



Review Article

Research progress on anti-stress nutrition strategies in swine

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ARTICLE INFO

Article history:

Received 21 November 2022

Received in revised form

4 March 2023

Accepted 30 March 2023

Available online 6 April 2023

Keywords:

Nutritional strategy

Anti-stress

Swine

Antibiotic

ABSTRACT

In swine production, stress is a common encounter that leads to serious bacterial infection and adverse effects on growth performance. Though antibiotics have been frequently used to control pathogen spread, sustained negative impacts from antibiotics have been found to affect intestinal integrity and the immune system. Multiple nutritional strategies have shown potential to counteract stress and replace antibiotics, including functional amino acids, low protein diet, plant extracts, organic acids, prebiotics, probiotics, minerals and vitamins. These additives relieve the stress response in swine via different mechanisms and signal transduction pathways. Based on the overview of signaling pathways and stress models, this review highlights the potential of nutritional strategies in swine for preventing or treating stress-related health problems. For wider application in the pig industry, the dose ranges measured require for further validation in different physiological contexts and formulations. In the future, microfluid devices and novel stress models are expected to enhance the efficiency of screening for new anti-stress candidates.

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1. Introduction

In farms, pigs are subjected to a variety of stimuli, from diseases and vaccination (Martinez-Miro et al., 2016), weaning (Pluske et al., 1997), transportation (Tarrant, 1989; Peeters et al., 2004), pregnancy and parturition (Jain, 2016; Hao et al., 2021), that trigger a strong stress response and inflammatory reaction in the body (Hao et al., 2021). Poor welfare conditions also lead to psychological and physical distress in farms, where pigs experience sudden temperature changes (Gonzalez-Rivas et al., 2020; Yang et al., 2021c), uncomfortable housing management (Ramirez et al., 2022), aggressive manual handling (Health et al., 2022) and overcrowded

systems (Wolter et al., 2003; Kemp et al., 2012). After stimulation, an organism produces a series of biomarkers, such as reactive oxygen species (ROS) (Wang et al., 2017), malondialdehyde (MDA) (Rio et al., 2005), cortisol, and immunoglobulins (Ig) (Martinez-Miro et al., 2016). Under these conditions, the immune function and intestinal permeability of piglets are likely to be disrupted (Modesto et al., 2009), causing diarrhea or growth retardation (Gaggia et al., 2010; Upadhaya et al., 2021). Transportation stress is an important factor for meat quality through accelerating muscle glycogenolysis and decreasing water holding capacity (Briskey, 1964; Peeters et al., 2006; Gonzalez-Rivas et al., 2020). Heat-stressed sows, particularly during gestation, present with hyperpnea, constipation, severe metabolic burden and depressed litter size (Lucy et al., 2017) (Fig. 1).

1.1. Stress induction models in pigs

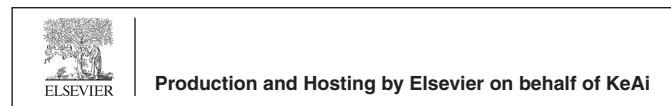
In the past, a variety of models have already been established to study stress responses, including the lipopolysaccharide (LPS) model, hydrogen peroxide (H₂O₂) model, diquat model and mycotoxin model (Hao et al., 2021). LPS, a primary constituent of the outer surface membrane of Gram-negative bacteria (Meissner et al., 2013), can induce inflammatory responses, oxidative stress

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Peer review under responsibility of Chinese Association of Animal Science and Veterinary Medicine.



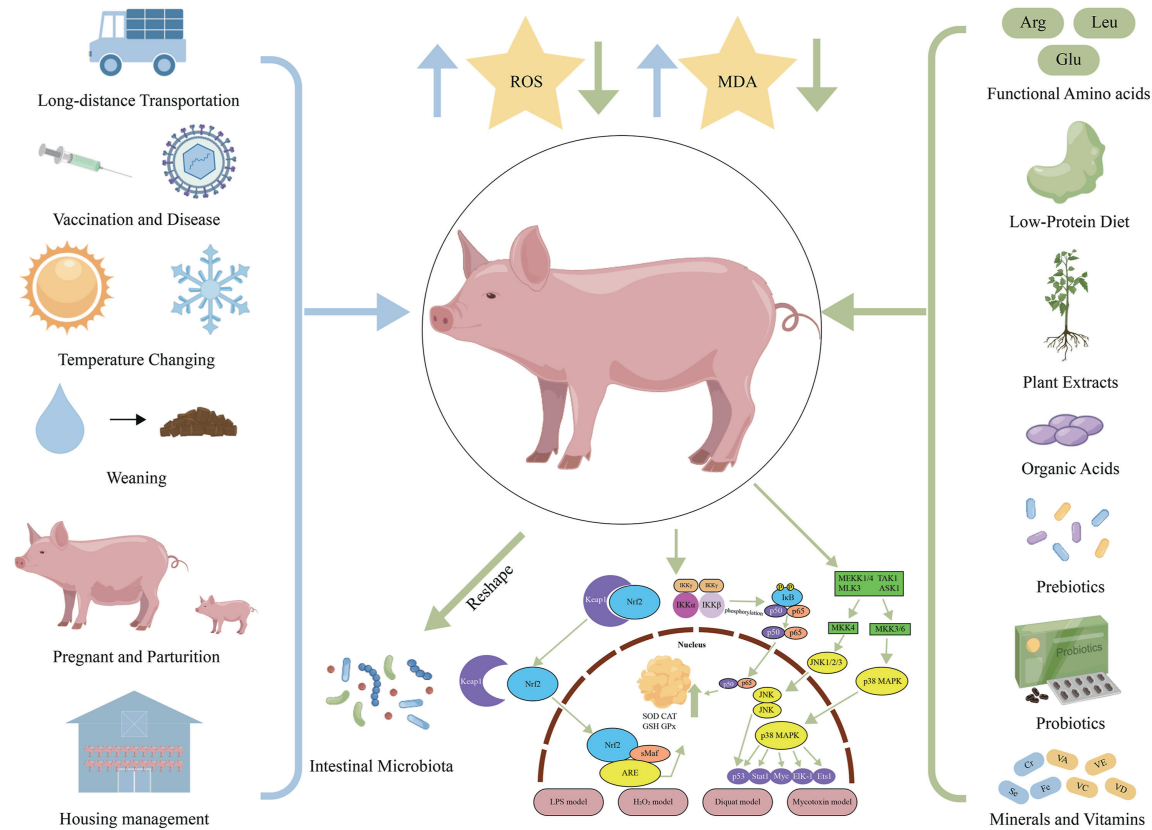


Fig. 1. Stress factors and nutritional strategies in pig production. Common stress factors, such as long-distance transportation, vaccination and disease, temperature changes, weaning, pregnancy, parturition and housing management could lead to increases in ROS and MDA in swine. A variety of models have already been established to study stress responses, including the LPS model, H₂O₂ model, diquat model and mycotoxins model. The nutritional strategies refer to functional amino acids, low protein diets, plant extracts, organic acids, prebiotics, probiotics, minerals and vitamins, which reshape the microbiome, activate the Keap1/Nrf2, NF- κ B and MAPK pathways and enhance the activity of SOD, CAT, GSH and GPx. ARE = antioxidant response element; ASK1 = apoptosis signal-regulating kinase 1; CAT = catalase; EIK = ETS-like transcription factor; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; GSH = glutathione; IKK = I κ B kinases; JNK = c-Jun N-terminal kinases; Keap1/Nrf2 = Kelch-like epichlorohydrin-associated protein 1/nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; MAPK = mitogen-activated protein kinase; MDA = malondialdehyde; MEKK = mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase kinase; MKK = mitogen-activated protein kinase kinase; MLK = mixed lineage kinase; LPS = lipopolysaccharide; ROS = reactive oxygen species; sMaf = small Maf proteins; Stat1 = signal transducer and activator of transcription 1; SOD = superoxide dismutase; TAK1 = transforming growth factor- β activated kinase 1; VA = vitamin A; VC = vitamin C; VD = vitamin D; VE = vitamin E.

and tissue damage in swine (Xia et al., 2018). In LPS-induced piglets, plasma pro-inflammatory cytokines, such as interleukin-6 and interleukin-1 β , were increased (Jia et al., 2015). High STEAP4 expression in piglets was found to be involved in cellular regulation and immunological stress (Xia et al., 2018). In addition, H₂O₂ could activate nuclear factor kappa B (NF- κ B) and nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2 (Nrf2) in swine (Yin et al., 2015a, 2017). In a porcine ex vivo retina culture model, Hurst et al. (2017) utilized H₂O₂ at 300 μ M to induce oxidative stress. In vivo, Yin et al. (2017) found that the intragastric administration of 5% H₂O₂ modulated the intestinal toll-like receptor (TLR) system and apoptosis to induce oxidative stress. As a common commercial herbicide, diquat also induces oxidative stress at a certain concentration in vivo and in vitro (Wang et al., 2019a; Hao et al., 2021). Through an intraperitoneal injection of diquat at 10 mg/kg in piglets, mitochondrial disorders and destruction of the intestinal barrier were induced by excessive ROS (Cao et al., 2018). Moreover, diquat-induced oxidative stress also leads to the differential expression of long noncoding RNAs and mRNAs in livers of piglets (Wang et al., 2019a). In intestinal porcine epithelial cell lines J2 (IPEC-J2), diquat at 40 μ g/mL was adopted to induce oxidative stress by activating the NF- κ B signaling pathway (Bao et al., 2021; Cai et al., 2022). In naturally contaminated diets, each additional 1 mg/kg deoxynivalenol leads to growth depression of approximately 8% in pigs (Bell et al., 2002).

