



REVIEW

The effects of dietary medium-chain fatty acids on ruminal methanogenesis and fermentation in vitro and in vivo: A meta-analysis

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Funding information

Narodowe Centrum Nauki, Grant/Award Number: UMO-2016/23/B/NZ9/03427; Polish National Agency for Academic Exchange (NAWA), Grant/Award Number: Ignacy Lukasiewicz PhD scholarship 015/IL/1617; Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Science Poznan University of Life Sciences, Grant/Award Number: 506.533.04; Ministerstwo Nauki i Szkolnictwa Wyższego, Grant/Award Number: 005/RID/2018/19

Abstract

The efficacy of methane (CH₄) suppression using medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) remains inconclusive, despite a number of studies on this topic are available. We thus carried out a meta-analysis to integrate the published data on different concentrations and types of MCFA such as lauric acid and myristic acid, which investigated ruminal methanogenesis and fermentation in in vitro and in vivo experiments. In vitro MCFA sources were classified either as pure MCFA (lauric acid, myristic acid and their combinations) or as natural MCFA-rich oils (canola oil enriched with lauric acids, coconut oil, krabok oil and palm kernel oil). The MCFA sources used in the in vivo studies were coconut oil, lauric acid, myristic acid and the combination of lauric and myristic acids. A total of 41 studies (20 in vitro and 21 in vivo studies) were compiled in our database, which included the data on CH₄ emission, digestibility, ruminal fermentation products and microbial populations. The results showed that the amount of CH₄ production per unit of digested organic matter decreased linearly under in vitro conditions ($p < .01$) and tended to decrease quadratically under in vivo conditions ($p < .07$) with increasing doses of MCFA. Populations of protozoa ($p < .01$) in both in vitro and in vivo responded negatively in a linear manner, whereas *Archaea* population diminished quadratically ($p = .04$) only in the in vitro conditions with increasing doses of MCFA. Increasing dietary MCFA concentrations also reduced the fibre digestibility linearly ($p < .05$) in both in vitro and in vivo conditions. CH₄ production for different sources of MCFA decreased in following order: coconut oil > lauric acid > myristic acid > mixed lauric and myristic acids > palm kernel oil > canola oil enriched with lauric acids > krabok oil. It can be concluded that the effect of MCFA on ruminal methanogenesis depends on the amount and type of MCFA.

KEYWORDS

medium-chain fatty acid, methanogenesis, ruminal fermentation, ruminants

1 | INTRODUCTION

Ruminants have been implicated as significant contributors to global emissions of anthropogenic greenhouse gases, including methane (CH₄) that has a 100-year global warming potential of 28 times greater than that of carbon dioxide (Myhre et al., 2013). The contribution of enteric CH₄ emission from the ruminants has been estimated at about 17% of the global greenhouse gas outputs, producing approximately 47% of global livestock-sector greenhouse gas emissions (FAO, 2013; Knapp, Laur, Vadas, Weiss, & Tricarico, 2014). Methane emission also involves feed energy losses ranging from 2% to 15%, depending on the diet type, level of intake and feed composition (Giger-Reverdin & Sauvant, 2000; Johnson & Johnson, 1995). Reducing the enteric CH₄ production from ruminants will not only substantially decrease greenhouse gas emissions, but also will reduce dietary energy losses. Many dietary and animal management strategies have been proposed to reduce CH₄ emissions from ruminants, especially from dairy cattle (Knapp et al., 2014; Patra, 2016). Effective methods of mitigating CH₄ emissions from ruminants with less negative effects on ruminal fermentation are needed for the sustainable adoption of the strategies (Patra, Park, Kim, & Yu, 2017).

Methane is produced by *Archaea* in the rumen, mainly utilizing H₂ and CO₂ (Patra et al., 2017). Supplementation with chemical additives can decrease *Archaea* and bacterial populations, leading to lowered CH₄ emission from the rumen (Patra et al., 2017; Zhang et al., 2018). However, such interventions may also decrease nutrient digestibility and affect animal products with their residues (Patra et al., 2017). It is thus important to explore natural and biotechnological interventions to alleviate this problem with the minimum side effects (Bošnjak, Prpić, Ugarković, Konjačić, & Vnučec, 2018; Varadyova, Certik, & Jalc, 2018).

Supplementation of dietary fat has been investigated in ruminant nutrition and mitigation of CH₄ production for decades (Blaxter & Czerkawski, 1966; Patra, 2014; Szczechowiak et al., 2018). Generally, pure sources of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA), including lauric acid (LA; C12:0), myristic acid (MA; C14:0) and their combinations, showed stronger CH₄ mitigation effects than long-chain saturated fatty acids due to their greater inhibitory effects on methanogens (Patra, 2013; Soliva, Meile, Cieślak, Kreuzer, & Machmüller, 2004; Van Zijderveld et al., 2011). Coconut oil, krabok oil and palm kernel oil as rich sources of MCFA have also been investigated for their responses on CH₄ production, feed digestibility, bacterial populations, ruminal fermentation, milk production and blood parameters, but the results are not always conclusive (Kang, Wanapat, & Viennasay, 2016; Klop, Dijkstra, Dieho, Hendriks, & Bannink, 2017; Machmüller, Ossowski, Wanner, & Kreuzer, 1998; Yabuuchi, Matsushita, Otsuka, Fukamachi, & Kobayashi, 2006). Previous studies had tested the MCFA effect on CH₄ production both in vitro and in vivo. The contrasted results between these two experimental conditions might be inevitable. However, there is potential to predict and estimate in vivo response of methane production from results obtained using in vitro methods (Bhatta et al., 2007; Jayanegara, Leiber, & Kreuzer, 2012).

A meta-analysis approach, which increases the power of the statistical analysis (Jayanegara et al., 2012; Patra, 2009), can help to clarify the effects of MCFA sources on ruminal methanogenesis. We hypothesized that the effect of different sources of MCFA on ruminal methanogenesis and fermentation can be better understandable through meta-analysis approaches. The aim of the present study was to perform a meta-analysis of published in vitro and in vivo experiments to investigate the effects of various MCFA sources (mainly LA and MA) on methanogenesis, as well as on ruminal fermentation parameters, digestibility and microbial populations.

2 | MATERIALS AND METHODS

2.1 | Database development

The search engines of journal collections such as Web of Science, Scopus and Science Direct were used to collect papers on the relationship between MCFA sources and CH₄ production (Figure 1). The following criteria were used for the inclusion of articles into the database: (a) they described in vitro or in vivo studies in ruminants; (b) they involved adding MCFA to basal feeds; (c) CH₄ emission was directly measured (calculating CH₄ emission data were excluded); and (d) the articles were published in English. The selected published in vitro and in vivo studies that reported the effects of MCFA (i.e. LA and MA) on ruminal CH₄ production, volatile fatty acid (VFA) concentration, digestibility and microbial population were compiled in a database (Tables 1 and 2). The MCFA were used from synthetic sources of single free fatty acids, such as LA, MA, and mixed lauric and myristic acids (LMA), as well as natural sources such as coconut oil (CO), krabok oil (KO), canola oil enriched with lauric acid (CanO) and palm kernel oil (PKO). The levels of such addition and their sources were noted in the database.

The final database contained 20 in vitro studies with 154 treatment means (Table 1) and 21 in vivo studies with 75 treatment means (Table 2). The number of in vitro and in vivo observations across variables was not constant, and a descriptive statistic of the data is presented in Table 3. Various in vitro techniques were noted, such as the rumen simulation technique (RUSITEC; Czerkawski & Breckenridge, 1977), the Hohenheim gas test incubation (HGT; Menke et al., 1979), consecutive batch culture (CBC), glass bottle incubation (GBI), the gas production technique (GPT) and the glass vessel incubation (GVI). Most in vitro studies used basal diets such as hay, grass, alfalfa, maize, grains and concentrates as the main substrates (Table 1). In the in vivo studies, the animals which received the MCFA treatments were dairy cattle, steers, sheep and lambs. These animals received the basal diets consisted mostly of hay, alfalfa silage, maize silage, grains, soybean meal and concentrates.

