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# ISOLATION OF *RHODOCOCCUS EQUI* AND ATYPICAL MYCOBACTERIA FROM LYMPH NODES OF PIGS AND CATTLE IN HERDS WITH THE OCCURRENCE OF TUBERCULOID GROSS CHANGES IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC OVER THE PERIOD OF 1996–1998\*

## IZOLACE *RHODOCOCCUS EQUI* A ATYPICKÝCH MYKOBAKTERIÍ Z MÍZNÍCH UZLIN PRASAT A SKOTU Z CHOVŮ S VÝSKYTEM TUBERKULOIDNÍCH NÁLEZŮ V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE V LETECH 1996–1998

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**ABSTRACT:** The prevalence of *Rhodococcus equi* and atypical mycobacteria in the lymph nodes of pigs ( $n = 1\ 382$ ) and cattle ( $n = 231$ ) without clinical signs was studied in the Czech Republic over the period 1996–1998. *R. equi* alone was isolated from 7.4% of pigs, and in a mixed infection with atypical mycobacteria in another 2.3% of pigs and 1.7% of cattle. The frequency of *R. equi* was higher ( $p = 0.01$ ) in pigs than in cattle. Atypical mycobacteria alone were more frequently isolated from pigs – 37.2% positive findings than from cattle – 28.2% positive findings ( $p = 0.01$ ). Of the total of 546 mycobacterial strains isolated from pigs, 96.2% belonged to the *Mycobacterium avium* complex, and 3.8% (21 strains) belonged to other species (5 strains *M. chelonae*, 6 strains *M. terrae*, 2 strains *M. phlei*, 6 strains *M. fortuitum* and 2 strains not identified). A total of 65 mycobacterial strains belonging only to *M. avium* complex were identified in cattle. Of 492 pigs, *R. equi* alone was isolated from submaxillary lymph nodes at frequency of 19.5%, atypical mycobacteria were isolated at 30.1% and mixed infection at 4.9%. On the other hand, of the total of 639 pigs, *R. equi* alone was isolated from mesenteric lymph nodes in 0.5% of animals; atypical mycobacteria in 42.6% and mixed infection in 0.8% of pigs. The isolation of *R. equi* from submaxillary lymph nodes was more frequent ( $p = 0.01$ ) than isolation from mesenteric lymph nodes. Examinations of lymph nodes from 218 pigs without tubercloid nodules (group S1) resulted in isolation of *R. equi* in 2.8% of animals compared with significantly higher ( $p = 0.01$ ) isolation from 703 pigs with caseated tubercloid nodules (group S2) which was 13.7%. No *R. equi* was isolated in the 461 animals with calcified tubercloid nodules (group S3). The detection rate of atypical mycobacteria increased in these groups S1, S2 and S3, the values being 19.3, 37.3 and 45.6%, respectively, and those of *R. equi* and/or atypical bacteria from pigs were 23.4, 45.8 and 54.9%, respectively. The difference between the groups was highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ). The differences between the groups were highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ). Of a total of 765 pig and cattle farms *R. equi* was isolated from 93 farms. Contact of swine on these farms with horses or their faeces was confirmed only in 19 (20.4%) cases.

tuberculosis; *Rhodococcus equi*; *Mycobacterium avium* complex; caseification and calcification of tubercloid nodules; submaxillary and mesenteric lymph nodes

**ABSTRAKT:** Byla studována prevalence *Rhodococcus equi* a atypických mykobakterií v mizních uzlinách klinicky zdravých prasat ( $n = 1\ 382$ ) a skotu ( $n = 231$ ) v České republice v průběhu let 1996 až 1998. *R. equi* byl samostatně izolován od 7,4 % prasat, ve smíšené infekci s atypickými mykobakteriemi u dalších 2,3 % prasat a od 1,7 % kusů skotu. Frekvence výskytu *R. equi* u prasat byla statisticky vysoce významně vyšší ( $p = 0,01$ ) než u skotu. Atypické mykobakterie byly samostatně izolovány od 37,2 % prasat a 28,2 % skotu, což byl statisticky vysoce významný rozdíl ( $p = 0,01$ ). Z celkem izolovaných 546 mykobakteriálních kmenů od prasat jich 96,2 % patřilo ke komplexu *Mycobacterium avium* a 21 (3,8 %) k ostatním druhům (pět kmenů *M. chelonae*, šest *M. terrae*, dva kmeny *M. phlei*, šest kmenů *M. fortuitum* a dva kmeny nebyly určeny). Od skotu bylo izolováno 65 mykobakteriálních kmenů patřících pouze ke komplexu *M. avium*. *R. equi* byl samostatně izolován z podčelistních mizních uzlin 492 prasat u 19,5 %, atypické mykobakterie u 30,1 % a smíšená infekce u 4,9 % zvířat. Naproti

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tomu z mizních uzlin mezenterálních 639 prasat byl samostatně *R. equi* izolován pouze u 0,5 %, atypické mykobakterie u 42,6 % a směsná infekce u 0,8 % prasat. Izolace *R. equi* z *ln. submandibularis* byla statisticky vysoce významně vyšší ( $p = 0,01$ ) než z *ln. mesenterialis*. Při vyšetření mizních uzlin 218 prasat bez tuberkulózních uzlíků (skupina S1) byl samostatně *R. equi* izolován pouze od 2,8 % zvířat oproti statisticky vysoce významně vyšší izolaci ( $p = 0,01$ ) od 703 prasat s kazeifikovanými tuberkulózními uzlíky (skupina S2), která činila 13,7 % prasat. Od 461 prasat s kalcifikovanými tuberkulózními uzlíky (skupina S3) nebyl *R. equi* izolován ani u jednoho zvířete. Při izolaci atypických mykobakterií tato záchytnost v jednotlivých skupinách stoupala od 19,3 % (S1), přes 37,3 % (S2) po 45,6 % (S3). Rozdíly mezi skupinami byly statisticky vysoce významné ( $p = 0,01$ ). Záchytnost *R. equi* a atypických mykobakterií od prasat stoupala v jednotlivých skupinách 23,4 % (S1), 45,8 % (S2) a 54,9 % (S3). Rozdíly mezi skupinami byly statisticky vysoce významné ( $p = 0,01$ ). Ze 765 farem prasat a skotu byl *R. equi* izolován na 93 farmách; kontakt prasat s kořmi či jejich trusem byl prokázán jen na 19 (20,4 %) z nich.

tuberkulóza; *Rhodococcus equi*; *Mycobacterium avium* komplex; kazeifikace a kalcifikace tuberkuloidních uzlíků; *lymphonodus submandibularis*; *lymphonodus mesenterialis*

## INTRODUCTION

Bovine tuberculosis in farm animals including pigs and cattle was eradicated in the Czech Republic in 1968 (Pavlas, 1999). In the past decade, the detection rate of *Mycobacterium bovis* in pigs and cattle was very low with an almost zero occurrence in the last few years (Pavlík et al., 1998). However, tuberculoid changes in lymph nodes of cattle and pigs are still found during routine veterinary hygiene inspections in slaughter houses. Data of the State Veterinary Administration of the Czech Republic indicates that 4 224 106 fattened pigs were examined in slaughter houses in 1995. Tuberculoid changes, predominantly in mesenteric and head lymph nodes, were detected in 11 805 (0.27%) pigs (Pavlas, 1998). The cause of these changes must be investigated for epidemiological and veterinary public health reasons, as the disease causes great economic losses to farmers.

Of the changed lymph nodes of pigs, predominantly atypical, opportunistic mycobacteria were often isolated in the Czech Republic in the recent years. The strains of *M. avium* complex were most frequently isolated (Krucký, 1981; Pavlas, 1989; Dvorská et al., 1999), and they are the most important of the atypical mycobacteria. The strains of *M. avium* complex cause great financial losses mainly in swine and poultry farms (Berthelsen, 1974; Dey and Parham 1993). Recently, great attention has also been paid to tuberculosis caused by the strains of *M. avium* complex in human medicine, as these strains have been isolated in almost 55% of patients with AIDS (Yakrus and Good, 1990; Horsburg, 1991; Benson and Ellner, 1993). Different methods are being used at present for rapid diagnosis of the strains of *M. avium* complex, the most frequent being Accu-Probe (Inc., San Diego, California, USA).

In pigs with tuberculoid changes of lymph nodes, isolations of *Rhodococcus equi* are also frequent (Feldman et al., 1940; Karlson et al., 1940; Cotchin, 1943; Woodrofe, 1950; Barton and Hughes, 1980; Rao et al., 1982; Takai and Tsubaki, 1985; Takai et al., 1986; Katsumi et al., 1991). High prevalence of tuberculous infections in submaxillary lymph nodes in pigs caused by atypical mycobacteria together with *R. equi* has been

described since the 1940's (Karlson et al., 1940; Yachida and Shimizu, 1973). Isolation of *R. equi* from cattle is not frequent (McKenzie and Donald, 1979).

*R. equi* is a world-wide-spread micro-organism which is classified as an opportunistic organism. The first data concerning the isolation of *R. equi*, originally designated as *Corynebacterium equi*, were recorded in the early 1920's (Magnusson, 1923). The author described the micro-organism as the causal agent of purulent bronchopneumonia of foals under 4 months of age. However, *R. equi* is considered to be primarily a soil micro-organism. Its isolation from the intestinal mucosa of adult ruminants, and especially from their faeces, confirms transmission via contaminated feed. The highest counts of *R. equi* come from topsoil on horse breeding farms (Barton and Hughes, 1980; Takai and Tsubaki 1985; Prescott, 1991).

In cattle *R. equi* is found in tuberculoid lesions of retropharyngeal and submaxillary lymph nodes (McKenzie and Donald, 1979). It can also be isolated from bovine small intestine and faeces (Mutimer and Woolcock, 1980). Sporadic findings of *R. equi* in cattle confirms its negligible role in spreading the micro-organism.

*R. equi* sporadically induces infections in other mammals as a result of its immunosuppressive effect. In man, *R. equi* was first isolated in the mid 1960's from a patient with pulmonary abscesses (Golub et al., 1967). In the following years, *R. equi* was isolated in 12 other patients with pulmonary diseases. Infection with *R. equi* from a patient with acquired immunodeficiency syndrome (AIDS) was reported in 1986 (Samies et al., 1986), since then the number of cases of infection with *R. equi* in humans has risen to more than one hundred patients which corresponds with the spread of HIV infection (Votava et al., 1996, 1997). The most frequent entry point of *R. equi* infection in humans are the lungs and less frequently the intestinal tract or damaged skin. Contact with animals, manure or soil is reported in the anamnesis of about one third of patients (Harvey and Sunstrum, 1991; Lasky et al., 1991).

Regarding the fact that *R. equi* and *M. avium* complex strains are causative agents of animal and human infections, it is necessary to control their spread in both human and animal populations. To assess the role of

individual pathogens in economic losses in fattening pigs and cattle, it is important to monitor their occurrence. Therefore, the objective of this study was to investigate the prevalence of *R. equi* strains and atypical mycobacteria in the lymph nodes of pigs and cattle from herds suspected of tuberculosis.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 1. Origin of pigs and cattle

#### Pigs

Animals were from herds with tuberculoid findings in lymph nodes or with allergic reactions to avian tuberculin after simultaneous tuberculin testing at a dose of 1 600 TU/dosi (Bioveta, Ivanovice na Hané, Czech Republic). Lymph nodes were examined from 1 382 clinically healthy pigs originating from 575 herds of 45 districts of the Czech Republic in the period of 1996–1998.

#### Cattle

Samples were collected from animals with allergic reactions to bovine tuberculin Bovitubal (16 000 TU/dosi) made in Bioveta, Ivanovice na Hané in the Czech Republic or from animals with tuberculoid changes in lymph nodes. Lymph nodes from 231 animals originating from 190 herds of 30 districts were examined.

### Relationship between examined animals and horse farms

Considering a possible transmission of *R. equi* from horse herds to swine and cattle herds, the following history data was collected in all the districts with *R. equi* isolation: herd origin and direct or indirect contact of animals with horses during the past 15 years.

### 2. Sampling of the necropsy materials

Lymph nodes were collected immediately after slaughter and transferred to the laboratory either fresh or deep-frozen (-20 °C). One culture examination was performed from each animal.

#### Pigs

Head lymph nodes (*Lymphonodus submaxillaris*) were examined from 492 pigs; mesenteric lymph nodes (*Ln. mesenterialis*) from 639 pigs and inguinal lymph nodes (*Ln. inguinalis*) from 14 pigs. Lymph nodes from 237 pigs belonging to one of the three categories that could not be identified were also cultured.

#### Cattle

Different lymph nodes were examined from 231 cattle: *Ln. submandibularis* (*n* = 5), *Ln. mesenterialis* (*n* = 185), *Ln. inguinalis* (*n* = 1), *Ln. mediastinalis* (*n* = 15), and a mixture of the above lymph nodes (*n* = 25).

### 3. Patho-anatomical assessment of lymph nodes

During tissue sampling from swine and bovine lymph nodes for culture examinations, visual assessment of pathoanatomical changes was performed. Based on this assessment, animals were divided into the following three groups:

Group S1 – with no patho-anatomical changes (*n* = 265),  
Group S2 – with caseous tuberculoid changes (*n* = 716),  
Group S3 – with calcified tuberculoid changes (*n* = 632).

### 4. Culture examinations of tissues from swine and bovine lymph nodes

Lymph node samples were aseptically collected and cultured on blood agar supplemented with 5% ram's blood at 37 °C for 48 h. For culture examination of mycobacteria, 1 g of tissue was homogenised with sea sand in a mortar and incubated with 1N HCl for 15 min. Consequently, by adding bromthymol blue as an indicator, it was neutralised with 1N NaOH until the colour turned blue. After centrifugation (3 000 rpm/20 min) and resuspension in sterile saline, the sediment was inoculated at a dose of 0.2 ml onto three media: egg medium by Stonebrink (one tube), egg medium by Löwenstein-Jensen (two tubes), and a liquid serum medium by Šula for isolation of mycobacteria (two tubes).

### 5. Identification of the isolated bacterial strains

#### *R. equi* strains

The strains of *R. equi* were isolated on blood agar or solid egg media for mycobacterial isolation and identified by biochemical tests (Goodfellow, 1986).

Mycobacterial strains. Fast-growing mycobacteria at 37 °C (growing to 7 days) were identified by biochemical tests (Wayne and Kubica, 1986). Slowly growing mycobacteria were identified by Accu-Probe test (Accu Probe inc., San Diego, California): probes for *M. avium* complex (MAC), *M. avium* (MA) and *M. intracellulare* (MI) strains

Tests were carried out according to the manufacturer's instructions.

### 6. Statistical assessment

The  $\chi^2$ -test (Stat Plus) was used for the statistical evaluation (Matoušková et al., 1992).

