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Published in:
Journal of Dairy Science

DOI:
[10.3168/jds.2016-12531](https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2016-12531)

Publication date:
2017

Citation for published version (APA):

Fessenden, S. W., Hackmann, T. J., Ross, D. A., Foskolos, A., & Van Amburgh, M. E. (2017). Ruminal bacteria and protozoa composition, digestibility, and amino acid profile determined by multiple hydrolysis times. *Journal of Dairy Science*, 100(9), 7211-7226. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2016-12531>

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Journal:	<i>Journal of Dairy Science</i>
Manuscript ID	JDS-16-12531.R2
Article Type:	Research
Date Submitted by the Author:	01-May-2017
Complete List of Authors:	Fessenden, Samuel; Cornell University, Animal Science Hackmann, Timothy; Ohio State University, Interdisciplinary Ph.D. Program in Nutrition Ross, Deborah; cornell university, animal science Foskolos, Andreas; Aberystwyth University , IBERS Van Amburgh, Michael; Cornell University, Animal Science
Key Words:	digestibility, amino acid, hydrolysis, ruminal microbes

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Review

RUMEN MICROBIAL COMPOSITION AND DIGESTIBILITY

1 *Interpretive summary:*

2 Microbial samples from several experiments in lactating dairy cattle were analyzed for nutrient
3 composition, AA composition and digestibility. An in vitro assay was used to determine
4 intestinal availability of individual AA. Multiple time point hydrolysis and least-squares non-
5 linear regression was used to determine the AA content of microbial samples, and comparisons
6 were made against single time point hydrolysis. Results indicated that the in vitro assay could
7 demonstrate differences in AA digestibility, and multiple time point hydrolysis likely provide
8 more accurate estimations of the AA profile of omasal bacteria and protozoa for use in field
9 applicable nutrient models.

10 **Ruminal bacteria and protozoa composition, digestibility and amino acid profile**
11 **determined by multiple hydrolysis times.**

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15 **ABSTRACT:** Microbial samples from 4 independent experiments in lactating dairy cattle were
16 obtained and analyzed for nutrient composition, AA digestibility, and AA profile after multiple
17 hydrolysis times ranging from 2 to 168 h. Similar bacterial and protozoal isolation techniques
18 were used for all isolations. Omasal bacteria and protozoa samples were analyzed for AA
19 digestibility using a new in vitro technique. Multiple time point hydrolysis and least-squares non-
20 linear regression were used to determine the AA content of omasal bacteria and protozoa, and
21 equivalency comparisons were made against single time point hydrolysis. Formalin was used in
22 1 experiment, which negatively affected AA digestibility and likely limited the complete release

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23 of AA during acid hydrolysis. The mean AA digestibility was 87.8 and 81.6 % for non-formalin
24 treated bacteria and protozoa, respectively. Preservation of microbe samples in formalin likely
25 decreased recovery of several individual AA. Results from the multiple time point hydrolysis
26 indicated that Ile, Val, and Met hydrolyzed at a slower rate compared with other essential AA.
27 Single time point hydrolysis was found to be non-equivalent to multiple time point hydrolysis
28 when considering biologically important changes in estimated microbial AA profiles. Several
29 AA including Met, Ile, and Val were under-predicted using AA determination after a single 24 h
30 hydrolysis. Models for predicting post-ruminal supply of AA might need to consider potential
31 bias present in post-ruminal AA flow literature when AA determinations are performed after
32 single time point hydrolysis and when using formalin as a preservative for microbial samples.

33 **Keywords:** amino acid, digestibility, hydrolysis, ruminal bacteria, ruminal protozoa

34 INTRODUCTION

35 Nutrient supply and requirement models such as the Cornell Net Carbohydrate and Protein
36 System (CNCPS) (Higgs et al., 2015; Van Amburgh et al., 2015) and the NRC (NRC, 2001)
37 along with their derivative models predict post ruminal flows of bacterial biomass. Bacterial
38 protein flow is assigned an AA content, AA profile, and a digestibility of individual AA to
39 calculate supply of metabolizable AA. These field applicable models typically use the AA profile
40 of bacteria obtained from the literature (Storm et al., 1983; Clark et al., 1992; Volden and
41 Harstad, 1998), and few account for protozoal AA flows, which can contribute a substantial
42 amount to total microbial AA flow (Dijkstra et al., 1998; Fessenden, 2016). A new, dynamic
43 version of the CNCPS (v. 7; Higgs, 2014; Higgs et al. submitted) utilizes a similar approach in a
44 N based model, and mechanistically accounts for protozoa and endogenous AA contributions to
45 total AA flow in addition to bacteria and feed. To improve this model, accurate representations

46 of the AA content and digestibility of bacterial and protozoal AA were needed to understand
47 sources of error in predictions of particular AA. On an N basis, the predictions of NAN in
48 CNCPS v. 7 were reasonably accurate and precise. However, predictions of individual AA such
49 as Lys, Met, Ile, and Val were biased, likely due to a lack of information about the true content
50 those AA in both microbes and feeds (Higgs, 2014; Higgs et al., submitted).

51 The methods used for isolation of microbial fractions and analysis of AA vary widely across
52 the literature, and much of the data used for nutrition models still rely on older methods where
53 more robust alternatives now exist. An example can be found in the isolation of protozoa, where
54 differential centrifugation has historically been used to isolate microbial cells with significant
55 contamination from bacteria and feed particles. A procedure developed for isolation of
56 cultivatable mixed ruminal protozoa for qPCR and competition studies (Sylvester et al., 2004;
57 2005; Denton et al., 2015) can be used to isolate protozoa for more accurate nutrient analysis. In
58 addition, several of the methods employ the use of formalin in the isolation and storage of
59 microbial and specifically protozoal samples (Martin et al., 1994; Rossi et al., 2013). This might
60 be problematic as formaldehyde is known to react with AA (Barry, 1976).

61 Intestinal digestibility of individual microbial AA has been estimated by several different
62 methods, including regression approaches (Tas et al., 1981; Hvelplund and Hesselholt, 1987), in
63 vitro assays such as the modified 3-step assay (Gargallo et al., 2006), and in vivo assays utilizing
64 the mobile bag technique. In vivo and in vitro procedures relying on retention in bags are largely
65 inadequate, as both indigestible and digestible protein and AA can pass through the pores in the
66 bags resulting in inflated digestibility values. In vivo assays have clear advantages in providing
67 realistic and applicable enzymatic hydrolysis conditions, however they also require surgically
68 altered animal models. The precision-fed cecectomized rooster bioassay was recently applied to

69 ruminal bacteria (Fonseca et al., 2014); however data are still lacking on protozoa AA
70 digestibility. Additionally, avian species have different enzymes and pH conditions which might
71 reduce the ability to make direct comparisons to ruminant digestion (Keller, 1968; Guerino and
72 Baumrucker, 1987). Ross et al. (2013) developed an in vitro assay with ruminal fluid to
73 determine intestinally unavailable N (uN) in ruminant feeds that addressed some issues of non-
74 physiologic or species specific enzyme activities, poor retention of small particles, and extensive
75 cannulation procedures. This assay might provide an adequate assessment of intestinal
76 digestibility of ruminal bacteria and protozoa. Considering the ability of formaldehyde to reduce
77 feed protein degradation, it is also possible that the use of formalin in preservation of microbial
78 samples, as reported in Reynal et al. (2003) and others, might reduce the measured intestinal
79 digestibility of microbial AA. An evaluation of the digestibility of unpreserved and formalin
80 preserved samples using the uN assay might simultaneously provide more information on
81 formalin effects on individual microbial AA while testing the ability of the uN assay to detect
82 differences in samples treated with a compound known to decreased digestibility.

83 Amino acid content of feeds and microbes has historically been determined by single time
84 point hydrolysis, as this represents a compromise between maximal release of AA from the
85 matrix while minimizing the loss of acid labile AA (Rutherford, 2009). Determination of AA at
86 multiple time points followed by least-squares non-linear regression provides more accurate
87 estimates of the AA profile (Darragh and Moughan, 2005). This approach has been utilized in
88 purified protein (Darragh et al., 1996), milk protein (Rutherford et al., 2008) and common animal
89 feedstuffs (Rutherford, 2009). Previous work in our laboratory indicated that to obtain the
90 greatest release of branched-chain AA in forages, hydrolysis times needed to be greater than 21

91 hr; while Ile release was greatest at 70 hr (Ross, 2004). To our knowledge, AA determination
92 after multiple hydrolyses times has not been performed on rumen microbial biomass.

93 Given the data from Darragh and Moughan (2005), Rutherford (2009) and the observations
94 made in the data from Higgs et al. (submitted), the hypothesis of this study was that the standard
95 method of determination of AA in ruminal bacteria and protozoa using single time point
96 hydrolysis is not equivalent to AA determination after multiple time point hydrolysis and non-
97 linear least-squares regression. Additional objectives of this study were to summarize the
98 chemical composition and AA profile of ruminal bacteria and protozoa from high producing
99 lactating dairy cows and to evaluate intestinal digestibility of microbial AA using a newly
100 developed in-vitro assay.

101

102

MATERIALS AND METHODS

103 All cannulated cows used as rumen or omasal fluid donors for the microbial isolations in this
104 experiment were cared for according to the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use
105 committee appropriate for the university responsible for their care. The committees reviewed and
106 approved the experiment and all procedures carried out in the study.

