

Effect of environmental enrichment with wood materials and straw pellets on the metabolic status of sows during gestation

Hélène Quesnel, Benoît Peuteman, Marie-Christine Pere, Isabelle Louveau, Louis Lefaucheur, Marie-Hélène Perruchot, Armelle Prunier, Marie-Christine Meunier-Salaün, D. Gardan-Salmon, Florence Gondret, et al.

▶ To cite this version:

Hélène Quesnel, Benoît Peuteman, Marie-Christine Pere, Isabelle Louveau, Louis Lefaucheur, et al.. Effect of environmental enrichment with wood materials and straw pellets on the metabolic status of sows during gestation. Livestock Science, 2019, 229, pp.43-48. 10.1016/j.livsci.2019.09.005 . hal-02319388

HAL Id: hal-02319388 https://hal.science/hal-02319388

Submitted on 20 Jul 2022

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Version of Record: https://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1871141319306602 Manuscript_6541cb10525319eb20b9273e1c3fff19

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- 2 status of sows during gestation
- 3 H. Quesnel¹, B. Peuteman¹, M.-C. Père¹, I. Louveau¹, L. Lefaucheur¹, M-H. Perruchot¹, A.
- 4 Prunier¹, M.C. Meunier-Salaün¹, D. Gardan-Salmon², F. Gondret¹, E. Merlot¹
- ⁵ ¹ PEGASE, INRA, Agrocampus Ouest, 35590 Saint-Gilles, France
- 6 ² Deltavit CCPA group, 35150 Janzé, France
- 7
- 8 Corresponding author: Hélène Quesnel. E-mail: helene.quesnel@inra.fr
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10 Abstract
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Environmental enrichment is a recognized strategy to improve sow welfare. Providing 12 13 manipulable wood materials and straw pellets to sows during gestation might participate in satisfying their investigative behavior. Sows may also get a benefit from chewing and eating 14 15 fibers, which can decrease their hunger. Such strategy, however, should not adversely affect metabolic status of sows and newborn piglets. In this study, gestating sows were group-16 housed in a conventional system on slatted floor (C, n = 26) or in the same system enriched 17 with pieces of oak attached to a chain and straw pellets (CE, n = 30). Straw pellets were 18 provided in the trough at a rate of 200 g/d from 3-30 days of gestation (DG) and 400 g/d from 19 31-104 DG. On DG105, sows were transferred into farrowing pens and housed in identical 20 individual stalls on slatted floor. Sow body weight and backfat thickness were recorded before 21 insemination, on DG105 and at weaning. Plasma concentrations of metabolites and insulin 22 were measured in sows on DG73 and DG102. Blood was also collected from a subset of 23 piglets at birth (n = 6 per litter in 5 C and 8 CE litters) to determine their metabolic and 24 oxidative status. Sow body weight, backfat thickness, and estimated body lipid and protein 25

26	masses did not differ between treatments during gestation and lactation. Maternal plasma
27	concentrations of glucose, lactate, NEFA, beta-hydroxy-butyrate and insulin did not differ
28	between groups ($P > 0.10$). However, CE sows had lower circulating concentrations of urea
29	(P < 0.001) and a greater increase in triglyceride concentrations between DG73 and DG102
30	$(P \le 0.05)$. Treatment did not influence $(P \ge 0.10)$ piglet birth weight or plasma
31	concentrations of glucose, fructose, lactate and albumin, antioxidant potential and the
32	oxidative stress index in newborns. On the day after farrowing, the milk produced by CE sows
33	contained more minerals ($P < 0.01$) than the milk of C sows but similar contents of protein,
34	fat, lactose, energy and IgA. The proportion of piglets that died at birth and within 12 h of
35	birth was lower in CE than in C litters ($P \le 0.05$), but overall mortality (stillbirth +
36	preweaning death) did not differ between the two groups. To conclude, providing manipulable
37	materials and straw pellets to sows during gestation had little impact on sow metabolic status
38	but improved early neonatal survival.
39	
40	Highlights
41	
42	• Manipulable materials and straw pellets were provided to sows during gestation.
43	• Pieces of wood and straw pellets had no negative effect on sow metabolic status.
44	• Pieces of wood and straw pellets had no effect on piglet birth weight.
45	
46	Keywords: straw; sow; gestation; metabolic status; welfare
47	
47 48	1. Introduction

