

IDENTIFICATION, ISOLATION, MODE OF ACTION
AND PARTIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF AN
ANTINUTRITIONAL FACTOR IN RYE GRAIN

By

Takis Antoniou

A Thesis Submitted to
The Faculty of Graduate Studies
In Partial Fulfillment for the
Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Department of Animal Science
Faculty of Agriculture
University of Manitoba
Winnipeg, Canada

February 1980

IDENTIFICATION, ISOLATION, MODE OF ACTION
AND PARTIAL CHARACTERIZATION OF AN
ANTINUTRITIONAL FACTOR IN RYE GRAIN

BY

TAKIS CHARILAOU ANTONIOU

A thesis submitted to the Faculty of Graduate Studies of
the University of Manitoba in partial fulfillment of the requirements
of the degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

© 1980

Permission has been granted to the LIBRARY OF THE UNIVER-
SITY OF MANITOBA to lend or sell copies of this thesis, to
the NATIONAL LIBRARY OF CANADA to microfilm this
thesis and to lend or sell copies of the film, and UNIVERSITY
MICROFILMS to publish an abstract of this thesis.

The author reserves other publication rights, and neither the
thesis nor extensive extracts from it may be printed or other-
wise reproduced without the author's written permission.

ABSTRACT

A series of experiments were conducted to establish the mode of action of the antinutritional factor in rye grain using the chick as the bioassay animal, as well as to isolate and partially characterize the factor. The utilization of rye compared with wheat based diets as affected by dietary level and type of fat level of calcium and vitamin D₃, penicillin supplementations (200 mg/kg of diet), preadaptation to rye diets, as well as the role of protein quality on adaptation of chicks to rye diets and on the duration and effectiveness of penicillin supplementation were examined in the first part of this study. Subsequently, the factor was isolated using procedures for pentosan preparation, and its carbohydrate component was analyzed and quantitated by the use of gas liquid chromatography. Quantitation of pentosans, which was based on the arabinose plus xylose content, was also performed by use of a colorimetric method. The antinutritional activity of isolated rye pentosans was tested by adding them to wheat based diets at levels found in similarly formulated rye based diets.

The results indicated that the utilization of rye compared to wheat diets was consistently depressed, because of reduced feed palatability and nutrient digestibility (including fat, protein and minerals), particularly when poor quality protein and fat, such as tallow or lard, was used as dietary ingredients. Compared to unsaturated fats, the digestibility of tallow was markedly improved by decreasing its dietary level, by increasing the dietary calcium towards the recommended levels, or by penicillin supplementation. Fat utilization was also improved

by decreasing the chain length of fatty acids. Although penicillin improved chick performance, particularly when poor quality protein and fat were used, this response was of relatively short duration. Utilization of rye diets by chicks was also improved with increasing age and adaptation of chicks to rye diets.

Fractionation studies indicated that rye grain contains approximately 2.1% soluble and 7.9% water insoluble pentosans, and that their carbohydrate fraction was mainly composed of xylose and arabinose with minor quantities of mannose, galactose and glucose. Xylose and arabinose composed 83 and 50% of the carbohydrates in the crude soluble and insoluble pentosans, respectively. The soluble pentosans and those insoluble pentosans having a high arabinose content relative to the rest of the insoluble pentosans exhibited antinutritional activity manifested by decreased appetite and/or feed palatability and reduced nutrient digestibility. Their antinutritional activity could be attributed to their stickiness, ability to form highly viscous aqueous solutions with concomitant swelling, to their completely indigestible character by the avian digestive system, and, possibly, to their non-specific binding of ionized molecules (nutrients). Complete removal of antinutritionally active pentosans was impossible as they constitute cell wall components in rye grain. These pentosans, however, can be partially degraded by the endogenous pentosanases after water-soaking rye with a resultant improvement in chick growth.

