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**Improvement in animal health and product quality  
through dietary manipulation**

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Ph.D. Thesis

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# ABSTRACT

The challenge in livestock sector is to maintain a high productivity and food security in a sustainable way, reducing the use of antimicrobials. For these reasons, the use of sustainable dietary interventions seems to be a valuable approach in order to enhance animal performance, health and product quality. So, a nutritional approach, using dietary integration with biotechnological bioactive compounds or sustainable integration are investigated. The aim of this thesis was to: 1) summarize the dietary intervention with seaweed in pig specie 2) evaluate the effects of dietary integration with biotechnological extract in post weaning piglets on growth, immune parameters and oxidative status 3) evaluate the effectiveness of brown seaweed and polyphenols mixture on rabbit does reproductive performances and antioxidant status and 4) evaluate the effect of brown seaweed and polyphenols mixture on growth and meat quality parameters in rabbit.

The present experimental studies highlight that dietary manipulation with natural substances is a useful approach to improve rabbits and piglet's health, productive parameters and product quality in a sustainable way. In particular, the use of dietary biotechnological extract and brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture was investigated. This data highlight that natural extracts are effective candidates to improve animal health, reducing the use of antibiotics. This will contribute to the development of a sustainable production system, in order to enhance animal health, product quality and to reduce the environmental impact, as recommended by the One health approach. Considering the heterogeneity of herbs, spices and botanicals, further investigations are required to deepen our knowledge about the mechanism of actions and dosage of seaweeds and polyphenols mixture.

# RIASSUNTO

La principale sfida nel settore zootecnico è mantenere un'elevata produttività e la sicurezza degli alimenti in modo sostenibile, riducendo l'utilizzo degli antimicrobici. Diverse strategie alimentari risultano indispensabili per il raggiungimento di questi obiettivi, in quanto sono in grado di migliorare le performance e la salute degli animali e la qualità dei prodotti. In particolare, sono state valutate diverse integrazioni dietetiche con estratti naturali e molecole bioattive. L'obiettivo della tesi è stato: 1) Studiare l'utilizzo di integrazioni dietetiche con alghe nella specie suina. 2) Valutare gli effetti dell'integrazione dietetica nel suinetto in post svezzamento con estratti naturali biotecnologici su performance di crescita, parametri immunitari e lo status antiossidante. 3) Valutare gli effetti dell'integrazione dietetica con alghe brune e polifenoli su parametri riproduttivi e status antiossidante delle coniglie. 4) Valutare gli effetti dell'integrazione dietetica con alghe brune e polifenoli sulle performance di crescita e qualità della carne in conigli in accrescimento.

Gli studi mostrano che l'integrazione dietetica con sostanze naturali risulta un approccio sostenibile per migliorare la salute, i parametri produttivi e la qualità dei prodotti nella specie suina e cunicola. In particolare, sono state studiate alcune integrazioni dietetiche con estratti biotecnologici e con una miscela di alghe brune e polifenoli. I risultati hanno dimostrato l'efficacia di queste sostanze nel modulare positivamente la salute degli animali, con conseguente riduzione di antibiotici. Tali strategie alimentari possono quindi contribuire allo sviluppo di un sistema produttivo sostenibile migliorando la salute animale e la qualità dei prodotti, riducendo l'impatto ambientale come richiesto dall'approccio *One Health*. Considerando l'eterogeneità delle sostanze naturali, si rendono necessarie ulteriori indagini per approfondire le conoscenze relative ai diversi meccanismi d'azione e ai corretti dosaggi da applicare nelle diverse specie d'interesse zootecnico.

# **CHAPTER 1**

## **FOREWORD**





In livestock animal welfare, health, growth performance, sustainability and meat quality are gaining increasing attention not only on the part of the scientific community but also breeders, food producers and consumers.

Disease level is of considerable importance in welfare assessments, and susceptibility to disease is also an important indicator. Management, housing system, stressors, “overcrowding on” farms, environmental conditions must be considered in order to improve health, growth performance and meat quality parameters in different species of pigs, rabbits, cows and poultry.

For years farmers have used antibiotics to improve the growth performance of animals, as growth promoters. Since the ban on the use of synthetic substances, there has been a big increase in animal death and diseases, and thus alternative solutions are needed to enhance animal health. Zinc oxide is an alternative, but there will be in EC ban on the pharmacological dosages of zinc from zinc oxide from 2022.

Probiotics, prebiotics, organic acids, plant extracts, and enzymes therefore present an opportunity to enhance gut health and the productive and reproductive performance of sows, piglets and swine when used as dietary supplements.

Researchers have focused on natural substances that have probiotic, prebiotic, antimicrobial, immuno-modulating and antioxidant actions such as seaweeds, polyphenols aimed at improving animal health, growth performance and meat quality for consumers in animal production.

## **1.1 ANTIBIOTICS AS GROWTH PROMOTERS IN LIVESTOCK**

The benefits of using antimicrobials as antimicrobial growth promoters (AGPs) were first reported in 1950 when two researchers noticed that small subtherapeutic doses of penicillin and tetracycline could enhance weight gain (Stokstad and Jukes, 1950). AGPs are widely added to animal feed to stimulate growth, rapidly increase productivity, and minimize mortality by preventing infections (Van Den Bogaard et al., 2000). In the United States, antimicrobials are also regularly used to treat infections or illnesses in food-producing animals. Food animals are especially susceptible to opportunistic microbes (usually benign or commensal but which can cause disease given the right circumstances), such as bacteria. Thus they are often exposed to antimicrobials, such as antibiotics, to treat and prevent infectious bacterial diseases and/or to promote growth and improve feed efficiency.

Many of these antimicrobials are identical to or closely resemble drugs used in humans (McEwen and Fedorka-Cray, 2002). Typically, the antibiotic is distributed to the animals in the form of livestock feed supplements, as it is more efficient to mass-medicate entire groups as opposed to individual treatments. The use of antibiotics has a drastic effect on the development and occurrence of antibiotic resistance in animals and humans (Devirgiliis, Zinno, & Perozzi., 2013; Barton., 2000). The World Health Organization and the World Organization for Animal Health have encouraged the health, agriculture, and veterinary sectors to reduce the use of AGPs (Aidara-Kane, 2012).

## 1.2 DEVELOPMENT OF ANTIBIOTIC RESISTANCE

The global situation concerning antibiotic resistance is very alarming. Antibiotics were first studied in the late 1800s and it was in the early 1900s that penicillin was first discovered (Abraham and Chain, 1940). Since the application of penicillin in the 1940s, antibiotics have played an unparalleled role in the prevention, control, and treatment of infectious diseases for humans and animals. Unfortunately, today the increasingly widespread use (especially the misuse) of antibiotics have led to the rapid appearance of antibiotic resistant strains: more and more infections are caused by microorganisms that fail to respond to conventional treatments. In fact, bacteria have a notable genetic plasticity that allows them to respond to a wide array of environmental threats, including the presence of antimicrobials. Bacterial cells derived from a susceptible population are able to develop gene mutations that negatively affect drug activity, causing cell survival in the presence of antimicrobial molecules. The mechanism of antimicrobial resistance (AMR) has been extensively described by Munita et al., (2016).

Antibiotic usage in intensive livestock systems has been associated with AMR, and the WHO has declared it a risk for both human and animal health (WHO, 2000). The over-use of antibiotics has resulted in the development of AMR in animal microbial populations, with the potential of transferring antibiotic resistance genes from animal to human microbiota (Economou and Gousia, 2015).

The use of antibiotics as growth promoters has thus been prohibited in many countries, with Sweden being the first to ban antibiotics in 1986. Denmark subsequently banned their use in 1998 and was followed by the European Union which introduced a total ban in 2006 (Castanon, 2007). The prohibition on the subtherapeutic use of antibiotics in animal feed resulted in decreased animal production (Cheng et al., 2014) due to higher rates of infections in livestock and has also increased the risk of food-borne infections in consumers (Hao et al., 2014). Ten years later, prophylactic antibiotics are still used at high levels in many countries to sustain animal health and welfare (Aarestrup, 2012; Callens et al., 2012).

AMR is in rapid evolution and greatly affects the efficacy of antimicrobial treatment of patients infected with multi-drug resistant organisms. Therefore, AMR is currently considered to be one of the major public health threats for the near future. Measures are needed worldwide to reduce the use of antimicrobials. In the last few decades, a new approach call “*One Health*” has been adopted. This concept recognizes that the health of people is connected to the health of animals and the environment. Physicians, veterinarians, ecologists, and many others have been working together to monitor public health threats and to learn about how diseases spread among people, animals, and the environment.

It is thus crucial to find a way to improve livestock health and welfare, to decrease antimicrobial use and to produce safe products in a sustainable way. The research and development of innovative strategies is essential for improving animal health by reducing antimicrobial residues and antibiotic-resistant microorganisms and ensuring consumer health. The improvement in livestock health and welfare, through approaches such as the development of novel non-drug approaches is key in order to guarantee the sustainable development of livestock breeding. Several molecules have also been studied to help overcome the problems associated with the ban of antibiotics in livestock production (Cheng et al., 2014).

### 1.3 ALTERNATIVE SOLUTIONS TO THE USE OF ANTIBIOTICS

Feed and feeding strategies play a key role in affecting animal health and welfare. To overcome the increased mortality and morbidity rate due to the ban of antibiotics, a number of alternatives have been proposed (Seal et al., 2013). These include immunomodulatory agents, probiotics and prebiotics, plant extracts, and enzymes (Cheng et al., 2014). There are also several substances that improve the immune function and consequently the host's resistance to diseases. Since the 1990s, vitamins (A, E, C), nucleotides, essential oils and microelements (selenium, copper and zinc) have been used as immunostimulants. In addition, probiotics, plants and their extracts have been widely studied due to their healthy proprieties (Cheng et al., 2014).

### 1.4 PROBIOTICS AND PREBIOTICS

In the last few decades, the interest in alternative solutions to the use of antibiotics in livestock nutrition, have assumed great importance. Various strategies are used to reduce the use of synthetic substances with significant impacts on animal health, and reductions in the spread of disease (Griggs and Jacob, 2005).

However, the use of a combination of herbs and probiotics as functional feeds has not been widely studied. Although individual herbs and probiotics are highly effective, their combinations may enhance their performance through synergism (Prakasita et al., 2019). Prevention in the form of an immunization program by vaccination could limit the amount of antibiotics needed.

In the last 15 years, the use of probiotics has greatly increased. The US National Food Ingredient Association defines probiotics (direct-fed microbials) as a source of live naturally-occurring microorganisms, including bacteria, fungi and yeast (Miles and Bootwalla, 1991)

The term “probiotics” has been amended by the FAO/ WHO to “Live microorganisms”, which, when administered in adequate amounts, confer a health benefit on the host (Fuller, 1989). Probiotics are also defined as live microorganisms with a health benefit for the host when administered in appropriate and regular quantities. Once ingested, the probiotic microorganisms modulate the balance and activities of the gastrointestinal microbiota, whose role is fundamental for gut homeostasis. Numerous factors, such as dietary and management constraints, affect the structure and activities of gut microbial communities, leading to impaired health and performance in livestock animals. The literature describes the important benefits of yeast and bacterial probiotics on the gastrointestinal microbial ecosystem in ruminants and monogastric animals (equines, pigs, poultry, fish), as well as their implications in terms of animal nutrition and health. (Chaucheyras-Durand and Durand, 2010)

Several lactic acid bacteria (LAB) strains belonging to the genera *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, and *Enterococcus*, are considered beneficial to the host and have thus been used as probiotics and included in several functional foods (Castro et al., 2015). Probiotics enhance intestinal health by stimulating the development of a healthy microbiota (predominated by beneficial bacteria), preventing enteric pathogens from colonizing the intestine, increasing digestive capacity, lowering the pH, and improving mucosal immunity. It is important for the introduced microbes not to disturb the indigenous population, which has already adapted to the environment of the gastrointestinal tract to work both for and with the host (Tannock, 2007).

Prebiotics are non-digestible food ingredients which, when consumed in sufficient amounts, selectively stimulate the growth and/or activity of one or a limited number of microbes in the gut. The impacts of orally-administered probiotics (in this case, referred to as symbiotics) and the intrinsic beneficial bacteria of the gastrointestinal tract can be enhanced by the use of prebiotics (Gibson et al., 2004). The most common prebiotics used to yield health benefits are carbohydrate substrates, such as oligosaccharides or dietary fiber with a low digestibility, which enhance the beneficial growth organisms in the gut, or function as competitive attachment sites of pathogenic bacteria. Fructooligosaccharides (FOSs) and mannanoligosaccharides (MOSs) are two of the most studied prebiotics. Some cereal crops and onions contain FOSs, whereas MOSs are obtained from the cell walls of yeast (*Saccharomyces cerevisiae*). Several studies on the use of prebiotics in animal production have highlighted the potential benefits of FOSs and MOSs (Waldroup et al., 1993).

## 1.5 ORGANIC ACIDS

For several decades organic acids have been studied to reduce bacteria in livestock production as key to ensuring feed preservation and safety. The majority can be added to the drinking water or in feed. The use of organic acids in animal nutrition may help to reduce the intestinal colonization of *Salmonella* (Van Immerseel et al., 2006). The supplementation effects of organic acids in the water or feed on campylobacter colonization are reported in a study by Chaveerach et al., 2004. They observed certain blends, such as formic, and acetic, and found that propionic acids, in ratios of 1:2:3 and 1:2:5, respectively, were more effective at inhibiting the growth of *Campylobacter* than the commercial products that they tested. At the end of the experiment they concluded that adding organic acids to drinking water reduced the transmission of bacteria in the flock.

The use of acetic acid from vinegar in an *in vitro* study inhibited the growth of several *E. Coli* and *S. typhimurium* bacteria, with positive effects and a reduction in bacteria (Entani et al., 1998).

Among a variety of candidates for the replacement of antibiotic growth promoters, organic acids are promising alternatives (Mroz, 2005).

Organic acids are known to:

- reduce the buffering capacity of diets,
- control harmful microorganisms in digestive and respiratory organs by reducing pH levels in the stomach and gut,
- promote the availability of nutrients in the diet and their absorption and digestion,
- improve immune responses in poultry (Yesilbag and Colpan, 2006; Park et al., 2009; Abudabos et al., 2014), which can make a great contribution to the profitability in poultry production and also provide people with healthy and nutritious poultry products.

However, an important limitation is that organic acids are rapidly metabolized in the foregut (Khan and Iqbal, 2016).

Matrix-coating or encapsulation techniques are a good solution to protect organic acids for targeted delivery to different gut segments. A supplementation blend of a dietary matrix-coated organic acid maintains the optimum pH in the intestinal tract and improve nutrient digestibility (Upadhaya et al., 2014).

Other possible antibiotic replacers are medium-chain fatty acids (MCFAs), which are a type of acid with a strong antibacterial activity against Gram-positive cocci (Bergsson et al., 2001) and

*Escherichia coli* (Skřivanová et al., 2009). Such positive changes (e.g., greater villus height) may result in improved performance of the poultry. In addition, organic acids could improve the antibacterial effects of MCFAs (Zentek et al., 2011).

A combination of organic acids and MCFAs has beneficial effects on intestinal microecology in piglets (Zentek et al., 2013; Kuang et al., 2015) and nutrient digestibility in laying hens (Lee et al., 2015). They make a fundamental contribution to feed hygiene, as they suppress the growth of mould and bacterial pathogens, thus allowing a better use of feed resources. Organic acids are currently also the most cost-effective and eco-efficient performance-enhancing option available to the feed industry. However, due to their antimicrobial activity, organic acids and their salts not only help to preserve feed and silages, they also reduce bacterial content and maintain the nutritional value of the feed to ensure animal performance. In addition, they improve nutrient digestibility - which in turn leads to stable animal health and increased performance. In animal husbandry, reduced feed conversion rates, improved daily gain and a reduced incidence of diarrhoea all contribute to an enhanced economic return, through lower feed costs and reduced time-to-market weight (Freitag, 2007).

## **1.6 NATURAL EXTRACTS IN ANIMAL NUTRITION**

Interest in natural substances such as plants, herbs, polyphenols and spices has increased in multidisciplinary fields including animal nutrition, health/well-being, and food.

World wide, interest in herbal products has grown significantly, in fact cattle, horses, sheep, goats and pigs represent about 31%, 14%, 17%, 17% and 7%, respectively, of the animals treated with herbal remedies, followed by poultry (9.1%), dogs (5.3%) and rabbits(4.3%). The search for alternatives to antibiotic growth promoters and the increased demand for natural substances by consumers have stimulated the study of the effects and their active compounds in animal feed. Public awareness of the potential health risks associated with the use of in-feed antibiotics, growth hormones and various synthetic pharmaceuticals, combining natural approaches to food production, have changed consumer attitudes (Greathead, 2003).

For centuries, herbs and spices have been known to be rich sources of molecules with several biological properties and thus could become a good solution for reducing the use of antibiotics. Plants have become of great importance in animal nutrition due to their high content in bioactive molecules, and they produce a wide range of active principles with a low molecular weight, known as secondary metabolites. Through secondary biochemical pathways, plants synthesize several compounds, often in defence against damage (Reymond et al., 2000). Some of the roles of secondary metabolites are relatively simple: they have a protective role (e.g. antioxidant, free radical-scavenging) and defend the plant against microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, and viruses. Some of the roles of secondary metabolites are relatively simple: they have a protective role (e.g. antioxidant, free radical-scavenging) and defend the plant against microorganisms such as bacteria, fungi, and viruses. The range of secondary metabolites can be subdivided into distinct groups based on their chemical structure; alkaloids, terpenes, and phenolic compounds.

Many papers have focused on the clarification of the biochemical structures and their positive role as phytochemicals. Phenolic compounds, phenylpropanoid glycosides and extracted from plants, have been reported to have many antioxidant, anti-microbial and anti-inflammatory activities (Manach et al., 2004; Li et al., 2014).

Plants and their extracts are therefore being increasingly used in animal nutrition as appetisers, digestive stimulants, stimulants of physiological functions, colorants, and antioxidants, as well as for the prevention and treatment of certain pathological conditions. In rabbits, many studies have been carried out in order to evaluate the effects of different polyphenols from grape pomace (Sgorlon et al., 2005), green tea (Eid et al., 2010). In fact, dietary strategies improve the productive performance in intensively-reared animals.

### 1.6.1 ANTIOXIDANT ACTIVITIES

In response to recent claims that synthetic antioxidants have possible toxicological effects and the increased interest of consumers in purchasing natural products, the meat industry has been investigating sources of natural antioxidants (Karre et al., 2013).

Antioxidants such as vitamin C, vitamin E, carotenoids, and flavonoids have been identified in many natural food products. These substances are used to prevent the oxidative deterioration of foods and thus minimize the oxidative damage in humans, enhancing health and protecting the nutrients during storage. Plants contain a high concentration of redox-active antioxidants, such as polyphenols, carotenoids, tocopherols, glutathione, ascorbic acid and enzymes with antioxidant activities. Many natural antioxidants such as rosemary and spice extracts are more active than synthetic antioxidants, and their use in food needs to be explored. In 2010, the European Union (directives 2010/67/EU and 2010/69/EU) authorized the use of rosemary extracts as new food additives for use in foodstuffs, and the applications specified by the directives include meats.

The majority of papers describe *in vitro* investigations of the potential antioxidant mechanisms (Al-Mariri and Safi, 2014), however in farm animals antioxidants can have a direct influence on the product quality. Several studies have reported that dietary plant polyphenols in pigs enhance the oxidative stress responses of the organism (Pastorelli et al., 2012; Rossi et al. 2013).

Other studies have shown that dietary supplementations with plant extracts improve the animal's antioxidant status and consequently the meat and derived product quality. Dietary supplementation with plant extracts containing verbascoside improved the plasma oxidative status in pigs (Pastorelli, et al. 2012; Rossi et al. 2013) and in Lacaune ewes (Casamassima, et al. 2012). This antioxidant status effect is related to the increased serum levels of vitamins A and E (Palazzo et al., 2011).

In sows, Amrik and Bilkey (2004) found an improvement in the productive performance, feed conversion, feed intake, in sows fed with oregano. This natural substance also controls diarrhoea syndrome in piglets and also reduces the mortality rate.

The use of antioxidants in animal feeding reduces lipid oxidation in pork (Corino et al., 1999), rabbit and chicken meat quality. Polyphenols show antioxidant activities compared to other phenolic compounds. Rossi et al. (2009) investigated and compared the antioxidant activity of extracts from Labiatae and Oleaceae cell cultures and a natural Verbenaceae extract on pig whole blood. Another study in piglets showed the positive effects of verbascoside and teupolioside with an improvement in oxidative stability (Corino et al., 2007).

### 1.6.2 ANTIMICROBIAL ACTIVITIES

Several plant extracts have revealed a wide spectrum of antibacterial activities against microorganisms, including Escherichia, salmonella, staphylococcus (Dorman and Deans, 2000). Various plant extracts have important antimicrobial abilities, and most studies on this topic are *in vitro*, however a few studies have been carried out with live poultry, rabbits and piglets. Natural extracts could be used to control *Clostridium perfringens*, the bacterium that causes necrotic enteritis in broilers (Mitsch et al., 2004). *Thymus vulgaris*, *Curcuma longa*, *Piper nigrum*, *Origanum vulgare* have been used in various studies. For example, thyme inhibits the growth of *S. typhimurium* and *E.coli* when added in animal nutrition (Karapinar and Aktug, 1987; Helander et al., 1998). Carvacron, another component of the essential oil of oregano has been shown *in vitro* to be a strong inhibitor of *E. coli* (Friedman et al., 2002). Cinnamon oil has also been shown *in vitro* to have an antimicrobial activity against *E. coli* (Friedman et al., 2004) and garlic (*Allium sativum*) has been shown *in vitro* to have antimicrobial properties. In recent years, the growing interest in evaluating plant constituents and extracts with their properties and good agents constitute an interesting research field. In fact, thyme, oregano, and garlic should be of particular interest to producers and researchers.

### 1.6.3 ANTI-INFLAMMATORY ACTIVITIES

Inflammation usually occurs when viruses or fungi invade the body in particular tissues and/or circulate in the blood (Isailovic et al., 2015). Hundreds of research and review articles have been published regarding the anti-inflammatory activities of plants, involving both *in vitro* and *in vivo* study results. The Black cumin (*Nigella sativa*) seed oil fraction contains thymo-quinone, which exerts anti-inflammatory effects *in vitro* (Bordoni et al., 2019).

The anti-inflammatory activities of natural substances such as flavones extracted from the *Eucommia ulmoides* leaf have shown that the dietary supplementation of this substance can alleviate the inflammatory response in piglets (Daixiu et al., 2017).

The most established anti-inflammatory effects of mushrooms containing polysaccharides, proteoglycans, terpenoids, phenolic compounds, steroids, and lectins are highlighted by Elsayed in a review. One of the aims of this study has shown that mushrooms have significant anti-inflammatory properties, in fact the biologically active compounds and the important mechanisms of action of this natural source are well described and are exhibited through the downregulation of different types of inflammatory activities (Elsayed et al., 2014).

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# **CHAPTER 2**

## **AIM**

Take in account the importance of functional nutrition in enhancing animal performance and health in livestock, the aim of the present work is to deepen the knowledge about the effects of dietary integration with natural bioactive compounds in pigs and rabbits. Considering that the consumers and institutions need is moving towards a sustainable agrifood sector, the experimental trials regarding the dietary supplementation with biotechnological extract in piglets (second study) and dietary integration with different levels of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture in does and growing rabbit (third and four studies). Moreover, a review about dietary intervention with seaweed in pig specie was performed (first study), to focus the attention on a sustainable and innovative integration in livestock.





