



Effects of pastoral plants essential oil redirecting rumen fermentation to reduce methanogenesis using *in vitro* gas production method

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Abstract

The aim of the present study was to evaluate interactions occurring between microbial degradation and essential oil extracted by hydro-distillation of two plants with three doses. Plants selected for this study are: *Artemisia herbaalba* and *Rosmarinusofficinalis*. The effects of EO as additives were evaluated *in vitro* by using *batch systems* (*in vitro* gas production technique). Cumulative gas production (CGP) was recorded at 2, 4, 6, 8, 48 and 72 hours of incubation. The qualitative analysis of gas produced (carbon dioxide (CO₂) and methane (CH₄) was recorded after 24 h of incubation and measured according to procedure described by Jouany (1994). Cumulative gas production profiles were fitted to the exponential model $y = a + b(1 - e^{-c \cdot t})$. At the end of incubation, pH values were noted. Chemical analysis shows that the reduction of total gas production is detected with all plants ($P < 5\%$). The largest reduction is recorded with *Rosmarinusofficinalis* (34.73%) after the addition of 14 μ L of EO, the other doses decrease methane production by 5.1% and 26.08% with 10 and 19 μ L respectively. This *in vitro* continuous culture suggests that gas production by rumen microbial populations may be affected by essential oils. Therefore, essential oils hold promise as feed additives in ruminant nutrition to improve feed efficiency and control of methane production in livestock. The consequences of the observed effects need to be evaluated with different doses or their active components and if possible conducted *in vivo* before final conclusions are drawn.

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Introduction

Methanogenic Archaea account for an annual global production of some 400 million metric tons of methane (Ferry, 1997). This has a profound impact on the global change, because the atmospheric methane, which originates from these biological sources, can contribute for about 20% to global warming (Lindau and al., 1993). Since atmospheric methane concentrations have increased steadily by about 1-2% per year through the last decades, (Ferry 1997), Methane formation by methanogenic Archaea occurs in nearly all anaerobic environments such as rumen. Many rumen methane inhibitors, such as ionophores and nitrite, are being explored as feed additives to inhibit rumen methane production, but most of them tend to be eliminated due to safety concerns over animal-derived food (Szumacher and al., 2010). Other alternatives are, therefore, required for example natural essential oils (EO) extracted from plants which have been used to reduce methane production, inhibit feed protein degradation (Calsamiglia and al., 2007). It is reported that the anti-microbial activity of EO is related to the chemical structure of their main active components (Castillejos and al., 2006). Methane emissions can be decreased by supplementing the diet with certain additives and ingredients. Adding fats to the diet can reduce methane emissions by lowering ruminal fermentability, and to a lesser degree, through hydrogenation of the unsaturated fats (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). However, added fat can also lower feed intake and fiber digestibility (McGinn and al., 2004), potentially negatively affecting animal performance. Alternative natural feed additives that shift ruminal fermentation may show promise (Wallace, 2004). When an EO is used to inhibit methane production, the hydrogen produced by fibre digestion will accumulate in rumen fluids. An alternative pathway allowing for the capture of reducing equivalents spared from methanogenesis is, therefore, needed. Thus, selective trials would be needed to determine the optimal EO and addition level that can inhibit methanogens but have little negative effects on ruminal fibre digestion. In our studies, we investigate the impact of different doses of EO on reducing ruminal methane production. It is still

unclear, however, what the effect on rumen fermentation and methane production will be when the natural essential oils are added (Newbold and al., 2004; Spanghero and al., 2008).

Materials and methods

The samples

Rumen fluid is taken at random from 3 adult sheep sacrificed; they received a free diet and undefined. The samples are taken in the morning and the contents of three sheep mixed was filtered through 4 layers of surgical gas and introduced to laboratory into a pre-heated thermos (saturated with CO₂).

Inoculum preparation

The inoculum was prepared following the procedures of (Menke and al., 1979). It consisted of the rumen liquor mixed with anaerobic artificial saliva (1: 2 v/v). The latter was prepared as described by (Menke and Steingass 1988).

The syringes, prewarmed at 39°C and contained two hundred grams of single substrates *vetch-oat hay*, were inoculated with 30 ml inoculum under continuous CO₂ reflux. They were incubated in an incubator at 39°C for 72 hours.

The EO is injected to the reaction mixture just before the incubation fomenters, while all treatments were subjected to three doses (10, 14 and 19 ul). In each test, three fomenters with control substrate also incubated but without additive (three syringes containing incubation medium without any substrate and additives were incubated as blanks to correct the total gas production resulting from the activity of the rumen fluid).

