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Vitamin D-biofortified beef: a comparison of cholecalciferol with synthetic versus UVB-mushroom-derived ergosterol as feed source

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Abstract

This study investigates dietary fortification of heifer feeds with cholecalciferol and ergocalciferol sources and effects on beef total vitamin D activity, vitamer, respective 25-hydroxymetabolite contents, and meat quality. Thirty heifers were allocated to one of three dietary treatments [(1) basal diet+4000 IU of vitamin D\textsubscript{3} (Vit D\textsubscript{3}); (2) basal diet+4000 IU of vitamin D\textsubscript{2} (Vit D\textsubscript{2}); and (3) basal diet+4000 IU of vitamin D\textsubscript{2}-enriched mushrooms (Mushroom D\textsubscript{2})] for a 30 day pre-slaughter period. Supplementation of heifer diets with Vit D\textsubscript{3} yielded higher ($p < 0.001$) Longissimus thoracis (LT) total vitamin D activity (by 38-56%; $p < 0.05$) and serum 25-OH-D concentration (by 20-36%; $p < 0.05$), compared to that from Vit D\textsubscript{2} and Mushroom D\textsubscript{2} supplemented animals. Irrespective of vitamin D source, carcass characteristics, sensory and meat quality parameter were unaffected ($p > 0.05$) by the dietary treatments. In conclusion, vitamin D\textsubscript{3} biofortification of cattle diets is the most efficacious way to enhance total beef vitamin D activity.

Keywords: cholecalciferol; ergocalciferol; vitamin D\textsubscript{2}-enriched mushrooms; heifers; Longissimus thoracis.
1. Introduction

Vitamin D deficiency and associated health risks are very much to the forefront of public health policy, particularly in Europe and northern latitudes where a high prevalence of vitamin D deficiency has been observed (Cashman et al., 2016). Recent estimates from national surveys in Europe indicate that as much as 55 and 100% of adults (19–64 years) and older adults (> 64 years) have inadequate vitamin D intakes when compared to the Estimated Average Requirement (EAR) (Roman Viñas et al., 2011). Consequently, there is a definite need for innovatively designed natural food-based vitamin D-enhancement strategies which cover a range of stable food sources reflective of diversity in dietary patterns and fortification policies (Black, Seamans, Cashman and Kiely, 2012; Guo, Kliem, Lovergrove and Givens, 2017; Verkaik-Kloosterman, Seves and Ocké, 2017; Wilson, Tripkovic, Hart and Lanham-New, 2017).

The fortification of animal feeds to naturally enhance the vitamin D content of a wide range of food types is an enhancement strategy with high consumer appeal and offers the potential to increase vitamin D intakes at a population level (Duffy et al., 2017; Milešević, Samaniego, Kiely, Glibetić and Roe, 2018). Beef, is one such food that is a likely target for vitamin D biofortification. Additionally, beef is one of the few dietary staple foods which contain vitamin D and more importantly the 25-OH-D metabolite which is more biologically active at increasing total vitamin D content (Roseland, Philips, Patterson, Pehrsson and Taylor, 2018; Uusitalo et al., 2011). Indeed, previous work has successfully demonstrated the ability to enhance the content of vitamin D and/or 25-OH-D through short term dietary supplementation of vitamin D₃, potentially allowing for a ‘High in vitamin D’ claim on the beef product, along with a modest improvement in beef tenderness (Duffy et al., 2017).

Vitamin D exists in two prominent forms, (i) cholecalciferol (vitamin D₃) produced by the human body through ultraviolet B (UVB) rich sun light exposure and from animal-based food
products, or (ii) ergocalciferol (vitamin D₂) derived from exposing ergosterol, a common steroid found in plants, fungi and yeasts (Holick et al., 2008). Cashman et al. (2014), in their investigation of the contribution of food-derived vitamin D₂ to overall vitamin D nutritional status in the human population, suggested that vitamin D₂, as well as possibly 25-OH-D₂ naturally present in beef, may be of potential importance. In terms of enhancing the natural level of vitamin D in meat via biofortification, the choice of vitamer (e.g. vitamin D₂ or D₃) for fortification purposes has been highlighted as an important consideration (Cashman, 2012). In Europe, Article 9t (b) of Council Directive 70/524/EEC allows a maximum content of 4000 IU of vitamin D/kg of complete feeding stuff or of the daily ration of cattle, but as either vitamin D₂ or D₃. This assumes equivalence between both vitamers, but there has been a growing body of evidence from human nutrition studies to suggest that vitamin D₂ may be less effective in raising total serum 25-OH-D compared to an equivalent amount of vitamin D₃ (Tripkovic et al., 2012). This may also be the case for cattle, with implications for uptake into muscle.

