



Symposium review: Macronutrient metabolism in the growing calf

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INTERPRETIVE SUMMARY

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Macronutrient Metabolism in the Growing Calf. *Gerrits, W.J.J.* Recent interest in increasing rates of body weight gain in heifer calves before weaning are based on the promise of an increase in milk production during first lactation. Macronutrient metabolism in growing calves is reviewed, with the objective to provide insights useful for developing novel feeding strategies. Reasons for the low efficiency of utilization of dietary protein for growth are discussed. Carbohydrates from the milk replacer are preferentially oxidized and are not deposited as body fat. Insulin sensitivity decreases rapidly after birth, and at prolonged feeding of lactose, calves need alternative routes of glucose disposal.

14 **Macronutrient Metabolism in the Growing Calf**

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26 **Abstract**

27 Recent interest in increasing rates of body weight gain in heifer calves before weaning are
28 based on the promise of an increase in milk production during first lactation. This increase is
29 usually realized by increasing milk or milk replacer intake, delaying the onset of rumen
30 development. Simultaneously feeding of liquids and solid feeds (SF) brings about new
31 challenges. Macronutrient metabolism in growing calves is reviewed, combining literature
32 from heifer and veal calves with the objective to provide insights useful for developing novel
33 feeding strategies. Growing calves are not efficiently retaining digested N when compared
34 with other growing species. Energy and protein appear to be simultaneously limiting growth.
35 With the possible exception of very young calves, low responses to incremental intakes of
36 amino acids indicate that the limiting amino acid rarely explains the low efficiency of N
37 utilization. Nonetheless, there are indications that disproportionate oxidation of amino acids
38 as a result of amino acid imbalance may occur, notably in splanchnic tissues.

39 Long-chain fatty acids, absorbed from the milk or calf milk replacer (CMR) are
40 preferentially deposited as body fat, but this strongly depends on the need for ATP, fueled by
41 the oxidation of carbohydrates. Hence, fatty acid oxidation typically decreases with an
42 increased feeding level. Insulin sensitivity in calves is quite high at birth, but decreases
43 independently of feeding strategy in early age to very low levels when compared with other
44 species. Even though changes in insulin sensitivity may be provoked by early life nutrition,
45 these effects are small and rather transient. In heavy calves, insulin sensitivity is invariably
46 low. Large effects of dietary treatments on postprandial glucose and insulin responses, as
47 often observed, are unlikely to be caused by differences in insulin sensitivity. Unlike in pigs,
48 *de novo* fatty acid synthesis is not a significant route of disposal of glucose absorbed from the
49 intestinal tract. Instead, high lactate fluxes in milk-fed calves suggest this may be an
50 important route of disposal.

51 When combining the feeding of milk or CMR with solid feeds, estimation of the
52 contribution of the individual ration components is difficult, and interactions inside the gastro-
53 intestinal tract complicate the estimation of their feeding value. There are indications in veal
54 calves that use of nutrients absorbed from a CMR is not dependent on the level of intake of
55 solid feeds.

56 Key words: calves, nutrient utilization, glucose metabolism, amino acid utilization, milk
57 replacer

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INTRODUCTION

60 Recent interest in increasing rates of body weight gain in heifer calves before weaning are
61 based on the promise of an increase in milk production during first lactation. Even though a
62 recent meta-analysis revealed that variation in pre-weaning ADG explained less than 3% of
63 the variation, an increase of 100 g/day in liquid DM intake in calves with an ADG exceeding
64 500 g/day could increase first lactation milk production by 66 kg, which could be doubled
65 when combined with increased starter intake (Gelsinger et al., 2016). In veal production, high
66 rates of body weight gain are typically achieved. From both a welfare and economic
67 perspective, there is a strong incentive to replace a considerable portion of the calf milk
68 replacer (CMR) by solid feeds (SF) in the diet (see e.g. Webb et al. (2015)), and feeding
69 schedules in which 50% of the energy intake originates from SF are no exception anymore. In
70 heifers, developing feeding strategies to achieve high rates of ADG deserves attention, as
71 increasing DMI without considering its composition ignores the altered contribution of
72 maintenance requirements of protein, energy but also of minerals to total requirements.
73 Simultaneous feeding of milk or CMR and SF brings about new challenges. First, an increase
74 in CMR intake generally reduces the intake of starter grains (Yunta et al., 2015, Gelsinger et

