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Vasil Pirgozliev

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Vasil Pirgozliev. The effects of supplementary bacterial phytase on dietary energy and total tract amino acid digestibility when fed to young chickens. British Poultry Science, 2011, 52 (02), pp.245-254. 10.1080/00071668.2011.560596. hal-00686681

HAL Id: hal-00686681

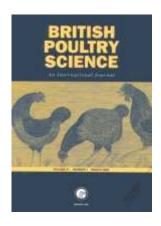
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Submitted on 11 Apr 2012

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#### **British Poultry Science**



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Journal:	British Poultry Science
Manuscript ID:	CBPS-2010-104.R1
Manuscript Type:	Original Manuscript
Date Submitted by the Author:	25-Sep-2010
Complete List of Authors:	Pirgozliev, Vasil; SAC
Keywords:	Broilers, Bacterial phytase, Net energy, Metabolisable energy, Threonine

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 The effects of supplementary bacterial phytase on dietary energy and total tract amino acid digestibility when fed to young chickens

V. PIRGOZLIEV, M.R. BEDFORD<sup>1</sup>, T. ACAMOVIC, P. MARES<sup>\*</sup> AND M. ALLYMEHR<sup>†</sup>

Avian Science Research Centre, Scottish Agricultural College, Auchincruive, Ayr, KA6 5HW, UK, <sup>1</sup>AB Vista Feed Ingredients, Woodstock Court, Blenheim Road, Marlborough Business Park, Marlborough, Wiltshire, SN8 4AN, UK.

Running title: Phytase and nutrient digestibility

Correspondence to: Dr. Vasil Pirgozliev, Avian Science Research Centre, Scottish Agricultural College, Auchincruive, Ayr, KA6 5HW, UK

E-mail: vasil.pirgozliev@sac.ac.uk

\*Present address: Mendel University of Agriculture and Forestry, Brno, Czech Republic.

Accepted for publication 13th October 2010

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>†</sup>Present address: University of Urmia, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, Urmia, Iran.

Abstract 1. Four diets were offered to broiler chickens from 7 to 17 d of age; these included a phosphorus-adequate positive control (PC) (4.7 g/kg available P), a sub-optimal P negative control (NC, 2.5 g/kg available P) with (500 and 12500 FTU/kg) and without phytase. Dietary apparent metabolisable energy (AME), dietary net energy for production (NEp), the efficiency of AME retention (Kre), heat production and total tract amino acid digestibility coefficients were determined. The determination of NEp involved a comparative slaughter technique in which growing chickens were fed the experimental diets *ad libitum*.

- 2. Feed intake, weight gain and feed conversion efficiency increased significantly in a dose dependent manner in response to dietary phytase activity. Overall, the NEp of the phytase supplemented diets significantly improved by approximately 15.6% compared with the negative control, while dietary AME was unaffected. Although phytase did not affect AME, the large increase in the NEp demonstrated that dietary phytases improves energy utilisation, *i.e.* diverting more energy, not accounted for in the AME procedure, for production. This is largely a result of the stimulatory effect that phytase has on feed intake rather than on digestibility of the diet.
- 3. Overall, the diet supplemented with 12500 FTU had 6.4% significant improvement in total tract digestibility coefficients of the total amino acids compared with the negative control. With regard to individual amino acids, the impact of phytase was far more pronounced for threonine, an important component of the gastrointestinal mucin, than for other amino acids.
- 4. Dietary NEp was more highly correlated with performance criteria than dietary AME and seems to be a more sensitive way to evaluate broiler response to phytase supplementation.

#### 65 INTRODUCTION

Over two-thirds of P in cereals and legumes, the main ingredients of poultry diets, are contained in chemical structures called phytic acid or its salts, collectively known as phytates (NRC, 1994). Phytate P is not available for poultry unless at least one of the phosphate groups

is removed from the inositol molecule, by intrinsic feed phytase, intestinal phytase or microbial phytase (Nelson et al., 1971). However, intestinal hydrolysis of dietary phytate in poultry is mainly achieved through use of exogenous microbial phytase, since intrinsic plant phytases are relatively ineffective and heat labile and intestinal phytase activity is relatively low (Maenz and Classen, 1998; Applegate et al., 2003). Microbial phytases used in poultry diets have usually resulted in improvements in growth performance and flock uniformity, and reduced waste output to the environment (Selle and Ravindran, 2007). While the improvement in performance is closely associated with destruction of dietary phytate and an improvement in digestion and absorption of minerals and amino acids, the influence of phytase on dietary apparent metabolisable energy (AME) has been not consistent (Selle and Ravindran, 2007; Cowieson et al., 2009). Whereas some authors found an increase in dietary AME in response to phytase (Ravindran et al., 1999b; Shirley and Edwards, 2003; Cowieson et al., 2006), others (Tejedor et al., 2001; Pirgozliev et al., 2008) either did not see an improvement in AME or the response tended to be species dependent (Pirgozliev et al., 2007). Net energy is a more meaningful measure of energy utilisation with regard to prediction of the nutritive value of poultry diets (De Groote, 1974; Pirgozliev and Rose, 1999; MacLeod, 2002). Research by Pirgozliev et al. (2009) has demonstrated that exposure to dietary phytase reduces the loss of endogenous energy from bird's GIT suggesting that phytase supplementation may reduce the energetic costs of growth relative to an unsupplemented control diet. However, to date, no data has been published on the effect of supplemental microbial phytase on dietary net energy.

