

RESEARCH

Open Access



Variations in methane emissions from dairy cows: associations with rumen microbial synergy and metabolic pathway divergence

Peng Jia^{1,2}, Lifeng Dong¹, Tao Ma¹, Yanliang Bi¹, Yan Tu^{1*} and Qiyu Diao^{1*}

Abstract

Background Methane (CH₄) is a metabolic by-product of rumen microbial fermentation, contributing significantly to global warming and dietary energy loss. Elucidating the mechanisms underlying natural variation in rumen methanogenesis is essential for the development of effective CH₄ mitigation strategies. Here, we applied rumen metagenomics to identify the microbial mechanisms for differences in enteric CH₄ emissions among dairy cows.

Results Enteric CH₄ emissions from 111 lactating dairy cows under normal feeding conditions were utilized to characterize the natural variation in rumen methanogenesis. Metagenomic analysis revealed that the comprehensive effects of bacteria involved in starch degradation, lactate metabolism, and volatile fatty acid biosynthesis provide distinct amounts of hydrogen for rumen methanogenesis in high-methane-producing (HMP) and low-methane-producing (LMP) cows. Ciliate protozoa were universally abundant in HMP cows ($P < 0.05$), whereas methanogens enrichment exhibited heterogeneity, with the dominant methanogen *Methanobrevibacter* exhibiting negative correlations with the other 11 methanogens ($P < 0.05$). Six nutrient metabolic pathways modulating methanogenesis were identified, and HMP-associated methanogenesis was further driven by upregulated formate metabolism and acetoclastic pathways ($P < 0.05$). Random forest model analysis screened 34 microbial genera as biomarkers for CH₄ production.

Conclusions This study excluded extrinsic confounders exist for rumen microbiome and CH₄ emissions in dairy cows. These findings elucidated the causal microbial and metabolic mechanisms underlying rumen methanogenesis, providing actionable targets for microbiome-based strategies to mitigate CH₄ emissions from livestock farming.

Keywords Dairy cows, Methane, Methane mitigation, Rumen methanogenesis, Rumen microbiota

Background

The melting of glaciers is accelerated by global warming, which simultaneously raises the frequency and intensity of extreme weather events and damages ecosystems. As we know, anthropogenic emissions of greenhouse gases (GHGs) play a crucial role in driving global warming [1]. Among GHGs, methane (CH₄) has a short atmospheric lifetime and high global warming potential, making its reduction a rapid means to mitigate global warming [2, 3]. Furthermore, this reduction constitutes a necessary condition for limiting the temperature rise to 1.5 °C above pre-industrial levels [4]. Consequently, the reduction of CH₄ emissions has attracted increasing attention,

*Correspondence:

Yan Tu

tuyan@caas.cn

Qiyu Diao

diaoqiyu@caas.cn

¹ Institute of Feed Research, Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences/Sino-US Joint Lab on Nutrition and Metabolism of Ruminant/Key Laboratory of Feed Biotechnology of the Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs, Beijing 100081, People's Republic of China

² Institute of Animal Husbandry and Veterinary Science, Shanghai Academy of Agricultural Sciences/Key Laboratory of Livestock and Poultry Resources (Pig) Evaluation and Utilization of Ministry of Agriculture and Rural Affairs/Shanghai Engineering Research Center of Breeding Pig, Shanghai 201106, People's Republic of China



with more than 110 countries and supporters signing the Global Methane Pledge. Deciphering the sources and mechanisms of CH₄ production and proposing new procedures to reduce CH₄ emissions is a growingly prominent international topic [5].

Enteric CH₄ from ruminants accounts for 30% of global anthropogenic CH₄ emissions [2], with dairy cattle contributing approximately 30% of total livestock emissions [6]. Dairy cows provide nearly 80% of the milk consumed by humans [7], a nutrient-rich source containing amino acids, bioactive fatty acids, and essential micronutrients [8, 9]. It is notable that CH₄ emitted by cows means the loss of dietary energy and will subsequently reduce milk yield. Additionally, CH₄ adds to the GHG in the atmosphere that contribute to global warming [10]. Although some dietary interventions can mitigate CH₄ emissions, the effect of inhibiting rumen methanogenesis may be transitory [11]. In some cases, CH₄ emissions were returned to baseline levels when the supply of CH₄ inhibitors to ruminants was discontinued [12]. Furthermore, the reversal of inhibiting rumen methanogenesis after offering additives for a longer period may be attributed to the adaptation of the rumen microorganisms to these additives [12]. Some previous studies reported that rumen microorganisms, especially methanogens, also did not respond instantaneously to inhibitors [11]. Pitta et al. [13] indicated that methanogens have inconsistent response to 3-nitrooxypropanol, currently one of the most effective CH₄ inhibitors. Although CH₄ is produced directly by methanogens, it is also dependent on bacteria and protozoa that produce hydrogen (H₂) and carbon dioxide (CO₂) [14]. Therefore, elucidating the aspects and details of the interactions with ruminant physiology and rumen microorganisms in methanogenesis remains a critical research priority.

How to mitigate global warming and dietary energy loss associated with ruminant CH₄ emissions depends on our understanding of the mechanisms of rumen methanogenesis. Rumen methanogenesis is a highly complex and multifactorial trait, and while several studies have been published on rumen fermentation and CH₄ production from biochemistry [15] and microbiology [16, 17], substantial gaps remain. A more comprehensive elucidation of the enzymes and genes involved in the metabolic pathways associated with rumen methanogenesis, as well as the key microorganisms involved in CH₄ formation, is essential. The advent of high-throughput technology enables the exploration of the complicated relationship between the ruminal microbiome and its function in rumen methanogenesis in large herds of ruminants [18, 19]. Although accurately measuring CH₄ emissions from ruminants under normal feeding conditions is challenging, we were fortunate to successfully measure the CH₄

emissions from 111 lactating Holstein dairy cows housed in the same barn using the GreenFeed system [20]. Based on these data, it is necessary to study rumen microbial population and functional characteristics associated with natural variation of CH₄ emissions in dairy cows. In this study, we conducted rumen metagenomics on dairy cows with notably varied CH₄ production to investigate the following queries: Under the same feeding conditions, (1) What are the characteristics of microorganisms in high-CH₄-emissions dairy cows and their interactions on methanogenesis? (2) What are the differences in methane metabolism and nutrient metabolism pathways in dairy cows with different CH₄ production? (3) Which ruminal microbial characteristics can be used as predictive biomarkers of CH₄ production? The objective of this study is to uncover new biological rules and characteristics that will help us to further explain the key pathways and mechanisms of rumen methanogenesis, thereby clarifying strategies that can practically mitigate CH₄ emissions from dairy cows. The whole results could provide valuable information for the development of a more environmentally friendly dairy industry.

Methods

Cows and samples

This study was carried out at a commercial dairy farm called the Yinxiangweiye International Third Farm in Shandong Province, China. The experimental protocol for this study was approved by the Institute of Feed Research of Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (IFR-CAAS-20191018). The same method was used to manage the experimental cows, which were fed in a freestall barn with the same diet. Physiological parameters and CH₄ emissions from this herd of Holstein dairy cows ($n = 111$; 2.8 ± 1.0 parity, 138 ± 19 DIM, and 38.1 ± 6.9 kg/d of milk yield) have been measured [20]. CH₄ emissions of these cows in normal feeding conditions were determined by the GreenFeed unit (C-Lock Inc., South Dakota, USA). Every animal had at least 20 valid visits, with each visit lasting more than 3 min. The experiment lasted 90 d. We selected 9 cows with the highest CH₄ production ($\text{CH}_4 = 403 \pm 22.06$ g/d) and 9 cows with the lowest CH₄ production ($\text{CH}_4 = 261 \pm 22.27$ g/d) from this herd, then classified them into two groups: high-methane-production group (HMP), low-methane-production group (LMP) (Table 1).

On the last day, 2 h after the morning feeding, rumen samples were extracted from every cow using an oral stomach tube [21]. To reduce the contamination of saliva, the initial 150–200 mL rumen contents were discarded and the remaining 100–200 mL rumen contents were collected. The pH values of the rumen contents were immediately measured using a pH meter (model PB-20,

Table 1 Comparison of physiological parameters between low-methane-production and high-methane-production cows

Performance	Group		SEM	P-value
	LMP	HMP		
Methane production, g/d	261.00	403.22	17.976	< 0.001
Methane/ECM, g/kg	8.01	10.82	0.486	0.001
Age, months	50.40	54.92	3.358	0.517
Days in milk, d	134.78	138.56	4.447	0.684
Metabolic weight, kg	129.57	135.93	1.906	0.095
Milk yield, kg/d	35.27	38.86	1.480	0.236
ECM yield, kg/d	33.28	38.01	1.413	0.094
Total VFA, mmol/L	104.18	96.79	2.488	0.142
pH value	5.99	6.07	0.053	0.514
Proportion, %				
Acetate	56.84	62.29	0.902	< 0.001
Propionate	28.15	22.30	0.981	< 0.001
Butyrate	11.01	12.03	0.393	0.202
Valerate	2.33	1.59	0.164	0.019
Acetate/Propionate	2.04	2.85	0.134	< 0.001

Data were analyzed using *t*-tests

ECM Energy-corrected milk, VFA Volatile fatty acids, LMP Low methane production, HMP High methane production

Sartorius AG, Goettingen, Germany). Two subsamples of 1 mL of rumen content were snap-frozen in nitrogen liquid immediately for metagenomic analysis. The remainder was filtered through four layers of cheesecloth, and a 10-mL aliquot was collected and stored at -20°C for subsequent ruminal volatile fatty acid (VFA) analysis [22].

DNA extraction, metagenome sequencing and data processing

DNA was extracted from rumen contents based on repeated bead-beating plus column method [23]. Agarose gel electrophoresis was used to verify the integrity of the DNA. The quality and quantity of DNA were measured on the NanoDrop 2000 spectrophotometer (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Delaware, USA). TrueSeq DNA PCR-Free Library Preparation Kit (Illumina, California, USA) constructed individual metagenomic libraries from each sample. Metagenome library sequencing (2×150 paired-end) was performed using the Illumina HiSeq 3000 platform at Beijing Allwegene Tech Ltd. (Beijing, China).

Sickle was used to perform quality control on the datasets by trimming the 5'- and 3'-ends of reads, removing low-quality bases with quality scores < 20 , and discarding reads shorter than 50 bp or containing ambiguous "N" bases. The quality-filtered reads were subsequently aligned to the bovine genome using BWA to remove host DNA sequences [24]. Chloroplast and mitochondrial sequences were also removed, retaining only microbial

sequences for downstream analysis [25]. Megahit was used for individual de novo assembly of the filtered reads from each sample [26]. Open reading frames (ORFs) were predicted with MetaGene from assembled contigs longer than 300 bp [27]. Using a sequence identity cut-off of 95%, CD-HIT preserved and clustered the ORFs produced from assembled contigs into a non-redundant data set [28]. Reads from individual sample and assembly results were mapped to nonredundant gene sets to estimate the abundance using SOAPaligner v2.21 [29].

To evaluate the richness and diversity of bacterial and archaeal communities, alpha diversity indices, including Chao1, ACE, and Shannon, were calculated at the OTU level using QIIME (Version 1.9.1) [30]. Rarefaction curves were constructed to evaluate the sequencing saturation of the microbial community. Principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) was performed to assess beta diversity, aiming to reveal compositional differences in species among sample groups. Venn diagrams were generated using the VennDiagram package in R (Version 3.6.3) to visualize the shared and unique OTUs between the two experimental groups. Only OTUs detected in at least 80% of samples within a given group and with a total relative abundance higher than 0.01% were included in the Venn diagram intersection analysis. Using DIAMOND (v0.8.35) [31], the contigs were evaluated taxonomically against the RefSeq database [32]. Taxonomic profiles were analyzed at phylum, genus, and species levels. HUMAnN v2.0 was used to calculate relative abundances for each taxonomic level. Microbial taxa in at least one group that had a relative abundance higher than 0.1% were selected for downstream analysis.