1.2. Signaling pathways and gene expression during stress

For signaling pathways, signaling molecules in the Kelch-like epichlorohydrin-associated protein 1 (Keap1)/Nrf2 signaling pathway (Costilla et al., 2019; Zhou et al., 2020b), NF- κ B (Kianian et al., 2022), mitogen-activated protein kinase (MAPK) (Lee et al., 2020), AMP-activated protein kinase (AMPK) (Yang et al., 2018a, 2018b) and PTEN/phosphatidylinositol 3 kinase (PI3K)/protein kinase B (AKT) (Chen et al., 2022a; Sun et al., 2022) pathways have been verified to modulate the expression of relevant redox genes to alleviate or activate stress progression in swine (Hao et al., 2021). Nrf2 binds to the antioxidant response element to upregulate the expression of genes encoding phase II detoxification or antioxidant enzymes (Itoh et al., 1997; Motohashi et al., 2004; Cho et al., 2006; Hyeon et al., 2013). Meanwhile, Keap1 can prevent ubiquitination degradation of Nrf2 (Yu and Xiao, 2021). The activation of the p38 MAPK signaling pathway can inhibit apoptosis during stress (Diamond-Stanic et al., 2011; Shin et al., 2011; Liu et al., 2012; Supanji et al., 2013). NF- κ B is a class of transcription factors (Hayden et al., 2008; Vallabhapurapu et al., 2009) which increase the expression of antioxidant proteins and regulate the ROS level (Morgan et al., 2011). In inflammatory reactions, the NF- κ B and MAPK signaling pathways are both activated (Lugrin et al., 2014). As a master regulator of inflammation (Cai et al., 2022), NF- κ B is regulated by I κ B kinase via I κ B phosphorylation (Lawrence, 2009;

Chen et al., 2018c). Stress further activates c-Jun N-terminal kinases (JNK), leading to phosphorylation of p38 transcription, and initiation of inflammatory cytokines in the nucleus (Raingeaud et al., 1996; Pearson et al., 2001; Sabio et al., 2014) (Fig. 1).

1.3. Stress and intestinal barrier function

The intestine is a main organ of nutrition digestion and absorption (Isaacson et al., 2012). Through a physical barrier, chemical barrier and immune barrier, the intestinal mucus layer serves as a defense line against the invasion of bacteria, endotoxins and antigens in response to stress (Tang et al., 2016; Li et al., 2018). Structurally, as weaning stress and oxidative stress weaken the multiple mucins and tight junction proteins, the morphology of the small intestine changes obviously, with decreased villus height and increased crypt depth (Cao et al., 2022). Functionally, bacterial endotoxins and antigen proteins tend to break through a compromised mucosal barrier by pattern recognition receptors, eliciting a release of pro-inflammatory cytokines including interleukin-1 β , tumor necrosis factor- α (TNF- α), and IFN- γ (Lee et al., 2017; Tang et al., 2022). Enteric tract infections decrease the activity of Na⁺-K⁺-ATPase and Ca²⁺-Mg²⁺-ATPase, which are ion pumps that maintain ion balance, in pig small intestinal epithelial cells (Wang et al., 2019d).

The use of antibiotics is a common treatment for bacterial infection. However, studies have shown that antibiotics result in negative effects on the development of the immune system and a sustained state of increased gut permeability in newborn mammals (Fouhse et al., 2019; Wang et al., 2020b; Westrom et al., 2020). The long-term or improper use of antibiotics in swine permanently contributes to dysbiosis of the gut microbiome, which is reflected in the increase of antibiotic-resistant microbes and the loss of microbiome diversity (Ubeda et al., 2010; Looft et al., 2012; Perez-Cobas et al., 2013). As antibiotic regulations arise, environmentally friendly alternatives are urgently needed in the breeding industry (Landers et al., 2012).

Nutritional interventions are effective strategies to limit or alleviate the degree of health problems and unnecessary growth losses, especially for oxidative stress and pathogenic infection (Lauridsen, 2019). In recent decades, functional amino acids, low protein diet, plant extracts, organic acids, prebiotics, probiotics, minerals and vitamins have received increasing attention. These measures show potential to reshape the composition of the gut microbiota, improve intestinal barrier function and nutrient absorption as alternatives to antibiotics. In this review, classic stress models in pigs and the potential action mechanisms of aforementioned substances are clarified and discussed.

2. Nutritional strategies during stress

2.1. Functional amino acids

Traditionally, amino acids have been classified as essential amino acids and nonessential amino acids, according to the net synthesis of protein in the whole body (Baker, 2009; Wu, 2009). Besides the role as building blocks of proteins, some amino acids play functional roles in improving survival, growth, development, immunity, lactation and reproduction of organisms via key metabolic pathways (Wu, 2010, 2013). Common functional amino acids consist of arginine, glutamate, leucine, tryptophan, glutamine, proline, cysteine, methionine, threonine, aspartic acid, asparagine and glycine (Wu, 2009) (Table 1).

Dietary amino acid levels are important for the quality of embryos in sows in the first trimester (Bell et al., 2002; Duan et al., 2019b). Arginine was reported to induce the production of nitric

oxide and blood perfusion. The process improves uterine capacity and foetal growth in late pregnancy (Novak et al., 2012; Langendijk, 2021). Arginine is required in all phases of pig development, from weaning, finishing, gestating, to lactation (Mateo et al., 2008; Tan et al., 2009; Wu et al., 2015, 2018). Lack of arginine could lead to hyperammonemia and even death in piglets (Brunton et al., 1999). Supplementation with 1.5% arginine in the sow diet in the late gestational period increased blood arginine and ornithine concentrations of sows, and the survival of newborn piglets (Hong et al., 2020). In weaning piglets exposed to heat stress, dietary supplementation with 0.4% arginine significantly alleviated the losses of average daily gain and feed efficiency (Yun et al., 2020). The arginine family amino acids are involved in antioxidant capacity, including arginine, glutamate, glutamine, and proline (Wu et al., 2007; Wu, 2014). Pro-oxidants such as diquat induced oxidative damage, which was attenuated through supplementation of 1.6% L-arginine in diets of weaned piglets by increased activity of glutathione peroxidase (GPx) and superoxide dismutase (SOD) in plasma (Zheng et al., 2013). For boars under high ambient temperature, a basal diet supplemented with 0.8% or 1.0% L-arginine (wt:wt) improved the fertility and semen antioxidant capacity (Chen et al., 2018b). In growing pigs, dietary supplementation with arginine and lysine significantly inhibited the level of plasma cortisol during transportation stress (Srinongkote et al., 2003).

Glutamate is abundant in sow milk during lactation (Wu et al., 2011), but glutamate concentration is relatively lower in plasma in weaning piglets compared with other amino acids (Flynn et al., 2000). In post-weaning piglets, supplementation with 4% monosodium glutamate increased glutamate concentration in plasma, daily weight gain and feed efficiency (Rezaei et al., 2013). As a major fuel for intestinal mucosa (Burrin et al., 2009), glutamate improves intestinal barrier homeostasis (Rezaei et al., 2013), as well as growth performance and survival of weaning piglets (Hou et al., 2018). Glutamate is a precursor of glutathione (GSH), protecting organs from oxidative stress (Ren et al., 2014b; Duan et al., 2016). Lack of glutamate inhibits cell proliferation by the mechanistic target of rapamycin-ribosomal S6 kinase (mTOR/S6K1) pathway, which might lead to disturbance of intestinal epithelial renewal in neonatal pigs (Li et al., 2016a). For weaned pigs challenged with LPS, supplementation of 2% glutamate decreased mast cell number and increased intestinal intraepithelial lymphocyte number, attenuating intestinal histology (Guo et al., 2022). After challenge with H₂O₂, supplementation with 2% glutamate in the diet preserved the spermatogonium integrity and relieved testicular swelling for boars (Tang et al., 2020).

Among branched chain amino acids, leucine is regarded as the most important regulator of muscle protein synthesis (Rieu et al., 2006), which is a nutrient signaling molecule in the mTOR pathway (Nie et al., 2018). Dietary supplementation with 0.35% L-leucine in intrauterine growth-restricted (IUGR) piglets decreased the cortisol level in serum and stimulated hepatic protein anabolism via activating mTOR phosphorylation (Zhang et al., 2022a). After infection with porcine rotavirus, supplementation with 1% leucine promoted mucin production and goblet cell numbers in jejunal mucosa, and ameliorated diarrhea in weaned piglets (Mao et al., 2015). In growing pigs constantly exposed to heat stress, dietary supplementation with 0.5% leucine significantly increased average daily gain and reduced backfat thickness (Yin et al., 2022).

2.2. Low protein diet

In invertebrate models, rodents and non-human primates, reducing dietary crude protein (CP) extensively regulates gut microbiota composition and alleviates stress by inactivating nutrient-signaling pathways, including the target-of-rapamycin

Table 1
Summary of studies about the application of functional amino acids in stress-resistance of swine.