We expressed the MCFA concentrations as g/kg dry matter (DM) of the substrate. Measurements expressed in other units (such as mg/mL, % v/v, or % w/v) in the studies were converted to g/kg DM substrate using the information available in the papers. Fatty acid sources, such as LA and MA in various forms, LMA,

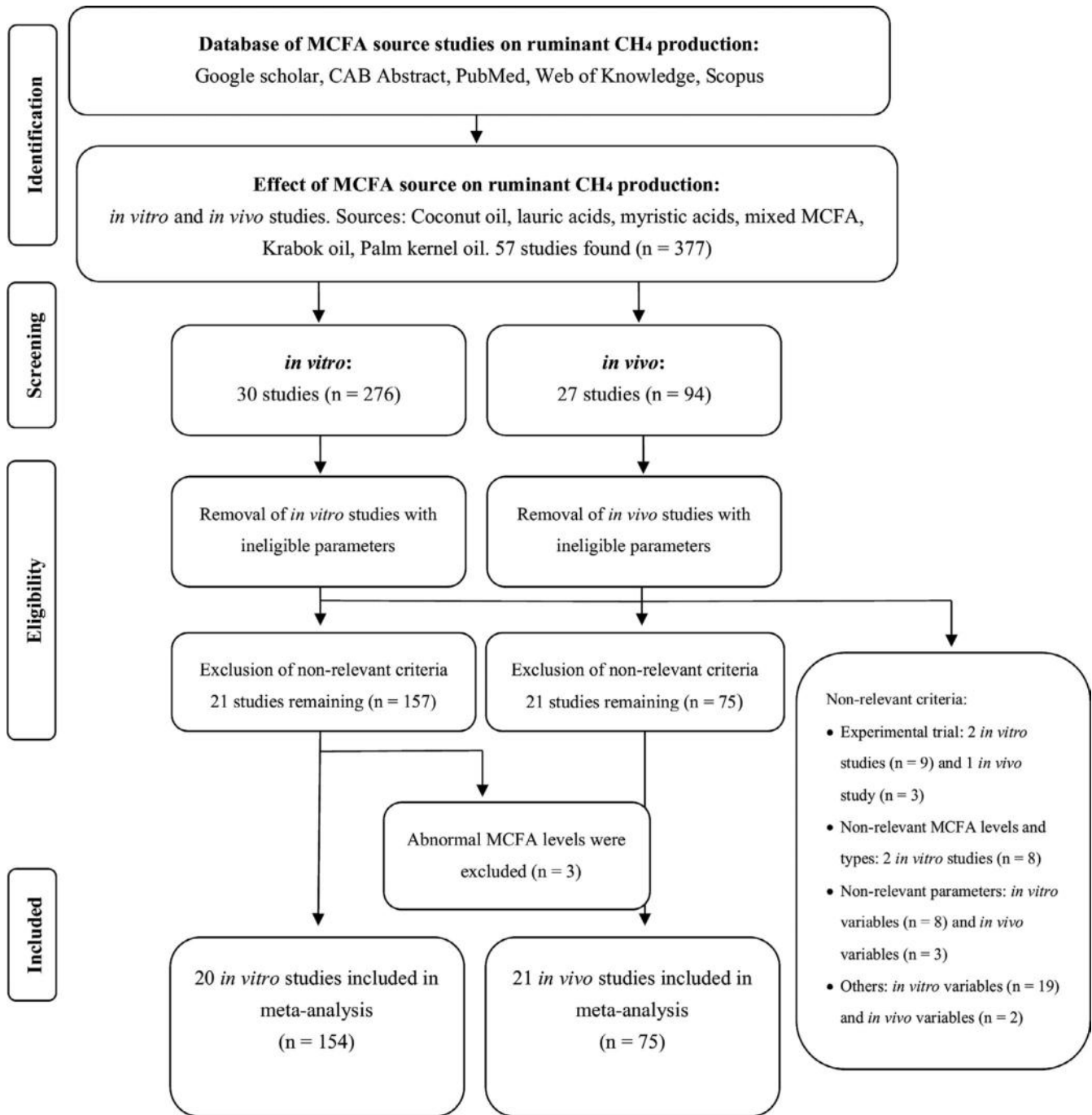


FIGURE 1 Flow diagram for selection of the studies in the meta-analysis to investigate the effect of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) on ruminal methanogenesis in the *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies

CO, KO, CanO and PKO, were converted to g MCFA/kg DM on the basis of their total LA and MA contents. The concentration of CH_4 in the *in vitro* studies, as determined by gas chromatography (GC), was included as the primary CH_4 emission parameter. In the *in vivo* studies, the CH_4 emission was determined by the SF_6 tracer gas methods and using respiration chambers. The CH_4 emission in millilitres was converted to litres of CH_4 gas produced per kilogram of substrate (i.e. L/kg DM of substrate) for the *in vitro* studies and L/kg DM intake for the *in vivo* studies, as well as the L/

kg digested organic matter (OM) for the both *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies. Furthermore, CH_4 production for all the studies expressed per unit of OM digested was also converted to a percentage change relative to the intercept values. Ruminal fermentation characteristics (NH_3 and total VFA concentration), degradability of DM, OM, crude protein (CP), and neutral detergent fibre (NDF) and microbial populations (bacteria, protozoa and *Archaea*) in the various studies were converted into the same units of measurement to allow direct analysis within a specified parameter.

TABLE 1 In vitro experiments included in the meta-analysis of the effect of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) on ruminal methanogenesis

Exp. No.	Reference	Method	Diet	Source	MCFA level, g/kg DM
1	Dong et al. (1997)	RUSITEC	Grass	CO	0–63.8
2	Machmüller et al. (1998)	RUSITEC	Concentrates	CO	0–25.2
3	Dohme et al. (1999)	RUSITEC	Maize silage, concentrate	CO	0–35.1
4	Dohme et al. (2000)	RUSITEC	Maize silage, concentrates	CanO, PKO, CO	0.8–47.7
5	Dohme et al. (2001)	RUSITEC	Maize silage, concentrate	LA, MA	0–45
6	Machmüller, Dohme, Soliva, Wanner, and Kreuzer (2001)	RUSITEC	Hay, corn silage, concentrates	CO	0–33.1
7	Machmüller et al. (2001)	RUSITEC	Hay, corn silage, concentrates	LA	0–66
8	Machmüller, Soliva, and Kreuzer (2002)	RUSITEC	Hay, corn silage, concentrates	LA	0–50
9	Ajisaka et al. (2002)	GVI	Glucose, cellobiose	LA	0–41.7
10	Soliva et al. (2003)	HGT	Not specified	LA, MA, LMA	0–27
11	Soliva et al. (2004)	RUSITEC	Grass hay, concentrate	LA, MA, LMA	0–48.5
12	Yabuuchi et al. (2006)	GBI	Corn grains	PKO, CO	0–73.5
13	Cieślak et al. (2006)	RUSITEC	Hay; wheat meal	CO	0–32.5
14	Božić et al. (2009)	CBC	Alfalfa	LA	0–22.5
15	Klevenhusen et al. (2009)	RUSITEC	Maize, wheat; hay	LA	0–36.5
16	Staerfl, Kreuzer, and Soliva (2010)	HGT	Maize silage, concentrate	LA, MA	0–50
17	O'Brien, Navarro-Villa, Purcell, Boland, and O'Kiely (2014)	GPT	Ryegrass, grass silage, barley grains	LA	0–99
18	Kim et al. (2014)	GVI	Alfalfa; concentrate	LA	0–69.9
19	Kang et al. (2016)	GBI	Cassava chips, rice bran; coconut and palm meals	KO, CO	0–17.7
20	Kang et al. (2017)	GBI	Rice straw, cassava	KO	0–44.2

Abbreviations: CanO, canola oil enriched with lauric acid; CBC, batch culture; DM, dry matter; GBI, glass bottle incubation; GPT, gas production technique; GVI, glass vessel incubation; HGT, Hohenheim gas test; KO, krabok oil; LA, lauric acid; LMA, mixed lauric and myristic acids; MA, myristic acid; MCFA, medium-chain fatty acids ($C_{12:0}$ and $C_{14:0}$); CO, coconut oil; PKO, palm kernel oil; RUSITEC, rumen simulation technique.

