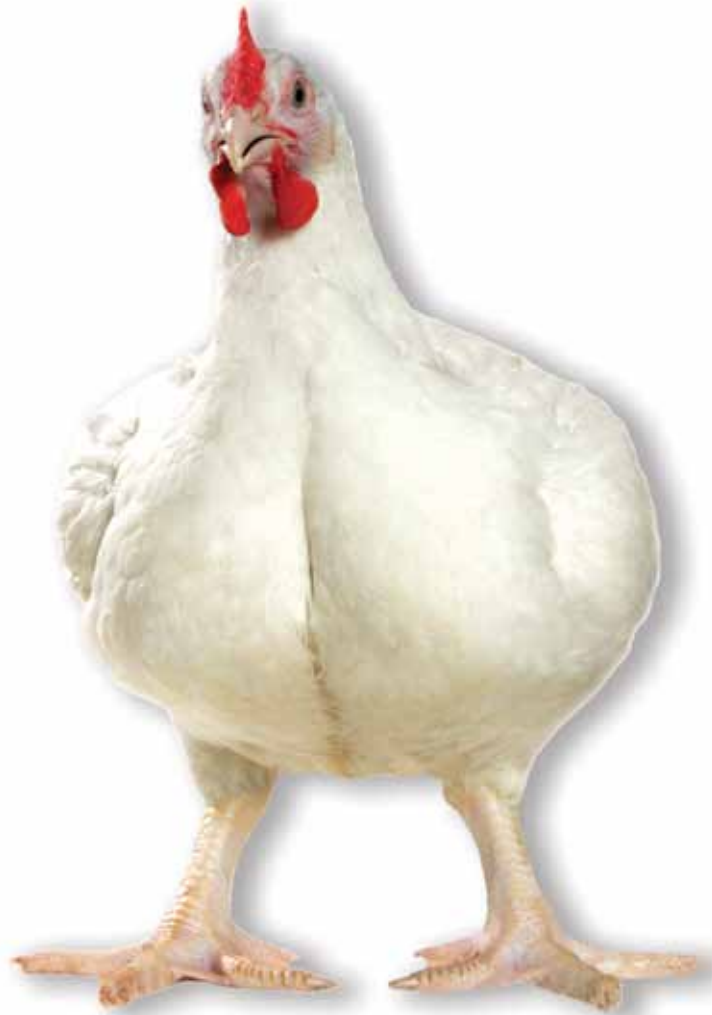


Indian River Broiler Management Manual



2009

FOREWORD

The manual

The purpose of this manual is to help Aviagen's customers achieve optimum performance from their birds. It is not intended to provide definitive information on every aspect of management. The manual draws attention to important issues, which, if overlooked or inadequately addressed, may depress flock performance. The management techniques contained in this manual have the objectives of (a) achieving good overall bird performance, when live and through processing, and (b) maintaining bird health and welfare.

Aviagen applies a balanced approach to genetic progress in characteristics of commercial importance, such as growth rate, feed conversion ratio, liveability and meat yield, while improving bird welfare traits such as leg health, cardiovascular fitness and robustness. Achieving the genetic potential created within the birds depends on:

- Management to provide birds with their required environment
- A dietary regime that offers nutrients in the appropriate profile
- Effective biosecurity and disease control

If any one of these elements is sub-optimal, broiler performance will suffer. The three sectors, environment, nutrition and health, are also interdependent. Therefore, a shortfall in any one will bring negative consequences to the others.

In practice, the guidance of a manual such as this cannot wholly protect against performance variations which may occur for a wide variety of reasons. While every attempt has been made to ensure the accuracy and relevance of the information presented, Aviagen accepts no liability for the consequences of using this information for the management of chickens.

Information presented in this manual combines data derived from internal research trials, published scientific knowledge and the expertise, practical skills and experience of the Aviagen Technical Transfer and Service teams.

Technical Services

For further information on the management of Indian River stock, please contact your local Technical Service Manager or the Technical Department.

Newbridge
Midlothian
EH28 8SZ
Scotland, UK

Tel: + 44 (0) 131 333 1056
Fax: + 44 (0) 131 333 3296
infoworldwide@aviagen.com

Cummings Research Park
5015 Bradford Drive
Huntsville, Alabama 35805
USA

Tel: +1 256 890 3800
Fax: +1 256 890 3919
info@aviagen.com

www.aviagen.com

USING THIS MANUAL

Finding a Topic

Printed tabs appear on the right-hand side of the manual. These allow readers immediate access to those sections and topics in which they are particularly interested.

The contents list gives the title of each section and subsection.

An alphabetical Key Word Index is given at the end of the manual.

Key Points

Key Points

- Where appropriate, Key Points have been included which emphasise important aspects of husbandry and management. They are highlighted in a orange outlined box

Performance Objectives

Supplements to this manual contain performance objectives that can be achieved with good management, environmental and health control.

CONTENTS

Introduction	5
Section one - CHICK MANAGEMENT	9
Principles	11
Chick Quality and Broiler Performance	12
Chick Arrival	13
Environmental Control	16
Brooder Management	18
Section two - PROVISION OF FEED AND WATER	23
Principles	25
Supply of Nutrients	25
Feeding Programme	26
Feed Form and Physical Feed Quality	28
Whole-wheat Feeding	28
Feed and Heat Stress	29
Environment	29
Litter Quality	30
Water Quality	30
Drinking Systems	32
Feeding Systems	37
Section three - HEALTH AND BIOSECURITY	39
Principles	41
Biosecurity	41
Vaccination	43
Disease Investigation	44
Disease Recognition	47
Section four - HOUSING AND ENVIRONMENT	49
Principles	51
Housing and Ventilation Systems	54
Minimum Ventilation Systems	56
Transitional Ventilation Systems	57
Tunnel Ventilation Systems	58
Evaporative Cooling Systems	59
Lighting for Broilers	61
Litter Management	64
Stocking Density	66

CONTENTS

Section five - MONITORING LIVE WEIGHT AND UNIFORMITY OF PERFORMANCE	69
Principles	71
Predictability of Live Weight	71
Flock Uniformity (CV%)	72
Separate-sex Growing	74
Section six - PRE-PROCESSING MANAGEMENT	75
Principles	77
Preparation for Catching	77
Catching	78
Processing	81
APPENDICES	83
Appendix 1. Production Records	85
Appendix 2. Conversion Tables	87
Appendix 3. Efficiency Calculations	90
Appendix 4. Feather Sexing	91
Appendix 5. Classification of Months	92
Appendix 6. Problem Solving	93
Appendix 7. Ventilation Rates and Calculations	95
Key Word Index	98

INTRODUCTION

Aviagen produces a range of genotypes suitable for different sectors of the broiler market. All Aviagen products are selected for a balanced range of characteristics in both parent stock and broiler birds. This approach ensures that the products are capable of performing to the highest standards in a wide variety of environments.

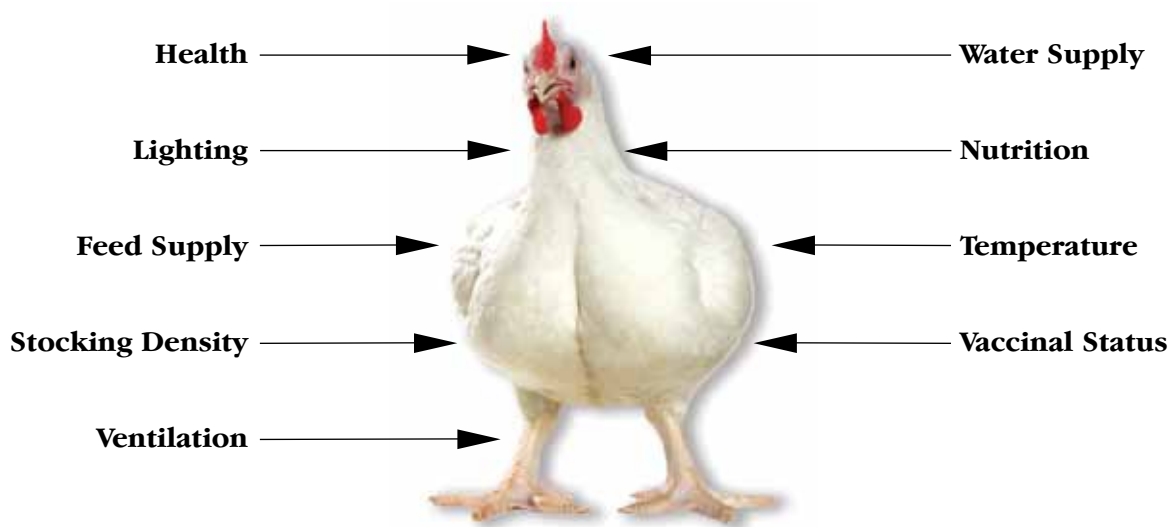
Aviagen applies a balanced approach to genetic progress. Characteristics of commercial importance such as growth rate, feed conversion ratio (FCR), liveability and meat yield are consistently improved together with genetic advances made in bird welfare traits such as, leg health, cardiovascular fitness and robustness.

Achievement of the genetic potential inherent in the birds depends upon:

- An environment that is managed to provide birds with all their requirements for ventilation, air quality, temperature and space
- The prevention, detection and treatment of ill health
- The provision of nutrient requirements through the compounding of appropriate feed ingredients and the proper management of the provision of feed and water
- Attention to bird welfare throughout, especially prior to processing

All of these are interdependent. If any one element is sub-optimal, then broiler performance overall will suffer.

Figure 1: Limits to Broiler Growth and Quality



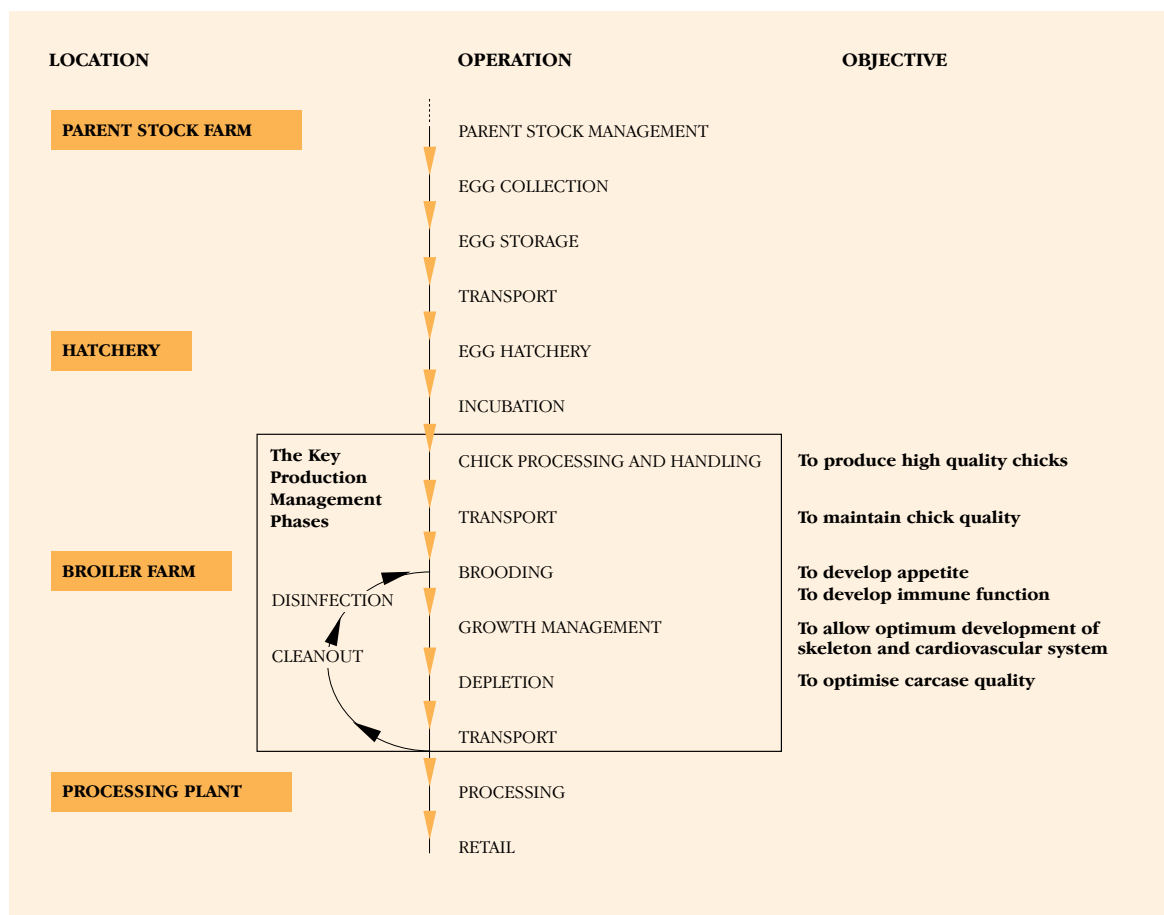
Economic and commercial issues continue to influence the way broilers are managed:

- An increasing consumer demand for product quality and food safety
- The need for flocks of broilers which can be grown to ever more predictable and pre-defined specifications
- A requirement to minimise variability within flocks and hence variability of the final product
- The demand for bird welfare enhancement
- Full utilisation of the genetic potential available in the bird for FCR, growth rate and meat yield
- Minimisation of avoidable diseases such as ascites and leg weaknesses

As broiler production systems become more sophisticated, their management requires ever higher levels of responsiveness and the availability of ever better information.

The broiler growing phase is only one part of the integrated total meat production process. This encompasses parent stock farms, hatcheries, broiler growing units, processors, retailers and consumers.

Figure 2: Producing Quality Broiler Meat - The Total Process



The objective of the broiler manager should be to achieve the required flock performance in terms of live weight, feed conversion, uniformity and meat yield. The first two weeks of life in a broiler flock are critical and require particular attention. Chick handling, brooding and early growth management are all of major importance. Broiler production is a sequential process, with ultimate performance being dependent on each step being completed successfully. For maximum performance to be attained each stage must be assessed critically and improvements made wherever required.

The complexity of broiler production means that livestock managers should have a clear understanding of the factors affecting the whole production process as well as of those directly influencing bird management on the farm. Changes may be necessary in the hatchery, on the broiler farm, during transport or in the processing plant.

Within broiler production, there are several stages of development of the bird. The hatchery deals with hatching eggs and chicks. The broiler farm deals with chicks and growing broilers. The processing plant deals with broilers and carcasses. Between each of these stages is a transition phase. Transitions must be managed with minimum bird stress. The key transitions for the broiler producer are:

- Chick emergence
- Take off, storage and transportation of the chick
- Development of good appetite in the young chick
- Change over from supplementary feeding and drinking systems to the main system
- Catching and transport of the broiler at depletion

Aviagen's Technical Transfer Team has designed this manual with the following principles in mind:

- Consideration of bird welfare at all times
- Understanding of the production chain and transition phases
- Attention to quality of the end product throughout the entire process
- The need for observation of changes in the birds and their environment
- Appropriate management in response to the constantly changing requirements of the bird

No two broiler houses are the same, and every flock of broilers will differ in its requirements. The broiler farm manager should understand the birds' requirements and, through application of responsive management as described in this manual, supply the individual requirements to ensure optimum performance in every flock.

Section one

CHICK MANAGEMENT

Objective

To promote early development of feeding and drinking behaviour, which will allow the target body-weight profile to be achieved with maximum uniformity and good welfare.

Contents

Principles	11
Chick Quality and Broiler Performance	12
Chick Arrival	13
Environmental Control	16
Brooder Management	18

CHICK MANAGEMENT

Principles

For the best broiler performance, the chicks should be delivered to the broiler farm as soon as possible and fed immediately. They must be provided with the correct environment which should be managed to meet all their requirements.

During the first ten days of life the chicks' environment changes from that of the hatcher to that of the broiler house. Deficiencies in the early environment will depress both current and final flock performance. Chicks must adapt to establish healthy feeding and drinking behaviours if they are to achieve their genetic potential for growth.

A chick experiences a series of critical transitions in the first seven to ten days of its life, all of which affect how and from where it receives its nutrients. This is why the management in this period is so essential for optimum flock performance.

In the final stages of incubation and as a very new hatchling, the chick receives all of its nutrients from the egg yolk. Once on the farm, the chick is offered Starter feed in a sieved crumb or mini pellet form in the automated feeding system and on paper on the house floor. As soon as feed enters the gut, the residual yolk within the chick is mobilised, and, provided the chick is fed promptly after hatch, it will receive a useful boost to growth from these nutrients.

Residual egg yolk provides the chick with a protective store of antibodies and nutrients for the first three days. Absorption of the yolk sac precedes the initiation of growth and therefore growth will be minimal until the chick starts to eat feed. Normally, residual yolk sac absorption is rapid during the first 48 hours and it should be less than one gram by three days of age. A flock in which some of the chicks have not started to eat for one or two or three days will be uneven and the average flock weight at slaughter will be significantly reduced.

Having found feed at floor level in the first days of its life, the chick has then to find it again in the automated feeding system, whether pan or track, between four and six days of age. The chick then has to cope with a further change from a crumbled feed or mini-pellet to a pelleted feed at ten days of age. It is important that both these transitions are made as easy as possible for the chick if performance is not to be adversely affected. Feed should be easily accessible from the automated feeding system. Flooding pan feeders, for example, will encourage feeding. The provision of a good quality pellet at ten days of age will limit the impact of the change in feed texture at this time.

If the entire flock has coped well with all of these transitions, and presuming that no environmental or nutritional factors are impeding growth, then the seven-day weight should be 4.5-5 times greater than the day-old chick weight.

Seven-day live weight should be routinely monitored and action taken where the target is not achieved. Performance targets can be found in the **L.I.R. Broiler Performance Objectives**.

Chick Quality and Broiler Performance

Final broiler performance and profitability are dependent upon attention to detail throughout the entire production process. This involves good management of healthy parent stock, careful hatchery practice and efficient delivery of chicks which are of good quality and uniformity. Chick quality may be influenced at every stage of the process.

Planning

Chick quality results from the interaction between parent stock management, parental health and nutrition as well as incubation management. If a good quality chick is provided with proper nutrition and brooding management during the first seven days, mortality should be less than 0.7% and target live weight achieved uniformly.

- Placements of broiler flocks should be planned to ensure that differences in age and/or immune status of donor parent flocks are minimised. One donor flock per broiler flock is the ideal. If mixed flocks are unavoidable, keep similar parent flock ages together
- Vaccination of donor parents maximises maternal antibody protection in the offspring and is successful in protecting broilers against diseases which compromise performance (such as infectious bursal disease, chicken anaemia virus and reovirus)
- A good quality chick should be clean after hatch. It should stand firmly and walk well, be alert and active. It should be free of deformities, with the yolk sac fully retracted and have a healed navel. It should vocalise contentedly
- If chick quality is lower than desired, the grower can provide timely, accurate, systematic, specific and measurable feedback to the hatchery
- A chick quality problem will be made worse by incorrect brooding management

The hatchery and transport system should ensure that:

- The correct vaccines are administered to all chicks at the correct dosage and in the correct form
- After being sexed and vaccinated, chicks are held in a darkened area in which the environment is controlled correctly to allow them to settle before transport
- Chicks are loaded through controlled-environment loading bays into preconditioned lorries for transport to the broiler farm (see **Table 1**)
- The expected delivery time of the chicks is established beforehand so that they may be unloaded and correctly placed as quickly as possible
- Chicks are fed and have access to water as soon as possible after hatch

Table 1: Summary of Optimum Conditions - Chick Holding and Transport

Chick holding conditions	22-24°C Ambient Temperature* Minimum 50% Relative Humidity (RH) 0.71 m ³ /min per 1,000 chicks air exchange
Transport conditions	22-24°C Ambient Temperature* Minimum 50% Relative Humidity (RH) for long haul** 0.71 m ³ /min per 1,000 chicks air exchange

Note:

These conditions in the holding area or transport vehicle should give temperatures of 30-35°C and RH of 70-80% amongst the chicks. It is more important to obtain these temperatures rather than just following the advised temperature setting for the transport truck, as settings may vary depending on the manufacturer's recommendations.

