

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions, and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions, or products referred to in the content.

Article

Heat-Induced Oxidative Stress and Use of Astaxanthin on the NF- κ B, NFE2L2 Transcription Factors and Cytoprotective Capacity in the Thymus of Broilers

Donna Lee Kuehu ^{1,2}, Yuanyuan Fu ¹, Masaki Nasu ¹, Hua Yang ¹, Vedbar S Khadka ¹ and Youping Deng ^{1,*}

¹ Bioinformatics Core, Department of Quantitative Health Sciences, John A Burns School of Medicine, University of Hawaii, Honolulu, HI 96813, USA; bioinf@hawaii.edu

² Department of Molecular Biosciences and Bioengineering, College of Tropical Agriculture and Human Resources, University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, HI 96822, USA; mbbe@ctahr.hawaii.edu

* Correspondence: Youping Deng, PhD, Bioinformatics Core, Department of Quantitative Health Sciences, John A. Burns School of Medicine, University of Hawaii at Mānoa, Phone: +1 808-692-1664 (Office); +1 808-692-1970 (Fax), Email: dengy@hawaii.edu

Simple Summary: Heat-induced oxidative stress can be harmful to the thymus, an organ crucial for the development and maturation of T cells, which is essential for adaptive immunity. Broilers experiencing heat stress can experience an overproduction of reactive oxygen species which can overwhelm the antioxidant defense system. This imbalance can lead to cellular oxidative damage including lipids, proteins and DNA within the thymus. To mitigate the potential damage, the use of astaxanthin, a potent natural antioxidant was provided as a dietary supplement to ameliorate the harm. We compared the effects of heat-induced oxidative stress on the thymus of broilers between three groups, thermal neutral, heat stress and heat stress with astaxanthin. Results showed heat stress was upregulated in all the signals testing for inflammation and oxidative stress through the NF- κ B, NFE2L2, PPAR α , cytoprotective capacity and apoptotic gene pathways. Primarily there was no significant difference between most of the thermal neutral and heat stress with astaxanthin groups, suggesting the similar expression levels was a result of the astaxanthin treatment effectiveness against the heat-induced oxidative stress. Astaxanthin dietary supplementation may provide a practical, cost and therapeutic effective program against heat-induced oxidative stress and damage.

Abstract: The thymus, a central lymphoid organ in animals serves as the site for T cell development, differentiation and maturation, vital to adaptive immunity. Thymus is critical for maintaining tissue homeostasis providing protection against tumors and tissue damage. Overactive or prolonged immune response can lead to oxidative stress due to increased production of reactive oxygen species. Heat stress induces oxidative stress and overwhelms the natural antioxidant defense mechanisms. The objectives of the study were to investigate the protective properties of astaxanthin against heat-induced oxidative stress and apoptosis in the chicken thymus, by comparing the growth performance and gene signaling pathways among three groups- thermal neutral, heat stress and heat stress with astaxanthin, under two temperature conditions of 21–22°C and 32–35°C. Both treatments under heat stress experienced reduced growth performance, while the group treated with astaxanthin showed a slightly lesser decline. The inflammatory response and antioxidant defense system were activated by the upregulation of the NF- κ B, NFE2L2, PPAR α , cytoprotective capacity and apoptotic gene pathways in the heat stress compared to the thermal neutral group. Conversely, expression levels were without significance between the thermal neutral and heat stress with antioxidant groups, suggesting astaxanthin antioxidant effectiveness to mitigate inflammation and oxidative stress damage.

Keywords: oxidative stress; astaxanthin; NF- κ B; NFE2L2; cytoprotective capacity; thymus; broilers



1. Introduction

The thymus is a crucial central lymphoid organ in animals, playing an integral role in the immune response by serving as the site for T cell development, differentiation, and maturation [1,2,3]. These mature T cells subsequently colonize secondary lymphoid organs to combat invading pathogens [4]. Beyond its role in adaptive immunity, the thymus is also a critical mediator of innate immune responses, providing protection against tumors, pathogens, and tissue damage [5]. The integrity of the thymus is essential for maintaining tissue homeostasis and a fully functional immune system. Thymic injury can lead to immune impairment, resulting in significant consequences due to the development of an immature immune system, which can leave the organism immunocompromised [6,7,8].

Stress represents a physiological and biochemical defense mechanism through which the body responds to adverse environmental effects. This response helps the organism adapt to its environment and maintain internal equilibrium [9]. While moderate stress can enhance immunity, excessive stress can negatively impact growth, development, and production performance in animals. Importantly, it can also lead to immune suppression, increasing susceptibility to diseases and potentially resulting in death [10]. Persistent oxidative stress (OS), in particular, impairs immune function through mechanisms such as cellular DNA damage and biomolecule fragmentation [11,12,13]. Normally, the body's oxidation-antioxidant system maintains a dynamic balance, but OS occurs when the antioxidant (AOX) defenses are overwhelmed [14,15]. This condition can lead to slower growth rates, decreased feed conversion efficiency, reduced production performance, and in severe cases, significant economic losses in industries like poultry farming [16,17]. OS initiates various signaling pathways and inflammatory responses, further compounding its impact on health [18].

The nuclear factor kappa-light-chain-enhancer of activated B cells (NF- κ B) signaling pathway is a key mediator of OS-induced inflammation [19,20,21,22]. Activation of NF- κ B leads to the production of inflammatory cytokines, which are part of the body's response to harmful stimuli. Inflammation, closely linked to the immune system, is a pathological response to such stimuli [23]. Additionally, the transcription factor nuclear factor, erythroid 2-like-2 (NFE2L2/NRF2) plays a significant role in cytoprotection by stimulating the expression of AOX and detoxifying enzymes, including NAD(P)H:quinone oxidoreductase-1 (NQO-1), glutathione S-transferase (GST), and heme-oxygenase-1 (HO-1) [24]. The AOX defense system comprises both enzymatic AOXs (such as SOD, peroxidase, CAT, and GPx1) and non-enzymatic AOXs (including vitamin E, carotenoids, and vitamin C). An imbalance between oxidative and AOX systems can lead to excessive reactive oxygen species (ROS) and reactive nitrogen species (RNS) accumulation, resulting in the destruction of lipids, proteins, and nucleic acids, ultimately causing cellular damage and cell death. OS is thus implicated in a variety of pathological conditions, including inflammatory reactions and tumor development [25,26,27]. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor alpha (PPAR α) is a nuclear receptor that regulates the genes involved in lipid metabolism, fatty acid oxidation and inflammation, and plays a crucial role in maintaining metabolic homeostasis. PPAR α has been shown to produce significant anti-inflammatory effects [28,29] and inhibit the activation of NF- κ B [30].

Heat-induced OS poses a particular challenge in animals, affecting their ability to metabolize carotenoids, which necessitates dietary supplementation [31]. Astaxanthin (AST), a potent lipid-soluble AOX from the carotenoid family, has demonstrated exceptional free radical scavenging and anti-inflammatory properties [32,33,34,35]. Its unique structure, featuring hydroxyl and keto groups on each ionone ring, enhances its AOX activity, thereby protecting cellular membranes from oxidation [36]. Despite its presence in aquatic organisms and birds, AST cannot be synthesized by animals and must be obtained from dietary sources such as green algae, red yeast, and crustacean byproducts, with *Haematococcus pluvialis* being a particularly rich source [37,38]. Supplementation with AST has shown numerous health benefits, including anti-inflammatory, immunomodulatory, cardiovascular, neuroprotective, and anticancer effects [39]. In poultry farming, particularly under heat-stress conditions, AST holds promise as a natural AOX feed supplement, potentially mitigating the adverse effects of heat stress and improving overall health and productivity.

