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**RETIRADA DE ANTIBIÓTICOS PROMOTORES DE CRESCIMENTO DA
ALIMENTAÇÃO DE FRANGOS DE CORTE E SUÍNOS E SUA IMPLICAÇÃO
NA PRODUÇÃO ANIMAL**

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Coorientador: Ines Andretta

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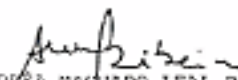
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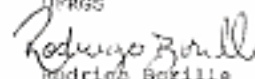
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“Quem estará nas trincheiras ao teu lado?
- E isso importa?
- Mais do que a própria guerra.”
Ernest Hemingway

Muito obrigada!

RETIRADA DE ANTIBIÓTICOS PROMOTORES DE CRESCIMENTO DA ALIMENTAÇÃO DE FRANGOS DE CORTE E SUÍNOS E SUA IMPLICAÇÃO NA PRODUÇÃO ANIMAL¹

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Resumo: Este trabalho foi realizado com o objetivo de estimar o impacto produtivo e econômico causado pela retirada dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento (AGP) da dieta de frangos de corte e suínos por meio de uma meta-análise. Foram selecionadas publicações indexadas contendo dados referentes à utilização de AGP (AGP+) ou não (AGP-), em dietas para frangos de corte e suínos. Os resultados de desempenho zootécnico (consumo de ração, ganho de peso e/ou conversão/eficiência alimentar) foram considerados. A metodologia para construção, codificação e análise das bases de dados seguiu as recomendações da literatura específica. Duas meta-análises foram realizadas pelas análises sequenciais: abordagem gráfica (para observar a coerência dos dados biológicos), correlação (para identificar fatores relacionados) e variância-covariância (para comparar grupos). O número anual de frangos e suínos abatidos no Brasil, ganho de peso alvo e conversão alimentar para cada fase, a variação na conversão alimentar, custo de alimentação e custos de AGP foram usados para construir um modelo para estimar os efeitos da retirada AGP sobre os custos de alimentação. Para complementar a análise econômica, uma análise de sensibilidade foi realizada utilizando o preço da ração contendo AGP e a diferença na conversão alimentar entre os tratamentos AGP+ e AGP-. A base de dados de frangos foi composto por 174 artigos científicos contendo 183 experimentos, totalizando 121.643 frangos de corte, sendo a maioria Ross (52% dos estudos). Os AGP mais frequentes no banco de dados foram avilamicina (41% dos tratamentos AGP +) e flavomicina (19%). Maior consumo de ração, ganho de peso e menor conversão alimentar foram atribuídos ($P < 0,05$) às dietas AGP + na fase inicial (1-21 dias). Na fase final (22-42 dias) não foram observadas diferenças nas variáveis de desempenho ($P > 0,05$). Os tratamentos AGP + apresentaram maior ganho de peso e melhor conversão alimentar no período total (1-42 dias). Os resultados da conversão alimentar foram melhorados ($P < 0,05$) com avilamicina e flavomicina; a virginiamicina melhorou o ganho de peso

e a conversão alimentar. No período total, o impacto econômico foi de US \$ 0,03 por animal e um total de US \$ 183.560.232 por ano. A base de dados de suínos continha 81 artigos científicos contendo 103 experimentos totalizando 42.923 suínos, a maioria dos quais estavam na fase pós-desmame (70% dos estudos). Os AGP mais freqüentes no banco de dados foram avilamicina (24,7% dos tratamentos AGP +) e Colistina (15,4%). Maior ganho de peso ($P < 0,05$) foi observado nas dietas AGP + pós desmame e no período total. No entanto, nenhum efeito da AGP sobre o ganho de peso de suínos em crescimento/terminação foi observado ($P > 0,05$). Melhor ($P < 0,05$) conversão alimentar em suínos alimentados com dietas AGP + foi observada no período total de criação. Ganho de peso e conversão alimentar melhoraram ($P < 0,05$) com a adição de avilamicina, bacitracina e tilosina. O impacto econômico com a retirada do AGP foi de US \$ 1,83 por animal e US \$ 79 258.694 por ano para a indústria suína brasileira. Concluiu-se que os frangos e suínos alimentados com dietas AGP + apresentam melhor desempenho que aqueles alimentados com dietas AGP -, e que a retirada do AGP aumenta os custos de produção.

Palavras-chave: aditivo, conversão alimentar, custo, análise de sensibilidade

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WITHDRAWAL OF ANTIBIOTIC GROWTH PROMOTERS FROM BROILER AND PIG DIETS AND ITS IMPLICATION IN ANIMAL PRODUCTION¹

Author: Kátia Maria Cardinal

Supervisor: Andréa Machado Leal Ribeiro

Abstract: This work was designed to stimate the productive and economic impact caused by the withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) from the diet of broilers and pigs through a meta-analysis. Indexed publications containing data regarding the use of AGP (AGP+) or not (AGP-) in diets for broilers and pigs were selected. The results of performance (feed intake, weight gain and / or conversion / feed efficiency) were considered. The methodology for building, coding and analyzing the databases followed the recommendations of the specific literature. Two meta-analyzes were performed by sequential analysis: graphical approach (to observe the coherence of biological data), correlation (to identify related factors) and variance-covariance (to compare groups). The annual number of broilers and pigs slaughtered in Brazil, target weight gain and feed conversion for each stage, variation in feed conversion, feed cost and AGP costs were used to build a model to estimate the effects of AGP withdrawal on feeding costs. To complement the economic analysis, a sensitivity analysis was performed using the price of the feed containing AGP and the difference in feed conversion between the AGP+ and AGP- treatments. The broiler database consisted of 174 scientific articles containing 183 experiments, totaling 121,643 broilers, the majority being Ross (52% of the studies). The most frequent AGP in the database were Avilamycin (41% of AGP+ treatments) and Flavomycin (19%). Higher feed intake, weight gain and lower feed conversion were attributed ($P < 0.05$) to AGP+ diets in the initial phase (1-21 days). In the final phase (22-42 days), there were no differences in performance variables ($P > 0.05$). The AGP+ treatments showed greater weight gain and better feed conversion in the Total period (1-42 days). The results of feed conversion were improved ($P < 0.05$) with Avilamycin and Flavomycin; Virginiamycin improved weight gain and feed conversion. In the total period, the economic impact was US \$ 0.03 per animal and a total of US \$ 183,560,232 per year. The pig database contained 81 scientific articles containing 103 experiments totaling 42,923 pigs, most of which were in the post-weaning phase (70% of the studies). The most frequent AGP in the database were Avilamycin (24.7% of AGP+ treatments) and Colistin (15.4%). Greater

weight gain ($P < 0.05$) was observed in the AGP+ diets after weaning and in the total period. However, no effect of AGP on the weight gain of growing / finishing pigs was observed ($P > 0.05$). Better ($P < 0.05$) feed conversion in pigs fed AGP+ diets was observed in the total rearing period. Weight gain and feed conversion improved ($P < 0.05$) with the addition of Avilamycin, Bacitracin and Tylosin. The economic impact with the withdrawal of AGP was US \$ 1.83 per animal and US \$ 79 258,694 per year for the Brazilian pig industry. It was concluded that broilers and pigs fed with AGP+ diets perform better than those fed with AGP- diets, and that the withdrawal of AGP increases production costs.

Key Words: additive, feed conversion, productive cost, sensitivity analysis

¹Doctoral thesis in Animal Science – Animal Production, Faculdade de Agronomia, Universidade Federal do Rio Grande do Sul, Porto Alegre, RS, Brazil. (103 p.) March, 2020.

Sumário

IMPLICAÇÕES NA PRODUÇÃO ANIMAL COM A RETIRADA DE ANTIBIÓTICOS PROMOTORES DE CRESCIMENTO DA ALIMENTAÇÃO DE FRANGOS DE CORTE E SUÍNOS.....	Erro! Indicador não definido.
LISTA DE TABELAS.....	12
CAPÍTULO I	15
INTRODUÇÃO	10
REVISÃO DE LITERATURA	12
<i>Antibióticos e antibióticos promotores de crescimento: um breve histórico ..</i>	<i>12</i>
<i>Possíveis mecanismos de ação dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento</i>	<i>15</i>
<i>Antibióticos promotores de crescimento na dieta de frangos e suínos</i>	<i>18</i>
<i>Meta-análise</i>	<i>21</i>
<i>Impacto econômico da retirada dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento da dieta de frangos e suínos.....</i>	<i>23</i>
HIPÓTESES E OBJETIVOS.....	25
CAPÍTULO II	26
Withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters from broiler diets: performance indexes and economic impact	27
ABSTRACT	28
INTRODUCTION	29
MATERIAL AND METHODS.....	30
RESULTS	34
DISCUSSION	36
CONCLUSION.....	41
REFERENCES	42
CAPÍTULO III	57
WITHDRAWAL OF ANTIBIOTIC GROWTH PROMOTERS FROM PIG DIETS: PERFORMANCE INDEXES AND ECONOMIC IMPACT – A META-ANALYSIS	57
Abstract	59
Introduction.....	60
Material and methods	61
Results.....	67
Discussion.....	74

Conclusions	79
References	79
CAPÍTULO IV	89
Considerações finais	90
Referências	91
APENDICES	96
Normas para formatação de artigo:	96
PLOS ONE	96
POULTRY SCIENCE.....	96

LISTA DE TABELAS

CAPÍTULO I	TÍTULO	Pg.
Tabela 1	Respostas metabólicas, fisiológicas e nutricionais associadas aos antibióticos promotores de crescimento;	16
Tabela 2	Acúmulo intra fagocitário de antibióticos que podem levar a inibição da função fagocitária;	18
Tabela 3	Antibióticos utilizados como promotores de crescimento nas dietas de frangos e suínos.	19
CAPÍTULO II		
Tabela 1.	Inputs for estimating the economic impact caused by the withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) from broiler diets;	49
Tabela 2.	Performance -obtained by meta-analysis- of broilers fed diets with (AGP+) or without antibiotic growth promoters (AGP-);	50
Tabela 3.	Total performance* - obtained by meta-analysis - of broilers fed diets containing specific antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not (AGP -);	52
Tabela 4.	Simulation of the economic impact of the antibiotic growth promoter withdrawal from broiler diets containing antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not (AGP -).	54
CAPÍTULO III		
Tabela 1.	Inputs for estimating the economic impact caused by the withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) from pig diets;	66
Tabela 2.	Performance -obtained by meta-analysis- of pigs fed diets with (AGP+) or without antibiotic growth promoters (AGP-);	68
Tabela 3.	Total performance* - obtained by meta-analysis - of pigs fed diets containing specific antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not (AGP -);	69
Tabela 4.	Simulation of the economic impact of the antibiotic growth promoter withdrawal from pig diets containing antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not (AGP -).	72

LISTA DE FIGURAS

CAPÍTULO I	TÍTULO	Pg.
Figura 1	Ganho de peso de frangos de corte recebendo ou não antibiótico promotor de crescimento, sem desafio sanitário	20
Figura 2	Ganho de peso de leitões pós desmame recebendo ou não antibiótico promotor de crescimento, sem desafio sanitário	21
CAPÍTULO II		
Figura 1.	Percentage change calculated for each treatment containing antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) in relation to its respective treatment without AGP in studies included in the database according to year of publication.	55
Figura 2.	Sensitivity analysis of antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) withdrawal of broiler diets according to the variation of the additive price and variation between feed conversion rate with or without AGP.	56
CAPITULO III		
Figura 1.	Percentage variation calculated for each treatment containing antibiotic growth promoter (AGP+) in relation to the opposite treatment without it (AGP-)	64
Figura 2.	Sensitivity analysis for antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) elimination from pig diets according to the change in the additive price and the change between feed conversion rates with and without AGP	73

LISTA DE ABREVIATURAS E SIMBOLOS

\$	Dólar
%	Porcento
AGP	<i>Antibiotic Growth Promoter</i>
APC	Antibiótico Promotor de Crescimento
BSH	Enzima sal biliar hidrolase
BWG	Ganho de peso corporal
CBA	Ácidos biliares conjugados
d	Dia
DFVA	“Danish Veterinary and Food Administration”
FCR	Conversão alimentar
FDA	“Food and Drug Administration”
FI	Consumo de ração
g	Grama
GLM	Modelo linear generalizado
IBGE	Instituto Brasileiro de Geografia e Estatística
kg	Quilograma
MAPA	Ministério da agricultura, pecuária e abastecimento
mg	Miligrama
n	Número de observações de cada média
OMS	Organização Mundial da Saúde
P	Probabilidade
R ²	Coefficiente de determinação do modelo
RSE	Erro residual padrão
USD\$	Dólar americano

CAPÍTULO I

INTRODUÇÃO

Aditivos antimicrobianos vêm sendo utilizados desde a década de 50, sendo uma alternativa importante para permitir uma produtividade adequada a animais criados sob condições cada vez mais intensivas. Atualmente os antibióticos promotores de crescimento (APC) são os principais aditivos usados na alimentação animal e estão conectados a melhorias na produtividade animal (Brown et al., 2016).

Quando é realizada uma busca no Google® acadêmico com as palavras “broiler” e “antibiotic” são apresentados como resultados 68.200 publicações e quando são utilizadas as palavras “swine” e “antibiotic” o resultado é de 175.000. Como visto, o número de publicações sobre o tema é extenso, porém os estudos são realizados com variações em local, manejo, condições de ambiência, nutrição, princípio ativo do APC, etc, variações essas que podem estar ligadas aos resultados contraditórios encontrados para variáveis de desempenho de frangos e suínos. Muitos estudos demonstraram não ocorrer diferença no ganho de peso entre animais recebendo ou não APC, porém também foram encontrados resultados relatando a eficiência do antibiótico como promotor de crescimento, com efeitos positivos no ganho de peso. Resultados contraditórios também são observados nas variáveis de consumo de ração e conversão alimentar (Albino et al., 2006; Attia et al., 2011; Aristides et al., 2012). Por outro lado, com ocorrência de desafio sanitário parece ser inequívoca a eficiência dos APC na melhoria da conversão alimentar (Baurhoo et al., 2007, Cho et al., 2014) e do ganho de peso (Cravens et al., 2013). Para suínos o efeito observado pela adição de APC na ração para as variáveis ganho de peso, consumo de ração e conversão alimentar é similar ao efeito observado em frangos. Os suínos que não são expostos a desafio sanitário e recebem APC apresentam ganho de peso igual ou superior aos que não recebem APC (Valchev et al., 2009; Yoon et al., 2014; Santana et al., 2014).

