




Impact of dietary phytochemicals on production and quality of ruminant meat and milk: A comprehensive systematic review

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ABSTRACT

The role of phytochemicals such as polyphenols, essential oils, saponins and organosulfur compounds in ruminant production systems has evolved from their riddance as anti-nutritional factors in the past to current exploration as potential natural antimethanogens, anthelmintics, stress alleviators, growth enhancers, and biopreservatives. This shift stems from the desire to improve animal health, production and product quality while reducing greenhouse gas emissions and reliance on antibiotics and synthetic additives. The impact, mechanism of action and transfer efficiency of dietary phytochemicals for ruminant production and product preservation have, however, been reported to be uncertain primarily due to a lack of optimized application conditions. The current review provides a comprehensive update on the impacts of dietary phytochemicals for ruminant production and product quality enhancement and suggests directions for future research, innovation and adoption. A Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) approach was conducted in Scopus, Web of Science and Google Scholar databases to identify and select peer-reviewed journal articles published between 2010 and 2025. The comprehensive systematic review used data from 174 *in vivo* studies. The results show no impact, insufficient investigation into the mechanisms and transfer efficiency of dietary phytochemicals for ruminant production and product quality. Nonetheless, there are indications that essential oils and polyphenols hold potential to enhance ruminant production, oxidative stability and health value of edible products. A portfolio of future directions, including optimizing application conditions, customizing diet formulations, educating value-chain actors, enacting harmonized regulations and policies, fostering transdisciplinary collaboration and establishing institutions to coordinate research and innovation, was proposed to fully unlock the value of dietary essential oils and polyphenols in ruminant production systems.

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1. Introduction

Phytochemicals represent a diverse group of naturally occurring, non-nutritive, bioactive secondary metabolites found in plants, including forages, trees, shrubs, vegetables, herbs and spices (Khajali and Rafei, 2024; Tedeschi et al., 2021). They are synthesized by plants as part of the defence, signalling and adaptive mechanisms, serving ecological functions such as protection against herbivores and pathogens, attraction of pollinators and tolerance to environmental stresses (Divekar et al., 2022). Phytochemicals were once considered anti-nutritional factors in ruminant feed but are now suggested to have potential benefits in animal production and product quality. Specifically, essential oils (Andri et al., 2020; Dorantes-Iturbide et al., 2022; Wells, 2024), polyphenols (Al Rharad et al., 2025; Bešlo et al., 2022; Orzuna-Orzuna et al., 2023), organosulfur compounds (Ding et al., 2023; Iommelli et al., 2025) and saponins (Kholif, 2023; Ramdani et al., 2023) are being explored for their roles as natural rumen modifiers, antimethanogens, anthelmintics, reproductive enhancers, growth promoters, stress alleviators and biopreservatives.

The evolution in the role of phytochemicals has been largely driven by increasing antimicrobial resistance (Enshaie et al., 2025; Wang et al., 2024), climate change (FAO, 2023; Soltan and Patra, 2024), growing consumer demand for safer natural and sustainable healthy foods (Wang et al., 2024; Warner, 2024) and the call for transition towards a circular economy in food systems (Rizwan et al., 2025; Stempfle et al., 2024).

Globally, meat and milk from domesticated ruminants (e.g., cattle, buffalo, goats and sheep) account for about 16 % of the total protein intake and 8 % of total energy intake (Mottet et al., 2017). Moreover, they are excellent sources of other essential nutrients, including minerals, vitamins and bioactive compounds. Ruminants, with their specialized digestive system and gut microbiome, are uniquely adapted to valorize fibrous and phytochemical-rich feedstuffs into edible products like meat and milk for human consumption (Cuchillo-Hilario et al., 2024; Kholif, 2023). However, it is challenging to isolate and describe the specific effects of an individual phytochemical compound or a group of phytochemical compounds on animal production and product quality, as phytochemicals cover a wide range of compounds from many diverse subclasses. While *in vitro* studies offer advantages in terms of control, time, cost and mechanism elucidation, *in vivo* animal studies are more accurate for evaluating the effects of extracts or feedstuffs rich in phytochemicals due to their ability to model realistic biological systems and identify potential toxicity and pharmacological effects (Formato et al., 2022; Naumann et al., 2017; Tedeschi et al., 2021). Even under controlled *in vivo* studies, the effects of dietary phytochemical extracts (DPEs) on feed intake, animal performance and quality of ruminant meat and milk have been quite unpredictable. This is because the effects of DPEs can be either positive, negative, neutral or transient, depending on specific application conditions, including phytochemical type, dietary inclusion level and form, rumen microbial adaptation and animal factors such as species, age and weight (Martins et al., 2023; Ponnampalam et al., 2024; Serra et al., 2021).

Recent studies generally suggest that moderate levels of DPEs improve ruminant performance and the quality of meat and milk (Costa et al., 2021; dos Santos et al., 2024; Hassan et al., 2020) by modulating rumen microbiome and enhancing carbohydrate, protein and lipid metabolism (Kholif and Olafadehan, 2021; Singh et al., 2024; Vasta et al., 2019). Specifically, DPEs and/or their metabolites may accumulate in muscle or milk, consequently improving physicochemical quality, lipid and protein oxidative stability, microbial safety and sensory attributes (El-Essawy et al., 2021; Soldado et al., 2024; Tian et al., 2025). These positive effects could be explained by the biopreservative (i.e., antioxidant and antimicrobial) activities exerted by a broad spectrum of phytochemicals, including essential oils, polyphenols, organosulfur compounds and saponins (Serra et al., 2021; Vasta et al., 2019).

Despite the wealth of information, the impact of DPEs on production and quality of ruminant meat and milk remains uncertain. Additionally, there is a noticeable gap in research on the transfer of individual compounds from DPE subclasses into meat or milk. Specifically, there is a lack of studies that simultaneously quantify individual phytochemical compounds or their subgroups in ruminant animal feeds, tissues and products, which is crucial for gaining valuable insights into their bioavailability, bioefficacy and underlying mechanisms of action. Further elucidation of these lesser-known aspects of individual phytochemical compounds is crucial for developing feasible and reliable strategies to enhance ruminant production and product quality. Thus, the objective of the current comprehensive systematic review was to present the recent updates on the impact of DPEs on production and quality of meat and milk, and propose future directions for research, innovation and adoption. It was hypothesized that DPEs can enhance ruminant production and product quality and achieving this potential requires a holistic approach involving appropriate research, innovation and adoption strategies.

2. Review methodology

Research questions were generated with a Population, Intervention, Comparison, and Outcome (PICO) strategy (Nishikawa-Pacher, 2022). The population was ruminants (cattle, goats, and sheep), the intervention was dietary supplementation with pure or crude phytochemical extracts (essential oils, polyphenols, saponins and organosulfur compounds), the comparison was with diets with no extract supplements, and the outcomes were meat or milk production, physicochemical quality, shelf-life stability, fatty acids and sensory quality of the diet treatment means. The Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) approach (Page et al., 2021) was used to search scientific articles in electronic databases, including Web of Science, Scopus and Google Scholar, between March and August 2025. The search only included articles published between 2010 and 2025. A broad Boolean search string ("Dietary phytochemicals" OR "polyphenol" OR "tannin" OR "saponin" OR "essential oil" OR "organosulfur compounds" OR "extract") AND ("ruminant" OR "dairy" OR "meat" OR "lamb" OR "milk yield" OR "goat" OR "sheep" OR "cow" OR "milk") was used and followed by various combinations of keywords such as ("plant extracts" OR "cattle" OR "meats" OR "bovine" OR "dietary supplements" OR "milk" OR "fatty acids" OR "dietary supplement" OR "bioactive compounds" OR "sheep" OR "lipid Oxidation" OR "essential oils" OR

"oxidation" OR "growth performance" OR "shelf life" OR "lactation" OR "meat quality" OR "body weight" OR "colour" OR "antioxidant capacity" OR "flavonoid" OR "goat" OR "ruminant" OR "tannins" OR "sensory analysis" OR "body weight gain" OR "goats" OR "beef" OR "oxidative stability" OR "dry matter intake"). The gathered literature was managed using Mendeley and screened for relevance to the topic, as shown in Fig. 1. The inclusion procedure considered only research articles (excluding reviews, books, and chapters) on DPEs fed to ruminants with results on meat or milk production, physicochemical quality, shelf-life stability, fatty acids, and sensory quality. An extra 110 scientific articles were gathered from Scopus and Google Scholar, between March and August 2025 based on relevance irrespective of time of publication to explain production aspects, availability and mechanisms around DPE use in ruminants and derived food products.

3. Dietary sources of phytochemicals for ruminant production and quality of edible products

The main categories of phytochemicals identified from crude or pure extracts were essential oils, polyphenols (flavonoids and tannins), saponins and organosulfur compounds (Tables 1 – 7). Black wattle (*Acacia mearnsii*; 19 citations), chilli pepper (*Capsicum oleosum*; 16 citations), oregano (*Origanum vulgare*; 15 citations), chestnut (*Castanea sativa*; 14 citations), quebracho (*Schinopsis lorenzii*; 13 citations), and rosemary (*Rosmarinus officinalis*; 12 citations) were the most researched sources of phytochemicals for meat and milk production (Supplementary Table 1 and 2). *Acacia mearnsii* and *Schinopsis spp* have high contents of condensed tannins (CTs), while *Castanea spp* are rich in hydrolysable tannins (HTs), *Capsicum spp* contains capsaicin, *Origanum spp* is an excellent source of carvacrol, and *R. officinalis* is known for containing 1,8 cineole. The essential oil category was dominated by capsaicin, a polyphenolic amide and carvacrol, a monoterpene phenol, while CTs and HTs were the main polyphenols. This aligns with literature, which shows that polyphenols, specifically tannins, and essential oils are the main phytochemical compounds studied under dietary nutraceutical supplements for ruminant meat and milk production (Biondi et al., 2019; Vasta and Luciano, 2011). Extracts from *Acacia*, *Schinopsis*, *Capsicum*, *Origanum*, *Castanea* and *Rosmarinus* species are commercially available on the local markets in most medium-high income countries (Brunetto et al., 2024; Soldado et al., 2024; Valenti et al., 2019). The popularity of these sources could be related to their adaptability to diverse environments, wide geographical distribution and high polyphenolic contents, which require less complex extraction protocols and affordable solvents (Valenti et al., 2019; Vasta et al., 2013; Vasta and Luciano, 2011).

Notably, there is a lack of literature on the use of phytochemical extracts from indigenous plants in low-income countries, especially in Africa, despite the fact that numerous plants or plant parts are continuously used in ruminant production as nutraceutical supplements (Mapiye et al., 2025). This may be ascribed to the lack of simple, accessible and affordable solvents and equipment for phytochemical extract recovery, especially for resource-limited, small-scale ruminant producers who are the majority in Africa. It is also important to note that a number of studies investigating the impact of phytochemicals on ruminant production and product quality often use broader subclass names rather than specifying the scientific names for the individual compounds (Ponnampalam et al., 2025). This level of detail is critical for clarity, accuracy, reproducibility, reliable comparisons and understanding of individual phytochemical effects.

The effects of crude or pure DPEs on ruminant meat or milk production and quality have been assessed among domesticated meat- and milk-producing ruminants (Tables 1 – 7). For meat production, lamb (73 citations) was the most studied animal, followed by beef cattle (29 citations) and chevon goats (9 citations). The increased focus of studies on lamb compared to beef could be primarily driven by the lower production costs associated with the former species and the growing demand for its meat due to relatively low intramuscular fat (Lisitsyn et al., 2017; Mandolesi et al., 2020; Ponnampalam et al., 2024). For milk production, cow (59 citations) studies were dominant, followed by ewes (8 citations) and does (5 citations). The concentration of research on cows may be attributable to the large quantities of milk produced compared to ewes and does. In meat production studies, the duration of feeding varied with the animal species. Lambs were fed for 12–161 days, goats for 56–121 days and cattle for 30–390 days. This largely reflects the different growth rates and market targets for each ruminant species. In studies that focused on milk production, the duration of feeding also varied across species, with cattle feeding periods ranging from 9 to 169 days, ewes from 28 to 43 days, and does from 22 to 70 days. This indicates differences in their physiological needs related to lactation periods, reproduction cycles, gestation lengths and milk production requirements for the offspring.

3.1. Feed intake, growth and carcass attributes of meat-producing ruminants

Most of the studies that examined the influence of DPEs on meat production attributes reported neutral outcomes on dry matter intake (DMI; 53 of 71 citations), average daily gain (ADG; 45 of 72), feed efficiency (37 of 52), slaughter weight (52 of 72) and dressing percentage (i.e., carcass yield; 39 of 49; Table 1). A smaller proportion found either positive or negative outcomes (Table 1). The lack of differences reported for these production attributes could be attributed to lower DPEs inclusion levels for most studies. However, extracts containing carvacrol (Wu et al., 2020), cinnamaldehyde (Ornaghi et al., 2017), D-limonene (Dias Junior et al., 2024), eugenol (Ornaghi et al., 2017) and allicin (Tang et al., 2024; Yuan et al., 2025) positively impacted at least three animal production parameters. Essential oils (i.e., carvacrol, cinnamaldehyde, D-limonene and eugenol) may have improved animal production through enhancing the palatability of feed and increasing digestion of fibre and protein by rumen microbes (Dorantes-Iturbide et al., 2022; Li et al., 2025; Patra and Yu, 2012). Allicin, an organosulfur compound, could improve productive performance of ruminants through its ability to positively impact rumen microbiota, potentially leading to enhanced fermentation and digestion (Ding et al., 2023; Yuan et al., 2025; Zhang et al., 2025).

