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<b>Author</b>	Sarbani Biswas <sup>1,2</sup> , In Ho Kim <sup>1,2,*</sup>
<b>Affiliation</b>	Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, Cheonan, 31116, Republic of Korea
<b>ORCID</b>	Sarbani Biswas ( <a href="https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6732-286X">https://orcid.org/0000-0002-6732-286X</a> ) In Ho Kim ( <a href="http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6652-2504">http://orcid.org/0000-0001-6652-2504</a> )
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First name, middle initial, last name	In Ho Kim
Email address	inhokim@dankook.ac.kr
Address	Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, No.29 Anseodong, Cheonan, Choongnam, 330-714, South Korea  Smart Animal Bio Institute, Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, Cheonan, Choongnam, South Korea
Office phone number and Fax	+82-41-550-3652 and +82-41-565-2949

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4 **A thorough review of phytogetic feed additives in non-ruminant nutrition: production, gut health, and**  
5 **environmental concerns**

6 Sarbani Biswas<sup>1,2</sup>, In Ho Kim<sup>1,2,\*</sup>

7 <sup>1</sup> Department of Animal Biotechnology, Dankook University, No. 29 Anseodong, Cheonan, Choongnam 330-714,  
8 South Korea.

9 <sup>2</sup> Smart Animal Bio Institute Dankook University, Cheonan, Korea.

10 **Running Title:** Phytogetic additives in non-ruminant production and gut health

11 \* Corresponding author: In Ho Kim

12 Email: inhokim@dankook.ac.kr

13 Phone: 82-41-550-3652 / 82-10-8803-9598

14 Fax: +82-41-559-7881

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15 **Abstract**

16 The increasing demand for sustainable livestock production has intensified interest in phytogetic feed additives  
17 as viable alternatives to conventional growth promoters and antibiotics. Derived from plant-based sources such  
18 as herbs, spices, and essential oils, phytogetic feed additives have demonstrated significant potential to enhance  
19 production performance, improve gut health, and mitigate environmental impact in non-ruminant systems.  
20 Bioactive compounds such as thymol, carvacrol, menthol, and anethole play a crucial role in modulating gut  
21 microbiota, strengthening immune responses, and reducing gastrointestinal disorders. Their antimicrobial and  
22 antioxidant properties further support animal health while reducing antibiotic dependence, addressing growing  
23 concerns over antimicrobial resistance. Additionally, they contribute to improved nutrient digestibility and feed  
24 efficiency, leading to enhanced growth performance. From an environmental perspective, their use is associated  
25 with lower greenhouse gas emissions and reduced waste contamination, aligning with sustainability goals in  
26 modern livestock systems. Phytogetic feed additives improve feed efficiency, leading to reduced feed waste and  
27 lower resource input, which in turn decreases the environmental burden of livestock production. Additionally,  
28 their antimicrobial properties may reduce the need for synthetic chemicals in animal health management, further  
29 minimizing the release of harmful substances into the environment. Despite these promising benefits,  
30 inconsistencies in research findings highlight the need for further studies to determine optimal inclusion levels  
31 and clarify their mechanisms of action. Future research should focus on developing standardized formulations,  
32 improving bioavailability, and assessing long-term effects on animal health and performance. Additionally,  
33 advancements in delivery technologies and synergistic combinations with other feed additives could enhance their  
34 efficacy. By synthesizing the latest developments, this review underscores the potential of phytogetic feed  
35 additives as a strategic tool for optimizing non-ruminant productivity, ensuring animal welfare, and promoting  
36 environmentally sustainable livestock production.

37 **Keywords:** environmental impact, gut health, immunity, non-ruminant animal, phytogetic feed additive

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## 40 INTRODUCTION

41 Concerns over microbial resistance in human pathogens from the continuous use of antibiotics as performance  
42 enhancers in animals led to the ban on antibiotic growth promoters (AGPs) in livestock feed in developed countries  
43 in the early 2000s [1]. The removal of antibiotic supplementation has led to substantial growth in research focusing  
44 on developing effective alternative control (CON) methods, improved management practices, and dietary  
45 adjustments to boost animal health, welfare, and productivity [2].

46 Phytogetic feed additives (PFAs), also known as herbs or phytobiotics used in traditional treatments,  
47 utilized as alternatives to antibiotics, and incorporated into non-ruminant feed to enhance productivity [1].  
48 Phytogetic compounds can be categorized based on their source and processing, encompassing herbs (flowering,  
49 non-woody, and non-perennial plants), spices (highly aromatic or flavorful herbs commonly used in human food),  
50 essential oils (EOs, volatile lipophilic compounds), and oleoresins (extracts obtained through non-aqueous  
51 solvents) [3]. They are valued for their ability to improve animal health and performance, reduce antibiotic usage  
52 in non-ruminant nutrition, and meet consumer preferences, thereby contributing positively to modern animal  
53 farming practices [4]. Additionally, PFAs provide various benefits for animals, including enhanced palatability, a  
54 stimulating effect on gastrointestinal activity, overall improvement in intestinal morphology, and higher meat  
55 quality [5]. Moreover, phytogetic compounds improve the physiology of the intestines [6] and have the potential  
56 to promote the synthesis of digestive enzymes like lipase, amylase, or carbohydrases, leading to a positive impact  
57 on nutrient utilization [7]. The study examining the impact of oregano EO in broiler diets on performance, carcass  
58 yield, and serum IgG levels suggested that this additive could serve as a potential substitute for traditional  
59 anticoccidial additives in broiler feeds [8]. Plant polyphenol-derived antibacterial compounds alter the intestinal  
60 microbiota in animals, providing a protective shield against competition for vital nutrients and leading to a  
61 reduction in detrimental substances that impede rapid growth and nutrient utilization [9]. Adding milk thistle to  
62 poultry diets boosts growth, productivity, immune function, and overall health, making it a beneficial natural  
63 supplement for enhanced performance and sustainable production [10]. Incorporating a probiotic-phytogetic  
64 mixed supplement into broiler diets resulted in consistent improvements in growth performance, bolstered  
65 immunological health, and fostered favorable microbiological conditions [11]. Likewise, growing pigs showed  
66 enhanced growth and nutrient absorption when fed a diet enriched with garlic extract without any adverse effects  
67 on fecal scores [12]. Scientists discovered that providing weaning piglets with additional plant extracts  
68 (*Houttuynia cordata* and *Taraxacum officinale*) improved their growth, nutrient utilization, and the integrity of  
69 the gut barrier [13]. Additionally, increasing the flavonoid dose to 0.06% in broilers improved feed intake, nutrient

70 digestibility, tibia ash, organ weights, and meat quality, suggesting it as a beneficial additive for productivity [14].  
71 Ginseng combined with artichoke extract supplementation is an effective feed additive, enhancing growth  
72 performance, feed efficiency, meat quality parameters, defense mechanisms against oxidative stress, and reducing  
73 excreta gas emission in Hanhyup-3-ho chickens [15]. Moreover, supplementing the standard crude protein diet  
74 with 0.025% *Achyranthes japonica extract* (AJE) enhanced broiler growth performance, nutrient digestibility,  
75 while also reducing fecal ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) emissions [16].

