



HAL
open science

The effects of fructo-oligosaccharides or whole wheat on the performance and digestive tract of broiler chickens

Jeanne Williams, Serge Mallet, Maryse Leconte, Michel Lessire, Irène Gabriel

► To cite this version:

Jeanne Williams, Serge Mallet, Maryse Leconte, Michel Lessire, Irène Gabriel. The effects of fructo-oligosaccharides or whole wheat on the performance and digestive tract of broiler chickens. *British Poultry Science*, 2008, 49 (3), pp.329-339. 10.1080/00071660802123351 . hal-02668476

HAL Id: hal-02668476

<https://hal.inrae.fr/hal-02668476>

Submitted on 3 Oct 2022

HAL is a multi-disciplinary open access archive for the deposit and dissemination of scientific research documents, whether they are published or not. The documents may come from teaching and research institutions in France or abroad, or from public or private research centers.

L'archive ouverte pluridisciplinaire **HAL**, est destinée au dépôt et à la diffusion de documents scientifiques de niveau recherche, publiés ou non, émanant des établissements d'enseignement et de recherche français ou étrangers, des laboratoires publics ou privés.



Distributed under a Creative Commons Attribution - NonCommercial - NoDerivatives 4.0 International License

1 **The effects of fructo-oligosaccharides or whole wheat on the performance and**
2 **the digestive tract of broiler chickens**

3

4 J. WILLIAMS, S. MALLET, M. LECONTE, M. LESSIRE, AND I. GABRIEL

5

6 *INRA, UR83 Recherches Avicoles, F-37380 Nouzilly, France*

7

8 **Short version of title:** FOS and whole wheat

9

10 Correspondence to: Dr I. Gabriel, INRA, UR83 Recherches Avicoles, F-37380

11 Nouzilly, France. Tel: +33 2 47 42 76 47, fax: +33 2 47 42 77 78. Email:

12 gabriel@tours.inra.fr

13

14 **Abstract** 1. The objective of this experiment was to study two feeding methods,
15 which could potentially act on the gut microflora, the structure and/or the function of
16 the digestive tract and thereby improve the performance of broilers.

17 2. Four dietary treatments were studied: a negative control (wheat based) with no
18 additives (C), a positive control with 0.01 g/kg avilamycin (AV), a treatment with 0.6
19 g/kg fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS) and a treatment with the same composition as
20 treatment C but in which a part or all (400 g/kg) of the wheat was given as whole
21 wheat and a concentrate complement (WW). The measurements were: the
22 performance from 0 to 6 weeks, the bacterial counts at 3 weeks and 6 weeks, the
23 digestive tract morphology and the activity of some intestinal enzymes at 3 weeks.

24 3. The birds fed AV had better daily live weight gain (DLWG) and FCR compared to
25 treatment C. The birds fed FOS had a lower feed intake and a lower DLWG
26 compared to the birds fed on treatment C, but their FCR was significantly improved.
27 WW resulted in a numerically lower feed intake and a significant lower DLWG than
28 treatment C. With AV, the number of aerobic mesophilic bacteria in the caeca was
29 reduced at 3 weeks. With WW, gizzard and pancreas weights were higher and the
30 surfaces of the ileal crypts were larger. An increased activity of leucine
31 aminopeptidase (LAP) in the duodenum was found for treatments AV, FOS and
32 WW.

33 4. In conclusion, in this study, treatments WW and FOS decreased the DLWG, which
34 may be due to a lower feed intake during the whole period. With WW, the FCR was
35 not affected maybe due to both positive and negative effects on digestive tract
36 (higher gizzard and pancreas development and LAP activity; larger crypts).
37 However, the FOS improved the FCR, which may be partly explained by the higher
38 LAP activity.

39

INTRODUCTION

40

41

42 Since the 1950s subtherapeutical levels of antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) have
43 been used in animal feed to improve the performance of animals by controlling the
44 digestive microflora and thereby lower production costs (Thomke and Elwinger,
45 1998). However, the growing concern from consumers regarding antibiotic usage
46 and the potential development of bacterial resistance, led to a ban of AGP from
47 January 2006 in the European Union, which has resulted in a search for alternatives.
48 Two potential alternatives in poultry production are fructo-oligosaccharides (FOS)
49 and diets containing whole grains.

50 FOS are oligosaccharides, which are not hydrolysed by digestive enzymes, and may
51 act as growth substrate for the intestinal flora (Monsan and Paul, 1995; Hartemink *et*
52 *al.*, 1997). They are considered as prebiotics. They have been shown to have
53 beneficial effects on the gut flora by stimulating the growth of beneficial bacteria
54 such as bifidobacteria and lactobacilli, and by inhibiting potential pathogenic
55 bacteria, i.e. *Salmonella* and *E. coli* (Bailey *et al.*, 1991; Waldroup *et al.*, 1993; Xu *et*
56 *al.*, 2003). Furthermore, they stimulate the activity of some digestive enzymes. For
57 example, Xu *et al.* (2003) found a higher activity of amylase and protease with the
58 inclusion of FOS. The use of this prebiotic has also shown to improve the intestinal
59 structure in broilers, by an increase in villus height in the ileum and a decrease in
60 crypt depth in the jejunum and ileum (Xu *et al.*, 2003). The beneficial effects on the
61 flora and the digestive physiology found with FOS could contribute to the observed
62 improvements in the performance in poultry (Monsan and Paul, 1995; Orban *et al.*,
63 1997; Patterson and Burkholder, 2003; Xu *et al.*, 2003).

64 Another type of feeding, which potentially modifies the intestinal flora, is the
65 inclusion of whole grains in the diet. A lower number of *E. coli* (Gabriel *et al.*,
66 2003b), a reduction in lactose negative enterobacteria and an increase in the number
67 of certain lactobacilli have been reported (Engberg *et al.*, 2004). These modifications
68 of the flora could be due to a reduction in the pH (0.5-1 unit) in the gizzard, caused
69 by an increased secretion of hydrochloric acid in the proventriculus (Gabriel *et al.*,
70 2003a; Engberg *et al.*, 2004). The inclusion of whole wheat has also shown to
71 improve the development and maturity of the intestinal mucosa (Gabriel *et al.*, 2007).
72 These modifications may explain the improvement in the performance of broilers
73 observed in several studies (Preston *et al.*, 2000; Hetland *et al.*, 2002; Plavnik *et al.*,
74 2002; Gabriel *et al.*, 2003a). Furthermore, the inclusion of whole grains is an
75 attractive alternative. It meets the consumer requirements for a more “natural”
76 production system and it reduces the feed costs due to less transport and processing
77 and thereby lower production costs (Hetland *et al.*, 2002; Svihus *et al.*, 2004).
78 The objectives of this experiment were to study the effects of these two potential
79 alternatives to AGP, FOS and whole wheat, on the performance, the gut flora, the
80 intestinal structure and function of broiler chickens.

81

82 MATERIALS AND METHODS

83

84 Experimental diets

85

86 The birds were allocated to four dietary treatments: 1) a negative control (wheat
87 based) with no additives (C), 2) a positive control containing 0.01 g/kg avilamycin
88 (AV), 3) a treatment containing 0.6 g/kg of short chain fructo-oligosaccharides

89 (FOS) and 4) a treatment with the same composition as treatment C but in which a
90 part or all (400 g/kg) of the wheat was given as whole wheat and a concentrate
91 complement (WW).

