

Effect of Supplemental 25-Hydroxycholecalciferol on Live Performance, Bone Development, and Mineral Utilization of Broiler Chickens Fed Low Dietary Ca and P

HM Salim^{1*}, MA Zaman², MAH Beg² and ABM Khaleduzzaman¹

¹Department of Livestock Services, Krishi Khamar Sarak, Farmgate, Dhaka, Bangladesh

²Department of Poultry Science, Sher-e-Bangla Agricultural University, Sher-e-Bangla Nagar, Dhaka, Bangladesh

*Corresponding Author: HM Salim, Department of Livestock Services, Krishi Khamar Sarak, Farmgate, Dhaka, Bangladesh.

Received: January 02, 2019; Published: February 26, 2019

Abstract

The 25-hydroxycholecalciferol (25-OH-D₃) is a metabolite of vitamin D₃ which is required by the chicken for proper Ca and P metabolism and bone development. An experiment was conducted to investigate the effect of 25-OH-D₃ on growth performance, bone growth and mineralization, and apparent mineral utilization of broiler chicks fed low dietary Ca and P. A total of 250 1-d-old male broiler chicks (Ross × Ross) were randomly allotted to 5 dietary treatments with 10 replicate battery cages per treatment (5 birds/replicate cage). Five dietary treatments were: a corn-wheat-soybean meal based diet with adequate Ca and available P (avP) (1% and 0.5%) plus 200 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ as positive control (PC); low Ca and avP (0.5% and 0.25%) plus 25-OH-D₃ 200 IU/kg as negative control (NC); low Ca and avP plus 2,760 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ (HY-D1); low Ca and avP plus 5,000 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ (HY-D2); and low Ca and avP plus 10,000 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ (HY-D3). Results showed that body weight gain was significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased in PC, HY-D1 and HY-D2 groups compared to NC and HY-D3 groups, but feed intake was significantly lower in NC than PC and HY-D2 groups of broiler chicks. In addition, feed conversion was significantly ($P < 0.05$) improved in NC and HY-D1 than PC; however, dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ did not affect on livability of broiler chicks. The bone mineral density (BMD) and the bone mineral content (BMC) from both femur and tibia of broiler chicks were significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher in PC, HY-D2 and HY-D3 compared to NC and HY-D1 treatments; however, bone area from both femur and tibia of broiler chicks was significantly improved in only HY-D2 among the treatment groups. At d 14, dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ did not affect on apparent P utilization, but higher apparent Ca utilization was found when birds were fed HY-D2. At d 21, the apparent Ca utilization was significantly higher in NC, HY-D2 and HY-D3 groups compared to PC, and the apparent P utilization was also greater in HY-D1, HY-D2 and HY-D3 groups compared to NC and PC. It is concluded that dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ improves growth performance, BMD, BMC and area of the bone, and apparent mineral utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P, where 5,000 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ is the best supplementation level in this regard.

Keywords: 25-Hydroxycholecalciferol; Live Performance; Bone Mineralization; Ca and P Utilization; Broiler Chickens

Introduction

Vitamin D is an important fat soluble vitamin which is required for the chicken for proper metabolism of Ca and P in the function of normal bony skeleton, hard beaks and claws, and strong eggshell for laying hens. The deficiency of this vitamin in chick's causes rickets, a severe weakness of the legs, low feathering, poor bone mineralization and reduced the structural integrity of adult chickens, and tibial

dyschondroplasia in commercial broiler chicks [1,2]. Tibial dyschondroplasia (TD) is a major leg problem in poultry, resulting from accumulation of chondrocytes along the growth plates, histologically distinguishable by the plug of avascular cartilage which forms beneath the growth plates, causing bone abnormalities and reducing skeletal integrity [3,4]. Due to genetic improvement, the commercial broilers are growing fast and producing a high carcass yield. As the production increases, energy rich grain based diets were fed to broilers in a confined environment and the incidence of bone disorders enhanced by imbalance between meat production and skeletal growth of the birds. Bone disorders are important welfare and economic issues in the broiler industry causes about 15% mortality in the flock and estimated losses \$ 120 million/year [5-7]. In addition, low Ca:P or vitamin D deficient diets provided to the broiler chicks has been hypothesized as a consequence of TD that can partially remove by inducing the maturation of immature chondrocytes through feeding vitamin D₃ or some of its metabolites [8,9]. In addition to the vitamin D₃ status of bird, lack of chondrocyte differentiation is affected by the levels of Ca and P in the diets of broiler chickens [10].

On the other hand, mineral excretion especially the P excretion to the environment from the poultry barn is a challenge in order to maintain a clean environment. Inadequate utilization of dietary P will lead to increase the P load in the poultry manure. It has been reported that dietary supplementation of vitamin D₃ reduced the incidence of leg problem, increased the utilization of phytate phosphorus (PP), and retention of Ca and P [9,11]. Previous research with broilers [12] showed that the utilization of Ca, P and PP were improved when dietary vitamin D₃ increased from 1100 to 8800 IU/kg based on increased tibia ash from 29.1 to 34.2%. An important factor may influence the vitamin D₃ requirements of poultry is the Ca and P content and the ratio of Ca to P in the diets. The vitamin D₃ requirements would vary from 200 to 1600 IU/kg under normal to sub optimal Ca and P ratios [13]. A diet deficient in P fed to three weeks old broiler chickens showed that high levels of vitamin D₃ was required to produce optimum growth and bone ash content [14]. It has been reported that higher levels of vitamin D₃ or suboptimal levels of P in the diet enhanced the intestinal mucosal phytase activity [15]; however, the endogenous enzyme activity decreased when broiler chickens fed normal levels of dietary Ca [16]. Ledwaba and Roberson [8] reported that PP retention was improved when low Ca content diet was fed to the broilers, but it was not improved when Ca was fed at 0.85% or higher in the starter diets. However Bar, *et al.* [17] reported that dietary supplementation of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol (25-OH-D₃) restrained the effect of moderate dietary P restriction, but not of Ca restriction on growth performance and bone ash content in broiler chickens.