Compound	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
Arg	Sows	33–36 g/d	Oxidative stress	↑: The concentrations of Arg and ornithine (sow blood), the alive litter weight at birth and survival (newborn piglets)	Hong et al. (2020)
Arg	Weaning piglets	0.4%	Heat stress	↑: Average daily gain, feed efficiency	Yun et al. (2020)
Arg	Boars	0.8% or 1.0%	Heat stress	↑: Sperm motility, total sperm number, GSH, the activity of GPx and CAT (seminal plasma) ↓: MDA (sperm)	Chen et al. (2018b)
Arg	Weaned piglets	1.6%	Oxidative stress	↑: The activity of GPx and SOD (plasma) ↓: IL-6 and TNF- α mRNA (liver)	Zheng et al. (2013)
Arg, Lys	Finishing pigs	2%	Transportation stress	↑: Urea production (plasma) ↓: Cortisol (plasma)	Srinongkote et al. (2003)
Glu, Asp	Weaned piglets	2% and 1%, respectively	Oxidative stress	↓: MDA (serum)	Duan et al. (2016)
Glu	Piglets	2%	Oxidative stress	↑: body weight, feed intake, SOD (serum) ↓: MDA (serum)	Yin et al. (2015b)
Glu	Boars	2%	Oxidative stress	↑: the mRNA expression of CAT, Cu/Zn-SOD and GPx4 (testis & epididymis), spermatogonium integrity, sperm count, SOD (testis) ↓: MDA (testis)	Tang et al. (2020)
Glu	Weaned piglets	2%	Oxidative stress	↑: Intestinal intraepithelial lymphocyte number, GSH (jejunum) ↓: Mast cell number, MDA (jejunum), cortisol (serum)	Guo et al. (2022)
Monosodium glutamate	Post-weaning pigs	4%	Weaning stress	↑: Daily weight gain, feed efficiency, Glu concentration (plasma) ↓: Diarrhea incidence	Rezaei et al. (2013)
Leu	Intrauterine growth-restricted piglets	0.35%	Oxidative stress	↑: Alkaline phosphatase activity (serum), protein anabolism (hepatic) ↓: Cortisol (serum)	Zhang et al. (2022a)
Leu	Weaned piglets	1%	Immune stress	↑: Mucin production, goblet cell number (jejunal mucosa) ↓: Diarrhea	Mao et al. (2015)
Leu	Growing pigs	0.5%	Heat stress	↑: Average daily gain, the ratio of feed intake to body weight gain ↓: Backfat thickness	Yin et al. (2022)
Asp	Weanling piglets	1%	Immune stress	↑: ATP, ADP, TAN, AEC, citrate synthase activity, isocitrate dehydrogenase, α -oxoglutarate dehydrogenase complex (jejunum & ileum) ↓: AMP/ATP ratio, AMPK α 1 mRNA, SIRT1 mRNA, PGC-1 α mRNA (jejunum), pAMPK α /tAMPK α ratio (ileum)	Pi et al. (2014)
Met	Nursery pigs	0.145%	Oxidative stress	↑: GSH (duodenum), TAC (duodenum mucosa & liver) ↓: MDA (plasma)	Shen et al. (2014)
Met	Intrauterine growth-restricted piglets	5.2 g/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: Villus height, GSH, GSH/GSSG ratio, OCLN protein expression (jejunum) ↓: MDA, protein carbonyl, apoptosis index (jejunum)	Su et al. (2018)

AEC = adenylate energy charge; AMPK = AMP-activated protein kinase; CAT = catalase; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; GSH = glutathione; GSSG = oxidized glutathione; IL = interleukin; MDA = malondialdehyde; OCLN = occludin; pAMPK α = phosphorylated AMPK α ; PGC-1 α = peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- γ co-activator-1 α ; SIRT = silent information regulator; SOD = superoxide dismutase; TAC = total antioxidant capacity; tAMPK α = total AMPK α ; TAN = total adenine nucleotide; TNF = tumor necrosis factor.

pathway, insulin-like growth factor-1, and mTOR/S6K1 pathway (Mirzaei et al., 2016; Fan et al., 2017). In antibiotic-free diets, a low protein diet is expected to improve pig health and breeding environment, under the premise that the requirements for essential amino acids and total nitrogen, according to the standard recommended by the NRC, are met (Gloaguen et al., 2014; Wessels et al., 2016). It was reported that each 1% reduction in dietary CP decreased the percentage of dietary protein ingredients by 3% (Wang et al., 2018b) (Table 2).

Weaning stress in piglets manifests as bacterial infection, intestinal impairment and frequent diarrhea (Pluske et al., 2002; Campbell et al., 2013; Wen et al., 2018). Foods with high protein were reported to reduce pepsin activity and acid hydrolysis that hinders food breakdown and gastric emptying (Mennah-Govela et al., 2020). Diarrhea in piglets fed high protein diets is related to undigested protein in the intestine (Gao et al., 2022). With excessive protein fermentation, colonic microbes produce toxic metabolites, such as ammonia, sulfides and indoles (Windey et al., 2012; Rist et al., 2013). Without additional antibiotics, reducing dietary CP level from 24.3% to 17.3%, could significantly decrease the abundance of *Escherichia coli* (*E. coli*) in feces in weaned piglets

(Heo et al., 2008). Reducing the dietary CP level of weaned piglets to 17% and adding 0.13% isoleucine were found to markedly decrease diarrhea rate, as well as nitrogen excretion (Lordelo et al., 2008). After 2 weeks of a low protein diet, the levels of ammonia-N, histamine and putrescine were decreased in colonic digesta (Wen et al., 2018).

Environmentally-induced hyperthermia compromises nutrient intake in growing pigs (Pearce et al., 2010). Circulating stress hormones are elevated in response to environmental heat, including epinephrine, glucagon, and cortisol (Rhoads et al., 2013). In the gastrointestinal tract, increased vasoconstriction redistributes blood to the periphery and relieves heat stress (Hales et al., 1979; Lambert, 2009). However, the redirection of blood flow under heat stress could decrease the supply of oxygen and nutrients to the small intestine, resulting in high mortality and morbidity (Liu et al., 2009; Baumgard et al., 2013; Ross et al., 2015). One strategy to alleviate heat stress is to decrease dietary protein level, which mildly induces defense mechanisms (Quiniou et al., 2000; Sinclair, 2005). For growing pigs under heat stress, Morales et al. reduced dietary CP levels to 13.5% and supplemented with lysine, threonine, methionine, tryptophan, histidine, isoleucine, leucine,

Table 2
Summary of studies about the application of a low protein diet in stress-resistance of swine.

Crude protein	Pig	Breed	Stress type	Effect	Reference
17.25%	Weaned piglets	Large × White × Landrace	Oxidative stress	↑: The expression of mitochondrial succinate dehydrogenase complex subunit A, phosphoglycerate kinase 1, functional epoxide hydrolase and alternative pig liver esterase (jejunum) ↓: HSP60 (jejunum)	Ren et al. (2014a)
18%	Weaned piglets	Yorkshire × Landrace	Oxidative stress	↑: <i>Parabacteroides</i> , <i>Bacteroides</i> (colon), mixed neutral-acidic mucins, the OCLN mRNA expression (colon) ↓: <i>Desulfovibrio</i> , <i>Clostridium</i> , <i>Ruminococcus</i> (colon)	Li et al. (2019b)
13.5%	Growing pigs	Landrace × Hampshire × Duroc	Heat stress	↑: Absorption capacity (small intestine), villi height: crypt depth ratio (duodenum & jejunum) ↓: Amino acids transporter B ⁺ 0 (ileum)	Morales et al. (2020)
14%	Sows	Yorkshire × Landrace	Heat stress	↓: Body temperature, respiration rate	Zhang et al. (2020a)
17.3%	Weaned piglets	Large White × Landrace	Weaning stress	↓: Diarrhea rate, <i>E. coli</i> (feces)	Heo et al. (2008)
17%	Weaned piglets	Landrace × Duroc	Weaning stress	↓: Nitrogen intake, nitrogen excretion	Lordelo et al. (2008)
17%	Weaned piglets	Duroc × Landrace × Large White	Weaning stress	↓: Diarrhea rate, the levels of ammonia nitrogen, histamine and putrescine (colonic digesta)	Wen et al. (2018)
12%	Sows	Purebred Huzhu bamei pigs	Weaning stress	↑: litter sizes (sows), Fusobacteria, Actinobacteria (piglet jejunum) ↓: Firmicutes (piglet jejunum), diarrhea rate (piglets)	Jin et al. (2019)

HSP = heat shock protein; OCLN = occludin.

phenylalanine, and valine, which increased the absorption capacity of the small intestine and mitigated intestinal damage (Morales et al., 2020). When dietary CP levels of sows were decreased from 19.3% to 14%, with a balanced diet that achieved a near ideal amino acid profile throughout lactation, this relieved high body temperatures experienced by sows under heat stress (Zhang et al., 2020a).

2.3. Plant extracts

Plant extracts are complex mixtures purified from natural compounds containing essential oils, polyphenols, flavonoids, polysaccharides, and lectin (Armendariz-Barragan et al., 2016; Liu et al., 2018b). Thymol, carvacrol, and eugenol are able to down-regulate the gene expression of bacterial virulence factors, quorum sensing, and biofilm formation, which demonstrates their ability to control enterotoxigenic *E. coli* (ETEC) infection (Bonetti et al., 2020). Paeoniflorin and essential oil was found to disrupt quorum sensing of bacteria, reducing virulence of *Streptococcus suis* (Li et al., 2021a) and ETEC (Choi et al., 2020). With antioxidant (Clark, 1996; Liu et al., 2018b), antiviral (Surya et al., 2014), antifungal (Chakraborty et al., 2014) and antiparasitic (Lemuh et al., 2015) properties, plant extracts alleviate the stress response in swine through various mechanisms (Hao et al., 2021), including via the PI3K/AKT/mTOR (Zhang et al., 2019a; Radwan et al., 2020), Keap1-Nrf2 (Meng et al., 2018) and NF-κB pathways (Zou et al., 2016) (Table 3).