The main objectives of the present study were to investigate the protective properties of AST against heat-induced oxidative stress and apoptosis in the chicken thymus. Our research question is, "How does heat-induced oxidative stress affect the NF- κ B, NFE2L2, PPAR α , cytoprotective capacity genes and apoptotic pathways in the broiler thymus, and can astaxanthin help mitigate the stress?" We hypothesize that heat-induced oxidative stress in the broiler thymus correlates with poor growth performance, disrupting the physiological and biochemical defense mechanisms; and *H. pluvialis*-derived astaxanthin dietary supplementation mitigates the effects through modulation of transcription pathways.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Ethics Statement

Animal protocol (Protocol No. 17-2605) used in this study was approved by the University of Hawaii Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC). Animals were raised under animal welfare guidelines and euthanized in accordance with humane protocols in preparation for necropsy.

2.2. Experimental Animal Design

Cob 500 unsexed broiler chicks were obtained from Asagi Hatchery (Honolulu, Hawaii, USA). Several mitigation strategies were simultaneously tested in parallel and the findings reported separately based on treatment. In this trial the feed additive treatment is AST. The animals were raised from Day 0 to 6 weeks in deep litter pens with pine shavings on concrete flooring, four birds in each pen. The animals were reared under two temperature conditions: TN (n=24) at 21-22°C and 50% RH, and HS (n=36) at 32-35°C and 42-50% RH. Animals were provided a normal starter feed from 0 to 21 days, and a normal finisher feeds on 22-42 days with free access to feed and water. Nutritional compositions of the supplemented diets are listed in Table 1. After 14 days, the HS group was further divided into two dietary regimens, i.e., basal diet HS (n=18, treatment 1), and basal diet with 1.33 mg/kg AX supplement HSAX (n=18, treatment 2). The light cycle was set at 1:23 dark:light cycles throughout the trial. The broilers were euthanized on day 42, and ileum tissue samples from randomly selected 6 birds of each group were collected at necropsy.

Table 1. Basal diet ingredients and calculated analysis of broiler diets used in the mixture design for thermal neutral and heat stress including astaxanthin supplement.

Ingredients (%)	Starter	Finisher
Corn	54.86	63.14
Soybean Meal	39.99	30.09
Soybean oil	2.00	4.50
Limestone	1.27	0.85
Monocalcium phosphate	0.75	0.50
Lysine (%)	0.23	0.18
Methionine (%)	0.14	0.12
Threonine (%)	0.20	0.16
Sodium chloride (%)	0.43	0.35
Sodium bicarbonate	0.12	0.10
Vitamin-mineral premix	0.50	0.50
Astaxanthin supplement ¹	0.01	0.01
Total		
Calculated analysis		
ME (kcal/kg)	2909	3203

CP (%)	22.09	18.07
Calcium (%)	0.75	0.52
Total Phosphorus (%)	0.57	0.47
digPhosphorous (%)	0.30	0.23
Lysine (%)	1.39	1.10
dig Lysine (%)	1.25	0.99
Methionine (%)	0.48	0.41
dig Methionine (%)	0.45	0.39
Cysteine (%)	0.43	0.38
Threonine (%)	1.03	0.85
dig Threonine (%)	0.85	0.69
Tryptophan (%)	0.33	0.26
Methionine + cysteine (%)	0.91	0.80
Arginine (%)	1.61	1.31
Valine (%)	1.22	1.03
Isoleucine (%)	0.93	0.76
Leucine (%)	1.89	1.63
Neutral detergent fiber	9.13	8.78
Crude fiber	3.97	3.46
Sodium	0.22	0.18
Chloride	0.30	0.25
Choline (mg/kg)	1419	1200
Astaxanthin (mg/kg)	---	1.33

¹Astaxanthin was mixed with the soybean oil and supplemented in the diet during feed mixing.

2.3. Astaxanthin-rich Dietary Supplement

The diet was supplemented with P25HB provided by AstaReal®, Inc. (Burlington, New Jersey, USA). PH25B contains 2.5% (w/w) dried *Haematococcus pluvialis*-algae, and other components including modified starch, gum Arabic, mixed tocopherols, L-ascorbyl palmitate, silicon dioxide, xanthan gum, γ -cyclodextrin, polysorbate 80, rosemary extract and ferulic acid. A comparable nutritional composition of *H. pluvialis*-algae is listed in Appendix A (Table A1). The natural forms of astaxanthin comprise of mainly mono-esterified, followed by di-esterified and free forms, 3,3' – dihydroxy- β , β -carotene-4, 4' –dione ($C_{40}H_{52}O_4$ free form).

2.4. Growth Performance

Weekly feed intake was recorded, and the average daily feed intake (ADFI), average daily gain ratio (ADGR), and feed conversion ratio (FCR) were calculated. The body weight (BW) of each bird was recorded using a Mettler Toledo scale before heat stress treatment and at the end of the heat treatment.

2.5. Tissue Sample Collection

Immediately after euthanizing, ileum tissues were collected from randomly selected 6 birds of each group, snapped-frozen in liquid nitrogen, and stored at $-80^{\circ}C$.

2.6. Total RNA extraction and cDNA preparation

Total RNA was isolated from frozen tissues (50–100mg) using TRIzol reagent (Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA) according to the manufacturer's instructions. The concentration of total RNA was determined using NanoPhotometer® P330 (IMPLEN, Los Angeles, CA). Complementary DNA (cDNA) was synthesized from 1 µg of total RNA (20 µl reaction of RT mixture) using a High-Capacity cDNA Reverse Transcription Kit (Applied Biosystems, Foster City, CA), and further diluted with nuclease free–water (1:25) for the qPCR reaction below.

2.7. Bioinformatics: Genome Assembly and Gene Primer Design

The National Center for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) genome browser was used to search and compile genes for *Gallus gallus domesticus* related to heat stress, oxidative stress, cytoprotective, epithelial integrity, transcription factors and housekeeping genes. The NCBI-Basic Local Alignment Search Tool (BLAST) was used to design primers for polymerase chain reaction (PCR) from the accession numbers obtained from the list of genes (Table 2). The primer parameters were set for a PCR product size between a minimum of 100 and maximum of 250 for 5 primers to return. The primer melting temperatures were set for a minimum of 55°C, optimum of 57°C, and maximum of 60°C with a maximum Tm difference of 3°C. The exon junction span was set that the primers must span an exon-exon junction. The organism specified was *Gallus gallus* (taxid 9031). The forward and reverse primer sequences (5'->3') were then submitted to Integrated DNA Technologies (Coralville, IA, USA) for synthesis.

Table 2. *Gallus gallus* oligonucleotide primers used for real-time RT-PCR analysis.

Gene	NCBI Accession No.	Primer set (5'-3')
β-ACTIN	NM_205518.2	F:5' - AATTGTGCGTGACATCAAGG R:3' -CACAGGACTCCATACCCAAG
TBP	NM_205103.2	F:5' -GCGGCAGGCTCTGTT R:3' -ACCGAAAAGGTTTTGACCC
GAPDH	NM_204305.2	F:5' -AAGTCGGAGTCAACGGATT R:3' -TCACAAGTTCCCGTTCTCA
NFKB1	NM_205134.2	F:5' -GGACGGCGAAAGGACTCT R:3' -CCATTGCAAACATTGGGGAT
RELA	NM_001396038.1	F:5' -CGGTTCCGCTATAAGTGTGA R:3' -GTAATGGTTACCGCGGATGG
IKBKB	NM_001395965.1	F:5' -TCCCTGGGAGATGAAGGAG R:3' -TTGGATGGTCAGCCTCTT
NFE2L2	XM_015287264.4	F:5' -CAGGGTAGCAAGGTATGAG R:3' -TGCCTCCAAAGGATGTCAAT
KEAP1	GenBank: KU321503.1	F:5' -GATCGACGGGATGATCTACG R:3' -GGCGTACAGCAGTATGTTCA
MAF	NM_001044671.1	F:5' -CCAGAGTTTCATGTACCCG R:3' -CTTGTAGCTGTCTCGTGC
PPARA	NM_001001464.1	F:5' - AGCCACTTGCTATCACCAAT R:3' - ACTTAAACTCCTTATGATTCTGGT
RXRA	XM_003642291.6	F:5' -CTCCTGCCACTGGATTCT R:3' -CTGATGACGGAGAAGGGTG
PPARG	NM_001001460.2	F:5' - CTTGACAGCGCCAGAGATTA R:3' -GATTGCACCTTGCAATCCT

