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Immunomodulatory Effects of Prebiotic, Probiotic, and Synbiotic Supplementation on Immune Response and Hematological Profile in Lactating Rabbit Does

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ABSTRACT

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Lactation compromises immune function through metabolic stress and nutrient partitioning toward milk production, increasing disease susceptibility. This study investigated immunomodulatory effects of prebiotic (inulin), probiotic (*Lactobacillus* spp.), and synbiotic supplementation on immune parameters and hematological profile in lactating does. Forty-eight New Zealand White does (2.8-3.2 kg, second parity) were allocated to four groups (n=12): control, prebiotic (3 g/kg inulin), probiotic (1×10⁹ CFU/g *Lactobacillus acidophilus* + *L. plantarum*), and synbiotic (prebiotic + probiotic) from day 1 through 28 post-partum. Parameters included immunoglobulins (IgG, IgA, IgM), cytokines (IL-6, IL-10, TNF- α , IFN- γ), lysozyme activity, complete blood count (CBC), and differential leukocyte count. Results showed synbiotic supplementation significantly elevated serum IgG by 38% (2486±246 mg/dL vs. 1802±186 mg/dL in control, P<0.001), IgA by 42% (P<0.001), and IgM by 34% (P=0.002), indicating enhanced humoral immunity. Anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 increased 56% (P<0.001), while pro-inflammatory IL-6 decreased 32% (P=0.004) and TNF- α reduced 28% (P=0.008), demonstrating a modulation of the immune response toward a more balanced state. However, IFN- γ showed non-significant changes (P=0.186). Lysozyme activity increased by 48% with synbiotic treatment (P<0.001), confirming enhanced innate immunity. Hematological analysis revealed significant improvements: total leukocyte count increased 24% (P=0.006), lymphocyte percentage elevated 18% (P=0.012), while neutrophil:lymphocyte ratio decreased 26% (P=0.018), indicating reduced inflammation. Red blood cell parameters (RBC, Hb, HCT) remained unchanged (P>0.05), confirming erythropoiesis stability. A strong positive correlation was observed between IgA and lysozyme activity (r=0.74, P<0.001). Probiotic alone showed intermediate immunomodulatory effects, while prebiotic demonstrated milder benefits. This study demonstrates synbiotics enhance both innate and adaptive immunity, modulate inflammatory balance, and improve leukocyte profile in lactating does, supporting disease resistance during this vulnerable period.

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1. Introduction

Lactation represents a critical period of immune vulnerability in mammals. The intense metabolic demand for milk production (150-250 g/day in rabbits) creates competitive nutrient partitioning between mammary gland and immune system [1]. Energy and protein prioritization toward lactation can compromise lymphocyte proliferation, antibody synthesis, and cytokine production [2]. Additionally, lactation stress elevates cortisol, which suppresses immune function through multiple mechanisms: reduced lymphocyte trafficking, impaired cytokine signaling, and decreased immunoglobulin production [3]. This immunosuppression increases susceptibility to mastitis, respiratory infections, and gastrointestinal pathogens, threatening both doe and kit health [4]. Immunoglobulins (Ig) represent the primary humoral defense mechanism. IgG, the most abundant serum antibody, provides systemic protection against bacterial and viral pathogens [5]. IgA dominates mucosal surfaces and milk, providing passive immunity to nursing kits and protecting doe's respiratory and gastrointestinal tracts [6]. IgM serves as the first-line response to novel antigens [7].

During lactation, immunoglobulin synthesis competes with milk protein production for amino acids and energy. Lactating does frequently exhibit reduced serum Ig concentrations, correlating with increased infection rates [8]. Cytokines orchestrate immune responses through complex networks. Pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-6, TNF- α , IFN- γ) activate immune cells and enhance pathogen clearance but cause tissue damage when excessive [9]. Anti-inflammatory cytokines (IL-10) modulate inflammatory responses, preventing immunopathology [10]. IL-6 serves dual roles: acute phase response activation and B-cell differentiation stimulation [11]. TNF- α , produced by activated macrophages, induces fever and stimulates neutrophil bactericidal activity but contributes to mastitis pathology [12]. IFN- γ , secreted by T-helper 1 cells and NK cells, activates macrophages and enhances cell-mediated immunity [13]. IL-10, the primary anti-inflammatory cytokine, suppresses pro-inflammatory mediator production and promotes tissue repair [14].

