1 Interpretive Summary:

3	Effects of dry period energy intake on insulin resistance, metabolic adaptation, and production
4	responses in transition dairy cows on grass silage-based diets
5	By Salin et al. Periparturient period is associated with insulin resistance in ruminants. Oversupply
6	of energy during the dry period may have adverse effects on metabolic adaptation, by affecting
7	maternal insulin resistance, accretion and mobilization of body reserves and feed intake of
8	periparturient dairy cows. Our study showed that free access to grass silage during the dry period
9	did not negatively affect metabolic changes or feed intake during the transition period compared
10	with controlling the energy intake by diluting grass silage with wheat straw.
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13	ENERGY INTAKE AND INSULIN RESISTANCE IN COWS
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14	Effects of dry period energy intake on insulin resistance, metabolic adaptation, and production
14 15 16	Effects of dry period energy intake on insulin resistance, metabolic adaptation, and production responses in transition dairy cows on grass silage-based diets
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27 ABSTRACT

28 High energy intake in the dry period has reportedly had adverse effects on mobilization of body reserves, DMI, and productivity of dairy cows. We investigated whether grass silage (GS) fed ad 29 30 libitum (HEI; 141% of daily metabolizable energy (ME) requirements) in 8 wk dry period affects 31 metabolic adaptation and specifically peripheral insulin resistance, compared with ad libitum fed 32 total mixed ration (TMR) consisting of GS, wheat straw (WS) and rapeseed meal (55/40/5%; 108% 33 of ME/d; CEI). Multiparous Ayrshire dairy cows (n = 16) were used in a randomized complete block 34 design until 8 wk after parturition. Commercial concentrates were fed 1 and 2 kg/d during the last 35 10-6 and 5-0 d before the expected calving date, respectively. Postpartum, a similar lactation diet 36 with ad libitum access to GS and increasing concentrate allowance (max. 16 kg/d) was offered to 37 all. HEI group gained more body weight and had higher plasma insulin, glucose, and β-38 hydroxybutyrate concentrations than CEI prepartum. Postpartal plasma glucose tended to be higher 39 and milk yield was greater from wk 5 onwards for HEI than CEI cows. Intravenous glucose tolerance 40 test (IVGTT) was performed at -13 ± 5 d and 9 ± 1 d relative to calving. HEI cows had greater 41 insulin response to glucose load and smaller area under the response curve for glucose than CEI 42 cows in prepartal IVGTT. Thus, compensatory insulin secretion adapted to changes in insulin 43 sensitivity of the peripheral tissues, preserving glucose tolerance of HEI. Higher insulin levels were 44 needed in HEI than CEI cows to elicit a similar decrement of non-esterified fatty acid (NEFA) 45 concentration in prepartal IVGTT, suggesting reduced inhibition of lipolysis by insulin in HEI 46 before parturition. In conclusion, high energy intake of moderately digestible GS with low 47 concentrate feeding in close-up dry period did not have adverse effects on metabolic adaptation, 48 insulin sensitivity and body mobilization after parturition. Instead, this feeding regime was more 49 beneficial to early lactation performance than GS-based TMR diluted with wheat straw.

50 Key words: insulin resistance, transition dairy cow, energy intake, grass silage

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INTRODUCTION

53	In loose housing systems, group fed dairy cows are prone to extra weight gain after drying-off. Dry
54	cows easily overconsume energy relative to requirements, even when given moderate-energy maize-
55	silage (MS)-based diets (Janovick and Drackley, 2010). Although overfeeding may induce only
56	minor visible changes in BCS, overfed cows share common metabolic features with the obese cow
57	(Drackley et al., 2014). These include e.g. accretion of visceral fat depots, which drain directly to
58	the liver predisposing cows to health problems (Roche et al., 2013; Drackley et al., 2014) and
59	decreased DMI in early lactation (Agenäs et al., 2003; Dann et al., 2006; Janovick and Drackley,
60	2010).

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62 The daily energy intake of dry cows offered feed ad libitum can be controlled by feeding of bulky forages rich in fibre, such as wheat straw (WS). Restricting the energy allowance by diluting MS-63 64 based diets with WS during the dry period improved DMI and energy balance (EB), and decreased 65 hepatic lipid content, and adipose tissue (AT) mobilization in very early lactation (Janovick and Drackley 2010; Janovick et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2015). This suggests that restriction of energy 66 intake in the dry period improves metabolic balance in early lactation, despite higher non-esterified 67 68 fatty acid (NEFA) levels in transition period (Douglas et al., 2006; Loor et al., 2006; Roche et al., 2015). However, the results have been more equivocal in dry cows on grass silage (GS) based 69 70 feeding strategies. No beneficial effects on DMI and lipid mobilization were reported when dilution 71 of GS or mixture of grass and MS with straw was compared with pure GS (Ryan et al., 2003, Butler 72 et al., 2011), or when the allowance of GS was restricted to meet the energy requirements (Kokkonen 73 et al., 2018).

75 Some recent studies have shown that prepartal energy intake with or without BCS changes may affect 76 maternal insulin resistance (IR) during the periparturient period (Zachut et al., 2013; De Koster et 77 al., 2015; Salin et al., 2017). The hyperbolic relationship between insulin secretion and insulin 78 sensitivity suggests that any environmental change in insulin sensitivity, for instance in response to 79 obesity, will be compensated by an increase in insulin secretion in response to glucose (Bergman, 80 1989; Kahn et al., 1993). This hyperbolic relationship in insulin dynamics, well established in human 81 studies, was also recently verified in transition dairy cows (Salin et al., 2017). As a result of prepartal 82 overfeeding, the AT may be more refractory to the actions of insulin (Salin et al., 2017), and cows 83 prone to lose great amounts of BW in transition period may be more resistant to insulin's effect on 84 lipolysis inhibition than cows with moderate BW loss (Zachut et al., 2013). However, some more 85 recent studies found minor effects of increased body fatness and high energy intake on inhibition of 86 lipolysis by insulin, and insulin signaling in AT of transition dairy cows (De Koster et al., 2016a; 87 Mann et al., 2016, Jaakson et al., 2018). Instead, over-conditioned cows were more insulin resistant 88 in regard to glucose metabolism and glucose transport into AT in late pregnancy than leaner cows 89 (De Koster et al., 2015; Jaakson et al., 2018).

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91 In our former experiment (Salin et al., 2017; Kokkonen et al., 2018), we showed that high energy 92 intake of GS induced a more refractory NEFA response during the prepartal IVGTT when compared 93 with cows fed with controlled amount of GS to meet ME requirements, whereas a more pronounced 94 NEFA response was observed in overfed cows after parturition. However, a relatively short dry 95 period of 6 wk, and a feeding practice where energy oversupply was gradually restricted during the 96 close-up dry period might have contributed to the absence of differences in accretion and 97 mobilization of body reserves between high and controlled energy diets. This may have dampened 98 the metabolic and hormonal effects in the former study. Accordingly, we did not observe effects on 99 glucose and insulin responses during the transition period.

101 The main objective of this experiment was to determine whether increased dietary energy level by 102 ad libitum allowance of GS during an 8-wk dry period, and subsequent putative increase of body 103 condition during 8 wk dry period deteriorates pregnancy induced IR followed by abnormal metabolic 104 regulation during the transition period. Our hypothesis was that high dietary energy intake 105 accelerates accretion and mobilization of body reserves, affects hormonal control of metabolism, 106 decelerates the increase of DMI in early lactation, and thus affects production responses during the 107 first 8 wk of lactation. We also assumed that limiting of DMI by increasing the NDF-content of GS-108 based diet with adding of WS to TMR would prevent aforementioned negative effects.

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MATERIALS AND METHODS

111 Cows, Diets, and Experimental Design

112 The experimental procedures were conducted under the protocols approved by the National Animal 113 Ethics Committee in Finland (Hämeenlinna). The study was conducted with 16 Finnish multiparous 114 Ayrshire cows, using a randomized complete block design. Experimental animals were dried off 115 either before (n = 12; average 12.6 d; median 6.0 d) or on the day (n = 4) of the initiation of the 116 experimental period. Those that were dried-off in advance were fed refusals of GS until 8 wk prior 117 to expected parturition. The cows were paired according to expected calving date, parity (second 118 through sixth), BW (733 \pm 115.1 kg; mean \pm SD), and BCS (3.5 \pm 0.54; mean \pm SD). The 305-d milk 119 yield from the previous lactation of the cows was $10,280 \pm 1,469$ kg (mean \pm SD). Within pairs, 120 cows were allocated to 1 of the 2 prepartal dietary treatments 8 wk before the expected parturition 121 $(57 \pm 5 \text{ d before the actual calving day; mean } \pm \text{SD})$. The dietary treatments were (1) ad libitum 122 access to total mixed ration (TMR) containing a mixture of 1st cut wilted GS (55%, digestible OM 123 = 667 g/kg of DM), WS (40%, digestible OM = 457 g/kg of DM), and rapeseed meal (5%, digestible OM = 700 g/kg of DM) contributing to an average of 587 g/kg of digestible OM and a ME content of 9.1 MJ ME/kg of DM (controlled energy intake, **CEI**) and (2) ad libitum access to 2nd cut wilted GS (high energy intake, **HEI**), containing 638 g/kg of DM of digestible OM and a ME content of 10.1 MJ. The silage was ensiled in round bales. Prior to baling a formic acid-based additive (AIV2 Plus, Kemira Ltd, Helsinki, Finland) was applied at a rate 7.4 L/tonne. The preparation of TMR is described in detail in Selim et al. (2015). Grass silage or TMR was offered to cows 3 times daily at 0700, 1300, and 2000 h. The composition of feeds is presented in Table 1.