Microbial Isolation Procedures

108 Microbial samples from several independent experiments in lactating dairy cattle were
109 obtained and analyzed for nutrient composition, AA content, and intestinal nutrient and AA
110 digestibility. Bacteria and protozoa included in the analysis were from the following
111 experiments: **Trial A:** An omasal sampling trial with 8 cows in a 2 treatment switchback design
112 investigating effects of a commercial byproduct feed on omasal nutrient flow (Fessenden, 2016);

113 **Trial B:** An omasal sampling trial with 12 cows in a 3 treatment Latin Square design
114 investigating the effect of rapidly degradable starch on omasal nutrient flow (Foskolos et al,
115 unpublished data); **Trial C:** A ruminal N balance and recycling trial with 12 cows in a 3
116 treatment randomized complete block design investigating ruminal N and/or MP deficient diets
117 (Recktenwald, 2010; Recktenwald et al., 2013). One additional protozoal sample was obtained
118 from T. Hackmann at the University of Florida from repeated isolations from the rumen of a
119 lactating dairy cow at the Ohio State University Columbus campus (**Trial D**). For trials A-C,
120 equal parts DM were combined within microbial type, resulting in a composited sample of
121 bacteria and protozoa from each experiment. Therefore, the possible effects of treatments from
122 trials A – C are not represented in this dataset. Information regarding the chemical composition
123 of the average diet fed to cows in each experiment, along with the number of individual
124 collections and isolations represented by each composited sample are reported in Table 1. Due to
125 limited amount of sample for some trials (D and C) not all analysis were performed on all
126 samples as noted throughout the text.

127 For Trials A and B, microbial samples were obtained using the omasal sampling technique
128 developed by Huhtanen et al. (1997) and adapted by Reynal and Broderick (2005). Samples of
129 whole omasal contents were collected from the omasal canal every 2 h during 3, 8 h intervals.
130 Details of sampling for trial A are described in Fessenden (2016). Trial B sampling occurred per
131 a very similar sampling schedule as Trial A by the same researchers (A. Foskolos and S.
132 Fessenden). Trial C collection methods are described in Recktenwald (2010) and Recktenwald et
133 al. (2013). Trial D protozoa were collected on 4 separate days with 2 separate aliquots filtered
134 per day for 8 aliquots total (T. Hackmann, personal communication).

135 Bacterial isolations for trial A and C were performed according to Whitehouse et al. (1994)
136 with modifications. Briefly; whole omasal contents were filtered through 4 layers of cheesecloth
137 and solids were rinsed once with saline, and the filtrate (I) was treated with formalin (0.1% v/v in
138 final solution) and stored at 4 °C. The solids retained on the cheesecloth were incubated for 1 h
139 at 39 °C in a 0.1% methylcellulose solution, mixed for 1 min at low speed (Omni Mixer, Omni
140 International, Kennesaw, GA) to detach solids associated bacteria, and held at 4°C for 24 h. The
141 contents were then squeezed through 4 layers of cheesecloth and the filtrate (II) was treated with
142 formalin (0.1% v/v in final solution). Filtrates I and II were then combined and centrifuged at
143 1,000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C to remove small feed particles and protozoa. The supernatant was
144 centrifuged at 15,000 x g for 20 min at 4 °C and the bacterial pellet, representing both solid and
145 liquid associated bacteria, was collected and stored at -20 °C until lyophilization and later
146 analysis. Bacterial isolation for trial B followed the same procedure as described above, however
147 formalin was not used.

148 Protozoa from trials A and B were isolated from whole contents using the same procedure as
149 described by Denton et al. (2015) and modified as reported in Fessenden (2016) (Figure 1). The
150 only difference between trials was the omission of formalin and centrifugation in Trial B. The
151 isolations were performed by the same researcher for both trials. Strained omasal fluid (250 mL)
152 was combined 1:1 with pre-warmed, anaerobically prepared Simplex type buffer and added to a
153 pre-warmed separatory funnel. Plant particles were removed by aspiration after 1 h of incubation
154 at 39 °C. Funnel contents were then preserved with formalin (0.1% v/v in final solution) and
155 stored for < 4 d at 4 °C. Preserved contents were centrifuged at 1000 x g for 5 min at 4 °C, the
156 pellet was re-suspended in saline, and protozoa were isolated on a nylon cloth with a 20 µm pore
157 size (14% open area, Sefar, Buffalo, NY). The protozoa isolate was washed several times with

158 saline (500 mL) to reduce bacterial contamination. After isolation, protozoa were stored at -20
159 °C prior to lyophilization. Protozoa from trial C were isolated from strained ruminal fluid by
160 flocculation to remove feed particles followed by preservation with formalin and centrifugation
161 at 500 x g for 5 min at 10°C. The pellet obtained after centrifugation was assumed to be
162 representative of the ruminal protozoa (Recktenwald, 2010). Protozoa isolation from Trial D was
163 performed by T. Hackmann in the laboratory of J. Firkins at the Ohio State University according
164 to Denton et al., (2015) except 25 mL instead of 30 mL or clarified fluid was filtered per
165 isolation.

166 *Chemical Analysis and Hydrolysis Times*

167 All samples were analyzed for DM after 6 h at 105°C and ash according to AOAC (2005).
168 Total N was determined using a combustion assay (Leco FP-528 N Analyzer, Leco Corp., St.
169 Joseph, MI). Amino acid content of all samples was determined by HPLC following hydrolysis
170 for 24 h at 110°C in a block heater (Gehrke et al., 1985). Trial B bacteria and protozoa were also
171 hydrolyzed for 2, 4, 6, 12, 18, 21, 24, 30, 48, 72, 120 and 168 h to evaluate the rate of release of
172 each AA. The time points chosen were based on a similar analysis performed on milk proteins
173 (Rutherford et al., 2008). The entire time course was performed twice for each sample, and the
174 reported values are the mean of the 2 determinations. Insufficient sample amount from trials A,
175 C, and D precluded the multiple time point hydrolysis of samples for AA determination.

176 For all AA excluding Met, Cys, and Trp, a sample containing 2 mg N was weighed into
177 hydrolysis tubes with 25 µL of 250 mM norleucine as an internal standard. Samples were then
178 hydrolyzed as described above with high-purity 6 M HCl (5 mL) after flushing with N₂ gas
179 (Mason et al., 1980). For Met and Cys, additional aliquots containing 2 mg N and the internal
180 standard were pre-oxidized with 1 mL performic acid (0.9 mL of 88 % formic acid, 0.1 mL of

181 30% H₂O₂ and 5 mg phenol) for 16 h at 4°C prior to acid hydrolysis (Elkin and Griffith, 1984).
182 After hydrolysis, tube contents were filtered through Whatman 541 filter paper and filtrate was
183 diluted to 50 mL in a volumetric flask with HPLC grade H₂O. Aliquots (0.5 mL) were
184 evaporated at 60°C under constant N₂ flushing, with 3 rinses and re-evaporations with HPLC
185 grade H₂O to remove acid residues. After final evaporation, the hydrolysate was dissolved in 1
186 mL of Na diluent (Na220, Pickering Laboratories, Mountain View, CA).

187 Individual AA hydrolysates were separated using an Agilent 1100 series HPLC (Agilent
188 Technologies, Santa Clara, CA) fitted with a sodium cation exchange column (Cat. no
189 1154110T, Pickering Laboratories, Mountain View, CA) using a 4 buffer step gradient and
190 column temperature gradient. Detection of separated AA was performed at 560 nm following
191 post-column ninhydrin derivation. Standards (250 nM/mL) for the individual AA were prepared
192 by diluting a pure standard in sample buffer. The volume of sample and standards loaded onto
193 the column was 10 µL.

194 For Trp determination, a separate aliquot of sample containing 2 mg N was hydrolyzed with
195 1.2 g of Ba(OH)₂ at 110°C for the same time course as other AA on a block heater according to
196 the method of Landry and Delhaye (1992). Included in the hydrolysis was 125µL of 5-Methyl-
197 Trp (5mM) as an internal standard. After cooling to precipitate barium ions, an aliquot (3 µL) of
198 the hydrolysate was added to 1 mL of acetate buffer (0.07 M sodium acetate) and analyzed using
199 fluorescence detection (excitation = 285 nm, emission = 345 nm) after HPLC separation.

200 ***In vitro* Digestibility of N and AA**

201 Microbial samples from Trials A and B were analyzed for intestinal digestibility of N and AA
202 according to the assay described by Ross et al. (2013) with minor modifications. The ruminal
203 incubation step was omitted because microbial samples were isolated from the omasum. For each

204 sample, 150 mg of DM was weighed in duplicate into 125 mL Erlenmeyer Flasks and 40 mL of
205 pre-warmed ruminal buffer was added (Van Soest, 2015). Samples were then acidified to a pH of
206 2 with 3M HCl followed by addition of 2 mL of pepsin solution (282 U/mL). After 1 h of
207 incubation at 39°C in a shaking water bath, contents of the flask were neutralized with 2 ml of 2
208 M NaOH. Ten milliliters of enzyme mixture containing trypsin, (24 mg/mL) chymotrypsin, (20
209 mg/mL) amylase, (50 mg/mL) and lipase (4 mg/mL) was then added to the flasks, followed by
210 24 h of incubation at 39°C in a shaking water bath. After incubation, flask contents were filtered
211 on previously tared Whatman 934AH filters under vacuum. Samples were allowed to air dry,
212 followed by drying and storage in a desiccator. Filter + residue weight was then recorded, and
213 DM remaining on the filter was corrected for a blank carried throughout the process. Each filter
214 was cut in half and weighed; with one half used for determination of residual N, while the other
215 half used for AA analysis of the residual material. Determination of residual AA except Trp was
216 performed after 24 h of hydrolysis with pre-oxidation of Met and Cys, as described previously.
217 Insufficient sample N on the filters precluded the determination of Trp on the residues.