CD36	NM_001030731.1	F:5' -TTCTTGCAAAGCAGGAGGTT R:3' -CTGATCTTCGTGAGAGAAGCTGTA
SOD1	NM_205064.2	F:5' -AAAAGATGCAGATAGGCACG R:3' -TTATCTCCCCCTCTACCCAG
SOD2	NM_204211.2	F:5' -CCTTCGCAAACCTCAAGGAG R:3' -AGCAATGGAATGAGACCTGT
SOD3	XM_040699307.2	F:5' -CAACTCGCAAACAACGCT R:3' -CTGGTGAGTGAGAACCTGC
CAT	NM_001031215.2	F:5' -TTCCACCGTTAACGACCGATCA R:3' -CAATCTTGCCCCTGGAATG
GPX1	NM_001277853.3	F:5' -AATTGGGGCACCAAGGAGAA R:3' -CTCGAACATGGTGAAGTTGG
GPX2	NM_001277854.3	F:5' -AGTCGGCTACCAGGAGAA R:3' -CTTCTGGAACACAGGTGAAGT
GPX3	NM_001163232.3	F:5' -AGGTGAAATGCTACGACTCC R:3' -AGTGCATTCAAGTCAGGTA
GPX4	NM_204220.3	F:5' -AATGTGCGCTCAGGCG R:3' -AGACGAAGCCCCGTACT
PRDX1	NM_001271932.2	F:5' -TGCGGGGCTCTTGTATTAAA R:3' -ATTGCCCATCTGGCATTACA
PRDX3	XM_426543.6	F:5' -CGTTGTCAATGGGGAGTTC R:3' -GGGGCACACAAAGGTGAAAT
PRDX4	XM_046912353.1	F:5' -ATCCCCTTGACTTCACGTTT R:3' -ATCTCATTGGTCCGAGTCC
PRDX6	NM_001039329.3	F:5' -GACATCAACGCCTACAATGG R:3' -GCCAAATATGAACACCACA
BCL2	NM_205339.3	F:5' -GAGGATGGATGCCTTG R:3' -CCACGATAAACTGGGTGACT
CASP3	NM_204725.1	F:5' -GGTGGAGGTGGAGGAGC R:3' -TGAGCGTGGTCCATCTTTA
TP53	NM_205264.1	F:5' -GTTACCACGACGCCACCAA R:3' -TGCAGCGCTCATTGATCTCCTT

2.8. Quantitative Real-time RT-PCR (qPCR)

The qPCR was performed using PerfeCTa SYBR Green FastMix (Quantabio, Beverly, MA, USA) on a Q - qPCR instrument (Quantabio, Beverly, MA, USA). The qPCR reaction mixture consisted of 2 μ l of cDNA, 10 μ l PerfeCTa SYBR Green FastMix, 1 μ l of each forward and reverse primers (5 μ mol concentration), and 6 μ l of sterile deionized water to make a final reaction mixture of 20 μ l. Specific primer pairs for the detection of each gene were designed using the NCBI Primer-Blast tool. The qPCR reaction was carried out following standard cycling mode. The amplification conditions were 50°C for 2 min (hold), 95°C for 2 min (hold), followed by 40 repeat cycles of 95°C for 15 s (denaturation), 60°C for 15 s (annealing), and 72°C for 1 min (extension). A melting curve was also generated to confirm SYBR Green-based objective amplicon, and further qPCR products were confirmed using 2% agarose gel electrophoresis. Three house-keeping genes Glyceraldehyde 3-phosphate dehydrogenase (GAPDH), Beta-actin (β -actin), and TATA-Box Binding Protein (TBP) were analyzed in triplicates in each bird to determine the most stable house-keeping gene. Based on the

uniformity of expression level across samples, β -actin was chosen as the housekeeping gene. Gene expression level was determined using cycle threshold (Ct) values following the standard curve method after normalization with housekeeping genes. Fold change for each gene was calculated using the $2^{-\Delta\Delta Ct}$ method and presented as mean \pm standard error [40].

2.9. Gene Ontology

Significantly differentially expressed genes identified from the qPCR procedure were searched in the *Ensembl* genome database for chicken (GRCg6a) species to obtain Gene ontologies (GO) information (https://uswest.ensembl.org/Gallus_gallus/Info/Index) [41]. The GO included the cellular component, molecular function and biological process of these genes identified with ENSGAL Transcript IDs.

2.10. Statistical Analysis

The statistical analysis was performed using the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test with statistical significance set at $p<0.05$, followed by the Dunn post hoc test for comparison between three groups: TN, HS, and HSAX, and the p-value adjusted using the Bonferroni method. Growth performance measurements were calculated based on the data collected at the end of the 42-day trial period. Analysis was conducted using the R open source program, libraries 'FSA', 'dunn.test', and 'gplots', R Core Team (2023) (<https://www.R-project.org/>) [42].

3. Results

3.1. Growth Performance

At the end of the 42-day poultry trial, the TN group growth performance indicators were found to be significantly higher for BW, ADFI, ADGR, compared to the HS and HSAX groups by conducting a Kruskal-Wallis test to evaluate differences among the three groups ($p<0.01$). Although the results clearly showed negative impacts of heat on the HS and HSAX groups, when performing the post hoc pairwise comparisons using Dunn's test and applying the Bonferroni correction to control increased risk of error due to multiple comparisons, the negative impacts were more statistically significant comparing HS vs TN ($p<0.01$), rather than HSAX vs TN ($p<0.05$). In addition, the FCR showed the TN group was significantly lower in feed conversion, requiring less feed to maintain body weight compared to the HS vs TN, and HSAX vs TN ($p<0.05$) (Table 3, Figure 1).

Table 3. Growth performance indicators of Cob-500 broilers for body weight, adjusted daily feed intake, adjusted daily growth rate, and feed conversion. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX as the mean \pm standard deviation. Statistical analysis was based on the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, followed with the Dunn post hoc test for comparisons, and p-value adjusted with the Bonferroni method, and where "ns" is considered "not significant". * $0.05>p>0.01$, ** $0.01>p>0.001$.

Measurements	Kruskal-Wallis				Dunn/Bonferroni p-value		
	TN	HS	HSAX	p-value	TN vs HS	TN vs HSAX	HS vs HSAX
BW (g)	2673.68 \pm	1848.85	1867.83 \pm	0.0047	0.0095	0.0278	ns
	35.71	\pm 61.56	60.82				
ADFI (g)	94.98	70.68	72.24	0.0038	0.0047	0.0500	ns
	\pm 1.45	\pm 72.24	\pm 1.14				
ADGR (g)	62.65	42.99	43.45	0.0047	0.0095	0.0278	ns
	\pm 0.86	\pm 1.46	\pm 1.44				
FCR	1.52	1.64	1.67	0.0049	0.0226	0.0119	ns
	\pm 0.02	\pm 0.02	\pm 0.03				

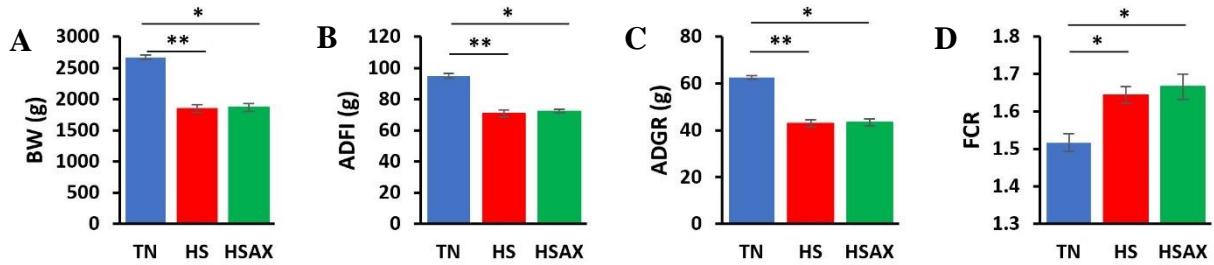


Figure 1. Growth performance indicators of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) BW(g), KW p=0.0047, TN vs HS (p=0.0095) and TN vs HSAX (p=0.0278); (B) ADFI(g), KW p=0.0038, TN vs HS (p=0.0047) and TN vs HSAX (p=0.0500); (C) ADGR(g), KW p=0.0047, TN vs HS (p=0.0095) and TN vs HSAX (p=0.0278); and (D) FCR, KW p=0.0049, TN vs HS (p=0.0226) and TN vs HSAX (p=0.0119).