2.2 | Statistical analysis

The collected data were statistically analysed using a mixed-model meta-analysis approach (Patra, 2013; Sauvant, Schmidely, Daudin, & St-Pierre, 2008; St-Pierre, 2001). The analysis employed the PROC MIXED procedure of SAS 9.4 software (University Ed., online). The studies were taken as the random effects, while the concentrations of MCFA supplementations were taken as the fixed effects. Statistical models were applied for both the continuous and discrete variables. The continuous predictor variable consisted of the concentrations of MCFA supplementation. The statistical model used was (Equation 1):

$$Y_{ij} = B_0 + B_1X_{ij} + B_2X_{ij}^2 + s_i + b_iX_{ij} + e_{ij} \quad (1)$$

where Y_{ij} = dependent variable; B_0 = overall intercept across all studies (fixed effect); B_1 = linear regression coefficient of Y on X (fixed effect); B_2 = quadratic regression coefficient of Y on X (fixed effect); X_{ij} = value of the continuous predictor variable (MCFA concentration); s_i = value of random effect of study i ; b_i = random

effect of study on the regression coefficient of Y on X in study i ; and e_{ij} = the unexplained residual error. The CLASS statement was declared on the basis of MCFA levels and the study variable, since they did not contain any quantitative information. The RANDOM statement was declared on the basis of different studies, due to varying concentrations of dietary MCFA used in the in vitro and in vivo approaches. These models were used by weighting the number of replicates in the studies, as done by Jayanegara, Wina, and Takahashi (2014). The model was considered significant at $p \leq .05$ or tended to be significant at $0.05 < p \leq .10$.

To graphically present the data arising from the multidimensional space of studies in a two-dimensional space, with the predicted Y values on the regression line with the residuals, the responses variable (Y) was adjusted to take into account of the random effect of the studies (Jayanegara et al., 2014; St-Pierre, 2001). However, changes in CH_4 /digested OM were calculated by subtracting the intercept of the regression equation (i.e. the value at dietary MCFA equal to 0) from each CH_4 /digested OM value and were expressed as a proportion of the intercept following the method of Jayanegara et al. (2012). Thus, the typical experimental

TABLE 2 In vivo experiments included in the meta-analysis of the effect of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) on ruminal methanogenesis

Exp. No.	Reference	Animal	Feeding ration	Source	MCFA level, g/kg DM
1	Machmüller and Kreuzer (1999)	Sheep	Hay, concentrate	CO	0–36.2
2	Machmüller, Ossowski, and Kreuzer (2000)	Lamb	Hay, concentrate, maize silage	CO	0–23.4
3	Machmüller et al. (2003)a	Lamb	Hay, concentrate	MA	0–49
4	Machmüller et al. (2003)b	Lamb	Maize silage, concentrate	CO	0–35
5	Lovett et al. (2003)	Dairy cattle	Rolled barley, soybean meal	CO	0–75.4
6	Jordan, Lovett, Hawkins, Lovett, Hawkins, Callan, and O'Mara (2006)	Dairy cattle	Grass, barley, soybean meal	CO	0–33.9
7	Jordan, Lovett, Monahan, et al. (2006)	Dairy cattle	Barley, soybean meal	CO	0–81.3
8	Sauvant et al. (2008)	Dairy cattle	Cassava chips, soybean meal, coconut meal	CO	0–19.5
9	Crompton, Mills, and Reynolds (2010)	Dairy cattle	Maize, grass silage, cereals	CO	0–22.8
10	Hristov et al. (2009)	Dairy cattle	Alfalfa, barley, corn	LA, CO	0–14.3
11	Ding et al. (2012)	Female yaks	Grass, oat hay	CO	0–78
12	Kongmun, Wanapat, Nontaso, Nishida, and Anghong (2009)	Steer	Rice straw, concentrate	CO	0–45.5
13	Pilajun, Wanapat, Wachirapakorn, and Navanukroaw (2010)	Steer	Rice straw, concentrate	CO	7.1–28.2
14	Van Zijderveld et al. (2011)	Dairy cattle	Maize, dry beet pulp, barley	LA, MA	0–16
15	Liu, Vaddella, and Zhou (2011)	Lamb	Barley silage, concentrate	CO	0–14.8
16	Hollmann et al. (2012)	Dairy cattle	Alfalfa, corn, grass	CO	0–19.9
17	Ding et al. (2012)	Sheep	Oat hay	CO	0–11.6
18	Hollmann, Powers, Fogiel, Liesman, and Beede (2013)	Dairy cattle	Alfalfa, corn, soy hull	CO	0–24.1
19	Nguyen and Hegarty (2017)	Dairy cattle	Oaten, alfalfa	CO	0–26.5
20	Klop et al. (2017)	Dairy cattle	Corn, soybean meal	LA	0–63.7
21	Suryani, Zain, Ningrat, and Jamarun (2017)	Steer	Palm oil frond	CO	0–13.9

Abbreviations: DM, dry matter; LA, lauric acid; MA, myristic acid LMA, Mixed lauric and myristic acids; MCFA, medium-chain fatty acids (C_{12:0} and C_{14:0}) CO, coconut oil.

approaches (in vitro or in vivo) were considered random factors, which make the suitability of the in vitro values predicting the in vivo CH₄ changes/digested OM.

The effectiveness across sources of MCFA was compared using the following statistical model for the discrete predictor variables (MCFA sources; (Equation 2):

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + s_i + \tau_j + s\tau_{ij} + e_{ij} \quad (2)$$

where Y_{ij} = dependent variable, μ = overall mean, s_i = random effect of the i -th study, τ_j = fixed effect of the j -th level of factor τ , $s\tau_{ij}$ = random interaction between the i -th study and the j -th level of factor τ , and e_{ij} = the unexplained residual error, as described by Jayanegara et al. (2014). The different MCFA sources were taken as the fixed effect. When a variable showed a significant difference at $p \leq .05$ or a tendency at $0.05 < p \leq .10$ across the various MCFA sources, least square means and Tukey's post hoc test was used to compare the difference among the means.

3 | RESULTS

3.1 | In vitro experiments

The addition of MCFA in in vitro studies had no effect on the degradability of OM or CP, but linearly decreased DM degradability ($p = .02$; $R^2 = 0.32$) and NDF degradability ($p < .01$; $R^2 = 0.71$; Table 4). CH₄ emission, both expressed as volume (Litre; $p = .03$; $R^2 = 0.62$) and as L/g DM substrate ($p < .01$; $R^2 = 0.72$), decreased linearly with increasing doses of MCFA. However, CH₄ production expressed relative to digested OM decreased linearly ($p < .01$; $R^2 = 0.75$) by MCFA (Figure 2), but the levels of MCFA had no significant influence on gas production. Total VFA concentration tended to decrease linearly ($p = .07$; $R^2 = 0.87$) with MCFA supplementation. Dietary MCFA decreased the proportion of acetate (C₂; $p = .02$) with R^2 at 0.66 and tended to decrease the proportion of butyrate (C₄; $p = .08$) with R^2 at 0.82, but did not significantly alter the proportions of isobutyrate and isovalerate (IsoC₄ and

TABLE 3 Descriptive statistics of the variables in the database used to evaluate the effect of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) on ruminal methane production in ruminants