Thus the objective of the present study was to quantify the differences and interrelationships in dietary net energy resulting from feeding chickens diets containing various dosages of phytase. Growth, energy and amino acid metabolism were also determined.

#### MATERIAL AND METHODS

#### **Diet formulation**

An *Escherichia coli*-derived phytase (Quantum <sup>TM</sup> EC 3.1.3.26; AB Vista Feed Ingredients, Wiltshire, UK) was used in this experiment. Four experimental diets were prepared, and all were formulated to be adequate in protein and energy, however, the negative control (NC) was lower in non-phytate-P compared to the (PC) positive control (2.5 *vs.* 4.7 g/kg diet; Table 1). The remaining two diets were the negative control supplemented with phytase (500 and 12500 FTU respectively; *i.e.* NC+500; NC+12500). The enzyme was added to the diets in powder form and all diets were fed as a mash.

#### Husbandry and apparent metabolisable energy determination

Ross 308 female chickens were obtained from a commercial hatchery (Grampian Ltd, Whitburn, UK) at 1-d-old and were placed in a single floor pen at 32°C. All birds were given a proprietary chicken starter feed during the 6-d pre-study period. On the first day of the experiment (7 d of age), the chicks were individually weighed and the heaviest and lightest birds discarded, leaving 48 birds which were sorted, according to weight, into 6 blocks of 8 birds (4 diets and 2 birds per cage), in a randomized block design. Each wire-mesh metabolic cage (0.35 x 0.35 m floor area) was arranged in 4 tiers (tier being the blocking factor) within a controlled environment room. All the cages were equipped with metal feeders and nipple and cup drinkers. Excreta samples were collected in trays under each cage. The room temperature was 28°C at 7d and gradually reduced to 21°C at the end of 10-d feeding period. The light regime was 23 h light and 1 h dark, and the relative humidity was maintained between 50 and 70%. Access to feed and water was *ad libitum*. The experiment ended when the birds were 17 d of age. The experiment was approved by the Scottish Agricultural College Animal Experimental Committee.

All excreta were collected for the last 2 d of the feeding period, stored in a freezer at -20°C and later freeze-dried and ground. The gross energy of each dried excreta sample and the experimental diets was determined using an adiabatic bomb calorimeter (Parr Instrument Company, Moline, IL, 61265, USA). To determine dietary AME of the experimental diets (MJ/kg DM), a total collection technique was employed for the last 2 d of the study. The nitrogen in feed and excreta was determined by the method of Sweeney (1989) using a FP-200 nitrogen analyser (LECO®, St. Joseph, MI, USA). The coefficients of dry matter digestibility (DMD) were determined as the difference between intake and excretion of DM, divided by their respective intake.

#### Carcase energy retention, heat production and dietary net energy determination

A comparative slaughter technique was applied to determine retention of nutrients. Four birds from the general group (birds from the same batch that were reared in the pre-study period only) were selected at random, killed by cervical dislocation at the beginning of the experiment, and stored in a freezer at -20°C for analysis. At the end of the experimental period, feed was removed for 2 h and the remaining birds weighed and killed by cervical dislocation. The carcases of the birds, including intestines and feather, from each cage were frozen and minced (Hobart A 200, The Hobart Mfg Co Ltd, London, UK). The minced carcases of the birds of each pen were pooled, thoroughly mixed and sampled. The carcase samples were freeze-dried, and gross energy (adiabatic bomb calorimeter) and crude protein (N x 6.25) determined. The same procedure was applied to the carcases of 4 birds taken at the start of the experiment and the data was used to determine the gross energy and protein retention for the experimental period.

