

**Relative Effectiveness of Management Techniques: Spiking and Intra-Spiking
on Broiler Breeder Production, Hatchability, and Fertility Traits**

Akbar Yaghobfar¹, Hoda Javaheri Barfourooshi^{2*}, Rezvan Yaghoubfar³

¹Department of Poultry Nutrition Animal Science Research Institute (ASRI), Agricultural
Research, Education, and Extension Organization (AREEO), Karaj, Iran. Zip code:

3146618361

²Department of Animal Production Management, Animal Science Research Institute of Iran
(ASRI), Agricultural Research Education and Extension Organization (AREEO), Karaj,
Iran. Zip code: 3146618361

³Department of Mycobacteriology and Pulmonary Research, Pasteur Institute of Iran,
Tehran, Iran

**Corresponding author:* Hoda Javaheri Barfourooshi

Tel: +9802634256001, **Fax:** +9802634256117, **E-mail:**

hoda.javaheribarfourooshi@gmail.com, h_javaheri@asri.ir

Abstract

The objective of the present study was to assess the impact of spiking and intra-spiking on mitigating the decline in fertility and hatchability associated with aging roosters in broiler breeder flocks. A total of 162 Ross-308 strain birds were utilized, categorized into six replicates, each consisting of nine individuals (eight hens and one cock), which were randomly assigned to one of three management treatments: group 1 (control group), group 2 (spiking group), or group 3 (intra-spiking group). Data were systematically collected over a period spanning from 42 to 62 weeks of age. Semen samples were obtained four times during the experimental duration, with subsequent evaluations of semen characteristics. Additionally, blood samples were procured for

quantifying concentrations of insulin, creatinine, testosterone, and nitric oxide. Following the experimental phase, each rooster from every replicate was weighed and subsequently slaughtered, wherein testicular tissues were harvested for histological analysis. Fertility and hatchability rates were computed based on the collected data. Statistical analysis revealed no significant differences in semen characteristics among the experimental groups. However, the spiking group exhibited a statistically significant increase in testicular weight compared to the control and intra-spiking groups ($p \leq 0.05$). Furthermore, there were greater counts of spermatocytes, spermatids, and spermatozoa in the spiking group ($p \leq 0.05$). Conversely, the control group demonstrated elevated numbers of Sertoli cells, increased seminiferous duct diameters, and greater thickness of the germinal epithelium compared to the treatment groups ($p \leq 0.05$). The decline in fertility and hatchability rates associated with advancing age was less pronounced in the spiking group when compared to the other experimental groups. While concentrations of insulin and creatinine did not exhibit significant variations among the groups, testosterone and nitric oxide levels were significantly higher in the spiking group ($p \leq 0.05$). The research findings indicate that spiking represents an effective strategy for maintaining fertility and enhancing hatchability rates in aged broiler flocks, as well as consequently increasing the economic profitability for broiler breeder producers.

KEYWORDS: Broiler breeder; Spiking; Intra-spiking; Fertility; Hatchability

1. Introduction

The natural decline in fertility among broiler breeder flocks with age poses a threat to economic production (1). Fertility relies on the productive status, interest, and mating capability of the birds (2). As male birds age, mating activity decreases due to

higher body weight, lower testosterone levels, and musculoskeletal diseases (3). Fertility typically rises from 23-24 weeks, peaking at 35-37 weeks, before declining between 40-45 weeks, with older birds showing a more significant reduction (4). To address this decline, various methods, particularly movement within rooster flocks such as intra-spiking and spiking, are employed.

Many industries employ spiking and intra-spiking, especially in older broiler breeder flocks. This involves introducing young, unfamiliar males or exchanging experienced males between poultry houses on the same farm. The goal is to enhance fertility levels in established flocks (5).

After reaching 40 weeks of age, breeder hens require more frequent mating to maintain fertility, while rooster mating interest typically declines (1). Additionally, egg hatchability decreases with advancing age (6). To address the fertility decline linked to aging roosters, various strategies focus on movement within rooster flocks, such as intra-spiking and spiking.

The male broiler breeder is crucial for ensuring egg fertility, often more so than the female (7). Mating activity is influenced by male fitness and female receptivity, which can be affected by the sex ratio and feeding practices (8). Introducing intra-spiking has shown potential to mitigate libido decline in aging males, thereby enhancing long-term flock fertility (1,8).

Research indicates that incorporating 24-week-old males into a 45-week-old broiler breeder flock significantly increases hatchability, likely due to the heightened libido of younger roosters. Additionally, females may preferentially mate with younger males exhibiting pronounced secondary sex characteristics (9).

