



Plants extract and bioactive compounds on rumen methanogenesis

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Abstract Feed additives are used in animal diets various beneficial reasons including animal growth, remedy for nutrient deficiency, adsorption of toxins, breakdown of anti-nutritional factors and reduced methane production in the rumen. In past 2 decades, many investigations have focused on studying effects of antibiotics on ruminal fermentation, however, European Union has banned the use antibiotics in animal feeds due to human food safety. Therefore, using plant extracts containing a high level of plant secondary metabolites (PSM) can be an alternative for improving animal performance without compromising food security issues. Most of the plant extracts contains PSM that can be serve as natural resource for animal production systems, nevertheless it is largely unexploited as it is considered as anti-nutritional factors. However, in recent years, various studies emphasized that a group of PSM (e.g. tannins, essential oil and saponins) has ability to manipulate rumen fermentation in a favorable way, thus can be

used as natural alternatives for improving ruminant production systems. However, the role of PSM still remains unclear due to limited data and need to be more fully exploited to better understand their properties as bioactive compounds. The present review will discuss the use of plant secondary metabolites in rumen metabolism in terms of biochemical and physiological performance on ruminant production systems, covering topics on proven effectiveness, consumer acceptance, environment, animal safety and welfare.

Keywords Forestry trees · Secondary metabolites · Methane · Ruminants

Introduction

Climate change is one of the major threats on our planet with increasing population and also economical demand (Skuce et al. 2013). The International Panel of Climate Change (IPCC) reported that the rate of climate change is faster than never before in the last 1000 years and there is a possibility of rise in average global temperatures between 1.8 and 4.0 °C within the next 90 years could occur (Yatoo et al. 2012). Hence, the impact of global climate change are predominately threatening factors for the well-being of current and future generations (Marinoa et al. 2015). Livestock

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sector significantly contributes towards the greenhouse gas emissions (GHG) worldwide (i.e. carbon-dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄)) from enteric fermentation and nitrous oxide (N₂O) from manure management (Gerber et al. 2011). CH₄ is produced in rumen by fermentation of feeds through methanogenic archaea. Almost 95 million tons of CH₄ are emitted by a domestic animals through enteric fermentation with increasing emission rate of 0.90% worldwide (Patra 2014). CH₄ emissions through enteric fermentation may contributes 17% of global CH₄ and 3.3% GHG emissions mostly on ruminant livestock (Knapp et al. 2014).

There is a growing realization that mitigation action may not be isolated and it should be packed with increase in animal productivity. Currently, many researchers focus on mitigation strategies and potentials that simultaneously improves the animal productivity.

There are many mitigation practices used to reduce enteric CH₄ emissions for improving livestock productivity. The feed additives are included in animal diets to improve feed quality, growth, nutrient deficiency, adsorb toxins, breakdown of anti-nutritive factors and reduce methane production in the rumen (Durmic et al. 2014), antibiotics (McAllister and Newbold 2008), On the other hand, supplement of probiotics into the rumen microorganisms is shown to increase propionate or butyrate and reduce the protozoa number that can eventually reduce methane production (Iqbal et al. 2008). However, the usage of probiotics in large scale production to mitigate CH₄ emissions is very expensive. In contrast, there are few mitigation options banned by several countries. For example, European Union banned antibiotics use in animal feeds due to human food safety (European Union 2003). Therefore, use of tannin containing plants has been studied and is a promising option for mitigating enteric CH₄ emissions (Hristov et al. 2013).

Beauchemin et al. (2007) reported that, tannin has potential for reducing enteric CH₄ emission by up to 20%. However, tannins are reported as anti-nutritional at higher concentrations though at lower concentrations it can improve animal productivity in terms of alterations of ruminal fermentation and microbial protein synthesis (Bhatta et al. 2012a). Hence, researchers had an opportunity to exploit plant secondary metabolites (PSM) as natural alternatives to improve livestock productivity. The use of plant

extracts containing high level of PSM could improve animal performance and resolve human safety issues. Several studies emphasized that a group of plant secondary metabolites (e.g. saponins, flavonoids, and tannins) seems to present the ability to manipulate rumen fermentation in a favorable way thus lessening the CH₄ formation (Hristov et al. 2013).