Item	In vitro					In vivo				
	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Max	Min	<i>n</i>	Mean	SD	Max	Min
DMI (kg/d)						65	10.2	7.9	26.5	0.7
Digestibility (%)										
DMD	23	56.4	12.4	81.5	38.1	32	66.3	6.3	75.5	50.0
OMD	44	55.8	10.5	77.9	33.4	44	69.7	4.4	76.4	59.3
CPD	28	60.1	17.3	89.4	34.1	32	66.2	8.7	80.4	50.0
NDFD	53	25.6	13.5	57.3	5.3	46	55.6	7.9	70.0	35.2
Rumen fermentation										
pH	86	6.8	0.2	7.2	6.3	32	6.6	0.3	7.0	6.1
Gas (mL/g DMs)	63	218	120	489	9.0					
CH ₄ (mL/d and L/d)	102	6.9	5.8	20.2	0.0	60	303	272	835	10.5
CH ₄ /DMs (L/kg)	110	14.4	11.3	45.4	0.2	53	31.1	11.0	54.5	9.6
CH ₄ /OMD (L/kg)	38	17.8	7.4	29.6	4.4	36	38.9	14.5	57.8	6.5
Total VFA (mmol/L)	106	72.7	31.3	170.7	21.0	36	101.2	16.6	134.9	59.5
C ₂ (mol/100 mol VFA)	108	56.9	6.0	70.2	40.2	36	65.8	2.5	70.1	60.1
C ₃ (mol/100 mol VFA)	109	22.6	6.8	39.5	11.4	40	21.2	3.0	27.1	13.8
C ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	109	13.9	4.3	24.2	5.1	40	10.4	2.4	15.3	6.3
IsoC ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	66	1.1	0.9	2.6	0.1	27	0.7	0.4	1.2	0.1
C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	88	4.0	2.7	9.6	0.6	27	1.7	0.5	2.7	1.0
IsoC ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	69	2.8	1.5	5.8	0.5	27	1.3	0.5	2.1	0.4
C ₂ :C ₃	105	2.7	1.1	5.3	0.1	38	3.2	0.5	4.2	2.3
H ₂ (mmol/L)	56	0.9	1.1	4.0	0.0					
NH ₃ (mmol/L)	70	12.6	6.7	25.6	2.1	23	8.3	3.5	18.0	2.5
Microorganism										
Protozoa (10 ⁴ /ml)	49	0.51	0.54	2.24	0.0	34	51.7	36.6	138.2	1.0
Bacteria (10 ⁹ /ml)	40	3.3	1.5	5.1	0.3	20	17.7	14.5	44.0	3.0
Archaea (10 ⁷ /ml)	50	11.5	8.4	33.9	0.0	16	71.0	61.6	234.0	5.1

Abbreviation: *n*, number of observations; SD, standard deviation; Max, maximum; Min, minimum; DMD, digested dry matter; OMD, digested organic matter; CPD, digested crude protein; NDFD, digested neutral detergent fibre; CH₄, methane, mL/d for the in vitro and L/d for the in vivo; DMs, dry matter substrate for in vitro or dry matter intake for in vivo; VFA, volatile fatty acids; C₂, acetate; C₃, propionate; C₄, butyrate; Iso-C₄, isobutyrate; C₅, valerate; Iso-C₅, isovalerate; H₂, hydrogen.

IsoC₅). The proportion of propionate (C₃) showed a positive slope ($p = .05$) in a quadratic manner with an R^2 of 0.79. The proportion of valerate (C₅) tended to show a positive slope ($p < .07$; $R^2 = 0.88$). The increased C₃ levels resulted in a decrease in the C₂:C₃ ratio ($p = .03$; $R^2 = 0.70$). The concentration of NH₃ tended to decrease with increasing dietary concentrations of MCFA ($p = .08$; $R^2 = 0.85$). Populations of protozoa ($p < .01$) responded negatively in a linear manner while *Archaea* ($p = .04$) in a quadratically manner, with R^2 values of 0.65 and 0.71, respectively. The bacterial population was not affected by MCFA in vitro.

CO, LA and KO decreased the degradability of DM (23%–33%), while CO, LA and PKO decreased the degradability of NDF (29%–51%) compared with the control ($p < .01$; Table 5). LMA and LA

effectively lowered CH₄ emissions expressed as millilitres ($p < .01$) by 42%–51%. LMA, LA, PKO and CO treatments also decreased ($p < .01$) CH₄ production per unit of digested OM by 32%–42% compared with the control. Although none of the dietary MCFA was able to change ruminal total VFA concentration, the C₃ proportion tended to increase with the CO and LA treatments ($p = .07$), while the C₅ proportion increased for LMA ($p = .03$). The LA treatments reduced the C₂:C₃ ratio, as compared with the control treatment ($p = .03$). MCFA treatment reduced the populations of protozoa (LA, CanO, CO and LMA treatments) and *Archaea* (LA and LMA treatments) by 68%–85% and 90%–100%, respectively ($p < .01$). However, there were no MCFA treatments capable of decreasing the bacterial population.

3.2 | In vivo experiments

The CH₄ emissions decreased with increasing concentrations of dietary MCFA in the in vivo experiments, when CH₄ production was expressed as L/d (linearly, $p < .01$ and $R^2 = 0.94$) and L/kg DMI (quadratically, $p = .05$, and $R^2 = 0.87$; Table 6). The CH₄ emissions also tended to decrease quadratically when CH₄ production was

expressed as L/kg OMD ($p = .07$; $R^2 = 0.84$; Figure 2). The dietary MCFA had no effect on DM or OM digestibility, but linearly decreased the digestibility of both CP ($p = .09$; $R^2 = 0.96$) and NDF ($p = .02$; $R^2 = 0.77$). Dietary MCFA tended to decrease the pH of the ruminal fluid linearly ($p = .08$; $R^2 = 0.83$) and the total VFA concentration quadratically ($p = .06$; $R^2 = 0.81$). However, increasing levels of dietary MCFA tended to linearly increase the C₃ proportion

TABLE 4 Regression equations of ruminal fermentation parameters on the concentrations of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) addition in the in vitro experiments

Response parameters	n	Model	Parameter estimates					RMSE	R ²
			Intercept	SE Intercept	Slope	SE Slope	P value		
In vitro digestibility (%)									
DMD	23	L	61.5	2.77	-0.2	0.08	.02	9.97	0.32
OMD	44	L	57.6	3.28	-0.07	0.05	ns	5.32	0.74
CPD	28	L	57.7	8.39	-0.09	0.06	ns	6.19	0.87
NDFD	53	L	29.8	3.82	-0.23	0.06	<.01	7.15	0.71
Rumen fermentation									
pH	86	L	6.82	0.05	-0.00006	0.0004	ns	0.09	0.78
Gas (mL/g DMs)	63	L	209	35.6	-0.5	0.4	ns	66.7	0.68
CH ₄ (mL)	102	L	9.51	1.6	-0.044	0.02	.03	3.55	0.62
CH ₄ /DMs (L/kg)	110	L	18	2.3	-0.13	0.03	<.01	6	0.72
CH ₄ /OMD (L/kg)	38	L	23.7	2.1	-0.2	0.03	<.01	3.66	0.75
Total VFA (mmol/L)	106	L	81.4	7.1	-0.1	0.1	.07	11.17	0.87
C ₂ (mol/100 mol VFA)	108	Q	57.9	1.3	-0.1	0.04	.01	3.5	0.66
					0.0014	0.0006	.02		
C ₃ (mol/100 mol VFA)	109	Q	21.6	1.5	0.1	0.04	<.01	3.13	0.79
					-0.001	0.001	.05		
C ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	109	L	14.2	1	-0.015	0.008	.08	1.83	0.82
IsoC ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	66	L	0.83	0.26	0.00002	0.0019	ns	0.32	0.86
C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	88	Q	3.55	0.68	0.023	0.012	.06	0.93	0.88
					-0.00029	0.00016	.07		
IsoC ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	69	L	2.2	0.46	-0.0024	0.003	ns	0.48	0.89
C ₂ :C ₃	105	Q	3.01	0.24	-0.021	0.007	<.01	0.6	0.7
					0.0002	0.0001	.03		
H ₂ (mmol/L)	56	L	0.56	0.28	0.01	0.003	<.01	0.49	0.78
NH ₃ (mmol/L)	70	Q	11.75	1.8	-0.11	0.05	.03	2.59	0.85
					0.0014	0.0008	.08		
Microorganism									
Protozoa (10 ³ /ml)	49	L	10.3	1.03	-0.19	0.03	<.01	3.16	0.65
Bacteria (10 ⁹ /ml)	40	L	3.27	0.49	-0.0009	0.006	ns	0.6	0.84
Archaea (10 ⁷ /ml)	50	Q	14.52	5.41	-0.77	0.26	.01	4.48	0.71
					0.01	0.01	.04		

Note: The model is tended to be significantly compatible at $p \leq .10$. The model is considered compatible at $p \leq .05$.

