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Effect of Spore-forming Probiotics on the Poultry Production: A

Review

Running Title: Spore-forming Probiotics in Poultry Feed

Abstract

Due to the bad aspects associated with the use of antibiotics, the pressure on poultry production prompted the efforts to find out suitable growth-promoting and disease-preventing alternatives. Although, many cost-effective alternatives have been developed. Currently, one of the most auspicious alternatives for poultry feed is spore-forming probiotics, which can exert more beneficial effects as compared to normal probiotics, because of their ability to withstand the harsh external and internal conditions which result in increased viability. Many studies have already used spore-forming probiotics to improve different parameters of poultry production. Our lab has recently isolated a spore-forming bacterial strain, which has the potential to be used as a probiotic. So, to provide a detailed understanding, the current review aimed to collect valuable references to describe the mechanism of action of spore-forming probiotics and their effect on all the key aspects of poultry production.

Key Words: Spore-forming Probiotics, Poultry Feed, Growth performance, Health, Antibiotics

27 Introduction

28 The excessive use of antibiotics produced resistance in animals' microbiota, with the ability to
29 transfer antibiotics resistant genes into human microbiota (Mingmongkolchai and Panbangred,
30 2018). As more and more cases of antibiotic resistance emerged from all over the world, the
31 controversy on their use became a global issue (Cogliani et al., 2011). It was reported that the use
32 of antibiotics in poultry feed caused diseases in humans, due to the development of drug-resistant
33 strains of *C. jejuni* (Iovine and Blaser, 2004). Health issues related to the use of antibiotics have
34 been systematically reviewed (Muhammad et al., 2020). Many studies have now identified the
35 presence of antibiotics in water and soil (Yang et al., 2011; Jiang et al., 2013; Kim et al., 2017) ,
36 and the excessive use of antibiotics enrich the environment with antibiotic-resistant bacteria and
37 genes (Franklin et al., 2016). Due to all the problems associated with their use, antibiotics have
38 been prohibited for the animal feed industry, and Sweden was the first country to ban them in 1986
39 (Castanon, 2007). However, prohibiting the use of antibiotics caused a decrease in production,
40 which suggested the urgent need to find a potential alternative to antibiotics.

41 In recent years many researchers focused to find out some novel and beneficial
42 replacements of antibiotics with the potential of promoting growth and preventing birds from
43 pathogens (Yadav et al., 2016). Due to their useful applications for animals and humans, probiotics
44 were considered as a potential alternative to antibiotics (Zorriehzahra et al., 2016). Probiotics
45 include different species, such as bacteria, fungi, and yeast (Iannitti and Palmieri, 2010). The use
46 of probiotics has been increased during the last few years, as they can improve the production
47 performance and enhance the immune system (Mingmongkolchai and Panbangred, 2018).

48 However, the researchers now believe that spore-forming probiotics (SFP's) are the best
49 alternative among the available options (Popov et al., 2021). The mechanism of antibiotics as
50 growth promoters is based on their interaction with intestinal microbiota (Niewold, 2007). Due to
51 their encapsulation ability, the SFP's can reach the specific part of the gastrointestinal (GI) tract
52 easily. During the last few decades, the SFP's showed significant improvement in prophylactic
53 activities, growth promotion, and feed conversion rate in broiler as well as laying hens (Popov et
54 al., 2021).

55 Many studies reported the use of different strains of SFP's in poultry feed. So, to help the
56 researchers for a better insight into the effect of SFP's on poultry, we summarized the valuable
57 literature.

58 Why Spore-forming Probiotics

59 Despite of no clear boundaries, the microbiota found in different parts of the GI tract varies
60 in quantity, characteristics and composition (Oakley et al., 2014). Due to differences in the
61 environment, all microorganism are not able to survive in different types of environment so, it
62 became one of the most important parameter, while choosing the probiotic species. Because the
63 probiotic should be able to reside in the area of interest in GI tract. The diversity and dynamic
64 nature of the GI environment make gut microbiology a quite complicated area of research
65 (Cartman et al., 2007). Hence, it is necessary to find potential probiotics, which can colonize in
66 the area of interest.

