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Exigência e disponibilidade de ferro para frangos de corte

Porto Alegre (RS), Brasil
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Exigência e disponibilidade de ferro para frangos de corte

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“A maior recompensa para o trabalho não é o que se recebe por ele, mas o que alguém se torna através dele”.

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Exigência e disponibilidade ferro para frangos de corte¹

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RESUMO – Esta tese foi conduzida para avaliar exigência de Fe em frangos de corte suplementados com fitase, assim como avaliar o uso do calcário e fósforo bicálcico como fonte de ferro. Dois experimentos (Exp. 1 e 2) foram conduzidos utilizando um total de 1856 frangos de corte, machos Cobb 500. No Exp. 1, as aves foram distribuídas em um arranjo fatorial 2 x 5 (suplementação com fitase x 5 suplementações de Fe) em 80 gaiolas, sendo 8 repetições de 8 pintinhos cada. O experimento foi repetido uma vez. Os pintinhos foram alimentados com uma dieta deficiente em Fe sem fitase (Fe analisado = $31,30 \pm 3,79$ mg/kg) desde o alojamento até o sétimo dia e depois distribuídos aleatoriamente em gaiolas com tratamentos dietéticos correspondentes com ou sem fitase e aumentos graduais de Fe na ração. As rações foram formuladas com milho e farelo de soja, carbonato de cálcio de qualidade laboratorial e ácido fosfórico, sendo a maioria do Fe da dieta proveniente das fontes vegetais (a ração analisada tinha $53,3 \pm 1,41$ mg/kg de Fe). A fitase foi adicionada em excesso (4.452 ± 487 FTU/kg). Sulfato ferroso hepta-hidratado ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) foi suplementado para a obtenção dos níveis crescentes e o Fe analisado nas rações foi: $53,3 \pm 1,41$, $65,5 \pm 0,59$, $77,2 \pm 1,97$, $87,6 \pm 1,72$, $97,7 \pm 1,33$ mg/kg. No Exp. 2, com 8 dias de idade as aves foram distribuídas em 6 tratamentos em 72 gaiolas, sendo 12 repetições de 8 pintinhos cada no momento do alojamento. As rações foram formuladas com milho, farelo de soja, carbonato de cálcio de qualidade laboratorial e ácido fosfórico (contendo traços de Fe). Os tratamentos tinham aumentos de Fe proveniente de calcário calcítico e fosfato bicálcico (Fe analisado 7.218 e 4.783 mg/kg, respectivamente). O Fe analisado nas rações foi $57,6 \pm 2,1$, $92,0 \pm 2,3$, $124,1 \pm 2,7$, $159,3 \pm 3,1$, $187,2 \pm 3,2$, $223,7 \pm 3,6$ mg/kg, respectivamente). Não foram observadas interações entre a fitase e aumentos de Fe no Exp. 1. O desempenho produtivo dos frangos de corte não foi afetado em ambos os experimentos com os aumentos de Fe. As rações suplementadas com fitase resultaram em melhor desempenho, bem como maior energia digestível ileal e digestibilidade ileal de Fe ($P < 0,05$) no Exp. 1. No Exp. 2, o aumento do Fe na dieta a partir de calcário e fosfato bicálcico levou a uma redução linear ($P < 0,05$) na porcentagem de Fe digestível ileal. O aumento do Fe na dieta levou a aumentos lineares na retenção e excreção de Fe, no conteúdo de Fe no fígado no Exp. 1 e 2 ($P < 0,05$). No Exp. 1, respostas quadráticas ($P < 0,05$) foram observadas para hemoglobina aos 21 dias, ferritina sérica nos dias 14, 21 e 28, com respostas máximas de 83,3, 104,0, 91,9 e 88,3 mg/kg Fe, respectivamente. Resultados destes experimentos mostraram que a suplementação de fitase melhora a digestibilidade de Fe. O desempenho não foi afetado pelo aumento de Fe na dieta. Os parâmetros sanguíneos são afetados pelo aumento de Fe retido. A taxa de retenção de Fe do calcário e do fosfato bicálcico é baixa, em torno de 1,90%. Frangos alimentados com rações a base de milho e farelo de soja não necessitam de suplementação de Fe em pré-misturas.

Palavras-chave: Frango de corte, ferro, fitase, digestibilidade, desempenho.

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Iron requirement and availability for broiler chicken²

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ABSTRACT - This thesis was conducted to evaluate the Fe requirement in broiler chickens supplemented with phytase, as well as to assess the use of limestone and dicalcium phosphate as a source of Fe. Two experiments (Exp. 1 and 2) were conducted using a total of 1856 broiler chickens, Cobb 500 males. In Exp. 1, birds were distributed in a 2 x 5 factorial arrangement (phytase supplementation x 5 Fe supplements) in 80 cages, with 8 replicates of 8 chicks each. The experiment was replicated once. Chicks were fed an iron-deficient diet without phytase (analyzed Fe = 31.30 ± 3.79 mg/kg) from housing until the seventh day and then randomly distributed into cages with corresponding dietary treatments with or without phytase and gradual increases of Fe in the feed. Feeds were formulated with corn and soybean meal, laboratory-grade calcium carbonate, and phosphoric acid, with the majority of Fe in the diet originating from plant sources (analyzed diet had 53.3 ± 1.41 mg/kg Fe). Phytase was added in excess ($4,452 \pm 487$ FYT/kg). Fe supplementation was from ferrous sulfate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) and analyzed Fe in supplemented diets was: 53.3 ± 1.41 , 65.5 ± 0.59 , 77.2 ± 1.97 , 87.6 ± 1.72 , 97.7 ± 1.33 mg/kg. In Exp. 2, birds were distributed into 6 treatments in 72 cages, with 12 replicates of 8 chicks each at the time of housing. Feeds were formulated with corn, soybean meal, laboratory-grade calcium carbonate, and phosphoric acid (containing traces of iron). At 8 days, birds were allocated to dietary treatments. Treatments had increases in Fe from commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate (analyzed iron 7,218 and 4,783 mg/kg, respectively) progressively replacing calcium carbonate and phosphoric acid (analyzed Fe in diets was 57.6 ± 2.1 , 92.0 ± 2.3 , 124.1 ± 2.7 , 159.3 ± 3.1 , 187.2 ± 3.2 , 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg, respectively). No interactions were observed between phytase and Fe increments in Exp. 1. Live performance of broiler chickens was not affected in both experiments with increases in Fe. Feeds supplemented with phytase showed better live performance, as well as higher ileal digestible energy and digestibility Fe ($P < 0.05$) in Exp. 1. In Exp. 2, increasing Fe in the diet from limestone and dicalcium phosphate led to a linear reduction in the percentage of ileal digestible Fe. Increasing Fe in the diet resulted in linear increases ($P < 0.05$) in Fe retention and excretion, Fe content in the liver in Exp. 1 and 2 ($P < 0.05$). In Exp. 1, quadratic responses ($P < 0.05$) were observed for hemoglobin at 21 days, serum ferritin on days 14, 21, and 28, with maximum responses of 83.3, 104.0, 91.9, and 88.3 mg/kg Fe, respectively. Results from these experiments showed that phytase supplementation improves Fe digestibility. Live performance is not affected by increased Fe in the diet. However, blood parameters are affected by increased retained Fe. The retention rate of Fe from limestone and dicalcium phosphate is low, around 1.90%. Broilers fed corn and soybean meal-based diets do not require Fe supplemental in premixes.

Key words: broiler chickens, iron, phytase, digestibility, performance.

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RELAÇÃO DE ABREVIATURAS

ATP	Adenosina trifosfato
BWG	Body weight gain
Ca	Cálcio
DcytB	Redutase citocromo b duodenal
DNA	Ácido desoxirribonucleico
DMT	Transportadora de metal divalente
Fe	Ferro
Fe ³⁺	Íon férrico
Fe ²⁺	Íon ferroso
FeSO ₄ 7H ₂ O	Sulfato ferroso heptahidratado
FCR	Feed conversion ratio
FI	Feed intake
GLM	General lineal model
HCP	Proteína carreadora de heme
NADH	Dinucleotídeo de adenine nicotinamida
O ₂	Oxigênio
P	Fósforo

CAPÍTULO I

INTRODUÇÃO

Os minerais são nutrientes importantes para o crescimento e desenvolvimento dos organismos vivos, uma que vez que estão envolvidos em inúmeros processos bioquímicos no corpo (WEYH et al., 2022). O ferro (Fe) é um micromineral essencial envolvido em vários processos metabólicos, sendo o transporte de oxigênio, transporte de elétrons, síntese e reparação do DNA os mais relevantes (THEIL & GOSS, 2009; CARTER, et al., 2022). Esse micromineral é suplementado em rações de frangos de corte com a finalidade de prevenir deficiências que podem interferir no crescimento, assim como também levar a um quadro de anemia (WORWOOD, 1990; MANOR et al., 2017).

O Fe é um dos minerais mais abundantes no mundo (NRC, 1994). É encontrado nos ingredientes das rações nas formas heme e não-heme, sendo a heme exclusiva dos ingredientes de origem animal e não-heme encontrada nos vegetais, porém pode estar complexado com o fitato o que impede o aproveitamento pelo trato gastrointestinal (ALLEN & PEERSON, 2009; AKTER et al., 2015). Outras formas de Fe não-heme estão na forma salina em premixes, assim como em calcários e fosfatos suplementados nas rações, os quais nesses últimos acredita-se contenham Fe férrico (Fe^{3+}) e, portanto, de uma disponibilidade potencialmente menor para aves quando comparado ao Fe heme e Fe ferroso (Fe^{2+}) (HUNT, 2003; PARK et al., 2004; SUN et al., 2022).

As formas moleculares de como o Fe se apresenta nos ingredientes utilizados em rações de aves, possuem diferentes mecanismos de absorção. A absorção e o transporte do Fe dietético através da mucosa intestinal, dependem do status de Fe no organismo e ocorrem tanto a partir de formas heme quanto a não-heme, chamadas inorgânicas. O Fe heme tem uma via de absorção intestinal preferencial, associada a proteína transportadora de heme 1 (HCP1), presente no enterócito (TAKO & GLAHN, 2011; CONRAD & UMBREIT, 2002). Por outro lado, o Fe inorgânico, nas formas Fe^{3+} e Fe^{2+} , possuem mecanismos diferentes de absorção. Entretanto, a entrada de Fe para o interior do enterócito ocorre apenas via Fe^{2+} , sendo mediado pelo transportador de metal divalente 1 (DMT1) (OKAZAKI et al., 2012). Todavia, pode ocorrer uma redução de Fe^{3+} para Fe^{2+} mediada pela redutase citocromo b duodenal (DcytB) presente na borda em escova dos enterócitos duodenais, a partir disso permitindo a absorção de Fe^{2+} (CONRAD et al., 2000).

As recomendações comuns para a suplementação de Fe em rações para frangos de corte podem ser encontradas nos manuais de manejo das linhagens, sendo altamente variáveis o que se denota poucos estudos na área. Por exemplo, as recomendações do NRC (1994); Rostagno et al. (2017), Cobb (2018) e Aviagen (2022) são 80, 52,8, 40 e 20 mg/kg Fe, respectivamente.

Milho, farelo de soja, calcário e fosfatos são comumente utilizados nas rações para as aves, sendo assim, as rações acabam tendo a presença de diferentes formas de Fe se avaliarmos apenas esses ingredientes. A presente tese foi conduzida para avaliar as exigências de Fe de frangos de corte, os efeitos da suplementação de fitase sobre a aproveitamento de ferro e energia, assim como a disponibilidade do Fe presente no calcário e fosfato em dietas a base de milho e farelo de soja a partir de respostas oriundas do desempenho vivo das aves, parâmetros sanguíneos e digestibilidade.

REVISÃO BIBLIOGRÁFICA

Funções do Ferro

O Fe é um micromineral que está presente em muitas enzimas responsáveis pelo transporte de elétrons, como por exemplo, as citocromos. Esse micromineral está associado as enzimas oxidases e oxigenases, em processos que envolvem a ativação do oxigênio (O_2), como também diretamente associado ao transporte de oxigênio através da hemoglobina e mioglobina, sendo o Fe heme presente nessas proteínas (ABBASPOUR et al., 2014; DUTT et al., 2022).

O sistema citocromo consiste em uma série de reações nas quais oxidações ocorrem com a produção de adenosina trifosfato (ATP) e formação de água. O Fe participa de atividades como oxidação, redução e transporte de elétrons, ativando sítios de enzimas óxido redutoras e proteínas ligadas ao oxigênio (WILLIAMS et al., 1976).

Hemoglobina e mioglobina, possuem similaridade em suas estruturas, ambas possuem ferro heme complexado a porfirina, um componente essencial do grupamento heme carreador de oxigênio. Todavia, enquanto a primeira contém quatro grupamentos heme a outra contém apenas um ligado ao O_2 (LEESON & SUMMERS, 2001; MARENGO-ROWE, 2006). Em torno de 70% do total de Fe corpóreo é encontrado nessas proteínas, sendo o restante presente na ferritina, como forma de estoque corporal (HAMBIDGE et al., 1986; OBERLEAS et al., 1999).

As porfirinas também são encontradas em hemoproteínas como citocromos, catalases, peroxidases, os quais cumprem funções na formação de ligações moleculares entre o O_2 e o grupamento heme, assim como na transferência de elétrons nos citocromos e na clivagem de peróxidos estruturais das reações de catalases e peroxidases (FINZEL et al., 1984; VIDOSSICH et al., 2012).

Os citocromos, de forma geral, são proteínas que mediam as cadeias transportadoras de elétrons das cristas das mitocôndrias em todas as células aeróbicas, são cruciais na fosforilação oxidativa para a produção de ATP (GROTTO, 2008). O citocromo c é uma proteína abundante no músculo cardíaco, ligado à cadeia de globulina, isolada com um grupo heme e um átomo de Fe (YU et al., 1972). O citocromo P-450 é encontrado dentro das membranas dos microsossomos nas células hepáticas e da mucosa intestinal, atua na degradação oxidativa (GUENGERICH, 2018). Já as catalases atuam na quebra do peróxido de hidrogênio em água e oxigênio

molecular (HECH et al., 2010).

Existem outras atividades biológicas desempenhadas pelo Fe, como por exemplo, na síntese e reparação do DNA, produção de energia e imunidade. Nas funções fundamentais do metabolismo do DNA, o Fe é essencial em múltiplas enzimas das quais participam da integridade e do transporte de carga do DNA (PUIG et al., 2017). As enzimas necessárias para a síntese e reparo de DNA que abrigam ferro funcionalmente relevante incluem a DNA polimerases, DNA helicases, nucleases, glicosilases e desmetilases, bem como como ribonucleotídeo redutases (ZHANG, 2014).

No metabolismo energético, a aconitase, uma metalproteína que possui Fe em sua estrutura, cumpre função espacial apropriada entre os grupos hidroxilas e carbono, converte citrato em isocitrato no ciclo de Krebs (LUSHCHAK et al., 2014). No mesmo caminho, a desidrogenase succínica que contém Fe heme converte o succinato em fumarato (KIM & WINGE, 2013). Certas enzimas que possuem Fe em suas estruturas como as gliceraldeído-3-fosfato desidrogenases, são enzimas encontradas no citoplasma e na mitocôndria e usam NADH (dinucleotídeo de adenina nicotinamida) como co-enzima e reduz dihidróxiacetona fosfato em L- α -glicerolfosfato, composto necessário para a biossíntese dos triglicerídeos (LAZAREV et al., 2020). As flavoproteínas são enzimas transportadoras de íons, na mitocôndria auxiliam na transdução de energia (HENRIQUES et al., 2021).

Absorção e metabolismo do ferro

A absorção do Fe depende, inicialmente, do status de Fe no organismo, de suas formas heme e não-heme, do seu estado oxidativo, podendo ser Fe^{2+} ou Fe^{3+} . Três estágios são reconhecidos no mecanismo de absorção de Fe no duodeno e jejuno: passagem pela borda em escova, trânsito ou armazenamento nos enterócitos e liberação no sangue (MACKENZIE & GARRICK, 2005)

Na mucosa o Fe heme e não heme são processados e regulados diferentemente. A absorção do Fe heme é mediada pela HCP1, posicionada na membrana apical das células duodenais, por sua vez, o heme liga-se à membrana da borda em escova dos enterócitos e a HCP1 atravessa intacta a membrana plasmática, importando o heme extracelular (CONRAD & UMBREIT, 2002). No interior da célula, o Fe é liberado da porfirina pela heme oxigenase passando a fazer parte do mesmo pool de Fe não heme, podendo fazer parte da ferritina ou seguir para corrente

sanguínea (SHAYEGHI et al., 2005). A HCP1 também é expressa em outros locais, como o fígado e baço. A regulação é feita de acordo com o nível de Fe intracelular, em caso de deficiência, a HCP1 posiciona-se do citoplasma para a membrana plasmática das células duodenais, em caso de excesso de Fe, o posicionamento ocorre a partir da borda em escova da célula para o seu citoplasma. Por outro lado, a síntese de HCP1 é facilitada na hipóxia (LATUNDE-DADA, 2006). Esse mecanismo regulado permite que o Fe heme da dieta possa ser aproveitado sem ser eliminado pelo peristaltismo intestinal, assim como evita a captação desnecessária de Fe e o seu provável acúmulo.

A absorção da forma não-heme é regulada, em parte, pelas concentrações intracelulares de Fe nos enterócitos. Íons de Fe^{3+} podem ser reduzidos pela DcytB para Fe^{2+} na borda em escova da membrana duodenal, uma vez convertido em Fe^{2+} pode ser internalizado no enterócito pela DMT1 (LATUNDE-DADA et al., 2008). Uma vez no meio intracelular do enterócito, o Fe pode ser armazenado como ferritina ou transportado para a membrana basolateral por ação da ferroportina. Conrad et al. (2000) em um ensaio in vitro demonstrou que o Fe^{3+} pode ser internalizado na célula via $\beta 3$ -integrina e mobilferrina, porém não esclareceu detalhes sobre a importância desse processo.

Na corrente sanguínea o Fe é conduzido até os tecidos pela transferrina e para isso o mesmo precisa ser oxidado, uma vez que a transferrina tem afinidade pela forma Fe^{3+} , por sua vez, essa oxidação é mediada pela hefaestina (SHARP & SRAI, 2007). A transferrina se liga a 2 átomos de Fe^{3+} , e é então catalisada por uma ferroxidase que, no sangue, existe sob a forma de uma ou mais proteínas como a ceruloplasmina, ferroxidase I e ferroxidase II. A transferrina libera para o metabolismo, somente um dos dois átomos de Fe^{3+} que, então, se reduz a Fe^{2+} para as reações de formação de mioglobina, hemoglobina, enzimas de heme e para excreção na bile (PONKA et al., 1998).