Abbreviations: C₂, acetate; C₃, propionate; C₄, butyrate; C₅, valerate; CH₄, methane; CPD, digested crude protein; DMD, digested dry matter; DMs, dry matter substrate; H₂, hydrogen; Iso-C₄, isobutyrate; Iso-C₅, isovalerate; Model, linear (L) or quadratic (Q); n, number of observations; NDFD, digested neutral detergent fibre; OMD, digested organic matter; R², R-square; RMSE, root mean square of errors; SE, standard error; VFA, volatile fatty acids.

($p = .06$; $R^2 = 0.70$) and quadratically increase the C_5 proportion ($p = .02$; $R^2 = 0.98$), while having no effect on C_2 proportion. As a result, the $C_2:C_3$ ratio also decreased slightly ($p = .05$) in a linear manner with an R^2 of 0.52. The concentrations of iso- C_4 and iso- C_5 decreased linearly ($p = .03$ and $p < .01$, respectively) with R^2 values of 0.91 and 0.87, respectively. The concentration of NH_3 in the ruminal fluid decreased ($p < .01$) quadratically with increasing levels of MCFA ($R^2 = 0.93$). The protozoa population responded negatively ($p < .01$; and $R^2 = 0.73$) in a linear manner, but no significant effect on *Archaea* population was noted with the increasing levels of MCFA.

The effects of MCFA in the in vivo experiments were categorized by source type (Table 7). The addition of CO and LA decreased the daily DM intake of the animals by 14%–15% ($p = .01$), but there was no significant effect on apparent nutrient digestibility by MCFA treatments, except for a slight decrease in digested DM (4%). Only the MA treatment decreased pH, compared to the control. CO treatment substantially lowered the CH_4 emissions by 28% when CH_4 emission was expressed in L/d ($p = .04$). Methane production expressed as L/kg DM intake was significantly lower by 21% to 38% due to feeding of CO and

MA, compared with the control ($p < .01$). CH_4 production expressed as L/kg digested OM was decreased by 23% ($p < .01$) due to CO. The dietary MA decreased VFA concentration by 25%, and CO treatment decreased it by 12% compared with the control ($p < .01$).

The MA treatment caused a lesser concentration of C_4 and iso- C_4 than in the control ($p = .02$ and $p = .01$, respectively). Compared to the control, only CO increased C_3 proportion ($p = .01$) and C_5 proportion ($p = .01$). All MCFA treatments decreased the $C_2:C_3$ ratio ($p = .008$). MA and CO sources decreased ammonia concentration in the rumen by 25%–38% ($p < .01$), while LMA treatment increased the ammonia concentration by 87%, compared to the control. Of the MCFA treatments, only the LA, CO and MA sources reduced the protozoal population significantly ($p < .01$), but did not significantly affect total bacteria or *Archaea* populations.

4 | DISCUSSION

Our study employs a quantitative approach that may explain contrasting findings of the MCFA effects obtained from individual

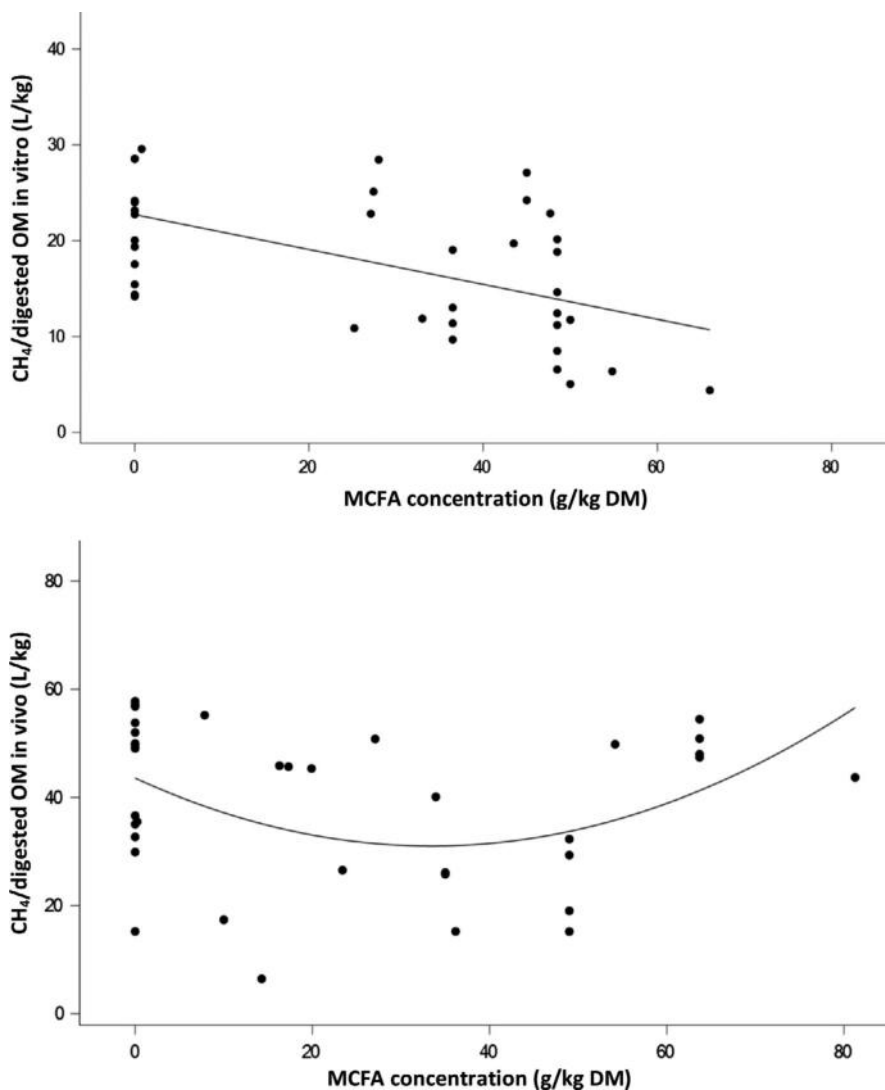


FIGURE 2 Relationship between the concentrations of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA; g/kg DM) and CH_4 production per unit of digested OM (L/kg) in the in vitro experiments (upper panel) with a linear response and in vivo experiments (lower panel) with a quadratic response

TABLE 5 Responses of ruminal fermentation parameters affected by different medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) sources in the in vitro experiments

Response parameters	n	Control	CO	CanO	KO	LA	MA	LMA	PKO	p value
In vitro digestibility (%)										
DMD	23	70.4 ^a	50.3 ^b	—	54.2 ^b	47.5 ^b	—	—	—	<.01
OMD	44	57.5	55.9	57.5	—	51.5	57.4	56.2	55.4	ns
CPD	28	58.0	51.9	—	—	53.7	59.0	53.2	—	ns
NDFD	50	30.5 ^a	18.1 ^b	21.8 ^{ab}	25.5 ^{ab}	15.0 ^b	27.9 ^{ab}	21.3 ^{ab}	15.3 ^b	<.01
Rumen fermentation										
pH	84	6.82	6.79	6.83	6.66	6.82	6.83	6.83	6.82	ns
Gas (mL/g DMs)	63	220	156	—	197	176	258	236	163	ns
CH ₄ (mL)	102	9.75 ^a	10.2 ^a	—	9.21 ^{abc}	5.70 ^b	12.8 ^{ab}	4.77 ^c	—	<.01
CH ₄ /DMs (L/kg)	110	18.5 ^a	12.3 ^b	15.8 ^{ab}	11.9 ^{ab}	10.9 ^b	18.6 ^{ab}	13.4 ^{ab}	13.5 ^{ab}	<.01
CH ₄ /OMD (L/kg)	38	23.0 ^a	15.8 ^b	21.6 ^{ab}	—	13.7 ^b	21.9 ^{ab}	13.3 ^b	15.6 ^b	<.01
Total VFA (mmol/L)	106	81.7	76.7	80.2	80.6	75.2	85.9	79.1	82.2	ns
C ₂ (mol/100 mol VFA)	105	57.9	56.2	58.0	55.9	56.3	59.5	54.4	56.2	ns
C ₃ (mol/100 mol VFA)	109	21.5 ^b	24.4 ^a	21.3 ^{ab}	24.6 ^{ab}	24.3 ^a	22.1 ^{ab}	22.5 ^{ab}	23.5 ^{ab}	.07
C ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	108	14.1	14.0	14.9	14.2	13.2	13.1	15.0	14.5	ns
IsoC ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	66	0.86	0.64	—	—	0.84	0.85	0.80	—	ns
C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	79	3.57 ^b	2.89 ^b	4.42 ^{ab}	—	3.21 ^b	3.66 ^b	5.84 ^a	3.85 ^b	.03
Iso-C ₅ (%)	69	2.28	1.62	—	—	2.18	2.06	2.06	1.65	ns
C ₂ :C ₃	105	3.04 ^a	2.74 ^{ab}	3.45 ^a	2.61 ^{ab}	2.33 ^b	2.89 ^{ab}	2.71 ^{ab}	2.99 ^{ab}	.03
H ₂ (mmol/L)	50	0.53 ^c	0.77 ^{abc}	0.53 ^{bc}	—	1.37 ^{ab}	0.49 ^c	1.84 ^a	1.24 ^{abc}	.02
NH ₃ (mmol/L)	70	11.7	9.32	10.6	—	10.0	13.2	9.23	9.52	ns
Microorganism										
Protozoa (10 ³ /ml)	42	10.3 ^a	2.59 ^b	2.21 ^b	—	1.52 ^b	9.10 ^a	3.26 ^b	—	<.01
Bacteria (10 ⁹ /ml)	40	3.30	2.98	3.45	—	3.39	3.55	3.30	4.00	ns
Archaea (10 ⁷ /ml)	50	15.1 ^a	6.80 ^{ab}	9.75 ^{ab}	—	1.48 ^b	9.10 ^a	0.00 ^b	9.74 ^{ab}	<.01

