

---

# Enteric Methane Emission and Reduction Strategies in Sheep

# 13

Raghavendra Bhatta, Pradeep Kumar Malik,  
and Veerasamy Sejian

---

## Abstract

Climate change is associated with the anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs) like carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) is widely evident throughout the world. CH<sub>4</sub> is considered one of the major GHGs, 20 times more potent than CO<sub>2</sub>, contributing to 15–20% of total global GHG emission. Sheep and goat produce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> through the microbial degradation of feed. Globally, livestock sector produces approximately 80 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> per year through enteric fermentation. Of the total CH<sub>4</sub> production, 11 Tg is from Indian subcontinent, which corresponds to 14% of total global CH<sub>4</sub> production. Indian goat and sheep breeds produce 10.1 and 11.6 g/head/d CH<sub>4</sub> respectively. In the era of changing climate, it is very essential to have strategies that can reduce the CH<sub>4</sub> emission and improve the animal production. Among the various CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation strategies, dietary or nutritional interventions are most suitable and adoptable with no detrimental impacts on animal health. Other CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation strategies like biotechnological intervention and feed additives may fail due to the diversity in rumen micro fauna. A global vision of production systems should be taken into consideration while implementing the strategies to reduce the impact of CH<sub>4</sub> on global warming. All GHG emissions from the animal up to the farm scale as well as grassland use must be considered, and this is very essential to find a global solution.

---

R. Bhatta (✉)

ICAR-National Institute of Animal Nutrition and Physiology, Adugodi, Hosur Road,  
Bangalore 560030, Karnataka, India  
e-mail: [ragha0209@yahoo.com](mailto:ragha0209@yahoo.com)

P.K. Malik

Bioenergetics and Environmental Sciences Division, ICAR-National Institute of Animal  
Nutrition and Physiology, Adugodi, Hosur Road, Bangalore 560030, Karnataka, India

V. Sejian

Animal Physiology Division, ICAR-National Institute of Animal Nutrition and Physiology,  
Adugodi, Hosur Road, Bangalore 560030, Karnataka, India

## Keywords

Global warming • Ionophores • Methane • Probiotics • Saponin • Sheep • Tannin

## Contents

|        |  |     |
|--------|--|-----|
| 13.1   | Introduction.....  | 292 |
| 13.2   | Consequences of Global Warming.....                            | 294 |
| 13.3   | Effect of Climate Change on Livestock.....                     | 295 |
| 13.3.1 | Direct Effects.....  | 296 |
| 13.3.2 | Indirect Effects.....  | 296 |
| 13.4   | Methane Mitigation in Sheep.....                               | 297 |
| 13.4.1 | Mitigation Through Feeding.....                                | 298 |
| 13.4.2 | Grazing Management Practices.....                              | 300 |
| 13.4.3 | Mitigation Through Feed Additives.....                         | 301 |
| 13.4.4 | Mitigation Through Biotechnologies.....                        | 302 |
| 13.5   | Can Genetic Improvement of Sheep Reduce Methane Emission?..... | 303 |
| 13.6   | Is There Any Animal Variation in Methane Production?.....      | 303 |
| 13.7   | Conclusion.....  | 303 |
|        | References.....  | 304 |

## 13.1 Introduction

Climate change associated with the anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs) like carbon dioxide (CO<sub>2</sub>), methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) and nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) is widely evident throughout the world. The GHG layer in the atmosphere is more or less transparent to incoming short-wave radiation, but it is opaque to the outgoing long-wave radiation and reflects back to the earth surface, resulting in abnormal warming of the earth surface called greenhouse effect (IPCC 2001). CH<sub>4</sub> is one of the major GHGs contributing to around 15–20% of total global GHG emission, and its global warming potential (GWP) is 20 times more than CO<sub>2</sub>. Sheep and goat produce enteric methane through the microbial degradation of feed. Bacteria, protozoa and fungi (primary digestive microorganisms) together hydrolyze starch, proteins and plant cell wall polymers into simple amino acids and sugars. Further, these amino acids and sugars are fermented to volatile fatty acids (VFA; acetate, propionate and butyrate), hydrogen (H<sub>2</sub>) and CO<sub>2</sub>. Hydrogen, the gas responsible for CH<sub>4</sub> production, is produced by microorganisms which produce acetic acid during the fermentation. Butyrate is the other VFA responsible for CH<sub>4</sub> production, whereas production of propionate consumes H<sub>2</sub>, making H<sub>2</sub> unavailable for CH<sub>4</sub> production, which causes dietary energy loss. Table 13.1 describes the enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep and goat.

Globally, livestock sector produces approximately 80 Tg CH<sub>4</sub> per year through enteric fermentation (Cynoweth 1996). Of the total CH<sub>4</sub> production, 11 Tg is from Indian subcontinent, which corresponds to 14% of total global CH<sub>4</sub> production. CH<sub>4</sub> is responsible for 18% of the global atmosphere warming (Fig. 13.1). According to Singh (1997), Indian goat and sheep breeds produce 10.1 and 11.6 g/head/d CH<sub>4</sub> respectively. Globally, 700 g/kg of CH<sub>4</sub> is released into the atmosphere through anthropogenic activities, of which agriculture sector accounts for about two-third, with enteric methane fermentation contributing one-third of CH<sub>4</sub> from agriculture

