

Estimate of lysine nutritional requirements for Japanese quail breeders

Lizia Cordeiro de Carvalho¹, Manoela Sousa¹, Jaqueline Pavanini¹, Tadia Emanuele Stivanin², Nelson José Peruzzi¹, Alan Rodrigo Panosso¹, Michele Lima¹, Edney Silva^{Corresp. 1}

¹ Universidade Estadual Paulista, Department of Animal Science, College of Agriculture and Veterinary Sciences, Jaboticabal, São Paulo, Brasil

² Genetic improvement of Japanese quails, Vicami Codornas, Assis, São Paulo, Brasil

Corresponding Author: Edney Silva
Email address: edney.silva@unesp.br

Background. Japanese quail breeding is the basis for genetic improvement and multiplication for commercial layers, however, there have been no known studies on the optimal lysine level for these birds. Thus, study the egg output response to the Lys supply using different e-functions and evaluate the that best fit, have allowed the partition the lysine requirements for maintenance, both weight and egg output maximum. **Methods.** The objectives of this study were to identify the responses of birds to various Lysine (Lys) levels, identify the functions related to these responses and determine the ideal Lys intake amount for Japanese quail breeders. A completely randomized design of seven treatments with seven replicated was used. Treatments consisted of diet supplementation by Lys in concentrations of 16.8, 11.8, 8.4, 6.7, 5.0, 3.4, and 1.7 g/kg. Six exponential models were adjusted. **Results.** The level of Lys was found to affect bird responses ($P < 0.001$). The birds responded to the levels provided, allowing for the creation of a lysine response curve. A monomolecular function with four parameters was balanced against the statistics of adjustment and selection of models. It was possible to estimate the level of lysine required for maintenance as 133 ± 2 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, and based an average of 41% efficiency, 22 mg Lys produced 1 g of egg output (EO). The daily intake calculated by the monomolecular factorial model was 284 mg Lys for a bird with 0.170 kg body weight and production of 10 g EO/day. The four-parameter monomolecular function proposed in this study is adequate for interpreting the animal response and calculating lysine intake for breeders.

Estimate of lysine nutritional requirements for Japanese quail breeders

Lizia Cordeiro de Carvalho¹, Manoela Garcia Borgi Lino de Sousa¹, Jaqueline Aparecida Pavanini¹, Tadia Emanuele Stivanin², Nelson José Peruzzi¹, Alan Rodrigo Panosso¹, Michele Bernardino de Lima¹, Edney Pereira da Silva¹

¹ Department of Animal Sciences, Universidade Estadual Paulista, Jaboticabal, São Paulo, Brazil

² Genetic improvement of Japanese quails, Vicami Codornas, Assis, São Paulo, Brazil

Corresponding Author:

Edney da Silva¹

Via de Acesso Prof. Paulo Donato Castellane s/n, Jaboticabal, São Paulo, 14884-900, Brazil

Email address: edney.silva@unesp.br

Abstract

Background. Japanese quail breeders are the basis for genetic improvement and multiplication for commercial layers, however, there have been no known studies on the optimal lysine level for these birds. Thus, study the egg output response to the Lys supply using different e-functions and evaluate the that best fit, have allowed the partition the lysine requirements for maintenance, both weight and egg output maximum.

Methods. The objectives of this study were to identify the responses to various Lysine (Lys) levels, identify the functions related to these responses and determine the ideal Lys intake amount for Japanese quail breeders. A completely randomized design of seven treatments with seven replicated was used. Treatments consisted of diet supplementation by Lys in concentrations of 16.8, 11.8, 8.4, 6.7, 5.0, 3.4, and 1.7 g/kg. Six exponential models were adjusted.

Results. The level of Lys was found to affect bird responses ($P < 0.001$). The birds responded to the levels provided, allowing for the creation of a lysine response curve. A monomolecular function with four parameters was balanced against the statistics of adjustment and selection of models. It was possible to estimate the level of lysine required for maintenance as 133 ± 2 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$, and based an average of 41% efficiency, 22 mg Lys produced 1 g of egg output (EO). The daily intake calculated by the monomolecular factorial model was 284 mg Lys for a bird with 0.170 kg body weight and production of 10 g EO/day. The four-parameter monomolecular function proposed in this study is adequate for interpreting the animal response and calculating lysine intake for breeders.

Keywords. Dilution technique, efficiency, maintenance, models, requirement.

1. Introduction

Japanese quail breeders is the basis for genetic improvement and multiplication for commercial layers. Through the selection process, in each generation, genetically superior animals are used to form the breeding stock. Approximately 4,444 breeder birds are required to produce one million Japanese quails, and in Brazil, more than 111,000 were necessary to yield the 25 million currently housed (Silva et al., 2020). The breeders used in this study were selected for egg production and belong to the male line of laying quails. There have been no known studies on the optimal amino acid level for Japanese quails breeders. Lysine (Lys) is the reference amino acid for establishing the ideal relationship, and it is the second limiting amino acid in maize and soybean diets of birds. Lys acts on protein and lipid metabolism, and in reproduction, subdoses are related to atrophy of reproductive organs and the liver (Ruan et al., 2019; Tian et al., 2019).

Among the main methods used to establish amino acid intake are dose response and factorial analysis. The factorial method is a reasonable option to establish amino acid intake by using variables such as body weight (BW) and egg output (EO) (Silva et al., 2019). This method is based on using the linear relationships between amino acid intake and these variables (mg per kg BW and mg per g EO) to partition the BW maintenance requirement and EO production (Sakomura et al., 2015; Reis et al., 2018). A reduction in feed conversion (Basaglia et al., 2005) is possible because the input values for BW and EO correspond to the average population potential (Hauschild, Pomar & Lovatto, 2010).

Although feed conversion reduction in the egg production industry can be useful, the effectiveness of this reduction is based on the average production potential of the batch (Basaglia et al., 2005; Silva et al., 2015a), and thus individuals above the average population potential would inevitably receive a subdose (Hauschild, Pomar & Lovatto, 2010; Silva et al., 2019; Silva et al., 2015a). This characteristic of the factorial method may be a limitation for nutritionists in genetic improvement programs and multiplication systems, in terms of how individuals performing above the population average should be adequately identified and nurtured. Therefore, since linear relationships are limited because they are infinite in all directions, empirical constraints should be used to obtain more precise estimates that represent a closer approximation to the actual condition (Silva et al., 2015a; Silva et al., 2019).

Nonlinear factorial models are alternatives for breeders (Kebreab et al., 2008; Ekmay et al., 2014) especially for birds that prioritize reproduction by mobilizing body reserves to maintain egg laying (Lima et al., 2018; Lima et al., 2020). Exponential functions allow for the consideration of maintenance and production partitioning (Samadi & Liebert, 2008; Dorigam et al., 2017) while catering to the most productive animals of the population, since curvilinear adjustment can change the response rate ($\alpha/\beta \times$) with the approximation of the maximum genetic potential (Fuller & Garthwaite, 1993; Silva et al., 2019). Factorial models based on e-functions are available that have parameters with biological significance that can be improved, such as the requirement to maintain unity on the axis of the ordinate (Samadi & Liebert, 2008; Dorigam et al., 2014; Dorigam et al., 2017) when the ideal would be on the axis of the abscissa (Kebreab et

al., 2008; Sarcinelli et al., 2020; Silva et al., 2020), thereby avoiding confusion between the minimal response on the ordinate axis (Lima et al., 2013; Dorigam et al., 2017) and the requirement of nutrient maintenance on the abscissa axis. Therefore, this study aimed to (1) study the EO response to the Lys supply using different e-functions, (2) evaluate the e-functions that best fit the EO responses, (3) partition the Lys requirements for BW maintenance and EO production, and (4) the Lys intake level that maximizes EO.

2. Materials & Methods

The study was conducted in the Laboratory of Poultry Sciences of the Department of Zootecnia da Faculdade de Ciências Agrárias e Veterinárias of the Universidade Estadual Paulista, Campus of Jaboticabal, São Paulo, Brazil. The procedures used in this study were approved by the Committee on Animal Use Ethics, under protocol 012203/17.

2.1 Birds, housing, and experimental design

Forty-nine VICAMI® Japanese quails breeders were used at 14 weeks of age, when they are at their peak performance. The experiment was conducted in a temperature-controlled climate chamber containing galvanized wire cages measuring 0.26 m × 0.37 m × 0.36 m, with channel feeders and nipple drinkers. The temperature during the experimental period was maintained at 24 °C, with a 16:8 h (L:D) photoperiod. Water was provided ad libitum. A completely randomized design was used, with seven treatments and seven repetitions. Each experimental unit consisted of one bird per cage. All cages were identified with different colored labels, according to the treatments. The treatments consisted of seven levels of Lys in the diet as follows: D7 – 16.8 g/kg; D6 – 11.8 g/kg; D5 – 8.4 g/kg; D4 – 6.7 g/kg; D3 – 5.0 g/kg; D2 – 3.4 g/kg, and D1 – 1.7 g/kg. After the trial the animals remained in the university's herd for egg production.

