

# Efficiency of Bark Extract of *Azadirachta indica* on Improving Ruminal Ammonia – Nitrogen Utilization in Ruminants: An *In vitro* study

---

## ABSTRACT

**Aims:** An *in vitro* gas protocol was performed to assess the potential of Commercial bark extract of *Azadirachta indica* (BEA) on improving ruminal ammonia (NH<sub>3</sub>) utilization in ruminants.

**Study design:** The experiment consisted with three (3) treatments, each made up with 16 incubation bottles i.e. four (4) replicates for control (no addition of BEA, contained mixed contents of basal diet, rumen fluid and buffer solution), four (4) replicates (mixture of basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 100 mg/l of BEA), four (4) replicates (mixture of basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 200 mg/l of BEA) and four (4) replicates (mixture of basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 400 mg/l of BEA).

**Methodology:** All three (3) treatments were incubated at a temperature of 39°C. Treatment 1 was incubated for 12 hours, treatment 2, (24 hours) and treatment 3 (48 hours). During *in vitro* incubation, gas production was measured using pressure transducer after 3, 6, 9, 12, 24 and 36 hours and also pH by using pH meter after 12, 24 and 48 hours in order to assess fermentation process. After pH measurement, incubation was stopped and samples were collected from each replicate across each treatment and stored in the refrigerator for some days before were analysed for NH<sub>3</sub> determination using microtiter plate reader. GenStat 15<sup>th</sup> edition (version 15.1) software was used to analyze the data and statistical method of analysis of variance (ANOVA) i.e. one – way ANOVA was preferred to compare means between treatments.

**Results:** No statistical differences ( $p > .05$ ) in ammonia production after 12, 24 and 48 hours of *in vitro* fermentation. Additionally, there was no pH variation after 12 hours of *in vitro* incubation, however pH at level of 200 mg/l was higher ( $p < .05$ ) compared to other treatment levels. After 48 hours, pH at level of 400 mg/l was lower ( $p < .05$ ) than the rest levels. Nonetheless, after 6, 9, 12, 24 and 36 hours of fermentation, BEA reduced gas production in all levels except at the level of 400 mg/l in which gas production were statistically similar with control after 24 and 36 hours of *in vitro* fermentation.

**Conclusion:** BEA at concentrations of 100, 200 and 400ml/g, cannot enhance ruminal ammonia utilization but can affects fermentation *in vitro*. This might be caused by the presence of bioactive ingredients in *Azadirachta indica* which cannot affects hyper ammonia-producing bacteria but can limits growth of other ruminal microbes which digest fiber.

**Keywords:** [Ammonia, Ammonia – Nitrogen, *Azadirachta indica*, Bark extract, PH meter, Ruminal]

## 1. INTRODUCTION

Nitrogen in ruminant diet is largely found in natural plants, animal protein sources and nitrogen compounds which are also known as Non Protein Nitrogen (NPN) such as urea ( $\text{CH}_4\text{N}_2\text{O}$ ), urea phosphate ( $\text{CH}_7\text{N}_2\text{O}_5\text{P}$ ), biuret, uric acid and other ammonia compounds which are not protein [1]. Ruminants use the available form of dietary nitrogen (N) as a protein source [2] by using microorganisms in the rumen namely; bacteria, protozoa, fungi, archaea and viruses which are also responsible to produce enzymes necessary for fiber digestion to yield energy in the form of short chain fatty acids; notably acetate, propionate and butyrate [3]. This makes ruminant to have an ability to convert low quality feedstuffs i.e. NPN into high quality protein in beef and milk [4,47,48,49] and now days it is possible to replace portion of high quality ruminant dietary protein such as soybean meal which is expensive with NPN [3,5].

When ruminants ingest NPN sources, microorganisms in the rumen produce urease which breakdown NPN into  $\text{NH}_3$  which combine with carbohydrate-derived keto acids to form amino acids (AA) of which 50 – 80% are absorbed in the small intestine as microbial protein [6–8]. However, excessive feeding of NPN source particularly urea in ruminants result into toxicosis due to the formation of high quantity of  $\text{NH}_3$  in the rumen and may lead to muscle tremors, incoordination, respiratory distress, recumbency and sudden deaths [9,10]. When ruminants feed on dietary source of protein, ruminal microbes produce proteases and peptides enzymes which breakdown peptide bonds to form AA and then, deaminate the AA by removing the amino group into  $\text{NH}_3$  and use the  $\text{NH}_3$  to synthesize their own microbial protein which undergo further digestion into AA and assimilated in the small intestine [11]. If there is limited energy availability in the rumen and the supply of AA exceed amount required by the body, then ruminal bacteria deaminate the AA to form  $\text{NH}_3$  which then transformed by the liver into urea and excreted via urine [12] and other amount of urea undergo recycling via ruminal wall and salivary secretion [13].

However, ruminants have poor nitrogen use efficiency which is between 13 to 31% and also have inefficiency dietary protein utilization compared to monogastric animals [12,14,15]. This means high level amount of nitrogen in the feed is converted to  $\text{NH}_3$  and expelled in the form of urea in the urine and faeces and lead to emission of greenhouse gases and cause environmental pollution [16,17]. In recent years, plant extracts have brought prospect on improving ruminal  $\text{NH}_3$  utilization and improve animal performances while minimizing greenhouse gases emission from ruminants and mitigates environment pollution [18].