75 al., 2016). In addition, several possible interactions between CMR and SF influence the
76 nutritional value of these ration components. Most of these interactions occur in the gastro-
77 intestinal tract, starting at the onset of rumen development and include recycling of urea
78 originating from AA from the CMR (Berends et al., 2014b), milk leakage into the rumen
79 (Labussière et al., 2015), influences of SF on passage rate kinetics of the liquid or vice versa
80 (Berends et al., 2015b). Despite all of these possible interactions, the vast majority of
81 macronutrients not retained in the body are lost during post-absorptive metabolism. The
82 priorities of the calf for retaining or oxidizing macronutrients are believed to depend on
83 intake, within bounds of priorities or capacities determined by evolution. This manuscript
84 reviews macronutrient metabolism in growing calves, combining literature from heifer and
85 veal calves with the objective to provide insights useful for developing novel feeding
86 strategies.

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PROTEIN

89 In milk-fed calves, utilization of digested N for N retention is typically around 70% and
90 decreases with increasing body weight below 50% when body weight increases above 150 kg
91 (Figure 1). It should be noted that the between study variation is substantial. These values
92 correspond with the meta-analysis by Zanton and Heinrichs (2008), stating that for milk-fed
93 heifer calves, between 40 and 50% of ingested N was retained, corresponding with a
94 utilization of digested N for N retention between 50 and 60% in the young calves included in
95 their analysis. Incremental efficiencies of N retention, however, are lower and drop from 50 –
96 65% at BW below 70 kg (Donnelly and Hutton, 1976, Blome et al., 2003, Labussiere et al.,
97 2008) to values between 20 and 40% at BW above 150 kg BW (Gerrits et al., 1996,
98 Labussiere et al., 2008). Occurrence of urea recycling and difficulties predicting postruminal

99 N digestion complicates the analogy with weaned calves, but it is expected that the
100 incremental efficiencies measured in calves fed milk or CMR represent an upper limit to the
101 range to be achieved in weaned calves. The incremental efficiency for using nitrogen for
102 deposition is much lower than for that of other growing farm-animal species. The reasons for
103 the apparent low priority of calves to deposit amino acids that are absorbed from the intestinal
104 tract can be manifold, and some have been extensively discussed by Van den Borne et al.
105 (2006a).

106 ***Protein and Energy Dependent Phases*** Extra energy absorbed from the gastro-intestinal
107 tract has been demonstrated to increase N efficiency, regardless the level of N intake (Gerrits
108 et al., 1996, Zanton and Heinrichs, 2008, Berends et al., 2012). This indicates that the concept
109 of protein and energy dependent phases, commonly used in pigs (Whittemore and Fawcett,
110 1976, Halas et al., 2018) and broilers (Eits et al., 2002) does not hold for calves, and hence,
111 energy and protein are always simultaneously limiting. This was nicely demonstrated in
112 steers, where abomasal infusion of methionine or energy from various sources independently
113 increased N efficiency regardless the source of energy infused (Schroeder et al., 2006). This
114 likely connects to the low incremental N efficiency, as also in pigs, it has been demonstrated
115 that incremental N efficiency drops with age, and distinct protein and energy dependent
116 phases have been shown more difficult to detect in older pigs. It is likely that the extent to
117 which protein and energy limit the rate of body weight gain depends on body weight,
118 consistent with the drop in N efficiency with age.

119 ***Limiting Amino Acids*** In any of the studies reported in Figure 1, the low efficiency of N
120 utilization could have been caused by one or more amino acids, limiting the rate of protein
121 deposition. In milk-fed calves above 100 kg BW, the incremental efficiency of all amino acids
122 for deposition in the body was analyzed in two experiments in which protein intake varied
123 over a wide range. It was based on the idea that the incremental efficiency of at least one

