Influence of Maternal High Protein Intake on Daily Energy Expenditure and Lactation Performance in the Laboratory Mouse

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Abstract

Laboratory mouse (strain MF1) was used as a model to investigate the effects of high protein intake on daily energy expenditure and lactation performance. The specific dynamic action (SDA) for high protein (HP: 60% energy as protein) and high carbohydrate (HC: 70% energy as carbohydrate) diets was measured using open-flow respirometry at 9.4% and 6.1%, respectively. The same two diets were fed ad libitum to mice during lactation. Mice fed on HP and HC diets at 21 °C reached an asymptote in their daily food intake at 12.29±0.2 g day⁻¹ and 16.57±0.2 g day⁻¹, respectively between days 12-17 of lactation. HP-fed mice had a significantly higher daily energy expenditure (DEE) measured by doubly labelled water (133.4±4.8 kJ day⁻¹) and higher water turnover (41.1±6.2 g day⁻¹) than HC-fed mice (DEE: 102.1 ±14.2 kJ day⁻¹ and water turnover: 26.7±6.5 g day⁻¹) but the energy they exported as milk was significantly lower (84.2±31.4 kJ day⁻¹) than that of HC-fed mice (164.6±30.5 kJ day⁻¹) and therefore resulted in poor growth rate of their offspring. The urea production of HP-fed mice from their daily protein intake of 7.1 g was estimated at 1994 mg which required 10.2 ml of water per day to be cleared. The mice increased their urine production by 14.4 ml probably to eliminate this urea. In conclusion, the MF1 mice fed HP diet at 21 °C and the HC-fed mice reached an asymptote in their daily food intake at 12.29 g day⁻¹ and 16.57 g day⁻¹ respectively, between days 12-17 of lactation. HP diet had negative effects on lactation performance at 21 °C when compared with the HC diet. The negative effects of the HP diet were due to the higher DEE which resulted from the heat production consequent of digestion and milk production by the HP-fed mice. Therefore, the higher DEE greatly reduced the energy available for milk production. This probably explains the reduction in growth of the pups/offspring from the HP-fed mothers because they did not get sufficient energy for growth.

Key words: Laboratory mouse, Lactation, High protein, Specific dynamic action, Asymptotic food intake, Daily energy expenditure.

Introduction

Reproduction comprises a period of high energy demand (McNab, 2002; Speakman, 2008). Therefore, reproduction is the appropriate period in which to study limits in energy intake and processes in life history. The factors that limit the maximal rate of food intake are important because they determine an upper limit to the ability of animals to survive and reproduce (Hammond and Diamond, 1997; Król and Speakman, 2003a; Simmons et al., 2011). One model system that has provided an avenue for studying the limits to sustained energy intake is the lactation energetics of small mammals (Speakman and McQueenie, 1996; Johnson et al., 2001a,b,c; Król and Speakman, 2003a and Simmons et al., 2011). Lactation is the most energetically demanding period encountered by small mammals (Thompson, 1992; Thompson and Nicol, 2002). This physiological state is characterised by a large energy demand for milk production that increases greatly the nutrient needs of the female animal. Small rodents therefore elevate their food intake dramatically during lactation when compared with nonreproductive animals (Malabu et al., 1994; Brogan et al., 1999; Denis et al., 2003), but they reach a limit during peak lactation beyond which they appear unable to increase their food intake (Johnson et al., 2001a,b,c). This adversely affects lactation performance. As a result, there is the need for this issue to be addressed. It has been reported that small mammals lactating at 21 °C would not elevate their food intake at peak lactation (Perrigo, 1987), whatever the additional demands placed on them because ingesting additional food would make them dangerously hyperthermic (Król and Speakman, 2003a,b). Previous studies have fed diets high in carbohydrate but the extent to which lactating mice would respond to a diet high in protein is not resolved.

Diets with different macronutrient contents have different specific dynamic action (SDA) and it is well established that protein has higher SDA than carbohydrate and fat (Kriss *et al.*, 1934, Gawecki and Jeszka, 1978, Kagya-Agyemang *et al.*, 2010). It is therefore hypothesised that mice fed a high protein diet would consume less food at peak lactation because of the high SDA of protein diet and that this would adversely affect milk production and growth of offspring. The main objective of the study was to assess the effects of high protein content of diet on the energy expenditure and lactation performance of mice and the subsequent energy delivery to offspring.