Bioinformatics and statistical analysis

For functional analysis, contigs with an *E* value of 1×10^{-5} were annotated using DIAMOND against the KEGG profiles [33]. Using HMMscan against the CAZy database, CAZymes with an *E* value of 1×10^{-5} were annotated [34]. The SparCC program was used to analyse co-occurrences between bacterial or archaeal taxa with default settings. Correlations between microbial taxa and functions (Carbohydrate metabolism and Energy metabolism) were calculated using Spearman correlation analysis. In the co-occurrence and correlation analyses, only microbial taxa with a relative abundance higher than 0.1% at the genus level and those with a correlation coefficient higher than 0.8 or lower than -0.8 and a *P* value lower than 0.05 were utilized in the co-occurrence network analysis. Cytoscape (Version 3.2.1, <http://www.cytoscape.org>) was used for the visualization of the networks. Based on the Maximal Clique Centrality approach (<https://apps.cytoscape.org/apps/cytohubba>),

the CytoHubba tool in Cytoscape software was utilized to identify the hubs of the microbes in the networks.

Using the randomForest package in R, rumen microbes were input into the random forest model. Ranking the importance of microbes in the model based on the mean decrease accuracy score. The most predictive microbes were found based on the maximum area under the curve using the UC-RF algorithm (REF). To further evaluate the model, a 99-fold cross-validation scheme was applied using the rfUtilities package in R (Version 3.6.3, <https://cran.rproject.org/web/packages/rfUtilities/index.html>). From the selected microbiomes, a correlation heatmap was generated with rumen fermentation characteristics and CH₄ production.

Statistical analysis

The *t*-test procedure in SAS version 9.2 (SAS Institute Inc., Cary, NC, USA) was performed to assess the differences of CH₄ emissions, ages, days in milk, metabolic weight, milk yield, ECM yield, and rumen fermentation characteristics between the LMP and HMP. Differences in microbial relative abundance and alpha diversity between the LMP and HMP were evaluated using the Wilcoxon rank-sum test of SPSS (SPSS Inc., Illinois, USA) version 19.0. Beta diversity was examined using principal coordinate analysis (PCoA) based on the Bray–Curtis dissimilarity matrix. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test of SPSS 19.0 was also used to analyse the abundances of microbial metabolic pathways, modules, KEGG enzymes, and CAZymes between the LMP and HMP groups. The Spearman rank correlation coefficients and tests of significance between rumen microbial taxa and functions were calculated using the SPSS 19.0. Differences were considered significant at $P < 0.05$.

Results

Methane emissions and rumen fermentation parameters of dairy cows

In the present experiment, GHG emissions from 111 cows have previously been measured by the GreenFeed system. Based on the CH₄ emissions, 9 cows with the lowest CH₄ production (LMP) and 9 cows with the highest CH₄ production (HMP) were selected respectively for rumen metagenome analyses. The cows were housed in a freestall barn and fed the same diet, with no differences ($P > 0.05$) in age, days in milk, metabolic weight, or milk yield between the LMP and HMP groups (Table 1). Furthermore, rumen pH values and total VFA concentrations did not differ ($P > 0.05$) between the LMP and HMP (Table 1). The differences between the two groups were as follows: Enteric CH₄ production (g/d) and CH₄ intensity (g/kg) were higher ($P < 0.05$) in HMP than in the LMP (Table 1). The proportion of acetate was higher ($P < 0.05$)

in the HMP, while that of propionate and valerate was lower ($P < 0.05$) in HMP than in the LMP. Consequently, the HMP had a higher ($P < 0.05$) acetate to propionate ratio than the LMP (Table 1).

Metagenomic data statistics, rumen VFA and methane metabolism

Metagenome sequencing generated a total of 839,749,131 reads, with $46,652,730 \pm 2,617,805$ reads (mean $\pm$ SD) per sample. The rumen metagenome consisted of 44.29% bacteria (744,050,389 sequences), 0.71% archaea (11,962,024 sequences), 0.19% eukaryota (3,260,168 sequences), 0.11% virus (1,778,230 sequences), 0.03% fungi (448,751 sequences), and 54.67% unidentified sequences (917,998,700 sequences). The microbial domains between the rumen microorganisms of the two groups were compared, and there were significant differences in eukaryota and virus between the two groups (adjusted $P < 0.05$, Fig. S1), such as Ciliophora exhibited a higher relative abundance in the HMP group than in the LMP group ($P < 0.05$, Table S1).

Differences in key enzymes determine the specificity of CH₄ production. The production of acetate and butyrate release H₂, which can become a source of energy for methanogens. Propionate production, however, can reduce enteric CH₄ emissions due to it compete with methanogens for H₂. As shown in Fig. 1, we screened 34 encoding enzymes involved in the fermentation pathway for the metabolism of glucose to acetate, propionate, and butyrate. (1) From glucose to pyruvate, 1 enzyme was enriched ($P < 0.05$) in HMP, whereas 3 enzymes were enriched ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP. (2) Focusing on acetate and butyrate production, 5 enzymes were enriched ($P < 0.05$) in HMP, compared to only 2 enzymes ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP. (3) In the propionate formation, 7 enzymes were enriched ($P < 0.05$) in HMP. Additionally, 1 enzyme (EC:1.1.1.27) involved in the acrylate route of propionate production was enriched ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP. (4) We further focused on the methane metabolism. Acetyl-CoA synthetase (EC:6.2.1.1) and its corresponding gene K01895 were more abundant in the HMP, and both were involved in the acetoclastic pathway of methanogenesis according to the KEGG database (Fig. 2, Tables S2 and S3).

Taxonomic configuration of ruminal bacteria is the important factor affecting CH₄ emissions

Compared with the LMP group, the HMP group exhibited a higher ($P < 0.05$) OTU number, along with greater ACE and Chao indexes; but Shannon indexes were roughly the same between the two groups ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 3A; Table S4). The PCoA plot revealed a clear separation between the LMP and HMP on basis of

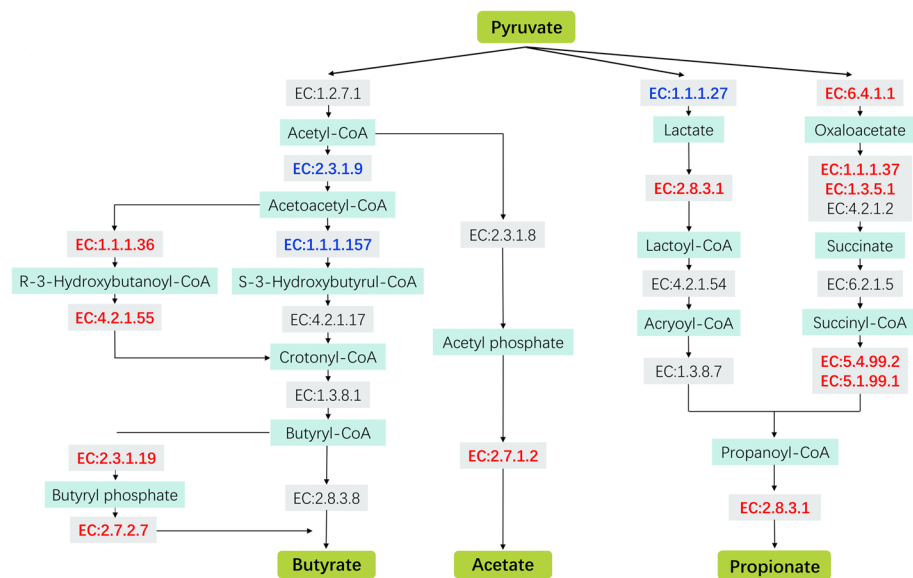


Fig. 1 Metabolic routes for butyrate, acetate, and propionate production in rumen. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means, with P value < 0.05 indicating a significant difference. Red text indicated significantly up-regulated KO enzymes, whereas blue text indicated significantly down-regulated KO enzymes in the HMP cows

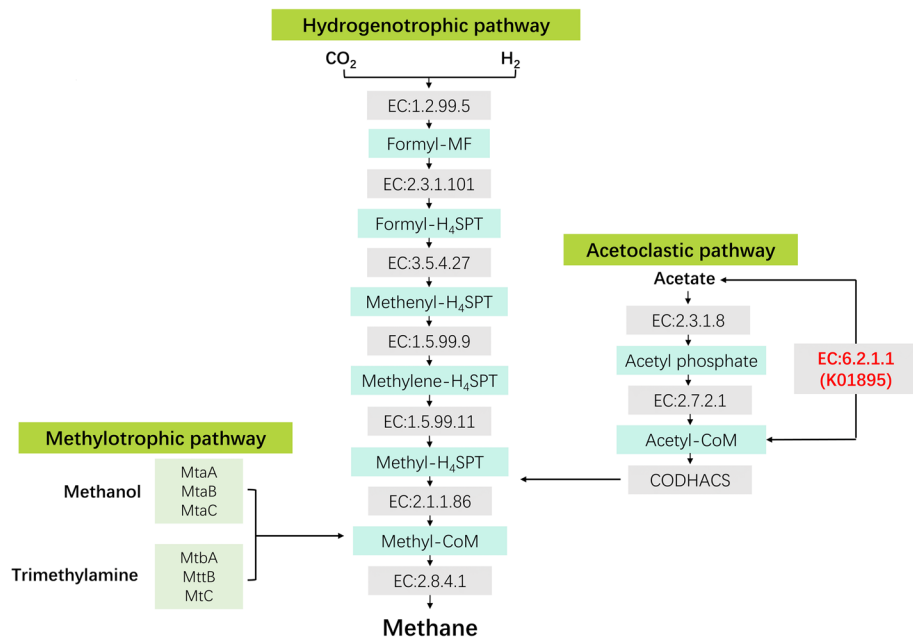


Fig. 2 Metabolic pathways of rumen methanogenesis in cows. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means, with P value < 0.05 indicating a significant difference. Red text indicated significantly up-regulated enzyme genes in the HMP cows

the bacterial species (Fig. 3B). In addition, Venn profile of bacteria showed that 21,601 OTUs were shared between the LMP and HMP; while the HMP had a higher number of unique OTUs than the LMP (1,782 vs. 938; Fig. 3C).