Studies have been conducted to improve performances and productivity in ruminants as well as to optimize  $\text{NH}_3$  utilization in the rumen by using plant extracts however, with minimal significant achievements. For the example Chanu et al [19] revealed that the blended eucalyptus oil and aqueous extract of root of *Glycyrrhiza glabra* lower rate of ruminal  $\text{NH}_3$  production and increase nitrogen utilization efficiency and performance without affecting fiber digestibility in Murrah buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*). Furthermore, by using *in vitro* Hohenheim Gas Test Protocol, Kapp-Bitter et al [20] proved that 7 out of 35 mature temperate-climate herbaceous meadow plant species have shown to lower ruminal  $\text{NH}_3$  concentration without affecting fermentation after 24 hours of *in vitro* incubation. Therefore this study was focused to evaluate the potential of bark extracts of *Azadirachta indica* (Neem plant) on improving ruminal utilization of  $\text{NH}_3$  after 48 hours of incubation by using *in vitro* gas production protocol.

## 2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

### 2.1 Experimental Design

The experiment was conducted at the laboratory in the Department of School of Sport, Equine and Animal Science in Writtle University College in the United Kingdom. There was three (3) treatments, each made up of a total of 16 incubation bottles i.e. 4 bottles for control (contained basal diet, rumen fluid, and buffer solution), 4 bottles (basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 100 mg/l of BEA), 4 bottles (basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 200 mg/l of BEA) and 4 bottles (basal diet, rumen fluid, buffer solution and 400 mg/l of BEA). Both treatments were incubated at a temperature of 39°C. Treatment number 1 was incubated for 12 hours, treatment number 2, (24 hours) and treatment number 3 (48 hours).

### 2.2 Preparation of Diet for *In vitro* Fermentation

Hay, concentrate and linseeds each was milled by using 1 – 2 mm sieve and each was sieved to obtain uniform samples of 1 mm size and then were mixed together to obtain 1kg of ration made up of 70% hay, 25% concentrate and 3% linseeds. Thereafter 2% of fish oil was added into the mixture to form a total mixed ration which was stored in a freezer to prevent oxidation and absorption of the moisture from the atmosphere. Dry Matter (DM), Ash (Mineral), Organic Matter (OM) and Crude Protein (CP) contents of the diet were analysed according to the Association of Official Analytical Chemists [21] and its nutritional contents are presented in Table 1.

**Table 1. Nutritional quality of the ration containing 70% hay, 25% concentrates, 3% linseeds and 2% fish oil before *in vitro* fermentation**

Contents	Level of contents
Dry Matter (g/kg DM)	898.8
Organic Matter (g/kg DM)	837.8
Crude Protein (g/kg DM)	118.0
Ash (g/kg DM)	60.9

### 2.3 Preparation of Gas Production Medium

The gas production medium was prepared after mixed up together five (5) different solutions notably micro-mineral, macro-mineral, buffer solution, reducing and anaerobic indicator solutions [22–24]. The gas production medium was then stored under the room temperature (Table 2).

**Table 2. Preparation of Gas Production Medium before *in vitro* fermentation**

<b>Name of the solution</b>	<b>Chemical used to make up a solution</b>
1) Micro-mineral solution (100 ml)	13.2 g Calcium chloride (CaCl <sub>2</sub> .2H <sub>2</sub> O) 10 g of Manganese chloride (MnCl <sub>2</sub> .4H <sub>2</sub> O) 1.0 g of Cobalt chloride (CoCl <sub>2</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O) 8.0 g of Iron chloride (FeCl <sub>3</sub> .6H <sub>2</sub> O) 100 ml of distilled water
2) Macro-mineral solution (1000 ml)	9.45 g of Di-sodium hydrogen ortho-phosphate (NaHPO <sub>4</sub> .12H <sub>2</sub> O) 6.20 g of Potassium di-hydrogen ortho-phosphate (KH <sub>2</sub> PO <sub>4</sub> ) 0.60 g of Magnesium sulphate 7-hydrate (MgSO <sub>4</sub> .7H <sub>2</sub> O) 1000 ml of distilled water
3) Buffer solution (100 ml)	4.0 g of Ammonium hydrogen carbonate (NH <sub>4</sub> HCO <sub>3</sub> ) 35 g of Sodium hydrogen carbonate (NaHCO <sub>3</sub> ) 100 ml of distilled water
4) Reducing solution (100 ml)	0.625 g of Cysteine (HCl.1H <sub>2</sub> O) 100 ml of distilled water
5) Anaerobic indicator (100 ml)	0.1 g Resazurin 100 ml of distilled water

