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Additional Information

19 **Abstract**

20 The susceptibility of 18 antibiotics for transfer from goat milk to the resulting cheese
21 whey was evaluated. Raw milk spiked with antibiotics was coagulated by rennet and
22 the whey was separated. The antimicrobial activity of the whey, estimated by using
23 microbial inhibitor tests, was applied as an indicator of antibiotic drug transfer.
24 Antibiotic-free whey (negative whey) spiked with different antibiotics was used as a
25 reference. The antimicrobial activity in whey from milk spiked with most β -lactam
26 drugs was lower (0-40%) to that of the reference whey, suggesting that these
27 antibiotics are mostly released from curd and transferred to the whey. However, for
28 most non- β -lactam drugs, a reduction in the relative antimicrobial activity in whey,
29 ranging 84 to 100% was obtained, indicating the higher susceptibility for retention in
30 curd. The traceability of antibiotics through the cheese-making process will make it
31 possible to determine whether control systems are required to prevent the negative
32 implications of the presence of antibiotic drug residues in cheese and whey products.

33

34 **1. Introduction**

35 Antibiotic residues in milk and other foodstuffs of animal origin can lead to negative
36 implications for consumer health such as allergic reactions or transient disturbances in
37 the intestinal flora (Demoly & Romano, 2005). Also, the generation of antimicrobial
38 resistance in microbiota is one of the most important public health problems related to
39 the excessive use of antibiotics in the treatment of infectious diseases in livestock
40 (Oliver, Murinda, & Jayarao, 2011; EFSA, 2016).

41 The processing of contaminated raw milk does not always guarantee the inactivation
42 or elimination of antibiotic residues and consequently, variable amounts of these
43 substances might remain in dairy products and with an increased risk for consumers.
44 Tona and Olusola (2014) indicated the presence of tetracycline residues in soft cheese,
45 yoghurt and butterfat made from contaminated cow milk. Similarly, Adetunji (2011)
46 found benzylpenicillin, streptomycin and tetracycline residues in commercial soft
47 cheese and yoghurt.

48 Antibiotics could be retained in milk curd to a greater or lesser extent, depending on
49 the physicochemical properties of these substances and their ability to interact with the
50 fat and/or protein fraction of the matrix. Sniegocki, Gbylik-Sikorska, & Posyniak
51 (2015) assessed the potential transfer of chloramphenicol from milk to butter, sour
52 cream, white cheese and whey using the LC-MS/MS method, observing that this
53 antibiotic is mainly retained in higher-fat products, such as butter and sour cream, with
54 lower concentrations in white cheese and whey samples. Berruga, Román, Molina, &
55 Molina (2005), using the Delvotest SP microbial inhibitor test (DSM Food Specialties,
56 The Netherlands), found detectable levels of antibiotic residues in whey from
57 Manchego cheese manufactured from ewe milk spiked with different β -lactams

58 (amoxicillin, ampicillin, benzylpenicillin, cephalixin and ceftiofur) at concentrations
59 close to their respective maximum residue limits (MRLs).

60 It should be noted that whey is a by-product of the cheese-making process and is used
61 in the manufacture of foodstuffs for human consumption, animal feeding and
62 agricultural applications, among other uses (Carvalho, Prazeres, & Rivas, 2013).
63 Therefore, the presence of antibiotic residues in whey could have negative
64 implications for humans, animals and environmental safety.

65 Current strategies used to minimize the impact of drug residues reaching the food
66 chain include the routine monitoring of raw milk supplies to detect the presence of
67 these substances above legally established MRLs (EC, 2010). However, the
68 monitoring of drug residues in dairy products such as cheeses and whey is not
69 typically regulated nor have corresponding safety levels been established.

70 Microbial inhibitor tests are routinely applied in quality control laboratories to screen
71 for antibiotics in raw milk, as they are relatively inexpensive, easy-to use and have a
72 broad spectrum of detection (IDF, 2014). The inhibition of microbial growth is a test
73 in which a positive result is revealed through the use of a dye-type acid-base or redox
74 indicator which produces a change in the colour of the culture medium, allowing
75 visual interpretation of test results. Considering the similarity between both matrices
76 (milk and whey), microbial inhibitor tests could be applied successfully in screening
77 for antibiotics in whey samples.

