

Bone morphometric, densitometric and mechanical properties in 14-month-old ostriches fed experimental diet enriched with linseed*

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The aim of the study was to evaluate the influence of the diet enriched with linseed on morphometric, densitometric and mechanical properties of tibio-tarsus and tarso-metatarsus in 14-month-old ostriches.

The experimental diet including 4% of linseed was applied to ostriches (N=8) starting from the attainment of 45 kg of body weight, while the control birds (N=8) were fed the standard diet. At the age of 14 months of life, blood samples were collected and the birds were slaughtered to isolate left tibio-tarsus and tarso-metatarsus.

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Dual-energy X-ray absorptiometry method was used to evaluate the bone mineral density and bone mineral content. Using quantitative computed tomography, total bone volume, mean volumetric bone mineral density, volumetric bone mineral density of trabecular and cortical bone, cortical bone area, calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular and cortical bone were also determined. Cross-sectional area, second moment of inertia, mean relative wall thickness and cortical index were determined. Maximum elastic strength and ultimate strength of bones were determined using three-point bending test. Total antioxidative capacity in the serum was measured using commercial photometric test. In the experimental group of males, cortical bone area reached significantly higher value, while calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone of tibio-tarsus was significantly lower, when compared to sex-matched controls ($P < 0.05$).

In conclusion, the experimental diet enriched with 4% of linseed, starting from 45 of kg of body weight of birds, had neither the positive nor negative effects on the evaluated bone properties in 14-month-old ostriches. Thus, higher dietary dosage of linseed or different administration period of the experimental diet should be applied to expect effects on skeletal system quality in growing ostriches.

KEY WORDS: linseed / ostrich / skeletal system quality / quantitative computed tomography / tibio-tarsus / tarso-metatarsus

Increased interest in Ratitae breeding, including ostriches (*Struthio camelus var. domesticus*) is observed recently [Cooper and Horbańczuk 2004, Kawka *et al.* 2007, 2012a, b, Rybnik *et al.* 2007, Poławska *et al.* 2011]. Ostriches are considered as an alternative poultry species providing very high quality meat and skins [Hoffman *et al.* 2008, Sales and Horbańczuk 1998, Sales *et al.* 1999, Horbańczuk *et al.* 1998, 2007, 2008, Poławska *et al.* 2011, 2013]. It may be predicted that in Poland and in whole Europe the development of breeding farms will be observed in nearest future. However, intensive growth rate observed in ostriches breeding at farm conditions is associated with increased occurrence of development-origin bone disorders, especially concerning long bones in pelvic limb and affecting locomotory functions of the birds [Horbańczuk *et al.* 2004, Cooper 2007, Cooper *et al.* 2008]. Thus, modification of the standard diet applied to ostriches during breeding period is recommended to improve skeletal system quality and diminish bone disorders occurrence. Bone-related disorders affects negatively economic outcomes of ostriches breeding process, the animal welfare, the health status and the final meat product quality. Thus, novel effective breeding strategies based on dietary factors and leading to improvement of ostrich skeletal system quality, meat quality, animal welfare and health status of birds should be evaluated and introduced.

Omega-3 (O-3) and omega-6 (O-6) fatty acids (FAs) and their common ratio (O-6FAs/O-3FAs) were recently investigated for better understanding their potential effects on skeletal system [Baird *et al.* 2008, Ebeid 2011, Ebeid 2011a; Patwardhan *et al.* 2011, Fatarone *et al.* 2012, Hosseini-Vashan *et al.* 2014]. To improve meat product quality in poultry species, dietary administration with oilseeds is applied [Poławska *et al.* 2012]. Thus, the inclusion of plant oils to the ostrich diet seems to be interesting and important for meat industry and consumers. Supplements added to the ostrich diet may affect significantly both technological parameters and sensory properties of ostrich meat, as well as skeletal system quality. Effects of dietary inclusion of oil plant seeds in ostriches on their skeletal system quality were not reported previously.

Thus, the aim of the study was to evaluate the effect of the experimental diet enriched in 4% of linseed on serum total antioxidative capacity and morphometric, densitometric and mechanical properties of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus in 14-month-old ostriches.

