



TITLE: Importance of feed structure (particle size) and feed form (mash vs. pellets) in pig nutrition – A review

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7 Importance of feed structure (particle size) and feed form (mash vs. pellets) in pig nutrition – A
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42 Abstract

43 Pigs are monogastric animals with simple, single-chambered stomach and require easily
44 digestible, high quality feed. One of the most important factors that determine feed utilization by
45 pigs is the particle size distribution. The reduction of particle size of feed improves pigs'
46 performance due to increased specific surface of feed particles allowing better contact with
47 digestive enzymes. In this respect, fine grinding could be recommended in production of pig
48 feed. Additionally, in modern pig production dry feed is predominantly used in pelleted form,
49 which is mainly due to improved (i.e. decreased) feed conversion ratio (FCR) of pigs fed pelleted
50 feed, but also due to other advantages of pelleted over mash feed.

51 Size of feed particles is strongly reduced during pelleting process. Consequently, digestibility
52 of nutrients in pig feed could be improved. On the other hand, presence of high quantities of fine
53 particles in pig feed (both mash and pelleted) negatively affects the health of gastro-intestinal
54 tract (GIT) leading to higher incidence of stomach ulceration and other negative alterations of
55 gastric mucosa (keratization, erosions). Gastric ulcers are one of the most important causes of
56 sudden death on farm that can result in large economic losses in pig production. Concerning that
57 the animal therapy is expensive, labor-intensive, and mostly non-effective due to late recognition
58 of ulceration, prophylactic recommendations are required. Thus, according to literature data,
59 decreasing the quantity of fine particles in pig feed is strongly recommended.

60 Particle size distribution of the pigs' feed has a strong influence on presence of pathogen
61 bacteria in GIT of pigs. Feeding pigs with coarse mash feed decreases pH value of stomach
62 content compared to pigs fed finely ground mash feed and compared to pigs fed pelleted feed.
63 This can be explained by slower passage rate, increased dry matter, and more dense consistency
64 of stomach content in pigs fed coarse mash diets. Consequently, feed acidification in stomach is

65 better, number of lactic acid bacteria and concentration of organic acids is higher, and pH of
66 stomach content is lower. These conditions create additional “barrier” against pathogen bacteria.

67 According to available data, optimal particle size of diets for pigs is in the range between 500
68 and 1600 μm , while particles smaller than 400 μm are considered as undesirable with high
69 ulcerogenic capacity. Optimal particle size could be designed in the grinding process, and it was
70 shown that the most convenient grinding method is to combine roller mill and hammer mill.
71 Concerning that nowadays pigs are mainly fed pelleted feed, and that pelleting causes strong
72 additional grinding of feed particles, particle size distribution (PSD) obtained within the grinding
73 process would be dramatically changed during pelleting. The possibilities to decrease the
74 intensity of grinding of particles during pelleting, by variation of parameters of pelleting process,
75 are very limited. Modified extrusion process (i.e. processing using expander) followed by
76 shaping element, is suggested in the literature as an alternative for pelleting in order to obtain
77 agglomerated pig feed with preserved PSD, but this process is not extensively studied so far.

78

79 *Keywords:* pig feed, particle size, mash, grinding, pelleting, ulcers, *Salmonella*

80

81 *Abbreviations:* ADG, average daily gain, ADFI, average daily feed intake, FCR, feed conversion
82 ratio, GIT, gastro-intestinal tract, HM, hammer mill, PDI, pellet durability index, PSD, particle
83 size distribution

84

85 1. Introduction

86 Pigs are omnivore animals with simple, single-chambered stomach, where most of
87 digestion is carried out through endogenous enzymes. Consequently, pigs require high quality
88 feed, where nutrients are readily available to the enzymes (Kersten et al., 2005). Besides feed
89 composition, as the most important factor that determines the efficiency of feed utilization by
90 pigs, feed structure (particle size) and feed form (mash, pellets) are also important for the
91 optimal nutrient utilization (Wondra et al., 1995a; Choct et al., 2004; Thorsten, 2011; Ball et al.,
92 2015).

93 Grinding is inevitable step in feed manufacturing process in which particle size of single
94 feed components is reduced. Optimal particle size distribution (PSD) of the diet, adapted to
95 physiological needs of animal, enables optimal utilization of nutrients and enhances animal
96 performance. Additionally, adequate diminution obtained after grinding process facilitates
97 further processing steps, i.e. mixing, transporting, pelleting, extrusion/expansion (Kersten et al.,
98 2005). According to numerous research results, decreasing the particle size of cereals, as the
99 main diet components, improves pigs' performance (Owsley et al., 1981; Ohh et al., 1983;
100 Hedde et al., 1985; Goodband and Hines, 1988; Healy et al., 1994; Wondra et al., 1995a; Callan
101 et al., 2007; Lahaye et al., 2008; Ball et al., 2015; Rojas and Stein, 2015; Al-Rabadi et al., 2016;
102 Bao et al., 2016). On the other hand, finer particle size of the diet negatively affects health of
103 pig's GIT (Healy et al., 1994; Goodband et al., 2002). For this reason optimal particle size of pig
104 feed is recommended in the literature, and according to available data the share of the finest
105 particles (<400 μm) should be as low as possible due to their negative influence on gut health
106 (Cappai et al., 2013). The quantity of the coarsest fractions (>1600 μm) should also be low due
107 to decreased digestibility of nutrients from coarse particles, and the share of medium-sized

108 particles (approx. 500-1600 μm), which are considered to be optimal for pig's digestive system,
109 should be as high as possible (Healy et al., 1994; Wondra et al, 1995a,b; Lucht, 2011, Cappai et
110 al., 2013). Particle size distribution is directly affected by the grinding process and mill type.
111 Optimal status of hammers in a hammer mill may directly contribute to the optimal PSD of pig
112 feed achieved within the grinding process. In the case of worn hammers, the effects on PSD and
113 the increase of coarse particles have a negative impact on performance (average daily feed intake
114 and average daily gain) in weanling pig fed mash diets (Solà-Oriol et al., 2015). Young piglets
115 are often fed mash feed while using of pelleted feed is much more common for growing pigs.
116 During the pelleting process, tailored PSD of feed is compromised, i.e. coarse particles are
117 intensively crushed and the content of fine particles can be strongly increased (Svihus et al.,
118 2004; Grosse Liesner et al., 2009, Vukmirović, 2015).

119 The aim of the present article is to give an overview of available literature data about the
120 importance of particle size distribution of pig feed related to the efficiency of feed utilization in
121 pig's digestive system, influence on further processing steps, and influence on health of GIT.
122 Furthermore, the possibilities of achieving desired PSD in grinding process, as well as the
123 influence of downstream processing on PSD of pig feed are reviewed.