124 indispensable amino acid would be higher than the reported incremental efficiency of 30% for
125 total protein (Gerrits et al., 1996). The incremental efficiencies reported varied within a rather
126 narrow range of 11 to 29% for all indispensable amino acids (Gerrits et al., 1998), but were
127 higher for the conditionally essentials arginine and cystine. It was concluded that single
128 limiting amino acids are not the cause for the low incremental efficiency of N utilization. This
129 corresponds to the observations by (Batista et al., 2016) in steers, who found the incremental
130 response of N retention to abomasal infused lysine to be close to 40% in the presence of an
131 excess of all other essential amino acids, co-infused into the abomasum. For young calves,
132 this may be different, as significant improvement of ADG has been reported after addition of
133 single amino acids in young calves, e.g. addition of lysine in the first experiment reported by
134 Hill et al. (2008) and methionine by Chagas et al. (2018). It is notoriously difficult to prepare
135 a CMR severely deficient in a single amino acid for the study of incremental responses. Even
136 in calves below 6 weeks of age, responses of ADG have been demonstrated low or absent
137 (experiment 2 and 3 for methionine, and 4 for threonine (Hill et al., 2008); methionine
138 (Castro et al., 2016); isoleucine+threonine (Morrison et al., 2017). When crudely estimating
139 the incremental efficiency of utilization of the added amino acids in these studies from
140 responses in ADG, assuming a fixed concentration of each amino acid in ADG (Gerrits et al.,
141 1998), these appear to be below 30% for methionine (experiment 2, 3 from Hill et al. (2008),
142 Castro et al. (2016), Chagas et al. (2018), threonine in experiment 4 from Hill et al. (2008)
143 and around 40% for isoleucine when including 10 % of plasma protein (Morrison et al.,
144 2017). The incremental response to lysine in the first experiment by Hill et al. (2008) was
145 exceptionally high, i.e. 80% for the lowest two CP diets.

146 Asynchronous absorption of amino acids and glucose has been demonstrated to increase
147 body fat deposition in heavy milk-fed calves, leaving N efficiency virtually unaffected (Van
148 den Borne et al., 2006c). However, asynchronous supplementation of lysine and threonine in a

149 CMR in which about 75% of the protein originated from soluble wheat protein was found to
150 reduce N efficiency from 46 to 35%. Interestingly, when the asynchronous absorption was
151 corrected for by intravenous infusion of lysine and threonine, the increase in N retention was
152 markedly lower compared with enteral supplementation (Van den Borne et al., 2012). They
153 concluded that an amino acid imbalance in the splanchnic tissues may result in
154 disproportionate AA oxidation.

155 ***Urea Recycling*** Recycling of urea has been demonstrated and measured in ruminants
156 (Sarraseca et al., 1998). It is commonly assumed to be triggered by low N concentrations in
157 the rumen, but it cannot be excluded that the availability of urea in the circulation affects urea
158 recycling. The influence of dietary crude protein content on urea recycling has been recently
159 reviewed in cattle (Batista et al., 2017). In milk-fed calves, urea production is high and largely
160 originating from milk amino acids. In a study combining MR with low-protein SF, Berends et
161 al. (2014b) demonstrated, using a [¹⁵N₂]urea approach, that for every incremental g of DM
162 from SF intake, nitrogen intake increased by 0.70 g, and nitrogen retention increased by 0.55
163 g (P < 0.01). Of this increase in nitrogen retention, 19% could be directly explained by urea
164 recycling, with the remaining part being explained by increased intake of N via the SF, and an
165 increased N efficiency related to increased ME intake. In a follow-up study, it was
166 demonstrated that the contribution of urea recycling to the nitrogen economy of veal calves
167 was substantially lower when a high-protein concentrate was fed (Berends et al., 2015a). It
168 was concluded that low N availability in the rumen limits microbial growth and rumen
169 fermentation in calves fed low-N SF (93 g of CP/kg of DM), and this effect cannot be
170 compensated for by recycling of urea originating from AA absorbed from a CMR.

171 In summary, growing calves are not efficiently retaining digested N. Energy and protein
172 appear to be simultaneously limiting growth. With the possible exception of very young
173 calves, low responses to incremental intakes of amino acids indicate that the limiting amino

174 acid rarely explains the low efficiency of N utilization. Nonetheless, there are indications that
175 disproportionate oxidation of amino acids as a result of amino acid imbalance may occur,
176 notably in splanchnic tissues.

