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Rumen Function and In Vitro Gas Production of Diets Influenced by Two Levels of Tannin-Rich Forage

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Abstract: The aim of this research was to evaluate the effect of the inclusion of *Acacia mearnsii* (AM) at different levels of inclusion on ruminal digestion and in vitro gas production. *A. mearnsii* forage was incorporated in the diet at different levels of 0 (AM0), 20 (AM20), and 40 (AM40) %. In situ degradation of dry matter (DM) and organic matter (OM) showed differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$), obtaining the highest value of the degradation of soluble fraction (A), insoluble but potentially degradable fraction (B), degradation rate in % per hour (c), potential degradation (A + B), and effective degradation for all passage rates in % h (0.02, 0.05, and 0.08) in AM0 with respect to AM20 and AM40. The in vitro digestibility of DM and OM was higher ($P < 0.05$) in AM0 with approximately 23.6% and 22.8% of DM and OM, respectively, compared to treatments AM20 and AM40. Cumulative gas production (PG) and gas production asymptote (B) were lower at AM0 and AM20 versus AM40; however, gas production rate (c) and total CH₄ production were lower at AM40 with about 40.1 mL CH₄/0.500 g fermented DM versus AM0 and AM20. Under the conditions of this study, it is concluded that the incorporation of *A. mearnsii* (20% and 40%) in the feed of ruminants negatively affected the digestion of nutrients; however, it reduced the production of CH₄, which may be associated with the low activity of microorganisms toward the substrate due to the possible tannin/nutrient complex. This shows that in animals with little history of consuming plants rich in tannin, more than 3% of tannin could not be incorporated into the diet.

Keywords: degradation; digestibility; methane emission; tannin; *Acacia mearnsii*

1. Introduction

Ruminant production systems around the world are influenced by the geographical, agroecological, and socioeconomic conditions of the region in which they are located [1–3]. Those systems that implement extensive grazing are limited by the predominant forage species in the meadow and its management, reflecting on the quality of the food ingested by the animal, productive performance, and emission of greenhouse gases (GHG) [4,5].

The production of ruminants under extensive systems is generally characterized by having monocultures of variable forages in their botanical composition and nutritional value [6,7] which, in most cases, predispose to the production of GHG, mainly: Methane

(CH₄), carbon dioxide (CO₂), and nitrous oxide (N₂O) [8], in response to the high amount of structural carbohydrates (cellulose, hemicellulose) and low protein intake [6]. These components promote considerable energy losses in the animal (2–12%), reflecting low productive performance [9]. Ruminants will generate approximately 18% of GHG and contribute about 13–19% of CH₄ [10,11] and 9% of CO₂ worldwide [12]. Although there is evidence that CH₄ is the second most abundant GHG after CO₂, its polluting potential (21–28 times greater) worries the world population and encourages the search for alternatives to remedy this problem [11,13,14].

Under this background, the use of unconventional food resources, agro-industrial residues, fodder trees and shrubs are proposed as possible solutions due to their high nutritional value, presence of bioactive compounds (tannins, saponins, essential oils, etc.) [15,16], reduction in competition with foods used in human nutrition, substitution of expensive raw materials in the formulation of rations, and reduction in GHG [17–19]. Leguminous trees or shrubs rich in bioactive compounds can reduce GHG (CH₄), due to the presence of polyphenols [condensed tannins (TC) and hydrolyzed tannins (TH)] [20]. Tannins decrease CH₄ biosynthesis directly by inhibiting methanogen microorganisms or indirectly by reducing the population of ruminal protozoa [21,22]. The reduction in CH₄ in the rumen is possibly explained by: (1) The indirect formation of tannin/nutrient complexes (carbohydrate, protein, lipid) and subsequent reduction in substrate for microbial degradation, (2) direct action of tannin on methanogenic archaea by binding to the protein adhesin or parts of the cell envelope of the microorganism, which consequently inhibits the growth of methanogen in response to the inefficient transfer of H₂ between species (methanogen-protozoan), and (3) reduction in H₂ available for the formation of CH₄ in response to the presence of degraded TC subunits in the rumen that function as H₂ sinks [23]. However, the effects of tannins have not been consistent due to their constant variability, facts related to the source, dose, type, molecular weight, and adaptability of ruminants to the intake [24,25].

