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Strategies for Reducing Methane Emissions from Ruminants

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ABSTRACT

There is irrefutable evidence that human activities are affecting the global climate through the production of Green House Gases (GHG) of which methane (CH₄) has a high warming potential. Enteric fermentation and manure from ruminants represent about 30 to 40% of the total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions. This paper summarizes existing technologies to reduce enteric CH₄ emissions in ruminants given emphasis to dietary and rumen manipulation, animal selection/ breeding and improvement of production systems. Differences in enteric CH₄ production among animal species based on anatomy of the GI tract, digestive physiology, rumen fermentation and grazing habits are also discussed. Inhibition of enteric CH₄ emission is possible through the use of ionophores, organic acids and oils. Feeding plants containing secondary metabolites (i.e. tannins and saponins) can reduce CH₄ production. Breeding for improved feed conversion efficiency (lower residual feed intake) is likely to reduce total and per unit product CH₄ emissions. Results using the IPCC Tier II model predict that goats and high producing dairy cattle can potentially produce less CH₄ emissions per unit of milk than Cebu cattle or sheep, while small ruminants (goats and sheep) produce less CH₄ per unit of live weight gain (meat) than cattle. The introduction of improved high quality forages and the implementation of efficient pasture utilization practices (grazing system and stocking rate) can result in most cases in improved animal production and in increased absolute CH₄ emissions, but in reduced CH₄ per unit of animal product.

Keywords: climate change, greenhouse gases, cattle, sheep, goats, dietary manipulation, rumen manipulation, animal breeding, intensification, modelling

Estratégias para a Redução da Emissão de Metano por Ruminantes

RESUMO

Há fortes evidências que as atividades humanas estão afetando o clima global por meio da produção de Gases de Efeito Estufa (GEE), dos quais o metano (CH₄) tem elevado potencial de aquecimento. A fermentação entérica e o esterco dos ruminantes representam cerca de 30 a 40% do total das emissões antropogênicas de CH₄. Este artigo traz um resumo de tecnologias existentes para reduzir as emissões de CH₄ entéricas dos ruminantes, com ênfase à manipulação dietética e ruminal, à seleção/reprodução animal e à melhoria dos sistemas de produção. As diferenças na produção de CH₄ entérica entre as espécies animais com base na anatomia do trato gastrointestinal, fisiologia digestiva, fermentação ruminal e nos hábitos de pastejo também são discutidas. A inibição da emissão de CH₄ entérica é possível por meio do uso de ionóforos, ácidos orgânicos e óleos. Plantas alimentares contendo metabólitos secundários (taninos e saponinas i.e.) também podem reduzir a produção de CH₄. O uso de animais reprodutores para melhorar a eficiência de conversão alimentar (menor consumo residual) pode contribuir com a redução da emissão total de CH₄, além de reduzir a emissão por unidade de produto. Resultados utilizando o modelo IPCC nível II prevê que caprinos e vacas de elevada produção leiteira podem apresentar menor emissão de CH₄ por unidade de produto em comparação com animais zebuínos e ovinos, enquanto os pequenos ruminantes (caprinos e ovinos) produzem menos CH₄ por unidade de ganho de peso corporal (carne), em relação aos bovinos. A melhoria da qualidade das forragens e a implementação de práticas eficientes de uso das pastagens (sistema de pastejo e taxas de lotação) podem na maioria dos casos promover maior produção animal e incrementar a emissão absoluta de CH₄, mas também reduzir a emissão de CH₄ por unidade de produto animal.

Palavras - chave: mudanças climáticas, gases do efeito estufa, bovinos, ovinos, caprinos, manipulação da dieta, manipulação ruminal, criação de animais, intensificação, modelagem.

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1. Introduction

The Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), convened by the United Nations has reported that human activities over the past 50 years have influenced global climate through the production of Green House Gases (GHG). The most important GHG's are carbon dioxide (CO₂), methane (CH₄) and nitrous oxide (N₂O), which have different global warming potential. The warming potential of CO₂, CH₄ and N₂O is 1, 23, and 298, respectively (Ramaswamy *et al.* 2001; Solomon *et al.* 2007)

Reports from the IPCC (2007) indicate that global atmospheric CH₄ concentration has increased by 250% (715 ppb to 1774ppb) between pre-industrial times and 2005 mainly due to agriculture activities. The role of livestock in CH₄ emission is well recognized given that enteric fermentation and manure represent 80% of agricultural CH₄ emissions and about 30 to 40% of the total anthropogenic CH₄ emissions (FAO, 2007).

