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RELATIONSHIPS AMONG MATERNAL BACKFAT DEPTH, PLASMA
ADIPOKINES AND THE BIRTHWEIGHT OF PIGLETS

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RELATIONSHIP AMONG MATERNAL BACKFAT DEPTH, PLASMA ADIPOKINES AND BIRTHWEIGHT OF PIGLETS

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Abstract:	<p>A potentially important role into the mechanisms controlling intrauterine growth is provided by adipose tissue. The adipose tissue acts as a dynamic organ, with differentiated adipocytes functioning in an endocrine manner to secrete adipokines, as leptin and adiponectin, involved in modulating energy homeostasis. With the aim of assessing the relationships among maternal adiposity, leptin and adiponectin-pregnancy trend and foetal growth, 48 sows Large White x Landrace were recruited. On basis of backfat (BF) depth at the end of lactation phase, a Low Fat (LF, 11.60 mm; n=24) and a High Fat (HF, 18.20 mm; n=24) groups were formed. During the study, both groups received the same feeding level. At mating and at days 28, 85 and 113 of gestation, the BF was recorded and blood samples were collected to assess the leptin and adiponectin concentrations. At farrowing (BW0) and after 24 h (BW24), piglets were weighed and temperature was recorded. Body mass index (BMI) and ponderal index (PI) were calculated. Before suckling colostrum, blood samples were collected and leptin, adiponectin and IGF-I plasma levels were analysed. The BF depth change during pregnancy was the same in both groups ($P > 0.05$); the BF depth differences between LF and HF groups observed at mating persist during pregnancy as well ($P < 0.05$). A decrease in adiponectin and an increase in leptin plasma levels occur in both groups. Plasma adiponectin was lower in HF group compared to LF group ($P \leq 0.05$), while plasma leptin was not different between groups ($P > 0.05$). Consequently, the adiponectin-leptin ratio resulted lower in HF than in LF group ($P < 0.05$). Compared to HF group, LF sows give birth to lighter piglets ($P < 0.05$). In addition, 14% of the piglets in the LF group and 7% in the HF group reveal a weight that falls in the 25th percentile (≤ 1 kg) ($P < 0.05$). Piglet's anthropometric parameters and thermoregulatory ability were unaffected by maternal adiposity ($P > 0.05$). Piglet's mortality at 24 h from birth was 13% and 3%, in LF and HF groups, respectively ($P < 0.05$). Haematological differences were found only in the case of IGF-I level, which was lower in piglets born from LF than in those from HF sows ($P < 0.05$). Our findings suggest that differences in</p>

	maternal adiposity, due to individual factors and not to feeding levels, influence the offspring weight by acting on the secretion of adipokines.
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RELATIONSHIP AMONG MATERNAL BACKFAT DEPTH, PLASMA ADIPOKINES AND BIRTHWEIGHT OF PIGLETS

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Short title: Maternal backfat depth and birthweight of piglets

Abstract A potentially important role into the mechanisms controlling intrauterine growth is provided by adipose tissue. The adipose tissue acts as a dynamic organ, with differentiated adipocytes functioning in an endocrine manner to secrete adipokines, as leptin and adiponectin, involved in modulating energy homeostasis. With the aim of assessing the relationships among maternal adiposity, leptin and adiponectin-pregnancy trend and foetal growth, 48 sows Large White x Landrace were recruited. On basis of backfat (**BF**) depth at the end of lactation phase, a Low Fat (**LF**, 11.60 mm; n=24) and a High Fat (**HF**, 18.20 mm; n=24) groups were formed. During the study, both groups received the same feeding level. At mating and at days 28, 85 and 113 of gestation, the BF was recorded and blood samples were collected to assess the leptin and adiponectin concentrations. At farrowing (**BW0**) and after 24 h (**BW24**), piglets were weighed and temperature was recorded. Body mass index (**BMI**) and