A indústria de alimentação animal tem passado por mudanças significativas, no sentido de adequar-se às novas exigências do mercado. Por parte dos consumidores há o desejo que frangos e suínos sejam criados sem o

uso de aditivos nas rações, e a classe mais pressionada pela opinião pública é a dos APC (Santana, 2011). A crescente pressão para proibir o uso destes aditivos como promotores de crescimento em rações animais é baseada na possibilidade de reações alérgicas e indução de resistência cruzada de cepas bacterianas patogênicas ao homem (Baurhoo et al., 2009).

Países como os da União Europeia especificaram legislações que proíbem o uso de antibióticos como aditivos promotores de crescimento (DFVA, 2010). No Brasil, as tetraciclina, penicilinas, cloranfenicol, sulfonamidas sistêmicas, furazolidona, nitrofurazona e avorpacina já foram proibidas como aditivos de ração (Nunes, 2008). Recentemente, em 2016, o Ministério da Agricultura Pecuária e Abastecimento normatizou a proibição do uso do sulfato de colistina como promotor de crescimento para aves, suínos e bovinos.

O banimento do uso de APC na produção de frangos e suínos possui consequências que devem ser consideradas, como a sanidade do rebanho e perdas produtivas. Sendo que há um número extenso de trabalhos já publicados sobre o tema com resultados contraditórios, a análise sistemática das publicações permitirá otimizar as informações já disponíveis na literatura, respondendo questões específicas sem despendar recursos com estudos adicionais com animais. A meta-análise aumentará a acurácia das estimativas de efeito, especialmente pela diversidade nos protocolos de pesquisas, gerando conclusões com maior precisão analítica e ajustada à diversidade experimental. A aplicação das metodologias de bioinformática permitirá a investigação das perdas produtivas e a estimativa empírica da eficiência de utilização de nutrientes de suínos e frangos de corte. Desta forma, os objetivos deste estudo são: quantificar as diferenças de desempenho em frangos de corte e suínos recebendo dietas com e sem APC por meio de uma meta-análise e estimar o impacto econômico consequente da retirada do APC da alimentação.

REVISÃO DE LITERATURA

Antibióticos e antibióticos promotores de crescimento: um breve histórico

Antibiótico é definido pela Organização Mundial de Saúde como toda substância de origem natural, sintética ou semissintética, que em baixas concentrações destrói ou inibe o crescimento de microrganismos, causando pequeno ou nenhum dano ao organismo hospedeiro. Já os antibióticos promotores de crescimento (APC) são definidos como agentes antibióticos utilizados com o propósito de aumentar o ganho de peso diário ou a eficiência alimentar em animais produtores de alimentos (WHO, 2000).

A história dos antibióticos agrícolas começa com as sulfonamidas sintéticas em 1935, quando um farmacêutico alemão comercializou Prontosil (sulfochrysoidine) (Lesch, 2007). Em 1948, a sulfaquinoxalina foi o primeiro antibiótico a ser oficialmente licenciado para inclusão em rações para aves contra a coccidiose. Em meados da década de 50, novos usos dos antibióticos foram disseminados; sprays e soluções de estreptomicina foram usados para tratar e prevenir infecções bacterianas, enquanto os conservantes de tetraciclina retardavam a deterioração em alimentos de origem animal nos Estados Unidos (Kirchhelle, 2019).

Investigando os resíduos de fermentação antibiótica como uma fonte alternativa de suplementos alimentares ricos em vitamina B12, pesquisadores descobriram que os resíduos antibióticos seriam capazes de aumentar o ganho de peso de animais, e acreditava-se que a alimentação com baixas doses de antibióticos protegesse contra doenças bacterianas (Finlay e Marcus, 2016). Os APC foram oficialmente licenciados em 1951 e inseridos rapidamente na produção animal. Rações com APC foram adotadas no setor avícola e houve o desenvolvimento de instalações de produção integrada em larga escala, facilitada pelo uso rotineiro dos antibióticos e APC (Thoms, 2012; Tessari e Godley, 2014). Os produtores de suínos foram mais resistentes ao uso de APC, pois as estruturas de criação eram menores e os manejos de criação mais variados. Porém, a situação foi sendo alterada ao longo dos anos e em 1958 estimava-se que até 50% dos suínos da Europa recebiam APC e que a maioria dos leitões desmamados tinham acesso a alimentos contendo tetraciclina.

Poucos anos mais tarde, o Ministro da Agricultura da Alemanha estimou que 80% dos alimentos para suínos jovens, bezerros e aves continham APC (Kirchhelle, 2016).

Seguindo a política de desenvolvimento dos EUA, os antibióticos foram levados para a pecuária da África, América do Sul e Sudeste da Ásia, onde os governos estavam dispostos a modernizar a agricultura com o objetivo de alavancar a economia. Essa grande disseminação dos antibióticos provocou poucas preocupações inicialmente, e durante as décadas de 1940 e 1950, americanos e soviéticos consideravam os antibióticos agrícolas como uma maneira eficaz de aumentar a produtividade animal (Kirchhelle, 2019). No Brasil, o crescimento da produção de grãos promoveu um aumento da criação intensiva, aliada ao uso de antibióticos. Entre 1968 e 1998, a produção de frango aumentou 20 vezes e se tornou cada vez mais intensiva. Até 2010, 90% das aves no Brasil eram produzidas em ambientes confinados (Silbergeld, 2016). A produção de suínos também se intensificou e, como consequência, em 2010, o Brasil foi responsável por 9% do consumo mundial de antibióticos agrícolas (Van Boeckel et al., 2015). No mesmo ano, a China se tornou o maior consumidor mundial de antibióticos agrícolas, consumindo uma parcela aproximada de 23% dos antibióticos mundiais.

A ideia quanto ao uso de antibióticos e APC mudou, de forma lenta e fragmentada, com a crescente preocupação com resíduos de antibióticos e com a resistência bacteriana (Kirchhelle, 2019). Sob intensa pressão, a instituição americana para administração de Alimentos e Medicamentos (FDA) introduziu o primeiro programa nacional de monitoramento de resíduos de penicilina no leite em 1960 (Smith-Howard, 2010). Seis anos depois, preocupações públicas e detecções de resíduos resultaram no primeiro programa nacional de monitoramento de antibióticos na carne. Também em 1960, o Serviço de Laboratório de Saúde Pública da Grã-Bretanha emitiu dados sobre aumento da resistência bacteriana em ambientes agrícolas e levaram à criação do chamado Comitê de Netherthorpe. O relatório do comitê, em 1962, sugeriu a manutenção do uso de antibióticos existentes, porém recomendou restrições sobre os novos antibióticos (Kirchhelle, 2019).

Com o descobrimento das formas de transferência de resistência bacteriana, os britânicos encomendaram uma vasta revisão sobre antibióticos

em 1968. Em novembro de 1969, o Comitê Swann recomendou uma série de reformas, das quais a restrição de antibióticos de relevância médica e de prescrição veterinária foi a mais significativa (Bud, 2009; Swann, 1969). Restrições a certos APC, como a penicilina e as tetraciclinas, foram posteriormente adotadas pela Grã-Bretanha (1971), estados membros da Comunidade Européia (1976) e Suíça (1973) (Lebek e Gubelmann, 1979; Castanon, 2007). Na Suécia, as restrições APC haviam sido introduzidas em 1977 e, em contraste com outros países, os agricultores suecos reagiram de forma proativa e pediram a proibição total do uso dos APC, que aconteceu em 1986 (Andersen, 2018; Kahn, 2016). A Suécia fez campanhas para proibição ampla dos APC e, após a crise da doença vaca louca, os Estados-membros da União Europeia estabeleceram o Sistema Europeu de Vigilância da Resistência aos Antibióticos em 1998, e os APC foram banidos em 2006 (Kirchhelle, 2016; Kahn, 2016). No Japão, os reguladores reagiram às reformas da UE banindo os aditivos avoparcina e orienticina em 1997, e anunciando recentemente que banirão o uso geral de antibióticos até 2020 (Milanov et al., 2016; Anon., 2017). O uso de antibióticos agrícolas nos EUA diminuiu recentemente (FDA, 2017), porém o uso terapêutico e profilático de antibióticos na produção animal permanece legal.

O episódio de resistência conferido pelo gene *mcr-1* em 2015 resultou na proibição da colistina no Brasil e na China (Walsh e Wu, 2017; Davies e Walsh, 2018). Já o Vietnã anunciou que reduzirá o número de antibióticos para 15 e proibirá o uso de APC até 2020 (USDA, 2016). A Índia também desenvolveu um plano de ação para reduções de antibióticos e introduziu tempos de retirada de medicamentos para a produção de gado (Kahn, 2016). E como reação das iniciativas da Organização Mundial da Saúde, Bangladesh, Butão, Indonésia, Mianmar, Nepal, Sri Lanka e Tailândia também anunciaram restrições aos antibióticos agrícolas (Goutard, 2017).

A regulamentação das cadeias de suprimento e a redução do consumo de antibióticos e APC exigirão soluções de nível global com medidas de médio a longo prazo, flexíveis e sujeitas a avaliação transparente (Kirchhelle, 2019). Planos recentes da OMS para controle da resistência bacteriana e a vigilância no uso de antibióticos são um passo importante, mas que requerem divulgação e adesão global (OMS, 2017).

Possíveis mecanismos de ação dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento

É claramente perceptível que a restrição ao uso de APC na produção de animais está se expandindo e é necessário compreender os mecanismos de ação desses aditivos para buscarmos alternativas como potenciais substitutos. Rosen (1995) revisou um total de 12.153 estudos conduzidos em animais alimentados com APC e concluiu que 72% dos APC geraram resposta positiva no desempenho animal. A magnitude das respostas foi relacionada ao tipo de manejo animal, aos procedimentos de desinfecção, à idade das estruturas da fazenda e à qualidade da ração.

Dois tipos de ação direta dos antibióticos sobre as bactérias e/ou fungos sensíveis são esperados: a morte do agente ou a parada do seu crescimento. Em teoria, seria possível obter efeito bactericida de qualquer antibiótico sobre um micro-organismo sensível quando a sua concentração é aumentada (Tavares, 1990; Mellor et al., 2000). Para um antibiótico funcionar como promotor de crescimento, este deve ser incorporado como ingrediente à ração em dosagens abaixo da concentração inibitória mínima, capazes de melhorar de forma efetiva os índices zootécnicos (Lorençon et al., 2007).

Apesar da ação direta sobre os micro-organismos estar esclarecida, o efeito dos APC *in vivo* em frangos e suínos ainda não está completamente esclarecido. Os mecanismos de ação dos APC são complexos e atuam de diferentes maneiras. Quatro principais mecanismos de ação foram propostos como explicação para o efeito de auxiliar no crescimento animal: inibição de infecções subclínicas; redução de metabólitos microbiológicos que prejudicam o crescimento; redução do uso de nutrientes por organismos microbiológicos indesejados, e o aumento da absorção e do uso de nutrientes por um animal que possui intestino com paredes mais finas (Gaskins et al., 2002; Dibner e Richards, 2005; Page, 2006).

O controle de infecções subclínicas é bastante aceito, porém de difícil comprovação. Os APC agem sobre bactérias que provocam doenças não diagnosticáveis, mas que de alguma maneira deprimem o crescimento do animal. Possivelmente, a estimulação crônica do sistema imunológico, respondendo a doenças, tem como consequência a produção de intermediários

reativos do oxigênio, óxido nítrico, lisozimas e radicais livres. As moléculas geradas são nocivas às células corporais, gerando estresse oxidativo, aumentando a demanda de nutrientes provenientes da dieta e, dessa maneira, não permitindo que o animal expresse de maneira total o seu potencial genético para crescimento (Raqib & Cravioto, 2009). Algumas respostas metabólicas, fisiológicas e nutricionais estão reportadas na Tabela 1.

Tabela 1- Respostas metabólicas, fisiológicas e nutricionais associadas aos antibióticos promotores de crescimento

Fisiológico	Nutricional	Metabólico
<i>Aumenta</i>		
Absorção de nutrientes	Retenção de energia	Síntese proteica no fígado
Consumo de ração	Retenção de nitrogênio Absorção de vitaminas Absorção de elementos traço Absorção de ácidos graxos Absorção de glicose Absorção de cálcio	Fosfatase alcalina
<i>Reduz</i>		
Tempo de trânsito intestinal	Perda de energia pelo intestino	Produção de amônia
Espessura da parede intestinal	Síntese de vitaminas	Produção de aminas tóxicas
Comprimento da parede intestinal		Fenóis aromáticos
Peso de intestino		Oxidação de ácidos graxos
Turnover das células da mucosa		Gordura excretada
		Urease da microbiota

Adaptado de Gaskins *et al.*, (2006)

Tem sido demonstrado que o efeito dos APC coincide com a diminuição da atividade da enzima sal biliar hidrolase (BSH) (Knarreborg *et al.*, 2004; Guban *et al.*, 2006; Smith *et al.*, 2014). O BSH produzido pelas bactérias intestinais catalisa a desconjugação de ácidos biliares conjugados (CBA) no intestino (Begley *et al.*, 2006). Os CBA são constituídos de um núcleo esteroide hidrofóbico que é conjugado com uma glicina ou taurina. Desta forma, os CBA são anfipáticos e funcionam como um detergente mais eficiente do que os ácidos

biliares não conjugados para emulsionar e solubilizar lipídios para digestão de gordura (Begley et al., 2006). Conseqüentemente, a atividade da BSH tem um impacto significativo na nutrição do animal, modificando o metabolismo da gordura mediada pela CBA e as funções endócrinas (Begley et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2008).