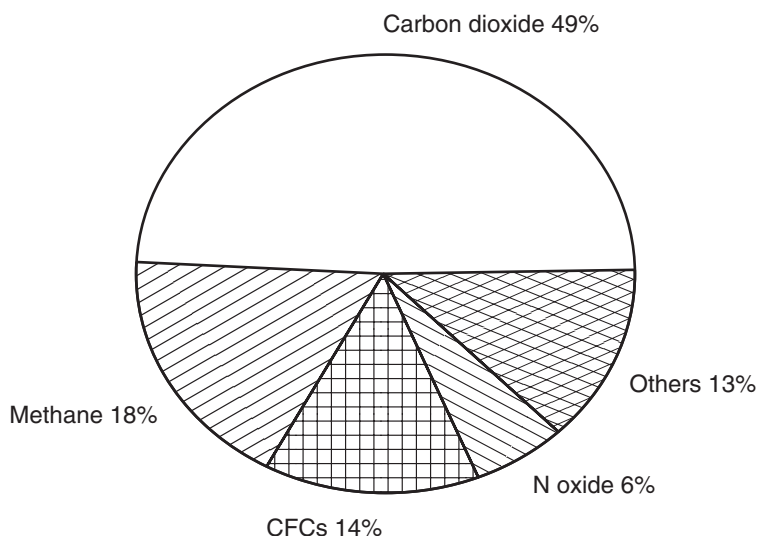
**Table 13.1** Estimates of methane emissions from sheep and goat

| Animal type and region ( $\times 10^{-6}$ ) | World Pop. | CH <sub>4</sub> Prod. (kg/hd/year) | Total CH <sub>4</sub> Prod. <sup>b</sup> |
|---|------------|------------------------------------|--|
| Sheep                                       |            |                                    |  |
| Developed countries <sup>a</sup>            | 400        | 8                                  | 3.2                                      |
| Goats                                       | 476        | 5                                  | 2.4                                      |

Adapted from Crutzen et al. (1986)

<sup>a</sup>Includes Brazil and Argentina

<sup>b</sup>Total estimate for emissions from domestic animals has an uncertainty factor of  $\pm 15\%$



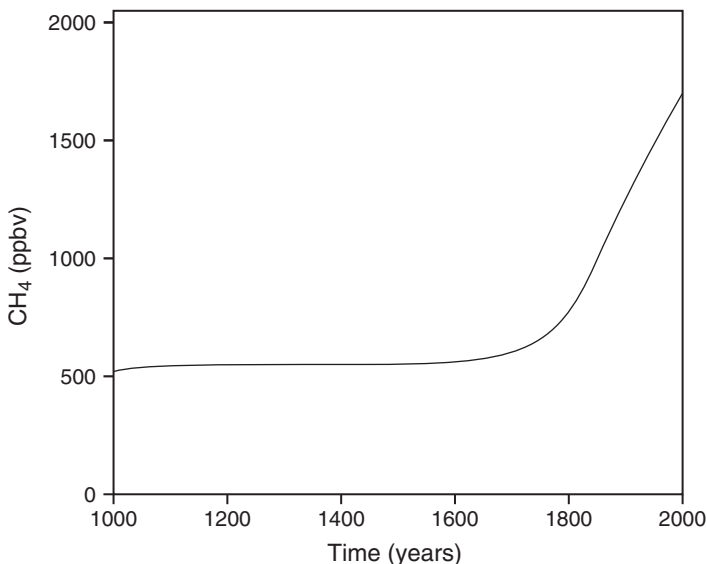
**Fig. 13.1** Relative contribution (%) of greenhouse gases to atmospheric warming (Source: World Resources Institute)

sector (Moss et al. 2000). According to the reports of 1996, world population of the sheep and goat are estimated to be around 1057 million and 677 million respectively (Morand-Fehr and Boyazoglu 1999) and annually one sheep releases 9 kg CH<sub>4</sub> (Mbanzamihigo et al. 2002). Further, sheep and goat together emit 200 g/kg of CH<sub>4</sub> through enteric methane fermentation. In addition to the GHG emission and global warming issues, release of CH<sub>4</sub> through enteric CH<sub>4</sub> fermentation indirectly causes loss of dietary energy (20–150 kJ/MJ) (Johnson and Johnson 1995). This chapter is an attempt to discuss in detail the various enteric CH<sub>4</sub> reduction strategies in sheep. Efforts have been made to address the role of sheep in contributing to global warming and the various options that are available within the rumen to target for reducing the enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep. In addition, emphasis has been given for identifying different strategies and these strategies are explained in detail with appropriate examples which might help sheep industries in reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emission and for optimizing their productivity by preventing the dietary energy loss.

## 13.2 Consequences of Global Warming

Figure 13.2 depicts the trend in atmospheric  $\text{CH}_4$  accumulation. Even with the current global warming rate of  $0.8\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$ , deleterious impacts are already evident on both global economy and ecology. Arctic Ocean ice masses are already shrunk to half from 1970s level (Stroeve et al. 2007). Simultaneously, volume of ice is also decreasing with thinning of ice sheets (Kwok et al. 2009). An increase in the temperature by  $4\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  or more can change the earth system and its natural resources and ecological services. Increase in the frequency of extreme events, rise in sea level and loss of biodiversity are some of the other consequences of global warming. Thermal expansion of ocean and glacier melt water influx are the two largest contributors to the rise in sea level (Rahmstorf et al. 2007). Global sea level is rising very rapidly and has risen by about 20 cm. Scientists also projected a rise of 50–150 cm by the end of 2100 (Rahmstorf et al. 2007). In addition to this, IPCC projected an increase in the frequency of weather events like drought, heat waves, intensified rainfall events, floods and hurricanes (IPCC 2007). Loss of species and genetic diversity is also expected with  $2\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  rise in temperature. Adaptive and regenerative capacity of the nature will be destabilized with 20–30% loss of genetic diversity as per IPCC prediction. Further, Mangroves and coral reefs will face detrimental impacts. In addition, the climate change impacts will also be evident on all natural resources such as drinking water and animal genetic resources.