218 *Calculations and Statistical Analysis*

219 Digestibility of DM, N and individual AA was calculated as the disappearance of DM, OM,
220 N or AA after enzymatic hydrolysis, corrected for the procedure blank. Determination of the AA
221 concentration of microbes after multiple hydrolysis times was performed using a method similar
222 to Rutherford et al. (2008) and Rutherford (2009). Amino acid concentration (mg/g of DM) was
223 plotted against hydrolysis time and a non-linear equation was used to fit the curves to each plot:

$$B(t) = \frac{A_0 h (e^{-lh} - e^{-ht})}{h-l}$$

224 where $B(t)$ is the AA concentration at time t , h is the hydrolysis rate (proportion of bound AA
225 hydrolyzed per hour), l is the loss rate (proportion of bound AA destroyed per hour) and A_o is the
226 actual AA content of the protein within the sample. A_o, h and l for each sample were derived from
227 each AA using least-squares non-linear regression with the constraints that $A_o > 0$, and $h > 0$.
228 Rutherford (2009) utilized an additional term to account for free AA content (analyzed as AA
229 determined before hydrolysis). This was not included in the current model, as free AA in
230 bacterial and protozoal samples was considered to be negligible.

231 The AA profile of Trial B bacteria and protozoa determined using the different hydrolysis
232 methods was compared using two, one-sided paired t-tests (TOST option in the TTEST
233 procedure of SAS version 9.3; SAS Institute, Cary, NC). This procedure, common in bio-
234 equivalence testing, allows the researcher to specify biologically relevant differences in means
235 determined by competing methods. In this study, an AA profile difference that would
236 theoretically alter the calculated flow of any individual AA by 6 or more g/d was considered
237 biologically relevant for the following reasons: 1) Commercial AA products fed at 10 g/d (a
238 common minimum feeding rate) provide approximately 6 g metabolizable AA (Whitehouse,
239 2016). 2) With a commonly limiting AA such as Met, a 6 g shift represents a 10% difference in
240 the total supply of 60 g/d. To convert this 6 g/d metabolizable AA value into a relevant change in
241 bacterial or protozoal AA profile (measured in g/100 AA) the following calculations were made:
242 The microbial AA flowing out of the rumen of a lactating dairy cow was assumed to be
243 approximately 1,900 g/d (Reynal et al., 2007; Fessenden, 2016). Assuming 80% of the flow is
244 bacteria AA, and 20 % is protozoa AA (Dijkstra et al., 1998; Fessenden, 2016); this corresponds
245 to 1,520 and 380 g/d of AA for bacteria and protozoa, respectively. Therefore, a 6 g/d change in
246 supply corresponds to 0.4 percentage units (6 g / 1,520 g) and 1.5 percentage units (6 g / 380 g)

247 change in any individual AA in the AA profile of bacteria and protozoa, respectively. In a
248 nutrition modeling context, Fessenden (2016) saw significant improvements in CNCPS
249 predictions of AA flow when similar magnitude changes in AA profile of microbial fractions
250 were evaluated. The bio-equivalency testing framework requires thoughtful interpretation of the
251 results. Emphasis is placed on the comparison of the 90% confidence interval of the mean
252 difference and its comparison the pre-determined biologically relevant ranges defined previously
253 in this section.

254 For AA digestibility, a two-sample t-test was used to compare the digestibility estimates
255 between trials A and B. Only means from trials A and B were analyzed, as limited amount of
256 sample precluded digestibility and multiple hydrolysis time analysis for trials C and D. For all
257 analysis, n=2 for each comparison.

258 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

259 *Microbial Chemical Composition and Digestibility*

260 All donor cows were fed diets with fairly similar chemical and nutrient composition (Table
261 1). Diets were typical of the Northeastern and Midwestern US with corn silage and alfalfa silage
262 as the principal forages. Organic matter content in bacteria and protozoa was similar to values
263 obtained previously from ruminal and omasal isolates (Brito et al., 2006; 2007) although OM
264 content is strongly influenced by the isolation procedures used (Martin et al., 1994). Trial A
265 bacteria and protozoa had numerically decreased DM, OM, and N digestibility compared with
266 trial B (Table 2). This is likely due to the use of formalin in trial A vs. trial B, as formaldehyde
267 readily reacts with proteins to form products resistant to digestion (Barry, 1976). While diet and
268 animal differences between trials might also have contributed to observed differences, the
269 direction and magnitude of the difference between trial A and B for OM, DM, and N digestibility

270 suggests formalin treatment is a likely cause of the differences observed. Bacteria isolates had
271 similar AA as a percent of DM, while the lower N content of bacteria from trial C (7.5 %)
272 resulted in AA N contributing more to total N compared with bacteria from trials A and B.
273 Protozoa from trial D had the highest AA N as a % of N. Bacterial AA N values for trials A and
274 B were on the low end of the range (54.9 – 86.7 AA-N, % of total N) reported by Clark et al.
275 (1992). This could be related to the site of sampling as microbes in trials A and B were isolated
276 from omasal contents, while trials C and D were isolated from ruminal contents, which may
277 contribute to different amounts of NAN. Volden et al. (1999b) reported diaminopimelic acid and
278 purines were affected by diet and differed between protozoa and bacterial fractions in the rumen,
279 and similarly, Illg and Stern (1994) noted wide ranges in non-amino N concentration between
280 duodenal and ruminal samples.

281 Microbial isolates averaged 50.6 % and 49% EAA as a % of total AA for bacteria and
282 protozoa, respectively (Table 3). Bacterial isolates from trial B had numerically increased
283 concentrations of Lys and Met, while trials B and D protozoa also demonstrated increased Lys
284 and Met concentrations. For NEAA, bacteria and protozoa isolations were similar among trials
285 with the exception of Tyr, which was reduced in trials A and C. Again, the differences in
286 microbial isolates from trial A and C for individual AA are likely due to formalin treatment.
287 Volden et al. (1999b) reported decreased recoveries of Lys, Met, and Tyr with vs. without
288 formaldehyde treatment in solid and liquid associated bacteria and Whitehouse et al. (1994)
289 reported approximately 20% less Tyr in microbial samples after treatment with formaldehyde.
290 Beyond these differences likely due to formaldehyde treatment, the AA profile of bacteria and
291 protozoa agreed fairly well with literature reports with some exceptions. Methionine averaged
292 3.2 % of total AA among all samples, and was at the high end of the range reported by Clark et

293 al. (1992). The variability of reported AA composition is likely related more to the isolation
294 techniques rather than true differences among microbial populations. Protozoa AA composition
295 has been shown to remain fairly constant among sampling times (Martin et al., 1996; Volden et
296 al., 1999a). Differences among microbial fractions (solid associated bacteria, liquid associated
297 bacteria, and protozoa) have been well documented (Chiquette and Benchaar, 1998; Korhonen et
298 al., 2002); however reasons for the differences are not clear. Procedures used to detach microbes
299 report recoveries ranging from 20 % (Martín-Orúe et al., 1998) to 80 % (Whitehouse et al.,
300 1994). This might call into question the true ability of recovered bacteria to represent the
301 particle associated bacteria (Korhonen et al., 2002). Ultimately it is likely that differences in
302 isolation methods are responsible for much of the reported ranges of AA composition, while a
303 smaller portion of the variation can be considered a true difference in AA composition (Fonseca
304 et al., 2014).

305 Bacteria and protozoa from Trial A demonstrated decreased digestibility (Table 4) for most
306 AA, which again is likely related directly to formalin treatment. Total bacterial EAA digestibility
307 averaged 74.9 and 88.0 % for trials A and B, respectively ($P = 0.01$). Protozoa AA digestibility
308 was also likely affected by formalin treatment in trial A, however not all AA were significantly
309 different between trials. Arginine, Leu, Val and Glu all demonstrated decreased digestibility with
310 formalin treatment. The ability of the uN assay to detect differences in digestibility due to
311 formalin treatment indicates the assay might be a useful evaluation tool for other protein
312 containing feedstuffs, especially rumen protected protein supplements. Other techniques such as
313 the mobile bag technique (Hvelplund et al., 1992) and the modified 3-step assay (Gargallo et al.,
314 2006) rely on retention of all undigested proteins in bags, and as such, estimates of microbial
315 digestibility of AA from those assays are of limited value due to potential for loss from the bag.