92 The feeding program consisted of four different diets for each treatment: a starter diet
93 (from 1 to 11 days of age), a grower diet (from 12 to 25 days of age), a finisher diet
94 (from 26 to 36 days of age) and a withdrawal diet (from 37 to 42 days of age). The
95 composition of the basal diets (the negative control diets) is shown in table 1. The
96 diets were steam pelleted (2.5 mm in diameter, at 55 to 66°C).

97 For the treatments FOS and AV, the fructo-oligosaccharides and the avilamycin were
98 incorporated at the expense of the same amount of maize. For treatment WW, a part
99 or all of the ground wheat of the basal diets was replaced by the same amount of
100 coarsely ground or whole wheat, and was mixed with pelleted concentrate
101 complements. These complements were calculated from the basal diets without the
102 part of wheat given as coarse particles or whole grains. To accustom the chickens to
103 whole grain, the coarsely ground or the whole wheat was gradually incorporated in
104 the diet. Until day 7 the birds allocated to treatment WW received the same diet as
105 treatment C. On day 8 and 9, 200 g/kg coarsely ground wheat was mixed with a
106 pelleted concentrate complement (basal diet without 200g/kg of wheat). On day 10
107 and 11, 200 g/kg whole wheat was incorporated to the same concentrate complement
108 and from day 12 onwards 400 g/kg whole wheat was added to concentrate
109 complements (basal diets without 400g/kg of wheat).

110 The feed and the water were supplied *ad libitum*.

111

112 **Birds and housing**

113

114 A total of 864 Ross PM3 male broiler chickens vaccinated against infectious
115 bronchitis were obtained from a commercial hatchery (Sicamen, Volnay, France).
116 The chickens were raised in 3 m² floor pens with a stocking density of 12 birds/m²
117 with 6 replicates per treatment. From day 1 to 5 the lighting programme consisted of
118 23 hours light and 1 hour dark (0-1 am), from day 6 to 11, it consisted of 20 hours
119 light and 4 hours dark (0-4 am) and from day 12 to the end of the experiment 18
120 hours light and 6 hours dark (0-6 am). The temperature was 32°C from day 1 to 6 , it
121 was reduced to 31°C at day 7, 29°C at day 14, 28°C at day 21, 24°C at day 28, 22°C
122 at day 37 and 18°C at day 42.

123

124 **Experimental protocol and sample collection**

125

126 The experiment was carried out in accordance with the specific guidelines for
127 experiments on animals (Decree, 2001).

128 At arrival, the birds were randomly distributed with 36 birds in each pen with a
129 similar weight per pen. After 6 hours of fasting, the birds were individually weighed
130 on day 11, 25, 36 and 42. The feed intake in each pen was measured at the same age
131 and the FCR calculated. The actual proportion of whole wheat intake was determined
132 after measuring the whole grains in feed refusals. The mortality was checked daily.
133 Feed intake was expressed as animal present each day (i.e. dead birds were not
134 included). To calculate Daily Live Weight Gain (DLWG) any females and dead birds
135 were taken out of the calculation, but they were included in the FCR calculation.

136 At 3 weeks of age, 6 chickens representative of their pens were selected (according
137 to their weight) from each pen. They were killed by intravenous injection of sodium
138 pentobarbital. For treatments C and WW, the gizzards were emptied, trimmed for

139 excess fat and weighed, and the pancreases were collected and weighed. The weights
140 were expressed as percentage of live weight.

141 For all 4 treatments, the digestive tract was removed from the beginning to the end of
142 the intestine. The small intestine was divided into three segments: the duodenum
143 (from gizzard to pancreo-biliary ducts), the jejunum (from pancreo-biliary ducts to
144 Meckel's diverticulum) and the ileum (from Meckel's diverticulum to ileo-caecal
145 junction). For histological analysis, the middle part (1.5 cm long) of the duodenum
146 and ileum was taken, from 3 of the 6 sampled animals per pen. The samples were
147 opened longitudinally, rinsed with cold saline (NaCl 9 g/l) and fixed in a buffered
148 formaline solution overnight. They were then rinsed and stored in ethanol/water
149 (70/30, v/v) and stored at 4°C until further analysis.

150 The cloacal content was obtained by abdominal pressure on the birds before they
151 were slaughtered. The content from the ileum and caeca was collected by gentle
152 pressure. These digestive content samples were pooled from the 6 animals per pen
153 and stored at -70°C until further microbial analysis.

154 For the determination of intestinal enzymatic activities, samples were taken from the
155 3 animals per pen used for histological analysis. The middle section (one third) of
156 each intestinal segment (duodenum, jejunum and ileum) was split longitudinally,
157 rinsed with cold saline, wiped on a paper towel and the mucosa scrapped off before
158 freezing in liquid nitrogen and stored at -70°C.

159 At 6 weeks of age, 6 chickens representative of each pen were selected. The cloacal
160 contents were collected as previously described, then the birds were killed. For
161 treatments C and WW, the gizzard and pancreas were removed and weighed as
162 described at 3 weeks. For all 4 treatments, the ileal and caecal contents were sampled
163 and processed as described previously.

164

165 **Histological analysis**

166

167 The intestinal samples (duodenum and ileum) were analysed as described by
168 Goodlad *et al.* (1991). A 0.5 cm sample was cut off and kept in ethanol/acetic acid
169 (75/25, v/v) for 24 hours, followed by a rehydration in ethanol/water (50/50, v/v) and
170 then in distilled water. Thereafter, the samples were stained by the Feulgen reaction:
171 first a hydrolysis in hydrochloric acid 1 N at 60°C for 6 minutes, then rinsed with
172 distilled water and thereafter stained with Schiff reagent for 30 minutes. Finally, the
173 samples were rinsed in distilled water and stored in acetic acid/water (45/55 v/v) at
174 4°C until analysis.

175 For histological measurements, villi with their attached crypts of Lieberkühn were
176 individually dissected under a dissecting microscope then mounted between a slide
177 and a cover slip in an aqueous mounting agent (Aquatex, Merck). They were
178 measured under the magnification of 40 for crypts and 10 for villi, using an optical
179 microscope (Leitz, Laborux), a camera (Scion corporation, CFW 1308C) and an
180 image analysis software (Visilog 6.3, Noesis). The length and width of 10 villi and
181 the depth and width of 20 crypts were measured from each segment of each bird. The
182 surface area was calculated for each villi and crypt. An average value was calculated
183 for each bird intestinal segment. Villus to crypt length and surface ratios were then
184 calculated.

185

186 **Enzyme activity assays**

187

188 The intestinal samples (duodenum, jejunum and ileum) were analysed for enzymatic
189 activity of alkaline phosphatase (AP) (EC 3.1.3.1) and of the digestive enzymes
190 maltase (EC 3.2.1.20) and leucine aminopeptidase (LAP) (EC 3.4.11.2).

191 The frozen intestinal tissues were homogenised at a ratio of 50 mg/ml in phosphate
192 buffer saline (pH 7.4) using an Ultra-turrax® (IKA) for 3 x 10 seconds, and
193 centrifuged (10 000g, 15 min, 4°C). The supernatants were stored at -70°C until
194 further analysis.

195 For measuring the different enzymatic activities, continuous methods with 96-well
196 microplates were used. For the AP activity, the homogenate was diluted (1/20 for
197 duodenum and jejunum and 1/10 for ileum) and 0.1 ml of the dilution was mixed
198 with 0.2 ml of substrate (8.8 µmole of *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate (Sigma N 4645) per
199 ml of glycine buffer 93 mM containing 50 mM MgCl₂, pH 8.8). Readings were
200 carried out at 5 minutes intervals for 30 minutes with a multiscan spectrophotometer
201 (Argus 300 Microplate reader) at 405 nm (at 37°C) using a standard curve with *p*-
202 nitrophenol (Sigma N 7660).