**CHAPTER 3**

**REVIEW**

**SEAWEEDES IN PIG NUTRITION**

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### 3.1 SIMPLE SUMMARY

In pig nutrition, alternative and safe supplements are needed to enhance the pigs' health and welfare. Natural feed components, such as herbs and plant extracts, are of great importance in animal nutrition, and marine macroalgae can be considered as supplements positively influence animal health parameters. Seaweeds possess several bioactive molecules that are studied for their prebiotic, anti-microbial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory effects. Seaweed benefits are related to their content of sulfated polysaccharides, phlorotannins, diterpenes, omega-3 polyunsaturated fatty acids, minerals and vitamins. This paper reviews the following biological functions of seaweeds and seaweed extracts in pig nutrition: prebiotics, anti-microbial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and immunomodulatory effects, promoting intestinal well-being and improving digestibility.

### 3.2 ABSTRACT

Seaweeds are macroalgae, with different sizes, colors and composition. They consist of brown algae, red algae and green algae, which all have a different chemical composition and bioactive molecule content. The polysaccharides, laminarin and fucoidan are commonly present in brown seaweeds, ulvans are found in green seaweeds and, red algae contain a large amount of carrageenans. These bioactive compounds may have several positive effects on health in livestock. In order to reduce the antimicrobials used in livestock, research has recently focused on finding natural and sustainable molecules that boost animal performance and health. The present study thus summarizes research on the dietary integration of seaweeds in swine. In particular the influence on growth performance, nutrients digestibility, prebiotic, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory activities were considered. The review highlights that brown seaweeds seem to be a promising dietary intervention in pigs in order to boost the immune system, antioxidant status and gut health. Data on the use of green seaweeds as a dietary supplementation seems to be lacking at present and merit further investigation.

### 3.3 INTRODUCTION

Marine-derived bioactive compounds are valuable as food and feed ingredients due to their biological activities (Rajauria et al., 2015). The term "algae" includes photosynthetic organisms that are usually divided in microscopic unicellular organisms, identified as microalgae and multicellular large-size organisms defined as macroalgae or seaweed. Microalgae usually grow in seawater and freshwater environments and can be prokaryotic, similar to cyanobacteria (*Chloroxybacteria*), or eukaryotic, similar to green algae (*Chlorophyta*). Diatoms (*Bacillariophyceae*), green algae (*Chlorophyceae*), and golden algae (*Chrysophyceae*) are the most abundant but blue-green algae (*Cyanophyceae*) are also defined as microalgae (Guedes et al., 2011). The bioactive molecules of microalgae are used as food and feed supplements (Garcia et al., 2017). Seaweeds are marine organisms and comprise thousands of species, which are classified on the basis of their pigmentation: brown seaweeds (*Phaeophyceae*), red seaweeds (*Rhodophyceae*) and green seaweeds (*Chlorophyceae*). There are around 1800 species of brown seaweeds include, only 1% of which are recognized from freshwater and the size range varies from 20 m to 30 cm long. The brown color of these algae is related to the main content of carotenoid fucoxanthin, which masks  $\beta$ -carotene,

violaxanthin, diatoxanthin, and chlorophyll. The main reserves are laminarin, fucoidans, and alginates, and the cell walls are composed of cellulose and alginic acid (Peng et al., 2011). Like brown seaweeds, red algae (about 6100 species) are marine, but are able to photosynthesize in deeper water. The size ranges from thin films to filamentous and membranous forms of 1 m. The color results from the presence of the pigments, phycoerythrin and phycocyanin which mask  $\alpha$ ,  $\beta$  carotene, lutein, zeaxanthin and chlorophyll (O'Sullivan et al., 2010; Koizumi et al., 2018). The main reserves are typically floridean starch and floridoside, and the cells wall are made up of long-chain polysaccharide agars, carrageenans and cellulose (Usov, 2011). There are around 2200 species of green seaweeds. They are a similar size to red seaweeds, only 10% are marine and their color is related to the presence of chlorophyll. The reserves are composed of starch, and the cells wall are made up of polysaccharide ulvan (Kidgell et al., 2019). In 2015, world production of algae amounted to 30.4 million tons, of which about 96% from aquaculture and only 1 million tons from harvesting of wild stock (Fao, 2018). Due to their nutritional value and the content of bioactive molecules, seaweeds are often used as food, herbal medicines, dietary supplements, as a source of agar, alginate and carrageenan for several industrial applications, and as a fertilizer (Lee et al., 2011; Yaich et al., 2011).

### 3.4 CHEMICAL COMPOSITION

Several studies have been carried out in order to identify the nutritional composition and secondary metabolites of various seaweed species. In fact, it has been reported that seaweed contains several metabolites, such as the sulfated form of polysaccharides, omega 3 fatty acids, phlorotannin, diterpenes, vitamins and minerals, thus demonstrating health effects such as antibacterial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory functions (Ganesan et al., 2019).

The chemical composition of seaweeds was found to vary in relation to their species and genera, harvesting period, and habitat condition (water temperature, light, salinity, nutrients) (Marsham et al., 2007). The chemical composition and mineral content of brown, red and green seaweeds are reported in table 1. As shown, there is a different nutritional composition range for brown, red and green seaweed, although in the same genus, the values are comparable (Wong and Cheung, 2001).

Of the brown seaweeds, common species such as *Ascophyllum*, *Laminaria*, *Saccharina*, *Macrocystis*, *Fucus*, and *Sargassum* were considered (Murty and Banerjee, 2012).

Brown seaweed shows a highly variable composition but presented a low protein (7.6-12.6 % DM) and fat content (0.8-6 % DM). The *Fucus* species presents the highest protein content (12.9 % DM), followed by *Sargassum* (10 % DM), *Laminaria* (9.4 % DM) and the *Ascophyllum nodosum* (7.4 % DM), as observed by Fleurence et al., (1999). The fat content of brown seaweeds is generally lower with an average value of 3.2 % DM, and high values are observed in *Fucus* spp and *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Makkar et al., 2016; Lorenzo et al., 2017).

Red seaweeds contain a higher protein content (16.9 % DM) and fat content (8.9 % DM) than brown seaweeds (Cabrita et al., 2016).

The green seaweed *Ulva lactuca* has a protein content (16.2 % DM) compared to red seaweeds and a comparable fat content (1.3 % DM) with brown seaweeds (Burtin, 2003). The fat content of the studied seaweeds varies between 0.8 to 8.9 % which is a similar range reported for other seaweeds species (Marsham et al., 2007). All seaweeds are characterized by a higher ash content (19.3-27.8 % DM) than those observed in edible plants, in fact they are a considerable source of minerals for livestock nutrition (Cabrita al. 2016; Lorenzo et al., 2017). Seaweeds are rich in potassium, sodium and calcium. Although there is a high variability, in general, the sodium and potassium contents in

*Ulva* spp. are lower than those reported for red and brown seaweeds. A higher content of potassium has been observed in *Palmaria palmata*, *Macrocystis pyrifera* and *Laminaria* spp. (Cabrita et al., 2016). All seaweeds present higher levels of calcium than phosphorous, and thus may be a possible natural source of calcium in livestock. Seaweeds are also a source of essential trace elements such as iron, manganese, copper, zinc, cobalt, selenium and iodine. In particular, iron is abundant in all the species considered, and the iodine content is higher in brown than in red and green seaweeds (*Laminaria* spp., with a range 833-5100 mg/kg DM), and a higher zinc content has been observed in red and brown than in green seaweed. The bioavailability of minerals is related to the fiber content of seaweeds. In addition, the interactions with several polysaccharides, such as alginates and agar or carrageenan, lead to the formation insoluble complexes with minerals, decreasing their bioavailability (Circuncisão et al., 2018). The mineral content in the insoluble indigestible fraction residues was higher in brown than in red seaweeds with a range of 150-260 g/kg (Ruperez and Toledano, 2003). Some studies in vitro and in rats have been performed on the bioavailability of minerals (Circuncisão et al., 2018). In an in vitro study of 13 seaweed species, only *Palmaria palmata* and *Ulva lactuca* showed higher Fe bioavailability than spinach, although six species had a higher Fe content. The apparent absorption values of Na and K were significantly higher in rats supplemented with *Laminaria* spp., while Mg absorption was not affected. It has also been reported that *Laminaria* spp. is rich in alginates, which probably hampers the bioavailability of Ca. The absorption of inorganic I, which is the predominant form in brown seaweeds, was observed to be moderate (20-70%). Therefore, the low bioavailability may be related to the iodine interaction with other compounds in the seaweed matrix. The vitamin content showed that seaweeds are a source of water-soluble vitamins (B1, B2, B3 and C) and fat-soluble vitamins (E and provitamins carotenoids, with vitamin A activity). Seasonal effects have a great influence on vitamin content. Most of the red seaweeds, such as *Palmaria Palmata* contained a considerable amount of provitamin A and vitamins B1 and B2. The brown seaweeds *Laminaria* spp., *Ascophillum nodosum* and *Fucus* spp. showed a high content of vitamins E and C (Dominguez, 2013).

The amino acid composition of different seaweeds species is reported in table 2. Red seaweeds have a higher quality of protein than brown and green seaweeds (Angell et al., 2016), however there is considerable difference in the amino acidic content among seaweeds, in relation to the different seasons. It has been reported that seaweeds have a low content of methionine and histidine (Galland-Irmouli et al., 1999; Biancarosa et al., 2017). Leucine was the most abundant amino acid, ranging from 2.43 g/kg DM to 6.63 g/Kg DM for *Palmaria palmata* and *Ascophillum nodosum* respectively, followed by lysine (1.42-7.60 g/Kg DM), threonine (1.26-5.17 g/Kg DM) and valine (2.25-5.87 g/Kg DM). Glutamic and aspartic acids are the most common amino acids found in the non-essential fraction which are responsible of flavor and taste of seaweeds (Saini et al. 2013).

The in vitro protein digestibility ( IVPD) was mid-range (82-87%) for *Saccharina latissima* and *Palmaria palmata*, and lower (79%) for *Ascophillum nodosum* and *Fucus* spp. The Red seaweed IVPD of red seaweeds had an average value of 85%, while the brown seaweeds had a lower IVPD, with an average value of 79,7%. A significant inverse correlation the IVPD and total phenolic content was also observed (Tibbetts et al., 2016).

Seaweeds also possess several biological activities due to the presence of several bioactive compounds, such as phenolic compounds, carotenoids, tocopherols, polysaccharides, and peptides. Seaweeds are rich in carboxylated and sulfated polysaccharides, such as alginates, ulvans and fucoidans: their composition and content depend on the algae species and of environmental factors

such as the season and temperature. The total polysaccharide content (% DM) is 29-67% in green algae (*Chlorophyta*), 10-59% in red algae (*Rhodophita*) and 10-75% in brown algae (*Phaeocophyta*) (Sardari and Norberg Karlsson, 2018). A major component of brown seaweed cell walls is a salt form of alginic acid, alginate with the content ranging from 140-400 g/Kg DM (Øverland et al., 2019). Brown seaweed walls are also rich in fucoidans, which are saccharide units with different degrees of sulphation. Several species contained fucoidan with distinct structural characteristics, and thus the different types of functional components have various biological applications. The fucoidan content varies in relation to seaweed species and season, although the content ranges from 20 to 200 g/Kg DM, with the highest value in *Fucus vesiculosus* (Makkar et al., 2016; Øverland et al., 2019; Tanna and Mishra, 2019). Laminarin, composed of (1,3)-b-D-glucopyranose residues, is the main reserve carbohydrate of brown seaweeds with a content ranging from 0 to 300 g/Kg DM. In *Laminaria* spp. and *Saccharina latissima* a high content of laminarin has been reported, while, *Ascophyllum nodosum* and, *Fucus* spp. presented a low laminarin content (Makkar et al., 2016; Øverland et al., 2019; Tanna and Mishra, 2019). Laminarin presents prebiotic, immunomodulator and antioxidant activities (Balboa et al., 2013). The cell walls of red seaweeds are mainly composed of sulfated galactan such as carrageenans (content range: 220-770 g/Kg DM) and agars (content range: 210-420 g/Kg DM). Some red seaweed species contain xylan (in *Palmaria palmita* approximately 350 g/Kg DM) and porphyran (average content 480 g/Kg DM). The floridean starch is the main carbohydrate reserve with a content ranging from 250 to 420 g/Kg DM (Makkar et al., 2016; Øverland et al., 2019; Tanna and Mishra, 2019). Ulvan is one of the main sulfated polysaccharides from green seaweed cell walls with anticancer, antioxidant, antihyperlipidemic, and anticoagulant activities (Pangestuti et al., 2017) and a content ranging from 400 to 500 g/Kg DM (Øverland et al., 2019). For details and information on the monosaccharide composition of the different polysaccharides mentioned, some excellent reviews are available (Xu et al., 2017; Cherry et al., 2019). Considering their valuable source of bioactive molecules, seaweeds have been studied as feed supplements in livestock, particularly in pigs in order to boost growth performance and health (Maghin et al., 2014). Seaweeds exhibit prebiotics, anti-microbial, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory and immunostimulant properties and obviously effective absorption of dietary nutrients.

**Table 1.** Chemical composition of brown, red and green seaweeds (on DM basis)<sup>1</sup>.

Seaweeds	BROWN					RED	GREEN	
	<i>Laminaria spp.</i> *	<i>Ascophillum nodosus</i>	<i>Sargassum spp.</i> ‡	<i>Fucus spp.</i> #	<i>Saccharina latissima</i>	<i>Macrocystis pyrifera</i>	<i>Palmaria palmata</i>	<i>Ulva lactuca</i>
Crude protein, %	9.4 (5.3-16.1)	7.4 (4.9-8.7)	10 (8.5-13.6)	12.6 (12.2-12.9)	7.6 (7.1-8.1)	8.3 (8-10)	21.9 (15.1-31.4)	16.2 (7.06-23.1)
Ether extract, %	1.1 (0.8-2.4)	5.3 (3.9-8.6)	0.8 (0.5-1.2)	6.1 (3.7-8.4)	5.5	1.8 (0.5-3.9)	8.9 (4.9-12.9)	1.3 (0.25-1.64)
Crude Fiber %	11.6 (6.6-16.6)	5.5 (5.4-5.5)	18.2 (6.4-38)	10.7 (5.4-16)	23 (6.6-40)	33.4 (5.5-50)	1.5 (1.49-1.50)	9.6 (6.9-12.3)
Ash, %	27.8 (19.6-31.5)	24.8 (21.1-30.9)	27.6 (19.4-35.9)	21.6 (20.7-22.5)	22.5 (13.3-31.7)	25.8 (20-35)	19.3 (9-24.5)	25.7 (21.3-26.2)
Gross energy, MJ/kg	12.7 (12.5-13)	14.1	9.1	15.7 (15.5-16)	11.1	9	16.9	15.2 (14.7-15.7)
Ca, g/kg	10 (8-12.55)	16.4 (9.8-20)	14.7 (3.8-27.2)	9.9 (8.9-12.8)	9.8 (9.6-10)	14.1 (11.6-16.6)	2.6 (1-4.2)	12.6 (6.1-29.2)
P, g/kg	2.2 (1.2-3)	1	1.7 (1-2.2)	1.9 (1.4-2.3)	2.7 (2.2-3.1)	2.9 (2.6-3.2)	4.0 (3-5)	2.1 (1.3-2.7)
K, g/kg	54 (48.6-59.5)	28.5 (20-37.7)	46.2	22.9 (0.4-36.1)	52.5	67.5 (44.8-112.3)	37.1 (27-47.2)	14.4 (1.5-22.1)
Na, g/kg	23.9 (22.5-25.3)	37.5 (25-45.7)	-	24.2 (0.2-45.8)	33	36.9 (17.1-56.7)	7.2 (3.3-11)	13.9 (2.9-20.2)
Mg, g/kg	6.3 (5.5-7.2)	6.8 (1-8.6)	6.4 (4-7.7)	7.5 (7-8.33)	6.3 (5.1-7.4)	39 (16.2-61.8)	2.3	13 (1.9-20.5)
Mn, mg/kg	7.1 (3.1-11)	17.8 (12-25)	88.3 (26.7-214)	104.7 (8.2-177.8)	8.2 (3.9-12.4)	11	71.6 (11-168)	38.7 (10.1-122)
Zn, mg/kg	22.6 (11-31.5)	116.8 (30.3-181)	79.3 (12-214)	118.1 (45.3-275.3)	35.4 (29.2-41.55)	12	65.1 (23.6-143)	29 (16.1-45)
Cu, mg/kg	2.4 (1.2-5.9)	17.8 (4.2-28)	6.0 (2.3-7)	9.3 (2-23.5)	4.5 (1.1-7.9)	2	11.1 (3.8-24)	8.5 (3.3-12)
Fe, mg/kg	107.3 (58-179)	157.8 (122-241)	2678 (307-7291)	351.9 (189-559)	529 (30-1028)	117	202.5 (139-315)	462.2 (105-1481)
I, mg/kg	2991.7 (833-5100)	777	399.5 (216-583)	376 (232-677)	1448.5 (957-1940)	-	278	56.7
Se mg/kg	0.6 (0.29-0.93)	0.5	1.2 (1.1-1.4)	0.8 (0.2-1.2)	1.1 (0.9-1.3)	-	0.1	1.2 (0.4-1.9)
Co mg/kg	0.1 (0.08-0.11)	0.6	0.4 (0.36-0.47)	1.1 (0.8-1.4)	0.4	-	0.03	0.5 (0.3-0.6)
Vitamin E mg/Kg	672 (3-2000)	230 (80-500)	10	164 (100-356)	1.6	928	69.6 (22-152)	12.95 (2.8-3.5)
Vitamin A mg/Kg **	154.6 (22-229)	57 (35-80)	51	17.8 (7-28.6)	0.42	12.39	142.9 (15.2-270)	3.5 (0.1-7)
Vitamin C mg/Kg **	632 (355-910)	860 (81-1650)	560	383 (141-770)	11.5 (3.5-18.8)	-	78.3 (0.7-156)	141.5 (42-241)
Vitamin B <sub>1</sub> mg/Kg **	7.45 (2.4-12.5)	14(1-27)	4	0.2	0.72 (0.5-0.94)	-	18 (0.7-40)	40
Vitamin B <sub>2</sub> mg/Kg **	4.9 (1.4-8.5)	7.5 (5-10)	65	0.35	1.7 (1.4-2.1)	-	16 (4.3-19)	5.1 (5-5.3)
Vitamin B <sub>3</sub> mg/Kg **	314 (158-612)	15	20	-	-	-	45 (10.1-83)	-
References	Marsham et al., 2007 Makkar et al., 2016 Makkar et al., 2016 Cabrita et al., 2016 Circuncisão et al., 2018 Chandini et al., 2008 Kolb et al., 2004	Makkar et al., 2016 Lorenzo et al., 2017 Circuncisão et al., 2018 Angell et al., 2016 Tibbets et al., 2018 Chandini et al., 2008 Marín et al., 2009 Chandini et al., 2008 Dierick et al., 2009 Marín et al., 2009	Makkar et al., 2016 Cabrita et al., 2016 Angell et al., 2016 Chandini et al., 2008 Marín et al., 2009	Lorenzo et al., 2017 Cabrita et al., 2016 Circuncisão et al., 2018 Dominguez et al., 2013 Tibbets et al., 2016 Tibbets et al., 2016 Chandini et al., 2008 Pomin et al., 2011	Cabrita et al., 2016 Circuncisão et al., 2018 Dominguez et al., 2013 Tibbets et al., 2016 Schiener et al., 2015	Makkar et al., 2016 Sanz-Pintos et al., 2017 Duis et al., 1995	Makkar et al., 2016 Dominguez et al., 2013 Tibbets et al., 2018 Chandini et al., 2008 Hagen Rødde et al., 2004	Makkar et al., 2016 Cabrita et al., 2016 Dominguez et al., 2013 Chandini et al., 2008 Park et al., 1997 Ortiz et al., 2006 Wong et al., 2000

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean values and ranges. \* values from *Laminaria digitata* and *hyperarborea*. ‡ values from *Sargassum Patens*, *hemiphyllum*, *henslowianum*. # values from *Fucus vesiculosus*, *giuryi*, *serratus*, *spiralis*. \*\* as provitamin carotenoids.

**Table 2.** Aminoacid profile of brown, red and green seaweeds (mg/g DM)<sup>1</sup>.

Seaweeds	BROWN					RED	GREEN	
	<i>Laminaria digitata</i>	<i>Ascophyllum nodosus</i>	<i>Sargassum spp. *</i>	<i>Fucus spp. #</i>	<i>Saccharina latissima</i>	<i>Macrocystis pyrifera</i>	<i>Palmaria palmata</i>	<i>Ulva lactuca</i>
Lysine	4.41 (4.1-4.8)	4.77 (4.3-5.4)	3.57 (2.8-4.3)	7.60 (6.7-8.2)	4.05 (4.0-4.1)	6.63 (5.2-7.5)	1.42 (1.2-1.65)	2.09 (0.5-1.9)
Histidine	1.82 (1.3-2.4)	1.63 (1.4-1.9)	0.82 (0.6-1)	1.33 (0.4-2)	2.2 (1.2-3.2)	2.33 (2.0-2.9)	0.4 (0.3-0.5)	0.83 (0.1-2.0)
Isoleucine	2.91 (2.6-3.2)	3.76 (3.1-4.3)	2.70 (1.9-3.5)	3.70 (0.9-6)	3.1 (3.0-3.1)	4.47 (3.2-5.6)	1.31 (0.7-1.9)	1.50 (0.4-5.2)
Leucine	4.93 (4.4-5.4)	6.63 (5.3-7.5)	5.11 (4.4-5.8)	6.42 (1.6-10.5)	5.06 (4.2-5.9)	7.53 (5.5-9.2)	2.42 (1.3-3.6)	2.90 (0.7-6.6)
Arginine	3.2 (2.9-3.4)	5.06 (4.2-6.0)	1.6 (1.3-1.9)	3.24 (1.1-4.6)	4.0 (3.9-4.1)	4.87 (3.5-6.1)	1.9 (1.2-2.6)	2.12 (0.5-1.3)
Methionine	1.50 (1.4-1.5)	1.91 (1.3-2.5)	0.69 (0.68-0.7)	0.81 (0.2-1.8)	2 (1.9-2.1)	2.18 (1.6-2.6)	0.91 (0.5-2.3)	1.21 (0.2-1.8)
Phenylalanine	3.24 (2.8-3.6)	4.23 (3.2-5.0)	2.98 (2.2-3.7)	3.56 (0.9-5.2)	3.82	5.42 (4.1-6.2)	1.7 (0.8-2.6)	2.40 (0.2-3.6)
Threonine	3.68 (3.4-3.9)	4.6 (3.6-5.4)	3.09 (1.2-5.1)	3.09 (1.2-5.1)	4.3 (4.2-4.4)	5.17 (3.6-6.7)	1.26 (0.7-2.8)	2.17 (0.5-3.8)
Tryptophan	1.74 (1.72-1.76)	-	-	1.22 (0.5-1.9)	-	-	0.4 (0.2-0.6)	0.51 (0.4-0.6)
Valine	5.38 (4.7-6.0)	4.76 (4.1-5.5)	3.84 (2.9-4.8)	4.65 (1.1-8.0)	4.10 (3.7-4.5)	5.87 (4.3-7.1)	2.25 (1.1-3.4)	2.03 (0.9-4.4)
Tyrosine	1.74 (1.7-1.8)	2.05 (0.9-3.2)	2.35 (1.8-2.9)	2.26 (1.9-2.6)	-	2.80 (2.1-3.5)	1.15 (0.6-1.7)	1.03 (0.5-1.4)
Alanine	6.68 (4.5-8.8)	5.95 (5.4-6.5)	4.23 (3.3-5.1)	1.58 (1.5-1.6)	6.8 (5.0-8.5)	4.81 (4.5-5.0)	2.23 (1.1-3.3)	3.22 (0.7-5.9)
Glutamine	7.3 (4.6-9.9)	14.5 (1.4-11.6)	19.5 (18.9-20.1)	20.1 (19.6-20.3)	10.5 (10.6-10.4)	14.1 (9.7-18.3)	16.6 (11.0-18.7)	13.2 (11.5-14.8)
Asparagine	6 (3.9-8.1)	8.4 (8.3-8.5)	12 (11.5-12.5)	12.8 (10.9-16.7)	9.4 (8.8-9.8)	10.8 (8.3-13.3)	11.3 (9.9-14.3)	10.4 (7.9-12.2)
References	Kolb et al., 2004 Gaillard et al., 2018	Makkar et al., 2016 Lorenzo et al., 2016	Wong et al., 2001	Lorenzo et al., 2017 Catarino et al., 2018	Gaillard et al., 2018 Saravana et al., 2016	Cruz- Suárez et al., 2000 Duis et al., 1995 Cruz- Suárez et al., 2009	Galland-Irmouli et al., 1999 Tibbetts et al., 2016	Makkar et al., 2016 Lorenzo et al., 2017 Ortiz et al., 2006

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean values. \* value from *Sargassum Patens* and *hemifhyllum*. # values from *Fucus vesiculosus* and *serratus*.