Recently 25-OH-D₃, a metabolite of vitamin D₃ has received more attention in feed industry due to higher bioavailability and potential benefit for bone mineralization in poultry [18,19]. The metabolite is formulated in a stable form which is safe and approved for use in the poultry feed industry. It is hypothesized that the supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ to broiler diets with low Ca and P may maintain the structural integrity and increase the mineral retention, resulting lower P loading through excreta to the environment. Bar, *et al.* [18] reported that the intestinal absorption of 25-OH-D₃ was better than vitamin D₃ and considered to be an efficient nutrient to vitamin D₃ deficient poultry diets. The current vitamin D₃ requirement for broiler chicks is 200 IU/kg [20]; however, commercial broiler diets are typically fortified with 10 to 20 times above the NRC values. Over recent years there has been a growing interest in the exact requirement of vitamin D for poultry and hence several metabolites of vitamin D have been the subject of more research. Moreover, the feeding of vitamin D metabolites leads to higher availability compared to vitamin D₃ [19], thereby reducing mineral excretion [21] and therefore, minimizing the environmental contamination. Biehl and Baker [21] reported that Ca and P utilization were increased in chicks fed 25-OH-D₃ compared to vitamin D₃. Fritts and Waldroup [22] demonstrated that 25-OH-D₃ was more metabolically potent on a per unit basis than vitamin D₃ for supporting body weight (BW) and tibia ash content in broiler chickens. In addition, vitamin D₃ metabolites were effective for reducing leg disorders and enhancing the utilization of pp and trace minerals when supplemented to poultry diets [23]. Therefore, a study was conducted to evaluate the effect of 25-OH-D₃ on growth performance, bone mineralization, and mineral utilization of broiler chicks fed low dietary Ca and avP.

Materials and Methods

Experimental design, birds and management

A total of 250 1-d-old male broiler chicks (Ross × Ross 308) were randomly allotted to 5 dietary treatments with 10 replicate pens per treatment (5 birds/replicate pen). Five dietary treatments were: a corn-wheat-soybean meal based diet with adequate Ca and avP

(1% and 0.5%) plus 25-OH-D₃ 200 IU/kg as positive control (PC); low Ca and avP (0.5% and 0.25%) plus 25-OH-D₃ 200 IU/kg as negative control (NC); low Ca and avP plus 25-OH-D₃ 2760 IU/kg (HY-D1); low Ca and avP plus 25-OH-D₃ 5000 IU/kg (HY-D2); and low Ca and avP plus 25-OH-D₃ 10000 IU/kg (HY-D3). Birds were fed commercial starter diet for the first 4d and experimental diets were fed *ad libitum* from 5 to 21d of age. The levels of dicalcium phosphate, calcium carbonate and corn were adjusted to prepared two different levels of Ca: avP of the experimental diets (Table 1). All chicks were raised in the multistoried battery brooders situated in a windowless room with proper ventilation. The initial room temperature was 30°C, and reduced by 3°C each week until 21d of age. Birds were allowed free access to feed and water throughout the feeding period. Continuous lighting was provided throughout the experimental period. All procedures were approved by the Canadian Council on Animal Care (2012).

Ingredients	Treatments ¹				
	PC	NC	HY-D 1	HY-D 2	HY-D 3
Wheat	37.59	44.11	44.11	44.11	44.11
Corn	21.86	21.0	21.0	21.0	21.0
Soyabean meal	25.8	26.0	26.0	26.0	26.0
Rape seed (Black)	4.2	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Canola oil	5.4	4.0	4.0	4.0	4.0
Calcium carbonate	1.25	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.7
Di-calcium phosphate	1.91	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6
DL-Methionine	0.115	0.12	0.12	0.12	0.12
L-Lysine	0.035	0.07	0.07	0.07	0.07
Threonine	0.04	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Mineral premix ²	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5	0.5
Vitamin premix ³	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0
Marker (Cr ₂ O ₃)	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3	0.3
Total	100	100	100	100	100
25-OH-Vit D ₃	200 IU/kg	200 IU/kg	2760 IU/kg	5000 IU/kg	10000 IU/kg
Calculated composition					
CP, %	21.00	21.04	21.04	21.04	21.04
ME, Kcal/Kg	3095.22	3103.58	3103.58	3103.58	3103.58
Ca, %	1.00	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.50
Avail-P, %	0.50	0.25	0.25	0.25	0.25
Lysine, %	1.17	1.14	1.14	1.14	1.14
Methionine, %	0.50	0.502	0.502	0.502	0.502
Analyzed composition					
CP, %	21.53	21.91	22.55	22.17	22.36
Ca, %	1.154	0.580	0.615	0.609	0.564
P, %	0.86	0.45	0.53	0.54	0.52

Table 1: Ingredients and composition of experimental diets (as-fed basis, %).

¹PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg).

²Mineral premix supplied per kg of complete feed: manganese oxide, 70 mg; zinc oxide 80mg, ferrous sulfate, 80 mg, copper sulfate, 10 mg; sodium selenium, 0.3 mg; calcium iodate premix, 0.5 mg.

³Vitamin premix supplied per kilogram of complete feed: vitamin A, 8250 IU; vitamin E, 30 IU; vitamin B₁₂, 0.013mg; vitamin K₃, 2.0 mg; niacin, 23.6 mg; choline chloride, 1081 mg; folic acid, 4.0 mg; biotin, 0.25 mg; pyridoxine, 4.0 mg; thiamine, 4.0 mg.