Material and methods

The experimental procedures used in this study were approved by The 3rd Local Ethics Committee on Animal Experimentation in Warsaw (SGGW Warsaw) in a Resolution No 27/2009.

Experimental design

All control and experimental birds (*Struthio camelus var. domesticus*) were kept together from hatching to 14 months of age in standard breeding conditions on a commercial ostrich farm in Stypułów (western Poland). The farm is under scientific supervision of the Institute of Genetics and Animal Breeding of the Polish Academy of Sciences. All birds were fed standard starter diet until 45 kg of body weight (BW) and then assigned to two groups: control group (N=8), where birds were fed all the time standard diet, divided into female (N=4) and male (N=4) subgroups, and experimental group, where birds were fed experimental diet enriched with 4% of linseed, divided into female (N=4) and male (N=4) subgroups. The experimental diet was prepared on the base of the control diet, a part of which was replaced with 4% of linseed. Protein and gross energy contents (150 g kg⁻¹ crude protein and 2550 kcal kg⁻¹ gross energy) were kept constant across the study (Tab. 1) [Poławska *et al.* 2012].

Table 1. Composition of the control and experimental diets applied to ostriches from 45 kg of body weight [Poławska *et al.* 2012]

Ingredient (g/kg)	Control diet	Experimental diet (enriched with 4% of linseed)
Barley	330	340
Wheat (12% CP)	355	290
Wheat bran	160	190
Soybean meal (45.5% CP)	105	90
Linseed	-	40
Vitamin mineral premix	50	50
Energy and nutrient content		
Dry matter	885	886
Crude protein	151	151
Crude fat	21.5	39.4
Crude fiber	45.3	50.4
Ash	68	68
Starch	414	386
Energy (MJ/kg)	11	11

All birds were slaughtered in commercial abattoir in Wolbrom (Poland) at 14 month of age when their mean live weight had reached 94.53 ± 1.98 kg. Ostriches were fasted for 24 h before slaughter procedure. Electrical stunning, bleeding and evisceration were performed according to the standard slaughtering procedures for ostriches [Majewska *et al.* 2009]. Blood samples for serum were collected during bleeding procedure.

Immediately after the slaughter of ostriches, left tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus were isolated, cleaned from soft tissues and the bone weight and length were determined. Bone samples (placed in plastic bags) and serum samples (frozen in liquid nitrogen) were transported from Wolbrom to University of Life Sciences in Lublin for storage at -25°C until further analyses.

Dual energy X-ray absorpciometry

Whole bones isolated from ostriches were thawed in bags for 3 hours at room temperature and scanned using dual energy X-ray absorpciometry (DEXA) method to determine the bone mineral density (BMD) and bone mineral content (BMC). Scanning procedure was performed using Norland XR-46 densitometer (resolution 3.0×3.0 mm) and Research Scan software (Norland, Fort Atkinson, USA). All bones were placed on dorsal surface and scanned in anterior-posterior direction. Results of BMD and BMC measurements were expressed in g/cm^2 and g, respectively.

Quantitative computed tomography

Volumetric bone mineral density (vBMD) of the trabecular bone (Td – trabecular bone mineral density) and cortical bone (Cd – cortical bone mineral density) of the tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus were determined in g/cm^3 using quantitative computed tomography (QCT) method and Somatom Emotion Siemens apparatus supplied with Somaris/5 VB10B software (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany). Thawed bones were scanned using 2-mm thick cross-sectional sequential scans. The measurement of vBMD was performed for the trabecular and cortical bone on cross-sectional metaphyseal and diaphyseal 2-mm thick QCT scans. Trabecular bone mineral density of the tibiotarsus was determined in the distal epiphysis of bone at 5 % of total bone length, measuring from the distal extremity, just below growth plate. Trabecular bone mineral density of the tarsometatarsus was determined in the proximal epiphysis of bone at 3 % of total bone length, measuring from the proximal extremity, just above visible growth plate. Cortical bone mineral density was measured on mid-diaphyseal scan placed at 50% of the tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus length. Cortical bone area (CBA) was measured automatically at the midshaft of the bones. Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone ($\text{Tb}_{\text{Ca-HA}}$) and calcium hydroxyapatite density of the cortical bone ($\text{Cb}_{\text{Ca-HA}}$) were determined using 10-mm thick epiphyseal and middiaphyseal scans (as described above) and Osteo CT application package. To determine $\text{Tb}_{\text{Ca-HA}}$ and $\text{Cb}_{\text{Ca-HA}}$ the water- and bone-equivalent calibration phantom was used as the reference standard. Volume evaluation software (Siemens, Erlangen, Germany) was used to determine the

