

Exploring the Potential to Improve the Gut Microbiome of Broiler Chickens using Selenium Nanoparticle Supplements

by

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Thesis

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Abstract

The increasing demand for food in the form of chicken meat and eggs in the poultry industry has led to an increase in research interest in enhancing growth rate, feed efficiency, and reducing pathogens in poultry birds. Antibiotics and feed additives, including nutrient and vitamin supplementations, have been incorporated in poultry diets for years to ensure the maintenance of poultry health with a focus on the control and reduction of zoonotic pathogens. In the last few years, however, key issues surrounding the antimicrobial resistance of antibiotics have urged for a replacement in combating and reducing pathogenic bacteria in poultry, while still maintaining the ability to provide the necessary nutrients to the body.

Nanoparticles (NPs) are materials of a nano-size range (< 100 nm) which have been used in a vast area of applications, including medical, optics, electronics, and nutrition. NPs have a higher surface area to volume ratio than their macro- and micro-counterparts and have been thoroughly used in poultry feed as a vehicle for delivering compounds such as vaccines and nutrient supplements. Studies have demonstrated their superior ability to enable the absorption of compounds across the intestinal wall and the direct transportation of these compounds to target multiple organs and systems. They are also able to avoid fast degradability as they can bypass the body's metabolic system and defence barriers. Most of the current research has been focused on reducing zoonotic pathogens, leaving a wide-open space for research to be conducted on the ability of NPs to modulate the gut microbiota and exercise their health impacts.

NPs of silver and other metals have been heavily used in the poultry industry to improve the growth and performance of birds. Whilst successful, metal NPs exhibited higher toxicity due to the higher surface to volume ratio, especially with the use of silver. This study proposes the use of NPs of essential metals and natural compounds to safely deliver nutrients, resulting in positive impacts on health and productivity with little to no toxic effects. Selenium (Se) is an essential mineral, required for the proper functioning of the immune system and is an important element in the first cell line of defence in the body. The work described in this thesis explores the ability of Se NPs in improving the health and growth of broiler chickens by modulating their gut microbiome and metabolome, without the toxic effects observed with silver.

Materials & Methods

In study 1 (Chapter 2), Se NPs were synthesised using a bottom-up approach, where Se metal is reduced to Se “seeds” and a protecting agent is added to provide an electrical bilayer around the particle. This electrical layer results in a surface charge and contributes towards the stability and dispersity of the NPs, where the repulsion of the NPs leads to less agglomeration and aggregation. The NPs were characterised using various techniques and instruments, confirming the size, shape, crystallinity, elemental composition and dispersion. The Se NPs were then added to poultry feed in study 2 (Chapter 3) of this thesis, which entailed an animal trial of two commonly used Se additive, sodium selenite (inorganic Se) and selenomethionine (organic Se) and three different concentrations of the Se NPs. The animal trial comprised of 10 birds in each of the five experimental groups. The birds were fed and weighed daily for 4 weeks. The birds were then euthanised, where tissue samples from various organs were taken for histological and toxicological analysis. Faecal and caecal extracted-samples were also collected for DNA sequencing and short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) metabolite analysis, using Gas-Chromatography-Mass-Spectrometry (GCMS). The faecal and caecal samples compared the different microbial and metabolite signatures of the different groups. In study 3, the tissue samples were prepared for histological assessment using haematoxylin and eosin dye, performing a typical acid digestion and ICP-MS instrumentation to examine the tissue for uptake and thus toxicity. In study 4 (Chapter 5), Se NPs were used to modulate caecal samples in an anaerobic environment at one concentration to improve beneficial gut bacteria, increase SCFA and reduce pathogen such as *Enterococcus* species.

Results

In study 1, a ultraviolet-visible spectroscopy (UV-Vis) measurements were carried out at a medium scan rate in the visible region, 200 to 800 nm, confirming the presence of Se NPs generating a typical surface plasmon resonance band at 262 nm. Dynamic light scattering (DLS) spectroscopy was used to determine the particle size and size distribution of the particles, showing an average size of 50 nm with a polydispersity value of 0.04, confirming the NP solution to be monodisperse. Scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) were used to determine the shape, morphology, and size, confirming the NPs to be spherical. X-ray

diffraction (XRD) was conducted to confirm the crystallinity of NPs, with two peaks confirming the presence of Se, however, the peaks exhibited low strength confirming a mix of amorphous and monoclinic Se. Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was performed to confirm the conversion of Se ions into elemental Se at the representative peaks.

In study 2 – The intermediate concentration of Se NPs (0.9 mg/kg) performed best improving the gut health by increasing the abundance of beneficial bacteria, such as *Lactobacillus*, as well as SCFA ($P<0.01$). Additionally, *Faecalibacterium* was strongly correlated with Se NPs ($P<0.001$, $r=0.63$). Se NPs, had no significant effect on live weight gain or abundance of potentially pathogenic bacteria.

In study 3 – Se NPs were not toxic to various tissues sampled, including breast, liver, spleen, brain, duodenum, and ileum as seen by histopathological assessment. An increased concentration of Se was observed with the breast ($P<0.01$) and duodenum tissues ($P<0.05$) of the NP supplemented group, exhibited in the ICP-MS data.

In study 4 – Se NPs showed a significant reduction in the abundance of an emerging poultry pathogen, *Enterococcus cecorum* but no significant effect on the gut microbiota was observed.

Conclusions

NPs of Se were successfully synthesised using a bottom-up approach and a detail characterisation was carried out to ascertain size, morphology, and dispersity. The *in vivo* and *in vitro* experiments, anaerobic culturing and animal trial respectively, demonstrated the ability of Se NPs to improve the gut microbiota. They additionally increased the concentrations of healthy gut metabolites in the animal trial and did not instigate any pathological damage to tissues of various organs.

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By submitting this thesis for formal examination at CQUniversity Australia, I declare that all of the research and discussion presented in this thesis is original work performed by the author. No content of this thesis has been submitted or considered either in whole or in part, at any tertiary institute or university for a degree or any other category of award. I also declare that any material presented in this thesis performed by another person or institute has been referenced and listed in the reference section.

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Table of Contents

Abstract.....	ii
Declaration of authorship and originality of thesis.....	v
List of Tables	x
List of Figures	xi
List of Appendices	xiv
List of Abbreviations.....	xv
List of Publications Arising from Thesis.....	xix
Peer-reviewed publications	xix
Conference abstracts	xix
List of Further Publication Contributions During Candidature	xx
Conferences Attended	xxi
Presentations	xxi
Awards	xxi
Acknowledgements.....	xxii
Chapter 1. Nanoparticles in feed: Progress and prospects in poultry research 2	
Abstract.....	3
1. Introduction	3
2. Nanotechnology and nanomaterials.....	4
3. Adsorption pathways and uptake	4
3.1. Uptake of NPs	5
3.2. Mucosal layers.....	5
3.3. Gastrointestinal tract.....	5
3.4. Blood-brain barrier (BBB)	5
4. Nanoparticles in feed	5
5. NPs in poultry production	6
5.1. Silver.....	6
5.2. Selenium.....	7
5.3. Copper.....	7
5.4. Gold	7
5.5. Other metal oxides.....	7
5.6. Functionalised NPs.....	7

5.7. Natural products	9
5.8. Further directions.....	12
References.....	12
Chapter 2. The synthesis and characterisation of highly stable and reproducible selenium nanoparticles	16
Abstract.....	17
Introduction	17
Nanoparticle synthesis and their uses	17
Materials and methods.....	18
Chemicals.....	18
Preparation of nano-selenium.....	18
Precipitation and re-dispersion of Nano-Se (washing).....	18
Nanoparticle characterisation	18
Results and Discussion.....	19
Nanoparticle synthesis and formation.....	19
Nanoparticle washing, clean-up and aggregation studies.....	20
Conclusion	23
References.....	23
Chapter 3. Selenium nanoparticles in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of <i>Faecalibacterium prausnitzii</i>.....	27
Abstract.....	28
Introduction	28
Materials and methods.....	29
Chemicals and reagents	29
Nanoparticle preparation	29
Animal trial.....	30
Microscopy	30
Short-chain fatty acid analysis	30
DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing.....	30
Results	31
Animal health and performance.....	31
Overall microbiota composition.....	31
GIT microbiota differences between Se supplement treatments in faecal samples	31
GIT microbiota differences between Se supplement treatments in the caecum	32

DNA Extraction	54
DNA amplification and sequencing	54
Statistical analysis	54
Short-chain fatty acid (SCFA) analysis	54
Results	55
Sample origin influences overall microbiota composition and abundance	55
NanoSe influence on microbiota composition and metabolite production	55
Interaction between gut microbiota and SCFAs.....	56
Discussion.....	57
Conclusion	58
Conflict of interest	58
Acknowledgements.....	58
Funding	58
References.....	58
Chapter 6. Future Work & Directions.....	60
6.1 General Summary & Discussion	61
6.1.1 Chapter 1	61
6.1.2 Chapter 2.....	62
6.1.3 Chapter 3.....	63
6.1.4 Chapter 4	63
6.1.5 Chapter 5.....	64
6.2 Limitations, Strengths & Future Directions	64
6.2.1 Chapter 2.....	64
6.2.2 Chapter 3.....	65
6.2.3 Chapter 4.....	65
6.2.4 Chapter 5.....	66
6.3 References.....	66
Appendices.....	68
Chapter 3 Supplementary material	69
Chapter 5 Supplementary material	74

List of Tables

Table 1-1	Studies showing effects of Ag NPs on growth, performance and other aspects in broilers... ..	8
Table 1-2	Summary of metal, natural products, polymeric and other nanoparticles and their effects on broiler performance, growth and health	10
Table 3-S1	Feed composition and poultry remix	72
Table 3-S2	GC oven temperature for SCFA analysis using a SIM method... ..	73
Table 4-1	Digestion protocol settings using the TANK PRO Microwave digester	44
Table 4-2	Instrument settings for ICPMS-2030 and measurement parameters.....	44
Table 5-S1	The resulting concentrations of the vitamin mix supplemented to the enriched LYHBHI media	75
Table 5-S2	Preparation of buffer reagents as used in the DNA extraction protocol of culture samples... ..	76
Table 5-S3	Gas chromatography oven temperature.....	76
Table 5-S4	Culturable bacterial genera grown with enriched LYHBHI media	77

List of Figures

Figure 2-1	Scanning electron micrographs to show the difference in (L) low and (R) high concentrations of protecting agent, PSSS. The 0.2% PSSS concentration has enabled improved resistance to aggregation. All experiments were repeated in triplicate.....	19
Figure 2-2	An illustration of the proposed mechanism of selenium nanoparticle formation	20
Figure 2-3	Top graph shows UV-vis absorption spectra of selenium nanoparticles at 1 min, 10 min and 1 h, photographs of the nanoparticle solutions during the synthesis stages are also overlaid.....	21
Figure 2-4	Scanning electron micrographs of selenium nanoparticle re-dispersed in different types of solvents and the effect the solvent has on the nanoparticle solution	21
Figure 2-5	Original transmission electron micrograph (L) and (R) overall size and size distribution pixel plot of selenium nanoparticles produced using ImageJ software... ..	22
Figure 2-6	Selenium size distribution using ImageJ analysis of complex electron micrographs and (R) Transmission electron micrograph showing (a) a single isolated selenium nanoparticle of an average size of 55 nm.	22
Figure 2-7	Energy dispersive spectrum of elemental composition of optimised selenium nanoparticle solution, insert of transmission electron micrograph (top insert), and X-ray diffractogram for multiple se-np analyses (bottom insert)	23
Figure 3-1	Bird weights (mean and SD) of selenium experimental groups. The legend shows abbreviated group labelling InOrg for inorganic supplemented Se, Org for organic and three concentrations of nanoSe supplementation (0.3, 0.9 and 1.6 mg/kg nanoSe). a Growth over time. b Final weight distribution at 29 days of age... ..	31

Figure 3-2	Multivariate ANOSIM calculated, significance derived, group-to-group similarity visualised as MDS plot was based on weighted (a) and unweighted (b) UniFrac distance	32
Figure 3-3	The treatment differences in faecal microbiota composition. RDA plot at an OTU (a) and a genus (b) level separate 1.5 nanoSe treatment group as most distinct from other treatments. There were 11 OTUs among the top 50 most abundant that were significantly ($P < 0.01$) altered between the treatments (c). (d) The genera ($P < 0.01$) influenced by treatments	33
Figure 3-4	Comparison of response in faecal and in caecal microbiota to different Se-supplemented treatments. The same colour pattern was used for treatments with faecal samples displayed with white pattern bars and caecal with full colour bars.....	34
Figure 3-5	Visualisation of the differences in caecal microbiota composition across treatment groups. RDA plot at OTU (a) and genus (b) level. The OTUs among the top 50 most abundant that were significantly ($P < 0.01$) altered between the treatments (c). (d) The genera ($P < 0.01$) influenced by treatments.....	35
Figure 3-6	Basic histological measurements (a-f) from ileal (a-c) and duodenal (d-f) histological sections and caecal SCFA profiles (g); AA acetic acid, IBA isobutyric acid, IVA isovaleric acid, PA propionic acid, nBA n-butyric acid and nVA n-valeric acid	36
Figure 3-S1	Duodenum histology of the 5 treatments: A-E show haematoxylin & eosin staining of Inorganic Se (A), Organic Se (B), 0.3 ppm (C), 0.9 ppm (D) and 1.5 ppm nanoSe (E) and F-J show alcian blue staining of groups Inorganic Se (F), Organic Se (G), 0.3 ppm (H), 0.9 ppm (I) and 1.5 ppm nanoSe (J).....	71
Figure 4-1	NanoSe characterization obtained from a: EDS; b: SEM; c: TEM; d: DLS	45
Figure 4-2	Se concentration among treatment groups in different tissue types.....	46

Figure 4-3	Histological assessment of Se treatment on breast tissue showing myofibrils (a) and cell nuclei (b); and brain with Nissl bodies (c).....	47
Figure 4-4	Histological assessment of Se treatment on liver tissue showing hepatocytes (a) and Kupffer cells (b); spleen tissue with minor to moderate amounts of erythroblasts (c).....	47
Figure 4-5	Histological assessment of Se treatment on duodenum with microvilli (a) and goblet cells (b); and ileum showing intestinal crypts (c) and accumulation of lymphoid cells forming Peyer's patches (d).....	48
Figure 5-1	A schematic of the <i>in vitro</i> experiment performed to examine the effect of nanoSe on growth cultures of rooster caeca samples.....	54
Figure 5-2	Gut microbiota profile was clustered based on bird sample. a : PCoA analysis performed on weighted UniFrac matrices shows gut community profiles clustered by bird origin. b : The multiple genera present in the samples confirm similarities and differences between rooster's gut communities.....	55
Figure 5-3	NanoSe influence on the gut microbiota of roosters at OTU level and the subsequent effect on SCFA production. a : increased and b : decreased OTUs from several unclassified genera and families. c : SCFA production was not significantly affected by the addition of nanoSe in <i>in vitro</i> cultures... ..	56
Figure 5-4	SCFA interaction effect with the microbial community. a : overall interaction effect of SCFA with genera yielded by enriched LYHBHI media. b : Highest correlation ($R>0.85$) of SCFA with generated bacteria.....	57

List of Appendices

Appendices.....	68
Appendix A: Chapter 3 Supplementary material.....	69
Appendix B: Chapter 5 Supplementary material.....	74

List of Abbreviations

Ag = Silver

ADFI = Average daily feed intake

ADG = Average daily gain

ADW = Average daily weight

Al₂O₃ = Aluminium oxide

ALB = Albumin

ALT = Alanine transaminase

ANOSIM = Analysis of similarities

ANOVA = Analysis of variance

ASP = Asparagine transaminase

AST = Aspartate transaminase

ATP = Adenosine triphosphate

ATP1A1 = Na⁺/K⁺ transporting ATPase

Au = Gold

BBB = Blood brain barrier

BWG = Body weight gain

CAT = Erythrocyte catalase

CBH = Cutaneous basophilic hypersensitivity

CeO₂ = Cerium (IV) oxide

CNP-Cu = Copper-loaded chitosan

CO₂ = Carbon dioxide

CTC = Chlortetracycline

CVP = Chemical vapour deposition

Cys = Cysteine

DHA = Docosahexaenoic acids

DLS = Dynamic light scattering

EDS = Energy dispersive spectroscopy

EDX = Energy dispersive x-ray

EI mode = Electron ionisation mode

EPA = Eicosapentaenoic acids

FCR = Feed conversion ratio

Fe₃O₄ = Iron (II) oxide

FGF2 = Fibroblast growth factor 2

GC-MS = Gas chromatography mass spectroscopy

GSH-Px = Glutathione peroxidase enzyme

HP = Heat production

Hyp = Hydroxyproline

H&E dyes = Haematoxylin and eosin dyes

IBA = Isobutyric acid

IB = Infectious bronchitis

IBD = Infectious bursal disease

ICP-MS = Inductively-coupled plasma mass spectroscopy

In ovo = in the egg

In vitro = Biological and microbiological experiments performed outside of the normal biological context

LOD = Limit of detection

LOQ = Limit of quantitation

M-cells = Mononuclear cells

MDA = Malondialdehyde

MBC = Minimum bactericidal concentration

MgO = Magnesium oxide

MIC = Minimum inhibitory concentration

MMT = Million metric tonnes

MRSA = Methicillin-resistant *staphylococcus aureus*

MyoD1 = Myogenic differentiation 1

NP = Nanoparticle

ND = Newcastle

NDV-CS-NPs = Newcastle disease virus vaccine encapsulated in chitosan nanoparticles

NIST library = National institute of standards and technology

O₂ = Oxygen

OMP = Outer membrane proteins

OTUs = Operational taxonomic units

PAS stain = Periodic acid-schiff stain

PBCA = polybutylcyanoacrylate

PBMAD = poly(butadiene-maleic anhydride-co-L-DOPA)

PCL = Poly-ε-caprolactone

PCNA = Proliferating cell nuclear antigen

PCoA = Principal coordinates analysis

PCV = Packed cell volume

PDI = Polydispersity index

PERMANOVA = Two-way permutational multivariate analysis of variance

Pd = Palladium

PLA = Polylactic acid

PLGA = Poly-D, L-lactide-co-glycolide

PSSS = Poly(sodium 4-styrene sulfonate)

PVP = polyvinylpyrrolidone

RDA = Multivariate redundancy analysis

SCFA = Short-chain fatty acid

Se = Selenium

SeCl₄ = Selenium tetrachloride

SEM = Scanning electron microscopy

SeNP/nanoSe = Selenium nanoparticles

SGOT = Serum glutamic-oxaloacetic transaminase

SOD = Superoxide dismutase

SRBCs = Sheep red blood cells

TEC = Total erythrocyte count

TEM = Transmission electron microscopy

Thr = Threonine

TP = Total protein

TRI = Translational research institute

VEGF = Vascular endothelial growth factor

VEGFA = Vascular endothelial growth factor A

YS = Yolk sac

Zinc = Zn

Zn-ZCP = Zinc bearing zeolite clinoptilolite

ZrO₂ = Zirconium dioxide

List of Publications Arising from Thesis

Peer-reviewed publications

1. **Gangadoo, S.**, Stanley, D., Hughes, R. J., Moore, R. J., & Chapman, J. (2016). Nanoparticles in feed: Progress and prospects in poultry research. *Trends in food science & technology*, 58, 115-126.
2. **Gangadoo, S.**, Stanley, D., Hughes, R. J., Moore, R. J., & Chapman, J. (2017). The synthesis and characterisation of highly stable and reproducible selenium nanoparticles. *Inorganic and Nano-Metal Chemistry*, 47(11), 1568-1576.
3. **Gangadoo, S.**, Dinev, I., Chapman, J., Hughes, R. J., Van, T. T. H., Moore, R. J., & Stanley, D. (2018). Selenium nanoparticles in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*. *Applied microbiology and biotechnology*, 102(3), 1455-1466.
4. **Gangadoo, S.**, Bauer, B. W., Bajagai, Y. S., Van, T. T. H., Moore, R. J., & Stanley, D. (2019). In vitro growth of gut microbiota with selenium nanoparticles. *Animal Nutrition*. 5(4), 424-431.
5. **Gangadoo, S.**, Dinev, I., Willson, N., Moore, R. J., Chapman, J., & Stanley, D., (2019). Nanoparticles of selenium as high bioavailable and non-toxic supplement alternatives for broiler chickens. *Environmental Science and Pollution Research*, 1-8.

Conference abstracts

1. **Gangadoo, S.**, Moore, R. J., Hughes, R. J., Stanley, D., & Chapman, J. (2018). The Influence of Selenium Nanoparticles (NP) on Gut Health and Performance. *Proceedings of the 2nd International Conference of Theoretical and Applied Nanoscience and Nanotechnology (TANN'18)*. Niagara Falls, Canada. DOI: 10.11159/tann18.133.

List of Further Publication Contributions During Candidature

1. **Gangadoo, S.**, Chandra, S., Power, A., Hellio, C., Watson, G. S., Watson, J. A., Green, D. W., & Chapman, J. (2016). Biomimetics for early stage biofouling prevention: templates from insect cuticles. *Journal of Materials Chemistry B*, 4(34), 5747-5754.
2. Wilkinson, N., Dinev, I., Aspden, W. J., Hughes, R. J., Christiansen, I., Chapman, J., **Gangadoo, S.**, Moore, R. J., & Stanley, D. (2018). Ultrastructure of the gastro intestinal tract of healthy Japanese quail (*Coturnix japonica*) using light and scanning electron microscopy. *Animal nutrition*, 4(4), 378-387.
3. Rajapaksha, P., Elbourne, A., **Gangadoo, S.**, Brown, R., Cozzolino, D., & Chapman, J. (2019). A review of methods for the detection of pathogenic microorganisms. *Analyst*. 144(2), 396-411.
4. Bauer, B. W., **Gangadoo, S.**, Bajagai, Y. S., Van, T. T. H., Moore, R. J., & Stanley, D. (2019). Oregano powder reduces *Streptococcus* and increases SCFA concentration in a mixed bacterial culture assay of chicken. *BioRxiv*, 625152.
5. Truong, V. K., Dupont, M., Elbourne, A., **Gangadoo, S.**, Rajapaksha, P., Cheeseman, S., Chapman, J., & Cozzolino, D. (2019). From Academia to Reality Check: A Theoretical Framework on the Use of Chemometric in Food Sciences. *Foods*. 8(5), 164.
6. Elbourne, A., Truong, V. K., Cheeseman, S., Rajapaksha, P., **Gangadoo, S.**, Chapman, J., & Crawford, R. J. (2019). The use of nanomaterials for the mitigation of pathogenic biofilm formation. *Nanotechnology*, 46, 61.
7. Chapman, J., Elbourne, A., Truong, V. K., Newman, L., **Gangadoo, S.**, Rajapaksha, P., Cheeseman, S., & Cozzolino, D. (2019). Sensomics-from conventional to functional NIR spectroscopy-shining light over the aroma and taste of foods. *Trends in Food Science & Technology*.

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1. Poultry CRC Ideas Exchange. (2015). *Gold Coast, Queensland, Australia.*
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6. Second Postdoctoral Methods Symposium: From Single Cells to Molecules. (2018). *Melbourne, Victoria, Australia.*

Presentations

1. Oral Presentation - TANN'18 – 2nd International Conference of Theoretical and Applied Nanoscience and Nanotechnology. (2018). *Niagara Falls, Canada.*
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“It is the mark of an educated mind to be able to entertain a thought without accepting it”

- Aristotle

*

“Disappointments are new and wonderful beginnings”

- The Coincidence Makers

*

“I fear not the man who has practiced 10,000 kicks once, but I fear the man who has practiced one kick 10,000 times”

- Bruce Lee

DECLARATION OF CO-AUTHORSHIP AND CONTRIBUTION

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Nature of Candidate's Contribution, including percentage of total

SG was involved in the manuscript preparation and writing of this scientific article (60%).

Nature of all Co-Authors' Contributions, including percentage of total

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No.

Candidate's Declaration

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Chapter 1

Nanoparticles in feed: Progress and prospects in poultry research

Chapter 1 introduces the current use and focus of nanotechnology in the poultry industry. The growing demand for chicken meat and eggs in the last few years has driven the industry in manipulating feed formulations and supplementations to achieve market weight with lower feed requirements, at a faster pace. The problem with current additives and supplements used, include fast degradability and antibiotic resistance, in the case of antibiotics used to reduce poultry pathogens. Hence, NPs have been introduced as an alternative platform to increase transportation and absorption of vitamins and minerals, and to reduce pathogenic bacteria. While silver has been the most commonly used NPs and have shown success in increasing growth and reducing harmful bacteria, several study cases have reported induced toxicity of silver in the birds. This has led further research to explore the benefits of other NP alternatives, such as other metal, polymeric and natural products, while evading the toxic effects that were observed with silver. This chapter also discusses the superior physicochemical properties of NPs and how it enhances the uptake and absorption routes of products.

This chapter provides an overview of the body of knowledge for the thesis and has been published as a literature review in Trends in Food Science & Technology journal, with an impact factor of 8.519. This review has been cited 24 times.



Review

Nanoparticles in feed: Progress and prospects in poultry research

CrossMark

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Poultry nutrition

ABSTRACT

The global poultry industry has greatly expanded due to an increase in demand for chicken meat and eggs. Growth of the industry was followed by growth in research which resulted in improved growth rate, feed efficiency, health status, and reduced carriage of pathogens. However, major research focus was improvement in productivity. It is possible to manipulate feed formulations to improve the feed conversion ratio (FCR), which results in a lower feed requirement to achieve market weight. Feed additives, containing vitamins and minerals, are commonly added to typical diets to support rapid growth and favourable FCR. Nanoparticles can be added to feed and provide an excellent platform to incorporate in various compounds, such as vaccines and nutrient supplements, due to large surface area to volume ratio and high absorption in the body. Nanoparticles can enable direct transportation of compounds to targeted organs or systems while avoiding fast degradability often seen with antibiotics and can encourage multiple health benefits. Silver, currently the most common nanoparticle investigated for use in chicken feed, has been shown to improve the microbiota of chickens. However, the positive results are tempered by the finding that silver nanoparticles have relatively high toxicity in birds. The question therefore arises as to whether other nanoparticle forms of essential metals and natural compounds can be safely delivered to provide positive impacts on health and productivity without the toxic side effects that can be seen with silver nanoparticles. Here, we review the current state of nanoparticle use as a poultry feed supplement – the successes and pitfalls of nano-feed as reported by researchers across the world.

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1. Introduction

Nano-dimensioned (<100 nm) materials are being widely investigated for use in an array of different applications across many different industries. Nanoparticles (NP) have been introduced into poultry feed to increase absorption and efficient use of feed that would otherwise be poorly digested and/or secreted without retention of all the available vitamins and minerals. Poultry is one of the fastest growing industries within the agricultural sector, with immense interest in animal nutrition and research and development focused on improving health, disease resistance and productivity (Chadd, 2007). As a result of continual research and

development today's commercial broilers are 4 times larger at the same age and require a third of the food to achieve market weight compared to the broilers of 60 years ago (Havenstein, Ferket, & Qureshi, 2003). Naturally, this significant improvement has generated positive impacts; greatly reducing the cost of poultry products to the consumer, reducing the environmental footprint (grain, water and land requirement) per unit of production, and hence improving global food security. The growth of the poultry industry accelerated in the 1990's when the world's chicken meat production was 29 million metric tonnes (M.MT). Estimated growth in the 1990's was 2 MMT increase per year (Bell, 2002). During that period, \$40 billion was invested into the poultry industry and propelled its continual growth, which continues today (Bell, 2002).

In the broiler industry, the growth and performance of a flock remains a farmer's top priority (Stanley et al., 2012). Interest in reducing poultry based pathogens is large, because of a desire to

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increase the health status of the chicken and the need to reduce carriage of zoonotic human pathogens such as *Campylobacter jejuni* and *Salmonella* sp., as chickens are potential sources of bacterial strains resistant to antibiotics (van den Bogaard & Stobberingh, 2000). There are a number of performance measures used across the industry, however, feed conversion ratio (FCR), body weight gain (BWG) and the time to achieve market weight are commonly used in research and in commercial practice. FCR is the ratio of consumed feed to gained weight and indicates the ability of animals to convert feed to body mass. Birds with the lowest FCR, that require the smallest amount of feed per kg weight gained, are regarded as the top performers in the flock. In addition, FCR-based flock uniformity is also important when automation is used to slaughter and process birds for human consumption. FCR is influenced by many variables other than animal health, such as breed, genetics and sex (Benyi, Tshilata, Netshipale, & Mahlako, 2015; Kover, Zuidhof, & Lawes, 2004). However, one of the main contributors is the diet, for example protein (Fancher & Jensen, 1989) and fat sources (Skrivan, Skrivanova, Marounek, Tumova, & Wolf, 2000), or digestibility (Walk, Bedford, & McElroy, 2012), that can be manipulated with specialized feed additives to maximize performance with the most cost effective feed ingredients. It is well known that feed particle size has a significant influence on the ability of birds to assimilate the energy from feed as well as on overall performance and digestive tract physiology (Amerah, Ravindran, Lemle, & Thomas, 2007). Poultry feed requirements depend on the purpose the chickens are being grown for; a typical feed consists of a number of energy and protein sources and a small proportion of specific additives to provide vitamins, minerals and essential amino acids (Krätzer et al., 1994).

Recent advances in sequencing technology has brought the intestinal bacterial communities into the research spotlight. The gastrointestinal tract of chickens is home to hundreds of microbial species that play significant roles in the ability of the bird to absorb energy from food and use it towards growth as well as in helping the host resist pathogen invasion (reviewed in D. Pan & Yu, 2014; Stanley, Hughes, & Moore, 2014). When fully developed, the intestinal microbiota contributes to a bird's health, maintains intestinal homeostasis, guides development of the immune system, helps digestion, produces short chain fatty acids and numerous health promoting metabolites (D. Pan & Yu, 2014; Stanley et al., 2014). When this harmonious state of bacterial and host-bacterial interactions is disturbed, many health consequences can follow. Some of these include: gastrointestinal diseases and poor health and performance (Shin, Whan, & Bae, 2015). Such an unnatural state of intestinal microbiota is called dysbiosis and can be reduced by proper diet in poultry, which helps control and shape a healthy intestinal microbiota. Through pre-processing in the upper digestive tract, feed consumed by the host can act as a growth media to beneficial bacterial species, which can reduce colonisation of pathogens by competitive exclusion. Even small changes in host diet can lead to major microbiota shifts (D. Pan & Yu, 2014). Thus, feed additives can influence the host's health and wellbeing directly through interactions with host metabolism, as well as indirectly by changing the intestinal microbiota community and consequently the metabolites and other products supplied by the microbiota to the host.

The world's population is set to grow to an estimated 8 billion people by 2025 and 9 billion by 2050; global agricultural productivity and efficiency must increase to feed this rapidly growing population. The Food and Agriculture Organisation of the United Nations predicts that annual meat production of 200 million tonnes will be required by 2050 to respond to this human increase (Ghazemzadeh, 2012). Given these increases, modern technologies, such as nanotechnology in the agricultural and food domains, will

be used to improve health, performance, efficiency and unit production. Nanotechnology has a potential role to play in helping to facilitate the necessary productivity gains to revolutionize agriculture and, for this review, the poultry industry.

2. Nanotechnology and nanomaterials

The nanoscale refers to a size range typically between 0.2 and 100 nm where at this scale, properties of the material begins to differ with respect to their physical, chemical and biological properties from those at the larger or ionic scales. Nanotechnology refers to the understanding and control of matter at the nanoscale where new and unique features enable novel applications, delivery mechanisms and fundamental properties to be explored.

NP use has spread across various application bases, including chemistry, physics, biology and medicine; NPs are being used in diagnosis and detection of pathogens or proteins (Kaittanis, Santra, & Perez, 2010), fluorescent biological labels (Fan et al., 2008), drug and gene delivery (Shi, Votruba, Farokhzad, & Langer, 2010), tissue engineering for bone reconstruction or replacement (Gangadoo, Taylor-Robinson, & Chapman, 2015), cancer therapy (Salata, 2004) and electronics (Komatsu & Ogasawara, 2005). NPs are also used in environmental issues such as the removal of toxic pollutants in the form of ions or organic compounds from the environment (Kaur & Gupta, 2009). Furthermore, NPs are used commercially in products such as cosmetics (Katz, Dewan, & Bronaugh, 2015), antimicrobial agents and food preservation and packaging (Duncan, 2011) also making them a target of investigation as food additives in agricultural industry for their ability to reduce certain pathogens and improve growth rate of animals and plants (Mousavi & Rezaei, 2011).

