



## Effects of dietary antioxidant supplementation on metabolism and inflammatory biomarkers in heat-stressed dairy cows

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### ABSTRACT

Heat-stress-induced inflammation may be ameliorated by antioxidant supplementation due to the purported effects of increased production of reactive oxygen species or oxidative stress on the gastrointestinal tract barrier. Thus, study objectives were to evaluate whether antioxidant supplementation [AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP); EW Nutrition] affects metabolism and inflammatory biomarkers in heat-stressed lactating dairy cows. Thirty-two mid-lactation multiparous Holstein cows were assigned to 1 of 4 dietary-environmental treatments: (1) thermoneutral (TN) conditions and fed a control diet (TN-CON;  $n = 8$ ), (2) TN and fed a diet with AP (10 g antioxidant;  $n = 8$ ), (3) heat stress (HS) and fed a control diet (HS-CON;  $n = 8$ ), or (4) HS and fed a diet with AP (HS-AP;  $n = 8$ ). The trial consisted of a 23-d prefeeding phase and 2 experimental periods (P). Respective dietary treatments were top-dressed starting on d 1 of the prefeeding period and continued daily throughout the duration of the experiment. During P1 (4 d), baseline data were collected. During P2 (7 d), HS was artificially induced using an electric heat blanket (Thermotex Therapy Systems Ltd.). During P2, the effects of treatment, day, and treatment-by-day interaction were assessed using PROC MIXED of SAS (SAS Institute Inc.). Heat stress (treatments 3 and 4) increased rectal, vaginal, and skin temperatures (1.2°C, 1.1°C, and 2.0°C, respectively) and respiration rate (33 breaths per minute) relative to TN cows. As expected, HS decreased dry matter intake, milk yield, and energy-corrected milk yield (32%, 28%, and 28% from d 4 to 7, respectively) relative to TN. There were no effects of AP on body temperature indices or production. Milk fat, protein, and lactose concentrations remained unaltered by HS or AP; however, milk urea nitrogen was increased during HS regardless of AP supplementation

(26% relative to TN). Circulating glucose remained unchanged by HS, AP, or time. Additionally, HS decreased circulating glucagon (29% from d 3 to 7 relative to TN), but there was no additional effect of AP. There was a tendency for nonesterified fatty acid concentrations to be increased in HS-AP cows throughout P2 (60% relative to TN-CON), whereas it remained similar in all other treatments. Blood urea nitrogen increased for both HS treatments from d 1 to 3 before steadily decreasing from d 5 to 7, with the overall increase being most pronounced in HS-CON cows (27% relative to TN-CON). Further, supplementing AP decreased blood urea nitrogen in HS-AP on d 3 relative to HS-CON (15%). Circulating serum amyloid A tended to be and lipopolysaccharide binding protein was increased by HS, but neither acute-phase protein was affected by AP. Overall, AP supplementation appeared to marginally alter metabolism but did not meaningfully alter inflammation during HS.

**Key words:** leaky gut, ethoxyquin

### INTRODUCTION

Heat stress (HS) occurs when an animal's ability to dissipate heat is outweighed by the combination of internal thermogenesis and environmental heat accumulation (Kadzere et al., 2002). Ultimately, HS has detrimental impacts on production [i.e., DMI and milk yield (MY)], morbidity, and mortality (Bernabucci et al., 2010; Burhans et al., 2022), and it thus presents a significant financial burden to livestock producers globally (approximately \$1.5 billion/year in the US dairy industry alone; Key and Sneeringer, 2014). Projected rises in global ambient temperature, compounded with genetic selection for improved production performance (which inevitably increases metabolic heat production), create an increasingly urgent need to identify HS mitigation strategies (Kadzere et al., 2002; Brown-Brandl et al., 2004). Although several heat abatement approaches are commercially implemented (e.g., shade, sprinklers, and forced air movement), dairy cow productivity is still

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compromised during the warm summer months (Baumgard and Rhoads, 2013; Collier et al., 2019). Thus, the endeavor to identify affordable and practical mitigation strategies to ameliorate HS remains pressing.

The multitude of physiological responses to HS are similar to those observed during immunoactivation, albeit with some unique to HS, and are often hypothesized to be a consequence of an energetically expensive inflammatory response secondary to HS-induced intestinal barrier dysfunction (Johnson, 2012; Baumgard and Rhoads, 2013; Kvidera et al., 2017a). Mechanistically, the cause of HS-induced intestinal hyperpermeability is not fully understood, but it is likely multifactorial, including redistribution of blood flow from the core to the periphery, rumen acidosis, and psychological stress (Lambert, 2009; Mayorga et al., 2020; Burhans et al., 2022). Intestinal hypoxia and ischemia are a consequence of the altered hierarchy of blood trafficking, and they contribute to increased intestinal production of reactive oxygen species and oxidative stress (OS) during HS (Hall et al., 1999, 2001; Cao et al., 2018). Although inconsistent (Di Costanzo et al., 1997; Ma et al., 2020), some evidence suggests that feeding supplemental antioxidants to heat-stressed farm animals can increase productivity (Aréchiga et al., 1998; Puthongsiriporn et al., 2001; Sun et al., 2019). This appears to be mediated, at least in part, by their ability to improve intestinal barrier function during environmentally induced hyperthermia (Hall et al., 2001; Oliver et al., 2012; Liu et al., 2016). Thus, increased production of intestinal reactive oxygen species and OS may contribute to the HS-induced inflammatory milieu, and it presents a potential target for nutrition-focused mitigation strategies.