Improving the sustainability of pig farms requires numerous adaptations of present 50 systems, among which increasing the welfare of the sows and reducing the neonatal mortality 51 of their piglets. This goal might be achieved in environmentally friendly systems for gestating 52 sows. Compared with a group-housing system on a slatted floor with low space allowed per 53 sow (a conventional system in many countries), a housing system enriched with deep straw 54 bedding and offering more space was associated with reduced maternal stress, mild positive 55 effects on piglet maturity at birth and less neonatal mortality (Merlot et al., 2017; 2019; 56 Quesnel et al., 2019). Nevertheless, because rebuilding farms according to most welfare-57 friendly standards is not always possible in the short term, temporary alternative strategies 58 should be developed. Wood materials can be manipulated and chewed, thus keeping the 59 gestating sows occupied while they are fed restrictively. Straw pellets offer a number of 60 benefits as manipulable and chewable materials and they may also participate in reducing sow 61 62 hunger via the satiating and swelling effects of insoluble dietary fibers contained in the straw. Enriching the conventional gestation system with wood objects in the pen and straw pellets 63 64 distributed at the end of the meal may thus improve sow welfare, as illustrated by less stereotypies, more activities of investigation, and lower saliva concentrations of cortisol 65 observed in these sows (Quesnel et al., 2018). However, the fibrous components contained in 66 wheat straw may also influence the absorption pattern of nutrients (Noblet et al., 1989; 67 Ramonet et al., 2000). In line with this effect, feeding pregnant sows with diets rich in dietary 68 fiber influenced their metabolic status and body reserves (Quesnel et al., 2009; Loisel et al., 69 2013). The impacts however vary with the nature of dietary fiber (Ramonet et al., 2000). We 70 hypothesized that providing wood materials and straw pellets to sows during gestation may 71 influence their metabolic status, with potential effect on nutrient partitioning and 72 consequences on the metabolic status of piglets at birth. This study aimed at testing these 73 hypotheses. 74

- 76 2. Animals, materials and methods
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78 2.1. Animals and experimental design

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The experiment was carried out in the experimental farm of the Chambre Régionale 80 d'Agriculture de Bretagne (CRAB) at Crécom (Saint-Nicolas du Pélem, France). The 81 experimental protocol was approved by the local Ethics Committee in Animal Experiment of 82 Rennes, France, and by the French Ministry of Higher Education and Research. 83 84 Two group-housing gestating pens were used. Pens were designed for 12 females 85 maximum each. They were divided into an open loafing area, where sows had space to move 86 and have social interactions, and a row of free-access individual stalls equipped with feeding 87 troughs. Pens were on a concrete slatted floor and offered 2.4 m² of space per sow. Two metal 88 chains were provided in each pen as a minimal recommended enrichment material. One pen 89 was used without further enrichment (Conventional system, C). The second pen 90 (Conventional Enriched system, CE) was enriched by providing pieces of oak attached to a 91 chain (3 per pen) and wheat straw pellets distributed by the animal caregiver in the trough 92 after each meal. Pieces of wood are especially suitable to be bitten and chewed by the sows 93 (EFSA AHAW Panel, 2014). 94 The experiment was carried out in three successive replicates of Landrace x Large White

⁹⁵ sows of mixed parities (1 to 9). Sows were introduced into the gestating pens a few days ⁹⁶ before insemination. Seventy-one sows were inseminated with semen from Piétrain boars. ⁹⁷ Fifteen sows were excluded because they were not pregnant, aborted or had leg problems. In ⁹⁸ total, 56 sows had confirmed pregnancies and were raised throughout gestation and lactation ⁹⁹ (C: n = 26, CE: n = 30). At the end of gestation, the number of sows per pen was 8, 10 and 8 ¹⁰⁰ C sows in replicates 1, 2 and 3 respectively, and 10 CE sows in each replicate. All sows were
 ¹⁰¹ transferred to farrowing pens at approximately 105 days of gestation (DG105, DG0 being the
 ¹⁰² day of the first insemination) where they were kept in identical individual crates with slatted
 ¹⁰³ floor. Housing and management practices from late pregnancy to weaning were similar for the
 ¹⁰⁴ two groups of sows.

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¹⁰⁶ 2.2. Sow and litter management during gestation and lactation

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108 Sows were fed commercial standard diets during gestation and lactation. Diet composition 109 and levels of feeding are presented in Table 1. During gestation, feed was provided to each 110 sow in the form of soup at 0830 and 1630 h in two equal meals. At the end of each meal, 111 straw pellets (First pellets, Maisonneuve, France) were given to CE sows only, at a rate of 200 112 g/d between DG3 and DG30 and 400 g/d between day DG31 and DG104. This 113 supplementation strategy was based on a pre-trial conducted to determine the amount of 114 pellets that could be fed to sows without reducing their appetite. Various quantities of pellets 115 (200, 400 and 600 g/d) provided in 2 meals to gilts and sows in mid-gestation were tested. No 116 feed or straw refusal was recorded with 200 and 400 g but some straw refusals were observed 117 with 600 g. We therefore decided not to exceed 400 g/d and to adopt a progressive increase 118 (200 then 400 g). Pellets were made of dry chopped straw that took up water when distributed 119 in the trough and disintegrated into wisps of straw. Their nutritional composition is given in 120 Table 1. Any feed or straw pellets left in the trough were recorded daily. In the farrowing 121 rooms, sows were individually fed the same lactation diet through an automatic dispensing 122 system.