Gas production calculation and statistical analysis

Gas production measurements

At the end of incubation, the pH and gas production were measured and analyzed the composition of gases (CO₂ and CH₄) are the main fermentation gases produced by microbial degradation. The reading is carried out of the gases produced at various kinetic points (2, 4, 6, 8, 24, 48 and 72). The carbon dioxide

and methane productions were evaluated after 24h of incubation by injection in each syringe 4 ml of sodium hydroxide (NaOH, 10N) (Jouany, 1994).

Gas data calculation and statistical analysis

Mean gas production data of blanks were subtracted from the recorded gas production of fomenters with control substrate and additive to get net gas production values. These calculated CGP were fitted with the monomolecular model (Ørskov and McDonald, 1979):

($y = a + b(1 - e^{-ct})$) where: "a" is the gas production from the readily fermented fraction, "b" the gas production from the slowly fermented fraction and "c" the rate of fermentation.

Results and discussion

Effect of essential oils on pH

The results of pH affected by *Artemisia herbaalba*, *Rosmarinusofficinalis* and pH of control are presented in Table 1.

Table 1. pH affected by EO of *Artemisia herbaalba* and *Rosmarinusofficinalis*.

Treatments	<i>Artemisia herba alba</i>	<i>Rosmarinusofficinalis</i>	Control
Value of pH	6.96	6.54	6.74

It appears that the average pH value of rumen juice in the various tests varies between 6.96 and 6.54. So the treatments did not affect pH change or variance.

These values are similar to those reported by Chenost andal. (2001) and Adoui (2001) noted average value of 6.42. Benchaarandal. (2006, 2007) showed a slight increase in pH, whereas Newboldandal. (2004), Beauchemin and McGinn (2006), and Castillejosandal. (2007) were unable to detect any differences in rumen pH when essential oil mixtures were administered.

The range of measured pH is considered favorable for the cellulolytic activity of rumen microorganisms (Hungate, 1966). For Hoover (1986) the pH was within the range considered optimal for microbial digestion [6.0 to 7.0].

Successors are several factors influencing the pH such as the nature of the substrate, additives and inoculum. Thus, neutral pH values measured can be explained by the nature of our extracts EO low water content and also prevent the attachment of bacterial cells to the substrates. Indeed, Tassouandal., (1995) reported that the different properties of EO due to contact with the macromolecules such as lipids or proteins that protect bacteria.

Effect on gas production

The results of gas production GP at various kinetic points (2,4,6,8,24,48 and 72 hours) affected by *Artemisia herba alba* and *Rosmarinusofficinalis* with different doses as compared to control are shown in Figure 1.

The fermentation is relatively intensive during the first 24 hours of incubation; after which it reaches a stationary phase. The kinetics of gas production appears to be determined by two distinct phases; the first one corresponds to the degradation of the soluble fraction of substrates *vetch-oat hay* and the second to the insoluble but potentially fermentable fraction. The change profile in the gas production kinetics after the use of EOS is probably due to their chemical composition.

This last indicates that the different mechanisms of action of these EOS against microbes may have contributed to the differing fermentation profiles obtained with different plants and doses. Macheboeufandal. 2008 reported that this difference may be attributed to the varying anti-microbial activities among aldehyde and phenolic-based oils. The mechanism of EO action was closely related to their lipophilic characteristics. Some of these oils can destroy the cell membrane of microbes, while some function through binding proteins and disturbing the

metabolism of cells (Gill and Holley, 2004).