Materials and Methods

Animals and Experimental Protocol

Forty virgin female mice (*Mus musculus* L.: out bred MF1) aged 9-10 weeks old (Harlan UK Limited, England) were used in this study. The animals were individually housed in shoe-box cages (44 cm x 12 cm x 13 cm) with sawdust. Rat and mouse breeder and grower diet and water were supplied ad libitum. The environment was regulated at 21 °C (± 1 °C) on a 12 L: 12 D photoperiod with lights on at 07:00 h. After acclimation to the experimental conditions, baseline measurement of body mass was used to allocate mice into two experimental groups with 20 animals per group. Each female was paired with a male for 11 days after which the males were removed. Thereafter, female body mass and food remaining in each hopper were weighed each morning between 08:00 h and 10:00 h, using a (Mettler Toledo, Switzerland) top-pan balance (± 0.01 g). Food intake was calculated from the difference between the amount of food provided and that left in the hopper. On the day of parturition (day 0 of lactation), no measurements were made on the lactating mothers and their pups to avoid any distress. From days 1 to 18 of lactation maternal body mass, litter size, litter mass and pup mortality were recorded. On days 2 to 3 of lactation, mothers from each experimental group were presented with either high protein or high carbohydrate diets while still supplied with standard rodent chow ad libitum. The diets used were high protein (HP) diet with 60% kcal from protein and high carbohydrate (HC) diet with 70% kcal from carbohydrate (both from Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, U.S.A). The composition of experimental diets is shown in Table 1. From day 4 of lactation onwards, the animals were switched from the chow diet to either HP or HC diet exclusively. Maternal food intake was measured between days 5-18 of lactation. Food intake was not monitored when mixed diets were presented on days 1-4. All animals were maintained in accordance with the United Kingdom Home Office animals (Scientific procedures) Act 1986.

19.89

Choline bitartrate Gross energy (kJ g⁻¹)

Table 1. Composition of macronutrient diets						
Diet code	D04080301	D12450B				
Diet	High protein	High carbohydrate				
%	kcal	kcal				
Fat	10	10				
Carbohydrate	30	70				
Protein	60	20				
Total	100	100				
Ingredients (g/kg diet)						
Casein	600	200				
L-cystine	9	3				
Corn starch	112	315				
Maltodextrin	35	35				
Sucrose	147	350				
Cellulose	50	50				
Soya oil	25	25				
Lard	20	20				
Mineral mix	10	10				
Dicalcium phosphate	13	13				
Calcium carbonate	alcium carbonate 5.5 5.5					
Potassium citrate	assium citrate 16.5 16.5					
Vitamin mix	10	10				

Table 1: Composition of macronutrient diets

Source: Research Diets, New Brunswick, NJ, U.S.A

Faecal production and gross energy analysis

Total faeces produced by all mice between days 11-15 of lactation were collected and separated from the sawdust. Samples of each macronutrient diet and pooled faeces were weighed and dried (Gallenkamp oven at 60 °C) for 14 days to obtain dry mass. These were subsequently analysed for gross energy content using bomb calorimetry (Gallenkamp Autobomb Adiabatic Bomb Calorimeter, Rowett Research Institute Analytical Services, Aberdeen, UK) using benzoic acid as the standard. The female dry mass food intake for each macronutrient diet (FI_{DM}; g) was calculated as:

$$FI_{DM} =$$
(mass food given x dry mass content). (1)

The apparent digestibilities of dry mass food (d_m ; %) and energy (d_e ; %) were calculated following Król and Speakman (2003a) as:

$$d_m = 100x \left(\frac{FI_{DM} - DM_f}{FI_{DM}} \right), \tag{2}$$

$$d_{\theta} = 100x \left[\frac{\left(\text{FI}_{\text{DM}} \times \text{GE}_{\text{food}} \right) - \left(\text{DM}_{\text{f}} \times \text{GE}_{\text{faeces}} \right)}{\text{FI}_{\text{DN}} \times \text{GE}_{\text{food}}} \right], \tag{3}$$

where DM_f is dry mass of faeces (g) and GE is gross energy. Digestible energy intake was obtained by subtracting the energy measured in faeces from the gross energy intake as measured from daily food consumption.

