

Different sources of microbial phytase in plant based low phosphorus diets for Nile tilapia *Oreochromis niloticus* may provide different effects on phytate degradation

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Abstract

Conclusive experimental data regarding different sources of supplemented microbial phytase in tilapia feed are very scarce. An experiment was conducted using plant based diets (24.5% soybean meal; 11.5% wheat gluten; 22.5% corn; 32.5% wheat) containing graded supply (500, 750, 1000, 1250 U/kg) of microbial phytase from two different sources (experimental phytase SP 1002; Ronozyme®P). Additionally, a negative control diet (0.41% total P; 0.15% non-phytate P; no phytase added) and a positive control diet (0.88% total P; 0.62% non-phytate P; no phytase added) were examined. Apparent nutrient digestibility (0.3% titanium dioxide as marker) was measured using six sedimentation systems (0.15 m³/system) with external sedimentation column. Triplicate groups of 10 fish (average BW 110 g) fed 3 times a day and feces collection was conducted within 4 h following each feeding period. Chyme of the proximal small intestine (hepatic loop) was sampled for measuring phytate P. In a subsequent study, blood sampling was conducted from the caudal peduncle vein (triplicates from 9 fish per diet; average BW 125 g) for monitoring of inorganic P concentration in plasma at 2, 4, 8 and 12 h following the last meal. Phytase supplementation significantly improved digestibility of protein, calcium and phosphorus. Disappearance of phytate P from the hepatic loop was significantly improved due to phytase SP 1002 and the course of inorganic plasma P concentration indicated superior release of phytate P from the plant based diet under study.

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1. Introduction

Generally, replacing fish meal by plant protein sources in fish nutrition is of increasing interest (Fontainhas-Fernandes et al., 1999; Mabahinzireki et al., 2001). However, this substitution strategy may enhance the

dietary level of plant antinutritional factors like phytic acid and its salts (Denstadli et al., 2006). Approximately 70% of the total phosphorus in plant feedstuffs is present as phytate phosphorus (Lall, 1991; Eeckhout and De Paepe, 1994) and due to the absence of intestinal phytase activity (Jackson et al., 1996; Hughes and Soares, 1998) not available for fish (NRC, 1993). Furthermore, several mineral ions like calcium, magnesium, zinc, manganese, copper and iron (Papatryphon et al., 1999) as well as feed proteins (Liu et al., 1998;

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Sugiura et al., 2001) can be reduced in their bioavailability. Insolubility of phytate–protein complexes has been observed *in vitro* (Ravindran et al., 1995).

Excretion of dietary phosphorus contributes to eutrophication effects (Persson, 1991; Einen et al., 1995; Cho and Bureau, 2001) and consequently it is of special interest to achieve phytate degradation during passing through the fish gut. The native phytase activity from different feedstuffs used in fish nutrition has limited importance due to low activity in the feed ingredients and inactivation by heat treatment during feed processing. In addition, commercial phytase sources may differ in their efficiency for phytate degradation in fish (Liebert and Portz, 2005). Generally, from varying physiological conditions in species dependent digestive systems, the question arises if more adapted types of microbial phytase are needed in fish nutrition. Development of a neutral phytase with improved thermal stability (Luo et al., 2006) is an important step for better adapted phytase in fish nutrition. Insufficient adaptation of phytase characteristics to fish physiology may result in failed effects as reported for common carp (Nwanna and Schwarz, 2006).

Based on commercial sources of microbial phytase, adding between 500 and 1500 U/kg feed improved calcium and phosphorus availability, growth performance, bone mineralization and protein digestibility in tilapia (Furuya et al., 2001). Supplementing of microbial phytase at 1000 U/kg feed resulted in growth and mineral utilization similar to a plant based diet supplemented with inorganic phosphorus (Portz et al., 2003; Portz and Liebert, 2004; Liebert and Portz, 2005). Effects of different sources of microbial phytase in fish species are mostly unknown, but have been reported for tilapia (Liebert and Portz, 2005). Based on identical diets, the current study investigated phytate degradation in the gut of Nile tilapia along with corresponding inorganic blood phosphorus concentrations.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Experimental diets