total bone volume (Bvol) and mean volumetric bone mineral density (MvBMD) of each tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus. For Bvol and MvBMD measurements, the volume-of-interest was limited by a minimum and maximum density of the investigated bones at 0 and 3000 Hounsfield units, respectively. The measurements of Bvol and MvBMD were executed for the whole bones, and obtained results reflect the values determined within all anatomic structures of the investigated bones.

Determination of geometric properties of tarsometatarsus

Geometrical properties of each tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus were determined on the basis of measurements of horizontal and vertical diameters (both external and internal) of the mid-diaphyseal cross-section of the bone obtained from computed tomography multiplanar reconstructions. The values of cross-sectional area (A), second moment of inertia (Ix), mean relative wall thickness (MRWT) and cortical index (CI) were calculated [Brodzki *et al.* 2004, Tatara *et al.* 2005b, Tatara *et al.* 2007].

Three-point bending test

Mechanical properties of the tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus were determined using the three-point bending test in Instron 3367 apparatus (Instron, Canton, MA, USA). The relationship between loading force perpendicular to the longitudinal axis of the bone and the resulting displacement was presented graphically. The values of maximum elastic strength (Wy) and the ultimate strength (Wf) were determined. The distance between supports of the bone was set at 40% of total tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus length and the measuring head loaded bone samples at the midshaft with a constant speed of 50 mm/min [Tatara *et al.* 2007].

Determination of total antioxidative capacity in serum

Total antioxidative capacity (TAC) determination in serum collected from fasted ostriches was performed using commercial photometric test system (ImAnOx (TAS) Kit, Immundiagnostik AG, Bensheim, Germany). The photometric measurement was performed with the use of Benchmark Plus microplate spectrophotometer supplied with Microplate Manager Software Version 5.2.1 (Bio-Rad Laboratories Inc., Hercules, CA, USA) and TAC values were expressed in $\mu\text{mol/L}$. As indicated by the TAS Kit supplier, the values below 280 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ were considered as low TAC, while the values between 280 – 320 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ were considered as middle level of TAC. High TAC was recognized when the values exceed 320 $\mu\text{mol/L}$ [Brodzki *et al.* 2015].

Statistical analysis

All data are presented as means \pm SEM. Differences between means were tested for statistical significance with the use of non-paired Student's *t*-test for non-dependent variables. Statistical comparison was performed between experimental and control groups, as well as between experimental and control subgroups of males and females. For each comparisons, the difference showing a *P*-value <0.05 was considered as statistically significant.

Results and discussion

The final body weight determined just before transportation of ostriches to slaughterhouse were not significantly ($P=0.12$) different between the experimental (97.4 ± 2.7 kg) and control group (91.3 ± 2.5 kg). Body weight in the subgroups of the control males and females reached 89.0 ± 1.7 kg and 93.0 ± 4.3 kg, while in the experimental subgroups these values were 96.7 ± 4.3 kg and 97.8 ± 3.9 kg, respectively. The differences of body weight between the sex-matched experimental and control subgroups were not statistically significant ($P>0.05$). Total antioxidative capacity of the serum obtained from 14-months old ostriches was not different between the experimental (252.7 ± 39.6 $\mu\text{mol/l}$) and control group (291.0 ± 9.9 $\mu\text{mol/l}$; $P=0.44$). Total antioxidative capacity in the subgroups of control males and females reached 277.8 ± 18.9 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ and 301.0 ± 9.4 $\mu\text{mol/l}$, while in the experimental subgroups these values were 280.1 ± 25.9 $\mu\text{mol/l}$ and 239.0 ± 62.4 $\mu\text{mol/l}$, respectively. The differences of TAC between the sex-matched experimental and control subgroups were not statistically significant ($P>0.05$). The values of the evaluated morphological, densitometric, and mechanical parameters of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus in the control and experimental groups are shown in Table 2 and 4. Cortical bone area of tibiotarsus shown clear tendency to be higher in the experimental group when compared to this value in the control group ($P=0.07$). All the other evaluated parameters of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus were not significantly different between the experimental and control group ($P>0.05$). The