It is of note that many species of mushrooms have a high ergosterol content which offers the potential to form vitamin D₂, if they are exposed to UVB radiation (Kalaras, Beelman and Elias, 2012). Indeed, mushroom-derived vitamin D₂ is an under-investigated potential novel food-based source for application in the production of vitamin D-biofortified beef and other red meats, and could potentially be a more efficacious, cost-effective and renewable source compared to synthetic vitamin D₃ and vitamin D₂ alternatives (Itkonen et al., 2016). Therefore, the objective of this study was to assess the effects of addition of synthetic vitamin D₃ and vitamin D₂, as well as UVB-exposed mushroom-derived vitamin D₂, to the diets fed to beef heifers, at the EU allowable level. The study also includes total vitamin D activity, as well as individual vitamers and their 25-hydroxyvitamin metabolites and subsequent effects on meat quality.
2. Material and methods

2.1. General
All experimental procedures described in this work were approved by the University College Dublin Animal Research Ethics Committee (AREC-14-05-Kelly) and conducted under experimental license from the Department of Health in accordance with the cruelty to animal act 1876 and the European Communities (amendments of cruelty to animal act, 1876) Regulations (1994).

2.2. Experimental design and dietary treatments
Thirty continental heifers were blocked on the basis of live weight and age and randomly allocated to one of three dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂) and (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms (Mushroom D₂). Dietary treatments were offered for the final 30 d period pre-slaughter. The basal diet consisted of a standard *ad-libitum* finishing regime of concentrates and forage (straw) offered at a ratio of 90:10. Diets were formulated to meet nutrient requirements of finishing beef heifers and the basic diet contained 110 g/kg of crude protein and 11.4 MJ/kg of metabolizable energy. Detailed ingredient composition and chemical analysis of the diets are presented in Tables 1 and 2. The vitamin D₃ levels in the experimental diets were chosen to comply with EU regulations. The 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg/feed in bovine diets is the maximum inclusion rate permitted in the EU (EFSA, 2012). The vitamin D₃ was sourced from DSM, Nutritional Products Limited, UK. The vitamin D₂ was sourced from A & Z Food Additives Co., Limited, Zhejiang, China. The dried vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms were sourced from Monaghan Mushrooms, Ireland. The mushroom vitamin D₂ content was naturally enhanced, following exposure to synthetic UVB at a dose strength of 1.5 J/cm² for 3 s, as previously described by Stepien et al. (2013). The dried
mushroom powder was included at 1.82 g/kg of feed, this inclusion level was added to obtain 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed. The vitamin D₂-enriched mushroom powder was analysed by high-performance liquid chromatography, for vitamin D concentration prior to diet manufacture.

2.3. Feed management and live weight

Heifers were housed in a slatted floor building; dietary treatments were equally represented across 5 pens of 6 heifers per pen with a 2.5 m² animal space allowance. Heifers were individually fed using a Calan Broadbent controlled feeding system (American Calan, Northwood, New Hampshire 03261, USA). Each animal was fitted with a unique key hung from a neck cord. The animal’s sensor key recognises the electronic circuit board on each feeder and unlocks the feed door. Feed was weighed in and refusals weighed back on a daily basis to monitor dry matter intake; refusals were discarded daily. Feed samples were taken at diet manufacture and weekly throughout the experimental period for chemical analysis and stored at -20 °C pending laboratory analysis. Heifers were weighed weekly throughout the experiment, using a ‘Weigh Crate’ (O’Donovan’s Engineering, Cork, Ireland) and the ‘Winweigh’ software package (Tru-test Ltd., Auckland, New Zealand). Average daily gains during the experimental period were calculated, using linear regression of live weight against recording date for each heifer and using the REG procedure in SAS (SAS, 2006).

2.4. Carcass analysis

Post-slaughter carcass weight was determined for each heifer (hot carcass weight × 0.98). The video imaging analysis carcass classification system (VBS 2000, E+V, Germany) mechanically assigned each carcass side a carcass conformation and fat score on a 15 point scale, using the EU Beef Carcass Classifications Scheme (Hickey, Keane, Kenny, Cromie and Veerkamp, 2007). The Longissimus thoracis (LT) (the cube roll, commercial cut that
begins between the 5th and 6th rib and ends between the 10th and 11th rib) was excised after 14 d of wet ageing at 4 °C, as described by Moran et al. (2017). Thereafter, the LT was cut into 2.5 cm thick steaks for vitamin D analysis, chemical composition and tenderness analysis. All steaks were vacuum-packed and frozen at –20 °C prior to analysis.