Plant based diets (Table 1) were formulated according to the recommendations for tilapia (Santiago and Lovell, 1988; NRC, 1993) and according to Liebert and Portz (2005). Before final diet formulation, feed ingredients were analyzed for proximate composition, calcium, phosphorus and phytate-P content. Two sources of microbial phytase (provided by the former Roche Vitamins Ltd., Basel, Switzerland) were utilized. The experimental phytase SP1002 (phytase A) is a *Consensus* phytase produced by a genetically modified strain of the yeast

Table 1
Composition (%; as-fed basis) of the basal diet for tilapia

Ingredients	(%)
Soybean meal (49.95% crude protein)	24.50
Wheat gluten	11.50
Corn	22.50
Wheat	32.50
Soybean oil	4.00
Vitamin and mineral mix ^a	1.00
L-Lysine-HCl	1.10
DL-Methionine	0.90
Calcium carbonate	1.00
Carboxymethylcellulose	1.00
Total	100.00
Proximate analysis	
Crude protein	30.23
Crude fat	8.19
Ash	5.12
Calcium	0.53
Gross energy (MJ/kg)	19.68
Total P	0.41
Non-phytate P	0.15

^a Vitamin and mineral mix (per kg of diet): MnSO₄, 40 mg; MgO, 10 mg; K₂SO₄, 40 mg; ZnCO₃, 60 mg; KI, 0.4 mg; CuSO₄, 12 mg; Ferric citrate, 250 mg; Na₂SeO₃, 0.24 mg; Co, 0.2 mg; retinol, 40000 IU; cholecalciferol, 4000 IU; α-tocopherolacetat, 400 mg; menadione, 12 mg; thiamin, 30 mg; riboflavin, 40 mg; pyridoxine, 30 mg; cyanocobalamin, 80 mcg; nicotinic acid, 300 mg; folic acid, 10 mg; biotin, 3 mg; pantothenic acid, 100 mg; inositol, 500 mg; ascorbic acid, 500 mg.

Hansenula polymorpha. The production strain is carrying a synthetic gene coding for 3-phytase (IUB, 3.1.3.8.). Phytase A has an elevated pH optimum (>5) and higher stability against proteolytic enzyme activity and heat treatment. The phytase Ronozyme® P5000 (Phytase B) is a commercial product containing 6-phytase (IUB, 3.1.3.26) from *Peniophora lycii*, produced by submerged fermentation of a genetically modified *Aspergillus oryzae* strain. The experimental diets were supplemented with microbial phytase at similar graded levels, based on the actual phytase activity (Table 2). The control diet (0.88% total P; 0.62% non-phytate P) contained mono-sodium-phosphate (NaH₂PO₄; 1.5% of the diet) to meet the total P requirement (Miranda et al., 2000). For evaluating the phytase effects on P-utilization, non-phytate P concentration in the experimental diets was kept below the recommendations. Precision laboratory mixing systems (Co. Loedige, Germany) were applied for diet preparation. Finally, the mixtures were moistened with 15% distilled water and immediately pelleted (Co. Lister, England) to 2.5 mm granules. The pelleting

Table 2
Supplementation of microbial phytase and analyzed total phytase activity in the diets

Phytase supplementation (U ^a /kg)	Diet	Total dietary phytase activity analyzed (U ^a /kg)
	NC ^b	289
Phytase A	0	767
	500	1107
	750	1438
	1000	1753
Phytase B	A 1250	941
	B 500	1080
	B 750	1455
	B 1000	1731
	B 1250	253
	PC ^c	

^a Phytase activity units according to the method of Engelen et al. (1994).

^b Negative control diet.

^c Positive control diet with 1.5% mono sodium phosphate (NaH₂PO₄) and 1.0% calcium carbonate (CaCO₃) supplemented in exchange with wheat.

temperature was held below 40 °C. The feed drying was conducted to prevent inactivation effects on the added sources of microbial phytase (ventilated oven for 24 h at 45 °C). A significant phytate degradation during this short period of moistening can be excluded.