Lactation stress often skews cytokine balance toward excessive inflammation, impairing immune regulation and tissue homeostasis [15]. Lysozyme, a bacteriolytic enzyme present in serum, milk, and secretions, hydrolyzes bacterial cell wall peptidoglycan, particularly effective against Gram-positive bacteria

[16]. Lysozyme activity serves as an innate immunity biomarker. Lactating animals frequently show reduced lysozyme levels due to preferential secretion into milk, compromising systemic antibacterial defense [17].

Complete blood count (CBC) provides comprehensive immune status assessment. Total leukocyte count reflects immune cell mobilization capacity [18]. Differential count reveals immune response patterns: elevated lymphocytes indicate adaptive immunity activation, increased neutrophils suggest bacterial infection or inflammation, and eosinophilia indicates parasitic challenge or allergy [19]. The neutrophil:lymphocyte (N:L) ratio serves as a stress and inflammation biomarker. Elevated N:L ratios indicate chronic stress, cortisol elevation, and inflammatory conditions [20]. Lactation typically increases N:L ratio through cortisol-induced neutrophilia and lymphopenia [21]. Red blood cell (RBC) parameters assess oxygen-carrying capacity essential for high metabolic demands. Anemia during lactation reduces productivity and health [22].

Probiotics exert immunomodulatory effects through multiple mechanisms:

- a. **Gut barrier enhancement:** Strengthened tight junctions prevent pathogen translocation and inflammatory molecule absorption [23]
- b. **Pattern recognition receptor activation:** Probiotic cell wall components stimulate toll-like receptors, priming immune responses [24]
- c. **Regulatory T-cell induction:** Certain strains promote Treg differentiation, enhancing immune tolerance [25]
- d. **Cytokine modulation:** Probiotics shift cytokine profiles toward balanced Th1/Th2 responses [26]
- e. **IgA secretion stimulation:** Gut-associated lymphoid tissue activation increases mucosal IgA [27]

Lactobacillus species demonstrate particular efficacy in immune enhancement, with documented effects on immunoglobulin synthesis, cytokine production, and phagocyte activity [28].

Probiotics indirectly modulate immunity through selective microbiota stimulation. Fermentation produces short-chain fatty acids (SCFA: acetate,

propionate, butyrate) with immunomodulatory properties:

- Butyrate nourishes colonocytes, strengthening gut barrier [29]
- Propionate modulates dendritic cell function [30]
- Acetate influences systemic immune responses [31]

Inulin, a fructan prebiotic, selectively stimulates *Bifidobacterium* and *Lactobacillus* growth while inhibiting pathogen colonization [32]. While probiotic immunomodulatory effects are established in healthy animals [33], their specific impacts on lactating does—facing unique physiological challenges—remain poorly characterized. The relationships between probiotic supplementation, immunoglobulin profiles, cytokine balance, innate immunity markers, and hematological parameters during lactation require comprehensive investigation [34]. Understanding these mechanisms could inform strategies for maintaining immune competence during lactation, reducing disease incidence and antimicrobial use [35].

This study aims to: -Evaluate effects of prebiotics, probiotics, and synbiotics on humoral immunity (immunoglobulins). -Assess cytokine profile modulation and inflammatory balance. -Determine innate immunity changes (lysozyme activity). -Characterize hematological profile responses. -Establish correlations between immune parameters.

H1: Synbiotic supplementation enhances immunoglobulin production, particularly IgA. **H2:** Synbiotics modulate cytokine balance toward anti-inflammatory phenotype. **H3:** Lysozyme activity increases with synbiotic treatment. **H4:** Leukocyte profile improves with reduced N:L ratio. **H5:** IgA correlates positively with lysozyme activity.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1 Experimental Design

This study utilized the same animals and design as the companion study [36]. Briefly: 48 second-parity New Zealand White does allocated to four groups (n=12): control, prebiotic (3 g/kg inulin), probiotic (1×10^9 CFU/g *Lactobacillus acidophilus* + *L. plantarum*), and synbiotic from day 1-28 post-partum [37].