It is concluded that pentosans in ergot-free rye are the major growth depressing factors in rye grain, and that chicks are highly sensitive to these pentosans compared to other animals, like rats. Rats have a more efficient digestive system, which is capable of overcoming to a considerable degree some of the detrimental effects of these polysaccharides.

DEDICATED TO MY PARENTS

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

The author wishes to express his sincere thanks to Dr. R.R. Marquardt for his suggestions during this research, and for his constructive criticism of the manuscript.

Technical assistance provided by Mr. J.A. McKirdy and his personnel, and by Mrs. S. Lam for sample analyses is gratefully acknowledged. Thanks are also extended to Dr. P.E. Cansfield and to his technician Mr. J. Rogers, Department of Soil Science, and to Drs. B. Dronzek and M. Ballance, Department of Plant Science, for their valuable advice and for the convenience of using their laboratory instruments for pentosan analyses. Thanks are also expressed to Dr. W. Guenter for translations of German articles.

Special thanks must be given to my wife for her patience, understanding and encouragement during the course of this study.

Financial support provided by the University of Manitoba in the forms of research assistantship and fellowship is gratefully appreciated.

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1 Cereal grain production in Canada from 1965 to 1975	5
2 Disposal of Canadian rye (average per year of four time periods)	6
3 Proximate composition, mineral, vitamin B and carotene content of cereal grains (% dry basis)	7
4 Pentosan content of various grains	10
5 Physicochemical characteristics of cereal gums	13
6 Composition of rye grown in different countries (values on dry basis)	17
7 Fractionation of water-soluble pentosans of rye flour	18
8 Fractionation of water-insoluble pentosans of whole rye grain	19
9 Average amino acid content of rye, triticale and wheat whole meal as determined by ion exchange chromatography (g of amino acid/100 g total nitrogen)	24
10 Calculated amino acid chemical scores of whole rye, triticale and wheat on the basis of World Health Organization (WHO) requirement pattern (1973)	25
1.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 1)	63
1.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 2)	64
1.3 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 3)	65
1.4 The effect on chick performance and nutrient retention of wheat and rye diets containing two levels and two types of fats and two penicillin levels (Experiment 1) ...	67
1.5 Two-way interactions between grain, level and type of fat, and penicillin supplementation (Experiment 1)	69
1.6 Three-way interaction ($P < 0.01$) of grain x fat type x level of added fat for fat digestibility (Experiment 1)	71

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
1.7 The effect of feeding chicks rye and wheat diets supplemented with different fats (Experiment 2)	73
Summary of analysis of variance	73
1.8 The effect of feeding chicks rye and wheat diets supplemented with different fats (Experiment 3)	74
Summary of analysis of variance	74
2.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 4)	84
2.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 5)	86
2.3 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 5)	87
2.4 The effect of feeding rye or wheat diets supplemented with two levels of vitamin D ₃ , calcium and penicillin on the performance of chicks (Experiment 4)	90
Summary of analysis of variance	91
2.5 The effect of feeding rye or wheat diets containing two levels of tallow, calcium and vitamin D ₃ on chick performance (Experiment 5)	94
Summary of analysis of variance	95
2.6 The effect of two levels of calcium and two types of fat on the performance of chicks fed rye and wheat diets (Experiment 6)	98
Summary of analysis of variance	99
3.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 7)	111
3.2 The effect of protein and fat quality on the performance of chicks fed rye and wheat based diets (Experiment 7)	113
Summary of analysis of variance	114
4.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 8)	121
4.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 9)	122
4.3 Mean interval weight gain of chicks fed rye and wheat diets supplemented with two levels of penicillin and two protein qualities (Experiment 8)	124
Summary of analysis of variance	125