* *Temperatures should be adjusted according to actual chick temperature. Vent temperatures should be between 39-40°C.*

** *Humidity should be provided during long haul transport in cold weather, when the heaters are operational for long periods or where the air is dry.*

Key Points

- Plan placements to minimise physiological and immune differences between chicks. Use single donor flocks if possible
- Hold and transport chicks in conditions which prevent dehydration and other types of stress in chicks
- Provide feed and water to the chicks as soon as possible after take-off from the hatcher
- Maintain high standards of hygiene and biosecurity in the hatchery and during transport

Chick Arrival

Farm preparation for the next cycle

Individual sites should manage birds of a single age (that is they should be managed on the principles of 'all-in, all-out'). Vaccination and cleaning programmes are more difficult and less effective on multi-age sites and it is far more likely that health problems will occur and sub-optimal performance will be achieved.

Houses, the areas surrounding the houses, and all equipment must be thoroughly cleaned and disinfected before the arrival of the bedding material and chicks (see *Section 3, Health and Biosecurity*). Subsequently, management systems should be in place to prevent pathogens entering the building. Before entry, vehicles, equipment and people should be disinfected.

Litter material should be spread evenly to a depth of 8-10 cm. Where floor temperatures are adequate (28-30°C) the litter depth can be reduced when litter disposal costs are an issue. Uneven bedding material can restrict access to feed and water and may lead to a loss in flock uniformity.

Key Points

- Provide chicks with biosecure, clean housing
- Control spread of disease by using single-age, (i.e. 'all-in, all-out') housing
- Spread litter evenly

Chick placement

Chicks cannot regulate their own body temperature until they are around 12-14 days of age. Optimal body temperature must be attained through provision of optimal environmental temperature. Floor temperature at chick placement is as important as air temperature, so preheating of the house is essential. Temperature and relative humidity should be stabilised for at least 24 hours prior to chick arrival. Recommended values are:

- Air temperature of 30°C (measured at chick height in the area where feed and water are positioned)
- Litter temperature of 28-30°C
- Relative humidity of 60-70%

These should be monitored regularly to ensure a uniform environment throughout the whole brooding area, but by far the best indicator of temperature is chick behaviour.

Prior to delivery of chicks, a final check must be made of feed and water availability and distribution within the house. All chicks must be able to eat and drink immediately on placement in the house.

The longer the chicks remain in the boxes, the greater the degree of potential dehydration. This may result in early mortality and reduced growth as indicated by seven-day and final live weight.

Chicks must be placed quickly, gently and evenly onto paper within the brooding area. Feed and water should be freely and immediately available. The empty boxes should be removed from the house without delay.

Chicks should be left to settle for one to two hours to become accustomed to their new environment. After this time, a check must be made to see that all chicks have easy access to feed and water. Adjustments should be made to equipment and temperatures where necessary.

For the first seven days, provide 23 hours light with 30-40 lux intensity to help the chick adapt to the new environment and encourage feed and water intake.

Adequate fresh, clean water must be available at all times to all birds with access points at an appropriate height (see *Section 2, Provision of Feed and Water*). Nipple lines should be installed at 12 birds per nipple and bell drinkers at a minimum of six drinkers per 1,000 chicks. In addition, six supplementary mini-drinkers or trays per 1,000 chicks should also be provided.

Initially, textured feed should be provided as a dust-free crumble or mini-pellet on feeder trays (1 per 100 chicks) and on paper to give a feeding area occupying at least 25% of the brooding area. Chicks should be placed directly onto paper so that feed is immediately found. Automated feeding and drinking systems should be placed in the vicinity of the paper.

If the mixing of chicks from different parent flocks is unavoidable, chicks from different parent sources should be brooded in separate areas within the house. Chicks from a young donor flock of less than 30 weeks will require a warmer start temperature (+1°C warmer than the given temperature profile) compared to an older flock of more than 50 weeks.

Key Points

- Pre-heat the house and stabilise temperature and humidity prior to arrival of chicks
- Unload chicks and place them quickly
- Make feed and water available to the chicks immediately
- Arrange equipment to enable the chicks to reach feed and water easily
- Position supplementary feeders and drinkers near the main feeding and drinking systems
- Leave chicks to settle for one to two hours with access to feed and water
- Check feed, water, temperature and humidity after one to two hours and adjust where necessary

Chick start assessment

In the period immediately after the chicks are introduced to feed for the first time they are hungry, which means that they should eat well and fill their crops. Check a sample of birds eight and 24 hours after arrival on the farm to make sure that all the chicks have found feed and water. To do this, samples of 30-40 chicks should be collected at three or four different places in the house. Each chick's crop should be felt gently. In chicks that have found food and water, the crop will be full, soft and rounded (see **Figure 3**). If the crop is full, but the original texture of the crumb is still apparent, the bird has not yet consumed enough water. Target crop fill at eight hours after delivery is 80% and at 24 hours after delivery 95-100%.

Figure 3: Crop Fill after 24 Hours.



The chick on the left has a full, rounded crop while the chick on the right has an empty crop.

Environmental Control

Introduction

Optimal temperature and humidity are essential for health and appetite development. Temperature and relative humidity should be monitored frequently and regularly; at least twice-daily in the first five days and daily thereafter. Temperature and humidity measurements and sensors for automatic systems should be sited at chick level. Conventional thermometers should be used to cross-check the accuracy of electronic sensors controlling automatic systems.

Ventilation without draughts is required during the brooding period to:

- Maintain temperatures and relative humidity (RH) at the correct level
- Allow sufficient air exchange to prevent the accumulation of harmful gases such as carbon monoxide (from oil/gas heaters placed inside the poultry house), carbon dioxide and ammonia

It is good practice to establish a minimum ventilation rate from day one, which will ensure that fresh air is supplied to the chicks at frequent, regular intervals (see *Section 4, Housing and Environment*). Internal circulation fans can be used to maintain evenness of air quality and temperature at chick level.

If a choice has to be made, maintenance of brooding temperatures should take priority over ventilation and air exchange. Young chicks are prone to wind-chill effects, therefore actual floor/air speed should be less than 0.15 metres per second or as low as possible.

Key Points

- Monitor temperature and relative humidity regularly
- Ventilate to provide fresh air and remove waste gases
- Avoid draughts

Humidity

Relative Humidity (RH) in the hatcher at the end of the incubation process will be high (approx. 80%). Houses with whole-house heating, especially where nipple drinkers are used, can have RH levels lower than 25%. Houses with more conventional equipment (such as spot brooders, which produce moisture as a by-product of combustion, and bell drinkers, which have open water surfaces) have a much higher RH, usually over 50%. To limit the shock to the chicks when transferring from the incubator, RH levels in the first three days should be 60-70%.

RH within the broiler house should be monitored daily. If it falls below 50% in the first week, the environment will be dry and dusty. The chicks will begin to dehydrate and be predisposed to respiratory problems. Performance will be adversely affected. Action should be taken to increase RH.

If the house is fitted with high-pressure spray nozzles (foggers or misters) for cooling in high temperatures, then these can be used to increase RH during brooding. Alternatively, RH can be increased by using a backpack portable sprayer to spray the walls with a fine mist.

As the chick grows, the ideal RH falls. High RH (above 70%) from 18 days onwards can cause wet litter and its associated problems. As the broilers increase in live weight, RH levels can be controlled using ventilation and heating systems.

Interaction between temperature and humidity

All animals lose heat to the environment by evaporation of moisture from the respiratory tract and through the skin. At higher RH, less evaporative loss occurs, increasing the animals' apparent temperature. The temperature experienced by the animal is dependent on the dry bulb temperature and RH. High RH increases the apparent temperature at a particular dry bulb temperature, whereas low RH decreases apparent temperature. The target temperature profile in **Table 2** assumes RH in the range of 60-70%. The right hand side of **Table 2** shows the dry bulb temperature required to achieve the target temperature profile in situations where RH is not within the target range of 60-70%.

Table 2: Dry Bulb Temperatures Required to Achieve Target Apparent Equivalent Temperatures at Varying Relative Humidities

Age (days)	Target		Dry Bulb Temperature at RH%				
	Temp °C	RH% range	Ideal				
			40	50	60	70	80
Day Old	30.0	60-70	36.0	33.2	30.8	29.2	27.0
3	28.0	60-70	33.7	31.2	28.9	27.3	26.0
6	27.0	60-70	32.5	29.9	27.7	26.0	24.0
9	26.0	60-70	31.3	28.6	26.7	25.0	23.0
12	25.0	60-70	30.2	27.8	25.7	24.0	23.0
15	24.0	60-70	29.0	26.8	24.8	23.0	22.0
18	23.0	60-70	27.7	25.5	23.6	21.9	21.0
21	22.0	60-70	26.9	24.7	22.7	21.3	20.0
24	21.0	60-70	25.7	23.5	21.7	20.2	19.0
27	20.0	60-70	24.8	22.7	20.7	19.3	18.0

Source: Dr Malcolm Mitchell (Scottish Agricultural College)

Table 2 illustrates the relationship between RH and effective temperature. If RH is outside the target range, the temperature of the house at chick level should be adjusted in line with the figures given in **Table 2**. For example, if RH is lower than 60% the dry bulb temperature may need to be increased. At all stages, chick behaviour should be monitored to ensure that the chick is experiencing an adequate temperature (see *Brooder Management*). If subsequent behaviour indicates that the chicks are too cold or too hot, the temperature of the house should be adjusted accordingly.

Key Points

- Achieve target seven-day live weight by managing the brooding environment correctly
- Use chick behaviour to determine if temperature is correct
- Use temperature to stimulate activity and appetite
- Maintain RH between 60-70% for the first three days and above 50% for the remainder of the brooding period
- Adjust temperature settings if RH increases above 70% or falls below 60%, whilst responding to changes in chick behaviour

Brooder Management

Two basic systems of temperature control are used for brooding broiler chicks:

- **Spot brooding** (canopy or radiant heaters). The heat source is local so chicks can move away to cooler areas and thus select for themselves a preferred temperature
- **Whole-house brooding**. The heat source is larger and more widely spread so chicks are less able to move to select a preferred temperature. Whole-house brooding refers to situations where the whole house or a defined part of the house is heated by 'forced air heaters' only and the aim is to achieve one temperature in the house or air space

In both spot and whole-house brooding systems, the objective is to stimulate both appetite and activity as early as possible. Achieving the optimum temperature is critical. Brooding temperatures, for RH 60-70%, are given in **Table 3**.

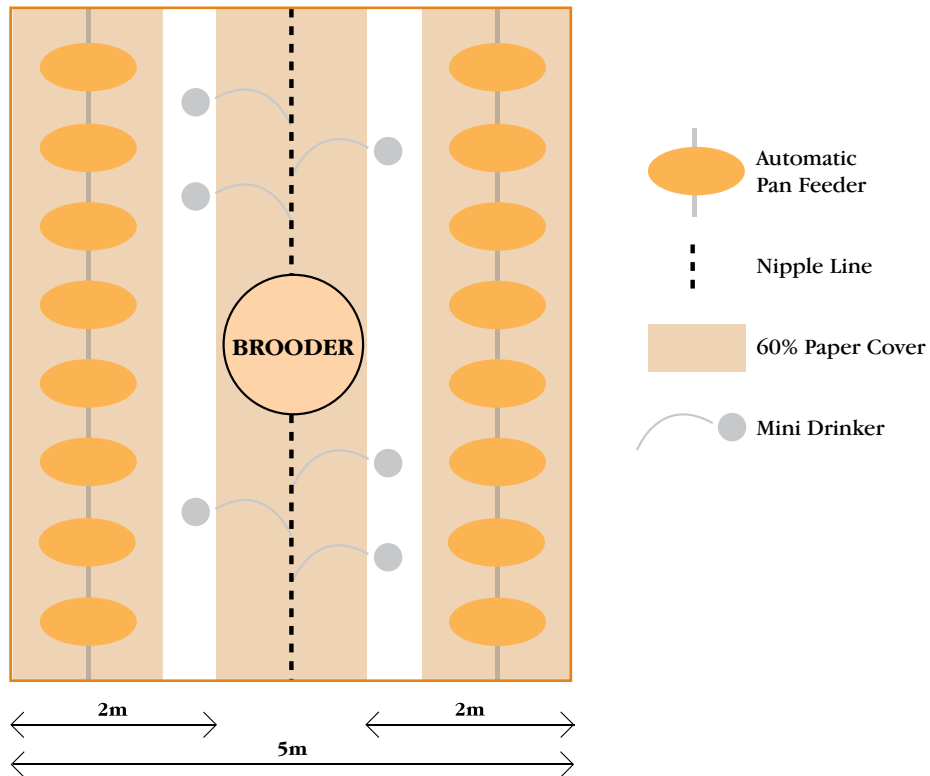
Table 3: Brooding Temperatures

Age (days)	Whole-house Brooding Temp °C	Spot Brooding Temp °C	
		Edge of Brooder (A)	2m from Edge of Brooder (B)
Day Old	30	32	29
3	28	30	27
6	27	28	25
9	26	27	25
12	25	26	25
15	24	25	24
18	23	24	24
21	22	23	23
24	21	22	22
27	20	20	20

Spot brooding

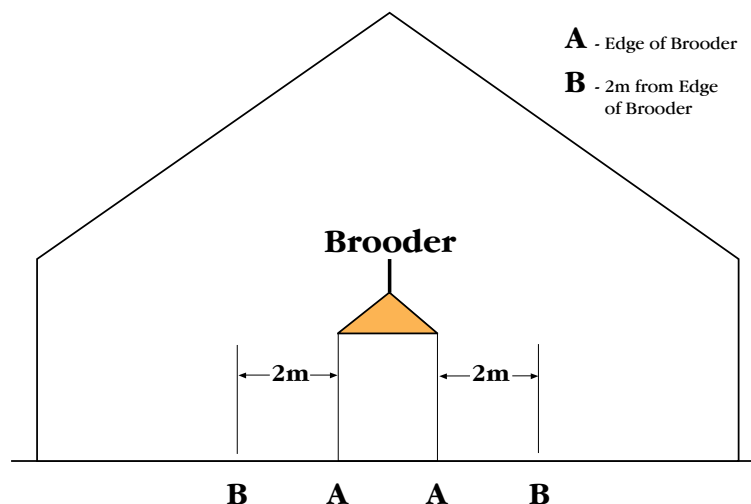
The layout for a spot brooding set up is shown in **Figure 4**, which would be typical for 1,000 chicks on day one. Chicks are placed in a 5x5 metre square (25 m²), which gives an initial stocking density of 40 chicks per square metre. If stocking density is increased, the number of feeders and drinkers, and the heating capacity of the brooder, should also be increased accordingly.

Figure 4: Typical Spot Brooding Layout (1,000 chicks)



Within the context of the set up in **Figure 4**, **Figure 5** shows the areas of temperature gradients surrounding the spot brooder. These are marked A (Edge of Brooder) and B (2m from Edge of Brooder). Respective optimum temperatures are shown in **Table 3**.

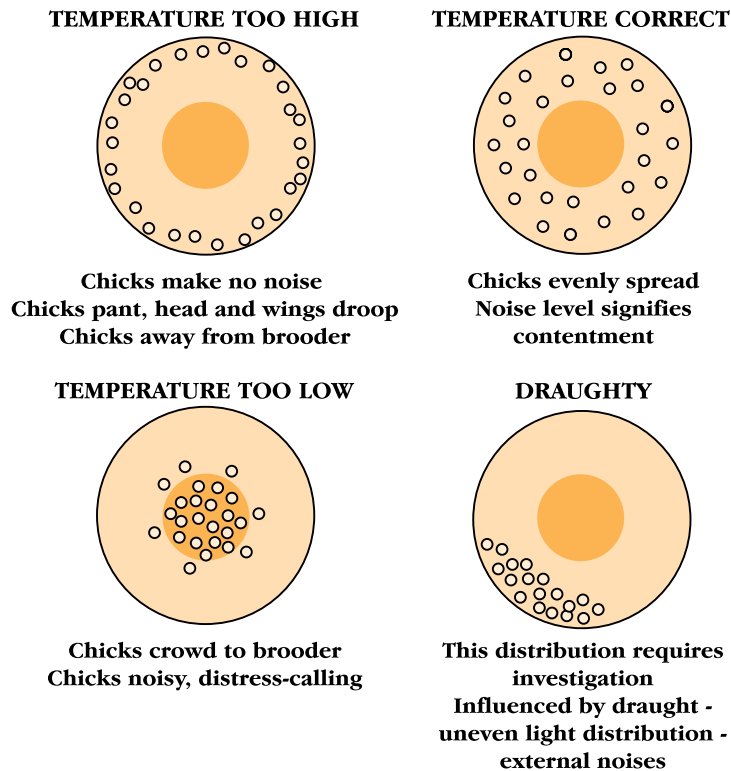
Figure 5: Spot Brooding - Areas of Temperature Gradients



Spot brooding behaviour

Chick behaviour is the best indicator of correct brooder temperature. With spot brooding, correct temperature is indicated by chicks being evenly spread throughout the brooding area as shown in **Figure 6**. In the diagram, the brooder (area A, as shown in **Figure 5**) is shown as the orange centre circle.

Figure 6: Bird Distribution Under Brooders



A picture of contented spot-brooded birds at the right temperature is shown in **Figure 7**.

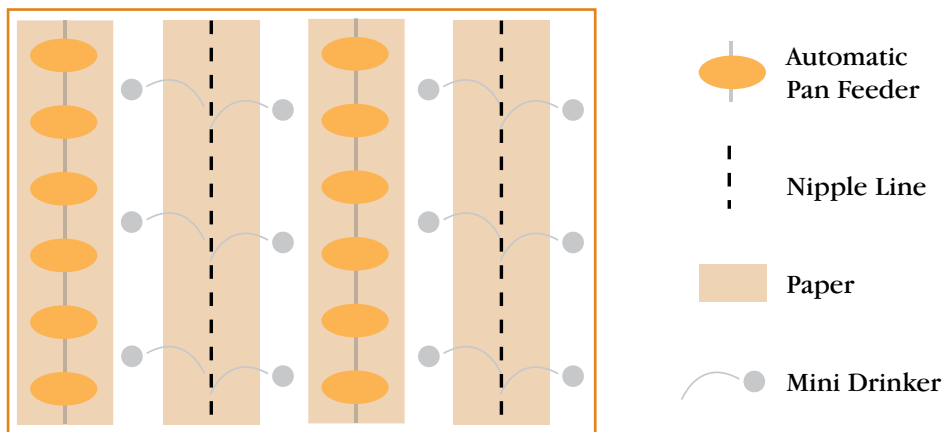
Figure 7: Chicks in Correct Spot Brooding Conditions



Whole-house brooding

In whole-house brooding, there is no temperature gradient within the house, although supplementary brooders might also be provided. The main whole-house heat source can be direct or indirect (using hot air). A layout for whole-house brooding is shown in **Figure 8**.

Figure 8: Typical Layout of a Whole-house Brooding System

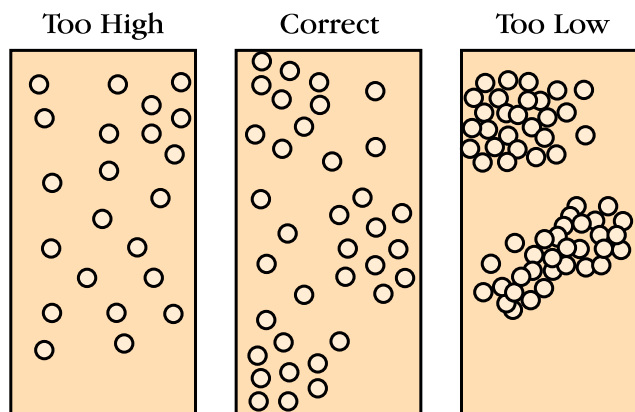


Within the context of the set up in **Figure 8**, optimum temperatures are as shown in the left-hand side of **Table 3**.