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132 Both diets were supplemented with 1 kg/d of commercial concentrate (Pro-Maituri 20, Raisioagro 133 Ltd., Raisio, Finland) during d 10 to d 6 prior to the expected calving date and with 2 kg/d thereafter 134 until the day of calving. The chemical composition of the concentrates is shown in Table 1. The 135 concentrate ration was fed twice daily (at 0615, and 1700 h). A commercial mineral and vitamin 136 supplement (Tunnu-Melli, Raisioagro Ltd., Raisio, Finland) was top-dressed (0.2 kg/d) once daily on forage during the dry period (Supplemental Table S1). After calving, all cows were offered wilted 137 GS (average D-value 687 g/kg DM) ad libitum. The silage was cut and mixed in a stationary mixer, 138 distributed 4 times per day (at 0500, 1100, 1500, and 2000 h) by a rail-suspended distribution wagon 139 140 (Pellon Group, Ylihärmä, Finland). The cows were fed an increasing amount of the same commercial 141 concentrate as before calving, and a protein and mineral plus vitamin supplement (Amino-Maituri 142 30; Pihatto-Melli, Raisioagro Ltd., Raisio, Finland; Supplemental table S1). The rate of increase in 143 daily concentrate ration was similar for all cows (Supplemental table S2). The volume of concentrate 144 was 8 kg/d by the end of lactation week 1 (7 kg/d of cereal concentrate + 1 kg/d of protein 145 supplement), the maximum amount of 16 kg/d (12.5 kg/d of cereal concentrate + 3.5 kg/d of protein 146 supplement) was achieved by lactation d 32. During the first week of lactation, the daily concentrate 147 ration was fed 4 times per day (at 0615, 1000, 1645 and 1930 h) to separate feeding troughs.

The experimental animals were housed in tie stalls with saw dust bedding and rubber mats 149 150 throughout the dry period. The cows had continuous access to automatic water troughs and salt licks. 151 Approximately 1 wk before the expected calving, the cows were moved to individual calving pens. 152 The cows were returned to the tie stalls 2 to 5 d after parturition. The tie stalls and the calving pens 153 were equipped with forage intake control feeding stations (Insentec BV, Marknesse, the 154 Netherlands), which were fitted with separate concentrate troughs. The cows were kept in tie stalls until d 10 of lactation and moved to a free-stall barn equipped with Roughage Intake Control (RIC) 155 156 system (Insentec BV, Marknesse, the Netherlands) with separate automatic concentrate feeders and (Lely Cosmix, Lely Industries N.V., Maassluis, the Netherlands). 157

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159 Feed and Milk Samples, Chemical Analysis, and Measurements

160 Feed offered, and feed refused (silage and concentrates) were recorded daily. The feeds were 161 sampled weekly, and the cereal concentrate and silage samples were pooled to form a monthly 162 sample. Samples of concentrates were pooled to form a 2-mo sample. Feed samples were analyzed 163 as described by Salin et al. (2012), and dry matter content of silages was corrected for the loss of 164 volatiles according to Huida et al. (1986). VFA of the silage was determined by liquid chromatographic analysis using Waters Acquity UPLC chromatography apparatus (Waters, Milford, 165 166 MA, USA), as described in detail by Puhakka et al. (2016). Total fat of concentrates was analyzed 167 with ether extraction and hydrolysis with HCl (SoxCap 2047 Hydrolysis Unit; FOSS Soxtec 8000, 168 FOSS Analytical, Hilleroed, Denmark). During the first week of lactation, the cows were milked 169 twice daily at 0630 and 1700 h, and thereafter until lactation week 8, the cows were milked with 170 automated milking system (Lely Astronaut A3, Lely Industries N.V., Maassluis, the Netherlands). 171 The milk yield was recorded for every milking. The milk samples were collected on 4 consecutive milkings at 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8 wk after parturition, mixed with preservative (Bronopol, Valio Ltd, 172

- Helsinki, Finland), and sent to a commercial laboratory (Valio Ltd., Seinäjoki, Finland) for analysis
 of fat, protein, lactose, and urea (MilkoScan 133B analyzer; Foss Electric A/S, Hillerød, Denmark).
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176 The cows were weighed on 2 consecutive days at 8, 6, 4, 2 and 1 wk before the expected calving 177 day, on d 1 and d 2 postpartum, and at 1, 2, 4, 6 and 8 wk after calving. The cows were always 178 weighed at the same time of day, starting at 1300 h, to minimize the influence of milking and 179 feeding. In the case of postdate pregnancies, additional weighing was done on alternate days until 180 the due date. Body condition score (Edmonson et al., 1989) was recorded by the same person 181 throughout the experiment at the same time points as weighing. The cross section of the longissimus 182 dorsi muscle (pars lumbalis) and the subcutaneous fat thickness were measured on the right 183 transversal process of the third lumbar vertebra, 2 to 3 cm medially from the lateral end at 14 days 184 prior to, and at 1, 7 and 28 d after parturition using an Aloka SSD-500 (Aloka, Tokyo, Japan) 185 ultrasound scanner with a 5.0 MHz transducer after shaving of the positions.

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187 Blood Samples and Intravenous Glucose Tolerance Tests

188 Blood sampling was performed by puncture of the coccygeal blood vessels at 56, 42, 28, 21, 16, 12, 189 7, 5, 3 and 1 d before the expected calving date and at 1, 3, 5, 7, 14, 21, 28, 42 and 56 d after calving. 190 The samples were collected into evacuated collection tubes (Vacutainer; BD Medical, New Jersey, 191 USA) containing potassium ethylene diamine tetra-acetic acid (EDTA) and placed on ice. Blood 192 samples were centrifuged at 2,220 x g for 10 min to separate plasma, which was then stored at -20 193 °C for analyses of glucose, insulin, glucagon, β -hydroxybutyrate (**BHB**), NEFA, and glycerol. 194 Plasma samples for 3-methylhistidine (3-MH) were collected at 12 days prior to the expected 195 calving, and at 1, 7 and 28 d after parturition and handled as described above. The samples were 196 precipitated with 10% sulfosalisylic acid and analyzed by UPLC (Acquity UPLC, Waters, USA)

equipped with BEH C18 column (100mm × 2.1mm) according to manufacturer's instructions.
Plasma glycerol was analyzed with a direct colorimetric method (Foster et al., 1978) using a
commercially available kit GY105 (Randox Laboratories Limited, Crumlin, United Kingdom).
Plasma glucose, NEFA and insulin were analyzed as described by Salin et al. (2012) and BHB, 3MH and glucagon as described by Kokkonen et al. (2018). Intra-assay and interassay CVs for plasma
metabolites and hormones, liver TG and total lipids, hepatic, and AT gene expression of enzymes
involved in the gluconeogenesis, and fatty acid metabolism were reported by Selim et al. (2015).

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205 Intravenous glucose tolerance tests (IVGTT) were performed 13 ± 5 d prior to the actual delivery 206 date and 9 ± 1 d postpartum at 0900 h, as described in detail by Salin et al. (2012). Briefly, on the 207 previous day sterile indwelling catheters [left: Mila 14G (Mila International, Kentucky, USA); right: 208 homemade catheter made of silicone tubing] were inserted into jugular veins and sutured to the skin 209 (Vetafil Bengen, Hannover, Germany), and a 25-cm polyvinyl chloride elongation tube (Connecta, 210 BD Medical, Franklin Lakes, NJ) was connected to the catheters. Left catheter was used for glucose 211 infusion and right one for collection of blood samples. Infusion of 0.25 g of glucose/kg of BW 212 (Glucos. 300 mg/mL, B.Braun Melsungen AG, Germany) was performed over 4.5 ± 1.4 min, and 4.6213 \pm 2.3 min (mean \pm SD) pre- and postpartum, respectively with an average infusion rate of 151 \pm 39 214 mL of glucose solution/min. Blood samples were collected via catheters at -10, -5, 0, 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 215 7, 8, 10, 12, 14, 16, 18, 20, 22, 24, 26, 28, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 120, 150, 180, 210 and 240 min 216 relative to the initiation of glucose infusion. The samples were handled as described above. Feed but 217 not water was withheld 2 hours before and during the IVGTT.