203 For the LAP activity, the samples were diluted (1/2 for all segments) and 0.03 ml
204 was mixed with 0.25 ml of substrate (1 µmol of L-leucine *p*-nitroanalide (Sigma L
205 2158) per ml of phosphate buffer 0.1 M, pH 7.2). The plate was read at 405 nm
206 (37°C) at 2 minutes interval for 10 minutes. P-nitroaniline (Sigma N 2128) was used
207 for the standard curve.

208 Maltase was measured as described by Giorgi *et al.* (1992). The samples were diluted
209 (1/5 for all the samples). 0.05 ml of the sample was mixed with 0.15 ml of substrate
210 15 mM of maltose (Sigma M5885) in maleate buffer 60 mM containing 11 mM
211 MgCl₂ pH 6.8, 342 000 IU/l mutarotase (Biozyme, MUR1), 5 025 IU/l hexokinase
212 (Roche 11 426 362 001), 1.6 mmol/l ATP (Roche 10 519 979 001), 1.3 mmol/l

213 NADP (Roche 10 128 0314 001) and 1 200 IU/l glucose 6-phosphate dehydrogenase
214 (Roche 10 127 671 001). The plate was read at 366 nm at 37°C at 2 minutes interval
215 for 15 minutes. Glucose was used for the standard curve.

216

217 **Bacteriology**

218

219 The samples for bacterial analysis were successively diluted at 1/10 in 9 g/l NaCl and
220 analysed for coliform, lactic acid bacteria and aerobic mesophilic bacteria. The lactic
221 acid bacteria were counted after being plated onto MRS agar (Man, Rogosa, Sharpe)
222 and incubated for 48 hours, the coliforms were plated onto Drigalski agar and
223 incubated for 24 hours and the aerobic mesophilic bacteria on brain heart infusion
224 agar and incubated for 48 hours. All the plates were incubated aerobically at 37°C.
225 The results were expressed as log₁₀ colony forming units (CFU)/g of digestive
226 contents.

227

228 **Statistical analysis**

229

230 The data were analysed using Statview® software programme (Abacus Concepts,
231 Berkeley, CA, USA) by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), and significant
232 differences between treatments were determined by Student Newman-Keuls test ($P <$
233 0.05). The proportion of whole wheat for treatment WW was compared to the
234 expected value with a one-tailed T-test ($P <$ 0.05). These results were presented in
235 the text as mean \pm standard error.

236

237

RESULTS

238 Performance

239

240 During the whole experiment, the mortality was not significantly different between
241 dietary treatments, 4.6% for C, 4.6% for AV, 3.2% for FOS and 4.7% for WW.

242 For the treatment AV, a significantly higher feed intake was seen from day 26 to 36
243 compared to the negative control treatment, a significantly higher DLWG was found
244 at each period and throughout the experiment (day 1 to 42). A better FCR was also
245 observed from day 26 to 36 and throughout the experiment (Table 2).

246 For the treatment FOS, the feed intake and the DLWG were significantly reduced
247 from day 1 to 25 and for the whole period (Table 2). However, FCR was
248 significantly improved for the treatment FOS compared to the control from day 26 to
249 36 and throughout the experiment.

250 The feed intake with the treatment WW was numerically lower during the whole
251 experiment (-5 %). The actual proportion of whole wheat intake in the treatment
252 WW, during the first two days of introduction (from day 10 to 11), was lower than
253 the amount included in the feed, 138 ± 6 g/kg instead of the 200 g/kg, but thereafter
254 the actual proportion of whole wheat intake was only slightly different than the
255 targeted one (400 g/kg): 381 ± 3 g/kg from day 12 to 25 and 388 ± 3 g/kg from day
256 26 to 36, and 405 ± 1 g/kg from day 37 to 42. The DLWG was lower for the
257 treatment WW compared to the control from day 12 to 36 and for the entire period
258 (Table 2). The FCR was not significantly affected apart from day 1 to 11, where an
259 improvement was observed with WW.

260

261 Digestive microflora

262

263 The microflora was not affected by dietary treatments at 3 weeks of age in the ileum
264 and the cloaca. However, in the caeca the number of aerobic mesophilic bacteria was
265 lower for the treatment AV, but none of the other treatments influenced the bacterial
266 counts at this age (Table 3). At 6 weeks of age, none of the dietary treatments
267 affected the number of aerobic mesophilic bacteria, lactic acid bacteria or coliform in
268 the ileum, caeca and cloaca (data not presented).

269

270 **Digestive tract morphology and enzyme activities**

271

272 For the treatment WW, the gizzard and the pancreas weights (Figure 1) were
273 significantly higher compared to treatment C, both at 3 and 6 weeks.

274 At 3 weeks of age, the different treatments did not affect the gut morphology in the
275 duodenum. The villus height, width and surface were not affected by dietary
276 treatments in the ileum. However, for treatment WW, a numerically higher crypt
277 depth (+ 12 %) was found and a significantly larger crypt surface.

278 For the intestinal enzyme activity at 3 weeks of age, LAP was significantly higher for
279 the treatments AV, FOS and WW in the duodenum, but no effect was observed in the
280 other segments. The AP and the maltase activities were not significantly affected by
281 dietary treatments in any of the intestinal segments. However, it should be noticed
282 that a numerically higher level of LAP (+ 18 %) and maltase (+ 20 %) occurred for
283 the treatment AV in the jejunum, and for maltase (+ 24 %) for the treatment FOS in
284 the ileum (Table 5).

285

286

DISCUSSION

287

288 Effect of the AGP avilamycin

289

290 A significantly lower number of bacteria was observed in the caeca of birds fed on
291 the treatment AV. This could be expected as AGP reduce the number of bacteria in
292 the digestive tract (Thomke and Elwinger, 1998; Engberg *et al.*, 2000). Avilamycin
293 in particular acts by interfering with the polypeptides-synthesizing functions and it is
294 mainly active against gram positive bacteria (Wolf, 1973; Butaye *et al.*, 2003), the
295 most numerous bacteria in the digestive tract (Gabriel *et al.* 2006). This reduction in
296 the digestive flora may partly explain the improved performance observed with AV.
297 Indeed, a decrease in the microflora may lead to a lower stimulation of the immune
298 system (Gabriel *et al.*, 2006), which could prevent a depression in feed intake
299 (Klasing *et al.*, 1987) as observed in our study. This increased feed intake may have
300 contributed to the higher weight gain. Moreover the lower digestive microflora
301 resulted in less competition for nutrients (Gabriel *et al.*, 2006) and could partly
302 explain the improved FCR.

303 This improved FCR could also be due to an increased activity of the digestive
304 enzyme LAP in the duodenum and the numerically higher level of maltase and LAP
305 in the jejunum, which may have contributed to a better feed digestion.

306 AGP positively affect the intestinal structure. They reduce the weight of the small
307 intestine by thinning the intestinal wall (Coates *et al.*, 1955; Jukes *et al.*, 1956), and
308 this has been suggested to improve the nutrient absorption and thereby the
309 performance. The changes in intestinal morphology (villus and crypt size) depend on
310 the type of AGP (Miles *et al.*, 2006). With avilamycin, higher villus surface area in
311 the jejunum and lower crypt depth in the jejunum and ileum were reported (Sarica *et*
312 *al.*, 2005; Hernandez *et al.*, 2006). These modifications improve the intestinal

313 function. However, in the current experiment, the inclusion of avilamycin did not
314 affect the gut morphology in the duodenum and the ileum, as previously reported by
315 Catala-Gregori *et al.* (2007).

