1	Evaluating non-invasive markers of non-human primate immune activation and
2	inflammation
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22 Objectives: Health, disease and immune function are key areas of research in studies of 23 ecology and evolution, but work on free-ranging primates has been inhibited by a lack of direct non-invasive measures of condition. Here, we evaluate the potential usefulness of 24 25 non-invasive measurement of three biomarkers, the acute-phase proteins C-reactive protein 26 (CRP) and haptoglobin, and neopterin, a byproduct of macrophage activity. 27 Materials and Methods: We took advantage of veterinary checks on captive rhesus (24) and 28 long-tailed (3) macagues at the German Primate Center (DPZ) to compare serum marker 29 measures, before measuring concentrations in feces and urine, and evaluating relationships 30 between matched serum, urine and fecal concentrations. In a second study, we monitored 31 excretion of these markers in response to simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infection and 32 surgical tissue trauma, undertaken for a separate study. 33 Results: We found that each biomarker could be measured in each matrix. Serum and 34 urinary concentrations of neopterin were strongly and significantly correlated, but neither haptoglobin nor CRP concentrations in excreta proxied circulating serum concentrations. 35 36 Our infection study confirmed that urinary neopterin in particular is a reliable marker of 37 viral infection in macaques, but also indicated the potential of urinary and fecal CRP and haptoglobin as indicators of inflammation. 38 39 Discussion: We highlight the potential of noninvasive markers of immune function, especially of urinary neopterin, which correlates strongly with serum neopterin, and is 40 41 highly responsive to infection.

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43	Introduction
44	Health in general, and immune function in particular, are key areas of both applied and
45	basic research in the study of ecology and evolution (Kappeler & Nunn 2015). Areas of
46	research that include immune function as central elements include primate disease ecology
47	(e.g. Nunn, 2006, 2012), , MHC function and its role in pathogen responsiveness
48	(Schwensow et al., 2007) and mate choice (e.g. Schwensow et al., 2008), and the
49	importance of environmental and social stress and its effects on health and disease (e.g.
50	Gordis et al., 2008; Jemmott et al., 1988; Cavigelli and Chaudry 2012). Though the
51	assessment of immune function and activation is of great relevance for many studies, it has
52	proven difficult to measure in studies of large-bodied free-ranging mammals, where it is
53	often not possible to trap individuals for the collection of blood.
54	In recent decades, the non-invasive measurement of physiological parameters has
55	revolutionized studies of captive and free-ranging mammals, allowing unprecedented
56	investigation of the proximate factors mediating behavioral and life history variation. Such
57	techniques are particularly commonly used in larger-bodied animals such as elephants and
58	non-human primates. Established examples include the measurement of steroid hormones
59	(see Wheaton et al. 2011, for a review) as well as proteins and peptides, such as
60	concentrations of urinary C-peptide of insulin (Sherry and Ellison, 2007). One element of
61	physiology that is usually missing from field studies is a direct measure of infection or
62	immune activation. Physical health has instead been commonly assessed by using visual
63	estimates of physical condition, for example the estimation of body fat (e.g. Berman and
64	Schwarz, 1988; Koenig et al., 1997), and wounds (e.g. Archie et al., 2012), or by the
65	quantification of fecal parasite load (e.g. Gillespie et al., 2005; Gillespie and Chapman, 2006;

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> Weyher et al., 2006). Although useful, these measures are crude and only indirectly (if at all) reflect the immune status of an individual, and measures such as inter-individual differences in macroparasite loads measured at individual timepoints can be particularly hard to interpret and misleading with respect to aspects of immunity (e.g. Habig and Archie 2015). As such, new non-invasive markers of immune activity and health would be highly valuable. In the present study, we investigate several non-invasive (urinary and fecal) markers of immune responses that might potentially be useful to assess individual health in field studies of non-human primates. We focus specifically on macagues (where much work on non-invasive physiological assessment has been undertaken, e.g. Engelhardt et al., 2004, 2005; Brauch et al., 2008; Heistermann et al., 2006; Girard-Buttoz et al., 2009, 2011; Ostner et al., 2008; Higham et al., 2011a, 2013). Potential markers of the inflammatory immune response include cytokines and chemokines (e.g. urinary IL-8, IL-6; serum values of such cytokines have recently been published from free-ranging rhesus macaques, Hoffman et al., 2011), acute phase proteins, and surrogate markers of immune responses. We chose three markers for further investigation. The first two of these are the acute phase proteins C-reactive protein (CRP) and haptoglobin, which are secreted by the liver in response to most forms of tissue damage, infection, inflammation and neoplasia. They are therefore useful nonspecific biochemical inflammatory markers (Pepys and Hirschfield, 2003; Gabay and Kushner, 1999). An acute phase protein is defined as a protein that responds to inflammation with a change in concentration of at least 25% (Gabay and Kushner, 1999), but responses are usually much more substantial. In humans for example, CRP can increase in response to inflammation by more than 1000% (Gabay and Kushner, 1999; Pepys and Hirschfield, 2003) and in dogs CRP increases markedly (up to 45 fold) in response to surgery