The antioxidant supplemented herein [AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP); EW Nutrition] is a proprietary blend of primarily ethoxyquin, tertiary butyl hydroquinone, and citric acid, all 3 of which have been used as feed preservatives that are capable of retarding lipid oxidation during storage (Hawrysh et al., 1988; Błaszczuk et al., 2013; Pop and Mihalescu, 2017). In addition, these ingredients have increased plasma glutathione peroxidase activity in chicks, enhanced production in poultry and dairy cows, and improved cell viability in heat-stressed bovine mammary cells (Combs and Scott, 1974; Cabel et al., 1988; Vázquez-Añón et al., 2008; Jin et al., 2016). Under a variety of stressful circumstances (e.g., HS, high-altitude hypoxia, and feeding oxidized fat) in various species, antioxidant supplementation has improved intestinal barrier function (Xu et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2016) and production (Aréchiga et al., 1998; Sahin et al., 2002; Vázquez-Añón et al., 2008), but the production benefits are not always corroborated (Di Costanzo et al., 1997; Persson Waller et al., 2007), and

excess supplementation has even been associated with increased risk or occurrence of mastitis in cows (Bouwstra et al., 2010a,b). Therefore, experimental objectives were to evaluate the effects of dietary AP supplementation on production, metabolism, and inflammation (as a proxy for intestinal barrier dysfunction) in heat-stressed lactating dairy cows. We hypothesized that supplementation of a dietary antioxidant blend would improve intestinal integrity during HS and thus result in decreased inflammation, altered metabolism, and improved production metrics in HS-AP cows.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### *Animals, Diets, and Experimental Design*

All procedures were approved by the Iowa State University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. Thirty-two mid-lactation multiparous lactating Holstein cows were balanced by MY, DIM, BW, parity, and presumed pregnancy status ( $699 \pm 69$  kg of BW;  $139 \pm 28$  DIM; parity  $2.4 \pm 0.9$ ) and used in an experiment conducted in 3 replications. Before the start of the experimental phase (i.e., before cows were moved into individual pens), cows were enrolled in a 23-d prefeeding period and assigned to 1 of 2 daily top-dressed dietary treatments: (1) control (CON; 500 g of ground corn) or (2) AP supplemented (490 g of ground corn + 10 g antioxidant; blend of ethoxyquin, tertiary butyl hydroquinone, citric acid, and calcium carbonate). After the prefeeding phase, cows were moved to individual box stalls ( $4.57 \times 4.57$  m) at the Iowa State University Dairy Farm (Ames, IA), where they continued to receive their respective dietary treatments daily. Cows were allowed 3 d to acclimate to new housing conditions, and during this time jugular catheters were implanted as previously described (Horst et al., 2020a). Following acclimation, the trial consisted of 2 experimental periods. Period 1 (P1) lasted 4 d, during which baseline data were obtained. Period 2 (P2) lasted 7 d, during which cows were assigned to 1 of 2 environmental treatments: (1) thermoneutral (TN) or (2) HS [HS conditions induced via an electric heat blanket (EHB)]. Environmental and dietary combinations resulted in 4 total treatments during P2: (1) TN + CON (TN-CON;  $n = 8$ ), (2) TN + AP (TN-AP;  $n = 8$ ), (3) HS + CON (HS-CON;  $n = 8$ ), and (4) HS + AP (HS-AP;  $n = 8$ ). One TN-CON and 2 TN-AP cows were removed from the final data set due to illness unrelated to treatment or environment. One TN-AP cow got mastitis before P2. The other 2 were hypophagic and had severely decreased milk production before P2. They were evaluated by a veterinarian, but a specific pathology was not obvious. Because our

primary objectives were related to immune activation during P2, we removed these 3 cows from the data set.

### EHB and Ambient Temperature

An EHB containing 12 infrared heating pads (Ther-motex Therapy Systems Ltd.) was securely fitted to each cow using adjustable straps to account for cow size variation, as we have previously described (Al-Qaisi et al., 2019, 2020a,b), and this technique has been successfully used by other groups (Holdorf and White, 2021; Pate et al., 2021). In brief, a retractable 110-V electrical cord with auto-rewind was attached to the ceiling in the center of the box stall and to the EHB at the withers to power the blanket while simultaneously allowing for natural movement and behavior in the box stalls. The EHB remained at the same heat intensity (high) on the cows for the entirety of P2 and were monitored 3 times daily (0600, 1200, and 1800 h) to ensure they remained on and functional throughout the experiment. All cows were exposed to TN ambient conditions throughout the duration of the experiment ( $17^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 6^{\circ}\text{C}$ ,  $63\% \pm 13\%$  relative humidity, and  $61 \pm 8$  temperature humidity index). Ambient temperature and humidity were monitored and recorded every 10 min by data loggers (Lascar EL-USB-2-LCD) and condensed into daily averages.

