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ORIGINAL ARTICLE

Physiological adaptation of local, exotic and crossbred turkeys to the hot and humid tropical environment of Nigeria

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Abstract

A total of 300 birds consisting of 120 local, 120 crossbred and 60 exotic turkeys were used to compare physiological adaptation of birds raised under the high-heat stress environment of Nigerian tropical humid climate. Genotype significantly (P < 0.05) affected heat tolerance traits with the highest mean values for rectal temperature, pulse-rate and heat stress index observed in exotic turkeys. Genotype also had significant (P < 0.05) effect on serum biochemical parameters such as glucose (GLU), potassium (K⁺) and Chloride (Cl⁻). The haematological indices of the birds such as haemoglobin, white blood cell count and heterophyl/lymphocyte ratio (H/L) were equally affected by the different genetic groups (P < 0.05). The significantly higher (P < 0.05) H/L ratio of the exotic turkeys was an indication of heat stress. The better performance exhibited by local and crossbred turkeys could be exploited in management, conservation and selection decisions of animal genetic resources under tropical conditions.

Keywords: Adaptability, biochemical indices, haematological parameters, heat stress index turkeys.

Introduction

The success of any living organism in the tropical environment has been due to various structural, physiological, morphological and behavioural specializations (Storey, 1990 cited in Hermes-Lima et al., 1998; Yakubu et al., 2009). Adaptability of an animal has been defined as the ability to survive and reproduce within a defined environment, or the degree to which an animal can remain/become adapted to a wide range of environments by physiological or genetic means (Barker, 2009). Adapted turkey line like many other poultry species development is a quick way to bridge the available protein gap in the developing countries (Mirkena et al., 2010). However, significant improvement in production traits without consideration for metabolic fitness and support systems can cause problems in overall fitness and survival.

A hot environment is one of the important stressors of poultry production. The resultant heat stress comes from the interactions among air temperature, humidity, radiant heat and air speed, where the air temperature plays a major role (Lin et al., 2006; Ramnath et al., 2008). Mashaly et al. (2004) submitted that high environmental temperatures have deleterious effects on productive performance of different poultry species. A range of behavioural and physiological changes has been used to identify and quantify stress. These changes may differ qualitatively or quantitatively depending on the stressor so that a range of indices should be used in order to assess the extent of the stress or welfare. Measures of rectal temperature (RT), pulse-rate (PR) and respiratory rate (RR) are some of the most important determinants of the adaptation of poultry to the tropical environment. They also, to a large extent, determine the profitability of the

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poultry enterprise. The main haematological response is a change in the heterophyl/lymphocyte (H/L) ratio in leucocytes. The number of heterophyls per unit of blood increases and the number of lymphocytes decreases in birds under stress, but the ratio of these cell types is less variable and thus a better measure than individual cell numbers. Zulkifli et al. (2003) reported that the H/L ratio was a reliable indicator of avian stress. Another indicator of heat stress is prolonged panting (Justin & Stephen, 2004). Heat is produced by metabolism within the body, which includes maintenance, growth and egg production.

Locally developed species are seen as a pool of irreplaceable genetic material of unacknowledged merit and value that must not be lost but must be conserved for possible unknown and unseen future use (Wilson, 2009). A comparative assessment of heat tolerance traits in local, crossbred and exotic turkeys in a warm tropical environment such as Nigeria is lacking. Therefore, the purpose of this experiment was to study the effects of natural environmental heat stress on heat tolerance traits as well as blood haematological and biochemical parameters of local, crossbred and exotic turkeys in the tropical humid zone. This is to provide baseline information for the conservation and improvement of the indigenous turkey genetic resource.

Materials and methods

Study area

This research work was carried out at the Turkey Breeding Unit of the Teaching and Research Farm of the College of Animal Science and Livestock Production, University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Ogun State, Nigeria. The study area has been previously described in Ilori et al. (2010) and Peters et al. (2011). Mean, minimum and maximum air temperatures, mean rainfall, relative humidity, sunshine and wind speed for the study period are shown in Table I.