2 3 4	89	(Yamamoto et al., 1993; Michelsen et al., 2012). Increased expression of such acute phase
5 6	90	proteins is often associated with long-term chronic health consequences (e.g. CRP and
7 8 9	91	cardiovascular disease, Ridker et al. 2000). The third biomarker we assessed was neopterin,
10 11	92	which is a byproduct of macrophage activity upon stimulation by γ -interferon secretion from
12 13	93	activated T-lymphocytes, and is regarded as an early marker of the Th1 response of cell-
14 15 16	94	mediated immunity (Widner et al., 2000). Apart from the general availability of assays to
17 18	95	measure these analytes in biological samples of primates, the fact that they are broadly
19 20	96	implicated in many immune responses and are not related to any specific infection makes
21 22 23	97	them highly suitable for primate field studies, where researchers will very rarely know the
24 25 26	98	precise infection or disease that the animals are suffering from.
20 27 28	99	In addition, these markers are commonly measured in blood and used in studies of
29 30 31	100	infection and disease in humans (neopterin, Plata-Nazar et al,. 2010, Rho et al., 2011; CRP,
32 33	101	Rudzite et al. 2003), but also in macaques (e.g. neopterin, Heyes et al., 1991; CRP, Hart et
34 35	102	al., 1998; Jinbo et al., 1998, 1999; Klingstroem et al., 2002), and in other mammals including
36 37 38	103	mice (CRP; Huntoon et al., 2008), dogs (CRP; Yamamoto et al., 1993), pigs (CRP; Breineková
39 40	104	et al., 2007) and other livestock (haptoglobin and CRP, Peterson et al., 2004). They have also
41 42	105	been measured in excretory products (urine and feces) of humans and have been utilized as
43 44 45	106	non-invasive markers of infection and immune activation, including in studies of intestinal
46 47	107	infection, inflammation and macrophage activity (fecal neopterin, Ledjeff et al., 2001;
48 49	108	Campbell et al., 2004; urinary and fecal neopterin, Husain et al., 2013), intestinal health
50 51 52	109	(fecal haptoglobin; Matsumoto et al., 2001), general immune status (urinary neopterin,
53 54	110	Baydar et al., 2011) and gynecological cancer (urinary neopterin, Melichar et al., 2006). In
55 56 57	111	such cases they may not be measured because excreta concentrations indicate systemic

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> infectious status, but because they are indicative of more specific local infections in tissues related to urinary or fecal excretion pathways, such as the kidneys and the gut. Finally, some have been investigated and/or utilized as non-invasive markers of immune function in non-human animals, including primates. For example, urinary neopterin has been used to monitor simian immunodeficiency virus (SIV) infection in rhesus macaques (Fendrich et al., 1989; Stahl-Hennig et al., 2002), while urinary neopterin (Amann et al., 2001) and salivary haptoglobin and CRP (Gómez-Laguna et al., 2010) have been used to document immune activation and monitor herd health in pigs.

> To assess the validity of measurements of these immune markers in non-invasive samples (urine, feces) of macaques, we took two approaches. In study 1, we took advantage of the regular health monitoring that is undertaken on macaques at the German Primate Center to obtain temporally-matched blood, fecal and urine samples from non-infected individuals. Using these samples, we assessed relationships between serum and urinary, and serum and fecal, concentrations of each marker to determine whether these correlate, and hence whether the non-invasive measures might serve as proxy for the serum measures, and also whether both non-invasive measures might be equally suitable proxies.

In study 2, we took advantage of a SIV infection experiment in combination with medical interventions and surgery in six rhesus macaques (carried out as part of a separate study by the German Primate Center's Unit of Infection Models), to assess the response patterns of the three immune markers in urine and feces to infection and surgery. In contrast to the cross-sectional correlative data collected from healthy animals, this experimental approach should provide more direct information on the potential usefulness of each marker in each matrix for assessing macaque immune activation and inflammatory

2 3	135	responses. Collectively, our analyses represent an initial assessment of the feasibility of
4 5 6	136	measuring these markers in primate excreta, provide baseline data for levels of these
7 8	137	markers in healthy animals, and assess their usefulness in reflecting immune activation and
9 10 11	138	inflammation in response to an experimentally induced acute infection and surgical tissue
12 13 14	139	trauma.
15 16 17	140	
18 19 20	141	Methods
21 22 23	142	Research Ethics
24 25 26	143	All samples were collected during health checks of the macaque colony (e.g. annual health
27 28	144	check) or when animals were already immobilized for other purposes. Samples were
29 30 31	145	collected according to the ASAB/ABS guidelines on the ethical treatment of animals, and the
32 33	146	International Primatological Society guidelines on the ethical treatment of primates in
34 35	147	research. Urine and fecal samples collected from the SIV-infected animals were all collected
36 37 38	148	non-invasively without animal handling.
39 40 41	149	
42 43 44 45	150	Study animals and sample collection
46 47 48	151	Study 1: Measurement of immune markers in healthy macaques
49 50	152	This study was conducted between Aug 2011 and Mar 2012 on 24 rhesus macaques (18
51 52 53	153	males, 6 non-pregnant females) and 3 male long-tailed macaques, which were housed at the
54 55	154	German Primate Centre, Göttingen, Germany. Animals ranged in age between 3 and 11
56 57 58 59	155	years, with an average age (± SEM) of 7.4 \pm 0.5 years. Average body weight was 7.6 \pm 0.4 kg

(males: 6.7±0.5 kg; females: 10.3 ±0.5 kg; overall range: 4.6-11.7 kg). Individuals were
housed either as same-sex pairs or in small same-sex groups in indoor cages and were fed
twice a day with commercial monkey chow supplemented with fruits and vegetables. Water
was available ad libitum.