### 3.5 INFLUENCE ON GROWTH PERFORMANCE

Brown seaweeds have a generally positive effect on growth, as reported in Table 3. Some interactions between seaweeds bioactive molecules and dietary components should be probable, but considering the heterogeneity of seaweeds species, the effects on growth performances have to be firstly analyzed in relation to seaweed supplement, and bioactive molecules content. With dietary integration in sows at the end of gestation and during lactation, an increase in average daily gain (ADG) of suckling piglets has been observed (from +11.8 to +32.3% compared to the control group). Most of the studies we reviewed involve the dietary supplementation of brown seaweeds in weaned piglets. In weaned piglets, improvements of ADG are observed. The ADG of piglets fed brown seaweeds is higher than the ADG of piglets fed a control diet with an increase between +4.6 and +40.8%. Draper et al. (2016) and Ruiz et al. (2018) appear to be the only two authors to report the effects of long-term dietary supplementation with brown seaweed from weaning to slaughter on ADG. In this case, the influence on ADG was limited but statistically significant, and ranged from +1.2 to +3.3%. Bouwhuis et al. (2017a, b) evaluated the effects of brown seaweed supplementation on pig's growth performance after being challenged with *Salmonella Typhimurium*. When the challenge occurred in post-weaning, no significant effect was observed; in pigs with a live weight of 30 kg the seaweed supplement led to a significant increase in growth (+ 16%). It is possible that the bioactive compounds of seaweeds are not able to positively modulate the immune system of the



post-weaning piglet which is still immature. Positive effects on growth are related to the improvement of digestibility and overall health conditions of piglets due to the prebiotic effects of seaweed polysaccharides, as described in the following sections. The effects of seaweed dietary supplementation on the improvement in antioxidant status and the decrease in inflammatory condition may contribute to reduce energy and amino acidic expenditure.

**Table 3.** Effect of seaweed supplement on average daily gain (ADG) in pigs.

Algae Supplement	Dose	Animal	Control	Supplemented	Diff. %	Ref.
<i>A. nodosum</i>	Dried seaweed 2.5-5-10 g/kg	Weaning to 28 d	0.220	0.209	-5.0	Michiels et al., 2012
				0.198	-10.0	
				0.213	-3.18	
<i>A. nodosum</i>	Dried seaweed 10-20 g/Kg	Weaning to 11 d	0.027	0.054	+100	Dierick et al., 2009
				0.040	+48.14	
<i>Brown seaweed</i>	Alginate oligosaccharides (50-100-200 mg/kg)	Weaning to 14 d	0.216	0.248 (50)	+14.81	Wan et al., 2016
				0.304* (100)	+40.78	
				0.301* (200)	+39.35	
<i>Brown seaweed</i>	Alginates oligosaccharides (100 mg/ kg)	Weaning to 21 d	0.441	0.516	+17.01	Wan et al., 2017
<i>Ecklonia cava</i>	FUC = 0.05 – 0.10 – 0.156 g/kg	Weaning to 28 d	0.344	0.347	+0.87	Choi et al., 2017
				0.368*	+6.98	
				0.360*	+4.65	
<i>Laminaria digitata</i>	LAM + FUC (0.314 -0.250 g/kg) – lactose 15 or 25%)	Weaning to 25 d	0.275	0.293 (15% lact.)	+6.55	O’Doherty et al., 2010
			0.287	0.350** (25% lact.)	+21.95	
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM (1g/day) – sows, 109d until weaning at 20d	20 d lactation	0.340	0.450 **	+32.35	Bouwhuis et al., 2017 a
		Weaning to 26 d				
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM (0.3 g/kg) – piglets	Challenge Salmonella Typhimurium at 10 d post weaning	0.410	0.370	-16.13	
		30.9 kg pigs for 28 d Challenge Salmonella Typhimurium at 10 d	0.620	0.720***	+16.13	Bouwhuis et al., 2017 b
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM + FUC (0.18 + 0.34 g/kg)	Weaning to 25d	0.281	0.322**	+14.59	Dillon et al., 2010
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM + FUC (1 g + 0.8 day) – sows	Weaning to 126 d	0.760	0.850 ** (lactation effect)	+11.84	Draper et al., 2016
			0.800	0.810 (weaning effect)	+1.23	
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	Extract (1-2-4 g/Kg) <sup>x</sup> LAM = 0.11-0.22-0.44 FUC = 0.09-0.18-0.36	Weaning to 21 d	0.249	0.274 *** (1g/Kg)	+10.04	Gahan et al., 2009
				0.313 *** (2 g/Kg)	+25.70	
0.303 *** (4 g/Kg)	+21.69					
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM (0.30 g/Kg)	Weaning to 32 d	0.280	0.353 *	+26.07	Heim et al., 2014
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM+FUC (0.30 + 0.24 g/Kg)	Weaning to 40 d	0.356	0.374	+5.06	McAlpine et al., 2012
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM (0.3 g/kg)	Weaning to 21 d	0.288	0.319 * LAM 0.3	+10.7	McDonnell et al., 2010
				0.302 FUC 0.36	+4.86	
				0.328 LAM + FUC	+13.89	
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM + FUC (0.30 + 0.24 g/Kg) <sup>k</sup>	Weaning to 21 d	0.235	0.239	+1.70	O’Shea et al., 2014
		21-40 d	0.489	0.523	+6.25	
<i>Laminaria spp.</i>	LAM (0.15-0.30 g/kg) FUC (0.24 g/Kg) LAM + FUC (0.15 + 0.24 and 0.30 + 0.24 g/kg)	Weaning to 35 d	0.340	0.351 FUC 0.24	+3.24	Walsh et al., 2013a
				0.334 LAM 0.15	-1.76	
				0.347 FUC 0.24 LAM 0.15	+2.06	
				0.390 * LAM 300	+14.71	
				0.358 FUC 0.24 LAM 0.3	+5.29	
OceanFeedSwine	Seaweed extract (5 g/Kg)	21 to 56 d	0.401	0.380	-5.24	Ruiz et al., 2018
		56-160 d	0.798	0.824 *	+3.26	

Means marked with \*, \*\*, \*\*\* showed a significant effect of supplement for  $p < 0.05$ ,  $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.001$  respectively;

LAM, laminarin; FUC, fucoidan.

<sup>y</sup> 990 g/kg Laminarin.

<sup>z</sup> 720 g/kg Fucoidan.

<sup>x</sup> 112 g/kg Laminarin, 89 g/kg Fucoidan and 799 g/kg ash.

<sup>k</sup> 455 g/kg Laminarin and 360 g/kg Fucoidan.

### 3.6 INFLUENCE ON DIGESTIBILITY

Many authors have evaluated the effects of algae supplementation on the digestibility of the diet in pigs, as reported in Table 4. All digestibility trials were conducted in weaned piglets, except for the study by Gardiner et al. (2008) which investigated male pigs 45 kg live weight. The *Ascophyllum nodosum* does not appear to have significant influence on diet digestibility (Gardiner et al., 2008 and Dierick et al., 2009). On the other hand, *Laminaria digitata*, *Laminaria spp.*, *Ecklonia cava* and brown seaweed, titrated in alginates, showed positive effects on the digestibility of nitrogen (N), gross energy (GE), fiber (NDF) and ash in various experiments. Significant improvements from +5.1 and +8% in N digestibility are reported. Also for GE, dietary integration with seaweed improved the digestibility with an increase of between +3.3 and +10%. Some authors have also observed that introducing laminarin and fucoidans in the formula increases the digestibility of the fibrous fraction (NDF). The animals fed seaweed showed a higher digestibility of the NDF (+39 to +73%) compared to the control group. Finally, ash digestibility presented values that in the seaweed group were 25.9-82.4% higher than in the control. The improvement in nutrient digestibility is related to the influence of the seaweed constituents, in particular carbohydrates and antioxidants, on microbiota and on the villous architecture with an increase in absorptive capacity and nutrients transporters (Sweeney and O'Doherty, 2016). These effects are also related to the trophic effect on the intestinal mucosal cells of volatile fatty acids production (i.e., butyric acid).

**Table 4.** Influence of seaweed on digestibility in swine.

Algae Supplement	Dose g/kg	Animal	Effects on digestibility	Treatment vs. Control, %	Ref.
<i>A. nodosum</i>	Dried intact (2.5 g/kg)	Male Pigs, 45 kg LW	NS	-	Sweeney and O'Doherty, 2016
<i>A. nodosum</i>	Dried intact (10-20 g/kg)	Weaned piglets, (35 d age)	NS	-	Dierick et al., 2009
Brown seaweed	Alginates olisaccharides (100 mg/kg)	Weaned piglets, 6.2 kg LW	Improved digestibility of N, fat, ash GE	+6.7% +10.8% +25.9% +4.0%	Wan et al., 2017
<i>Ecklonia cava</i>	Seaweed (0.5-1-1.5 g/kg) <sup>s</sup>	Weaned piglets, 7.8 kg LW	Improved digestibility of GE	+3.3% (1g/kg)	Choi et al., 2017
<i>Laminaria digitata</i>	LAM + FUC (0.314 - 0.250 g/kg)	Weaned piglets, 7.2 kg LW	Improved digestibility of OM, N, NDF GE	+4.5% +7.3% +73.3% +5.9%	O'Doherty et al., 2010
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	Extract (1-2-4 g/kg) <sup>x</sup>	Weaned piglets, (24 d age)	NS		Gahan et al., 2009
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	Seaweed extract LAM (0.112 g/kg) <sup>y</sup> FUC (0.089 g/kg) <sup>z</sup>	Weaned piglets, (24 d age)	Improved digestibility of N GE	+6.7% +5.2%	Dillon et al., 2010
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	LAM+FUC (0.30 + 0.24g/kg)	Weaned piglets, (22 d age)	Improved digestibility of DM, N, NDF	+8.8% +8.9% +57.5%	McAlpine et al., 2012
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	LAM (0,15-0,30 g/kg) FUC (0,24 g/kg) LAM + FUC (0,15 + 0,24 and 0,30+0,24 g/kg)	Weaned piglets, (24 d age)	Improved digestibility of DM, LAM and LAM+FUC OM, LAM and LAM+FUC N, LAM NDF, LAM and LAM+FUC GE, LAM and LAM+FUC	+7.0% - +4.5% +5.9% - +3.5% +5.1% 54.5% - 39.7% +7.3% - +4.3%	Walsh et al., 2013a
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	LAM (0.30 g/kg) FUC (0.24 g/kg) LAM + FUC (0.30 + 0.24 g/kg)	Weaned piglets, (24 d age)	Improved digestibility of DM, LAM and LAM + FUC N, LAM Ash, LAM and LAM + FUC GE, LAM and LAM + FUC	+7.9% -+4.5% +6.6% 58.0% - 42.6% +8.5% - +4.3%	Heim et al., 2014
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	Extract (0.66 g/kg) <sup>k</sup>	Weaned piglets, (24 d age)	Improved digestibility of OM, N, ash NDF GE	+8.8% +8.9% +82.4% +57.5% +10.9%	O'Shea et al., 2014

<sup>x</sup> 112 g/kg Laminarin, 89 g/kg Fucoidan and 799 g/kg ash.

<sup>k</sup> 455 g/kg Laminarin and 360 g/kg Fucoidan

<sup>s</sup> 112 g/kg Fucoidan

<sup>z</sup> 720 g/kg Fucoidan

<sup>y</sup> 990 g/kg Laminarin

FUC, Fucoidan;

LAM, laminarin;

LW, live weight;

DM, dry matter;

GE, gross energy;

N, nitrogen;

NDF neutral detergent fibre;

OM, organic matter.

### 3.7 PREBIOTIC FUNCTION

Seaweeds are rich in carboxylated and sulfated polysaccharides, such as alginates, ulvans and fucoidans which all act as prebiotics with positive effects on gut health. According to FAO (2007) a prebiotic is a ‘non-viable food component that confers a health benefit on the host associated with the modulation of microbiota’. The health benefit is associated with the stimulated activity/growth of beneficial bacteria and the higher production of short chain fatty acids (SCFAs) with direct impact on gut health and also an immunomodulatory effect, as reported below. Several papers have analyzed the prebiotic effects of algae (O’Sullivan et al., 2010; Sardari and Norberg Karlsson, 2018; Sweeney and O’Doherty, 2016; Evans and Critchley, 2014; Chen et al., 2018). In swine, 24 studies have been published in the last 10 years on the effects of supplementation with brown seaweeds, or their extracts, on gut health: *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Dierick et al., 2009; Michiels et al., 2012; Gardiner et al., 2008), *Ecklonia cava* (Choi et al., 2017), *Laminaria digitata* (O’Doherty et al., 2010; Mukhopadhyaya et al., 2012, Murphy et al., 2013), *Laminaria hyperborea* (Lynch et al., 2010a,b), *Laminaria digitata* and *Laminaria hyperborea* association (Reilly et al., 2008), *Laminaria* spp. (Bouwhuis et al., 2017a, b; Dillon et al., 2010; Heim et al., 2014; McDonnell et al., 2010; Walsh et al., 2013a; Leonard et al., 2012; McDonnell et al., 2016). Brown seaweeds titrated in alginic acid polysaccharides have also been studied (Choi et al., 2017). Most of the studies were carried out in weaned piglets (14 trials), considering that weaning phase is a critical period with high incidence of enteric pathologies. Some studies were carried out on growing pigs ranging between 14 and 65 kg LW, and some others on gestating and lactating sows. In general the compounds present in the brown seaweeds (in 20 trials the supplement is titrated in laminarin and/or fucoidans) stimulated the growth of *Lactobacilli* (Wan et al., 2016; O’Doherty et al., 2010; Dillon et al., 2010; O’Shea et al., 2014; Gardiner et al., 2008; Murphy et al., 2013; Reilly et al., 2008) and reduced the enterobacteria population or *Escherichia coli* (Dierick et al., 2009; Bouwhuis et al., 2017a; Wan et al., 2016; , Choi et al., 2017; O’Doherty et al., 2010; McDonnell et al., 2010; Walsh et al., 2013a; Gardiner et al., 2008; Lynch et al., 2010b; Leonard et al., 2012; , Heim et al., 2015a). Brown seaweed supplements supported the growth of *Bifidobacteria* species in the ileum in piglets (Wan et al., 2016; Mukhopadhyaya et al., 2012; Murphy et al., 2013). Gut health is modulated by laminarin and/or fucoidans, with the microbial production of short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), in particular butyrate (Murphy et al., 2013; Reilly et al., 2008; Walsh et al., 2013b). Glucose are the main energy source for small intestinal epithelial cells, and SCFAs are the main energy source for caecum and colon cells, stimulating cell growth (Rossi et al., 2010). Several studies have reported that brown seaweed have a positive influence on gut morphology (Choi et al., 2017; Heim et al., 2015a; Heim et al. 2015b; Wan et al., 2018). Supplementation with *Ecklonia cava* (0.05 and 0.15% of dietary inclusion), linearly improved villi height in ileum (Choi et al., 2017). In weaning piglets, maternal dietary supplementation with laminarin and fucoidan (1 and 0.8 g/day) after 83 days of gestation and during lactation increased villi height in the jejunum and ileum (+43 and +88% respectively) (Heim et al., 2015a). According to Heim et al. (2015b) maternal dietary treatment with fucoidans (0.8 g/day) had no influence on the small intestine morphology, while laminarin increased the villus height in the ileum (+13%) at day 8 post-weaning. In vitro and in vivo experiments carried out by Dierick et al. (2009) revealed that native seaweeds *Ascophyllum nodosum* suppressed in vitro the gut flora counts and metabolic activity (production of organic acids), while in vivo, a significant better *lactobacilli/E.coli* ratio was found in the small intestine.

Michiels et al., 2012 on the other hand observed no significant effects on gut health with the use of the same seaweed in weaned piglets, most probably due to the already high digestible basal diet, including lactose. To probiotic activity algae associate bacteriostatic and antibacterial activities recently reviewed by Perez et al, 2016.

In particular potential application in aquaculture (Vatsos et al., 2015) and in the pharmaceutical and food industry (Eom et al., 2012) have been evaluated.

### 3.8 ANTIBACTERIAL FUNCTION

In addition to the probiotic action that positively modulates the intestinal microbiota, the seaweeds and their extracts show a specific anti-bacterial and / or bacteriostatic action (Kidgell et al., 2019; Pina-Pérez et al., 2017; Shannon and Abu-Ghannam, 2016). Phlorotannins, fatty acids, peptides, terpenes, polysaccharides and sulphated polysaccharides, and several other bioactive compounds have been reported as bacterial inhibitors (Table 5). A very interesting action of seaweed extracts is the effectiveness against methicillin resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* and vancomycin-resistant *Enterococcus faecium* (Lane et al., 2009).

**Table 5.** Antibacterial activity of seaweeds.

Strain	Seaweed	Functional Group	Seaweed	Ref.
<i>Campylobacter jejuni</i>	<i>Delisea pulchra</i>	Halogenated furanone	Red	Castillo et al., 2015
<i>Enterococcus faecium</i> vancomycin-resistant	<i>Callophycus serratus</i>	Diterpene-benzoate	Red	Lane et al., 2009
<i>Escherichia coli</i>	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> and <i>Laminaria hyperborea</i>	Laminarin	Brown	Kadam et al., 2015
	<i>Shaerococcus coronopifolius</i>	Sphaerane bromoditerpenes	Red	Rodrigues et al., 2015
	<i>Pterocladia capillacea</i>	Water-extracted polysaccharides	Red	Abou Zeid et al., 2014
	<i>Sargassum swartzii</i> <i>Delisea pulchra</i>	Sulphated polysaccharides Halogenated furanone	Red Red	Vijayabaskar et al., 2012 Ren et al., 2004
<i>Laminaria monocytogenes</i>	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> and <i>Laminaria hyperborea</i>	Laminarin	Brown	Kadam et al., 2015
<i>Pseudomonas aeruginosa</i>	<i>Soliera filiformis</i>	Lectin	Red	Holanda et al., 2005
	<i>Shaerococcus coronopifolius</i>	Sphaerane bromoditerpenes	Red	Rodrigues et al., 2015
	<i>Delisea pulchra</i>	Halogenated furarone	Red	Brameyer and Heermann, 2015; Hentzer and Givskov, 2003
<i>Propionibacterium</i>	<i>Eisenia bicyclis</i>	Phlorofucofuroeckol	Brown	Lee et al., 2014; Lee et al., 2015
<i>Salmonella typhimurium</i>	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> and <i>Laminaria hyperborea</i>	Laminarin	Brown	Kadam et al., 2015
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i>	<i>Eisenia bicyclis</i>	Phlorofucofuroeckol	Brown	Eom et al., 2014
	<i>Ascophyllum nodosum</i> and <i>Laminaria hyperborea</i>	Laminarin	Brown	Kadam et al., 2015
<i>Staphylococcus aureus</i> methicillin resistant	<i>Pterocladia capillacea</i>	Water-extracted polysaccharides	Red	Abou Zeid et al., 2014
	<i>Saccharina longicuris</i>	Extracted peptides (>10 kDa)	Brown	Beaulieu et al, 2015
	<i>Shaerococcus coronopifolius</i>	Sphaerane bromoditerpenes	Red	Rodrigues et al., 2015
	<i>Callophycus serratus</i>	Diterpenes-benzoate	Red	Lane et al., 2009

Antibacterial activity is expressed across multiple mechanisms: inhibition of oxidative phosphorylation and link with compounds in the bacterial cell wall and increased permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane causing cell lysis (Shannon et al., 2016). At the same time some seaweed compounds, in particular polysaccharides, contribute significantly to the health and well-being of the animals by enhancing the in vivo immune response. The variability of bioactive compounds in seaweeds influences the lab techniques used to obtain antimicrobials ranging from traditional extraction techniques, solid–liquid extraction or liquid–liquid extraction, to the most modern process of supercritical fluid extraction using CO<sub>2</sub> ultrasonically-assisted extraction (Pérez et al., 2016). The potential applications in aquaculture (Vatsos and Rebours, 2015) and in the pharmaceutical and food industry (Eom et al., 2012) have been evaluated, while studies on food producing animals, and in pigs in particular, are limited. Berri et al., 2016 evaluated the effect of marine-sulfated polysaccharide extract from the green macroalga *Ulva armoricana* against seven bacterial strains found in pigs (Table 6).

**Table 6.** Minimum inhibitory concentration (MIC) of marine-sulfated polysaccharides extract from *Ulva armoricana* (Berri et al., 2016).

Strain	MIC (mg/mL)
<i>Pasteurella multocida</i>	1.56
<i>Pasteurella multocida</i> subsp. <i>multocida</i>	3.125
<i>Streptococcus suis</i>	6.25
<i>Trueperella pyogenes</i>	50
<i>Bordetella bronchiseptica</i>	50
<i>Escherichia coli</i> K85	>50
<i>Escherichia coli</i> K88(F4)	>50

### 3.9 INFLUENCE ON ANTIOXIDANT FUNCTION

Seaweeds have antioxidant properties due to the presence of phenols, carotenoid fucoxanthin, tannins and phlorotannins, polysaccharides (fucoidans, laminarans in brown seaweeds, ulvans in green seaweeds and carrageenans, porphyrin and agar in red seaweeds) (Jacobsen et al., 2019). The highest concentrations of phenols and phlorotannins have been observed in brown seaweed, up to 12-14% DM in *Ascophyllum nodosum*, *Fucus* spp. and *Sargassum* spp. (Holdt and Kraan, 2011). In green and red seaweeds concentrations lower than 1% have been reported (Holdt and Kraan, 2011; Farvin and Jacobsen, 2013). The carotenoid fucoxanthin has only been detected in brown seaweeds with concentrations of up to 5,000 mg/kg (Ramus et al., 1977; Narayani et al., 2016). Tocopherols are present in all seaweed, with variables concentrations. In brown seaweed higher values have been reported for *Fucus* spp. and *Ascophyllum nodosum* (up to 600 mg/kg DM), (Jensen et al., 1969a, b) than in *Laminaria* spp. (Wen et al., 2006). Lower concentrations were observed in red seaweeds (Wen et al., 2006; Naseri et al., 2019), and green seaweeds showed up to 1070 mg/kg DM in *Ulva* spp.) (Ortiz et al., 2006). The effects of dietary seaweeds are reported on serum and plasma antioxidant status, duodenum, jejunum and ileum antioxidant markers and *Longissimus dorsi* muscle oxidative stability (Table 7).

