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Title: Effects of analgesic intervention on behavioural responses to Low Atmospheric Pressure Stunning

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Abstract

 Worldwide, more than 50 billion chickens are killed annually for food production so their welfare at slaughter is an important concern. Low Atmospheric Pressure Stunning (LAPS) is a novel approach to pre-slaughter stunning of poultry in which birds are rendered unconscious by gradually reducing oxygen tension in the atmosphere to achieve a progressive anoxia (hypobaric hypoxia). Advantages of this approach over electrical stunning are that birds are not shackled while conscious and all birds are reliably and irreversibly stunned. However, concerns remain that birds undergoing LAPS could experience discomfort or pain. Here we investigated whether subjecting birds to LAPS with and without administration of an opioid analgesic (butorphanol) affected behavioural responses. A blocking design was used in which pairs of birds receiving either analgesic or sham treatment were allocated to three types (analgesic/analgesic, analgesic/sham, or sham/sham). In line with previous studies, birds showed a consistent sequence of behaviours during LAPS: ataxia, loss of posture, clonic/tonic convulsions, leg paddling and motionless. Overall, administration of butorphanol had no effect on the range and patterning of behavioural responses during LAPS, but there were some differences in behaviour latencies, counts and durations. For example, latencies to ataxia, mandibulation and deep inhalation were delayed by analgesic treatment, however the duration of ataxia and other behaviours related to loss of consciousness were unaffected. Fewer birds receiving analgesia showed jumping and slow wing flapping behaviour compared to controls, which suggests these may be pain related. These behaviours after the onset of ataxia and the results may reflect a smoother induction to unconsciousness in analgised birds. Collectively, 82 the results do not provide convincing evidence that birds undergoing LAPS are experiencing pain. While there were effects of analgesia on some aspects of behaviour, these could be

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 explained by potential sedative, dysphoric and physiological side effects of butorphanol. The behavioural responses to LAPS appear to be primarily related to exposure to anoxia rather 86 than hypobaric conditions, and thus in terms of welfare, this stunning method may be equivalent to controlled atmosphere stunning with inert gases.

 Keywords: Hypobaric hypoxia, low atmosphere pressure stunning, pain, animal welfare, humane slaughter, broiler

1. Introduction

93 Low Atmospheric Pressure Stunning (LAPS) is a novel approach to pre-slaughter stunning of poultry in which birds are rendered unconscious by gradually reducing air pressure and thus oxygen tension to achieve a progressive hypobaric hypoxia. LAPS shares many of the welfare advantages of controlled atmosphere stunning (CAS) systems, which use exposure to hypoxic and/or hypercapnic gas mixtures, reliably and irreversibly stunning birds in their transport crates (Vizzier-Thaxton et al., 2010; Johnson, 2013). A major benefit of CAS systems and the LAPS system is that they avoid the considerable stress and pain of shackling of conscious birds (Gentle and Tilston, 2000) and 100% of the chickens are rendered insensible before shackling and bleeding. By contrast, electrical stunning is associated with various welfare issues such as shackling of conscious birds, pre-stun shocks and the risk of inadequate stunning (Raj, 2006). LAPS is in routine commercial use at a poultry processing plant in Arkansas, having been given 'no objection' status by both the United States Department for Agriculture (USDA) in 2010 and the Canadian Food Inspection Agency in 2013. While there has been much research to determine humane gas mixtures for CAS (e.g. McKeegan et al., 2007; Johnson, 2013; Joseph et al., 2013), less is known about 108 the welfare impact of LAPS.

