

Effect of feeding sweet-potato condensed distillers solubles on intake and urinary excretion of minerals in Japanese Black steers

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1 ABSTRACT

 $\mathbf{2}$ Four Japanese Black steers (16 months of age) were assigned to a 4 × 4 Latin 3 square design to investigate the effect of graded levels of sweet-potato 4 condensed distillers soluble (SCDS) in their diets on intake and urinary $\mathbf{5}$ excretion of minerals. The four diets consisted of 0%, 10%, 20% and 30% (dry 6 matter (DM) basis) SCDS, with SCDS replacing commercial concentrate (CC). 7 Intake of K, Cl, S, P and Mg increased linearly with increasing SCDS content. 8 Urinary pH increased linearly with increasing dietary SCDS content. SCDS 9 feeding increased urinary K concentrations (linear and quadratic effects). 10 Urinary concentrations of Cl increased linearly with increasing SCDS content. 11 In contrast, urinary concentrations of Mg decreased with increasing SCDS 12content. Feeding of SCDS did not apparently affect urinary NH₃, P, Na or Ca 13concentration. These results suggest that high SCDS feeding is not a risk for 14crystallization of minerals leading to the formation of magnesium-phosphate 15type calculi: although SCDS contains large amounts of P and Mg, high SCDS 16feeding decreased the Mg concentration and did not affect the P concentration 17in urine. Additionally, high SCDS feeding had no apparent effects on plasma 18 concentrations of Na, K, Cl, Ca or inorganic P.

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Key words: Japanese Black cattle, mineral, sweet-potato condensed distillers
soluble, urine

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1 INTRODUCTION

 $\mathbf{2}$ A recent increase of shochu (Japanese traditional hard liquor) production has resulted in large quantities of shochu by-products. Sweet-potato 3 4 condensed distiller soluble (SCDS) is one of these by-products having high $\mathbf{5}$ nutritive value, namely, a high content of total digestible nutrients (TDN) and crude protein (CP). Thus, SCDS is considered useful as a cattle feed (Kamiya 6 et al. 2010; Suzuki et al. 2010, 2011). SCDS contains a high amount of 78 potassium (K). Additionally, the concentrations of magnesium (Mg) and 9 phosphorus (P) are relatively high in SCDS, close to their levels in wheat bran. A high-K diet was reported to increase urinary K excretion, urinary pH (Kume 10 11 et al. 2011) and urine volume (Suzuki et al. 2010) in ruminants. High dietary 12levels of cations such as K induce metabolic alkalosis in cows, which reduces 13the ability of the cows to maintain plasma Mg and calcium (Ca) (Goff & Horst 141997). Therefore, feeding beef steers large amount of SCDS could possibly 15affects theirs mineral metabolism.

16In beef steers, urolithiasis has long been an important problem. Many factors have been implicated in its incidence, such as vitamins, minerals, 1718 water intake, infections and hormonal balance (National Agriculture and 19Food Research Organization, NARO 2008). Dietary mineral imbalances are 20particularly well known to induce urolithiasis. Uroliths are frequently seen 21in beef steers when urinary pH is high and urinary P and Mg concentrations 22increase (National Agriculture and Food Research Organization, NARO 2008). 23Our preliminary study (Kamiya et al. 2011) indicated that feeding of 24fermented TMR containing SCDS when compared with commercial 25concentrate (CC) has some effects on the urinary excretion of minerals such

as K and Mg. However, the results of our preliminary study were not
sufficient to clarify the direct effects of SCDS feeding on urinary mineral
excretion because SCDS was one of the ingredients in TMR. Further, the dose
response to dietary SCDS level was not clarified in the previous report.

5 The effects of 4 levels of dietary SCDS on feed dry matter intake, 6 digestibility and nitrogen metabolism in Japanese Black steers were reported 7 by Kamiya *et al.* (2013). In the present report, we examined the effects of 8 dietary SCDS on mineral intake, urinary excretion and plasma 9 concentrations of minerals of Japanese Black steers used by the Kamiya *et al.* 10 (2013).