Doubly Labelled Water Measurements

The doubly labelled water (DLW) method was used to measure daily energy expenditure (DEE) from the elimination rates of ²H (deuterium) and ¹⁸O in females during peak lactation. The total water turnover (rH₂O) from the elimination rates of ²H was also calculated. Measures of DEE were made to determine the milk energy output (MEO) from the difference between metabolizable energy intake (MEI) and DEE (Król and Speakman, 2003b). The DLW measurements were conducted on 29 lactating females (HP, N=11 and HC, N=18). Seven (7) of the high protein fed mice died during the experimental period. On day 16 of lactation (between 8:00 h and 11:00 h) individual mice were weighed to ± 0.01 g using a balance (Mettler Toledo, Switzerland) and labelled with an intra-peritoneal injection of approximately 0.2 g of water containing enriched ²H (36.3 atoms%) and ¹⁸O (59.9 atoms%). The syringe used to inject the DLW was weighed (± 0.0001 g; Ohaus Analytical Plus, Brookylin, USA) immediately before and after the injection to provide an accurate measurement of the amount of the isotope injected. Mice were placed back in their cages during the 1 h equilibration period (Speakman, 1997). An initial 30-80 µl blood sample was collected by tail tipping 1 h after the injection, which was the time generally assumed to be required for the isotope to reach equilibrium (Król and Speakman, 1999). Blood samples were immediately flame-sealed into pre-calibrated 50 µl pipettes (Vitrex, Camlab Limited, Cambridge, UK) and stored at 4 °C until analysis. A final blood sample was collected approximately 48 h after the initial blood sample was collected to estimate isotope elimination rates. Samples of blood in capillaries were vacuum-distilled (Nagy, 1983) and water from the resulting distillate was used to produce CO₂ and H₂ (Speakman and Król, 2005). Gas source isotope ratio mass spectrometry was used to analyse the isotope ratios of ¹⁸O: ¹⁶O and ²H: ¹H. The samples were run alongside high enrichment standards that were used to correct the raw data to these standards. For each lactating mouse, initial ²H and ¹⁸O dilution spaces were calculated by the intercept method (Coward and Prentice, 1985; Speakman and Król, 2005) and then converted to mass assuming a molecular mass of body water of 18.02 and expressed as a percentage of body mass before injection. The intercept method was used since the actual body water pool estimated by desiccation using the intercept method was more accurate than the plateau method (Speakman and Król, 2005). The final ²H and ¹⁸O dilution spaces were inferred from the final body mass, assuming the same percentage of body mass as measured for the initial dilution spaces. The isotope elimination rate (k) was calculated following Nagy (1975). For calculation of DEE based on CO₂ production, single pool model equation 7.17 (Speakman, 1997) was used. Energy equivalents of rates of CO₂ production were calculated using a conversion factor of 24.026 J ml⁻¹ CO₂ derived from the Weir equation (Weir, 1949). Female total water turnover (rH₂O) was calculated by multiplying the fractional turnover rate by the total body water (TBW). It was assumed that 25% of the water leaving the body was fractionated (Speakman, 1997). Therefore, a fractionation factor of 0.9366 was applied for deuterium (Speakman, 1997). This approach assumes that rates of water influx and efflux are constant, so rH₂O = total water influx = total water efflux (Nagy and Costa, 1980).

Milk Energy Output

Milk energy output (MEO) was evaluated as the difference between metabolisble energy intake (MEI) and daily energy expenditure of lactating females (Król and Speakman, 2003b).

Statistical Analyses

The differences in baseline and pregnancy data between the groups for body mass and food intake were analysed using repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA). The significance of changes in body mass and food intake over time was assessed by general linear modeling (GLM). Significant differences between days and diets were detected using the post-hoc Tukey test. Asymptotic food intake across the two dietary treatment groups in late lactation was compared using ANOVA. The asymptotic food intake in late lactation was defined as the period during which no significant differences in food intake between days were detected. The difference in pup mortality for the HP and HC diets was assessed using chi-square test. Least squares regression analysis was used to examine the relationship between milk energy output (MEO) and litter size, and litter growth and MEO. All statistical analyses were performed using Minitab for Windows (version 14; Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA; Ryan *et al.*, 1985). All statistical significance were determined at P<0.05.