From each study animal, matching urine, fecal and blood samples were collected between 6.00 and 10.00 am for the measurement of neopterin (NEO), C-reactive protein (CRP), and haptoglobin (HPT) concentrations as well as for the determination of hematological parameters. At the time of sample collection, all animals were in good body condition (mean BMI: 27.4±1.1; range 20.8-45.0), visually healthy and showed no obvious signs of any disease, except for one male who exhibited diarrhea. Veterinarians made the decision to euthanize this animal 3 weeks after sample collection due to severe gut problems and substantial weight loss. For urine and fecal sample collection, a study animal was usually separated from its group members in the early morning (6.00 - 6.30 am) and samples were collected upon urination and defecation on a plastic mat placed underneath the cage. Only urine and fecal samples not obviously cross-contaminated with each other were collected. Urine samples were immediately protected from light. For blood collection, animals were subsequently (between 8.30 and 10.00 a.m. the same day) anesthetized with an intra-muscular injection of ketamine hydrochloride (10mg/kg; Ketavet[®]). A blood sample (4-8 ml) was drawn from the femoral vein of the animal and collected into a heparinized tube. All samples were kept cold (4°-7°C) upon collection and transferred to the endocrinology laboratory within 4 hours of collection for further processing. Blood samples were centrifuged at 1800 g for 10 min and plasma subsequently recovered and aliquoted. Fresh fecal samples were well mixed using a spatula and from each sample two aliquots of

179	0.1 to 0.2 g were accurately weighted into 15 ml polypropylene tubes for future extraction.
180	Urine samples were also aliquoted, and all aliquots of each sample type were then stored
181	frozen at -20°C until analysis.
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183	Study 2: Measurement of immune markers in response to SIV-infection
184	This study was undertaken between February and April 2014 on 6 rhesus macaques (3
185	males, 3 females) which were infected with SIV as part of a separate study undertaken by
186	the German Primate Center's Unit of Infection Models. Animals ranged in age between 4
187	and 5 years, with an average age (\pm SEM) of 4.6 \pm 0.2 years. Average body weight was
188	5.6±0.3 kg (males: 5.7 ±0.2 kg; females: 5.5 ±0.6 kg; overall range: 4.4-6.4 kg). Body weight
189	of individuals fluctuated by less than 1% during the study period. The study was approved
190	by the Lower Saxony State Office for Consumer Protection and Food Safety and performed
191	with the project license 33.9-42502-04-12/0758-08. For infection, which required a deeper
192	anesthesia, animals received a mixture of ketamine, xylazine and atropine. Each monkey
193	was inoculated with 50% 1000 tissue culture infectious doses of the virus intravenously. The
194	infection was confirmed by determining plasma viral RNA load.
195	During the experiment animals were subject to minor medical interventions, such as bone
196	marrow aspiration and colon biopsies (all under anesthesia). They also underwent (together
197	with bone marrow aspiration and colon biopsy) one surgical removal of peripheral lymph
198	nodes two weeks post infection. In particular the latter likely involved surgical tissue trauma
199	which is known to result in an acute phase protein response (e.g. Yamamoto et al. 1993;
200	Michelsen et al. 2012). This situation thus provided a useful test case for assessing the

potential of the urinary and fecal CRP and haptoglobin measurements in indicating
 inflammatory processes.

203 Urine and fecal samples for immune marker measurements were collected once 204 weekly for 4 weeks prior to virus inoculation and at least 3 times a week for 31 days 205 thereafter. Samples were collected, processed and stored as described for study 1.

207 Sample measurement for immune marker analysis

Plasma, urine and fecal samples were analyzed for concentrations of NEO, CRP and HPT using commercial enzyme-immunoassay (ELISA) kits (see below). While plasma and urine samples were taken unextracted to assay following appropriate dilution with assay buffer (NEO) or sample diluent (CRP, HPT) provided with the respective kits, fecal samples had to be extracted prior to analysis. For NEO, the extraction followed the procedure described by Campbell et al. (2004) with small modifications. Specifically, fecal aliquots were thawed at room temperature and one ml of 0.9% saline was added to all samples which were then agitated for 10 min on a multi-tube vortexer. Samples were then centrifuged at 1800 g for 15 min and the supernatant recovered for analysis. Extraction of the two acute phase proteins was carried out according to a protocol provided by Immundiagnostic AG, Bensheim, Germany. Specifically, defrosted fecal samples were mixed with 1 ml of CRP washing buffer and agitated for 10 min on a multi-tube vortexer. Samples were then centrifuged at 1800 g for 15 min, the supernatant transferred into a 1.5ml polypropylene tube, and centrifuged at 7500 g rpm for 5 min. 100 μ l of the resulting supernatant was then taken to CRP and HPT analysis. In order to compensate for the potential effect of differences