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219 Calculations and Statistical Analyses

One cow from CEI was excluded from the trial 4 wk after parturition due to presumed abomasal
problems. The data for one cow in HEI was omitted from the statistical calculations for the first 2

wk of the dry period due to error in treatment allocation. Similarly, the data of one cow in CEI treatment displayed abnormal NEFA response to glucose bolus prepartum, hence the data set of the particular animal was considered outlier and excluded from the analysis of NEFA dynamics during the IVGTT at 13 d prior to parturition.

226

The metabolizable energy concentration of the forages were calculated based on the digestible OM concentration in DM (D-value) and the ME concentration of concentrates based on the feed tables (Luke, 2017). The energy balance (EB) was calculated as the difference between the ME intake and the ME requirements (Luke, 2017). A correction equation for associative effects of feeds and feeding level was used when ME intake was calculated (Luke, 2017). The ECM was calculated according to Sjaunja et al. (1991).

233

234 The net incremental area under the response curve (AUC) for plasma glucose, insulin and NEFA during the first 60 and 240 min of IVGTT was calculated as described by Salin et al. (2017). The 235 236 decrement of NEFA was calculated by subtracting the nadir concentration from the basal NEFA 237 concentration. Clearance rate (CR; %/min) of metabolites and insulin were calculated using PROC 238 NLIN of SAS (version 9.3) as described previously (Pires et al., 2007; Salin et al., 2012). For each IVGTT, the Minimal Model (MM; Bergman, 1989) was applied to glucose and insulin curves using 239 240 a commercial software (MinMod Millenium, MINMOD Inc., Pasadena, CA) with methods described 241 previously (Boston et al., 2003; Salin et al., 2012). Briefly, the model provides values for insulin sensitivity (SI; x 10^{-4} min⁻¹/µIU/mL), defined as the fractional rate of glucose uptake per unit of 242 plasma insulin; glucose effectiveness (Sg; min⁻¹), characterizes non-insulin mediated glucose 243 244 disposal; acute insulin response to glucose (AIR_G; µIU/mL/min), representing the endogenous insulin response to a glucose bolus; and disposition index (DI), a measure of overall glucose 245 246 tolerance, and insulin responsiveness corrected for changes in SI. DI is calculated as the product of SI and AIR_G. For the evaluation of the NEFA dynamics during the IVGTT, a NEFA model was used
(Boston and Moate, 2008).

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250 Data for feed intake, milk production and blood hormone and metabolite concentrations, BW, BCS, 251 EB, and postpartal plasma 3-MH and back muscle diameter were analyzed as repeated measures 252 ANOVA using the MIXED procedure of SAS version 9.3 (SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA). 253 Prepartum and postpartum data were analyzed separately. Measurements of DMI, EB, and milk 254 production were reduced to weekly means before statistical analysis. Three covariance structures 255 were tested for each variable analyzed; compound symmetry (CS), unstructured (UN) and 256 autoregressive order 1 [AR(1)]. For unequally spaced measures, spatial power [SP(POW)] was used 257 instead of AR(1). The statistical model included fixed effects of treatment, time (day or week relative 258 to calving), the interaction between treatment and time (diet x time), and a random effect of block 259 and interaction between block and time. Degrees of freedom were estimated by using the Kenward-260 Roger option in the model statement. The covariance structure that resulted in the smallest 261 Schwarz's Bayesian information criterion was used.

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The data of BW, BCS and EB at particular time points and their changes, prepartal plasma 3-MH and back muscle diameter, as well as data derived from the IVGTT were analyzed by ANOVA with a model including fixed effect of treatment and random effect of block using the PROC MIXED of SAS (version 9.3; SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC). A fixed effect of interval between the sampling day and the actual day of parturition was included in the statistical model of the prepartal IVGTT data.

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Prior to statistical analysis, residuals of each variable were checked for normality using the MIXED and UNIVARIATE procedures of SAS. To correct for the deviations from normality and homoscedasticity of the residuals for the data of each variable, the variables were subjected to

212	reciprocal or log-transformation (LN), when needed. The Friedman's nonparametric test was used
273	whenever the above mentioned normalization processes were not effective, as was the case in the
274	MM derived prepartal estimates SI and Sg. All values in the tables and figures are reported as least
275	squares means and standard error of the mean (SEM). Back-transformed least squares means, and
276	SEM are reported from the analysis of transformed data. The relationships between plasma
277	concentrations and calculated parameters describing insulin sensitivity during IVGTT were
278	investigated by Spearman's correlation analysis, using the CORR procedure of SAS. The effects were
279	considered statistically significant at P < 0.05, and trends for effects are discussed at $0.05 \le P < 0.10$.
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281	RESULTS
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282 283	Diets and Intakes
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282 283 284 285 286 287 288 289 290	<i>Diets and Intakes</i> The analyzed composition of prepartum and postpartum diets is shown in Table 1. The formulation of TMR was successful and the targeted difference in the NDF-content of the diets between HEI and CEI was achieved. The average NDF-content of the GS of HEI was lower than the NDF levels measured from the preliminary samples, leading to an average NDF difference of 120 g/kg of DM between the treatments. The inclusion of rapeseed meal in the TMR was successful in balancing the CP content of CEI close to the CP content of GS fed in HEI. The digestible OM content (D-value) of the CEI was, as expected, lower than that of HEI.

The experimental design led to expected significant differences in DMI and intakes of other nutrients as well as in ME-intakes between the treatments during the prepartum period (Table 2). The total DM and forage DM intake (Figure 1) of HEI was 2.2 and 2.9 kg/d higher in HEI than in CEI during the dry period, respectively (P < 0.01). The DMI expressed as % of BW tended to be greater during the entire dry period in HEI than in CEI (P = 0.05) and the significant diet x time interaction showed that 297 the difference in DMI was largest on wk -8 and -6 relative to parturition, averaging 2.0% and 1.5% 298 of BW (SEM 0.12; P = 0.04). The EB during the dry period (Figure 2) was approximately 30 % greater in HEI than in CEI (P < 0.001) and the average energy intake was 141% and 108 % (SEM 299 300 5.46; P < 0.001) of the requirements (Luke, 2017) in HEI and in CEI, respectively. After parturition, 301 the dry period feeding had no effect on total DMI and intakes of nutrients except for a significant 302 difference in concentrate DMI. The HEI cows had higher intake of concentrates than CEI cows from 303 wk 4 onwards (diet x time P = 0.05), resulting in 0.4 kg/d greater postpartal average DMI of 304 concentrates in HEI than in CEI (SEM 0.09; P = 0.003). The energy balance was not affected by the 305 prepartal dietary treatment after the parturition (P = 0.46).

306

307 Body Reserves

308 The cows were dry for an average of 67 ± 11.1 d (mean \pm SD). The parameters describing the changes 309 of body reserves are shown in Table 3. The initial BW and BCS were not different between 310 treatments, by design. However, the significant diet x time interactions in BW (P = 0.005) and BCS 311 (P = 0.02) during the dry period indicated steeper increment of BW and BCS in HEI than in CEI 312 (Supplemental figure S1 and S2). The BW change from d -56 to d -5 prior to parturition was greater 313 in HEI than in CEI (P = 0.03) and accounted for a total increment of 75.0 vs. 40.8 kg (SEM 9.1), 314 respectively. The BCS change tended to be greater in HEI than in CEI prepartum and increased in 315 total 0.37 vs. 0.14 (SEM 0.08; P = 0.07) from d -56 to d -5. The birth weights of calves did not differ 316 between the treatments. We found no treatment and no diet x time interaction effects on either BW, BCS or changes in these parameters during the early lactation. Back muscle diameter on -14 d 317 318 prepartum was similar in both groups but declined to a smaller average value in CEI than in HEI 319 during the first 4 wk of lactation (P = 0.01). We observed no differences in back fat thickness.

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321 Plasma Metabolites and Hormone Concentrations

322 Basal plasma hormone and metabolite concentrations are depicted in Table 4. The concentration of 323 plasma glucose before parturition was higher in HEI than in CEI, and the difference was most evident 324 during the last 2 wk of pregnancy (diet x time, P = 0.06; Figure 3). After parturition, the HEI cows 325 tended to have higher glucose concentrations than CEI cows (P = 0.09). We found a tendency for greater insulin levels in HEI than in CEI during the dry period (P = 0.07), the difference being most 326 327 pronounced during the last 4 wk prior to parturition (diet x time, P=0.08; Figure 4). The insulin 328 concentration did not differ between treatments after parturition. We did not observe a difference in 329 either the plasma glucagon concentration or in the glucagon to insulin ratio during the experimental 330 period. The average plasma concentration of NEFA did not differ prepartum, but the rise of NEFA 331 concentration during the last week of pregnancy tended to be steeper in CEI than in HEI (diet x time, 332 P = 0.07; Figure 5). After parturition, there were no differences in the average plasma NEFA 333 concentration. Plasma BHB concentrations were greater in HEI than in CEI during the dry period (P 334 = 0.006; Figure 6). After calving, the BHB levels increased until 2 wk and 4 wk of lactation in HEI 335 and CEI, respectively. CEI cows had higher BHB at wk 6 and 8 (diet x time, P = 0.07). Plasma 336 glycerol concentrations were not affected by the prepartal dietary treatments. Plasma 3-MH tended 337 to be higher in CEI than in HEI on -12 d prepartum (P = 0.09), while no differences in plasma 3-MH 338 were found after parturition.