 Previous work investigating the induction of unconsciousness in hypoxic gas environments (Woolley and Gentle 1988; Raj et al., 1991) suggests that the approach has promise, and the

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 gradual nature of LAPS avoids obvious concerns related to the welfare consequences of rapid decompression (Close et al., 1996; AVMA 2013). Previously, Purswell et al., (2007) identified process variables for a suitable decompression and some aspects of behaviour, corticosterone responses, meat quality and pathology have been investigated (Battula et al., 2008; Vizzier-Thaxton et al., 2010). Electroencephalogram (EEG) and electrocardiogram (ECG) responses of broilers undergoing LAPS were reported by McKeegan et al. (2013), where the process was associated with changes in the EEG pattern (highly significant increases in total power, decreases in median frequency and progressive increases in slow wave activity), indicating a gradual loss of consciousness. Recently, a detailed behavioural study described the responses of broilers undergoing LAPS and reported a consistent sequence of behaviours: ataxia, loss of posture, clonic and tonic convulsions and leg paddling (Mackie and McKeegan, 2016). Additional responses were observed in a proportion of birds such as mandibulation (repetitive and rapid opening and closing of the bill, 32% of birds), headshaking (76% of birds) and open bill breathing (74% of birds). Based on loss of posture (on average at 84 s), the data suggest that birds are in a conscious state for 127 longer during LAPS than in controlled atmosphere stunning with inert gases (McKeegan et al., 2007a; Abeyesinghe et al., 2007),other behavioural responses are equivalent. Given that headshaking, mandibulation and open bill breathing are all seen during exposure to anoxic gases (normobaric hypoxia) and LAPS (hypobaric hypoxia), it is difficult to conclude whether they are a response to hypoxia or decompression, or both. Concerns remain that some of the behavioural responses observed could be pain related, possibly resulting from painful expansion of trapped air in body cavities. Vizzier-Thaxton et al. (2010) noted that the 134 anatomy and function of the avian respiratory tract with interconnecting airsacs and lungs makes it unlikely that significant amounts of gas would be trapped in the abdomen, while hemorrhagic lesions were found in the lungs, brain, and heart of animals undergoing rapid decompression (Van Liere, 1943).

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 Pain is difficult to assess as it cannot be measured directly, but behaviour is the parameter most often used to assess animal pain (Rutherford 2002) and signs of stress during stunning in poultry include head shaking (Erhardt et al., 1996; Raj, 1996), gasping (Raj and Gregory, 1990), yawning (Erhardt et al., 1996), vocalisation (Zeller et al., 1988), sneezing (Hoenderken et al., 1994) and defecating (Morton et al., 1998). Some of these signs may also indicate pain or varying degrees of discomfort, or may reflect physiological responses. Quantitative differences may be significant from a welfare point of view, as well as the time at 146 which they occur during the stunning process.

 Analgesic intervention has been widely used in a range of contexts in animal welfare research, for example to examine pain associated with lameness (e.g. Hocking et al., 1997). 150 It is widely recognised that the abolition of suspected pain related behaviour with analgesic is circumstantial evidence of pain (Rutherford, 2002; Walker et al., 2014). However, analgesic drugs may have behavioural effects unrelated to pain and nociception, and some also have general sedative or side effects. Thus, care must be taken with the choice of agent and the dose applied. The primary objective of this study was to investigate whether subjecting birds to LAPS with and without administration of an opioid analgesic would affect their behavioural responses, especially those suspected to relate to pain and discomfort. Butorphanol was chosen for this trial, as it is a Kappa opioid receptor agonist and a mu opioid receptor antagonist with characterised pharmacokinetics (Guzman et al., 2014) and is the currently recommended opioid for use in birds (Paul-Murphy and Fialkowski, 2001; Paul-Murphy, 2013). We used a low-moderate dose (Paul-Murphy, 2013) to minimise sedation and side effects. Broilers were exposed to LAPS in pairs to maximise visibility of their reactions to the process while eliminating isolation stress. A blocking design was used in which birds receiving analgesic or sham treatments were randomly allocated to three types of pairs (analgesic/analgesic, analgesic/sham, or sham/sham)). This robust design, random allocation and blinding of behavioural observers to pair type allowed us to reliably determine

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- 166 the effects of analgesic intervention on behaviour during LAPS, and thus contribute to a 167 thorough welfare assessment of the process.
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2. Material and methods

