



USE OF MEDICINAL PLANTS AS A PANACEA TO POULTRY PRODUCTION AND FOOD SECURITY: A REVIEW

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Abstract

Medicinal plants remain the most untapped reservoir of potential therapeutic agents that can be exploited in reducing animal exposure to diseases. Some plants possess significant immune stimulatory, hepatoprotective, anti-inflammatory, antifungal, hypolipidemic and antioxidant activities due to the presence of phytochemicals. Phytochemicals or secondary metabolites are generally regarded as safe, effective, environmental friendly and relatively cheap. Examples of phytochemicals includes; tannins, flavonoids, phenols, alkaloids, saponins and terpenoids. Concentrations of phytochemicals in plants vary from plant to plants, method of extraction, geographical locations, species and age of plants. Medicinal plants are capable of stimulating feed intake, enhancing growth performance, improving gastrointestinal morphology, immune modulator, nutrient utilization as well as modulating the fatty acid of meat. They are also recommended as one of the potential alternatives to antibiotics and to bridge the gap between food safety and livestock production.

Keywords: *Antibiotics, antioxidants, medicinal plants, phytochemicals, livestock, food safety*

INTRODUCTION

Medicinal plants are reservoirs of bioactive compounds used by humans since early ages in traditional medicine for the treatment and prevention of diseases due to their therapeutic potential (Arun and Varsha, 2014; Dilduza et al., 2015). According to Oluwafemi et al. (2020); Adewale et al. (2020), there are over 500,000 species of medicinal plants identified globally which has led to the discovery of novel drugs or new pharmaceuticals used for the treatment of various diseases in animals. Recently, the use of medicinal plants is increasingly gaining interest due to the increasing cases of antimicrobial resistance due to the indiscriminate use of antibiotics which has led to increased risk of resistant pathogenic bacteria, environmental pollution and toxic residue in animal products which have negative effect on human health and animals (Shittu et al., 2021). The presence of phytochemicals in medicinal plants is generally regarded as safe, effective and natural potential alternatives to produce healthy animals (Alagbe, 2021; Singh et al., 2021). Phytochemicals in medicinal plant possess enormous scaffolds that are mimicked in the design of most molecular structured synthetic drugs (Mishra and Tiwari, 2011) or even modified further to enhance a drug's biological activity profile (Itokawa et al., 2008). Thus, there has been a renewed interest in investigating natural products as leads for new biologically friendly, therapeutic drug candidates (Mishra and Tiwari, 2011).

The European Union in 2009 placed a ban on the use of antibiotic growth promoters in animals due to the problems outlined above to promote food safety. According to European surveillance report in 2021 on antimicrobial consumption, European countries have substantially reduced the use of antimicrobials for animals. According to Eckel (2020), healthy animals are the foundation for healthy people and healthy people are the basis for a stable and productive society. Plant based natural constituents can be derived from leaves, stems, flowers, roots, twigs and seeds (Agubosi et al., 2022). They have become a source of drugs and are traditionally used for the treatment of numerous diseases in animals such as gastro-intestinal infection, fever, cough, pneumonia, inflammations, skin infections, mental retardation, arthritis, urinary infections and asthma (Šarić-Kundalić, 2010; Voon et al., 2012; Philander, 2011).

Medicinal plants can be incorporated into animal feed or water to enhance productivity due to the presence of phytochemicals (tannins, flavonoids, terpenoids, alkaloids, saponins, phenols or bioactive compounds (Agubosi et al., 2022) whose concentration vary according to the method of processing or extraction, geographical origin, environmental factors, harvesting seasons and storage conditions (Gadde et al., 2017). The presence of phytochemicals enables plants to perform multiple biological activities such as: antimicrobial, antifungal, antiviral, antibacterial, antioxidant, hepato-protective, chemopreventive, neuroprotective, immunomodulatory, antispasmodic, anagelsics and hypolipidemic (Alagbe, 2021). According to Dhan et al. (2012), phytochemicals are non-nutritive plant chemicals that have either defensive or disease protective properties. For instance, flavonoids are capable of scavenging free radicals and also posse's anti-inflammatory properties (Okwu et al., 2004; Omolere and Alagbe, 2020). Generally, the ability of flavonoids to effectively act as antioxidants depends on a number of factors, i.e., metal-chelating potential that strongly depends on hydroxyls and carbonyl groups arrangement around the molecule, the hydrogen or electron-donating substituent's present and

able to reduce free radicals, and the flavonoid's ability to delocalize unpaired electron which lead to stable phenoxyl radical formation (Seelinger et al., 2008; Gülçin, 2012; Alagbe and Motunrade, 2019).

