

Nutritional factors affecting excreta/litter moisture and quality

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The control of excreta/litter moisture and quality is a priority in the modern poultry industry, to avoid environmental and animal welfare problems and to reduce productivity losses. Control implies the reduction of their amounts and moisture content. Several factors can affect them, some related to management and housing, others related to diseases and finally, dietary factors. The paper reviews some nutritional aspects that could interfere with the moisture and quality of poultry excreta/litter, focusing on dietary factors affecting water consumption, water excretion and the amount and composition of excreta: dietary protein level, electrolyte balance, ionophores, cereals causing viscosity problems or containing high levels of non-digestible fibre fractions, unusual ingredients or by-products and finally some feed technological treatments.

Keywords: excreta; litter; electrolyte balance; ionophores; cereals; legumes; by-products; feed processing

Introduction

With further intensification and high performance goals to be achieved in the modern poultry production, the control of excreta/litter quality may avoid environmental and animal welfare problems and may increase economic profits in the commercial poultry industry. The control of excreta/litter quality implies the reduction of their amounts and moisture content. Many environmental and management problems could be associated with a high moisture content in excreta or litter such as increase of relative humidity; increased weight and volume of manure which increase their management, storage and removal costs; more fly development; increase of the rate of loss of ammonia into the environment. Moreover, many welfare and productivity constraints would be associated with high litter or excreta moisture, increase of dirty eggs, foot-pat dermatitis and breast burns, respiratory diseases, increased survival of viruses, etc.

This paper was first presented at the 14th European Symposium on Poultry Nutrition, Lillehammer, Norway, August 10-14, 2003

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World's Poultry Science Journal, Vol. 60, March 2004
Received for publication August 20, 2003
Accepted for publication September 26, 2003

Several factors can affect the excreta/litter moisture content; some of them are related to management and housing (amount and type of litter, temperature, ventilation, heating, drinking system, density), other factors are related to diseases caused by various infections (coccidiosis, *Escherichia coli*, *Campylobacter*, *spirochaetes*), finally there are dietary factors which may affect water consumption and excretion. The excreta composition, which can affect their water retention capacity limiting the evaporative water losses, may also alter the litter characteristics.

This paper reviews some nutritional aspects that could modify the moisture and quality of poultry excreta/litter, focusing on dietary factors affecting water consumption, water excretion and the amount and composition of excreta: dietary protein level, electrolyte balance, ionophores, ingredients causing viscosity problems or containing high levels of non-digestible fibre fractions, some unusual ingredients or by-products and finally some feed technological treatments.

Dietary protein level

Excessive dietary protein supply in birds must be catabolised and excreted via the kidneys in the form of uric acid, this implies higher water consumption. On average and after Larbier and Leclercq (1992), the increase of 1 percentage point in protein level increases water consumption by 3%. Marks and Pesti (1984), feeding birds with diets changing protein content from 17% to 26% by increasing soybean at the expense of maize, observed a permanent increase of water consumption and higher water/feed ratios. Alleman and Leclercq (1997) studied the combined effect of temperature and dietary protein on water consumption, by testing two diets (16 and 20% of crude protein) at two temperatures (22° and 32°C). From 23 to 44 days and at 22°C, water intake increased linearly with age whereas at 32°C water intake remained constant. The increase of protein level raised water consumption at both temperatures. The water/feed ratio at 22°C was 1.69 (16% CP) and 1.93 (20% CP); at 32°C the ratios were 2.84 and 3.07, respectively. Ferguson *et al.* (1998) pointed out that it was possible to decrease litter moisture by 6%, litter nitrogen by 16.5% and equilibrium NH₃ gas concentration by 31%, by reducing CP during the period of 22 to 43 d from 21.5% with 1.15 % lysine to 19.6% CP and 1.13% lysine but the improvement of litter quality was at the expense of increased feed intake and slight impairment of feed to gain ratio. No differences in litter quality parameters were observed between 16.5 and 19.5% of CP, but an important impairment of performance was noted at 16.5% of CP. However, the detrimental effect of dietary protein level on water consumption could be confounded with the protein source factor. In the three studies mentioned, the increase of dietary protein level was reached by the increase of soybean meal. Wheeler and James (1950) reported that soybean meal resulted in greater water intake than equal amounts of animal protein. Soybean meal, the main protein source in poultry diets, contains other components that can be responsible for a higher water excretion, such as fibre with high water retention capacity, fermentable sugars and potassium.