Any perturbations in the normal functioning of the climate system can lead to huge ecological calamities like unexpected cessations of ocean currents, sudden shifts in the monsoonal circulation and destabilization of large glacier masses (Lenton et al. 2008). Even  $1.9\text{ }^\circ\text{C}$  increase in the temperature can lead to the entire Greenland ice sheet melting and it can further contribute to 7 m rise in sea level (IPCC 2007).



**Fig. 13.2** Trends in atmospheric methane accumulation (Khalil and Rasmussen 1986)

### 13.3 Effect of Climate Change on Livestock

Climate change can have severe impacts on livestock which can be categorized into direct and indirect effects. By far the production losses are primarily incurred through indirect impact. The compromised quantity as well as the quality of feed during summer season might affect the livestock production systems. Climate change can have significant effect on the trade of finished lambs both by altering the lambing time of ewes and by affecting the forage growth pattern during spring season (Rowlinson 2008). Table 13.2 describes the impact of climate change on livestock and its production system.

**Table 13.2** Impacts of climate change on livestock and livestock systems

| Factor  | Impacts  |
|---|--|
| Feeds   | <i>Land use and system change</i>  |
|   | As climate changes and becomes more variable, species niches also change. May modify animal diets and compromise the ability of stallholders to manage feed deficits   |
|   | <i>Changes in the primary productivity of crops, forages and rangeland</i>   |
|   | Effects depend significantly on location, system and species. But in C4 species, temperature increase up to 30–35 °C may increase productivity of crops, fodders and pastures  |
|   | For food-feed crops, harvest indexes will change and so will the quantity of stover and availability of metabolizable energy for dry season feeding  |
|   | In the semi-arid rangelands where contractions in the growing season are likely, rangeland productivity will decrease  |
|   | <i>Quality of plant material</i>   |
|   | Increased temperatures increase lignifications of plant tissues and thus reduce the digestibility and the rates of degradation of plant species. The resultant reduction in livestock production may have an impact on food security and incomes of smallholders |
| Interactions between primary productivity and quality of grasslands will demand modifications in grazing systems management to attain production objectives |  |
| Biodiversity  | In places, warming accelerates the loss of genetic and cultural diversity in agriculture already occurring as a result of globalization, in crops and domestic animals.  |
|   | A 2.5 °C increase in global temperature above pre-industrial levels will see major losses; 20–30% of all plant and animal species assessed could be at high risk of extinction (IPCC 2007)   |
|   | Ecosystems and species show a wide range of vulnerabilities to climate change  |
| Livestock   | Major impacts on vector-borne diseases: expansion of vector populations into cooler areas or into more temperate zones.  |
|   | Increases the heat-related mortality and morbidity in livestock  |

Thornton et al. (2009, 2008)

### 13.3.1 Direct Effects

Direct effects of climate change on livestock production are caused by alterations in the climatic variables such as temperature, humidity, precipitation and wind speed. Different animals (ruminants and non-ruminants) respond to variations in the ambient temperature differently based on their range of comfort zone. Ruminant animals are blessed with wide range of comfort zone and higher level of temperature tolerance, so narrow fluctuations in the ambient temperature do not have any significant effects in their performance. As per IPCC projections, areas that are currently wet will become wetter and dry regions will become drier in future. So the areas with low temperature and high precipitation will become more suitable for the sheep production because of the higher rate of their survival. At the same time, production performance of dairy cows and buffaloes in the tropical dry regions can be hampered due to increase in ambient temperature. To counter the detrimental effects of elevated ambient temperature, animals should be provided with adequate amount of water and shade. However, unlike the ruminants, non-ruminants possess a very narrow range of comfort zone. This is one of the main reasons for keeping pig and poultry under an intensive system of rearing so that the farmers can effectively manage these animals. During winter season, these houses may serve as source of cold protection to the animals. However, existing housing systems may not be sufficient to counter the detrimental effects of heat stress. Air conditioning/cooler systems should be established in order to cool the animals during summer. In addition, there were issues associated with the transport of live animals during summer season when the environmental temperature is at the peak. Although experts feel that the direct effects of climate change on the animal are likely to be small, still they feel efforts are needed to breed for thermo-tolerance by effectively utilizing the indigenous germplasm (Rowlinson 2008).

### 13.3.2 Indirect Effects

#### 13.3.2.1 Nutrition and Feeding

Climate change is widely believed to have multiple impacts on the pasture and grazing systems available for the animals (Hopkins and Del Prado 2007); these include:

- The change in CO<sub>2</sub> concentration drastically affecting the herbage growth
- The composition of pastures as well as the ration of grasses and legumes availability are altered
- The alteration in the concentration of water-soluble carbohydrates and N might alter the herbage quality and total dry matter (DM) yields
- The drought condition during summer season might again affect the DM yields
- Increased N leaching as a result of greater intensity of rainfall

It is very unlikely that climate change would bring in any changes in the composition of feed that is offered to sheep. The least cost ration formulation tool offers huge

scope for changing the ingredients without altering the specifications of the nutrients that are needed for a particular species. Practices do exist pertaining to including imported ingredients and high quality by-products in the ration formulation. The forage component is a major component of diet in ruminants, and this differs with the rearing system, with the forage making up the entire diet in extensive system of rearing as compared to intensive system where concentrate supplementation forms an equal part of the diet along with forages. Climate change is expected to have negative impact on the source of forages that are available to feed ruminant species, and it was projected that both quality and quantity of forages were found to be compromised. This may play a role in impacting the available forage resources and a lot of changes are expected on the forage species which are yet to be explored. The dry matter production is compromised particularly in the winter season. Therefore, the expected increase in temperature is believed to have benefits for early seasonal growth in mixed pasture. Further, the increased rainfall in certain areas can increase the soil moisture deficits, which may again affect the dry matter yield, and this warrants additional irrigation to restore the appropriate growth of pasture. The altered climate may affect the stage of maturity of crop before harvesting, and this can affect both the quality and the quantity of existing species. Again, improving the microclimate might help to reverse this condition. However, in hilly areas which are characterized by low temperature, climate change is expected to increase the pasture production and this might have a positive impact on animal production.