When a sow is pregnant or parturient, free radicals are often generated in the placenta and newborn piglet due to changes in the environment (Myatt et al., 2004; Jain, 2016). In gestating gilts, supplementing silymarin at 8 g/d elevated prolactin concentration, inducing an increase in SOD activity, protecting sows against oxidative stress (Farmer et al., 2016). Dietary curcumin supplementation at 400 mg/kg increased antioxidant capacity in IUGR piglets through upregulating Nrf2 and Hmox1 levels in livers (Niu et al., 2019).

Weaning stress is often accompanied by intestinal, microbial and immunological changes, causing diarrhea and other diseases (Fairbrother et al., 2005; Chen et al., 2015). In weaning piglets, dietary supplementation with *Eucommia ulmoides* leaf extract was shown to improve growth performance and jejunal morphology with a concurrent reduction in diarrhea rate (Peng et al., 2019). Grape seed proanthocyanidins at 250 mg/kg alleviated intestinal oxidative stress and diarrhea by decreasing intestinal permeability

and improving intestinal morphology (Han et al., 2016). Paper mulberry leaf extract at 150 or 300 g/t, significantly increased the level of GPx, catalase (CAT), SOD and Ig, and reduced the diarrhea rate, improving antioxidant capacity and immune function (Chen et al., 2020a).

During transportation, pigs suffer the inevitable physical and psychological challenges from noise, motion, fasting, dehydration, crowding and temperature variation (Tarrant, 1989; Peeters et al., 2004). Several plant extracts have shown ability to alleviate the negative effects of transportation stress (Zou et al., 2016). Before transportation, supplementation of quercetin at 25 mg/kg in finishing pig diets reduced intestinal injury via decreasing intestinal ROS level and inactivating the ERK1/2, JNK, AKT and NF-κB signaling pathways (Zou et al., 2016). Oregano essential oil is an aromatic plant extract (Vokou et al., 1993) with carvacrol and thymol (Sivropoulou et al., 1996). To mitigate transportation stress, supplementing oregano essential oil at 25 mg/kg in finishing pigs reduced MDA level and increased SOD activity in liver (Zhang et al., 2015).

In swine production, environmental temperature shock could cause heat stress or cold stress (Hao et al., 2021; Yang et al., 2021c). Currently, there are few studies on the use of plant extracts to alleviate cold stress in swine, which are mostly in poultry (Hu et al., 2021). When muscle cells are exposed to heat stress, gintonin-enriched fraction, a non-saponin ingredient in ginseng, could inhibit the inflammatory response through the NLRP3 inflammasome and LPA receptor (Chei et al., 2020). As an organic osmolyte, betaine is known to counteract harmful effects of heat stress by reducing basal metabolic rate and the activity of membrane-bound ATPases (Moeckel et al., 2002; Shadmehr et al., 2018; Li et al., 2019a). Supplementation of 1 g/kg betaine in the diet of female grower pigs prevented high rectal temperatures and the increase in colon permeability caused by heat stress (Le et al., 2020).

2.4. Organic acids

Young weaned piglets have a low appetite and insufficient production of digestive enzymes (Suiryanrayna et al., 2015). Organic acids confer good digestive capacity and high feed conversion rate allowing piglets to transition from milk to solid feed by lowering pH value (Canibe et al., 2003, 2007). Organic acids are characterized by reducing pathogen colonization and increasing

Table 3

Summary of studies about the application of plant extracts in stress-resistance of swine.

Plant extracts	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
Silymarin	Gestating gilts	4 g/d	Oxidative stress	↑: Prolactin circulating concentrations (liver & plasma) ↓: Protein carbonyls (liver)	Farmer et al. (2016)
Dioscin	Growing pigs	80 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: Sirt1 protein, Nrf2 protein, LVEF, SOD, CAT, GSH (serum) ↓: CK, CK-MB, LDH, cTnT (serum), p-p38 MAPK protein expression, MDA, TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-18 (serum)	Yang et al. (2018a)
Resveratrol	Weaned piglets	100 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: Mitochondrial DNA, T-AOC (jejunum) ↓: ROS, H ₂ O ₂ , MDA (jejunum)	Cao et al. (2019)
Curcumin	Intrauterine growth retardation neonatal piglets	400 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: Body-weight gain, feed intake, CAT, T-AOC (serum), Nrf2, Hmox1 (liver) ↓: MDA, AST, ALT (serum)	Niu et al. (2019)
Icariin	Newborn piglets	1 g/kg	Immune stress	↑: average daily gain, ZO-1, OCLN (jejunum), SOD, GPx, CAT, T-AOC (jejunum) ↓: Diarrhea rate, IL-1 β , IL-6, IL-8, TNF- α (jejunum), ROS, RNS, MDA, H ₂ O ₂ , p38 MAPK (jejunum)	Xiong et al. (2020)
Oregano essential oil	Finishing pigs	25 mg/kg	Transportation stress	↑: ROS, MDA, GPx, SOD (serum), HSP27, HSP90 (liver) ↓: Norepinephrine concentrations, cortisol (serum)	Zhang et al. (2015)
Quercetin	Finishing pigs	25 mg/kg	Transportation stress	↑: OCLN, ZO-1 mRNA expression, villi height (jejunum) ↓: ROS, MDA, endotoxin, TNF- α , IL-1 β , IL-6, MCP-1 (jejunum), NF- κ B-p65 protein, phosphorylated Akt protein (jejunum)	Zou et al. (2016)
Betaine	Growing pigs	1 g/kg	Heat stress	↑: IL-1 β , total antioxidant capacity (plasma)	Le et al. (2020)
Betaine	Growing-finishing pigs	0.1%	Heat stress	↓: Epinephrine (serum)	Lan et al. (2018)
Capsicum oleoresin	Gilts and barrows	0.1 g/kg	Heat stress	↑: Basophil count ↓: Circulating glucose concentrations	Biggs et al. (2020)
Grape seed proanthocyanidins	Weaned piglets	250 mg/kg	Weaning stress	↑: Villus height: crypt depth, villus height, propionic acid, butyric acid, Clostridiaceae (ileum & colon) ↓: Diarrhea incidence, Lactobacillaceae (ileum & colon)	Han et al. (2016)
<i>Eucommia ulmoides</i> leaf extract	Weanling piglets	0.5%	Weaning stress	↑: Firmicutes, acetate, villus height: crypt depth, claudin-3 mRNA (jejunum) ↓: Diarrhea rate, crypt depth, Bacteroidetes (colon)	Peng et al. (2019)

Akt = protein kinase B; ALT = alanine aminotransferase; AST = aspartate aminotransferase; CAT = catalase; CK = creatine kinase; cTnT = cardiac troponin T; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; GSH = glutathione; H₂O₂ = hydrogen peroxide; HO1 = heme oxygenase 1; HSP = heat shock protein; IL = interleukin; Keap1 = Kelch-like epichlorohydrin-associated protein 1; LDH = lactate dehydrogenase; LVEF = left ventricular ejection fraction; MAPK = mitogen-activated protein kinase; MCP = monocyte chemotactic protein; MDA = malondialdehyde; NF- κ B-p65 = nuclear factor kappa B-p65; Nrf2 = nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; OCLN = occludin; RNS = reactive nitrogen species; ROS = reactive oxygen species; Sirt1 = sirtuin1; SOD = superoxide dismutase; T-AOC = total antioxidant capacity; TNF = tumor necrosis factor; ZO-1 = zonula occludens-1.

appetite in pigs, and have been safely added to animal feed as growth promoters for over five decades (Partanen et al., 1999; Ferronato et al., 2020). In particular, some organic acids function as energy sources as they are intermediary products in the tricarboxylic acid cycle (Giesting et al., 1985) (Table 4).

2.4.1. Short chain fatty acids

Short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) are a subset of saturated fatty acids with six or less carbon molecules (Tan et al., 2014). Acetate, propionate and butyrate play a beneficial role in inflammation (Ren et al., 2019), gut integrity (Diao et al., 2019), and antioxidant capacity (Rosignoli et al., 2001). The concentration of SCFAs is the highest in the proximal colon, where they are rapidly absorbed into colonocytes or through the portal vein into the liver or systemic circulation. The absorbed SCFAs participate in de novo synthesis of lipid and glucose through fatty acid oxidation, which can regulate energy homeostasis (Wolever et al., 1989). In newborn piglets, oral administration of 500 mg/day butyrate significantly enhanced post-weaning body weight by 13% (Lu et al., 2012). After ETEC challenge, a mixture of formic acid and propionic acid at 1% in weaning piglets was regarded as a valid alternative to antibiotics, which reduced inflammatory response and diarrhea incidence (Ren et al., 2019). Gastric infusion of high dose SCFAs increased the villus height and SOD activity in the jejunum of weaning piglets (Diao et al., 2019). Interestingly, butyrate also serves as a signaling molecule to mediate intestinal barrier function and LPS-induced inflammation via activating GPR41, GPR43 and GPR109a (He et al., 2020; Zhang et al., 2021). In IPEC induced by H₂O₂, sodium butyrate at 1 mmol/L induced mitophagy by activating AMPK and

alleviated intestinal epithelium barrier injury (Li et al., 2022). Supplementation with 1,000 mg/kg sodium butyrate in the diet decreased the levels of TNF- α and interleukin-6 in serum and inhibited the DNA-binding activity of intestinal NF- κ B in weaned piglets (Wen et al., 2012).

