

# UNIVERSIDAD AUTÓNOMA CHAPINGO DEPARTAMENTO DE ENSEÑANZA, INVESTIGACIÓN Y SERVICIO EN ZOOTECNIA

POSGRADO EN PRODUCCIÓN ANIMAL

# PRODUCTIVIDAD, EMISIONES DE METANO, ESTADO ANTIOXIDANTE Y CALIDAD DE CARNE DE RUMIANTES SUPLEMENTADOS CON TANINOS: METAANÁLISIS

#### **TESIS**

Que como requisito parcial para obtener el grado de:

### MAESTRO EN CIENCIAS EN INNOVACIÓN GANADERA

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# PRODUCTIVIDAD, EMISIONES DE METANO, ESTADO ANTIOXIDANTE Y CALIDAD DE CARNE DE RUMIANTES SUPLEMENTADOS CON TANINOS: METAANÁLISIS

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## MAESTRO EN CIENCIAS EN INNOVACIÓN GANADERA

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#### **RESUMEN GENERAL**

# PRODUCTIVIDAD, EMISIONES DE METANO, ESTADO ANTIOXIDANTE Y CALIDAD DE CARNE DE RUMIANTES SUPLEMENTADOS CON TANINOS: METAANÁLISIS¹

Los antibióticos se han utilizado como promotores del crecimiento en rumiantes. Sin embargo, la aparición de bacterias resistentes a estos fármacos ha conducido a la búsqueda de productos alternativos con efectos similares a los antibióticos, pero de origen natural. En un primer estudio, se evaluaron los efectos de la suplementación dietética con taninos (TANs) en el comportamiento productivo, la fermentación ruminal y las emisiones de metano (CH<sub>4</sub>) en bovinos para carne usando metaanálisis (MA). La suplementación con TANs no afectó el comportamiento productivo (p>0.05); sin embargo, mejoró la concentración ruminal de propionato y butirato, y redujo la concentración ruminal de nitrógeno amoniacal y las emisiones de CH<sub>4</sub> (p<0.01). En un segundo estudio se evaluaron los efectos de la suplementación dietética de una mezcla poliherbal (MP) en el comportamiento productivo, las características de la canal y la calidad de la carne de corderos. No hubo efectos (p>0.05) de MP en comportamiento productivo, características de canal, color y composición química de la carne. La fuerza de corte disminuyó, mientras que pH y pérdida por goteo de la carne aumentaron linealmente (p<0.05) cuando se incrementó la dosis de MP. En un tercer estudio se evaluaron los efectos de la suplementación dietética con TANs en el comportamiento productivo, calidad de la carne y estado antioxidante del suero sanguíneo de ovinos usando MA. La suplementación con TANs no afectó el consumo de MS ni la calidad de la carne (p>0.05); sin embargo, aumentó la ganancia de peso, la capacidad antioxidante total y redujo la conversión alimenticia (p<0.05). En conclusión, es posible utilizar TANs para reducir emisiones de CH<sub>4</sub> en bovinos y mejorar el comportamiento productivo y estado antioxidante en ovinos. Además, la MP podría utilizarse para mejorar la terneza de la carne de ovinos.

Palabras clave: polifenoles, taninos, mezcla poliherbal, ovinos, bovinos.

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#### **GENERAL ABSTRACT**

# PRODUCTIVITY, METHANE EMISSIONS, NTIOXIDANT STATUS AND MEAT QUALITY OF RUMINANTS SUPPLEMENTED WITH TANNINS: META-ANALYSIS <sup>2</sup>

Antibiotics have been commonly used as growth promoters in ruminants. However, the emergence of bacteria resistant to these drugs has led to the search for alternative products with similar effects to antibiotics, but of natural origin. In a first study, the effects of dietary tannin supplementation (TANs) on productive performance, ruminal fermentation, and methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions in beef cattle were evaluated using meta-analysis (MA). Supplementation with TANs did not affect growth performance (p>0.05); however, it improved the ruminal concentration of propionate and butyrate, and reduced the ruminal concentration of ammonia nitrogen and the emissions of CH<sub>4</sub> (p<0.01). In a second study, the effects of dietary supplementation of a polyherbal mixture (PM) on productive performance, carcass characteristics and quality of lamb meat were evaluated. There were no effects (p>0.05) of MP on productive behavior, carcass characteristics, color, and chemical composition of the meat. The shear force decreased, while the pH and drip loss of the meat increased linearly (p<0.05) when the dose of PM was increased. In a third study, the effects of dietary supplementation with TANs on productive performance, meat quality and antioxidant status of sheep blood serum were evaluated using MA. Supplementation with TANs did not affect DM intake or meat quality (p>0.05); however, it increased weight gain, total antioxidant capacity, and reduced feed conversion (p<0.05). In conclusion, it is possible to use TANs to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in cattle and improve productive performance and antioxidant status in sheep. Furthermore, PM could be used to improve the tenderness of sheep meat

**Keywords:** polyphenols, tannins, polyherbal mixture, sheep, cattle.

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## 1. INTRODUCCIÓN GENERAL

Durante varias décadas los antibióticos se han utilizado como promotores del crecimiento en animales (Huang, Liu, Zhao, Hu, & Wang, 2018). Sin embargo, el uso inapropiado de estos productos da como resultado la acumulación de residuos tóxicos en la carne, los cuáles pueden afectar la salud del consumidor (Wang et al., 2017). Además, la aparición de cepas bacterianas con resistencia a los efectos de los antibióticos (Callaway, Lillehoj, Chuanchen, & Gay, 2021), y la prohibición de estos compuestos en algunos países (Valenzuela-Grijalva, Pinelli-Saavedra, Muhlia-Almazan, Domínguez-Díaz, & González-Ríos, 2017) han conducido a la industria y a los investigadores a la búsqueda de productos alternativos con efectos similares a los antibióticos, pero de origen natural. Entre ellos, los aditivos fitogénicos (AFGs) han recibido especial atención y son de los productos más estudiados en la última década (Huang et al., 2018).

De acuerdo con Windisch (2008), los AFGs son compuestos derivados de plantas que pueden incorporarse en la dieta para ayudar a mejorar la productividad del ganado a través de mejoras en las propiedades del alimento, la promoción de mayor rendimiento productivo y la mejora de la calidad de los productos alimenticios derivados del ganado. Los AFGs pueden clasificarse con base en su origen botánico (hierbas, especias, etc.), composición (taninos, saponinas, etc.), procesamiento (extractos, aceites esenciales y compuestos aislados) y modo de acción (Valenzuela-Grijalva et al., 2017). Entre los AFGs, los taninos (TANs) han recibido especial atención y son de los compuestos bioactivos más estudiados, particularmente en rumiantes (Huang et al., 2018). Los TANs son un grupo de compuestos polifenólicos presentes en una amplia variedad de plantas, los cuales se pueden dividir en taninos hidrolizables y taninos condensados con base en su estructura química (Naumann, Tedeschi, Zeller, & Huntley, 2017; Serra, Salvatori,

& Pastorelli, 2021). Los TANs pueden tener efectos positivos en los animales, tales como antioxidantes, antimicrobianos, antiparasitarios, inmunomoduladores y antiinflamatorios (Huang et al., 2018; Naumann et al., 2017). Se han realizado diversos estudios para evaluar los efectos de la suplementación dietética con extractos de TANs y plantas ricas en TANs sobre el comportamiento productivo (Fernandes et al., 2021; Pathak, Dutta, Pattanaik, Chaturvedi, & Sharma, 2017), las emisiones de metano entérico (Fagundes et al., 2020; Suybeng, Charmley, Gardiner, Malau-Aduli, & Malau-Aduli, 2020), la calidad de la carne (Dentinho et al., 2020; Valenti et al., 2019), y el estado antioxidante del suero sanguíneo (Liu, Li, Lv, Zhao, & Xiong, 2016; Wang, Giller, Hillmann, Marquardt, & Schwarm, 2019) de ovinos y bovinos. Sin embargo, los resultados observados son aún inconsistentes, probablemente como consecuencia de la variabilidad en las condiciones de alimentación, la edad de los animales, el tipo de producto utilizado, la dosis y la fuente de TANs empleadas en los diferentes estudios (Huang et al., 2018). Por lo anterior, identificar los factores que contribuyen a esta variabilidad es un aspecto clave en el desarrollo de productos conteniendo TANs que puedan ser utilizados para reducir las emisiones de metano, mejorar el comportamiento productivo, la calidad de la carne, y el estado antioxidante de ovinos y bovinos.

Por otro lado, la suplementación dietética con mezclas poliherbales (MP) ha mostrado efectos positivos en el comportamiento productivo y las características de calidad de la carne y la canal de ovinos y bovinos durante la engorda final (Lee et al., 2015; Razo et al., 2020; Orzuna-Orzuna et al., 2021). Asimismo, en terneros se ha reportado que el uso de MP puede aumentar el recuento de anticuerpos contra *Clostridium spp.* y reducir la incidencia de enfermedades (Sánchez et al., 2021), además de mejorar el crecimiento y el estado de salud durante el período prerumiante hasta el destete, a través de cambios en la expresión génica (Díaz-Galván et al., 2021). Las mezclas herbales

se diferencian de los aceites esenciales y extractos en que pueden contener varios compuestos bioactivos responsables de efectos biológicos positivos (Sánchez et al., 2021). Sin embargo, los efectos de los compuestos bioactivos en los sistemas biológicos pueden depender de la eficiencia de su absorción y transformación metabólica extensa (Čobanová et al., 2020).

#### **Hipótesis**

La suplementación con taninos y mezclas poliherbales como aditivos fitogénicos mejoran el comportamiento productivo, el estado antioxidante del suero sanguíneo, y reducen las emisiones de metano entérico de ovinos y bovinos, sin afectar la calidad de la carne de estos animales.

#### Objetivo general

Evaluar el efecto de distintos fitogénicos en el comportamiento productivo, las emisiones de metano, la calidad de la carne y el estado antioxidante del suero sanguíneo de rumiantes.

#### **Objetivos particulares**

- ❖ Evaluar el efecto de la suplementación dietética de taninos en el comportamiento productivo, la ingesta y digestibilidad de nutrientes, los parámetros ruminales y las emisiones de metano entérico de bovinos para carne, a través de un metaanálisis.
- Determinar los efectos de dosis crecientes de una mezcla poliherbal conteniendo saponinas, flavonoides y polisacáridos, en el comportamiento productivo, características de la canal y calidad de la carne de corderos alimentados con dietas altas en concentrado.

❖ Evaluar el efecto de la suplementación dietética con taninos en el comportamiento productivo, las características de la canal, la calidad y estabilidad oxidativa de la carne, y el estado antioxidante del plasma sanguíneo de ovinos, través de un metaanálisis.

#### Estructura de la tesis

El Capítulo 2 es un metaanálisis que sintetiza de forma cuantitativa la información publicada de 2010 hasta 2020 sobre los efectos de la suplementación dietética de taninos en el comportamiento productivo, la fermentación ruminal, la digestibilidad del alimento ingerido y las emisiones de metano entérico en bovinos productores de carne.

En el Capítulo 3 se presenta el resultado de un trabajo experimental en el que se evaluaron los efectos de diferentes dosis de una mezcla herbal conteniendo saponinas, flavonoides y polisacáridos en el comportamiento productivo, las características de la canal y la calidad de la carne de corderos durante la engorda final.

Con base en los resultados de los capítulos 2 y 3, se observó que las variables en las que más impacto tienen los fitogénicos, son las variables de comportamiento productivo y calidad de la carne. Por lo tanto, en el Capítulo 4 se presenta un metaanálisis que sintetiza de forma cuantitativa la información publicada entre enero de 2010 y junio de 2021 sobre los efectos de la suplementación dietética de taninos en el comportamiento productivo, la calidad de la carne y el estado antioxidante del suero sanguíneo de ovinos.

