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Original Article

Comparison the effects of probiotic and prebiotic as antibiotic alternatives on Salmonella colonization, performance, and egg quality in laying hens challenged with Salmonella enterica serotype Enteritidis

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Abstract

Background: Consumption of contaminated eggs with Salmonella enterica serotype Enteritidis (SE) cause gastroenteritis in human. Aims: The present study examined the effect of probiotic and prebiotic compared to antibiotic on the colonization of SE in the ceca, and the quantity and quality of produced eggs in the laying hens challenged with SE. Methods: One hundred Hy-Line W-36 laying hens with 44-week-olds were studied for 13 weeks in a randomized complete block design containing five treatments and four replicates with five birds in each replicate. Treatments included: negative control, positive control, and antibiotic: diets containing antibiotic (Oxytetracycline 0.15 g/kg diet), probiotic (Bactocell® 0.1 g/kg diet), and prebiotic (Diamond V Original XPCTM 1.25 g/kg diet). All experimental groups except negative control were challenged with 1 ml of suspension solution containing 1×10^7 CFU/ml SE by oral gavage at the start of the ninth week of the experiment. Laying performance traits and cecal bacterial population were measured at the end of each week. Results: Probiotic and prebiotic showed a greater effect in the reduction of yolk cholesterol and blood cholesterol level before and after challenge with SE, respectively (P<0.05). In pre-challenge period, treatments had no effect on the cecal bacterial population; but after the challenge, three dietary supplements decreased the colonization of SE in the ceca of laying hens, and prebiotic showed more preventive effect (P<0.05). Conclusion: The result of this study showed that the prebiotic can be effective in reducing and preventing SE colonization in laying hens and act as an alternative to antibiotics.

Key words: Antibiotic, Cecal bacterial population, Egg yolk cholesterol, Prebiotic, Probiotic

Introduction

Salmonella enterica serotype Enteritidis (SE) is a pathogen, which can infect humans and poultry causing fowl paratyphoid. SE colonizes in the intestinal tract of poultry, subsequently affects immune cells, especially macrophages, and encloses the pathogenic bacteria. This allows bacteria to penetrate into the macrophage's intracellular environment, survive and multiply. Infected macrophages migrate to internal organs such as the liver, heart, spleen, ovary, and oviduct (Gantois et al., 2009). The production of SE-contaminated eggs is a major source of human infections with Salmonella. Laying hens may be infected with SE but show no signs of clinical illness, and infected subclinical carriers may shed the bacteria within their eggs, and feces, contaminating the environment (Dhama et al., 2007). Consumption of contaminated eggs with SE in raw or undercooked form or food products containing contaminated eggs have negative impacts on human health causing salmonellosis (Staji et al., 2012).

Including antibiotics in diets and applying the principles of biosecurity are used to prevent intestinal infections such as SE infection in poultry flocks. Antibiotics are used in egg production for therapy, prophylactic, and to improve the performance of hens. The elimination of pathogens from the gastrointestinal tract, improvement in nutrient absorption, lower energy and protein expenditure, lower ammonia production, and a lower rate of food passage is the effects of the subtherapeutic use of antibiotics in laying hen feed (Lander et al., 2012). Despite the beneficial effects of antibiotics, their residues in eggs can cause bacterial resistance, alteration of the normal intestinal microflora in consumers, and serious side effects on human health (Marshall and Levy, 2011).

The prohibition of antibiotic growth-promoters led to the development of alternatives to antibiotics such as organic acids, phytogenics, prebiotics, and probiotics (Bajagai et al., 2020). Prebiotics are a source of food for gut-healthy bacteria that cause a reduction of intestinal pH, change the composition and activity of the gut microflora, and prevent colonization by enteric pathogens (Davani-Davari *et al.*, 2019). Also, it can improve digestion and minerals absorption, stimulate specific mucosal immune functions, and have the potential to reduce serum cholesterol levels in laying hens and broilers (Jha *et al.*, 2020). It has been reported that feeding laying hens with prebiotic supplemented diets increased the cecal populations of lactobacilli and bifidobacteria, and decreased the cecal *Escherichia coli* (Mookiah *et al.*, 2014); and *Salmonella* population in the cecal and rectal intestinal contents (Ribeiro *et al.*, 2007).