67 SFP's have a greater ability to survive and pass through the GI tract and also to proliferate
68 and colonize the digestive tract of animals (Popov et al., 2021). The stability of spores during their
69 passage through the upper GI tract was better as compared to vegetative cells, and the spores were
70 able to proliferate in lower parts of the GI tract and exhibit their beneficial properties

71 (Mingmongkolchai and Panbangred, 2018). This ability makes SFP's a best feed additive for
72 livestock, especially in the poultry industry (Popov et al., 2021).

73 Furthermore, the veterinary sector has now acknowledged that the application of spores
74 has several benefits over the vegetative cells. As compared to vegetative cells, spores are more
75 easily stored, manipulated, and delivered to farm animals (Todorov et al., 2021).

76 Mechanism of Action of Spore-forming Probiotics in Poultry

77 Poultry production in a commercial environment faces continuous exposure to the various
78 microbes usually through their mucosa (Broom, 2019). Depending upon the interaction of host and
79 microbe diseases may occur (Garcia et al., 2010).

80 The mechanism of action of SFP's is still not very clear. However, it is reported that the
81 mechanism of action of SFP's is the same as the normal probiotic micro-organisms (Cartman et
82 al., 2007).

83 The mode of action of probiotics in poultry was reported in many different ways (Fig. 1).
84 The first strategy was known as the competitive exclusion, competition for the adhesion sites
85 prevents the colonization of pathogenic bacteria (Chichlowski et al., 2007; O'dea et al., 2006).
86 This competitive exclusion was achieved through the adhesion of beneficial bacteria (Chichlowski
87 et al., 2007). Maintenance of this activity depends upon the ability of the SFP's strain to adhere to
88 the intestinal wall (AFRC, 1989). It was reported that the *Bacillus* spores can not only germinate
89 and grow in the intestine (Nakano and Zuber, 1998) but also re-sporulate in the lower part of the
90 small intestine (Tam et al., 2006). Furthermore, the spore's adhesion to the intestinal wall can help
91 to retain the spores in the intestine (Popov et al., 2021) and thus can contribute to competitive

92 exclusion. The adhesion of probiotics to the gut mucosa is important for colonization and
93 interaction with the host (Bermudez-Brito et al., 2012).

94 The gut bacteria produce metabolites that control the growth of pathogenic compounds and
95 compete for adhesion in the intestinal epithelium. These metabolites are short-chain organic acids,
96 bacteriocins as well as hydrogen peroxides (Dankowiakowska et al., 2013), help in attachment to
97 the intestinal mucosal layer (Buck et al., 2005). The newborn has a sterile digestive system and
98 before its organs produce antibodies, microbes from the environment start to colonize in the gut.
99 Therefore the use of probiotics due to their adhesion ability with the intestinal mucosa creates a
100 natural blockade against disease pathogens (Dankowiakowska et al., 2013).

101 The second mode of action of probiotics was reported through balancing the dysbiosis. The
102 enteric dysbiosis may cause alteration in host-microbial interaction, leading to disease conditions
103 (Byndloss and Bäumlér, 2018; Plaza-Díaz et al., 2018). Recently, it was suggested that probiotics
104 can treat dysbiosis and restore the imbalanced or disturbed microbiota, (Mendes et al., 2018; Vieira
105 et al., 2016). Another study suggested the same findings that probiotics can maintain the
106 colonization of disturbed gut microbiota (Plaza-Díaz et al., 2019). This mechanism suggests that
107 the balanced gut microbiota also helps to reduce the emission of ammonia through feces.

108 The third mechanism was achieved through the antagonistic activity of probiotics.
109 Probiotics produce a class of small antimicrobial molecules (bacteriocins, mucin, defensins) which
110 obstruct the pathogens, and their colonization (Khan and Naz, 2013). One study reported that
111 bactericidal substances produced by bacteria can lyse the pathogens, and receptors on the surface
112 of probiotics can mimic the intestinal wall, and antagonize the pathogens, and then they neutralize
113 them (Sleator, 2010). Similarly, it was suggested that the mucin secreted by the intestinal epithelial
114 cells, reduces the adhesion of pathogenic bacteria (Preedy, 2010).