#### **Carcase energy retention**

The total energy retained in the carcases (REc) was calculated as follows:

142 
$$REc (MJ) = E17 - E7$$

- where, E17 = the total gross energy (MJ) of chicken carcases at 17 d old, and E7 = the total
- gross energy (MJ) of chicken carcases at the beginning of the experiment at 7 d.
- 145 Dietary net energy for production (NEp MJ/kg DM feed intake) was calculated using the
- 146 following equation:
- NEp (MJ kg diet) = REc/FI
- where, FI = dry matter (kg) consumed from 7 to 17 d.
- The efficiency of AME used for energy retention (Kre) was calculated as the REc divided by
- the AME intake.
- Kre = REc/AME intake
- where, AME intake = the feed intake (kg DM) for the experimental period multiplied by
- determined metabolisable energy (MJ/kg DM) of the diets.
- The total carcase protein retention (g/bird) was obtained similarly to REc as follows:
- $CPr = (N17 N7) \times 6.25$
- where, N17 = the N (g) in chicken carcases at 17 d, N7 = the N (g) in chicken carcases at the
- beginning of the experiment at 7 d, and 6.25 is the coefficient used to calculate the protein
- retained in the body.
- 159 The value of the carcase GE retained as protein was obtained:
- $REp = CPr \times 23.6$
- where, *CPr* (kg) was multiplied by 23.6 MJ according to Okumura and Mori (1979). It was
- assumed that the difference between REc and REp yields the value for the GE retained as
- body fat (REf). The amount of retained carcase fat was calculated as the REf retained as body
- fat divided by the value of 39.12 MJ/kg (Okumura and Mori, 1979).
- The efficiency of AME used for protein (Krep) and fat retention (Kref) were calculated as
- 166 follow:

Krep = REp/AME intake

Kref = REf/AME intake

#### **Heat production**

The total heat production of the birds from 7 to 17 d (HPt), which consists of the energy for tissue retention, maintenance and the heat increment of production, was calculated as difference between dietary AME intake and REc:

HPt (MJ) = AME intake - REc

The heat production (HPf MJ/kg DM feed intake) per kg feed intake was also calculated:

HPf (MJ/kg DM feed intake) = HPt/FI

where, HPt = the total heat production of the birds from 7 to 17 d (MJ) and FI = dry matter (kg) consumed.

The NEp/HPf ratio was used as criteria for the use of heat production for body energy retention, assuming that higher ratio indicates that most of the released heat was used for carcase energy retention and maintenance, and not for heat increment.

#### Amino acids in feed and excreta

Amino acids in feed and excreta were determined by high performance liquid chromatography with fluorimetric detection of the orthophthaldehyde derivatives (Jones *et al.*, 1981). Since this method of hydrolysis destroys methionine, cystine and tryptophan, data on these amino acids are not reported. Excreta digestibility for glycine is not presented because of the glycine yield from acid hydrolysis of uric acid in excreta (Soares *et al.*, 1971).

The total tract digestibility coefficient of each amino acid was calculated as the difference between amino acid intake and the amino acid excreted divided by the amino acid intake. The digestible amino acids intake (g/bird/d) was obtained as the product of amino acid intake and their total tract digestibility coefficient.

#### **Statistical analyses**

Statistical analyses were performed with *Genstat 11th Edition* statistical software package (Lawes Agricultural Trust, 2008). The performance results, dietary energy, amino acids and other variates were compared statistically by ANOVA. The relationship between results on growth performance, dietary energy and amino acids responses were determined by correlation. In all instances, differences were reported as significant at P < 0.05 and trends were noted at P > 0.05 < 0.10.

198 RESULTS

## Performance and energy metabolism

All birds remained healthy throughout the study period. Feeding enzyme supplemented diets significantly increased dry matter intake by approximately 17%, weight gain by 27% and FCE by approximately 7.6% compared with birds fed the negative control diet (Table 2). The improvement was more noticeable for the birds fed on the diet containing 12500 FTU, suggesting a dose relationship existed. Birds given 12500 FTU, also tended (*P*=0.066) to metabolise energy more effectively (*i.e.* a higher AME:GE ratio) than the birds fed the other diets (Table 2). This in part was reflected by the higher (*P*<0.05) dry matter digestibility coefficient (DMD) for the 12500 FTU/kg diet in comparison with other diets (Table 2). Metabolisability coefficients for N were not affected (*P*>0.05) by the diets. Birds fed on PC and NC+12500 FTU supplemented diets consumed approximately 26.1 and 20.3 %, respectively, more (*P*<0.05) AME than those fed the NC, which was more a reflection in differences in intake than metabolisability, although no differences (*P*>0.05) existed between the NC and NC+500 FTU.