Whole-house brooding behaviour

Chick behaviour is the best indicator of correct temperature. **Figure 9** shows the different distribution of chicks in whole-house brooding at different temperatures. With whole-house brooding, correct temperature is indicated by chicks forming groups of 20-30, with movement occurring between groups. There should be continuous feeding and drinking within the flock.

Figure 9: Typical Behaviour of Chicks in Whole-house Brooding at Different Temperatures



When whole-house brooding is practiced, particular attention must be paid to monitoring and controlling house temperature and humidity (see section on ‘*Interaction between Temperature and Humidity*’).

A picture of contented whole-house brooded birds is shown in **Figure 10**.

Figure 10: Chicks in Correct Whole-house Brooder Conditions



Key Points

- Temperature is critical and should be maintained as recommended
- Temperatures should be checked manually at chick level
- Chick behaviour should be closely and frequently observed

Section two

PROVISION OF FEED AND WATER

Objective

To provide a defined feeding programme to supply a range of balanced diets which satisfy the nutrient requirements of broilers at all stages of their development and which optimise efficiency and profitability without compromising bird welfare or the environment.

The drinking and feeding systems employed, together with the management of those systems, will impact upon feed and water intake, and thereby on bird performance and efficiency.

Contents

Principles	25
Supply of Nutrients	25
Feeding Programme	26
Feed Form and Physical Feed Quality	28
Whole-wheat Feeding	28
Feed and Heat Stress	29
Environment	29
Litter Quality	30
Water Quality	30
Drinking Systems	32
Feeding Systems	37

PROVISION OF FEED AND WATER

Principles

Feed is a major component of the total cost of broiler production. To support optimum performance, broiler rations should be formulated to give the correct balance of energy, protein and amino acids, minerals, vitamins and essential fatty acids. The choice of feeding programme will be dependent on the target of the business; for instance whether the focus is on maximising profitability of live birds or optimising yield of carcass components.

Recommended nutrient levels and feed programmes can be found in the current **L.I.R. Broiler Nutrition Specifications**, which offer further information on:

- The choice of feeding programme for a range of production and market situations
- Optimum levels of dietary digestible amino acid levels for growth, efficiency, processing yield and profitability

Supply of Nutrients

Energy

Broilers require energy for growth of tissue, maintenance and activity. Carbohydrate sources, such as corn and wheat, and various fats or oils are the major source of energy in poultry feeds. Energy levels in diets are expressed in Megajoules (MJ/kg) or kilocalories (kcal/kg) of Metabolisable Energy (ME), as this represents the energy available to the broiler.

Protein

Feed proteins, such as those in cereals and soybean meal, are complex compounds which are broken down by digestion into amino acids. These amino acids are absorbed and assembled into body proteins which are used in the construction of body tissue, e.g. muscles, nerves, skin and feathers.

Dietary crude protein levels do not indicate the quality of the proteins in feed ingredients. Diet protein quality is based on the level, balance and digestibility of essential amino acids in the final mixed feed.

The L.I.R. broiler is particularly responsive to dietary digestible amino acid levels and will respond well, in terms of growth, feed efficiency and profitability, to diets properly balanced as recommended. Higher levels of digestible amino acids have been shown to improve profitability by increasing broiler performance and processing yield. This becomes particularly important when broilers are grown for portioning or de-boning.

Macro minerals

The provision of the correct levels of the major minerals in the appropriate balance is important for high-performing broilers. The macro minerals involved are calcium, phosphorus, sodium, potassium and chloride.

Calcium and phosphorus: Calcium in the diet of broilers influences growth, feed efficiency, bone development, leg health, nerve function and the immune system. It is vital that calcium is supplied in adequate quantities and on a consistent basis. Phosphorus, like calcium, is required in the correct form and quantity to optimise skeletal structure and growth.

Sodium, potassium and chloride: These minerals are needed for general metabolic functions. Shortages can affect feed intake, growth and blood pH. Excess levels of these minerals result in increased water intake and subsequent poor litter quality.

Trace minerals and vitamins

Trace minerals and vitamins are needed for all metabolic functions. Appropriate vitamin and trace mineral supplementation depends on the feed ingredients used, the feed manufacture and on local circumstances.

Due to differences in vitamin levels of various cereals, the level of supplementation of some vitamins must be modified. Accordingly, separate recommendations are usually proposed for some vitamins, depending on the cereals (e.g. wheat versus maize) upon which the diets are based.

Enzymes

Enzymes are now being routinely used in poultry feeds to improve digestibility of feed ingredients. In general, feed enzymes are available that act on carbohydrates, proteins and plant-bound minerals.

Key Points

- Use recommended digestible amino acid levels for optimum broiler performance
- Ensure high-quality protein sources are used
- Provide the correct levels of the major minerals in the appropriate balance
- Vitamin and mineral supplementation depends on feed ingredients used, feed manufacturing practices and local circumstances

Feeding Programme

Starter feeds

The objective of the brooding period (0-10 days of age) is to establish good appetite and maximum early growth in order to meet the Indian River seven-day body-weight objective. It is recommended that Broiler Starter feed be fed for ten days. The Starter represents a small proportion of the total feed cost and decisions on Starter formulation should be based primarily on performance and profitability rather than purely on diet cost.

The benefit of maximising nutrient intake on early broiler growth and subsequent performance is well established. Feeding broilers the recommended nutrient density will ensure optimal growth is established during this critical period of life.

Grower feeds

Broiler Grower feed is generally fed for 14-16 days following the Starter. Starter to Grower transition will involve a change of texture from crumbs/mini-pellets to pellets. Depending on the pellet size produced, it may be necessary to feed the first delivery of Grower as crumbs or mini-pellets.

During this time broiler growth continues to be dynamic. It therefore needs to be supported by adequate nutrient intake. For optimum feed intake, growth and FCR, provision of the correct diet nutrient density (especially energy and amino acids), is critical.

Finisher feeds

Broiler Finisher feeds account for the major volume and cost of feeding a broiler. It is therefore important that feeds are designed to maximise financial return for the type of products being produced.

Finisher feeds should be given from 25 days until processing. Birds slaughtered later than 42/43 days may need a second Finisher feed specification from 42 days onwards.

The use of either one or more broiler Finisher feeds will depend on:

- Desired slaughter weight
- Length of the production period
- Design of the feeding programme

Withdrawal periods for drugs will dictate the use of a special Withdrawal Finisher feed. A Withdrawal feed should be fed for sufficient time prior to slaughter to eliminate the risk of pharmaceutical product residues in the meat. Statutory withdrawal periods for prescribed medicines that are specified in product data sheets must be followed. It is not recommended that extreme dietary nutrient reductions be made during the withdrawal period.

Key Points

- It is recommended to feed the Starter diet for 10 days. Decisions on Starter feed formulation should be based on performance and profitability
- The Grower feed must ensure that nutrient intake supports the dynamic growth during this period
- Broiler Finisher feeds should be formulated to maximise financial return and be adjusted for bird age, but extreme nutrient withdrawal is not recommended

Feed Form and Physical Feed Quality

Broiler growth and efficiency of feed use will generally be better if the Starter feed is crumbs or mini-pellets and the Grower and Finisher feeds are pellets (**Table 4**). Depending on pellet size fed, it may be necessary to provide the first delivery of Grower feed as crumbs or mini-pellets.

Poor quality crumbs and pellets will reduce feed intake and performance. On the farm, attention should be given to reduce breakage of crumbs and pellets during handling.

Table 4: Form of Feed by Age in Broilers

Age	Feed Form and Size
0-10 days	Sieved crumb or mini-pellets
11-24 days	2-3.5 mm diameter pellet or coarse grinded mash
25 days to processing	3.5 mm diameter pellet or coarse grinded mash

Good quality crumbled and pelleted feeds are preferred to mash feed; however, if feeding a mash feed, feed particles should be sufficiently coarse and uniform in size. Mash feeds may benefit from the inclusion of some fat in the formulation to reduce dustiness and improve homogeneity of feed components.

Key Points

- Poor physical feed quality will have a negative impact on broiler performance
- Use good quality crumbled or pelleted feeds for optimum performance
- When feeding mash, ensure a coarse uniform particle size is achieved. Minimise fine particle (<1 mm) levels to less than 10%

Whole-wheat Feeding

Feeding of compound feed with whole wheat may reduce feed costs per tonne. However, this must be offset against loss of eviscerated and breast meat yield.

The level of inclusion of whole wheat must be precisely accounted for in formulating the compound or balancer feed. If an appropriate adjustment is not made, live bird performance will be compromised, as the diet will now have an inappropriate nutrient balance. Safe inclusion guides are given in **Table 5**.

Table 5: Safe Inclusion of Whole Wheat in Broiler Rations

Ration	Inclusion rate of wheat
Starter	Zero
Grower	gradual increase to 10%*
Finisher	gradual increase to 15%*

**Higher inclusions of wheat are possible if fed in combination with higher concentration compound or balancer feeds.*

Whole wheat must be removed from the feed two days before catching to avoid problems of contamination during evisceration at the processing plant.

Key Point

- Dilution of diets with whole wheat may reduce performance if the compound feed is not properly adjusted

Feed and Heat Stress

Correct nutrient levels and balance, together with the use of feed ingredients with higher levels of digestibility, will help to minimise the effect of heat stress.

Providing optimum crumb and pellet textures will minimise the energy expended to eat the feed and thereby reduce the heat generated during feeding. Optimum feed form will also improve feed acceptability and help compensatory feed intake to occur during cooler periods.

Providing an increase in feed energy from feed fats (rather than carbohydrates) during hot weather has been shown to be beneficial in some situations due to reducing the heat increment of the diet.

Readily available cool, low-salt water is the most critical nutrient during heat stress.

Strategic use of vitamins and electrolytes, either through the feed or water, will help the bird deal with environmental stresses.

Key Points

- Providing the correct nutrient levels and using more digestible ingredients will help to minimise the effects of heat stress
- Optimal feed form will minimise heat stress and allow compensatory feed intake to occur
- Provide cool, low-salt water
- Ensure feed is available to the birds during the coolest part of the day

Environment

Nitrogen and ammonia emissions can be reduced by minimising excess crude protein levels in the feed. This is achieved through formulating diets to balanced recommended levels of digestible essential amino acids, rather than to minimum crude protein levels.

Phosphorus excretion rates can be reduced by feeding closely to the bird's requirement and utilising phytase enzymes.

Key Points

- Formulating feeds to balanced levels of digestible essential amino acids will minimise nitrogen excretion
- Phosphorus excretion can be minimised by feeding closely to the bird's requirement

Litter Quality

Litter quality directly affects the health of the bird. Lower moisture levels in the litter reduce the amount of ammonia in the atmosphere, which helps reduce respiratory stress. Foot Pad Dermatitis incidence is also reduced if the litter is of good quality.

Provided suitable management, health and environmental practices are followed, the following nutritional strategies will help to maintain good litter quality:

- Avoid excessive levels of crude protein in diets
- Avoid high salt/sodium levels, as this will increase bird water intake and cause wet litter
- Avoid using poorly digestible or high-fibre feed ingredients in the diets
- Provide good-quality feed fats/oils in the diet, as this helps avoid enteric disorders which produce wet litter

Water Quality

Water is an essential ingredient for life. Any reductions in water intake or increased water loss can have a significant effect on the lifetime performance of the chick. More detailed information can be found in the **Indian River Information – Water Quality**, February 2008.

Water supplied to broilers should not contain excessive amounts of minerals. Water should not be contaminated with bacteria. Although water supplied as fit for human consumption will also be suitable for broilers, water from bore holes, open water reservoirs or poor quality public supplies can cause problems.

The water supply should be tested to check the level of calcium salts (water hardness), salinity and nitrates.

After house cleaning and prior to chick delivery, water should be sampled for bacterial contamination at the source, the storage tanks and the drinker points.

Table 6 shows the maximum acceptable concentration of minerals and organic matter in the water supply.

Table 6: Maximum Acceptable Concentrations of Minerals and Organic Matter in the Water Supply

Material	Acceptable Concentration (ppm or mg per litre)	Comment
Total dissolved solids (TDS)	0-1,000	Higher levels will cause wet droppings and reduce performance
Faecal coliforms	0	Higher levels indicate contaminated water
Chloride	250	If sodium is higher than 50, acceptable chloride concentrations are much lower (less than 20)
Sodium	50	
Calcium salts (hardness)	70	
pH	6.5-8.5	Acid water will corrode equipment and disrupt health interventions
Nitrates	trace	
Sulphates	200-250	Maximum desirable level. Higher levels will increase wetness of droppings
Potassium	300	
Magnesium	50-125	Higher levels will exacerbate influence of sulphates
Iron	0.3	
Lead	0.05	
Zinc	5	
Manganese	0.05	
Copper	0.05	

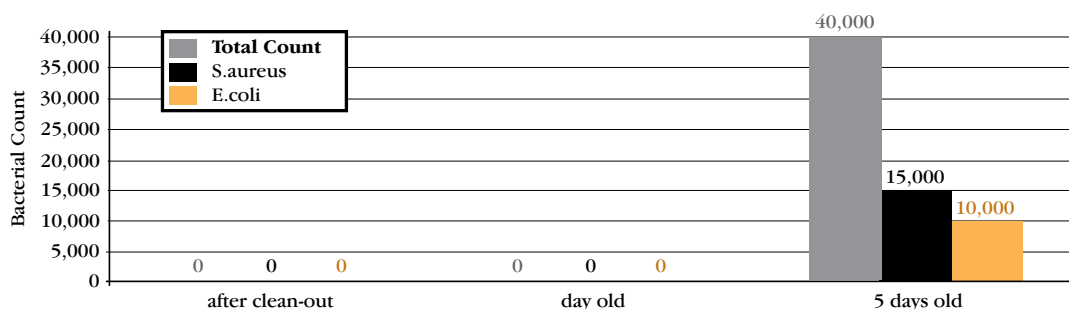
The levels presented in **Table 6** are unlikely to be exceeded if water is taken from a mains supply.

Water from wells or bore holes however, may have excessive nitrate levels and high bacterial counts. Where bacterial counts are high, the cause should be established and rectified. Bacterial contamination can often reduce biological production performances both on the farm and at the processing factory.

Water that is clean at the point of entry to the broiler house can become contaminated by exposure to bacteria within the house environment (**Figure 11**). Chlorination of 3-5 ppm at drinker level will reduce the bacterial count, especially where drinker systems with open water surfaces are in use. Ultra Violet (UV) irradiation is also effective in controlling bacterial contamination.

If the water contains high levels of iron or calcium salts and is hard, drinker valves and pipes may become blocked. Sediment will also block water pipes and, where this is a problem, it is advisable to filter the supply with a mesh of 40-50 microns.

Figure 11: Increase in Bacterial Count in Drinkers Where Water is Exposed to the Broiler House Atmosphere



Key Points

- Provide unrestricted access to fresh, good-quality clean water
- Test the water supply regularly for bacteriological and mineral contaminants and take any necessary corrective action

Drinking Systems

Water must be available to broilers 24 hours per day. Inadequate water supply, either in volume or in the number of drinking points, will result in reduced growth rate. To ensure that the flock is receiving sufficient water, the ratio of water to feed consumed each day should be monitored.

Water consumption measurement can be used to monitor system failures (feed & water), to monitor health and to assess performance.

At 21°C, the birds are consuming sufficient water when the ratio of water volume (litres) to feed weight (kg) remains close to:

- 1.8:1 for bell drinkers
- 1.6:1 for nipple drinkers without cups
- 1.7:1 for nipple drinkers with cups

Water requirement will vary with feed consumption.

Birds will drink more water at higher ambient temperatures. Water requirement increases by approximately 6.5% per degree centigrade over 21°C. In tropical areas prolonged high temperatures will double daily water consumption.

Very cold or very warm water will reduce water intake. In hot weather, it is good practice to flush the drinker lines at regular intervals to ensure that the water is as cool as possible.

Adequate water storage must be provided on the farm, in case of failure of the mains supply. Ideally, sufficient storage to provide 24 hours water at maximum consumption is required.

The measurement of water consumption by metering is a vital daily management practice. Typical water consumption at 21°C is given in **Table 7**.

A reduction of water consumption gives an advanced warning of potential health and production issues.

Water meters must match flow rates with pressure. A minimum of one meter is required per house, but preferably more to allow within-house zoning.

Table 7: Typical Water Consumption by Broilers at 21°C in Litres per 1,000 Birds per Day (M=Males, F = Females, AH = As-Hatched (mixed males and females))

Age of birds (days)	Nipple drinkers without cups			Nipple drinkers with cups			Bell drinkers		
	M	F	AH	M	F	AH	M	F	AH
7	51	48	50	54	51	53	58	54	56
14	106	96	101	112	102	107	119	108	113
21	178	158	168	189	168	179	200	178	189
28	251	226	238	267	240	253	283	254	268
35	310	282	296	330	299	315	349	317	333
42	352	323	338	374	343	359	396	364	380
49	374	349	362	398	371	384	421	392	407
56	381	358	370	405	381	393	428	403	416

Nipple drinkers

Nipple drinkers should be installed at 12 birds per nipple; additional supplementary drinkers should be supplied (six per 1,000 chicks) for the first 3-4 days.

The actual number of birds per nipple will depend on flow rates, depletion age, climate and design. Water lines need to be managed daily during the flock to obtain optimum performance.

A high drinker line water pressure can result in more water wastage and wet litter. A low drinker line water pressure can result in reduced water intake and a subsequent reduction in feed intake.

Drinker line height should be started low at the beginning of the flock and increased as the birds get older. Drinker lines that are too high can restrict bird water consumption while water lines that are too low can result in wet litter.

In the initial stages of brooding, the nipple lines should be placed at a height at which the bird is able to drink. The back of the chick should form an angle of 35-45° with the floor whilst drinking is in progress. As the bird grows, the nipples should be raised so that the back of the bird forms an angle of approximately 75-85° with the floor and so that the birds are stretching slightly for the water (**Figure 12**).

Figure 12: Nipple Drinker Height Adjustment

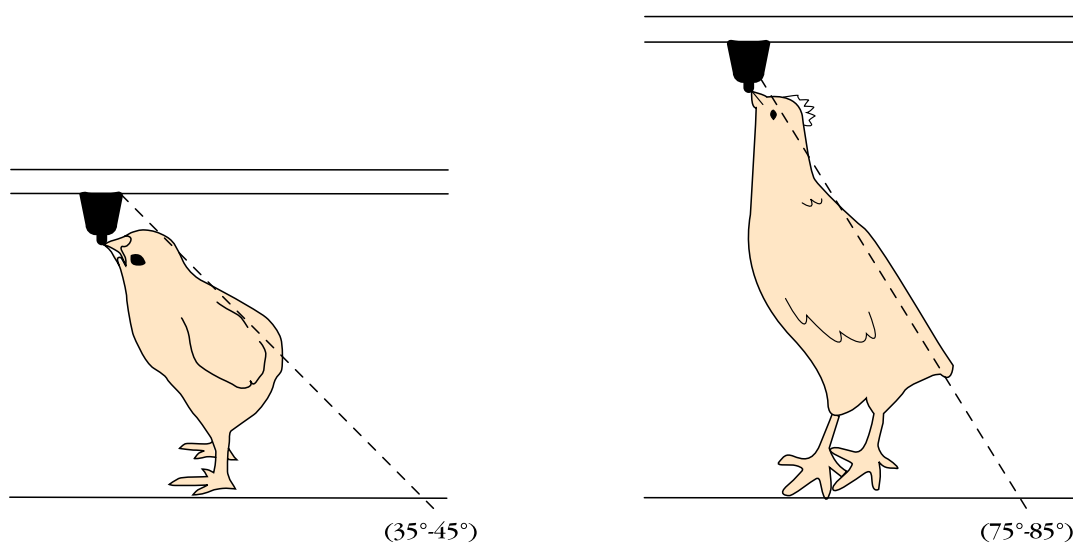


Figure 13: Example of Nipple Drinker



Bell drinkers

At day old, a minimum of six bell drinkers (40 cm diameter) should be provided per 1,000 chicks; additional sources of water in the form of six mini-drinkers or plastic trays per 1,000 chicks should also be available.