Electrolyte balance

Sodium, chloride and potassium are essential for all animals to maintain osmotic pressure regulation, acid-base balance and fluid balance in body tissues (Henry, 1995). Under practical conditions the acid-base status of birds is determined primarily by the amounts of sodium and potassium in the diet in addition to chloride (DEB, dietary electrolyte

balance= $\text{Na}^+\text{+K}^-\text{Cl}^-$). Excessive intake of sodium and/or potassium in relation to chloride leads to alkalosis and an excessive intake of chloride results in an acidosis. Mongin (1981) reported that optimal chick growth performance when feeding purified diets was achieved using an electrolyte balance ($\text{Na}^+\text{+K}^-\text{Cl}^-$) of 250 mEq/kg with a relation $(\text{K}+\text{Cl})/\text{Na} > 1$. Recently, Oviedo-Rondón *et al.* (2001) and Murakami *et al.* (2001) established with modern broiler strains and practical diets, an optimal DEB for the starter phase between 246 and 315 mEq/kg and for the grower one between 249 and 257 mEq/kg. Studying the influence of the DEB on water intake and litter moisture under warm and humid ambient, Borges *et al.* (2003) calculated an ideal predicted DEB of 236 mEq/kg for weight gain and 207 mEq/kg for feed conversion from 0 to 42. Water intake increased linearly with the dietary DEB increase and the increase of water intake was also reflected in a progressive increase in litter moisture. By the fourth week, litter moisture rose from 29.8% to 51.4% with 360 DEB, rendering management difficult. The authors concluded that under the conditions of the experiment and for growth and feed efficiency purposes, the most adequate DEB was 240 mEq/kg, although the high water intake and litter moisture were observed from the fourth week. In addition, birds fed diets with DEB higher than 240 had the lowest rectal temperatures and the smallest body heat variation from morning to afternoon, indicating a protective heat stress at that DEB level.

It would be difficult to demonstrate the detrimental effect of increasing dietary DEB on water consumption and excreta moisture, without taking into account the separate effects of the ions involved. The excess of Na^+ and K^+ promotes increases in litter moisture and water intake, whereas the increase of chloride anions seems unrelated to the humidity of droppings (Oviedo-Rondón *et al.*, 2001). The sodium requirement to achieve maximum growth rate has been estimated to be from 0.20% to 0.28% for young chickens and from 0.15% to 0.20% for growing chickens (NRC, 1994; Murakami *et al.*, 1997; Oviedo-Rondón *et al.*, 2001). The effect of dietary sodium level on water intake and excreta moisture is well documented and there is a wide agreement between authors that excess of sodium in chicken diets increases excreta moisture (see summary in Table 1). In the majority of reports the increase of excreta moisture is linearly dependent on the increase

Table 1 Some published studies on the effects of ions on increasing water consumption and excreta/litter moisture.

Ion	Supplemental level	Water intake	Excreta/litter moisture	Author	
<i>Sodium</i>	0.1, 0.15, 0.2, 0.35%	Linear	-	1	
	0.12, 0.16, 0.20, 0.24, 0.28%	-	>0.24%	2	
	0.15, 0.30, 0.45%	No effect	-	3	
	0.20, 0.39, 0.59, 0.78%	No affect	>0.39%	4	
	From 0.15 to 0.30% (Δ 0.05%)	-	>0.25% (litter)	5	
	0.16, 0.5, 1.0, 1.5%	-	Linear	6	
	0.16, 0.55, 0.94, 1.33, 1.72, 2.11%	Linear	Linear	7	
	From 0.10 to 0.35% (Δ 0.05%)	-	Linear (litter)	8-9	
	<i>Potassium</i>	0.5, 1.0%	Increase	-	3
		0.23, 0.5, 0.75, 1.0, 1.5, 2.0%	Linear	Linear	7
<i>Chloride</i>	From 0.10 to 0.35% (Δ 0.05%)	-	No effect (litter)	8	
<i>Electrolyte balance</i>	125, 165, 205 mEq/kg	-	205 increase	10	