I. Isolation of *Rhodococcus equi* and atypical mycobacteria from swine lymph nodes from 1996–1998

Tissue samples	Number of examined animals	Isolation of the agent									
		<i>R. equi</i> only		Mycobacteria only				<i>R. equi</i> and mycobacteria			
		number	%	number	%	MAC	others	number	%	MAC	others
<i>Lymphonodus submandibularis</i>	492	96	19.5	148	30.1	143	5	24	4.9	20	4
<i>Lymphonodus mesenterialis</i>	639	3	0.5	272	42.6	264	8	5	0.8	5	0
Unidentified*	237	3	1.3	93	39.2	89	4	1	0.4	1	0
<i>Lymphonodus inguinalis</i>	14	0	0	1	7.1	1	0	2	14.3	2	0
Total	1382	102	7.4	514	37.2	497	17 <sup>a</sup>	32	2.3	28	4 <sup>b</sup>

Explanations:

MAC = *Mycobacterium avium* complex strains

\* = *Lymphonodus submaxillaris*, and/or *Ln. retropharyngealis*, and/or *Ln. mediastinales*, and/or *Ln. tracheobronchialis*, and/or *Ln. mesenteriales*

a = *M. chelonae* (4), *M. terrae* (6), *M. phlei* (2), *M. fortuitum* (3), not identified (2)

b = *M. fortuitum* (3), *M. chelonae* (1)

## RESULTS

### I. Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from swine (Tab. I)

*R. equi* strains were isolated from 134 pigs originating from 89 herds in 41 districts of the Czech Republic during the period 1996–1998. From 17 districts only one herd was examined, and in 24 districts 72 herds were examined. Repeated discovery of *R. equi* during a three-year-period was confirmed in 8 herds. Of the 134 examined pigs, *R. equi* alone was identified in 102 (76.1%) animals, and in the remaining 32 (23.9%) animals this isolation also yielded atypical mycobacteria. Identification of 28 mycobacterial strains revealed that 87.5% belonged to the *M. avium* complex and 4 (12.5%) to other mycobacterial species: *M. chelonae* ( $n = 1$ ); *M. fortuitum* ( $n = 3$ ). From 1 382 examined pigs atypical mycobacteria were solely confirmed in 514 (37.2%) animals.

Of 546 isolated mycobacterial strains 525 (96.2%) belonged to the *M. avium* complex. All these strains reacted positively with MAC and MA probes and negatively with MI probe of the Accu-Probe test. Of the remaining 21 strains, 5 strains (0.1%) were identified as *M. chelonae*, 6 (1.1%) as *M. terrae*, 2 (0.4%) as *M. phlei*, 6 (1.1%) as *M. fortuitum*, and 2 strains (0.4%) were not identified.

### Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria in pigs from different lymph nodes (Tab. I)

**Infection with *R. equi* only.** *R. equi* was isolated from mesenteric lymph nodes only in three (0.5%) of 639 animals whereas from submaxillary lymph nodes it was isolated in 96 (19.5%) of 492 animals. The difference was highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ). In 237 cases where the type of collected lymph nodes could not be identified, *R. equi* alone was isolated in three animals. In 14 animals *R. equi* was not isolated from inguinal lymph nodes.

**Infection with atypical mycobacteria only.** The highest detection rate of atypical mycobacteria was found in mesenteric lymph node cultures (42.6%). A highly significant low rate ( $p = 0.01$ ) of isolation was found in submaxillary and inguinal lymph nodes with 30.1% and 7.1%, respectively.

**Mixed infection with *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria.** The lowest detection rate of both infectious agents (0.8%) was found in the mesenteric lymph nodes. However, their isolation from submaxillary (4.9%) and inguinal lymph nodes (7.1%) was significantly higher ( $p = 0.01$ ).

### Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from pigs with patho-anatomical lesions in lymph nodes (Tab. II)

Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria was different in each group of animals which were characterised on the basis of gross lesions in lymph nodes: group S1 – without gross lesions, group S2 – with caseous tuberculoid nodules, group S3 – with calcified tuberculoid nodules. In the changed lymph nodes tuberculoid nodules of different sizes from poppy seed to bean were demonstrated.

**Isolation of *R. equi* only.** An examination of lymph nodes in 218 pigs from group S1 revealed *R. equi* in 6 (2.8%) pigs; in group S2, 703 pigs *R. equi* were examined and isolated in 96 (13.7%) animals. The difference between the two groups was highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ). However, in group S3, comprising 461 animals, no *R. equi* was isolated.

**Isolation of atypical mycobacteria only.** In the isolation of atypical mycobacteria the rate of detection increased in all groups: 19.3% in group S1, 37.3% in group S2 and 45.6% in group S3. Differences among all three groups were highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ).

**Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria.** In mixed infection of pigs with both agents, the rate of detection was only 0.2% in group S3 and 4% in group S2; the difference was highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ). However, there was no significant difference observed

II. Relationship between the isolation of *R. equi* and mycobacteria and patho-anatomical changes in swine lymph nodes

Patho-anatomical changes	Swine (%)					Cattle (%)			
	Number of animals	<i>R. equi</i> only	Mycobacteria only	<i>R. equi</i> and Mycobacteria	Total positive	Number of animals	<i>R. equi</i> only	Mycobacteria only	Total positive
Group S1									
Without changes	218 (15.8)	6 (2.8)	42 (19.3)	3 (1.4)	51 (23.4)	47 (20.3)	0 (0)	7 (14.9)	7 (14.9)
Group S2									
Lymph node caseification	703 (50.9)	96 (13.7)	262 (37.3)	28 (4.0)	386 (54.9)	13 (5.6)	0 (0)	0 (0)	0 (0)
Group S3									
Lymph node calcification	461 (33.3)	0 (0)	210 (45.6)	1 (0.2)	211 (45.8)	171 (74.1)	4 (2.3)	58 (33.9)	62 (36.3)
Total	1382	102	514	32	648	231	4	65	69
%		(7.4)	(37.2)	(2.3)	(46.9)		(1.7)	(28.1)	(29.9)

III. Isolation of *Rhodococcus equi* and *Mycobacterium avium* complex strains from cattle lymph nodes from 1996–1998

Tissue samples	Number of animals	Isolation of			
		<i>R. equi</i> only		MAC strains only	
		number	%	number	%
<i>Lymphonodus submandibularis</i>	5	0	0	1	20.0
<i>Lymphonodus mesenterialis</i>	185	3	1.6	57	30.8
Unidentified*	25	0	0	5	20.0
<i>Lymphonodus inguinalis</i>	1	1	100	0	0
<i>Lymphonodus mediastinalis</i>	15	0	0	2	13.3
Total	231	4	1.7	65	28.2

Explanations:

MAC = *Mycobacterium avium* complex

between the detection rate of group S1 (1.4%) and the other groups.

**Isolation of *R. equi* and/or atypical mycobacteria.**

The degree of gross lesions on lymph nodes and a subsequent identification of at least one of the agents was evaluated. The rate of detection was in group S1 (23.4%), in group S3 (45.8%) and in group S2 (54.9%), the lowest and the highest being group S1 and S2, respectively. Statistical analysis of the three groups revealed that the difference between them was highly significant ( $p = 0.01$ ).

**2. Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from cattle (Tab. III)**

Of 231 examined animals *R. equi* strains were isolated from 4 (1.7%) and atypical mycobacteria from 65 (28.2%) animals. Not a single case of mixed infection in animals by both agents was detected.

**Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from different lymph nodes in cattle (Tab. III)**

Because of a limited number of examined animals we found no significant differences in isolation of both agents from different lymph nodes.

**Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from lymph nodes with patho-anatomical lesions in cattle (Tab. II)**

*R. equi* was isolated from 4 animals in group S3 only. The rate of detection of atypical mycobacteria in group S3 was (33.9%) highly significant ( $p = 0.05$ ) compared with group S1 (14.9%). No atypical mycobacteria were isolated from group S2.

**3. Comparison of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria isolation from cattle and pigs (Tab. I, III, IV)**

**Occurrence of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria (Tab. I, III)**

The frequency of both *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria was significantly higher ( $p = 0.01$ ) in pigs than in cattle.

**Isolation of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from submaxillary and mesenteric lymph nodes (Tab. IV)**

In the following analysis all isolations of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria from submaxillary and mesenteric lymph nodes of pigs and cattle were calculated.

Tissue samples	Numbers	Isolated strains			
		<i>R. equi</i>		Mycobacteria	
		number	%	number	%
<i>Lymphonodus submandibularis</i>	497	120 <sup>a</sup>	24.1	173	34.8
<i>Lymphonodus mesenterialis</i>	824	11	1.3	334 <sup>b</sup>	40.5

Explanations:

a =  $p = 0.01$ : compared with mesenteric lymph nodes

b =  $p = 0.01$ : compared with submandibular lymph nodes

The number of *R. equi* isolates from submaxillary lymph nodes (24.1% of animals) was significantly higher ( $p = 0.01$ ) than the isolates from mesenteric lymph nodes (1.3% of animals). On the other hand, the number of isolated mycobacterial strains from mesenteric lymph nodes (40.5% of animals) was significantly higher ( $p = 0.05$ ) than from submaxillary lymph nodes (34.8% of animals).

In the remaining animals with isolation of *R. equi* from inguinal and pulmonary lymph nodes, it is difficult to draw a valid conclusion, due to a limited number of samples.

#### 4. Contacts between *R. equi* infected cattle and swine herds with horse herds

##### Infected swine herds

Of a total of 575 examined swine herds, *R. equi* was isolated from 134 pigs originating from 89 (15.5%) herds. Anamnestic data concerning all the infected herds revealed the following facts: in 10 (11.2%) farms horses were kept in the past 10–15 years; 7 swine herds (7.9%) were in the vicinity (within 5 km) of horse farms; and in 72 fully-automated large-scale swine farms there was no contact either with horses or their faeces.

##### Infected cattle herds

From a total of 190 examined herds, *R. equi* was isolated in 4 of them. In the first farm horses were kept on the premises previously; the second farm was adjacent of a horse farm and the remaining two herds had no contact with either with horses or their faeces.

## DISCUSSION

Since 1968 bovine tuberculosis has been eradicated from the Czech Republic and the epidemiological situation has changed markedly. In the early 1970's the strains of *M. avium* complex began to predominate over *M. bovis* isolates. In the years 1975–1979 only 340 *M. bovis* strains were isolated from 21 748 samples as compared to 5 331 strains of *M. avium* complex in

the same period (Krucý, 1981). As the rate of detection of mycobacteria in the lymph nodes with gross lesions was relatively low (under 60%), the search was directed towards other intracellular agents. These intracellular bacterial species were also isolated from lymph nodes with tuberculoid nodules. During allergenodiagnostic tests in pigs, in some cases, non-specific reactors to avian tuberculosis remained unexplained. Therefore in the early 1990's the State Veterinary Diagnostic Institute in Prague started to culture samples not only on media for mycobacteria but also on blood agar where *R. equi* strains were predominantly isolated from the lymph nodes of pigs (Štika, 1992 – personal information).

#### 1. Clinical symptoms of *R. equi* infection

Clinical symptoms of *R. equi* infection are manifested particularly in foals up to 6 months of age (Woolcock et al., 1980; Hietala and Ardans, 1987; Prescott, 1991). Foals with low level of antibodies are more susceptible to spontaneous infection (Skalka, 1987).

In man, disease caused by *R. equi* infection is rare. It is predominantly characterised by pneumonia, and rare extrapulmonary abscesses. In young animals and AIDS patients the disease has the same course manifested by abscessing pneumonia. In HIV-negative individuals the disease is most frequently extrapulmonary, resembling the infection in pigs (Votava et al., 1996, 1997).

As the purpose of our work was to assess intradermal test reactor animals and to monitor gross lesions in abattoirs, all examined animals were without clinical signs of the infection. However, the gross changes caused by *R. equi* found in lymph nodes could not be distinguished from lymphadenitis caused by mycobacteria. Because at present no rapid and reliable diagnostic method (direct detection of DNA from tissue by PCR) is available in the laboratories in the Czech Republic, additional examinations by culture methods appears to be necessary.

#### 2. Patho-anatomical findings

*R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria (especially *M. avium* complex strains) are facultative intracellular pathogens surviving inside macrophages and inducing granulomatous inflammation. At the advanced stage of

the disease the macrophages become destroyed and a caseous necrosis of the lymph nodes develop. As the disease progresses, these necrotic lymph nodes may calcify.

In animals, lungs are often the organ most affected by *R. equi* (especially in horses), and so a heavy oral infection can also cause lymphadenitis of the gastrointestinal tract accompanied by intestinal ulceration (Prescott, 1991). During meat inspection at the slaughter house, it is difficult to differentiate whether the gross lesions of the lymph nodes are caused either by *R. equi* or by mycobacteria.

### Pigs

In our study we have found both agents, either independently or in combination, in 54.9% of animals with caseous lymph nodes and in 45.8% of animals with calcified lymph nodes. However, the detection rate of the two agents differed depending on the stage of gross lesions. In the caseous lymph nodes *R. equi* alone was detected in 13.7% of animals, and in a mixed infection with atypical mycobacteria in another 40%. On the other hand, no *R. equi* alone was isolated from 461 pigs with calcified nodules, and only in one animal (0.2%) was it isolated together with atypical mycobacteria (Tab. II). It seems that during the immune response of the host organism to *R. equi* infection the subsequent calcification of the inflammatory process results in a total devitalisation of the agent. On the other hand, the rate of detection of atypical mycobacteria (especially the strains of *M. avium* complex) tends to increase (Tab. II), the highest detection rate being found in calcified lymph nodes (45.6%).

### Cattle

In contrast to pigs the rate of detection of *R. equi* in 231 examined cattle was as low as 4 (1.7%). However, in all animals with isolation of *R. equi*, calcification of tubercloid nodules was observed (Tab. II, III). According to other authors, cattle are highly resistant to *R. equi* infection (Woolcock et al., 1980; Mutimer and Woolcock, 1980). Isolation of *R. equi* in these 4 animals suggests an impaired natural resistance resulting in the failure to eliminate the bacteria from the inflammatory lesions by calcification.

### 3. Pathogenesis caused by *R. equi*

#### Pigs

The primary role of *R. equi* in the pathogenesis of granulomatous lymphadenitis remains unclear because *R. equi* was isolated from lymph nodes showing tubercloid lesions (Cotchin et al., 1943; Prescott 1991) as well as from normal lymph nodes (Woodrofe 1950; Takai et al., 1986, 1996). The detection rate of *R. equi* from the normal lymph nodes ranged between 2 and

8% (Cotchin, 1943; Takai et al., 1986). Our results show that *R. equi* strains alone were isolated from 2.8% and in mixed infections from 1.4% of pigs with no patho-anatomical changes of the lymph nodes (Tab. II). These animals were in most cases culled due to allergic reactions to avian tuberculin. Therefore intravital diagnosis of mycobacterial infection in pigs is complicated by *R. equi* strains as the surface antigenic structures of both bacterial species are evidently very similar (Prescott, 1991).

To elucidate pathogenesis of the disease, some authors attempted to induce, though unsuccessfully, patho-anatomical changes in swine lymph nodes by oral administration of *R. equi* (Feldman et al., 1940; Karlson et al., 1940; Cotchin, 1943; Takai and Tsubaki, 1985; Katsumi et al., 1991). Therefore it is likely that some hitherto undisclosed predisposing factors are responsible for the expression of lesions in infected pigs (Takai et al., 1996; Takai, 1997). These factors may include changes in nutrition, stress during transportation of piglets after weaning, their repeated infection, current state of cell-mediated immunity etc.

#### Cattle

McKenzie and Donald (1979) mentioned for the first time a possible participation of *R. equi* in the formation of tubercloid lesions in bovine lymph nodes. Our study revealed that the involvement of *R. equi* in the formation of pathoanatomical changes in cattle, in contrast to pigs, is not important since the agent was isolated in only four (1.7%) of 231 examined animals. The strains were isolated from mesenteric lymph nodes (three animals) and inguinal lymph nodes (one animal). Similar results have also been reported by other authors (Mutimer and Woolcock, 1980; Takai and Tsubaki, 1985).

*R. equi* was isolated in 50% of faeces of the examined animals compared with negative culture results from retropharyngeal and submaxillary lymph nodes (Mutimer and Woolcock, 1980). Results show that the lymphatic tissue of the intestinal tract is permanently exposed to *R. equi*. A relatively sporadic occurrence of *R. equi* in these lymph nodes suggests its low importance in the pathological processes of the lymph nodes (McKenzie and Donald, 1979; Woolcock et al., 1980; Mutimer and Woolcock, 1980). *R. equi*, being an obligate aerobe, cannot multiply in the intestine of adult ruminants, thus cattle play a passive role in spreading the agent within the environment. Therefore, bovine faeces may contain only *R. equi* strains ingested from contaminated pasture (Prescott, 1991).

