AN EVALUATION OF THE SUPPLEMENTATION OF DIETARY-MODIFIED PALYGORSKITE ON GROWTH PERFORMANCE, ZEARALENONE RESIDUE, SERUM METABOLITES, AND ANTIOXIDANT CAPACITIES IN BROILERS FED A ZEARALENONE-CONTAMINATED DIET

QIAO \rm{Xu}^1 , Yueping Chen¹, Yefei Cheng¹, Yue Su¹, Chao Wen¹, Wenbo Wang^{2,3}, Aiqin Wang^{2,3}, and YANMIN Z HOU^{1,*}

¹ College of Animal Science and Technology, Nanjing Agricultural University, Nanjing 210095, P.R. China ² Center of Eco-material and Green Chemistry, Lanzhou Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences,

³ R&D Center of Xuyi Palygorskite Applied Technology, Lanzhou Institute of Chemical Physics, Chinese Academy of Sciences, Xuyi 211700, P.R. China

Abstract—Zearalenone (ZEA), a common contaminant in food and feedstuffs, threatens human and animal health. The present study aimed to investigate the protective effects of modified palygorskite (MPal), a ZEA-targeted adsorbent, on broilers (young chickens) fed a ZEA-contaminated diet. Broilers were subjected to one of three treatments for a period of 42 days: a basal diet (control group), a ZEAcontaminated diet, and a ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with 1 g/kg of MPal. Blood was collected for serum metabolite assay, and liver and kidney were sampled to determine ZEA residue and antioxidantrelated parameters, using commercial spectrophotometric kits. Compared with the basal diet, the ZEAcontaminated diet resulted in compromised growth performance (reduced daily gain and feed intake during finisher period), disordered relative liver weight (decreased at 21 days but increased at 42 days), increased ZEA residue in liver and kidney, abnormal serum metabolites (decreased total protein content but increased alanine aminotransferase activity at 21 and 42 days, reduced albumin content at 21 days, and elevated aspartate aminotransferase activity at 42 days), and disrupted antioxidant capacities of broilers (increased total superoxide dismutase (T-SOD) activity in liver at 21 and 42 days, decreased T-SOD activity in kidney at 21 and 42 days, and in serum at 42 days, greater malondialdehyde accumulation in liver and kidney at 42 days, and lower glutathione content in kidney at 21 days). The adverse consequences resulting from the ZEA-contaminated diet were relieved by the supplementation of MPal (except albumin concentration in serum and T-SOD activity in liver at 21 days), with the values of growth-performance parameters, liver weight, renal ZEA accumulation, total protein content, transaminase activity at 42 days, and antioxidant indexes being similar to those in the control group. These results suggested that MPal supplementation could promote growth performance, attenuate liver damage, and improve the antioxidant abilities of broilers fed ZEA-contaminated diet by reducing ZEA accumulation.

Key Words—Broilers, Kidney, Liver, Modified Palygorskite, Zearalenone.

INTRODUCTION

Zearalenone (ZEA) is a secondary metabolite produced naturally by numerous species of *Fusarium* fungi (D'Mello et al., 1999; Hestbjerg et al., 2002; Glenn, 2007) and is detected in many cereal crops including corn and wheat; ZEA occurs more readily when crops are stored in high-humidity environments (Cavret and Lecoeur, 2006; Binder et al., 2007). ZEA has strong estrogenic and anabolic activities (Turcotte et al., 2005; Zinedine et al., 2007) and adverse effects on genital organs and reproductive performance are found widely in chickens (Allen et al., 1981a), pigs (Jiang et al., 2010; Wang et al., 2010), turkeys (Allen et al., 1983), and rats (Lemke et al., 2001; Denli et al., 2017). Aside from

* E-mail address of corresponding author: zhouym6308@163.com DOI: 10.1346/CCMN.2018.064113

reproductive toxicity, ZEA has the ability to penetrate into the various organs (Buranatragool et al. 2015), resulting in incremental ZEA accumulation in tissue (Mirocha et al., 1982; Wang et al., 2013). Liver plays an essential role in ZEA metabolism (Malekinejad et al., 2006; Koraichi et al., 2012), and can be damaged easily by ZEA; greater hepatic ZEA accumulation has been observed (Wang et al., 2013) than in their origins, suggesting that liver is one of the main target organs of ZEA. Studies conducted on animals have demonstrated that ZEA can cause liver lesions as shown by the abnormality of serum biochemical parameters related to hepatic function (Abbès et al., 2006; Šperanda et al., 2006; Jia et al., 2014). Kidneys have extensive blood flow and a variety of transporters due to their important role in excretion, reabsorption, and general homeostasis, which could lead to the delivery of large amounts of ZEA to kidneys and increased renal ZEA residue (Ouanes et al., 2003; Abbès et al., 2006; Jia et al., 2014); this indicates that kidneys are another important

target organ of ZEA. In addition, oxidative stress has been suggested as a possible result of the toxicity of ZEA. Evidence of oxidative damage induced by ZEA, including lipid peroxidation and imbalanced antioxidant enzymes, was observed in both in vivo (Jiang et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2012) and in vitro studies (Abidessefi et al., 2004, 2008; Othmen et al., 2008; Ben et al., 2015).

The contamination of grains and feed with mycotoxins including ZEA is a permanent challenge in animal nutrition (Zinedine et al., 2007). One of the more encouraging approaches to eliminating or attenuating the harmful effects of mycotoxins on animals is the supplementation of adsorptive materials in the diet. The most commonly used mycotoxin adsorbents are clay minerals such as sodium calcium aluminosilicate (Che et al., 2011; Yiannikouris et al., 2013), montmorillonite (Daković et al., 2008, 2012), and zeolite (Daković et al., 2007; Trailović et al., 2013). Due to their hydrophilic, negatively charged surfaces, most of the raw mineral adsorbents are effective at adsorbing polar toxin molecules such as aflatoxins but are less effective at adsorbing nonpolar or less polar toxin molecules such as ZEA (Bočarovstančić et al., 2011). In vitro and in vivo studies have demonstrated that modified minerals (e.g. zeolite and montmorillonite) may increase mineralsurface hydrophobicity, providing greater adsorptive affinity for ZEA than their natural analogs (Daković et al., 2007; Feng et al., 2008; Jiang et al., 2012). Palygorskite (Pal) is a hydrated magnesium-rich silicate clay mineral with nanorod-like crystal morphology and nano-channels (Bergaya and Lagaly, 2013). Pal has been used widely as a non-toxic, eco-friendly, economic, and efficient adsorbent in animal feed in both academia and in the feed industry (Tian *et al.*, 2015; Wang *et al.*, 2015). Unfortunately, raw Pal has poor adsorption capacity for ZEA because of its structure (Schell et al., 1993). Modification of Pal by means of physical and/or chemical methods to generate greater affinity for ZEA is necessary, therefore. The purpose of the present study was to modify raw Pal with quaternized chito-oligosaccharides, and to use the modified Pal (MPal) as a ZEAtargeted adsorbent which could adsorb ZEA efficiently in vitro and to evaluate the protective efficiency of MPal with respect to broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet by determining growth performance, hepatonephric weight, ZEA residue, serum metabolites, and antioxidant capacities.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Materials