2.2. Experimental conditions

Metabolism studies were conducted with all male *Oreochromis niloticus* obtained by mating yy-males with normal females (Kronert et al., 1989; Müller-Belecke and Hörstgen-Schwark, 2000). The studies were divided into three parts:

- (1) Digestibility trial by the sedimentation procedure
- (2) Direct sampling of intestinal chyme using TiO₂ as marker
- (3) Blood sampling depending on post-feeding time for monitoring of plasma inorganic P.

Fish were acclimated to six sedimentation systems (0.15 m³ per system) as described by Meyer-Burgdorff and Rosenow (1995). Each system was equipped with continuous aeration and water exchange by recirculation. Titanium dioxide (0.3%) was utilized as the indigestible marker. Triplicates of 10 fish per diet were fed three times a day.

2.3. Sample collection

In the digestibility study (average individual BW 110 g), following the adaptation period the feces were

collected for 4 h during a day collection period after each feeding. Feces were centrifuged and lyophilized before analysis. At the end of the digestibility experiment, 2 h following a single meal three animals per sedimentation system (nine fish per diet) were sacrificed by an anesthetic overdose of ethylene-glycol-mono-phenyl-ether for sampling of intestinal chyme. The chyme of the hepatic loop (Tengjaroenkul et al., 2000) was collected semi quantitatively and frozen for analysis of phytate phosphorus.

In a subsequent study (average individual BW 125 g) using similar diets, blood was sampled from 3 fish per diet at 2, 4, 8 and 12 h post-feeding of a single meal. For blood sampling, fish were anesthetized and blood was removed from the caudal peduncle vein.

2.4. Analytical procedures

The analyses of ingredients and diets run in duplicate according to German standard methods (Naumann and Bassler, 1976–1997). Crude protein was determined by Dumas-method ($N \times 6.25$) with a nitrogen auto-analyzer (FP-2000, Leco). Total phosphorus and phytate-P in feed, feces and digesta samples were determined in duplicate using the vanadium-molybdate method (total-P) and ammonium molybdate method (phytate-P) due to the modified AOAC-method 986.11 (AOAC, 1990), respectively. Absorbance measurement was conducted at 430 nm and at 640 nm using a UV-VIS spectrophotometer (Specord S100, Carl Zeiss, Jena, Germany). Inorganic phosphorus content in blood plasma was detected

Table 3
Phytate phosphorus concentration in freeze dried feces and chyme of the hepatic loop of Nile tilapia fed plant based diets with graded levels of two different sources of microbial phytase

Diets	Content of phytate phosphorus (%) *	
	Feces	Chyme of hepatic loop
NC**	0.50 ^a	0.17 ^a
A 500	0.33 ^c	0.12 ^{abc}
A 750	0.26 ^{de}	0.10 ^{bc}
A 1000	0.25 ^e	0.09 ^c
A 1250	0.25 ^e	0.10 ^{bc}
B 500	0.39 ^b	0.16 ^a
B 750	0.29 ^d	0.16 ^a
B 1000	0.26 ^{de}	0.14 ^{ab}
B 1250	0.27 ^{de}	0.14 ^{ab}
PC***	0.49 ^a	0.16 ^a

* As freeze-dried substance.

** Negative control, low phosphorus diet.

*** Positive control, phosphorus adequate diet.

a, b, c, d, e Means within the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different ($P < 0.05$).

Table 4
Apparent digestibility of crude protein, calcium and phosphorus in Nile tilapia (*n*=3) fed plant based diets with graded levels of two different sources of microbial phytase

Diets	Crude protein	Calcium	Phosphorus
	Apparent digestibility (%)		
NC*	91.8 ^c	31.0 ^c	43.1 ^f
A 500	93.2 ^d	44.2 ^{ab}	60.6 ^d
A 750	95.8 ^a	47.6 ^a	64.6 ^{cd}
A 1000	95.3 ^{ab}	48.4 ^a	70.8 ^{ab}
A 1250	95.6 ^a	49.6 ^a	75.7 ^a
B 500	93.7 ^d	37.6 ^{bc}	50.0 ^e
B 750	95.0 ^{ab}	48.0 ^a	65.0 ^{cd}
B 1000	95.4 ^{ab}	49.6 ^a	67.4 ^{bc}
B 1250	94.7 ^{bc}	50.7 ^a	73.0 ^a
PC**	93.9 ^{cd}	46.7 ^a	75.5 ^a
Pooled SEM	0.56	1.89	1.76
<i>P</i> -value	<0.0001	<0.0001	<0.0001