316

317 **Effect of the prebiotic FOS**

318

319 In the current study, FOS resulted in a lower feed intake. This has also previously
320 been observed in broilers (Demir *et al.*, 2005) as well as in layers (Li *et al.*, 2007),
321 but not in all studies. For example, Juskiewicz *et al.* (2006) reported no effects on the
322 feed intake in turkeys, and Orban *et al.* (1997) reported a higher feed intake when
323 including sucrose thermal oligosaccharide caramel, which is a complex mixture
324 containing fructose-rich oligosaccharides and difructose di-anhydrides.

325 The lower feed intake observed in our study could have been caused by a stimulation
326 of the intestinal immune system (Klasing *et al.*, 1987), as seen with FOS (Perrin *et*
327 *al.*, 2001; Bornet and Brouns, 2002) due to bacterial stimulation. Indeed with FOS, a
328 change in the digestive flora could be expected, as oligosaccharides increase the
329 production of volatile fatty acids and lower the pH of the digestive content (Djouzi
330 and Andrieux, 1997; Iji and Tivey, 1998; Perrin *et al.*, 2001; Bornet and Brouns,
331 2002), which promotes the growth of beneficial bacteria and suppresses the growth
332 of certain pathogenic bacteria (Snel *et al.*, 2002). Thus, with conventional culturing
333 methods Xu *et al.* (2003), when including 2 g/kg FOS, found an increase in the
334 number of lactobacilli and a reduction in the number of *E. coli* in the caeca. With 4
335 g/kg FOS, they observed more differences in the digestive flora: an increase in the
336 number of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria and a reduction in the number of *E. coli* in
337 both the small intestine and the caeca. Similarly, Orban *et al.* (1997) reported an

338 increase in the number of bifidobacteria in the caeca of broilers, but a reduction in
339 lactobacilli in one study and no effect on either of them in another when using a
340 sucrose thermal oligosaccharide caramel. In their second study they also noticed a
341 reduction in the number of coliforms in the caeca. In the current experiment the
342 inclusion of FOS in the diet did not affect the bacterial counts as observed by Catala
343 *et al.* (2007) with the same inclusion rate of FOS (0.6 g/kg). This low inclusion rate
344 in these studies might explain the lack of response, especially since effects on the
345 intestinal bacterial counts have been noticed with inclusion rates of 2.0 g/kg, but
346 mainly with inclusion rates of 4.0 g/kg (Griggs and Jacob, 2005). However, with low
347 inclusion levels of FOS, modifications of the microflora can occur. Thus, with
348 molecular techniques, which are more exhaustive methods than the standard
349 microbiological cultures, Massias *et al.* (2006) reported changes in the bacterial
350 populations with FOS incorporated at 0.6 g/kg and in particular for lactobacilli.

351 The effects of the inclusion of FOS in poultry diets on weight gain are not consistent.
352 In our study, a lower weight gain was found, whereas Demir *et al.* (2005) reported no
353 effects in broilers and Juskiewicz *et al.* (2006) in turkeys. On the contrary, Orban *et*
354 *al.* (1997) reported a higher weight gain with sucrose thermal oligosaccharide
355 caramel in broilers as did Catala-Gregori *et al.* (2007) with an inclusion of 0.6 g/kg
356 FOS. These contradictory results, particularly between the current study and that of
357 Catala-Gregori *et al.* (2007) could be explained by the rearing conditions of the birds,
358 the effects of oligosaccharides are likely to be more beneficial when the chickens are
359 raised in less than ideal conditions (Orban *et al.*, 1997). For example stocking density
360 in Catala-Gregori *et al.* (2007) was 15 birds/m² and was only 12 birds/m² in our
361 study, and the density was reduced during the experiment by the birds taking out for
362 analyses. With 15 birds/m², their raising conditions were more compromised than

363 those in the current study (12 birds/m²). In the current study, the lower weight gain
364 could have been caused by the lower feed intake.

365 The inclusion of FOS in the current study improved the FCR in agreement with other
366 studies in broilers (Ammerman *et al.*, 1988; Orban *et al.*, 1997; Xu *et al.*, 2003) or in
367 layers (Respondek and Rudeaux, 2005; Li *et al.*, 2007), while others have reported
368 no significant effects, for example Demir *et al.* (2005) in broilers and Juskiewicz *et*
369 *al.* (2006) in turkeys. The improved FCR observed in this study might partly be
370 explained by the increased intestinal enzymatic activity with the FOS (a higher LAP
371 activity in the duodenum and a numerically higher level of maltase activity in the
372 ileum). Higher enzymatic activity of protease and amylase has previously been
373 reported with FOS by Xu *et al.* (2003).

374 In the current study, the intestinal structure was not affected by the inclusion of FOS
375 in the diet, in agreement with Catala-Gregori *et al.* (2007). However, Xu *et al.* (2003)
376 reported higher villi in the ileum and shorter crypts depths in the jejunum and ileum
377 with the inclusion of 4 g/kg FOS. But with the inclusion of 2 g/kg FOS, these authors
378 only observed an increase in the ratio between the villus height: crypt depth in the
379 ileum. The lower inclusion rate of FOS used in the current study might explain the
380 lack of response, maybe due to lower modification of microflora as previously
381 explained.

382

383 **Effect of the diet structure: Whole wheat**

384

385 A lower weight gain after the introduction of whole wheat was observed with whole
386 wheat, which may have been caused by the numerically lower feed intake due to the
387 different structure of the feed compared to the control diet. The reduced feed intake

388 in the beginning of WW introduction may be due to a limited capacity for grinding
389 whole wheat grains in the gizzard and the resulting slower transit rate in the digestive
390 tract. Although, the gizzard adapted fast, as seen by the higher gizzard weight as
391 early as one week after whole wheat introduction, the lower feed intake in the young
392 bird led to a lower growth rate and thus a lower intake thereafter. Otherwise, a
393 reaction towards the new form of diet was noted by the lower proportion of whole
394 wheat grains intake in the first two days after their introduction (138 g/kg actually
395 eaten compared to 200 g/kg included in the diet). However, the animals adapted
396 quickly to this type of feeding in the experiment, as it was seen by the higher
397 proportion of whole wheat after the first two days of introduction, where the actual
398 intake was close to the amount mixed in the feed. A lower feed intake with whole
399 wheat has already been reported by Engberg *et al.* (2004) and Hetland *et al.* (2002),
400 who included moderate 125 to 300 g/kg or high 300 to 440g/kg rates of whole grains.
401 However, other studies showed no difference in feed intake (Preston *et al.*, 2000;
402 Plavnik *et al.*, 2002; Svihus *et al.*, 2002). Several studies have reported no effect on
403 weight gain (Preston *et al.*, 2000; Bennett *et al.*, 2002; Svihus *et al.*, 2004), some
404 have observed a higher weight gain (Plavnik *et al.*, 2002), and others as in the current
405 study have reported a lower weight gain (Hetland *et al.*, 2002).

406 Although whole wheat improved the FCR in the starting period (day 1 to 11), it was
407 not affected during the whole period. This is in agreement with previous studies
408 (Hetland *et al.*, 2002; Gabriel *et al.*, 2003a; Svihus *et al.*, 2004). However, Plavnik *et*
409 *al.* (2002) and Wu *et al.* (2004) have reported an improvement in FCR with the
410 inclusion of 200 g/kg whole wheat. On the contrary, a poorer FCR has been reported
411 particularly with high inclusion level of whole grain (Bennett *et al.*, 2002; Engberg *et*
412 *al.*, 2006).