Some tree species, such as those found in the *Acacia* genus, are often abundant and their foliage can provide high levels of protein to ruminant diets. *Acacia mearnsii* is classified as a legume rich in tannins with the potential to reduce ruminal methanogenesis and improve ammoniacal nitrogen (NH₃) in the rumen; however, negative effects have been shown on the digestibility of nutrients that could limit its use as a food source [26]. However, moderate amounts of tannins (20–40 g/kg DM) in ruminant diets may be favorable and inhibit the negative effects [27] attributed to the ability of tannins to form complexes with protein and protect them from degradation in the rumen as well as raise their flow to the duodenum where they will be absorbed more efficiently [28]. Based on this background, the objective of this research was to determine the effect of the addition of *Acacia mearnsii* at different levels of substitution of the main feed source and its effect on the in situ ruminal degradation kinetics and in vitro rumen fermentation.

2. Materials and Methods

2.1. Study Location

The present research was carried out at “Querochaca” Experimental Farm and Rumenology Laboratory of the Universidad Técnica de Ambato, Facultad de Ciencias Agropecuarias, Tungurahua, Ecuador, at an altitude of 2890 m above sea level. In the sector, there are maximum temperatures of 20 °C and minimum of 7 °C and an average ambient temperature of 15 °C.

2.2. Animals

Six three-year-old Holstein bulls with an average live weight of 450 ± 21.2 kg, provided with a fistula with a cannula in the rumen (Bar Diamond, Parma, ID, USA) were used. The animals were housed in individual pens with a zinc roof and cement floor and access to a diet based on 20% *Medicago sativa* and 80% *Lolium perenne* as well as water *ad libitum*.

2.3. Fodder Samples and Treatments

The *A. mearnsii* forage was collected from a two-year-old plantation at the Faculty of Agricultural Sciences-UTA (abbreviation in Spanish) and subjected to a cutting frequency of 90 d. Subsequently, the forage (leaves and young stems) was dehydrated under cover in a greenhouse (50 kg). The dehydrated forage was ground in a hammer mill to a particle size of 2 mm and proceeded to be incorporated in the following treatments (Table 1). Six repetitions were performed for each treatment (n = 6), and prior to mixing the treatments, the forages were separately passed through a 1 mm sieve to homogenize the particle size. The *A. mearnsii* forage contained (%): 22.4, 91.1, 23.6, 39.1, 18.8, 9.1, and 15.8 of dry matter (DM), organic matter (OM), crude protein (CP), neutral detergent fiber (NDF), acid detergent fiber (ADF), metabolizable energy (ME), and condensed tannins (CT), respectively. Forage of *A. mearnsii* was included in the diets at different levels of 0 (AM0), 20 (AM20), and 40 (AM40) % prior to the evaluation of diets.

Table 1. Chemical composition of diets with increasing levels of *Acacia mearnsii* (AM in % except where otherwise noted).

Items	Treatments			
	AM0	AM20	AM40	
Palm kernel cake	12.2	10.2	6.0	
Wheat bran	19.5	29.0	18.0	
Soybean meal	9.0	7.5	7.4	
Alfalfa hay	26.1	5.8	0.0	
Cornmeal	17.1	13.3	10.3	
<i>A. mearnsii</i>	0	20.7	39.9	
Molasses	9.8	8.3	10.3	
Palm kernel oil	5.0	3.7	6.3	
Salt	0.7	0.8	0.9	
Mineral and vitamin mixture	0.7	0.8	0.9	
Total	100	100	100	
	Chemical composition			<i>p</i> -Value
Dry matter	88.7	89.6	90.6	0.3291
Organic matter	93.2	94.5	96.9	0.2012
Crude protein	15.2	16.0	16.5	0.1871
Neutral detergent fiber	33.5	35.8	32.1	0.0972
Acid detergent fiber	16.5	16.7	17.3	0.1021
Metabolizable energy (MJ/ kg MS)	10.5	10.2	10.6	0.2810
Condensed tannins	0 ^c	3.8 ^b	6.5 ^a	0.0001

AM0: 0% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM20: 20% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM40: 40% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*; ^{a-c}: Means with different letters between rows differ significantly (*p* < 0.05).

2.4. Rumen Degradation

In situ rumen degradation of nutrients was estimated following the nylon bag methodology (0.42 μ) in the rumen described by Ørskov et al. [29]. In each bull (n = 6), a bag with 5 g of each diet was incubated at the following times (hours): 3, 6, 12, 24, 48, 72, and 96 h. At the end of 96 h, the bags were removed, washed with running water, and dried at 60 °C. The bags used to measure the loss by washing (0 h), were not incubated in the rumen and were only washed with tap water. The residues were stored in polyethylene bags at −4 °C until their subsequent analysis in the laboratory. Nutrient disappearance was calculated as a ratio of incubated and residual material. The data were fitted to the equation: $Y = a + b(1 - e^{-ct})$ and the effective degradation was fitted using the equation $DE = a + [(b \cdot c) / (c + k)]$ considering a rate of passage (*k*) of 0.02%, 0.05%, and 0.08% [30], (Prisma 4, GraphPad Software, Inc. of San Diego, CA, USA).

