

## In-house validation of a method for detection of animal meals in ruminant feeds by microscopy

Ronaldo L. Sanches<sup>a</sup>, Juarez F. Alkmin-Filho<sup>a</sup>,  
Scheilla V.C. de Souza<sup>b</sup>, Roberto G. Junqueira<sup>b,\*</sup>

<sup>a</sup> *Ministério da Agricultura, Pecuária e Abastecimento—LARA/MG, Av. Rômulo Joviano, Fazenda Modelo, Zip-code 33.600-000, Pedro Leopoldo, MG, Brazil*

<sup>b</sup> *Universidade Federal de Minas Gerais—UFMG, Faculdade de Farmácia—FAFAR, Departamento de Alimentos, Av. Antônio Carlos 6627, Campus da UFMG, Pampulha, Zip code 31.270-010, Belo Horizonte, MG, Brazil*

Received 5 April 2004; received in revised form 8 September 2004; accepted 9 September 2004

### Abstract

The aims of this work were the optimization and the in-house validation of a qualitative method for detection of meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, poultry offal, feather and fish meals in ruminant feeds by microscopy. Specificity, detection limit and fitness for purpose were evaluated by procedures with reference materials, sample blanks and samples spiked with each analyte at 0.025%, 0.05%, 0.10%, 0.20%, 0.40% and 0.80%, in at least three independent replicates. Detection limits were 0.05% for meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, feather and fish meals and 0.10% for poultry offal meal.

© 2004 Elsevier Ltd. All rights reserved.

*Keywords:* Feed; Microscopy; Animal meals

### 1. Introduction

The transmissible spongiform encephalopathy (TSE) is responsible for fatal neurodegenerative diseases in humans and animals. Human TSE includes Creutzfeldt–Jakob Disease (CJD), fatal familial insomnia (FFI), Gerstmann–Sträussler–Scheinker syndrome (GSS) and kuru, which is transmitted through ritual cannibalism. In animals, TSE includes natural scrapie in sheep and goats, bovine spongiform encephalopathy (BSE) or mad-cow disease, feline spongiform encephalopathy (FSE), transmissible mink encephalopathy (TME) and chronic wasting disease (CWD) (Concepcion & Padlan, 2003; Dormont, 2002).

The first cases of BSE were diagnosed in the United Kingdom in 1986. It is believed that BSE is a form of scrapie that has been acquired by cattle after ingestion of scrapie-infected sheep matter that had been added to cattle feed (Kimberlin, 1993).

A new variant of CJD (vCJD) began to appear about 10 years after BSE was first identified in cattle in the United Kingdom and was described in March 1996. In contrast to the traditional form of CJD, it affects young patients (Brown, 1997; Fishbein, 1998; Will, Ironside, & Zeidler, 1996; Will, Zeidler, & Brown, 1996). It is also believed that a vCJD may have been caused by BSE being transmitted to humans by consumption of infected beef (Bruce et al., 1997; Concepcion & Padlan, 2003; Scott et al., 1999).

The occurrence of BSE in cattle and its transmissibility to humans is quite serious, mainly due to the fact that there is no therapy applicable to TSE in humans. Therefore, one should try to minimize the exposure of the

\* Corresponding author. Tel.: +55 31 34996913; fax: +55 31 34996730.

E-mail address: [junqueira@dedalus.lcc.ufmg.br](mailto:junqueira@dedalus.lcc.ufmg.br) (R.G. Junqueira).

human population to the BSE agent through food practices and the usage of biological products of bovine origin (Dormont, 2002).

Recommendations on the measures to protect public health agreed by the World Health Organization (WHO), Organization International des Epizooties (OIE) and Food and Agricultural Organization (FAO) include: (1) no part or product of any animal which has shown signs of TSE, nor tissues that are likely to contain BSE agent should enter into the food chain (human or animal); (2) all countries should establish surveillance and compulsory notification of BSE; (3) all countries should ban the use of ruminant tissues in ruminant feed; (4) milk and milk products are considered safe; (5) gelatin and tallow are only considered safe if effective rendering procedures are used; and (6) medicinal products and medical devices should be obtained from countries with no sporadic cases of BSE and measures recommended to minimize the risk (WHO, 1996).

In consequence, many countries formalized regulations that prohibit the use of proteins derived from animal by-products in feeding ruminants. These regulations defined a need for analytical methods to allow the control of the mentioned subjects.