Unknowingly, NPs have been around for centuries, where they naturally occur in forms such as; dust particles formed from volcanic eruptions and wildfires, biological remains processed from microbial populations and, of late, through bottom up synthesis. The development and emergence of nanoscience did not come to prominence until studies demonstrating light interactions with metal NPs using synthesized colloidal gold NP dispersions by Faraday were conducted (Edwards & Thomas, 2007). Following this event, scientists have focused their interest on developing applications and also characterisation techniques to study the quantum size effects of NPs where they were defined as particles with sizes varying from 1 to 100 nm. Observations have been emphasised on greater surface area to volume ratio properties of NPs as well as chemical and physical properties differing from their bulk counterparts (Roca, 1999). This allowed for various routes and approaches of nanoparticle synthesis, which consequently broadened their application ranges. Studies showed NPs can influence absorption, retention and efficacy rates of drugs and other compounds delivered to the body (Heiligtag & Niederberger, 2013; Roca, 1999).

3. Adsorption pathways and uptake

NPs are taken up and therefore induce different effects in organisms in various ways. NP exposure can occur orally, topically, inhaled or through injection and via *in ovo* administration. Therefore, size and surface charge of NPs have been identified as important parameters for changing the property of the material. The added challenge is to know how an organism responds to these changes. For example, polystyrene is a polymer used in cell culture routinely, however, when the material is in a nano-form, accumulation and toxicity can be experienced (Mayer et al., 2009). Metal NPs, when exposed to flies, muscles (U.-F. Pan & Wang, 2004), fish and some plants produce lower accumulation levels when

compared to laboratory animals where accumulation of these NPs were found to aggregate in the liver, kidneys and spleen (Frohlich & Roegg, 2012).

3.1. Uptake of NPs

Particles are able to enter the body of an animal through various routes of entry such as inhalation, ingestion and skin contact, although the latter is less likely due to the amount of protective layers obtained from skin and tissues. Slightly larger NPs, microparticles (less than 300 nm) have been observed in the bloodstream while nanoparticles (<100 nm) can be seen distributed among various organs and tissues via diffusion. Microparticles and NPs are both able to permeate through gastrointestinal and mucosal barriers in the body where NP adsorption is 15–250 times higher than that of microparticles (Desai, Labhasetwar, Amidon, & Levy, 1996). Uptake of NP across these defensive barriers occurs through various transport mechanisms including receptor-mediated endocytosis and adsorptive endocytosis (Mohanraj & Chen, 2007).

Route of entry via ingestion occurs through the mouth, where they are moved down the oesophagus by means of saliva produced from the mouth. The crop, used for food storage, is followed by the proventriculus which starts to break down and digest food with the help of acid and digestive enzymes in the form of hydrochloric acid, pepsin and gastrin. Particles pass through to the gizzard, involved in the mechanical grinding of food, before reaching the small intestine, the main site for digestion and absorption of nutrients. Absorption occurs through small finger-like structures called villi and microvilli which have a large surface area to absorb nutrients efficiently. Reineke et al. (2013) have shown that coatings with a PBMA polymer can increase uptake of NPs due to its bioadhesivity which adheres and interacts efficiently with the mucus (Reineke et al., 2013). Most digested foods and nutrients are absorbed through the small intestine and transported to the liver through the hepatic portal blood supply. A study showed 2–40 nm gold NPs accumulating in macrophages in both the spleen and Kupffer cells of the liver, where these specific cells are believed to be significant in NP elimination (Sadauskas et al., 2007). It was suggested that NPs entered cells by transcytosis, where the particles are engulfed by these Kupffer cells, of sizes 50–100 nm, resulting into smaller NPs, 2 nm to be filtrated out of the liver via the kidneys while bigger NPs, 40 nm were retained in the Kupffer cells (Sadauskas et al., 2007). Undigested food moves through the large intestine to the cloaca. The organs involved in ingestion and digestion above offer protection against foreign substances through acellular and cellular barriers and digestive enzymes (Bod Systems, 2016).

Inhalation is the most probable route of entry for NPs where they can easily travel through the mouth and nostrils, either reaching the central nervous system and/or the lungs. Protection from NPs is achieved through mucosal layers along with suspended macrophages in the lungs and airways while the brain utilises the blood-brain barrier as its main defensive strategy against foreign materials (Elsaesser & Howard, 2012; Yacobi et al., 2010).

3.2. Mucosal layers

NP uptake proceeds through an electrostatic repulsion principle, where the net charge of the surface of the NP plays a highly important role in enabling diffusion and passage through the mucous layer. Mucosal layers are found in the mouth, oesophagus, proventriculus, small intestine and large intestine. Some viruses such as the Norwalk and the papilloma virus of sizes 38 nm and 55 nm, respectively avoid mucoadhesion and penetrate mucus due to their net surface charge (Olmsted et al., 2001). Neutral and positive surface charge NPs have been observed to diffuse at a faster

rate through the mucus membrane than negatively charged NPs (Dawson, Wirtz, & Hanes, 2003). The size of NPs also affects transportation across cells and tissues; the uptake of 14 nm latex nanoparticles was about 15 times faster than microparticles, 415 nm (Szentkuti, 1997). Surface charge, however, is the primary factor affecting absorption and uptake in the body where one study observed 200 nm NPs of positive charge crossing the mucous membrane faster than <100 nm NPs of negative charge (Wang, Sanderson, & Wang, 2007). The pH of the surrounding matrix can also influence NP migration where acidity or alkalinity can induce a change in NP surface charge and size and prompt agglomeration of the NP matrix (Frohlich & Roegg, 2012).

3.3. Gastrointestinal tract

Digestive enzymes are a primary barrier against NP delivery. Protection against enzymatic and hydrolytic degradation can be achieved through the coating of polymeric onto the surface of the NPs (Mahapatra & Singh, 2011). The surface of enterocytes and mononuclear (M-cells) cells display cell-specific carbohydrates where this barrier can be overcome by introducing appropriate ligands and target strategies to colloidal drug carriers which will improve interaction of the NPs with adsorptive enterocytes and M-cells and can therefore allow crossing of NPs through the cellular layer (Bunglavan, Garg, Dass, & Sameer, 2014).

3.4. Blood-brain barrier (BBB)

Crossing NPs through the BBB can occur via various pathways including endocytosis, transcytosis and opening of tight junctions (Barbu, Molnar, Tsioukhis, & Gorecki, 2009). Encapsulation of NPs with various polymers and materials are commonly studied for delivery strategies due to their biodegradability and protection against enzymatic degradation. Coating NPs with polymers such as polybutylcyanoacrylate (PBCA) allows NPs to adsorb to apolipoprotein which interacts with the brain capillary endothelial cells allowing the NPs to cross the BBB (Mihalas et al., 2006). Solid liquid NPs of sizes 33–63 nm successfully crossed a BBB model using a transcellular pathway *in vitro* (Montenegro et al., 2011).

In summary, multiple absorption routes exist for NP uptake. The efficacy of NPs will therefore be governed by its ability to engage and penetrate various protective barriers placed in the animal's body while readily biodegrade to avoid toxicity.

4. Nanoparticles in feed

Integration of NPs as possible feed supplements for poultry is currently emerging as a way to further improve overall health and feed conversion ratio.

NPs have been used in poultry feed to decrease numbers of harmful bacteria in the chicken microbiota while other NP types have been shown to stimulate growth of beneficial bacteria (Mahmoud, 2012) and hence can potentially be used to improve growth and performance. Despite the growing body of research in this area, nanoparticles remain underutilised, not well characterised, and not well understood as a poultry feed additive. Here, we provide an overview of the research on the potential use of nanoparticles as poultry feed additives and propose novel strategies in nanoparticle use in agriculture or animal nutrition.

The following section is a summary of different types of NPs and couplings, including various metals, natural products and bacteria, injected and/or fed to poultry to either exercise a positive or negative effect. Focus is divided between various aspects such as overall health and immunity, growth and performance and antibacterial prospects of NPs in poultry.

5. NPs in poultry production

5.1. Silver

Silver has been routinely used as colloidal NP solution in poultry studies due to its original antimicrobial properties. It has been hypothesized that silver nanoparticles (Ag NPs) are able to directly target specific cell types and interact with a cell's structure and function to successfully eliminate bacteria due to the nano size range (Rai, Yadav, & Gade, 2009). Nanoparticles of Ag and Ag coupled with an energy molecule, adenosine triphosphate (ATP), of sizes 2-35 nm at 50 ppm effectively acted as carriers for ATP, facilitating its distribution in cells within eggs. The results showed increased pectoral muscle cell structure as well as maturation and density of myofibers, and muscle cells with multiple nucleus (F. Sawosz et al., 2012). This study showed NPs could potentially improve muscle morphology without affecting broiler performance and embryo growth. The Ag NPs also increased gene expression of fibroblast growth factor 2 (*FGF2*), vascular endothelial growth factor (VEGF) and *ATP1A1* involved in muscle cell proliferation mechanisms and gene expression of *MyoD1*, involved in muscle cell differentiation. Ag NPs have been shown to promote growth and development of muscle cells, which can further increase body weight gain due to the expansion of breast muscle (F. Sawosz et al., 2012; Sawosz et al., 2013). Additionally smaller sized Ag NPs, 2-6 nm, positively influenced *FGF2* and vascular endothelial growth factor A (VEGFA) gene expression at both mRNA and protein levels in broilers (Hotowy et al., 2012). Both factors are also involved in early embryo development. Ag and Ag coupled with hydroxypolene NPs injected in embryos also showed significant up-regulated expression of *FGF2* at mRNA and protein levels as well as a significant increase in blood vessel size, cartilage collagen fibre lattice size and bundle thickness (Bek et al., 2015). In one study, injection of physiological saline in chicken embryos induced hypertrophy of hepatocytes (enlargement of the liver cells) and 50 ppm silver and palladium (Ag/Pd) NPs showed an ability to reverse these effects (Studnicka, 2009). Injection performed on the embryos could have triggered oxidative stress resulting in the inflammation of cells, furthermore causing cell enlargement. Ag NPs of 50 ppm concentration with a size range of 2-7 nm have been coupled with amino acids, Threonine and Cysteine and showed improved immune-competence as well as innate and adaptive immunity in both embryos and chickens. Liver weight was reduced as well as moisture loss, while O₂ consumption in eggs was improved (Bhanja et al., 2015).

NPs are additionally studied as nutritional supplements in diets for the improvement of broiler health and performance since they are able to carry nutrients directly to cells. Birds were fed diets containing Ag NPs of 2, 4, 6, 8 and 10 ppm concentrations and showed increased body weight gain and total serum antioxidant with serum total protein and cholesterol decreased in broilers. Birds fed with Ag NPs at 4 ppm showed the best performance than those fed at a higher rate of 10 ppm, showing the worst performance based on FCR. Results indicated a decreased number of harmful bacteria such as *Escherichia coli* but Ag NPs had no effect on the *Lactobacillus*, which could be due to the thick peptidoglycan layer commonly found in gram-positive bacteria (Elklob, MoUSTAFA, Ghazala, & Rehan, 2015). Ag NPs of concentration 0, 300, 600 and 900 ppm were added to broiler feed observing growth and diet performance. Higher concentrations of 900 ppm Ag NPs administered to feed showed significant increase of broiler weight as well as highest feed intake and best FCR values with the lowest feed intake achieved from 600 ppm in birds (U-Ahmadi, 2009). Inclusion of Ag NPs also observed an increase in nap brush borders height which could suggest a more effective absorption of nutrients

in the intestine or liver and better conversion coefficient (U-Ahmadi, Irani, & Choobchian, 2009). Ag NPs of sizes 2-35 nm included in water intake at 10 ppm showed a higher N intake and retention as compared to control containing no nanoparticles but had no effect on feed intake, body weight and FCR (Pineda, Chwalibog, Sawosz, Lau, & Ridsen, et al., 2012). Ag NPs through water intake could also prove to be a potential coccidiostat to treat coccidiosis, a main parasitic poultry disease caused by apicomplexan protozoan *Eimeria* (Dalloul & Lillehoj, 2006). Ag NPs reduced oocyte output in faecal samples by about 50%; there were no significant differences between the nanoparticles and the coccidiostat treatment, Baycox (Chauke & Siebrits, 2012).

While the above studies have demonstrated the positive influence of Ag NPs administered to broiler chicks, other studies presented conflicting results reporting negative effects of Ag NPs on bird health and performance. For example, a size range of 2-35 nm Ag NPs injected in egg embryos demonstrated a negative influence on metabolic rate with a decrease in fat uptake, lower O₂ consumption and CO₂ production rate at 50 and 100 ppm (Pineda, Chwalibog, Sawosz, Hotowy, et al., 2012). Diets supplemented with Ag NPs of 4, 8 and 12 ppm observed a significant negative impact on broiler performance with a decreased feed intake and body weight while FCR value and mortality rate increased significantly. Some authors have speculated that this effect may have occurred due to the antimicrobial effects of Ag disturbing the balance of useful gut microbiota shifting from good to bad bacteria. Silver retention significantly increased with 4, 8 and 12 ppm in edible carcass parts of birds such as liver, breast and femur muscle (F. Ahmadi & Rahimi, 2011). The weight of the small intestine was also shown to have increased with these concentrations (F. Ahmadi et al., 2013; F. Ahmadi & Rahimi, 2011) as well as 20, 40 and 60 ppm (F. Ahmadi, 2012) and Ag NPs coupled with inorganic selenium included in diets (Felehgari, Ahmad, Rokhzad, Kwadestany, & Khah, 2013). Other organs such as liver also had increased weight (F. Ahmadi & Kurdestany, 2010; Felehgari et al., 2013) suggesting Ag NPs could have caused inflammation. Unlike the liver and small intestine, the negative effects of Ag NPs decrease weight of bursa of Fabricius (F. Ahmadi, 2012; F. Ahmadi et al., 2013; F. Ahmadi & Kurdestany, 2010) with lymph follicles of bursa shown to degenerate with only 10 ppm Ag NPs included in broiler diets (Grodzik & Sawosz, 2006). Bursa of Fabricius is linked to an antibody-mediated immunity in young broiler chickens (Glick, Chang, & Jaap, 1956) which further suggests that Ag NPs can significantly affect immunity of broilers. Oxidative stress levels were also elevated due to an increase in malondialdehyde levels in red blood cells (F. Ahmadi, 2012; F. Ahmadi & Kurdestany, 2010). Malondialdehyde is often used as a marker for oxidative stress as an increase in free radicals in the body is linked to its overproduction. NPs, in the body, are believed to stimulate fat peroxidation which contributes to release of free radicals that damage cell components such as the mitochondria. These free radicals also contribute towards increased cholesterol and triglycerides as well as deterioration of some blood parameters seen in reduced ALT, AST and ALP enzymes (F. Ahmadi, 2012; F. Ahmadi et al., 2013). Alanine transaminase (ALT), Aspartate transaminase (AST) and Asparagine transaminase (ASP) are clinically used as biomarkers for liver health and diseases involving other organs such as the heart. An increase in these enzymes commonly suggests damage was done to the liver and leakage of the hepatic enzymes into the blood has occurred, whereas reduced levels usually indicate healthy livers. In some cases, however, low levels could still show some liver damage. Ag NPs of size ranges of 18 nm of low concentration, 4 ppm, in drinking water demonstrated necrosis and apoptosis of liver cells in broilers using common histology methods (Loghman, Iraj, Naghi, & Pejman, 2012). Ag NPs were also found to negatively induce cardiac structure and

function of the heart by decreasing cardiac contractility (Raies zadeh, Noaman, & Yadegari, 2013). Table 1 summarises Ag NPs utilised in broiler studies and their effects on several aspects of health, growth and performance.

5.2. Selenium

Selenium NPs, in contrast to silver, have only recently emerged as supplements for poultry. Selenium is important as a co-factor for the production of glutathione peroxidase enzyme, GSH-Px. This essential metal is required in the first line of cell defence in the body and, along with Vitamin E, eliminates reactive oxygen species, thus reducing oxidative stress in the body.

NPs using selenium in concentrations ranging from 0.15 to 1.20 ppm have been administered to poultry and were found to increase average daily gain of broilers as compared to 0.30 ppm NPs of sodium selenite decreased the daily weight gain of broilers, demonstrating that selenium, in the form of the nanoparticle had higher effects on performance than inorganic selenium. More efficient retention of treatment in the whole body was achieved by selenium NPs except in the intestines. This shows the NPs exhibit a positive influence in the body of the chicken with reduced toxicity achieved at low concentrations, as compared to inorganic selenium (Hu et al., 2012). Other studies supported these claims by demonstrating best performance of broiler achieved with 0.3 ppm (Mohaparra et al., 2014) and 0.5 ppm (Bagheri, Golchin-Geleh dooni, Mohamadi, & Tabidian, 2015) selenium NPs as compared to both organic and inorganic selenium sources. Antioxidant functions were found to be enhanced at levels of 0.15–1.2 ppm as well as overall immunity at 0.6–1.2 ppm of selenium NPs (Fuxiang et al., 2008). It was proposed that the concentration of selenium NPs fed to broiler chickens not to exceed 1.0 ppm with optimal levels being 0.3–0.5 ppm (Cai et al., 2012; Selim, Radwan, Youssef, Eldin, & Elwafa, 2015) as higher levels could lead to some severe pathological changes to liver histology. Cai et al. (2012) observed enhanced antioxidant activity at 0.3 ppm of selenium NPs while 2.0 ppm concentration levels showed deterioration of immune functions. Observations also included increased levels of IgG antibodies, important in controlling infectious tissues and IgM antibodies, significant for a quick response against antigens. Wang (2009) contradicted all the above studies reporting that sodium selenite and selenium NPs, fed to avian broilers, showed no significant differences among each other, but did increase daily weight gain, survival rate and improved feed conversion ratio as compared to control. In conclusion selenium NPs can enhance the performance, growth and overall health of poultry due to being a non-foreign, essential, metal in the body and its importance as a co-factor to the enzyme glutathione peroxidase, which is crucial in developing immunity. Table 2 below shows a summary of selenium nanoparticles, as well as other nanoparticles of metal, natural products and polymers and their effects on broiler performance, growth and health.

5.3. Copper

Copper NPs supplemented to feed has had mixed outcomes, where similar concentrations of the nanoparticle could be either beneficial or detrimental to poultry health. A concentration of 50 ppm of sizes 2–15 nm showed a decrease in metabolic rate with regard to O₂ consumption and heat production (HP), two important regulators in the developmental stages of an egg, thus a decrease in these factors resulted in a decrease in embryonic development. NPs did not affect immunoglobulin concentrations or humoral responses (Pineda, Sawosz, Vadalasetty, & Chwalibog, 2013). The same concentration (50 ppm) with larger NP size distributions of,

15–70 nm was reported to increase body weight while improving feed conversion ratio. Both breast and leg muscle increased along with a decrease in mortality in broiler chicks upon inclusion of copper NPs in feed (Mroczek-Sosnowska, Lukasiewicz, et al., 2015). The opposing results could be due to a number of variables including both experimental factors and external factors, such as housing, feed, microbiota etc.

Copper-loaded chitosan nanoparticle (CNP-Cu), at 100 ppm, showed similar responses to a lesser 50 ppm concentration of a commonly used antibiotic chlortetracycline (CTC); with improved growth and immunity performance and caecal microbiota while results also indicated an increase in protein synthesis (C. Wang, Wang et al., 2011). Copper silicate NPs, at 2 ppm, were found to significantly improve intestinal microbiota of Yellow Chicken, shown as increased counts of *Lactobacillus* species and decreased counts of *E. coli* (Ming lei, Zheng, Xiaoye, & Xiu'an, 2013). Copper NPs, at 50 ppm, were also found to exhibit pro-angiogenic properties at the systemic level with the promotion of blood vessel development (Mroczek-Sosnowska, Sawosz, et al., 2015). Essentially Cu NPs at smaller concentrations can demonstrate positive responses in the microbiota of broilers while promoting growth and performance.

5.4. Gold

Gold NPs have shown little to no influence in poultry performance and health in several papers using either Au NPs alone (A. Zieliritska, Sawosz, Grodzik, Chwalibog, & Kamaszewski, 2009) or couplings of Au NPs with ATP (Hotowy et al., 2012) and ta. urine (M. Zielinska et al., 2012) possibly due to the inertness of the metal itself. Gold nanocarriers of sizes 2–29 nm, at a concentration of 50 ppm, were coupled with ATP and injected *in ova*, but showed no effect in growth development and metabolic rate. One study observed nuclei and myocytes increased in the muscles of broiler embryos with the inclusion of a complex synthesised from 50 ppm gold NPs coupled with 0.032 mg/L heparin sulphate (M. Zielifuka et al., 2011). This impact is positively significant towards the needs in boosting the muscle mass of broilers and therefore increase the market weight.

5.5. Other metal oxides

Various other metals have been synthesised as NPs and supplemented to poultry feed. For example, zinc oxide NPs have been synthesised and coupled onto a loaded active calcium alginate film. The NPs were tested for toxicity and successfully reduced the viability of *Salmonella typhimurium* and *Staphylococcus aureus* *in vitro* (Akbar & Anal, 2013). Other metal oxide NPs have shown similar antibacterial activity; Ag₂O, Fe₃O₄, CeO₂, ZrO₂ and MgO, where maximum antibacterial activity against *Salmonella* sp. was obtained using ZrO₂ at a concentration of 2.5 µg/ml (Ravikumar & Gokulkrishnan, 2012). Platinum NPs, 1–20 flg/mL concentration reduced cell numbers and increased the apoptosis process of cells in brain tissue. There was no effect observed on the growth and development of the embryos (Prasek et al., 2013). The investigation of the effects of these metal NPs has mostly focused on reducing antibacterial activity rather than their influence on performance and growth of poultry, representing an opportunity for future research.

5.6. Functionalised NPs

Nanoparticles can be made to act as carriers to ensure protection and efficient delivery of antibiotics and vaccines that are otherwise easily degraded in the body by the gastrointestinal tract. Annamalai et al. (2013) synthesised biodegradable and biocompatible poly

Table 1

Studies showing effects of Ag NPs on growth, performance and other aspects in broilers.

Particle size & NP (formulation)	Treatment plan	Effect	Reference
2-35 nm Ag and Ag/ATP	- <i>In ovo</i> at 50 ppm - Incubated for 20 days	- Improved structure of chicken embryo pectoral muscles - Manired and more dense myo fibers of muscle tissues	(F. Sawosz et al., 2012)
2-35 nm Ag, Ag/ATP	- <i>Irr ovo</i> at 50 ppm - Incubated for 20 days	- Gene expression of <i>FGF2</i> , <i>VEGF</i> and <i>ATP1A1</i> (j), improving muscle cell proliferation - <i>MyoD1</i> (i), thus improve d cell differentiation	(Sawosz et al., 2013)
2-35 nm Ag, Ag/Glu	- <i>In ovo</i> at 50 ppm - Incubated for 20 days	- mRNA expression of genes <i>FGF2</i> and <i>VEGFA</i> (1)	(F. Sawosz et al., 2012)
2-6 nm Ag	- <i>In ovo</i> at 10 & 20 ppm - Incubated for 21 days	- Expressions of <i>MyoD1</i> and <i>ATP1A1</i> (j) - Improved gene expression of <i>FGF2</i> and <i>VEGFA</i> genes on the mRNA and protein levels in growing chicken - Influenced <i>FGF2</i> (1) and <i>VEGFA</i> (i) expression at a protein level in the heart only	(Hmowy et al., 2012)
Ag, Ag/Hyp	- <i>In ovo</i> - Incubated for 20 days	- Expression of <i>FGF2</i> (1) by Hyp and Ag separately ($p < 0.05$) while only slightly (i) with Hyp/Ag combination but result not sig. ($p < 0.1$) - Ag/Hyp sig. (1) blood vessel size, cartilage collagen fibre lattice size and bundle thickness ($p < 0.01$)	(Beck et al., 2015)
2-7 nm Ag	- <i>In ovo</i> at 50 ppm - Incubated for 20 days	- Silver and palladium (Ag/Pd) nanoparticle solution showed the ability to reverse the negative effects of injecting chicken embryos with physiological saline, which causes hypertrophy of hepatocytes in the embryos	(Studnicka, 2009)
2-35 nm Ag, Ag, Thr/Ag, Cys/Ag	- <i>Irr ovo</i> at 50 ppm - Incubated for 20 days	- Improved immunocompetence - Potential agents for enhancement of innate and adaptive immunity in chicken - Liver weight and moisture loss (!)	(Bhanjia et al., 2015)
Ag	- 2, 4, 6, 8, 10 ppm - Included in diets	- O_2 consumption and EE sig. (i) - All levels (1) body weight and body weight gain, with 4 ppm performing best results while 10 ppm had lowest body weight - 4 ppm showed overall best performance in broiler - Serum total protein (r), 10 ppm had highest value of albumin while 4 ppm had lowest value - Cholesterol sig. (!) with 2, 4 & 5 ppm ($p < 0.05$) - Total serum antioxidant activity sig. (1) with 4 ppm recording the highest value ($p < 0.05$) - Number of harmful bacteria, <i>E. coli</i> (1) but no effect on microflora, lactobacillus	(Eliloub et al., 2015)
Ag	- 300, 600 and 900 ppm - Included in diets	- Sig. presence of polymorphonuclear cells - Height of nap brush border (1), potential absorption and conversion coefficient improvement	U- Ahmadi et al., 2009)
Ag	- 300, 600, 900 ppm - Included in diets - 56 days	- 900 ppm (i) weight sig. with a lower FCR value compared to control and highest feed intake ($p < 0.05$) - ALT levels in blood (L)	U. Ahmadi, 2009)
2-35 nm Ag	- 10 & 20 ppm - Included in water <i>incake</i> - Day 7 to 36 post-hatching	- Higher Nitrogen intake and retention with 10 ppm	(Pineda, Chwalibog, Sawosz, Lauridsen, et al., 2012)
Ag	- 15 ppm - Included in water <i>intake</i> - 2 trials: 14-27 days and 14-34 days	- Coccidian oocyst counts in the excreta of the chicks at day 7 after the challenge were 408,000 for Ag NPs, 364,000 for the coccidiostat at group and 788,000 for unmedicated group, which suggest that the silver treatment also (!) oocyst count by about 50% compared to the untreated group	(Chauke & Siebrits, 2012)
2-35 nm Ag	- <i>In ovo</i> at 50, 75 and 100 ppm - Incubated for 21 days	- Fat uptake (!) with lower rate of O_2 consumption and CO_2 production with 50 and 100 ppm - Negative effect on metabolic rate - 75 ppm (t) fat uptake but metabolic rate not significant from control	(Pineda, Chwalibog, Sawosz, Hotowy, et al., 2012)
Ag	- 0, 4, 8, 12 ppm - Included in diets - 42 days	- Sig. negative effect on FI, LBW, FCR and mortality than control ($p < 0.05$) - Repletion of lymphoid cell from follicles of bursa - Visceral organ weight (1) sig. ($p < 0.01$) - Retention of silver in edible carcass parts - Silver in faeces excretion (i)	(F. Ahmadi & Rahimi, 2011)
Inorganic Se + Ag NP	- 0.2 mg ISe 0.4 mg ISe - Either + 25 mg or 50 mg nano Ag - Included in diets - 21 days	- Body weight and feed intake (t) compared to control - Relative weight of liver and small intestine sig. (i) ($p < 0.05$) - 50 mg Ag NP had highest relative weight of mentioned organs	(Felehgari et al., 2013)
Ag	- 4, 8 and 12 ppm - Included in diets - 21 days	- Sig. (1) in liver and small intestine weight ($p \leq 0.05$) - Size of Bursa of Fabricius (L) - TG, VLDL and LDL and uric acid levels sig. (T) ($p \leq 0.05$) - HD sig. (i) ($p \leq 0.05$)	(F. Ahmadi et al., 2013)
Ag	- 20, 40 & 60 ppm - Included in diets - 42 days	- Small intestine weight and abdominal fat (1) - Bursa of Fabricius sig. (L) ($p < 0.05$) (affected microbial population and changed balance between pathogen and non-pathogens of organisms in the gut) - Total protein, albumin, globulin, TG (!)	(F. Ahmadi, 2012)

Table 1 (continued)

Part icle size & NP [formulat io n]	Treat ment plan	Re fe ren ce	
Ag	- 5, 15 and 25 ppm - I ncluded in <i>die</i> /S - Till 42 days	- Chole st e rol s ig. (t) with 60 ppm ($p < 0.05$) - ALT, AST a nd ALP s ig. (l) [oxidat ive s tress that cau sed peroxida tion of fat and rele ase of fr e e radicals in the body whe re mitochondria might have been negat ively affected by Ag NP s ($p < 0.05$) - CAT level s and GPx sig. de crea sed, SOD and MDA s ig. (l) ($p < 0.01$) - Eryt h rocytes activiti e s and MDA le vels sig . (t) ($p < 0.05$) - Sig. (l) rela tive weigh t of burs a ($p < 0.05$) - Sple en weigh ht (t)	(F. Ahmadi & Ku rdesrany , 2010)
18 nm Ag	-4. 8 and 12 ppm - Included in <i>water intake</i> - Day 42	- He patocytes damage (f) in liver tissues with (1) Ag NP concen tra tion - Sig. (i) of apop totic cells in treatments o f 8 & 12 ppm Ag NP ($p < 0.01$)	(Logh man et aL, 20 1 2)
Ag	-10, 20 ppm, 30 ppm, 50 and 70 ppm - I ncluded in <i>w al er inmk e</i> - Day 26 of age	- Ne g ative e ffect s of hig h close sil ver on cardiac structure and function. - Cardiac contractility (!) due to toxicity with high dose of Ag NPs	(Raie s zade h er al., 2013)

(lactide-co-glycolide) nanoparticles and encapsulated them into outer membrane proteins (OMP) of *C. jejuni* as a vaccination strategy against *Campylobacter jejuni* populations in poultry. Poultry are known to be the main source of *C. jejuni*, one of the main bacterial causes of human gastroenteritis (Lin, 2009). Chickens were vaccinated with different doses of the vaccine with and without NP encapsulation. Results showed 125 flg of encapsulated NPs demonstrated the better results with low detection levels of *C. jejuni* in both caecal and cloaca samples but had no significant difference between the two treatments suggesting not a significant effect exerted by the NP encapsulation.

Polymeric NPs, as mentioned before, are extensively studied for targeted drug delivery in the body due to its high bioavailability and biodegradability. Nanoencapsulation enables for highly efficient absorption and retention of drugs in cells and tissues with protection against early degradation. Polymers include poly-D, L-lactide-co-glycolide (PLGA), polylactic acid (PLA), poly-ε-caprolactone (PCL), gelatin and chitosan which are broken down in the body producing biodegradable metabolites. These polymers are used for encapsulation of multiple drugs including anticancer, diabetes, and psychotic drugs among many more (Kumari, Yadav, & Yadav, 2010). Live Newcastle Disease Virus vaccine encapsulated in chitosan nanoparticles (NDV-CS-NPs) showed improved immune responses against a highly virulent NDV strain as compared to live and inactivated NDV vaccines. NDV-CS-NPs demonstrated increased IgG and IgA, vital component of mucous membranes' immune response, concentration levels and a higher T-cell immune response. T-cells are white blood cells found in circulation scanning for infections and abnormalities (Janeway et al., 2001). The NDV-CS-NPs were synthesised by ionic cross linking method resulting in spherical nanoparticles with a size distribution of 147.72–594.4 nm (Zhao et al., 2012). The bioavailability and retention ability of the chitosan to mucus is achieved by the presence of amino and carboxyl groups in chitosan molecules which form a hydrogen bond with glycoprotein in mucus resulting in adhesion (Wang, Zeng et al., 2011). A similar study utilised PLGA instead of chitosan and found the NPs to demonstrate high cellular and humoral immune responses. PLGA-plasmid DNA nanoparticles (pFNDV-PLGA-NPs) were synthesised using a water/oil/water double emulsion-solvent evaporation method. The shape of pFNDV-PLGA-NPs were round and had an average size of 433.5 ± 7.5 nm. Results demonstrated high level of IgA and IgG antibodies as well as an increase in mucosal immune response, the latter being an important defence against ND prevention which is primarily taken in the body by inhalation and ingestion (Zhao et al., 2013).