We analyzed the bacterial metagenomic sequences at the phylum, genus, and species levels: (1) Seven phyla varied significantly in relative abundances between the LMP and HMP. Bacteroidetes, Spirochaetes, and Fibrobacteres were more abundant ($P < 0.05$), while the other

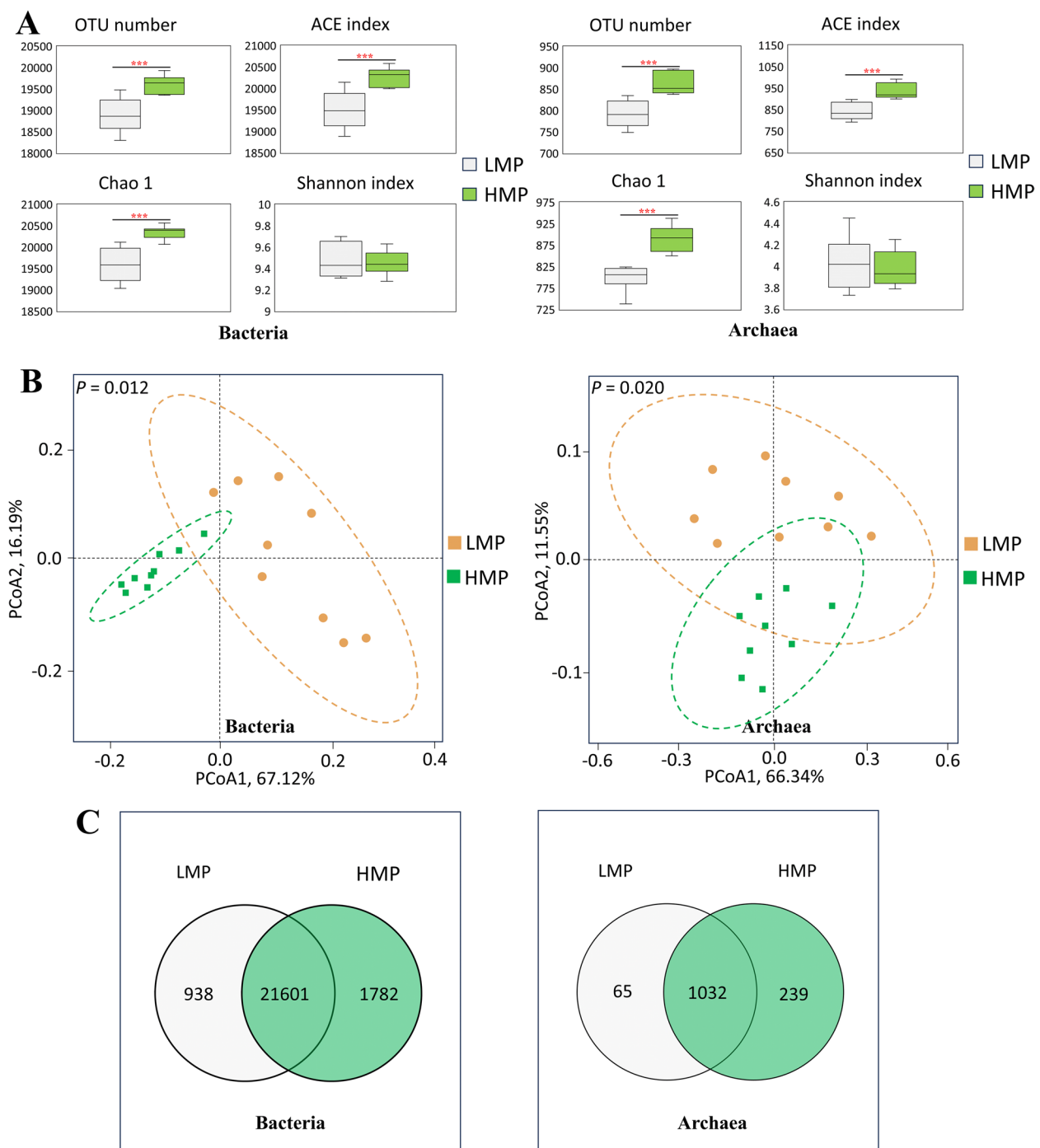


Fig. 3 Diversity of rumen microbial communities of cows. **A** OTU number and α -diversity indexes. **B** PCoA plot of ruminal bacterial and archaeal diversity. **C** Venn diagram of OTUs. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means, with P value < 0.05 indicating a significant difference. * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$, *** $P < 0.001$

4 phyla (Firmicutes, Actinobacteria, Chlamydiae, Fusobacteria) were less abundant ($P < 0.05$) in the HMP than in the LMP (Fig. 4A and Table S1). (2) At the genus level, the 3 most dominant bacteria were *Prevotella*,

Clostridium, and *Bacteroides*. Twenty-three genera shifted significantly between the two groups, with 10 genera being more ($P < 0.05$) abundant and 13 genera less ($P < 0.05$) abundant in the HMP than in the LMP

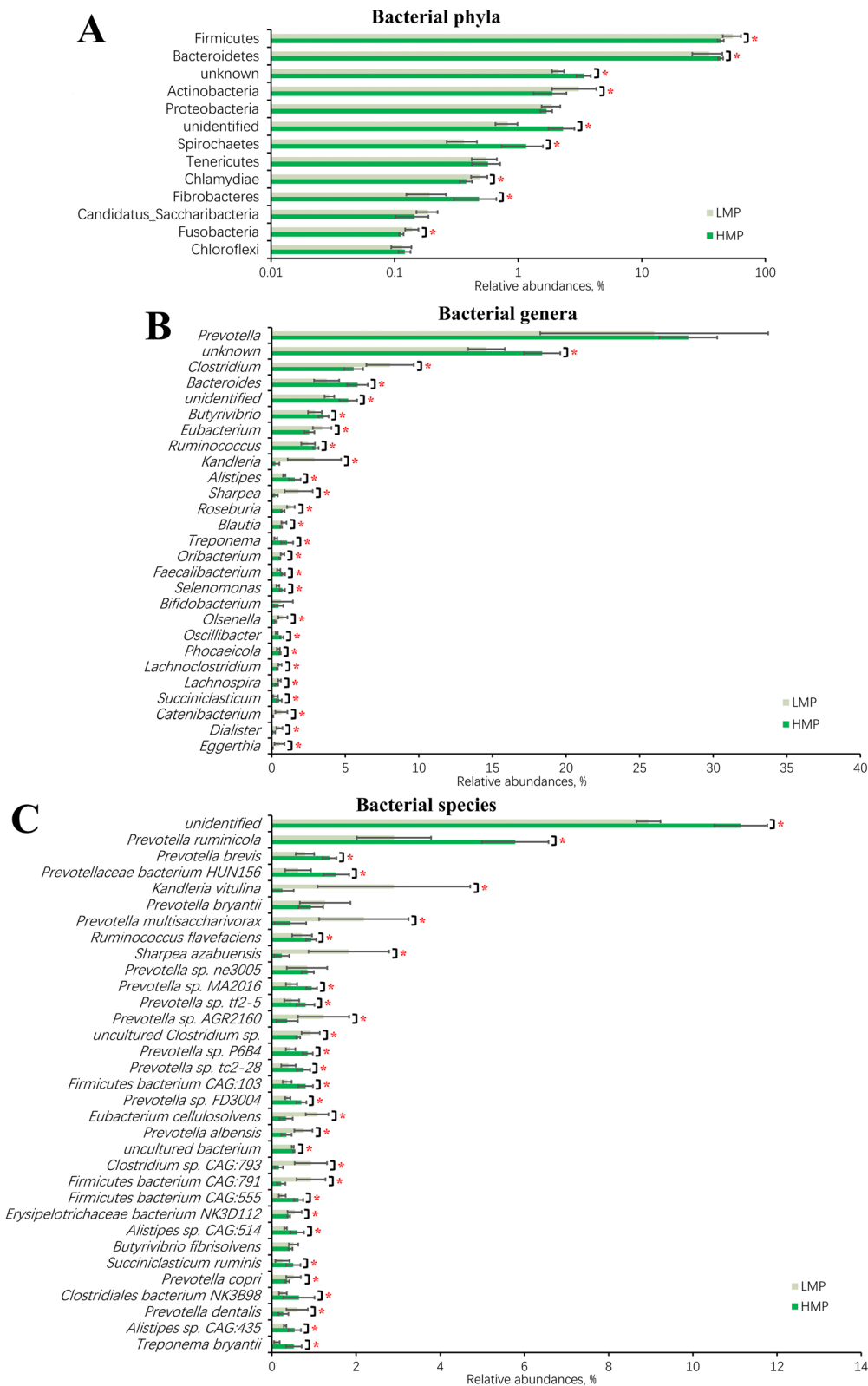


Fig. 4 The relative abundances of bacteria in rumen. Relative abundances of bacterial communities at the phylum (A), genus (B), and species (C) levels. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means. * $P < 0.05$

(Fig. 4B and Table S1). (3) At the species level, the 6 most dominant bacteria were *Prevotella ruminicola*, *Kandleria vitulina*, *Prevotella multisaccharivorax*, *Prevotella bryantii*, *Prevotella brevis*, and *Prevotellaceae bacterium* HUN156. Twenty-nine species showed significant differences in enrichment between the LMP and HMP, the HMP group had 17 species with higher ($P < 0.05$) relative abundance and 12 species with lower relative abundance (Fig. 4C, Table S1).

Taxonomic configuration of ruminal archaea is another important factor affecting CH₄ emissions

Similar to the results of total bacteria, the HMP group had greater ($P < 0.05$) OTU number, ACE, and Chao indexes compared with the LMP group; whereas the Shannon indexes remained unchanged ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 3A and Table S4). PCoA plot revealed a clear segregation between the LMP and HMP on basis of the archaeal species (Fig. 3B). Additionally, the Venn profile of archaea showed that 1,032 OTUs were shared between the LMP and HMP; while the HMP had a higher number of unique OTUs than the LMP (239 vs. 65; Fig. 3C).

Archaeal metagenomic sequences were then analyzed at three levels: (1) At the phylum level, no significant difference was observed in the relative abundance of archaea between the LMP and HMP ($P > 0.05$) (Fig. 5A and Table S1). (2) At the genus level, 5 genera shifted significantly during this study. The relative abundances of *Methanobrevibacter* and *Candidatus Methanoplasma* were higher ($P < 0.05$) in the HMP, while those of *Methanosphaera*, *Methanobacterium*, and *Methanothermobacter* were higher ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP (Fig. 5B and Table S1). (3) At the species level, 10 species were more ($P < 0.05$) abundant in the HMP, while 14 species were more ($P < 0.05$) abundant in the LMP (Fig. 5C and Table S1).

Nutrient metabolic pathways can directly affect CH₄ emission

A total of 390 Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes (KEGG) third-level pathways ($\text{cpm} \geq 5$ and prevalence $\geq 20\%$) were revealed according to metagenomic sequences (Table S5). These pathways were divided into 4 first-level categories: “Cellular processes” (4.56%), “Environmental information processing” (6.27%), “Genetic information processing” (16.45%), and “Metabolism” (72.71%). There were 25 s-level categories observed, with the 5 most abundant being “Carbohydrate metabolism” (17.82%), “Global and overview maps” (11.98%), “Amino acid metabolism” (10.18%), “Replication and repair” (8.81%), and “Nucleotide metabolism” (8.72%). Key metabolic pathways for amino acids, carbohydrates, and energy are shown in Fig. 6A–C. Notably, the “valine,

leucine and isoleucine degradation”, “lysine degradation”, “pentose and glucuronate interconversions”, and “inositol phosphate metabolism” were enriched ($P < 0.05$) in the HMP. In contrast, 3 pathways (“valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis”, “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism”, “sulfur metabolism”) were enriched ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP.

There were 228 genes classified into CAZymes (Table S6). Among the genes encoding CAZymes involved in the breakdown of carbohydrates (cellulose, hemicellulose, starch, protein, and lignin), 63 exhibited higher ($P < 0.05$) abundance in the HMP, compared with 20 in the LMP (Fig. S2A). In carbohydrate-binding modules (CBMs) of non-catalytic CAZymes involved in complex carbohydrate deconstruction, 32 showed greater ($P < 0.05$) abundance in the HMP versus only 5 in the LMP (Fig. S2B). Among the glycosyltransferases (GTs) involved in carbohydrate synthesis, 18 were more ($P < 0.05$) abundant in the HMP, while 14 were more ($P < 0.05$) abundant in the LMP (Fig. S2C).

Microbial interactions effect the level of CH₄ emissions from dairy cows

The co-occurrence network analysis of rumen bacteria showed 1,335 co-occurrence interactions, with different patterns observed in the LMP and HMP groups. A total of 339 interactions were detected in the HMP cows; the most positive ($P < 0.05$) interactions were found within the Firmicute taxa, while the most negative ($P < 0.05$) interactions were found between the Firmicute and Bacteroidetes taxa (Fig. S3). In addition, 996 interactions were detected in the LMP cows. Similar to the results of HMP cows, the most positive ($P < 0.05$) interactions were found within the Firmicute taxa, while the most negative ($P < 0.05$) interactions were found between the Firmicutes and Bacteroidetes taxa (Fig. S3).

The co-occurrence network analysis of ruminal archaea showed 163 co-occurrence connections, with distinct patterns between the LMP and HMP groups. Eighty-two connections were found in the HMP group, and 81 connections were found in the LMP group (Fig. 7A). In addition, HMP group had 12 negative ($P < 0.05$) connections and LMP group had 4 negative ($P < 0.05$) connections, and the central archaea of these negative connections was *Methanobrevibacter* (Fig. 7A).