Management of parent stock

The parent stocks for both local and exotic turkeys were subjected to standard methods of management

Table I. Meteorological data for the period of the study.

at the breeder house. Multi-vitamin drugs were given to the birds on arrival on the farm to serve as an antistress and during the period of their acclimatization to stabilize their condition. They were fed ad *libitum* initially with grower mash while breeder mash was provided a month before laying. Clean water was also supplied ad libitum. Standard vaccination programme for turkey's parent stock was adhered to. Adequate sanitation was carried out to prevent occurrence of diseases. The two turkey populations were reared under the same management system as described by Oluyemi and Roberts (2000). The research was conducted in consonance with the guidelines of the Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee of the University of Agriculture, Abeokuta.

Mating scheme

Due to obvious differences in body size between the exotic and local parent stocks, artificial insemination technique as described by Lake (1962) was used. The exotic poults were generated by mating exotic male turkeys to exotic female turkeys while local poults were generated from the cross between local male and female turkeys. The crossbreds were generated by mating the exotic male to local females. Eggs from the three genetic groups were collected daily, identified appropriately with markers and set in the incubator on a weekly basis.

Management of poults

A total of 300 poults consisting of 120 local, 120 crossbred and 60 exotic poults were used for this study. The poults were brooded in deep litter pens according to their genetic groups. All poults were wing-tagged for proper identification and subjected to the same management practices throughout the experimental period. Commercial feeds were provided for the birds *ad libitum*. Starter mash containing 28% crude protein (CP), grower mash (24% CP) and finisher mash (20% CP) were fed to the birds from 0 to 6, 7 to 16 and 17 to 20 weeks, respectively. Clean and cold water were supplied *ad libitum*. Necessary vaccinations against Newcastle,

Location	Season	Month	Rainfall (mm)	Max. temp. (°C)	Min. temp. (°C)	Mean temp. (°C)	Relative humidity (%)	Sunshine	Wind speed (m/s)
UNAAB	Late wet	July-September	125.53	30.08	13.00	21.54	84.97	4.50	0.57
UNAAB	Early dry	October-December	54.37	38.83	12.57	23.20	73.60	3.80	0.57
UNAAB	Late dry	January-March	36.97	35.40	14.53	24.97	67.93	4.80	0.50

Source: UNAAB - University of Agriculture, Abeokuta, Nigeria

fowl pox and Gumboro diseases as well prophylactic antibiotics and anticoccidial drugs were also administered to the birds.

Data collection

Data were collected on a weekly basis for 20 weeks from late wet (July-October), early dry (November-December) and late dry seasons (January-March). Parameters measured included RT, PR and RR. RT was measured by inserting a digital rectal thermometer into the rectum of the birds for 1 min after which the readings were taken. PR was measured by placing the finger tips under the wing vein and counting the number of beats per minute using the stopwatch while RR was determined for each bird by counting the movement of the abdominal region or the vent using stopwatch. RT, PR and RR of all the birds were measured early in the morning before sun rise between the hours of 7:00 am and 9:00 am and 1:00 pm and 3:00 pm, respectively, twice a week as described by Oladimeji et al. (1993). The RT was measured by inserting the thermometer about 3 cm, into the rectum via the cloaca until an alarm sound was produced, indicating the end of the reading (Adenkola and Ayo, 2009).

The relationship between PR and RR together with their normal average values were used to derive heat stress index (HSI) according to Oladimeji et al. (1993).

Blood samples were also collected from the three genotypes two times per season during the late wet season (July-October) when they were 6 and 8 weeks old, early dry (November–December) at 11 and 13 weeks of age and during late dry season (January-March) at 18 and 20 weeks of age. About 5 ml of blood was collected through the wing vein from each bird, 2 ml of which was dispensed into clean Bijou bottle containing ethylene diamine tetraacetic acid as an anticoagulant and labelled accordingly. The rest was allowed to clot and also labelled accordingly. The uncoagulated blood was used to determine the packed cell volume (PCV), red blood cell (RBC), white blood cell (WBC) count, H/L ratio, glucose (GLU) and haemoglobin (Hb). The clotted blood was spinned using a bucket centrifuge to separate the serum used for the analysis of sodium (Na⁺), potassium (K^+) and chloride (Cl^-) . All the parameters were determined according to the methods described by Edingston and Gilles (1981).

