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1 Changes in caecal microbiota and mucosal morphology of weaned pigs

2
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11 **Abstract**

12 An experiment was designed to monitor the changes in caecal microbiota associated
13 with early-weaning. Twelve piglets (20 ± 2 days) from six different litters were selected
14 from a commercial source. For the two experimental groups, one animal from each litter
15 was weaned onto a post-weaning diet (W) and the other remained with the sow (S).
16 After 1 week, animals were sacrificed and caecal samples taken. Microbial counts for
17 total bacteria, enterobacteria and lactobacilli populations were determined by
18 quantitative PCR using SYBR Green® dye. Microbial profiles were assessed by
19 terminal restriction fragment length polymorphism (t-RFLP). Weaning promoted an
20 increase in the enterobacteria:lactobacilli ratio (0.27 vs. 1.67 log/log 16S rRNA gene
21 copy number, $P = 0.05$). Total bacteria and richness of the caecal microbial ecosystem
22 (number of peaks) were similar in both experimental groups (49.3 for S and 53.4 for W,
23 respectively, $P = 0.22$), although the band patterns were clearly grouped in two different
24 clusters by dendrogram analysis. Weaning was also associated with a decrease in crypt
25 density, an increase in mytotic index and a decrease in the number of goblet cells. A
26 reduced immunological response was also observed and was manifested by an increase
27 in intraepithelial lymphocytes and lymphocyte density in the lamina propria. Weaning
28 appears to be critical in the establishment of the caecal microbiota in pigs with
29 important changes, particularly in microbial groups and in caecal mucosal architecture.

30

31 **Keywords:** caecal histology, microbiota, pig, real-time PCR, t-RFLP, weaning.

32

33 **1. Introduction**

34 At early-weaning, the pig is affected by a high number of stressors that increase its
35 susceptibility to disease. As a result, lower growth rates and post-weaning diarrhoea are
36 significant problems in pig production after early-weaning.

37 During natural weaning, the piglet is progressively introduced to several external feed
38 sources and its fermentative capacity is progressively developed for approximately 10
39 weeks, at which time the animal is completely weaned. In commercial weaning, this
40 process happens in a couple of days and post-weaning diarrhoea is mainly related to
41 intestinal disbiosis during this rapid adaptation to the new diet. It is generally
42 recognised that the establishment of a diverse bacterial microbiota, characteristic and
43 dynamic for each individual (Simpson et al., 2000), plays a key role in the maintenance
44 of the gastrointestinal health by preventing colonization by pathogens (Van Kessel et
45 al., 2004). This beneficial microbiota is especially important at periods such as weaning,
46 when the animal still has an immature immune system and depends on certain
47 compounds in the sow's milk to prevent the growth of opportunistic bacteria (Edwards
48 and Parret, 2002). There are several studies suggesting that early weaning causes
49 substantial changes in the intestinal bacterial community (Franklin et al., 2002,
50 Konstantinov et al., 2006), but more research is needed regarding the specific changes
51 of the microbial ecosystem during this critical phase.

52 The gastrointestinal tract also needs to adapt to this new situation along with the
53 microbial population. It is known that adaptation of the small intestine epithelium at
54 weaning is greatly conditioned by bacterial colonization (Pluske, 1997). However,
55 information on changes in caecal epithelium at weaning is scarce.

56 The objective of this study was to assess microbial shifts in the caecum of
57 commercially weaned pigs using t-RFLP and real-time PCR, and to monitor changes in
58 caecal mucosa after weaning.

59

60 **2. Material and methods**

61 *2.1. Animals and housing*

62 The experiment was performed at the Experimental Unit of the Universitat Autònoma
63 de Barcelona and received prior approval from the Animal Protocol Review Committee
64 of the institution. Management, housing and slaughtering conditions conformed to the
65 European Union Guidelines. A total of 12 piglets (4.4 ± 0.36 kg; 20 ± 2 days, mixed
66 males and females) were selected from six commercial litters, taking initial body weight
67 into account. One piglet from each litter was weaned and fed a commercial post-
68 weaning diet (weaned group, W) for 1 week (Table 1); the other piglet remained on the
69 original commercial farm with the sow and littermates (control group, S).