124 **2. Importance of particle size and feed form in pig nutrition**

125 *2.1. Mash pig feed*

126 Compound feeds are multi-component mixtures comprised of up to 40 macro and micro-
127 ingredients that have to be mixed homogenously to provide quality and safe feed for animals
128 (Kirchner et al., 2013). Cereal grains are primary energy sources in pig diet and need to be
129 processed before or after mixing with other diet components. Processing always includes
130 grinding step which facilitates further processing (mixing, pelleting, extrusion, expansion), and

131 improves nutritional value of feed (Table 1) by increasing the surface area allowing better
132 contact with digestive enzymes (Behnke, 1996; Goodband et al., 2002; Blasel et al., 2006). This
133 leads to increased dry matter digestibility and improved feed conversion efficiency (Ohh et al.,
134 1983; Healy et al., 1994; Oryschak and Zijlstra, 2002; Millet et al., 2012; Ball et al., 2015;
135 Liermann et al., 2015; Rojas and Stein, 2015). Owsley et al. (1981) determined improvement of
136 ileal digestibility of dry matter, starch, gross energy and nitrogen in growing pigs when
137 geometric mean diameter of sorghum was decreased from 1262 to 471 μm . Hedde et al. (1985)
138 observed an increase in daily gains of finishing pigs by 8% when they were fed with fine diet,
139 with >80% of particles smaller than 1200 μm , compared to coarse diet with <20% of particles
140 smaller than 1200 μm . Reducing particle size of barley from 789 to 676 μm improved average
141 daily gain (ADG) of starter pigs by 5% (Goodband and Hines, 1988). Giesemann et al. (1990)
142 determined increase of total tract digestibility of nitrogen, gross energy and dry matter by
143 reducing the particle size of corn-based diets for finishing pigs from 1500 to 641 μm .
144 Furthermore, in the research of Healy et al. (1994) energy digestibility was increased in the
145 experiment with nursery pigs when geometric mean diameter of corn and sorghum was
146 decreased from 900 to 300 μm and it was concluded that optimal particle size increases with
147 rising age of pigs. Wondra et al. (1995a) observed decrease of FCR by 8% ($P < 0.001$), increase of
148 gross energy digestibility by 7% ($P < 0.03$), 26% decrease of dry matter daily excretion and 27%
149 decrease of nitrogen daily excretion in the feces, when particle size of corn in diets for finishing
150 pigs was reduced from 1000 to 400 μm . They concluded that decreasing corn particle size by
151 100 μm , increases feed conversion by 1.3%. Oryschak et al. (2002) observed improvements in
152 energy digestibility and improved apparent total-tract N digestibility when mean particle size of
153 barley and field peas (that represented approximately 80% of the diet) was reduced from 900 to

154 600 μm . Callan et al. (2007) found that fine grinding (3 mm compared to 6 mm screen size of
155 hammer mill) improved feed efficiency by 8%, 5% and 7% respectively, during the grower,
156 finisher and combined grower–finisher period. Decreasing mean particle size from 1000 to 500
157 μm improved ileal digestibility of dietary energy, organic matter and dry matter digestibility in
158 the research of Lahaye et al. (2008). Re-grinding the coarse particles of sorghum-based or barley-
159 based diets in the experiment with grower pigs performed by Al-Rabadi et al. (2016), improved
160 feed efficiency concerning that FCR was reduced by 10% and 7.8%, respectively. Bao et al.
161 (2016) determined approximately linear increase of *in vitro* dry matter (from 17% to 26%) and
162 crude protein digestibility (from 55% to 66%) with decrease of wheat particle size. In this
163 research mean diameters of ground wheat were 330, 430, 450, 470, 580, and 670 μm , while diets
164 contained 70.85% of wheat.

165 Digestion of starch in pigs is affected by many factors with particle size of cereal-
166 component of the diet being one of them. This was related to specific surface area of particles
167 that is available for the alpha-amylase enzymatic action. Blasel et al. (2006) determined that each
168 decrease of cereal particle size for 100 μm increased starch access by alpha-amylase by 26.8 g
169 per 1 kg of starch. In the research of Owsley et al. (1981) starch digestibility increased by 19%
170 when sorghum grain was ground on hammer mill with 3.2 mm screen, compared to coarse
171 milling with roller mill. According to Al-Rabadi et al. (2009), *in vitro* starch digestion decreased
172 four times with doubling of mean particle size of barley and sorghum. In a study of Amaral et al.
173 (2014), an increase of starch digestion rate in small intestine was observed when mean particle
174 size was decreased from 850 to 550 μm . In an experiment conducted by Rojas Martinez (2015),
175 reducing of mean corn particle size from 865 to 339 linearly increased starch and gross energy
176 digestibility and increased concentration of metabolisable energy which enabled reduction of fat

177 added to pig diet without affecting growth performance and carcass composition. It was
178 concluded that if corn is ground to a smaller particle size, it will be less expensive to formulate a
179 pig diet; however, finer grinding increases mill energy consumption, which also has to be
180 considered. Strong decrease ($P < 0.001$) of the FCR in the experiment with grower pigs performed
181 by Al-Rabadi et al. (2016), was related to more dietary energy being available due to increased
182 starch digestion in small intestine with decreased particle size of barley and sorghum. Rojas and
183 Stein (2015) observed linear increase of starch digestibility when corn particle size was reduced
184 from 865 to 339 μm , but there was no effect on digestibility of amino acids and crude protein.
185 On the other hand, Fastinger and Mahan (2003) determined a small increase of amino acids
186 digestibility with decreasing the particle size of soybean meal. Likewise, Lahaye et al. (2008)
187 concluded that decreasing the particle size of wheat to 500 μm increases nitrogen digestibility
188 but further decrease of particle size did not result in significant improvements. Similarly to
189 starch, increased digestibility of protein with decreasing diet particle size can be attributed to
190 higher exposure of protein to digestive enzymes due to increased specific surface of feed
191 particles (Wondra et al. 1995a; Behnke, 1996; Goodband et al., 2002; Barneveld and Hewitt,
192 2003). High grinding intensity improves feeding value of high-fibre cereals, e.g. barley and oats,
193 which is ascribed to better digestion of fibers in diet with finer particle size (Ziggers, 2009).

194 On the other hand, it was determined that too fine particle size decreases average daily
195 feed intake (ADFI) of pigs due to decreased palatability of the mash diets containing finer
196 particles. This was observed in the research of Wondra et al. (1995a) when corn particle size was
197 decreased from 800 to 400 μm . Similarly, the decrease in ADFI was noticed in the study of De
198 Jong et al. (2013) when diet's particle size was reduced from 596 to 360 μm , and in the research
199 of Nemechek et al. (2016) when particle size was reduced from 650 to 350 μm . Additionally,

200 increasing of grinding intensity (finer grinding) increases the energy consumption and decreases
201 capacity of grinding equipment and flowability, increases dust problems, and most importantly,
202 too fine structure of pig feed negatively affects the health of GIT (Healy et al., 1994; Goodband
203 et al., 2002).