#### 2.4 *In vitro* Gas Production Technique

A total of 48 well-cleaned incubation bottles of 100 ml volume were labeled according to the treatments. Then 1.0 g of basal diet was added into all 48 bottles followed by different levels of concentration of commercial BEA in 36 bottles i.e. 12 bottles 100 mg/l, 12 bottles 200 mg/l, 12 bottles 400 mg/l and 12 bottles were control (no addition of BEA). Afterward 80 ml of gas production medium was added into all 48 incubation bottles and then were arranged in respect to their treatments allocation i.e. treatment 1 (12 hours incubation) made up of 4 replicates of incubation bottles of control (no addition of BEA), 100, 200 and 400 mg/l of BEA. Similar arrangement was applied to treatment 2 (24 hours incubation) and treatment 3 (48 hours incubation). The next morning rumen contents were collected from the abattoir from three (3) different sheep and their fluid content was extracted by squeezing the rumen contents by hand using two layers of cheesecloth direct into the pre warmed containers under anaerobic condition in the meantime incubated at 39°C. After that 10 ml of rumen fluid was dispersed into bottles and covered well immediately and shaken vigorously. This procedures were adopted from Theodorou et al [24], Mauricio et al [22] and Mbisha [23]. Thereafter all bottles were soon placed in the incubator to allow incubation and fermentation to occur for 48 hours at 39°C. During incubation, gas production was measured using pressure transducer after 3, 6, 9, 12, 24 and 36 hours and also pH by using pH meter after 12, 24 and 48 hours in order to assess fermentation process. Additionally, after 12, 24 and 48 of *in vitro* incubation and pH measurement, samples were collected from each replicate across each treatment and stored in the refrigerator for some days before were analysed for ammonia determination using microtiter plate reader.

#### 2.5 Ammonia-Nitrogen Determination

The method of ammonia-nitrogen analysis was adopted from Rhine et al [25] whereby four (4) reagents were prepared namely; 2-phenylphenol-nitroprusside, citrate, hypochlorite and standard solution. Each reagent was prepared by using different chemicals (Table 3).

**Table 3. Preparation of Reagents for Ammonia-Nitrogen Determination**

Name of the Reagent	Chemicals used to make up a reagent
1) 2-Phenylphenol-nitroprusside (100 ml)	3.22 g of 2-phenylphenol sodium salt ( $C_{12}H_9NaO \cdot 4H_2O$ ). 0.015 g of sodium nitroprusside (Sodium nitroferricyanide (III) dihydrate) ( $C_5H_4FeN_6Na_2O_3$ ) 100 ml of distilled water.
2) Citrate ( $C_6H_8O_7$ ) (100 ml)	5.0 g of Trisodium citrate ( $Na_3C_6H_5O_7$ ). 80 ml of distilled water. Drops of 0.1 M Hydrochloric acid (HCl) to adjust the pH until pH of 7 was attained. Distilled water was added to make up 100 ml of a solution.
3) Hypochlorite ( $ClO^-$ ) (100 ml)	1.0 g of Sodium sulphate ( $Na_2SO_4$ ) 80 ml of distilled water. 10 ml of 0.7 M of household bleach (NaOCl) Drops of 2 M of Sodium hydroxide (NaOH) was added to the mixture to adjust the pH until it become 13 Distilled water was added to make up 100 ml of a solution
4) Standard solution (1000 ml)	0.9346 g of dried $(NH_4)_2SO_4$ Distilled water to make a volume of 1000 ml of standard solution.

## 2.6 Analysis of Ammonia-Nitrogen by using Microtiter Plate Reader

A total of seven (7) solutions of 50 ml each with different concentrations were prepared by using different concentrations of standard solution (200 mg/l) by diluting the quantity of standard solution with distilled water (Table 4).

**Table 4. Preparation of seven (7) solutions by using standard solution (200 mg/l)**

Name of solution	Concentration (mg/l)	Volume of standard solution (ml)	Volume of distilled water (ml)
1	0.0	0.0	50.0
2	0.5	0.1	49.9
3	1.0	0.2	49.8
4	2.0	0.5	49.5
5	5.0	1.2	48.8
6	10.0	2.5	47.5
7	20.0	5.0	45.0

After that, samples were removed from the fridge and defrosted and centrifuged for 10 minutes at 3000 rpm and each was diluted with distilled water at a ratio of 5  $\mu$ l of sample per 45  $\mu$ l of distilled water to make up 50  $\mu$ l of standard samples. Consequently 50  $\mu$ l of each

standard sample was placed separately into their respective microtiter wells followed by addition of 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of each prepared solution into their specific wells from solution 1 to 7. Subsequently 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of citrate reagent was added into all wells containing standard samples and other solution and after one minute, 50  $\mu\text{l}$  of 2-Phenylphenol-nitroprusside reagent, 25  $\mu\text{l}$  of hypochlorite reagent and 100  $\mu\text{l}$  of distilled water were added into all wells containing solution. Then the microtiter well was agitated for 30 seconds and was allowed to incubate for 45 minutes at a room temperature and then was analysed at 660nm by using microtiter plate reader.

## 2.7 Data Analysis

The available data of ammonia in each treatment were then analysed by using GenStat 15<sup>th</sup> edition software (version 15.1) and statistical method of analysis of variance (ANOVA) i.e. one – way ANOVA was used to compare means between treatments.