There was no difference in the GE/kg of the carcase tissue from birds fed different diets (Table 3) and the GE values were similar to previous data (Pirgozliev *et al.*, 2001). The difference in total carcase energy retained (REc), however, was a result of differences in body weight between birds fed different diets, with the NC being significantly lower than PC,

NC+500 FTU or NC+12500 FTU. Energy retained as carcase protein or fat followed a similar path, with NC being lower for protein (P < 0.001) and fat (P < 0.05) than for the remaining diets.

The values for Kre, Krep and Kref, were significantly lower for the NC diet, relative to the other diets, although there was no significant difference between the PC and phytase supplemented diets (Table 3). As expected, the supplementation of phytase to the NC significantly improved the determined value of NEp. The NEp values were in the expected range (Pirgozliev *et al.*, 2001; McCracken and Clements, 2001) and the NEp of the NC+500 FTU, PC and NC+12500 FTU were 11.3%, 15.6% and 19.9%, respectively, significantly higher than the NC.

No significant difference existed in terms of the HPt values. However, when presented on a per kg of DM intake basis, *i.e.* HPf of birds fed, the NC was 0.7 MJ significantly greater than birds fed the other three diets (Table 3). The HPf values from the birds fed the PC and phytase supplemented diets were almost identical. Chicks fed the NC lost 26.4%, 22.2% and 31.8% significantly more energy per kg feed intake to the surroundings than birds fed the PC,

NC+500 FTU or NC+12500 FTU respectively

Tables 4 & 5 near here

#### Total tract amino acid digestibility

The effects of dietary treatments on total tract amino acid digestibility coefficients and digestible amino acid intake are presented in Tables 4 and 5. The total tract digestibility coefficients of most amino acids were significantly reduced by feeding the NC, and only when the highest dosage of phytase was offered were the coefficients similar to the PC. Digestible amino acid intake tended to follow the same pattern, although due to the beneficial effect of the lower dose of phytase on intake, equilibration with the PC was achieved at 500 rather than 12500 FTU, as observed for the digestibility coefficients alone. Overall, the diet supplemented with 12500 FTU improved the digestibility coefficient of the indispensable and

total amino compared to the negative control and even the 500 FTU supplemented diets. A similar trend (P = 0.091) was observed for the dispensable amino acid digestibility coefficient.

Table 6 shows the correlation coefficients among the various experimental results. Weight gain was more highly correlated with NEp (r = 0.854; P < 0.001) than with AME (r = 0.577; P < 0.05). FCE was correlated with the NEp (r = 0.546; P < 0.05) although there was no significant correlation with the dietary AME. Weight gain was also more highly correlated with the digestibility of dietary indispensable amino acids (r = 0.626; P < 0.001) compared with the digestibility of dispensable (r = 0.590; P < 0.05). In addition, the correlation coefficient between weight gain and the digestibility of dietary threonine was relatively higher (r = 0.615; P < 0.001) than the digestibility coefficient of dietary lysine (r = 0.550; P < 0.05).

253 DISCUSSION

The beneficial effect of phytase supplementation of low P diets is well documented (Selle and Ravindran, 2007; Cowieson *et al.*, 2009). In this study, birds given 12500 FTU were 23% heavier and converted feed 37% more efficiently than birds fed the NC. Similar to previous research with the same phytase (Cowieson *et al.*, 2006; Pirgozliev *et al.*, 2007, 2008), birds fed on diets with high phytase activity, *i.e.* over 2000 FTU, tended to outperform those fed the PC, provided the P reduction employed in the NC was not overly ambitious.

The improvement in growth performance with phytase supplementation is mirrored somewhat by the increase in dietary energy and amino acid availability and intake. Phytase-driven improvements in carcase protein and fat deposition is in agreement with Boekholt *et al.* (1994) who found that, when protein is not limiting in the diets of broilers, extra energy available in the diet is used for both fat and protein retention. However, the effect of treatment on AME and total tract digestibility amino acids was relatively minor compared with the

responses achieved in gain and FCR, suggesting that phytase addition influences more than nutrient digestibility.

The efficiency of dietary AME energy use for tissue energy retention was slightly higher compared with the previous findings of Olukosi et al. (2008), who observed the Kre values of 0.377 to 0.387 with growing broiler chickens fed phytase or a cocktail of xylanase, amylase and protease from 0 to 21 d age. The same authors also reported that the Krep was higher than for carcase fat deposition, whereas the reverse was seen in this study. However, the use of different diet formulations, exogenous enzyme supplementation, different strains and flocks of birds, and feeding regimes may be responsible for these differences. The large improvement in Kre due to phytase supplementation is in accord with the higher NEp values, which is not particularly well correlated with effects on dietary AME. The literature suggests that although phytase supplementation does not always improve dietary metabolisable energy, it usually improves intake and gain (Ravindran et al., 1999a; Pirgozliev et al., 2007, 2008) the former being an implicit part of AME intake, which was well correlated with NEp. With increased AME intake, birds will have consumed more energy per d per unit of body weight, resulting in proportionately more of total intake being available for production than for maintenance. The close relationship between AME intake and Kre suggests that this hypothesis may have validity. Thus, feeding phytase may improve energy retention as much, if not more, through increasing total energy intake, thereby increasing the supply of energy in excess of maintenance, as through increasing the efficiency of energy metabolisability. As a consequence, there was a better relationship between dietary NEp rather than AME with bird weight gain and FCR, indicating that dietary NEp is a more predictive measure of animal performance.

