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6

7

8 **Abstract**

9 Developmental patterns of the gut microbiota are important for improving chicken health and
10 productivity. However, the influence of litter and litter microbes on cecal microbiota is still unclear.
11 This study aimed to identify broiler cecal microbiota at different ages according to litter usage in cage
12 (without litter) and conventional (with litter) conditions. The cecal contents of the broilers from each
13 group were collected from 1–5 weeks. The development and function of the gut microbiota were
14 evaluated using 16S rRNA gene sequencing. The final body weight of the chickens was higher in the
15 cage group than that in the conventional group. In particular, α -diversity was higher at 3 weeks than
16 that at 1 week. The phyla Firmicutes predominated at 3 weeks. In contrast, the abundance of
17 Bacteroidetes and fibrinolytic bacteria increased significantly at 1 and 2 weeks compared to that at 3
18 and 5 weeks. *Corynebacterium* was the most abundant genus in the conventional group after 3 weeks.
19 In conclusion, the cecal microbiota are influenced by environmental factors, such as cage, which
20 improves the chicken gut environment.

21

22 **Keywords:** Microbiome, Broiler, Growth performance, Litter

23

24

ACCEPTED

25 **Introduction**

26 In the poultry industry, the immune system and growth performance are governed by changes in the
27 bedding conditions. Particularly, weight gain and gut health of poultry are critical to maintain a
28 healthy population [1–3]. Age and environmental conditions also considerably affect microbial
29 communities [4,5].

30 The suitability of various materials such as the bedding for chickens has been studied previously [6–
31 8]. Growth performance, health, carcass quality, and welfare are directly affected by litter. Rice hulls
32 can be considered a cost-effective litter source that can be used in place of traditional bedding in rice-
33 producing areas. The use of thick sawdust or rice straw did not significantly affect weight gain and
34 carcass weight [9]. Conversely, broilers reared on rice hull had lower weight gain than other groups
35 [10]. All microorganisms were significantly higher in the rice hull treatment, except total yeast.
36 However, body weight gain and mortality did not show statistically significant differences between
37 treatment groups [11].

38 The avian gut microbiome varies considerably from that of mammalian. Litter, as bedding material,
39 alters the microbial composition and diversity in the cecum of chickens [12]. Moisture promotes the
40 growth of pathogenic microbes and ammonia production, which adversely affect weight and feed
41 conversion in poultry. Additionally, litter supply and the gut microbiome are related to poultry
42 performance [13]. Bacteroides and Eubacteria are established within 2 weeks, and gut microbes take
43 6–7 weeks for complete colonization in chickens [14]. The dominant phyla in the cecum of chickens
44 throughout the life cycle are Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes [15–17]. In broiler chickens, gut
45 microbiome colonization and function differ from 1–42 d [18–20].

46 Changes in gut microbial function and microbial metabolites, such as those of the immune system
47 (cytokines), are simultaneously observed, depending on the litter. However, some studies have found
48 no significant differences in peripheral blood leukocyte counts between cage- and litter laying hens
49 [21]. In general, animals raised in outdoor environments have stronger immune functions [21,22].
50 Immune functions among animals vary with litter broilers exhibiting higher levels of interleukin-1 β
51 (IL-1 β) and interferon- γ mRNA than those in caged chickens [12, 23–25]. Free-range and semi-
52 stocked chickens demonstrate higher titers of Newcastle disease virus and infectious bronchitis virus
53 in peripheral blood than those in confined chickens.

54 A recent study on litter has revealed altered microbial composition and diversity in the cecum [26].
55 However, it is unclear whether litter and litter microbes can influence the cecal microbiota. This study
56 aimed to determine whether litter affects broiler gut microbiota and growth characteristics.

58 **Materials and Methods**

59 **Experimental design and animal care**

60 All animal experiments were approved and reviewed by the National Institute of Animal Science
61 (NIAS) Animal Use and Care Committee (NIAS-2021-508). All broiler chickens were managed

62 according to the National Research Council specifications. One-day-old broiler chicks (Ross 308)
63 were purchased from a commercial farm and divided into two groups. Each group was assigned to a
64 floor pen (0.93 m × 2.14 m). The size of mesh is 2.54 cm by galvanized steel wire, and bedding
65 materials is used rice hulls. The chickens were fed using a graded feeding program (Table 1)
66 consisting of starters (0–7 days), growers (8–21 days), and finishers (22–35 days); water was provided
67 ad libitum. Feed was supplied as small pellets for the start-up phase and as pellets for the growth and
68 finishing phases. The animals were randomly assigned to one of the six replicate pens per treatment.
69 The experimental groups were divided into cage and cage-free groups, according to litter usage.
70 Room temperature was monitored daily. The light-dark cycle was set from 18 to 6 h during the
71 experimental period. All bedding materials are sterilized and UV irradiated. Additionally, all
72 experimental equipment was brought into the room after a sterilized or sterilized products were used.
73 Body weight and feed intake were recorded weekly. The weight gain and feed conversion ratio (FCR)
74 were then calculated. At 7, 14, 21, 28, and 35 days of age, chickens in the treatment groups were
75 euthanized by anesthesia with carbon dioxide. Blood was collected from the carotid artery or wing
76 vein. Cecal digesta were placed in liquid nitrogen and stored at -80 °C.