70 *2.2. Sacrifice and sampling*

71 On day 28, the animals were weighed and sacrificed with an intravenous injection of
72 sodium pentobarbitone (Dolethal, Vetoquinol, S.A., Madrid, Spain; 200 mg/kg BW).
73 Animals were bled and the abdomen immediately opened from sternum to pubis. The
74 whole gastrointestinal tract was removed, weighed and sampled. pH in four segments of
75 the gastrointestinal tract was measured by insertion of a unipolar electrode through a
76 small incision made in the wall (penetration pH meter CRISON 507, electrode Crison
77 52-32, Net Interlab S.A.L., Madrid, Spain). The pH measurements were performed in
78 the middle of the caudal portion of the stomach, 15 cm proximal to the ileocecal valve,
79 in the lowest part of the caecum and in the colon, 20 cm distal to the caecum. Samples

80 (1 g) of the caecal contents were taken and kept in tubes with 3 ml of ethanol (96%) as a
 81 preservative. Stomach, small intestine and large intestine were emptied and weighted.
 82 For histological study, samples from the middle caecum were opened longitudinally and
 83 fixed by immersion in 10% (v/v) buffered formalin immediately after slaughter.

84 2.3. DNA extraction

85 Samples of equivalent volume to 400 mg of digesta were preserved in ethanol and
 86 precipitated by centrifugation (13 000 g for 5 min). DNA in the precipitate was
 87 extracted and purified using the commercial QIAamp DNA Stool Mini Kit (Qiagen,
 88 West Sussex, UK). The recommended lysis temperature was increased to 90 °C and an
 89 incubation step with lysozyme was added afterwards (10 mg/ml, 37 °C, 30 min) to
 90 improve bacterial cell rupture. The DNA was stored at –80 °C until analysis.

91 2.4. Real-time PCR (qPCR)

92 Total bacteria, lactobacilli and enterobacteria were quantified using real-time PCR
 93 following procedures and using primers described by Castillo et al. (2006). The
 94 oligonucleotides used were based on regions of identity within the 16S rRNA gene and
 95 were adapted from published specific primers or probes using the Primer Express
 96 Software (Applied Biosystems, CA, USA). Primers used for total bacteria were: F-tot
 97 (forward) 5'GCAGGCCTAACACATGCAAGTC3' and R-tot (reverse)
 98 5'CTGCTGCCTCCCGTAGGAGT3'. For lactobacilli: F-lac
 99 5'GCAGCAGTAGGGAATCTTCCA3' and R-lac
 100 5'GCATTYCACCGCTACACATG3', and for enterobacteria F-ent
 101 5'ATGGCTGTCGTCAGCTCGT3' and R-ent
 102 5'CCTACTTCTTTTGCAACCCACTC3'. Amplification and detection of DNA by
 103 quantitative real-time PCR was performed with the ABI 7900 HT Sequence Detection

104 System using optical-grade 96-well plates and SYBR Green dye (PE Biosystems,
105 Warrington, UK). For absolute quantification, PCR products obtained from the
106 amplification of the whole 16S rRNA gene of *Escherichia coli* (CECT 515NT) and
107 *Lactobacillus acidophilus* (CECT 903NT) were used to construct the standard curves.
108 The PCR conditions corresponded to those published by Leser et al. (2002). The
109 amplified gene from *E. coli* was used for absolute quantification of the total bacteria and
110 enterobacteria and the amplified gene from *L. acidophilus* for quantification of the
111 lactobacilli. Quantitative values were expressed as log of 16S rRNA gene copies/g fresh
112 matter (FM). Enterobacteria:lactobacilli ratio were expressed as the difference of
113 logarithms.

114 2.5. Terminal-Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism (*t-RFLP*)

115 t-RFLP analysis of bacterial community was performed following the procedure
116 described by Højberg et al. (2005). Briefly, a 1497-bp fragment of the 16S rRNA gene
117 was amplified using a 6-carboxy-fluorescein-labeled forward primer: S-D-Bact-0008-a-
118 S-20 (5'-6-FAM-AGAGTTTGATCMTGGCTCAG-3') and reverse primer PH1552 (5'-
119 AAGGAGGTGATCCAGCCGCA-3'). Duplicate PCR analyses were performed for each
120 sample. Fluorescent-labeled PCR products were purified on QIAquick PCR purification
121 kit columns (Qiagen, West Sussex, UK,) and eluted in a final volume of 30 µl of Milli-
122 Q water. Then, the resultant PCR product was subjected to a restriction with *HhaI* (20
123 000 U/µl) (Biolabs Inc. New England, USA). Fluorescent-labeled terminal restriction
124 fragments (TRF) were analyzed by capillary electrophoresis on an automatic sequence
125 analyzer (ABI 3100 Genetic Analyzer, PE Biosystems, Warrington, UK) in Gene-Scan
126 mode with a 25-U detection threshold. Determination of the TRFs sizes in the range 50–

127 700 base pairs (bp) were performed with the size standard GS-1000-ROX (PE
128 Biosystems).