* Negative control, low phosphorus diet (no phytase added).
 ** Positive control, phosphorus adequate diet (no phytase added).
 a, b, c, d, e, f Means within the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different (*P*<0.05).

by using the commercial UV-test kit SYS 1 (Roche Diagnostics GmbH, Mannheim, Germany) based on the principle of inorganic phosphorus binding with ammonium–molybdate and forming the complex ammonium–

phospho–molybdate (extinction measured at 340 nm). Titanium in feed and chyme samples was analysed with atomic absorption phase spectrophotometer (SpectrAA-55; Varian, Darmstadt, Germany) following wet ashing (HNO₃:H₂SO₄= 1:1) in 30 ml teflon beakers (at 180 °C for 8 h) using a pressure digestion system (PDS-6; Lofthield’s Analytical Solutions, Neu Eichenberg, Germany). In-feed analysis of phytase activity was carried out due to the procedure of Engelen et al. (1994). Established total phytase activity in the final feeds was generally in line with the expected graded dietary phytase supply (Table 2).

Digestibility data were analyzed as one-way completely randomized design, submitted to ANOVA (*P*<0.05) and Tukey’s test. Plasma P data were submitted to multivariate ANOVA running with SPSS software package (Version 10.0 for Windows; SPSS Inc., Chicago, IL). According to equality or non-equality of variances (verified by Levene-test), the Fisher-LSD or Games–Howell post-hoc test was used.

3. Results

The phytate P concentration in the freeze-dried feces (Table 3) was generally higher than in the freeze-dried chyme of the hepatic loop. This observation indicates

Table 5
Inorganic phosphorus concentration [mg/L]* in blood plasma (*n*=3) depending on post-feeding time

Diet	Post-feeding time [h]				<i>P</i> -value** Time
	2	4	8	12	
NC	41.4±0.9 ^a	42.1±0.2 ^a	44.9±0.3 ^{ad}	44.3±0.8 ^a	<0.0001
A 500	41.4±1.4 ^a	48.7±0.4 ^{bc}	44.6±0.5 ^{ad}	42.5±1.0 ^a	<0.0001
A 750	41.7±0.9 ^{ac}	48.1±0.4 ^{bc}	51.6±1.1 ^{ce}	43.7±1.2 ^a	<0.0001
A 1000	43.7±0.6 ^b	45.4±1.6 ^{ac}	51.1±1.5 ^{ae}	40.4±1.9 ^{ab}	<0.0001
A 1250	43.7±1.6 ^b	47.4±0.6 ^{bc}	51.0±0.8 ^{ce}	49.5±0.4 ^b	<0.0001
B 500	41.9±0.4 ^{ac}	40.7±0.8 ^a	41.7±1.2 ^{df}	42.8±1.9 ^{ab}	0.279
B 750	43.3±0.8 ^{bc}	42.6±2.0 ^{ac}	41.8±0.5 ^{bf}	49.3±1.6 ^{ab}	0.002
B 1000	44.5±1.3 ^b	47.2±0.5 ^{bc}	49.1±0.7 ^{ce}	44.5±0.5 ^a	<0.0001
B 1250	43.7±0.7 ^b	49.1±0.5 ^{bc}	50.8±0.6 ^{ce}	43.8±0.9 ^a	<0.0001
PC	44.8±0.8 ^b	52.1±1.6 ^b	47.3±1.2 ^{aef}	44.8±1.7 ^{ab}	0.002
Pooled SEM**	0.2735	0.6503	0.7478	0.5858	
<i>P</i> -value** Diet	0.001	<0.0001	<0.0001	0.052	
<i>P</i> -value***		Phytase			<0.0001
		Level			<0.0001
		Time			<0.0001
		Phytase × Level			<0.0001
		Phytase × Time			<0.0001
		Phytase × Level × Time			<0.0001

* Multivariate and one-way ANOVA (SPSS for windows 10.0). Fisher-LSD or Games–Howell post-hoc test depending equality or non-equality of variances (verified by Levene-test).