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
4.4 Mean interval efficiency of feed conversion of chicks fed rye and wheat diets supplemented with two levels of penicillin and protein qualities (Experiment 8)	126
Summary of analysis of variance	127
4.5 The effect of protein quality and penicillin supplementation on the % dry matter retention in chicks fed rye or wheat diets (Experiment 8).....	132
Summary of analysis of variance	133
4.6 The effect of protein quality and penicillin supplementation on the % protein retention in chicks fed rye or wheat diets (Experiment 8)	134
Summary of analysis of variance	135
4.7 The effect of protein quality and penicillin supplementation on the % protein retention in chicks fed rye or wheat diets (Experiment 8)	136
Summary of analysis of variance	137
4.8 The effect of prefeeding wheat or rye on the performance of chicks fed wheat or rye diets supplemented with two protein qualities (Experiment 9)	140
Summary of analysis of variance	141
5.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 10)	156
5.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 11)	159
5.3 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 12)	160
5.4 The effect of autoclave treatment and penicillin supplementation on the performance of chicks fed rye and wheat based diets (Experiment 10)	162
Summary of analysis of variance	163
5.5 The effect of water extracts of rye on the performance of chicks fed rye or wheat based diets with or without penicillin (Experiment 11)	167
Summary of analysis of variance	168
5.6 The effect of grain component on the performance of growing chicks (Experiment 11)	169
5.7 The effect of grain component on individual amino acid digestibility (Experiment 11)	171
Summary of analysis of variance	172

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
5.8 Effect of autoclave treatment and water soaking on the performance of chicks (Experiment 12)	175
Summary of analysis of variance	175
5.9 Effect of time and autoclave treatment on the viscosity of rye extracts (Experiment 12)	176
6.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 13)	198
6.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 14)	199
6.3 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 15)	201
6.4 Protein (Nx6.25) composition of rye, extracted rye, water-soluble and water-insoluble pentosans, water extract, and ethanol filtrate after boiling rye in ethanol	203
6.5 Effect of water-soluble pentosans of rye on chick performance (Experiment 13)	205
6.6 Effect of water-soluble and water-insoluble pentosans on the performance of chicks (Experiment 14)	206
6.7 Pentosan content as determined by the aniline acetate method using xylose as the reference standard (results on D.M. basis, Experiment 15)	208
6.8 Determination by G.L.C. of pentoses and other sugars of rye, water-extracted boiled rye (after removal part of insoluble pentosans), and of freeze-dried supernatants and precipitates obtained by water-extraction three times of raw and ethanol boiled rye. Results are expressed on a D.M. basis as percent of the rye used for analysis or extraction (Experiment 15)	210
6.9 Composition of ethanol filtrate and of freeze-dried water extracts prepared by extraction of raw and ethanol boiled rye. Results are expressed on D.M. basis as a percent of extract (Experiment 15).....	213
6.10 Composition of pentosan preparations following determination of monosugars by G.L.C. Results are expressed as percent on a D.M. basis (Experiment 15)	215

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
6.11 Colorimetric determination of starch glucose in pentosan preparations using α -amylglucosidase digestion for increasing time intervals. Results are expressed as a percent of dry matter content (Experiment 15)	219
6.12 Effect of ethanol filtrate, water extract, water-soluble and -insoluble pentosans, and extracted rye (after removal part of soluble and insoluble pentosans) on the performance of growing chicks (Experiment 15)	221
6.13 Effect of rye pentosans on individual amino acid digestibility (Experiment 15)	223
6.14 Effect of rye pentosans on the size of chick intestine (Experiment 15)	226
7.1 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 16)	237
7.2 Formulas and analyses of the diets (Experiment 17)	238
7.3 Performance of rats fed rye or wheat based diets supplemented with three levels of essential amino acids and penicillin (Experiment 16)	242
Summary of analysis of variance	243
7.4 The effect of penicillin supplementation and of four combinations of flour and bran from rye and wheat on nutrient digestibility in rats (Experiment 17)	245
Summary of analysis of variance	246