Growth performance

The BW and feed intake were measured weekly by pen. Feed conversion was calculated as the feed to gain ratio. The BW gain, feed intake, and feed conversion were adjusted for dead birds. The livability of bird was recorded daily and calculated as percentage within the pen.

Sample collection

On d 14 and d 21, excreta samples from each pen were collected, mixed, homogenized, dried in an oven and stored for Ca and avP analysis. At the termination of the feeding trial, one bird close to the mean BW were selected from each pen and killed by cervical dislocation. The left tibia and femur were dissected from the carcass and stored in refrigerator at 4°C for bone mineral analysis.

Determination of bone mineralization

Bone mineral density (BMD), bone mineral content (BMC) and area of the femur and tibia bone were measured using dual energy x-ray absorptiometry (pDEXA®, Bone Densitometer, Norland Medical System, Inc. WI, USA). Scanning was performed across each surface of the bone. All scans were obtained at a scan speed of 2.5 mm/s, with a voxel resolution of 0.07 × 0.07 × 0.50 mm.

Measurement of Ca, P, and Cr

One gram (g) of each diet and 0.5g of excreta samples were dried at 105°C and then placed into a muffle furnace at 600°C for overnight, and the resulting ash was dissolved in 1% HNO₃ and 5N HCl. Then the samples were boiled in a sonication bath at the temperature of 70°C for one hour and cooled at room temperature. For Cr analysis, the ash sample was dissolved in 85% ortho-phosphoric acid and 4.5% potassium bromate, boiled on a hot plate, and then cooled at room temperature. The digested samples were transferred into 100-mL volumetric flasks and diluted to volume using double-deionized water. The samples were shaken thoroughly by hand and filtered using Q5 filter paper (Whatman Ltd. Kent, UK). An inductively coupled plasma optical emission spectrometer (Varian ICP, VISTA MPX, CCD Simultaneous, USA) was employed for the analysis of Ca, P and Cr in the diets and feces according to AOAC [24].

Calculation of apparent minerals (P and Ca) utilization

The apparent P utilization (APU) was calculated according to the following equation [25]:

$$\text{APU (\%)} = 100 - [(\text{Cr}_i/\text{Cr}_o) \times (\text{P}_o/\text{P}_i) \times 100]$$

Where Cr_i is the chromium content in the dietary intake, Cr_o is the chromium content in fecal output, P_o is the P content in fecal output, and P_i is the P content in the dietary intake. Apparent Ca utilization was also calculated by using the above equation with some modification.

Statistical analysis

All data from the experiment were subjected to a one way ANOVA as a completely randomized design using the General Linear Models procedure of SAS (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC). Significant differences among the means were determined using Duncan's multiple-range test at $P < 0.05$.

Results

The BW gain was significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased in PC, HY-D1 and HY-D2 groups compared to NC and HY-D3 groups, but feed intake was significantly lower in NC than PC and HY-D2 groups of broiler chicks (Table 2). In addition, feed conversion was significantly ($P < 0.05$) improved in NC and HY-D1 than PC; however, dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ did not affect on the livability of broiler chicks. The bone mineral density (BMD) and the bone mineral content (BMC) from both femur and tibia of broiler chicks were significantly ($P < 0.05$) higher in PC, HY-D2 and HY-D3 compared to NC and HY-D1 treatments; however, bone area from both femur and tibia of broiler chicks was

significantly improved in only HY-D2 among the treatment groups (Table 3). At d-14, dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ did not affect on apparent P utilization, but higher apparent Ca utilization was found when birds were fed HY-D2 (Figure 1 and 2). At d 21, the apparent Ca utilization was significantly higher in NC, HY-D2 and HY-D3 groups compared to PC (Figure 3) and the apparent P utilization was also greater in HY-D1, HY-D2 and HY-D3 groups compared to NC and PC (Figure 4).

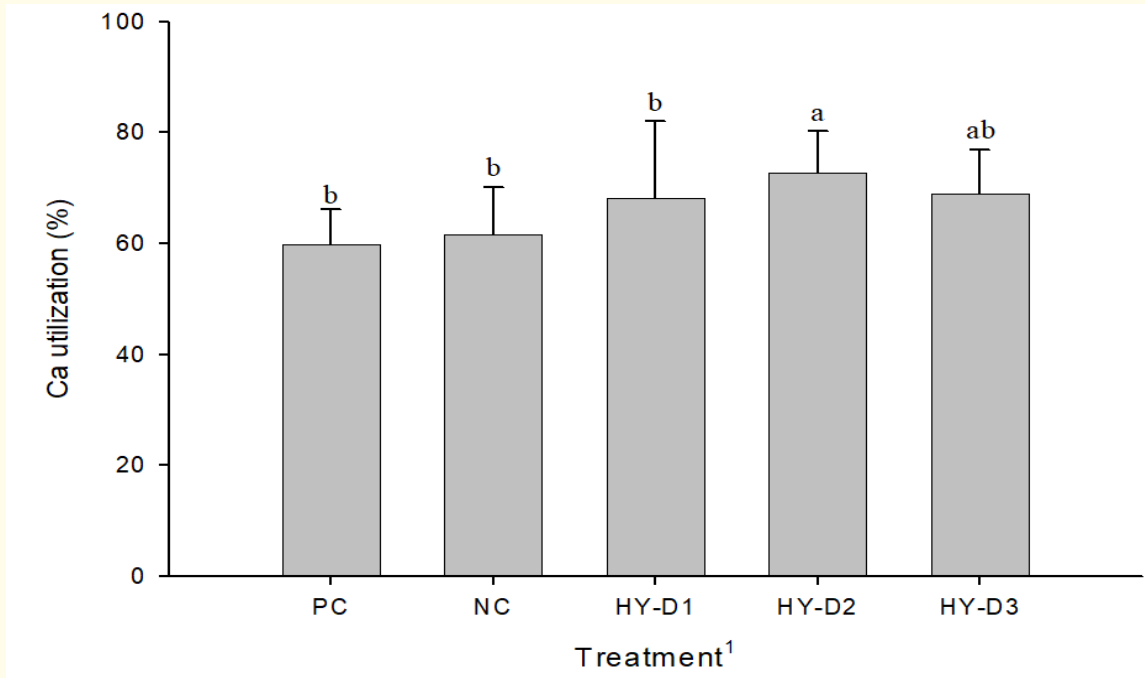


Figure 1: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on apparent Ca utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P at 14 days of age. 1PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D 2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg). Bars with different letters (a-b) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$, $n = 10$).