2.1 Animals and housing

 Ninety Cobb 500 male broiler chickens (Gallus gallus domesticus) from the female breeder 172 line were used in this study. They were sourced from a commercial hatchery and were wing tagged at 4 weeks of age. The birds were housed at the University of Arkansas poultry facilities within a larger single flock split into three groups, reared in three identical environmental chambers (measuring 3.05 X 3.05 m, approximately 100 birds per pen 176 resulted in a stocking density of ~30 kg/m2). Clean pine shavings were used for litter. Single- pass ventilation was maintained at a constant rate of 6 m3/min in all chambers. The 178 photoperiod was 23L:1D for d 1 to 4, and 16L:8D thereafter. Chambers were equipped with 2 rows of nipple waterers, and 2 hanging feeders and birds had ad libitum access to feed (standard commercial starter and grower diet) and water. Environmental controls for climate were maintained to follow recommended management practices (Cobb, 2012). Birds and environmental controls were monitored twice daily by trained staff. The trials were undertaken in Arkansas, USA, and therefore were not subject to UK legal requirements through DEFRA or Home Office regulations. The experimental design and animal husbandry was performed following the EU Directive on the Protection of Animals used for Scientific Purposes (EU 2010/63) for guidance. The experiments were specifically authorized by the University of Arkansas Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (Protocol 15031).

2.2 LAPS process

 The LAPS chamber was developed by Technocatch LLC in Mississippi, USA the system and the pressure curves applied by the process are patented (Cheek & Cattarazzi, 2010). The chamber, it's monitoring and control systems used in the current study is a scaled down research unit, but is otherwise identical to those used commercially except for manual door

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 operation. The chamber is cylindrical (2.2 m in length and 1.8 m in diameter) and is designed to accommodate a reduced scale transport module (153 cm x 121 cm x 102 cm, three tiers each 23 cm height). The required decompression curve is automatically applied and controlled by a computer and once started, can only be stopped in the case of an 198 emergency. An infra-red camera (130° camera with (2.1mm lens) 18 infra-red illuminators, Model #RVS-507, RVS Systems) was fitted into the chamber to observe the birds (fixed centrally on the front wall of the chamber allowing full view of the relevant tier). A manually operated door is present that allows the entry of the transport module and seals them into the chamber to begin the process. The LAPS cycle takes exactly 280 s and consists of two phases, in the first of which the vacuum chamber pressure is reduced from atmospheric pressure to an absolute vacuum pressure of ~250Torr (~33 kPa) in ~67 s. In the second phase a sliding gate valve is partially closed gradually reducing the effective pumping speed 206 by 'choke flow', to a minimum chamber pressure of \sim 150Torr (\sim 20 kPa). The rate of reduction of chamber pressure in the second phase is varied in relation to starting ambient temperature and barometric pressure. The reduction in total pressure results in a reduced oxygen partial pressure. At the end of the second phase at 280 s the chamber is returned to atmospheric pressure using a baffled air inlet, prior to the door opening and the exit of the 211 transport module. Because cold air is denser and therefore contains more oxygen than warm air and birds have been shown to respond differently to LAPS at different temperatures (Mackie and McKeegan 2016), slightly different pressure reduction curves must be applied to achieve the same hypobaric effect under different ambient conditions. As discussed by Holloway (unpublished results), water in the LAPS chamber may also lead to modification of the rate of decompression based on temperature. Ambient temperature and humidity were 217 recorded for each LAPS cycle and means were 13.5 ± 0.5 °C and 76.3 ± 0.6 %, respectively. 218 In this study, all 45 LAPS runs were carried out within a single temperature setting.

220 2.3 Experimental procedure

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 The experimental birds were randomly selected from the flock by a random number generator (Microsoft Excel 2010) based on wing tag number. They were systematically and equally allocated via a Latin-Square design across two treatments (analgesic - A, sham - S) and then allocated by individual wing tag number into three types of blocked pairs (analgesic/analgesic (AA), analgesic/sham (AS), and sham/sham (SS)) and pair kill order following a Graeco Latin-Square design (Martin & Bateson 2007). There were 15 replications of each block (AA, AS, and SS), each containing a pair of birds. The birds 228 underwent LAPS in 45 consecutive pairs over two days (day $1 = 23$ pairs; day $2 = 22$ pairs) 229 at 36-37 days of age (mean bodyweight 2.30 ± 0.12 kg). To mimic commercial transport and lairage conditions, experimental birds for each day were removed from the flock and transported and held in poultry transport crates (97 x 58 x 27 cm, maximum 8 birds per crate) 232 prior to LAPS. Thus birds had food and water withdrawn for between 2-6 hrs before LAPS, dependent on the pair kill order.