Guban et al. (2006) correlacionaram a suplementação dietética de APC para melhorar o ganho de peso com a digestibilidade da gordura em frangos de corte, os níveis populacionais diminuídos de *Lactobacillus salivarius* e um pool reduzido de sais biliares desconjugados. Com base nesses resultados, o mecanismo de ação do APC para promover o ganho de peso e melhorar a conversão alimentar está associado à redução da atividade da BSH e à melhora do metabolismo lipídico.

O mecanismo anti-inflamatório não antibiótico dos APC, teoria desenvolvida por Niewold (2007), é a primeira teoria que explica as observações de desempenho sem as aparentes contradições e inconsistências associadas às outras teorias propostas. Está bem estabelecido que muitos antibióticos têm efeitos colaterais fisiológicos, muitos dos quais são específicos da classe química do composto. No entanto, o que os antibióticos têm em comum é que eles se acumulam nas células inflamatórias (Labro, 1998, 2000). A maioria dos antibióticos acumulados aumenta a morte intracelular de bactérias e eles podem inibir a resposta imune inata.

Uma das conseqüências da inflamação intestinal é o aumento da permeabilidade intestinal macromolecular, o que aumentaria a penetração local de antibióticos de baixo peso molecular. As células fagocíticas podem acumular antibióticos, em alguns casos 10 a 100 vezes a concentração ambiente (Tabela 2). O efeito relevante desta acumulação de muitos antibióticos em células inflamatórias fagocíticas seria atenuação da resposta inflamatória. Como conseqüência, os níveis de citocinas pró-inflamatórias seriam menores que os dos animais não tratados, o que resultaria em um menor estímulo catabólico.

Os antibióticos mostraram inibir uma ou mais das várias funções diferentes das células inflamatórias (Tabela 2), quimiotaxia, produção de espécies reativas de oxigênio e produção de citocinas pró-inflamatórias. Para a produção animal, a liberação de citocinas pode ser um fator determinante, sendo que após a liberação das citocinas ocorre uma resposta de fase aguda. Além de

uma mudança na produção de proteínas hepáticas para proteínas de fase aguda, ocorre catabolismo do tecido muscular e perda de apetite (Gruys et al., 2006).

Tabela 2- Acúmulo intra fagocitário de antibióticos que podem levar a inibição da função fagocitária

Antibiótico	Acúmulo intracelular (relação intra:extra celular)	Inibição da função fagocitária
Cloranfenicol	4	Não
Beta lactâmicos	<1	Alguma/Limitada
Ciclinas	2	Sim
Quinolonas	5	Não
Macrólidos	100	Sim
Estreptogramina	40	Sim

Adaptado de Newold (2007).

A inflamação intestinal geralmente leva ao acúmulo de células inflamatórias na mucosa, levando a uma parede intestinal mais espessa. A parede intestinal mais fina observada usando APC é consistente com a inflamação reduzida devido ao influxo reduzido e ao acúmulo de células inflamatórias (Larsson et al., 2006). Isso explica por que o efeito do APC está ausente de animais livres de germes, e por que os efeitos dos APC são maiores quando os animais estão sob maior pressão infecciosa, como ocorre em certas idades, em certas condições de criação e em certas regiões (Page, 2006). E as diferentes composições microbianas ao usar APC são, nesta perspectiva, uma consequência de um estado imunológico alterado em vez de um efeito direto do APC sob a microbiota (Niewold, 2007).

Antibióticos promotores de crescimento na dieta de frangos e suínos

Os promotores de crescimento são administrados em concentrações relativamente baixas, variando de 2,5 mg/kg a 125 mg/kg (ppm), dependendo do tipo de droga e da espécie animal (WHO, 2003). Foi estimado que o consumo anual médio global de antimicrobianos por quilograma de animal produzido foi de 148 mg/kg – 1 e 172 mg/kg – 1, O que esse 1 quer dizer? 1mg/kg para frangos e suínos, respectivamente (Boeckel et al., 2015). Dados obtidos de 25 sistemas

de produção de suínos mostraram que o consumo médio de antimicrobianos é de 358 mg/kg de suínos produzidos. O mesmo estudo estimou que os suínos foram expostos, em média, 66,3% de sua vida útil a antimicrobianos nesses sistemas (Dutra, 2017). Os antibióticos utilizados como promotores de crescimento nas dietas de frangos e suínos estão listados na Tabela 3.

Tabela 3 - Antibióticos utilizados como promotores de crescimento nas dietas de frangos e suínos

Antibiótico	Espécie
Avilamicina	Frango; Suíno
Bacitracina	Frango; Suíno
Enramicina	Frango; Suíno
Flavomicina	Frango; Suíno
Halquinol	Frango; Suíno
Lincomicina	Frango; Suíno
Narasina	Suíno
Salinomicina	Suíno
Tiamulina	Suíno
Tilosina	Frango; Suíno
Virginiamicina	Frango; Suíno

Adaptado de Bresslau (2017)

O maior efeito dos APC é atribuído à melhoria da conversão alimentar, e essa resposta é a mais alta em animais geneticamente melhorados, de crescimento rápido e criados em sistemas de produção intensiva. Outros efeitos observados com o uso do APC são taxa de crescimento mais rápida, redução da mortalidade, alta resistência ao desafio promovido por doenças, melhor desempenho reprodutivo e melhor qualidade das fezes e da cama.

Frangos de corte aos 42 dias de idade que não foram expostos a desafios sanitários apresentam resultados de ganho de peso contraditórios quanto à retirada de APC da dieta. Nessa situação muitos estudos demonstraram não ocorrer diferença no ganho de peso entre animais recebendo ou não APC, porém também foram encontrados resultados relatando a eficiência do antibiótico como promotor de crescimento, com efeitos positivos no ganho de peso (Figura 1). Resultados contraditórios também são observados nas variáveis de consumo de ração e conversão alimentar (Peng et al., 2016; Silva et al., 2018 e Tayeri et al., 2018). Por outro lado, quando há algum tipo de desafio parece ser inequívoca a eficiência dos APC na melhoria da conversão alimentar (Baurhoo et al., 2007,

Cho et al., 2014) e do ganho de peso (Mallet et al., 2005; Cravens et al., 2013).

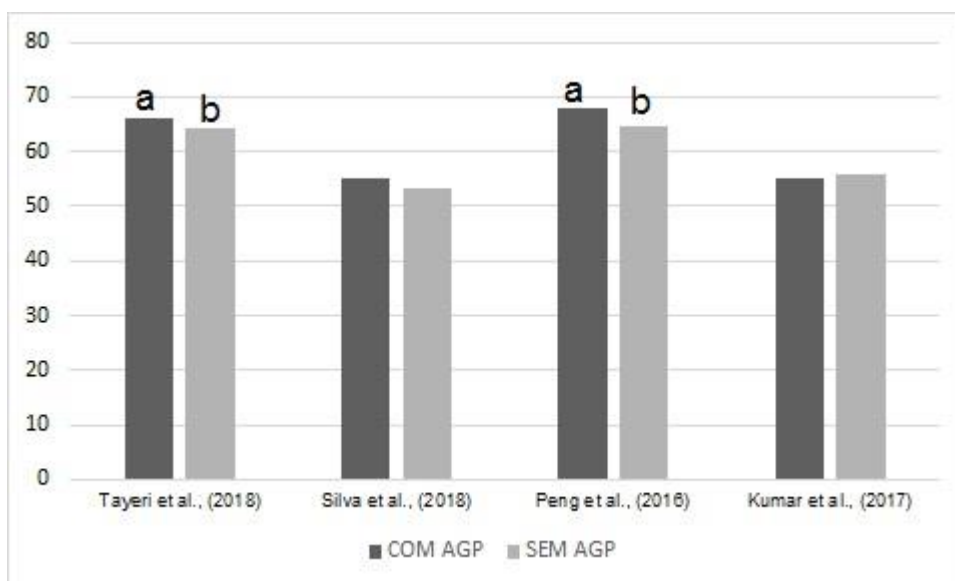


Figura 1- Ganho de peso de frangos de corte(g/dia) recebendo ou não antibiótico promotor de crescimento, sem desafio sanitário

Para suínos o efeito observado pela adição de APC na ração para as variáveis ganho de peso, consumo de ração e conversão alimentar é similar ao efeito observado em frangos. Os suínos que não são expostos a desafio sanitário e recebem APC apresentam ganho de peso igual ou superior aos suínos que não recebem APC (Valchev et al., 2009; Yoon et al., 2014; Santana et al., 2014). Quando leitões foram expostos a desafio sanitário a presença de APC na dieta resultou em melhor ganho de peso e conversão alimentar (Li et al., 2017 e Long et al., 2018). Na Figura 2 é possível observar estudos demonstrando o ganho de peso de leitões em período pós desmame recebendo ou não APC na dieta:

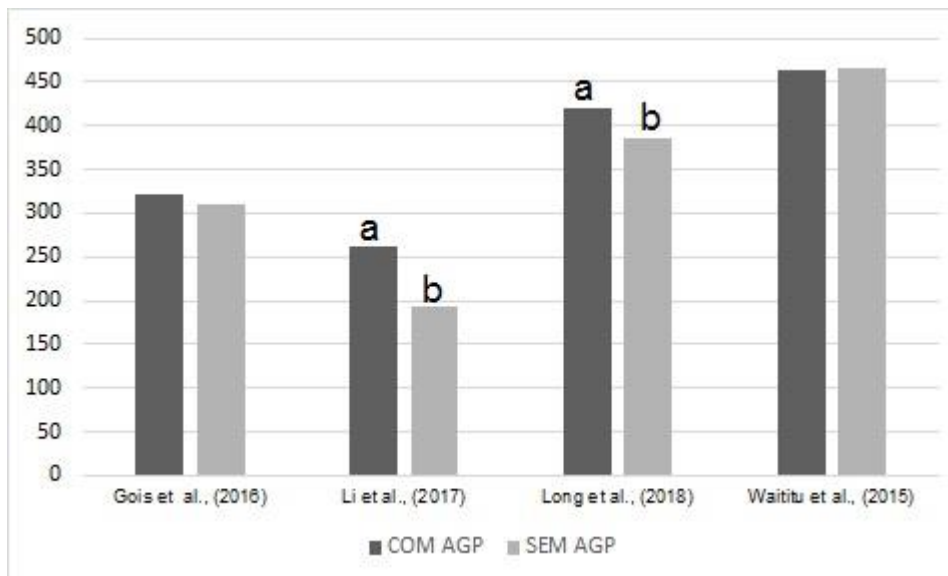


Figura 2 – Ganho de peso de leitões pós desmame (g/dia) recebendo ou não antibiótico promotor de crescimento, sem desafio sanitário

Meta-análise

A demanda por novas ferramentas analíticas é grande em áreas regidas por questões éticas, como a pesquisa com animais. Nesse contexto, as técnicas de bioinformática podem ser importantes aliadas, visto que permitem reduzir o uso de animais nos estudos e, ao mesmo tempo, obter respostas novas a partir de dados já disponíveis na literatura científica (Rodrigues et al., 2010). A meta-análise é uma técnica desenvolvida para integrar os resultados de diversos estudos em um mesmo tema de pesquisa e extrair informações adicionais destes dados (Lovatto et al., 2007). O termo também se refere a um conjunto de procedimentos para estimar a direção e a magnitude dos efeitos (Sauvant et al., 2008).

Na área animal, o emprego da meta-análise para reunir informações distintas e oriundas de diferentes condições experimentais está aumentando. Quando é realizada uma busca no Google acadêmico com as palavras “broiler” e “antibiotic” são apresentados como resultados 68.000 publicações e quando são utilizadas as palavras “swine” e “antibiotic” o resultado é de 175.000. Este crescente volume de publicações científicas gerado pelo desenvolvimento das pesquisas e conclusões obtidas em diferentes trabalhos pesquisando sobre o mesmo tema é um outro fator que tem motivado os pesquisadores a compilar

informações publicadas (Lovatto & Sauvant, 2002; Hauptli et al., 2007), na busca por resultados mais conclusivos que um único experimento poderia dar.

No Brasil as meta-análises ganharam destaque pelo uso na suinocultura, introduzida por Lovatto et al. (2006) que ensina as premissas básicas para realização desse estudo. Andretta et al. (2010) utilizaram meta-análise para avaliar o efeito do ácido linoleico conjugado no desempenho de leitões, assim como Lehnen et al. (2011) utilizaram esta metodologia para avaliar a digestibilidade ileal de aminoácidos e minerais de suínos recebendo diferentes enzimas. A meta-análise também se mostra presente em pesquisas com aves. Nascimento et al. (2011) realizaram equações de predição de energia metabolizável para alimentos energéticos, e Averós et al. (2018) avaliaram como as características dos sistemas intensivos afetam simultaneamente o desempenho e o bem-estar de frangos de corte. Todos os autores extraíram conclusões que não poderiam ser obtidas com a realização de um único experimento, confirmando a meta-análise como uma metodologia eficiente.

Sauvant et al. (2008) relacionaram as etapas que devem ser seguidas para realização de uma meta-análise: (1) determinação do tema a ser estudado, (2) seleção das publicações a serem utilizadas na construção da base de dados, (3) avaliação criteriosa da literatura disponível para que a mesma contenha os parâmetros definidos como essenciais para a tabulação, (4) tabulação dos dados em base eletrônica, (5) análise gráfica para obter visão global e identificação das relações específicas a serem investigadas, (6) aplicação de técnicas estatísticas e (7) interpretação dos resultados.

Em estudos meta-analíticos fundamentados em experimentos realizados de forma independente é necessário o uso de ponderações, para que sejam eliminados os efeitos das diferenças entre os estudos (ambiente, gênero, idade do animal, etc.), eliminando o efeito individual dos estudos para aumentar a inferência da sistematização científica, visando integrar o conhecimento disponível para criar modelos funcionais capazes de simular de forma satisfatória a realidade (Oviedo-Rondón et al., 2007; Velho et al., 2009).

Em meta-análises são utilizados dois tipos de modelos: modelos de efeito fixo e modelos de efeito aleatório. O modelo de efeito fixo é adequado quando se acredita que o efeito do tratamento é idêntico entre os estudos, quando o objetivo for estimar um efeito de tratamento para uma população específica. O

modelo de efeito aleatório pode ser utilizado quando o pesquisador combina vários estudos que tem o mesmo objetivo, mas que não foram conduzidos da mesma maneira. Neste caso, é possível extrapolar o resultado para outras populações, o que torna a análise mais abrangente (Rodrigues & Ziegelmann, 2010).