115 The fourth mechanism of probiotic action is known to modulate the GI immunity, which
116 is also considered as the most important benefit of probiotics. Different studies have shown that
117 probiotics induce anti-inflammatory mediators, such as interleukin-10 (IL-10), thymic stromal
118 lymphopoietin (TSLP), and transforming growth factor beta (TGF- β). And simultaneously
119 decrease the production of pro-inflammatory cytokines such as interleukin 8 (IL-8) and tumor
120 necrosis factor-alpha (TNF- α) (Georgieva et al., 2015).

121 Effect of Spore-forming probiotics on Different Key Aspects of Poultry

122 *Effect on the GI Tract of poultry*

123 Among all spore formers, bacterial spores are particularly well studied for use as a probiotic
124 because they are dormant, metabolically inactive, and highly resistant to environmental stresses
125 (Elisashvili et al., 2019). These distinctive properties are beneficial for the commercial perspective
126 which means that they have a long shelf life and can maintain viability during distribution and
127 storage. Despite all this knowledge, how the bacterial spores may function as probiotics are limited
128 at present.

129 Spore germination is requisite to function as a probiotic. Jadamus et al. (2001) first time
130 experimented to check the germination of bacterial spores in the GI tract of poultry and concluded
131 that *B. cereus var. toyoi* germinates rapidly. Later, a similar study was performed by Cartman et
132 al. (2008) suggested that the spores must be viable to function as a probiotic and to produce the
133 antimicrobial compounds, and the results reported that germination of *Bacillus subtilis* spores
134 occurs in the GI tract of poultry. Another study reported that the spore germination in the GI tract

135 of poultry occurs at such a faster rate that, 90% of spores germinated within one hour (Latorre et
136 al., 2014).

137 *Bacillus* spp. are generally known as aerobic bacteria, and it is important to know that how
138 they survive in the anoxic environment of the GI tract if germinates. So, the studies concluded
139 reported that these bacteria can use nitrate or nitrate as an electron acceptor instead of oxygen for
140 their growth and survival (Nakano and Zuber, 1998; Shivaramaiah et al., 2011).

141 *Effect on Ammonia Reduction through feces*

142 Currently, the excess emission of ammonia is a major environmental problem related to
143 the poultry industry. The SFP's and the environment of the GI tract can contribute to overcoming
144 this serious issue (Fig. 2). It was reported that the uric acid produced in the chicken's liver is
145 excreted into the intestine and microbial urease converts it into ammonia by hydrolysis (Karasawa
146 et al., 1988). Many intestinal microorganisms (*Clostridia*, *Bacteroides*, and *Proteus*) possess
147 urease activity (Ahmed et al., 2014), through which uric acid is hydrolyzed into ammonia. Gram-
148 positive, SFP's have been reported to inhibit the production of urease-producing bacteria, either
149 by inhibiting the growth of pathogenic bacteria, producing antimicrobial compounds, or by
150 lowering the pH, which in turn reduce ammonia production in ceca (Goudarzi et al., 2017). Similar
151 studies reported that *B. subtilis* reduced the emission of ammonia and promoted the growth
152 performance by inhibiting the pathogenic bacteria in broiler chicken (Chen et al., 2012; Teo and
153 Tan, 2007). Thus the stabilized gut microbiota maintains the intestinal health of poultry (Hong et
154 al., 2005). Zhang and Kim, (2013) reported that the dietary supplementation of *B. subtilis* can
155 improve the enzymatic activity of intestinal microbiota and improved microbial balance in the GI
156 tract was the main reason for the reduction in ammonia production. According to Han et al. (2001),

157 several studies reported that infeed probiotics have reduced ammonia by improving the feed
158 efficiency and microbial ecology of GI tract. Similarly Jeong and Kim (2014) observed a
159 significant decrease in ammonia excretion when they used *Bacillus* strains in poultry feed. Ahmed
160 et al. (2014) suggested that *B. amyloliquefaciens* is also an effective microorganism for
161 suppressing ammonia production by improving the environment of GI tract.