316 The in vivo nature of the mobile bag technique does ensure exposure to idealized enzymatic
317 hydrolysis conditions; however this requires extensively cannulated animals and a significant
318 amount of sample to use the method; something not easily done with isolated omasal microbial
319 samples. Heat damaged blood meal, while relatively soluble and able to pass through pores, can
320 have a very low digestible fraction (Ross et al., 2013). Alternative in vivo techniques such as the
321 precision-fed cecectomized rooster bioassay have been used in ruminant feeds (Titgemeyer et al.,
322 1990, Boucher et al., 2009), and Fonseca et al. (2014) recently applied the technique to ruminal
323 bacteria isolates. Total AA digestibility reported by Fonseca et al. (2014) averaged 76%, with a
324 range of 62 % (Cys) to 82 % (Met). The mean AA digestibility in non-formalin treated bacteria
325 in the current trial was 88%, with a range of 84 % (Tyr) to 95 % (Cys). Differences between the
326 studies are likely related to the different enzyme activities and digestive processes between these
327 two methods and the enzyme and pH differences between avian and ruminant digestion (Guerino
328 and Baumrucker, 1987; Parker, 1968; Ross et al., 2013). Storm et al., (1983) calculated a mean
329 intestinal digestibility of 85% (range of 80 to 88 %) in sheep maintained on VFA, minerals and
330 isolated ruminal microorganisms. Mathematical techniques have also been used to estimate
331 digestibility and Tas et al. (1981) utilized a regression approach to estimate true digestibility of
332 rumen bacteria at 87%, while Hvelplund and Hesselholt (1987) reported true AA digestibilities
333 between 80 and 91% for most AA using a similar approach. General agreement between the
334 previously utilized techniques in ruminants and the current application of the assay developed by
335 Ross et al. (2013) suggest that in-vitro uN determination might be useful for future studies of AA
336 digestibility in diverse supplemental protein sources of metabolizable AA.

337 *Amino Acid Determination from Multiple Hydrolysis Times*

338 The release of individual AA in trial B bacteria and protozoa are in Figures 2-4. Extraction
339 of Ile, Met, and Val demonstrated greater release over time and thus positive slopes at time
340 points greater than 24 h and hydrolysis rate (h ; Table 5) were lowest for these AA. Of the NEAA
341 of the protozoa, Ala, Cys and Pro demonstrated increasing concentrations of AA as hydrolysis
342 time increased. Serine concentrations of bacteria and protozoa decreased markedly after 24 h of
343 hydrolysis as indicated by a relatively high loss rate (l ; Table 5). Overall, total AA were
344 hydrolyzed from the sample matrix at a rate of 0.415 and 0.357 mg/h for bacteria and protozoa,
345 respectively. The same least-squares non-linear regression approach has been previously
346 employed in the analysis of other AA containing compounds, including lysozyme (Darragh et al.,
347 1996), cat hair (Hendriks et al., 1998), human milk (Darragh and Moughan, 1998) and some
348 common feedstuffs (Rutherford, 2009). To our knowledge, no previous work has reported rumen
349 microbial AA content after multiple hydrolysis times. Rutherford (2009) reported similarly low h
350 for Ile and Val, while Ser was reported to have the highest l of any AA.

351 The use of multiple hydrolysis times provides some insight into the appropriateness of single
352 time point hydrolysis for AA in rumen microbial samples. While both techniques are simply
353 estimates of the theoretical unknown true AA composition, the regression method has been
354 shown to more accurately estimate the true AA profile in purified proteins (Darragh et al., 1996).
355 The AA profile determined from the regression compared with the value determined at 24 h was
356 used to establish the equivalency of the two methods in relation to biologically relevant ranges
357 (Table 6). This alternative framework of hypothesis testing requires thoughtful interpretation of
358 the results. While some AA may exhibit negligible mean differences between analysis method,
359 such as His and Thr, the interpretation of the 90% CI indicates that they are not equivalent, as the
360 CI lies outside the pre-determined range of biologically relevant differences. Of the bacterial AA,

361 the 24 h time point method was determined to be not equivalent to the multiple time point
362 hydrolysis method for every AA except Gly. The 90 % CI of the mean difference was greater
363 than ± 1 g/100g AA for Ile, Leu, Met, and Val (Figure 5). The relatively large underestimation of
364 Ile, Met, and Val results in an overestimation of approximately 5% for the rapidly hydrolyzed
365 AA such as Arg, Leu, and Lys. This is similar to the results of Rutherford (2009), where soybean
366 meal Ile content was underestimated by 8.4 %, followed by Val (7.0%), Ser (4.6%), and Thr
367 (4.3%). The relatively low range in acceptable equivalence (mean difference of -0.4 to 0.4
368 g/g100 AA for bacteria) serves to emphasize the importance of the AA profile of bacteria on AA
369 supply determinations.

370 Protozoa AA determinations between methods showed more general agreement between
371 hydrolysis methods, largely due to the greater range in equivalence limits (mean difference of -
372 1.5 to 1.5 g/100g AA for protozoa). Six of the 10 EAA and 6 of the 8 NEAA were deemed
373 equivalent between methods (Table 7). Similar to the bacterial results, Ile and Met were
374 underestimated (13.4 and 16.5 %, respectively; Figure 6) when determined with a single time
375 point hydrolysis, resulting in over estimation of several other AA, namely Lys and Asp.

376 ***Implications for AA Predictions in Mathematical Nutritional Models***

377 The non-equivalence of the determination methods are important to consider when
378 developing models that rely on AA profiles of microbial protein and feedstuffs. The results from
379 this study and the Rutherford (2009) data indicate that specific AA, especially Ile, Leu, Met, and
380 Val could be underestimated in many post-ruminal AA flow studies when utilizing single time
381 point hydrolysis between 21 and 24 h. This consideration should be recognized when literature
382 values for AA are used in development and evaluation of nutritional models that seek to
383 accurately predict AA supply, especially those that utilize mechanistic post-absorptive sub-

384 models. For example, in this analysis Met was determined to contribute more to total AA than
385 has previously been reported. Currently, the CNCPS v.6.55 uses a profile that corresponds to
386 approximately 1.2% of microbial AA as Met (Higgs et al, 2015; Van Amburgh et al., 2015).
387 Compared with the current analysis (4.7 % of total AA), predictions of AA supply from the
388 model would be expected to increase more than 2 fold (assuming microbial AA accounts for
389 50% of total AA). Adoption of these values will likely result in a re-evaluation of many common
390 ratios and relationships currently used to balance essential AA for lactating cattle. Given the data
391 presented here and by Rutherford (2009), this might also be true for many of the EAA. The
392 current data, especially regarding the branched-chain AA, would help explain the prediction bias
393 for those AA observed in CNCPS v.7 despite the relatively good prediction of NAN (Higgs,
394 2014; Higgs et al. submitted). Overall, this analysis illustrates how sensitive nutritional models
395 that rely on microbial AA profiles could be to errors in AA analysis, especially when a single
396 profile accounts for a large portion of the predicted AA supply. Additionally, future studies
397 should evaluate the use of formalin as a microbial preservative if AA analysis or digestibility is
398 considered as an outcome. Model developers should not include any data from procedures that
399 utilize formalin as a microbial preservative, as it will likely lead to biases and poor model
400 evaluation.

401 CONCLUSIONS

402 Microbial composition and digestibility of individual AA are very important for the accurate
403 predictions in many nutrition models used to feed dairy cattle. Previous literature reports have
404 used techniques that have known limitations, while new procedures developed to address these
405 limitations might provide better estimations of key parameters needed to properly characterize
406 metabolizable AA supply. Multiple time point hydrolysis has been shown to improve the

407 determination of AA in feeds, and the technique has been applied here. Digestibility of AA in
408 microbial isolations were measured using a new in vitro technique. While in vivo techniques
409 might better represent the bio-physical condition of the ruminant animal, they can be expensive
410 and rely on surgically altered animals. In vitro digestibility estimates were similar to those
411 reported using previous techniques, and the assay was sensitive to formalin treatment, a process
412 known to reduce bioavailability of proteins. Methionine and branched-chain AA concentration of
413 microbial isolates was higher than previously reported and this might have implications for
414 predicting AA supply in cattle.

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587

Table 1. Donor cow diet ingredient and chemical composition, intake, and milk production

Item	Trial ¹			
	A	B	C	D ²
Number of isolations in each sample:	72	108	NA	8
Diet ingredient composition				
Corn silage	44.0	28.6	45.6	45.3
Haycrop silage	12.0	22.9	-	13.8
Wheat straw	-	-	2.1	-
Corn meal	12.0	28.6	11.1	12.5
Barley grain, ground	-	-	6.2	-
Soybean meal	-	-	4.5	8.6
Canola meal	-	9.2	-	-
Rumen protected soybean meal	8.2	-	3.8	2.1
Commercial fermentation byproduct	1.5	-	-	-
Corn distillers	-	-	-	3.8
Cottonseed	-	-	8.4	6.4
Wheat middlings	3.4	-	-	2.8
Soybean hulls	5.8	5.5	-	-
Citrus pulp	3.3	1.0	7.3	-
Sugar	-	-	2.2	-
Molasses	0.9	-	-	-
Fatty acid supplement	1.2	0.6	-	1.0
Blood meal	1.7	1.4	1.1	-
Minerals, vitamins, and additives	6.2	2.2	7.7	3.7
Diet chemical composition				
OM, % of DM	93.9	92.6	92.5	91.8
CP, % of DM	16.0	16.9	14.8	16.3
Soluble protein, % of CP	35.7	43.7	31.9	34.1
RDP, % of CP ³	51.9	59.8	54.3	62.0
aNDFom, % of DM	31.1	30.6	33.6	32.1
ADF, % of DM	19.8	20.5	NA	20.2
ADL, % of DM	3.0	3.4	1.9	3.1
Sugars, % of DM	5.4	3.5	5.4	2.8
Starch, % of DM	27.6	27.9	25.4	26.7
Ether extract, % of DM	4.9	3.9	4.5	5.6
ME, Mcal/kg ³	2.5	2.6	2.7	2.6
Cattle intake and production				
Dry matter intake, kg/d	27.3	26.1	23.8	NA
Milk production, kg/d	41.7	41.6	30.9	NA