PLGA NPs are mostly applied to broiler chickens in an encapsulated form used for vaccines and drug delivery rather than integrated in feed. The NPs have provided excellent attachment and penetration through defensive barriers of the animal body such as mucosa layers and various immunity responses. Further studies should consist of exploiting these biodegradable and bioavailable PLGA NPs in improving the FCR ratio and growth performance of broilers.

5.7. Natural products

Other methods for functionalising NPs have used polymers and or extracts of natural antibacterial products such as certain herbs and oils. Similarly, a study involved a turmeric extract enclosed in a nanocapsule was found to improve meat quality without affecting performance as a feed additive for regular broiler feed. Treatment was made by mixing three components - turmeric extract, chitosan and sodium tripolyphosphate solution. The mixture was filtered, dried and ground to produce turmeric extracted/nanoparticle. Results showed 0.2% turmeric nanocapsule to be the optimum level, producing the best FCR value while 0.4% of the nanocapsule significantly decreased liver cholesterol and subcutaneous fat. The study concluded maximum level of the treatment to not exceed 0.4% as higher concentrations showed reduced growth among birds (Sundari, Yuwanata, & Martien, 2014). Clay minerals of nano-suspensions were found to improve antibody titre protection against most infectious diseases such as Newcastle disease, infectious bronchitis and bursa disease. Solution of nano-suspensions were synthesised by physical approach with mechanical wet grinding of clay minerals to a nano range and later added to potable water to make three concentrations, 1%, 1.5% and 2%. 1% and 2% of the suspension were fed to broiler chickens where feed conversion ratio, body weight and body weight gain significantly improved (Elsuraydeh, Al-Beitawi, & Al-Faqieh, 2014).

One study synthesised and introduced silver NPs in a zeolite framework, forming a diameter of 2.12–3.11 nm, through an ion-exchange path with addition of a reducing agent, sodium borohydride. The silver-zeolite nanoparticle framework, at concentrations 1, 2 and 5 g/100 g zeolite, showed positive antibacterial activity against gram-negative bacteria, *E. coli*, *Shigella dysenteriae* and gram-positive bacteria, *Staphylococcus aureus* (Shame U, Ahmad, Zargar, Yunus, & Ibrahim, 2011). Due to the approach of adding nanoparticles in feed is relatively new, there have not been many studies investigating zeolites nanoparticles in poultry. Zeolites, have been reviewed and extensively researched in the poultry industry with recent work including zeolites used as a means of both

Table 2

Summary of meta l, natural products, polymeric and other nanoparticles and their effects on broiler performance, growth and health.

Particle size & NP	Treatment plan	Effect	Reference
Selenium Nanoparticles in Poultry			
20–80 nm, average is 60 nm Se	Experiment 1 -0.15, 0.3, 0.6 & 1.2 ppm - Included in diets -49 days Experiment 2 -0.1 mmol/L sodium selenite vs Se NP investigating intestinal retention of Se Experiment 3 -0.1 mmol/L sodium selenite vs Se NP investigating intestinal transport of Se	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sig. improved growth performance, serum CSH-Px activity & tissue Se concentration ($p < 0.05$) Sig. (I) ADG, gain/feed and survival ratio ($p < 0.05$) Sig. (r) concentrations of Se in serum, liver and breast muscle ($p < 0.05$) Se NP retained in the body than sodium selenite Transfer of Se NP from intestinal lumen to the body higher than selenite Intestinal retention of Se NP lower than selenite 	(Hu et al., 2012)
50–100 nm, average 80 nm. Se	-0.075, 0.15, 0.3 & 0.6 ppm - included in diets -8 weeks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sig. (i) final weight significantly and improved FCR ($p < 0.05$) Sig. (T) serum glucose, total protein, globulin, SCOT and urea levels ($p < 0.05$) Sig. (I) serum cholesterol, triglyceride, A/C ratio and ALP ($p < 0.05$) Antibody titres against SRBCs immunization and CBH sig. higher ($p < 0.05$) Improved erythrocyte catalase, glutathione peroxidase and superoxide dismutase activity Haemoglobin content, TEC and PVC values sig. higher ($p < 0.05$) Selenium levels in serum, liver, breast muscle, pancreas, kidney and feathers () Sig. improved ADW, ADFI, ADC and FCR with 0.5 ppm showing desirable results Final liver and abdominal cavity fat weight sig. (J) ($p < 0.05$) Sig. improved total antioxidant activities ($p < 0.01$) and improved immunity system Significantly (I) egg production percentage ($p < 0.001$) and egg mass ($p < 0.001$) at 0.25 ppm Improved feed conversion ratio sig. ($p < 0.01$) 0.4 ppm produced highest value of Yolk index Significantly (I) total lipids, total cholesterol ($p < 0.05$) and LDL-cholesterol ($p < 0.01$) while (T) HDL-cholesterol with 0.25 & 0.4 ppm (not sig.) Significantly (i) Se content in the albumen ($p < 0.05$) and egg contents ($p < 0.001$) Sig. () CSH-Px activity ($p < 0.001$) with a decrease in MDA content in yolk ($p < 0.05$) Concentration of long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids and monounsaturated fatty acids (TI) while saturated fatty acids in yolk (I) Some histopathological findings show fatty liver with focal aggregation of inflammatory cells and congestion of blood vessels in spleen 	(Mohan et al., 2014)
20–80 nm, average 60 nm Se	-0.2 & 0.5 ppm - Included in diets -42 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Sig. improved total antioxidant activities ($p < 0.01$) and improved immunity system Significantly (I) egg production percentage ($p < 0.001$) and egg mass ($p < 0.001$) at 0.25 ppm Improved feed conversion ratio sig. ($p < 0.01$) 0.4 ppm produced highest value of Yolk index Significantly (I) total lipids, total cholesterol ($p < 0.05$) and LDL-cholesterol ($p < 0.01$) while (T) HDL-cholesterol with 0.25 & 0.4 ppm (not sig.) Significantly (i) Se content in the albumen ($p < 0.05$) and egg contents ($p < 0.001$) Sig. () CSH-Px activity ($p < 0.001$) with a decrease in MDA content in yolk ($p < 0.05$) Concentration of long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids and monounsaturated fatty acids (TI) while saturated fatty acids in yolk (I) Some histopathological findings show fatty liver with focal aggregation of inflammatory cells and congestion of blood vessels in spleen 	(Itaghen et al., 2015)
Average size 80 nm Se	-0.10, 0.25 & 0.4 ppm - Included in diets -45 weeks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significantly (I) egg production percentage ($p < 0.001$) and egg mass ($p < 0.001$) at 0.25 ppm Improved feed conversion ratio sig. ($p < 0.01$) 0.4 ppm produced highest value of Yolk index Significantly (I) total lipids, total cholesterol ($p < 0.05$) and LDL-cholesterol ($p < 0.01$) while (T) HDL-cholesterol with 0.25 & 0.4 ppm (not sig.) Significantly (i) Se content in the albumen ($p < 0.05$) and egg contents ($p < 0.001$) Sig. () CSH-Px activity ($p < 0.001$) with a decrease in MDA content in yolk ($p < 0.05$) Concentration of long chain polyunsaturated fatty acids and monounsaturated fatty acids (TI) while saturated fatty acids in yolk (I) Some histopathological findings show fatty liver with focal aggregation of inflammatory cells and congestion of blood vessels in spleen 	(Raawan, Eldin, El-Zaia, & Mostafa, 2015)
Se	-0.15, 0.3, 0.6 & 1.2 ppm - [Included in diets -6 weeks	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Serum antibody titres against Newcastle disease virus (i) J Immune organs index increased Immune functions improved with antioxidant and production of glutathione peroxidase increased 	(Fuxiang et al., 2008)
Average size 80 nm Se	-0.15 & 0.3 ppm - Included in 2 treatments: diets and water intake -40 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Significant improvement of some haematological parameters ($p < 0.01$), cellular immunity and antioxidant status ($p < 0.05$), GSH-PX activity Concentration of T3 hormone with 0.3 ppm (T) Severe histopathological changes with 0.3 ppm as focal large area or necrosis with large area or inflammatory cells 	(Selim et al., 2015)
10–150 nm, average 80 nm Se	-0.3, 0.5, 1.0 and 2.0 ppm - Included in diets -42 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> IgG and IgM levels sig. (I) ($p < 0.01$) with 0.3 ppm showing highest levels Glutathione peroxidase activity, glutathione levels and free radical inhibition sig. (i) ($p < 0.01$) while malondialdehyde levels sig. (i) ($p < 0.01$) with 0.3 ppm demonstrating best effect while exceeding 2.0 ppm showed poorer levels 	(Cai et al., 2012)
60–80 nm, average 68 nm Se	-0.10, 0.30 & 0.50 ppm - Included in diets -90 days	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> 0.3 and 0.5 ppm (t) final daily weight gain and body weight and improved FCR Se content (j) in hepatic and muscle contents Drip loss of breast meat (CL) sig. ($p < 0.01$) CSH-Px activities sig. (r) in serum ($p < 0.01$) and liver ($p < 0.05$) 	(Zhou & Wang, 2011)

Table 2 (cont in ued)

Particle size & NP	Treatment plan	Effect	Reference
10- 45 nm Se	- 0.3 ppm - Included in <i>diets</i> - 6 weeks	- Selenium NPs found to <i>U</i> ox id ative stress when induc ed w it h a stressful condition - Un d e r non -oxida tive cond it i on, choleste rol in circulatory was ele vated.	(Boostan i. Sadeghi. Mousav i. Chaman & Kashan. 2015)
30- 80 nm Se	- 0.2 & 0.5 ppm - Included in <i>diets</i> - 42 days	- Sig. i mproved d ai ly we ight ga i n , su rviv al rate while red uci ng FCR ratio ($p < 0.05$) - Se content in muscle and liver tiss ue (il sig. ($p < 0.05$) - GSH- Px act ivit ies (1) sig. in bo th sen, m and liver ($p < 0.05$)	(Y. Wang, 2009)
Other Nanoparticle s in Poultry			
2- 15 nm Cu	- 50 ppm - <i>IN DVD</i> - Day 19	- O ₂ consumption ($p < 0.001$) and 1-fp of em bryos ($p < 0.01$) sig. (J) - Resi du al YS we igh t sig. Ct) ($p < 0.001$) - Liver, i ntest i ne ($p < 0.001$) and heart we igh t sig. O) ($p < 0.01$)	(Pineda et al., 2013)
15 - 70 nm. average 37 nm Cu	- 50 ppm - <i>IN DVD</i> - 19 days	- Bo dy weight sig. (t) w it h i mpro ved FCR r atio ($p < 0.01$) - Carcass content of breast muscle (t) ($p < 0.01$) - pH in breast and leg m uscle (!) ($p < 0.05$)	(Mroae k-Sosnowska, Lukasiew icz. et al., 2015)
Ave rage si ze 95 nm Cu	- 50. 100 & 150 ppm - Include d in <i>diets</i> - 42 days	- Ave rage daily gai n sig. (t) ($p < 0.05$) - Haematologica l character isties of TP and ALB i n serum (i) - Th ym us, spleen and bursa index es (i) ($p < 0.05$) - Concentrations of IgA , IgG, IgM ($p < 0.01$), O , C4 and lysozyme ($p < 0.05$) (i) i n se rum - (t) bacte rial co unt s of Lac cobac illus, Bifidobacterium wit h (l) co unt s in coliforms	(C. Wang, Wang et al., 2011)
Copper sili cate nanop anicles	- 2 g/kg - Inc luded in <i>diets</i> - 50 days	- Total caeca l a ero b ic b ac te r ia and <i>E. coli</i> sig. Ct) ($p < 0.05$) - Total caeca l a nae ro b ic bacteria and <i>Lactobacil/115</i> sig. (r) ($p < 0.05$) - Serum xanthine ox iclase ac ti vi ty and stool urea ni troge n sig. (l) ($p < 0.05$)	(Minglei et al., 2013)
15- 70 nm. Averag e 37.3 nm Cu	- 50 ppm - <i>IN DVD</i> - 20 days	- Cu NP showed more int e nse of blood vesse ls de ve lopment; n umb er of branches and le ng t h of vesse ls we re sig. greater ($p < 0.001$) - Gene express io n s o f VEGF-A, FGF2, PCNA , MyoDl, RNA, Pax7 sig. (i) ($p < 0.001$), therefore innu enc i n g embryo breast musc le mRNA sy nthesis - Nu mber of nuclei in breast muscle sig. (j) ($p < 0.01$)	(Mroezek-Sosnowsk a. Sawosz. et al., 2015)
[size nor ment ioned) Au	- 50 ppm - <i>IN DVD</i> - 20 days	- Nu mber of nuclei in breast muscle sig. (j) ($p < 0.01$)	(M. Zielinska et al., 2011)
Meta .I Oxides NPs: Al ₂ O ₃ - <50 nm Fe ₃ O ₄ - 9- 11 nm CeO ₂ - <25 nm ZrO ₂ - < 100 nm MgO - <30 nm	- 2, 5, 5.10, 15 and 20 gg / ml - Min i mum Inhibitory Concentration - Min i mum Bactericidal Concentration - Time kill as say	- All tes ted pat hogens sens iti ve against all nanopart icles MIC and MBC showe d ZrO ₂ nano part icles a re highly se nsitive aga i n s t <i>Salmonella</i> sp. and <i>E.coli</i> Al ₂ O ₃ and MgO nanopart icles s howed some sensitive a gainst the above bacteria - Time kill assay reveals that growt h of <i>Salmonell a</i> sp . was i nhib ited from the 1st to 12th hour wit h ZrO ₂ nanoparticles - Weight of live r sig. (O) ($p < 0.05$) - Pathological c hanges in brain st ructu re i n embryos showi ng mode ra te deg rada ti on - De gra d ti on of mito cho nd ria, rounded nu cle i w ith dis pe rse d chroma ti n and vac uoles in cy topl as m in brain tiss ue - PCNA- posirive nuc le i s sig. (L) ($p < 0.05$) - 0.2 % demo nst rated to be the best concentrati on w i t h best FCR value and sig. (j) i n body weight whi le concentration exceedi ng 0.4% showe d to be poiso nous - Abdomina l fat. meat EPA (0.6 % and 0.8 % on ly) and DHA (0.4 % - 0.8 %) sig. (i) ($p < 0.01$) - Subcutaneous fat (0.4% only) ($p < 0.05$) and rota. I chole s tero l of li ver (0.4% - 0.8 %) sig. (1) ($p < 0.05$)	(Ravik limar & Go kulal- rishn an , 2012)
2- 19 nm Pt	- 1, 5, 10, 15 and 20 flg / m l - <i>IN DVD</i> - 19 days	- Weight of live r sig. (O) ($p < 0.05$) - Pathological c hanges in brain st ructu re i n embryos showi ng mode ra te deg rada ti on - De gra d ti on of mito cho nd ria, rounded nu cle i w ith dis pe rse d chroma ti n and vac uoles in cy topl as m in brain tiss ue - PCNA- posirive nuc le i s sig. (L) ($p < 0.05$) - 0.2 % demo nst rated to be the best concentrati on w i t h best FCR value and sig. (j) i n body weight whi le concentration exceedi ng 0.4% showe d to be poiso nous - Abdomina l fat. meat EPA (0.6 % and 0.8 % on ly) and DHA (0.4 % - 0.8 %) sig. (i) ($p < 0.01$) - Subcutaneous fat (0.4% only) ($p < 0.05$) and rota. I chole s tero l of li ver (0.4% - 0.8 %) sig. (1) ($p < 0.05$)	(Prasek et al., 2013)
< 100 nm Turmeric Nano caps ule	- 0.2%, 0.4 %, 0.6% & 0.8 % - Inc luded in <i>diets</i> - 6 weeks	- PCNA- posirive nuc le i s sig. (L) ($p < 0.05$) - 0.2 % demo nst rated to be the best concentrati on w i t h best FCR value and sig. (j) i n body weight whi le concentration exceedi ng 0.4% showe d to be poiso nous - Abdomina l fat. meat EPA (0.6 % and 0.8 % on ly) and DHA (0.4 % - 0.8 %) sig. (i) ($p < 0.01$) - Subcutaneous fat (0.4% only) ($p < 0.05$) and rota. I chole s tero l of li ver (0.4% - 0.8 %) sig. (1) ($p < 0.05$)	(Sundari et al., 2014)
Clay mineral Nano suspensio n	- 1%, 1.5 % & 2% (w/v) given one ri me per ei t h e r one or two weeks - Inc luded in <i>diets</i> - 36 days	- 1% one time per two weeks impro ved FCR - 1.5 % gi ven one ti me per 2 weeks (1) ant i bod ies aga i n s t ND w hile sam e co ncentration gi ven one time per one week (i) ant i bod ies against IB - 1% given once per l week (1) ant i bod ies against IBD - Hgh antibacterial acti vi ty aga i n s t Gram- negative and gram - positi ve bacter i a, Ag N O ₃ /zeolite s how ed great i n- hibition against <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. dysenrriae</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> and meth ic illin- res ista n t <i>S. aureus</i> Improved growth and Feed i n t a ke rat io sig. ($p < 0.05$) Fres h we igh t s of tibia and pan crea s sig. (il) ($p < 0.05$) Improved mRNA levels o f Meta lloth io nei n , a key regulato r fo r zinc absorpt ion and tra n s portat io n ($p < 0.05$)	(Elshuraydeh et al., 2014)
2.12- 3.11 nm Ag N O ₃ /zeolite nanocomposit es	- 1%, 2 % & 5 % (g/g zeo Lit e)	- Hgh antibacterial acti vi ty aga i n s t Gram- negative and gram - positi ve bacter i a, Ag N O ₃ /zeolite s how ed great i n- hibition against <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. dysenrriae</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> and meth ic illin- res ista n t <i>S. aureus</i> Improved growth and Feed i n t a ke rat io sig. ($p < 0.05$) Fres h we igh t s of tibia and pan crea s sig. (il) ($p < 0.05$) Improved mRNA levels o f Meta lloth io nei n , a key regulato r fo r zinc absorpt ion and tra n s portat io n ($p < 0.05$)	(Shameli et al., 2011)
Zn-bearing zeolite clinoptilolite	- 80 ppm - Inc luded in <i>diets</i> - 21 days	- Hgh antibacterial acti vi ty aga i n s t Gram- negative and gram - positi ve bacter i a, Ag N O ₃ /zeolite s how ed great i n- hibition against <i>E. coli</i> , <i>S. dysenrriae</i> , <i>S. aureus</i> and meth ic illin- res ista n t <i>S. aureus</i> Improved growth and Feed i n t a ke rat io sig. ($p < 0.05$) Fres h we igh t s of tibia and pan crea s sig. (il) ($p < 0.05$) Improved mRNA levels o f Meta lloth io nei n , a key regulato r fo r zinc absorpt ion and tra n s portat io n ($p < 0.05$)	(Tang et al., 2015)

[conti nued on next page]

Table 2 (continued)

Particle size & NP	Treatment plan	Effect	Reference
317.1 nm Newcastle virus vaccine encapsulated in NP	- <i>In ovo</i>	- Induced high T cell immune response - IgA antibody (i), important in immune function of mucous membranes ($p < 0.01$)	(Zhao et al., 2012)
433.5 nm Eukaryotic expression plasmid DNA that expressed the gene of Newcastle disease vaccine encapsulated in PLGA NPs	- <i>In vivo</i>	- Immune responses of cellular, humoral and mucosal activity (1) - IgA and IgG antibody levels sig. (J) ($p < 0.01$)	(Zhao et al., 2013)

transport and supplement for nutrients such as zinc (Zn). Zn-bearing zeolite clinoptilolite, (Zn-ZCP), prepared by ion exchange methods at 80 ppm of NPs improved growth and feed intake ratio of broilers consistent with a significant increase in fresh weights of tibia and pancreas. A key regulator, metallothionein, for zinc absorption and transportation was also used to improve the effectiveness of the zeolite (Tang et al., 2015).

Carbon nanoparticles, or more specifically carbon nanotubes, have been an increasing area of interest due to their high conductivity, high-strength and mechanical properties. They have been used as "conducting components in polymer composites" and are now expanding towards additional, diverse applications. Other uses of carbon nanotubes include electrodes in lithium batteries and improve of structural purpose in plastics components (Baughman, Zakhirov, & de Heer, 2002). Carbon nanotubes are synthesised by either laser ablation or electric arc methods and require materials to be thoroughly purified. Other methods such as Chemical Vapour Deposition (CVD), which uses catalyst or hydrocarbon as precursors, are currently being developed as there is a lack of scalable techniques in producing bulk amounts of nanoparticles of carbon (Ajayan & Zhou, 2001). Although carbon nanotubes have not yet been introduced as supplements in poultry diets, one study was able to use the reverse notion of recycling and reusing of chicken bits into producing NPs of carbon. An example involve the recycling of chicken feathers, usually regarded as waste, converted into N-doped carbon nanotubes to be used in the catalytic reduction of 4-nitrophenol (Gao et al., 2014).

5.8. Further directions

Nanoparticles are now widely studied for use as new tools for targeted drug delivery activity and nutrition improvement. Their distinct size and properties can be both beneficial and disadvantageous; while their nano size enable drugs and other components to be delivered to desired target and rapidly produce an effect, nanoparticles can also easily pass through natural barriers of the body such as the blood-brain and mucosal barriers causing inflammation and toxicity. It is therefore vital to manipulate and produce desirable NP's size and concentration in order to achieve maximal benefits from NPs while avoiding toxicity.

NPs have been used in broiler studies effectively; improving growth and performance of chickens, the probable accumulation and toxicity of silver in the body cannot be disregarded and can greatly impact the immune response. Materials, such as silver, are naturally attacked by the immune system, generating an inflammation response due to its foreign nature in the body and as a result more attention is seen directed towards nutrients and minerals, an example is selenium where it is already required for proper cell

function therefore causing no such stress to the body. Selenium is an essential mineral required in the body for the first cell line of defence and selenium nanoparticles have been observed to greatly improve immunity and overall performance of a broiler. The main focus surrounding broiler studies using nanotechnology includes improving growth performance and reducing disease and pathogen load. The biggest role is to grow poultry more efficiently, improved health and development, while reducing feed conversion ratio. A low FCR value contributes to a decrease in feed requirements to achieve market weight, and in cost of waste disposal. Other NPs studied for improving broiler performance include drugs encapsulated NPs such as Newcastle virus vaccine encapsulated in a polymer. Polymers are at present widely used for drug delivery in the body as they are biodegradable and increase retention time of the drug in the body. NPs may therefore be an advanced method of delivering nutrient requirements to chickens at very low dosage. More studies should be conducted on their influence on intestinal microbiota of the chickens to understand NPs' role on beneficial gut microbes and metabolites production. A current studies investigating effect of different NPs on microbiota, especially known pathogens are done using culturing methods. Recent advances in sequencing technology presented molecular microbiology options that allow screening of both culturable and not yet cultured microbiota at once. This methodology will provide complete overview of NPs in interactions with intestinal bacteria. Studies should include more basic toxicology, histology and NP residue analysis in broilers of market weight or in egg before any wide adoption could take place.

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Nature of Candidate's Contribution, including percentage of total

SG was involved in the data collection, statistical analysis, and writing of this scientific article (70%).

Nature of all Co-Authors' Contributions, including percentage of total

All co-authors assisted with the conception and revision of the article. JC contributed to the statistical analysis of this article (15%); DS (5%); RJH (5%); RJM (5%).

Has this paper been submitted for an award by another research degree candidate (Co-Author), either at CQUniversity or elsewhere? (if yes, give full details)

No.

Candidate's Declaration

I declare that the publication above meets the requirements to be included in the thesis as outlined in the Research Higher Degree Theses Policy and Procedure

(Original signature of Candidate)

Date

Chapter 2

The synthesis and characterisation of highly stable and reproducible selenium nanoparticles

Chapter 2 showcases a rapid bottom-up approach synthesis of Se NPs, and a full characterisation including various spectroscopy and microscopy techniques. The synthesis of the NPs was carefully optimised by controlling variables such as temperature, stirring rate and the concentration of reducing and stabilising agents. In this chapter, NPs are synthesised by reducing Se metal ions to Se metal atoms, with ascorbic acid. These atoms form “seeds” during a nucleation stage process, providing a platform for the particles to grow in a desirable size. Aggregation slowly occurs due to the surface energy of the particle, and a stabilising agent is added forming an electrical bilayer around the particle. This results in the repulsion of the particles, thus forming a homogenous colloid suspension of NPs of an average size of 55 nm. The characterisation of the NPs confirmed the presence of Se using spectroscopy, while instruments such as scanning and transmission electron microscopy were used to confirm shape, size and crystallinity of the NPs. This chapter has been published in Inorganic and nano-metal chemistry journal, and has been cited 5 times.

The synthesis and characterisation of highly stable and reproducible selenium nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT

This paper describes a simple and reproducible solution phase synthesis approach for selenium nanoparticles by reducing selenium tetrachloride in the presence of ascorbic acid. An optimization study with poly (sodium 4-styrenesulfonate) produced stable and spherical narrowly size distributed nanoparticles (46 nm) which are considered highly monodisperse. The presence of selenium nanoparticles was confirmed by UV-visible spectroscopy for surface plasmon resonance (262 nm), elemental dispersive spectroscopy (11 KeV and 12.5 KeV) and size ranges characterized by dynamic light scattering (PDI = 0.04, size range of optimized nanoparticles = 35 nm to 75 nm), and visualized using scanning and transmission electron microscopy.

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Introduction

Developing uniform and monodisperse nanometre sized particles has been an exciting area of research for the last 10 years owing to the technological and fundamental science improvement associated with their uses. These nanoparticles often exhibit interesting electrical, optical, magnetic and above all, chemical properties, which cannot be achieved when compared to their bulk counterpart materials. The majority of nanomaterial research has focussed upon II-IV semiconductors and noble metals. Selenium is a metalloid possessing the characteristics of both a metal and a non-metal. Selenium is photoelectrically active and is a semiconductor where its uses include xerography, glass production and solar cell assembly.²¹ The use of selenium in its nanoparticle form has recently attracted more attention due to the nano size range property enhancing the photoelectric and biological properties of selenium. Already we know that selenium is an essential dietary element required for the production of amino acids and enzymes, reducing cell and tissue damage caused by free radicals in the body.³ The benefit of selenium nanoparticles used in other applied sciences such as agriculture has attracted attention due to the nanoparticle's ability to produce responses in cellular activity.⁴¹ Selenium nanoparticles are being studied as potential supplements in agriculture and other health sciences to provide new and improved performance responses. Owing to the sensitive nature of the public perception of regulation towards these areas, nanoparticles need to be reproducibly synthesised and studied intensely for their safety, stability and cellular responses.

Nanoparticle synthesis and their uses

There are various methods used to synthesise nanoparticles by physical means including evaporation-condensation,⁶¹ laser ablation,¹ biological approaches using plants,⁸¹ fungi,¹¹ algae¹⁰¹ or bacteria/¹¹¹ chemical micro-emulsion,¹¹²¹ photo-induced reduction,¹¹³¹ IN-initiated photo-reduction,¹¹⁴¹ electrochemical synthetic method,¹¹⁵¹ irradiation,¹⁶¹ microwave-assisted,¹¹⁷¹ using polymers and polysaccharides,¹¹⁸¹ the Tollens process - the reduction of silver ammonium ion, Ag (NH₄)⁺ (Tollens reagent), into silver nanoparticles, where it has been previously prepared from a mixture of silver nitrate and ammonia and finally chemical reduction.^{20,211} Chemical reduction is the most widely used technique as a 'bottom-up' synthesis approach whereby nanoparticles are formed through chemical reducing and protecting stages using chemicals such as ethylene glycol used in the polyol method²²¹ and trisodium citrate used in the citrate method.²³

Nanoparticle synthesis occurs through the reduction of metal ions to neutral metal atoms by the addition of a reducing agent. The first stage, nucleation, allow atoms to form small clusters, called "seeds", of a stable structure and defined crystallinity.²⁴⁻²⁵¹ The next stage involves the "seeds" to form nanocrystals of different shapes and structures.¹²⁵¹ As aggregation occurs, the surface energy of the metal also grows and smaller particles readily interact with each other to form larger particle sizes. A capping agent or stabilizing agent is used to prevent further aggregation by forming an electrical bilayer around the nanoparticle occurring from the adsorption of ions onto the surface of the nanoparticle. This process induces the repulsion

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force between the nanoparticles and is significant in controlling particle size.²⁶⁻²⁸

Different reducing and protecting agents when used in combination with each other produce various shapes and sizes of nanoparticles.²⁹ For example, glucose can act as both a reducing and protecting agent for silver producing sphere-shaped nanoparticles with a smooth surface morphology and size range of 7 nm - 30 nm.^[30] Here the glucose acts as a reducing and a protecting agent which occurs by the formation of gluconic acid by releasing electrons. These electrons reduce the silver complex and encapsulate the silver nanoparticles formed. If nanoparticle synthesis protection is not adequately carried out, aggregation ensues and can be visualized by transmission electron microscopy (TEM) as aggregated clusters rather than well separated and defined mono-dispersed particles. The synthesis of silver nanoparticles is well reported.³⁰ In a synthesis using NaBH_4 as a reducing agent and polyvinylpyrrolidone (PVP) as a protecting agent produced size ranges of larger nanoparticles, 320 nm.³¹ When other reducing agents are used, such as trisodium citrate, coarse grain nanoparticles are produced with lower surface area to volume ratio. When ascorbic acid is used as the reducing agent with polyvinyl alcohol (PVA), this reaction produces nanoparticle sizes ranging from 55 nm to 68 nm compared to using PVP as a protecting agent resulted in larger nanoparticles from 101 nm to 227 nm, respectively.³¹ The modification of concentration and ratio of solutions are equally important, as variations of these parameters can produce different shapes of nanoparticles, and high concentrations of metal salts, AgNO_3 with a low molar ratio of PVP results in silver nano-cubes while a lower concentration of AgNO_3 with an unchanged molar ratio of PVP and metal salt produces silver nanowires.³¹ With respect to the relevance of this work using nanoselenium synthesis, a number of methods are available in the literature; (a) biosynthesis using raisin extract avoiding the need for organic solvents,^[34] (b) green synthesis,³⁵ bacterial synthesis,^[36] and finally hydrothermal synthesis based on liquid-solid-solution routes.^[37]

The aim of this study was to synthesize uniform and disperse nanoparticles using a fast and reproducible chemical reduction method using ascorbic acid as the reducing agent due to its biocompatibility characteristics and low toxicity when compared to other reducing agents.³¹ Although not part of this paper, these particles are aimed for use in biological applied research to deliver novel effects in nutrient delivery in food. Characterization by UV-Vis spectroscopy, transmission electron microscopy (TEM), dynamic light scattering (DLS), scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and energy dispersive X-ray (EDX) analysis was used to determine size, uniformity, shape and surface plasmon resonance, and crystallinity of the synthesized selenium nanoparticles. In this work a simple, reproducible bench-top method using aqueous chemistry, with ascorbic acid as a reducing agent and poly (sodium 4-styrene sulfonate) (PSSS) as a protecting agent is reported. The method demonstrates simplicity and reproducibility, where other methods rely on multi-step processes that are often complex and require specialist equipment. Though multiple chemical techniques have been developed for the synthesis of nanoparticles, the requirement to exclude solvent contamination while providing uniformity among the produced nanoparticles has been a challenge. This study aims at improving this knowledge while

providing a robust method to eliminate these contaminants from the nanoparticles.

Materials and methods

Chemicals

The metal salt, selenium tetrachloride (SeCl_4), ascorbic acid ($\text{C}_6\text{H}_8\text{O}_6$), poly (sodium 4-styrenesulfonate) and solvents (ethanol, methanol, propanol, dichloromethane, ethylene glycol and acetone) were purchased from Sigma Aldrich, Australia and stored at room temperature until use.