3.2. Quantitative Real-time RT-PCR (qPCR) Gene Expression

For gene expression studies, three genes were considered for housekeeping genes, GAPDH (glyceraldehyde-3-phosphate dehydrogenase), ACTB (β -actin), and TBP (TATA-box binding protein). β -actin was selected for its high and relatively stable expression under experimental conditions performed, making it a reliable reference for normalizing the gene expression data collected.

3.2.1. Statistically Significant Genes Identified in Differential Expression Analysis

Table 4. Genes exhibiting significant differential expression for the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers with β -actin as the housekeeping gene for normalization. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Statistical analysis based on the Kruskal-Wallis rank sum test, followed with the Dunn post hoc test for comparisons, and p-value adjusted with the Bonferroni method, and where “ns” is considered “not significant”. * 0.05>p>0.01, ** 0.01>p>0.001.

Gene	p-value	Kruskal-Wallis			Dunn/Bonferroni p-value		
		TN vs HS	TN vs HSAX	HS vs HSAX	TN vs HS	TN vs HSAX	HS vs HSAX
NFKB1	0.0112	0.0283	ns	0.0283	ns	ns	0.0283
RELA	0.0119	0.0088	ns	0.0088	ns	ns	ns
IKBKB	0.0090	0.0105	0.0694	0.0105	0.0694	ns	ns
NFE2L2	0.0394	0.0331	ns	0.0331	ns	ns	ns
KEAP1	0.0112	0.0283	0.0283	0.0283	0.0283	ns	ns
MAF	0.0298	0.0241	ns	0.0241	ns	ns	ns
PPARA	0.0644	0.0601	ns	0.0601	ns	ns	ns
RXRA	0.0041	0.0029	ns	0.0029	ns	ns	ns
PPARG	0.0034	0.0105	0.0105	0.0105	0.0105	ns	ns
CD36	0.0417	0.0448	ns	0.0448	ns	ns	ns
SOD1	0.1284	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
SOD2	0.0489	ns	ns	ns	ns	0.0694	ns
SOD3	0.0446	0.0386	ns	0.0386	ns	ns	ns
CAT	0.2911	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
GPX1	0.2086	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
GPX2	0.0050	0.0061	ns	0.0061	ns	0.0448	ns
GPX3	0.0852	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
GPX4	0.2359	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns

PRDX1	0.1169	ns	ns	ns
PRDX3	0.1345	ns	ns	ns
PRDX4	0.0260	0.0283	ns	ns
PRDX6	0.0060	0.0061	ns	0.0694
BCL2	0.3123	ns	ns	ns
CASP3	0.0005	ns	ns	0.0002
TP53	0.5671	ns	ns	ns

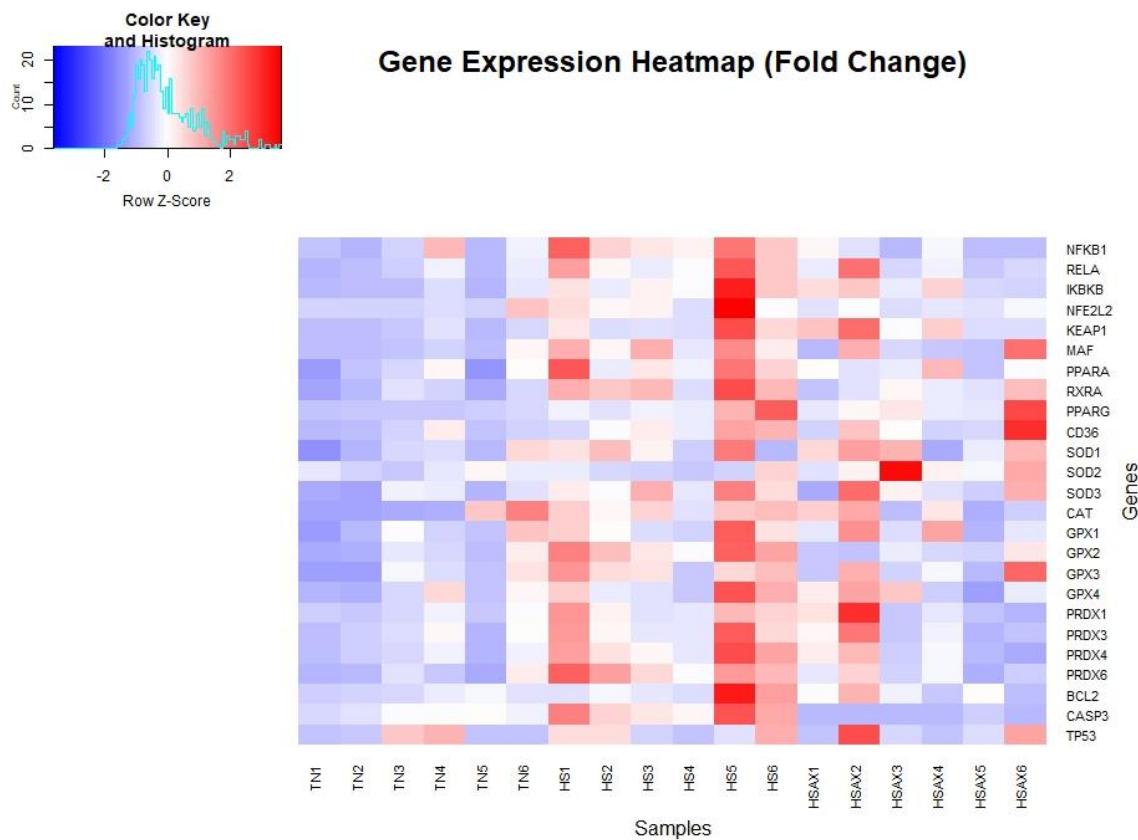


Figure 2. Gene expression fold change heatmap for thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. The HS group expression values show shades of red with significant higher expression and the HSAX to a lesser extent, whereas, blue indicates a lower level of expression in the TN group.

3.2.2. NF- κ B Transcription Signaling Pathway Genes

The studies showed the impact of HS and AOX treatment expressed through the NF- κ B transcription factor signaling pathway and pairwise comparisons. Gene expression results where HS was significantly upregulated higher than TN were found in NF- κ B, TN vs HS ($p=0.0283$), proto-oncogene, NF- κ B subunit (RELA), TN vs HS ($p=0.0088$) and inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta (IKBKB), TN vs HS ($p=0.0105$). HS was also significantly higher as compared to HSAX in the expression of NF- κ B, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0283$). There was a marginal difference between HSAX elevated in expression over TN of IKBKB, TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$).

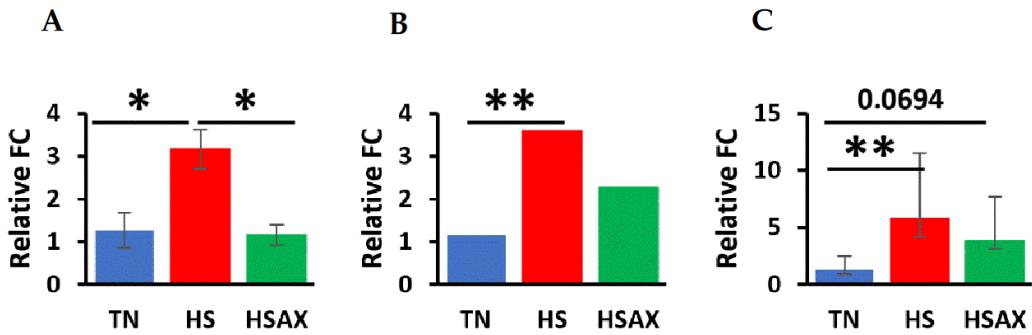


Figure 3. Effects of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment in the NF- κ B transcription factor signaling pathway in the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) NFKB1, KW $p=0.0112$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0283$), HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0283$); (B) RELA, KW $p=0.0119$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0088$); and (C) IKBKB, KW $p=0.0090$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0105$), TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$).