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12 MATERIALS AND METHODS

13 Animals and procedure

14The experiment was conducted as previously described (Kamiya *et al.* 2013). 15Briefly, four Japanese Black steers (16 months of age) were randomly 16assigned to a 4×4 Latin square design. Each experimental period consisted 17of 14 d, which included 9 d of adaptation to the diets and 5 d of the sample 18 collection period. Experimental steers were fed daily experimental concentrate (CC replaced with SCDS (0%, 10%, 20% and 30% as DM basis)) 1920on an *ad libitum* basis, together with 1.5 kg/day of rice straw as the upper 21limit. Calcium carbonate (120 g/day) was added to experimental concentrate 22so that the Ca-to-phosphorus (P) ratio in the diet would be no less than 1:1. 23The chemical compositions of experimental diets were described in a previous 24study (Kamiya et al. 2013). The steers were offered the experimental diet at 2509.00 hours, once in a day. Mineral blocks and water were available

throughout the study. Feed refusals were collected and weighed daily in the experimental periods. Mineral blocks were weighed at the beginning and end of the experiment period. Urine was collected as spontaneous samples into a plastic bag hung under the abdomen on the third and fifth day of the collection period. Urine pH value was measured by a pH meter (Piccolo+ Hanna Instruments Japan, Chiba, Japan), immediately after urination and urine was frozen at -20 °C until analysis. Blood samples taken from the jugular

8 vein were collected in heparinized tubes before feeding on the final day of the9 experimental period.

The management of steers was conducted as previously described (Kamiya *et al.* 2013).

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13 Sample analysis

14For analysis of sodium (Na), K, sulfur (S), P, Ca, and Mg in diets and urine, 15dietary samples and urine samples were digested in nitric-perchloric acid. 16The concentrations of Na, K, Ca and Mg were determined by atomic 17absorption spectrophotometry (SOLAAR M6; Nippon Jarrell-Ash Co., Ltd., 18 Kyoto, Japan). The S content was determined by ICP-MS (SPS4000; Hitachi high-Tech Science Co., Tokyo, Japan). The P content was determined using 19the colorimetric method of Gomori (1942). For analysis of chlorine (Cl), diets 2021and urine were dry ashed at 550 °C. The Cl concentrations were determined 22using the titration methods of Mohr (1856). The urinary total ammonia 23concentration was measured using a commercial kit (F-kit Ammonia; Roche 24Diagnostics, Basel, Switzerland). Urinary creatinine excretion are closely 25correlated with body weight (BW) and the excretion rates of urinary

creatinine is considered to be constant (Jones et al. 1990; Chen et al 1992, 1 $\mathbf{2}$ Asai *et al.* 2005); therefore the urinary creatinine concentration has been used 3 as an indicator in estimating urine volume and assessing the balance of 4 nutrients in beef cattle digestion (Devant et al. 2000; Padilla et al. 2007; $\mathbf{5}$ Ceconi *et al.* 2015). Urinary creatinine concentration was measured using a 6 commercial kit (Labo Assay Creatinine; Wako Pure Chemical Industries, Ltd, Osaka, Japan). The urinary excretion of minerals and ammonia were 7 8 expressed as the ratio to urinary creatinine (O'Kelley & Fontenot 1973; Roch 9 et al. 2003). The concentrations of plasma Na, K, Cl, inorganic P (Pi), Ca and Mg were determined by an analyzer (DRI-CHEM 7070; Fujifilm, Tokyo, 10 11 Japan) using DRI-CHEM slides (Fujifilm). Mineral contents of the 12experimental diets are shown in Table 1. The dietary mineral intake was 13calculated from determined mineral contents and feed intake described in the 14previous report (Kamiya et al. 2013). The dietary cation-anion difference 15(DCAD) was calculated from determined mineral contents as (Na+K)–(Cl+S) 16(Ender et al. 1971). To evaluate the likelihood of urolithiasis, the solubility of 17struvite crystals was determined on the basis of struvite activity products 18 (SAP; $[Mg^{2+}] \times [NH_4^+] \times [PO_4^3]$) according to Buffington *et al* (1990). Urinary NH_4^+ and PO_4^{3-} concentrations were estimated from urinary pH and total 1920concentrations of ammonia and inorganic P (Shimizu et al. 2006). For 21convenience, the SAP is expressed as pSAP, the negative logarithm of SAP.

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23 Statistical analysis

All data were analyzed according to the 4 × 4 Latin square design using the
mixed procedure of SAS (2004), including diet and period as the fixed effects

and steers as the random effect in the model. Orthogonal polynomial
 contrasts were used to determine linear, quadratic and cubic responses to
 dietary level of SCDS in diet and the significance among treatments was
 tested by the PDIFF option (SAS 2004).