413 In our study, the inclusion of whole wheat in the diet did not significantly affect the
414 bacterial count in the intestine. However, other studies have shown a decrease in the
415 number of aerobic mesophilic bacteria, coliforms and lactose-negative enterobacteria
416 and higher counts of some *Lactobacillus* species (Gabriel *et al.*, 2003b; Engberg *et*
417 *al.*, 2004; Gabriel *et al.*, 2007). Although no changes in the microflora were observed
418 in the current study with conventional cultivation methods, other bacterial population
419 could have been modified. This may be observed by using molecular tools, as
420 previously explained for the FOS. These modifications of the digestive flora could be
421 due to a decreased pH in the gizzard (Gabriel *et al.*, 2003a). Moreover, the higher
422 activity of this organ, as indicated by its higher weight observed in our study and in
423 previous studies (Jones and Taylor, 2001; Plavnik *et al.*, 2002; Gabriel *et al.*, 2003a;
424 Engberg *et al.*, 2004), may increase digestion of all dietary compounds. The higher
425 pancreas weight observed in this study and in previous studies (Banfield *et al.*, 2002;
426 Engberg *et al.*, 2004; Wu *et al.*, 2004) may be responsible for the increased amylase
427 activity in the jejunum content, which may contribute towards a higher ileal starch
428 digestibility (Svihus and Hetland, 2001; Svihus *et al.*, 2004). This higher digestibility
429 of nutrients leads to less available substrate for the microflora.

430 In the duodenum, in the current experiment, the feeding of whole wheat had no effect
431 on morphological parameters, contrary to results obtained in a previous study
432 (Gabriel *et al.*, 2007) showing a reduction in the crypt depth. However, an increased
433 intestinal enzyme activity was observed in this experiment as well as in the previous
434 study. Thus in our study a higher activity of LAP was observed, and in the previous
435 study, a higher activity of AP.

436 In the ileum, although previous studies showed no effect of feeding whole wheat on
437 the intestinal structure or enzymatic activity (Wu *et al.*, 2004; Gabriel *et al.*, 2007),

438 we observed larger crypt surfaces. It may be related to an increase of the cellular
439 renewal, as shown by the relation between the crypt depth and the activity of cellular
440 proliferation (Brunsgaard and Eggum, 1995). This higher cell turn-over may lead to
441 lower enterocyte maturity. However, no difference in AP activity, used as an
442 indicator of enterocyte maturity (Weiser, 1973), was observed in our study. The
443 increased crypt surfaces may also be due to a higher number of goblet cells
444 particularly concentrated in the crypt, which can result in increased mucus secretion
445 (Langhout *et al.*, 1999). The higher mucus production can decrease the nutrient
446 absorption. In both the cases, the increase of cellular turn-over or the mucus
447 production, this represents an increase of energy requirement for gut maintenance,
448 which means the animal uses the nutrients for the functioning of the digestive tract
449 instead of its growth.

450 Positive effects of whole wheat feeding were observed at the beginning of the
451 digestive tract (increase development of gizzard and pancreas, increase enzymatic
452 activity in the duodenum), whereas a negative effect was observed at the end of the
453 intestine (higher crypt development in the ileum). This may explain the lack of effect
454 on FCR during most of the experiment.

455 In conclusion, the inclusion of avilamycin improved the performance of broilers,
456 which could be explained by the lower bacterial load in the caeca and the increased
457 activity of the digestive enzymes. With the inclusion of FOS in the diet, a reduction
458 in weight gain was observed which may be explained by the lower feed intake.
459 However, the FCR was improved, which might be due to the contribution of higher
460 intestinal enzymatic activities. With whole wheat feeding, the effects both positive
461 (increase development of gizzard and pancreas, increase enzymatic activity) and
462 negative (higher crypt development) on digestive tract may explained the lack of

463 effect on FCR during most of the experiment. The reduction of weight gain with this
464 treatment may be explained by the numerically lower feed intake due to the different
465 structure of the feed.

466

467

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

468

469 This work was financed by the European programme “Poultryflorgut” (2005-2008).
470 The authors also wish to thank Harold Rigoreau for animal care, Jean-Marc Hallouis,
471 Anne-Marie Chagneau, Angelique Travel and Bertille Tharrault for helping with the
472 sampling, and Nathalie Meme for the help with the bacterial analysis.

473

474

REFERENCES

475

476 AMMERMAN, E., QUARLES, C. & TWINING, P. (1988). Broiler response to the
477 addition of dietary fructooligosaccharides. *Poultry Science*, **67**: 46.

478

479 BAILEY, J. S., BLANKENSHIP, L. C. & COX, N. A. (1991). Effect of
480 fructooligosaccharide on salmonella colonization of the chicken intestine. *Poultry
481 Science*, **70**: 2433-2438.

482

483 BANFIELD, M. J., KWAKKEL, R. P. & FORBES, J. M. (2002). Effects of wheat
484 structure and viscosity on coccidiosis in broiler chickens. *Animal Feed Science and
485 Technology*, **98**: 37-48.

486

487 BENNETT, C., CLASSEN, H. & RIDDELL, C. (2002). Feeding broiler chickens
488 wheat and barley diets containing whole, ground and pelleted grain. *Poultry Science*,
489 **81**: 995-1003.

490

491 BORNET, F. R. J. & BROUNS, F. (2002). Immune-stimulating and gut health-
492 promoting properties of short-chain fructo-oligosaccharides. *Nutrition Reviews*, **60**:
493 326-334.

494

495 BRUNSGAARD, G. & EGGUM, B. O. (1995). Small intestinal tissue structure and
496 proliferation as influenced by adaptation period and indigestible polysaccharides.
497 *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology (Physiology)*, **112A**: 365-377.

498

499 BUTAYE, P., DEVRIESE, L. A. & HAESEBROUCK, F. (2003). Antimicrobial
500 growth promoters used in animal feed: effects of less well known antibiotics on
501 gram-positive bacteria. *Clinical Microbiology Reviews*, **16**: 175-188.

502

503 CATALA-GREGORI, P., MALLET, S., TRAVEL, A. & LESSIRE, M. (2007). Un
504 extrait de plantes et un prebiotique sont aussi efficaces que l'avilamycine pour
505 ameliorer les performances du poulet de chair. *7e Journées de la Recherche Avicole*,
506 Tours, France, pp.: 202-206.

507

508 COATES, M. E., DAVIES, M. K. & KON, S. K. (1955). The effect of antibiotics on
509 the intestine of the chick. *British Journal of Nutrition*, **9**: 110-119.

510

511 DECREE (2001). Decree no. 2001-646 related to experiments carried out on
512 vertebrate animals, May 29, 2001. French Code. *Official Journal*: 8682.

513

514 DEMIR, E., SARICA , S., ÖZCAN, M. A. & SUIÇMEZ, M. (2005). The use of
515 natural feed additives as alternative to an antibiotic growth promoter in broiler diets.
516 *Archiv für Geflügelkunde*, **69**: 110-116.

517

518 DJOUZI, Z. & ANDRIEUX, C. (1997). Compared effects of three oligosaccharides
519 on metabolism of intestinal microflora in rats inoculated with a human faecal flora.
520 *British Journal of Nutrition*, **78**: 313-324.