O Fe é absorvido de acordo com as demandas fisiológicas, sendo afetadas pela idade, pelas reservas corpóreas, suplementação de ácido ascórbico, fontes de Fe (FEATHEESTON et al., 1968; MISKI & KRATZER, 1976; TAKO et al., 2010). A comunicação sistêmica entre as reservas, demandas, locais de absorção e utilização é feita pela hepcidina, hormônio peptídeo circulante (Figura 1) (LUDWICZEK et al., 2004; GALY et al., 2013).

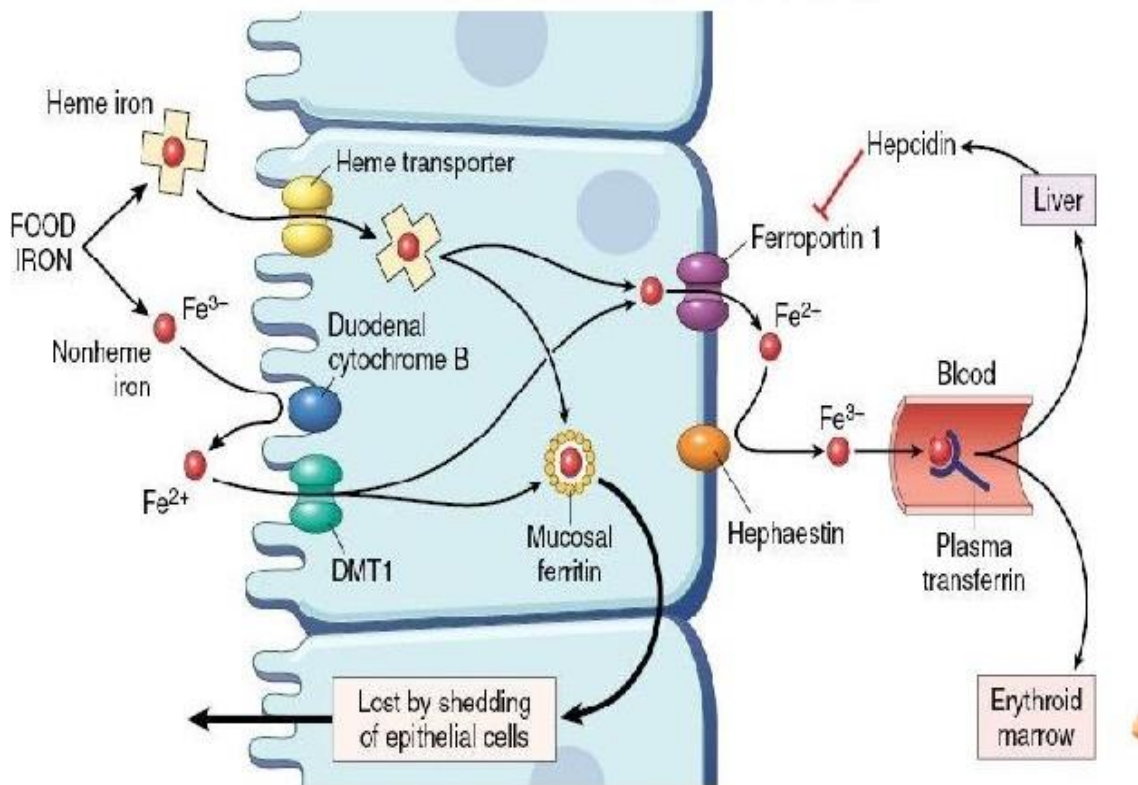


Figura 1. O enterócito, proteínas e sistemas envolvidas na absorção do Fe. Dcytb: Duodenal Cytochrome B/ferroredutase; DMT1: transportador de metal divalente; proteína transportadora de heme; ferroportina; hefaestina; hepcidina; transferrina.

Distribuição do ferro no organismo

O Fe fica estocado nas células reticuloendoteliais do fígado, baço e medula óssea na forma de ferritina e hemossiderina. A ferritina é uma apoferritina contendo um núcleo férrico, sendo esta a forma solúvel de armazenamento. Deste modo, a ferritina contém e mantém os átomos de ferro que poderiam formar agregados de precipitados tóxicos, sendo principal estrutura responsável pelo armazenamento de Fe no organismo e possui a capacidade de mobilizar rapidamente grandes quantidades do metal quando necessário (WALTERS et al., 1973; THEIL, 2004). A hemossiderina corresponde à forma degradada da ferritina, sendo esta a forma insolúvel de armazenamento. Isto ocorre, quando a quantidade total de ferro no organismo é superior a que pode ser acomodada no reservatório de depósito de ferritina (BONKOVSKY, 1991).

Dois terços do ferro total do corpo estão na forma de hemoglobina. Por este motivo a fagocitose e degradação de hemácias senescentes representam uma fonte importante de ferro (LUTZ & BOGDANOVA, 2013). A quantidade de Fe reciclada é o suficiente para manter a eritropoiese. As hemácias circulam pelo sistema circulatório

por 120 dias, em média, antes de serem destruídas. Embora estas células sejam privadas de núcleos, com exceção das hemácias das aves, possuem uma variedade de enzimas no interior do citoplasma.

O Fe livre é encontrado ainda nas mitocôndrias, com isso esta organela tem papel crucial para o metabolismo do Fe, uma vez que é o único local onde ocorre a síntese do heme e do cluster Fe-S, sendo este último envolvido em processos de transferência de elétrons no processo de respiração celular (WARD & CLOONAN, 2019). O mecanismo da entrada do Fe na mitocôndria ainda não se encontra bem esclarecido, todavia, se sabe que ao ser transportado para o meio intramitocondrial, uma proteína denominada frataxina, regula a utilização do ferro mitocondrial, destinando este à síntese do heme ou a gênese dos clusters Fe-S. A frataxina tem como principal função formar um complexo com o Fe prevenindo a formação de radicais livres na mitocôndria (BENCZE et al., 2006).

A cadeia respiratória mitocondrial, além de estar envolvida no transporte de elétrons, tem como papel fundamental a conversão do ferro férrico em ferroso, única forma química aceita pela ferroquelatase para então catalisar a etapa terminal da biossíntese do heme, a inserção de ferro ferroso na protoporfirina IX para produzir heme (OBI et al., 2022). Após essa etapa, inicia-se o transporte de heme para o citosol, em seguida é incorporado nas proteínas que contém heme (YEN & PERFETTO, 2022). Os clusters Fe-S podem ser transportados para o citosol da célula mediado pelo transportador ABCB7 (PEARSON & COWAN, 2021).

Fontes de ferro

A ingestão do Fe se dá pela dieta. As principais fontes de ferro são as proteínas de origem animal, esse micromineral está presente na hemoglobina e mioglobina, as quais possuem o ferro heme. O Fe não-heme é encontrado em vegetais, assim como presentes em óxidos de ferro, sulfatos de ferro, que estão presentes em premixes das rações e em matérias oriundos de rochas, como por exemplo o calcário e fosfatos. Todavia, o Fe na forma não heme tem uma biodisponibilidade menor que o Fe heme e, por isso, é menos absorvido pelo intestino.

Milho e farelo de soja são os principais ingredientes para fabricação de rações, por sua vez, apresentam quantidade variadas de Fe. Milho contém aproximadamente 23,5 a 45 mg/kg de Fe, enquanto que o farelo de soja de 150 a 170 mg/kg de Fe (NRC, 1994; ROSTAGNO et al., 2017). Calcário e fosfato bicálcico, são

usualmente utilizados em rações como fontes de cálcio (Ca) e fósforo (P), todavia ambos possuem altas quantidade de Fe. Calcário possui em torno de 2000 mg/kg de Fe, enquanto que o fosfato bicálcico pode ter uma variação de 20 a 11000 mg/kg (NRC, 1994, LIMA et al., 1995, ROSTAGNO et al., 2017). Outros ingredientes tais como sorgo, quirera de arroz, farelo de arroz e trigo, são boas fontes desse micromineral, contendo cerca de 45 a 59,7, 10 a 15,6, 115.4 a 190, 170 a 205,3 mg/kg de Fe, respectivamente (NRC, 1994; ROSTAGNO et al., 2017). Para os produtos de origem animal, o conteúdo de Fe nas farinhas de carne de ossos varia de 248 a 816 mg/kg, na farinha de sangue varia de 1664 a 2080 mg/kg e na farinha de pena varia de 76 a 568 mg/kg (NRC, 1994; ROSTAGNO et al., 2017).

Outras fonte de Fe a serem utilizados como suplementos em rações avícolas são o Óxido ferroso (FeO), carbonato de ferro (FeCO₃), sulfato ferroso monohidratado (FeSO₄H₂O), sulfato ferroso heptahidratado (FeSO₄7H₂O), Óxido ferroso (FeO) que contem em torno de 77.8%, 43%, 30% e 20% de Fe, respectivamente (ROSTAGNO et al., 2017). Existem também as fontes comerciais de Fe, chamadas “orgânicas”, como por exemplo, proteinato de ferro, complexo ferro aminoácido, complexo ferro metionina, complexo ferro lisina, gluconatos de ferro, dentre outras fontes com altas biodisponibilidades, uma vez que o Fe está quelatado com uma substância que possui carbono, oxigênio e hidrogênio em sua estrutura (Rostagno et al., 1994; FEDNA, 2018, EBBING et al., 2019).

Exigência de ferro para frangos de corte

Os estudos conduzidos para estimar as exigências de Fe para frangos de corte envolveram uma série de avaliações que foram mensurados a partir de parâmetros de desempenho vivo, parâmetros sanguíneos, conteúdo de Fe nos órgãos, rendimentos de carcaça e cortes, assim como coloração da carne, ou seja, as pesquisas levaram em conta o papel do Fe nas funções fisiológicas, seja manutenção ou construção de tecidos. Por sua vez, as investigações conduzidas até hoje deram suporte para elaboração de manuais e tabelas de exigências nutricionais de Fe em frangos de corte.

As exigências são identificadas principalmente por curvas de dose-resposta. Entretanto, devido aos inúmeros fatores que impactam no resultado de experimentos, como por exemplo, critérios utilizados para avaliar os resultados, a composição da dieta e das linhagens utilizadas, pode-se encontrar alguns resultados

de exigência variáveis, mesmo para uma dada espécie e linhagem (SAKOMURA & ROSTAGNO, 2007).

As recomendações de suplementação de Fe para frangos de corte são encontradas nos manuais das linhagens Cobb 500 (Cobb, 2018) e Ross (Aviagen, 2022), essas possuem sugestões de suplementação de 40 e 20 mg/kg de Fe para frangos de corte para todas fases de criação, respectivamente. As tabelas brasileiras para aves e suínos recomendam uma suplementação de Fe inorgânico de 52.8 mg/kg de Fe para frangos de corte de 8 a 21 dias. Por outro lado, o NRC (1994) fornece uma recomendação de 80 mg/kg de Fe a ser suplementado. Ressaltando que os valores de recomendação de suplementação e valores de exigência são diferentes, visto que a suplementação não considera os níveis já presentes nos ingredientes da dieta.

Fitase

As fitases (mio-inositol hexafosfato fosfohidrolase) são hidrolases capazes de catalisar a hidrólise gradual de mio-inositol hexafosfato (ácido fítico; IP6). As fitases relevantes para a alimentação animal podem ser divididas em 2 subclasses, 3-fitases ou 6-fitases, dependentes de qual fosfato inicia a catálise no núcleo mio-inositol (ADEOLA & COWIESON, 2011).

A fitase é comumente adicionada às dietas de aves para reduzir os efeitos antinutricionais do fitato, liberando quantidades significativas de P do ácido fítico, assim como a liberação de outros minerais e demais nutrientes, conseqüentemente, melhorando o desempenho dos frangos de corte, contribuindo para menor excreção de P no ambiente (COWIESON et al., 2013; NAVES et al., 2016).

O fitato está presente nos alimentos de origem vegetal, como por exemplo, milho e farelo soja contém 0,19% e 0,34%, respectivamente (ROSTAGNO et al., 2017). Esta molécula não pode ser eficientemente hidrolisada por enzimas endógenas em aves e aproximadamente dois terços do P acabam ficando indisponíveis para a absorção animal, podendo dessa forma alterar o *turnover* das células intestinais e pode causar irritação da mucosa, aumentando a produção de mucinas e, conseqüentemente, a perda de nitrogênio endógeno (COWIESON et al., 2009).

Existe uma variação no que rege a liberação de P ligado ao fitato em rações a base de milho e farelo de soja, podendo variar de 50 a 100%, isso depende principalmente da dose suplementada (SIMONS et al., 1990; Waldroup et al., 2000;

SOMMERFELD et al., 2019). O uso de fitase tem demonstrado efeito positivo na deposição de Ca e P na tíbia de frangos de corte, principalmente quando se tem redução nos níveis de fósforo disponível (VIEIRA et al., 2015; BROCH et al., 2020).

Recentes investigações demonstraram que a fitase pode melhorar a digestibilidade de microminerais como zinco e cobre, uma vez que esses e outros microminerais podem estar complexados com o fitato (MOSS et al., 2018; SOSTER et al., 2023). A digestibilidade de aminoácidos e energia podem ser melhorados com o uso de fitase em função da liberação das moléculas ligadas ao inositol hexafosfato, assim como também pela redução das perdas endógenas (COWIESON et al., 2006; BASSI et al., 2021).

HIPÓTESES E OBJETIVOS

Hipóteses

Níveis crescente de Fe em rações a base de milho e soja para frangos de corte afetam o desempenho, parâmetros sanguíneos, conteúdo de Fe no fígado em frangos de corte.

A suplementação de fitase pode melhorar a digestibilidade e retenção de energia e Fe em frangos de corte.

O Fe oriundo do calcário e fosfato bicálcico está em uma forma de baixa digestibilidade.

Objetivos

Determinar a exigência de ferro para frangos de corte.

Avaliar os efeitos de níveis de crescentes de Fe em dietas para frangos de corte de 8 a 28 d sobre o desempenho, parâmetros sanguíneos e conteúdo de Fe no fígado.

Avaliar os efeitos da suplementação de fitase sobre a digestibilidade e retenção de energia e Fe em frangos de corte.

Avaliar a interação da suplementação de fitase e Fe em dietas para frangos de corte.

Avaliar a digestibilidade e retenção de Fe oriundo do calcário e fosfato bicálcico em frangos de corte.

CAPÍTULO II¹

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1 Iron requirements of broiler chickens as affected by supplemental phytase

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19 Lay summary

20 Iron is routinely supplemented in broiler feeds to prevent dietary deficiencies. We carried out
21 an experiment with the objective of evaluating the Fe requirements of broilers fed with the
22 exogenous enzyme phytase. From the eighth day, a total of 1,280 male broilers were distributed
23 in a combination of feeds supplemented with phytase or not and 5 graded increases in dietary
24 Fe. Diets were formulated with corn and soybean meal, laboratory grade calcium carbonate
25 and phosphoric acid. Phytase was added in excess ($4,452 \pm 487$ FYT/kg analyzed) to facilitate
26 complete degradation of dietary phytate. Laboratory-grade ferrous sulfate heptahydrate was
27 increasingly added to feeds to provide Fe. Iron in the experimental diets was present at $53.3 \pm$
28 1.41 , 65.5 ± 0.59 , 77.2 ± 1.97 , 87.6 ± 1.72 , 97.7 ± 1.33 mg/kg). Supplementing diets with
29 phytase resulted in enhanced live performance, along with increased digestibility of ileal
30 energy and Fe. Linear increases in Fe retention and excretion, hepatic Fe contents, and were
31 observed with the progressive increase in dietary Fe. The supplementation of a total of 97.7
32 mg/kg of Fe in diets was found to have no significant impact on live performance traits.
33 However, the Fe-related blood parameters reached their maximum levels at a dietary Fe level
34 of 91.9 mg/kg. Phytase supplementation provided a significant increase in the digestibility of
35 Fe and other nutrients evaluated.

36

37 Teaser Text

38 Nutritionally balanced feeds are those providing adequate amounts of nutrients that
39 simultaneously meet maintenance and production needs. In the context that broiler
40 performance is consistently improved over time, feeding programs and diet formulations are
41 continuously changing. The study clarified Fe requirements of broiler chickens, as well as the
42 improvement of Fe digestibility with the use of phytase.

43 Abstract

44 Iron is routinely supplemented in broiler feeds intending to prevent dietary deficiencies. The
45 present research was conducted with the objective of assessing Fe requirements of broilers
46 when fed supplemental phytase. A total of 1,280 1-d-old male Cobb x Cobb 500 were
47 distributed in a 2 X 5 factorial arrangement (phytase-supplemented feeds x 5 graded increases
48 of supplemental Fe) in 80 battery cages, eight replications of eight chicks each. The trial was
49 replicated once. Chicks were fed a Fe-deficient diet without phytase (Fe analyzed at $31.30 \pm$
50 3.79 mg/kg) from placement to 7 d and then randomly distributed into battery cages with
51 corresponding feeding treatments with or without phytase and graded increases of
52 supplemental Fe. Feeds were formulated with corn and soybean meal (SBM), laboratory grade
53 calcium carbonate and phosphoric acid; therefore, the vast majority of dietary Fe originated
54 from corn and SBM (analyzed feed had 53.3 ± 1.41 mg/kg Fe). Phytase was added in excess
55 to the producer recommendation of 1,000 FYT ($4,452 \pm 487$ FYT/kg analyzed) such that
56 phytate degradation was expected to be maximized. Supplemental Fe was from laboratory
57 grade ferrous sulfate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) which was increasingly added to the feeds
58 (analyzed Fe in the supplemented feeds were: 53.3 ± 1.41 , 65.5 ± 0.59 , 77.2 ± 1.97 , $87.6 \pm$
59 1.72 , 97.7 ± 1.33 mg/kg). There were no interactions between phytase and dietary Fe for any
60 response throughout the study ($P > 0.05$). Supplementing phytase had no effects on Fe intake
61 or Fe excretion, as well as on hematocrit (Ht), hemoglobin (Hb), ferritin, Fe contents in the
62 liver or thigh muscle color ($P > 0.05$). However, phytase supplemented feeds produced better
63 live performance as well as higher ileal energy and Fe digestibility ($P < 0.05$). No effects were
64 found for dietary Fe in live performance at d 28 ($P > 0.05$). On the other hand, increasing
65 dietary Fe led to linear increases in Fe retention and excretion, Fe contents in livers, as well as
66 Ht and Hb at 14 d ($P < 0.05$). Quadratic responses ($P < 0.05$) were observed for Hb at 21d,
67 serum ferritin on d 14, 21 and 28 (maximum responses were 83.3, 104.0, 91.9 and 88.3 mg/kg

68 Fe, respectively). In conclusion, supplementing Fe adding to a total of 97.7 mg/kg dietary Fe
69 did not affect live performance traits. However, the average of Fe related blood parameters was
70 maximized at 91.9 mg/kg dietary Fe. Supplementing phytase provided a significant increase in
71 Fe digestibility.