García-Salas et al. (2022) found an increase in animal performance when feeding lower doses of CTs (1.75 and 3.5 g/kg DM) from *A. mearnsii*, while higher doses (5 g/kg DM) decreased performance. Low doses of CTs have been reported to enhance rumen

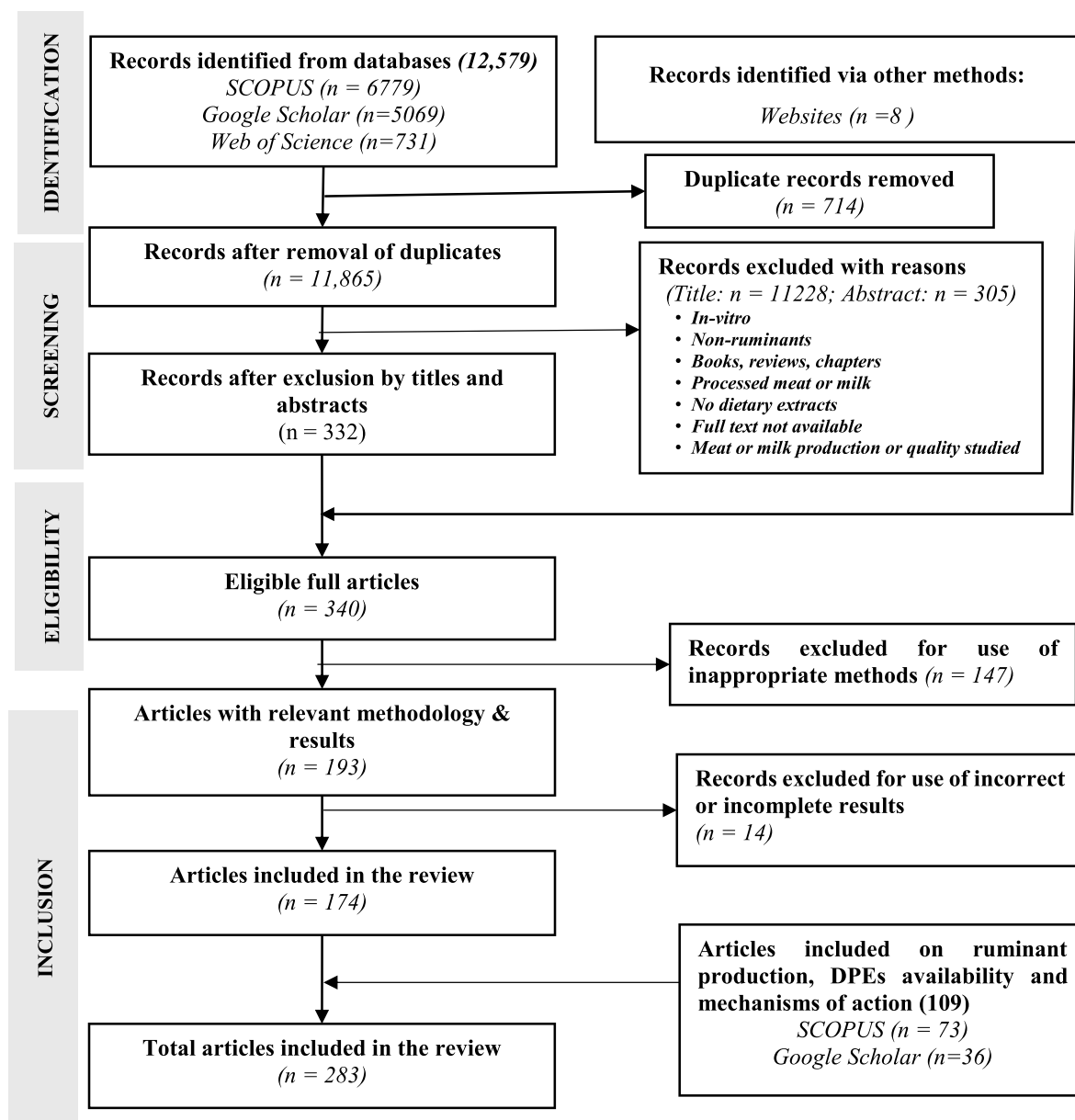


Fig. 1. PRISMA Flow diagram.

fermentation and protein bypass, ultimately leading to improved animal performance (Besharati et al., 2022; Orzuna-Orzuna et al., 2023). However, studies feeding diets containing high doses of CTs extracts (> 40 g/kg) from sources like *A. mearnsii* (Costa et al., 2021; dos Santos et al., 2024; Pimentel et al., 2021), *S. lorentzii* (dos Santos et al., 2022a) and *Corymbia citriodora* (Eucalyptus, Hassan et al., 2020) reported adverse impacts on productive performance of ruminants. This can be accredited to the astringent and nutrient-binding properties of CTs, which respectively reduce palatability and nutrient digestibility (Gao et al., 2024; Jacondino et al., 2022; Ma et al., 2024). Notably, the effects CTs extracts from *A. mearnsii* (Costa et al., 2021; dos Santos et al., 2024), were dose-dependent, reaching an optimum performance at 30–40 g/kg DM. In a recent meta-analysis, Ahmed et al. (2025) suggested 15 g/kg DM as the optimal inclusion level for tannin extracts from *A. mearnsii*, *S. lorentzii* and *C. sativa* in sheep and cattle for sustained animal performance. Previous reviews set the upper limits for polyphenols, including tannins between 40 and 50 g/kg DM beyond which nutrient digestion and animal performance is impaired (Al Rharad et al., 2025; Besharati et al., 2022; Orzuna-Orzuna et al., 2023). In this context, further research is recommended to establish optimal levels for specific phytochemical compounds within a subclass (e.g., allicin, carvacrol or quercetin) for each ruminant species.

Table 1

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on ruminant meat production and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Average daily gain	Slaughter weight	Feed efficiency	Carcass weight	Carcass yield	Economic viability	Reference
1,8 cineole* [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb (4)	70	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Güney et al. (2021)
	Lamb	100	0.6 g/kg, 0.3 or 0.6 ml/d	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Smeti et al. (2018)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Lippia graveolens</i>)]	Lamb (3)	60	0.2 or 0.4 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Muñoz-cuautle and Herrera-haro (2022)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Oregano onites</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Origanum vulgare</i> ssp. <i>hirtum</i>)]	Bull (2)	240	0.026 g/kg	↑	↑	↑	↔	-	-	-	Wu et al. (2020)
Cinnamaldehyde* [Cinnamon]	Bull (10)	187	3.5 or 7 g/d	↑	↑	↑	↔	↑	↔	-	Ormaghi et al. (2017)
	Lamb (1.5)	35	0.4 ml/d	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Simitzis et al. (2014)
Cinnamaldehyde & carvacrol (2:1)* [Cinnamon and oregano]	Lamb (3)	60	0.03, 0.06 or 0.12 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	-	-	-	-	Ma et al. (2023)
D-limonene* [Arnica montana]	Lamb (3)	90	0.45, 0.9, or 1.35 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	↔	-	Dias Junior et al. (2023)
D-limonene* [Orange (<i>Citrus sinensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	84	0.1, 0.5 or 1 g/kg	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↔	-	Dias Junior et al. (2024)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)]	Goat (6–8)	121	2.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Mandal et al. (2014)
	Bull (10)	187	3.5 or 7 g/d	↑	↑	↑	↔	↑	↔	-	Ormaghi et al. (2017)
Mixture* [Thyme, rosemary, and orange essential oil + Cinnamomum and Quillaja saponaria extract]	Steers (5)	120	0.2 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	-	Wandscheer et al. (2024)
Mixture* [Oregano, rosemary, lemon, garlic, eucalyptus, thyme & sweet orange]	Heifer (12)	90	3.5 or 7 g/d	-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Guerrero et al., (2018)
	Steers (12)	120		-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	-	
Mixture* [Thymol, eugenol, vanillin, guaiacol, and limonene]	Steers	98	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Wang et al. (2020a); (2020b)
Mixture* (Oregano, castor bean, and cashew oils)	Bulls (22)	94	4 g/d	↔	↑	↑	↔	↑	↔	-	Fugita et al. (2018)
Unspecified* [Rum-A-fresh: 1.3 % essential oils + 0.75 % cobalt]	Goats	90	0.052 or 0.091	-	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑ ^{0.091 g/kg}	-	Lei et al. (2018)
Unspecified* [myrtle, <i>Myrtus communis</i> L.]	Goats (3)	67	30 or 60 g/kg	↔	↓ ^{30g/kg}	↔	-	↔	↔	-	Smeti et al. (2021)

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Table 1 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Average daily gain	Slaughter weight	Feed efficiency	Carcass weight	Carcass yield	Economic viability	Reference
Unspecified*	Steer (7)	167	1g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Pukrop et al. (2019)
Saponin* [<i>Acacia concinna</i> pods]	Goat (6–8)	121	5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	Mandal et al. (2014)
Sesquiterpenes* [<i>Copaiba</i> (<i>Copaifera</i> spp.)]	Lamb (8)	90	0.5, 1 or 1.5 g/kg	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	–	–	Moura et al. (2017)
Anthocyanin [†] [Corn]	Goat	74	0.5 or 1g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	Tian et al. (2022)
Quercetin [†] [Chinese scholar tree (<i>Sophora japonica</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	2 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	–	–	Andrés et al. (2013)
Capsaicin [†] [Hot pepper (<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Chlorogenic acid [†] [<i>Eucommia ulmoides</i> Oliver]	Lamb (2)	49	5 or 10 g/kg	↔	↔	–	↔	–	–	–	Liu et al. (2018a)
Condensed & hydrolyzable tannin [†] [Quebracho & chestnut (1:1)]	Lamb (6)	70	2, 4, or 6 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	–	–	Rojas-Román et al. (2017)
Condensed tannin [†] [<i>Acacia mearnsii</i>]	Lamb (2)	89	2.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	–	Brunetto et al. (2024)
	Lamb (4)	85	20, 40, 60, or 80 g/kg	↓>60g/kg	↓>60g/kg	↓>60g/kg	–	↓>40g/kg	↓>40g/kg	–	Costa et al. (2021)
	Bull (16)	99	10, 30 or 50 g/kg	↓50g/kg	↓50g/kg	↓50g/kg	↔	↔	↑	–	dos Santos et al. (2024)
	Lambs (3)	70	1.75, 3.5 or 5.25 g/kg	↑1.75, 3.5 g/kg	↑1.75, 3.5 g/kg	↑1.75, 3.5 g/kg	↑1.75g/kg	↑3.5 g/kg	↑3.5, 5.25 g/kg	–	García-Salas et al. (2022)
	Lamb (5)	62	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	–	–	Jacondino et al. (2022)
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Biondi et al. (2019); (Valenti et al., 2021, 2019)
	Bull (20)	110	0.8, 1.6, or 3.2 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Silva et al. (2024)
	Goats (4)	84	16, 32 or 48 g/kg	↓≥48g/kg	↔	↓≥48g/kg	–	↓≥48g/kg	–	–	Pimentel et al. (2021)
Condensed tannin [†] [gambier (<i>Uncaria gambir</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Valenti et al. (2021)
Condensed tannin [†] [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Lamb (4)	49	10, 30 or 60 g/kg	↓≥30g/kg	↓60g/kg	↓≥30g/kg	↑60g/kg	↓≥30g/kg	↔	–	dos Santos et al. (2022a)
	Lamb (90)	70	20 or 40 g/kg	↑	↑	↔	↔	–	–	–	Kamel et al. (2018)
	Bullock	40	3 g/kg	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	Ortiz-López et al. (2024)
Condensed tannin [†] [<i>Eucalyptus</i> (<i>Corymbia citriodora</i>)]	Calf (4–5)	105	10 or 20 ml/d	↓	↓	↓	↑	–	–	–	Hassan et al. (2020)
Condensed tannin [†] [Grape seed (<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	25 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↑	–	Jerónimo et al. (2010)

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Table 1 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Average daily gain	Slaughter weight	Feed efficiency	Carcass weight	Carcass yield	Economic viability	Reference
Condensed tannin ^f [Rockrose (<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	250 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↑	–	Jerónimo et al. (2010)
	Lamb (3)	35	15 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Dentinho et al. (2020)
	Lamb	42	20.5 or 41 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓ ^{20.5g/kg} ↔ ^{41g/kg}	↓ ^{41g/kg}	↔	–	Guerreiro et al. (2020); Soldado et al. (2024)
Condensed tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Steer	328	1.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Carvalho et al. (2024)
	Lamb	28	30, 40 or 50 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	Ngámbi et al. (2022)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Tara (<i>Caesalpinia spinosa</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Biondi et al. (2019), Valenti et al. (2019), (2021)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Yerba mate (<i>Ilex paraguariensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	53	10, 20 or 40g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	Pena-Bermudez et al. (2022)
	Steer (21)	94	5, 10 or 15g/kg	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	de Zawadzki et al. (2017)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i>)]	Lamb (3–4)	70	2 or 4 g/kg	↑	↑	↔	↔	–	–	–	Gao et al. (2024)
	Lamb (4)	60	10 or 30 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	Liu et al. (2011)
	Bull	210	1 or 1.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Mergeduš et al. (2022)
	Lamb (4)	56	5 or 10 g/kg	↔	↑	↔	↑	↔	↔	–	Liu et al. (2016)
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	↓	–	Valenti et al. (2019), (2021)
	Lamb (3)	90	3 or 6 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{3g/kg} ↓ ^{6g/kg}	↑ ^{3g/kg} ↓ ^{6g/kg}	↔	↔	↔	–	Wang et al. (2023)
	Lamb	86	15, 30 or 45 ml/kg	↔	↑	↔	↔	–	–	–	Rajabi et al. (2017)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Pomegranate (<i>Punica granatum</i> L)]	Lamb	86	15, 30 or 45 ml/kg	↔	↑	↔	↔	–	–	–	Rajabi et al. (2017)
Unspecified	Lamb (2)	70	3 or 6 g/d	–	–	↑ ^{3g/d}	–	↑ ^{3g/d}	↔	–	Ma et al. (2024)
Proanthocyanidins ^f [Grape, olive, & pomegranate]	Lamb (4–5)	85	3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	Poli et al. (2021)
Ferulic acid ^f [Corn or unspecified]	Heifer	30	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	↔	↑	↓ ^{0.25g/kg}	–	Peña-Torres et al. (2021)
	Lamb (4)	40	0.25 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Valadez-García et al. (2021)
	Lambs (4)	34	0.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Macías-Cruz et al. (2014)
	Lamb (3)	30	0.08, 0.4 or 2 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{0.08g/kg}	↔	↑ ^{0.08g/kg}	–	–	–	Wang et al. (2019)
	Lamb (3–4)	63	30 ml/	↑	↑	–	–	–	–	–	Salem et al. (2011)
Rosmarinic acid ^f [<i>Leucaena leucocephala</i>]	Lamb (3–4)	63	30 ml/	↑	↑	–	–	–	–	–	Salem et al. (2011)
Salicin ^f [<i>Salix babylonica</i>]	Lamb (3–4)	63	30 ml/	↑	↑	–	–	–	–	–	Salem et al. (2011)
Hydroxytyrosol ^f [Olive mill extract]	Goat (2)	78	0.0032 g/d	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	Cimmino et al. (2018)

(continued on next page)

Table 1 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Average daily gain	Slaughter weight	Feed efficiency	Carcass weight	Carcass yield	Economic viability	Reference
Tannic acid ^f [unspecified]	Steer	154	30 or 60 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Tabke et al. (2017)
Unspecified ^f [<i>Pinus taeda</i> hydrolysed lignin]	Bulls (6.5)	120	35 g/d at 1–90 days 70 g/d at 91–120 days	–	↔	↔	–	↔	–	–	Maggiolino et al. (2020)
Terpenes ^f [<i>Ferulago angulata</i>]	Lamb (45)	104	0.25, 0.5, 0.75 g/kg	↓	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	Parvar et al. (2018)
Unspecified ^f [Radiata pine bark]	Lamb (4)	35	10 or 20 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Vera et al. (2023)
Unspecified ^v [Wild onion (<i>Allium mongolicum</i>)]	Lamb (5)	60	2.8 or 3.4 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	Ding et al. (2021)
	Lamb (3)	60	2.8 or 3.4 g/d	↓	↔	↔	↑ ^{2.8g/d}	↔	↔	–	Liu and Ao (2021)
	Lamb (3)	90	30 g/d	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	–	↓	Zhang et al. (2023)
	Lamb (3)	60	2.8 or 3.4 g/d	↔	↑	↔	↓	↔	↔	–	Yaxing et al. (2021)
Saponin [Red feathers (<i>Echium amoenum</i>)]	Lamb (6)	97	0.3, 1.5 or 3 ml/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	Sooror et al. (2013)
Saponin [Alfalfa (<i>Medicago sativa</i> L.)]	Lamb (3–4)	90	0.5, 1, 2, or 4 g/kg	↔	↔	↑	↔	–	–	–	Liu et al. (2018b)
Allicin ^f [Garlic (<i>Allium sativum</i>)]	Goat (3–4)	75	0.5, 0.75 or 1 g/kg	↑ ^{0.75g/kg}	↑	↑ ^{0.75g/kg}	↓	↑ ^{0.5, 0.75g/kg}	↓ ^{0.75g/kg}	↑	Yuan et al. (2025)
	Goats (3)	56	0.75 g/d	↔	↑	↑	↑	–	–	–	Tang et al. (2024)
Citations summary of directions of effects	Neutral (↔) effects			53	45	52	37	40	39	1	
	Negative (↓) effects			8	7	7	4	6	4	1	
	Positive (↑) effects			10	22	15	11	10	6	1	
Total number of citations				71	74	74	52	56	49	3	

*: Essential oil; †: flavonoid; ^f: polyphenol; ^v: organosulfur; mo: months; ↔: no significant effect; ↑: significant increase; ↓: significant decrease; –: not reported.