The present review will discuss the use of PSM in rumen metabolism in terms of biochemical and physiological performance on animal productions systems. Much of what is known about the roles of PSM on animal performance is circumstantial with tenuous data. Thus, it is important to understand the modes of action of plant extracts for fully exploit their properties for the benefit of animal production. Uptake will be dependent on proven effectiveness and consumer acceptance of assurances relating to animal safety, animal welfare, and the environment.

Ruminal ecosystem

Ruminant stomach is composed of rumen, reticulum, omasum, and abomasum, where rumen is the largest among them. Rumen is a fermentation chamber with specific characteristics that allow the ruminants to obtain nutrients from fibrous feed by the action of microbial flora specifically adapted to such environment (McSweeney and Mackie 2012; Agarwal et al. 2015). Rumen is inhabited by a large range of microorganisms living in symbiotic relationship in an anaerobic environment (Qi et al. 2010). Ruminants are able to convert human inedible feed in high-quality products such as meat, milk, and wool (Wadhwa et al. 2016).

The ability of ruminants to utilize complex plant polysaccharides for energy production is due to the population of microorganisms that inhabit the rumen, because like other mammals, ruminants do not produce enzymes to degrade this type of feed. These microorganisms ferment the polysaccharides from plant cell wall and produce energy and microbial protein (high-quality protein) to the host (Qi et al. 2010). However, for a good performance of microorganisms and to maintain rumen function, host animal needs to provide good conditions for the microbes, which comprises a temperature between 38–41 °C and pH between 6.0 and 7.0. In this way, both ruminants and ruminal microorganisms live in a mutualistic

relationship with each other. (McSweeney and Mackie 2012).

The microbial populations of rumen are composed of bacteria (most extensively studied), protozoa, fungi and virus. These population can degrade a large diversity of substrates, where some of them are more substrate specific and while others are general (Weimer 2015). The population of bacteria vary between 10^{10} to 10^{12} mL^{-1} , protozoa 10^5 to 10^6 mL^{-1} , fungi 10^4 to 10^5 mL^{-1} , and methanogenic archaea 10^8 to 10^{10} mL^{-1} (Patra 2012). These numbers could be larger because a high quantity of microbes are non-culturable (Kamra 2005). Variations in rumen population depends on host species, diet, livestock management, and geographical localizations. However, some species of microorganisms are found in most of the ruminants all over the world (Henderson et al. 2015). Ruminal microorganisms hydrolyze the ingested feed into monomers and then ferment these substrates into short-chain fatty acids (SCFA), methane (CH_4), carbon dioxide (CO_2), ammonia, lactic acid (McSweeney and Mackie 2012), microbial protein, and vitamins (Qi et al. 2010).

Feed digestion depends on mastication, flow rate of digesta, retention time on rumen, and continuous removal of fermented end-products (Agarwal et al. 2015). Acetate, propionate, and butyrate are the main SCFA produced and used as energy for animals, which represents more than 60% of the metabolized energy. Acetate is the SCFA with the higher production, followed by propionate and then butyrate (McSweeney and Mackie 2012).

The microbial fermentation end-products like SCFA and ammonia are absorbed through the rumen epithelium tissue, or removed from the rumen through eructation, like CH_4 and CO_2 , or exit the rumen to be absorbed in the small intestine, like microbial protein (McCann et al. 2014). After absorption acetate reach the peripheral blood and is used by peripheral tissues. Propionate is used is converted to glucose, while butyrate is metabolized into ketone bodies (Bergman 1990). The ammonia absorbed is metabolized to urea in the liver following two pathways either being excreted in urine or recycled through saliva. Microbial protein is digested in the small intestine and absorbed as amino acids (McCann et al. 2014). CH_4 is produced by the reduction of CO_2 with hydrogen by methanogens bacteria to obtain energy for their growth (Patra 2012). For the ruminants, CH_4 represent a loss of

energy intake varying between 2 and 12%. The removal of hydrogen from the rumen environment is important to maintained good conditions for rumen fermentation (Morgavi et al. 2010).