2.4.2. Medium chain fatty acids

Among medium chain fatty acids (MCFAs), caprylic acid (C8:0), capric acid (C10:0), and lauric acid (C12:0) are most the common in nature. These saturated 7 to 12 carbonic acids are abundant in milk from rats, rabbits, sows and humans (Decuyper et al., 2003; Tvřicka et al., 2011; Gardner et al., 2017; Hu et al., 2019). MCFAs possess the ability to improve feed digestibility and growth performance (Baltić et al., 2017). Encapsulation in a carrier is a strategy to efficiently guide free MCFA delivery to the target regions of the gastrointestinal tract (Jackman et al., 2020). Hydrolysis of medium-chain triglycerides (MCT) can produce MCFA (Ferronato et al., 2020). One of the advantages of MCT is that they overcome the repellent odor and the volatility of free acids during feeding (Decuyper et al., 2003). Compared with long-chain triglycerides, MCT provides higher satiety and longer gastric emptying times (St-Onge et al., 2002; Maher et al., 2019). Dietary MCT supplementation (920 g/kg C8, 20 g/kg C10, and 60 g/kg C12) for sows significantly improved the survival of offspring, especially for newborn piglets with low birth weight (Jean et al., 1999). Dietary supplementation of 7.75 g/kg MCFA (70% MCT) increased the concentrations of IgA, IgG and IgM in colostrum and decreased diarrhea incidence in suckling piglets (Chen et al., 2019a).

Table 4
Summary of studies about the application of organic acid in stress-resistance of swine.

Compound	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
Short-chain fatty acid mixture	Neonatal germ-free piglets	25 mL/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: G-protein-coupled receptor-43 mRNA, glucagon-like peptide-2, white blood cell, neutrophils, lymphocyte (blood) ↓: The mRNA expression of IL-1 β (jejunum & ileum), the mRNA expression of IL-6 (colon)	Zhou et al. (2020a)
Sodium butyrate	Neonatal piglets	150 mmol/L	Oxidative stress	↓: The gene expressions of IL-6, IL-8, IFN- γ , IL-10, IL-1 β , TGF- β (ileum)	Xu et al. (2016)
Sodium butyrate	Growing-finishing pigs	0.2%	Oxidative stress	↑: Final body weight, daily body weight gain, daily feed intake, carcass weight, Bacteroidetes (cecum) ↓: Proteobacteria (cecum)	Sun et al. (2020b)
Sodium butyrate	Weaned piglets	1,000 mg/kg	Immune stress	↑: Clostridiaceae, Ruminococcaceae, Lachnospiraceae, Bacteroidete (ileal & colonic lumen) ↓: Diarrhea incidence, TNF- α (serum), MDA (serum)	Huang et al. (2015)
Medium chain fatty acids	Sows	7.75 g/kg	Immune stress	↑: The concentrations of IgA, IgG and IgM (sow colostrum) ↓: The incidence of diarrhea (suckling piglets)	Chen et al. (2019a)
Medium chain fatty acid salts	Piglets	No data	Immune stress	↓: The intestinal colonization of <i>Salmonella</i> or <i>E. coli</i>	Lopez-Colom et al. (2019)
Medium chain fatty acid calcium soap	Growing pigs	No data	Immune stress	↓: The abundances of <i>E. coli</i> and <i>Campylobacter</i> (feces)	Matsui et al. (2021)
Lactic acid	Sows	2.8%	Immune stress	↓: <i>Salmonella</i> Typhimurium counts (feces)	Tanaka et al. (2010)
Alpha-ketoglutaric acid	Growing pigs	1%	Oxidative stress	↑: AEC (jejunal mucosa & ileal mucosa), the oxidation of glucose, Gln and oleic acid (enterocytes) ↓: AMP: ATP ratio (jejunal mucosa & ileal mucosa)	Hou et al. (2011b)
Alpha-ketoglutaric acid	Growing pigs	1%	Oxidative stress	↑: Glu, Gln, Leu, Asn, Lys, Ala, Ser, Thr, Val, Phe (liver), GPx activity (liver), ADP (liver) ↓: AST activity, AST/ALT ratio, Glu (plasma), MDA, total protein (liver)	Wang et al. (2015)
Chlorogenic acid	Weaned piglets	1,000 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: The activity of SOD, GPx and CAT (serum)	Zhang et al. (2018)
Benzoic acid	Growing pigs	5,000 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: The activity of SOD and GPx (jejunal mucosa)	Diao et al. (2016)

AEC = adenylate energy charges; ALT = alanine aminotransferase; AST = aspartate aminotransferase; CAT = catalase; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; Ig = immunoglobulin; IL = interleukin; MDA = malondialdehyde; SOD = superoxide dismutase; TGF = transforming growth factor; TNF = tumor necrosis factor.

Capric acid and lauric acid have exhibited abilities to inhibit pathogens (Yoon et al., 2018). The antibacterial properties of MCFA depend on disrupting the phospholipid membrane surrounding membrane-enclosed pathogens to induce bacterial cell lysis in the gastrointestinal tract (Yoon et al., 2018; Lauridsen, 2020). In early-life piglets, a mixture of MCFA salts, to some extent, reduced negative effects of *Salmonella* and ETEC K88, which regulate the local immune cell response at the ileal level (Lopez-Colom et al., 2019). In growing pigs, dietary supplementation with MCFA calcium soap significantly decreased the abundance of *E. coli* and *Campylobacter jejuni* in feces (Matsui et al., 2021).

2.4.3. Lactic acid

Lactic acid is synthesized as an end product of sugar fermentation in the stomach and small intestine, and it is the most widely distributed hydroxycarboxylic acid in nature (Partanen et al., 1999; Sun et al., 2020a). It is involved in redox reactions and hydroxyl substitutions (Joshi et al., 2010). Lactic acid exerts a certain antibacterial effect by lowering gastric pH and stimulating pancreatic exocrine response (Suiryanrayna et al., 2015; Ferronato et al., 2020). In piglets, dietary supplementation with 2.8% lactic acid suppressed *Salmonella* Typhimurium content in feces, and ameliorated diarrhea (Tanaka et al., 2010).

2.4.4. Alpha-Ketoglutarate

Alpha-Ketoglutarate (AKG) is involved in amino acid metabolism to maintain ATP homeostasis and the balance between nitrogen and ammonia (Hou et al., 2011a; Bayliak et al., 2021; Gyanwali et al., 2022). In LPS-challenged growing pigs, supplementation with 1% AKG decreased the AMP:ATP ratio in intestinal mucosa (Hou et al., 2011b). In weaned piglets with LPS

challenge, supplementation with 1% AKG also alleviated histomorphological abnormalities and increased GPx activity in the liver (Wang et al., 2015). Further, AKG supplementation alleviated mucosal damage by increasing the concentration of heat shock protein 70 and the ratio of p-mTOR to mTOR in the jejunum (Hou et al., 2010).

2.4.5. Chlorogenic acid

Chlorogenic acid (5-*O*-caffeoylquinic acid, CGA) is an organic acid which is widely distributed in tea and coffee (Hayakawa et al., 2020). The beneficial properties of dietary CGA have been evidenced through various animal models and clinical studies (Santana-Gálvez et al., 2017; Chen et al., 2018a; Hayakawa et al., 2020). The antioxidant activity of CGA prevented H₂O₂-induced ROS generation in rats (Zhou et al., 2016). In mice, CGA may alleviate indomethacin-induced inflammation and mucosal injury via suppressing the growth of *Bacteroides* (Yan et al., 2020). In weaned piglets, dietary supplementation with 0.1% CGA increased the activity of SOD, GPx and CAT in serum. It also selectively increased the population of *Lactobacillus* and decreased the population of *E. coli* in the colon (Zhang et al., 2018).

2.4.6. Benzoic acid

Benzoic acid is the simplest aromatic carboxylic acid (Ferronato et al., 2020) and is used as a fragrance ingredient and preservative (Johnson et al., 2017). Though controversial effects and unclear mechanisms, benzoic acid, in appropriate concentrations, has been reported to improve growth performance partly via regulating redox status (Del Olmo et al., 2017; Johnson et al., 2017; Mao et al., 2019; Ferronato et al., 2020). Adding 0.5% benzoic acid to the basal diet of growing pigs increased the activity of GPx and SOD in the jejunal mucosa (Diao et al., 2016).

2.5. Prebiotics

Derived from nonviable food components (Pineiro et al., 2008), prebiotics with different molecular structures participate in the modulation of bacterial composition in the large intestine (Gaggia et al., 2010). At present, the most widely used prebiotics are fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS) (Singh et al., 2017; Mao et al., 2018; Schokker et al., 2018), chito-oligosaccharides (COS) (Zivanovic et al., 2007), mannan-oligosaccharides (MOS) (Yazbeck et al., 2019), non-starch polysaccharides (NSP) (Chen et al., 2021b), γ -aminobutyric acid (GABA) (Xia et al., 2019), microalgae and seaweeds (Gaggia et al., 2010; de Jesus Raposo et al., 2016; Corino et al., 2019), all of which possess antioxidant and antibacterial properties (Table 5).