### Feed Intake, MY, and Milk Composition

All cows were fed once daily (0800 h) a diet formulated to meet or exceed the predicted requirements (NRC, 2001; Table 1) of energy, protein, minerals, and vitamins. Orts were measured daily before feeding. Cows were milked twice daily (0600 and 1800 h), and yield was recorded. A sample for milk composition analysis was obtained at each milking during P1 and P2. Samples were stored at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  with a preservative (bronopol tablet; D & F Control System) until analysis by Dairy Lab Services (Dubuque, IA) using AOAC-approved infrared analysis equipment and procedures (AOAC International, 1995).

### Body Temperature Indices

Rectal temperature, skin temperature, and respiration rate were obtained 3 times daily during P1 and P2 (0600, 1200, and 1800 h) and condensed into daily averages. Rectal temperatures were measured using a digital thermometer (GLA M900 Digital Thermometer). Skin temperatures were measured on the neck in an area not covered by the EHB using an infrared thermometer (IRT207: The Heat Seeker 8:1 Mid-Range Infrared Thermometer, General Tool). Respiration rates were

determined by counting flank movements for 15 s and multiplying the observed rate by 4 to obtain breaths per minute. Continuous vaginal temperatures were recorded every 10 min starting on d 3 of P1 through the end of P2 and were obtained using calibrated temperature loggers (iButton DS 1921, Maxim Integrated) that were fitted into the hollowed-out center of a blank controlled internal drug release (Zoetis) with a silicone aquarium sealant (Aqueon) and inserted into the vagina with an applicator as previously described (Al-Qaisi et al., 2020a,c). Time of controlled internal drug release insertion and removal were recorded, with the first hour of temperature data removed to allow for acclimation and to ensure data accuracy.

### Blood Analysis

Blood samples were collected from the jugular catheter at 0600 h on d 4 of P1, and on d 1, 3, 5, and 7 of P2 in tubes containing  $\text{K}_2\text{EDTA}$  (BD) for plasma and glucagon analysis. For glucagon analysis, 3 mL of whole blood was collected and added to a  $\text{K}_2\text{EDTA}$  tube containing 150  $\mu\text{L}$  of aprotinin (BP2503-10; Thermo Fisher Scientific). Plasma samples were harvested following centrifugation (immediately after collection from the catheter) at  $1,500 \times g$  for 15 min at  $4^{\circ}\text{C}$  and were subsequently frozen at  $-20^{\circ}\text{C}$  until analysis. Samples for complete blood count analysis were collected at 0600 h from d 2 to 4 of P1 and daily during P2. Blood (4 mL) was collected from the catheter and placed into a tube containing  $\text{K}_2\text{EDTA}$  and stored at room temperature (approximately 3 h) before submitting to the Iowa

**Table 1.** Ingredients and composition of diet<sup>1</sup>

Ingredient	% of DM
Corn silage	30.1
Alfalfa hay	21.5
Ground corn	26.2
Mineral and protein mix	7.6
Corn gluten feed	6.0
Soybean meal	2.6
Soy Plus <sup>2</sup>	6.0
Chemical analysis <sup>3</sup> (% of DM unless noted)	
Starch	26.3
CP	16.6
NDF	30.6
ADF	21.5
NE <sub>L</sub> (Mcal/kg of DM)	1.6

<sup>1</sup>Values represent an average of ration nutrient summary reports collected throughout the trial. Diet DM averaged 46.3%.

<sup>2</sup>Mechanically processed soybean meal (Dairy Nutrition Plus).

<sup>3</sup>Average nutrient levels: 4.61% fat, 0.84% Ca, 0.42% P, 0.33% Mg, 0.20% S, 1.34% K, 0.40% Na, 0.51% Cl, 77.66 mg/kg of Zn, 44.16 mg/kg of Mn, 3.50 mg/kg of Fe, 13.46 mg/kg of Cu, 0.75 mg/kg of Co, 0.32 mg/kg of Se, 0.75 mg/kg of I, 6,094.73 IU/kg of vitamin A, 1,218.95 IU/kg of vitamin D, and 24.38 IU/kg of vitamin E.

State University's Department of Veterinary Pathology for analysis.

Plasma insulin, nonesterified fatty acids (**NEFA**), BUN, glucose, glucagon, serum amyloid A (**SAA**), and lipopolysaccharide binding protein (**LBP**) concentrations were analyzed using commercially available kits according to manufacturers' instructions (insulin, Mercodia AB; NEFA, Wako Chemicals USA; BUN, Teco Diagnostics; glucose, Wako Chemicals USA Inc.; glucagon, R&D Systems Inc.; SAA, Tridelata Development Ltd.; LBP, Hycult Biotech). The inter- and intra-assay coefficients of variation for insulin, NEFA, BUN, glucose, glucagon, SAA, and LBP were 14.7% and 6.5%, 6.3% and 2.9%, 10.7% and 4.4%, 3.1% and 4.0%, 13.0% and 5.2%, 9.5% and 4.9%, and 9.5% and 4.2%, respectively.