2.2 Experimental treatments and diets

The level of Lys in the dietary protein profile and experimental diets were formulated as described by Fisher and Morris (1970). A formulation with a high crude protein content (HPD) and a relative deficiency in Lys compared to the other amino acids, and a second formulation that was free of protein and amino acids (NFD) were prepared (Table 1). The nutritional levels of the essential amino acids in the HPD were based on the recommendations described previously by Rostagno et al. (2011) (Table 2). The Lys level was established by multiplying the recommended amount by 1.5, and that of the other amino acids by 2.0 to maintain a minimum Lys deficiency of 50% compared to the other amino acids. For energy and other nutrients (vitamins and minerals), the minimum recommendations were followed by Rostagno et al. (2011). NFD was formulated to provide energy and the other nutrients with no amino acids. The intermediate experimental levels of Lys were obtained by diluting the HPD with NFD in the following proportions (HPD:NFD): 100:0; 70:30; 50.1:49.9; 40:60; 30:70; 20.1:79.9; and 10:90; thus obtaining Lys concentrations of 16.8, 11.8, 8.4, 6.7, 5.0, 3.4, and 1.7 g/kg respectively.

2.3 Measurements and variables analysed

The experiment occurred for 22 days, with the first 7 days of adaptation. The feed supply was according to the body weight (measured weekly) of the birds in Kg of BW^{0.67}, thus determining

the maximum consumption. The variables evaluated were: daily feed intake (FI, g/bird), daily Lys intake (LysIntake, mg/bird), body weight (BW, kg), body weight change (BW, g/bird), daily egg production (EP, %/bird), egg weight, and daily deposition of Lys in egg mass (dLys, mg/bird), which was achieved by considering the concentration of 13% protein (Ali, 2019) and the 6.89% level of Lys in egg protein (Ali, 2019). Lys mobilization was calculated from the change in BW, considering the mobilized protein fraction and, consequently, the proportion of Lys in the mobilized protein. Protein and Lys concentrations in the body were obtained from the method of a previous study (Siqueira et al., 2021).

2.4 Description of responses by different mathematical functions

The variables dLys and LysIntake were related to the metabolic weight of the bird ($BW^{0.67}$). Two linear functions were used: linear regression and broken-line regression (Table 3).

To interpret the relationship between dLys and LysIntake, six e-functions were used, one of which was proposed in this research and the other five were obtained from the literature, considering the interpretation and biological meaning of the parameterization of the model (Table 3). The adjusted functions consisted of a monomolecular parameterized model with three (Kebreab et al., 2008; Samadi & Liebert, 2008) and four parameters (Kops & Lamberson, 2006; Strathe et al., 2011).

2.5 Model Adjustment and Selection Statistics

The adjustment and selection statistics used were the determination coefficient (R^2), determination coefficient adjusted for the number of parameters (R^2 Adjust), Akaike information criterion (AIC), corrected Akaike information criterion (AICC) and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC), model quality was based on the lowest score for AIC, AICC and, BIC.

2.6 Structure and assessment of linear and non-linear factorial models to estimate Lys intake based on BW and EO values

The factorial model calculated the nutrient Lys according to its partition, maintenance, and production. The nonlinear factorial model was based on the logarithmic transformation of Samadi and Liebert (2008), according to Equation 9 (M9). In this model, the maintenance parameter was added after calculating the requirements for egg mass production.

$$\text{LysIntake} = BW^{0.67} \times [\text{Lysm} + (\ln R_{\max} - \ln(R_{\max} - 8.853 \times (EO/BW^{0.67}))) / k] \quad (9)$$

The parameters necessary to calculate LysIntake were the R_{\max} , Lysm, and k that were obtained from M3, M5, and M8, generating the predicted values and the respective prediction errors for each monomolecular function.

To compare the LysIntake estimates by the nonlinear factorial model M9, the traditional factorial model (Sakomura et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2019) was used to estimate LysIntake according to Equation 10 (M10).

$$\text{LysIntake} = BW^{0.67} \times [\text{Lysm} + a \times (8.853 \times EO)] \quad (10)$$

The parameters required to calculate LysIntake were Lysm and a, which were obtained from linear models M1 and M2.

The input variables in Equations 9 and 10 were BW and EO expressed in $\text{kg}^{0.67}$ and g/kg $\text{BW}^{0.67}$, respectively, and the value of 8.853 is the relationship between dLys and EO. LysIntake in Equations 9 and 10 is the model output of daily intake in mg/bird .

Assessment of dLys response prediction error as a function of LysIntake estimated by non-linear and linear factorial models. The prediction error was determined as the difference between the observed and predicted values of dLys. The errors were subjected to linear regression analysis according to the predicted value of a previous study (St-Pierre, 2003), according to Equation. 11 (M11).

$$ep = b_0 + b_1 (Y_p - \bar{Y}_p) + \hat{e} \quad (11),$$

where ep was the residual value for all observation; b_0 and b_1 were the estimates of the parameters, Y_p was the predicted value, \bar{Y}_p was the average of the predicted values, and \hat{e} was the regression error of the residues to the predicted values. The decision rule was based on the assumption that the model is impartial when the correlation approaches 1 and R^2 approaches 0. Therefore, the residues are not correlated with the predictions, and consequently, the value of b_1 is close to zero for the unbiased model. The ratios of the parameters (b_0 and b_1) to regression error (\hat{e}), scalar error (b_0/\hat{e}), and prediction bias (b_1/\hat{e}) were obtained for the model.

2.7 Statistical analyses

The assumptions of homoscedasticity and residual normality were tested. Subsequently, the data were subjected to analyses of variance, and when an invalid hypothesis was verified, the data were analyzed for linear and quadratic effects of the Lys levels, considering a significance of 0.05. The parameters of the models were estimated by the maximum probiosimilarity, using the NLMIXED procedure of SAS, considering the maximum random effect of the model (Robbins, Saxton & Southern, 2006). The values were calculated using SAS software (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA, 2014, version 9.4).

3. Results

The Lys level in the diet affected the performance of Japanese quails breeders (Table 4), thereby rejecting the null hypothesis, where the variables do not differ with the levels of Lys in the diet ($P < 0.05$). The contrast analysis was significant for the linear and quadratic effects of Lys levels on bird replenishment, except for BW, which responded linearly to Lys levels in the diet. The homoscedasticity and residual normality were tested by the Shapiro-Wilk test, the data were normal, and the residuals are randomly distributed around zero ($p > 0.05$).

The quails that were fed a lower level of Lys (1.7 g/kg) reduced their daily consumption by 39%, when compared with 8.4 g Lys per kg consumed the maximum value of 25.1 g/bird . The daily Lys intake at 1.7 g/kg was 13% of that of the highest level of Lys in the diet (16.8 g/kg). Therefore, the egg production and egg weight were reduced in different proportions. In 1.7 g/kg

of Lys diet, the egg production decreased by 77% from the maximum value of 94%, while egg weight reduced only 25% of the maximum value of 11.2 g obtained at 16.8 g/kg of Lys diet (Table 4).

Egg mass and Lys deposition decreased by 82% in response to the limitation of Lys intake in the diet. Birds exhibited greater weight loss and consequently higher daily Lys mobilization values in diets with a greater degree of limitation in daily Lys intake. Increased intake of Lys linearly decreased its mobilization. Although consumption decreased, Lys limitation was responsible for low feed efficiency and consequently higher feed conversion values (Table 4). The feed conversion presented the largest amplitude (6.04) between the maximum (8.4 g/g at the level of 1.7 g/kg) and minimum (1.7 g/g at 16.8 g/kg) values corresponding to a change of 356% (Table 4). This result shows that the daily consumption of 15.2 g/bird would support a larger egg production, but Lys was limiting for protein synthesis.

3.1 Analysis of adjustment and selection functions and statistics

The selection of Lys intake models is shown in Table 5. M2 presented better adjustment when considering only the values of the adjusted R^2 . Model selection statistics (AIC, AICC, and BIC) indicated that the broken-line model (Table 5: M2) and the double exponential function (Table 5: M7) best adjusted the relationship between dLys and LysIntake.

The maintenance requirements of 36 and 139 mg/kg values of $BW^{0.67}$ obtained with M1 and M8, respectively, revealed no information on variability. A value of 52 mg/kg was the $BW^{0.67}$ obtained for maintenance using M2 (Table 5) at dLys = 0; therefore, this also showed no variability. However, this model (Table 5: M2) presented a better adjustment and lower AIC, AICC, and BIC values (Table 5). In contrast, the M6 and M7 models (Table 5) estimated retention requirement values between 10 and 7 times greater than the M2-based value, respectively. The M7 (Table 5), along with the M2 presented better adjustments and lower values of AIC, AICC, and BIC (Table 5), while the R_{max} estimates revealed the lowest determined value, which underestimated the genetic potential value, since the maximum response that was estimated as 269 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$ was lower than the values obtained in the treatments with 6.7 – 16.8 g of Lys per kg.