** One-way ANOVA with all diets.

*** Multivariate ANOVA, diets NC and PC with no added microbial phytase excluded.

a, b, c, d, e, f Means within the same column with different superscript letters are significantly different (*P*<0.05).

the beginning of the digestive process in the hepatic loop and phytate P is still diluted by nutrients which will be digested and absorbed up to the end of the small intestine. Supplementing phytase A up to 750 U/kg diet, significantly reduced phytate P content of feces. Consequently, the phytate P concentration in feces decreased by approximately 50% as compared to the phytate P concentration in samples from fish fed the control diets (NC, PC). Higher activity of phytase A did not significantly improve the disappearance of phytate-P from fecal samples. The observed changes of phytate P concentration in the freeze-dried samples of the proximal intestinal chyme were similar. It was noted that only phytase A reduced the phytate P content in this part of the gut significantly.

Supplementing phytase B also significantly decreased the phytate P content in feces. However, phytase A and B tended not to reduce the fecal phytate-P content to a similar extent. In the intestinal chyme, phytase B did not significantly reduce the phytate P content. Due to phytase A supplementation, the phytate P concentration in the freeze-dried chyme of the hepatic loop was significantly lower, indicating a more pronounced phytate degradation and P disappearance in this part of the gut. The digestibility of P was significantly improved by both sources of microbial phytase (Table 4). However, the dose-response effects on phosphorus digestibility were not identical. The same observation was made for crude protein digestibility, but phytase supplementation significantly increased the apparent protein digestibility.

Additionally, the course of inorganic phosphorus concentration in blood plasma (Table 5), showed different responses depending on the microbial phytase used. This difference in response due to both sources of microbial phytase is more evident when pooled dietary

phytase activity is applied (Fig. 1). The results indicate that differences may occur in the metabolic availability of inorganic P due to the supplemented microbial phytase sources. Following the feeding of the highest dietary phytase activity (A 1000, A 1250, B 1000, B 1250), blood sampling at 2 h showed a similar response on plasma P as the PC diet. Blood sampling at 4 h resulted in more pronounced phytase effects on plasma P concentration. Following the feeding of phytase A, no dose dependent effect on plasma P was observed. After the feeding of phytase B, dose-response effects were established. However, at both sampling times (2 and 4 h) the level of plasma P concentration following the feeding of diet PC (including inorganic phosphorus) was generally not achieved. Sampling 8 h post-feeding, the plasma P concentrations due to higher levels of dietary phytase activity tended to exceed the effect of feeding diet PC. The observed results at 12 h post-feeding are mostly inconsistent, reflecting the decreasing peak of phosphorus absorption with high variation. Generally, these preliminary results of blood sampling are useful as additional information corresponding to varying effects depending on the microbial phytase source fed.

4. Discussion

The incorporation of microbial phytase into fish diets improves P availability and overall performance, while reducing P excretion in several fish species (Rodehuts-cord and Pfeffer, 1995; Schäfer et al., 1995; Jackson et al., 1996; Hughes and Soares, 1998; Papatryphon et al., 1999; Sugiura et al., 2001; Yan and Reigh, 2002; Portz and Liebert, 2004; Liebert and Portz, 2005). However, the examination of the specific effects of phytase in different fish species is insufficient. Furthermore, only limited data are available for different sources of microbial phytase, mainly in plant based tilapia diets. The results of the present study demonstrate that different effects on zootechnical parameters and nutrient deposition in juvenile tilapia (Liebert and Portz, 2005) are further explained by physiological data. The observed course of phytate P in feces and in chyme of the hepatic loop is in agreement with the observed utilization of total P and crude protein (Liebert and Portz, 2005). However, the current results give support to the assumption that the sources of microbial phytase used in this study were not equal due to the improvement of phytate degradation in the digestive tract. It is also indicated that this difference in efficiency was not compensated by the level of supplemented phytase activity which was in the range of efficient dosages for tilapia (Furuya et al., 2001; Portz et al., 2003; Portz and