2.5.1. Fructo-oligosaccharides

FOS are soluble dietary fibers with D-fructose linked by β -(2,1) bonds (Gibson et al., 1995; Roberfroid et al., 2010). FOS are beneficial to gut barrier function and immunological function in swine (Gao et al., 2001; Csernus et al., 2020). During immune stress induced by ETEC, supplementation with FOS at 2.5 mg/kg decreased interleukin-1 β and TNF- α , and increased jejunal immunoglobulins (Liu et al., 2020). In diarrheal weanling piglets, a diet containing 1% FOS improved expression of Nrf2 and reduced diarrhea incidence (Zhang et al., 2022c).

Constipation heavily impairs the reproductive performance of sows and exacerbates the oxidative stress in parturition (Oliviero et al., 2010; Zhang et al., 2017; Yu et al., 2021), accompanied by mastitis (Peltoniemi et al., 2016) and udder infection (Oliviero et al., 2010). Supplementation with 1.5% FOS alleviated constipation and enhanced the antioxidant defense capacity of sows via increasing the activity of total SOD and GPx and decreasing the serum MDA concentration (Wang et al., 2016).

2.5.2. Chito-oligosaccharides

COS are chemically and enzymatically hydrolyzed from chitosan, and have the characteristics of low molecular weight, good solubility, and low viscosity (Chae et al., 2005). Compared to 2 or 3 kDa, COS with molecular weight 5.1 kDa exhibited the highest radical scavenging activity (Yang et al., 2017). COS could also be added to the animal diet as a biological or pharmaceutical excipient to promote growth performance through enhancing immunity status and modulating gut microbiota and intestinal morphology in weaned piglets (Singla et al., 2001; Yang et al., 2012; Zhao et al., 2017). To cope with oxidative stress in the placenta, COS supplementation at 0.03% in the pregnant sow's diet significantly increased total SOD activity in plasma during late gestation (Xie et al., 2016). In ETEC-challenged pigs, COS supplementation at 300 mg/kg improved the mRNA expressions of interleukin-1 β and interleukin-6 in the jejunal mucosa (Xiao et al., 2014). For weaning stress, COS supplementation at 100 or 200 mg/kg could increase the abundance of *Lactobacillus* in feces and enhance villus height to decrease diarrhea incidence (Liu et al., 2008).

2.5.3. Mannan-oligosaccharides

Yeast is the most common commercial source of MOS, whose supplementation results in high feed conversion and enhanced Ig concentrations (Tizard et al., 1989; LeMieux et al., 2003; Bland et al., 2004). In sows during pregnancy and lactation, supplemental MOS improved the immune competence and growth performance in offspring. The MOS supplementation at 400 mg/kg in sows increased SIgA content in jejunal mucosa of piglets, downregulated the expression levels of TLR2, TLR4, and interleukin-8 in intestinal mesenteric lymph and decreased interleukin-2 and interleukin-4 concentrations in serum of piglets (Duan et al., 2019a).

The type of glycosidic linkage and proportion of mannose in yeast products determine the ability of MOS to bind to or

Table 5
Summary of studies about the application of prebiotics in anti-stress of swine.

Prebiotic	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
FOS	Weaned piglets	2.5 mg/kg	Immune stress	\uparrow : <i>Bacillus</i> , <i>Bifidobacterium</i> (cecum), IgA, IgM, SIgA (jejunum) \downarrow : IL-1 β , TNF- α (plasma), <i>E. coli</i> (cecum), IL-6 mRNA (jejunum & ileum), IL-1 β mRNA (duodenum), TNF- α mRNA (jejunum & ileum & duodenum)	Liu et al. (2020)
FOS	Weanling piglets	1%	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : <i>Sharpea</i> , <i>Megasphaera</i> , <i>Bacillus</i> (ileum), Nrf2 (serum) \downarrow : D-lactate, TNF- α (serum)	Zhang et al. (2022c)
FOS	Weaning piglets	5 g/kg	Immune stress	\uparrow : Average daily gain, IgG (serum)	Wang et al. (2019b)
COS	Weaning piglets	158.8 mg/kg	Weaning stress	\uparrow : <i>Lactobacillus</i> (fecal samples), villus height (ileum) \downarrow : <i>E. coli</i> (fecal samples)	Liu et al. (2008)
COS	Sows	30 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : SOD (plasma), Cu/Zn-SOD mRNA, CAT mRNA (placenta) \downarrow : D-lactate, TNF- α , MDA (plasma), IL-6, IL-8 (placenta)	Xie et al. (2016)
GABA	Weaned piglets	20 mg/kg	Immune stress	\uparrow : IFN- γ , IL-4, IL-10, TLR6 (ileum) \downarrow : IL-22, IL-1, IL-18, MUC1 (ileum)	Chen et al. (2019b)
GABA	Growing-finishing pigs	30 mg/kg	Transportation stress	\downarrow : MDA, adrenal cortical hormone, cortisol (serum)	Bi et al. (2020)
GABA	Growing-finishing pigs	20 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	\downarrow : TLR4/NF- κ B \uparrow : PPAR γ mRNA, GABARs mRNA, TNF- α , IL-1 β (liver)	Zhang et al. (2022b)
Inulin	Piglets	4%	Immune stress	\uparrow : SCFA (colon), <i>Bifidobacteria</i> , <i>Lactobacilli</i> (cecum)	Tako et al. (2008)
Microalgae	Pregnant sows	3.12%	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : Total omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, docosahexaenoic acid (plasma)	You et al. (2019)
MOS	Weaned piglets	0.1%	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : IgG (serum)	Li et al. (2021b)
MOS	Sows	8 g/d	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : IgG (sow colostrum and plasma & suckling piglet serum)	Czech et al. (2010)
MOS	Sows; piglets	400 mg/kg; 800 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	\uparrow : NF- κ B p65 mRNA (sow jejunum), <i>Lactobacillus</i> (piglet jejunum & ileum), SIgA (piglet jejunum), IL-10 (piglet serum) \downarrow : IL-2 (sow intestinal lymphatic), IL-4 (sow intestinal lymphatic), <i>E. coli</i> (piglet jejunum & cecum), TLR2 mRNA (piglet jejunum), TLR4 mRNA (piglet jejunum), IL-8 mRNA (piglet jejunum)	Duan et al. (2019a)

CAT = catalase; COS = chito-oligosaccharide; FOS = fructo-oligosaccharide; GABA = gamma-aminobutyric acid; GABARs = gamma-aminobutyric acid receptors; Ig = immunoglobulin; IL = interleukin; MDA = malondialdehyde; MOS = mannan-oligosaccharides; MUC = mucin; NF- κ B = nuclear factor-kappa B; Nrf2 = nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; PPAR γ = peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor γ ; SCFA = short chain fatty acids; SIgA = secretory immunoglobulin A; SOD = superoxide dismutase; TLR = toll-like receptor; TNF = tumor necrosis factor.

agglutinate bacteria including *E. coli* (Singboottra, 2005; Pourabedin et al., 2014). In *E. coli* LPS-challenged weanling pigs, MOS supplementation at 0.1% was found to increase circulating IgG concentration (Li et al., 2021b). Besides, MOS in weanling piglets enhanced resistance to the porcine reproductive and respiratory syndrome (PRRS) virus (Che et al., 2011) and Aujeszky's disease (Nochta et al., 2009). During the early infection stage of PRRS in weaned piglets, MOS supplementation at 0.2% increased concentrations of interleukin-10 and white blood cells (Che et al., 2011).

2.5.4. Non-starch polysaccharides

NSPs consist of a soluble fraction with pectin, some hemicellulose and oligosaccharides, and a non-soluble fraction with cellulose and hemicellulose (Bakker et al., 1998). Due to the low cost, low toxicity (Jiang et al., 2019; Zhang et al., 2019b) and antioxidant activity (Chen et al., 2021b), water-soluble non-starch polysaccharides from natural resources have drawn attention in animal husbandry. NSP isolated from *Sarcodon aspratus* activates the NF- κ B and MAPK pathways and promotes pinocytotic activity of macrophages (Wang et al., 2018a). In a dextran sodium sulfate-challenged pig model, supplementation with algal polysaccharides laminarin and fucoïdan reduced interleukin-6 mRNA abundance in the colon, which alleviated diarrheal symptoms (O'Shea et al., 2016).

2.5.5. Gamma-aminobutyric acid

As the most important inhibiting neurotransmitter in the brain (Sarkar et al., 2016), GABA plays a role in regulation of apoptosis (Wang et al., 2018c), intracellular autophagy (Hui et al., 2019) and inflammation (Dias et al., 2014). In ETEC-infected IPEC-J2, GABA at 20 mg/kg activated GABA_A receptor signaling and the AMPK-autophagy pathway to attenuate ETEC-induced apoptosis (Xia et al., 2019). In growing-finishing piglets, supplementation with GABA at 20 mg/kg was found to promote feed conversion and decrease TLR4/NF- κ B signaling by acting on GABA receptors (Zhang et al., 2022b). GABA can be produced from *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacterium* (Barrett et al., 2012). In ETEC-challenged piglets, GABA supplementation markedly regulated the serum amino acid profile and enhanced the community richness and diversity in the ileal microbiome (Chen et al., 2020c).