204 *2.2. Pelleted pig feed*

205 In modern pig farming, diets are rarely used in mash (powder, meal) form. There is a
206 common practice that after mixing of all the components, diets are pelleted (Fahrenholz, 2012).
207 During pelleting process heat, moisture, and pressure are applied to the feed and small feed
208 particles are agglomerated (Skoch et al., 1981; Skoch et al., 1983). Literature generally suggests
209 that pelleting of pig's diets improves pig performance compared to mash feeding. Skoch et al.
210 (1983) observed that when pigs were offered a free choice between corn-based pelleted and mash
211 diets, pigs preferred pelleted diets (85.5 vs. 14.5%, respectively). This was in agreement with
212 results of Solà-Oriol et al. (2009a) who determined greater preference for pelleted over mash
213 feed when pigs were fed barley or oat based diets. In the research of Jensen and Becker (1965),
214 ADG of young pigs was unaffected by switching to pelleted diets, but FCR was significantly
215 improved, i.e. decreased ($P < 0.05$). Besides significant improvements of FCR ($P < 0.05$), Hanke et
216 al. (1972) determined significant increase of ADG ($P < 0.01$) of pigs fed pelleted feed compared
217 to pigs fed mash feed. In the research of Skoch et al. (1983), differences of ADG, FCR, and
218 ADFI were not determined for weanling pigs, but for the grow-finishing pigs, significant
219 improvement of FCR ($P < 0.05$) was reported when diets in pelleted form were used. According to
220 summary of 16 trials, Ohh (1991) observed that growth performance and FCR were improved by
221 3-4% when pelleted feed was used. Stark (1994) observed improved FCR by 12% when pelleted
222 feed was used, compared to using mash feed for finishing pigs. Wondra et al. (1995a) found that

223 pelleting increased ADG by 5% ($P<0.01$), decreased FCR by 7% ($P<0.001$), and increased
224 apparent digestibility of dry matter and nitrogen ($P<0.001$). Similarly, Traylor (1997) reported
225 that pelleting improved dry matter and nitrogen digestibility ($P<0.001$), FCR of nursery pigs
226 ($P<0.04$), as well as FCR ($P<0.08$) and ADFI ($P<0.02$) of finishing pigs. According to the
227 research of Chae et al. (1997), average daily gain and FCR of pigs (20-90 kg of body weight) fed
228 pelleted diet were significantly better compared to pigs fed mash or extruded diets. Improved
229 FCR related to feeding pelleted diets was also determined in the research of Lawrence (1982),
230 Nahm (2002), I'Anson et al. (2012, 2013) and Ball et al. (2015). Nitrogen excretion is lower
231 when pigs are fed pelleted compared to mash feed (Wondra et al., 1995a; Ball et al., 2015) which
232 has positive nutritional and environmental effects.

233 Numerous mechanisms of positive influence of pelleted pig feed on pig performance are
234 proposed in literature. Graham et al. (1989) and O'Doherty et al. (2000), attributed improvement
235 of nutrient digestibility to disruption of endosperm cell wall during the pelleting process which
236 increases the accessibility of digestive enzymes. Additional reasons for enhanced pig
237 performance could be improved nutrient digestibility and hygienic quality of pelleted feed,
238 improved starch digestibility due to partial gelatinization of starch, reduced segregation of diet
239 components, reduced wastage during consumption of pelleted feed, preventing the animal from
240 sorting out palatable ingredients, elimination of antinutritional substances, and increased passage
241 rate of material through digestive system (Vanschoubroeck et al., 1971; Hanke, et al. 1972;
242 Owsley et al., 1981; Lawrence, 1982; Skoch et al., 1983; Giesemann et al., 1990; Morrow, 1992;
243 Healy et al., 1994; Wondra et al., 1995a,b; Traylor, 1997; Chae and Han, 1998; Eisemann and
244 Argenzio, 1999; Goelema et al., 1999; Jørgensen et al., 1999; Kim et al., 2000; Nahm, 2002;

245 Medel et al., 2004; Mikkelsen et al., 2004; Hedemann et al., 2005; Kamphues et al., 2007;
246 Lundblad et al., 2011; Fahrenholz, 2012; P'Anson et al., 2012, 2013; Ball et al., 2015).

247 In a very interesting research of Laitat et al. (1999), pigs were fed either with mash or
248 pelleted feed, and three trials were performed with different number of pigs (30 – trial 1; 40 –
249 trial 2; 50 – trial 3). The pigs were housed in the two same rooms, and the only difference was
250 the form of feed provided, with mash feed in one room, and pelleted feed in the other. The same
251 number of feeders (providing both feed and water) were used in all three trials.

252 It was observed that ADG was significantly reduced by increasing the number of pigs
253 both for mash and pelleted feed ($P < 0.01$). ADG of pigs fed pelleted diets was higher compared to
254 pigs fed mash feed in trial 2 and 3, but this was not observed in the trial with 30 pigs per pen. It
255 was concluded that the number of animals using the feeder must be considered when comparing
256 mash and pelleted diets. On the other hand, the additional costs due to pelleting process (costs of
257 additional equipment, storage bins and energy costs) must be compared with the effect of
258 improved performance of pigs fed pelleted diets. The conclusion of Laitat et al. (1999) was that
259 the pellets were probably preferable to meal when animals were kept in large groups concerning
260 that in trial 1 performance was not different according to the diet, while in crowded conditions,
261 especially in trial 3, performance was better with pellets.

262 With increasing the number of pigs per pen, daily water intake of pigs decreased when
263 pigs were fed mash diet, but the difference was statistically significant only when extreme
264 situations of 30 and 50 pigs per pen were compared ($P < 0.01$). When pigs were fed pelleted diet,
265 there was a trend of decreased water intake with increasing the number of pigs, but differences
266 were insignificant. It was concluded that water consumption of pigs was influenced by number
267 of pigs per pen, but this effect was more pronounced when pigs were fed mash feed compared to

268 pigs fed pellets. When comparing pigs fed mash and pelleted diets, water consumption of mash
269 fed pigs was higher but the difference was significant only when comparing groups with 30 pigs.
270 With increasing the number of pigs per pen, the difference between daily water intakes of pigs
271 fed mash and pelleted feed decreased. This was related to easier access to feeders when pigs
272 were fed pelleted diets due to shorter occupation time of feeders when pigs were fed pellets. It
273 was also concluded that it would be important to test this hypothesis in the trial where watering
274 device is separated from the feeders (Laitat et al., 1999).