Raw Pal was provided by Jiangsu Sinitic Biotech Co., Ltd. (Xuyi, Jiangsu, P.R. China). The chemical compositions of raw Pal determined using a Minipal 4 X-ray fluorescence spectrometer (PANalytical, Almelo, The Netherlands) are as follows: 522.9 g/kg $SiO₂$, 122.9 g/kg Al₂O₃, 56.7 g/kg MgO, 86.5 g/kg Fe₂O₃, 25.9 g/kg CaO, 23.8 g/kg K₂O, and 1.8 g/kg Na₂O. Chito-oligosaccharide (food grade), with the molecular formula $(C_6H_{11}NO_4)$ _n and average molecular weight of 1701 a.m.u., was obtained from Jinan Haidebei Marine Bioengineering Co., Ltd. (Shandong, P.R. China). Glycidyltrimethylammonium chloride (GTAC) was purchased from Sigma-Aldrich Co. (St. Louis, Missouri, USA). All other reagents were of analytical grade and solutions were prepared with deionized water (the resistivity of which was 18.2 MOhm-cm).

Preparation of MPal

Firstly, chito-oligosaccharide was modified with GTAC to prepare its quaternary ammonium derivative N-(2-hydroxy) propyl-3-trimethyl ammonium chito-oligosaccharide chloride (HTACO), using acetic acid as the catalyst, following the method of Seong et al. (2000). Secondly, the raw Pal was modified with HTACO according to the following procedure: 1000 g of the Pal was dispersed uniformly in 2 mass% of the aqueous solution of sulfuric acid at the solid/liquid ratio of 1:5 by mechanical stirring for 2 h. Then, 150 g of the HTACO was added to the suspension and the mixture was stirred continuously for 4 h at 40ºC. Finally, the solid product was separated by centrifugation, dried at 100ºC for 4 h, and ground with a DFY-500 Universal Stainless Steel High-Speed Pulverizer (Shanghai LeiGu Instrument Co., Ltd., Shanghai, P.R. China) and passed through a 200 mesh sieve. The product was marked as 'MPal'.

Characterization of Pal and MPal

The structures and morphologies of Pal and MPal were characterized by X-ray diffraction (XRD) and transmission electron microscopic (TEM) analyses, and the results are shown in Figure 1. The XRD patterns were collected using an X'Pert PRO X-ray powder diffractometer (PANalytical Co., Almelo, The Netherlands) equipped with a $CuK\alpha$ radiation source $(\lambda = 0.1541 \text{ nm}; 40 \text{ kV}, 40 \text{ mA})$ from 3 to 70°2 θ at a scanning rate of $8.34^{\circ}2\theta/\text{min}$, with a step interval of ~0.167°2 θ , divergence slit of 0.5°, and anti-scatter slit of 1º. The TEM images were collected using a JEM-1200 EX/S transmission electron microscope (JEOL, Tokyo, Japan) at an accelerating voltage of 200 kV. The characteristic diffraction peaks (Figure 1) of the Pal phase at $8.32^{\circ}2\theta$ (110 crystal plane), $13.64^{\circ}2\theta$ (200 crystal plane), $16.52^{\circ}2\theta$ (130 crystal plane), $19.80^{\circ}2\theta$ (040 crystal plane), and $27.98^{\circ}2\theta$ (400 crystal plane) were observed in the XRD patterns of both raw Pal and MPal, and the reflection peaks of quartz at $26.7^{\circ}2\theta$ and $20.9^{\circ}2\theta$ also appeared in the XRD patterns, indicating that Pal and quartz crystals were present in the MPal samples. The modification of Pal did not affect its crystal structure, which suggests that the modifier was attached mainly to the surface of the Pal. The rod crystals could be seen clearly in the TEM images of Pal

Figure 1. (a) XRD patterns of Pal and MPal samples; (b) TEM image of Pal; and (c) TEM image of MPal.

and MPal (Figure 1b, c), and the degree of dispersion of the rod crystals improved following modification under the action of mechanical stirring.

Collection of ZEA-contaminated corn

Before the experiment, corn samples were collected and the ZEA content in each sample determined; a corn sample with a ZEA content of $927.27 \mu g/kg$, which exceeded the maximum limit set by the Hygienic Standard for Feeds of China (AQSIQ, 2017) was selected as the ZEA-contaminated diet preparation for the present study.

Experimental design, animals, and husbandry

The experimental design and all procedures were approved by Nanjing Agricultural University Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee. One hundred and fortyfour one-day-old, healthy Arbor Acres broilers (50% of which were male), with similar initial body weight, were obtained from a commercial hatchery and were assigned randomly to groups to undergo one of three dietary treatments with six replicates of eight birds each. The three groups included: (1) a basal diet with normal corn (control group); (2) a ZEA-contaminated diet (ZEA group); and (3) the contaminated diet supplemented with 1 g/kg MPal (MPal-ZEA group). The basal diet was formulated in accordance with the recommendation of the National Research Council (NRC, 1994). The contaminated diet was prepared by using the naturally ZEAcontaminated corn to replace normal corn in the control diet. Representative samples of each experimental diet were taken for nutrient- and mycotoxin-content analysis before feeding commenced (Table 1). Concentrations of aflatoxin B_1 (AFB₁), deoxynivalenol (DON), and ZEA were tested by enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (R-Biopharm AG, Darmstadt, Germany).

All broiler chicks were placed in wired cages (60 cm long \times 190 cm wide \times 50 cm tall), and housed in a temperature-controlled room with continuous lighting. The temperature was maintained at 32-34ºC for the first three days, and then decreased by $2-3$ ^oC per week to a final temperature of 20ºC. The birds were allowed free access to water and mash feed. At 21 and 42 days of age, the broilers were weighed in replicate after a 12 h period of feed deprivation and feed intake was recorded in replicate to calculate average daily gain (ADG), average daily feed intake (ADFI), and feed:gain ratio (F:G). Birds that died during the experimental period were weighed and the data were included for the F:G calculation.

Sample collection and processing

At 21 and 42 days, one female bird close to the average weight was selected from each replicate and weighed after feed deprivation for 12 h. Blood samples of ~5 mL each were collected from a wing vein and centrifuged at 4000 \times g for 15 min at 4°C to separate the serum which was frozen at -20° C until further analysis. The broilers were euthanized by cervical dislocation after blood sampling. The liver and kidney were removed quickly and weighed to calculate the relative organ weight, and then stored immediately at -20° C for subsequent analysis. Relative organ weights were expressed on a relative body weight basis (g/kg).