### 4. Localisation of gross lesions in lymph nodes of pigs and cattle and isolation of the causative agents

#### Localisation of gross lesions

The present study confirms the conclusions of many other authors (Karlson et al., 1940; Cotchin 1943; Takai

and Tsubaki, 1985; Takai et al., 1986; Katsumi et al., 1991; Takai, 1997) that submaxillary lymph nodes of pigs are favourable for the survival of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria. Most probably the mesenteric lymph nodes offer better conditions for atypical mycobacteria (especially *M. avium* complex) than for *R. equi* (Tab. I). However, the concurrent presence of both *R. equi* (19.5%) and atypical mycobacteria (30.1%) in the submaxillary lymph nodes is not the result of a dependant relationship.

#### Mixed infection of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria

The epidemiological problem of the occurrence of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria in the submaxillary and mesenteric lymph nodes of pigs, in which Takai et al. (1986) were engaged, has not yet been satisfactorily solved. According to their studies mesenteric lymph nodes create a more favourable environment for the survival of the following atypical mycobacteria: *M. chelonae* spp. *chelonae*, *M. fortuitum* and *M. xenopi* (19% positive out of 90 examined samples). However, the mesenteric lymph nodes do not provide suitable conditions for the survival of *R. equi*. It is most probable that *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria can collaborate with each other in the formation of caseous lymphadenitis in swine following certain stress factors.

#### 5. Ecological background of the occurrence of infections caused by *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria

##### The importance of horse keeping

After the preparation of selective media NANAT by Woolcock et al. (1979), it was possible to carry out extensive epidemiological and ecological studies of *R. equi* from soil, faeces and manure samples. It was confirmed that multiplication of *R. equi* can take place in manure and soil which has a high content of organic matter. Manure can become an important source of infection when left on pasture (Prescott et al., 1984). Takai et al. (1991) studied the ecology of *R. equi* in soils from horse breeding farms and concluded that massive propagation of *R. equi* from soil occurs in a chain existing between the horse and its soil environment. The highest *R. equi* counts were found on the surface of the soil, while a 30 cm deep layer contained no *R. equi*. The results confirm that horses, especially foals, are infected by inhaling *R. equi* germs, abundant in dusty and windy weather. Therefore we preferred to collect anamnestic data recording a possible direct contact of the animals (pigs-cattle) with horses or indirect infection through contaminated soil.

##### The importance of horse rearing and infection with *R. equi* in the Czech Republic

Our results show that in the last 15 years only 20.4% of 765 swine and cattle farms had come into contact

with horses, manure or horse farms. It is necessary to remember that the number of horses involved in agricultural production has markedly decreased during the last decades. Specialisation of animal production on a large scale basis is more practised and so the possible contact of horses with other farm animals has been reduced to a minimum.

#### Sources of *R. equi* infection

From the results of our study it can be inferred that in the Czech Republic, the most important intracellular parasites causing tuberculoid changes in lymph nodes are atypical mycobacterial strains of *M. avium* complex and *R. equi*. The sources of infection in *M. avium* complex are infected birds and other animals, whereas for *R. equi* horses and their environment are incriminated. These opportunistic microorganisms are also present in the environment. *R. equi* is a soil microorganism which occurs frequently in the manure of herbivores and the environment of grazing animals. The organism is often isolated from the faeces and intestinal tract of cattle, red deer, goats, horses, pigs, sheep and wild birds. Information concerning the isolation of *R. equi* from faeces is scarce (Prescott, 1991).

Atypical mycobacteria, mainly *M. avium* complex strains, are a natural inhabitant of the ecosystem in which they participate in the degradation of biological materials (Horváthová et al., 1997). Therefore, the presence of *R. equi* and atypical mycobacteria in the intestinal tract of pigs is a result of feed contamination. Consequently the possible distribution of the bacteria from the intestine to other predilection sites, submaxillary and mesenteric lymph nodes, is performed by macrophages (Takai et al., 1986). As a result of this massive contamination of feedstuff and consequent infection of cattle and swine, gross lesions are likely to be detected in abattoirs.

Prevention of the infection in swine herds. From the above mentioned facts it is necessary to prevent the possible contact of pigs with arable land which might be contaminated with *R. equi*. Therefore it is equally important to reduce soil contamination of foodstuffs like potatoes, carrot and other roughage. Pig runs for all age categories should be kept clean, and faeces regularly removed.

#### 6. The risk of infection of human population of the Czech Republic

The risk of *R. equi* transmission from farm animals to man obviously provokes the basic question as to whether people are infected directly from animals or primarily from the soil. To solve this problem Takai and Tsubaki (1985) examined samples from the soil and farm animals. A higher occurrence of *R. equi* was detected in samples from soil and feeding areas, the lower amount being from faecal samples.

Infection of pigs, or other atypical hosts, is similar to the *R. equi* infection in HIV-negative individuals, which is characterised by extrapulmonary lesions. In HIV-positive patients and in young foals the course of the disease is similar and is manifested by pneumonia (Votava et al., 1996, 1997). Another common feature of *R. equi* infection in man and pigs is that the *R. equi* isolates obtained from swine lymph nodes and from patients suffering from AIDS contain the same protein antigen 20-kDa on their surface (Takai et al., 1996). However, it has not yet been adequately explained whether pigs are the source of infection for HIV-positive individuals or whether both share the same source of infection.

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# THE USE OF SORBENTS ON THE BASIS OF HUMIC ACIDS TO REDUCE AMMONIA LEVELS IN STABLE ENVIRONMENT\*

## VYUŽITÍ SORBENTŮ NA BÁZI HUMINOVÝCH KYSELIN KE SNÍŽENÍ HLADINY AMONIAKU VE STÁJOVÉM PROSTŘEDÍ

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**ABSTRACT:** Laboratory testing of sorption properties of humic substances, which were exposed to increased ammonia levels from 0 to 300 mg/g in a system, showed a highly significant ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) increase of ammonia levels up to the value of  $27.1 \pm 1.32$  mg/g of ground humic substances. The increase of ammonia level in the system to 400 and 500 mg/g had not any significant effect on its concentration in the humic substances ( $27.8 \pm 2.08$  and  $28.7 \pm 1.73$  mg/g). The results of laboratory testing of ammonia binding to humic substances are shown in Fig. 1. In a series of experiments performed in experimental stables of the institute and aimed at testing the use of humic acids for the reduction of free ammonia level, 3% of sodium humate were administered in the ration for pigs in two subsequent periods (I and II). At the same time, nitrogen balance (the amount of nitrogen intake by feed and excretion by faeces and urine) was monitored. In another two periods (III and IV) 1 kg of ground humic substances was applied twice a day on the floor of experimental stable, i.e.  $150 \text{ g/m}^2/\text{day}$ . Eight pigs were included in the experiment, housed in balance cages, four in one cage in two identical separated stables. The pigs received feed mixture composed of 68.3% of wheat, 20.0% of barley, 10.0% of soya extracted meal and a mineral supplement. The average daily intake of feed mixture was 1.16, 1.27, 2.00 and 2.20 kg/animal/day in periods I, II, III and IV, respectively. The levels of free ammonia were recorded daily at 7 a.m. and 2.30 p.m. in both stables throughout the whole experimental period. Air temperature and relative humidity were measured in the stables as well as outdoor temperature and atmospheric pressure (Tab. I). Significantly lower ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) average levels of free ammonia ( $6.9 \pm 1.58$  ppm) were found in period I in the stable where sodium humate was administered, compared with the stable without humate administration ( $10.4 \pm 3.35$  ppm). However, this result was not confirmed in period II. Nonsignificantly lower levels of free ammonia ( $6.4 \pm 1.28$  ppm) were found in the stable without humate administration compared with the stable with sodium humate administration ( $7.6 \pm 2.00$  ppm). Variations in average levels of free ammonia in both stables during period I and II are shown in Fig. 2 and 3. Recording of nitrogen balance (period I and II) revealed that pigs of the control group had daily nitrogen intake  $34.9 \pm 3.51$  g and those of the experimental group  $33.8 \pm 4.84$  g. Supplementation of feed mixture with 3% of sodium humate resulted in the experimental group in a decrease of daily intake of nitrogen by 3.2% (Tab. II). Daily output of nitrogen by faeces was significantly higher ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) in the experimental group of pigs with administration of  $5.35 \pm 1.86$  g/animal/day of sodium humate (15.8% of N) compared with  $3.69 \pm 0.68$  g/animal/day (10.6% of N administered) in the control group. Daily excretion of nitrogen by urine was significantly lower ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) in the experimental group reaching  $11.2 \pm 2.92$  g/animal/day (33.1% of N administered) than in the control group reaching  $14.6 \pm 1.53$  g/animal/day (41.9% of N administered) (Tab. II). In period III significantly lower ( $P \leq 0.05$ ) levels of free ammonia ( $6.5 \pm 1.12$  ppm) were found in the stable where ground humic substances were applied on the floor compared with the control stable ( $11.0 \pm 4.43$  ppm). Like in period IV, significantly lower ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) average levels of free ammonia ( $7.2 \pm 2.44$  ppm) were recorded in the experimental stable compared with the control one ( $12.0 \pm 2.89$  ppm). Variations of the average levels of free ammonia in both stables during periods III and IV are shown in Figs. 4 and 5.

pigs; sodium humate; humic substances; ammonia; nitrogen balance; emission; microclimate

**ABSTRAKT:** Při laboratorním ověření sorpčních vlastností oxihumulitu, který byl vystaven stoupajícím hladinám amoniaku 0 až 300 mg/g v systému, bylo prokázáno statisticky vysoce významné ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) zvyšování hladin amoniaku do hodnoty  $27,1 \pm 1,32$  mg/g mletého oxihumulitu. Zvýšení hladiny amoniaku v systému na 400 a 500 mg/g statisticky významně jeho koncentrace v oxihumulitu neovlivnilo ( $27,8 \pm 2,08$  a  $28,7 \pm 1,73$  mg/g). V sérii pokusů uskutečněných v experimentálních stájích a zaměřených na ověření použití huminových látek ke snížení hladiny volného amoniaku, byla ve dvou po sobě jdoucích periodách (I a II) podávána 3 % humátu sodného v krmné dávce prasat. V dalších dvou periodách (III a IV) byl v pokusné stáji dvakrát denně aplikován 1 kg mletého oxihumulitu na podlahu, tj.  $150 \text{ g/m}^2/\text{den}$ . Do pokusů bylo zařazeno

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osm vepřů umístěných v bilančních klecích a rozdělených po čtyřech do dvou identických, stavebně oddělených stájí. V průběhu I. a II. periody byla zjištěna bilance dusíku. V I. periodě, ve stáji s podáváním humátů sodného v krmné dávce, byly zjištěny statisticky průkazně nižší ( $P \leq 0,05$ ) průměrné hladiny amoniaku v ovzduší ( $6,9 \pm 1,58$  ppm) oproti stáji bez podávání humátů sodného ( $10,4 \pm 3,35$  ppm). Tento výsledek nebyl ve II. periodě potvrzen. Ve stáji bez podávání humátů sodného byly zjištěny nevýznamně nižší průměrné hladiny amoniaku ve stájovém ovzduší  $6,4 \pm 1,28$  ppm oproti stáji s podáváním humátů sodného  $7,6 \pm 2,00$  ppm. Při perorálním podávání humátů sodného byla v I. periodě zjištěna nižší hladina amoniaku ve stáji s podáváním humátů sodného o 3,5 ppm (33,6 %) oproti kontrole. Ve II. periodě byla naopak hladina amoniaku v pokusné stáji oproti kontrole vyšší o 1,2 ppm (15,8 %). Denní výdej dusíku vykaly byl v I. a II. periodě statisticky vysoce významně vyšší ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) u pokusné skupiny prasat přijímajících humát sodný, a to  $5,35 \pm 1,86$  g/kus/den (15,8 % přijatého N) oproti  $3,69 \pm 0,68$  g/kus/den (10,6 % přijatého N) u kontrolní skupiny. Denní vylučování dusíku močí bylo statisticky vysoce významně nižší ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) u skupiny přijímající humát sodný oproti kontrolní skupině, a to  $11,2 \pm 2,92$  g/kus/den (33,1 % přijatého N) oproti  $14,6 \pm 1,53$  g/kus/den (41,9 % přijatého N). Ve III., resp. IV. periodě byly ve stáji s aplikací mletého oxihumolitu na podlahu zjištěny statisticky průkazně nižší ( $P \leq 0,05$ ) průměrné hladiny volného amoniaku, a to  $6,5 \pm 1,12$  ppm oproti  $11,0 \pm 4,43$  ppm (40,9 %), resp.  $7,2 \pm 2,44$  ppm ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) oproti  $12,0 \pm 2,89$  ppm (40,0 %).

prasata; humát sodný; oxihumolit; amoniak; dusíková bilance; emise; mikroklima

## ÚVOD

Intenzivní živočišná výroba ovlivňuje nejen prostředí ve kterém jsou zvířata ustájena, ale i kvalitu venkovního ovzduší. Pachy vznikající v důsledku koncentrace škodlivých a jedovatých plynů představují zásadní problém ustájení zvířat. Celosvětově emise amoniaku činí asi 54 Mt dusíku. Více než 60 % těchto emisí souvisí s lidskou činností, především s chovem zvířat a používáním průmyslových hnojiv (Asman aj., 1998). Vyšší koncentrace amoniaku v ekosystému způsobují eutrofizaci vod, snižování druhové diverzity rostlin, poškozování rostlinných porostů v blízkosti stájí, zvýšenou korozi kovů a poškozování fasád domů (Konopásek, 1995).

Zvýšené koncentrace amoniaku a sirovořidku patří mezi predispoziční činitele ovlivňující zdraví zvířat i lidí. Bylo prokázáno, že zvýšené hladiny amoniaku se podílely na vývoji atrofické rhinitidy prasat (Robertson aj., 1990). Dále se ukázalo, že amoniak má negativní vliv na řadu biologických systémů zahrnujících metabolismus hormonů a reprodukci (Visek, 1984). Malayer aj. (1988) zkoumali vliv plynů unikajících z chlévské mrvy na pohlavní dospívání. Jejich zjištění ukázala, že amoniak snižuje stimulační vliv kanců na začátek pohlavního dospívání u prasniček. Nepříznivé působení vysokých koncentrací amoniaku je dobře zdokumentováno u selat, u kterých byl růst redukován o 12 % (Noyes aj., 1986).

Všeobecně lze říci, že amoniak má negativní účinky na užítkovost zvířat, zvyšuje jejich dispozici k řadě onemocnění a představuje riziko i pro zdraví lidí pracujících v provozech intenzivního chovu prasat a drůbeže (Drummont aj., 1980; Donham aj., 1995).

Amoniak může negativně ovlivňovat zdravotní stav již při nízkých hladinách (6 ppm); nejvyšší přípustná hladina amoniaku ve stájovém ovzduší je 25 ppm (Zeman, 1990). Donham (1991) doporučuje maximální koncentraci amoniaku v chovech prasnic 7 ppm.

Přístupy k ovlivnění hladin amoniaku ve stájích s omezeným pohybem zvířat, představují úpravy větracích systémů, změny v manipulaci s odpady, zvýšení

kvality bílkovin a snížení obsahu dusíkatých látek v krmné dávce. Ke snížení emisí amoniaku může vést i zvýšení obsahu neškrobových polysacharidů v dietě výkrmových prasat (Canh aj., 1998).