At the blood level, dietary supplementation with *Laminaria* spp. extract (laminarin 0.18 g/kg and fucoidans 0.33 g/kg) or of brown seaweed (alginates 100 mg/kg) has a strong antioxidant effect in growing pigs (Rajauria et al., 2016) and weaned piglets (Wan et al., 2016, 2017). The total

antioxidant capacity (TAS), superoxide dismutase (SOD), glutathione (GSH) and catalase activities increased from +14 to +37% with respect to the control group.

At the same time, there was a reduction in lipid oxidation with lower values of malondialdehyde (MDA) ranging from 10% to 26% than in the controls. Other authors reported the non-significant effects on serum MDA, using dietary *Ascophyllum nodosum* (Michiels et al., 2012) and brown seaweeds (Wan et al., 2017). Wan et al. (2018) observed a significant reduction in the MDA concentration in duodenum, jejunum and ileum of between -35 and -40% and an increase in catalase activity. Finally, some studies have evaluated the oxidative stability of pork during storage time by evaluating thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS). The reduction in TBARS concentration for long refrigerated storage times of 14 d, ranged between -21% and -60%. The administration of an extract of *Laminaria digitata* in liquid form instead of spray-dried appears to affect the antioxidant potential of the extract. The liquid form better exploits the antioxidant potential of the extract, with reductions in TBARS production of -47% compared to -29% of spray-dried form (Moroney et al., 2012).

**Table 7.** Effects of seaweed on antioxidant capacity in pigs.

Algae Supplement	Dose g/Kg or g/day	Animal	Antioxidant effects	Treatment vs. Control, %	Ref.
<i>A. nodosum</i>	Dried seaweed 5-10 g/kg	Weaned piglets, 6.59 kg LW	Plasma TBARS <sup>a</sup> , FRAP <sup>b</sup> , $\alpha$ -tocopherol	NS	Michiels et al., 2012
Brown seaweed	Alginic acid olisaccharides (100 mg/kg)	Weaned piglets, 7.8 kg LW	Serum T-AOC <sup>c</sup> SOD <sup>f</sup> CAT <sup>g</sup> MDA <sup>h</sup>	+14% +20% +37% -26%	Wan et al., 2016
Brown seaweed	Alginates olisaccharides (100 mg/kg)	Weaned piglets, 6.2 kg LW	Serum T-AOC CAT GSH <sup>i</sup> MDA	+21% +28% +28% -10% NS	Wan et al., 2017
Brown seaweed	Alginates olisaccharides (100 mg/kg)	Weaned piglets, 6.2 kg LW	Duodenum		
			T-AOC	+45%	
			MDA	-40%	
			Jejunum		
			T-AOC	+39%	
			CAT	+22%	
			MDA	-36%	
			Ileum		
T-AOC	+58%				
CAT	+72%				
MDA	-35%				
<i>Laminaria digitata</i>	Wet (W) or spray dried (SD) seaweed LAM + FUC (0.5+0.4 g/kg)	Pigs, 14.5 kg LW	Plasma TAS <sup>c</sup> LD muscle TBARS (refrig. storage 14 d)	NS -29% SD -47% W	Moroney et al., 2012
<i>Laminaria digitata</i>	LAM + FUC (0.45 or 0.9 g/kg) 3 or 6 weeks pre slaughter	Pigs, 82 kg LW	Plasma TAS LD muscle (refrig. storage 14d) TBARS 0.45 for 3 weeks 0.90 for 3 weeks	NS -57% -60%	Moroney et al., 2015
<i>Laminaria</i> spp.	LAM + FUC (0.18+0.33 g/kg)	Pigs, 71 kg LW	Serum DPPH <sup>d</sup> LD muscle TBARS (refrig. storage 14 d)	+400% -41%	Rajauria et al., 2016

LAM = Laminarin, FUC = Fucoidan

<sup>a</sup> TBARS, thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances; <sup>b</sup> FRAP, ferric reducing ability of plasma; <sup>c</sup> TAS, total antioxidant status; <sup>d</sup> DPPH, 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl assay; <sup>e</sup> T-AOC, total antioxidant capacity; <sup>f</sup> SOD, superoxide dismutase; <sup>g</sup> CAT, catalase; <sup>h</sup> MDA, malondialdehyde; <sup>i</sup> GSH, glutathione.

### 3.10 ANTI-INFLAMMATORY FUNCTION

Many studies have evaluated the anti-inflammatory activity of the brown seaweeds, in particular *Laminaria digitata*, *Laminaria hyperborea* and *Laminaria* spp., usually titrated in laminarin and fucoidans (Bouwhuis et al., 2017a,b; Wan et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2013a; Mukhopadhyaya et al., 2012; Leonard et al., 2012; Heim et al., 2015a,b; McDonnell et al., 2016; Wan et al., 2018). In addition, non-specific brown seaweeds titrated in alginic acid have been evaluated by Wan et al., (2016, 2018). Of these authors, 8/10 showed anti-inflammatory effects. Walsh et al. (2013a) reported a lower expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines in the colon of piglets after dietary supplementation with laminarin, but not with fucoidans. Dietary treatment of gestation and lactating sows with laminarin (1g/d) and fucoidans (0.8 g/d) reduced the ileal gene expression of IL-6, IL-8, IL-10, of piglets at weaning (Heim et al., 2015a). Similarly, in piglets born from sows fed diets supplemented with laminarin from 109 d gestation and during lactation, a reduction on the colon IL-6 concentration at weaning and of ileal IL-8 concentration eight days post weaning were observed (Heim et al., 2015b).

In a 28-days trial, Bouwhuis et al. (2017b) observed the effects of a diet supplemented with laminarin 0.18 g/kg and fucoidans 0.34 g/kg, in 30 kg LW female pigs. After 11-day adaptation period, pigs were orally challenged with *Salmonella Typhimurium*. Dietary treatment reduced colon cytokine expression (IL-6, IL-18, IL-22 and TNF- $\alpha$ ) 17 days post challenge, thus revealing an anti-inflammatory effect. In addition, in 18 kg LW pigs, laminarin from *Laminaria digitata* dietary supplementation (0.6 g/kg) significantly increased gut mucins gene expression (MUC2 and MUC4) from 20% to 33% with a protective effect on epithelial cells (Smith et al, 2011). McDonnell et al. (2016) observed an increase of 16% in mucin gene expression (MUC2) in the ileal in female pigs fed diets supplemented with *Laminaria* spp. (0.18 g of laminarin and 0.34 g of fucoidan per kg of feed). A study using an in vitro system of porcine intestinal epithelial cells showed that ulvans from *Ulva armoricana*, a green seaweed, upregulated the gene expression of of cytokines such as IL1 $\alpha$ , IL1 $\beta$ , IL6, IL8, TNF $\alpha$  (Berri et al., 2016, 2017).



### 3.11 IMMUNOMODULATORY FUNCTION

Many studies have evaluated the immunomodulatory activity of seaweeds (Wan et al., 2016; Choi et al., 2017; Leonard et al., 2012; Katayama et al., 2011; Bussy et al., 2019). In addition to an anti-inflammatory action, laminarin also has an immunomodulatory function. Leonard et al. (2012) reported that the dietary supplementation of sows from 109 days of gestation until weaning with *Laminaria* spp. extract (1 g laminarin and 0.8 g fucoidans / day) increased immunoglobulin G (IgG) and immunoglobulin A (IgA) in sow colostrum by 19% to 25%, respectively. Consequently, an increase of piglet serum IgG was observed (10%).

In another study, the effects were evaluated of sow supplementation with 30 g/day of an extract of *Ascophyllum nodosum* and *Fucus* from the 85th day of gestation until weaning on liver and lymphoid organs of piglets. The relative population of CD4+CD8+ T cells was higher in piglets from treated sows in the thymus, spleen, mesenteric node, liver and in peripheral blood, thus suggesting an important effect of maternal diet on immune status of 40-day-old piglets (Azizi et al., 2018). The immunomodulatory effect of green seaweed extract (*Ulva armoricana*) was evaluated in sows by Bussy et al. (2019). Different levels of inclusion were tested: 2, 8 and 16 g/day during two periods of three days: 34 days before farrowing, before the last vaccine booster against *Bordetella bronchiseptica* and one week before farrowing. The higher dietary level increased *anti-Bordetella* IgG in sow's blood and colostrum, while with the middle dietary integration, the authors observed an increase in milk IgA. Wan et al. (2016) and Choi et al. (2017) evaluated the immunomodulatory effects of seaweed fed to weaned piglets. Alginic acid oligosaccharides from brown seaweed increased IgG and IgA concentrations in piglet serum by 20 and 53 % respectively after 21 days of treatment (Wan et al., 2016). No immunomodulatory effect was observed in weaned piglets fed a diet supplemented with different *Ecklonia cava* concentrations (Choi et al., 2017). According to the authors, the result may be consequence of the low dosage and consequently the low content of fucoidan in the diets (0.056 – 0.112 – 0.168 g/kg respectively). In growing pigs (29 kg LW), 0.8% seaweed enhanced the immune function. Pigs were sensitized with the subcutaneous inoculum of sheep red blood cells at days 42 and 49. Seaweed increased the saliva IgA production five times more than the control after 56 days (Katayama et al., 2011). The concentration of antigen-specific IgG in peripheral blood was higher in seaweed group, but not significantly due to the high standard deviation.

### 3.12 POTENTIAL TOXICITY

The use of seaweed in swine nutrition may have the following limitations: mineral elements and potentially toxic minerals content. Generally, seaweeds are introduced in pigs diet as ingredients/raw materials in a low percentage, thus there is no risk of potential toxicity in this case. In terms of microelements, the first limiting factor is the iodine content which, as reported in Table 1, can reach particularly high concentrations in brown seaweeds. According to NRC (2012), tolerance levels in growing pigs and sows are 400 and 1500-2500 mg/kg DM for iodine from iodine salt, respectively. Of the potentially toxic minerals, the first limiting element is arsenic (As) which is found in high concentrations in brown seaweed (Table 8). However, a low content of the most toxic form of arsenic, inorganic arsenic, has been observed in seaweeds. The arsenic content of green seaweed is below the maximum level of 40 mg/kg feed (12% moisture content) sets by European feed legislation (Commission Directive 2002/32/EC and amendments).

**Table 8.** Potentially toxic trace element concentrations in seaweed (mg/kg DM).

Trace Element	Brown seaweed <sup>1</sup>	Green seaweed <sup>2</sup>	Red seaweed <sup>3</sup>	Feed <sup>4</sup>	Feed ingredient <sup>4</sup>	Ref.
Cadmium	0.05-8	0.03-4	0.04-3.8	0.5 (1*)	1	Cabrita et al., 2016 Circuncisão et al.,2018, Maehre et al.,2014; Duinker et al., 2016
Mercury	<0.005-0.16	0.005-0.07	<0.005-0.03	0.1 (0.2*)	0.1	Cabrita et al., 2016., Circuncisão et al.,2018, Maehre et al.,2014; Duinker et al., 2016
Lead	0.01-7	0.05-7	0.01-19	5	10	Cabrita et al., 2016 Circuncisão et al.,2018, Duinker et al., 2016
Arsenic	8-120	0.8-18	1-50	2 (10*)	40	Cabrita et al., 2016., Circuncisão et al.,2018, Maehre et al.,2014 Duinker et al., 2016
Inorganic arsenic	0.03-7.7	0.2-0.4	0.03-0.6	-	-	Circuncisão et al.,2018, Duinker et al., 2016

<sup>1</sup>Brown seaweed: *Alaria esculenta*, *Ascophyllum nodosum*, *Fucus spiralis*, *Fucus vesiculosus*, *Himantalia elongate*, *Laminaria digitata*, *Lamibaria hyperborea*, *Laminaria* spp., *Pelvetia canaliculata*, *Saccharina latissima* *Sargassum fusiformis*, *Undaria pinnatifida*

<sup>2</sup>Green seaweed: *Cladophora rupestris*, *Codium adhaerens*, *Codium vermilara*, *Enteromorpha intestinalis*, *Ulva lactuca*, *Ulva* spp.

<sup>3</sup>Red seaweed: *Chondrus crispus*, *Gigartina* spp., *Gracilaria vericulophylla*, *Gracilaria* spp., *Palmaria palmata*, *Polysiphonia lanosa*, *Porphyra* spp.

<sup>4</sup>UE directive 2002/32/EC and amendments

\* Fish feed

### **3.13 CONCLUSIONS**

The biological activities of brown seaweeds could be used to improve health and welfare of pigs. The prebiotic effects and the antimicrobial activities of laminarin and fucoidans may have beneficial effects in the prevention of gastrointestinal diseases and to enhance diet digestibility in the post-weaning piglets. Laminarin also has an anti-inflammatory activity, which reduce the pro-inflammatory cytokine response. The seaweed content of antioxidant molecules enhances the antioxidant status and meat oxidative stability. Dietary supplementation with brown seaweed may positively affect the immune system, enhancing immunoglobulin production and modulating cytokine production. In conclusion, brown seaweeds seem to be a promising dietary intervention in pigs in order to enhance immune system, antioxidant status and gut health. Data on the dietary supplementation with green seaweeds in pigs seem to be lacking at present and merit further investigations.

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## **CHAPTER 4**

**Trial 1. Dietary biotechnological *Ajuga Reptans* extract in post-weaning piglets: effects on growth performance, oxidative status and immune parameters**

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## 4.1 ABSTRACT

The effect of dietary supplementation with a biotechnological extract of *Ajuga Reptans* on growth performance, oxidative status and immune parameters was evaluated in post weaning piglets. At weaning, 120 piglets with an average live weight of  $8.1 \pm 1.3$  kg, were assigned to one of three experimental groups. The first group was fed a control diet (C). The second and third groups were fed the same diet supplemented with 5 mg (T1) and 10 mg (T2) of teupolioside/kg feed from a biotechnological plant extract. Growth performances were recorded and blood samples were collected at the beginning, at 14 days, and at the end of the trial (56 days). Serum biochemical parameters, oxidative status and immunoglobulin titres were determined. Average daily gain tended to be higher ( $P=0.057$ ) and live weight was higher in piglets ( $P<0.05$ ) fed with different amounts of plant extract (T1 and T2) than the controls. The production of reactive oxygen metabolites (ROMs) was higher ( $P<0.05$ ) in the control group than in the groups receiving teupolioside (T1 and T2). Concentration of serum immunoglobulin of class G improved ( $P<0.001$ ) in piglets fed the T1 and T2 diets than the controls. Overall, the results suggested that the biotechnological extract of *Ajuga Reptans* containing teupolioside has an antioxidant and immunomodulant effect.

## 4.2 INTRODUCTION

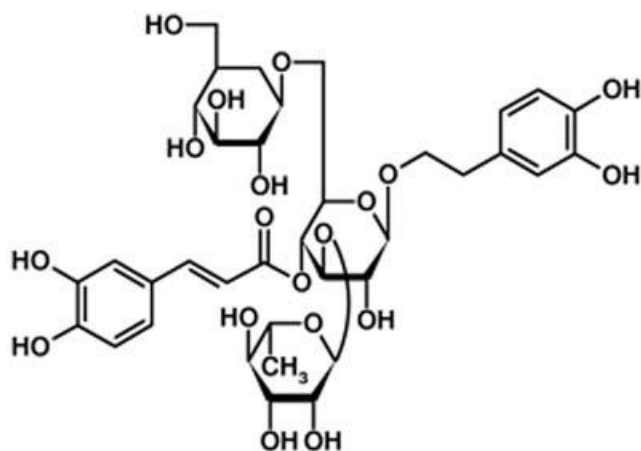
Antimicrobial resistance is an important concern for both animal and human health (WHO, 2017). Approximately, 75% of the antimicrobials sold, including those for human consumption, are intended for animals (67% in USA, FDA 2013). Antimicrobials are used in intensively farmed animals for disease prevention and growth promotion effect. The use of antibiotics has been linked with the development of resistant bacteria in chickens and swine gut microbiota (Brüssow, 2017; Looft et al., 2012). Van Boeckel et al. (2015) estimated that the global average annual consumption of antimicrobials per kilogram of animal produced was:  $45 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  for cattle,  $148 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  for chickens and  $172 \text{ mg}\cdot\text{kg}^{-1}$  for pigs. Italy, where the present study was carried out, has the third highest use of antibiotics in livestock in Europe (ESVAC, 2016).

According to the World Health Organization, the reduction in antimicrobial consumption cannot be delayed. It is thus essential to find new strategies to support animal health and growth performances. Dietary integration with bioactive molecules from natural sources is a sustainable way to reduce the use of antimicrobial and synthetic additives.

Some studies have reported that dietary supplementation with natural extracts in swine and poultry production lead to a better growth performances compared with antimicrobials (Kamel, 2001; Gheisar and Kim, 2018). Phenylpropanoid glycosides (PPGs) belong to the largest group of bioactive molecules in plants and derive mainly from phenylalanine synthesized by a metabolic pathway, which is efficient only in microorganisms and plants (Sangwan et al., 2001). Phenylpropanoid glycosides have shown several biological activities such as antitumoral, antiviral, anti-inflammatory, antibacterial, antioxidative, and free radical scavenging (Dembitsky, 2005). PPGs are thus a very interesting group of molecules for producing immunostimulant, hepatoprotective, antimicrobial, and anti-inflammatory phyto-preparations (Korkina et al., 2006).

In the group of PPGs, teupolioside (also known as Lamiuside A) is a promising biologically active compound from *Ajuga reptans* (Di Paola et al., 2009).

Teupolioside is structurally characterized by caffeic acid and 4,5 hydroxyphenylethanol bound to a  $\beta$ -[D]-glucopyranoside through ester and glycosidic links respectively. Two other carbohydrates, i.e. rhamnose and galactose, are linked in sequence to the glucose molecule (Figure 1).



**Figure 1.** Chemical structure of teupolioside (Di Paola et al., 2009).

Teupolioside is a secondary metabolite produced in order to protect the plant from UV radiation. From a technological point of view, it is difficult to extract this molecule using industrial methods due to its low content in the whole plant. In fact, the chemical synthesis of the molecule, due to the structure of teupolioside, is complex and very expensive. The Biotechnological Research Institute (I.R.B. S.p.A, Altavilla Vicentina, Italy) has developed a platform for the production of teupolioside using cell cultures in suspension of *Ajuga reptans*. The biotechnological processes also improve the safety profile and guarantee the highly standardized composition of the extract, thus reducing the environmental impact (Dal Toso and Melandri, 2009). The aim of the present study was to investigate the effects of dietary supplementation with teupolioside produced by cell cultures of *Ajuga reptans* (*Laminaceae spp.*) on growth performance, oxidative status and immunological parameters in post weaning piglets.

## 4.3 MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Animals and experimental design

The animals used in this experiment were cared for following the European Union guidelines (No. 2010/63/EU) and approved by the Italian Ministry of Health. One hundred and twenty weaned piglets (Goland), half castrated males and half females, aged  $24 \pm 2$  days, were randomly selected and divided into three experimental groups, balanced for body weight (BW) and gender. During the period of adaptation (7 days), the piglets received a commercial diet for *ad libitum* consumption. After 7 days of adaptation, at an average body weight of  $8.1 \pm 1.3$  kg, the piglets were assigned to three dietary treatments (8 piglets per pen; 5 pens per treatment) and reared in an environmentally-controlled room. The control group (C) received a commercial diet, and groups T1 and T2 received the same diet supplemented with the biotechnological plant extract in order to ensure 5 mg or 10 mg teupolioside per kg feed. The plant extract is produced by cell cultures of *Ajuga reptans* (*Laminaceae spp.*) and prepared on an industrial scale by a standardised procedure (I.R.B. s.r.l., Altavilla Vicentina, Vicenza, Italy). To prevent oxidation, the supplement was microencapsulated within a protective matrix of hydrogenated vegetable lipids using spray cooling technology (Sintal Zootecnica, Isola Vicentina, Vicenza, Italy). The experimental diets were formulated to meet the requirements for all nutrients (NRC 1998). The composition of the experimental diets is reported in Table 1. The animals had free access to water and were fed *ad libitum*. The experimental trial lasted 56 days. Piglets were weighed at the beginning and at the end of the trial. The amounts of feed offered and refused were recorded daily to calculate the feed intake. These data were used to calculate the average daily gain (ADG), gain feed ratio (G : F), and average daily feed intake (ADFI) of each pen.

**Table 1.** Composition of the experimental diets (g/kg, as-fed basis).

Live weight range	8-15 kg	15-30 kg
Ingredient:		
Steam-rolled corn	280	180
Corn yellow	150	200
Barley	150	200
Wheat middings	80	80
Dried whey	50	20
Soy protein concentrate, 64% CP	40	44
Soybean meal, 48% CP	60	80
Fish meal, 70% CP	28	-
Rice protein meal, 65% CP	24	20
Dextrose	25	10
Wheat bran	30	80
Soy oil	30	30
Experimental supplement <sup>1</sup>	1	1
Vitamin- mineral premix <sup>2</sup>	34	34
Dicalcium phosphate	10	14
L-Lysine · HCl	5	4
Preservative <sup>3</sup>	3	3
Calculated chemical composition <sup>4</sup>		
Crude protein	206.1	195.4
Ether extract	83.3	75.6
Crude fiber	30.9	39.9
Ash	61.3	65.9
Lysine	13.1	11.9
Methionine + cysteine	7.9	7.2
Threonine	8.5	7.7
Tryptophan	2.6	2.4

<sup>1</sup>quantities of plant extract standardized for teupolioside provided per 1 kg of complete diet: 0 (maltodextrins), for control, 5 mg teupolioside (T1), and 10 mg teupolioside (T2) groups respectively.

<sup>2</sup>provided per 1 kg of complete diet: Ca 2.8 g, P 0.14 g, Na 1.33 g, vit. A 16 000 IU, vit. D3 2000 IU, vit. E 175 IU, vit. K (menadione sodium bisulfite) 3.8 mg, vit. B1 4.9 mg, vit. B2 9.8 mg, calcium D-pantothenate 40 mg, niacin 57.8 mg, vit. B12 0.09 mg, vit. B6 7.7 mg, folic acid 3.4 mg, biotin 0.33 mg, choline chloride 1000 mg, Zn (ZnO) 85 mg, Cu (CuSO<sub>4</sub>) 85 mg, Mn (MnO) 108 mg, Fe (FeCO<sub>3</sub>) 470 mg, I (KI) 3.85 mg, Co (CoSO<sub>4</sub>) 1.4 mg, Se (as Na<sub>2</sub>SeO<sub>3</sub>) 490 µg. Premix containing calcium formiate, Saccharomices cerevisiae, sodium chloride, barley, butyric acid, dL-tryptophan, dL-methionine, L-treonine.

<sup>3</sup>composition per 1 kg of complete feed: formic acid 0.3 g, lactic acid 1.1 g, colloidal silica carrier 1.6g.

<sup>4</sup>calculation based on INRA (2004).

## **Sample Collection**

Blood samples were obtained, by anterior vena cava puncture before the morning feeding, from 10 randomly selected castrated male piglets per treatment (2 piglets/pen), at the beginning of the trial, and at days 14 and 56. The blood samples were collected in 10 mL vacutainer glass tubes (Venoject®, Terumo Europe N.V., Leuven, Belgium) and immediately placed on ice. Serum was harvested by centrifugation (8,500 x g for 15 min. 4 °C) and stored at -80 °C pending analysis.