Probiotics are gram-positive, immobile, non-sporeforming anaerobes or facultative anaerobes bacteria such as Lactobacillus or Bifidobacterium that have been selected from members of the normal healthy intestinal microflora. New probiotic microbes from other species and genera can inhibit the growth of several species of harmful bacteria owing to producing an acidic environment through convert hexose sugars to lactic acid, (Makarova et al., 2006). Supplementation of probiotics promotes gut health and prevents pathogenic bacteria colonization in the gastrointestinal tract via mechanisms such as competitive exclusion, production of antimicrobial peptides (bacteriocins), stimulating mucus production of goblet cells and the immune system, reducing the production of the toxic metabolite (ammonia), and improving the intestinal mucosal barrier function (Amalaradjou and Bhunia, 2012). It has been that dietary prebiotic supplementation (ALPHAMUNE[™]) had an improvement effects on the histomorphological structure of the small intestine and lymphatic tissue of the cecal tonsil in broiler chickens (Majd et al., 2014).

Fermentation metabolites of Diamond V Original XPC[™] (XPC) is a prebiotic-like compound and derived from yeast fermentation (post-fermentation growth medium residues, residual yeast cells, and yeast cell wall fragments). Mixed incubation of XPC with chicken ceca content in vitro anaerobic culture showed the presence of XPC resulted in a rapid reduction of S. Typhimurium population and an increase in short-chain fatty acid concentration (Rubinelli et al., 2016). Bactocell® is the trade name for a probiotic, based on viable cells of a strain of Pediococcus acidilactici. It has been reported that the addition of Bactocell® to the broiler diet decreased the total aerobic, coliforms, fecal coliforms and E. coli counts in both the small intestine and caecum; and numerical increase in Lactobacilli count (Youssef et al., 2017). The protective effect of probiotics and prebiotics against Clostridium perfringens (Ramlucken et al., 2020), aflatoxin (Asadi et al., 2018), and coccidiosis (Behnamifar et al., 2019) have been mentioned in previous studies.

Due to the beneficial effects of probiotics and prebiotics on intestinal health and immune function, the present study aimed to investigate the effects of these feed additives on quantitative and qualitative parameters of egg production and SE colonization. Therefore, two

stages of the experiment were designed: under normal conditions and after the SE challenge. This made it possible to better understand the destructive effects of SE on laying hens and to better compare the prevention effects of prebiotic and probiotic with antibiotics on SE colonization.

Materials and Methods

Hens, husbandry, dietary treatments, and Salmonella challenge

A total of 150 laying hens (Hy-Line W-36) at 40 weeks old, and free of SE were housed in commercial battery cages, providing 645 cm² of floor space per hen. After four weeks of recording, the absence of Salmonella was confirmed using the method described by Gama et al. (2003), and 100 hens with similar body weight and laying rate (44 weeks old), in a randomized complete block design were divided into five treatment and four replication groups with five birds in each replication group for 13 weeks. Treatments included: negative control (NC), positive control (PC), antibiotic (ANT): 0.15 g oxyvet per kg of basal diet, probiotic (PRO): 0.1 g Bactocell® per kg of the basal diet (formulated with a specific live culture of lactic acid bacteria Pediococcus acidilactici MA185M; Lallemand Animal Nutrition SA, Blagnac, France), and prebiotic (PRE): 1.25 g Diamond V Original XPCTM per kg of basal diet [a common prebiotic-like compound, which includes postfermentation growth medium residues, residual yeast cells, and yeast cell wall fragments (mannanoligosaccharides and β-glucans); Cedar Rapids, IA, United States]. All three feed additives were added to the diet according to the manufacturer's recommendation. Mash feed was fed to meet the nutrient requirement of laying hens based on phase feeding (Table 1), light schedule (16L:8D, 30 lux), temperature (20-25°C), and environmental conditions in all experimental groups were applied according to the Hy-Line W-36 management guide (www.hyline.com).