Plant secondary metabolites

Plant primary metabolites are substances widely distributed in nature, often concentrated in seeds and vegetative storage organs which are needed for physiological development because of their role in basic cell metabolism (Balandrin et al. 1985). Derived from primary metabolites with diverse physiological activities, PSM is a group of chemical bioactive compounds such as tannins, essential oils, saponins, alkaloids, flavonoids, glucosides, etc., that are not involved in the primary biochemical processes of growth and reproduction (Patra and Saxena 2010; Mueller-Harvey 2006), but play a vital role in the interaction between plants and the environment (Kliebenstein 2013).

The content of PSM varies from species to species and also in the plants of same species (Barton and Koricheva 2010), PSM being key compounds that contribute to odor, taste, and color of the plants which protect them in adverse conditions from pathogens, herbivory and environmental stresses (Verma and Shukla 2015). Temperature, drought, salinity, seasonality, altitude, light, UV radiation, metal ions, wounding and nutrient deficiencies can affect their concentration (Gouvea et al. 2012) and these are also dependent on the growing conditions and metabolic pathways of related PSM (Ramakrishna and Ravishankar 2011). About 200 years ago the study of PSM started and since then more than 2,00,000 defined structures have been identified (Hartmann 2007) and these classified into three major groups: Terpenes, Phenolic compounds and Nitrogen containing compounds (Fang et al. 2011).

Terpenes, also known as terpenoids or isoprenoids, are generally insoluble in water and play important role in the growth of plants (gibberellins, sterol, carotenoids, and abscisic acid) and a vital role in defense, as toxic to insects and mammals (pyrethroids). Also, some plants have volatile terpenes known as essential oils and glycosides terpene called saponins which has applications in pharmacology (Bodas et al. 2012; Verma and Shukla 2015). Phenolic compounds is a group of heterogeneous molecules that

include more than 10,000 soluble and insoluble compounds that have a phenyl ring bearing at least one acidic hydroxyl group (Taiz and Zeiger 2006; Achakzai et al. 2009).

Flavonoids and tannins are examples of phenolic compounds groups (Fang et al. 2011). Phenolic compounds can play many physiological roles in plants including defense against biotic or abiotic stresses, also having allelopathic and antioxidant activity (Achakzai et al. 2009; Naghiloo et al. 2012; Verma and Shukla 2015; Sharma et al. 2016). Because they are increased by the exposure to toxic chemicals and stresses in the plants, phenolic compounds can be used as stress indicator (Siddiqui and Arif 2004; Achakzai et al. 2009). Flavonoids have important role in plant defense against insects and microbes, also acting in the development of petals color to attract pollinators (Taiz and Zeiger 2006; De Sousa et al. 2007; Khatiwora et al. 2010). Plant phenolic compounds can also produce a specific taste and smell due to which animals, insects and humans do not eat them and these phenolic compounds known as anti-grazing factors in plants (Strack 1997).

Nitrogen containing compounds such as alkaloids, glucosinolates and cyanogenic glycosides are the third important category of secondary metabolites. Alkaloids are low molecular weight compounds, synthesized from amino acids such as lysine, tyrosine and tryptophan (Facchini 2001; Taiz and Zeiger 2006). A group of alkaloids named terpenoid indole alkaloids include more than 3,000 compound such as antineoplastic agents, anti-malarial drug and strychnine that are known to play a role in plant protection against pests and pathogens (Facchini 2001; Verma and Shukla 2015). While cyanogenic glycosides release hydrogen cyanide (HCN) and their higher amount present in cassava (*Manihot esculenta*) can cause limb paralysis, glucosinolates are responsible for smell and taste in vegetable such as cabbage, broccoli, radish, etc. (Taiz and Zeiger 2006; Verma and Shukla 2015).

Tannins, essential oils, and saponins are examples of PSM that have been shown to selectively modulate the rumen microbial ecosystem (Samal et al. 2016), and due the biological activity on other living organisms that they can present, drug an animal nutrition companies routinely screen these compounds in order to obtain new drugs or feed additives (Bodas et al. 2012). In order to improve the animal performance and mitigation options, many recent studies

were also reported that these chemical groups and their bioactive compound can help to enhance the ruminal ecosystem efficiently (Table 1).