Determination of ZEA residue

The ZEA residue in the liver and kidney was determined using an enzyme-linked immunosorbent kit

Items ¹		\equiv Starter diet (1-21 days) \equiv			\equiv Finisher diet (22–42 days) \equiv	
	Control	ZEA	MPal-ZEA	Control	ZEA	MPal-ZEA
	group	group	group	group	group	group
Ingredients						
Corn	57.00			62.00		
Contaminated corn		57.00	57.00		62.00	62.00
Soybean meal	32.60	32.60	32.60	28.00	28.00	28.00
Corn gluten meal	3.00	3.00	3.00	2.00	2.00	2.00
Soybean oil	3.00	3.00	3.00	4.00	4.00	4.00
Limestone	1.23	1.23	1.23	1.30	1.30	1.30
Diacalcium phosphate	2.00	2.00	2.00	1.60	1.60	1.60
L-Lysine	0.32	0.32	0.32	0.31	0.31	0.31
DL-Methionine	0.15	0.15	0.15	0.11	0.11	0.11
Premix ¹	0.40	0.40	0.40	0.38	0.38	0.38
Sodium choride	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30	0.30
MPal ²			0.10			0.10
Nutrient levels						
Metabolizable energy	3.00	3.00	3.00	3.10	3.10	3.10
(Kcal/g)						
Crude protein	21.55	21.55	21.55	19.33	19.33	19.33
L-Lysine	1.22	1.22	1.22	1.10	1.10	1.10
Methionine	0.50	0.50	0.50	0.43	0.43	0.43
Calcium	1.01	1.01	1.01	0.93	0.93	0.93
Available phosphorus	0.46	0.46	0.46	0.39	0.39	0.39
Methionine + cysteine	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.76	0.76	0.76
Analyzed nutrient levels						
Gross energy (cal/g)	3848	3852	3846	4057	4011	4018
Crude protein	21.34	21.14	20.71	19.73	19.20	18.91
Calcium	1.26	1.23	1.22	1.12	1.05	1.05
Total phosphorus	0.65	0.67	0.65	0.59	0.60	0.57
Mycotoxin concentrations						
Aflatoxin B_1	0.59	0.66	0.56	0.68	0.65	0.68
Deoxynivalenol	716.65	2528.81	2645.63	540.03	2844.50	2820.77
Zearalenone	14.08	512.82	507.84	19.38	597.22	555.87

Table 1. Compositions and nutrient levels $(\%)$, and mycotoxin concentrations ($\mu g/kg$) in the experimental diets.

 1 Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

Premix provided per kilogram of diet: vitamin A (transretinyl acetate), 10,000 IU (international units); vitamin D_3 (cholecalciferol), 3000 IU; vitamin E (all-rac-a-tocopherol), 30 IU; menadione, 1.3 mg; thiamin, 2.2 mg; riboflavin, 8 mg; nicotinamide, 40 mg; choline chloride, 600 mg; calcium pantothenate, 10 mg; pyridoxine·HCl, 4 mg; biotin, 0.04 mg; folic acid, 1 mg; vitamin B₁₂ (cobalamin), 0.013 mg; Fe (from ferrous sulphate), 80 mg; Cu (from copper sulfate), 8.0 mg; Mn (from manganese sulfate), 110 mg; Zn (from zinc oxide), 60 mg; I (from calcium iodate), 1.1 mg; Se (from sodium selenite), 0.3 mg.

(R-Biopharm AG, Darmstadt, Germany) according to the manufacturer's protocol.

Serum metabolites

The concentrations of total protein (TP) and albumin (ALB) in serum were determined using commercial kits (Shanghai Kehua Bioengineering Co., Ltd., Shanghai, P.R. China) with an automatic biochemical analyzer (Olympus, Tokyo, Japan). The activities of aspartate aminotransferase (AST) and alanine aminotransferase (ALT) were analyzed spectrophotometrically using commercial diagnostic kits (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, P.R. China). One unit (U) of AST (or ALT) is defined as the pyruvic acid produced over 1 min at 25ºC which would

decrease the absorbance by 0.001 by oxidizing the reduced nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide to form the oxidized nicotinamide adenine dinucleotide at 340 nm.

Assay of antioxidant parameters in the liver and kidney

Upon analysis, ~0.3 g of liver and kidney samples were homogenized with ice-cold saline buffer (0.85%, pH $= 7.4$) at a ratio of 1:9 (w/v) using an Ultra-Turrax homogenizer (Tekmar Co., Cincinnati, Ohio, USA), and then centrifuged at $4000 \times g$ for 15 min at 4°C. The supernatant was obtained and stored at -20° C for subsequent determination of total superoxide dismutase (T-SOD) and glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) activities, and the concentrations of glutathione (GSH) and mal-

Items 1,2	Control group	ZEA group	MPal-ZEA group	SEM ³	P value
$1-21$ days					
ADG (g/day)	39.02	39.45	39.58	0.90	0.967
ADFI (g/day)	60.65	60.54	62.05	0.98	0.802
F:G(g/g)	1.56	1.54	1.57	0.02	0.779
$21 - 42$ days					
ADG (g/day)	89.51 ^a	82.39^{b}	$88.36^{\rm a}$	1.12	0.011
ADFI (g/day)	$160.82^{\rm a}$	150.00 ^b	$161.52^{\rm a}$	2.04	0.024
F:G(g/g)	1.80	1.82	1.83	0.01	0.467
$1-42$ days					
ADG (g/day)	68.48	64.50	68.04	0.82	0.088
ADFI (g/day)	118.40	112.22	119.41	1.38	0.061
F:G (g/g)	1.73	1.74	1.76	0.01	0.332

Table 2. Growth performance of broilers fed the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, or the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

¹ Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

² ADG, average daily gain; ADFI, average daily feed intake; F:G, feed/gain ratio. 3 SEM, standard error of the mean.

a,b Means within a column with different superscripts differ significantly ($P < 0.05$).

ondialdehyde (MDA). The related antioxidant parameters were measured using the clinical chemistry assay kits (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, P.R. China). The activities of T-SOD and GSH-Px were expressed as U per milliliter for serum or U per milligram of protein for tissues, and the GSH and MDA contents were expressed as nanomoles per milliliter for serum or nanomoles per milligram of protein for tissues. One U of T-SOD was calculated as the amount of enzyme per milligram of protein of tissues (or per milliliter of serum) that would result in 50% inhibition of the rate of nitrite generation at 37ºC. One U of GSH-Px activity was calculated as the amount of enzyme per milligram of protein of tissues (or per milliliter of serum) that would catalyze the conversion of 1 µmol/L of reduced glutathione to oxidized glutathione at 37ºC in 5 min. Total protein concentration in the liver and kidney was determined according to the method of Bradford (1976) using a protein assay kit (Nanjing Jiancheng Bioengineering Institute, Nanjing, P.R. China).