1. Nan *et al.* (1979); 2. Damron and Harms (1981); 3. Fleet and Saylor (1983); 4. Damron *et al.* (1986); 5. Murakami *et al.* (1997); 6. Smith *et al.* (2000a); 7. Smith *et al.* (2000b). 8. Oviedo-Rondón *et al.* (2001); 9. Murakami *et al.* (2001); 10. Karunajeewa and Barr (1988).

of added sodium (Fleet and Saylor, 1983; Murakami *et al.*, 1997; Oviedo-Rondón *et al.*, 2001). In layers, Smith *et al.* (2000b) also found that increasing dietary sodium from 0.16 to 2.11% gave a linear increase of the excreta moisture; a 0.9% increase for each 0.1% of sodium. The same group (Smith *et al.*, 2000a) observed that the increase of dietary sodium concentration from 0.16% to 1.5% gave a linear increase of excreta moisture and for each 10% increase in excreta moisture dirty egg numbers increased by 0.52%. Others authors did not find impairment with sodium addition below 0.24-0.25% (Damron and Harms, 1981; Damron *et al.*, 1986; Murakami *et al.*, 1997). Water consumption has been less frequently measured than excreta moisture, but some reports indicated also a linear increase of water consumption with the increase of sodium supplementation (Damron *et al.*, 1986). Smith *et al.*, (2000b) measured in layers a 2.9-fold increase on water consumption and a 6.7-fold increase on water-feed to ratio with the rise of sodium supplementation from 0.16 to 2.11%.

It is a current practice in the poultry industry to use sodium bicarbonate (SBC) as a source of supply of sodium in broiler and turkey diets, to maintain electrolyte balance, improve heat stress tolerance, and dry litter. In layer diets, sodium bicarbonate is used to improve eggshell quality, particularly in older hens and during heat stress, but its use is not fully supported by scientific evidence. At high temperatures, broilers showed disturbance in the acid-base balance and under thermal stress birds regulated heat loss through the evaporation of water from their lungs, increasing respiratory rate, which leads to a respiratory alkalosis (Teeter and Belay, 1996). In this situation, the supplementation of feed or drinking water with SBC has shown some beneficial response (Balnave and Gorman, 1993). But under practical conditions, the other supposed advantage of SBC in broilers feeds is the reduction of NaCl to avoid wet litter problems. Merrill (1993) reported that in Western Europe, 0.2% of sodium bicarbonate plus 0.15% of added NaCl is regularly used for this purpose, where in this context there is not enough scientific evidence. Damron and Harms (1981), Damron *et al.* (1986), Murakami *et al.* (1997) and Smith *et al.* (2000b) did not find differences in excreta moisture between the addition of the same quantity of sodium from sodium chloride or sodium bicarbonate. On the other hand, Hooge *et al.* (1999) found differences between sodium sources comparing the effect of adding 0.054 % of extra sodium from sodium bicarbonate, chloride or sulphate on top of a maize-soybean or maize-soybean-meat diets containing 0.20% of sodium. Birds were challenged with coccidia and diets included Monensin. They found that water excretion expressed as a percentage of intake and litter moisture were significantly increased by extra NaCl compared with the control, SBC resulted in an intermediate and significant increase as well, and sodium sulphate had no effect.

Potassium is readily absorbed from the upper small intestine and is excreted from the body primarily through the urine. The functions of potassium in the body include osmotic pressure regulation, maintenance of water and acid-base balance, nerve impulse conduction, muscle contraction and enzymatic reactions balance (Miller, 1995). The increases of dietary potassium level has also been associated, like sodium, with an increase of water consumption and excreta moisture. After Smith *et al.* (2000b), each 0.1% increase of potassium increased the moisture content of excreta by 1.2% in layers fed potassium levels from 0.23 to 2.0% and the increase was similar to that observed for sodium (0.9%). Carré *et al.* (1994) measured water and feed consumption and water excretion of 5-week-old turkeys fed with 27 feeds, to establish functions for prediction of water excretion and consumption from feed parameters. The highest correlations ($r = 0.71$ and $r = 0.77$ for water excretion and consumption, respectively) were observed with the RAV (real applied viscosity) and the most efficient regressions were that combining RAV with dietary potassium content (ranged from 0.59 to 1.06%). Potassium appeared in the regressions as a modulator of slopes attributed to viscosity, turkeys fed low potassium

diets were more sensitive to variations in viscosity than turkeys fed high potassium diets. The effect of feed viscosity on water intake and excreta moisture will be commented on later. Some prediction equations to estimate water intake and excreta moisture from the dietary ion concentrations are shown in Table 2.