3.2.3. NFE2L2-Mediated Signaling Pathway Genes

The results of the impact of HS and AOX treatment on the expression of the NFE2L2-mediated signaling pathway showed the HS treatment group upregulated as compared to the TN group, NFE2L2, TN vs HS ($p=0.0331$), kelch like ECH associated protein 1 (KEAP1), TN vs HS ($p=0.0283$), and musculoaponeurotic fibrosarcoma (MAF), TN vs HS ($p=0.0241$). Additionally, the AST treatment was shown to be significantly upregulated over the TN group, KEAP1, TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0283$).

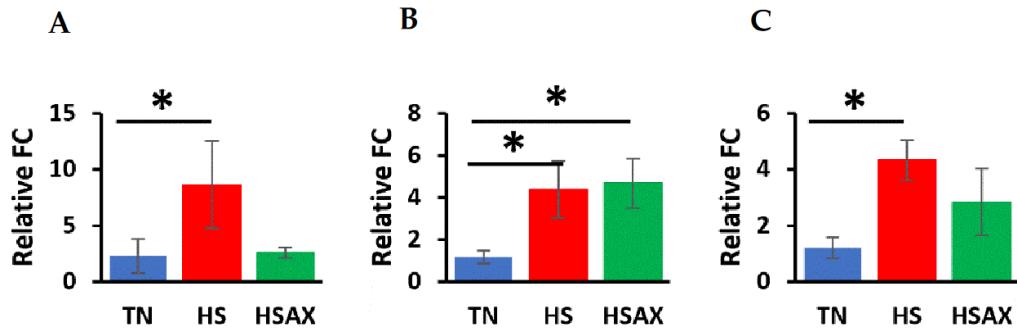


Figure 4. Effects of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment in the NFE2L2-mediated signaling pathway in the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) NFE2L2, KW $p=0.0394$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0331$); (B) KEAP1, KW $p=0.0112$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0283$), TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0283$); and (C) MAF, KW $p=0.0298$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0241$).

3.2.4. PPAR α Signaling Pathway Genes

Consistent with the findings for the NF- κ B and NFE2L2 pathways, the HS treatments resulted in upregulation over the TN groups in the PPAR α pathway genes. The findings showed retinoid X receptor alpha (RXRA), TN vs HS ($p=0.0029$), peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma (PPAR γ), TN vs HS ($p=0.0105$), cluster of differentiation 36 (CD36), TN vs HS ($p=0.0448$), and a marginal difference in PPAR α , TN vs HS ($p=0.0601$). Significant upregulation was also found in PPAR γ , TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0105$).

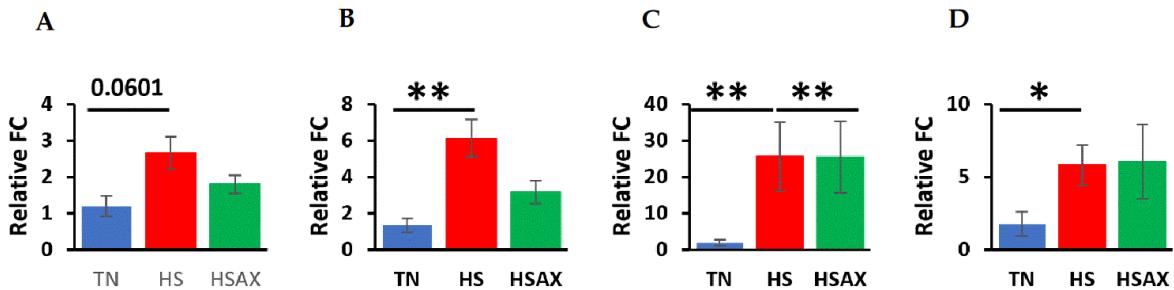


Figure 5. Effects of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment in the PPAR α signaling pathway in the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) PPAR α , KW $p=0.0644$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0601$) (not significant); (B) RXRA, KW $p=0.0041$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0029$); (C) PPAR γ , KW $p=0.0034$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0105$), TN vs HSAX ($p=0.0105$); and (D) CD36, KW $p=0.0417$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0448$).

3.2.5. Cytoprotective Capacity Genes

Results of the cytoprotective capacity genes provided a variation of expression. Upregulation of the HS over the TN was significant for superoxide dismutase 3 (SOD3), TN vs HS ($p=0.0386$), glutathione peroxidase 2 (GPX2), TN vs HS, ($p=0.0061$), peroxiredoxin 4 (PRDX4), ($p=0.0283$) and peroxiredoxin 6 (PRDX6), ($p=0.0061$). Comparing the HS and HSAX groups, GPX2 was significantly upregulated, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0448$). Marginal differences were found in SOD2, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$) and PRDX6, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$), but with opposing outcomes.

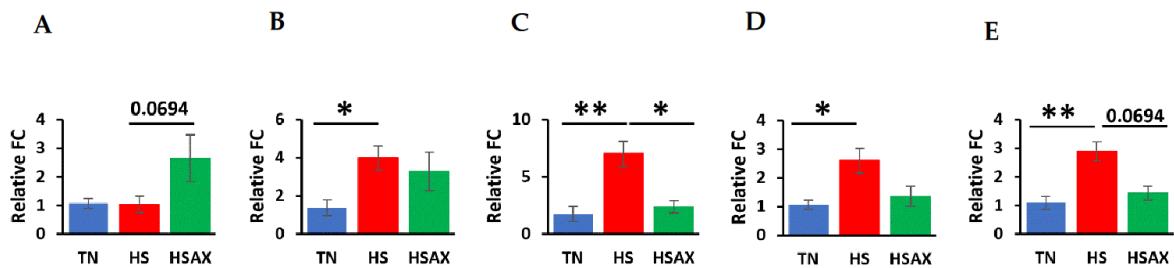


Figure 6. Effects of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment in the cytoprotective capacity gene expression in the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) SOD2, KW $p=0.0489$, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$); (B) SOD3, KW $p=0.0446$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0386$); (C) GPX2, KW $p=0.0050$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0061$), HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0448$); (D) PRDX4, KW $p=0.0260$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0283$); and (E) PRDX6, KW $p=0.0060$, TN vs HS ($p=0.0061$), HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0694$).

3.2.6. Apoptotic Gene

The results of the apoptotic pathway showed a clear indicator in the upregulation of caspase 3 (CASP3), HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0002$).

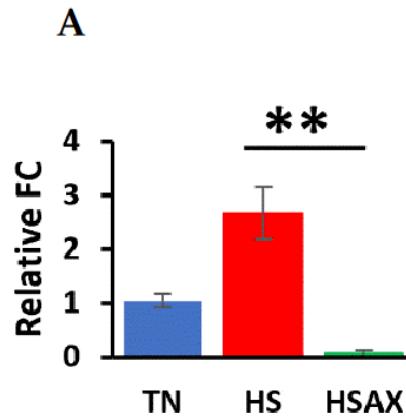


Figure 7. Effects of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment in the apoptotic pathways in the thymus tissue of Cob-500 broilers. Three groups were compared: TN, HS, and HSAX. Kruskal-Wallis test and Dunn post hoc test for statistical significance represented: (A) CASP3, KW $p=0.0005$, HS vs HSAX ($p=0.0002$).

3.2.7. Gene Ontology (GO) Gene Enrichment

4. Discussion

4.1. Growth Performance

Growth performance is anticipated to suffer under any stress condition, and in this study under HS. Although the growth performance indexes did not show any significant benefit from an AOX supplement, the health of the poultry was further elucidated through the molecular mechanisms of gene expression providing insights affecting the health and wellbeing of the broilers.