Several methods have been described for the determination of animal material in feed. They are based on the analysis of proteins, e.g. isoelectric focussing (Jemmi & Schlosser, 1991; Jemmi & Schlosser, 1993; Wintero, Thomsen, & Davies, 1990), immunoassays (Ansfield, 1994; Hofmann, 1996; Hofmann, 1997; Hsieh, Sheu, & Bridgman, 1998; Morales et al., 1994) or gel diffusion (Waiblinger, Weber, & Kleinert, 1998).

DNA-based techniques are also described. DNA hybridization (Ebbehoj & Thomsen, 1991; Hunt, Parker, & Lumley, 1997) and polymerase chain reaction systems (PCR) can be animal specific, e.g. beef (Brodmann & Moor, 2003; Matsunaga et al., 1999; Meyer, Höfelein, Lüthy, & Candrian, 1995), pig (Meyer, Candrian, & Lüthy, 1994; Wolf & Lüthy, 2001) or sheep (Chikuni, Tabata, Kosugiyama, & Monma, 1994). It was shown that a species specific detection of the central nervous tissue by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry detection of sphingolipids is possible (Niederer & Bollhalder, 2001).

Feed microscopy, based on tissue analysis, is an extensively used technique for detection of animal material in feeds for ruminants. The detection and identification is based on the observation of the morphological conformation of rough fragments with a stereomicroscope and on the examination of histological structure of fine particles with an optical microscope (AOAC, 1998).

Independently of the analytical technique employed, the reliability of the generated results should be guaranteed by validation procedures (Eurachem, 1998; ISO, 1999; Thompson, Ellison, & Wood, 2002). The aims of

this work were the optimization and the in-house validation of a qualitative method for detection of animal meals (meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, poultry offal, feather and fish meals) in ruminant feeds by microscopy, for use of the control activities of the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock.

## 2. Materials and methods

### 2.1. Samples

Sample blanks of ruminant feeds were obtained from processes that did not contain animal meal in their formulations. These samples were homogenized, identified and stored at room temperature, protected from humidity and light, until the moment of the analysis.

### 2.2. Reference materials

Reference materials (meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, poultry offal, feather and fish meals) were obtained from industries inspected by the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock official service. At least three different reference materials of each analyte were evaluated.

The production processes used were done according to the Brazilian standards to particle size (ANFAR, 1998). Steamed bone, blood, poultry offal, feather and fish meals were obtained with maximum of 5% of retention when passed through a 2 mm sieve. Meat and bone meal was produced with maximum of 5% and 10% of retention when passed through sieves of 2 mm and 1.68 mm, respectively.

### 2.3. Chemicals

ACS/ISO grade petroleum ether, chloroform and acetone were obtained from Fisher (NJ, USA).

### 2.4. Instrumentation

The stereoscopic microscope (magnification of 10×–100×, with reflected/transmitted light and polarization) and the compound microscope (magnification of 40×–600×, with polarization) were from Carl Zeiss Jena Docuval (Germany).

### 2.5. Method procedures

The optimized and validated method was based on evaluation of the morphological characteristics through microscopy, with aid of qualitative chemical and physical tests (AAFM, 1992; Commission, 1998; Ferrando & Henri, 1966; Huss, 1975).

### 2.5.1. Sample preparation

Pellet samples were previously humidified until complete disintegration, cleared by washing with water under vacuum in a sintered glass funnel (0.1mm–0.2mm porosity), dried with acetone and broken into fragments with a pestle. Aliquots of 15g of the samples and 50mL of chloroform were placed in a separatory funnel, homogenized, and allowed to stand for phase separation. The precipitate was drained on to a capsule. The intermediate solvent phase was discarded. The upper was treated with 50 mL of petroleum ether + chloroform (10 + 90, v/v), homogenized and allowed to stand until precipitation from the lower phase. The precipitate was drained on to a capsule and the procedures were repeated with petroleum ether + chloroform 20 + 80, 30 + 70, 40 + 60 and 50 + 50 (v/v). After evaporation of the solvent and drying, the collected fractions were separately sieved and transferred to previously identified Petri plates.

### 2.5.2. Microscopic detection

The fractions contained in the Petri plates were analyzed under stereoscope microscope beginning with the thickest fraction. A compound microscope was used for evaluation of the fine particles.

The analytes were identified according to size, shape, color, texture, hardness, brightness and other morphological characteristics by comparison with reference materials. Confirmation by chemical and physical tests was performed.