76 Despite promising in vitro and in vivo results, the bioavailability of phytochemicals remains a  
77 controversial issue. Moreover, evaluating each compound's unique effects and modes of action is challenging  
78 since phytochemical metabolism produces various chemicals with different chemical structures [17]. While natural  
79 feed additives are increasingly favored by veterinarians and producers, there remains a requirement for more  
80 scientifically rigorous data to substantiate their efficacy, demonstrate their effectiveness, and achieve widespread  
81 acceptance.

82 We hypothesized that the incorporation of PFAs in non-ruminant diets significantly enhances growth  
83 performance, improves health indicators, and boosts overall production efficiency while reducing the reliance on  
84 AGPs, thereby addressing concerns related to antibiotic resistance and promoting environmental sustainability.  
85 The study aims to provide comprehensive, scientifically rigorous data on the efficacy of PFAs, thereby  
86 contributing to the broader adoption of natural feed additives in non-ruminant production and supporting efforts  
87 to mitigate antibiotic resistance and enhance environmental sustainability.

## 88 **MECHANISM OF ACTION OF PFAs**

89 Understanding the intricate mechanisms of action of phytochemicals has been a significant focus of recent  
90 research and development aimed at enhancing animal performance and health [18]. The primary bioactive  
91 components of PFAs are polyphenols, whose composition and concentration differ based on several factors,  
92 including the type of plant, the specific plant parts used, the geographical origin, the season of harvest,  
93 environmental conditions, storage methods, and processing techniques [3, 19]. In piglets, these compounds exert  
94 antimicrobial effects throughout the gastrointestinal tract (GIT) similar to AGPs [20]. Windisch et al. [3] reviewed  
95 the potential mechanisms of phytochemical blends or substances, highlighting their promise in enhancing productivity  
96 through antioxidant and antimicrobial properties, improved diet palatability, gut function, pathogen suppression,  
97 and tissue recovery. Different chemical families of phytochemicals have unique modes of action; for example,  
98 phenolic compounds and flavonoids are notable for their potential antibacterial and antioxidant properties [21].

99 Platel and Srinivasan [22] suggested that phytobiotics stimulate digestive secretions such as saliva and bile, with  
100 their main nutritional action being the improvement of enzyme activity. While the exact mechanism of action is  
101 not fully understood, PFAs beneficially modify gut microflora by reducing pathogenic organisms, likely through  
102 altering membrane permeability to hydrogen ions, and also exhibit antibacterial, antiviral, antiparasitic, and  
103 antifungal properties [23]. While higher levels of certain compounds, especially polyphenols, can negatively affect  
104 digestive efficiency by binding to digestive enzymes, they also enhance nutrient absorption by increasing  
105 intestinal villi length and crypt depth (CD) [24]. Additionally, PFAs can modify lipid metabolism by inhibiting  
106 hepatic HMG-CoA reductase, reducing cholesterol synthesis in the liver, which can be used to produce low-  
107 cholesterol meat and eggs [25]. Condensed tannins exhibit potent anti-coccidial effects against chicken coccidia,  
108 and phytochemicals with both hydrophilic and lipophilic antioxidant properties are useful during stress periods  
109 (heat stress) [26]. Plant-derived compounds with distinct flavors enhance consumer appeal and intake in human  
110 and pig feeds, are used in ice cream and other products, and can improve digestion, though their effectiveness as  
111 flavoring agents in poultry production remains uncertain [27]. The beneficial impacts of the tested doses of the  
112 PFAs might have been more noticeable in less hygienic environments, with higher product dosages, or when using  
113 less digestible diets [28]. Therefore, the inconsistent findings about various modes of action in recent studies  
114 highlight the necessity for additional research to accurately utilize these types of feed additives in the nutrition of  
115 monogastric animals.

## 116 **THE IMPLICATIONS OF PFA ON THE GIT**

### 117 **Effects of PFAs on intestinal morphology**

118 Analyzing the impact of PFAs on intestinal morphology can provide insights into their role in enhancing gut  
119 health and structural integrity. Phytochemicals positively influence nutrient digestibility by minimizing  
120 competition for nutrients between the bird and its gut microflora, and by potentially stimulating intestinal enzyme  
121 activity and inducing alterations in gut morphology [19]. PFAs contribute positively to intestinal morphology  
122 primarily by diminishing inflammation, fostering cellular growth, and potentially influencing mortality control  
123 [29]. Wang et al. [30] conducted research indicating a linear rise in duodenal mucus layer thickness in broilers  
124 with escalating concentrations of dietary PFAs. Grape-derived dietary polyphenols alter the gut morphology and  
125 intestinal microflora while enhancing the biodiversity of intestinal bacteria in broiler chicks [31]. The  
126 morphometric parameters of jejunum CD and villi height (VH) were evident only in 21-day-old chickens, with a  
127 significant interaction observed only in chickens fed a maize diet supplemented with plant origin active substances

128 [32]. Additionally, the inclusion of PFAs led to an elevation in VH throughout the small intestine in poultry [33]  
129 and pigs [34]. Flavonoids from plants, specifically genistein (5 mg/kg) and hesperidin (20 mg/kg) were  
130 administered to broilers challenged with lipopolysaccharide (LPS), demonstrating their efficacy in immune  
131 stimulation and enhancing gut morphology [35]. In their study, Reisinger et al. [36] noted that supplementing the  
132 diet with a PFA based on EOs resulted in heightened villus length (VL) and increased goblet cell density in the  
133 mid-ileum section of the small intestine in broilers subjected to a mild coccidial vaccine challenge. Birds  
134 supplemented with dietary genistein and hesperidin exhibited a significant increase in gut VL and villus width on  
135 days 21 and 42, and a decrease in CD in the duodenum on day 42 and in the ileum on day 21, irrespective of the  
136 LPS challenge [35]. Increased VH could also enhance the activity of enzymes released from the villus tips,  
137 potentially leading to improved digestibility [37].

### 138 **Effects of PFAs on the gut barrier integrity**

139 The effects of PFAs on gut barrier integrity are crucial for their potential to improve intestinal health and  
140 strengthen the body's defense against pathogens. You et al. [38] observed improved performance in newborn pigs  
141 with the dietary addition of flavonoids, noting benefits such as the adjustment of beneficial gut bacteria, enhanced  
142 gut epithelial structure, better barrier functionality, and increased immune performance. Dietary polyphenols, by  
143 promoting immunoglobulins and reducing the release of pro-inflammatory cytokines may further improve gut  
144 health and integrity in monogastric animals [39]. Moreover, Yuan et al. [40] found that incorporating flavones  
145 extracted from *Eucommia ulmoides* leaves into the diet improved the intestinal morphology and integrity of  
146 challenged pigs by enhancing intestinal barrier function. Additionally, eckol has been identified as a potential feed  
147 supplement for influencing intestinal barrier functions, wound healing, and oxidative stress, leading to enhanced  
148 growth during the transition from suckling to weaning [41]. Enhanced pre-cecal digestive capacity decreases the  
149 influx of fermentable substances into the hindgut, thus restraining postileal microbial growth and the expulsion of  
150 bacteria in feces [3]. According to Kroismayr et al. [20], a reduction in immune defense activity in the GIT aligns  
151 with concurrent enhancements in zoo-technical performance, gut microbial composition, fermentation products,  
152 and apparent nutrient digestion facilitated by EOs.