On DG114, parturition was induced by an intramuscular injection of cloprostenol (2 mL of
 Planate®, MSD Santé Animale, Beaucouzé, France). Piglets born alive and stillborn were

125	individually weighed within 12 h after birth. Then, piglets received standard care
126	interventions. When a sow had more than 15 piglets 24 h after parturition, the extra-piglets
127	were adopted by a sow with a smaller litter (especially with litter size less than 12). Cross-
128	fostering was limited as much as possible and was done within treatment. Piglets were
129	weaned at 28 days and individually weighed. Sows and piglets had free access to water
130	throughout the experiment. Piglets had also access to creep feed from day 10 of lactation.
131	
132	2.3. Measurements and sampling during gestation and lactation
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134	Sows were weighed a few days before artificial insemination, on DG105 and on the day of
135	weaning. On those same days, their backfat thickness was measured ultrasonically using an
136	IMAGO apparatus (ECM, Angoulême, France), at the level of the last rib on each side, 65
137	mm from the midline (P2 site). Their rectal temperature was recorded on DG105, on the day
138	of parturition and the day after. The numbers of piglets born alive, "stillborn" (piglets that
139	died at birth or within 12 h after birth) and weaned were recorded. Piglet death, date and cause
140	were registered throughout lactation.
141	Blood samples were collected on heparin from all sows on DG73 and DG102, before the
142	morning meal. Milk was collected on the day (24 to 36 h) after farrowing, after an
143	intramuscular injection of 20 IU of oxytocin (Ocytovem, Céva Santé Animale, Libourne,
144	France). Milk samples (60 mL) were immediately filtered through gauze and stored at -20°C.
145	Litters from the last replicate (C: $n = 5$, CE $n = 8$) were supervised at farrowing and
146	subjected to specific measurements: sex, weight, crown-rump length, and rectal temperature
147	1 h after birth were recorded for all piglets of these litters. Blood samples were collected from
148	five to six piglets per litter (40 females and 34 males in total) from the umbilical cord

- immediately after birth, before any consumption of colostrum. All blood samples were immediately centrifuged for 10 min at 2,600 x g at 4°C to collect plasma.
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152 2.4. Biological analyses

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All analyses were done in duplicate. Concentrations of metabolites were assayed in 154 maternal plasma samples. Enzymatic methods using an Automatic Analyzer (Konelab20i, 155 Thermo Fisher Scientific, Cergy-Pontoise, France) were used to determine plasma 156 concentrations of glucose, triglycerides, β -hydroxybutyrate, and urea (references 981304, 157 981786, 984325, and 981818, respectively, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vantaa, Finland), 158 lactate (reference735-10, Trinity Biotech, Bray, Ireland), and NEFA (NEFA HR(2), 159 references 434-91795 and 436-91995, Wako, Neuss, Germany). The intra-assay CV were 1% 160 161 for glucose, 2% for triglycerides, 4% for β -hydroxybutyrate, 3% for urea, 1% for lactate, and 3% for NEFA. Plasma concentrations of insulin were measured using a RIA kit (INSULIN-162 163 CT; IBA Molecular, Orangeburg, NY, USA). This kit uses porcine insulin (unlabeled and iodinated) and a primary antibody directed against porcine insulin. Assay sensitivity was 4.6 164 µIU/mL. The intra-assay CV was 12.2%. Contents of dry matter, ash, gross energy, crude 165 protein, lipids, lactose and immunoglobulins A (IgA) were assayed in milk as fully described 166 by Loisel *et al.* (2013). 167

Piglet metabolic status was assessed by plasma concentrations of glucose, lactate, fructose, and albumin in samples collected at birth. Glucose and lactate were assayed by using the same kits as for sow plasma. Kit references for fructose and albumin were 984302 and 981767, respectively (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Vantaa, Finland). The intra-assay CV were 1% for fructose and albumin. As previously described (Buchet et al., 2017), oxidative status was assessed by the concentration of hydroperoxides (H₂O₂) and the total antioxidant capacity of

plasma, which were analysed using commercial kits (dROM and BAP tests, Diacron Labs 174 S.R.L., Grosseto, Italy) adapted to an automated analyser (Konelab 20i, Thermo Fisher 175 Scientific, Cergy-Pontoise, France). The dROM test measures the concentration of 176 hydroperoxides generated by the peroxidation of lipids, proteins or nucleic acids. The intra-177 assay CV was 6%. The results of the test are expressed in $\mu g Eq H_2O_2/mL$. The Biological 178 Antioxidant Power (BAP) results from the combined effects of many antioxidants such as uric 179 acid, ascorbic acid, proteins, alpha-tocopherol or bilirubin. The intra-assay CV was 2%. The 180 results are expressed in µmol/L of equivalent vitamin C used as an iron-reducing reference 181 agent. 182