Table 2 Some linear estimates of changing the dietary ions concentration (%) on water intake and excreta moisture.

Mineral	Dependent variable	Estimate	Author
			Smith <i>et al.</i> (2000b). Layers
X=sodium:	Excreta moisture (g/kg)	y=693.7 + 9.04x	
	Water intake (g/d)	y=130.7 + 13.67x	
X=potassium:	Excreta moisture (g/kg)	y=570.7 + 11.95x	
	Water intake (g/d)	y=174.2 + 9.19 x	
X=phosphorus	Excreta moisture (g/kg)	y=723.5 + 5.59x	
	Water intake (g/d)	y=192.1 + 7.43x	
			Carré <i>et al.</i> (1994). Turkeys
X ₁ =potassium	Water intake/feed intake	Y=(3.4x ₁ ² - 6.36x ₁ + 3.14)x ₂ + 1.16x ₁ + 0.63	
X ₂ = viscosity ⁽¹⁾	Water excretion/feed intake	Y=(2.78x ₁ ² - 5.16x ₁ + 2.50)x ₂ + 0.66x ₁ + 0.23	

⁽¹⁾Real applied viscosity (g⁻¹.ml)

Ionophores

Ionophores are used as coccidiostats in poultry to prevent development of coccidia in the gastro-intestinal tract. Their mode of action is related to high diffusion rates of the complexes across lipid barriers together with high cation selectivity, making membranes permeable to Na⁺ and K⁺ ions, allowing excess water enter into the cell and affecting mitochondrial activity. The ionophore coccidiostats interact with nutrients in the diet, especially with the electrolytes sodium, potassium and chloride. The selectivity of ionophores for ions is variable, whereas monensin and narasin have preference for transporting sodium over potassium; salinomycin and lasalocid are more selective for potassium than sodium (Pressman, 1976). Due to their interaction with the electrolyte balance, ionophores have often been suspected of stimulating water consumption and causing litter moisture problems in broilers, and of changing nutrients requirements in poultry; but scientific data are not conclusive. It seems that the use of monensin did not change the sodium requirements (Damron and Harms, 1981) and the use of either monensin or lasalocid did not alter the balance of electrolytes required for optimum growth (Karunajeewa and Barr, 1988). Regarding water consumption and wet litter problems, some reports have shown a significant effect of lasalocid on these parameters. Wheelhouse *et al.* (1985) reported a significant increase of water consumption for lasalocid over monensin groups, but not over non-medicated or salinomycin groups in females during seven weeks, whereas in males differences were not statistically different. Lasalocid at 110 or 124 mg/kg increased water consumption, water: feed and water: body weight in comparison with amprolium, salinomycin, monensin and non-medicated groups trough the first 21 d (Damron, 1994). In 42-day study (Ouart *et al.*, 1995), lasalocid at 100 and 124 mg/kg also increased water intake by 9% at 21 and 42 days and litter moisture by 6% at day 21 in comparison with halofuginone, salinomycin, monensin and non-medicated control. Other studies were not able to find a higher water consumption or higher litter moisture with the use of lasalocid over that of controls (Patel *et al.*, 1980; Salsbury, 1984; Wheelhouse *et al.*, 1985; Macy *et al.*, 1990). Some trials showed a reverse effect of monensin, reducing water consumption over that of non- medicated birds (Frigg and Broz, 1983; Fleet and Saylor, 1983). Radu and Van Dijk (1987) found that broilers

given diets with maduramicin drank more water than the non-medicated birds (by 5.7%), which in turn, drank more than birds fed salinomycin (by 6%). With wheat-based diets, Karunajeewa and Barr (1990) found significantly higher litter moisture in maduramicin groups than in salinomycin groups (48.5% vs. 38.7%).