### Statistical Analysis

We did not conduct a sample size calculation, but based on expected variation (from our previous studies), and considering facility and logistical constraints, we determined that 8 animals per treatment would be sufficient to detect statistical significance in key metrics. Data were statistically analyzed using the MIXED procedure of SAS version 9.4 (SAS Institute Inc.). Each animal's respective parameter was analyzed using repeated measures (represented as day within the experiment) with an autoregressive covariance structure. The random effect was cow. The model included treatment, day, treatment by day, and replication as fixed effects and P1 and P2 were analyzed separately from each other, and these multiple comparisons were not mathematically adjusted for (Rothman, 1990). Data are reported as least squares means  $\pm$  standard error and considered significant if  $P \leq 0.05$  and a tendency if  $0.05 < P \leq 0.10$ .

## RESULTS

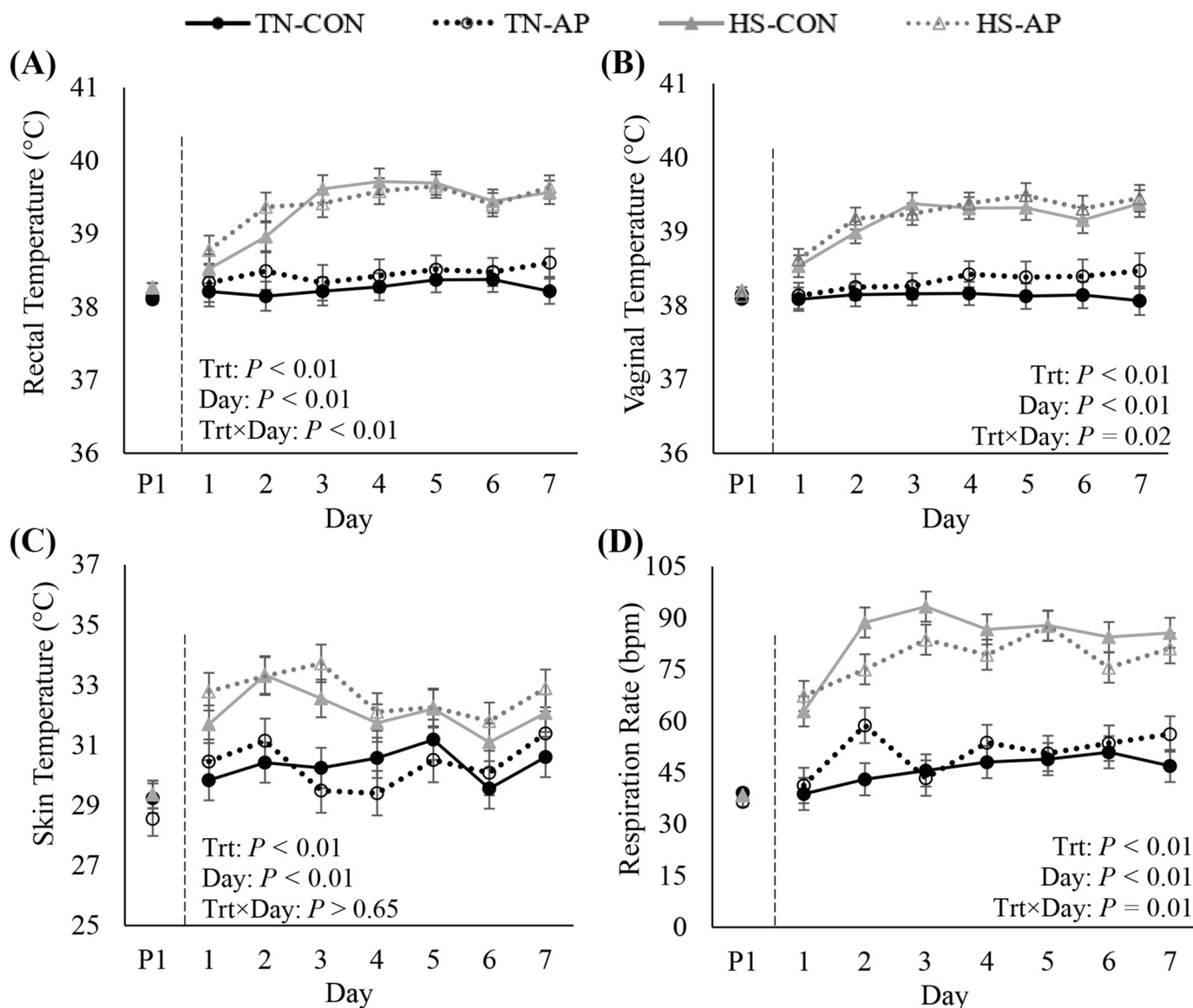
### Parity, Body Temperature Indices, and Production

Parity for treatments 1 through 4 did not differ ( $P = 0.40$ ) and was 2.7, 2.2, 2.1, and 2.7, respectively. During P2, rectal temperature and vaginal temperature gradually increased from d 1 to 3 in HS cows, whereas in TN cows they remained unchanged ( $P < 0.01$ ), with the most pronounced increases being from d 3 to 7 of HS (1.2°C and 1.1°C, respectively;  $P < 0.01$ ; Figure 1). Additionally, skin temperature and respiration rate were elevated in HS cows throughout P2 (2.0°C and 33 breaths per minute, respectively;  $P < 0.01$ ; Figure 1) relative to TN cows. No body temperature metric

was influenced by AP. As expected, HS decreased DMI relative to TN cows; the largest decrease occurred from d 4 to 7 of P2 (32%;  $P < 0.01$ ; Table 2), and this was not affected by feeding AP. Regardless of dietary treatment, MY and ECM progressively decreased and tended to decrease throughout P2 ( $P \leq 0.06$ ; Table 2) in HS cows, whereas it remained steady in TN, resulting in production decreases that were most pronounced from d 4 to 7 of HS (both 28%;  $P < 0.01$ ). Overall, there was no effect of HS or AP on feed efficiency during P2 ( $P > 0.25$ ; Table 2). Further, milk fat, lactose, and protein concentrations were not affected by environment or AP supplementation ( $P > 0.31$ ; Table 2). Milk urea nitrogen concentration increased (26%;  $P < 0.01$ ; Table 2) in HS relative to TN cows, and there were no effects of AP.