Although birds fed the NC retained less total carcase energy, they released more heat per kg feed intake compared with all other diets. It is known that animals use energy to

maintain not only muscle, fat and bone tissues, but also respiratory tissues, liver and the gastro-intestinal tract, all of which can be energetically very demanding (Spratt *et al.*, 1990). It has been demonstrated by Spratt *et al.* (1990) that, despite the fact that the liver and the gut account for approximately only 3% of the body weight of a hen, they may contribute up to 26% of the total heat production, suggesting that a relatively small reduction in the GIT size could account for a significant saving in maintenance energy. Wu *et al.* (2004) reported a reduction of the weight and the relative proportion of the gastrointestinal tract and other related organs when phytase was fed to broilers. This suggests that birds fed phytase may have a lower heat increment, thereby allowing them to divert relatively more energy towards growth rather than maintenance.

The fact that the cost of feed accounts for approximately 70% of the cost in poultry production (Cooke, 1987), and with increasing and volatile feed ingredient prices, the lack of a relationship between dietary metabolisable energy and growth rate or efficiency emphasises the need for research to improve the prediction of feeding quality of poultry diets. Whilst the net energy system is clearly better in this regard, it is subject to relatively high variability and the values are strongly influenced by diet composition (De Groote, 1974; Pirgozliev and Rose, 1999; McCracken and Clements, 2001; MacLeod, 2002). Given that feed intake plays such a large role in describing the energy balance of an animal, as demonstrated in this work, any assay employing a restricted feeding technique (Priyankarage *et al.*, 2008) to measure net energy will likely not reflect the full value of a phytase treated feed when utilised commercially.

The impact of phytase was more pronounced for total tract digestibility of threonine than all other indispensable amino acids, which is in agreement with previous work by Ravindran *et al.* (1999*a*) and Rutherfurd *et al.* (2002), based on ileal, and Cowieson *et al.* (2006), based on excreta measurements. Threonine comprises a significant amount of the

 amino acid composition of mucin, and over half of the absorbed dietary threonine is used by the enterocytes (Neutra and Forstner, 1987). In clinical situations associated with increased endogenous excretions from the gastrointestinal tract, *e.g.* relatively high dietary phytate, threonine availability may limit intestinal mucin synthesis and consequently reduce gut barrier function. Alternatively, increased mucin secretion will increase threonine losses and hence reduce its metabolisability. The improvement in threonine metabolisability on feeding high levels of phytase is probably a result of reduced mucin synthesis and subsequent mucin loss. However, that lack of effect of exogenous phytase on the total tract digestibility of dietary serine, another amino acid involved in the mucin composition, may be confounded by the use of excreta instead of ileal samples for amino acid determination. Ravindran *et al.* (1999*a*) demonstrated that amino acid metabolism by microflora in the lower gut of chickens may be substantial and that amino acid digestibility measured in the terminal ileum would differ from that measured in the excreta.

In summary, the present results indicate that dietary phytase improved the nutritional value of maize/soy-based diets that were low in P when fed to young chickens. Whilst the use of phytase, particularly at very high doses, improved utilisation of dietary energy and threonine, its effect on feed intake was proportionately much greater. Much of the growth and efficiency responses noted were therefore more a result of improve digestible nutrient intake rather than nutrient digestibility *per se*. As a result, previous studies which have focussed on the effect of phytase on AME alone may well have under-estimated the full value of a phytase.