## 3. RESULTS

### 3.1 Effects of different levels of concentration (mg/l) of BEA on ammonia production ( $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) during *in vitro* incubation

After 12 hours of *in vitro* incubation, ammonia gas production ( $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) in both treatments level were similar statistically ( $p > .05$ ) i.e. Control (11.8), 100 mg/l (12.7), 200 mg/l (10.9) and 400 mg/l (12.7). Moreover, even after 24 hours of fermentation, there was no differences in ammonia gas production ( $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) ( $p > .05$ ) i.e. Control (13.2), 100 mg/l (13.6), 200 mg/l (13.8) and 400 mg/l (13.6). Furthermore, there was no statistical differences ( $p > .05$ ) in amount of ammonia gas production ( $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) in all treatments even after 48 hours of *in vitro* incubation i.e. Control (14.8), 100 mg/l (14.3), 200 mg/l (14.9) and 400 mg/l (13.9). During all over the period of *in vitro* fermentation, BEA at concentration of 100 mg/l produced cumulative highest amount of ammonia (40.6 $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) followed by 400 mg/l (40.1 $\mu\text{g/l}$ ), then control (39.8 $\mu\text{g/l}$ ) and last 200 mg/l (39.6 $\mu\text{g/l}$ ). However both were statistically similar to each other as presented in Figure 1.

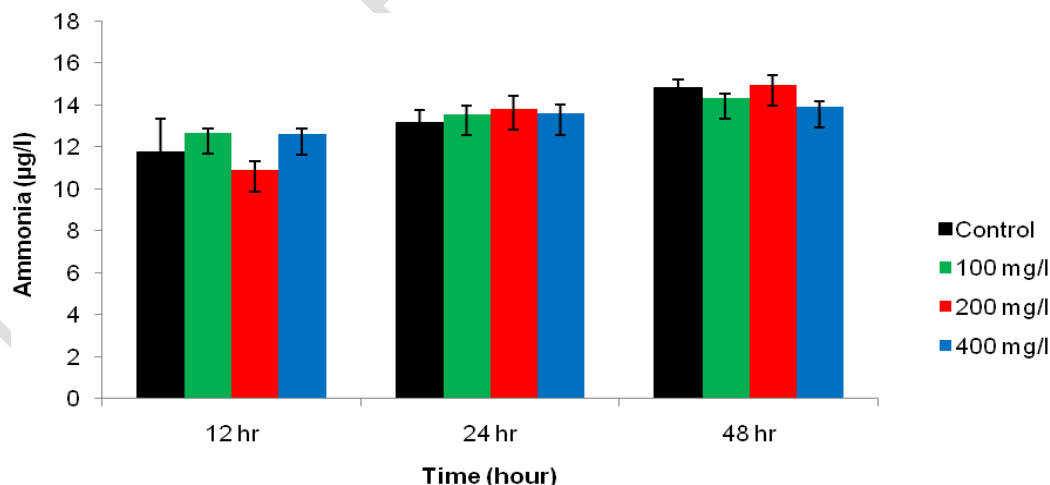


Figure 1: The *in vitro* effects of different levels of concentration of Neem bark extract (NBE) on ammonia production

### 3.2 Effects of different levels of concentration (mg/l) of BEA on pH during *in vitro* incubation

After 12 hours of *in vitro* fermentation, there was no statistical differences ( $p > .05$ ) in pH between treatments. Even after 24 hours of incubation, there was no pH variation between 100 and 400 mg/l of BEA compared to control. However, pH variation ( $p < .05$ ) was observed in 200 mg/l level of BEA. Moreover, after 48 hours of *in vitro* fermentation, pH in concentration levels of 100 and 200 mg/l of BEA both were similar to control. However, each was differ statistically ( $p < .05$ ) with pH level in 400 mg/l of BEA as presented in [Table 5](#).

**Table 5.** Effects of different levels of concentration (mg/l) of BEA on pH after 12, 24 and 48 hours of *in vitro* fermentation

Duration of <i>in vitro</i> incubation (Hours)	Concentration of Neem bark extract (mg/l)					P – Value
	0	100	200	400	SED	
12	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	6.8 <sup>a</sup>	6.8 <sup>a</sup>	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.04	0.5
24	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	6.7 <sup>b</sup>	6.7 <sup>a</sup>	0.02	0.04
48	6.7 <sup>ab</sup>	6.7 <sup>b</sup>	6.7 <sup>b</sup>	6.6 <sup>a</sup>	0.01	0.03

SED = Standard error of the difference; Means bearing same letter “a” not differ statistically

### 3.3 Effects of different levels of concentration (mg/l) of BEA on gas production (ml/g OM) during *in vitro* incubation

After 3 hours there was no difference ( $p > .05$ ) in gas production in all treatment levels of BEA. After 6 hours the gas productions were reduced at levels of 100, 200 and 400 mg/l of BEA compared to control but were not differ ( $p > .05$ ). Likewise after 9 hours, there was also no difference in gas production at levels of 100 and 400 mg/l and both were similar to control. However, least amount of gas production was observed at level of 200 mg/l which was not differ statistically ( $p > .05$ ). Also after 12 hours there was no difference ( $p > .05$ ) in gas production in levels of 100 and 400 mg/l of BEA and both were similar to control meanwhile, the lowest amount of gas production was still observed in level of 200 mg/l of BEA compared to other treatments. After 24 hours gas production was statistically similar in levels of 100 and 400 mg/l compared to control but was differ ( $p < .05$ ) in a level of 200 mg/l of BEA. After 36 hours there was no difference ( $p > .05$ ) in gas production in levels of 100 and 400 mg/l of BEA compared to control. However, the amount of gas production in levels of 100 and 200 mg/l of BEA were similar with control while the amount of gas produced in level of 200 mg/l of BEA was lower compared to the amount produced in level of 400 mg/l of BEA as presented in [Table 6](#).