Table 2. Morphological, densitometric and mechanical parameters of tibiotarsus in the control and experimental group of 14-month-old ostriches

Investigated parameter	Control group	Experimental group	P-value
Bone length (mm)	540 \pm 5	532 \pm 7	0.41
Bone weight (g)	1039 \pm 32	1078 \pm 29	0.38
Relative bone weight	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.01 \pm 0.00	0.27
Bone mineral density (g/cm^2)	1.76 \pm 0.07	1.83 \pm 0.03	0.35
Bone mineral content (g)	367 \pm 15	385 \pm 9	0.34
Cortical bone area (mm^2)	456 \pm 20	505 \pm 15	0.08
Total bone volume (cm^3)	578 \pm 21	614 \pm 14	0.18
Mean volumetric bone mineral density (g/cm^3)	1.80 \pm 0.02	1.79 \pm 0.02	0.65
Trabecular bone mineral density (g/cm^3)	1.40 \pm 0.01	1.39 \pm 0.02	0.50
Cortical bone mineral density (g/cm^3)	2.59 \pm 0.03	2.57 \pm 0.04	0.73
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone (mg/ml)	261 \pm 10	237 \pm 15	0.19
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the cortical bone (mg/ml)	1223 \pm 16	1229 \pm 26	0.84
Cross-sectional area (mm^2)	501 \pm 28	502 \pm 16	0.97
Second moment of inertia (mm^4)	39002 \pm 2712	35673 \pm 2378	0.37
Mean relative wall thickness	0.63 \pm 0.07	0.64 \pm 0.03	0.79
Cortical index	37.69 \pm 2.63	38.98 \pm 1.09	0.66
Maximum elastic strength (N)	7429 \pm 680	7758 \pm 359	0.68
Ultimate strength (N)	9732 \pm 696	10206 \pm 318	0.55

values of the morphological, densitometric, and mechanical parameters of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus in the control and experimental subgroups of males and females are shown in Table 3 and 5. Cortical bone area of tibia reached significantly higher value in the subgroup of experimental males, when compared to the subgroup of

Table 3. Morphological, densitometric and mechanical parameters of tibiotarsus in the male and female subgroups of the control and experimental groups of 14-month-old ostriches

Investigated parameter	Control group		Experimental group	
	males	females	males	females
Bone length (mm)	538±11	541±5	516±15	542±4
Bone weight (g)	1037±26	1040±56	1094±47	1068±40
Relative bone weight	0.02±0.00	0.01±0.00	0.01±0.00	0.01±0.00
Bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.82±0.06	1.71±0.11	1.82±0.04	1.84±0.04
Bone mineral content (g)	374±8	361±28	385±15	384±13
Cortical bone area (mm ²)	484 ^a ±12	436±32	533 ^b ±11	488±21
Total bone volume (cm ³)	582±27	575±34	620±9	611±23
Mean volumetric bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.79±0.03	1.80±0.02	1.77±0.03	1.80±0.02
Trabecular bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.40±0.03	1.41±0.02	1.33±0.01	1.42±0.02
Cortical bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	2.56±0.01	2.61±0.06	2.50±0.06	2.63±0.03
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone (mg/ml)	265 ^a ±17	258±13	200 ^b ±16	259±14
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the cortical bone (mg/ml)	1197±12	1242±24	1194±37	1250±34
Cross-sectional area (mm ²)	535±42	475±36	502±28	502±22
Second moment of inertia (mm ⁴)	41142±5021	37397±3336	35502±3643	35776±3441
Mean relative wall thickness	0.71±0.10	0.56±0.09	0.65±0.05	0.64±0.04
Cortical index	40.97±3.73	35.24±3.56	39.18±1.74	38.86±1.56
Maximum elastic strength (N)	7433±737	7425±1161	7817±758	7722±433
Ultimate strength (N)	9962±169	9560±1287	10490±621	10035±385

^{ab}Means bearing different superscripts differ significantly at P≤005.