162 *Effect on the Egg Quality*

163 Poultry farmers aimed to produce eggs with normal shape, eggshell thickness, and eggshell
164 strength to maintain the freshness of eggs according to the consumer's demand (Fouad et al., 2016).
165 Studies suggested that diets supplemented with *B. subtilis*; a spore-forming bacterium can improve
166 the production performance and eggs quality for economic benefits (Xu et al., 2006).

167 It was very important to note that the stress conditions affect the eggshell thickness, and
168 thus increase the number of cracked or broken eggs. SFP's are reported to heal the birds suffering
169 several stressors (Fathi et al., 2018). It was reported that the increase in the availability of intestinal
170 calcium produced a positive effect of probiotics on the eggshell strength (Świątkiewicz et al.,
171 2010). An increase in egg shell thickness and reduction in damaged eggs was recorded in the hens,
172 fed diet fortified with SFP's *B. subtilis*, which may be related to the calcium retention (Fathi et al.,
173 2018).

174 Another study reported that compared to the control group significant increase in the egg
175 production rate was observed, when hens were fed with *Lactobacillus sporogenes*, as well the
176 persistency was better in the probiotic group (Panda et al., 2008). But some studies reported
177 contradictory results, which might be pertinent to the bacterial strain, form, and concentration used
178 (Nahashon, 1992; Tortuero and Fernandez, 1995).

179 *Effect on the Growth Performance Parameters*

180 The stabilized gut microbiota can help to improve the feed conversion ratio and
181 consequently enhance the digestion as well as absorption of nutrients (Pan and Yu, 2014). Panda
182 et al. (2003) revealed that the *L. sporogens* supplemented diet improved weight gain and FCR in
183 broilers. The inclusion of *B. subtilis* C-1302 at the level of 300 and 600 mg/kg of diet showed
184 positive effects on the growth rate (increased Average daily gain) and decrease the FCR in broilers
185 (Jeong and Kim, 2014). Similarly, Fathi et al. (2018) concluded that dietary supplementation of *B.*
186 *subtillus* had no significant effect on the FCR of laying hens. According to Lei et al. (2013) adding
187 *Bacillus licheniformis* to the diet showed no significant effect on the feed consumption and FCR
188 of the laying hens. Furthermore, probiotics have been reported to give inconsistent results for
189 average daily feed intake (ADFI) (Otutumi et al., 2012) sometimes showing no effect at all. A
190 significant increase in (ADFI) was observed when Hy-Line Brown laying hens fed a diet
191 supplemented with *Bacillus velezensis* (Ye et al., 2020). Ross 308 broiler chicks fed a diet
192 supplemented with *C. butyricum* also showed significant increase in ADFI (Zhao et al., 2013).
193 However, many studies reported no significant effect increase in ADFI, such as Broiler Cobb 500
194 fed a *B. subtilis* supplemented diet (Oladokun et al., 2021), Hy-Line Brown laying hens fed a diet
195 supplemented with *B. amyloliquefaciens* (Zhou et al., 2020) and Hy-Line Brown laying hens fed
196 a diet supplemented *B. licheniformis* (Yang et al., 2020). Zhu et al. (2009) explained that the
197 benefits associated with probiotics depend upon many factors, such as, probiotic species, strain,
198 application method, age of flocks, over all hygiene and housing conditions on farm, and external
199 environmental factors.

200 *Effects on the Immune System*

201 The basic and most important organs of the immune system consisted of the thymus, bursa
202 of Fabricius, and spleen, which are involved in the production and differentiation of immune cells
203 and production of antibodies (Fouad et al., 2016). Stress leaves damaging effects on the natural
204 defense system and intestinal epithelial cells of hens (Soderholm and Perdue, 2001; Taché et al.,
205 2001). The response to the immune system as well as intestinal epithelial cells is directly controlled
206 by the neuroendocrine system (Levite, 2001; Petrovsky, 2001).