129 2.5.1. Analysis of *t*-RFLP data

130 Sample data consisted of size (base pairs) and peak area for each TRF. To standardize
131 the DNA loaded on the capillary, the sum of all TRF peak areas in the pattern was used
132 to normalize the peak detection threshold in each sample. Following the method of Kitts
133 (2001), a new threshold value was obtained by multiplying a pattern's relative DNA
134 ratio (the ratio of total peak area in the pattern to the total area in the sample with the
135 smallest total peak area) by 323 area units (the area of the smallest peak at the 25
136 detection threshold in the sample with the smallest total peak area). For each sample,
137 peaks with a lower area were deleted from the data set. New total area was obtained by
138 the sum of all the remaining peak areas in each pattern.

139 Richness was considered as the number of peaks in each sample after standardization.
140 For pair-wise comparisons of the profiles, a Dice coefficient was calculated and
141 dendograms were constructed using Fingerprinting II (Informatix, Bio-Rad, CA, USA)
142 software and an unweighted pair-group method with averaging algorithm (UPGMA).

143 To deduce the potential bacterial composition of the samples, *in silico* restrictions for
144 the major pig gut bacteria with the primers and the enzyme used were obtained using
145 the analysis function TAP-tRFLP from the Ribosomal Database Project II software
146 (Table 2).

147 2.6. Morphometric analysis

148 Tissue samples for histological study were dehydrated and embedded in paraffin wax,
149 sectioned at 4 μm and stained with haematoxylin and eosin. Morphometric
150 measurements were performed with a light microscope (BHS, Olympus, Spain). Crypt

151 depth (CD), intraepithelial lymphocytes (IEL), the index of mitosis, lamina propria cell
152 density and goblet cell numbers in crypts were measured (Nofrarias et al., 2006).
153 Measurements were performed in 10 well-oriented crypts from each animal. CD was
154 measured using a linear ocular micrometer (Olympus, REF.209-35040, Microplanet,
155 Barcelona, Spain). The same crypt columns were used to determine the number of IEL,
156 goblet cells and index of mitosis (meta- and anaphases); these variables were expressed
157 per 100 enterocytes. On the basis of the cellular morphology, differences between the
158 nuclei of enterocytes, mitotic figures, goblet cells and lymphocytes were clearly
159 distinguishable at 400× magnification. Lamina propria cell density was determined by
160 counting total visibly stained nuclei and total lymphocytes in 10 fields (total area of
161 4000 μm^2) from each section using an ocular grid (Olympus, REF. 209-35046,
162 Microplanet, Barcelona, Spain). Cell density was expressed as the number of total
163 stained cells and the number of lymphocyte-like cells per 1000 μm^2 area. The number of
164 lymphocytes in relation to the number of total cells was also calculated. Crypt density
165 was also determined (Brunsgaard, 1997). All morphometric analyses were done by the
166 same person, who was blind to treatment modality.

167 2.7. Statistical Analysis

168 The effect of weaning on body weights, pH, total bacteria, lactobacilli, enterobacteria,
169 richness and histological measurements was tested with ANOVA using the GLM
170 procedure of SAS statistic package (SAS Inst., Inc. 8.1, Cary, NC, USA). The pig was
171 used as the experimental unit. Statistical significance was accepted at $P \leq 0.05$.

172

173 3. Results and discussion

174 Diarrhoea was not detected in the pigs and there was only one case of liquid faeces
175 (W group). Initial body weight (BW) was similar for both groups, at 4.4 ± 0.16 kg for S
176 and 4.4 ± 0.15 kg for W. As expected, at the end of the experimental period, BW was
177 higher for piglets that remained with the sow than for weaned pigs (6.1 ± 0.25 versus
178 5.05 ± 0.27 kg for S and W, respectively, $P < 0.001$). Growth rate, expressed as average
179 daily gain (ADG), was higher for S than for W pigs (0.25 ± 0.02 versus 0.10 ± 0.02 kg
180 for S and W, respectively, $P < 0.001$).