¹Trial A: Fessenden (2016); Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data); Trial C: Recktenwald (2010) and Recktenwald et al. (2013); Trial D: T. Hackmann, personal communication

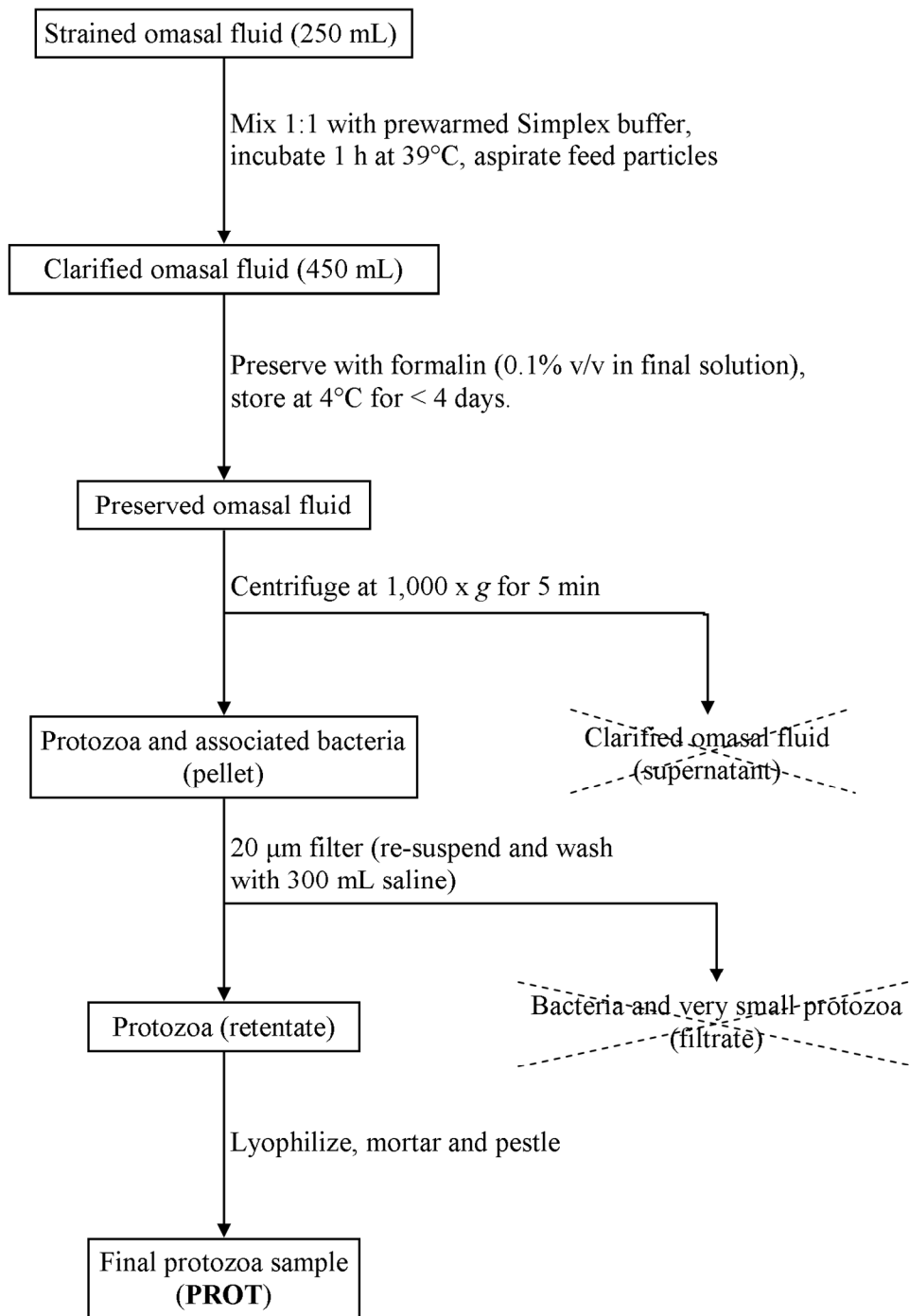
²Chemical composition estimated using CNCPS v. 6.55 using diet ingredient composition

³Metabolizable energy predicted using CNCPS v. 6.55

588

589

For Peer Review



590

591 **Figure 1.** Flowchart for preparation of protozoa isolates in trials A and B. Fractions discarded
 592 are crossed out. Trial B isolation differed only in the omission of the formalin preservation step.

593

Table 2. Chemical composition and intestinal digestibility of bacteria and protozoa isolates

Item	Trial ¹			
	A	B	C	D ²
Bacteria				-
OM, % of DM	83.9	92.1	90.1	-
N, % of DM	8.1	8.9	7.5	-
uN, % of total N ²	36.4	15.1	-	-
AA, % of DM	28.2	34.3	32.5	
AA N, % of N	47.3	51.8	57.8	-
DM digestibility, %	53.6	69.0	-	-
OM digestibility, %	68.2	81.9	-	-
N digestibility, %	63.6	84.9	-	-
Protozoa				
OM, % of DM	87.0	85.0	90.8	93.8
N, % of DM	8.3	8.2	8.1	8.4
uN, % total N ²	46.7	24.7	-	-
AA, % of DM	28.4	31.7	37.4	45.3
AA N, % of N	53.2	53.7	65.9	71.3
DM digestibility, %	48.7	61.9	-	-
OM digestibility, %	65.9	88.4	-	-
N digestibility, %	53.3	75.3	-	-

¹Trial A: Fessenden (2016); Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data); Trial C: Recktenwald (2010) and Recktenwald et al. (2013); Trial D: T. Hackmann, personal communication

²intestinally unavailable N as determined by the procedure of Ross et al. (2013)

Table 3. Amino acid profile (% of total AA) of microbial isolates using a 24 h hydrolysis time.

Item	Bacteria AA				Protozoa AA			
	Trial ¹				Trial ¹			
	A	B	C	D	A	B	C	D
Essential AA								
Arg	5.4	5.0	5.0	-	5.5	5.4	5.4	4.7
His	2.1	2.1	2.0	-	2.9	2.5	2.3	2.0
Ile	5.0	4.0	4.9	-	4.7	3.8	5.7	5.5
Leu	4.8	5.6	6.8	-	5.5	6.1	4.6	4.2
Lys	4.7	7.5	4.8	-	5.7	8.8	5.3	10.2
Met	3.3	4.5	2.6	-	2.7	3.1	2.1	3.8
Phe	6.6	6.0	6.8	-	7.4	6.5	7.3	7.6
Thr	6.3	5.7	5.4	-	5.4	4.8	6.1	4.7
Trp	5.7	5.5	5.3	-	4.6	4.5	3.1	1.4
Val	6.7	5.9	5.6	-	5.7	4.7	4.7	4.7
Total EAA	50.8	51.9	49.3	-	50.1	50.2	46.5	48.8
Non-essential AA								
Ala	7.9	6.9	6.7	-	5.9	5.1	4.7	4.0
Asp	12.2	11.1	8.8	-	11.8	10.8	12.1	11.6
Cys	1.4	1.5	1.1	-	2.0	2.1	1.7	2.2
Glu	12.4	11.3	13.0	-	14.0	13.6	15.2	13.6
Gly	5.7	4.9	5.2	-	4.7	4.5	4.3	4.0
Pro	2.1	2.0	6.9	-	2.7	3.0	7.9	5.6
Ser	5.5	4.6	5.4	-	5.3	5.4	5.5	4.2
Tyr	2.0	6.0	3.5	-	3.5	5.4	2.0	6.1
Total NEAA	49.2	48.1	50.7	-	49.9	49.8	53.5	51.2

¹Trial A: Fessenden (2016); Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data); Trial C: Recktenwald (2010) and Recktenwald et al. (2013); Trial D: T. Hackmann, personal communication