**Table 6.** Effects of different levels of concentration (mg/l) of BEA on gas production (ml/g OM) after 3, 6, 9, 12, 24 and 36 hours of *in vitro* fermentation

Duration of <i>in vitro</i> incubation (Hours)	Concentration of Neem bark extract (mg/l)					P – Value
	0	100	200	400	SED	
3	28.2 <sup>a</sup>	28.1 <sup>a</sup>	26.6 <sup>a</sup>	28.1 <sup>a</sup>	0.8	0.2
6	56.7 <sup>b</sup>	54.8 <sup>ab</sup>	50.3 <sup>a</sup>	55.7 <sup>ab</sup>	2.7	0.1
9	82.7 <sup>b</sup>	80.2 <sup>ab</sup>	73.6 <sup>a</sup>	81.6 <sup>b</sup>	3.5	0.1
12	102.3 <sup>b</sup>	101.2 <sup>b</sup>	92.7 <sup>a</sup>	101.7 <sup>b</sup>	4.1	0.1
24	148.8 <sup>b</sup>	147.2 <sup>b</sup>	137.6 <sup>a</sup>	149.8 <sup>b</sup>	4.2	0.03
36	207.5 <sup>ab</sup>	205.5 <sup>ab</sup>	194.9 <sup>a</sup>	210.0 <sup>b</sup>	6.2	0.1

SED = Standard error of the difference; Means bearing same letter “a” not differ statistically

## 4. DISCUSSION

### 4.1 Effects of different levels of BEA on ammonia production *in vitro*

The results in Figure (1) indicated that BEA at concentration levels of 100, 200 and 400 mg/l cannot improve NH<sub>3</sub> utilization after 12, 24 and 48 hours of *in vitro* fermentation and also has little effects on ruminal pH (Table 5) as well as fermentation (Table 6). These findings were related to Yang et al [26] when they found significant increase in concentration of NH<sub>3</sub>-N (1.14 mmol-1) compared to control (0.83 mmol-1) in feedlot cattle after they were fed a diet supplemented with Neem oil seeds at 20 g/kg of DM, even at 40 g/kg of DM no significant effect was observed. However, Adelusi et al [27] proved that, least significant amount of rumen ammonia nitrogen was produced from West African dwarf goats after were supplemented 40 g/day leaves of Neem tree for 70 days. Nevertheless, Verma et al [28] found that prolong supplementing goats for 180 days dietary concentrates with water washed Neem seed kernel cake which containing 34 – 40% CP at levels of 12 and 25% cause significant decrease in NH<sub>3</sub>-N in rumen liquor. NH<sub>3</sub> in the rumen is formed after catabolism of dietary protein and NPN sources mainly carbon and sulphur by hyper ammonia-producing bacteria after deamination of AA in the rumen [29,30]. The potential of improving NH<sub>3</sub> utilization in rumen brings direct effects on nitrogen use efficiency, dietary protein utilization and minimize urea excretion via urine and faeces and therefore helps to mitigate emission of greenhouse gases which cause environmental pollution [31].

#### 4.2 Effects of BEA on pH During *In Vitro* fermentation

Fermentation in the rumen leads to production of volatile fatty acids (VFA) and when accumulates it cause drop in pH [32]. *In vitro* gas protocol, rumen microorganisms in gas medium digests substrate to yield VFA and NH<sub>3</sub> [33]. The *in vitro* gas production protocol demonstrates fiber digestion to yield acetate, propionate and butyrate which are major source of energy in ruminants [34]. The pH values observed in this study (Table 5) both were within the range as suggested by Beauchamin [35] ruminal microbes produce VFA's in anaerobic condition at a temperature between 36 – 41°C and pH between 5.7 to 7.3 and their population varies depend on the types of nutrients and it is availability in the diet. Moreover, ruminal pH is dynamic, usually vary depends on the species of the ruminant, type of the diet and feeding frequency i.e. on the roughage based diet the pH is 6.0 to 7.0, on concentrate based diet the pH is 5.5 to 6.5 and in anorexic animals the pH is 7.5 to 8 due to rumen alkalinity caused by constant saliva secretion which containing bicarbonate and phosphate [36–39]. Rumen microbes which digest fiber grow well at the pH between 6.0 and 7.0 [40] while microbes which digest starch flourish better at the pH less than 5.5 [41] and proposed standard pH in digestion of a proper mixed diet of fiber and starch is 6.5 to 6.7 [42].

#### 4.3 Effects of BEA on gas production *in Vitro*

Results (Table 6) showed that, after 3, 6, 9, 12, 24 and 36 hours of *in vitro* fermentation, gas production was not much affected by BEA across treatments compared to control. However, were slight decreased after 6, 9 and 12 hours of incubation in all treatments but after 24 and 36 hours, the gas productions in level of 400 mg/l of BEA were increased but statistically were similar to control. This reveals that at high level of supplementation, BEA prevents rumen fermentation. The later findings were related to Patra et al [43] when they discovered 0.25 ml of methanol (M), ethanol (E) and water (W) extracts from seed kernel of *Azadirachta indica* increased gas productions (ml/g DM) i.e. 188 (M), 184 (E) and 164 (W)) meanwhile at level of 0.5 ml reduced gas production i.e. (162 (M), 161 (E) and 174 (W)) compared to control 174 (M), 164 (E) and 149 (W). Nevertheless, Yang et al [26] proposed that 20 and 40g/kg dietary supplementation of Neem seed oil in beef cattle reduces fiber digestion by 0.77 and 0.71 respectively compared to control 0.79. This effect is perhaps due to bioactive compounds which are found in *Azadirachta indica* which may have antimicrobial properties

against rumen microbes. In ruminants gas production reflect digestion of organic matter and nutrients utilization [44,45] and the amount of gas produced is equivalent to the amount of fermented feed [46].