Table 2
Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on ruminant meat quality attributes and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding (days)	Dose	pH	Water holding capacity	Drip loss	Cooking loss	Shear force	L*	a*	b*	Moisture content	Ash	Crude protein	Intramuscular fat	Antioxidant activity	Myoglobin oxidation	Lipid oxidation	Protein oxidation	Microbial growth	Reference	
1,8 cineole* [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↑FRAP	-	↔	-	-	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)	
	Lamb	100	0.6g/kg, 0.3 or 0.6 ml/d	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Smeti et al. (2018)	
		60	0.6g/kg	↔	-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Smeti et al., (2013)
	Lamb (4)	70	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Güney et al. (2021)
Carnosic acid and carnosol ¹ [Rosemary leaves (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb	80	0.0002 or 0.0004 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	↓	↔	↔	Ortuño et al. (2014)	
	Lamb	50	0.6 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	↓	Ortuño et al. (2015)
1,8 cineole* [laurel leaf (<i>Laurus nobilis</i> L.)]	Lamb (5-6)	90	0.5 ml/d	↔	↔	-	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↓	-	-	Al-Obaidi et al. (2021)	
Camphor* [Artemisia (<i>Artemisia herba alba</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	↑FRAP	-	↔	-	-	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)
Carvacrol* [Oregano]	Steer (12)	390	0.13 or 0.26 g/d	↓	-	↑	↑	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	↑EA	-	-	-	-	He et al. (2023)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Lippia graveolens</i>)]	Lamb (3)	60	0.2 or 0.4 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑FRAP	-	↓	-	-	Muñoz-cuautle & Herrera-haro (2022)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Lippia S. berlandieri</i>)]	Lamb	70	0.2, 0.3 or 0.4 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	↑	↑	↑	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	-	-	-	Garcia-galicia et al. (2020)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Oregano onites</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	-	-	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	-	-	↔	-	-	-	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Cinnamaldehyde * [Cinnamon (<i>Cinnamomum zeylanicum</i>)]	Bull (10)	187	0.45 or 0.88 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Torreilhas et al. (2021)
	Lamb (1.5)	35	0.4 ml/d	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	-	↔	Simitzis et al. (2014)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Eugenia caryophyllus</i>)]	Goat (6-8)	121	2.5 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	Mandal et al. (2014)
	Lamb (5-6)	90	0.5 ml/d	↔	↔	-	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↓	-	-	Al-Obaidi et al. (2021)
	Bull (10)	187	0.45 or 0.88 g/kg	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Torreilhas et al. (2021)
Mixture* [Clove leaf (<i>Eugenia aromatica</i>) + castor oil (<i>Ricinus communis</i>) + cashew oil (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>) + commercial blend (vanillin, eugenol, & thymol)]	Bull (16)	62	1.5, 3, 4.5 or 6 g/d	↓	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	-	-	Ornaghi et al. (2020)
Mixture* [Rosemary; Eugenol, thymol & vanillin blend; Clove]	Heifer	73	4 g/d	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	de Oliveira Monteschio et al. (2017); Monteschio et al. (2019)
Mixture* [Thyme, rosemary, & orange essential oil + Cinnamomum &	Steers (5)	120	0.2 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↑	↓ROS	-	↓	-	-	-	Wandscheer et al. (2024)

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Table 2 (continued)

	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{a-T, γ-T}	↓	↔	-	↔	Biondi et al. (2019), Valenti et al. (2019, 2021)	
Condensed tannin ^a [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Lamb (4)	49	10, 30 or 60 g/kg	↔	-	-	↔	↓	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	dos Santos et al. (2022a)	
	Lamb (90)	70	20 or 40 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Kamel et al. (2018)	
	Bullock	40	3 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Ortiz-López et al. (2024)	
Condensed tannin ^a [Quebracho (<i>Aspidosperma quebracho</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	0.08 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	Brogna et al. (2014)	
Condensed tannin ^a [Grape seed (<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	25 g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	Jerónimo et al. (2012)	
Condensed tannin ^a [Rockrose (<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> L.)]	Lamb (3)	35	15 g/kg	↔	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Dentinho et al. (2020)	
	Lamb	42	20.5 or 41 g/kg	↔	-	-	↑	↔	↑ ^{4g/kg}	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{a-T, γ-T}	TEAC, FRAP	-	↔	Guerreiro et al. (2020); Soldado et al. (2024)	
Condensed tannin ^a [Unspecified]	Lamb	28	30, 40 or 50 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	↑ ^{DPPH}	-	-	-	Ngambi et al. (2022)	
Unspecified ^a [Cashew (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.) and castor (<i>Ricinus communis</i> L.)]	Bulls (20)	55	3 g/d	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Valero et al. (2014)	
Unspecified ^b [<i>Pinus taeda</i> hydrolysed lignin]	Bulls (6.5)	120	35 g/d at 1–90 days 70 g/d at 91–120 days	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	Maggiolino et al. (2020)	
Chrysin* [Unspecified]	Bulls (20)	55	3 g/d	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	Valero et al. (2014)	
Hydrolysable tannin ^a [Tara (<i>Caesalpinia spinosa</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{a-T}	↑ ^{γ-T}	↔	↔	-	Biondi et al. (2019), Valenti et al. (2019, 2021)	
Hydrolysable tannin ^a [Yerba mate (<i>Ilex paraguariensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	53	10, 20 or 40 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↑ ^{40g/kg}	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{EA}	-	↔	↔	-	Pena-Bermudez et al. (2020, 2022)	
Hydrolysable tannin ^a [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i>)]	Bull	210	1 or 1.5 g/kg	↔	-	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	Mergeduš et al. (2022)	
	Lamb (4)	56	5 or 10 g/kg	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↑	↔	↑	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↓	-	Liu et al. (2016)	
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{a-T, γ-T}	↓	↔	-	-	Valenti et al. (2019, 2021)	
	Lamb (3)	90	3 or 6 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{6g/kg}	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↑ ^{TOC}	-	-	↓	-	Wang et al. (2023)
Hydrolysable tannin ^a [Unspecified]	Lamb (2)	70	3 or 6 g/d	-	-	↔	↔	↓	-	-	-	-	-	-	↑	-	-	-	-	-	Ma et al. (2024)	
Proanthocyanidin ^a [Grape, olive, & pomegranate]	Lamb (4–5)	85	3g/kg	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	Poli et al. (2021)	
Ferulic acid ^a [Corn]	Steer (24)	30 or 60	0.006 g/kg BW	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↑ ^{60d}	-	González-Ríos et al. (2016)	
	Heifer	30	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	Peña-Torres et al. (2021)
	Lamb (4)	40	0.25 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Valadez-García et al. (2021)
Flavanols ^a [Red wine extract]	Lamb	40	0.9 g/kg	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔ ^{a-T, TPC}	↔	↔	↑	-	-	Muiño et al. (2014)	
Hydroxytyrosol ^b [Olive mill extract]	Goat (2)	78	0.0032 g/d	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	Cimmino et al. (2018)
Tannic acid ^a [unspecified]	Steer	154	30 or 60 g/d	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	↑ ^{60g/kg}	↔	-	-	-	Tabke et al. (2017)

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Table 3

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on ruminant meat shelf-life and ageing quality and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Antioxidant activity	Oxidation			Microbial growth	L*	a*	b*	Ageing (SF)	Reference
					Myoglobin	Lipid	Protein						
1,8 cineole* [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb (4)	70	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Güney et al. (2021)
	Lamb	100	0.6g/kg, 0.3 or 0.6 ml/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Smeti et al. (2018)
		60	0.6g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Smeti et al., (2013)
	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)
	Lamb	80	0.2 or 0.4 mg/kg	–	–	↓	↓	↔	↓	↑	↓	–	Ortuño et al. (2014)
Carnosic acid and carnosol ^f [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb	50	0.6 g/kg	–	–	↓	↓	↔	↓	↔	–	–	Ortuño et al. (2015)
	Lamb (1.5)	42	0.6 or 1.2 g/kg	–	–	↓ ^{1.2g/kg}	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	Morán et al. (2012)
1,8 cineole* [laurel leaf (<i>Laurus nobilis</i> L.)]	Lamb (5–6)	90	0.5 ml/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Al-Obaidi et al. (2021)
Camphor* [Artemisia (<i>Artemisia herba alba</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Lippia S. berlandieri</i>)]	Lamb	70	0.2, 0.3 or 0.4 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	García-galicia et al. (2020)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Oregano onites</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Cinnamaldehyde* [Cinnamon (<i>Cinnamomum zeylanicum</i>)]	Bull (10)	187	0.45 or 0.88 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Torreilhas et al. (2021)
	Lamb (1.5)	35	0.4 ml/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Simitzis et al. (2014)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Eugenia caryophyllus</i>)]	Bull (10)	187	0.45 or 0.88 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Torreilhas et al. (2021)
	Lamb (5–6)	90	0.5 ml/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Al-Obaidi et al. (2021)
Mixture* [Clove leaf (<i>Eugenia aromatica</i>) + castor oil (<i>Ricinus communis</i>) + cashew oil (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>) + commercial blend (vanillin, eugenol, & thymol)]	Bull (16)	62	1.5, 3, 4.5 or 6 g/d	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ornaghi et al. (2020)
Mixture* [Thymol, eugenol, vanillin, guaiacol, and limonene]	Steers	98	1g/d	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	↔	Wang et al. (2020b)
Mixture* [Rosemary; Eugenol, thymol & vanillin blend; Clove]	Heifer	73	4 g/d	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	de Oliveira Monteschio et al. (2017)
Mixture* [Oregano, rosemary, lemon, garlic, eucalyptus, thyme & sweet orange]	Heifer (12)	90	3.5 or 7 g/d	↑ ^{DPPH}	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Rivaroli et al. (2016), (2020)
Mixture* [Clove, cashew and castor oils + eugenol, thymol and vanillin]	Steers (20)	80	1.5, 3, 4.5 or 6 g/d	↔ ^{TPC, ABTS DPPH, FRAP}	–	↔	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	Mottin et al. (2022)

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Table 3 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Antioxidant activity	Oxidation			Microbial growth	L*	a*	b*	Ageing (SF)	Reference
					Myoglobin	Lipid	Protein						
Unspecified* [myrtle, <i>Myrtus communis</i> L.]	Goats (3)	67	30 or 60 g/kg	–	–	↓	–	–	↔	↔	↓	–	Smeti et al. (2021)
Unspecified*	Steer (7)	167	1g/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Pukrop et al. (2019)
Ketones* Sage leaves (<i>Salvia officinalis</i> L.)	Lamb (5–6)	90	0.5 ml/d	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Al-Obaidi et al. (2021)
Quercetin [†] [Chinese scholar tree (<i>Sophora japonica</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	2 g/kg	–	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Andrés et al. (2013)
Capsaicin [†] [Hot pepper (<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Condensed tannin [†] [<i>Acacia mearnsii</i>]	Lamb (5)	62	40 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Jacondino et al. (2022)
	Lamb (3)	133	20 g/kg	–	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Venter et al. (2024)
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Biondi et al. (2019)
Hydrolysable tannin [†] [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i>)]	Lamb (3)	90	3 or 6 g/kg	–	–	–	↓	–	–	–	–	–	Wang et al. (2023)
	Lamb (4)	56	5 or 10 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Liu et al. (2016)
Condensed tannin [†] [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Lamb (4)	49	10, 30 or 60 g/kg	–	–	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↓	↔	dos Santos et al. (2022b)
	Bullocks	40	3 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Ortiz-López et al. (2024)
Condensed tannin [†] [Quebracho (<i>Aspidosperma quebracho</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	80 mg/kg	–	–	↓	–	–	–	–	–	–	Brognia et al. (2014)
Condensed tannin [†] [Grape seed (<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	25 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Jerónimo et al. (2012)
Condensed tannin [†] [Rockrose (<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	20.5 or 41 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Soldado et al. (2024)
Unspecified [†] [<i>Pinus taeda</i> hydrolysed lignin]	Bulls (6.5)	120	35 g/d at 1–90 days 70 g/d at 91–120 days	–	–	↓ ⁸ , 11d	↓ ^{8d}	–	↔	↔	↓	↔	Maggiolino et al. (2020)
Hydrolysable tannin [†] [Tara (<i>Caesalpinia spinosa</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	–	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Biondi et al. (2019)
Hydrolysable tannin [†] [Yerba mate (<i>Ilex paraguariensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	53	10, 20 or 40g/kg	–	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Pena-Bermudez et al., (2020)
Ferulic acid [†] [Corn]	Steer (24)	30 or 60	6 mg/kg BW	–	–	↓	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	González-Ríos et al. (2016)
Flavanols [†] [Red wine extract]	Lamb	40	900 mg/kg	–	–	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	–	Muñoz et al. (2014)
Tannic acid [†] [unspecified]	Steer	154	30 or 60 g/d	–	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Tabke et al. (2017)
Terpenes [†] [<i>Ferulago angulata</i>]	Lamb (45)	104	0.25, 0.5, 0.75 g/kg	–	–	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	Parvar et al. (2018)

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Table 3 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding period (days)	Dose	Antioxidant activity	Oxidation			Microbial growth	L*	a*	b*	Ageing (SF)	Reference	
					Myoglobin	Lipid	Protein							
Saponin ⁴ [Soap bark tree bark (<i>Quillaja saponaria</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	15 mg/kg	–	–	↓	–	–	–	–	–	–	Brogna et al. (2014)	
Citation summary of direction of effects				Neutral (↔) effects	1	3	31	4	4	24	26	22	10	
				Negative (↓) effects	0	0	8	4	2	2	0	4	0	
				Positive (↑) effects	1	0	0	0	0	0	1	0	0	
Total number of studies					2	3	39	8	6	26	27	26	10	

mo: months; SF: shear force; ↔: no significant interaction; ↑: significant increase; ↓: significant decrease; –: not reported.

ABTS: 2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid); DPPH: 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl assay; FRAP: Ferric reducing antioxidant power assay; TPC: Total phenolic content.