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6 **RESULTS**

7 The DCAD in experimental concentrate increased with increasing dietary 8 SCDS content because of the high cation-anion difference in SCDS (Table 1). 9 The feed intake was previously described in detail (Kamiya *et al.* 2013). The 10 experimental concentrate intake showed high values in 10% and 20% SCDS 11 groups (0%:6.57 kg/day, 10%:7.88 kg/day, 20%:7.52 kg/day, 30%:7.23 kg/day). 12The SCDS content of the experimental concentrate did not significantly affect 13the steer's intake of rice straw (0%:1.06 kg/day, 10%:0.97 kg/day, 20%:0.95 14kg/day, 30%:1.29 kg/day) or mineral blocks (0%:8.8 g/day, 10%:11.5 g/day, 1520%:11.0 g/day, 30%:12.5 g/day). Increasing dietary SCDS from 0% to 30% 16resulted in linear increases in K, Cl, S, P and Mg intake (P<0.01). There were 17no effects of SCDS feeding on Na and Ca intake (Table 2).

18 The effects of the SCDS feeding level on urinary mineral excretions are shown in Table 3. Urine pH (P<0.05) increased linearly with increasing 1920dietary SCDS level. The urinary creatinine concentrations (P < 0.01) decreased 21linearly with increasing dietary SCDS level. The urinary K concentration 22showed linear and quadratic increases (P<0.05) with SCDS feeding. Urinary 23estimated K excretions increased linearly (P<0.01) with increasing dietary 24SCDS level. The urinary Cl concentration (P < 0.05) and estimated excretion 25(P < 0.01) increased linearly with increasing dietary SCDS level. The urinary 1 Mg concentration decreased linearly with increasing dietary SCDS level 2 (*P*<0.05) while the SCDS level had no apparent effects on the estimated Mg 3 excretion in urine. The SCDS level had no apparent effects on urinary NH₃, 4 Na, P and Ca concentrations of experimental steers. The SCDS level had no 5 apparent effects on the pSAP of experimental steers.

6 The effects of SCDS feeding on plasma mineral concentrations are shown 7 in Table 4. There were no effects of SCDS feeding on concentrations of plasma 8 Na, K, Cl, inorganic P or Ca. The plasma Mg concentration showed quadratic 9 increase (*P*<0.05) with SCDS feeding; i.e., the plasma Mg concentration was 10 higher in the steers fed 10 and 20% SCDS than in the others.

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12 **DISCUSSION**

13The present study was conducted to examine the effects of 4 levels of SCDS 14feeding on intake, urinary excretion and plasma concentrations of minerals 15in Japanese Black steers. The SCDS feeding significantly increased urinary 16pH, although feeding of TMR containing SCDS did not affect urinary pH in 17our previous report (Kamiya et al. 2011). Kume et al. (2011) reported that 18 there were positive correlations between urine pH and urinary K 19concentration or K intake in dairy cows. On the other hand, SCDS also 20contained higher Cl compared to CC. Chloride such as NH₄Cl is often added 21to diets as a urine acidifier. Chlorine is almost completely absorbed in the gut 22and excess Cl is excreted into urine (NRC 2001). The amount of both absorbed 23Cl and Cl excretion into urine were increased in cows and sheep fed diets 24containing chloride (Takagi & Block 1991; Schonewille et al. 1999; 25Charbonneau *et al.* 2009). It is well known that urinary electrolytes and acid-

base status directly affect urine pH. Tucker et al. (1988) indicated that the 1 $\mathbf{2}$ changes in DCAD were responsible for the alterations in acid-base physiology 3 of cows. The DCAD has been known to be highly associated with urinary pH 4 in ruminants (Sanchez et al. 1994; Charbonneau et al 2006; Hersom et al $\mathbf{5}$ 2009). In the present experiment, DCAD calculated from mineral intake was 6 shown to be increased with increasing dietary SCDS. Although the 7 concentration of Cl and S were higher in the SCDS than in the CC, DCAD 8 was high in SCDS because of the large amount of K in SCDS. Thus we suggest 9 that urinary pH is increased with increasing dietary SCDS through 10 increasing DCAD.

11 The urinary creatinine concentration was decreased with increasing 12dietary SCDS level. Since daily creatinine production and consequently 13urinary creatinine excretion are constant to the individual (Albin & Clanton 141966; Asai *et al.* 2005), urine volume could be estimated by dividing the daily 15urinary excretion of creatinine by the creatinine concentration in the urine of 16the spot samples. Therefore, urine volume was thought to be increased with 17increasing dietary SCDS level. Several reports on cows and sheep have 18 indicated that high dietary K results in higher urine volume (Yano *et al.* 1977; 19Bannink et al. 1999; Suzuki et al. 2010; Ohtani et al. 2010). Intake of K was increased with increasing dietary SCDS in the present experiment because 2021SCDS contained a large amount of K. High K intake would contribute to the 22increase of urine volume in this experiment. High protein in diet or high urea 23concentrations of plasma also increase urine volume in ruminants (Wholt *et* 24al. 1976; Ohtani et al. 2014). Kamiya et al. (2013) has shown that plasma urea 25nitrogen concentration was higher in steers fed a high-SCDS diet, which

1 would have partially affected the urine volume in this experiment.