Alternativní přístupy zahrnují použití sorbentů, například zeolitu v krmivu pro zvířata, použití přípravků obsahujících vytažky rostliny *Yucca schidigera*, esenciální oleje, rostlinné extrakty a další komerčně dostupné či ověřované přípravky, které jsou s úspěchem používány jako doplňky krmné dávky prasat, drůbeže a telat a přidávají se do laganu a nádrží s kejdou, nebo jsou rozprašovány na hnuj.

Cílem práce bylo ověřit, zda podáním huminových látek prasatům v krmivu, respektive aplikací do stájového prostředí, lze dosáhnout snížení koncentrace volného amoniaku ve stájovém ovzduší.

## MATERIÁL A METODY

K pokusům byl použit humát sodný technický o sušině 90,9 %, s deklarovaným obsahem 61,9 % huminových kyselin a 32,1 % popela v sušině, a mletý oxihumolit o sušině 62,1 %, s deklarovaným obsahem 78,2 % huminových kyselin a 19,8 % popela v sušině. Dopočet do absolutní sušiny představují organické látky. Analýzy uvedených látek provedl VÚAnCh a.s., Ústí n. Labem.

### I. Laboratorní ověření vazby plynného amoniaku na mletý oxihumolit v uzavřeném systému

Z chloridu amonného, předsušeného při teplotě 105 °C, byla připravena řada roztoků o koncentracích 5 až 500 mg amoniaku v 1 ml destilované vody. Do střední části misky dle Conwaye byl přiveden 1 g mletého oxihumolitu. Do mezikruží misek byl napipetován 1 ml příslušného roztoku chloridu amonného a přidán 1 ml nasyceného roztoku uhličitanu draselného. Miska byla okamžitě hermeticky uzavřena a po promíchání roztoků kroužením ponechána při laboratorní teplotě 24 hodin. K utěsnění víčka byl použit glycerin.

Ve vzorcích mletého oxihumulitu, vystavených různým koncentracím amoniaku uvolněného z roztoků chloridu amonného, byl amoniak stanoven mikrodifuzí postupem uvedeným ve vyhlášce č. 222/1996 Sb. (Příloha č. 9 „Stanovení obsahu těkavých dusíkatých látek“).

## 2. Experimentální použití huminových látek ve stájových podmínkách

Do sledování bylo zařazeno osm vepřů plemene BUXLa o počáteční průměrné hmotnosti v pokusu A 30 kg, v pokusu B 56 kg. Pokusná zvířata byla rozdělena na dvě skupiny (1 až 4 a 5 až 8) ustájené ve dvou identických, stavebně oddělených, uzavřených bezstelivových stájích (A, B), s hydromechanickým odklizením výkalů. Rozměry ustájovacích prostor jsou 3,0 x 4,5 x 4,5 m; každá z nich je propojena s vlastní přípravnou o rozměrech 2,2 x 3,0 x 2 m.

### A. Podávání humátů sodného v krmné dávce

#### Uspořádání pokusu:

Číslo prasete	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Stáj	A				B			
I. perioda (10 dnů)	Hu	Hu	Hu	Hu	0	0	0	0
Meziperioda (5 dnů)	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
II. perioda (10 dnů)	0	0	0	0	Hu	Hu	Hu	Hu

0 – kontrola, Hu – humát sodný

Prasata byla umístěna v bilančních klecích, umožňujících přesně evidovaný příjem krmiva a kvantitativní sběr výkalů a moče. Krmení probíhalo dvakrát denně v 7.00 a 16.00 hodin. Kontrolní skupina přijímala krmnou směs vlastní receptury (pšenice 68,3 %, ječmen 20,0 %, sojový extrahovaný šroť 10 % a minerální krmný doplněk), pokusná skupina stejnou krmnou směs s 3% přidělem humátů sodného. Před zahájením pokusu bylo krmivo ověřeno analyticky (ČSN 46 7092).

Obsah hrubých živin v použitých krmivech:

	Základní krmná směs	Humát sodný
Sušina (g/kg)	877,0	900,4
N-látky (N x 6,25) (g/kg)	183,2	63,9
Tuk (g/kg)	15,7	3,4
Vláknina (g/kg)	25,7	6,2
Popel (g/kg)	29,9	338,5
BNLV (g/kg)	622,5	488,4
Organická hmota (g/kg)	847,1	561,9

Průměrný příjem základní krmné směsi činil (kg/ks/den): v I. periodě 1,16, ve II. periodě 1,27, ve III. periodě 2,00 a ve IV. periodě 2,20.

V průběhu I. a II. periody pokusu byly 6. až 10. den kvantitativně sbírány výkaly a moč a uchovávány v tmavých zábrusových lahvích při teplotě 12 °C. Současně byl sledován příjem krmiva. Dusík v krmivu, moči a výkalech byl stanoven dle ČSN 46 7092 (1986). Na základě množství dusíku přijatého a vyloučeného byla vypočtena dusíková bilance.

### B. Aplikace oxihumulitu do stájového prostředí

#### Uspořádání pokusu:

Stáj	A	B
III. perioda (9 dnů)	Hu	0
Meziperioda (5 dnů)	-	-
IV. perioda (11 dnů)	0	Hu

0 – kontrola, Hu – oxihumolit

Vlastní pokus probíhal ve dvou periodách během nichž byl na podlahu jedné ze stájí (A či B) dvakrát denně, po odklizu výkalů, aplikován 1 kg oxihumulitu, tj. 150 g/m<sup>2</sup>/den. Mezi periody byla zařazena pětidenní meziperioda, bez aplikace oxihumulitu.

V průběhu I. až IV. periody byly v prostředí obou stájí dvakrát denně, v 7.00 a 14.30 hodin, sledovány hladiny amoniaku titrační metodou (Bena aj., 1955). Současně byla zjišťována teplota vzduchu a relativní vlhkost ve stájích, venkovní teplota a tlak vzduchu (tab. I). Z naměřených hodnot byl vypočten průměr pro každý den pokusu.

Získaná data byla vyhodnocena *t*-testem, pomocí statistického a grafického systému Stat-Plus (Matoušková aj., 1992).

## VÝSLEDKY

### 1. Laboratorní ověření vazby plynného amoniaku na mletý oxihumolit v uzavřeném systému

Ve vzorcích mletého oxihumulitu, vystavených působení plynného amoniaku v množství od 5 do 300 mg/g, bylo zjištěno statisticky vysoce významné zvyšování ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) průměrné koncentrace vyvázaného amoniaku od 1,2 ± 0,10 mg/g při hladině amoniaku v systému 5 mg, do 27,1 ± 1,32 mg/g při hladině amoniaku v systému 300 mg. Další zvyšování hladiny amoniaku v systému na 400 a 500 mg nepřineslo statisticky významné zvýšení průměrné koncentrace vyvázaného amoniaku (27,8 ± 2,08 a 28,7 ± 1,73 mg/g; obr. 1).

### 2. Experimentální použití huminových látek ve stájových podmínkách

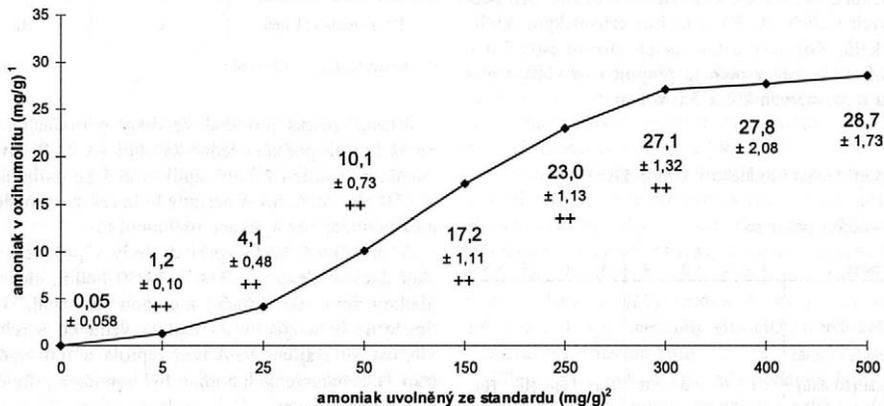
#### A. Podávání humátů sodného v krmné dávce

V I. periodě ve stáji A, kde byl podáván humát sodný *per os*, byly zjištěny statisticky průkazně nižší ( $P \leq 0,05$ )

I. Makro- a mikroklimatické ukazatele v průběhu pokusu – Macro- and micro-climate parameters during the experiment

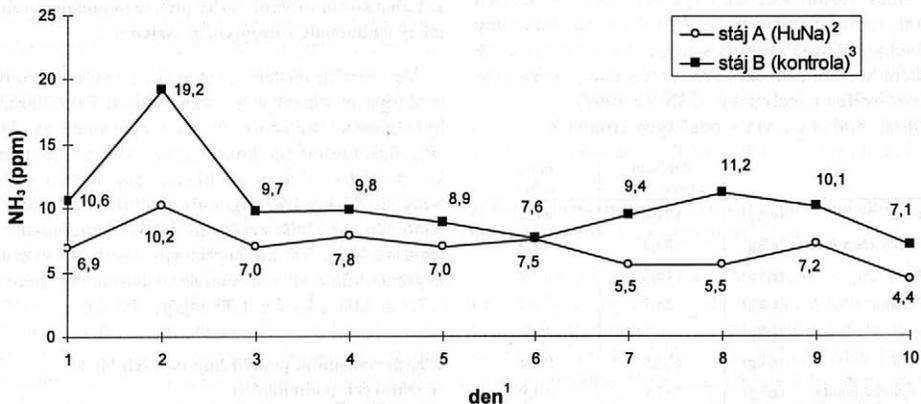
Perioda <sup>1</sup>		Teplota ve stáji <sup>2</sup> (°C)		Relativní vlhkost <sup>3</sup> (%)		Průměrná denní venkovní teplota <sup>4</sup> (°C)	Atmosferický tlak <sup>5</sup> (hPa)
		A	B	A	B		
I.	$\bar{x}$	23,6	23,1	69	70	17,8	1 011,6
	$\pm s$	1,23	0,92	4,8	2,3		
II.	$\bar{x}$	24,5	23,5	67	72	19,2	1 016,3
	$\pm s$	1,64	0,85	9,9	6,3		
III.	$\bar{x}$	22,8	24,3	66	70	13,3	1 006,6
	$\pm s$	1,02	0,82	4,1	5,6		
IV.	$\bar{x}$	19,9	20,1	60	65	3,4	1 015,5
	$\pm s$	0,52	0,52	4,8	3,3		

<sup>1</sup>period, <sup>2</sup>stable temperature, <sup>3</sup>relative humidity, <sup>4</sup>average daily outside temperature, <sup>5</sup>atmospheric pressure



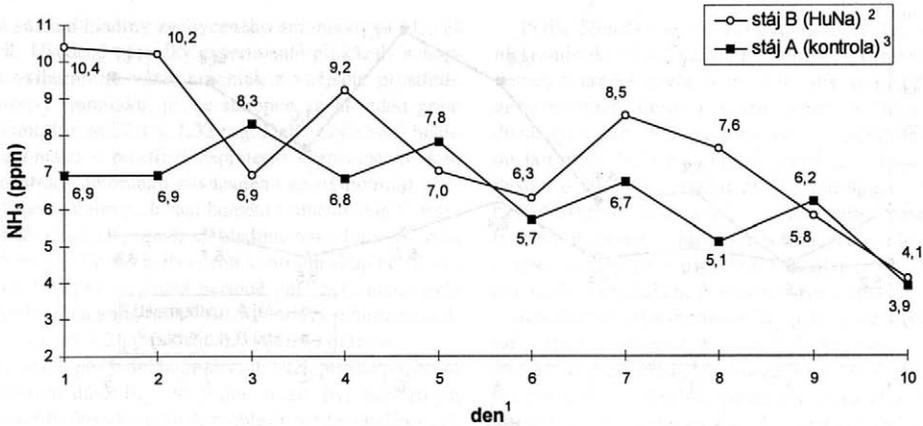
I. Změny koncentrací amoniaku v mletém oxihumulitu po působení plynného amoniaku (ze standardního roztoku NH<sub>4</sub>Cl o přepočteném obsahu amoniaku 5 až 500 mg) – Variations of ammonia concentrations in ground oxhumolith following the effect of gaseous ammonia (evolving from standard solution of NH<sub>4</sub>Cl with converted content of ammonia 5–500 mg)

<sup>1</sup>ammonia in oxyhumolith (mg/g), <sup>2</sup>ammonia evolved from standard solution (mg/g)



2. Hladina amoniaku v experimentálních stájích v průběhu pokusu s perorálním podáváním humátu sodného (I. perioda) – Ammonia levels in experimental stables during the experiment with peroral administration of sodium humate (period I)

<sup>1</sup>day, <sup>2</sup>stable A (HuNa), <sup>3</sup>stable B (control)



3. Hladina amoniaku v experimentálních stájích v průběhu pokusu s perorálním podáváním humátu sodného (II. perioda) – Ammonia levels in experimental stables during the experiment with peroral administration of sodium humate (period II)

<sup>1</sup>day, <sup>2</sup>stable A (HuNa), <sup>3</sup>stable B (control)

II. Výsledky bilancí dusíku (n = 8) – Results of nitrogen balance (n = 8)

Skupina <sup>1</sup>	Kontrola <sup>2</sup>	Humát sodný <sup>3</sup>
<b>Celkový příjem (g/ks/den)<sup>4</sup></b>		
$\bar{x}$	34,9	33,8
$\pm s$	3,51	4,84
V (%)	10,1	14,3
<b>Vyloučeno výkaly (g/ks/den)<sup>5</sup></b>		
$\bar{x}$	3,69	5,35 <sup>++</sup>
$\pm s$	0,68	1,06
V (%)	18,6	19,9
<b>Bilanční stravitelnost (%)<sup>6</sup></b>		
$\bar{x}$	89,4	84,2 <sup>++</sup>
$\pm s$	2,05	1,92
V (%)	2,30	2,28
<b>Vyloučeno močí (g/ks/den)<sup>7</sup></b>		
$\bar{x}$	14,6	11,2 <sup>++</sup>
$\pm s$	1,53	2,92
V (%)	10,5	26,0
<b>Uloženo ze stráveného (%)<sup>8</sup></b>		
$\bar{x}$	53,3	61,0 <sup>++</sup>
$\pm s$	3,02	5,89
V (%)	5,67	9,65

++ – P ≤ 0,01

<sup>1</sup>group, <sup>2</sup>control, <sup>3</sup>sodium humate, <sup>4</sup>total intake (g/animal/day), <sup>5</sup>N output by faeces (g/animal/day), <sup>6</sup>apparent digestibility (%), <sup>7</sup>N output by urine (g/animal/day), <sup>8</sup>N deposition from N digested (%)

průměrné hladiny amoniaku v ovzduší 6,9 ± 1,58 ppm, oproti 10,4 ± 3,35 ppm ve stáji B bez podávání humátu sodného. Kolísání průměrných hladin amoniaku v obou stájích je uvedeno na obr. 2. Průměrná teplota a relativní vlhkost byly ve stáji A 23,6 ± 1,23 °C a 69 ± 4,8 %, ve stáji B 23,1 ± 0,92 °C a 70 ± 2,3 % (tab. I).