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184 2.5. Calculations and statistical analyses

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186 The chemical composition of sows was estimated from their body weight and backfat thickness using the equations proposed by Dourmad et al. (1997) for lipids and proteins: lipid 187 (kg) = -26.4 + 0.221 EBW + 1.331 P2, and protein (kg) = 2.28 + 0.178 EBW - 0.333 P2, 188 where EBW (kg) represents the sow empty live weight estimated from body weight (EBW = 189 0.905 BW^{1.013}), and P2 (mm) the backfat thickness at the level of the last rib. At the end of 190 gestation, sow body weight was calculated by subtracting the estimated weight of uterine 191 contents (UCW) from body weight with UCW (kg) = 0.3 + 1.329 litter weight at birth (kg) 192 (Dourmad et al., 1997). 193 Statistical analyses were performed using SAS (SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, NC). All models 194 included the effect of treatment (C or CE) and replicate (1, 2, or 3). The GENMOD procedure 195 196 was used to analyze the number of piglets per litter, using a Poisson distribution and a log-

- 197 transformation as the link function, and to analyze mortality rates and proportion of piglets in
- 198 classes of birth weight, using a binomial error distribution and a logit-transformation. To

calculate rates of mortality per litter, a piglet was considered to belong to the litter in which he 199 200 was at the time of his death. Other data were analyzed by ANOVA using the MIXED procedure. For sow and litter performance and milk composition, the model included 201 treatment as the main effect and replicate as random effect. For metabolite and insulin 202 concentrations of sows, repeated measures ANOVA with the fixed effect of treatment (the 203 error term being sow within treatment) and day (the residual error being the error term) as 204 well as the treatment x day interaction were in the model. For traits of newborn piglets (with 205 data recorded on several piglets per litter), the model included the effect of treatment and the 206 random effect of sow nested within treatment. Data are expressed as least-squares means and 207 SEM when analysed using the MIXED procedure and as raw data when analysed using the 208 GENMOD procedure. Differences between C and CE systems were considered significant if 209 *P* < 0.05. 210

211

212 **3. Results**

3.1. Sow body condition and metabolic status

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During gestation, no feed or straw refusal was observed in C or CE groups. The 214 consumption of straw pellets provided on average 34% extra crude fiber daily to CE sows 215 compared with C sows during the first month of gestation and 68% between DG30 and 216 DG104. It provided only 1.1 and 2.1% extra net energy, 2.0 and 4.1% extra nitrogen and 2.3 217 and 4.6% extra fat during the first month of gestation and between DG30 and DG104, 218 respectively. Sow body weight and backfat thickness before insemination, at DG105 and at 219 weaning did not differ between treatment groups (Table 2). Backfat thickness gain during 220 gestation was lower for CE than for C sows (P < 0.05), whereas backfat thickness loss during 221

222	lactation did not differ between the two groups. The estimated mass of body lipids and
223	proteins at the three physiological stages and their variations did not differ significantly
224	between the two groups of sows (Table 2). At DG105, CE sows had greater rectal
225	temperatures than C sows (Table 2) but there were no more differences between treatment
226	groups on the day of farrowing and the day after.
227	Sow metabolic status changed between DG73 and DG102 (Table 3). Except for lactate,
228	plasma concentrations of metabolites were greater at DG102 than at DG73 ($P < 0.05$). For
229	triglycerides, this increase was more accentuated in CE than in C sows. On the opposite,
230	maternal insulin concentrations decreased with gestational age. Lower concentrations of urea
231	(P < 0.001) were observed in CE than in C sows at both stages. Plasma concentrations of
232	other metabolites and insulin did not differ between C and CE sows at both gestation stages.
233	
234	3.2. Sow reproductive performance
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236	No treatment effect was observed on the total number of piglets $(15.4 \pm 0.6 \text{ and } 15.7 \pm 0.8 \text{ mm})$

200	No treatment effect was observed on the total number of pigiets $(13.4 \pm 0.0 \text{ and } 13.7 \pm 0.8 \text{ m})$
237	for C and CE sows, $P = 0.785$), the number of piglets born alive (13.8 ± 0.5 and 14.7 ± 0.7 for
238	C and CE sows, $P = 0.347$) and weaned piglets (11.7 ± 0.5 and 12.4 ± 0.5, $P = 0.424$). The
239	number of piglets that died at birth or within 12 h of birth was numerically lower in CE than
240	in C litters (1.1 \pm 0.2 and 1.7 \pm 0.4, respectively, <i>P</i> = 0.077). Relatively to the total number of
241	piglets per litter, the proportion of these piglets that died at birth or within 12 h of birth was
242	lower in CE than in C litters (6.6 \pm 1.2 vs 11.1 \pm 3.0% of total born piglets, <i>P</i> < 0.05). In
243	contrast, the rate of piglet mortality during lactation (beyond 12 h postpartum) did not differ
244	between C and CE litters ($P > 0.05$). Overall mortality from birth to weaning (including
245	stillbirth) did not differ between the two treatment groups (23.2 ± 3.5 and $19.1 \pm 2.2\%$ for C
246	and CE litters, respectively, $P = 0.292$). Litter weight and mean piglet weight at birth (21.0 ±