### Metabolism and Immune Activation Biomarkers

Circulating glucose concentrations did not change over time, regardless of environmental or dietary treatments ( $P > 0.11$ ; Table 3). Further, circulating insulin concentrations increased for HS-CON cows, with the most pronounced increase being from d 3 to 7 of P2 (53% relative to TN-CON;  $P = 0.05$ ; Table 3), whereas it remained unchanged in HS-AP. The insulin-to-DMI ratio gradually increased from d 1 to 5 in HS animals ( $P < 0.01$ ), with a tendency for a 2.4-fold increase relative to TN treatments detected with post hoc analysis on d 5 ( $P = 0.06$ ; data not shown). Interestingly, HS decreased glucagon concentrations in both treatments, with the most pronounced difference occurring from d 3 to 7 (29% relative to TN cows;  $P = 0.01$ ; Table 3). There was a tendency for circulating NEFA concentrations to be increased in HS-AP cows throughout P2 (60% relative to TN-CON;  $P = 0.10$ ; Table 3), whereas in all other treatments they remained relatively similar. Blood urea nitrogen concentrations increased for both HS treatments from d 1 to 3 of P2 before steadily decreasing from d 5 to 7, with the overall increase being primarily driven by HS-CON cows (27% relative to TN-CON;  $P = 0.01$ ; Table 3). Additionally, supplementing AP decreased circulating BUN on d 3 of HS relative to HS-CON (15%;  $P = 0.05$ ; data not shown). No overall treatment effects were observed in circulating white blood cells, neutrophils, platelets, monocytes, lymphocytes, eosinophils, basophils, or SAA concentrations ( $P > 0.12$ ; Table 4). However, the concentration of circulating LBP was increased by HS, and this was primarily driven by the HS-AP treatment (64% relative to TN-CON;  $P = 0.03$ ; Table 4). Post hoc analysis indicated HS also tended to increase SAA (140 vs. 250  $\mu\text{g/mL}$ ;  $P = 0.08$ ; in TN vs. HS, respectively).



**Figure 1.** Effects of antioxidant supplementation on (A) rectal temperature, (B) vaginal temperature, (C) skin temperature, and (D) respiration rate (bpm = breaths per minute) in heat-stressed or thermoneutral (TN) lactating dairy cows. Data were analyzed using PROC MIXED and included fixed effects of treatment, time, and their interaction. Period 1 (P1) represents an average of measurements obtained before cows were exposed to their respective environmental treatment during period 2 (TN vs. heat stressed; d 1 to 4 of P1). Results are expressed as least squares means  $\pm$  standard error of the mean and considered significant if  $P \leq 0.05$  and a tendency if  $0.05 < P \leq 0.10$ . Trt = treatment; TN-CON = TN and fed a control diet; TN-AP = TN and fed a diet with AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP; EW Nutrition); HS-CON = heat stress (HS) and fed a control diet; HS-AP = HS and fed a diet with AP.

## DISCUSSION

Livestock producers are challenged to identify affordable and practical mitigation strategies that ameliorate HS and its associated sequelae. In addition to obvious phenotypes (e.g., reduced MY, DMI, and daily gain), a more inconspicuous consequence of HS is intestinal hyperpermeability, which has been described in multiple species (Oliver et al., 2012; Pearce et al., 2013; Koch

et al., 2019). Mechanistically, the cause of HS-induced intestinal hyperpermeability is seemingly multifactorial, including the diversion of splanchnic blood flow toward peripheral surfaces (Lambert, 2009), rumen acidosis (Burhans et al., 2022), and psychological stress (Mayorga et al., 2020; Xu et al., 2021). Additionally, OS (which increases with tissue hypoxia or ischemia; Hall et al., 2001; Lambert, 2009), or at least an increase in reactive oxygen species, may also be an important

**Table 2.** Effects of antioxidant supplementation on production parameters in heat-stressed or thermoneutral lactating dairy cows<sup>1</sup>