According to Asl and Hosseinzeh (2008); Atamgba et al. (2015), saponins are useful adjuvants during the production of vaccines and they also have potentials as fertility agents. Tannins are a very complex group of plant secondary metabolites, which are soluble in polar solution and are distinguished from other polyphenolic compounds by their ability to precipitate proteins (Silanikove et al., 2001; Alagbe et al., 2021). They can be grouped into either condensed or hydrolyzable tannins. Condensed tannins are more widely distributed in higher plant species than the hydrolysable ones and they are capable of precipitating proteins (Dykes et al., 2005). Tannins are also known to possess antibacterial and antiviral activities and type of tannins synthesized by plants vary considerably depending on plant species, stage of development and environmental condition (Cornell, 2005; Enzo, 2007; Alagbe, 2019). Steroids are considered as great potentials for growth and bone marrow stimulation in the body of animals (Tsado et al., 2015; Alagbe, 2019).

Phenolic acids are derivatives of benzoic or cinnamic acids derivatives to form hydroxybenzoic and hydroxycinnamic acids, respectively (Dykes and Rooney, 2006). They are antioxidants which are capable of reducing oxidative stress in animals (Shittu et al., 2021; Alagbe et al., 2019). Oxidation is the transfer of electrons from one atom to the other essential for cell metabolism with O₂ as an electron acceptor releasing energy in the form of ATP. It however, becomes problematic when electron flow becomes uncoupled causing the transfer of unpaired single electrons instead of paired ones, generating free radicals (Peréz and Aguilar, 2013; Musa et al., 2020). The generated reactive free radicals containing O₂ are known as reactive oxygen species (ROS), oxidants or pro-oxidants as reported by Gülçin (2012). They include hydroxyl (HO), superoxide (O⁻) peroxy (ROO), alkoxy (RO) and nitric oxide (NO) (Nikolova, 2012; Shittu and Alagbe, 2020). Phenols are antioxidants capable of preventing degenerative diseases such as cancer, coronary atherosclerosis and Alzheimer's disease (Nikolova, 2012; Uddin et al., 2014) and protecting cellular components against oxidative damage (Halliwell and Evans, 2001; Dudonné et al., 2009). Dietary antioxidants have been defined as any substance that when present in low concentrations than that of the oxidizable substrate, significantly delays or inhibits the oxidation of that substrate (Halliwell, 2007). Phytates are capable of interfering with minerals making them biologically unavailable for absorption (Alagbe et al., 2020). High oxalate diet can increase the risk of renal calcium absorption and has been implicated as a source of kidney stones (Chai and Liebman, 2004; Alagbe, 2019). Alkaloids in plants possess medicinal benefits which includes anti-malarial, antibacterial and anticancer activities (Sexena et al., 2013; Olufunmiso et al., 2017). Terpenoids have also been reported to possess antimicrobial, anti-carcinogenic and anti-diuretic properties (Oluwafemi et al., 2022; Alagbe et al., 2020).

In view of the abundant potential in medicinal plants, this review is a collection of different herbs, its inclusion level as well as its effect in poultry production.

| Plants | Dosage | Effect on birds | References |
|---|--------------------------|---|--|
| Ginger (<i>Zingiber officinale</i>) | 0.2 % - 0.4 % | Improved intestinal morphology and efficient growth performance | Oluwafemi <i>et al.</i> (2021); Hanan (2015), Burt (2004); Brenes and Roura (2010) |
| Garlic (<i>Allium sativum</i>) oil | 200 mg/kg diet | Improved body weight gain | Jamroz <i>et al.</i> (2015); Mitsch <i>et al.</i> (2004) |
| Ginger + garlic oil | 0.2 – 0.4 % | Improved blood count and efficient growth performance | Oluwafemi <i>et al.</i> (2021); Hanan (2015), Nouzarian <i>et al.</i> (2011). |
| <i>Moringa oliefera</i> oil | 0.1 – 0.3 % | | Agubosi <i>et al.</i> (2022); Lee <i>et al.</i> (2004) |
| Sunflower (<i>Helianthus annus</i>) oil | 0.2 % – 0.4 % | Improves intestinal morphology and efficient growth performance | Agubosi <i>et al.</i> (2022); Platel and Srinivasan (2000); Rajput <i>et al.</i> (2012). |
| <i>Albizia lebeck</i> stem bark extract | 20 – 40 ml/lit of water | Increased weight gain and dressing percentage | Alali <i>et al.</i> (2013); Hong <i>et al.</i> (2014) |
| <i>Balanites aegyptiaca</i> and <i>Alchornea cordifolia</i> stem bark mixture | 10 – 40 mL/ lit of water | Improves intestinal morphology and efficient growth performance | Khattak <i>et al.</i> (2014); Burt (2004) |
| <i>Cymbopogon Citratus</i> oil | 100 mg – 300 mg/kg feed | Increased weight gain and dressing percentage | |
| Garlic (<i>Allium sativum</i>) oil | 150 mg – 300 mg/kg feed | Modulation of fatty acid components of breast and thigh muscles | Mitsch <i>et al.</i> (2004); Jamroz <i>et al.</i> (2005); Kirkpinar <i>et al.</i> (2011). |
| <i>Moringa oliefera leaf extract</i> | 60-90 mL/ litre of water | Increased weight gain and dressing percentage | Alabi <i>et al.</i> (2016), Hassan <i>et al.</i> (2004), |
| Savory oil | 100 – 150 mg/kg feed | Improves intestinal morphology and efficient growth performance | Mousapour <i>et al.</i> (2020), Dehghani <i>et al.</i> (2018); Kirkpinar <i>et al.</i> (2011), Ghalamkari <i>et al.</i> (2011), Goodarzi <i>et al.</i> (2014), Movahhedkhah <i>et al.</i> (2019). |
| Oregano oil | 0.2 – 0.5 mL/kg feed | Better feed conversion ratio and fatty acid modulation in broilers meat | Botsoglou <i>et al.</i> (2002), Giannenas <i>et al.</i> (2016), Avila <i>et al.</i> (2012), Castillo <i>et al.</i> (2007), Florou <i>et al.</i> (2006), Giannenas <i>et al.</i> (2005), Alp <i>et al.</i> (2012); Cabrera <i>et al.</i> (2008) |