2.2 Blood Sampling

Blood samples (5mL) were collected via marginal ear vein at days 7, 14, 21, and 28 post-partum [38]. Samples divided:

- 2 mL in EDTA tubes for CBC
- 3 mL in serum separator tubes for immunological analyses

2.3 Immunoglobulin Assays

were measured by ELISA using rabbit-specific kits [39].

IgG: Sandwich ELISA (Abcam, ab157691, sensitivity 1.5 ng/mL, CV <7%). Serum diluted 1:20,000, results expressed as mg/dL [40].

IgA: Sandwich ELISA (Abcam, ab157692, sensitivity 0.8 ng/mL). Serum diluted 1:5,000, expressed as mg/dL [41].

IgM: Sandwich ELISA (MyBioSource, MBS2507447, sensitivity 2.0 ng/mL). Serum diluted 1:10,000, expressed as mg/dL [42].

All assays performed in duplicate following manufacturer protocols with incubation at room temperature and washing with PBS-Tween [43].

2.4 Cytokine Measurements

Cytokines quantified using rabbit-specific ELISA kits [44].

IL-6 (Interleukin-6): Quantitative sandwich ELISA (RayBiotech, ELR-IL6, sensitivity 3 pg/mL, range 15.6-1000 pg/mL). Pro-inflammatory cytokine involved in acute phase response [45].

IL-10 (Interleukin-10): Sandwich ELISA (RayBiotech, ELR-IL10, sensitivity 5 pg/mL). Anti-inflammatory cytokine, regulatory function [46].

TNF- α (Tumor Necrosis Factor-alpha): Competitive ELISA (Abcam, ab100785, sensitivity 4 pg/mL). Pro-inflammatory cytokine, macrophage product [47].

IFN- γ (Interferon-gamma): Sandwich ELISA (MyBioSource, MBS355253, sensitivity 8 pg/mL). Th1 cytokine, macrophage activator [48].

Serum samples analyzed undiluted or at specified dilutions. Results expressed as pg/mL [49].

2.5 Lysozyme Activity

was measured using a turbidimetric assay with *Micrococcus lysodeikticus* as substrate [50].

Procedure: Serum (20 μ L) added to 3 mL *M. lysodeikticus* suspension (0.2 mg/mL in 0.05 M phosphate buffer, pH 6.2) in cuvette. Absorbance at 450 nm monitored for 5 minutes at 25°C using spectrophotometer (Shimadzu UV-1800). Absorbance decrease rate compared to hen egg-white lysozyme standard curve (0-100 μ g/mL). Activity expressed as μ g lysozyme equivalents/mL [51].

2.6 Complete Blood Count (CBC)

Hematological parameters analyzed using automated veterinary hematology analyzer (Mindray BC-5000 Vet) within 2 hours of collection [52].

Parameters measured:

- Total leukocyte count (WBC, $\times 10^3/\mu$ L)
- Red blood cell count (RBC, $\times 10^6/\mu$ L)
- Hemoglobin (Hb, g/dL)
- Hematocrit (HCT, %)
- Mean corpuscular volume (MCV, fL)
- Mean corpuscular hemoglobin (MCH, pg)
- Mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration (MCHC, g/dL)
- Platelet count (PLT, $\times 10^3/\mu$ L)

Quality control performed daily using commercial controls (Streck Laboratories) [53].

2.7 Differential Leukocyte Count

Differential count performed on Wright-Giemsa stained blood smears [54]. Minimum 200 leukocytes classified under oil immersion ($\times 1000$) as:

- Lymphocytes (%)
- Neutrophils (%)
- Monocytes (%)
- Eosinophils (%)
- Basophils (%)

Neutrophil:lymphocyte (N:L) ratio calculated as neutrophil %/lymphocyte % [55].

Absolute counts calculated as: Absolute count = (cell %/100) \times total WBC [56].

2.8 Statistical Analysis

Data analyzed using SPSS 28.0 and GraphPad Prism 10.0 [57]. Normality tested with Shapiro-Wilk, homogeneity with Levene's test [58].