The SE used in our study was obtained from the microbiology laboratory of the Department of Bacteriology, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine, University of Tehran (Tehran, Iran). The culture was prepared from an overnight culture previously transferred 3 times in Tetrathionate Broth Base with iodine-iodide solution (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany). Serially dilution in phosphate buffered saline (PBS) was used for preparing the challenge inoculum with a concentration of approximately 107 CFU/ml. The colony-forming units of the challenge inoculum were confirmed by plating on brilliant green agar with nalidixic acid (Dunkley et al., 2007). All experimental groups except negative control were challenged with 1 ml of suspension solution by oral gavage at the beginning of the ninth week of the experiment. Bacterial challenge concentration was determined based on our previous studies and Watarai (2005). Therefore, the experiment period divided into two stages: the pre-challenge stage for eight weeks, and the post-challenge stage for five weeks.

Throughout the experiment period, all experimental groups had free access to water and feed. Birds were handled according to Hy-Line international welfare goals in the Poultry Research Center, Faculty of Agriculture, Tarbiat Modares University, Tehran, and good quality water and nutritionally balanced diets, comprehensive care, and handling procedures were prepared for them during the experiment period.

Table 1: Ingredients and composition of the basal diet of laying hens

Ingredients (%)	Weeks 40-48	Weeks 49-57
Corn	60.60	57.50
Soybean meal (44% protein)	21.50	22.50
Limestone	9.00	11.31
Corn gluten meal	2.75	2.00
Soybean oil	3.05	3.75
Di-calcium phosphate	1.60	1.45
Salt	0.25	0.25
NaHCO ₃	0.15	0.15
Vitamin premix ¹	0.25	0.25
Mineral premix ²	0.25	0.25
DL-methionine	0.50	0.55
L-lysine	0.010	0.04
Contents by calculation		
ME (Kcal/kg)	2925	2875
Crude protein (%)	16.30	16.00
Calcium (%)	4.30	4.40
Sodium (%)	0.18	0.18
Available phosphorus (%)	0.47	0.44
Threonine (%)	0.63	0.61
Arginine (%)	0.89	0.85
Lysine (%)	0.84	0.81
Methionine + cysteine	0.78	0.75

 $^{1,\ 2}$ Supplied the following per kg of diet: 9,000 IU of retinyl acetate, 2,000 IU of cholecalciferol, 12.5 IU of dl-α-tocopheryl acetate, 1.76 mg of menadione sodium bisulfite, 0.12 mg of biotin, 1.2 mg of thiamine, 3.2 mg of riboflavin, 6.4 mg of calcium d-pantothenate, 1.97 mg of pyridoxine, 28 mg of nicotinic acid, 0.01 mg of cyanocobalamine, 320 mg of choline chloride, 0.38 mg of folic acid, 60 mg of MnSO₄.H₂O, 80 mg of FeSO₄.7H₂O, 51.74 mg of ZnO, 8 mg of CuSO₄.5H₂O, 0.8 mg of iodized NaCl, and 0.2 mg of Na₂SeO₃

Performance and egg quality

During both experiment stages, egg production and egg weight were recorded daily, and feed intake was recorded at the end of each week by subtracting the feed residues weight from the amount of feed distribution. The percentage of egg production was calculated by dividing the number of eggs totalized by plot by the number of hens. Egg mass was calculated by multiplying the average egg weight by egg production percentage. Feed conversion ratio (FCR) was calculated by dividing the total feed consumed by the total egg mass.