For Models 3 and 4, the results of the adjustment and selection statistics support M4 as superior (Table 5). This model presented the highest maximum response value, which was estimated at 444 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$. The maximum observed response of 297 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$, was 67% of the estimated value for R_{max} . R_{min} showed a variation of 43%, indicating a limited power of inference to interpret the animal response.

M3 presented estimates for R_{max} , R_{min} , k, and Lysm with smaller error values, supporting the biological significance in interpreting the bird response (Table 5). The maximum estimated response of 357 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$ was 17% greater than the maximum observed value. The value of Lysm was 133 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$, with a range of 128 to 137 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$. Among the adjusted models with Lysm as a parameter, M5 returned 114 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$ with a range of 25 to 203 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$. For M8, 139 mg/kg was the estimated $BW^{0.67}$; therefore, the 133 mg/kg $BW^{0.67}$ value of the M3 was similar to those estimated in M5 and M8 (Table 5).

3.2 Structure and assessment of linear and non-linear factorial models

The observed averages for LysIntake and dLys, in mg/kg BW^{0.67} for each treatment and the respective estimated values are shown in Table 6. The estimates of the linear factorial models differed, especially in relation to the prediction of animal replenishment. M2 (Table 6) overestimated the response after ingestion of 286 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, while M1 presented better response estimates.

The M6 and M7 exponential models (Table 6) showed a discrepancy between the response estimates, where in M6, the estimated between levels did not differ and for M7 it was not possible to estimate for the level 6.7 g/kg of Lys per diet. While M3, M4, M5, and M8 revealed errors of 33.4, 33.4, 33.5, and 32.2 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, respectively (Figure 1, Table 7). The prediction of nonlinear factorial models could only be reasonably evaluated with the aid of residue analysis (Figure 1, 2). Residue analysis statistics (Figure 1) show that M5 and M8 presented lower values for scalar error and prediction bias (Figure 2). However, this analysis considers only the lines with observations, and some experimental units had dLys values greater than the R_{max} of these models, resulting in negative values and therefore no solution, which decreased the number of observations for the analysis of the association between the residue and the predicted value, thereby limiting the use of these models in the factorial calculation of LysIntake.

M3 with the values of R_{max} , k and $Lysm$ ($LysIntake = 133 + (\ln(357) - \ln(357 - Deposition))/0.0021$) and M4 ($LysIntake = 117 + (\ln(444) - \ln(444 - Deposition))/0.0027$) presented no limitation when calculating LysIntake, but residue assessment statistics indicated a better predictive capacity for the factorial model with the M4 parameters. This result revealed that the biological interpretation and predictive capacity were not reconciled in the same model. M3 has parameters that assist the biological interpretation, but its application in the factorial model resulted in 10% less predictive capacity compared to M4 (Figure 2, Table 7).

4. Discussion

To our knowledge, this is the first study to investigate the relationship between Lys levels and the response by Japanese quail breeders. The experimental period used here was 21 days, conforming with methodologies by Silva et al. (2019). The experimental period could be reduced if there was greater differences in the diet levels (amplitude) of Lys. Both the present study and that of Silva et al. (2019) show that the definition of the treatments and their amplitude should also be considered, along with the experimental period. The breadth of Lys levels and responses, especially in the egg production, is indispensable to support the findings independent of the statistical tool. Previous studies with Japanese quails obtained an amplitude of 4% (Pinto et al., 2003; Costa et al., 2008) and 8% (Oliveira et al., 1999), whereas this survey returned 77%. The results showed that the levels of Lys in the diet were limiting for Japanese quails breeders. The amplitude Lys deposition in the egg was close to 470%, supporting the findings of this study regarding the dietary limitation of Lys. In addition to experimental period reduced, was followed this study the “reduction”, formulated by William Russel and Rex Burch, which allowed the reduction in the number of animals used to maintain the precision of results (Hubrecht & Carter).

The feed of quails used in a breeding program should provide nutritional levels that support the expression of the maximum genetic potential. Therefore, linear procedures are limited to generating recommendations that approach the population average (Baker, 1986; Basaglia et al., 2005; Hauschild, Pomar & Lovatto, 2010; Silva et al., 2019) as opposed to the maximum. Among the variables analyzed here, the relationship between ingestion and deposition of Lys in the egg was selected to interpret the responses of the birds using exponential models. The results obtained in this study support the hypothesis that the method used can influence the Lys intake calculated and the interpretation of the animal response, especially the genetic potential of the bird, using six different exponential functions.

M2 was included in this analysis as a benchmark, especially for the interpretation of its parameters. The R_{\max} parameter of the broken-line model is associated with the average population potential (Cosse & Baker, 1996; Hauschild, Pomar & Lovatto, 2010) however, the R_{\max} values of the dual-exponential models (M6 and M7) were similar to that of the broken-line model. As both M6 and M7 models approximate the nutritional requirements of the average bird, the R_{\max} parameter population is forced to underperform and conform to the average bird population as their requirements are not being fully met. The parameterization of the exponential double was defined to (Strathe et al., 2011) approximate the asymptotic response of the model to the observed values, thereby avoiding the use of an asymptotic response ratio to establish optimal performance and necessary intake (Strathe et al., 2011). In dose-response studies, the use of proportions to establish optimal performance and the respective nutrient intake may vary from 50% to 95% of R_{\max} (Halle, Jeroch & Gebhardt, 1984; Cosse & Baker, 1996; Samadi & Liebert, 2008; Strathe et al., 2011). Therefore, it represents a criterion that confuses the lack of model adjustment and the proportion of optimal performance. In an attempt to approximate the adjustment of the model to the data and the parameterization, the double exponential used could have limited the adjustment of the functions to studies with smaller amplitudes in the responses of nutrient deposition intake. In this study, the treatments vastly modified the responses of the birds by close to 476%, and the double exponential functions presented the poorest performance.

Two other objectives investigated in this research were the evaluation of the ability to interpret the response through the parameters of the model, and the predictive capacity when applied in a factorial approach. The results showed that it was not possible to reconcile the two objectives by the same mathematical model. The model that presented consistent estimation of the parameters and that aided in the interpretation of the response was the monomolecular with four parameters (M3). However, this model presented less predictive capacity when compared to the monomolecular with three parameters (M4). In a detailed analysis, the difference in the accuracy of these models (M3: 0.908 vs. M4: 0.999) is related to the scalar error, mainly the error of 26 mg/kg BW^{0.67} in the M3 relative to the observed value at the first level of Lys in the diet, since the prediction bias value could only scarcely justify some differences between the models (Figure 2).

The estimated R_{\min} parameter of 3.1 was close to zero (2–6 mg/kg BW^{0.67}), and this value has biological support. The lower level diet (1.7 g/kg) does not provide sufficient Lys for egg

formation. Therefore, a significant body weight reduction was observed, equivalent to approximately 4 mg/kg BW^{0.67} of Lys mobilized daily (Table 4). Subtracting the maintenance of 133 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, from the intake of 190 mg/kg BW^{0.67} at the lowest level of Lys (1.7 g/kg), only 57 mg/kg BW^{0.67} synthesis and deposition in the egg would be available. The prediction of the M4 of dLys and LysIntake at the lowest level was 61 and 174 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, respectively, resulting in 108% utilization efficiency, which indicates body reserve mobilization to sustain the minimal deposition of Lys in the egg. Based on this, the R_{min} parameter estimated by M4 of 117 mg/kg BW^{0.67} has no biological support, as it represents close to double the value seen in the diet with a lower level of Lys (63 mg/kg BW^{0.67}). Some authors attribute the interpretation of maintenance requirement to the R_{min} of M4 considering that the value of R_{min} represents an inevitable loss and must be provided in equal quantity by diet to avoid the animal undergoing a negative nitrogen balance. This finding reinforces the initial hypothesis that some factorial models use the value of the maintenance requirement extracted on the axis of the ordinate (Strathe et al., 2011; Dorigam et al., 2014; Dorigam et al., 2017), when the ideal is on the axis of the abscissa (Kebreab et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2019), to avoid confusion between minimal response, R_{min}, axis of the ordinate (Silva et al., 2013; Dorigam et al., 2017), and requirement of maintenance, Lysm, on the axis of the abscissa.

With the four-parameter monomolecular function, it was possible to estimate the maintenance requirement for Lys based on production responses close to zero. The use of curvilinear models for this purpose can be considered as a reasonable option, since for parameter estimation, all observations were used from the lowest to the highest level of Lys in the diet. When compared to the estimate of Silva et al. (2019) of 156.8 mg/kg BW^{0.75}, the figures appeared to differ, but in this research the metabolic weight was calculated using the BW^{0.67}, and Silva et al. (2019) used BW^{0.75}. When standardized the value of Silva et al. (2019) to the same basis used here: in the result is 136 mg/kg BW^{0.67}, considering a mean BW of 0.16 kg (Table 4), and this value is in the confidence interval of 128–137 mg/kg BW^{0.67} estimated for Lysm in this survey.