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# 2. EFFECTS OF DIETARY TANNINS' SUPPLEMENTATION ON GROWTH PERFORMANCE, RUMEN FERMENTATION, AND ENTERIC METHANE EMISSIONS IN BEEF CATTLE: A META-ANALYSIS

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# Effects of Dietary Tannins' Supplementation on Growth Performance, Rumen Fermentation, and Enteric Methane Emissions in Beef Cattle: A Meta-Analysis

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Abstract: The environmental sustainability of beef production is a significant concern within the food production system. Tannins (TANs) can be used to minimize the environmental impact of ruminant production because they can improve ruminal fermentation and ruminants' lifetime performances and mitigate methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of dietary supplementation with TANs as sustainable natural alternative to reduce the environmental impact on growth performance, rumen fermentation, enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and nitrogen (N) use efficiency of beef cattle through a meta-analysis. A comprehensive search of studies published in scientific journals that investigated the effects of TANs' supplementation on the variables of interest was performed using the Scopus, Web of Science, and PubMed databases. The data analyzed were extracted from 32 peer-reviewed publications. The effects of TANs were assessed using random-effects statistical models to examine the standardized mean difference (SMD) between TANs' treatments and control (non-TANs). The heterogeneity was explored by meta-regression and subgroup analysis was performed for the covariates that were significant. TANs' supplementation did not affect weight gain, feed consumption, feed efficiency, or N use efficiency (p > 0.05). However, it reduced the concentration of ammonia nitrogen in rumen (SMD = -0.508, p < 0.001), CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per day (SMD = -0.474, p < 0.01) and per unit dry matter intake (SMD = -0.408, p < 0.01), urinary N excretion (SMD = -0.338, p < 0.05), and dry matter digestibility (SMD = -0.589, p < 0.001). Ruminal propionate (SMD = 0.250) and butyrate (SMD = 0.198) concentrations and fecal N excretion (SMD = 0.860) improved in response to TANs' supplementation (p < 0.05). In conclusion, it is possible to use TANs as a CH4 mitigation strategy without affecting cattle growth rate. In addition, the shift from urinary to fecal N may be beneficial for environment preservation, as urinary N induces more harmful emissions than fecal N. Therefore, the addition of tannins in the diet of beef cattle could be used as a sustainable natural alternative to reduce the environmental impact of beef production.

Keywords: feed efficiency; bioactive compounds; climate change; meta-regression; sustainability



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#### 1 Introduction

Minimizing enteric methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions from ruminant production while improving feed conversion efficiency and growth rate is a goal for sustainable livestock production [1]. In addition, the nitrogen (N) excreted by ruminants is the main source of nitrous oxide (N<sub>2</sub>O) emissions in livestock systems [2] and can contribute to air and water pollution [3]. Therefore, strategies based on changing the composition and concentration of

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urinary compounds by diet manipulation could be considered potential options to mitigate urine  $N_2O$  emissions and consequently improve sustainability in ruminant production [4]. Among these strategies, dietary tannins' (TANs') supplementation has received special attention, particularly in ruminants [5]. TANs are a group of polyphenolic compounds that are present in a wide variety of plants and can have positive effects in animals, such as antimicrobial, antiparasitic, antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, and immunomodulatory [5]. According to Naumann et al. [6], TANs are generally classified based on their chemical structure into two groups: condensed tannins (CTs) and hydrolysable tannins (HTs). CTs consist of flavan-3-ol subunits linked together to form oligomers and polymers, whereas HTs are esters of gallic or ellagic acid linked to a polyol core [6].

In ruminants, previous studies [7–9] have shown that dietary supplementation with TANs improves the utilization efficiency of ingested feed. In addition, TANs have been successfully used to reduce enteric  $CH_4$  production, urinary N excretion, and  $N_2O$  emissions [7,10] and to increase the duodenal flux of microbial protein and amino acids [11]. TANs-rich plants and TANs' extracts have also shown positive impact on rumen microbial activity [12], ruminal fermentation rate [10], antioxidant status, and health of ruminants [13,14]. However, TANs can also reduce the digestion of protein in the rumen and the entire gastrointestinal tract [15]. Therefore, the intake of TANs in combination with a medium-poor quality diet (e.g., insufficient crude protein in the diet) may not generate nutritional benefits and is detrimental to performance ([6,8,15]. For example, some studies have reported negative effects of dietary supplementation with TANs on digestibility, productive performance, and ruminal fermentation [2,16], while other studies have not observed significant effects on digestibility, productive performance,  $CH_4$  emissions, and urinary and fecal nitrogen excretion in response to TAN supplementation [7,11,16].

Particularly, in beef cattle, several studies have been conducted to evaluate the effect of dietary supplementation with TANs on the growth performance [17,18], nutrient intake and digestibility [19,20], ruminal parameters [21,22], enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions [23,24], and urinary and fecal N excretion [17,21]. However, the results observed to date have been non-conclusive because their effects vary widely, even within the same plant species [14]. The variations in the chemical and botanical origin of TANs, processing methods, feeding conditions, physiological state of animals, and supplementation levels used are factors that could contribute to the variability of the effects observed in animals supplemented with TANs [5,14,25]. Therefore, identifying and controlling this variability is a key aspect in the development of TANs-containing products that can be used as feed additives to improve the sustainability of beef production.

Although some classical reviews [5,6,14,25] previously suggested that dietary supplementation with TANs can improve productivity and decrease enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production in ruminants, these studies did not use a meta-analytical approach and none focused only on beef cattle. Meta-analysis (MA) is a statistical tool that allows combining and synthesizing data published in different studies in a quantitative way [26–28]. In addition, MA can be used to explore sources of heterogeneity, which provides additional information on factors contributing to the variability of the observed results [29], and it also helps to identify potential areas for further research [26]. MA has been frequently used in clinical and biomedical research, but its implementation in animal science-related research is still limited [30]. The objective of this meta-analysis was to evaluate the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins as sustainable natural alternative to reduce the environmental impact on the growth performance, nutrient intake and digestibility, ruminal parameters, enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, and nitrogen use efficiency of beef cattle. In addition, we examined the heterogeneity of the responses by meta-regression analysis to identify factors contributing to the variability observed in the response variables.

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#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Literature Search and Study Selection

A comprehensive literature search in the scientific databases of Web of Science, Scopus, and PubMed was carried out to identify studies that investigated the effect of TANs' supplementation on growth performance, nutrient intake and digestibility, ruminal fermentation, and enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in beef cattle. In all databases, the keywords "tannin, chestnut, quebracho, leucaena, birdsfoot, lotus, sainfoin, onobrychis, sulla, hedysarum, proanthocyanidin, growth, digestibility, fermentation, methane, bull, steer and cattle" were used, among which were TANs and the most common TANs-containing plants [31]. A total of 613 scientific publications published between 2010 and 2020 were identified. These publications went through a two-step selection process, as previously described by Herremans et al. [31]. First, a selection was performed using titles and abstracts excluding in vitro and simulation studies, reviews, and articles that did not measure the variables of interest. Subsequently, to be considered, studies had to meet several inclusion criteria previously reported by other authors [31,32]: (1) studies on adult (male, weaned or older) and confined beef cattle; (2) data on growth performance, nutrient intake and digestibility, ruminal fermentation, urinary and fecal excretion, or in vivo CH4 emissions (measured with respirometry chambers, the sulfur hexafluoride "SF6" tracer technique, or the Green-Feed system (C-Lock Inc., Rapid City, SD, USA)); (3) similarity between control and experimental groups, except for the presence of TANs; (4) quantification or possible determination of dietary TANs' doses; (5) peer-reviewed journal articles written in English; (6) experimental design employed (rotating or continuous); (7) least squares means of the control and experimental groups with variability measures (standard error or standard deviation); and (8) sample size used.

#### 2.2. Data Extraction

Based on the selection criteria, only 32 articles were included in the database for the final analysis. The response variables extracted for the meta-analysis included daily weight gain, feed efficiency (determined as weight gain/feed intake (G:F), kg/kg), final body weight, intake and digestibility of dry matter (DM) and nutrients (organic matter, crude protein, ether extract, neutral detergent fiber digestibility, and acid detergent fiber digestibility), ruminal parameters (ruminal concentration of propionate, butyrate, acetate, total volatile fatty acids, ammonia nitrogen, and protozoa), in vivo CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (per day and per unit of dry matter intake), and urinary and fecal N excretion. Moreover, when available, additional data were collected, such as characteristics of the published study (author, year of publication), amount of forage in the diet (g/kg DM), source of chemical or botanical origin of TANs, experimental design used (rotational or continuous), period of TANs' supplementation (days), chemical composition of diet, number of replicates, type of TANs (CTs, HTs, or mixture of both), method of TANs' inclusion (extract or naturally present in the diet), and amount of TANs in the diet (g/kg DM). The references of the articles included in the data set are listed in Table A1 in Appendix A. Averages, standard deviation (SD), and number of repetitions for each treatment were extracted from these articles. When the articles presented the SD of each experimental group, these values were used directly in the meta-analysis. In cases where the SD was not reported, it was calculated by multiplying the standard error means (SEM) by the square root of the sample size, using the equation SD = SEM  $\times \sqrt{n}$ , as previously reported by Higgins and Thomas [33], where n = number of replicates.

#### 2.3. Calculations and Statistical Analysis

Regarding the data involved in the meta-analysis and meta-regression, these were analyzed using the Open Meta-analyst for Ecology and Evolution software [34] and the statistical software R (version 3.6.3) using the "metafor" package [35]. The response variables were analyzed through the standardized mean difference (SMD), also called effect size (ES), in which the difference between the means of the experimental and control groups

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was standardized using the SD of the groups with and without TANs [36]. The SMDs were calculated using the methods previously described by DerSimonian and Laird [37] for random effects models. The SMD is a more robust estimation of the ES when there is heterogeneity in the data set [38]. On the other hand, using the SAS statistical program [39], the chemical composition variables of the diets and the response parameters extracted were analyzed with the MEANS procedure to obtain descriptive statistics values. Differences in the composition of the diets of the control and TANs-supplemented treatments were evaluated by the MIXED procedure, using the studies as random effect and Tukey's test to detect differences between treatments, as previously reported by Torres et al. [40].

#### 2.4. Heterogeneity

Measurement of heterogeneity was performed using chi-square test (Q) and the  $I^2$  (percentage of variation) statistic [41]. Due to the relatively low power of the Q test to detect heterogeneity among a small number of treatment comparisons, an  $\alpha$  level of 0.10 was used [38,42].  $I^2$  values range from 0 to 100%. Values close to 25% indicate low heterogeneity, close to 50% indicate moderate heterogeneity, and close to 75% indicate high heterogeneity among studies [27,29]. Likewise,  $I^2$  values greater than 50% indicate significant heterogeneity [32].

#### 2.5. Publication Bias

According to Littell et al. [43], the visual inspection of funnel plots generally used to assess publication bias is subjective and must be balanced with additional analyses. Accordingly, three methods were used to assess evidence of publication bias: (1) the funnel plot [44], (2) Egger's regression asymmetry test [45], and (3) Begg's adjusted rank correlation [46]. A bias was considered to be present when the funnel plot showed asymmetry or when at least one of the statistical methods (Egger's test or Begg's test) was significant (p < 0.10). The tests to assess publication bias are inappropriate when significant heterogeneity (Q) is detected with an  $\alpha \leq 0.10$  and when the variable to be assessed is not reported in at least 10 studies because it may lead to false-positive claims [47]. Consequently, funnel plots, Egger's test, and Begg's test were only performed for variables that met the aforementioned criteria. In cases where statistical evidence of publication bias was found, the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie was used to estimate the number of possible missing observations [48].