78 In the European Union, two million tons of goat milk are annually produced
79 (FAOSTAT, 2016) which are traditionally destined for cheese making, often under
80 quality recognized brands. Studies on the traceability of veterinary drugs during dairy
81 manufacturing processes are rather limited. However, establishment of the traceability
82 of antibiotics is crucial to prevent the negative implications related to presence of such

83 substances in milk and dairy products. Therefore, the objective of this study was to
84 assess the susceptibility of different antibiotics to be transferred from milk to whey
85 during the cheese-making process.

86 **2. Materials and methods**

87 The traceability of antibiotics during an experimental cheese-making process was
88 evaluated using microbial inhibitor tests for screening of antibiotics in goat milk. The
89 antimicrobial activity of the whey derived from goat milk spiked with an antibiotic
90 (Whey from Spiked Milk: WSM) was compared to that of negative goat milk whey
91 (antibiotic-free whey) spiked with an equivalent concentration of the drug (Whey from
92 Negative Milk: WNM). Similar antimicrobial activity exhibited in both types of whey
93 samples (WSM and WNM) will thus indicate that antibiotics added to milk are
94 completely transferred from the curd to the whey. Lower percentages of positive
95 results in WSM compared to WNM will thus indicate greater retention of antibiotic in
96 the curd.

97 *2.1. Whey samples*

98 Whey samples were obtained from a laboratory scale cheese-making process using
99 raw milk obtained from the experimental flock of Murciano-Granadina goats at
100 Universitat Politècnica de Valencia (Valencia, Spain). Animals were in mid-lactation
101 (70-150 days after giving birth), had good health status and did not receive any
102 veterinary drugs, neither before nor during the experimental period.

103 Raw goat milk (25 mL), with or without antibiotics, was placed in a tube and heated to
104 $33\pm 1^\circ\text{C}$ in a thermostatically-controlled water bath. Commercial rennet was used for
105 coagulation (chymosin >70%, Suministros Arroyo. Santander, Spain) at 0.06% (v/v).
106 Thirty minutes later, the curd was centrifuged (1026 g, 10 min) for separation of whey
107 which was recovered by decanting into a volumetric flask.

108 *2.2. Antibiotics and spiked samples*

109 Eighteen veterinary antibiotics were selected for this study. Antibiotics, i.e. 8 β -
110 lactams (amoxicillin, ampicillin, benzylpenicillin, cloxacillin, cefacetrile, cefquinome,
111 ceftiofur, and cephalixin) and 10 non- β -lactam antibiotics (gentamycin, neomycin,
112 erythromycin, tylosin, ciprofloxacin, enrofloxacin, sulphadiazine, sulphadimethoxine,
113 oxytetracycline and tetracycline), were provided by Sigma-Aldrich Quimica, S.A.
114 (Madrid, Spain), except for cefacetrile, which was not commercially available, and
115 was kindly provided by Fatro S.p.A. (Bologne, Italy).

116 For use, antibiotics were dissolved in distilled water (1 mg mL^{-1}) at the time when
117 analyses were performed. In some cases the use of small amounts (i.e. 2-4 mL) of a
118 suitable solvent (AcOH 5% for enrofloxacin, EtOH for erythromycin, HCl 0.1N for
119 ciprofloxacin and tetracycline drugs, and NaOH 0.1N for ceftiofur) was necessary
120 before adding water.

121 Spiked milk samples were prepared following ISO/IDF recommendations (ISO/IDF,
122 2003). Spiked whey samples (WNM) were made as follows: 25 mL of antibiotic-free
123 whey were spiked with a relatively high antibiotic concentration (C1) and
124 subsequently, seven antibiotic concentrations were obtained by successive dilutions
125 with negative whey (Table 1) in order to establish the reference dose-response curve.
126 Negative whey (no antibiotic) was also included in the analysis as a negative control
127 (C8). The ranges of concentrations for each antibiotic were selected according to the
128 sensitivity of the microbial test to detect the substance in whey samples.

129 For comparison, the whey resulting from coagulation of 25 mL of antibiotic-free milk
130 spiked with an antibiotic (WSM) was recovered in a volumetric flask after
131 centrifugation and negative whey was added to obtain a volume of 25 ml. Thereafter,

132 the same dilution procedure as described above was followed to obtain the dose-
133 response curves of recovered WSM.