Associations between microbial genera and microbial functions determine the effect of rumen bacteria and archaea on CH₄ emissions

The co-occurrence network revealed 76 positive and 103 negative correlations between bacterial taxa and functions ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 7B). The “inositol phosphate metabolism” was positively ($P < 0.05$) correlated with

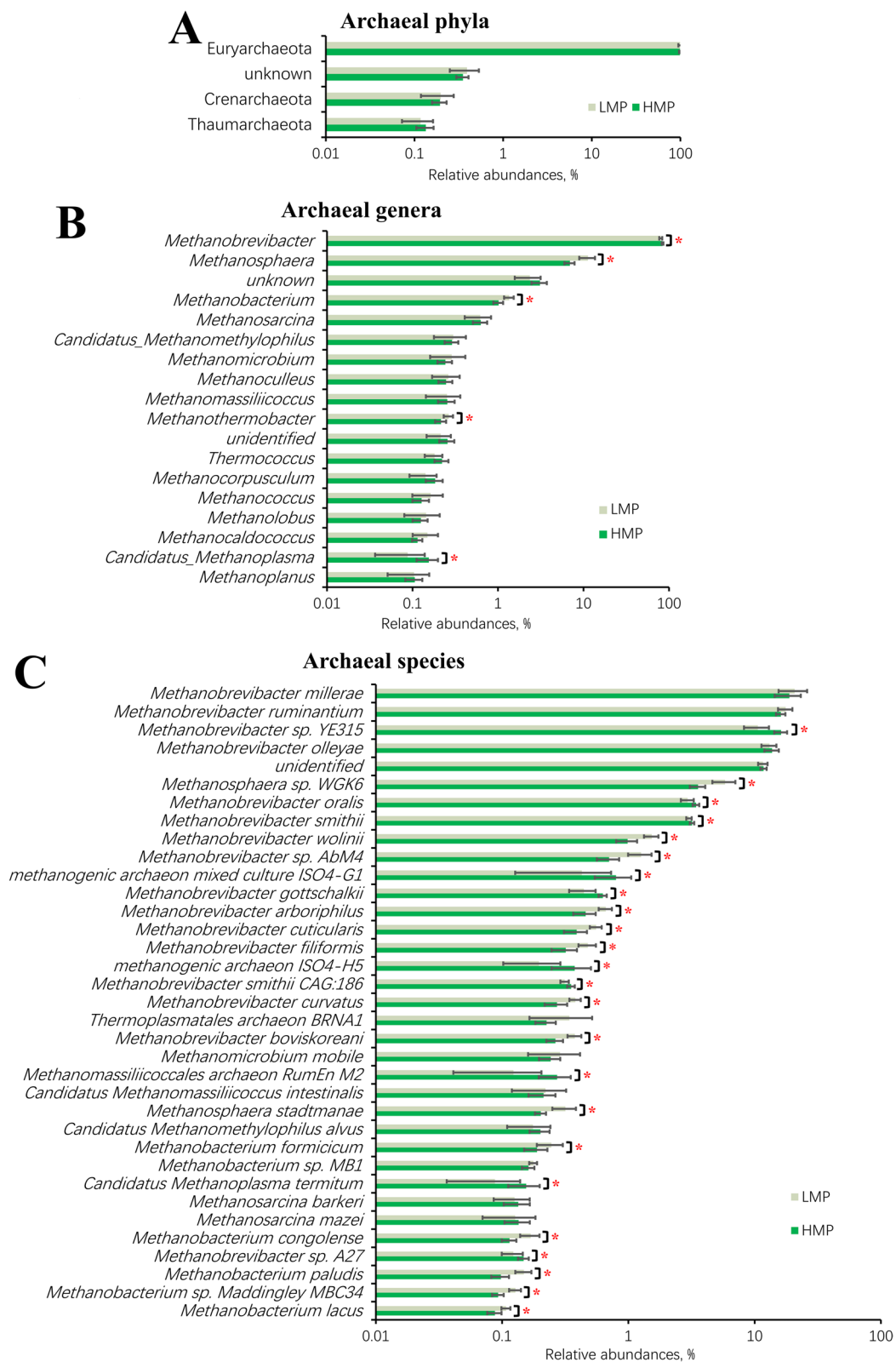


Fig. 5 The relative abundances of archaea in rumen. Relative abundances of archaeal communities at the phylum (A), genus (B), and species (C) levels. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means. * $P < 0.05$

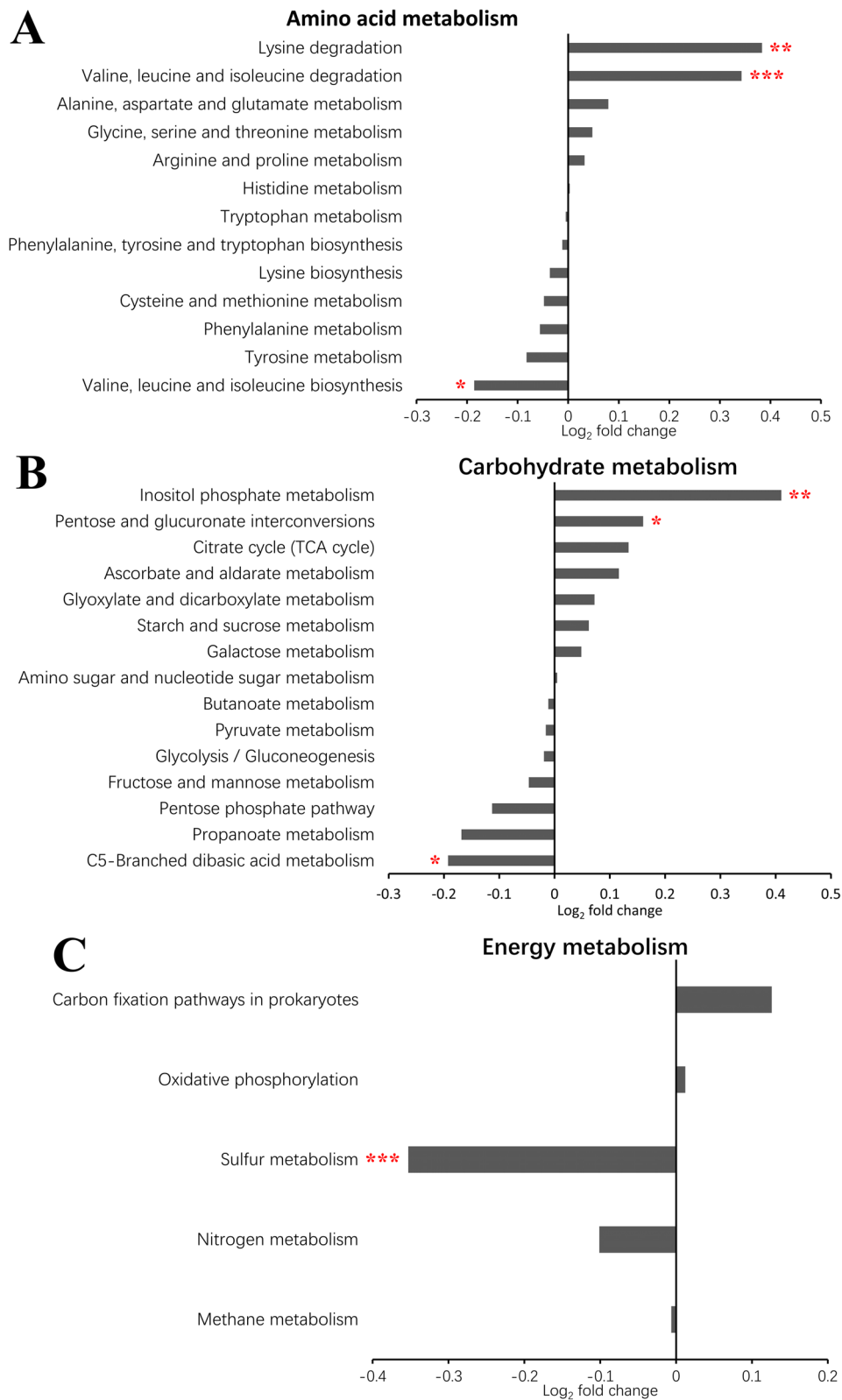


Fig. 6 Fold changes of amino acid metabolism (A), carbohydrate metabolism (B), and energy metabolism (C) pathways identified in the metagenomes of the cows. The Wilcoxon rank-sum test was used to compare means. **P* < 0.05, ***P* < 0.01, ****P* < 0.001

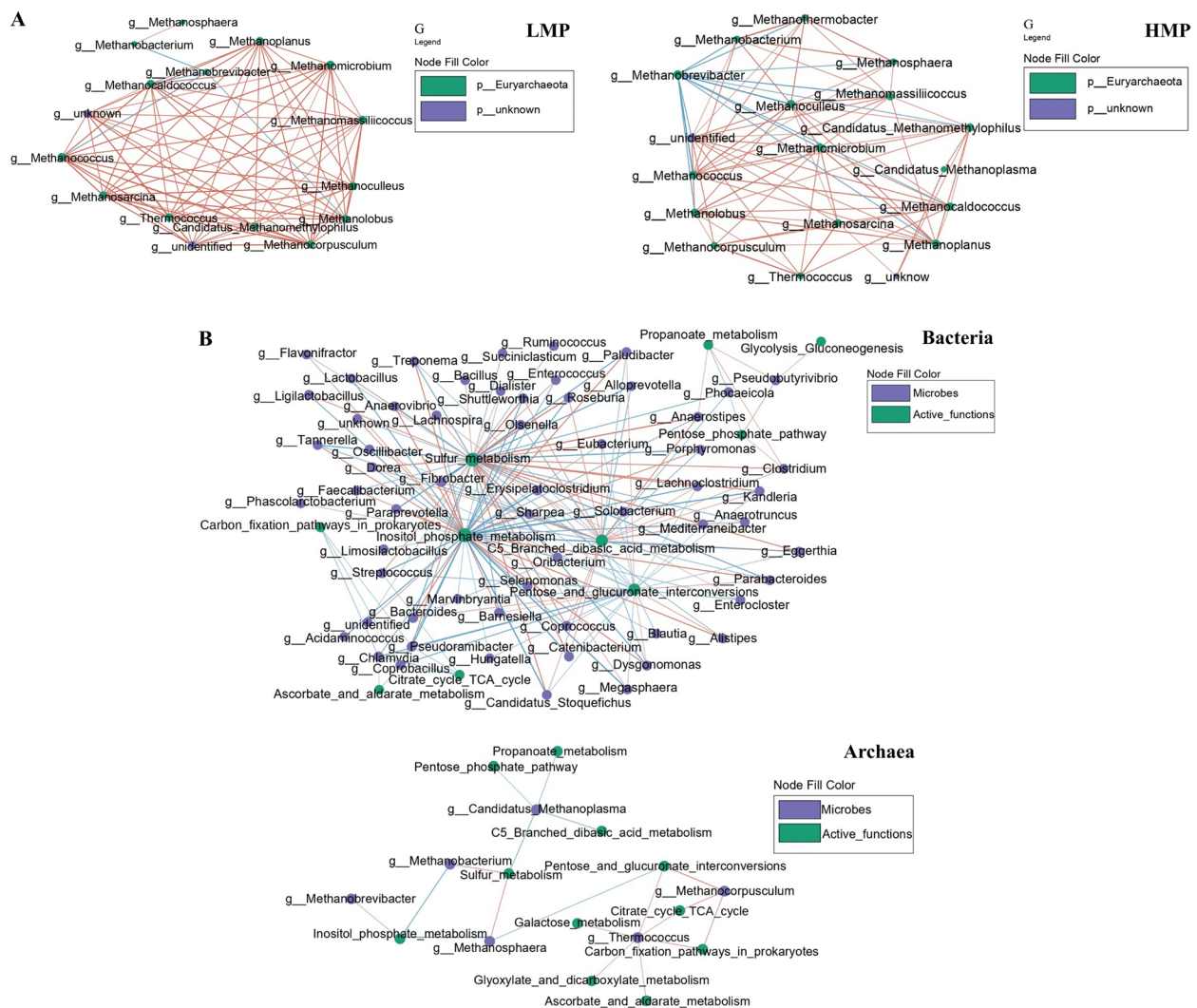


Fig. 7 Co-occurrence networks of microbial taxa. **A** The co-occurrence among rumen Archaea in cows with low and high methane production. **B** Relationships between rumen microbial taxa and microbial functions. Only relationships with P -values less than 0.05 were shown. Positive relationships were indicated by red edges, whereas negative relationships were indicated by blue edges. Node size was proportional to the mean abundance