25 ponderal index (**PI**) were calculated. Before suckling colostrum, blood samples were
26 collected and leptin, adiponectin and IGF-I plasma levels were analysed. The BF depth
27 change during pregnancy was the same in both groups ($P > 0.05$); the BF depth
28 differences between LF and HF groups observed at mating persist during pregnancy
29 as well ($P < 0.05$). A decrease in adiponectin and an increase in leptin plasma levels
30 occur in both groups. Plasma adiponectin was lower in HF group compared to LF group
31 ($P \leq 0.05$), while plasma leptin was not different between groups ($P > 0.05$).
32 Consequently, the adiponectin-leptin ratio resulted lower in HF than in LF group (P
33 < 0.05). Compared to HF group, LF sows give birth to lighter piglets ($P < 0.05$). In
34 addition, 14% of the piglets in the LF group and 7% in the HF group reveal a weight
35 that falls in the 25th percentile (≤ 1 kg) ($P < 0.05$). Piglet's anthropometric parameters
36 and thermoregulatory ability were unaffected by maternal adiposity ($P > 0.05$). Piglet's
37 mortality at 24 h from birth was 13% and 3%, in LF and HF groups, respectively (P
38 < 0.05). Haematological differences were found only in the case of IGF-I level, which
39 was lower in piglets born from LF than in those from HF sows ($P < 0.05$). Our findings
40 suggest that differences in maternal adiposity, due to individual factors and not to
41 feeding levels, influence the offspring weight by acting on the secretion of adipokines.

42
43 **Keywords:** pregnant sows; backfat depth; adipokines; piglets; birth weight

44
45 **Implications.** Birthweight represents a challenge in the pig industry. The adipose
46 tissue, by secreting leptin and adiponectin, which are important in modulating glucose
47 and lipid homeostasis, is a potentially regulator of the mechanisms that link maternal
48 adiposity and intrauterine growth. It is likely, that leptin's role in foetal growth, untied
49 by maternal fatness, is only permissive. Its increase during pregnancy may be the

signal to enhance the mobilization of maternal fat storage and the transplacental transfer of lipids to the foetus. Conversely, reduced levels of adiponectin may represent a mechanism by which a high maternal fat mass leads to an increased foetal weight.

Introduction

Birthweight is considered to be a critical indicator of postnatal performance. Growth and development of the foetus are the result of a balance between the foetal demand and the maternal substrate availability (Jansson and Powell, 2006). To ensure nutrients to foetus, the sow undergoes to an alteration in the regulation of glucose metabolism leading to a state of relative insulin resistance, attributed to the effect of placental hormones, as pregnancy progresses (Père *et al.*, 2000). The development of an insulin-resistant state, increasing hepatic gluconeogenesis and reducing glucose uptake in maternal skeletal muscle and adipose tissue, promotes lipolysis in adipose tissue, thereby making glucose and lipids available to the foetus. This complex system is monitored by a multitude of factors, including the body condition of the mother, the utero-placental blood flow and the expression and function of trophoblast nutrient transporters (Aye *et al.*, 2013). Maternal adiposity, as reflection of its nutritional status, is one of the main extrinsic factors programming nutrient partitioning and growth, development and function of the major foetal organ systems (Redmer *et al.*, 2004; Amdi *et al.*, 2014). Adipose tissue is a specialised endocrine and paracrine organ that modulates energy metabolism via secretion of circulating adipokines (such as leptin and adiponectin), which are involved in the regulation of body fatness and energy expenditure (Ahlsson *et al.*, 2013). Adiponectin and leptin are key modulators of insulin action and glucose metabolism; thus, they can be considered potential candidates for regulation of intrauterine foetal development. During pregnancy, leptin and adiponectin

participate in the process of insulin resistance with antagonistic actions: leptin increases insulin resistance whereas adiponectin increases insulin sensitivity. Serum leptin concentrations have been demonstrated to be positively correlated with backfat depth in sows (De Rensis *et al.*, 2005). High leptin levels from the end of mid pregnancy to farrowing are reported in breeding sows where gestational hyperphagia is managed through dietary strategies (Saleri *et al.*, 2015). The increase of maternal leptin levels during pregnancy may also be a consequence of placental production. The expression of the short leptin receptor form in the sows' placental tissue at farrowing has been observed (Saleri *et al.*, 2015).