181 *3.1. Bacterial quantitative change measured by real-time PCR*

182 The total microbial population, lactobacilli and enterobacteria were quantified in
183 caecum digesta using qPCR (Figure 1).

184 The total bacteria counts, expressed as log 16S rRNA gene copies/g fresh matter
185 (FM), did not differ between groups (12.84 and 12.81 log gene copy number/g FM for S
186 and W, respectively, $P > 0.05$). Similar total faecal anaerobic counts after weaning were
187 found by Franklin et al. (2002) in piglets weaned at 24 days.

188 Lactobacilli and enterobacteria have been traditionally selected as microbial groups
189 with a particular significance for gut health. The ratio between these two bacterial
190 groups has been routinely used as a gut-health indicator and it is desirable that
191 lactobacilli outnumber enterobacteria to improve robustness against opportunistic
192 pathogens. In our case, this ratio was higher in W than in S pigs, reflecting the negative
193 effect of weaning on lactobacilli and enterobacteria populations (0.27 versus 1.76 for S
194 and W group, respectively, $P = 0.05$). An inverse correlation between lactobacilli and
195 enterobacteria during the first week post-weaning has been reported previously (Risley
196 et al., 1992; Jensen, 1998; Franklin et al., 2002).

197 *3.2. Ecological bacterial changes, t-RFLP results.*

198 To evaluate global changes in the microbial ecosystem, the t-RFLP method was
199 employed; a technique recently used to characterize the effect of different dietary
200 treatments on pig gut microbiota (Höjberg et al. 2005).

201 The similarity indexes of the t-RFLP profiles illustrated in the form of a dendrogram
202 are shown in Figure 2. It only shows the microbial profiles of 11 pigs due to the fact that
203 one pig had no digesta present in the caecum at the time of sacrifice. The effect of
204 weaning on the ecological composition of microbiota is clear, compared to other
205 possible factors, such as litter or individual effects. This was reflected in two clearly
206 separate clusters, one for each experimental group. There was one exception: a weaned
207 piglet was grouped in the suckling branch of the dendrogram and, interestingly, was the
208 animal that showed liquid faeces. Separation of this piglet in the dendrogram might
209 reflect the beginning of some kind of enteric disbiosis in this animal and the failure of
210 its microbial ecosystem to adapt to solid, dry food.

211 Microbial profiles of S pigs showed a higher similarity to one another (54–78%) than
212 those of W pigs, which showed more heterogeneous microbial profiles (25–76%). The
213 higher variability in microbial profiles in the W group suggests that the pigs suffered
214 stress at weaning and that each individual responded differently to that stress.

215 Microbiota richness was measured as the number of similar bands between both
216 experimental groups (49.34 for S and 53.40 for W, $P = 0.22$). Various studies have
217 described a marked decrease in biodiversity just after piglet weaning (Katouli et al.,
218 1997; Jensen-Waern et al., 1998), showing that early weaning involves a obvious
219 disruption in normal pig microbiota evolution. Thereafter, there is a re-establishment
220 process which can vary with time depending on a number of factors. In this study, the

221 weaned pigs were probably in the process of re-establishing a new microbial
222 equilibrium.

223 *In silico* restriction, using Ribosomal Database Project II, was used to deduce
224 potential ecological changes in the samples. However, it should be noted that dispersed
225 phylogenetic groups of bacteria may produce terminal restriction fragments (TRFs) of
226 identical size and that a single TRF in a profile may represent more than one organism
227 in the sample. Results are, therefore, presented as potential compatible bacterial species.
228 Note also that direct attribution of species to individual peaks is not unequivocally
229 possible unless fingerprinting is complemented with sequence analysis of clone
230 libraries.

231 In this study, compatible bacteria species were assigned to recently described, major
232 pig-gut bacterial groups (Leser et al., 2002). Table 2 shows the frequency of detection
233 of compatible bacteria that were represented in at least three animals.