### 2.6. Method optimization and validation

The selectivity and detection limit were defined by in-house validation procedures employing assays with reference materials, sample blanks and spiked samples. The fitness for purpose of this method was discussed based on the results of the performance characteristics evaluated (Thompson et al., 2002).

#### 2.6.1. Reference material assays

To evaluate the distribution of the analytes in the different solvent mixtures, 15g of at least three different reference materials of each analyte were submitted to the treatment with petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, 10 + 90, 20 + 80, 30 + 70, 40 + 60 and 50 + 50 (v/v). The analyte concentrates in the solvent mixtures were submitted to the microscopic analysis to establish the properties (morphological characteristics) that could be attributed to each analyte.

#### 2.6.2. Sample assays

Sample blanks and spiked samples at six different concentrations 0.025%, 0.05%, 0.10%, 0.20%, 0.40% and 0.80%, in at least three independent replicates, were analyzed. All of the samples were blind for the analysts.

The ability of the method to determine the analytes without interference from other components was evaluated.

The sample blanks were analyzed, those cases with absence of false positive in all replicates were considered acceptable. In the analysis of the spiked samples, cases with absence of false negative results in all replicates were considered acceptable.

Detection limits were defined for each analyte separately. Detected or non-detected results versus concentrations were evaluated to determine the threshold concentration at which the method became unreliable. The smallest concentration level at which the analyte was detected in all replicates was considered as limit of detection. At least ten independent replicates were analyzed in the concentration level corresponding to the detection limit.

### 3. Results and discussion

As it can be observed in Fig. 1, there were larger concentrations of particles of meat and bone meal and steamed bone meal when petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100 (v/v) was used ( $p < 0.05$ ). For the blood and feather meals, the largest concentration of particles was found in petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70 (v/v) ( $p < 0.05$ ). In the case of poultry offal and fish meals no concentration of particles in any of the different solvent mixtures studied was observed ( $p > 0.05$ ). The concentration profiles were similar for all the reference materials of the same analyte.

The fines in meat and bone meal were granular. Particles of various colors were found. Bone particles in the wet rendering process occurred in small, opaque, white and dull pieces, with a rough surface and hard to break with tweezers (Fig. 2A). Tendon and meat particles appeared as small, irregularly shaped, semi-transparent, yellow to yellowish brown, hard and dull pieces, with a rough or smooth surface. Good quality meat and bone meal contain only small quantities of undesirable impurities, but a wide variety of contaminants. Hoof, horn, hair and leather were observed (Fig. 2B). Contamination by vegetal fiber could occur through inclusion of some paunch and intestinal contents of the animal.

Fines in steamed bone meal appeared as a white powder. Larger particles were chunky white to gray with smooth to medium rough surfaces (Fig. 3A). Small quantities of hoof, hair, leather and vegetal fiber were sometimes present (Fig. 3B).

Drum dried blood fines were mostly spheres or broken spheres. Spray or ring dried blood consisted mostly of fine spherical particles of irregular shape, black or deep purple, hard to break, with a smooth surface but dull or lacking luster (Fig. 4A). Blood sometimes