 In sequential order, bird pairs were removed from the transport crates and weighed. Dependent on their pre-determined treatment, birds were injected with either butorphanol ('Dolorex', butorphanol tartrate 10mg/ml, Merk) delivered IM in the right thigh at 1mg/kg or saline (veterinary 0.9% Sodium Chloride Injection, Hospira Inc.) delivered IM in the right thigh at equivalent volume to the analgesic treatment based on bird weight. Treatments were staggered to provide a consistent 30 minute interval between injection and LAPS. At the time 241 of injection one bird per pair had its wing tip feathers marked by a black permanent marker (Sharpie® Magnum chisel tip); this marking was to allow better visualisation of individuals during behavioural observations and was randomly allocated by wing tag number, irrespective of treatment. Birds were then housed within their pairs in separate cardboard pet carriers (28 x 35 x 46 cm) until transferred into the LAPS chamber by hand. Each pair of birds was placed in the top right tier (1.53 x 1.21 x 0.23 m) of the US poultry container within 247 the LAPS chamber. Soft polystyrene dividers were used to position the two birds at the front of the tier (available space 0.76 x 1.21 x 0.23 m, resulting in a stocking density of 5.0 Kg/m2

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 based on average bird weight of 2.3 kg), in order to minimise damage to the birds when convulsing and reduce the risk of birds from disappearing from camera view during the LAPS cycle. Once the birds had been placed in the tier, the chamber door was closed and sealed and the LAPS cycle started. During the trials, the birds were watched in real time on a monitor to check for unexpected behaviour. Video footage was recorded on a digital video recorder (Datavideo M# DN300) to allow behavioural observations to be conducted later, continuous recordings from 5 s prior to the start of LAPS to 5 s after the end of the cycle were obtained for each pair of birds. On completion of the LAPS cycle, the birds were removed from the chamber and reflexes were immediately assessed (e.g. presence of rhythmic breathing, nictitating membrane) to confirm death.

2.4 Behavioural Observations

 An ethogram was developed based on previous behavioural work on LAPS (Mackie & McKeegan, 2016) as well as CAS research (Lambooij et al., 1999; Coenen et al., 2009) (Table 1). Behaviours for both birds in each pair were recorded using The Noldus Observer XT 11.0 programme by a single observer who was blinded to pair number, block type and individual bird treatment. Behavioural variables measured included latencies, counts, total durations, bout durations and bout counts; see Table 1 for specific measures for each behaviour. Birds which went out of sight for more than 10% of the total observation time (280 s) were excluded from the data set. Reasons for birds going out of sight were that they moved behind the other bird or to the far end of the chamber. Data was exported from Observer to Microsoft Excel 2010.

2.5 Statistical analysis

 All data were summarised in Microsoft Excel (2010) spread sheets and analysed using Genstat (14th Edition). Statistical significance was based on F statistics and P<0.05 threshold level. Summary graphs and statistics were produced at bird level. Statistical comparisons of behavioural variables were conducted via Generalised Linear Mixed Models

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 (GLMM) (Poisson distribution) or Linear Mixed Models (LLM) (normal distribution) dependent on the data distributions for each variable. Data transformations were attempted when necessary via Logarithm function. All models included bird ID, companion bird ID and pair block type as random effects. All fixed effects were treated as factors and all interactions between factors were included in maximal models. All models included treatment, pair order, 282 and marked bird as fixed effects and bird weight, ambient temperature, ambient humidity as covariates. Correlations between variables and fixed effects were performed as Pearson's Correlations for parametric data, and Spearman's Rank Correlations for non-transformable non parametric data. For behaviours which were not exhibited by all birds, the effect of treatment on the proportions of birds showing the behaviour was compared with Chi Square 287 tests using two by two contingency tables.