Effect of tannins on rumen methanogenesis

Tannins are polyphenolic polymers with high molecular weight presenting solubility in water. These bioactive compounds have capacity to form complexes mainly with proteins and others macromolecules due to the presence of a large number of phenolic hydroxyl groups. Usually, tannins are subdivided into two major groups: hydrolysable tannins (HT) and condensed tannins (CT). Tannins have beneficial or adverse effects depending on their concentration in the extract or plant species as well as other factors such as animal species, phenological stage, physiological state and diet composition (Makkar 2003; Gea et al. 2011; Fig. 1).

The HT is characterized as complex molecules with a polyol as a central core (glucose, glucitol, quinic acids, quercitol and shikimic acid) with a phenolic group that is partially or totally esterified (Haslam 1989). Hydrolysis of HT occurs in acids and alkaline conditions as well as by esterases yielding polyol and the constituent phenolic acids. CT are proanthocyanidins that produce red anthocyanidins when heated in acid (Haslam 1989). It is categorized by polymers of the flavan-3-ol (epi) catechin and (epi) gallo catechin units, which are linked by C₄–C₈ and C₄–C₆ interflavonoid linkages (Ferreira et al. 1999; Hagerman and Butler 1989). Biological activities of CT depend of the molecular weight and chemical structures.

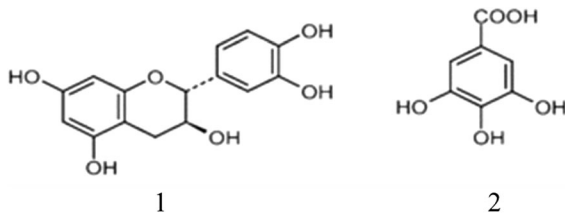
Tannins properties such as bacteriostatic, bactericidal or through the inactivation of the enzymes can adversely affect ruminal fermentation (Faixova and Faix 2005) and may inhibit several different processes including digestive tract functions and thus may have an impact on animal production (Brooker et al. 1999). These specific characteristics (anti-microbial effect on various biochemical reactions in the rumen) allow the tannins to be used for selective inhibition of some of the undesirable reactions in the rumen such as inhibition of methanogen growth (Tavendale et al. 2005) by deactivation of methanogens (*Methanobrevibacter ruminantium*), linked to reduction of produced methane (Tavendale et al. 2005; Pellikaan et al. 2011). Therefore, it can be used as rumen modifiers (Ingale et al. 2013).

Table 1 Chemical groups and their bioactive compounds and roles in ruminant production