2.5. Chemical analysis of feed

Feed samples were analysed for dry matter (DM), ash, nitrogen (N), gross energy (GE), ether extract (EE) and neutral detergent fibre (NDF). All samples were dried at 55 °C for 72 hours (h), milled and passed through a 1 mm screen (Christy and Norris, Chelmsford, England) prior to analysis. Feed DM was determined after drying overnight (16 h minimum) at 105 °C. The crude ash content of the diets was determined at 550 °C for 6 h, after ignition of weighed samples in a muffle furnace (Nabertherm, Bremen, Germany). The GE of feed was measured, using an adiabatic bomb calorimeter (Parr Instruments, IL, USA). The N content of the diets was determined as N × 6.25, using a LECO FP 528 instrument (LECO Instruments, USA). Ether extract concentration (g/kg DM) of feed was determined, using light petroleum ether and Soxtec instrumentation (Tecator, Sweden). The NDF content of the feed was determined with a Fibretec extraction unit. All samples were measured in duplicate.

2.6. Blood sampling, serum and muscle calcium determination

Prior to slaughter serum samples were taken via the jugular vein, using lithium/heparin vacutainers (BD- Plymouth, UK). The blood was stored overnight at 4 °C and centrifuged at 4720 g for 20 minutes (min) at 4 °C (40R centrifuge, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Ireland), after which the serum layer was subsequently removed from the blood cell layer and stored in 1.5 ml tubes at -20 °C until required for further vitamin D and calcium (Ca) analysis. Serum and LT Ca was determined with an atomic absorption spectrophotometer (Varian 50, Varian, Santa Clara, CA, USA), using the method of Foote, Horst, Huff-Lonergan, Trenkle, Parrish and Beitz. (2004), with minor modifications. Briefly, serum samples were prepared and
measured in duplicate, 100 µl of plasma were diluted with 5 ml of 0.1% lanthanum oxide solution. A standard curve was prepared by using 0, 5, 10 and 15 mg/dl of CaCl₂.

*Longissimus thoracis* samples were measured similarly in duplicate; approximately 5 g of wet tissue were excised from each beef steak, homogenised using a blender (Waring commercial blender), and dried overnight at 105 °C. Meat samples were then ashed at 550 °C in a muffle furnace (Nabertherm, Bremen, Germany) for 6 h. Ashed samples were suspended in 25 ml of 3 N hydrochloric acid. Samples were then analysed by diluting 1 ml of hydrochloric acid preparation with 4 ml of 0.1% lanthanum oxide solution.

### 2.7. *Longissimus thoracis* chemical composition

*Longissimus thoracis* samples were analysed for moisture, ash, N and inter-muscular fat in duplicate. Moisture and ash were determined according to the method of AOAC 2005 (950.46B and 920.153). First, approximately 50 g of LT tissue were excised from each beef steak, trimmed of external fat and connective tissue and homogenised using a blender (Waring commercial blender). *Longissimus thoracis* moisture, ash, N and inter-muscular fat content were determined as previously described for chemical analysis of feed. An internal standard ERM-BB501 (LGC standards, Middlesex, UK) was used for the calibration of LT chemical analysis.

### 2.8. Vitamin D analysis of LT, serum and feed

The ‘total vitamin D activity’ of LT steaks and vitamin D₃, 25-OH-D₃, vitamin D₂ and 25-OH-D₂ metabolite contents of experimental diets were analysed using modifications of a sensitive liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry (LC/MS/MS) method, as described elsewhere by Roseland et al. (2016). Total vitamin D activity of LT was defined as [vitamin D₃ + (25-OH-D₃ × 5) + vitamin D₂ + (25-OH-D₂) × 5]. The conversion factor of 5 is applied to the 25-OH-D₃ and 25-OH-D₂ content on the basis of efficacy data from a
randomized controlled trial with oral vitamin D₃ and 25-OH-D₃ in healthy adults (Cashman et al., 2012), and is a factor commonly used in several food-composition tables (Finglas et al., 2015). It should be noted, however, that equivalent data do not exist for vitamin D₂ and 25-OH-D₂, so we assumed a conversion factor of 5 in our calculation of total vitamin D activity of LT. Serum 25-OH-D₃ and 25-OH-D₂ were analysed by LC-MS/MS, as described by Cashman et al. (2013). Serum total 25-OH-D concentration was calculated as \([25\text{-OH-D}_3 + 25\text{-OH-D}_2]\).