### 153 **Effects of PFAs on the intestinal microbiota**

154 Exploring the impact of PFAs on the intestinal microbiota is essential for understanding their role in influencing  
155 gut microbial communities and enhancing digestive health. PFAs were documented to enhance the production of  
156 mucus in the intestines of broilers, with the assumption that this action could hinder the attachment of pathogens,

157 consequently aiding in the stabilization of microbial balance in the gut [32]. The antimicrobial properties of  
158 bioactive substances in herb extracts arise from the hydroxyl group, which can bind to bacterial protein molecules,  
159 leading to the release of vital cell components [42]. For example, the dietary supplementation with carvacrol,  
160 cinnamaldehyde, and capsaicin enhances mucus secretion, forming a protective barrier in the gut, which may  
161 reduce epithelial adhesion and intestinal populations of *Escherichia coli*, *Clostridium perfringens*, and fungi in  
162 chickens [32]. Carvacrol and thymol induce the collapse of the outer membrane in Gram-negative bacteria by  
163 releasing LPS, increasing the permeability of the cytoplasmic membrane to ATP, and depolarizing the cytoplasmic  
164 membrane [43, 44]. These compounds, found in thyme and oregano, exhibit antimicrobial properties by  
165 penetrating cell membranes and mitochondria, leading to cell lysis [43]. Mountzouris et al. [45] found that  
166 including PFAs (125 and 250 mg/kg) diet led to beneficial modulation of caecal microbiota in 42-day-old broilers,  
167 with a linear increase in *Lactobacillus*, *Bifidobacterium*, and Gram-positive cocci concentrations, while caecal  
168 coliforms at 14 days of age were significantly lower compared to the antibiotic Avilamycin. Mitsch et al. [46] also  
169 suggested that PFAs play a role in stabilizing the gut microbiota, consequently decreasing the colonization of  
170 clostridia within the GIT. Thus, PFAs significantly modulate the intestinal microbiota by enhancing beneficial  
171 bacteria and reducing pathogenic bacteria, thereby stabilizing gut microbial communities and promoting digestive  
172 health in non-ruminant livestock.

### 173 **Effects of dietary PFA on immune function**

174 Phytochemicals exert health-promoting effects by enhancing the host's defense mechanisms against microbial  
175 infections. The fundamental action of phenolic compounds on immune function includes stimulating the  
176 production of immunoglobulins and cytokines, enhancing phagocytosis, and promoting the release of interferon-  
177  $\gamma$  [47]. In vitro studies have demonstrated that phytochemicals from sources such as dandelion, mustard, safflower,  
178 thistle, turmeric, reishi mushroom, and shiitake mushroom inhibit tumor cell growth and stimulate innate  
179 immunity. These effects are confirmed by *in vivo* trials showing that PFAs can modulate immune responses  
180 through multiple mechanisms [48]. For instance, supplementation with PFAs containing carvacrol primarily  
181 affects the cecal microbiota by increasing beneficial bacteria like *Bacteroides* spp. and *Clostridium* clusters IV  
182 and XIVa, which contribute to gut function and butyrate production [49]. Additionally, incorporating phenolic-  
183 rich soy isoflavones into the diet resulted in enhanced immune function, reduced incidence of diarrhea, and  
184 decreased plasma endotoxin levels in piglets challenged with LPS [50]. Likewise, tea polyphenols demonstrated  
185 the ability to modulate T lymphocyte activities, improve the CD4<sup>+</sup>/CD8<sup>+</sup> ratio, facilitate immune recovery from



186 oxidative stress-induced damage, enhance cell-mediated immune response, and reduce the secretion of pro-  
187 inflammatory cytokines like IFN- $\gamma$ , emphasizing their immunomodulatory potential [51]. Hence, PFAs enhance  
188 host defense mechanisms and immune responses through various pathways, including the modulation of intestinal  
189 microbiota, stimulation of immunoglobulin and cytokine production, and reduction of pro-inflammatory cytokine  
190 secretion, thereby improving overall health and resilience against infections in livestock animals. Table 1  
191 illustrates the effect of PFA on the immunity of non-ruminants.

## 192 **Effects of PFAs on anti-inflammatory and anti-oxidative function**

193 Inflammation is a natural protective reaction triggered by tissue injury or infection to combat microorganisms and  
194 eliminate dead or damaged host cells [52]. PFAs are known to possess anti-inflammatory properties that can help  
195 modulate immune responses and reduce oxidative stress in non-ruminant animals. EOs like chamomile have anti-  
196 inflammatory effects and have been traditionally used for centuries to treat symptoms of eczema, dermatitis, and  
197 other notable irritations [53]. These EOs exert their anti-inflammatory benefits by interacting with signaling  
198 pathways involving various cytokines and regulatory transcription factors, and by regulating the expression of  
199 genes related to inflammation [54]. For example, resveratrol, when administered at 500 mg/kg as a phenolic  
200 compound, effectively modulated immune function and inflammatory response in yellow feather broilers  
201 experiencing heat stress, achieved through the inhibition of various signaling pathways including nuclear factor-  
202 kappa B (NF- $\kappa$ B), MAPK mitogen-activated protein kinase, and phosphoinositide 3-kinase/protein kinase B [55].  
203 Alkaloids enriched with phenolic compounds can influence gut health by modulating the inflammation cascade  
204 through the inhibition of NF- $\kappa$ B activation [56]. Dietary carvacrol EOs, administered at 200  $\mu$ L/L, reduced the  
205 expression of inflammatory cytokines in broiler chickens challenged with LPS, underscoring the anti-  
206 inflammatory role of carvacrol [57]. Lavender EO supplementation increased the activity of superoxide dismutase  
207 (SOD) and glutathione peroxidase (GSH-Px) enzymes, which are crucial for defending against oxidative stress  
208 [58, 59]. Phenolic compounds from the Labiatae plant family have been shown to enhance the oxidative stability  
209 of both pork [60] and poultry meat [61]. Feeding broiler chickens with *Artemisia annua*, a type of PFA, resulted  
210 in a significant reduction in thiobarbituric acid reactive substances values in both breast and thigh meat, suggesting  
211 the potential antioxidative properties of polyphenolic compounds or vitamin E in *Artemisia annua* [62].  
212 Additionally, thymol supplementation reduced malondialdehyde levels in the duodenal mucosa, suggesting  
213 decreased fatty acid oxidation [63]. Mueller et al. [64] demonstrated that phytochemical substances such as broccoli,  
214 turmeric, oregano, thyme, and rosemary up-regulated antioxidant response element genes in the small intestine of

215 broilers, indicating reduced oxidative stress. Agricultural residues serve as a valuable reservoir of polyphenols  
216 and antioxidant compounds, which can be beneficial as bioactive elements for animal feed [65]. Therefore, PFAs  
217 enriched with phenolic compounds and EOs offer significant anti-inflammatory and antioxidant benefits,  
218 effectively modulating immune responses, reducing oxidative stress, and improving the health and quality of  
219 livestock products.