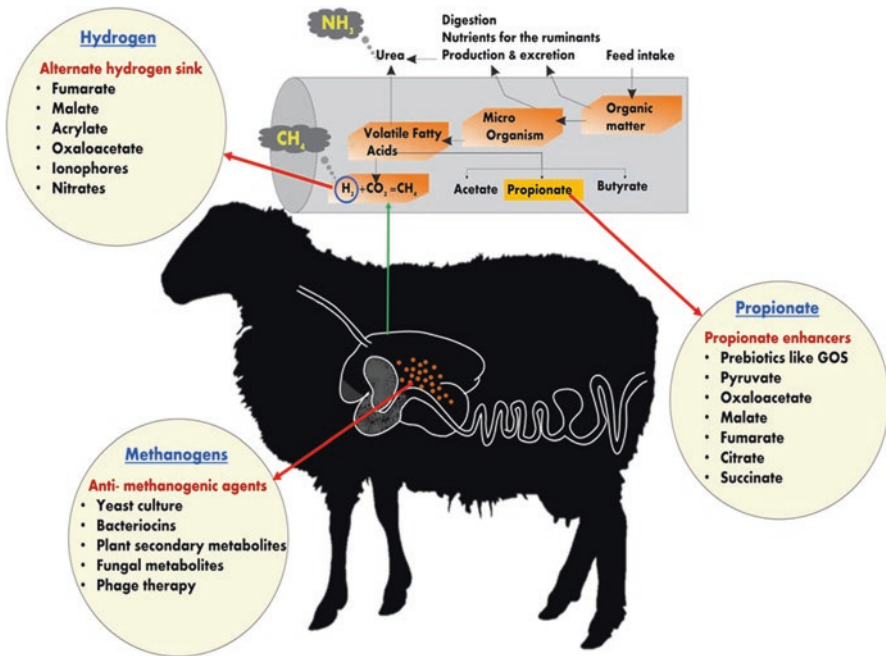
In a few regions, climate change may lead to shifting in the forage species by increasing the hectare of grown crop, which might help to meet the requirement in other regions during scarcity period. However, in arid and semi-arid regions in certain instances the palatable species might be replaced by non-palatable species, resulting in lower edible biomass for the animals.

---

### 13.4 Methane Mitigation in Sheep

Enteric CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation from sheep could have double benefit of preventing the global warming as well as preventing the dietary energy loss. There are various approaches by which reduction in enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission is targeted: inducing changes in metabolic pathways, altering the rumen microbial population and improving the diet digestibility potential.

During the digestion process in the anaerobic condition in rumen, hydrogen is released in the process of generation of energy in the form of ATP. Free hydrogen that is liberated during the process of digestion must therefore be removed; otherwise, it inhibits dehydrogenases and affects fermentation process. The type of diet and the type of rumen microbes decide the amount of hydrogen produced in the rumen. The type of VFAs that are produced in the rumen determines the quantum of free hydrogen remaining in the rumen. For example, production of propionate consumes hydrogen molecule, while production of acetate and butyrate releases hydrogen molecules. Therefore, targeting propionate to be the end product of digestion could serve as alternate hydrogen sink in the rumen. Further, the process of



**Fig. 13.3** Different mechanisms of enteric methane reduction in sheep

methanogenesis also utilizes hydrogen to form  $\text{CH}_4$ . The formation of  $\text{CH}_4$  from hydrogen and  $\text{CO}_2$  is brought about by methanogenic archaea. Figure 13.3 describes the different mechanisms by which enteric  $\text{CH}_4$  can be reduced in sheep.

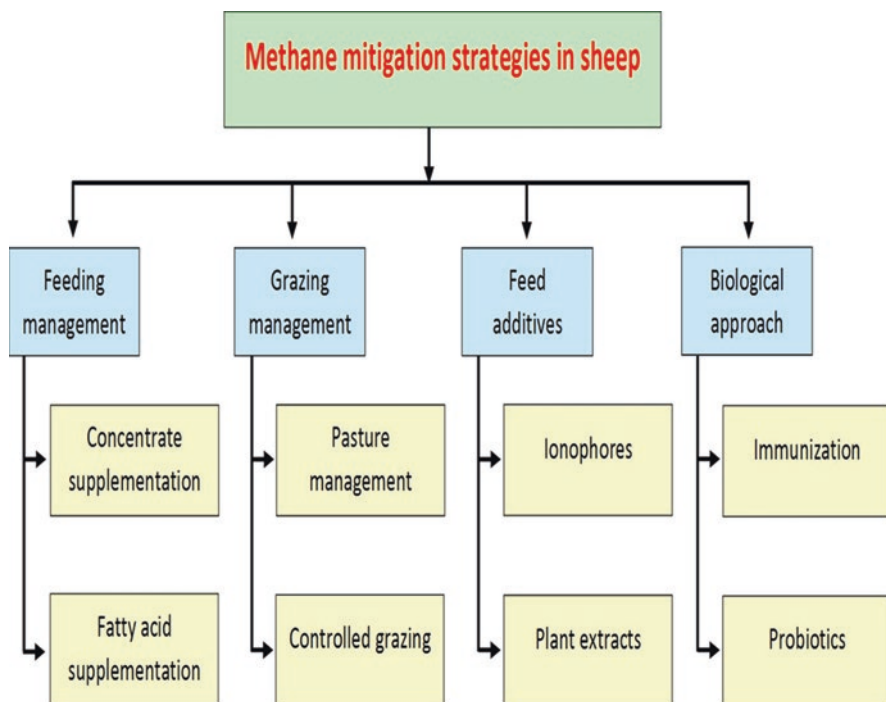
There are three pathways by which enteric  $\text{CH}_4$  reduction could be achieved: (1) provision of hydrogen sink; (2) supplementing with anti-methanogenic agents and (3) supplementing with propionate enhancers. Care should be taken that reduction of hydrogen production should be achieved without affecting the fermentation process. Therefore, reducing methanogenic population should be targeted with concomitant stimulation of pathways that consume hydrogen to prevent the negative effects associated with increased partial pressure of this gas. Figure 13.4 describes the different  $\text{CH}_4$  mitigation strategies in sheep.