77

78 **Hematological and cytokine analysis**

79 Blood samples were collected from the carotid artery or wing vein using ethylenediaminetetraacetic
80 acid tubes (BD Vacutainers). An automated hematology analyzer (Mindray BC-5300; Mindray Co.,
81 Ltd., Shenzhen, China) was used to assess hematological parameters, such as red blood cell (RBC)
82 count, white blood cell (WBC) count, packed cell volume, hemoglobin (HGB), mean corpuscular
83 volume (MCV), mean corpuscular hemoglobin, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration,
84 erythrocyte sedimentation rate, total protein, and absolute counts of heterophils, lymphocytes,
85 monocytes, eosinophils, and basophils, according to the manufacturer's instructions. Concentration of
86 pro-inflammatory cytokines, including IL-1 β , interleukin 6 (IL-6), and tumor necrosis factor alpha
87 (TNF- α), were measured using commercial chicken enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay kits (AFG
88 Scientific, EK780087, EK780053, EK780062) according to the manufacturer's instructions.

89

90 **DNA extraction and Microbial Community Analysis**

91 Metagenomic DNA was extracted from broiler cecal samples using the bead-beating (repeated
92 bead-beating plus column) method [27] via a QIAamp DNA kit (Qiagen, Hilden, Germany).

93 Artificial sequences and low-quality bases in the generated reads were removed using
94 Trimmomatic and TruSeq3-PE. fa:2:30:10:2:True, LEADING:5, TRAILING:20, MINLEN:250
95 parameters [28]. After raw data QC, the filtered reads were analyzed using QIIME2 [29]. The
96 remaining adapter sequences in the filtered reads were removed using the cutadapt module in the
97 QIIME2 with --p-front-f CCTACGGGNGGCWGCAG and-p-front-r GAC-
98 TACHVGGGTATCTAATCC parameters [30]. The denoising step was conducted using dada2, a
99 denoise-paired module in QIIME2, with parameters-p-trunc-len-f 230 and-p-trunc-len-r 220 [31].

100 Taxonomic assignment was conducted using the classify-sklearn module with a pretrained silva-138-
101 99-nb-classifier. qza as provided by QIIME2 [32]. After taxonomic assignment, taxa assigned to the
102 mitochondria and chloroplasts and those whose assigned level did not represent the minimum phylum
103 were filtered out.

104

105 **Statistical analyses**

106 The align-to-tree-mafft-fasttree module [33,34] was used for tree construction of the representative
107 amplicon sequence variant (ASV), and alpha- and beta-diversity were calculated using the diversity
108 module in QIIME2 [35]. For functional pathway prediction of the microbial community, PICRUST2
109 was employed with a frequency table exported from QIIME2 [36]. Principal Component Analysis
110 (PCA) plots and statistical tests for the predicted pathways were conducted using STAMP with the
111 Kruskal–Wallis test [37]. Differential abundance taxon analyses were conducted using Linear
112 discriminant analysis effect size (LEfSe) [38]. Significant differences in blood results and growth
113 performance were determined at $P < 0.05$, using Prism ver. 9 software.

114

115 **Results**

116 **Growth performances**

117 The effects of environmental bedding conditions on the growth performance of broiler chickens are
118 shown in Table 2. Final body weight, weight gain, and feed conversion ratio were higher in chickens
119 housed in cages (without litter) than those in conventional conditions (with litter) for 5 weeks ($P <$
120 0.01). However, the average daily feed intake did not differ significantly between the conventional
121 and cage groups.

122

123 **Blood analysis**

124 Blood hematological and cytokine analyses were performed for the different bedding
125 environmental conditions (Figure 1). Under different conditions, the WBC counts were higher in the
126 cage group than those in the conventional group ($P < 0.001$). The observed increase in white blood
127 cells is proposed to represent a defensive mechanism against external disease or inflammation.
128 However, the RBC count, HGB level, and MCV were not significantly different between the two
129 groups. In addition, TNF- α , IL-1, and IL-6 levels were not differentially regulated between the
130 conventional and cage groups.

131

132 **Alpha and beta diversity**

133 In the broiler cecum, changes in alpha diversity were confirmed over 5 weeks (Figure 2). The alpha
134 diversity was significantly different from 1 to 2 wks. However, the diversities at weeks 3, 4, and 5
135 were similar. In the bedding environment, the alpha diversity was not significantly different. Beta
136 diversity clustered from 1 to 5 weeks, similar to the alpha diversity pattern. Beta diversity determined
137 using the PCoA plot was independent of the presence or absence of litter.

138

139 **Bacteria at the phylum level between the cage and conventional groups by aging**

140 The gut microbiota was dominated by Firmicutes, Proteobacteria, and Bacteroidetes at the phylum
141 level at 1 and 2 weeks, especially, the Firmicutes account for greater than 98% (Figure 3). The gut
142 microflora composition marginally varied between the two groups after one week. *Ruminococcus* was
143 the predominant genus in majority of the samples. In addition, *Lactobacillus* and *Bacillus*
144 corresponding to lactic acid bacteria, *Escherichia-Shigella* including *Escherichia coli*, and
145 *Erysipelatoclostridium* and *Clostridium* were identified as the major genera at 1 week. The gut
146 microflora at 2 weeks was not significantly different from that at the first week. *Faecalibacterium* was
147 dominant at 3 weeks of age. At 4 and 5 weeks, the predominant genera were *Faecalibacterium*,
148 *Lactobacillus*, and *Clostridia*, accounting for more than half of the total population (Figure 4).