275 Another important factor that needs to be considered when comparing mash and pelleted
276 feed is the influence of pelleting process on particle size of ingredients in pelleted feed.
277 Numerous research results showed that pelleting process results in a strong reduction of particle
278 size of feed components (Wondra et al., 1995a; Dirkzwager et al., 1998; Engberg et al., 2002;
279 Svihus et al., 2004; Amerah et al., 2007; Abdollahi et al., 2011; Klausning, 2011; Vukmirović,
280 2015; Vukmirović et al., 2016a). Grinding of feed particles during pelleting (secondary grinding)
281 occurs due to narrow distance between pellet rollers and pellet die (Svihus et al., 2004;
282 Vukmirović et al., 2016a), and due to frictional force in the die holes of the pellet press
283 (Abdollahi et al., 2011). It was already explained that the reduction of particle size of diet
284 components improves dry matter digestibility and feed conversion efficiency. Secondary
285 grinding during pelleting process will additionally reduce particle size and consequently it can be
286 expected that nutrient digestibility will be additionally enhanced. In the research of Al-Rabadi et
287 al. (2016) barley and sorghum were ground and included in pig feed with or without regrinding
288 of coarse particle fraction, and used as mash or as pellets. Regrinding of coarse particles
289 improved FCR in pigs fed mash diets, and it was similar in pigs fed pelleted feed with non-
290 reground coarse particles. It was suggested that the reduction of particle size during feed

291 pelleting was the major factor for improvement of nutritive value of pelleted diets. On the other
292 hand, an increased quantity of fine particles due to secondary grinding induces problems related
293 to health status of pig's GIT which will be discussed later.

294 *2.2.1. Importance of pellet quality*

295 As it was already pointed out, pelleting of diets for pigs improves their growth
296 performance. On the other hand, it was also determined that if pellets have low quality, with high
297 quantity of fines, the wastage of feed will be higher, palatability would be reduced, and feed
298 intake decreased. The study of Stark et al. (1993) examined the influence of pellet quality in pig
299 feeding and it was found that performance and FCR were poorer if more fine particles were
300 present in pellets due to intensive attrition of pellets as a consequence of poor quality. Many
301 factors influence the quality of produced pellets, such as formulation, particle size, conditioning,
302 die specification (die thickness, diameter of die openings), cooling/drying, etc. Literature data
303 generally suggest that finer grinding results in better quality of pellets. This is usually attributed
304 to higher specific surface of fine particles that positively affects their binding during pelleting
305 (Franke and Rey, 2006). Additionally, fine particle structure leads to better hydration during
306 steam conditioning, resulting in better compression and binding of particles (Fahrenholz, 2012).

307 Angulo et al. (1996) determined strong decrease of pellet quality, expressed as pellet
308 durability index (PDI), when screen size of hammer mill was increased from 3 to 6 mm. This
309 was in agreement with the results of Svihus et al. (2004) and Čolović et al. (2015). On the other
310 hand, differences in PDI were not significant when comparing pellets made of coarse and fine
311 material (screen size of hammer mill 7 mm vs. 3 mm) in the research of Amerah et al. (2007).
312 Some researchers even suggest that the effect of particle size on pellet quality is insignificant
313 (Stevens, 1987; Stark, 1994; Fahrenholz, 2012). Paulk et al. (2015) found no differences in pellet

314 quality when mean particle size of sorghum, which comprised more than 75% of the diet, was
315 decreased from 800 to 400 μm . Possible reasons for these confounding results could be the
316 differences in pellet press settings and differences in diets formulation within different studies. In
317 this respect, Vukmirovic et al. (2016a) specifically investigated the effects of distance between
318 rollers and the die of pellet press (roller-die gap). They observed that pellet quality was strongly
319 deteriorated with coarser grinding of corn on hammer mill only when the smallest roller-die gap
320 (0.30 mm) was applied during pelleting of ground corn (Figure 1). Increasing the roller-die gap
321 to 1.15 mm and to 2.00 mm increased PDI and decreased or even nullified differences in PDI of
322 pellets produced from corn ground to different particle size. The improvement of pellet quality
323 by increasing the roller-die gap can be attributed to elevated pressure in the pelleted material and
324 prolonged pre-compaction (Thomas et al., 1997) which enhances binding between particles.
325 Additionally, the intensity of secondary grinding was increased which evened out particle size
326 distribution in pellets produced from corn ground to different particle size, thus equalizing the
327 quality of pellets in the research of Vukmirovic et al. (2016a). Increasing the roller-die gap is
328 limited, because when roller-die gap is increased above certain value (that is depended upon
329 characteristics of pellet press and characteristics of pelleted material) stability of the layer of
330 pelleted material on the die surface is compromised, resulting in sideways “leaking” of the
331 material (Thomas et al., 1997) and clogging of the pellet press (Miladinovic and Svihus, 2005).
332 According to the results of Vukmirovic (2015), increasing the thickness of the die also increases
333 the intensity of secondary grinding and positively affects pellet quality. In the research of
334 Miladinovic and Svihus (2005), pellet quality was positively affected by increasing the roller-die
335 gap and also by decreasing the throughput of pellet press. However, increasing the roller-die gap,

336 and die thickness, and decreasing the throughput, increase specific energy consumption of the
337 pellet press which could be commercially non-justified.

338 It can be concluded that if cereals are coarsely ground in order to reduce the content of
339 fine particles after pelleting (for the benefit of GIT health), the quality of pellets could be
340 negatively affected. This can be mitigated by increasing the roller-die gap, increasing the die
341 thickness, and by decreasing the feeding rate of the pellet press. As already pointed out, these
342 interventions have limitations regarding specific energy consumption of pellet press and due to
343 increased intensity of secondary grinding. Consequently, the optimum balance needs to be
344 determined in each specific case.

345 In the research of Vukmirović (2015), PDI was decreased with coarser grinding of corn
346 on hammer mill, but this was not observed when corn was ground to different particle size using
347 roller mill (Figure 2). Generally, pellet quality was better when the roller mill was used in
348 grinding stage compared to the hammer mill. This was related to better resistance of more
349 spherically shaped particles obtained at the hammer mill which resulted in higher percentage of
350 coarse particles incorporated in the pellets. Coarse particles create “weak points” in the structure
351 of pellets, i.e. points where coarse particles are surrounded with finer particles and where a pellet
352 is more sensitive to breakage (Thomas and van der Poel, 1996). Consequently, PDI of such
353 pellets is decreased. On the other hand, in Figure 1 it was already shown that the problem of low
354 pellet quality when coarsely hammer milled corn is pelleted, could be solved by increasing the
355 roller-die gap but then increased intensity of secondary grinding and increased specific energy
356 consumption of pellet press could be expected (Vukmirović et al., 2016a). Thus, optimization of
357 the process regarding particle size after pelleting, specific energy consumption of pellet press,
358 and pellet quality, is necessary.

3. Influence of particle size and feed form on gastro-intestinal health of pigs

Gastric lesions and ulcerations are very common in pig production, and present a worldwide problem in modern, intensive pig farming (Grosse Liesner et al., 2009; Cappai et al., 2013) resulting in high financial losses (Friendship, 2003). Usually non-glandular gastric mucosa (*pars esophagea*) is affected, and between 1 and 2% of farmed pigs die from bleeding gastric ulcers, mainly three to six months old pigs (Cappai et al., 2013).