Feed consumed by ruminants is fermented in the reticulo- rumen by bacteria, protozoa, and fungi and as a result polysaccharides in the feed are converted into volatile fatty acids (VFA) and microbial protein, which is accompanied by the release of gaseous by-products (CO₂ and H₂) (Kamra, 2005). In ruminants H₂ does not accumulate as a gas given the presence of methanogenic archaea and other hydrogen utilizing microbes in the rumen. The

symbiosis between bacteria that ferment polysaccharides and produce H₂ and the methanogens which utilize H₂ to reduce CO₂ and produce CH₄ results in enhanced digestion of feed and microbial biomass production. As a result of this process, ruminants loose between 2–12% of the gross dietary energy in the form of CH₄, depending on the quality and quantity of the diet offered and consumed (Johnson and Johnson, 1995).

Approximately 87% of the enteric CH₄ is produced in the rumen and the remaining 13% is released in the large intestine (Lockyer and Jarvis 1995; Lassey *et al.*, 1997). Thus it is essential to look for alternatives feeding strategies to reduce enteric CH₄ emissions in the rumen and by doing so contribute to less GHG and at the same time improve feed conversion efficiency, which should translate into economical profits for livestock producers.

Several reviews on mitigation of enteric CH₄ production have been published in recent years (Robertson and Waghorn, 2002; Boadi *et al.*, 2004; Gworgwor *et al.*, 2006; Beauchemin *et al.*, 2008; Lascano and Cardenas, 2010). In most reviews strategies to reduce enteric CH₄ emissions were classified as a) dietary manipulation, b) direct rumen manipulation and c) intensification of production systems.

In this paper we summarize existing technologies or technologies being researched to reduce CH₄ emissions in ruminants given emphasis to dietary and rumen manipulation,

animal selection and breeding and improvement of production systems. We also discuss differences in enteric CH₄ production among animal species based on anatomy of the GI tract, digestive physiology, rumen fermentation and grazing habits.

2. Development

2.1 DIETARY MANIPULATION

Increasing intake: It is well documented that when feed intake increases, CH₄ production increases by 5 to 15% for each multiple of intake above maintenance requirements (Blaxter and Cloppertone, 1965). It is also well established that CH₄ production per unit of DMI can be reduced with high quality forages mainly due to increased rate of passage of feed out of the rumen (Mathison *et al.*, 1998; Ulyatt and Lassey, 2000; Hegarty 2001). As a result of increased passage rate, the extent of access of rumen microbes to organic matter is decreased and this in turn reduces the extent and rate of feed digestibility (Mathison *et al.* 1998). Also, a rapid passage associated with high intake rate favors propionate production, which is a competitive pathway for the use of H₂. Lower CH₄ production has also been observed with forage legumes as compared to grasses due to lower proportion of structural carbohydrates, which results in greater intake, faster rate of passage and a shift in fermentation pattern towards higher propionate production (Johnson and Johnson 1995; Eckard *et al.*, 2010).

Type of carbohydrates fed: The type of carbohydrates in the diet can influence the proportion of individual VFA formed in the rumen and thus the amount of CH₄ produced. Fermentation of cell wall carbohydrates produces more CH₄ than fermentation of soluble sugars, which in turn produce more CH₄ than fermentation of starch (Johnson *et al.* 1996). It is well documented that diets rich in starch favor propionate production and decrease CH₄ production per unit of fermentable organic matter in the rumen, whereas diets based on roughage favor acetate production and increased CH₄ production per unit of fermentable organic matter (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). The decision to increase the utilization of grain in ruminant rations to reduce CH₄ production should take into account not only economical matters, but also that ruminants have the ability to digest and convert fibrous feeds, unsuitable for human consumption, to high-quality protein sources (i.e., milk and meat).

One option that should be explored is the development through breeding of tropical grass cultivars containing high levels of water soluble carbohydrates to increase animal performance as a consequence reduce CH₄ per unit of product as has been shown with ryegrass genotypes in the UK (Lovett *et al.*, 2006). The potential for CH₄ mitigation through the genetic improvement of forage species remains largely unexplored and has been the subject of a review recently published by the FAO (2007) entitled “The

genetic improvement of forage grasses and legumes to reduce greenhouse gas emissions.