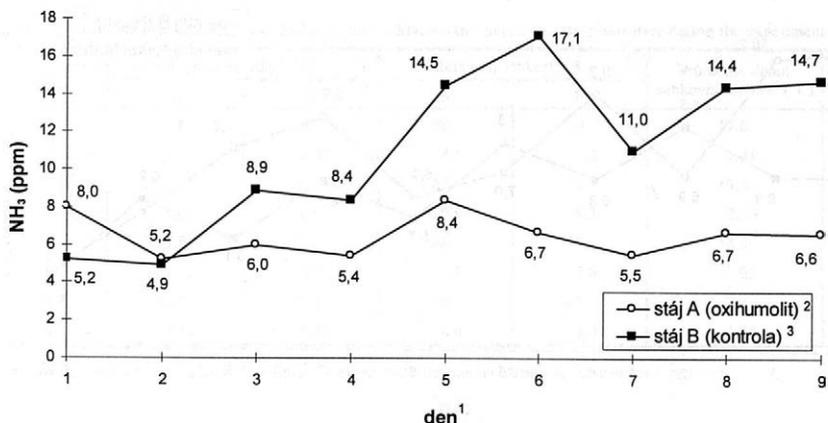
Ve II. periodě ve stáji A, bez podávání humátu sodného, byly zjištěny průměrné hladiny amoniaku ve stájovém ovzduší 6,4 ± 1,28 ppm, ve stáji B, kde byl podáván humát sodný *per os*, pak 7,6 ± 2,00 ppm. Rozdíly mezi průměrnými hladinami amoniaku nebyly v tomto období statisticky průkazné. Kolísání průměrných hladin amoniaku v obou stájích je uvedeno na obr. 3. Průměrná teplota a relativní vlhkost ve stáji A byly 24,5 ± 1,64 °C a 67 ± 9,9 %, ve stáji B 23,5 ± 0,85 °C a 72 ± 6,3 % (tab. I).

Souhrnné výsledky dusíkových bilancí (perioda I a II) jsou uvedeny v tab. II. Prasata v kontrolní skupině přijímala denně 34,9 ± 3,51 g dusíku, v pokusné skupině 33,8 ± 4,84 g dusíku. Zařazením 3% podílu humátu sodného do krmné směsi se u pokusné skupiny denní příjem dusíku snížil o 3,2 %.

U prasat v pokusné skupině, přijímajících humát sodný, bylo zjištěno statisticky vysoce průkazně vyšší (P ≤ 0,01) denní vylučování dusíku výkaly, a to 5,35 ± 1,06 g dusíku (15,8 % přijatého N) oproti 3,69 ± 0,68 g dusíku (10,6 % přijatého N) u kontrolní skupiny. Dále byla u pokusné skupiny zjištěna statisticky vysoce významně nižší (P ≤ 0,01) bilanční stravitelnost dusíku (84,2 ± 1,92 % oproti 89,4 ± 2,05 %). Denní vylučování dusíku močí bylo u skupiny přijímající humát sodný oproti kontrolní skupině vysoce statisticky významně nižší (P ≤ 0,01), a to 11,2 ± 2,92 g dusíku (33,1 % přijatého) oproti 14,6 ± 1,53 g dusíku (41,9 % přijatého) u kontrolní skupiny. Statisticky vysoce významně vyšší (P ≤ 0,01) bylo ukládání stráveného dusíku prasaty pokusné skupiny oproti kontrole (61,0 ± 5,89 % oproti 53,3 ± 3,02 %) (tab. II).

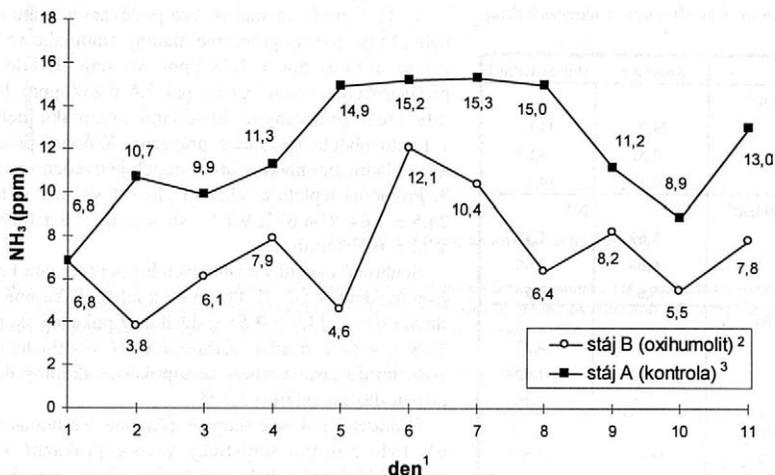
B. Aplikace oxihumolitu do stájového prostředí

Ve III. periodě byly ve stáji A, při aplikaci oxihumolitu na podlahu, zjištěny statisticky průkazně nižší



4. Hladina amoniaku v experimentálních stájích v průběhu pokusu s aplikací oxidumolitu na podlahu (III. perioda) – Ammonia levels in experimental stables during the experiment with oxyhumolith application on the floor (period III)

<sup>1</sup>day, <sup>2</sup>stable A (oxyhumolith), stable B (control)



5. Hladina amoniaku v experimentálních stájích v průběhu pokusu s aplikací oxidumolitu na podlahu (IV. perioda) – Ammonia levels in experimental stables during the experiment with oxyhumolith application on the floor (period IV)

<sup>1</sup>day, <sup>2</sup>stable A (oxyhumolith), stable B (control)

( $P \leq 0,05$ ) průměrné hladiny amoniaku ve stájovém ovzduší ( $6,5 \pm 1,12$  ppm oproti stáji B  $11,0 \pm 4,43$  ppm), kde nebyl oxihumulit na podlahu aplikován. Kolísání průměrných hladin amoniaku v obou stájích je uvedeno na obr. 4. Průměrná teplota a relativní vlhkost byly ve stáji A  $22,8 \pm 1,02$  °C a  $66 \pm 4,1$  %, ve stáji B  $24,3 \pm 0,82$  °C a  $70 \pm 5,6$  % (tab. I).

Ve IV. periodě byly ve stáji A (oxihumulit nebyl aplikován) zjištěny vysoce statisticky průkazně vyšší ( $P \leq 0,01$ ) průměrné hladiny amoniaku ( $12,0 \pm 2,89$  ppm oproti stáji B, kde byl aplikován oxihumulit,  $7,2 \pm 2,44$  ppm). Kolísání průměrných hladin amoniaku v obou

stájích je uvedeno na obr. 5. Průměrná teplota a relativní vlhkost byly ve stáji A  $19,9 \pm 0,52$  °C a  $60 \pm 4,8$  %, ve stáji B  $20,1 \pm 0,52$  °C a  $65 \pm 3,3$  % (tab. I).

## DISKUSE

Porovnáním koncentrace amoniaku ve vzorcích oxihumulitu a hladin jímž byly vystaveny, byl zjištěn nejvyšší podíl navázaného amoniaku při hladinách 5 až 50 mg/g (24,0 až 20,2 %), další zvyšování hladiny amoniaku v systému (150 až 500 mg/g) přineslo rela-

tivní snížení hladiny zachyceného amoniaku na 11,5 až 5,7 %. Uvedené výsledky experimentů prokázaly schopnost oxihumulitu vázat amoniak z vnějšího prostředí. Množství amoniaku, jež je schopen vázat jeden gram oxihumulitu, je  $27,1 \pm 1,32$  mg. Další zvyšování hladiny amoniaku v prostředí nepřineslo významné zvýšení koncentrace amoniaku navazaného na oxihumulit.

Při perorálním podávání humátů sodného byla v první periodě zjištěna průměrná hladina amoniaku ve stáji o 3,5 ppm (33,6 %) nižší oproti kontrolní skupině. Tento výsledek nebyl ve druhé periodě potvrzen, neboť průměrná hladina amoniaku byla při podávání humátů sodného vyšší o 1,2 ppm (15,8 %) oproti kontrole.

Perorální podávání huminových látek přináší pozitivní i negativní důsledky. Na jedné straně byl deklarován pozitivní biologický účinek v oblasti tvorby chelátových sloučenin s rizikovými chemickými prvky (Klöcking, 1994; Herzig aj., 1994) stimulační vlastností na antitoxickou a detoxikační činnost jater (Lotosch aj., 1988), zvýšením metabolické aktivity s vyšším přísunem živin do extracelulární tekutiny (Visser, 1988) apod. Naproti tomu bylo potvrzeno, že vysoký příjem huminových kyselin ve vodě ovlivnil výskyt poruch štítné žlázy v populaci (Huang aj., 1994). Vzhledem k ne zcela bezproblémovým výsledkům pokusů s perorálním podáváním huminových látek zvířatům, spojených například s purifikací huminových látek, bude třeba důsledky tohoto způsobu aplikace i nadále studovat.

Při aplikaci mletého oxihumulitu na podlahu experimentálních stájí byla ve třetí periodě zjištěna nižší průměrná hladina amoniaku ve stáji s aplikovaným oxihumulitem o 4,5 ppm (tj. 40,9 %). Tento výsledek byl potvrzen i ve čtvrté periodě, kdy byla průměrná hladina amoniaku ve stáji s aplikovaným oxihumulitem nižší o 4,8 ppm (tj. 40,0 %) oproti kontrole. Snížení emisí amoniaku o 40 % představuje, při produkci amoniaku u prasat 17,5 až 30,0 kg/DJ (Konopásek, 1995), pokles na 10,5 až 18,0 kg/DJ. Tento pokles je srovnatelný s výsledky pokusů prováděných například s přípravkem obsahujícím výtažky rostliny *Yucca schidigera*, kdy Kott aj. (1997) udávají průměrný obsah amoniaku v halách pro 23 750 ks nosnic bez podávání 9,10 mg/m<sup>3</sup> a s podáváním přípravku v krmné směsi 4,36 mg/m<sup>3</sup>, tj. nižší o 52 %.

V bilančním pokusu došlo při perorálním podávání humátů sodného ke zvýšení hladiny dusíku ve vyloučených výkalech o 45 % a snížení exkrece dusíku močí o 23,3 %. Bilanční (zdánlivá) stravitelnost dusíku se snížila, ale došlo k vyššímu využití stráveného dusíku prasaty v pokusné skupině. Denní snížení exkrece dusíku výkaly a močí celkem činilo 9,5 %.

Snížení exkrece dusíku do prostředí, a následně snížení množství volného amoniaku, je možné také opatřeními ve výživě prasat. Snížení vylučování dusíku močí a výkaly lze dosáhnout využíváním krmiv s vysokou stravitelností dusíkatých látek, zvýšením kvality proteinu a snížením obsahu dusíku v krmné dávce na minimum potřeby, při současném vybalancování esenciálních aminokyselin.

Podle Šimečka aj. (1996) vybalancováním esenciálních aminokyselin (lyzinu, metioninu, tryptofanu a treoninu) v krmné dávce prasat tak, aby se blížily ideálnímu proteinu, dojde k významnému poklesu obsahu dusíkatých látek v dietě a následně k poklesu exkrece dusíku močí. Valaja aj. (1993) uvádějí snížení exkrece dusíku o 29 % při použití diety s redukováným obsahem dusíkatých látek a o 20 % zařazením syntetického lyzinu a treoninu. Z našich autorů například Prokop aj. (1994) uvádějí snížení exkrece dusíku o 14 až 16 %, bez snížení produkční účinnosti krmných směsí.

Kombinací doporučených opatření ve výživě prasat, s aplikací huminových látek do krmiva, respektive do stájového prostředí, lze omezit emise amoniaku, a tím přispět nejen ke zlepšení podmínek stájového prostředí s příznivým dopadem na zdraví ustájených zvířat a ošetřujícího personálu, ale i ke zmírnění negativních vlivů chovů prasat na životní prostředí.

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# ADSORPTION PROPERTIES OF NATURAL ZEOLITE AND BENTONITE IN PIG SLURRY FROM THE MICROBIOLOGICAL POINT OF VIEW

## ADSORPČNÉ VLASTNOSTI PRÍRODNÉHO ZEOLITU A BENTONITU V HNOJOVICI OŠÍPANÝCH Z MIKROBIOLOGICKÉHO HĽADISKA

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**ABSTRACT:** Zeolites and bentonites are natural sorbents which, due to their adsorption properties and high affinity to ammonium ions, are capable of removing ammonium and undesirable odours from the environment and, because of that, can appear beneficial in the treatment of pig excrements. In our experiments we studied the influence of zeolite and bentonite on physical-chemical and microbiological parameters of pig slurry. After 28 days of contact of pig slurry either with zeolite or with bentonite, the plate counts of psychrophilic and mesophilic microorganisms decreased by 3 orders of magnitude in comparison with the control. The efficiency of removal of psychrophilic and mesophilic microorganisms was 98.9% and 100%, respectively. Coliform microorganisms were not detected after 14 days of the treatment of slurry either with zeolite or with bentonite. No fecal coliform microorganisms were detected in bentonite-treated slurry after 7 days of contact and in zeolite-treated slurry after 14 days of contact. During the experiment a decrease in the concentration of ammonium nitrogen ( $N-NH_4^+$ ), total nitrogen ( $N_t$ ), total phosphorus ( $P_t$ ) and chemical oxygen demand (COD) was observed. The decrease in comparison with the control was significant for  $N-NH_4^+$  ( $P < 0.05$ ),  $N_t$  ( $P < 0.05$ ),  $P_t$  ( $P < 0.05$ ). The effectiveness of removal expressed in per cent was 59.2% for zeolite and 60.2% for bentonite. Both sorbents contributed to better sedimentation of suspended particles and decrease in odour. The results point to the possibility of utilization of zeolite and bentonite in the initial stages of pig excrement treatment.

pig slurry; zeolite; bentonite; microbial plate counts; physical-chemical parameters; ammonium removal

**ABSTRAKT:** Zeolity a bentonity sú prírodné sorbenty, ktoré sú schopné v dôsledku svojich adsorbčných vlastností a vysokej afinity k amónnym iónom odstraňovať amoniak a neželateľný zápach z prostredia, a vzhľadom na to sú perspektívne pri úprave exkrementov ošipáných. V našich pokusoch sme študovali vplyv zeolitu a bentonitu na fyzikálno-chemické a mikrobiologické parametre hnojovice ošipáných. Po 28 dňoch kontaktu hnojovice so zeolitom alebo bentonitom počty psychrofilných a mezofilných mikroorganizmov boli znížené o tri rády v porovnaní s kontrolou. Účinnosť odstraňovania dosahovala 98,9 % pre psychrofilné a 100 % pre mezofilné mikroorganizmy. Koliformné mikroorganizmy neboli zistené za 14 dní po ošetrovaní hnojovice, či už so zeolitom alebo bentonitom. Fekálne koliformné mikroorganizmy neboli detekované v hnojovici ošetrovanej bentonitom po siedmich dňoch kontaktu. Počas pokusu bolo pozorované značné zníženie koncentrácie amoniakálneho dusíka ( $N-NH_4^+$ ), celkového dusíka ( $N_t$ ), celkového fosforu ( $P_t$ ), ako aj chemickej spotreby kyslíka (CHSK). Zníženie v porovnaní s kontrolou bolo významné pre  $N-NH_4^+$  ( $P < 0,05$ ),  $N_t$  ( $P < 0,05$ ),  $P_t$  ( $P < 0,05$ ). Účinnosť odstraňovania  $N-NH_4^+$  predstavovala 59,2 % pre zeolit a 60,2 % pre bentonit. Obidva sorbenty prispeli k lepšej sedimentácii suspendovaných častíc a zníženiu zápalu. Získané výsledky poukazujú na možnosť využitia zeolitu a bentonitu v počiatočných štádiách úpravy exkrementov ošipáných.

hnojovica ošipáných; zeolit; bentonit; počty mikroorganizmov; fyzikálno-chemické parametre; odstraňovanie amoniaku

### INTRODUCTION

Agriculture is one of the important sources of environmental pollution. Considerable part of this pollution is released by large-capacity farms particularly those rearing pigs and poultry.