Reasons for occurrence of these gastric epithelial alterations are not clear enough, but one of the risk factors is structure of diet, i.e. particle size of cereals and other feed components (Mahan et al., 1966; Riker et al. 1967; Reimann et al., 1968; Baustad and Nafstad, 1969; Flatlandsmo and Slagsvold, 1971; Lawrence et al. 1980; Hedde et al., 1985; Wondra et al., 1995a; Ayles et al., 1996; Friendship, 2006). Regarding PSD of pig feed, strong grinding intensity during pelleting process must be considered. In the research of Mikkelsen et al. (2004), Canibe et al. (2005), Cappai et al. (2013), Mößeler et al. (2014), and Liermann et al. (2015), hyperkeratosis, mucosal erosions, and bleeding ulcers were more frequently determined when pigs were fed pelleted diet compared to feeding mash diet.

Wondra et al. (1995a) fed pigs with corn based diets where corn was ground to mean particle size of 1000, 800, 600, and 400 μm . Diets were provided to pigs in mash and pelleted form. Lesions and keratinization of *pars esophagea* increased with particle size reduction ($P < 0.003$) and with pelleting ($P < 0.02$) of feed for finishing pigs, but the growth performance was significantly increased, as well. The conclusion of this research was that mean diameter of diet particles of 600 μm was optimal regarding growth performance, mill energy consumption, stomach morphology, nutrient digestibility, and nutrient excretion. Stomach morphology was negatively affected in the study of Cabrera et al. (1993) when mean particle size of grains (corn

382 and sorghum) was decreased below 600 μm . On the other hand, they observed improved
383 performance and significant decrease of daily dry matter and nitrogen excretion with decreasing
384 grain particle size. They concluded that an acceptable compromise was necessary. Morel and
385 Cotam (2007) found no effect on pig performance when average particle size of barley was
386 changed between 400 and 1100 μm , but integrity of the stomach mucosa and structure of small
387 intestine (morphological damage of the villi) were negatively affected by fine grinding, thus
388 compromising overall gut health. Mavromichalis et al. (2000) observed more ulcers and
389 keratinization when pigs were fed diet containing wheat ground to 600 μm , in comparison to diet
390 containing wheat ground to 1200 μm . In the research of Grosse Liesner et al. (2009), particles
391 smaller than 400 μm were considered as fine, and for the share of fine particles lower than 20%
392 no mucosal damages were observed, while the increase in the share of fine particles to 36% was
393 detrimental to mucosa membrane. On the basis of the results of Grosse Liesner et al. (2009),
394 Cappai et al. (2013) defined three classes of ulcerogenic risk of the diets:

- 395 – Class 1, high risk (>36% particles smaller than 400 μm);
- 396 – Class 2, moderate risk (29 - 36% of particles smaller than 400 μm);
- 397 – Class 3, low risk (<29% of particles smaller than 400 μm).

398 One of the main aspects of a healthy GIT is a low level of enterobacteria (i.e. *Salmonella*
399 and coliform bacteria) in GIT of pigs (Canibe et al., 2005) with *Salmonella* infections being of a
400 major concern regarding the pigs health as well as the human health (Hedemann et al., 2005).
401 Physical characteristics of feed have a strong influence on susceptibility of pigs to infections
402 with *Salmonella* spp. Coarse grinding reduces the incidence of *Salmonella* in pigs fed mash diet
403 compared to fine grinding (Wingstrand et al., 1997; Jørgensen et al., 2002; Mikkelsen et al.,
404 2004; Klausning, 2011). Additionally, Jørgensen et al. (1999) observed that feeding pelleted feed

405 increased the risk of *Salmonella* infections compared to feeding mash feed. In the research of
406 Mikkelsen et al. (2004), significantly higher total anaerobic bacteria counts, increased
407 concentration of different organic acids, and lower pH in the stomach, were determined when
408 pigs were fed coarsely ground mash diet, in comparison to finely ground mash diet, coarsely
409 ground pelleted diet, and finely ground pelleted diet. Similar results were obtained by Canibe et
410 al. (2005). Maxwell et al. (1970) and Regina et al. (1999) concluded that if diet particles are
411 coarser, the passage rate in the pig's stomach is slower and dry matter of the stomach content
412 increases. They also determined that the consistency of the material in the stomach of pigs fed
413 coarse diet was more firm, compared to the stomach content of pigs fed fine diet where solid and
414 liquid phase separated rapidly after sampling. This promoted microbial activity, i.e. growth of
415 lactic acid bacteria, due to increased time for microorganisms to proliferate in the stomach.
416 Increased concentration of lactic and other organic acids lower the pH and create additional
417 barrier against *Salmonella* and other gram-negative bacteria (Mikkelsen et al., 2004; Canibe et
418 al., 2005; Klausling, 2010).

419 If pigs are fed a coarse diet, a higher portion of starch will not be digested in duodenum
420 and will reach the ceacum. The present microflora in the ceacum will degrade starch to short
421 chain fatty acids that will limit the growth of coliform bacteria and *Salmonella* (Maxwell et al.,
422 1970; Regina et al., 1999; Visscher et al., 2009; Klausling, 2011). On the other hand, reduced
423 prececal digestion of starch negatively affects energetic value of the diet, decreases feed
424 efficiency, and results in economic losses to pig producers (Callan et al., 2007), but as concluded
425 by Kamphues et al. (2007), this should be tolerated regarding the reduction of *Salmonella*
426 prevalence in pig production.

427 **4. Possibilities for obtaining optimal particle size of pig feed in grinding process**

428 4.1. *Optimal particle size*

429 Desired PSD of pig feed can be achieved during grinding of diet components, mainly
430 cereals. According to existing research data, optimal particle size of diets for pigs is in the region
431 of medium particle sizes, i.e. between 500 and 1600 μm , while particles smaller than 400 μm are
432 considered as undesirable due to negative influences on gut health (Lucht, 2011; Cappai et al.,
433 2013; Ball et al., 2015). However, optimal particle size of the diet is affected by diet complexity,
434 type of grain, and the age of the animal (Chae and Han, 1998). By changing the ingredient
435 composition of the feeds their particle size characteristics are modified. Solà-Oriol et al. (2009b)
436 reported that the relative impact of common cereals and fiber sources for pig diets was less
437 important than the relative impact of protein and lipid sources. For cereals, the changes in mean
438 particle size per percentage unit of ingredient ranged between 1.8 and 2.2 μm , and for fiber
439 sources these ranged between 0 and 5.2 μm , whereas they ranged between 2.3 and 21.6 μm for
440 protein sources and between 15 and 16 μm for lipid sources. According to Healy et al. (1994),
441 optimal particle size of corn and sorghum in nursery phase, which took into account FCR and
442 integrity of pig's gastric mucosa, is about 500 μm . The optimal mean particle size for wheat-
443 based diets of 600 μm was determined by Mavromichailis et al. (2000). Similarly, Behnke
444 (1994) suggested particle size between 500-700 μm as the optimal range for growing-finishing
445 pigs. For the lactation diets, according to Wondra et al. (1995a, b), slightly finer particle size is
446 required with optimum particle size of about 400 μm in primiparous and 400-600 μm in second-
447 parity sows. After literature review, Barneveld and Hewitt (2003) concluded that grinding of
448 wheat, corn, barley, and sorghum to particle size below 700 μm will improve nitrogen and
449 energy digestibility, and that there is a minor difference in nutritional value when particle size of
450 milled cereal grains is between 700 and 1500 μm . They suggested that roller milling of cereals to