Intra-spiking involves relocating roosters within the same farm, allowing for the replacement of male broiler breeders without introducing external males (10). This

practice offers advantages such as cost-effectiveness, reduced disease transmission risk, ease of implementation, and rapid results (11). However, while it may enhance mating activity, fertility can decline after 4-8 weeks due to the similar ages of the males, with a typical fertility increase of 1-3% expected within 5-10 weeks post-spiking (10).

In contrast, a study by Patil and colleagues on the intra-spiking of Vanaraja chickens at 48 weeks revealed only a slight and statistically insignificant increase in fertility rates at 52 and 55 weeks, and it indicated no impact on hatchability. The effectiveness of spiking may vary based on factors such as the age of the breeder flock, spiking frequency, and the ratio of exchanged roosters (4).

Male contribution to flock fertility is influenced by mating activity and sperm quality, both of which decline with age, leading to reduced semen volume and the fertilizing capability of spermatozoa (12).

To the authors' best knowledge, there has yet to be a comprehensive investigation into the effects of spiking and intra-spiking on sperm characteristics, testicular histology, sperm parameters, and various production factors. Therefore, the present study aims to evaluate the effectiveness of male spiking and intra-spiking on reproductive performance in Ross 308 broiler breeder flocks, focusing on fertility, hatchability, testicular histology and sperm characteristics.

2. Materials and methods

2.2. Birds, housing, and management

The research comprised three experiments involving 162 birds across three treatments, each with six replicates. Each replicate consisted of nine birds (8 hens and 1 cock). The birds were randomly assigned to one of following managerial treatments: group 1 (control group, no management), group 2 (spiking group), and group 3 (intra-

spiking group). The testing phase began when the birds reached 38 weeks of age, and data on experimental treatments were collected for weeks 40 to 62 (post-peak). The environmental conditions at the breeding farm, including moisture content, temperature, weight control, feed intake management, and other parameters, were maintained following the Ross 308 broiler breeder guide (13). The experimental treatments included three management methods: the recommended practices for broiler breeders of Ross 308, the spiking method (introducing a 28-week-old rooster to the herd), and the intra-spiking method (using roosters of the same age within halls or pens to stimulate early rooster mating activity). The ration composition, based on the nutrition guide for broiler chicken Ross 308 (14), included corn, wheat, soybean meal, oyster powder, calcium phosphate disodium, salt, mineral, and vitamin supplements, as well as methionine and lysine (Table 1). *(Please insert Table 1 near here)*

2.2. Collection and evaluation of semen samples. Before the experiment began, semen was collected from each rooster at least three times to train the male birds (15). Throughout the experiment, semen was collected four times and transferred to the laboratory in a warm water bath. Using an optical microscope, qualitative and quantitative sperm characteristics, including semen volume, sperm density, sperm motility percentage, progressive sperm motility, and the percentage of dead and live sperm, were assessed.

Semen samples were collected using the abdominal rubbing method, which involved stimulating the roosters by rubbing their belly and back on the technician's leg to facilitate ejaculation. The ejaculated semen was collected using 1.5 ml graduated micro tubes. To prevent cold shock to the sperm, the micro tubes were carefully placed inside nylon bags before being transferred to a 37°C warm water flask and transported

127 to the laboratory. Upon arrival at the laboratory, the semen volume was promptly
 128 determined using the graduated body of the microtube. For the sperm motility survey,
 129 samples were incubated at 37°C for 30 min, followed by dilution in a physiologic
 130 serum of one to 200 ml. A drop of diluted sperm was then examined under a
 131 microscope at 400x magnification, and the counts of progressive, non-progressive,
 132 and immotile sperm were conducted using a graded screen. Each specimen was
 133 evaluated for 200 to 400 sperm. Sperm concentration was determined by diluting the
 134 sample 1 to 400 ml in distilled water, and subsequently, a drop of the diluted sample
 135 was placed on a Neubauer chamber or Hemocytometer for examination under a
 136 microscope at 400x magnification. The semen concentration was calculated based on
 137 the count obtained from four lateral squares and one central square, using a specific
 138 formula for the calculation.

$$139 \quad C = \frac{(NOSC \times D)}{5(NOS) \times 4(SCS)}$$

140 Where: C = concentration (nl), NOSC = count of sperm count, D = dilution, NOS =
 141 number of sperm counted per square, and SCS = sperm concentration in each home
 142 (nl).

143 To determine the proportion of live and dead spermatozoa in semen samples, a
 144 technique involving the application of 10 µl of diluted specimen in distilled water
 145 (1:400 ml) on a glass slide, accompanied by the addition of a single drop of Eosin-
 146 Nigrosine, was executed. Subsequently, a drop of the resultant solution was spread at
 147 45° on another glass slide. Following desiccation, a microscope magnified 400 was
 148 used to enumerate discolored spermatozoa (indicative of dead sperm) and those
 149 lacking color (representing viable sperm).