2.5.6. Microalgae and seaweeds

Microalgae and seaweeds show positive effects on growth of beneficial bacteria in the gut (de Jesus Raposo et al., 2016; Corino et al., 2019). They are a variety of carboxylated and sulfated polysaccharides, like alginates, fucoïdians, carrageenans, exopolysaccharides, phenols, carotenoid fucoxanthins, tannins and phlorotannins (de Jesus Raposo et al., 2016; Jacobsen et al., 2019). Secondary metabolites from *Cyanobacteria* can overcome ultraviolet radiation-deleterious effects (Favas et al., 2022). For LPS challenge in late gestation sows, supplementation with 3.12% microalgae elevated the concentrations of cytokines interleukin-1 α , interleukin-6 and interleukin-10 (Lee et al., 2019). Originating from brown seaweeds, fucoïdan is found to alleviate weaning stress via downregulating the abundance of *E. coli* and upregulating the abundance of *Lactobacillus* (Reilly et al., 2008; McDonnell et al., 2010; Walsh et al., 2013).

2.6. Probiotics

In the swine industry, the main probiotics are *Lactobacilli* (Kaizu et al., 1993; Kullisaar et al., 2003), *Bacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, and *Saccharomyces boulardii* (McCoy et al., 2007; Bajaj et al., 2015). An ideal probiotic is required to have gastric acid resistance and bile salt resistance, intestinal colonization capacity, and the ability to antagonize pathogenic microorganisms (Cho et al., 2011).

Splichalova et al. used preterm gnotobiotic piglets as an infectious model at first and verified the safety of *Lactobacillus rhamnosus* GG and its bacterial interference with *Salmonella* Typhimurium (Splichalova et al., 2019). An interesting example is that *Lactobacillus acidophilus* 30SC is a quorum-quenching probiotic bacterium, which inhibits the virulence of enterohemorrhagic *E. coli* by the universal quorum molecule autoinducer-2 in weaning piglets (Kim et al., 2018). Probiotics also work through various mechanisms, such as promoting enzyme activity, secreting secondary metabolites, and activating antioxidant signaling pathways (Wang et al., 2017) (Table 6).

Desirable bacteria not only possess their own antioxidant enzyme systems (Wang et al., 2017), but also regulate the activity of antioxidant enzymes from hosts (Wang et al., 2009). SOD, CAT and GPx are well-known ROS-interacting enzymes (Ho et al., 2004; Landis et al., 2005; Tian et al., 2021). For example, *Lactobacillus fermentum* E-3 (10^7 CFU/mL) and E-18 (10^7 CFU/mL) strains were tolerant to exogenous and endogenous oxidative stresses by expressing Mn-SOD against hydrogen peroxide, superoxide and hydroxyl radicals (Kullisaar et al., 2002). Supplementation of *Bacillus amyloliquefaciens* SC06 at 10^6 CFU/mL or 10^8 CFU/mL elevated glutathione S-transferase and CAT activity in IPEC-1 with H₂O₂-induced oxidative stress (Wang et al., 2017).

Metabolites from probiotics, such as GSH and folate, can regulate the antioxidant capacity in swine (Wang et al., 2017). GSH is the most important low molecular weight antioxidant as it eliminates hydrogen peroxides, hydroxyl radicals, and peroxynitrite (Forman et al., 2009). In a diquat model, the GSH level was increased by supplementation with *L. fermentum* I5007 at 10^8 CFU/mL in weanling piglets. In humans, daily consumption of *L. acidophilus* by children can improve the folate level in plasma (Mohammad et al., 2006), and relieve oxidative stress (Nandi et al., 2005). For weaning stress, supplementation of folate at 9 mg/kg increased the organ weight and stomach pH in piglets (Wang et al., 2021).

Mechanically, it was indicated that probiotics protect hosts against stress through regulating the Nrf2-Keap1 (Wang et al., 2013b), NF- κ B (Diao et al., 2014), and MAPK (Tao et al., 2006) pathways in swine (Wang et al., 2017). Recently, *Pediococcus pentosaceus* SMM914 strain at 10^8 CFU/mL isolated from sow milk was found to activate the Nrf2-Keap1 pathway in the liver of weaned piglets (Wang et al., 2022). In piglets, dietary supplementation with *Lactobacillus delbrueckii* at 2.01×10^{10} CFU/g activated the TLR-Bruton's tyrosine kinase-Nrf2 signaling pathway and alleviated LPS-induced intestinal oxidative stress (Chen et al., 2021a). Prior to challenge with ETEC K88, *Lactobacillus plantarum* supplementation at 10^8 CFU/well in IPEC-1 was shown to activate the MAPK and NF- κ B pathways to inhibit immune stress (Yang et al., 2021a).

2.7. Minerals and vitamins

Apart from these above-mentioned nutritional strategies, there are also other nutritional strategies for mitigating stress, such as minerals and vitamins (Table 7). For minerals, pigs receiving 40 mg/kg Mn, added as MnSO₄·H₂O, showed high average daily gain and feed efficiency (Grummer et al., 1950). Dietary chromium propionate at 200 μ g/kg Cr increased blood neutrophils by approximately 37% and had a tendency to increase the average daily feed intake in heat-stressed finishing pigs (Mayorga et al., 2019). Selenoproteins have been identified in both humans and piglets, which mediate the antioxidant and anti-inflammatory functions of Se (Kryukov et al., 2003; Zhang et al., 2011). Supplementation of 1.0 mg/kg Se in gilt diets mitigated increases in rectal temperature and alleviated heat stress in the short-term (Liu et al., 2018a). A high fat diet in uncastrated boars was reported to induce oxidative damage and apoptosis in the liver. Wang et al. (2020a)

Table 6

Summary of studies about the application of probiotics in stress-resistance of swine.

Probiotic	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
<i>Lactobacillus rhamnosus</i> GG	Preterm gnotobiotic piglets	1 × 10 ⁸ CFU/mL	Immune stress	↓: IL-8 (serum & jejunum), IL-12/23p40 (jejunum)	Splichalova et al. (2019)
<i>Lactobacillus plantarum</i> strain JDFM LP11	Female crossbred piglets	2.5 × 10 ⁷ CFU/mL	Immune stress	↑: Firmicutes, Spirochaetes (gut), IgG (serum) ↓: The immune associated BPI, RSAD2, SLPI, LUM, OLFM4, DMBT1 and C6 genes (ileum)	Shin et al. (2019)
<i>Lactobacillus fermentum</i>	Growing-finishing pigs	1 × 10 ⁹ CFU/mL	Oxidative stress	↑: SOD (serum & muscle), GPx (serum), CAT (liver) ↓: MDA (serum & muscle)	Wang et al. (2009)
<i>Lactobacillus fermentum</i> 15007	Weaned crossbred barrows	1 × 10 ⁸ CFU/mL	Oxidative stress	↑: SOD and GSH (plasma, muscle & liver) ↓: MDA (muscle & liver)	Wang et al. (2013a)
<i>Saccharomyces boulardii</i> mafic-1701	Weaned piglets	1 × 10 ⁸ CFU/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: T-SOD (serum), <i>Turicibacter</i> , Ruminococcaceae_UCG_009 (cecum) ↓: Diarrhea rate, TNF-α, IL-6 (jejunum)	Zhang et al. (2020c)
<i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i>	Weaned piglets	2.01 × 10 ¹⁰ CFU/g	Oxidative stress	↑: GSH, SOD (jejunal mucosa), GR, GPx (serum & intestinal mucosa), TLRs-Btk-Nrf2 signaling pathway (intestine) ↓: MDA (serum & intestinal mucosa), 8-OHdG (jejunal mucosa)	Chen et al. (2021a)
<i>Pediococcus pentosaceus</i>	Weaning piglets	1 × 10 ⁸ CFU/mL	Oxidative stress	↑: GPx, SOD, CAT (liver), <i>Lactobacillus</i> , Nrf2-Keap1 signaling pathway (liver) ↓: MDA (liver), TP, ALB, LDH, ALT (serum)	Wang et al. (2022)
<i>Lactobacillus reuteri</i> ; <i>Lactobacillus salivarius</i>	Weaning piglets	3.0 × 10 ⁶ CFU/g; 1.5 × 10 ⁶ CFU/g	Weaning stress	↑: <i>Lactobacillus</i> , <i>Acinetobacter</i> , Ruminococcaceae UCG-014, <i>Bacteroides</i> , <i>Helicobacter</i> , SOD, CAT, GPx, IFN-α, IFN-β (plasma) ↓: Diarrhea rate, <i>Escherichia-Shigella</i> , <i>Streptococcus</i> , <i>Peptoclostridium</i> , <i>Clostridium sensu stricto</i> 1, <i>Fusobacterium</i> , <i>Roseburia</i> , <i>Veillonella</i> (ileum & cecum), MDA (plasma)	Yang et al. (2020)

8-OHdG = 8-hydroxy-2-deoxyguanosine; ALB = albumin; ALT = alanine aminotransferase; BPI = bactericidal/permeability-increasing protein; Btk = Bruton's tyrosine kinase; CAT = catalase; C6 = complement component 6; DMBT1 = deleted in malignant brain tumor 1; GSH = glutathione; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; GR = glutathione reductase; Ig = immunoglobulin; IL = interleukin; Keap1 = Kelch-like epichlorohydrin-associated protein 1; LDH = lactic dehydrogenase; LUM = lumican; MDA = malondialdehyde; Nrf2 = nuclear factor erythroid 2-related factor 2; OLFM4 = Olfactomedin 4; RSAD2 = radical SAM domain-containing 2; SLPI = secretory leukocyte protease inhibitor; SOD = superoxide dismutase; TLRs = toll-like receptors; TNF = tumor necrosis factor; TP = total protein.