Feeding processed and conserved forages:

Grinding or pelleting forages used to supplement grazing ruminants can decrease CH₄ production per unit of feed intake by 20 to 40% (Johnson *et al.*, 1996). A reduction in fiber digestibility and a faster rate of passage associated with ground or pelleted forages can be associated with a decline in CH₄ production (LeLiboux and Peyraud, 1999). Feeding ground diets also reduces acetic acid and increases the proportion of propionic and valeric acids (LeLiboux and Peyraud 1999).

There is limited information on how forage conservation affects enteric CH₄ production. In some studies CH₄ production (% of GEI) was shown to be lower when forages were ensiled than when dried, which was due to reduced rumen digestion associated with fermentation during silage making (Sundstol, 1981). Additives such as bacterial inoculants and organic acids used to enhance the quality and palatability of ensiled forages have been shown to lower acetic acid and increase propionate production in the rumen when compared to formic acid, which should result in lower CH₄ production when feeding treated silage (Shingfield *et al.*, 2002).

2.2 RUMEN MANIPULATION

Supplementing fats: In numerous studies the addition of fats in the supplements fed to ruminants has resulted in reduced CH₄

production (Dong *et al.*, 1997; Machmuller and Kreuzer 1999; Dohme *et al.*, 2000). However, CH₄ production following the addition of fats varies with the type of fat used. In this respect medium chain fatty acids (C12: 0 - C14: 0) found in coconut oil, palm kernel oil, high-laurate canola oil or pure myristic acid are effective in reducing CH₄, especially for high-concentrate and low Ca diets (Machmuller *et al.*, 2003). Medium chain saturated fatty acids found in coconut oil appear to reduce CH₄ production through a toxic effect on protozoa and methanogens (Dong *et al.*, 1997; Machmuller and Kreuzer 1999). On the other hand, long-chain fatty acids are non-fermentable and therefore may also decrease CH₄ emissions through reduced fiber digestion (McGinn *et al.* 2004; Beauchemin *et al.*, 2007) and decreased DMI (Jordan *et al.*, 2006a; Jordan *et al.*, 2006b).

A limitation associated with excessive fat supplementation (more than 5-6% of the ration) is that it reduces intake, depresses fiber degradation in the rumen, and reduces acetate production and milk fat content (Tackett *et al.*, 1996; Ashes *et al.*, 1997; Dong *et al.*, 1997; Mathison *et al.*, 1998). Fats increase the energy density of the diet, which can lead to improved animal performance, in some but not all situations (Lovett *et al.*, 2003; Jordan *et al.*, 2006a; Jordan *et al.*, 2006b). The negative effects of fat feeding are less evident when low-fiber diets are included in the diet.

From the results reviewed it is evident

that vegetable and animal fats are an alternative to reduce enteric CH₄, but it is not clear if this reduction is long or short term. It is also not well defined if the effect of oils on methanogenesis is due to reduced intake, to the inhibiting effect of oils on protozoa and methanogens or to a reduction of dietary fiber digestion.

Supplementing ionophores: Numerous studies have shown that the antibiotic monensin, the most commonly studied ionophore, improves the efficiency of feed utilization and decreases CH₄ production (Mathison *et al.*, 1998). The observed increase in propionate production and decrease in CH₄ production that results from monensin feeding have been associated with selective reduction of Gram-positive ruminococci, and the proliferation of the Gram-negative bacteria that is accompanied with a shift in the fermentation from acetate to propionate production (Newbold *et al.*, 1988). However, several studies have shown that CH₄ production was not suppressed with prolonged or repeated use of ionophores (McCaughy *et al.*, 1997; Sauer *et al.*, 1998). The poor persistence of monensin in suppressing CH₄ activity may be due to the development of resistance to the antibiotic, since strains of rumen methanogens differ in susceptibility to monensin and prolonged use of antibiotic may select for non-susceptible strains (Chen and Wolin, 1979).