#### 2.6. Meta-Regression

The sources of heterogeneity of parameters that showed an I<sup>2</sup> greater than 50% [27] or Q with an  $\alpha$  level of <0.10 [42] were evaluated by a meta-regression analysis. The meta-regression analysis was only performed for response variables that were reported in at least 10 studies [43]. Meta-regression was estimated using the DerSimonian and Laird method of moments, which is well established for estimating the variance between studies [27]. In the meta-regression, continuous and categorical variables were used. The continuous variables were TANs' doses (g/kg DM), difference of NDF content in the diets (g/kg DM), and duration of the experimental phase (days). The categorical variables were type of TANs (CTs, HTs, or mixture of both), source of botanical or chemical origin of the TANs, method by which the TANs were supplied (extract or as part of some dietary ingredient), animal's age (≤12 and >12 months old), and the experimental design used (rotational or continuous). When categorical co-variables were significant at an  $\alpha$  level of  $\leq 0.05$ , SMD was assessed by subgroup analysis. Likewise, when the meta-regression was significant ( $p \le 0.05$ ) for continuous co-variables, these were evaluated by subgroup analysis dividing the co-variables as follows: level of TANs' supplementation in the diet  $(\le 12 \text{ and } > 12 \text{ g/kg DM})$  and experimental period  $(\le 90 \text{ and } > 90 \text{ days})$ .

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#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Study Attributes and Excluded Studies

The online search using three databases of scientific publications from January 2010 to December 2020 returned a total of 613 publications (Figure S1). After exclusion of duplicate papers and selection of titles and abstracts, 46 full-text articles were evaluated. Of these, 32 articles met the inclusion criteria (Table A1) and were used to obtain quantitative data for meta-analysis.

The descriptive statistics and means test for diet composition are presented in Table 1. Except for NDF content, no significant differences were observed between the control and the TANs' treatment for the rest of the nutrient components of the diet (p > 0.05). This indicates that it is possible to exclude the effects of the chemical composition of the diets on the response of the animals to TANs' supplementation for the data set.

Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the complete data set for the effect of tannins' supplementation to beef cattle diets.

Parameter	NC	Me	an	Med	ian	Minir	num	Maxir	num	SD	
Dietary Features	NC	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin
Forage g/kg DM	105	506.9	509.1	498.0	425.0	50.0	30.0	1000	1000	358.9	372.5
DM, g/kg	80	647.8	645.7	700.0	702.5	256.0	256.0	927.0	928.0	211.7	210.5
OM, g/kg DM	50	927.5	928.3	936.0	936.4	835.1	835.8	953.0	953.0	30.24	30.10
CP, g/kg DM	105	124.4	129.0	132.5	134.5	30.10	30.10	204.0	205.0	40.60	36.46
EE, g/kg DM	61	38.31	39.52	32.10	35.50	17.50	17.50	61.0	61.0	13.98	13.68
NDF, g/kg DM	97	430.5 a	423.7 b	409.0	404.4	163.0	163.0	763.5	770.0	177.2	172.8
ADF, g/kg DM	73	259.1	259.7	226.5	224.5	82.10	82.10	468.5	487.0	117.7	120.2
Starch, g/kg DM	31	364.8	362.9	415.8	422.6	48.0	23.0	575.0	575.0	180.6	183.3
Ca, g/kg DM	41	6.18	6.33	5.55	6.15	5.30	5.30	7.50	7.50	0.836	0.792
P, g/kg DM	41	4.11	4.10	4.20	4.10	3.60	3.60	4.50	4.50	0.319	0.313
Tannin, g/kg DM	105	15	14.61	170	12.10	170	0.46	-	60		12.29
Duration, days	99	9	3	90	)	28	3	18	0	33	.38
			1	Extracted re	esponse pa	arameters					
FBW, kg	31	457.5	458.2	443.5	437	189.5	204.3	621	616	122.1	122.6
DMI, kg/d	73	8.357	8.136	8.20	7.84	3.80	3.60	12.60	12.76	2.267	2.456
OMI, kg/d	46	6.837	6.820	6.540	6.690	1.185	1.155	12.440	12.480	2.321	2.391
CPI, kg/d	26	0.828	0.957	0.705	0.990	0.194	0.167	2.090	2.200	0.513	0.494
EEI, kg/d	8	0.232	0.232	0.170	0.180	0.160	0.150	0.410	0.390	0.096	0.098
NDFI, kg/d	38	3.679	3.524	3.760	3.740	1.810	1.900	4.630	4.730	0.959	0.835
ADFI, kg/d	17	2.521	2.453	2.850	2.500	1.260	1.280	3.500	3.620	0.674	0.664
ADG, kg/d	37	1.258	1.273	1.370	1.320	0.018	0.120	2.080	2.140	0.589	0.545
FE, kg/kg	22	0.153	0.150	0.163	0.159	0.092	0.092	0.206	0.198	0.037	0.033
DMD, g/kg DM	49	622.0	594.3	628.0	601.9	411.9	428.5	810.5	797.7	77.57	95.08
OMD, g/kgDM	59	660.1	632.0	660.0	646.3	451.7	442.0	820.0	810.0	84.48	100.4
CPD, g/kg DM	43	571.6	541.2	679.0	635.0	276.2	79.57	767.6	770.9	183.9	226.1
EED, g/kg DM	23	689.4	679.4	713.0	699.0	447.0	435.0	857.3	891.0	112.7	116.7
NDFD, g/kg DM	47	561.4	534.9	576.0	518.1	385.0	405.0	771.0	776.9	90.11	80.54
ADFD, g/kg DM	24	494.1	415.4	532.0	413.6	403.0	219.1	549.1	561.0	54.72	88.33
Ruminal pH	57	6.637	6.621	6.700	6.680	5.810	5.890	7.190	7.430	0.337	0.356
NH3-N, mg/dL	57	11.25	10.59	10.63	8.16	2.48	1.73	30.40	36.50	6.338	7.673
Total VFA, mM	54	84.72	86.49	74.01	78.42	35.80	32.72	158	141	29.30	28.81
Acetate, % molar	54	60.39	60.67	67.80	66.09	31.42	38.41	74.10	74.40	11.54	10.41
Propionate, % molar	54	19.39	19.85	18.74	18.47	6.58	9.25	36.80	38.0	6.987	6.505
Butyrate, % molar	54	11.94	12.38	10.33	11.70	6.10	5.30	19.40	19.77	3.799	3.866
Protozoa, log10/mL	26	5.508	5.306	5.480	5.595	1.310	0.930	11.90	10.60	3.540	3.161
CH4, L/d	26	150.6	135.7	128.8	107.0	44.16	29.20	331.7	302.4	80.86	88.44
CH4, L/DMI	28	19.93	18.76	20.10	14.78	5.60	5.43	31.22	51.80	9.35	12.38

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Table 1. Cont.

Parameter Dietary Features		Mean		Median		Minimum		Maximum		SD	
	NC	Control	Tannin								
UNE, g/d	35	56.64	54.95	54.80	46.0	4.30	9.0	168.0	167.0	47.88	44.48
FNE, g/d	31	57.10	66.73	49.88	62.0	16.20	19.50	126.0	146.0	32.64	38.04
NUE. %	22	25.76	20.75	25.34	16.45	16.89	6.20	39.15	39.0	7.43	11.62

NC: number of comparisons; SD: standard deviation; DM: dry matter; OM: organic matter; CP: crude protein; EE: ether extract; NDF: neutral detergent fiber; ADF: acid detergent fiber; Ca: calcium; P: phosphorus; ADG: average daily gain; FE: feed efficiency; FBW: final body weight; DMI: DM intake; OMI: OM intake; CPI: CP intake; NDFI: NDF intake; ADFI: ADF intake; EEI: EE intake; DMD: DM digestibility; OMI: OM digestibility; CPD: CP digestibility; NDFD: NDF digestibility; ADFD: ADF digestibility; EED: EE digestibility; NH3-N: nitrogen ammonia; VFA: volatile fatty acids; CH4: methane; FE: determined as weight gain/feed intake (G:F), kg/kg; UNE: urinary nitrogen excretion; FNE: fecal nitrogen excretion; NUE: nitrogen use efficiency;  $^a$ ,  $^b$ : in the same row (only applies to dietary features), means followed by different letters differ significantly by the Tukey's test (p < 0.05).

The studies included in this meta-analysis were conducted in 10 different countries (Table A1). The experimental doses of TANs ranged from 0.46 to 60 g/kg DM, while the duration of the experimental periods varied from 28 to 180 days (Table 1). The TANs used were divided into CTs, HTs, and mixture of both. Of the treatments, 53.3% used CTs, 12.4% used HTs, and 34.3% used mixtures of CTs and HTs. On the other hand, 77% of the treatments used TANs' extracts in the diets, while 23% used parts of plants, forages, or subproducts that contained TANs in natural form (Table A1). Regarding TANs' sources, most of the treatments (34.3%) used TANs from quebracho tree (*Schinopsis spp.*), 19% used TANs from *Acacia mearnsii*, and 14.3% used TANs from pistachio tree (*Pistacia vera*). On the other hand, 32.4% of the treatments supplied TANs from chestnut tree (*Castanea sativa*), *Leucaena leucocephala*, tannic acid, and mixtures of these or other sources (Table A1).

#### 3.2. Growth Performance and Nutrient Intake

In general, no significant effects of TANs' inclusion in beef cattle diets were found (p > 0.05) for final body weight (FBW), dry matter intake (DMI), organic matter intake (OMI), crude protein intake (CPI), ether extract intake (EEI), neutral detergent fiber intake (NDFI), acid detergent fiber intake (ADFI), average daily gain (ADG), or feed efficiency (FE; Table 2). However, there was tendency in reduction of FE (p = 0.06).

Table 2. Growth performance and nutrient intake of beef cattle supplemented with tannins.

77 1 1 1		NG	CMD	C.F.	95% CI		v-Value	Heterogeneity		
Variable	N	NC	SMD	SE	Lower	Upper	p-value	Q	p-Value	I2 (%)
Final bodyweight	11	31	-0.041	0.102	-0.241	0.158	0.68	38.642	0.13	22.36
Dry matter intake	25	73	-0.010	0.078	-0.163	0.144	0.90	102.879	< 0.05	30.01
Organic matter intake	16	46	0.062	0.086	-0.106	0.230	0.47	22.526	0.99	0
Crude protein intake	9	26	0.321	0.171	-0.014	0.657	0.06	46.693	< 0.05	46.46
Ether extract intake	3	8	-0.026	0.241	-0.499	0.447	0.91	6.723	0.45	0
Neutral detergent fiber intake	14	38	-0.167	0.096	-0.355	0.022	0.08	20.042	0.99	0
Acid detergent fiber intake	6	17	-0.189	0.135	-0.453	0.075	0.16	4.241	0.99	0
Average daily gain	13	37	0.059	0.083	-0.104	0.222	0.47	35.49	0.49	0
Feed efficiency	7	22	-0.287	0.150	-0.581	0.007	0.06	43.045	< 0.05	51.21

N: number of studies; NC: number of comparisons; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval of SMD; SE: standard error; Q: chi-squared statistic and associated significance level (p-value); I<sup>2</sup>: percentage of variation.

#### 3.3. Digestibility, Ruminal Parameters, and Methane Emissions

There were no significant effects of TANs' inclusion in beef cattle diets (p > 0.05) for ether extract digestibility (EED), ruminal pH, ruminal concentration of total volatile fatty acids (VFA), acetate and protozoa, or for nitrogen use efficiency (NUE; Table 3). However, we observed a negative impact (p < 0.05) of TANs' inclusion in the diets on dry matter digestibility (DMD), organic matter digestibility (OMD), crude protein digestibility (CPD), neutral detergent fiber digestibility (NDFD), and acid detergent fiber digestibility (ADFD). On the other hand, rumen propionate, butyrate concentration, and fecal nitrogen excretion

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(FNE) increased (p < 0.05) in response to TANs' supplementation. We observed a positive impact (reduction) of TANs' inclusion (p < 0.05) in the diets for ruminal ammonia nitrogen concentration (NH<sub>3</sub>-N), urinary nitrogen excretion (UNE), and for enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions per day (MED) and per unit of dry matter intake (MEDMI; Table 3).

Table 3. Nutrient digestibility, rumen parameters, and enteric methane emissions of beef cattle supplemented with tannins.