One-way ANOVA with Tukey's HSD for parametric data; Kruskal-Wallis with Dunn's test for non-parametric data [59]. Repeated measures ANOVA for temporal changes [60]. Pearson correlation for relationships [61].

Data: mean \pm SEM. Significance: $P < 0.05$. Power: 85% ($n=12$, $\alpha=0.05$, $f=0.35$) [62].

3. Results

3.1 Humoral Immunity - Immunoglobulins

3.1.1 Serum IgG

IgG, the predominant serum immunoglobulin, increased significantly with synbiotic supplementation (Table 1). At day 21, synbiotic group exhibited 38% higher IgG (2486 \pm 246 mg/dL) compared to control (1802 \pm 186 mg/dL, $P < 0.001$), demonstrating enhanced systemic humoral immunity [63]. Probiotic alone achieved 28% elevation (2308 \pm 228 mg/dL, $P=0.002$), while prebiotic showed 18% increase (2126 \pm 212 mg/dL, $P=0.024$) [64]. Temporal analysis revealed IgG progressively increased through lactation in all groups ($P < 0.001$), with synbiotic maintaining significantly higher concentrations throughout (repeated measures ANOVA, $P < 0.001$) [65].

3.1.2 Serum IgA

IgA, critical for mucosal immunity and passive kit protection via milk, showed the most dramatic response to synbiotic treatment (Table 1). At day 21, synbiotic group demonstrated 42% higher IgA (486 \pm 52 mg/dL) versus control (342 \pm 38 mg/dL, $P < 0.001$), representing substantial mucosal immune enhancement [66]. Probiotic increased IgA by 32% ($P < 0.001$), prebiotic by 22% ($P=0.008$) [67]. The pronounced IgA response reflects probiotics'

preferential effect on gut-associated lymphoid tissue (GALT), the primary IgA synthesis site [68].

3.1.3 Serum IgM

IgM, the first-line humoral response, elevated 34% in synbiotic group (384±42 mg/dL vs. 286±32 mg/dL in control, $P=0.002$), indicating enhanced primary immune responsiveness (Table 1) [69]. Probiotic showed 24% increase ($P=0.012$), prebiotic 16% ($P=0.048$).

Table 1. Serum Immunoglobulin Concentrations at Day 21 Post-Partum

Immunoglobulin	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
IgG (mg/dL)	1802±186 ^c	2126±212 ^b	2308±228 ^{ab}	2486±246 ^a	<0.001
IgA (mg/dL)	342±38 ^c	417±46 ^{bc}	451±48 ^{ab}	486±52 ^a	<0.001
IgM (mg/dL)	286±32 ^c	332±36 ^{bc}	355±38 ^{ab}	384±42 ^a	0.002
Total Ig (mg/dL)	2430±248 ^c	2875±292 ^b	3114±316 ^{ab}	3356±338 ^a	<0.001

Different superscripts indicate significant differences ($P<0.05$).

3.2 Cytokine Profile

3.2.1 Anti-Inflammatory Cytokine IL-10

IL-10, the primary anti-inflammatory cytokine, increased dramatically with synbiotic supplementation (Table 2). At day 21, synbiotic group showed 56% higher IL-10 (124.8±14.2 pg/mL) versus control (80.2±9.8 pg/mL, $P<0.001$), indicating enhanced regulatory immune function [70]. Probiotic elevated IL-10 by 42% ($P=0.001$), prebiotic by 28% ($P=0.012$) [71]. This IL-10 enhancement demonstrates synbiotics' capacity to induce regulatory immune responses, preventing excessive inflammation [72].

3.2.2 Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine IL-6

IL-6, elevated during acute phase responses and chronic inflammation, decreased significantly with synbiotic treatment (Table 2). Synbiotic group exhibited 32% lower IL-6 (86.4±10.2 pg/mL) compared to control (127.2±14.8 pg/mL, $P=0.004$),

indicating reduced inflammatory stress [73]. Probiotic reduced IL-6 by 24% ($P=0.018$), prebiotic by 16% ($P=0.064$, trend) [74].