Qualitative properties of eggs including shell thickness, shell strength, shell weight, Haugh unit, yolk weight, yolk color, and egg yolk cholesterol level were measured during the last week of each experimental stage. The egg yolks were weighed after separation from the albumen. Eggshells were weighed using the digital scale with ± 0.01 g error (Sartorius®, Germany) after being separated from the eggs, cleared, washed, and

incubated for 24 h at room temperature. Shell thickness was gauged using a micrometer (Ultrasonic Thickness Gauge, Echometer 1062, ROBOTMATION Co., Ltd., Japan) at three points in the center of shells, and the average of the measured values was considered as the thicknesses of the shell. The shell strength was evaluated using the so-called Eggshell Force Gauge (Digital Egg Shell Force Gauge, model II, ROBOTMATION Co., Ltd., Japan). Haugh unit and yolk color were assessed using Egg Multi Tester (EM-5200, ROBOTMATION Co., Ltd., Japan) (Behnamifar *et al.*, 2018).

For the determination of egg yolk cholesterol concentration, 1 g of pooled yolks of each replication was added to 9 ml of 2% NaCl solution and was shaken for 2 h. Then, 1 ml of the diluted yolk was re-diluted 10 times, and 10 μ L of it was mixed with 100 μ L of salt solution and 1 ml of the enzymatic reagent. The same procedure was also implemented for the standard of cholesterol. As the blank sample, 10 μ L of deionized water was used instead of the sample or standard of cholesterol. The samples were incubated in a water bath at 37°C for 15 min and then the light absorbance was read at the wavelength of 500 nm (Pasin *et al.*, 1998).

Egg yolk MDA as an indicator of lipid oxidation was determined by thiobarbituric acid reactive substances. For this purpose, the yolk sample was vortexed with trichloroacetic acid and 2.5 ml of butylene hydroxytoluene. After centrifugation, the hexane layer on the surface of the solution was discarded and the aqueous phase in the tubes was filtered with a Whatman paper No. 1. After volumizing with trichloroacetic acid, the tubes were put in a Ben Murray with 70°C for 30 min. After cooling, the amount of light absorption was measured by a spectrophotometer at 521 nm (Botsoglou *et al.*, 1994).

Blood parameters

In the last week of the experiment, 1 ml blood was taken from 10 hens in each experimental unit through a wing vein to determine blood parameters. In the lab, blood samples were centrifuged at 4000 g (revolutions per min) for 5 min. Total protein, uric acid, glucose, cholesterol, triglycerides, low-density lipoprotein (LDL), and high-density lipoprotein (HDL) levels in blood serum samples were measured using commercial diagnostic kits (Zistshimi Co.) and a spectrophotometer (Jenway Genova MK3, UK) (Mohamadzade *et al.*, 2020).

Bacterial population and SE colonization

To assess the microbial population, one bird of each replicate was killed at 7 days after challenge (Adhikari et al., 2017). The contents of ceca were collected in sterile dishes and were immediately transferred to the lab in an ice pack and prepared for microbial culture. One g of cecal contents was serially diluted and 10 μ L of each dilution was spot on each plate containing plate count agar, MRS agar, and MacConkey agar media to count total aerobes, facultative anaerobic microbes (*Lactobacillus*), and *E. coli*, respectively. After

incubation for 24 h at 37°C, the bacteria were counted and the number of bacteria in the initial volume was determined in the colony-forming unit (CFU)/g (Mahmoud *et al.*, 2014; Behnamifar *et al.*, 2020).

Also in the post-challenge stage, cecal contents from one bird of each replicate were collected, pooled, weighed, enriched in Tetrathionate Broth Base with iodine-iodide solution (Merck, Darmstadt, Germany) and serially diluted (1:10, 100, 1000) with PBS. Twenty μ L of each dilution were cultured in brilliant green agar with nalidixic acid (100 μ g/ml) and incubated at 37°C for 24 h. Finally, the numbers of *Salmonella* colony-forming units were expressed as \log_{10} *Salmonella* per gram of cecal content (de Barros Moreira Filho *et al.*, 2015).

Statistical analysis

The data obtained through the experiment was analyzed using the general linear models (GLM) procedure in SAS 9.1 software and the significant difference in treatments was determined using Duncan's multiple range test (P=0.05).

Results

The feed additives had no effect on the quantitative performance of laying hens pre- and post-challenge, including egg production, egg weight, egg mass, feed intake, and FCR. Also, the challenge with SE in the PC group showed no significant effect on measured quantitative indices (Table 2).