When properly treated and disposed of, the farm animal excrements are an important source of nutrients

and should be returned to agricultural soil (Ondrašovič et al., 1996; Gajdoš, 1998). On the other hand, their improper handling can present risks to the environment resulting from their chemical and microbiological composition and the associated emissions.

Considerable portion of ammonia produced by bacterial and enzymatic activity during the decomposition of excrements is released into the air of animal hous-

ings and pollutes the surrounding area. It has an adverse effect on the housed animals, increases their susceptibility to aerogenic infections and when released to the atmosphere, it contributes to acidification of soil and pollution of water (Chiumenti et al., 1994). The adverse impact of large quantities of excrements on the environment can be decreased by their treatment in wastewater treatment plants. Wastewaters from large-capacity pig fattening are processed mostly by aerobic biological processes. In the first stage of this process the excrement solids are separated from the liquid fraction. The liquid fraction is treated chemically and biologically and the effluent is discharged into the recipient. The solid fraction is disposed of on field heaps or landfills and, after some storage, it is used for manuring purposes. However, the effective processing and subsequent utilization of animal excrements still remains an issue which attracts considerable attention of researchers in all countries with intensive animal production (Venglovský et al., 1994; Juriš et al., 1994; Králová et al., 1994; Kovanda and Růžek, 1996).

Some natural materials, such as zeolites and bentonites, have been used in the process of the treatment of animal wastes. Zeolites are crystalline hydrated aluminosilicates containing cations of alkaline metals and metals of alkaline earths. They exhibit considerable affinity to  $\text{NH}_4^+$  ions and the combination of their adsorption and ion-exchange properties forms the basis for their use in the process of wastewater treatment. Bentonites are natural aluminosilicates. The essential component of bentonites is montmorillonite having crystals of the smallest size of all clay materials (Dvořák, 1989).

Our study focused on investigation into the influence of natural zeolite (clinoptilolite) and bentonite, when added to the liquid fraction of pig slurry before its biological treatment, with regard to physical-chemical properties of the mixture and plate counts of selected groups of microorganisms after storage at ambient temperature.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

Our experiments were carried out using powder zeolite from Nižný Hrabovec, containing approximately 40–56% of clinoptilolite, mostly in the calcium-potassium form, and powder bentonite from Jeřšovský Potok, Slovak Republic.

Zeolite and bentonite were added to 5 l of slurry at the amount of 50 g per 1 l. The mixture obtained was mixed for 10 min and stored at laboratory temperature. Native slurry served as a control. During the storage the temperature of slurry ranged from 18 to 19 °C. Samples for microbiological and physical-chemical examination were taken after 30 min, 2, 5 and 24 h, and 7, 14 and 28 days of storage. They were examined for plate counts of psychrophilic, mesophilic, coliform and fecal coliform microorganisms, carried out according to STN 83 0531 and Štěpánek (1982). The physical-chemical examination included determination of pH, dry mat-

ter content (DM), ammonium nitrogen ( $\text{N-NH}_4^+$ ), total nitrogen ( $\text{N}_t$ ), total phosphorus ( $\text{P}_t$ ), and chemical oxygen demand (COD). It was carried out according to STN 83 0540, Sedláček (1978), and the standard APHA methods (1985). The results were processed statistically using GraphPad PRISM *t*-tests.

## RESULTS

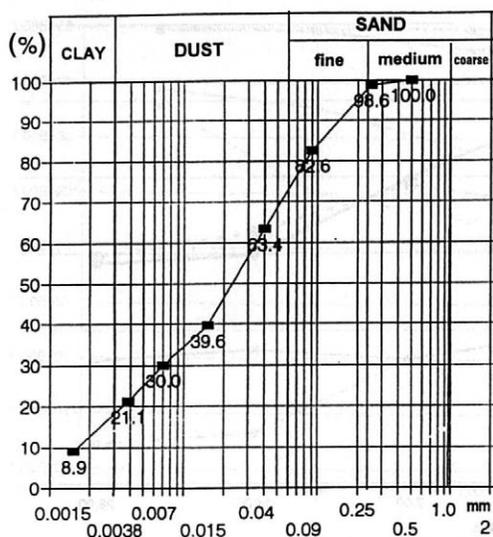
Tab. I shows chemical characteristics of zeolite and bentonite used in our experiments. Fig. 1 and 2 illustrate the distribution of grain size of the sorbents mentioned.

The effect of addition of zeolite and bentonite to pig slurry with regard to plate counts of selected microorganisms in comparison with the control is shown in Tab. II and Figs. 3, 4 and 5. Tab. III presents physical-chemical parameters of the slurries determined in the course of the experiment.

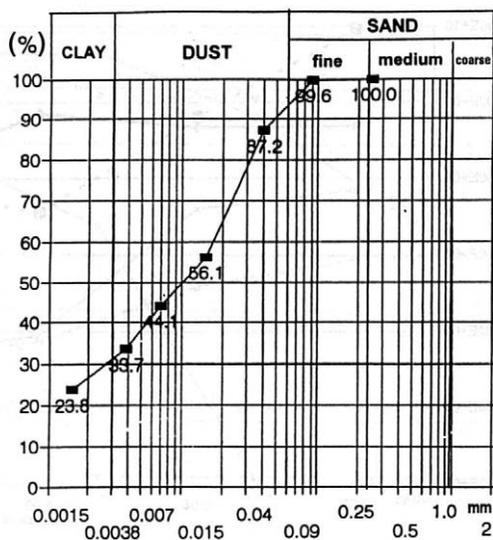
I. Chemical characteristics of sorbents

Parameter	Zeolite	Bentonite
% dry matter		
SiO <sub>2</sub>	71.090	64.970
Al <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	12.110	17.780
Fe <sub>2</sub> O <sub>3</sub>	1.320	2.770
TiO <sub>2</sub>	0.138	0.126
CaO	3.330	2.070
MgO	0.850	3.910
MnO	0.020	0.126
P <sub>2</sub> O <sub>5</sub>	0.050	0.040
Na <sub>2</sub> O	0.430	0.770
K <sub>2</sub> O	3.320	1.070
Loss on ignition (%)	7.440	7.050
H <sub>2</sub> O (%)	4.620	9.550
ppm dry matter		
As	0.600	109.000
Sb	0.200	14.800
Se	<0.1	<0.1
Cr	<5	20.000
V	5.000	<5
Be	0.800	2.500
Ni	<2	<2
Zn	35.000	45.000
Pb	8.000	18.000
Cu	5.000	10.000
Cd	<0.1	<0.1
Co	<1	<1
AEC <sup>*</sup> (0.15 M NH <sub>4</sub> Cl)	0.774	0.579
mol/kg		
Na <sup>+</sup> (%)	0.021	0.184
K <sup>+</sup> (%)	0.822	0.069
Ca <sup>2+</sup> (%)	0.787	0.645
Mg <sup>2+</sup> (%)	0.030	0.130

\* anion exchange capacity



1. Grain-size distribution of zeolite



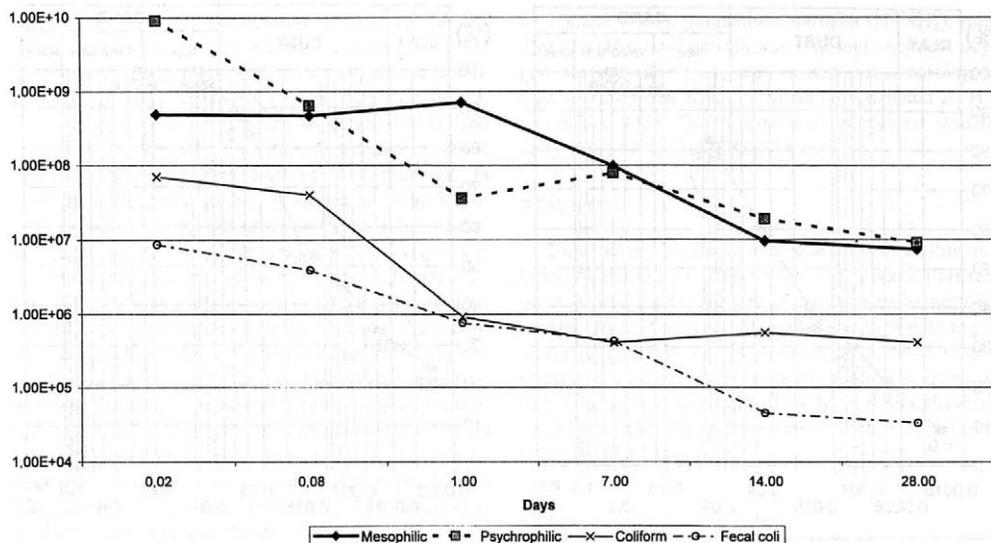
2. Grain-size distribution of bentonite

## II. Microbiological parameters of slurry treated with zeolite and bentonite in comparison with the control

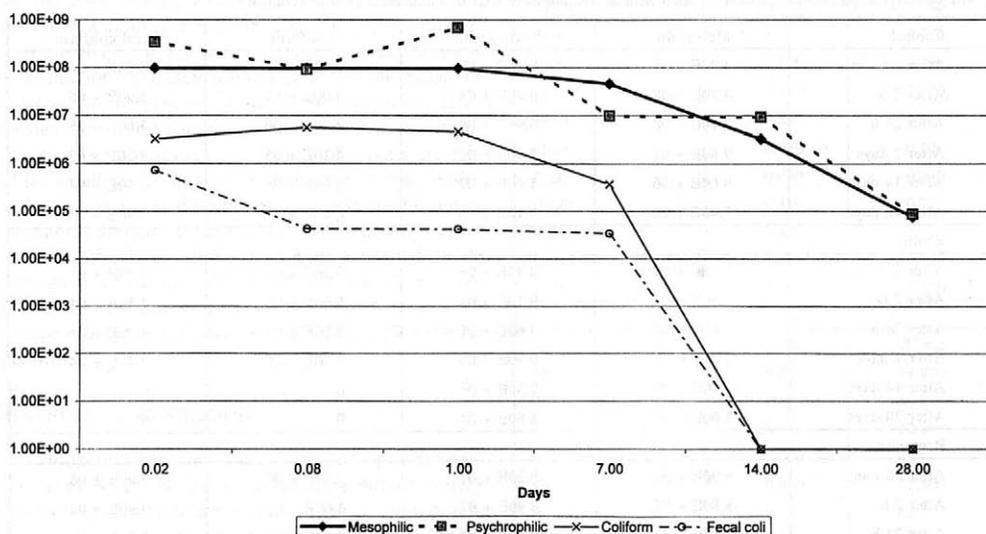
Control	Mesophilic	Psychrophilic	Coliform	Fecal coliform
After 30 min	4.90E + 08	9.10E + 09	7.00E + 07	8.60E + 06
After 2 h	4.70E + 08	6.40E + 08	4.00E + 07	3.90E + 06
After 24 h	7.10E + 08	6.90E + 08	4.60E + 06	7.60E + 05
After 7 days	9.80E + 07	7.90E + 07	4.10E + 05	4.30E + 05
After 14 days	9.60E + 06	1.90E + 07	5.60E + 05	4.50E + 04
After 28 days	7.40E + 06	9.10E + 06	4.10E + 05	3.30E + 04
<b>Zeolite</b>				
After 30 min	9.80E + 07	3.40E + 08	3.30E + 06	7.30E + 05
After 2 h	9.60E + 07	9.10E + 07	5.60E + 06	4.30E + 04
After 24 h	9.60E + 07	3.60E + 07	9.20E + 05	4.20E + 04
After 7 days	4.60E + 07	9.90E + 06	3.70E + 05	3.40E + 04
After 14 days	3.30E + 06	9.30E + 06	0	0
After 28 days	7.60E + 04	8.80E + 04	0	0
<b>Bentonite</b>				
After 30 min	8.90E + 07	9.20E + 07	7.60E + 06	3.90E + 06
After 2 h	8.80E + 07	8.90E + 07	3.60E + 06	9.80E + 04
After 24 h	4.10E + 07	9.30E + 07	5.60E + 05	3.20E + 04
After 7 days	4.10E + 07	7.40E + 06	3.10E + 04	0
After 14 days	3.20E + 06	6.80E + 06	0	0
After 28 days	4.30E + 0	6.40E + 04	0	0

Fecal coliform counts decreased below the detectable level by day 7 of storage in the mixture with bentonite and by day 14 in the mixture with zeolite while in the control we detected fecal coliform microorganisms up to the end of the experiment. Coliform microorganisms were not detected in the slurries treated with bentonite or zeolite after 14 days of storage. The most

marked differences in plate counts of psychrophilic and mesophilic microorganisms were observed after 28 days of storage when a decrease by 3 orders of magnitude was observed in the mixtures with zeolite and bentonite in comparison with the control. The effectiveness of decrease expressed in per cent ranged from 98.9 to 100 (Tab. II).



3. Plate counts of selected groups of microorganisms during the experiment in pig slurry - control

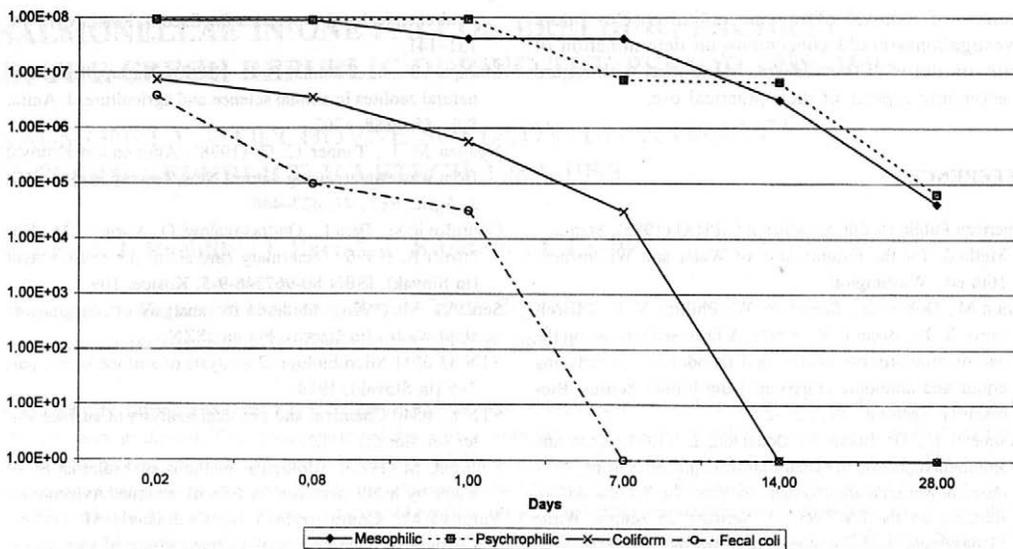


4. Plate counts of selected groups of microorganisms during the experiment in pig slurry amended with zeolite

The mixtures with zeolite and bentonite differed from the control in respect of sedimentation. Sedimentation of suspended solids in the zeolite mixture was rather rapid while the mixture with bentonite formed almost homogeneous gelatinous slurry without any supernatant. The latter separated to the solid and liquid fractions only after almost 24 h of standing. This was confirmed by the values of DM and other chemical parameters shown in Tab. III.

Tab. III indicates considerable differences in pH between mixtures with zeolite and bentonite as soon as after 24 hours of contact (7.06 versus 7.90). The difference increased always to the end of the experiment.

Significant differences were observed for the concentration of  $N-NH_4^+$  ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the supernatants. Its value in the mixture with zeolite decreased to 709.69 mg/l after 2 h of contact (control value = 1 123.6 mg/l) and to 453.83 mg/l after 14 days of contact (control



5. Plate counts of selected groups of microorganisms during the experiment in pig slurry amended with bentonite

value = 1 111.2 mg/l). The supernatant of the mixture with bentonite showed a decrease in this parameter after 5 h of contact. The decrease in the content of ammonia nitrogen for both mixtures in comparison with the control was significant on day 14 when the percentage of decrease reached 59.2% for zeolite and 60.2% for bentonite, which suggests high affinity of both sorbents for  $N-NH_4^+$ .