²⁴⁷ 0.5 kg and 1.43 \pm 0.03 kg, respectively) and at weaning (106.1 \pm 3.0 kg and 8.94 \pm 0.15 kg, ²⁴⁸ respectively), as well as litter and piglet weight gain during lactation (3.04 \pm 0.09 kg/d and ²⁴⁹ 264 \pm 4 g/d) did not differ between the two treatment groups (*P* > 0.05). The distribution of ²⁵⁰ piglets into classes of birth weight (< 1 kg, 1.0-1.8 kg and > 1.8 kg) did not differ between ²⁵¹ treatments (*P* > 0.05).

On the day after farrowing, CE sows produced a milk that contained more ash, and therefore more minerals, compared to C sows (P = 0.004, Table 4). Otherwise, contents of dry matter, lactose, protein, fat, and energy in milk, as well as IgA concentrations, did not differ between treatments (Table 4).

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257 3.3. Piglet characteristics at birth

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Piglet traits at birth were evaluated in the third replicate from 13 litters. Treatment did not influence the length and weight of piglets at birth and their body temperature 1 hour after birth (P > 0.05, Table 5). Piglet metabolic status, assessed by plasma concentrations of glucose, lactate, fructose, and albumin did not differ between piglets born from C and CE sows (P > 0.05, Table 5). At birth, plasma hydroperoxide concentration was lower in C than in CE piglets (P < 0.001, Table 5), but total antioxidant capacity evaluated by BAP and the oxidative stress index were not altered by treatment.

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267 **4. Discussion**

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The study was part of a project investigating a strategy to improve the welfare of sows by providing manipulable materials to satisfy their investigative behavior and straw pellets to reduce feeding frustration during gestation. Despite the swelling capacity of wheat straw and

its nutritional composition providing mostly fibrous ingredients, no feed nor straw refusals 272 273 were observed in the troughs for the sows receiving this treatment during gestation. Moreover, no significant waste of pellets was observed. Nevertheless, because there was no plate under 274 the troughs to collect any waste pellets, some waste cannot be ruled out. Peltoniemi *et al.* 275 (2010) reported that sows fed a high-fiber diet with ad libitum access to the feed wasted on 276 average 60 g of feed per sow and per day. The amount of straw pellets distributed brought 277 extra net energy and nitrogen to CE sows, which represented on average during gestation only 278 1.8% of net energy and 3.4% of nitrogen provided by the conventional diet. Despite this extra 279 intake, CE sows gained less backfat thickness during gestation. This might be due to the 280 depressing effects of dietary fiber on energy and nutrient digestibility (Noblet et al., 1989; 281 Bach Knudsen et al., 1993). Another explanation may be related to the physical activity of CE 282 sows, which spent more time in a standing posture to investigate the manipulable materials 283 284 available in their pen when compared with C sows (Quesnel et al., 2018). Treatment had minor impact on sow metabolism during gestation. It significantly 285 influenced plasma concentrations of urea, with reduced concentrations in CE sows. This is 286 consistent with the lower preprandial concentrations of plasma urea that have been previously 287 reported in late-gestating sows fed a high-fiber diet compared to sows fed a low-fiber diet 288 (Loisel et al., 2013). Such effect could be linked to a greater nitrogen use by gut microbiota in 289 response to dietary fiber intake. Indeed, blood urea nitrogen is a substantial source of nitrogen 290 for bacteria of the gut and microbial mass may be increased by an increased intake of dietary 291

fiber, especially in response to the soluble fraction of dietary fiber (Bach Knudsen, 2001). In rats, increasing intakes of soluble fermentable fiber or oligosaccharides increased urea flux 293 from blood to cecum and induced a decrease in blood urea concentrations (Levrat et al., 1993; 294

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Younes et al., 1995). Alternatively, lower plasma urea concentrations may reflect a lower 295

protein oxidation due to a lower intestinal absorption of protein when sows consumed straw. 296