		NG	CMD	C.F.	95%	95% CI		Heterogeneity			
Parameter	N	NC	SMD	SE	Lower	Upper	<i>p</i> -Value	Q	p-Value	I2 (%)	
Dry matter digestibility	17	49	-0.589	0.124	-0.833	-0.346	< 0.001	97.833	< 0.001	50.94	
Organic matter digestibility	21	59	-0.612	0.108	-0.825	-0.400	< 0.001	108.599	< 0.001	46.59	
Crude protein digestibility	15	43	-0.903	0.210	-1.315	-0.492	< 0.001	173.687	< 0.001	75.82	
Ether extract digestibility	8	23	-0.328	0.215	-0.750	0.094	0.12	61.615	< 0.001	64.29	
NDFD	18	47	-0.370	0.150	-0.644	-0.076	0.01	127.334	< 0.001	63.87	
ADFD	9	24	-0.716	0.151	-1.012	-0.419	< 0.001	37.107	< 0.05	38.02	
Ruminal pH	20	57	-0.171	0.099	-0.364	0.022	0.08	98.287	< 0.001	43.02	
Ruminal NH3-N	20	57	-0.508	0.128	-0.759	-0.258	< 0.001	148.223	< 0.001	62.22	
Total VFA	19	54	0.021	0.124	-0.223	0.265	0.86	139.359	< 0.001	61.97	
Acetate	19	54	0.041	0.115	-0.184	0.267	0.72	120.090	< 0.001	55.87	
Propionate	19	54	0.250	0.107	0.040	0.460	0.02	103.404	< 0.001	48.74	
Butyrate	19	54	0.198	0.079	0.042	0.354	0.01	61.204	0.20	13.40	
Protozoa	8	26	-0.745	0.397	-1.523	0.033	0.06	235.732	< 0.001	89.39	
Methane emissions/day	9	26	-0.474	0.155	-0.178	-0.171	0.002	50.007	< 0.05	48.01	
Methane emissions/unit of DMI	10	28	-0.408	0.155	-0.712	-0.105	0.008	56.848	< 0.001	52.50	
Urinary nitrogen excretion	12	35	-0.338	0.149	-0.630	-0.046	0.023	83.931	< 0.001	59.49	
Fecal nitrogen excretion	11	31	0.860	0.138	0.589	1.131	< 0.001	48.304	0.018	37.89	
Nitrogen use efficiency	8	22	-0.273	0.262	-0.786	0.239	0.296	75.726	< 0.001	72.27	

N: number of studies; NC: number of comparisons; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval of SMD; SE: standard error; Q: chi-squared statistic and associated significance level (p-value);  $I^2$ : percentage of variation; NDFD: neutral detergent fiber digestibility; ADFD: acid detergent fiber digestibility; NH<sub>3</sub>-N: ammonia nitrogen; VFA: volatile fatty acids; DMI: dry matter intake.

#### 3.4. Analysis of Publication Bias

The tests to assess publication bias are inappropriate when there is significant heterogeneity (Q) ( $p \le 0.10$ ) and when the variable to be assessed is not reported in at least 10 studies [47]. Therefore, this analysis was only performed for ADG, FBW, OMI, NDFI, and ruminal butyrate concentration. The visual inspection of the funnel plots showed presence of publication bias for all variables analyzed (Figures S2a, S3a, S4a, S5a and S6a). Egger's test showed publication bias for ADG, FBW, OMI, and NDFI (p < 0.05), but did not detect publication bias for butyrate (p = 0.87). On the other hand, Begg's test only detected publication bias for ADG and OMI (p < 0.05), while FBW, NDFI, and butyrate were not significant (p > 0.10). The trim-and-fill method indicated that the number of missing observations for ADG and FBW were seven and nine, respectively, both on the left side of the funnel plot (Figures S2b and S3b), whereas, for OMI, NDFI, and butyrate, the missing observations were 14, 7, and 13, respectively, all on the right side of the funnel plot (Figures S4b, S5b and S6b).

#### 3.5. Meta-Regression

Significant heterogeneity (Q) was observed for DMI, FE (p < 0.05; Table 2), DMD, OMD, CPD, EED, NDFD, ADFD, ruminal pH, ruminal NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration, total VFA, acetate, propionate and protozoa, MED, and MEDMI, as well as for UNE and FNE (p < 0.001; Table 3). Although significant heterogeneity existed, it is not advisable to use meta-regression when there are fewer than 10 studies that reported the response variable of interest [43]. Consequently, this analysis was only performed for the variables DMI, DMD,

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OMD, CPD, NDFD, ruminal pH, ruminal concentration of NH<sub>3</sub>-N, total VFA, acetate and propionate, MEDMI, and UNE as well as for the FNE.

Except for age, there was no significant relationship (p > 0.05) between DMI and the moderators used (level of supplementation, period of supplementation, type of TANs, method of TANs' supply, source of botanical or chemical origin of TANs, NDF content in the diet, and experimental design). The dose of TANs supplied in the diets explained 63.4, 69.1, 25.8, 33.4, 17.2, and 31.7% of the observed heterogeneity for DMD, OMD, NDFD, ruminal acetate and propionate concentration, and FNE, respectively (p < 0.05). The period of TANs' supplementation only had a significant relationship (p < 0.05) with the MEDMI, explaining only 21.95% of the observed heterogeneity. The type of TANs explained (p < 0.05) only 7.25, 7.16, 19.5, 6.7, and 17.4% of the observed heterogeneity in CPD, NDFD, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, total VFA, and UNE, respectively. A significant relationship (p < 0.05) was observed between CPD and MEDMI with the method of inclusion of TANs in the diet (extract or naturally present in plant parts), where the inclusion method explained 14.5, 23.2, 70.3, and 84.85% of the observed heterogeneity in CPD, MEDMI, UNE, and FNE, respectively. The source of botanical or chemical origin of TANs explained (p < 0.05) 48.7, 13.3, 83.7, 17.3, 18, 61, 82.3, and 100% of the heterogeneity observed in CPD, NDFD, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, total VFA, propionate, MEDMI, UNE, and FNE, respectively. A significant relationship (p < 0.05) was observed between CPD and MEDMI with the NDF content of the diets, where variation in NDF content explained 16 and 48.8% of the heterogeneity observed in CPD and MEDMI, respectively. The experimental design used (rotating or continuous) explained (p < 0.05) 19.8, 42, 29.7, 48.2, and 33.1% of the observed heterogeneity for DMD, OMD, NDFD, ruminal pH, and MEDMI, respectively. The age ( $\leq$ 12 and >12 months old) explained (p < 0.05) 31.4, 100, 49.7, 55.1, and 79.7% of the heterogeneity observed in DMI, CPD, ruminal pH, NH<sub>3</sub>-N, and total VFA, respectively.

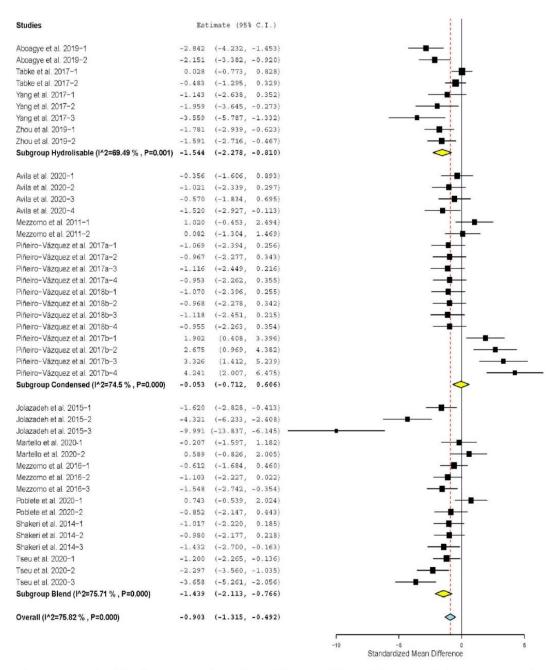
#### 3.6. Subgroup Analysis

Regarding the type of TANs, supplementation with HTs and mixture of CTs with HTs decreased CPD (p < 0.001), while there was no change in CPD in animals supplemented with CTs (p > 0.05; Figure 1). NDFD decreased (SMD = -0.633; p < 0.001) in beef cattle supplemented with CTs, but there was no change in NDFD with supplementation of HTs and mixture of CTs with HTs (p > 0.05; Figure S7). Ruminal NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration decreased (p < 0.001) with supplementation of HTs (SMD = -0.980) and mixture of CTs with HTs (SMD = -0.582). However, NH<sub>3</sub>-N was not affected in animals supplemented with CTs (p > 0.05; Figure S8). The ruminal concentration of total VFA increased in study animals using CTs (SMD = 0.253; p = 0.04) but decreased when using HTs (SMD = -0.491; p = 0.03). No significant changes in ruminal concentration of total VFA were observed in study animals using mixtures of CTs and HTs (p > 0.05; Figure 2). UNE decreased with supplementation of HTs and mixture of CTs (SMD = -0.445; p = 0.03 with HTs (SMD = -0.900; p < 0.001). However, UNE was not affected in animals supplemented with CTs (SMD = -0.338; p > 0.05).

With respect to the source of botanical or chemical origin of the TANs, Figure 3 shows that, except for plant mixtures, all TANs' sources modified CPD (p < 0.05; Figure 3).

Figure 4 shows that NDFD decreased (p < 0.05) only when TANs came from *Acacia mearnsii* and quebracho. Ruminal NH3-N concentration was not affected by TANs when they came from a mixture of plants (p > 0.05). However, it increased when the TANs came from *Leucaena leucocephala* (SMD = 76.47; p < 0.001) and decreased in studies using *Acacia mearnsii*, quebracho, chestnut, pistachio, and tannic acid as a source of TANs (p < 0.05; Figure S9).

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**Figure 1.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of tannin type on crude protein digestibility (CPD) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction of total CPD, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in total CPD concentration.

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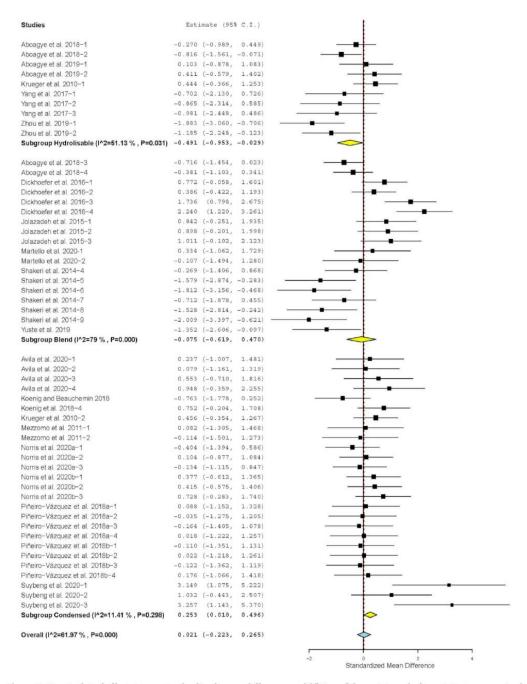
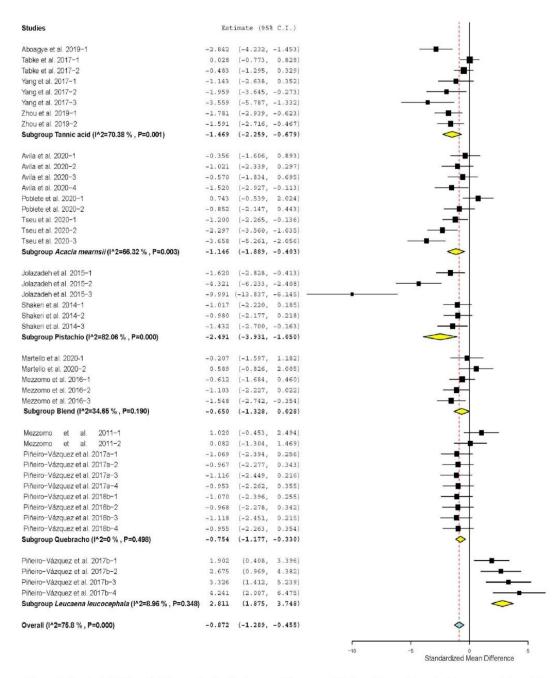


Figure 2. Forest plot of effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of tannin type on ruminal concentration of total volatile fatty acids (VFA) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction of total VFA, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in total VFA concentration.