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**Table 1.** *Diet formulation (g/kg 'as-fed') of the diets* 

Feedingstuffs	Negative Control	Positive Control
Maize	699.6	689.6
Soybean meal (48)	192.5	192.5
Casein	70.0	70.0
Salt	4.6	4.6
DL Methionine	3.2	3.2
Lysine HCl	1.9	1.9
Limestone	17.6	17.6
Dicalcium Phosphate	5.6	15.6
Vitamin Mineral Premix <sup>1</sup>	5.0	5.0
Calculated analysis (as fed basis)		
AME (MJ/kg)	12.93	13.05
CP (g/kg)	214	214
Ca (g/kg)	9.1	9.1
Total P (g/kg)	4.9	7.1
Available P (g/kg)	2.5	4.7
Sodium (g/kg)	1.6	1.6
Analyzed values (DM basis)		
GE (MJ/kg)	17.31	17.44
CP (g/kg DM)	245	235
DM (g/kg)	890	892
Amino acid composition (g/kg DM)		
Alanine	9.29	9.00
Arginine	9.87	9.82
Aspartic acid	18.58	17.98
Glutamic acid	40.78	38.64
Histidine	5.18	5.19
Isoleucine	10.00	9.61
Leucine	19.01	18.45
Lysine	12.65	11.70
Phenylalanine	10.09	9.74
Serine	7.76	7.46
Threonine	7.15	6.80
Tyrosine	5.87	5.70
Valine	11.15	10.62

<sup>1</sup>The vitamin and mineral premix contained vitamins and trace elements to meet the requirements specified by NRC (1994). All the experimental diets were designed to be low in P. The premix provided (units/kg diet): retinol 3600 μg, cholecalciferol 125 μg, α-tocopherol 34 mg, menadione 3 mg, thiamine 2 mg, riboflavin 7 mg, pyridoxine 5 mg, cobalamin 15 μg, nicotinic acid 50 mg, pantotenic acid 15 mg, folic acid 1 mg, biotin 200 μg, iron 80 mg, copper 10 mg, manganese 100 mg, cobalt 0.5 mg, zinc 80 mg, iodine 1 mg, selenium 0.2 mg and molybdenum 0.5 mg.

**Table 2.** The effect of experimental diets on bird performance, dietary apparent metabolisable energy (AME), gross energy (AME:GE) metabolisability coefficient, dietary AME intake, dietary dry matter digestibility (DMD) and nitrogen (NM) metabolisability coefficient

Variates -		F	Significance			
v arrates	$PC^1$	$NC^2$	NC+500 FTU <sup>3</sup>	NC+12500 FTU <sup>3</sup>	$LSD^4$	P value <sup>5</sup>
Dry matter intake (g/bird/day)	38.9	32.6	36.4	40.2	4.57	< 0.05
Weight gain (g/bird/day)	30.8	24.1	28.1	33.1	3.99	< 0.05
Feed conversion efficiency	0.793	0.740	0.771	0.822	0.0479	< 0.05
AME (MJ kg DM)	13.72	13.58	13.47	13.91	0.333	0.063
AME:GE	0.787	0.786	0.778	0.804	0.0192	0.066
AME intake (MJ)	5.33	4.43	4.90	5.60	0.685	< 0.05
DMD	0.727	0.733	0.725	0.768	0.033	< 0.05
NM	0.542	0.564	0.532	0.624	0.0979	NS

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Positive control

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Negative control containing 2.5g/kg available P

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Phytase activity (units/kg) in diet

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Least significant differences of means

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Results are statistically significant when  $P \le 0.05$  (the P values between 0.05 and 0.1 are described to show a tendency), P > 0.10 values = NS

**Table 3.** Energy metabolism of broiler chickens (data based on feeding period from 7 to 17d age)

		Expe	Significance			
Variates <sup>1</sup>	PC <sup>2</sup>	NC <sup>3</sup>	NC 500FTU <sup>4</sup>	NC 12500FTU <sup>4</sup>	LSD <sup>5</sup>	P value <sup>6</sup>
Carcase weight at 7 d (g/DM)	43.1	43.4	42.2	41.2	3.80	NS
Carcase weight at 17 d (g/DM)	138.4	111.4	126.3	142.9	16.40	< 0.05
GE of dry carcase at 7d (MJ/kg)	24.10	24.10	24.10	24.10	-	-
GE of dry carcase at 17d (MJ/kg)	24.72	24.83	25.16	24.80	0.500	NS
Total carcase GE at 7d (MJ)	1.04	1.03	1.02	0.99	0.092	NS
Total carcase GE at 17d (MJ)	3.43	2.77	3.17	3.57	0.438	< 0.05
Retained carcase protein (g/bird)	49.3	36.8	44.0	51.9	6.42	< 0.001
Retained carcase fat (g/bird)	31.5	22.2	28.6	34.5	5.98	< 0.05
REc (MJ)	2.40	1.74	2.16	2.57	0.368	< 0.05
REp (MJ)	1.16	0.87	1.04	1.22	0.152	< 0.001
REf (MJ)	1.23	0.87	1.12	1.35	0.234	< 0.05
Kre	0.449	0.392	0.440	0.459	0.0185	< 0.001
Krep	0.218	0.196	0.212	0.219	0.0097	< 0.001
Kref	0.230	0.195	0.228	0.240	0.0198	< 0.05
NEp (kg feed DM)	6.15	5.32	5.92	6.38	0.287	< 0.001
HPt (MJ)	2.94	2.70	2.74	3.02	0.338	NS
HPf (kg feed DM)	7.56	8.27	7.55	7.53	0.322	< 0.001
NEp/HPf	0.814	0.644	0.787	0.849	0.0601	< 0.001