Statistical analysis

All data were subjected to one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using SPSS 21.0 statistical software (SPSS Inc., Chicago, Illinois, USA). The significance of differences between various treatments was tested using Duncan's multiple range tests. The P values of <0.05 were considered significant.

RESULTS

Growth performance

Compared with the control group, feeding the ZEAcontaminated diet reduced the ADG and ADFI of broilers during the finisher period ($P \le 0.05$, Table 2), which were promoted with the supplementation of MPal to levels comparable with those in the control group ($P \le 0.05$).

Relative weights of liver and kidney

Relative hepatic weight in the ZEA group was less at 21 days but greater at 42 days than in the control group $(P \le 0.05$, Table 3), and it was normalized by MPal supplementation ($P \le 0.05$). Relative renal weight, however, remained unchanged for all three treatments $(P > 0.05)$.

ZEA residue in the liver and kidney

Broilers ingesting the ZEA-contaminated diet exhibited increases in ZEA accumulations in the liver and kidney at

Table 3. Relative organ weights of broilers fed the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, or the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal (g/kg).

Items ¹	Control group	ZEA group	MPalZEA group	SEM^2	P value
21 days Liver Kidney	26.30^{a} 14.38	23.42^{b} 13.87	$26.49^{\rm a}$ 13.98	0.56 0.27	0.032 0.742
42 days Liver Kidney	18.28^{b} 12.32	20.97 ^a 11.32	19.04^{b} 11.36	0.41 0.34	0.010 0.420

Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

SEM, standard error of the mean.

a, b Means within a column with different superscripts differ significantly ($P \le 0.05$).

Items ¹	Control group	ZEA group	MPal-ZEA group	SEM^2	P value
21 days Liver $(\mu g/kg)$ Kidney (ng/kg)	0.57° 76.11^{b}	$2.50^{\rm a}$ $355.33^{\rm a}$	1.81^{b} 78.52^{b}	0.23 37.88	< 0.001 < 0.001
42 days Liver $(\mu g/kg)$ Kidney (ng/kg)	0.84° 156.14^{b}	4.60 ^a $1307.41^{\rm a}$	2.76^{b} 342.16^{b}	0.40 140.24	< 0.001 < 0.001

Table 4. ZEA residue level in the liver and kidney of broilers fed the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, or the ZEAcontaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

¹ Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

SEM, standard error of the mean.

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

both 21 and 42 days when compared with the control group $(P<0.05$, Table 4), which were decreased with the inclusion of MPal ($P \le 0.05$), with the value of renal ZEA residue being similar to those in the control group ($P > 0.05$).

Serum metabolites

Compared with the control group, the ZEA-contaminated diet reduced TP content at 21 and 42 days and ALB content at 21 days, but increased ALT activity at 21 and 42 days and AST activity at 42 days ($P \le 0.05$, Table 5). The supplementation of MPal increased the TP content at 21 and 42 days but decreased AST and ALT activities at 42 days to normal levels compared with the control group ($P \le 0.05$). The ALT activity at 21 days in the MPal-ZEA group was also intermediate amongst the three treatments ($P \le 0.05$).

Antioxidant capacities

Broilers given the ZEA-contaminated diet had increased T-SOD activity in the liver at 21 and 42 days, decreased T-SOD activity in the kidney at 21 and 42 days and in the serum at 42 days, increased the MDA accumulation in the liver and kidney at 42 days, and reduced GSH content in the kidney at 21 days, when compared with those of birds fed the basal diet ($P \le 0.05$, Tables 6, 7). The values of the aforementioned parameters were normalized (except T-SOD activity in the liver at 21 days) by the supplementation of MPal (P) (0.05) .

DISCUSSION

In the three diets deployed, the $AFB₁$ and DON levels were significantly less than the maximum limit set by National Standards of China (AQSIQ, 2017). The ZEA content in the contaminated diet exceeded the maximum limit of National Standard by AQSIQ (2017) and was ~35 times greater than that in the control group. The harmful consequences of feeding the contaminated diet to broilers were due to ZEA-induced effects, therefore.

Items ^{1, 2}	Control group	ZEA group	MPal-ZEA group	SEM^3	P value
21 days					
TP(g/L)	$37.19^{\rm a}$	32.43^{b}	$36.84^{\rm a}$	0.81	0.023
ALB (g/L)	$15.63^{\rm a}$	13.04^{b}	$13.93^{a,b}$	0.42	0.025
AST (U/L)	4.46	4.87	4.70	0.17	0.650
ALT (U/L)	18.59°	$22.34^{\rm a}$	20.72^b	0.48	< 0.001
42 days					
TP(g/L)	49.17 ^a	40.55^{b}	$46.36^{\rm a}$	1.18	0.004
ALB (g/L)	15.61	16.21	15.94	0.23	0.598
AST (U/L)	4.86^{b}	$6.47^{\rm a}$	4.88^{b}	0.20	< 0.001
ALT (U/L)	19.61 ^b	25.21^a	18.02 ^b	0.94	< 0.001

Table 5. Serum biochemical parameters of broilers fed the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, or the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

 $\frac{2}{3}$ TP, total protein; ALB, albumin; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase. $\frac{3}{3}$ SEM, standard error of the mean.

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

Items $^{1, 2}$	Control group	ZEA group	MPal-ZEA group	SEM ³	P value
Liver					
$T-SOD$ (U/mg protein)	224.48 ^b	253.15^a	$234.57^{a,b}$	4.98	0.049
GSH (mg/g) protein)	0.75	0.85	0.88	0.05	0.520
GSH-Px (U/mg protein)	21.79	20.98	21.36	0.27	0.211
MDA (nmol/mg protein)	0.67	0.61	0.64	0.03	0.714
Kidney					
T-SOD (U/mg protein)	257.38^{a}	224.08^{b}	225.70^b	5.84	0.020
GSH (mg/g) protein)	$0.72^{\rm a}$	$0.55^{\rm b}$	$0.68^{\rm a}$	0.03	0.021
$GSH-Px$ (U/mg protein)	16.61	16.69	16.14	0.92	0.581
MDA (nmol/mg protein)	0.77	0.82	0.92	0.03	0.078
Serum					
$T-SOD$ (U/mL)	108.88	115.35	105.65	2.33	0.216
GSH (mg/L)	2.10	2.19	2.10	0.10	0.921
GSH-Px (U/mL)	794.44	776.46	800.02	14.98	0.508
MDA (nmol/mL)	4.40	3.71	3.77	0.14	0.099

Table 6. Antioxidant capacities in the liver, kidney, and serum of broilers fed the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, or the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal at 21 days of age.

¹ Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA -contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

 2 T-SOD, total superoxide dismutase; GSH, glutathione; GSH-Px, glutathione peroxidase; MDA, malondialdehyde. 3 SEM, standard error of the mean.

^{a, b} Means within a column with different superscripts differ significantly ($P \le 0.05$).