Parameter	Treatment					P-value		
	TN-CON	TN-AP	HS-CON	HS-AP	SEM	Trt	Time	Trt × time
DMI (kg/d)	22.2 <sup>a</sup>	20.7 <sup>a</sup>	16.8 <sup>b</sup>	15.0 <sup>b</sup>	0.8	<0.01	<0.01	0.14
Milk yield (kg/d)	36.9 <sup>a</sup>	33.1 <sup>ab</sup>	27.7 <sup>b</sup>	27.9 <sup>b</sup>	2.4	0.02	0.14	0.01
ECM (kg/d)	41.9 <sup>a</sup>	35.9 <sup>ab</sup>	31.8 <sup>b</sup>	30.4 <sup>b</sup>	2.3	<0.01	0.04	0.06
FE, ECM:DMI	1.91	1.81	1.97	2.11	0.11	0.25	0.03	0.66
Milk composition								
Fat (%)	4.50	4.25	4.67	4.43	0.16	0.31	<0.01	0.44
Lactose (%)	4.73	4.74	4.70	4.62	0.05	0.38	<0.01	0.39
Protein (%)	3.18	3.11	3.16	3.03	0.09	0.65	<0.01	0.41
MUN (mg/dL)	12.5 <sup>b</sup>	12.1 <sup>b</sup>	15.9 <sup>a</sup>	15.1 <sup>a</sup>	0.7	<0.01	<0.01	0.13

<sup>a,b</sup>Values within a row with differing superscripts denote differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) between treatments.

<sup>1</sup>Trt = treatment; TN-CON = thermoneutral control; TN-AP = thermoneutral supplemented with 10 g/d AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP; EW Nutrition); HS-CON = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket and control; HS-AP = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket + 10 g/d AP; FE = feed efficiency. Data are reported as LSM ± SEM.

pathophysiological contributor to HS-induced barrier dysfunction (Rao et al., 2002; Cao et al., 2018; Ortega and Szabó, 2021), a concept reinforced with intervening experimentation; administering antioxidants improved barrier function and reduced histological tissue damage in HS experiments (Hall et al., 2001; Oliver et al., 2012). Inflammation that occurs secondary to intestinal barrier dysfunction and paracellular antigen passage is energetically expensive and diverts nutrients away from productive purposes (Johnson, 2012; Kvidera et al., 2017a). Thus, targeting reactive oxygen species presents a potential mitigation strategy that may improve intestinal barrier function and ameliorate inflammation during HS. Therefore, objectives were to evaluate the effects of AP (a commercial dietary antioxidant) on production, metabolism, and inflammatory metrics in heat-stressed lactating dairy cows.

Heat stress was successfully induced herein, as indicated by increased rectal temperature, vaginal temperature, skin temperature, and respiration rate in HS cows relative to TN controls. Euthermia is paramount for optimal corporeal functioning; thus, heat-stressed

animals employ robust physiological, metabolic, and behavioral adaptations to prevent lethal hyperthermia, but these survival strategies come at the expense of production (Silva, 2006; Cook et al., 2007). Limiting feed intake is a well-conserved behavioral response to HS that transcends species as means to reduce metabolic heat production (Baumgard and Rhoads, 2013). Herein, HS decreased DMI, MY, and ECM as expected, but this was not ameliorated by feeding AP. It is likely the reduction in MY and ECM is explained by both decreased DMI and, at least in part, HS-induced barrier dysfunction (discussed below). Previous experiments have observed increased MY and DMI with AP feeding in TN dairy cows (Vázquez-Añón et al., 2008; Wang et al., 2010), but these production benefits are inconsistent (Boerman et al., 2014a,b), and AP did not improve DMI in heat-stressed laying hens (Felver-Gant et al., 2014). Thus, further work evaluating the effects of AP on production metrics in heat-stressed cows and other farm animals is warranted.

Heat-stressed cows displayed evidence of intestinal hyperpermeability as indicated by elevations in meta-

**Table 3.** Effects of antioxidant supplementation on metabolic parameters in heat-stressed or thermoneutral lactating dairy cows<sup>1</sup>

Parameter	Treatment					P-value		
	TN-CON	TN-AP	HS-CON	HS-AP	SEM	Trt	Time	Trt × time
Glucose (mg/dL)	73.9	74.1	74.0	72.9	2.1	0.97	0.11	0.43
Insulin (µg/L)	0.73 <sup>b</sup>	0.82 <sup>ab</sup>	1.12 <sup>a</sup>	0.71 <sup>b</sup>	0.12	0.05	0.26	0.48
Insulin:DMI	0.04	0.04	0.07	0.06	0.01	0.12	<0.01	0.25
Glucagon (pg/mL)	176 <sup>b</sup>	183 <sup>a</sup>	141 <sup>bc</sup>	125 <sup>c</sup>	13	0.01	0.03	0.13
NEFA (µEq/L)	132 <sup>y</sup>	136 <sup>xy</sup>	126 <sup>y</sup>	212 <sup>x</sup>	28	0.10	0.60	0.89
BUN (mg/dL)	10.3 <sup>b</sup>	10.2 <sup>b</sup>	13.1 <sup>a</sup>	11.7 <sup>ab</sup>	0.7	0.01	<0.01	<0.01

<sup>a-c</sup>Values within a row with differing superscripts denote differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) between treatments.

<sup>x,y</sup>Values within a row with differing superscripts denote a tendency for a difference ( $0.05 < P \leq 0.10$ ) between treatments.

<sup>1</sup>Trt = treatment; TN-CON = thermoneutral control; TN-AP = thermoneutral supplemented with 10 g/d AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP; EW Nutrition); HS-CON = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket and control; HS-AP = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket + 10 g/d AP; NEFA = nonesterified fatty acids. Data are reported as LSM ± SEM.