149

150 **Microbial pathway analysis for different bedding conditions**

151 This study attempted to identify significant pathways in individual pathway units. P4-PWY
152 (superpathway of L-lysine, L-threonine, and L-methionine biosynthesis I) and PWY0-781 (aspartate
153 super-pathway) were upregulated in the control group with litter after 1 week (Figure 5). A total of 48
154 pathways were affected by litter use, among which 32 pathways were upregulated and 16 were
155 downregulated at 2 weeks ($P < 0.05$). At 3 weeks, 21 pathways showed significant differences with
156 respect to litter use, among which 16 pathways were downregulated and five were upregulated in the
157 conventional group ($P < 0.05$). The relative distribution of functional pathways within the intestinal
158 microbial flora was determined to identify clustering patterns between groups using PCA at 3 and 4
159 weeks. On supplying litter at 3, 4, and 5 weeks, the mycolyl-arabinogalactan-peptidoglycan complex
160 biosynthesis pathway was upregulated in the conventional group (Table 3). LEfSe was used to
161 identify differences depending on litter use. Four differentially abundance taxa at the genus level were
162 discovered at week 1 using LEfSe (Figure 6). The abundance of *Romboutsia* and *Turicibacter*
163 increased in the conventional-litter group whereas that of *Lachnoclostridium* increased in the cage
164 group without litters. In the second week, no significant differences were observed between the cage
165 and conventional cage groups. Relative abundance was not detected at the genus level at week 2 (data
166 not shown). Eight differentially abundance taxa were detected at the genus level at 3 weeks, including
167 five differentially abundance taxa with clear genera. Among these, the abundances of
168 *Corynebacterium* and *Hydrogenoanaerobacterium* were increased in the litter use group, whereas
169 those of *Odoribacter*, *Anaerofustis*, and *Faecalibacterium* were increased in the cage group. Eight
170 differentially abundance taxa were detected at the genus level at 4 weeks. The increased abundances
171 of *Turicibacter* at 1 week and *Corynebacterium* at 3 weeks further increased at 4 weeks. The
172 abundances of *Roseburia*, *Staphylococcus*, *Brachybacterium*, and *Brevibacterium* also increased in
173 the litter-treated groups, whereas that of *Tyzzerella* increased in the cage group. In the fifth week, the
174 four differentially abundance taxa showed differences at the genus level, depending on the litter. The
175 abundances of taxa *Corynebacterium* and *Papillybacter* increased with litter use. In particular, the

176 abundance of *Corynebacter* increased at both 3 and 4 weeks. In the absence of litter, an increase in the
177 abundances of two differentially abundance taxa (*Colidextribacter* and *Flavonifractor*) were observed.
178 Relative abundance at the genus level differed based on the type of bedding. The cage and
179 conventional groups are indicated in red and green, respectively. The bacterial taxa were statistically
180 significant ($P < 0.05$) in terms of relative abundance.

181

182 **Discussion**

183

184 Body weight gain in broiler chickens is influenced by various environmental conditions, including
185 aging, nutrients, microbiome, immunity, and bedding materials [39,40]. In this study, growth
186 performance generally showed a significant difference with or without litter (i.e., cage vs.
187 conventional cage). In particular, although the FCR decreased in broilers in the cage at an early phase,
188 it was ameliorated during the growing phase. Broiler weight gain from days 0–28 was not
189 significantly different between the cage and conventional groups, similar to the findings of a previous
190 study [41].

191 The productivity and intestinal microbiota were influenced in caged chickens, thus promoting the
192 growth of beneficial microbes and preventing harmful bacteria. Therefore, we investigated the effects
193 of litter use on the gut microbiota of chicken in cages (without litter) and conventional conditions
194 (with litter). The most abundant phyla in the broiler cecum was Firmicutes, which is consistent with
195 previous findings [42,43]. Firmicutes, associated with chicken weight gain, produce compounds in the
196 intestinal wall as an energy source. In this study, the abundance of Firmicutes increased marginally
197 under litter conditions. The abundance of gut bacteria was relatively low in the litter-treated group, as
198 reported in previous studies [44,45].

199 *Ruminococcus* was significantly more abundant at all ages. The abundance of *Bacteroides* and
200 *Ruminococcus* is associated with gut health [46]. The increased abundance of *Lactobacilli* may inhibit
201 pathogens by producing vitamins and organic acids [47]. Increasing the proportion of
202 *Faecalibacterium* in the intestinal microflora positively affects growth [48]. *Faecalibacterium*
203 produces short-chain fatty acids such as acetate, propionate, and butyrate, which are major products of
204 intestinal microorganisms and commensal bacteria [49]. It also produces shikimic and salicylic acids,
205 which are involved in its anti-inflammatory activities. *Faecalibacterium* spp. isolated from chickens
206 with strong immunity may also serve as potential probiotics. Lysine, threonine, and methionine amino
207 acids (AAs) are essential during the early chick phase [50]. The intestine-related inflammatory
208 response can be attributed to β -galactomannan contained in soybeans of broiler fed. The increasing
209 mannan degradation functions in the conventional group improved the abundance of gut microbiota in
210 chickens, which changed with a decrease in intestine-related inflammatory reactions. Mannans are a
211 type of hemicellulose found in a variety of cereals and industrial byproducts utilized in animal feed.
212 While mannans can potentially be detrimental to animals, smaller portions of them offer benefits. The
213 fermentation of mannan polysaccharides and oligosaccharides has been observed to alter the intestinal

214 microbiota. Therefore, the varying sizes and monosaccharides present in mannan polysaccharides may
215 influence the intestinal microenvironment [51]. Mitigation can improve productivity and alleviate
216 mortality. The abundance of *Faecalibacterium* increased in the cage group compared to that in the
217 conventional group. Therefore, it is expected to play an important role in the health of individual
218 species at 3 weeks of age owing to increased immunity. Increasing AAs in chickens housed without
219 litter can enhance chicken health through intestinal microbial flora.