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
2.1 Interaction of grain x calcium for feed conversion efficiency (Experiment 4)	92
2.2 Interaction of grain x tallow level x calcium level for the feed:gain ratio (Experiment 5)	96
2.3 Interaction of grain x calcium level x fat type for the feed:gain ratio (Experiment 6, data from Table 2.6)	101
2.4 Interaction of grain x calcium level x fat type for the apparent fat digestibility (Experiment 6, data from Table 2.6)	102
4.1 Feed:gain ratio as influenced by cereal, protein quality (meat meal, MM) and antibiotic level (Experiment 8)	129
4.2 Feed:gain ratio as influenced by cereal, protein quality (soybean meal, SBM) and antibiotic level (Experiment 8)	130
4.3 Interaction of adaptation x grain for weight gain (Experiment 9)	153
5.1 Interaction of grain x autoclaving time for feed conversion efficiency (Experiment 10)	165
6.1 Flow chart for isolation of water-soluble and water-insoluble pentosans from rye grain	186
6.2 Gas chromatographic analysis of 1 μ l injection of derivatized sugar components of the freeze-dried water-soluble pentosans obtained by three water extractions of ethanol boiled rye (Experiment 15)	211
6.3 Gas chromatographic analysis of 1 μ l injection of derivatized sugars present in fecal samples from chicks fed the rye diet (Experiment 15)	227

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ABSTRACT	ii
DEDICATION	v
ACKNOWLEDGMENTS	vi
LIST OF TABLES	vii
LIST OF FIGURES	xii
INTRODUCTION	1
LITERATURE REVIEW	3
A. Origin, Distribution and Agronomic Features of Rye	3
B. Production, Consumption and Trade of Rye Grain	4
C. Proximate Analysis of Rye in Comparison to other Cereals	6
D. Non-starchy Polysaccharides of Rye Grain	8
1. Classification	8
2. Isolation and Properties of Water-soluble Pentosans of Rye	10
3. Isolation and Properties of Water-insoluble Pentosans of Rye	14
4. Fractionation of Rye Pentosans	15
5. Problems of Pentosan Isolation	16
6. Structural Studies on Rye Pentosans	20
7. Pentosanases in Rye Grain	22
E. Protein Quality and Amino Acid Content of Rye	23
F. Feeding Value of Rye Grain	26
1. Feeding Value of Rye for Poultry	26
2. Feeding Value of Rye for Swine, Cattle, Rats and Mice	30
G. Improvement of the Feeding Value of Rye for Poultry	32
1. Water Treatment	33
2. Pelleting and Autoclaving	34
3. Supplementation with Antibiotics, Enzymes or Good Quality Protein	35

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
4. Treatments Reducing the Rachitogenicity of Rye	40
H. The Intestinal Microflora and Its Role on the Adaptation of Chicks on Rye Diets	41
I. Nutritional Inhibitors and Toxic Factors in Rye Grain	43
1. Resorcinols	43
2. Enzyme Inhibitors	46
3. Factors Depressing Chick Growth	47
4. Rachitogenic Factor(s)	50
5. Ergot Alkaloids	51
J. Physical Properties and Physiological Effects of Certain Polysaccharides	54
EXPERIMENTAL SECTION	
A. General Materials and Methods	59
1. Diets	59
2. Chick Management	60
3. Analyses and Experimental Design	61
B. Study One. The Effect of Fat Type and Level and Penicillin on the Utilization of Rye Diets	62
1. Results	66
a. Experiment 1	66
b. Experiments 2 and 3	72
2. Discussion	75
C. Study Two. The Utilization of Rye by Growing Chicks as Influenced by Calcium, Vitamin D ₃ , and Fat Type and Level	83
1. Results	89
a. Experiment 4	89
b. Experiment 5	93
c. Experiment 6	97
2. Discussion	103
D. Study Three. The Utilization of Rye Diets by Chicks as Influenced By Fat Type and Protein Quality	110
1. Results	112