Results

Maternal Body Mass

There was no significant difference between the body mass of HP females (29.51±1.52 g) and HC females (29.52±1.42 g; P>0.05) before mating. Body mass increased significantly during days 12-21 of pregnancy in HP females (P<0.001) and HC females (P<0.001) reaching a peak of 53.55 ± 7.60 g), and 56.28±5.24 g) for HP and HC females, respectively just prior to parturition (Figure 1). Mean body mass of mice in the two groups was also not significantly different during pregnancy (P>0.05) and averaged 43.86±7.19 g and 44.75±7.79 g for HP and HC mice, respectively. Maternal body mass of HP and HC females did not show any significant difference (P>0.05) and averaged 41.57±4.41 g and 41.79±3.05 g on the day after parturition and increased to 42.08±3.77 g and 42.39±3.25 g on day 4, respectively for HP and HC mice. Between days 5-8 of lactation when the mice were fed macronutrient diets exclusively, the body mass of HP mothers was significantly lower than that of HC mothers (P<0.001) and averaged 37.58±0.51 g and 43.75±0.71 g, respectively. There was no significant effect of day of lactation (P>0.05) on maternal body mass. However, there was a highly significant effect of diet (P<0.001). Tukey pairwise comparisons among levels of diet showed that the HC-fed mothers were significantly heavier (P<0.05) than HP-fed mothers between days 5-18 of lactation. There was no significant interaction effect (P>0.05).

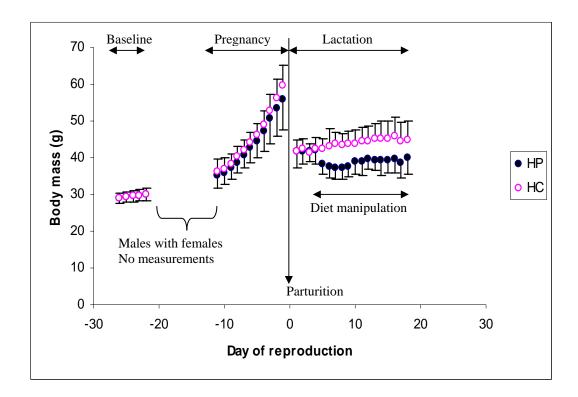


Figure 1: Mean body mass of female mice throughout baseline, pregnancy and lactation. Day 0 was parturition. Maternal body mass was measured between days 1-18 of lactation. Diet manipulation started on day 4 of lactation. High protein diet is denoted by HP while high carbohydrate diet is denoted by HC. Females were significantly lighter on the HP diet. Error bars represent 1 sd of the mean

Food Intake

The food intake of HP and HC females was not significantly different prior to mating (P>0.05). The animals consumed a mean of 5.29±0.31 g day ⁻¹ and 5.27±0.36 g day ⁻¹ for HP and HC females, respectively. Food intake increased significantly during days 12-21 of pregnancy in HP (P<0.001) and HC females (P<0.001) reaching a maximum of 7.81±1.37 g and 8.49±1.09 g before decreasing to 6.81±1.09g and 7.20±0.57g on the day before parturition (Figure 2). The mean food intake of mice in the two groups (6.24±0.94 g day ⁻¹ and 6.57±1.24 g day ⁻¹) was not significantly different throughout pregnancy (P>0.05). Food intake was not measured on days 1-4 of lactation when animals were fed a mixed diet. There was a significant increase in food intake between days 5-11 of lactation in females fed both the HP diet (P<0.001) and HC diet (P<0.001) from 7.72±1.12g to 11.42±2.05 g in HP and from 12.43±2.68 g to 16.33±1.88 g in HC. Over the next 6 days (days 12-17 of lactation), there was no further significant increase in daily