Statistical analysis

All data collected were subjected to analysis of variance using the PROC GLM procedure of SAS (2007) to determine the fixed effects of genotype on

RT, PR, RR, HSI, PCV, RBC, WBC, H/L ratio, GLU, Hb, Na⁺, K⁺ and Cl⁻ of the turkeys. Means were separated using Duncan's Multiple Range test. Sex effect was not significant for all the parameters measured, hence sex was excluded as a factor.

The final model employed was:

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + G_i + e_{ijk}$$

where Y_{ijk} , the parameter of interest; μ , overall mean for the parameter of interest; G_i , fixed effect of *i*th genotype (*i* – local, exotic and crossbred); e_{ijk} , errors are independent and identically distributed as normal with mean 0 and constant variance.

Results

Effect of genotype on heat tolerance traits

The least squares means of the effects of genetic group on heat tolerance traits revealed significant (P < 0.05) differences for all the parameters measured (Figures 1–4). The exotic turkeys had the highest mean value of RT (40.62 ± 0.01) at 20 weeks of age followed by the crossbred (40.52 ± 0.02) and the local genotype (40.36 ± 0.01) . RR value was also higher in exotic birds. For PR, the exotic turkeys had the highest mean value followed by the crossbred and local turkeys. Genotype also had significant (P < 0.05) effects on HSI. The highest mean value (P < 0.05) of HSI was observed in exotic turkeys chronologically followed by the local and crossbred turkeys.

Effect of genotype on blood parameters

The least squares means and standard errors of blood parameters as influenced by genotype are shown in Table II. The local turkeys had the highest (P < 0.05) blood glucose level while the K⁺



Figure 1. Mean RT (°C) of turkeys as affected by genotype and age (weeks).



Figure 2. Mean RR (breaths/min) of turkeys as affected by genotype and age (weeks).

concentration was more in their crossbred counterparts. Cl⁻ and WBC concentrations were higher in both local and exotic turkeys, although the latter was not significantly different in WBC from the crossbreds. Hb value was higher (P < 0.05) in exotic turkeys, which equally had the highest (P < 0.05) H/ L ratio. However, Na⁺ and RBC values were not affected (P > 0.05) by genotype.

Discussion

The animal and its environment make up an integrated system, where each acts on the other. Tropical regions are characterized by high levels of solar radiation and environmental temperature which may adversely affect animal production (Castanheira et al., 2010). Stress response is mainly associated with the activation of hypothalamo– pituitary–adrenal gland and orthosympathic nervous system, which aggravates the detrimental effect of

400 350 300 250 200 150 100 50 0 Week 1 Week 4 Week 8 Week 12 Week 16 Week 20





Figure 4. Mean HSI of turkeys as affected by genotype and age (weeks).

high body temperature (Lin et al., 2006), and may compromise animal welfare (Blokhuis et al., 2010). The result of the study revealed that the genotypes differ in terms of RT with the exotic turkeys having the highest value. Their higher RR is consistent with the report of Robert (1994) that the size of the animal also affects the RR. As ambient temperature increases, birds start to pant to lose heat which is accompanied by increase in RRs. This is in agreement with the findings of Brown-Brandl et al. (1997). Lin et al. (2005) also reported that high temperature in addition to changes in RT could lead to the disturbance of thermal balance of birds. The result of the PR could be attributed to the fact that the local turkeys were well adapted to the prevailing harsh production environmental conditions. This could be due to natural selection which might have aided them in the accumulation of genes for adaptability. HSI indicated that crossbreds and the local turkeys adapted better than their exotic counterparts. This is not surprising considering the inherent higher heat load of the latter.

Genetic variation was observed in the haematological and biochemical contents of the birds. The GLU concentration revealed that the local turkey exhibited the best adaptive performance. Etches et al. (2008) reported that when young chickens were exposed to high ambient temperatures, plasma corticosterone increased within 30 min, but dropped below pre-exposure levels within 120 min with the drop in circulatory level accompanied by low plasma concentrations of glucose, phosphate, sodium ion and elevated plasma pH. However, the lower GLU value especially of the exotic turkeys might be due to the fact that they are heavier than their local counterparts. El-Dlebshany et al. (2009) reported that high body weight caused decrease in GLU concentration. Serum parameters are important in

Table II.	Least	squares	means,	standard	errors	$(\pm SE)$	and	coefficients	of	variation	(CV)	(%)	of blood	parameters	as	influenced	by
genotype.																	