4.2. Gene Ontology Enrichment and Expression Analysis

4.2.1. NF- κ B Transcription Signaling Pathway Genes

The NF- κ B transcription signaling pathway is a critical regulator of immune and inflammatory responses. NF- κ B can be found throughout the cell in the nucleus, mitochondrion, chromatin and cytoplasm. When not upregulated, NF- κ B is generally sequestered in the cytoplasm by I κ B inhibitor proteins such as I κ B κ B, located in the cytoplasm and cytosol. RELA found in the cytoplasm is a key subunit of the NF- κ B transcription factor complex to form heterodimers of NF- κ B for translocation into the nucleus upon activation for DNA-binding transcription activity. When activated by stimuli, such as stress, free radicals, pathogens and cytokines, I κ Bs are phosphorylated by a kinase enzyme for ubiquitination and degradation, freeing the NF- κ B to translocate into the nucleus to promote the transcription of target genes involved in inflammation, immune response, cell proliferation, and survival. The NF- κ B pathway plays a significant role in responding to cellular stress and homeostasis (Table 5).

Table 5. Gene ontology of differentially expressed genes in the thymus of 6-week Cob-500 broilers exposed to 21 days of heat stress and astaxanthin treatment (*Ensembl*) [41].

Gene	Cellular component	Molecular function	Biological process	Transcript IDs
NFKB1 (nuclear factor kappa B subunit 1)	nucleus, cytoplasm, mitochondrio n, chromatin	DNA binding transcription factor activity, RNA polymerase II specific DNA	regulation of transcription by RNA polymerase II, MAPK cascade, JNK cascade,	ENSGAL00010005476

		binding, chromatin, protein and actinin binding	NIK/NF-kappaB signaling	
RELA (proto-oncogene, NF-kB subunit)	cytoplasm	DNA-binding transcription factor activity	regulation of DNA-templated transcription	ENSGALG0001000127 7
IKBKB (inhibitor of nuclear factor kappa B kinase subunit beta)	cytoplasm, cytosol	protein kinase activity, identical protein binding, protein homodimerization activity, scaffold protein binding, transferrin receptor binding	Protein phosphorylation, I-kappaB kinase/NF-kappaB signaling, cellular response to tumor necrosis factor, regulation of establishment of endothelial barrier, negative regulation of bicellular tight junction assembly	ENSGALG0001001795 5
NFE2L2 (nuclear factor, erythroid 2 like 2)	nucleus, cytoplasm, Golgi apparatus, chromatin, centrosome, plasma membrane, RNA polymerase II transcription regulator complex	DNA binding transcription factor activity, RNA polymerase II specific DNA-binding, transcription factor binding, ubiquitin protein ligase binding	response to oxidative stress, inflammatory response, regulation of gene expression, protein ubiquitination, cell redox homeostasis, positive regulation of glutathione biosynthetic process, regulation of removal of superoxide radicals	ENSGAL00010024107
KEAP1 (kelch like ECH)	nucleus, cytoplasm,	RNA polymerase II-specific DNA-	cellular response to oxidative	ENSG00000079999

associated protein 1)	endoplasmic reticulum, Cul3-RING ubiquitin ligase complex, centriolar satellite	binding transcription factor binding, ubiquitin ligase-substrate adaptor activity, disordered domain specific binding, identical protein binding	stress, ubiquitin-dependent protein catabolic process, regulation of DNA-templated transcription, regulation of autophagy	
MAF (MAF bZIP transcription factor)	nucleus, cytoplasm, RNA polymerase II transcription regulator complex	DNA-binding transcription factor activity, RNA polymerase II sequence-specific DNA binding	regulation of DNA templated transcription, regulation of transcription by RNA polymerase II, cell development	ENSGALG0001000780 0
RXRA (retinoid X receptor alpha)	nucleus, RNA polymerase II transcription regulator complex, receptor complex	RNA polymerase II transcription regulatory region sequence-specific DNA binding, enzyme, peptide, metal ion binding, retinoic acid-responsive element binding, Vitamin D response element binding	peroxisome proliferator activated receptor signaling pathway, retinoic acid receptor signaling pathway, positive regulation of Vitamin D receptor signaling pathway, cell differentiation	ENSGALG0001002842 2
PPARG (peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor gamma)	nucleus, cytoplasm, intracellular membrane-bounded organelle	DNA-binding transcription factor activity, nuclear receptor activity, zinc and metal ion binding	Regulation of DNA-templated transcription, transcription by RNA polymerase II, intracellular receptor signaling pathway	ENSGALG0001002791 7
CD36 (CD36 molecule)	external side of plasma membrane, receptor	low-density lipoprotein particle receptor activity, high-	MAPK cascade, cell surface receptor signaling pathway, positive	ENSGALG0000100083 92

	complex, membrane raft	density lipoprotein particle binding, Toll-like receptor binding, scavenger receptor activity	regulation of cytosolic calcium ion concentration, nitric oxide mediated signal transduction, intestinal cholesterol absorption, positive regulation of reactive oxygen species metabolic process, lipid transport across blood-brain barrier	
SOD2 (superoxide dismutase 2, mitochondria l)	mitochondrio n	superoxide dismutase activity, oxidoreductase activity, manganese ion binding, metal ion binding, identical protein binding	response to oxidative stress, oxidation- reduction process, negative regulation of oxidative stress- induced intrinsic apoptotic signaling pathway, response to hydrogen peroxide, removal of superoxide radicals	ENSGALT0000001906 2
SOD3 (superoxide dismutase 3)	extracellular space, collagen- containing extracellular matrix	superoxide dismutase activity, copper and metal ion binding	superoxide metabolic process, response to hypoxia	ENSGALG0001000983 3
GPX2 (glutathione peroxidase 2)	cytosol, intercellular bridge,	glutathione peroxidase activity,	response to oxidative stress	ENSGALG0001002153 7

	mitotic spindle	phospholipid-hydroperoxide glutathione peroxidase activity		
PRDX4 (peroxiredoxin 4)	cytoplasm, endoplasmic reticulum	antioxidant activity, thioredoxin peroxidase activity, oxidoreductase activity, peroxiredoxin activity, molecular sequestering activity	response to oxidative stress, cell redox homeostasis, hydrogen peroxide catabolic process, reactive oxygen species metabolic process, cellular oxidant detoxification	ENSGALG0001000321 4
PRDX6 (peroxiredoxin 6)	nucleus, cytoplasm	antioxidant activity, glutathione peroxidase activity, oxidoreductase activity, peroxiredoxin activity, ubiquitin protein ligase binding	response to oxidative stress, cellular oxidant detoxification, glycerophospholipid catabolic process	ENSGALG0001001352 8
CASP3 (caspase 3)	nucleus, cytoplasm	endopeptidase activity, hydrolase activity, cyclin-dependent protein kinase inhibitor activity, cysteine-type endopeptidase activity involved in execution phase of apoptosis	T and B cell homeostasis, negative regulation of cytokine production, intrinsic apoptotic signaling pathway, negative regulation of cell cycle, neuron apoptotic process, epithelial cell apoptotic process	ENSGALG0001000706 7

The outcome of our studies indicates that the upregulation of the HS group over the TN group is consistent with the function of the NF- κ B complex to respond to cellular stress. While there is no significance between the TN and HSAX groups, it would indicate that AST is having some effect in reducing cellular stress, which coincides with the results where there is a significant difference between the upregulation of the HS over the HSAX group.

4.2.2. NFE2L2-Mediated Signaling Pathway Genes

The NFE2L2 (NRF2) plays a crucial role in cellular defense against oxidative stress. NFE2L2 is found throughout the cell in the nucleus, Golgi apparatus, chromatin, plasma membrane and cytoplasm. Under normal conditions, NFE2L2 is bound by KEAP1 in the cytoplasm, and in response to OS or electrophilic stimuli, NFE2L2 is released to translocate to the nucleus where it heterodimerizes with small MAF proteins. This NFE2L2-MAF complex binds to antioxidant response elements (AREs) in the promoters of target genes leading to transcription of a various cytoprotective genes (Table 5).