### 13.4.1 Mitigation Through Feeding

#### 13.4.1.1 Increased Proportion of Concentrates in the Diet of the Animal

Alteration of ruminal pH with intent to modify ruminal microbial population has been widely practised to reduce enteric  $\text{CH}_4$  emission. One such attempt is to replace plant fibre with starch, thereby decreasing the ruminal pH to alter the microbial population. The protozoa and cellulolytic bacteria do not tolerate low pH, thereby





**Fig. 13.4** Different methane mitigation strategies in sheep

leading to lower production of  $H_2$ . With the exception of buffalo, a strong positive correlation has been established in different animal species between ruminal pH and microbial population (Morvan et al. 1996). This particular exemption in buffalo could be attributed to the presence of non- $H_2$ -producing cellulolytic bacteria *F. succinogenes*. Generally a curvilinear relationship has been established between the levels of concentrate in the diet. The concentrate supplementation brings about  $CH_4$  reduction by altering the VFA production (Bhatta et al. 2005). It has been established that increased concentrate supplementation leads to more propionate production, thereby reducing the enteric  $CH_4$  emission as propionate acts as alternate  $H_2$  sink (Sauvant and Giger-Reverdin 2007). Further, the level of dietary starch is also correlated with  $CH_4$  production during concentrate supplementation. Generally the diet containing starch content of 40% and above decreases  $CH_4$  production by over 56% (Martin et al. 2007). However, the level of concentrate should be balanced as over-supplementation leads to acidosis in the rumen. This drawback of acidosis could be reversed through dietary fat supplementation to depress ruminal methanogenesis without reducing the ruminal pH. Generally, medium-chained fatty acids were found to be more effective in altering the methanogen population as compared to long-chain fatty acids (Machmuller et al. 2003). Poly unsaturated fatty acids (PUFA) can also depress  $CH_4$  production by eliciting toxic effect to the cellulolytic bacteria and protozoa (Nagaraja et al. 1997; Doreau and Ferlay 1995). This toxic

effect of PUFA could be attributed to its action on the cell membrane of gram-positive bacteria. Further, it has been established that linolenic acid has toxic effect on the bacteria. All these changes in the microbial population shift the ruminal fermentation towards propionate production, thereby leading to more utilization of  $H_2$ . The limitation of fat supplementation is that the microbial population may tend to adapt to fat supplementation in a long run. This warrants future research efforts in exploring fatty-acid-supplementation-oriented enteric  $CH_4$  reduction without allowing microbes to adapt for such supplementation (Grainger et al. 2008).

## 13.4.2 Grazing Management Practices

### 13.4.2.1 Pasture Management

Improved pasture management is often considered as a reliable option for reducing enteric  $CH_4$  emission. Quality pasture can reduce emission either through improving the animal productivity or by reducing the proportion of energy lost. There is evidence showing reduced  $CH_4$  emission per unit of quality pasture consumed in temperate region as compared to tropical region (Molano and Clark 2008). However, there are also reports suggesting no impact of pasture quality on  $CH_4$  reduction potent. These results suggest that well-managed pastures do not invariably lead to  $CH_4$  reduction but it could curb lifetime  $CH_4$  emission or emission per kilogram of product. Increased stocking densities as a result of improved pastures could increase emission rate per hectare. In a study conducted on an Australian sheep farm, Alcock and Hegarty (2006) reported a very low level of  $CH_4$  reduction on body weight basis. The reason for the less reduction of  $CH_4$  in their study could be attributed to the high productivity of sheep on individual basis in their farm. However, Lovett et al. (2006a, b) reported the influence of soil types, with higher milk yield and lower GHG emission per kilogram of milk produced when dairy cows grazed in the drier soils.