220 Five microbes were detected at the genus level. The abundances of *Corynebacterium* and
221 *Hydrogenoanaerobacterium* increased in the conventional group while those of *Odoribacter*,
222 *Anaerofustis*, and *Faecalibacterium* were enhanced in the cage group at 3 weeks. *Corynebacterium*
223 can cause diseases in various livestock [52]. After the third week, the use of litter for 3 weeks
224 induced *Corynebacterium* growth. *Brachybacterium* and *Brevibacterium* species at 4 weeks
225 associated with growth performance are frequently found in the microbial flora of dust and feces [53].
226 Forty-eight pathways showed significant differences after two weeks. Among these, 32 pathways were
227 upregulated in the conventional group with litter and 16 pathways were downregulated in the cage
228 group without litter. The upregulation of biosynthesis-related pathways and downregulation of
229 decomposition-related pathways were observed.

230 In this study, the pathways identified based on the graphical analysis at weeks 3, 4, and 5 did not
231 significantly affect the intestinal microbial flora during litter use. However, the three common
232 pathways influencing the mycolyl-arabinogalactan-peptidoglycan complex biosynthesis increased at
233 weeks 3, 4, and 5 compared to 1 and 2 wks. However, this pathway is unlikely to be directly related to
234 the effect of litter, since it is specific to cell wall synthesis. *Romboutsia* was an uncharacterized
235 bacterial genus. However, the fungal species in the gut microbiota of young hens showed differences
236 when *Astragalus* was used as a feed additive [54]. *Romboutsia* is the major genus involved in
237 functioning of the intestinal microbial flora of chicken [55]. In addition, *Turicibacter* is present at
238 residual levels in the feed intake of chickens [56]. Feed intake and average weight gain of groups
239 depended on litter use. The *Lachnoclostridium* strain can be used to regulate body weight and drip
240 loss associated with meat quality and body weight in broilers [57]. This suggests that meat quality can
241 be improved by regulating the intestinal microbiota. The genus *Corynebacterium* can cause diseases in
242 various animals and its growth is positively reduced by lactic acid bacteria or feed additives [58].
243 Therefore, if the abundance of related species increases in the intestinal microbial flora, litter use may
244 not be considered positive after the third week. In this study, the abundance of *Odoribacter*, a key
245 bacterial species in feed additives consisting of phages, increased in the conventional groups without
246 litter. *Anaerofustis* is related to energy metabolism and is positively correlated with the accumulation
247 of abdominal fat in chickens [59]. Although this genus needs further evaluation, it is unlikely to
248 positively affect growth rate. *Faecalibacterium* positively affects the growth of intestinal microflora
249 [48]. In this study, *Faecalibacterium* was established as the dominant species in the cage group
250 without litter from 3–5 weeks. During this period, the unuse of litter is preferable based on the
251 existing known intestinal microorganisms.

252 *Brachybacterium* is mainly found in dust and fecal samples from poultry farms with poor breeding
253 performance [60]. However, increase in the abundance of this species in litter has not been evaluated.
254 In addition, *Brevibacterium* is also abundant on farms with poor performance [60]. Herein,
255 considering these bacterial species markers to evaluate the use of litter in intestinal microorganism
256 research may not yield good results. *Papillibacter* is a pathogenic bacterium with considerably
257 reduced abundance in chickens when *Lactobacillus casei* is used as a feed additive. Increase in litter
258 use did not positively affect intestinal microorganisms, even in the fifth week. Therefore, various
259 evaluations may be necessary for related bedding, depending on the use of litter from the third week
260 onwards.

261 In summary, all the bacterial species that increased in abundance in the cage (without litter) group are
262 known to be associated with generally beneficial functions, such as improving growth performance or
263 regulating immune responses. However, in this study, the intestinal microbial flora composition was
264 more remarkably affected by the growth period than that by bedding use. In particular, chicken
265 intestinal microbial flora was established, and the major dominant species did not change after the
266 third week. In particular, the abundance of *Cornynebacterium* increased in the litter group from 3–5
267 weeks. Increased bacterial abundance in the litter had a negative effect in this study. Hence, it is
268 necessary to consider the benefits of using litter by analyzing the intestinal microbiota. In contrast,
269 improvement in the FCR and relative abundance of beneficial gut microbiota was observed in cages
270 (without litter) compared to those in conventional-supplied litter. Hence, it is recommended that the
271 use of litter should be avoided after three weeks when intestinal microorganisms are established.