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**Figure 3.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of chemical or botanical origin of tannin on crude protein digestibility (CPD) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduced CPD, while points to the right of the line indicate increased CPD.

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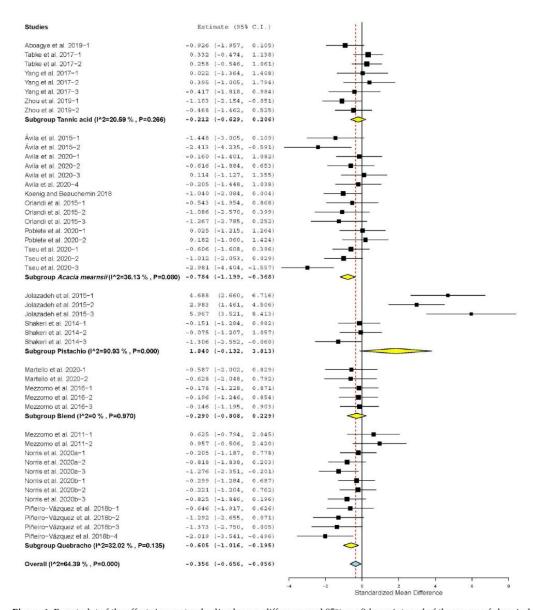


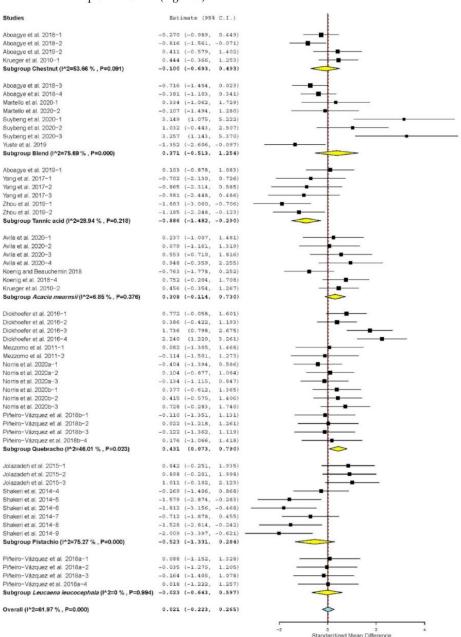
Figure 4. Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of chemical or botanical origin of tannin on neutral detergent fiber digestibility (NDFD) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduced NDFD, while points to the right of the line indicate increased NDFD.

Supplementation with TANs decreased the concentration of total VFA in ruminal liquid when tannic acid was the source of chemical origin of the TANs (SMD = -0886; p = 0.004). On the other hand, the ruminal concentration of total VFA increased (SMD = 0.431; p = 0.018) when quebracho was used as the source of TANs (Figure 5).

Dietary supplementation with TANs increased ruminal propionate concentration only when TANs were obtained from quebracho tree and pistachio (p < 0.001), while ruminal

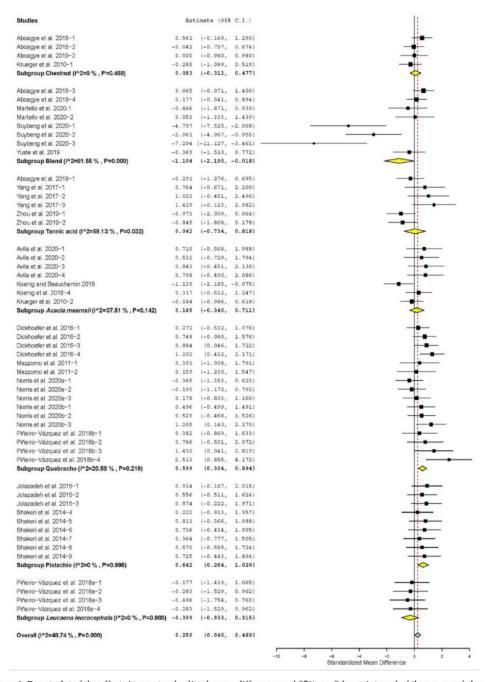
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propionate concentration was reduced (SMD = -1.104; p = 0.046) when TANs were from plant mixtures (Figure 6).



**Figure 5.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of chemical or botanical origin of tannin on ruminal concentration of total volatile fatty acids (VFA) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction in ruminal concentration of total VFA, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in total VFA.

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**Figure 6.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of chemical or botanical origin of tannin on ruminal propionate concentration in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction of ruminal propionate, while points to the right of the line indicate increase of propionate.

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Dietary supplementation with TANs significantly reduced MEDMI only in animals from studies using tannic acid and *Leucaena leucocephala* as a source of TANs (p < 0.001; Figure 7).

Figure 8 shows that UNE decreased (p < 0.05) only when TANs came from chestnut, *Acacia mearnsii*, quebracho, and *Leucaena leucocephala* (p < 0.05). However, when TANs were supplied as a part of the diet ingredients, FNE was not affected (SMD = -0.368; p > 0.05). However, UNE was not affected by TANs when they came from a mixture of plants (p > 0.05). On the other hand, FNE was not affected by TANs when they came from a mixture of plants and *Leucaena leucocephala* (p > 0.05). However, it increased (p < 0.001) when the TANs came from *Acacia mearnsii* and quebracho (Figure 9).

With respect to the method by which TANs were included in the diets, CPD decreased when TANs were added to the diets in the form of extracts (SMD = -1.199; p < 0.001). However, when TANs were contained in the ingredients of the diets, CPD was not affected (p = 0.179; Figure S10). MEDMI decreased significantly when TANs were supplied as part of the diet ingredients (SMD = -0.982; p < 0.001); however, when TANs were added to the diets in the form of extracts, MEDMI was not affected (p > 0.05; Figure 10). UNE decreased when TANs were added to the diets in the form of extracts (SMD = -0.558; p < 0.001). However, UNE increased when TANs were contained in the ingredients of the diets (SMD = 2.078; p < 0.001). On the other hand, UFE increased significantly when TANs were added to the diets in the form of extracts (SMD = p < 0.001); however, when TANs were supplied as a part of the diet ingredients, FNE was not affected (SMD = -0.368; p > 0.05).

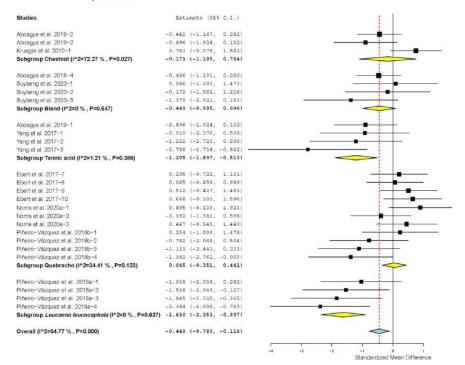


Figure 7. Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical or chemical origin of tannin on enteric methane emissions per unit dry matter intake (MEDMI) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction in MEDMI, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in MEDMI.

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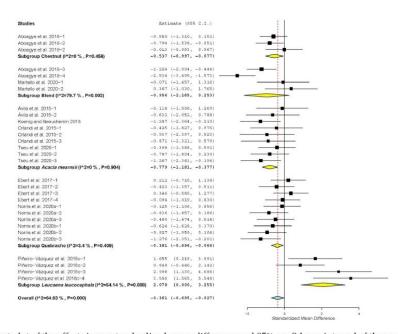
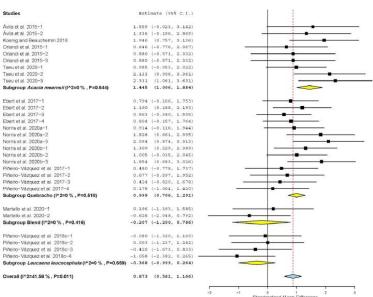


Figure 8. Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical or chemical origin of tannin on urine nitrogen excretion (UNE) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction in UNE, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in UNE.



**Figure 9.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical or chemical origin of tannin on fecal nitrogen excretion (FNE) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction in FNE, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in FNE.

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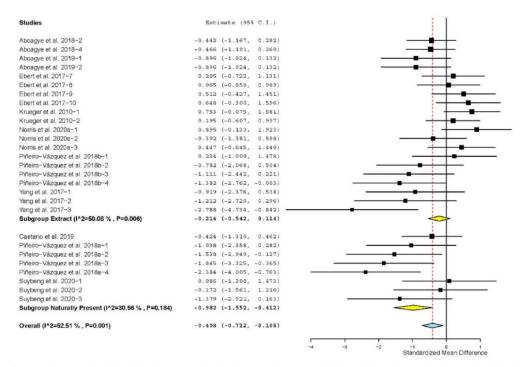


Figure 10. Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the tannin inclusion method on enteric methane emissions per unit dry matter intake (MEDMI) in beef cattle. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical line represent reduction in MEDMI, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in MEDMI.

Regardless of TANs' supplementation, animals from studies that used rotational experimental designs (i.e., Latin squares and crossover designs) had lower DMD (SMD = -0.765; p < 0.001), while no differences were observed regarding DMD in animals from studies that used continuous experimental designs (i.e., completely randomized and randomized blocks designs; p > 0.05). OMD decreased in animals from studies that used rotating experimental designs (SMD = -0.856; p < 0.001), while no difference was observed in DMD in animals from studies that used continuous experimental designs (p > 0.05). Studies that used rotating experimental designs had lower NDFD (SMD = -0.704; p < 0.001); however, NDFD was not affected in animals from studies that used continuous experimental designs (p > 0.05). Ruminal pH was not affected by the type of experimental design used (p > 0.05). MEDMI decreased in animals from studies that used rotating experimental designs (SMD = -0.836; p < 0.001), while no differences were observed with respect to MEDMI in animals from studies that used continuous experimental designs (p > 0.05).

Regarding the level of TANs' supplementation, animals in studies using doses greater than 12 g/kg DM showed lower DMD (SMD = -0.917; p < 0.001), while no differences were observed in DMD in animals in studies using doses lower than 12 g/kg DM (p > 0.05). OMD was lower in animals supplemented with doses of TANs higher than 12 g/kg DM (SMD = -0.976; p < 0.001), but doses lower than 12 g did not change OMD (p > 0.05). Studies using TANs' doses higher than 12 g/kg DM had lower NDFD (SMD = -0.775; p < 0.001); however, NDFD was not affected when TANs' doses lower than 12 g/kg DM were used (p > 0.05). The concentration of acetate in the ruminal fluid increased in animals from studies that used TANs' doses lower than 12 g/kg DM (SMD = 0.387; p = 0.038), while there was no effect when more than 12 g TANs were used (p > 0.05). Animals in studies that

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used TANs' doses higher than 12 g/kg DM showed higher rumen propionate concentration (SMD = 0.319; p = 0.010), whereas TANs' doses lower than 12 g/kg DM did not change rumen propionate concentration (p > 0.05). FNE increased significantly regardless of the dose of TANs used; however, the effect was greater (SMD = 1.119; p < 0.001) when doses greater than 12 g/kg DM were used compared to doses of less than 12 g/kg DM (SMD = 0.482; p < 0.01).

Regarding the period of supplementation with TANs, it was observed that the MEDMI decreased in the animals of studies that used experimental periods ranging from 90 to 180 days (SMD = -0.793; p = 0.002). However, when the supplementation period was shorter (less than 90 days), MEDMI was not affected (p > 0.05).