### 13.4.2.2 Controlled Grazing

Implementing controlled grazing system is considered as one of the best ways to improve the sheep productivity. This approach could yield higher proportion of quality forage as compared to conventional grazing practices. The latest developments pertaining to new fencing and watering technologies offer huge scopes for the farmers and entrepreneurs to develop their grazing systems. The uninterrupted use of grazing land by sheep throughout the grazing season can be achieved through management practices of continuous stocking. Such system most often fails to maximize the productive potential of the land, leading to forage wastage, less pasture productivity and lower weight gain per unit of land. Rather, controlled grazing is considered to be a better management strategy to produce a more productive grazing system. In this grazing system the grazing land is subdivided into individual grazing units called paddocks, which are alternatively grazed and rested throughout the grazing system. Pasture productivity, stocking density and the desired residency period of the sheep are the factors which will determine the size and number of

paddocks. Therefore the controlled grazing system is better placed than the conventional grazing system to maintain an effective balance between forage demand and supply. As a result, controlled grazing system has several advantages such as promoting higher forage yield, uniform level of forage quality and improved harvest efficiencies. These advantages make controlled grazing system more effective in producing more productive sheep with greater body weight gain per acre, thereby improving the economy of sheep farms while reducing the rate of CH<sub>4</sub> emission per kilogram body weight gain. Further, controlled grazing system has another notable advantage of acting as a natural sink for CO<sub>2</sub>. The improved pasture quality in the controlled grazing can build up the carbon in the soil and plant biomass, leading to reduced CO<sub>2</sub> emission to the atmosphere. However, in semi-arid region where the growing of the vegetation takes place from July–September and withers off in October–November, this practice has no relevance. Similarly, when the majority of the sheep are reared under an extensive system of rearing and there is migration during acute summer, this option is not feasible.

### 13.4.3 Mitigation Through Feed Additives

#### 13.4.3.1 Ionophores and Organic Acids

Monensin, the common ionophore antibiotics used to improve the animal production efficiency, is considered as one of the best feed additives which has the properties to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission (Beauchemin et al. 2008). This reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emission by monensin is brought about by shifting the fermentation pattern towards propionogenesis. Further, organic acids such as malate and fumarate are other feed additives that could help to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep. Wallace et al. (2006) reported an exceptional CH<sub>4</sub> reduction percentage of around 75 on supplementing 10% encapsulated fumaric acid in sheep diet. Further, Martin et al. (1999) reported that malate content of fresh forages such as lucerne can lead to enteric CH<sub>4</sub> reduction by changing the rumen fermentation pattern. Similar results were also reported by Bhatta et al. (2008) in sheep.

#### 13.4.3.2 Plant Extracts

The use of plant secondary metabolites such as tannins, saponins and essential oils to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission is gaining importance in recent years as these metabolites are of natural origin as compared to chemical additives (Bhatta et al. 2002, 2006). The mechanism of CH<sub>4</sub> reduction using tannin supplementation is brought about by two pathways recently: direct anti-methanogenic effect and indirect pathway of less hydrogen production through reduced feed degradation. Bhatta et al. (2009a) observed direct reduction in methanogenesis by tannin supplementation by two ways: directly by reducing the number of archaea and indirectly by reducing the number of protozoa. The source containing both condensed and hydrolysable tannins is more effective in suppressing CH<sub>4</sub> emission as compared to those containing only hydrolysable tannins. This was further confirmed by feeding trials in goats kept in an open circuit respiration chamber. It was observed that at lower

level of tannin (2.5%), CH<sub>4</sub> suppression was primarily due to the reduction in the number of archaea/protozoa, whereas at higher levels of tannin (5.0%), increased CH<sub>4</sub> suppression was due to the combined effect of reduced archaea coupled with reduction in digestibility of nutrients (Bhatta et al. 2009a, b). The inhibitory effect of saponins on CH<sub>4</sub> reduction could be attributed to its anti-protozoal effect (Newbold et al. 1987). However, further research efforts are needed to identify the exact dose of plant extract supplementation which could prevent rumen microbial adaptation to avoid the presence of residues of such additives in animal products and to nullify anti-nutritional side effects of such supplementation.

### 13.4.4 Mitigation Through Biotechnologies

#### 13.4.4.1 Immunization and Biological Control

The latest biotechnological tools are currently being explored for finding solution through sheep-mediated climate change. However, substantial progress has not been made in this aspect primarily due to multiple factors influencing enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production. In a study carried out in Australian sheep, a vaccine against three methanogens was developed, through which a decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> production by 8% was reported. However, such a vaccine was found to be ineffective against other methanogens (Wright et al. 2004). Further, the diversified microbial population depending on the feeding conditions may also contribute for this vaccine failure. There are also reports which identified the role of bacteriocins for enteric CH<sub>4</sub> reduction. Nisin is one such bacteriocin which was predicted to have CH<sub>4</sub> reduction potential in animals by mimicking the role of ionophore monensin (Callaway et al. 1997). However, there are no published reports on the effects of nisin for enteric CH<sub>4</sub> reduction under in vivo condition. Bovicin HC5 is a type of bacteriocin produced from rumen bacteria and is used for reducing the CH<sub>4</sub> production up to 50% under in vitro condition preventing adaptation of methanogens.

#### 13.4.4.2 Probiotics

Another interesting approach for reducing enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission is achieved through probiotics supplementation. There are also efforts to deviate H<sub>2</sub> from methanogenesis to acetogenesis pathway since the final end product acetate of this pathway can act as additional source of energy for the animals. However, acetogens were found to be less efficient than methanogens in the competition for reducing equivalents in the rumen further, and several attempts to boost their activity were found to be unsuccessful. There are also attempts to isolate new H<sub>2</sub>-utilizing species which may be considered as a better alternative than already tested acetogens (Klieve and Joblin 2007).

### 13.5 Can Genetic Improvement of Sheep Reduce Methane Emission?

Increasing the level of production in the sheep through the identification and enhanced modification of heritable traits could help to decrease the overall CH<sub>4</sub> emission. Improving the feed conversion efficiency could help to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission by increasing the animal productivity and this is the typical example of how a heritable trait could be used to minimize CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep. There are also strategies combining improved genetics with good management practices to increase the reproductive efficiency. Increased lambing rates and weaning weights through such attempts could curb CH<sub>4</sub> emission per unit of product. This is because the increased reproductive efficiency reduces the size of the flock to produce the desired number of lambs as the consumer demand can be met through fewer but efficient sheep. More emphasis should be given to conduct research pertaining to genetic improvement in an attempt to increase the overall productivity of sheep and at the same time reduce the enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission.