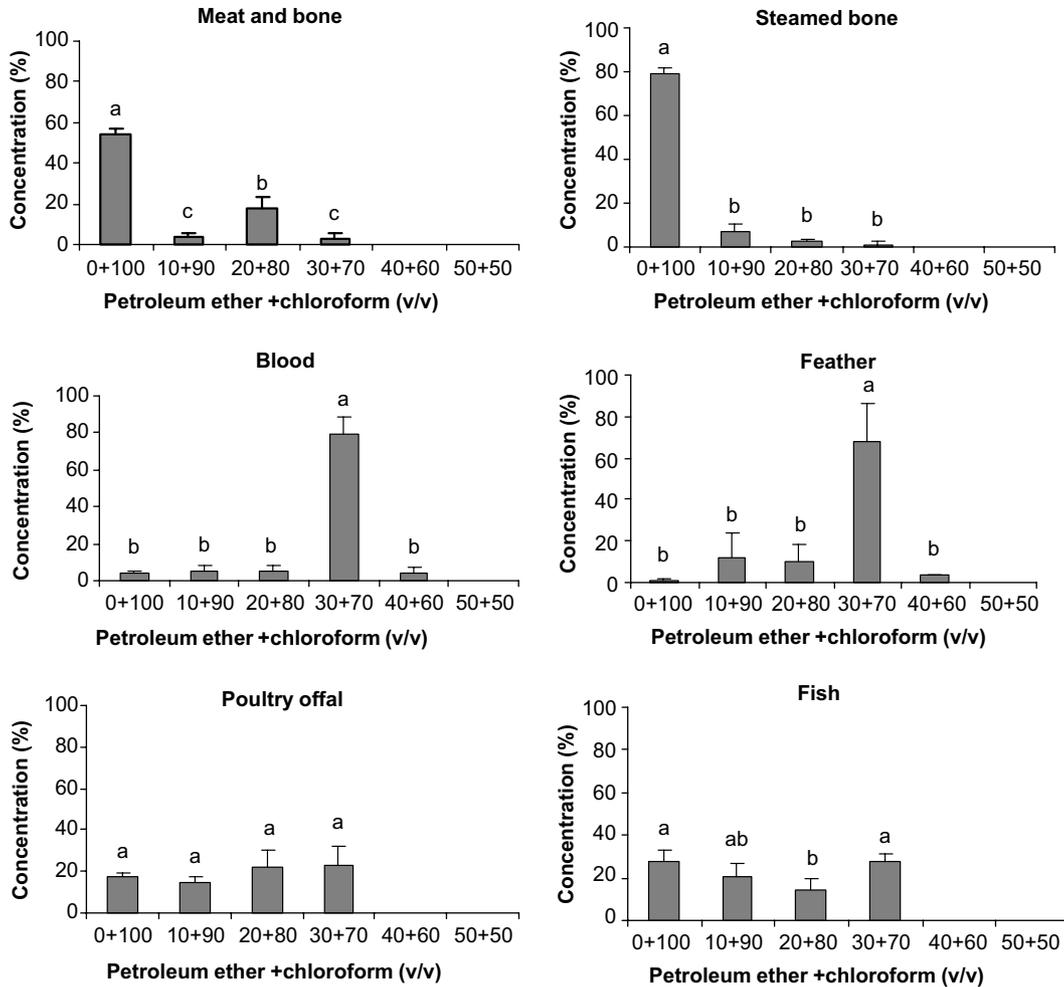


Fig. 1. Concentration profile of the analytes in different solvent mixtures. Means indicated with the same character were not significantly different by the test of Tukey at 5% level of probability. The error bars represent standard deviations.

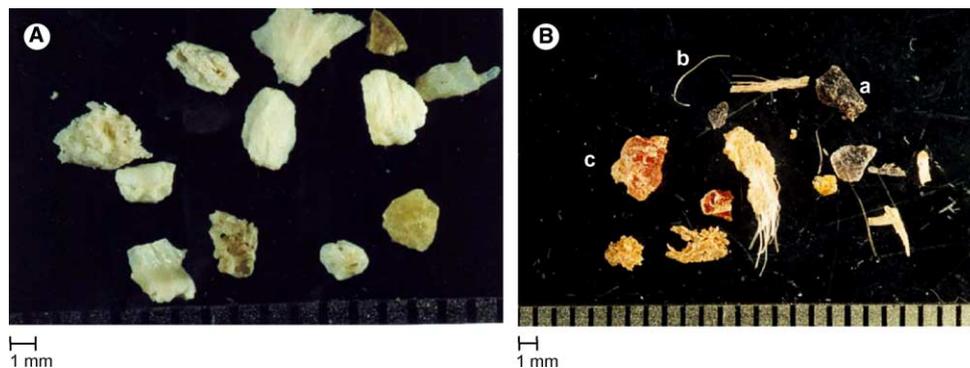


Fig. 2. Fines in meat and bone meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, v/v—bone particles. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 20 + 80, v/v—hoof / horn (a), hair (b) and leather (c).

contained bone and occasionally small quantities of vegetal fiber and hair (Fig. 4B).

Fines in poultry offal appeared as small particles, irregularly shaped, slightly greasy and with a rough surface. Some of the larger pieces of bone appear honey-

combed on the inner surface and are not as thick as in bone from cattle and swine (Fig. 5A and B).