Impacto econômico da retirada dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento da dieta de frangos e suínos

Existem diversas técnicas que podem ser usadas para analisar as implicações econômicas dos antibióticos no sistema de produção. A escolha da técnica dependerá de vários fatores, como a natureza do problema, disponibilidade de dados, bem como a quantidade de recursos disponíveis para realizar a análise (Ryan, 2019).

Alguns estudos estimaram o impacto econômico potencial da proibição dos APC na indústria de suínos dos EUA, e, quando comparados, existem grandes diferenças nas estimativas de aumento de custos por suíno: USD 0,59 / suíno, (Miller, 2003), US \$ 1,37 / suíno (Miller et al., 2005), US \$ 2,33 / suíno e USD \$ 4,50 / suíno (Hayes e Jensen, 2003). Essa grande variação também foi observada nos estudos conduzidos na Dinamarca, chegando a estimar o aumento de EUR \$1,04 por suíno produzido (WHO, 2002). Para a produção de frangos, o National Research Council publicou uma estimativa de impacto feita pela indústria e concluiu que o banimento dos APC geraria um aumento de 1,76% nos custos de produção, resultando em um aumento no custo para os consumidores de US\$ 2,20 per capita por ano (NRC, 1999). Graham et al. (2007) estimou que o efeito líquido do uso de APC resultou num gasto de US\$ 0,0093 por frango. A partir desses resultados, os autores não encontraram base para a alegação de que o uso de APC reduz o custo de produção. Porém, este estudo não incluiu mudanças nos custos veterinários, assim como não considerou as mudanças no desempenho associadas à remoção dos APC.

Os resultados do impacto econômico do banimento dos APC podem não ser aplicáveis em todos os países ou em todas as granjas dentro de um país. Como descrito por alguns autores, a proibição dos APC afetaria os produtores de maneiras diferentes, alterando os resultados do impacto de acordo com a

localização, tamanho da propriedade, modalidades contratuais e práticas de produção (McBride, 2008, MacDonald e Wang, 2011). Da mesma forma, diferentes variáveis de gestão e práticas de saúde e saneamento foram destacadas em estudos que descreveram a proibição dos APC, em 1986 na Suécia (Wierup, 2001).

Foi demonstrado que granjas que produzem frangos com APC nos EUA, tendem a ser granjas com estruturas mais antigas, com equipamentos menos modernos, e são menos propensas a seguir um plano de gerenciamento de riscos de segurança (MacDonald e Wang, 2011). Laanen et al. (2013) demonstraram que a melhoria da biossegurança em rebanhos de suínos pode ajudar a reduzir a quantidade de antimicrobianos usados profilaticamente e está positivamente associada ao ganho de peso diário. Porém, até onde sabemos, não há publicações de estimativas de impacto produtivo em relação a investir em medidas de biossegurança e sistemas de produção com condições de higiene otimizadas.

HIPÓTESES E OBJETIVOS

A retirada dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento da ração de frangos e suínos piora os índices zootécnicos e, como consequência, aumenta o custo de produção destas espécies.

Os objetivos deste estudo são:

- Quantificar a relação entre o uso ou não dos antibióticos promotores de crescimento das dietas de frangos e suínos e as respostas de desempenho produtivo.
- Estimar o impacto econômico da retirada dos APCS em diferentes cenários produtivos para frangos e suínos.

CAPÍTULO II

Withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters from broiler diets: performance indexes and economic impact

Este capítulo é apresentado de acordo com as normas de publicação da revista Poultry Science

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WITHDRAWAL OF ANTIBIOTIC GROWTH PROMOTERS

Withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters from broiler diets: performance indexes and economic impact

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Scientific section for the paper: Management and Production

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22 **ABSTRACT**

23 This study aimed to estimate the productive and economic impacts caused by the
24 withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters (**AGP**) from broilers diet. Indexed
25 publications that compared diets with or without AGP (AGP+/ AGP-) for broilers (from
26 initial to final phase) were collected and results of the feed intake, weight gain and feed
27 conversion were compiled in a database. A meta-analysis was performed following
28 sequential analyses: graphical approach (to observe biological data coherence),
29 correlation (to identify related factors), and variance-covariance (to compare groups).
30 The annual number of broiler slaughtered in Brazil, target weight gain and feed
31 conversion for each phase, the variation in feed conversion, feed cost, and AGP costs
32 were used to build a model to estimate the effects of the AGP withdrawal on feeding
33 costs. The database comprised 174 scientific articles containing 183 experiments,
34 totaling 121,643 broilers, most of which were Ross (52% of the studies). The most
35 frequent AGP sources/forms in the database were Avilamycin (41% of the AGP+
36 treatments), Flavomycin (19%), Virginiamycin (16%) and Bacitracin (14%). Higher
37 feed intake, weight gain and lower feed conversion were attributed ($P<0.05$) to AGP+
38 diets during Initial phase (1-21 days). In Final phase (22-42 days) no differences were
39 observed in performance variables. Treatments AGP+ presented higher weight gain and
40 better feed conversion in the Total period (1-42 days). The results of feed conversion
41 were improved ($P<0.05$) with Avilamycin and Flavomycin; Virginiamycin improved
42 weight gain and feed conversion. In the Total period, the economic impact was \$ 0.03
43 per animal and a total of \$ 183,560,232 per year. It was concluded that broilers fed
44 AGP+ diets have higher weight gain and better feed conversion than those fed AGP-
45 diets, and withdrawing AGP increases production costs.

46 Key words: feed conversion, productive cost, sensitivity analysis, weight gain

INTRODUCTION

47

48 The pressure for reducing the use of antibiotic growth promoters (**AGP**) in
49 livestock is a growing and irreversible process, and several countries are adhering to the
50 restrictions and ban on AGP usage. Sweden was the first country which changed laws of
51 AGP usage and, in 2006, the EU imposed a complete ban of all AGP. The USA is not
52 only limiting AGP use but also moving towards a significant reduction of general
53 antibiotics usage in industrial food animal production (Salim et al., 2018). The most
54 recent effort toward AGP restriction in Brazil and China was banning the use of Colistin
55 in 2016 (Walsh and Wu, 2017; Davies and Walsh, 2018). In the same year, Vietnam
56 announced the ban AGP by 2020 (USDA, 2016). India has introduced drug withdrawal
57 time for livestock production (Kahn, 2017) and Bangladesh, Bhutan, Indonesia,
58 Myanmar, Nepal, Sri Lanka, and Thailand have announced AGP restrictions (Goutard,
59 2017). The increasing pressure to prohibit the use of these additives is based on the
60 possibility of induction of cross-resistance of pathogenic bacterial strains in people
61 (Baurhoo et al., 2009; Tang et al., 2017).

62 In broiler production, there is an estimated annual use of 148 mg.kg⁻¹ of
63 AGP (Van Boeckel et al., 2015) with the objective of obtaining better results of weight
64 gain and feed conversion. However, considerable variability in performance response to
65 AGP has been observed, contingent on genetic potential, phase of rearing, as well as
66 hygiene and management practices. Many studies have shown no weight gain difference
67 in broilers fed an AGP diet in the absence of health problems (Denev et al., 2006;
68 Baurhoo et al., 2007; El-Faham et al., 2015; Naveenkumar et al., 2017). However, other
69 studies have reported the efficiency of AGP, with positive effects on broilers weight
70 gain and feed conversion (Zhang et al., 2005; Peng et al., 2016; Wu et al., 2018).

71 It is clear that AGP restrictions in the production of animal food are

72 expanding and therefore its consequences must be studied, including its effect on broiler
73 performance and the expected economic results of such restriction. The objective of this
74 study was to quantify the performance differences in broilers receiving diets with and
75 without AGP and to estimate the economic impact of this withdrawal through the meta-
76 analysis technique.

77

78 **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

79 *Search and Data Filtering*

80 Scientific literature presenting experimental results of broiler performance
81 with AGP was searched in different online data sources (Google Scholar, ScienceDirect,
82 Scopus, Scielo, and PubMed) using the keywords: “antibiotic growth promoter” and
83 “performance” in addition to the terms “broiler” or “chicken”. The search terms were
84 tested in English, Spanish, and Portuguese. References in the final publication list were
85 also reviewed to identify any additional relevant articles. This diversity of scientific
86 databases was intended to prevent potential publication bias. Following identification,
87 the studies were critically evaluated according to relevance and quality in relation to the
88 meta-analysis objectives. Abstracts were examined by two researchers, and a record was
89 only removed from the database following agreement. At this stage, a set of information
90 about each selected study was examined against a previously prepared checklist, and
91 critically evaluated for eventual methodological errors. For the exclusion of pre-selected
92 manuscripts, the following factors were considered: presence of sanitary challenge,
93 slow-growing breeds, absence of control treatment, inconsistent methodological data,
94 error of statistical design, and gross errors in result data. The criteria for publication
95 selection were: (1) in vivo experimental evaluation of diets with AGP (AGP+) and
96 without AGP (AGP-); (2) antibiotics dosage within the recommended range for growth

97 promoters; (3) AGPs permitted in the Brazilian standard legislation of 2016 (MAPA,
98 2016); (4) initial, final and/or total period results expressed; (5) rates of feed intake,
99 weight gain, and feed conversion or feed efficiency stated; (6) year of publication from
100 1990 until 2018.

101

102 ***Data Systematization and Coding***

103 The methodology used for database construction and for data encoding
104 followed the methods described in the literature (Sauvant et al., 2005; Lovatto et al.,
105 2007). The data were entered in an electronic spreadsheet, which consisted of rows
106 representing the treatments and columns representing the exploratory and descriptive
107 variables. Relevant information to the objective of this study (body weight, feed intake,
108 weight gain, and feed conversion) and other variables (genetic strain, age, sex, dietary
109 nutritional composition, and duration of experimental period) were included to allow for
110 a descriptive analysis of the studies. Some codes were used to create grouping criteria in
111 the analytical models; the main codes were applied for the presence (AGP+) or absence
112 (AGP-) of AGP and for each antibiotic, such as "A" for Avilamycin and "B" for
113 Bacitracin. Other codes were used as moderating variables to represent the variability of
114 the compiled trials (e.g.: effect of study or trial).

115

116 ***Statistical Analysis***

117 A series of graphical analyses were used to analyze the data distribution and
118 to obtain a general view of their consistency and variance heterogeneity. Based on these
119 analyses, correlation hypotheses were formulated to define the statistical models
120 (Lovatto et al., 2007). During this step, the data distribution per year and the presence or
121 absence of AGP were evaluated. The performance data of AGP- treatments were

122 relativized according to their respective AGP+, in order to estimate the impact
123 (percentage variation) of AGP withdrawal. Additionally, the relationships between and
124 within studies were evaluated.

125 Variance-covariance analyses were conducted using the GLM procedure in
126 the Minitab 18 statistical package (Minitab Inc., State College, PA); the effects of
127 gender, type of facilities and year of publication were tested. However, the factors were
128 not significant ($P > 0.05$) and consequently, all three factors were removed from the
129 model. A mixed model was applied, considering treatments as fixed effect, while inter-
130 study codes and mean body weight were random effects ($P < 0.05$). The analyses were
131 performed considering treatments, the inter-study codes, and body weight. The variables
132 analyzed were feed intake, weight gain, and feed conversion. The analyses were
133 grouped by the rearing phase: Initial (1 to 21 d), Final (22 to 42 d), and Total phase (1 to
134 42 d). The Total phase analysis was carried out considering the entire database,
135 including both rearing phases. Individual analyses were also performed for the main
136 AGP in the database. Residual analysis was performed, and it was observed that the
137 residuals were normally distributed.

138

139 *Economic Impact*

140 The parameters obtained by meta-analysis were used to build a model that
141 estimates the withdrawal of AGP on the production costs, particularly feeding costs in
142 Brazilian scenario. Brazil was chosen for this simulation as it is a large producer and
143 exporter of broiler meat. Moreover, AGP withdrawal is an important and current debate
144 in Brazilian meat industry. The simulation (Table 1) considered the annual slaughtering
145 rate, reported at 5,840,000,000 broilers in 2017 (IBGE, 2017), the target weight gain
146 and feed conversion for each phase (AGP+), the variation in feed conversion (obtained

147 from the meta-analysis), as well as feed and AGP costs (information provided by a local
148 feed factory).

149 Equations for economic impact simulation:

150 Cost of feeding per animal = $\alpha \times \left(\frac{\beta}{1000}\right)$ (1)

151 Where: α : feed intake of the phase (kg/day), and β : cost of feed (\$/ton).

152 Feed intake of the phase = $\tau \times FCR$ (2)

153 Where: τ : weight gain of the phase (kg) and FCR: feed conversion (kg/kg).

154 Cost of feed: $\mu + y$ (3)

155 Where: μ : price of feed (\$/ton) and y : price of AGP (\$/ton).

156 Cost of feeding herd/year: $\left(\alpha \times \left(\frac{\beta}{1000}\right)\right) \times N$ (4)

157 Where: N : number of slaughters in the year (head).

158 The performance data of animals that received and did not receive AGP was
159 used in the equations, and the difference between the results was calculated to estimate the
160 economic impact.

161 The currency conversion rate used for the calculation of production costs in
162 USD was: \$1.00 = R\$ 3.75.

163 A sensitivity analysis was performed using the key variables “feed conversion”
164 and “AGP price.” It indicates whether one or more variables can have an impact on the
165 economic results of a production system and influence its profitability (Saltelli et al.,
166 2000). To define the scenarios in which the withdrawal of AGP would have a negative
167 economic impact, the range between feed conversion in AGP+ and AGP- treatments
168 was increased from 0.0% to 5.0%, and the price of AGP was halved and increased up to
169 five times. When the value of the economic impact was greater than zero, AGP
170 withdrawal was judged as an economically sound strategy, and when the impact value
171 was less than zero, AGP use was judged as a better economic decision to avoid financial

172 loss. The price of feed used to evaluate the Total phase was utilized in the sensitivity
173 analysis. In this study, only the feed cost was considered; therefore, other factors such
174 as management and sanitary costs were not included in the economic impact model.