food intake (P>0.05) and it averaged 12.29±0.26 g day ⁻¹ and 16.57±0.26 g day ⁻¹ for mice fed HP and HC diets, respectively. The food intake averaged over these 6 days was termed the asymptotic daily food intake. The corresponding asymptotic gross energy intakes were 244.95±5.22 kJ day ⁻¹ and 294.98±4.64 kJ day ⁻¹. These were equivalent to digestible energy intakes of 219.76±4.99kJ and 266.67±4.45 kJ for mice fed HP and HC diets, respectively, using the estimated assimilation efficiencies derived below. On day 18 of lactation, the daily food intake increased above the asymptotic level (Figure 2) because the pups started feeding directly on the food in the hoppers on this day. Over all, there was a highly significant effect of day of lactation (P<0.001) on maternal food intake. Tukey pairwise comparisons among levels of food intake showed that the food intake of HC-fed mothers was significantly higher (P<0.05) than that of HP-fed mothers between days 5-18 of lactation (P<0.001). There was no significant interaction (P>0.05).

Apparent Assimilation Efficiency and Digestibility of Energy

The gross energy content of faeces was significantly different between HP and HC-fed lactating mice (P<0.001) and averaged 14.41±0.66 and 15.93±0.70 kJ g⁻¹ dry mass for HP and HC lactating dams, respectively. The energy content of the faeces was lower than that of the respective food: 19.88 kJ g⁻¹ for HP and 19.89 kJ g⁻¹ for HC diets. The mean apparent assimilation efficiency was 92.94±1.19% and 92.17±1.33% between days 11-15 of lactation for mothers fed on HP and HC diets, respectively. Overall, the mean apparent assimilation efficiency of mothers fed on HP and HC diets did not differ significantly (P>0.05) during this period. Over the same period, the mean apparent digestibility of energy of HP mothers (94.90±0.85%) was significantly higher (P<0.001) than that of HC mothers (92.99±1.19%).

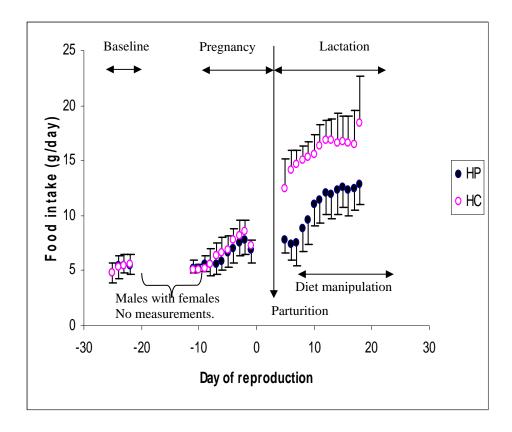


Figure 2: Mean daily food intake of female mice throughout baseline, pregnancy and lactation. Day 0 was parturition. Diet manipulation started on day 4 of lactation. High protein diet is denoted by HP while high carbohydrate diet is denoted by HC. Maternal food intake was measured between days 5-18 of lactation. Error bars represent 1 sd of the mean.

Litter Size and Mass

The HP and HC females gave birth to an average of 10.6±2.77 pups (range 6-15) and 12.0±2.39 pups (range 8-17), respectively and weaned an average of 7.3±1.74 pups (range 4-10) and 11.2±2.78 pups (range 4-16) pups, respectively. The mean number of pups of HP and HC-fed mice were not significantly different (P>0.05) at day 1 of lactation but they were significantly different (P<0.001) at day 18 when they were weaned. The litter masses of HP and HC mothers increased from 19.66±4.1 g and 21.48±3.22 g at day 1 of lactation to 50.99±10.61 g and 80.85±20.0 g at weaning (Figure 3). The mean mass of individual pups of HP and HC mothers increased from 1.89±0.22 g and 1.78±0.17 g at day 1 of lactation to 7.14±0.98 g and 7.68±2.56 g, respectively over the same period of time. The mean mass of individual pups of HP and HC mothers was not significantly different

(P>0.05) at day 1 of lactation. At weaning, pups from mothers fed HP diet were significantly smaller (P>0.05) than pups from mothers fed HC diet.