10. **2.3. Determination of testicular characteristics.** On day 156 of the experiment, the
 101 assessment of testicular characteristics was conducted, which involved randomly
 102 selecting and slaughtering a rooster from each nest. Before slaughtering, the roosters,
 103 they were weighed and then the testicles were weighed. Subsequently, transverse
 104 sections with a maximum thickness of 0.5 cm were carefully prepared from each
 105 testicle. The tissue specimens were preserved in 10% formalin solution, followed by
 106 slide preparation using established protocols. Subsequently, the quantification of
 107 spermatogonia, primary spermatocytes, spermatids, spermatozoa, Sertoli, and Leydig
 108 cells was conducted using a 10×10 grid scale graticule. Additionally, the seminiferous
 109 duct diameter of and germinal epithelial thickness were measured using a linear
 110 graticule.

111 **2.4. Blood hormones and metabolites.** Throughout the experiment, blood samples
 112 were systematically obtained from roosters at 30-day intervals to assess the levels of
 113 creatinine, insulin, testosterone, and nitric oxide. Blood samples were collected from
 114 the wing vein and subsequently centrifuged at 300 rpm for 20 min at a 4°C. The
 115 separated serum was then preserved at a temperature of -20°C until biochemical
 116 analysis. Subsequently, the samples were dispatched to the biochemical laboratory for
 117 thorough analysis.

118 **2.5. Calculation of fertility and hatchability.** The calculation of the fertility rate,
 119 hatchability rate, and Hatch of Fertility (HF) in chicken production in response to the
 120 experimental treatments was carried out using the following formulas:

121 $\text{Fertility rate (\%)} = (\text{Total number of fertile eggs} / \text{Total number of eggs set}) \times 100$

122 $\text{Hatchability rate (\%)} = (\text{Total number of chicks hatched} / \text{Total number of fertile eggs}$
 123 $\text{set}) \times 100$

174 Hatch of Fertility (HF) = (Number of hatched chickens / (number of eggs-unfertilized
175 or infertile eggs)) \times 100

176 **2.6. Statistical data analysis**

177 A balanced completely randomized design (CRD) and the MIXED model, which uses
178 repeated measurements over time in SAS software version 9.1, were used for data
179 analysis. The statistical model incorporated the management method, sampling time,
180 interaction between sampling time and management method, and random effects of
181 roosters within the management method. The model structure followed an
182 autoregressive pattern. For data that lacked repetitive patterns over time (testicle
183 weight and histological data), the GLM procedure was used. The Least Squares Means
184 (LSMeans) with a standard error of means (SEM) were used to present the means in
185 the results tables. To compare the means, Duncan's multiple-range test was used. The
186 significance level was considered 5% ($p \leq 0.05$), whereas the trend was discussed at
187 $0.05 \leq p \leq 0.10$.

188 **3. Results**

189 **3.1. Qualitative and quantitative of semen characteristics.** The results of using
190 management techniques, namely spiking and intra-spiking, for parameters including
191 volume (ml), concentration ($\times 10^6$), motility, progress motility (%), and viability of
192 spermatozoa are depicted in Figure 1. As illustrated in Figure 1, no statistically
193 significant differences were observed among the experimental groups. *(Please insert*
194 *Figure 2 near here)*

195 **3.2. Testicular characteristics.** The results of applying spiking and intra-spiking
196 management methods on the weight of both testicles and right and left testicular
197 weights are presented in Table 2. There were no significant differences in body weight
198 between the experimental groups. However, the weight of both right and left testicles

was higher in the spiking group compared to the intra-spiking group ($p \leq 0.05$). *(Please insert Table 2 near here)*

Table 3 summarizes the histological data of the testicles in response to treatment. Treatments did not significantly affect the numbers of spermatogonia and Leydig cells. In contrast, the spiking management method increased the numbers of spermatocytes, spermatids, and spermatozoa cells compared with the other experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$). The number of Sertoli cells, seminiferous duct diameter, and germinal epithelium thickness were greater in the control group compared to the two treatment groups ($p \leq 0.05$). *(Please insert Table 3 near here)*

3.3. Fertility and hatchability. Percentage fertility, hatchability rate, and hatch of fertility are shown in Tables 4 and 5. As shown in Table 4, there was no significant effect between management methods on the fertility of total eggs; however, the effect of time on total egg fertility was significant ($p \leq 0.05$). A similar trend was observed in the infertility of total eggs. Table 4 also shows that the percentage of infertile eggs increased with herd age. This was especially true for the control group compared to the other two experimental groups. The rate of reduction in the spiking group is lower compared to the other two groups, although it was not statistically significant.