72

73 **Key words:** broilers, iron, phytase.

74 **Abbreviations:** AME, apparent metabolizable energy; BWG, body weight gain; CP, crude
75 protein; DM, dry matter; FCR, feed conversion ratio; Fe, iron; FI, feed intake, GE, gross
76 energy; Ht, hematocrit; Hb, hemoglobin; IDCE, ileal digestible energy coefficient IDE, ileal
77 digestible energy; SMB, soybean meal.

78

79 **Introduction**

80 Iron (Fe) is an essential mineral routinely supplemented in broiler feeds intending to prevent
81 deficiencies that can impair growth and other metabolic processes such as oxygen transport,
82 deoxyribonucleic acid synthesis, and electron transport (Cook et al., 1992; Lieu et al., 2001;
83 Wijayanti et al., 2004; Shinde et al., 2011; Zoroddu et al., 2019). Anemia is the most common
84 outcome of the dietary deficiency of Fe, which can be diagnosed through the assessment of
85 hematocrit, hemoglobin, and ferritin in the blood (Worwood, 1990; Miller, 2013).

86 Iron is widely present in nature, including ingredients used in animal feeding (NRC,
87 1994). Animal by-products have Fe mostly bound into hemoglobin, myoglobin, ferritin,
88 cytochromes, as well as in lower proportions of Fe-containing enzymes (Dale et al., 2002;
89 Theil, 2004; Lozoff et al., 2006, Allen and Peerson, 2009). On the other hand, plant feedstuffs
90 are expected to have Fe widely found in phytate complexes (Maenz, 1999; Hurrell et al., 2003;
91 Cowieson et al., 2006); this varies with the composition of soil, climate, and crop systems
92 originating the plants (Yu et al., 2000; Gupta et al., 2008). Mineral compounds added to broiler
93 feeds, such as limestone and phosphates, have high contents of Fe when compared to all other
94 routinely used major feed ingredients (Park et al., 2004, Ma et al., 2016, Lu et al., 2022).

95 When it comes to its overall availability for poultry, Fe is impacted by its molecular
96 presentation in feed ingredients. For instance, Fe is highly available from animal by-products
97 since heme Fe has a preferential intestinal absorption pathway (Tako and Glahn, 2011). On the
98 other hand, Fe in limestone and phosphates are expected to be of low availability because it is
99 prevalently present in the form of low solubility oxides (Abbaspour et al., 2014; Sun et al.,
100 2022). Availability of Fe from plant feedstuffs is expected to be low because of its
101 complexation in phytates (Lopez et al., 2002; Hunt, 2003; Akter et al., 2017).

102 Absorption and transport of dietary Fe across the intestinal mucosa occurs from both
103 heme as well as inorganic forms (Conrad et al., 2000). However, associated receptors at the

104 enterocyte surface differ with heme transporter protein 1 (HCP1) being responsible for heme
105 Fe absorption (Conrad and Umbreit, 2002; Shayeghi et al., 2005) whereas the divalent metal
106 carrier 1 (DMT1) for inorganic Fe (Mackenzie and Garrick, 2005; Mckie, 2008).

107 Corn and SBM are the main feedstuffs utilized in poultry feeds, which have 0.19% and
108 0.34% estimated contents of phytic acid in corn and SBM, respectively (Rostagno et al., 2017).
109 The addition of supplemental phytase in broiler feeds is now economically mandatory because
110 it releases P from phytate at comparative lower costs when compared to other P sources
111 (Ravindran et al., 2000; Rutherford et al., 2012; Cowieson et al., 2013; Naves et al., 2016, Walk
112 and Rama Rao, 2020). Phytases are also expected to increase the availability of Fe, however,
113 the literature in this matter is limited (Akter et al., 2015).

114 Common recommendations for Fe supplementation in broiler feeds are highly variable,
115 denoting a lack of supporting research. For instance, recommendations from the NRC (1994),
116 Rostagno et al. (2017), Cobb (2018) and Aviagen (2022) are 80, 52.8, 40, and 20 mg/kg Fe,
117 respectively. Poultry excreta in general have high contents of Fe, which increases as diets with
118 excessive levels of Fe are consumed (Bao et al., 2007; Nollet et al., 2007; Nollet et al., 2008).
119 Contaminating impacts of excessive contents of trace minerals in animal feeds has led to the
120 establishment of upper limits for total Fe in feeds of 450 ppm in the European Union (EFSA,
121 2016).

122 The objective of the present study was to evaluate Fe requirements of broiler chickens
123 using Fe sulfate, a traditional source. Phytase was added in excess in the feeds, such that the
124 assessment of Fe released from phytate could be detected under its extensive degradation.
125 Evaluations were conducted in live performance as well as expanded to other metabolic
126 responses sensitive to dietary Fe.

127

128 **Material and Methods**

129 All procedures used in the present study were approved by the Ethics and Research
130 Committee of the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre.

131

132 **Bird Husbandry and Dietary Treatments**

133 A total of 1,280 one-day-old male Cobb x Cobb 500 chicks were randomly placed into
134 80 wire cages ($0.9 \times 0.4 \text{ m}^2$). Each cage was equipped with one trough feeder and one drinker,
135 which allowed *ad libitum* access to water and mash feeds. Temperature at placement was 32°C ,
136 which was adjusted weekly to maintain bird comfort throughout the study. Lighting was
137 provided 24 h continuously throughout the first week and then run in a 16 light and 8 dark
138 schedule. All cages were daily checked for sick and dead birds with dead bird body weight
139 being registered as observed.

140 Birds were given a common Fe-deficient diet (analyzed total $31.3 \pm 3.79 \text{ mg/kg Fe}$)
141 produced with corn, polished white rice and isolated soy protein from 1 to 7 d. Starting at 8 d,
142 birds were fed a corn-SBM diet not supplemented with Fe ($53.3 \pm 1.41 \text{ mg/kg analyzed}$) to 28
143 d (Table 1). Birds were randomly allocated into treatments using a 2 X 5 factorial arrangement
144 of feeds with or without phytase or having 5 graded increases of supplemental Fe. The trial
145 was replicated once, with 8 replicates per treatment each time; therefore, there were a total 10
146 treatments with 16 replications of 8 birds.

147 Dietary treatments were formulated with energy and nutrients to optimize live
148 performance as usual in commercial integrations. Each feeding treatment was manufactured
149 once, mixed in batches of 400 kg, stored at -20°C and provided as mash in both study
150 replications. The phytase utilized in the present study was a commercially available product
151 added at 100 g per ton (Ronozyme HiPhorius, 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd,
152 Denmark), to deliver 4,000 FYT/kg ($4,452 \pm 487$ analyzed). Phytase was added in excess of its
153 commercial recommendation (1,000 FYT), such that the vast majority of phytate present in

154 corn and SBM was overwhelmingly degraded. Phytase was added into the feeds without
155 attributing value for P and Ca to avoid any confounding effects on overall performance.
156 Supplementation of Fe was from laboratory grade Fe sulfate heptahydrate ($\text{FeSO}_4 \cdot 7\text{H}_2\text{O}$) at 0,
157 10, 20, 30 and 40 mg/kg (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, MO). Calcium carbonate and phosphoric
158 acid were also laboratory grade and had no significant Fe content. Analyzed phytase in the
159 feeds, from the lowest to the highest dietary Fe contents were $4,463 \pm 227$; $4,083 \pm 118$; $4,493$
160 ± 761 ; $4,777 \pm 691$; $4,448 \pm 387$ FYT/kg. Analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase
161 were 53.3 ± 1.41 , 65.5 ± 0.59 , 77.2 ± 1.97 , 87.6 ± 1.72 , 97.7 ± 1.33 mg/kg. All feeds were
162 added with 1% indigestible marker (Celite, Celite Corp., Lompoc, CA) and had an average
163 geometric diameter of $1.118 \mu\text{m} \pm 1.72$. Phytase and supplemental Fe were included in the
164 feeds in 1 kg mixes diluted with SBM. Phytase activity in feeds was analyzed as done by
165 Engelen et al. (1994) and expressed in phytase units (FYT, defined as the activity that releases
166 one μmol of inorganic phosphate from 5.0 mM sodium phytate/min at pH 5.5 and 37 °C).
167 Analyses of Fe using the atomic absorption spectrophotometric method of Association of
168 Official Analytical Chemists (method 968.08; AOAC, 2016).

169

170 **Growth Performance, Total excreta, Ileal Contents**

171 Body weight gain (BWG), feed intake (FI), and feed conversion ratio (FCR) corrected
172 for the weight of dead birds were evaluated at 8, 14, 21, and 28 d. Excreta were collected twice
173 daily on wax paper from 21 to 24 d being immediately mixed and pooled by cage and stored at
174 -20 °C until analysis. Ileal contents were collected from all birds at 28 d after euthanasia by
175 electrical stunning using 45 V for 3 s from a section of intestine between Meckel's diverticulum
176 to approximately 2 cm cranial to the ileo-cecal junction. Contents were flushed with distilled
177 water into plastic containers, pooled by cage, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored
178 in a freezer at -20 °C until lyophilized (Christ Alpha 2-4 LD Freeze Dryer, Newtown, UK).

179 Diet and freeze-dried samples of ileal digesta were ground to pass a 0.5-mm screen in a grinder
180 (Tecnal, TE-631/2, São Paulo, Brazil).

181

182 **Analysis and calculations**

183 Dry matter (DM) analysis of samples was performed after oven drying the samples at
184 105 °C for 16 h (method 934.01; AOAC International, 2006). Ileal digesta, excreta, and feed
185 samples were analyzed for gross energy (GE) using a calorimeter calibrated with benzoic acid
186 as a standard (IKA Werke, Parr Instruments, Staufen, Germany). Calculations of ileal
187 digestible energy (IDE) and apparent metabolizable energy (AME) were done afterwards.
188 Crude protein (N x 6.25) was determined by the combustion method (method 968.06; AOAC
189 International, 2006). Phytate in feed samples was determined by the method described by Latta
190 and Eskin (1980) with Inductively Coupled Plasma - Atomic Emission Spectrometry (ICP-
191 AES). Acid insoluble ash, ileum samples and excreta were determined as described by
192 Vogtmann et al. (1975) and Choct and Annison (1992). Apparent ileal digestibility, total tract
193 retention, IDE and AME were calculated using the following equations (Kong and Adeola,
194 2014): digestibility (%) = $[1 - (M_i/M_o) \times (E_o/E_i)] \times 100$, IDE and AME (kcal/kg) = $GE_i - [GE$
195 $\times (M_i/M_o)]$, where M_i represents the concentration of acid insoluble ash in the diet in grams per
196 kilogram of DM; M_o represents the concentration of acid insoluble ash in the excreta and ileal
197 digesta in grams per kilogram of DM output; E_i represents the concentration of DM, PB, GE,
198 Fe in the diet in milligrams per kilogram of DM; and E_o represents the concentration of DM,
199 PB, GE, Fe in the excreta and ileal digesta in milligrams per kilogram of DM. Retention of Fe
200 was determined (Zhang et al., 2018) as follows: Fe retention (mg/bird) = $[\text{feed intake (g/bird)}$
201 $\times \text{feed Fe content (mg/kg)}] - [\text{fecal output (g/bird)} \times \text{fecal Fe content (mg/kg)}]$. The feed and
202 fecal Fe contents were based on their analyzed values on dry matter.

203

204 Blood and Liver collection

205 Blood sampling was drawn from 20 birds at 7 days for the assessment of hematological
206 parameters. Blood samples were taken through heart punctures collection from 2 broilers
207 randomly selected from each treatment on d 14, 21 and 28. Blood obtained was partially
208 transferred to 0.5mL test tubes containing EDTA for hematocrit (Ht) and hemoglobin (Hb)
209 analyzes. Determination of Ht was done using micro capillaries containing blood centrifuged
210 for 5 min at 15,650 to 18,510 x g. Concentration of Hb was determined using the
211 cyanmethemoglobin method as described by Crosby et al. (1954). Serum from centrifuged
212 blood (3 mL) was used for analysis of ferritin, which was done using an enzyme-linked
213 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Quimica Basica Ltda, Minas Gerais, Brazil) as described
214 by Andrews et al. (1994). Dilutions from 0 to 80% were previously prepared using human and
215 broiler chicken sera to check if linearity of responses existed (Table 2). Linearity was
216 determined by taking an average of 20 serum samples treated with dissociation reagent and
217 diluted as described in Table 2 with assay buffer and mixing them in the proportions indicated.
218 The measured concentrations were compared to expected values based on the ratios used.
219 Human sera were obtained from the Clinical Pathology Laboratory from Pontifical Catholic
220 University of Rio Grande do Sul from Brazil (PUCRS). Samples were anonymous and
221 previously used to evaluate ferritin content.

222 Livers were collected from five birds per cage after euthanasia by neck dislocation. All
223 collected samples were weighed and stored in plastic bags by cage at -20°C until analysis.
224 Livers were later submitted to ethyl ether extraction following previous acid hydrolysis with
225 hydrochloric acid (method 920.39, AOAC International, 1995). Samples were further ashed
226 and Fe content was determined as done with the feeds.

227

228 **Thigh collection and color evaluation**

229 Thigh muscles were collected immediately after euthanasia, had feathers manually
230 removed and were then subjected to a color assessment using the CIE (Commission
231 Internationale de L'Eclairage) color values using the CIELAB trichromatic system as
232 luminosity (L^*), redness (a^*) and yellowing (b^*) using a chromometer (HunterLab Labscan;
233 HunterLab, Virginia, USA). Evaluation of thigh color was done at three random locations on
234 its surface.

235

236 **Statistical Analysis**

237 Data were tested for homoscedasticity and normality of the variance prior to statistical
238 analyses (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965). Data were analyzed using the GLM procedure of SAS
239 Institute (SAS, 2011) with significance accepted as $P \leq 0.05$. Mean separation was done using
240 Tukey multiple-range test when the model effect was significant (Tukey, 1991).

241 Estimations of maximum responses to total dietary Fe were done using linear (L) and
242 quadratic polynomial (QP) regression models. The L model ($Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \times X$) has Y as the
243 dependent variable, X as the dietary level of Fe, β_1 as the intercept, and β_2 as the linear
244 coefficient. The QP model ($Y = \beta_1 + \beta_2 \times Fe + \beta_3 \times (Fe)^2$) has Y as the dependent variable as
245 a function of dietary level of Fe; β_1 as the intercept; β_2 as the linear coefficient and β_3 as the
246 quadratic coefficient. The maximum response for Fe was defined as $Fe = -\beta_2 \div (2 \times \beta_3)$.

247

248 **Results**

249 Analyzed Fe in the experimental feeds were close to the expected from feed formulation
250 (Table 1); therefore, feeds were considered acceptable for the experimental assessment
251 originally planned. Analyses of variance and regressions were conducted with the Fe analyzed
252 data.

253 No interactions between dietary Fe and phytase were found for any evaluated response
254 throughout the study ($P > 0.05$). The factorial analyses showed no effects of dietary Fe in live
255 performance (Table 3), ileal digestibility, total tract retention of DM and AME (Table 4), Ht
256 and Hb at d 28 (Table 5), or thigh muscle color (Table 6) ($P > 0.05$). However, the increased
257 supplementation of Fe led to higher retention, intake, and excretion of the mineral (Table 4),
258 as well as higher Ht at 14 and 21 d, Hb at 14 and 21 d, serum ferritin at 14, 21 and 28 d (Table
259 5), and Fe contents in the liver (Table 6) ($P < 0.05$). Regression analyses showed that increased
260 dietary Fe correlated linearly with increased Fe excretion and retention as well as liver Fe
261 content, Ht and Hb at d 14 and Ht at d 21. Regression equations were as follow: Fe excreted =
262 $- 0.47612 + 0.4823x$, $R^2 = 0.9117$, $P < 0.001$; Fe retained = $0.4078 + 0.0696x$, $R^2 = 0.7915$,
263 $P < 0.001$; Ht at 14 = $23.3716 + 0.0635x$, $R^2 = 0.2112$, $P < 0.001$; Hb at d 14 = $7.3992 + 0.0238x$,
264 $R^2 = 0.1204$, $P < 0.001$; Ht at d 21 = $27.8750 + 0.0341x$, $R^2 = 0.2228$, $P < 0.001$. Increasing Fe
265 led to quadratic increases on Hb at d 21, serum ferritin at d 14, 21 and 28. Dietary Fe that
266 maximized Hb at 21 was 83.3 mg/kg whereas serum ferritin was maximum at 104.0, 91.9 and
267 88.3 mg/kg at d 14, 21 and 28, respectively. These responses were quadratically correlated to
268 the increasing dietary Fe as follow: Hb at 21 = $2.531354039 + 0.182135074x - 0.001086281x^2$,
269 $R^2 = 0.4191$, $P < 0.001$; serum ferritin at d 14 = $61.12394689 + 1.59480140x - 0.00818646x^2$,
270 $R^2 = 0.7830$, $P < 0.001$; serum ferritin at 21 = $41.70580102 + 2.52267152x - 0.01372836x^2$, R^2
271 = 0.8107, $P < 0.001$; serum ferritin at d 28 = $32.76252977 + 2.98391206x - 0.01690114x^2$, R^2
272 = 0,3704, $P \leq 0.003$.

273 The test performed to validate the detection of chicken ferritin using a human ferritin
274 assay showed a linear relationship with chicken serum ferritin averaging 71.5% of human
275 values. Tests of linearity used in the experiment were based on the validation model described
276 by Bienboire-Frosini et al. (2017).

277

278 Discussion

279 Feeds in the present study were formulated with corn and SBM to have nutrients and
280 energy comparable to those used commercially as usual in broiler integrations, except for Fe.
281 Limestone and phosphates were replaced by laboratory grade calcium carbonate and
282 phosphoric acid having only 9.2 and 2.8 ppm Fe, respectively. Mineral premixes had no Fe;
283 therefore, any relevant change of Fe contents in feeds were obtained from corn and SBM or
284 from the Fe sulfate in supplemented feeds.