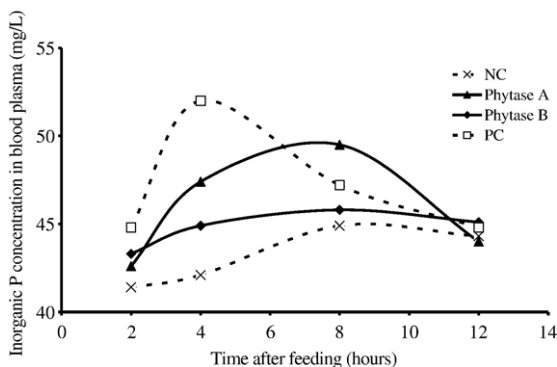


Fig. 1. Inorganic phosphorus concentration in blood plasma of Nile tilapia depending on diet (pooled dietary phytase activity), microbial phytase and time after feeding.

Liebert, 2004) and for diets with high quantities of indigestible phytates (NRC, 1993; Cain and Garling, 1995; Francis et al., 2001; Riche et al., 2001).

Supplementing phytase A at 750 U/kg diet was adequate for maximal improvement of phytate degradation under the conditions used in this study. The supplementation of at least 1000 U/kg from phytase B provided similar effects on the decrease of fecal phytate P. Additional effects of both sources of microbial phytase have been discussed elsewhere (Liebert and Portz, 2005). The improved protein digestibility due to phytase addition may explain the effects on enhanced protein utilization. Similar to warm blooded animals (Sebastian et al., 1997; Martin et al., 1998; Selle et al., 2006), the observed effects of supplemental phytase on protein utilization in fish are still contradictory. Lanari et al. (1998) and Yan and Reigh (2002) did not observe significant effects of supplemented phytase on protein utilization. In contrast, several studies using plant based diets have observed improved protein utilization in fish (Storebakken et al., 1998; Vielma et al., 1998, 2004; Sugiura et al., 2001). However, improved protein digestibility was not correlated with higher lysine utilization in rainbow trout (Vielma et al., 2004).

In addition, the digestibility of calcium was significantly enhanced by supplementing both sources of microbial phytase. Calcium seems to be more associated with the phytate complex than other minerals (Papatryphon et al., 1999), but, in general, phytase also effects on mineral availability (Hossain and Jauncey, 1991). Based on current observations on calcium digestibility, we were unable to detect a difference between the two sources of microbial phytase used. A trend indicates enhanced efficiency of phytase A due to the low level of supplementation. However, the post-feeding time course of inorganic P in blood plasma provides evidence for a faster phosphorus uptake in the gut of juvenile tilapia due to supplementation of phytase A (SP 1002). Multivariate ANOVA established the type of added microbial phytase as a significant factor of influence on inorganic P concentration in blood plasma.

Reported data are generally in accordance with our observed effects of microbial phytase on nutrient deposition and nutrient utilization (Liebert and Portz, 2005). Both sources of microbial phytase under study improved the dietary phosphorus supply for tilapia, thereby reducing phosphorus excretion. However, the efficacy of the phytase sources was not similar, indicating that the type of added microbial phytase and the gut conditions may result in varying effects depending on fish species. Similar to warm blooded animals

(Liebert et al., 1993; Selle et al., 2006), the current knowledge about this physiological background in fish species is extremely scarce.

In conclusion, more basic research is needed on “working conditions” for supplemental feed enzymes in the digestive tract of fish species because structure and physiology of digestive systems in fish species are different. Developing of specific types of microbial phytase which are well adapted to the gut conditions in fish will be of growing importance, possibly also in combination with several other feed enzymes (Selle et al., 2006). Conclusive studies depending on species, physiology of the digestive tract and different dietary sources of plant phytate are needed. Experiments using a graded supply of model substances like sodium phytate (Denstadli et al., 2006) need completion by investigating native phytates. Additionally, the role of native phytase activity from feed ingredients needs more attention.

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