The requirement for retention of quail breeders was 2.6 times greater than that of cut breeders (51 mg/kg BW^{0.67}) (Silva et al., 2015b) and 2.2 times greater than commercial dusts (61 mg/kg BW^{0.67}) (Silva et al., 2015b), demonstrating the difference between genotypes for egg production function, and thereby justifying this research.

Based on the factorial calculation of LysIntake and dLys (Table 6), it was possible to obtain the utilization efficiency of each level of Lys in the diet, with an average of 41% obtained with Model 3, and 87% for Model 4. The requirement of Lys per g egg mass calculated on the basis of these models was 23 mg/g for Model 3 and 11 mg/g for Model 4 considering the relationship between Lys deposition and use efficiency: $8.853/0.41 = 23$ mg/g for Model 3 and $8.853/0.87 = 11$ mg/g for Model 4. In previous studies, the efficiency of Lys was 47% (Silva et al., 2019), and Met + Cys, Thr, and Trp, returned values of 59%, 42%, and 26%, respectively (Sarcinelli et al., 2014). The mean of these results is 43%, which is similar to the average efficiency, considering all treatments, obtained with models M3 and M4, verifying the importance in the selection of the function to interpret and predict the animal response. Despite the similarity between the values

found in this search (41%) and with the average (43%) obtained from previous studies (Sarcinelli et al., 2014; Silva et al., 2019), it is important to highlight the limitation of information on the concentration of amino acids contained in the quail egg, especially for tryptophan which was found in only one publication (Ali, 2019) and tritonin, whose concentration varied from 5.3 (Ali, 2019) to 7.3 mg/egg (Genchev, 2012). Therefore, establishing the amino acid profile of the quail egg will help to consolidate the understanding of the efficiency of amino acid use, since recent studies have reported that this efficiency by quails is half that of other layers (Sakomura et al., 2015; Silva et al., 2015b).

The daily Lys intake calculated by the non-linear factorial model was 284 mg/bird for a bird of 0.170 kg BW and daily production of 10 g/bird EO. To use the model, the first step is to change the values of BW ($0.305 = 0.170^{0.67}$) and EO ($32.8 = 10 \times 0.305$) to metabolic body weight (MBW). EO is then transformed to dLys ($290 \text{ mg/kg BW}^{0.67}$), multiplying 32.8 by 8.853 (8.853 is the relationship between dLys and EO). To calculate LysIntake initially, only dLys ($290 \text{ mg/kg BW}^{0.67}$) was used to obtain LysIntake in $\text{mg/kg BW}^{0.67}$: $931 \text{ mg/kg BW}^{0.67} = (133 + (\ln(357) - \ln(357 - 290))/0.0021)$, then multiplying by MBW (0.30) This model assumes solutions for $\text{dLys} < 357 \text{ mg/kg BW}^{0.67}$, equivalent to 12.3 EO, which is the maximum egg mass production. Another limitation of this model relates to the diet, with a value of 0.0021 representing the rate of use of the dietary protein, based on the ingredients maize, soybean, and corn gluten, with 60%, necessitating the use of the proposed model with other ingredients.

The factorial model prediction was positioned based on the equation parameters in relation to the values found in the literature, which used studies with Japanese quail eggs, due to the absence of studies with breeders. The value of LysIntake for a bird with 0.170 kg BW and with daily production of 10 g/bird EO was 284 mg/bird. By the linear factorial model of Rostagno et al. (2017), LysIntake was 267 mg/bird daily. The model of Rostagno et al. (2017) has been accepted by technicians and researchers in the area, and the difference shown here of 18 mg/bird may be a limiting factor for animals that are in genetic selection programs, especially considering the cumulative effect of the subdosage. Using the responses of 9.04 EO and 0.154 BW from the previous (Pinto et al., 2003) survey, LysIntake was calculated as 247 mg/bird using the non-linear factorial model proposed here, differing by 7 mg/bird from the value of 254 mg/bird (Pinto et al., 2003).

Therefore, the four-parameter monomolecular function proposed in this study is adequate for interpreting the animal response. The parameters of this function when used for non-linear factorial calculations were suitable for calculating lysine intake for Japanese quail breeders.

5. Conclusions

The methodology used limited the supply of lysine and the birds responded to the degree of limitation, and the lysine response curve could be studied carefully. Considering the ability to interpret to predict the animal response the monomolecular function with four parameters was balanced against the statistics of adjustment and selection of models, being a reasonable option. It was possible to estimate the requirement of lysine for maintenance $133 \pm 2 \text{ mg/kg BW}^{0.67}$ and based on average 41% efficiency the requirement of 22 mg Lys was obtained to produce 1 g egg

output. The daily intake Lys calculated by the non-linear factorial model was 284 mg/bird for a bird with 0.170 kg BW and with daily production of 10 g/bird EO.

Acknowledgements

To the Laboratory of Poultry Sciences of the Department of Animal Sciences and Veterinary, UNESP- Jaboticabal. We thank also the VICAMI by donation of quail's hens.

Data availability statement

The following information was supplied regarding data availability: The raw measurements are available in the Supplementary Files.

Disclosure statement

The following grant information was disclosed by the authors: National Council for Scientific and Technological Development (CNPq)

References

- Ali, M.A. A Comparative Study on Nutritional Value of Quail and Chicken Eggs. *في البحوث مجلة* في البحوث مجلة. 2019, 2019, 39–56, doi:10.21608/jedu.2019.73533.
- Baker, D.H. Problems and Pitfalls in Animal Experiments Designed to Establish Dietary Requirements for Essential Nutrients. 1986. *Journal of Nutrition* 116:2339–2349 DOI:10.1093/jn/116.12.2339.
- Basaglia, R.; Sakomura, N.; Santos, A.; Campos, M. Programas de Alimentação Para Poedeiras Leves Baseado Em Modelo Para Predição Das Exigências de Proteína. 2005. *Ars Veterinária* 21: 15–21.
- Cosse, A.A.; Baker, T.C. House Flies and Pig Manure Volatiles: Wind Tunnel Behavioral Studies and Electrophysiological Evaluations. 1996. *Journal of Agricultural and Urban Entomology* 13:301–317.
- Costa, F.G.P.; Rodrigues, V.P.; Goulart, C. de C.; Lima Neto, R. da C.; Souza, J.G. de; Silva, J.H.V. da Exigências de Lisina Digestível Para Codornas Japonesas Na Fase de Postura. 2008. *Revista Brasileira de Zoootenia* 37:2136–2140 DOI:10.1590/S1516-35982008001200009.
- Dorigam, J.C.D.P.; Sakomura, N.K.; Da Silva, E.P.; Fernandes, J.B.K. Modelling the Maximum Potential of Nitrogen Deposition and Requirements of Lysine for Broilers. 2014. *Animal Production Science* 54:1953–1959 DOI:10.1071/AN14536.
- Dorigam, J.C.P.; Sakomura, N.K.; Soares, L.; Fernandes, J.B.K.; Sünder, A.; Liebert, F. Modelling of Lysine Requirement in Broiler Breeder Hens Based on Daily Nitrogen Retention and Efficiency of Dietary Lysine Utilization. 2017. *Animal Feed Science and Technology* 226: 29–38 DOI:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2016.12.003.
- Ekmay, R.D.; Salas, C.; England, J.; Cerrate, S.; Coon, C.N. Lysine Partitioning in Broiler Breeders Is Not Affected by Energy or Protein Intake When Fed at Current Industry Levels. 2014. *Poultry Science* 93:1737–1744 DOI 10.3382/ps.2013-03703.