3. Results

 No birds showed any signs of life at the end of the LAPS cycle (absence of rhythmic breathing, absence of corneal or palpebral reflex (EFSA 2013). A total of 17/90 birds went 292 out of sight at some point during observations (by treatment: $A = 9$: $S = 8$), with mean total 293 out of sight durations of 29.4 \pm 10.9 s for analgesic birds (10.5 \pm 3.9% of total observation 294 time) and 90.8 ± 33.1 s for sham birds (33.1 \pm 11.6% of total observation time). Based on exclusion criteria (>50% of observation time out of sight), 3 sham birds were removed from analysis to avoid bias. The birds showed a consistent sequence of behaviours during LAPS: ataxia, loss of posture, clonic/tonic convulsions, leg paddling and motionless. Clonic convulsions, sitting, lying, ataxia, loss of posture, loss of jaw tone and motionless were observed in all birds as they underwent LAPS. No birds were observed performing escape behaviour, pecking or panting.

 Almost all birds (83/90) exhibited vigilance behaviour at the onset of LAPS, and the total duration, bout duration and number of bouts this behaviour was increased in birds receiving analgesic (total mean duration 37.1 s compared to 30.5 s in controls, Table 2). The mean

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 latency to show mandibulation was delayed by analgesic treatment (18.8 s vs. 25.5 s, Table 3), while saline treated birds exhibited more counts of mandibulation than analgesic treated birds (mandibulations per bird ranged from 1-12, mean count 2.7 vs. 2.1, Table 4). Mean counts of headshaking were higher in analgesic treated birds compared to saline treated birds (headshakes per bird ranged from 1-7, mean counts 2.4 with analgesic compared to 1.7 in controls, Table 4). Total duration of standing was higher in analgesic treated birds (16.0 s compared to 12.3 s in saline birds, Table 2) there were also longer standing bout durations with analgesic (13.1 s compared to 7.5 s, Table 2).

 Analgesic treatment affected the latency to ataxia but the effect in terms of time difference was small (44.5 s for birds receiving analgesia compared to 41.8 s for sham treated birds, overall range 21.4 – 65.2 s, Table 3). Analgesic treatment had no effect on the duration of ataxia (Table 2). Analgesic treatment also had no effect on other latencies related to the onset of unconsciousness (loss of posture or loss of jaw tone; Table 3). Figure 1 shows the patterning of key behaviours relating to loss of consciousness in the first 100 s of LAPS according to treatment, indicating the sequence of behaviour and showing that analgesia treatment was associated with a delay in the latency of some behaviours, but had no effect on latency to loss of consciousness, as indicated by loss of jaw tone and loss of posture. Jumping was not seen until birds started to show ataxia and loss of posture (mean latency 55.4 ± 1.4 s); this was seen in fewer birds receiving analgesic compared to those receiving saline (46.5% vs. 67.5%; Table 5). Saline treated birds also exhibited more jumps than analgesic treated birds (jumps per bird ranged from 1-3, mean count 1.0 compared to 0.5, Table 4).

 Slow wing flapping was seen in significantly more birds receiving saline (74%) than analgesic (47%, Table 5), but longer bout durations were observed with analgesic (Table 2). Longer and more bouts of tonic convulsions were also observed in birds received analgesic, but latencies and overall durations were unaffected (Table 3, Table 2). There were no effects of

 analgesic on clonic convulsions. Frequency of bouts and bout durations of lying were increased in birds receiving analgesic (75.2 s) compared to controls (72.7 s, Table 2). The total duration of leg paddling was affected by treatment, with analgised birds exhibiting longer durations (9.1 s compared to 6.8 s in saline birds). Latency, bout duration and bout frequency of leg paddling was unaffected by treatment, as was latency to become motionless.