175

176 **RESULTS**

177 *Composition of Database*

178 The database consisted of 174 articles (listed in Supplementary Table 1)
179 containing 183 experiments. The majority of selected papers (98%) were published
180 between 1998 and 2018 (Figure 1), and studies were developed in Brazil (14%), Korea
181 (12%), Canada (9%), USA (9%) and other countries (56%), such Africa, Egypt, China,
182 France, Israel, among others. The total number of broilers used in all trials was 121,640,
183 with the initial and final body weight of 0.45 and 2.3 kg, respectively. The most used
184 strains were Ross (52% of the treatments), Cobb (28%) and Arbor Acres (10%). Groups
185 with mixed sexes were used in 20% of the database studies, while treatments with males
186 and females separated, represented 60% and 2% of the total, respectively. The sex of the
187 animals was not described in 18% of the studies. The Initial phase was described in
188 16% of the studies, and the Final phase and Total in 7% and 22%, respectively. The
189 majority of the studies (55%) described the performance per week of production. The
190 most frequent antibiotics in the database were Avilamycin (41% of the AGP+),
191 Flavomycin (19%), Virginiamycin (16%) and Bacitracin (14%). Pens and battery
192 housing systems were used in 75% and 15% of the database studies, respectively. A
193 summary of the manuscripts is available in Supplementary Table 2.

194

195 *Performance*

196 The AGP + presented a positive impact on broiler performance. A negative

197 variation in weight gain was observed in 76% of comparisons between AGP + / AGP-
198 treatments in the database (Figure 1). Likewise, better feed conversion was observed in
199 84% of individual comparisons among treatments. However, it is important to point out
200 that some of these variations were not statistically significant in the original studies.

201 In the meta-analyze, feed intake showed better result ($P < 0.05$) to AGP+ in the
202 Initial phase (1 to 21 days), but no effects ($P > 0.05$) were observed in the Final phase
203 (22 to 42 days) and Total phases (1 to 42 days) (Table 2). The weight gain presented a
204 grather result ($P < 0.05$) when AGP+ diets were used in the Initial and Total phases, but
205 no difference was observed in the Final phase ($P > 0.05$), with 2.79 and 3.84%
206 differences between AGP+ and AGP-. Feed conversion had better results ($P < 0.05$) in
207 AGP+ in Initial and Total phases, and no difference was observed in Final phase. The
208 biggest difference between AGP+ and AGP- was 3.48% in Total phase, followed by
209 Initial with 2.64%.

210 Analyzing each AGP individually (Table 3), feed intake was not influenced by
211 the treatments ($P > 0.05$), regardless of the AGP analyzed. The addition of Avilamycin
212 and Flavomycin did not result in any detectable difference between AGP + and AGP -
213 ($P > 0.05$) in weight gain. Virginiamycin showed positive effect on weight gain ($P <$
214 0.05) in AGP + compared to AGP-. Avilamycin, Flavomycin, and Virginiamycin
215 showed better results ($P < 0.05$) of feed conversion in AGP+.

216

217 ***Economic Impact***

218 AGP withdrawal in Initial phase and Total period increased the production
219 cost in \$ 0.01 and \$ 0.03 per animal, totalizing an amount of \$ 38 950 725 and \$ 183
220 560 232 per year in Brazil (Table 4).

221 In the sensitivity analysis (Figure 2), "AVOID" indicates when it is possible

222 not to use AGP without having a negative economic impact and "USE" indicates when
223 the use of AGP usage is important to avoid economic losses. There is little elasticity
224 between the variables not to use the AGP without economic losses. If the price of AGP
225 increases five times compared to the current price, and the variation between the feed
226 conversion of AGP+ and AGP- is at a maximum of 0.5%, there will be no economic
227 losses taking out AGP. If the price of AGP is half of the current price with zero
228 variation in feed conversion, there will be no negative economic impact. However, in
229 the situation of the half of current price, a variation in feed conversion higher than
230 0.15% indicates the use of the additive. With the current AGP price and the results of
231 feed conversion found in the meta-analysis (2.64% in Initial, 1.50% in the Final phase
232 and 3.48% in Total period), there will be economic losses withdrawing AGP.

233

234

DISCUSSION

235 A reduction in the effectiveness of AGP in the last 30 years was suggested
236 by Laxminarayan et al. (2015), which may be linked to optimization of production
237 conditions, increasing in the baseline weight gain of animals, increasing level of
238 resistance, and potential switch in the type of molecules used. In contrast, the "year"
239 effect was not significant in the current meta-analysis. This result may be associated to
240 the fact that the studies selected to compose the database did not have any type of
241 sanitary challenge.

242 Our results showed a clear connection between AGP feed supplementation
243 and broiler performance, which was particularly evident in feed conversion and weight
244 gain in Initial (1 - 21 d) and Total (1 - 42 d) phases and feed intake in the Initial phase.
245 Instead, no relation between AGP usage and growth was found in the Final (22 - 42 d)
246 phase. A multitude of factors can influence the performance results, including the

247 environment, stress and diet characteristics. Different mechanisms of action have been
248 proposed and several studies have been carried out to explain AGP function: a growth-
249 promoting effect may be associated to modification of some intestinal characteristics in
250 the first week of life of chickens, as deeper crypts in the ileum, indicating faster tissue
251 development (Miles et al., 2006). In addition, the studies show the ability of AGP to
252 reduce normal early microbial proliferation, and hence competition for nutrients during
253 the gut maturation, which takes approximately 6 to 9 days in chicks (Geyra et al., 2001).
254 These alterations may be related to better nutrient absorption, resulting in lower feed
255 intake and greater weight gain when compared to chickens that do not receive AGP in
256 the Initial phase. Nutrient absorption is not the intestines' sole function, as they perform
257 an immunological role as well (Round et al., 2010). The close and intermittent contact
258 of the gastrointestinal mucosa with the enteric microbiota results in a constant state of
259 inflammation (Biancone et al., 2002) and can influence macromolecular intestinal
260 permeability (MacDonald and Monteleone, 2005). AGP accumulates in inflammatory
261 cells and enhance the intracellular killing of bacteria, inhibiting the innate immune
262 response (Labro, 1998, 2000). Therefore, the use of AGP decreases the catabolic costs
263 of maintaining an immune response by allowing more resources to be dedicated to
264 anabolic processes (Niewold, 2007). The first days of life of a chicken can be
265 considered stressful, since it happens the vaccination management, transportation,
266 setting in new place and microbial exposures resulting from living on litter, as well as
267 the introduction of a diet with anti-nutritional factors (Yassin et al., 2009; Willis et al.,
268 2008). Considering the hypothesis of a non-antibiotic action of AGP, which results in a
269 reduced intestinal inflammatory response (Niewold, 2007), this may be an explanation
270 why AGP results in positive effects on the Initial phase. On the other hand, broilers in
271 Final phase are much more able to cope with stressors, because the first contact with

272 microorganisms has already occurred and it results in a lower level of immune response
273 (Koutsos and Klasing, 2014), and there is a reduction on total stress, since the
274 adaptation of the animal to the environment already occurred.

275 Also (who?) has been proposed that AGP growth-promoting effect does coincide
276 with a decrease in bile salt hydrolase (**BSH**) activity in the gut (Knarreborg et al., 2002,
277 2004, Guban et al., 2006, Lin et al., 2014). The lactobacilli are present in the crop and in
278 the digestive tract (Lu et al., 2003, Hilmi et al., 2007), and this genus is responsible for
279 BSH production, active in the small intestine (Moser and Savage, 2001), impairing the
280 emulsification and absorption of dietary lipid. Other authors affirm that AGP is the most
281 common dietary intervention to modulate the gut microbiota (Dibner and Richards,
282 2005) and the activity of the intestinal microbiota, including both pathogenic and
283 commensal bacteria (Lin et al., 2013). Some differences in the spectrum of activities,
284 differing gut microbiota effects could be expected between different AGP, and this has
285 been demonstrated in some studies (Neumann and Suen, 2015; Costa et al., 2017). As
286 an example, Zinc bacitracin increased the diversity of the cecal microbiota of Cobb
287 broilers, with increases in *Faecalibacterium* and *Ruminococcus torques* phylotype, and
288 reductions in *Lactobacillus salivarius* phylotype and *Eubacterium* (Crisol-Martínez et
289 al., 2017). All these mechanisms acting as interrelated multi factors may explain the
290 best results observed in the Total period of rearing.

291 When AGP was analyzed individually, there is variation in performance
292 responses. However, there is an improvement in feed conversion regardless of the AGP
293 used. Avilamycin is an oligosaccharide classified as an orthosomycin. The
294 Virginiamycin is a streptogramin combination that is a fermentation product of
295 *Streptomyces virginiae* and Flavomycin is a polypeptide obtained from *Streptomyces*
296 *bambergiensis* and *Streptomyces ghanaensis* (Giguère, 2013). The different results may

297 be associated with the effectiveness of AGP in different mechanisms of action in the
298 organism and the rearing phase of the animal. Niewold (2007) reported that AGP
299 compounds can essentially be divided into groups based on their interaction with
300 inflammatory cells, as non-accumulating, accumulating without inhibition of function,
301 and accumulating with inhibition of function; for example, cyclines, macrolides
302 (Tylosin) and peptides (Bacitracin) showed phagocyte-inhibition function (Labro,
303 2000). In another proposed mode of action, tetracycline antibiotics were consistently
304 potent inhibitors of BSH. Both Roxarsone and Oxytetracycline inhibited BSH activity
305 by over 95%. The β -lactam and lincosamide displayed a relatively lower inhibitory
306 effect on BSH activity, and macrolide and peptides had a weak effect on BSH (Smith et
307 al., 2014). In another point of view, there are different metabolites changes by dietary
308 supplementation with AGP. Many long chain fatty acids in the intestine of bacitracin-
309 supplemented were increased, but not in virginiamycin-supplemented chicks. At the
310 same time, levels of amino acid metabolites (lysine and tryptophan) were substantially
311 altered by dietary supplementation with virginiamycin or bacitracin (Gadde et al.,
312 2018). The mechanisms of action of AGP are not yet completely clear, so it is not
313 possible to attribute which one of them is linked to the differences in results.

314 The productive impact considered in this study was focused on the broilers
315 feeding, and this can become part of a more complete economic impact analysis, taking
316 in account aspects such as sanity, productive structure, labor, housing period, among
317 others. Although it is based in a very simple approach, the model may provide relevant
318 information for nutritionists and producers while facilitating the decision-making
319 process. Some costs associated with the production system are difficult to measure and
320 have not been included in the economic calculations (Kjeldsen et al., 2006). Different
321 authors report that the economic impact will affect producers differently, since there is a

322 variation in the factors considered in the characterization of the productive scenario,
323 such as farm size, contracting arrangements, and production practices (McBride et al.,
324 2008; McDonald and Wang, 2011). On the other hand cost of feed is estimated to be
325 more than 70% of the total production cost.

326 To better understand our findings in relation to production costs, it is safe to
327 consider that the sum of feed and AGP cost increases total feeding costs, which
328 conversely reduces feed cost by improving feed conversion ratio. The meta-analysis
329 highlighted a reduction in broiler performance when fed AGP- diets, which may lead to
330 an increase in production costs. Considering the current situation (AGP prices and 3.48
331 % of better feed conversion using AGP), the results from Total performance showed an
332 increase of 0.8% in the cost of production per animal with the withdrawal of AGP.
333 However, if techniques to reduce close to zero the difference in feed conversion
334 between AGP+ and AGP- are used, it will be possible to raise broilers without AGP, as
335 can be observed in the sensitivity analysis. To reduce the variation in feed conversion it
336 is necessary to implement new management, using the biosecurity as a tool to reduce
337 diseases (Gelaude et al., 2014) and vaccination to improve the overall health status,
338 reducing the risk of secondary infections (M'Sadeq et al., 2015). As coccidiosis is
339 considered a great risk factor to broilers reared without AGP, it is of foremost
340 importance to understand *Eimeria* spp. cycle and the immunization process in flocks to
341 benefit intestinal health (Parent et al., 2018). Also, the optimization of the climate and
342 housing conditions and nutritional strategies are necessary to reduce the variation
343 between AGP+ and AGP-. Various feed additives such as essential oils, copper sulfate,
344 zinc oxide, probiotics, and prebiotics have been studied (Huyghebaert et al., 2011; Ali et
345 al., 2017; Moraes et al., 2019) aimed to replace AGP. The use of organic acids in broiler
346 diet can have a beneficial effect on the performance by decreasing pathogenic bacteria,

347 like *Salmonella*, *Campylobacter* and *Escherichia coli* (Naseri et al. 2012). Polycarpo et
348 al. (2017) observed a significant interaction between organic acids and microbiological
349 challenge on FCR. Under experimental conditions carried out without microorganism
350 inoculation, the organic acids improved broilers' FCR and presented similar results to
351 antibiotics. Adding organic acid to the drinking water helps to regulate gut microbiota
352 and to increase the digestion of feed (Açıkgöz et al., 2011; Hamed and Hassan, 2013).
353 Although it is possible to reduce the variation in feed conversion between AGP+ and
354 AGP-, there is still a long way. It is necessary to evaluate strategies to improve
355 productivity without the use of AGP and analyze other factors that directly interfere in
356 the production cost besides the feeding.

357

358

CONCLUSION

359 Broilers fed diets with AGP show better performance in the total period of
360 rearing, mainly because of its effect on the initial phase. The AGP withdrawal from
361 broiler diet presents different results of performance in total phase according to the AGP
362 used. The worse performance of broilers with withdrawal of AGP becomes a significant
363 increase in production costs.

364

365

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368

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544 **Table 1.** Inputs for estimating the economic impact caused by the withdrawal of antibiotic
 545 growth promoters (AGP) from broiler diets

<i>Inputs</i>	Initial phase (1-21 days)	Total Period (1-42 days)
Annual slaughterings, heads	5.840.000.000	5.840.000.000
Weight gain, kg	0.80	2.50
Feed conversion target (AGP+), kg/kg	1.47	1.66
Feed conversion variation ¹ , %	2.64	3.48
Feed cost, \$/ton	232.00	230.00

546 ¹Feed conversion variation: Variation between diets with and without AGP obtained by the
 547 meta-analysis.