As the broilers become older and the area of the house in use is expanded, a minimum of eight bell drinkers (40 cm diameter) must be provided per 1,000 chicks. These should be placed evenly throughout the house so that no broiler is more than two meters from water. As a guide, water level should be 0.6 cm below the top of the drinker until approximately 7-10 days. After 10 days there should be 0.6 cm of water in the base of the drinker.

Additional mini-drinkers and trays used at day-old should be removed gradually so that by 3-4 days all chicks are drinking from the automatic drinkers.

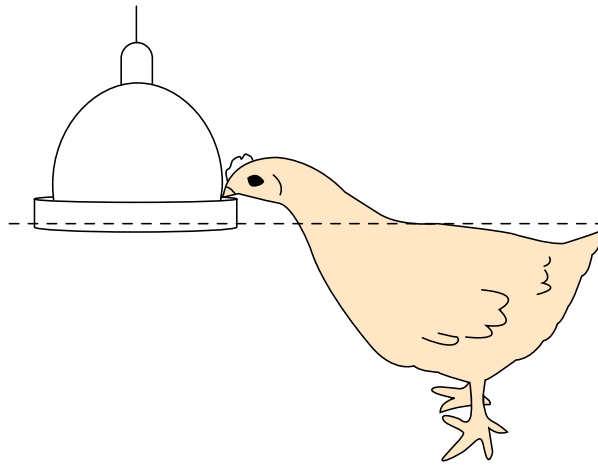
Minimum drinker requirements per 1,000 birds post-brooding are given in **Table 8**.

Table 8: Minimum Drinker Requirements per 1,000 Birds Post-Brooding

Drinker type	Drinker requirements
Bell drinkers	8 drinkers (40 cm diameter) per 1,000 birds
Nipples	83 nipples per 1,000 birds (12 birds per nipple, or for broilers >3kg 9-10 birds per nipple)

Drinkers should be checked for height on a daily basis and adjusted so that the base of each drinker is level with the broilers back from day 18 onwards (**Figure 14**).

Figure 14: Height of Bell Drinker



Key Points

- Drinking water should be available to the birds 24 hours a day
- Provide supplementary drinkers for the first four days of a flocks life
- The feed to water ratio should be monitored daily to check that water intake is sufficient
- Make allowances for increased water consumption at high temperatures
- Flush drinker lines in hot weather to ensure that the water is as cool as possible
- Adjust drinker heights daily
- Provide adequate drinker space and ensure that drinkers are easily accessible to all birds

Feeding Systems

Feed should be provided in the form of sieved crumbs or mini-pellets for the first 10 days of life. Feed should be placed in flat trays or on paper sheeting so that it is readily accessible to the chicks. At least 25% of the floor should be covered with paper.

The change to the main feeding system should be made gradually over the first 2-3 days as chicks begin to show interest in the main system. Where photoperiod duration and pattern are used to modify growth, particular attention should be paid to feeding space, to allow for the extra competition created.

Actual diets provided to the birds will depend on live weight, depletion age, climate and type of house and equipment construction.

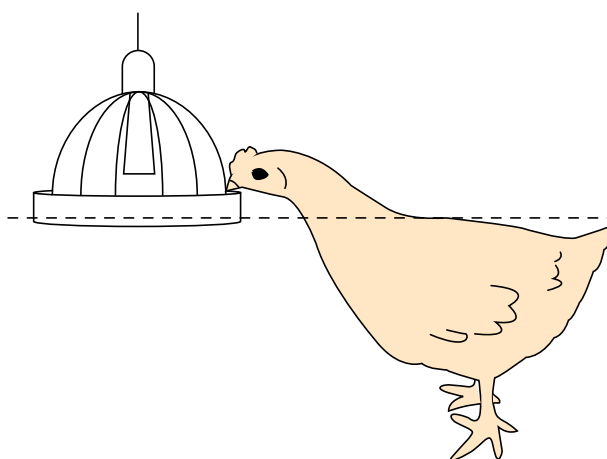
Insufficient feeding space will reduce growth rates and cause poor uniformity. The number of birds per feeding system will ultimately depend on the live weight at slaughter and design of system.

The main automated feeding systems available for broilers are:

- Pan feeders: 45-80 birds per pan (the lower ratio for bigger birds)
- Flat chain/auger: 2.5 cm per bird (40 birds per metre of track)
- Tube feeders: 38 cm diameter (70 birds per tube)

All types of feeder should be adjusted to ensure minimum spillage and optimum access for the birds. The base of the trough or pans should be level with the birds' backs (**Figure 15**). The height of pan and tube feeders may have to be adjusted individually. The height of chain feeders is adjustable by winch.

Figure 15: Height of Feeders



Incorrect feeder adjustment can increase feed spillage. When this happens, estimates of feed conversion will become inaccurate and the spilled feed, when eaten, is likely to carry a higher risk of bacterial contamination.

With all feeding systems it is good practice to allow the birds to clear the feeders, by consuming all the feed available in the tracks or pans, once daily. This will reduce feed wastage which results in improved efficiency of feed use.

Adjustment of feed depth is easier with chain feeder systems, as a single adjustment to the hopper only is required. Careful maintenance of chain feeders will minimise incidence of leg damage.

Pan and tube feeder systems require adjustments to be made to each individual feeder.

Pan and tube feeders (if filled automatically) have the advantage that all are filled simultaneously, making feed available to the birds immediately. When chain feeders are used however, feed distribution takes longer to accomplish and feed is not immediately available to all the birds.

Uneven distribution of feed can result in lowered performance and increased scratching damage associated with competition at feeders.

Key Points

- Supplement the main feeding system using paper and/or trays over the first three days
- Supply sufficient feeders for the number of birds in the house
- Increase feeder space per bird if photoperiod duration and pattern are modified to allow for increased competition at the feeder
- Adjust feeder height daily so that the birds' backs are level with the base of the feeder

Section three

HEALTH AND BIOSECURITY

Objective

To maximise flock performance by minimising or preventing poultry diseases and infections of public health concern through good husbandry, biosecurity and welfare practices.

Contents

Principles	41
Biosecurity	41
Vaccination	43
Disease Investigation	44
Disease Recognition	47

HEALTH & BIOSECURITY

Principles

Bird health is of utmost importance in broiler production. Poor chick health will have a negative impact on all aspects of production and flock management, including growth rate, feed conversion efficiency, condemnations, liveability and processing traits.

The flock should start with day-old chicks of good quality and health. The chicks should be sourced from a minimal number of breeder flocks with similar health status; ideally, one donor flock per house.

On-farm disease control programmes involve:

- Disease prevention
- Early detection of ill health
- Treatment of identified disease conditions

Regular monitoring of production parameters is vital for early detection and targeted intervention. Early intervention in one flock will help prevent disease in surrounding and successive flocks.

Production parameters, such as birds dead on arrival (D.O.A.), seven-day body weight, daily and weekly mortality, water consumption, average daily gain, feed conversion efficiency and processing condemnations, should be reviewed closely and compared with company targets. When monitored production parameters fail to meet their established goals, a proper investigation should be conducted by trained veterinary personnel.

Biosecurity and vaccination are both integral to successful health management. Biosecurity to prevent the introduction of disease in the first place and appropriate vaccination programmes to address endemic disease.

Biosecurity

A robust biosecurity programme is critical to maintain flock health. Understanding and following agreed biosecurity practices must be part of everyone's job. Regular education and staff training is essential to ensure this.

Biosecurity will prevent flock exposure to disease-causing organisms. When developing a biosecurity programme, three components should be considered:

- **Location:** Farms should be located so that they are isolated from other poultry and livestock. Single-age sites are preferable so that recycling of pathogens and live vaccine strains is limited
- **Farm design:** A barrier (fence) is necessary to prevent unauthorised access. Housing should be designed to minimise traffic flow, to facilitate cleaning and disinfection, and constructed to be bird and rodent proof
- **Operational procedures:** Procedures must control the movement of people, feed, equipment and animals on the farm to prevent the introduction and spread of disease. Routine procedures may have to be modified in the event of a change in disease status

Figure 16 presents many of the potential routes of disease exposure.

Figure 16: Elements of Disease Exposure



Key Points

- Restrict visitors
- Establish visitation requirements for any visitor, which includes a risk assessment protocol for that individual, which must be completed prior to entry
- Stipulate farm entry protocols, including a change of clothing and footwear for staff and visitors
- Provide a change of footwear or disposable boots at the entrance to every house
- No equipment should be brought onto the farm unless it has been cleaned and disinfected
- All vehicles must be cleaned prior to farm entry
- Establish clear and implemented procedures for house cleaning and disinfection
- Establish clear and implemented procedures for litter management and disposal
- Reduce pathogen carryover by allowing adequate down-time for farm cleaning
- Establish clear and implemented procedures for feed hygiene, transport and delivery
- Establish clear and implemented procedures for water management and sanitation
- Establish an integrated pest control programme
- Establish procedures for dead bird disposal

Vaccination

Table 9 lays out some essential factors for successful vaccination of broilers.

Table 9: Factors for a Successful Vaccination Programme

Vaccination programme(s) design	Vaccine administration	Vaccine effectiveness
Programmes must be based on veterinary advice tailored to specific local and regional challenges based on health surveys and laboratory analysis	Follow manufacturer recommendations for product handling and method of administration	Seek veterinary advice prior to vaccinating sick or stressed birds
Single or combined vaccines must be carefully selected according to age and health status of flocks	Properly train vaccine administrators to handle and administer vaccines	Periodic and efficient house cleaning followed by placement of new litter material reduces the concentration of pathogens in the environment
Vaccination must result in the development of consistent levels of immunity while minimising potential adverse effects	Maintain vaccination records	Adequate down-time between flocks helps to reduce the build-up of normal house pathogens that can affect flock performance when re-using litter
Breeder programmes should provide adequate and uniform levels of maternal antibodies to protect chicks against several viral diseases during the first weeks of life	When live vaccines are given in chlorinated water, use a vaccine stabiliser (such as non-fat powdered or liquid milk) added to the water prior to the vaccine to neutralise the chlorine. Chlorine can reduce vaccine titre or cause inactivation	Regular audits of vaccine handling, administration techniques and post-vaccinal responses are critical to control challenges and improve performance
Maternal antibodies may interfere with the chick's response to some vaccine strains. Levels of maternal antibodies in broilers will decline as the breeder source flock ages		Ventilation and management should be optimised post-vaccination, especially during times of vaccine-induced reaction

Key Points

- Vaccination alone cannot protect flocks against overwhelming disease challenges and poor management practices
- Vaccination programmes for broilers should be developed in consultation with trained poultry veterinarians
- Vaccination is more effective when disease challenges are minimised through well-designed and implemented biosecurity and management programmes
- Vaccination programmes must be based on local disease challenges and vaccine availability
- Every bird must receive the intended dose of vaccine
- Breeder flock vaccination programmes must be factored into the design of an appropriate vaccination programme for broiler progeny

Disease Investigation

Disease investigation requires knowledge of what to expect at what age and how to detect what is abnormal for the flock.

When health problems are seen or suspected in broiler flocks, veterinary advice should be sought at the earliest possible opportunity.

When investigating the cause of disease, care must be taken in associating a bacterium or virus isolated from the infected flock as the cause of the disease. Ill health arises from a wide variety of causes and interactions.

Many non-pathogenic bacteria or viruses may also be isolated from healthy broilers.

Continuous improvement of broiler health within a broiler operation requires good record keeping and sample collection throughout the lives of the flocks and across the whole production process.

It is helpful to keep up-to-date with local and regional health concerns in order to prepare for the unexpected.

A systematic approach is helpful when troubleshooting health issues on the farm.

These are the things to look at:

- Feed: availability, consumption, distribution, palatability, nutritional content, contaminants and toxins and withdrawal
- Light: adequate for efficient growth and development, uniform exposure and intensity
- Litter: moisture level, ammonia level, pathogen load, toxins and contaminants, depth, material used, distribution
- Air: speed, contaminants and toxins, humidity, temperature, availability, barriers
- Water: source, contaminants and toxins, additives, availability, pathogen load, consumption
- Space: bird density, feed availability, water availability, limiting obstacles, limiting equipment
- Sanitation: hygiene of premises (inside and outside of house), pest control, maintenance, cleaning and disinfection practices
- Security: biosecurity risks

Tables 10 and 11 highlight examples of mortality parameters possibly related to bird quality and bird health. The tables also suggest potential investigative actions using the systematic approach for troubleshooting health issues outlined on the previous page.

Table 10: Troubleshooting Common Issues in the 0-7 Day Brooding Phase

Observe	Investigate	Likely causes
<p>Poor chick quality</p> <p>Increased dead on arrivals (D.O.A.) Sluggish chick behaviour General chick appearance</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Unhealed navels • Red hocks/beaks • Dark wrinkled legs • Discoloured or malodorous yolks or navels 	<p>Feed, Sanitation, Air and Water</p> <p>Source flock health and hygiene status</p> <p>Egg handling, storage and transport</p> <p>Hatchery sanitation, incubation and management</p> <p>Chick processing, handling and transport</p>	<p>Inadequate diet of source flock</p> <p>Health and hygiene status of source flock, hatchery and equipment</p> <p>Incorrect parameters for egg storage, relative humidity, temperatures and equipment management</p> <p>Inadequate moisture loss during incubation</p> <p>Dehydration caused by excessive spread of hatch time or late removal of chicks from the hatchers</p>
<p>Small chicks days 1-4</p>	<p>Feed, Light, Air, Water and Space</p> <p>Crop fill at 24 hours post chick placement</p> <p>Availability and accessibility to feed and water</p> <p>Bird comfort and welfare</p>	<p>Less than 95% of chicks with adequate crop fill by 24 hours post placement</p> <p>Weak chicks</p> <p>Inadequate feeders and drinkers</p> <p>Inadequate feed and water levels</p> <p>Equipment location and maintenance issues</p> <p>Inappropriate brooding temperature and environment</p>
<p>Runted and Stunted Chicks</p> <p>Small birds, as early as 4-7 days</p>	<p>Feed, Light, Litter, Air, Water, Space, Sanitation and Security</p> <p>Flock source</p> <p>Hydration status of chicks</p> <p>Brooding conditions</p> <p>Feed quality and accessibility</p> <p>Down-time between flocks</p> <p>Disease challenge</p>	<p>Flock source variation</p> <p>Dehydration of the chicks</p> <p>Poor quality feed</p> <p>Poor quality brooding conditions</p> <p>Short down-times between flocks</p> <p>Inadequate cleaning and disinfection</p> <p>Disease</p> <p>Poor biosecurity and hygiene practices</p>

Table 11: Troubleshooting Common Issues after Seven Days of Age

Observe	Investigate	Likely causes
<p>Disease</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • metabolic • bacterial • viral • fungal • protozoal • parasitic • toxins 	<p>Feed, Light, Litter, Air, Water, Space, Sanitation and Security</p> <p>Broiler farm hygiene</p> <p>Local disease challenge</p> <p>Vaccination and disease prevention strategies</p> <p>Feed quality and supply</p> <p>Lighting and ventilation</p>	<p>Poor environmental conditions</p> <p>Poor biosecurity</p> <p>High disease challenge</p> <p>Low disease protection</p> <p>Inadequate or improper implementation of disease prevention</p>
<p>Stress</p>	<p>Potential stressors:</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> • temperature • management • immunosuppressive disorders 	<p>Poor feed quality</p> <p>Inadequate feed supply</p> <p>Excessive or insufficient lighting</p> <p>Excessive or insufficient ventilation</p> <p>Inadequate farm management</p> <p>Inadequate equipment</p> <p>Inadequate bird comfort and welfare</p>
<p>High number of birds D.O.A. to the processing plant</p> <p>High plant condemnation rate</p>	<p>Feed, Light, Litter, Air, Water, Space, Sanitation and Security</p> <p>Flock records and data</p> <p>Health status of flock</p> <p>History of flock during the grow-out period (such as feed, water or power outages)</p> <p>Potential equipment hazards on the farm</p> <p>Bird handling by the catchers, handlers and hauliers</p> <p>Experience and training level of individuals handling and hauling birds</p> <p>Conditions during catching and hauling (such as weather and equipment)</p>	<p>Health issues during grow-out</p> <p>Management of relevant historical events affecting bird health and welfare</p> <p>Improper bird handling and hauling by crews</p> <p>Harsh conditions (weather or equipment related) during handling, catching or transport to the processing plant</p>

Key Points

- Know what to expect and be alert to deviations from the expected
- Observe.....Investigate.....Identify.....Act
- Use a systematic approach

Disease Recognition

The recognition of health problems involves several steps.

In diagnosing a disease problem, and planning and implementing a control strategy, it is important to remember that the more thorough the investigation, the more thorough the diagnosis and the more effective the controlling actions.

Early disease recognition is critical.

Table 12 highlights some of the ways in which signs of disease can be recognised.

Table 12: Recognising Signs of Disease

Observations by Farm Personnel	Farm and Laboratory Monitoring	Data and Trend Analysis
Daily assessment of bird behaviour	Regular farm visitation	Daily and weekly mortality
Bird appearance (such as feathering, size, uniformity, colouring)	Routine post-mortem examinations of normal and diseased birds	Water and feed consumption
Environmental changes (such as litter quality, heat or cold stress, ventilation issues)	Proper sample collection size and type Proper choice of subsequent analysis and actions following post-mortem examination	Temperature trends
Clinical signs of illness (such as respiratory noise or distress, depression, faecal droppings, vocalisation)	Routine microbiological testing of farms, feed, litter, birds and other appropriate material	D.O.A. after placement on the farm, or after arrival at the processing plant
Flock uniformity	Appropriate diagnostic testing Appropriate serology	Condemnation at slaughter

Key Points

- Daily observation
- Accurate recording
- Systematic disease monitoring

Section four

HOUSING AND ENVIRONMENT

Objective

To provide an environment that permits the bird to achieve optimum performance in growth rate, uniformity, feed efficiency and yield, while ensuring that the health and welfare of the bird are not compromised.

Contents

Principles	51
Housing and Ventilation Systems	54
Minimum Ventilation Systems	56
Transitional Ventilation Systems	57
Tunnel Ventilation Systems	58
Evaporative Cooling Systems	59
Lighting for Broilers	61
Litter Management	64
Stocking Density	66

For more detailed environmental control information, please refer to the Indian River publication **Environmental Management in the Broiler House**, 2009

HOUSING AND ENVIRONMENT

Principles

The principle means of controlling the birds environment is by control of ventilation. It is essential to deliver a constant and uniform supply of good quality air at bird level. Fresh air is required at all stages of growth to allow the bird to remain in good health and achieve full potential.

Ventilation helps to maintain in-house temperatures within the birds' comfort zone. During the early part of the production period keeping birds warm enough is the primary concern, but, as they grow, keeping birds cool enough becomes the main objective.

The housing and ventilation systems used will depend upon climate, but in all cases effective ventilation should remove excess heat and moisture, provide oxygen and improve air quality by removing harmful gases.

Sensors which monitor ammonia, carbon dioxide, relative humidity and temperature are available commercially and can be used in conjunction with automated ventilation systems.

As broilers grow they consume oxygen and produce waste gases and water vapour. Combustion by brooders contributes further waste gases in the broiler house. The ventilation system must remove these waste gases from the house and deliver good air quality.

Air

The main contaminants of air within the house environment are dust, ammonia, carbon dioxide, carbon monoxide and excess water vapour. When in excess, they damage the respiratory tract, decreasing the efficiency of respiration and reducing bird performance.