207 The commensal bacteria present in the gut, influence the development of the immune
208 system by interacting with the probiotics (Tannock, 1999) because these commensal bacteria have
209 close contact with the cells of the immune system (Haghighi et al., 2005). Colonization of microbes
210 in the chicken gut begins early after hatching and becomes stabilized within the first fifteen days
211 of their life (Rehman et al., 2007). Another study suggested that some immunomodulatory effects
212 of probiotics involve changes in signaling pathways and activation of transcription factors and thus
213 enhance the expression of messenger RNA genes, related to innate immunity (Al-Khalaifah, 2018).
214 RNA of the immune system, for example, the maturation process of the intestinal TCR $\alpha\beta$ T cell
215 (Mwangi et al., 2010) and the immunoglobulin repertoire (den Hartog et al., 2013) is dependent,
216 on the enteric microbiota.

217 *Effect on the Meat Quality*

218 The storage time and processing depend upon the physicochemical properties of the meat
219 (Popova, 2017). *Bacillus*-based probiotics were reported to improve the pH, stiffness, and color of
220 the meat (Pelicano et al., 2003). Color is an important quality parameter because more than 80%
221 of the consumers focus on the color of meat when they tend to buy it (Bai et al., 2017; Węglarz,

222 2010). Recently, a spore-forming bacteria, *B. amyloliquefaciens* B-1895 was reported to improve
223 the meat mass in broilers. Similarly, Li u et al. (2012) showed that hens drinking *B. licheniformis*
224 supplemented water showed significantly improved meat color, juiciness, and also high protein
225 content. Studies showed that SFP's can improve meat quality, but the type of probiotic and the
226 approach of administration can influence the performance (Bai et al., 2017). As observed by
227 Hossain et al. (2012) the higher efficiency ratio of protein may help to promote meat yield.

228 *Effect on the Enzyme Production*

229 *Bacillus*-based SFP's can produce beneficial enzymes, which help to regulate the function
230 of the digestive system (Ramlucken et al., 2020). Enzymes such as protease and carbohydrate help
231 to lower the non-digestible proteins and carbohydrates, which act as a nutrient source for
232 pathogenic bacteria (Kiarie et al., 2013). Ramlucken et al. (2020) reported that poultry is not
233 known to produce enzymes for the digestion of non-starch polysaccharides, which if remain un-
234 hydrolyzed results in low feed conversion. So, the addition of enzymes through the feed is
235 necessary, and enzyme-producing probiotics are the best alternative. The study reported that
236 *Bacillus* spp. can produce several exogenous enzymes, (protease, β -glucanase, amylase, xylanase,
237 phytase, lipase, and cellulase) which are crucial for the digestion in poultry (Latorre et al., 2015).
238 These probiotic enzymes improve the nutrient availability to the microflora in the GI tract
239 (Ramlucken et al., 2020). Wang and Gu (2010) reported that *Bacillus coagulans* increased the
240 activity of protease and amylase, which in turn improved the broiler growth. Study performed in
241 our lab has isolated protease and β -glucanase producing *B. velezensis* Y1 strain from the manure
242 of piglets (Khalid et al., 2021). Several other studies have already reported the enzyme production
243 ability of *Bacillus* species (Adeola and Cowieson, 2011; Latorre et al., 2014). All these enzymes

244 (protease, lipases, glucanase, cellulase, xylanase, and phytase can help to balance the anti-
245 nutritional factors in the feed (Popov et al., 2021).

246 Future Implications

247 The review concluded that several SFP's have been studied until now, but a few of them
248 were used commercially such as *B. subtilis*, *B. licheniformis* *B. cereus* (Larsen et al., 2014).
249 However, another recent study used *B. amyloliquefaciens* B-1895 in poultry feed and reported
250 beneficial results (Farhat - Khemakhem et al., 2018).

251 Recently, our lab has isolated a strain of spore-forming *B. velezensis* from the manure of
252 piglets (Khalid et al., 2021), described its characteristics (Ye et al., 2018), and used it in poultry
253 feed. The results showed significant improvements in different growth parameters, blood
254 biochemistry, and egg quality indices of laying hens (Ye et al., 2020). Hence, we suggest that *B.*
255 *velezensis* being a spore-forming species can also be used as a probiotic in poultry feed.