Table 4. Morphological, densitometric and mechanical parameters of tarsometatarsus in the control and experimental group of 14-month-old ostriches

Investigated parameter	Control group	Experimental group	P-value
Bone length (mm)	470±5	461±6	0.301
Bone weight (g)	616±17	626±20	0.72
Relative bone weight	0.07±0.00	0.01±0.00	0.14
Bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.41±0.04	1.46±0.02	0.31
Bone mineral content (g)	241±9	251±6	0.34
Cortical bone area (mm ²)	392±18	400±10	0.74
Total bone volume (cm ³)	353±12	356±10	0.87
Mean volumetric bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.93±0.03	1.91±0.02	0.61
Trabecular bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.40±0.02	1.42±0.02	0.47
Cortical bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	2.52±0.03	2.48±0.03	0.37
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone (mg/ml)	303±20	290±12	0.59
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the cortical bone (mg/ml)	1129±19	1086±33	0.28
Cross-sectional area (mm ²)	387±11	405±11	0.25
Second moment of inertia (mm ⁴)	25973±1157	27637±1047	0.31
Mean relative wall thickness	0.69±0.05	0.72±0.05	0.70
Cortical index	40.48±1.65	41.44±1.77	0.70
Maximum elastic strength (N)	6343±251	6700±240	0.32
Ultimata strength (N)	8076±456	8371±333	0.61

control males ($P=0.03$). Significantly lower value of Tb_{Ca-HA} of tibiotarsus was reached in the subgroup of experimental males when compared to the subgroup of control males ($P=0.05$). Cross-sectional area of tarsometatarsus of the experimental subgroup males has shown tendency to be higher when compared to the subgroup of control males ($P=0.07$). Similar tendencies in such comparison were shown for MRWT and CI ($P=0.08$ and $P=0.07$).

The current study was undertaken to explain whether the experimental diet enriched with 4% of linseed affects morphological, densitometric and mechanical properties of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus in growing ostriches. It was hypothesized that linseed inclusion to the experimental diet may improve skeletal system quality in ostriches. Both tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus play important supportive functions in bipedal ostriches and may serve as experimental models for determination of skeletal system quality in different meat-type poultry species [Charuta et al. 2008, Charuta et al. 2010, Dzierżęcka and Charuta 2010, Barreiro et al. 2011, Charuta et al. 2011, Charuta 2012, Ahmed et al. 2013; Charuta et al. 2013, Charuta et al. 2013a, Charuta et al. 2013, Charuta et al. 2013a, Charuta et al. 2014].

Proper structure of several bones and mineral content in bones of the pelvic limb bones is crucial for the optimal health status, locomotory functions and the growth rate in current poultry breeding practice of meat-type poultry focused on shortening breeding course [Biesiada-Drzazga 2014]. Delayed skeletal system mineralization process in comparison to the formation of skeletal muscles and rapid muscle tissue

Table 5. Morphological, densitometric and mechanical parameters of tarsometatarsus in the male and female subgroups of the control and experimental groups of 14-month-old ostriches

Investigated parameter	Control group		Experimental group	
	males	females	males	females
Bone length (mm)	466±8	473±8	471±11	455±6
Bone weight (g)	612±21	619±29	645±36	614±25
Relative bone weight	0.01±0.00	0.01±0.00	0.01±0.00	0.01±0.00
Bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.43±0.04	1.41±0.08	1.50±0.00	1.44±0.02
Bone mineral content (g)	238±11	242±15	264±8	244±7
Cortical bone area (mm ²)	399±32	387±25	429±6	382±7
Total bone volume (cm ³)	337±11	365±17	361±16	353±14
Mean volumetric bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.91±0.04	1.94±0.04	1.92±0.04	1.91±0.02
Trabecular bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	1.40±0.04	1.40±0.03	1.44±0.02	1.41±0.02
Cortical bone mineral density (g/cm ³)	2.46±0.05	2.6±0.03	2.45±0.06	2.50±0.04
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the trabecular bone (mg/ml)	278±38	322±21	314±24	276±9
Calcium hydroxyapatite density of the cortical bone (mg/ml)	1110±27	1144±27	1060±52	1101±46
Cross-sectional area (mm ²)	399±16	378±15	428±7	392±14
Second moment of inertia (mm ⁴)	27022±939	25187±1940	28394±1963	27184±1332
Mean relative wall thickness	0.75±0.10	0.65±0.05	0.84±0.08	0.65±0.05
Cortical index	42.36±3.26	39.08±1.66	45.13±2.34	39.23±1.97
Maximum elastic strength (N)	6167±338	6475±388	6817±342	6630±351
Ultimate strength (N)	8132±879	8033±583	8819±548	8102±415