Continued exposure to contaminated and moist air may trigger disease (e.g. ascites or chronic respiratory disease), affect temperature regulation and contribute to poor litter quality, as shown in **Table 13**.

Table 13: Effects of Common Broiler House Air Contaminants

Ammonia	Can be detected by smell at 20 ppm or above >10 ppm will damage lung surface >20 ppm will increase susceptibility to respiratory diseases >50 ppm will reduce growth rate
Carbon Dioxide	>3,500 ppm causes ascites and is fatal at high levels
Carbon Monoxide	100 ppm reduces oxygen binding and is fatal at high levels
Dust	Damage to respiratory tract lining and increased susceptibility to disease
Humidity	Effects vary with temperature. At >29°C and >70% relative humidity, growth will be affected

Water

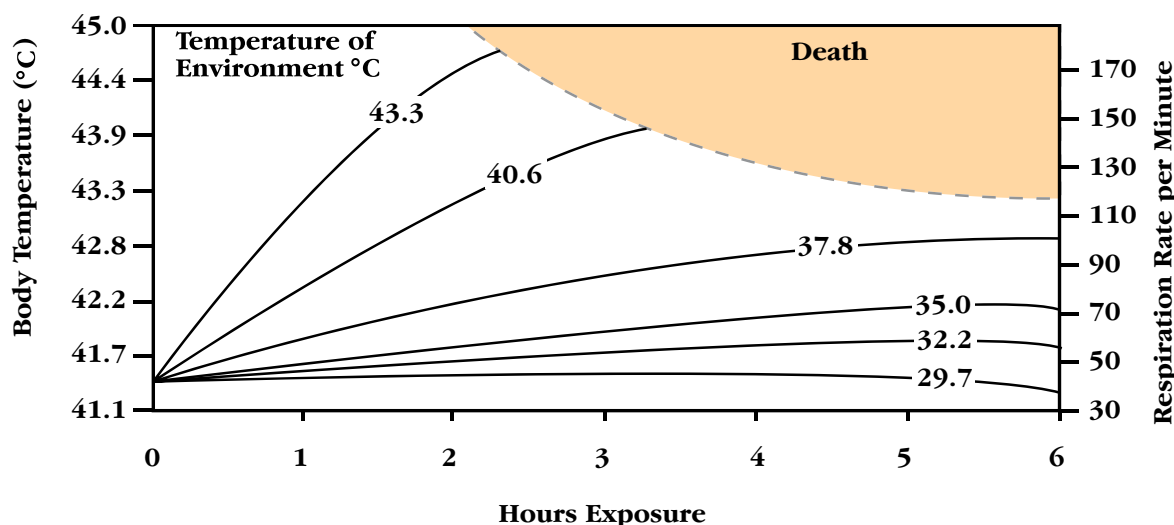
Birds produce a substantial volume of water, which passes into the environment and must be removed by ventilation (whilst maintaining required air temperatures). A 2.5 kg bird will consume some 7.5 kg of water in its lifetime and emit into the house atmosphere some 5.7 kg of water. This indicates that for 10,000 birds some 57 tons of water is lost into the environment as expired moisture into the air or excreted in droppings. This water load must be removed by the house ventilation system during the life of the flock. If water consumption is elevated for any reason, the requirement for moisture removal will be even greater than this.

Heat stress

The normal body temperature of a broiler chicken is approximately 41°C. When the environmental temperature exceeds 35°C, the broiler is likely to experience heat stress.

The longer the broiler is exposed to high temperatures, the greater the stress and its effects. **Figure 17** refers to the relationship between environmental temperature and exposure.

Figure 17: Relationship between Environmental Temperature, Exposure Time and Body Temperature



Broilers regulate their body temperature by two methods; sensible and insensible heat loss. Between 13-25°C, sensible heat loss occurs as physical radiation and convection to the cooler environment. When the temperature rises above 30°C insensible heat loss occurs through evaporative cooling and panting and increased respiration rate. The relationship between the two types of heat loss and environmental temperature is illustrated in **Table 14**.

Table 14: Heat Loss in Broilers

Environmental Temperature	Heat Loss %	
	Sensible (Radiation & Convection)	Insensible (Evaporation)
25°C	77	23
30°C	74	26
35°C	10	90

Panting allows the bird to control its body temperature by evaporation of water from the respiratory surfaces and air sacs. This process uses energy. In conditions of high humidity panting is less effective. Where high temperatures are maintained for long periods, or humidity is high, panting may be insufficient to control body temperature and the bird may then experience heat stress. As the bird passes into a condition of heat stress, vent temperature increases, heart rate and metabolic rate increase and oxygenation of the blood decreases. The physiological stress induced by these reactions can be fatal.

If the birds are observed to be panting then general house temperature may be too high, or local house temperature may be elevated due to a problem with uniformity of the air distribution.

To reduce heat stress:

- Reduce stocking density
- Ensure cool, fresh, low-salt drinking water is available at all times
- Feed during the coolest part of the day
- Increase airflow over the bird to 2-3 m/sec
- Minimise the effects of radiant heat from the sun
- Reduce effects of excessive temperatures by placing sexes separately at lower stocking densities

Housing and Ventilation Systems

There are two basic types of ventilation system; **natural** and **power**

Natural (Open-sided Housing) can be non-mechanically or mechanically assisted.

Power (Controlled Environment Housing) can be minimum, transitional and tunnel, evaporative pad or fogging/misting.

Natural ventilation: open-sided housing

Natural ventilation refers to an open-sided house with curtains, flaps or doors (**Figure 18**). Natural ventilation involves opening up the side of the house to allow convection currents to flow air into and through the house. Sidewall curtains are the most common and natural ventilation is often referred to as curtain ventilation. When it gets warm, the curtains are opened to let in outside air. When it gets cold, the curtains are closed to restrict the flow of air.

Figure 18: An Example of Natural Ventilation



Curtain ventilation requires continuous 24-hour management if house environment is to be satisfactorily controlled. The constant monitoring of conditions and adjustment of curtains is required to compensate for changes in temperature, humidity, wind velocity and wind direction. Open-sided, naturally-ventilated housing is now less popular on account of its high management demand and controlled environment housing is seen as delivering better liveability, growth rate, feed conversion efficiency and bird comfort.

When open, house curtains allow a large volume of outside air through the house, equalising inside and outside conditions. Curtain ventilation is ideal only when outside temperature is close to the target house temperature.

The air exchange rate depends on outside winds, and fan assistance improves the efficacy of air circulation. On warm to hot days with little wind, fans provide a wind chill cooling effect. Foggers or misters should be used with circulation fans to add a second level of cooling.

In cold weather, when curtain openings are small, heavy outside air enters at low speed and drops immediately to the floor, which can chill the birds and create wet litter.

At the same time, warmer air escapes from the house, which results in large temperature swings. In cold weather, circulation fans help to mix incoming cold air with in-house warm air. In cool climates, automatic curtain operation is recommended, with sidewall fans also operated by timers with thermostat overrides.

Power ventilation systems: controlled environment housing

Power or negative pressure ventilation is the most popular ventilation method used to control house environment. Better control over air exchange rates and airflow patterns provides more uniform conditions throughout the house.

Power ventilated systems use electric exhaust fans to draw air out of the house and so create a lower pressure within the house than that outside the house (**Figure 19**). This creates a partial vacuum (negative or static pressure) inside the house so that outside air can pass in through controlled openings in the sidewalls. The speed at which air enters a house is determined by the amount of vacuum within the house. This, in turn, is a function of fan capacity and air inlet area.

Figure 19: An Example of Power Ventilation



The key to achieving correct negative (or static) pressure is the matching of the amount of sidewall openings to the number of exhaust fans in operation. Mechanical controls will automatically adjust inlet openings to the number of fans running. The amount of negative pressure generated can be monitored by a hand-held or wall-mounted static pressure gauge.

As broilers grow, ventilation rates must be increased. Additional automatically-controlled fans should be set to begin operating as needed. This is achieved by equipping the house with temperature sensors or thermostats placed in the centre of the house or (preferably) at multiple points at bird level.

Negative pressure ventilation can be operated in three different modes according to the ventilation needs of the birds:

- Minimum ventilation
- Transitional ventilation
- Tunnel ventilation

With any powered system, a standby emergency generator is required.

Minimum Ventilation Systems

Minimum ventilation is used for cooler weather and for young birds.

The aim of minimum ventilation is to bring in fresh air and exhaust in-house stale air, sufficient to remove excess moisture and harmful gases whilst maintaining required air temperature.

Temperature

Temperature requirements for chicks up to 21 days are given in *Section 1, Chick Management*, of this manual. Guideline temperatures at chick level fall from a recommendation of around 30°C at day-old, to 20°C at 27 days. Subsequently, the recommendation is for 20°C through to slaughter. Actual and effective temperatures will, of course, vary from these guidelines according to circumstance and chick behaviour as detailed here and in *Section 1*.

Ventilation

No matter what the outside temperature, it is essential to ventilate the house for at least some minimum amount of time. **Table 15** gives typical minimum ventilation rates for a 20,000 bird house.

Table15: Minimum Ventilation Rates (20,000 Bird House)

Bird age (days)	m ³ per hour per bird	Total m ³ per hour
1-7	0.16	3,200
8-14	0.42	8,400
15-21	0.59	11,800
22-28	0.84	16,800
29-35	0.93	18,600
36-42	1.18	23,600
43-49	1.35	27,000
50-56	1.52	30,400

The key to successful minimum ventilation is creating a partial vacuum (negative pressure) so air comes through all inlets at sufficient speed. This will ensure that incoming air is mixed with warm in-house air above the birds rather than dropping directly onto the birds and chilling them. The speed of incoming air should be the same through all inlets to ensure uniform airflow.

This type of ventilation is preferably timer-driven, calculated as shown overleaf. As birds grow or as outside air temperatures increase, the timer should be overridden to provide adequate ventilation according to bird needs. The override should be operated by thermostats set to operate for each 1°C rise in temperature.

Calculation for minimum ventilation fan timer settings

To determine the interval fan timer settings for achieving minimum ventilation the following steps are employed (all these steps are laid out with example calculations in *Appendix 7*):

- Obtain the appropriate minimum ventilation rate as recommended in *Appendix 7*. The exact rates will vary with breed, sex and for each individual poultry house. Check with the company of manufacture and local Aviagen Technical Services Representative for more specific information. The rates given in *Appendix 7* are for temperatures between -1 and 16°C; for lower temperatures a slightly lower rate may be required and for higher temperatures a slightly higher rate.
- Calculate the total ventilation rate required for the house (total cubic metres per hour (cmh)) as:

$$\text{Total minimum ventilation} = \frac{\text{minimum ventilation rate per bird}}{\text{rate per bird}} \times \frac{\text{the number of birds in the house}}{\text{in the house}}$$

- Calculate the percentage time for running the fans as:

$$\text{Percentage of time} = \frac{\text{total ventilation needed}}{\text{total capacity of the fans used}}$$

- Multiply the percentage of time needed by the total fan timer cycle to give the time that the fans require to be on in each cycle

Key Points

- Minimum ventilation is used for young chicks, night time or winter ventilation
- It is essential to provide some ventilation to the house no matter what the outside temperature to provide fresh air and remove waste gases and excess moisture
- Minimum ventilation should be timer-driven

Transitional Ventilation Systems

Transitional ventilation operates using two ventilation principles based on the outside temperature and the age of the birds. It is used where both hot and cold periods are experienced.

Whereas minimum ventilation is timer-driven, transitional ventilation is temperature-driven.

Transitional ventilation begins when a higher than minimum air exchange rate is required. That is, whenever temperature sensors or thermostats override the minimum ventilation timer to keep fans running.

Transitional ventilation works in the same way as minimum ventilation, but a larger fan capacity gives a larger volume of air exchange. Successful transitional ventilation requires sidewall inlets linked to a static pressure controller so heat can be removed without switching to tunnel ventilation. Usually, transitional ventilation may be used when outside temperature is not greater than 6°C above the target house temperature, or if the outside temperature is not greater than 6°C below the target house temperature.

If outside temperature is more than 6°C above the target house temperature, then the fans used for transitional ventilation will not provide adequate cooling and tunnel ventilation will need to be employed. If outside temperature is more than 6°C below the target house temperature, then the fans used for transitional ventilation will risk chilling the birds.

Key Points

- Transitional ventilation is temperature-driven based on the outside temperature and the age of the birds
- Transitional ventilation is used when a higher than minimum air exchange is required
- In general, transitional ventilation may be used when outside temperature is not greater than +/- 6°C of target house temperature

Tunnel Ventilation Systems

Tunnel ventilation keeps birds comfortable in warm to hot weather and where large birds are being grown by using the cooling effect of high-velocity airflow.

Tunnel ventilation provides maximum air exchange and creates a wind chill cooling effect. Each 122 cm fan for birds under four weeks of age will generate a wind chill of 1.4°C. For birds over four weeks, this figure drops to 0.7°C.

As air velocity increases, the effective temperature felt by the birds falls. The rate of fall is twice as great for younger birds as compared to older birds. Thus, with outside air at 32°C, an air velocity of 1 metre per second will cause a younger (four week old) bird to feel an effective temperature of about 29°C. If air velocity increases to 2.5 metres per second, the same bird will feel an effective temperature of about 22°C, a fall of 7°C. In the case of an older bird (seven weeks), the fall is about half of that (around 4°C).

Bird behaviour is the best way to assess bird 'comfort'. If the house design permits tunnel ventilation only, then considerable caution should be practiced with young chicks which are prone to wind chill effects. For young chicks, actual floor air speed should be less than 0.15 metres per second, or as low as possible.

In tunnel houses birds will tend to migrate toward the air inlet end in hot conditions. Where airflow is correct, temperature differences between inlets and exits should not be large. A house with bird migration problems can lose the production advantage of the tunnel environment. Installing migration fences at 30 metre intervals prior to 21 days of age will prevent bird migration problems. Solid migration fences should be avoided as they will restrict airflow.

Key Points

- Tunnel ventilation is used in warm to hot weather or where large birds are grown
- Cooling is achieved through high-velocity airflow
- Use bird behaviour to assess if environmental conditions are correct
- Care should be taken with young chicks which are prone to wind chill
- Installation of migration fences should be considered

Evaporative Cooling Systems

The high-velocity airflow of tunnel ventilation means that it is well suited to the addition of an evaporative cooling system. Evaporative cooling is used to improve environmental conditions in hot weather and enhances the efficiency of tunnel ventilation. Evaporative cooling systems use the principle of water evaporation to reduce the temperature in the house.

Evaporative cooling is best implemented to maintain a required temperature in the house, rather than to reduce temperatures that have already become stressfully high.

The three factors which directly affect evaporative cooling are:

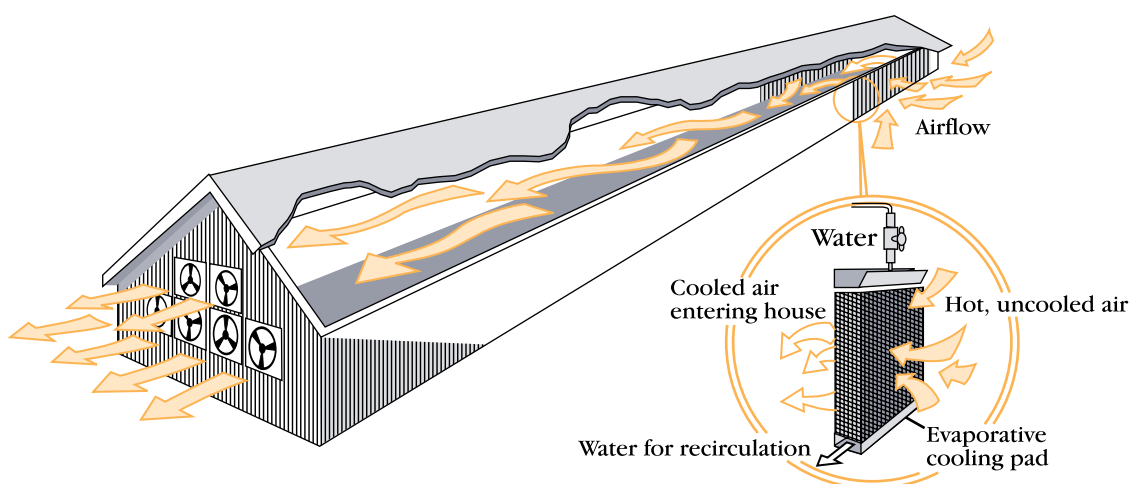
- Outside air temperature
- Relative humidity (RH) of outside air
- Evaporation efficiency

There are two primary types of evaporative cooling systems; Pad cooling with tunnel ventilation and Fogging or Misting.

Pad cooling with tunnel ventilation

Pad cooling systems cool air by drawing it through wetted cellulose pads (see **Figure 20**). The dual effect of pad cooling and air speed allows control of environment when house temperatures are above 29°C. Excessively high house humidity can be minimised by making sure that evaporative cooling pads/fogging systems do not operate at temperatures below 27°C in areas where the ambient humidity is high (greater than 80%).

Figure 20: Pad Cooling with Tunnel Ventilation



Fogging/Misting

Fogging systems cool incoming air by evaporation of water created by pumping water through fogger nozzles. Fogging lines must be placed near the air inlets to maximise the speed of evaporation and additional lines should be added throughout the house.

Figure 21: Example Fogging System



There are three types of fogging system:

- Low pressure, 7-14 bar, droplet size up to 30 microns
- High pressure, 28-41 bar, droplet size 10-15 microns
- Ultra high pressure (misting), 48-69 bar, droplet size 5 microns

With low pressure systems larger particle sizes can cause wet litter if house humidity is high. High pressure systems minimise residual moisture giving an extended humidity range. Fine droplet size will help avoid wet litter, which is especially important during the brooding period.

Key Points

- Keep fans, foggers, evaporators and inlets clean
- Evaporative cooling is used to enhance tunnel ventilation in hot weather
- There are two types of system; pad cooling and fogging/misting
- Pad cooling draws air through wetted cellulose pads and allows control of the environment when house temperatures are above 29°C
- Fogging systems cool incoming air by evaporation of water pumped through foggers. High pressure systems minimise residual moisture

Lighting for Broilers

A lighting programme should be simple in design. Complicated lighting programmes can be difficult to implement successfully. Lighting recommendations are subject to local legislation and these should be taken into account before starting a programme.

Light is an important management technique in broiler production. There are at least four important aspects:

- Wavelength (colour)
- Intensity
- Photoperiod length
- Photoperiod distribution (intermittent programmes)

Photoperiod length and distribution have interactive effects.

The lighting programme used by many broiler growers has been to provide what is essentially continuous lighting. This system consists of a long continuous light period, followed by a short dark period of 30-60 minutes. This short period of dark is to allow birds to become accustomed to darkness should a power failure occur.

Continuous lighting has, in the past, been assumed to help maximise daily live-weight gain; but this assumption is not correct.

Exposure to darkness influences bird productivity, health, hormonal profiles, metabolic rate, heat production, metabolism, physiology and behaviour.

Recent information indicates that darkness exposure:

- Reduces early growth (however there may be later compensatory growth that can enable birds to catch up to equal target market weights; but only if the duration of darkness is not excessive. **For broilers processed at low body weights (e.g. <1.6 kg) compensatory growth may not be achieved due to insufficient grow-out time**)
- Improves feed efficiency due to reduced metabolism during darkness and/or a change in the growth curve (i.e. a more concave growth curve)
- Improves bird health by reducing sudden death syndrome (SDS), ascites and skeletal disorders
- Affects carcass yield with:
 - A decrease in the proportion of breast meat
 - An increase in the proportion of leg portions
 - An unpredictable change (more, or less, or none) in abdominal fat

All lighting programmes should provide for a long day length such as 23 hours light and one hour dark in the early stages of growth to seven days of age. This is in order to ensure chicks have good feed intake. Reducing day length too soon will reduce feeding activity and depress seven-day body weight.