	Genotype											
Traits	Local	CV	Exotic	CV	Crossbred	CV						
GLU (mg/dl)	214.96 ± 8.13^{a}	16.05	$178.51 \pm 7.11^{\rm b}$	16.92	$184.44 \pm 6.90^{ m b}$	15.87						
Na ⁺ (mmol/l)	$156.78 \pm 2.82^{ m a}$	7.62	$160.33 \pm 2.84^{ m a}$	7.51	157.83 ± 2.72^{a}	7.32						
K ⁺ (mmol/l)	$2.84 \pm 0.17^{\circ}$	25.35	3.32 ± 0.07^{b}	9.34	3.74 ± 0.13^{a}	14.71						
Cl ⁻ (mmol/l)	106.72 ± 1.26^{ab}	5.03	109.28 ± 1.31^{a}	5.10	105.22 ± 1.13^{b}	4.57						
PCV (%)	$42.67 \pm 1.48^{ m a}$	14.69	$44.67 \pm 1.55^{ m a}$	14.73	43.06 ± 1.16^{a}	11.43						
Hb (g/dl)	$14.05 \pm 0.47^{ m b}$	14.23	$15.08 \pm 0.53^{ m a}$	14.85	14.13 ± 0.36^{b}	10.90						
WBC $(\times 10^9)$	$21.24 \pm 0.69^{ m a}$	13.84	$19.68 \pm 0.52^{ m ab}$	11.13	$19.06 \pm 0.59^{ m b}$	13.22						
RBC ($\times 10^{12}$)	$4.67\pm0.19^{\rm a}$	17.34	$4.94 \pm 0.22^{ m a}$	18.62	$4.75 \pm 0.20^{\rm a}$	17.89						
H/L ratio	$0.16 \pm 0.01^{\rm b}$	37.50	0.21 ± 0.02^{a}	28.57	$0.14 \pm 0.01^{ m b}$	35.71						

GLU, glucose; Na⁺, sodium; K⁺, potassium; Cl⁻, chloride; PCV, packed cell volume; Hb, haemoglobin; WBC, white blood cell counts; RBC, red blood cell counts; H/L, heterophyl/ymphocyte ratio; values with different superscripts are significantly different (P < 0.05).

the proper maintenance of the osmotic pressure between the circulating fluid and the fluid in the tissue spaces so that the exchange of materials between the blood and cells could be facilitated. They also contribute to the viscosity and maintenance of normal blood pressure and pH (Ladokun et al., 2008). The results of K^+ and Cl^- concentration in this study suggested that heat stress decreased serum electrolytes especially the cations with increase in body temperature. During acute heat stress, as the body temperature rises, haemodilution occurs, some of the tissue K exits into the bloodstream apparently due to altered membrane permeability. When this K translocation phenomenon abates during or after acute heat stress, or due to adaptation to chronic heat stress, and excess K is excreted, plasma K concentrations return to normal or below (Borges et al., 2004). Yahav et al. (1995) reported that a range of 11.4-11.7 g/dl in Hb in Israelian Turkeys, which are lower than the values obtained in the current study. Exotic turkeys had the highest ratio of H/L. Zulkifli et al. (2003), Huff et al. (2005) and Aksit et al. (2006) reported that the H/L ratio was a reliable indicator of avian stress; and this can be used as a selection criterion for heat tolerance in birds (Al-Murrani et al., 1997; Peters et al., 2011). The local and the crossbred turkeys had lower H/L ratios suggesting better adaptability to the tropical environment. This is an indication that the local turkeys could have accumulated genes for better adaptation at the expense of genes for better growth performance. The analysis of domestic animal genetic resources is imperative in order to assist management decision-making on which resources to preserve and possibly improve for fitnessadaptability traits (Barker, 2009). Therefore, the present findings open possibilities for associating high growth rate with better heat performance.

Conclusion

Genetic differences accounted for variations in heat tolerance traits and blood parameters of the turkeys. The local and crossbred turkeys appeared to exhibit better adaptability to the Nigerian humid tropical environment than their exotic counterparts. The present findings in line with global initiative could assist in the design of long-term genetic improvement programme for turkey production in the tropics characterized by high temperature and relative humidity. The attendant effect will be increase in the number of birds, thereby assisting in bridging the animal protein gap in poor developing countries.

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