## 5. CONCLUSION

This *in vitro* study demonstrated that three (3) different levels of 100, 200 and 400mg/l of BEA cannot affect the growth of hyper ammonia producing bacteria which digests dietary protein into NH<sub>3</sub> in the rumen and therefore cannot influence ruminal NH<sub>3</sub>-N utilization in ruminants. However, BEA revealed to interfere growth of other rumen microorganisms which breakdown dietary fiber into volatile fatty acids and thus affects ruminal pH. This might be caused by antimicrobial properties of *Azadirachta indica*. Therefore based on the above research findings, more studies are required in this field in order to optimize ruminal NH<sub>3</sub>-N utilization and dietary protein utilization in ruminants. This will advance further animal production performances and help to mitigates environmental pollution caused by emission of the greenhouse gases from ruminants.

Disclaimer (Artificial intelligence)

Option 1:

Author(s) hereby declare that NO generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models (ChatGPT, COPILOT, etc) and text-to-image generators have been used during writing or editing of manuscripts.

Option 2:

Author(s) hereby declare that generative AI technologies such as Large Language Models, etc have been used during writing or editing of manuscripts. This explanation will include list the name, version, model, and source of the generative AI technology and as well as the all input prompts provided to a generative AI technology

Details of the AI usage are given below:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

## REFERENCES

1. Amha YTN. Use of Different Non Protein Nitrogen Sources in Ruminant Nutrition: A review. *Advances in Life Science and Technology*. 2015;29: 100.
2. Zurak D, Kljak K, Aladrović J. Metabolism and utilisation of non-protein nitrogen compounds in ruminants: a review. *j cent eur agric*. 2023;24: 1–14. doi:10.5513/JCEA01/24.1.3645
3. Shen J, Zheng W, Xu Y, Yu Z. The inhibition of high ammonia to *in vitro* rumen fermentation is pH dependent. *Front Vet Sci*. 2023;10: 1163021. doi:10.3389/fvets.2023.1163021
4. Dewhurst RJ, Newbold JR. Effect of ammonia concentration on rumen microbial protein production *in vitro*. *British Journal of Nutrition*. 2022;127: 847–849. doi:10.1017/S000711452100458X

5. Getahun D, Alemneh T, Akebereg D, Getabalew M, Zewdie D. Urea Metabolism and Recycling in Ruminants. 2019;20: 14790–14796. doi:10.26717/BJSTR.2019.20.003401
6. Bach A, Calsamiglia S, Stern MD. Nitrogen Metabolism in the Rumen\*. Journal of Dairy Science. 2005;88: E9–E21. doi:10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(05)73133-7
7. Getabalew M, Negash A. Nitrogen Metabolism and Recycling in Ruminant Animals: A Review. 2020;9: 29–38. doi:10.5829/idosi.ajm.2020.29.38
8. Zhu J, Ren A, Jiao J, Shen W, Yang L, Zhou C, et al. Effects of Non-Protein Nitrogen Sources on In Vitro Rumen Fermentation Characteristics and Microbial Diversity. Front Anim Sci. 2022;3. doi:10.3389/fanim.2022.891898
9. Antonelli AC, Torres G a. S, Soares PC, Mori CS, Sucupira MCA, Ortolani EL. Ammonia poisoning causes muscular but not liver damage in cattle. Arq Bras Med Vet Zootec. 2007;59: 8–13. doi:10.1590/S0102-09352007000100002
10. Thompson LJ. Nonprotein Nitrogen Poisoning in Animals - Toxicology. In: Merck Veterinary Manual [Internet]. Apr 2021 [cited 2 May 2024]. Available: <https://www.merckvetmanual.com/toxicology/nonprotein-nitrogen-poisoning/nonprotein-nitrogen-poisoning-in-animals>
11. Karlsson L. Hempseed cake as a protein feed for ruminants. Acta Universitatis Agriculturae Sueciae. 2010 [cited 3 May 2024]. Available: <https://res.slu.se/id/publ/31107>
12. Beltran IE, Gregorini P, Daza J, Balocchi OA, Morales A, Pulido RG. Diurnal Concentration of Urinary Nitrogen and Rumen Ammonia Are Modified by Timing and Mass of Hbage Allocation. Animals (Basel). 2019;9: 961. doi:10.3390/ani9110961
13. Jin D, Zhao S, Zheng N, Beckers Y, Wang J. Urea Metabolism and Regulation by Rumen Bacterial Urease in Ruminants – A Review. Annals of Animal Science. 2018;18: 303–318.
14. Calsamiglia S, Ferret A, Reynolds CK, Kristensen NB, Vuuren AM van. Strategies for optimizing nitrogen use by ruminants. animal. 2010;4: 1184–1196. doi:10.1017/S1751731110000911
15. Hristov AN, Bannink A, Crompton LA, Huhtanen P, Kreuzer M, McGee M, et al. *Invited review*: Nitrogen in ruminant nutrition: A review of measurement techniques. Journal of Dairy Science. 2019;102: 5811–5852. doi:10.3168/jds.2018-15829
16. Angelidis A, Crompton L, Misselbrook T, Yan T, Reynolds C, Stergiadis S. Evaluation and prediction of nitrogen use efficiency and outputs in faeces and urine in beef cattle. Agriculture Ecosystems & Environment. 2019;280: 1–15. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2019.04.013
17. Li M, Zhong H, Li M, Zheng N, Wang J, Zhao S. Contribution of Ruminal Bacteriome to the Individual Variation of Nitrogen Utilization Efficiency of Dairy Cows. Front Microbiol. 2022;13. doi:10.3389/fmicb.2022.815225