## **Determination of antioxidant activity of plant extract**

The antioxidant activities of the biotechnological extract of *Ajuga reptans*, was evaluated using the Kit Radicaux Libres (KRL) biological test (Prost, 1992). This *ex-vivo* test is based on free radical-induced haemolysis and tests the antioxidant capacity of several molecules in a biological condition. A control blood sample was used as the biological medium (Astra for medics S.R.L, Milan, Italy). The direct effect of the phenolic compounds on the control blood was tested without free radical addition, also verifying that the blank did not present any interference (cytotoxic assays). The phenolic compounds were dissolved in aqueous solution at different concentrations. Blood solutions were incubated at 37 °C with different ranges of concentration (from 0 to 1 mg by liter of reaction medium) of the extract for 15 min before being submitted to free radicals produced by a final 50 mM solution of 2,20-azobis (2-amidinopropane) dihydrochloride (AAPH). Diluted blood samples without and in the presence of different amounts of the extract were submitted to organic free radicals produced at 37°C under air atmosphere from the thermal decomposition of a 50 mM solution of AAPH. Hemolysis was recorded using a 96-well microplate reader by measuring the optical density decay at 450 nm (Laboratoires Spiral, France). The results were expressed as the percentage increase in KRL value, which is the time required to reach 50% haemolysis compared to the control blood. A range from 0 to 100 mg/L of Trolox® (MW 250.29 g/mole), a water-soluble analogue of vitamin E, enabled us to standardize the global antioxidant capacity of the product compared to vitamin E. Mean values of three independent determinations were used for the calculation.

## **Haematochemical parameters**

Total cholesterol, high-density lipoprotein (HDL) cholesterol, triglycerides, glucose and urea were determined by enzymatic spectrophotometric assay (Alfa Wasserman, Milano, Italy). The concentration of low-density lipoprotein (LDL) cholesterol was calculated using the Friedewald equation according to Johnson et al., (1997).

## **Oxidative status**

The serum reactive oxygen metabolite (ROM) was determined using a spectrophotometric assay (“D-Roms test” Diacron s.r.l., Grosseto, Italy). The *D-Roms* test is based on the concept that the amount of organic hydroperoxides present in serum is related to the free radicals from which they are formed (Cesarone et al., 1999; Alberti et al., 2000). When the serum sample is dissolved in an acidic buffer, the hydroperoxides react with the transition metal ions freed from the proteins in the acidic medium and are converted to alkoxy and peroxy radicals. These newly-formed radicals are able to oxidize an additive (*N,N*-diethyl-*para*-phenyldiamine) to the corresponding radical cation. The concentration of this persistent species can be easily determined through spectrophotometric procedures (absorption at 505 nm). The results are expressed in U CARR (Carratelli Units) where 1 U CARR corresponds to 0.024 mmol/l H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub> or 0.8 mg/L H<sub>2</sub>O<sub>2</sub>.

## **Serum Immunoglobulin Concentration**

Serum concentrations of class G (IgG) and A (IgA) immunoglobulin were measured at T0 and T56 using the ELISA method, as described by the manufacturer (Bethyl, Montgomery, TX). Briefly, plasma samples were diluted 1:4000 and 1:60,000 to detect IgA and IgG, respectively, in Tris-buffered saline and added to plates coated with class specific immunoglobulin pig antibody. The different subsets were detected with the appropriate peroxidase anti-pig IgA or IgG (Bethyl) and were quantified with reference to standard curves constructed with known amounts of pig immunoglobulin subsets. Absorbance was read at 450 nm using an ELISA plate reader (Spectra thermo, Tecan, NC, USA).

## **4.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSES**

All parameters were analyzed using SPSS (SPSS/PC Statistics 24 SPSS Inc., IBM). Live weight data were analysed by GLM (General Linear Model) procedure with treatment as the main effect and the value at the beginning of the trial entered as a covariate. Biochemical parameters and serum oxidative status were analysed by repeated measure analysis of variance (ANOVA) to assess the main effect of treatment and time and value at the beginning of the trial entered as a covariate. Pen was the experimental unit for the productive performance. Piglet was considered the experimental unit of all serum metabolites and immunological variables. Data are presented as means  $\pm$  SEM, and a value of  $P \leq 0.05$  is used to indicate statistical significance.



## 4.5 RESULTS

### Antioxidant activity of plant extract

The results underline that teupolioside from the cell culture of *Ajuga Reptans* has an important antioxidant capacity *in vitro*, which increases linearly with the dose of the extract up to a concentration of 100 mg/L (Figure 2). The plant extract from the cell culture of *Ajuga reptans* (standardized at 50% in teupolioside) showed an antioxidant activity equivalent to 3.73  $\mu$ moles of Trolox per mg of extract.

### Growth Performance

The piglets' growth parameters in relation to dietary treatments are reported in Table 2. At the end of the experimental trial, group T2 showed a higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) body weight compared to the others (C and T1). Therefore, also the ADG tended to be higher ( $P < 0.10$ ) in piglets fed with the highest dosage of Teupolioside (T2). The gain to feed ratio and ADFI were unaffected ( $P > 0.05$ ) by dietary treatments. No differences among experimental group were observed in piglet's health status during all experimental trial.

**Table 2.** Growth performances of piglets fed control diet or diet supplemented with biotechnological plant extract containing teupolioside.

Parameters <sup>1,3</sup>	Dietary Treatment <sup>2</sup>			<i>P</i> -value
	Control	T1	T2	
Final BW, kg	29.8 $\pm$ 0.54 <sup>a</sup>	29.1 $\pm$ 0.55 <sup>a</sup>	31.4 $\pm$ 0.56 <sup>b</sup>	0.016
ADG, g/d	386 $\pm$ 9.4	380 $\pm$ 10.6	414 $\pm$ 11.5	0.057
G:F, kg/kg	0.495 $\pm$ 0.04	0.509 $\pm$ 0.05	0.513 $\pm$ 0.06	0.853
ADFI, kg/day	0.782 $\pm$ 0.06	0.747 $\pm$ 0.08	0.748 $\pm$ 0.07	0.134

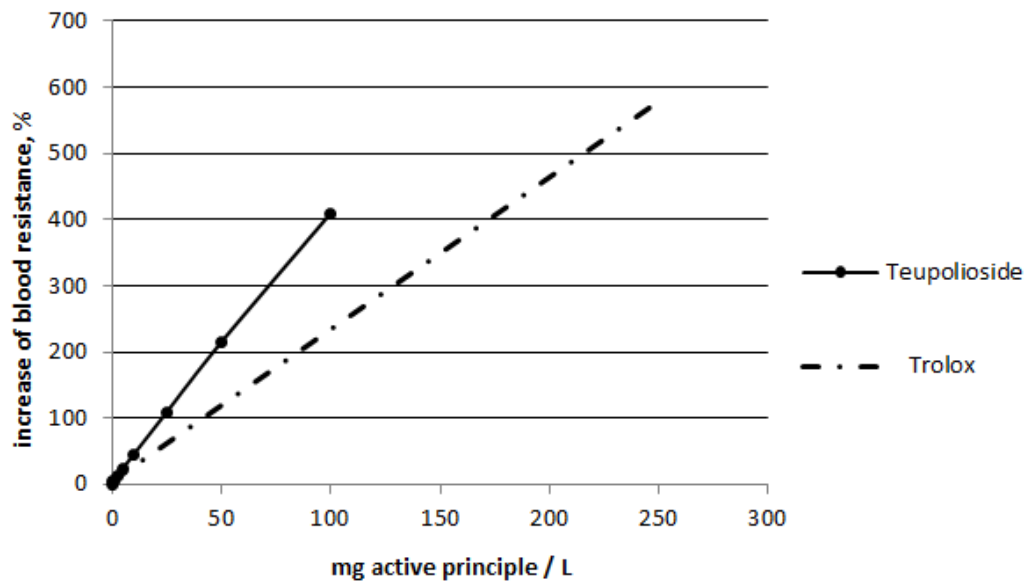
<sup>1</sup>Data are reported as mean  $\pm$  standard error of the mean.  $n=5$ ;

<sup>2</sup> T1, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 5 mg teupolioside /kg feed, T2, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 10 mg teupolioside /kg feed.

<sup>3</sup>BW, body weight; ADG, average daily gain; G:F, gain to feed ratio; ADFI, average daily feed intake;

<sup>a, b</sup> values in rows with different superscript letters differ significantly ( $P \leq 0.05$ ).

**Figure 2.** Antioxidant activity of teupolioside measured by biological test KRL.



### **Oxidative status**

A significant difference in the effect of dietary treatment ( $P=0.037$ ) was found in d-ROM production between the control and treatment groups at the end of the trial (Table 3). No significant differences were observed for the time effect ( $P=0.860$ ) and the time x treatment effect ( $P=0.868$ ).

### **Immune parameters**

Dietary supplementation with the plant extract increased ( $P=0.001$ ) the IgG serum concentration in T1 and T2 groups compared to control ( $8.38 \pm 0.61$  g/L in control *vs*  $11.77 \pm 0.62$  g/L and  $11.79 \pm 0.56$  g/L in groups T1 and T2, respectively). Figure 3 provides the descriptive analysis (box plot) of IgG serum concentration after 56 days of dietary supplementation with biotechnological plant extract. The IgA serum concentration was unaffected ( $P=0.260$ ) by dietary treatments ( $0.64 \pm 0.09$  g/L in control *vs*  $0.65 \pm 0.01$  g/L and  $0.83 \pm 0.09$  g/L in groups T1 and T2, respectively).

**Table 3.** Serum biochemical parameters of piglets fed control diet or diet supplemented with biotechnological plant extract containing teupolioside (T1 and T2).

Measure <sup>1</sup>	Dietary Treatment <sup>2</sup>			<i>P-value</i>	
	Control	T1	T2	Time	Treatment
HDL cholesterol mmol/L <sup>3</sup>					
Day 14	0.341 ± 0.021	0.380 ± 0.021	0.383 ± 0.020		
Day 56	0.431 ± 0.013	0.413 ± 0.013	0.415 ± 0.012	0.810	0.793
Total cholesterol mmol/L					
Day 14	0.944 ± 0.033	0.972 ± 0.034	0.909 ± 0.033		
Day 56	1.192 ± 0.084	1.200 ± 0.084	1.117 ± 0.083	0.661	0.463
LDL cholesterol, mmol/L <sup>3</sup>					
Day 14	0.462 ± 0.041	0.448 ± 0.040	0.438 ± 0.035		
Day 56	0.672 ± 0.024	0.701 ± 0.023	0.718 ± 0.020	0.942	0.147
Glucose mmol/L					
Day 14	4.78 ± 0.26	4.30 ± 0.26	4.19 ± 0.26		
Day 56	3.87 ± 0.30	4.11 ± 0.30	3.62 ± 0.30	0.234	0.341
Triglycerides mmol/L					
Day 14	0.67 ± 0.05	0.70 ± 0.05	0.51 ± 0.05		
Day 56	0.48 ± 0.03	0.52 ± 0.35	0.52 ± 0.03	0.495	0.130
Urea mmol/L					
Day 14	2.84 ± 0.73	2.94 ± 0.73	3.09 ± 0.73		
Day 56	7.55 ± 1.22	7.35 ± 1.22	5.92 ± 1.22	0.152	0.703
d-Rom (U carr)					
Day 14	433 ± 9.0	415 ± 8.1	414 ± 7.2	0.860	0.037
Day 56	528 ± 8.2	471 ± 8.4	485 ± 8.4		

<sup>1</sup>Data are reported as mean ± standard error of the mean; *n* = 10.

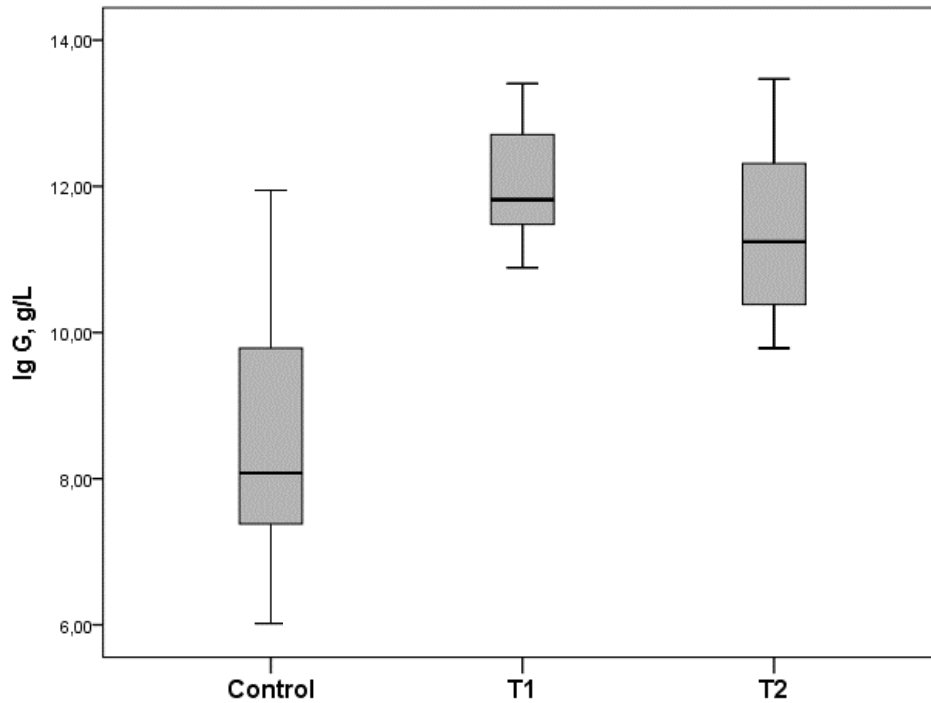
<sup>2</sup>T1, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 5 mg teupolioside/kg feed, T2, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 10 mg teupolioside /kg feed.

<sup>3</sup>HDL, high density lipoprotein, LDL low density lipoprotein.

### Biochemical parameters

The serum biochemical parameters of piglets fed the control or plant extract supplemented diet are reported in Table 3. Dietary treatment and sampling time did not affect (*P*>0.05) HDL, LDL and total cholesterol, glucose, triglycerides and urea. No significant differences were observed in the time x treatment effect (*P*>0.05). Data fall within the reference values for all the parameters analysed.

**Figure 3.** Boxplot of serum IgG in piglets fed control diet or diet supplemented with biotechnological plant extract titrated in Teupolioside (T1 and T2) after 56 d of dietary treatment<sup>1</sup>.



$n=10$ ; T1, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 5 mg teupolioside /kg feed, T2, diet supplemented with plant extract to supply 10 mg teupolioside /kg feed.  
Treatment effect,  $P < 0.001$ .

## 4.6 DISCUSSION

Regarding phenylpropanoids, many studies have been conducted on several bioactive principles in livestock, but few data are available on plant extracts containing teupolioside. An *in vitro* study reported that teupolioside has demonstrated anti-inflammatory, anti-oxidant and chelating properties (Korkina et al., 2006). Pastore et al., (2009) also reported that teupolioside could decrease the expression of proinflammatory cytokine which was correlated with the antioxidant, scavenging, and iron-chelating activities of this polyphenol (Korkina et al., 2006). In the present study a higher antioxidant activity of teupolioside was observed in comparison with the vitamin E soluble analogue (Trolox). The KRL test could be a promising approach which allows a dynamic evaluation of the overall antioxidant activity of the plant extract against oxidative stress in a biological system (Maghin et al., 2016).

At weaning, piglets have to deal with many changes and nutritional, environmental and immunological stresses (Le Dividich and Sève 2000; Montagne et al., 2007). The use of natural supplements in animal nutrition is a good way to improve piglet health and performance as well as to increase the sustainability of the pig sector. In recent years, plants extracts have attracted interest as an innovative dietary strategy to replace antimicrobials (Cheng et al., 2014). No previous study has reported the effects of dietary supplementation with a biotechnological extract of *Ajuga Reptans* containing teupolioside.

The present results showed an improvement in final weight and ADG in piglets fed the high dosage of biotechnological plant extract (T2). These results agree with other studies reporting that dietary natural extracts containing polyphenols improve growth performance in post-weaning piglets (Maass et al., 2005; Devi et al., 2015). The effects of PPG dietary supplementation on growth performance in livestock are conflicting. In previous studies, supplementation with a water-soluble extract of Verbenaceae (*Lippia* spp.) leaves containing the PPG verbascoside, had a positive effect on growth performance in suckling lambs (Casamassima et al., 2009). On the other hand, no effect on growth performance was reported in pigs, broilers, hares and horses with a supplementation of 5 mg verbascoside/kg feed (De Marco et al., 2015; Rossi et al., 2013; Rossi et al., 2017; Vizzarri et al., 2014).

Weaning is a crucial phase in pig husbandry. A sudden dietary change from milk to solid feed induces transient anorexia, intestinal inflammation and unbalanced gut microbiota, which are important causes of post weaning diarrhea and associated infections in piglets (Gresse et al., 2017). In this situation, an imbalance between reactive oxygen species production and their neutralization by the antioxidant system of the organism has also been observed, leading to oxidative stress which negatively affects piglet health (Rossi et al., 2009; Buchet et al., 2017). This situation is more serious in the presence of post weaning diarrhea. In fact it has been reported that inflammation increases oxidative stress in animals (Lykkesfeldt et al., 2007). In addition, a study performed by Sauerwein et al., (2007) highlighted that the high d-ROMs values in the first week after weaning is associated with decreasing growth rates.

The present data show that serum d-ROMs in piglets fed with teupolioside was lower than the controls, thus demonstrating the antioxidant activity of the active principle. These data agree with the literature that reports a reduction in d-ROM production or an enhancement in antioxidant status in livestock after dietary supplementation with a natural extract containing PPG (Casamassima et al., 2012; Casamassima et al., 2013; Rossi et al., 2013). In fact, polyphenols prevent the oxidation

of low-molecular-weight antioxidants, such as vitamin A and E, thus increasing their amount of serum (Palazzo et al., 2011; Paszkiewicz et al., 2012). Additionally, previous studies in piglets have reported that dietary supplementation with verbascoside can restore liver antioxidant status induced by the high intake of n-6 PUFA, leading to oxidative stress (Di Giancamillo et al., 2015). As recently reported in the literature, polyphenols protect cells against oxidative stress caused by free radicals through several mechanisms, thus reducing the risk of associated diseases (Lipiński et al., 2017). The polyphenol metabolism has not been fully clarified and their availability is related to its chemical characteristics and functional groups (Landete, 2012). The present data showed that blood biochemical parameters were not affected by dietary integration with the biotechnological extract, in agreement with a previous study in weaned piglets fed a natural extract containing verbascoside (Pastorelli et al., 2012). On the other hand, other studies in livestock have reported that dietary supplementation with a plant extract containing verbascoside improved the lipid blood profile, decreasing total cholesterol, LDL cholesterol and triglycerides (Palazzo et al., 2011; Casamassima et al., 2014; D'Alessandro et al., 2017).

Several studies have reported that dietary polyphenols from several sources have an immunomodulatory effect on immune cell populations (Cuevas et al., 2013). One important lymphocytes class are B cells which are involved in humoral immunity and produce immunoglobulins. In the literature, the effects of a natural extract containing polyphenols on immunoglobulin production have not been described sufficiently in depth. An *in vitro* study on human peripheral blood mononuclear cells reported that resveratrol did not affect IgM and IgG production (Zunino et al., 2009). Other *in vitro* studies have reported that polyphenols from several sources are able to modulate B cell function, downregulating IgE and IgG production (Sanbongi et al., 1997; Hassanain et al., 2010).

Our data showed that dietary supplementation with a biotechnological plant extract increased serum IgG without affecting IgA production. The modulation in immunoglobulin production by a dietary supplement with a natural extract in post weaning piglets has been reported by Pastorelli et al. (2012). The authors reported that dietary supplementation with different amounts of plant extract titrated in verbascoside increased both serum IgG and IgA concentrations, thus reflecting the active synthesis of antibodies by the piglets' immune system (Kanitz et al., 2004).

## 4.7 CONCLUSION

Overall, the results suggest that dietary supplementation with a biotechnological extract of *Ajuga Reptans* containing teupolioside in the post-weaning phase improves piglet health. In fact, piglets fed the high dosage of teupolioside showed a higher body weight at the end of the trial. In addition, dietary supplementation with teupolioside in piglets positively affected serum d-ROM production and IgG titer, without affecting other biochemical parameters. These data demonstrate the antioxidant and immunomodulant effects of the biotechnological extract of *Ajuga Reptans* containing teupolioside. Further studies are needed to explore the mechanism of action of teupolioside and to clarify the optimal length and dosage of the dietary treatment.

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## **CHAPTER 5**

**Trial 2. Dietary supplementation with natural extracts mixture: effects on reproductive performances, blood biochemical and antioxidant parameters in rabbit does.**

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## 5.1 ABSTRACT

The present study evaluates the effects of natural extracts on reproductive performances, haematochemical parameters, and antioxidant status of rabbit does. A total of sixty New Zealand White second parity does were divided into three groups: the first group was fed a control diet (CON), the second (T1) and the third groups (T2), were fed the same diet supplemented with prebiotic polysaccharides from brown seaweeds (*Laminaria* spp.) plus phenolic acid, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins, flavonoids from plant extracts (0.3% and 0.6% respectively). The trial was conducted for two consecutive reproductive cycles (75 days). Reproductive performance was recorded. Blood samples were collected before the first insemination, 10 d after the first kindling and 10 d after the second one. At the first reproductive cycle, productive parameters were negatively affected ( $P < 0.05$ ) by high dosage of dietary supplement (T2 group). At the second reproductive cycle no difference ( $P > 0.05$ ) between dietary treatments on reproductive and productive performances were observed. Bilirubin was affected by dietary treatment ( $P < 0.001$ ) and decreased in relation to sampling time ( $P < 0.001$ ) and decreased in relation to sampling time ( $P < 0.001$ ). The HDL cholesterol decreased by dietary treatment ( $P < 0.01$ ). All the plasma antioxidant markers were positively affected ( $P < 0.001$ ) by dietary supplementation and sampling time. No previous study has reported the effects of brown seaweeds and polyphenols in rabbit does and the present data shows that this natural extract supplement improved the antioxidant status of rabbits does.

## 5.2 INTRODUCTION

There has been increasing global concern regarding the development of antimicrobial resistance and the transfer of resistance genes from animal to human strains (Devirgiliis et al., 2013). Due to the ban on using antibiotic growth promoter in animal feed (1831/2003/EC EU), natural alternatives to support animal health and performance have been studied (Lillehoj et al., 2018). Phytogetic and plant extracts are an effective strategy to support a sustainable animal production (Pastorelli et al., 2012; Yang et al., 2015; Casamassima et al., 2014; Attia et al., 2017a & Attia et al., 2017b; Valenzuela-Grijalva et al., 2017; Attia et al., 2018). Brown seaweeds are an excellent source of vitamins, minerals (Descamps, 2006). It also contains sulfur polysaccharides, phlorotannin, catechins, carotenoids, tocopherols and diterpenes, which are characterized by antimicrobial, antioxidant, antiinflammatory and immunomodulatory activities (Maghin et al., 2014). These properties make these compounds promising in livestock for the improvement of animal health and welfare. As reviewed by Makkar et al. (2016) dietary supplementation with brown seaweed in rabbits has been shown to have different effects. In particular, dietary *Laminaria* spp. appears to improve the blood lipid profile, however *Ascophillum nodosum* supplementation should be avoided because it was shown to have a toxic effect. Previous studies have reported that tannins, a heterogeneous group of polyphenols, show antibacterial and antioxidant activities (Huang et al., 2018). Rabbit production is based on high reproductive efficiency, growth rate, feed utilization and meat nutritional parameters (Djakalia et al., 2012). Enteric pathologies are one of the main causes of mortality (Grilli et al., 2006). Natural extract supplementation could thus enhance rabbit doe health and performances during pregnancy and lactation. These phases are critical in does and are characterized by several physiological changes and an increase in the production of reactive oxygen species production (Abdel-Khalek et al., 2008). The number of weaned rabbits needs to increase to enhance the does' productive performance, and nutrition has been largely recognized as a key factor in pregnancy and lactation phases (Chavatte-Palmer et al., 2016). The productive performance of does thus needs to be improved using sustainable dietary supplement (Okab et al., 2013; Casamassima et al., 2017; Uhlirova and Volek 2019). Having focused attention on the animals livestock welfare and the fully expression of their productivity, the present study aims to evaluate the effects of dietary natural supplementation with a brown seaweed and polyphenol extract mixture on reproductive performance, biochemical parameters, and antioxidant markers of New Zealand White rabbit does.