451 particle sizes 600 to 700 μm is optimal regarding nutrient yield, milling efficiency, and gut
452 health. High-fibre cereals (barley, oats) need to be ground more finely to improve their feeding
453 value. Grinding to approx. 700 μm could be optimal to make these ingredients more attractive as
454 a substitute for corn. Wheat should be ground more coarsely (between 800-900 μm) than corn
455 and sorghum when used in pig feed due to its propensity to become floury (Ziggers, 2009). Albar
456 et al. (2000) concluded that optimal particle size of cereals in piglet diets is between 500 and 600
457 μm . Wondra et al. (1995a) compared a diet with more uniform particle size distribution to a diet
458 with higher variation of particle size and concluded that uniformity of particle size also affects
459 nutritional value of pig feed. More uniform particle size resulted in greater nutrient digestibility
460 in an experiment with finishing pigs, compared to diet with higher variation of particle size,
461 despite a similar mean diet particle size (850 μm).

462 *4.2. Optimal grinding procedure*

463 Grinding in production of pig feed is usually accomplished using hammer mills, roller
464 mills, or their combination. There are advantages and disadvantages to be considered when
465 choosing the optimal mill. Hammer mills have greater capacity of grinding and it is easier to
466 switch from one grain to another by changing the sieve. However, hammer mills will produce
467 higher quantity of fine particles and dust, and will require more energy per ton of material
468 compared to roller mills (Ziggers, 2001). Hammer status in the hammer mill may seriously affect
469 PSD and the homogeneity of the PSD as function of time use, wear and quality of raw
470 ingredients milled. Therefore, PSD could be a good indicator of need for replacement of
471 hammers before affecting pig performance (Solà-Oriol et al., 2015). The advantage of roller mills
472 is in creating a more uniform particle size distribution than hammer mills, and creating much
473 lower quantity of fine particles and dust, which is very important in pig nutrition concerning the

474 negative influence of fine particles on health status of pig's GIT. Furthermore, roller mills'
475 specific energy consumption is lower. Thacker (2006) found no effect of mill type (hammer vs
476 roller mill) on performance of pigs but roller mill had lower energy consumption, more accurate
477 control of particle size, and quieter operation. Vukmirović et al. (2016b) determined that specific
478 energy consumption of roller mill was significantly lower ($P < 0.001$) compared to hammer mill
479 for similar geometric mean diameter of particles.

480 On the other hand, the investment and maintenance costs are higher for roller mills
481 (Barneveld and Hewitt, 2003). Additionally, if roller mills are used in pig feed production, it is
482 important to consider the type of cereals that will be used since if barley, oats, or wheat
483 middling's (wheat bran) are used, problems regarding grinding the hulls can be expected. For
484 this reason, combined use of both types of mills could be optimal, especially if high fiber cereals
485 like barley and oats are used as a cereal component of the diet. In this approach grinding with
486 low content of fines by means of roller mill is combined with hammer mill suitable for grinding
487 of hulls. In the research presented by Lucht (2011), three arrangements of grinding machines
488 were tested during preparation of barley-based pig diet:

- 489 1. Roller mill treatment, where a roller mill with two pairs of corrugated rollers was used
490 without intermediate sieving.
- 491 2. Stage grinding with two hammer mills and with pre-, intermediate-, and post-sieving.
- 492 3. Combination of hammer mill and roller mill (one pair of rollers) with pre-, and
493 intermediate-sieving.

494 The following particle size ranges were observed: fine (< 0.5 mm), medium (0.5-1.6 mm),
495 coarse (1.6-2.0 mm), and very coarse (> 2.0 mm). The aim was to obtain the highest possible
496 quantity of medium-sized particles, and to have the lowest possible quantity of fine particles that

497 should not exceed 25%. Additionally, coarse and very coarse fractions were undesirable due to
498 their low digestibility rates in GIT of pigs. The best structure resulted from the combination of
499 the hammer mill and the roller mill, with the quantity of medium size particles of 60%, low
500 quantity of fine particles (22.5%), and also low quantities of both coarse fractions. The energy
501 consumption was 50% lower when roller mill treatment was compared to stage grinding with
502 two hammer mills, while combination of the roller mill and the hammer mill had 30% lower
503 energy consumption compared to the stage grinding with two hammer mills. It can be concluded
504 that installation of a roller mill in existing feed plants, and combining it with existing hammer
505 mills, can improve the structure of pig feed and will result in significant decrease of energy
506 consumption of the grinding equipment.

507 When addressing the particle size of pig feed, the effects of mean particle size are usually
508 discussed. On the other hand, it is well known that hammer mills and roller mills result in
509 different variation of particle size within the mean value, i.e. roller mills produce more uniform
510 particle size (Lawrence, 1970; Wu and Fuller, 1974; Vukmirovic, 2015; Vukmirovic et al.,
511 2016b). Wondra et al. (1995b) investigated the effect of different uniformity of particle size,
512 resulting from the use of different mill types, on growth performance, apparent nutrient
513 digestibility, and stomach morphology in finishing pigs. In this research, corn was ground to
514 mean particle size of 850 μm both on hammer mill and roller mill. Grinding with different mills
515 resulted in differences in uniformity of the particle size, with more uniform particle size obtained
516 at the roller mill. Average daily gain and average daily feed intake were not affected by
517 uniformity of particle size. On the other hand, increased particle size uniformity by using roller
518 mill improved apparent nutrient digestibility and reduced undesirable changes in stomach
519 morphology.

520 Different mechanism of particle size reduction in hammer mills and roller mills also
521 results in different shape and morphology of particles after grinding. In roller mills, particles are
522 pressed between the rolls, and at the same time cutting and shearing of particles occur as a result
523 of corrugations and roller speed difference. This results in irregular shape of particles with many
524 edges and corners. Particles obtained at hammer mill are more spherical and polished.
525 Consequently, particles produced in a roller mill have more surface area for the action of
526 digestive enzymes in GIT of pigs, and could possibly improve feed efficiency (Ziggers, 2001).

527 **5. Influence of downstream processing on particle size of pig feed**

528 As it was already shown, diet particle size can be optimized in the grinding process, but if
529 pig feed production involves downstream processing steps, like pelleting, extrusion or expansion,
530 particle size could be dramatically changed. While pelleting binds particles in larger
531 agglomerates, it simultaneously reduces size of particles (Svihus et al., 2004; Grosse Liesner et
532 al., 2009). In the research of Vukmirović (2015) corn was ground to different particle sizes using
533 a hammer mill and roller mill, and pelleted afterwards. It was observed that the intensity of
534 secondary grinding of coarse particles produced using the roller mill was higher compared to
535 coarse particles produced with the hammer mill. This was attributed to the shape of particles
536 which are more spherical after grinding on a hammer mill (Ziggers, 2001) and consequently less
537 prone to secondary grinding. The share of the finest fraction in the same research of Vukmirović
538 (2015) was strongly increased during pelleting. It was between 10% and 20% before pelleting,
539 depending of coarseness of grinding and the type of mill, while after pelleting, the share of the
540 finest particles was between 44 and 47%.