The results of our study show the HS group upregulated in comparison to the TN group in response to OS throughout the NFE2L2 signaling pathway. Similarly, HSAX is upregulated over the TN group in the KEAP1 gene expression, a critical regulator of the NFE2L2 signaling pathway, acting as a sensor for OS and controlling the activity of NFE2L2, likely a homeostatic feedback mechanism to maintain a balanced redox environment.

4.2.3. PPAR α Signaling Pathway Genes

The PPAR α signaling pathway plays a vital role in lipid metabolism, energy homeostasis and inflammation. Although PPAR α which is predominantly found in the nucleus has only a marginal significance in upregulation of the HS over the TN group, RXRA, PPAR γ and CD36 is significantly expressing. PPAR γ in the HSAX group is also upregulated in comparison to the TN group. PPAR α is generally in an inactive state in the nucleus and is activated by fatty acids or specific ligands to form a heterodimer with RXRA, and further undergo conformational changes for DNA-binding transcription factor activity in the promoter of target genes. Among the target genes is CD36 which facilitates fatty acid uptake and enzymes for lipid metabolism. PPAR γ can interact with PPAR α to help regulate lipid metabolism, reduce inflammation and maintain energy homeostasis (Table 5).

The results from our study indicate that although there is a subtle response of PPAR α to heat stress, PPAR γ appears to be involved in the cellular response to heat stress and suggests a role in AOX-mediated response to stress. RXRA forms heterodimers with PPAR α and is essential for transcriptional activity. The upregulation of CD36 in the HS group compared to the TN suggests increased lipid metabolism or fatty acid utilization, placing a demand on energy due to heat-induced OS.

4.2.4. Cytoprotective Capacity Genes

Cytoprotective capacity genes safeguard cells from various stressors including oxidative damage by enhancing AOX defense mechanisms to promote cell survival. SOD2 is found in the mitochondrion and responds to OS through the oxidation-reduction process for removal of superoxide radicals. SOD3 is found in the extracellular space and plays a crucial role in scavenging superoxide radicals outside the cell. GPX2 is found in the cytosol, intercellular bridge and mitotic spindle, involved in detoxifying peroxides, such as hydrogen peroxide. PRDX4 is found in the cytoplasm and endoplasmic reticulum, and PRDX6 is also found in the cytoplasm, and also the nucleus. Both peroxiredoxins are involved in scavenging for peroxides, providing peroxide detoxification and protection of cells from OS (Table 5).

The results showed significant upregulation of the HS compared to the TN groups in the expression of SOD3, GPX2, PRDX4 and PRDX6. There was also significant upregulation of the HS group over the HSAX group for GPX2, but only marginally for PRDX6. In addition, when analyzing the expression of SOD3, there was marginal upregulation of HSAX over the HS group. Overall, our findings highlight the dynamic regulation of AOX genes in response to heat-induced OS and the

potential modulatory effects of AST-AOX supplementation on cellular antioxidant defense mechanisms.

4.2.5. Apoptotic Pathway Genes

The CASP3 can be found in the cytoplasm and nucleus where it encodes for a cysteine protease involved in the execution phase of apoptosis. BCL2 encodes for an anti-apoptotic protein that inhibits cell death, and TP53 encodes for a tumor suppressor protein involved in cell cycle regulation and apoptosis (Table 5).

Our findings show significant upregulation of CASP3 in the HS group over the HSAX group, which suggests an activation of apoptotic pathways, potentially indicating cellular damage or heat-induced OS. The lack of significant expression of BCL2 and TP53 may suggest that heat stress alone may not induce significant alterations in apoptotic regulators, or that the antioxidant supplementation may be effective in mitigating the response to heat stress.

5. Conclusions

Overall, our experimental findings highlight the dynamic regulation of gene expression in the thymus related to the NF- κ B, NFE2L2, PPAR α , cytoprotective capacity and apoptotic pathways. Our main objective of the present study was to investigate the protective properties of AST against heat-induced OS and apoptosis in the chicken thymus. Our research provided insights into the molecular regulatory mechanisms that respond to heat-induced OS, and the potential therapeutic implementation of AST-AOX supplementation to mitigate the effects through modulation of transcription pathways. The complexities of such mechanisms, and the varied responses of AOX whether endogenous or applied leaves us with knowledge gaps that require further research to understand the therapeutic potentials of AST-AOX.

Supplementary Materials: The following supporting information can be downloaded at the website of this paper posted on Preprints.org. Supplementary data is available in an open-source repository Github as referenced in the Data Availability Statement below.

Author Contributions: DLK conceived the study, collected samples, performed laboratory assays, analyzed the data, performed data preparation and figures and wrote the manuscript. YF, MN, HY and VSK conceived the study and performed analysis. YD conceived the study and contributed resources. All authors edited the manuscript and approved the final draft.

Funding: This project was supported by grants from the National Institute of Health (NIH) grants T32DK137523, U54GM138062, U54MD007601, P30GM114737, P20GM103466, P20GM139753, U54HG013243, National Science Foundation (NSF) 1745130, American Indian Science and Engineering Society, Advancing Agricultural Science Opportunities for Native Americans (AASONA), and University of Hawaii, Hilinehu Educational Leadership Advancement (S362A210110). The content is solely the responsibility of the authors and does not necessarily represent the official views of the NIH.

Institutional Review Board Statement: The study was conducted according to the guidelines and approved by the University of Hawaii Institutional Animal Care and Use Committee (IACUC) under protocol number 17-2605.

Informed Consent Statement: "Not applicable."

Data Availability Statement: The original data presented in this study are openly available in Github at (https://github.com/sweetiek/Broiler_thymus_astaxanthin).

Acknowledgments: Special acknowledgments and sincere gratitude to Socorro Tauyan, Facility Manager of the Small Animal Facility, Magooon Research Station, Honolulu, Hawaii, for her support and oversight throughout the animal nutrition experiment, and coordination with the Animal Physiology Lab at the University of Hawaii, Human Nutrition, Food and Animal Sciences.

Conflicts of Interest: The authors declare no conflict of interest.