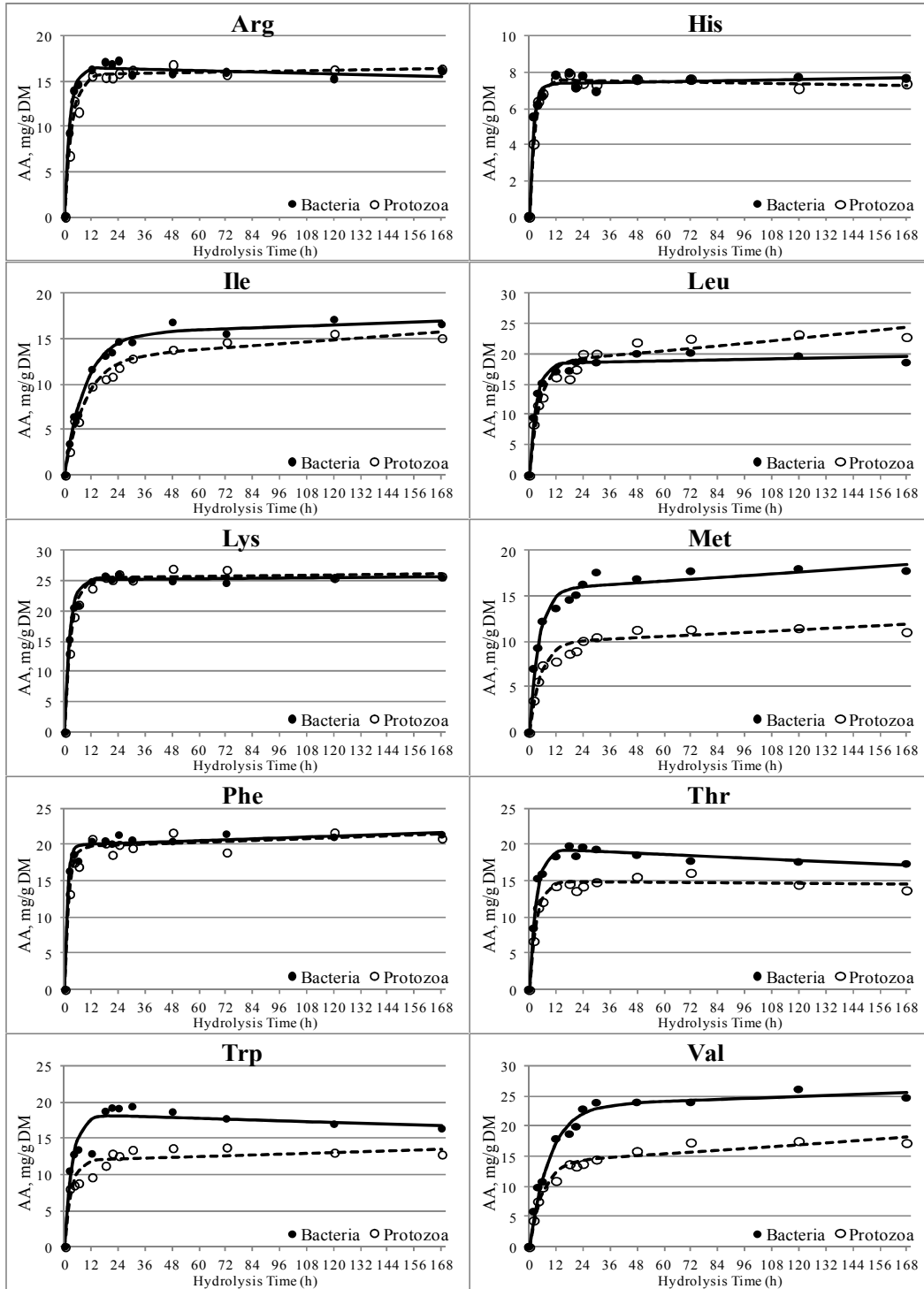
Table 4. Intestinal digestibility (% of AA) of AA of omasal bacteria and protozoa

Item	Bacteria				Protozoa			
	Trial ¹		SEM	<i>P</i>	Trial ¹		SEM	<i>P</i>
	A	B			A	B		
Essential AA								
Arg	74.0	88.2	0.9	0.03	69.0	89.0	0.4	0.01
His	78.4	90.7	1.9	0.03	69.7	70.9	11.9	0.93
Ile	76.8	88.9	0.6	0.00	75.3	85.7	3.0	0.08
Leu	78.5	92.2	1.5	0.01	74.3	92.5	1.1	0.01
Lys	75.5	91.0	1.8	0.02	68.2	77.5	12.6	0.54
Met	80.7	88.8	1.0	0.07	78.4	90.1	0.9	0.17
Phe	69.0	83.2	1.2	0.01	67.5	79.7	2.7	0.06
Thr	76.3	89.8	1.1	0.01	73.5	79.2	9.3	0.61
Trp	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
Val	69.9	88.0	4.0	0.05	63.2	83.3	3.8	0.04
Total EAA	74.9	88.0	1.4	0.01	70.6	82.8	4.4	0.11
Non-essential AA								
Ala	72.5	87.2	2.2	0.02	67.5	80.1	6.6	0.20
Asp	77.5	90.8	1.2	0.01	75.8	86.3	5.0	0.18
Cys	82.1	94.8	0.7	0.05	89.3	93.6	1.7	0.15
Glu	68.5	85.2	3.6	0.04	67.5	87.7	0.8	0.01
Gly	69.4	85.8	3.7	0.05	63.5	72.8	13.4	0.56
Pro	77.9	88.4	1.4	0.10	78.1	80.7	4.7	0.66
Ser	75.0	89.3	1.3	0.01	71.9	56.7	33.6	0.70
Tyr	34.0	84.3	0.4	0.00	55.9	73.8	4.5	0.06
Total NEAA	71.6	87.5	1.9	0.02	70.2	80.2	7.6	0.32
Total AA	73.3	87.8	1.7	0.01	70.4	81.6	6.0	0.21

¹Trial A: Fessenden (2016); Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data); Trial C: Recktenwald (2010) and Recktenwald et al. (2013); Trial D: T. Hackmann, personal communication. n=2 for each comparison

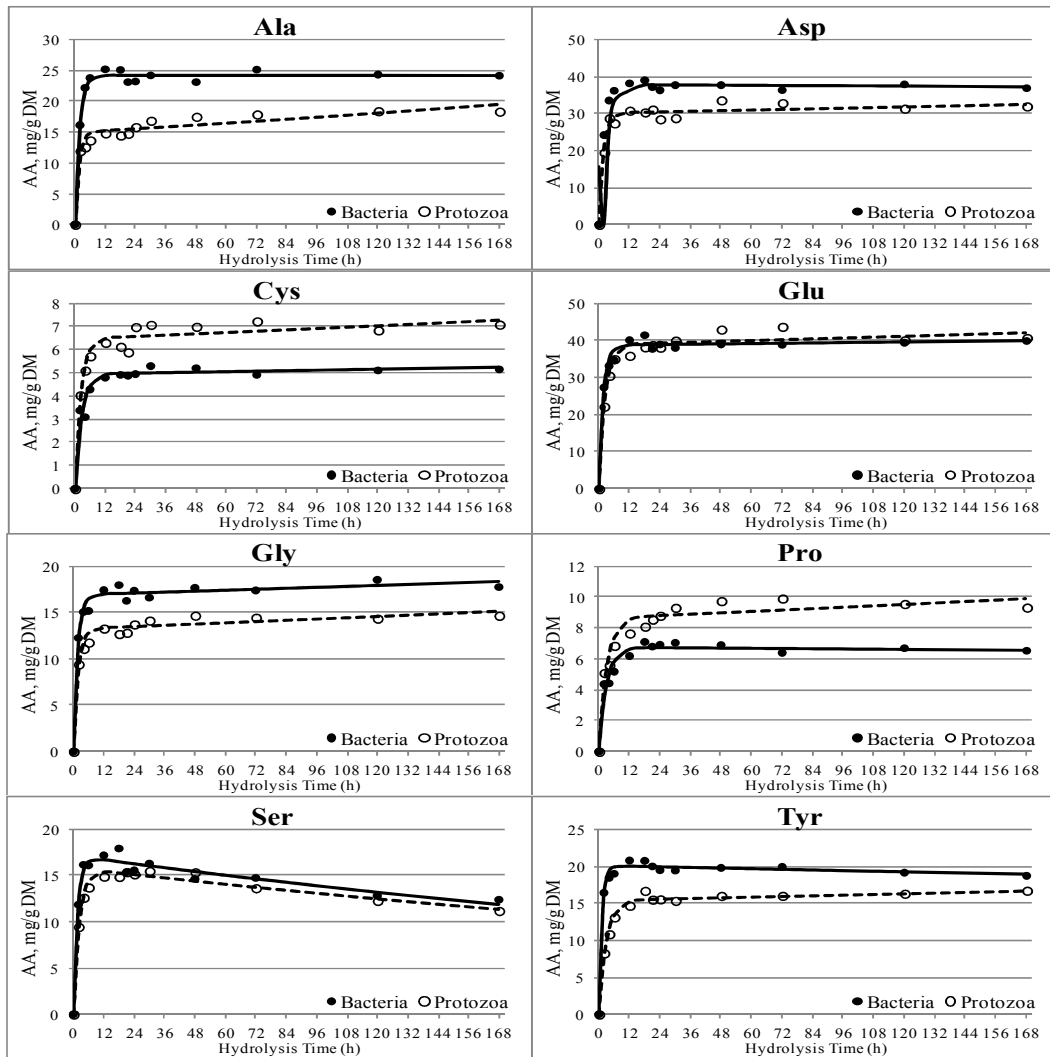
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599 **Figure 2.** Effect of hydrolysis time (h) on content of essential AA (mg/g DM) from freeze dried
 600 isolations of omasal bacteria (●) and protozoa (○) from Trial B. The mean of each time point (2
 601 replicates each) is plotted against the least squared regression line for each respective dataset.