Some feathers resembled hair (Fig. 6A), others resembled compressed clear plastic tubes (Fig. 6B). The rachis of contour feathers was encountered with its jagged, ser-

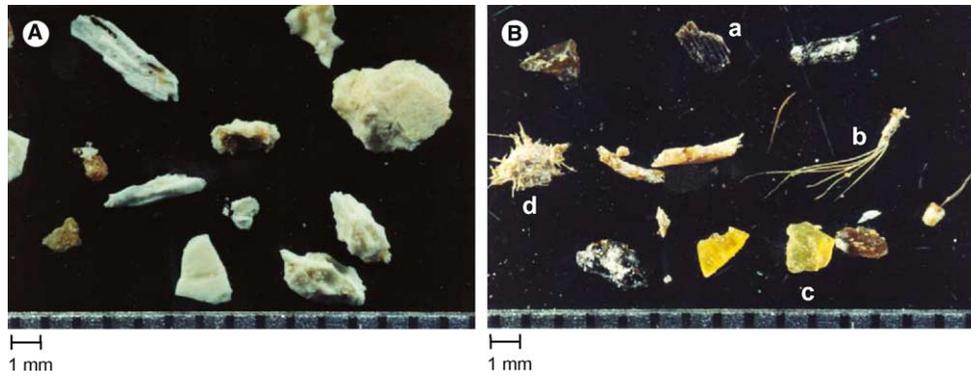


Fig. 3. Fines in steamed bone meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, v/v—larger particles. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 20 + 80, v/v—hoof (a), hair (b), leather (c) and vegetal fiber (d).

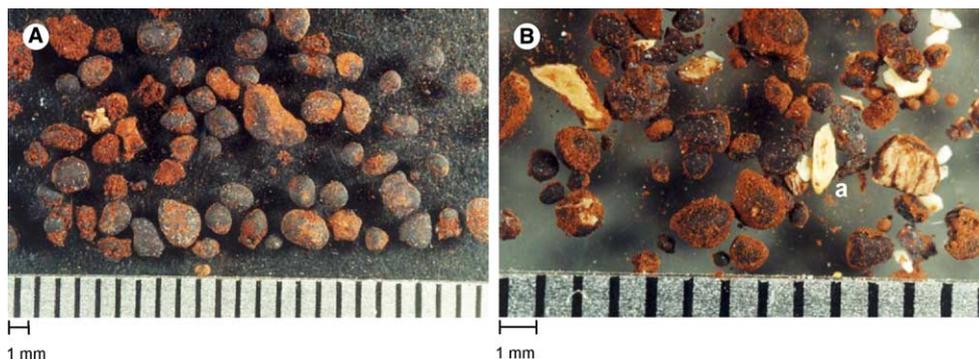


Fig. 4. Fines in blood meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70, v/v—spherical particles. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, v/v—bone (a).

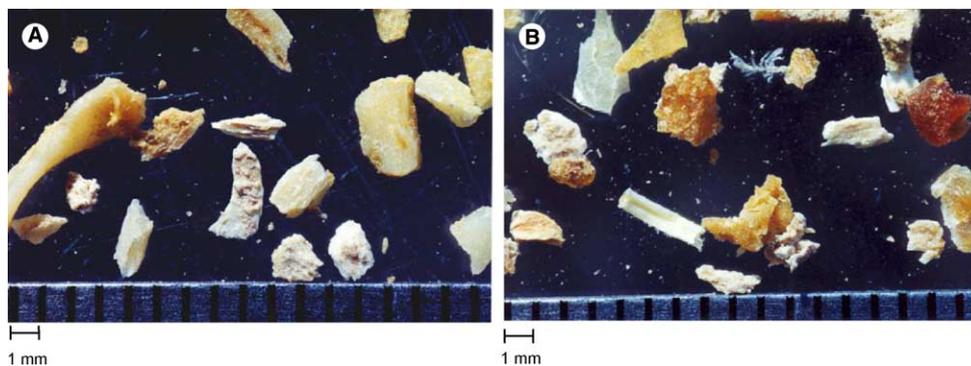


Fig. 5. Fines in poultry offal meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, v/v. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70, v/v.

rated edges where the barbs have been broken off. Scale-like structures from the legs and feet could be detected. These appeared broader than long, slightly curved at the edges and were clear to shiny. Some particles from the beak and claw could be detected. These resembled bone in texture and hardness, but have a pearly luster similar to teeth. Complete hydrolysis removed all evidence of normal feather structure; however detection of raw feathers seldom occurred.