234 Analysis of electropherograms revealed compatible TRFs with different lactic acid
235 bacteria including *L. acidophilus*, *L. bif fermentum*, *L. brevis*, *L. casei*, *L. rhamnosum*, *L.*
236 *vaginalis*, *Lactococcus lactis*, *L. delbruekii sp. lactis*, *L. delbruekii sp. delbruekii*, and
237 *L. fructivorans*. Interestingly, the fragment of 62 base pairs, compatible with both *L.*
238 *lactis* and *L. vaginalis*, was present in all the animals, with a mean contribution of 15–
239 20% of total area. Although mean area for total lactobacilli was similar in both groups
240 (23.1 and 21.5 % for S and W pigs, respectively), S pigs showed higher diversity in
241 compatible TRFs with different lactobacilli species than W pigs. In particular, *L.*
242 *delbruekii sp. lactis* was present in five animals from this group, representing nearly 5%
243 of total area, whereas no animal of the W group showed any fragment with compatible
244 size. Similarly, *L. delbruekii sp. delbruekii* was present in four S pigs but in only one W

245 pig. The presence of a higher diversity of lactobacilli in S pigs has been reported
246 previously (Krause et al., 1995; Konstantinov et al., 2006).

247 In the case of *Enterococcus* sp., five of six pigs in the S group showed a peak
248 compatible with this group (2.18%), but only appeared in two pigs from the W group
249 (1.35%). This is in agreement with Jensen (1998), who found a decrease in enterococci
250 in weaned piglets.

251 Different species from the *Bacteroidetes* phylum can be compatible with a series of
252 TRFs of similar size, ranging 89–104 bp (Table 2). Summed areas of these peaks
253 represent 4.0 and 5.2% of total peak area for suckling and weaned pigs, respectively,
254 and are, therefore, the second most importance group after lactobacilli. Adami and
255 Cavazzoni (1999) have also described the importance of this group of bacteria in young
256 piglets.

257 In our study, a peak compatible with *Clostridium coccoides* only appeared in three
258 suckling pigs, representing 1.67% of total peak area. Similarly, a peak compatible with
259 *C. butyricum* (0.86 %) was only found in the S group. Other studies have described
260 *Clostridium* as one of the main anaerobic bacteria during the suckling period, declining
261 progressively in abundance with the age (Swords et al., 1993). The presence of *C.*
262 *coccoides* may be considered beneficial for the piglets due to its production of short-
263 chain fatty acids. In fact, it has been used as a probiotic both in animals and humans
264 (Han et al., 1984; Seki et al., 2003). Other peaks, compatible with different species from
265 the *Clostridium* clusters I, IV and XIVa and XVIII, were found in both groups of
266 animals, representing a mean of 2.49 and 1.99% of total area for S and W pigs,
267 respectively.

268 Peaks compatible with *Fibrobacter succinogenes* and *Fibrobacter intestinalis* were
269 found in both groups (5.3% of total peak area for suckling and 3.4% for weaned pigs).
270 Bacteria belonging to this genus, which show high cellulolytic and hemicellulolytic
271 enzyme activities, have been reported previously from the porcine gastrointestinal tract
272 (Varel and Yen, 1997). Although fibre was absent in the milk diet and at a very low
273 level in the dry feed, the presence this genus could indicate the ability of the pigs to
274 select a particular indigenous microbiota, allowing effective digestion of fibre with
275 growth and change in diet.

276 Potential compatible peaks with species from the *Enterobacteriaceae* family, such as
277 *E. coli*, were found in only four pigs, even though enterobacteria counts were
278 determined by qPCR in all animals. A bias in the amplification of particular sequences
279 caused by preferential annealing of particular primer pairs to certain templates and the
280 difficulty of amplifying bacteria in lower proportions in complex samples, such as
281 digesta, might explain the absence of compatible TRFs.

282 3.3. Intestinal morphology

283 Results of empty weight, pH in different gastrointestinal compartments and
284 histological measurements in caecal samples are shown in Table 3.

285 Weight of stomach and small intestine did not differ between groups; however, the
286 empty weight of the large intestine was significantly higher in the W than in the S
287 group. This increase in large intestine weight could correspond to the beginning of
288 fermentative activity in this compartment due to an increase in the amount of dietary
289 fermentable material arriving in the caecum. Moreover, pH values confirm this increase
290 in fermentation, with significant decreases in caecum and colon pH. The relationship
291 between the beginning of fermentative activity and the development of the large

292 intestine has been described previously and could be mediated by a trophic effect of an
293 increasing amount of fermentation products, such as SCFA (Frankel et al., 1994).