In Table 5, the percentage of hatchability and hatchability of fertile eggs were not affected by management methods. Of course, the effect of time was significant for both parameters ($p \leq 0.05$). *(Please insert Tables 4 and 5 near here)*

3.4. Blood hormones and metabolites. Figure 2 shows the analysis of blood parameters in response to managerial treatment. *(Please insert Figure 2 near here)* Applying management treatments, had no significant effect on blood creatinine and insulin concentrations. The testosterone concentration in the first and second sampling times was affected by treatments; thus, in the first sampling time, the control group

had a higher testosterone concentration than the two other experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$). In the second sampling time, the spiking group had a higher testosterone concentration than the other experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$).

Regarding the trend of changes in the concentration of nitric oxide during the experiment, unlike testosterone, significance was observed between treatments in the last three sampling times. In such a way that in the third, fourth, and fifth sampling times the spiking group had a higher nitric oxide concentration in comparison with two other experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$).

4. Discussion

The reproductive potential of roosters is significantly influenced by both the quantity and quality of sperm generated in their testicles. In broiler breeder flocks, one rooster typically mates with multiple hens, which underscores the importance of sperm characteristics in determining the overall fertility of the flock. Three primary parameters are commonly utilized to assess sperm fertility: concentration, viability, and mobility. As roosters age, there is a noticeable decline in reproductive performance. This decline manifests as a reduction in semen volume and a decrease in the total number of spermatozoa produced per ejaculation. Additionally, older roosters may exhibit decreased fertilization capacity of their sperm cells, which can adversely impact the overall fertility rates of the hens they mate with (16,17). In the present study, the application of spiking and intra-spiking management techniques did not significantly affect the characteristics of sperm such as semen volume, sperm concentration, motility, progressive motility, or percentages of alive and dead sperm. Male broiler chickens exhibiting body weights below 3,800 g are often characterized by infertility or subclinical infertility, which is associated with diminished testosterone levels and elevated corticosterone concentrations. Conversely, heavier

249 male broilers demonstrate larger and healthier testicular structures, alongside
 250 increased testosterone concentrations and reduced corticosterone levels. Despite these
 251 advantageous physiological traits, heavier roosters encounter significant difficulties
 252 in mating due to their size. Factors such as heterogeneity among the male population,
 253 the establishment of a pecking order within the flock, and diminished hatch rates serve
 254 as impediments to effective mating and access by hens. Furthermore, a decline in
 255 reproductive performance in roosters after 45 weeks is correlated with reductions in
 256 testicular weight, sperm production, and testosterone levels (16). In the present study,
 257 the spiking group exhibited a higher body weight numerically, this difference did not
 258 achieve statistical significance. Notably, testicular size was significantly greater in the
 259 spiking group compared to the other two groups. The findings align with the work of
 260 Fragoso et al., which indicated that increase in testicular size is closely linked to sperm
 261 production, as a considerable portion of testicular tissue is devoted to spermatogenesis
 262 (16). Furthermore, existing research has demonstrated a positive correlation between
 263 age and testicular size, indicating that older roosters tend to possess larger testicles
 264 than their younger counterparts (18). An increase in testicular size, along with a more
 265 developed network of blood vessels supplying sufficient blood to the testicular tissue,
 266 is crucial for optimal spermatogenesis. However, when sperm are not subjected to a
 267 suitable environment, their lifespan is diminished both in the seminiferous ducts and
 268 the oviduct of chickens (19). Additionally, as roosters age, there is a noticeable decline
 269 in the quality of the testicles, which leads to reductions in both sperm production and
 270 testosterone levels (16).
 271 Fertility rates and the number of hatched chicks are essential metrics for evaluating
 272 successful reproduction, reflecting the overall efficacy of the mother flock. Infertility
 273 may indicate underlying issues within the male population of the herd. Globally,

management techniques such as spiking and intra-spiking are frequently employed to mitigate reduced libido in aging roosters (1). In the present study, the spiking method was implemented to demonstrate a reduction in infertility rates and an enhancement in overall egg fertility. However, these changes did not yield statistically significant differences among the experimental groups. Similar patterns were observed in the hatchability of both total and fertile eggs. These findings contrast with those reported by other researchers (8, 20), who noted a significant impact of the spiking method on egg fertility and hatchability, effectively reversing declines in these parameters. Conversely, some studies have indicated that spiking did not significantly affect egg fertility and hatchability (21,22). Fertility is directly linked to the characteristics of the parent flock. As the breeder flock ages, both egg fertility and hatchability tend to decrease, often as a result of reduced mating frequency, lower sperm motility, and decreased sperm penetration into the egg in aging broiler breeders (17).