Chemical group	Bioactive compounds (plant source)	Roles in ruminant production	References
Tannins	Condensed tannins (<i>Leucaena leucocephala</i>)	Reduced of methane production	Dias Moreira et al. (2013)
	Condensed tannins (<i>Leucaena leucocephala</i> hybrid-Rendang)	Altered the size of populations and diversity of rumen methanogenic archaea	Saminathana et al. (2016)
	Condensed tannins (<i>Bauhinia pulchella</i>)	Anthelmintic activity against <i>Trichostrongylus colubriformis</i> , affected egg viability and reduced pasture contamination	Lopes et al. (2016)
	Condensed tannins (<i>Ficus benghalensis</i>) (<i>Artocarpus heterophyllus</i>) (<i>Azadirachta indica</i>)	Reduced methane production and protozoa numbers, without affecting dry matter digestibility	Malik et al. (2017)
	Condensed tannins (<i>Orbignya phalerata</i>) (<i>Combretum leprosum</i>)	Affected ruminal short-chain fatty acids and microbial population, without compromising animal production potential, carcass characteristics and meat fatty acid profile	Abdalla Filho et al. (2017)
	Tannic acid solution—hydrolysable tannin	Inhibited isolated ruminal bacteria from the sheep rumen	Cipriano-Salazar et al. (2018)
	Tannins (<i>Macrotyloma axillare</i>)	Reduced total gas and methane in vitro and increased intake and apparent total tract digestibility of crude protein	Lima et al. (2018)
Essential oils	Carvacrol (<i>Origanum vulgare</i>)	Reduced methane production	Hundal et al. (2016)
	Eugenol (<i>Syzygium aromaticum</i>)	Increased dry matter digestibility	Righi et al. (2017)
	Eucalyptus (<i>Eucalyptus camaldulensis</i>)	Reduced gas production and protein deamination	Chouchen et al. (2018)
	Anise (<i>Pimpinella anisum</i>)	Improved the partitioning factor and reduced ammonia concentration	Chahaardoli et al. (2018)
	Essential Oil-Cobalt complex	Improved growth performance, meat quality and fiber quality	Lei et al. (2018)
	Essential Oil-Cobalt complex <i>Santalum spicatum</i>	Improved fermentation in the rumen, increased metabolism of butyrate	Lei et al. (2019)
Saponins	Reduced of methane, ammonia-N and promotion of propionate production	Jahani-Azizabadi et al. (2019)	
	<i>Yucca schidigera</i> and <i>Quillaja saponaria</i>	No effect in nutrient digestibility, milk production, rumen fermentation pattern, and methane production	Holtshausen et al. (2009)
	Tea seed saponin (<i>Camellia sinensis</i> L.)	Reduced dry matter intake. No effect in methane production, fermentation pattern, and protozoa population	Ramírez-Restrepo et al. (2016)
	Tea saponin extract	No effect in methane production and total protozoa. Reduction in dry matter intake. Increasing in acetate production	Guyader et al. (2017)
	Tea saponins (triterpenoid saponin)	Improved immunity of dairy cows	Wang et al. (2017)
	Tea seed saponin (<i>Camellia sinensis</i> L.)	Reduced methane and ammonia-N production and protozoa count	Jadhav et al. (2018)
Alfalfa saponins (<i>Medicago sativa</i> L.)	Improved nutrient digestibility, liver protection, and regulated lipid metabolism	Liu et al. (2018)	

Table 1 continued

Chemical group	Bioactive compounds (plant source)	Roles in ruminant production	References
	Tea saponin	Increased organic matter, nitrogen, neutral detergent fiber, and acid detergent fiber apparent digestibility. Reduced methane emission scaled to metabolic body weight. Increased molar proportions of propionate, butyrate, isobutyrate, and isovalerate. Potential decrease in protozoa population	Liu et al. (2019)

**Fig. 1** Chemical structure of tannins: (1) condensed tannins (Catechin) and (2) hydrolysable tannins (Gallic acid)

Several studies showed that molecular weight of condensed tannins promotes an important role on methanogenesis in ruminants (Hariadi and Santoso 2010; Huang et al. 2010, 2011; Saminathana et al. 2016). The potential of methane mitigation by using tannins can range from 2 to 58% in comparison with analyzed control groups (Patra and Saxena 2010; Bodas et al. 2012; Hristov et al. 2013) and factors responsible for the mitigation are various, for example, tannin type, plant source, and molecular weight. However, it is unknown how PSM affects methanogen diversity and community composition. According to Huang et al. (2011), CT with high molecular weight showed 62% of inhibition compared to control. Methane production had 47% of reduction, with decreased on total methanogens and total protozoa number in diet with inclusion of 15 mg of CT/500 mg dry matter. Nevertheless, a higher level of CT promotes negative effects on dry matter digestibility. Saminathana et al. (2016) reported direct effect on rumen methanogens with higher molecular weight CT fractions showing greater reduction of methanogens.

Tan et al. (2011) verified that inclusion of pure condensed tannin extracts from *Leucaena leucocephala* hybrid-Rendang caused a linear reduction in total methanogens and CH₄ production. Studies showed that CT fractions have negative effect on methanogen, particularly for *Methanobrevibacter* spp., promoting the reduction of ruminal methane

production (Tavendale et al. 2005; Min et al. 2014; Saminathana et al. 2016). It may be due to the inhibition of methanogenesis via deactivation of the mcr enzyme (key enzyme in CH₄ production) (Juottonen et al. 2006).