Note: Different superscript alphabets of means in a row are significant differences at $p \leq .05$.

Abbreviations: C₂, acetate; C₃, propionate; C₄, butyrate; C₅, valerate; CanO, canola oil enriched with lauric acid; CH₄, methane; CO, coconut oil; CPD, digested crude protein; DMD, digested dry matter; DMs, dry matter substrate; H₂, hydrogen; Iso-C₄, isobutyrate; Iso-C₅, isovalerate; KO, krabok oil; LA, lauric acid; LMA, mixed lauric and myristic acids; MA, myristic acid; n, number of observations; NDFD, digested neutral detergent fibre; OMD, digested organic matter; PKO, palm kernel oil; VFA, volatile fatty acids.

experiments. The consistency of MCFA effects needs to be verified across various MCFA sources and experimental techniques. Although each MCFA source has a different effectiveness in mitigating CH₄ (Wang, Kreuzer, Braunb, & Schwarm, 2017), we have attempted to explain the general effect of MCFA on CH₄ mitigation. The effectiveness of different sources of MCFA in reducing CH₄ production is also discussed in the following sections.

4.1 | Effect of MCFA on rumen methanogenesis and fermentation

In general, saturated MCFA sources are capable of inhibiting the activity of microbes found in the rumen, including the protozoa, bacteria and methanogens which are responsible for methanogenesis

(Božić et al., 2009; Kang et al., 2017), though the strength of this effect depends on the MCFA source. Supplementation with different MCFA sources (LA, MA or combinations therefore) has been suggested as an alternative strategy to reduce CH₄ production in the rumen (Hristov et al., 2011; Kim et al., 2014; Machmüller, 2006). It is, thus, necessary to employ meta-analysis to understand the underlying general effects of MCFA on ruminal methanogenesis.

Methane emission decreased with dietary MCFA supplementation, even when expressed per unit of OM digested. These results may be attributed to the direct inhibition of methanogenesis by MCFA, as well as to the reduction and activities of ruminal protozoa and/or *Archaea* populations. In accordance with CH₄ mitigation, digested NDF also decreased with dietary MCFA in both in vitro and in vivo experiments, because MCFA has an adverse effect on fibre digestion (Dohme et al., 1999; Dohme, Machmüller, Wasserfallen,

TABLE 6 Regression equations of ruminal fermentation parameters on the concentrations of medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) addition in the in vivo experiments

Response Parameters	n	Model	Parameter estimates					RMSE	R ²
			Intercept	SE Intercept	Slope	SE Slope	p value		
DMI (kg/d)	65	Q	10.2	1.9	-0.072	0.024	<.01	1.05	0.98
					0.0008	0.0004	.05		
In vivo digestibility (%)									
DMD	32	L	64.4	2.1	-0.005	0.02	ns	2.01	0.89
OMD	44	L	69.5	1.2	-0.01	0.02	ns	1.75	0.83
CPD	32	L	65.8	3.3	0.03	0.02	.09	1.61	0.96
NDFD	46	L	56.8	2.1	-0.08	0.03	.02	3.73	0.77
Rumen fermentation									
pH	32	L	6.61	0.1	-0.002	0.001	.08	0.12	0.83
CH ₄ (L/d)	60	L	303	66.6	-1.58	0.5	<.01	67.6	0.94
CH ₄ /DMI (L/kg)	53	Q	33.8	2.79	-0.32	0.1	<.01	3.89	0.87
					0.0029	0.0014	.05		
CH ₄ /OMD (L/kg)	36	Q	42.2	4.57	-0.44	0.16	.01	5.67	0.84
					0.0048	0.0026	.07		
Total VFA (mmol/L)	36	Q	105.5	5.3	-0.58	0.29	.06	7.06	0.81
					0.011	0.005	.06		
C ₂ (mol/100 mol VFA)	36	L	65.6	0.7	-0.011	0.013	ns	1.28	0.73
C ₃ (mol/100 mol VFA)	40	L	20.5	0.8	0.03	0.02	.06	1.65	0.7
C ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	40	L	10.8	0.7	-0.01	0.01	ns	1.02	0.81
IsoC ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	27	L	0.78	0.13	-0.003	0.001	.03	0.1	0.91
C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	27	Q	1.69	0.2	0.01	0.004	.02	0.08	0.98
					-0.0002	0.0001	.02		
IsoC ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	27	L	1.46	0.19	-0.006	0.002	<.01	0.18	0.87
C ₂ :C ₃	38	L	3.27	0.12	-0.006	0.003	.05	0.31	0.52
NH ₃ (mmol/L)	23	L	10.5	1.3	-0.08	0.02	<.01	0.91	0.93
Microorganism									
Protozoa (10 ⁵ /ml)	34	L	7.14	0.99	-0.09	0.02	<.01	1.87	0.73
Bacteria (10 ⁹ /ml)	20	L	18	7.2	-0.05	0.04	ns	2.77	0.96
Archaea (10 ⁷ /ml)	16	L	88.5	32.9	-0.52	0.5	ns	31.2	0.73

Note: The model is tended to be significantly compatible at $p \leq .10$. The model is considered compatible at $p \leq .05$.

n, number of observations; Model, linear (L) or quadratic (Q); SE, standard error; RMSE, root mean square of errors; R², R-square; DMI, dry matter intake; DMD, digested dry matter; OMD, digested organic matter; CPD, digested crude protein; NDFD, digested neutral detergent fibre; CH₄, methane; VFA, volatile fatty acids; C₂, acetate; C₃, propionate; C₄, butyrate; Iso-C₄, isobutyrate; C₅, valerate; Iso-C₅, isovalerate.

