3.04413363	G
rs110363109	4	91305332	3.04413363	T
rs132996808	4	91307320	3.04413363	A
rs42574539	4	91308203	3.04413363	G
rs135393323	4	91309151	3.04413363	G
rs133214867	4	91310256	3.04413363	G
rs135925889	11	80423078	3.044019522	A
rs135415596	11	80432266	3.044019522	T
rs110562044	11	80440180	3.044019522	G
rs135752409	9	35835329	3.040729485	A
rs41668076	12	76871379	3.038966693	C
rs109250741	17	41738251	3.035858125	C
rs42174547	29	25876364	3.035625358	A
rs42174558	29	25877577	3.035625358	C

rs132896883	29	25878907	3.035625358	G
rs133952565	26	25665978	3.034792469	A
rs137389486	X	56899350	3.032715962	C
rs42358070	16	64382007	3.03201204	G
rs135141127	5	55223818	3.031366658	C
rs110079960	4	14382671	3.030198654	T
rs136816057	8	103151786	3.03013748	C
rs109933177	18	49804652	3.030089291	A
rs133858057	18	49806791	3.030089291	G
rs109833294	18	49808001	3.030089291	T
rs110634591	18	49808532	3.030089291	T
rs110700417	18	49810196	3.030089291	A
rs42550173	9	57878818	3.029814845	C
rs109073837	9	57938963	3.029814845	A
rs133836094	16	52097690	3.029701627	A
rs42435944	26	28854387	3.028548934	A
rs109106349	4	15641166	3.02742991	T
rs133633650	9	85232186	3.026904167	G
rs135320876	17	46212141	3.021482544	T
rs132870941	17	46214774	3.021482544	T
rs134152512	17	46215571	3.021482544	C
rs135356708	17	46217001	3.021482544	A
rs133010301	17	46218318	3.021482544	A
rs132770494	9	87270703	3.021111305	A
rs135200117	X	142871442	3.018211447	C
rs136742797	29	22180284	3.017631735	T
rs137115882	3	105906013	3.016694846	C
rs133218184	1	13753312	3.016631115	A
rs135399735	1	13879534	3.016631115	G
rs109400802	1	13899013	3.016631115	A
rs110695322	1	13901306	3.016631115	A
rs136598771	1	13997990	3.016631115	G
rs41620921	7	32655349	3.015837284	A
rs42065895	7	32664122	3.015837284	A
rs110391851	7	35805518	3.015837284	A
rs109830170	7	35814180	3.015837284	T
rs133228921	3	90794047	3.015756824	A
rs137161699	X	105051845	3.015376242	C
rs135689626	10	35112151	3.015309983	A
rs110868693	17	41718080	3.014450931	A
rs109973902	10	15367638	3.013635399	T
rs43410902	4	91099205	3.013601801	C
rs42179558	29	28584509	3.01279943	C
rs110521499	3	88708244	3.00966213	T
rs134331064	2	72885823	3.007280514	T
rs110713433	2	135120564	3.006187294	C
rs110367201	2	135128893	3.006187294	A

rs135870948	2	135130866	3.006187294	C
rs136792452	2	135131655	3.006187294	T
rs134612066	2	135132299	3.006187294	C
rs135740697	2	135132854	3.006187294	T
rs110581623	1	15591002	3.004488715	T
rs133956665	24	54038094	3.004295257	A
rs109346861	13	564192	3.004100587	T
rs109531470	13	576926	3.004100587	T
rs109645110	13	584808	3.004100587	A
rs134953798	13	599841	3.004100587	T
rs110838698	3	86361340	3.00152615	G
rs109496760	12	79248382	3.001163077	T

CURRICULUM VITAE

JACQUELINE PATRICE KURZ

97 S 100 W
Mendon, UT 84325
(435) 713-5563
Jacqueline.LaRose@usu.edu

SUMMARY

American College of Veterinary Pathologists Board-certified veterinary anatomic pathologist. Currently working as a Clinical Assistant Professor (Temporary) and Extension Veterinary Pathologist for the Utah Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory, Utah State University. PhD in animal molecular genetics at Utah State University. Veterinary graduate of the University of Edinburgh, Scotland. Supporting BS degree in animal science, and experience in veterinary research, regulated laboratory procedures, and livestock husbandry. Member of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons (United Kingdom), and licensed veterinarian in the state of Utah.

EDUCATION

Veterinary Anatomic Pathology Residency – 2011 to 2017
Utah Veterinary Diagnostic Laboratory, Utah State University – Logan, UT

PhD, Animal Molecular Genetics – 2012 to 2017
Utah State University – Logan, UT

BVM&S, with Distinction – 2010
University of Edinburgh, Royal (Dick) School of Veterinary Studies – Edinburgh, UK
AVMA-accredited veterinary degree.

BS, Animal Science, *magna cum laude* – 2006
Cornell University, College of Agriculture and Life Sciences – Ithaca, NY

EXPERIENCE

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

2017-Present

Clinical Assistant Professor, Temporary, Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Science

American College of Veterinary Pathologists Board-certified anatomic veterinary pathologist with extension veterinary pathologist (70%), teaching (25%), and departmental service (5%) duties. Extension veterinary pathologist duties include performance, interpretation, and reporting of necropsies, histopathology, and ancillary testing. Teaching responsibilities include assistance of primary instructors for general and systemic veterinary pathology courses in the USU veterinary school, resident training, and organization and teaching of resident seminar series. Departmental service duties encompass service on departmental committees.