In general, the supplementation of ionophore is an alternative for reducing CH₄,

but of particular concern is that they could accumulate in animal products and that rumen bacteria could get adapted to the antibiotic. Thus the use of ionophores to mitigate CH₄ production might not be the best option now days given the public and health concerns on the use of antibiotics as feed additives.

Supplementing yeast and enzymes: Dietary supplements based on yeast cultures of *Saccharomyces cerevisiae* can potentially stimulate acetogenic bacteria in the rumen that utilize H₂ to form acetate. However, experimental results are strain dependent (Newbold *et al.*, 1996) and variable in their impact on CH₄ production in the rumen (McGinn *et al.*, 2004).

Enzymes in the form of cellulases and hemicellulases added to the diets of ruminants are known to improve ruminal fiber digestion (Beauchemin *et al.*, 2003) and reduce CH₄ production in vitro (28%) and in vivo (9%), probably by reducing the acetate: propionate ratio. These enzymes could be available in large quantities at reasonable cost since they are used in food processing, textile and paper industries. However, further research is required to screen yeast strains and enzymes to isolate those that confer both a production benefit and CH₄ reduction potential.

Supplementing chemical compounds: A number of organic acids (malate, fumarate, and pyruvate) are needed as precursors to propionate and if their concentration in the rumen could be increased, propionate production would increase and CH₄

production would decline. Malate is the organic acid most studied in relation to CH₄ production but fumarate has also been the subject of some work. In vitro studies conducted by Martin e Streeter (1995) demonstrated that malate increased propionate production and decreased CH₄ output. The same workers subsequently found that inclusion of malate in the diet of finishing steers improved feed conversion efficiency (Martin *et al.*, 1999), but no reports were found on how malate affects CH₄ emissions. The supplementation of fumarate has not been shown to decrease CH₄ production in vivo (Beauchemin e McGinn, 2006).

Chemical products such as bromochloromethane (a halogenated compound) are potentially strong inhibitors of CH₄ production in ruminants. For example, when added to ruminant diets at a rate of 5 g per day, bromochloromethane was shown to reduce CH₄ production for up to 15 hours after treatment (McCrabb *et al.*, 1997). In addition to reducing enteric CH₄ emissions these compounds reduce intake and have little effect on live weight gain, which results in increased feed conversion efficiency (McCrabb, 2000). In Australia, a compound containing bromochloromethane and cyclodextrin was found to have a very large effect on enteric CH₄ production (May *et al.*, 1995). When bromochloromethane and cyclodextrin was fed to cattle at hourly intervals CH₄ production was completely reduced (McCrabb *et al.*, 1997) and when fed

twice daily to cattle over an eight week period, it reduced CH₄ output by 54% (McCrabb, 2000). A potential problem with halogenated compounds is that microbial populations may adapt and as result CH₄ inhibition may be short term (van Nevel and Demeyer, 1996). They are also unstable compounds which are potentially toxic to ruminants and humans.

Although organic acids divert H₂ towards propionate formation, there use in practice is problematic because of their acidic properties that restrict the quantity which can be fed. This in addition to their high cost makes it unlikely that direct supplementation of organic acids to ruminant diets is an economical option. However, organic acids are present at relatively high concentrations in the leaf tissue of plants and it may be possible to select and breed forages with higher levels of these compounds. Studies from the USA with Lucerne, Bermuda grass and Tall Fescue indicate that concentrations of organic acids vary among species and cultivars of the same species (Callaway *et al.*, 1997). However, from the information available in the literature it is not possible to conclude if differences in organic acid concentrations found among forage species and cultivars are large enough to influence CH₄ production by ruminants.

Feeding forage plants with tannins: Several studies (in vitro and in vivo) have shown that with temperate legumes (*Hedysarium coronarium*, *Lespedeza cuneata*, *Lotus*

corniculatus and *L. uliginosus*) and tropical legumes (*Calliandra calothyrsus*, *Flemingia macrophylla*) that contain secondary compounds such as condensed tannins (CT) it is possible to reduce methanogenesis. It is possible that tannins can be toxic to some rumen fiber degrading bacteria and methanogenic archaea, and as a result methanogenesis in the rumen can also be reduced

In a review by Ramirez-Restrepo and Barry (2005) on alternative forages containing secondary compounds for improving sustainable production of grazing ruminants, they indicated that the condensed tannin-containing legumes *Lotus corniculatus* and *Hedysarum coronarium* promoted faster growth rates in young sheep and deer in the presence of internal parasites, and showed reduced CH₄ production relative to forages without tannins (*Chicorium intybus*). They also reported that grazing on *L. corniculatus* with CT was associated with increased reproduction rates in sheep, increased in milk production in both ewes and dairy cows and reduced CH₄ production.