## 220 **IMPLICATIONS OF PFAS ON PRODUCTIVITY**

### 221 **Effects of PFAs on growth rate and nutrient digestibility**

222 PFAs influence several aspects of livestock performance, including the release of digestive juices and enzymes,  
223 immune system modulation, changes in intestinal morphology, and improvements in nutrient utilization, leading  
224 to enhanced overall performance [66]. Mahfuz et al. [67] noted that incorporating phenolic supplements into feed  
225 can positively affect antioxidant capacity, immune response, antibacterial properties, and overall production  
226 efficiency in pigs and poultry. For instance, adding 0.5 g/kg of anise seed, with anethole as the active component,  
227 to the diet notably enhanced body weight gain (BWG) and performance index in broilers; however, there were no  
228 significant effects on feed intake (FI) or feed conversion ratio (FCR) [68]. Furthermore, Choi et al. [69]  
229 documented a gradual increase in both the overall average daily gain (ADG) and feed efficiency in weaning pigs.  
230 It was reported that incorporating quercetin in the diet at concentrations of 0, 0.2, 0.4, and 0.6% resulted in  
231 enhanced BWG and increased FI during the period of 0 to 35 days [70]. Administering 50 or 100 mg of garlic and  
232 onion to the diet of broiler chickens resulted in a notable increase in body weight [71]. Similarly, fenugreek seed  
233 supplementation at 1%, 2%, and 3% levels significantly improved FCR in broilers [72]. Another study indicated  
234 that adding 1 or 2 g of anise seed to a broiler's diet resulted in enhancements in BWG and FCR, with no impact  
235 on FI [73]. Supplementing a low-protein diet with AJE showed promise in maintaining comparable growth  
236 performance by enhancing nitrogen digestibility and influencing the intestinal bacterial population in broilers [74].  
237 Biswas et al. [75] observed a dose-dependent improvement in growth performance and nutrient utilization with  
238 increasing concentrations of gallic acid. Additionally, incorporating AJE into a low-protein diet maintained  
239 comparable growth performance and improved meat quality [76]. PFAs also positively impact nutrient  
240 digestibility, leading to increased total apparent dry matter and crude protein digestibility [77]. These  
241 improvements in feed conversion and growth efficiency are attributed to changes in gastrointestinal surface and  
242 enhanced digestive enzyme functionality [45]. The beneficial effects of phenolic content on growth may also stem  
243 from improved FI and enhanced nutrient absorption, which positively influence the intestinal epithelium [78].

#### 244 **Effects of PFAs on palatability and flavoring component**

245 Flavor, perceived through taste and smell, can be enhanced or altered in feed using plant ingredients like herbs,  
246 spices, and their extracts, thereby improving palatability and influencing the sensory properties of the diets [66].  
247 Phytobiotics are primarily asserted to positively impact the flavor and palatability of feed, thereby boosting  
248 production performance [3]. EOs, which are volatile compounds responsible for the distinctive fragrance of their  
249 sources, are named after their origins [79]. Evidence suggests that incorporating PFAs into swine diets can  
250 enhance FI [20]. However, the effects of EOs on palatability can vary. For instance, feeding pigs EOs from fennel  
251 and caraway, or thyme and oregano, caused a dose-dependent decrease in palatability [80]. In a choice feed  
252 experiment, supplementing with fennel (100 mg/kg) or caraway oil (100 mg/kg) significantly reduced FI,  
253 indicating that these flavors may decrease palatability. This decrease in palatability may be attributed to the strong,  
254 distinctive aromas and flavors of these EOs, which can lead to feed aversion in pigs. High doses of certain EOs  
255 may also activate bitter taste receptors, further reducing FI. Conversely, aromatic EOs that enhance feed flavor  
256 and palatability can lead to increased voluntary FI and subsequent weight gain. Thus, the impact on flavor and  
257 palatability varies based on the type and dosage of PFAs used.

#### 258 **Effects of PFAs on meat trait**

259 Research on dietary EOs has shown various impacts on meat quality and lipid oxidation. For instance, Javan et al.  
260 [81] assessed the effects of EOs (*Zataria multiflora*) on microbiological growth and lipid peroxidation in  
261 refrigerated broiler breast fillets. In the study by Hong et al. [33], birds in the EO group exhibited increased  
262 tenderness in breast meat and greater juiciness in thigh meat compared to the CON and AGP groups, likely due  
263 to the ability of PFAs to enhance protein metabolism and water-holding capacity. As reported by Ranucci et al.  
264 [82], adding a plant extract mix (a combination of oregano EO and sweet chestnut wood extract, 0.2%) to the diet  
265 decreased meat lipid oxidation in pigs, which can be attributed to the antioxidant properties of polyphenols  
266 that scavenge free radicals and inhibit oxidative damage. Similarly, Ghazaghi et al. [83] observed that  
267 incorporating *Mentha spicata* (1-4%) into the diet enhanced the meat quality of Japanese quail by improving  
268 muscle fiber integrity and reducing oxidative stress. The inclusion of EOs also led to an enlarged longissimus  
269 muscle area and reduced yellowness in meat [84], potentially due to their role in modulating muscle protein  
270 synthesis and reducing lipid oxidation. PFAs reduced saturated fatty acid (SFA) levels while increasing  
271 monounsaturated and polyunsaturated fatty acids, particularly lowering hypercholesterolemic SFAs like lauric,  
272 stearic, myristic, and palmitic acids [85, 86], likely through their influence on lipid metabolism and enzyme

273 activity involved in fatty acid synthesis. Increased quercetin levels in the diet positively affected breast muscle  
274 development, improved meat quality parameters such as cooking loss and drip loss, and enhanced blood profiles  
275 [87], possibly due to its ability to regulate muscle cell differentiation and maintain cellular integrity. Moreover,  
276 EOs have been shown to improve the oxidative stability of meat from broilers [88] by enhancing endogenous  
277 antioxidant enzyme activity and reducing lipid peroxidation. The enhancement of meat quality traits through  
278 dietary supplementation with PFAs is largely attributed to the antioxidant properties of phytogetic compounds.  
279 In contrast, Simitzis et al. [89] found that adding dietary oregano EO at doses of 0.25, 0.5, and 1 ml/kg of feed  
280 did not lead to improvements in the lipid oxidation status of pork. This variability in results could be attributed to  
281 species-specific differences in fatty acid composition and antioxidant enzyme activity between poultry and swine,  
282 as well as variations in the bioavailability and metabolism of phytochemicals.

### 283 **Effects of PFAs on egg quality**

284 PFAs, particularly EOs and herbal extracts, have shown potential in enhancing egg production and quality in  
285 laying hens through various mechanisms. For example, addition of 200 mg/kg of EOs from thyme, sage, or  
286 rosemary was found to increase the proportion of eggshell [90]. Incorporating peppermint (*Mentha piperita*)  
287 leaves into the diet of 64-week-old Hy-Line brown laying hens resulted in a notable increase in egg weight, egg  
288 production, and overall egg mass [91]. Additionally, a mixture of herbal EOs improved eggshell thickness [92],  
289 and herb blends increased the hens' egg-laying capacity by 1.79% compared to the CON group [93]. These positive  
290 effects of PFAs may be attributed to their ability to enhance uterine health, increase calcium storage, and boost  
291 pancreatic secretions, thereby improving nutrient digestion and subsequently eggshell and egg quality [94].  
292 However, there were no observed benefits in terms of relative shell weight when black cumin EO was added to  
293 the diet at three varying levels (1, 2, or 3 ml/kg) [90]. Similarly, adding oregano EO (50 or 100 mg/kg) to the diet  
294 at 32 weeks of age had no impact on egg quality attributes, such a yolk color score, Haugh unit, or shell thickness  
295 [61]. Similarly, the laying rate and the weight of settable eggs were not affected by an EO mixture at levels of 24,  
296 36, or 48 mg/kg [95]. This discrepancy may be due to various factors such as the inherent variability of botanical  
297 composition, animal scenarios, environmental and management conditions, potential pathogen challenges, and  
298 the treatment technique used, which can alter the active substances and related compounds in the final product [3].