It was suggested that CT has toxic effects that causes inhibition of methanogens growth among other ruminal microorganisms. This is most likely to be due to bacteriostatic and/or bactericidal effects of CT (Tavendale et al. 2005). *Methanobrevibacter* spp. (gram-positive methanogens) has been described with higher susceptibility to tannin inhibition compared to the *Methanomicrobium* and *Methanimicrococcus* (gram-negative) (Field and Lettinga 1992). The capacity of tannins to bind proteins, results in both inhibitions of extracellular enzymes and substrate unavailability for digestion, leading to deactivation and subsequently death of microbes (Smith et al. 2005). Hence, the formation of complexes with proteins and consequently protection of condensed tannins, mainly CT with high molecular weight, from digestion in the rumen, could lead a decrease the ammonia nitrogen level in rumen fluid and limit the supply of available hydrogen from ammonia to methanogens (Chollot et al. 1962).

More effects on rumen by CT have been described such as population and diversity of protozoa (Tan et al. 2011, 2013). Significant reduction on protozoa population was verified in animals supplemented with tannins (Cieslak et al. 2012). There is a symbiotic relationship between rumen methanogens and rumen protozoa, possibly because of the production of H₂ and formate from fermentation of protozoa. Due to the cross feeding of nutrients between two microbes class (Vogels et al. 1980), it is possible that a reduction of the rumen protozoa will conduct a reduction in methanogen population (Saminathana et al. 2016). Reduction in rumen protozoal counts may decrease archeal counts as well indirectly affect methane

rumen microbial fermentation. The authors have described that the alteration on rumen fermentation is due to decreased in ammonia nitrogen concentration through their impact on hyper-ammonia producing bacteria resulting in reduced deamination of amino acids, reduce methane emission and protozoa count (Sallam et al. 2011, 2012; Soltan et al. 2011). Authors have described that essential oils stimulated some protozoa species such as *Isotricha* spp. or *Dasytricha* spp. with consequent increasing in *Methanobrevibacter smithii*. However, several studies reported methane mitigation using essential oils without modifications on protozoa population (Evans and Martin 2000; Busquet et al. 2005).

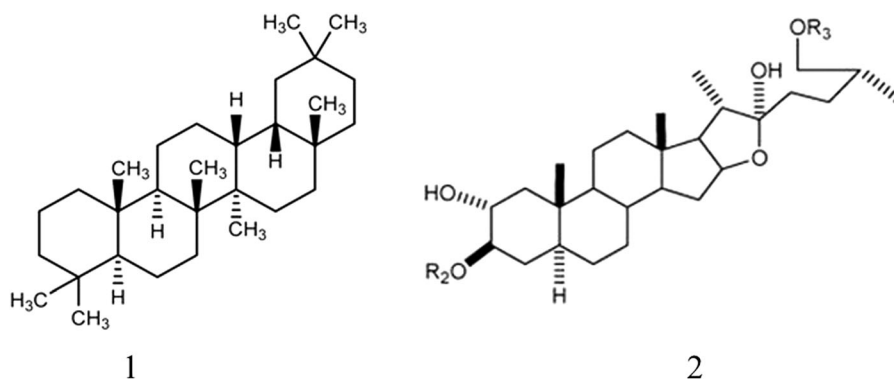
The essential oils act directly on methanogen cells due to structure and properties of the oil used or secondary plant metabolites contained therein (Cieslak et al. 2013). Essential oils and their anti-methanogenic effect in the rumen are related to the presence of terpenoids and phenylpropanoids in oils. The use of essential oils such as carvacrol (phenolic compound) or a cinnamaldehyde (carbonyl compound) demonstrated a stronger antimicrobial activity in the oils that contains monoterpenes. Hence, antimicrobial activity is affected by interactions of different essential oils components (Cobellis et al. 2016). The use of mixtures of essential oils have presented additive, antagonistic and synergistic effects between their components (Burt 2004). Thus, suggests that essential oils combinations of different composition or specific combinations of essential oil secondary metabolites, may result in additive and/or synergetic effects which may enhance efficiency of rumen microbial fermentation (Benchaar and Greathead 2011).