- 437 Fuller, M.F.; Garthwaite, P. The Form of Response of Body Protein Accretion to Dietary Amino
438 Acid Supply. 1993. *Journal of Nutrition* 123:957–963 DOI:10.1093/jn/123.5.957.
- 439 Genchev, A. Quality and Composition of Japanese Quail Eggs (*Coturnix Japonica*). 2012. *Trakia*
440 *Journal of Sciences* 10:91–101 DOI:10.7868/s0869565214270292.
- 441 Halle, I.; Jeroch, H.; Gebhardt, G. Untersuchungen Zum Einfluß Gestaffelter N-Gaben Auf Die
442 Eiproteinsynthese Und Den Körperproteinansatz Der Broilerhenne. 1984. *Arch. Tierernähr* 34:
443 615–621 DOI:10.1080/17450398409425711.
- 444 Hauschild, L.; Pomar, C.; Lovatto, P.A. Systematic Comparison of the Empirical and Factorial
445 Methods Used to Estimate the Nutrient Requirements of Growing Pigs. 2010. *Animal* 4:714–723
446 DOI:10.1017/S1751731109991546.
- 447 Hubrecht, R.C.; Carter, E. The 3Rs and Humane Experimental Technique: Implementing
448 Change. 2019. *Animal* 9:754 DOI: 10.3390/ani9100754.
- 449 Kaps, M.; Lamberson, W. Biostatistics for Animal Science; 2005; Vol. 122; ISBN 0851998208.
- 450 Kebreab, E.; France, J.; Kuhi, H.D.; Lopez, S. A Comparative Evaluation of Functions for
451 Partitioning Nitrogen and Amino Acid Intake between Maintenance and Growth in Broilers.
452 2008. *Journal of Agriculture Science* 146:163–170 DOI:10.1017/S0021859607007423.
- 453 Lima, M.B.; Sakomura, N.K.; Silva, E.P.; Dorigam, J.C.P.; Ferreira, N.T.; Malheiros, E.B.;
454 Fernandes, J.B.K. The Optimal Digestible Valine, Isoleucine and Tryptophan Intakes of Broiler
455 Breeder Hens for Rate of Lay. 2018. *Animal Feed Science and Technology* 238:29–38
456 DOI:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2018.02.001.
- 457 Lima, M.B.; Sakomura, N.K.; Silva, E.P.; Leme, B.B.; Malheiros, E.B.; Peruzzi, N.J.; Fernandes,
458 J.B.K. Arginine Requirements for Maintenance and Egg Production for Broiler Breeder Hens.
459 2020. *Animal Feed Science and Technology* 264:114466 DOI:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2020.114466.
- 460 Lima, M.R.; Costa, F.G.P.; Guerra, R.R.; da Silva, J.H.V.; Rabello, C.B.V.; Miglino, M.A.;
461 Lobato, G.B.V.; Netto, S.B.S.; Dantas, L. da S. Threonine: Lysine Ratio for Japanese Quail Hen
462 Diets. 2013. *Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 22:260–268 DOI:10.3382/japr.2012-00670.
- 463 Morris, T.R.; Fisher, C. The Determination Of The Methionine Requirement Of Laying Pullets
464 By A Diet Dilution Technique. 1970. *British Poultry Science* 11:67–82
465 DOI:10.1080/00071667008415793.
- 466 Oliveira, A.D.M.; Furlan, A.C.; Murakami, A.E.; Moreira, I.; Scapinello, C.; Martins, E.N.
467 Exigência Nutricional de Lisina Para Codornas Japonesas (*Coturnix Coturnix Japonica*) Em
468 Postura. 1999. *Revista Brasileira de Zootecnia* 28:1050–1053 DOI:10.1590/s1516-
469 35981999000500021.
- 470 Pinto, R.; Ferreira, A.S.; Donzele, J.L.; E Silva, M.D.A.; Soares, R.D.T.R.N.; Custódio, G.S.;
471 Pena, K.D.S. Lysine Requirement for Laying Japanese Quails. 2003. *Revista Brasileira de*
472 *Zootecnia* 32:1182–1189 DOI:10.1590/s1516-35982003000500019.

- 473 Reis, M.D.P.; Sakomura, N.K.; Teixeira, I.A.M.A.; Silva, E.P.; Kebreab, E. Partitioning the
474 Efficiency of Utilization of Amino Acids in Growing Broilers: Multiple Linear Regression and
475 Multivariate Approaches. 2018. *PLoS One* 13 DOI:10.1017/S175173111500289X.
- 476 Robbins, K.R.; Saxton, A.M.; Southern, L.L. Estimation of Nutrient Requirements Using
477 Broken-Line Regression Analysis. 2006. *Journal of Animal Science* 84:155–165
478 DOI:10.2527/2006.8413_supplE155x.
- 479 Rostagno, H.S.; Albino, L.F.T.; Donzele, J.L.; Gomes, P.C.; De Oliveira, R.F.; Lopes, D.C.;
480 Ferreira, A.S.; Barreto, S.L. de T.; Euclides, R.F. Tabelas Brasileiras Para Aves e Suínos :
481 Composição de Alimentos e Exigências Nutricionais Composition of Feedstuffs and Nutritional
482 Requirements 3 Rd Edition Editor : Horacio Santiago Rostagno Authors : Horacio Santiago
483 Rostagno Luiz Fernando Teixeira Al. Univ. Fed. Viçosa-Departamento Zootec. 2011, 3rd
484 edition, 251.
- 485 Rostagno, H.S.; Albino, L.F.T.; Donzele, J.L.; Gomes, P.C.; de Oliveira, R.F.; Lopes, D.C.;
486 Ferreira, A.S.; Barreto, S.L.T.; Euclides, R. Brazilian Tables for Poultry and Swine: Composition
487 of Feedstuffs and Nutritional Requirements; 2017; ISBN 9788560249725.
- 488 Ruan, D.; Fouad, A.M.; Zhang, Y.N.; Wang, S.; Chen, W.; Xia, W.G.; Jiang, S.Q.; Yang, L.;
489 Zheng, C.T. 2019. Effects of Dietary Lysine on Productivity, Reproductive Performance, Protein
490 and Lipid Metabolism-Related Gene Expression in Laying Duck Breeders. *Poultry Science*
491 98:5734–5745 DOI:10.3382/ps/pez361.
- 492 Sakomura, N.K.; Silva, E.P.; Dorigam, J.C.P.; Gous, R.M.; St-Pierre, N. Modeling Amino Acid
493 Requirements of Poultry. 2015. *Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 24:267–282
494 DOI:10.3382/japr/pfv024.
- 495 Samadi; Liebert, F. Modelling the Optimal Lysine to Threonine Ratio in Growing Chickens
496 Depending on Age and Efficiency of Dietary Amino Acid Utilisation. 2008. *British Poultry*
497 *Science* 49:45–54 DOI:10.1080/00071660701821667.
- 498 Sarcinelli, M.F.; Sakomura, N.K.; Dorigam, J.C.P.; Silva, E.P.; Venturini, K.S.; Lima, M.B.;
499 Gonçalves, C.A. Modelling Japanese Quail Responses to Methionine + cystine, Threonine and
500 Tryptophan Intake. 2020. *Animal Feed Science and Technology* 263:114486
501 DOI:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2020.114486.
- 502 Silva, E.P. da; Sakomura, N.K.; Sarcinelli, M.F.; Dorigam, J.C. de P.; Venturini, K.S.; Lima,
503 M.B. de Modeling the Response of Japanese Quail Hens to Lysine Intake. 2019. *Livestock*
504 *Science* 224:69–74 DOI:10.1016/j.livsci.2019.04.005.
- 505 Silva, E.P.; Lima, M.B.; Sakomura, N.K.; Moraes, L.E.; Peruzzi, N.J. 2020. Weight Gain
506 Responses of Laying-Type Pullets to Methionine plus Cystine Intake. *Animal* 14:294–302
507 DOI:10.1017/S1751731120001093.
- 508 Silva, E.P.; Malheiros, E.B.; Sakomura, N.K.; Venturini, K.S.; Hauschild, L.; Dorigam, J.C.P.;
509 Fernandes, J.B.K. Lysine Requirements of Laying Hens. 2015a. *Livestock Science* 173:69–77
510 DOI:10.1016/j.livsci.2015.01.005.

511 Silva, E.P.; Sakomura, N.K.; Bonato, M.A.; Donato, D.C.Z.; Peruzzi, N.J.; Fernandes, J.B.K.
 512 Descrição Do Potencial de Retenção de Nitrogênio Em Frangas de Postura Por Diferentes
 513 Metodologias: Mínima Retenção. 2013. *Ciência Rural* 44:333–339 DOI:10.1590/S0103-
 514 84782014000200022.

515 Silva, E.P.; Sakomura, N.K.; Oliveira, C.F.S.; Costa, F.G.P.; Dorigam, J.C.P.; Malheiros, E.B.
 516 The Optimal Lysine and Threonine Intake for Cobb Broiler Breeder Hens Using Reading Model.
 517 2015b. *Livestock Science* 174:59–65 DOI:10.1016/j.livsci.2015.01.009.

518 Siqueira, J.C.; Filho, F.C.V.; Nascimento, D.C.N.; Bomfim, M.A.D.; Barbosa, N.A.A.; Araújo,
 519 J.A.; Ribeiro, F.B.; Oliveira, F.L. Efficiency of Lysine Utilization by Growing Meat Quail. 2021.
 520 *Poultry Science* 100 DOI:10.1016/j.psj.2021.01.034.

521 Sousa, M.; Lima, M.; Vieira, R.B.; Pavanini, J.; Peruzzi, N.J.; Raimundo, E.; Santos, D.; Silva,
 522 E. Modeling the response of Japanese quail to arginine intake. 2022. *Peer J Publishing*
 523 DOI:10.7717/peerj.14337.

524 St-Pierre, N.R. Reassessment of Biases in Predicted Nitrogen Flows to the Duodenum by NRC
 525 2001. 2003. *Journal of Dairy Science* 86:344–350 DOI:10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(03)73612-1.