Inverse correlations between adiponectin and fat mass and between adiponectin and body mass index have been reported (Skvarca *et al.*, 2013). It has been shown that in pregnant women longitudinal changes in serum adiponectin concentrations occurs; lowest levels were seen in late pregnancy when insulin levels rise (Fuglsang *et al.*, 2006). An inverse correlation between levels of maternal adiponectin and insulin resistance as well as rates of endogenous glucose production has been observed (Ahlsson *et al.*, 2013).

The purpose of this study was to assess the trend of leptin and adiponectin plasma concentrations in pregnant sows with different backfat depth at mating-time. We hypothesised that the interaction between maternal backfat and adipokines constitutes one of the mechanisms behind the offspring growth.

Material and Methods

The study was carried out in compliance with Italian law (Lgs. D. 26/2014) on animal experiments and all animals were housed in accordance with EC Directive 2010/63/UE on animal husbandry.

100

101 *Animals*

102 Based on backfat (**BF**) depth at the end of lactation and parity order, 48 sows Large
103 White x Landrace were recruited and Low Fat (**LF**, 11.60 ± 1.51 mm; $n=24$) and High
104 Fat (**HF**, 18.20 ± 2.05 mm; $n=24$) groups were formed. Backfat depth was measured
105 by a single operator on both left and right side on standing sows using an ultrasound
106 scanner and the mean value was utilised (Lean-meater, Renco Corporation,
107 Minneapolis, Minnesota, USA) (Maes *et al.*, 2004). Parity order was 4.0 ± 2.1 and 3.6
108 ± 1.2 for LF and HF groups, respectively. Sows were identified and moved in individual
109 pens in the same gestation room. At onset of standing oestrus (4.75 ± 0.95 days after
110 the end of lactation), they were artificially inseminated two times, at day 0 of gestation
111 and again 24 h later using, in both cases, semen pooled from five Large White x Duroc
112 boars. During gestation and transition period (from day 110 of gestation to day 3 after
113 farrowing) all sows received the same standard diets offered twice a day at 0800 h and
114 1600 h (Table 1). From 0 to day 10 after mating sows were fed 1.5 kg per day of the
115 gestation diet. The same diet was administered at a dose of 2 kg per day until day 28
116 when the sows were evaluated with ultrasound examination (Aloka SSD 500®, Hitachi
117 Medical System SpA, Milano, Italy; linear probe 5.0 MHz). One of the sows belonging
118 to the LF group was not pregnant and thus, it was removed from the study. From day
119 29 until day 109 of gestation, sows were housed in a group housing system and fed
120 2.5 kg/sow per day of the gestation diet. At day 110 of gestation, sows were moved to
121 individual farrowing pens and fed 2.5 kg per day of the transition diet until three days
122 after farrowing. Parturition was induced on day 113 of gestation by deep intramuscular
123 injection of 0.7 ml per head of cloprostenol sodium (PGF VEYX ®, Veyx-Pharma
124 GmbH, Söhreweg, Germany). The farrowing took place on day 114 of gestation for all

sows. Floor heating and an infrared lamp were used to create a microclimate for the piglets. After 24 h from birth, litter sizes were standardised to 12 ± 2 pigs by cross-fostering within groups. Access to water was always available on an *ad libitum* basis. Gestation took place in a temperature-controlled room with an average ambient temperature of 20°C. The day of farrowing and in the next 72 hours the ambient temperature was raised up to 23°C.

Measurements

The BF was evaluated at days 0, 28, 85 and 113 of gestation. In the same time-points, blood samples from sows were collected using jugular venepuncture in 10-ml vacutainer tubes with lithium heparin before the morning meal. Samples were immediately centrifuged ($1327 \times g$ for 10 min) and plasma was collected and stored at -20°C until analysis.