521

522 ENGBERG, R. M., HEDEMANN, M. S., LESER, T. D. & JENSEN, B. B. (2000).
523 Effect of zinc bacitracin and salinomycin on intestinal microflora and performance of
524 broilers. *Poultry Science*, **79**: 1311-1319.

525

526 ENGBERG, R. M., HEDEMANN, M. S., STEENFELDT, S. & JENSEN, B. B.
527 (2004). Influence of whole wheat and xylanase on broiler performance and microbial
528 composition and activity in the digestive tract. *Poultry Science*, **83**: 925-938.

529

530 ENGBERG, R. M., STEENFELDT, S. & JENSEN, B. B. (2006). The influence of
531 high dietary concentrations of whole wheat and different forms of coccidiosis control
532 on broiler production, nutrient digestibility and on the composition of the intestinal
533 microflora. *Proceedings of the 12th European Poultry Conference*, Verone, Italy.

534

- 535 GABRIEL, I., MALLET, S. & LECONTE, M. (2003a). Differences in the digestive
536 tract characteristics of broiler chickens fed on complete pelleted diet or on whole
537 wheat added to pelleted protein concentrate. *British Poultry Science*, **44**: 283-290.
538
- 539 GABRIEL, I., MALLET, S., LECONTE, M., FORT, G. & NACIRI, M. (2003b).
540 Effects of whole wheat feeding on the development of coccidial infection in broiler
541 chickens. *Poultry Science*, **82**: 1668-1676.
542
- 543 GABRIEL, I., LESSIRE, M., MALLET, S. & GUILLOT, J. F. (2006). Microflora of
544 the digestive tract: critical factors and consequences for poultry. *World Poultry
545 Science Journal*, **62**: 499-511.
546
- 547 GABRIEL, I., MALLET, S., LECONTE, M., TRAVEL, A. & LALLÈS, J. P. (2007).
548 Effects of whole wheat feeding on the development of the digestive tract of broiler
549 chickens. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, **in press**.
550
- 551 GIORGI, M., VANNI, P. & PINZAUTI, G. (1992). A new continuous optical assay
552 for maltase and sucrase. *Enzyme*, **46**: 299-303.
553
- 554 GOODLAD, R., LEVI, S., LEE, C., MANDIR, N., HODGSON, H. & WRIGHT, N.
555 (1991). Morphometry and cell proliferation in endoscopic biopsies: Evaluation of a
556 technique. *Gastroenterology*, **101**: 1235-1241.
557
- 558 GRIGGS, J. P. & JACOB, J. P. (2005). Alternatives to antibiotics for organic poultry
559 production. *Journal of Applied Poultry Research*, **14**: 750-756.

560

561 HARTEMINK, R., VAN LAERE, K. M. J. & ROMBOOTS, F. M. (1997). Growth
562 of enterobacteria on fructo-oligosaccharides. *Journal of Applied Microbiology*, **83**:
563 367-374.

564

565 HERNANDEZ, F., GARCIA, V., MADRID, J., ORENGO, J., CATALTE;, P. &
566 MEGIAS, M. D. (2006). Effect of formic acid on performance, digestibility,
567 intestinal histomorphology and plasma metabolite levels of broiler chickens. *British*
568 *Poultry Science*, **47**: 50 - 56.

569

570 HETLAND, H., SVIHUS, B. & OLAISEN, V. (2002). Effect of feeding whole
571 cereals on performance, starch digestibility and duodenal particle size distribution in
572 broiler chickens. *British Poultry Science*, **43**: 416-423.

573

574 IJI, P. A. & TIVEY, D. R. (1998). Natural and synthetic oligosaccharides in broiler
575 chicken diets. *World's Poultry Science Journal*, **54**: 129-143.

576

577 JONES, G. P. D. & TAYLOR, R. D. (2001). The incorporation of whole grain into
578 pelleted broiler chicken diets: production and physiological responses. *British*
579 *Poultry Science*, **42**: 477-483.

580

581 JUKES, H. G., HILL, D. C. & BRANION, H. D. (1956). Effect of feeding antibiotics
582 on the intestinal tract of the chick. *Poultry Science*, **35**: 716-722.

583

584 JUSKIEWICZ, J., JANKOWSKI, J., ZDUNCZYK, Z. & MIKULSKI, D. (2006).
585 Performance and gastrointestinal tract metabolism of turkeys fed diets with different
586 contents of fructooligosaccharides. *Poultry Science*, **85**: 886-891.

587

588 KLASING, K. C., LAURIN, D. E., PENG, R. K. & FRY, D. M. (1987).
589 Immunologically mediated growth depression in chicks: influence of feed intake,
590 corticosterone and interleukin-1. *Journal of Nutrition*, **117**: 1629-1637.

591

592 LANGHOUT, D. J., SCHUTTE, J. B., VAN LEEUWEN, P., WIEBENGA, J. &
593 TAMMINGA, S. (1999). Effect of dietary high-and low-methylated citrus pectin on
594 the activity of the ileal microflora and morphology of the small intestinal wall of
595 broiler chicks. *British Poultry Science*, **40**: 340-347.

596

597 LI, X., LIU, L., LI, K., HAO, K. & XU, C. (2007). Effect of fructooligosaccharides
598 and antibiotics on laying performance of chickens and cholesterol content of egg
599 yolk. *British Poultry Science*, **48**: 185 - 189.

600

601 MASSIAS, B., ARTURO-SCHAAN, A.-M., ELIE, K., BEBIN, K., HOCDE, V.,
602 DENAYROLLES, M. & URDACI, M. C. (2006). Effects of non-antibiotic additives
603 on the microbial equilibrium of broiler chicken intestine. *Reproduction Nutrition*
604 *Development*, **46**: S105.

605

606 MILES, R. D., BUTCHER, G. D., HENRY, P. R. & LITTELL, R. C. (2006). Effect
607 of antibiotic growth promoters on broiler performance, intestinal growth parameters,
608 and quantitative morphology. *Poultry Science*, **85**: 476-485.

609

610 MONSAN, P. F. & PAUL, F. (1995). Oligosaccharide feed additives., in:
611 WALLACE, J. and CHESSON, A. (Eds) *Biotechnology in Animal feeds and Animal*
612 *Feeding*, pp. 233-245 (Weinheim, VCH).

613

614 ORBAN, J., PATTERSON, J., SUTTON, A. & RICHARDS, G. (1997). Effect of
615 sucrose thermal oligosaccharide caramel, dietary vitamin-mineral level, and brooding
616 temperature on growth and intestinal bacterial populations of broiler chickens.
617 *Poultry Science*, **76**: 482-490.

618

619 PATTERSON, J. & BURKHOLDER, K. (2003). Application of prebiotics and
620 probiotics in poultry production. *Poultry Science*, **82**: 627-631.

621

622 PERRIN, P., PIERRE, F., PATRY, Y., CHAMP, M., BERREUR, M., PRADAL, G.,
623 BORNET, F., MEFLAH, K. & MENANTEAU, J. (2001). Only fibres promoting a
624 stable butyrate producing colonic ecosystem decrease the rate of aberrant crypt foci
625 in rats. *Gut*, **48**: 53-61.

626

627 PLAVNIK, I., MACOVSKY, B. & SKLAN, D. (2002). Effect of feeding whole
628 wheat on performance of broiler chickens. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*, **96**:
629 229-236.

630

631 PRESTON, C. M., MCCRACKEN, K. J. & MCALLISTER, A. (2000). Effect of diet
632 form and enzyme supplementation on growth, efficiency and energy utilisation of
633 wheat-based diets for broilers. *British Poultry Science*, **41**: 324-331.