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
2. Discussion	115
E. Study Four. Adaptation of Chicks to Rye Diets	120
1. Results	123
a. Experiment 8	123
b. Experiment 9	139
2. Discussion	144
F. Study Five. Utilization of Rye Diets by Chicks as Influenced by Autoclave Treatment, Water Extraction and Water Soaking	155
1. Results	161
a. Experiment 10	161
b. Experiment 11	166
c. Experiment 12	174
2. Discussion	177
G. Study Six. Isolation, Quantitation, Analysis and Antinutritional Activity of Rye Pentosans	185
1. Materials and Methods	185
a. Isolation of Pentosans	185
b. Quantitation and Analysis of Pentosans	191
c. Enzymatic Determination of Total and Starchy Glycose in Pentosan Preparations	195
d. Experimental Design and Diets	196
2. Results	204
a. Experiments 13 and 14	204
b. Experiment 15	207
i. Pentosan analysis	207
ii. Colorimetric determination of glucose	218
iii. Antinutritional activity of isolated rye pentosans	220
3. Discussion	228

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
H. Study Seven. Utilization of Rye by Growing Rats	236
1. Results	241
2. Discussion	247
SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	251
REFERENCES	255

INTRODUCTION

The amount of rye grain used for animal feed has consistently increased in Canada during the last fifteen years. In spite of the favorable price and chemical composition similar to that of wheat, further increase in the use of rye as a livestock feed is unlikely as poor growth is often associated with the consumption of rye diets.

Experiments carried out in the past have suggested that certain nutritional inhibitors are present in rye (ergot, trypsin inhibitors, and alkylresorcinols). The nutritive value of rye grain, however, still remains low although these factors can be inactivated or removed. Studies leading to identification of additional nutritional inhibitors and to their elimination from the grain by either chemical treatment or genetic improvement would increase the acceptability of rye grain by the animal feed industry, especially for poultry. This would then stimulate the expansion of rye cultivation, mainly in the cold and marginal areas of the Prairie Provinces, where production of other cereals is less profitable than rye.

The purpose of this study was the isolation and characterization of the major naturally-occurring antinutritional factor(s) in rye using the chick as the bioassay animal. The chick was selected as it is highly sensitive to the rye antinutritional factor(s). In the first part of this study the role of the factor(s) on the utilization of various nutrients (other than protein) and the pattern of possible adaptation of chicks to rye were studied. The information obtained should provide sufficient evidence about the nature of an antinutritional

factor to facilitate, in the second part of this study, the isolation identification and partial characterization of the compound(s).

LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Origin, Distribution and Agronomic Features of Rye

Cultivated rye, Secale cereale L., belongs to the family Geamineae, which also includes some other common cereals like wheat, barley, oats and corn.

Rye seems to have its origin from Southwestern Asia (Deodicar, 1963) from where it spread to Northern Europe through Asia Minor sometime during the first millenium B.C. From Northern Europe rye gradually spread to all Europe, and during the 16th and 17th centuries it was brought to North and Western South America by European settlers. During the 19th and 20th centuries it was introduced to Argentina, Australia and South Africa (Bushuk, 1976).

Among cereal plants rye enjoys the widest distribution. This is attributed to certain unique agronomic characteristics, such as extensive root system, extreme resistance to low temperatures and early ripening of grain. These features enable the plant to thrive better than any other cereal in cold areas with sandy acidic soils of low fertility and moisture. The greatest production of rye is in the cool temperate zones of the world, but it can also grow in the semiarid regions and at high altitudes.

Rye is mainly cultivated as a fall-sown annual but some spring rye is grown where the winter is too severe for winter rye production. However, the spring varieties are inferior in terms of agronomic and other qualities (Bushuk, 1976). In North America, most of the rye is fall-sown because of its winter hardiness and its ability to utilize

early spring moisture for early maturation (Evans and Scoles, 1976).

B. Production, Consumption and Trade of Rye Grain

Although rye enjoys the widest distribution in the world, its total production ranks last among all cultivated nine cereals, and represented only about 2.2% of the total grain production in 1972 (F.A.O., 1972). This can be attributed to the low breadmaking quality of rye flour dough and to the reduced feeding value of rye grain (Bushuk, 1976).