339

340 Milk Production and Composition

The milk production parameters are depicted in Table 5. The average milk yield and the ECM were not affected by the treatments. However, a significant diet x time interaction was observed, indicating higher milk yield in HEI than CEI from week 5 onwards, the average difference being 5.3 ± 1.6 kg on wk 7 and 8 (P = 0.007; Supplemental figure S3). The feed efficiency (ECM/kg DMI) was not affected by prepartal diet. Increase in feed efficiency tended to be greater in HEI than in CEI during the first 2 wk of lactation, the difference was most pronounced in wk 2 (diet x time, P = 0.07). Milk fat-% was greater in HEI vs. CEI on lactation wk 1, 2, and 6 (diet x time, P = 0.003). Milk protein and lactose concentrations were not different between treatments. Milk urea tended to be higher in HEI than in CEI over time, the difference being most pronounced on lactation wk 4 (diet x time, P =0.09). The fat yield was not different between treatments. The protein yield tended to be higher in HEI vs. CEI from wk 6 onwards, the difference being greatest on wk 8 (diet x time, P = 0.05). The lactose yield was higher in HEI than in CEI on wk 8 (diet x time, P = 0.01).

353

354 Glucose, Insulin, and NEFA Dynamics During the IVGTT

Basal and peak concentrations, and CR of glucose prepartum were not affected by the dietary 355 356 treatments (Table 6). However, glucose area under the response curve was smaller in HEI than in 357 CEI during the prepartal IVGTT (AUC₂₄₀; P = 0.02; Figure 7A). Prepartal diet affected the 358 endogenous insulin response to glucose infusion during the IVGTT at 13 d prior to parturition (Figure 359 7B). The peak concentration (P = 0.01) and the AUC of insulin during the first hour of the IVGTT (P 360 = 0.03) were greater in HEI than in CEI, and the AUC during the 240 min IVGTT tended to be greater 361 in HEI than in CEI (P = 0.05). The effect of the interval between the IVGTT and the day of calving 362 was significant during the prepartal IVGTT for insulin peak concentration and insulin AUC (P < 363 0.05), indicating that cows closer to their due date had smaller insulin AUC and lower peak concentrations. The basal and nadir concentrations of NEFA, as well as CR and AUC did not differ 364 365 between treatments pre- and postpartum (Figure 7C). However, during the prepartal IVGTT the NEFA Model derived parameter for latency was greater (P = 0.04) and FFA0 tended to be smaller (P 366 = 0.09) in HEI than in CEI. 367

368

The dry period dietary treatment had minor effect on MM estimates, as the only significant difference was higher AIRg in HEI than in CEI (P = 0.002) during the prepartal IVGTT (Table 6). The effect of the interval between the IVGTT and the day of calving was significant during the prepartal IVGTT for DI (P = 0.03), showing that the closer the due date the lower the DI. The values of Sg, SI and DI did not differ between the treatments at either time points (P > 0.10).

374

We found no treatment differences in glucose, insulin and NEFA responses to infusion of glucose after parturition (P > 0.10; Figure 8). The basal NEFA had a strong positive correlation with NEFA decrement both in prepartal (r = 0.98; P < 0.001) and postpartal (r = 0.74; P < 0.001) IVGTT. Similarly, basal NEFA had a negative association with NEFA AUC₆₀ both in prepartal (r = -0.69; P < 0.004) and in postpartal IVGTT (r = -0.50; P = 0.049).

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DISCUSSION

382 The main objective of this study was to investigate whether controlling energy intake of dairy cows 383 by diluting a moderately digestible GS with WS during the 8 wk dry period affects whole body IR, and tissue deposition and mobilization during the early lactation in comparison to ad libitum access 384 385 of GS. We assessed these conditions by measuring the changes of plasma metabolite and hormone 386 concentrations under basal and stimulated conditions, as well as by investigating the changes on 387 BCS and BW, and on production performance of early lactation. Given that GS is the main source of forage for dairy cows in many Northern European countries during the indoor feeding period, we 388 389 have previously assessed the effects of different allowances of sole GS during the dry period on metabolic and production responses (Salin et al. 2017; Kokkonen et al., 2018). In the present 390 391 experiment, GS as a sole forage source, and GS diluted with straw fed ad libitum where chosen for 392 comparison to investigate a more practical feeding regime for loose housing systems.

393

394 Dry matter intake

395 The prepartal DMI was well maintained in CEI cows in accordance to earlier studies showing that 396 controlling of energy intake either by restriction of the amount of TMR or GS (Agenäs et al., 2003; 397 Kokkonen et al., 2018) or the composition of the diet (Rabelo et al., 2003; Vickers et al., 2013) 398 prevented the decline in DMI during the last weeks of pregnancy. The moderate decline in prepartal 399 DMI of HEI cows during the last 4 wk prepartum in the current study (0.9 ± 0.73 kg/d) is in 400 agreement with Agenäs et al., (2003) who reported an average of 1 kg/d decline in DMI during the 401 same time period in overfed cows on GS-based diets. In comparison, the DMI decline in cows fed 402 ad libitum GS with or without barley straw in a series of experiments during the final 5 wk of the dry 403 period (NDF range 452 to 689 g/kg DM) was in average 1.47 kg/day, half of which occurred during 404 the week preceding calving (Dewhurst et al., 2010). Although we did not investigate digestibility of 405 the nutrients in this study, the lower intake of CEI is at least partly attributable to the lower nutrient 406 digestibility resulting from inherent characteristics of straw fiber (Dewhurst et al., 2000).

407

408 We did not find any difference in postpartal DMI in agreement with other studies with moderate (30 409 to 40 %) overfeeding of energy during the dry period (Butler et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2015; 410 Kokkonen et al., 2018). These results contrast with previous studies showing that high energy diets 411 (150 to 160% of energy requirement) during late pregnancy resulted in lower feed intake during the 412 early lactation in MS-based diets (Dann et al., 2006; Douglas et al., 2006; Janovick and Drackley, 413 2010). The moderately, but statistically significantly lower concentrate DMI in CEI than HEI after 414 parturition, especially during the second month of lactation, could possibly be a carry-over effect of 415 the prepartal TMR. The inclusion of WS into diet of CEI may have affected rumen adaptation 416 mechanism, e.g. papillae development and structural changes (Odongo et al., 2006; Steele et al., 417 2011). The very moderate amount of concentrates given for only 12 ± 5 d (mean \pm SD) prepartum 418 may have resulted in a too low non-structural carbohydrate (NSC) intake of CEI in order to optimize 419 the adaptation to a concentrate rich lactation ration after parturition. In fact, higher contents of 420 digestible carbohydrate, such as starch, enhanced the overall VFA absorption capacity via rumen
421 papillae development (Goodlad, 1981; Dirksen et al., 1985).

422

423 Plasma Metabolites and Hormones

Higher prepartal concentration of basal glucose in cows fed high energy diets compared with 424 425 controlled energy diets during the entire 8 wk dry period is analogous with earlier research (Douglas 426 et al., 2006; Janovick et al., 2011; Mann et al., 2016), whereas we did not observe a corresponding 427 difference when different amounts of GS were fed to dry cows during the 6 wk dry period 428 (Kokkonen et al., 2018). The higher blood glucose concentration in HEI is most likely a result of 429 increased availability of propionate for hepatic gluconeogenesis (Janovick et al., 2011; Mann et al., 430 2016) as the TMR with high amounts of straw lacks precursors for gluconeogenesis. Correspondent 431 with higher glucose levels, the HEI cows tended to have higher insulin concentration during the prepartal period, analogous to other recent studies showing that energy overfeeding during the dry 432 433 period resulted in higher prepartum insulin concentrations compared with cows fed restricted energy 434 (Holtenius et al., 2003; Douglas et al., 2006; Janovick et al., 2011). The higher, but still moderate 435 plasma BHB in HEI than in CEI cows prepartum is most likely a consequence of a greater ruminal butyrate production due to higher intake of GS, and not an indicator of metabolic imbalance (Roche 436 437 et al., 2013). In line with this, the mRNA expression of mitochondrial CPT1 activity in the liver at 438 d -14, 1 and 7 d relative to parturition was not changed in the current animals (Selim et al., 2015) 439 suggesting that the translocation of FA derivatives to hepatic mitochondrial beta-oxidation was 440 unchanged around parturition. The results agree with earlier studies reporting lower prepartal BHB 441 in cows on controlled energy diets than in cows on higher energy diets with a normal or low BCS at dry-off (Mann et al., 2015; Little et al., 2016). Butler et al., (2011) showed greater blood 442 443 concentrations of BHB in GS fed cows than in cows fed a wheat-based TMR at 1 wk before

parturition and during the first 4 weeks postpartum without any treatment effect on incidence ofketosis.