When comparing various wavelengths of monochromatic light at the same light intensity, broiler growth rate appears to be better when exposed to wavelengths of 415-560 nm (violet to green) than in those exposed to >635 nm (red) or broad spectrum (white) light.

A light intensity of 30–40 lux from 0-7 days of age and 5-10 lux thereafter will improve feeding activity and growth. The intensity of light should be uniformly distributed throughout the house (reflectors placed on top of lights can improve the distribution of light).

Within the European Union, lighting requirements are based on Council Directive 2007/43/EC. These stipulate that a light intensity of at least 20 lux during the lighting period must be provided at all ages.

To attain a state of darkness, a light intensity of less than 0.4 lux should be achieved during the dark period. During darkness exposure, care should be taken to avoid light through air inlets, fan housings and door frames. Regular tests should be conducted to check the effectiveness of light proofing.

All birds should have equal, free and *ad libitum* access to nutritionally adequate feed and water as soon as the lights are switched on (see Section 2, Provision of Feed and Water).

Broilers will adapt their feeding behaviour in response to reduced day length. For example, a change in day length from 24 to 12 hours of light will initially cause chicks to reduce feed intake by 30-40% during the first three days. However, as soon as eight days later, the reduction in feed intake can be less than 10%. Broilers change their pattern of feeding in the light period by filling their crops in anticipation of the dark period. When the lights come back on they will do the same again. Birds sent for slaughter at younger ages have less time to adapt their eating and drinking behaviours in response to darkness exposure than do those slaughtered at correspondingly older ages. Thus the effects of darkness exposure on live performance are more pronounced in broilers slaughtered at younger ages.

Table 16 provides lighting programme guidance based on slaughter weight target.

Table 16: Basic Light Intensity and Photoperiod Recommendations to Optimise Live Performance

Live weight at slaughter	Age (days)	Intensity (lux)	Day length (hours)
Less than 2.5 kg	0-7	30-40	23 light 1 dark
	8-3 days before slaughter*	5-10	20 light 4 dark**
More than 2.5 kg	0-7	30-40	23 light 1 dark
	8-3 days before slaughter*	5-10	18 light 6 dark

Notes:

*For at least the last three days before slaughter, 23 hours light: one hour darkness should be provided.

**The EU Broiler Welfare Directive requires a total of six hours darkness, with at least one uninterrupted period of darkness at least four hours.

Aviagen does not recommend continuous lighting for the life of the broiler flock. A minimum four hours of darkness should be provided after seven days of age. Failure to provide at least four hours of darkness will result in:

- Abnormal feeding and drinking behaviours due to sleep deprivation
- Sub-optimal biological performance
- Reduced bird welfare

In hot weather conditions, and where environmental control capability is not available, the period without artificial light should be timed to maximise bird comfort. For example, when birds are reared in open-sided housing with no environmental control capability, feed is often removed for a time period during the heat of the day and continuous lighting is provided at night to allow birds to feed during this cooler period.

Broilers benefit from a defined pattern of light and dark (day and night) by having distinct time periods for rest and for activity. A number of important physiological processes, such as bone mineralisation and digestion, normally exhibit diurnal rhythms. Therefore, defined cycles of light and dark allow broilers to experience natural patterns of growth and development. Subsequent to feeding, normal gut passage time in the broiler is approximately four hours. Thus, exposure to darkness for more than six consecutive hours may encourage overly-aggressive feeding behaviour when the lights come back on. This may result in an increase in skin scratches, an increase in condemnations and a reduction in carcass grade at the meat processing plant. Additionally, darkness exposure beyond four hours will:

- Reduce breast meat yield
- Increase leg meat yield

This phenomenon is important to farmers who produce broilers for de-boning.

Photoperiod distribution can also be modified and this is referred to as an intermittent programme. An intermittent programme consists of blocks of time containing both light and dark periods, which are repeated throughout the 24 hours. The benefits of such a programme are that in giving broilers discrete meals (i.e. short feeding periods) followed by periods for digestion (i.e. dark periods), the efficiency of feed utilisation (i.e. FCR) is improved. The extra activity caused by the regular pattern of light and dark is thought to be beneficial in improving leg health and carcass quality e.g. lower incidence of hockburn and breast blisters. If intermittent lighting programmes are used, the protocol should be designed as simply as possible to allow for practical implementation.

The extent of the effect of the lighting programme upon broiler production is influenced by:

- The time of programme application (early application being most effective in benefiting bird health)
- Age at marketing (older birds being likely to benefit more from darkness exposure)
- Environment (the effects of increased stocking density will be exacerbated by longer darkness exposure)
- Nutrition (the effects of limited feeder space will be made worse by longer darkness exposure)
- Rate of bird growth (the impact of lighting on health will be greater in rapidly growing birds than in birds fed nutritionally limiting diets)

Several types of light source can be used for broilers and the most common types are **incandescent** and **fluorescent**. Incandescent lights provide a good spectral range, but are not energy efficient. However, incandescent lights with higher lumen output per watt will help reduce operating costs. Fluorescent lights produce three to five times the amount of light per watt compared to incandescent lights. However, fluorescent lights lose intensity over time and must be replaced before actually failing. Fluorescent lighting provides significant savings in electricity costs after the additional installation costs have been recovered.

There are no differences between these light sources as far as broiler performance is concerned. Bulbs and reflectors must be cleaned regularly for maximum effectiveness.

Key Points

- Keep it simple
- Continuous, or near continuous, lighting is not optimal
- Up to seven days of age chicks should have 23 hrs light (30-40 lux) and one hour dark
- After seven days of age a period of darkness of four hours or more (but never more than six hours) is likely to be beneficial
- The hours of darkness chosen will depend upon circumstances and market requirement
- Many aspects of production management interact with the lighting programme and modify the effects of lighting pattern on bird performance

Litter Management

Local economics and raw material availability will dictate the choice of litter material used. Litter should provide:

- Good moisture absorption
- Biodegradability
- Bird comfort
- Low dust level
- Freedom from contaminants
- Consistent availability from a biosecure source

Soft wood shaving material should be evenly distributed to a depth of 8-10 cm. Where floor temperatures are correct (28-30°C) the litter depth can be reduced when litter disposal is an issue. Concrete floors are preferable to earth floors since they are washable and allow more effective litter management. The characteristics of some common litter materials are given in **Table 17**.

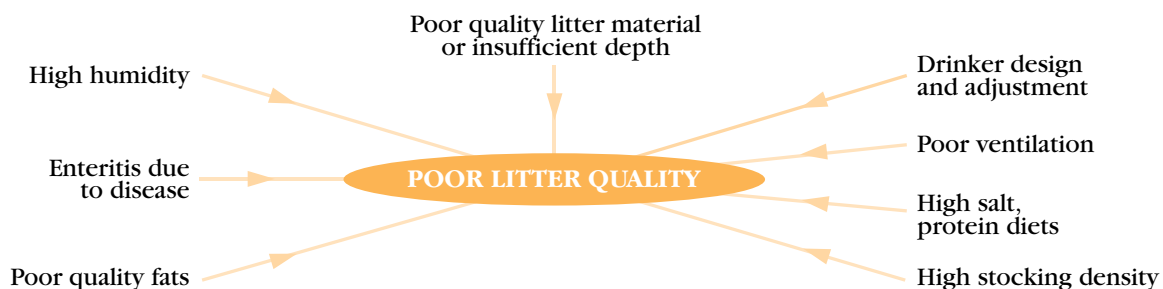
Table 17: Characteristics of Common Litter Materials

Material	Characteristics
New white wood shavings	Good absorption and breakdown Possible contamination by toxic insecticides and other chemical compounds (giving a musty taint)
Chopped straw	Wheat straw is preferred Possible contamination by agrochemicals, fungi and mycotoxins Slow to break down Best used 50/50 with white wood shavings
Shredded paper	Can be difficult to manage in humid conditions Glossy paper is not suitable
Chaff and hulls	Not very absorbent Best mixed with other materials May be ingested
Sawdust	Not suitable Dusty and may be ingested
Chemically treated straw pellets	Use as recommended by supplier
Sand	Can be used in arid areas on concrete floors If too deep, bird movement may be impeded Needs good management
Peat moss	Can be successfully used

It is important that the litter is kept loose and dry throughout the life of the flock. If the litter becomes caked or too wet, the incidence of carcase downgrades can increase substantially.

The main causes of poor litter quality are given in **Figure 22**.

Figure 22: Reasons for Poor Quality Litter



Key Points

- Protect broilers from damage and provide a dry warm covering to the floor by using adequate quantities of a good quality litter material
- Avoid nutritional causes of wet litter
- Ensure adequate ventilation and avoid excess moisture
- Choose a litter material that is absorbent, non-dusty and clean
- Litter should be readily available at a low cost from a reliable source
- Use fresh litter for each crop to prevent re-infection by pathogens
- Litter storage facilities should be protected from the weather and secure from access by vermin and wild birds

Stocking Density

Stocking density is ultimately a decision based on economics and local welfare legislation.

Stocking density influences bird welfare, broiler performance, uniformity and product quality.

Overstocking increases the environmental pressures on the broiler, compromises bird welfare and will ultimately reduce profitability.

Quality of housing and the environmental control system determine the best stocking density. If stocking density is increased, ventilation, feeding space and drinker availability must be adjusted.

The floor area needed for each broiler will depend on:

- Target live weight and age at slaughter
- Climate and season
- Type and system of housing and equipment, particularly ventilation
- Local legislation
- Quality assurance certification requirements

In certain regions of the world the legislation of stocking density is based simply on kg/m². An example of this would be based on European Union recommendations.

Within the European Union stocking densities are based on the EU Broiler Welfare Directive:

- 33 kg/m²
or
- 39 kg/m² if stricter welfare standards are met
or
- 42 kg/m² if exceptionally high welfare standards are met over a prolonged period

Welfare standards refer to adequate provision of feed and water, sustainable good indoor climatic conditions and minimal incidence of Foot Pad Dermatitis.

An alternative best practice recommendation, based on bird husbandry, takes account of bird number and bird mass in the floor area. An example of this would be based on USA recommendations. This recommendation is shown in **Table 18**.

Table 18: Guide to Stocking Densities According to Bird Numbers and Live Weight (USA Recommendations)

Bird live weight (kg)	Birds per square metre	Bird weight (kg) per square metre
1.36	21.5	29.2
1.82	15.4	28.0
2.27	12.7	28.8
2.73	12.0	32.7
3.18	10.8	34.3
3.63	9.4	34.1

Stocking density in hot climates

In hot conditions, the stocking density used will depend on ambient temperature and humidity. Appropriate changes should be made in accordance with house type and equipment capabilities.

Example stocking densities used in hot conditions are as follows:

- In houses with controlled environment:
 - a maximum of 30 kg per square metre at slaughter
- In open-sided houses, with poor environmental control:
 - a maximum of 20-25 kg per square metre at slaughter
 - at the hottest times of the year a maximum of 16-18 kg per square metre
- In open-sided houses, with no environmental control:
 - it is not recommended to grow birds to live weights above 3 kg

Key Points

- Adjust stocking density to allow for age and weight at which the flock is to be slaughtered
- Match stocking density to climate and housing system
- Reduce stocking density if target house temperatures cannot be achieved due to hot climate or season
- Adjust ventilation and feeder and drinker space if stocking density is increased
- Follow local legislation and requirements of quality assurance standards set by product purchasers

Section five

MONITORING LIVE WEIGHT AND UNIFORMITY OF PERFORMANCE

Objective

To assess live flock performance against targets and to ensure that defined end product specifications are as closely met as possible.

Contents

Principles	71
Predictability of Live Weight	71
Flock Uniformity (CV%)	72
Separate-sex Growing	74

MONITORING LIVE WEIGHT AND UNIFORMITY OF PERFORMANCE

Principles

Profitability depends upon maximisation of the proportion of birds closely meeting target specifications. This requires predictable and uniform growth.

Growth management depends upon the knowledge of past, present and likely future growth performance. This knowledge, and safe subsequent actions, can only be achieved if the measurement of the growth is accurate.

Predictability of Live Weight

Accurate information on live weight and coefficient of variation (CV%) for each flock is essential in planning the appropriate age for slaughter and to ensure that the maximum number of birds fall into the desired weight bands at slaughter.

As growth rate increases, and as slaughter age becomes earlier, prediction of live-weight gain over more than two - three days is less accurate. Accurate estimation and prediction of flock live weight at slaughter requires large numbers of birds (greater than 100) to be repeatedly sampled close to slaughter age (within two - three days).

Table 19 shows the number of birds required to be sampled to give a live weight estimate of defined reliability and accuracy within flocks of differing variability.

Table 19: Number of Birds in a Sample to Give Accurate Estimates of Live Weight According to Flock Uniformity

Uniformity of flock*	Number of birds to be weighed**
Uniform (CV% = 8)	61
Moderately uniform (CV% = 10)	96
Poorly uniform (CV% = 12)	138

*As measured by coefficient of variation (CV%; i.e. standard deviation/average body weight*100); the higher the number the more variable the flock body weight is.

**Estimate of live weight will be within +/- 2% of actual live weight and will be correct 95% of the time.

Birds can be weighed using manual or automatic weighing scales. Unexpected changes in live weight may be indicative of scale error or malfunction. Scales should be regularly checked for accuracy and repeatability.

When using manual scales the birds should be weighed at least three times per week. On each occasion, equal sized samples of birds should be taken from at least two locations in each house.

Automatic weighing systems should be located where large numbers of birds congregate and where individual birds will remain long enough for weights to be recorded.

Older and heavier males tend to use auto-weighers less frequently, which biases the flock mean downwards. Readings from any auto-weigher should be regularly checked for usage rate (number of completed weights per day) and the mean live weights achieved should be cross-checked by manual weighing at least once per week. Inaccurate live weight estimation will result from small sample sizes.

Key Points

- Bird numbers weighed must be sufficiently large
- Birds weighed must be representative of the whole flock
- The scales used must be accurate
- Birds should be weighed frequently and accurately to ensure effective prediction of live weight at slaughter

Flock Uniformity (CV%)

Broiler live weight will follow a normal distribution. The variability of a population (the flock) is described by the coefficient of variation (CV%) which is the standard deviation of the population expressed as a percentage of the mean.

Variable flocks will have a high CV%, uniform flocks a lower one.

Each sex will have a normal distribution of live weight. The As-Hatched (mixed sex) flock will have a wider CV% than single-sex flocks. (See **Figure 23** which refers to a flock at the end of grow-out).

Figure 23: Distribution of Live Weights in a Flock of As-Hatched Broilers

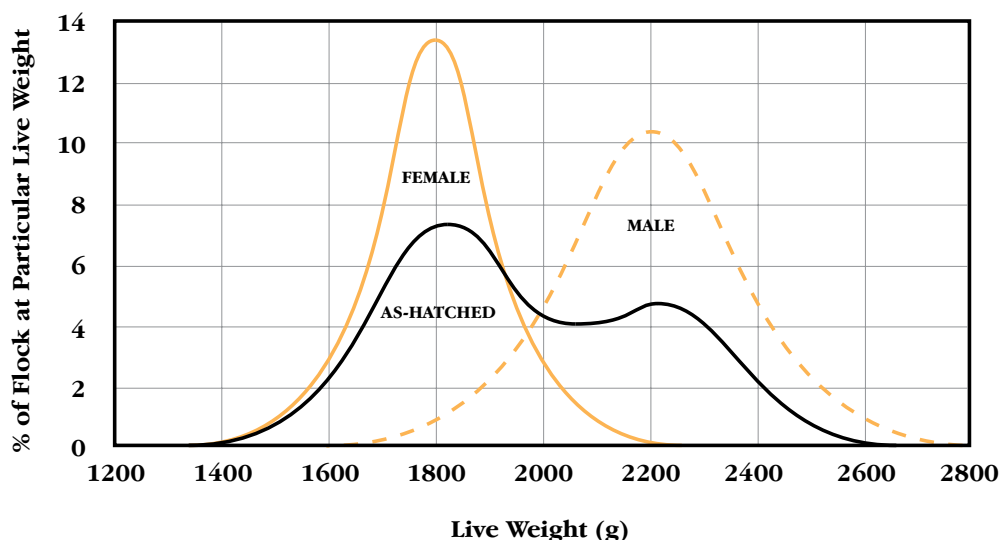
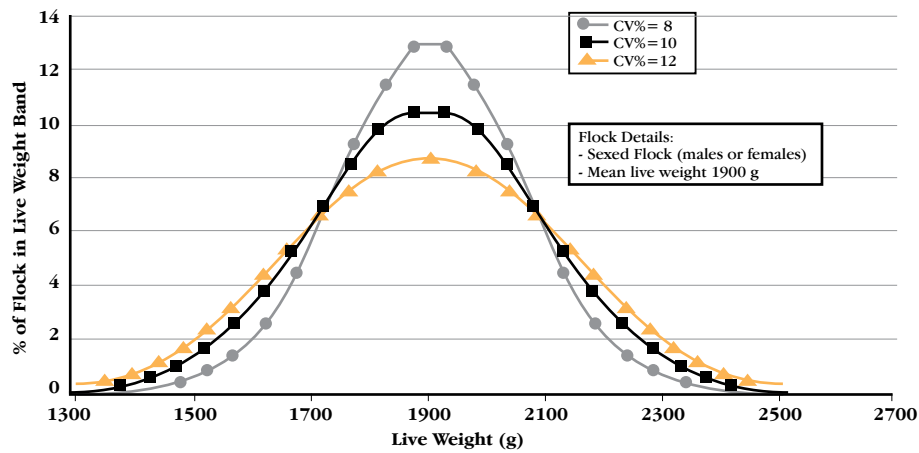


Figure 24 shows weight distributions at different levels of uniformity (CV%) for three single-sexed flocks, all achieving a target live weight of 1900 g. It can be seen that the weight distributions within each flock are quite different.

The lower the CV%, and therefore the less variable the flock, the more birds achieve the target.

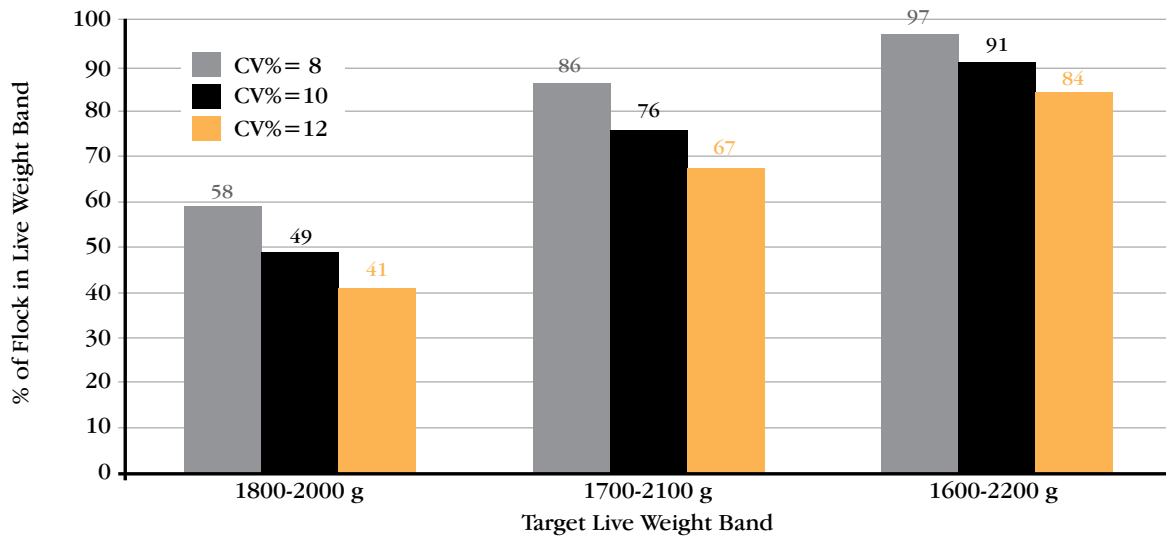
Figure 24: Effect of CV% on Live Weight Bands in a Flock of Sexed Broilers



The proportion of birds achieving the target relates to the width of the band allowed for the target and the variability of the flock. Thus, if a live weight band of 1800-2000 g is required, even at a CV% of 8, only 58% of the birds achieve required live weight (see **Figure 25**).