 $\mathbf{2}$ Although Mg intake was increased with increasing SCDS in diet and the 3 highest level of dietary SCDS increased Mg intake by 40%, the urinary Mg 4 excretion was not significantly affected by the graded levels of dietary SCDS. $\mathbf{5}$ Feeding a high level of K has been found to depress apparent Mg absorption 6 in ruminants (Greene et al. 1983; Fontenot et al. 1989). The high K in SCDS 7 in the present experiment probably depressed Mg absorption and thus 8 urinary Mg excretion was not increased in steer fed SCDS containing a large 9 amount of K and Mg. Further, the high K intake increased urine volume of 10 steers fed SCDS, which dilutes the Mg concentration in the urine. As a result, 11 the urine Mg concentration was decreased in steers fed high SCDS. Kamiya 12et al. (2011) also reported that SCDS feeding decreased urinary Mg 13concentration, though SCDS was one of the ingredients in TMR in that report. 14The intake of P was increased with dietary SCDS level but the 15concentration of plasma inorganic P was not affected by the dietary treatment, 16which indicated that P homeostasis was maintained even in steers given the 17highest level of SCDS. Urinary excretion and concentration of P was not 18 affected by the dietary treatment. Phosphorus metabolism is regulated by its 19absorption, urinary and endogenous excretion, and bone metabolism. The 20regulation of P absorption and/or endogenous excretion may contribute to its 21homeostasis in steers given SCDS because urinary excretion of P is not 22affected by the dietary treatment.

In the mineral nutrition of beef steers, urolithiasis has long been an
important problem. Calculi of the magnesium-phosphate type are commonly
found in ruminant urolithiasis (Lindley *et al.* 1953; Robbins *et al.* 1965). The

calculi have been reported to consist of magnesium and phosphate (Munakata
 et al. 1974) or magnesium, ammonium and phosphate (Osborne *et al.* 1985;
 Tsuchiya & Sato 1988). The urolith material consisting of magnesium,
 ammonium and phosphate is referred to as struvite.

 $\mathbf{5}$ When the urinary concentrations of Mg and P are at a high level combined 6 with high urinary pH, they tend to crystallize and form calculi. Some 7 researchers (Packett & Hauschild 1964; Bushuman et al. 1965) reported that 8 urinary P concentration was high when the calculi were found in the bladders 9 of ruminants. To evaluate the effects of SCDS feeding on urolithiasis 10 throughout the fattening period, it is necessary to discuss the changes of 11 mineral concentrations and pH in urine. In addition, the crystallization of 12struvite in feline urine was evaluated using the index, strutive activity product (SAP, $[Mg^{2+}] \times [NH_4^+] \times [PO_4^{3-}]$) according to Buffington *et al.* (1990). 1314Shimizu et al. (2006) tried to investigate the pSAP value and struvite 15crystallization of cats, suckling calves and dry cows, and indicated that pSAP 16would reflect struvite crystal formation in urine.

In the present study, although urinary pH was high in the steers fed SCDS, the urinary P concentration was not affected by dietary SCDS and the urinary Mg concentration was decreased with SCDS consumption increased. Furthermore, the present experiment indicated that dietary SCDS did not affect the pSAP value of urine. Therefore, these results suggest that SCDS feeding is not a risk factor for urolithiasis of magnesium-phosphate type calculi in beef steers.

The dietary SCDS level did not affect the plasma concentrations of Na, K,
Cl, Ca or inorganic P. Plasma Mg concentration was increased in the steers

1 given 10% and 20% SCDS but interestingly, not so in steers fed 30% SCDS. $\mathbf{2}$ Plasma Mg concentrations are affected by both Mg absorption in the intestine 3 and urinary excretions. However, the highest SCDS intake did not result in 4 the highest Mg of plasma concentration or urinary excretion. It is well known $\mathbf{5}$ that feeding a high level of K depress apparent Mg absorption in ruminants 6 (Greene et al. 1983; Fontenot et al. 1989). It was suggested that the high K 7 concentration of SCDS affected Mg absorption and plasma Mg concentration. 8 It is still necessary to clarify the effect of feeding SCDS on the plasma Mg 9 concentration.