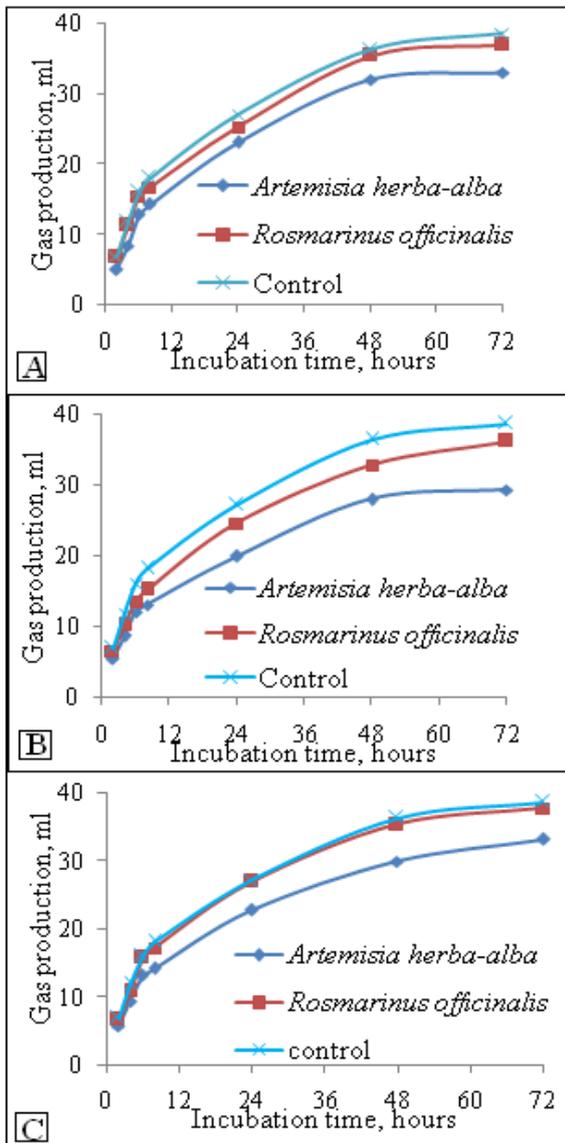


Fig. 1. A, B and C represent experimental gas production kinetics and exponential model profile of essential oils with (10, 14 and 19 µl) respectively.

Effect on methane production

The decrease in methane emission compared with the control tended ($P < 0.005$) to be maintained with all the EO. However, doses of EO had no effect significantly ($P > 0.005$) on methane productions (Fig. 2).

After Adding essential oil of *Artemisia herbaalba* to the diet decreased methane (CH_4) production then a control by 23.03%,27.91%and27.91%with 10, 14 and19µL respectively.However,after Addition essential oil of *Rosmarinusofficinalis* to the diet

Methane (CH_4) productiondecreased then a control by 5.1%,34.73%and 26.08% with 10, 14 and19 µL respectively.

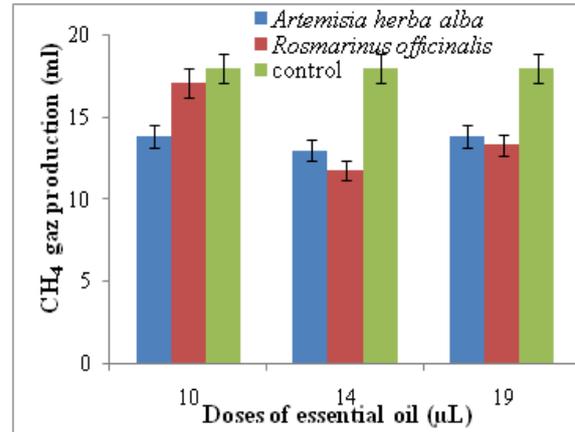


Fig. 2. Represent CH_4 production affected by essential oils with different doses.

This difference in reduction of CH_4 between different essential oils added is probably due to the difference in their effects on ruminal fermentation, it depends on several factors influence the effect of our EO such as the type and molecular structure of the components assets based plant, the added dose and type of target microorganisms and their possible adaptation to EO.

Calsamigliaand al. (2007) reported that terpenoids are the most important active components of EO;terpenoids is a set of materials with the skeleton of terpenes with one or more chemical functional groups (alcohol, aldehyde, ketone, acid, lactone, etc.).

In vitro, a higher antimicrobial activity compared oxygenated terpene hydrocarbon terpenes was observed. Lis-Balchinand al. (1998) reported that pure oxygenated components also showed higher activity compared to EO where they are. On this basis, the order of antimicrobial activity of these compounds is the following: Phenols> aldehydes> ketones> alcohols> ethers> hydrocarbons (Amaral and al. 1998).

The molecular structure therefore seems to be of importance as the presence of oxygen in the molecule of terpene role of the hydrocarbon backbone lipophilic characteristic and the hydrophilic property

of the functional groups are critical against the antimicrobial activity (Kalemba and Kunicka, 2003).

Another important parameter determining the antimicrobial activity of EO is the type of target microorganisms. Generally, various microorganisms do not have a similar sensitivity with respect to EO (Rouabhi *et al.*, 2006).

Fungi generally show a greater sensitivity to bacteria vis-à-vis the EO (Amaral *et al.* 1998). Finally, a higher sensitivity of anaerobic bacteria was observed regardless of the EO compared to those living under aerobic conditions (Amaral *et al.* 1998).

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