The concentrations of blood creatinine and insulin did not demonstrate statistically significant differences; however, testosterone levels exhibited a declining trend in relation to the increasing age of the roosters throughout the experimental period, regardless of treatment conditions. Specifically, the spiking group displayed significantly higher testosterone concentrations during the interval between 40 and 50 weeks of age when compared to the other groups. Additionally, a notable distinction in nitric oxide concentration was observed in the spiking group between 50 and 60 weeks of age relative to the other groups. Testosterone is a critical hormone influencing age-related changes in fertility, affecting various physiological traits such as testicular development, modulation of Sertoli cells, as well as sexual behavior and mating activity (20). The finding of this study align with previous research has established a positive correlation between sexual behavior and testosterone levels in

roosters (4). Furthermore, older male birds exhibit reduced testicular responsiveness to luteinizing hormone (LH) concerning testosterone production compared to their younger counterparts (23).

Nitric oxide, functioning as both an intra- and intercellular signaling molecule, plays a pivotal role in the regulation of hormone secretion. It exerts autocrine and paracrine biphasic control over steroidogenesis in Leydig cells (23). In the present study, no significant differences in the quantity of Leydig cells were detected between the control and treatment groups. Nonetheless, further investigation is warranted to elucidate potential variations in Leydig cell activity among the experimental groups, highlighting the necessity for additional research to clarify this aspect.

5. Conclusion

The findings from the current study suggest that implementing management techniques, such as spiking, beginning at 40 weeks of age, may effectively mitigate the decline in fertility and hatchability rates observed in broiler breeder flocks. This timely application of management strategies is crucial as it addresses the physiological and reproductive challenges associated with aging in broiler breeders, which typically result in reduced reproductive performance. By utilizing spiking methods, it is possible to enhance the overall reproductive capacity of these flocks, ultimately leading to improved results in egg fertility and hatchability. The results underscore the importance of prompt intervention in management practices to maintain reproductive efficiency, particularly as the broiler breeder population ages. In conclusion, adopting these management strategies is essential for sustaining optimal reproductive performance within broiler breeder flocks. These approaches effectively counteract the premature decline in flock fertility while also preserving the genetic

potential of breeding birds. By prioritizing reproductive efficiency, broiler breeder producers can achieve significant improvements in profitability while ensuring the sustainability of their breeding programs. Continued research into the long-term effects and best practices for these management techniques is necessary to develop comprehensive guidelines for practitioners in the field.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interests. The authors also certify that there is no conflict of interest with any financial organization concerning the material discussed in the manuscript.

Animal welfare statement

The authors confirm that the ethical policies of the journal, as noted on the journal's author guidelines page, have been adhered to and the appropriate ethical review committee approval has been received. The authors confirm that they have followed EU standards for the protection of animals used for scientific purposes.

As part of this experiment, all animal procedures and ethical considerations were performed following the Guide to the Care and Use of Agricultural Animals in Research and Teaching (FASS, 2010). Also, this study was conducted according to

the procedures established by the Iranian Ministry of Agriculture (Experimental Authorization No. ASRI-2016-95014).

Author contributions

Akbar Yaghobfar, Hoda Javaheri Barfourooshi, and Rezvan Yaghoubfar: Acquisition and analysis of data; **Akbar Yaghobfar and Rezvan Yaghoubfar:** Drafting the manuscript; **Akbar Yaghobfar and Hoda Javaheri Barfourooshi:** Critical revision of the manuscript.

Data availability statement

The data that support the findings of this study can be found, in the **javaheri, hoda (2024), "Data Rooster", Mendeley Data, V1, doi: 10.17632/wnp32zftt9.1**

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Table 1. Nutrition and the dietary compound of broiler chicken ration

| Components of ration | Percentages |
|-------------------------------|-------------|
| Corn | 53.44 |
| Wheat | 20.85 |
| Oil | 0.08 |
| Soybean Meal | 15.93 |
| Oysters | 7.45 |
| Di-calcium phosphate | 1.26 |
| Salt | 0.31 |
| Vitamin supplement | 0.25 |
| Mineral supplement | 0.25 |
| DL-Methionine | 0.14 |
| L-Lysine Hydrochloride | 0.02 |
| L-Threonine | 0.02 |
| Compounds calculated | |
| Metabolism energy (kcal / kg) | 2.85 |
| Protein (%) | 14.44 |
| Fat (%) | 2.17 |
| Linolenic acid (%) | 1.40 |
| Fiber (%) | 3.84 |
| Calcium (%) | 3.30 |
| P available (%) | 0.34 |
| Sodium (%) | 0.22 |
| Digestible arginine (%) | 0.64 |
| Digestible threonine (%) | 0.46 |
| Digestible lysine (%) | 0.64 |
| Digestible methionine (%) | 0.35 |