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461

ACCEPTED

462 Table 1. Nutrient levels in the diets used during different growth periods

Items	Starter	Grower	Finisher
Crude protein (%)	24.15	23.47	23.01
Crude fat (%)	9.41	6.13	4.65
NDF (%)	9.23	12.35	8.51
ADF (%)	4.24	3.94	3.66
Ash (%)	8.35	5.87	6.01

463 NDF, Neutral detergent fiber; ADF, acid detergent fiber.

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ACCEPTED

465 **Table 2.** Growth performance of broiler chickens according to bedding conditions

Items	Conventional cage with litter (n =150)	Cage without litter (n =150)	P value
IBW, g (1 wk)	38.17±0.23	38.27±0.22	0.7470
FBW, g (5 wk)	2,329±17.34	2,444±38.66	0.0087
ADFI, g	93.49±0.65	92.76±1.32	0.6111
ADG, g	65.47±0.50	68.75±1.11	0.0088
FCR, g/g	1.43±0.01	1.35±0.02	<0.001

466 Values are mean ± standard error of the mean. IBW, initial body weight; FBW, final body weight. ADFI, average
 467 daily feed intake; ADG, average daily gain; FCR, feed conversion ratio.

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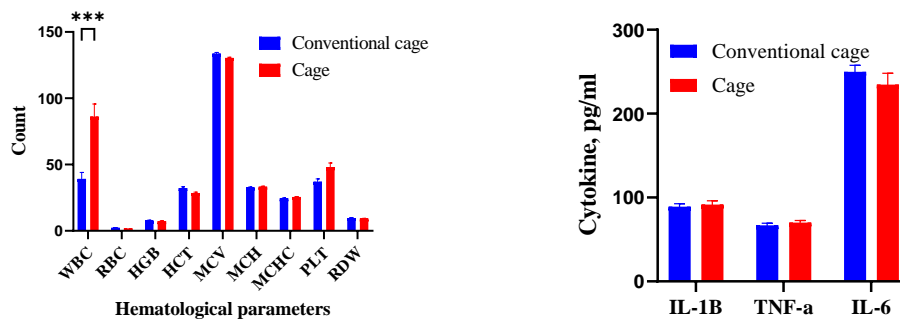
469 **Table 3.** The influence of gut microbiota on signaling pathways, based on aging

Pathway	3 wks	4 wks	5 wks
Mono-trans, poly-cis decaprenyl phosphate biosynthesis (PWY-6383)	Down	Up	Up
Mycolyl-arabinogalactan-peptidoglycan complex biosynthesis (PWY-6397)	Up	Up	Up
Mycothiol biosynthesis (PWY1G-0)	Down	Up	Up

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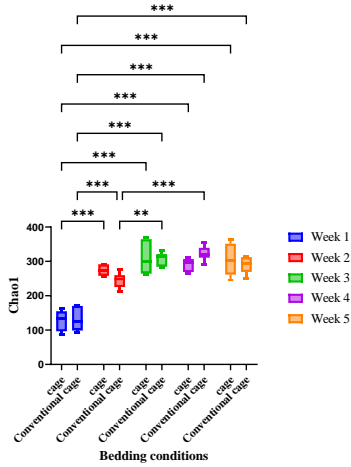
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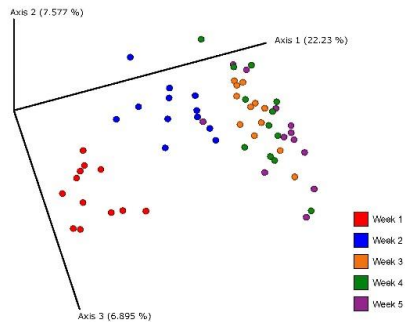
473
 474 **Figure 1.** Hematological (A) and cytokine (B) analyses of broiler chickens according to bedding
 475 conditions. Data are shown as mean and standard error of the mean. n= 6. For statistical analysis,
 476 unpaired Student's T-test was used to compare the means of two populations. WBC, white blood cell;
 477 RBC, red blood cell; HGB, hemoglobin; HCT, Hematocrit; MCV, mean corpuscular volume; MCH,
 478 mean corpuscular hemoglobin; MCHC, mean corpuscular hemoglobin concentration; PLT, Platelet;
 479 RDW, red cell distribution width. *** P < 0.001 (highly significant).

482 A



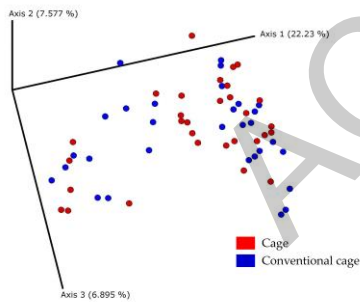
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484 B