**Table 4.** Effects of antioxidant supplementation on leukocyte dynamics and inflammatory biomarkers in heat-stressed or thermoneutral lactating dairy cows<sup>1</sup>

Parameter	Treatment				SEM	P-value		
	TN-CON	TN-AP	HS-CON	HS-AP		Trt	Time	Trt × time
WBC ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	7.7	8.5	7.8	7.2	0.7	0.66	0.08	0.16
Neutrophils ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	3.1	3.8	3.2	3.1	0.3	0.27	0.09	0.47
Platelets ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	368	331	361	338	34	0.85	0.05	0.35
Monocytes ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	0.38	0.39	0.38	0.36	0.02	0.82	0.46	0.81
Lymphocytes ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	3.8	3.7	3.6	3.3	0.6	0.92	0.99	0.82
Eosinophils ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	0.31	0.37	0.51	0.30	0.07	0.13	0.31	0.89
Basophils ( $\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ )	0.07	0.07	0.06	0.06	0.01	0.68	0.67	0.58
SAA ( $\mu\text{g/mL}$ )	123.2	157.0	184.1	314.8	61.4	0.12	0.55	0.36
LBP ( $\mu\text{g/mL}$ )	2.2 <sup>b</sup>	2.0 <sup>b</sup>	3.0 <sup>ab</sup>	3.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.4	0.03	0.11	0.30

<sup>a,b</sup>Values within a row with differing superscripts denote differences ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) between treatments.

<sup>1</sup>Trt = treatment; TN-CON = thermoneutral control; TN-AP = thermoneutral supplemented with 10 g/d AGRADO Plus 2.0 (AP; EW Nutrition); HS-CON = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket and control; HS-AP = heat stressed via an electric heat blanket + 10 g/d AP; WBC = white blood cells; SAA = serum amyloid A; LBP = lipopolysaccharide binding protein. Data are reported as LSM  $\pm$  SEM.

bolic and inflammatory metrics relative to TN counterparts. Hyperinsulinemia is a well-conserved response to immunoactivation in several species (Zarrin et al., 2014; Kvidera et al., 2017b; Horst et al., 2020a) and plays a central role in optimizing glucose supply and utilization in activated immune cells (Helderman, 1981; Walrand et al., 2004). Despite their catabolic state, heat-stressed animals frequently have elevated insulin concentrations, and this is especially apparent when compared with pair-fed thermal neutral controls (Wheelock et al., 2010; Gangloff et al., 2016; Barnes et al., 2019), purportedly in response to immunoactivation following HS-induced barrier dysfunction (Baumgard and Rhoads, 2013; Mayorga et al., 2020). Interestingly, circulating insulin increased in HS-CON but not HS-AP cows, but both HS treatments had an increased insulin-to-DMI ratio above TN animals. Reasons why AP blunted the insulin response during HS are not clear, but the increased insulin-to-DMI ratio in both HS treatments agrees with previous experiments (Wheelock et al., 2010; Al-Qaisi et al., 2020b). Heat stress also increased BUN and MUN concentrations, which is consistent with other HS experiments (Baumgard et al., 2011; Al-Qaisi et al., 2020a,b,c), and i.v. lipopolysaccharide infusion trials in cows (Kvidera et al., 2017a; Horst et al., 2020a). As previously mentioned, immunoactivation requires a substantial quantity of nutrients, and this occurs simultaneously with illness-induced hypophagia (Johnson, 2012; Kvidera et al., 2017a). Thus, skeletal muscle is ostensibly catabolized to supply amino acids for gluconeogenesis, positive acute-phase protein synthesis, and leukocyte proliferation (Mayorga et al., 2020; Ma et al., 2021), resulting in elevated blood and MUN. Therefore, the altered insulin-to-DMI ratio and BUN and MUN concentrations suggest homeorhetic adaptations to support a HS-induced activated immune system.

Along with the observed metabolic changes, circulating LBP increased and SAA tended to increase during HS. This agrees with other experiments where acute-phase proteins increased in heat-stressed pigs (Cui et al., 2019), rabbits (Madkour et al., 2020), goats (Al-Dawood, 2017), and lactating dairy cows (Al-Qaisi et al., 2020b) and suggests the heat load was sufficient to induce intestinal barrier dysfunction and its associated sequelae. Serum amyloid A responses are inconsistent in heat-stressed cows, and though it increased in some experiments (Al-Qaisi et al., 2020b; Pate et al., 2021), it did not in others (Opgenorth et al., 2021; S. Rodriguez-Jimenez and L. H. Baumgard, unpublished). Interestingly, inflammatory metrics (cytokines and acute-phase proteins) are sometimes blunted during the actual heat load and then exacerbated upon HS recovery and the return to TN conditions in multiple species (Leon et al., 2006; Abuajamieh et al., 2018; S. Rodriguez-Jimenez and L. H. Baumgard, unpublished). In fact, exaggerated inflammation during HS recovery may play a pathophysiological role in the development of heat stroke (Leon, 2007). Although HS increased LBP and SAA, circulating leukocytes were largely unaffected by HS or dietary treatment. This conflicts with prior reports by Al-Qaisi et al. (2020b), where circulating lymphocytes and basophils were decreased by HS, potentially due to leukocyte migration into the gastrointestinal tract (Koch et al., 2019). However, the lack of perturbations herein may reflect the transient nature of leukocyte dynamics and the ability of bone marrow to maintain leukocytosis during the gradual onset of HS-induced immunoactivation (Scheiermann et al., 2015).