& Kreuzer, 2000; Patra & Yu, 2013; Ushida, Umeda, Kishigami, & Kojima, 1992) and ruminal microbial populations that are responsible for degradation of fibrous substrates (Klevenhusen et al., 2009). Fatty acids can be adsorbed on the microbes or feed particles in the rumen (Patra, 2013; Patra & Yu, 2013). Since small MCFA molecules dissolve readily in the lipid layer of the cell membrane, they can efficiently cause physical disruption of cell membranes and interfere in energy metabolism and nutrient transport, leading to the death of certain microbial cells, such as cellulolytic bacteria and

ciliate protozoa (Kang et al., 2017; Machmüller, 2006; Patra, 2013). Fibre degrading micro-organisms are among the most sensitive to dietary fats (Patra, 2013). The number of ruminal microbes was thus decreased by MCFA, as indicated by the diminished number of protozoa in the in vitro and in vivo studies. The strength of this antimicrobial effect is proportional to the MCFA concentration, which leads to a decrease in the growth of protozoa and methanogens (Debruyne et al., 2018; Machmüller, Soliva, & Kreuzer, 2003a). Although total *Archaea* population in the in vivo result was not

TABLE 7 Responses of ruminal fermentation parameters affected by different medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) sources in the in vivo experiments

Response parameters	n	Control	CO	LA	MA	LMA	p value
DMI (kg/d)	65	10.3 ^a	8.90 ^b	8.75 ^b	10.2 ^{ab}	10.0 ^{ab}	.01
In vivo digestibility (%)							
DMD	30	67.8 ^a	64.8 ^b	69.3 ^a	—	—	.03
OMD	43	70.1	68.6	71.5	68.0	—	ns
CPD	32	65.8	66.7	66.6	—	—	ns
NDFD	46	57.5	53.0	57.9	53.4	60.4	ns
Rumen fermentation							
pH	32	6.58 ^a	6.64 ^a	6.56 ^a	6.15 ^b	—	<.01
CH ₄ (L/d)	60	320 ^a	231 ^b	285 ^{ab}	296 ^{ab}	284 ^{ab}	.04
CH ₄ /DMI (L/kg)	53	34.6 ^a	27.4 ^b	33.7 ^{ab}	21.3 ^{bc}	27.0 ^{abc}	<.01
CH ₄ /OMD (L/kg)	36	42.9 ^a	33.0 ^b	41.5 ^{ab}	30.2 ^{ab}	—	<.01
Total VFA (mmol/L)	34	112 ^a	99 ^b	110 ^a	84 ^c	111 ^{ab}	<.01
C ₂ (mol/100 mol VFA)	37	65.8	65.2	64.4	65.6	62.3	ns
C ₃ (mol/100 mol VFA)	40	20.1 ^b	21.0 ^{ab}	22.3 ^{ab}	24.6 ^a	23.2 ^{ab}	.02
C ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	40	10.8 ^a	11.1 ^a	10.6 ^a	7.5 ^b	10.1 ^{ab}	.02
IsoC ₄ (mol/100 mol VFA)	27	0.77 ^a	0.79 ^a	0.71 ^a	0.40 ^b	0.70 ^{ab}	.01
C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	24	1.68 ^{bc}	1.88 ^a	1.68 ^b	1.49 ^c	1.88 ^{ab}	.01
Iso-C ₅ (mol/100 mol VFA)	27	1.47	1.23	1.34	1.06	1.68	ns
C ₂ :C ₃	37	3.38 ^a	3.07 ^b	2.93 ^{bc}	2.51 ^c	2.74 ^{bc}	<.01
NH ₃ (mM)	23	9.61 ^b	7.25 ^c	7.33 ^{bc}	5.98 ^c	18.0 ^a	<.01
Microorganism							
Protozoa (10 ⁵ /ml)	34	8.46 ^a	4.24 ^b	1.25 ^b	4.78 ^b	6.33 ^{ab}	<.01
Bacteria (10 ⁹ /ml)	20	18.1	16.5	—	16.7	—	ns
Archaea (10 ⁷ /ml)	16	97.4	59.3	—	84.0	—	ns

Note: Different superscript alphabets of means in a row are significant differences at $p \leq .05$.

n, number of observations; CO, coconut oil; LA, lauric acid; MA, myristic acid; LMA, mixed lauric and myristic acids; DMI, dry matter intake; DMD, digested dry matter; OMD, digested organic matter; CPD, digested crude protein; NDFD, digested neutral detergent fibre; CH₄, methane; VFA, volatile fatty acids; C₂, acetate; C₃, propionate; C₄, butyrate; Iso-C₄, isobutyrate; C₅, valerate; Iso-C₅, isovalerate.

affected significantly, the *Archaea* activity might be inhibited due to the MCFA supplementation. Thus, remaining H₂ may be optimized by non-inhibited microbial populations to form C₃ through interspecies H₂ transfer (Machmüller, 2006; Wang et al., 2017). The present analysis indicates that the total bacterial population was not affected by dietary MCFA. The diminished protozoa and cellulolytic bacteria by the dietary MCFA and adsorption of MCFA on the feed particles may decrease ruminal fibre digestibility. Fibre degradation decreased to a lesser extent in the in vivo studies compared with the in vitro studies. These differences were indicated by their NDFD's slope values (-0.08% versus -0.23%, respectively) and their intercept values (56.8% versus 29.8%, respectively). Because of observed values, we can conclude that the fibre degradation due to MCFA supplementation decreased deeper in vitro than in vivo. However, effectivity of fibre degradation activity due to MCFA finally decreased in both in vitro and in vivo conditions. The addition of the MCFA could reduce OM and fibre digestibility, which was attributed to changes in the microbial communities, a reduction in fermentative activity or the limitation of the access of microbes and enzymes

to feed particles due to physical coating (Nagaraja, Newbold, van Nevel, & Demeyer, 1997; Vargas et al., 2017). The number of *Archaea* was diminished in the in vitro studies by MCFA, but not in the in vivo studies. Consequently, the C₂ production was not affected by the MCFA in vivo (Table 6) and the pool of H₂ sink might be conditioned (Moss, Jouany, & Newbold, 2000; Wang et al., 2018). *Archaea* require H₂ as an energy source; thus, parallel with the C₂ production, the *Archaea* population in the in vivo studies was not completely affected. However, it seems that the H₂ gas was not used effectively by *Archaea* for CH₄ production. CH₄ production was thus suppressed, and an increase in H₂ concentration was observed. Because H₂ accumulation is not stoichiometric with the inhibition of CH₄ formation, the increasing amount of H₂ produced might have effect on VFA concentrations formation (Soliva et al., 2004). In the present study, VFA concentrations were significantly decreased only in the in vivo studies, but the proportion of C₃, both in vitro and in vivo experiments, was increased due to dietary MCFA. Higher concentration of C₃ resulted in a decrease in C₂:C₃ ratio under in vitro and in vivo conditions, which is usually noted when CH₄ inhibition

effects are mediated by many CH_4 inhibiting agents, including MCFA (Patra, 2016).

4.2 | The effectiveness of different MCFA sources on CH_4 mitigation

Most MCFA sources proved their effectiveness against methanogenesis, although the magnitude of inhibition varied depending upon the type and concentration of fat, dietary composition and animal species (Grainger & Beauchemin, 2011; Machmüller, 2006; Patra, 2014). Previous findings have shown that the addition of synthetic or monoester MCFA, such as LA or MA, was more effective in modulating ruminal fermentation, acting as strong defaunation agents in the rumen (Dohme, Machmüller, Wasserfallen, & Kreuzer, 2001; Nguyen & Hegarty, 2017). The present study has shown that CO and MA effectively suppress CH_4 production in in vivo experiments by as much as 21% and 38%, respectively, but that LA diets were less effective in decreasing ruminal CH_4 emission. However, in vitro CH_4 emission was decreased by up to 42% by dietary LA, and dietary LMA, CO and PKO were also effective in suppressing CH_4 (about 27%–51%). It seems that there may have been a synergistic effect of LA and MA on the CH_4 -suppressing effect, as the mixture of LA and MA strongly decreased CH_4 formation (Soliva, Hindrichsen, Meile, Kreuzer, & Machmüller, 2003). Among the various MCFA sources, only the addition of CO, LA, LMA and PKO decreased CH_4 production per unit of digested OM in the in vitro experiments (31% to 42%), as compared to the control; in the in vivo experiments, the addition of MA and CO also reduced CH_4 production (18% to 20%). LA and CO also potentially reduced the number of rumen protozoa that adversely affect NDF digestibility, leading to greater inhibition of methanogenesis (Faciola & Broderick, 2014).