634

635 RESPONDEK, F. & RUDEAUX, F. (2005). Effets des fructooligosaccharides a
636 courtes chaines sur les performances zootechniques de la poule pondeuse. *6e*
637 *Journées de la Recherche Avicole*, St Malo, France, pp. 201-204.

638

639 SARICA, S., ERDOGAN, S., KOC, A. & ERDOGAN, Z. (2005). Addition of
640 avilamycin, mannaoligosaccharide and organic acids mixture to corn-soyabean meal
641 based broiler diets. *Indian Journal of Animal Sciences*, **75**: 961-964.

642

643 SNEL, J., HARNSEN, H. J. M., VAN DER WIELEN, P. W. J. J. & WILLIAMS, B.
644 A. (2002). Dietary strategies to influence the gastrointestinal microflora of young
645 animals, and its potential to improve intestinal health, in: BLOK, M. C., VAHL, H.
646 A., DE LANGE, L., VAN DE BRAAK, A. E., HEMKE, G. and HESSING, M. (Eds)
647 *Nutrition and Health of the Gastrointestinal Tract*, pp. 37-69 (Wageningen,
648 Wageningen Academic Publishers).

649

650 SVIHUS, B. & HETLAND, H. (2001). Ileal starch digestibility in growing broiler
651 chickens fed on a wheat-based diet is improved by mash feeding, dilution with
652 cellulose or whole wheat inclusion. *British Poultry Science*, **42**: 633-637.

653

654 SVIHUS, B., HETLAND, H., CHOCT, M. & SUNDBY, F. (2002). Passage rate
655 through the anterior digestive tract of broiler chickens fed on diets with ground and
656 whole wheat. *British Poultry Science*, **43**: 662-668.

657

658 SVIHUS, B., JUVIK, E., HETLAND, H. & KROGDAHL, A. (2004). Causes for
659 improvement in nutritive value of broiler chicken diets with whole wheat instead of
660 ground wheat. *British Poultry Science*, **45**: 55-60.

661

662 THOMKE, S. & ELWINGER, K. (1998). Growth promotants in feeding pigs and
663 poultry. I. Growth and feed efficiency responses to antibiotic growth promotants
664 *Annales de Zootechnie*, **47**: 85-97.

665

666 WALDROUP, A. L., SKINNER, J. T., HIERHOLZER, R. E. & WALDROUP, P.
667 W. (1993). An evaluation of fructooligosaccharide in diets for broiler-chickens and
668 effects on salmonellae contamination of carcasses. *Poultry Science*, **72**: 643-650.

669

670 WEISER, M. M. (1973). Intestinal epithelial cell surface membrane glycoprotein
671 synthesis. *The Journal of Biological Chemistry*, **248**: 2536-2541.

672

673 WOLF, H. (1973). Avilamycin, an inhibitor of the 30 S ribosomal subunits function.
674 *FEBS Letters*, **36**: 181-186.

675

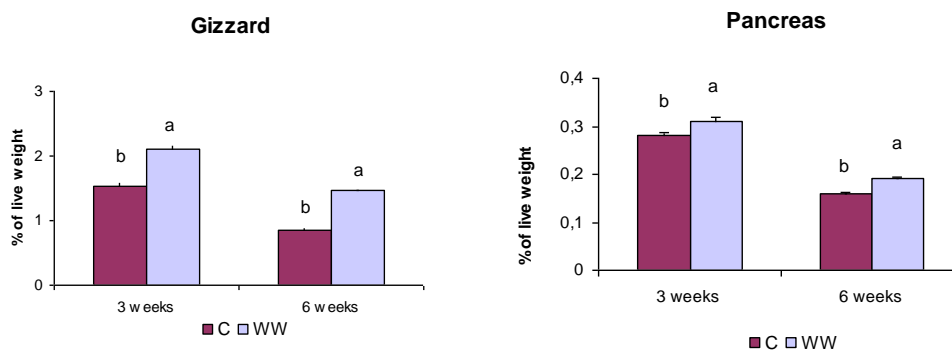
676 WU, Y. B., RAVINDRAN, V., THOMAS, D. G., BIRTLES, M. J. & HENDRIKS,
677 W. H. (2004). Influence of method of whole wheat inclusion and xylanase
678 supplementation on the performance, apparent metabolisable energy, digestive tract
679 measurements and gut morphology of broilers. *British Poultry Science*, **45**: 385-394.

680

681 XU, Z. R., HU, C. H., XIA, M. S., ZHAN, X. A. & WANG, M. Q. (2003). Effects of
682 dietary fructooligosaccharides on digestive enzyme activities, intestinal microflora
683 and morphology of male broilers. *Poultry Science*, **82**: 1030-1036.

684

685



686

687 **Figure 1.** Empty weight of gizzard and pancreas for broiler chickens (3 and 6 weeks
688 old) fed the control (C) or the whole wheat (WW) treatments. Means \pm SE with
689 different letters for an age or an organ are significantly different ($n=36$ birds,
690 $P<0.05$).

691

692

693

694 **Table 1.** *Composition of basal diets (g/kg)*

	Starter	Grower	Finisher	Withdrawal
Period (days)	1-11	12-25	26-36	37-44
Ingredients				
Wheat	400.0	400.0	400.0	400.0
Soyabean meal	368.7	281.0	276.5	276.5
Maize	133.8	217.0	227.9	228.1
Rapeseed oil	59.0	50.0	49.0	49.0
Maize gluten meal		17.4	14.5	14.5
Dicalcium phosphate	16.4	14.4	13.8	13.8
Calcium carbonate	12.9	9.7	10.2	10.2
Vitamin/mineral premix ¹	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Sodium chloride	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Lysine	0.50	1.70		
Methionine	1.50	1.60	0.95	0.95
Anticoccidian (Clinacox™)	0.2	0.2	0.2	
Calculated nutrient analysis				
ME ² (MJ/kg)	12.6	12.8	12.8	12.8
Crude protein	220.0	200.0	195.0	195.0
Lysine	12.0	11.0	9.5	9.5
Methionine + cystine	8.5	8.2	7.5	7.5
Calcium	11.0	9.0	9.0	9.0
Available phosphorus	4.2	3.8	3.7	3.7

695 ¹The composition of the vitamin/mineral premix was (per kg diet): Co 0.6 mg, Cu 20 mg, I 2 mg, Se
696 0.2 mg, Zn 90 mg, Fe 50 mg, Mn 80 mg, retinyl acetate 5.2 mg, cholecalciferol 125 µg, D,L-α-
697 tocopheryl acetate 100 mg, thiamine mononitrate 5 mg, menadione 5 mg, riboflavin 8 mg, pyridoxine
698 7 mg, cyanocobalamine 0.02 mg, calcium pantothenate 25 mg, folic acid 3 mg, biotin 0.3 mg, choline
699 chloride 550 mg, niacin 100 mg, butylated hydroxy toluene 125 mg.