Table 4

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on muscle (*longissimus thoracicus*) fatty acid profile of ruminants and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference	
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4		
1,8 cineole* [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Vasta et al. (2013)	
	Lamb (4)	70	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↑	-	↔	↔	-	↔	↑	Güney et al. (2021)
Carnosic acid and carnosol ^f [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb	100	0.6g/kg, 0.3 or 0.6 ml/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↑	↔	↑	↑	Smeti et al. (2018)
	Lamb (1.5)	42	0.6 or 1.2 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Morán et al. (2013)
Camphor* [Artemisia (<i>Artemisia herba alba</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↑	↔	↑	-	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Vasta et al. (2013)
Carvacrol* [Oregano]	Steer (12)	390	0.13 or 0.26 g/d	↔	↔	↓	↓	-	-	↔	↑	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	He et al. (2023)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Lippia S. berlandieri</i>)]	Lamb	70	0.2, 0.3 or 0.4 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Garcia-galicia et al. (2020)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Oregano onites L.</i>)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Cinnamaldehyde & carvacrol (2:1)* [Cinnamon & oregano]	Lamb (3)	60	0.03, 0.06 or 0.12 g/kg	-	↓	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	↑	-	↔	↑	-	Ma et al. (2023)
D-limonene* [Arnica montana]	Lamb (3)	90	0.45, 0.9, or 1.35 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	-	↓	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↓	↔	↑	-	Dias Junior et al. (2023)
D-limonene* [Orange (<i>Citrus sinensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	84	0.1, 0.5, or 1 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Dias Junior et al. (2024)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)]	Goat (6–8)	121	2.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	-	Mandal et al. (2014)
Mixture* [Rosemary; Eugenol, thymol & vanillin blend; Clove]	Heifer	73	4 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Monteschio et al. (2019)
Mixture* [Thyme, rosemary, & orange essential oil + Cinnamomum & Quillaja saponaria extract]	Steers (5)	120	0.2 g/kg	-	↓	↓	↔	-	-	↑	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	↑	↔	Wandscheer et al. (2024)
Mixture* [Thymol, eugenol, vanillin, guaiacol, and limonene]	Steers	98	1g/d	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↑	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	Wang et al. (2020a)

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Table 4 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4	
Mixture* [Oregano, rosemary, lemon, garlic, eucalyptus, thyme & sweet orange]	Heifer (12)	90	3.5 or 7 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Rivaroli et al. (2020)
Mixture* [thymol, carvacrol, eucalyptol and cinnamaldehyde]	Lamb (3)	56	0.15 g/kg	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ortiz-Heredia et al. (2023)
Mixture* (oregano oils, castor bean, cashew)	Bulls (22)	94	4 g/d	↔	↔	↑	↔	-	-	↓	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Fugita et al. (2018)
Unspecified* [myrtle, <i>Myrtus communis</i> L.]	Goats (3)	67	30 or 60 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Smeti et al. (2021)
Saponin* [<i>Acacia concinna</i> pods]	Goat (6–8)	121	5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Mandal et al. (2014)
Anthocyanins [†] [Corn]	Goat	74	0.5 or 1g/d	↓ ^{0.5g/d}	↔	↓ ^{0.5g/d}	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	↑ ^{0.5g/d}	↔	↑	Tian et al. (2022)
Capsaicin [†] [Hot pepper (<i>Capsicum annuum</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Condensed tannin [†] [<i>Acacia mearnsii</i>]	Lamb (2)	89	2.5 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	-	-	↑	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↓	↑	Brunetto et al. (2024)
	Lamb (4)	85	20, 40, 60, or 80 g/kg	↑	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↓	↔	-	↑	↑	↓ ^{>40g/kg}	↑	↑	Costa et al. (2021)
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valenti et al. (2021)
	Bull (16)	99	10, 30 or 50 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{10, 30 g/kg}	↔	↔	-	↑	↑ ^{10, 30 g/kg}	↑	-	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	dos Santos et al. (2024)
	Lamb (5)	62	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	Jacondino et al. (2022)
	Lamb (3)	133	20 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	Venter et al. (2024)
	Goats (4)	84	16, 32 or 48 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↓	↔	-	↑	↔	↔	↑	↔	Pimentel et al. (2021)
Condensed tannin [†] [gambier (<i>Uncaria gambir</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valenti et al. (2021)
Condensed tannin [†] [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Lamb (90)	70	20 or 40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	-	-	↔	↑	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	Kamel et al. (2018)
Condensed tannin [†] [Quebracho]	Lamb (2)	12	0.08 g/kg	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Brogna et al. (2014)

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Table 4 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4	
(<i>Aspidosperma quebracho</i>)																		
Condensed tannin ^f [Grape seed (<i>Vitis vinifera</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	25 g/kg	–	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	↑	Jerónimo et al. (2012)
Condensed tannin ^f [Rockrose (<i>Cistus ladanifer</i> L.)]	Lamb (2)	42	20.5 or 41 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑ ^{20.5/kg}	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Guerreiro et al. (2020)
Unspecified* [Cashew (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i> L.) and castor (<i>Ricinus communis</i> L.)]	Bulls (20)	55	3 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valero et al. (2014)
Chrysin* [Unspecified]	Bulls (20)	55	3 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valero et al. (2014)
Unspecified ^f [<i>Pinus taeda</i> hydrolysed lignin]	Bulls (6.5)	120	35 g/d at 1–90 days 70 g/d at 91–120 days	↔	↑	↑	↓	–	↓	↓	–	–	↓	–	↓	↓	↓	Maggiolino et al. (2020)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Tara (<i>Caesalpinia spinosa</i>)]	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valenti et al. (2021)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Yerba mate (<i>Ilex paraguariensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	53	10, 20 or 40g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Pena-Bermudez et al. (2022)
Hydrolysable tannin ^f [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i>)]	Lamb (3–4)	70	2 or 4 g/kg	–	↔	↓	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	Gao et al. (2024)
	Lamb (2)	75	40 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Valenti et al. (2021)
	Lamb (3)	90	30 or 60 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Wang et al. (2023)
Unspecified ^f [<i>Terminalia chebula</i>]	Goat (5–6)	90	1.06 or 3.18g/kgBW	↔	↔	↓ ^{3.18g/kgBW}	↓ ^{3.18g/kgBW}	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Rana et al. (2012)
Ferulic acid ^f [Corn]	Steer (24)	30 or 60	0.006 g/kg BW	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↑	–	González-Ríos et al. (2016)
Flavanols ^f [Red wine extract]	Lamb	40	0.9 g/kg	–	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	–	Muño et al. (2014)
Hydroxytyrosol ^f [Olive mill extract]	Goat (2)	78	0.0032 g/d	↔	↓	↓	↔	–	–	↑	↔	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	Cimmino et al. (2018)
Terpenes ^f [<i>Ferulago angulata</i>]	Lamb (45)	104	0.25, 0.5, 0.75 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	Parvar et al. (2018)
Unspecified ^f Moringa leaf (<i>Moringa oleifera</i>)	Lamb (4)	161	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	Webb et al. (2022)
Saponin [tea saponins]	Lamb	60	3 g/d	–	↓	↔	↔	–	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Mao et al. (2012)

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Table 4 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, mo)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4	
Unspecified ^v [Wild onion (<i>Allium mongolicum</i>)]	Lamb (3)	75	2.8 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↓	–	–	↑ ^{2.8g/d}	–	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	–	Zhao et al. (2023)
	Lamb (3)	60	2.8 or 3.4 g/d	↔	↑	↓	↓	↑ ^{2.8g/d}	↑ ^{2.8g/d}	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Yaxing et al. (2021)
	Lamb (6)	75	0.011, 0.022, or 0.033 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	Liu et al. (2019)
Unspecified ^f [Neem leaf (<i>Azadirachta indica</i>)]	Lamb (4)	161	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	Webb et al. (2022)
Saponin ^f [Soap bark tree bark (<i>Quillaja saponaria</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	0.015 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Brogna et al. (2014)
Citation summary of directions of effects	Neutral (↔) effects			44	45	44	44	9	23	45	25	15	47	38	33	42	32	
	Negative (↓) effects			1	4	7	10	1	2	4	0	0	1	0	3	2	1	
	Positive (↑) effects			1	4	2	0	1	5	5	6	0	5	5	7	10	7	
Total number of studies				46	53	53	54	11	30	54	31	15	53	43	43	54	40	

*: Essential oil; [†]: flavonoid; ^f: polyphenol; ^v: organosulfur; m: months; CLA: Conjugated linoleic acid; ↔: no significant effect; ↑: significant increase; ↓: significant decrease; –: not reported.

Table 5

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on meat volatile compounds, sensory and consumer perception profiles in ruminants and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, m)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Volatile compounds				Sensory profile				Reference
				Alcohols	Aldehydes	Furans	Organic acids	Juiciness	Tenderness	Flavour	Acceptability	
1,8 cineole* [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb (4)	70	250 or 500 mg/kg	–	–	–	–	Descriptive sensory analysis				Güney et al. (2021)
	Lamb (3)	95	400 mg/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)
	Lamb	100	0.6g/kg, 0.3 or 0.6 ml/d	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↑	↑	Smeti et al. (2018)
	Lamb	60	0.6g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Smeti et al., (2013)
Carnosic acid and carnosol ^f [Rosemary (<i>Rosmarinus officinalis</i>)]	Lamb	80	0.2 or 0.4 mg/kg	↓	↓	↓	↓	–	–	↔	–	Ortuño et al. (2014)
	Lamb (1.5)	42	0.6 or 1.2 g/kg	↓ ^{0.6g/kg}	↔	–	↓ ^{0.6g/kg}	–	–	–	–	Morán et al. (2013)
Camphor* [Artemisia (<i>Artemisia herba alba</i>)]	Lamb (3)	95	0.4 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	Aouadi et al. (2014); Vasta et al. (2013)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Oregano onites L.</i>)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Mixture* [Thymol, eugenol, vanillin, guaiacol, and limonene]	Steers	98	1g/d	–	–	–	–	↑	↑	↔	–	Wang et al. (2020b)
Capsaicin ^f [Hot pepper (<i>Capsicum annuum L.</i>)]	Lamb (2)	56	0.3 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ünlü et al. (2022)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Aspidosperma quebracho</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	0.08 mg/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	Brogna et al. (2014)
Condensed tannin ^f [Rockrose (<i>Cistus ladanifer L.</i>)]	Lamb (3)	35	15 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Dentinho et al. (2020)
	Lamb	42	20.5 or 41 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↓ ^{20.5g/kg}	↔	↔	↑	Guerreiro et al. (2020)
Condensed tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Lamb	28	30, 40 or 50 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ngámbi et al. (2022)
Ferulic acid ^f [Corn]	Steer (24)	30 or 60	0.006 g/kg BW	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	González-Ríos et al. (2016)
	Heifer	30	0.25 or 0.5 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Peña-Torres et al. (2021)
Flavanols ^f [Red wine extract]	Lamb	40	0.9 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Muñio et al. (2014)
Saponin ^f [Soap bark tree bark (<i>Quillaja saponaria</i>)]	Lamb (2)	12	0.015 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	Brogna et al. (2014)

Consumer sensory analysis

(continued on next page)

Table 5 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal (age, m)	Feeding (days)	Dose	Volatile compounds				Sensory profile				Reference
				Alcohols	Aldehydes	Furans	Organic acids	Juiciness	Tenderness	Flavour	Acceptability	
Mixture* [Oregano, rosemary, lemon, garlic, eucalyptus, thyme & sweet orange]	Heifer (12)	90	3.5 or 7 g/d	–	–	–	–	–	↑ ^{3.5g/d}	–	↔	Guerrero et al. (2018)
	Steers (12)	120		–	–	–	–	–	↔	–	↔	
Rosemary* Mixture* [Eugenol, thymol, and vanillin]	Heifer (24)	73	4 g/d	–	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	de Oliveira Monteschio et al. (2020)
Mixture* [Eugenol, thymol, and vanillin] + Clove				–	–	–	–	–	↔	↑	↔	
Mixture* [Eugenol, thymol, and vanillin] + Rosemary + clove				–	–	–	–	–	↑	↑	↔	
Cinnamaldehyde* [Cinnamon (<i>Cinnamomum zeylanicum</i>)]	Bull (10)	187	0.45 or 0.88 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Torrecilhas et al. (2021)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Eugenia caryophyllus</i>)]				–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	
Mixture* [Clove leaf (<i>Eugenia aromatica</i>) + castor oil (<i>Ricinus communis</i>) + cashew oil (<i>Anacardium occidentale</i>) + commercial blend (vanillin, eugenol, & thymol)]	Bull (16)	62	1.5, 3, 4.5 or 6 g/d	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Ornaghi et al. (2020)
Quercetin [†] [Chinese scholar tree (<i>Sophora japonica</i> L.)]	Lamb	42	2 g/kg	–	↔	–	–	–	↓	–	↓	Andrés et al. (2014)
Hydrolysable tannin [‡] [Yerba mate (<i>Ilex paraguariensis</i>)]	Lamb (3)	53	10, 20 or 40g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	Pena-Bermudez et al. (2022)
Condensed tannin [‡] [<i>Acacia mearnsii</i>]	Lamb (4)	85	20, 40, 60, or 80 g/kg	–	–	–	–	–	↓	↔	↔	Costa et al. (2021)
	Goats (4)	84	16, 32 or 48 g/kg	–	–	–	–	↔	↑	↑	↑	Pimentel et al. (2021)
Citation summary of directions of effects	Neutral (↔) effects			4	6	4	4	10 (5)	11 (8)	12 (3)	9 (11)	
	Negative (↓) effects			2	1	1	2	1 (0)	0 (2)	0 (0)	0 (1)	
	Positive (↑) effects			0	0	0	0	1 (0)	1 (3)	1 (3)	2 (1)	
Total number of citations				6	7	5	6	12 (5)	12 (13)	13 (6)	11 (13)	

*Essential oil; †: flavonoid; ‡: polyphenol; †: organosulfur; mo: months; ↔: no significant effect; ↑: significant increase; ↓: significant decrease; –: not reported; The sensory total values are present as descriptive sensory analysis (consumer sensory analysis)

Table 6

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on ruminant milk production and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Yield							Feed efficiency	Content			Somatic cell count	Reference
					Milk	3.5 % FCM ¹	Fat	Protein	Lactose	Total solids	Solid not fat		Fat	Protein	Lactose		
Anethole* [Anise (<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>)]	Goat	22	2 ml/d	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	El-Essawy et al. (2021)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)]				↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	-	-	↑	↔	↔	-	
Thymol* [Thyme (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>)]				↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	-	-	↑	↔	↔	-	
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Origanum vulgare</i>)]	Cow	58	0.56 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↓	↓	↔	-	Kolling et al. (2018)
		28	0.07 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Oh et al. (2019)
		28	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Benchaar (2020)
		42	10 g/d	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	Vizzotto et al. (2021)
Carvacrol* [Unspecified]	Cow	28	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Benchaar (2020)
Eugenol* [Unspecified]	Cow	28	0.025, 0.05 or 0.075 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	Benchaar et al. (2015)
Thymol, guaiacol, eugenol, vanillin, salicylaldehyde and limonene* [Unspecified]	Cow	21	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Vendramini et al. (2016)
Catechin ^f [Green tea (<i>Camellia sinensis</i> L.)]	Cow	42	5 g/d	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Vizzotto et al. (2021)
		58	0.28 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	-	Kolling et al. (2018)
D-limonene* [Orange (<i>Citrus sinensis</i>)]	Cow	28	4 g/d	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↓	Havlin and Robinson (2015)
Citral* [Lemongrass (<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i>)]	Cow	35	0.08, 0.16 or 0.24 m/kg BW	↔	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Canaes et al. (2017)
Cumin seed* [<i>Cuminum cyminum</i>]	Goat	32	12.7 or 25.3 g/DMI	↔	↑ ^{12.7g/}	-	↔	↔	↔	↑ ^{12.7g/}	-	↑ ^{12.7g/}	-	↔	↔	↔	Miri et al. (2013)
[<i>Aloe vera</i>] ^f	Goat	100	20 or 40 g/DM	↔	↑	-	↑	↑	↑	-	-	↑	-	↔	↔	↔	Banakar et al. (2023), (2021)
Hesperidin [Citrus peel extract]	Cow	42	4 g/d	-	↑	-	↔	↑	↑	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Ju et al. (2024)
Cinnamaldehyde, eugenol, capsicum oleoresin* [Unspecified]	Cow	42	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Martins et al. (2023)
Eugenol, geranyl acetate, linalool* [Coriander & others]	Cow	56	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Elcoso et al. (2019)
		28		↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↑	↔	↔	↑	Santos et al. (2010)
Cresols, Thymol, Limonene, Vanillin, guaiacol, eugenol, salicylates* [Unspecified]	Cow	105	1.2 g/d	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	-	-	-	Joch et al. (2019)