 The latency to the first deep inhalation behaviour was 82.5 s in saline treated birds, greater compared to 101.8 s analgesic treated birds (Table 3), but counts of this behaviour (counts per bird ranged from 1-8) were not affected by treatment (Table 2). The duration of open bill breathing bouts was shorter in analgesic treated birds (8.1 s compared to 6.8 s in saline treated birds, Table 2). Only four birds vocalised; three of the vocalisations occurred during clonic convulsions suggesting that they may have been involuntary. The fourth bird vocalised once at 14 s into LAPS.

 Fixed effects had minimal influence on behaviour latencies; however some factors affected 349 certain behaviours. Bird weight affected latency to ataxia ($F_{1,84}$ = 7.77, p = 0.021) and 350 mandibulation ($F_{1,41}$ = 17.7, p < 0.001) and was negatively correlated with both, but not 351 significantly ($r = -0.109$, $p = 0.322$ and $r = -0.123$, $p = 0.428$, respectively). The onset of 352 open-bill breathing ($F_{1,67} = 8.63$, $p = 0.005$) and deep inhalation ($F_{1,48} = 9.41$, $p = 0.002$) were positively related to bodyweight, with significant positive correlation with first deep inhalation 354 $(r = 0.354, p = 0.014)$. Ambient temperature had no effect on the majority of behavioural 355 latencies except for time to become motionless ($F_{1,84} = 5.51$, $p = 0.022$) which was non-356 significantly negatively correlated ($r = -0.098$, $p = 0.373$). Latency to slow wing flapping was 357 also related to ambient temperature ($F_{1,51}$ = 2.33, p <0.001) with a non-significant positive 358 correlation ($r = 0.075$, $p = 0.600$). In terms of behaviour durations, fixed effects did not 359 explain a significant proportion of the data except for ambient temperature ($F_{1,64} = 5.00$, $p =$ 360 0.028) and humidity ($F_{1,64}$ = 4.26, p = 0.042) which were related to the durations of tonic

361 convulsions, although neither had significant correlations ($r = 0.178$, $p = 0.159$; $r = -0.138$, $p = 0.138$ $362 = 0.278$ respectively).

 The majority of fixed effects and interactions had no significant effect on the total counts of behaviour including jumping, mandibulation, head shaking or deep inhalation behaviours. 366 The only significant effects were between mandibulation and bird weight ($F_{1,44} = 3.11$, $p =$ 367 0.008), ambient humidity ($F_{1,44} = 7.68$, $p = 0.007$) and ambient temperature ($F_{1,44} = 6.42$, $p =$ 368 0.011), as well as between headshaking and ambient humidity ($F_{1,51} = 5.22$, $p = 0.025$).

4. Discussion

 A consistent series of behavioural responses were seen during LAPS, similar to previous reports (Vizzier-Thaxton et al., 2010; Mackie and McKeegan 2016). The responses also closely resembled those observed during exposure to controlled atmosphere stunning with inert gases such as Argon and Nitrogen (Raj et al., 1991; Gerritzen et al., 2000; McKeegan et al., 2007). Previously, EFSA (2004) opined that "anoxia is not aversive to poultry and does not induce any signs of respiratory distress prior to loss of consciousness". Mackie and McKeegan (2016) discussed the welfare implications of behavioural responses to LAPS but noted that further work would be required to determine if any of them are specifically pain related. Our expectation was that the most likely pain related behaviours would be headshaking, vocalisation and escape behaviour. In general, administration of butorphanol had no effect on the type and patterning of behavioural responses during LAPS compared to control birds, but there were differences in behaviour latencies, counts and durations. While bout durations and frequencies of some behaviours were affected by analgesic, total durations were generally unaffected except for vigilance, standing and leg paddling.

 Pain related behaviour in birds has been previously identified in a variety of contexts, and includes active escape/withdrawal, guarding, sick bird posture, freezing and vocalisation (Gentle, 2011; Paul-Murphy, 2013). Since these responses were not seen during LAPS, this

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389 study presents an opportunity to use analgesic intervention to identify potential pain related behaviour. There is a danger that using the effects of analgesic treatment on behaviour to recognise pain becomes a circular argument (i.e. pain is something removed by an analgesic; an analgesic is something which removes pain; Bateson, 1991). It is also important to note that analgesic drugs may have behavioural effects unrelated to pain and nociception. The analgesic applied in this study was potentially optimal, systemic and centrally acting with proven effectiveness in clinical contexts (Paul-Murphy, 2013). Butorphanol has been shown to have high bioavailability following IM administration in psittacines and raptors (Guzman et al., 2011; Gustaven et al., 2014), though Paul-Murphy (2013) notes that dosage of butorphanol for effective analgesia needs to be balanced with sedation and respiratory depression, which may vary between avian species.