## 5.3 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Animals and experimental design

Does were handled following the guidelines for animal experiments, indicated in EU Directive 2010/63/EU, and national guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed. All experimental procedures involving animals were approved by ethical committee (No. NPPC 18-10-2016). The trial was performed during January–May period in the experimental rabbit farm at the National Agricultural and Food Centre (Nitra, Slovak Republic). Second parity New Zealand White does ( $n = 60$ ) were enrolled for two consecutive reproductive cycles (75 days). Lactating does were artificially inseminated at 12 days after kindling. Fourteen days after artificial insemination, the does were tested for pregnancy by palpation, and non-pregnant does were discarded from the experiment. Does were individually housed in wire cages arranged in flat-decks measuring 600 x 500 x 330 mm high on one level. Cages were equipped with a hopper for feed and an automatic nipple drinking system. A Lighting cycle of 16h of light and 8h of dark was used throughout the trial. Heating and forced ventilation systems maintained the building temperature within  $18 \pm 4^\circ\text{C}$ . Relative humidity was about  $70 \pm 5\%$ . For an adaptation period of one week, does were fed a commercial diet and the insemination was at the beginning of the trial, in which does were randomly assigned to one of three experimental groups ( $n = 20$  replicates per treatment) homogeneous for body weight ( $4.83 \pm 0.19$  kg) and parity order (second). The first group (CON) received a control diet, and groups T1 and T2 received the same diet supplemented with 0.3% and 0.6% of a natural feed additive consisting of prebiotic polysaccharides from brown seaweeds (*Laminaria spp.*) plus phenolic acid, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins, flavonoids from plant extracts. The diets did not include anticoccidials, antibiotics or any other medications. The two dosages of the natural extract were chosen after an *in vitro* evaluation of the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) against *Clostridium spp.*, *Staphylococcus spp.* and *Escherichia coli spp.* (Tosi, personal communication). The ingredients and the chemical composition of experimental diets are reported in Table 1. The chemical composition of experimental diet and the brown seaweeds and the polyphenols extract mixture was performed in accordance with the methods of the Association of Analytical Chemists (AOAC, 2000). The quantitative analysis of the phenolic compounds of the dietary plant supplement was performed by HPLC-UV–DAD (Russo et al., 2017). The chemical and phenolic compositions of the feed supplement are reported in Table 2. Does were fed *ad libitum*, and the average daily feed intake (ADFI) of does was recorded. The body weight of the does was recorded the days before insemination.

**Table 1.** Ingredients and chemical composition of experimental diets (g/kg).

Ingredients	Experimental diet <sup>1</sup>		
	CON	T1	T2
Maize	282	279	276
Alfalfa hay	305	305	305
Sunflower meal	135	135	135
Palm seed oil	8	8	8
Soybean oil	7	7	7
Wheat	80	80	80
Cane molasses	20	20	20
Carob bean meal	90	90	90
Oat	53	53	53
Calcium carbonate	7	7	7
Sodium Chloride	3	3	3
Dicalcium phosphate	2	2	2
DL-Methionine (99%)	2.5	2.5	2.5
L-Lysine HCl (78.5%)	1.6	1.6	1.6
Choline (75%)	1.4	1.4	1.4
Vitamin and mineral premix *	2.5	2.5	2.5
Dietary supplement	0	3	6
<i>Chemical composition, <sup>2</sup></i>			
Crude protein	184	183.6	183.5
Ether extract	35.7	35.5	35.5
Crude fibre	187	186.8	187
Ash	86	85.7	85.8
Nitrogen free extract	507	507.1	506.9
NDF	302.1	301.5	301.7
ADF	195.8	195.4	195.3
ADL	39.9	39.5	39.5

<sup>1</sup> CON= control group; T1= group supplemented with 0.3% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols; T2= group supplemented with 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols ;

\*Supplied per kg diet: 13,500 I.U. vitamin A (trans-retinyl acetate);

800 I.U. vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol);

35 mg vitamin E ( $\alpha$ -tocopherol min 91%),

35 mg copper (cupric sulphate pentahydrate);

<sup>2</sup> analyses determined in triplicate.

**Table 2.** Chemical composition and polyphenols content of the dietary supplement.

Item <sup>1</sup>	% on dry matter
Dry matter	93.58 ± 5.05
Crude Protein	7.21 ± 0.99
Ether extract	0.32 ± 0.01
Carbohydrates	60.84 ± 3.18
Ash	32.68 ± 1.38
Compounds, mg/kg dry weight	
Phenolic Acid:	
Dihydroxybenzoic acid	≤ LOD <sup>2</sup>
Syringic acid	1059.79 ± 62.82
Hydroxycinnamic acids:	
Neochlorogenic acid	7979.23 ± 468.11
Rosmarinic acid	126.54 ± 8.67
Trans sinapic acid	105.54 ± 8.09
Chlorogenic acid	21.45 ± 3.65
Tannins:	
Ellagic acid	2440.88 ± 148.29
Rutin	272.37 ± 20.82
Flavonoids:	
Myricetin	53.88 ± 5.68
Kaempferol	≤ LOD

<sup>1</sup> values are expressed as means (n= 4) ± standard deviation.

<sup>2</sup> Limit of detection;

### **Reproductive performances**

Cross-fostering was applied within groups with a maximum of eight offspring/litter. The number of offspring born alive and stillborn, the number of weaned offspring per litter, and the body weight of offspring at birth and at weaning per doe were recorded for two reproductive cycle (75 days).

### **Blood sampling**

The first blood sampling was performed after 12 h fasting, at the beginning of the dietary supplementation (t0). After two days, the rabbit does were artificially inseminated. The second blood sampling was performed 10 days after the first kindling (t1). The third blood sampling (t2) was performed et 10 days after the second kindling. Blood samples were taken from the *vena auricularis marginalis* and were collected in 5 mL vacutainer glass tubes (Venoject®, Terumo Europe N.V., Leuven, Belgium) with lithium heparin. The blood samples were immediately stored at 4°C. All blood analyses were performed at the laboratory of Animal Physiology Department at the Slovak University of Agriculture in Nitra, Slovak Republic, where samples were then centrifuged for 20 min at 3000 rpm at 4°C to obtain plasma.

### **Biochemical parameters**

Triglycerides, total cholesterol, HDL cholesterol and LDL cholesterol, bilirubin, alanine aminotransferase (ALT), aspartate aminotransferase (AST), were determined in blood plasma using a semi-automatic clinical chemistry Analyzer Arco model (Biotechnical Instruments, S.p.A., Italy).

### **Plasma oxidative markers**

The superoxide dismutase (SOD) was determined using a colorimetric assay (Zhou and Prognon, 2006). The SOD activity was expressed in units per milligram of protein (U/mg). The ferric ion reducing antioxidant power (FRAP) test was determined using Benzie and Strain (1996) method, which measures the antioxidant capacity of plasma. One unit FRAP is expressed in mmol/mL and indicates the number of moles of ferric ion (FeIII) reduced to ferrous ion (FeII) from one mol of tested antioxidants. The total antioxidant *status* (TAS) was measured on blood plasma by 2,2'-azinobis (3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonate) (ABTS) radical cation decolorization assay, following Re et al. (1999). Trolox was used as the standard. The TAS value of samples was defined as the concentration of Trolox with an equivalent activity as units per liter of plasma.

The determination of thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) was spectrophotometrically performed according to Esterbauer and Zollner (1989), using a standard curve with 1,1,3,3-tetra-methoxypropane (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). The results were expressed as µg of malondialdehyde (MDA)/mL of plasma. Vitamins A and E were extracted from plasma samples with chloroform, according to Zhao et al. (2004). The amount of vitamins was detected by HPLC (Kontron Instruments, Italy), which consisted of an automatic auto-sampler (HPLC Autosampler 360) with a loop of 20 µl, pump system (HPLC Pump 422), a column C18, 5 µm, 250 × 4.60 mm, (Phenomenex, Torrance, Ca, USA). The mobile phase consisted of a mixture of acetonitrile and methanol (85:15 v/v) with a flow value of 1 mL/min. Vitamins A and E were identified by comparing the retention time of the samples with the retention time of pure standards (> 97%) purchased by Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, USA). The quantification was performed using the GYMINIX system (version 1.8.1) by comparing the peak of the area with that of the reference standard curve. Results were expressed as µg/mL of plasma.

## 5.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSES

Statistical analyses of the data were performed using SPSS (SPSS/24 PC Statistics 24.0 IBM). After assessing whether the frequency distribution assumed normality with the Shapiro-Wilk Test, data on reproductive performances were analyzed by one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) to evaluate the effects of dietary treatments at first and second partum. Data on biochemical parameters and antioxidant status were submitted to a repeated measure ANOVA to assess the main effect of treatment and time and their interaction. Rabbit does were considered as experimental unit for all parameters. Data were reposted as means  $\pm$  pooled SEM. Differences were considered statistically significant at level of  $P < 0.05$ .

## 5.5 RESULTS

### Productive and reproductive parameters

During the experimental trial, 30% of does in the CON and T1 groups and 35% in the T2 group were removed from the experiment due to lack of occurring pregnancy after artificial insemination and the data were removed from the analyses. No difference in body weight of the does at the second and third insemination was observed ( $P > 0.05$ ). The average feed intake of does during pregnancy and lactation were not affected ( $P > 0.05$ ) by the dietary treatment. During pregnancy, the average daily feed intake was  $318 \pm 8.5$  g in the CON group, and  $314 \pm 8.7$  g and  $320 \pm 9.7$  g in groups T1 and T2 respectively. During lactation the average daily feed intake was  $364 \pm 7.5$  g in CON group and  $395 \pm 9.9$  g and  $395 \pm 10.6$  g in groups T1 and T2 respectively.

Tables 3 and 4 reported the reproductive parameters of rabbit does evaluated at the first and second kindling cycle respectively. The dietary treatments did not influence ( $P > 0.05$ ) the number of kits per litter, the mortality and weight of kits at birth and weaning in the first reproductive cycle. Although there was a difference in the number of offspring after cross-fostering and at 14 days of lactation (lower number in T2 than in CON and T1;  $P < 0.05$ ) there was a greater mortality and a lower weight of the animals in T2 at weaning, although not significant. At weaning (35 days) the number of offspring per litter tended to be lower ( $P = 0.055$ ) in T2 than in the other groups.

**Table 3.** Productive parameters at first reproductive cycle of rabbit does fed control diet (CON) and diets supplemented with two levels of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols (0.3% and 0.6% in T1 and T2 groups respectively).

Item <sup>1</sup>	Diet			SEM	P-value
	CON	T1	T2		
Number of offspring per litter:					
total born	10.38	9.47	9.93	0.463	0.732
born alive	9.81	9.07	9.40	0.487	0.827
born dead	0.56	0.40	0.53	0.203	0.944
after cross-fostering	7.73 <sup>a</sup>	7.94 <sup>a</sup>	7.13 <sup>b</sup>	0.128	0.021
14 days of lactation	7.60 <sup>a</sup>	7.63 <sup>a</sup>	6.69 <sup>b</sup>	0.189	0.022
35 days (weaning)	7.27	7.31	6.25	0.220	0.055
Dead, no.	0.47	0.63	0.88	0.126	0.425
Mortality during lactation, %	6.05	7.94	12.35	2.04	0.187
Weight of the litter, kg:					
after cross-fostering	0.596	0.514	0.557	0.028	0.508
14 days	2.17	2.12	1.81	0.099	0.072
35 days (weaning)	6.08	6.03	5.08	2.202	0.073
Weight of offspring, g:					
birth	64.67	58.00	59.33	1.75	0.264
35 days (weaning)	841.9	820.7	810.9	12.92	0.676
ADG <sup>2</sup> , g/d	22.10	21.55	21.03	0.410	0.580

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean ± pooled standard error of means.

<sup>a,b</sup> Within the same row, means with different letters differ significantly (P < 0.05);

<sup>2</sup> Average daily gain.

**Table 4.** Productive parameters at second reproductive cycle of rabbit does fed control diet (CON) and diets supplemented with two levels of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols (0.3% and 0.6% in T1 and T2 groups respectively).

Item <sup>1</sup>	Diet			SEM	P-value
	CON	T1	T2		
Number of offspring per litter:					
total born	8.31	8.64	9.46	0.504	0.648
born alive	7.85	8.00	8.77	0.477	0.714
born dead	0.46	0.64	0.69	0.133	0.771
after cross-fostering	7.00	7.14	7.08	0.169	0.943
14 days lactation	6.93	7.00	7.08	0.189	0.942
35 days (weaning)	6.71	7.00	6.85	0.162	0.776
Dead, no.	0.29	0.14	0.23	0.082	0.777
Mortality during lactation, %	4.14	1.97	3.25	1.030	0.775
Weight of litter, kg:					
birth	0.523	0.475	0.500	0.023	0.704
14 days	2.02	1.97	2.08	0.702	0.824
35 days (weaning)	7.28	7.12	6.94	0.203	0.798
Weight of offspring, g:					
birth	66.15	62.14	60.00	2.32	0.164
35 days (weaning)	1075	1028	1015	18.49	0.381
ADG <sup>2</sup> , g/d	28.72	27.44	27.22	0.515	0.447

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean ± pooled standard error of means, <sup>2</sup> Average daily gain.

## Biochemical parameters

Table 5 shows the data on does' plasma biochemical parameters in relation to dietary treatments and sampling time. Bilirubin values were affected by dietary treatments ( $P<0.01$ ) and decreased in relation to sampling time ( $P<0.001$ ). Comparing dietary treatments at the last sampling, bilirubin values resulted lower ( $P<0.05$ ) in T2 than T1 and CON rabbit does. An increase ( $P=0.005$ ) in HDL cholesterol was observed in T1 group at the second and third sampling time. No other biochemical parameters were affected ( $P>0.05$ ) by dietary supplementation. Triglycerides values decreased in relation to sampling time ( $P<0.001$ ). No other parameters were affected by dietary treatments and sampling time.

**Table 5.** Blood values of rabbit does fed control diet (CON) and diets supplemented with two levels of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols (0.3% and 0.6% in T1 and T2 groups respectively) in relation to sampling time.

Item <sup>1</sup>	Diet			SEM	P-value <sup>3</sup>		
	CON	T1	T2		D	T	T*D
Bilirubin, mg/dL <sup>3</sup>							
t0 <sup>2</sup>	0.72	0.72	0.71	0.011			
t1	0.64	0.63	0.57	0.014			
t2	0.66	0.55	0.46	0.017	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
Tryglicerides, mg/dL							
t0	66.43	64.03	67.96	1.165			
t1	65.44	60.47	63.82	0.977			
t2	63.44	59.86	63.03	1.139	0.195	<0.001	0.753
Total cholesterol, mg/dL							
t0	56.68	54.69	53.15	0.727			
t1	55.28	54.14	51.16	0.904			
t2	57.79	53.43	53.17	0.873	0.072	0.103	0.333
LDL cholesterol, mg/dL							
t0	35.91	35.36	37.34	0.624			
t1	36.72	34.65	36.75	0.650			
t2	36.43	34.18	37.97	0.674	0.145	0.957	0.537
HDL cholesterol, mg/dL							
t0	31.50	33.47	31.15	0.714			
t1	29.58	36.80	32.69	0.732			
t2	30.03	36.00	32.80	0.896	0.005	0.311	0.039
Aspartate aminotransferase, UI/L							
t0	26.90	25.14	25.11	0.589			
t1	27.42	24.55	27.77	0.554			
t2	27.30	26.38	27.20	0.424	0.134	0.116	0.199
Alanine aminotransferase, UI/L							
t0	41.60	38.82	43.61	0.857			
t1	40.56	40.28	42.71	0.779			
t2	41.37	41.56	40.07	0.892	0.574	0.886	0.009

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean values  $\pm$  pooled standard error of means.

<sup>2</sup> t0, beginning of the dietary supplementation; t1, 10 days after the first kindling; t2 10 days after the second kindling.

<sup>3</sup> D=fixed effect of dietary supplementation; T=fixed effect of time; D x T=interaction dietary supplementation x time;

## Plasma antioxidant markers

The plasma antioxidant status of does in relation to dietary treatment and sampling time is reported in Table 6. All the parameters were affected by dietary treatments and sampling time ( $P<0.001$ ). An interaction between time and treatment effects was also observed ( $P<0.01$ ). The antioxidant parameters SOD, FRAP and TAS resulted higher ( $P<0.001$ ) in groups fed seaweeds and the polyphenols mixture and increased in relation to sampling time ( $P<0.001$ ). Vitamin A and E significantly increased in T1 and T2 groups and in relation to sampling time ( $P<0.001$ ). The MDA decreased in relation to sampling time in groups fed the natural extract mixture ( $P<0.001$ ).

**Table 6.** Plasma antioxidant markers\* of rabbit does fed control diet (CON) and diets supplemented with two levels of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols (0.3% and 0.6% in T1 and T2 groups respectively) in relation to sampling time.

Item <sup>1</sup>	Diet			SEM	P-value <sup>3</sup>		
	CON	T1	T2		D	T	T*D
Superoxide dismutase, U/mg							
t0 <sup>2</sup>	41.57	41.41	41.94	0.177			
t1	41.60	40.13	44.93	0.306	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
t2	41.91	56.54	59.88	1.056			
FRAP, $\mu\text{mol Fe}^{2+}/\text{L}$ <sup>4</sup>							
t0	365.70	367.30	381.74	1.339			
t1	360.90	448.95	464.05	6.516	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
t2	362.10	486.85	489.11	8.077			
Total antioxidant status, U/L							
t0	11.45	11.99	12.07	0.110			
t1	11.86	19.92	22.86	0.632	<0.001	<0.001	0.038
t2	11.82	20.59	23.18	0.654			
Malondialdehyde, $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$							
t0	2.83	2.84	2.87	0.012			
t1	2.97	2.41	2.50	0.035	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
t2	3.01	2.11	2.16	0.056			
Vitamin A, $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$							
t0	0.32	0.32	0.34	0.006			
t1	0.31	0.34	0.38	0.006	<0.001	<0.001	0.003
t2	0.33 <sup>a</sup>	0.35	0.40	0.007			
Vitamin E, $\mu\text{g}/\text{mL}$							
t0	1.65	1.71	1.71	0.008			
t1	1.69	1.95	2.04	0.022	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001
t2	1.69	2.33	2.28	0.039			

<sup>1</sup> data are reported as mean values  $\pm$  pooled standard error of means;

<sup>2</sup> t0, beginning of the dietary supplementation; t1, 10 days after the first kindling; t2, 10 days after the second kindling

<sup>3</sup> D=fixed effect of dietary supplementation; T=fixed effect of time; D x T=interaction dietary supplementation x time.

<sup>4</sup> ferric ion reducing antioxidant power



## 5.6 DISCUSSION

### **Productive and reproductive parameters**

The lower number of offspring per litter in the T2 group, compared with the other two groups, could indicate an adverse effect of the high dosage of the natural extract. In fact, up to weaning, milk is the main feed of kits, and the number of kits in a litter is closely related to the does' milk production. In addition, the physiological mechanisms that regulate the milk secretion can be influenced by natural bioactive compounds (Albert-Puleo, 1980). It is possible that the high dosage of natural extract negatively affected milk production and resulted in a lower survival rate and weaning weight. However, in the second reproductive cycle, no effect of dietary supplementation with brown seaweed and polyphenols extract mixture was observed on the productive parameters, thus suggesting that tolerance increases with the advanced age of does. In the present experiment a high prebiotic activity from brown seaweeds was expected, however it is possible that the feed additive has no effects on productive and reproductive performances due to the good breeding conditions and low pathogen pressure (Attia et al., 2017c). Thus, studies in field conditions are needed in order to validate the present data. In a similar study on rabbit does, Okab et al. (2013) observed an improvement in kindling rate, litter size, and offspring ratio, after supplementation of 2% of brown seaweed. The authors linked the results with an enhancement of sexual receptivity, highlighting the positive correlation between fertility and prolificacy in artificially inseminated rabbits. The difference between our data and the literature could be related to the different feed supplement and length of the dietary supplementation.

### **Biochemical parameters**

The feed additive decreased the bilirubin value in the plasma of does in the treated groups (T1 and T2), which could be related to the antioxidant activity of polyphenols. In fact, inflammatory and oxidative injuries can up-regulate the cellular antioxidant status by generating antioxidants such as bilirubin. The low bilirubin plasma concentration at the last sampling time should be indicative of a better defense from oxidative damage (Aliyu et al., 2007).

An increase in plasma HDL values in the supplemented groups was observed at the end of the trial. Brites et al. (2017) reported that the HDL values showed antioxidant and antiatherogenic activities that suggest it protects LDL from oxidation. The improved blood lipid profile may be related to the effects of polyphenols, which are involved in the regulation of lipid and glucose metabolism (Attia et al., 2018). According to some authors (Bursill and Roach, 2007), this bioactive compounds activate the PPAR- $\alpha$  receptor, with an increased stimulation effect in the liver of the expression of key proteins involved in the metabolism of HDL. Triglycerides also seem to be involved in the same mechanism of activation of PPAR- $\alpha$  by polyphenols, with an induction in lipoprotein lipase expression in peripheral tissues and increased lipolysis, but in our study, no dietary effect on the triglyceride was observed.

Our previous study in sheep, hare and piglets fed with polyphenols revealed a significant reduction in triglycerides, total cholesterol, and LDL cholesterol along with an increased HDL cholesterol (Corino et al. 2007; Palazzo et al. 2011; Casamassima et al. 2012). The present data suggest that natural extracts contain several hypocholesterolemic agents that might prove valuable for the modulation of lipid metabolism and prevention of cardiovascular diseases (Attia et al., 2018).

### **Plasma antioxidant markers**

The dietary supplementation with the brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture improved the markers of plasma oxidative status. The bioactive compounds contained in the feed additive (phenolic acid, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins and flavonoids), are redox-active molecules, and can be oxidised and reduced without becoming highly reactive-radical; they thus, protect against free radicals (Attia et al., 2018). A consequent reduction in lipid peroxidation was observed, as also highlighted by the improvement in the enzymatic marker levels. The reduction in lipid peroxidation could be related to the direct capture of free radicals due to the antioxidant activity of bioactive molecules during the propagation phase of the chain reaction. In addition, the initial oxidative process may be blocked through the inhibition of the pro-oxidant enzymes that produce free radicals (Kamiloglu et al., 2006). The increase in plasma liposoluble vitamins may also be attributed to the ability of the natural compounds to strengthen the endogenous antioxidant system. This is achieved by controlling the oxidative metabolism, by reducing the production of reactive oxygen radicals, and by inducing enzymes with antioxidant activities (Zhu et al., 1999). Comparable data have been obtained in previous studies on hares, on naturally milk-fed lambs and ewes, all fed a diet supplemented with a natural extract rich in polyphenols (Palazzo et al., 2011; Casamassima et al., 2012, 2013a). Also, in pigs (Rossi et al., 2013, 2017) and broilers (Attia et al., 2017a; 2017b; 2018), a dietary supplementation with natural extracts increased the blood antioxidant activity, which in pigs was measured with a biological KRL test.