The present results also indicate changes in sow metabolic status during the third part of 297 gestation, which were consistent with previous findings (Mosnier et al., 2010). Why the 298 increase in triglyceride concentrations between DG73 and DG102 was greater in CE than in C 299 sows remains unclear. Triglycerides in the blood are mainly derived from dietary fat but C 300 and CE sows were fed the same amount of gestating diet. Although straw pellets provided 301 only a small quantity of fat to sows compared with the diets, it cannot be ruled out that this 302 extra fat participated, at least in part, in this difference in triglyceride concentration between C 303 and CE sows. Another explanation is related to the effect of dietary fiber on gut microbiota. 304 Feeding sows high-fiber diets increases the plasma concentrations of short-chain fatty acids 305 (Serena et al., 2009). Dietary fiber might also modulate gut microbiota composition, and 306 particularly influence species able to transform dietary fiber into short-chain fatty acids, 307 subsequently modifying the energy metabolism of the host, as suggested in growing pigs (Yan 308 309 et al., 2013).

The last treatment effect we observed on sows was a greater rectal temperature at the end of the treatment. It can be attributed to straw ingestion as consumption of fibrous feeds induces a greater heat production (Noblet et al., 1989). In line with the present result, Renaudeau et al. (2003) reported that feeding lactating sows a diet containing a high level of dietary fiber increased sow rectal temperature by 0.2°C on average.

Although straw enrichment was not prolonged until parturition, we hypothesized that changes in sow metabolic status in response to enrichment might have consequences on milk at the initiation of lactation. Straw distribution ceased on average 11 days before parturition, which is when colostrum synthesis starts (Quesnel and Farmer, 2019). However, treatment had little impact on the composition of the milk collected on the day after farrowing. Average contents of nutrients, energy and IgA, were very close in the two treatment groups. The only difference was in the content of minerals, which may be explained by the fact that wheat

322 straw contains minerals. Extra supply by straw pellets averaged 10% of mineral supply by
323 feed. It would be interesting to investigate if the consumption of straw pellets increases the
324 concentrations of specific microelements with potential beneficial impacts on piglet health or
325 survival.

With regard to piglet survival, treatment had a positive impact by reducing mortality that 326 occurred during farrowing and within 12 h after birth. This effect cannot be related to piglet 327 birth weight or litter heterogeneity, which were not influenced by treatment. In a previous 328 study, piglets born from sow raised on deep straw litter (E system) were found to have a better 329 early survival than piglets born from sow raised on a concrete floor during gestation (C 330 system). In this previous study, the better survival was not due to a beneficial effect of fiber 331 on kinetics of birth since duration of farrowing, average birth interval and rhythm of piglet 332 births did not differ between the 2 housing systems. In contrast, this previous study revealed 333 334 that piglets from these two origins had some differences in energy metabolism. Especially, the insulin to glucose ratio of the E piglets was lower suggesting that these piglets had a greater 335 insulin responsiveness than the C piglets (Quesnel et al., 2019). We hypothesized that these 336 metabolic differences might partly contribute to the differences of mortality. In the present 337 study, however, the difference in mortality cannot be attributed to traits related to differences 338 in metabolic or oxidative status of newborn piglets, because the only difference between CE 339 and C piglets concerned hydroperoxide concentrations in plasma at birth, which was low and 340 did not alter the oxidative index. 341

342

343 **5. Conclusions**

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The distribution of manipulable materials and straw pellets to sows housed in a poor
 environment during gestation had no negative effect on their body composition and metabolic

347	status at the end of gestation. This enrichment did not influence piglet birth weight and
348	markers of piglet metabolic and oxidative status. However, it reduced piglet mortality at birth
349	and shortly after birth, and increased mineral content of milk produced at the onset of
350	lactation. Therefore, this strategy to improve sow welfare can be recommended in
351	conventional pig farms, where sows are commonly experiencing hunger and scarce positive
352	stimulations during gestation.
353	
354	Acknowledgment
355	
356	The authors thank C. Calvar, B. Le Bris and the staff of Crécom (Chambre d'Agriculture de
357	Bretagne, France), the technical staff of PEGASE (INRA), and collaborators from Artemis
358	and Deltavit CCPA group. Research received funding from the EU FP7 Prohealth project (no.
359	613574).
360	
361	Conflict of interest
362	
363	The authors declare that they have no competing interests.
364	
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434 Composition of the standard gestation and lactation diets.

	Gestation	Lactation
	diet	diet
ingredients, % (as fed-basis)		
Barley	35.00	20.00
Wheat	24.81	40.50
Wheat bran	10.00	4.00
Soybean meal	-	14.72
Sunflower meal	10.00	4.00
Rapeseed meal	0.63	-
Corn 2015 Std	-	8.63
Oat	5.00	-
Sugar beet pulp	6.45	2.00
Cornstarch	3.23	1.20
Palm oil	1.70	1.34
Calcium carbonate	2.06	1.00
Dicalcium phosphate	-	0.84
Salt	0.42	0.44
L- Lysine 50%	0.29	0.54
Methionine	-	0.04
Vitamin and mineral premix	0.30	0.30
Choline 75 liq	0.053	0.05
Valine 40	-	0.26

	L-threonine	0.03	0.114
436			

Chemical composition of feed and straw pellets and distribution to sows. The distribution of
gestation and lactation diets was similar for C and CE sows, but only CE sows received straw
pellets.