285 Results from the present research demonstrated that Fe from corn and SBM allowed to
286 maximize broiler growth from 7 to 28 d and, therefore, supplementation as generally suggested
287 is not necessary when these parameters are the only ones considered. Presently, trace mineral
288 supplementation ranges from as low as 20 mg/kg (Aviagen, 2022) to as high as 80 mg/kg (NRC,
289 1994). Other recommendations are intermediary: 52.8 mg/kg (Rostagno et al., 2017) and 40
290 mg/kg (Cobb, 2018). As demonstrated in the present study, all those recommendations seem
291 excessive since they do not result in growth improvements when birds are fed corn-SBM diets.
292 The contribution of Fe in non-supplemented broiler feeds derive from plant sources, which are
293 mostly corn and SBM, but also from limestone and phosphates. Phytate is expected to complex
294 with Fe in plant sources (Maenz, 1999; Bohn et al., 2008), which may be rendered available
295 for absorption when phytase is added to the feeds. On the other hand, total Fe present in
296 limestone is variable, ranging from 100 to 185 ppm Fe (Yang et al., 2011; Bai et al., 2021).
297 Availability of Fe from limestone and phosphates for poultry is unknown.

298 In the present study, Ht, Hb and serum ferritin were determined after birds were fed a
299 low Fe common feed at 7 d. Values found in the present study were $25.8 \pm 1.2\%$, 8.3 ± 0.6
300 g/dL and 113 ± 6.4 ng/mL, which are in a close range to those for one-day-old chicks
301 determined by Morita et al. (2009). It has also been previously reported that Ht and Hb
302 increased when birds were fed Fe supplemented feeds after a period of Fe deficiency (Taschetto

303 et al., 2017; Ebbing et al., 2019). Deaton et al. (1969) have observed that Ht and Hb are low in
304 the first week of age, increasing from the second week onwards with broilers. In the present
305 study, dietary Fe fed from 7 d to 21 d affected Ht and Hb; however, ferritin was affected
306 throughout the entire study. These are traditional parameters used to assess Fe status in different
307 species (Abbaspour et al., 2014, Ma et al., 2014; Manor et al., 2017). However, Ht and Hb did
308 not differ from each other at 28 d in the present study, which may have been due to the
309 accumulation of body Fe. Lin et al. (2020) found no difference for Ht between treatments when
310 supplementing 50 to 150 mg/kg Fe in poultry feeds. Similarly, the supplementation of Fe to 50
311 mg/kg did not show changes in Hb at 21 days (Aoyagi and Baker, 1995). Others have reported
312 that Ht and Hb did not differ, tending to stabilize when broilers were given increased dietary
313 Fe after 21 d (Liao et al., 2017; Abdel-Rahman et al., 2022).

314 Ferritin is a main intracellular Fe reservoir protein that maintains Fe in an accessible and
315 readily mobilized form (Mackenzie et al., 2008; Orino and Watanabe, 2008). Ferritin is
316 composed of an inner Fe subunit and an outer apoferritin subunit, which protects and stabilizes
317 the Fe core, preventing excessive Fe release and its toxic effects (Harrison and Arosio, 1996;
318 Torti and Torti, 2002). Serum ferritin is the main blood parameter when serum Fe status is
319 clinically evaluated (Wish, 2006; Knovich et al., 2009).

320 In the present study, serum ferritin was analyzed using a human serum ferritin assay after
321 the observation of parallel responses of dilutions of serum from both species. Genes of chicken
322 ferritin exhibit approximately 85% nucleotide identity in coding regions, which yield proteins
323 with a similarity of 93% of amino acid sequence to human ferritin (Stevens et al., 1987). Bai
324 et al. (2021) used a human serum assay to detect chicken serum ferritin with birds fed diets
325 having 139 and 609 mg/kg Fe and obtained 110.4 and 326.2 ng/mL of ferritin, respectively.
326 These authors concluded that the increased values signaled an adequate sensitivity of the
327 ferritin to dietary Fe. Analyzes of ferritin in poultry were also conducted in the liver or in the

328 ferritin to total protein ratio and all resulted in an increase in ferritin when birds were given
329 increased dietary Fe (Abdel-Rahman et al., 2022, Hu et al., 2022). Therefore, it can be
330 concluded that results found in this study are in line with research done in other species, such
331 as rats and humans after being submitted to increases in dietary Fe (Patterson et al., 2001; Yun
332 et al., 2011; Wang et al., 2014; Kaluza and Madej, 2015; Xiao et al., 2016).

333 The increase in Fe excretion, as well as in Fe body retention, occurred in parallel with
334 dietary Fe content in the present study. This have been previously reported by other authors
335 (Bao et al., 2007, Nollet et al., 2007, Faria et al., 2020). The frequent use of chicken excreta as
336 soil amendment certainly contributes to a constant increase in Fe in areas where this practice
337 is a routine. It is obviously expected that the linear excretion of Fe accompanied by its dietary
338 content is an indicator of excess when adequate growth and serum status is taken in
339 consideration. In parallel, liver Fe content on day 28 was increased similarly as Fe retained.
340 Previous studies have reported increased Fe in liver along with its increases in feeds and it can
341 build up in the liver, just like other minerals. (Vahl and Van`T Klooster, 1987; Cao et al., 1996;
342 Ma et al., 2016; Akter et al., 2017; Han et al., 2022). Excess dietary Fe, on the other hand, does
343 not seem to increase the risk of toxicity (Spears, 1999; Bai et al., 2021).

344 Addition of exogenous phytase in poultry feeds is commercially mandatory nowadays
345 since they increase P availability from plant feedstuffs, reducing feed costs with a
346 corresponding reduction in the use of phosphates (Bougouin et al., 2014; Walters et al., 2019).
347 Secondary benefits, such as the increased availability of Ca, protein, amino acids and other
348 minerals have also been reported when birds are fed phytase (Woyengo and Nyachoti, 2010;
349 Cowieson et al., 2017; Sommerfeld et al., 2018; Ajuwon, et al., 2020; Song et al., 2021).

350 In the present study broilers fed phytase showed higher BWG and lower FCR when
351 compared to those that were not fed the enzyme. Phytase improvements occurred regardless of
352 Fe content in the feeds. The contents of non-phytate P (nPP) and total Ca in the feeds in the

353 present study were as usual in commercial feeds and similar to commercially used
354 recommendations (0.45% nPP and 1.00 % Ca from the NRC, 1994; 0.43% nPP and 0.91% Ca
355 from Rostagno et al., 2017; 0.42% nPP and 0.84% Ca from Cobb, 2018; 0.42% nPP and 75%
356 Ca from Aviagen, 2022). Since all essential trace minerals, other than Fe, were supplemented
357 in the experimental feeds, benefits of phytase on further availability of Fe could be assessed.
358 Several reports have shown improvements in live performance in broilers resulting from
359 phytase added in feeds at higher levels than those needed to maximize P availability (Pirgozliev
360 et al., 2008; Cowieson et al., 2014; Muszy and Tomaszewska, 2017; Broch et al., 2018; Gautier
361 et al., 2018). Improvements in ileal digestibility responses (DM, IDEC, IDE and CP) as well
362 as in total tract retention (DM and AME) observed in the present study have also been reported
363 by many authors (Gehring et al., 2013; Wu et al., 2015; Farhadi et al., 2017; Lee et al., 2017;
364 Pieniazek et al., 2017; Truong et al., 2017; Leyva-Jimenez et al., 2019; Woyengo and Wilson,
365 2019; Bassi et al, 2021).

366 The increased retention and ileal digestibility of Fe obtained when birds were fed phytase
367 compared to those that were not feed the enzyme are in agreement with *in vitro* data from Akter
368 et al. (2015) as well as with results of studies conducted with rats, humans and pigs (Pallauf et
369 al., 1999; Hurrell et al., 2003, She et al., 2018).

370

371 **Conclusions**

372 Phytase supplementation promotes improvements in broiler growth, which were not
373 related to increases in availability of P and Ca. The effects of phytase on Fe digestibility were
374 evident from the present results. Increases in Fe supplementation to levels that exceed the total
375 supply of this mineral in commercial feeds did not lead to benefits in live performance;
376 however, blood parameters were positively affected. Excess Fe in the diet leads to an increase
377 in its content in the liver, as well as in excreta, which eventually leads to an increased disposal

378 of this mineral in the environment.

379

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383

384 **Conflict of interest**

385 All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

386

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737 **Table 1.** Ingredient and nutrient composition of with or without phytase and with graded
 738 increases of supplemental Fe.

Item	Fe-deficient	Basal Feed
	Pre-starter (1 to 7 d)	Starter (8 to 28 d)
Ingredient, % ¹		
Rice, polished and broken	51.35	-
Corn 7.8	12.26	50.58
Soybean meal 46	13.00	38.61
Soy protein isolate 89	15.16	-
Soybean oil	0.50	4.51
Calcium carbonate	2.18	2.55
Phosphoric acid	1.18	1.42
Common salt	0.11	0.47
DL-Methionine, 99%	0.36	0.32
L-Lysine HCl, 76%	0.13	0.17
L-Threonine, 98.5%	0.10	0.08
Choline chloride	0.16	0.06
Vitamin and mineral mix ²	0.23	0.23
Kaolim (diluent)	3.28	-
Celite (indigestible marker)	-	1.00
Total	100.00	100.00
Energy and nutrients, % or as noted ³		
AME _n , kcal/kg	2,950	3,000
Crude Protein	22.9 (22.9 ± 0.52)	21.9 (21.2 ± 0.62)
Ca	1.10 (1.07 ± 0.02)	1.05 (1.02 ± 0.03)
Available P	0.50	0.48
Total P	0.69 (0.68 ± 0.02)	0.67 (0.67 ± 0.03)
Phytate	-	0.23 (0.22 ± 0.01)
Na	0.22	0.20
Choline, mg/kg	1,600	1,600
Dig. Lys	1.28	1.22
Dig. TSAA	0.99	0.91
Dig. Thr	0.84	0.79
Dig. Trp	0.24	0.24
Dig. Arg	1.47	1.37
Dig. Val	0.96	0.93
Dig. Ile	0.84	0.86
Fe, mg/kg ⁴	28.68 (31.30 ± 3.79)	56.6 (53.33 ± 1.41)
Phytase, FYT/kg ⁵	-	4,000 (4,452 ± 487)

739 ¹ Calcium carbonate and phosphoric acid were laboratory grade and had only trace amounts of Fe (9.2 and 2.8
 740 ppm, respectively).

741 ² Composition per kilogram of feed: vitamin A, 12,000 IU; vitamin D₃, 3,000 IU; 60C, 50 mg; vitamin E, 100 IU;
 742 vitamin K₃, 6 mg; vitamin B12, 35 µg; thiamin, 3 mg; riboflavin, 15 mg; vitamin B6, 6 mg; niacin, 40 mg;
 743 pantothenic acid, 25 mg; folic acid, 4 mg; biotin, 0.3 mg; Zn (zinc), 100 ppm; Mn (manganese), 100 ppm; Cu
 744 (copper), 15 ppm; Se (selenium), 0.45 mg and I (iodine), 2 mg.

745 ³ Analyzed values are within parentheses.

746 ⁴ Formulated Fe were 56.6, 66.6, 76.6, 86.6, 96.6 mg/kg; analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase were
 747 53.33 ± 1.41, 65.45 ± 0.59, 77.19 ± 1.97, 87.57 ± 1.72, 97.65 ± 1.33 mg/kg.

748 ⁵ Ronozyme HiPhorius 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd, Denmark.

749 **Table 2.** Relationship between serum ferritin in chickens and humans after dilution at the same proportions of the respective sera¹.

Dilution, % ²	Ferritin, ng/mL			Chicken to human ferritin ratio	% Recovery (chicken) ³ Observed to Expected
	Human	Observed chicken	Expected chicken		
0	240.5 ± 31.6	173.9 ± 20.1	173.9	0.72	100.0
20	192.1 ± 25.3	135.6 ± 15.5	139.2	0.71	97.4
40	144.0 ± 18.9	103.4 ± 14.3	104.4	0.72	99.0
60	95.9 ± 12.6	67.5 ± 9.5	69.6	0.70	97.0
80	48.0 ± 6.3	34.8 ± 4.7	34.8	0.72	100.0

750 ¹Human sera ferritin associated with diluted human sera: $Y = 240.2900000 - 2.4051000x$, $R^2 = 0.0952$; $P = 0.0018$; broiler chicken sera ferritin associated with diluted broiler
751 sera: $Y = 172.300000 - 1.7317500x$, $R^2 = 0.9252$; $P \leq 0.001$.

752 ²Ferritin dilutions from human and chicken sera were performed with assay buffer enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Quimica Basica Ltda., Minas Gerais,
753 Brazil).

754 ³Linearity of observed and expected sera ferritin values in broiler chickens ($Y = 1.0037 + 0.9581x$, $R^2 = 0.99$), determined with 20 dissociation reagent-treated samples diluted
755 with assay buffer and mixed as recommended.

756 **Table 3.** Growth performance of broilers as affected by feeds with or without phytase and with graded increases of supplemental Fe¹.

Item	8 to 14 d			15 to 21 d			22 to 28 d			8 to 28 d		
	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g
Phytase, FYT/Kg ²												
0	260 ^b	1.160 ^a	303	473	1.343 ^a	636	559 ^b	1.442 ^a	805	1,293 ^b	1.347 ^a	1,742
4,000	270 ^a	1.122 ^b	302	483	1.315 ^b	633	578 ^a	1.388 ^b	801	1,330 ^a	1.307 ^b	1,737
Fe, mg/kg ³												
56.6	266	1.136	303	477	1.313	627	572	1.412	812	1,315	1.324	1,741
66.6	266	1.139	303	481	1.312	630	565	1.415	799	1,312	1.318	1,729
76.6	264	1.150	304	476	1.324	629	568	1.442	818	1,310	1.338	1,751
86.6	265	1.143	303	476	1.358	645	568	1.390	789	1,309	1.328	1,737
96.6	264	1.136	299	480	1.338	641	567	1.408	797	1,311	1.326	1,738
SEM	1.222	0.004	1.570	2.579	0.006	3.654	2.988	0.006	4.509	4.121	0.004	6.137
<i>Probability <</i>												
Phytase	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.6797	0.0464	0.0260	0.7692	0.0012	<0.0001	0.7147	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.6740
Fe	0.9466	0.8293	0.9075	0.9563	0.2881	0.4307	0.9671	0.1024	0.2628	0.9821	0.4562	0.8596
Phytase X Fe	0.7673	0.3092	0.3600	0.6503	0.7270	0.2791	0.7555	0.7096	0.4897	0.7850	0.4869	0.4617

^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$).

¹BWG = body weight gain; FCR = feed conversion ratio corrected for the weight of dead birds; FI = feed intake.

²Ronozyme HiPhorius 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd, Denmark; average analyzed phytase in the Fe supplemented feeds was $4,452 \pm 487$ FYT/kg.

³Analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase were 53.33 ± 1.41 , 65.45 ± 0.59 , 77.19 ± 1.97 , 87.57 ± 1.72 , 97.65 ± 1.33 mg/kg.

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761 **Table 4.** Apparent ileal digestibility and total tract retention responses of broilers as affected by increased dietary Fe with or without phytase, on
 762 dry matter (DM) basis¹.

Item	Apparent ileal digestibility					Total tract retention				Intake	Excretion
	DM, %	IDEC, %	IDE, kcal/kg	CP, %	Fe, %	DM, %	AME, kcal/kg	Fe, %	Fe, mg/bird	Fe, mg/bird	
Phytase, FYT/Kg ²											
0	67.2 ^b	71.8 ^b	3,235 ^b	77.6 ^b	10.6 ^b	68.5 ^b	3,326 ^b	13.1 ^b	5.5 ^b	42.1	36.6
4000	69.8 ^a	73.5 ^a	3,311 ^a	80.1 ^a	11.8 ^a	71.2 ^a	3,393 ^a	14.2 ^a	6.0 ^a	42.0	36.0
Fe, mg/kg ³											
56.6	68.7	73.1	3,290	79.2	11.6	69.6	3,356	14.1	4.1 ^e	29.1 ^e	25.0 ^e
66.6	68.7	72.7	3,267	78.4	11.2	70.4	3,362	13.8	4.9 ^d	35.6 ^d	30.7 ^d
76.6	68.4	72.3	3,264	78.4	11.4	69.4	3,339	13.5	5.9 ^c	43.9 ^c	38.0 ^c
86.6	68.8	72.6	3,270	79.0	11.1	70.0	3,368	13.4	6.4 ^b	48.1 ^b	41.7 ^b
96.6	67.9	72.6	3,271	79.2	10.8	69.7	3,372	13.5	7.2 ^a	53.3 ^a	46.1 ^a
SEM	0.300	0.266	11.888	0.233	0.145	0.254	7.229	0.125	0.138	1.017	0.891
<i>Probability <</i>											
Phytase	<0.0001	0.0015	0.0019	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0002	0.8651	0.2927
Fe	0.8310	0.9148	0.9629	0.4427	0.4071	0.5724	0.5069	0.2093	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
Phytase X Fe	0.3960	0.7714	0.8789	0.0852	0.8506	0.3429	0.5062	0.5305	0.4160	0.1957	0.3270

763 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (P < 0.05).

764 ¹DM = Dry matter; IDCE = Ileal digestible energy coefficient; IDE = Ileal digestible energy; CP = Crude protein.

765 ²Ronozyme HiPhorius 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd, Denmark; analyzed phytase in the Fe supplemented feeds were (from the lowest to the highest Fe content
 766 feeds) 4,452 ± 487 FYT/kg.

767 ³Analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase were 53.33 ± 1.41, 65.45 ± 0.59, 77.19 ± 1.97, 87.57 ± 1.72, 97.65 ± 1.33 mg/kg.

768 ⁴Retention, intake, excretion of Fe (mg/kg), respectively: Y = 0.4078 + 0.0696x, R² = 0.7915, P<0.001; Y = - 0.0683 + 0.5519x, R² = 0.9155, P<0.001; Y = -0.47612 + 0.4823x,
 769 R² = 0.9117, P<0.001; X=dietary Fe content.

770 **Table 5.** Blood parameters of broilers as affected by increased dietary Fe with or without phytase¹.