---

### 13.6 Is There Any Animal Variation in Methane Production?

There are ongoing debates around the world pertaining to decreasing emission through low-CH<sub>4</sub>-producing animals. Very high variability for CH<sub>4</sub> production have been established within the animal and ranking of animals based on CH<sub>4</sub> production potential may differ with diet composition and physiological status of the animals or between two successive measurements of same diet and feed intake (Pinares-Patino et al. 2007a; Munger and Kreuzer 2008). These authors have established repeatability between 47 and 73% based on the type of diet used for the animals, and this repeatability could be attributed either to the animal differences in microbial ecosystems or to intrinsic animal characteristics such as retention time in the rumen. This is because animals with low retention time might produce less CH<sub>4</sub> in the rumen (Pinares-Patino et al. 2007a, b). However, there are not much research reports available to assess the heritability of CH<sub>4</sub> production and to apply such trait for genetic selection. In a study, Hegarty et al. (2007) established that selection of animals based on feed conversion efficiency residual feed intake could reduce CH<sub>4</sub> production.

---

### 13.7 Conclusion

There are several strategies available for enteric CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation. Currently, feeding management strategies are widely used to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep. There are also promising advanced biotechnological strategies available in sheep but their applications in the field condition are limited because of the wide variation in the diet composition and wider diversity in rumen microbial population. Strategies pertaining to improving the production efficiency of sheep might yield better results in terms of reducing the enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emission in sheep.

## References

- Alcock D, Hegarty RS (2006). In: Soliva CR, Takahashi J, Kreuzer M (eds) Greenhouse gases and animal agriculture: an update. Elsevier International Congress Series 1293, Amsterdam, The Netherlands, pp 103–105
- Beauchemin KA, Kreuzer M, O'Mara F, TA MA (2008) Nutritional management for enteric methane abatement: a review. *Aust J Exp Agric* 48:21–27
- Bhatta R, Shinde AK, Vaithiyanathan S, Sankhyan SK, Verma DL (2002) Effect of polyethylene glycol-6000 on nutrient intake, digestion and growth of kids browsing *Prosopis cineraria*. *Animal Feed Sci Technol* 101(1–4):45–54
- Bhatta R, Tajima K, Takusari N, Higuchi K, Enishi O, Kurihara M (2005) Comparison of sulfur hexafluoride tracer technique, rumen simulation technique and *in vitro* gas production techniques for methane production from ruminant feeds. In: Soliva CR, Takahashi J, Kreuzer M (eds) Greenhouse gases and animal agriculture: an update. Elsevier International Congress Series 1293, Amsterdam, pp 419–421
- Bhatta R, Tajima K, Uyeno Y, Enishi O, Kurihara M (2006) Effect of plant extracts as natural source of tannins on methane production *in vitro*. In: International workshop on Monsoon Asia Agricultural Greenhouse Gas Emissions, Tsukuba, Japan, 7–9 March, p 67
- Bhatta R, Enishi O, Takusari N, Higuchi K, Nonaka I, Kurihara M (2008) Diet effects on methane production by goats and a comparison between measurement methodologies. *J Agric Sci (Camb)* 146:705–715
- Bhatta R, Enishi O, Yabumoto Y, Takusari N, Nonaka I, Kurihara MB (2009a) Methane suppression in goats fed complete diet containing natural source of tannin r. *J Nutr* (in press)
- Bhatta R, Uyeno Y, Tajima K, Takenaka A, Yabumoto Y, Nonaka I, Enishi O, Kurihara M (2009b) Difference in the nature of tannins on *in vitro* ruminal methane and volatile fatty acid production, and methanogenic archaea and protozoal populations. *J Dairy Sci* 92(11):5512–5522
- Callaway TR, Carneiro De Melo AM, Russell JB (1997) *Curr Microbiol* 35:90–96
- Crutzen PJ, Aselmann I, Seiler W (1986) Methane production by domestic animals, wild ruminants, other herbivorous fauna, and humans. *Tellus* 388:271–284
- Cynoweth (1996) Environmental impact of biometanogenesis. *Monit Assess* 42:3–18. Kluwer Academic Publishers, Printed in the Netherlands
- Doreau M, Ferlay A (1995) *Livest Prod Sci* 43:97–110
- Grainger C, Clarke T, Beauchemin KA, McGinn SM, Eckard RJ (2008) Supplementation with whole cottonseed reduces methane emissions and increases milk production of dairy cows offered a forage and cereal grain diet. *Aust J Exp Agric* 48:73–76
- Hegarty RS, Goopy JP, Herd RM, McCorkell B (2007) Cattle selected for lower residual feed intake have reduced daily methane production. *J Anim Sci* 85:1479–1486
- Hopkins A, Del Prado A (2007) Implications of climate change for grassland in Europe: impacts, adaptations and mitigation options: a review. *Grass Forage Sci* 62:118–126
- IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) (2001) Technical summary: contribution of Working Group I to the third assessment report
- IPCC (Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change) (2007) Climate change 2007: impacts, adaptation and vulnerability. Summary for policy makers. Online at <http://www.ipcc.org/SPM13apr07.pdf>
- Johnson KA, Johnson DE (1995) Methane emissions from cattle. *J Anim Sci* 73:2483–2492
- Khalil MAK, Rasmussen RA (1986) Interannual variability of atmospheric methane: possible effects of the El Niño—Southern Oscillation. *Science* 232:56–58
- Klieve AV, Joblin K (2007) New Zealand Pastoral Greenhouse Gas Research Consortium Report, pp 34–35
- Kwok R, Cunningham GF, Wensnahan M, Rigor I, Zwally HJ, Yi D (2009) Thinning and volume loss of the Arctic Ocean sea ice cover: 2003–2008. *J Geophys Res* 114:C07005. doi:10.1029/2009JC005312
- Lenton TM, Held H, Kriegler E, Hall JW, Lucht W, Rahmstorf S, Schellnhuber HJ (2008) Tipping elements in the Earth's climate system. *Proc Natl Acad Sci U S A* 105:1786–1793