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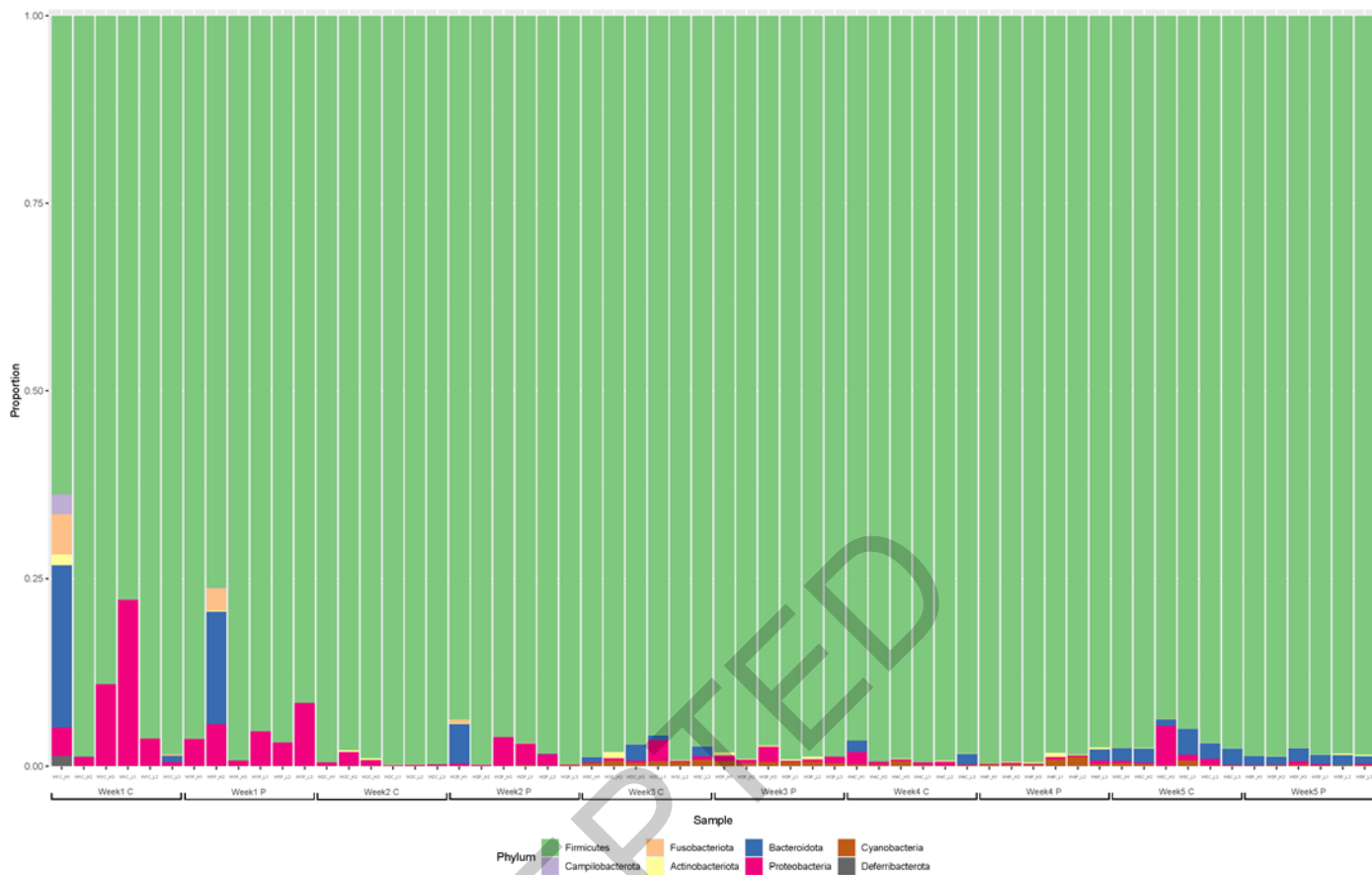
486 C



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488 **Figure 2.** Microbiota diversity indices of the gut microbiota between the five age groups and bedding
489 condition. n = 6. (A) Alpha-diversity using the Chao 1 index. (B) Beta diversity principal coordinate
490 analysis (PCA) plot using Bray Curtis dissimilarity measure in the five age groups. (C) Beta diver-sity
491 PCA plot using Bray Curtis dissimilarity measure between cage and conventional groups. The P value
492 was tested using a nonparametric Kruskal-Wallis test with a Bonferroni post hoc test. ** P < 0.01;
493 ***, P < 0.001.