	Gestation	Lactation	Strow pollets	
	diet	diet	Straw pellets	
Sows	C and CE	C and CE	CE only	
Composition (as fed basis)				
NE, MJ/kg	9.08	9.81	1.47^{1}	
Crude protein, %	12.9	16.5	3.9	
Lysine, %	0.6	1.0	Not measured	
Lipids, %	3.7	3.1	Not measured ²	
Crude fiber, %	6.9	4.4	35.7	
NDF, %	22.2	15.4	71.6	
ADF, %	8.5	5.5	41.1	
ADL, %	2.0	1.2	5.1	
Ash, %	4.1	4.4	5.4	
Average distribution per sow, kg/d				
Insemination to day 28	3.0	-	0.2 (from d 3)	
Day 29 to 60	2.6	-	0.4	
Day 61 to 80	3.0	-	0.4	
Day 81 to 104	3.6	-	0.4	
Day 105 to term	3.6	-	-	

1 st to 3 rd day of lactation	+1 kg daily	-	-
4 th to 28 th day of lactation		Adapted to	
	-	litter size	-

- ⁴⁴³ ¹ Straw pellets contained 17.29 MJ of gross energy per kg (as analysed) and net energy per kg
- 444 was estimated with the InraPorc® software.
- 445 ² Wheat straw contains on average 1.3% of lipids (InraPorc®).

448 Variations in body weight, backfat thickness and estimated chemical composition of sows that
449 were housed during gestation in a conventional system (C) or a conventional system enriched
450 with manipulable materials and straw pellets (CE).

	Treatment			
	С	CE	<i>P</i> -value ¹	
No. of sows	26	30		
Parity	3.3 ± 0.4	3.7 ± 0.4	0.402	
Gestation length, d	114.7 ± 0.2	114.8 ± 0.2	0.749	
Body weight, kg				
Before AI	228.0 ± 11.9	246.6 ± 11.1	0.257	
At 105 d of gestation	284.6 ± 10.0	298.8 ± 9.5	0.184	
At weaning	255.3 ± 10.1	269.8 ± 9.9	0.212	
Variation during gestation	56.6 ± 5.1	52.2 ± 4.8	0.534	
Variation during lactation	-26.2 ± 4.0	-29.3 ± 3.9	0.983	
Backfat thickness, mm				
Before AI	18.8 ± 1.6	20.3 ± 1.6	0.204	
At 105 d of gestation	22.2 ± 1.7	21.7 ± 1.6	0.659	
At weaning	17.4 ± 1.4	18.1 ± 1.4	0.593	
Variation during gestation ²	3.3 ± 0.8	1.4 ± 0.8	0.014	
Variation during lactation ³	-4.7 ± 0.4	-3.6 ± 0.4	0.060	
Lipid, kg				
Before AI	48.0 ± 4.3	54.0 ± 4.1	0.180	

At 105 d of gestation	58.8 ± 4.0	61.1 ± 3.9	0.472
At weaning	51.7 ± 3.5	55.7 ± 3.5	0.220
Variation during gestation	10.7 ± 1.8	7.0 ± 1.6	0.106
Variation during lactation	-7.1 ± 1.5	-5.5 ± 1.5	0.270
Protein, kg			
Before AI	35.8 ± 2.0	38.5 ± 1.8	0.307
At 105 d of gestation	39.8 ± 1.4	42.3 ± 1.3	0.179
At weaning	40.7 ± 1.6	43.0 ± 1.6	0.239
Variation during gestation	3.9 ± 0.9	3.9 ± 0.8	0.983
Variation during lactation	1.1 ± 0.8	0.6 ± 0.7	0.535
Sow rectal temperature, °C			
At 105 d of gestation	37.9 ± 0.1	38.1 ± 0.1	0.037
On the day of farrowing	38.6 ± 0.2	38.4 ± 0.1	0.2.16
24 h after farrowing	39.0 ± 0.1	39.1 ± 0.1	0.578

⁴⁵² ¹ Effect of treatment. Least-squares means \pm SEM.

453 ² With sow body weight before artificial insemination (AI) used as a covariate.

⁴⁵⁴ ³ With sow body weight at 105 d of gestation used as a covariate.