294 Regarding caecal histology, differences in crypt depth were not detected, but the
295 crypts were further apart and showed a significant increase in mitotic index in W
296 animals. Brunsgaard (1997) also found increases in the proliferative activity of crypts
297 in the hindgut of pigs at weaning, with a corresponding increase in crypt size. In the
298 current study, increased mitotic activity was observed without crypt depth variation,
299 suggesting both increased renewal and apical epithelial loss in the crypt.

300 Concerning the intestinal barrier, both cells producing the mucous layer and immune
301 cells were studied. A decrease in the number of goblet cells was found in the W group
302 compared to the S group. Mucus production and breakdown, as well as the number of
303 goblet cells, are regulated by both microbial and host-related factors (Deplancke and
304 Gaskins, 2001). However, little information is available on the effect of weaning and
305 diet on mucin secretion. Pestova et al. (2000) found increased concentrations of
306 intestinal mucins in ileal digesta after weaning, but no measurements were taken in the
307 hindgut.

308 Immune cells, another important component of the intestinal barrier, also showed
309 differences between groups. Both intraepithelial and lamina propria lymphocytes were
310 higher in weaned pigs, suggesting an increase in activity of the immune system.

311 An increase in intraepithelial lymphocytes, the first cell line of immune defence,
312 (Cheroutre 2004) is related to changes in intestinal microbiota rather than changes in
313 nutrition (Rothkötter et al., 1999). The changes in intestinal microbiota could also be
314 responsible for the variations observed in the caecum, but the effect of fresh nutrients
315 coming from the solid feed cannot be ruled out.

316

317 **4. Conclusions**

318 The caecum undergoes significant microbiological and morphological changes at
319 weaning to develop fermentative activity. Commercial weaning produced marked
320 changes in pig caecum microbiota, with an increase in the enterobacteria:lactobacilli
321 ratio. t-RFLP showed differences in bacterial profiles between groups. Though only
322 assumptions can be made, suckling pigs showed a higher diversity in lactic acid bacteria
323 species than the weaned group and showed peaks, compatible with *C. coccoides* and *C.*
324 *butyricum* species, that were absent in weaned pigs. These changes in microbiota are
325 accompanied by significant changes in caecal histology, with increased proliferative
326 activity in crypts and increased activity of the mucosal immune system.

327

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329

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334

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435 **Tables**

436 Table 1. Control diet composition (as fed basis).

Ingredient	g/kg
Corn	46.7
Full fat extruded soybeans	17.0
Lactose	15.0
Soybean meal	10.0
Potato protein	3.77
Whey powder	1.52
L-Lysine HCl	0.17
DL-Methionine	0.098
L-Threonine	0.009
Bicalcium phosphate	3.04
Salt	0.79
Calcium carbonate	0.44
Vit-Mineral premix	0.25
Sepiolite	1.26

437

438

439 Table 2. Theoretical restriction 5'-fragment length predicted for the major pig gut bacteria. Results were obtained from the TAP-RFLP tool
 440 of the Ribosomal Database II Project software.

Bacteria groups	Compatible bacteria ^a	<i>In silico</i> restriction ^b	Real restriction ^c	Frequency ^d	
				Suckling	Weaned
Lactic Acid Bacteria	<i>L. acidophilus, L. brevis, L. bif fermentum, rhamnosum, casei</i>	597, 598, 599	597, 599	1 (1.45)	2 (0.54)
	<i>L. delbruekii</i> sp. <i>delbruekii</i>	254	254	4 (1.96)	1(0.98)
	<i>L. delbruekii</i> sp. <i>lactis</i>	223	221-223	5 (4.59)	0
	<i>L. fructivorans</i>	68	68	3 (0.88)	3 (0.59)
	<i>Lactococcus lactis, Lactobacillus vaginalis</i>	61	62	6 (14.22)	5 (19.42)
	<i>Enterococcus</i> sp.	216, 218, 220	214	5 (2.18)	2(1.35)
Bacteroides and relatives	<i>Cytophaga</i>	92, 94, 96, 100			
	<i>Flexibacter</i>	82, 84, 90, 94, 96, 97	89-104	6 (4.06)	5 (5.17)
	<i>Bacteroides</i>	95, 96, 98, 101, 102, 104			
Fibrobacter	Fibrobacter succino genes	139, 141, 145	138, 140, 142-145	6 (1.80)	4 (2.70)
	Fibrobacter intestinales	148, 152	148-152	6 (3.46)	5 (0.69)
Clostridium and relatives	<i>Clostridium coccooides</i>	66	66	3 (1.67)	0
	<i>C. butyricum</i>	544	544	5 (0.86)	0
	<i>Eubacterium</i>	188, 190, 192, 194, 203			
	<i>Ruminococcus</i>	189			
	<i>Clostridium clostridiforme, C. symbiosum</i>	190	188-193	2 (1.19)	4(0.63)
	<i>Roseburia</i>	192			
	<i>Butyrivibrio</i>	193			
Proteobacteria	<i>Clostridium</i> spp.	229, 231, 233, 237	229-232, 237	6 (1.30)	5(1.36)
	<i>Escherichia</i> sp	371, 372, 373, 374	376-377	3 (0.51)	1(0.55)
	Other enteric bacteria (<i>Salmonella, Citrobacter, Klebsiella</i>)	(367, 370, 372), 373, 371			