An understanding of these principles of biological variability forms the basis of effective planning in processing plants.

Figure 25: Effect of CV% on Proportion of Birds in Target Live Weight Band



Key Points

- Birds in more uniform flocks will be more likely to meet the required target live weight
- Variability in performance increases the flock CV%, which influences both flock profitability and processing plant efficiency
- Minimise flock variability by monitoring and managing flock uniformity
- Uniform flocks (low CV%) are more predictable in performance than uneven flocks

Separate-sex Growing

The number of birds which achieve live weight at, or close to, the flock mean can be predicted from the CV% of that flock. It follows that improvements in uniformity can be attained by growing flocks in single-sex populations from placement. Flocks can be sexed through the technique of feather sexing, which is described in *Appendix 4*.

The advantages of separate-sex growing can be best exploited when males and females are housed separately. Both sexes can be managed more efficiently with regard to feeding, lighting and stocking density.

Males grow faster, are more feed efficient and have less carcass fat than females. A different feeding programme can be employed for the different sexes. The most practical method is to use the same feeds for both sexes, but to introduce the Finisher feed earlier for females (i.e. before 25 days of age). It is recommended that the amount or duration of Starter feed be kept the same to ensure proper early development.

For more information on separate-sex feeding please consult your local Aviagen Nutrition Services Representative.

Males may benefit from a modified lighting programme if being killed at heavier weights compared to females. So where sexed flocks are placed in a divided single house, with a common environment and feed supply, careful thought will be needed to optimise the growth management for each sex without limiting the other.

Key Points

- Minimise flock variability by monitoring and managing flock uniformity
- Grow sexes separately to reduce variability

Section six

PRE-PROCESSING MANAGEMENT

Objective

To manage the final phase of the production process so that broilers are transferred to the processor in optimum condition, ensuring that the processing requirements are met and high standards of welfare are maintained.

Contents

Principles	77
Preparation for Catching	77
Catching	78
Processing	81

PRE-PROCESSING MANAGEMENT

Principles

The quality of the bird at the point of sale can be substantially influenced by management procedures at the end of the growth period, at catching and through handling and transportation.

Attention to aspects of bird welfare at this time will deliver benefits not only to the birds themselves, but also to their subsequent eating quality.

Growing conditions influence carcase yield and the incidence of downgrading, while inadequately managed feed removal will affect faecal and microbial contamination of the carcasses at the processing plant. Improperly supervised harvesting can inflict damage by bruising, wing breakage and internal bleeding of the thighs.

There is therefore advantage in maintaining the high quality of broiler achieved thus far by detailed attention to management of the environment and to the welfare of the birds during catching, handling between the broiler house and the transport system, during transportation and at the processing plant.

It is inevitable that some weight loss will occur during the time the bird is without feed prior to processing due to loss of gut contents. The effect of these losses on carcase weight can be minimised by ensuring that the period without feed does not become excessive.

Birds without feed for more than ten hours will dehydrate, have compromised welfare and have reduced carcase yield. Birds will usually lose up to 0.5% of their body weight per hour when off feed for up to 12 hours (with water removed only when absolutely necessary). If they are allowed to go over 12 hours without feed, weight loss increases to 0.75-1.0% of body weight per hour. This weight loss cannot be recovered.

Preparation for Catching

Light

When growth has been modified through the application of restricted lighting programmes, it is essential to return to 23 hours of light (5-10 lux). This will ensure that the birds are calm during collection. The EU Broiler Directive requires 20 lux to be provided at least three days prior to the first depletion.

Feed

A Withdrawal feed should be fed for sufficient time prior to slaughter to eliminate the risk of pharmaceutical product residues in the meat. Statutory withdrawal periods for coccidiostats and other prescribed medicines that are specified in product data sheets must be followed. Where thinning (i.e. partial depletion) programmes are used, it may be necessary to keep the birds on the Withdrawal feed for longer than the mandatory period prior to slaughter.

Feed should be removed from the birds 8-10 hours before the expected slaughter time to reduce faecal contamination at the processing plant. This period should include catching, transport and holding time. If the time that the birds are without feed is prolonged, water absorbed from body tissue accumulates in the digestive tract, resulting in reduced yield. Faecal contamination may also be increased.

The presence of watery droppings from broilers awaiting processing is an indication of the birds being without feed for an excessive time. Other indicators include watery yellow fluid in the small intestine and litter in the crop and gizzard.

Whole wheat, if included in the diet, should be removed two days before slaughter, to avoid the presence of whole grain in the gut.

Water

Unlimited access to water should be provided for as long as possible and water should be removed only when absolutely necessary.

Access to water will be prolonged by:

- Use of multiple drinker lines
- Separation of birds into pens
- Progressive removal of individual drinkers

Key Points

- Use a Withdrawal feed (i.e. without coccidiostat) to avoid residues in meat
- Allow three days on full light (23 hours light and one hour dark) to avoid problems during catching
- Appropriate feed removal from the birds will ensure that the digestive systems are empty before processing commences, limiting faecal contamination during transport
- Remove whole wheat from the ration two days before slaughter
- Delay the removal of drinkers for as long as possible

Catching

Catching and handling will cause stress to broilers. Most causes of downgrading observed at slaughter will have occurred during the period when the birds were being caught and handled. Catching should be planned carefully in advance and supervised closely at all stages. The handling of birds and operation of machinery, such as harvesters and forklifts, must be carried out by appropriately trained, competent personnel. Bird activity should be minimised to avoid bruising, scratching and other injuries.

Mortality during the catching and transport process should not be more than 0.1%.

Pre-catch

Calculate the time it will take to catch and to transport, and start the catch according to when the birds are scheduled to be slaughtered.

Calculate the number of crates and trailers needed to transport the birds before the process commences.

Ensure all equipment used (including vehicles, crates, fencing and nets) is clean, disinfected and in good condition. Broken or damaged crates may injure birds.

Repair, compact and level the ground at the entrance to the poultry house (and any secondary roads leading to the house) to ensure a smooth exit for the loaded trucks. This will prevent bruising and wing damage.

Remove any wet litter from the broiler house that may hinder the efforts of the catching crew and replace with dry litter.

Raise all feeding equipment above head height (two metres), remove it from the house or re-position it to avoid obstruction to the birds or personnel.

Separate birds into pens within larger houses to avoid unnecessary crowding and allow access to water for birds not immediately due for catching.

Whenever possible, decrease the light intensity during catching to reduce stress. For night time catching, which is preferred, light intensity within the house should be reduced to a minimum. For day-time catching light intensity should be reduced as much as possible. In all cases light intensity must be sufficient to allow safe and careful catching. Blue light has been found to be satisfactory for this purpose. The best results are achieved when birds are allowed to settle after lights have been dimmed and when there is minimum disturbance.

The use of curtains over the main doors of the house is helpful when catching during daylight hours.

The opening of doors and removal of birds will affect the ventilation of thermostatically controlled environments. The ventilation system should be monitored and adjusted carefully throughout the catching procedure to reduce stress on the broilers and to prevent heat build up within the house.

Catch

Broilers should be caught and held by both shanks (never the thighs) to minimise the distress, damage and injury, which might otherwise result if they were able to struggle and flap.

The birds should be placed carefully into the crates or modules, loading from the top down. Modules have been shown to result in less distress and damage than conventional crates.

Crates or modules should never be overfilled. Overheating, stress and increased mortality can result from the overfilling of crates/modules. The number of broilers per crate or module must be reduced in high temperatures.

Improperly operated catching equipment can cause stress and damage to the broiler. Mechanical equipment (for example, see **Figure 26**) used to catch birds must be operated at moderate speeds to prevent damage and stress to broilers. Never crowd or force the birds into the catching equipment. Properly align the opening chute of the catching equipment with the opening of the crate or module to prevent damage to the broiler.

Figure 26: An Example of a Mechanical Harvester



Transport

Transport time should be within the local current guidelines or legislation.

At all times up to the arrival at the slaughter house, adequate protection from the elements is essential. Ventilation, extra heating and/or cooling should be used when necessary. Vehicles should be designed to protect the bird from the elements. Stress on the birds will be minimised in trailers designed to provide adequate ventilation.

In hot weather, consider using fans while loading the birds to keep the air circulating through the crates or modules on the truck. Allow at least ten centimetres between every two tiers of crates. While waiting to be processed, use fans and foggers to help keep birds cool.

Heat stress will develop rapidly when the transport vehicle is stationary, particularly in hot weather or if on-board ventilation is not available. The journey plan should allow the vehicle to leave the farm as soon as loading is completed and driver breaks should be short.

Unloading at the holding area at the slaughter house must be completed without delay. Supplementary ventilation will be required if delay is unavoidable.

In cold weather, the load should be covered to minimise wind chill during transport. Check bird comfort frequently.

Delivery

At the slaughter house, the trucks should be parked under cover and any canvas that may restrict ventilation removed.

Good holding facilities at the slaughter house, providing the required ventilation and temperature control, are essential for good bird welfare.

Holding areas should be equipped with lights, fans and foggers. Foggers should be used during periods of high temperatures if relative humidity is below 70%. In very hot weather water can be sprayed into the fans to assist evaporation. In summer conditions make sure all fans and foggers are functional in the holding areas.

Key Points

- Operate harvesting equipment properly
- Maintain adequate ventilation during mechanical catching to reduce stress
- Supervise catching and handling methods carefully to minimise trauma injuries to the birds
- Remove or raise obstructions such as feeders or drinkers before beginning the catching operation and use partitions in large houses to avoid injuries caused by crowding
- Reduce light intensity prior to catching to keep the birds calm and minimise damage and subsequent stress
- Adjust bird numbers in crates and modules to allow for bird weight and ambient temperature
- Plan journey and bird reception
- Monitor welfare continuously

Processing

Successful production of the maximum number of high quality carcasses with good yield depends on effective integration of the growing, catching and processing operations.

Careful planning and communication between the farm and processing plant will allow processing to proceed effectively. Management on the farm can influence the efficient operation of the killing, plucking and evisceration processes.

To minimise faecal contamination, carcass damage and downgrading, close attention should be given to:

- Litter quality
- Stocking density
- Feed removal times
- Catching methods
- Transport time
- Holding time

Key Points

- Present clean birds to the processor
- Maintain good litter quality, depth and condition to minimise hockburn and other carcass quality problems
- Scratching damage may be increased under high stocking densities, or when feeder or drinker spaces are inadequate, especially when lighting or feed control is used
- Process under conditions that maintain best welfare of the birds
- Minimise transport and holding times to reduce stress and dehydration

APPENDICES

Contents

Appendix 1. Production Records	85
Appendix 2. Conversion Tables	87
Appendix 3. Efficiency Calculations	90
Appendix 4. Feather Sexing	91
Appendix 5. Classification of Months	92
Appendix 6. Problem Solving	93
Appendix 7. Ventilation Rates and Calculations	95

Appendix 1. Production Records

Record keeping and analysis are essential to determine the effects of changes to nutrition, management, environment and health status. Accurate production records are essential for the effective management, assessment of risk, control of the system and active response to developing problems.

Analysis and interpretation of production data (e.g. live weight, feed conversion efficiency and mortality) are essential to the upgrading and improvement of performance.

Hygiene and disease status should be monitored.

It is good practice for all processes in a broiler operation to have standard operating protocols (SOP). These should include documentation of established procedures, records, record analysis and monitoring systems.

Records required in broiler production are detailed below.

Table 20: Records Required in Broiler Production

Event	Records	Comment
Chick placement	Number of day-olds Flock of origin and flock age Date and time of arrival Chick quality	Live weight, uniformity, number of dead on arrival
Mortality	Daily Weekly Cumulative	Record by sex if possible Record culls and reason for culling separately Post mortem records of excessive mortality Scoring of coccidial lesions will indicate level of coccidial challenge
Medication	Date Amount Batch number	As per veterinary instruction
Vaccination	Date of vaccination Vaccine type Batch number Expiry date	Any unexpected vaccine reaction should be recorded
Live weight	Weekly average live weight Weekly uniformity (CV%)	More frequent measurement is required when predicting slaughter weight or where growth is modified through lighting
Feed	Date of delivery Quantity Date of starting feed withdrawal Feed type	Accurate measurement of feed consumed is essential to measure FCR and to determine cost effectiveness of broiler operation

Table 20: Records Required in Broiler Production (contd)

Water	Daily consumption Water to feed ratio Water quality Level of chlorination	Plot daily consumption in graph form, preferably per house Sudden fluctuation in water consumption is an early indicator of problems Mineral and/or bacteriological - especially where bore holes or open water reservoirs are used
Environment	Temperature: • Daily minimum • Daily maximum • During brooding, 4 to 5 times per day • Litter during brooding • External temperature - daily Relative humidity - daily Air quality Litter quality	Multiple locations should be monitored, especially in chick litter area Automatic systems should be cross-checked manually each day Ideally record dust, CO ₂ , NH ₃ or as a minimum observe levels of dust and NH ₃
Depletion	Number of birds removed Time and date of removal	
Information from slaughter house	Carcase quality Health inspection Carcase composition Type and % condemnations	
Cleaning out	Total bacterial counts	After disinfection, salmonella, staphylococcus or E. coli may be monitored if required
House inspection	Record time of daily checks	

Appendix 2. Conversion Tables

Length

1 metre (m)	= 3.281 feet (ft)
1 foot (ft)	= 0.305 metre (m)
1 centimetre (cm)	= 0.394 inch (in)
1 inch (in)	= 2.54 centimetres (cm)

Area

1 square metre (m ²)	= 10.76 square feet (ft ²)
1 square foot (ft ²)	= 0.093 square metre (m ²)

Volume

1 litre (l)	= 0.22 gallon (gal) or 0.264 US gallons (gal US)
1 imperial gallon (gal)	= 4.54 litres (l)
1 US gallon (gal US)	= 3.79 litres (l)
1 imperial gallon (gal)	= 1.2 US gallons (gal US)
1 cubic metre (m ³)	= 35.31 cubic feet (ft ³)
1 cubic foot (ft ³)	= 0.028 cubic metre (m ³)

Weight

1 kilogramme (kg)	= 2.205 pounds (lb)
1 pound (lb)	= 0.454 kilogramme (kg)
1 gramme (g)	= 0.035 ounce (oz)
1 ounce (oz)	= 28.35 grammes (g)

Energy

1 calorie (cal)	= 4.184 Joules (J)
1 Joule (J)	= 0.239 calories (cal)
1 kilocalorie per kilogramme (kcal/kg)	= 4.184 Megajoules per kilogramme (MJ/kg)
1 Megajoule per kilogramme (MJ/kg)	= 108 calories per pound (cal/lb)
1 Joule (J)	= 0.735 foot-pound (ft-lb)
1 foot-pound (ft-lb)	= 1.36 Joules (J)
1 Joule (J)	= 0.00095 British Thermal Unit (BTU)
1 British Thermal Unit (BTU)	= 1055 Joules (J)
1 kilowatt hour (kW-h)	= 3412.1 British Thermal Unit (BTU)
1 British Thermal Unit (BTU)	= 0.00029 kilowatt hour (kW-h)

Pressure

1 pound per square inch (psi)	= 6895 Newtons per square metre (N/m ²) or Pascals (Pa)
1 pound per square inch (psi)	= 0.06895 bar
1 bar	= 14.504 pounds per square inch (psi)
1 bar	= 10 ⁵ Newtons per square metre (N/m ²) or Pascals (Pa)
	= 100 kilopascals (kPa)
1 Newton per square metre (N/m ²) or Pascals (Pa)	= 0.000145 pound per square inch (lb/in ²)

Stocking Density

1 square foot per bird (ft ² /bird)	= 10.76 birds per square metre (bird/m ²)
10 birds per square metre (bird/m ²)	= 1.08 square feet per bird (ft ² /bird)
15 birds per square metre (bird/m ²)	= 0.72 square foot per bird (ft ² /bird)
20 birds per square metre (bird/m ²)	= 0.54 square foot per bird (ft ² /bird)
1 kilogramme per square metre (kg/m ²)	= 0.205 pound per square foot (lb/ft ²)
15 kilogrammes per square metre (kg/m ²)	= 3.08 pounds per square foot (lb/ft ²)
34.2 kilogrammes per square metre (kg/m ²)	= 7.01 pounds per square foot (lb/ft ²)
40 kilogrammes per square metre (kg/m ²)	= 8.20 pounds per square foot (lb/ft ²)

Temperature

Temperature (°C)	= 5/9 (Temperature °F - 32)
Temperature (°F)	= 32 + 9/5 (Temperature °C)

Table 21: Temperature Conversion Chart

°C	°F	°C	°F
0	32.0	22	71.6
2	35.6	24	75.2
4	39.2	26	78.8
6	42.8	28	82.4
8	46.4	30	86.0
10	50.0	32	89.6
12	53.6	34	93.2
14	57.2	36	96.8
16	60.8	38	100.4
18	64.4	40	104.0
20	68.0		

Operating Temperature

Operating temperature is defined as the minimum house temperature plus 2/3 of the difference between minimum and maximum house temperatures. It is important where there are significant diurnal temperature fluctuations.

e.g. Minimum house temperature 16°C
Maximum house temperature 28°C

$$\text{Operating Temperature} = [(28-16) \times \frac{2}{3}] + 16 = 24^\circ\text{C}$$

Ventilation

1 cubic foot per minute (ft ³ /min)	= 1.699 cubic metres per hour (m ³ /hour)
1 cubic metre per hour (m ³ /hour)	= 0.589 cubic foot per minute (ft ³ /min)

Insulation

U value describes how well a building material conducts heat and is measured in Watts per square kilometre per degree Centigrade (W/km²/°C)

R value rates the isolative properties of building materials, the higher the R value the better the insulation. It is measured in km²/W (or ft²/°F/BTU).

1 square foot per degree Fahrenheit per British Thermal Unit (ft²/°F/BTU)
= 0.176 square kilometres per watt (km²/W)

1 square kilometre per Watt (km²/W)
= 5.674 square feet per degree Fahrenheit per British Thermal Unit (ft²/°F/BTU)

Light

1 foot candle = 10.76 lux
1 lux = 0.093 foot candle

A simple formula to calculate the number of lamps required for a broiler house is as follows:

$$\text{*Number of Lamps} = \frac{\text{Floor area (m}^2\text{) } \times \text{ max. lux required}}{\text{wattage of lamp } \times \text{ K factor}}$$

* This formula is for tungsten bulbs at a height of two metres above bird level. Fluorescent lights provide 3-5 times the number of lux per Watt as tungsten bulbs.

K factor depends on lamp wattage as shown in **Table 22**.

Table 22: Lamp Wattage and K Factors

Power of Lamp (Watts)	K Factor
15	3.8
25	4.2
40	4.6
60	5.0
100	6.0

Appendix 3. Efficiency Calculations

Production Efficiency Factor (PEF)*

$$\frac{\text{Liveability} \times \text{Live weight in kg}}{\text{Age in days} \times \text{FCR}} \times 100$$

e.g
 Age 42 days, live weight 2652 g
 Mortality 2.80%, FCR 1.75

$$\frac{97.20 \times 2.652}{42 \times 1.75} \times 100 = 351$$

e.g
 Age 46 days, live weight 3006 g
 Mortality 3.10%, FCR 1.83

$$\frac{96.90 \times 3.006}{46 \times 1.83} \times 100 = 346$$

Note:
The higher the value the better the technical performance.

It is important to note that this calculation is heavily biased by daily gain. When comparing across different environments comparisons should be made at similar ages at slaughter.