* Vitamin and mineral supplements (in kg): Vitamin A, 4.4 g, vitamin D 3, 0.72 g, vitamin B1, 0.306 g, vitamin B2, 1.5 g, vitamin B6, 0.306 g, vitamin B12, 1 g, vitamin E, 7.2 g, biotin, 1 g, vitamin K, 1 g, niacin, 2.48 g, folic acid, 0.306 g, pantothenic acid, 6.08 g, choline chloride, 220 g, manganese, 2 g, iron, 10 g, zinc, 13 g, iodine, 0.2 g, cobalt, 0.02 g, selenium, 0.04 g.

Table 2. The average weights of the body and testicles between experimental groups at the end of the experiment with different management methods.

| Treatment | Body weight (g) | Weight testicles (g) | The weight of the right testicle (g) | The weight of the left testicle (g) |
|-------------------------|-----------------|----------------------|--------------------------------------|-------------------------------------|
| Control (no management) | 5426.7 | 22.90 ^{ab} | 11.50 ^{ab} | 11.47 ^{ab} |
| Spiking | 5940.0 | 34.83 ^a | 18.83 ^a | 16.33 ^a |
| Intra-spiking | 5260.0 | 12.10 ^b | 6.23 ^b | 5.90 ^b |
| P-Value | 0.53 | 0.09 | 0.07 | 0.12 |
| SEM | 419.06 | 6.04 | 3.05 | 3.02 |

^{a b} Different letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 3. Average histological measurements of testicles in experimental groups at the end of the experiment period.

| Treatments | Spermatogonia cell (number) | Spermatocyte cell (number) | Spermatid cell (number) | Spermatozoa cell (number) | Sertoli cell (number) | Leydig cell (number) | Seminiferous duct (μm) | diameter | Germinal epithelium thickness (μm) |
|-------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|---|----------|---|
| Control (no management) | 84.07 | 84.00 ^b | 84.67 ^a | 84.83 ^a | 4.57 ^a | 3.30 | 168.47 ^a | | 71.60 ^a |
| Spiking | 87.63 | 94.40 ^a | 93.60 ^a | 90.23 ^a | 3.33 ^b | 2.90 | 149.87 ^b | | 52.67 ^b |
| Intra-spiking | 85.07 | 56.13 ^c | 53.57 ^b | 37.33 ^b | 3.90 ^{ab} | 3.00 | 114.87 ^c | | 39.87 ^c |
| P-Value | 0.41 | <0.01 | <0.01 | <0.01 | 0.005 | 0.32 | <0.01 | | <0.01 |
| SEM | 1.95 | 3.47 | 4.12 | 5.39 | 0.26 | 0.19 | 4.54 | | 1.59 |

^{a b} Different letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$).

Table 4. Main effects of management methods, spiking and intra-spiking, on the fertility of total eggs and infertility of total eggs (%) between experimental groups.

| Fertility of total eggs | | | | | Infertility of total eggs | | | | |
|-------------------------|------------|-------|-------|--|---------------------------|------------|-------|-------|----------------------|
| Time | Treatments | | | | Means of time effect | Treatments | | | |
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | Means of time effect |
| 1 | 80.00 | 95.56 | 92.22 | | 89.26 ^a | 20.0 | 4.44 | 7.78 | 10.74 ^c |
| 2 | 67.78 | 98.89 | 88.89 | | 85.18 ^a | 32.22 | 1.11 | 11.11 | 14.81 ^c |
| 3 | 67.78 | 95.56 | 90.00 | | 84.44 ^a | 32.22 | 4.44 | 10.0 | 15.56 ^{cb} |
| 4 | 77.78 | 94.44 | 78.89 | | 83.70 ^a | 22.22 | 5.56 | 21.11 | 16.30 ^{cb} |
| 5 | 78.89 | 90.00 | 83.33 | | 84.07 ^a | 21.11 | 10.0 | 16.67 | 15.93 ^c |
| 6 | 58.89 | 80.00 | 71.11 | | 70.00 ^b | 41.11 | 20.00 | 28.89 | 30.00 ^b |
| 7 | 55.56 | 54.44 | 47.78 | | 52.59 ^c | 44.45 | 45.56 | 52.22 | 47.41 ^a |
| 8 | 36.67 | 64.44 | 42.22 | | 47.78 ^c | 63.33 | 35.56 | 57.77 | 52.22 ^a |
| Means of Treatments | 65.42 | 84.17 | 74.31 | | Means of Treatments | 34.58 | 15.83 | 25.69 | |
| Treatment | | | | | Treatment | | | | |
| Time | | | | | Time | | | | |
| Treatment*Time | | | | | Treatment*Time | | | | |
| P-value | 0.21 | <0.01 | 0.19 | | P-value | 0.21 | <0.01 | 0.19 | |
| SEM | 7.16 | 5.82 | 10.07 | | SEM | 7.17 | 5.82 | 10.07 | |

^{a b} Different letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$). Treatments include: 1. Control; no management, 2. Spiking, 3. Intra-spiking.