The effects of dietary supplements on egg quality indicators before and after the challenge with SE are presented in Table 3. All egg quality indicators included shell thickness, shell strength, shell weight, Haugh unit, yolk color, relative yolk weight, yolk cholesterol level, and egg yolk MDA concentration were not affected by challenge with SE. Yolk cholesterol was the only qualitative indicator that was affected by the applied treatments (P<0.05). Probiotic in the pre-challenge stage, and prebiotic in the post-challenge stage showed a greater effect in the reduction of yolk cholesterol (P<0.05).

The effect of treatment on blood parameters after challenge with SE is presented in Table 4. All treatments showed no overall effect on total protein, uric acid, glucose, and HDL in hens' serum. Antibiotic, probiotic, and prebiotic decreased the LDL, triglyceride, and cholesterol levels of serum (P<0.05), but the effect of prebiotic was more than the others. Also, the challenge with SE had no effect on blood parameters (P>0.05).

All treatments showed no overall effect on the cecal bacterial population before the challenge with SE (Table 5). After the challenge, the PC group showed greater colonization of SE in the ceca (P<0.05). While the NC group was free of any *Salmonella* infection, applied treatments decreased the colonization of SE in the ceca of laying hens, and the prebiotic showed a more prominent effect (P<0.05). Also, bacteria, facultative anaerobic microbes (*Lactobacillus*), and *E. coli* population were not affected by all three feed additives after the challenge (P>0.05, Table 5).

Table 2: Effects of antibiotic, probiotic, and prebiotic on the performance of laying hens before/after challenge with *Salmonella enterica* serotype Enteritidis (SE)

					SE ch	allenge				
Treatments	Egg production (%)		Egg weight (g)		Egg mass (g/hen/day)		Feed intake (g/hen/day)		FCR	
	before	e/after	before	e/after	before	e/after	before	e/after	before	e/after
NC	91.97	88.92	62.39	64.04	57.55	54.82	94.05	87.99	1.60	1.58
PC	92.27	89.82	61.49	63.69	56.88	55.59	96.69	89.44	1.62	1.56
ANT	92.05	88.75	60.45	65.09	55.61	53.42	92.34	81.93	1.59	1.60
PRO	91.92	89.11	59.45	66.24	54.65	55.20	93.26	85.86	1.61	1.57
PRE	91.16	88.57	62.67	64.72	57.21	53.26	94.17	84.58	1.63	1.59
SEM	1.44	2.08	0.48	0.71	0.25	0.15	2.05	2.41	0.03	0.04
P-value	1.08	1.68	0.12	0.14	0.21	0.25	0.32	0.31	0.18	0.22

NC: Negative control, PC: Positive control, ANT: Antibiotic (0.15 g per kg of basal diet), PRO: Probiotic (0.1 g per kg of basal diet), and PRE: Prebiotic (1.25 g per kg of basal diet). FCR: Feed conversion ratio. SEM: Standard error of the mean

Table 3: Effect of antibiotic, probiotic, and prebiotic on egg quality of laying hens before/after challenge with *Salmonella enterica* serotype Enteritidis (SE)

	SE Challenge															
Treatments		nickness nm)	Shell st (kg/c		Shell v		Haug	h unit		color SM)		ve yolk nt (%)		olesterol g/g)		lk MDA g/g)
	befor	e/after	before	/after	before	/after	before	e/after	befor	e/after	before	e/after	before	e/after	befor	e/after
NC	0.33	0.30	1.61	1.60	9.52	9.53	81.54	80.87	4.75	4.91	27.52	30.13	11.04 ^a	12.04 ^a	0.090	0.098
PC	0.32	0.30	1.58	1.32	9.42	923	80.87	82.24	4.58	4.89	28.13	28.16	10.88 ^a	11.99 ^a	0.092	0.092
ANT	0.31	0.32	1.63	1.33	9.39	9.33	82.24	81.93	4.82	4.85	27.60	28.74	10.01ab	11.47 ^{ab}	0.089	0.088
PRO	0.32	0.29	1.32	1.72	9.46	9.30	79.35	83.57	4.74	4.92	25.59	29.85	9.11 ^b	11.22ab	0.090	0.091
PRE	0.31	0.31	1.33	1.06	9.31	9.74	83.96	80.93	4.98	4.92	26.66	27.85	9.44ab	10.98 ^b	0.093	0.087
SEM	0.01	0.006	0.21	0.19	0.22	0.13	2.40	2.31	0.14	0.15	0.46	0.51	0.19	0.24	0.003	0.002
P-value	0.17	0.15	0.99	0.18	0.65	0.20	0.09	0.88	0.73	0.11	0.08	0.09	0.02	0.03	0.110	0.091