Cereals causing viscosity problems

The use of cereals rich in soluble non-starch polysaccharides (sNSP) like rye, barley, triticale and often wheat have been currently associated with litter problems related to the increase in amount of excreta or to the excreta stickiness and wateriness. Roberts *et al.* (1998) compared the effect of different cereals, sorghum, barley, wheat and triticale, on excreta moisture content in laying hens and they found that barley diets caused the wettest (77.5% vs. 74.5% on average). The antinutritive effect of sNSP (β -glucans and arabinoxylans) is manifested by growth depression, reduced nutrient digestibility (especially fat), physiological and morphological changes in the digestive system, increased digesta viscosity and by modifying intestinal microflora (Choct, 2000). The effect of sNSP on digesta viscosity could be probably the first direct cause of increased water consumption and faecal moisture in birds fed barley, rye, wheat or triticale. As mentioned before, and according to the results of Carré *et al.* (1994), water consumption and excretion in relation to feed intake and excreta score in turkeys were highly correlated with feed viscosity ($r=0.78$, 0.71 and 0.89 , respectively). Also Carré *et al.* (2002) found positive correlations between viscosity-related parameters and excreta water/feed intake ratio in birds fed different wheat varieties. Increase of feed viscosity lowers water absorption and thus increases water losses through the excreta. The regular use of non-starch polysaccharides degrading enzymes in diets containing cereals high in sNSP helps to alleviate the problem. According to Bedford and Morgan, (1996), enzymes are probably used in practice more for their effect on reducing wet litter than for any other reason. The same author (Bedford, 1995) measured the whole excreta production of birds fed an enzyme supplemented barley diet and it was reduced by more than 25% at 3 weeks and 22% at 6 weeks of age compared with controls. Table 3 shows a summary of some published studies on the effects of enzyme supplementation on digesta viscosity, water intake and quality of excreta/litter. The majority of data is from barley diets and the trends showing a clear effect of enzyme addition towards reduction of the sticky droppings, digesta viscosity, higher dry matter of excreta and lower water consumption, when it was measured. Figure 1 clearly showed that as the amount of barley increased, water consumption and the incidence of sticky droppings also increased, whereas with enzyme addition no effect of barley inclusion was observed (Francesch *et al.*, 1989).

Although the negative effect of sNSP is much stronger in young birds than in older ones (Almirall *et al.*, 1995), enzyme addition has shown some beneficial effect on reducing excreta viscosity and number of dirty eggs. Choct (1999) compared the effect of different enzymes on wet droppings in four strains of layers fed a barley diet. There was a significant interaction between diet (different enzymes) and hybrid with regard to excreta moisture. In general, enzyme reduced excreta moisture but the reduction was dependent on the strain.

Fibrous ingredients and by-products

A cereal by-product that can cause problems with droppings is rice bran. Martin and Farrell (1998) found higher moisture content in ileal content of birds fed a diet containing

Table 3 Some published studies on the effects of enzyme supplementation on reduction of digesta viscosity, water intake, sticky droppings and excreta/litter moisture.

Cereal	Bird ⁽¹⁾	Digesta viscosity	Water intake	Sticky droppings	Excreta moisture		Author
					Enzyme +	Enzyme -	
Barley	BC	-	-	-	77.3%	81.0%	1
Barley	BC	-	-	-	74.6%	77.7%	2
Barley	BC	-	10%-19%	21%-32%	72.5%	74.3%	3
					69.5%	71.1%	
Barley	BC	-	6.9%-9.8%	88%-97%	43.3- 40.6%	47.8% ⁽³⁾	4
Barley	T	-	-	-	23%	27.0% ⁽³⁾	5
Barley	BC	-	-	50%	-	-	6
Barley	BC	-	-	41%-64%	75.6%	77.4%	7
Barley	BC	42%-74%	-	-	55.9%	59.4%	8
Barley	L	-	6.4%	-	78.6%	80.2%	9
Barley	BC	85%-90%	-	-	81.4%	83.3% ⁽²⁾	10
Barley	BC	30%	-	73%	81.8 %	85.3% ⁽²⁾	11
					76.6%	82.5%	
Wheat	BC	65%	0% ⁽⁴⁾	0%	71.0%	73.3%	12-13
Barley		73%	21%	31%	68.2%	73.5%	
Rye		90%	12%	17%	73.5%	75.7%	
Rye	BC	-	21% ⁽⁴⁾	-	-	-	14