Preparation of nano-selenium

A modified chemical reduction method was used, where 5 mM of SeCl_4 solution was prepared. Ascorbic acid was used as a stock reducing agent at a concentration of 100 mM and the protecting agent, PSSS was made up at 0.1% (v/v) concentration. All solvents were dissolved in Milli-Q water at room temperature, and used on the day of preparation.

Reactants were introduced in the following order: 2.5 mL of PSSS was added to 15 mL of selenium tetrachloride and followed by 2.5 mL of ascorbic acid. The solution was mixed under mild stirring rates at 160 °C for 1 - 2 min, until a deep red clear colour was achieved, this colour demonstrates reaction progression.

Precipitation and re-dispersion of Nano-Se (washing)

The first wash involved the solution of selenium nanoparticle of approximately 20 mL, to be diluted with 20 mL of Milli-Q water and centrifuged at 1008 x g. Following the wash, the precipitant was removed as it contained larger nanoparticles > 100 nm while the supernatant is re-suspended with Milli-Q water of approximately 40 mL. The second wash involves the new solution of selenium nanoparticle to be centrifuged at 8500 rpm for 25 mins and the supernatant is re-suspended again in Milli-Q water. The second wash is repeated twice more and lastly the supernatant containing any remaining surfactants and/or reactants, is removed while the precipitant containing selenium nanoparticles of sizes 50 nm and smaller, is collected for analysis.

Nanoparticle characterization

UV-vis spectroscopy

UV-vis spectroscopy (Cary 50 Bio Spectrophotometer), was used for the determination of selenium nanoparticles in solution. A 2 mL aliquot of the selenium nanoparticles (SeNP) was measured in a 1 cm path-length quartz cuvette and scanned at a medium scan rate (2 nm per second), 200 to 800 nm. The analysis was performed in triplicate for reproducibility.

Dynamic light scattering spectroscopy

The particle size and size distribution of the selenium nanoparticle sample was analysed by dynamic light scattering using the Malvern Zetasizer Nano ZS. A volume of 1 mL of the SeNP solution in 2 mL of Milli-Q water was placed in a polystyrene

cuvette and measured at 25 °C. The viscosity and refractive index were set to those specific to water and the quartz cuvette. Measurements of size and polydispersity Uidex (PD1) were obtained for both freshly synthesized PPs and washed nanoparticles in triplicate. The particle size was given as mean and standard error.

Scanning electron microscopy

Scanning Electron Microscopy (SEM) (JEOL JSM-6360LA) was used to determine the shape of the nanoparticles. One drop of the selenium nanoparticle solution was air dried under cover on a carbon stub for 10-15 min.

X-ray diffraction study

The nanoparticle sample was dispersed on a low background noise sample holder and analysed in a Bruker D8 Advance X-Ray diffractometer equipped with a LynxEYE detector. X-ray diffraction analysis was operated at a voltage of 40 kV, with current of 40 mA, with copper radiation of 1.5406 Å. The scanning was performed in the 2θ range of 10° to 40° at 0.02°/min with time constant of 1.2 s.

Transmission electron microscopy

A sample of 5 µL volume was placed onto a formvar-coated copper grid - grid bought from Proscitech and formvar-coated at University of Queensland - and air dried. The morphology and size of selenium nanoparticles were characterized using transmission electron microscopy (TEM; Jeol 1011 JSM) operating at an accelerating voltage of 80 kV. Images were captured using an Olympus SIS Morada CCD camera with analysis software.

EDS study

Energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS) was performed to confirm the conversion of selenium ions into elemental selenium (Se) using a FEI Terna F20 TEM/STEM operated at 200 kV. A small aliquot of the sample was pipetted onto a carbon coated 200 mesh copper grid.

Statistical analysis

All stages of the synthesis and measurements including the UV-Vis and particle size analysis were carried out in triplicate and expressed as a mean with a standard error using Sigma Plot. The synthesis was routinely replicated, $n = 5$, demonstrating the reproducibility of the method. SEM images were analysed using ImageJ software, downloaded from ImageJ - RSB Home Page, <http://imagej.nih.gov/ij/download.html>, with plugin 64-bit Java 1.8.0_77, where nanoparticle size was calculated.

Results and discussion

Nanoparticle synthesis and formation

Selenium nanoparticles were synthesised from the chemical reduction of selenous acid, obtained by adding selenium tetrachloride in water, with the use of PSSS as a protecting agent and ascorbic acid as the reducing agent, as seen in figure 1.

Ascorbic acid is often a preferred reducing agent due to its biocompatibility and low toxicity in the body compared to other reducing agents⁸¹. It was observed that high concentrations of ascorbic acid produced a clear red solution containing smaller nanoparticles, < 70 nm while lower concentrations of the reducing agent resulted in a cloudy, orange coloured solution with larger nanoparticles size ranges > 100 nm. Different effects from different concentrations of reducing agents have been observed in other papers such as Henglein (1999) where high concentrations of a reducing agent can destabilize the nanoparticle causing the formation of irregular shapes while low concentrations of the reducing agent caused aggregates of the nanoparticles, from large particle sizes, > 100 nm⁹¹. The concentration of PSSS was important in this reaction as it has provided an electrical repulsion layer on the surface of the nanoparticle; a lower concentration, < 0.01% showed a tendency for the nanoparticles to aggregate and form snowflake-like nanostructures. In contrast, a higher concentration (0.2% w/v) formed uniform and widely distributed nanoparticles (Figure 1). If the protecting agent concentration is too high, a larger hydrodynamic diameter of a nanoparticles is usually experienced⁴⁰¹ surface charge of nanoparticle is increased as

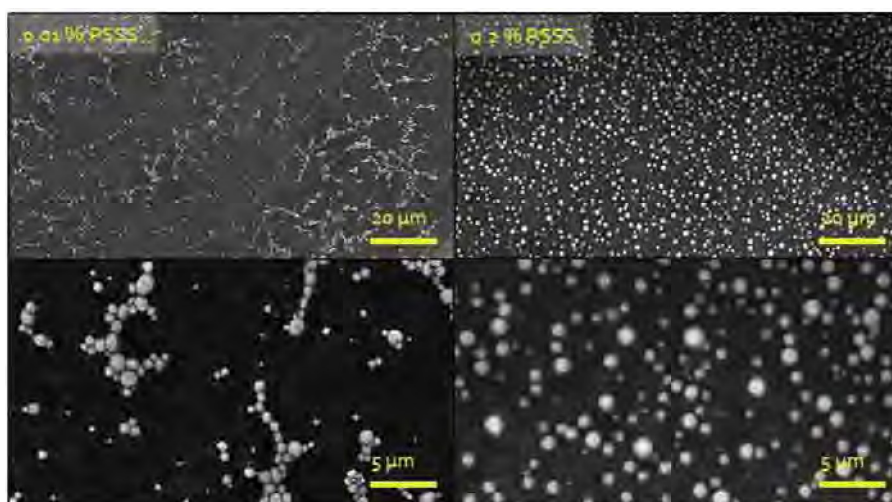


Figure 1. Scanning electron micrographs to show the difference in (L) low and (R) high concentrations of protecting agent, PSSS. The 0.2% PSSS concentration has enabled improved resistance to aggregation. All experiments were repeated in triplicate.

more electrons are added onto the surface resulting in the nanoparticle having a larger diameter.¹⁴¹¹ Some other authors have shown that higher concentrations of protecting agent produces a larger particles size range (>0.5 µm) along with various shapes: triangles, rods and cylinders rather than spherical-shaped nanoparticles (100 - 300 nm in size).^{1' 21}

The ability to: invoke size changes of nanoparticles is important in order to explore their potential applications for cellular uptake, catalysis, energy production, food science and many other areas of nanotechnology.¹²²¹

This work shows that the protecting agent was particularly important for the stabilisation process of the solution of the selenium nanoparticles preventing aggregation, thus improving the surface charge repulsion and zeta potential properties of the nanoparticles.¹⁴⁴ The crystal growth of metal nanoparticles is known to be influenced by the strength of adsorption of the capping agent and also the competition between the inter particle aggregation for the growth of the particles. For crystal growth to occur, desorption of the capping agent must proceed, allowing the metal atom to gain access to the prevailing nanoparticle surface.¹⁴⁵ Similarly, in this reaction, selenium metal nanoparticle synthesis has occurred when a change of colourless solution (seed) turned to a 'brick' red colour, indicating atoms had built onto the seeds in solution. The colour change was confirmed with the 260 nm plasmon resonance value. Controlling the shape of the nanoparticle has been most successfully achieved using a seed template. For our reaction, a spherical seed template was used, this template provided a constrained environment during the nanoparticle growth phase and thus shapes were tuned according to the seed platform. The red colour associated with the nanoparticle solution occurred 1 min into the whole reaction and intensified suggesting that the longer periods of reaction time increased the concentration of monodisperse nanoparticles, as shown in¹⁴⁶¹ and exhausted when all seed solution was used¹⁴⁶¹. This seed and ripening method is known as the Ostwald ripening process.¹⁴⁷ The growth of nanoparticle crystals can be stopped by reducing the reaction kinetics: through temperature and reaction time.¹⁴⁶¹ If all these parameters are optimised, such as the ones in this study, highly crystalline and well defined nanoparticles are created. If the values of the reaction parameters are too high or too low, irregular shaped nanoparticles can result. Figure 2 shows the mechanism by which selenous acid was reduced to form the precise selenium nano-spheres.

Equations (1) and (2) show the main synthesis for this reaction including the formation of selenous acid from selenium tetrachloride and synthesis of selenium nanoparticle from

reduction of ascorbic acid:



The reaction of selenium tetrachloride with water produces selenous acid (and hydrochloric acid):



Selenous acid is reduced by ascorbic acid producing dehydroascorbic acid and water while the hydrochloric acid from the first equation (1) also result in water production and chlorine gas.⁴⁸

UV-visible spectroscopy of the resulting nanoparticle solution displayed a surface plasmon resonance band at 262 nm confirming the presence of selenium nanoparticles^{50 52} in Figure 3 below.

The noticeable broadness of the absorption peak coincided with the increase in particle size at 1 h when compared to the initial reaction times of 1 and 10 min, respectively, indicates the nanoparticle size profiles remained constant. The exact position of the surface plasmon band may shift depending on the individual particle properties including size, shape, solvent and capping agent.¹²²¹ The initial 1 min absorption spectrum has another broad band at 285 nm. This band was aligned with the seed solution. For the nanoparticles produced in this work, we have halted the aggregation process by optimising the capping agent concentration for the synthesis. An optimised, analytical approach produced an ideal optimal concentration "sweet-spot" of 0.2% w/v PSSS. Temperature can also be used to prevent side reactions if washing has not been carried out.¹⁴⁷ Refrigerating the selenium nanoparticle solution after synthesis at 4 °C showed the ability of the nanoparticle solution to remain a dark red colour and clear with no change in wavelength absorption and particle size.⁵⁴

Nanoparticle: Washing, clean-up and aggregation studies

For the application of nanoparticles to be used in biological systems, it is necessary to clean the nanomaterial using a series of washing stages. Washing the nanoparticles was important in this study as it removed any un-reacted products left in the solution and also optimised the stability of the particles. In this study, selenium nanoparticles were washed and then re-suspended in Milli-Q water. An observed change to the UV-vis

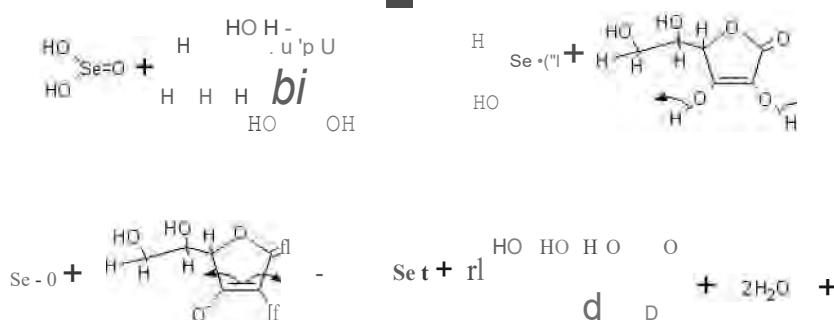


Figure 2. An illustration of the proposed mechanism of selenium nanoparticle formation.

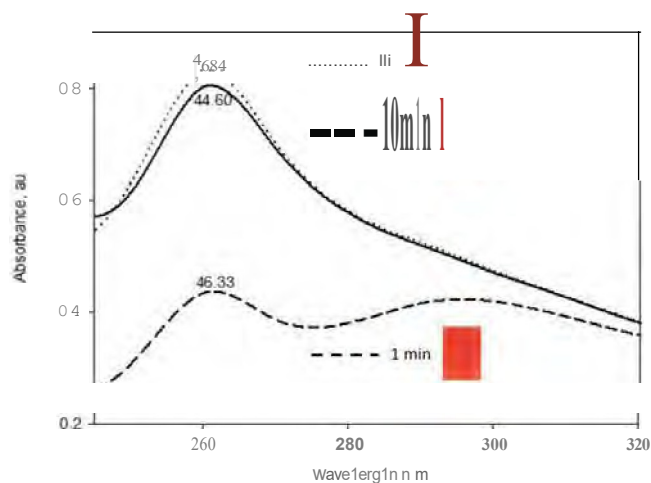


Figure 3. Top graph shows UV-vis absorption spectra of selenium nanoparticles at 1 min, 10 min and 1 h, photographs of the nanoparticle solutions during the synthesis stages are also overlaid.

spectra has shown that the seed solution was removed following the washing steps performed in the 1 h spectrum.

Few papers have used solvents for washing, clean-up and re-dispersing nanoparticles¹⁷⁻¹⁸¹ showing that improved dispersity of the nanoparticle solution needs to be investigated. Potentially, a switch in dispersant may also provide new strategies to improve the end-application of the nanoparticles. This study found that when using ethanol, the nanoparticle solution became turbid and changed in colour from red to brown, where the aggregated particles precipitated from the solution. This result provided a rationale for the investigation for other solvents to be used without aggregating the nanoparticle solution.

In this study, we have investigated ethanol ($\log K_{ow} = -0.31$), methanol ($\log K_{ow} = -0.77$), propanol ($\log K_{ow} = 0.25$), dichloromethane ($\log K_{ow} = 1.25$), ethylene glycol ($\log K_{ow} = 1.36$) and acetone ($\log K_{ow} = -0.24$) as a means to clean and re-disperse the nanoparticles, as shown in Figure 4. When polar solvents were used, nanoparticle destabilization is observed

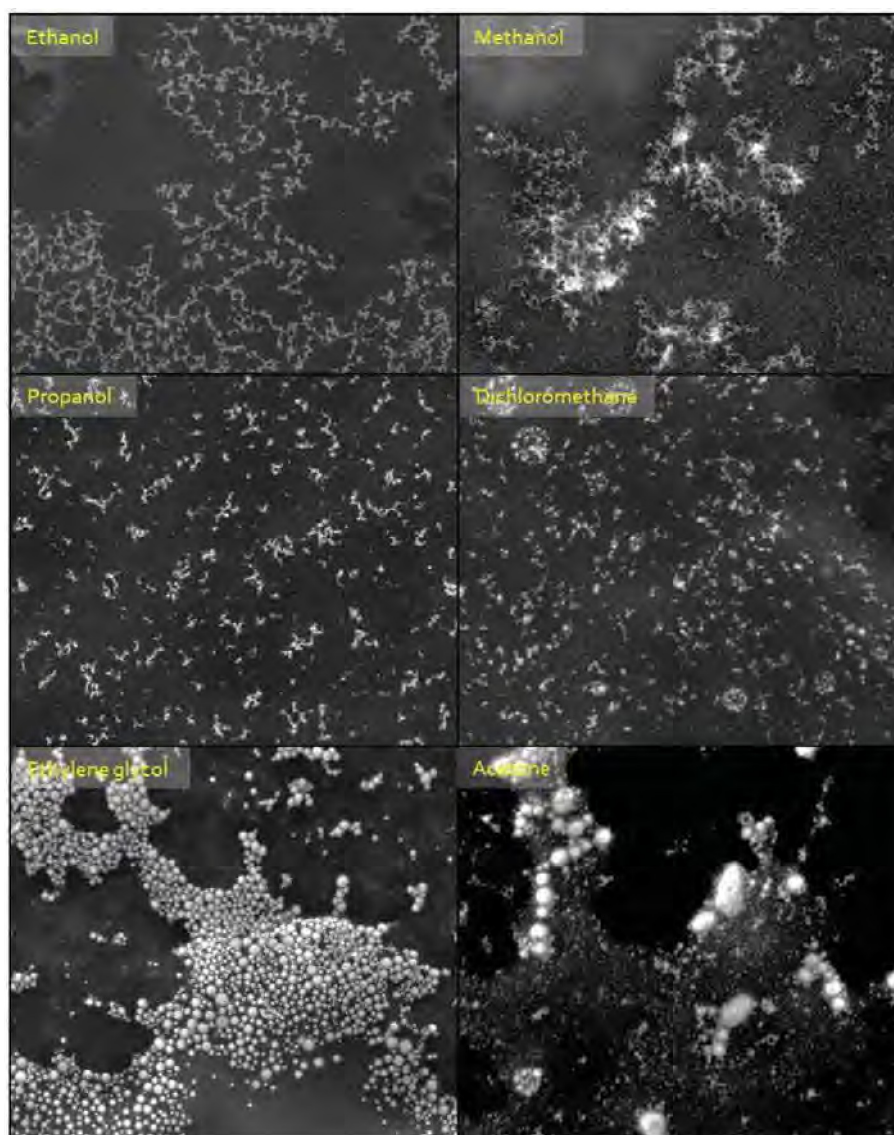


Figure 4. Scanning electron micrographs of selenium nanoparticles re-dispersed in different types of solvents and the effect the solvent has on the nanoparticle solution.

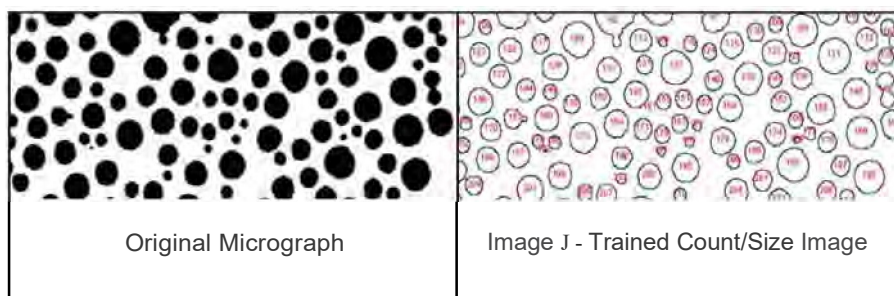


Figure 5. Original transmission electron micrograph (L) and (R) overall size and size distribution pixel plot of selenium nanoparticles produced using ImageJ software.

where the concentration of the protecting agent was too low resulting in poor zeta potential of the nanoparticles^{39, 41} causing aggregation. The zeta potential of the nanoparticle solution in this study has shown low negative values between -10.11 and -10.81 mV where preferred values are higher than 30 mV or lower than -30 mV.⁵¹ Ethylene glycol and dichloromethane were the only solvents to disperse the nanoparticles successfully when used as pure solvents - the spherical particles displayed no sign of attraction or precipitation. This could be due to ethylene glycol and dichloromethane having higher octanol and water coefficient values, furthermore, their viscosity values are enabling the separation of the nanoparticles based on their differing viscosities - ethylene glycol, 13.5 cP (mPa s) (20°C) while the other solvents have lower viscosity values of less than 2.^{156, 57} Washing and re-dispersion with water affected neither colour nor appearance of selenium nanoparticle solutions where the electron micrographs demonstrated good visual data and size ranges of nanoparticles, Figure 4. Other studies have attempted to re-disperse in water as the solvent and also show that no signs of aggregation occur, indicating good stabilization inducing repulsion between the particles and the surrounding solvent.⁵¹

To support the size distribution data from the electron micrographs taken for each synthesis stage of this work, the selenium nanoparticle solutions were characterized with dynamic light scattering achieving size ranges 46 ± 0.17 nm with a polydispersity index intensity value of 0.04 ± 0.01 where nanoparticles were of a spherical shape. The small PDI value indicates the

Se-NP to be monodisperse.⁵¹ It is possible to improve the PDI value as shown in Malhotra (2014) by coating the nanomaterial with a substrate such as dextrin, that can reduce the PDI value of nanoparticles.⁵³ Analysis of the SEM images with ImageJ and SigmaPlot further supports the DLS and SEM data. Figure 5, used ImageJ counting functions to count nanoparticles and also their size distribution. To the best of our knowledge, this is the first time this has been used to perform accurate measurement to support the nanoparticle size data.

The use of scanning electron microscopy, while excellent in providing routine information on the overall size ranges of materials, resolution is not always retained. In order to fully characterize the optimised solutions in this study, transmission electron microscopy was used. TEM has confirmed the morphology and structure of selenium nanoparticles being spherical. Figure 6 shows the sizes of Se NPs in solution and further corroborate with the data obtained from DLS.

X-ray diffraction analysis was performed to show the crystalline nature of the selenium nanomaterials. Two diffraction peaks were observed around 16.4 and 32.8 degrees which were closely situated near 15.5 and 31.5 degrees corresponding to the planes of selenium nanoparticles. Other papers have shown the intensity of selenium occurring around 20 and 30 degrees.⁵⁸ Furthermore, calculated lattice constants are in agreement with the values obtained in this study for spherical shaped selenium. The peaks also exhibit low strength and thus potentially indicated that the Se-NP may be a mix of amorphous and

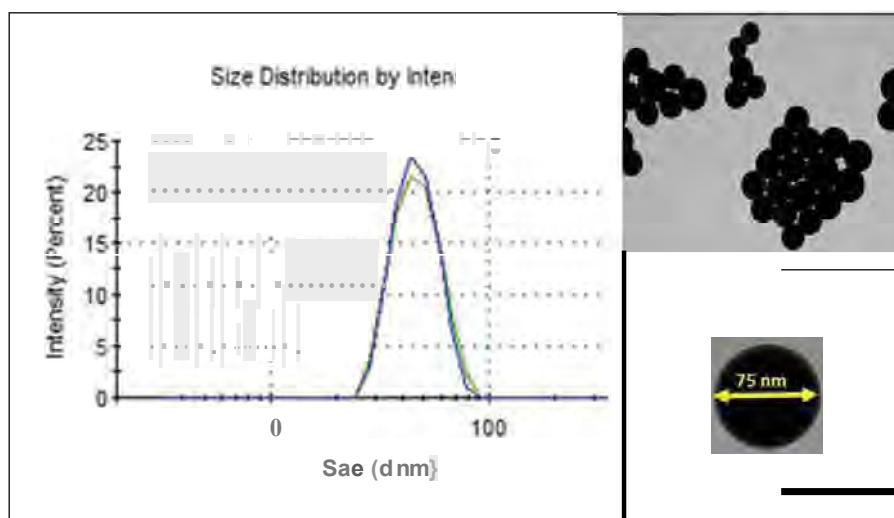


Figure 6. (L) Selenium size distribution using ImageJ analysis of complex electron micrographs and (R) Transmission electron micrograph showing (a) a single isolated selenium nanoparticle of an average size of 55 nm.

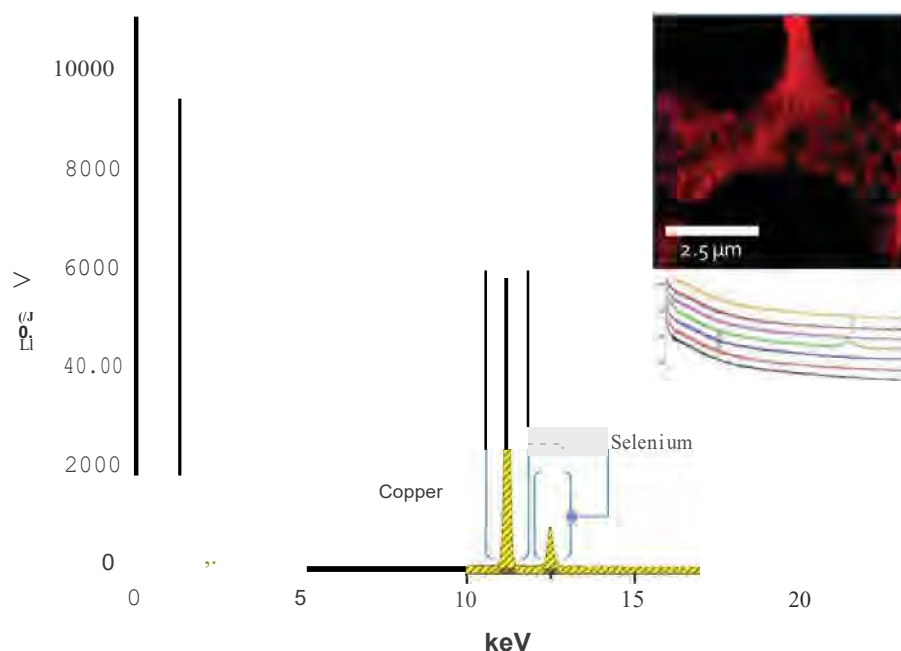


Figure 7. Energy dispersive spectrum of elemental composition of optimised selenium nanoparticle solution, insert of transmission electron micrograph (top insert), and X-ray diffractogram for multiple sample analyses (bottom insert).

monoclinic selenium, mostly in an amorphous form, while monoclinic belongs to one of the seven crystal systems, and amorphous refers to non-crystalline materials which could signify the nanoparticles to be non-crystalline.¹⁵⁹

The energy dispersive X-ray spectroscopy analysis confirmed the presence of elemental selenium showing absorption peaks of selenium at 1.4 keV, 11 keV and 12.5 keV at L_α, K_βL_α and K_β2 peaks, respectively. All of these characteristic peaks refer to the X-ray emissions measured from the samples.^{31,58}

Conclusion

This study has demonstrated a fast and reproducible method to synthesise selenium nanoparticles by reducing selenium tetrachloride with ascorbic acid in a bottom-up design synthesis approach. We have demonstrated that low concentrations of reducing agent compared to metal salt produce larger nanoparticles > 100 nm while high concentrations of reducing agent compared to metal salt produce much smaller sizes, < 70 nm of selenium nanoparticles. Aggregation of the nanoparticles was reduced using PSSS in an analytically optimised method, resulting in an electrical layer producing repulsion against other nanoparticles in the solution. The presence of selenium nanoparticles was confirmed through UV-visible spectroscopy showing the surface plasmon resonance bands. X-ray diffraction studies have shown that selenium nanoparticles are amorphous, supporting the dark red colour of the nanoparticle solution obtained. TEM, SEM and DLS have shown nanoparticles to be spherical shape and size ranging less than < 100 nm.

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Nature of Candidate's Contribution, including percentage of total

SG was involved in the data collection, statistical analysis, and writing of this scientific article (60%).

Nature of all Co-Authors' Contributions, including percentage of total

All co-authors assisted with the conception and revision of the article. OS contributed to the statistical analysis and completed bioinformatics analysis (15%); ID (5%); JC (5%); RJH (5%); TTHV (5%); RJM (5%).

Has this paper been submitted for an award by another research degree candidate (Co-Author), either at CQUniversity or elsewhere? (if yes, give full details)

No.

Candidate's Declaration

I declare that the publication above meets the requirements to be included in the thesis as outlined in the Research Higher Degree Theses Policy and Procedure

(Original signature of Candidate)

Date

Chapter 3

Selenium nanoparticles in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*

Chapter 3 examines the supplementation of Se NPs in poultry feed at different concentrations and compare its effect on gut microbial ecology and SCFA production against two most commonly used Se supplementation in the poultry industry, sodium selenite (inorganic Se) and selenomethionine (organic Se). The results show the ability of Se NPs to improve gut microbiota by increasing beneficial bacteria such as *Lactobacillus* and *Faecalibacterium*, as well as increasing healthy gut metabolites, particularly butyric acid which acts as an energy source for colonic cells. Histopathological analysis was performed on duodenum, ileum and caecum tissue samples, and results shown there was no toxicity induced by the Se NPs. This chapter has been published in Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology journal, with an impact factor of 3.670, and has been cited 14 times.



Selenium nanoparticles in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*

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Abstract

The poultry industry aims to improve productivity while maintaining the health and welfare of flocks. Pathogen control has been achieved through biosecurity, vaccinations and the use of antibiotics. However, the emergence of antibiotic resistance, in animal and human pathogens, has prompted researchers and chicken growers alike to seek alternative approaches. The use of new and emerging approaches to combat pathogen activity including nanotechnology, in particular, silver nanoparticles (NPs), has been found to not only eradicate pathogenic bacteria but also include issues of toxicity and bioaccumulation effects. Other novel metal nanoparticles could provide this pathogen reducing property with a more tailored and biocompatible nanomaterial for the model used, something our study represents. This study investigated the benefits of nanomaterial delivery mechanisms coupled with important health constituents using selenium as a biocompatible metal to minimise toxicity properties. Selenium NPs were compared to two common forms of bulk selenium macronutrients already used in the poultry industry. An intermediate concentration of selenium nanoparticles (0.9 mg/kg) demonstrated the best performance, improving the gut health by increasing the abundance of beneficial bacteria, such as *Lactobacillus* and *Faecalibacterium*, and short-chain fatty acids (SCFAs), in particular butyric acid. SCFAs are metabolites produced by the intestinal tract and are used as an energy source for colonic cells and other important bodily functions. Selenium nanoparticles had no significant effect on live weight gain or abundance of potentially pathogenic bacteria.

Keywords Intestinal microbiota · Selenium · Nanoparticles · *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*

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Introduction

Nanoparticles (NPs) are particles with dimensions smaller than 100 nm (Chapman et al. 2010; Gangadoo et al. 2016). Owing to their size, metal NPs have been found to possess unique physical and chemical properties (Rai et al. 2009) such as enhanced biocompatibility and a greater surface area to volume ratio while frequently demonstrating reduced toxicity compared to the corresponding bulk metals. The size of a nanoparticle offers a unique delivery platform to an organism including uninterrupted passage through the endocytotic and lymphatic membranes for particles smaller than 5000 nm (Chen and Langer 1998; Sanders and Ashworth 1961) and through cellular membranes for particles smaller than 500 nm (Florence et al. 1995). Because of their useful properties, NPs are used in a range of everyday products, from medical, building, optics and electronic industries to food and agricultural products (Peters et al. 2014).

A current issue in the poultry industry is that supplementation of chicken feed with antibiotics, still practised in many

countries to maintain health and productivity, has been linked to the emergence and spread of antibiotic resistance-encoding genes (Obeng et al. 2012; Vieira de Souza et al. 2012). An alternative to antibiotics must be found so that the use of antibiotics can be reduced without compromising the health, welfare and productivity of poultry. NPs have advantageous properties which may make them a worthwhile alternative to antibiotic usage.

Interest in the potential application of NPs in agriculture started with efforts exploring the antimicrobial action of NPs, in particular, using nanosilver (nanoAg). Silver has been suggested as an alternative to antibiotics in poultry production (Zarei et al. 2014). NanoAg can also protect from the harmful effects of aflatoxins (Gholami-Ahangaran and Zia-Jahromi 2012), which can be an issue in overall poultry nutrition. A fundamental drawback of nanoAg is now emerging, namely, the toxicity of silver that accumulates in organs, especially the liver or muscle, and has halted the use of nanoAg in livestock products (Jennifer and Maciej 2013). Toxicity studies on nanoAg have shown that there are clear bioaccumulative effects owing to the fact that silver is not inherently required in most metabolic processes in living systems. Other metals and metal oxides when presented as NPs demonstrate improved biocompatibility and some researchers have been focusing on antibacterial activity against main poultry pathogens (Gangadoo et al. 2016).

Most of the NP products, being trialled in the poultry industry as pathogen controlling supplements include silver, gold and metal oxides (Gangadoo et al. 2016), are not required for cellular functions. We propose the use of an essential metal, in NP form, to deliver nutrients necessary for optimal poultry health and, at the same time, produce positive effects by their influence on various bacterial genera. Thus, we have investigated the delivery of nutrients that represent a part of standard poultry supplemental vitamin/mineral mixes known to be beneficial and essential for animal growth and immunity. Here we hypothesised that this scientific approach will overcome the bioaccumulative and toxic effects previously observed using nanoAg and provide a faster and more efficient mean of essential metal delivery in addition to producing antibacterial effects against a range of susceptible microorganisms.