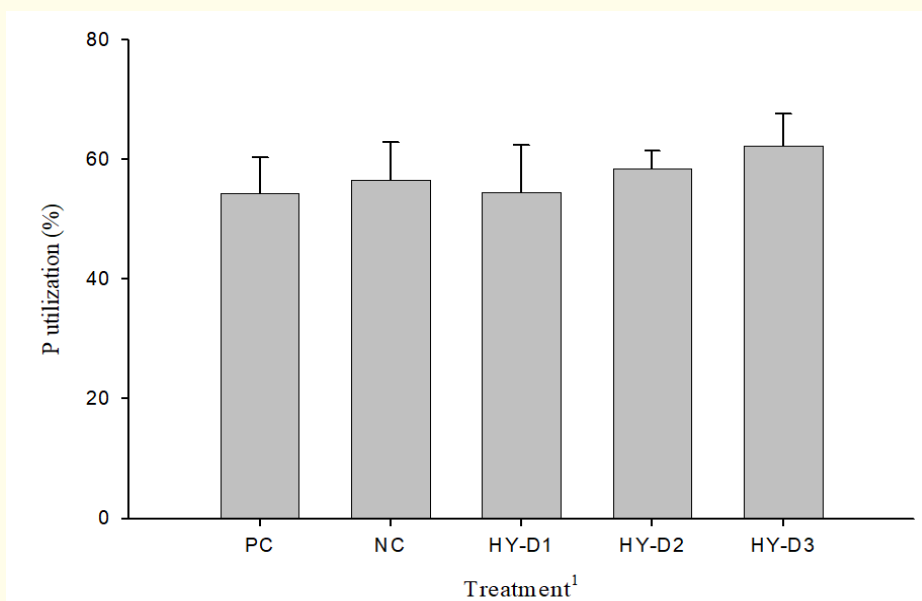


Figure 2: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on apparent P utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P at 14 days of age. 1PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D 2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg). ($P < 0.05$, $n = 10$).

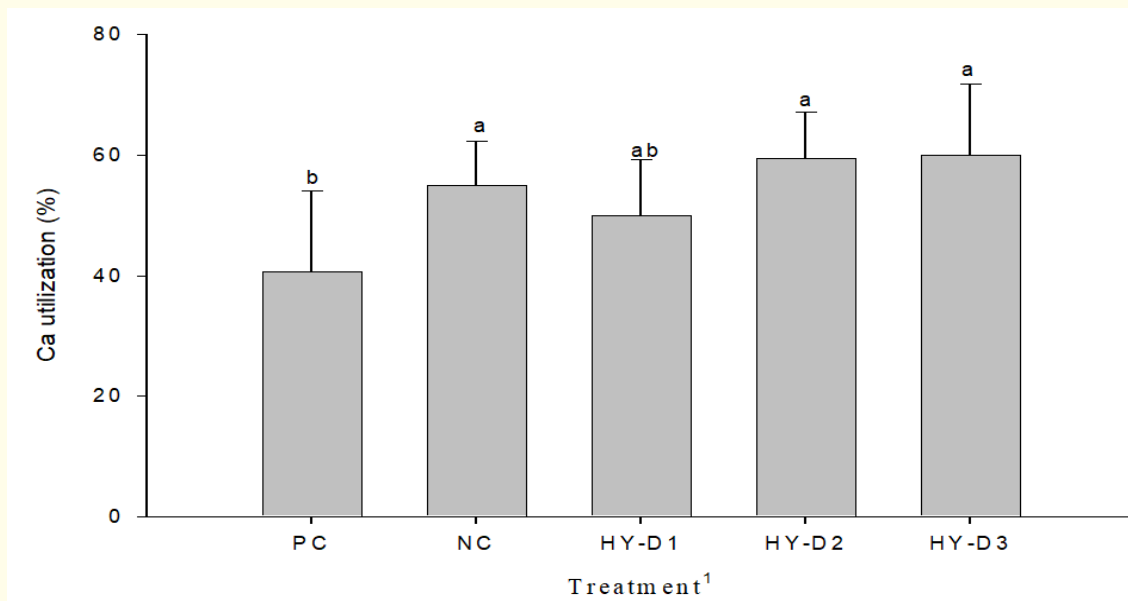


Figure 3: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on apparent Ca utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P at 21 days of age. 1PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D 2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg). Bars with different letters (a-b) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$, $n = 10$).