Fines in fish meal appeared granular. Larger particles were somewhat rough surfaced, partially retaining a fibrous structure. These particles were similar to expeller meat meal but lighter in color. The most unmistakable characteristics of fish meal were the bones and scales. Fish bones gave evidence of anatomical structure, even when in small pieces. Many were slender and pointed, while others show typical vertebral form (Fig. 7A). Scales were flat or curled almost transparent pieces with

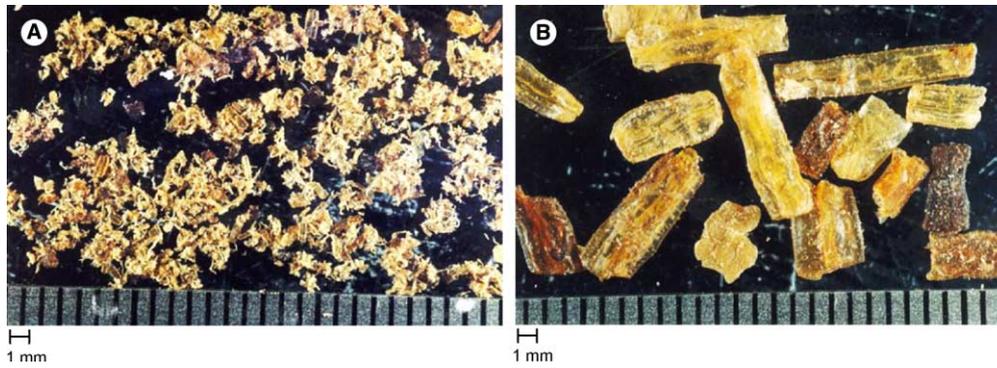


Fig. 6. Fines in feather meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70, v/v—resembled hair. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70, v/v—resembled plastic tubes.

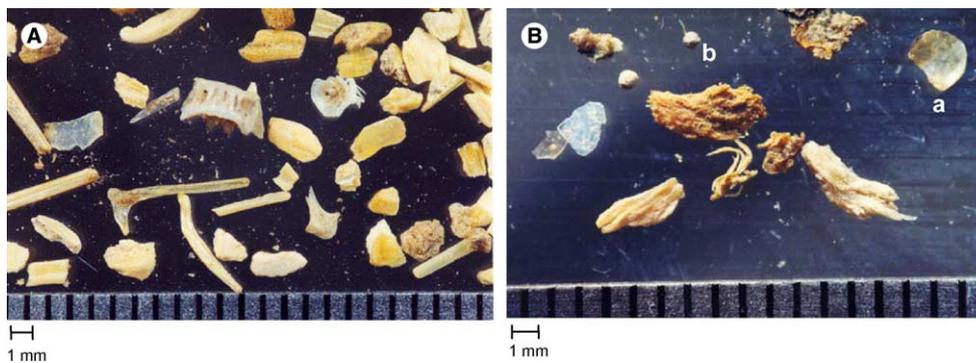


Fig. 7. Fines in fish meal. A: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 0 + 100, v/v—bone particles. B: fraction petroleum ether + chloroform 30 + 70, v/v—scale (a) and eye lenses (b).

concentric markings. Small scale, eye lenses and roe were sometimes present (Fig. 7B).

All the sample blanks analyzed had non-detected results for the studied analytes. In assays employing spiked samples at 0.05%–0.80% for meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, feather and fish meals and at 0.10%–0.80% for poultry offal meal, all of the samples had detected results (Table 1). The smallest concentration levels at which the analytes were detected in all replicates were 0.05% for meat and bone, steamed bone,

blood, feather and fish meals and 0.10% for poultry offal meal. These levels, the detection limits of the method for the respective analytes, were better than the 1% described by Brodmann and Moor (2003) for beef and mammalian detection in feed by PCR and than the 0.10% obtained in an interlaboratory study in the European Union (Momcilovic & Rasooly, 2000).

The rendering process in feed preparation involves heat treatment that denatures and degrades proteins and DNA. This is a significant limitation for techniques

Table 1  
Detected and non-detected results in assays with sample blanks and spiked samples

Concentration (%)	Analyte											
	Meat and bone		Steamed bone		Blood		Feather		Poultry offal		Fish	
	<i>n</i> <sup>a</sup>	D/ND <sup>b</sup>	<i>n</i>	D/ND	<i>n</i>	D/ND	<i>n</i>	D/ND	<i>n</i>	D/ND	<i>n</i>	D/ND
0.80	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0
0.40	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0
0.20	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0
0.10	10	10/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	3	3/0	12	12/0	3	3/0
0.05	10	10/0	10	10/0	10	10/0	10	10/0	3	2/1	10	10/0
0.025	3	2/1	3	2/1	3	2/1	3	2/1	–	–	3	2/1
0.00	6	0/6	4	0/4	6	0/6	5	0/5	4	0/4	4	0/4

<sup>a</sup> *n* = number of replicates.