Most vitamin and mineral supplement mixes contain a range of essential metals. The presence of trace amounts of these metals, including iron, zinc, copper, manganese, chromium, molybdenum and selenium, is vital for human and animal health, due to their role as enzyme cofactors (Maathuis 2009; Speich et al. 2001). Essential metal deficiencies are serious health problems in humans as well as in the livestock industries. Selenium is routinely added to poultry feed in two primary forms, inorganic and organic, forming a supplementary macronutrient component in most feed. The inorganic selenium, typically reported as selenite when used

in poultry feed is reported to be less efficient when compared to the organic form of selenium (Brandt-Kjelsen et al. 2014). Organic selenium sources are considered more suitable for feed, and a number of attempts to use selenium enriched yeast and wheat have been suggested and investigated (Brandt-Kjelsen et al. 2014). Ready uptake is a major advantage of NPs for transport to the desired cell and results from the particle size and shape (Pal et al. 2007). NPs are able to deliver the desired nutrient directly into the cell without involving complex uptake pathways and energy loss to the host.

Here we present a study to investigate the potential of selenium nanoparticles (nanoSe) to deliver selenium's essential metal properties to both the chicken host and the intestinal bacteria more efficiently than the inorganic and organic selenium sources in feed. The study will also demonstrate the potential modification of the gut microbiota in a positive direction to enhance the abundance of beneficial bacteria and limit the proliferation of pathogenic bacteria. This study compared the influence of both organic and inorganic Se supplementation that is commonly added to poultry feed in Australia against three different concentrations of nanoSe: 0.3, 0.9 and 1.5 mg/kg.

Materials and methods

Chemicals and reagents

Chemicals chloroform and methanol (HPLC grade) were purchased from Thermo Fisher, Melbourne, Australia. Cellulose filters, pore size of 0.45 µm, were acquired from Sartorius Stedim Biotech Gottingen, Germany and glass chromatography vials from Restek, Sydney, Australia. Ultra-pure water (18 MΩ) was used throughout the study. Standards of acetic acid, propionic acid, butyrate acid, isobutyric acid, valeric acid, isovaleric acid, hexanoic acid and heptylic acid were purchased from Bio-Scientific Pty Ltd., Sydney, Australia.

Nanoparticle preparation

NanoSe were synthesised using a simple chemical reduction with the following chemicals; selenium tetrachloride, ascorbic acid and polystyrene-4-sulfonate as the metal salt, reducing and protecting agents, respectively. The solution obtained was of a dark red colour indicating presence of amorphous selenium. Full characterisation of the NPs was done including, size, shape, morphology and crystallinity as well as composition of the solution as detailed in Gangadoo et al. (2017). The nanoSe which were dispersed in Milli-Q water (18 MΩ) were mist sprayed onto poultry feed, rotating in an Ozito CMX-125 mixer (Ozito Industries Pty. Ltd., Bangholme, Australia) and then air dried for 24 h.

Animal trial

A total of 70 1-day-old Ross 308 broiler male chicks were purchased from Bonds hatchery (<http://www.bondenterprises.com.au/>). The birds were weighed and randomly divided among five groups, each containing 14 chicks, in a light and temperature controlled room. Water and feed were supplied *ad libitum*. The room temperature was set to follow the guide in the Ross Broiler Handbook (Aviagen). The feed used in this trial was a chicken crumble formulation detailed in Supplementary Table S1. Experimental diets included two controls, supplemented with either organic (Alkosel 3000 inactivated whole cell yeast containing elevated levels of organic selenium, min. 98%) or inorganic (sodium selenite) selenium, at concentration of 133.33 mg/kg, and three treatment groups supplemented with different concentrations of nanoSe: 0.3, 0.9 and 1.5 mg/kg.

Bird weights and feed eaten were recorded regularly at weekly intervals. Birds were euthanised at 29 days post-hatch by CO₂ asphyxiation. Faecal and caecal content samples were collected and immediately stored at -80 °C. Faecal samples were collected during necropsy by sampling directly from the colon in the section 2 cm adjacent to the cloaca. Caecal samples were collected by squeezing the content from both caeca into a sterile vial. Total DNA from both origins was extracted within 1 week.

Microscopy

For histological analysis, tissues were collected from the duodenum (mid-section), ileum (mid-section) and caecum (end points), washed in phosphate-buffered saline and fixed in 10% buffered formaldehyde, and paraffin embedded and stained using haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) and Alcian blue stains. The histological images were scanned at the TRI Microscopy Core Facility (Brisbane, Australia) using a Nikon Brightfield, Olympus VS120 slide scanner and analysed using Olympus microscopy software Olyvia.

The morphometric indices, including crypt depth, villus height, villus area and villus height to crypt depth ratio, were evaluated for duodenum, ileum and caecum, using ImageJ software. Morphometric analyses were performed on 20 technical replicates (different histological sections) from 5 biological replicates (birds) per treatment group.

Short-chain fatty acid analysis

Short-chain fatty acid (SCFAs) metabolites were extracted from caecal samples (0.2 g) as described by Roume et al. (2013). To summarise, an extraction solution of chloroform and methanol at a ratio of 2:1 was used in extractions and the final extract was filtered using a 0.45-µm cellulose filter (ThermoFisher, Melbourne, Australia, cat. no. 54504-RC).

Calibration curves were constructed using standard stock solutions and then stored as a method processing parameter in selective ion monitoring mode for the following SCFAs, acetic, n-butyric, isobutyric, propionic, n-valeric and isovaleric acid.

The GC-MS system consisted of a Shimadzu (Sydney, Australia) QP2010-Plus equipped with an AOC21 autosampler. The GC was fitted with a high-polarity column HP-Innowax (30 m x 0.25 mm x 0.25 µm). The GC temperature programme started at 60 °C and held for 1 min, ramped at 15 °C per min to a temperature of 160 °C and then finally ramped at 70 °C per min until a final temperature of 260 °C was reached and held for 0.90 min (a total of a 10-min programme). The GC oven temperature was set as presented in Supplementary Table S2. A 1-µL sample was injected at 250 °C using helium as a carrier gas (Coregas, Gladstone, Australia) at 2.0 mL per min in a split injection mode. Pressure was maintained at 122 kPa, with a total He flow of 15 mL/min and using a split ratio of 5. The mass spectrometer was operated in the electron ionisation mode (EI) at 0.2 kV with a source temperature of 220 °C where both scan and selective ion monitoring modes were used from 33 to 150 *m/z*. The peaks were identified by matching the mass spectra with the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) library, <http://chemdata.nist.gov/>.

DNA extraction, amplification and sequencing

Total DNA for microbiota analysis was extracted using the Bioline Isolate Faecal DNA kit (cat. no. BIO-52082, Bioline, Eveleigh, Australia). Primers were selected to amplify the V3-V4 region of 16S rRNA. The forward primer was ACTCCTACGGGAGG CAGCAG and the reverse primer was GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT. The primers also contained barcodes, spaces and Illumina sequencing linkers as previously described (Fadrosh et al. 2014). Sequencing was performed on the Illumina MiSeq platform using 2 x 300 bp paired-end sequencing.

Initial analysis of microbial communities was performed in QIIME v.1.9.1 (Caporaso et al. 2010). Paired end sequences were joined using the Fastq Join algorithm and no allowed mismatches within the region of overlap. Only sequences with Phred quality threshold higher than 20 were retained in the analysis. Operational taxonomic units (OTUs) were picked at 97% similarity using Uclust (Edgar 2010) and inspected for chimeric sequences using Pintail (Ashelford et al. 2005). All taxonomic assignments were performed in QIIME against the GreenGenes database and QIIME default arguments (DeSantis et al. 2006). Further data exploring tools included Primer v7, blastn (Altschul et al. 1997) and the NCBI 16S Microbial database and Calypso (Zakrzewski et al. 2016).

OTUs with the relative abundance of less than 0.01% were filtered out. The data analysis was performed on a rarefied table, and square root transformation was used in all statistical

analyses. The figures comparing relative abundance show untransformed data. ANOVA was used to detect the significance of the differences between the groups. Analysis of similarities (ANOSIM) and two-way permutational multivariate analysis of variance (PERMANOVA) analysis were performed in Primer v7 on weighted and unweighted Unifrac distance matrices calculated in QIIME, each with 99,999 permutations. Calypso was used to implement the uprvised multivariate redundancy analysis (RDA) using 999 permutations.

The complete annotated sequence dataset is publicly available on the MG-RAST database under library 10 mg1620750.

Results

Animal health and performance

All birds appeared healthy, and mortality in the trial was restricted to early, post-transport days. Total mortality was 4%. The bird weights for each treatment (Fig. 1) were not significantly different ($P < 0.05$) although the 0.3 mg/kg nanoSe group was the numerically lowest weight for the duration of the trial. Individual *t* test comparisons, performed for each day separately, show that the only comparisons with significant differences in weight were those comparing organic or inorganic Se groups with slowest growing 0.3 mg/kg nanoSe, where comparisons for every weight measuring time point after week 1 were significantly different with $P < 0.005$ for organic and $P = 0.006$ – 0.024 for inorganic Se control vs 0.3 nanoSe. This indicated that 0.3 nanoSe did indeed show reduced growth rate compared to the controls. Similarly, high 1.5 nanoSe was significantly reduced. Regarding weight gain, the intermediate 0.9 mg/kg nanoSe concentration was not distinguishable from organic and inorganic control. (Fig. 1a, b).

Overall microbiota composition

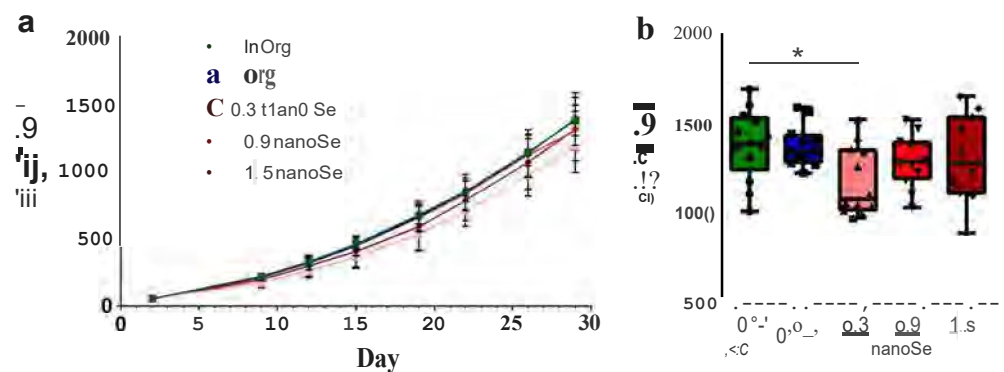
Overall, the caecal samples had higher richness ($P = 0.002$) and evenness ($P = 9.34 \times 10^{-4}$) than the faecal samples. In both weighted and unweighted UniFrac analyses, effects of both

diet treatments and sampling origin were highly significant (all $P < 10^{-5}$ with 99,999 permutations) while the interaction was more significant using weighted ($P = 0.028$) than unweighted ($P = 0.048$) UniFrac-based analysis, showing that sample origin (faecal or caecal) affected the response of microbiota in the five diet treatment. To further investigate this effect, ANOSIM multivariate analysis of group similarities was performed and is presented in an ANOSIM calculated significance derived pairwise group-to-group similarity matrix: as mMDS plots (Fig. 1a, b). In both weighted and unweighted metrics, samples from the 0.9 mg/kg nanoSe and 1.5 mg/kg nanoSe groups were clustered by feed treatment with their respective faecal and caecal samples close together and separate from other treatments, while other samples were separated by faecal or caecal origin, thus reducing the difference between the faecal and caecal communities in the moderate and high concentrated nanoSe groups. The significance of the two-way PERMANOVA (diet vs sampling origin) interactions indicated that different response to treatment were observed in the faecal and caecal samples from the same birds. This stage of the analysis indicated that the microbiota in all faecal and caecal samples should be separately analysed and interpreted.

GIT microbiota differences between Se supplement treatments in faecal samples

There were no significant differences between the Se supplementation treatments in richness or evenness of the communities detected in faeces. Multivariate RDA analysis indicated significant difference between the treatments at both OTU ($P = 0.002$) and genus level ($P < 0.001$) (Fig. 3a, b) with the 1.5 mg/kg nanoSe-supplemented group, separating furthest, followed by moderate separation of the 0.9 mg/kg nanoSe treatment group, while the lowest concentration of 0.3 mg/kg nanoSe overlapped with organic and inorganic Se supplementation groups. At the OTU level, 31% of all OTUs were significantly ($P < 0.05$) altered in relative abundance between the treatments. This high level of response is primarily explained by significant changes induced by the highest

Fig. 1 Bird weights (mean and SD) of selenium experimental groups. The legend shows abbreviated group labels: InOrg for inorganic Se; Org for organic; and three concentrations of nanoSe (0.3, 0.9 and 1.5 mg/kg nanoSe). **a** Growth over time, **b** Final weight distribution at 29 days of age



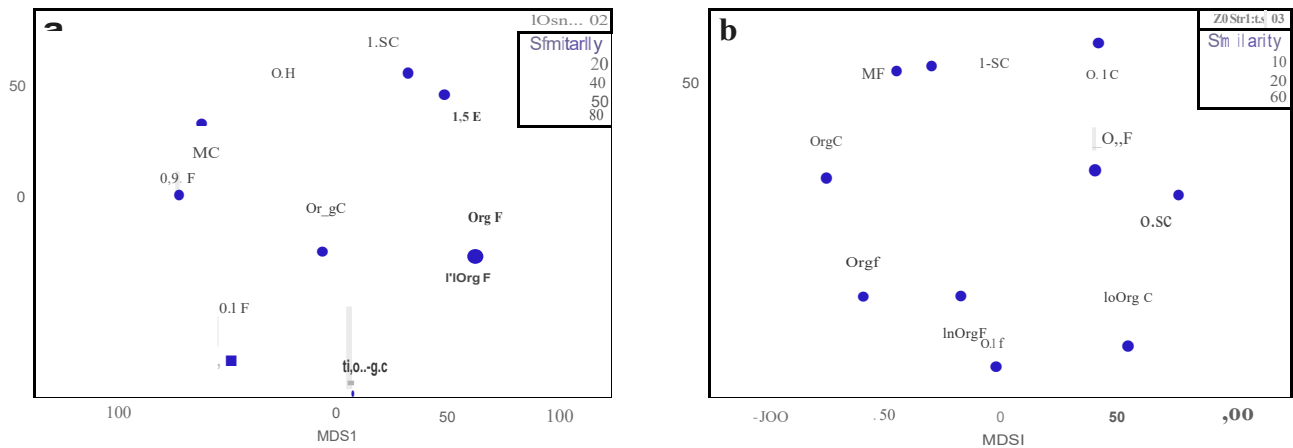


Fig. 2 Multivariate ANOSIM calculated. significance derived. group-to-group similarity visualised as MDS plot was based on weighted (a) and unweighted (b) Unifrac distance

nanoSe concentration (1.5 mg/kg). Blc ven of the top 50 most abundant OTUs strongly ($P < 0.01$) responded to the treatment differences (Fig. 3c).

Genera were also significantly influenced by the treatment, with 48% of genera significantly ($P < 0.05$) different in relative abundance between the feed treatment. The most affected genera ($P < 0.01$) included *Jeotgalicoccus*, *Brevibacterium*, *Paecalibacterium*, *Parabacteroides*, *Staphylococcus*, *Brachybaacterium*, *Phascolarctobacterium*, *Turicibacter* and *Lactobacillus* (Fig. 3d). The genera that were comparable in faecal samples, most cases, responded to the different selenium treatments similarly in caecal samples (Fig. 4).

GIT microbiota differences between Se supplement treatments in the caecum

In the caecum, smaller responses to treatments were observed than in the faecal community; with 18% of OTUs and 36% of genera significantly altered by treatments ($P < 0.05$). RDA analysis indicated that treatment groups had different microbiota structures at both OTU ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 5a) and a genus level ($P < 0.001$; Fig. 5b). As in faecal samples, the most abundant OTUs and genera were influenced (Fig. 5c, d) as well as not-readily culturable microbiota.

Faecalibacterium and *Jeotgalicoccus* were strongly correlated with the concentration of nanoSe in the feed ($P = 2 \times 10^{-1}$, $r = 0.63$ and $P = 1 \times 10^{-8}$, $r = 0.49$, respectively). Figure 4 shows that *Faecalibacterium* responded to nanoSe in such a robust way that nanoSe could potentially be used to enrich the *Faecalibacterium* relative abundance in mixed cultures. *Jeotgalicoccus* was similarly highly correlated with nanoSe level but remained at low abundance in the high concentration Se-P treatment.

Neither faecal or caecal data analyses indicated that any potential pathogens, such as *Il. tricinibacter* and *Staphylococcus*, were reduced in abundance by addition of nanoSe. On the other hand, some known beneficial bacteria like *Faecalibacterium*

and *Ruminococcus* species were increased in the nanoSe group, while *L. acwhacillus* was in greater relative abundance in the groups treated with low and intermediate concentrations of nanoSe, but suppressed by 1.5 mg/kg of nanoSe, indicating the possibility of a threshold concentration, after which the beneficial effects regress. The analyses of faecal and caecal microbiota indicated that the effects of low nanoSe concentration (0.3 mg/kg) remained comparable with organic and inorganic controls while high concentrations produced microbiota changes that may prove unhealthy for the host gastrointestinal system, as shown by reduced abundance of *Lactobacillus* and an increase in *Turicibacter* and *Staphylococcus*.

Microscopic evaluation of nanoSe influence on the gut

Desquamative processes are processes where cells 'shed' from the skin layer. The study demonstrates that desquamative processes involving the apical and middle parts of the intestinal villi were observed in the duodenum in all experimental groups. However, these desquamative processes were observed at a higher degree in control birds supplemented with either inorganic (Supplementary Fig. S1A) or organic selenium (Supplementary Fig. S1B). In contrast in the groups treated with 0.3 mg/kg (Supplementary Fig. S1C), 0.9 mg/kg (Supplementary Fig. S1D) and 1.5 mg/kg (Supplementary Fig. S1E) nanoSe, desquamative processes were confined to the tip-surface of the villi without affecting the middle and lower villi sections. Therefore, the deeper layers of the intestinal mucosa in the intestinal lumen of all groups, full epithelial cell of the intestinal epithelium were detected; this was also more pronounced in organic or inorganic selenium supplemented birds.

In nanoSe-supplemented birds (0.3, 0.9 and 1.5 mg/kg), slight to moderate hyperplasia of submucosal blood vessels and minor subserosal oedema (Supplementary Fig. S1E) was observed. Changes of this nature were not detected in

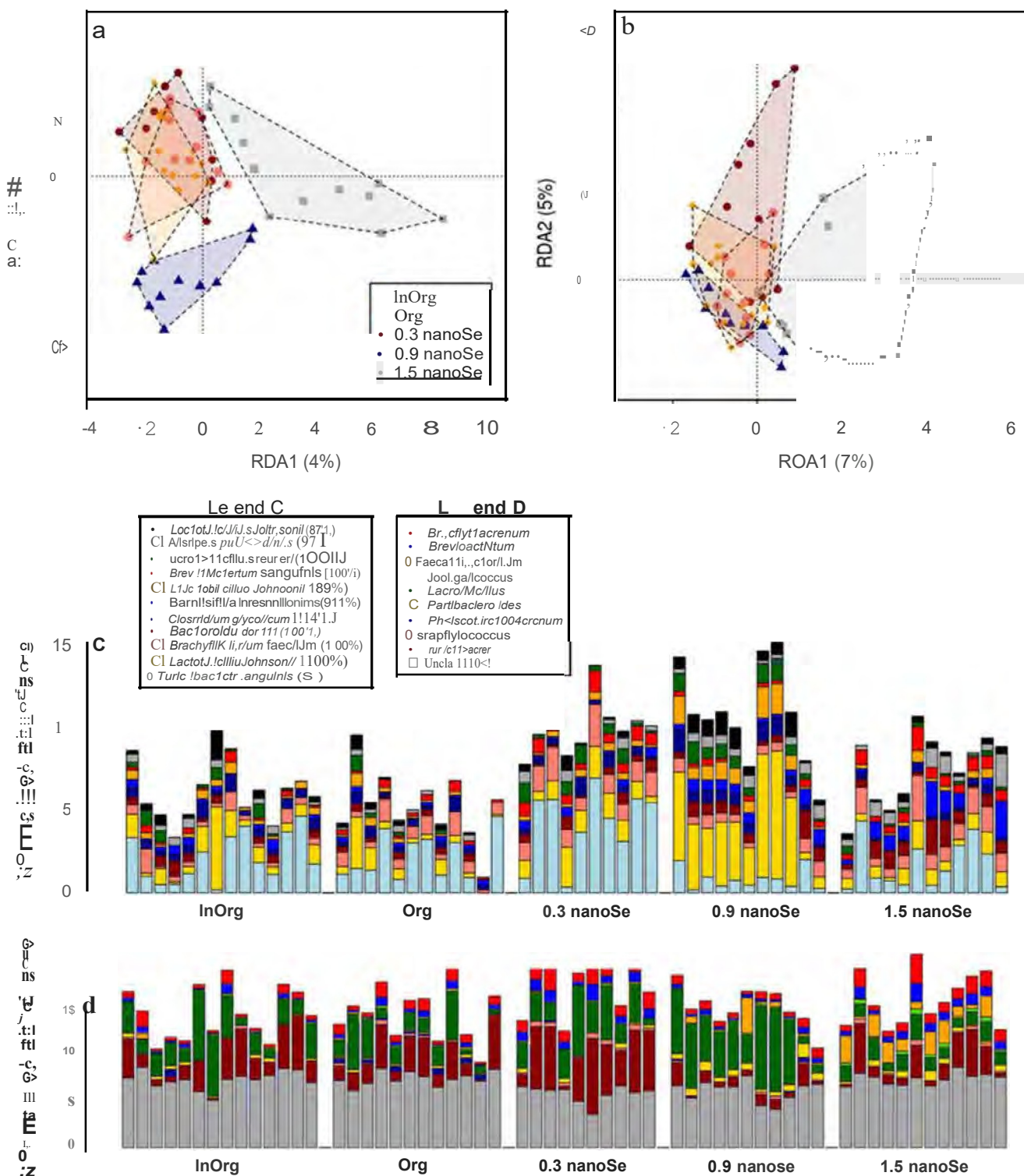


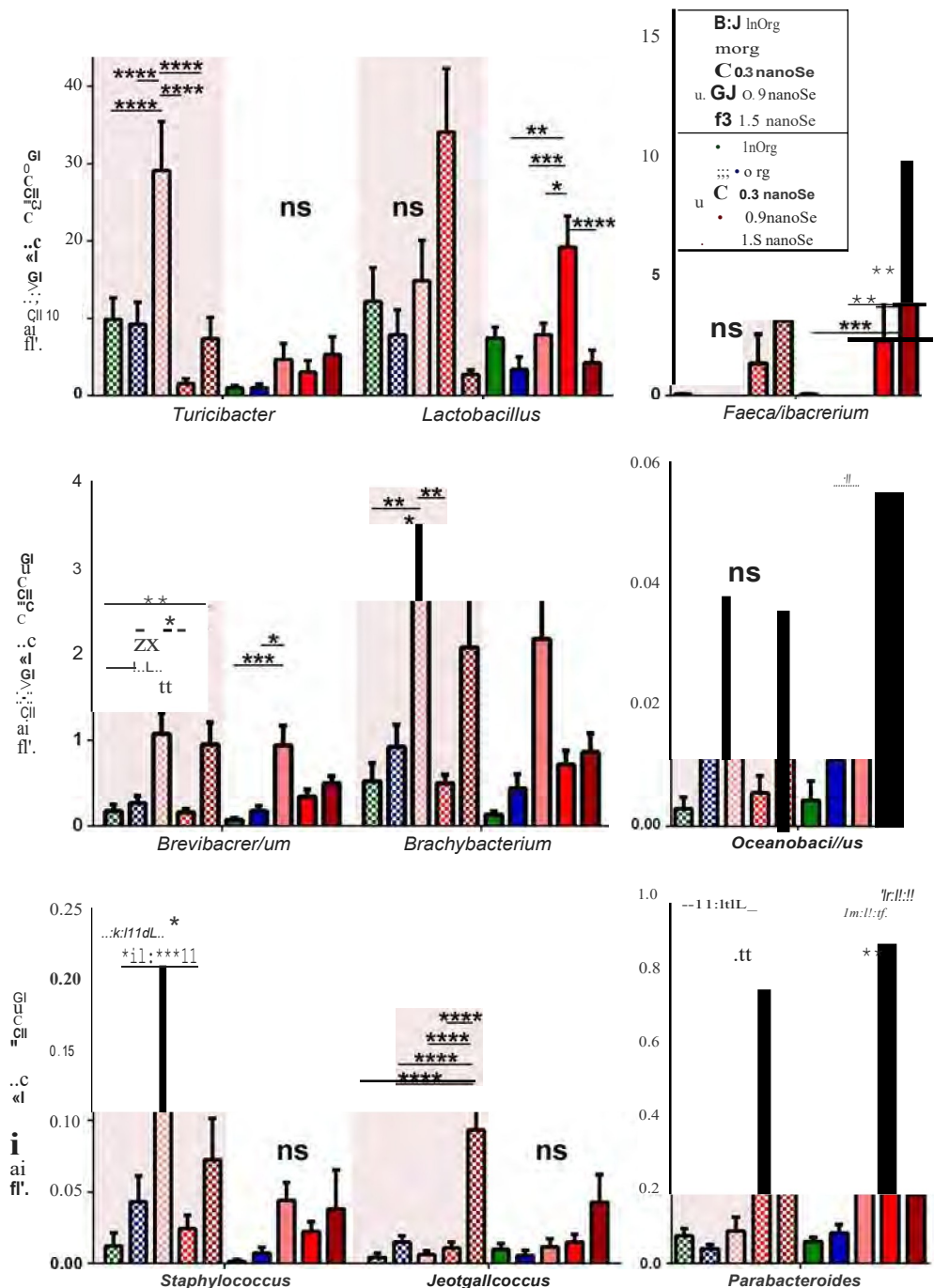
Fig. 3 The treatment differences in faecal microbiota composition. RDA plot at an OTU (a) and a genus level (b) separate 1.5 nanoSe treatment group as most distinct from other treatments. There were 11 OTUs among

the top 50 most abundant that were significantly ($P < 0.01$) altered between the treatments (c). d The genera ($P < 0.01$) influenced by treatments

inorganic or organic selenium control groups (Supplementary Fig. S1A, B). In the duodenal mucosa of all groups, positive PAS-Alcian blue reaction was observed, proving the presence of acidic and neutral mucins (Supplementary Fig. S1F-1).

The morphometric analysis showed no significant differences between treatments in caeca, slightly significant differences in villus height of ileum, with organic control and 0.9 nanoSe having reduced villus height compared to the other

Fig. 4 Comparison of response in faecal and in caecal microbiota to different Se-supplemented treatments. The same colour pattern was used for treatments with faecal samples displayed with white pattern bars and caecal with full colour bars

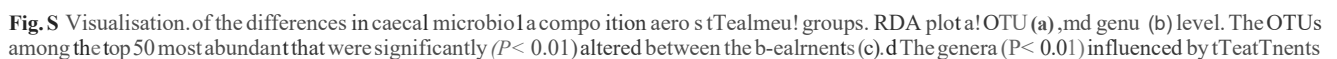


groups (Fig. 6a-c). The differences in the duodenum (Fig. 6d-t) demonstrated that the villus to crypt ratio was significantly higher in 1.5 mg/kg nanoSe group than in all other groups (Fig. 6-f).

NanoSe influence on short-chain fatty acid concentrations

The analysis of SCFAs included acetic, isobutyric, isovaleric, propionic, n-butyric and n-valeric acid. We performed two-

way ANOVA with two factors: SCFA and different selenium treatment. There was no significant interaction between different SCFA and Se treatments ($P = 0.9993$), indicating that there was no major difference in SCFA profile between the treatments. There was significant difference between individual SCFAs ($P = 0.0004$) and in SCFA profiles between the treatments ($P = 0.0014$). The 0.9 nanoSe had significantly higher overall SCFA production than inorganic ($P = 0.0055$), organic ($P = 0.0274$) and 1.5 nanoSe ($P = 0.0202$). The differences in individual SCFAs are shown



Results showed that nanoSe supplementation in feed did not significantly affect bird weight but indicated the presence of

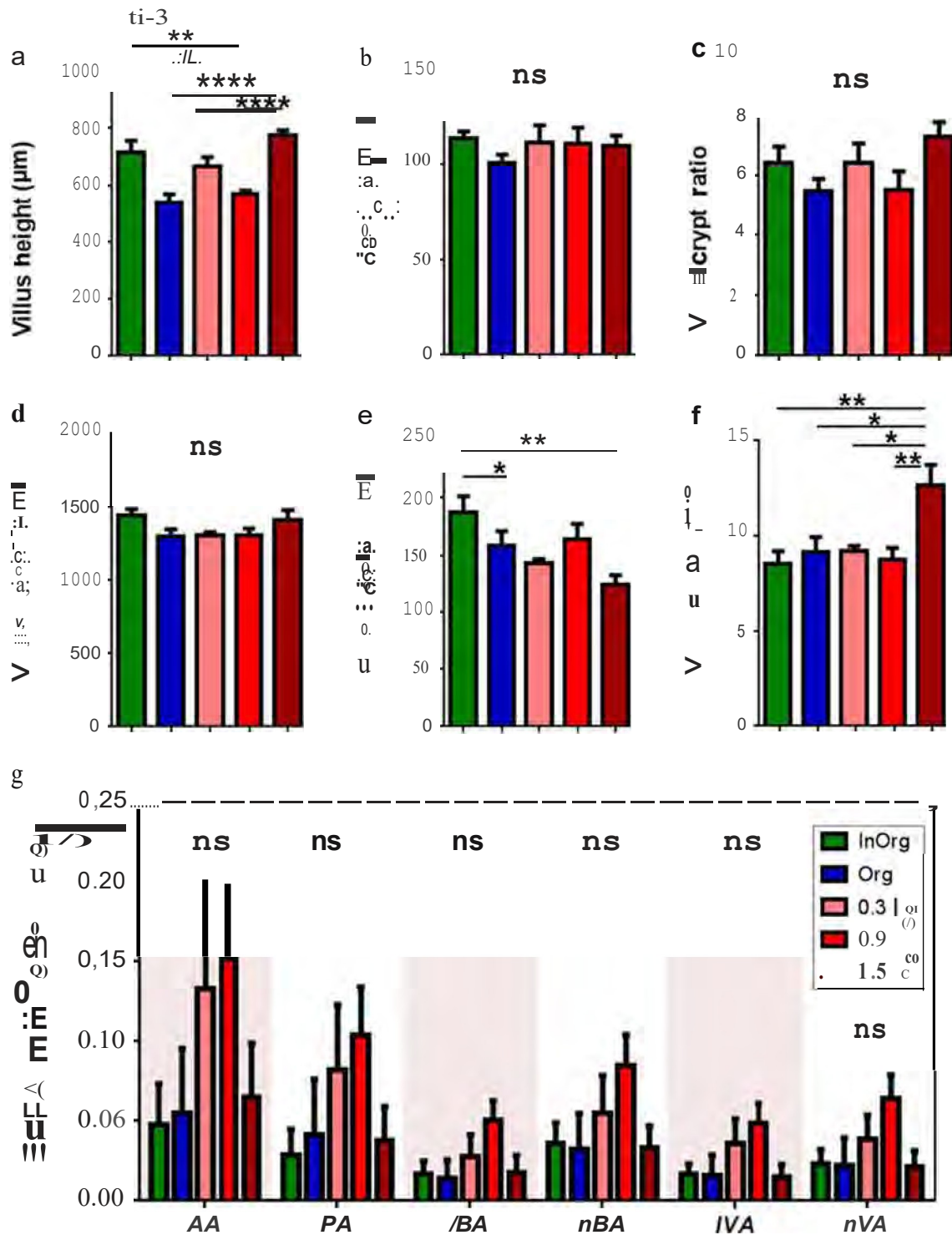


Fig. 6 Basic histological measurements (a–f) from ileal (a) and duodenal (d–f) histological sections and caecal SCFA profile (g); AA acetic acid, IBA isobutyric acid, IVA isovaleric acid, PA propionic acid, nBA n-butyric acid and nVA n-valeric acid

an optimised threshold for nanoSe concentration effects concerning bird weight gain. The weight gain was reduced at the lower and higher nanoSe concentrations but was comparable with the two controls using the industry standard organic and inorganic selenium at the intermediate concentration of 0.9 mg/kg. nanoSe altered the microbial community of

the birds, introducing a significant increase of opportunistic pathogens, *Typhlocyba* and *Staphylococcus*, as shown in Fig. 4. Although *Typhlocyba* is commonly found in animal intestine, a member of this genus was only recently reported as an opportunistic pathogen (Bosshard et al. 2002). On the other hand, *Staphylococcus* are known to cause a range of diseases

in humans and animals through both proliferation and toxin production combined with the increase in antibiotic resistant strains, with an extreme example being methicillin-resistant *Staphylococcus aureus* (MRSA) (Emaneini et al. 2017). The nanoSe-induced proliferation of genus *Staphylococcus* can have serious clinical consequences for both chickens and humans alike. Additionally, this may upset the balance between the pathogens and beneficial strains in the gut causing dysbiosis that is implicated in a wide range of medical conditions (Underwood 2014). The nanoSe concentration, at 0.9 mg/kg, is recommended as an optimised feed concentration for future exploration.