Growth performance

The effects of ZEA on the growth performance of animals have been reported previously; the results have been inconsistent, however. In the present study, reduced ADG and ADFI of broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated

diet were observed during the finisher period, which was consistent with findings by Nesic et al. (2005) who discovered that ZEA compromised the growth performance of pigs. Previous studies have demonstrated that feeding Fusarium-contaminated grains could impair

¹ Control group, ZEA group, and MPal-ZEA group; broilers were given the basal diet, the ZEA-contaminated diet, and the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal.

² T-SOD, total superoxide dismutase; GSH, glutathione; GSH-Px, glutathione peroxidase; MDA, malondialdehyde. ³ SEM, standard error of the mean.

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

growth performance in broilers (Swamy et al., 2002a), hens (Dänicke et al., 2002; Yegani et al., 2006), and turkeys (Girish et al., 2005). No significant adverse consequences for animal-growth performance from pure ZEA were observed by Jiang et al. (2011) and Allen et al. (1981b). This discrepancy could be related to species, management, or dosages and types of mycotoxins. The supplementation of MPal increased the ADG and ADFI of broilers during the finisher period in the present study. The findings have demonstrated that MPal inclusion could reduce ZEA residue in the liver and kidney. The improved growth performance of broilers resulting from MPal supplementation in this study would, therefore, be attributed to the strong adsorptive capacity of MPal to ZEA. Previous studies have proved that Pal supplementation could improve growth performance in broilers (Zhang et al., 2017) and hens (Chalvatzi et al., 2014), which would have contributed to growth promotion in the present study also.

Hepatonephric weight and ZEA residue

Relative organ weight is usually used to reflect the growth and development of the organ in question. ZEA toxicity is manifested in the reproductive tract, liver, and kidney, and hepatonephric weight could, therefore, be considered as a parameter to reflect the toxicity of ZEA. In the present study, relative liver weight was decreased at 21 days whereas it increased at 42 days in the ZEA group compared with the control group, suggesting that feeding the ZEA-contaminated diet could disrupt normal development of liver. Similar results were observed by Aravind et al. (2003) and Li et al. (2012) who reported that broilers ingesting a diet contaminated with ZEA exhibited abnormal relative weight of liver. The liver and kidney are the main target organs for ZEA toxicity, and ZEA contamination could result in ZEA accumulation in the liver and kidney. Feeding a regime of 2 mg/kg ZEA could increase the ZEA residue in the liver and muscle of pigs according to Wang et al. (2013). Early investigations reported that feeding diets contaminated with ZEA could lead to ZEA residue in the liver (Mirocha et al., 1982) and increased ZEA accumulation in edible tissue (Dänicke *et al.*, 2003). Consistent with the above-mentioned findings, increased ZEA residue in the liver and kidney of broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet was observed in the present study. Interestingly, relative kidney weight remained unaltered by the ZEA-contaminated diet, and was consistent with results reported previously by Aravind et al. (2003) and Dänicke et al. (2003) , which may be the result of smaller ZEA residue in the kidney than that in the liver. The variations, in terms of degree of organ damage and ZEA residue level in the tissues (kidney and liver) observed in the present study, indicated that liver is more sensitive to ZEA than kidney. Supplementation of MPal normalized the relative liver weight and reduced ZEA accumulation in the both liver and kidney. In vitro studies (Feng et al.,

2008; Jiang et al., 2012) demonstrated that other modified mineral adsorbents (e.g. montmorillonite and zeolite) exhibited a large adsorption capacity for ZEA. Significant decreases in ZEA accumulation in the liver and kidney after MPal supplementation found in the present study would, therefore, result from the large adsorption capacity of MPal for ZEA in the gastrointestinal tract, and normalized liver weight may, therefore, be associated closely with reduced ZEA residue in the liver.

Serum metabolites

Serum transaminases such as ALT and AST usually exist in the cytoplasm of hepatocyte and are used commonly as a reliable index to evaluate the degree of damage to the tissue or to the whole body (Homolka, 1969). Transaminase would be released from hepatocytes into the blood when liver is damaged (Conková et al., 2001). In the present study, the ZEA-contaminated diet increased significantly the ALT and AST activities in the serum, suggesting that feeding a ZEA-contaminated diet could cause liver damage, in agreement with previous studies about broilers (Swamy et al., 2002b; Jiang et al., 2014), pigs (Jiang et al., 2012; Wang et al., 2012), and mice (Abbès et al., 2006). Serum TP and ALB are produced by liver, the levels of which are usually used to reflect protein synthesis capacity of liver. Broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet had reduced TP and ALB concentrations. Similar results were found by Chowdhury and Smith (2007) who observed that plasma TP and ALB concentrations decreased when birds ingested grains contaminated naturally with ZEA. Metabolic disorder of liver occurred in parallel with simultaneously increased hepatic ZEA residue, suggesting that damaged liver function could be associated with increased ZEA accumulation. In pigs, modified montmorillonite supplementation was shown by Jiang et al. (2012) to reduce transaminase activity in the serum. Similarly, the inclusion of MPal decreased ALT and AST activities in the serum of broilers ingesting the ZEA-contaminated diet in the present study. The normalized levels of serum metabolites in broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet after MPal supplementation were similar to simultaneously reduced hepatic ZEA residue, and this could be attributed to the adsorption capacity of MPal for ZEA.

Antioxidant capacities

The organism maintains a dynamic balance between the oxidative and antioxidant systems under normal physiological conditions (Sies, 1991) and this balance might be broken down by adverse factors, leading to accumulation of free radicals and cellular lipid peroxidation. MDA is the end product of lipid peroxidation and its accumulation could be seen as a vital indicator for lipid peroxidation (Vaca et al., 1988). GSH is a major antioxidant in the cell to scavenge free radicals and helps to regenerate other antioxidants (Meister, 1994). T-SOD and GSH-Px play important roles in the antioxidant enzyme defense system that can catalyze the dismutation of superoxide anions and the decomposition of reactive oxygen species, respectively (Kramer et al., 1988; Zelko et al., 2002). Extensive in vitro studies have proved that ZEA could increase MDA accumulation (Abidessefi et al., 2004; Kouadio et al., 2005; Ferrer et al., 2009) but deplete GSH content (Hassen et al., 2007) in several types of cells. Likewise, in vivo experiments have also demonstrated that animals treated with diverse levels of ZEA exhibited greater MDA concentrations, smaller GSH contents, and disrupted antioxidant enzyme activities (T-SOD and GSH-Px) in the various tissues and/or serum (Zourgui et al., 2008; Marin et al., 2013; Jia et al., 2014; Liu et al., 2014). In agreement with the results above, feeding the ZEA-contaminated diet to broilers resulted in increased MDA accumulation, decreased GSH content, and disrupted T-SOD activities in this study. The imbalanced redox system caused by the ZEA-contaminated diet suggested that oxidative stress could be a possible pathway of ZEA toxicity to broilers. Abnormal antioxidant indexes paralleled the simultaneously increased ZEA residue in the current study, indicating that compromised redox status would be associated closely with increased ZEA accumulation. In the present study, broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet supplemented with MPal exhibited reduced MDA concentration, increased GSH content, and balanced T-SOD activity. This result was consistent with the findings by Jiang et al. (2012) who reported that modified montmorillonite could partially ameliorate ZEA-induced adverse effects on the antioxidant capacities. Dietary MPal supplementation could reduce ZEA accumulation in both the liver and kidney, and the protective effects in terms of the antioxidant capacities of broilers fed the ZEA-contaminated diet would, therefore, be due to its adsorptive capacity for ZEA.