Circulating LBP and SAA increased in both HS treatments, but this was more pronounced in the HS-AP cows, suggestive of increased inflammation from

AP supplementation. However, this contradicts the insulin and BUN responses and is not supported by other phenotypic data (e.g., MY and ECM). Further, tertiary butyl hydroquinone and citric acid (ingredients included in AP) have decreased intestinal and peripheral inflammation in various animal models of immunoactivation (Jin et al., 2010; Abdel-Salam et al., 2014; Zhao et al., 2019; Rahman et al., 2020). Interestingly, feeding excessive antioxidants can potentially act as a prooxidant and negatively affect overall health (Sotler et al., 2019). Regardless, given the purported anti-inflammatory properties of AP and inconsistencies with other metrics observed herein, it is unlikely the increase in LBP in HS-AP cows was biologically meaningful. However, differences in model, species, and dosage may explain discrepancies between studies; thus, further work evaluating AP supplementation and inflammatory metrics during HS is needed.

As reviewed by Mayorga et al. (2020) and Baumgard and Rhoads (2013), heat-stressed animals have a metabolically perplexing phenotype as they tend to retain adipose tissue in the face of reduced nutrient intake. This blunted lipolytic response to negative energy balance is even more striking when compared with pair-fed animals kept in TN conditions (Wheelock et al., 2010; Sanz Fernandez et al., 2015a,b) and is likely the result of HS-induced hyperinsulinemia, as insulin is intensely antilipolytic (Brockman and Laarveld, 1986). Despite marked reductions in feed intake in the HS cows (approximately 33%), NEFA concentrations were either maintained at similar concentrations to (HS-CON) or slightly elevated above (HS-AP) ad-libitum-fed TN animals. The discrepancy between HS-CON and HS-AP animals is likely explained by differences in circulating insulin concentrations, as HS-AP cows had lower insulin relative to HS-CON cows, allowing for further adipose tissue mobilization. Regardless, the NEFA response observed in HS-AP animals remained blunted relative to what would be expected in TN lactating cows on a similar plane of nutrition (Wheelock et al., 2010), and it is consistent with prior HS experiments (Al-Qaisi et al., 2020b,c).

Heat stress decreased circulating glucagon, and this was especially apparent in the HS-AP cows. In contrast to most monogastrics, glucagon increases postprandially (Sano et al., 1993; Mineo et al., 1994) but decreases during feed restriction in ruminants (Carruthers et al., 1974; Vicini et al., 1988; Horst et al., 2020b), suggesting the reduction may reflect concurrent heat-induced anorexia. However, HS may impose further reductions in glucagon as a protective strategy to reduce internal thermogenesis. Interestingly, circulating glucagon increases in response to cold stress (Kuroshima et al., 1978; Seitz et al., 1981; Doi et al., 1982), and exogenous

glucagon administration increases energy expenditure and thermogenesis in humans (Nair, 1987), mice (Beaudry et al., 2019), dogs (Weiser and Grande, 1974), and pigs (Ingram and Kaciuba-Uscilko, 1980). Thus there is potential that a reduction in glucagon, in combination with other thermogenic hormones (e.g., thyroid-stimulating hormone or thyroxine and triiodothyronine; Pereira et al., 2008; Kahl et al., 2015; Sanz Fernandez et al., 2015a), may aid in minimizing endogenous heat production during HS. However, the effects of HS on this key metabolic hormone are unclear, as some have reported decreased (Kuroshima et al., 1978; Doi et al., 1982; Tang et al., 2013), increased (Tatár et al., 1986; Kappel et al., 1997), or unchanged (Koch et al., 2016) glucagon concentrations in response to HS in various species. Therefore, further evaluation of the relationship between HS and glucagon secretion is needed, especially considering how important glucose is to both the immune system and milk synthesis (Baumgard et al., 2017; Horst et al., 2021).

There are some limitations that need considering. Notably, markers of OS and reactive oxygen species were not measured, and thus we are not certain that HS actually increased the production of reactive oxygen species or OS. Consequently, it is possible that AP did not have an opportunity to express its antioxidant benefit. We are also presuming that the markers of immune activation (LBP, insulin) are originating from HS-induced gastrointestinal tract hyperpermeability, but this cannot be confirmed with the variables measured herein.

## CONCLUSIONS

Heat stress threatens animal production and well-being, and its effects may intensify as global temperatures continue to rise. Thus, it is imperative to identify practical and effective mitigation strategies to combat heat-induced intestinal barrier dysfunction and its associated corollaries (e.g., decreased production and inflammation). Because antioxidant supplementation has previously improved production and intestinal health during a variety of stressors (including heat), it was of interest to evaluate the effects of AP supplementation on production, metabolism, and inflammatory metrics (as a proxy for intestinal hyperpermeability) in heat-stressed lactating dairy cows. Although AP marginally altered metabolic parameters, it did not meaningfully alter the inflammatory profile or production metrics in heat-stressed animals. Given the continued relevance of gut health and thermal stress to the dairy industry, further work evaluating the effects of antioxidant supplementation during HS in dairy cows is warranted.



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