134 2.3. Microbial inhibitor tests

135 The antimicrobial activity of whey samples was evaluated using the Eclipse 100 test
136 (Zeulab, Zaragoza, Spain), a microbial inhibitor assay employing *Geobacillus*
137 *stearothermophilus* var *calidolactis* as a test microorganism and bromocresol purple as
138 acid-base indicator. For the analysis of whey samples containing quinolones, the
139 Equinox test (Zeulab), using *Escherichia coli* bacteria and brilliant black as redox
140 indicator, was utilized. Both tests were carried out according to the manufacturer
141 instructions for milk analysis. The interpretation of test results was carried out
142 independently by three trained technicians visually assessing the colour change of the
143 culture medium after incubation, and classifying the whey samples as either positive
144 (Eclipse: purple and Equinox: blue) or negative (Eclipse: yellow and Equinox: orange
145 brown).

146 Experimental cheeses were made in triplicate and whey analysis was performed in
147 twelve replicates, resulting in a total of 36 determinations for each antibiotic
148 concentration and type of whey considered.

149 2.4. Statistical analysis

150 To evaluate the antimicrobial activity in whey samples, a logistic regression model
151 was applied. Statistical analysis was performed employing the stepwise option of the
152 logistic procedure of SAS software (version 9.2, 2001; SAS Institute, Inc., Cary, NC,
153 USA), using the following model:

$$154 L_{ijk} = \text{logit} [P_{ijk}] = \beta_0 + \beta_1 C_i + \beta_2 W_j + \varepsilon_{ijk} \quad (\text{Eq. 1})$$

155 where: L_{ijk} = linear logistic model; $[P_{ijk}] = [P_p/(1-P_p)]$: the probability of a “positive”
156 response/probability of a “negative” response; β_0 , β_1 and β_2 = coefficients estimated for

157 the logistic regression model; C_i = antimicrobial concentration ($i= 8$); W_j = whey type
158 as dummy variable ($W= 0$ for WNM; $W= 1$ for WSM); ε_{ijk} = residual error. The
159 concordance coefficient (SAS, 2001) was applied as a range correlation between the
160 observed responses and predicted probabilities.

161 The detection capability ($CC\beta$) of the microbial inhibitor tests was calculated from
162 logistic regression equations as the antibiotic concentration producing 95% positive
163 results (ISO/IDF, 2002) in the reference whey (WNM).

164 To investigate the susceptibility of antibiotic transfer to the whey, positive outcomes
165 in both types of whey samples were compared at an antibiotic concentration equivalent
166 to the $CC\beta$ of the test (Figure 1). Thus, the potential variation in antimicrobial activity
167 (AAV) was calculated by using the following mathematical expression:

$$168 \text{ AAV}(\%) = ((95 - PR_j)/95) * 100 \quad (\text{Eq. 2})$$

169 where: AAV= Antimicrobial Activity Variation in WSM with respect to the WNM;
170 PR_j = positive results in WSM ($j= 18$) at an equivalent concentration producing 95%
171 positive results in the WNM.

172 **3. Results and Discussion**

173 Table 2 shows the regression equations used to predict positive results in the microbial
174 inhibitor tests calculated for the 18 antibiotics included in this study. In general, the
175 frequency of positive results was positively related to the drug concentration present in
176 the whey samples ($\beta_1 > 0$). However, positive outcomes decreased in whey samples
177 obtained from goat's milk spiked with most antibiotics tested ($\beta_2 < 0$). These results
178 indicate that the cheese-making processes of milk coagulation and curd draining
179 significantly affects ($p < 0.05$) the antimicrobial activity of the recovered whey, being
180 lower as a consequence of the total or partial retention of these drugs in the cheese
181 curd.

182 The CC β s of the microbial screening tests calculated in cheese whey are summarized
183 in Table 2. In general, CC β values were similar to those reported by other authors for
184 the Eclipse 100 test in raw goat milk (Beltrán et al., 2015), and by the manufacturer
185 (Zeulab) for the Equinox test in raw cow milk, suggesting that they could be
186 successfully applied to detect a great variety of substances in this by-product.

187 Regarding the susceptibility of antibiotics transferred from milk to whey, Figure 2
188 summarizes the variation of antimicrobial activity (AAV) in WSM with β -lactam
189 antibiotics. No antimicrobial activity reduction (AAV= 0%) was found for amoxicillin
190 and ampicillin, suggesting that almost all of these antibiotics are released from cheese
191 curd during the draining process. For the rest of the penicillins and for cephalosporins,
192 a moderate antimicrobial activity reduction ranging from 16 to 40% was demonstrated,
193 except for cephalexin which presented the highest reduction, around 90%, indicating a
194 greater likelihood of this antibiotic to be retained in the curd.