3.2.3 Pro-Inflammatory Cytokine TNF- α

TNF- α , a key inflammatory mediator, decreased 28% with synbiotic supplementation (94.6±11.4 vs. 131.4±15.6 pg/mL in control, $P=0.008$), confirming anti-inflammatory modulation (Table 2) [75]. Probiotic showed 20% reduction ($P=0.028$), prebiotic 12% ($P=0.096$, trend).

3.2.4 Th1 Cytokine IFN- γ

IFN- γ , produced by Th1 cells and NK cells, showed only numerical increases without statistical significance ($P=0.186$), suggesting treatments did not substantially alter Th1-mediated cellular immunity (Table 2) [76]. This pattern indicates synbiotics primarily modulated inflammatory balance rather than shifting Th1/Th2 paradigm.

Table 2. Serum Cytokine Concentrations at Day 21 Post-Partum

Cytokine	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
IL-10 (pg/mL)	80.2±9.8 ^c	102.6±12.2 ^{bc}	113.8±13.6 ^{ab}	124.8±14.2 ^a	<0.001
IL-6 (pg/mL)	127.2±14.8 ^a	106.8±12.6 ^{ab}	96.7±11.4 ^b	86.4±10.2 ^b	0.004
TNF- α (pg/mL)	131.4±15.6 ^a	115.6±13.8 ^{ab}	105.1±12.4 ^b	94.6±11.4 ^b	0.008
IFN- γ (pg/mL)	142.8±16.4	152.6±17.8	158.4±18.2	164.2±19.6	0.186
IL-10:IL-6 ratio	0.63±0.08 ^c	0.96±0.12 ^{bc}	1.18±0.14 ^{ab}	1.45±0.18 ^a	<0.001

3.3 Innate Immunity - Lysozyme Activity

Lysozyme activity, a key innate defense enzyme, elevated significantly with synbiotic supplementation

(Table 3). At day 21, synbiotic group demonstrated 48% higher lysozyme activity ($46.8 \pm 5.2 \mu\text{g/mL}$) compared to control ($31.6 \pm 3.8 \mu\text{g/mL}$, $P < 0.001$), indicating enhanced antibacterial capacity [77]. Probiotic increased activity by 36% ($P = 0.001$),

prebiotic by 24% ($P = 0.014$) [78]. The substantial lysozyme enhancement confirms synbiotics improve innate immunity, providing rapid antibacterial defense independent of adaptive responses [79].

Table 3. Lysozyme Activity at Day 21 Post-Partum

Parameter	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
Lysozyme ($\mu\text{g/mL}$)	31.6 ± 3.8^c	39.2 ± 4.6^{bc}	43.0 ± 4.8^{ab}	46.8 ± 5.2^a	< 0.001

3.4 Complete Blood Count

3.4.1 Leukocyte Parameters

Total leukocyte count increased significantly with synbiotic supplementation, rising 24% from $7.24 \pm 0.82 \times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ in control to $8.98 \pm 0.96 \times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ ($P = 0.006$), indicating enhanced immune cell mobilization capacity (Table 4) [80]. Probiotic elevated WBC by 18% ($P = 0.024$), prebiotic by 12% ($P = 0.068$, trend) [81]. This leukocyte elevation reflects enhanced hematopoietic activity and immune cell production, supporting improved disease resistance [82].

3.4.2 Erythrocyte Parameters

alter thrombocytopoiesis (Table 4) [85].

Red blood cell count, hemoglobin, and hematocrit showed only numerical variations without statistical significance ($P = 0.428$, $P = 0.352$, and $P = 0.286$, respectively), indicating treatments did not affect erythropoiesis or oxygen-carrying capacity (Table 4) [83]. This stability confirms treatments maintained normal RBC homeostasis despite increased immune activity. RBC indices (MCV, MCH, MCHC) remained unchanged ($P > 0.05$), confirming normocytic normochromic status [84].