2 3 4	223	in water content of fecal samples on immune marker concentrations, following extraction
4 5 6	224	fecal dry weights for each sample were determined by drying samples in an oven at 50°C to
7 8	225	a constant weight. Fecal concentrations of each marker are expressed as ng per g of dried
9 10 11	226	feces (Campbell et al. 2004). Concentrations of urinary analytes were indexed by urinary
12 13 14	227	creatinine, measured as described (Bahr et al. 2000).
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18 19 20	229	Laboratory Analyses
21 22 23	230	NEO concentrations were determined using a human ELISA kit (Art. No. RE59321) from IBL
24 25	231	International GmbH, Hamburg, Germany. The assay was performed according to the
26 27	232	manufacturer's instructions. While plasma and fecal extracts were assayed undiluted, urine
28 29 30	233	samples were diluted 1:10 – 1:100 with assay buffer to bring sample concentrations into the
31 32	234	working range of the assay. For Study 2, prior to ELISA analysis (see above) urine samples
33 34 35	235	were initially measured via HPLC (Schroecksnadel et al., 2006) (data not shown). This
36 37	236	enabled us to reduce analytical costs by restricting our ELISA analysis to the most important
38 39	237	samples as indicated by the HPLC data. NEO measures generated by ELISA vs HPLC were
40 41 42	238	strongly and highly significantly correlated with an r-value of 0.96 (n=84, p<0.001).
43 44	239	Detection limit of the ELISA assay was 0.18 ng/ml. Inter-assay coefficients of variation,
45 46 47	240	determined by repeated measurement of high and low value quality controls in each assay
48 49	241	and across studies, were 12.0% and 6.6%, respectively.
50 51 52	242	All CRP and HPT measurements were carried out using ELISA kits for monkey CRP
53 54	243	(Cat. No. 2210-4) and monkey haptoglobin (Cat. No. 2410-5) from Life Diagnostics, Inc.,
55 56 57 58 59	244	West Chester, USA. Both assays were performed according to the manufacturer's

parametric statistics.

245	instructions. For both assays, fecal extracts were taken undiluted to assay, except for two
246	samples which were diluted 1:10 for HPT. While urine samples were usually diluted 1:2 for
247	both assays, plasma samples were normally diluted 1:1,000 for CRP measurements and
248	1:100,000 for HPT determinations. Detection limits of the assays were 1.17 ng/ml for CRP
249	and 1.56 ng/ml for HPT and inter-assay coefficients of variation of a high and low
250	concentrated quality control were 9.6% and 10.3% for CRP and 8.4% and 9.6% for HPT. All
251	measures of intra- and inter-assay variation were within accepted norms.
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253	Statistical Analyses
254	To assess potential sex or age effects on immune marker concentrations we examined
255	serum levels of the three immune markers in the Study 1 animals. One animal that was
256	known to be sick (n=1) was excluded from this analysis in order to remove any effects of this
257	individual on age or sex differences. Residual values of parametric analyses did not meet
258	model assumptions even if dependent variables were log-transformed, as determined by
259	inspection of residual QQ plots. Visual inspection reveals the distributions of several
260	variables to be non-normally distributed, but as expected for markers that show huge
261	responsiveness to infection/inflammation, exhibiting numerous similar lower values but
262	with occasional much higher values. We undertook univariate general linear model (GLM)
263	analyses on each serum marker separately (fixed factor, sex; covariate, age) so that both
264	variables could be assessed in the same model. However, we also tested each variable
265	separately using non-parametric statistics (Mann Whitney U test, Spearman's rank
266	correlation), and present these results in addition where they differ from those of the

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3 4	268	We used bivariate correlations to assess serum to urinary and serum to fecal
5 6	269	relationships for each marker. Variables were not normally distributed, and this was still the
7 8	270	case even after log-transformation. We therefore undertook non-parametric Spearman's
9 10 11	271	rank correlations throughout. Sample sizes sometimes change slightly between analyses as
12 13	272	in one or two cases there was insufficient urine volume to measure all variables. Tests were
14 15 16	273	one-tailed as we clearly predicted a positive correlation between these variables.
17 18 19	274	In order to present descriptive statistics for the magnitude of biomarker responses
20 21	275	to SIV infection (NEO) and surgical trauma (CRP, HPT) in Study 2 animals, we determined for
22 23	276	both urine and feces the peak-to-baseline ratios of each marker (for males and females
24 25 26	277	separately, and combined). For calculating baseline values we took the period prior to SIV
27 28	278	infection up to 3 days thereafter when biomarker levels were still unaffected by the
29 30 21	279	treatment (see Results). We examined whether the acute phase proteins (CRP and HPT) in
31 32 33	280	the Study 2 animals increased in response to surgical trauma by comparing urinary and fecal
34 35	281	CRP and HPT concentrations in the period within 6 days before versus 6 days after the
36 37	282	surgery for lymph node extirpation using the Wilcoxon signed rank test (due to the small
38 39 40	283	sample size).
41 42 43 44	284	Probability values < 0.05 were considered statistically significant. As our aim was to

discover whether markers were measurable and potentially useful and informative in different matrices, we considered our analyses exploratory rather than definitive and did not correct for multiple testing.