<sup>1</sup>Carcase weight at 7 d old (g/DM) - the average weight of the dry carcase at the beginning of the study; Carcase weight at 17 d old (g/DM) - the average weight of the dry carcase at the end of the study; GE of carcase at 7d old (MJ/kg) – gross energy content in a kilogram of bird carcase (air dry); GE of carcase 17d old (MJ/kg) – gross energy content in a kilogram of bird carcase (air dry); Total carcase GE at 7d old (MJ) - gross energy in the whole bird carcase at 7d of age; Total carcase GE at 17d old (MJ) - gross energy in the whole bird carcase at 17d of age; REc (MJ) - the total carcase energy retained in a bird from 7 to 17d of age; Protein retained 7-17d old (g/bird) - the total carcase protein retained from 7 to 17d of age; REp (MJ) – the carcase gross energy retained as carcase protein; REf (MJ) – the carcase gross energy retained as carcase fat; Kre - efficiency of dietary apparent metabolisable energy retention; Krep - efficiency of dietary protein retention; Kref - efficiency of dietary fat retention; NEc (MJ/kg feed DM) – dietary net energy (carcase energy retained per kilogram dry matter feed intake); HPt (MJ) – total heat production from 7 to 17d of age; HPf (MJ) – heat production per a kilogram dry matter feed intake.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Positive control, <sup>3</sup>Negative control containing 2.5g/kg available P.

<sup>470 &</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Phytase activity (units/kg) in diet.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Least significant differences of means.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Results are statistically significant when P < 0.05, P values between 0.05 and 0.1 are described to show a tendency and P > 0.10 = not significant (NS).

**Table 4.** The effect of experimental diets on the total tract amino acid digestibility coefficients of broiler chickens determined between 15 and 17d age

			Signifi	cance		
Amino acids	PC <sup>1</sup>	$NC^2$	NC+500 FTU <sup>3</sup>	NC+12500 FTU <sup>3</sup>	$LSD^4$	P value <sup>5</sup>
Indispensable						
Arginine	0.834	0.818	0.823	0.870	0.0304	< 0.05
Histidine	0.823	0.802	0.800	0.847	0.0402	0.081
Isoleucine	0.743	0.719	0.716	0.765	0.0385	0.054
Leucine	0.812	0.770	0.769	0.834	0.0230	< 0.001
Lysine	0.829	0.772	0.775	0.832	0.0403	< 0.05
Phenylalanine	0.802	0.756	0.755	0.831	0.0293	< 0.001
Threonine	0.646	0.589	0.567	0.659	0.0645	< 0.05
Valine	0.785	0.696	0.694	0.756	0.0721	< 0.05
Dispensable						
Alanine	0.742	0.665	0.653	0.745	0.0463	< 0.001
Aspartic acid	0.748	0.690	0.671	0.764	0.0588	< 0.05
Glutamic acid	0.787	0.802	0.788	0.809	0.0512	NS
Serine	0.719	0.749	0.741	0.760	0.0456	NS
Tyrosine	0.809	0.747	0.756	0.829	0.0363	< 0.001
Average indispensable	0.791	0.746	0.744	0.805	0.0314	< 0.05
Average dispensable	0.768	0.752	0.739	0.788	0.0395	0.090
Average total amino acids	0.779	0.749	0.741	0.797	0.0336	< 0.05

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Positive control.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Negative control containing 2.5g/kg available P. <sup>3</sup>Phytase activity (units/kg) in diet.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Least significant differences of means.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Results are statistically significant when P < 0.05, P values between 0.05 and 0.1 are described to show a tendency and P>0.10 = not significant (NS).