446

447 The tendency for higher plasma glucose in HEI after parturition is inconsistent with the absence of 448 differences in plasma glucagon concentration or glucagon to insulin ration suggesting no differences 449 in gluconeogenesis from amino acids and lactate (Aschenbach et al. 2010). The higher plasma glucose is also inconsistent with the results of Selim et al. (2015) from the same cows suggesting 450 451 attenuated increase of hepatic gluconeogenic activity from propionate in HEI, as the hepatic PCK1 452 mRNA expression was downregulated in HEI but not in CEI at d 1 and d 7 of lactation when 453 compared with d -8. The higher BHB concentration in CEI than HEI at d 42 and 56 indicates 454 compensation of insufficient supply of glucose precursors, as suggested by lower concentrate DMI. The higher BHB concentration may have also served as tissue protective mechanism in CEI, because 455 456 BHB has been shown to inhibit basal AT lipolysis in vitro in a dose-dependent matter (Van der Drift 457 et al., 2013). Thus, the feed-back mechanisms may have prevented toxic effects of high BHB levels 458 on tissues by shutting down further release of additional NEFA (Rukkwamsuk et al., 1998). This 459 may explain the lack of differences in NEFA concentrations between CEI and HEI at d 42 and 56.

460

461 Indicators of Tissue Accretion and Mobilization

The cows in HEI gained more BW during the 8 wk dry period. Although the difference in BW gain between energy levels was greater in the present experiment than in our previous experiment (Kokkonen et al. 2018), we expected a larger response of surplus EI on BW and BCS gain before calving. According to the Finnish nutrient requirements (Luke 2017) an average ME-difference of 466 34 MJ/d between the treatments during the dry period should have resulted in an approximate 467 difference of 1 kg/d in daily BW change instead of reported value of 0.6 kg/d. Thus, our findings 468 support recent studies postulating that ME requirements of pregnant cows may be underestimated in 469 different energy calculation systems, and that the actual requirements for maintenance and lactation 470 may be larger than reported (Mandok et al., 2013; Kokkonen and Vanhatalo, 2014). Moreover, it 471 seems that cows in a fairly good body condition at dry-off, as were all the cows in our study, do not gain a lot of BCS (0.3 units in average) in GS-based feeding during an 8 wk dry period in agreement 472 473 with our recent study with a shorter dry period of 6 wk (Kokkonen et al., 2018). However, higher 474 prepartal energy intake affected the onset of excessive tissue mobilization near calving. The tendency 475 for a more pronounced rise of plasma NEFA and higher plasma 3-MH in CEI in the weeks preceding 476 calving indicates that CEI cows initiated the mobilization process at an earlier stage precalving.

477

478 In contrast to studies showing that postpartal BW losses and NEFA concentrations were lower when dietary energy intake was restricted prepartum (reflecting positive effect of dry period feeding level 479 480 on energy balance postpartum) in TMR fed dairy cows (Douglas et al., 2006; Janovick and Drackley 481 2010; Janovick et al., 2011), we did not find any differences neither in BW and BCS losses nor in 482 plasma NEFA concentrations after parturition. Our data suggest that cows on GS-based diets pre-483 and postpartum are not prone to large changes in BCS and BW after parturition, concordant with 484 studies on similar forage type (Agenäs et al., 2003; Vickers et al., 2013; Little et al., 2016; Kokkonen 485 et al., 2018). More pronounced differences in prepartal BW changes on GS or MS diets have resulted 486 in increased AT mobilization after parturition (Kokkonen et al, 2005; Douglas et al., 2006). Our 487 results suggest that overfeeding on GS-based diets has only moderate effect on metabolic flexibility 488 of transition dairy cows. Conversely, a recent review underlined negative effects of over-489 conditioning on MS-based diets with excessive AT mobilization on metabolic disorders of cows in 490 early lactation (Drackley and Cardoso, 2014). The observed strong positive correlation of initial BCS 491 and that of the BCS at 5 d prior to parturition is in agreement with Kokkonen et al. (2018). These 492 findings support the earlier suggestions (Friggens et al., 2004) implying that dairy cows have an

inherent level of body reserves towards which their metabolism is aiming for during the late lactation
and in the transition period in order to restore the genetically predestined body condition. Further,
the absence of differences in BCS at calving or in the mobilization of body tissues after parturition
imply that neither the BCS at calving (as suggested by e.g. Roche et al., 2009; 2015; Pires et al.,
2013) nor the prepartal energy intake per se were determinants of the postpartal performance after
parturition in the current study.

499

500 Production Responses

501 The milk yield was moderately affected by prepartal feeding, as we observed greater milk yield in 502 HEI than CEI from wk 4 onwards. Earlier studies comparing GS and mixture of GS and straw 503 prepartum reported increased milk yield with GS (Dewhurst et al., 2000; McNamara et al., 2003; 504 Ryan et al., 2003). However, those studies showed that the greatest influence on milk production performance was observed during the early weeks after calving. This probably resulted from 505 506 improved BCS at calving on GS, because the initial BCS at beginning of the dry period feeding was 507 below 2.75 (McNamara et al., 2003; Ryan et al., 2003). Apparently, an identical temporal effect on 508 the milk yield with the current one was found in our former experiment (Kokkonen et al., 2018) 509 conducted at the same institute with genetically similar animals from the same herd, fed with 510 different amounts of GS during the dry period. However, as opposed to current results, the cows on 511 controlled energy diet cows tended to produce more milk in the earlier study (Kokkonen et al., 2018). 512 A common element of these two studies was a slightly lower intake of concentrates during the early 513 lactation in those animals producing less milk after the first month. In the present study, it seems 514 that a large proportion of straw in the dry period diet or the short concentrate feeding period, or both, 515 had a negative effect on adaptation of rumen to postcalving diets and subsequent production 516 responses, as discussed earlier in this paper. With a moderately digestible GS, there is no need to dilute the feed composition by adding of straw, as this dry period feeding practice had moderate 517

negative carry-over effects on postpartal concentrate intake and consequently on early lactation performance in multiparous cows of good body condition at calving. The lack of treatment effects on milk fat and protein contents is in line with earlier experiments on GS-based diets (Agenäs et al., 2003; Kokkonen et al., 2018) reflecting the absence of any obvious differences in energy balance and lipid mobilization during the early lactation. This also indicates that early lactating cows have a potential to compensate for changes in prepartal nutrient intake providing that the cows receive a standard lactation ration of high quality (Agenäs et al., 2003).

525

526 *IVGTT*

527 The observed greater insulin response of HEI cows before calving (greater AUC of insulin and AIRg) 528 and the subsequent smaller AUC of glucose suggest that glucose tolerance of HEI was preserved 529 before parturition. However, any environmental change in insulin sensitivity, for instance in response 530 to obesity, will be compensated by an increase in insulin secretion in response to glucose (Bergman, 531 1989; Kahn et al., 1993). Given the former, we may speculate that the greater insulin secretion in 532 HEI was a compensatory mechanism in response to reduced insulin sensitivity of the peripheral 533 tissues to preserve the glucose tolerance. Salin et al. (2017) found no effect of higher energy intake 534 on insulin response when comparing different GS allowances during the dry period. Similarly, 535 overfeeding of energy in the close-up dry period alone or during the entire dry period did not affect 536 insulin response during IVGTT in cows on TMR based on MS plus WS (Schoenberg et al., 2012; 537 Mann et al., 2016). In contrast, Jaakson et al., (2018) reported higher insulin response to IVGTT at -538 21 d in cows with BCS > 3.75 (1-5 scale) when compared with thin cows (BCS < 3.0) on GS and 539 hay based TMR. However, as opposed to current results, the over-conditioned cows had larger glucose AUC than the thinner cows, indicating a higher degree of IR. The discrepancies between 540 541 studies may stem from different timing of the challenges, and from differences in feed composition, 542 breed, and from dissimilarities in initial and achieved BCS between treatments.