Regarding the age, animals younger than 12 months old showed lower DMI (SMD = -1.249; p < 0.05), while no differences were observed in DMI for animals older than 12 months (SMD = 0.104; p > 0.05). CPD was lower in animals younger than 12 months old (SMD = -1.090; p < 0.001), but animals older than 12 months old did not change (SMD = 0.201; p > 0.05). Ruminal pH was lower in animals older than 12 months old (SMD = -0.767; p < 0.05), while no differences were observed in ruminal pH for animals younger than 12 months old (SMD = 0.154; p > 0.05). Ruminal concentration of NH<sub>3</sub>-N decreased in animals younger than 12 months old (SMD = -0.745; p < 0.05), while there was no effect in animals older than 12 months old (SMD = -0.030; p > 0.05). The ruminal concentration of total VFA increased in animals older than 12 months old (SMD = -1.245; p < 0.001).

#### 4. Discussion

The environmental sustainability of beef production is a significant concern within the food production system [49]. Current literature suggests that TANs can be supplemented to improve the sustainability of both dairy and beef cattle by reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and enhancing animal performance [1,25]. In ruminants, some studies suggest that dietary supplementation with TANs increases duodenal amino acid flux [11], reduces enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production [7,10], and improves the rumen microbial activity [50]. Consequently, it was expected that beef cattle supplemented with TANs in the diet would have higher growth rate. However, the present meta-analysis showed that ADG and FBW were not affected by dietary supplementation with TANs. A positive relationship exists between improved productivity and both environmental and economic sustainability [49]. This suggests that TANs do not affect growth rate or environmental or economic sustainability in beef cattle. Nevertheless, these results should be interpreted carefully considering that both variables were subject to publication bias. Similar to our results, a meta-analysis conducted by Méndez-Ortiz et al. [51] showed that CTs' intake did not affect significantly the weight gain of growing lambs.

There is considerable interest in improved feed efficiency as a means of augmenting the economic and environmental sustainability of beef production systems [52]. It has been reported that dietary inclusion of TANs reduces ruminal protein degradation, resulting in higher efficiency of nitrogen utilization [5,25]. On the other hand, enteric CH4 emissions represent losses of 2–12% of energy intake in ruminants [53]. In the present meta-analysis, the values observed for ruminal NH3-N concentration and CH4 emissions indicated a reduction in ruminal protein degradation and enteric CH4 emissions. This could be associated with higher efficiency of protein utilization and energy consumed. However, these effects did not modify the feed efficiency. This suggests that TANs do not affect either environmental or economic sustainability in beef cattle.

Some review articles have hypothesized that the presence of TANs in the diet may negatively affect feed intake in ruminants due to their astringent nature [5,54]. However, in the present meta-analysis, no changes in DM or nutrient intake were observed in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. Such absence probably occurred because the average dose of TANs used was 14.6 g/kg DM and the negative effects of TANs on the intake seem to occur with doses higher than 50 g/kg DM [6]. Similar to our results, two

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previously conducted meta-analyses reported that dietary supplementation with TANs at average concentrations of 46.3 and 9.5 g/kg DM did not affect significantly the feed intake of growing lambs and dairy cows in production, respectively [31,51]. These results together suggest that TANs can be used in beef cattle and other ruminants during their different productive stages without negative effects on feed intake.

With respect to total tract digestibility, dietary supplementation with TANs reduced the digestibility of DM and the dietary nutrients. Similar to our results, a meta-analysis conducted by Herremans et al. [31] reported that dietary supplementation with TANs at average doses of 9.5 g/kg DM reduced the digestibility of DM and dietary nutrients in dairy cows. However, in their study they observed that it does not affect the milk production and its composition. The rumen microbial activity and the endogenous digestive enzyme activity can be affected when large amounts of TANs are present in the diet [5], resulting in lower nutrient digestibility [6]. Additionally, the reduction and/or elimination of rumen protozoa leads to lower NDFD and ADFD [55]. In the present meta-analysis, the rumen protozoa were not significantly affected by dietary supplementation with TANs, although the population was reduced by 3.7% (p = 0.06). This would partially explain the lower NDFD and ADFD observed in TANs-supplemented animals. In addition, it has been reported that TANs can have negative effects on fibrolytic bacteria in the rumen [56], which would also partly explain the lower NDFD and ADFD observed. On the other hand, the lower CPD observed in the response of dietary supplementation with TANs could be explained due to an excessive ruminal protection of TANs on the protein in the diets [5].

The type of TANs used only explained about 7% of the observed heterogeneity in nutrient digestibility, while the TANs' dose explained between 25 and 69%. An analysis of subgroups revealed that DMD, OMD, and NDFD were affected only when the used dose exceeded 12 g/kg DM, but doses lower than 12 g/kg DM had no significant impact. These results confirm the hypothesis of Aboagye and Beauchemin [25], who suggested that the impact of TANs in ruminants depends on the dose of TANs in the diet rather than the type of TANs used.

Regarding the TANs' source, it explained between 13 and 48% of the heterogeneity observed for CPD and NDFD. Although most of the TANs' sources used by the studies included in our investigation reduced CPD, CPD improved when *Leucaena leucocephala* was used as TANs' source. This result, together with the higher ruminal concentration of NH<sub>3</sub>-N observed in the studies using *L. leucephala*, suggests that TANs from this plant have low capacity for binding to rumen proteins, similar to what has been previously observed in CTs from other plants [57]. It is suggested that TANs with higher molecular weight have a greater capacity to bind to other molecules [21]. Although it has previously been reported that *L. leucocephala* contains CTs with higher molecular weight [58], it is suggested that the molecular weight of CTs is not the only factor influencing the binding capacity of TANs to the proteins.

Ruminants are inefficient animals for converting the ingested protein into animal product because a large part of this protein is lost as NH<sub>3</sub>-N in the rumen [54]. In the present meta-analysis, dietary supplementation with TANs reduced rumen NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration, indicating a lower protein degradability in the rumen due to the presence of TANs. However, TANs did not influence ADG, FBW, or FE, probably because CPD also decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. Consequently, the beef cattle seem not to better use the protein ingested even in the presence of TANs in the diet. Similar to our results, a meta-analysis by Herremans et al. [31] reported that dietary supplementation with TANs reduced NH<sub>3</sub>-N ruminal concentration in dairy cows. However, it did not improve the nitrogen utilization efficiency. Furthermore, a meta-analysis of 15 in vivo and 15 in vitro studies showed that NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration decreased when increasing TANs' levels in ruminant diets [59]. The free TANs can bind to the soluble protein in the diet and consequently reduce the NH<sub>3</sub>-N ruminal concentration [25]. This is to be expected and would partially explain the results observed in this and other studies. However, NH<sub>3</sub>-N ruminal concentration also appears to decrease when ruminal protozoa are reduced or elim-

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inated [60]. Consequently, in our investigation, the lower NH<sub>3</sub>-N ruminal concentration could be associated with the 3.7% reduction observed in the rumen protozoan population.

Supplementation with TANs did not alter the ruminal concentration of total VFA. However, it did improve the concentrations of propionate and butyrate, but this last response variable was subject to publication bias, making it difficult to interpret. The absence of significant changes in ruminal concentration of total VFA can be considered desirable when it is accompanied by a reduction in enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions [61], as observed in our meta-analysis. Similar to our results, Dai and Faciola [62] reported that dietary supplementation with TANs improved ruminal concentration of propionate and butyrate in large and small ruminants and also reduced CH<sub>4</sub> production. Because there is a negative correlation between propionate and CH<sub>4</sub> production due to the competition for hydrogen [63], the increase in ruminal concentration of propionate observed in our investigation could be associated with the reduction in enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions observed in response to TANs' supplementation.

The type, dose, and source of TANs explained between 6 and 34% of the sources of heterogeneity observed in the ruminal concentration of acetate, propionate, and total VFA. This confirms the hypothesis that the effects of TANs on ruminal fermentation may vary according to the source, dose, and type of TANs supplied in the diets [25]. The subgroup analysis revealed that the ruminal concentration of total VFA increased significantly when CTs were used. However, the ruminal concentration of total VFA only improved significantly when the CTs came from the quebracho tree. This could be related to differences in the molecular weight of the CTs contained in the different sources, since in vitro studies have shown that CTs with different molecular weight can act differently on rumen microbial populations [64,65].

Previous studies have reported that TANs from *Leucaena leucocephala* can reduce the rumen protozoan population [64,66]. However, the mechanisms of action through which these and other TANs act on rumen protozoa are still unknown [67]. Although, in our meta-analysis, the rumen protozoa decreased 3.7% in response to dietary supplementation with TANs, this effect was insignificant, perhaps because only 7.6% of the included studies used *L. leucocephala* as a source of TANs. Similar to our results, a meta-analysis conducted by Jayanegara et al. [59] reported that inclusion of TANs in ruminant diets did not affect counts of protozoa in rumen fluid under in vivo and in vitro conditions. Similarly, Dai and Faciola [62] also did not observe significant effects of dietary supplementation with TANs on the rumen protozoan population in small and large ruminants.

Enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production represents approximately 43% of the greenhouse gases emitted in beef production worldwide [68]. To ensure sustainable livestock production, it is necessary to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions [25]. It has been suggested that TANs can be used to minimize the environmental impact of ruminant production because they can improve ruminal fermentation and mitigate CH<sub>4</sub> emissions [69]. Some studies have reported that TANs decrease rumen methanogenesis directly by reducing methanogenic bacteria populations [63,66,70]. However, often the effects of TANs on CH<sub>4</sub> reduction are more indirect than direct [71]. For example, Fagundes et al. [23] reported that enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from beef cattle decreased in response to dietary supplementation with CTs. However, they attributed the CH<sub>4</sub> reduction to a decrease in feed intake rather than to direct effects of CTs on rumen methanogenic archaea. In addition, some review articles have suggested that enteric CH<sub>4</sub> production may vary depending on the type, dose, and source of TANs employed in the diet [14,25]. However, in our meta-analysis MEDMI was only affected by the source of TANs. This suggests that TANs could improve the environmental sustainability of beef production regardless of the type and dose of TANs used, similar to what has been previously observed in small ruminant production [15].

The period of supplementation with TANs could also contribute to the variability of its effects on methanogenesis [50]. One of the most important problems with the use of phytochemicals in ruminants is the adaptation of ruminal microorganisms to their effects after long periods of supplementation [72]. For example, some essential oils seem to be

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more effective in reducing CH<sub>4</sub> production when used for short periods. However, they lose effectiveness over time [40]. In the present meta-analysis, the period of supplementation showed inconsistent effects on MEDMI. In short-term studies (less than 90 days), the reduction in MEDMI was small (SMD = -0.141) but increased (SMD = -0.791) in animals used in long-term studies (91 to 180 days). These results suggest that in beef cattle, ruminal microorganisms related to CH<sub>4</sub> production are not able to adapt to the effects of TANs, even during long periods of supplementation. Similar results were previously reported by Salami et al. [56] in lambs supplemented with different sources of CTs (*Castanea sativa* and *Caesalpinia spinosa*) and HTs (*Acacia negra* and *Uncaria gambir*) during long periods. In their investigation, they observed that all TANs' sources had specific antimicrobial activity against methanogenic bacteria and ruminal protozoa during the whole experimental phase.

Since the content and composition of TANs in plants are highly variable and can be affected by various factors, it has been suggested to use extracts to supply TANs to ruminant diets [25]. About 77% of the studies included in the present meta-analysis used TANs extracts. Nevertheless, the reduction of MEDMI was greater and less heterogeneous when animals were supplied with TANs-rich plants than when extracts were used.

Although most of the studies (34%) included in the present meta-analysis used TANs from quebracho tree, the subgroup analysis revealed that the MEDMI decreased significantly only in response to the use of *Leucaena leucocephala* and tannic acid as TANs' sources. According to Huang et al. [58], *L. leucocephala* contains high-molecular-weight CTs, which varies between 2737 and 2872 Da. On the other hand, tannic acid, although it is a typical HT [5,73], has a molecular weight of 1701 Da [74], which is higher than the weight of 939 Da reported for quebracho tree CTs [75]. TANs with a high molecular weight act better than those with a low molecular weight in suppressing ruminal protozoa populations [64], which are correlated with CH<sub>4</sub> emissions by the equation: methane (g/kg dry matter intake) =  $-30.7 + 8.14 \times \text{protozoa}$  (log10 cells/mL) [76]. Consequently, the use of *L. leucocephala*, tannic acid, and other high-molecular-weight TANs' sources could have a greater impact on reducing enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions compared to other widely studied TANs (e.g., quebracho).