Item	Ht, %			Hb, g/dL			Serum ferritin, ng/mL		
	d 14	d 21	d 28	d 14	d 21	d 28	d 14	d 21	d 28
Phytase, FYT/Kg ²									
0	28.2	30.6	31.6	9.3	9.8	9.9	133	151	156
4000	28.2	30.4	31.7	9.1	9.9	10.1	133	151	160
Fe, mg/kg ³									
56.6	26.9 ^b	29.4 ^b	31.5	8.5 ^b	9.1 ^b	10.1	124 ^d	137 ^c	142 ^b
66.6	26.9 ^b	30.5 ^a	31.1	9.1 ^{ab}	10.0 ^a	10.1	129 ^c	148 ^b	161 ^a
76.6	28.6 ^{ab}	30.4 ^a	32.4	9.4 ^{ab}	10.0 ^a	10.2	135 ^b	156 ^a	158 ^a
86.6	29.3 ^a	30.9 ^a	31.8	9.5 ^a	10.1 ^a	10.0	139 ^a	156 ^a	165 ^a
96.6	29.2 ^a	31.1 ^a	31.5	9.5 ^a	10.1 ^a	9.9	139 ^a	158 ^a	164 ^a
SEM	0.243	0.126	0.2705	0.121	0.063	10.1	0.704	0.952	1.413
<i>Probability <</i>									
Phytase	0.9536	0.3733	0.9200	0.5395	0.7435	0.2314	0.3932	0.9766	0.0675
Fe	0.0002	<0.0001	0.5815	0.0160	<0.0001	0.4046	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001
Phytase X Fe	0.1253	0.5886	0.2039	0.1684	0.9689	0.6000	0.9173	0.9732	0.7689

771 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (P < 0.05).772 ¹birds (20 samples) showed at 7 day the following values for hematocrit (Ht), hemoglobin (Hb) and ferritin, 25.8 ± 1.2%, 8.3 ± 0.6 g/dL and 113 ± 6.4 ng/mL, respectively.773 ²Ronozyme HiPhorius 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd, Denmark; analyzed phytase in the Fe supplemented feeds were (from the lowest to the highest Fe content feeds) 4,452 ± 487 FYT/kg.774 ³Analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase were 53.33 ± 1.41, 65.45 ± 0.59, 77.19 ± 1.97, 87.57 ± 1.72, 97.65 ± 1.33 mg/kg.775 ⁴Ht at d 14 and 21, Hb at d 14 and 21, and ferritin at d 14, 21 and 28, respectively: Y = 23.3716 + 0.0635x, R² = 0.2112, P<0.001; Y = 27.8750 + 0.0341x, R² = 0.2228, P<0.001;776 Y = 7.3992 + 0.0238x, R² = 0.1204, P<0.001; Y = 2.531354039 + 0.182135074x - 0.001086281x², R² = 0.4191, P<0.001; Y = 61.12394689 + 1.59480140x - 0.00818646x²,777 R² = 0.7830, P<0.001; Y = 41.70580102 + 2.52267152x - 0.01372836x², R² = 0.8107, P<0.001; Y = 32.76252977 + 2.98391206x - 0.01690114x², R² = 0.3704, P≤0.003.

778 X=dietary Fe content.

779

780 **Table 6.** Fresh liver Fe concentration and thigh muscle color of broilers as affected by increased
 781 dietary Fe with or without phytase at 28 d.

Item	Fresh Liver, mg/kg ⁴	L* ¹	a*	b*
Phytase, FYT/Kg ²				
0	125.4	60.2	16.3	6.7
4000	125.3	60.5	16.0	6.2
Fe, mg/kg ³				
56.6	111.5 ^d	59.9	16.1	6.3
66.6	120.1 ^c	60.2	16.5	6.5
76.6	126.8 ^b	60.5	16.5	6.4
86.6	132.1 ^a	60.6	16.1	6.7
96.6	136.3 ^a	60.6	15.8	6.4
SEM	1.089	0.188	0.108	0.181
<i>Probability <</i>				
Phytase	0.9382	0.3998	0.1551	0.0596
Fe	<0.0001	0.7310	0.1917	0.9180
Phytase X Fe	0.9227	0.2131	0.5811	0.2321b

782 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$). ¹Lightness (L*)
 783 range from 100 (white) to 0 (black), whereas positive a* values are measures of redness and negative a* values
 784 are measures of greenness; positive b* values are measures of yellowness and negative b* values are measures of
 785 blueness.

786 ²Ronozyme HiPhorius 40,000 FYT/g, Novozymes A/S, Bagsvaerd, Denmark; analyzed phytase in the Fe
 787 supplemented feeds were (from the lowest to the highest Fe content feeds) $4,452 \pm 487$ FYT/kg.

788 ³Analyzed Fe in the feeds with and without phytase were 53.33 ± 1.41 , 65.45 ± 0.59 , 77.19 ± 1.97 , 87.57 ± 1.72 ,
 789 97.65 ± 1.33 mg/kg.

790 ⁴Fe in Fresh liver at 28 d: $Y = 104.6332 + 0.2719x$, $R^2 = 0.1938$, $P < 0.001$.

CAPÍTULO III¹

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1 Dietary contribution of iron from limestone and dicalcium phosphate to broiler chickens

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20 ABSTRACT

21 Limestone and phosphates are very rich in iron (Fe); however, its contribution from these
22 sources have not been thoroughly investigated in chickens. The present research was conducted
23 to evaluate growth performance and blood parameters of broilers when using limestone and
24 dicalcium phosphate as sources of Fe. A total of 576 one-day-old male Cobb x Cobb 500 were
25 allocated into 72 battery cages, with 6 treatments and 12 replicates of 8 chicks at placement.
26 Chicks were fed diets formulated with corn, soybean meal (SBM), laboratory grade calcium
27 carbonate and phosphoric acid (having traces of Fe). All chicks were fed a common pre-starter
28 without Fe supplementation (analyzed total 58.2 ± 2.4 mg/kg Fe) from placement to 7 d.
29 Allocation of birds to dietary treatments was completely randomized on d 8. Treatments had
30 increasing Fe derived from commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate (analyzed Fe 7,218
31 and 4,783 mg/kg, respectively) progressively replacing calcium carbonate and phosphoric acid
32 to provide graded increases in total Fe (analyzed Fe in the feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1 , 92.0 ± 2.3 ,
33 124.1 ± 2.7 , 159.3 ± 3.1 , 187.2 ± 3.2 , 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg, respectively). There were no effects
34 for dietary Fe on growth performance, hematocrit, and hemoglobin at the end of the study on
35 day 28 ($P > 0.05$). Increasing dietary Fe from commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate
36 led to a linear reduction in the percent ileal digestibility of Fe. However, linear increments in
37 Fe retention, serum ferritin and liver Fe occurred when compared to feeds without Fe derived
38 from limestone and phosphate dicalcium. It is concluded that Fe from limestone and dicalcium
39 phosphate can be partially utilized by broiler chickens. It was estimated that the Fe retained
40 from limestone and dicalcium phosphate is of 1.9%. Broilers fed corn-soy feeds (58.2 mg/kg
41 Fe) do not require supplemental Fe.

42

43 **Key words:** broiler, iron, performance.

INTRODUCTION

44

45 Iron (Fe) is an essential mineral that is routinely supplemented in broiler feeds intending
46 to prevent dietary deficiencies that can affect commercial performance. The essentiality of Fe
47 for animals is mainly related to the synthesis of hemoglobin (Zoroddu et al., 2019); therefore,
48 anemia is the most notable signal of Fe deficiency in humans and animals (Worwood, 1990).
49 Minor dietary quantities of Fe are needed because of its participation in the electron transport
50 chain, deoxyribonucleic acid repair and synthesis, found in cytochromes, Fe-containing
51 enzymes and ferritin (Zhang, 2014; Puig et al., 2017).

52

53 Absorption of Fe is directly related to the form it is present in feeds with heme Fe being
54 preferentially absorbed. For instance, in humans, heme Fe is absorbed at a rate of 25.0%
55 (Roughead and Hunt, 2000) compared to non-heme Fe at 7.0% (Roughead et al., 2002).
56 Absorption of Fe occurs mainly in the duodenum and proximal jejunum (Zhang, 2010);
57 however, the efficiency of this process is dependent on the oxidative state of Fe at the brush
58 border (Sharp and Srail, 2007). At physiological pH, Fe is oxidized, and therefore in the ferric
59 (Fe^{3+}) state; however, absorption of non-heme Fe occurs only as in ferrous state (Fe^{2+}) (Han et
60 al., 1995) in a process mediated by the divalent metal cation transporter 1 (DMT1) (Conrad
61 and Umbreit, 2002). Some reduction of Fe^{3+} to Fe^{2+} occurs by duodenal cytochrome B (Dcytb)
62 present at the luminal side of duodenal enterocytes (Conrad et al., 2000), which then allows for
63 the further absorption of Fe^{2+} by the DMT1 system. Feeds provided to poultry are frequently
64 voided of animal proteins and, therefore, without heme Fe, and therefore with a reduced rate
65 of Fe absorption.

66

67 The wide presence of Fe in nature contrasts with its variability in terms of availability for
68 animals. Heme Fe is the predominant form of Fe in animal protein feedstuffs, as part of
69 hemoglobin and myoglobin (Wijayanti et al., 2004). On the other hand, Fe in plant feedstuffs
70 is highly complexed with phytate (Cowieson et al., 2006), and, therefore, of reduced

69 availability in diets without phytase (Feijó et al., 2023). High contents of Fe can be found in
70 feedstuffs originated from rocks, such as limestone and phosphates (NRC, 1994; Lima et al.,
71 1995, Rostagno et al., 2017). These are believed to bear Fe mostly in the Fe³⁺ state, and
72 therefore of a potentially lower availability for poultry when compared to heme Fe and Fe²⁺
73 (Park et al., 2004). Supplementation of Fe, such as in Fe sulfate, is usually recommended in
74 commercial broiler feeds (Rostagno et al., 2017; Cobb, 2018; Aviagen, 2022).

75 Feijó et al. (2023), have recently shown that broilers fed corn-soy feeds with phytase did
76 not require Fe supplementation in order to optimize bird live performance. Concerns with
77 excessive usage of trace minerals in animal feeds has led to regulations that limit total Fe in
78 feeds. For instance, an upper limit of 450 mg/kg has been established for by the European
79 Union (EFSA, 2016). Since Fe is widely spread in nature, this value may be difficult to manage
80 due to the high contents of Fe in limestone and phosphates, which are routinely included in
81 animal feeds to provide Ca and P. The objective of the present research was to investigate Fe
82 availability from a commercial type of feed for broilers without animal protein having the bulk
83 of dietary Fe from limestone and dicalcium phosphate. The responses evaluated in this
84 investigation included growth performance, but also variables that are highly sensitive
85 indicators of Fe organic status.

86 MATERIAL AND METHODS

87 All procedures used in the present study were approved by the Ethics and Research
88 Committee of the Federal University of Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, Brazil.

89

90 *Bird Husbandry and Dietary Treatments*

91 A total of 576 one-day-old male Cobb x Cobb 500 (body weight = 46.2 ± 0.6 g) chicks
92 were randomly placed into 72 wire cages (0.9 × 0.4 m²). Each cage was equipped with one
93 trough feeder and one drinker, which allowed *ad libitum* access to water and mash feeds.

94 Temperature at placement was 32°C, which was adjusted weekly to maintain bird comfort
95 throughout the study. Lighting was provided 24 h continuously throughout the first week and
96 then run in a 16 light : 8 dark schedule. All cages were daily checked, and the body weight of
97 dead birds being registered as observed.

98 Feeds utilized in this study were formulated with corn and soybean meal (SBM), which
99 were previously analyzed by NIRS (proximate and amino acids), as well as limestone,
100 dicalcium phosphate, and laboratory grade Ca carbonate and phosphoric acid (Table 1).
101 Calcium, P, and Fe in corn, SBM, limestone, dicalcium phosphate, calcium carbonate and
102 phosphoric acid were analyzed by Inductive Coupled Plasma Atomic Emission Spectroscopy
103 (ICP-Spectro Flamme, Spectro Analytical Instruments, Kleve, Germany) (Anderson, 1999).

104 Chicks were fed a common pre-starter feed expected to be Fe deficient (58.2 ± 2.4 mg/kg
105 Fe) from placement to 7 d. Starting at 8 d, birds were randomly allocated into treatments having
106 6 graded increases of formulated Fe (55.5, 88.5, 121.5, 154.5, 187.5, 220.5 mg/kg Fe) obtained
107 by proportionally exchanging laboratory grade Ca carbonate and phosphoric acid, without any
108 significant Fe contents by commercially available limestone and dicalcium phosphate.
109 Treatments were replicated 12 times using 8 chicks per cage on day 8. Feed formulation had
110 energy and nutrients targeting to optimize live performance as usual in commercial integrations
111 (2,950 kcal/kg AME and 23% CP in the pre-starter and 3,000 kcal/kg AME and 22% CP in the
112 starter). All nutrients were balanced throughout the feeds to meet the usual recommendations,
113 except for Fe (Table 1). Each feeding treatment was manufactured in one 400 kg batch and
114 then stored at -20 °C until use.

115 Analyzed Fe contents in feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1 , 92.0 ± 2.3 , 124.1 ± 2.7 , 159.3 ± 3.1 , 187.2
116 ± 3.2 , 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg, respectively. All feeds were added with 1% indigestible marker
117 (Celite, Celite Corp., Lompoc, CA) and had an average geometric diameter of $1.169 \mu\text{m} \pm 1.58$.
118 The oxidation state of Fe in limestone and dicalcium phosphate was analyzed with a

119 conventional Mossbauer spectrometer working in the transmission geometry and using a drive
120 with a triangular reference signal at constant acceleration. The magnetic properties of the
121 samples were studied using a PPMS-Physical Property Measurement System, Model 6000
122 (Quantum Design, San Diego, CA), equipped with a superconducting magnet as described by
123 Beltrán et al. (2015). Drinking water had no significant Fe content.

124

125 *Growth Performance, Total excreta, Ileal Contents*

126 Body weight gain (BWG), feed intake (FI), and feed conversion ratio (FCR) corrected
127 for the weight of dead birds were evaluated at 8, 14, 21, and 28 d. Excreta were collected twice
128 daily on wax paper from 24 to 26 d being immediately mixed and pooled by cage and stored at
129 -20 °C until analysis. Ileal contents were collected from all birds at 28 d after euthanasia by
130 electrical stunning using 45 V for 3 s from a section of intestine between Meckel's diverticulum
131 to approximately 2 cm cranial to the ileo-cecal junction. Contents were flushed with distilled
132 water into plastic containers, pooled by cage, immediately frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored
133 in a freezer at -20°C until lyophilized (Christ Alpha 2-4 LD Freeze Dryer, Newtown, UK). Diet
134 and freeze-dried samples of ileal digesta were ground to pass a 0.5-mm screen in a grinder
135 (Tecnal, TE-631/2, São Paulo, Brazil).

136

137 *Analyses and Calculations*

138 Ileal digesta, excreta, as well as feed samples were analyzed for dry matter (DM) at 105
139 °C for 16 h (method 934.01; AOAC International, 2006) and for Fe. Acid insoluble ash contents
140 in diets and ileum samples were determined using the method described by Vogtmann et al.
141 (1975), and Choct and Annison (1992). Apparent ileal digestibility of Fe was calculated using
142 the equations from Kong and Adeola (2014). Total Fe retention was determined as described
143 by Feijo et al. (2023) by the difference of the total intake and the total excretion of Fe from

144 days 24 to 26 of age. In parallel, the retention of Fe originated only from limestone and
145 dicalcium phosphate was estimated by using the differences between intake and excretion of
146 after correcting Fe contents of the treatment without limestone and dicalcium phosphate to
147 zero.

148

149 ***Blood and Liver Collection***

150 Blood sampling was obtained from 20 birds on day 7 after euthanasia by neck dislocation
151 for an initial assessment of hematological parameters. Samples were later collected by heart
152 puncturing from one bird randomly selected from each replication on day 28. Blood obtained
153 was partially transferred to 5 mL test tubes containing EDTA for hematocrit (Ht) and
154 hemoglobin (Hb) analyzes. Determination of Ht was done using micro capillaries containing
155 blood centrifuged for 5 min at 15,650 to 18,510 x g. Concentration of Hb was determined using
156 the cyanmethemoglobin method as described by Crosby et al. (1954). Serum from centrifuged
157 blood (3 mL) was used for analysis of ferritin, which was done using an enzyme-linked
158 immunosorbent assay (ELISA) kit (Quimica Basica Ltda, Minas Gerais, Brazil) as described
159 by Andrews et al. (1994) and previously done by Feijo et al. (2023).

160 Livers were collected from five birds per cage after euthanasia by neck dislocation on
161 day 28. All collected samples were weighed and stored in plastic bags by cage at -20°C until
162 analysis. Livers were later submitted to ethyl ether extraction following previous acid
163 hydrolysis with hydrochloric acid (method 920.39, AOAC International, 1995). Samples were
164 further ashed and Fe content determined as done with the feeds.

165

166 ***Statistical Analysis***

167 Data were tested for homoscedasticity and normality of the variance prior to statistical
168 analyses (Shapiro and Wilk, 1965). Data were analyzed using the GLM procedure of SAS

169 Institute (SAS, 2009) with significance accepted as $P \leq 0.05$ using analyzed Fe. Mean
170 separation was done using Tukey multiple-range test when the model effect was significant
171 (Tukey, 1991). All responses to total dietary Fe were tested using linear (L) and quadratic
172 polynomial (QP) regression models. Regressions were done using the total dietary Fe, but also
173 the Fe originated only from the increments of limestone and dicalcium phosphate such that
174 differences in Fe utilization by birds could be assessed.

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RESULTS

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The formulated depletion feed provided from placement to 7 d and the feeds provided in
the experimental period from 8 to 28 d are presented in Table 1. Analyzed Fe in laboratory
grade Ca carbonate and phosphoric acid as well as commercially available limestone and
dicalcium phosphate were 9.2, 2.8, 7,218 and 4,783 mg/kg, respectively. Analyzed Fe in
experimental feeds were close to the expected from feed formulations (Fe formulated were
55.5, 88.5, 121.5, 154.5, 187.5, 220.5 mg/kg Fe whereas analyzed Fe were 57.6 ± 2.1 , $92.0 \pm$
 2.3 , 124.1 ± 2.7 , 159.3 ± 3.1 , 187.2 ± 3.2 , 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg). Therefore, feeds were considered
acceptable for the experimental assessment originally planned. Analyses of variance and
regressions were conducted with the Fe analyzed data. The oxidation state of Fe in the
commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate utilized in the present study indicated that,
from the total Fe present, limestone had 62% Fe^{2+} and 38% Fe^{3+} whereas dicalcium phosphate
had 100% Fe^{3+} . Blood analyses performed on day 7 produced the following values for Ht, Hb
and ferritin: $26.2 \pm 1.6\%$, 8.8 ± 0.5 g/dL and 121 ± 5.2 ng/mL, respectively.