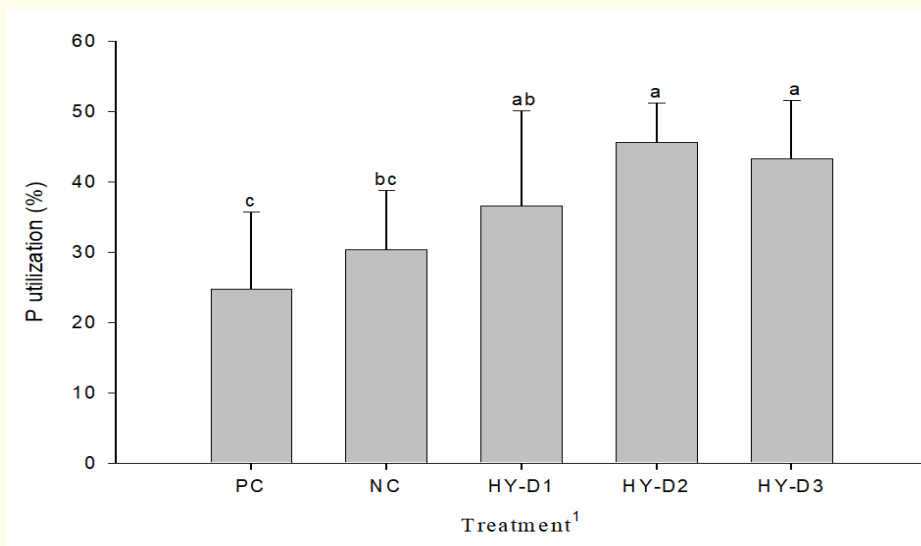


Figure 4: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on apparent P utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P at 21 days of age. 1PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D 2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg). Bars with different letters (a-c) differ significantly ($P < 0.05$, $n = 10$).

Growth performance	Treatments ¹					SEM
	PC	NC	HY-D 1	HY-D 2	HY-D 3	
BW at d 4 (g/bird)	81.80	81.59	81.32	81.71	81.62	0.182
BW gain (g/bird)	733.1 ^a	656.6 ^b	712.9 ^a	720.3 ^a	642.1 ^b	8.829
Feed intake (g/bird)	944.4 ^a	720.8 ^c	799.4 ^{bc}	845.8 ^b	753.5 ^{bc}	17.87
Feed conversion (feed/gain)	1.288 ^a	1.100 ^b	1.123 ^b	1.175 ^{ab}	1.178 ^{ab}	0.020
Livability (%)	96.00	92.00	98.00	94.00	96.00	1.518

Table 2: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on growth performance of broiler chicks fed low dietary Ca and P.

¹PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D₂, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg).

^{a, b, c} Means with different superscripts within a column differ significantly (P < 0.05).

SEM: Standard Error of the Mean.

Treatments ¹	Femur			Tibia		
	BMD (g/sq.cm)	BMC (g)	Bone area (Sq. cm)	BMD (g/sq.cm)	BMC (g)	Bone area (Sq. cm)
PC	0.141 ^a	0.880 ^a	6.220 ^b	0.152 ^a	1.302 ^a	8.495 ^b
NC	0.108 ^c	0.662 ^d	6.093 ^b	0.114 ^d	0.946 ^d	8.300 ^b
HY-D 1	0.115 ^c	0.725 ^{cd}	6.271 ^b	0.119 ^{cd}	1.021 ^{cd}	8.504 ^b
HY-D 2	0.129 ^b	0.864 ^{ab}	6.679 ^a	0.135 ^b	1.242 ^{ab}	9.168 ^a
HY-D 3	0.125 ^b	0.788 ^{bc}	6.286 ^b	0.131 ^{bc}	1.116 ^{bc}	8.512 ^b
SEM	0.002	0.018	0.062	0.003	0.030	0.092

Table 3: Effect of 25 hydroxycholecalciferol on bone mineral density (BMD), bone mineral content (BMC) and bone area of broiler chicks fed low dietary Ca and P.

¹PC, positive control contained adequate Ca: P (1:0.5) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; NC, negative control contained low Ca: P (0.5:0.25) plus HY-D 200 IU/kg; HY-D 1, low Ca: P plus HY-D (2760 IU/kg); HY-D 2, low Ca: P plus HY-D (5000 IU/kg); HY-D 3, low Ca: P plus HY-D (10000 IU/kg).

^{a, b, c, d} Means with different superscripts within a column differ significantly (P < 0.05).

SEM, standard error of the mean.

Discussion and Conclusion

Vitamin D₃ is required by the chicks for mineral utilization, skeletal development, and growth performance of broiler chicks; however, several metabolites of this nutrient have been reported to higher biological efficacy for optimum performance of birds [12,21]. The biologically active form of vitamin D₃ firstly takes place in the liver as 25-OH-D₃ and secondly in the kidney to produce 1, 25-OH-D₃ which are more bioavailable to the birds [26]. The intestinal absorption of these metabolites was higher in chicks and considered to be an efficient nutrient compared with vitamin D₃ [18]. It was reported that 25-OH-D₃ could be safely used in replacement of vitamin D₃ to the diets of broiler chicks with improved BW and feed efficiency [27,28]. In the current experiment, the dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ significantly improved BW gain when birds were fed low dietary Ca and P; however, dietary 25-OH-D₃ lowered the feed intake of birds, resulting in an improvement of feed efficiency. This result was in agreement with those reported by Bar, *et al.* [17] and Angel, *et al* [29]. Bar, *et al.* [17] conducted three experiments in chicks fed 25-OH-D₃ under adequate Ca and P supplementation, and moderate dietary restriction of Ca and P. The author reported that in one out of the three experiments, 25-OH-D₃ increased BW gain and restrained the effect of moderate dietary P restriction, but not of Ca restriction on BW gain and bone ash content of broiler chicks. In addition, Fritts and Waldroup

[22] reported that dietary 25-OH-D₃ improved both BW gain and feed efficiency in broiler chickens. These findings could be explained by a higher bioavailability of Ca and P in chicks fed 25-OH-D₃ where the bone area and mineral utilization were also affected by dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ activity in the present experiment [17]. It was shown that dietary 25-OH-D₃ was more metabolically potent than cholecalciferol for supporting BW and bone ash content of broiler chicks [22]. The author suggested that the use of the 25-OH-D₃ may allow for supplementation with lower levels or may provide with greater safety margin to the commercial broiler diets.