541 Svihus et al. (2004) measured PSD of broiler feed before and after pelleting and
542 determined strong reduction of coarse particles, while the content of fine particles (<200 µm)

543 was increased from 40-50% before pelleting to 50-60% after pelleting. Similarly, Amerah et al.
544 (2007) and Abdollahi et al. (2011) determined decrease of coarse particles ($>1000\ \mu\text{m}$ and >2000
545 μm , respectively), and an increase of fine particles ($<75\ \mu\text{m}$) as a consequence of pelleting.
546 Engberg et al. (2002) concluded that pelleting evened out PSD of coarse and fine diets. Pelleting
547 of the coarse mixture decreased the share of coarse particles ($> 1000\ \mu\text{m}$) from 26.2% to 14.9%,
548 while pelleting of the fine mixture decreased the coarse particles share from 20.9% to 13.5%.
549 Vukmirović et al. (2016a) used the quantity of the finest fraction of particles ($<125\ \mu\text{m}$) as an
550 indicator of secondary grinding during pelleting of corn. Different pelleting conditions were
551 applied (particle size before pelleting, roller-die gap and moisture content of pelleted material)
552 but all resulted in strong increase of fine particles with the most significant influence of the
553 roller-die gap. The lowest extent of secondary grinding was achieved with the smallest roller-die
554 gap (0.30 mm), while increasing the gap resulted in strong increase of secondary grinding, which
555 was also followed by an increase of specific energy consumption of the pellet press, and
556 significantly better pellet quality. Nemeček et al. (2016) observed increased feed efficiency of
557 pigs fed mash diet when particle size of corn was reduced (from 650 to 350 μm), but grinding of
558 corn finer than 650 μm provided no beneficial effect on FCR when pigs were fed pelleted diets.
559 This was attributed to additional particle size reduction that occurs during pelleting. According to
560 Nemeček et al. (2016), there is no need for too fine grinding of cereals if pelleted pig feed will
561 be used due to intensive grinding of particles during pelleting process.

562

563 Besides pelleting, processes of extrusion and expansion are also sometimes used for
564 downstream processing of pig feed. Extrusion is an important operation unit for processing of
565 single feedstuffs and compound feed aiming at increasing energy and nutrient digestibility, and

566 consequently improving FCR and growth performance of pigs (Hancock and Behnke, 2001).
567 Extruders and expanders are similar machines differing mainly in the amount of energy that the
568 machine “puts” in the product. Although there is no clear-cut dividing line between the expander
569 and single shaft extruder; expanders work at higher capacities, for the similar barrel diameter,
570 with lower energy inputs. Furthermore, expansion is mainly used as a pretreatment before
571 pelleting, so there is no need for shaping the product, in contrast to extruders where the product
572 has the shape that results from the shape of die opening. In production of pig feed, expansion
573 process is used more frequently than extrusion, as so called “mechanical conditioning” treatment
574 that precedes the pelleting process. In both cases, extrusion and expansion treatment results in
575 increased digestibility of ingredients, improved flexibility in the use of raw ingredients, and
576 better pellet quality (Coelho, 1994; Chae and Han, 1998; Ginste and Schrijver, 1998; Lucht,
577 2002; Lucht, 2007; Riaz, 2007).

578 It is well known that the extruders/expanders can act as grinders due to high friction and
579 shear forces along the barrel, and thus can even be fed with the whole grains. In these processes
580 material gets plasticized to a certain extent due to high temperature and pressure in the barrel.
581 This results in agglomeration of material that is specifically shaped at the outlet of the barrel with
582 the die or annular gap outlet (Riaz, 2007). Lower cooking degree compared to extrusion process
583 enables that particle size of expanded material can be optimally adapted to GIT of pigs due to its
584 preservation in the process, but the form of the expanded material is not suitable for further
585 usage. Therefore, after expansion, grinders and crushers are used, where grinding or crushing of
586 the expanded material results in the meal with very little or even no dust, while grinding intensity
587 depends on specific physiological requirements of the animals. Even when pelleting process is
588 used after the expansion process, thus exposing the material to secondary grinding (as explained

589 previously), intensity of the pelleting process is lower, because usually the die thickness can be
590 50% lower if material is processed at the expander before pelleting (Lucht, 2007). Therefore, it is
591 to be expected that the grinding intensity of the pelleting process which includes expansion
592 process is lower when compared to the conventional pelleting process, although to the best of
593 authors' knowledge, there is no data describing it. Recently an expander with crown-shaped die
594 and cutting device is utilized in order to completely avoid secondary grinding. This machine
595 produces regularly shaped pellets with preserved coarse particles and agglomerated fine
596 particles, i.e. coarse particles are embedded in the matrix of fine particles (von Reichenbach,
597 2011). Despite the advantages of using extruders or expanders in the processing line, their
598 utilization increases the investment and operational costs, which also has to be considered.

599 **6. Conclusions**

600 Research results generally suggest that reduction of feed particle size improves pigs'
601 performance, and that fine grinding could be recommended in production of pig feed. Moreover,
602 it was observed that pelleting has similar effect as fine grinding due to intensive particle size
603 reduction in the pellet press. On the other hand, fine particle size of the diet (both mash and
604 pelleted) negatively affects health of GIT by increasing the incidence of pre-ulcerous lesions and
605 ulcerations. Generally, share of particles smaller than 400 μm should be as low as possible due to
606 their negative effect on the health of GIT. Additionally, feeding pigs with coarsely ground mash
607 feed reduces the incidence of *Salmonella* and other pathogen bacteria compared to pigs fed finely
608 ground mash feed or pigs fed pelleted feed. This is a consequence of lower pH in the stomach
609 and small intestine content of pigs fed coarse mash diets.

610 Optimal particle size of pig feed could be obtained in the grinding process, and it was
611 shown that the combination of a hammer mill and roller mill enables the easiest tailoring of

612 targeted PSD. According to available data, optimal particle size of pig feed should be in the
613 range between 500-1600 μm , while high share of particles coarser than 1600 μm should be
614 avoided due to reduced feed intake and decreased availability of nutrients from coarse particles
615 in GIT of pigs. Pig feed with less than 29% of particles smaller than 400 μm is considered as a
616 low risk diet regarding ulcer occurrence.

617 In modern pig farming, animals are mainly fed pelleted feed due to numerous advantages
618 of pelleted over mash feed. When pig feed is pelleted, PSD of the diet is substantially changed,
619 with intensive grinding of particles followed by multiple increase of the share of fine particles.
620 This could positively affect digestibility of nutrients but, on the other hand, this will have a
621 negative impact on gut health. Some efforts have been made to optimize particle size distribution
622 in pellets by manipulating the parameters of the pelleting process but only minor improvements
623 were achieved.