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There were no effects of dietary Fe on live performance (Table 2) ($P > 0.05$). Increased
dietary Fe from the gradual inclusion of commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate led to
a reduction in the percent ileal digestible and retained Fe (Figure 1). Adjustments for percent
ileal digestible Fe was linear ($Y = 13.0788 - 0.0461x$, $R^2 = 0.8140$, $P < 0.001$). Linear

194 adjustments were also found for the total intake, excretion, and retention of Fe per bird ($Y = -$
195 $4.8589 + 0.5474x$, $R^2 = 0.9717$, $P < 0.001$; $Y = - 0.8489 + 0.5573x$, $R^2 = 0.9701$, $P < 0.001$; Y
196 $= 4.0101 + 0.0099x$, $R^2 = 0.2142$, $P < 0.001$, respectively). These responses are presented on
197 Table 3. On the other hand, it was found linear adjustment for Fe retained from d 26 to 28
198 relative to that Fe from only from limestone and dicalcium phosphate ($Y = 0.2408 + 0.0099x$,
199 $R^2 = 0.2240$, $P < 0.001$). Linear adjustment also provided the best statistical adjustment for
200 actual retention rate when the Fe retained relative to that consumed was only from limestone
201 and dicalcium phosphate ($Y = 0.1974 + 0.0190x$, $R^2 = 0.2625$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 2).

202 Hematocrit and Hb at 28 days were not affected by dietary Fe; however, serum ferritin
203 and liver Fe contents increased as dietary Fe had increments ($Y = 142.8394 + 0.0702x$, $R^2 =$
204 0.3699 , $P < 0.001$; $Y = 110.5263 + 0.0752x$, $R^2 = 0.6390$, $P < 0.001$, respectively) (Table 4).
205 Linear regressions were obtained with ferritin and liver Fe content as a function of the Fe sole
206 originated from limestone and dicalcium phosphate ($Y = 1.3810 + 0.0702x$, $R^2 = 46.19$, $P <$
207 0.001 ; $Y = 0.2735 + 0.752x$, $R^2 = 70.22$, $P < 0.001$) (Figure 3).

208

209

DISCUSSION

210 Feeds used in this experiment were formulated with corn and SBM and contained
211 nutrients and energy as usual in broiler integrations. The mineral premixes had all essential
212 trace minerals except for Fe. Therefore, any relevant changes in Fe content in the experimental
213 feeds originated from the gradual replacement of Ca carbonate and phosphoric acid by
214 commercial limestone and dicalcium phosphate.

215 Live performance results obtained in the present study showed that diets with the lowest
216 Fe content (57.6 mg/kg feed) had no differences from those having increases in Fe to the
217 highest content of 223.7 mg/kg. This can be compared to recent results from Feijo et al. (2023)
218 and indicates that recommendations for Fe supplementation, as suggested by Rostagno et al.

219 (2017) of 52.8 mg/kg, from Cobb (2018) of 40 mg/kg, and Aviagen (2022) of 20 mg/kg, are
220 not needed.

221 Limestone and phosphates are sedimentary rocks and are expected to contain Fe in
222 similar oxidation states (Lerman et al., 1967). Analyses performed in the limestone and
223 dicalcium phosphate in present study, however, showed that the original Fe oxidation states in
224 limestone were 62% as Fe^{2+} and 38% as Fe^{3+} , whereas Fe in dicalcium phosphate were 100%
225 Fe^{3+} . Limestone utilized in animal feeds is obtained by mining and is minimally processed prior
226 to marketing (Despotou et al., 2016), whereas dicalcium phosphate is produced through
227 reacting mixtures of phosphoric acid and limestone (Lima et al., 1995). In the present study,
228 limestone and dicalcium phosphate were evaluated altogether as a source of Fe because of their
229 similar chemical origin as well as because, in practical terms, they are the usual sources used
230 to supplement Ca and P in broiler diets.

231 Non-heme Fe is absorbed by the DMT1 system which carries only Fe^{2+} (Andrews et
232 al., 2002). On the other hand, the actual oxidative state of Fe is dependent on the availability
233 of oxygen in its surrounding environment. Therefore, the existing pH after feed intake is
234 determinant in affecting the oxidation state when Fe is at the intestinal brush border. After feed
235 entrance into the gastrointestinal tract, it is quickly presented into environments having very
236 low pH in the gizzard-pro ventriculus, remaining in contact with hydrochloric acid from 30 to
237 60 minutes (Van der Klis et al., 1990; Dänicke et al., 1999). Because the digesta exiting the pro
238 ventriculus is highly acidic, a soluble Fe^{2+} is expected to be dominant. However, Fe absorption
239 occurs at the upper portion of small intestine (Sharp and Srari, 2007) where an immediate
240 buffering in the duodenal lumen brings the pH close to neutrality (Singh et al., 2014). This
241 quick transition to duodenal neutrality would maintain the Fe^{3+} state (McKie et al., 2001). The
242 existing duodenal cytochrome B (Dcytb) system at the brush-border of duodenal enterocytes
243 can reduce Fe^{3+} , however, at lower rates when compared to Fe^{2+} (Frazer and Anderson, 2001).

244 It is widely known that the overall absorption of Fe is low throughout the domestic
245 animal species (Bao et al., 2007; Nollet et al., 2008; Faria et al., 2020). Absorption is the sole
246 mechanism in healthy animals by which Fe stores can be regulated since there is no
247 physiological means for its excretion. A reduction in the percentage of ileal digestible Fe in the
248 present study was observed as limestone and dicalcium phosphate were gradually included in
249 the diets. The utilization of Fe from feedstuffs may be better understood when retention, instead
250 of digestibility, is considered since the stores of body Fe control the rate at which Fe is taken
251 from the feed. Even the more favorable forms of utilization, as in heme or Fe²⁺, have reduced
252 rates of absorption in humans when the system is saturated (Ludwiczek et al., 2004). The body
253 balance of Fe is done through the communication among the sites of absorption, utilization and
254 storage, and this communication is mediated by hepcidin (Pigeon et al., 2001). In the present
255 study, and increased net retention of Fe per bird was observed as dietary Fe increased.
256 However, the rate of retention was very low either when related to the total Fe consumed (1,0%,
257 Figure 1) as when it was related to the increase in Fe originated exclusively from limestone
258 and dicalcium phosphate (1.9%, Figure 2). To the authors knowledge, the utilization of Fe from
259 limestone and phosphates have never been demonstrated or, as well, have had a proposed
260 utilization by poultry that would reduce the need for supplemental Fe in premixes.

261 In the present study, there were no differences for Ht and Hb at 28 days. Feijó et al.
262 (2023) observed that broilers fed diets supplemented with Fe sulfate had Ht and Hb increasing,
263 regardless of the dietary content until d 21, then stabilizing afterwards to 28 d. Absorbed Fe is
264 minimally lost in healthy birds, and, therefore, Fe accumulated to day 21 may have reached the
265 maximum capacity to produce red blood cells. Several reports found no difference for Ht and
266 Hb between diets with different Fe contents exceeding 50 mg/kg Fe, which, therefore, seems
267 to be an indication of an adequate dietary level for poultry (Liao et al., 2017; Lin et al., 2020;
268 Abdel-Rahman et al., 2022).

269 Ferritin is a non-toxic Fe storage complex that allows Fe to be available when needed by
270 the organism and it is also the main parameter for evaluating Fe status in humans (Orino and
271 Watanabe, 2008; Miller, 2013). In the present research, serum ferritin increased as limestone
272 and dicalcium phosphate was added in the diets. In the present research, 223.7 mg/kg of dietary
273 Fe led to 158 ng/ml ferritin, which was linearly translated into an increase in ferritin of 7.0
274 ng/ml for every 100 mg/kg Fe originated from limestone and dicalcium phosphate (Figure 3).
275 Some authors have highlighted that increased values tend to signal adequate sensitivity of
276 ferritin to Fe in broiler diets (Bai et al, 2021; Abdel-Rahman et al., 2022, Hu et al., 2022).

277 A reference minimal value for ferritin that has been established as a reference for adequate
278 dietetic Fe in humans is at or above 30 ng/ml (Guyatt et al., 1992; Munoz et al., 2009), whereas
279 excess ferritin denotes excessive absorption, as usually due in hemochromatosis (Fleming and
280 Sly, 2002). No reference exists for a minimal ferritin blood content in chickens; however, from
281 the present study it can be concluded that 146 ng/mL, as similarly obtained in the present study
282 and as indicated by Feijo et al. (2023), is an adequate value to optimize broiler growth.
283 According to the present results, the sensitivity of serum ferritin to dietary Fe is corroborated
284 by investigations conducted with pigs, rats, and humans (Smith et al., 1984, Yun et al., 2011,
285 Gondolf et al., 2013). In the present research, there were differences among treatments in the
286 total contents of Fe in livers. Increased hepatic ferritin expression suggests that this is the major
287 storage protein of Fe (Basclain et al., 1998) and, therefore, the parallel increases of ferritin and
288 liver Fe are expected. It seems that an upper limit for Fe storage in the liver is out of range in
289 commercial type diets (Ma et al., 2016; Akter et al., 2017; Han et al., 2022).

290 Commercial type broiler diets formulated without animal protein need to include sources
291 of Ca and P to obtain an adequate balance for these minerals. This is mostly done by adding
292 limestone and dicalcium phosphate in feeds. Both mineral sources have high contents of Fe
293 which, however, contrasts with their low digestibility and retention. In practical term, Fe from

294 these sources seem not to be needed since Fe present in corn and SBM (57.6 mg/kg) allows
295 maximum live performance. Increases in serum ferritin and liver Fe contents are indicators of
296 Fe status but also indicators of absorbed Fe that are in excess for use in animal metabolism. In
297 the present study, rates of increase in ferritin and liver Fe of 7% and 7.5%, respectively, were
298 found for those indicators.

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DISCLOSURES

305 All authors declare that they have no conflict of interest or personal relationships that could
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486 **Table 1.** Ingredient and nutrient composition with graded increases of Fe.

Item	Fe deficient diet		Starter (mg/kg)				
	1 to 7 d	55.5	88.5	121.5	154.5	187.5	221.5
Ingredient, % ¹							
Corn, 7.8 CP	50.08	50.79	51.09	51.40	51.70	51.98	52.27
Soybean meal, 46 CP	41.03	38.56	38.51	38.46	38.40	38.35	38.30
Soybean oil	3.49	4.44	4.33	4.23	4.13	4.03	3.93
Calcium carbonate	2.53	2.42	1.93	1.45	0.96	0.48	-
Phosphoric acid	1.52	1.45	1.16	0.87	0.57	0.29	-
Limestone	-	-	0.21	0.42	0.63	0.84	1.07
Dicalcium phosphate	-	-	0.42	0.85	1.27	1.67	2.09
Common salt	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.47	0.47
DL-Methionine, 99%	0.34	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.32
L-Lysine HCl, 76%	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.17	0.18
L-Threonine, 98.5%	0.09	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08	0.08
Choline chloride	0.04	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06	0.06
Vitamin and mineral mix ²	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.23	0.23
Celite (indigestible marker)	-	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Total	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0	100.0
Energy and nutrients, % or as noted ³							
AME _n , kcal/kg	2,950	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000	3,000
Crude Protein	22.9	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9	21.9
Ca	1.05	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00	1.00
Available P	0.50	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48	0.48
Total P	0.80	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77	0.77
Na	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20	0.20
Choline, mg/kg	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600	1,600
Dig. Lys	1.28	1.22	1.22	1.22	1.22	1.22	1.22
Dig. TSAA	0.96	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.92	0.92
Dig. Thr	0.83	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79	0.79
Dig. Val	0.97	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93	0.93
Fe, mg/kg ⁴	57.6 (58.2 ± 2.4)	55.5	88.5	121.5	154.5	187.5	220.5

487 ¹Calcium carbonate, acid phosphoric, limestone and dicalcium phosphate had 9.2, 2.8, 7,218 and 4,783 mg/kg Fe,
488 respectively).

489 ²Composition per kilogram of feed: vitamin A, 12,000 IU; vitamin D₃, 3,000 IU; vitamin C, 50 mg; vitamin E,
490 100 IU; vitamin K₃, 6 mg; vitamin B12, 35 µg; thiamin, 3 mg; riboflavin, 15 mg; vitamin B6, 6 mg; niacin, 40
491 mg; pantothenic acid, 25 mg; folic acid, 4 mg; biotin, 0.3 mg; Zn, 100 mg; Mn, 100 mg; Cu, 15 mg; Se, 0.45 mg
492 and I, 2 mg.

493 ³Analyzed values are within parentheses.

494 ⁴Analyzed Fe in the starter feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1, 92.0 ± 2.3, 124.1 ± 2.7, 159.3 ± 3.1, 187.2 ± 3.2, 223.7 ± 3.6
495 mg/kg.

496 **Table 2.** Growth performance of broilers as affected by feeds graded increases of Fe¹.

Fe, mg/kg ²	8 to 14 d			15 to 21 d			22 to 28 d			8 to 28 d		
	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g	BWG, g	FCR	FI, g
55.5	320	1.188	381	575	1.385	795	644	1.422	914	1,540	1.358	2,090
88.5	329	1.189	391	553	1.395	771	652	1.439	938	1,535	1.368	2,100
121.5	316	1.190	376	555	1.392	772	650	1.421	921	1,521	1.360	2,069
154.5	323	1.182	381	556	1.376	764	650	1.440	937	1,528	1.362	2,082
187.5	320	1.183	377	568	1.376	782	642	1.417	910	1,530	1.352	2,069
220.5	322	1.180	380	575	1.390	799	647	1.441	928	1,544	1.363	2,108
SEM	3.457	0.005	3.946	4.503	0.006	5.568	5.941	0.007	7.982	7.098	0.004	10.106
<i>Probability</i> <	0.9413	0.9952	0.9147	0.5223	0.8977	0.3692	0.9971	0.8949	0.8916	0.9582	0.8854	0.8487

497 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences ($P \leq 0.05$).498 ¹BWG = body weight gain; FCR = feed conversion ratio corrected for the weight of dead birds; FI = feed intake.499 ²Analyzed Fe in the feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1 , 92.0 ± 2.3 , 124.1 ± 2.7 , 159.3 ± 3.1 , 187.2 ± 3.2 , 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg.

500 **Table 3.** Apparent ileal digestibility of Fe and retention responses of broilers as affected by
 501 increased dietary Fe, on dry matter (DM) basis.

Fe, mg/kg ¹	Ileal digestibility	Intake	Excretion	Fe retained
	Fe, %	Fe, mg/bird		mg/bird
55.5	11.32 ^a	31.88 ^f	27.54 ^f	4.34 ^b
88.5	8.29 ^b	51.41 ^e	46.38 ^e	5.03 ^{ab}
121.5	6.74 ^c	67.89 ^d	62.39 ^d	5.50 ^{ab}
154.5	5.43 ^{cd}	84.90 ^c	79.34 ^c	5.56 ^{ab}
187.5	4.53 ^{de}	103.64 ^b	97.67 ^b	5.97 ^a
220.5	3.25 ^e	125.54 ^a	119.48 ^a	6.06 ^a
SEM	0.341	3.774	3.704	0.143
<i>Probability</i> <	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.0030

502 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (P < 0.05).

503 ¹Analyzed Fe in the feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1, 92.0 ± 2.3, 124.1 ± 2.7, 159.3 ± 3.1, 187.2 ± 3.2, 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg.

504 ²Ileal digestible Fe (%), intake, excretion, and retention of Fe (mg/bird), respectively: Y = 13.0788 - 0.0461x, R²
 505 = 0.8140, P < 0.001; Y = - 4.8589 + 0.5474x, R² = 0.9717, P<0.001; Y = - 0.8489 + 0.5573x, R² = 0.9701, P <
 506 0.001; Y = 4.0101 + 0.0099x, R² = 0.2142, P < 0.001, X = dietary Fe content.

507 **Table 4.** Blood parameters and fresh liver Fe concentration of broilers as affected by increased
 508 dietary Fe¹.

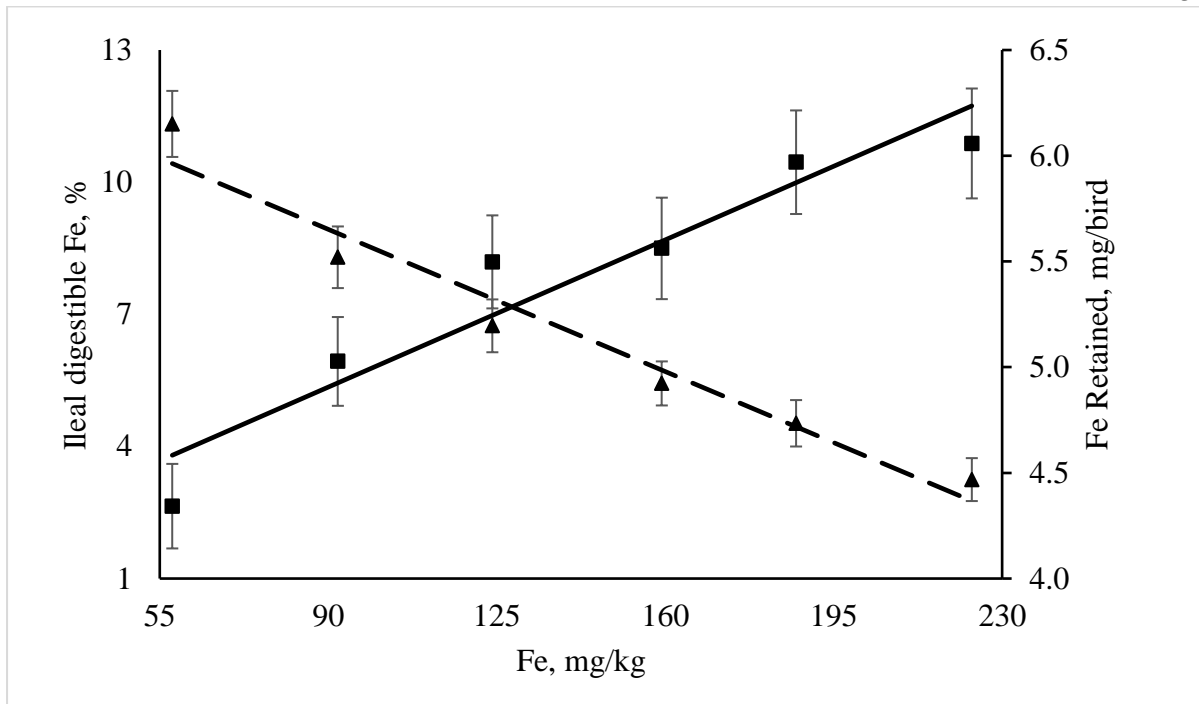
Fe, mg/kg ²	Ht, %	Hb, g/dL	Ferritin, ng/mL	Fresh liver, mg/kg
55.5	31.2	10.8	146 ^c	114.6 ^d
88.5	31.2	10.7	151 ^{bc}	117.0 ^{cd}
121.5	31.5	10.8	152 ^b	120.3 ^{bc}
154.5	31.3	10.9	153 ^{ab}	123.1 ^{ab}
187.5	31.4	10.7	155 ^{ab}	125.1 ^a
220.5	31.3	10.7	158 ^a	126.5 ^a
SEM	0.180	0.071	0.769	0.627
<i>Probability</i> <	0.9981	0.9386	<0.0001	<0.0001

509 ^{a>b} Means with different letters in the same column indicate significant differences (P < 0.05).