2.9. Warner-Bratzler shear force (WBSF) determination of LT

Warner Bratzler shear force analysis was carried out according to Wheeler, Shackelford and Koohmaraie (1996), with some modifications. Briefly, LT samples were de-frosted overnight at 4 °C, trimmed of external fat, weighed and cooked in open vacuum bags in a circulating water bath (model no. Y38, Grant Instruments Ltd., Barrington, Cambridge CB2 IBR, UK) set at 72 °C, until an internal temperature of 70 °C was achieved. Internal temperature was monitored by placing a thermocouple in the geometric centre of each steak; four steaks were cooked per water bath to ensure water circulation was consistent around all samples. Steaks were cooled sufficiently at room temperature and were placed in storage bags (to prevent dehydration) and were stored at 4 °C overnight. Coring was carried out on chilled samples after 24 h, eight (1.25 cm diameter) cores, parallel to longitudinal orientation of fibres, were collected from each sample and sheared, using an Instron universal testing machine (Model no. 5543, Instron Europe, High Wycombe, Bucks, UK) instrument equipped with a Warner Bratzler shearing device. Cores were sheared at a crosshead speed of 200 - 250 mm/min. Cores that were not uniform in diameter or containing obvious connective tissue defects were discarded. Calibration was carried out before each analysis; load cell was 500 Newtons (NT) and the instrument was allowed to warm for 30 mins before use. Before each run, 3 blank runs below 1 NT were recorded; blanks were also recorded after every 10 samples. For
analysis of the data, Instron Series IX Automated Materials Testing System software for Windows (Instron Corporation, Bucks, UK) was employed.

2.10. Sensory evaluation
Sensory analysis of cooked beef steaks (n = 30) was performed in duplicate (10 mins/session) by a total of 40 naïve assessors (untrained) (70% males, 30% females ranging in age from 21-63 years) over two analysis days, as described by O'Sullivan, Byrne, and Martens, (2003). On each analysis day, beef steaks (n = 5) from each dietary treatment were covered with aluminium foil and cooked in an oven (Zanussi Professional, Model 10 GN1/1, Conegliano, Italy) at 200 °C until an internal meat temperature of 72 °C was reached. Following cooking, steaks were cooled, cut into 2 cm × 2 cm cubes and pooled for each treatment group, from which cubes were randomly selected, placed on plates and identified with random three-digit codes. Sample presentation order (3 samples/plate × 2 plates = 6 samples/panellist) was randomised to prevent any flavour carryover effects. Prior to serving to panellists, beef samples were re-heated in a microwave oven for 20 seconds to release the meat odour and flavour. Sensory analysis was undertaken in University College Cork’s sensory laboratory panel booths in accordance with the ISO (2007) international standard regulations. Assessors were provided with water to cleanse their pallets between samples. Hedonic sensory analysis descriptors were appearance, odour, liking of texture, liking of flavour and overall acceptability. Off-flavour was selected as an intensity sensory analysis descriptor. Assessors were asked to rate samples for each attribute by marking a point on a 10 cm line scale ranging from 0 (extremely dislike/none) to 10 (extremely like/extreme) with anchor points on each end.

2.11. Statistical analysis
Data were checked for normality and homogeneity of variance by histograms, qq plots, and formal statistical tests as part of the UNIVARIATE procedure of SAS (SAS, 2006). Data that
were not normally distributed were transformed by raising the variable to the power of lambda. The appropriate lambda value was obtained by conducting a Box-Cox transformation analysis, using the TRANSREG procedure of SAS. The transformed data were used to calculate P values. The corresponding least squares means (LSM) and standard errors of the non-transformed data are presented in the results for clarity. Animal performance, vitamin D meat content, serum 25-OH-D and shear force data were analysed, using a randomised mixed model ANOVA with the MIXED procedure of SAS. Fixed effects in the statistical model include dietary treatment and pen. Block was included as a random effect. Differences between treatments were determined by F-test, using Type III sums of squares. The PDIFF command incorporating the Tukey test was applied to evaluate pairwise comparisons between treatment means. Mean values were considered to be statistically significantly different when $p < 0.05$ and considered a tendency when $p < 0.10$ but $> 0.05$. Least square means are reported with pooled standard errors (SEMs).

3. Results

3.1. Animal performance and carcass data

The effects of dietary treatment on heifer performance and carcass characteristics are presented in Table 3. Dietary treatment had no effect ($p > 0.05$), on any of the animal performance parameters examined, including DM intake, slaughter weight and average daily gain. Similarly, carcass weight, kill out %, carcass conformation and fat score were not affected ($p > 0.05$) by dietary treatment.