18. Tan HY, Sieo CC, Abdullah N, Liang JB, Huang XD, Ho YW. Effects of condensed tannins from *Leucaena* on methane production, rumen fermentation and populations of methanogens and protozoa in vitro. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2011;3–4: 185–193. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2011.07.004
19. Chanu YM, Paul SS, Dey A, Dahiya SS. Reducing Ruminal Ammonia Production With Improvement in Feed Utilization Efficiency and Performance of Murrah Buffalo (*Bubalus bubalis*) Through Dietary Supplementation of Plant-Based Feed Additive Blend. *Front Vet Sci*. 2020;7. doi:10.3389/fvets.2020.00464
20. Kapp-Bitter AN, Dickhoefer U, Kreuzer M, Leiber F. Mature herbs as supplements to ruminant diets: effects on in vitro ruminal fermentation and ammonia production. *Anim Prod Sci*. 2020;61: 470–479. doi:10.1071/AN20323
21. AOAC. Official Methods of Analysis 16th Edition, Association of Official Analytical Chemists (AOAC), Washington DC. 1999.
22. Mauricio RM, Mould FL, Dhanoa MS, Owen E, Channa KS, Theodorou MK. A semi-automated in vitro gas production technique for ruminant feedstuff evaluation. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 1999;79: 321–330. doi:10.1016/S0377-8401(99)00033-4
23. Mbisha EA. In vitro Study of Neem Bark Extract on Rumen Fermentation and Biohydrogenation of Polyunsaturated Fatty Acids. *Asian Journal of Research in Animal and Veterinary Sciences*. 2024;7: 37–47.
24. Theodorou MK, Williams BA, Dhanoa MS, McAllan AB, France J. A simple gas production method using a pressure transducer to determine the fermentation kinetics of ruminant feeds. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 1994;48: 185–197. doi:10.1016/0377-8401(94)90171-6
25. Rhine ED, Mulvaney RL, Pratt EJ, Sims GK. Improving the Berthelot Reaction for Determining Ammonium in Soil Extracts and Water. *Soil Science Society of America Journal*. 1998;62: 473–480. doi:10.2136/sssaj1998.03615995006200020026x
26. Yang WZ, Laurain J, Ametaj BN. Neem oil modulates rumen fermentation properties in a continuous cultures system. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2009;149: 78–88. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2008.05.004
27. Adelusi O, Isah O, Onwuka CC, Afolabi O, Aderinboye R, Bolaji O. Effect of Tree Leaves on Rumen Fermentation, Microbial Count and Blood Urea Nitrogen of West African Dwarf Goats. *Malaysian Journal of Animal Science*. 2016;19: 19–30.
28. Verma AK, Sastry VRB, Agrawal DK. Feeding of water washed neem (*Azadirachta indica*) seed kernel cake to growing goats. *Small Ruminant Research*. 1995;15: 105–111. doi:10.1016/0921-4488(94)00018-3
29. Flythe M, Kagan I. Antimicrobial Effect of Red Clover (*Trifolium pratense*) Phenolic Extract on the Ruminal Hyper Ammonia-Producing Bacterium, *Clostridium sticklandii*. *Current microbiology*. 2010;61: 125–31. doi:10.1007/s00284-010-9586-5