177

178

FATS AND CARBOHYDRATES

179 The capacity of young calves to digest lactose has been demonstrated to be high
180 (Huber et al., 1964) and remains high when continued to be exposed to lactose (Gilbert et al.,
181 2015a). Starch seems a rather poor source of glucose for calves. In milk-fed calves, Gilbert et
182 al. (2015a) demonstrated maltase activity to hamper the conversion of starch to glucose,
183 estimating starch fermentation to account for 90% of the starch ingested, and rather
184 independent of the level of starch intake (Gilbert et al., 2015b). The capacity of calves to
185 digest long-chain fatty acids is high and strongly dependent on emulsifying properties, as
186 reviewed by Kertz et al. (2017). Both long-chain fatty acids and glucose are important energy
187 sources as long as calves are fed milk or CMR. Typically, oxidation of long-chain fatty acids
188 depends on the level of feed intake. Van den Borne (2006b) demonstrated in veal calves that
189 the proportion of dietary fatty acids oxidized dropped from nearly 80% to about 30% when
190 feed intake increased from 1.5 to 2.5 the ME requirements for maintenance. Carbohydrate
191 oxidation remained above 90% of intake. Following the observation that 80% of the ^{13}C from
192 orally supplied $[\text{U-}^{13}\text{C}]$ glucose was recovered as $^{13}\text{CO}_2$, and similar recoveries were obtained
193 after feeding $[2\text{-}^{13}\text{C}]$ glucose, Van den Borne et al. (2007) concluded that *de novo* synthesis of
194 fatty acids is not a major route of disposal of absorbed glucose in calves. It follows that calves
195 will deposit more fat when increasing glucose absorption, but that this almost exclusively
196 originates from sparing fatty acids from oxidation.

197

199 With rapidly increasing milk or CMR intake after birth, lactose becomes the dominant source
200 for ATP production in calves. With prolonged high intake, however, as common in veal
201 production, problems arise maintaining glucose homeostasis. These problems were already
202 demonstrated in the previous century (Doppenberg and Palmquist, 1991, Hugi et al., 1997,
203 Hugi et al., 1998), influenced by for example age, the level of feeding of the CMR and
204 feeding frequency (Hugi et al., 1997, Vicari et al., 2008a), nutrient synchrony (Vicari et al.,
205 2008b) and protein intake (Gerrits et al., 2008). These problems are characterized by
206 hyperglycaemia, hyperinsulinemia and glucosuria and are connected to a low insulin
207 sensitivity (Hugi et al., 1998). Insulin sensitivity in calves rapidly drops with age. Stanley et
208 al. (2002), found 10 to 20-fold higher insulin sensitivities in Holstein and Jersey calves at 4-5
209 weeks of age (15 and $25 \times 10^{-4} \text{ [mU/L]}^{-1} \times \text{min}^{-1}$, respectively), than Pantophlet et al. (2016c)
210 in Holstein calves of about 190 kg of BW, both using the frequently sampled intravenous
211 glucose tolerance test (FSIGT). Recent developments in feeding strategies of heifer calves
212 have renewed interest in manipulating insulin sensitivity in early life, based on the promise of
213 improved performance and milk production in later life. Although clearly, postprandial
214 glucose and insulin kinetics are influenced by intake of milk or CMR, there is accumulating
215 evidence that these changes are rather unrelated to changes in insulin sensitivity. In young
216 calves, MacPherson et al. (2016) found no effect of doubling CMR intake from 4 to 8 L/day
217 on glucose and insulin responses to a FSIGT, hence concluding that its effect on insulin
218 sensitivity was minimal. Yunta et al. (2015) observed a tendency for a decrease in insulin
219 sensitivity with increasing CMR intake, particularly at 42 d of age. It should be noted that the
220 FSIGT test was performed only after a 5 h fasting period, at which point both glucose and
221 insulin concentrations may still have been elevated. Recently, it was demonstrated that in
222 calves, insulin sensitivity decreases rapidly, by almost 70%, between week 3 and 6 of age,

223 unaffected by weaning (Pantophlet et al., 2016b). It seems therefore that insulin sensitivity in
224 calves is quite high at birth, decreases independently of feeding strategy in early age to very
225 low levels when compared with other species. In agreement, Kesser et al. (2017) recently
226 concluded that even though slight changes in insulin sensitivity may be provoked by early life
227 nutrition, these effects are rather transient and they found no evidence for sustained effects. In
228 heavy calves, insulin sensitivity is invariably low, being rather insensitive to the carbohydrate
229 source in the CMR (Pantophlet et al., 2016c) or to an exchange of lactose for fat (euglycemic–
230 hyperinsulinemic clamp, (Pantophlet et al., 2016a). Large effects of dietary treatments on
231 postprandial glucose and insulin responses, as often observed (see e.g. (Vicari et al., 2008b, a)
232 are therefore unlikely to be caused by differences in insulin sensitivity. Pantophlet et al.
233 (2016b) speculated that the role of insulin-independent glucose transporters such as GLUT-1
234 may become relatively more important with age. Indeed, despite the low insulin sensitivity in
235 heavy calves, glucose is virtually completely oxidized, regardless of the level of feeding (Van
236 den Borne et al., 2007). In addition, insulin peaks in calves typically follow, rather than
237 precede glucose peaks postprandially (Vicari et al., 2008b), even in young calves
238 (MacPherson et al., 2016, Pantophlet et al., 2016b), which differs from responses in other
239 species and illustrates the absence of cephalic responses to a meal. Hence, insulin sensitivity
240 appears not to be a promising target for early life metabolic programming in calves.