In agreement with Salin et al. (2017) reporting attenuated NEFA response of overfed cows during 544 545 the prepartal IVGTT and enhanced sensitivity of AT after parturition, we found indications of dietary 546 effects on insulin's action on inhibition of lipolysis on GS-based diets. However, the effects in this 547 study were evident only before parturition, as the HEI cows needed greater insulin concentrations to 548 elicit a similar NEFA response than CEI cows in prepartal IVGTT. The former may reflect reduced 549 AT sensitivity to insulin in response to overfeeding. The greater latency of NEFA response during 550 the prepartal IVGTT in HEI than in CEI reinforces the suggestion that insulin sensitivity in AT of 551 HEI was affected by dry period energy intake. The latency is thought to result from the time it takes for the challenge to trigger the suppression of lipolysis (Boston and Moate, 2008). The extended 552 553 latency period of HEI cows in prepartal IVGTT, together with the higher insulin response and a 554 similar eventual NEFA suppression, may insinuate that the antilipolytic action of insulin was 555 compromised in cows with higher BW gain during the dry period. Similarly, cows that where losing 556 high levels of BW had more refractory AT to insulin both pre and postpartum (Zachut et al., 2013). 557 By contrast, Mann et al., (2016) did not find any effect of different energy intake on NEFA response 558 during the transition period, neither did Marett et al., (2015) during different stages of lactation. 559 Insulin response of the glucose metabolism, but not that of fatty acid metabolism, was negatively 560 associated with excessive accumulation of AT in late pregnant dairy cows as assessed by HEC test, 561 while insulin sensitivity in AT of over conditioned cows with greater adipocytes was preserved in 562 vitro (De Koster et al., 2015, 2016). Recently, glucose transporter 4 protein synthesis in AT of 563 overconditioned cows was reduced, suggesting a more severe IR prepartum, while no differences in insulin signaling potential were found relative to thinner cows (Jaakson et al., 2018). 564

565

We showed that basal NEFA had a strong correlation with NEFA decrement and NEFA AUC duringIVGTT both pre- and postpartum. Analogous results have been reported in studies where insulin

sensitivity was assessed by different methods (Patton et al., 2009; Schoenberg et al., 2012; De Koster 568 569 et al., 2015; Salin et al., 2017). The results may imply that the NEFA decrement during stimulated 570 conditions is not only a result of the direct insulin response (the insulin AUC) after a glucose bolus 571 but is also partially mediated by the secondary effect of insulin and lipolytic agents on basal lipolysis 572 prior to IVGTT. Indeed, increased fatness of dairy cows amplified the lipolytic response of AT to 573 catecholamine stimulation (Kokkonen et al., 2005) especially in the dry period (Theilgaard et al., 574 2002). Similarly, both the basal and stimulated in vitro AT sensitivity to lipolytic agents were greater 575 in over-conditioned than in normal conditioned cows before parturition (De Koster et al., 2016a). 576 Furthermore, in humans at least, the inhibitory action of insulin on AT lipolysis is dependent on the 577 prevailing lipolytic activity, such that the antilipolytic effect of the hormone is more pronounced 578 when the rate of lipolysis is augmented, probably due to increased insulin receptor and signal 579 transduction activity (Zierath et al., 1998). Finally, the shutdown of lipolysis during the IVGTT 580 challenge of ruminants may also be partly directly regulated by glucose, which is the metabolic driver 581 of the degree of NEFA suppression in human AT cells (Arner et al., 1983; Qvisth et al., 2004).

582

583 Whilst it was not our main intention to compare insulin responsiveness and sensitivity of tissues at 584 different time points in the current study, we found that MM derived values of SI and DI for the 585 IVGTT at -13 d were numerically smaller than at +9 d. When the relationship of SI and AIRg (= 586 DI) is visualized as shown in Figure 9, the left and upward shift of the DI values in HEI at -13 d 587 relative to parturition underpin that the compensatory insulin secretion to match the decrease in 588 insulin sensitivity was sufficient. However, as the DI reflects the ability of the β -cells of the 589 pancreatic islets to compensate for IR (Bergman, 1989) the very low prepartal values of DI point to 590 an insulin insensitive pancreas in response to glucose and to an overall lower compensation for 591 decreased insulin sensitivity in all animals indicated also by very low SI values in agreement with 592 earlier studies (Stanley, 2005; De Koster et al., 2016b; Salin et al., 2017). Further, in comparison to

593 postpartal values across the treatments, the transformation of the values to the right indicate that as 594 the value of SI is greater after parturition there is no need to an additional compensation in insulin 595 secretion indicated by lower DI and AIRg after parturition, in agreement with Salin et al., (2017). 596 Indications of improvement in overall sensitivity of tissues to insulin in early lactation have been published based on different determination methods of IR (Stanley, 2005; Oliveira et al., 2016). 597 598 Opposing results suggest that (peripheral) insulin sensitivity of dairy cows is not profoundly changed during the transition period, regardless of prepartal feeding and degree of body fat mobilization 599 600 (Mann et al., 2016; de Koster et al., 2016a; Weber et al., 2016). Varied results from range of different 601 methods of studying IR in cows in late pregnancy and early lactation clearly highlight the challenges 602 in investigation of the transition period metabolism (Marett et al., 2015; De Koster et al., 2017). 603 Additional research is needed to elicit a consensus on the applicability of the Minimal Model in 604 periparturient dairy cows.

605

606 Overall, as our previous experiment showed, that when the dry period was relatively short, and the 607 oversupply of energy on GS-based diets was gradually decreased in the close-up dry period, the 608 effects of overfeeding on whole body insulin sensitivity were only evident in the level of AT (Salin 609 et al., 2017). By contrast, GS fed ad libitum for a longer period of 8 wk, as in the present study, 610 generating a more positive EB in dry cows, did not only induce a delayed response to insulin in AT, 611 but also increased insulin secretion in response to IVGTT near parturition. This, in turn accelerated 612 plasma glucose disappearance and inhibited glucose output or both, preserving peripheral glucose 613 tolerance. Not only the difference in energy intake, but also the greater potential of GS to supply 614 glucogenic precursors in comparison to the mixture of GS and WS contributed to the observed 615 effects on glucose and NEFA dynamics orchestrated via insulin.

616

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CONCLUSIONS

619 Overfeeding energy in grass silage-based diet resulted in elevated BW and BCS gain during the dry 620 period. However, given the average difference of 40% in prepartal energy intake between the 621 treatments, we observed smaller than expected differences in BW gain during the dry period. Contrary to the hypothesis, high energy intake during the dry period did not affect mobilization of body 622 reserves and feed intake after calving, whereas milk yield was greater from wk 5 onwards in overfed 623 624 cows. Parameters from prepartal IVGTT indicated that overfed cows had more pronounced insulin 625 response to glucose load and a smaller glucose AUC, reflecting preserved glucose tolerance. Further, 626 the delayed NEFA response during prepartal IVGTT suggest attenuated inhibition of lipolysis in 627 response to oversupply of energy. The dietary differences in propionic acid availability leading to 628 lower prepartal glucose and insulin levels in TMR fed cows most likely contributed to the observed 629 responses during the IVGTT prepartum. These effects of prepartal feeding on insulin sensitivity did 630 not carry over to the early lactation. Our results suggest that controlling energy intake of dry cows by 631 dilution of moderately digestible grass silage by straw is not beneficial for optimally conditioned 632 cows. In conclusion, ad libitum feeding of moderately digestible grass silage during the dry period 633 had only transient effects on metabolic adaptation and insulin sensitivity during the transition period. This feeding regime was more favorable to early lactation performance than ad libitum fed TMR of 634 grass silage diluted with WS. 635

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Table 1. Chemical composition and calculated energy content of forages and concentrates in dietary treatments CEI¹ and HEI²

Item	TMR ³	Grass	Wheat	Rapeseed	Grass	Grass	Concentrate ⁹	Protein
	CEI	silage ⁴	straw ⁵	meal ⁶	silage ⁷	silage ⁸		supplement ¹⁰
		CEI	CEI	CEI	HEI	Lactation		
DM, g/kg	272	201	813	880	273	288	873	871
Ash, g/kg DM	60	63	74	68	84	85	69	83
CP, g/kg DM	122	146	48	368	129	146	196	288
Ether extract, g/kg DM	-	-	-	57	-	-	50	78
NDF, g/kg DM	651	595	775	273	531	527	211	202
ME, MJ/kg DM	9.1	10.7	6.4	11.4^{11}	10.1	11.0	12.8^{12}	13.0^{12}
D-value, g/kg DM ¹³	587	668	457	-	638	687	-	-
MP, g/kg DM	-	80.5	42.0	169 ¹¹	62.4	67.3	119 ¹²	140 ¹²

 1 CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d

 2 HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements/d

³ Total mixed ration fed to CEI during the dry period

⁴Grass silage in TMR fed to CEI during the dry period. Mean fermentation characteristics: pH 3.9; (% in DM) lactic acid (3.8), acetic acid (1.5),

894 butyric acid (0.034), propionic acid (0.14), sugars (6.7); (% of total N) ammonium-N (6.7); soluble N (62).