Rye production is mainly concentrated in Eastern Europe with the major producing countries in decreasing order being U.S.S.R., Poland, West Germany and East Germany (F.A.O., 1972). U.S.S.R. produces about one-third of the total world production, while the combined European and U.S.S.R. output accounts for more than 90% of the total world production. In Poland, rye is the leading cereal crop exceeding wheat production by about 60%.

Rye grain can be used for production of bread and other human foods, for livestock feeding and for manufacturing alcoholic beverages. Rye bread is very common in Eastern Europe because of traditional and economic reasons. Although rye is extensively used as livestock feed, it is relatively low in the scale of feed grains because it reduces appetite and nutrient utilization.

The major importers of rye grain are the countries of Eastern Europe, Netherlands and Japan. This last country has recently become a major importer of rye for the animal feed industry. The major exporters are Canada, U.S.S.R. and West Germany (F.A.O., 1972). In 1972, West Germany was the second exporting country after Canada. International trade in

rye is highly dependent on the major consuming countries especially in Eastern Europe.

Production of Canadian rye is almost exclusively concentrated in the Prairie Provinces, fluctuates considerably and is very low, representing an average of about 1.5% of the total Canadian cereal production from 1966 to 1975 (Table 1). The disposal of Canadian rye is shown in Table 2. During the last decade there has been an increase in the amount of rye used as animal feed, which consumes about 40% of the total production while an equal percentage is exported. The major importers of Canadian rye are Japan followed by Poland and the Netherlands (Wilson, 1979).

Table 1. Cereal Grain Production in Canada from 1965 to 1975¹

Crop Year	Wheat	Barley	Oats	Rye
		(In thousands of tonnes)		
1965-66	17,674	4,753	6,169	453
1966-67	22,517	6,450	5,717	437
1967-68	16,138	5,506	4,654	304
1968-69	17,689	7,099	5,501	331
1969-70	18,268	8,084	5,473	385
1970-71	9,024	8,890	5,445	480
1971-72	14,412	13,099	5,606	557
1972-73	14,514	11,285	4,630	344
1973-74	16,159	10,224	5,041	363
1974-75	13,295	8,802	3,229	480

¹Statistics Canada, 1976.

Table 2. Disposal of Canadian Rye
(Average per year of four time periods)

Disposal	1956-57 ¹	1961-62 ¹	1966-67 ¹	1971-72 ²
	to 1957-61	to 1965-66	to 1970-71	to 1975-76
	(in thousands of tonnes)			
Human food	10	11	11	12
Animal feed	95	80	139	220
Seed	16	20	26	20
Industrial use	30	37	61	45
Exports	106	150	159	201
Animal feed (% total)	37.0	26.8	35.1	44.2
Exports (% total)	41.2	50.1	40.2	40.4

¹Commonwealth Secretariat (1973).

²Statistics Canada (1978).

C. Proximate Analysis of Rye in Comparison to Other Cereals

Cereal grains are rich in energy but poor in protein (Table 3), and therefore are mainly used as energy feeds although in some diets they also supply all the dietary protein. There are no differences between rye, wheat, triticale and corn either for the total carbohydrate content (N-free extracts) or the crude fiber, which represents the alkali and acid resistant portion of the total carbohydrates. This method of fractionation, however, does not reveal any other chemically unfavorable and/or physically detrimental carbohydrates.

The qualitative and quantitative ash content of rye is similar to

Table 3. Proximate Composition, Mineral, Vitamin B and Carotene Content of Cereal Grains (% dry basis)