526 Strathe, A.B.; Lemme, A.; Htoo, J.K.; Kebreab, E. Estimating Digestible Methionine
 527 Requirements for Laying Hens Using Multivariate Nonlinear Mixed Effect Models. 2011.
 528 *Poultry Science* 90:1496–1507 DOI:10.3382/ps.2011-01345.

529 Tian, D.L.; Guo, R.J.; Li, Y.M.; Chen, P.P.; Zi, B.B.; Wang, J.J.; Liu, R.F.; Min, Y.N.; Wang,
 530 Z.P.; Niu, Z.Y.; Liu, F. Z. 2019. Effects of Lysine Deficiency or Excess on Growth and the
 531 Expression of Lipid Metabolism Genes in Slow-Growing Broilers. *Poultry Science* 98:2927–
 532 2932 DOI:10.3382/ps/pez041.

Figure 1

Mean predicted of percentage lysine deposition errors for models (M).

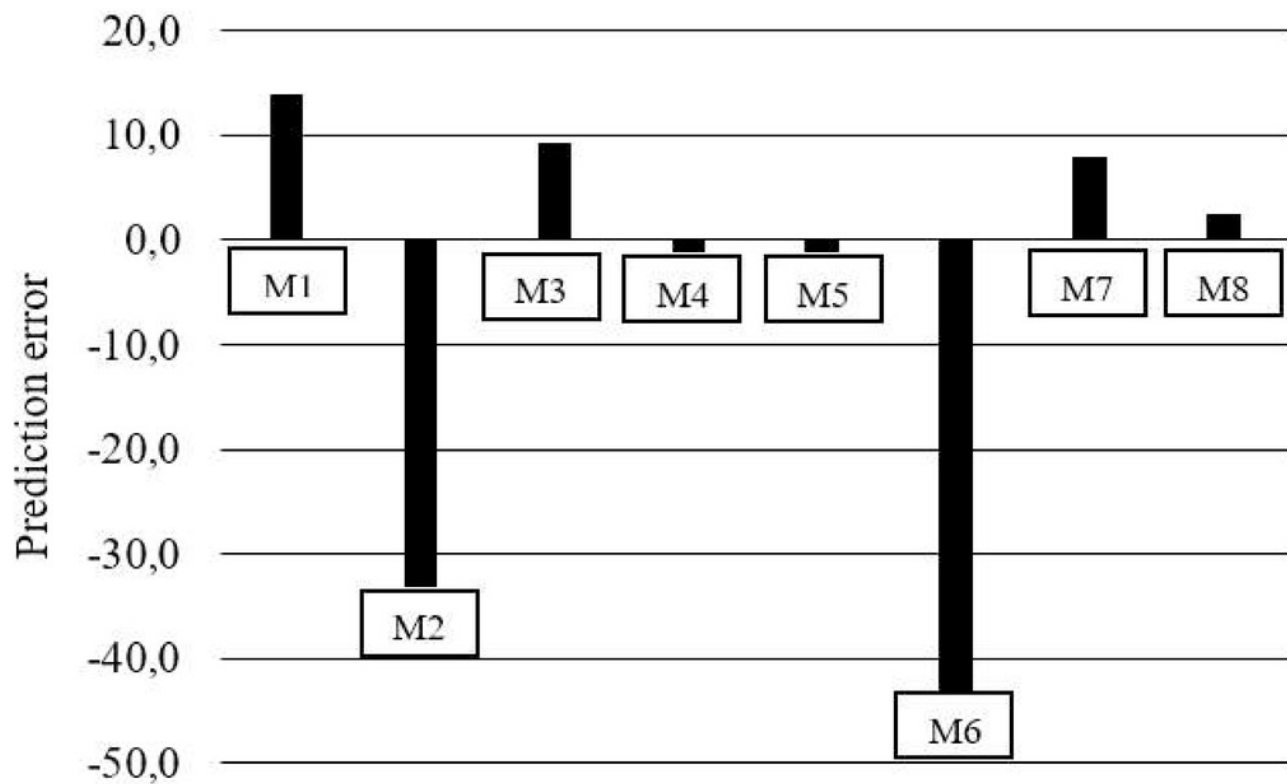
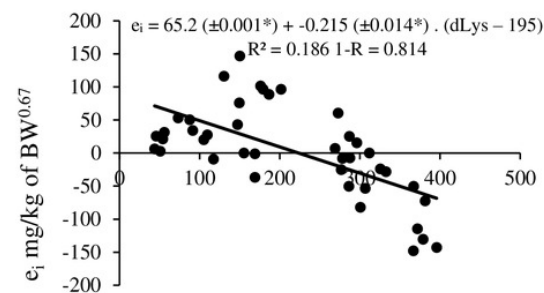
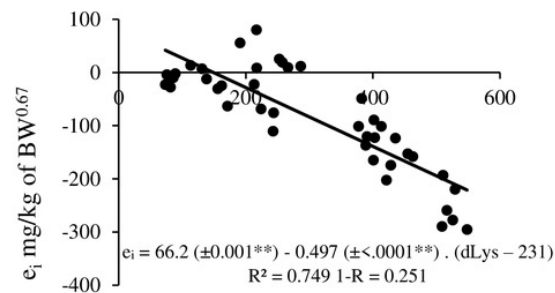


Figure 2

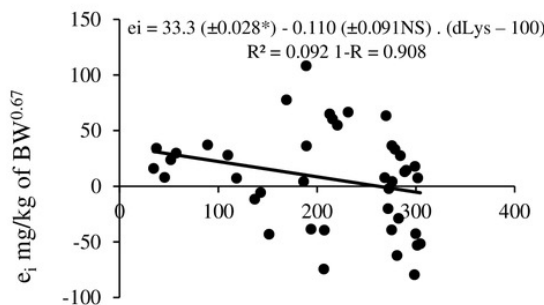
Relação entre predição residual (e_i) e valores preditos para lisina depositada (dLys) por diferentes modelos. Modelo 1 e 2: linear e Modelo 4,5,6,7 e 8: não linear. NS $p>0,05$; ** $p<0,01$.



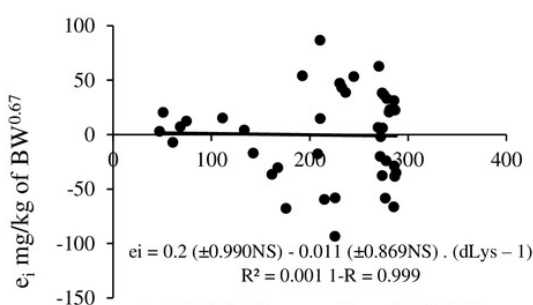
Model 1. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



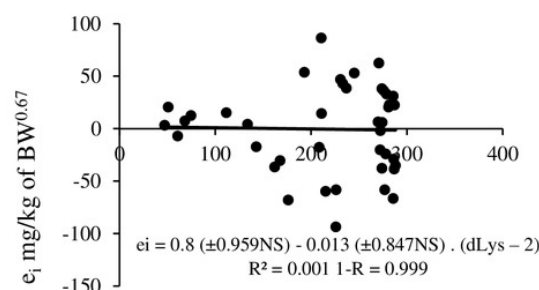
Model 2. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



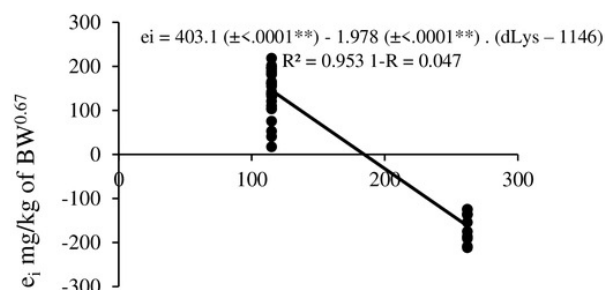
Model 3. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



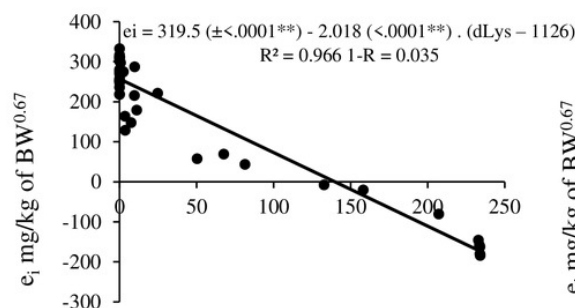
Model 4. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



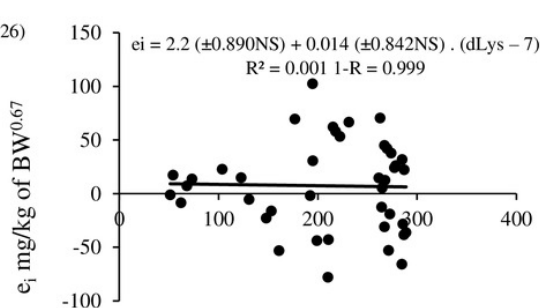
Model 5. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



Model 6. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



Model 7. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$



Model 8. dLys, mg/kg of $BW^{0.67}$

Table 1 (on next page)

Composition (g/kg) of the diets used in the lysine assay

^aHPD, high protein diet ^bNFD, nitrogen free diet ^cContent per kg of the diet - vit A 6.668 IU; vit D3 1.668 IU; vit E 8 IU; vit K 3.2 mg; vit B1 1 mg; vit B2 3.34 mg; vit B6 2 mg; vit B12 5 mcg/kg; niacin 21 mg; chlorine 0.13 g; pantothenate acid 8 mg; folic acid 0.46 mg/kg; biotin 0.05 mg/kg; copper 8 mg/kg; iron 60 g; manganese 70 g; zinc 25 g; iodine 6.25 mg; selenium 0.12 mg.