⁵ Wheat straw in TMR fed to CEI during the dry period.

⁶Rapeseed meal in TMR fed to CEI during the dry period

⁷Grass silage fed to HEI during the dry period. Mean fermentation characteristics: pH 4.1; (% in DM) lactic acid (3.3), acetic acid (0.70), butyric

898 acid (0.00), propionic acid (0.12), sugars (1.6); (% of total N) ammonium-N (5.5); soluble N (47).

⁸Grass silage fed during lactation. Mean fermentation characteristics: pH 4.4; (% in DM) lactic acid (3.3), acetic acid (1.4), butyric acid (0.20),

900 propionic acid (0.12), sugars (1.1); (% of total N) ammonium-N (6.8); soluble N (61)

901 ⁹Concentrate fed during the last 12 ± 5 d (mean \pm SD) of pregnancy and during lactation.

- 902 ¹⁰ Protein supplement fed during lactation.
- 903 ¹¹ Values adopted from Luke (2017)
- 904 ¹² Values provided by the manufacturer (Raisio Oy Ltd; Raisio, Finland)
- 905 ¹³ In vitro digestible organic matter in DM

Table 2. Effect of dry period energy intake and diet composition on DMI and energy balance

	CEI ¹	HEI ²	SEM	P-va	lue
Item				Diet	Diet x Time
Prepartum					
Forage DM, kg/d	10.8	13.7	0.46	< 0.001	0.74
Concentrate, DM, kg/d^3	1.3	1.4	0.10	0.77	0.03
Total DM kg/d	12.0	14.2	0.50	0.002	0.64
DMI, % of BW	1.58	1.86	0.10	0.05	0.04
NDF, kg/d	7.5	7.3	0.3	0.70	0.29
MP, kg/d	0.86	0.89	0.03	0.41	0.54
ME, MJ/d	109	144	4.8	< 0.001	0.52
ME-balance, MJ/d	8.52	39.4	4.97	0.004	0.51
Postpartum					
Silage DM, kg/d	11.2	11.3	0.54	0.88	0.82
Concentrate DM, kg/d	10.9	11.3	0.09	0.003	0.05
Total DM, kg/d	22.1	22.6	0.57	0.52	0.57
NDF, kg/d	8.17	8.33	0.29	0.71	0.56
MP, kg/d	2.10	2.17	0.41	0.27	0.34
ME, MJ/d	262	270	6.56	0.42	0.57
ME balance, MJ/d	-47.3	-56.4	8.69	0.46	0.25

 1 CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d

 2 HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements/d

910 ³Concentrate fed during the last 12 ± 5 d (mean \pm SD) of pregnancy

Item	CEI^1	HEI ²	SEM	P-value
Prepartum				
Body condition score (-8 wk)	3.5	3.4	0.20	0.37
Body condition score, (-5 d)	3.7	3.8	0.20	0.78
Body condition score change	0.14	0.37	0.08	0.07
Body weight, kg (-8 wk)	740	725	39.0	0.12
Body weight, kg (-5 d)	781	800	39.3	0.91
Body weight change, kg/d	0.8	1.4	0.16	0.03
Calf weight, kg	41.2	41.0	1.73	0.91
Back fat thickness, mm $(-14 \text{ d})^3$	3.7	5.4	1.10	0.21
Back muscle diameter, $mm(-14 d)^3$	51.3	52.2	2.29	0.65
Postpartum				
Body condition score, +8 wk	2.9	3.1	0.21	0.37
Body weight, kg $(+1/2 d)$	719	718	39.8	0.98
Body weight, kg (+8 wk)	700	692	18.9	0.50
Body weight change, kg/d	-0.6	-0.8	0.26	0.73
Back fat thickness, mm ^{3,4}	1.12	1.35	0.262	0.36
	(3.1)	(3.9)		
Change in back fat thickness (mm) ⁵	-0.6	-1.0	0.44	0.51
Back muscle diameter, mm ³	45.3	47.8	2.17	0.01
Change in back muscle diameter (mm) ⁵	-9.2	-6.6	1.6	0.28

Table 3. Effect of dry period energy intake and diet composition on body composition

 $^{1}CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d$

 2 HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements/d 3 Measured with ultrasound on m. longissimus dorsi, pars lumbalis

⁴ Values after transformation, back-transformed values are given in parenthesis

⁵ The change from d -14 to d +28 relative to parturition.

				<i>P</i> -value	
Item	CEI^1	HEI ²	SEM	Diet	Diet x Time
Prepartum					
Glucose, mmol/l	3.8	4.0	0.06	0.049	0.06
Log Insulin, µIU/ml ³	2.67	3.00	0.151	0.07	0.08
	(14.4)	(20.1)			
1 / Glucagon, pg/ml ^{3, 4}	0.0078	0.0071	0.0006	0.45	0.33
	(128.2)	(140.8)			
Log Glucagon:insulin, mol/mol ^{3, 4}	-1.00	-1.03	0.126	0.86	0.60
	(0.37)	(0.36)			
Log Non-esterified fatty acids, mmol/l	-1.93	-2.09	0.097	0.26	0.07
	(0.15)	(0.12)			
BHB, mmol/l	0.61	0.67	0.018	0.006	0.27
Log Glycerol, µmol/L ^{3, 5}	3.75	3.83	0.055	0.32	0.93
	(42.5)	(46.1			
3-MH, µmol/l (d -12)	7.48	5.80	0.734	0.09	-
Postpartum					
Glucose, mmol/l	3.2	3.4	0.09	0.09	0.45
Log Insulin, µIU/ml	2.12	2.22	0.107	0.52	0.37
c .	(8.3)	(9.2)			
1 / Glucagon, pg/ml ^{3, 6}	0.0069	0.0076	0.0006	0.43	0.37
	(144.9)	(131.6)			
Log Glucagon:insulin, mol/mol ⁶	-0.33	-0.50	0.142	0.40	0.26
	(0.72)	(0.61)			
Log Non-esterified fatty acids, $mmol/L^3$	-1.06	-0.97	0.133	0.62	0.28
· ·	(0.35)	(0.38)			
1 / BHB, mmol/l	0.76	0.89	0.091	0.32	0.01
	(1.32)	(1.12)			
Log Glycerol, µmol/L ³	3.89	3.96	0.074	0.48	0.21
	(48.9)	(52.5)			
3-MH, μ mol/l ⁷	9.28	8.78	0.819	0.68	0.19

Table 4. Effect of dry period energy intake and diet composition on blood hormone and metabolite concentration

 $^{1}CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d$

 2 HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements/d

³ Values after transformation, back-transformed values are given in parenthesis

⁴ Sampled on d -56, -12, and d -3 relative to parturition

⁵ Sampled on d -56, -42, -12, -7, -5, -3, and d -1 relative to parturition

⁶ Sampled on d 1, 7, 14, and d 28 relative to parturition

 7 3-MH = Plasma 3-methylhistidine concentration sampled on d 1, 7, and d 28 relative to parturition

				<i>P</i> -value		
Item	CEI^1	HEI ²	SEM	Diet	Diet x Time	
Milk, kg/d	40.1	42.8	1.32	0.18	0.007	
ECM, kg/d ³	41.8	44.3	1.21	0.16	0.27	
ECM/kg DMI	1.95	2.05	0.08	0.38	0.02	
Fat, g/d	1820	1930	61.4	0.22	0.30	
Protein, g/d	1300	1380	38.9	0.18	0.05	
Lactose, g/d	1770	1830	78.4	0.58	0.01	
Milk composition						
Fat, g/kg	47.5	48.3	1.07	0.59	0.003	
Protein, g/kg	34.4	34.3	0.51	0.96	0.57	
Lactose, g/kg	45.4	45.3	0.29	0.76	0.55	
Urea, mg/100 ml	29.0	29.8	1.86	0.72	0.09	

Table 5. Effect of dry period energy intake and diet composition on milk production responses

 1 CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d 2 HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements/d 3 Energy corrected milk calculated according to Sjaunja et al. (1990).