Component	Rye ¹	Triticale ²	Wheat ¹	Barley ¹	Oats ³	Corn ¹
Protein (Nx6.25)	13.4	14.8	14.3	13.1	13.0	10.4
Ether extract	1.8	1.5	1.9	2.1	5.5	4.5
Crude fiber	2.6	3.1	2.9	6.0	11.8	2.4
N-free extract	80.1	78.6	78.9	75.7	66.0	81.2
Ash	2.1	2.0	2.0	3.1	3.7	1.5
Phosphorus (mg/100 g)	380.0	-	410.0	470.0	340.0	310.0
Potassium "	520.0	-	580.0	630.0	460.0	330.0
Calcium "	70.0	-	60.0	90.0	95.0	30.0
Magnesium "	130.0	-	180.0	140.0	140.0	140.0
Iron "	9.0	-	6.0	6.0	7.0	2.0
Copper "	0.9	-	0.8	0.9	4.0	0.2
Manganese "	7.5	-	5.5	1.8	5.0	0.6
Vitamins						
Thiamine	0.44	-	0.55	0.57	0.70	0.44
Riboflavin	0.18	-	0.13	0.22	0.18	0.13
Niacin	1.50	-	6.40	6.40	1.80	2.60
Pantothenic acid	0.77	-	1.36	0.73	1.40	0.70
Pyridoxine	0.33	-	0.53	0.33	0.13	0.57
Carotene	0.00	-	0.00	0.04	0.00	0.40

¹Miller (1958).

²Munck (1972).

³Kent (1966).

the other cereals, but in rye most of the potassium, magnesium and phosphorus is found as insoluble salts of myoinositol hexaphosphate in the aleurone layer (Simmonds and Campbell, 1976). Niacin content in rye is also low, but neither the unavailability of minerals nor the low niacin content are a problem in animal nutrition because nearly all diets are supplemented with adequate amounts of vitamins and minerals.

Rye protein differs from that of other cereals in having a comparatively high content in lysine and other essential amino acids except tryptophan (N.R.C., 1971a). In addition, rye starch and protein are more soluble compared with other cereals. Yet the nutritive value of rye is lower than other cereals, a fact which indicates the presence of intrinsic, unidentified antinutritional factor(s).

D. Non-starchy Polysaccharides of Rye Grain

A brief review of this topic is necessary, since rye differs from most of the cereal grains with respect to quantity, type and properties of non-starchy polysaccharides, especially pentosans. Very little information, however, is available on the non-starchy polysaccharides in rye as most of the work concerning the isolation and characterization of these compounds has been with wheat, barley, corn and rice.

1. Classification

Among the non-starchy polysaccharides of cereal grains can be included the hemicelluloses, β -glucans, pentosans, cellulose and glucofructans. (D'Appolonia et al., 1971; D'Appolonia, 1973). The term "hemicellulose" has been traditionally confined to those plant cell wall

polysaccharides, usually from lignified tissues, which can be extracted with dilute alkali but not with water. This term, however, has also been used to refer to the water-insoluble, non-starchy polysaccharides present in cereal grains (Aspinall and Greenwood, 1962), like the alkali-extracted pentosans of the bran and endosperm. These pentosans constitute the major cell wall components and are composed mainly of β -D-xylopyranose and α -arabinofuranose with small quantities of mannose, galactose for the endospermic (Mares and Stone, 1973a), or uronic acids for the bran pentosans. Very often the term hemicelluloses has been used to refer to the water-insoluble pentosans of flour only.

The term "pentosans" has been used to describe the water-soluble pentosans from cereal endosperm and sometimes the water-soluble polysaccharides of the grain. The water-soluble pentosans have composition similar to, but they are less branched than, the water-insoluble endospermic pentosans. Some workers use the term pentosans or hemicelluloses to describe both the water-soluble and water-insoluble pentosans.

β -glucans are water-soluble carbohydrates found mainly in barley and oats (Preece and MacKenzie, 1952a) and are composed of β -D-glucopyranose residues linked in a linear chain by 1 \rightarrow 4 and 1 \rightarrow 3 bonds with a small proportion of 1 \rightarrow 6-linked side units. The water-soluble pentosans and β -glucans are also known as cereal gums (Preece and Hobkirk, 1953) because of their high adhesive power and viscosity in aqueous solutions.

Classification of pentosans on the solubility characteristics is imperfect because it does not reflect any biological or structural differences. For example, all water-soluble and -insoluble pentosans are