gain in meat-type poultry species leads to the frequent occurrence of deformations, rotations and fractures of long bones in the pelvic limbs [Horbańczuk *et al.* 2004, Cooper 2007, Cooper and Horbańczuk 2004, Tykałowski *et al.* 2010, Charuta *et al.* 2011, Charuta *et al.* 2012]. Considering huge skeletal muscle tissue gain in meat-type poultry species and resulting excessive skeletal system loading, diagnostic monitoring

of skeletal system quality during several phases of posthatching development is recommended [Charuta et al. 2012, Charuta et al. 2013, Charuta et al. 2014]. To improve skeletal system quality and mechanical endurance of bones in the growing birds, an inclusion of feed additives and oil plants to the diet influencing bone tissue metabolism are also recommended [Tatara et al. 2003, Tatara et al. 2006, Baird et al. 2008, Janocha et al. 2009, Tatara et al. 2009, Cheng et al. 2011, Ebeid 2011, Patwardhan et al. 2011, Faitarone et al. 2012, Hosseini-Vashan et al. 2014]. However, to obtain optimal effectiveness of the nutritional factors on bone tissue metabolism the determination of the most advantageous feeding protocols is required.

Effects of dietary inclusion of oil plants on skeletal system properties were evaluated in numerous previous studies. In the experiment performed by Puzio [2012], the determination of the effect of dietary inclusion of linoleic acid and false flax (*Camelina sativa*) on skeletal system properties in broiler chickens was performed. It was shown that false flax oil and linoleic acid may replace effectively sunflower oil in the diet of broiler chicken. False flax oil affected positively BMD and BMC of femur, tibia and humerus in broiler chickens. Bone weight, BMD and BMC of the investigated bones were significantly increased in the group of broilers receiving both false flax oil and linoleic acid when compared to the group fed with linoleic acid solely. Moreover, BMC of the investigated bones was significantly higher in birds receiving solely linoleic acid and false flax oil when compared to the controls. Studies on Japanese quails by Ebeida [2001a] have shown that dietary administration of the fish oil and linseed oil has beneficial effects on morphological parameters and mechanical endurance of tibia. Weight, length, diaphysis diameter, breaking strength and ash content in tibia were found to be significantly higher in birds receiving fish oil and linseed when compared to control group [Ebeida 2001a]. However, in contrast to the dietary administration of linseed, fish oil in the diet may affect negatively sensory traits of meat such as fishy odor and flavor limiting its application in meat-type poultry nutrition. O-3 polyunsaturated fatty acid (PUFA) lipid autoxidation process is considered as the main cause of fishy odor and flavor [Ganesan et al. 2014]. In other studies performed by Ebeida [2001b] on laying hens fed the diet enriched with PUFA from fish and linseed oils, negative effects of the experimental diet on structural properties of tibiotarsus were not stated. Experiments performed by Faitarone [2012] have shown that dietary administration of O-3 and O-6 PUFA to laying hens has not influenced the formation and resorption of bone tissue of tibia. The inclusion of vegetable oils in the diet of laying hens has led to reduced bone mineral retention, however this reduction was mitigated when supplementation with highest inclusions of oils rich in O-3 was performed [Faitarone 2012]. Positive effects of feeding with linseed and palm oils on growth performance and bone tissue metabolism in broiler chickens were reported by Zong [2014]. In the study on broiler chickens, no significant differences in weight gain, feed intake and gain/feed ratio were observed between birds fed with the lard and linseed oil. Broilers fed palm oil had significantly higher weight gain and feed intake than those fed lard or linseed oil. Growth performance in palm oil group and in linseed oil + palm oil