3.2. Vitamin D activity in LT steaks and serum 25-OH-D

The effects of dietary treatment on serum 25-OH-D$_3$ and 25-OH-D$_2$, separately and combined as serum total 25-OH-D, are presented in Table 4. Results showed that heifers offered the Vit D$_3$ exhibited the highest ($p < 0.001$) serum 25-OH-D$_3$ content (compared to
other dietary treatments) and serum 25-OH-D₃ concentrations did not differ between heifers offered the Vit D₂ or Mushroom D₂ in this 30 day feeding period. As expected, heifers offered the Vit D₂ and Mushroom D₂ had a greater ($p < 0.001$) serum 25-OH-D₂ content compared to the Vit D₃ treatment group. Serum total 25-OH-D content was highest ($p < 0.001$) for heifers offered the Vit D₃, compared to either, Vit D₂ or Mushroom D₂, with no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between these latter two groups. The effects of dietary treatments on LT vitamin D compounds (vitamin D₃, 25-OH-D₃, vitamin D₂ and 25-OH-D₂) and LT total vitamin D activity (i.e. vitamin D₃ + 25-OH-D₃ × 5 + vitamin D₂ + 25-OH-D₂ × 5) are presented in Table 4. As expected, heifers offered the Vit D₃ had higher LT vitamin D₃ ($p < 0.001$) and LT 25-OH-D₃ metabolites, compared to either Vit D₂ or Mushroom D₂, and showed no significant difference ($p > 0.05$) between these latter groups. Also, as expected, heifers offered the Vit D₂ and the Mushroom D₂ exhibited the highest ($p < 0.001$) LT vitamin D₂ and LT 25-OH-D₂ metabolites compared to the Vit D₃ treatment.

For total vitamin D activity, heifers offered the Vit D₃ had the highest ($p < 0.05$) compared to either of the two vitamin D₂ supplementation sources. Additionally, LT total vitamin D activity did not differ ($p > 0.05$) between the Vit D₂ and the Mushroom D₂ treatment groups.

3.3. Calcium activity in serum and LT steaks and beef WBSF values, sensory analysis and Longissimus thoracis chemical composition

The effects of dietary treatment on serum and LT Ca activity are presented in Fig. 1 (a-b) and WBSF values are presented in Table 5. Calcium concentrations in serum and beef were not different ($p > 0.05$) across the vitamin D supplementation treatment groups. Dietary treatment did not alter ($p > 0.05$) WBSF values. Vitamin D source had no significant impact ($p > 0.05$) on any of the sensory parameters of the LT evaluated, including appearance, odour, texture, flavour, overall acceptance and off-flavour. For LT muscle, the chemical composition
(including moisture, protein, ash or inter muscular fat components) was not affected with average values across treatment of 69.6%, 1.0%, 25.9% and 3.4% for moisture, ash, protein and inter-muscular fat, respectively, as presented in Table 5.

4. Discussion

As a stable dietary food for many populations, beef is now recognised as an important natural source of vitamin D, and the biofortification of livestock feeds is a strategy shown to successfully boost vitamin D beef levels even further (Duffy et al., 2017). This approach has strong consumer appeal and when combined with other food-wide strategies could go some way in bridging the gap between current population vitamin D intakes and recommended requirements (Cashman et al., 2016).

The choice of vitamin D compound to be added to the livestock feeds is an important consideration in terms of the overall biofortification approach (Cashman, 2012). Accordingly, the present study assessed the effects of vitamin D₃ and vitamin D₂ (synthetic and naturally-derived from UVB-exposed mushrooms) fortification of livestock feeds on beef total vitamin D activity, as well as on its vitamer and associated 25-hydroxy metabolite content, and on key aspects of meat quality. Of importance, results showed that supplementation of livestock feeds with Vit D₃ led to significantly greater (38-56%) total vitamin D activity of the resulting beef steak than that from either Vit D₂ or Mushroom D₂ treatment sources (all provided at the EU allowable level for vitamin D). These values are comparable to those in a previous study by Duffy et al. (2017), where similar animals and diets were fed the Vit D₂ and Mushroom D₂ and had an (100 and 60%) increase in total LT activity compared to the negative control (0 IU).

It is important to stress that while there were no differences in animal performance and carcass characteristics, which in this sense supports the European Food Safety Authority’s
Panel on Additives and Products or Substances used in Animal Feed assumption of equivalence of vitamin D₂ and D₃, from a human nutrition perspective there are differences. The meat value from the vitamin D₂-supplemented animals was less, such that typical UK average serving sizes of steak (144 g) arising from the LT of Vit D₃- Vit D₂- and Mushroom D₂-supplemented groups would have 2.0, 1.5 and 1.3 µg of total vitamin D activity, respectively. Consumption of a typical serving size of vitamin D₃-biofortified meat would contribute ~20% to the current EAR of 10 µg/d (Institute of Medicine, 2011). Despite modestly less overall vitamin activity compared to that arising from vitamin D₃-biofortified beef, there was no difference in total vitamin D activity in LT of animals supplemented with Vit D₂ and Mushroom D₂, and consumption of typical serving sizes of steaks from these would contribute ~15 and ~13% to the EAR, respectively. This livestock study, to the author’s knowledge, is the first to use and test dried UVB-exposed mushroom as a natural novel feed ingredient. The analytical data for the vitamin D-biofortified beef, irrespective of which form of vitamin D was used, are also important as it is deficient in many food compositional databases, particularly the contribution attributed to 25-OH-D₃ and 25-OH-D₂. Fundamentally, in order to make a nutrition claim on the vitamin D status of beef, certified vitamin D and 25-OH-D contents will be a necessity and in time will likely be a labelling prerequisite (Taylor et al., 2014).