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| <i>Lavandula angustifolia</i> oil | 0.2 – 0.4 mL/litre of water | Suppress the activities of pathogenic bacteria, maintain good egg quality | Adaszynska et al. (2018), Yarmohammadi et al. (2018), Torki et al. (2021), Mokhtari et al. (2018), Wells et al. (2018). |
| Cinnamon essential oil | 0.1 – 0.3 mg/kg feed | Improves growth performance, maintain and prevents dysbiosis | El-Atki et al. (2019), Aami et al. (2010), Abo et al. (2020) |
| Clove bud extract | 10-30 mL/litre water | Improved body weight gain and feed intake | Ismail et al. (2017), Jamroz et al. (2003); Brenes and Roura (2010). |
| <i>Nigella sativa</i> oil | 0.1% - 0.3 % | Improved growth performance and carcass traits. | Burits et al. (2000), Burts (2004), Calo et al. (2015). |
| <i>Ixora coccinea</i> root extract | 1-2mL/lit. of water | Increased average daily weight gain and feed intake and decreased feed conversion ratio in broiler chickens. | Annapurna et al. (2003), Al-Harhi (2002); Burt (2000) |
| <i>Achyranthes japonica</i> root extract | 0.025 % - 0.050 % | Improved growth performance and carcass traits. | Dang et al. (2021); Ravangard et al. (2017) |
| <i>Achyranthes aspera</i> extract | 1-5 mL/ lit of water | Improved body weight gain, increased red blood cells. | Long et al. (2020); Park and Kim (2020) |
| Turmeric powder | 0.2 – 0.4 % | Scavenge free radicals and improved body weight gain | Al-Noor et al. (2011); Al-Nazawi et al. (2012); Amin and Abdou (2012); Arshami et al. (2013). |
| <i>Luffa aegyptiaca</i> leaf extract | 10 – 30 mL/ lit of water | Improved weight gain and nutrient digestibility | Alagbe (2019) |
| Turmeric powder | 2g – 5g | Increased immunoglobulins and antibody titres against Newcastle disease | Toghyani et al. (2010; 2011), South et al. (1997) |
| Ginger root powder | 100 – 200 g / ton | Reduce oxidative stress and scavenge free radicals in birds | Habibi et al. (2014); Alili et al. (2013) |

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| <i>Prosopis africana</i> oil | 100-200 mg/kg feed | Increased red blood cell and hemoglobin count, increased body weight gain and nutrient utilization | Alagbe (2022); Burt (2004); Jamroz et al. (2005). |
| <i>Anogeissus leio carpus</i> stem bark | 10 – 50 mL/ lit of water | Modulation of fatty acid of thigh muscle | Alagbe et al. (2022) |

CONCLUSIONS

Overall, residents in the municipality of Badiangan demonstrated high levels of financial literacy based on prevailing knowledge and behavior. High levels of financial knowledge lead to high levels of financial behavior. Improving people's financial literacy is equates to having improved financial knowledge and behavior. Financial literacy is to be taken seriously regardless of occupation and sex. The results of this study may aid policymakers and practitioners in formulating appropriate strategies to help people better understand the significance of financial literacy. The elevated monetary consciousness and informed decision making should be maintained through subsequent financial education to improve people's quality of life.

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