17 bacterial genera, including *Alistipes*, *Anaerotruncus*, *Anaerovibrio*, *Bacteroides*, *Barnesiella*, *Dysgonomonas*, *Faecalibacterium*, *Flavonifractor*, *Fibrobacter*, *Oscillibacter*, *Selenomonas*, *Tannerella*, *Treponema*, *Paludibacter*, *Parabacteroides*, *Paraprevotella*, and *Porphyromonas*; the “pentose and glucuronate interconversions” was positively ($P < 0.05$) correlated with 6 bacterial genera (*Alistipes*, *Bacteroides*, *Barnesiella*, *Dysgonomonas*, *Paludibacter*, and *Parabacteroides*). Meanwhile, these bacterial genera, which were positively ($P < 0.05$) related to both “pentose and glucuronate interconversions” and “inositol phosphate metabolism”, were more abundant ($P < 0.05$) in the HMP. In contrast, bacteria with higher

abundance in the LMP cows, including *Lachnospira*, *Bacillus*, *Dialister*, *Olsenella*, *Roseburia*, *Eubacterium*, *Sharpea*, *Oribacterium*, *Catenibacterium*, *Clostridium*, *Lachnoclostridium*, *Kandleria*, and *Eggerthia*, were all correlated positively ($P < 0.05$) with both “sulfur metabolism” and “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism”.

Moreover, the co-occurrence network revealed 12 positive and 7 negative correlations between archaeal taxa and functions ($P < 0.05$) (Fig. 7B). Specifically, the archaea enriched in the HMP cows (*Methanobrevibacter*) was positively ($P < 0.05$) correlated with “inositol phosphate metabolism”, while the archaea enriched ($P < 0.05$) in the LMP (*Methanosphaera* and *Methanobacterium*) were

negatively ($P < 0.05$) correlated with “inositol phosphate metabolism”. Additionally, *Candidatus Methanoplasma*, which was enriched in the HMP cows, was negatively ($P < 0.05$) associated with “sulfur metabolism”, in contrast to *Methanosphaera* and *Methanobacterium* (enriched in the LMP cows), which showed a positive ($P < 0.05$) association. In addition, both *Thermococcus* and *Methanocorpusculum* were positively ($P < 0.05$) associated with carbohydrate degradation, including “pentose and glucuronate interconversions”, “citrate cycle TCA cycle”, and “carbon fixation pathways in prokaryotes”.

Microorganisms associated with rumen VFA profile and CH₄ emissions

The rumen microorganisms associated with rumen VFA proportions and enteric CH₄ production in cows were found, including microbial taxa identified as important predictors by the random forest model and statistical associations identified through correlation analysis. A total of 32 bacterial genera and 2 archaeal genera were selected as biomarkers for cows based on the mean decreasing accuracy scores in the random forest model (Fig. 8A). Fifteen bacterial genera had positive ($P < 0.05$) relationships with acetate proportion and CH₄ production, but negative ($P < 0.05$) relationships with propionate and valerate proportions (Fig. 8B). Conversely, the remaining 17 bacterial genera had negative ($P < 0.05$) relationships with acetate proportion and CH₄ production, while 14 of these genera had positive ($P < 0.05$) relationships with propionate and valerate proportions (Fig. 8B). Moreover, the archaeal genera *Methanosphaera* and *Methanobacterium* were negatively ($P < 0.05$) associated with acetate proportion and CH₄ production, but positively ($P < 0.05$) associated with proportions of propionate and valerate (Fig. 8B).

Discussion

Dairy cows are a major source of CH₄ emissions in the livestock industry [35]. Furthermore, rumen microorganisms greatly affect or determine the CH₄ emissions of dairy cows [36]. Understanding the mechanisms underlying inter-individual variations in rumen methanogenesis is essential to formulate CH₄ mitigation strategies. We have integrated large-scale datasets on gas emissions from dairy cows under normal feeding conditions and characterized the natural variations in CH₄ emissions [20]. However, the underlying rumen microbial mechanisms driving these variations remain to be elucidated. In the current study, we used metagenome analysis to investigate the rumen microbiome-dependent mechanisms underlying CH₄ production and estimated the

contributions of rumen microbial composition and functions to the variations in this trait.

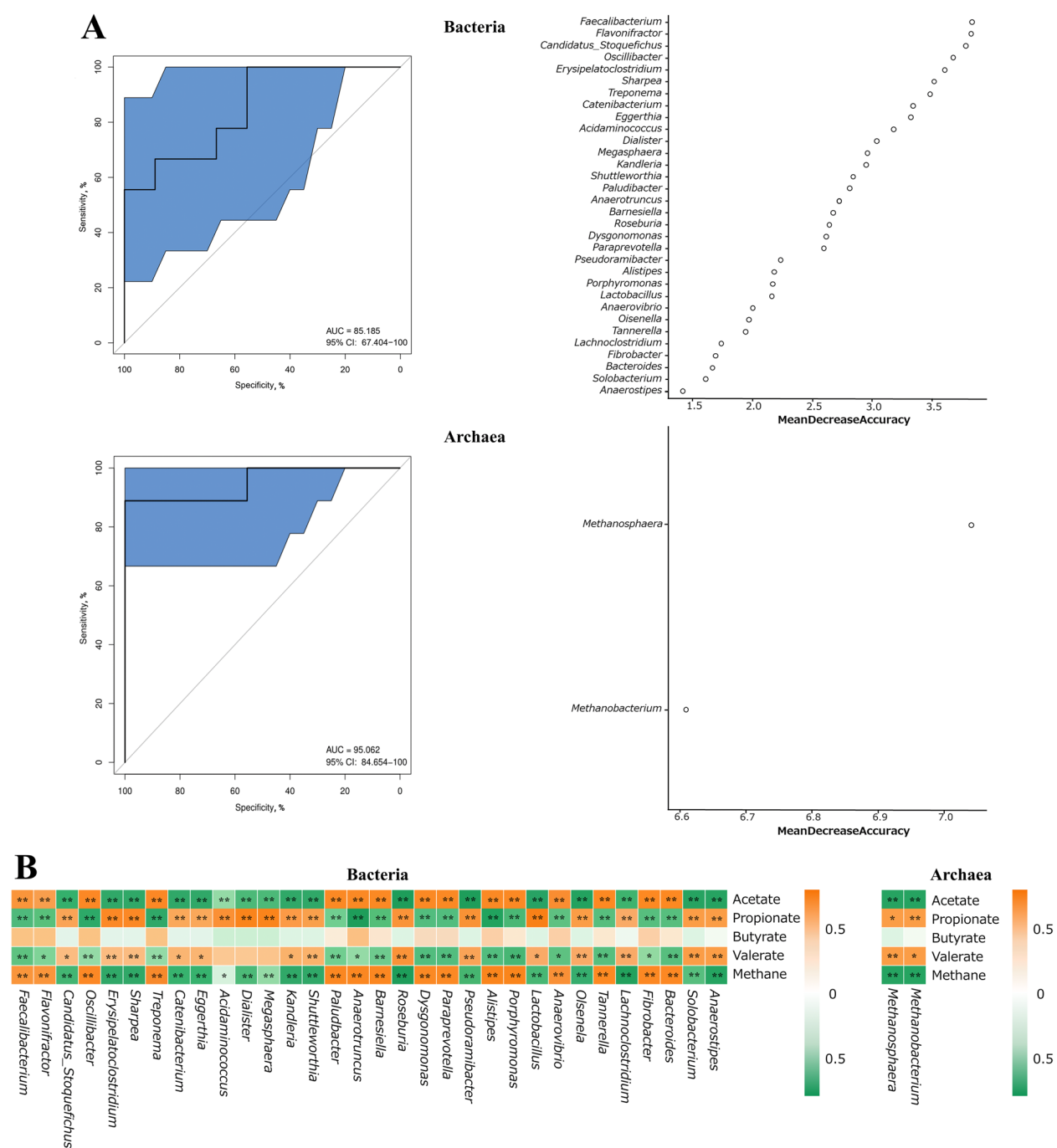
Associations between VFA metabolism and CH₄ emissions

In general, the rumen acetate production pathway increases H₂ and CO₂ production, indicating that CH₄ emissions are positively related with acetate but negatively related with propionate [37, 38]. Consistent with these findings, the HMP cows had a higher acetate proportion and lower propionate proportion in this study. Cows in the study were fed in a freestall barn with the same diet, and there was no difference in age or days in milk between the LMP and HMP, suggesting that variations in VFA and CH₄ might be attributable to rumen microbial variation. From pyruvate to acetate, HMP cows had a higher relative abundance of glucokinase (EC:2.7.1.2), supporting a higher proportion of acetate in HMP cows. In the propionate fermentation process, 7 enzymes were abundant in HMP while only 1 enzyme (lactate dehydrogenase, EC:1.1.1.27) was abundant in the LMP. The propionate formation includes acrylate and succinate pathways, and the lactate dehydrogenase was the first step in the acrylate pathway. This result supported that the acrylate pathway may play a more prominent role in propionate formation in this study. Furthermore, *Selenomonas* and *Succinivibrionaceae* family were enriched in HMP. These bacteria are regarded as starch-degrading bacteria that produced succinate [39], further supporting the potential dominance of the acrylate pathway. Moreover, we found that HMP cows have a higher abundance of *Butyrivibrio*, which is a formate producer that is crucial to the hydrogenotrophic methanogenesis pathway [40].

Effect of bacteria on CH₄ emissions

Bacteria play a great role in rumen fermentation, accounting for 95% of the total microorganisms [41]. We found considerable differences in rumen bacterial communities between cows in the LMP and HMP groups in this study. Ruminal bacterial consortiums of dairy cows were primarily composed of Bacteroides and Firmicutes, which were mainly involved in the production of hydrolytic enzymes that degrade lignocellulosic components [42]. In the current study, Bacteroides was enriched in the HMP, while Firmicutes was enriched in the LMP. Consequently, the Firmicutes/Bacteroidetes ratio was higher in the LMP relative to the HMP (1.54 vs. 1.00).