### 299 **Effects of PFAs on blood parameters**

300 The impact of PFA administration on the biochemical markers in serum helps illustrate the body's physiological  
301 status and nutrient metabolism. For instance, increased monocyte counts were observed in hens supplemented  
302 with fennel EO at 300 mg/kg [96], while higher lymphocyte numbers were associated with the inclusion of thyme  
303 powder at 0.2% [97], both of which serve as positive health indicators in laying hens. Supplementation of lavender  
304 EO reduced serum lipid parameters such as cholesterol and low-density lipoprotein cholesterol in broiler chickens  
305 [59]. Similarly, *Pulicaria gnaphalodes* powder decreased cholesterol and triglycerides [98], and a blend of  
306 oregano, anise, and citrus EOs lowered cholesterol levels [99]. In addition, supplementation of peppermint oil  
307 reduced serum cholesterol levels in laying hens [94]. Moreover, including a mixture of yeast and garlic extract  
308 supplements in broiler diets led to a progressive enhancement in immune function, characterized by a linear  
309 increase in blood immunoglobulin G levels [11]. Anise supplementation in poultry feed was also found to enhance  
310 lymphocyte counts [68]. Furthermore, the blood profile revealed a significant linear decrease in cholesterol levels  
311 and a tendency for triglyceride levels to decrease with micelle silymarin (MS) supplementation [100]. Adding  
312 0.06% MS to a corn-soybean meal-based diet for 12 weeks significantly enhanced production performance and  
313 egg quality, positively affecting aspartate aminotransferase, alanine aminotransferase, and alkaline phosphatase  
314 levels, and indicating improvements in albumin, triglyceride, and cholesterol levels [101]. Research indicates that  
315 PFA may inhibit the enzyme HMG-CoA reductase, essential for liver cholesterol synthesis, thereby potentially  
316 reducing cholesterol levels in the bloodstream [102]. Table 2 and Figure 1 illustrates the response of non-ruminant  
317 animals to the phytogenic additive.

## 318 **NOXIOUS GAS EMISSIONS IMPACTING THE ENVIRONMENT**

319 Ammonia emissions from animal production pose significant health and welfare concerns for livestock and people  
320 living close to farms due to their negative impact on both animal well-being and air quality. It is hypothesized that  
321 improvements in protein digestibility can lead to better utilization of dietary amino acids, subsequently reducing  
322 the excretion of nitrogenous compounds in animal waste. Therefore, PFAs hold promise in mitigating emissions  
323 originating from animal production facilities. For instance, Zentner et al. [103] documented a 24% decrease in  
324 airborne NH<sub>3</sub> levels in growing-finishing pigs when fed PFAs comprised of oregano, thyme, anise, and citrus. El-  
325 Deek et al. [104] examined the impact of dietary crude protein levels (21% vs. 23%) with or without green tea  
326 supplementation or oxytetracycline on broiler growth. They found that a 21% protein diet supplemented with 1.5  
327 g/kg of green tea improved growth rate and FCR without adverse effects. Notably, the lower protein diet with  
328 green tea supplementation may help mitigate environmental nitrogen emissions by reducing nitrogen excretion.

329 This reduction in nitrogen excretion is particularly important for minimizing NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, which can contribute  
330 to environmental pollution and negatively impact air quality in poultry facilities. Including *Quillaja saponin* (QS)  
331 in the diet not only improves performance but also reduces emissions of harmful gases like NH<sub>3</sub>, hydrogen sulfide  
332 (H<sub>2</sub>S), and CH<sub>4</sub>, thereby enhancing barn environmental conditions and potentially mitigating environmental  
333 pollution associated with the swine industry [105]. Additionally, QS supplementation at 200 mg/kg in the diets of  
334 growing pigs effectively reduced NH<sub>3</sub> emissions from fecal gases, improving barn environments [106]. Bartoš et  
335 al. [107] also demonstrated that PFAs containing QS effectively lowered NH<sub>3</sub> emissions, offering a promising  
336 strategy for reducing NH<sub>3</sub> levels in pig production. Our previous research revealed that supplementing the diet of  
337 Hanhyup-3-ho chickens with an herbal mixture significantly reduced NH<sub>3</sub> and H<sub>2</sub>S emissions from their excreta  
338 [15]. Similarly, Khan et al. [16] found that varying levels of crude protein and AJE supplementation decreased  
339 NH<sub>3</sub> emissions to the environment. Conversely, QS revealed a positive impact on the performance of weaning  
340 pigs without any adverse effects on gas emissions or fecal score, making it a suitable feed supplement for this  
341 group [108]. PFAs promote beneficial gut bacteria while suppressing harmful ones, leading to changes in  
342 fermentation processes and reduced NH<sub>3</sub> and CO<sub>2</sub> emissions, indicating more efficient nutrient utilization by pigs  
343 [11]. Overall, PFAs show significant potential in reducing NH<sub>3</sub> and other harmful gas emissions from livestock  
344 production facilities, thereby improving environmental conditions and addressing concerns related to air quality  
345 and animal welfare.

#### 346 **LIMITATIONS**

347 The variability in PFA composition across different products poses a challenge in predicting their consistent  
348 effects. The long-term impacts and potential side effects of PFAs, especially at higher dosages, are not yet fully  
349 understood and require further investigation. Dietary PFAs interact with the GIT, impacting its structural integrity  
350 and function. For instance, curcumin, despite its poor bioavailability, has been shown to mitigate the adverse  
351 effects of Ochratoxin A exposure [109]. Although many studies demonstrate the effectiveness of supplementation  
352 with phytogetic preparations, some studies, such as Akbarian et al. [110] found no effect of lemon peel or orange  
353 peel extract on ileal histomorphology in birds exposed to heat stress. Similarly, Gaucher et al. [111] conducted an  
354 experimental program without antibiotics and discovered that commercial EO-based products were less  
355 economical, and slower at controlling clinical necrotic enteritis outbreaks under field conditions compared to  
356 antibiotics. A major challenge lies in the fact that most commercial products consist of multiple ingredients,  
357 complicating the evaluation of the effects of individual components. This complexity also hampers the evaluation

358 of published results. Moreover, comparing studies is problematic when botanical species are not clearly identified,  
359 especially when only a common name or a commercial product name is provided without details on its  
360 composition. The varying chemical composition of PFAs, shaped by their ingredients and environmental factors,  
361 highlights the need for standardizing active components to ensure consistent quality in commercial products [19].  
362 The variability in formulation and administration methods of PFAs in poultry feed and water complicates the  
363 determination of optimal dosages. This balance is crucial for achieving the desired effects, as low doses may be  
364 ineffective, while high doses could lead to potential toxicity and impair barrier function [29]. Factors such as  
365 variations in bird genetics and overall diet composition significantly influence the effectiveness of PFAs.  
366 Moreover, careful consideration should be given to potential interactions between phytogetic additives and other  
367 feed supplements to optimize their benefits. Therefore, while PFAs show promise in influencing gastrointestinal  
368 integrity and health in non-ruminant animals, their variable compositions, potential interactions with other  
369 supplements, and the need for standardized formulations underscore the necessity for further research and careful  
370 consideration in their application.