As reviewed in Gangadoo et al. (2016); strong antibacterial effects were reported for a number of nanoparticles trialled for poultry pathogen control and in vitro studies, showing a reduction in pathogenic bacteria, such as *Escherichia coli* and *Staphylococcus*. The results for this trial indicated different results: pathogenic bacteria, *Turicibacter* and *Staphylococcus*, were increased in nanoSe supplementation as compared to controls but additionally increased health-promoting bacteria such as *Lactobacillus* and *Faecalibacterium*. The sampling origin also proved to be a major influence on microbiota composition and abundance between faecal samples and caecal samples. Caecal samples are typically richer due to the caecum acting as the primary site of fermentation in the gastrointestinal system (Stanley et al. 2015) while faecal bacterial community was highly variable due to constant emptying of different gut sections, therefore varying significantly between time points (Stanley et al. 2015). While faecal sampling can be used to detect major occurrences in the gut profile, in birds, caecal sampling by necropsy is considered as better, more reproducible, representation of the composition and abundance of the microbial environment and provides a more accurate observation into the complex environment of the gut. NanoSe supplementation significantly affected the microbial profiles and made faecal and caecal samples in medium and high nanoSe groups more similar to one another than commonly seen in chickens and other treatment groups.

The capacity for absorption of nutrients from the GIT fully depends on the condition of the intestinal mucosa and intestinal morphology such as villus height. The feed and intestinal microbiotas have profound influence on intestinal epithelial morphology (Sittiya et al. 2016) with improvements reported with delivery or increase in probiotic species in the intestine. The largest duodenal villus/crypt ratio was observed in the highest (1.5 mg/kg) nanoSe concentration treatment used; this concentration was also found to induce the strongest changes in intestinal microbiota composition. The villus/crypt ratio is an indicator of the digestive capability of the small intestine. Reductions in this ratio can indicate compromised intestinal function while an increase in this ratio may relate to an increase in digestion and absorption capability of the gut

(Lim et al. 2015; Mohiuddin 1964). The increase in duodenal villus/crypt ratio coincides with the increase of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, a known promoter of epithelial health owing at least partially to its strong metabolite production, especially butyrate (Miquel et al. 2013).

Poultry feed is predominantly grain based and is fibrous. Thus, production of SCFAs in the chicken gut can be indicative of bacterial groups that are beneficial to health and a contributor to improved growth performance in chicken (Rehman et al. 2007). The role of SCFAs and the interplay between diet, gut microbiota and host energy metabolism are routinely described (den Besten et al. 2013) and support the data obtained in this study. In all 6 SCFAs measured, the 0.9 nanoSe treatment group showed high SCFA concentrations compared to all other groups including 0.3 and 1.5 nanoSe. Interestingly, the group with highest SCFA production, 0.9 nanoSe, was the best growing of the three selenium supplemented groups; however, this much higher SCFA concentration did not induce better growth in 0.9 nanoSe than in controls that both had significantly lower SCFA and almost identical growth rates. This would however result in a number of non-weight gain-related health benefits.

SCFAs are produced in the colon via bacterial fermentation of non-digestible complex polysaccharides. Acetic, butyric and propionic acids are the most abundant representing more than 90% of colonic SCFAs (Rios-Covian et al. 2016). With improved knowledge on the roles of gut microbiota, the new knowledge on protective and health beneficial roles of SCFAs are continually emerging. Previous studies involving mostly human and mice subjects show that SCFAs stimulate the immune system (Goverse et al. 2017); strengthen epithelial tight junctions and promote gut integrity (Asarat et al. 2015; Kelly et al. 2015; Park et al. 2016) reduce incidence of inflammatory bowel disease (Huda-Faujan et al. 2010), colitis (Macia et al. 2015), asthma (Thorburn et al. 2015) and diabetes (Marino et al. 2017); control bacterial pathogenesis (Sun and O'Riordan 2013); improve colonic mucosal functions; inhibit inflammation and carcinogenesis and decreasing oxidative stress; and act as a major energy source for epithelial cells of the colon (Barner et al. 2008; Rios-Covian et al. 2016). It is possible that an increase in SCFAs due to nanoSe treatment could have produced benefits that we did not investigate in this study.

The differences between low, moderate and high nanoSe concentrations were profound, and higher nanoSe groups behaved oppositely, most evident from Fig. 4. Our data indicate that, as in Cai et al. (2012.), nanoSe did not improve bird performance as previously reported by others under different conditions (Zhou and Wang 2011) and that moderate concentrations of nanoSe resulted in similar growth performance as commonly used organic and inorganic selenium supplementation, however they showed the benefit of high SCFA production and an increase in *F. prausnitzii* abundance. Currently,

major effort is under way to produce *F. prausnitzii* probiotics for treatment of colitis and other intestinal medical conditions in humans. The level of increase in *F. prausnitzii* achieved in our birds fed nanoSe-supplemented feed exceeds levels of expected enrichment in the gut via orally delivered probiotic. This warrants further investigation in use of nanoSe to enrich *F. prausnitzii* for improvement of both chicken and human intestinal conditions using higher sample size and multiple trials. Our results also encourage further investigation into optimal nanoSe concentrations for harvesting other benefits that may have resulted from increase in SCFAs, such as reduced intestinal permeability and integrity.

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

Ethical approval Animal ethics approvals were obtained from the Animal Ethics Committee at Central Queensland University with the approval number A1 5/07-333.

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DECLARATION OF CO-AUTHORSHIP AND CONTRIBUTION

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Nature of Candidate's Contribution, including percentage of total

SG was involved in the data collection, statistical analysis, and writing of this scientific article (65%).

Nature of all Co-Authors' Contributions, including percentage of total

All co-authors assisted with the conception and revision of the article. ID (5%); NW (5%); RJM (5%); JC (10%); OS (10%).

Has this paper been submitted for an award by another research degree candidate (Co-Author), either at CQUniversity or elsewhere? (if yes, give full details)

No.

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I declare that the publication above meets the requirements to be included in the thesis as outlined in the Research Higher Degree Theses Policy and Procedure

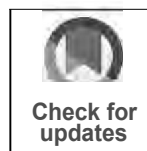
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Date

Chapter 4

Toxicity and bioaccumulation of selenium nanoparticle feed additives in chicken

Chapter 4 investigates the toxicity of Se NPs in poultry, following the animal trial performed in Chapter 3, by analysing the concentration of Se in various tissues of the bird, as well as conducting a thorough histological examination of the tissues mentioned. The tissues were collected following euthanasia of birds at 29 days post-hatch, and underwent digestion using concentrated acids, and a microwave digester at high temperature and pressures. The tissue digests were analysed using Inductively-Coupled Plasma Mass Spectroscopy and results observed an increased bioavailability of Se NPs and reduced accumulation in detoxifying organs, such as liver, as compared to inorganic Se additive used in the poultry industry. The tissues were also subjected to a detailed histopathological analysis, using haematoxylin and eosin dyes, and confirmed no toxicity was caused by the addition of Se NPs in poultry diets. The chapter has been submitted for publication in 'Environmental Science and Pollution Research' on 27th of August 2019.



Nanoparticles of selenium as high bioavailable and non-toxic supplement alternatives for broiler chickens

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Abstract

Selenium is commonly used in the poultry industry as an additive in broiler feed to improve immunity and overall health. The selenium comes in different forms, inorganic and organic selenium, as sodium selenite and selenomethionine, respectively. This study proposes the use of nanoparticles of selenium (nanoSe) for improved delivery and absorption of the trace element while causing no toxicity. Previous studies have shown the success in utilizing nanoSe in broiler feed, with increased absorption and diffusion of material into organs and tissues, and increased antioxidant capacity. However, the mechanism of nanoSe conversion remains unknown, and the gut microbiota is believed to play a significant role in the process. The use of inorganic selenium in poultry feed demonstrated a lower bioavailability in breast ($P < 0.01$) and duodenum tissue ($P < 0.05$), and increased accumulation in organs involved in detoxification processes as compared to organic selenium and selenium nanoparticle supplementation. Histopathological analysis showed that nanoSe did not cause any damaging effects to the tissues analysed, revealing intact epithelial cells in the digestive system and neuronal bodies in brain tissue. The results indicate that nanoparticles of selenium operate a similar way to organic selenium and could potentially be used in poultry feed as a trace element additive.

Keywords Selenium · Nanoparticle · Poultry · Additives · Histology · Toxicity

Introduction

The presentation of compounds as nano-sized particles can result in new properties, change the interactions with other materials, and alter uptake and retention in biological systems,

compared with presentation of compounds as larger particles in solution. The novel properties of nanomaterials have been exploited for a range of applications, particularly in food (Gangadoo et al. 2016), sensing (Power et al. 2018), the environment (Rajapaksha et al. 2015), materials (Chapman and Regan 2012) and health (Gangadoo and Chapman 2015). Trace elements have also been delivered for nutritional supplementation using a nanomaterial (< 100 nm), representing a novel and effective method to deliver essential metals to support immunity and health (Gangadoo et al. 2016).

Nano-sized particles have already demonstrated a number of benefits such as enhanced absorption, bioavailability, antimicrobial activity (Chapman et al. 2013; Chapman and Regan 2012; Chapman et al. 2010; Regan et al. 2012; Sullivan et al. 2012), and excretion of the nano-materials (Pan et al. 2002; Schiifer-Korting et al. 2007; Shaikh et al. 2009). Nanoparticle delivery of minerals and vitamins has essentially been shown to be effective in improving feed conversion ratio, promote growth and development of muscle cells, improve the gut microbial environment, treat common parasitic disease such as coccidiosis and reduce mortality in poultry (Gangadoo et al. 2018; Gangadoo et al. 2016).

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Selenium (Se) is an essential micronutrient that is routinely added to the feed of production animals to promote the optimal functioning of the immune system (Surai 2002b). It is currently delivered in two distinct forms, either inorganic (selenite) and organic (selenomethionine) (Surai 2002a). There has also been a recent focus in micronutrient uptake efficiency using nanomaterials (Gangadoo et al. 2016), which has also shown to modulate gut microbiota (Gangadoo et al. 2018), improve immune and musculoskeletal function, and growth performance (Beski et al. 2015; Lin et al. 2015; Wang et al. 2011). The delivery of Se in the form of a nanoparticle is appealing as it does not need to be metabolized before being incorporated into selenoproteins and can be taken up by the body at a much faster rate than inorganic Se (Gangadoo et al. 2016; Suzuki and Ogra 2002).

Se is added in poultry feed as inorganic Se (0.5 ppm) or organic Se (0.3 ppm), the latter demonstrating improved bioavailability, with multiple studies focusing on using selenium-enriched yeast and wheat as feed additives (Fisinin et al. 2008; Sumi and Fisinin 2014; Utterback et al. 2005). Previous studies showed that nanoSe increased daily weight gain of broilers, and resulted in improvement in antioxidant functions (Cai et al. 2012; Fwtiang et al. 2008). Despite the promising results, some concerns have also been raised, with a few recent reports of unexpected nanoparticle toxicity (Ahmadi and Branch 2012; Ahmadi and Kurdestany 2010; Pinget et al. 2019), some specific to the gut (Ruiz et al. 2017). For example, the use of silver nanoparticles (nanoAg), while effective against aflatoxins in poultry nutrition (Gholami-Ahangaran and Zia-Jahromi 2014), was found to accumulate in the liver and muscle tissues of livestock and therefore, discontinued (Jennifer and Maciej 2013). Histopathology studies have shown that nanoAg can cause lesions in hepatocytes contributing to liver inflammation and necrosis (Loghman et al. 2012). In a previous study, we investigated the ability of nanoSe to control poultry pathogens (Gangadoo et al. 2018). Here we extended the study to investigate nanoparticle tissue bioaccumulation and histopathological toxicology, producing findings that are relevant to both chicken and human consumer health.

The aim of the current study was to examine the tissue distribution of Se supplemented to broiler chicken in the form of inorganic, organic and three different concentrations of nanoparticles. Trace elements from biological tissues were extracted using a simple, standard, acid digestion at high temperatures and pressures using a microwave oven. The digests were analysed on an ICP-MS instrument, and concentrations as low as parts per billion were determined (Liang et al. 2000). Additional histopathological analysis was carried out to corroborate and to assess the integrity of tissues exposed to the different sources of Se.

Materials and methods

Reagents

Nitric acid (concentrated HNO₃) and hydrogen peroxide (30% (w/w) H₂O₂) were purchased from Sigma, Aldrich, Australia and used without further purification. A high purity standard of selenium (Se), 1000 µg/mL in 2% HNO₃ was purchased from Choice Analytical Pty Ltd., NSW, Australia. A Dogfish Liver Certified Reference Material for Trace Metals and other Constituents (DOLT-5) was purchased from NRC-CNRC. Milli-Q water was used to perform dilutions throughout the digestion protocol.

NanoSe synthesis and characterization

NanoSe was prepared as previously described by Gangadoo et al. (2017); briefly, metal salt, selenium tetrachloride (SeCl₄), was chemically reduced with ascorbic acid, and a stabilizing agent, poly (sodium 4-styrenesulfonate), was added to obtain stabilized and monodispersed nanoparticles. NanoSe parameters, -size, shape, crystallinity and presence of elemental selenium, were characterized using UV-vis spectroscopy, dynamic light scattering (DLS), scanning electron microscopy (SEM), transmission electron microscopy (TEM), x-ray diffraction and energy dispersive spectroscopy (EDS).

Animal trial

The animal trial was conducted as described in Gangadoo et al. (2018). Briefly, 70 one-day-old Ross 308 broiler male chicks (Bond Enterprises, Toowoomba Qld, Australia), were randomly divided among five treatment groups; two control groups: organic Se (Alkosel 3000 inactivated whole cell yeast, selenomethionine, containing elevated levels of organic selenium, min. 98%), inorganic Se (sodium selenite), and nanoSe supplementation given at three different concentrations, 0.3, 0.9 and 1.5 ppm. For the nanoparticle manipulated feed, the nanoSe was homogenized in a poultry remix (Rabar, PTY, LTD) which had no selenium concentrations. The poultry remix had been manufactured to possess no basal selenium content, as determined by the manufacturer (Nestel and Nalubola 2002). To be able to experimentally compare the standard poultry remix containing the standard selenium forms: organic selenium and inorganic selenium (sodium selenite) with concentrations of 133 ppm, versus the synthesized nanoparticle selenium feed system, feeds were homogenized in an Ozito CMX-125 mixer (Ozito Industries Pty. Ltd., Bangholme, Australia) at a revolution of 200 rpm and air-dried for 24 h. This homogenisation method is a standard method for commercial poultry remix formulation where many commercial

manufacturers mix vitamins, trace minerals, medicaments, feed supplements, and diluents (Armstrong and Behnke 1996, Monsalve 2006, Nestel and Nah.tbola 2002). The birds were fed twice daily in a light- and temperature-controlled room and were euthanised at 29 days post-hatch by CO₂ asphyxiation. Tissue samples were taken from the following organs: breast, liver, spleen, duodenum, ileum and brain, and were stored at - 80 °C until analysed.

Tissue preparation

Tissue samples (n =5 per treatment group) were thawed in a fridge overnight and dried at 105 °C for 24 h. The percentage moisture was calculated using the following formula: $[1 - ((\text{dry sample weight/wet sample weight}) \times 100)]$. Dried samples of 0.5 g were digested using a TANK PRO Microwave Digester with 6 mL of concentrated HNO₃ and 2 mL of concentrated H₂O₂ using the method shown in Table I. The sample was reconstituted in Milli-Q water prior to analysis on the ICP-MS.

Preparation of standards and quality control

External calibration standards were prepared using the Se standard with a stock solution of 100 ppm, and standards were prepared at the start of each ICP-MS run, at concentrations of 0.05, 0.1, 0.5, 1, 2, 5 and 10 ppm with Milli-Q water. The limit of detection (LOD) and limit of quantitation (LOQ) were evaluated using digestion blanks (n. = 10) consisting of 6 mL of cone. HNO₃, 2 mL of cone. H₂O₂ and 2 mL of Milli-Q water. Reference materials and blanks were prepared, digested and analysed, along with the dried tissue samples, for quality control. The dogfish liver certified reference material (DOLT-5 CRM) is a tissue standard with known elements and concentrations, provided by the National Research Council Canada, and was used to calculate recoveries of Se from the digestion procedure.

ICP-MS instrument settings

Sample analysis was performed on a Shimadzu ICPMS-2030 instrument, and the method parameters used by the instrument are as described in Table 2.

Table 2 Instrument settings for ICPMS-2030 and measurement parameters

Parameter	Setting
Radio frequency power	1200W
Plasma gas	8 L/min
Auxiliary gas	1.1 L/min
Carrier gas	0.7 L/min
Nebuliser	Coaxial
Sampling depth	5mm
Spray chamber temperature	5 °C
Collision cell gas flow (He)	6 mL/min
Internal standard tube	Mini torch

LOD and LOQ values were calculated as 3 and 10 times the standard deviation, respectively, using ten measurements of acidic blank solutions (HN O₃ and H₂O₂) divided by calibration curve

Tissue sample histology

For histological analysis, tissue samples (n = 5) of approximately 100–500 mg were collected from organs: breast, liver, spleen, brain, duodenum and ileum, and washed using phosphate-buffered saline. The tissues were cut at 4 µm and fixed in 10% buffered formalin and stained with haematoxylin and eosin (H&E) dyes, which allows for the differentiation of the nucleus and cytoplasmic components respectively (Cardiff et al. 2014; Wu and Zhou 2013). The histological images were scanned at the Translational Research Institute Microscopy Core Facility (Brisbane, Australia) using a Nikon Brightfield, Olympus VS120 slide scanner and analysed using Olympus microscopy software, Olivia.

Statistical analysis

All statistical tests were conducted using the SPSS Statistics package and the results are reported as mean value \pm standard error of mean (SEM). Normality tests, Kolmogorov-Smirnova and Shapiro-Wilk, and Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances were conducted to confirm equal variances and normal distribution across datasets of treatment groups ($P > 0.05$). The differences between the Se supplementation groups were analysed by a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA), followed by a post hoc Tukey multiple comparison test when a statistically significant ($P < 0.05$) result was observed among the different treatment groups.

Table 1 Digestion protocol settings using the TANK PRO Microwave digester

Step (N)	Temperature (T)/°C	Pressure (psi)	Heating up. time (t)/min	Keep time (t)/min
1	150	400	8	3
2	180	400	3	1:0

Animal ethics statement

Animal ethic approvals were obtained from the Animal Ethics Committee at Central Queensland University with the approval number AJS/07-333.

Results

NanoSe synthesis & characterization

The synthesized nanoSe were: an average of 45 ± 0.17 nm and demonstrated a polydispersity index value of 0.04 ± 0.01 nm, indicating the nanoparticles were well dispersed and did not induce aggregation. As shown in Fig. 1, the EDS analysis confirmed the presence of selenium, while TEM & SEM confirmed the shape and size of nanoparticles to be spherical and less than 100 nm respectively. The size distribution of the nanoSe was further supported from dynamic light scattering (DLS), showing the size of nanoSe to be below 100 nm.

Se concentration varied among treatment groups and different types of tissues

A linear calibration curve ($R^2 = 0.9999$) was obtained from the external Se calibration standards Se, with a LOD of 269 ppb and a LOQ of 7.81 ppb. The DOLT-5CRM Se concentration obtained from the digestion procedure was 8.49 ± 0.38 ppm, showing a 102% Se recovery. The Se concentration of Se, from the different supplementation sources varied, as did the concentration of Se in the different tissue types, as shown by Fig. 2.

The highest average concentration of Se within all treatment group was found in the spleen, followed by duodenum, brain.

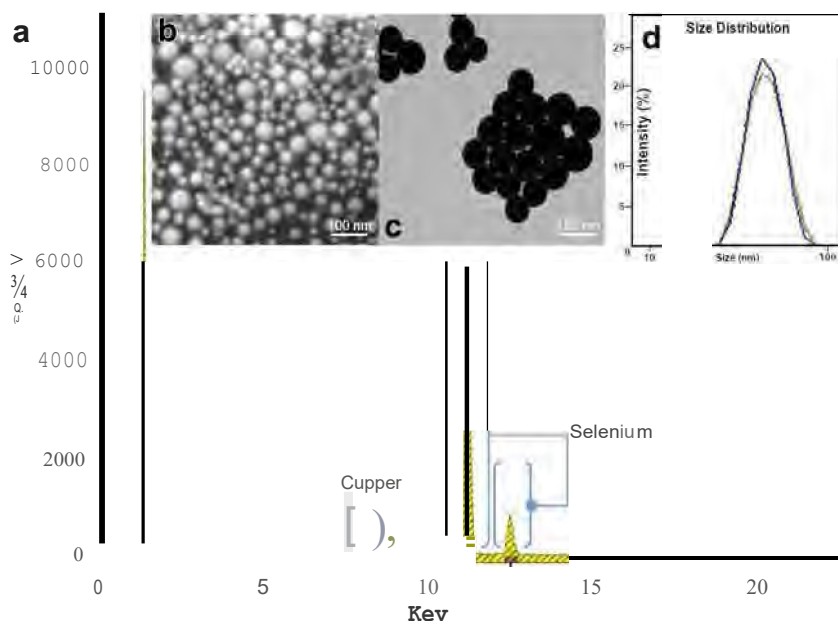
ileum, liver and breast (spleen > duodenum > brain > ileum > liver > breast). [Organic Se supplementation exhibited the highest Se concentrations in the spleen, liver and brain, and the lowest concentration in duodenum, ileum and breast (inorganic > liver > brain > duodenum > ileum > breast). Organic Se demonstrated higher Se concentrations in spleen, duodenum and ileum, showing higher Se absorption in the gastrointestinal tract while lower Se concentration were found in the brain, liver and breast. It (spleen > ileum > duodenum > brain > liver > breast). NanoSe supplementation showed comparable results with organic Se, with 0.9 ppm nanoSe treatment producing the best result, with higher concentrations in the spleen, duodenum and ileum, and lower concentrations in brain, liver and breast tissues. Additionally, 0.9 ppm nanoSe showed improved absorption in the duodenum, and lower retention in the brain tissue, than the low and high nanoSe concentration, confirming that there was no indication of a dose-response effect in the tissue concentrations produced by the different supplementation levels of nanoSe.

The difference in the Se concentration were not significant among treatment groups in the brain ($P = 0.051$), liver ($P = 0.182$), spleen ($t = 0.449$) and ileum ($P = 0.092$) but differed significantly in breast ($P = 0.01$) and duodenum ($P = 0.013$), with higher concentrations observed in birds supplemented with nanoSe. A similar trend was observed in the ileum tissue, with a higher Se content observed with nanoSe than inorganic Se. There was an opposing trend observed with the liver, spleen and brain tissues with inorganic Se displaying the highest Se content.

Histopathological effect of Se sources

A histological examination was performed on the tissues obtained from the five treatment groups. AU Se treatment groups showed normal histological structure of breast tissues.

Fig. 1 NanoSe characterization obtained from a: EDS; b: SEM; c: TEM; d: OLS



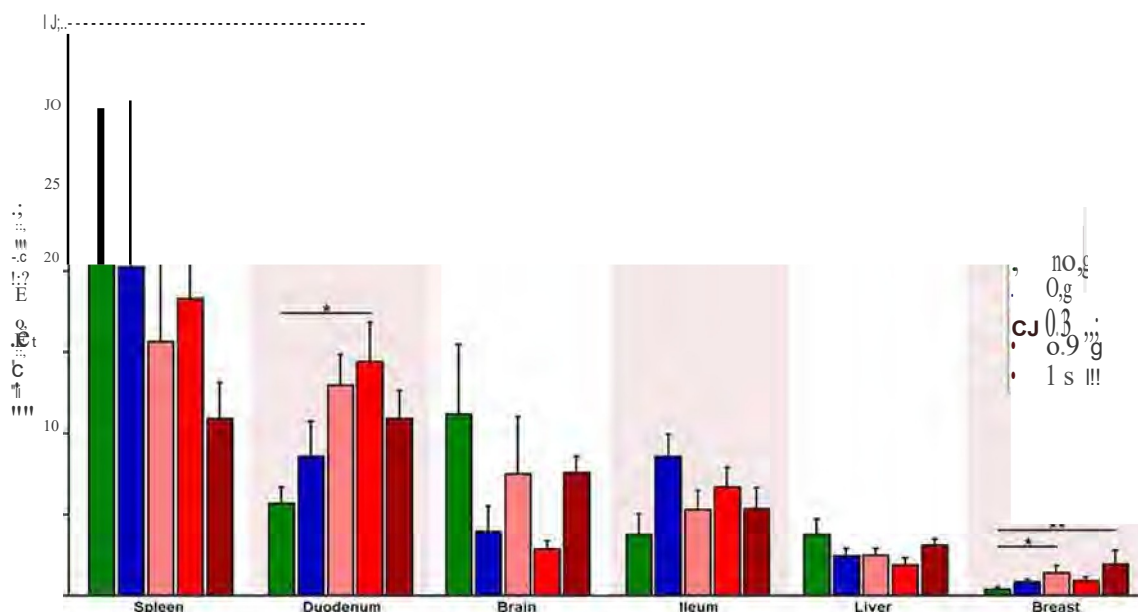


Fig. 2 Se concentration among treatment groups in different tissue types

It was demonstrated by the relatively uniform diameter of the cross-section myofibrillar bundles and intermyofibrillar spaces of the muscle fibres. The integrity of the muscle fibres was demonstrated by the well-defined cross-striation, as shown in Fig. 3(a), and preserved nuclei of the myofibrils (b). The cross-striation of myofibrils was less expressed in inorganic Se than the other Se groups. There was no pathological damage observed in brain samples with neuronal bodies between the new glia and blood vessels of brain substance shown to be normally distributed in all Se treatment groups. Figure 3(c) shows basophilically stained Nissl bodies (tigroid) clustered mainly in the cytoplasm around the nucleus/perikaryon and in the periphery of the cell. An initial to moderate degree of fat infiltration in liver epithelial cells was observed in liver tissue.

Lymphocytes and Kupffer cells pictured in Fig. 4 (a) and (b), respectively, showed no damage in any of the five treatment groups. Spleen samples across all Se treatment groups showed normal structural characteristics, with minor to moderate amounts of erythrocytes observed in the spleen pulp as pictured in Fig. 4 (c).

There was no histopathological damage observed in either the duodenal or ileal tissue across any of the five Se treatments. The intestinal villi of the mucosa in the duodenum were covered by a monolayer prismatic epithelium. Single goblet cells (Fig. 5(b)) were located between the normal intestinal cover cells. The epithelial cells covering the crypts showed preserved microvilli (Fig. 5(a)). The intestinal crypts of the ileum are shown in Fig. 5(c), with the villi evenly covered by a monolayer prismatic epithelium and a common density of goblet cells observed. The ileum tissue also showed densely located, mucous-associated, accumulations of lymphoid cells forming Peyer's patches, pictured in Fig. 5(d).

Discussion

Selenium is an important micronutrient and is a constituent of the immune system (Rayman 2000). Selenium nanoparticles were synthesized using a typical bottom-up approach, allowing the control and formation of stable and defined crystals, and delivered to a chicken model to improve the uptake and absorption rate of the trace element. The model used was a broiler chicken model with a rationale to investigate whether nanoSe supplementation would induce toxicity and/or alter bioavailability, compared to the two commonly used Se supplementation products by the poultry industry (organic and inorganic selenium). Previous studies utilizing nanoSe for improvement of poultry's health and performance only investigated concentration levels of the nanoparticle rather than its parameters such as size, surface charge and crystallinity. The nanoparticle size was an average of 80 nm and studies showed levels exceeding 2.0 ppm resulted in a decline in the immune system (Gangadoo et al. 2016). This trial included the common concentration of Se used in poultry industry, 0.3 ppm as a minimum level and a maximum concentration level of 1.5 ppm. However, there was no correlation observed with the concentration of nanoSe and effect presented in this study, indicating further studies with a wider range of concentration levels to be beneficial.

The histopathological analysis of the sampled tissues indicated that there were no damaging effects from any of the Se sources, however, significant differences in Se concentration between the nanoSe and inorganic Se treated birds were observed. The tissues from birds with nanoSe supplementation displayed higher Se concentration in breast and intestinal tissues than the birds treated with inorganic Se, indicating its

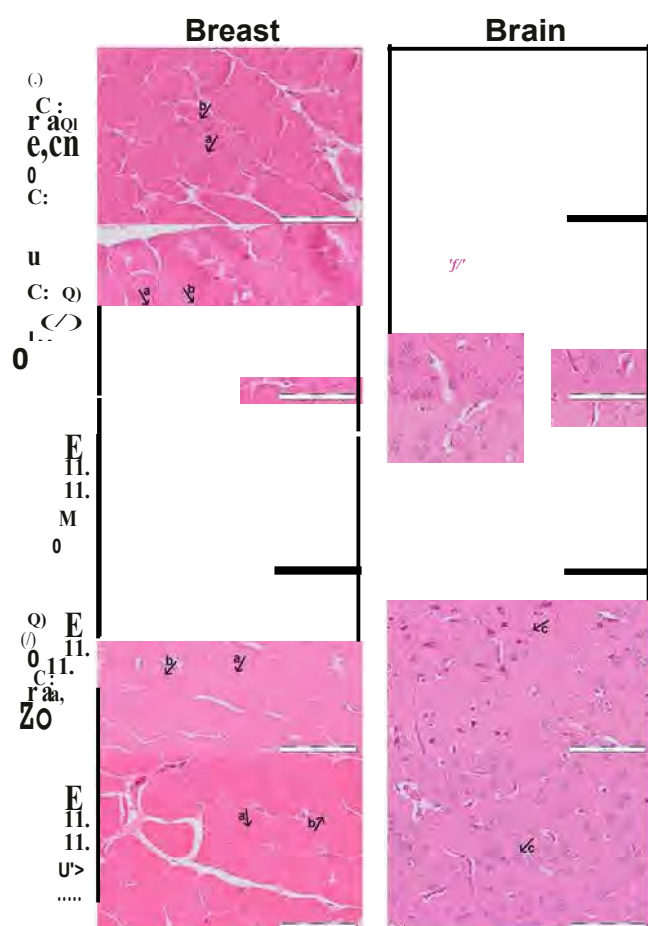


Fig. 3 Histological assessment of Se treatment on breast tissue showing myofibrils (a) and cell nuclei (b); and brain with Nissl bodies (c)

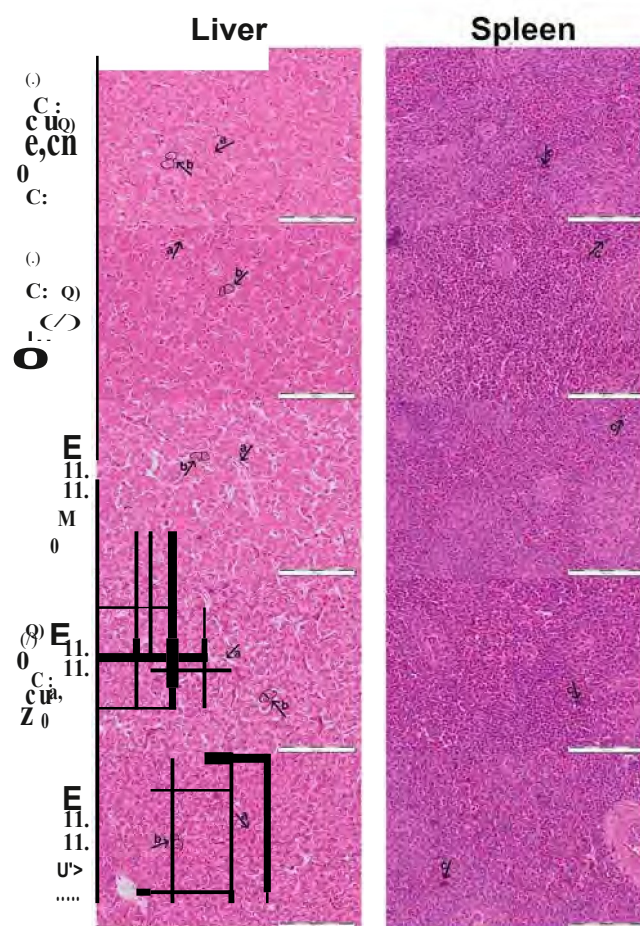


Fig. 4 Histological assessment of Se treatment on liver tissue showing hepatocytes (a) and Kupffer cells (b); spleen tissue with minor to moderate amounts of erythroblasts (c)

superior bioavailability and suggesting an active transport mechanism similar to organic Se (Shi et al. 2011). Se species differ within the treatment groups, affecting its bioavailability and absorption. Inorganic Se combines with other food components during digestion and form insoluble complexes, reducing its absorption, while the Se form in organic Se undergoes amino-acid uptake mechanisms in the intestine, increasing its transportation across the intestinal wall (Constantinescu-Alexandri et al. 2018; Mabima et al. 2012), and this has been observed from greater bioavailability of organic Se in broiler and egg-laying hens from organic Se than inorganic Se (Dobrzanski et al. 2003; Jiakui and Xiaolong 2004; Payne and Southern 2005). NanoSe is consequently elemental S and its transportation across the biological body is determined by its physicochemical properties, including size and shape (Constantinescu-Alexandri et al. 2018). This study demonstrated the higher bioavailability of nanoSe obtained through a spherical and non-crystalline morphology, with an average size of 46 nm.