548

549 **Table 2.** Performance -obtained by meta-analysis- of broilers fed diets with (AGP+) or
 550 without antibiotic growth promoters (AGP-)

Variable	Treatments		P	RSE	R ²	%
	AGP+	AGP-				
Initial (1-21 days)						
Feed intake, g/d	55 (n:86)	56 (n:75)	0.005	1.059	99.15	1.78
Weight gain, g/d	38 (n:87)	37 (n:76)	< 0.001	1.043	98.29	2.70
Feed conversion, g/g	1.47 (n:86)	1.51 (n:75)	< 0.001	0.049	92.66	2.64
Final (22-42 days)						
Feed intake, g/d	161 (n:37)	162 (n:34)	0.111	2.952	98.21	0.61
Weight gain, g/d	82 (n: 39)	82 (n:36)	0.561	1.841	97.70	0.00
Feed conversion, g/g	1.96 (n:37)	1.99 (n:34)	0.128	0.056	96.01	1.50
Total (1-42 days)						
Feed intake, g/d	90 (n:476)	91 (n:452)	0.127	15.707	87.85	1.09
Weight gain, g/d	54 (n:513)	52 (n:489)	0.040	8.886	82.62	3.84
Feed conversion, g/g	1.66 (n:482)	1.72 (n:458)	< 0.001	0.157	74.61	3.48

551 P: Probability of treatment effect. The models included the study effect ($P < 0.001$).

552 RSE: Residual standard error.

553 R^2 : Coefficient of determination of the model.

554 %: Percentage change between AGP+ and AGP-.

555 n: Number of studies observations in each mean.

556

557 **Table 3.** Total performance* -obtained by meta-analysis- of broilers fed diets
 558 containing specific antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not (AGP -)

Variable	Treatments		P	RSE	R ²
	AGP+	AGP-			
Avilamycin					
Feed intake, g/d	91 (n:200)	93 (n:199)	0.108	15.786	87.51
Weight gain, g/d	54 (n:219)	53 (n:218)	0.248	8.952	82.47
Feed conversion, g/g	1.63 (n:206)	1.71 (n:205)	< 0.001	0.118	82.17
Flavomycin					
Feed intake, g/d	90 (n:102)	91 (n:93)	0.743	24.082	78.41
Weight gain, g/d	51 (n:104)	51 (n:95)	0.622	9.921	78.13
Feed conversion, g/g	1.72 (n:102)	1.76 (n:93)	0.037	0.312	67.39
Virginiamycin					
Feed intake, g/d	83 (n:65)	85 (n:64)	0.566	14.406	88.45
Weight gain, g/d	49 (n:70)	47 (n:69)	0.042	9.117	78.77
Feed conversion, g/g	1.68 (n:65)	1.75 (n:64)	0.015	0.165	76.63

559 *The model considered the effect of the study ($P < 0.001$) and the mean weight of animals
560 as adjusted variable ($P < 0.001$).

561 P: Probability of treatment effect. The models included the study effect ($P < 0.001$).

562 RSE: Residual standard error.

563 R^2 : Coefficient of determination of the model.

564 %: Percentage change between AGP+ and AGP-.

565 n: Number of studies observations in each mean.

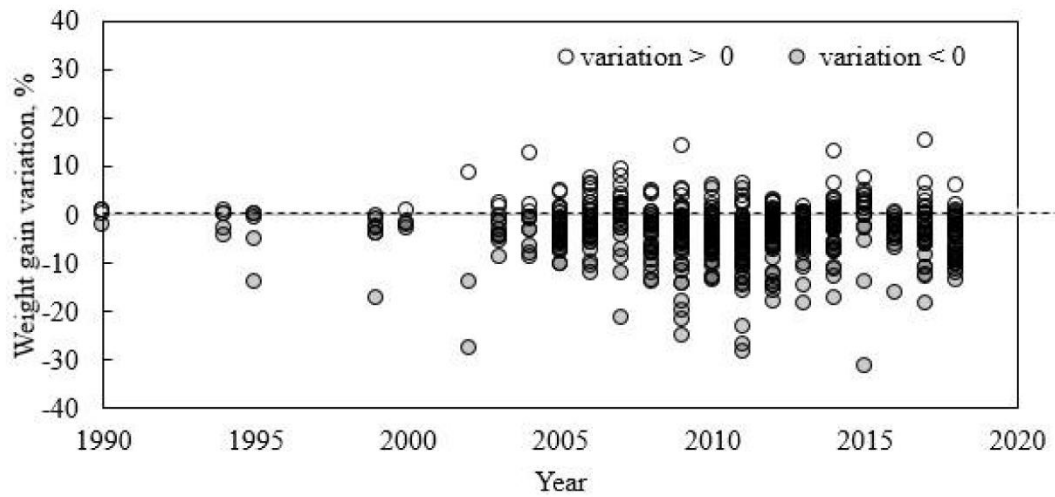
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567 **Table 4.** Simulation of the economic impact of the antibiotic growth promoter
568 Withdrawal from broiler diets containing antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or not
569 (AGP -)

	Treatments		Variation
	AGP+	AGP-	
Initial (1-21 days)			
Feed conversion, g/g	1.47	1.51	2.64
Feed intake, g/animal	1155	1176	1.78
Feeding cost, \$/animal	0.27	0.28	0.01
Feeding cost ¹ , \$/year	1,596,452,300	1,635,403,026	38,950,725
Total (1-42 days)			
Feed conversion, g/g	1.66	1.72	3.48
Feed intake, g/animal	4.150	4.290	0.14
Feeding cost, \$/animal	0.96	0.99	0.03
Feeding cost, \$/year	5,601,424,320	5,784,984,552	183,560,232

570 ¹Feeding cost: considering 5.840.000.000, slaughtered broilers/year (IBGE, 2017).

571



572

573 **Figure 1.** Percentage change calculated for each treatment containing antibiotic growth
 574 promoter (AGP) in relation to its respective treatment without AGP in studies included
 575 in the database according to year of publication.

576

Variation between feed conversion (AGP+ and AGP-; %)	Variation in price of AGP					
	X/2	X ¹	2X	3X	4X	5X
0.00	AVOID ²	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.15	USE ³	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.30	USE	USE	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.50	USE	USE	USE	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
1.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	AVOID	AVOID
2.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
3.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
4.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
5.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE

577

578 **Figure 2.** Sensitivity analysis of antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) withdrawal of broiler
579 diets according to the variation of the additive price and variation between feed
580 conversion rate with or without AGP.

581 ¹X: current price of antibiotic growth promoter.

582 ²AVOID: the situation where it is possible to raise broilers without AGP with no
583 economic losses.

584 ³USE: the situation where it is indicated the use of AGP to have no economic losses.

585

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CAPÍTULO III

Withdrawal of antibiotic growth promoters from pig diets: performance indexes and economic impact – A meta-analysis

Este capítulo é apresentado de acordo com as normas de publicação da revista Plos One

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2 WITHDRAWAL OF ANTIBIOTIC GROWTH PROMOTERS FROM PIG DIETS:
3 PERFORMANCE INDEXES AND ECONOMIC IMPACT – A META-ANALYSIS

4

5

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22

23 **Abstract**

24 This study aimed to estimate the productive and impact on feeding costs caused
25 by the elimination of antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) from pig diet. Indexed
26 publications that compared diets with AGP (AGP+) or without AGP (AGP-) for
27 pigs (from weaning to finishing phases) were collected, and the performance
28 results (feed intake, weight gain, and/or feed conversion/efficiency) were
29 compiled in a database. A meta-analysis was performed following sequential
30 analyses: graphical approach (to observe biological data coherence), correlation
31 (to identify related factors), and variance-covariance (to compare groups). The
32 target weight gain and feed conversion, the variation in feed conversion, feed
33 cost, and AGP cost were used to build a model which estimates the effects of
34 AGP withdrawal on feed cost. The database comprised 81 scientific articles
35 containing 103 experiments totaling at 42,923 pigs, most of which were in the
36 post-weaning phase (70% of the studies). The most frequent AGP in the
37 database were Avilamycin (24.7% of the AGP+ treatments), Colistin (15.4%),
38 Tiamulin (11.7%), Tylosin (8.0%), Lincomycin (9.4%), and Bacitracin (5.4%).
39 Higher weight gain ($P < 0.05$) was observed in AGP+ diets post weaning (6.57%),
40 as well as during the overall period (from post-weaning to finishing phases)
41 (4.41%). However, no effect of AGP on the weight gain of growing-finishing pigs
42 was observed. Better ($P < 0.05$) feed conversion in pigs fed AGP+ diets was
43 observed in all rearing phases. Weight gain and feed conversion improved ($P <$
44 0.05) with the addition of Avilamycin, Bacitracin, and Tylosin. The AGP
45 withdrawal in the post-weaning phase increased the impact on feeding costs by
46 USD \$0.86 per animal and in the growing-finishing phase the increase was USD
47 \$ 3.11. It was concluded that pigs fed AGP+ diets have higher performance than

48 those fed AGP- diets, and that the withdrawal of AGP increases the feeding costs.

49

50 **Introduction**

51 Antimicrobial additives have been used in animal feed since the 1950s,
52 and the consumption of antibiotics and antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) is
53 expected to increase by 67% between 2010 and 2030. This prediction is related
54 to the shifting production practices in middle-income countries, where large scale
55 intensive farming routinely uses AGP to address sanitary pressure and
56 hazardous management practices [1]. This result can be an overestimation,
57 taking in account the compliance of many countries with the restrictions on AGP
58 use, and in some cases, the complete ban of AGP use in animal production.
59 Sweden was the first country in the EU to impose such a ban of all AGP in 2006;
60 the USA is not only limiting AGP use, but is also moving toward a significant
61 reduction of general antibiotic usage in industrial food animal production [2]. The
62 most recent effort toward AGP restriction in Brazil and China was banning the
63 use of colistin in 2016 [3,4]. In the same year, Vietnam announced the ban of AGP
64 by 2020 [5]. India [6], Bangladesh, Bhutan, Indonesia, Myanmar, Nepal, Sri
65 Lanka, and Thailand [7] have also imposed AGP restrictions. The increasing
66 pressure to prohibit the use of these additives is based on the possibility of
67 allergic reactions and induction of cross-resistance of pathogenic bacterial strains
68 in humans [8,9].

69 In industrial pig production, AGP are used to improve intestinal function,
70 thereby helping to reduce the incidence of diarrhea in post-weaning animals
71 [10,11]. There is considerable variability in the performance responses to AGP,
72 contingent on genetic potential, age, as well as hygiene and management

73 practices. Many studies have shown no weight gain difference in animals fed an
74 AGP diet in the absence of health problems [12,13,14,15]. However, other studies
75 have reported positive effects of AGP on pig weight gain and feed conversion
76 [16,17,18,19], mainly during the growing and finishing stages of production [20].

77 It is clear that AGP use restriction in the production of food animals is
78 expanding and therefore its consequences must be studied, including its effect
79 on pig production performance and the expected economic results on feeding
80 cost of such restriction. The objective of this study was to quantify the
81 performance differences in pigs receiving diets with and without AGP, and to
82 estimate the impact on feeding costs of AGP withdrawal.

83

84 **Material and methods**

85 **Search, Data Filtering and Coding**

86 Scientific literature presenting experimental results of pig performance with
87 antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) were searched for in different online data
88 sources (Google Scholar, ScienceDirect, Scopus, Scielo, and PubMed) using the
89 keywords: “antibiotic growth promoter” and “performance” in addition to the terms
90 “swine” or “pig”. As strategy, "AND", "OR" and "*" were used to aid in the search,
91 aiming to find as many studies as possible. The search terms were tested in
92 English, Spanish, and Portuguese. References cited in the resulting publication
93 list were also reviewed to identify any additional relevant articles. This diversity
94 of scientific databases was intended to prevent potential publication bias.
95 Following identification, abstracts were examined by two researchers, and a
96 record was only removed from the database following agreement. At this stage,

97 the studies were critically evaluated according to relevance and quality in relation
98 to the meta-analysis objectives. A set of information about each selected study
99 was examined against a previously prepared checklist, and critically evaluated
100 for eventual methodological errors. For the exclusion of pre-selected
101 manuscripts, the following factors present in the checklist (S1) were considered:
102 presence of sanitary challenge, slow-growing breeds, absence of control
103 treatment, inconsistent methodological data, error of statistical design such as
104 factorial design analyzed as simple difference in means, and gross errors in result
105 data. The criteria for publication selection were: (1) *in vivo* experimental
106 evaluation of diets with AGP (AGP+) or without AGP (AGP-); (2) antibiotics
107 dosage was within the recommended range for growth promoters; (3) the AGP
108 used was permitted in the Brazilian standard legislation of 2016; (4) the
109 experimental pigs were in post-weaning, growing, or finishing phases; (5) the
110 rates of feed intake, weight gain, and feed conversion or feed efficiency were
111 stated; (6) year of publication was 1990 until 2018.