#### 371 **FUTURE DIRECTIONS AND SUMMARY**

372 Over the past decade, advancements in standardizing PFAs have led to their increased use in non-ruminant  
373 nutrition . These additives have been shown to enhance nutrient digestibility, improve gut morphology, modulate  
374 inflammatory responses, and promote beneficial intestinal microbiota, ultimately leading to better feed efficiency  
375 and growth performance. Additionally, PFAs contribute to improved immune function and reduced pathogen  
376 prevalence, making them a viable alternative to AGPs in non-ruminant production. From a user perspective, PFAs  
377 offer a sustainable approach to improving animal health, welfare, and productivity while reducing reliance on  
378 antibiotics. Additionally, their potential to lower gas emissions supports environmentally friendly livestock  
379 production. Given the global shift away from AGPs, PFAs represent a promising strategy for enhancing  
380 performance and sustainability in non-ruminant animal production systems. Despite the abundance of research on  
381 the impact of PFAs on animal health and performance, the precise mechanisms by which these feed additives  
382 work are not yet fully understood. Further investigation is needed to explore potential adverse effects and the  
383 consequences of over dosage, requiring both in vitro and in vivo trials to ensure their safe and effective use. Future  
384 research should prioritize conducting standardized trials with clear indications of PFAs composition to facilitate  
385 easier comparison of results. Additionally, exploring the potential synergistic effects of phytogetic compounds  
386 under standardized conditions could provide deeper insights.

387 **DECLARATION OF COMPETING INTEREST**

388 The authors declare that they have no competing interests.

389

ACCEPTED



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**Table 1. Impact of dietary PFA inclusion on non-ruminant immunity**

Animal and species	Feed Additive, Major Components, and Dose	Immune Response	References
Weaned piglets (Songliao black pigs)	Grape pomace; polyphenols; 5%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Increased the number of <i>Lactobacillus delbrueckii</i>, <i>Olsenella umbonata</i>, and <i>Selenomonas bovis</i> in caecum.</li> <li>▪ Enhanced VH: CD ratio of jejunum.</li> <li>▪ Lowered mRNA expression of pro-inflammatory cytokines (IL-1<math>\beta</math>, IL-8, IL-6, and TNF-<math>\alpha</math>).</li> <li>▪ Augmented IgG in serum.</li> </ul>	[112]
Piglets (Duroc $\times$ Landrace $\times$ Yorkshire)	Grape seed extract; procyanidins; 50, 100, and 150 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Improved IgG, IgM, C-4, IL-2, T-AOC, SOD, GSH-Px in serum.</li> <li>▪ Decreased MDA in serum.</li> </ul>	[113]
Piglets (Duroc $\times$ Landrace $\times$ Yorkshire)	Chinese gallnut; tannic acid; 500, 1000, and 1500 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Heightened VH: CD ratio of duodenum.</li> <li>▪ Enhanced gene expression of solute carrier family 6, member 19, solute carrier family 15, and member 1 in ileum.</li> <li>▪ Decreased gene expression of solute carrier family 5 and member 1 in jejunum.</li> <li>▪ Lowered maltase activities in ileum.</li> <li>▪ Elevated colonic bacterial community.</li> </ul>	[114]
Piglets ([Yorkshire $\times$ Landrace] $\times$ Duroc)	Brown algae; eckol; 0.05% and 0.1%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Lowered the levels of stress hormones (cortisol, epinephrine, and norepinephrine).</li> <li>▪ Reduced antioxidants (SOD and glutathione peroxide).</li> </ul>	[41]
Male pigs (Duroc $\times$ Landrace $\times$ Large White)	Cinnamaldehyde; EOs; 50, 100, and 200 ppm	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Reduced TC and TG in serum.</li> <li>▪ Increased goblet cell and lactase activities in jejunum and sucrose activities in duodenum.</li> <li>▪ Augmented VH: CD ratio in ileum.</li> <li>▪ Improved expression of occluding and glucose transporter-2 gene in duodenum and ileum.</li> </ul>	[58]
Piglets (Duroc $\times$ Landrace $\times$ Large White)	Cinnamaldehyde and thymol; EOs; 0.025%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Increased VH of jejunum.</li> <li>▪ Lowered <i>E. coli</i> and total anaerobes in rectum.</li> <li>▪ Enhanced albumin, IgA, IgG, and T-AOC in plasma.</li> </ul>	[115]

Fattening boars (Landrace × Large White)	Tannins; tannic acid; 1%, 2%, and 3%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Improved VH and mucosal thickness in duodenum.</li> <li>Lessened mitosis and apoptosis count in large intestine.</li> </ul>	[116]
Piglets (Landrace × Yorkshire × Duroc)	Chestnut wood, tannic acid; 1000 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Heightened CAT, GSH-Px, IgM and lower MDA in serum.</li> <li>Improved trypsin, lipase and amylase activities.</li> <li>Enhanced VH: CD ratio of jejunum.</li> <li>Elevated propionic acid, butyric acid, and acetic acid concentrations in the colon.</li> </ul>	[117]
Broiler (Cobb 500)	Thyme powder; EOs, carvacrol, phenolic acids, ellagic acid, and flavonoid; 2000, 5000, and 8000 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Enhanced lymphocytes, white blood cells, and IgG.</li> <li>Heightened TNF-<math>\alpha</math>, IFN-<math>\gamma</math>, NF-<math>\kappa</math>BP50 by all the doses.</li> <li>Reduced IL-6 by the dose of 8000.</li> </ul>	[118]
Broiler (Ross 308)	Oregano; EOs; 5%	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased secondary antibody titer and IgG titer.</li> <li>Decreased H/L ratio.</li> </ul>	[119]
Broiler (Ross male)	Turmeric rhizome; phenolic compounds; 16.2 mg/g	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased total secondary antibody titer.</li> <li>Decreased H/L ratio.</li> </ul>	[120]
Broiler (Ross 308)	Thyme; thyme oil; 0.5 g/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decreased MDA in duodenal mucosa and kidney.</li> <li>Increased IgA in duodenal mucosa.</li> <li>Enhanced intestinal barrier integrity.</li> </ul>	[63]
Broiler (mixed-sex, 500)	Cobb <i>Oleum cinnamomi</i> ; cinnamaldehyde; 50, 100, 200, and 300 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Decreased serum Ig levels.</li> <li>Lowered ileal secretory IgA contents at day 21 and commonly down-regulated duodenal and ileal mRNA expression of IL-1<math>\beta</math> and IL-8 at day 42.</li> <li>Augmented VH: CD ratio of jejunum and upregulated intestinal claudin-1 expression.</li> <li>Up and down regulated jejunal (at day 21) and duodenal (at day 42) mucin-2 expression.</li> </ul>	[121]
Broiler (mixed-sex, 308)	Ross Carvacrol EO; carvacrol, thymol, paracymene; 200, 300, or 400 $\mu$ l	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Increased activity of the sucrase and lactase in intestinal mucosa.</li> <li>Improved intestinal barrier function.</li> <li>Significantly heightened OCLN, CLDN-1, CLDN-3, CLDN-5, ZO-1, and ZO-2 mRNA expression.</li> </ul>	[122]