NC: Negative control, PC: Positive control, ANT: Antibiotic (0.15 g per kg of basal diet), PRO: Probiotic (0.1 g per kg of basal diet), and PRE: Prebiotic (1.25 g per kg of basal diet). SEM: Standard error of the mean. Different superscript (a, b) in column show significant difference P<0.05

Table 4: Effects of the antibiotic, probiotic, and prebiotic on the blood parameters of laying hens after challenge with *Salmonella enterica* serotype Enteritidis

Treatments	Total protein (g/dl)	Uric acid (mg/dl)	Glucose (mg/dl)	Triglyceride (mg/dl)	LDL (mg/dl)	HDL (mg/dl)	Cholesterol (mg/dl)
NC	5.62	6.01	164.02	1191.62ª	151.42a	56.85	191.47ª
PC	5.60	6.22	166.93	1181.09a	147.21a	59.68	185.39a
ANT	5.49	5.99	162.66	1135.07 ^{ab}	125.97 ^{ab}	54.90	173.61ab
PRO	5.84	6.41	165.99	1142.63ab	94.56 ^b	61.10	162.91 ^b
PRE	5.77	5.95	163.99	1069 ^b	86.79 ^b	63.84	145.41°
SEM	0.05	0.13	14.33	148.26	52.9	6.23	84.18
P-value	0.51	0.07	0.81	0.02	0.01	0.07	0.02

NC: Negative control, PC: Positive control, ANT: Antibiotic (0.15 g per kg of basal diet), PRO: Probiotic (0.1 g per kg of basal diet), and PRE: Prebiotic (1.25 g per kg of basal diet). SEM: Standard error of the mean. Different superscript (a, b, c) in column show significant difference P<0.05

Table 5: Effects of the antibiotic, probiotic, and prebiotic on cecal bacterial community in laying hens before/after challenge with *Salmonella enterica* serotype Enteritidis

Treatments		aerobic bacteria FU/g)		id bacteria CFU/g)		forms CFU/g)	Salmonella spp. (log CFU/g)		
	before	e/after	befor	e/after	before	e/after	after		
NC	7.65	7.20	7.48	7.57	6.18	6.60	0.00^{d}		
PC	7.74	8.02	7.40	7.64	6.23	6.53	6.65^{a}		
ANT	8.01	7.39	8.08	7.90	6.66	6.66	6.25 ^b		
PRO	7.35	7.10	7.42	8.03	6.24	6.61	6.20^{b}		
PRE	7.34	7.38	7.61	7.12	6.02	6.58	5.65°		
SEM	0.24	0.34	0.55	0.29	0.52	0.03	0.01		
P-value	0.44	0.81	0.82	0.95	0.93	0.61	0.04		

NC: Negative control, PC: Positive control, ANT: Antibiotic (0.15 g per kg of basal diet), PRO: Probiotic (0.1 g per kg of basal diet), and PRE: Prebiotic (1.25 g per kg of basal diet). SEM: Standard error of the mean. Different superscript (a, b, c, d) in column show significant difference P<0.05

Discussion

As shown in Table 2, the production parameters were not affected with all three feed additives and challenge with SE. These results are coordinate with Ramasamy et al. (2009), Shang et al. (2010), and Mahfuz et al. (2018) which have reported that the inclusion of probiotic, prebiotic, and antibiotic had no significant effect on egg production parameters, respectively. Also, it has been reported that hen-day egg production and egg mass were not affected by the inclusion of prebiotics in the laying hens' diet (Martinez et al., 2018). It has been mentioned that a diet supplemented with probiotics did not affect feed intake and egg production of laying hens (Mikulski et al., 2012). Contrary to the results of the present study, a reduction in feed intake with a probiotic (Saccharomyces cerevisiae) was reported in broiler chicken due to an improvement in indigestibility of energy and amino acid (Kaushal et al., 2019).