According to Nichols et al. [77], beef cattle production plays an important role in the N cycle as beef cattle excrete up to 80% of the consumed dietary N through urine and feces, and urinary N accounts for approximately 60-80% of the total N excretion [78]. In the present meta-analysis, no changes in NUE were observed in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. However, the observed values for UNE and FNE indicated a reduction in UNE and an increase in FNE, respectively. Similar to our results, a metaanalysis conducted by Herremans et al. [31] reported that dietary supplementation with TANs reduced UNE (-11%) and increased FNE (+10%) without affecting NUE in dairy cows. According to Singh et al. [79], the excreted N might be lost through nitrate (NO<sub>3</sub>) leaching, emissions of N2O, and emissions from ammonia volatilization. Compared with feces, urine could rapidly supply available mineral N for nitrification and denitrification through hydrolysis of urea, leading to higher N2O emissions [80], which has a global warming potential over a 100-year period of 298 times greater than that of carbon dioxide [2]. Therefore, strategies based on changing the composition and concentration of urinary compounds by diet manipulation could be considered potential options to mitigate N2O emissions from urine [4]. Consequently, the shift from urinary to fecal N observed in this study may be beneficial for environment preservation, as urinary N induces more harmful emissions than fecal N.

#### 5. Conclusions

One of the most significant findings to emerge from this study is that the environmental impact of beef production systems can be markedly reduced when tannins are included in the diet. The results of the present meta-analysis indicate that TANs reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions in beef cattle, particularly when they are supplied naturally as ingredients in the diet, when they are supplemented for long periods, or when *Leucaena leucocephala* and

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tannic acid are used as sources of these secondary metabolites. In addition, the shift from urinary to fecal N observed in this study may be beneficial for environment preservation, as urinary N induces more harmful emissions than fecal N. Therefore, the addition of tannins in the diet of beef cattle could be used as a sustainable natural alternative to reduce the environmental impact of beef production without affecting the economic sustainability. However, several issues need to be addressed before specific recommendations for commercial use of TANs to reduce environmental impact.

Our meta-analysis demonstrates that TANs' supplementation does not affect weight gain, feed intake, or feed efficiency in beef cattle, but reduces diet digestibility at doses above 12 g/kg DM. In addition, TANs' supplementation improves ruminal fermentation characteristics by reducing ruminal NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration and increasing rumen propionate and butyrate concentration. The best result in ruminal propionate and NH<sub>3</sub>-N concentration is achieved using TANs from pistachio and HTs, respectively.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at https://www.mdpi.com/article/10 .3390/su13137410/s1. Figure S1: Flow chart of paper selection process. Figure S2: (a) Funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins (TANs) on average daily gain (ADG); (b) funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with TANs on ADG obtained using the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie. Figure S3: (a) Funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins (TANs) on final body weight (FBW); (b) funnel plot of dietary supplementation with TANs on FBW obtained using the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie. Figure S4: (a) Funnel plot of the effect of dietary tannins' supplementation (TANs) on organic matter intake (OMI); (b) funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with TANs on OMI obtained using the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie. Figure S5: (a) Funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins (TANs) on neutral detergent fiber intake (NDFI); (b) funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with TANs on NDFI obtained using the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie. Figure S6: (a) Funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins (TANs) on rumen butyrate concentration; (b) funnel plot of the effect of dietary supplementation with TANs on the ruminal concentration of butyrate obtained using the trim-and-fill method of Duval and Tweedie. Figure S7: Forest plot of effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of tannins type on neutral detergent fiber digestibility (NDFD) in beef cattle. Figure S8: Forest plot of effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of tannins type on ruminal ammonia nitrogen (NH3-N) concentration in beef cattle. Figure S9: Forest plot of effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the chemical or botanical source of tannins on ruminal ammonia nitrogen (NH3-N) concentration in beef cattle. Figure S10: Forest plot of effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of tannins' inclusion method on crude protein digestibility (CPD) in beef cattle.

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#### Appendix A

Table A1. Summary of the studies included in the meta-analysis.

Author	Country	Tannin Source	Tannin Type	Method of Inclusion
Aboagye et al. [17]	Canada	CH, CH, BL, BL	HT, HT, BL, BL	E, E, E, E
Aboagye et al. [21]	Canada	TA, CH	HT, HT	E, E
Ávila et al. [81]	Brazil	AM, AM	CT, CT	E, E
Avila et al. [20]	Brazil	AM, AM, AM	CT, CT, CT	E, E, E
Caetano et al. [82]	Australia	Grape	CT	NAT
Dickhoefer et al. [83]	Germany	QU, QU, QU, QU	BL, BL, BL, BL	E, E, E, E
Ebert et al. [84]	US	QU (n = 10)	CT (n = 10)	E(n = 10)
Jolazadeh et al. [85]	Iran	PIST, PIST, PIST	BL, BL, BL	E, E, E
Koenig and Beauchemin [86]	Canada	AM	CT	E
Koenig et al. [87]	Canada	AM, AM, AM, AM	CT, CT, CT, CT	E, E, E, E
Krueger et al. [88]	US	CH, AM	HT, CT	E, E
Martello et al. [89]	Brazil	BL, BL	BL, BL	E, E
Mezzomo et al. [90]	Brazil	QU, QU	CT, CT	E, E
Mezzomo et al. [91]	Brazil	BL, BL, BL	BL, BL, BL	E, E, E
Norris et al. [22]	US	QU, QU, QU	CT, CT, CT	E, E, E
Norris et al. [92]	US	QU, QU, QU	CT, CT, CT	E, E, E
Orlandi et al. [11]	Brazil	AM, AM, AM	BL, BL, BL	E, E, E
Piñeiro-Vázquez et al. [19]	Mexico	QU, QU, QU, QU	CT, CT, CT, CT	E, E, E, E
Piñeiro-Vázquez et al. [93]	Mexico	LEU, LEU, LEU, LEU	CT, CT, CT, CT	N, N, N, N
Piñeiro-Vázquez et al. [94]	Mexico	QU, QU, QU, QU	CT, CT, CT, CT	E, E, E, E
Piñeiro-Vázquez et al. [95]	Mexico	LEU, LEU, LEU, LEU	CT, CT, CT, CT	N, N, N, N
Poblete et al. [96]	Philippines	AM, AM	BL, BL	E, E
Rivera-Méndez et al. [97]	Mexico	QU, QU	CT, CT	E, E
Rivera-Méndez et al. [18]	Mexico	QU(n = 4), $CH$ , $BL$	CT (n = 4), HT, BL	E, E, E, E, E, E
Shakeri et al. [98]	Iran	PIST, PIST, PIST	BL, BL, BL	N, N, N
Shakeri et al. [99]	Iran	PIST (n = 9)	BL(n = 9)	N(n = 9)
Suybeng et al. [24]	Australia	BL, BL, BL	CT, CT, CT	N, N, N
Tabke et al. [100]	US	TA, TA	HT, HT	E, E
Tseu et al. [101]	Brazil	AM, AM, AM	BL, BL, BL	E, E, E
Yang et al. [73]	China	TA, TA, TA	HT, HT, HT	E, E, E
Yuste et al. [102]	Spain	BL	BL	E
Zhou et al. [103]	China	TA, TA	HT, HT	E, E

CH: chestnut (Castanea sativa); BL: blend; TA: tannic acid; AM: Acacia mearnsii; QU: quebracho (Schinopsis spp.); PIST: pistachio (Pistacia vera); LEU: Leucaena leucocephala; n: number of comparisons; HT: hydrolysable tannin; CT: condensed tannin; E: extract; N: naturally present.

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# 3. PRODUCTIVE PERFORMANCE, CARCASS TRAITS, AND MEAT QUALITY IN FINISHING LAMBS SUPPLEMENTED WITH A POLYHERBAL MIXTURE

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Article

## Productive Performance, Carcass Traits, and Meat Quality in Finishing Lambs Supplemented with a Polyherbal Mixture

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**Abstract:** The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of dietary supplementation of a polyherbal mixture (HM) containing saponins, flavonoids, and polysaccharides on productive performance, carcass characteristics and meat quality of lambs during the final fattening period. Thirty-six Dorper  $\times$  Katahdin lambs (23.27  $\pm$  1.23 kg body weight (BW)) were housed in individual pens and were assigned to four treatments (n=9) with different doses of HM: 0 (CON), 1 (HM1), 2 (HM2) and 3 (HM3) g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM for 56 days. Data were analysed as a completely randomized design using the MIXED and GLM procedures of statistical analysis system (SAS), and linear and quadratic effects were tested to evaluate the effects of the HM level. DM digestibility decreased in lambs fed HM3 (p < 0.05). There was no effect of HM on daily weight gain, dry matter intake, final BW, feed conversion, carcass characteristics, colour (L\* and a\*) and meat chemical composition. Meat pH, cooking loss and drip loss increased linearly (p < 0.05) when the HM dose was increased. The Warner-Bratzler shear force (WBSF) of meat was lower (p < 0.05) in lambs fed HM3. In conclusion, dietary inclusion of 3 g HM kg $^1$  of DM improves meat tenderness. However, high doses of HM in the diet may decrease the digestibility of DM and increase the cooking loss and drip loss of lamb meat during the final fattening period.

Keywords: fattening lamb; saponins; bioactive compounds; mutton tenderness

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#### 1. Introduction

Antibiotics have been commonly used as growth promoters in animals. However, the emergence of bacteria resistant to these drugs has led to the search for alternative products with similar effects to antibiotics, but of natural origin [1]. Dietary supplementation with herbal products seems to be a promising strategy to improve the productive performance, carcass characteristics and meat quality of small ruminants [2]. Some polyherbal mixtures (HM) prepared with medicinal plants have shown positive effects on productive performance, meat and carcass quality characteristics of steers and lambs during the final fattening period [3–5]. On the other hand, in calves, it has been reported that the use of HM can improve growth and health status during the pre-ruminant period until weaning by modifying gene expression [6]. However, the effects of bioactive compounds (for example, saponins and flavonoids) of HM in biological systems, may depend on the efficiency of their absorption and extensive metabolic transformation [7].

Previous studies [8,9] have shown that some plants containing saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides can improve antioxidant status, ruminal fermentation, immune response and productive performance in sheep. Likewise, some HM containing saponins,

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flavonoids and tannins have been shown to have a positive impact on nutrient utilization efficiency in goats [10]. Other products containing saponins have shown positive impact on energy metabolism and on the duodenal flux of amino acids [11], ruminal fermentation rate [12,13], rumen microbial populations [14], and production of volatile fatty acids [12–14]. Similarly, flavonoids can modulate the ruminal microbiome, improve rumen fermentation and metabolic status to improve the productive performance and health of ruminants [15]. Some HM containing flavonoids have shown positive impact on antioxidant status [7], and ruminal microbial populations of lambs [16]. In addition, flavonoid supplementation modifies the expression of genes in the rumen epithelium that could be related to inflammation and animal behaviour modulation [17].