The anti-methanogenic effect of MCFA is attributed to the inhibition of ruminal microbes, such as protozoa and methanogens (Machmüller, Soliva, & Kreuzer, 2003b; Soliva et al., 2004). However,

our results show that the *Archaea* population in the in vivo studies was not significantly decreased by any MCFA treatment. Although CH_4 mitigation by the LA seemed more effective, the use of CO in the in vivo experiments was more effective in reducing CH_4 emissions per unit of digested OM. Nevertheless, combinations of LA and MA appear to be more effective in reducing CH_4 formation in the rumen (Dong, Bae, McAllister, Mathison, & Cheng, 1997; Soliva et al., 2004). Dohme et al. (2000) stated that sources rich in LA and MA, such as CO and PKO, in which the LA:MA ratio was approximately 2.5:1, significantly reduced methanogen and ciliate protozoa populations. The combined results from both in vitro and in vivo experiments suggest that CO consistently inhibited methanogenesis. Microbial sensitivity to particular MCFA is determined by the cell wall structures of microbes. Ciliate protozoa and gram-positive microbes are more strongly affected than gram-negative bacteria (Hovorková, Laloučková, & Skřivanová, 2018; Machmüller et al., 2003b). After the inhibition of certain sensitive rumen microbes, the remaining uninhibited microbial populations determine the extent of the hydrogen-producing and hydrogen-utilizing processes in the rumen. The present study showed no effect on the in vitro VFA concentration, except that in in vivo studies, MA and CO caused (25% and 12%, respectively) lower VFA concentration than in the control. In the in vivo studies, LA, LMA and CO showed no significant differences in VFA concentrations compared with the control, although these sources have the potential to decrease ruminal *Archaea* populations. This indicated the different responses of *Archaea* populations among treatment groups in both the in vitro and in vivo experiments. This bias might be attributed to different counting techniques and limited number of observations. Moreover, the fermentation products of CO treatment seem to be lower due to the other synergetic mechanisms of MCFA sources, where decreased ruminal microbes are responsible for decreased CH_4 formation and digestibility, leading to lowered VFA concentrations. Thus, appropriate amounts of mixed LA and MA may alter methanogenic populations.

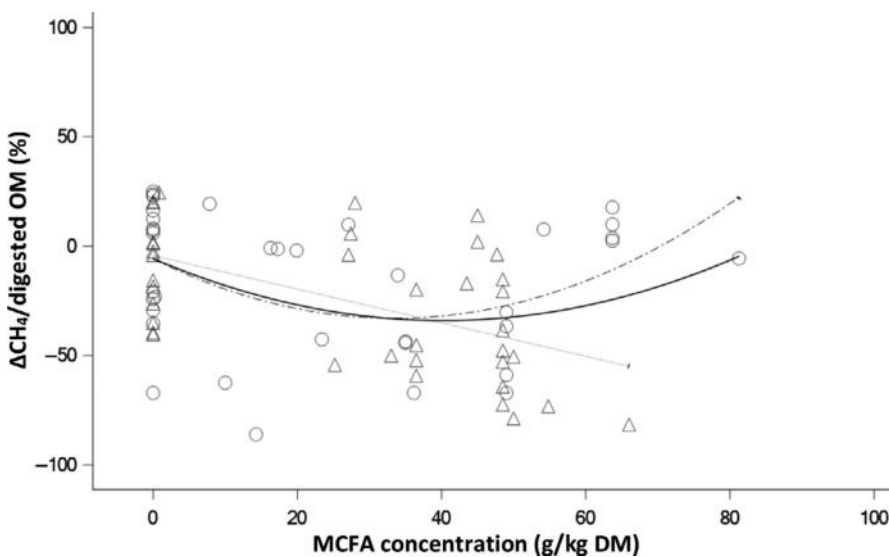


FIGURE 3 Relative changes in methane production with dietary medium-chain fatty acids (MCFA) concentrations in vitro and in vivo. Methane production (L/kg organic matter digested) converted to percentage change was predicted based on MCFA concentration (g/kg DM) in the in vitro (Δ , dot regression line) and in vivo (O, dash regression line) experiments. The solid regression line represents for both in vitro and in vivo experiments

4.3 | 3 Robustness of in vitro methods in predicting the in vivo relationship of dietary MCFA to CH₄ emission

Short-term and long-term in vitro fermentation experiments may be helpful in predicting the effects of MCFA on in vivo rumen fermentation parameters. In the in vivo system, the direct absorption and continuous flow of substrates and outflow of products occur. Thus, in vitro experiments have limitations in reflecting the effect of dietary MCFA on ruminal CH₄ emission. The relationship between dietary MCFA levels and CH₄ emission can be extrapolated using similar units for the in vitro and in vivo techniques. This is based on the proportional change of CH₄/digested OM, which was converted from mL/g and L/kg units to a percentage unit by taking the intercept as the reference value (Figure 3).

The regression model suggests that the relationship of the CH₄ changes/digested OM with the dietary MCFA concentration in the in vitro and in vivo approaches was low ($R^2 = 0.17$). Although the CH₄ changes/digested OM regression model was significant in a quadratic manner ($p < .01$), the intercept value was not significant ($p = .47$). The poor relationship between in vitro and in vivo studies in ruminal methanogenesis suggests that in vitro methods are limited in their ability to effectively simulate in vivo conditions (Flachowsky & Lebzien, 2009; Jayanegara et al., 2012; Krishnamoorthy, Rymer, & Robinson, 2005). The poor relationship (R^2 of 0.26) between in vitro and in vivo has also been reported by Moss and Givens (1997). However, the in vitro results might be extrapolated to the in vivo measurements by evaluating the intercept values of both experimental systems (Jayanegara et al., 2012). The intercepts of CH₄ emission/digested OM (in mL/g; i.e. substrate without dietary MCFA) were 23.7 and 42.2, respectively, in the in vitro and in vivo approaches (Figure 2). The in vitro intercept was still lesser than the in vivo value. When the relationship expressed in CH₄/DM substrate in the in vitro and CH₄/DM intake for the in vivo studies was evaluated, the intercepts (18.0 and 33.8, respectively) between them were still not similar. However, the decrease in CH₄ caused by dietary MCFA was apparent in both in vitro and in vivo studies. Although both in vitro and in vivo CH₄ values decreased with MCFA additions to the diets, CH₄ mitigation in the in vivo measurements was optimum at < 40 g/kg DM of MCFA, whereas the reduction of in vitro CH₄ emission/digested OM showed a linear decrease (Figure 3). It could be stated that in vitro results do not fully reflect the in vivo regarding the effect of MCFA on rumen methane production.

5 | CONCLUSION

Increasing the MCFA concentrations caused a decrease in CH₄ emission in both in vitro and in vivo studies, and this was associated with diminished populations of protozoa both in the in vitro and in vivo studies and *Archaea* in the in vitro study, but not of bacteria. Among the sources of MCFA, suppression of CH₄ production was noted in the following order: coconut oil > lauric acid > myristic

acid > mixed lauric and myristic acids > palm kernel oil > canola oil enriched with lauric acids > krabok oil. In general, greater concentrations of dietary MCFA resulted in the reduction of ruminal fermentation products and digestibility. The in vitro results did not fully reflect the in vivo results regarding the effect of MCFA on ruminal methane production. The effective dose of dietary MCFA is usually 40 g/kg DM to decrease methane production, with the exception of MA and KO due to limited numbers of observations for these MCFA sources.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The in vitro part of this work was supported by the statutory funding of the Department of Animal Nutrition, Faculty of Veterinary Medicine and Animal Science, Poznań University of Life Sciences, Poland [506.533.04]; and the in vivo part by the National Science Center (Kraków, Poland) [UMO-2016/23/B/NZ9/03427]. Support was also provided by the Ministry of Science and Higher Education's Regional Initiative Excellence programme 2019–2022 [005/RID/2018/19]. YRY was awarded an Ignacy Lukasiewicz PhD scholarship from the Polish National Agency for Academic Exchange (NAWA; 015/IL/1617). HH is a PhD scholarship holder under grant 2016/23/B/NZ9/03427, funded by National Science Center, Poland.

CONFLICT OF INTEREST


The authors declare no conflict of interest.

ANIMAL WELFARE STATEMENT

The authors confirm that the ethical policies of the journal have been adhered to. No ethical approval was required as this is a meta-analysis article that used the results of published research data.

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How to cite this article: Yanza YR, Szumacher-Strabel M, Jayanegara A, et al. The effects of dietary medium-chain fatty acids on ruminal methanogenesis and fermentation in vitro and in vivo: A meta-analysis. *J Anim Physiol Anim Nutr.* 2020;00:1–16. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jpn.13367>