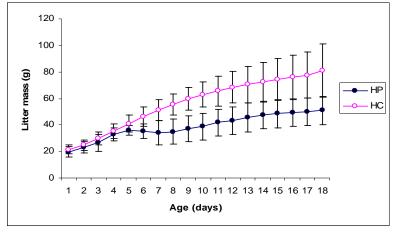
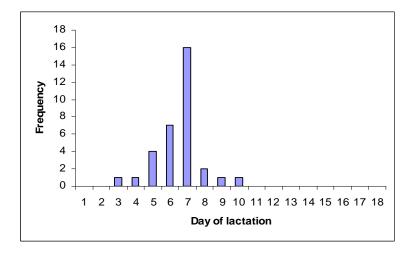


Figure 3: Growth of litters from females fed high protein (HP) and high carbohydrate (HC) diets between days 4-18 of lactation. Litter mass was monitored between days 1-18 of lactation. Pups were significantly lighter on the HP diet. Error bars represent 1 sd of the mean

Pup Mortality

Litter size at day 1 of lactation did not differ significantly between HP mothers and control mothers fed on HC diet (P>0.05). The HP mothers lost 32 offspring prior to weaning from 148 born. HC mothers lost 17 offspring from 220 born. A chi-square test showed that the number of offspring lost by HP-fed mice was significantly higher (P<0.05) than from HC-fed mice. Mortality of pups from mothers fed on HP diet occurred mainly between days 5-10 of lactation (Figure 4).



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Figure 4: Histogram of mortality of offspring from high protein (HP) diet. Offspring mortality was monitored between days 1-18 of lactation. Diet manipulation started on day 4 of lactation. Offspring mortality occurred mainly between days 5-10 when lactating females were feeding on HP diet exclusively

Milk Energy Output

The milk energy output (MEO) calculated on day 16 of lactation was significantly different (P<0.001) between lactating females fed on HP and HC diets and averaged 84.22±31.47 kJ day⁻¹ (range 47.16-144.24 kJday⁻¹) and 164±30.59 kJ day (range 101.77-215.59 kJday⁻¹), respectively. MEO of HP and HC females was related to litter size on day 16 of lactation (P<0.05) (Figure 5). The relationship between growth of litters from both HP and HC females and MEO showed a highly significant effect of MEO on litter growth (P<0.001). MEO also showed a highly significant group effect (P<0.001) (Figure 6).

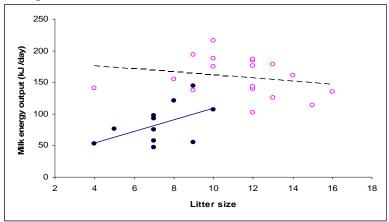


Figure 5: Milk energy output as a function of litter size for lactating females fed on HP diet (filled circles, y=9.21x +17.23, r^2 =0.26, N=11) and lactating females fed on HC diet (open circles, y=-2.48x +186.43, r^2 =0.05, N=18)

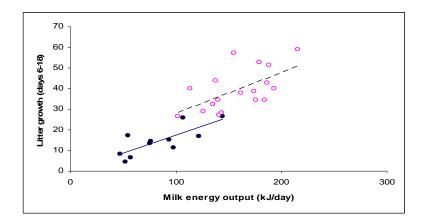


Figure 6: Litter growth as a function of milk energy output for lactating females fed on HP diet (filled circles, y=0.17x -0.05, $r^2=0.60$, N=11) and lactating females fed on HC diet (open circles, y=0.19x +8.14, $r^2=0.36$, N=18).

Doubly Labelled Water Measurements

Daily Energy Expenditure (DEE) and Total Water Turnover of Lactating Mice

The DEE measured on day 16 of lactation was significantly different (P<0.001) between lactating mice fed on HP and HC diets and averaged 133.42 ± 4.82 kJ day⁻¹ (range 127.06-141.47 kJday⁻¹) and 102.11 ± 14.29 kJ day (range 75.44-127.90 kJday⁻¹), respectively (Table 2). The total water turnover (rH₂O) of HP-fed lactating females and HC-fed controls averaged 41.15 ± 6.28 g day⁻¹ (range 31.66-47.84 g day⁻¹) and 26.76 ± 6.58 g day⁻¹ (range 17.15-46.31 g day⁻¹), respectively (Table 2). When body mass was used as a covariate, analysis of variance showed that the effect of body mass was not significant (P>0.05) but there was a highly significant group effect (P<0.001).