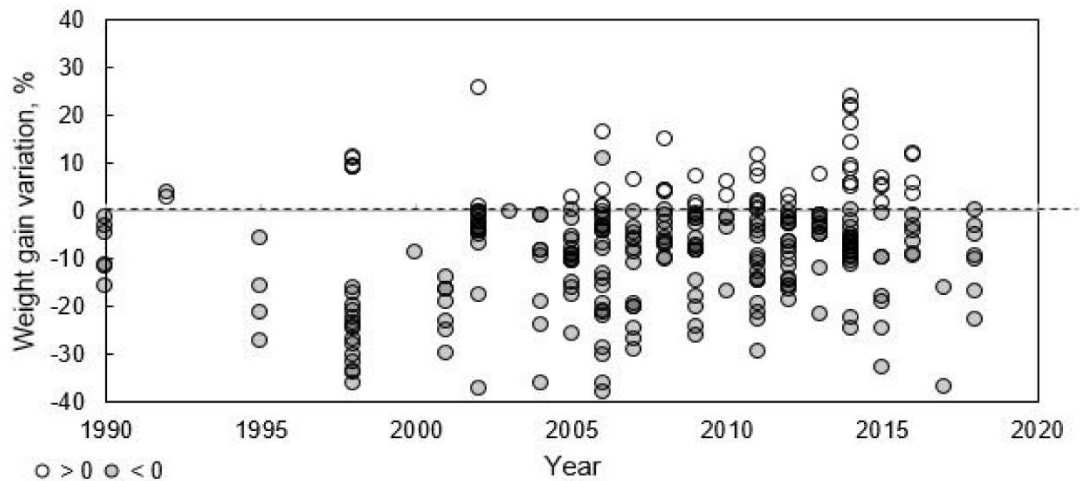
112 The methodology used for database construction and data encoding
113 followed the methods described in the literature [21,22]. The data were entered in
114 an electronic spreadsheet, which consisted of rows representing the treatments
115 and columns representing the exploratory and descriptive variables. Information
116 relevant to the objective of the study (body weight, feed intake, weight gain, and
117 feed conversion) and other variables (genetic strain, age, sex, dietary nutritional
118 composition, and duration of the experimental period) were included to allow for
119 a descriptive analysis of the studies. Some codes were used to create grouping
120 criteria in the analytical models; the main codes were applied for the presence
121 (AGP+) or absence (AGP-) of AGP and for each antibiotic, such as "A" for

122 Avilamycin and "B" for Bacitracin. Other codes were used as moderating
123 variables to represent the variability of the compiled trials (e.g.: effect of study or
124 trial).

125

126 **Composition of the database**

127 The database consisted of 81 articles containing 103 experiments (S2).
128 The majority of the selected papers (97%) were published between 1998 and
129 2018 (Fig 1), and studies were developed in China (20%), Brazil (16%), USA
130 (16%), Canada (9%), and other countries (31%), such Greece, Spain, Poland,
131 and Korea. The total number of pigs used in all trials combined was 42,932, with
132 17.3 and 30.4 kg as the average of the initial and final body weights, respectively.
133 Weaned pigs were used in 70% of the studies (average age at weaning: 23 days,
134 minimum: 14 days, maximum: 35 days), and the performance of pigs in the
135 growing-finishing phase was evaluated in 20% of the articles, while the last 10%
136 did not include a description of the production phase. The average duration of the
137 experiments was 29 days (maximum: 134 days). The most frequent antibiotics in
138 the database were Avilamycin (24.7% of AGP+ treatments), Colistin (15.4%),
139 Tiamulin (11.7%), Tylosin (8.0%), Lincomycin (9.4%), and Bacitracin (5.4%).
140 Mixed-sex groups were used in 47% of the reviewed studies, and treatments with
141 male-only or female-only groups represented 7% and 2% of the total,
142 respectively. The gender of the pigs was not stated in the remaining 44% of the
143 studies.



144

145 **Fig 1. Percentage variation calculated for each treatment containing**
 146 **antibiotic growth promoter (AGP+) in relation to the opposite treatment**
 147 **without it (AGP-). Data collected from the studies included in the database,**
 148 according to year of publication.

149

150 **Statistical analysis**

151 Series of graphical analyses were used to analyze the data distribution
 152 and to obtain a general view of their consistency and variance heterogeneity.
 153 Based on these analyses, correlation hypotheses were formulated to define the
 154 statistical models [22]. During this step, the data distribution per year, country,
 155 and for the presence or absence of AGP were evaluated. The performance data
 156 of the AGP- treatments were relativized according to their respective AGP+, in
 157 order to estimate the impact (percentage variation) of AGP withdrawal.
 158 Additionally, the relationships between and within studies were evaluated.

159 Variance-covariance analyses were conducted using the GLM procedure
 160 in the Minitab 18 statistical package (Minitab Inc., State College, PA); the effects
 161 of gender of the animals, type of facilities and year of publication were tested.

162 However, the factors were not significant ($P > 0.05$) and consequently, all three
163 factors were removed from the model. A mixed model was applied, considering
164 treatments as fixed effect, while inter-study codes and mean body weight were
165 random effects ($P < 0.05$). Variables analyzed were feed and lysine intake, weight
166 gain, and feed conversion. The analyses were grouped by rearing phase (post
167 weaning and growth-to-finishing), when the information about the phase of
168 rearing was provided in the original publication. In addition, an overall
169 performance analysis was carried out considering the entire database, including
170 the studies with both rearing phases and also the studies without phase
171 identification (information not provided in the publication). Individual analyses
172 were also performed for the main AGP in the database. A residual analysis was
173 performed, and it was observed that the residuals were normally distributed.

174

175 **Impact on feeding costs**

176 The parameters obtained by the meta-analysis were used to construct a model
177 that estimates the effects of AGP elimination on the production costs, particularly
178 feeding costs in the Brazilian scenario. Brazil was chosen for this simulation as it is a
179 large producer and exporter of pork. Moreover, AGP withdrawal is an important and
180 current debate in the Brazilian meat industry. The simulation (Equation 1 to 4 and Table
181 1) considered the target weight gain and feed conversion for each phase (in AGP+
182 diets), the variation in feed conversion (obtained from the meta-analysis), as well as
183 feed and AGP costs (information provided by a local feed factory).

$$184 \quad \text{Cost of feeding per animal} = \alpha \times \left(\frac{\beta}{1000} \right) \quad (1)$$

185 Where: α : feed intake of the phase (kg/day) and β : cost of feed (\$/ton).

$$186 \quad \text{Feed intake of the phase} = \tau \times FCR \quad (2)$$

187 Where: T: weight gain of the phase (kg) and FCR: feed conversion (kg/kg).

188 Cost of feed: $\mu + y$ (3)

189 Where: μ : price of feed (\$/ton) and y : price of AGP (\$/ton).

190 The performance data of animals that received and did not receive AGP
191 was used in the equations, and the difference between the results was calculated to
192 estimate the impact on feeding costs

193 The currency conversion rate used for the calculation of impact on feeding costs
194 in USD was: \$1.00 = R\$ 3.75.

195

196 **Table 1. Inputs for estimating the economic impact caused by the withdrawal of**
197 **antibiotic growth promoters (AGP) from pig diets**

<i>Inputs</i>	Post-Weaning	Growing-Finishing	Overall performance¹
Weight gain, kg	20	90	110
Feed conversion target (AGP+), kg/kg	1.64	2.56	1.80
Feed conversion change², %	3.59	5.51	3.92
Feed cost, USD \$/ton	747	253	248

198 ¹Overall performance: The analysis considered the entire database.

199 ²Feed conversion change: the difference between diets with and without AGP obtained by the
200 meta-analysis.

201 A sensitivity analysis was performed using the key variables “feed
202 conversion” and “AGP price.” A sensitivity analysis indicates whether one or more
203 variables can have an impact on the economic results of a production system and
204 influence its profitability [24]. The equations developed to calculate the impact on
205 feeding costs were used to perform the sensitivity analysis. Feed conversion data

206 were simulated to obtain 0.0, 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0, and 5.0% of difference between
207 AGP+/AGP-. The AGP price was reduced in half or increased 1.0, 2.0, 3.0, 4.0,
208 and 5.0 times compared to the current price. When the value of the impact on
209 feeding costs was greater than zero, AGP withdrawal was judged as an
210 economically sound strategy, and when the impact value was less than zero,
211 AGP use was judged as the better economic decision to avoid financial loss. The
212 price of the feed used to evaluate the overall performance was utilized in the
213 sensitivity analysis. The analysis was performed using Microsoft Excel 2016.

214 In this study, only the feed cost was considered; therefore, other factors
215 such as management and sanitary costs were not included in the economic
216 impact model.

217

218 **Results**

219 **Performance**

220 The use of AGP+ diets presented an overall positive impact on pig
221 performance. A negative variation in weight gain was observed in 83% of
222 comparisons between AGP+ and AGP- diet-fed pigs in the database (Fig 1).
223 Likewise, better feed conversion was observed in 77% of the intra-study
224 comparisons among treatments. However, it is important to point out that some
225 of these changes were not statistically significant in the original studies.

226 In the meta-analysis, the feed and lysine intake did not differ ($P > 0.05$)
227 between the AGP + and AGP- treatments in all the examined production phases.
228 Weight gain rates were higher ($P < 0.05$; Table 2) when AGP+ diets were used in
229 post-weaning and in overall performance, but no such effect was detected during

230 the growing-finishing phase ($P > 0.05$). AGP+ diet resulted in 6.57% and 4.41%
 231 weight gain in the post-weaning and overall performance phases, respectively.
 232 The effect on feed conversion even more pronounced ($P < 0.05$) in pigs fed AGP+
 233 diet, in all rearing phases; The highest effect was 5.51% in the growing-finishing
 234 phase, followed by the overall performance with 3.92%, and finally the post-
 235 weaning phase with 3.59%.

236 **Table 2. Performance (obtained by meta-analysis) of pigs fed diets with antibiotic**
 237 **growth promoters (AGP+) or without antibiotic growth promoters (AGP-)**

Variable	Treatments		P	RSE	R ²	%
	AGP+	AGP-				
Post weaned						
Feed intake, kg/d	0.609 (N:197)	0.592 (N:190)	0.508	0.251	58.33	2.79
Weight gain, kg/d	0.365 (N:202)	0.341 (N:195)	0.039	0.115	56.85	6.57
Feed conversion, g/g	1.642 (N:194)	1.701 (N:187)	0.008	0.213	62.24	3.59
Lysine intake, kg/d	0.763 (N:151)	0.737 (N:148)	0.412	0.267	55.53	3.40
Growing/ finishing						
Feed intake, kg/d	2.095 (N:69)	2.080 (N:46)	0.855	0.317	65.79	0.71
Weight gain, kg/d	0.805 (N:70)	0.769 (N:47)	0.078	0.101	68.65	4.47
Feed conversion, g/g	2.565 (N:69)	2.704 (N:46)	0.038	0.232	54.49	5.51

Lysine intake, kg/d	2.053 (N:48)	2.016 (N:32)	0.735	0.244	60.99	1.80
Overall performance*						
Feed intake, kg/d	0.884 (N:208)	0.882 (N:198)	0.907	0.158	95.10	0.22
Weight gain, kg/d	0.443 (N:217)	0.423 (N:207)	0.028	0.094	84.05	4.51
Feed conversion, g/g	1.809 (N:208)	1.880 (N:198)	<0.001	0.195	85.76	3.92
Lysine intake, kg/d	0.923 (N:151)	0.907 (N:150)	0.575	0.247	82.79	1.73

238 *Overall performance: The analysis considered the entire database. The model

239 considered the effect of the study ($P < 0.001$) and the body weight of animals ($P < 0.001$).

240 P: Probability of treatment effect. The models included the study effect ($P < 0.001$).

241 RSE: Residual standard error.

242 R^2 : Coefficient of determination of the model.

243 %: Percentage of difference between AGP+ and AGP-.

244 N: Number of observations in each means.

245

246 Analyzing each AGP treatment individually (Table 3), AGP- diet influenced

247 feed intake ($P > 0.05$). The addition of Colistin, Tiamulin, and Lincomycin did not

248 result in any detectable difference in weight gain between AGP+ and AGP- diets

249 ($P > 0.05$), while the addition of Avilamycin, Bacitracin, and Tylosin showed a

250 positive effect on weight gain, as well as feed conversion ($P < 0.05$).

251 **Table 3. Overall performance* (obtained by meta-analysis) of pigs fed diets**

252 **containing specific antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or without it (AGP-)**

Variable	Treatments	P	RSE	R^2
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	AGP+	AGP-			
Colistin					
Feed intake, kg/d	0.690 (N:42)	0.674 (N:42)	0.526	0.117	96.98
Weight gain, kg/d	0.388 (N:45)	0.374 (N:45)	0.439	0.083	87.96
Feed conversion, g/g	1.645 (N:42)	1.641 (N:42)	0.917	0.160	79.67
Avilamycin					
Feed intake, kg/d	0.759 (N:60)	0.755 (N:57)	0.838	0.123	95.86
Weight gain, kg/d	0.403 (N:61)	0.371 (N:58)	0.039	0.091	81.04
Feed conversion, g/g	1.714 (N:60)	1.806 (N:57)	0.008	0.183	87.27
Bacitracin					
Feed intake, kg/d	0.675 (N:10)	0.750 (N:10)	0.253	0.132	97.14
Weight gain, kg/d	0.289 (N:12)	0.221 (N:12)	0.049	0.108	59.11
Feed conversion, g/g	1.802 (N:10)	1.915 (N:10)	0.048	0.126	96.49
Tylosin					
Feed intake, kg/d	1.497 (N:22)	1.490 (N:22)	0.898	0.192	95.90
Weight gain, kg/d	0.607 (N:22)	0.541 (N:22)	0.036	0.119	86.54

Feed conversion, g/g	2.005 (N:22)	2.172 (N:22)	0.045	0.195	86.08
Tiamulin					
Feed intake, kg/d	0.647 (N:13)	0.689 (N:13)	0.177	0.075	98.18
Weight gain, kg/d	0.334 (N:13)	0.322 (N:13)	0.391	0.036	94.10
Feed conversion, g/g	1.554 (N:13)	1.675 (N:13)	0.080	0.165	89.02
Lincomycin					
Feed intake, kg/d	0.468 (N:13)	0.479 (N:13)	0.678	0.065	97.06
Weight gain, kg/d	0.210 (N:13)	0.195 (N:13)	0.514	0.055	91.03
Feed conversion, g/g	1.673 (N:13)	1.7818 (N:13)	0.098	0.157	60.75

253 *Overall performance: The analysis considered the entire database. The model
254 considered the effect of the study (P <0.001) and the mean weight of animals as adjusted
255 variable (P <0.001).

256 P: Probability of treatment effect. The models included the study effect (P <0.001).

257 RSE: Residual standard error.

258 R²: Coefficient of determination of the model.

259 %: Percentage of difference between AGP+ and AGP-.