2.5. Gas, CH₄ Production, and In Vitro Digestibility

Rumen content (liquid and solid fraction) was obtained separately from each bull (n = 6). The ruminal content was collected before feeding in the morning and stored in plastic containers, transported to the laboratory to be processed within the first hour of collection. The preparation of media rich in nitrogen (artificial saliva) was carried out as described by Menke and Steingass [31]. Gas and CH₄ production were established using the methodology described by Theodorou et al. [32], which consists of placing 0.500 g of sample of each one of the treatments AM0, AM20, and AM40 in amber glass bottles with a capacity of 100 mL. About 60 mL of the inoculum (70:30 medium; artificial saliva/inoculum; ruminal content) were incubated in the bottles under a constant flow of CO₂. The bottles were incubated between 39–40 °C, and gas pressure and volume measurements were taken manually at the following times 3, 6, 9, 12, 24, 36, 48, 72, and 96 h post-incubation with a pressure transducer (DO 9704, Delta OHM, Casella, Italy) and plastic syringes. CH₄ production was quantified with a GAS Detection analyzer, model GX-6000, UK following the methodology described by Elghandour et al. [33]. For each treatment, 6 bottles were used, and three additional bottles were used as blanks. At the end of 96 h, the data were fitted to the monobasic equation $\text{mL gas} = \text{GV} (1 + (\text{B}/\text{t})\text{C})^{-1}$ described by Groot et al. [34]. Additionally, six more flasks for each treatment were incubated up to 48 h to estimate the in vitro digestibility of DM and OM. Gas data were reported in mL/0.500 g of fermented DM.

2.6. Rumen pH

Under the same procedure mentioned above for gas production and digestibility, 6 amber glass flasks were prepared for each treatment and at each time (4, 8, 12, and 24 h post-incubation) ruminal pH was measured with the help of a pH meter (BANTE-221 Portable pH/ORP Meter, London, UK).

2.7. Chemical Analysis

The dry matter (DM) (# 7007) and ash (# 7009) were determined according to the AOAC [35]. Neutral detergent fiber (NDF) and acid detergent fiber (ADF) were determined using methods 12 and 13, respectively, ANKOM²⁰⁰⁰ fiber analyzer (ANKOM Technology, Macedon, NY, USA). CP was determined by elemental analysis (N) using a LECO CHN 628 (LECO Corporation, MI, USA). Condensed tannins were determined by vanillin assay (catechin equivalent, Price et al. [36]).

2.8. Experimental Design and Statistical Analysis

A completely randomized design was used, with three treatments and six repetitions. All variables were analyzed according to the design used by means of a simple classification ANOVA [37]. Means were compared using Tukey's test. All variables were analyzed using the SAS [38] (version 9.2, SAS Institute, Cary, NC, USA).

3. Results

3.1. In Situ Rumen Degradation Kinetics

In situ degradation of DM and OM showed differences between treatments ($p < 0.05$), with AM0 showing the highest degradation of the soluble fraction (A), insoluble but potentially degradable fraction (B), degradation rate in % per hour (c), potential degradation (A + B), and effective degradation for all passage rates in % h (0.02, 0.05, and 0.08) with respect to AM20 and AM40 (Table 2).

Table 2. In situ rumen degradation kinetics of DM and OM (%) of diets with increasing levels of *Acacia Mearnsii* (AM).