The effect of tannins from different sources (*Lespedeza cuneata*, *Lespedeza striata* and Quebracho) on digestibility, N and energy balance, energy expenditure, CH₄ emission, and ruminal microflora of goats was studied by Animut *et al.*, (2008). Results showed that the different tannin sources had different influence on N digestion, but similar effects on ruminal microbial CH₄ emission by

goats, possibly by altering activity of ruminal methanogens.

Studies reported in the literature on strategic use of tropical legumes with tannins to reduce CH₄ in ruminants are limited. Hess *et al.*, (2006), reported reductions in CH₄ emissions when feeding *Calliandra calothyrsus* high in tannins as compared to *Cratylia argentea* low in tannins. In addition, Tiemann *et al.*, (2008) indicated that with some tropical legumes with tannins (i.e. *Calliandra calothyrsus* and *Flemingia macrophylla*) there low fiber digestibility contributed to reduced in vitro CH₄ production.

In summary, various CT from legume plants could be an alternative to reduce ruminal CH₄ emission. However, more research is needed to better define the mechanisms associated with reduction of CH₄ by CT from different sources since the methanogenic effect produced may not be the same for all CT, but rather depends on the concentration and chemical structure of the CT present in the legume being fed (Min *et al.*, 2003).

Feeding plants with saponins to defaunate:

The elimination of protozoa from the rumen by dietary or chemical agents was shown to reduce ruminal CH₄ production from 20 to 50% depending on the composition of the diet (Whitelaw *et al.*, 1984; Itabashi *et al.*, 1994; Van Soest and Demeyer 1996). The reduced ruminal methanogenesis observed with defaunation can be attributed to a shift of

digestion from the rumen to the lower GI tract (Van Nevel and Demeyer 1996) and to the loss of methanogens associated with protozoa during defaunation (Hegarty, 1999).

Defaunating agents or protozoal inhibitors are not currently available for commercial or practical use as many of the defaunating agents are toxic to the animal. However, it is well documented that secondary compounds known as saponins have antiprotozoal activity, but the level of antiprotozoal activity may vary with the type of saponin (Hess *et al.*, 2003). In the rumen, methanogens are associated with protozoa (Lange *et al.*, 2005), thus any additive that reduces the protozoa population will inhibit CH₄ production indirectly.

In vitro studies carried out in India using ethanol extracts of *Sapindus mukorossi* (a seed rich in saponins) showed a 52% reduction in protozoa population when the extract was added in the incubation medium and this was associated with inhibition (96%) in CH₄ production by rumen microbes of buffalos (Agarwal *et al.*, 2009). In Colombia, Hess *et al.*, (2003) evaluated in vitro the fruit of *Sapindus saponaria* and found decreased protozoal count by 54% and daily CH₄ release by 20% relative to the control (grass + legume hay + straw + urea), but without affecting the methanogen count. In this study the effect of *S. saponaria* on CH₄ was greater in defaunated (29%) than in faunated rumen fluid (14%).

In general, the evidence reviewed

indicates that saponins from some tropical fruits suppress the protozoa population in the rumen and by doing so reduce methanogenesis, but the effect would not seem to be exclusively due to protozoal count depression. Further work is needed in this area to develop practical means of controlling rumen protozoa in ruminant animals and by doing so reduce CH₄ production.

2.3 CHOICE OF ANIMAL SPECIES IN PRODUCTION SYSTEMS

Production systems with mixed animal species (cattle, sheep and goats) are used in several regions of the world. A good example is the mixed system in the semiarid region of northeast of Brazil which is known as Caatinga (white forest). The production system in the Caatinga is characterized by being extensive (Araujo Filho and Crispim, 2002) and as a result possibly producing high emissions of enteric CH₄ per unit product. In what follows we discuss differences in CH₄ emissions in ruminant species based on differences in anatomy of the GI tract, digestive physiology, and body weight and diet selection.