### **5.7 CONCLUSION**

Our data on the productive and reproductive performances suggest that the lower dosage of dietary supplement containing prebiotic polysaccharides from brown seaweeds (*Laminaria spp.*) plus phenolic acid, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins, flavonoids from plant extracts positively affect the antioxidant status of does without influence other parameters. An environmentally-friendly dietary integration seems to be promising in supporting the does' health, by enhancing the antioxidant status. Further studies *in field* condition are needed to evaluate the effects of feed supplements on rabbit does' zootechnical parameters and to explore the mechanism of action on gut health.

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## **CHAPTER 6**

**Trial 3. Effects of dietary levels of brown seaweeds and plant polyphenols on growth and meat quality parameters in growing rabbit.**

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## 6.1 ABSTRACT

Growth performances, carcass characteristics and meat quality parameters from growing rabbit fed with two levels of dietary brown seaweed (*Laminaria spp*) and plant polyphenols were investigated. One hundred and forty-four New Zealand White rabbits were allotted into three dietary treatments containing 0 (C), 0.3% (T1), and 0.6% (T2) of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture for 42 days. Growth performances and carcass weight were improved in T1 group. Vitamin A and E content in *Longissimus thoracis and lumborum* (LTL) and *Semimembranosus* (SM) muscle were enhanced in the treated groups. In the SM muscle, the oxidative stability was improved in rabbit fed with both dosages of dietary supplement, and the cholesterol content tended to be lower in T1 than in T2 and C groups. The LTL and SM muscle sensory characteristics were improved. In conclusion, dietary integration with a low dosage of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols is a valid strategy for enhance growth performance and produce healthier rabbit meat.

## 6.2 INTRODUCTION

Animal welfare and farm sustainability are key factors in animal production systems (Dawkins, 2016). Consumers increasingly demand products of animal origin that come from production chains certified for animal welfare. Production institutions also restrict antibiotic use to prevent antibiotic resistance (Roca et al., 2015). Therefore, sustainable nutritional strategies able to support animal health and enhance product quality are required.

In recent years, herbs and spices containing polyphenols have been investigated as feed supplements to improve rabbit health and meat quality parameters, due to their effects on the digestive function and growth performance and their antioxidant and antimicrobial properties (Dalle Zotte, Celia & Szendrő, 2016). In this context, seaweeds are also potentially important in animal nutrition due to their high content of bioactive molecules (Makkar et al., 2016). In particular, brown seaweed has been of interest as a functional dietary ingredient, due to its various health benefits related to its sulfated polysaccharides, phlorotannin, diterpenes, minerals and vitamins content (Maghin, Ratti & Corino, 2014).

Rabbit meat is particularly appreciated by consumers due to its healthy properties (Wang, Su, Elzo, Jia, Chen, & Lai, 2016). Compared to other meats, rabbit has low fat and cholesterol content and high levels of protein with essential amino acids, and with a high digestibility value (Dalle Zotte, 2002). The high degree of unsaturation of fatty acids makes this meat particularly susceptible to oxidative processes during storage, with negative effects on sensory parameters and nutritional value (Dal Bosco et al., 2014). Previous studies have reported that in rabbit meat lipid oxidation can be prevented using vitamin E or natural extract supplements, which are good sources of dietary antioxidants (Corino, Pastorelli, Pantaleo, Oriani, & Salvatori, 1999; Dal Bosco et al., 2014; Dalle Zotte et al., 2016; Vizzarri, Palazzo, D'Alessandro, & Casamassima, 2017).

There is a growing interest in the use of natural supplements in rabbit nutrition to enhance productive performance, thus improving rabbit health and meat quality parameters (Hassan, Mahrose, & Basyony, 2016). Dalle Zotte et al., (2016) reported that several herbs and spices containing polyphenols have shown positive effects such as being growth promoters, antimicrobials and antioxidants in rabbit species. Makkar et al. (2016) reported that dietary supplementation with brown seaweed in rabbit has different effects: *Laminaria spp.* improved blood lipid profiles, but the use of *Ascophillum nodosum* should be avoided because it had a toxic effect. No previous studies have reported the effects of dietary brown seaweed in association with plant polyphenols in growing

rabbit and on growth performances and meat quality parameters. Thus, the aim of the study was to investigate the effects of a dietary brown seaweeds and plant polyphenols mixture on productive performance, carcass characteristics, and meat quality parameters in growing rabbits.

## 6.3 MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Animal and experimental treatments

Rabbits were handled following the guidelines for animal experiments, indicated in the EU Directive 2010/63/EU and national guidelines for the care and use of animals were followed and all experimental procedures involving animals were approved by the National Agricultural and Food Centre ethical committee (No. NPPC 18-10-2016).

A total of 144 New Zealand White rabbits, half males and half females, were housed at the National Agricultural and Food Centre, Nitra (Slovak Republic). At weaning, the 35-day-old rabbits were randomly allotted into three experimental groups balanced for sex (48 rabbits per treatment).

Rabbits were housed in cages (2 females and 2 males cage) and the trial lasted 42 days. The cages were equipped with a hopper for feed and an automatic nipple drinking system. The lighting cycle throughout the trial was 16h of light and 8h of dark. Heating and forced ventilation system allowed the building temperature to be maintained within  $18 \pm 4^\circ \text{C}$ . The relative humidity was about  $70 \pm 5\%$ . Rabbits were fed a control diet (C) or T1 and T2 diets, which were supplemented with 0.3% and 0.6% of feed additive consisting of prebiotic polysaccharides from brown seaweeds (*Laminaria Digitate* and *Hyperborea*, ratio 1:1) plus phenolic acid, hydroxycinnamic acids, tannins, and flavonoids from plant extracts.

The diets included no anticoccidials, antibiotics or other medications. The supplement was included in the basal mashed diet. All the experimental diets were pelleted. The two dosages of the natural extract were chosen after an *in vitro* evaluation of the minimal inhibitory concentration (MIC) against *Clostridium* spp., *Staphylococcus* spp., and *Escherichia coli* spp. (Tosi, personal communication). The ingredients and chemical composition of the experimental diets are reported in Table 1.

The chemical composition of the diets and feed supplement were in accordance with the methods of the Association of Analytical Chemists (AOAC, 2002). The quantitative analysis of the phenolic compounds of the supplement was performed using HPLC-UV-DAD, according to Russo et al. (2017). The quantification of beta-carotene of the feed supplement was performed in accordance with the method proposed by Rakusa, Srećnik, & Roskar (2017). The chemical composition, phenolic composition and carotenoid content of the feed supplement is reported in Table 2.

Throughout the study feed was available *ad libitum* and animals were monitored daily to assess their health conditions. They were weighted at the beginning (0 day), at 21 days and at the end of the experiment trial (42 days). The daily feed intake was calculated from the amounts of feed offered and refused weekly. These data were used to calculate the average daily gain (ADG), average daily feed intake (ADFI), and feed conversion ratio (FCR).

At 77 days old all rabbits were weighted, and after 6 h fasting, 12 animals per group (1 male rabbit/cage) were randomly selected and slaughtered at the research center slaughterhouse. Rabbits were subjected to electrical stunning and sacrificed by bleeding according with the guidelines established by the European Community (1099/2009/EC) for the protection of animals during slaughter. Carcasses were chilled for 24 h at  $+4^\circ\text{C}$  and then dissected, according to the

recommendations of the WRSA (Blasco & Ouhayoun, 1996), discarding the skin, the distal part of the limbs, genitals, bladder, and gastrointestinal tract, and carcass measurements and meat quality analyses were conducted. The *Longissimus thoracis* and *lumborum* (LTL) muscle and thighs (n = 12) were removed from each carcass. Samples were vacuum packed and stored at -20°C until lab analyses. The *Semimembranosus* (SM) and the LTL muscles (n = 12) were subjected to lab analyses to investigate their meat quality parameters.

**Table 1.** Ingredients and chemical composition of experimental diets (g/kg).

Ingredients	Experimental diet <sup>a</sup>		
	CON	T1	T2
Maize	282	279	276
Alfalfa hay	305	305	305
Sunflower meal	135	135	135
Palm seed oil	8	8	8
Soybean oil	7	7	7
Wheat	80	80	80
Cane molasses	20	20	20
Carob bean meal	90	90	90
Oat	53	53	53
Calcium carbonate	7	7	7
Sodium Chloride	3	3	3
Dicalcium phosphate	2	2	2
DL-Methionine (99%)	2.5	2.5	2.5
L-Lysine HCl (78.5%)	1.6	1.6	1.6
Choline (75%)	1.4	1.4	1.4
Vitamin and mineral premix <sup>c</sup>	2.5	2.5	2.5
Dietary supplement	0	3	6
<i>Chemical composition, <sup>b</sup></i>			
Crude protein	184	183.6	183.5
Ether extract	35.7	35.5	35.5
Crude fibre	187	186.8	187
Ash	86	85.7	85.8
Nitrogen free extract	507	507.1	506.9
NDF	302.1	301.5	301.7
ADF	195.8	195.4	195.3
ADL	39.9	39.5	39.5

<sup>a</sup> CON= control group; T1= group supplemented with 0.3% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols ; T2= group supplemented with 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols ;

<sup>b</sup> Analyses determined in triplicate.

<sup>c</sup> Supplied per kg diet: 13,500 I.U. vitamin A (trans-retinyl acetate); 800 I.U. vitamin D3 (cholecalciferol); 35 mg vitamin E ( $\alpha$ -tocopherol min 91%), 35 mg copper (cupric sulphate pentahydrate).

**Table 2.** Chemical composition and polyphenols content of the dietary supplement.

<b>Item</b>	<b>% on dry matter</b>
Dry matter	93.58 ± 5.05
Crude Protein	7.21 ± 0.99
Ether extract	0.32 ± 0.01
Crude fibre	11.20 ± 1.02
Carbohydrates	60.84 ± 3.18
Ash	32.68 ± 1.38
Compounds: <sup>b</sup>	mg/kg dry weight
β-Carotene	402 ± 30.89
<b>Phenolic Acid:</b>	
Dihydroxybenzoic acid	≤ LOD <sup>a</sup>
Syringic acid	1059.79 ± 62.82
<b>Hydroxycinnamic acids:</b>	
Neochlorogenic acid	7979.23 ± 468.11
Rosmarinic acid	126.54 ± 8.67
Trans sinapic acid	105.54 ± 8.09
Chlorogenic acid	21.45 ± 3.65
<b>Tannins:</b>	
Ellagic acid	2440.88 ± 148.29
Rutin	272.37 ± 20.82
<b>Flavonoids:</b>	
Myricetin	53.88 ± 5.68
Kaempferol	≤ LOD

<sup>a</sup> Limit of detection;

<sup>b</sup> value are expressed as means ( $n= 4$ ) ± standard deviation.

### **Physical parameters**

The pH and color parameters were measured 24 h after slaughter. The pH was performed using a pH meter (HI98191 microcomputer; Hanna Instruments, Vila do Conde, Portugal). The pH probe was calibrated using standard buffers of pH 4.0 and 7.0 and the maintenance of calibration was monitored between samples.

The International Commission on Illumination's (CIE) lightness ( $L^*$ ), redness ( $a^*$ ), and yellowness ( $b^*$ ) values were measured for the samples using a CR-300 Chroma Meter (Minolta Camera, Co., Osaka, Japan). The instrument was calibrated on the Commission Internationale d'Eclairage (CIE) LAB color space system using a white calibration plate (Calibration Plate CR-A43; Minolta Camera Co.). The colorimeter had an 8-mm measuring area and was illuminated with a pulsed Xenon arc lamp (illuminat C) at a viewing angle of  $0^\circ$ . Reflectance measurements were obtained at a viewing angle of  $0^\circ$  and the spectral component was included. The color variables were measured at three different points on the central part of the samples. Moreover, total color differences (TDC) were calculated using the following equation:  $\Delta E^* = (\Delta L^{*2} + \Delta a^{*2} + \Delta b^{*2})^{1/2}$ .

### **Chemical parameters**

Dry matter (DM), protein, ether extract (EE), and ash contents of the LTL and SM muscles were determined according to AOAC (2002) methods. Dry matter was determined by the oven drying method at  $105^\circ\text{C}$  until constant weight (method 950.46), protein by the Kjeldahl method (method 990.03) using a 6.25 factor to convert the nitrogen content into total protein, the ether extract by Soxhlet extraction (method 920.39), and ash by using a muffle furnace for 12 h at  $550^\circ\text{C}$  (method 920.153).

The cholesterol content of the LTL and SM muscles was determined in accordance with the procedure of Du and Ahn (2002). Lipids were extracted from 1.5 g of minced meat homogenate with 33% KOH (ratio of 94:6), using Ultra-Turrax T18 Homogenizer (IKA, Cincinnati, USA) and keeping in ice to avoid oxidation processes. Cholesterol was extracted with 5 ml of hexane, and  $1\ \mu\text{l}$  was injected into the gas chromatograph. The cholesterol was identified based on the retention time of the standard (Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA), and quantified with the Chrom Card Data System (version 1.17) software by comparing the peak area with the reference standard curve. All samples were analyzed in triplicate.

### **Oxidative stability**

Meat oxidative stability was measured by evaluating the thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) content of  $4^\circ\text{C}$  chilling SM meat samples at 0 h, and then at 24 h and 72 h, in accordance with Meineri, Cornale, Tassone, and Peiretti (2010). The implemented method was as follows: 500 mg of meat was homogenized with 10 mL of distilled water using a Homogenizer Ultra Turrax T25 (IKA, Cincinnati, USA), and 2.5 mL of 25% trichloroacetic acid was added to the homogenized sample, cooled at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  for 15 min, and then centrifuged at 4000 g at  $4^\circ\text{C}$  for 5 min. The supernatant was filtered through Whatman 52 filter paper, and an aliquot of 3.5 mL was added to 1.5 mL of 0.67% thiobarbituric acid and incubated at  $70^\circ\text{C}$  for 30 min.

Immediately after cooling, the absorbance of the sample was read in a spectrophotometer at 532 nm and compared to a standard curve of malondialdehyde (MDA; Sigma Aldrich, St. Louis, USA). All analyses were performed in duplicate and the results were expressed as mg of MDA per kg of meat.

### **Vitamin E and A content**

Alpha-tocopherol and retinol were determined in both muscles using a procedure modified from Zaspel and Csallany (1983). The muscles were analyzed using an HPLC system (Kontron Instruments, Milan, Italy) consisting of an autosampler (HPLC autosampler 360, Kontron Instruments, Milan, Italy) with a loop of 20  $\mu$ L, a high-pressure pump and a C18 column 5  $\mu$ m, 150 mm x 4.6 mm (Phenomenex, Torrance, CA, USA). The mobile phase consisted of acetonitrile and methanol (75: 25 v/v) and a flow rate of 1 mL per min was used. The alpha-tocopherol and retinol were identified using a fluorimeter detector and comparing the samples' retention time with the pure standards (97%) purchased from Sigma Aldrich (St. Louis, USA). The quantification was carried out using the Geminix system (version 1.91) by comparing the area sample peak with that of the reference standards curve.

### **Sensory evaluation**

The LTL muscle and thigh preparation for sensory analysis was conducted after thawing for 24h at 4°C. Both samples were then prepared as single pieces in an uncovered stainless-steel dish in a conventional oven (REX, Italy) at 180°C. A thermocouple (Pentronic AB, Gunnebobruk, Sweden) was inserted into the center of each piece of meat to register the core temperature. The samples were removed from the oven at 75-80°C to allow for post-heating rise. After cooling the entire LTL muscle and thigh were cut into 1.5cm thick slices (Electrolux 50, 220-24, kW0.2). The slices were warmed to 60°C before the evaluation.

A trained sensory panel, consisting of eight members familiar with descriptive analysis procedures (EN ISO 13299, 2010), was established. All assessments were carried out in a sensory laboratory equipped according to EN ISO 8598, (1989) recommendations. The list of descriptors, definitions, and standards are reported in Palazzo, Vizzarri, Nardoia, Ratti, Pastorelli, and Casamassima (2015). The sensory profile was assessed according to EN ISO 13299 (2010) and the panel evaluated the two samples (thigh and LTL) on different days in triplicate. Within each session the design was balanced for order and carry-over effects (MacFie, Bratchell, Greenhoff, & Vallis, 1989). During training and sampling, the panelists had access to unlimited water and unsalted crackers. They were requested to evaluate the intensity of each attribute by assigning a score between 1 (absence of the sensation) and 9 (extremely intense).

## 6.4 STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Data on productive performance and slaughter parameters, were analyzed using one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), with diet as fixed effect and cage as random effect (SPSS/PC Statistics 25.0 SPSS Inc., IBM). Meat physical and chemical parameters were processed with a one way ANOVA, with diet as fixed effect. A repeated measure ANOVA with diet, storage time and their interaction as fixed effects, was used to analyzed TBARS data. Means were compared according to the Duncan's test. The sensory data were submitted to ANOVA with samples, judges, replicates, and their interactions as effects (EN ISO 13299, 2010). The significance of these effects was tested with F tests. Post-hoc pairwise contrasts were evaluated by Duncan's test. The cage was considered as the experimental unit for growth performance and the rabbit for the meat quality parameters. Data are reported as mean  $\pm$  SEM. Differences among treatments were considered significant at  $P < .05$ .

## 6.5 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### Productive performance and carcass characteristics

The data of the productive performance of growing rabbits are reported in Table 3. The live weight was improved at 21 days ( $P < .05$ ) and tended to be higher at 42 days ( $P = .06$ ) in rabbit fed a lower dosage of the dietary supplement (T1 group) than the other two groups. Therefore, the ADG (0-42 d) tended to be higher ( $P = .06$ ) in the T1 group. The feed conversion ratio was also improved ( $P < .01$ ) in rabbits fed with a diet containing 0.3% of the natural extract mixture. The ADFI was lower in T2 than in C groups ( $P < .05$ ) in the first period of the trial (0-21 d). Considering the ADFI in the first period of the trial, it is possible that the high dosage of bioactive compounds of the supplement negatively affected diet palatability and consequently growth as previously observed in rat fed high dosage of ellagic acid (Cerdá, Cerón, Tomás-Barberán & Espín 2003).

The slaughter weight ( $2.71 \pm 0.067$  kg C vs  $2.91 \pm 0.035$  kg T1 vs  $2.80 \pm 0.052$  kg T2;  $P = .013$ ) and carcass weight ( $1.61 \pm 0.041$  kg C vs  $1.75 \pm 0.026$  kg T1 vs  $1.66 \pm 0.029$  kg T2;  $P = .012$ ) of the sampled rabbits were higher in the T1 group than in the others. The dressing percentage was not affected by the dietary treatments ( $59.4 \pm 0.434$  % C vs  $59.6 \pm 0.327$  % T1 vs  $59.7 \pm 0.446$  % T2;  $P = .929$ ). The data is thus in agreement with previous studies of post-weaning piglets that reported an improvement in ADG due to dietary supplementation with *Laminaria* spp. extract (Gahan, Lynch, Callan, O'Sullivan, & O'Doherty, 2009; McDonnell, Figat, & O'Doherty, 2010). An enhancement of growth performance was also observed in broilers with a dietary supplementation of *Ascophillum nodosum* meal (Evans & Critchley, 2014). Brown seaweed contains a high amount of water-soluble polysaccharides such as laminarins, fucoidans, and alginates. These constituents have been shown to have prebiotic effects and to reduce pathogenic microorganisms in the gastrointestinal tract in both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies (Chen et al., 2018; Sweeney et al., 2011). *In vitro* prebiotic activity of fucoidans and alginates from brown seaweed has been found with an increase in the growth rate of *Lactobacillus* spp. (Okolie, Rajendran, Udenigwe, Aryee, & Mason, 2017). In addition, Lynch, Sweeney, Callan, O'Sullivan, and O'Doherty (2010) reported that laminarins have antibacterial properties, stimulate *Bifidobacteria*, and increase the production of short chain fatty acid (SFA) in the gut.

Studies have reported conflicting data on plant polyphenols supplementation and the enhancement of growth performance. Zhao, Xu, Du, Li, and Zhang (2005) found an improvement in feed intake

and growth performance in growing rabbits fed traditional Chinese herbs, which contain polyphenols. In another study, dietary supplementation with microalgae spirulina and thyme was not found to affect rabbit performance (Dalle Zotte, Sartori, Bohatir, Remignon, & Ricci, 2013). Palazzo et al. (2015) also reported no differences in ADG and the final weight of rabbit fed *Lippia citriodora* extract.

In the present study, the active principles of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols had a positive effect on antioxidant status, as shown in the TBARS values and the vitamin E content of the muscles, and probably on gut bacteria populations, due to more efficient feed utilization and consequently an improvement in growth performance. Indeed, positive effects on digestibility of nitrogen (N), gross energy (GE), fibers (NDF), and ash have been reported in post-weaning weaned piglets (O'Doherty, Dillon, Figat, Callan, & Sweeney, 2010; O'Shea, McAlpine, Sweeney Varley & O'Doherty, 2014).

**Table 3.** Productive performances of growing rabbits fed control diet and diets supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively).

Item	Dietary treatment			SEM	P-value
	C	T1	T2		
Live weight, g					
0d	830.2	846.0	789.4	21.02	0.161
21d	1860.9 <sup>b</sup>	1996.3 <sup>a</sup>	1825.3 <sup>b</sup>	44.15	0.024
42d	2655.9	2834.8	2725.2	52.40	0.066
ADG <sup>c</sup> , g/d					
0d-21d	49.1	54.8	49.3	1.84	0.062
21d-42d	37.9	39.9	42.9	2.19	0.284
0d-42d	43.5	47.4	46.1	1.15	0.067
ADFI <sup>d</sup> , g/d					
0d-21d	154.9 <sup>a</sup>	142.0 <sup>ab</sup>	136.8 <sup>b</sup>	5.07	0.046
21d-42d	188.8	175.6	192.6	8.99	0.382
0d-42d	171.8	158.8	164.7	6.54	0.379
FC <sup>e</sup> , kg/kg					
0d-21d	3.20	2.59	2.89	0.17	0.057
21d-42d	5.03 <sup>a</sup>	4.41 <sup>b</sup>	4.58 <sup>ab</sup>	0.18	0.049
0d-42d	3.94 <sup>a</sup>	3.35 <sup>b</sup>	3.60 <sup>ab</sup>	0.11	0.003

Data are reported as mean ± pooled SEM n=12 (cages with 4 rabbits per cage)

C= Control; T1 = dietary supplementation of 0.3% of polyphenols and seaweeds mixture and T2 = dietary supplementation of 0.6% of polyphenols and seaweeds

<sup>a</sup> Values in the same row are different at  $P < .05$ .

<sup>b</sup> Values in the same row are different at  $P < .05$ .

<sup>c</sup> ADG= average daily gain;

<sup>d</sup> ADFI= feed intake;

<sup>e</sup> FC = feed conversion ratio.



### Meat quality parameters of LTL and SM muscles

The data on the physical and chemical parameters of the LTL and SM muscles are reported in Table 4 and 5, respectively. The pH values were affected by dietary treatments in both LTL and SM muscles ( $P < .05$ ), but the ranges fall within the values reported in previous studies (Maj, Bieniek, & Łapa, 2008; Carrilho, López, & Campo, 2009).