Table 5. Main effects of management methods, spiking and intra-spiking, on hatchability of total eggs and Hatchability of fertile eggs (%) between experimental groups.

| Hatchability of total eggs | | | | | Hatchability of fertile eggs | | | | |
|----------------------------|------------|-------|----------------|----------------------|------------------------------|------------|-------|----------------|----------------------|
| | Treatments | | | Means of time effect | | Treatments | | | Means of time effect |
| Time | 1 | 2 | 3 | | | 1 | 2 | 3 | |
| 1 | 78.88 | 94.44 | 91.11 | 88.15 ^a | | 65.81 | 65.93 | 65.74 | 65.83 ^a |
| 2 | 63.33 | 95.55 | 83.33 | 80.74 ^a | | 63.31 | 64.34 | 62.64 | 63.43 ^a |
| 3 | 66.67 | 95.55 | 86.67 | 82.96 ^a | | 65.81 | 66.67 | 63.99 | 65.49 ^a |
| 4 | 76.67 | 93.33 | 77.77 | 82.59 ^a | | 54.70 | 65.87 | 65.74 | 62.10 ^a |
| 5 | 71.11 | 81.11 | 76.66 | 76.29 ^a | | 59.07 | 60.29 | 60.43 | 59.93 ^a |
| 6 | 57.98 | 69.46 | 62.46 | 63.30 ^b | | 36.16 | 53.50 | 52.29 | 47.32 ^b |
| 7 | 62.31 | 71.68 | 55.29 | 63.09 ^b | | 35.57 | 36.15 | 34.07 | 35.26 ^d |
| 8 | 52.78 | 73.14 | 58.24 | 61.39 ^b | | 38.92 | 46.77 | 37.41 | 41.03 ^c |
| Means Treatments | 66.22 | 84.28 | 73.94 | | | 52.42 | 57.44 | 55.29 | |
| | Treatment | Time | Treatment*Time | | | Treatment | Time | Treatment*Time | |
| P-value | 0.18 | 0.002 | 0.64 | | | P-value | 0.14 | <0.01 | 0.17 |
| SEM | 6.50 | 5.26 | 9.11 | | | SEM | 1.69 | 2.22 | 3.86 |

^{a b} Different letters indicate significant differences between experimental groups ($p \leq 0.05$). Treatments include: 1. Control; no management, 2. Spiking, 3. Intra-spiking.