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290	Results
291	Study 1
292	Concentrations of all markers in each matrix are presented in Table 1. Values for the 3 long-
293	tailed macaques fell within the range of those of the rhesus macaques. There were no sex
294	differences in serum levels for any of the three immune markers when analyzed using GLMs
295	also containing age as a variable (NEO: F _{1,25} = 0.094, p = 0.763; CRP: F _{1,24} =0.027, p=0.871;
296	HPT: F _{1,25} =0.179, p=0.676). While we found no effects of age on serum concentrations when
297	corrected for sex using GLMs (NEO, F _{1,25} =3.297, p=0.082; CRP, F _{1,24} =1.167, p=0.292; HPT,
298	F _{1,25} =0.473, p=0.498), Spearman's rank correlations showed significant correlations for NEO
299	(r_s =0.513, n=26, p=0.007) and CRP (r_s =0.498, n=26, p=0.010), with older individuals having
300	higher concentrations of both markers.
301	
302	Serum–urinary and serum–fecal correlations
303	Neopterin: Serum NEO concentrations were strongly and significantly correlated with
304	urinary (r _s =0.664, n=27, p<0.001; Fig. 1) but not fecal (r _s =0.171, n=27, p=0.196)
305	concentrations.
306	<i>CRP</i> : Serum CRP concentrations were not correlated with either urinary ($r_s = -0.037$, n=26,
307	p=0.429) or fecal CRP measures (r _s = -0.003, n=27, p=0.493).
308	Haptoglobin: Serum and urinary HPT concentrations were not correlated (r=0.264, n=26,
309	p=0.096). HPT levels in fecal samples were either low or below the detection limit of the
310	assay.

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2	244	Cturke 2
3	311	Study 2
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6 7	312	Generally, for the 3 males and 3 females used in this study baseline values of all three
8	212	immune markers (calculated for the period are treatment up to 2 days after infection) in
9	212	initial enalgers (calculated for the period pre-treatment up to 5 days after infection) in
10	314	both urine and feces (Table 2) were in the same range exhibited by the healthy animals of
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13	315	study 1.
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10	316	Neopterin: Consistent with prior studies, urinary NEO showed a strong response to SIV
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19	317	infection (Figure 2). Values began to elevate from around one week post-infection, and
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21	318	typically rose to around 10-25 times baseline levels around day 15 which coincided with
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23	319	peak viremia. NEO concentrations typically remained elevated for several weeks, though
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26	320	concentrations greater than 10 times baseline were only seen for around a week. Small
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28	321	spikes in fecal values around this time were inconsistent in their duration and timing. Given
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31	322	the vast differences in concentration of NEO detected in feces vs urine (peak levels per ml
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33	323	urine are about 100 fold higher than baseline fecal levels per g feces; data not shown), this
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36	324	is likely due to occasional small (drop-sized) contamination of fecal samples with urine.
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38	325	CRP: Urinary and fecal CRP excretion natterns showed rises and falls in concentrations that
39	525	en i offinary and recar en exercition patterns showed rises and fails in concentrations that
40 41	326	were not obviously related to the timing of the SIV infection event (Figure 2). In the majority
42	520	
43	327	of animals (4/6) there was on average however an approximately 2.5 fold elevation in CRP
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45	328	levels in both urine and feces in the days immediately following lymph node
46 47	010	
48	329	extirpation/intestinal biopsy sampling compared to the days prior to surgery (Figures 3 and
49	010	
50	330	5). Although this elevation was short-lived, lasting for a couple of days at most (see Figure
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52 53	331	3), it nonetheless represented a statistically significant increase in both matrices (Figure 5;
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55	332	urine: z = 1.992, p = 0.023; feces: z = 1.887, p = 0.030).
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333	Haptoglobin: Urinary and fecal HPT excretion usually remained consistently low throughout
334	most of the experimental period. In the majority of animals (5/6) however, an increase was
335	recorded in levels of urinary HPT in the periods following first bone marrow aspiration, and
336	in particular in response to the surgery for lymph node extirpation/intestinal biopsy
337	sampling (Figures 4 and 5). As for CRP, the elevation in levels following surgery was short-
338	lived but statistically significant (z = 1.739 , p = 0.037). The rise in HPT levels following lymph
339	node extirpation/intestinal biopsy sampling was also recorded in fecal samples where it was
340	much more marked though (Figure 5; $z= 2.201$, $p = 0.014$).
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342	Discussion
343	Our study sought to assess whether several markers of health and immune activity could be
344	measured non-invasively in non-human primates, and to see how these responded to
345	medical intervention and infection. Our results demonstrate that it is possible to do this
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	reliably, and provide baseline data on values of these markers in blood, urine and feces for
347	reliably, and provide baseline data on values of these markers in blood, urine and feces for visually healthy captive macaques. Our data also show a significant positive correlation
347 348	reliably, and provide baseline data on values of these markers in blood, urine and feces for visually healthy captive macaques. Our data also show a significant positive correlation between blood and urinary concentrations of neopterin, further highlighting its potential as