Animal species: Results from few controlled experiments indicate differences in CH₄ production among species. For example, in a study in New Zealand daily CH₄ production from cattle (140 g /day) was greater than in deer (31 g /day), which in turn was greater than in sheep (18 g /day). Methane produced per unit of DM intake (DMI) was also greater

in cattle (21 g /kg DMI) than in sheep (18 g /kg DMI) and deer (16 g /kg DMI) (Swaisson *et al.*, 2008). In another study in New Zealand results showed that Alpacas produced less CH₄ per unit of fermented NDF than sheep (Pinares-Patiño, 2003a).

Rumen fermentation process: A different level of production of CH₄ per unit of gross energy or DMI in ruminant animal species implies that the fermentation processes varies among species. Theoretically, lower CH₄ emissions can result from reduced degradation of feed associated with increased rate of passage of feed through the digestive tract and from higher proportion of propionate vs. acetate. This was confirmed in studies in New Zealand that showed that CH₄ produced per unit of DMI was lower in animals that exhibited fast rate of passage of feed particles (Pinares-Patiño 2003c). Differences in CH₄ emissions rates among animal species is also related to diet selection as shown by results that indicate that animals that select higher quality diets produce less CH₄ per unit of DMI (Pinares-Patiño *et al.*, 2010).

Anatomy of the GI tract and digestive physiology: The anatomy of the GI tract and digestive physiology of ruminants could help us understand differences among species in their potential to produce CH₄ when fed similar diets. It has been suggested that the digestive tract of different animal species evolved according to dietary habits (Hofmann, 1993). Based on diet selection habits animal species could be classified in

three groups: a) grass / roughage eaters (low selectivity), b) concentrate selectors (high selectivity) and c) intermediate selectors. Based on this classification one can infer that cattle and sheep have lower retention times and produce less CH₄ per unit of DMI than goats given that they are less selective. This conclusion supports the use in the Tier II methodology (IPCC, 2006) of a lower rate of CH₄ emission per unit of energy intake for goats as compared to sheep and cattle.

Results that show lower rates of passage and higher dry matter digestibility in cattle as compared to goats or sheep are well documented. In a review of 82 published papers, Aerts *et al.*, (1985) concluded that feed digestibility was higher in cows than in sheep. Other researchers reported that cattle exhibited higher DM digestibility than goats or sheep (Tolkamp and Brouwer, 1993). However, differences between goats and sheep are less clear. For example, Tolkamp e Brouwer (1993) concluded that goats have higher digestibility than sheep, while other studies have indicated higher rates of passage for goats than sheep (García *et al.*, 1995; Huston *et al.*, 1986) or have failed to show differences between species (Isac *et al.*, 1994; Molina- Alcaide *et al.*, 2000). It should be kept in mind however, that higher rates of passage in goats as compared to sheep will only be evident if animals are allowed to select their diet (Molina-Alcaide *et al.*, 2000).

The lower rate of passage and higher digestibility in cattle as compared to sheep or

goats has also been related to body size and diet selection. Studies by Gordon and Illius (1994) showed that retention time of digesta in the rumen was lower as body size decreased and that smaller ruminant if given the opportunity, selected diets of higher quality than large ruminants. Other researchers observed that the gut capacity of large African herbivores in relation to energy requirements was greater than in small ruminants and as a result they compensated this apparent disadvantage by being more selective and by having higher intakes and higher rates of passage (Demment e Van Soest, 1985).

In general, the literature reviewed indicates that there are differences in rates of passage between large and small ruminants. When fed similar diets small ruminants have

higher rates of passage and lower digestibilities than large ruminants and this can result in potentially less CH₄ per unit DMI.

Modelling: A more thorough comparison between ruminant animal in their nutritional efficiency requires considering not only total CH₄ production or per unit of feed consumed, but also CH₄ produced per unit of animal product (milk, meat). In order to calculate CH₄ produced by different domesticated ruminants we used the production parameters summarized in Table 1. For the calculations we also used the Tier II equations of the IPCC model (IPCC, 2006), which assume a lower rate of CH₄ emission per unit of energy intake by goats (5%) as compared to sheep and cattle (6%)

Table 1. Production parameters of different domesticated ruminants used to estimate methane production with the IPCC model (2006).