Number of total born, born alive, dead within the first 24 hours of life and gender were recorded. Piglets were individually weighed (electronic dynamometer; Wunder Sa. Bi. srl, Trezzo sull'Adda -MI, Italy) within the first 2 hours of life (**BW0**) and 24 h after birth of first born piglet (**BW24**). Body mass index (**BMI**) and ponderal index (**PI**) of all piglets were calculated from the crown-rump length and birthweight (Baxter *et al.*, 2008). Body temperature was assessed at birth and at 24 h using an infrared ear thermometer (accuracy 0.2°C) (GIMA, Gessate- MI, Italy). Before suckling colostrum, six piglets born alive per litter - three males and three females- were held in dorsal recumbency and 5 ml of blood from external jugular vein into vacutainer tubes with lithium heparin were taken. The blood samples were processed in the same way as above mentioned for sows.

Diets and blood analyses

Proximate analyses of diets were performed according to the Commission Regulation (EC) 152/2009 laying down the methods of sampling and analysis for the official control of feed (Annex III).

Adiponectin plasma concentration, was determined using a species specific commercial kit (Porcine Adiponectin ELISA, BioVendor, Brno, Czech Republic). The sensitivity of the method was 0.03 ng/ml and the variability coefficients within and among samples were 6.7% and 8.2%, respectively. Leptin plasma concentration was assessed using a commercial kit (Multispecies Leptin RIA- Linco Research, St. Louis, MO, USA). The sensitivity of the method was 100 pg/ml and the variability coefficients within and among samples were 4.7% and 9.1%, respectively. Plasma IGF-I content was evaluated using a multispecies IGF-I ELISA (Alpco Diagnostic, Salem NH, USA), according to manufacturer's instructions. The intra- and interassay coefficients of variation were 7.8% and 5.3 %, respectively. The minimal detection limit was 30 pg/ml.

Statistical analyses

Data on litter size were processed by ANOVA (SAS 9.4, SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, NC, 2013), according to a model including the group of sows (LF, HF) as a fixed factor and the parity order as a covariate. Data on piglets were processed by ANOVA, according to a model that included the fixed factors of the group of sows (LF, HF) and sex (M, F), and the random factor of sow within the group. The data recorded on sows were analysed according to a repeated measure model, including the group (LF, HF) as a fixed factor and, as a covariate, the parity order. Time was included as the repeated statement, and interaction between time and group was considered. Residual were checked for normality by means of PROC UNIVARIATE. When not normally

distributed, data were log transformed. Based on birthweight, piglets were divided in four percentiles classes (25th, 50th, 75th and 95th) by means of PROC UNIVARIATE. The chi square test was applied to the observed and expected frequencies of piglets, as categorised in percentiles weight classes, in relation to the adiposity of sows. Mortality per litter was evaluated applying the chi square test. The significance level was set at $P \leq 0.05$.

Results

Sows parameters

Data on maternal adiposity changes during gestation are reported in Table 2. The differences in backfat depth observed at mating between LF and HF groups persist for the entire pregnancy ($P < 0.05$). During pregnancy, no differences in backfat depth gain were observed between groups ($P > 0.05$). Adiponectin and leptin plasma concentrations and adiponectin-leptin ratio are summarised in Figure 1. Adiponectin concentration showed a decrease from 0 to 113 days of gestation ($P < 0.05$): at these point times, mean values (\pm SD) were 195.85 ± 21.5 and 61.67 ± 7.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ for LF group and 98.19 ± 10.5 and 19.87 ± 2.4 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ for HF group, respectively (Figure 1A). As compared to LF group, plasma adiponectin was lower in HF group at mating, at day 85 of gestation ($P < 0.05$) and at farrowing ($P = 0.05$) (Figure 1A). After the first month of gestation plasma leptin increased in both groups to reach the highest concentration at farrowing ($P < 0.05$). No differences between groups were observed in plasma leptin throughout the pregnancy ($P > 0.05$). At conception, 85 and 113 days of gestation, the adiponectin-leptin ratio was lower in HF than in LF group ($P < 0.05$) (Figure 1B).