The modestly lower effectiveness of vitamin D₂ supplementation, be it as synthetic or via the more natural UVB-exposed mushroom source, in terms of resulting total vitamin D activity in the beef, is likely to be associated with the significantly lower (by 20-36%) serum total 25-OH-D in these two treatment groups compared to that of the vitamin D₃-supplemented group. This would have consequences for uptake into the muscle tissue. While this is, to our knowledge, one of the first such comparisons in livestock, the findings agree with an increasing body of evidence from intervention studies with vitamin D₂ versus D₃ in human
subjects which likewise suggest a lower effectiveness of supplement vitamin D$_2$ in raising serum total 25-OH-D (Tripkoic et al., 2012). Various mechanisms have been proposed to explain these findings. For example, vitamin D$_3$ sources may increase systematic 25-OH-D to a greater extent due to a lower affinity of circulating vitamin D-binding protein for vitamin D$_2$ compared to vitamin D$_3$, leading to a more rapid metabolism and clearance of vitamin D$_2$ from blood (Armas, Hollis and Heaney, 2004) or a higher affinity of the hepatic-based 25-hydroxylase enzyme for vitamin D$_3$ compared to vitamin D$_2$ (Horst and Littledike, 1982). There has also been recent evidence to suggest that increasing the vitamin D$_2$ intake (by supplementation or even by UVB-exposed mushrooms) in healthy humans and increasing serum 25-OH-D$_2$ concentrations, leads to a concomitant decrease in serum 25-OH-D$_3$ concentrations, thus limiting the overall response of serum total 25-OH-D (Cashman, Kiely, Seamans and Urbain, 2016).

Skeletal muscle cells are a target organ for vitamin D metabolites, as the vitamin D receptor is expressed in large quantities in muscle cells (Hamilton, 2010) and thus may benefit from vitamin D enrichments. While structurally, vitamin D$_2$ differs from vitamin D$_3$ by the addition of a double bond, metabolism of both vitamers occurs through the same pathway in cattle (Horst and Littledike, 1982). Although both forms contribute to the overall signalling events of vitamin D, vitamin D$_3$ is considered the predominant form in cattle (Horst and Littledike, 1982). Vitamin D$_3$-enriched diets supplemented prior to slaughter have also been reported to improve post-mortem proteolysis and reduce shear force values, thereby improving beef tenderness; however in the majority of these cattle studies, supplementation was at ultra-high levels, posing potential toxicity concerns (Montgomery, Parrish, Beitz, Horst, Huff-Lonergan, and Trenkle, 2000). Our group has shown (Duffy et al., 2017) that raising vitamin D$_3$ (at allowable EU supplementation) levels in the diet modestly improved beef tenderness (indicative by a decrease in shear force values of LT muscle), which was
most likely due to the interactive roles that vitamin D and Ca play in the muscle proteolysis
and tenderisation process (Swanek et al., 1999). However, the role that vitamin D₂ plays in
meat tenderisation is not at all elucidated. In the present study, instrumental shear force
values were similar for all dietary treatment, regardless of vitamin D dietary source. This may
be due to the fact that, even though serum 25-OH-D levels differed modestly between the
vitamin D₃- and D₂-supplemented groups, the Ca levels were unaffected and free Ca and Ca-
dependent proteases are both centrally involved in the post mortem tenderization process of
beef (Swanek et al., 1999). The differences in serum 25-OH-D between the vitamin D₃- and
D₂-supplemented groups may not have been of a magnitude to induce changes in serum Ca,
which was seen in our previous study where serum 25-OH-D changes in heifers were
considerable due to the vitamin D₃ dose-related (0, 2000 and 4000 IU/kg) design of the trial
(Duffy et al., 2017). The lack of effect in terms of instrumental shear force values of LT
muscle between groups may explain the lack of effect on any of the sensory parameters
evaluated, including appearance, odour, texture, flavour, overall acceptance and off flavour in
the present study. The post mortem ageing process can be identified by enhancement of beef
sensory quality. However the present findings indicate that vitamin D source supplementation
causes no negative alteration on sensory evaluation in aged beef; this is in line with our
previous study (Duffy et al., 2017) which reported no difference in sensory properties
compared to the control (0 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed) when heifer diets were enriched with
vitamin D₃ (2000 IU – 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed). Furthermore, these findings are
also in line with those of Montgomery et al. (2000) who reported no differences in any of the
key sensory traits for aged steaks of beef cattle supplemented with super-nutritional levels (0
– 7.5 × 10⁶) of vitamin D₃.
4. Conclusion