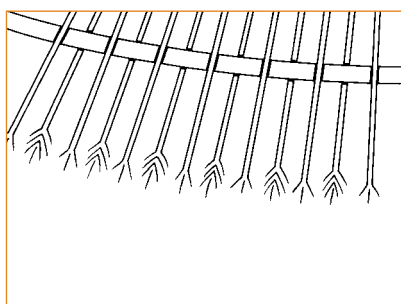
**Also referred to as European Efficiency Factor (EEF)*

Appendix 4. Feather Sexing

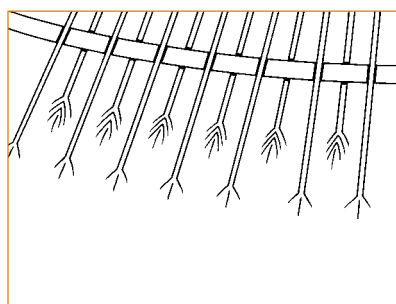
Identification of males and females at day-old may be accomplished easily at the hatchery as most strains of Indian River broiler are feather sexable. In feather sexable broilers, fast-feathering chicks are female, slow-feathering chicks are male. The type of feathering is identified by observing the relationship between coverts (upper layer) and the primaries (lower layer) which are found on the outer half of the wing.

In the slow-feathering male chick the primaries are the same length or shorter than the coverts (Figure 27).

Figure 27: Indian River Male Broiler Chick Wing Feathers



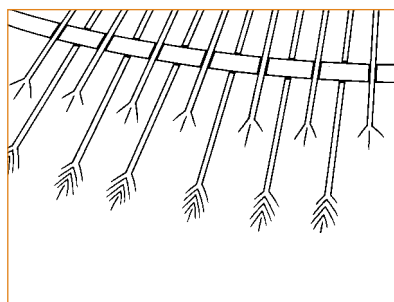
Same length primaries



Shorter primaries

In the fast-feathering female chick the primaries are longer than the coverts.

Indian River Female Broiler Chick Wing Feathers



Longer primaries

Appendix 5. Classification of Months

Table 23: Classification of Months with regards to Northern and Southern Hemispheres

Spring		Summer		Autumn		Winter	
N.H.	S.H.	N.H.	S.H.	N.H.	S.H.	N.H.	S.H.
March	September	June	December	September	March	December	June
April	October	July	January	October	April	January	July
May	November	August	February	November	May	February	August

N.H. - Northern Hemisphere

S.H. - Southern Hemisphere

Appendix 6. Problem Solving

Table 24: Problem Solving

Problem	Possible causes	Action
High Early Mortality (>1% in first week)	Poor chick quality	Check hatchery practice and egg hygiene Check chick transport
	Incorrect brooding	Re-adjust brooders
	Disease	Post mortems on dead chicks, take veterinary advice
	Appetite	Measure and achieve target crop fill levels
High Mortality (post 7 days)	Metabolic diseases (ascites, sudden death syndrome)	Check ventilation rates Check feed formulation Avoid excessive early growth rates Check hatchery ventilation
	Infectious diseases	Establish cause (post mortem) Take veterinary advice on medication and vaccination Check water consumption
	Leg problems	Check calcium, phosphorus and vitamin D ₃ levels in diet Use lighting programmes to increase bird activity
Poor Early Growth and Uniformity	Nutrition	Check starter ration - availability and nutritional and physical quality Check water supply - availability and quality
	Chick quality	Check hatchery procedures: egg hygiene, storage, incubation conditions, hatch time, transport time and conditions
	Environmental conditions	Check temperature and humidity profiles Check daylength Check air quality - CO ₂ , dust, minimum ventilation rate
	Appetite	Check poor stimulation of appetite - low proportion of birds with full crops
Poor Late Growth and Uniformity	Low nutrient intake	Check feed nutritional and physical quality and formulation Check feed intake and accessibility Excessive early restriction Lighting programme too restrictive
	Infectious disease	See High Mortality
	Environmental conditions	Check ventilation rates Check stocking density Check house temperatures Check water and feed availability

Table 24: Problem Solving (Contd)

Poor Litter Quality	Nutrition	Poor quality fats in diet Excess salts in diet Excess protein in diet
	Environment	Insufficient litter depth at start Inappropriate litter material Drinker design and adjustment (spillage problems) Humidity too high Stocking density too high Insufficient ventilation
	Infectious disease	Causing enteritis, take veterinary advice
Poor Feed Conversion	Poor growth	See Poor Early Growth, Poor Late Growth
	High mortality (esp. late mortality)	See High Mortality
	Feed wastage	Check settings/adjustments of feeders Allow birds to clear feeders twice daily
	Environment	Check house temperature is not too low
	Infectious disease	See High Mortality
	Nutrition	Check feed formulation and quality
Poor Feather Cover	Environment	Check house temperature is not too high
	Nutrition	Check ration for methionine and cystine content and balance
Factory Downgrading	Ascites	See High Mortality
	Blisters and burns (e.g. Hockburn)	Check stocking density Check litter quality Increase bird activity (e.g. feeding or lighting programmes)
	Bruises and breaks	Check handling procedures at weighing and catching
	Scratching	Excessive light stimulation Check handling procedures at weighing and catching Check access to feed and water
	Oregon Disease (also known as Deep Muscular Myopathy or Green Muscle Disease)	Birds excessively disturbed during growth e.g. at partial depletion (thinning), weighing etc Poor feed distribution
	Excessive fatness	Check nutritional balance of diet Check house temperature not too high

Appendix 7. Ventilation Rates and Calculations

Table 25: Ventilation Rates (per bird) for temperatures between -1 and 16°C

Live Weight (kg)	Minimum Ventilation Rate (m ³ /hour)	Maximum Ventilation Rate (m ³ /hour)
0.050	0.074	0.761
0.100	0.125	1.280
0.200	0.210	2.153
0.300	0.285	2.919
0.400	0.353	3.621
0.500	0.417	4.281
0.600	0.479	4.908
0.700	0.537	5.510
0.800	0.594	6.090
0.900	0.649	6.653
1.000	0.702	7.200
1.200	0.805	8.255
1.400	0.904	9.267
1.600	0.999	10.243
1.800	1.091	11.189
2.000	1.181	12.109
2.200	1.268	13.006
2.400	1.354	13.883
2.600	1.437	14.42
2.800	1.520	15.585
3.000	1.600	16.412
3.200	1.680	17.226
3.400	1.758	18.028
3.600	1.835	18.817
3.800	1.911	19.596
4.000	1.986	20.365
4.200	2.060	21.124
4.400	2.133	21.874

Notes:

For further explanation see Section 4, Housing and Environment.

Minimum ventilation rate is the quantity of air required per hour to supply sufficient oxygen to the birds and maintain air quality.

Maximum ventilation rate in controlled environment houses in temperate climates is the quantity of air required per hour to remove heat produced by the birds such that the temperature within the building is maintained at not greater than 3°C above external temperature.

Maximum ventilation rates will be exceeded when cooling birds using convective heat loss e.g. tunnel ventilation.

Source: UK Agricultural Development and Advisory Service

Appendix 7. Ventilation Rates and Calculations (Contd)

Calculation for minimum ventilation fan timer settings

To determine the interval fan timer settings for achieving minimum ventilation the following steps are employed:

Obtain the appropriate minimum ventilation rate as recommended in the **Table 25**. The exact rates will vary with breed, sex and for each individual poultry house. Check with the company of manufacture and local Aviagen Technical Services Representative for more specific information. The rates given in **Table 25** are for temperatures between -1 and 16°C; for lower temperatures a slightly lower rate may be required and for higher temperatures a slightly higher rate.

Calculate the total ventilation rate required for the house (total cubic metres per hour (cmh)) as:

$$\text{Total minimum ventilation} = \frac{\text{minimum ventilation rate per bird}}{\text{rate per bird}} \times \frac{\text{the number of birds in the house}}{\text{in the house}}$$

- Calculate the percentage time for running the fans as:

$$\text{Percentage of time} = \frac{\text{total ventilation needed}}{\text{total capacity of the fans used}}$$

Multiply the percentage of time needed by the total fan timer cycle to give the time that the fans require to be on in each cycle.

Fan Timer Setting Calculation

Step 1: Calculate the total ventilation rate required for the house (total cubic metres per hour (cmh))

$$\text{Total minimum ventilation} = \frac{\text{minimum ventilation rate per bird}}{\text{rate per bird}} \times \frac{\text{the number of birds in the house}}{\text{in the house}}$$

Example: One house of 30,000 broilers weighing 800 g at 20 days of age.
 Minimum ventilation rate is 0.594 cmh per bird (see **Table 25**)
 Total ventilation required is 0.594 cmh x 30,000 birds = 17,820 cmh

Step 2: Calculate the percentage time for running the fans

Assuming fan combinations commonly used for minimum ventilation e.g. three 91 cm fans each with a capacity of 16,978 cmh, the percentage of time fans need to run in order to achieve the total ventilation rate required needs to be calculated.

$$\text{Percentage of time} = \frac{\text{total ventilation needed}}{\text{total capacity of the fans used}}$$

Example: Assuming the use of three 91 cm fans each with a capacity of 16,978 cmh;
Total fan capacity = $16,978 \text{ cmh} \times 3 = 50,934 \text{ cmh}$
Percentage time = $17,820 \text{ cmh} \div 50,934 \text{ cmh} = 0.35 = 35\%$
Therefore, the three 91 cm fans will have to be run for 35% of the time.

Step 3: Assuming that a five minute timer is used, the run time setting is calculated by multiplying the percentage of time needed by the total fan timer cycle of five minutes (300 seconds).

Example: Using three 91 cm fans,
 35% of five minutes (300 seconds) = 1.75 minutes or 105 seconds
The fans will be on for 105 seconds in every five minutes

Key Word Index

Air, air quality 16, 18, 45, 46, 51, 56
Air exchange, flow 13, 16, 54, 56, 58
All-in/all-out 13
Amino acids 25, 29
Ammonia 16, 29, 51
Antibodies 12, 43
Ascites 51, 61, 93, 94
Automatic feeding, weighing, ventilation 37, 51, 55
Bacterial contamination 31, 37, 44, 46
Barrier fence 41
Behaviour 17, 20, 22, 47, 58, 62
Biosecurity 41, 43, 45, 46
Body temperature 53
Bore holes 30, 31
Breeder flocks 41
Brooding systems, conditions 14, 18, 19, 20, 21, 45, 93
Calcium 25, 31
Carbon dioxide, monoxide 16, 51
Carcass; quality, damage, yield 61, 63, 77, 81
Catching 46, 78, 79, 80, 81
Chick placement 14, 85
Chick quality 12, 93
Chilling; environmental 54, 56, 58
Chloride, Chlorine 26, 31, 43
Cleaning; disinfection 41, 43, 45, 86
Coccidiostats 77
Coefficient of variation (CV%) 72
Comfort zone 46, 51, 58, 64, 80
Competition; feeding 37
Condemnation at slaughter 46
Contamination; air, litter, feed 51, 64, 77
Controlled environment; housing 12, 55
Convection heat loss 52, 54
Cooling, cold 16, 47, 58, 60, 80
Copper 31
Coverts; feathers 91
Crates 78, 79
Crop, Crop-fill 15, 45
Crude protein 29, 30
Day length, dark period 61, 62, 63, 64
Dead on arrival (DOA) 45, 46
De-boning 25, 63
Dehydration of birds 14, 16, 45, 77
Density of stocking 66
Depletion 77, 86
Diagnosis of disease 47
Digestible essential amino acids, ingredients 29
Disease 13, 41, 44, 47, 65, 85, 93, 94
Disease investigation 44
Disinfection of environment 13, 42, 45

Key Word Index

Disposal 42
Donor flock 12, 15
Down time 45
Down-grading 77, 81, 94
Draughts, air 16
Drinker systems 14, 16, 19, 30, 31, 32, 33, 34, 35, 36, 45, 65, 66, 78, 81
Dust 28, 51, 64
Eating quality of birds 77
Effective temperature 58
Energy 25
Enteric disorders 30
Environment 14, 16, 46, 51, 86, 94, 95
Environmental conditions, changes, control 16, 47, 59, 93
Enzymes 26
European Efficiency Factor (EEF; EPEF) 90
Evaporation, cooling 52, 53, 59, 60, 80
Evisceration 81
Fans, fan use 16, 55, 57, 60, 62, 80, 96
Fatness at slaughter 94
Fats/oils 29, 30, 65
Feather cover 94
Feather sexing 91
Fecal contamination 77, 81
Feed, food 14, 15, 45, 46, 77, 85
Feed conversion (FCR) 27, 37, 94
Feed cost 26
Feed distribution 38
Feed form, type 11, 26, 28, 29, 37
Feed formulating 28
Feed hygiene 42
Feed intake, appetite 17, 26, 29, 45, 47, 62, 93
Feed quality 28
Feed removal, withdrawal 81
Feed spillage, waste, use 37
Feed to water ratio 36
Feeder area, spaces 14, 37, 46, 66, 81
Feeder height 37
Feeder systems 11, 14, 19, 21, 37, 46, 79, 81
Feeding activity 62
Females 74
Fencing 78
Fibre 30
Flaps, ventilation 54
Flock source, donor flock 45
Flock uniformity, variability 47, 73
Floor, floor area 14, 64, 66
Flow rate, of water 34
Fluorescent lights 64
Foggers, misters 16, 54, 59, 60, 80
Foot pad dermatitis 66

Key Word Index

Fungal disease 46
Gases 16, 51, 56,
Genetic potential 11
Growth 26, 61, 93
Growth management 71, 94
Growth; early 26, 93
Handling 46, 77, 78
Harvesting equipment 78, 81
Hatchery 12, 45
Hauling 46
Health 41, 43, 63
Heat increment 29
Heat loss 52
Heat stress 29, 47, 52, 53, 80
Heating 16, 17
Hocks, hockburn 45, 81
Holding; time, area 13, 77, 80, 81
Hot weather 29, 36
House inspection 86
Housing system 54, 95
Hulls, chaff; litter 65
Humidity 14, 15, 16, 21, 45, 51, 53, 54, 59, 60, 65, 67, 80
Hygiene 45, 85
Immune status 12, 43
Incandescent lights 64
Incubation 12
Injuries, catching, processing 78, 94
Inlets, ventilation 55, 56, 57, 58, 60, 62
Insulation 89
Iron 31
Isolation; biosecurity 41
Lead 31
Leg damage 38, 45, 93
Leg portions 61
Light, light pattern, lux 14, 45, 46, 61, 62, 63, 64, 89
Light; catching 77, 78, 79, 80, 81
Litter 13, 42, 44, 45, 46, 64, 78, 81
Litter material 64, 65
Litter quality 30, 51, 94
Litter; in crop, gizzard 78
Live weight 71, 73, 84
Live weight requirement 73
Lumen output 64
Magnesium 31
Manganese 31
Meat yield 28
Medication 77, 85
Metabolic disease 46
Microbiological testing 47
Micron size; misting 60

Key Word Index

Migration fences 58
Minerals 25, 30
Mini drinker 14, 21
Minimum ventilation 57
Misters: see Foggers
Mixing of chicks 15
Modules 79
Moisture; environmental 45, 51, 56
Moisture loss during incubation 45
Mortality 12, 14, 47, 79, 85, 93
Multi-age sites 13
Muscular Myopathy 94
Musty taint, wood shavings 65
Natural ventilation 54
Navels; unhealed 45
Nipple drinkers, lines 14, 16, 19, 21, 33, 34, 35
Nitrogen, nitrates 29, 30, 31
Normal distribution, weight uniformity 72
Nutrient density 26
Nutrient intake 93
Nutrition 93, 94
Open-sided housing 54, 63
Oregon Disease 94
Organic matter in water 31
Overheating 79
Oxygen 51
Pads, cooling 59, 60
Pan feeders 11, 21, 37
Panting 52, 53
Paper 11, 14, 19, 21, 37, 65
Parasitic disease 46
Parent flocks, donor flock 12, 15
Particle size; feed 28
Pathogens 13, 41, 43, 66
Peat moss; litter 65
Pest control 41
pH of water 31
Phosphorus 25, 29
Photoperiod 37, 63
Phytase 29
Placement of chicks 12
Plucking; processing 81
Pododermatitis 30, 66
Post-mortem 47
Potassium 26, 31
Pre-catch 78
Pressure gauge 55
Primaries; feathers 91
Problem solving 93
Processing 46, 77, 81

Key Word Index

Production data, records 85
Production Efficiency Factor (PEF) 90
Protein 25, 65
Protozoal disease 46
R value 89
Radiant heat 52, 53
Ratio of water to feed 32
Records; performance 44, 47, 85
Reflectors; light 62
Reservoirs; water 30
Residues; in feed 27, 77
Respiration 16, 47, 52
Rodent; vermin 41
Salt/sodium 30, 53, 65
Sampling; for weight estimation 71
Sanitation; of environment 42, 45, 46
Sawdust; litter 65
Scratching 94
Security, biosecurity 45, 46
Sediment; water 31
Sensible heat loss 53
Sex management, separate sex 72, 74, 91
Side-wall curtains 54, 55
Single-age sites 41
Skeletal disorders 61
Slaughter 70, 78, 80, 86
Sodium 26, 31
Space; bird allowances 44, 45, 46, 66
Spillage; feed 37
Spot brooders 16, 18, 20
Standard deviation; live weight uniformity 72
Stocking Density 19, 53, 66, 67, 81
Storage tanks; water 30
Straw; litter 65
Stress 46, 47, 52, 53, 78, 79
Stunted chicks, runted 45
Sudden Death Syndrome 61, 93
Sulphates 31
Temperature 14, 15, 16, 17, 18, 21, 22, 36, 45, 47, 51, 54, 56, 58, 67, 80, 81
Temperature regulation 51
Temperature sensors 55, 57
Temperature; bird, brooding 14
Temperature; litter 14
Thermostatically controlled environments 79
Thermostats 55, 57
Thinning 77
Toxins disease 46
Trace minerals 26
Trailers 78, 80
Training of catchers 46



Every attempt has been made to ensure the accuracy and relevance of the information presented. However, Aviagen accepts no liability for the consequences of using the information for the management of chickens.

For further information, please contact your local Aviagen Technical Service Manager or the Technical Department.

www.aviagen.com

Key Word Index

Transitional Ventilation Systems 57
Transport 12, 13, 42, 77, 78, 80, 81
Trays, trough; feed 14, 35, 37
Tunnel Ventilation Systems 57, 58, 59
Ultra Violet (UV) irradiation 31
Uniformity (CV%) 71, 72
Vaccination 12, 41, 43, 46, 85
Vacuum; ventilation 55
Variability in body weight 72, 73
Vehicles: see Transport
Ventilation 16, 17, 46, 47, 51, 52, 55, 80
Ventilation control 65
Ventilation rate 55, 57, 95, 96
Ventilation system 51, 54, 56, 58, 79
Vermin control 66
Viral disease 44, 46
Visitors 42
Vitamins 26
Vocalization of birds 47
Wastage; feed 94
Waste gases 51
Water 14, 15, 30, 31, 32, 42, 45, 46, 52, 86
Water contamination 30, 32
Water hardness, quality 31
Water level 35, 45
Water loss 30
Water meters 33
Water pressure 33, 34
Water systems 32, 34
Water to feed ratio 32
Water vapor, evaporation 51, 59
Water; in excreta, droppings 52, 78
Water; removal of 78
Wavelength 61
Weak chicks 45
Weighing; frequency 71
Weighing; manual, auto 72
Weight bands, distributions 71, 73
Weight loss 77
Welfare 46, 63, 77, 81
Wells; water 31
Wet litter 17, 34, 55, 60, 66
Wheat 28, 78
Wind chill, velocity 16, 54, 58, 80
Wing damage 77, 78
Withdrawal period; feed medicines 27, 77
Wood shavings; litter 64
Yolk 11, 45
Zinc 31