441 ^a Major pig gut bacteria, based on the work of Leser et al., 2002, with a potential compatible fragment found in at least three animals. Other peaks with 58, 59, 69, 111-
 442 120, 123, 133, 162, 211, 278 and 279 did not correspond with any 16S rRNA sequences in the database from the Ribosomal Database Project 8.1 software.

443 ^b *In silico* restriction was performed using the tap-tRFLP tool from the Ribosomal Database project II.

444 ^c Terminal fragment length obtained after PCR product restriction with Hha I.

445 ^d Number of animals that showed the peak in each experimental group. The mean peak area (%) value in these animals with the peak is shown in brackets.

446 Table 3. Weights and pH of the stomach, small and large intestine, and caecal
 447 morphology of the early-weaned pigs receiving sow milk or dry feed¹.
 448

	Suckling	Weaned	<i>P</i> -value
Empty weight, g			
Stomach	37.4 ± 7.54	38.7 ± 4.88	0.737
Small intestine	330 ± 56.4	370 ± 98.1	0.393
Large intestine	120 ± 31.2	195 ± 98.1	0.027
pH			
Stomach	3.2 ± 0.84	4.4 ± 0.67	0.019
Ileum	7.0 ± 0.44	6.7 ± 0.37	0.371
Cecum	6.3 ± 0.13	5.8 ± 0.12	<0.0001
Colon	6.9 ± 0.29	6.03 ± 0.18	<0.0001
Caecum histological study			
Crypt depth, µm	373 ± 48.6	359 ± 30.6	0.566
Crypt density ²	12.4 ± 0.36	10.5 ± 0.25	<0.001
Mitoses / 100 cells	1.0 ± 0.47	1.8 ± 0.47	0.021
Goblet cells / 100 cells	25.5 ± 3.48	19.4 ± 3.30	0.011
Intraepithelial lymphocytes / 100 cells	1.4 ± 0.67	2.6 ± 0.91	0.024
Lymphocyte density ³	1.7 ± 0.45	2.3 ± 0.40	0.045
Total cell density ³	8.7 ± 0.90	8.9 ± 0.47	0.665
Lymphocyte / Total cells	0.2 ± 0.04	0.3 ± 0.07	0.109
Mucosal thickness, µm	470 ± 74.8	528 ± 70.8	0.243
Muscular layer thickness, µm	370 ± 49.5	328 ± 37.0	0.111
Total intestinal wall thickness, µm	848 ± 98.1	856 ± 95.1	0.899

449 ¹ Values are means, n=6.

450 ² Number of crypts appearing over a 1 mm distance across the basal part of the mucosa.