Broiler (male Cobb 500)	PFA; menthol and anethole; 100 and 150 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Significant effect on microbial fermentation at ileum and a retarding effect in ceca with additional variable VFA molar patterns.</li> <li>▪ Increased the ileal mucosa expression of claudin 5 (CLDN5) and MUC2 genes.</li> <li>▪ Decreased cecal TLR2 gene expression.</li> </ul>	[123]
Broiler (Cobb 500)	Grape; Proanthocyanidins; polyphenols; 7.5, 15, and 30 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Augmented jejunum morphology.</li> <li>▪ Increased T-SOD, ALT, ALP, and CRE concentration in serum.</li> <li>▪ Diminished MDA value in serum.</li> </ul>	[124]
Bovans Brown laying hens	Peppermint; EOs; 74, 148, 222, and 296 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Increased TP in serum.</li> <li>▪ Lessened serum cholesterol.</li> </ul>	[94]
Hy-line White (Leghorn)	<i>Echinacea purpurea</i> ; polyphenols; 2.5, 5, 7.5 and 10 g/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Lessened TC, TG, in serum.</li> <li>▪ Reduced cholesterol in egg yolk.</li> <li>▪ Increased HDL in serum.</li> </ul>	[125]
Hy-line layer	Oregano; EOs; 50, 100, and 150 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Heightened VH: CD ratio of duodenum.</li> <li>▪ Augmented gene expression on glucose transporter 2, peptide transporter 1, sodium-glucose cotransporter 1 in duodenum and jejunum.</li> </ul>	[126]
Quail (female)	PFA; thymol; 2 g/kg (80 mg/bird per day)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Enhanced albumen, glucose, globulins, and TP in plasma.</li> <li>▪ Increased inflammatory responses.</li> <li>▪ Improved H/L ratio in blood.</li> </ul>	[127]
Turkey	PFA; mixed EOs; 1 mL/L	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Elevated the percentage of CD4+ T lymphocytes in the thymus and the spleen.</li> <li>▪ Enhanced the percent of CD8+ T lymphocytes in the cecal tonsils and the blood.</li> <li>▪ Improved the higher percent of CD4+ and CD8+ T lymphocytes in the thymus and ileal mucosa.</li> </ul>	[128]
Duckling (Cherry valley)	Oregano; EOs; 100 mg/kg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>▪ Increased VH: CD ratio in jejunum.</li> <li>▪ Improved SOD in serum and T-AOC in jejunum mucosa.</li> <li>▪ Reduced MDA in serum and liver tissue.</li> <li>▪ Decreased mRNA expression of ZO-3 and sIgA.</li> </ul>	[129]

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Abbreviation: VH: CD, villus height to crypt depth; T-AOC, total antioxidant capacity; SOD, superoxide dismutase; GSH-Px: glutathione peroxidase; MDA, malondialdehyde; TP, total protein; HDL, high-density lipoprotein; TC, total cholesterol; TG, triglycerides; T-SOD, total superoxide dismutase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; ALP, alkaline phosphatase; CRE: creatinine; TLR2, toll-like receptor 2; VFA, volatile fatty acids; ZO-3, zonula occludens-3; sIgA, secretory immunoglobulin A; CLDN, claudin; OCLN, occludin; TNF- $\alpha$ , tumor necrosis factor-alpha; IFN- $\gamma$ , interferon-gamma; NF- $\kappa$ B, nuclear factor-kappa B; H/L, heterophil to lymphocyte.

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**Table 2: The response of non-ruminant animals to the phytogetic additive**

Animal and species	Feed additive and major components	Dose	Growth performance outcome	Other responses	References
Growing pigs ([Yorkshire × Landrace] × Duroc)	<i>Silybum marianum</i> ; Flavonoid	0.05% and 0.1%	ADG and ADFI ↑; FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM, nitrogen, energy ↑; Blood profile of bile acid, AST, and ALT ↓	[130]
Growing pigs ([Yorkshire × Landrace] × Duroc)	<i>Quillaja saponin</i> ; Saponin	200 mg/kg	ADG ↑; ADFI and FCR ↓	Fecal ammonia emission and fecal coliform bacteria ↓	[106]
Weaning pigs ([Yorkshire × Landrace] × Duroc)	<i>Houttuynia cordata</i> and <i>Taraxacum officinale</i> ;	1 g/kg	ADG and G:F ↑;	Digestibility of nutrient ↓; lymphocyte concentration ↑; <i>E. coli</i> populations in the feces ↓	[13]
Growing pigs ([Yorkshire × Landrace] × Duroc)	<i>Achyranthes japonica</i> ; Flavonoids, polyphenol, and saponin	0.025% and 0.05%	ADG and ADFI ↑; Gain to feed ratio ↓	Nutrient digestibility, fecal microbial count, and gas emission ↓; Blood absorption rate ↑	[131]
Growing pigs ([Yorkshire × Landrace] × Duroc)	<i>Quillaja saponin</i> ; Saponin	0.01%	BW and ADG ↑; FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM, nitrogen ↑; NH <sub>3</sub> , H <sub>2</sub> S, and CH <sub>4</sub> emissions ↓, Faecal score ↓	[105]
Growing pigs ([Landrace × Yorkshire] × Duroc)	Quercetin; Flavonoid	0.1%	ADG ↑	Digestibility of DM and nitrogen ↑; IL-6 ↓; IgG and WBC concentrations ↑; and lymphocytes percentage ↑	[132]
Weaned (Duroc × Landrace × Yorkshire) piglets	Glycyrrhiza; Licorice flavonoids	0, 50, 150 and 250 mg/kg	ADG ↑; FI/body gain ↓	Diarrhoea index and pH in caecum and colon ↓; Intestinal morphological structure ↑	[38]
Landrace finishing pigs	<i>Sasa quepaertensis</i> Nakai	450 ml	ADG ↑	<i>Firmicutes</i> and <i>Actinobacteria</i> phyla ↑; <i>Bacteroidetes</i> and <i>Spirochaetes</i> phyla ↓;	[133]