<u>y</u> y	Pr	Prepartal IVGTT		Р		Po	stpartal IVGT	Т	Р
Item ¹	CEI ²	HEI ³	SEM	Diet	Day ⁴	CEI ²	HEI ³	SEM	Diet
	$(n = 8)^5$	(n = 8)				(n = 8)	(n = 8)		
Glucose									
Basal (mmol/L)	3.9	4.0	0.12	0.14	0.47	3.0	3.1	0.16	0.51
Peak (mmol/L)	19.4	19.2	0.37	0.71	0.94	15.5	16.8	0.55	0.13
AUC60 (µIU/mL x 60 min)	404	385	20.0	0.22	0.21	309	294	14.0	0.37
CR ₆₀ (%/min)	1.3	1.4	0.12	0.83	0.93	1.7	2.0	0.17	0.15
AUC ₂₄₀ (mmol/L x 240 min)	525	413	47.9	0.02	0.08	374	322	30.1	0.22
Insulin									
Basal (µIU/mL)	13.8	15.7	2.03	0.52	0.23	6.2	5.7	0.75	0.64
Peak (µIU/mL)	224	398	73.3	0.02	0.007	110	125	17.5	0.56
CR ₆₀ (%/min)	-0.62	-0.72	0.11	0.40	0.20	0.28	0.21	0.13	0.73
AUC60 (µIU/mL x 60 min)	7920	13916	2622	0.03	0.01	3185	3844	535	0.55*
AUC ₂₄₀ (µIU/mL x 240 min)	10064	17762	3520	0.05	0.02	3063	3884	561	0.30
NEFA									
Basal (mmol/L)	0.29	0.24	0.05	0.12	0.03	0.53	0.62	0.07	0.27
Nadir (mmol/L)	0.10	0.08	0.01	0.32	0.045	0.29	0.28	0.03	0.82
NEFA decrement (mmol/L)	0.19	0.16	0.04	0.19	0.09	0.24	0.33	0.05	0.18
CR ₆₀ (%/min)	1.71	1.25	0.48	>0.10**	-	1.2	1.4	0.24	0.45
AUC ₆₀ (µIU/mL x 60 min)	-2.6	-2.3	1.1	0.83	0.70	-5.2	-7.9	2.05	0.38
AUC ₂₄₀ (mmol/L x 240 min)	-20.0	-13.4	4.33	0.18	0.53	35.0	18.7	17.3	0.53
Minimal model									
SI (x 10 ⁻⁴ min ⁻¹ /µIU/mL)	0.67	0.23	0.31	>0.10**	-	1.74	2.28	0.499	0.40
Sg (min ⁻¹)	0.02	0.03	0.002	>0.10**	-	0.03	0.03	0.002	0.53
AIRg (µIU/mL/min)	695	981	155	0.002	0.57	456	512	70.5	>0.10*
DI	227	241	93.9	0.92	0.03	825	1065	249	0.51
NEFA model									
FFA0 (µmol/L)	390	254	63.5	0.09	0.08	547	641	83.8	0.37
S _{FFA} (µmol/L/min)	19.9	21.5	3.59	0.74	0.86	61.7	75.5	13.5	0.49
K _{FFA} (/min)	0.03	0.04	0.006	0.13	0.59	0.05	0.05	0.009	0.86
Latency (min)	11.9	16.6	1.26	0.04	0.95	10.5	11.4	1.41	0.66

Table 6. Effect of dry period energy intake and diet composition on plasma glucose, insulin, and non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) responses to intravenous glucose tolerance test (IVGTT; 0.25 g of glucose/kg of BW) at d 13 prior to parturition and at d 9 postpartum

¹Basal = average concentration at 10 and 5 min before IVGTT; CR_{60} = clearance rate during the first 60 min of IVGTT; AUC_{240} = area under the curve during 240 min of IVGTT [(mmol/L for glucose and NEFA, μ IU/mL for insulin) × 240 min]; AUC_{60} = area under the curve during the first 60 min of IVGTT; NEFA decrement = basal – nadir; SI = insulin sensitivity index; Sg = glucose effectiveness; AIRg = acute insulin response to glucose load; DI = disposition index (= AIRg x SI); FFA0 = basal NEFA estimated by NEFA model analysis; S_{FFA} = rate of entry of NEFA to the plasma pool; K_{FFA} = rate of removal of NEFA from the plasma pool; Latency = the time until NEFA concentration begin to decline

²CEI = Controlled energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 108% of ME requirements/d; ³HEI = Ad libitum energy intake during 8 wk dry period providing 141% of ME requirements

⁴ Day = number of days to expect parturition; ⁵n = 7 for NEFA statistics; *P-values after natural logarithmic transformation; ** P-values from Friedman's non-parametric testing.







Salin, Figure 3 and 4





Salin, Figure 5 and 6



Salin, Figure 7A, 7B, 7C



Salin, Figure 8A, 8B, 8C







Salin, Figure Captions

Figure 1. Dry matter intake of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI (\triangle) = 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Values are LSM ± SE of repeated measures analysis (n = 16). Pooled SE pre 0.50 kg/d, postpartum (pp) 0.57 kg/d. Effects of diet pre (P = 0.002), diet x time pre (P = 0.64), diet pp (P = 0.52), diet x time pp (P = 0.57).

Figure 2. Metabolizable energy balance of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI $(\triangle) = 108\%$ of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Values are LSM ± SE of repeated measures analysis (n = 16). Pooled SE pre 4.8 MJ/d, postpartum (pp) 8.7 MJ/d. Effects of diet pre (P = 0.004), diet x time pre (P = 0.51), diet pp (P = 0.46), diet x time pp (P = 0.25).

Figure 3. Plasma glucose concentration of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI (\triangle) = 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Values are LSM ± SE of repeated measures analysis (n = 16). Effects of diet pre (P = 0.049), diet x time pre (P = 0.06), diet pp (P = 0.09), diet x time pp (P = 0.45).

Figure 4. Plasma insulin concentration of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI (Δ) = 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Values are back-transformed LSM ± SE from repeated measures analysis of log-transformed data (n = 16). Effects of diet pre (P = 0.07), diet x time pre (P = 0.08), diet pp (P = 0.52), diet x time pp (P = 0.37).

Figure 5. Plasma NEFA concentration of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI (\triangle) = 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Values are back-transformed LSM ± SE from repeated measures analysis of log-transformed data (n = 16). Effects of diet pre (P = 0.26), diet x time pre (P = 0.07), diet pp (P = 0.62), diet x time pp (P = 0.28).

Figure 6. Plasma BHB concentration of cows fed two levels of energy in the dry period, CEI (Δ) = 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal (55/45/5%); and HEI (\blacksquare) = 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage during wk 8 to 1 prepartum (pre). Prepartal values are LSM ± SE of repeated measures analysis. Postpartal values are back-transformed LSM ± SE from repeated measures analysis of reciprocally transformed data (n = 16). Effects of diet pre (P = 0.006), diet x time pre (P = 0.27), diet pp (P = 0.32), diet x time pp (P = 0.01).

Figure 7. Treatment effects on plasma (A) glucose, (B) insulin, and (C) non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) concentration during intravenous glucose tolerance tests (0.25 g of glucose i.v./kg of BW) performed 13 ± 5 d before parturition in dairy cows fed 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal [55/45/5%; CEI (Δ)] and in cows fed 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage [HEI (\blacksquare)], during wk 8 to 1 prepartum. Error bars represent SEM. Least squares means of area under the curve for glucose, insulin, and NEFA in CEI and HEI were 525 and 413 ± 47.9 mmol/L x 240 min, 10064 and 17762 ± 3520 µIU/mL x 240 min, and -20.0 and

 $-13.4 \pm 4.3 \text{ mmol/L x } 240 \text{ min } (n = 16)$, respectively. Concentration at time point -5 min represents the average concentration at 10 and 5 min before IVGTT.

Figure 8. Treatment effects on plasma (A) glucose, (B) insulin, and (C) non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA) concentration during i.v. glucose tolerance tests (IVGTT; 0.25 g of glucose i.v./kg of BW) performed 9 ± 1 d after parturition in dairy cows fed 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal [55/45/5%; CEI (Δ)] and in cows fed 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage [HEI (\blacksquare)], during wk 8 to 1 prepartum. Error bars represent SEM. Least squares means of area under the curve for glucose, insulin, and NEFA in CEI and HEI were 374 and 322 ± 30.1 mmol/L x 240 min, 3063 and 3884 ± 561 µIU/mL x 240, and 35.0 and 18.7 ± 17.3 mmol/L x 240 min, (n = 16), respectively. Concentration at time point -5 min represents the average concentration at 10 and 5 min before IVGTT.

Figure 9. The hyperbolic relationship between the minimal model-derived indices of acute insulin secretion (AIRg) and insulin sensitivity index (SI) denoted as disposition index (DI) during the intravenous glucose tolerance tests (0.25 g of glucose i.v./kg of BW) performed 13 ± 5 d before and 9 ± 1 d after parturition in dairy cows fed 108% of the ME requirements of grass silage, wheat straw, and rapeseed meal [55/45/5%; CEI (Δ)] and in cows fed 141% of the ME requirements of grass silage [HEI (\blacksquare)], during wk 8 to 1 prepartum. The hyperbolas were generated from extrapolated values of insulin secretion (AIRg) based on the average of observed values of DI for -13 d (n = 16), and +9 d (n = 16), and varying SI in the range from 0.01 to 6 (Stefanovski et al., 2011). All observations of SI and AIRg and the corresponding hyperbolas before and after parturition are represented by the symbols defined in the figure.