3.4.3 Platelet Count

Platelets showed non-significant numerical increase ($P = 0.194$), suggesting treatments did not substantially

Table 4. Complete Blood Count at Day 21 Post-Partum

Parameter	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
WBC ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	7.24 ± 0.82^b	8.11 ± 0.88^{ab}	8.54 ± 0.92^{ab}	8.98 ± 0.96^a	0.006
RBC ($\times 10^6/\mu\text{L}$)	5.68 ± 0.62	5.82 ± 0.64	5.94 ± 0.66	6.08 ± 0.68	0.428
Hb (g/dL)	12.4 ± 1.2	12.8 ± 1.3	13.0 ± 1.4	13.4 ± 1.5	0.352
HCT (%)	38.6 ± 3.8	39.8 ± 4.2	40.6 ± 4.4	41.8 ± 4.6	0.286
MCV (fL)	67.9 ± 6.4	68.4 ± 6.8	68.4 ± 6.6	68.8 ± 7.0	0.892
MCH (pg)	21.8 ± 2.2	22.0 ± 2.4	21.9 ± 2.3	22.0 ± 2.5	0.976
MCHC (g/dL)	32.1 ± 3.0	32.2 ± 3.2	32.0 ± 3.1	32.0 ± 3.3	0.998
PLT ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	286 ± 32	304 ± 36	318 ± 38	332 ± 42	0.194

3.5 Differential Leukocyte Count

3.5.1 Lymphocyte Percentage

Lymphocyte percentage, reflecting adaptive immune cell predominance, increased significantly with synbiotic supplementation (Table 5). Synbiotic group showed 18% higher lymphocytes ($64.2 \pm 6.4\%$)

compared to control ($54.4 \pm 5.6\%$, $P = 0.012$), indicating enhanced adaptive immunity [86]. Probiotic increased lymphocytes by 14% ($P = 0.032$), prebiotic by 8% ($P = 0.124$, non-significant) [87].

3.5.2 Neutrophil Percentage

Neutrophil percentage, elevated during stress and inflammation, decreased with synbiotic treatment, dropping from $32.6\pm 3.4\%$ in control to $26.8\pm 2.8\%$ (18% reduction, $P=0.028$), demonstrating reduced inflammatory stress (Table 5) [88].

3.5.3 Neutrophil:Lymphocyte Ratio

The N:L ratio, a sensitive stress and inflammation biomarker, decreased significantly by 26% in synbiotic group (0.42 ± 0.06 vs. 0.60 ± 0.08 in control, $P=0.018$), confirming reduced physiological stress and inflammatory status (Table 5) [89]. Probiotic reduced

N:L by 20% ($P=0.038$), prebiotic by 12% ($P=0.186$, non-significant) [90]. This N:L reduction indicates synbiotics effectively mitigated lactation-induced stress responses [91].

3.5.4 Other Leukocytes

Monocytes, eosinophils, and basophils showed only minor numerical variations without statistical significance ($P=0.324$, $P=0.428$, and $P=0.752$, respectively), indicating treatments primarily affected lymphocyte and neutrophil populations (Table 5) [92].

Table 5. Differential Leukocyte Count at Day 21 Post-Partum

Parameter	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
Lymphocytes (%)	54.4 ± 5.6^b	58.8 ± 6.0^{ab}	62.0 ± 6.2^{ab}	64.2 ± 6.4^a	0.012
Neutrophils (%)	32.6 ± 3.4^a	30.2 ± 3.2^{ab}	28.4 ± 2.9^b	26.8 ± 2.8^b	0.028
N:L Ratio	0.60 ± 0.08^a	0.51 ± 0.07^{ab}	0.46 ± 0.06^b	0.42 ± 0.06^b	0.018
Monocytes (%)	8.2 ± 1.2	7.8 ± 1.0	7.4 ± 0.9	7.0 ± 0.8	0.324
Eosinophils (%)	3.6 ± 0.6	3.2 ± 0.5	2.8 ± 0.4	2.4 ± 0.4	0.428
Basophils (%)	1.2 ± 0.2	1.1 ± 0.2	1.0 ± 0.2	0.9 ± 0.2	0.752

3.6 Absolute Leukocyte Counts

Absolute lymphocyte count increased dramatically by 47% in synbiotic group (5.77 ± 0.64 vs. $3.94\pm 0.46 \times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$ in control, $P<0.001$), combining effects of increased total WBC and higher lymphocyte

percentage (Table 6) [93]. This substantial elevation indicates enhanced adaptive immune cell availability. Absolute neutrophil count remained relatively stable ($P=0.186$), confirming percentage decreases reflected proportional shifts rather than absolute neutrophil depletion—maintaining adequate innate immune capacity [94].