Table 2: Results of the doubly labelled water (DLW) measurements of energy expenditure and water turnover in lactating high protein (HP) females and lactating controls fed on high

carbohydrate (HC) diet

Trait	Lactating mice		ANOVA	
	HP	HC	$F_{1,27}$	P
BM (g) ^a	40.99± 4.44	45.80±3.59	10.21	0.004
$k_d (h^{-1})^b$	0.059 ± 0.008^{a}	0.035 ± 0.009^{b}	45.91	< 0.001
$k_o (h^{-1})^c$	0.069 ± 0.008^{a}	0.047 ± 0.009^{b}	37.14	< 0.001
k_o/k_d	1.177±0.024 ^a	1.364 ± 0.067^{b}	77.31	< 0.001
N_d (% of BM) ^d	73.896±3.600 ^a	71.336±2.593 ^b	4.95	0.035
N_o (% of BM) ^d	70.838±3.482 ^a	68.269±2.333 ^b	5.69	0.024
N_d/N_o	1.043±0.015	1.045±0.011	0.11	0.747
DEE (kJ day ⁻¹) ^e	133.42±4.82 ^a	102.11±14.29 ^b	48.77	< 0.001
$rH_2O (g day^{-1})^f$	41.15±6.28 ^a	26.76±6.58 ^b	33.73	< 0.001

HP, high protein; HC, high carbohydrate. Values are means \pm S.D. ^aBody mass before injection; ^bdeuterium elimination rate; ^{c18}O elimination rate; deuterium ^d(N_d) and ¹⁸O (N_o) dilution spaces (moles) were converted to g assuming a molecular mass of body water 18.02 and were expressed as percentage of body mass before injection; ^edaily energy expenditure; ^ftotal water turnover.

Discussion

The body masses of female mice increased significantly during pregnancy. There was loss of body mass of HP-fed mice during early lactation as soon as they were fed HP diet exclusively. This indicates that they were in negative energy balance and withdrawing body stores. The loss of body mass of the HP-fed mice was associated with lower food intake than the HC-fed mice, indicating that the HP diet was inefficient in improving the body mass of the mice. Milk production also declined as body reserves were mobilised to support milk production. Protein intake at an elevated ambient temperature resulted in a marked decrease in voluntary food intake and consequently losses in body mass and back fat depth correlated with a decline in milk production in sows (Renaudeau et al., 2001; Renaudeau and Noblet, 2001; Renaudeau et al., 2002). Contrary to some previous studies (Hammond and Diamond, 1994; Speakman and McQueenie, 1996), the mice in the present study did not continue to increase their food intake until the end of lactation, but instead reached an asymptote between days 12-17 of lactation (Johnson et al., 2001a). The energy demand of the pups was still increasing at this period because they were growing but there was no corresponding increase in maternal food and energy intake, indicating that they were limited. In previous studies, the asymptotic daily food and energy intakes of MF1 mice at 21 °C were 23.1 g day⁻¹ and 301 kJ day⁻¹ (Johnson *et al.*, 2001a) and 20 g day⁻¹ and 266.3 kJ day⁻¹ (Krol *et al.*, 2007). In this study, the asymptotic daily food and energy intakes were 16.6 g day⁻¹ and 266.7 kJ day⁻¹ respectively, indicating that peak lactation energy intake varies with ambient temperature. The negative effects of feeding HP to lactating mice were far greater than anticipated from the 3.3% difference in SDA of the HC diet (6.1%) and HP diet (9.4%) (Kagya-Agyemang *et al.*, 2010) so it appears that other factors must be involved in energy delivery to the offspring.