⁽¹⁾BC=broiler chicken, L=layer, T=turkey. ⁽²⁾Ileal digesta moisture. ⁽³⁾Litter moisture. ⁽⁴⁾Water/feed
 1. Hesselman *et al.* (1982); 2. Broz and Frigg (1986); 3. Francesch *et al.* (1989); 4. Elwinger and Teglöf (1991);
 5. Ferket (1992); 6. Brufau *et al.* (1993); 7. Francesch *et al.* (1994); 8. Fuente *et al.* (1995); 9. Francesch *et al.*
 (1995); 10. Almirall *et al.* (1995); 11. Svihus *et al.* (1997); 12-13. Francesch *et al.* (1999a, 1999b); 14. Mathlouthi *et al.* (2002)

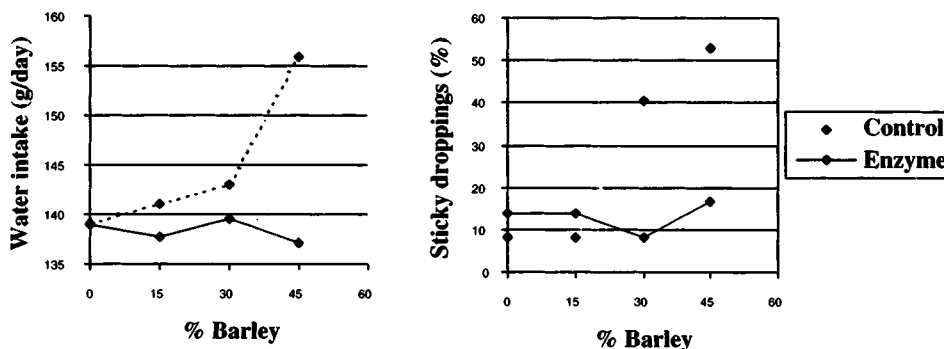


Figure 1 Effects of barley inclusion on water intake and incidence of sticky droppings in broilers chickens (Francesch *et al.*, 1989).

40% of rice bran replacing sorghum (84.6% vs. 81.7%). The same group observed that viscosity as well as dry matter of ileal digesta decreased with the use of 20 and 40% of rice bran in the diet (Farrell and Martin, 1998); they did not find any beneficial effect of using NSP degrading enzymes and authors concluded that soluble NSP were not a significant factor in altering the nutritive value of rice bran. Rice bran has a considerable amount of pentosans and the major proportion of this type of NSP is in insoluble form. Moreover, the structures of these pentosans are different from that present in wheat or rye (Annison *et al.*, 1995). The inclusion of isolated rice bran arabinoxylans in a broiler diet had no effect on

performance and nutrient digestibility. Other fibrous by-product ingredients that can increase the quantity of voided excreta and their water content are palm kernel meal, brewer's dried grains and maize offal (Onifade and Babatunde, 1998). Broilers fed the control diet voided less wet excreta than those fed the by-products. With all three products, wet and dry excreta weights increase as the amount of ingredients rose (from 10 to 20%) and excreta water content was highest with maize offal followed by palm kernel meal and the lowest was dried brewer's grains. The dietary energy dilution in laying hens by using sugar beet pulp has also produced an increase of water consumption, by 21% with 7.5% and by 56% with 15% of sugar beep pulp (Almirall *et al.*, 1997). Water to feed ratio was also increased in a similar magnitude in both mash and pelleted diets. Tapioca can cause droppings problems in poultry if included at high levels (30%) possible due to the presence of indigestible starches, presence of toxins (Pattison, 1987). Moreover, the potassium level in tapioca could be considerable high, depending on the quality.