Table 6. Absolute Leukocyte Counts at Day 21 Post-Partum

Parameter	Control	Prebiotic	Probiotic	Synbiotic	P-value
Abs. Lymphocytes ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	3.94 ± 0.46^c	4.77 ± 0.54^{bc}	5.30 ± 0.60^{ab}	5.77 ± 0.64^a	<0.001
Abs. Neutrophils ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	2.36 ± 0.28	2.45 ± 0.30	2.43 ± 0.29	2.41 ± 0.28	0.186
Abs. Monocytes ($\times 10^3/\mu\text{L}$)	0.59 ± 0.08	0.63 ± 0.09	0.63 ± 0.08	0.63 ± 0.09	0.824

3.7 Correlations

Strong positive correlation existed between IgA and lysozyme activity ($r=0.74$, $P<0.001$), demonstrating coordinated mucosal and innate immunity enhancement (Table 7) [95]. IgG correlated positively with total WBC ($r=0.68$, $P=0.002$), linking humoral immunity to leukocyte mobilization [96]. IL-10 correlated negatively with IL-6 ($r=-0.72$, $P<0.001$) and TNF- α ($r=-0.66$, $P=0.002$), validating anti-inflammatory regulatory function [97]. N:L ratio

correlated negatively with lymphocyte percentage ($r=-0.84$, $P<0.001$), confirming stress-immune relationship [98]. IgA showed positive correlation with absolute lymphocyte count ($r=0.64$, $P=0.006$), suggesting B-cell proliferation drives IgA synthesis [99].

Table 7. Pearson Correlation Coefficients - Key Immune Parameters

Variable 1	Variable 2	r	P-value
IgA	Lysozyme Activity	0.74	<0.001
IgG	Total WBC	0.68	0.002
IL-10	IL-6	-0.72	<0.001
IL-10	TNF- α	-0.66	0.002
N:L Ratio	Lymphocyte %	-0.84	<0.001
IgA	Absolute Lymphocytes	0.64	0.006

4. Discussion

4.1. Enhanced Humoral Immunity

The observed 38-42% elevation in immunoglobulins substantiates a significant enhancement of humoral immunity via synbiotic supplementation [63, 66]. The pronounced response of IgA (42%) is particularly indicative of a targeted effect on the gut-associated lymphoid tissue (GALT), the body's primary site for IgA synthesis and its largest immune organ [68]. This immunoglobulin enhancement is mechanistically supported by a confluence of factors: the activation of B-lymphocytes via probiotic interaction with pattern recognition receptors [100], cytokine-driven B-cell differentiation [101], improved antigen presentation by dendritic cells [102], increased availability of amino acids for antibody synthesis due to better nutrient absorption [103], and the reallocation of metabolic resources away from inflammatory processes toward immunoglobulin production [104]. The clinical significance of these elevations is profound; the 38% increase in IgG enhances systemic protection against circulating pathogens, reducing sepsis risk [105], while the 34% rise in IgM bolsters the primary response to novel antigens, a critical advantage for periparturient does facing new environmental challenges [106].

4.2. Cytokine Balance Modulation

The synbiotic treatment induced a superior immunomodulatory profile, characterized by a simultaneous 56% elevation in the anti-inflammatory cytokine IL-10 and significant reductions in the pro-inflammatory cytokines IL-

6 (32%) and TNF- α (28%) [70, 73, 75]. This pattern reflects an optimal recalibration of the immune system, maintaining defensive capacity while preventing the detrimental effects of chronic inflammation. The elevation of IL-10 can be attributed to several mechanisms, including the induction of regulatory T-cells by specific *Lactobacillus* strains [107], the conditioning of dendritic cells toward a tolerogenic phenotype [108], butyrate-mediated signaling through GPR43 receptors [109], and direct bacterial synthesis of IL-10-inducing metabolites [110]. Concurrently, the reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokines was achieved through the inhibition of the NF- κ B pathway [111], downregulation of toll-like receptor 4 (TLR4) [112], and a decrease in inflammatory triggers due to a strengthened gut barrier [113]. The resultant 130% improvement in the IL-10:IL-6 ratio is a robust indicator of enhanced immune regulation [114]. Furthermore, the non-significant change in IFN- γ (P=0.186) suggests that essential Th1-mediated cellular immunity was preserved without being pathologically over-stimulated [76].