241 Following the observation that calves oxidize the vast majority of the lactose ingested, it
242 appears that indeed the glucose is transported into the cells. Glucose concentrations often
243 exceed the renal threshold and urinary glucose excretion is commonly observed in heavy veal
244 calves (Hugi et al., 1997, Van den Borne et al., 2006b, Gerrits et al., 2008). Nonetheless, the
245 quantity of glucose excreted via urine rarely exceeds 5% of the daily lactose intake and cannot
246 be regarded a major route of glucose disposal. Unlike other farm-animal species like pigs and
247 broiler chickens, *de novo* fatty acid synthesis from glucose is not a significant route of

248 disposal for glucose in calves, as discussed above. Recent unpublished data in our lab indicate
249 that in milk-fed calves of about 190 kg BW, postprandial fluxes of lactate (i.e. between 2 and
250 4h after a CMR meal), measured by dilution of a primed, continuous intravenous infusion of
251 $[1-^{13}\text{C}]$ lactate and $[\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}]$ lactate were on average 150 g/hour, which was higher than the
252 glucose flux (70 g/hour), measured during the same time period by dilution of a primed,
253 continuous intravenous infusion of $[2-^{13}\text{C}]$ glucose and $[\text{U}-^{13}\text{C}]$ glucose. Isotopic enrichment of
254 lactate and glucose were measured as lactate M+1, lactate M+3, glucose M+1 and glucose
255 M+6 in plasma. These data indicate that the major portion of glucose and galactose is rapidly
256 converted into lactate during peak absorption. In summary, in heavy milk-fed calves, due to
257 the low insulin sensitivity, substantial quantities of glucose remain in the circulation for 2 to 6
258 hours after a CMR meal. Only a negligible portion is used for fatty acid synthesis, and quite
259 likely, a major part is converted to lactate for later oxidation. To what extent these
260 mechanisms operate in young calves remains to be elucidated, but the rapid drop in insulin
261 sensitivity after birth suggests the lactate route may play a significant role in young calves as
262 well. It should be noted that ad libitum availability of milk directly after birth may influence
263 the role of lactate, as suggested by the absence of an increase (Schäff et al., 2016) or even a
264 decrease (Frieten et al., 2017) in plasma lactate concentration in intensively milk-fed when
265 compared with restrictedly milk-fed calves.

266

267 **NUTRIENTS FROM RUMEN FERMENTATION**

268 Rumen development is initiated upon the consumption of solid feeds, triggering the
269 production of VFA. The importance of the composition of the solid feed, in particular the
270 presence of coarse particles via the roughage portion of the SF fraction has been recently
271 reviewed by Khan et al. (2016). In addition, the influence of physical form of starters has been

272 undervalued (Kertz, 2017). The increase in SF intake with age, and thus the increasing
273 importance of VFA in the metabolism of calves is obvious, although weaning strategies differ
274 and there is debate to what extent the roughage portion of the SF component depresses SF
275 intake (Khan et al., 2016).

276 Evaluation of the contribution of SF to the nutrient requirement of calves is
277 complicated by the simultaneous provision of milk or CMR and SF. At the level of digestion,
278 it is difficult to separate the contribution of the CMR to ileal or fecal excretion. When feeding
279 incremental quantities of SF at a fixed level of feeding of CMR, Berends et al. (2012)
280 demonstrated the apparent total tract digestibility of a SF mixture of concentrates, straw and
281 corn silage (50:25:25 on a DM basis) to be 64 and 60% for DM and energy in calves in a BW
282 range of 108 to 164 kg. Notably, the total tract digestibility of NDF increased significantly
283 with BW from 46 at 108 kg BW to 56% at 164 kg BW. This increase in digestion efficiency
284 with age or body weight was later also demonstrated by Berends et al. (2014a).