CONCLUSIONS

Feeding the ZEA-contaminated diet retarded growth performance, increased hepatonephric ZEA residue, disordered liver weight and serum metabolites, and induced oxidative damage in broilers, and most of these adverse consequences were attenuated by the supplementation of MPal. The results suggested the possibility of application of MPal to ameliorate the detrimental effects on broilers from ZEA.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

Funding for the present research was provided by the Transformation of Scientific and Technological Achievements Special Fund in Jiangsu Province (BA2016134), P.R. China.

REFERENCES

- Abbès, S., Ouanes, Z., Salah-Abbès, J.B., Houas, Z., Oueslati, R., Bacha, H., and Othman, O. (2006) The protective effect of hydrated sodium calcium aluminosilicate against haematological, biochemical and pathological changes induced by Zearalenone in mice. Toxicon, 47, 567-574.
- Abidessefi, S., Ouanes, Z., Hassen, W., Baudrimont, I., Creppy, E., and Bacha, H. (2004) Cytotoxicity, inhibition of DNA and protein syntheses and oxidative damage in cultured cells exposed to zearalenone. Toxicology in Vitro, ¹⁸, 467-474.
- Allen, N.K., Mirocha, C.J., Aakhus-Allen, S., Bitgood, J.J., Weaver, G., and Bates, F. (1981a) Effect of dietary zearalenone on reproduction of chickens. Poultry Science, 60, $1165 - 1174$.
- Allen, N.K., Mirocha, C.J., Weaver, G., Aakhusallen, S., and Bates, F. (1981b) Effects of dietary zearalenone on finishing broiler chickens and young turkey poults. Poultry Science, $60, 124 - 131.$
- Allen, N.K., Peguri, A., Mirocha, C.J., and Newman, J.A. (1983) Effects of fusarium cultures, T-2 toxin, and zearalenone on reproduction of turkey females. Poultry Science, **62**, 282–289.
- AQSIQ (2017) GB/T 13078-2017. Hygienical Standard for Feeds. General Administration of Quality Supervision, Inspection and Quarantine of the People's Republic of China.
- Aravind, K.L., Patil, V.S., Devegowda, G.B., Umakantha, B., and Ganpule, S.P. (2003) Efficacy of esterified glucomannan to counteract mycotoxicosis in naturally contaminated feed on performance and serum biochemical and hematological parameters in broilers. Poultry Science, 82, 571-576.
- Ben, S.I., Boussabbeh, M., Helali, S., Abid-Essefi, S., and Bacha, H. (2015) Protective effect of Crocin against zearalenone-induced oxidative stress in liver and kidney of Balb/c mice. Environmental Science and Pollution Research, 22, 19069-19076.
- Bergaya, F. and Lagaly, G., editors (2013) Handbook of Clay Science. 2nd edition. Developments in Clay Science, 5. Elsevier, Amsterdam.
- Binder, E.M., Tan, L.M., Chin, L.J., Handl, J., and Richard, J. (2007) Worldwide occurrence of mycotoxins in commodities, feeds and feed ingredients. Animal Feed Science and Technology, 137, 265-282.
- Bočarovstančić, A., Adamović, M., Salma, N., Bodrozasolarov, M., Vučković, J., and Pantić, V. (2011) In vitro efficacy of mycotoxins' adsorption by natural mineral adsorbents. Biotechnology in Animal Husbandry, 27, 1241-1251.
- Bradford, M. (1976) A rapid and sensitive method for the quantitation of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. Analytical Biochemistry, $72, 248 - 254.$
- Buranatragool, K., Poapolathep, S., Isariyodom, S., Imsilp, K., Klangkaew, N., and Poapolathep, A. (2015) Dispositions and tissue residue of zearalenone and its metabolites α zearalenol and b-zearalenol in broilers. Toxicology Reports, $2, 351 - 356.$
- Cavret, S. and Lecoeur, S. (2006) Fusariotoxin transfer in animal. Food and Chemistry Toxicology, ⁴⁴, 444-453.
- Chalvatzi, S., Arsenos, G., Tserveni-Goussi, A., and Fortomaris, P. (2014) Tolerance and efficacy study of palygorskite incorporation in the diet of laying hens. Applied Clay Science, ¹⁰¹, 643-647.
- Che, Z., Liu, Y., Wang, H., Zhu, H., Hou, Y., and Ding, B. (2011) The protective effects of different mycotoxin adsorbents against blood and liver pathological changes induced by mold-contaminated feed in broilers. Asian-

Australasian Journal of Animal Science, 24, 250-257.