	Treatments			SE	p-Value
	AM0	AM20	AM40		
Degradation DM					
A	50.6 ^a	45.1 ^b	38.8 ^c	1.18	<0.0001
B	37.0 ^a	33.9 ^a	32.2 ^a	1.47	0.1005
c	0.063 ^a	0.043 ^{ab}	0.032 ^b	0.005	0.0040
A+B	87.7 ^a	77.3 ^b	72.8 ^b	1.27	<0.0001
Effective Degradation *					
0.02	78.5 ^a	67.2 ^b	58.6 ^c	0.91	<0.0001
0.05	71.1 ^a	60.1 ^b	51.5 ^c	0.99	<0.0001
0.08	66.8 ^a	56.5 ^b	48.2 ^c	0.96	<0.0001
Degradation OM					
A	48.7 ^a	44.2 ^b	39.7 ^c	1.20	0.0004
B	39.4 ^a	33.1 ^b	34.0 ^b	1.48	0.0176
c	0.063 ^a	0.042 ^b	0.033 ^b	0.004	0.0022
A+B	88.1 ^a	77.4 ^b	73.7 ^b	1.25	<0.0001
Effective Degradation *					
0.02	78.4 ^a	66.7 ^b	59.6 ^c	0.91	<0.0001
0.05	70.5 ^a	59.4 ^b	52.4 ^c	0.99	<0.0001
0.08	65.9 ^a	55.7 ^b	49.1 ^c	0.97	<0.0001

^{a-c} Means with different letters between rows differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). A: Degradation of the soluble fraction, B: Degradation of the insoluble but potentially degradable fraction, c: Degradation rate in % per hour, A + B: Degradation potential. *: Effective degradation at ruminal passage rates of 2%, 5%, and 8% per h. SE: Standard error. AM0: 0% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM20: 20% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM40: 40% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*.

3.2. In Vitro Digestibility and Ruminal pH

The in vitro digestibility of DM and OM showed differences ($p < 0.05$) between treatments, showing in AM0 (66.9% and 69.5%, respectively) higher digestibility compared to AM20 (DM: 55.6% and OM: 57.5%) and AM40 (DM: 46.6% and OM: 49.6%). Ruminal pH did not show differences between treatments in any of the evaluated hours (4, 8, 12, and 24 h) ($p = 0.9170, 0.8387, 0.5716, \text{ and } 0.5322$, respectively), as shown in Table 3.

Table 3. Digestibility (%) and ruminal pH of diets with increasing levels of *Acacia Mearnsii* (AM).

	Treatments			SE	p-Value
	AM0	AM20	AM40		
Digestibility:					
Dry matter	66.9 ^a	55.6 ^b	46.6 ^c	2.42	0.0001
Organic matter	69.5 ^a	57.5 ^b	49.6 ^c	2.54	0.0002
pH at:					
4 h	6.95 ^a	6.95 ^a	6.94 ^a	0.023	0.9170
8 h	6.95 ^a	6.96 ^a	6.97 ^a	0.026	0.8387
12 h	6.95 ^a	6.98 ^a	6.94 ^a	0.027	0.5716
24 h	6.96 ^a	7.03 ^a	7.04 ^a	0.054	0.5322

^{a-c} Means with different letters between rows differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). SE: Standard error. AM0: 0% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM20: 20% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM40: 40% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*.

3.3. Gas and CH₄ Production

Gas and CH₄ production showed differences ($p < 0.05$) between treatments. Cumulative gas production (GP) and gas production asymptote (B) were lower in AM0 and AM20 compared to AM40. CH₄ production was lower in the AM40 treatment with approximately 40.15 mL CH₄/0.500 g fermented DM compared to AM0 and AM20. The % CH₄ generated with respect to the total gas produced was lower ($p = 0.0001$) in AM40 (20.9%) compared to AM0 and AM20 (35.9% and 31.5%, respectively).

However, at 48 and 96 h of the AM40 treatment, the lowest ($p = 0.0030$ and 0.0001 , respectively) production of CH_4 (84.9 and 92.3 mL CH_4 /0.500 g fermentable DM, respectively) is observed with respect to AM0 and AM20 (Table 4). Figure 1A shows that from 3 h post-incubation, gas production kinetics began, with a marked rise to 96 h in all treatments. With respect to the CH_4 production kinetics, it began at 6 h in AM0, and at 9 h in AM20 and AM40, stabilizing in all treatments at 48 h post-incubation and showing an increase in CH_4 production of AM0 and AM20 (Figure 1B).