<sup>b</sup> D/ND: number of detected results / number of non-detected results.

designed to analyze heat-treated proteins or DNA (Momcilovic & Rasooly, 2000).

Immunological techniques are simple, convenient and allow detection of very small amounts of proteins. However, most of them may cross-react with certain materials such as gelatin, giving rise to false-positive readings. Various approaches have been suggested to overcome this problem, but no data are available regarding reproducibility (Ansfield, 1994; Hofmann, 1996; Hofmann, 1997; Hsieh et al., 1998; Morales et al., 1994).

DNA-based techniques have accepted detection limits and are species specific, but cannot distinguish different kinds of tissues, since each cell from every tissue in an organism has identical DNA (Momcilovic & Rasooly, 2000).

Although microscopic methods present difficulty to distinguish bones of mammalian origin from those of poultry origin, this technique is the only test that the Commission of the European Communities endorses (Commission, 1998). In addition, there are many advantages to detection of animal meals in feed by microscopy: being unaffected by heat treatment of the sample, accepted detection limits, low costs, simplicity and speed when the operator had experience in identifying animal structures (Momcilovic & Rasooly, 2000).

#### 4. Conclusions

The optimized and validated method showed sufficient selectivity on determining the analytes of interest in the presence of matrix interferences. The capability to distinguish allowed and prohibited animal meals, in the range of 0.05%–0.80% to meat and bone, steamed bone, blood, feather and fish meals and in the range of 0.10%–0.80% to poultry offal meal was also observed. The performance characteristics of the method presented in this paper indicated its fitness for use in feed control by the Brazilian Ministry of Agriculture and Livestock.

#### References

- AAFM—American Association of Feed Microscopists, (1992). Manual of microscopic analysis of feedstuffs. 113–145.
- ANFAR—Associação Nacional dos Fabricantes de Rações, (1998). *Compêndio Brasileiro de Alimentação Animal. Matérias Primas*. 26–27.
- Ansfield, M. (1994). Production of sensitive immunoassay for detection of ruminant proteins in rendered animal material heated to >130°C. *Food and Agricultural Immunology*, 6, 419–433.
- AOAC—Association of Official Analytical Chemists, (1998). Official method 964.07. Microscopy of animal feed.
- Brodmann, P. D., & Moor, D. (2003). Sensitive and semi-quantitative TaqMan™ real-time polymerase chain reaction systems for the detection of beef (*Bos taurus*) and the detection of the family Mammalia in food and feed. *Meat Science*, 65, 599–607.
- Brown, P. (1997). The risk of bovine spongiform encephalopathy (“mad cow disease”) to human health. *Journal of the American Medical Association*, 278, 1008–1011.
- Bruce, M. E., Will, R. G., Ironside, J. W., McConnell, I., Drummond, D., Suttie, A., et al. (1997). Transmissions to mice indicate that “new variant” CJD is caused by the BSE agent. *Nature*, 389, 489–501.
- Chikuni, K., Tabata, T., Kosugiyama, M., & Monma, M. (1994). Polymerase chain reaction assay for detection of sheep and goat meats. *Meat Science*, 37, 337–345.
- Commission of the European Communities, (1998). Commission Directive 98/99/EC of 13 November 1998 establishing guidelines for the microscopic identification and estimation of constituents of animal origin for the official control of feedingstuffs. *Official Journal*, L 318, 0045–0050.
- Concepcion, G. P., & Padlan, E. A. (2003). Are humans getting “mad-cow disease” from eating beef, or something else? *Medical Hypotheses*, 60(5), 699–701.
- Dormont, D. (2002). Prions, BSE and food. *International Journal of Food Microbiology*, 78, 181–189.
- Ebbehoj, K. F., & Thomsen, P. D. (1991). Differentiation of closely related species by DNA hybridization. *Meat Science*, 30, 359–366.
- Eurachem, (1998). The fitness for purpose of analytical methods. A laboratory guide to method validation and related topics. 61p.
- Ferrando, R., & Henri, N. (1966). *Determinación microscópica de los componentes de los piensos*. Zaragoza: Editorial Acribia, 14 pp.
- Fishbein, L. (1998). Transmissible spongiform encephalopathies, hypotheses and food safety: an overview. *Science of the Total Environment*, 217, 71–82.
- Hofmann, K. (1996). Proof of proper heating at meat-and-bone meal. *Fleischwirtschaften*, 76, 1037–1039.
- Hofmann, K. (1997). Safe controls for renewed confidence: the ELISA meat & bone meal test. *Fleischerei*, 11, III–IV.
- Hsieh, Y. H., Sheu, S. C., & Bridgman, R. C. (1998). Development of monoclonal antibody specific to cooked mammalian meats. *Journal of Food Protection*, 61, 476–481.
- Hunt, D. J., Parker, H. C., & Lumley, I. D. (1997). Identification of the species of origin of raw and cooked meat products using oligonucleotide probes. *Food Chemistry*, 60, 437–442.
- Huss, W. (1975). *Microscopy and quality control in the manufacture of animals feed*. Hohenheim: Roche, 63 pp.
- ISO-International Standard Organization, (1999). ISO/IEC 17025. General requirements for the competence of testing and calibration laboratories. 26p.
- Jemmi, T., & Schlosser, H. (1991). Tierartbestimmung bei erhitztem Fleisch von Haus- und Wildwiederkäuern mittels isoelektrischer Fokussierung. *Fleischwirtschaft*, 71, 1191–1195.
- Jemmi, T., & Schlosser, H. (1993). Tierartbestimmung aus mariniertem und erhitztem Fleisch mittels isoelektrischer Fokussierung. *Fleischwirtschaft*, 73, 600–602.
- Kimberlin, R. H. (1993). Bovine spongiform encephalopathy: an appraisal of the current in the United Kingdom. *Intervirology*, 35, 208–218.
- Matsunaga, T., Chikuni, K., Tanabe, R., Muroya, S., Shibata, K., Yamada, J., et al. (1999). A quick and simple method for the identification of meat species and meat products by PCR assay. *Meat Science*, 51, 143–148.
- Meyer, R., Candrian, U., & Lüthy, J. (1994). Detection of pork in heated meat products by polymerase chain reaction (PCR). *Journal of AOAC International*, 77, 617–622.
- Meyer, R., Höfelein, C., Lüthy, J., & Candrian, U. (1995). Polymerase chain reaction-restriction fragment length polymorphism analysis: a simple method for species identification in food. *Journal of AOAC International*, 78, 1542–1551.
- Momcilovic, D., & Rasooly, A. (2000). Detection and analysis of animal materials in food and feed. *Journal Food Protection*, 63, 1602–1609.