Effect of saponins on rumen methanogenesis

Saponins are a group of glycosides with high molecular weight consisting of a triterpene (triterpene saponins) or steroidal (steroid saponins) sapogenin nucleus with one or more carbohydrate branches. Triterpene saponins (Fig. 3) are more widely distributed in nature than steroidal types in a wide variety of plants (Hostettmann and Marston 1995). The degradability of saponins in the rumen is dependent of its structure among others factors. The majority of researches using this bioactive compound were conducted to exploit the effect on inhibition of rumen ciliate protozoa, which might improve the efficiency of microbial protein synthesis by reducing microbial protein turnover and enhance protein flow to the duodenum and ruminant production (Patra and Saxena 2009). However, saponins may also be exploited for suppressing of rumen methanogenesis. Many studies have reported that saponins or plants rich, both in vitro (Takahashi et al. 2000; Pen et al. 2006, 2008; Holtshausen et al. 2009) and in vivo (Sliwinski et al. 2002; Pen et al. 2007; Wang et al. 2009; Santoso et al. 2004; Holtshausen et al. 2009) have presented reduction on methanogenesis.

In sheep fed sarsaponins ($C_{27}H_{44}O_3$, extract from *Yucca schidigera* under commercial name DK Sarsaponin 35 Organic) for 25 days (35% saponins), there was a reduction on methane production of 7.1% (0.12 g/kg diet) (Santoso et al. 2004) and 15.5% (0.13 g/kg diet) (Wang et al. 2009). Pen et al. (2007) used *Yucca* extract (containing 8–10% saponins) in their studies relatively at high doses (13.8 g/kg diet) and noted a non-significant decrease (11.7%) in methane release in sheep. On the other hand, investigations reported no influence of saponins on

Fig. 3 Chemical structure of saponin: (1) triterpenoid (Oleanane) and (2) steroidal (Furostanol)



methanogenesis of sheep (Sliwinski et al. 2002), and cows (Holtshausen et al. 2009). These authors described that the no effect was due to an inclusion of a low dose of sarsaponins and adaptation of ruminal microbiota to saponins (Wang et al. 1998; Patra and Saxena 2009).

It was reported that saponins might decrease the activities of methane producing genes or rate of methane production in each methanogenic cell (Guo et al. 2008; Hess et al. 2003). This fact suggested that saponins affect methane production due to the reduced rate of methanogenesis via diminished activity of methane producing gene without changing the total methanogen population (Guo et al. 2008). However, the use of saponins may promote defaunation by sterol binding capability of saponins and destruction of protozoal cell membranes (Patra and Saxena 2009) and consequently resulting in decrease methanogenesis (Hostettmann and Marston 1995). The increase on propionate production in ruminants fed saponins favor the channeling of hydrogen from methanogenesis to propionate production may cause lower methane production.

The capacity of saponins on transferring the digestion of nutrients from the rumen to the hindgut (Lu and Jorgensen 1987) could reduce methane production due to a substantial presence of reductive acetogenesis, reducing fermentation activity and absence of protozoa in the hindgut (Varadyova et al. 2000). In the context of rumen methanogenesis, the microbiological effects of saponins are more significant than their physiological properties (Lu and Jorgensen 1987). However, it should be considered that saponins, in some cases, may increase methane production, once saponins affect the passage rate (Lu and Jorgensen 1987; Klita et al. 1996) and there is a relationship between flow rate of digesta and methane production probably due to increased fiber degradation in the rumen.

Although some studies have showed that saponins have reduced the amount of enteric methane production by up to 50% (Szumacher-Strabel and Cieslak 2010; Patra and Saxena 2010; Bodas et al. 2012). However, more *in vivo* studies are necessary to confirm these effects and the best level of compound to use in ruminant diet, which promotes positive effects (methane mitigation) without compromise animal performance.

Conclusion

It is important to reduce the CH₄ production from ruminants and also to produce more quantity of food products with lower environmental impact associated with animal production. Therefore, it is well proven that the diet could influence the rumen microbial community and fermented end-products that would lead to a greater or smaller enteric CH₄ production. The use of PSM as strategy to mitigate enteric CH₄ by manipulating the rumen microbiota and/or fermentation, especially if using plant extracts would increase the animal productivity, benefiting both the animals and humans without harshening the environment.

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