 Latencies to ataxia, mandibulation and deep inhalation were slightly delayed by analgesic treatment, however the duration of ataxia and other behaviours related to loss of consciousness were unaffected. These delayed initial responses raise the question of whether butorphanol had a sedative effect. Previous work administering butorphanol IM to Kestrels at 1, 3 or 6 mg/kg did not change mean sedation-agitation scores, except in at 6mg/kg 1.5 hours after injection (Guzman et al., 2014), but responses to this compound are likely to be species specific (Paul-Murphy, 2013). Possible sedation effects of the analgesic are not supported by results showing that analgised birds spent more time vigilant at the start of the LAPS cycle, and the latency to become vigilant was unaffected by treatment. In some species such as dogs (Hofmeister et al., 2006) butorphanol can produce side effects such as dysphoria where the animals appear agitated and disorientated. This could provide an explanation for some of the differences in behaviour seen, but such dysphoric effects have not been reported in birds (Hawkins, 2006).One of the most obvious candidates for pain related behaviour during LAPS is headshaking, which has been previously associated with disorientation, discomfort, respiratory distress (Webster and Fletcher, 2001) or arousal (Hughes, 1983). Nicol et al., (2011) found that head shaking may be a valid indicator of a

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 less preferred environment and high rates of head shaking may indicate poor welfare. Only around half of birds showed this behaviour (as reported previously, Mackie and McKeegan, 2016) and the proportion of birds exhibiting the behaviour was unaffected by treatment; in fact its frequency was increased in birds receiving analgesia. This does not fit with it being pain related behaviour abolished by analgesia, and it is possible that the observed increase may be related to dysphoria and/or a sensation of disorientation. Headshaking is also a behaviour that is routinely seen in controlled atmosphere stunning of chickens with both inert and hypercapnic gas mixtures (McKeegan et al 2007; Abeyesinghe et al 2007). Interestingly, birds receiving analgesia spent more time standing at the start of the LAPS cycle. While 426 none of the birds was obviously lame, several sources of leg pain may be present and these may have been relieved by butorphanol in treated birds.

 Administration of butorphanol has been shown to cause lowering of the heart rate, tidal volume, and inspiratory and expiratory times in psittacines (Curro et al., 1994), but such opioid side effects appear to be less pronounced in chickens (Concannon et al., 1995). In contrast to previous work describing behavioural responses to LAPS (Mackie and McKeegan, 2016), in this study we attempted to distinguish between deep inhalation and open bill breathing. Analgesic treatment was associated with a delayed latency to deep inhalation and increased duration of open bill breathing bouts (but not total duration). These differences suggest that there were some physiological side effects of the drug which 437 affected the response to hypobaric hypoxia, possibly due to respiratory depression. While 53% of birds performed deep inhalation behaviours, 77 to 83% of birds exhibited open bill breathing and similar responses have been seen in response to controlled atmosphere stunning using hypoxic gas mixtures (e.g. McKeegan et al., 2007) suggesting they probably relate to anoxia.

 A wide range of behavioural responses were seen in all birds, with a few (e.g. standing) 444 exhibited only in a small proportion of birds and were generally unaffected by treatment.

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 Exceptions to this were slow wing flapping and jumping, both behaviours associated with ataxia and loss of posture. Fewer birds receiving analgesia showed jumping (20 compared to 27) and slow wing flapping behaviour (20 compared to 31) compared to controls, which suggests these may be pain related. The latencies of these behaviours show that they occurred, on average, after the onset of ataxia and they did not appear to be escape behaviours. The results may reflect a smoother induction to unconsciousness in analgised birds, with butorphanol possibly having an effect similar to a premedication.