- Lovett DK, Shalloo L, Horan B, Dillon P, O'Mara FP (2006a) Effect of Holstein–Friesian strain and feeding system on greenhouse gas emissions from pastoral dairy production systems. *Int Congr Ser* 1293: 335–338
- Lovett DK, Shalloo L, Dillon P, O'Mara FP (2006b) A systems approach to quantify greenhouse gas fluxes from pastoral dairy production as affected by management regime. *Agric Syst* 88(2–3):156–179
- Machmuller A, Soliva CR, Kreuzer M (2003) Methane-suppressing effect of myristic acid in sheep as affected by dietary calcium and forage proportion. *Br J Nutr* 90:529–540
- Martin SA, Streeter MN, Nisbet DJ, Hill GM, Williams SE (1999) Effects of DL-malate on ruminal metabolism and performance of cattle fed high-concentrate diet. *J Anim Sci* 77:1008–1015
- Martin C, Dubroeuq H, Micol D, Agabriel J, Doreau M (2007) In *Proceedings of the British Society of Animal Science*, p 46
- Mbanzamihigo L, Fievez V, da Costa Gomez C, Piattoni F, Carlier L, Demeyer D (2002) Methane emissions from the rumen of sheep fed a mixed grass-clover pasture at two fertilisation rates in early and late season. *Can J Anim Sci* 82(1):69–77
- Molano G, Clark H (2008) The effect of level of intake and forage quality on methane production by sheep. *Aust J Exp Agric* 48:219–222
- Morand-Fehra P, Boyazoglu J (1999) Present state and future outlook of the small ruminant sector. *Small Rumin Res* 34(3):175–188
- Morvan B, Bonnemoy F, Fonty G, Gouet P (1996) Quantitative determination of H<sub>2</sub>-utilizing acetogenic and sulfate-reducing bacteria and methanogenic archaea from digestive tract of different mammals. *Curr Microbiol* 32(3):129–133
- Moss AR, Jouany JP, Newbold J (2000) Methane production by ruminants: its contribution to global warming. *Ann Zootech* 49:231–253
- Münger A, Kreuzer M (2008) Absence of persistent methane emission differences in three breeds of dairy cows. *Aust J Exp Agric* 48(2):77–82
- Nagaraja TG, Newbold CJ, Van Nevel CU, Demeyer DI (1997). In: Hobson PN, Stewart CS (eds) *Rumen microbial ecosystem*. Blackie Academic & Professional, London, pp 523–632
- Newbold CJ, Wallace RJ, Watt ND, Richardson AJ (1987) The effect of novel ionophore tetronasin (ICI 13603) on ruminal microorganisms. *Appl Environ Microbiol* 54:544–547
- Pinares-Patiño CS, D'Hour P, Jouanya JP, Martin C (2007a) Effects of stocking rate on methane and carbon dioxide emissions from grazing cattle. *Agric Ecosyst Environ* 121:30–46
- Pinares-Patiño CS, Waghorn GC, Machmuller A, Vlaming B, Molano G, Cavanagh A, Clark H (2007b) *Can J Anim Sci* 87:601–613
- Rahmstorf S, Cazenave A, Church JA, Hansen JE, Keeling RF, Parker DE, Somerville RCJ (2007) Recent climate observations compared to projections. *Science* 316:709
- Rowlinson P (2008). In: Rowlinson P, Steele M, Nefzaoui A (eds) *Livestock and global climate change*, Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, pp 61–63
- Sauvany D, Giger-Reverdin S (2007). In: *Energy and protein metabolism and nutrition*. EAAP publication 124. Wageningen Academic Publishers, Wageningen, p 561
- Singh GP (1997) Effect of greenhouse gases on climate change and Indian ruminant livestock. *Curr Sci* 72:441–446
- Stroeve J, Holland MM, Meier W, Scambos T, Serreze M (2007) Arctic sea ice decline: faster than forecast. *Geophys Res Lett* 34:L09501. doi:[10.1029/2007GL029703](https://doi.org/10.1029/2007GL029703)
- Thornton PK, Notenbaert A, van der Steeg J, Herrero M (2008) The livestock-climate-poverty nexus: a discussion paper on ILRI research in relation to climate change. ILRI, Nairobi, p 90
- Thornton PK, van de Steeg J, Notenbaert AM, Herrero M (2009) The impacts of climate change on livestock and livestock systems in developing countries: a review of what we know and what we need to know. *Agric Syst* 101:113–127
- Wallace RJ, Chaudhary LC, McKain N, McEwan NR, Richardson AJ, Vercoe PE, Walker ND, Paillard D (2006) *Clostridium proteoclasticum*: a ruminal bacterium that forms stearic acid from linoleic acid. *FEMS Microbiol Lett* 265:195–201
- Wright ADG, Kennedy P, O'Neill CJ, Toovey AF, Popovski S, Rea SM, Pimm CL, Klein L (2004) Reducing methane emissions in sheep by immunization against rumen methanogens. *Vaccine* 22:3976–3985