Newborn piglet's performance and hormone plasma levels

The effects of maternal BF depth on piglet's performance are reported in Table 3. No differences were observed in respect to total born and born alive number between groups ($P > 0.05$). Conversely, maternal adiposity affected foetal growth; piglets born from HF sows showed a higher BW0 (+ 7%; $P < 0.014$) and BW24 (+ 4%; $P < 0.001$) than those from LF sows. In addition, significant differences in percentile weight grouping was observed ($P < 0.001$). On total born per group, 14% of piglets in the LF and 7% in the HF group revealed a weight falling in the 25th percentile (≤ 1 kg). Anthropometric parameters (BMI, PI) were not affected by maternal BF depth ($P > 0.05$). In the first 24 h of life, the thermoregulatory ability was the same in both groups ($P > 0.05$). Piglet's mortality from 0 to 24 h of life was 13% and 3% for LF and HF groups, respectively ($P = 0.035$). Plasma adiponectin and leptin levels were not affected by maternal adiposity ($P > 0.05$) (Table 4). Higher IGF-I plasma levels were recorded in piglets born from HF than LF sows ($P < 0.001$).

Discussion

Pregnancy is a dynamic anabolic state during which nutritional needs increase due to the growing foetus and the development of associated maternal tissues. Pregnancy-induced changes in body weight and fat deposition are physiological events of maternal adaptation, linked to the hormonal pregnancy changes (i.e. progesterone, prolactin and cortisol) (Saleri *et al.*, 2015). A previous research reported that maternal backfat depth at mating had a greater influence on offspring growth, than feed level during gestation (Amdi *et al.*, 2014). In this study, we focused on the endocrine role of maternal adipose tissue during pregnancy, to investigate how a different adiposity at mating could influence the evolution of pregnancy both in terms of maternal hormone

225 levels and weight and size of the newborn piglets. Firstly, the increase in maternal fat
226 stores during pregnancy was the same in both groups, but sows with the lower backfat
227 depth at mating gave birth to lighter piglets. The percentage of piglets weighing less
228 than 1 kg was double in LF than HF group. This result could suggest an intrauterine
229 growth restriction in piglets born from LF sows, although the thermoregulatory capacity
230 and anthropometric parameters were found to be adequate in all piglets (Amdi *et al.*,
231 2013). It is known that foetal glucose/insulin/insulin-like growth factor axis is the main
232 driver of growth (Hellström *et al.*, 2016). In the foetus, growth is directly modulated by
233 IGF system and it is not regulated by growth hormone. Insulin-like growth factor-I and
234 -II are expressed in foetal tissue only until birth. Insulin-like growth factor-II expression
235 is more extensive in foetal tissues than IGF-I from mid to late gestation in rodents and
236 humans (Randhawa and Cohen, 2005). It has been shown that a poor maternal body
237 condition at conception and in early pregnancy is signaled to the foetus which reacts
238 by promoting peripheral glucose utilization, essential for brain and heart, and by
239 reducing the demand for amino acids for growth, thereby to maintain energy supply at
240 the expense of growth (Bloomfield *et al.*, 2013). After birth, GH stimulates IGF-I
241 secretion with a quick increase of IGF-I blood levels. In our study, lower IGF-I values
242 were observed in piglets born from LF compared to HF group. Energy balance is
243 modulated also by adipose tissue hormones, i.e adipokines, which are acting to
244 regulate insulin sensitivity, appetite and lipid metabolism (Ahlsson *et al.*, 2013). In both
245 groups, the most abundant adipokines produced by adipose tissue, leptin and
246 adiponectin, showed an inverse trend during pregnancy. Physiologically, decreased
247 adiponectin and increased leptin concentrations are associated with insulin-resistant
248 state (Ahlsson *et al.*, 2013). However, it is known that the regulation of maternal
249 adiponectin and leptin during pregnancy becomes very complex. The high levels of