**Table 5.** The effect of experimental diets on digestible amino acid intake (g/bird/day) when fed to broiler chickens from 7 to 17d age

			from / to 1/d ag	re		
A mine eaide			Signif	ficance		
Amino acids	$PC^1$	$NC^2$	NC+500 FTU <sup>3</sup>	NC+12500 FTU	$LSD^4$	P value <sup>5</sup>
Indispensable						-
Arginine	0.317	0.267	0.293	0.343	0.0427	< 0.05
Histidine	0.164	0.138	0.150	0.177	0.0229	< 0.05
Isoleucine	0.287	0.230	0.250	0.295	0.0428	< 0.05
Leucine	0.597	0.472	0.515	0.617	0.0807	< 0.05
Lysine	0.405	0.301	0.329	0.391	0.0568	< 0.05
Phenylalanine	0.312	0.245	0.267	0.325	0.0416	< 0.05
Threonine	0.179	0.134	0.140	0.180	0.0333	< 0.05
Valine	0.338	0.258	0.281	0.339	0.0515	< 0.05
Dispensable						
Alanine	0.267	0.199	0.213	0.269	0.0405	< 0.05
Aspartic acid	0.540	0.411	0.437	0.552	0.0891	< 0.05
Glutamic acid	1.243	1.030	1.104	1.255	0.188	0.061
Serine	0.215	0.186	0.201	0.228	0.0320	0.065
Tyrosine	0.183	0.141	0.157	0.190	0.0256	< 0.05
$\sum$ indispensable	2.60	2.04	2.23	2.67	0.360	< 0.05
$\sum$ dispensable	2.45	1.97	2.11	2.49	0.362	< 0.05
$\sum$ total amino acids	5.05	4.01	4.34	5.16	0.718	< 0.05
Docitive control						

<sup>1</sup>Positive control.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup>Negative control containing 2.5g/kg available P. <sup>3</sup>Phytase activity (units/kg) in diet.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup>Least significant differences of means.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup>Results are statistically significant when P < 0.05, P values between 0.05 and 0.1 are described to show a tendency and P>0.10 = not significant (NS).

**Table 6.** Correlation matrix for the growth performance, dietary energy and amino acids response criteria of broiler chickens to dietary phytase supplementation

	Intake	Gain	FCE	AME	AME int	$HP_{\mathrm{f}}$	NE <sub>p</sub>	HP <sub>f</sub> :NE <sub>p</sub>	K <sub>rep</sub>	K <sub>ref</sub>	K <sub>re</sub>	DMD	Thr	Lys	AA dis	AA ind	AA tot
Intake	1.000							=== 1 :р									
Gain	0.928	1.000															
FCE	0.373	0.690	1.000														
<b>AME</b>	0.490	0.577	0.480	1.000													
AME int	0.989	0.938	0.418	0.613	1.000												
$\mathrm{HP}_{\mathrm{f}}$	-0.559	-0.525	-0.250	0.195	-0.475	1.000											
$NE_p$	0.824	0.854	0.546	0.510	0.833	-0.744	1.000										
HP <sub>f</sub> :NE	0.768	0.769	0.446	0.238	0.737	-0.905	0.956	1.000									
$K_{rep}$	0.452	0.665	0.792	0.214	0.445	-0.605	0.676	0.682	1.000								
$K_{ref}$	0.746	0.640	0.172	0.185	0.708	-0.858	0.879	0.933	0.376	1.000							
$K_{re}$	0.761	0.764	0.450	0.230	0.729	-0.910	0.954	0.998	0.692	0.929	1.000						
DMD	0.379	0.485	0.460	0.681	0.459	0.060	0.412	0.234	0.328	0.125	0.229	1.000					
Thr	0.611	0.615	0.341	0.824	0.685	0.114	0.484	0.261	0.231	0.211	0.260	0.578	1.000				
Lys	0.578	0.550	0.262	0.632	0.619	-0.076	0.508	0.355	0.233	0.337	0.361	0.463	0.873	1.000			
AA dis	0.522	0.590	0.440	0.790	0.603	0.119	0.457	0.251	0.296	0.154	0.241	0.602	0.790	0.628	1.000		
AA ind	0.582	0.626	0.428	0.781	0.651	-0.059	0.598	0.409	0.333	0.348	0.410	0.582	0.907	0.905	0.798	1.000	
AA tot	0.583	0.642	0.457	0.828	0.662	0.029	0.558	0.350	0.332	0.267	0.345	0.624	0.896	0.812	0.945	0.951	1.000

Key: Intake, Gain and FCE are feed intakes, weight gains and feed conversion efficiencies of birds fed the experimental diets. AME, AME int, HP<sub>f</sub>, NE<sub>p</sub>, K<sub>rep</sub>, K<sub>ref</sub>, K<sub>re</sub> and DMD are the determined dietary apparent metabolisable energy, apparent metabolisable energy intake, the heat production from kilogram dry matter feed intake, dietary net energy, the efficiency of dietary protein, fat and energy retentions, and dry matter digestibility coefficient. Thr, Lys, AAdis, AAind and AAtot are the determined total tract digestibility coefficients of dietary threonine, lysine, dispensable, indispensable and total amino acids.

Df = 15 Correlation coefficients greater than 0.482 and 0.606 are statistically significant at  $P \le 0.05$  and  $P \le 0.001$  respectively.