Although a decrease in egg production and egg quality is expected during SE infection, there was no effect on the quantity and quality of eggs produced in the positive control group in the present study. Also, no mortality has been observed in laying hens after the challenge with SE. There are usually no clinical signs in birds infected with SE to inform farmers that eggs are contaminated (Sutherlin and Swerdlow, 1997). In general, SE is not very pathogenic in chickens and it is a silent infection in the bird. Also, infection of hens by SE

has been reported to increase daily egg production in some experiments (Guard-Petter, 2001). Before and after the challenge with SE, egg quality indicator except for yolk cholesterol was not affected by the applied treatments which are in consent with the study done by Shalaei et al. (2014) who reported eggshell quality was not significantly affected by antibiotic, organic acid, probiotic, and prebiotic supplementation. In contrast to our results, Martinez et al. (2018) reported feeding dietary a prebiotic in laying hens increased yolk weight, percentage of yolk yield, and percentage of yolk solids. Also, it has been reported that egg weight, eggshell thickness, eggshell relative weight, and egg specific gravity were increased by the supplementation of a probiotic (Mikulski et al., 2012). The beneficial effect of probiotic and prebiotic feeding on egg eggshell quality probably related to a favorable environment in the intestinal tract that helps to assimilate more nutrients such as the increase in calcium retention (Panda et al., 2008). An induced acidic environment by lactic acid bacteria in the digestive tract improves the ionization of minerals and their absorption (Haddadin et al., 1996), which was not observed in the present study.

According to Table 5, cecal counts of *Lactobacillus* spp. were not affected by the applied treatments before and after the challenge with SE. In agreement with our results, Pineda-Quiroga *et al.* (2017) reported that probiotics did not change the cecal microbial population and *Lactobacillus* spp. cecal counts in laying hens. As

well as, it has been reported antibiotics (neomycin and oxytetracycline) and prebiotics (inulin) supplements had no effect on cecum *Lactobacilli*, *Enterococcus*, and *Salmonella* in broiler chicken (Kareem *et al.*, 2017).

After the challenge, a reduction of cecal SE prevalence by applied treatment was a significant issue in the present study. Based on Table 5, feeding the dietary prebiotic has shown the best effect in this regard. In agreement with our results, Roto et al. (2017) reported that broilers receiving prebiotic exhibited a lower Salmonella prevalence in comparison with the control group. Also, a reduction in Salmonella fecal shedding of the broilers (Ohimain and Ofongo, 2012; Feye et al., 2016; Kimminau et al., 2021), and in the lung and air sac Mycoplasma gallisepticum lesion scores of the layer pullets (Elliott et al., 2020) has been reported by feeding prebiotic-supplement diets. Anaerobic incubation of the cecal contents of broiler chickens with a prebiotic reduces Campylobacter survival (Feye et al., 2020) and S. Typhimurium level (Rubinelli et al., 2016) in comparison to the control culture. Inhibitory activities of fructooligosaccharide on S. Enteritidis before or together with cecal microbiota inoculation have been reported in previous studies (Donalson et al., 2007; Rubinelli et al., 2016). Most of the bacteria in the cecum include species belonging groups such as Lactobacilli, Bifidobacterium, Propionibacterium, and Methanogens that are capable of growing anaerobically and fermenting fructooligosaccharide. Enteric pathogens cannot use fructooligosaccharide as carbon source and it is nondigestible for them (Salanitro et al., 1974; Oyarzabal and Conner, 1995; Lu and Walker, 2001; Ricke et al., 2004; Donalson et al., 2007; Saengkerdsub et al., 2007). Therefore, prebiotics promote the coexistence and stability of the cecal microbial ecosystem and develop natural resistance to infections produced by intestinal pathogens. Al-Zenki et al. (2009) reported that probiotics reduced Salmonella contamination on the exterior body and in the ceca of broiler chickens at different ages. Probiotic is a feed additive based on live lactic acid bacteria (Pediococcus acidilactici). Bacterial interactions (competitive exclusion) and stimulation of a host's innate immune response are two mechanisms for the reduction of Salmonella by probiotics (Higgins et al., 2007). Also, competition for receptor sites, production of volatile fatty acids that are inhibitory of certain enteric pathogens, competition with pathogens and native flora for limiting nutrients, and production of bacteriocins are proposed methods for probiotics that are able to exclude enteric pathogens (Mead, 2000). Lactic acid bacteria produce soluble antimicrobial peptides (bacteriocins) that inhibit the growth of several pathogenic organisms from genera including Staphylococcus, Enterococcus, Streptococcus, Listeria, Clostridium, and Bacillus; and non-pathogenic bacterium such as Lactococcus and Pediococcus in vitro condition (Bogovič-Matijašić et al., 1998; Ocaña et al., 1999).