- 350 with studies in the pathology literature, tracking of individuals through medical
- 351 interventions and following SIV infection shows urinary neopterin to be a highly reliable
- 352 marker of infection, with a 10-25 fold increase in excretion in response to SIV infection.
- 353 Urinary and fecal levels of the two acute phase proteins did not correlate significantly with
- 354 serum values, suggesting that they may be of limited applicability for assessing lower level
- 355 inflammation. However, our data do suggest that urinary and fecal CRP and (especially)

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356	haptoglobin may nevertheless be useful non-invasive markers of inflammation given their
357	significant, although short-lived, elevation in response to surgical tissue trauma.

358	Urinary neopterin concentrations correlate positively and significantly with those
359	found in serum (Figure 1), and respond consistently to SIV infection (Figure 2), a finding in
360	line with earlier studies (Fendrich et al., 1989; Stahl-Hennig, 2002). Measurement of this
361	marker in urine from free-ranging macaques is likely to reveal the presence of infections
362	associated with macrophage activation and the Th 1 response, which promote cellular
363	immunity in response to intracellular pathogens (e.g bacteria, viruses, fungi or parasites;
364	Elenkov and Chrousos, 1999). Regular measurement might allow the development of such
365	an infection to be tracked. Though this requires regular sampling, such sampling regimes
366	are a common requirement for other markers too. For example, the tracking of ovulation
367	through the measurement of estrogen and progestogen metabolites excreted in feces
368	and/or urine also requires frequent sampling (Hodges and Heistermann 2011). Studies of
369	free-ranging primates often assess the onset of the luteal phase of the cycle through the
370	detection of increased progestogen concentrations greater than 2 SDs above the previous 3
371	5 baseline (follicular phase) values, and maintained for at least 3 consecutive samples
372	(following Jeffcoate 1983). Similar assessment criteria might be used for urinary neopterin
373	to determine whether an infection has occurred.

Although fecal neopterin concentrations did not correlate with serum or urinary concentrations in our study and, in contrast to urinary neopterin, did not show a consistent response to SIV infection, they are sometimes used not as a general method for measuring infection in the body, but specifically as a measure of inflammatory gut disease and infections in humans (Ledjeff et al., 2001; Campbell et al., 2004; Husain et al., 2013). It still

therefore retains potential as a method of testing for intestinal macrophage activity in nonhuman primates. Data are required in which fecal neopterin concentrations can be
compared for healthy individuals and individuals known to have inflammatory gut infections
(e.g. see Husain et al. 2013 for humans), or on the same individuals from periods of both gut
infection and health.

Urinary and fecal measures did not correlate with serum values for either CRP or haptoglobin. It is worth considering that we might expect correlations between concentrations of analytes in blood and urine rather than in feces. Both blood and urine concentrations represent relatively short-term measures, with excretion times usually much quicker for urine than feces (Hodges and Heistermann, 2011), making it more likely that the former would correlate with measures in blood. In contrast, concentrations in fecal samples represent the integration of circulating levels over longer periods, and so may not necessarily be expected to correlate with levels found in blood when analyzing cross-sectional data. Hence, the lack of a correlation between fecal (as well as urinary) and serum CRP and haptoglobin levels might reflect the rapid and extreme changes in this acute phase protein during a response which renders it highly unlikely that a snapshot measure such as serum values corresponds to more long-term measures (see also Touma and Palme, 2005). It is important also to remember that our sample size in Study 1 of 27 animals is relatively small, and as all animals were healthy, this might have reduced variation in the dataset hindering our ability to detect significant correlations. Standardization for creatinine may also add variation to urinary measures given differences in weight of our study animals (Crockett et al. 1993). That said, known relationships such as that between serum and urinary NEO were clearly demonstrated using our sample, indicating that our power was

sufficient to find such relationships where they exist and are strong. In general though, it is also worth remembering that in humans these markers are also measured in feces and urine rather than blood despite the easy availability of the latter specifically because fecal and urinary measurements are indicative of disease and infection in tissues associated with excretion pathways, such as the kidneys and the gut, rather than of general systemic infection. It may therefore be no surprise that correlations between serum, urine and fecal measures were not found. Although urinary haptoglobin concentrations did not correlate with those in serum, the potential usefulness of urinary haptoglobin measurements for monitoring inflammatory processes is nonetheless suggested by our finding of markedly elevated levels in response to bone marrow aspiration and lymph node extirpation. In particular, the surgery for lymph node extirpation is likely to have resulted in tissue trauma, which is known to stimulate an increase in acute phase protein secretion (Yamamoto et al. 1993; Michelsen et al. 2012). Haptoglobin concentrations in blood increase in response to infections associated with inflammation, but typically show a broader and less acute response curve when compared to other acute phase proteins such as CRP (Gabay and Kushner, 1999). Regular measurements of urinary haptoglobin might therefore potentially allow inflammatory infections to be detected and monitored in wild mammals, particularly as haptoglobin shows a relatively long release function in response to infection (Gabay and Kushner, 1999). Fecal haptoglobin levels showed a similar response to surgery, with elevations even more pronounced than those found in urine. Some limited evidence also emerged from animals of study 1 to suggest that high levels of fecal haptoglobin excretion may be indicative of health issues. Within the cohort of healthy individuals in three animals \geq 15