256 Competing Interests

257 The authors declare that no competing interests exist between them.

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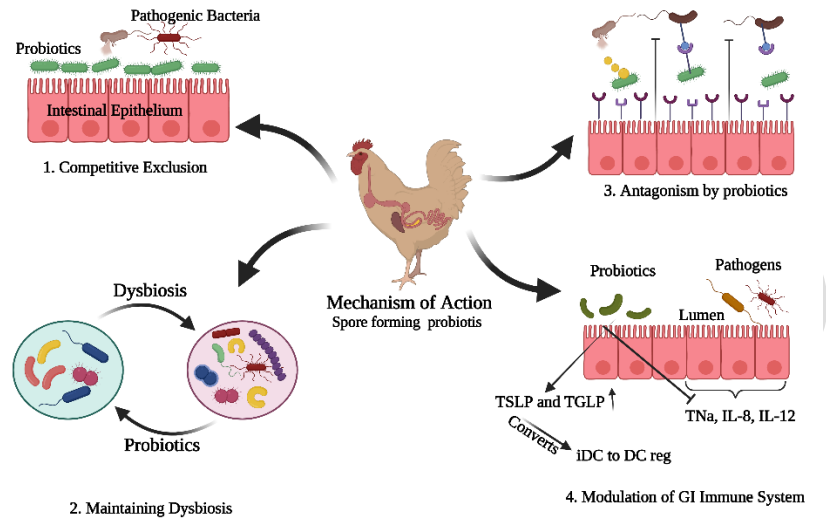
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484 Figure 1.

485 Title: Mechanism of probiotics action



486

487 (1) Competitive Exclusion by probiotics. (2) Dysbiosis caused by any reason restored by

488 probiotics. (3) Bactericidal substances produced by probiotics lyse the pathogen, the

489 receptors on the probiotic surface antagonize the pathogen and neutralize the pathogens.

490 (4) Gastrointestinal cells exposed to pathogens produce pro-inflammatory compounds

491 (TNFa, IL-6, and IL-12). Probiotics decrease the production of pro-inflammatory

492 compounds and increase the production of the anti-inflammatory mediator (TSLP and

493 TGLP), which then converts the immature dendritic cells to regulatory dendritic cells.

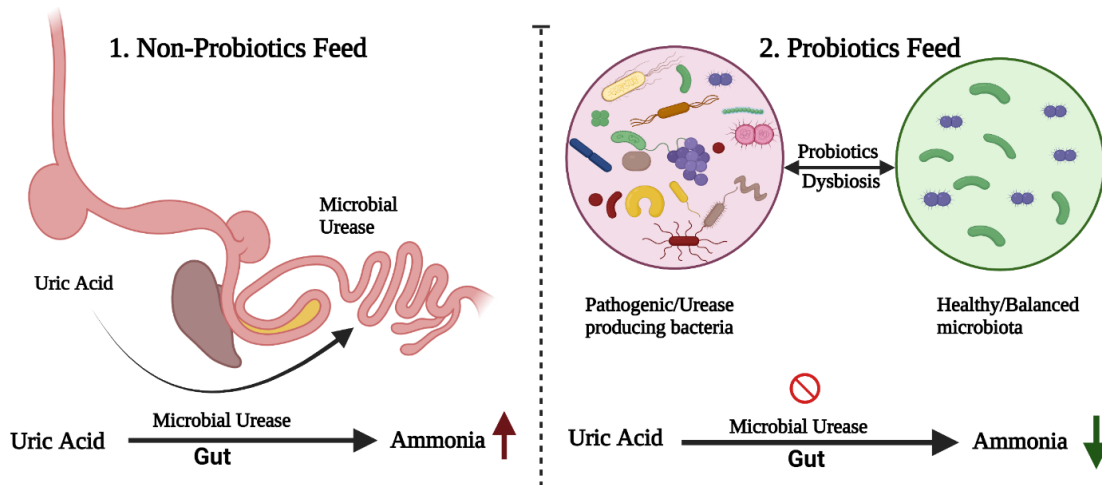
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496 Figure 2.

497 Title: Effect of spore-forming probiotics on Ammonia reduction through feces

498



499

500 (1) Uric acid produced in the liver moved to the gut, pathogenic bacteria in the gut produce
501 urease, which converts uric acid into ammonia. (2) Probiotics stabilized the gut
502 environment by inhibiting the production of urease-producing bacteria, and ammonia
503 production decreased.

504