Legumes

As a consequence of the recent ban of the use of meat and bone meals in poultry feeds, the levels of soybean meal increased, especially in turkey diets demanding high protein content. In France, Perez *et al.* (2002) reported an increase of problems related to an over-excretion of water in turkeys and laying hens, probable due to an increase of dietary potassium provided by soybean meal, naturally high in potassium (over 2%). Moreover, the increased use of high levels of vegetable protein ingredients in poultry diets implies also an increase of the quantity of indigestible carbohydrates in the gut, which lead to poor nutrient digestion and absorption (Classen and Bedford, 1999) and increased occurrence of unspecific digestion disturbances, which can affect water consumption and increase litter problems. Approximately 40% of soybean meal is poorly digested carbohydrate, principally cell wall components. Soybean meal contains a high level of NSP (about 22%) and considerable amount of low molecular weight sugars (about 14%) of which 44% are α -galacto-oligosaccharides (Bach Knudsen, 1997). The oligosaccharides present in soybean meal cause faeces to have hydroscopic properties, resulting in higher litter moisture (Bedford, 1995).

Sweet lupins have been shown to cause wet droppings in layers as well as in broiler chickens (Farrell *et al.*, 1999), attributable to their higher concentration of soluble NSP. Lupin kernel contains around 35% of total NSP, consisting predominantly of pectic polysaccharides rhamnogalacturonans, of which 15% are in soluble form (Evans *et al.*, 1993). Recently, Hughes *et al.* (2000) have also shown that the inclusion of lupin kernel isolate in the diet depressed AME and bird performance, and increased ileal viscosity and excreta moisture, in a dose-dependent manner. The use of an enzyme combination with pectinase, α -galactosidase, xylanase and β -glucanase activities resulted in a small improvement in dietary AME and had a beneficial effect on excreta moisture, only at the low level of lupin kernel.

Feed technological treatments

Some feed technological treatments, such as pelleting conditions, extrusion, and grinding can affect water consumption of birds fed barley or wheat. Samarasinghe *et al.* (2000) reported an increase in the water/feed ratio (by 3.6%) by the increase of pelleting temperature of a barley diet from 60 to 90°C; the increase in water intake followed the same pattern of increase of feed viscosity with the temperature. Silversides and Bedford

(1999) found a dramatic increase of digesta viscosity of birds fed on wheat-based diets with the increase of conditioning temperature before pelleting from 70 to 95°C; digesta viscosity increased from 4.12 to 11.14 cps. The increase of intestinal viscosity with higher processing temperatures is likely due to the increase of NSP solubility as well as the destruction of endogenous enzymes. The extrusion of barley before pelleting the diet also increased feed viscosity from 1.59 to 3.79 cP, due to an increase of soluble fibre and a decrease of insoluble fibre and a starch gelatinisation (Vukic Vranjes and Wenk, 1995). Barley extrusion increased dietary water binding capacity. Extruded barley depressed feed utilisation and dietary AME and increased water consumption during the first weeks.

In relation to the majority of ingredients used in poultry diets, Carré *et al.* (1995) tried to predict the sticking level and the visual score of the excreta of turkeys from the characteristics of feeds. The best equation obtained included real applied viscosity, with a positive coefficient, and water retention of cells walls with a negative coefficient. The water retention was depending on those of the raw materials and on outlet pelleting temperature. Among the ingredients tested the highest water retention of cells walls were found for alfalfa, soybean meal, full-fat extruded soybean meal and tapioca. Carré and Melcion (1995) pointed out the possibility to control water intake and excretion in turkeys taking into account in the formulation the potential applied viscosity values and potassium together with the monitoring of outlet temperature of pelleting.

Finally, feed particle size and pellet form can also affect water excretion. Carré *et al.* (1995) found a higher water excretion in relation to feed intake in birds fed pelleted than in mash diets containing guar gum or pectin. The same group (Carré *et al.*, 2002), feeding birds with pelleted diets containing different wheat varieties, have observed that water excretion (calculated as indices independent of food intake) was negatively related to the proportion of coarse particles measured after grinding wheat through a 3 mm screen. The authors explained this negative correlation by an increase of transit time induced by coarse particles allowing more water reabsorption.

Acknowledgement

The author is grateful to Dr Jiri Broz for his critical comments on the manuscript.

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