10 Although the intakes of K and Cl were increased with dietary SCDS level, 11 plasma concentrations of these minerals were not affected by the dietary 12treatment, which can be explained by the increase in urinary excretion of 13these minerals. The kidney is the major organ controlling K and Cl 14metabolism because the absorptions of these minerals are not regulated and 15these minerals in the diet are almost completely absorbed (NRC 2001). The 16steers fed diets high in SCDS can adapt to the high intakes of K and Cl by 17increasing urinary excretion of these minerals.

18 In summary, SCDS feeding increased K, Cl, S, P and Mg intake of steers. 19SCDS feeding elevated urinary pH and urinary K and Cl concentrations and 20decreased the urinary Mg concentration. SCDS feeding did not affect the urinary P concentration. Our findings suggest that high SCDS feeding should 2122not influence the risk for crystallization of urinary minerals despite the fact 23that SCDS contains large amounts of P and Mg. However, it is still necessary 24to clarify the effect of feeding SCDS throughout fattening period on the formation of uroliths of beef steers. 25

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11	カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液の給与が肥育牛のミネラル摂取量および尿中への
12	ミネラル排泄量に及ぼす影響
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16	
17	配合飼料へのカンショ焼酎粕濃縮液の混合割合の異なる4種類の濃厚飼料(乾
18	物ベースでの混合割合 0%, 10%, 20%, 30%)を黒毛和種肥育牛 4 頭(試験
19	開始時16ヶ月齢)に給与し、1期2週間の4×4ラテン方格法による飼養試験
20	を行い, ミネラル摂取量および尿中へのミネラル排泄を比較検討した. 配合飼
21	料のミネラル含量は, K が 5.6 g/kg, P が 5.0 g/kg, Mg が 1.8 g/kg であっ
22	た.カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液のミネラル含量は乾物あたりで K が 63.3 g/kg, P
23	が 9.4 g/kg, Mg が 3.9 g/kg であった.カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液の混合割合の増
24	加に伴い, K, Cl, S, Pおよび Mg 摂取量が増加した.カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液

合の増加に伴い,尿中KおよびCl濃度は増加したが,尿中Mg濃度は低下し
 た.カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液の給与は,尿中NH₃,Na,PおよびCa濃度には影
 響を及ぼさなかった.カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液給与は,血漿中Na,K,Cl,Ca
 およびPi濃度に影響を及ぼさなかった.さらに,カンショ焼酎粕濃縮液の給
 与は,リン酸マグネシウム塩結晶の生成要因に大きな影響を及ぼさないと推測
 された.

					Expe	rimental	concentra	ite†
	Commercial	SCDS	Rice straw	Mineral block	0%	10%	20%	30%
	concentrate							
Na (g/kgDM)	0.5	0.8	0.3	315.1	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6
K (g/kgDM)	5.6	63.3	19.9	0.0	5.6	10.6	15.6	21.0
Cl (g/kgDM)	4.7	14.9	3.1	533.3	4.6	5.5	6.4	7.4
S (g/kgDM)	1.5	3.2	0.8	2.3	1.5	1.7	1.8	2.0
P (g/kgDM)	5.0	9.4	2.1	16.4	5.0	5.4	5.7	6.1
Ca (g/kgDM)	2.9	0.2	0.7	31.4	7.5	7.0	6.5	6.4
Mg (g/kgDM)	1.8	3.9	1.0	0.9	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.4
DCAD (mEq/100gDM)†;	-5.7	103.3	38.3	-146.8	-5.9	3.5	13.1	23.2

Table 1 The mineral contents of commercial concentrate, sweet-potate condensed distillers solubles (SCDS), rice straw, mineral block and experimental concentrate

†Experimental concentrate; 0%:98.7% commecial concentrate (CC) and 1.3% calcium carbonate on a dry matter basis, 10%:90.1% CC, 8.7% SCDS and 1.2% calcium carbonate on a dry matter basis, 20%: 81.4% CC, 17.4% SCDS and 1.2% calcium carbonate on a dry matter basis, 30%:72.1% CC and 26.7% SCDS and 1.2% calcium carbonate on a dry matter basis

Na: sodium, K: potassium, Cl: chlorine, S: sulfur, P: phosphorus, Ca: calcium, Mg: magnesium