				<i>Bifidobacterium</i> and <i>Lactobacillus</i> genera ↑, <i>Treponema</i> , <i>Prevotella</i> , and <i>Turicibacter</i> ↓; Backfat thickness ↓	
Broilers (Ross 308)	Quercetin; Saponin	0.2, 0.4, and 0.6 g/kg QS	BWG and FI ↑, FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM and energy, cecal lactic acid bacteria counts ↑; Breast muscle, pH, and water holding capacity of meat ↑; Drip loss of meat ↓	[70]
Laying hens (Hy-Line brown)	Micelle silymarin; Silybin, silydianin, and silychristin	0, 0.03, and 0.06%	FCR ↓	Egg weight, egg yolk color, albumen height, eggshell strength, and egg shell thickness ↑; Downgraded egg ↓; Blood profile of AST, ALT, and lactate dehydrogenase ↓	[101]
Quails (Old Japanese)	Anise (Ans) and grape seed (Grp)	Ans 0.5%, Grp 0.5%, and Ans 0.25% + Grp 0.25%	BW ↑; FCR ↓	Dressing percentage, carcass yield, immune organs' relative weight ↑; Abdominal fat ↓, Low density lipoprotein ↓, High density lipoprotein ↑; Total antioxidant capacity ↑; <i>Lactobacillus</i> count ↑; <i>E. coli</i> and <i>Salmonella</i> count ↓	[134]
Broilers (Ross 308)	<i>Achyranthes japonica</i> ; Saponin, flavonoid, and polyphenol	0.02%; 0.04%, and 0.06%	BWG and FI ↑; FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM, nitrogen, energy ↑; Excreta microbial counts, noxious gas emissions, and meat quality ↑; Blood absorption rate ↑	[135]
Broilers (Ross 308)	Quercetin, Flavonoid	0.025% and 0.050%	BWG ↑; FI and FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM ↑; Meat quality of drip loss ↓; Excreta	[136]

Broilers (Ross 308)	Betaine	0 and 2,000 ppm	BW and FI ↑; FCR ↓	microbial counts and noxious gas emissions ↓ Mn, Zn, Cu, and Fe digestibility ↑; Serum total protein and globulin concentrations ↑; Gene expressions were reversed	[137]
Laying hens (Hy-Line brown)	Micelle silymarin; Silybin, silydianin, and silychristin	0%, 0.03% and 0.06%	BW and FCR ↑	Haugh units, egg weight, eggshell strength, and albumen height ↑, Egg yolk color, eggshell thickness, and egg water loss ↓; Blood profile of alkaline phosphatase, AST cholesterol ↓	[138]
Broilers (Ross 308)	Quercetin; Flavonoid	0%, 0.02%, 0.04% and 0.06%	BW and FI ↑; FCR ↓	Digestibility of DM and energy ↑; Tibia ash ↑; Organ weights of breast muscle, colour lightness and redness of meat ↑; drip loss of meat ↓	[14]
Laying hens (Hy-Line brown)	Micelle silymarin; Silybin, silydianin, and silychristin	0%, 0.02%, 0.04%, and 0.06%	FI ↑; FCR ↓	Egg production, egg shell thickness and eggshell strength, and yolk colour ↑; Blood profile of cholesterol and triglyceride ↓	[108]

Abbreviation: ADG, average daily gain; ADFI, average daily feed intake; FCR, feed conversion ratio; AST, aspartate aminotransferase; ALT, alanine aminotransferase; DM, dry matter; NH<sub>3</sub>, ammonia; H<sub>2</sub>S, hydrogen sulfide; CH<sub>4</sub>, methane; FI, feed intake; BW, body weight; Mn, manganese; Zn, zinc; Cu, copper; Fe, iron; IL, interleukin; Ig, immunoglobulin. The symbol ↑ indicates an increase in response criteria, ↓ indicates a decrease in response criteria, and ↓ indicates no effect on response criteria.

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### Phytogenic Feed Additives

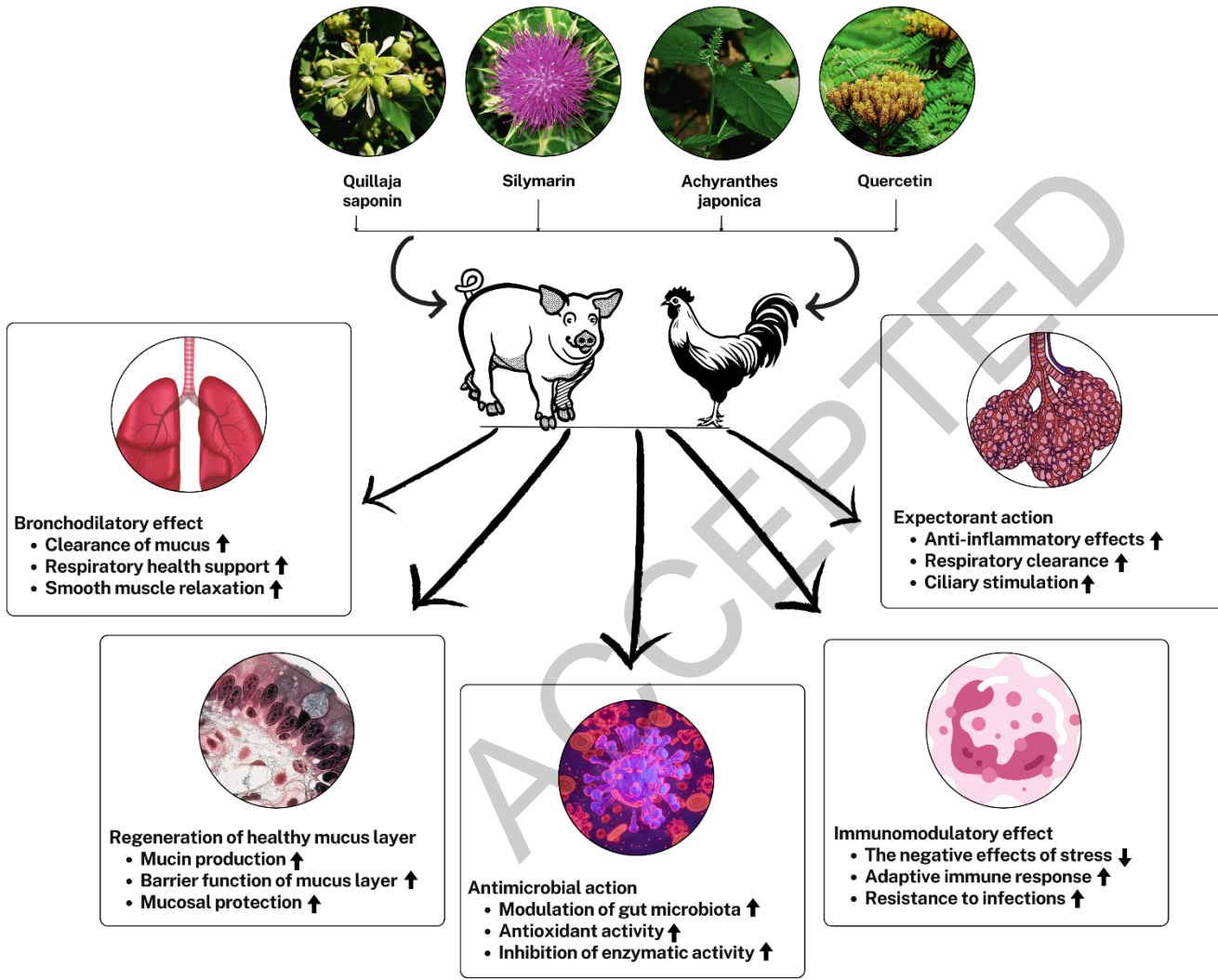


Fig. 1. Effects of PFAs on non-ruminant animal health