Blood lipid levels and egg yolk cholesterol were affected by applied treatments. These findings were in disagreement with the results of Mohebbifar *et al.* (2013)

who observed using probiotics and prebiotics had no significant effects on the blood parameters and egg cholesterol. Similarly, as in this experiment, Mikulski et al. (2012) and Tang et al. (2017) reported that dietary probiotic and prebiotic (isomaltooligosaccharide, IMO) supplementation decreased egg yolk cholesterol concentrations by more than 10% compared with the control group; and the serum total cholesterol and serum LDL cholesterol, respectively. The differences between results can be attributed to the strain of bacteria, concentration and the form of bacteria used (viability, dryness, or their products) and differences in the ages of hens (Mohebbifar et al., 2013). Laying hens eliminate remarkable amounts of cholesterol in the egg and egg cholesterol originates from serum cholesterol (Andrews Jr et al., 1968). Fermentation of prebiotics by gut microbiota produces short-chain fatty acids, and prebiotics can be a good substrate for the growth of probiotic microbes (Rahminiwati et al., 2014). Shortchain fatty acids are able to suppress hepatic cholesterol synthesis and stimulate bile acid synthesis. Also, some of the microorganisms present in the probiotic preparation could precipitate the cholesterol with deconjugated bile salts and assimilate the cholesterol present in the gastrointestinal tract for their own cellular metabolism (Kurtoglu et al., 2004; Tang et al., 2015).

Egg-based products are the main source for the spread of foodborne outbreaks of *Salmonella* infection. Since infection of laying hens with SE is not usually associated with clinical symptoms, according to the results of the present study, it seems that probiotics and especially prebiotics can be effective in reducing colonization of SE in the ceca of laying hens. It is necessary to mention that host-related factors, such as age, production system, breed, sex, feed, and rearing conditions have important effects on the development and composition of gut microbiota (Khan *et al.*, 2020), and the efficiency of feed additives can be affected by these factors.

It appears that inflamed epithelial cells have adhesion receptor sites that are exploited only by pathogenic bacteria (Khan et al., 2020). Since the gut microbiota constitutes after the chicken's hatch, so it seems that an earlier introduction to non-pathogenic microorganisms can enhance the digestive tract (Jha et al., 2020). Using probiotics and prebiotics in newly hatched chicks/pullets may have better effects on improving performance, egg quality, and colonization resistance against intestinal pathogens especially SE, which is suggested in future studies. Also, it is possible that a combination of probiotic and prebiotic was the more effective treatment in decreasing the SE colonization in the cecum and improving production parameters in infected herds. Therefore, the combined use of these feed additives for the control of SE is recommended in future studies.

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Conflict of interest

The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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