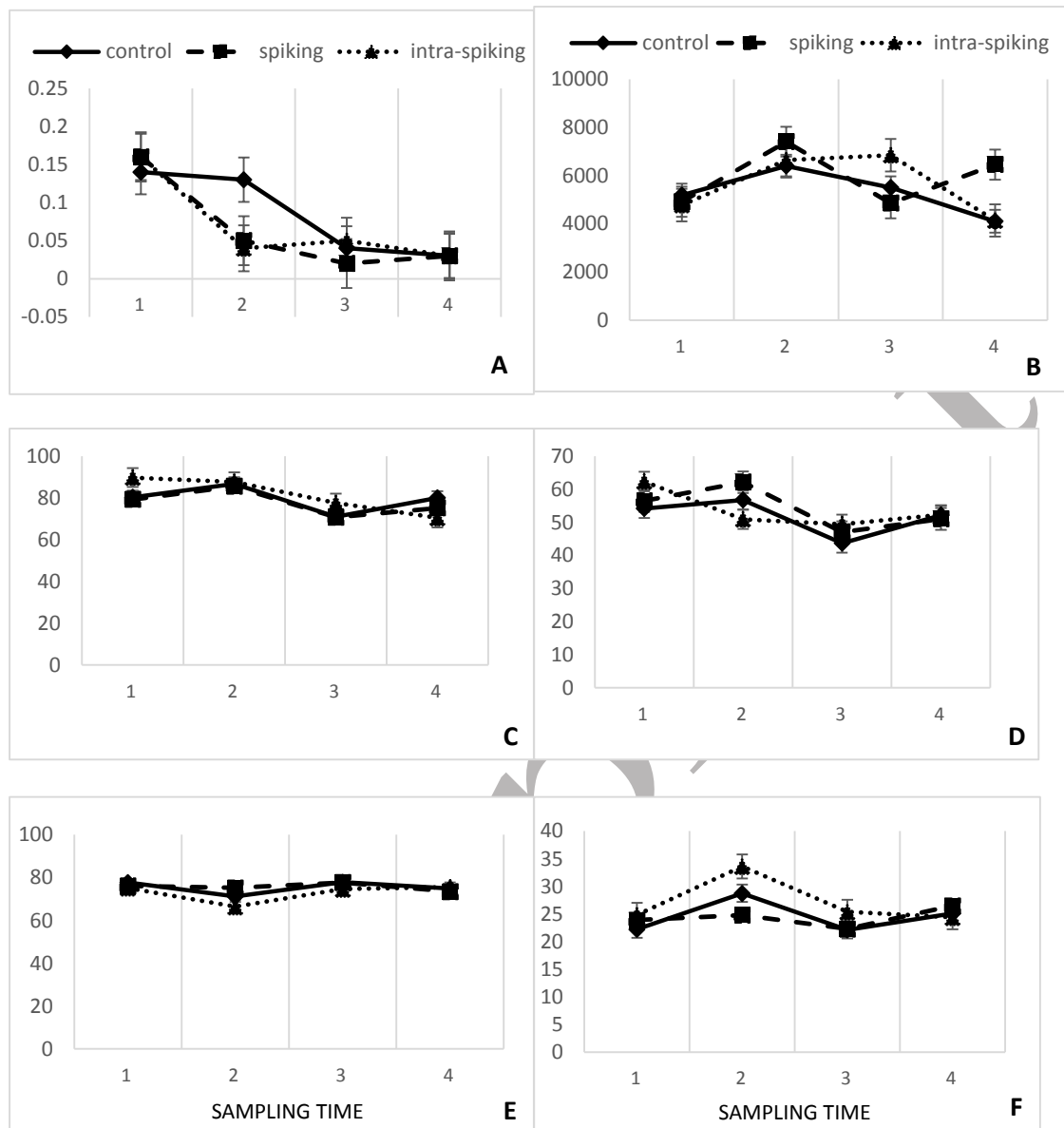


Figure 1.

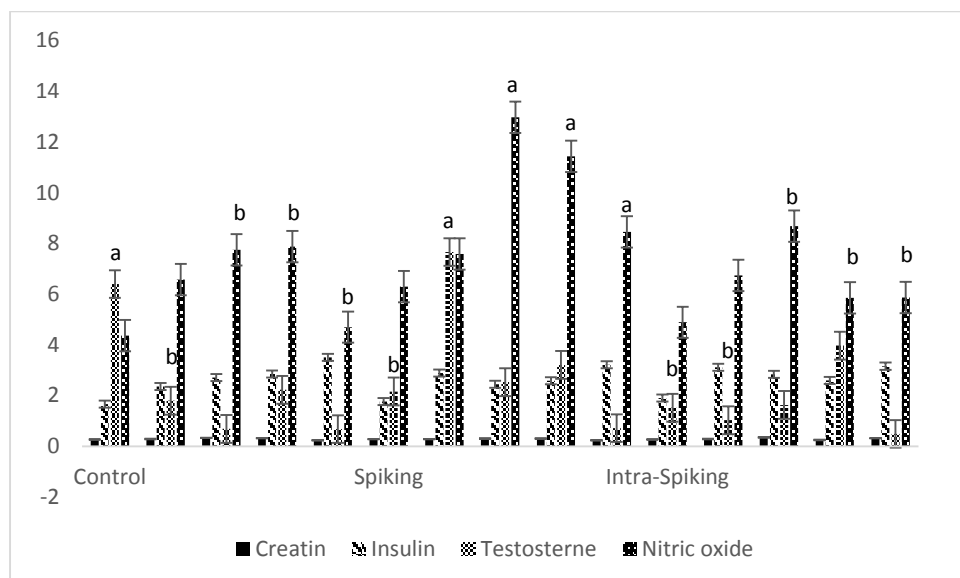


Figure 2.

Figure 1. Changes in the volume (ml, **A**), concentration ($\times 10^6$, **B**), motility (% , **C**), progressive motility (% , **D**), live (% , **E**), and dead (% , **F**) of sperm between roosters in three experimental groups. Significance was considered at the level of 5% ($p \leq 0.05$).

Figure 2. Changes in the blood concentration of Creatinine (mg/dl), Insulin (μ U/ml), Testosterone (ng/ml), and Nitric oxide (μ M) between cockerels in three managerial methods during the experiment. Sampling times: 40, 45, 50, 55, and 60 weeks of age. Significance was considered at the level of 5% ($p \leq 0.05$).