451 ³ Number of lymphocytes like cells or total cells per 1000 µm² area in the lamina
 452 propria.
 453

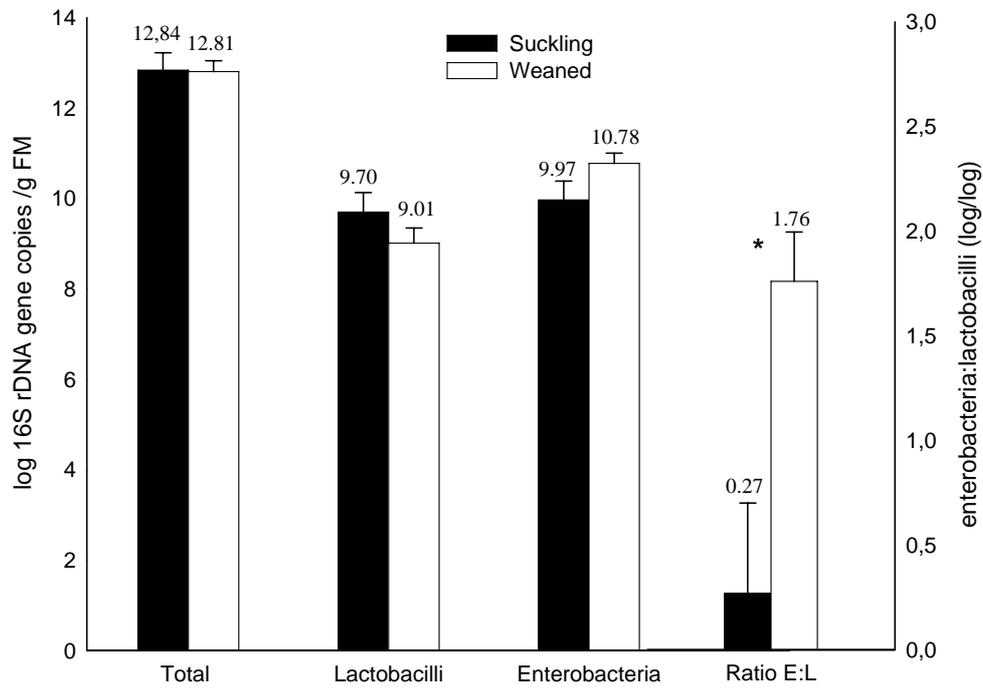
454 **Figure captions**

455

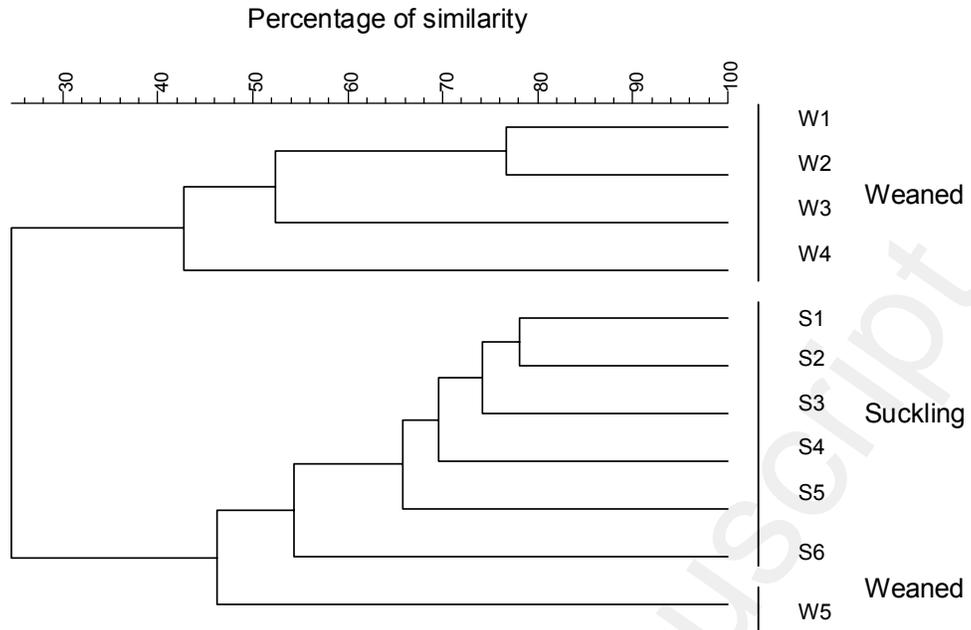
456 **Figure 1.** Bacterial loads in caecum measured by quantitative PCR (log 16S rRNA gene
457 copies/g FM) in early-weaned pigs receiving sow milk or dry feed

458

459 **Figure 2.** Dendogram illustrating the correlation between experimental diets in t-RFLP
460 banding patterns. The dendogram represents results from 11 piglets sacrificed on day
461 28. There was no digesta content in one of the weaned piglet's caecum. The dendogram
462 distances are in percentage of similarity



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