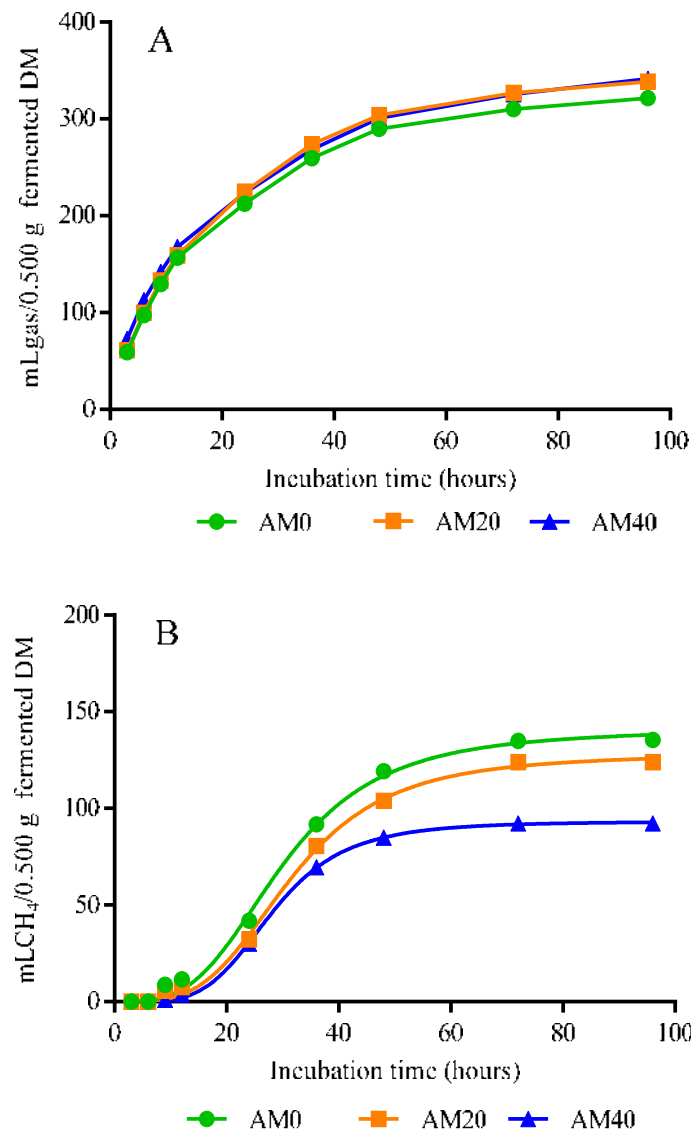


Figure 1. Gas (A) and CH_4 (B) production kinetics of diets with increasing levels of *Acacia mearnsii*.

Table 4. Gas and CH_4 production parameters (mL/0.500 g fermentable DM) of diets with increasing levels of *Acacia mearnsii* (AM).

Treatment	Gas Production Parameters						CH ₄ Production Parameters						% CH ₄ /Total Gas Production
	GP	B	c	24 h	48 h	96 h	CH ₄	B	c	24 h	48 h	96 h	
AM0	389.9 ^b	18.2 ^b	0.981 ^a	212.6 ^a	290.0 ^a	321.4 ^a	139.3 ^a	31.7 ^a	4.586 ^a	42.0 ^a	119.3 ^a	135.4 ^a	35.9 ^a
AM20	409.7 ^{ab}	18.5 ^b	1.004 ^a	224.8 ^a	304.0 ^a	338.7 ^a	128.8 ^a	29.3 ^a	3.696 ^a	32.3 ^a	103.9 ^{ab}	123.9 ^a	31.5 ^a
AM40	449.6 ^a	22.6 ^a	0.830 ^b	223.6 ^a	301.0 ^a	341.5 ^a	93.9 ^b	28.8 ^a	3.631 ^a	30.2 ^a	84.9 ^b	92.3 ^b	20.9 ^b
SE	11.18	0.58	0.015	6.47	7.92	9.14	4.65	1.45	0.378	4.68	5.81	5.08	1.38
p-Value	0.0058	0.0001	0.0001	0.3655	0.4416	0.2750	0.0001	0.3480	0.1720	0.1968	0.0030	0.0001	0.0001

^{a,b} Means with different letters between columns differ significantly ($p < 0.05$). SE: Standard error. AM0: 0% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM20: 20% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*, AM40: 40% inclusion of *A. mearnsii*. GP, B y c: Parameters of the mL gas equation or $\text{CH}_4 = \text{GV} (1 + (\text{B}/\text{t})^{\text{C}})^{-1}$ [34].

4. Discussion

The exploration of unconventional forage resources rich in secondary compounds (tannins, saponins, essential oils, etc.) useful for feeding ruminants in recent years has grown considerably, with the purpose of taking advantage of the beneficial effect of tannin on the use of nutrients (carbohydrates, proteins, and lipids) and the production of CH₄ in the rumen [22,39]. However, the beneficial or detrimental effect of tannins will depend on factors such as: Dose, type, molecular weight, and the adaptation of the animals to their consumption [25]. Therefore, in the present study, it was proposed to evaluate the effect of the incorporation of *A. mearnsii* on the characteristics of ruminal fermentation and CH₄ production.