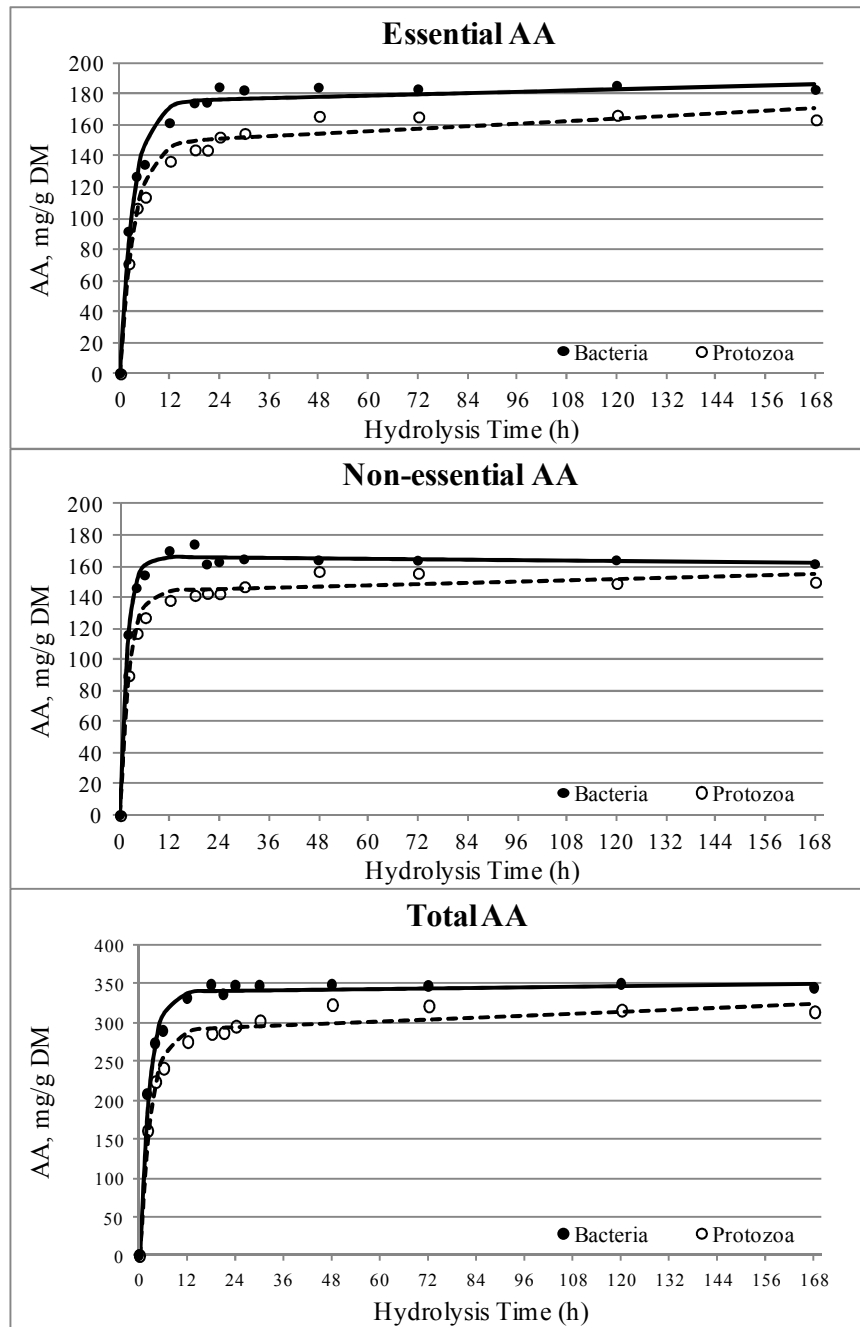
602

603 **Figure 3.** Effect of hydrolysis time (h) on content of non-essential AA (mg/g DM) from freeze

604 dried isolations of omasal bacteria (●) and protozoa (○) from Trial B. The mean of each time

605 point (2 replicates each) is plotted against the least squared regression line for each respective

606 dataset.



607

608 **Figure 4.** Effect of hydrolysis time (h) on content of essential, non-essential, and total AA (mg/g
 609 DM) from freeze dried isolations of omasal bacteria (●) and protozoa (○) from Trial B. The
 610 mean of each time point (2 replicates each) is plotted against the least squared regression line for
 611 each respective dataset.

Table 5. Rate of hydrolysis (h)¹ and loss (l)² for individual and total AA from omasal bacteria and protozoa isolates from Trial B. Values are presented as the mean (SEM).

Item	Bacteria		Protozoa	
	h (h ⁻¹)	l (h ⁻¹)	h (h ⁻¹)	l (h ⁻¹)
Essential AA				
Arg	0.414 (0.045)	0.00039 (0.00078)	0.303 (0.027)	-0.00025 (0.00001)
His	0.577 (0.222)	-0.00027 (0.00048)	0.409 (0.110)	0.00026 (0.00038)
Ile	0.107 (0.037)	-0.00054 (0.00080)	0.106 (0.007)	-0.00122 (0.00034)
Leu	0.323 (0.019)	-0.00037 (0.00086)	0.217 (0.002)	-0.00162 (0.00060)
Lys	0.421 (0.017)	-0.00012 (0.00034)	0.333 (0.026)	-0.00016 (0.00051)
Met	0.234 (0.079)	-0.00097 (0.00008)	0.198 (0.100)	-0.00112 (0.00041)
Phe	0.782 (0.193)	-0.00050 (0.00108)	0.529 (0.286)	-0.00052 (0.00086)
Thr	0.323 (0.056)	0.00077 (0.00007)	0.318 (0.030)	0.00015 (0.00042)
Trp	0.283 (0.196)	0.00054 (0.00090)	0.332 (0.303)	-0.00072 (0.00122)
Val	0.312 (0.054)	-0.00054 (0.00055)	0.169 (0.021)	-0.00153 (0.00003)
Total EAA	0.303 (0.009)	-0.00038 (0.00022)	0.287 (0.002)	-0.00084 (0.00033)
Non-essential AA				
Ala	0.571 (0.183)	0.00001 (0.00063)	0.658 (0.132)	-0.00156 (0.00100)
Asp	0.523 (0.057)	0.00014 (0.00039)	0.548 (0.168)	-0.00044 (0.00077)
Cys	0.377 (0.035)	-0.00035 (0.00005)	0.429 (0.125)	-0.00070 (0.00023)
Glu	0.550 (0.027)	-0.00019 (0.00005)	0.397 (0.060)	-0.00048 (0.00118)
Gly	0.599 (0.174)	-0.00049 (0.00020)	0.541 (0.030)	-0.00081 (0.00009)
Pro	0.324 (0.115)	0.00018 (0.00021)	0.304 (0.014)	-0.00081 (0.00045)
Ser	0.622 (0.097)	0.00218 (0.00049)	0.418 (0.011)	0.00198 (0.00079)
Tyr	0.804 (0.254)	0.00036 (0.00024)	0.328 (0.476)	-0.00046 (0.00038)
Total NEAA	0.568 (0.112)	0.00014 (0.00024)	0.447 (0.107)	-0.00045 (0.00075)
Total AA	0.415 (0.048)	-0.00018 (0.00021)	0.357 (0.037)	-0.00067 (0.00054)

¹proportion of bound AA hydrolyzed per hour.²proportion of bound AA destroyed per hour.

Table 6. Comparison of the AA composition (g/100 g AA) of omasal bacteria from trial B¹ determined using multiple hydrolysis time point or single hydrolysis time point methods.

AA	Method		S - M	SED ²	90 % CI		EQ
	Single	Multiple			Lower	Upper	
Essential AA							
Arg	5.00	4.73	0.27	0.03	0.06	0.48	No
His	2.12	2.11	0.01	0.14	-0.85	0.86	No
Ile	4.05	4.62	-0.58	0.46	-3.46	2.31	No
Leu	5.60	5.32	0.28	0.26	-1.35	1.91	No
Lys	7.54	7.17	0.37	0.04	0.11	0.63	No
Met	4.49	4.63	-0.14	0.36	-2.41	2.13	No
Phe	6.00	5.77	0.23	0.09	-0.31	0.77	No
Thr	5.49	5.53	-0.04	0.10	-0.69	0.60	No
Trp	5.97	5.77	0.20	0.03	-0.01	0.41	No
Val	5.92	6.32	-0.41	0.32	-2.41	1.60	No
Non-essential AA							
Ala	6.88	6.94	-0.06	0.21	-1.36	1.24	No
Asp	11.06	10.79	0.28	0.03	0.05	0.50	No
Cys	1.45	1.40	0.05	0.07	-0.40	0.51	No
Glu	11.26	11.06	0.21	0.58	-3.45	3.86	No
Gly	4.86	4.83	-0.02	0.02	-0.10	0.15	Yes
Pro	2.03	1.91	0.12	0.16	-0.89	1.12	No
Ser	4.58	4.89	-0.31	0.44	-3.06	2.44	No
Tyr	5.71	5.65	0.06	0.13	-0.76	0.89	No