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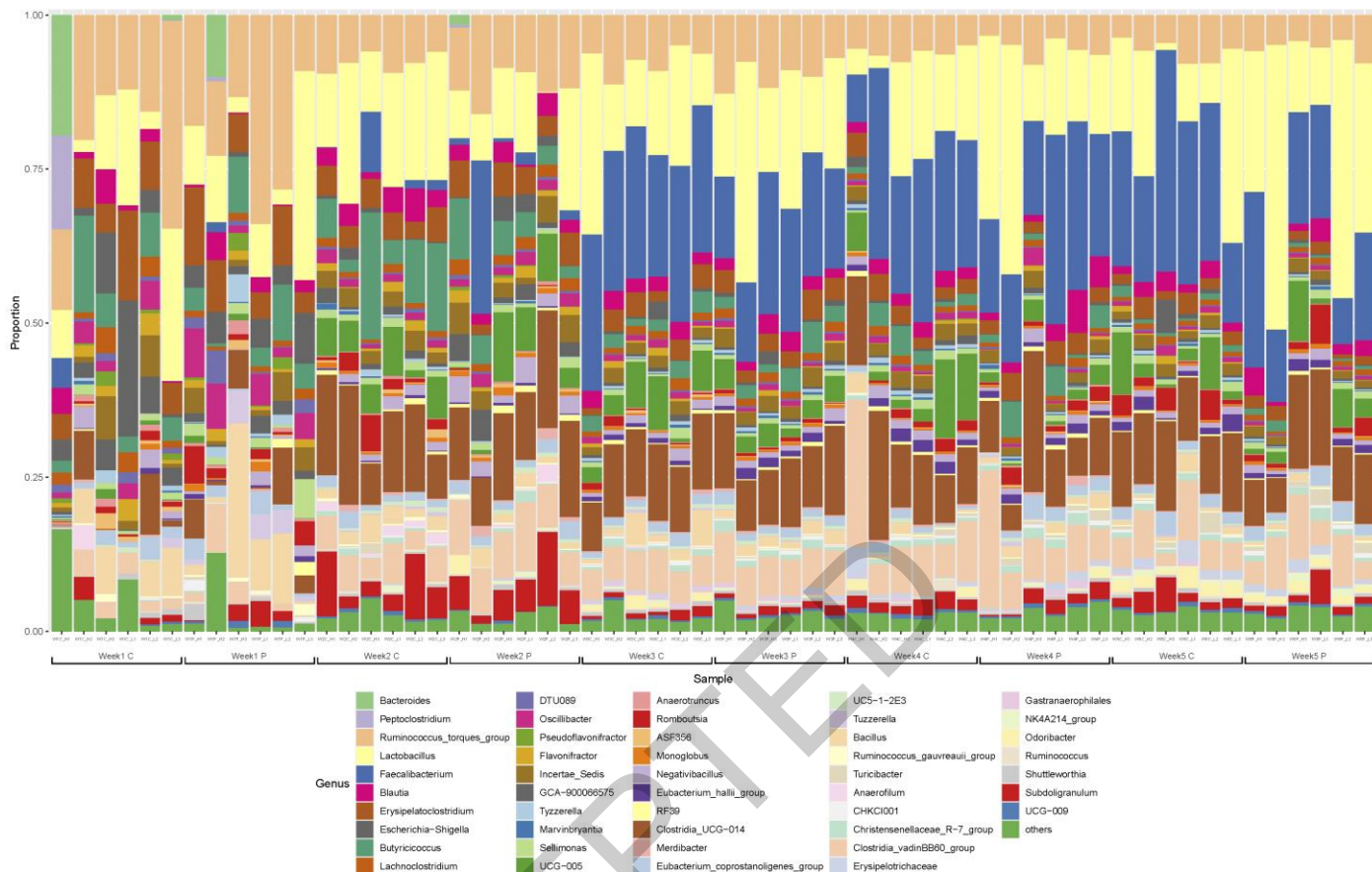


496

497 **Figure 3.** The relative abundances of Firmicutes at the phylum level by aging between the cage
 498 (without litter) and conventional (with litter) groups. The percentages of Firmicutes were 87.39 ± 5.72 ,
 499 99.31 ± 0.31 , 97.73 ± 0.50 , 98.70 ± 0.45 , and 96.44 ± 0.67 % at 1,2,3,4 and 5 weeks, respectively, among
 500 chickens housed in cages without litter. The percentages of Firmicutes were 92.63 ± 3.42 , 97.47 ± 0.94 ,
 501 98.53 ± 0.29 , 98.83 ± 0.35 , and 98.36 ± 0.16 % at 1,2,3,4, and 5 weeks, respectively, among chickens
 502 housed in conventional conditions (with litter). n= 6.

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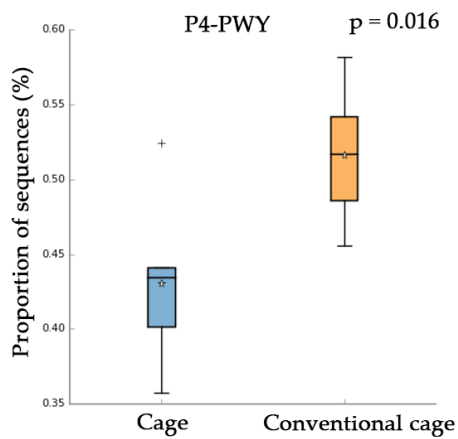
507 **Figure 4.** The relative abundances of *Lactobacillus* at the genus level by aging between the cage
 508 (without litter) and conventional (with litter) groups. The percentages of *Lactobacillus* were
 509 11.34±3.70, 17.11±2.10, 15.38±3.20, 11.67±2.86, and 13.97±4.44 % at 1,2,3,4, and 5 weeks,
 510 respectively, among chickens housed in cages without litter. The percentages of *Lactobacillus* were
 511 11.26±4.76, 9.94±2.67, 19.23±3.65, 19.34±4.65, and 26.50±6.21 %, respectively, at 1,2,3,4, and 5
 512 weeks among chickens housed in conventional conditions (with litter). n = 6.

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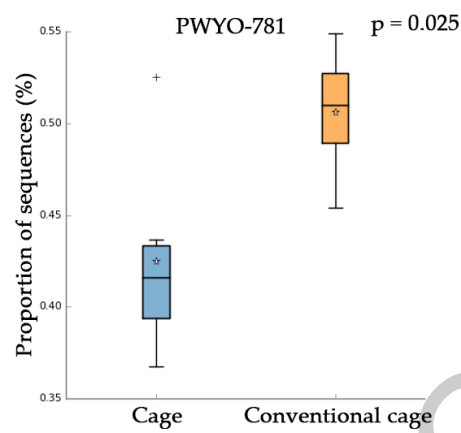
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516 A