- Morales, P., Garcia, T., Gonzales, I., Martin, R., Sanz, B., & Hernandez, P. E. (1994). Monoclonal antibody detection of porcine meat. *Journal Food Protection*, *57*, 146–149.
- Niederer, M., & Bollhalder, R. (2001). Identification of species specific central nervous tissue by gas chromatography–mass spectrometry (GC–MS) a possible method for supervision of meat products and cosmetics. *Mitteilungen aus dem Gebiete der Lebensmitteluntersuchung und Hygiene*, *92*, 133–144.
- Scott, M. R., Will, R., Ironside, J. W., Nguyen, H. O., Tremblay, P., DeArmond, S. J., et al. (1999). Compelling transgenic evidence for transmission of bovine spongiform encephalopathy prions to humans. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Science of USA*, *96*, 15137–15142.
- Thompson, M., Ellison, S. L. R., & Wood, R. (2002). Harmonized guidelines for single-laboratory validation of methods of analysis. *Journal of Pure and Applied Chemistry*, *74*(5), 835–855.
- Waiblinger, H. U., Weber, W., & Kleinert, T. (1998). Differenzierung von Wildfleischproben mittels DNA- und Protein-Analytik. *Lebensmittelchemie*, *52*, 97–99.
- WHO—World Health Organization, (1996). Report of a WHO consultation on public health issues related to human and animal transmissible spongiform encephalopathies. With the participation of FAO and OIE. Geneva: World Health Organization. 2–3 April.
- Will, R. G., Ironside, J. W., & Zeidler, M. (1996). A new variant of Creutzfeldt–Jacob disease in the UK. *Lancet*, *347*, 921–995.
- Will, R. G., Zeidler, M., & Brown, P. (1996). Cerebrospinal-fluid test for new variant Creutzfeldt–Jacob disease. *Lancet*, *349*, 955.
- Wintero, A. K., Thomsen, P. D., & Davies, W. (1990). A comparison of DNA-hybridization, immunodiffusion, countercurrent immunoelectrophoresis and isoelectric focussing for detecting the admixture of pork and beef. *Meat Science*, *27*, 75–85.
- Wolf, C., & Lüthy, J. (2001). Quantitative competitive (QC) PCR for quantification of porcine DNA. *Meat Science*, *57*, 161–168.