 No panting behaviour was shown and only 4 birds vocalised, although it was apparent that the three of the vocalisations may have been unconscious forced exhalation by the birds due to simultaneous vigorous wing flapping and clonic convulsions as all but one vocalisation was observed after loss of jaw tone, ataxia and loss of posture had occurred, suggesting the 457 birds were no longer conscious (McKeegan et al., 2013; Sandercock et al., 2014; Martin, 2015).

 There were some effects of temperature and humidity but many of the underlying correlations were not significant. The LAPS system operates a series of decompression curves according to ambient temperature, and these have been previously shown to affect some behaviour latencies and durations (Mackie and McKeegan, 2016). In this study, only one curve was applied so determining the effects of ambient temperature and humidly was not our aim. Bird weight effects on ataxia, mandibulation, open bill breathing and deep inhalation were apparent in the current study, but a more powerful factorial study would be needed to investigate these relationships further.

5. Conclusion

 There are few studies on the side effects of butorphanol in chickens, which limits our ability to draw firm conclusions from this study. Another obvious limitation is the lack of a positive control and thus any conclusions depend on acceptance of the fact that butorphanol is an

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 effective analgesic in chickens. Apart from the ethical concerns raised by deliberate induction of pain, it is not clear what sort of pain model would be relevant to this study. With these limitations in mind, it may still be argued that the results do not provide convincing evidence that birds undergoing LAPS are experiencing pain. While there were effects of analgesia on some aspects of behaviour, and jumping and slow wing flapping was reduced, these effects may be explained by the potential sedative, dysphoric and physiological side effects of butorphanol. In particular, obvious pain related behaviours such as escape/withdrawal and freezing were not seen at all, while others such as head-shaking and vocalisation were not reduced with analgesic intervention during LAPS. EEG data 482 (McKeegan et al., 2013; Martin et al., submitted) demonstrates the maintenance of slow wave EEG patterns induced by darkness in the early part of LAPS (while birds are still conscious); desynchronisation of the EEG resembling 'waking' from sleep would be expected during aversive or painful stimulation (Gentle, 1975). These findings support the notion that during the period of the gradual reduction of pressure in LAPS the behavioural responses seen are primarily related to exposure to hypoxia rather than hypobaric conditions. The patterns of behaviour are also similar to those seen in normobaric hypoxia using inert gases, and thus in terms of welfare, this stunning method could be considered to be equivalent to controlled atmosphere stunning with inert gases.

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- **Figure captions**

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- 641 **Figure 1** Mean latencies and durations (ataxia only) and the relationship in time of key
- 642 behaviours related to loss of consciousness during LAPS in saline and analgesic
- 643 treated birds.

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- 646
- 647 Tables
- 648 **Table 1** Ethogram of bird behaviours during LAPS cycle.

649
650 650 **Table 2** Summary statistics (mean, SE, minimum and maximum) of behavioural total

651 durations of bouts and individual bouts during LAPS and statistical differences (F statistic 652 and P value) dependent of A/S treatment. Values within a row with different superscripts 653 differ significantly at $p<0.05$.

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654 * No individual bout duration for ataxia, as ataxia only occurred in one single bout, therefore

655 descriptive statistics listed under total duration.

656

657 **Table 3** Summary statistics (mean, SE, minimum and maximum) of behavioural latencies

658 during LAPS and statistical differences (F statistic and P value) dependent of treatment.

659 Values within a row with different superscripts differ significantly at $P<0.05$.

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660 * No modelling possible for latencies for vocalisations (too few observations (N=4)).

661

662 **Table 4** Summary statistics (mean, SE, minimum and maximum) of behavioural total counts

663 during LAPS and statistical differences (F statistic and P value) dependent of A/S treatment.

664 Values within a row with different superscripts differ significantly at $p<0.05$.

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Table 5 Frequency table demonstrating the proportions of birds which were observed

667 performing (yes), or were not recorded (missing data) due to being out of sight, total number

668 of birds (total) and the percentage of birds which performed the behaviour %).

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