Parameters	Cebu	Holstein	Sheep	Goats
Live weight (kg)	450	600	50	60
Milk production (L/d)	5	18	1	2
Weight gain (kg/d)	0,5	0,6	0,14	0,1
Calvings/year	1	1	1,3	1,3
Offsprings per year	1	1	1,2	1,2
Offspring weight (kg)	30	45	2,5	1,5

The Tier II IPCC model predicted that CH₄ emission by ruminant species was higher in stages of production which demand more energy as well as in breeds with higher

genetic potential to produce milk (Table 2). For example, high producing Holstein animals produced on average 39% more CH₄ regardless of stage of production as compared

to Cebu animals. The Tier II IPCC model also predicted 24% higher CH₄ emissions in goats than in sheep. However, high producing dairy

cattle and goats produce less CH₄ per liter of milk than Cebu cattle or sheep.

Table 2. Gross energy intake and methane production as a function of production stage of different ruminant species estimated using the IPCC model (2006).

Productive stage	Gross Methane Energy Intake			
	(Mcal/year)	g/Mcal	Kg/year	g/d
<u>Gestation</u>				
Cebu	7866	4,5	35,5	97,2
Holstein	17994	4,5	81,2	222,4
Sheep	1614	4,5	7,3	19,9
Goats	2178	3,8	9,3	25,4
<u>Lactation</u>				
Cebu	11502	4,5	51,9	142,2
Holstein	27780	4,5	125,3	343,3
Sheep	2207	4,5	9,9	27,3
Goats	4005	3,8	15,1	41,2
<u>Growth</u>				
Cebu	15931	4,5	71,8	196,6
Holstein	16199	4,5	73,1	200,1
Sheep	1517	4,5	6,8	18,8
Goats	2178	3,8	8,2	22,4

¹Kg of offspring, milk or live weight gain for gestation, lactation and growth

Differences in CH₄ production between breeds in different stages of production have been documented in several studies. For example, Odai *et al.* (2010) reported less CH₄ in dry cows than in lactating cows. In another study Primavesi *et al.* (2004) reported that lactating cows of European breeds produced on average 31% more CH₄ when lactating than when dry, while the difference between lactating and dry cows was only 10% for Holstein- Cebu crossbred cattle. These authors concluded that crossbred Cebu cows produce on average 18% less CH₄ than Holstein cows.

Results using the IPCC Tier II model indicate that higher CH₄ emissions by cows with high genetic potential for milk production is compensated by high level of milk yield, which results in less CH₄ per unit of milk (Table 2). The Tier II model also show that CH₄ produced per liter of milk is similar for sheep and Cebu cattle, which on average produce 26% more CH₄ per kg of milk than goats and high producing dairy cows.

In general, predictions obtained using the IPCC model indicate that goats and high producing dairy cattle can potentially produce less CH₄ per unit of milk than Cebu cattle or sheep, while small ruminants (goats and sheep) can produce less CH₄ per unit of LWG (meat) than cattle. The greater environmental efficiency (less CH₄ / unit product) of small ruminants to produce meat as compared to cattle should be verified under control

experiments. We predict however, that given that small ruminants have higher weight gain in relation to body weight and are slaughtered at a younger age than cattle, it is highly probable that they produce less CH₄ /unit of LWG (meat) due to lower CH₄ produced for maintenance.

2.4 ANIMAL SELECTION AND BREEDING

Researchers in New Zealand have taken several approaches in an attempt to reduce enteric CH₄ production such as exploiting breed/genotype differences and animal to animal differences. There is evidence that indicates that improving individual animal performance reduces CH₄ produced per unit of product. It is also possible that some animals have intrinsic lower CH₄ emissions per unit of DMI than others at the same level of performance.

In trials with grazing sheep Pinares-Patiño *et al.*, (2003b) in New Zealand classified some animals as 'high' and 'low' CH₄ emitters per unit of feed intake. Low emitters were heavier than the high emitters in all experimental periods, but they did not differ in their gross energy intake. In addition, low and high CH₄ emitters consistently maintained throughout the subsequent periods their initial rankings in CH₄ yield (% GEI). The reasons why particular animals emitted less CH₄ per unit of feed intake in these sheep trials is not known, but it does raise the possibility of

genetic differences between animals in CH₄ production.