- Chowdhury, S.R. and Smith, T.K. (2007) Effects of feed-borne Fusarium mycotoxins on performance, plasma chemistry and hepatic fractional protein synthesis rates of turkeys. Canadian Journal of Animal Science, ⁸⁷, 543-551.
- Čonková, E., Laciaková A., Pástorová B., Seidel H., and Kovác G. (2001) The effect of zearalenone on some enzymatic parameters in rabbits. Toxicology Letters, 121, 145-149.
- Daković, A., Matijašević, S., Rottinghaus, G.E., Dondur, V., Pietrass, T., and Clewett, C.F. (2007) Adsorption of zearalenone by organomodified natural zeolitic tuff, Jounal of Colloid and Interface Science, 311, 8-13.
- Daković, A., Matijasevic, S., Rottinghaus, G.E., Ledoux, D.R., Butkeraitis, P., and Sekulic, Z. (2008) Aflatoxin B1 adsorption by natural and copper modified montmorillonite. Colloids and Surfaces B: Biointerfaces, ⁶⁶, 20-25.
- Daković, A., Kragović, M., Rottinghaus, G.E., Ledoux, D.R., Butkeraitis, P., Vojislavljević, D.Z., Zarić, S.D., and Stamenić, L. (2012) Preparation and characterization of zinc-exchanged montmorillonite and its effectiveness as aflatoxin B₁ adsorbent. Materials Chemistry and Physics, ¹³⁷, 213-220.
- Dänicke, S., Ueberschär, K.H., Halle, I., Matthes, S., Valenta, H., and Flachowsky, G. (2002) Effect of addition of a detoxifying agent to laying hen diets containing uncontaminated or Fusarium toxin-contaminated maize on performance of hens and on carryover of zearalenone. Poultry Science, **81**, 1671-1680.
- Dänicke, S., Matthes, S., Halle, I., Ueberschär, K.H., Döll, S., and Valenta, H. (2003) Effects of graded levels of Fusarium toxin-contaminated wheat and of a detoxifying agent in broiler diets on performance, nutrient digestibility and blood chemical parameters. British Poultry Science, 44, 113-126.
- Denli, M., Blandon, J.C., Salado, S., Guynot, M.E., and Pérez, J.F. (2017) Effect of dietary zearalenone on the performance, reproduction tract and serum biochemistry in young rats. Journal of Applied Animal Research, ⁴⁵, 619-622.
- D'Mello, J.P.F., Placinta, C.M., and Macdonald, A.M.C. (1999) Fusarium mycotoxins: a review of global implications for animal health, welfare and productivity. Animal Feed Science and Technology, 80, 183-205.
- Feng, J., Shan, M., Du, H., Han, X., and Xu, Z. (2008) In vitro adsorption of zearalenone by cetyltrimethyl ammonium bromide-modified montmorillonite nanocomposites. Microporous and Mesoporous Materials, 113, 99-105.
- Ferrer, E., Juan-García, A., Font, G., and Ruiz, M. (2009) Reactive oxygen species induced by beauvericin, patulin and zearalenone in CHO-K1 cells. Toxicology in Vitro, 23, $1504 - 1509.$
- Girish, C.K., Smith, T.K., Boermans, H.J., and Karrow, N.A. (2005) Effects of feeding blends of grains naturally contaminated with Fusarium mycotoxins on performance, hematology, metabolism, and immunocompetence of turkeys. Poultry Science, 84, 1179-1185.
- Glenn, A.E. (2007) Mycotoxigenic Fusarium species in animal feed. Animal Feed Science and Technology, 137, 213-240.
- Hassen, W., Ayed-Boussema, I., Oscoz, A.A., Lopez, A.C., and Bacha, H. (2007) The role of oxidative stress in zearalenone-mediated toxicity in Hep G2 cells: Oxidative DNA damage, gluthatione depletion and stress proteins induction. Toxicology, ²³², 294-302.
- Hestbjerg, H., Nielsen, K.F., Thrane, U., and Elmholt, S. (2002) Production of trichothecenes and other secondary metabolites by Fusarium culmorum and Fusarium equiseti on common laboratory media and a soil organic matter agar: an ecological interpretation. Journal of Agricultural and Food Chemistry, ⁵⁰, 7593-7599.
- Homolka, J. (1969) Clinic Biochemistry. Publishing House SZN, Prague, Czech Republic.
- Jia, Z., Liu, M., Qu, Z., Zhang, Y., Yin, S., and Shan, A. (2014) Toxic effects of zearalenone on oxidative stress, inflammatory cytokines, biochemical and pathological changes induced by this toxin in the kidney of pregnant rats. Environmental Toxicology and Pharmacology, 37, $580 - 591.$
- Jiang, S.Z., Yang, Z.B., Yang, W.R., Yao, B.Q., Zhao, H., Liu, F.X., Chen, C.C., and Chi, F. (2010) Effects of feeding purified zearalenone contaminated diets with or without clay enterosorbent on growth, nutrient availability, and genital organs in post-weaning female pigs. Asian-Australasian Journal of Animal Science, 23, 74-81.
- Jiang, S.Z., Yang, Z.B., Yang, W.R., Gao, J., Liu, F.X., Broomhead, J., and Chi, F. (2011) Effects of purified zearalenone on growth performance, organ size, serum metabolites, and oxidative stress in postweaning gilts. Journal of Animal Science, **89**, 3008-3015.
- Jiang, S.Z., Yang, Z.B., Yang, W.R., Wang, S.J., Wang, Y., Broomhead, J., Johnston, S. L., and Chi, F. (2012) Effect on hepatonephric organs, serum metabolites and oxidative stress in post-weaning piglets fed purified zearalenonecontaminated diets with or without Calibrin-Z. Journal of Animal Physiology and Animal Nutrition, 96, 1147-1156.
- Jiang, S.Z., Li, Z., Wang, G.Y., Yang, Z.B., Yang, W.R., Zhang, G.G., and Wu, Y.B. (2014) Effects of Fusarium mycotoxins with yeast cell wall absorbent on hematology, serum biochemistry, and oxidative stress in broiler chickens. Journal of Applied Poultry Research, 23, 165-173.
- Koraichi, F., Videmann, B., Mazallon, M., Benahmed, M., Prouillac, C., and Lecoeur, S. (2012) Zearalenone exposure modulates the expression of ABC transporters and nuclear receptors in pregnant rats and fetal liver. Toxicology Letters, $211, 246 - 256.$
- Kouadio, J.H., Mobio, T.A., Baudrimont, I., Moukha, S., Dano, S.D., and Creppy, E.E. (2005) Comparative study of cytotoxicity and oxidative stress induced by deoxynivalenol, zearalenone or fumonisin B_1 in human intestinal cell line Caco-2. Toxicology, 213, 56-65.
- Kramer, R.A., Zakher, J., and Kim, G. (1988) Role of the glutathione redox cycle in acquired and de novo multidrug resistance. Science, 241, 694-697.
- Lemke, S.L., Mayura, K., Reeves, W.R., Wang, N., Fickey, C., and Phillips, T.D. (2001) Investigation of organophilic montmorillonite clay inclusion in zearalenone-contaminated diets using the mouse uterine weight bioassay. Journal of Toxicology and Environmental Health, Part A, 62, $243 - 258$.
- Li, Z., Yang, Z.B., Yang, W.R., Wang, S.J., Jiang, S.Z., and Wu, Y.B. (2012) Effects of feed-borne Fusarium mycotoxins with or without yeast cell wall adsorbent on organ weight, serum biochemistry, and immunological parameters of broiler chickens. Poultry Science, 91, 2487-2495.
- Liu, M., Gao, R., Meng, Q., Zhang, Y., Bi, C., and Shan, A. (2014) Toxic effects of maternal zearalenone exposure on intestinal oxidative stress, barrier function, immunological and morphological changes in rats. PLoS One, 9, e106412.
- Malekinejad, H., Maas-Bakker, R., and Fink-Gremmels, J. (2006) Species differences in the hepatic biotransformation of zearalenone. The Veterinary Journal, 172, 96-102.
- Marin, D.E., Pistol, G.C., Neagoe, I.V., Calin, L., and Taranu, I. (2013) Effects of zearalenone on oxidative stress and inflammation in weanling piglets. Food and Chemical Toxicology, ⁵⁸, 408-415.
- Meister, A. (1994) Glutathione-ascorbic acid antioxidant system in animals. Journal of Biological Chemistry, 269, 9397-9400.
- Mirocha, C.J., Robison, T.S., Pawlosky, R.J., and Allen, N.K. (1982) Distribution and residue determination of [3H] zearalenone in broilers. Toxicology and Applied

Pharmacology, **66**, 77-87.