COD is a measure of chemically oxidizable organic portion of the waste. The values of COD showed an evident decrease for the mixture with zeolite as soon as after 5 h of contact while for bentonite 24 h elapsed before a decrease in this parameter was observed. Considerable decrease in COD for both sorbents was observed after 7 and 14 days.

The decrease in total nitrogen, observed between the supernatants of both mixtures and the control, significant after 7 and 14 days of contact, corresponded to the decrease in ammonia nitrogen ( $P < 0.05$ ).

A marked influence of zeolite and bentonite was observed with regard to the values of total phosphorus in the supernatants. The greatest decrease was observed after 14 days of contact for both zeolite and bentonite (effectiveness 93.2% and 94.7%, resp.).

## DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Little attention has been paid to the evaluation of the influence of the sorbents mentioned on microbiological parameters and sedimentation/removal of suspended solids. According to Mumpton and Fishman (1977), the internal structure of zeolite, containing interconnected channels and voids of nanometer dimensions, allows

entry of ammonium ions but not viruses or bacteria. The knowledge obtained in our experiments points to the influence of bentonite and zeolite on some selected groups of microorganisms important in hygienic evaluations, namely coliform and fecal coliform microorganisms, as the slurry treated with zeolite did not contain any fecal coliforms after 14 days of contact and that treated with bentonite after 7 days of contact.

The effectiveness of zeolite in the removal of ammonia and odours in relation to animal production was studied by many authors abroad (Amon et al., 1997, and others) and at home (Vargová et al., 1997). Nguyen and Tanner (1998) investigated the removal of ammonia from wastewaters using zeolite from New Zealand deposits and observed 87–98% effectiveness.

The possibilities of utilization of zeolite and bentonite in the treatment of farm animal excrements were described (Henriksen and Berthelsen, 1989; Vargová et al., 1996) already in the initial stages when they can contribute to better sedimentation of suspended solids, adsorption of nutrients and decrease in total organic contamination. The solid phase amended with zeolite can find better use in plant production as zeolites and bentonites favourably affect the structural properties of soil, retention of water and the release of nutrients.

The effect of zeolite on sedimentation properties of slurry was observed already after 30 min while the effect of bentonite was visible only after 24 h (separation of solid and liquid fractions). However, after the initial period, the contribution of bentonite to sedimentation of slurry was higher than that of zeolite, which is in an agreement with observations of Henriksen and Berthelsen (1989). We can expect that the simultaneous use of both sorbents could further enhance the effec-

tiveness of removal of organic pollution. Our future investigations should concentrate on determination of optimum doses of the sorbents mentioned with regard to economic aspects of their practical use.

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# SALMONELLAE IN ONE FALCON BREEDING FACILITY IN THE CZECH REPUBLIC DURING THE PERIOD 1989–1993\*

## SALMONELY V ODCHOVNĚ SOKOLOVITÝCH DRAVCŮ V ČESKÉ REPUBLICE V LETECH 1989–1993

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**ABSTRACT:** During 1989 and 1993, a total of 837 samples of biological materials from the Falcon Breeding Facility in Milotice were examined. Twenty-six strains of *Salmonella* were isolated from 680 samples of eggs, young birds, faeces and the organs of kept animals, whereas 28 strains were isolated from 157 samples of animals used as food. The isolated *Salmonellae* belonged to the serotypes *Salmonella enteritidis* (25 strains), *S. typhimurium* (28 strains) and *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen* (one strain). Analysis of plasmid profiles allowed the further classification of *S. enteritidis* strains into three subtypes and *S. typhimurium* into two subtypes. Chronologically it was possible to see the incidence of individual *Salmonella* subtypes. This result eliminated a long-term infection of falconid birds of prey with one *Salmonella* strain. In two cases the source of *Salmonella* for falcons originated from food animals (mice: source of *S. typhimurium*, chickens: source of *S. enteritidis*). In other cases the infection source was not found. Although *Salmonellae* were detected in the organs of one falconid bird and in 4 laid eggs of falconids, we failed to detect the circulating antibodies against *S. pullorum* antigen by using rapid slide agglutination test. Analysis of age resistance of the falconid birds revealed that *Salmonellae* were most frequently found in birds from the age of day 1 to 1 year or older than 3 years. Analysis of species sensitivity showed that *Salmonellae* were detected in 14 of 37 saker falcons (*Falco cherrug*), in 4 of 27 peregrine falcons (*F. peregrinus*), in both kestrels (*F. tinunculus*), in one of two hobby falcons (*F. subbuteo*), in 4 of 12 birds of a cross-breed (*F. cherrug* x *F. peregrinus*) and in one of four goshawks (*Accipiter gentilis*). *Salmonella* was isolated from two out of twenty birds which had diarrhoea. No *Salmonella* was isolated in faecal samples from 91 falcons (26 positive birds) and eggs from 30 females (4 females positive).

*Falconidae; Salmonella enteritidis; Salmonella typhimurium; plasmid profile; rearing of falconid birds of prey*

**ABSTRAKT:** V letech 1989 až 1993 bylo v Odchovně sokolovitých dravců v Miloticích vyšetřeno celkem 837 vzorků biologického materiálu. Z 680 vzorků vajec, mláďat, trusu i orgánů chovaných dravců bylo izolováno 26 kmenů a ze 157 vzorků krmných zvířat bylo izolováno 28 kmenů salmonel. Izolované salmonely patřily k sérotypům *Salmonella enteritidis* (25 kmenů), *S. typhimurium* (28 kmenů) a *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen* (1 kmen). Analýzou plazmidových profilů bylo možné jednotlivé izolované kmény *S. enteritidis* dále členit do tří a *S. typhimurium* do dvou subtypů. Časová posloupnost výskytu jednotlivých subtypů salmonel vyloučila dlouhodobou infekci dravců několika kmény s následnou dlouhodobější cirkulací. Zdrojem salmonel dravců byly ve dvou případech krmná zvířata (myši: zdroj *S. typhimurium*, kuřata: zdroj *S. enteritidis*). V ostatních případech se zdroje infekce salmonel nepodařilo zjistit. Přestože salmonely byly prokázány v orgánech jednoho dravce a ve čtyřech snesených vejcích sokolovitých dravců, nepodařilo se nám prokázat při plošném vyšetření rychlou sklíčkovou aglutinací cirkulující protilátky v krvi proti antigenu *S. pullorum*. Při rozboru věkové rezistence dravců byly salmonely nejčastěji zjištěny u dravců do věku jednoho roku, nebo starších tří let. Při rozboru druhové vnímavosti byly salmonely prokázány u 14 ze 37 vyšetřovaných rarohů velkých (*Falco cherrug*), u čtyř ze 27 vyšetřovaných sokolů stěhovavých (*F. peregrinus*), u obou poštolek obecných (*F. tinunculus*), u jednoho ostříže lesního (*F. subbuteo*), čtyř ze 12 kříženců (*F. cherrug* x *F. peregrinus*) a u jednoho ze čtyř jestřábů lesních (*Accipiter gentilis*). Z celkového počtu dvaceti dravců s klinickými příznaky průjmu byly salmonely izolovány pouze u dvou z nich. Při opakovaném vyšetřování trusu od 91 dravců (26 pozitivních dravců) a od 30 samic (čtyři samice pozitivní) nebylo zjištěno opakované vylučování salmonel.

*Falconidae; Salmonella enteritidis; Salmonella typhimurium; plazmidový profil; odchov sokolovitých dravců*

\* The submitted study was in 1991–1992 supported by the Ministry of Culture of the Czech Republic.

## INTRODUCTION

The Falcon Breeding Facility has been established in Milotice, Czech Republic since 1979 to save falconid birds and reintroduce young birds to the wild, especially peregrine falcon (*Falco peregrinus*) and saker falcon (*F. cherrug*). The health status of the birds was systematically monitored through veterinary examinations during the period 1989–1993.

Regarding the fact that a great proportion of the food of birds of prey in their natural habitat comes from sick animals, they acquire a high natural resistance against infectious diseases (Isenbügel and Rübél, 1987). Occurrence of Salmonellae and their impact on health has already been monitored in diurnal and nocturnal birds of prey. Various Salmonella serovars, e.g. *Salmonella typhimurium*, *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen*, *S. enteritidis*, *S. newport*, *S. heidelberg*, *S. braenderup*, *S. havana*, *S. virchow* and *S. livingstone* were isolated. On the other hand, Needham et al. (1979) found no Salmonella in intestinal microflora of 40 birds of prey in nature. Therefore, the assumption of a very low probability of transmission of Salmonella infection from birds in nature to those living in captivity was made. However in captive bred falconid birds the living conditions differ markedly when compared to those of birds in their natural surroundings. A variety of stresses (way of rearing, composition and method of serving the food, concentration of birds in a small area, frequent disturbances, etc.) have a negative impact on their natural resistance to different infectious agents. In captive bred falconids, a viral infection causing Newcastle Disease and herpesvirus was detected (Gough et al., 1993; Samour and Cooper, 1993), mycoplasma and bacterial disease as avian tuberculosis, and staphylococcus infections caused by *Staphylococcus aureus* and *Staph. epidermidis* were also detected (Furr et al., 1977; Piechocki, 1981; Trommer, 1988; Bangert et al., 1988; Wernery et al., 1992; Štika et al., 1989). Secondary infections caused by *Escherichia coli* also often occur due to weak organism. Of fungal diseases aspergilosis and candidosis were described in falconid birds (Isenbügel and Rübél, 1987). Another bacterial and parasitic diseases might also be a severe complication in the rearing of captive falconids (Cooper, 1977; Lütghen, 1978a, b; Sykes et al., 1981; Böer, 1982; Kirkpatrick and Trexler-Myren, 1986; Battisti et al., 1998).

The major portion of feed for captive falconid birds is composed from chickens and Salmonellosis is one of the most frequent bacterial infection in poultry (Badi et al., 1992). Hence, it is important to study the incidence and importance of Salmonellae in the falcon breeding facility. To investigate the epidemiology of Salmonella infections, molecular biology techniques beside serotyping are often used. Especially the analysis of plasmid profile is often used due to its rapidity and relative feasibility (Wachsmuth et al., 1991; Dorn et al., 1992; Rychlík et al., 1993). This is a study on Salmonella infections and source of Salmonella infection in falconid

birds at the Falcon Breeding Facility at Milotice, Czech Republic during 1989 and 1993 by using the conventional bacteriological techniques as well as a molecular biology technique such as plasmid profile analysis.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Bacteriological examinations of biological materials

#### Samples

The total of 837 biological materials (Tab. I) were examined for the presence of Salmonellae in the Falcon Breeding Facility in Milotice during the period 1989 to 1993. Four hundred and forty two faecal samples from 91 birds and 221 unfertilised eggs, or eggs with dead embryo, from 30 females falcons were examined (Tab. II).

#### Sampling of materials

Due to the accepted irregular excretion of Salmonellae by infected falconid birds, individual samples of faeces were collected three times in two-day intervals. Additional samples of faeces were collected based on the results of examination or under changed health status of the falconid birds. The eggs were aseptically opened prior to sampling, half of the yolk or embryos liver was sampled for the presence of xenobiotics and the other half was by culture examined for Salmonellae. Parenchymatous organs (liver, spleen kidney) from 15 dead falconid birds and 157 samples of animals used as food (chickens, mice, sewer-rats, quails) were collected at necropsy for culture examination. Two faecal samples were collected from the equipment used to introduce the birds back to nature.

#### Culture examinations for Salmonellae

Samples collected during necropsy were propagated in selective-propagating medium (selenite medium or Rappaport-Vassiliadis medium; Imuna, Šarišské Michalany, Slovakia) at 43 °C for 48 hrs. After 24 and 48 hrs of the growth they were plated onto selective-differential media (DC agar supplemented with 1% saccharose and XLD agar; Imuna, Šarišské Michalany, Slovakia). Solid media were assessed after 24 and 48 h of cultivation at 37 °C. Suspected colonies were further identified by biochemical reactions using Enterotest I (Lachema, Brno, Czech Republic). Serotyping of the isolated Salmonella was performed by agglutination tests using mixed serum against Salmonellae (Bioveta, Ivanovice na Hané, Czech Republic, monovalent sera, ÚSOL Prague, Czech Republic). Faecal samples were resuscitated overnight in a buffered peptone water at 37 °C prior to above procedure.

## I. Biological material examined for the presence of Salmonellae in the period 1989–1993

Year	Materials examined	Number of samples	Number of strains	%	<i>S. enteritidis</i>	<i>S. typhimurium</i>
1989	eggs of raptors	9	0	0	0	0
	eggs of raptors	36	0	0	0	0
1990	organs of raptors (juv.)	4	0	0	0	0
	faeces of raptors	22	0	0	0	0
	eggs of raptors	61	0	0	0	0
1991	organs of raptors (juv.)	5	0	0	0	0
	organs of raptors (pul.)	2	0	0	0	0
	faeces of raptors	70	8	11.4	1	7
	mice organs	10	10	100	0	10
	chicks organs	40	10	25.0	10	0
	sewer-rat organs	3	0	0	0	0
	eggs of raptors	75	4	5.3	1	3
	organs of raptors (juv.)	3	0	0	0	0
	organs of raptors (pul.)	13	1	7.7	0	1*
	faeces of raptors	327	13	4.0	13	0
1992	chicks organs	50	8	16.0	0	8
	mice organs	26	0	0	0	0
	sewer-rat organs	2	0	0	0	0
	quail organs	5	0	0	0	0
	eggs of quails	17	0	0	0	0
	faeces from outlet equipment	2	0	0	0	0
	eggs of raptors	30	0	0	0	0
1993	faeces of raptors	21	0	0	0	0
	quail organs	4	0	0	0	0
Total (1989–1993)		837	54	6.5	25	29
Eggs of raptors		211	4	0.4	1	3
Faeces of raptors		442	21	4.8	14	7
Parenchymatous organs of raptors		27	1	3.7	0	1*
Other samples		157	28	17.6	10	18

## Explanations:

\* *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen*

juv. = young bird up to 12 months

pul. = adult bird of prey

## Analysis of plasmid profiles

The analysis of plasmid profiles of all the obtained *Salmonella* strains were used for epizootiological study (Rychlík et al., 1993, 1999). Shortly, the procedure consists of plasmid DNA purification, its digestion with restriction endonucleases *TaqI* and *PstI*, electrophoresis, charge-coupled device camera scanning of the gels, and an analysis of the restriction patterns with the software Gel Manager.

## Serological examination

Rapid slide agglutination of serum from 20 breeding falcons was done using *S. pullorum* antigen (Bioveta, Ivanovice na Hané, Czech Republic).