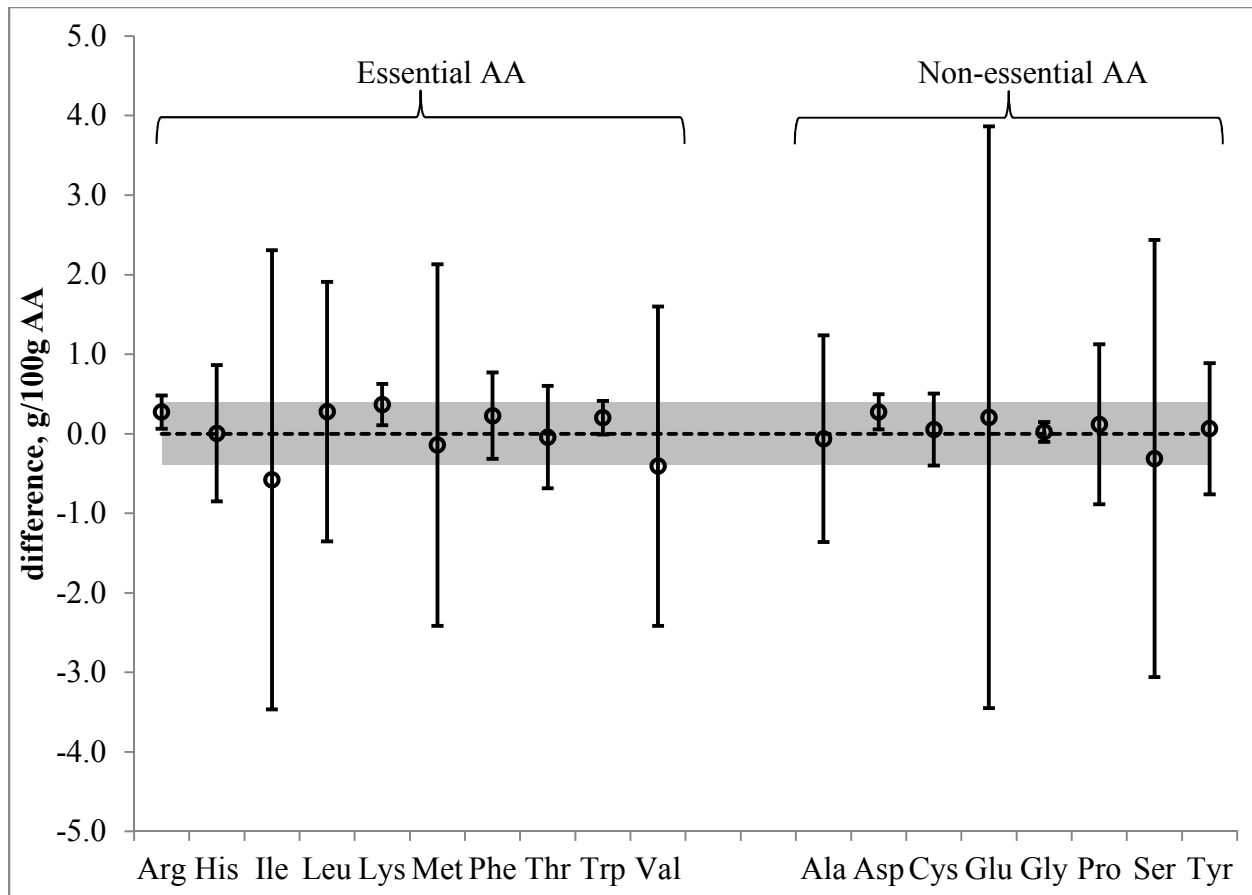
¹Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data). n=2 for all comparisons.

²Standard error of the difference.

²Equivalence determined from 2 one-sided paired t-tests. Methods deemed to be equivalent if 90% CI falls within defined equivalency of -0.4 to 0.4 g/100g of AA.

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614



615

616 **Figure 5.** Equivalency chart for difference in AA composition (g/100 g AA) of Trial B bacteria

617 determined using multiple vs. single time point hydrolysis methods. Open circles (○) represent

618 the mean difference and error bars represent the 90% confidence interval around the mean

619 difference. Shaded region represents equivalency defined as -0.4 to 0.4 g/100 g bacterial AA.

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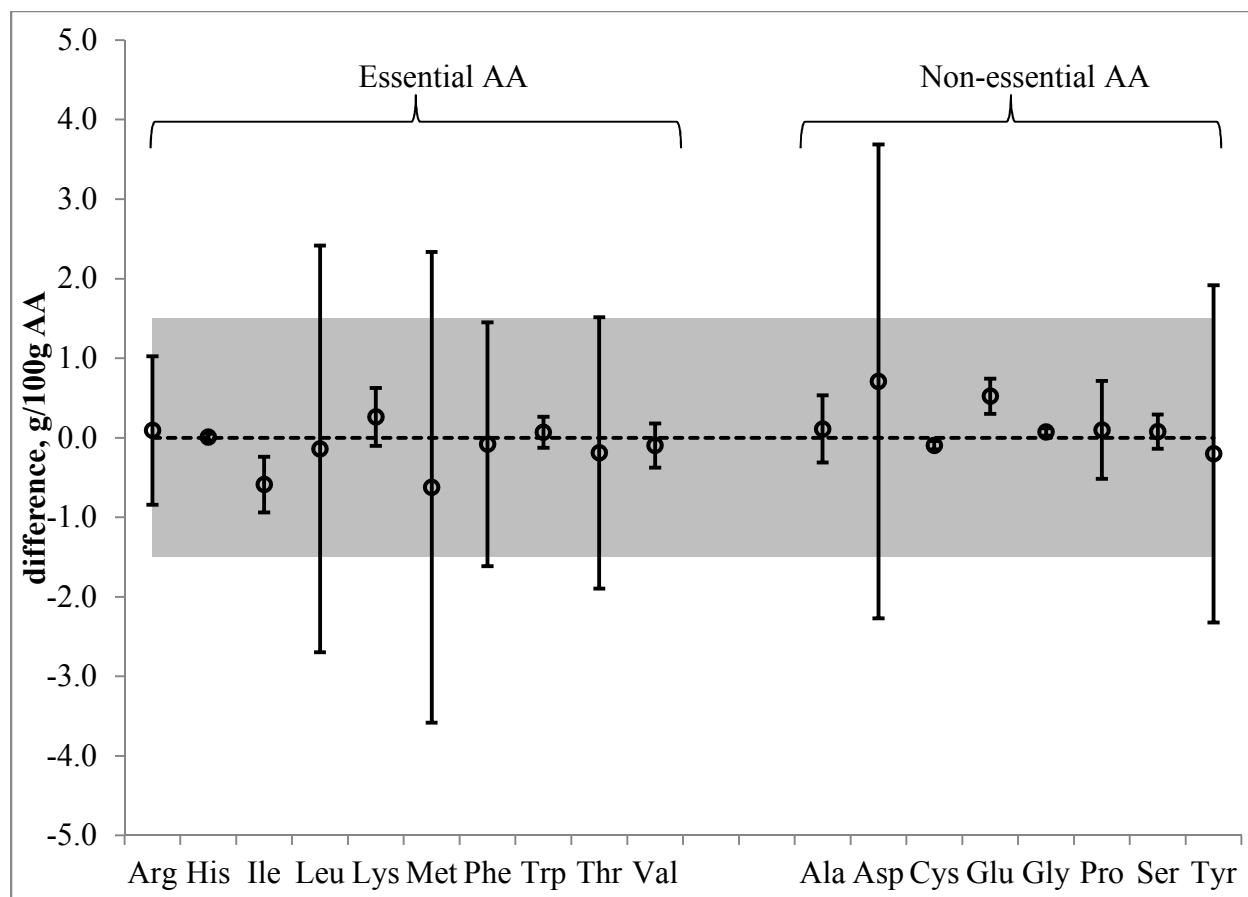
Table 7. Comparison of the AA composition (g/100 g AA) of omasal protozoa from trial B¹ determined using multiple vs. single time point hydrolysis methods.

AA	Method		S - M	SED ²	90 % CI		EQ ³
	Single	Multiple			Lower	Upper	
Essential AA							
Arg	5.35	5.26	0.09	0.15	-0.84	1.03	Yes
His	2.53	2.52	0.01	0.01	-0.03	0.05	Yes
Ile	3.80	4.39	-0.59	0.06	-0.94	-0.24	Yes
Leu	6.11	6.25	-0.14	0.41	-2.70	2.42	No
Lys	8.81	8.55	0.26	0.06	-0.10	0.62	Yes
Met	3.14	3.77	-0.62	0.47	-3.58	2.34	No
Phe	6.49	6.58	-0.08	0.24	-1.61	1.45	No
Thr	5.41	5.34	0.07	0.03	-0.13	0.26	Yes
Trp	4.76	4.95	-0.19	0.27	-1.90	1.52	No
Val	4.65	4.75	-0.10	0.04	-0.38	0.18	Yes
Non-essential AA							
Ala	5.14	5.03	0.11	0.07	-0.31	0.53	Yes
Asp	10.85	10.14	0.71	0.47	-2.27	3.69	No
Cys	2.06	2.16	-0.09	0.01	-0.15	-0.04	Yes
Glu	13.56	13.03	0.52	0.04	0.30	0.74	Yes
Gly	4.48	4.41	0.07	0.01	0.03	0.12	Yes
Pro	2.99	2.89	0.10	0.10	-0.52	0.71	Yes
Ser	5.36	5.28	0.08	0.03	-0.14	0.29	Yes
Tyr	4.50	4.70	-0.20	0.34	-2.32	1.92	No

¹Trial B: Foskolos et al., (unpublished data). n=2 for all comparisons.

²Standard error of the difference.

³Equivalence determined from 2 one-sided paired t-tests. Methods deemed to be equivalent if 90% CI falls within defined equivalency of -1.5 to 1.5 g/100g of AA.



622
 623 **Figure 6.** Equivalency chart for difference in AA composition (g/100 g AA) of Trial B protozoa
 624 determined using multiple vs. single time point hydrolysis methods. Open circles (○) represent
 625 the mean difference and error bars represent the 90% confidence interval around the mean
 626 difference. Shaded region represents equivalency defined as -1.5 to 1.5 g/100 g protozoal AA.

627