624 It can be concluded that if pig feed is used in mash form, the most convenient method for
625 particle size reduction, considering targeted particle size and specific energy consumption of the
626 grinding process, is to combine a hammer mill and roller mill. However, if pig feed is used in
627 pelleted form, the best option is to apply coarse grinding on roller mill before pelleting. In that
628 manner, specific energy consumption of the grinding process will be lower, the share of coarse
629 ($>1600 \mu\text{m}$) and fine particles ($<400 \mu\text{m}$) in the pellets will be lower, and also the quality of
630 pellets will be better, compared to processes using a hammer mill in the grinding stage.
631 Additionally, processing of pig feed by expander equipped with shaping element can be an
632 alternative to pelleting in providing better preservation of feed structure but this process needs to
633 be studied more deeply.

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637

638 **References**

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950 Table 1
 951 The effects of decreasing the particle size of mash pig feed
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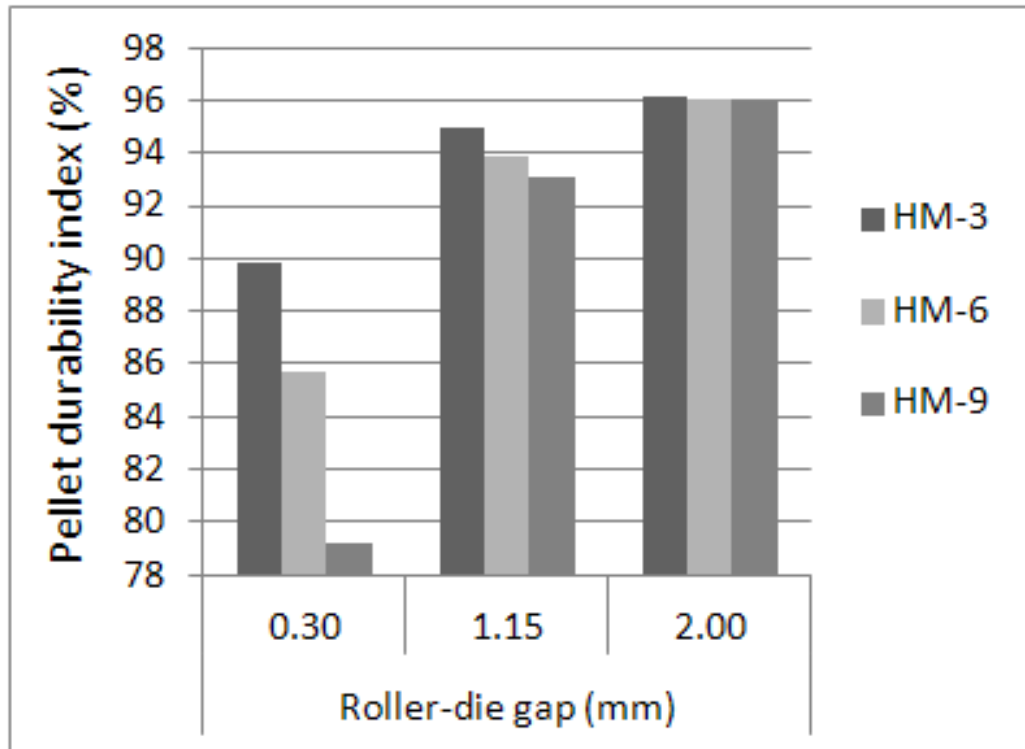
Reference	Digestibility of dry matter	Feed conversion ratio (gain/feed)	Protein digestibility	Starch digestibility	Energy digestibility
Owsley et al. (1981)	+		+	+	+
Ohh et al. (1983)	+	+	+		+
Hedde et al. (1985)					
Healy et al. (1994)	+	+			+
Carbera (1994)	+	+			
Goodband and Hines (1988)		+			
Gieseemann et al. (1990)	+	+	+		+
Wondra et al. (1995a)	+	+	+		+
Blasel et al. (2006)				+	
Callan et al. (2007)		+			
Lahaye et al. (2008)	+		+		+
Al-Rabadi et al. (2009)				+	
Amaral et al. (2014)				+	
Rojas Martinez (2015)				+	+
Rojas and Stein (2015)				+	
Al-Rabadi et al. (2016)		+		+	

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Figure 1. Influence of pelleting variables on pellet durability index



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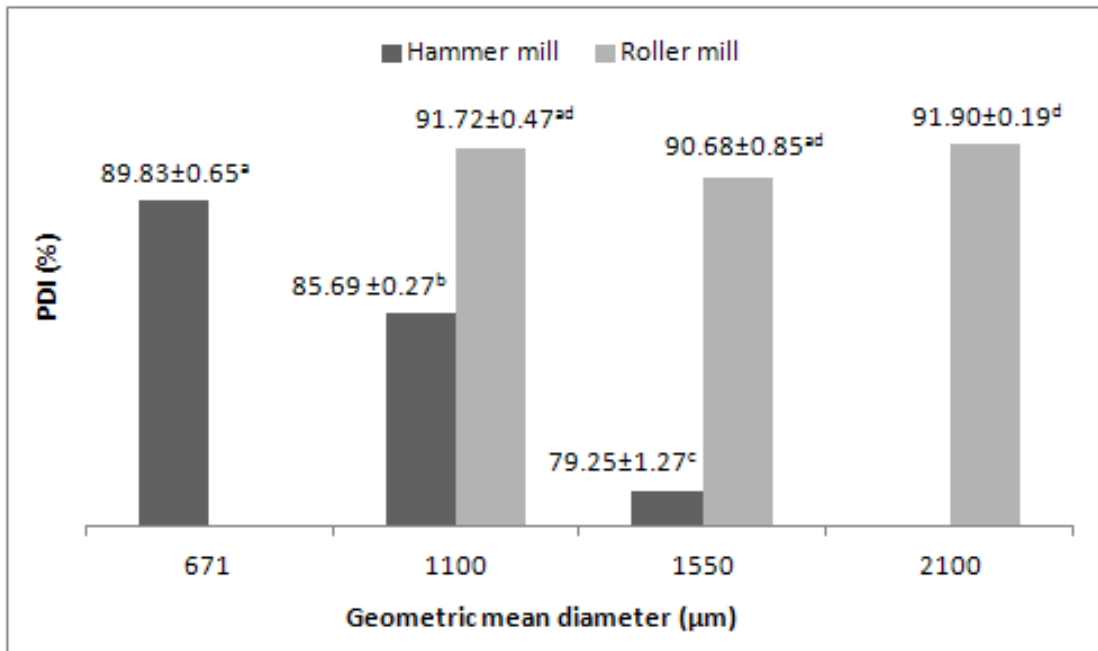
958 HM – hammer mill; 3, 6 and 9 – diameter of sieve openings used in hammer mill (Vukmirovic et
959 al., 2016a)

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Figure 2. Influence of mill type and grinding intensity on pellet durability index (PDI)



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964 Values with different letters are significantly different at level $P < 0.05$ (Vukmirovic et al., 2015)