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Table 6 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Yield							Feed efficiency	Content			Somatic cell count	Reference	
					Milk	3.5 % FCM ¹	Fat	Protein	Lactose	Total solids	Solid not fat		Fat	Protein	Lactose			
Thymol, eugenol, vanillin, guaiacol & limonene* [Unspecified]	Ewe	150	0.05, 1 or 1.5 g/kg	↔	↑>0.05g/kg	–	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↓	Giannenas et al. (2011)	
Eugenol and cinnamaldehyde* [Unspecified]	Cow	70	0.525 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Tekippe et al. (2013)	
			0.5 or 10 g/d	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Tager and Krause (2011)	
			0.2, 0.4 or 0.6 g/kg	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Flores et al. (2013)	
Capsaicin* [Capsicum oleoresin]	Cow	21	0.25 g/d	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Tager and Krause (2011)	
			0.1 g/d	↔	↔	↑	↑	↔	↔	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Takiya et al. (2023)	
			0.5 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Foskolos et al. (2020)	
			0.75 or 15 g/d	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Vittorazzi et al. (2022)	
			0.25, 0.5, or 1 g/d	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	↔	Oh et al. (2015)
			0.1 or 0.2 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Oh et al. (2017)
			1.5 g/d	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Grigoletto et al. (2023)
Eugenol & Capsaicin* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>) & <i>Capsicum oleoresin</i>]	Cow	70	0.3 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Martins et al. (2024)	
			0.3 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	
Thymol & capsaicin* [Thyme & chilli pepper]	Ewe	84	2 ml/d	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↓	↔	↔	–	Kholif et al. (2018)	
Blend* [plantain (<i>Plantago major</i>) & peppermint (<i>Mentha piperita</i>)]	Ewe	42	2 g/d	↑	↔	↑	↑	↑	–	–	–	–	↑	↑	–	–	Mirzaei-Alamouti et al. (2021)	
Eugenol, geranyl acetate & coriander*	Cow	91	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	↓	↔	↔	–	–	Bach et al. (2023)	
Cinnamaldehyde & garlic oil* [Unspecified]	Cow	28	0.3 g/d	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Blanch et al. (2016)
			0.6 g/d	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	Cantet et al. (2023)
Cinnamaldehyde* [Unspecified]	Cow	56	0.6 g/d	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	
Cinnamaldehyde & Capsaicin* [Cinnamon & <i>Capsicum oleoresin</i>]	Cow	84	0.055 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	van Gastelen et al. (2024)	
Eugenol, geraniol & geranyl acetate* [Unspecified]	Cow	91	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Benchaar and Hassanat (2025)	
Thymol* [Thyme (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>)]	Cow	28	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Benchaar (2021)	

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Table 6 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Yield							Feed efficiency	Content			Somatic cell count	Reference
					Milk	3.5 % FCM ¹	Fat	Protein	Lactose	Total solids	Solid not fat		Fat	Protein	Lactose		
Blend* [Unspecified]	Ewe	60	0.3 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↔	↓	↓	–	Azzaz et al. (2025)
Unspecified* [caraway seed (<i>Carum carvi</i>)]	Cow	24	0.2 or 1 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	Lejonklev et al. (2016)
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Origanum vulgare</i>)]				↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	–	
Unspecified* [Eucalyptus (<i>Eucalyptus globulus</i>), thyme (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>) & anise (<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>)]	Cow	21	25 g/d	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	Giller et al. (2020)
Thymol, eugenol, vanillin & limonene* [Unspecified]	Cow	21	0.044 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Silva et al. (2018)
Curcumin* [<i>Curcuma longa</i> L.]	Cow	9	2 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Oh et al. (2013)
Polysorbate & organosulfur* [Garlic]				↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	
Capsaicin* [<i>Capsicum frutescens</i> L. and <i>Capsicum anum</i> L.]				↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	
Unspecified* [Cinnamon (<i>Cinnamomum cassia</i>), thyme (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>), and peppermint (<i>Menthapiperita</i>)]	Goat	45	1.5 ml/d	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	El-Azrak et al. (2022)
Carvacrol, eugenol, thymol & capsaicin* [Unspecified]	Cow	84	0.16 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Diepersloot et al. (2025)
Chlorogenic acid ^f [<i>Lonicera japonica</i>]	Cow	70	14, 28 or 56 g/d	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Ma et al. (2020)
Condensed & hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis</i> spp.): Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i>) (2:1)]	Cow	91	4.5 or 18 g/kg	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↓	↔	↑ ^{4.5g/kg}	↔	–	Aguerre et al. (2020)
		21	4.5, 9 or 18 g/kg	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	Aguerre et al. (2016)
Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i> Miller)]	Ewe	43	52.8 g/kg + Pasture	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Buccioni et al. (2017)
			52.8 g/kg	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Buccioni et al. (2015)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]			52.8 g/kg + Pasture	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Buccioni et al. (2017)
			52.8 g/kg	↔	↔	–	–	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	–	Buccioni et al. (2015)

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Table 6 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Yield							Feed efficiency	Content			Somatic cell count	Reference
					Milk	3.5 % FCM ¹	Fat	Protein	Lactose	Total solids	Solid not fat		Fat	Protein	Lactose		
Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Pomegranate (<i>Punica granatum</i> L.)]	Cow	49	10, 20 or 40 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	Shabtay et al. (2012)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Cow	21	15 or 30 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{30g/kg}	-	↑ ^{30g/kg}	↑ ^{30g/kg}	↑ ^{30g/kg}	-	-	-	↑ ^{30g/kg}	↔	↑	-	Henke et al. (2017a)
Condensed and Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Ewe	28	20 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	Toral et al. (2013)
Condensed and Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Ewe	42	10 g/kg	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	Toral et al. (2011)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis balansae</i>)]	Goat	25	20, 40 or 60 g/kg	↔	↑ ^{40g/kg}	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	↑	↔	↔	↔	Battelli et al. (2024)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho]	Cow	21	10 or 30 g/kg	↓	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↑	↔	↔	↔	-	Dschaak et al. (2011)
Condensed tannin ^f [Acacia meansii]	Cow	169	10 or 30 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Gerlach et al. (2018)
		24	111, 222 or 444 g/d	↔	↓ ^{444g/kg}	-	-	-	-	↑ ^{444g/kg}	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	Griffiths et al. (2013)
		48	10 g/d	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	Orlandi et al. (2020)
		28	20 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	-	-	Alves et al. (2017)
		23	141 g/kg	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Denninger et al. (2020)
		35	7.5, 15 or 30 g/kg	↔	↔	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	Mhlongo et al. (2024)
		21	0.6, 12 or 1.8 g/kg	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	↑	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	Rennó et al. (2025)
Condensed tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Cow	21	1.4, 2.9 or 4.3 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Oliveira et al. (2023)
Flavonoid ^f [Grape seed and grape marc meal]	Cow	63	10 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	↔	↑	-	-	-	-	↔	↔	↔	-	Gessner et al. (2015)
Ferulic acid ^f [Coix seed (<i>Coix lacrym-jobi</i> L.)]	Goat	70	1.5, 3 or 4.5 g/kg	↔	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	↑	-	↔	↑ ^{1.5g/kg}	↑ ^{1.5g/kg}	-	Tian et al. (2025)
Capsaicin ^f [Chilli pepper (<i>Capsicum oleoresin</i>)]	Cow	28	0.15, 0.3 or 0.6 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Silvestre et al. (2022)
		30	0.02, 0.04 or 0.06 g/kg	-	↑ ^{0.04g/kg}	-	-	-	-	↔	-	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	Abulaiti et al. (2021)
Geranyl acetate & eugenol* [Unspecified]	Cow	98	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↑	↔	↑	↔	Silvestre et al. (2023)
Saikosaponin [<i>Radix Bupleuri</i>]	Cow	70	0.25, 0.5 or 1 g/kg	↑	↑	↑	↑	↔	-	↔	↑	↔	↔	↔	↔	↓	Pan et al. (2014)
Triterpenoid [Tea]	Cow	56	20, 30 or 40 g/d	↓	↓ ^{>20g/d}	↓ ^{>30g/d}	↓ ^{>30g/d}	↓	↓	-	-	↔	↑	↔	↓	↓	Wang et al. (2017)

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Table 6 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Dry matter intake	Yield						Feed efficiency	Content			Somatic cell count	Reference	
					Milk	3.5 % FCM ¹	Fat	Protein	Lactose	Total solids		Solid not fat	Fat	Protein			Lactose
Citation summary of directions of effects	Neutral (↔) effects			69	63	42	51	54	48	20	12	37	62	67	64	23	
	Negative (↓) effects			5	3	1	2	1	1	0	0	2	2	2	3	7	
	Positive (↑) effects			4	14	11	13	11	10	4	5	6	9	4	3	1	
Total number of citations				78	80	54	66	66	59	24	17	45	73	73	70	31	

*: Essential oil; [†]: flavonoid; [‡]: polyphenol; [§]: organosulfur; m: months; (↔): no significant effect; (↑): significant increase; (↓): significant decrease; (-): not reported, ¹FCM: Full cream milk

Table 7

Effects of dietary phytochemical extracts on ruminant milk fatty acid profile and citation summary of directions of effects for each parameter.

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4	
Anethole* [Anise (<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>)]	Goat	22	2 ml/d	↓	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	-	↓	↓	El-Essawy et al. (2021)
Eugenol* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)]				↓	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	-	↓	↓	
Thymol* [Thyme (<i>Thymus vulgaris</i>)]				↓	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	-	↓	↓	
Carvacrol* [Oregano (<i>Origanum vulgare</i>)]	Cow	58	0.56 g/kg	↓	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Kolling et al. (2018)
Carvacrol* [Unspecified]	Cow	28	0.05 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Benchaar (2020)
Catechin ^f [Green tea (<i>Camellia sinensis</i> L.)]	Cow	58	0.28 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↓	↔	↔	↓	Kolling et al. (2018)
Cinnamaldehyde, eugenol, capsicum oleoresin* [Unspecified]	Cow	42	1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	-	-	↔	-	Martins et al. (2023)
Cumin seed* [<i>Cuminum cyminum</i>]	Goat	32	12.7 or 25.3 g/DMI	↔	↓	↓	↓	-	↑	↑	↑	↔	↑	-	-	↑	-	Miri et al. (2013)
Eugenol* [Unspecified]	Cow	28	0.025, 0.05 or 0.075 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Benchaar et al. (2015)
Condensed and Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Unspecified]	Ewe	42	10 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Toral et al. (2011)
[<i>Aloe vera</i>] ^f	Goat	100	20 or 40 g/kg	↓	↓	↓	↓	-	-	↑	↔	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	Banakar et al. (2023)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho]	Ewe	35	100 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↓	-	-	↓	↔	-	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Lobón et al. (2019)
Thymol & capsaicin ^f [Thyme & chilli pepper]	Ewe	84	2 ml/d	↔	↔	↓	↔	-	-	↑	↔	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	Kholif et al. (2018)
Hydrolyzable tannin ^f [Chestnut (<i>Castanea sativa</i> Miller)]	Ewe	43	52.8 g/kg + Pasture	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	Buccioni et al. (2017)
			52.8 g/kg	↓	↓	↓	↓	↔	↑	↓	↔	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	Buccioni et al. (2015)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]			52.8 g/kg + Pasture	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	↔	↔	-	-	↔	-	Buccioni et al. (2017)
			52.8 g/kg	↔	↓	↓	↓	↔	↑	↑	↑	-	↑	-	-	↑	-	Buccioni et al. (2015)
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho (<i>Schinopsis lorenzii</i>)]	Cow	21	15 or 30 g/kg	↔	↓	↓ ^{30g/kg}	↑	↔	↓	↑	↑ ^{30g/kg}	-	↑	↑ ^{30g/kg}	↑	↑	↑	Henke et al. (2017b)
	Ewe	28	20 g/kg	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↑	Toral et al. (2013)

(continued on next page)

Table 7 (continued)

Phytochemical [Source]	Animal	Feeding (days)	Dose	Saturated fatty acids				18:1			CLA		n3			n6		Reference
				12:0	14:0	16:0	18:0	t10	t11	c9	c9, t11	t10, c12	18:3	20:5	22:6	18:2	20:4	
Condensed tannin ^f [Quebracho]	Cow	21	10 or 30 g/kg	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	Dschaak et al. (2011)
Condensed tannin ^f [Acacia meansii]	Cow	28	20 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Denninger et al. (2020)
Ferulic acid ^f [Coix seed (<i>Coix lacryma-jobi</i> L.)]	Goat	70	1.5, 3 or 4.5 g/kg	↓ ^{1.5, 3g/kg}	↓	↑	1.5, 3g/kg ↓ ^{4.5g/kg}	–	–	↔	–	–	↑	↔	↑	↓	↓	Tian et al. (2025)
Capsaicin ^f [Chilli pepper (<i>Capsicum oleoresin</i>)]	Cow	28	0.15, 0.3 or 0.6 g/kg	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	Silvestre et al. (2022)
		25	0.25, 0.5, or 1 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–
Eugenol & Capsaicin* [Clove (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>) & <i>Capsicum oleoresin</i>]	Cow	70	0.3 g/d	↓	↓	↔	↔	↔	↓	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	↔	–	Martins et al. (2024)
		70	0.3 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	–	↔	–
Citral* [Lemongrass (<i>Cymbopogon citratus</i>)]	Cow	35	0.08, 0.16 or 0.24 m/kg BW	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	↔	↔	–	↔	–	–	↔	–	Canaes et al. (2017)
Triterpenoid [Tea]	Cow	56	20, 30 or 40 g/d	↔	↔	↔	↔	–	–	↔	–	–	↔	↔	↔	↔	↔	Wang et al. (2017)
Citation summary of directions of effects	Neutral (↔) effects			20	21	21	22	17	16	19	19	13	18	10	10	20	8	
	Negative (↓) effects			8	7	7	6	0	2	2	0	0	0	1	0	4	5	
	Positive (↑) effects			0	0	1	2	0	3	8	5	0	9	1	2	5	2	
Total number of citations				28	28	29	30	17	21	29	24	13	27	12	12	29	15	

*: Essential oil; †: flavonoid; ^f: polyphenol; v: organosulfur; m: months; (↔): no significant effect; (↑): significant increase; (↓): significant decrease; (–): not reported.

extracts, but not with a 3 g/kg DM dose. Inclusion of 3.4 g/d of *Allium mongolicum* Regel extracts in lamb diets also increased WHC of meat (Yaxing et al., 2021).

On the one hand, feeding 1 or 1.5 g/kg DM of *C. sativa* tannin extracts to bulls (Mergeduš et al., 2022) and 2.8 or 3.4 g/d *A. mongolicum* extracts to lambs (Ding et al., 2021) reduced drip loss. On the other hand, feeding 0.13 or 0.26 g/d of oregano extracts to steers (He et al., 2023) and 0.011, 0.022 or 0.033 g/kg DM *A. mongolicum* extracts to lambs (Liu et al., 2019) increased drip loss. Regarding cooking loss (CL), *A. mongolicum* (Liu et al., 2024; Yaxing et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023) and essential oils from oregano (He et al., 2023) lowered water losses during cooking of meat from ruminants. Conversely, feeding essential oil extracted from *Copaifera* spp (Moura et al., 2017), *A. mongolicum* (Liu et al., 2019; Soldado et al., 2024) and CTs from *Cistus ladanifer* L (Guerreiro et al., 2020) to lambs or CTs from *A. mearnsii* (dos Santos et al., 2024) to bulls increased CL. Although half of the studies reported no discernible effect, a lack of sufficient and consistent research on the impact of DPEs on water retention in ruminant meat makes it difficult to draw definitive conclusions about their efficacy and mechanisms of action.