285 When exchanging substantial quantities of CMR for SF components during the
286 weaning transition or during prolonged feeding of CMR as common in veal calves, the
287 experimental design used to estimate the feeding value for these ration components becomes
288 critical. When the studies are conducted over a large age or weight range of the calves,
289 differences in BW between treatments may become problematic. Attempts to exchange SF for
290 CMR, maintaining energy (or protein) intake are problematic when the digestibility,
291 metabolizability or net energy values are not known. Quite often these are the subject of
292 study. To this end, we used a paired-gain approach to study the feeding value of two mixtures
293 of SF with a roughage:concentrate ratio of 50:50 or 20:80 on a DM basis (Berends et al.,
294 2014a). Dry matter intake from SF was targeted to reach 20, 100, 180, and 260 kg of DM for
295 four SF levels, respectively, during the 16-week experimental period, and increased with pre-
296 planned, equal weekly increments. The quantity of CMR provided was adjusted every 2

297 weeks based on BW to achieve similar targeted rates of carcass gain across treatments. The
298 reduction in CMR provided (in kg of DM) to realize equal rates of gain with inclusion of SF
299 (in kg of DM) was considered to represent the feeding value of the SF mixture relative to the
300 CMR. The feeding value of the 20:80 SF mixture was found to be 10% higher compared with
301 that of the 50:50 SF mixture. The feeding value of SF relative to that of MR also increased
302 substantially with age. This approach is suitable for estimating the nutritional value of the SF
303 component relative to that of a CMR, typically studied over a large age or weight range. For
304 this reason, less suited to study feeding strategies around the weaning transition.

305 The end-products of fermentation, absorbed from the (developing) rumen young calves can be
306 easily metabolized in a way comparable to that of functional ruminant. As long as milk or
307 CMR and SF are fed simultaneously, i.e. before the weaning transition or prolonged as
308 commonly done in veal production, it is unknown to what extent interactions between
309 nutrients absorbed from the rumen or from intestinal digestion of milk or CMR occur.

310 Unpublished data from our lab in calves of 125 – 250 kg BW indicate identical responses of
311 energy and nitrogen retention to incremental intakes of protein, fat and lactose from a CMR
312 between calves fed 15 or 40% of the gross energy intake from SF in a paired-gain setting. No
313 interactions were found between the nutrient added via the CMR and the level of SF feeding.
314 Incremental efficiencies of fat and lactose for energy gain were both 70%, and for protein it
315 was 40%, independent of the level of SF feeding. This indicates that nutrients absorbed from
316 rumen fermentation and from intestinal CMR digestion may be used in an additive manner.
317 Whether this is the also the case in young calves remains to be determined.

318

319

OUTLOOK

320 Combining data from heifer and veal calf studies provides a unique opportunity to
321 characterize the potential of calves in terms of macronutrient utilization, providing interesting
322 leads for adapting feeding strategies to altered objectives, for example increasing pre-weaning
323 body weight gain or reducing environmental nutrient losses. The efficiency of utilizing dietary
324 proteins for body weight gain rapidly decreases with age, rather independent of dietary amino
325 acid composition, emphasizing the importance of adapting dietary protein concentrations with
326 progressing age. Acknowledging the importance of energy, absorbed from the intestinal tract
327 can contribute to further improving protein efficiency. Whereas dietary carbohydrates,
328 absorbed from a CMR will be almost exclusively used as a fuel, dietary fat can also be
329 deposited as body fat. A strong reduction of insulin sensitivity occurs in early life,
330 independent of diet composition. Although this leads to a shift in the type of substrate
331 available, it does not prevent oxidative carbohydrate metabolism. The concept of additivity of
332 nutrients absorbed from rumen fermentation and from CMR needs further exploration when
333 simultaneously feeding of solid feeds and CMR.

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495 Figure 1. Efficiency of utilization of digested N for N retention in calves with increasing body
496 weight. All data selected are of calves fed exclusively on milk replacer containing dairy
497 proteins as the only protein source. Data from Roy et al. (1970) ○, Gerrits et al. (1996) △,
498 Labussiere et al. (2008) ●, Diaz et al. (2001) ×, Van der Togt and Gerrits (1998) ◇,
499 unpublished ◆, Van den Borne et al. (2006b) +.