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425	times higher concentrations were found compared with the rest of the animals, with one
426	animal showing an extreme value of >10,000 ng/g (\sim 200 fold elevation above average).
427	Interviewing the animal keepers and the vet and looking at animal history reports revealed
428	that in the past these three animals have exhibited symptoms of gut problems, such as
429	diarrhea or Giardia infection, relatively often. The individual with the highest fecal
430	haptoglobin level also showed markedly elevated concentrations in fecal and serum CRP
431	(both 5-fold above the study sample mean) and serum and urinary neopterin (3-fold and 2-
432	fold above the mean, respectively) as well as serum haptoglobin (2 fold above the mean).
433	This animal was the individual confirmed to be suffering from severe diarrhea and weight
434	loss during the time of sample collection (see Methods). Information on the gut status of
435	the two other animals with elevated haptoglobin levels in feces was not available, but
436	visually they appeared to be healthy (e.g. no diarrhea) when samples were collected. Taken
437	together, our results are tentative but promising, and suggest that measurement of
438	haptoglobin in urine and, in particular, feces may have potential for tracking both more
439	systemic as well as local inflammatory processes in macaques non-invasively. Since the
440	responses found were short-lived (lasting a few days at most), frequent sampling would be
441	necessary to detect acute occurrences of inflammation reliably.
442	Similarly to haptoglobin, we found elevated urinary and fecal CRP concentrations in

response to the surgical tissue trauma associated with lymph node extirpation. This also suggests that non-invasive measure of CRP may be of potential value for tracking inflammation in macaques. In contrast to haptoglobin however, CRP excretion patterns were overall more variable, and the rise in fecal CRP in response to surgery was markedly weaker than that for haptoglobin.

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2	110	Refore further studies seek to utilize these or any other markers, it will also be
4	440	before further studies seek to utilize these of any other markers, it will also be
5 6	449	important to investigate their stability under conditions of contamination with dirt or (in the
7 8 9	450	case of urine) feces, as well as issues related to how they must be stored and transported.
10 11	451	When careful analyses of such issues are undertaken, detailed recommendations can then
12 13	452	be made to fieldworkers on how to collect, store and transport samples for analysis in a way
14 15 16	453	that minimizes analyte contamination and degradation (see Higham et al., 2011b for
17 18	454	macaque C-peptides). In addition to urinary and fecal markers, some studies may also wish
19 20	455	to consider measuring relevant analytes from saliva. Methods for saliva collection from
21 22 23	456	primates have been used in free-ranging settings (Higham et al., 2010), and similar or
24 25	457	adapted methods are probably feasible for numerous (though clearly not all) primate
26 27	458	species in free-ranging populations. In saliva, many native analytes can be measured,
28 29 30	459	including sympathetic axis correlates such as alpha-amylase (e.g. rhesus macaques, Higham
31 32	460	et al., 2010; bonobos, Beringer et al., 2012), haptoglobin (e.g. pigs, Gómez-Laguna et al.,
33 34 35	461	2010) and CRP (e.g. humans, Rao et al., 2010).
36 37	462	There have been several recent and exciting developments in evolutionary studies of
38 39 40	463	primate immune function, including publications showing that high-ranking baboon males
41 42	464	heal faster than low-ranking males (Archie et al., 2012), and that rhesus macaque females
43 44 45	465	experimentally assigned low ranks show increased immune marker and receptor gene
46 47	466	expression (Tung et al., 2012). Hopefully, our study will encourage further investigations of
48 49	467	the non-invasive measurement of immune function. As methods that enable multiple
50 51 52	468	measurement of many analytes from the same sample become more reliable and
53 54	469	widespread (e.g. Hauser et al., 2011; Weltring et al., 2012), the direct measurement of
55 56 57	470	multiple markers may hopefully become more common-place. Multi-assays are now

available that simultaneously measure up to 20 different cytokines and chemokines in non-human primate blood samples (Giavedoni, 2005). Such methods offer great promise, particularly if they can be applied to non-invasive samples such as urine. We therefore encourage further evaluations and validations of non-invasive markers in the area of immune activation and primate health. The development and validation of more non-invasive immune markers is likely to expand our ability to investigate primate behavior, ecology and evolution considerably. Such measures will prove crucial to establishing the physiological links connecting variation in behavioral strategies to long-term life-history outcomes such as mortality, so linking the "short-term behavioral study" and "long-term demographic study" elements of primatology.