260 N: Number of observations in each mean.

261

262 **Impact on feeding costs**

263 AGP withdrawal in the post-weaning phase increased the impact on feeding costs

264 by USD \$0.86 per animal. In the growing-finishing phase, the increase was more
 265 pronounced, with a rate of USD \$ 3.11 per animal and using the overall
 266 performance, the impact on feeding costs is expected to be USD \$ 1.83 per
 267 animal (Table 4).

268 **Table 4. Simulation of the economic impact of eliminating antibiotic growth**
 269 **promoters**

	Treatments		Change, %
	AGP+	AGP-	
Post-Weaning			
Feed conversion, kg/kg	1.64	1.70	3.59
Feed intake, kg/animal	32.80	33.98	3.47
Feeding cost, USD \$/animal	24.50	25.37	3.42
Growing-Finishing			
Feed conversion, kg/kg	2.56	2.70	5.51
Feed intake, kg/animal	230.40	243.10	5.22
Feeding cost, USD \$/animal	58.47	61.58	5.05
Overall performance¹			
Feed conversion, kg/kg	1.80	1.87	3.92
Feed intake, kg/animal	198.00	205.76	7.77
Feeding cost, USD \$/animal	49.19	51.02	3.58

270 Data from pig diets containing antibiotic growth promoters (AGP+) or without it (AGP-)

271 ¹ Overall performance: The analysis considered the entire database.

272 In the sensitivity analysis (Fig 2), "AVOID" indicates a scenario where the
 273 elimination of AGP has no negative impact on feeding costs, and "USE" indicates
 274 one where the use of AGP is necessary for avoiding economic losses. The model
 275 has a measure of change within each variable (by defining them as ranges) to
 276 enable AGP withdrawal without incurring an economic loss in feeding. For

277 example, if the difference in feed conversion between the AGP+ and AGP- diets
 278 does not exceed 0.5%, and AGP price increases five times over the current price,
 279 AGP can be eliminated with no impact on feeding costs. However, considering
 280 the current AGP price and the difference in feed conversion ratio between the two
 281 diets (5.51% in the growing-finishing phase; 3.92% in overall performance, and
 282 3.59% in the post-weaning phase), an impact on feeding costs is expected. If
 283 AGP price was halved, with zero variation in feed conversion, AGP withdrawal
 284 will have no negative impact on feeding costs. However, in the situation of half of
 285 the current price, even a variation in feed conversion less than 0.15% would
 286 require AGP use to maintain profitability.

Variation between feed conversion (AGP+ and AGP-)	Variation in price of AGP					
	X/2	X ¹	2X	3X	4X	5X
0.00	AVOID ²	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.15	USE	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.30	USE	USE	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
0.50	USE	USE	USE	AVOID	AVOID	AVOID
1.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
2.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
3.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
4.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE
5.00	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE	USE

287

288 **Fig 2. Sensitivity analysis for antibiotic growth promoter (AGP) elimination**
 289 **from pig diets according to the change in the additive price and the change**
 290 **between feed conversion rates with and without AGP.**

291 ¹X: current price of antibiotic growth promoter.

292 ²AVOID: the scenario rearing pigs without AGP incurs no impact on feeding costs.

293 ³USE: the scenario where the use of AGP is expected to incur no impact on
294 feeding costs.

295

296 **Discussion**

297 Our results showed a clear connection between AGP feed supplementation
298 and pig growth, which was particularly evident in feed conversion and weight
299 gain. Contrarily, no relation was found between AGP supplementation and feed
300 intake. Laxminarayan et al. [25] suggest that there has been a reduction in the
301 effectiveness of AGP in the last 30 years, which may be linked to optimization of
302 production conditions, increasing in the baseline weight gain of animals,
303 increasing level of resistance, and potential switch in the type of molecules used.
304 In contrast, the "year" effect was not significant in the current meta-analysis. This
305 result may be associated to the fact that the studies selected to compose the
306 database did not have any type of sanitary challenge.

307 The mechanism by which AGP act is not entirely understood to date, and a
308 multitude of factors will influence the performance results: including the rearing
309 environment, stress, and diet characteristics. Different mechanisms of action
310 have been proposed and several studies have been carried out to explain AGP
311 function; a growth-promoting effect coincides with the decreased activity in bile
312 salt hydrolase (BSH) in the gut [26,27]. Conjugated bile acids play a critical role in
313 lipid solubilization and micelle formation, and are the target substrates of BSH.
314 De-conjugation of bile acids by BSH compromises lipid metabolism and results
315 in an attenuated energy harvest [27]. Other authors confirmed the use of AGP to
316 be the most common dietary intervention to modulate the composition of gut
317 microbiota [28,29] and their activity, including both pathogenic and commensal

318 bacteria [30]. The gut bacterial population influences a variety of immunological,
319 physiological, nutritional, and protective processes of the gastro-intestinal tract,
320 and exerts effects on the overall health and performance of non-ruminant animals
321 [28]. Although the composition of gut microbiota varies among pigs, it is possible
322 to verify the reduction of *L. johnsonii*, *Clostridiales*, and *Turicibacter* along with
323 the increase of *L. amylovorus* in the ileum when the animals were fed a diet
324 containing AGP [29]. Another hypothesis is that AGP can, directly or indirectly,
325 affect the intestinal physiology of the pig. Nutrient absorption is not the intestines'
326 sole function, as they perform an immunological role as well [31]. The close and
327 intermittent contact of the gastro-intestinal mucosa with the enteric microbiota
328 results in a constant state of inflammation [32], and can increase macromolecular
329 intestinal permeability [33]. AGP accumulate in the inflammatory cells and
330 enhance the intracellular killing of bacteria, inhibiting the innate immune response
331 [34,35]. In addition, some AGP, such as Avilamycin, decreased NFκB expression
332 in mesenteric lymph nodes, ileum, colon, and liver, suggesting a decrease in
333 those tissue's inflammatory response [36]. Therefore, the use of AGP decreases
334 the catabolic costs of maintaining an immune response by allowing more
335 resources to be dedicated to anabolic processes [37].

336 The weaning phase is an extremely stressful phase in industrial pig
337 production, and is caused by multi-factorial stressors, including social,
338 environmental, nutritional, and psychological conditions [38,39]. During this
339 period, the piglets experience breast milk withdrawal and must adapt to a new
340 plant-based and less digestible diet with some anti-nutritional properties.
341 Considering the hypothesis of a non-antibiotic action of AGP, which results in a
342 reduced intestinal inflammatory response [36,37], this may be an explanation of

343 the positive correlation between AGP and piglet weight gain in post-weaning. On
344 the other hand, pigs in the finishing phases are much more able to cope with
345 stressors due to their increased ability to synthesize immunoglobulins [40], and
346 that can limit the response to dietary AGP in this phase.

347 When AGP were analyzed individually, the higher variation in performance
348 responses were found in the peptides (Bacitracin), macrolide (Tylosin) and
349 orthosomycin (Avilamycin), and the lower responses were those of macrolides
350 Tiamulin and Lincomycin, along with polymyxins (Colistin). Even some AGP
351 belonging to the same general classification had different effects, and this
352 behavior could be reflected in the roles AGP play in different action mechanisms
353 in the organism, which result in rearing-phase-specific action. Niewold [37]
354 reported that AGP compounds can essentially be divided into groups based on
355 their interaction with inflammatory cells, as non-accumulating, accumulating
356 without inhibition of function, and accumulating with inhibition of function; for
357 example, cyclines, macrolides (Tylosin) and peptides (Bacitracin) showed
358 phagocyte-inhibition function [35]. In another proposed method of action,
359 tetracycline antibiotics were consistently potent inhibitors of BSH, while both
360 Roxarsone and Oxytetracycline inhibited BSH activity by over 95%. β -lactam and
361 lincosamide (Lincomycin) displayed relatively lower inhibitory effects on BSH
362 activity, whereas macrolides (Tylosin and Erithromycin) and peptides (Bacitracin)
363 had a weak effect on BSH activity [27]. Antibiotics growth promoters have an
364 impact on the intestinal microbiota, but there are still doubts about the mode of
365 action. Experiments using chickens as model indicate that the use of tylosin, a
366 macrolide that inhibits growth of gram-positive and a limited number of gram-
367 negative bacteria, can reduce levels of gram-positive pathogens (*Clostridium*

368 *perfringens*) [41]. Other author related that tylosin rather accelerated the shift in
369 microbiota that normally occurs over time as the host grows [42]. The tiamulin,
370 another macrolide, can reduced ileal microbiota diversity and promoted the
371 establishment of Firmicutes such as *L. amylovorus*-like bacteria in the ileum of
372 weaned piglets [43].

373 Several studies have estimated the economic impact caused by the
374 withdrawal of AGP from the pig industry. In our study, the impact on feeding costs
375 of Overall Performance resulted in a loss of \$ 1.83 per pig; Miller et al. [44] and
376 Brorsen [45] suggest \$ 1.37 and \$ 2.33 per pig, respectively. The large
377 differences in the results may be linked to the factors considered to generate the
378 economic models. Some costs associated with the production system are difficult
379 to measure and have not been included in the economic calculations [46].
380 Different authors report that the economic impact will affect producers differently,
381 since there is a variation in the factors considered in the characterization of the
382 productive scenario, such as farm size, contracting arrangements, and
383 production practices [47, 48]. The productive impact considered this study was
384 focused on the feeding of pigs, and this can become part of a more complete
385 economic impact analysis, taking into account aspects such as sanity, productive
386 structure, labor, housing period, among others. Although it is based in a very
387 simple approach, the model may provide relevant information for nutritionists and
388 producers while facilitating the decision making process. The equations were to
389 estimate the economic impact in the Brazilian scenario because the country is
390 one of the largest producers and exporters of pork. However, the equations are
391 easy to understand and updated productive data from different
392 countries/scenarios can be simulated, even with economic and production

393 scenarios different from Brazil.

394 To better understand our findings in relation to the impact on feeding costs,
395 it is safe to consider that the increased feed costs are a result of AGP use, which
396 conversely reduces feed cost by improving feed conversion ratio. The result of
397 the impact on feeding costs for Overall Performance is not the simple summation
398 of the post-weaning and growing-finishing phases. The Overall Performance feed
399 cost is the weighted average of the period that the animals receive the feed, and
400 the performance data was obtained by the meta-analysis with a large number of
401 studies.

402 The meta-analysis highlighted a reduction in pig performance when fed
403 AGP- diets, which may lead to an increase in the feeding costs. Considering the
404 current situation (AGP prices and a 3.92% better feed conversion using AGP),
405 the results of the overall performance showed an increase of 3.6% in the feeding
406 costs per animal with AGP withdrawal. However, if the difference in feed
407 conversion between AGP+ and AGP- diets is brought down to zero, there will be
408 no increase in feed costs, and AGP could be eliminated from animal feed as
409 exhibited by the results of the sensitivity analysis. To reduce the difference in feed
410 conversion it is necessary to implement new management strategies, mainly
411 using biosecurity as a tool to reduce diseases [49], and vaccination to improve
412 the overall health status, reducing the risk of secondary infections [50,51]. The
413 optimization of the climate and housing conditions can improve performance and
414 reduce the usage of AGP.

415 Nutritional strategies are also necessary for such reduction; various feed
416 additives as organic acids, essential oils, copper sulphate, zinc oxide, probiotics,
417 and prebiotics have been studied to elucidate their effects [52]. Probiotics

418 improved gut health [52,53] and demonstrated an ability to affect the presence of
419 pro-inflammatory cytokines and chemokines in vitro or in the pigs' gut microbiota
420 [54]. Although it is possible to reduce the difference in feed conversion between
421 animals fed AGP+ and AGP- diets, there is still a long way to eliminate such
422 difference entirely. It is necessary to evaluate different strategies to improve
423 productivity without the use of AGP, and to analyze any factors that directly
424 interfere in production costs in addition to feed.

425

426 **Conclusions**

427 The use of AGP improves weight gain and feed conversion in post-
428 weaning piglets. Grather ratios of feed conversion were also shown in the growth-
429 finishing pigs fed AGP+ diets. The inferior performance of the animals fed AGP-
430 diets resulted in an increase in feeding costs.

431

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435

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620 **Supporting information**

621 S1 file. **Inclusion and exclusion criteria check list**

622 S1 file. **Articles included in the database**

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CAPÍTULO IV

Considerações finais

O banimento do uso de antibióticos como promotores de crescimento (APC) dentro da produção animal se tornou uma questão fundamental, discutida no mercado consumidor, nas empresas produtoras e exportadoras de carnes em todo o mundo e na comunidade científica. A tendência global é de permitir o uso de antibióticos apenas para o tratamento de enfermidades dos animais, abolindo o seu uso como promotores de crescimento. Porém, a questão do banimento não é fácil de ser resolvida. Os promotores de crescimento são associados à melhora na conversão alimentar dos animais e redução no índice de mortalidade, elevando os ganhos de produtividade. Com o aumento imediato nos custos produtivos, a eliminação dos APC da dieta enfrenta resistência dos produtores e da indústria. Para o banimento dos APC sem maiores custos produtivos, é necessária a adoção de novas estratégias dentro da produção animal, utilizando programas que envolvam diferentes estratégias de manejo, nutrição, sanidade, assim como programas de biossegurança, com gestão eficiente e treinamento dos profissionais envolvidos. Dentro das estratégias nutricionais, há o crescente avanço nas tecnologias de substituição aos APC, com foco no uso de combinações de soluções, como os probióticos, prebióticos, ácidos orgânicos e óleos essenciais, que modificam de uma maneira menos agressiva o microbioma intestinal, porém que promovem o equilíbrio deste e, como consequência, melhoram a saúde e desenvolvimento dos animais. Para o banimento completo do uso dos APC, faz-se necessário o desenvolvimento de soluções de nível global com medidas de médio a longo prazo, flexíveis e com avaliações transparentes. Planos recentes da OMS para controle da resistência bacteriana e a vigilância no uso de antibióticos são um passo importante. E no Brasil, para acompanhar o alinhamento mundial contra a resistência bacteriana, o Ministério da Agricultura (Mapa) criou o Programa Nacional de Prevenção e Controle de Resistência a Antimicrobianos na Agropecuária (AgroPrevine), auxiliando no controle efetivo do uso de antibióticos.

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APENDICES

Normas para formatação de artigo:

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