30. Milano GD, Lobley GE. Liver nitrogen movements during short-term infusion of high levels of ammonia into the mesenteric vein of sheep. *British Journal of Nutrition*. 2001;86: 507–513. doi:10.1079/BJN2001426
31. Hristov AN, Jouany JP. Factors affecting the efficiency of nitrogen utilization in the rumen. 1st ed. In: Pfeffer E, Hristov AN, editors. *Nitrogen and phosphorus nutrition of cattle: reducing the environmental impact of cattle operations*. 1st ed. UK: CABI Publishing; 2005. pp. 117–166. doi:10.1079/9780851990132.0117
32. Dijkstra J, Ellis JL, Kebreab E, Strathe AB, López S, France J, et al. Ruminant pH regulation and nutritional consequences of low pH. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2012;172: 22–33. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2011.12.005
33. Bannink A, France J, Lopez S, Gerrits WJJ, Kebreab E, Tamminga S, et al. Modelling the implications of feeding strategy on rumen fermentation and functioning of the rumen wall. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2008;143: 3–26. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2007.05.002
34. Getachew G, Robinson PH, DePeters EJ, Taylor SJ. Relationships between chemical composition, dry matter degradation and in vitro gas production of several ruminant feeds. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2004;111: 57–71. doi:10.1016/S0377-8401(03)00217-7
35. Beauchemin K. Applying nutritional management to rumen health. Agriculture & Agri-Food Canada, Research Centre, Lethbridge, CANADA T1J 4B1. 2002. Available: [https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Karen-Beauchemin-2/publication/228831062\\_Applying\\_nutritional\\_management\\_to\\_rumen\\_health/links/0c96051f9376b3ca0f000000/Applying-nutritional-management-to-rumen-health.pdf](https://www.researchgate.net/profile/Karen-Beauchemin-2/publication/228831062_Applying_nutritional_management_to_rumen_health/links/0c96051f9376b3ca0f000000/Applying-nutritional-management-to-rumen-health.pdf)
36. Franzolin R, Dehority BA. The role of pH on the survival of rumen protozoa in steers. *R Bras Zootec*. 2010;39: 2262–2267. doi:10.1590/S1516-35982010001000023
37. Jackson P, Cockcroft P. *Clinical Examination of Farm Animals*. John Wiley & Sons; 2008.
38. Matthews C, Crispie F, Lewis E, Reid M, O'Toole PW, Cotter PD. The rumen microbiome: a crucial consideration when optimising milk and meat production and nitrogen utilisation efficiency. *Gut Microbes*. 2018;10: 115–132. doi:10.1080/19490976.2018.1505176
39. Wales WJ, Kolver ES, Thorne PL, Egan AR. Diurnal Variation in Ruminant pH on the Digestibility of Highly Digestible Perennial Ryegrass During Continuous Culture Fermentation. *Journal of Dairy Science*. 2004;87: 1864–1871. doi:10.3168/jds.S0022-0302(04)73344-5
40. Jiyana ST, Ratsaka MM, Leeuw K-J, Mbatha KR. Effects of dietary fibre level on rumen pH, total microbial count and methanogenic archaea in Bonsmara and Nguni steers. *South African Journal of Animal Science*. 2021;51: 74–80. doi:10.4314/sajas.v51i1.8
41. Jasmin BH, Boston RC, Modesto RB, Schaer TP. Perioperative Ruminant pH Changes in Domestic Sheep (*Ovis aries*) Housed in a Biomedical Research Setting. *J Am Assoc Lab Anim Sci*. 2011;50: 27–32.

42. Millen DD, Arrigoni MDB, Pacheco RDL. Rumenology. Springer International Publishing Switzerland; 2016. Available: [https://books.google.co.tz/books?hl=en&lr=&id=E4UgDQAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA127&ots=8vrLJJUvqV&sig=Q8CJsPtLi35BHkyEUcCKoJBMvno&redir\\_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false](https://books.google.co.tz/books?hl=en&lr=&id=E4UgDQAAQBAJ&oi=fnd&pg=PA127&ots=8vrLJJUvqV&sig=Q8CJsPtLi35BHkyEUcCKoJBMvno&redir_esc=y#v=onepage&q&f=false)
43. Patra AK, Kamra DN, Agarwal N. Effect of plant extracts on in vitro methanogenesis, enzyme activities and fermentation of feed in rumen liquor of buffalo. *Animal Feed Science and Technology*. 2006;128: 276–291. doi:10.1016/j.anifeedsci.2005.11.001
44. Murillo M, Herrera E, Reyes O, Gurrola JN, Gutierrez E. Use in vitro gas production technique for assessment of nutritional quality of diets by range steers. *African Journal of Agricultural Research*. 2011;6: 2522–2526.
45. Özpınar H, Bilal T, Abas I, Kutay C. Degradation of ochratoxin a in rumen fluid in vitro. *Facta universitatis - series: Medicine and Biology*. 2002;9: 66–69.
46. Calabro S, Piccolo V, Cutriguelli MI, Tudisco R, Infascelli F. Rumen activity evaluated with the in vitro gas production technique. *Advanced in Zoology Research*. 2012;3: 101–130.
- 47 ARUWAYO A, A. MAIGANDI S. NEEM (AZADIRACHTA INDICA) SEED CAKE/KERNEL AS PROTEIN SOURCE IN RUMINANTS FEED. J. EXP. AGRIC. INT. [INTERNET]. 2013 MAY 3 [CITED 2024 JUN. 4];3(3):482-94. AVAILABLE FROM: [HTTPS://JOURNALJEA.COM/INDEX.PHP/JEAI/ARTICLE/VIEW/993](https://journaljeai.com/index.php/jeai/article/view/993)**
- 48 KARIMI AH, ACDA SP, CAPITAN SS, LAURENA AC, TAMBALO FZ, ANGELES AA, LORESCO MM, AYCHOCHO IO, SEVILLA CC. IN SITU CATTLE RUMEN DEGRADABILITY OF UREA-MOLASSES AND CELLULASE TREATED RICE STRAW. ANN. RES. REV. BIOL. [INTERNET]. 2014 JUN. 16 [CITED 2024 JUN. 4];4(22):3420-8. AVAILABLE FROM: [HTTPS://JOURNALARRB.COM/INDEX.PHP/ARRB/ARTICLE/VIEW/367](https://journalarrb.com/index.php/arrb/article/view/367)**
- 49 CHERDTHONG A. POTENTIAL USE OF RUMEN DIGESTA AS RUMINANT DIET—A REVIEW. TROPICAL ANIMAL HEALTH AND PRODUCTION. 2020 JAN;52(1):1-6.**