510 ¹Birds (n=20) had hematocrit (Ht), hemoglobin (Hb) and ferritin values as follow: 26.2 ± 1.6%, 8.8 ± 0.5 g/dL
 511 and 121 ± 5.2 ng/mL, respectively.

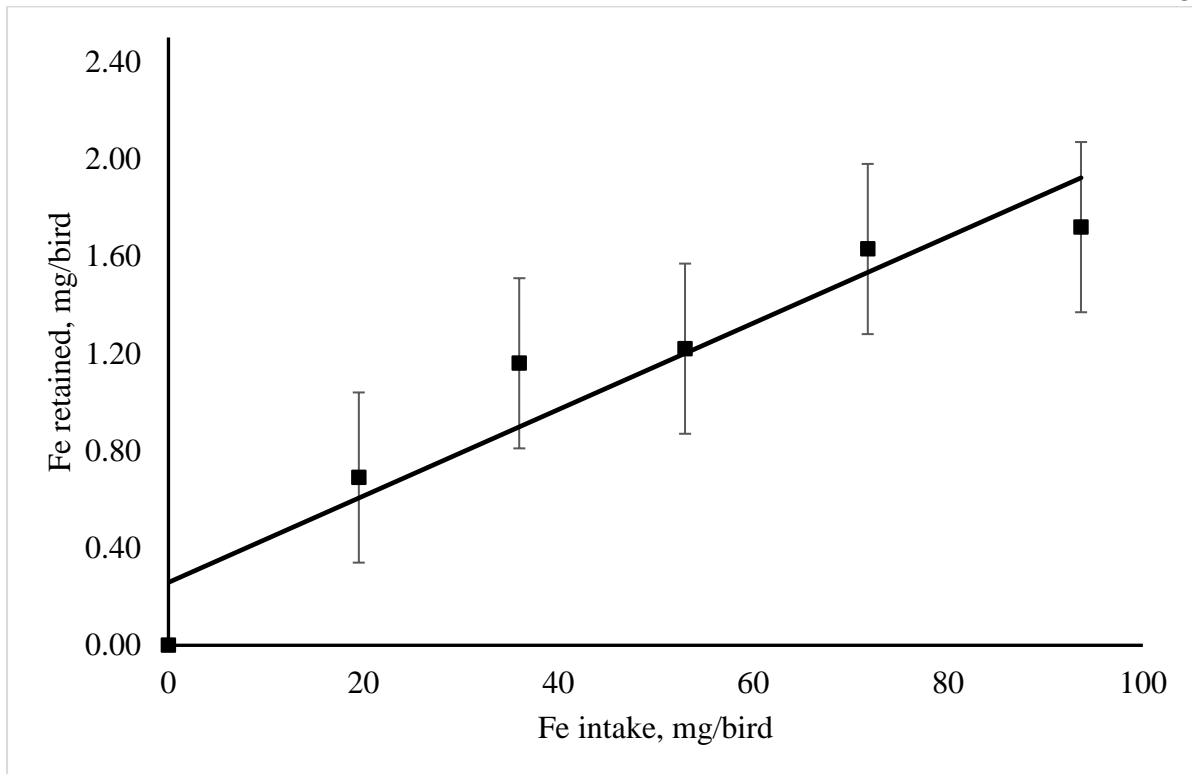
512 ²Analyzed Fe in the feeds were 57.6 ± 2.1, 92.0 ± 2.3, 124.1 ± 2.7, 159.3 ± 3.1, 187.2 ± 3.2, 223.7 ± 3.6 mg/kg.

513 ³Ferritin and Fe content in the liver at 28 d, respectively: Y = 142.8394 + 0.0702x, R² = 0.3699, P < 0.001; Y=
 514 110.5263 + 0.0752x, R² = 0.6390, P < 0.001, X = dietary Fe content.



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Fig. 1. Apparent ileal digestibility of Fe (triangle, long dash line) and Fe retained (solid squares, solid line) associated with total dietary Fe: $Y = 13.0788 - 0.0461x$, $R^2 = 0.8140$, $P < 0.001$ and $Y = 4.0101 + 0.0099x$, $R^2 = 0.2142$, $P < 0.001$, respectively.



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Fig. 2. Fe retained associated only with the intake of Fe from limestone and dicalcium phosphate (solid squares, solid line): $Y = 0.1974 + 0.0190x$, $R^2 = 0.2625$, $P < 0.001$.

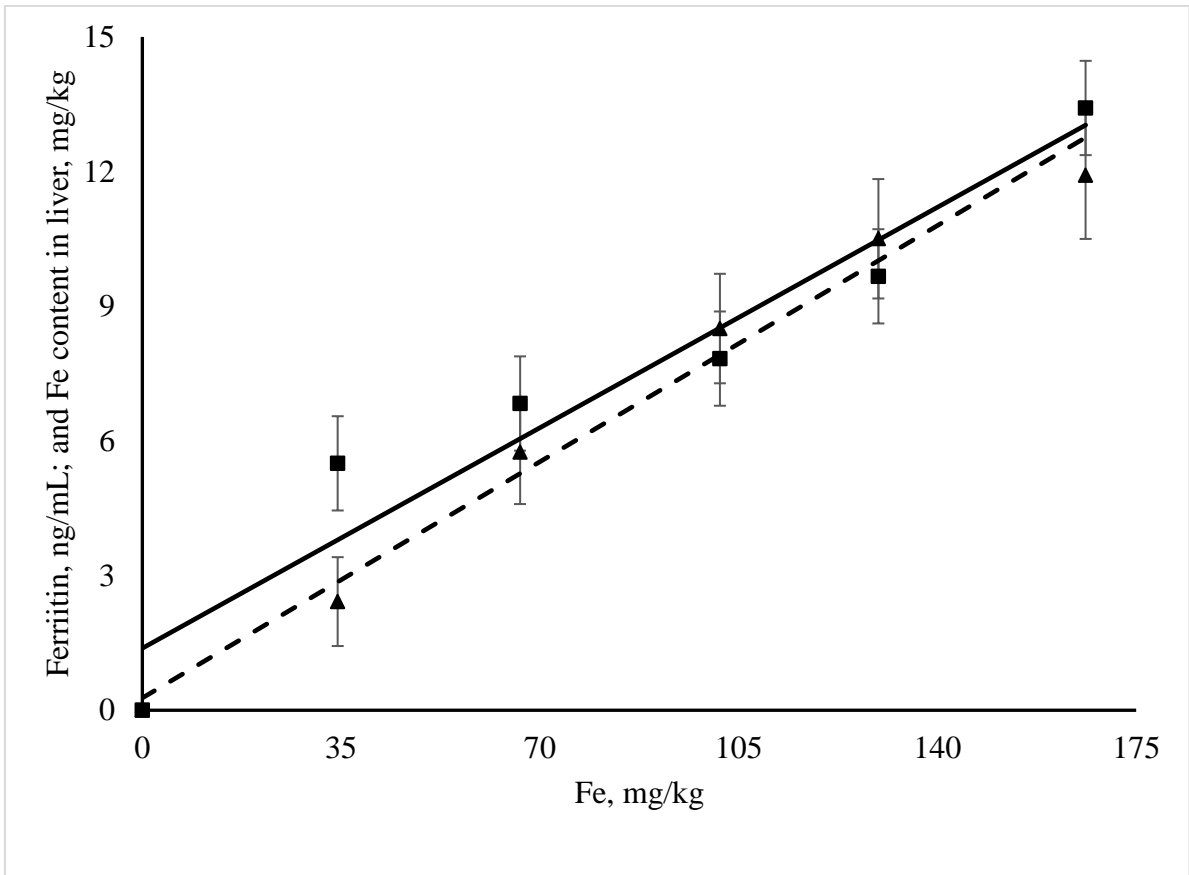


Fig. 3 Ferritin (solid squares, solid line) and Fe content in the liver (triangle, long dash line) associated with Fe only from limestone and dicalcium phosphate: $Y = 1.3810 + 0.0702x$, $R^2 = 46.19$, $P < 0.001$; and $Y = 0.2735 + 0.0752x$ $R^2 = 70.22$, $P < 0.001$, respectively.

CAPÍTULO IV

CONSIDERAÇÕES FINAIS

O estudo demonstrou que suplementação de fitase promove melhorias no crescimento dos frangos de corte, que não foram relacionadas com aumentos na disponibilidade de P e Ca. Na presente pesquisa ficou evidente que a fitase promove melhorias na digestibilidade de Fe.

A isenção do Fe do milho e da soja leva a uma correlação linear com o Fe à medida que calcário e fosfato bicálcico são adicionados à dieta. Esses ingredientes, possuem grandes quantidades de Fe, no entanto esse micromineral se encontra de uma forma menos disponível, o que contrasta com sua baixa taxa de retenção, em torno de 1,90%.

Aumentos na suplementação de Fe de origem do sulfato ferroso heptahidrato, assim como do calcário e fosfato bicálcico para níveis que excedam a oferta total deste mineral em dietas comerciais não levaram a benefícios no desempenho vivo; no entanto, os parâmetros sanguíneos e conteúdo de Fe no fígado foram afetados positivamente a medida que o houve aumento no Fe retido.

Frangos alimentados com rações base de milho e farelo de soja não necessitam de suplementação de Fe em pré-misturas. O excesso de Fe nas dietas acarreta em aumento de Fe nas excretas, o que pode levar ao aumento da disposição deste mineral no meio ambiente.

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APÊNDICES

Apêndice 1. Instruções para publicação na revista Journal Animal Science.

Instructions to Authors

Journal of Animal Science (JAS) publishes original research articles and invited review articles.

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All manuscripts submitted to the Journal must be double-spaced, 12-point Times New Roman font with 1 inch margin all around. Consecutive line and page numbers are required. Greek letters and special symbol are inserted using the symbol palette. Math equations are created with MathType or LaTeX. The layout of the Journal is compatible with the OUP LaTeX template. More information can be found [here](#).

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3. Full names (given name, middle initial, family name) of all authors
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5. Department, city, state, country, and postal code (Please note: the country must be listed for each affiliation)
6. Acknowledgements of consortia, grants, experiment station, or journal series number are given as a numerical footnote to the title

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A single paragraph of no more than 2,500 keystrokes (characters plus spaces) that summarizes the results in an understandable form using statistical evidence (*P*-values). Abbreviations are defined at first use in the ABSTRACT and again in the body of the manuscript.

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List up to 6 words in alphabetical order and separated by a comma. Capitalize only proper nouns. Do NOT use abbreviations. Place at the end of the ABSTRACT.

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A comprehensive list of all abbreviations used in the manuscript and their definition can be found in the Excel spreadsheet. An example format is MRF, myogenic regulatory factor. The List should not contain standard JAS Abbreviations, diets or treatment descriptions. Abbreviations must be defined at first use in the manuscript text but not in tables and figures unless unique.

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Plural abbreviations do not contain a final "s" because the context of an abbreviation implies whether it is singular or plural. Use of the standard 3-letter abbreviations for amino acids (e.g., Ala) is acceptable in JAS. Use of the internationally recognized chemical symbols for chemical elements (e.g., P and S) is acceptable in JAS. Except for N (not italicized), which is the recognized abbreviation for nitrogen and newton (unit of force), chemical symbols for elements are reserved for elements (e.g., C is for carbon and never for control).

Introduction

A clear justification for conducting the research with a stated hypothesis and objective(s) is required. The rationale for the experiments should place the work into the context of existing literature. There is NO word limit on the section but brevity is encouraged.

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The manuscript must include a statement of institutional animal care and use committee (IACUC), or country-specific equivalent, approval of all animal procedures. The *IACUC statement should appear as the first item in MATERIALS AND METHODS* and should specify which publicly available animal care and use standards were followed. A clear description of all biological, analytical and statistical procedures is required with each section denoted by a short descriptive title (i.e., Animals and

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Experimental results are presented in tables and figures. The results should contain sufficient detail to allow the reader to interpret the data. Quantitative measures of significance (P -values) should be presented. Authors may use either absolute P -values or a defined significance level as long as usage is consistent.

Discussion

The section contains the interpretation of the results. It should be clear and concise, address the biological mechanisms and their significance, and integrate the results into existing literature. The Discussion may offer an interpretation that is consistent with the data. Do NOT include any reference to tables and figures or include P -values in the Discussion. Authors have the option to create a single RESULTS AND DISCUSSION section.

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Journal articles

Perez, V. G., A. M. Waguespark, T. D. Bidner, L. L. Southern, T. M. Fakler, T. L. Ward, M. Steidinger, and J. E. Pettigrew. 2011. Additivity of effects from dietary copper and zinc on growth performance and fecal microbiota of pigs after weaning. *J. Anim. Sci.* 89:414–425. doi:10.2527/jas.2010-2839.

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- Usual assumptions are that errors in the statistical models are normally and independently distributed with constant variance. Most standard methods are robust to deviations from these assumptions, but occasionally data transformations or other techniques are helpful. For example, it is recommended that percentage data between 0 and 20 and between 80 and 100 be subjected to arc sin transformation prior to analysis. Most statistical procedures are based on the assumption that experimental units have been assigned to treatments at random. If animals are stratified by ancestry or weight or if some other initial measurement should be accounted for, they should include a blocking factor, or the initial measurement should be included as a covariate.
- A parameter [mean (μ), variance (σ^2)], which defines or describes a population, is estimated by a statistic (\bar{x} , s^2). The term parameter is not appropriate to describe a variable, observation, trait, characteristic, or measurement taken in an experiment.
- Standard designs are adequately described by name and size (e.g., "a randomized complete block design with 6 treatments in 5 blocks"). For a factorial set of treatments, an adequate description might be as follows: "Total sulfur amino acids at 0.70 or 0.80% of the diet and Lys at 1.10, 1.20, or 1.30% of the diet were used in a 2 x 3 factorial arrangement in 5 randomized complete blocks consisting of initial BW." Note that a factorial arrangement is not a design; the term "design" refers to the method of grouping experimental units into homogeneous groups or blocks (i.e., the way in which the randomization is restricted).
- Standard deviation refers to the variability in a sample or a population. The standard error (calculated from error variance) is the estimated sampling error of a statistic such as the sample mean. When a standard deviation or standard error is given, the number of degrees of freedom on which it rests should be specified. When any statistical value (as mean or difference of 2 means) is mentioned, its standard error or confidence limit should be given. The fact that differences are not "statistically significant" is no reason for omitting standard errors. They are of value when results from several experiments are combined in the future. They also are useful to the reader as measures of efficiency of experimental techniques. A value attached by " \pm " to a number implies that the second value is its standard error (not its standard deviation). Adequate reporting may require only 1) the number of observations, 2) arithmetic treatment means, and 3) an estimate of experimental error. The pooled standard error of the mean is the preferred estimate of experimental error. Standard errors need not be presented separately for each mean unless the means are based on different numbers of observations or the heterogeneity of the error variance is to be emphasized. Presenting individual standard

errors clutters the presentation and can mislead readers.

- For more complex experiments, tables of subclass means and tables of analyses of variance or covariance may be included. When the analysis of variance contains several error terms, such as in split-plot and repeated measures designs, the text should indicate clearly which mean square was used for the denominator of each F statistic. Unbalanced factorial data can present special problems. Accordingly, it is well to state how the computing was done and how the parameters were estimated. Approximations should be accompanied by cautions concerning possible biases.

- Contrasts (preferably orthogonal) are used to answer specific questions for which the experiment was designed; they should form the basis for comparing treatment means. Nonorthogonal contrasts may be evaluated by Bonferroni t statistics. The exact contrasts tested should be described for the reader. Multiple-range tests are not appropriate when treatments are orthogonally arranged. Fixed-range, pairwise, multiple-comparison tests should be used only to compare means of treatments that are unstructured or not related. Least squares means are the correct means to use for all data, but arithmetic means are identical to least squares means unless the design is unbalanced or contains missing values or an adjustment is being made for a covariate. In factorial treatment arrangements, means for main effects should be presented when important interactions are not present. However, means for individual treatment combinations also should be provided in table or text so that future researchers may combine data from several experiments to detect important interactions. An interaction may not be detected in a given experiment because of a limitation in the number of observations.

- The terms significant and highly significant traditionally have been reserved for $P < 0.05$ and $P < 0.01$, respectively; however, reporting the P-value is preferred to the use of these terms. For example, use ". . . there was a difference ($P < 0.05$) between control and treated samples" rather than ". . . there was a significant ($P < 0.05$) difference between control and treated samples." When available, the observed significance level (e.g., $P = 0.027$) should be presented rather than merely $P < 0.05$ or $P < 0.01$, thereby allowing the reader to decide what to reject. Other probability (α) levels may be discussed if properly qualified so that the reader is not misled. Do not report P-values to more than 3 places after the decimal. Regardless of the probability level used, failure to reject a hypothesis should be based on the relative consequences of type I and II errors. A "nonsignificant" relationship should not be interpreted to suggest the absence of a relationship. An inadequate number of experimental units or insufficient control of variation limits the power to detect relationships. Avoid the ambiguous use of $P > 0.05$ to declare nonsignificance, such as indicating that a difference is not significant at $P > 0.05$ and subsequently declaring another difference significant (or a tendency) at $P < 0.09$. In addition, readers may incorrectly interpret the use of $P > 0.05$ as the probability of a β error, not an α error.