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518 B



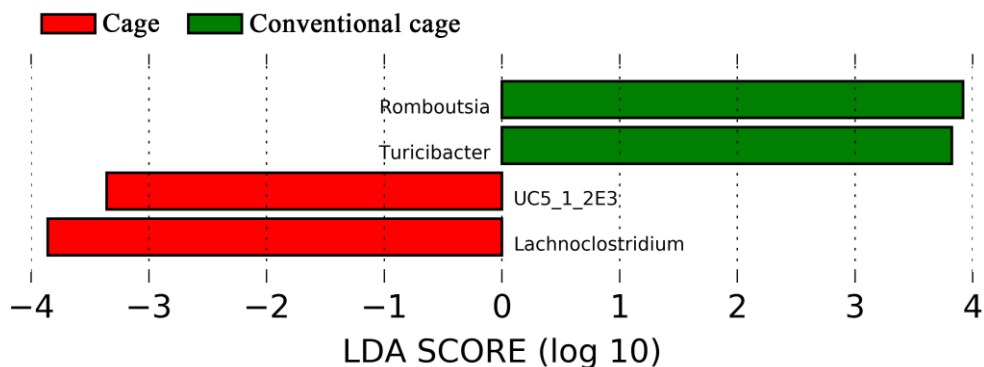
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520 Figure 5. Microbial pathway abundance box plots between the cage and conventional groups. (A) P4-
521 PWY (superpathway of L-lysine, L-threonine, and L-methionine biosynthesis I) at 1 week. (B)
522 PWYO-781 (spartate superpathway) at 1 week.

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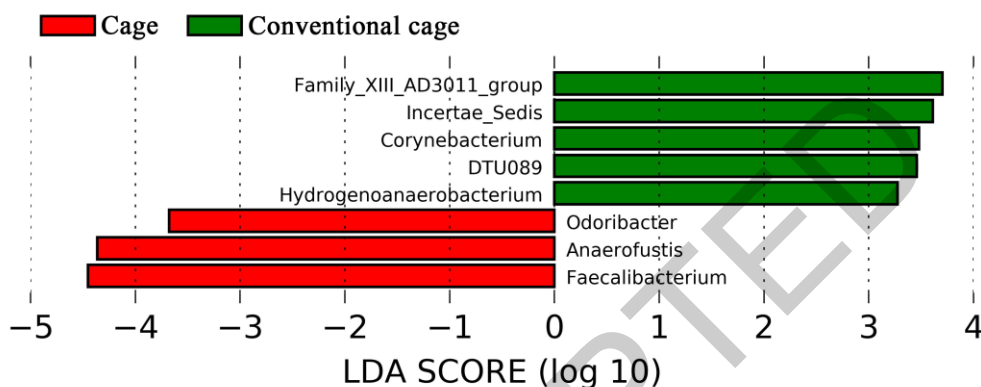
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525 A

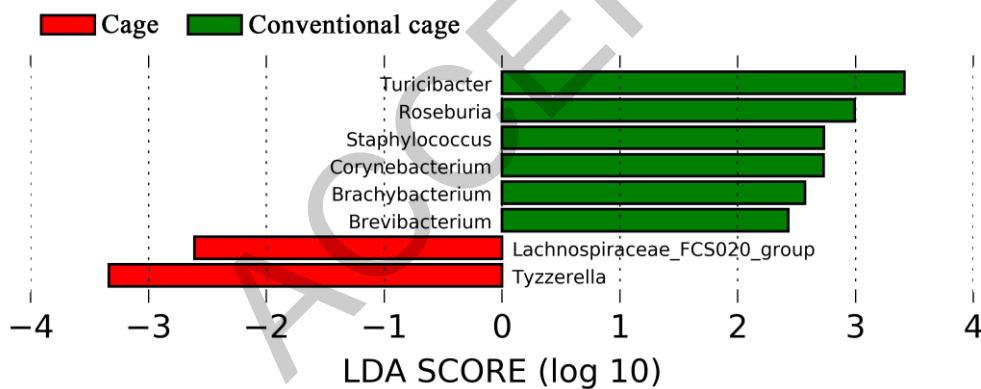


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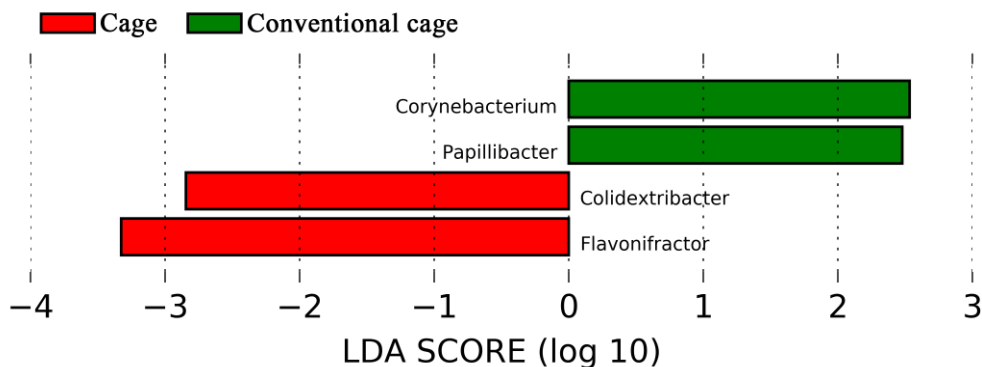
527 B



528 C



529 D



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531 **Figure 6.** Graphical representation of Linear discriminant analysis (LDA) effect size (LEfSe) of cecal
532 microbiota in broiler chickens among the cage and conventional groups. (A-D) show the LEfSe
533 results at weeks 1, 3, 4, and 5, respectively. The horizontal bar represents the log₁₀ transformed LDA
534 score