Kamke et al. [43] found that there were differences in both lactate-producing and lactate-utilizing bacteria between high- and low-methane-emission sheep. In contrast, this study revealed more pronounced



bacterial differences between the HMP and LMP groups in this study. The enrichment of *Ruminococcus flavefaciens* in the HMP contributed to the difference in *Ruminococcus* genus between the two groups. *Ruminococcus*

flavefaciens was considered one of the major ruminal cellulolytic bacteria, and was beneficial for H_2 production as an acetate producer [44, 45]. Similarly, *Alistipes*, which exhibited a higher abundance in the high-forage

diet group and showed a positive correlation with acetate content [46, 47], was also more abundant in the HMP cows of the present study. The degradation of ruminal starch enhanced the H_2 flow [48], thereby promoting methanogenesis. The enrichment of starch-degrading bacteria (*Bacteroides*, *Treponema*, *Oscillibacter*, and *Treponema bryantii*) in the rumen contributed to the increased CH_4 production observed in the HMP cows. In the current study, *Kandleria*, *Sharpea*, *Olsenella*, *Oribacterium*, *Kandleria vitulina*, and *Sharpea azabuensis* were enriched in the LMP group. Previous studies have identified these four bacterial genera and two species as producers of lactate [43, 49, 50]. Similar to lactate utilization, which competed with methanogens for H_2 to inhibit methanogenesis, lactate production also mitigated CH_4 production by decreasing the pH value [51]. Kamke et al. [43] found that low-methane-emission sheep converting hexoses to lactate and subsequently metabolizing it to butyrate produced 24.8% less CH_4 than directly converting hexoses to acetate and butyrate. In this experiment, LMP was enriched with *Clostridium*, *Roseburia*, *Lachnoclostridium*, and *Megasphaera*, which were all butyrate-producing bacteria [43, 52–54]. In addition, *Catenibacterium*, a propionate-producing bacterium [55], was also enriched in the LMP cows. These supported the increased conversion of lactate to propionate and butyrate, thereby reducing CH_4 production. Moreover, the co-occurrence networks based on rumen bacteria revealed these 3 bacterial genera (*Kandleria*, *Sharpea*, *Olsenella*) were positively related with each other but negatively correlated with *Paraprevotella*, which was enriched in the HMP (0.32% vs. 0.17%). Previous studies showed that *Paraprevotella* produces succinate and acetate [56], and exhibits a positive correlation with *Methanobrevibacter* [57]. Therefore, the negative correlations between these 3 bacterial genera and *Paraprevotella* might be attributed to competition for pyruvate. In the current study, the homoacetogens (*Eubacterium*, *Blautia*, *Eubacterium cellulosolvens*) had higher abundances in the LMP. Homoacetogenesis, as an H_2 uptake pathway, competes with the methanogenesis for H_2 , thereby inhibiting CH_4 production [58].

We annotated the non-redundant genes involved in the methane metabolism pathway and obtained the abundances of the corresponding bacterial and archaeal genera (Fig. S4). Consistent with the above results, the abundances of homoacetogens (*Eubacterium*, *Blautia*), lactate-producing bacteria (*Kandleria*, *Sharpea*), and lactate-utilizing bacteria (*Megasphaera*) in the LMP cows were higher than those in the HMP cows, whereas the abundance of acetogens (*Ruminococcus*, *Paraprevotella*) was lower than that in the HMP cows. The majority of the bacterial species exhibiting differential abundance

between the HMP and LMP groups belonged to the *Prevotella* genus. Notably, *Prevotella ruminicola* and *Prevotella brevis*, which contribute to acetate production [59], were enriched in HMP cows. In contrast, species belonged to the *Prevotella* genus enriched in the LMP group have been associated with distinct metabolic functions: *Prevotella bryantii* produced lactate and succinate [49], *Prevotella albensis* was a starch utilizer [60], *Prevotella copri* was negatively related with CH_4 emissions [61], *Prevotella multisaccharivorax* could digest various sugars, both *Prevotella multisaccharivorax* and *Prevotella* sp. AGR2160 contributed to the carbohydrate metabolism [62]. Therefore, Bekele et al. [63] noted that it is difficult to determine the metabolic strategy of *Prevotella* genus due to its diversity.

In summary, the comprehensive metabolic effects of starch-degrading, lactate-producing, lactate-utilizing, formate-producing, acetate-producing, propionate-producing, and butyrate-producing bacteria, as well as homoacetogens, in the metabolism of starch, lactate, and VFA contributed to the differentiation between the HMP and LMP cows. The observed bacterial variations were more pronounced than those reported in previous studies [43, 64]. This discrepancy possibly because the cows in the present study were selected from a larger herd size, and CH_4 emissions from this herd were measured using the GreenFeed system under normal feeding conditions. Taxonomic differences of ruminal bacteria indicated that the rumen of HMP dairy cows was enriched with bacteria that provided H_2 for methanogens, while LMP dairy cows was enriched with bacteria that competed with methanogens for H_2 .

Contribution of archaea to CH_4 emissions

For ruminants, all enteric CH_4 is produced by methanogens, including *Methanobrevibacter*, *Methanosphaera*, *Methanobacterium*, and others. Similar to the findings on bacterial communities, we found more differences in archaeal composition between high and low CH_4 emitters than previously studied [36, 64]. Specifically, *Methanobrevibacter* and *Candidatus Methanoplasma* exhibited higher relative abundances in HMP cows, whereas *Methanosphaera*, *Methanobacterium*, and *Methanothermobacter* exhibited lower ones. Overall, 10 methanogen species had higher while 14 methanogen species had lower relative abundances in HMP cows. The results of previous studies were patchy, such as Shi et al. [36] and Wallace et al. [64] only found differences in the genera *Methanobrevibacter* and *Methanosphaera*, as well as the species *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii*, between high and low CH_4 emitters. These results once again demonstrate the completeness and systematicity of this study.

Methanobrevibacter and *Methanosphaera* were the major rumen methanogens of dairy cows in this study,

which was consistent with previous research [65]. Hydrogenotrophic methanogens use $H_2 + CO_2$ or formate to produce CH_4 . Among these, *Methanobrevibacter* was enriched in the HMP, while *Methanobacterium* and *Methanothermobacter* were enriched in the LMP. For methylotrophic methanogens, *Candidatus Methanoplasma* utilized methylamine and methanol to produce CH_4 [66, 67], and *Methanosphaera* produced CH_4 by reducing methanol using H_2 [36]. In this study, *Candidatus Methanoplasma* was enriched in the HMP, while *Methanosphaera* was more abundant in the LMP. These findings indicated that there might be potential competition among methanogens. In addition, co-occurrence network analysis based on ruminal archaea showed that there were negative correlations among methanogens, with *Methanobrevibacter* was the center of these negative correlations. Similarly, earlier studies indicated that the relative abundance of *Methanosphaera* was negatively associated with *Methanobrevibacter* [13], as well as *Metanobacterium* competed with *Metanobrevibacter* for substrates [40]. Therefore, there were negative correlations among some methanogens based on competition for substrates and spaces [17], as well as thermodynamic differences among methanogenic pathways (acetoclasty < methylotrophy < hydrogenotrophy) [68, 69].

In line with *Prevotella*, *Methanobrevibacter*, as the most abundant genus of archaea, had a total of 13 species that showed different abundances between the two groups, with 6 species enriched in the HMP and 7 species enriched in the LMP. We found species (*Methanobrevibacter smithii*, *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii*) belonged to *Methanobrevibacter* genus enriched in the HMP group have been reported to be correlated with high CH_4 production [22, 36], but there is little information about other archaeal species such as species belonging to the genus *Methanobrevibacter*, enriched in the LMP. Taxonomic differences of ruminal archaea suggested that simply reducing the number of one or more methanogens might not have the desired effect of mitigating enteric CH_4 emissions due to potential compensatory competition between methanogens. In the rumen, protozoa produce large amounts of H_2 through their hydrogenosomes and were symbiotically associated with methanogens [70]. Newbold et al. [71] indicated that eliminating rumen ciliate protozoa reduced CH_4 production by 11% in ruminants. This study showed that in addition to Ciliophora, the 4 genera and 4 species belonged to the Ciliophora phylum were also enriched in the HMP cows (Table S1). This observation supported the higher CH_4 production from the HMP cows.

Effect of rumen microbial function on methanogenesis

KEGG functions analysis based on carbohydrate degradation showed that “pentose and glucuronate interconversions” and “inositol phosphate metabolism” pathways were enriched in the HMP. As a result, the HMP microorganisms might have a higher capacity to degrade carbohydrates, resulting in more hydrolytic products and pyruvate [72, 73]. Consequently, these metabolic by-products promoted the formation of CH_4 in the HMP group. In addition, CAZymes analysis further demonstrated that the HMP were more capable of degrading complex substrates, due to genes encoding CAZymes involved in deconstructing carbohydrates (GH, CE, PL, AA, and CBM) were also enriched in the HMP. This caused the cows in the HMP group to produce more CH_4 . From the perspective of competition for H_2 , the lower CH_4 emissions of the LMP cows may be attributed to the metabolism of H_2 -consuming compounds. Sulfate has been reported to be an electron acceptor whose reduction competes with methanogens for H_2 [74]. On energy metabolism, the enrichment of “sulfur metabolism” pathway in the LMP provided further evidence that LMP cows produced less CH_4 in the current study.

Meanwhile, we analyzed the methane metabolic pathway and found that HMP cows were enriched in acetyl-CoA synthetase (EC:6.2.1.1) and its corresponding gene (K01895), both of which belong to the acetoclastic pathway of methanogenesis. Similar to our results, Shi et al. [36] observed only acetyl-CoA synthetase involved in the methane metabolism pathway was enriched in high-methane-emission sheep by rumen metagenomics. The formate production pathway is crucial for rumen methanogenesis due to formate can be utilized by hydrogenotrophic methanogens to produce CH_4 . Within the process of converting pyruvate to formate and subsequently to CO_2 and H_2 , both dihydrolipoyllysine-residue acetyltransferase (EC:2.3.1.12) and formate dehydrogenase (EC:1.2.1.2), along with their respective genes (K00627 and K00123), were found to be enriched in HMP cows in the present study (Table S7). However, Shi et al. [36] did not find similar results in rumen metagenomic analysis. Among the three methanogenic pathways, the enrichment of both the formate production pathway (belonging to hydrogenotrophy) and the acetoclastic pathway also led to higher CH_4 production in the HMP cows.

In addition to being converted to VFA and CH_4 , pyruvate is also converted to valine, leucine, and isoleucine. Thus, amino acid metabolism indirectly affects CH_4 production. The “valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis” involved in amino acid metabolism was enriched in the

LMP cows, supporting that the LMP cows produced less CH₄. Branched-chain amino acids such as valine, leucine, and isoleucine are important contributors to rumen microbial proteins, which may be beneficial to milk protein synthesis of cows [75]. In addition to “valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis”, “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism” was also enriched in the LMP cows. Previous studies reported that “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism” was affected by nitrogen content and positively correlated with “valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis” [76, 77], which is consistent with this study.

Furthermore, co-occurrence networks based on bacterial genera and bacterial functions showed that, bacteria with higher abundance in the HMP cows were positively correlated with both “pentose and glucuronate interconversions” and “inositol phosphate metabolism”, while bacteria with higher abundance in the LMP cows were positively correlated with both “sulfur metabolism” and “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism”. Co-occurrence network based on archaeal genera and archaeal functions also showed that, archaea with higher abundance in the HMP cows was positively related with “inositol phosphate metabolism” but negatively related with “sulfur metabolism”. In the HMP group, although cows might obtain more pyruvate due to the advantage in carbohydrate degradation, a greater proportion of this pyruvate was converted to CH₄, while a smaller fraction was utilized for branched-chain amino acids synthesis.

Microbial biomarkers of CH₄ emissions

In the present study, we used random forest analysis to obtain biomarkers of cows, and explored the relationships between these biomarkers and cow phenotypes. Correlation analysis further revealed that a total of 34 genera had significant relationships with VFA proportions and CH₄ production of dairy cows. Microorganisms (15 bacterial genera) positively related to acetate proportion and CH₄ production were enriched in the HMP cows, while other microorganisms (17 bacterial genera and 2 archaeal genera) were enriched in the LMP cows. These rumen microbial biomarkers can be used to evaluate CH₄ production from dairy cows. Synthetically, the deep metagenomic sequencing of rumen contents in this study revealed that variation of CH₄ production between groups was determined by microbes and the enzymes and genes of methanogenic pathways.