4.3. Lysozyme Activity and Innate Defense Enhancement

The 48% increase in lysozyme activity confirms a substantial boost in innate, non-specific antibacterial capacity [77]. This enzyme provides a critical first line of defense against Gram-positive mastitis pathogens such as *Staphylococcus* [115]. The enhancement likely stems from probiotic-induced macrophage activation [116], potential stress-related redistribution from milk into circulation [117], and improved hepatic synthesis supported by a better metabolic status [118]. The strong positive

correlation observed between IgA and lysozyme ($r=0.74$) underscores a coordinated enhancement of the mucosal defense system, where IgA neutralizes pathogens and lysozyme directly destroys bacterial cell walls [95].

4.4. Leukocyte Profile Optimization and Stress Reduction

The 24% increase in total white blood cell (WBC) count indicates an enhanced capacity for immune cell mobilization, likely driven by bone marrow stimulation [119], cytokine-mediated leukopoiesis [120], and reduced immune cell apoptosis due to improved antioxidant status [121]. A more detailed analysis reveals a qualitative optimization; the 18% increase in lymphocyte percentage, coupled with a 47% rise in absolute lymphocyte count, points to a substantial expansion of the adaptive immune arm, providing a larger pool of B and T cells for targeted responses [86, 93]. One of the most telling indicators of reduced physiological stress was the 26% reduction in the neutrophil-to-lymphocyte (N:L) ratio [89]. This normalization, often elevated during lactation due to cortisol [21], signifies a shift away from a stress-induced, innate-immune-dominant state toward a more balanced and effective immune profile, mediated by lower cortisol and reduced inflammatory chemotaxis [122, 123, 124].

4.5. Stability of Erythropoiesis and Broader Physiological Integration

The non-significant changes in red blood cell parameters confirm that the robust immune stimulation did not come at the cost of impairing erythropoiesis [83]. This is a critical finding, as it confirms that the synbiotic strategy avoids the "anemia of inflammation" that can be induced by some immune stimulants [125], thereby preserving the oxygen-carrying capacity essential for high metabolic demand. When integrated with companion metabolic findings, a comprehensive picture of physiological optimization emerges. The documented 28% reduction in cortisol directly contributes to the improved lymphocyte count and N:L ratio [140], the 18% increase in

glucose provides vital energy for immune cell proliferation [141], and the 42% reduction in malondialdehyde (MDA) protects immune cells from oxidative damage [142]. This demonstrates that synbiotics support the doe's health by concurrently optimizing endocrine, metabolic, and immune systems during the challenging lactation period.

5. Conclusion

This comprehensive study demonstrates synbiotic supplementation (prebiotic + probiotic) substantially enhances both innate and adaptive immunity in lactating rabbit does. The 38-42% immunoglobulin elevations indicate robust humoral immune enhancement, with particularly dramatic IgA response (42%) reflecting gut-immune axis activation. Cytokine modulation toward anti-inflammatory phenotype (56% IL-10 increase, 28-32% pro-inflammatory cytokine reduction) demonstrates balanced immunoregulation. The 48% lysozyme elevation confirms enhanced innate antibacterial capacity. Hematological improvements—24% WBC increase, 18% lymphocyte elevation, 26% N:L ratio reduction—indicate optimized immune cell profile with reduced stress. Strong IgA-lysozyme correlation ($r=0.74$) demonstrates coordinated mucosal defense. Stable RBC parameters confirm treatments-maintained erythropoiesis while enhancing immunity. Non-significant IFN- γ changes preserved adequate cell-mediated immunity. Synbiotic superiority over individual components confirms synergistic effects. These immune enhancements, combined with metabolic optimizations from companion study, support comprehensive physiological improvement during lactation. Findings establish evidence-based supplementation protocols for maintaining immune competence and reducing disease susceptibility in nursing rabbit does during this vulnerable period.

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