Table 1. Composition (g/kg) of the diets used in the lysine assay

Ingredient (g/kg)	HPD ^a	NFD ^b
Corn	356.97	-
Soybean meal	315.97	-
Corn gluten meal (60% CP)	181.22	-
Soybean oil	20.00	24.84
Dicalcium phosphate	10.13	15.02
Limestone	69.81	69.81
Salt	3.34	3.67
Choline chloride (60%)	0.84	3.40
Mineral premix ^c	0.25	0.25
Vitamin premix ^c	0.25	0.25
DL-Met (99%)	4.88	-
L-Lys HCl (78%)	5.72	-
L-Thr	2.71	-
L-Val	3.21	-
L-Ile	2.00	-
L-Arg	10.72	-
LTrp	1.81	-
Potassium chloride	-	11.95
Corn starch	-	249.03
Sugar	-	496.74
Rice husks	-	125.00

^aHPD, high protein diet

^bNFD, nitrogen free diet

^cContent per kg of the diet - vit A 6.668 IU; vit D3 1.668 IU; vit E 8 IU; vit K 3.2 mg; vit B1 1 mg; vit B2 3.34 mg; vit B6 2 mg; vit B12 5 mcg/kg; niacin 21 mg; chlorine 0.13 g; pantothenate acid 8 mg; folic acid 0.46 mg/kg; biotin 0.05 mg/kg; copper 8 mg/kg; iron 60 g; manganese 70 g; zinc 25 g; iodine 6.25 mg; selenium 0.12 mg.

11

12

13

Table 2 (on next page)

Nutritional levels of experimental diets

^aHPD, high protein diet ^bNFD, nitrogen free diet ^cThe nutrient content of the ingredients used in the formulation was analyzed using a near-infrared spectrometer (NIR). ^dThe total amino acid content of the diets were analyzed HPLC and digestible content calculated using coefficients from Rostagno et al. (2011) ^eNI, Not identified

Table 2. Nutritional levels of experimental diets

Items	HPD ^a	NFD ^b
Calculated composition (g/kg) ^c		
Metabolizable energy (MJ/kg)	12.5	12.5
Calcium (g/kg)	30.0	30.0
Avaliable phosphorus (g/kg)	3.0	3.0
Analyzed composition (g/kg)		
Crude protein	350.0	NI ^e
^d Digestible Lys	16.8	NI
Digestible Met + Cys	17.1	NI
Digestible Met	1.1	NI
Digestible Trp	0.3	NI
Digestible Thr	1.5	NI
Digestible Arg	2.5	NI
Digestible Val	1.7	NI
Digestible Ile	1.5	NI
Digestible Phe	1.9	NI

^aHPD, high protein diet

^bNFD, nitrogen free diet

^cThe nutrient content of the ingredients used in the formulation was analyzed using a near-infrared spectrometer (NIR).

^dThe total amino acid content of the diets were analyzed HPLC and digestible content calculated using coefficients from Rostagno et al. (2011)

^eNI, Not identified

Table 3(on next page)

As formas funcionais utilizadas para descrever a relação entre a deposição de lisina (dLys) e a ingestão diária de lisina (LysIntake).

^M Model. ^{Lys^m} The daily intake of lysine for maintenance. ^{BW} Body weight. ^a The deposition of 1 mg Lys in the egg mass. ^{R^{max}} The maximum response for dLys (mg/kg BW^{0.67}). ^U The rate of function growth. ^R The estimated value of LysIntake for Rmax (mg/kg BW^{0.67}). ^{R^{min}} The minimum response for dLys (mg/kg BW^{0.67}). ^k The rate of decay of the function.

1 Table 3. The functional forms used to describe the relationship between deposition of lysine (dLys) and lysine intake (LysIntake) daily.

Functional form	Function	Characteristic	Reference
$M1 = dLys = [LysIntake - Lysm \times BW^{0.67}] / a$	Linear	Linear model, estimates the average requirement of the population.	Silva et al. (2019)
$M2 = dLys = R_{max} + U \times (R - LysIntake)$, for $LysIntake < R$	Linear	Broken line, estimates the average requirement of the population.	Reis et al. (2018)
$M3 = dLys = (R_{max} - R_{min}) [1 - e^{-k(LysIntake - Lysm)}]$	Exponential	Addition of the R_{min} parameter with the response on the ordinate axis.	Sousa et al. (2022)
$M4 = dLys = R_{max} [1 - e^{-k(LysIntake - Lysm)}]$	Exponential	The function does not provide the parameter of R_{min} .	Kebreab et al. (2008)
$M5 = dLys = R_{max} [1 - e^{-kLysIntake}] - R_{min}$	Exponential	The R_{min} parameter with the response on the abscissa axis.	Samadi & Liebert (2008)
$M6 = dLys = R_{min} + Range [1 - e^{-k(LysIntake - Lysm)}]$	Exponential	It was a dual exponential model developed for the optimal response as a proportion of the asymptote.	Strathe et al. (2011)
$M7 = dLys = R_{max} [1 - e^{-k(LysIntake - Lysm)}]$	Exponential	It is similar to model 6, with modified parameters.	Strathe et al. (2011)
$M8 = dLys = R_{max} - (R_{max} - R_{min}) [e^{-k(LysIntake - Lysm)}]$	Exponential	This function was used to repair the Brody model.	Kops & Lamberson (2006)

2 ^M Model. ^{Lysm} The daily intake of lysine for maintenance. ^{BW} Body weight. ^a The deposition of 1 mg Lys in the egg mass. ^{Rmax} The
3 maximum response for dLys (mg/kg BW^{0.67}). ^U The rate of function growth. ^R The estimated value of LysIntake for Rmax (mg/kg
4 BW^{0.67}). ^{Rmin} The minimum response for dLys (mg/kg BW^{0.67}). ^k The rate of decay of the function.

5

6

Table 4(on next page)

Respostas aos níveis de lisina para consumo diário de ração, consumo de lisina, produção de ovos, peso do ovo, massa do ovo, taxa de conversão alimentar, deposição de lisina, peso corporal, mudança de peso corporal e mobilização de lisina

^{Geral} Média geral

^{SEM} O erro padrão de medição

- 1 **Table 4.** Responses to lysine levels for daily feed intake, lysine intake, egg production, egg weight, egg mass, feed conversion ratio,
- 2 lysine deposition, body weight, change body weight and lysine mobilization

Lysine In Diet	Feed Intake	Egg Productio n	Egg Weight	Lysine intake	Egg mass	Feed Conversio n Ratio	Lysine Depositio n In egg	Body Weight	Change In Body Weight	Lysine Mobilizatio n
g/kg	g/bird	%	g	mg/bird	g/bird	g/g	mg/bird	kg	g/bird	mg/bird
1.7	15.2	21.9	8.4	45.2	1.8	8.40	16.4	0.136	-6.0	-4.0
3.4	18.7	45.8	8.6	83.4	3.9	4.81	34.7	0.145	-5.9	-4.0
5.0	22.9	62.5	9.9	136.6	6.3	3.81	55.7	0.159	-1.6	-1.0
6.7	23.2	89.1	10.5	173.0	9.5	2.51	83.8	0.165	0.7	0.5
8.4	25.1	93.8	10.6	261.5	10.0	2.53	88.5	0.165	-3.4	-2.3
11.8	24.3	93.8	10.5	289.3	9.8	2.48	86.4	0.172	-1.1	-0.7
16.8	23.5	91.3	11.2	350.1	10.1	2.36	89.5	0.173	7.3	4.9
General	22.0	71.9	10.0	200.1	7.4	3.77	65.6	0.160	-1.1	-0.727
SEM	0.5	4.8	0.2	16.7	0.6	0.37	5.1	0.002	1.4	0.971
<i>P</i> -Value										
Treatment	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0683	0.1480
Linear	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	<.0001	0.0043	0.0191
Quadratic	<.0001	0.0002	0.0032	0.0051	0.0003	<.0001	<.0001	0.0283	0.5759	0.5877

3 **General** General average

4 **SEM** The standard error of measurement

5

Table 5 (on next page)

Estatísticas de ajuste para os modelos lineares, platô linear e funções monomoleculares para a relação entre deposição (Y) e consumo de lisina (X) de criadores de codornas japonesas