Mineral metabolism, vitamin D and its related compounds contribute to chicks quality in terms of the development of bone health and a sound skeletal structure. Especially the several metabolites of vitamin D play an important role in Ca and phosphate homeostasis in the body. The major function of these metabolites is to enhance serum Ca and phosphate concentrations by enhancing the dietary absorption of Ca and phosphate through the intestine, and stimulate the accumulation of these minerals in the bone, resulting strong the skeletal integrity of the animal [30-32]. Previous researches have shown that dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ significantly reduced the incidence and severity of TD in broiler chickens [33,34]. By contrast, Roberson [35] reported that 25-hydroxycholecalciferol did not prevent TD in broiler chicks raised in battery brooders. It was assumed to be an interactive effect with total Ca and P level in the feed stuffs for these studies. However, BMD, BMC and total area of the bone are considered to reflect the exact status on bone health where the mineral matrix is the major component of the extracellular matrix of the bone. Recently, dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry (pDEXA) has shown a useful means to assess BMD, BMC and total bone area of poultry [36,37]. In the present experiment, BMD, BMC and area of the bone measured by pDEXA were significantly affected by dietary 25-OH-D₃ under adequate and restricted Ca and P levels in the broiler diets. Interestingly, dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ seemed to be more effective at lower Ca and P levels in the diets which might be attributed to mineral homeostasis to maintain bone health of the birds [31]. However, higher concentration of 25-OH-D₃ did not affect on the total bone area of both femur and tibia of the broiler chicks fed adequate or low dietary Ca and P level in the present experiment except HY-D2. Therefore, the inclusion of up to 5, 000 IU/kg of 25-OH-D₃ is required in the conventional diets to improve the development of the bone and growth performance of young broiler chicks under low dietary Ca and P.

Ledwaba and Roberson [8] reported that increased tibia ash content and decreased incidence and severity of TD in broiler chicks fed increased levels of 25-OH-D₃, but this response was dependent upon the Ca level in the diet. As far our knowledge, few studies has used pDEXA to evaluate bone quality in broiler chicks fed 25-OH-D₃ under low dietary Ca and P; however, a recent study [38] reported that chicks fed vitamin D₃ had higher midshaft cortical BMC, bone thickness, bone area, and marrow area compared to the control chicks. Bar, *et al.* [17] conducted two feeding trials to evaluate the effects of 25-OH-D₃ under moderate Ca or P restriction, and found that dietary 25-OH-D₃ significantly increased the bone ash content in broiler chicks fed low P diet. Therefore, our results are in agreement with those of Bar, *et al.* [17] and Kim, *et al* [38]. However, restriction of both dietary Ca and P have been reported to increase circulating and intestinal 1,25-OH-D₃ [39,40] with consequent increases in the intestinal absorption of Ca and P, resulting strong bone integrity of birds [41-43]. Moreover, Ca and P homeostasis are maintained by the actions of vitamin D₃, parathyroid hormone (PTH) and calcitonin on the small intestine, kidneys and bone [44]. Low blood Ca level stimulates the parathyroid gland to secrete PTH which induces the kidney to produce more 1,25-OH-D₃, which in turn enhances the intestinal absorption of Ca and P, and P reabsorption from the kidney and bone [45].

Vitamin D₃ and its metabolites are crucial to Ca and P absorption and utilization and proper skeletal development, subsequently reduced mineral excretion and improved leg health in birds. An earlier study [46] indicated that the intestinal phytase and phosphatase activities increased when birds were fed increased levels of vitamin D₃ under low dietary P Mohammed, *et al.* [47] reported that the dietary cholecalciferol significantly increased phytate digestibility and the retention of Ca and P in chicks fed low Ca and P content diets. These results are in agreement with the present experiment where mineral utilization increased when birds were fed increased levels of dietary 25-OH-D₃ under low dietary Ca and P. A recent study on swine, O'Doherty, *et al.* [48] reported that dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ increased Ca retention in animals fed low P diet, but P retention increased when the diet supplemented with phytase in addition to 25-OH-D₃. By contrast, Biehl, *et al.* [23] reported that 25-OH-D₃ did not affect the utilization of P in chicks fed diets adequate in vitamin D₃. In the present experiment; however, the P utilization measured at d 14 was not affected by dietary 25-OH-D₃ supplementation either adequate

or low Ca and P diets might be attributed to the PP content in the basal diets that are not fully digested by the chicks at early age [17,49]. But the increased Ca and P utilization at the later age of the birds fed low Ca and P compared to adequate Ca and P might be indicated a physiological response by the chicks to mitigate mineral deficiencies by up-regulated nutrient transfer and deposition [50]. In poultry, the metabolism of vitamin D, Ca, and P are greatly interlinked. The intestinal Ca and P absorption depend on many factors including age of the birds, PP and sources of vitamin D in the diets [51,52]. It is documented that vitamin D is required for the synthesis of Ca binding protein (CaBP) in the intestinal cells and this CaBP actively transport Ca across the intestinal epithelial wall to the plasma of the chicks [53]. In addition, the vitamin D metabolites may also facilitate an increase in Ca uptake and thus reduces the formation of a phytin complex. It has been shown that dietary supplementation of vitamin D significantly increased phytate digestibility and decreased the rickets in chicks fed low Ca and high phytate diets [52,54]. On the other hand, serum Ca and P content, bone ash, and bone strength are the main indicators of Ca and P status of birds. Though serum Ca and P level were not measured in the present experiment, but the bone mineral data are supported by the increased utilization of Ca and P in chicks fed dietary 25-OH-D₃ (Table 3). The present data also indicate that the negative effect of low dietary Ca and P on the availability of these minerals in chicks may be corrected by the increased vitamin D metabolites to escalate mineral absorption and retention, resulting reduced mineral excretion to the environment [21,47]. It is concluded that dietary supplementation of 25-OH-D₃ improves growth performance, BMD, BMC and area of the bone, and apparent total tract mineral utilization of broiler chicks fed low Ca and P, where 5,000 IU/kg 25-OH-D₃ is the best supplementation level in this regard.