4.1. Ruminal Degradation Kinetics and Digestibility

The higher in situ rumen degradation kinetics and in vitro digestibility of DM and OM observed in treatment AM0 (Tables 2 and 3, respectively) is probably due to the higher use of the protein in the rumen, in response to the inhibition of the formation of tannin-protein complexes due to the absence of tannins in the diet (Table 1), and the subsequent attainment of amino acids, peptides, ammoniacal nitrogen (NH₃-N), and volatile fatty acids (VFA) useful for growth and activity of cellulolytic microorganisms that improve their accessibility on the substrate [40–42]. However, the lower in situ rumen degradation and in vitro digestibility observed in AM20 and AM40 is probably due to the negative effect of tannins on fiber degradation [43], their toxic effect on ruminal microorganisms, especially in animals that have not been adapted to the consumption of these secondary metabolites [25]. The mechanism by which microbial activity is affected by tannins in the rumen is probably due to the ability of tannin to complex with nutrients (protein, fiber, and lipids) and inhibit microbial enzymatic activity [44,45]. These results are consistent with those reported in [46–48].

The existing scientific evidence suggests that the effect of tannin differs according to the type, dose, source, chemical structure, molecular weight, and adaptation of the animals to its consumption [24,25]. High concentrations of tannins in ruminant feed can cause accidental poisoning with high risk to animal health, daily feed intake, and productive performance, due to: (1) Predisposition to intoxication due to the consumption of high levels of tannins (>55 g CT/Kg DM) and the subsequent destruction of the intestinal mucosa, liver, and kidney [25,27,49], (2) decreased palatability of the food in response to the binding of salivary glycoproteins to tannin [25,50], (3) low digestibility and lower rate of passage of the substrate, which implies low food consumption in response to the feeling of satiety caused by the presence of feed in the rumen [25,51], and (4) low intestinal activity of pancreatic enzymes (trypsin and amylase) and decreased synthesis of amino acids [25,52]. These are the reasons why it is important to evaluate nutritional alternatives to improve and preserve animal welfare and its productive capacity.

4.2. Gas and CH₄ Production

The lower accumulated gas production shown in AM0 and AM20 (Table 4 and Figure 1A) is probably due to the higher digestibility and better utilization of nutrients (mainly protein), in response to the biological value of the feed components (rich in highly fermentable carbohydrates) [42]. In this context, Blümel et al. [53] proposed that the total volume of gas produced is inversely proportional to substrate digestibility and microbial protein synthesis. As evidenced in the present study in AM40 with the highest total gas production and lower digestibility (Tables 3 and 4), this is probably due to poor protein utilization and lower microbial protein synthesis in response to the limited access of microorganisms on the fibrous component of the substrate, and the reduced ability of enzymes to access protein (complex tannin/nutrient; protein and fiber) [53]. Barros-Rodríguez et al. [54] found the same trend and showed that the greater production of total gas was associated with a lower synthesis of microbial proteins.

However, the lower CH₄ production observed in the present study at AM40 (Table 4 and Figure 1B) is probably attributed to the indirect effect of tannins on fiber digestion

and the consequent reduction in H₂ generated during the formation of acetic acid from pyruvate, which will later be used as a substrate for the reduction in CO₂ to CH₄ [55] or directly through the inhibition of methanogenic microorganisms (methanogenic archaea) by binding to the adhesin protein and subsequent inhibition in the formation of methanogen-protozoan complexes that reduce the ability to exchange H₂ between species, as well as the growth and activity of methanogens [22,56,57]. These results are consistent with those reported by Vargas-Ortiz et al. [25], Moss et al. [58], and Aragadvay-Yungán et al. [59].

4.3. Rumen pH

The rumen pH evidenced in the present study of Table 3 was not altered by the presence of tannins, which is in an optimal range to promote a balanced microbial cellulolytic and proteolytic activity for the synthesis of microbial protein [60,61]. These results are consistent with those reported by Hariadi and Santoso [62], de Oliveira et al. [63], and Śliwiński et al. [64].

5. Conclusions

Under the conditions of this study, it is concluded that the incorporation of *A. mearnsii* (20% and 40%) in the feed of ruminants negatively affected the digestion of nutrients; however, it reduced the production of CH₄, which may be associated with the low activity of microorganisms toward the substrate due to the possible tannin/nutrient complex. This shows that in animals with little history of consuming plants rich in tannin, more than 3% of tannin could not be incorporated into the diet.

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