3.2.3. Meat shear force

Shear force (SF) is widely recognized as a standard method for assessing meat tenderness, which can vary due to several intrinsic factors such as sex, age and breed, as well as extrinsic factors including breeding, feeding and slaughter practices and post-mortem handling (Hopkins and Ertbjerg, 2023). The reviewed DPEs appear to have varying effects on meat shear force (SF) values (Table 2). Most studies (29 of 40 citations) investigating the impact of DPEs on meat SF reported no significant impact (Table 2). However, studies reporting significant effects show a trend towards reductions (7 citations) in meat SF rather than increases (4 citations). To exemplify, feeding HTs or CTs reduced SF in meat from lambs (dos Santos et al., 2022b; Ma et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2023), bulls (dos Santos et al., 2024; Silva et al., 2024) and goats (Tian et al., 2022). In contrast, addition of CT and HT extracts from *A. mearnsii* (Costa et al., 2021), *Schinopsis* spp. and *C. sativa* (Castro-Pérez et al., 2021) to lamb diets increased meat SF values. On the one side, supplementing essential oils from different plant extracts reduced meat SF, as evidenced by findings from Ortiz-Heredia et al. (2023), Yaxing et al. (2021) and Zhao et al. (2023) in lambs, Liu et al. (2024) in calves and de de Oliveira Monteschio et al., (2017) in beef aged for 14 days. On the other side, an increase in meat SF was found when supplementing a mixture of essential oils to steers (Mottin et al., 2022) and bulls (Fugita et al., 2018) or *A. mongolicum* extracts to lambs (Liu et al., 2019). However, all ten of the reviewed studies evaluating the impact of DPEs on meat aging found neutral effects (Table 3).

The impact of essential oils and polyphenols on meat SF is likely linked to their influence on fat metabolism, muscle oxidative stress, postmortem proteolytic and collagenolytic enzyme activities. Polyphenols have been suggested to enhance antioxidant activity of the muscle (Silva et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2023), activate caspase-3 promoting apoptosis (Kemp et al., 2006; Wang et al., 2023) or reduce profibrogenic cytokine stimulating collagen production (Seymour et al., 2010; Zhao et al., 2018), thereby reducing meat SF. Nonetheless, they have also been postulated to increase meat SF by inhibiting calpains (Ma et al., 2009) and collagenase matrix metalloproteinases (Islam et al., 2025; Ronsisvalle et al., 2020; Sin and Kim, 2005), which respectively break down meat myofibrillar protein structure and intramuscular connective tissue. Taken together, these findings suggest that the effects of essential oils and polyphenols on meat tenderness depend on their dose-dependent modulation of oxidative status and post-mortem proteolytic activities. Future studies would benefit from explicitly testing mechanistic hypotheses linking specific bioactive phytochemical compounds, antioxidant and proteolytic enzyme activity, and structural-functional protein turnover in muscle under defined dietary and metabolic conditions.

3.2.4. Meat proximate composition, vitamins and minerals

In general, the impact of DPEs on the chemical composition of meat appears largely neutral (Table 2). However, 8 of the identified studies found that DPEs intake increased the content of intramuscular fat (IMF). For example, relatively low inclusion levels of essential oil increased the proportion of muscle fat when lambs or steers were fed extracts from *Oregano onites* (Ünlü et al., 2022), blends of essential oils (Wandscheer et al., 2024; Wang et al., 2020a, 2020b) or *A. angolicum* (Liu et al., 2024; Yaxing et al., 2021; Zhao et al., 2023). Feeding low levels of HTs (Ma et al., 2024) or CTs extracts (Brunetto et al., 2024) also increased IMF content of ruminant meat. The mechanisms by which essential oils and polyphenols may improve IMF in ruminants are not yet fully understood. However, they could positively influence carbohydrate and lipid metabolism in the rumen, potentially leading to increased energy efficiency and IMF deposition (Kholif and Olafadehan, 2021; Singh et al., 2024; Vasta et al., 2019).

Since fat and water content are inversely related in meat (Warner, 2024), a reduction of moisture proportion has also been observed in beef from steers supplemented with essential oils (Wang et al., 2020b, 2020a). While some results, like those by Fugita et al. (2018) and García-Salas et al. (2022) reported increases, the consensus (39 of 41 citations) is that DPEs do not significantly affect the protein content of ruminant meat. With respect to ash content, a majority of studies (31 of 33 citations) also found no significant changes when supplementing DPEs, except for García-Salas et al. (2022) and Silva et al. (2024), who noted a decline.

Despite the crucial role of vitamins in meat for both nutritional value and oxidative shelf life, very few studies (Jacondino et al., 2022; Mufiño et al., 2014; Smeti et al., 2021) have investigated the content of vitamin E (tocopherol) in ruminant meat. These pioneering studies suggest that dietary polyphenols or essential oils have no significant impact on the tocopherol contents in the meat of lambs or kids. Interestingly, in a study by Valenti et al. (2019), where three different tannin extracts were included at the level of 40 g/kg DM, only the extract from *Caesalpinia spinosa* (tara) increased the content of γ -tocopherol in meat, whereas *A. mearnsii* and *C. sativa* extracts had no effect. These findings underline that even within the same class of phytochemicals (i.e., polyphenols), the deposition of tocopherols in meat can vary depending on the plant source. While research highlights the role of dietary polyphenols, essential oils and minerals in ruminant nutrition, oxidative status and meat quality (Ponnampalam et al., 2022), there is a scarcity of specific studies exploring how individual phytochemical compounds directly influence the levels of antioxidant minerals like selenium and zinc in ruminant meat.

3.2.5. Meat fatty acid composition

Fatty acids (FA) in meat can derive either from the direct absorption of dietary lipids in the digestive tract, and their subsequent deposition to muscle tissues, or from *de novo* synthesis in adipocytes starting from substrates such as carbohydrates, volatile fatty acids (VFA) or proteins (López-Bote, 2017). In ruminants, dietary FA are extensively modified in the rumen through microbial processes such as lipolysis, isomerization and saturation. Rumen microorganisms are also capable of synthesizing FA, particularly odd- and branched-chain FA. As a result, the FA profile of ruminant meat can differ significantly from that of the ingested diet, due to both the extent of rumen biohydrogenation (BH) and the microbial FA synthesis. Furthermore, both dietary and *de novo* FA can undergo desaturation and elongation processes in body tissues by specific enzymes (Shingfield et al., 2013; Vahmani et al., 2020). Dietary phytochemicals can potentially interfere with rumen BH (Frutos et al., 2020; Toral et al., 2013; Vasta and Luciano, 2011) or other endogenous metabolic processes, thus influencing meat FA composition.

Although several FA are commonly detected and quantified in ruminant meat, only a limited number are considered relevant to human health and therefore receive greater scientific attention. Accordingly, this review examined the effect of DPEs on selected individual FA or classes of FA such as saturated FA (SFA), conjugated linoleic acids (CLA) and omega(n)-3 and n-6 polyunsaturated FA that influence human health (Table 4). Majority of the identified studies (80 %) reported no effects of DPEs on meat FA profile. However, some studies have demonstrated the ability of essential oils (He et al., 2023; Wandscheer et al., 2024), polyphenols (Cimmino et al., 2018; Rana et al., 2012; Tian et al., 2022) and organosulfur compounds (Yaxing et al., 2021) to reduce the content of SFA in ruminant meat. Similarly, there is some evidence that health-enhancing unsaturated FA (UFA) content in meat can be increased by supplementing ruminants with essential oils (Dias Junior et al., 2023; Ma et al., 2023; Smeti et al., 2018) or polyphenols (Costa et al., 2021; dos Santos et al., 2024; Tian et al., 2022). This is because the most abundant polyunsaturated FA (PUFA) in the primary feedstuff, linoleic acid (LA; c9,c12–18:2) or α -linolenic (ALA; c9,c12,c15–18:3), partially escapes ruminal BH and are absorbed as such. This is evident from Table 4, which shows that studies reported that DPEs increased LA (10 of 54) and ALA (5 of 53) contents in meat. A possible explanation might lie in the ability of the DPEs to inhibit lipolysis and microbial BH activities in the rumen (Frutos et al., 2020; Vasta and Luciano, 2011) and thus a greater amount of PUFA are not fully converted into SFA.

Regarding BH intermediates, the effect of DPEs on the content of *trans*(t)-vaccenic acid (TVA; t11–18:1) and rumenic acid (RA; c9, t11–18:2) remains less clear, with most studies (TVA: 23 of 30 and RA: 25 of 31) reporting no effects. Of those showing changes, RA (6 citations) and TVA (5 citations) contents were observed to increase, while only 2 studies reported a decline in TVA (Table 4). The specific causes of these conflicting results are not clear and warrant more research. They could derive from differences in composition, chemical nature and source of phytochemicals, basal diet, dosage, time on feed, animal factors (e.g., species, breeds or age) and their interactions (Ahmed et al., 2025; Morales and Ungerfeld, 2015). Overall, it appears that DPEs have a minor positive influence on the FA profile of ruminant meat, reducing SFA and increasing PUFA. However, their impact on TVA and RA contents is minor and inconsistent. Further research is crucial to identify specific essential oils and polyphenols that effectively enhance meat FA profiles and optimize their application in ruminants. Such research should focus on understanding how individual essential oils and polyphenols influence rumen fermentation and lipid degradation and interact with the diet and animal factors, ultimately affecting the digestion-absorption process and FA composition of meat. This could aid in delivering definitive recommendations for enriching ruminant meat with health-enhancing FAs.

4. Milk yield and quality

4.1. Feed intake, milk yield and composition

Dry matter intake of dairy ruminants is dependent on various factors, including physical properties of the diet, feed allocation, access and digestibility of feed. Of the 78 studies investigating the effect of DPEs on DMI, 69 showed no change (Table 6). The impact of DPE on DMI is therefore relatively limited, with only 5 studies reporting an increase in DMI and 4 reporting a decrease. The increase or decrease on DMI may be associated with levels of individual compounds or their combination present in the diet and this area warrants more research. The impact of DPE on DMI is, therefore, relatively limited, with only 6 % of the studies reporting an increase in DMI and a similar proportion showing a decrease. Two studies where DPEs (Radix Bupleuri and Capsicum) were investigated in relation to heat stress abatement showed an increase in DMI, indicating that better heat mitigation encouraged feed intake (Pan et al., 2014; Vittorazzi et al., 2022). An increase in DMI should be linked to an increase in DM digestibility, possibly due to modulation of the rumen microbiome reported by Vittorazzi et al. (2022). The decrease of DMI in response to DPEs supplementation has been associated with a decrease in palatability, especially for CTs (*C. sativa* and *Schinopsis spp*) due to astringency (Aguerre et al., 2016; Dschaak et al., 2011). Furthermore, a delayed response to tea saponin supplementation suggests that a longer adaptation period should be implemented to ensure adaptation and limited impact on DMI and milk yield (Wang et al., 2017). Cantet et al. (2023) supplemented cinnamaldehyde with or without garlic oil, both resulting in a decrease in DMI. However, the lower DMI did not affect the energy status of dairy cows. The same authors suggested that rumen fermentation was altered, possibly resulting in increased digestibility for treatment groups. Although current studies provide valuable but limited insights, further controlled research with feeding of individual compounds or specific groups of dietary phytochemicals is crucial to understand the specific mechanisms by which DPEs influence DMI and to optimize their practical application in ruminant feeding strategies.

Milk yield should not be considered alone, but rather in relation to production efficiency and milk composition. Of the 80 studies included, 14 resulted in an increase in milk yield and only 3 resulted in a decrease in milk yield. Most studies found no impact on the content of milk fat, protein, lactose and somatic cell counts (SCC). Specifically, 9 studies showed an increase in milk fat content, and 2 reported a decrease. A similar trend is observed for protein content, with 4 reporting an increase and 2 reporting a decrease. For lactose

content, 3 studies showed an increase, while a similar proportion found a decrease. Concerning SCC, only 1 study indicated an increase, 7 studies reported a decrease and a significant proportion of the studies (23) did not report any data.

Only three studies reported reductions in milk yield when supplementing DPEs. Griffiths et al. (2013) found an increase in faecal nitrogen output, indicating a reduction in protein digestibility because of *A. mearnsii* CT supplementation, possibly resulting in less metabolizable protein to support milk production. Wang et al. (2017) supplemented tea saponins (40 d/day) and noted a decrease in DMI, which could have led to a reduction in milk yield. Gessner et al. (2015) and Elcoso et al. (2019) both reported a delayed response to DPEs supplementation (coriander blend and grape seed, grape marc extract), with changes in milk yield only seen after two and three weeks of supplementation, respectively. In addition to a delay in production output, it has been postulated that the supplementation of DPEs (citrus peel) alters the rumen microbial profile and increases volatile fatty acid (VFA) production (Ju et al., 2024). However, few studies have measured these parameters concurrently with milk yield and composition.

The increase in milk fat content observed when feeding DPEs, particularly essential oils (citrus, anethole, carvacrol, eugenol and thymol; El-Essawy et al., 2021; Ju et al., 2024; Santos et al., 2010) and saponins (triterpenoid; Wang et al., 2017) to dairy ruminants is likely due to their impact on the rumen microbial population, carbohydrate and lipid metabolism. Specifically, essential oils and saponins may positively influence rumen microbial populations and their activity, leading to increased production and absorption of acetate, the primary precursor for milk fat synthesis in ruminants (El-Essawy et al., 2021). In addition, an increase in ADF digestibility and rumen pH was also reported, however, no changes in VFAs were noted (El-Essawy et al., 2021). They may also influence BH in the rumen, potentially increasing the absorption and deposition of UFA in the mammary gland, which are then used for milk fat synthesis and/ or its regulation (Hassan et al., 2020; Morales and Ungerfeld, 2015; Yu et al., 2024). The use of DPEs (*Radix Bupleuri*) supplementation to mitigate heat stress reported changes in energy partitioning, away from homeothermy to production. This may have led to an increase in milk protein yield (Pan et al., 2014). Further research into the optimal dosages of essential oils and saponins, as well as the changes in rumen VFA composition, could be crucial for enhancing milk component synthesis in ruminants.

4.2. Vitamins and minerals composition of milk

The research on vitamin and mineral content of milk has focused on animal requirements to ensure animal health and productivity (Weiss, 2017). The mineral content in milk shows minor variation in response to diet changes, due to the mineral reservoir characteristic of the skeletal structure (Timlin et al., 2021). For this reason, the mineral content of milk is not typically investigated in standard nutrition trials, much less in trials investigating DPEs supplementation. In a study by Vizzotto et al. (2021) *O. vulgare* and green tea extracts were supplemented to dairy cows over a period of 21 days, despite daily variations, overall calcium content did not differ between treatments.

Fat-soluble vitamins (except vitamin K) are more significantly influenced by diet type, especially linked to increased intake of carotenoids, which are typically higher in fresh forages (Timlin et al., 2021). Water-soluble vitamins are highly dependent on the functionality of the rumen, as they are primarily synthesized by microbes, but correlations with dietary intake have been identified (Timlin et al., 2021). Despite the possible manipulation of vitamin content in milk and the added health benefits for human consumption, there are few, if any standard nutrition trials that analyze for this nutrient. As it is possible to manipulate the vitamin content of milk, further research is valuable, especially where DPEs alter the rumen microbiome profile, potentially increasing synthesis of water-soluble vitamins.

4.3. Physical quality of milk

The physical appearance of milk, especially colour is a significant factor in consumer purchasing decisions, as it provides an immediate impression of a product's freshness, flavour and overall quality (Altmann et al., 2023). The opaque white colour of milk is a result of light scattering by tiny particles of finely dispersed fat globules and casein protein micelles (Nozière et al., 2006). It is primarily assessed to manage technological parameters such as fat levels, thermal treatment, homogenization, photodegradation, storage conditions and presence of additives and contaminants (Conboy Stephenson et al., 2021; Nozière et al., 2006). The L^* value is affected by milk physical structure, which in turn is influenced by proximate composition, temperature and technological treatments (Conboy Stephenson et al., 2021; Nozière et al., 2006). The a^* and b^* values are largely affected by animal and dietary factors linked to the concentration of natural pigments (i.e., riboflavin and carotenoid) in milk (Conboy Stephenson et al., 2021; Nozière et al., 2006). For example, feeding cows carotenoid-rich forages, particularly fresh grass, results in milk with an intense yellowish coloration (higher b^* value), which serves as a biomarker for pasture-based production systems (Conboy Stephenson et al., 2021; Nozière et al., 2006).