Conclusion

Based on the empirically measured CH₄ emissions and rumen metagenomics analysis of dairy cows, the following conclusions can be drawn: (1) Under the same environmental and feeding conditions, there was a huge difference in CH₄ emissions of dairy cows due to

rumen microbiome and physiological nutrition reasons. (2) The difference in CH₄ emissions between the HMP and LMP cows was associated with the integrated regulation of bacteria, archaea, and protozoa, not a single microbial type. For instance, bacterial metabolizers of VFA, lactate, and starch, as well as homoacetogens, all act as regulators of methane production. Notably, co-occurrence network analysis of the rumen microbiota uncovered there were negative associations among methanogens, with *Methanobrevibacter* serving as a central node in these associations. Simply reducing the population of certain methanogens may not achieve the desired effect of mitigating CH₄ emissions. (3) Among the nutrient metabolic pathways, 4 pathways (“valine, leucine and isoleucine degradation”, “lysine degradation”, “pentose and glucuronate interconversions”, “inositol phosphate metabolism”) were positively associated with CH₄ emissions and 3 pathways (“valine, leucine and isoleucine biosynthesis”, “C5-branched dibasic acid metabolism”, “sulfur metabolism”) were negatively associated with CH₄ emissions. (4) In the methanogenic pathways, formate metabolism and acetoclastic pathways were characteristic features of the HMP cows exhibiting high CH₄ emissions. The findings of the current study provide novel insights into the regulation of rumen methanogenesis, as well as valuable data for breeding and selection of cows with low CH₄ production. Compared with previous studies, it provided a more systematic and detailed perspective for advancing low-carbon dairy farming.

Abbreviations

CBMs	Carbohydrate-binding module
GHG	Greenhouse gas
GTs	Glycosyltransferases
HMP	High-methane-producing cows
KEGG	Kyoto Encyclopedia of Genes and Genomes
LMP	Low-methane-producing cows
VFA	Total volatile fatty acid

Supplementary Information

The online version contains supplementary material available at <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40104-026-01432-9>.

Additional file 1: Table S1. Rumen microbial taxa identified in the metagenomes. Table S2. Enzymes involved in the methane metabolism pathway in cows. Table S3. Genes involved in the methane metabolism pathway in cows. Table S4. The alpha-diversity of rumen microbial community. Table S5. KEGG level-3 pathways identified in the metagenomes. Table S6. CAZymes composition according to the enzymes at class and family level. Table S7. Enzymes and genes related to formate metabolic pathway.

Additional file 2: Fig. S1. Comparison of microbial domains between cows with low and high methane production.

Additional file 3: Fig. S2. Differential CAZyme functions between cows with low and high methane production.

Additional file 4: Fig. S3. Co-occurrence of rumen bacteria in cows with low and high methane production.

Additional file 5: Fig. S4. Relative abundances of bacterial and archaeal communities involved in methane metabolism at the genus level.

Acknowledgements

The authors thank colleagues at the Institute of Feed Research and Yinxiang-weiye Group Co., Ltd., for providing kind assistance in the animal experiments, sample processing, and data collection.

Authors' contributions

PJ: Methodology, Conceptualization, Formal Analysis, Data curation, Visualization, Writing-original draft. LD: Methodology, Data curation, Investigation. TM and YB: Data Curation, Visualization. YT and QD: Writing-review & editing, Resources, Conceptualization, Project Administration, Supervision, Funding Acquisition. All authors read and approved the final manuscript.

Funding

This study was funded by the National key Research and Development Program (2024YFD1300200) and the Agricultural Science and Technology Innovation Program (CAAS-ASTIP).

Data availability

All data generated or analyzed during this study were included in this published article and its Supplementary Information files. The rumen metagenome sequences were deposited into NCBI Sequence Read Archive (SRA) under the accession number of PRJNA980404.

Declarations

Ethics approval and consent to participate

The experiment and all procedures involving animals passed review and approval of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (protocol number 019–2018). Animal procedures were in accordance with the guidelines of the Animal Ethics Committee of the Chinese Academy of Agricultural Sciences (AEC-CAAS-20190508).

Consent for publication

All authors have consented to publication.

Competing interests

The authors declare no competing interests.

Received: 23 December 2025 Accepted: 21 April 2026

Published online: 15 June 2026

References

- Chen W, Zhang W, Kong X. Assessment of the potential for reducing the emissions from future paddy field utilization in China. *J Clean Prod.* 2025;486:144408. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2024.144408>.
- IPCC. Climate Change 2021: the physical science basis. Contribution of working group I to the sixth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2021.
- Hristov AN, Kebreab E, Niu M, Oh J, Bannink A, Bayat AR, et al. Symposium review: uncertainties in enteric methane inventories, measurement techniques, and prediction models. *J Dairy Sci.* 2018;101:6655–74. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2017-13536>.
- IPCC. Climate Change 2014: mitigation of climate change. Contribution of working group III to the fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press; 2014.
- Hao P, Wu X, Liu Z, Tian L, Zhang X, Wang X, et al. Integrating traditional and biotechnological innovations for mitigating greenhouse gas emissions in dairy farming in China. *J Cleaner Prod.* 2024;458:144457. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2024.144457>.
- FAO. Tackling climate change through livestock: a global assessment of emissions and mitigation opportunities. Rome: Food and Agriculture Organization of the United Nations; 2013.
- Haque MN. Dietary manipulation: a sustainable way to mitigate methane emissions from ruminants. *J Anim Sci Technol.* 2018;60:15. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40781-018-0175-7>.
- Candela CG, Lopez LMB, Kohen VL. Importance of a balanced omega 6/omega 3 ratio for the maintenance of health. *Nutritional recommendations.* *Nutr Hosp.* 2011;26:323–9. <https://doi.org/10.3305/nh.2011.26.2.5117>.
- Wolfe RR, Baum J, Starck C, Moughan PJ. Factors contributing to the selection of dietary protein food sources. *Clin Nutr.* 2018;37:130–8. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.clnu.2017.11.017>.
- Ul F, Haque M, Crombie AT, Murrell JC. Novel facultative *Methylocella* strains are active methane consumers at terrestrial natural gas seeps. *Microbiome.* 2019;7:134. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-019-0741-3>.
- Moate PJ, Deighton MH, Jacobs J, Ribaux BE, Morris GL, Hannah MC, et al. Influence of proportion of wheat in a pasture-based diet on milk yield, methane emissions, methane yield, and ruminal protozoa of dairy cows. *J Dairy Sci.* 2020;103:2373–86. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2019-17514>.
- Hristov AN, Oh J, Firkins JL, Dijkstra J, Kebreab E, Waghorn G, et al. Special topics-mitigation of methane and nitrous oxide emissions from animal operations: I. A review of enteric methane mitigation options. *J Anim Sci.* 2013;91:5045–69. <https://doi.org/10.2527/jas.2013-6583>.
- Pitta DW, Melgar A, Hristov AN, Indugu N, Narayan KS, Pappalardo C, et al. Temporal changes in total and metabolically active ruminal methanogens in dairy cows supplemented with 3-nitrooxypropanol. *J Dairy Sci.* 2021;104:8721–35. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2020-19862>.
- Xie F, Zhao SW, Zhan XX, Zhou Y, Li Y, Zhu WY, et al. Unraveling the phylogenomic diversity of *Methanomassiliicoccales* and implications for mitigating ruminant methane emissions. *Genome Biol.* 2024;25:32. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-024-03167-0>.
- Ungerfeld EM. Metabolic hydrogen flows in rumen fermentation: principles and possibilities of interventions. *Front Microbiol.* 2020;11:589. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00589>.
- Huws SA, Creevey CJ, Oyama LB, Mizrahi I, Denman SE, Popova M, et al. Addressing global ruminant agricultural challenges through understanding the rumen microbiome: past, present, and future. *Front Microbiol.* 2018;9:2161. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2018.02161>.
- Morgavi DP, Forano E, Martin C, Newbold CJ. Microbial ecosystem and methanogenesis in ruminants. *Animal.* 2010;4:1024–36. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S1751731110000546>.
- Smith PE, Kelly AK, Kenny DA, Waters SM. Differences in the composition of the rumen microbiota of finishing beef cattle divergently ranked for residual methane emissions. *Front Microbiol.* 2022;13:855565. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2022.855565>.
- Borevitz J. Utilizing genomics to understand and respond to global climate change. *Genome Biol.* 2021;22:91. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s13059-021-02317-y>.
- Jia P, Tu Y, Liu ZH, Lai Q, Li FD, Dong LF, et al. Characterization and mitigation option of greenhouse gas emissions from lactating Holstein dairy cows in East China. *J Anim Sci Biotechnol.* 2022;13:88. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40104-022-00721-3>.
- Shen JS, Chai Z, Song LJ, Liu JX, Wu YM. Insertion depth of oral stomach tubes may affect the fermentation parameters of ruminal fluid collected in dairy cows. *J Dairy Sci.* 2012;95:5978–84. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2012-5499>.
- Zhang R, Dong X, Zhou M, Tu Y, Zhang NF, Deng KD, et al. Oral administration of *Lactobacillus plantarum* and *Bacillus subtilis* on rumen fermentation and the bacterial community in calves. *Anim Sci J.* 2017;88:755–62. <https://doi.org/10.1111/asj.12691>.
- Yu Z, Morrison M. Comparisons of different hypervariable regions of *rrs* genes for use in fingerprinting of microbial communities by PCR-denaturing gradient gel electrophoresis. *Appl Environ Microbiol.* 2004;70:4800–6. <https://doi.org/10.1128/AEM.70.8.4800-4806>.
- Li H, Durbin R. Fast and accurate short read alignment with Burrows-Wheeler transform. *Bioinformatics.* 2009;25:1754–60. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp324>.
- Zhang Y, Zhang X, Cao D, Yang J, Mao H, Sun L, et al. Integrated multi-omics reveals the relationship between growth performance, rumen microbes and metabolic status of Hu sheep with different residual feed