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1 2 3	704	Figure Legends
4	704	
5 6 7	705	Figure 1. The relationship between values of serum and urinary neopterin.
8 9 10	706	Figure 2. Patterns of urinary and fecal concentrations of neopterin (NEO) in the 6 animals
11 12 13	707	infected with SIV. Note the different scales.
14 15 16	708	Figure 3. Patterns of urinary and fecal excretion of C-reactive protein (CRP) in the 6 animals
17 18	709	infected with SIV. Arrows 1-3 indicate the date of SIV infection (1), first bone marrow
19 20 21	710	aspiration (2) and surgery for lymph node extirpation combined with second bone marrow
22 23 24	711	aspiration and colon biopsy (3). Note the different scales.
24 25 26	712	Figure 4. Patterns of urinary and fecal excretion of haptoglobin (HPT) in the 6 animals
27 28	713	infected with SIV. Arrows 1-3 indicate the timing of SIV infection (1), first bone marrow
29 30 31	714	aspiration (2) and surgery for lymph node extirpation combined with second bone marrow
32 33 34	715	aspiration and colon biopsy (3). Note the different scales.
35 36 27	716	Figure 5. Concentrations of (A) urinary and fecal C-reactive protein (CRP) and (B) urinary and
37 38 39	717	fecal haptoglobin (HPT) in samples collected within 6 days before and 6 days after surgery
40 41	718	for lymph node extirpation/intestinal biopsy sampling. Bars represent mean + SEM values.
42 43 44	719	Differences were statistically significant in all cases (see text).
45 46 47	720	
48 49 50	721	
51 52 53	722	
54 55 56 57 58 59	723	

Marker	Matrix		Mean	SEM	Range
NEO	Serum	Males	1.4	0.2	0.6-3.1
		Females	2.0	0.2	1.5-2.8
		All	1.6	0.1	0.6-3.1
	Urine	Males	171.9	16.0	84.0-366.7
		Females	185.4	26.0	92.9-265.6
		All	175.0	13.6	84.0-366.7
	Feces	Males	46.9	7.6	19.3-145.3
		Females	58.4	19.7	21.0-145.8
		All	49.6	7.3	19.3-145.8
CRP	Serum	Males	4.7	1.2	1.2-26.3
		Females	6.5	2.1	1.5-13.0
		All	5.1	1.0	1.2-26.3
	Urine	Males	22.4	6.8	1.0-94.3
		Females	63.8	34.5	5.2-220.0
		All	32.3	10.0	1.0-220.0
	Feces	Males	123.1	31.1	31.0-604.2
		Females	74.6	12.9	36.9-152.8
		All	111.9	24.4	31.0-604.2
НРТ	Serum	Males	816.0	74.0	170-1260
		Females	641.7	150.4	190-1100
		All	775.8	66.9	170-1260
	Urine	Males	37.9	7.0	8.9-102.4
		Females	258.0	143.8	22.3-935.7
		All	90.7	37.8	8.9-935.7
	Feces	Not measureable in most samples from healthy individuals.			

Table 1. Concentrations of markers measured in Study 1, from 23 rhesus macaques and 3 long-tailed macaques (age 7.4 \pm 0.5 (SEM) years, range = 3-11 ys). Body weights were 7.6 \pm 0.4 kg (range = 4.6-11.7 kg), and BMIs were 27.4 \pm 1.1 (range = 20.8-45.0).

Serum concentrations are given in ng/ml (NEO) or µg/ml (CRP and haptoglobin)

All urinary concentrations are given as ng/mg Cr

All fecal concentrations are given as ng/g dry weight

Marker	Matrix		Mean ± SEM	Range P/B-ratio
NEO	Urine	Males	145.8 ± 30.1	16.7-25.8
		Females	171.6 ± 13.7	10.8-26.7
		All	158.7 ± 15.9	10.8-26.7
	Feces	Males	74.4 ± 4.9	n.a.
		Females	53.2 ± 4.8	n.a.
		All	63.8 ± 5.6	n.a.
CRP	Urine	Males	30.8 ± 15.5	1.8-23.3
		Females	47.7 ± 21.4	3.1-6.5
		All	39.3 ± 12.4	1.8-23.3
	Feces	Males	123.6 ± 4.0	5.7-14.2
		Females	102.2 ± 21.8	1.3-6.4
		All	112.9 ± 11.0	1.3-14.2
HPT	Urine	Males	35.7 ± 2.1	3.2-16.0
		Females	74.6 ± 20.3	2.3-43.1
		All	55.1 ± 12.6	2.3-43.1
	Feces	Males	221.4 ± 105.4	11.7-74.6
		Females	103.0 ± 19.7	16.2-105.7
		All	162.2 ± 54.8	11.7-105.7

Table 2. Baseline concentrations of biomarkers and ranges of peak-to-baseline (P/B) ratios measured in Study 2 animals

n.a. = not applicable (see Results)

All urinary concentrations are given as ng/mg Cr

All fecal concentrations are given as ng/g dry weight



94x89mm (300 x 300 DPI)



419x399mm (300 x 300 DPI)



199x190mm (300 x 300 DPI)



Fecal HPT (ng/g DW)

Fecal HPT (ng/g DW)

5 6 6 9 9 30

Fecal HPT (ng/g DW)



180x249mm (300 x 300 DPI)