700 ² ME = metabolisable energy

701

702 **Table 2.** Performance of broiler chickens fed the experimental diets from 1 to 42
 703 days

	Treatment				S.E.M. ⁵	P
	C ¹	AV ²	FOS ³	WW ⁴		
Daily feed intake (g/animal/day)⁶						
Day 1-11	24.7 ^{ab}	25.6 ^a	22.5 ^c	23.7 ^b	0.36	<0.001
Day 12-25	79.7 ^{ab}	84.3 ^a	70.3 ^c	75.3 ^b	1.67	<0.001
Day 26-36	133.9 ^b	143.6 ^a	126.2 ^b	127.7 ^b	3.13	0.003
Day 37-42	181.8 ^{ab}	191.7 ^a	173.7 ^b	174.9 ^b	3.69	0.009
Day 1-42	91.1 ^{ab}	96.1 ^a	84.3 ^c	86.6 ^{bc}	1.82	0.001
Daily live weight gain (g/animal/day)⁷						
Day 1-11	19.9 ^b	21.2 ^a	17.8 ^c	20.1 ^b	0.22	<0.001
Day 12-25	53.6 ^b	58.7 ^a	49.3 ^c	50.1 ^c	0.65	<0.001
Day 26-36	78.4 ^b	84.3 ^a	76.0 ^b	72.5 ^c	0.95	<0.001
Day 37-42	100.1 ^b	106.9 ^a	97.3 ^b	97.8 ^b	1.41	<0.001
Day 1-42	58.8 ^b	63.5 ^a	55.7 ^c	55.8 ^c	0.59	<0.001
Feed conversion ratio⁶						
Day 1-11	1.25 ^{bc}	1.22 ^{ab}	1.28 ^c	1.19 ^a	0.013	<0.001
Day 12-25	1.50 ^{ab}	1.46 ^a	1.45 ^a	1.53 ^b	0.013	0.002
Day 26-36	1.77 ^c	1.73 ^b	1.69 ^a	1.80 ^c	0.013	<0.001
Day 37-42	1.85	1.83	1.81	1.79	0.018	NS
Day 1-42	1.64 ^b	1.61 ^a	1.60 ^a	1.65 ^b	0.006	<0.001

704 ^{a, b, c} = Means in the same row with no common superscript differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

705 ¹ C = negative control treatment.

706 ² AV = positive control treatment containing 0.01 g/kg avilamycin.

707 ³ FOS = treatment containing 0.6 g/kg fructo-oligosaccharides.

708 ⁴ WW = treatment in which wheat is given as coarsely ground or whole grains.

709 ⁵ S.E.M. = standard error of the mean.

710 ⁶ Data represent the mean value of 6 replication pens.

711 ⁷Data represent the mean value of 6 replication pens with 36 birds in each from the beginning of the
712 experiment until the first slaughtering of birds (3 weeks old), and with 30 birds in each pen after first
713 slaughtering of birds.
714

715 **Table 3.** Digestive flora (\log_{10} CFU/g intestinal content) of broiler chickens (3
716 weeks old) fed the experimental diets ¹

	Treatment				S.E.M. ⁶	P
	C ²	AV ³	FOS ⁴	WW ⁵		
Ileum						
Aerobic mesophilic	7.52	6.62	8.06	7.60	0.358	0.065
Lactic acid bacteria	7.58	6.78	8.04	7.63	0.419	NS
Coliform	3.20	3.67	3.74	3.87	0.311	NS
Caeca						
Aerobic mesophilic	10.25 ^a	8.78 ^b	10.23 ^a	10.09 ^a	0.261	0.002
Lactic acid bacteria	10.67	10.53	10.72	10.15	0.169	NS
Coliform	6.70	6.85	6.92	6.90	0.154	NS
Cloaca						
Aerobic mesophilic	8.24 ^{ab}	7.54 ^b	9.15 ^a	8.31 ^{ab}	0.349	0.032
Lactic acid bacteria	8.34	7.83	9.18	8.36	0.401	NS
Coliform	5.35	5.38	5.40	5.06	0.237	NS

717 ^{a, b} = Means in the same row with no common superscript differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

718 ¹ Data represent the mean value of 6 replication pens with pools of 6 birds in each.

719 ² C = negative control treatment.

720 ³ AV = positive control treatment containing 0.01 g/kg avilamycin.

721 ⁴ FOS = treatment containing 0.6 g/kg fructo-oligosaccharides.

722 ⁵ WW = treatment in which wheat is given as coarsely ground or whole grains.

723 ⁶ S.E.M.= standard error of the mean.

724

725

726 **Table 4.** *Histological measurements of the intestinal wall of broiler chickens (3*
 727 *weeks old) fed the experimental diets*¹

		Treatment				S.E.M. ⁶	P
		C ²	AV ³	FOS ⁴	WW ⁵		
Duodenum							
Villus	Height (µm)	1548	1516	1441	1507	37.5	NS
	Width (µm)	681	670	663	643	24.5	NS
	Surface (µm ²)	1 055 137	1 035 221	955 297	976 309	48 393	NS
Crypt	Depth (µm)	118	114	121	120	2.6	NS
	Width (µm)	61	61	61	63	1.2	NS
	Surface (µm ²)	7 234	6 939	7 378	7 487	262.5	NS
Villus/crypt	Height	13.24	13.23	12.05	12.80	0.437	NS
	Surface	148	147	133	135	8.2	NS
Ileum							
Villus	Height (µm)	420	412	445	442	15.6	NS
	Width (µm)	504	505	503	471	17.6	NS
	Surface (µm ²)	212 527	208 967	226 681	209 866	12 582	NS
Crypt	Depth (µm)	102	102	105	114	3.8	0.094
	Width (µm)	70	71	72	75	1.6	NS
	Surface (µm ²)	7 258 ^b	7 207 ^{ab}	7 716 ^{ab}	8 684 ^a	403.6	0.042
Villus/crypt	Height	4.15	4.11	4.31	3.91	0.159	NS
	Surface	29.8	29.8	30.2	24.9	1.63	0.073

728 ^{a, b} = Means in the same row with no common superscript differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

729 ¹ Data represent the mean value of 18 birds (6 pens of replication x 3 birds/pen).

730 ² C = negative control treatment.

731 ³ AV = positive control treatment containing 0.01 g/kg avilamycin.

732 ⁴ FOS = treatment containing 0.6 g/kg fructo-oligosaccharides.

733 ⁵ WW = treatment in which wheat is given as coarsely ground or whole grains.

734 ⁶ S.E.M. = standard error of the mean.

735

736 **Table 5.** Enzyme activity (U/g tissue) in the intestine of broiler chickens (3 weeks
737 old) fed the experimental diets ¹

	Treatment					P
	C ²	AV ³	FOS ⁴	WW ⁵	S.E.M. ⁶	
Duodenum						
AP ⁷	4.29	4.85	4.14	5.19	0.350	NS
LAP ⁸	2.68 ^b	3.36 ^a	3.14 ^a	3.41 ^a	0.156	0.006
Maltase	3.55	3.84	3.73	3.44	0.211	NS
Jejunum						
AP	2.69	3.13	2.46	3.18	0.256	NS
LAP	2.76	3.25	2.85	2.77	0.153	0.087
Maltase	4.10	4.94	3.79	3.99	0.307	0.054
Ileum						
AP	0.60	0.58	0.65	0.58	0.036	NS
LAP	2.52	2.63	2.62	2.45	0.131	NS
Maltase	1.80	1.62	2.24	1.98	0.177	0.092

738 ^{a, b} = Means in the same row with no common superscript differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

739 ¹ Data represent the mean value of 18 birds (6 replicate pens x 3 birds/pen).

740 ² C = negative control treatment.

741 ³ AV = positive control treatment containing 0.01 g/kg avilamycin.

742 ⁴ FOS = treatment containing 0.6 g/kg fructo-oligosaccharides.

743 ⁵ WW = treatment in which wheat is given as coarsely ground or whole grains.

744 ⁶ S.E.M. = standard error of the mean

745 ⁷ AP = alkaline phosphatase

746 ⁸ LAP = leucine aminopeptidase

747

748

749

750

751