- Nesic, K., Pupavac S., and Sinovec, Z.J. (2005) Efficacy of different adsorbents in alleviating zearalenone effects on performance of pigs. Zbornik Matice Srpske Za Prirodne *Nauke*, **108**, 173-179.
- NRC (1994) Nutrient Requirements of Poultry. 9th edition. National Academy Press, Washington, DC.
- Othmen, O.B., Golli, E.E., Abid-Essefi, S., and Bacha, H. (2008) Cytotoxicity effects induced by Zearalenone metabolites, alpha Zearalenol and beta Zearalenol, on cultured Vero cells. Toxicology, 252, 72-77.
- Ouanes, Z., Abid, S., Ayed, I., Anane, R., Mobio, T., Creppy, E.E., and Bacha, H. (2003) Induction of micronuclei by Zearalenone in Vero monkey kidney cells and in bone marrow cells of mice: protective effect of Vitamin E. Mutation Research/Genetic Toxicology and Environmental Mutagenesis, **538**, 63-70.
- Schell, T., Lindemann, M., Kornegay, E., Blodgett, D., and Doerr, J. (1993) Effectiveness of different types of clay for reducing the detrimental effects of aflatoxin-contaminated diets on performance and serum profiles of weanling pigs. Journal of Animal Science, **71**, 1226-1231.
- Seong, H., Whang, H.S., and Ko, S. (2000) Synthesis of a quaternary ammonium derivative of chito-oligosaccharide as antimicrobial agent for cellulosic fibers. Journal of Applied Polymer Science, ⁷⁶, 2009-2015.
- Sies, H. (1991) Oxidative stress: from basic research to clinical application. American Journal of Medicine, $91, 31S-38S$.
- Šperanda, M., Liker, B., Šperanda, T., Šerić, V., Antunović, Z., Grabarević, Ž., and Steiner, Z. (2006) Haematological and biochemical parameters of weaned piglets fed on fodder mixture contaminated by zearalenone with addition of clinoptilolite. Acta Veterinaria, 6, 121-136.
- Swamy, H., Smith, T., Cotter, P., Boermans, H., and Sefton, A. (2002a) Effects of feeding blends of grains naturally contaminated with Fusarium mycotoxins on production and metabolism in broilers. Poultry Science, 81, 966-975.
- Swamy, H.V., Smith, T.K., MacDonald, E.J., Boermans, H.J., and Squires, E.J. (2002b) Effects of feeding a blend of grains naturally contaminated with Fusarium mycotoxins on swine performance, brain regional neurochemistry, and serum chemistry and the efficacy of a polymeric glucomannan mycotoxin adsorbent. Journal of Animal Science, $80, 3257 - 3267.$
- Tian, G., Wang, W., Mu, B., Kang, Y., and Wang, A. (2015) Facile fabrication of carbon/attapulgite composite for bleaching of palm oil. Journal of the Taiwan Institute of Chemical Engineers, 50, 252-258.
- Trailović, J.N., Stefanović, S., and Trailović, S.M. (2013) In vitro and in vivo protective effects of three mycotoxin adsorbents against ochratoxin a in broiler chickens. British Poultry Science, 54, 515.
- Turcotte, J.C., Hunt, P.J.B., and Blaustein, J.D. (2005) Estrogenic effects of zearalenone on the expression of progestin receptors and sexual behavior in female rats.

Hormones and Behavior, 47, 178-184.

- Vaca, C.E., Wilhelm, J., and Harmsringdahl, M. (1988) Interaction of lipid peroxidation products with DNA: A review. Mutation Research/Reviews in Genetic Toxicology, 195, $137-149$.
- Wang, D.F., Zhang, N.Y., Peng, Y.Z., and Qi, D.S. (2010) Interaction of zearalenone and soybean isoflavone on the development of reproductive organs, reproductive hormones and estrogen receptor expression in prepubertal gilts. Animal Reproduction Science, ¹²², 317-323.
- Wang, D.F., Zhang, N.Y., Peng, Y.Z., and Qi, D.S. (2012) Interaction of zearalenone and soybean isoflavone in diets on the growth performance, organ development and serum parameters in prepubertal gilts. Journal of Animal Physiology and Animal Nutrition, ⁹⁶, 939-946.
- Wang, D.F., Zhou, H.L., Hou, G.Y., Qi, D.S., and Zhang, N.Y. (2013) Soybean isoflavone reduces the residue of zearalenone in the muscle and liver of prepubertal gilts. Animal, 7, $699 - 703.$
- Wang, W., Tian, G., Zhang, Z., and Wang, A. (2015) A simple hydrothermal approach to modify palygorskite for highefficient adsorption of Methylene blue and Cu(II) ions. Chemical Engineering Journal, ²⁶⁵, 228-238.
- Yegani, M., Smith, T.K., Leeson, S., and Boermans, H.J. (2006) Effects of feeding grains naturally contaminated with Fusarium mycotoxins on performance and metabolism of broiler breeders. Poultry Science, 85, 1541.
- Yiannikouris, A., Kettunen, H., Apajalahti, J., Pennala, E., and Moran, C.A. (2013) Comparison of the sequestering properties of yeast cell wall extract and hydrated sodium calcium aluminosilicate in three in vitro models accounting for the animal physiological bioavailability of zearalenone. Food Additives and Contaminants Part A: Chemistry Analysis Control Exposure and Risk Assessment, 30, 1641-1650.
- Zelko, I.N., Mariani, T.J., and Folz, R.J. (2002) Superoxide dismutase multigene family: a comparison of the CuZn-SOD (SOD1), Mn-SOD (SOD2), and EC-SOD (SOD3) gene structures, evolution, and expression. Free Radical Biology and Medicine, $33, 337 - 349$.
- Zhang, L., Yan, R., Zhang, R., Wen, C., and Zhou, Y. (2017) Effect of different levels of palygorskite inclusion on pellet quality, growth performance and nutrient utilization in broilers. Animal Feed Science and Technology, 223, 73-81.
- Zinedine, A., Soriano, J.M., Moltó, J.C., and Mañes, J. (2007) Review on the toxicity, occurrence, metabolism, detoxification, regulations and intake of zearalenone: An oestrogenic mycotoxin. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 45, 1-18.
- Zourgui, L., Golli, E.E., Bouaziz, C., Bacha, H., and Hassen, W. (2008) Cactus (Opuntia ficus-indica) cladodes prevent oxidative damage induced by the mycotoxin zearalenone in Balb/C mice. Food and Chemical Toxicology, 46, 1817-1824.

(Received 15 October 2017; revised 10 April 2018; Ms. 1223; AE: Chun-Hui Zhou)