Vitamin D₃ supplementation of cattle diets is more effective for increasing total beef vitamin D content than are natural or synthetic vitamin D₂ sources for a 30 day feeding period. The biofortification of heifer diets with 4000 IU of vitamin D₃ will contribute 20% per 100 g of beef to the EAR for vitamin D. Irrespective of vitamin D source, no negative alterations to any sensory or meat quality parameters is an important finding from a consumer acceptance viewpoint.

Conflict of interest

The authors wish to confirm that there are no known conflicts of interest associated with this publication.

Acknowledgments

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References


European food safety authority (EFSA). (2012) Scientific opinion on the safety and efficacy of vitamin D₃ (cholecalciferol) as a feed additive for chickens for fattening, turkeys, other poultry, pigs, piglets (suckling), calves for rearing, calves for fattening, bovines, penguins, equines, fish and other animal species or categories, based on a dossier submitted by DSM. *EFSA Journal, 10*(12), 2968-2993.


List of Figures

Fig. 1. Effect of dietary treatment on (a) serum calcium (Ca) concentration and (b) LT Ca content.
Highlights

UVB-exposed vitamin D₂-rich mushroom used as a natural novel feed ingredient

Dietary biofortification can successfully enhance beef vitamin D content

Vitamin D₃ is efficient supplementation source to boost beef vitamin D activity

Consumption of vitamin D₃-biofortified diet can contribute ~20% to the current EAR
Fig. 1.
Table 1

Ingredients’ composition of the basal diet offered to heifers over the experimental period. Ingredients (g/kg), unless otherwise indicated.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Ingredient (g/kg)*</th>
<th>Concentrate : forage ratio</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rolled barley</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ground maize</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Beet pulp nuts</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Soy hulls</td>
<td>140</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Rape meal</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Wheat distillers dried grain</td>
<td>70</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Cane molasses</td>
<td>50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Minerals and vitamins</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>90:10</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Vitamin D₃ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D₂).

Vitamin D₂-enriched diets was added to the at an inclusion level of 1.82 mushroom D₂ g/kg of feed to obtain the inclusion level of 4000 IU/kg of feed.

The premix provided vitamins and minerals (per kg diet) as follows: 5000 IU vitamin A, 1000 IU vitamin E, 25 mg cupric sulphate pentahydrate, 1000 mg ferrous sulphate monohydrate, 67 mg calcium iodate anhydrous, 1000 mg manganous oxide, 1678 mg zinc oxide, 8 mg sodium selenite.
Table 2
The analysed chemical profile of the experimental diets during the experimental period.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Item (g/kg)</th>
<th>Dietary treatments*</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vit D₃</td>
<td>Vit D₂</td>
<td>Mushroom D₂</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Concentrate</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry matter</td>
<td>827</td>
<td>826</td>
<td>828</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>52.8</td>
<td>55.0</td>
<td>52.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude protein (N × 6.25)</td>
<td>102</td>
<td>103</td>
<td>103</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ether extract</td>
<td>16.9</td>
<td>16.1</td>
<td>16.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral detergent fibre</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>198</td>
<td>199</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin D (IU/kg)</td>
<td>4320</td>
<td>4290</td>
<td>4276</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Straw</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Dry matter</td>
<td>880</td>
<td>881</td>
<td>880</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td>80.4</td>
<td>80.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Crude protein (N × 6.25)</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td>38.6</td>
<td>38.8</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ether extract</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>12.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Neutral detergent fibre</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>844</td>
<td>843</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Vitamin D₃ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D₂).

Cholecalciferol concentration of experimental diets measured using sensitive liquid chromatography-tandem mass spectrometry as described by (Burild et al., 2014), while the content of Vitamin D₂ in the other two groups were calculated.
Table 3

Effect of cholecalciferol inclusion on animal performance and carcass characteristics (LSM ± SEM*).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dietary treatments*</th>
<th>SEM*</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vit D3</td>
<td>Vit D2</td>
<td>Mushroom D2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>DM intake (kg)</td>
<td>9.37</td>
<td>9.41</td>
<td>9.39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vitamin D intake (IU/day)</td>
<td>40892</td>
<td>41269</td>
<td>40994</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>End weight (kg)</td>
<td>624.80</td>
<td>626.30</td>
<td>628.00</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Average daily gain (kg)</td>
<td>1.01</td>
<td>0.98</td>
<td>0.99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carcass weight (kg)</td>
<td>342.75</td>
<td>344.00</td>
<td>345.37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Kill out %</td>
<td>54.89</td>
<td>54.98</td>
<td>55.03</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Carcass conformation (1-15)</td>
<td>8.90</td>
<td>9.60</td>
<td>9.45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Fat score</td>
<td>10.30</td>
<td>10.15</td>
<td>9.89</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Vitamin D₃ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D₂).