To the authors' knowledge, there are hardly any studies that have assessed the impact of DPEs on the coloration of ruminant milk. The scarcity of studies on the colour of ruminant milk is mainly attributed to subtle variations of its inherent colour and the common practice of storing and selling milk in non-transparent packaging (Altmann et al., 2023). Future studies ought to investigate how supplementing ruminants with pigmented phytochemicals such as carotenoids (yellow) and anthocyanins (red, purple or blue) affects milk colour and consumer acceptance. Besides influencing visual appearance, these pigmented phytochemicals could play a role in enhancing oxidative shelf life and sensory quality of milk, and improve human health through their antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory properties (Tian et al., 2022; Tian and Lu, 2022).

The pH of raw milk from ruminants that typically ranges from 6.6 to 6.8 is another key indicator of freshness and overall quality. The pH of milk is related to the mineral and protein content of milk, as well as the SCC (Kasapidou et al., 2023; Timlin et al., 2021). Few nutritional studies consider milk pH, unless they are directly looking at processability of milk. Vizzotto et al. (2021) reported a tendency for decreased milk pH in cows fed *O. vulgare* extract. However, this was suspected to be due to the lower SCC, changing the

permeability of the mammary gland, and it was within the acceptable range. Further research is required to confirm if individual phytochemical compounds directly affect the pH of raw milk from ruminants.

4.4. Fatty acid composition of milk

The FA composition of milk is of particular interest to processors, as the FA profile affects the quantity and quality of manufactured milk products (McCarthy et al., 2024). Polyunsaturated FA have long been recognized for their positive effect on human health (Mititelu et al., 2025) and their close link to polyphenols has been researched widely. Where changes in FA composition were observed in response to DPEs supplementation (Table 7), these were seen in an increase in PUFA content in milk, with positive implications for human health. It has been suggested that DPEs decrease the rate of BH in the rumen, thereby allowing greater PUFA uptake into the mammary gland (McCarthy et al., 2024; Valenti et al., 2025). However, the mechanism of action by which individual DPEs alter the rate of BH remains a research gap, with potential alternatives, such as selective microbial enzyme activation and changes in the rumen microbiota composition, abundance and diversity (McCarthy et al., 2024; Vasta et al., 2007). Generally, the effect of DPE supplementation in ruminants was neutral for milk oleic acid (19 of 29), ALA (18 of 27), and LA (20 of 29). Of interest, the decrease in oleic acid and LA were only observed in ewes and goats, respectively. The ewes were fed quebracho CTs (100 g/kg, Lobón et al., 2019) and chestnut HTs (52.8 g/kg, Buccioni et al., 2015). The goats received 2 ml/d of essential oils blend (anethol, eugenol, thymol and cuminaldehyde; El-Essawy et al., 2021) and polyphenols (i.e., 4.5 g/kg of ferulic acid, coix seed; Tian et al., 2025). Although these results may be species-specific, the tannin inclusion level for the ewes exceeded the recommended limit of < 40 g/kg DM (Al Rharad et al., 2025; Orzuna-Orzuna et al., 2023). Further investigations is important to establish if these results are dependent on phytochemical type, dose, species or their interactions. Overall, SFAs were reported to be neutral (21 of 28) or decreased (7 of 28) with DPE inclusion. The results for polyphenol compounds were more variable, however, the supplementation of CTs (*S. lorenzii*) and HTs (*C. sativa*) resulted in an increase in PUFA, specifically rumenic acid, LA and ALA (Buccioni et al., 2017, 2015; Henke et al., 2017b). More research into the response of rumen to DPEs supplementation is important to establish their impact on BH and the potential for improving milk quality for human consumption.

5. Antioxidant activity and shelf life of meat and milk

5.1. Activity and shelf life of antioxidants in meat

Phytochemicals have been suggested to exert antioxidant benefits and are generally bioavailable throughout the animal's system (Piao et al., 2023; Semwogerere et al., 2020). Antioxidant phytochemicals can play a crucial role in enhancing the immune capacity of animals, alleviating oxidative stress and inflammation, and prolonging the oxidative and microbial shelf life of the resultant product, including meat and milk (Pena-Bermudez et al., 2020; Piao et al., 2023; Wandscheer et al., 2024). Phytochemicals, including essential oils, polyphenols, saponins and organosulfur compounds, have been reported to exert antioxidative functions through several mechanisms, which include inhibiting lipoxygenase, activating antioxidant enzymes, scavenging free radicals, donating electrons to free radicals, quenching singlet oxygen and/ or chelating prooxidative metals (Piao et al., 2023; Santhiravel et al., 2022).

While the bioavailability of phytochemicals in diet, intestines, serum, and meat is well-documented (Gao et al., 2024; Soldado et al., 2024; Tang et al., 2024), studies specifically evaluating their transfer efficiency into animal tissues and edible products are limited. Out of the 21 identified studies that reported on the effect of supplementing DPEs to ruminants on meat antioxidant activity, 13 that mostly supplemented essential oils and polyphenols indicated an enhancement (Table 2). However, only 2 of the identified studies assessed antioxidant shelf life in ruminant meat (Table 3) and found neutral (Mottin et al., 2022) or positive (Rivaroli et al., 2020) effects. The variation in the study outcomes regarding antioxidant activity and extended shelf-life in ruminant meat is complex and influenced by multiple interacting variables including type, dosage and bioavailability of the phytochemical, dietary and animal factors, assay type and storage conditions such as display period, packaging atmosphere, temperature and lighting, which merit further investigation.

Table 2 shows that antioxidant activity was largely assessed through ferric reducing antioxidant power (FRAP), Trolox equivalent antioxidant capacity (TEAC), 2,2'-azinobis(3-ethylbenzothiazoline-6-sulfonic acid) (ABTS) and/ or 2,2-diphenyl-1-picrylhydrazyl (DPPH; Aouadi et al., 2014; de de Oliveira Monteschio et al., 2017; Muñoz-cuaule and Herrera-haro, 2022). However, some studies used reactive oxygen species (ROS; Wandscheer et al., 2024), antioxidant enzymes (i.e., glutathione, catalase, and peroxidase) activity (Tian et al., 2022) or the content of phytochemicals (e.g., tocopherols, polyphenols or their metabolites; Kearney et al., 2025) in meat as proxy measures for antioxidant activity. These studies concluded that the increase in antioxidant activity was reflective of the phytochemical content in meat resulting from the diet. Nonetheless, the number of studies evaluating the effect of phytochemical supplementation on meat antioxidant activity is insufficient to draw definitive conclusions regarding their overall impact due to high variability in phytochemical sources, methodological evaluation inconsistencies across studies and the complex interplay of various pre- and post-mortem factors.

5.2. Activity and shelf life of antioxidants in milk

The transfer of dietary natural antioxidants into milk is a significant area of research, as it offers a means to enhance milk's nutritional value and boost its antioxidant capacity, thereby extending its shelf life and improving its health benefits for consumers. Though limited studies have investigated these parameters in milk from animals fed DPEs, Cohen-Zinder et al. (2025) reported an

increase in milk antioxidant activity of goats fed moringa silage that had a high concentration of flavonoids and phenolic acids. This suggests a potential transfer of DPEs into milk, thereby enhancing antioxidant activity, which indicates potential future applications warranting further investigation. The benefits of increasing antioxidant capacity in raw and processed milk products are promising, offering consumers a healthier product with a longer shelf life (Kasapidou et al., 2023; Ponnampalam et al., 2022).

Of note, knowledge gaps persist in understanding how dietary phytochemicals are incorporated into ruminant edible products (i.e., meat and milk) and how this influences their long-term antioxidant efficacy within these matrices. It is strongly recommended to use multiple antioxidant assays when evaluating the antioxidant activity and shelf life of phytochemicals in animal feed, tissues, meat and milk. This is because phytochemicals exhibit multiple and diverse antioxidant mechanisms primarily through electron and hydrogen atom transfer (Piao et al., 2023). Thus, multiple assays are inevitable to capture the various antioxidant mechanisms, phytochemical specificity, reaction conditions and matrix effects that no single test can fully represent and understand the complex effects. Thus, it provides a more accurate, comprehensive, and reliable assessment of antioxidant activity within complex biological systems, such as milk and meat matrices. Further research should also investigate the relationships between antioxidant assays and long-term efficacy of individual phytochemical compounds in meat and milk matrices, offering valuable insights into their underlying mechanisms of action.

5.3. Oxidative stability of meat and milk

5.3.1. Meat colour and myoglobin oxidation

Meat colour is of ultimate importance to consumers and a main determinant of freshness at the point of purchase. The bright cherry-red colour is strongly associated with the freshness of meat. This colour is primarily dictated by the content and oxidative state of myoglobin, and objectively quantified by the CIE Lab* colour system, which includes lightness (L*), redness (a*), chroma (C*), and hue angle (h*) coordinates (King et al., 2023). As the retail display time progresses, metmyoglobin dominates the meat surface, which decreases the redness while the increasing myofibril degradation allows more light to disperse through the meat matrix, resulting in increased lightness (King et al., 2023). This is perceived as undesirable discoloration of meat by consumers. Only two studies evaluated myoglobin oxidation (Table 2) in meat from ruminants fed DPEs, with one showing positive effects (Biondi et al., 2019) and the other negative effects (Tabke et al., 2017). In both studies, the authors did not attribute the differences in myoglobin oxidation directly to DPEs supplementation.

Most of the reviewed studies (~90 %) concurred that DPEs had no effect on colour coordinates (L*: 47 of 54; a*: 51 of 54; b*: 48 of 53) of fresh ruminant meat (Table 2). However, one study showed a decline in L* (Torrecilhas et al., 2021), while six studies noted increases in L* when supplementing essential oils (Garcia-galicia et al., 2020; Wang et al., 2020b, 2020a) or polyphenolic extracts (Castro-Pérez et al., 2021; Costa et al., 2021; Guerreiro et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2016). Only three of the reviewed studies showed a significant impact of DPEs on a*, with Costa et al. (2021) reporting a decrease, whereas Rivaroli et al. (2016) and Garcia-galicia et al. (2020) indicated an increase. For b*, one study reported a decrease (Güney et al., 2021) whereas four studies showed an increase (dos Santos et al., 2022b; Garcia-galicia et al., 2020; Liu et al., 2016; Pena-Bermudez et al., 2022). Again, none of these studies linked the variations in meat colour indices directly to DPEs. The increase in L* was ascribed to low meat pH_u, resulting in myofibril shrinkage and/or degradation, while the decreases in a* and b* were attributed to an increase in meat metmyoglobin content.

Table 3 presents effects DPE on myoglobin and colour stability of ruminant meat. Only three studies investigated myoglobin stability and reported neutral effects (Biondi et al., 2019; Pena-Bermudez et al., 2022; Tabke et al., 2017). While a few studies demonstrated a decline in L* (Ortuño et al., 2015, 2014) and b* (dos Santos et al., 2022b; Maggolino et al., 2020; Ortuño et al., 2014; Smeti et al., 2021) values, and an increase in a* values (Ortuño et al., 2014) over time in meat from ruminants supplemented with DPEs, most studies (17 out of 20) showed no significant changes in colour or shelf life. While most studies suggest a neutral impact of DPE on fresh colour, myoglobin status and their stability in ruminant meat, there is a noticeable data scarcity and variability, which potentially limit application of these findings. Moreover, it is a known phenomenon that the presence of phytochemicals such as essential oils and polyphenols in meat can have a direct influence on its myoglobin status and stability. This because is largely attributed to their antioxidant properties, which can inhibit the oxidation of myoglobin, thereby preserving the desirable red colour of fresh meat and improving its shelf life. The fact that none of the reviewed studies attributed myoglobin state and stability changes to DPEs, highlights potential areas for further investigation.

5.3.2. Oxidative stability of lipids in meat

It is well established that lipid oxidation in meat is regulated by the complex balance between antioxidants, prooxidants and composition of biomolecules (i.e., lipids, proteins, pigments and cholesterol) in meat (Ponnampalam et al., 2022). Lipid oxidation secondary compounds, particularly malondialdehyde, are often estimated using the thiobarbituric acid-reactive substances (TBARS) through colorimetric or fluorometric analysis. Fifty-one studies assessed the impact of DPEs on lipid oxidation in ruminant meat within the reviewed period (Table 2). Of these, 38 found no effect, while 11 indicated reductions and 2 reported increases in lipid oxidation in ruminant meat. Specifically, supplementing ruminant diets with extracts rich in essential oils such as 1,8 cineole (Al-Obaidi et al., 2021), carvacrol (Muñoz-cuautle and Herrera-haro, 2022), eugenol (Al-Obaidi et al., 2021), a blend of essential oils (de de Oliveira Monteschio et al., 2017; Wandscheer et al., 2024) or unspecified essential oils (Smeti et al., 2021) reduced lipid oxidation. Similarly, diets rich in polyphenols, especially diterpenes (i.e., carnosic acid and carnosol; Ortuño et al., 2014), CTs (Biondi et al., 2019; Brunetto et al., 2024; dos Santos et al., 2024) or HTs (Liu et al., 2016) seems to delay lipid oxidation in ruminant meat.

Most of the reviewed studies (31 of 39) show neutral effects of DPEs on lipid oxidative stability in ruminant meat, while 8 reported positive results (Table 3). Again, unspecified essential oils (Smeti et al., 2021) and polyphenols such as diterpenes (Morán et al., 2012;

Ortuño et al., 2015, 2014), CTs (Brogna et al., 2014; Maggiolino et al., 2020) and ferulic acid (González-Ríos et al., 2016) enhanced lipid oxidative stability in ruminant meat. Amidst limited consistency and heterogeneity in phytochemical composition, dosing strategies, basal diets and experimental conditions, essential oils and polyphenols tend to have potential to enhance the lipid oxidative stability of ruminant meat. Evidence suggesting that essential oils and polyphenols can reduce or delay lipid oxidation in ruminant meat is linked to their previously mentioned antioxidant properties. Though it is currently challenging to give precise indications on the type of phytochemical or dose to be used, as many other factors interfere with the outcome (e.g., plant source, bioactive compound, animal species, amount ingested and basal diet), this deserves further evaluation.

5.3.3. Oxidative stability of proteins in meat

Over the last three decades, research has increasingly highlighted the significant role of protein oxidation (POX) in meat deterioration, alongside the well-established effects of lipid oxidation and microbial spoilage. Protein oxidation is a covalent modification of proteins in food system that can occur *in situ* (autooxidation) or during handling, processing and storage (Xiong and Guo, 2020). This modification is propagated through direct attack of reactive oxygen and nitrogen species, as well as through indirect reaction with oxidative byproducts of lipids and sugar (Domínguez et al., 2022). Subsequently, it manifests as amino acid side chain modifications (e.g., protein carbonyls and protein hydroperoxides), cleavages of peptide bonds and the formation of covalent intermolecular cross-linked protein derivatives (e.g., disulfides and dityrosine; Soladoye et al., 2015; Zhang et al., 2013). All this results in physicochemical, techno-functional and nutritional alterations of proteins and hence, changes in meat sensory and overall quality (Lund et al., 2011).

During the period under review, only six studies explored the impact of DPEs on POX in ruminant meat using the protein carbonyl assay (Table 2). Among these studies, Wang et al. (2023) fed *C. sativa* extracts high in HTs and recorded a reduction in POX, whereas Muño et al. (2014) fed red wine extracts high in flavanols and found an increase in POX. However, the remaining studies feeding polyphenolic extracts, including diterpenes (Ortuño et al., 2014), CTs (dos Santos et al., 2022b) or HTs (Pena-Bermudez et al., 2020) showed no impact. Regarding protein stability in terms of accumulation of the undesired carbonyls in meat (Table 3), half of the studies (4 of 8) observed a longer protein shelf life when feeding diets containing extracts rich in diterpenes (Ortuño et al., 2014, 2015) and HTs (Wang et al., 2023; Maggiolino et al., 2020) than the control. The rest of the studies did not find significant changes in protein stability when supplementing polyphenol extracts in ruminant diets (dos Santos et al., 2022b; Muño et al., 2014; Pena-Bermudez et al., 2020; Morán et al., 2012). Although there is limited evidence suggesting that DPEs may limit POX in meat, the lack of consensus in the literature and the low number of studies necessitate further research to establish optimal levels of DPE for different animal species and meat storage conditions.