††: DCAD: Dietary cation anion difference (mEq/100gDM) =(Na+K)-(Cl+S)

		Diet (S	SCDS)	P values				
	0%	10%	20%	30%	\mathbf{SE}	Linear	Quadratic	Cubic
Na (g/day)	6.4	8.2	8.0	8.6	1.0	NS	NS	NS
K (g/day)	57.6	102.5	136.4	177.4	9.1	**	NS	NS
Cl (g/day)	38.3	52.6	57.0	64.0	3.4	**	NS	NS
S (g/day)	10.8	13.9	14.4	15.3	0.8	**	NS	NS
P (g/day)	35.0	44.4	45.3	47.3	2.5	**	NS	NS
Ca (g/day)	50.1	56.4	50.1	47.3	2.7	NS	NS	NS
Mg (g/day)	12.9	16.7	17.3	18.4	1.0	**	NS	NS

Table 2 The effct of feeding sweet-potato condensed distillers solubles (SCDS) on mineral intake of experimental steers

Na: sodium, K: potassium, Cl: chlorine, S: sulfur, P: phosphorus, Ca: calcium, Mg: magnesium

**: P<0.01, NS: not significant.

		Diet (S	SCDS)				P values	
	0%	10%	20%	30%	SE	Linear	Quadratic	Cubic
Urinary pH	7.92	8.11	8.06	8.17	0.07	*	NS	NS
Urinary concentrations								
Creatinine (mg/dl)	200.2	135.2	99.1	95.5	31.4	*	NS	NS
NH ₃ (mg/l)	137.4	156.6	93.3	167.0	59.6	NS	NS	NS
Na (mg/l)	126.3	531.0	793.6	542.3	298.3	NS	NS	NS
K (mg/l)	6736.1	10945.0	10147.8	10563.0	1705.0	*	*	NS
Cl (mg/l)	2213.8	3916.1	4024.1	4104.5	596.3	*	NS	NS
P (mg/l)	191.6	173.1	189.2	145.6	55.2	NS	NS	NS
Ca (mg/l)	8.9	7.9	8.6	8.9	2.4	NS	NS	NS
Mg (mg/l)	646.6	561.8	423.4	382.3	121.5	*	NS	NS
Urinary estimated excret	ion (Ratios	of urinary	$^{ m NH}_3$ and $^{ m s}$	minerals to	urinary cre	eatinine, n	ng:mg)	
NH_3	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.28	0.07	NS	NS	NS
Na	0.10	0.41	0.93	0.89	0.41	NS	NS	NS
К	4.3	8.4	10.3	13.9	1.5	**	NS	Ns
Cl	1.6	3.3	4.3	4.8	0.6	**	NS	NS
Р	0.13	0.16	0.22	0.20	0.07	NS	NS	NS
Ca	0.005	0.006	0.010	0.015	0.004	NS	NS	NS
Mg	0.34	0.44	0.43	0.40	0.04	NS	NS	NS
pSAP [†]	9.5	9.4	9.5	9.5	0.2	NS	NS	NS

Table 3 The effct of feeding sweet-potato distillers solubles (SCDS) on urinary creatinine, mineral excretion and pSAP of experimental steers

NH3: ammonium Na: sodium, K: potassium, Cl: chlorine, P: phosphorus, Ca: calcium, Mg: magnesium

*: P<0.05, **: P<0.01, NS: not significant. †:the negative logarithm of SAP (SAP: [Mg2+]×[NH4+]×[PO43-]) according to Buffington et al. (1990)

	Diet (SCDS)					P values			
	0%	10%	20%	30%	SE	Linear	Quadratic	Cubic	
Na (mEq/l)	139.8	138.8	138.3	141.0	1.0	NS	NS	NS	
K (mEq/l)	3.8	4.0	3.9	3.9	0.1	NS	NS	NS	
Cl (mEq/l)	90.5	90.8	89.5	91.3	0.9	NS	NS	NS	
Pi (mg/dl)	8.3	8.6	8.6	8.4	0.3	NS	NS	NS	
Ca (mg/dl)	11.1	11.1	10.8	11.0	0.2	NS	NS	NS	
Mg (mg/dl)	2.4	2.7	2.7	2.5	0.1	NS	*	NS	

Table 4 The effct of feeding sweet potato distillers solubles (SCDS) on plasma metabolites

*: *P*<0.05, NS: not significant. Na: sodium, K: potassium, Cl: chlorine, Pi: inorganic phosphorus, Ca: calcium, Mg: magnesium