Table 7

Summary of studies about the application of minerals and vitamins in stress-resistance of swine.

Minerals/ Vitamins	Pig	Dose	Stress type	Effect	Reference
Cr	Finishing pigs	200 µg/kg	Heat stress	↑: Neutrophils	Mayorga et al. (2019)
Fe	Neonatal piglets	60 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: Hepcidin mRNA, IL-6, IFN-γ, IL-1β, TGF-β, pBD-1 (ileum)	Pu et al. (2018)
Se	Boars	1 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: selenoprotein S mRNA, GPx (liver) ↓: ALT, AST (serum), the content of MDA (liver), the ratio of apoptotic cells (liver)	Wang et al. (2020a)
Se	Gilts	1 mg/kg	Heat stress	↑: GPx (erythrocyte) ↓: Rectal temperature	Liu et al. (2018a)
Se	Sows and piglets	0.04 mg/kg; 0.06 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: γ-glutamyl transferase, GPx3 (plasma) ↓: Red blood cell counts, hemoglobin, hematocrit	Falk et al. (2020)
Se	Sows	1 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: GSH, SOD (colostrum), GPx (colostrum and 14-d milk) ↓: MDA (colostrum and 14-d milk)	Zhang et al. (2020b)
Vitamin A	Weaned piglets	13,500 IU/kg	Weaning stress	↑: Retinol, IgM, IgA, GPx (serum)	Hu et al. (2020)
Vitamin A	Nursing piglets	No data	Immune stress	↑: IL-10, IFN-α, IFN-γ (serum), IgA IgSCs (serum), IgA ⁺ β7 ⁺ B cells (milk)	Langel et al. (2019)
Vitamin C	Weaning piglets	150 mg/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: PXR mRNA, CAR mRNA, GPx, T-AOC, SOD (liver) ↓: MDA (liver)	Shi et al. (2017)
Vitamin E	Growing pigs	50, 100, 200 IU/kg	Heat stress	↑: GPx-2 mRNA, GPx (jejunum & ileum) ↓: GSSG: GSH	Liu et al. (2016)
Vitamin E	Multiparous sows	200 IU/kg	Oxidative stress	↑: GPx (serum), SOD (serum) ↓: MDA (serum)	Wang et al. (2019c)

ALT = alanine aminotransferase; AST = aspartate aminotransferase; CAR = constitutive androstane receptor; GPx = glutathione peroxidase; GSH = glutathione; GSSG = glutathione disulfide; Ig = immunoglobulin; IL = interleukin; IgSCs = immunoglobulin secreting cells; MDA = malondialdehyde; pBD = porcine beta-defensin; PXR = pregnane x receptors; SOD = superoxide dismutase; T-AOC = total antioxidant capacity; TGF = transforming growth factor.

supplemented Se at 1 mg/kg for these pigs at the age of 40 days, reducing the activity of alanine aminotransferase and aspartate aminotransferase in serum, as well as the content of MDA and the ratio of apoptotic cells in the liver. Noteworthy, the absorption efficiency and feasibility are influenced by substance sources. Compared to inorganic minerals, organic minerals have higher

bioavailability and lower fecal mineral excretion in animals. Zinc glycine chelate is a good source for zinc fortification to improve growth performance in weaning piglets (Wang et al., 2010). Growing-finishing pigs fed methionine hydroxyl analog chelated microminerals (Cu, Fe, Mn, Zn) had higher immune function and antioxidant status, compared with a group fed inorganic

microminerals (Chen et al., 2022b). The antioxidant mechanism of vitamins in swine has been summarized in a review (Hao et al., 2021). Vitamin E and selenoproteins are both known dietary antioxidants which influence immunological functions by converting ROS into non-reactive forms (Hidioglou et al., 1992; Falk et al., 2020). Supplementation of 200 IU/kg vitamin E and 1.0 mg/kg Se together increased the activity of GPx and the GSH:GSSG ratio, which relieved intestinal barrier damage in heat-stressed growing pigs (Liu et al., 2016). To alleviate liver damage caused by zearalenone, dietary supplementation with 150 mg/kg vitamin C reduced the MDA level and increased the level of SOD in livers of weaning piglets (Shi et al., 2017). Oral supplementation of vitamin A (30,000 IU retinyl acetate) in gilts infected with porcine epidemic diarrhoea virus enhanced the IgA level and lactogenic immune protection of nursing piglets (Langel et al., 2019). The supplementation of 25-hydroxyvitamin D₃ is a feasible option for indoor swine production, which increased vitamin D content and the antioxidant status of pork (Duffy et al., 2018).

Breeders often seek the optimal concentration to achieve lower cost and better growth performance. In the practical application of anti-stress nutritional strategies, dose variation contributes different effects. Given that minerals and vitamins constitute a relatively small percentage of the diet, it is necessary to pay attention to the supplemental dosages to maintain a good foundation of balanced pig nutrition (Yang et al., 2021b). For example, iron overdose can induce diarrhoea in piglets (Chen et al., 2020b). When supplemented with 500 mg Fe/kg dry matter, the gut was impaired by increased neutrophil infiltration and intestinal permeability and reduced villus height in the duodenum of weaning piglets (Li et al., 2016b).

3. Conclusion

In summary, improving stress-resistance by supplementing relevant nutrients or optimizing feed formulation is a good practice to enhance the amount of antioxidant enzymes in key signaling pathways and to mitigate damage caused by stress responses in animal production. This review summarized stress inducing factors, experimental models, signaling transduction pathways, and several nutritional strategies in pigs. In practical production, multiple additive blends have been widely reported with complicated modes of action and unexpected advantages (Markowiak et al., 2017). Combined supplementation of 2,000 mg/kg benzoic acid and 100 mg/kg thymol in the diet significantly alleviated post-weaning diarrhoea and increased the abundance of *Lactobacillus* spp. in ileal digesta (Diao et al., 2015). Supplementation of 4 mg/kg vitamin B₆ in an 18% low protein diet decreased inflammatory cytokines and increased amino acid transporter expression in the jejunum (Yin et al., 2020). Based on the potential synergistic effect between probiotics and prebiotics, combining *L. plantarum* ZLP001 with FOS decreased the abundance of Enterobacteriaceae spp., while increasing the concentrations of IFN- γ and IgG in serum of weaned piglets (Wang et al., 2019b).

The comprehensive process of stress still needs to be further studied for pig growth performance, animal welfare and related human diseases. Stress is closely related to several human metabolic diseases, including obesity (Jakubiak et al., 2021), diabetes mellitus (Darenskaya et al., 2021), cardiovascular disease (Incalza et al., 2018) and cancer (Sosa et al., 2013). Considering the similarities between pigs and humans in anatomy, physiology and immunology (Lunney et al., 2021), further in-depth elucidation on stress mechanisms and intervention strategies are of great significance to reduce losses due to stress. For long-term sustainability, screening new biomolecules or designing targeted formulas against stress is the precondition and basis to develop cost-effective

alternatives in a profitable swine industry. Van den Brink et al. (2015) created an electrochemical microfluidic chip coupled with mass spectrometric detection in antidotal drug discovery. A high through-put sandwiched microarray platform was also developed to screen natural compounds and combinatorial chemistries at cellular level (Parihar et al., 2022). Nowadays, self-organized organoids are recognized as promising preclinical models to pinpoint potential therapeutic agents in many fields without the variations in animal physiology. Using a three-dimensional bio-printing-based organoid culture technique, neurospheres are available to study the role of oxidative stress in neurodegenerative disease progression (Sumien et al., 2021; Parihar et al., 2022). For several epithelial cancers, MCLA-158 was selected as a therapeutic EGFR \times LGR5 bispecific antibody from patient-derived organoids (Goto et al., 2022). Organoids derived from animal intestinal epithelial cells have been used for screening potential additives (Yin et al., 2019). Curcumin was selected from common dietary nutrients to promote the intestinal development in murine intestinal organoids (Cai et al., 2018). As considerable progress has been made, researchers in traditional animal nutrition are expected to embrace the challenges and opportunities to select more effective anti-stress preparations through complex devices and novel models.

Author contributions

Leli Wang: Conceptualization, Writing—editing. **Chuni Wang:** Writing—original draft preparation—editing. **Yao Peng:** Writing—original draft preparation. **Yiru Zhang:** Editing. **Yuxin Liu:** Editing. **Yan Liu:** Editing. **Yulong Yin:** Conceptualization, Writing—reviewing & editing, Funding acquisition, Supervision.

Declaration of competing interest

We declare that we have no financial and personal relationships with other people or organizations that can inappropriately influence our work. There is no professional or other personal interest of any nature or kind in any product, service or company that could be construed as influencing the content of this paper.

Acknowledgments

This study is supported by the National Natural Science Foundation of China (32130099), Tianjin Synthetic Biotechnology Innovation Capacity Improvement Project (TSBICIP-CXRC-038) and Laboratory of Lingnan Modern Agriculture Project (NT2021005).

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