An opposing trend was observed in liver and spleen tissue, with the birds from the inorganic Se treatment group showing

higher Se concentrations, while nanoSe and organic Se showed comparable results. The liver is a major organ of Se accumulation (Smai 2002a), where selenides, from inorganic Se sources, are incorporated into seleno-proteins before being distributed throughout the body (Pilarczyk et al. 2011; Suzuki 2005). The spleen is the largest lymphoid tissue and is important in regulating immune functions around the body (Attia et al. 2010; Chen et al. 2014). This suggests that inorganic Se contributes to higher Se retention and accumulation in organs involved with detoxification processes.

Although our data indicates that there is no Se toxicity occurring in the tissues and no direct damaging effects on the intestinal morphology, more toxicity studies such as immunogenicity, cytotoxicity, NP accumulation and excretion kinetics, would be required prior to engaging in nanoSe supplementation to livestock on an industrial scale. The determination of selenium concentrations in tissue samples and histological analysis of multiple broiler tissues showed nanoparticles of selenium to be non-toxic, while exhibiting higher absorption in intestines and a lower retention in tissues involved in detoxification as compared to selenium additives.

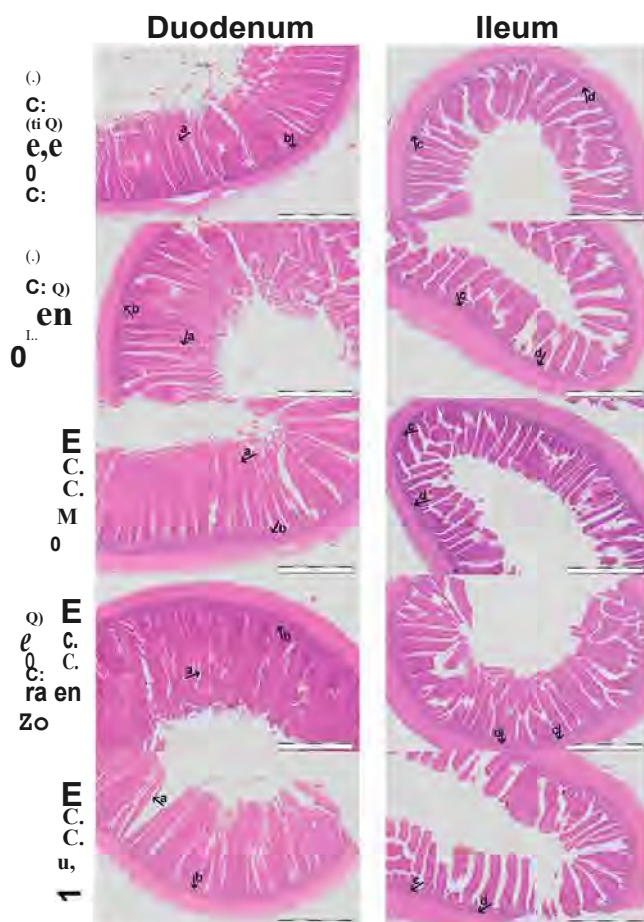


Fig. 5 Histological assessment of Se treatment on duodenum with microvilli (a) and goblet cells (b); and ileum showing intestinal crypts (c) and accumulation of lymphoid follicles forming Peyer's patches (d)

commonly used in the poultry industry, such as sodium selenite and selenomethionine (selenium yeast).

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Compliance with ethical standards

Conflict of interest The authors declare that they have no conflict of interest.

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Nature of Candidate's Contribution, including percentage of total

SG was involved in the inception of the paper, data collection, statistical analysis, and writing of this scientific article (70%).

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All co-authors assisted with the conception and revision of the article. BBW (5%); SYB (5%); TTHV (5%); RJM (5%); OS (10%).

Has this paper been submitted for an award by another research degree candidate (Co-Author), either at CQUniversity or elsewhere? (if yes, give full details)

No.

Candidate's Declaration

I declare that the publication above meets the requirements to be included in the thesis as outlined in the Research Higher Degree Theses Policy and Procedure

(Original signature of Candidate)

Date

Chapter 5

***In vitro* growth of gut microbiota with selenium nanoparticles**

Chapter 5 investigates the influence of Se NPs on caecum microbiota in an anaerobic environment, following the animal trial conducted in Chapter 2. Intestinal samples were approved for collection from backyard growers and subjected to *in vitro* growth in an anaerobic environment. Following the extraction of DNA and analysis of SCFAs, using 16s rRNA gene sequencing and GC-MS respectively, Results show Se NPs had moderate effect on the gut microbiota and SCFAs, with the ability to significantly ($P < 0.05$) reduce *Enterococcus cecorum*, an emerging poultry pathogen. This chapter has been published in Animal Nutrition, with an impact factor of 1.368.



Original Research Article

In vitro growth of gut microbiota with selenium nanoparticles

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ABSTRACT

The application of nanoparticles rose steeply in the last decade, where they have become a common ingredient used in processed human food, improving food properties such as shelf life and appearance. Nanoparticles have also attracted considerable interest to the livestock industry, due to their efficacy in intestinal pathogen control, with the regulatory and consumer driven push for the removal of antibiotic growth promoters. The influence of selenium (Se) nanoparticles was investigated on a diverse and mature broiler caecal microbiota using *in vitro* culturing and 16S rRNA gene sequencing methods for microbiota characterisation. Caecal microbiota was collected from 4 traditionally grown heritage roosters and grown for 48 h, in the presence and absence of Se nanoparticles, with 2 technical replicates each. The effect of rooster as a biological variable strongly overpowered the effects of nano-Se in the media, resulting in moderate effects on the structure and diversity of the caecal microbial community. However the nanoparticles showed a significant reduction ($P < 0.05$) in the abundance of an emerging poultry pathogen, *Enterococcus cecorum* identical operational taxonomic units (OTU), which could be of notable interest in poultry production for targeted *E. cecorum* control without significant disturbance to the total microbial community.

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1. Introduction

The application of nano-scaled materials, 1 to 100 nm, has rapidly expanded across various disciplines, including but not limited to, electronics, technology, consumer goods, biomedical science, agriculture and microbiology. They display unique physicochemical properties due to high surface energy and increased surface area to volume ratio (Regan et al., 2012). Nanoparticles are used in everyday applications such as self-cleaning surfaces

(Muehle and Nowack, 2008), topical products (Goyal et al., 2016) and food preservation (Espitia et al., 2012). They have excellent antimicrobial properties through the disruption of microbial cell membranes (Hajipour et al., 2012; Thill et al., 2006) and oxidation (Le Ouay and Stellacci, 2015). Culture studies have been used to examine their biocidal interaction (Jia et al., 2017; Teodoro et al., 2011) towards both prokaryotic, bacterial pathogens and eukaryotic cells such as tumour and stem cells (Arora et al., 2008; Greulich et al., 2009; Kaul and Amiji, 2005). They have also been intensively investigated for their use in joint and bone reconstruction therapies (Gangadoo et al., 2015), agricultural products (Gangadoo et al., 2016) and delivery of drugs and other substances to the body (Gupta and Curtis, 2004), as they exhibit high biocompatibility (Lu et al., 2010; Naahidi et al., 2013) and biodegradability (Mahapatra and Singh, 2011; Panyam and Labhasetwar, 2003).

Nanoparticles can be used as vehicles to transport substances to the body effectively and fast, by avoiding complex pathways and defence mechanisms as compared to their bulk counterparts (Desai et al., 1996; Mohanraj and Chen, 2006). Many studies have shown

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the positive effect of NP formulations delivered to the gut microbiota, focussing primarily on reducing the pathogenic load with an antibiotic based approach, by inhibiting the growth of harmful microbes (Karavolos and Ioannidis, 2016). Since various materials have successfully targeted detrimental microbes through NP delivery, it was proposed that a NP-based system, using metal salts and complex, could also be used to enhance beneficial bacteria by delivering essential nutrients to the gut microbiota. Nanoparticles have been used to increase the abundance of beneficial species such as *Lactobacillus* and *Bifidobacteria* and reduce pathogenic bacteria and coliform counts (Gangadoo et al., 2018; Han et al., 2010; Yausheva et al., 2018). The gut ecology is a complex community and it is necessary to consider the complex interactions of multiple bacterial species, the chemistry of their growth environment and the metabolites produced.

Selenium (Se) is an important trace element required by the body for the proper functioning and development of the immune system, and it is routinely supplemented to poultry rations to prevent detrimental effects of Se deficiency in birds (Gangadoo et al., 2016). About one quarter of the gut microbiome has the ability to express selenoproteins and Se availability in microbiological media affects their expression (Kasaikina et al., 2011). These proteins play an important role in both bacteria and mammalian host where they are essential in numerous bodily functions (Iablonsky et al., 2014). We have previously investigated the ability of selenium nanoparticles (nanoSe) to improve the delivery of Se to birds and have characterised the resulting modifications of the intestinal microbiota (Gangadoo et al., 2018). We found increased abundance of some beneficial bacteria, for example *Lactobacillus* sp. and *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, however, without significant pathogen reduction. The quantity of butyric acid in different gut sections was increased. Butyric acid is a primary energy source for intestinal colonocytes and can promote good gut health (Van der Merwe et al., 2017).

Traditionally raised free range chickens generally show higher diversity of intestinal microbiota compared to intensively reared birds (Chen et al., 2008; Cui et al., 2017). Their microbiota may contain bacterial species that are not commonly encountered in the microbiota of birds raised in modern high-density production systems. We are interested to study such novel microbiotas and determine the effects of feed additives; with the expectation that some novel members of the microbiota may have application in modern chicken production (e.g. novel probiotics). However, it is difficult to obtain sufficient numbers of such traditionally raised birds to carry out statistically powerful *in vivo* studies. Here we present an *in vitro* study that has investigated the effect of nanoSe on *in vitro* cultured chicken, caecal microbial communities. We used a growth medium specifically developed to support a range of unknown and uncultured species as well as more routinely cultured bacteria, to culture caecal material from traditionally raised free range chickens.

2. Materials and methods

2.1. Animal ethics

Collection of chicken caecal and intestinal material from backyard growers was approved by the Animal Ethics Committee at Central Queensland University with the approval number A1409-318. All animal ethics procedures were in agreement with the Australian Animal Welfare Standards and Guidelines.

2.2. Media preparation

LYHBHI medium (Brain-heart infusion medium supplemented with yeast extract [5 g/L, Alfa Aesar], cellobiose [1 g/L, BD], hemin

[5 mg/L, BD], cysteine [0.5 g/L, Alfa Aesar] and resazurin (0.5 mg/L, Alfa Aesar)) (Fenn et al., 2017; Zilang et al., 2014) was enriched with a multivitamin mix (1 mL), trace element mix (1 mL), feed extract (100 g/L) and bacterial ferment (100 mL). The multivitamin mix was prepared with 5 capsules of SO + MULTI Vitamins & Minerals (CENOVIS) and 5 capsules of vitamin K (Caruso's Natural Health, Queensland, Australia), dissolved in 50 mL of Milli-Q water, and the resulting mixture was filtered twice through a 0.45-µm and a 0.2-µm syringe filter. Appendix Table 1 shows the resulting vitamin concentrations in the medium. The trace element mix was obtained from Youngevity (California, USA) and contains plant-derived minerals. The feed extract was prepared by mixing 100 g of poultry feed (Red Hen Chick premium micro starter, Lauke Mills, Daveystone SA, Australia) to 1 L of Milli-Q water using a 1,500 W blender (Nutri Ninja Duo Auto-iQ) and left to soak overnight. The mixture was then autoclaved, centrifuged and 100 mL of the supernatant extract was added to the medium. The bacterial ferment was prepared by aerobically growing cultures of *Lactobadillus plantarum* (ATCC BAA-793) and *Lactobadillus Thamnusus* (ATCC 53103) to mid-stationary phase in LYHBHI media. The supernatant of the bacterial ferments were then mixed at a 1:1 ratio with a final volume of 50 mL, filter sterilised and added to the media. The volume of SO was adjusted to ensure that the original LYHBHI medium was not diluted. The enriched LYHBHI was purged for 30 min prior to inoculation of caecal content with anaerobic gas mix (80% N₂ / 10% CO₂ / 10% H₂ BOC, Queensland, Australia).

NanoSe was prepared as previously described (Gangadoo et al., 2017). Briefly, selenium tetrachloride was reduced with ascorbic acid to Se atoms, to which a protecting agent, polystyrene-4-sulfonate, was added to allow the formation of nanoparticle clusters. The synthesised, dark red solution was washed by multiple centrifugation with Milli-Q water and a full characterisation, including size, shape, morphology and crystallinity, was conducted. The nanoSe was then diluted with Milli-Q water to 0.9 mg/kg.

2.3. Cecum starter cultures

Caeca, from 4 roosters, were donated by a local heritage breeder. The roosters were raised with organic feed without antibiotics and had exclusive outdoor access, including overnight outdoor roosting, which provided intensive contact with wild flora and fauna. The whole intestine of each rooster was removed and placed immediately into an anaerobic gas pack (Cat. #260683, BD GasPak EZ Pouch Systems) and stored at -20 °C. The caecal samples were slowly allowed to defrost at 4 °C for 30 min. The contents of the whole caeca, for each rooster separately, was squeezed out and diluted in 50 mL of enriched LYHBHI media with 15% glycerol in an anaerobic workstation (A35, Whitley, Shipley, UK). The caecal starter cultures for each rooster's caecal content were then aliquoted as 50 x 1 mL stock and stored at -80 °C until the start of the experiment. This would eliminate cold sensitive species and allow the reproducible use of each 1 mL stock for the future *in vitro* experiments.

2.4. In vitro growth cultures

On the day of the experiment, a single glycerol stock for each one of the 4 roosters was thawed and inoculated into 50 mL of enriched LYHBHI media to grow parent cultures for the experimental inoculation. The experimental cultures were prepared in 20 mL of media in 50 mL Erlenmeyer flask with a cotton stopper, allowing for gas exchange, and incubated at 37 °C on a digital orbital shaker (Heathrow Scientific), shaking at a speed of 0.21 xg in an anaerobic hood (Whitley A35 Anaerobic Workstation, UK).

running on a nitrogen rich gas mix (80 % N₂/10% CO₂/10% H₂). Four cultures were prepared from each rooster's caecal content. 2 as control and 2 with 0.9 mg/kg of nanoSe, by inoculating late exponential growing parent, 11 culture to achieve a starting culture 00620 of O.I. Thus, the final experiment was performed on 16 cultures; 11 - 8 for control and the nanoSe treatment each, on 4 biological replicates (rooster's caecal content) and 2 technic, 11 replicates each, as shown in Fig. 1. Sampling of the cultures was done at 24 and 48 h and the samples were centrifuged at 18,500 $\times g$ at 4 °C for 10 min. The pellets and the supernatants were used for microbial and metabolite analysis, respectively.

2.5. DNA extraction

DNA was extracted from the centrifuged pellets of the microbial cultures. The lysis step was based on the method suggested by Yu and Morrison (2004), followed by a DNA purification step. The lysis buffer (0.5 mL) and 0.1 g of sterile zirconia beads (Cat. #11079101, BioSpec Products) were added prior to bead-beating (Mini-beadbeater, 1310spec Products) for 5 min. Following a 15-min incubation at 85 °C, the samples were centrifuged for 5 min, and binding buffer (0.8 mL) was added to the supernatant and placed through DNA Silica Membrane Mini Spin Column (Cat. # 1920-250, Epoch Life Science, Inc.), followed by a two-step washing with wash buffer (0.7 mL). The washed and dried column was then eluted with 50 μ L of elution buffer. The composition of the buffers is included in Appendix Table 2.

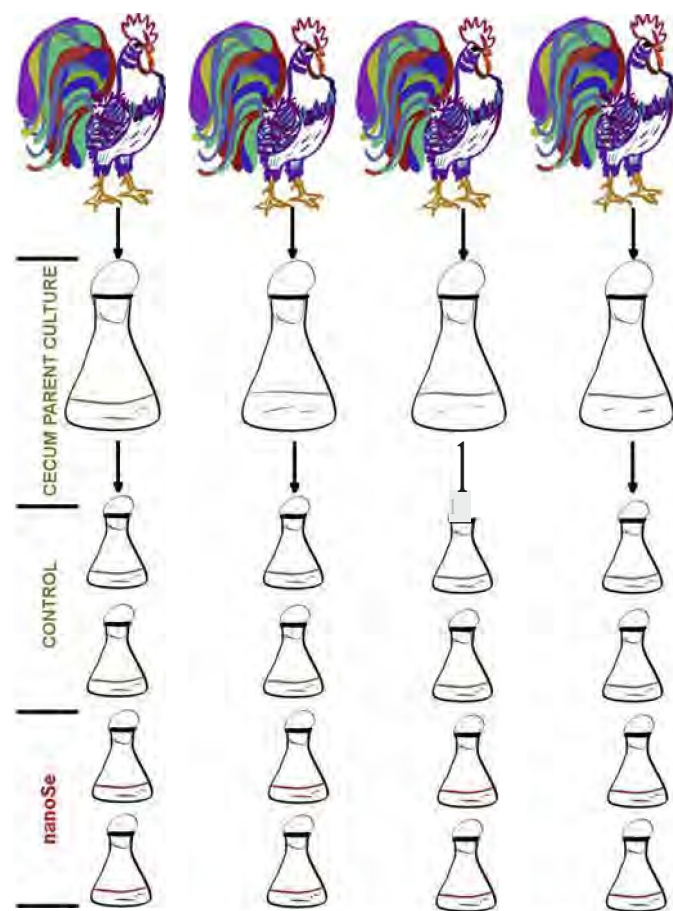


Fig. 1. A schematic of the in vitro experiment performed to examine the effect of nanoSe on growth cultures of rooster caecal samples.

2.6. DNA amplification and sequencing

Sequencing of 16S rRNA gene DNA amplicons was performed on the Illumina MiSeq platform using 2 \times 300 bp paired-end sequencing. Primers were selected to amplify the V3 - V4 region of 16S rRNA genes: forward 5'-ACTCCTACGGGAGGAGCAGCAG-3' and reverse 5'-GGACTACHVGGGTWTCTAAT-3'. The primers contained barcodes, spaces and Illumina sequencing linkers as previously described (Adrosh et al., 2014). Two samples, one from the rooster 2 and one from the rooster 4, failed the sequencing process, and were thus excluded from the analysis.

2.7. Statistical analysis

The analysis of microbial communities was performed in QIIME v.1.9.1 (Caporaso et al., 2010). Paired end sequences were joined using the Fastq-Join algorithm and no allowed mismatches using only sequences with Phred quality threshold higher than 20. Operational taxonomic units were picked at 97% similarity using Ilfclust (Jedgar, 2010) and inspected for chimeric sequences using Pintail (Ashelford et al., 2005). Taxonomic assignments were performed against the GreenGenes (DeSantis et al., 2006) database and QIIME default arguments. Further data exploration was done using Calypso (Zakrzewski et al., 2016). Total sum normalisation and a square root transformation was performed prior to statistical analysis. Student's t-test was used to detect the significance of the differences between the groups. An analysis of similarities (ANOSIM) was performed using Calypso on weighted and unweighted UniFrac distance matrices calculated in QIIME, each with 99,999 permutations. Calypso was also used to implement the supervised multivariate Redundancy Analysis (RDA) using 999 permutations and linear regression analysis using Pearson correlation.

The complete annotated sequence dataset is publicly available on the MG-RAST database under library ID (dependent on the).

2.8. Short-chain fatty acid analysis

The supernatants from the caecal cultures were diluted with 70% ethanol, filtered through a 0.45 μ m syringe filter (Cat. #54504-RC, ThermoFisher) and analysed on the Gas Chromatography - Mass Spectrometry (GC/MS) system. A standard stock solution (100 mg/kg) was used to construct calibration curves and stored as a method processing parameter in scan mode for the following short-chain fatty acids (SCFA): acetic, n-butyric, isobutyric, propionic and n-valeric acid.

The GC/MS system used for metabolite analysis was a Shimadzu QP2010-Plus, fitted with a high-polarity column SH-Rxi-SSiL-MS (30 m \times 0.25 mm \times 0.25 μ m, Restek) and equipped with an AOC-20i autosampler. The GC temperature programme started at 100 °C and was held for 1 min, increased to 12 °C per min to a temperature of 170 °C, and ramped at 100 °C per min, until a final temperature of 260 °C was reached and held for 1 min (a total of an 8.73-min programme). The GC oven temperature was set as presented in Appendix Table 3. A sample of 1 μ L was injected at 250 °C using helium (5.0, Coregas, Australia) as a carrier gas at 1.97 mL/min in a split injection mode. The pressure was held at 143.3 kPa, with a total He flow of 1.034 mL/min and using a split ratio of 5. The mass spectrometer was operated in the electron ionisation mode at 0.2 kV with a source temperature of 220 °C where scan mode was used from 33 to 150 m/z. The peaks were identified by matching the mass spectra with the National Institute of Standards and Technology (NIST) library, <http://chemd.lib.mst.gov/>.

3. Results

3.1. Sample origin influences overall microbiota composition and abundance

The origin of caeca greatly influenced the microbiota community of the samples, showing great biological variation. The abundance of phyla *Firmicutes*, *Bacteroidetes*, *Proteobacteria* and *Actinobacteria* differed significantly between the 4 roosters (ANOVA, $P < 0.001$). *Lactobacillus* (>20%) was the dominant genus in all roosters combined, followed by *Streptococcus* (> 15%), *Enterococcus* and *Clostridium* (>5%) (Appendix Table 4). Principal coordinates analysis (PCoA), as shown in Fig. 2A, was performed on both unweighted and weighted UniFrac matrices and shows similarities between roosters 2 and 3, while roosters one and 4 were very distinctive (Fig. 2B). The microbiota of roosters 2 and 3 included multiple genera not found in roosters one or 4, such as *Collinsella*, *Coprotherobacter*, *Slackia*, and unclassified families of Burkholderiales and Ruminococcaceae. Rooster 4 had the most distinctive microbiota; dominated by *Clostridium*, with low abundance of *Lactobacillus* compared to the other roosters, and

higher amounts of *Trichococcus*, *Proteus* and unclassified families comprising of Clostridiales and Burkholderiales.

3.2. NanoSe influence on microbial composition and metabolite production

The enriched LYHBHI supported the growth of a diverse range of genera comprising of multiple previously uncultured species as shown in Appendix Table 3. NanoSe supplementation significantly ($P < 0.05$) increased 20 operational taxonomic units (OTU), as shown in Fig. 3A and reduced 8 OTU ($P < 0.05$), one of which was identified as 100% identical across the amplified region to *Enterococcus cecorum*, followed by 2 other *Enterococcus* OTU significantly reduced by nanoSe (Fig. 3B). *Enterococcus* OTU, including pathogenic *ceconim*, were exclusively reduced by nanoSe while genera *Lactobacillus* and *Streptococcus* were related with some OTU significantly reduced and other significantly increased. Although nanoSe treatment was correlated with changes in abundance of some specific OTU an ANOSIM multivariate analysis of group similarities showed that the overall gut microbial composition was not affected by nanoSe ($P = 0.991$) or an additional 24 h of incubation

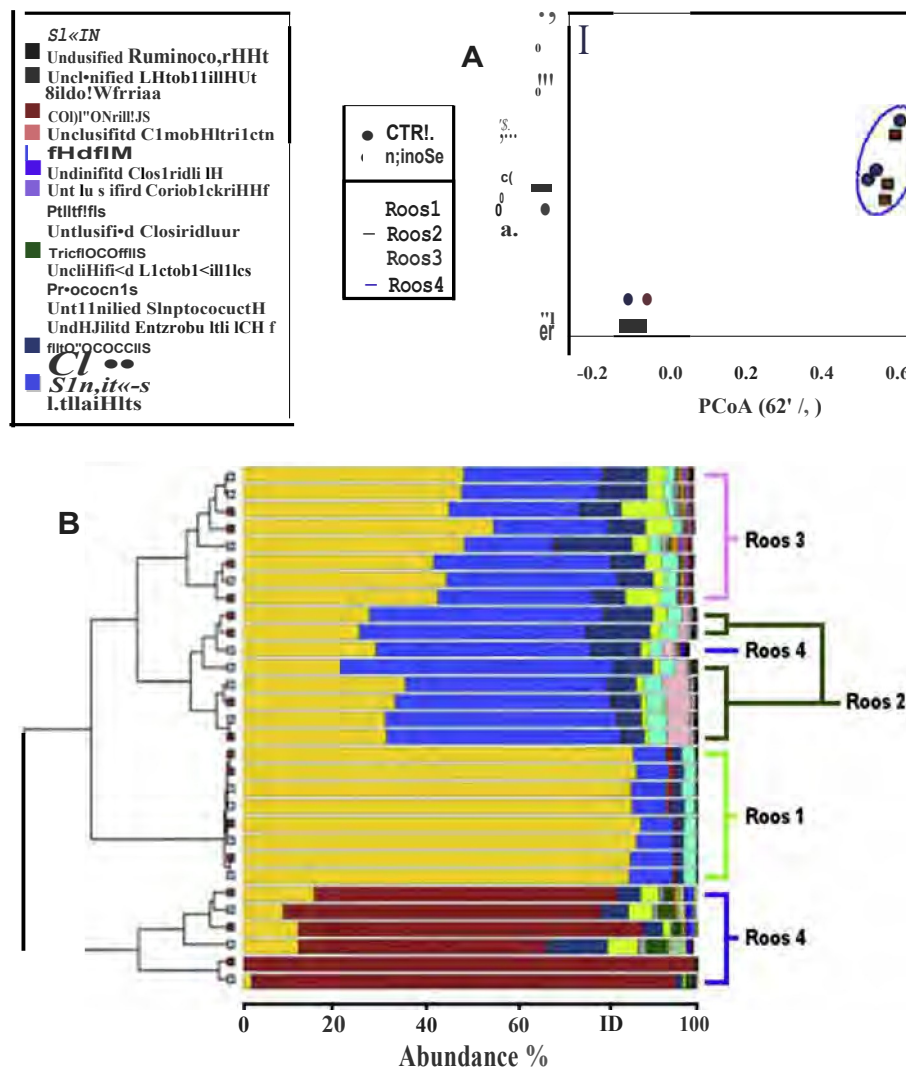
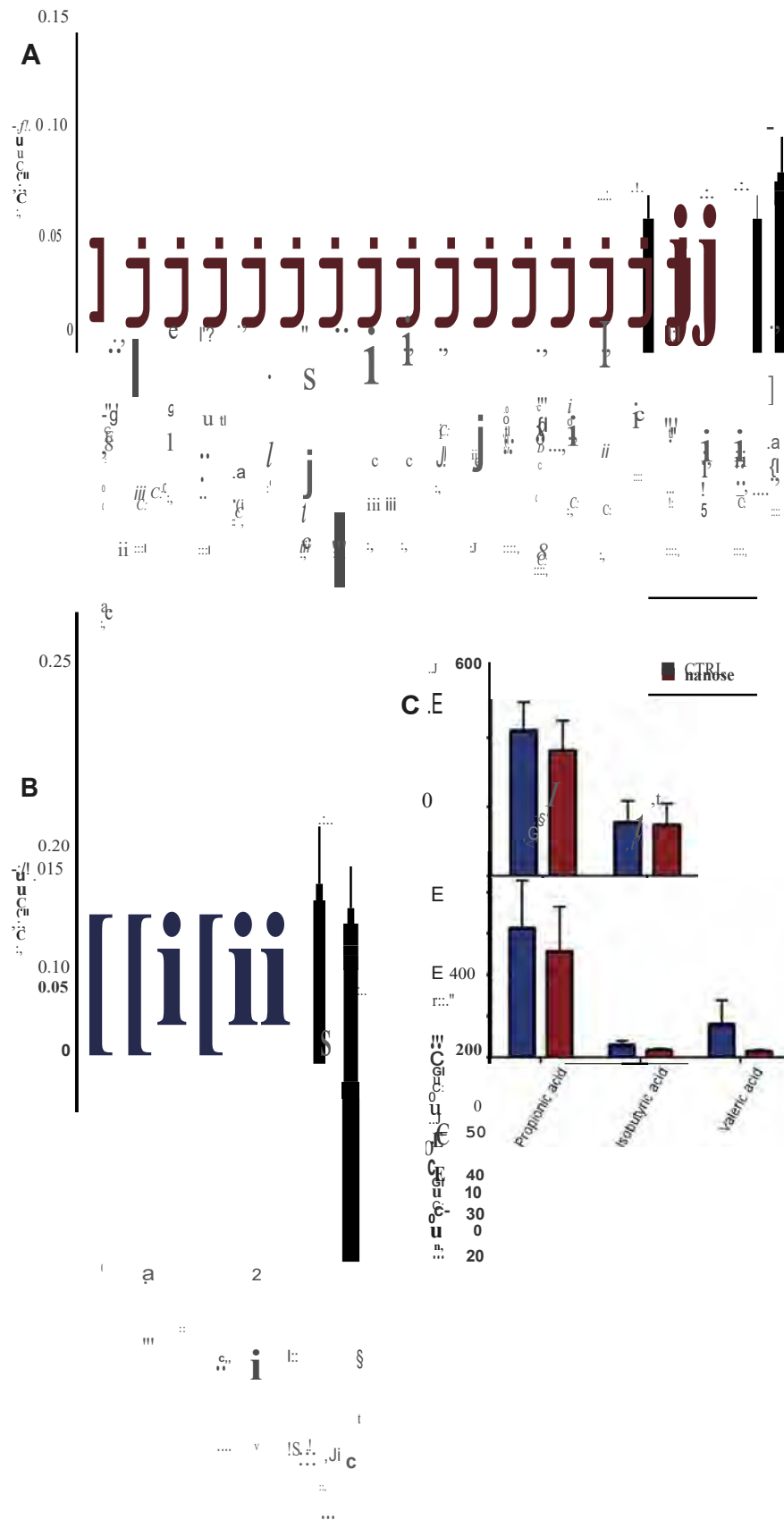


Fig. 2. Gut microbiota profile was clustered based on the bird sample. (A) PCoA analysis performed on weighted UniFrac matrices shows gut community profiles clustered by bird origin. (B) The multiple genera present in the samples confirm similarities and differences between rooster's gut communities. PCoA = Principal coordinates analysis.