- Present only meaningful digits. A practical rule is to round values so that the change caused by rounding is less than one-tenth of the standard error. Such rounding increases the variance of the reported value by less than 1%, so that less than 1% of the relevant information contained in the data is sacrificed. Significant digits in data reported should be restricted to 3 beyond the decimal point, unless warranted by the use of specific methods.

Results and discussion

Results and Discussion sections may be combined, or they may appear in separate sections. If separate, the Results section shall contain only the results and summary of the author's experiments; there should be no literature comparisons. Those comparisons should appear in the Discussion section. Manuscripts reporting sequence data must have GenBank accession numbers prior to submitting. One of the hallmarks for experimental evidence is repeatability. Care should be taken to ensure that experiments are adequately replicated. The results of experiments must be replicated, either by replicating treatments within experiments or by repeating experiments.

Acknowledgements

An Acknowledgments section, if desired, shall follow the Discussion section. Acknowledgments of individuals should include affiliations but not titles, such as Dr., Mr., or Ms. Affiliations shall include institution, city, and state.

REFERENCES

Citations in text

In the body of the manuscript, refer to authors as follows: Smith and Jones (1992) or Smith and Jones (1990, 1992). If the sentence structure requires that the authors' names be included in parentheses, the proper format is (Smith and Jones, 1982; Jones, 1988a,b; Jones et al., 1993). Where there are more than two authors of one article, the first author's name is followed by the abbreviation et al. More than one article listed in the same sentence of text must be in chronological order first, and alphabetical order for two publications in the same year. Work that has not been accepted for publication shall be listed in the text as: "J. E. Jones (institution, city, and state, personal communication)." The author's own unpublished work should be listed in the text as "(J. Smith, unpublished data)." Personal communications and unpublished data must not be included in the References section.

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To be listed in the References section, papers must be published or accepted for publication. Manuscripts submitted for publication can be cited as "personal communication" or "unpublished data" in the text.

In the References section, references shall first be listed alphabetically by author(s) last name(s), and then chronologically. The year of publication follows the authors' names. As with text citations, two or more publications by the same author or set of authors in the same year shall be differentiated by adding lowercase letters after the date. The dates for papers with the same first author that would be abbreviated in the text as et al., even though the second and subsequent authors differ, shall also be differentiated by letters. All authors' names must appear in the Reference section. Journals shall be abbreviated according to the conventional ISO abbreviations given in journals database of the National Library of Medicine. One-word titles must be spelled out. Inclusive page numbers must be provided. Sample references are given below. Consult recent issues of Poultry Science for examples not included below.

N.B. - The online version of Poultry Science uses a reference format that differs from that prescribed by the journal. The Guide for Authors is the sole source for the reference format. Any papers that do not follow this format risk rejection.

Article:

Bagley, L. G., and V. L. Christensen. 1991. Hatchability and physiology of turkey embryos incubated at sea level with increased eggshell permeability. *Poult. Sci.* 70:1412-1418.

Bagley, L. G., V. L. Christensen, and R. P. Gildersleeve. 1990. Hematological indices of turkey embryos incubated at high altitude as affected by oxygen and shell permeability. *Poult. Sci.* 69:2035- 2039.

Witter, R. L., and I. M. Gimeno. 2006. Susceptibility of adult chickens, with and without prior vaccination, to challenge with Marek's disease virus. *Avian Dis.* 50:354-365. doi:10.1637/7498-010306R.1

Book:

Metcalfe, J., M. K. Stock, and R. L. Ingermann. 1984. The effects of oxygen on growth and development of the chick embryo. Pages 205- 219 in *Respiration and Metabolism of Embryonic Vertebrates*. R. S. Seymour, ed. Dr. W. Junk, Dordrecht, the Netherlands.

National Research Council. 1994. *Nutrient Requirements of Poultry*. 9th rev. ed. Natl. Acad. Press, Washington, DC.

Federal Register:

Department of Agriculture, Plant and Animal Health Inspection Service. 2004. Blood and tissue collection at slaughtering and rendering establishments, final rule. 9CFR part 71. *Fed. Regis.* 69:10137-10151.

Other:

Choct, M., and R. J. Hughes. 1996. Long-chain hydrocarbons as a marker for digestibility studies in poultry. *Proc. Aust. Poult. Sci. Symp.* 8:186. (Abstr.)

Dyro, F. M. 2005. Arsenic. WebMD. Accessed Feb. 2006. <http://www.emedicine.com/neuro/topic20.htm>.

El Halawani, M. E., and I. Rosenboim. 2004. Method to enhance reproductive performance in poultry. Univ. Minnesota, as- signee. US Pat. No. 6,766,767.

Hruby, M., J. C. Remus, and E. E. M. Pierson. 2004. Nutritional strategies to meet the challenge of feeding poultry without antibiotic growth promotants. *Proc. 2nd Mid-Atlantic Nutr. Conf.*, Timonium, MD. Univ. Maryland, College Park.

Luzuriaga, D. A. 1999. Application of computer vision and electronic nose technologies for quality assessment of color and odor of shrimp and salmon. PhD Diss. Univ. Florida, Gainesville.

Peak, S. D., and J. Brake. 2000. The influence of feeding program on broiler breeder male mortality. *Poult. Sci.* 79(Suppl. 1):2. (Abstr.)

TABLES

Tables must be created using the MS Word table feature and inserted in the manuscript after the references section. When possible, tables should be organized to fit across the page without running broadside. Be aware of the dimensions of the printed page when planning tables (use of more than 15 columns will create layout problems). Place the table number and title on the same line above the table. The table title does not require a period. Do not use vertical lines and use few horizontal lines. Use of bold and italic typefaces in the table should be done sparingly; you must define such use in a footnote. Each table must be on a separate page. To facilitate placement of all tables into the manuscript file (just after the references) authors should use "section breaks" rather than "page breaks" at the end of the manuscript (before the tables) and between tables.

Units of measure for each variable must be indicated. Papers with several tables must use consistent format. All columns must have appropriate headings. Abbreviations not found on the inside front cover of the journal must be defined in each table and must match those used in the text. Footnotes to tables should be marked by superscript numbers. Each footnote should begin a new line. Superscript letters shall be used for the separation of means in the body of the table and explanatory footnotes must be provided [i.e., "Means within a row lacking a common superscript differ ($P < 0.05$)."]; other significant P-values may be specified. Comparison of means within rows and columns should be indicated by different series of superscripts (e.g., a,b,... in rows; x-z ... in columns) The first alphabetical letter in the series (e.g., a or A) shall be used to indicate the largest mean. Lowercase super- scripts indicate $P \leq 0.05$. Uppercase letters indicate $P \leq 0.01$ or less.

Probability values may be indicated as follows: * $P \leq 0.05$, ** $P \leq 0.01$, *** $P \leq 0.001$, and † $P \leq 0.10$. Consult a recent issue of Poultry Science for examples of tables.

Generally, results should be presented to the significant figure of the instrument used to collect the data. For example, results should not be presented to 5 digits when the instrument used only reads to 2 digits.

MISCELLANEOUS USAGE NOTES

Abbreviations

- Abbreviations shall not be used in the title, key words, or to begin sentences, except when they are widely known throughout science (e.g., DNA, RNA) or are terms better known by abbreviation (e.g., IgG, CD). A helpful criterion for use of abbreviation is whether it has been accepted into thesauri and indexes widely used for searching major bibliographic databases in the scientific field. Abbreviations may be used in heads within the paper, if they have been first defined within the text. The inside back cover of every issue of the journal lists abbreviations that can be used without

definition. The list is subject to revision at any time, so authors should always consult the most recent issue of the journal for relevant information. Abbreviations are allowed when they help the flow of the manuscript; however, excessive use of abbreviations can confuse the reader. The suitability of abbreviations will be evaluated by the reviewers and editors during the review process and by the technical editor during editing. As a rule, author-derived abbreviations should be in all capital letters. Terms used less than three times must be spelled out in full rather than abbreviated. All terms are to be spelled out in full with the abbreviation following in bold type in parentheses the first time they are mentioned in the main body of the text. Abbreviations shall be used consistently thereafter, rather than the full term.

- The abstract, text, each table, and each figure must be understood independently of each other. Therefore, abbreviations shall be defined within each of these units of the manuscript.

- Plural abbreviations do not require "s." Chemical symbols and three-letter abbreviations for amino acids do not need definition. Units of measure, except those in the standard Poultry Science abbreviation list, should be abbreviated as listed in the CRC Handbook for Chemistry and Physics (CRC Press, 2000 Corporate Blvd., Boca Raton, FL, 33431) and do not need to be defined.

- The following abbreviations may be used without definition in Poultry Science:

A adenine
 ADG average daily gain
 ADFI average daily feed
 AME apparent metabolizable energy
 AMEn nitrogen-corrected apparent metabolizable energy
 ANOVA analysis of variance
 B cell bursal-derived, bursal-equivalent derived cell bp base pairs
 BSA bovine serum albumin
 BW body weight
 C cytosine
 cDNA complementary DNA
 cfu colony-forming units
 CI confidence interval
 CP crude protein
 cpm counts per minute
 CV coefficient of variation
 d day
 df degrees of freedom
 DM dry matter
 DNA deoxyribonucleic acid
 EDTA ethylenediaminetetraacetate
 ELISA enzyme-linked immunosorbent antibody assay
 EST expressed sequence tag
 g gram
 g gravity
 G guanine
 GAT glutamic acid-alanine-tyrosine

GLM general linear model
h hour
HEPES N-2-hydroxyethyl piperazine-N'-ethane-sulfonic acid
HPLC high-performance (high-pressure) liquid chromatography
i.m. intramuscular
i.p. intraperitoneal
i.v. intravenous
ICU international chick units
Ig immunoglobulin
IL interleukin
IU international units
kb kilobase pairs
kDa kilodalton
L liter*
L:D hours light:hours darkness in a photoperiod (e.g., 23L:1D)
m meter
 μ micro M molar
MAS marker-assisted selection
ME metabolizable energy
ME_n nitrogen-corrected metabolizable energy
MHC major histocompatibility complex
mRNA messenger ribonucleic acid
min minute
mo month
MS mean square
n number of observations
N normal
NAD nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NADH reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide
NRC National Research Council
NS not significant
PAGE polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis
PBS phosphate-buffered saline
PCR polymerase chain reaction
pfu plaque-forming units
ppm parts per million
QTL quantitative trait loci
r correlation coefficient
r² coefficient of determination, simple
R² coefficient of determination, multiple
RH relative humidity
RIA radioimmunoassay
RNA ribonucleic acid
rpm revolutions per minute
s second
s.c. subcutaneous
SD standard deviation
SDS sodium dodecyl sulphate
SE standard error
SEM standard error of the mean

SRBC sheep red blood cells
 SNP single nucleotide polymorphism
 T thymine
 TBA thiobarbituric acid
 T cell thymic-derived cell
 TME true metabolizable energy
 TME_n nitrogen-corrected true metabolizable energy
 Tris tris(hydroxymethyl)aminomethane
 TSAA total sulfur amino acids
 U uridine
 USDA United States Department of Agriculture
 UV ultraviolet
 vol/vol volume to volume
 vs. versus
 wt/vol weight to volume
 wt/wt weight to weight
 wk week
 yr year
 *Also capitalized with any combination, e.g., mL.

International words and phrases

Non-English words in common usage (defined in recent editions of standard dictionaries) will not appear in italics (e.g., *in vitro*, *in vivo*, *in situ*, *a priori*). However, genus and species of plants, animals, or bacteria and viruses should be italicized. Authors must indicate accent marks and other diacriticals on international names and institutions. German nouns shall begin with capital letters.

Capitalization

Breed and variety names are to be capitalized (e.g., Single Comb White Leghorn).

Number style

Numbers less than 1 shall be written with preceding zeros (e.g., 0.75). All numbers shall be written as digits. Measures must be in the metric system; however, US equivalents may be given in parentheses. Poultry Science requires that measures of energy be given in calories rather than joules, but the equivalent in joules may be shown in parentheses or in a footnote to tables. Units of measure not preceded by numbers must be written out rather than abbreviated (e.g., lysine content was measured in milligrams per kilogram of diet) unless used parenthetically. Measures of variation must be defined in the Abstract and in the body of the paper at first use. Units of measure for feed conversion or feed efficiency shall be provided (i.e., g:g).

Nucleotide sequences

Nucleotide sequence data must relate to poultry or poultry pathogens and must complement biological data published in the same or a companion paper. If sequences are excessively long, it is suggested that the most relevant sections of the data be

published in Poultry Science and the remaining sequences be submitted to one of the sequence databases. Acceptance for publication is contingent on the submission of sequence data to one of the databases. The following statement should appear as a footnote to the title on the title page of the manuscript. "The nucleotide sequence data reported in this paper have been submitted to Embank Submission (Mail Stop K710, Los Alamos National Laboratories, Los Alamos, NM 87545) nucleotide sequence database and have been assigned the accession number XNNNNN." Publication of the description of molecular clones is assumed by the editors to place them in the public sector. Therefore, they shall be made available to other scientists for research purposes.

Nucleotide sequences must be submitted as camera-ready figures no larger than 21.6 x 27.9 cm in standard (portrait) orientation. Abbreviations should follow Poultry Science guidelines.

Gene and protein nomenclature

Authors are required to use only approved gene and protein names and symbols. For poultry, full gene names should not be italicized. Gene symbols should be in uppercase letters and should be in italics. A protein symbol should be in the same format as its gene except the protein symbol should not be in italics.

General usage

- Note that "and/or" is not permitted; choose the more appropriate meaning or use "x or y or both."
- Use the slant line only when it means "per" with numbered units of measure or "divided by" in equations. Use only one slant line in a given expression (e.g., g/d per chick). The slant line may not be used to indicate ratios or mixtures.
- Use "to" instead of a hyphen to indicate a range. Insert spaces around all signs (except slant lines) of operation (=, -, +, x, >, or <, etc.) when these signs occur between two items.
- Items in a series should be separated by commas (e.g., a, b, and c).
- Restrict the use of "while" and "since" to meanings related to time.
- Appropriate substitutes include "and," "but," or "whereas" for "while" and "because" or "although" for "since."
- Leading (initial) zeros should be used with numbers less than 1 (e.g., 0.01).
- Commas should be used in numbers greater than 999.
- Registered (®) and trademark (©) symbols should not be used, unless as part of an article title in the References section. Trademarked product names should be capitalized.

FIGURES/ILLUSTRATIONS

General points

- Submit each illustration as a separate file.
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Ensure that each illustration has a caption. Supply captions separately, not attached to the figure. A caption should comprise a brief title (not on the figure itself) and a description of the illustration. Keep text in the illustrations themselves to a minimum but explain all symbols and abbreviations used.

SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

Supplementary material such as applications, images and sound clips, can be published with your article to enhance it. Submitted supplementary items are published exactly as they are received (Excel or PowerPoint files will appear as such online). Please submit your material together with the article and supply a concise, descriptive caption for each supplementary file. If you wish to make changes to supplementary material during any stage of the process, please make sure to provide an updated file. Do not annotate any corrections on a previous version. Please switch off the 'Track Changes' option in Microsoft Office files as these will appear in the published version. Ensure that the supplementary material is referred to in the main manuscript at an appropriate point in the text. Supplementary material will be available online only and will not be copyedited, so ensure that it is clearly and succinctly presented, and that the style conforms to the rest of the paper. Also ensure that the presentation will work on any Internet browser. It is not recommended for the files to be more than 2 MB each, although exceptions can be made at the editorial office's discretion.

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Reporting sex- and gender-based analyses

Reporting guidance

For research involving or pertaining to humans, animals or eukaryotic cells, investigators should integrate sex and gender-based analyses (SGBA) into their research design according to funder/sponsor requirements and best practices within a field. Authors should address the sex and/or gender dimensions of their research in their article. In cases where they cannot, they should discuss this as a limitation to their research's generalizability. Importantly, authors should explicitly state what definitions of sex and/or gender they are applying to enhance the precision, rigor and reproducibility of their research and to avoid ambiguity or conflation of terms and the constructs to which they refer (see Definitions section below). Authors can refer to the Sex and Gender Equity in Research (SAGER) guidelines and the SAGER guidelines checklist. These offer systematic approaches to the use and editorial review of sex and gender information in study design, data analysis, outcome reporting and research interpretation - however, please note there is no single, universally agreed-upon set of guidelines for defining sex and gender.

Definitions

Sex generally refers to a set of biological attributes that are associated with physical and physiological features (e.g., chromosomal genotype, hormonal levels, internal and external anatomy). A binary sex categorization (male/female) is usually designated at birth ("sex assigned at birth"), most often based solely on the visible external anatomy of a newborn. Gender generally refers to socially constructed roles, behaviors, and identities of women, men and gender-diverse people that occur in a historical and cultural context and may vary across societies and over time. Gender influences how people view themselves and each other, how they behave and interact and how power is distributed in society. Sex and gender are often incorrectly portrayed as binary (female/male or woman/man) and unchanging whereas these constructs actually exist along a spectrum and include additional sex categorizations and gender identities such as people who are intersex/have differences of sex development (DSD) or identify as non-binary. Moreover, the terms "sex" and "gender" can be ambiguous—thus it is important for authors to define the manner in which they are used. In addition to this definition guidance and the SAGER guidelines, the resources on this page offer further insight around sex and gender in research studies.

VITA

Julmar da Costa Feijó, filho de Jorge de Souza Feijó e Carmen Neide Araújo da Costa, nasceu em Nhamundá, Amazonas, no dia 13 de novembro de 1994. cursou o ensino fundamental na Escola Municipal Pe. Zezinho Finlândia e o ensino médio na Escola Estadual Profª Eneyr Barbosa dos Santos em Nhamundá, AM. Em 2013, ingressou no curso de Zootecnia da Universidade Federal do Amazonas, Manaus, AM, obtendo o grau de Zootecnista em 2017. Iniciou, em março de 2018, o mestrado em Ciência Animal, na área de concentração em Nutrição e Produção de Não Ruminantes, na Universidade Federal do Amazonas, Manaus, AM. Obteve o título de mestre em Ciência Animal em novembro de 2019. Em abril de 2020, ingressou no curso de Doutorado em Zootecnia, área de concentração em Nutrição e Metabolismo Animal pelo Programa de Pós-Graduação em Zootecnia na Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, RS, desenvolvendo o trabalho de tese sobre a exigência e digestibilidade de ferro para frangos de corte. Submeteu-se à banca de defesa de Tese em dezembro de 2023 pela Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul em Porto Alegre, RS.