There are several potential explanations to account for the large negative effects of the HP diet. Protein probably involves other sources of heat production than SDA that might include urea synthesis (ureagenesis) and gluconeogenesis. The cost of urea synthesis in the liver is a major energyconsuming process (McBride and Kelly, 1990). Various estimates for the energy cost of urea synthesis have been derived assuming a stoichiometry of 4 adenosine triphosphate (ATP) per mole of urea (McBride and Kelly, 1990). Gluconeogenesis has also been shown to generate heat during the conversion of amino acids into glucose for eventual export in milk as lactose (McDonald et al., 2002). In mammals, most of the nitrogenous wastes are excreted in the form of urea (Yang and Bankir, 2005). The amount of protein consumed by HP-fed mice at peak lactation was calculated by multiplying their peak lactation food intake of 12.29 g per day by 0.577 g (i.e. protein content by weight in HP diet) to get 7.1 g per day. Protein contains 16% nitrogen so when a HP-fed mouse consumed 7.1 g of protein per day it ingested 7.1x 0.16 g of nitrogen. This gives 1.136 g of nitrogen. Milk contains 10% of protein (Jenness, 1979) so if the mouse produced 12.9 g of milk per day, then the amount of protein in the milk was 1.29 g. The amount of nitrogen exported in the milk was estimated by multiplying the amount of protein in milk by 16% to get 0.2064. Therefore, the net nitrogen intake of HP-fed mouse was calculated by subtracting 0.21 g from 1.14 g to give 0.93 g of nitrogen. Based on this, the urea produced per mouse per day was calculated by dividing 0.9296g by 0.4662% (i.e. % of urea that is nitrogen) to get 1993.9 mg. The mice on the HP diet consumed 7.1g of protein per day. This would generate 1.99 g of urea (0.033 mols). The ATP requirement for this synthesis was 0.132 mols and the resulting heat liberation was 4.10 kJday⁻¹ (assuming 31 kJ mol⁻¹ ATP; Mathew et al., 2000). However, the HC-fed mice were also generating urea consequent of their protein intake requiring 1.86 kJ day⁻¹, so the extra heat associated with the HP diet was only 4.10 kJ day⁻¹.

Some of the HP-fed mice killed and consumed some of their offspring. The infanticide was probably due to the low food and energy intakes coupled with the high DEE (Table 2) of the HP-fed mice that greatly reduced their milk production (Figure 5). It has been suggested that under inhospitable conditions, mothers can optimize reproductive success by either killing a portion of their offspring so as to utilize body reserves and intake to ensure their own survival and that of their remaining offspring, or terminating an entire litter, thereby delaying all reproductive effort until conditions are more favourable (Hardy, 1979; Hardy and Hausfater, 1984). In small mammals, short-term food deprivation or restriction during lactation increases cannibalism in rats (Grosvenor and Mena, 1983; Kanarek et al., 1986), mice (Zamiri, 1978; Bronson and Marstellar, 1985; Marstellar and Lynch, 1987), and hamsters (Labov et al., 1985; Schneider and Wade, 1989). Once the litter sizes had been culled down by the HP-fed mice between days 5-10, they completed lactation successfully without further losses (Figure 4). Overall, the growth of offspring from HP-fed mothers was poor when compared with that of HC-fed mice. This shows that offspring growth did not improve on the HP diet. It seems that the 60% protein in HP diet was too high for the lactating mothers and therefore resulted in reduced food and energy intakes, reduced litter size and litter mass, and a consequent high DEE that greatly reduced the energy available for milk export to pups/offspring. This idea is supported by the fact that lactation performance varies with the total calories consumed by the mother and also macronutrient ratios (Wade and Schneider, 1992). Mammals are unique in the balance of energy that they must attain during lactation, in that all of the energy provided to the young must first be consumed by the mother in addition to her own energy requirements to ensure reproductive success (Oftedal, 1984; Kenagy et al., 1990; Speakman et al., 2001).

Conclusions

In conclusion, MF1 mice fed HP and HC diets respectively at 21 °C reached an asymptote in their daily food intake at 12.29 g day⁻¹ and 16.57 g day⁻¹ respectively, between days 12-17 of lactation. HP diet had negative effects on lactation performance at 21 °C when compared with the HC diet. Evidence suggests that the negative effects of the HP diet were due to the higher DEE that greatly reduced the energy available for milk production. This probably explains the reduction in growth of the pups/offspring from the HP-fed mothers because they did not get sufficient energy for growth.

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