*LSM = Least square mean; SEM = Standard error of the mean.

Table 4


<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dietary treatments*</th>
<th>SEM*</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vit D3</td>
<td>Vit D2</td>
<td>Mushroom D2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Serum (nmol/l)*</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-OH-D₃</td>
<td>145*</td>
<td>82.2b</td>
<td>70.2b</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Vitamin D₃ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D₂).

*LSM = Least square mean; SEM = Standard error of the mean.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>25-OH-D$_2$</th>
<th>LT (µg/100g)†</th>
<th>Vitamin D$_3$</th>
<th>25-OH-D$_3$</th>
<th>Vitamin D$_2$</th>
<th>25-OH-D$_2$</th>
<th>Total vitamin D activity§</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>20.0$^a$</td>
<td>166$^a$</td>
<td>0.09$^a$</td>
<td>0.23$^a$</td>
<td>&lt; 0.01$^a$</td>
<td>0.03$^a$</td>
<td>1.38$^a$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total 25-OH-D</td>
<td>56.1$^b$</td>
<td>138$^b$</td>
<td>0.02$^b$</td>
<td>0.12$^b$</td>
<td>0.03$^b$</td>
<td>0.09$^b$</td>
<td>1.10$^b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>51.2$^b$</td>
<td>121$^b$</td>
<td>0.02$^b$</td>
<td>0.09$^b$</td>
<td>0.01$^a$</td>
<td>0.07$^b$</td>
<td>0.88$^b$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.717</td>
<td>11.279</td>
<td>0.009</td>
<td>0.012</td>
<td>0.003</td>
<td>0.006</td>
<td>0.082</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.025</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.002</td>
<td>0.001</td>
<td>0.004</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

$^a$Vitamin D$_3$ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D$_3$/kg of feed (Vit D$_3$); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D$_2$/kg of feed (Vit D$_2$); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D$_2$-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D$_2$).

$^b$LSM = Least square mean; SEM = Standard error of the mean

$^a,b,c$ Means within a row with different superscripts differ ($p < 0.01$)

$^n = 10$ per dietary treatment group for serum and $n = 7$ per dietary treatment group for LT

$^\S$Total vitamin D activity is calculated as vitamin D$_3$ + 25-OH-D$_3$ ($\times$ 5) + vitamin D$_2$ + 25-OH-D$_2$ ($\times$ 5) (Cashman et al., 2012)
Table 5
Effect of experimental diets on mean sensory scores, chemical composition and Warner Bratzler shear force values of Longissimus thoracis (LT; 14 d-aged) samples from vitamin D-supplemented heifers (LSM ± SEM).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variable</th>
<th>Dietary treatments</th>
<th>SEM ²</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Vit D₃</td>
<td>Vit D₂</td>
<td>Mushroom D₂</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sensory evaluation (0-10)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Overall acceptance</td>
<td>6.39</td>
<td>6.23</td>
<td>6.11</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Appearance</td>
<td>6.52</td>
<td>6.65</td>
<td>6.50</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Odour</td>
<td>6.29</td>
<td>6.30</td>
<td>6.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Texture</td>
<td>6.00</td>
<td>5.94</td>
<td>5.83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flavour</td>
<td>6.35</td>
<td>6.27</td>
<td>6.26</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Off-flavour</td>
<td>1.26</td>
<td>1.58</td>
<td>1.42</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Chemical composition (g/kg)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Moisture</td>
<td>69.50</td>
<td>69.72</td>
<td>69.54</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ash</td>
<td>1.05</td>
<td>1.03</td>
<td>1.052</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Protein (N x 6.25)</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>25.7</td>
<td>26.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Inter muscular fat</td>
<td>3.63</td>
<td>3.39</td>
<td>3.21</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Shear force values (NT)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>WBSF</td>
<td>36.15</td>
<td>37.85</td>
<td>38.40</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Vitamin D₃ was added to the basal diet in order to obtain 3 levels of dietary treatments: (1) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₃/kg of feed (Vit D₃); (2) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂/kg of feed (Vit D₂); (3) basal diet + 4000 IU of vitamin D₂-enriched mushrooms/kg of feed (Mushroom D₂).
²LSM = Least square mean, SEM = Standard error of the mean
WBSF = Warner-Bratzler shear force.