## RESULTS

Serotyping and analysis of plasmid profiles of the isolated *Salmonella* strains

Isolated *Salmonella* strains and their serotypes (Tab. I)

Of 837 samples of biological materials, 54 *Salmonella* strains were isolated over the period 1989–1993: 25 *S. enteritidis* strains, 29 *S. typhimurium* strains. Twenty-one strains (14 *S. enteritidis* strains and 7 *S. typhimurium* strains) from the faecal samples of falcons and 4 strains (one *S. enteritidis* strain and 3 *S. typhimurium* strains) from 4 eggs with dead embryos were isolated. In addition, 10 *S. typhimurium* strains from the organs of mice and 18 strains (10 *S. enteritidis* strains and 8 *S. ty-*

II. Species proportion of the captive birds of prey of which in 1989–1993 biological material was examined for the presence of Salmonellae

Bird species	Number of faeces Number of raptors	Culture positive	%	Number of eggs Number of raptors	Culture positive	%
Peregrine falcon <i>Falco peregrinus</i>	124 27	5 4	4.0 14.8	75 10	1 1	1.3 10.0
Saker falcon <i>Falco cherrug</i>	172 37	14 14	8.1 36.8	129 17	3 3	2.3 17.7
Merlin <i>Falco columbarius</i>	6 2	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Kestrel <i>Falco tinnunculus</i>	13 2	2 2	15.4 100	0 0	0 0	0 0
Lanner falcon <i>Falco biarmicus</i>	5 1	0 0	0 0	3 1	0 0	0 0
Hobby falcon <i>Falco subbuteo</i>	6 2	1 1	16.7 50	0 0	0 0	0 0
Gyrfalcon <i>Falco rusticolus</i>	18 2	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Crosses gyrfalcon x saker falcon	67 12	4 4	6.0 33.3	2 1	0 0	0 0
Goshawk <i>Accipiter gentilis</i>	27 4	1 1	37.0 25.0	2 1	0 0	0 0
Sparrowhawk <i>Accipiter nisus</i>	1 1	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Eagle-owl <i>Bubo bubo</i>	1 1	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0	0 0
Total						
Number of samples	440	27	6.1	211	4	6.2
Number of birds	91	26	28.6	30	4	13.3

*phimurium* strains) from the organs of chickens were isolated.

**Analysis of plasmid profiles (Tab. III)**

Plasmid profiles of all isolated strains were examined. Among 24 *S. enteritidis* strains three different DNA subtypes SE-A ( $n = 14$ ), SE-B ( $n = 4$ ), SE-C ( $n = 7$ ) and two different DNA subtypes STM-A ( $n = 17$ ) and STM-B ( $n = 11$ ) among 28 *S. typhimurium* strains were detected. One strain *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen* had different DNA type STMvC-A.

**Chronological examination of biological materials and spreading of Salmonella infections**

Examinations during 1989 and 1990 (Tab. I)

No Salmonellae were detected in the bacteriological examinations of 71 samples of biological materials (45 eggs, 26 samples of faeces).

Examinations in 1991 (Tab. I)

Salmonellae were isolated from faeces of 8 birds only at examination in November (one *S. enteritidis* strain and 7 *S. typhimurium* strains). From the organs

of all 10 examined mice (5 mice showing loss of appetite and somnolence, 5 mice without clinical signs) 10 *S. typhimurium* strains were isolated. Analysis of plasmid profile was performed on all *S. typhimurium* strains and it was designated as STM-A.

Nine strains of *S. enteritidis* were isolated from the organs of 20 chickens (>10 days old) which had a high mortality rate. Additional examination of 10 chickens (killed at 2 days of age and then kept frozen) from the same supply were negative. Plasmid profiles of *S. enteritidis* strains from chickens and an infected falcon were the same and these were designated as subtype SE-A (Tab. III). In December 1991, ten chickens from another hatchery were examined, and one strain of *S. enteritidis* with the same subtype SE-A was identified.

No Salmonella was isolated from the parenchymatous organs (liver, spleen kidney) and intestinal contents (small intestine, caecum) of 7 dead falconids and their progenies. In December, serological examinations of 20 adult falconid birds with antigen *S. pullorum* were negative.

Examinations in 1992 (Tab. III)

In January pre-nesting seasons, *S. enteritidis* was isolated from the faecal samples of four breeding birds. Plasmid profiles of three isolates were classified as subtype SE-C, and one strain as subtype SE-B.

III. Occurrence of individual plasmid subtypes *S. enteritidis* a *S. typhimurium* in Falcon Breeding Facility in Milotice (1991–1992)

Year	1991					1992		
	November	December	March	April	May	June	July	September
Plasmid type								
SE-A	faeces of raptor (1)	organs of chicks II (1)	faeces of raptor (1)	eggs of raptors (1)	organs of chicks (8)	faeces of young bird I	faeces of young bird II	faeces of raptors (7)
SE-B	organs of chicks I (9)		faeces of raptors (3)	eggs of raptors (3)				faeces of raptors (3)
SE-C								
STM-A	faeces of raptors (7)							
STM-B	organs of mice (10)							
STMvC-A						liver of raptor (1)		

Explanations:

SE-A to C = *S. enteritidis* plasmid subtype A to C.

STM-A to B = *S. typhimurium* plasmid subtype A to B.

STMvC-A = *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen* plasmid subtype A.

(3) number of isolated and examined strains

Culture of four falcon eggs laid in March with dead embryos resulted in isolation of three strains of *S. typhimurium* belonging to plasmid profile subtype STM-B and one strain *S. enteritidis* belonging to subtype SE-C (Tabs. I and III). No *Salmonella* was isolated from the faeces or another 12 unfertilised eggs or eggs with dead embryos from the same females (which laid infected eggs).

During examination of parenchymatous organs and intestinal contents from 16 dead birds and their progenies, *Salmonellae* were isolated only from the liver of a young peregrine falcon (*F. peregrinus*) in June. This peregrine falcon was killed by another falcon. The isolated strain was determined as *S. typhimurium* var. *Copenhagen* belonging to subtype STMvC-A (Tabs. I and III).

*S. enteritidis* strain subtype SE-C was isolated at the end of July from the faeces of one of two young peregrine falcons which had diarrhoea. Two weeks later one *S. enteritidis* strain of the same plasmid subtype SE-C (Tab. III) was isolated from the other bird which had a more severe clinical symptoms. Both affected birds were successfully treated with chloramphenicol (50 mg/kg wt) in the same dosage as is used in poultry. However, two months later *S. enteritidis* subtype SE-A (Tab. III) was isolated from the dropping of the second bird.

In September, another 10 strains of *S. enteritidis* were isolated from the droppings of 10 falconid birds. Seven of the 10 isolated strains were of plasmid subtype SE-A and three of subtype SE-B (Tab. III).

During 1992, a total of 40 chickens from 5 different supplies (8/supply) were examined for *Salmonellae* at the age of 7–10 days. *S. typhimurium* subtype STM-B (Tab. III) was isolated from the second supply of 8 new chicks in May. Additional examination of 10 frozen one day-old chicks from the same supply proved negative. Examination of 26 mice from two new supplies bought in March and November was also *Salmonella* negative.

Examination in 1993 (Tab. I)

In January and February 21 faecal samples were cultured and in March 4 quails used for feeding were cultured, no *Salmonella* was isolated from these samples. The examination of 30 eggs during the nesting season revealed no *Salmonella*.

**Retrospective study of infected falconid birds sent for the examination for the presence of *Salmonellae***

Species proportion of the infected falconid birds of prey (Tab. II)

Analysis of species representation of the infected falconid birds showed that 4 out of 27 (14.8%) peregrine falcons (*Falco peregrinus*), 14 out of 37 (37%) saker falcons (*F. cherrug*) and 4 out of 12 (33.3%) crosses of saker falcon and peregrine falcon were infected.

#### Age composition of the infected falconid birds (Tab. IV)

The age of the infected falconid birds was analysed based on breeding data. It was found that most infected falconid birds were one day to one year old or more than four years old.

#### IV. Age composition of birds infected by Salmonellae

Year	Month	≥ 1 year	≥ 2 years	≥ 3 years	< 3 years
1991	November	5	1	1	1
1992	March	1	0	0	7*
1992	September	7**	0	1	2
Total		13	1	2	10

#### Explanations:

- \* included also 4 females with Salmonella isolation from eggs
- \*\* included Salmonella isolation from liver of dead raptor

Repeated culture examination for Salmonellae of materials coming from individual falconid birds

Repeated examination of faeces from individual falconid birds and eggs laid from one female found no repeated Salmonella isolation in any of the birds.

Clinical assessment of falconid birds and examination for Salmonellae

Assessment of clinical state of every falconid bird during sampling of faeces over the period 1990–1993 showed that 19 birds suffered from diarrhoea and impaired nutrition. However, severe infection of *S. enteritidis* was only detected in the faeces of two young peregrine falcons.

#### Treatment of clinically ill falconid birds of prey infected with Salmonellae

Salmonellae isolated from clinically ill peregrine falcons were sensitive to chloramphenicol and streptomycin. Chloracin (chloramphenicol) was chosen for the treatment (50 mg/1 kg wt). Following a 5-day peroral antibiotic course, probiotic (Microbion tablets, Bioveta, Ivanovice na Hané, Czech Republic) was administered for a more rapid restoration of physiological microflora as it contains cultural bacteria (*Bacillus subtilis*, *Streptococcus faecium* var. *durans* and *Streptococcus faecalis* var. *zymogenes*).

## DISCUSSION

#### Salmonella sources in the Falcon Breeding Facility

The assumption that falconid birds at the Falcon Breeding Facility were infected with Salmonellae from animals used as a food source was confirmed. The same conclusions were also reached by Battisti et al. (1998) who isolated *S. havana* and *S. livingstone* with the same

biochemical characteristics and sensitivity to antibiotics from diurnal and nocturnal falconid birds and also from day-old chicks used for feeding.

#### Salmonella sources in 1991

In 1991 Salmonellae of the same serotype and plasmid subtype were isolated simultaneously from the organs of animals for feeding (chickens and mice) and from the faeces of infected falconid birds. Therefore it is evident that the source of Salmonella infection at the Falcon Breeding Facility in 1991 was from mice and chickens used for feeding.

#### Salmonella sources in 1992

No Salmonella sources were found at the Falcon Breeding facility in 1992. For financial reasons not all the supplies of chicken used for feeding of the falconid birds were examined. Due to the unfavourable epizootiological situation that exists in poultry flocks of the Czech Republic and other European states, it is possible that the falconid birds acquired the Salmonella infection from poultry source fed to the falconids.

#### Clinical course of Salmonellosis in falconid birds of prey

Clinical Salmonellosis was detected only in two young peregrine falcons (*F. peregrinus*). Clinical signs appeared in these birds after their feeding by improperly stored killed chickens during the summer months. The falcons were successfully treated by using oral antibiotics chosen based on antibiogram. Only one of the treated falcons was reinfected with Salmonella without clinical signs. In the other infected falconid no clinical signs were observed. From the view point of view of differential diagnostics it is necessary to emphasize that there are other causes leading to affection of the intestinal tract with diarrhoeal signs. Coccidiosis caused by the species *Caryospora neofalconis* and *Caryospora kutzeri* was also recorded in the same Falcon Breeding Facility (Pavlik et al., 1998). It can be a dietary cause especially after ingestion of frozen food. Diarrhoea lasting several days occurred in some of these birds (Pavlik et al., 1997).

#### Colonisation of the intestinal and reproductive tracts

##### Colonisation of the intestinal tract

Regarding the colonisation of the intestinal tract with Salmonellae we found that in three subsequent samples of faeces (sampling interval 3 days) Salmonella was isolated in one sample taken from each of the birds. This can be explained by irregular shedding of Sal-

monellae in faeces. In falconid birds without clinical signs who had already excreted Salmonellae, no reinfection with the same or other serovar was detected. Based on these findings we suggest that after the colonisation of falconid birds with Salmonellae, immunity against Salmonellae is developed and can persist even for several years. However, antibiotic treatment does not allow the bird to develop a complete resistance to reinfection and therefore reinfection may occur as was found in the case of a young falcon mentioned above.

#### Colonisation of the reproductive tract

The cause of embryo death in four eggs of falconid birds was most probably due to their infection with Salmonellae. The same finding was also observed by Battisti et al. (1998). They recorded embryonal death in the eggs of an eagle-owl (*Bubo bubo*), peregrine falcon, buzzard (*Buteo buteo*) and saker falcon due to the infection with *S. havana* and *S. virchow*.

The finding of one salmonella positive egg out of 15 eggs laid by one female might indicate the possible vertical transmission of Salmonella from infected female to its progeny. No infection was found either in previously or in consequently laid egg of any of the females. These results indicate that repeated culture examination ought to be made in order to eliminate the infected birds or eggs laid by a single birds.

#### Influence of the age on the susceptibility of falconid birds to the infection

Analysis of age proportion of the infected falconid birds revealed that the most frequent Salmonella shedders are young birds up the age of one year and then birds older than 4 years (Tab. IV). It should be mentioned that all the falconid birds were kept under the same conditions. Great positivity in birds younger than one year can be explained by insufficiently formed mucosal immunity protecting their intestinal tract against Salmonella colonisation from food. However, in older falconid birds those facts were not elucidated.

#### Detection of serum antibodies after infection of falconid birds

The question whether Salmonellae penetrate through the intestinal tract and into organs or whether they only colonise the intestine can be answered basis of the presence of serum antibodies. In poultry *S. pullorum* antigen reacts not only with homologous antibodies but also with serum antibodies in a crossed reaction after infection by *S. enteritidis* and *S. typhimurium* (Nicholas, 1992; Furrer et al., 1993) in the rapid slide agglutination test. Negative serological examinations of 20 breeding falconid birds using rapid slide agglutination with *S. pullorum* antigen indicate that there is a lack of serum antibodies in these birds. This may be due to

insufficient concentrations of antiserum against Salmonella. However, the rapid slide agglutination test does not detect serum antibodies against certain Salmonella species which are detectable only by using a more sensitive ELISA method (Nicholas, 1992).

#### Infection sources for falconid birds and possibilities to reduce risk of introduction of the infection into the breeding facility

##### Study of infection spreading in the breeding facility

The epizootiology of Salmonellae was studied using the methods of serotyping and analysis of plasmid profile. Three Salmonella serotypes with six plasmid subtypes were detected by typing all isolated Salmonella strains. This strain heterogeneity consequently enabled us in some cases to identify the sources of infection (Tab. III). A specific variety of individual Salmonella serotypes and their subtypes was determined in the Falcon Breeding Facility. Therefore no long-term prevalence of Salmonella infection with one or two Salmonella strains was detected in the monitored breeding facility but instead of it, single, time-limited Salmonella infections coming from different sources.

#### Sources of Salmonella infections from chicks determined for feeding

A negative Salmonella finding in frozen one-day old chicks for feeding compared with positive findings in the same group aged 7–10 days is interesting from the epizootiological view. Since Battisti et al. (1998) found frozen one-day old chicks as Salmonella sources in captive diurnal and nocturnal birds of prey, our negative culture examinations can be explained in two ways. One cause could be a small percentage of infected one-day old chicks at the time of collecting in the hatcheries, another cause could be the reduction of the Salmonella count to an undetectable number necessary for bacteriological examination due to the freezing-thawing of chicks.

#### CONCLUSIONS

Based on presented results it is possible to recommend the following preventive measures:

1. To use one-day old chickens for feeding from farms with a good quality of sanitation, which had received the laid eggs from the examined flocks for Salmonella infection.
2. To examine samples of bird feed (chickens, mice etc.) for the presence of Salmonella before feeding, especially during the breeding season.
3. To prepare and store the feed in such a manner that will minimize the propagation of Salmonella.
4. All new incoming birds should be tested for the presence of Salmonella in three subsequent samples of

faeces (sampling interval 3 days). Shedding birds should be isolated until *Salmonella* excretion disappears and should be treated only if clinical signs are present.

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**Key words** should make it possible to retrieve the paper on the basis of the animal species investigated, characteristics of their health, husbandry conditions, applied substances, etc. The terms used in the paper title should not be used as keywords.

If any abbreviation is used in the paper, it is necessary to mention its full form at least once to avoid misunderstanding. The abbreviations should not be used in the title of the paper nor in the summary.

The author shall give his full name (and the names of other collaborators), academic, scientific and pedagogic titles, full address of his workplace and postal code, telephone and fax number, or e-mail.

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