5.3.4. Oxidation and shelf life of lipids and proteins in milk

The oxidative stability of lipids and proteins in milk is of importance for the processability and shelf life of raw and processed milk products. Extensive research has been carried out on the application of various phytochemicals postharvest, with several reviews available (García-Lomillo and González-SanJosé, 2017; Kurčić et al., 2024; Lobo et al., 2010; Lopes et al., 2025; Salehi, 2021; Zagoskina et al., 2023). No studies were identified in which DPEs were fed to dairy ruminants, and oxidation and shelf life of lipids and proteins in milk were measured, indicating a significant research gap.

5.4. Microbial safety and shelf life of ruminant edible products

The antimicrobial properties of DPEs have been proven in the meat livestock industry through their ability to regulate gut microbiota by selectively suppressing the growth of pathogenic and storage spoilage microbes while enhancing the proliferation of the rumen beneficial ones (Burt, 2004; Wang et al., 2024). Evidence demonstrating the transfer of antimicrobial properties from DPEs into meat is limited. To illustrate, a reduction in spoilage microbes was reported in meat from lambs supplemented with dietary extracts rich in quercetin (Andrés et al., 2013) or *R. officinalis* diterpenes (Ortuño et al., 2015). Essential oils and polyphenols modulate microbial load in meat primarily through direct antimicrobial effects by disrupting bacterial cell structures and metabolism and can have an indirect effects through immune system modulation and changes in gut microbiota (Nastoh et al., 2024; Valenti et al., 2021). Other 3 studies that explored feeding Tara (*Caesalpinia spinosa*) or *Acacia mearnsii* (Biondi et al., 2019), Rosemary leaves (*Rosmarinus officinalis* (Ortuño et al., 2014) and Cinnamon (*Cinnamomum zeylanicum* Simitzis et al., 2014) found no significant differences in either spoilage or pathogenic microbes. The same five studies found that DPEs had no impact on microbial shelf life, except for Biondi et al. (2019), who observed lower counts of spoilage microbes for both Tara and *Acacia mearnsii* diets at 4–7 days of storage compared to the control (Table 3). These 5 studies exhibited wide methodological variation. For example, Ortuño et al. (2015), (2014) stored samples under modified atmospheric packaging, while others simulated retail display conditions. The microbial groups enumerated varied across all studies, and Simitzis et al. (2014) inoculated minced meat from DPE-fed animals with specific microorganisms. Given the limited number of these studies and the wide methodological variability, further research into the responses of ruminant species to individual phytochemical dose levels is crucial for optimizing microbial safety, with special emphasis on the potential mechanisms of action of DPEs that modulate microbial load to extend the shelf life of ruminant meat. To the authors' knowledge, there are limited, if any, studies that have evaluated the impact of DPEs on pathogenic and spoilage microbes in raw milk, this merits investigation.

6. Volatile compounds, sensory profiles and consumer perceptions of ruminant edible products

6.1. Volatile compounds and sensory quality of meat

Meat flavour, a key sensory quality attribute, is a complex mixture of many diverse volatile compounds belonging to various chemical classes, including aldehydes, alcohols, ketones, organic acids, hydrocarbons, esters, ethers, furans, sulfur- and nitrogen-containing heterocyclic compounds (Bleicher et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2022). These volatile compounds are mainly formed through Maillard reactions, Strecker degradation, lipid oxidation and the degradation of carbohydrates, thiamine and nucleotides. The content and composition of volatile compounds are influenced by several pre-slaughter factors such as diet, animal species, breed, age, sex and muscle type, as well as post-slaughter factors like aging, storage conditions and cooking methods (Bleicher et al., 2022; Sun et al., 2022). Although individual or groups of phytochemicals in ruminant diets may influence volatile flavour compounds in meat, their specific effects remain insufficiently characterized (Vasta and Luciano, 2011). Only 6 studies assessed the effect of dietary DPEs on lamb meat volatile compounds during the review period (Table 5). Of these, only two studies supplementing diterpenes extracts from *R. officinalis* reported a decline in volatile compounds in meat, which was attributed to a reduction in lipid and protein oxidation with increasing inclusion levels of DPEs (Morán et al., 2013; Ortuño et al., 2014) while the rest found no significant effects. The main methodological variation among the reviewed studies was the use of raw or cooked meat samples. Although limited in number, most studies indicate that DPEs have no effect on volatile compounds, leaving a gap for further research to validate both the neutral and negative effects of DPEs on meat volatile compounds.

Flavour, tenderness and juiciness are widely recognized as the primary sensory quality attributes determining consumer satisfaction and purchase decisions for fresh meat (de Araújo et al., 2022). Thus, understanding how DPEs impact these sensory attributes could influence acceptance and purchasing of ruminant meat by consumers. During the period under review, thirteen studies examined the influence of DPEs on the descriptive sensory quality of ruminant meat, with the majority finding neutral effects for juiciness (10 of 12 studies), tenderness (11 of 12), flavour (12 of 13) and overall acceptability (9 of 11; Table 5). Only a study by Guerreiro et al. (2020), which fed *Cistus ladanifer* CT extract to lambs, reported a decline in juiciness at a dietary inclusion level of 20.5 g/kg DM. The authors attributed the significant change to dietary tannins altering the pH fall pattern, thus influencing myofibrillar water loss through drip and cooking loss. However, these juiciness results contradict those of Wang et al. (2020b), who fed a blend of essential oil extracts to steers and observed increased beef juiciness and tenderness. The variation in the juiciness results might be ruminant species-related, and this warrants further investigation. *Rosmarinus officinalis* diterpenes (Smeti et al., 2018) have been shown to increase flavour in lamb meat, while meat overall acceptability was increased by supplementing *C. ladanifer* CT extracts to lambs (Guerreiro et al., 2020) and *R. officinalis* diterpenes (Smeti et al., 2018).

The minor differential effects of DPEs on the sensory quality of ruminant meat among the reviewed studies can be ascribed to a combination of confounding factors, including the specific properties of the phytochemicals, animal physiology, post-slaughter processing and methodological limitations. In the context of the current review, sensory quality evaluation typically involved trained panels screened for sensory acuity. Descriptive sensory analysis (DSA) was the most applied methodology, involving structured training, often through ballot and consensus techniques, followed by test-retest data collection (Lawless and Heymann, 2010). Although DSA follows a standard protocol, minor protocol modifications such as changes in muscle type, panel size and training level, storage conditions, ageing and cooking protocols might have resulted in the observed minor differences among the reviewed studies. The overall neutral impact of DPEs on ruminant meat sensory quality is supported by a small data set; hence, additional research is recommended before definitive conclusions can be drawn.

6.2. Volatile compounds and sensory quality of milk

The composition of milk is strongly influenced by feeding practices, with phytochemical-enriched diets potentially contributing to a more favourable balance of bioactive compounds, including polyphenols and essential fatty acids (Linehan et al., 2024). These plant-derived bioactive compounds may contribute to richer milk aromatic profiles by modulating lipid oxidation and enzymatic reactions (Linehan et al., 2024). Unfortunately, few studies have been conducted on the volatile compounds and sensory profiles of milk from animals supplemented with DPEs. It was reported that dietary caraway and organum essential oil treatment during a 25-day feeding trial increased cow milk fresh aroma and flavour and decreased corn aroma, UHT milk aroma, and stored aroma and flavour (Lejonklev et al., 2016). The impact of DPEs on milk's volatile and sensory quality cannot be concluded based on a single study. More so, the DPEs' effects were observed over a short-term duration. Although these results suggest that essential oils do not negatively affect the sensory profile of milk, future research should validate these results. Investigating the long-term impact of supplementing dairy animals with DPEs on milk volatile and sensory quality, as well as its implications for product development in the evolving dairy market could be valuable.

6.3. Consumers' perceptions of ruminant edible products

Meat and milk from animals fed diets rich in essential oils and polyphenols have the potential to enhance flavour and texture profiles, aligning with today's consumer preferences for high-quality dairy and meat products. To the authors' knowledge, only eight studies have evaluated consumers' perceptions of meat from ruminants fed 10 different DPEs, with one focusing on bulls and heifers (Table 5). However, no studies were found on milk. Regarding meat, DPEs only had neutral effects on juiciness (5 out of 5), while many flavour attributes were also neutral (7 out of 10) and the rest were negative. The 13 studies on consumer perception on tenderness and

overall acceptability yielded minor contradictory results. Two studies feeding lambs with quercetin (Andrés et al., 2014 and *A. mearnsii* CTs (Costa et al., 2021) reported a negative effect while 3 reported a positive effect. Only 2 studies supplementing heifers with an essential oil blend (Guerrero et al. 2018 and Eugenol, thymol, and vanillin) + Rosemary + clove; de de de Oliveira Monteschio et al., 2020) and the other feeding *A. mearnsii* CTs to goats, had a positive effect (Pimentel et al., 2021).

Overall consumer acceptability was different in only 2 of 13 studies, with one feeding *Sophora japonica* quercetin extracts to lambs showing a negative effect (Andrés et al. (2014) and the other feeding *A. mearnsii* CTs to goats, having a positive effect (Pimentel et al., 2021). Although these studies showed minimal balance among the evaluated species, species-dependent variation as a source of contradictory results cannot be ruled out. Moreover, the wide range of participants (28–155) in the consumer sensory study is noted. With the limited number of studies on the effects of DPEs on consumer sensory quality, high methodological variability and lack of explanations on the mechanisms of action, there is a narrow window for drawing conclusions, but this opens a gap for further investigation.

7. Future directions for research, innovation and adoption

Though the current comprehensive systematic review is not exhaustive, it highlights that the effects of DPEs on ruminant production and product quality remain controversial, largely due to variations in phytochemical composition, dose, form, delivery, and their interactions, as well as differences in diet, rumen microbiota and animal factors. Few studies address safety, mechanisms and transfer efficiency, while many lack precise reporting of phytochemical compounds and application conditions. Nevertheless, current research suggests that essential oils and polyphenols have promising potential for improving productive performance, FA profile, antioxidant and lipid stability, provided that future research applies standardized methodologies and advanced analytical and computational tools to consistently yield reliable results. This includes rigorous statistical designs, adequate animal replication, controlled feeding experiments and validated presentation of results showing the deposition of dietary phytochemicals in animal tissues and their transformation into meat and milk. The claim in some research articles that pastures, fodders, marine products and agriculture by-products from legume crops, wineries, oilseeds or berries have sufficient phytochemicals for ruminant applications is not satisfactory. Validated reports showing *in vivo* studies carried out in small laboratory animals (i.e., mice, rats and rabbits) and large farm animals (i.e., ruminants and monogastrics), showcasing the transformation of individual phytochemical compounds from feeds to animal tissues and their deposition in meat and milk for better animal health or product quality, are important to strengthen reproducibility and avoid misleading conclusions.

Future research on DPEs should use standardized, sustainable recovery techniques that enhance yield, purity and potency (Maddaloni et al., 2025; Mungwari et al., 2025) in conducting large-scale, long-term *in vivo* studies across production systems and different species to optimize application conditions (Mapiye et al., 2025; Ponnampalam et al., 2025). Chronic and acute toxicological assessments should be prioritized to define safe inclusion levels, as some phytochemicals can cause pharmacological effects and poisoning of microbiomes, as well as the host animal. Tailored nanotechnology can be leveraged to enhance phytochemical stability, bioavailability and targeted delivery for ruminant production and product quality enhancement (Gelaye, 2024; Teli et al., 2024). Well-designed whole-farm studies are required to simultaneously capture DPEs' effects on greenhouse gas emissions, animal performance, health and welfare, quality of meat and milk, and consumer acceptability. It is also important to estimate the bioaccessibility potential of individual phytochemicals for human consumption using the INFOGEST *in vitro* model, which simulates gastrointestinal tract digestion (Rasera et al., 2023; Zhou et al., 2023). Detailed molecular and microbiome-level studies are necessary to elucidate mechanisms of action, interactions and dose–response dynamics. Given complex interactions between DPEs, the rumen microbiome, and the host, integrating multi-omics and bioinformatics (Badhan et al., 2025; Omondi et al., 2024), AI and machine learning (Joshi et al., 2024; Varghese et al., 2025; Yu et al., 2024) will be key in identifying optimal compounds, doses and animal factors for customized diet formulations and product fortifications.

Consumer perceptions of meat and milk appearance and sensory quality strongly influence preferences and purchase decisions (Altmann et al., 2023; de Araújo et al., 2022; Schiano et al., 2017). Since DPEs can affect these attributes, it is crucial to assess consumer acceptance before launching products on the market. If DPEs are found to adversely influence meat and milk quality, research to boost consumer acceptance should be prioritized. Given the growing interest in functional foods fortified with bioactive compounds (Rashidinejad, 2024) and the increasing sophistication of food authentication technologies (Saleem et al., 2025). If DPEs enhance meat and milk quality, products could be certified, labeled and sold at a premium value. The combination of spectroscopy with chemometrics, machine learning and AI could offer accurate, rapid and sustainable opportunities for meat certification (Saleem et al., 2025). Life cycle sustainability assessments contrasting DPEs with synthetic additives in ruminant production systems could provide valuable insights into their environmental trade-offs, socio-economic impacts, economic feasibility, scalability and adoption.

Theoretically, using DPEs derived from plant byproducts to enhance ruminant production and product quality aligns with the principles of clean labeling and a sustainable circular economy. Demonstrating positive impacts through evidence-based research coupled with participatory education and awareness campaigns along the ruminant production value-chains could drive the adoption of DPEs and create new agripreneurship opportunities which are appealing to health- and sustainability-conscious consumers. For societal acceptance, innovations must ensure efficacy, safety and sustainability, supported by harmonized regulatory frameworks and policies that safeguard food safety, control the use of genetic resources and indigenous knowledge systems, and promote fair benefit-sharing. A transdisciplinary, value-chain-wide approach, guided by national and/or regional institutions, is essential for managing research, innovation and adoption of DPEs in ruminant production systems.

8. Conclusions

The current comprehensive systematic review generally indicates neutral effects and a lack of studies on safety, mechanisms and transfer efficiency of dietary phytochemicals in ruminant production and product quality. Going forward, it is recommended to optimize application conditions and employ holistic, large-scale and long-term *in vivo* studies in both small laboratory animals and large farm animals to ensure consistently reliable results. Emerging multi-omics, AI and machine learning technologies should be harnessed to customize ruminant diet formulations with DPEs and enhance product fortification. Life cycle sustainability assessments can be conducted to aid understanding of the trade-offs of using DPE-based diets in ruminant production systems. For the rapid, widespread and long-term adoption of the DPE-based diets for ruminant production and product quality enhancement, it could be important to educate value-chain actors, enact harmonized regulations and policies, foster transdisciplinary collaboration and establish institutions that coordinate research and innovation initiatives.

CRedit authorship contribution statement

Olugbenga P. Soladoye: Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Alessandro Priolo:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Eric N. Ponnampalam:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization. **Cletos Mapiye:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft, Conceptualization. **Farouk Semwogerere:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Lobke Steyn:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Hasitha Priyashantha:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Nalatelio Antonio:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft. **Jeanne Marais:** Writing – review & editing, Writing – original draft.

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Appendix A. Supporting information

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