No difference ( $P > .05$ ) was observed for the color indexes in either muscle in terms of dietary treatments, in agreement with the data reported for the LTL and SM muscles (Daszkiewicz, Gugolek, Janiszewski, Kubiak, & Czoik, 2012; Tůmová, Bízková, Skřivanová, Chodová, Martinec, & Volek, 2014). The TCD values resulted 1.41 and 1.33 for T1 and T2 treatment respectively, indicating small difference in perceivable colour (TCD  $< 1.5$ ) (Adekunte, Tiwari, Cullen, Scannell, & O'donnell, 2010). The chemical composition of the LTL muscle was not affected by the dietary treatment, except that the ash content was lower ( $P < .001$ ) in muscles from rabbit in the T1 group than those in the C and T2 groups. These data are in line with the results of previous studies on growing rabbit (Dal Bosco, Castellini, Bianchi, & Mugnai, 2004; Daszkiewicz et al., 2012).

**Table 4.** Physical parameters of *Longissimus thoracis and lumborum* and *Semimembranosus muscle* of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively).

Item	Dietary treatment			SEM	P-value
	C	T1	T2		
<i>Longissimus thoracis and lumborum</i>					
pH, 24 h	5.86 <sup>b</sup>	5.92 <sup>a</sup>	5.86 <sup>b</sup>	0.010	0.020
Color indexes:					
L*	55.91	55.38	57.41	0.460	0.180
a*	4.01	3.90	3.96	0.252	0.944
b*	11.89	11.71	11.58	0.212	0.845
<i>Semimembranosus muscle</i>					
pH, 24 h SM	5.75 <sup>a</sup>	5.75 <sup>a</sup>	5.84 <sup>b</sup>	0.015	0.021
Color indexes:					
L*	64.24	63.44	64.31	3.391	0.994
a*	5.46	6.25	6.31	0.523	0.776
b*	3.97	4.23	2.95	0.392	0.394

n=12; data are reported as mean  $\pm$  pooled SEM;

<sup>a</sup> Values in the same row are different at  $P < 0.05$ .

<sup>b</sup> Values in the same row are different at  $P < 0.05$ .

**Table 5.** Chemical composition of *Longissimus thoracis and lumborum* and *Semimembranosus* muscle of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively).

Item	Dietary treatment			SEM	P-value
	C	T1	T2		
<i>Longissimus thoracis and lumborum</i>					
Moisture, %	72.82	73.02	73.41	0.182	0.412
Crude protein, %	24.50	23.76	24.40	0.176	0.210
Ether extract, %	1.17	0.90	0.95	0.064	0.123
Ash, %	1.20 <sup>A</sup>	0.94 <sup>B</sup>	1.04 <sup>B</sup>	0.030	<0.001
Cholesterol, mg/100g	32.72	27.22	34.62	2.210	0.373
<i>Semimembranosus muscle</i>					
Moisture, %	73.79	73.67	73.67	0.269	0.533
Crude protein, %	22.62	22.82	22.81	0.176	0.803
Ether extract, %	1.52	1.91	1.52	0.015	0.981
Ash, %	1.21	1.19	1.15	0.030	0.329
Cholesterol, mg/100g	53.25	30.47	42.08	4.052	0.056

n=12; data are reported as mean ± pooled SEM;

<sup>A, B</sup> values in the same row are different at  $P < 0.01$ .

In the SM muscle, the cholesterol content tended to be lower ( $P = .052$ ) in rabbit fed with the low dosage of dietary supplement (T1) than in those in the T2 and C groups. A previous study showed that dietary *Laminaria* spp. (1 g/d for 14 days) lowered cholesterol and triglycerides in rabbits with experimental hyperlipoproteinemia (Tang & Shen, 1989). In addition, Vizzarri et al. (2017) reported a lower cholesterol content in rabbit LTL muscle due to dietary supplementation with plant polyphenols, which can modulate the activity of enzyme 5-hydroxy-3-methylglutaryl-coenzyme A (HMG-CoA) reductase, which regulates the metabolic pathway for cholesterol synthesis (Kowalska & Bielański, 2009).

In other animal species such as pigs, donkeys, horses and lambs dietary supplementation with natural extracts containing plant polyphenols was found to slightly affect the pH, color indexes and muscle chemical composition (Rossi, Pastorelli, Cannata, Tavaniello, Maiorano, & Corino, 2013; Rossi et al., 2017a; Valenti et al., 2019).

### **Vitamin content of LTL and SM muscles**

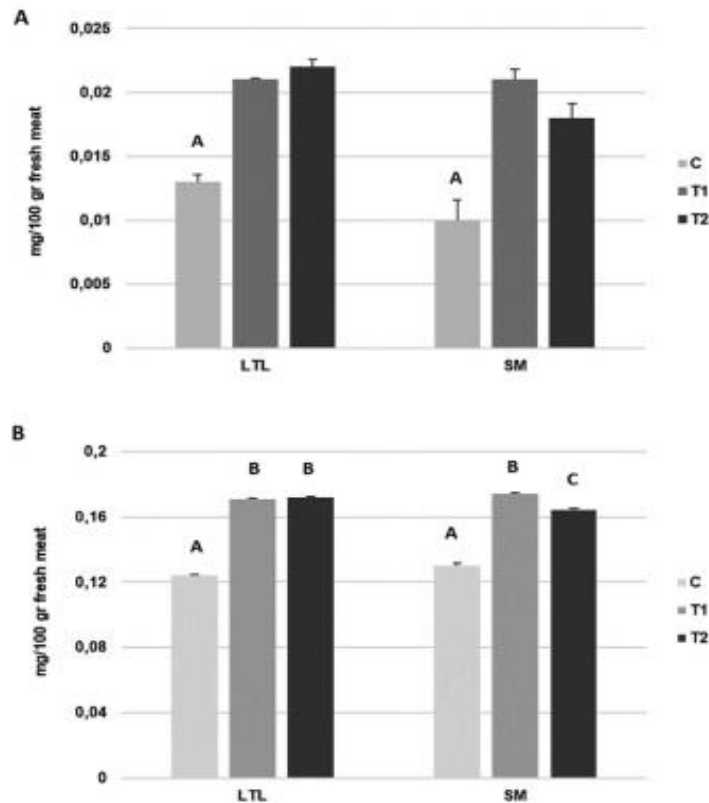
Figure 1 (A, B) shows the vitamin A and E content of LTL and SM muscles in terms of the dietary treatments. The vitamin A content was higher ( $P < .001$ ) in the LTL muscle of rabbit fed brown seaweed and plant polyphenols (T1 and T2 groups) than in the control. In the SM muscle a higher content ( $P < .001$ ) of vitamin A was observed in the T1 group than in the C and T2 groups. Vitamin E content was higher in the LTL muscles of rabbit in the T1 and T2 groups than in the control group. In the SM muscle a higher content ( $P < .001$ ) of vitamin E was observed in the T1 group than in the C and T2 groups.

The higher content of vitamin A in muscles from rabbit of T1 and T2 groups than control should be related to the carotene content and the several antioxidant compounds from the dietary supplement. The carotenoids are present in *Laminaria* spp. in amount variable from 468 to 1065 mg/kg DM as reported by Jacobsen, Sorensen Holdt, Akoh, & Hermund (2019).

The dietary supplement contained several polyphenol compounds such as neochlorogenic acid, syringic acid and ellagic acids that possess a high antioxidant activity. As observed in rat the dietary hydroxycinnamic acid derivatives protecting vitamin E from oxidation in all tissues (Frank, Kamal-Eldin, Razdan, Lundh, & Vessby, 2003). Moreover, it is reported by Kumar, Prahalathan, & Raja (2012) that dietary supplementation with syringic acid in hypertensive rat positively affect vitamin E and C serum and tissue, reducing oxidative stress.

A previous study reported that *Ascophyllum nodosum* extract increases serum vitamin A in lamb and liver vitamin E in beef (Allen et al., 2001). Other studies of pigs reported that dietary supplementation with brown seaweed (*Ascophyllum* spp.; *Laminaria* spp.) increased the antioxidant status of piglets, measured as plasma superoxide dismutase, catalase, and muscle TBARS (Wang et al., 2016; Moroney, O'Grady, Robertson, Stanton, O' Doherty, & Kerry, 2015). The present data agree with Palazzo et al. (2015), who reported an increase in vitamin E content in the LTL muscle of New Zealand white rabbit fed a high dosage of *Lippia Citriodora* extract. Palazzo, Schiavitto, Cinone, and Vizzarri (2019) recently reported an increase in fat-soluble vitamins (vitamin A and vitamin E) in LTL muscles of rabbit fed natural extract containing the hydroxycinnamic ester derivative widely distributed in plants, called verbascoside, with a high antioxidant activity (Gil, Enache, & Oliveira-Brett, 2013). Thus, the higher muscle vitamin A and E content is related to the content of phenols, carotenoid fucoxanthin, tannins and phlorotannins and polysaccharides in brown seaweed as fucooidans, laminarans and vitamins (Jacobsen, Sorensen Holdt, Akoh, & Hermund, 2019) and to the antioxidant activity of plant polyphenols that preserve vitamin E oxidation through several well-known mechanisms (Cimmino et al., 2018).

**Figure 1.** Vitamin A (A) and Vitamin E (B) content of *Longissimus thoracis and lumborum* (LTL) and *Semimembranosus* muscle (SM) of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively; n=12). Data are reported as mean  $\pm$  SEM; <sup>A, B, C</sup> values with differ superscript letters are different at  $P < .001$ . (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

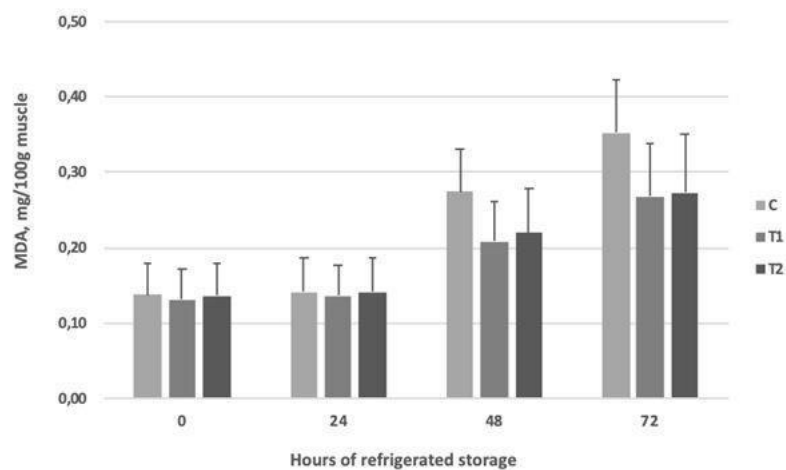


### Oxidative stability of SM muscle

The oxidative stability of the SM muscle in terms of the dietary treatments and time of storage is reported in Figure 2. We analyzed the SM muscle to verify the antioxidant activity of the natural mixture on a muscle with a higher fat content than the LTL muscle and a different oxidative metabolism (Gondret et al., 2004). The oxidative stability of the SM muscle was affected ( $P < .001$ ) by dietary treatments and storage time. A significant interaction between storage time and dietary treatment was also observed ( $P < .001$ ). The oxidative stability at both sampling times was higher in groups fed the brown seaweed and polyphenols mixture than in the control. In agreement with the present data, Moroney, O' Grady, O'Doherty, and Kerry (2012) reported a high oxidative stability in the *Longissimus dorsi* muscle of pigs fed with seaweed extract (*Laminaria digitata*). In beef fed *Ascophyllum nodosum* extract a high muscle oxidative stability was also observed (Allen et al., 2001). A high oxidative stability in the LTL muscles of animals fed plant polyphenols was also reported in pigs, *Equidae*, goats and rabbit (Cimmino et al., 2018; Rossi et al., 2017a; Rossi, Stella, Ratti, Maghin, Tirloni, & Corino, 2017b; Palazzo et al., 2015; Palazzo et al., 2019). Usually natural antioxidant can reduce lipid oxidation, enhancing meat shelf-life, since they are able to block the oxidative chain propagation reactions.

Polyphenols have a high antioxidant activity, through several mechanisms: as a scavenger of free radicals (Zheng et al., 2009), as transition metal chelators (Andjelković et al., 2006) and as quencher of free singlet oxygen (Mukai, Nagai, & Ohara 2003).

**Figure 2.** Oxidative stability of *Semimembranosus* muscle of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively) in relation to dietary treatments and time of refrigerated storage at 4°C.



Results are expressed as mean values  $\pm$  SEM (n=12). Time effect for  $P < .001$ , Treatment effect for  $P < .001$ , interaction between time  $\times$  Treatment for  $P < .001$ . (For interpretation of the references to color in this figure legend, the reader is referred to the web version of this article).

### Sensory profile

The F values for the aroma, taste, flavor and texture parameters of the LTL sensory profile are reported in Table 6. The results indicate that dietary supplementation with brown seaweed and plant polyphenols affected the aroma and flavor of the LTL muscle ( $P < .05$ ). The F values for replicates and interactions were not affected ( $P > .05$ ) in all the descriptors, while judges presented differences ( $P < .01$ ) for aroma and flavor. Differences between judges are common in sensory evaluations, due to the different use of the scale (Lea, Naes, & Rodbotten, 1997). No interaction between panelists  $\times$  replicates and samples  $\times$  replicates were observed.

In Table 7, the F values for aroma, taste, flavor, and texture parameters of the thigh sensory profile are reported. The data showed that dietary supplementation with brown seaweed and plant polyphenols affected the aroma and texture of the thigh ( $P < .05$ ). The F values for replicates were not affected ( $P > .05$ ) for all the descriptors, while judges presented differences ( $P < .05$ ) for aroma, flavor and texture. No interaction between judges  $\times$  replicates and samples  $\times$  replicates were observed in LTL, while in thigh, the interaction judges  $\times$  samples was significant ( $P < .05$ ). It is probably due to the type of samples analyzed. In fact, the thigh is more variable from a chemical point of view than LTL muscle that is more homogeneous, where we did not observe any statistical

interaction. These results did not influence the overall sensory evaluation, in fact no differences were reported for the same attributed perceived as flavour.

The F values for aroma, taste, flavor, and texture parameters in both the LTL muscle and the thigh highlight the excellent reproducibility of the scores given by the panelists and the homogeneity of samples during replicates.

The least squares mean of the different attributes for the LTL muscle and thigh are reported in Table 8 and Table 9, respectively. The data shows that taste and texture parameters were comparable in all the experimental groups. In the LTL muscle, a difference ( $P < .05$ ) for aroma (rabbit, liver and rancid) and rabbit flavor were observed. The intensity of rabbit aroma and flavour was higher ( $P < .05$ ) in the T1 and T2 groups than in the control, and the same result was observed for liver aroma. The rancid aroma was higher ( $P < .05$ ) in the T2 group than in the T1 and control groups.

In the thigh, dietary treatments affected ( $P < .05$ ) the aroma (rabbit, liver, and metallic) and the texture parameters. The rabbit aroma and flavor were higher ( $P < .01$ ) in the T1 and T2 groups than in the controls and the same result was observed for liver aroma. The rancid aroma was higher ( $P < .05$ ) in the T2 group than in T1 and the control groups. In terms of texture data, higher scores for tenderness and juiciness were observed in thighs from animals fed the natural supplement (T1 and T2) than in the control, while a lower score was given for stringiness ( $P < .05$ ) in T1 and T2 than in the control. As previously observed in rabbit fed natural antioxidants, the high values for tenderness may be a result of the protection against the oxidation process (Palazzo et al., 2015). In our previous study of *Equidae*, dietary supplementation with an extract containing plant polyphenols enhanced meat texture parameters (Rossi et al., 2017a). This parameter is important for consumers' eating habits and is closely linked with consumer expectations of rabbit meat quality. The results of the present study indicate that the mean scores for each descriptor could be assumed to be satisfactory for the sensory profile of rabbit meat. The sensory evaluation showed that dietary supplementation with natural extract mixture containing brown seaweeds and plant polyphenols affects aroma in the LTL muscle and the aroma and texture in the thigh.

**Table 6.** Sensory evaluation of *Longissimus thoracis and lumborum* muscle: F value and statistical significance of treatments (n=3), judges (n = 8), replicates (n = 3) and their interaction for each sensory descriptor.

Descriptors	Samples	Judges	F value			
			Replicates	SxJ <sup>a</sup>	SxR	JxR
Aroma						
Rabbit	10.75***	1.40	0.92	1.21	1.16	0.64
Liver	7.88**	3.65**	0.31	2.86	0.12	0.27
Rancid	5.97*	4.17**	1.05	1.65	1.83	1.20
Taste						
Sweet	1.25	1.80	0.90	1.08	1.66	0.57
Salty	1.55	1.30	1.88	0.50	1.11	0.94
Flavour						
Rabbit	11.56***	4.07**	0.34	2.43	1.51	0.85
Liver	2.77	2.39**	0.81	1.49	0.60	0.31
Rancid	1.74	4.26**	0.32	2.20	0.39	0.56
Texture						
Tender	1.57	1.37	0.50	0.81	0.78	1.11
Juicy	0.24	1.39	1.89	0.76	0.83	1.33
Stringy	2.80	1.66	1.12	0.87	2.00	1.20

Significant: \*\*\*= 99,9%; \*\* = 99%; \* = 95%; n.s. = no significant

<sup>a</sup> SxJ = Samples x Judges; SxR= Samples x Replicates; JxR= Judges x Replicates.

**Table 7.** Sensory evaluation of thigh: F value and statistical significance of treatments, judges (n = 8), replicates (n = 3) and their interaction for each sensory descriptor.

Descriptors	Samples	Judges	F value			
			Replicates	SxJ <sup>a</sup>	SxR	JxR
Aroma						
Rabbit	4.88*	1.51	1.54	0.60	0.67	1.13
Liver	3.92*	11.73***	1.38	5.31***	0.53	1.44
Metallic	3.61*	9.96***	0.20	4.90***	0.61	2.00
Taste						
Sweet	0.63	1.10	1.04	1.21	0.62	1.17
Salty	2.16	0.76	1.43	0.28	0.51	1.65
Flavour						
Rabbit	2.04	0.67	1.52	0.25	0.57	2.00
Liver	0.25	4.20	0.21	1.30	0.54	0.75
Metallic	0.29	4.26**	1.44	1.25	0.43	0.79
Texture						
Tender	3.30*	5.34	0.19	1.78	0.43	1.40
Juicy	8.70**	2.95*	1.30	0.84	0.69	0.97
Stringy	3.38*	4.26**	1.88	2.45*	0.97	1.09

Significant: \*\*\*= 99,9%; \*\* = 99%; \* = 95%; n.s. = no significant.

<sup>a</sup> SxJ = Samples x Judges; SxR= Samples x Replicates; JxR= Judges x Replicates.

**Table 8.** Mean values of sensory attributes of Longissimus thoracis and lumborum and Semimembranosus muscle of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3 or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively).

Descriptors	Dietary treatment		
	C	T1	T2
<u>Aroma</u>			
<u>Rabbit</u>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.8 <sup>b</sup>	6.4 <sup>b</sup>
<u>Liver</u>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.4 <sup>b</sup>	5.7 <sup>b</sup>
Rancid	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.1 <sup>a</sup>	5.5 <sup>b</sup>
Taste			
Sweet	5.0	4.4	5.0
Salty	5.0	5.4	5.4
Flavour			
Rabbit	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.8 <sup>b</sup>	6.1 <sup>b</sup>
Liver	5.0	5.4	5.6
Rancid	5.0	5.2	5.3
Texture			
Tender	5.0	5.3	5.5
Juicy	5.0	4.8	5.0
Stringy	5.0	5.6	5.7

<sup>a, b</sup> means within rows with different superscript letters differ significantly for  $P < 0.05$ .



**Table 9.** Mean values of sensory attributes of thigh of rabbits fed control diet (C) or diet supplemented with 0.3% or 0.6% of brown seaweed and plant polyphenols mixture (T1 and T2 respectively).

Descriptors	Dietary treatment		
	C	T1	T2
<u>Aroma</u>			
<u>Rabbit</u>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.8 <sup>b</sup>
<u>Liver</u>	5.0 <sup>b</sup>	4.5 <sup>a</sup>	4.9 <sup>b</sup>
Rancid	5.0 <sup>b</sup>	4.6 <sup>a</sup>	5.0 <sup>b</sup>
Taste			
Sweet	5.0	5.1	5.3
Salty	5.0	5.4	5.4
Flavour			
Rabbit	5.0	5.4	5.5
Liver	5.0	4.8	4.8
Rancid	5.0	4.9	4.8
Texture			
Tender	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.3 <sup>ab</sup>	5.5 <sup>b</sup>
Juicy	5.0 <sup>a</sup>	4.8 <sup>b</sup>	5.8 <sup>b</sup>
Stringy	5.0 <sup>b</sup>	4.2 <sup>a</sup>	4.4 <sup>ab</sup>

<sup>a, b</sup> means within rows with different superscript letters differ significantly for  $P < 0.05$ .

## 6.6 CONCLUSION

Dietary supplementation with the low dosage of brown seaweeds and plant polyphenols mixture can be considered a useful nutritional strategy in rabbit meat production, since an improvement of feed conversion ratio and muscles vitamin A and E content was achieved. The higher muscle vitamin content enhances both nutritional quality and oxidative stability. Sensory parameters related to aroma, flavour and texture are positively affected by dietary treatment. In the present experimental condition, the low dosage of the natural extract mixture seems to be useful for enhancing rabbit meat production. The higher dosage of supplement does not produce any adverse effects on rabbit performance or meat quality parameters and should be utilized in a more stressful breeding condition.

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# **CHAPTER 7**

## **GENERAL DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION**



This thesis has focused on verifying the effects of different natural extracts in animal nutrition on reproductive and growth performance, physiological parameters and meat quality. It highlights the effects of plant and seaweed extracts as dietary treatments in piglets and rabbits in different physiological periods.

In the first experiment, *Ajuga Reptans* containing teupolioside improved piglet health in the post-weaning phase. Our group found that plant extracts containing teupolioside have a greater antioxidant activity compared to other phenolic compounds. Further studies are needed to specify the mechanism of action and find the optimal dosage and length of experiment in order to improve the antioxidant and immunomodulant effects of teupolioside.

In the second experiment, dietary supplementation with brown seaweeds and polyphenols showed positive effects on the antioxidant status in rabbit does. No significant effects of the supplemented diet were observed on the reproductive performance, thus further studies are needed with a greater number of animals targeted for treatment and in standard breeding conditions.

In the last experiment, results showed that the natural mixture positively affected the growth and meat quality parameters in growing rabbits. This mixed dietary supplementation could include antioxidants, prebiotics, immunomodulators and antimicrobial compounds that enhance not only the growth and animal health of growing rabbits but also without affecting the nutritional characteristics of the food and consumers' preferences.

In conclusion, I believe that this thesis improves knowledge on the beneficial effects of various plant extracts and seaweed. The dietary inclusion of bioactive components contained in natural extracts is an innovative nutritional approach that improves rabbit and piglets production without negative effects on the animals. Our study on growing rabbits presented important and interesting results, and the use of seaweeds and polyphenols could be considered as an innovative nutritional strategy.

To the best of our knowledge, this topic has never been investigated before in the scientific literature.

Increased consumer awareness and the consumption of safe, natural foods have prompted research into alternative animal feeding strategies that replace antibiotic growth promoters (AGPs) and synthetic antioxidants.

Suggestions for future studies: the following topics may be of interest for future research:

- More studies to evaluate the efficacy of algae and polyphenols at different inclusion levels in different species at different physiological periods aimed at enhancing animal health and productivity;
- Researchers should focus on the polyphenol content to clarify the optimal length of the plant extract dietary supplementation in order to enhance quality parameters in rabbit meat;
- Seaweeds have been shown to offer a wide range of activities, including improving animal performance and increasing nutrient availability. It is thus important to share the results of new experiments that show the effects of botanically and chemically well-characterized seaweed .



# **CHAPTER 8**

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