group was significantly greater than that of single-oil groups. Tibia growth and bone characteristics were not influenced by supplementation with the lard, linseed oil and palm oil alone, but broilers fed the mixture of fats were characterized by significantly higher tibia weight and length, when compared to broilers fed on linseed oil. Bone mineral density of tibia was significantly increased in palm oil group and linseed oil + palm oil groups when compared to single-oil groups. Dietary administration of the linseed oil alone or in the combination with palm oil enhanced apparent digestibility of calcium, reduced serum calcium concentration and increased tibia calcium content. Moreover, supplementation with the linseed oil alone or in the combination with palm oil had a positive effect on biochemical markers of bone growth. The combination of the linseed and palm oils was beneficial for growth performance, tibia growth and biomarkers of bone metabolism [Zong 2014]. Experiments on White Leghorn chickens have shown no effects of dietary inclusion of O-3 and O-6 fatty acids on BMD of tibia and humerus [Mazzuco *et al.* 2005]. Mazzuco *et al.* [2005] has applied an O-6 to O-3 ratio of 0.6:1 or 8:1 in the diets of chickens and has found no effect in BMD between the diets. In other studies [Bairda 2008], various ratios of O-6 to O-3 fatty acids in the diets of mature White Leghorn chickens have not affected bone characteristics or bone strength parameters, except for cortical thickness which was significantly increased as O-3 in the diet has been increasing until the highest level of O-3 in the diet. However, an increased cortical thickness has not affected bone strength. Thus, it was suggested to determine in further studies potential effects of dietary inclusion of O-3 fatty acids on skeletal system quality in growing birds. Studies by Johnston *et al.* [2006] have demonstrated similar findings in turkeys. The BMD and BMC of turkey hens were not significantly different between 2 extreme diet treatments, one rich in O-3 fatty acids (O-6 to O-3 ratio of 1.7:1) and the other rich in O-6 fatty acids (O-6 to O-3 ratio of 19:1) [Johnston *et al.* 2006]. Liu *et al.* [2003] have found significantly higher BMC in quails fed a fish oil-supplemented diet (rich in O-3) when compared to the group fed with a soybean oil diet (rich in O-6). The previous study in the mature quails has demonstrated that long-term supplementation of lipids in the diets altered fatty acid composition of bone lipids, which reflects the fatty acid profile of the diet. In studies with rats, no significant difference in bone area, BMD and BMC were found between the groups fed diets rich in O-3 fatty acids when compared to the diets rich in O-6 fatty acids [Mollard *et al.* 2005]. In the other study on rodents, fish oil-supplemented rats (rich O-3 fatty acids diet) had significantly higher BMD in the distal femur and proximal tibia than a corn oil-supplemented animals (rich O-6 fatty acids diet) [Bhattacharya *et al.* 2005].

The results obtained in the current study have shown relatively poor effects of the experimental diet enriched with 4% of linseed on the investigated morphometric, densitometric and mechanical properties of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus. The application of the experimental diet in the subgroups of male ostriches increased only CBA and decreased Tb_{Ca-HA} of tibiotarsus. Similar clear tendency to increased CBA value of tibiotarsus was found comparing whole experimental group of birds with the

control group. Based on the observed relatively poor effectiveness of the experimental diet on the bone properties in this study, it may be postulated to change the dosage of linseed in the diet to obtain improved skeletal system quality. Besides linseed dosage manipulation, its inclusion to the diet at different systemic growth stages of ostriches may provide possibly more spectacular effects on bone tissue metabolism regulation. It may be postulated that 45 kg of body weight ostriches are in relatively advanced stage of systemic and skeletal growth and development, and earlier inclusion of linseed to the diet may have more visible effects. It is worth to underline that BMD, BMC, most of the morphometric/geometric parameters and mechanical endurance indices of tibiotarsus and tarsometatarsus reached numerically higher values in the experimental ostriches; however, due to relatively high costs of the experiment and limited number of animals in the groups, beneficial effects of the experimental diet on skeletal system quality was not confirmed statistically. Thus, higher number of animals engaged to the experiment may be recommended for further studies.

In conclusion, this study has shown that the experimental diet enriched with 4% of linseed, applied to the ostrich diet from 45 of kg of body weight of birds, had neither the positive nor negative effects on the evaluated bone properties in 14-month-old ostriches. Thus, higher dietary dosage of linseed or different administration period of the experimental diet should be applied to expect more visible effects on skeletal system quality in growing ostriches.

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