References

1. Vos, J.G., Moore, J.A. Immune suppression as related to toxicology. *CRC Crit. Rev. Toxicol.*, 1977, 5, 67–101. <https://doi.org/10.3109/10408447709101342>.
2. Murray, J.M., Kaufmann, G.R., Hodgkin, P.D., Lewin, S.R., Kelleher, A.D., et al. Naive T cells are maintained by thymic output in early ages but by proliferation without phenotypic change after age twenty. *Immunol. Cell Biol.*, 2003, 81, 487–495.
3. Gameiro, J., Nagib, P., Verinaud, L. The thymus microenvironment in regulating thymocyte differentiation. *Cell Adhes. Migr.*, 2010, 4, 382–390.
4. Savino, W. The thymus is a common target organ in infectious diseases. *PLoS Pathog.*, 2006, 2:e62
5. Thapa, P., Farber, D.L. The role of the thymus in the immune response. *Thorac. Surg. Clin.*, 2019, 29, 123–131.
6. Raviola, E., Karnovsky, M.J. Evidence for a blood-thymus barrier using electronopaque tracers. *J Exp Med.*, 1972, 136:466–498
7. Lynch, H.E., Goldberg, G.L., Chidgey, A., Van den Brink, M.R., Boyd, R., et al. Thymic involution and immune reconstitution. *Trends Immunol.*, 2009, 30, 366–373.
8. Dai, X., Zhang, D., Wang, C., Wu, Z., Liang, C. The pivotal role of thymus in atherosclerosis mediated by immune and inflammatory response. *Int. J. Med. Sci.*, 2018, 15, 1555–1563.
9. Chrousos, G. P. Stress and disorders of the stress system. *Nat. Rev. Endocrinol.*, 2009, 5, 374.
10. Kumar, B. Stress and its impact on farm animals. *Front. Biosci.*, 2012, E4, 1759.
11. Li, W.J., Nie, S.P., Peng, X.P., Liu, X.Z., Li, C., et al. Ganoderma atrum polysaccharide improves age-related oxidative stress and immune impairment in mice. *J Agric Food Chem.*, 2012, 60:1413–1418
12. Gostner, J.M., Becker, K., Ueberall, F., Fuchs, D. The good and bad of antioxidant foods: an immunological perspective. *Food Chem Toxicol.*, 2015, 80:72–79
13. Lessard, M., Savard, C., Deschene, K., Lauzon, K., Pinilla, V.A., et al. Impact of deoxynivalenol (DON) contaminated feed on intestinal integrity and immune response in swine. *Food Chem Toxicol.*, 2015, 80:7–16
14. Saeidnia, S., Abdollahi, M. Toxicological and pharmacological concerns on oxidative stress and related diseases. *Toxicol Appl Pharmacol.* 2013;273(3): 442–55.
15. Zhang, X.Y., Yao, J.K. Oxidative stress and therapeutic implications in psychiatric disorders. *Prog Neuropsychopharmacol Biol Psychiatry.* 2013; 46(10):197–9.
16. Neri, M., Fineschi, V., Di Paolo, M., Pomara, C., Riezzo, I., et al. Cardiac Oxidative Stress and Inflammatory Cytokines Response after Myocardial Infarction. *Curr Vasc Pharmacol.* 2015;13(1):26–36
17. Nunes, V.A., Gozzo, A.J., Cruz-Silva, I., Juliano, M.A., Viel, T.A., et al. Vitamin E prevents cell death induced by mild oxidative stress in chicken skeletal muscle cells. *Comp Biochem Physiol C Toxicol Pharmacol.* 2005;141(3):225–40.
18. Singhal, A., Morris, V.B., Labhsetwar, V., Ghorpade, A. Nanoparticle-mediated catalase delivery protects human neurons from oxidative stress. *Cell Death Dis.* 2013;4(11):e903.
19. Rao, M., Yang, W., Seifalian, A.M., Winslet, M.C. Role of cyclooxygenase-2 in the angiogenesis of colorectal cancer. *Int J Color Dis.* 2004, 19(1):1–11
20. Ashton, K.J., Reichelt, M.E., Mustafa, S.J., Teng, B., Ledent, C., et al. Transcriptomic effects of adenosine 2A receptor deletion in healthy and endotoxemic murine myocardium. *Purinergic Signal.* 2016, 13(1):1–23
21. Goodman, W.A., Omenetti, S., Date, D., Di, M.L., De, S.C. et al. KLF6 contributes to myeloid cell plasticity in the pathogenesis of intestinal inflammation. *Mucosal Immunol.* 2016, 9(5):1250–1262
22. Hu, X., Chi, Q., Liu, Q., Wang, D., Zhang, Y., et al. Atmospheric H2S triggers immune damage by activating the TLR-7/MyD88/NF-κB pathway and NLRP3 inflammasome in broiler thymus. *Chemosphere.* 2019, 237:124427
23. Di Prisco, G., Iannaccone, M., Ianniello, F., Ferrara, R., Caprio, E., et al. The neonicotinoid insecticide Clothianidin adversely affects immune signaling in a human cell line. *Sci. Rep.* 2017, 7, 13446
24. Bajpai, V.K., Alam, M.B., Ju, M.K., Kwon, K.R., Huh, Y.S., et al. Antioxidant mechanism of polyphenol-rich *Nymphaea nouchali* leaf extract protecting DNA damage and attenuating oxidative stress-induced cell death via Nrf2-mediated heme-oxygenase-1 induction coupled with ERK/p38 signaling pathway. *Biomed Pharmacother.* 2018, 103:1397–1407
25. Lam, G.Y., Huang, J., Brumell, J.H. The many roles of NOX2 NADPH oxidasederived ROS in immunity. *Semin Immunopathol.* 2010;32(4):415–30.
26. Kotsias, F., Hoffmann, E., Amigorena, S., Savina, A. Reactive oxygen species production in the phagosome: impact on antigen presentation in dendritic cells. *Antioxid Redox Signal.* 2013;18(6):714–29.
27. Yang, Y., Bazhin, A.V., Werner, J., Karakhanova, S. Reactive oxygen species in the immune system. *Int Rev Immunol.* 2013;32(3):249–70.
28. Moraes, L. A., Piqueras, L., and Bishop-Bailey, D. Peroxisome proliferator-activated receptors and inflammation. *Pharmacol. Ther.* 2006, 110:371–385.

29. Mounier, R., Theret, M., Arnold, L., Cuvellier, S., Bultot, L. O., et al. AMPKalpha1 regulates macrophage skewing at the time of resolution of inflammation during skeletal muscle regeneration. *Cell Metab.* 2013, 18:251–264.
30. Okamoto, H., T. Iwamoto, S. Kotake, S. Momohara, H. Yamanaka, et al. Inhibition of NF- κ B signaling by fenofibrate, a peroxisome proliferator-activated receptor- α ligand, presents a therapeutic strategy for rheumatoid arthritis. *Clin. Exp. Rheumatol.*, 2005 23:323–330.
31. Eggersdorfer, M., A. Wyss, A. Carotenoids in human nutrition and health. *Archives of Biochemistry and Biophysics*, 2018, vol. 652, pp. 18–26.
32. Destefanis, S., Giretto, D., Muscolo, M.C., Di Cerbo, A., Guidetti, G., et al. Clinical evaluation of a nutraceutical diet as an adjuvant to pharmacological treatment in dogs affected by Keratoconjunctivitis sicca. *BMC Vet. Res.* 2016, 12, 214.
33. Guidetti, G., Di Cerbo, A., Giovazzino, A., Rubino, V., Palatucci, A.T., et al. In Vitro Effects of Some Botanicals with Anti-Inflammatory and Antitoxic Activity. *J. Immunol. Res.* 2016, 5457010.
34. Di Cerbo, A., Morales-Medina, J.C., Palmieri, B., Pezzuto, F., Cocco, R., et al. Functional foods in pet nutrition: Focus on dogs and cats. *Res. Vet. Sci.* 2017, 112, 161–166.
35. Fakhri, S., Abbaszadeh, F., Dargahi, L., Jorjani, M. Astaxanthin: A mechanistic review on its biological activities and health benefits. *Pharmacol. Res.* 2018, 136, 1–20.
36. Astaxanthin. (n.d.). Retrieved from <https://pubchem.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov/compound/Astaxanthin>. Accessed 02 Apr 2024
37. Heaney, R. P. Factors Influencing the Measurement of Bioavailability, Taking Calcium as a Model. *The Journal of Nutrition*, 2001, 131(4). doi: 10.1093/jn/131.4.1344s.
38. Mularczyk, M., Michalak, I., Marycz, A. Astaxanthin and other Nutrients from *Haematococcus pluvialis*-Multifunctional Applications. *Mar Drugs*. 2020 Sep 7;18(9):459. Doi: 10.3390/md18090459. PMID: 32906619; PMCID: PMC7551667.
39. Shahidi, F., Barrow, C. J. Marine nutraceuticals and functional foods. Boca Raton: CRC Press, 2008
40. Livak, K. J., Schmittgen, T. D. Analysis of relative gene expression data using real-time quantitative PCR and the 2- $\Delta\Delta$ Ct method. *Methods*, 2001, 25: 402-408.
41. Ensembl.org, https://uswest.ensembl.org/Gallus_gallus/Info/Index _Accessed 04 Apr 2024.
42. R Core Team (2023) <https://www.R-project.org/> Accessed 04 Apr 2024.

Disclaimer/Publisher's Note: The statements, opinions and data contained in all publications are solely those of the individual author(s) and contributor(s) and not of MDPI and/or the editor(s). MDPI and/or the editor(s) disclaim responsibility for any injury to people or property resulting from any ideas, methods, instructions or products referred to in the content.