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($P = 0.55$). furthermore, alpha diversity indices (Shannon's index, richness and evenness) were also not affected by nanoSe or time of

incubation ($P > 0.05$). The supplementation of nanoSe had no effect (using t-test) on SCFA production, as shown in Fig. 3 C

PERMANOVA showed that SCFA production was significantly

3 -3. Interaction *between gut community and short-chain fatty acid*

related to the microbiota composition ($P = 0.00067$) and RDA

demonstrated that the microbial composition was significantly

related to the SCFA ($P < 0.01$). The 5 SCFA, acetic acid, butyric acid,

isobutyric acid (IBA), propionic acid and valeric acid correlated

with the abundance of a number of taxa (Fig, 4 A). Valerie acid and IBA strongly correlated ($P < 0.001$; $R > 0.85$) with the same

genera, including *Adlercreutzia*, *Desulfavibrio*, *Microbacterium*, unclassified *Barnesiellaceae*, unclassified *Helicobacteraceae* and

unclassified WPS2, (Fig. 48). Butyric acid and acetic acid shared

one genus. an unclassified Clostridiales, exhibiting a strong cor-

relation ($P < 0.001$; $R > 0.85$). Butyric acid additionally had a positive correlation ($P < 0.001$; $R = 0.86$) with *Clostridi'um* and an

inverse correlation ($P < 0.001$; $R = -0.90$) with an unclassified Streptococcaceae.

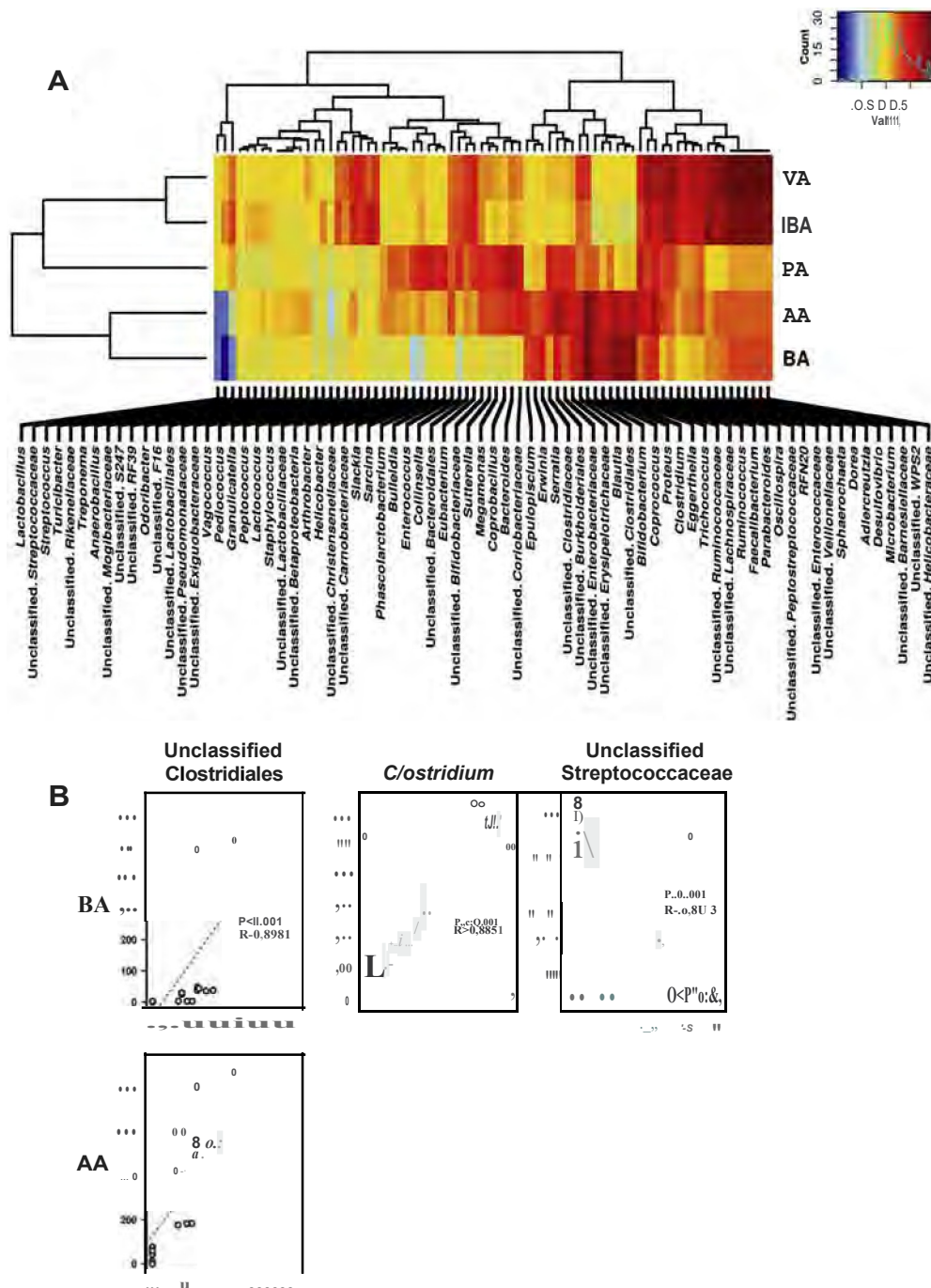


Fig. 4. Short-chain fatty acid1 (SC F/1) interaction effect with the microbial community. (1) overall interaction effect of SCF/1 Wit h genera yielded by enriched I.YHBH l media (Brain-heart infusion medium supplemented With yeast extract [5 g/l /lJfa Aesar l, ce Nobiose [1 g/L SDI. he min [5 mg/l, BDJ. cy steine l 0.5 g, fl Alfa Aesar l) and resa7.Urin (0.5 mg/l, /l\fa /lesar)l. (BJ Highest-con'elation ($R > 0.85$) of SCF/1 Wit h generated lJac teii a. M = .icetic acid; BA = butyric acid ; PA = propanoic acid; IBA = isobutyric acid; VA = vale ric acid.

4. Discussion

The human and animal microbiota is continuously altered with different lifestyles and environmental changes, and has undergone major rearrangements since the introduction of industrialised, large-scale food production in the last few centuries (l'land roy et al., 2018). This change in eating habits and the subsequent changes in gut microbiota has led to the modern age being described as an age of "microbiota genocide" (Sonnenburg et al., 2016). The lifestyle and eating habits of hunter-gatherer societies are, very different to that of modern western societies and the difference drive profound

changes when comparing ancient and modern human microbiotas (Dave n port et al., 2017; Kumar s lnd Forster, 2017; Warinner et al., 2015). This effect spills over to livestock and birds with characteristics microbiota changes occurring because of altered husbandry and feeding practices. Industrial scale grown birds experience very different growth conditions compared to their ancestors: the eggs are hatched under roughly clean cond itions, removing the influence of parental microbiota passage to the next generation (Don aldson et al., 2017). This results in aberrant microbiotas and high microbiota variation from one batch of hatchlings to another (Stan le y et al., 2013). Microbiota analyses of chicken caeca across various

projects have displayed an enormous discrepancy between bacterial species present in industrial birds and those present in birds grown in traditional low density open housing ways such as that found with "village chickens" or "backyard chickens" as called in Australia. Here we used the caeca of backyard chickens to investigate the effects of Se nanoparticles (nanoSe) on gut microbiota. The gut microbiota of an industrially grown domestic chicken, *Gallus gallus domesticus*, is typically comprised of 4 main phyla; Firmicutes, Bacteroidetes, Proteobacteria and a low amount of Actinobacteria (Oakley et al., 2014; Wai te and Taylor, 2014; Wei et al., 2013). The high number of unclassified genera, presented in this study, is possibly indicative of the influence of non-industrialised housing and other environmental conditions (Kers et al., 2018), such as access to pasture, live plant and insect food content, full free range, and exposure to wild birds and animals.

Culturable genera, *Lactobacillus*, *Streptococcus*, *Clostridium* and *Enterococcus* strongly dominated (>60%) the rooster's caecal community, while numerous uncultured genera remained in low abundance. The 80% to 90% sequence similarities render it impossible to infer function, pathogenicity or probiotic potential of these unidentified species to known cultured bacteria. The unknown and uncultured species often require metabolic feedback from other bacteria and can be cultured only in a complex community rather than as a single culture. The caecal microbiota communities were more diverse and different to the ones previously investigated with live birds treated with different concentrations of nanoSe (Cangadood al, 2018), and consequently the *in vitro* response of cultured caecal microbiota to nanoSe proved dissimilar to that seen in the microbiota of treated birds, including the lack of SCFA and *Lactobacillus* genus stimulation. It is not clear whether the different test systems or the different starting microbiotas have more pronounced influence in producing the different outcomes.

In contrast, the reduction of an emerging avian pathogen, *E. cecorum*, and 2 unknown enterococcus species, was observed with nanoSe at a concentration as low as 1 mg/kg. *E. cecorum* has been linked to enterococcal spondylitis and femoral head necrosis, resulting in symptoms such as hind limb weakness (Bo rst et al., 2017; Do lka et al., 2016) and lameness in poultry (McNamee and Smy th, 2000). Other symptoms observed include arthritis and spinal lesions (Da lka et al., 2017), with *E. cecorum* infection leading to a marked increase in flock mortality among all poultry types. Additionally, the ability to carry and spread antimicrobial resistance among other *Enterococcus* spp. has been observed from an analysis of retail meat samples (Jun g e t al., 2018). It can be deduced from this current study that nanoSe may exert targeted antimicrobial activity against pathogenic bacteria such as *E. cecorum* within the complex environment of caecal microbiota without causing significant alteration to the rest of the community. Further investigations should focus on the mechanisms by which the nanoparticles may inhibit the growth of various pathogens.

5. Conclusion

The data presented in this study suggests an immense untapped potential for microbiota manipulation in unconventionally grown birds and could reveal useful information for future attempts in standardising the microbiome of industrial poultry. The application of nanoparticles, with careful optimisation, could help uncover a range of unknown bacterial species and their role in the expression of beneficial microbial products. Nanoparticles have rapidly emerged in the food and agricultural industry, and it is of vital importance to understand their gut microbiome interaction, while modifying their properties to our best advantage.

Conflict of interest

We declare. that we have no financial and personal relationships with other people or organizations that can inappropriately influence our work, there is no professional or other personal interest of any nature or kind in any product, service and/or company that could be construed as influencing the content of this paper.

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Appendix. Supplementary data

Supplementary data to this article can be found online at <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aninu.2019.06.004>.

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Chapter 6

Future Work & Directions

In this final chapter, a quick summary of the Chapters 1 to 5 will be provided alongside a discussion for future work and directions, focusing on methodology improvement and certain limitations encountered during the animal trial study, *in vivo* experiment and techniques and instrumentation involved in conducting Se NP toxicity in a biological body.

6.1 General Summary, Strengths & Discussion

This thesis investigated the use of Se NPs as poultry additive to modify the gastrointestinal microbial ecology in order to improve the health and performance of broiler chickens. The NPs were synthesised using a simple chemical reduction method, using protecting and reducing agents to achieve maximal colloid stability [1, 2], and underwent a full characterisation process, identifying its physicochemical features. The Se NPs were compared against two most commonly used Se additives in the poultry industry. The main results revealed the ability of NP to rearrange the entire gut microbiota and influence the production of metabolites, while showing no comparable toxicity. Se NPs were further investigated *in vitro* in caecum samples, and results showed its ability in reducing the abundance of common poultry pathogen. The following sections summarise the findings of this thesis and discuss the implication and limitation of the findings.

6.1.1 Chapter 1

The first chapter reviewed the current use of NP supplementation and its main limitations within the fast-growing poultry agricultural sector, with most studies focusing on NP's direct effect on broiler's health, immune and performance status. Performance status of birds are typically assessed through various means, including feed conversion ratio (FCR), body weight gain (BWG), antioxidant and immunocompetence activities, and the reduction of poultry and zoonotic human pathogens [3, 4]. The review discussed the rise of antimicrobial resistance of poultry pathogens from the heavy use of antibiotics in feed supplementation, and the crucial need for alternatives to reduce harmful bacteria, leading to the conception to modulate the gut microbial ecology to improve the health and performance status of broiler chickens [5]. The gastrointestinal tract of broilers houses a complex microbial ecology, one which greatly contributes to its overall health and immunity, as well as its ability to absorb energy from food and resist pathogen invasion [6]. The bulk Se currently used in the agricultural industry, while efficient at improving the immune system of broilers, encounters problems in digestibility and absorption through the rapid breakdown of the component [7, 8]. NP generates multiple benefits, operating differently from its bulk counterpart, such as higher surface area to volume ratio and adaptable surface affinity. The transportation and permeability of NP across mucosal layers and other defensive

barriers in the body can be governed by modifying the surface charge and particle size, affecting its absorption and retention across the body [9, 10]. The main objective of this chapter was to explore the lack of research area within the poultry industry in regards to gut modulation and performance via nanoparticle feed formulations, and the literature review has comprehensively summarised the findings of the multitude forms of nanoparticle used in the poultry industry to enhance performance and growth. Furthermore, the review not only assessed the need for advanced molecular techniques to be utilised in this research area, but additionally underline the importance of using an essential metal and optimising the nanoparticle metal to be stable, non-toxic, the ability to permeate and transport into cells and finally the capacity to increase the abundance of beneficial gut-modulating microbes, improving overall performance and growth development of host.

6.1.2 Chapter 2

Chapter 2 explored the synthesis of Se NP using a simple bottom-up chemical reduction over a top-down approach which employs the physical breakdown of larger particles into smaller particles, and a bottom-up chemical approach demonstrates a simplicity in controlling the growth of nanostructures and the ability to produce NP with fewer surface defects [11]. A precursor, Se tetrachloride, is reduced and underwent the Ostwald ripening process resulting in a seed template, enabling the homogeneous growth of Se crystals [12, 13]. The use of a protecting agent and the control of reaction kinetics, such as temperature, were successfully employed in limiting particle size to remain under 100 nm and to induce colloidal stability [14]. The synthesis and washing processes were also optimised, producing monodisperse NPs, with a full characterisation conducted using various spectroscopy and microscopy techniques. Dynamic light scattering (DLS), along with scanning electron microscopy (SEM) and transmission electron microscopy confirmed an average size of 55 nm, with NP adopting a spherical shape. The combination of UV-vis and elemental dispersive X-ray spectroscopy confirmed the presence of elemental Se, with X-ray diffraction used to authenticate the amorphous crystallinity of the NP. The synthesis process involved an easy and fast method in producing stable and spherical Se NPs of an average of 46 nm and were further used in an animal trial, as discussed in the next section.

6.1.3 Chapter 3

Se NP effect on broiler chickens was investigated against sodium selenite and selenomethionine, standard Se additives used in the poultry industry. The results in chapter 3 showcased some interesting findings: whilst there was no significant effect observed with overall weight gain of broiler, NP inclusion remodelled the entire gut microbiota composition. An optimised threshold was observed with NP concentration, where higher concentrations exhibited negative effects such as reduced weight gain, introduction of detrimental microbes and reduction of SCFA production. NP also promoted the abundance of health-promoting bacteria, such as *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*, where a strong correlation was observed with its abundance and concentration of Se NP. *Faecalibacterium* is highly sought after in gut microbiology research as it is linked to promoting high colonic health and production of healthy metabolites [15]. A largest duodenal villus/crypt ratio coincided with highest abundance of *Faecalibacterium*, indicating NP in promoting high digestive capability of small intestine [15, 16]. The overall concentration of SCFA was increased with an intermediate concentration, 0.9 ppm, of Se NPs, showing the concentration to be optimal for the immune system, the maintenance of tight junctions and promotion of gut integrity. This study clearly demonstrates the superior efficacy of NP to transport and deliver substances fast whilst avoiding complex pathways and degradability. This is shown by the high promotion and abundance of healthy gut bacteria along positive modulation of the intestine's absorption and digestive capability, as compared to their bulk counterpart in the poultry industry [17]. The results clearly demonstrate the use of an essential metal NP as a solution to the bioaccumulative and toxic effects observed from silver (Ag) NP used in livestock feed and previous studies [18].

6.1.4 Chapter 4

The main objective of chapter 4 was to investigate the toxicity of Se NP in various tissues of broiler chickens. Se concentration was analysed using a closed-vessel digestion method, followed by quantitative analysis using inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometry. The ICP-MS is a strong analytical technique capable in detecting multiple elements at low concentration [19]. Results showed Se NP increased bioavailability of Se in breast and duodenum tissue while reducing Se retention in detoxifying organs such as liver and spleen compared to sodium selenite.

The histopathological analysis showed no damaging effects from NP, demonstrating its safe use in the biological body at low concentrations. Again, the use of Se NP and other essential metal NP provides a solution against toxicity observed from Ag NP in previous studies showing the presence of lesion formation, tissue inflammation and necrosis [20].

6.1.5 Chapter 5

Chapter 5 investigated the ability of Se NP to influence a diverse and mature broiler caecal microbiota *in vitro*, with the intention to act as a replacement for antibiotic growth promoters. The results from Chapter 3 showed the ability of Se NP to increase the abundance of beneficial bacterial species such as *Lactobacillus* sp. and *F. prausnitzii*. Studies show the diversity of intestinal microbiota to be higher in traditionally raised free range chickens than in industrialised birds, hence the *in vitro* trial used Se NP to cultivate and enrich novel species within the caecal microbial communities of the free range birds [21, 22]. The study showed variable results with biological difference of roosters overpowering the effects of Se NP. While the overall microbiota and SCFA production was not affected, Se NP significantly reduced an emerging poultry pathogen, *Enterococcus cecorum*. Results show Se NP enriched a high number of uncultured species, demonstrating the possibility to use nanoparticle as formulation for complex media cultures in isolating and identifying unknown intestinal species. This study, and overall, the thesis, explored the use of advanced molecular techniques in determining the superior advantages of NP formulation over its bulk counterpart to effectively deliver substances and modulate the gut microbiome improving intestinal performance.

6.2 Limitations & Future Directions

6.2.1 Chapter 2

This study mainly investigated the size control and aggregation properties of NP using a bottom-up approach. Future synthesis work should include thorough optimisation of surface charge, as the latter is an equally important parameter that can influence the transportation and uptake of NP in the biological body. As mentioned in chapter 1, the net surface charge can influence its permeability and thus absorption

and retention throughout the body. The use of various precursors, reduction and protective agents should additionally be considered to explore the different transportation and uptake effect of various NP shapes and uniformity, as well as sizes and crystallinity.

6.2.2 Chapter 3

Chapter 3 included two controls of most commonly used Se supplementation in the poultry industry, to compare their effect on gut modulation to those of NP. Further animal studies, including a control with no Se, should be conducted to distinctively isolate the effect of Se NP on the gut composition. Additionally, the feed conversion rate should be compared among broilers fed conventional poultry diets and broilers fed nanoparticle supplementation, to establish whether nanoparticle can improve feed uptake and overall improve performance.

6.2.3 Chapter 4

In Chapter 4, a closed-vessel digestion method was used to digest tissues prior to being analysed on the ICP-MS. This technique reported high volatilisation of Se observed from the slight charring of biological tissue during the drying process. A prolonged time and lower temperature have been previously observed in avoiding this mineralisation process. The rapid volatilisation of Se indicates its fast conversion from one species to another, resulting in differing stabilities and further affecting its biological activity. Further work should include a Se speciation step prior to ICP-MS analysis, and the coupling of methods with hydride generation and laser ablation to enable the separation of interferences from other materials, such as arsenic and chloride. The addition of coupling methods and derivatisation steps will ensure the reduction of instrumental and matrix interferences in biological extracts and may result in the better qualification and quantification of analysed materials. The examination of histopathological toxicity of tissues primarily involved haemotoxylin and eosin dyes. Further studies with other dyes, such as alcian blue and nissl stains, should be included for a more thorough examination of cell features, goblet cells and mucin production, and nervous tissue respectively.

6.2.4 Chapter 5

The high variability in microbial composition of the different roosters is a significant limitation of this study as the effect of NP was not properly grasped. Additional work should involve a higher number of biological replicates, focussing on one type of rooster at a time. This chapter additionally showed the introduction of uncultured bacteria by specialised media and the significant effect of NP on those bacteria. Further metabolomics and genomics studies should be conducted with various other media constituents to identify the relationship between those uncultured bacteria and Se NP supplementation.

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Appendices

Appendix A:	Chapter 3 Supplementary material.....	69
Appendix B:	Chapter 5 Supplementary material.....	74

Appendix A

Chapter 3: Selenium NPs in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*

Supplementary material

Applied Microbiology and Biotechnology

Selenium nanoparticles in poultry feed modify gut microbiota and increase abundance of *Faecalibacterium prausnitzii*

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Supplementary Material

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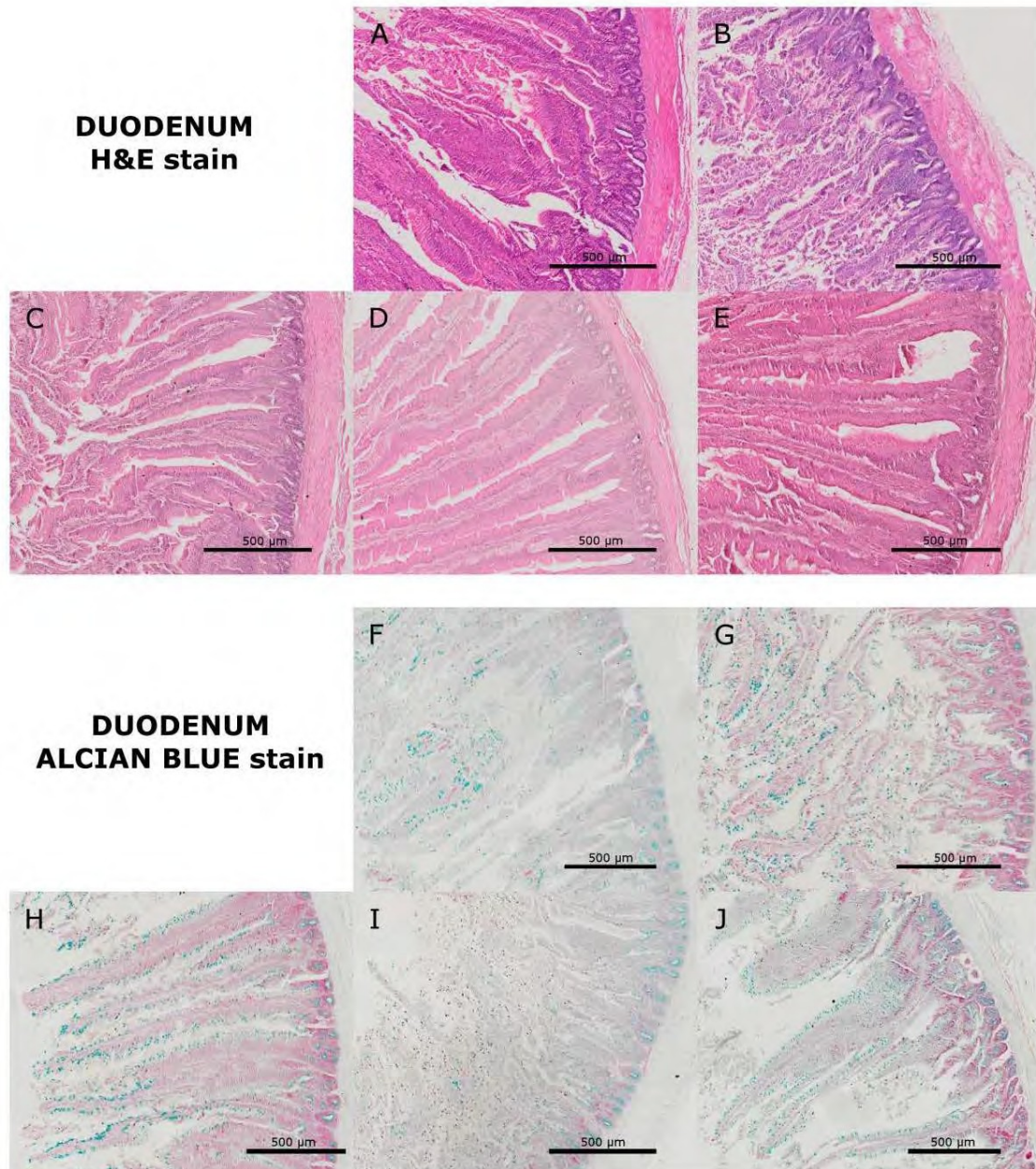


Fig. S1 Duodenum histology of the 5 treatments: A-E show haematoxylin & eosin staining of Inorganic Se (A), Organic Se (B), 0.3 ppm (C), 0.9 ppm (D) and 1.5 ppm nanoSe (E) and F-J show alcian blue staining of groups Inorganic Se (F), Organic Se (G), 0.3 ppm (H), 0.9 ppm (I) and 1.5 ppm nanoSe (J)

Table S1 Feed composition and poultry premix

The chicken starter crumble manufactured by Allora Grain Milling:

Ingredients available	KG/Tonne	% Inclusion
Corn/Sorghum meal	325.50	32.55%
Wheat ½	279.70	27.97%
Millrun	60.00	6.00%
Cotton seed meal	75.00	7.50%
He soybean meal	175.00	17.50%
Lysine	1.50	0.15%
Ag lime	20.00	2.00%
Salt flossy fine	3.00	0.30%
Bentonite	30.00	3.00%
Dicalcium phosphate	5.00	0.50%
Poultry premix	2.00	0.20%
Agrimol runny molasses	20.00	2.00%
Aniseed flavouring	0.30	0.03%
Clean feed (mould inhibitor)	2.00	0.20%
DL methionine	1.00	0.10%

The poultry premix manufactured by Rabar PTY LTD consisted of the following nutrients:

FORMULA		RABAR POULTRY PREMIX	CHICK STARTER
		Inclusion rate kg/tonne	2.0
Nutrient	Level	Ingredient to provide nutrient	Active level/Inclusion
Vitamin A	MIU	Vitamin A 1000	13.333
Vitamin D	MIU	Vitamin D3 500 A	3.333
Vitamin E	g	Vitamin E-50 Adsorbate	40.000
Vitamin K	g	Vitamin K3 43.7% Menodione 31.2% Niacinamide	2.667
Nicotinic Acid B3	g	Niacin (B3) 99.5%	40.000
Pantho Acid (B5)	g	D-calpan 98% (B5)	13.333
Folic Acid	g	Vitamin B9 folic acid 100 (97%)	1.600
Riboflavin B2	g	Vitamin B2 80 SD B	5.333
Cyanoc. B12	g	Vitamin B12 10000 (1%)	0.020
Biotin	g	Vit H-2 (Biotin 2%)	0.133
Pyridoxine (B6)	g	Vitamin B6 (Pyridoxine HCl) 99%	5.333
Thiamine B1	g	Vitamin B1 thiamine mono 98%	1.600
Copper	g	Copper sulphate penta	13.333
Cobalt	g	Cobalt sulphate 21%	0.267
Molybdenum	g	Sodium molybdate	0.667
Iodine	g	Potassium iodide 68%	1.333
Iron	g	Iron sulphate powder	40.000
Zinc	g	Zinc sulphate 35%	93.333
Antioxidant	g	Oxicap E2	0.5

Table S2 GC oven temperature for SCFA analysis using a SIM method

Rate	Final Temperature (°C)	Hold Time (min)
-	60.0	1.00
15.00	160.0	0.00
70.00	260.0	0.90

Appendix B

Chapter 5: *In vitro* growth of gut microbiota with selenium nanoparticles

Supplementary material

1 Appendix

2 Appendix Table 1. The resulting concentrations of the vitamin mix supplemented to the
3 enriched LYHBHI media.

Vitamins	Concentration, µg/mL
Calcium (carbonate)	21
Riboflavin (vitamin B ₂)	0.4
Thiamine nitrate (vitamin B ₁)	0.4
Cyanocobalamin (vitamin B ₁₂)	0.005
Pyridoxine hydrochloride (vitamin B ₆)	0.8
Nicotinamide (vitamin B ₃)	4
Calcium pantothenate (vitamin B ₅)	2.2
Zinc (oxide)	1.5
Ascorbic acid	4.5
Cod-liver oil	17.5
Magnesium (oxide heavy)	1.5
Total vitamin A	0.0593
dl-alpha-tocopherol (vitamin E 20 IU)	1.82
Iron (ferrous fumarate)	0.5
Folic acid	0.03
Betacarotene	0.12
Cholecalciferol (vitamin D ₃ 154 IU)	0.000385
Citrous bioflavonoids extract	0.2
Biotin (vitamin H)	0.015
Phytonadione (vitamin K ₁)	0.0015
Iodine (potassium iodide)	0.015
Copper (cupric sulfate anhydrous)	0.1
Chromium (picolinate)	0.0025
Manganese (sulfate monohydrate)	0.1
Selenium (selenomethionine)	0.0025
Boron (boric acid)	0.3
Menaquinone-7 (MK7)	9

- 4 Appendix Table 2. Preparation of buffer reagents as used in the DNA extraction protocol of
5 culture samples.

Buffers	Ingredients
Lysis	500 mmol/L NaCl, 50 mmol/L EDTA (Alfa Aesar), 50 mmol/L tris-HCl (pH = 8) (G-Biosciences), 4% SDS
Binding	5 mol/L Gu-HCl (Astral Scientific), 30% isopropanol
Wash	10 mmol/L tris-HCl, 80% ethanol (pH=7.5)
Elution	10 mmol/L tris-HCl

- 6 EDTA = ethylenediaminetetraacetic acid.

7

- 8 Appendix Table 3. Gas chromatography oven temperature.

Rate	Temperature, °C	Hold time, min
—	100.0	1.0
12.0	170.0	0.0
100.0	260.0	1.0

9

10 Appendix Table 4. Culturable bacterial genera grown with enriched LYHBHI medium¹.

Classified genus			
<i>Adlercreutzia</i>	<1%	<i>Megamonas</i>	<1%
<i>Anaerobacillus</i>	<1%	<i>Microbacterium</i>	<1%
<i>Arthrobacter</i>	<1%	<i>Odoribacter</i>	<1%
<i>Bacteroides</i>	<1%	<i>Oscillospira</i>	<1%
<i>Bifidobacterium</i>	>1%	<i>Parabacteroides</i>	<1%
<i>Blautia</i>	<1%	<i>Pediococcus</i>	>1%
<i>Bulleidia</i>	<1%	<i>Peptococcus</i>	<1%
<i>Clostridium</i>	>5%	<i>Phascolarctobacterium</i>	<1%
<i>Collinsella</i>	<1%	<i>Proteus</i>	>1%
<i>Coprobacillus</i>	<1%	<i>RFN20</i>	<1%
<i>Coprococcus</i>	<1%	<i>Ruminococcus</i>	<1%
<i>Desulfovibrio</i>	<1%	<i>Sarcina</i>	<1%
<i>Dorea</i>	<1%	<i>Serratia</i>	<1%
<i>Eggerthella</i>	<1%	<i>Slackia</i>	<1%
<i>Enterococcus</i>	>5%	<i>Sphaerochaeta</i>	<1%
<i>Epulopiscium</i>	<1%	<i>Staphylococcus</i>	<1%
<i>Erwinia</i>	<1%	<i>Streptococcus</i>	>15%
<i>Eubacterium</i>	<1%	<i>Sutterella</i>	<1%
<i>Faecalibacterium</i>	<1%	<i>Treponema</i>	<1%
<i>Granulicatella</i>	<1%	<i>Trichococcus</i>	>1%
<i>Helicobacter</i>	<1%	<i>Turicibacter</i>	<1%
<i>Lactobacillus</i>	>20%	<i>Vagococcus</i>	<1%
<i>Lactococcus</i>	<1%		

11 ¹ LYHBHI medium, Brain-heart infusion medium supplemented with yeast extract (5 g/L,

12 Alfa Aesar), cellobiose (1 g/L, BD), hemin (5 mg/L, BD), cysteine (0.5 g/L, Alfa Aesar).