Acknowledgements

This study was supported by the Postdoctoral Fellowship Program of the Department of Animal Science, University of Manitoba, Canada. The authors would like to thank Animal Nutrition and Health-North America, DSM Nutritional Products Inc., Parsippany, NJ, and Avon Animal Health, Dhaka, Bangladesh for their support in preparation of this manuscript.

Bibliography

1. Riddell C. "Selection of broiler chickens for a high and low incidence of tibial dyschondroplasia with observations on spondylolisthesis and twisted legs (perosis)". *Poultry Science* 55 (1976): 145-151.
2. Scott ML., et al. "Nutrition of the chicken". In the vitamins. ML. Scott and Associates, Publishers, Ithaca, New York (1982): 148-159.
3. Farquharson C and Jefferies D. "Chondrocytes and longitudinal bone growth: The development of tibial dyschondroplasia". *Poultry Science* 79.7 (2000): 994-1004.
4. Crespo R and Shivaprasad HL. "Developmental, metabolic, and other noninfectious disorders". Diseases of Poultry. YM Saif, HJ Barnes, JR Glisson, AM. Fadly, LR. Mcdougald and DE Swayne, ed. Iowa State Press. Ames, Iowa (2003).
5. Misirlioğlu D., et al. "Broyler piliçlerde bacak problemlerine patolojik, bakteriyolojik ve serolojik bir yaklaşım". *Veteriner Bilimleri Dergisi* 173 (2001): 201-208.
6. Cook JKA. "Avian pneumovirus infections of turkey and chickens". *Veterinary Journal* 160.2 (2000): 118-125.
7. Oviedo-Rondón EO., et al. "Effect of incubation temperatures and chick transportation conditions on bone development and leg health". *The Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 18 (2009): 671-678.
8. Ledwaba MF and Roberson KD. "Effectiveness of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol in the prevention of tibial dyschondroplasia in Ross cockerels depends on dietary calcium level". *Poultry Science* 82.11 (2003): 1769-1777.
9. Whitehead CC., et al. "High vitamin D3 requirements in broilers for bone quality and prevention of tibial dyschondroplasia and interactions with dietary calcium, available phosphorus and Vitamin A". *British Poultry Science* 45 (2004): 425-436.

10. Edwards Jr HM and Veltman Jr JR. "The role of calcium and phosphorus in the etiology of tibial dyschondroplasia in young chickens". *Journal of Nutrition* 113.8 (1983): 1568-1575.
11. Driver JP, *et al.* "The effect of feeding calcium and phosphorus-deficient diets to broiler chickens during the starting and growing-finishing phases on carcass quality". *Poultry Science* 85.11 (2006): 1939-1946.
12. Edwards Jr HM. "Studies on the efficacy of cholecalciferol and derivatives for stimulating phytate utilization in broilers". *Poultry Science* 81.7 (2002): 1026-1031.
13. Waldroup PW, *et al.* "Studies on the vitamin D3 requirement of the broiler chick". *Poultry Science* 44 (1965): 543-548.
14. Baker DH, *et al.* "Vitamin D3 requirement of young chicks receiving diets varying in calcium and available phosphorus". *British Poultry Science* 39.3 (1998): 413-417.
15. Onyango EM, *et al.* "Dietary cholecalciferol and phosphorus influence intestinal phytase activity in broiler chicken". *British Poultry Science* 47 (2006): 632-639.
16. Applegate TJ, *et al.* "Effect of calcium, 25-hydroxycholecalciferol, or bird strain on small intestinal phytase activity in broiler chickens". *Poultry Science* 82.7 (2003): 1140-1148.
17. Bar A, *et al.* "Performance and bone development in broiler chickens given 25-hydroxycholecalciferol". *British Poultry Science* 44.2 (2003): 224-233.
18. Bar A, *et al.* "Absorption and excretion of cholecalciferol and of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol and metabolites in birds". *Journal of Nutrition* 110.10 (1980): 1930-1934.
19. Soares JH, *et al.* "25-Hydroxycholecalciferol in poultry nutrition". *Poultry Science* 74 (1995): 1919-1934.
20. National Research Council. "Nutrient Requirements of Poultry". 9th review edition (Washington, DC, National Academy Press) (1994).
21. Biehl RR and Baker DH. "Utilization of phytate and nonphytate phosphorus in chicks as affected by source and amount of vitamin D3". *Journal of Animal Science* 75.11 (1997): 2986-2993.
22. Fritts CA and PW Waldroup. "Effect of source and level of vitamin D on live performance and bone development in growing broilers". *Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 12 (2003): 45-52.
23. Biehl RR, *et al.* "Activity of various hydroxylated vitamin D3 analogs for improving phosphorus utilization in chicks receiving diets adequate in vitamin D3". *British Poultry Science* 39.3 (1998): 408-412.
24. AOAC International. "Official methods of analysis of AOAC International, 17th edition". AOAC International, Gaithersburg (2000).
25. Al-Masri MR. "Absorption and endogenous excretion of phosphorus in growing broiler chicks, as influenced by calcium and phosphorus ratios in feed". *British Journal of Nutrition* 74.3 (1995): 407-415.
26. Collins ED and Norman AW. "Vitamin D". In Handbook of Vitamins. LJ Machlin, ed. Marcel Dekker, New York (1991): 59-98.
27. Yarger JG, *et al.* "Safety of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol as a source of cholecalciferol in poultry rations". *Poultry Science* 74 (1995a): 1437-1446.
28. Yarger JG, *et al.* "Comparison of dietary 25-hydroxycholecalciferol and cholecalciferol in broiler chickens". *Poultry Science* 74 (1995b): 1159-1167.