- 457 Plasma concentrations of metabolites and insulin in sows that were housed during gestation in
- 458 a conventional system (C) or a conventional system enriched with manipulable materials and
- 459 straw pellets (CE).
- 460 Blood was collected at 73 and 102 days of gestation (DG).
- 461

	At DG73 Treatment		At DG102 Treatment				
					<i>P</i> -value ¹		
	С	CE	С	CE	Т	D	TxD
Glucose, mM	4.2 ± 0.1	4.1 ± 0.1	4.4 ± 0.1	4.1 ± 0.1	0.086	0.015	0.164
Lactate, mM	2.4 ± 0.1	2.0 ± 0.1	2.1 ± 0.2	1.8 ± 0.1	0.062	0.049	0.361
NEFA, µM	116.8 ± 18.9	103.0 ± 18.3	183.7 ± 19.8	130.3 ± 18.8	0.120	0.005	0.227
Triglycerides, mg/L	319.6 ± 23.0^{a}	305.6 ± 22.3^{a}	447.4 ± 24.1^{b}	531.5 ± 22.9 ^b	0.198	<0.001	0.010
Urea, mg/L	222.3 ± 7.6	195.1 ± 7.4	263.1 ± 8.0	220.4 ± 7.6	<0.001	<0.001	0.189
OH-butyrate, µM	45.1 ± 3.8	39.9 ± 3.7	56.6 ± 4.0	52.5 ± 3.8	0.288	<0.001	0.870
Insulin, µIU/mL	14.4 ± 1.1	15.6 ± 1.1	10.9 ± 0.8	10.1 ± 1.1	0.888	<0.001	0.375
Insulin:glucose, μIU/mL per mM	3.4 ± 2	3.7 ± 0.2	2.5 ± 0.3	2.4 ± 0.2	0.598	<0.001	0.499

⁴⁶² ¹ Effects of treatment (T), day (D) and the interaction (TxD). Least-squares means \pm SEM.

⁴⁶³ ^{a, b} Means without a common superscript differ (P < 0.05).

464

465

468 Composition of milk collected 1 day after farrowing from sows that were housed during
469 gestation in a conventional system (C) or a conventional system enriched with manipulable
470 materials and straw pellets (CE).

Treatment					
Item	С	CE	<i>P</i> -value ¹		
Dry matter ² , %	21.0 ± 0.5	20.9 ± 0.5	0.984		
Ash ² , %	0.67 ± 0.02	0.71 ± 0.02	0.004		
Lactose ² , %	4.0 ± 0.1	4.0 ± 0.1	0.698		
Protein ² ,%	8.1 ± 0.4	7.9 ± 0.4	0.668		
Fat ² , %	8.8 ± 0.4	8.6 ± 0.4	0.778		
Gross energy, kJ/g	5.84 ± 0.17	5.79 ± 0.16	0.843		
IgA, mg/mL	8.48 ± 0.87	8.02 ± 0.84	0.703		

- ⁴⁷² ¹ Effects of treatment. Least-squares means \pm SEM.
- ⁴⁷³ ² Grams per 100 g of whole milk.

478 Neonatal traits of piglets born from sows that were housed during gestation in a conventional

479 system (C) or a conventional system enriched with manipulable materials and straw pellets

- 480 (CE).
- 481

	Treat	tment	
	С	CE	<i>P</i> -value ¹
No. of litters ²	5	8	
All piglets			
No. of piglets born alive	70	116	
Mean piglet length at birth, cm	24.7 ± 0.5	24.1 ± 0.4	0.398
Mean piglet BW at birth, kg	1.32 ± 0.10	1.37 ± 0.08	0.737
Rectal temperature 1 h after birth, °C	37.4 ± 0.3	37.8 ± 0.2	0.306
Piglets submitted to blood sampling			
No. of piglets	32	42	
Mean piglet length at birth, cm	24.3 ± 0.6	24.7 ± 0.5	0.570
Mean piglet BW at birth, kg	1.38 ± 0.10	1.45 ± 0.08	0.616
Rectal temperature 1 h after birth, °C	37.4 ± 0.2	37.9 ± 0.2	0.158
Metabolite plasma concentrations			
Glucose, mM	3.39 ± 0.15	3.02 ± 0.13	0.087
Lactate, mM	4.23 ± 0.54	3.73 ± 0.43	0.484
Fructose, mM	2.92 ± 0.24	2.61 ± 0.20	0.344
Albumin, g/L	7.04 ± 0.21	6.54 ± 0.25	0.242
Oxidative status ³			
BAP, Fe^{2+} , μM	1624 ± 50	1550 ± 43	0.283

H_2O_2 , $\mu g Eq/mL$	158 ± 1	162 ± 1	0.007
OSI ³	0.10 ± 0.01	0.11 ± 0.01	0.173

- 482 ¹Effect of treatment. Least-squares means \pm SEM.
- 2 From the third replicate only.
- 3 Oxidative stress index as the ratio between hydroperoxides (H₂O₂, μ g Eq /mL) and BAP
- (μM) concentrations.