leptin in pregnancy are in agreement with a mechanism of resistance to central leptin action previously reported in swine (Saleri *et al.*, 2015), in humans and mice (Trujillo *et al.*, 2011). Production and regulation by non-adipose tissue, i.e placenta, contribute to this increase in pregnant sows. Probably, the increase in maternal leptin enhances the mobilization of maternal fat stores to increase the transplacental transfer of lipids to the foetus during the latter stages of pregnancy (Walsh *et al.*, 2014). In isolated rat adipocytes, leptin inhibits accumulation of lipids by increasing the turnover of triglycerides, inhibiting basal and insulin-stimulated *de novo* lipogenesis, but stimulating oxidation of glucose and free fatty acids (Harris, 2014). In humans, maternal leptin concentration was not associated with infant birthweight (Misra *et al.*, 2013). Similarly, in our study, leptin levels in sows and piglets do not differ between groups, even though differences in birthweight of piglets were observed. These results support that leptin may play a permissive role in foetal growth. In addition, it has been shown that leptin deficiency in women is not associated with major abnormalities (Christou *et al.*, 2002). To clarify the leptin role, it is important to take into account also the adiponectin role. The strict link between adiponectin and leptin is underlined by the plasma adiponectin to leptin ratio (A/L ratio) which has been proposed as a better marker for insulin resistance in pregnancy than leptin or adiponectin alone (Skvarca *et al.*, 2013). Our data showed that the A/L ratio is lower in HF than LF group, as evidence that HF sows could have a better ability to provide adequate carbohydrate availability for the fast-growing foetus. The lower adiponectin levels detected in HF than LF group match the higher birthweight of offspring. Therefore, adiponectin may be an important player in the mechanism by which maternal energy is stored in fat mass leading the pattern of foetal growth (Zhang *et al.*, 2016). Since we detected the same trend in the adiponectin release in both groups, we hypothesised that adiponectin in pregnant sows

275 is involved in the management of mother's energy resources, regardless their backfat
276 depth. In the concept of energy balance, we can see a complex of mechanisms
277 involving nutrient availability, growth and immunity. In this sense, adiponectin role is
278 also connected to the success of pregnancy: a crucial aspect is the maternal immune
279 tolerance of the foetus. Maternal immune responses regulate the early key events of
280 pregnancy (i.e., implantation, angiogenesis, and vascular remodeling) and
281 abnormalities in these early events are associated with foetuses' intrauterine growth
282 restriction and survival (Morelli *et al.*, 2015). It is known that intrauterine growth
283 restriction results in significant perinatal and long-term complications, including
284 increased neonatal mortality and morbidity. We may hypothesise that also in sow,
285 adiponectin might play an active role in this mechanism. In support of this hypothesis,
286 recently the presence of adiponectin and its receptors was demonstrated in the porcine
287 uteri, conceptuses, and trophoblasts during early pregnancy (Smolinska *et al.*, 2012).
288 In *vitro* studies, it was showed that adiponectin arouses pro-inflammatory cytokine
289 production in human trophoblasts (i.e., IL-1 β and IL-8) and placenta (i.e., IL-1 β , IL-6
290 and TNF α) and thus it may be detrimental to the initiation and progression of pregnancy
291 (Lappas *et al.*, 2005; McDonald and Wolfe, 2011). In our study, the maternal immune
292 responses did not influence the litter number. However, the different plasma levels of
293 adiponectin observed between the groups of sows was associated with different weight
294 of the piglets at birth. All together, these findings suggest a critical role of adipokines,
295 i.e leptin and adiponectin, in modulating maternal energy balance in different stage of
296 pregnancy. Keeping an eye on the new findings on the endocrine function of adipose
297 tissue, we propose that the adiposity at mating time can be used as an effective
298 indicator to optimise the reproduction efficiency of sow. Endocrinology of maternal

adipose tissue and its influence on the offspring request further studies to elucidate the pathways involved in foetus growth and its adaptation to intrauterine environment.