Other researchers have indicated that selection of animals with low potential to produce CH₄ could be based on differences in feed retention time in the rumen, which as discussed earlier has an effect on feed digestibility. For example, Waghorn *et al.* (2006) reported that when compared at the same stages of lactation (60 and 150 days), Holstein cows from the Northern Hemisphere consuming mixed diets produced 15% less CH₄/kg of DMI than cows from New Zealand also consuming mixed diets. However, in a subsequent study Munger and Kreuzer (2008) compared the emission of CH₄ in Jersey and Simmental cattle fed ad libitum in open gas exchange chambers and found no differences in CH₄ production between breeds.

More recently there has been interest in selecting animals with low production of enteric CH₄ based on differences in RFI (residual feed intake = measured intake – predicted intake; animals with a negative RFI are efficient while animals with a positive RFI are less efficient). Few results have shown that RFI is correlated ($r = 0.44$, $P < 0.05$) with daily CH₄ production and energy lost as CH₄ in cattle (Nkrumah *et al.*, 2006). In another study Hegarty *et al.*, (2007) also reported a significant ($P=0.01$) positive relationship between CH₄ production and residual feed intake (RFI) in Angus steers.

In summary, large animal-to-animal variation in CH₄ emission is commonly

observed, with the variation being larger under grazing conditions (CH₄ measured using the SF₆ technique) than indoors (CH₄ measured using gas exchange chambers). Mechanisms responsible for the between animal variation in CH₄ production are unknown. On the other hand, results in the literature suggest that animal breeding could achieve a 10%–20% reduction in CH₄ losses from digestion (Waghorn *et al.*, 2006).

In summary, breeding for improved feed conversion efficiency (lower RFI) should be compatible with existing breeding objectives and is likely to reduce both total CH₄ and CH₄ per unit product.

2.5 IMPROVING PRODUCTION SYSTEMS

The introduction of improved high quality forages and the implementation of efficient forage utilization practices (grazing system and stocking rate) can result in most cases in improved animal production in livestock systems, but also in increased daily CH₄ emissions. However, the amount of CH₄ per unit of animal product would most likely decrease with increased animal production associated with improved pastures and management practices.

It has been argued by some authors that enteric CH₄ emissions should be measured on an annual rather than on a short-term basis. For example, results from modeling sheep enterprise indicate that the cost of lamb growth should include the cost of feeding the

ewe as well as the lamb. If this approach is followed then CH₄ emissions /Kg of lamb will be reduced if ewes have a long productive live, lamb every year and have multiple lambs (Alcock and Hegarty, 2006). Other authors have argued that enteric CH₄ production should be evaluated from the perspective of the whole farm. In Australia researchers used the GrassGrokTM model to simulate changes in annual CH₄, meat, wool and gross margin (GM), resulting from sowing improved pasture on a 100 ha cross-bred lamb farm in NSW (Alcock and Hegarty, 2006). Simulations used 45 years of local weather data with stocking rates on unimproved and improved pastures of 3.5 and 9 ewes/ha, respectively. Results showed that by sowing 100% of the farm area to improved pasture, farm CH₄ production and sales of wool and LWG increased by 2.3, 2.7 and 3.1 fold, respectively. These results illustrate that modelling livestock systems is useful to identify relationships between plane of nutrition and animal productivity, economic output and CH₄ emissions of farm enterprises.

In summary, improving pastures can increase forage production, carrying capacity and animal production, which is accompanied by reductions in CH₄ per unit animal product but increases in total CH₄ emission from the farm. However, improved pastures can contribute to livestock enterprise to be more financially secure, produce less CH₄/kg of animal product and have a higher economic profit per unit of CH₄ emitted

3. Conclusion

Ruminant animals produce CH₄ as part of their normal digestive processes that involves microbial fermentation to convert feed into products that can be digested and utilized by the animal. The inhibition of enteric CH₄ emission in ruminant animals is possible through the use of vegetable and animal oils, chemical feed additives like organic acids or antibiotics (ionophores), but high cost and/or short term nature of their effects may limit their use. Therefore, it would seem that priority should be given to the selection of feed ingredients and forage plants containing secondary metabolites (tannins and saponins) that can be used to inhibit methanogenesis selectively, but without adversely affecting feed utilization. Differences between and within species in CH₄ production should also be exploited when designing mixed animal production systems and animal breeding programs in the tropic.

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