29. Angel R., *et al.* "Effects of dietary phosphorus, phytase, and 25-hydroxycholecalciferol on performance of broiler chickens grown in floor pens". *Poultry Science* 84.7 (2005): 1031-1044.
30. Bachelet M., *et al.* "Early stimulation of alkaline phosphatase activity in response to 1 alpha, 25-dihydroxycholecalciferol". *Biochemical and Biophysical Research Communications* 89.2 (1979): 694-700.
31. Corradino R and Wasserman RH. "Actinomycin D inhibition of vitamin D3 induced calcium-binding protein (CaBP) formation in chick duodenal mucosa". *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics* 126.3 (1968): 957-960.
32. Khanal RC and Nemere I. "The ERp57/GRp58/1,25D3-MARRS receptor: Multiple functional roles in diverse cell systems". *Current Medicinal Chemistry* 14.10 (2007): 1087-1093.
33. Rennie S and Whitehead C. "Effectiveness of dietary 25- and 1-hydroxycholecalciferol in combating tibial dyschondroplasia in broiler chickens". *British Poultry Science* 37 (1996): 413-421.
34. Zhang X., *et al.* "Response of broiler lines selected for tibial dyschondroplasia incidence to supplementary 25-dihydroxycholecalciferol". *The Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 6 (1997): 410-416.
35. Roberson KD. "25-hydroxycholecalciferol fails to prevent tibial dyschondroplasia in broiler chicks raised in battery brooders". *The Journal of Applied Poultry Research* 8 (1999): 54-61.
36. Kim WK., *et al.* "Comparative assessment of bone of wild-type, restricted ovulator, and out of production hens". *British Poultry Science* 45.4 (2004): 463-470.
37. Talaty PN., *et al.* "Life cycle changes in bone mineralization and bone size traits of commercial broilers". *Poultry Science* 88 (2009): 1070-1077.
38. Kim WK., *et al.* "Effects of age, vitamin D3, and fructooligosaccharides on bone growth and skeletal integrity of broiler chicks". *Poultry Science* 90.11 (2011): 2425-2432.
39. Bar A., *et al.* "Induced changes in the affinity of 1,25-dihydroxyvitamin D3 receptors in chick intestine". *FEBS Letters* 163.2 (1983): 261-264.
40. Edelstein S., *et al.* "The functional metabolism of vitamin D in chicks fed low calcium and low-phosphorus diets". *Biochimica et Biophysica Acta* 385.2 (1975): 438-442.
41. Montecuccoli G., *et al.* "The response of 25-hydroxycholecalciferol-1-hydroxylase activity, intestinal calcium absorption, and calcium-binding protein to phosphate deficiency in chicks". *Comparative Biochemistry and Physiology* 57A (1977): 331-334.
42. Bar A., *et al.* "Relationship and plasma calcium-binding protein to intestinal calcium absorption". *FEBS Letters* 102.1 (1979): 79-81.
43. Blahos J., *et al.* "Effect of low calcium and low phosphorus diets on duodenal and ileal absorption of phosphate in chick". *Endocrinologia Experimentalis* 21.1 (1987): 59-64.
44. Li D., *et al.* "Effect of microbial phytase, Vitamin D3, and citric acid on growth performance and phosphorus, nitrogen and calcium digestibility in growing swine". *Animal Feed Science and Technology* 73 (1998): 173-186.
45. Mc Donald P., *et al.* "Animal nutrition". Pearson Prentice Hall, Essex, London, UK (2002).
46. Davies MI., *et al.* "Intestinal phytase and alkaline phosphatase of chicks: influence of dietary calcium, inorganic and phytate phosphorus and vitamin D3". *Poultry Science* 49.5 (1970): 1280-1286.

47. Mohammed A., *et al.* "The effect of dietary levels of inorganic P, calcium and cholecalciferol on the digestibility of phytate P by the broiler chick". *British Journal of Nutrition* 66 (1991): 251-259.
48. O'Doherty JV., *et al.* "Effects of phytase and 25hydroxyvitamin D3 inclusions on the performance, mineral balance and bone parameters of grower-finisher pigs fed low phosphorus diets". *Animal* 4 (2010): 1634-1640.
49. Ravindran V., *et al.* "Phytates: Occurrence, bioavailability and implications in poultry nutrition". *Poultry and Avian Biology Reviews* 6 (1995): 125-143.
50. Browning LC., *et al.* "The interactive effects of vitamin D, Phytase, Calcium and Phosphorus in Broiler Performance and Skeletal Integrity". Australian Poultry Science Symposium-APSS, Sydney, New South Wales (2012): 19-22.
51. Ameenuddin S., *et al.* "Essentiality of vitamin D3 and its metabolites in poultry nutrition: a review". *World's Poultry Science Journal* 41.1 (1985): 52-63.
52. Mellanby E. "A Story of Nutritional Research". The effect of some dietary factors on bones and the nervous system, Williams and Wilkins, Baltimore (1950).
53. Wasserman RH and Taylor AN. "Vitamin D3-induced calcium-binding protein in chick intestinal mucosa". *Science* 152 (1966): 791-793.
54. Steenbock H and Herting DC. "Vitamin D and growth". *Journal of Nutrition* 57 (1955): 449-468.

Volume 14 Issue 3 March 2019

©All rights reserved by HM Salim., *et al.*