R^2 = R-Quadrado; R^2_{adj} = ajuste de R-quadrado; AIC = Critério de Informação de Akaike; AICC = Critério de Informação de Akaike Corrigido; BIC = Critério de informação bayesiano.

$$^{M1}, \text{ Modelo 1: } dLys = (LysIntake - 36 \times BW^{0,67})/3,69$$

$$^{M2}, \text{ Modelo 2: } dLys = 293 - 0,47 \times (682 - LysIntake)$$

$$^{M3}, \text{ Modelo 3: } dLys = (357 - 4) \times [1 - e^{(-0,0021 \times (LysIntake - 133))}]$$

$$^{M4}, \text{ Modelo 4: } dLys = 444 \times [1 - e^{(-0,0027 \times LysIntake)}] - 117$$

$$^{M5}, \text{ Modelo 5: } dLys = 327 \times [1 - e^{(-0,0027 \times (LysIntake - 114))}]$$

$$^{M6}, \text{ Modelo 6: } dLys = (119+170) \times [1 - e^{(-e^{(-1,025 \times (LysIntake - 511))})}]^{M7}, \text{ Modelo 7: } dLys = 269 \times [1 - e^{(-e^{(-0,0041 \times (LysIntake - 374))})}]$$

$$^{M8}, \text{ Modelo 8: } dLys = 314 - (314 - 17) \times e^{[-0,0028 \times (LysIntake - 139)]}$$

Table 5. Fit statistics for the linear models, linear plateau and monomolecular functions for the relationship between deposition (Y) and lysine intake (X) of Japanese quail breeders

Models	Regression	R ²	R ² adj	AIC	AICC	BIC
M1 Multiple linear	Linear	0.710	0.690	215	216	212
M2 Linear plateau	Linear	0.902	0.888	207	209	203
M3 Exponencial	Non linear	0.840	0.810	219	221	213
M4 Exponencial	Non linear	0.866	0.847	217	218	212
M5 Exponencial	Non linear	0.866	0.846	217	218	212
M6 Exponential double	Non linear	0.847	0.819	222	224	216
M7 Exponential double	Non linear	0.841	0.818	207	208	203
M8 Exponencial	Non linear	0.876	0.854	216	219	210

R² = R-Square; R²adj = R-square adjust; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; AICC = Corrected Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criteria.

M¹, Model 1: $dLys = (LysIntake - 36 \times BW^{0.67})/3.69$

M², Model 2: $dLys = 293 - 0.47 \times (682 - LysIntake)$

M³, Model 3: $dLys = (357 - 4) \times [1 - e^{(-0.0021 \times (LysIntake - 133))}]$

M⁴, Model 4: $dLys = 444 \times [1 - e^{(-0.0027 \times LysIntake)}] - 117$

M⁵, Model 5: $dLys = 327 \times [1 - e^{(-0.0027 \times (LysIntake - 114))}]$

M⁶, Model 6: $dLys = (119+170) \times [1 - e^{(-e^{(-1.025 \times (LysIntake - 511))})}]$

M⁷, Model 7: $dLys = 269 \times [1 - e^{(-e^{(-0.0041 \times (LysIntake - 374))})}]$

M⁸, Model 8: $dLys = 314 - (314 - 17) \times e^{[-0.0028 \times (LysIntake - 139)]}$

Table 6 (on next page)

Observed and estimated values of the lysine deposition by linear and nonlinear factorial models

Input variable: observed lysine intake, mg/kg of BW^{0.67}. Output variable: deposition of lysine in the egg, mg/kg of BW^{0.67}. Error: difference between observed and estimated for deposition of lysine in the egg.

1 **Table 6.** Observed and estimated values of the lysine deposition by linear and nonlinear factorial
2 models

Observed and predicted variables	Lysine in diets, g/kg						
	1.7	3.4	5.0	6.7	8.4	11.8	16.8
Observed variables							
Lysine Intake	190.1	333.8	484.0	586.4	889.3	955.3	1155.7
Lysine Deposition in Egg	62.8	126.8	190.5	281.8	297.1	284.1	286.7
Predicted variables							
Model 1: $\text{LysIntake} = 3.69 \times \text{Deposition} + 36 \times \text{BW}^{0.67}$							
Predicted lysine Intake	241.0	477.7	713.5	1050.7	1106.9	1059.3	1069.2
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	53.8	96.4	140.9	171.3	261.5	281.0	340.6
Erro	10.4	30.4	45.8	105.6	36.5	2.8	-49.9
Model 2: $\text{LysIntake} = 2.15 \times \text{Deposition} + 52 \times \text{BW}^{0.67}$							
Predicted lysine Intake	148.5	286.8	424.8	621.4	654.2	626.6	632.7
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	82.1	148.6	218.1	265.5	406.4	436.9	530.1
Erro	-17.2	-21.8	-33.4	8.6	-107.9	-153.3	-237.1
Model 3: $\text{LysIntake} = 133 + (\ln(357) - \ln(357 - \text{Deposition})) / 0.0021$							
Predicted lysine Intake	225.4	342.4	503.4	879.2	1043.3	911.7	945.3
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	39.8	120.4	183.9	216.4	280.8	289.9	311.4
Erro	26.0	6.4	2.0	60.6	16.8	-5.8	-23.5
Model 4: $\text{LysIntake} = 117 + (\ln(444) - \ln(444 - \text{Deposition})) / 0.0027$							
Predicted lysine Intake	173.6	241.7	327.0	490.7	533.7	498.6	507.2
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	61.1	145.4	206.5	235.5	286.7	293.0	307.1
Erro	4.9	-18.6	-20.3	42.3	10.7	-8.9	-19.7
Model 5: $\text{LysIntake} = 114 + (\ln(327) - \ln(327 - \text{Deposition})) / 0.0027$							
Predicted lysine Intake	193.3	296.1	446.0	857.2	994.1	924.3	997.3
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	60.6	145.0	206.3	235.3	286.6	292.9	307.1
Erro	5.4	-18.3	-20.1	42.4	10.8	-8.9	-19.6
Model 6: $\text{LysIntake} = 511 + (\ln(288) - \ln(288 - \text{Deposition})) / 1.025$							
Predicted lysine Intake	511.2	511.6	512.1	514.1	513.6	513.8	513.1
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	288.0	288.0	287.5	118.0	118.0	118.0	118.0
Erro	-225.2	-161.2	-96.6	163.8	179.1	166.1	168.7
Model 7: $\text{LysIntake} = 374 + (\ln(269) - \ln(269 - \text{Deposition})) / 0.0041$							
Predicted lysine Intake	439.2	530.0	692.4	.	1044.6	1071.8	1070.1
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	236.8	186.0	126.9	92.4	30.8	24.2	11.0
Erro	-175.3	-59.2	68.4	194.5	265.9	259.9	275.1
Model 8: $\text{LysIntake} = 139 + (\ln(314) - \ln(314 - \text{Deposition})) / 0.0028$							
Predicted lysine Intake	219.0	324.2	482.3	974.3	1382.5	1161.4	1096.2
Predicted lysine Deposition in egg	56.4	140.5	200.7	228.8	277.6	283.5	296.5
Erro	9.6	-13.7	-14.3	49.1	19.8	0.6	-9.1

- 3 Input variable: observed lysine intake, mg/kg of BW^{0.67}.
- 4 Output variable: deposition of lysine in the egg, mg/kg of BW^{0.67}.
- 5 Error: difference between observed and estimated for deposition of lysine in the egg.

Table 7 (on next page)

Estatísticas para avaliação do erro de predição da deposição de lisina (Y) de codornas japonesas em função do consumo de lisina (X) calculado pelo modelo fatorial linear e não linear

1 Table 7. Statistics for assessment the error of prediction of the lysine deposition (Y) of Japanese quail breeders as a function of the lysine
2 intake (X) calculated by the linear and non linear factorial model

Models	Regression	<i>e</i>	<i>b</i> 0	<i>P</i> -value	<i>b</i> 1	<i>P</i> -value	R ²	Scalar error	Prediction bias	1-R ²
M1 Multiple linear	Linear	33.5	65.2	0.001	-0.215	0.014	0.186	195	0.64	0.814
M2 Linear plateau	Linear	28.7	66.2	0.001	-0.497	<.0001	0.749	231	1.73	0.251
M3 Exponencial	Non linear	33.4	33.3	0.028	-0.110	0.091	0.092	100	0.33	0.908
M4 Exponencial	Non linear	33.4	0.2	0.990	-0.011	0.869	0.001	1	0.03	0.999
M5 Exponencial	Non linear	33.5	0.8	0.959	-0.013	0.847	0.001	2	0.04	0.999
M6 Exponential double	Non linear	35.2	403.1	<.0001	-1.978	<.0001	0.953	1146	5.62	0.047
M7 Exponential double	Non linear	28.4	319.5	<.0001	-2.018	<.0001	0.966	1126	7.11	0.035
M8 Exponencial	Non linear	32.2	2.2	0.890	0.014	0.842	0.001	7	0.04	0.999

3

4