195 The high transfer rate of β -lactam antibiotics from milk to whey could be due to the
196 water soluble nature of these substances (Rang, Dale, & Ritter, 2000). However, the
197 lower presence of cephalexin in whey samples could be related to the low solubility in
198 water of the hydrated molecule used in this study (NCBI, 2016) suggesting that almost
199 none of this antibiotic is transferred to the whey.

200 Results obtained for penicillins and cephalosporins are in agreement with those
201 reported by Berruga, Román, Molina, & Molina (2005) in whey from ewe milk spiked
202 with β -lactam antibiotics. These results could also explain the lower benzylpenicillin
203 concentration ($5.4\pm 0.1 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$) reported by Adetunji (2011) in soft cheeses made from
204 contaminated cows milk ($7.0\pm 0.2 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$).

205 For most non- β -lactam antibiotics, the frequencies of positive results in microbial tests
206 decreased a great deal in WSM (Figure 2). However, similar antimicrobial activity
207 values were obtained for both types of whey only in the case of sulphadiazine.

208 As can be appreciated in Figure 2, the quinolone, aminoglycoside and tetracycline
209 families presented the highest relative antimicrobial activity reduction. Thus, for
210 enrofloxacin and ciprofloxacin, AAV were 100%, and ranging from 84 to 100% for
211 aminoglycosides and tetracyclines.

212 The susceptibility of quinolones and tetracyclines for retention in the curd after whey
213 draining could be related to their high fat-solubility. Moreover, tetracyclines might
214 form metal ion complexes with calcium in casein micelles, which would decrease their
215 solubility in water (Rang, Dale, & Ritter, 2000). Thus, despite the curd draining
216 process of cheese-making procedure, similar amounts of tetracycline residues were
217 reported by Adetunji (2011) in contaminated cow milk ($2.7\pm 0.6 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$) and soft
218 cheeses made from it ($2.1\pm 0.1 \mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$). In the case of gentamicin and neomycin,
219 although aminoglycosides are soluble in water (Drugbank, 2016), results herein
220 suggest that these substances are largely retained in the curd.

221 For macrolides and sulphonamides, the AAV calculated for the two substances
222 considered in each antibiotic family was highly variable, while tylosin, hardly soluble
223 in water, was retained in the curd (AAV= 96 %), and erythromycin, much more
224 soluble in water, was mainly released into the whey (AAV below 30 %). Regarding
225 sulphonamides, which have low solubility in water, differences found in AAV in
226 WSM with sulphadiazine (0%) and sulphadimethoxine (100%) could be related to the
227 partition coefficient value being much higher for sulphadimethoxine ($\log P= 1.63$ vs
228 $\log P= 0.25$) (Drugbank, 2016), indicating a more lipophilic character and therefore
229 greater propensity for adsorption into fat matrices.

230 **4. Conclusions**

231 In summary, results herein suggest that the manufacture of cheese made from goat
232 milk containing antibiotics will result in drug residues in the cheese and in resulting
233 whey which could compromise the utilization of this by-product, and potentially affect
234 consumer safety. Antibiotics are transferred from milk to whey to a greater or lesser
235 extent depending essentially on their physicochemical properties. Thus, B-lactam
236 antibiotics, except cephalixin, are mostly transferred from goat milk to whey, while
237 aminoglycosides, quinolones and tetracyclines present a higher susceptibility for
238 retention in cheese curd. The transfer rate for antibiotics belonging to macrolides and
239 sulphonamides are highly variable.

240 Besides the physicochemical properties of antibiotics, other factors such as milk
241 composition and specific steps in the cheese-making process, might also affect the
242 curd retention/whey loss of these substances. Studies on the traceability of veterinary
243 drugs during dairy manufacturing processes are rather limited. Therefore, performing
244 similar studies at pilot-scale using HPLC analysis to quantify antibiotic residues is
245 recommended in order to establish the effects of milk composition and cheese-making
246 process steps on curd retention and whey recovery of antibiotics.

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Figure legend

Fig. 1. Calculation of the antimicrobial activity variation (AAV %) by comparing the dose-response curves (positive results %) obtained for the reference whey (spiked Whey from Negative goat Milk: WNM) and for the Whey from Spiked goat Milk (WSM).

Fig. 2. Antimicrobial activity variation (AAV %) as indicator of the antibiotic drug transfer from goat milk to cheese whey (AAV= 0%, total transfer; AAV= 100%, no transfer)