- intakes. *Anim Nutr*. 2024;18:284–95. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.aninu.2024.04.021>.
26. Li D, Liu CM, Luo R, Sadakane K, Lam TW. MEGAHIT: an ultra-fast single-node solution for large and complex metagenomics assembly via succinct de Bruijn graph. *Bioinformatics*. 2015;31:1674–6. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btv033>.
 27. Noguchi H, Park J, Takagi T. MetaGene: prokaryotic gene finding from environmental genome shotgun sequences. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2006;34:5623–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkl723>.
 28. Fu LM, Niu BF, Zhu ZW, Wu ST, Li WZ. CD-HIT: accelerated for clustering the next-generation sequencing data. *Bioinformatics*. 2012;28:3150–2. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/bts565>.
 29. Li R, Yu C, Li Y, Lam TW, Yiu SM, Kristiansen K, et al. SOAP2: an improved ultrafast tool for short read alignment. *Bioinformatics*. 2009;25:1966–7. <https://doi.org/10.1093/bioinformatics/btp336>.
 30. Caporaso JG, Kuczynski J, Stombaugh J, Bittinger K, Bushman FD, Costello EK, et al. QIIME allows analysis of high-throughput community sequencing data. *Nat Methods*. 2010;7(5):335–6. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.f.303>.
 31. Buchfink B, Xie C, Huson DH. Fast and sensitive protein alignment using DIAMOND. *Nat Methods*. 2015;12:59–60. <https://doi.org/10.1038/nmeth.3176>.
 32. Pruitt KD, Tatusova T, Maglott DR. NCBI reference sequences (RefSeq): a curated non-redundant sequence database of genomes, transcripts and proteins. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2007;35:61–5. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkl842>.
 33. Kanehisa M, Goto S. KEGG: Kyoto encyclopedia of genes and genomes. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2000;28:27–30. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/28.1.27>.
 34. Lombard V, Golaconda RH, Drula E, Coutinho PM, Henrissat B. The carbohydrate-active enzymes database (CAZy) in 2013. *Nucleic Acids Res*. 2014;42:D490–5. <https://doi.org/10.1093/nar/gkt1178>.
 35. Entrena-Barbero E, Tarpani RRZ, Fernandez M, Moreira MT, Gallego-Schmid A. Integrating circularity as an essential pillar of dairy farm sustainability. *J Clean Prod*. 2024;458:142508. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.jclepro.2024.142508>.
 36. Shi W, Moon CD, Leahy SC, Kang D, Froula J, Kittelmann S, et al. Methane yield phenotypes linked to differential gene expression in the sheep rumen microbiome. *Genome Res*. 2014;24:1517–25. <https://doi.org/10.1101/gr.168245.113>.
 37. Patra AK, Puchala R. Methane mitigation in ruminants with structural analogues and other chemical compounds targeting archaeal methanogenesis pathways. *Biotechnol Adv*. 2023;69:108268. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.biotechadv.2023.108268>.
 38. Jia P, Dong LF, Tu Y, Diao QY. *Bacillus subtilis* and *Macleaya cordata* extract regulate the rumen microbiota associated with enteric methane emission in dairy cows. *Microbiome*. 2023;11:229. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-023-01654-3>.
 39. Omontese BO, Sharma AK, Davison S, Jacobson E, DiConzanzo A, Webb MJ, et al. Microbiome network traits in the rumen predict average daily gain in beef cattle under different backgrounding systems. *Anim Microbiome*. 2022;4:25. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42523-022-00175-y>.
 40. Martinez-Alvaro M, Auffret MD, Stewart RD, Dewhurst RJ, Duthie CA, Rooke JA, et al. Identification of complex rumen microbiome interaction within diverse functional niches as mechanisms affecting the variation of methane emissions in bovine. *Front Microbiol*. 2020;11:659. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2020.00659>.
 41. Mackie RI, Aminov RI, White BA, Mcsweeney CS, Cronje PB. Molecular ecology and diversity in gut microbial ecosystems. In: PB Cronje, editor. *Ruminant physiology: digestion, metabolism, growth and reproduction*. Wallingford: CABI Publishing; 2000. <https://doi.org/10.1079/9780851994635.0061>.
 42. Bhujbal SK, Ghosh P, Vijay VK, Rathour R, Kumar M, Singh L, et al. Biotechnological potential of rumen microbiota for sustainable bioconversion of lignocellulosic waste to biofuels and value-added products. *Sci Total Environ*. 2022;814:152773. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2021.152773>.
 43. Kamke J, Kittelmann S, Soni P, Li Y, Tavendale M, Ganesh S, et al. Rumen metagenome and metatranscriptome analyses of low methane yield sheep reveals a *Sharpea*-enriched microbiome characterised by lactic acid formation and utilisation. *Microbiome*. 2016;4:56. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-016-0201-2>.
 44. Koike S, Kobayashi Y. Fibrolytic rumen bacteria: their ecology and functions. *Anim Biosci*. 2009;22:8. <https://doi.org/10.5713/ajas.2009.r01>.
 45. Min BR, Solaiman S. Comparative aspects of plant tannins on digestive physiology, nutrition and microbial community changes in sheep and goats: a review. *J Anim Physiol Anim Nutr (Berl)*. 2018;102:1181–93. <https://doi.org/10.1111/jpn.12938>.
 46. Wang L, Zhang G, Xu H, Xin H, Zhang Y. Metagenomic analyses of microbial and carbohydrate-active enzymes in the rumen of Holstein cows fed different forage-to-concentrate ratios. *Front Microbiol*. 2019;10:649. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2019.00649>.
 47. Ma YB, Ye WX, Cheng YC, Ren WY, Yang SM, Zhang LL, et al. Metagenomics-based analysis of the effect of rice straw substitution for a proportion of whole-plant corn silage on the rumen flora structure and carbohydrate-active enzymes (CAZymes). *Fermentation*. 2023;9:954. <https://doi.org/10.3390/fermentation9110954>.
 48. Li QS, Wang R, Ma ZY, Zhang XM, Jiao JZ, Zhang ZG, et al. Dietary selection of metabolically distinct microorganisms drives hydrogen metabolism in ruminants. *ISME J*. 2022;16:2535–46. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41396-022-01294-9>.
 49. Lan W, Yang C. Ruminant methane production: associated microorganisms and the potential of applying hydrogen-utilizing bacteria for mitigation. *Sci Total Environ*. 2019;654:1270–83. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.scitotenv.2018.11.180>.
 50. Sizova MV, Muller PA, Stanczyk D, Panikov NS, Mandalakis M, Hazen A, et al. *Oribacterium parvum* sp. nov. and *Oribacterium asaccharolyticum* sp. nov., obligately anaerobic bacteria from the human oral cavity, and emended description of the genus *Oribacterium*. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol*. 2014;64:2642–9. <https://doi.org/10.1099/ijso.0.060988-0>.
 51. Mizrahi I, Wallace RJ, Morais S. The rumen microbiome: balancing food security and environmental impacts. *Nat Rev Microbiol*. 2021;19:553–66. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41579-021-00543-6>.
 52. Lin PY, Whang LM, Wu YR, Ren WJ, Hsiao CJ, Li SL, et al. Bio-logical hydrogen production of the genus *Clostridium*: metabolic study and mathematical model simulation. *Int J Hydrogen Energy*. 2007;32:1728–35. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijhydene.2006.12.009>.
 53. Tamanai-Shacoori Z, Smida I, Bousarghin L, Loreal O, Meuricet V, Fong SB, et al. *Roseburia* spp.: a marker of health? *Future Microbiol*. 2017;12:157–70. <https://doi.org/10.2217/fmb-2016-0130>.
 54. Jacquier V, Nelson A, Jilali M, Rhayat L, Brinch KS, Devillard E. *Bacillus subtilis* 29784 induces a shift in broiler gut microbiome toward butyrate-producing bacteria and improves intestinal histomorphology and animal performance. *Poult Sci*. 2019;98:2548–54. <https://doi.org/10.3382/ps/pey602>.
 55. O'Hara E, Kenny DA, McGovern E, Byrne CJ, McCabe MS, Guan LL, et al. Investigating temporal microbial dynamics in the rumen of beef calves raised on two farms during early life. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol*. 2020;96:fiz203. <https://doi.org/10.1093/femsec/fiz203>.
 56. Morotomi M, Nagai F, Sakon H, Tanaka R. *Paraprevotella clara* gen. nov., sp. nov. and *Paraprevotella xylaniphila* sp. nov., members of the family 'Prevotellaceae' isolated from human faeces. *Int J Syst Evol Microbiol*. 2009;59:1895–900. <https://doi.org/10.1099/ijso.0.008169-0>.
 57. Su MC, Wang HH, Shi HB, Li Q, Zhang Y, Li TT, et al. Yeast products mediated ruminal subenvironmental microbiota, and abnormal metabolites and digestive enzymes regulated rumen fermentation function in sheep. *Animals*. 2022;12:3221. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ani12232221>.
 58. Kelly WJ, Mackie RI, Attwood GT, Janssen PH, McAllister TA, Leahy SC. Hydrogen and formate production and utilisation in the rumen and the human colon. *Anim Microbiome*. 2022;4:22. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s42523-022-00174-z>.
 59. Watabe Y, Suzuki Y, Koike S, Shimamoto S, Kobayashi Y. Cellulose acetate, a new candidate feed supplement for ruminant animals: in vitro evaluations. *J Dairy Sci*. 2018;101:10929–38. <https://doi.org/10.3168/jds.2018-14969>.
 60. Bandarupalli VVK, St-Pierre B. Identification of a candidate starch utilizing strain of *Prevotella albensis* from bovine rumen. *Microorganisms*. 2020;8:2005. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms8122005>.
 61. Betancur-Murillo CL, Aguilar-Marin SB, Jovel J. *Prevotella*: a key player in ruminal metabolism. *Microorganisms*. 2022;11:1. <https://doi.org/10.3390/microorganisms11010001>.
 62. Zeng Y, Pu Y, Niu LL, Deng JB, Zeng D, Amato KR, et al. Comparison of gastrointestinal microbiota in golden snub-nosed monkey (*Rhinopithecus*

- roxellanae*), green monkey (*Chlorocebus aethiops sabaeus*), and ring-tailed lemur (*Lemur catta*) by high throughput sequencing. *Glob Ecol Conserv.* 2022;33:e01946. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.gecco.2021.e01946>.
63. Bekele AZ, Koike S, Kobayashi Y. Genetic diversity and diet specificity of ruminal *Prevotella* revealed by 16S rRNA gene-based analysis. *Fems Microbiol Lett.* 2010;305:49–57. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6968.2010.01911.x>.
 64. Wallace RJ, Rooke JA, McKain N, Duthie C-A, Hyslop JJ, Ross DW, et al. The rumen microbial metagenome associated with high methane production in cattle. *BMC Genomics.* 2015;16:839. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12864-015-2032-0>.
 65. Tapio I, Snelling TJ, Strozzi F, Wallace RJ. The ruminal microbiome associated with methane emissions from ruminant livestock. *J Anim Sci Biotechnol.* 2017;8:7. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40104-017-0141-0>.
 66. Borrel G, Harris HM, Tottey W, Mihajlovski A, Parisot N, Peyretailade E, et al. Genome sequence of "Candidatus Methanomethylophilus alvus" Mx1201, a methanogenic archaeon from the human gut belonging to a seventh order of methanogens. *J Bacteriol.* 2012;194:6944–5. <https://doi.org/10.1128/JB.01867-12>.
 67. Poulsen M, Schwab C, Jensen BB, Engberg RM, Spang A, Canibe N, et al. Methylophilic methanogenic Thermoplasmata implicated in reduced methane emissions from bovine rumen. *Nat Commun.* 2013;4:1428. <https://doi.org/10.1038/ncomms2432>.
 68. Molenaar SD, Saha P, Mol AR, Sleutels TH, Ter Heijne A, Buisman CJ. Competition between methanogens and acetogens in biocathodes: a comparison between potentiostatic and galvanostatic control. *Int J Mol Sci.* 2017;18:204. <https://doi.org/10.3390/ijms18010204>.
 69. Sprenger WW, Hackstein JH, Keltjens JT. The competitive success of *Methanomicrococcus blatticola*, a dominant methylophilic methanogen in the cockroach hindgut, is supported by high substrate affinities and favorable thermodynamics. *FEMS Microbiol Ecol.* 2007;60:266–75. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1574-6941.2007.00287.x>.
 70. Lewis WH, Lind AE, Sendra KM, Onsbring H, Williams TA, Esteban GF, et al. Convergent evolution of hydrogenosomes from mitochondria by gene transfer and loss. *Mol Biol Evol.* 2020;37:524–39. <https://doi.org/10.1093/molbev/msz239>.
 71. Newbold CJ, de la Fuente G, Belanche A, Ramos-Morales E, McEwan NR. The role of ciliate protozoa in the rumen. *Front Microbiol.* 2015;6:1313. <https://doi.org/10.3389/fmicb.2015.01313>.
 72. Zhang ZG, Xu DM, Wang L, Hao JJ, Wang JF, Zhou X, et al. Convergent evolution of rumen microbiomes in high-altitude mammals. *Curr Biol.* 2016;26:1873–9. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.cub.2016.05.012>.
 73. Park T, Ma L, Ma Y, Zhou XQ, Bu DP, Yu ZT. Dietary energy sources and levels shift the multi-kingdom microbiota and functions in the rumen of lactating dairy cows. *J Anim Sci Biotechnol.* 2020;11:66. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40104-020-00461-2>.
 74. Leahy SC, Janssen PH, Attwood GT, Mackie RI, McAllister TA, Kelly WJ. Electron flow: key to mitigating ruminant methanogenesis. *Trends Microbiol.* 2022;30:2009–12. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.tim.2021.12.005>.
 75. Xue MY, Sun HZ, Wu XH, Liu JX, Guan LL. Multi-omics reveals that the rumen microbiome and its metabolome together with the host metabolome contribute to individualized dairy cow performance. *Microbiome.* 2020;8:64. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40168-020-00819-8>.
 76. Chen F, Zhang H, Du EC, Fan QW, Zhao N, Jin F, et al. Supplemental magnolol or honokiol attenuates adverse effects in broilers infected with *Salmonella pullorum* by modulating mucosal gene expression and the gut microbiota. *J Anim Sci Biotechnol.* 2021;12:87. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s40104-021-00611-0>.
 77. Li YRZ, Wang MD, Teng K, Dong D, Liu ZC, Zhang TJ, et al. Transcriptome profiling revealed candidate genes, pathways and transcription factors related to nitrogen utilization and excessive nitrogen stress in perennial ryegrass. *Sci Rep.* 2022;12:3353. <https://doi.org/10.1038/s41598-022-07329-7>.