UTAH STATE UNIVERSITY

2011-2017

Veterinary Anatomic Pathology Residency

Veterinary residency working toward eligibility for Board certification under the American College of Veterinary Pathologists. Duties involved primary case responsibility for animals submitted for necropsy and samples submitted for surgical pathology, and graduate teaching assistant assignments in Microscopic Anatomy, General Pathology, and Systemic Pathology at the veterinary school level.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH AND AVIAGEN – Edinburgh, UK

2010

Poultry Medicine Elective Rotation

Veterinary rotation working with the poultry veterinary service at the University of Edinburgh and the global poultry genetics company Aviagen. Duties performed included poultry handling, health and welfare assessment, disease detection and treatment, post mortem examination, egg quality assessment, and flock management.

UNIVERSITY OF EDINBURGH, VETERINARY PATHOLOGY UNIT – 2009
Edinburgh, UK

Research Assistant

Member of scientific research team investigating causes of mortality in red squirrels in Scotland, contributing to knowledge vital to wildlife conservation efforts. Lead author on resulting publication.

VETERINARY PRACTICES AND SERVICES – UK and USA 2008-2010

Clinical Veterinary Extramural Work

Placements

Clinical veterinary work external to university schooling included placements in small animal practice (10 weeks), farm animal practice (2 weeks), farm assurance assessment (2 weeks), equine hospital/intensive care (2 weeks), exotics/wildlife hospital (1 week), and abattoir (1 week). Duties included assistance with client consultations, clinical examination, patient monitoring and treatment, disease diagnosis, surgery, post mortem examination, herd health evaluation, and welfare assessment.

ADVION BIOSERVICES – Ithaca, NY 2001-2006

Laboratory Technician Intern

Performed and documented instrument and laboratory maintenance, sample custody, and clinical supply logistics in a regulated bioanalytical laboratory.

CORNELL UNIVERSITY SHEEP RESEARCH & TEACHING 2002-2005
UNIT – Hartford, NY

Farm Worker

Responsible for the husbandry of sheep, including lambing ewes and lambs, in a 750-ewe flock.

HEGDALE FARM – Cumbria, UK 2004

Resident Farm Worker

Responsible for the daily husbandry and management of sheep, calves, pigs, and free-range poultry on a small family-run farm.

PROFESSIONAL AFFILIATIONS

Diplomate, American College of Veterinary Pathologists

Licensed veterinarian, state of Utah

Member of the Royal College of Veterinary Surgeons (United Kingdom)

PUBLICATIONS

A.J. Van Wettere, J. P. Kurz, A. Wilhelm, and J. D. Ipsen. Opisthotonos and unilateral internal hydrocephalus associated with aberrant migration of *Serratospiculum spp.* in a prairie falcon (*Falco mexicanus*). Journal of Veterinary Diagnostic Investigation, accepted 2017.

D. J. Wilson and J. P. Kurz. (2017) Genetic sequencing using 16S rRNA for pathogen identification in retropharyngeal lymph nodes from wild elk. Human-Wildlife Interactions 11(1), 19-21.

J. P. LaRose, A.L. Meredith, D.J. Everest, C. Fiegna, C.J. McInnes, D.J. Shaw, and E.M. Milne. (2010) Epidemiological and post-mortem findings from 262 red squirrels (*Sciurus vulgaris*) in Scotland (2002-2009). Veterinary Record 167, 297-302.

AWARDS

2014 College of Agriculture and Applied Sciences Graduate Student Teacher of the Year. Utah State University, Logan, Utah. 18 September 2014.

2013 Utah State University Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Science Department Graduate Student Symposium, 1st place PhD track oral presentation. Utah State University, Logan, UT. 5 August 2013.

LECTURES

“Genetic Markers of Bovine Mastitis Resistance.” Animal, Dairy, and Veterinary Science/Center for Integrated Biotechnology Seminar Series. Utah State University, Logan, UT. 7 September 2017.

“Lecture Series: Lower GI System: Intestine, Parts I, II, and III.” Systemic Pathology, VM 7546. Utah State University, Logan, UT. September 2017, September 2016, and September 2015.

“Lecture series: Ruminant Stomach, Parts I and II.” Systemic Pathology, VM 7546. Utah State University, Logan, UT. September 2017, September 2016, September 2015, and September 2014.

“Case Study: Hyperkalemic Periodic Paralysis in a Quarter Horse.” Veterinary Physiology I, VM 7519. Utah State University, Logan, UT. October 2015 and October 2014.

“Digestive System: Intestine.” Microscopic Anatomy, VM 7510. Utah State University, Logan, UT. October 2012.

RESEARCH SUPPORT

2014-2015: Molecular characterization of the involvement of phospholipid A2 (PLA2) in the immune response to mastitis pathogens in dairy cattle in vivo and in vitro. PI: Z. Wang. Utah Agriculture Experiment Station Grants Program, \$9,004.52 awarded.

2013-2014: Differences in production of IL-1 β , IL-6, and TNF- α by cultured bovine mammary epithelial cells from mastitis-resistant and mastitis-susceptible Holstein dairy cows. PI: D.J. Wilson, Co-PI: J. LaRose. Utah Agriculture Experiment Station Grants Program, \$10,000 awarded.