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380 **Table 1** *Ingredients and chemical analysis of diets (on air dry basis g/kg as fed)*

	Gestation diet (g/kg)	Transition diet (g/kg)
Ingredients:		
Wheat bran	240	--
Barley	230	267
Corn	180	310
Unmolassed sugar-beet pulp	147	150
Sunflower meal	137	--
Soybean meal	--	135
Fish meal	--	46
Soybean protein	--	10
Soybean oil	15	20
Dextrose	--	40
Rapeseed meal	20	--
Ground limestone	15	--
Dicalcium phosphate	10	15
Sodium chloride	4	4
Lysine HCl	0.5	1
Vitamins and minerals ¹	1.5	2.0
Chemical analysis:		
Dry matter (g/kg)	878	872
CP (g/kg)	141.2	153.6
Crude fibre (g/kg)	82.2	58.4
Crude fat (g/kg)	38.2	42.1
Digestible energy (MJ/kg) ²	12.9	13.5

381 ¹ Supplied per for kg of diet : Cu: 40 mg, Zn: 80 mg Fe: 150 mg, Se: 0.2 mg, I: 0.6 mg, Mn: 50 mg,
382 vitamin A: 12,000 IU, vitamin D3: 1,000 IU, vitamin E: 100 IU, vitamin K: 20 mg, vitamin B12: 55 µg,
383 vitamin B1: 2 mg, vitamin B2: 5 mg, vitamin B6: 1.5 mg, nicotinic acid: 12 mg, pantothenic acid: 10 mg,
384 folic acid: 5 mg, choline chloride: 500 mg, biotin: 200 µg.

385 ² According to the equation proposed by Noblet and Perez (1993).

386

387 **Table 2** *Pregnancy changes in backfat depth in sows with Low Fat or High Fat at the*
388 *end of the previous lactation (Least squares mean values \pm SEM).*

	Groups		SEM	P - value
	LF	HF		
BF depth (mm)				
day of mating	11.9	17.1	1.69	<0.001
day 28 of gestation	12.4	17.3	1.77	0.003
day 85 of gestation	13.9	18.9	1.47	0.013
day 113 of gestation	14.6	19.7	1.47	<0.001
Δ BF (mating – day 113 of gestation) (mm)	2.7	2.5	0.48	0.358

389 LF (Low Fat; 11.6 \pm 1.5 mm) and HF (High Fat; 18.2 \pm 2.0 mm); BF= backfat

390

Table 3 *Effects of maternal backfat depth on anthropometric parameters and growth performance of piglets (Least squares mean values \pm SEM).*

	Groups		SEM	P – value
	LF	HF		
Total born (n.)	17.2	15.7	3.16	0.327
Born alive (n.)	15.1	14.1	1.94	0.182
BW0 (g)	1244	1334	278	0.014
BW24 (g)	1310	1360	85	<0.001
BMI (kg/m ²)	20.87	20.63	2.091	0.384
PI (kg/m ³)	83.98	84.44	6.739	0.599
Body temperature (°C)				
at birth	37.92	37.78	0.947	0.267
at 24 h	38.75	38.71	0.495	0.608

LF (low fat: 11.6 \pm 1.5 mm) and HF (high fat: 18.2 \pm 2.0 mm) are referred to backfat depth recorded by sows at the end of the previous lactation; BW0= Birthweight; BW24= Body weight at 24 h of life; BMI= body mass index; PI= ponderal index

Table 4 Plasma adiponectin, leptin and IGF-I in newborn piglets in relation to backfat depth of sows (Least squares mean values \pm SEM).

	Groups		SEM	<i>P</i> – value
	LF	HF		
Adiponectin ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	14.3	14.9	1.66	0.339
Leptin (ng/ml)	3.0	3.3	0.57	0.096
IGF-I (pg/ml)	4.4	5.6	1.00	< 0.001

LF (low fat: 11.6 ± 1.5 mm) and HF (high fat: 18.2 ± 2.0 mm) are referred to backfat depth recorded by sows at the end of the previous lactation

Figure caption

Figure 1 Trend of adiponectin and leptin (A) and adiponectin/leptin ratio (B) during gestation, in relation to backfat depth of sows. Blood sampling period started at the day of mating (0) and ended at the day 113 of gestation. Error bars indicate standard deviation. Differences between groups within sampling time are labelled * ($P < 0.05$). Differences among sampling time within groups are labelled a,b,c, ($P < 0.05$).

Figure 1