Some plant parts containing saponins have also been used to improve the meat quality of adult goats and kids [18,19]. However, there is limited information on the effects of plants or HM containing saponins, flavonoids, and polysaccharides on the productivity, carcass characteristics, and meat quality of lambs. The botanical origin, the dose, and the composition of the diet used can influence the biological response that saponins have on ruminants [20]. Although, the effects of using saponins in ruminant feed have been investigated in animals fed diets containing a high proportion of forage [11,13]; information on the effects of these bioactive metabolites in ruminants fed high concentrate diet is limited and inconsistent [19,21]. Some saponin extracts improve ruminal fermentation and increase the efficiency of energy use in the animals, which could result in better productive performance [11]. However, the effects of saponins on ruminal fermentation may differ depending on the ruminal pH [22], which varies according to the dietary level of concentrate. Due to the beneficial effects of herbal products and their secondary metabolites, it has been hypothesized that supplementation with HM as a source of saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides can contribute to improving the productivity of the lambs during the final fattening period, without affecting the quality of the meat or the characteristics of the carcass. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of increasing doses of an HM containing saponins, flavonoids, and polysaccharides on the productive performance, carcass characteristics, and meat quality of lambs fed high-concentrate diets.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Location

The experiment was conducted at the Teaching and Research Unit of Small Ruminants located at the Experimental Farm of the Universidad Autónoma Chapingo, Mexico, which is located at 19°22′ north latitude and 98°35′ west longitude, with an altitude of 2250 m. The climate is temperate subhumid, with rain during the summer and dry during the winter, with average annual precipitation and temperatures of 665 mm and 15.2 °C, respectively [23]. The study was conducted during the summer, under hot and rainy conditions. The care and handling procedures for the lambs were carried out following the guidelines of the Official Mexican Standard (NOM-062-ZOO-1995).

#### 2.2. Polyherbal Mixture Characteristics

The HM used was Peptasan<sup>®</sup> (Nuproxa S. de RL. de CV. Querétaro, México), which is a commercial polyherbal formula labelled to contain 150 g kg<sup>-1</sup> of saponins. In addition, Peptasan<sup>®</sup> is composed of parts from the *Saccharum officinarum*, *Balanites roxburghi* and *Acacia concinna* plants. *S. officinarum* contains polysaccharides with immunostimulating effects [24]; *B. roxburghii* contains saponins and flavonoids with antioxidant, anti-inflammatory, antimicrobial and antiviral properties [25]; and *A. concinna* contains saponins with immunomodulatory properties [26].

#### 2.3. Diet Composition

HM was fed to the lambs through diets formulated to have weight gains of  $300 \, g \, d^{-1}$  [27]. HM (1, 2 or 3 g kg $^{-1}$  of diet DM basis) was premixed with minor ingredients (vitamin and mineral supplement, limestone and salt) before incorporation into complete mixed

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diets. The lambs were fed a finishing diet (total mixed ration) comprised 30.3% ground corn, 24.1% ground sorghum, 8.1% soybean meal, 7.1% wheat bran, 7.4% corn gluten, 2.3% bypass fat, 19.4% oat straw, 0.5% vitamin and mineral supplement, 0.5% salt, and 0.3% limestone (DM basis). Oat straw was ground in a hammer mill (Azteca 20, Molinos Azteca, Guadalajara, México) with a 3.8 cm screen before incorporation into total mixed ration. The nutrient composition of the basal diet was 15.53% crude protein, 2.58% ether extract, 13.57% acid detergent fiber, 26.14% neutral detergent fiber, 5.47% ash and 2.8 Mcal of metabolizable energy according to NRC [27] DM basis.

#### 2.4. Animals and Experimental Design

Thirty-six male Dorper  $\times$  Katahdin lambs (23.27  $\pm$  1.23 kg BW, 4–5 months old) were randomly distributed in four treatments: (1) basal diet without HM (CON); (2) HM1, CON + 1 g of HM kg<sup>-1</sup> dry matter (DM); (3) HM2, CON + 2 g of HM kg<sup>-1</sup> DM; and (4) HM3, CON + 3 g of HM  $kg^{-1}$  DM. The lambs were placed in individual pens  $(2.6 \text{ m} \times 0.8 \text{ m})$  equipped with automatic drinkers and individual feeders. Prior to the start of the experimental phase, lambs were vaccinated against Clostridium and Pasteurella (2.5 mL lamb<sup>-1</sup>, Bobact<sup>®</sup> 8 MSD-Merck, Kenilworth, NJ, USA), and dewormed through an oral administration of Koptisin ovine<sup>®</sup> (10 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> BW, Chinoin, Labs, Mexico City, Mexico). Additionally, 1 mL lamb<sup>-1</sup> of vitamins containing 500,000 IU of vitamin A, 75,500 IU of vitamin D and 50 mg of vitamin E (Vigantol® Bayer, Mexico City, Mexico) was provided on day 1 of the adaptation period. The lambs had an adaptation period to the basal diet of 14 days, and the experimental phase lasted 56 days. During the adaptation period, the lambs received oat straw as a ruminal pH buffer, and the experimental diets were administered at increasing levels (20, 40, 60, 80 and 100% of the total ration) for 14 days (3 days per level, except for 100%), until the oat straw was reduced to 0%. The feed was provided at 09:00 and 17:00 h, and the drinking water was supplied ad libitum. Individual BW was recorded before the morning feeding on days 1, 14, 28, 42 and 56, of the experimental phase. The amount of diet offered and refused was recorded daily to estimate dry matter intake (DMI, kg d<sup>-1</sup>). The amount of feed offered was always 10% higher than the previous intake to ensure ad libitum intake. Daily weight gain (DWG,  $kg d^{-1}$ ) was calculated between feeding period intervals. The feed conversion ratio (FCR) was expressed as feed consumption per unit of body weight gain. Figure 1 shows the experimental procedure.

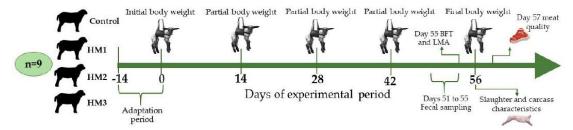


Figure 1. Completely randomized design and sampling times of lambs supplemented with a polyherbal mixture (HM) during the final fattening period; n = 9—indicate the number of animals sampled in each treatment; Control—basal diet without HM; HM1—basal diet + 1 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of dry matter (DM); HM2—basal diet + 2 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM; HM3—basal diet + 3 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM; BFT—backfat thickness; LMA—longissimus muscle area.

#### 2.5. Sampling and Analyses of Feeds

Samples of feed provided and rejected were collected daily to determine the chemical composition. Prior to the analysis, the food samples were dried at 55 °C in a forced air oven and then ground in a Wiley mill (model 4, Arthur Thomas Co. Philadelphia, PA, USA). The variables determined were dry matter, crude protein, ether extract and ash [28]. Acid

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detergent fibre and neutral detergent fibre was determined using the procedures described by Van Soest et al. [29].

#### 2.6. Apparent Dry Matter Digestibility

Faecal samples were collected from each animal during five consecutive days (in the morning at 08:00 a.m. and in the afternoon at 16:00 p.m. before feed delivery) starting on day 51, directly from the rectum [5]. Feed and orts were collected daily during the same period. Acid-insoluble ash was employed as a marker of internal tract digestibility to analyse the apparent total tract DM digestibility [30].

#### 2.7. Carcass Characteristics

The *longissimus* muscle area (LMA) and the backfat thickness (BFT) located between the 12th and 13th ribs of the lamb were measured on day 55 of the experiment using a Sonovet 600 (Medison, Inc., Cypress, CA, USA) with a 7.5 Mhz transducer [31]. After the last weighing (day 56 of the experiment) the lambs were fasted for 18 h before being slaughtered. All lambs were slaughtered on the same day. The slaughter process was conducted in a commercial slaughterhouse in accordance with standard procedures of the Official Mexican Standard (NOM-033-SAG/ZOO-2014). Lambs were stunned (captive bolt), exsanguinated and skinned. Immediately after the slaughter, the hot carcass weight was registered (HCW). The hot carcass yield (HCY) was determined through HCY = (HCW/FBW) \* 100, as it was described by Zimerman et al. [32]. In addition, the skin, head, legs, testicles, rumen (empty), liver, spleen, kidneys, heart, lungs, small intestine (empty), and large intestine (empty) were each weighed separately.

#### 2.8. Meat Quality

After 1 h post-mortem, the right *Longissimus thoracis* (LT) muscle between the 7th and 11th ribs was removed from the carcass with a scalpel and used for pH, colour, Warner-Bratzler shear force (WBSF), chemical composition, drip loss and cooking loss analysis. Samples of LT muscle (approximately 600 g) were collected from the carcass and then frozen at  $-20\,^{\circ}\mathrm{C}$  for a subsequent meat quality analysis.

Prior to the analysis of cooking losses (CL) and Warner-Bratzler shear force (WBSF), the samples were thawed for 24 h at 4 °C in a cooler protected from drafts and the meat samples were analysed in triplicate. CL was determined according by Vazquez-Mendoza et al. [33]; for this purpose, fillets with 2.5 cm thick were roasted on a grill (Toastmaster cool-edgegrill, Macon, MO, USA) until they reached an internal temperature of 70 °C, which was monitored with a thermometer (Brannan & Sons, Cleator Moor, Cumbria, UK). When the temperature reached 70 °C, the fillets were removed from the grill and allowed to cool to room temperature (20-25 °C). To calculate the percentage of CL, each fillet was weighed before and after the procedure (weight of raw meat-weight of cooked meat)/weight of raw meat ×100), as it was described by Vazquez-Mendoza et al. [33]. In order to measure the WBSF, 2.5 cm thick meat fillets (three per lamb) were cooked at 70 °C using the CL method, as sited above. WBSF was measuring using an Instron® universal testing machine (model 1132, Instron, Canton, MA, USA) with a Warner-Bratzler accessory [34]. Meat colour was determined on cuts of the longissimus dorsi muscle 24 h after slaughter using a Minolta CM-2006d spectrophotometer (Konica model, Minolta Holdings Inc., Osaka, Japan). Lightness (L\*), redness (a\*) and yellowness (b\*) as meat quality attributes were evaluated using the procedure described by Miltenburg et al. [35]. With the values of a\* and b\*, the Chroma (C\*) and Hue (H\*) indices were calculated using the equations: Chroma =  $(a^* 2 + b^* 2)^{0.5}$  and Hue =  $\tan^{-1}$  (b\*/a\*) × 57.29 both expressed in degrees [36]. Colour coordinate values were obtained using the average of three measurements of colour for each sample. Meat pH was measured following the procedure described by Negrete et al. [37]. This was measured in triplicate on 3 g of longissimus dorsi muscle homogenized in 20 mL of deionized water using a blender Waring 51BL32 (model 700, Torrington, CT, USA), and using a Hanna® pH meter (Model HI 98127, Waterproof Tester, Woonsocket, RI, USA). Drip loss value was calculated Agriculture 2021, 11, 942 5 of 13

as weight loss of the fresh meat sample (90 g) placed in a plastic bag after storage for 24 h at 4 °C. Drip loss was determined in triplicate as percentage of water released from fresh muscle [38].

Prior to the proximate analysis of meat, the samples were thawed for 24 h at 4 °C. The subcutaneous fat and connective tissue were separated from the muscle using a scalpel, and the meat was ground and homogenized for 5 min with a mixer. Meat samples were analysed in triplicate to determine the moisture, lipid, protein and ash content as a percentage of the muscle sample following AOAC procedures [28].

#### 2.9. Statistical Analysis

All statistical analyses were performed using the SAS statistical program [39]. First, it was performed the normality test on all variables using the UNIVARIATE procedure. BW, DMI, DWG and FCR data were analysed for each period with a completely randomized design with repeated measures over time, using the MIXED procedure. Initially, initial BW was included as a covariate to adjust the variables DWG, DMI and final BW. However, this covariate was removed from the model because it was not significant (p > 0.05). Different variance–covariance structures were verified to fit the statistical model, and the compound symmetry structure showed the best fit according to the criteria of the lowest values of BIC and AIC [40]. The full statistical model used was:

$$Y_{iik} = \mu + T_i + P_i + (T \times P)_{ii} + A_k + e_{iik}$$
 (1)

where  $Y_{ijk}$  represents the value measured at period j and treatment i for the lamb k,  $\mu$  represents the overall mean,  $T_i$  represents the fixed effect of HM treatments (i = 1, 2, 3, 4),  $P_j$  represents the fixed effect of the period within four feeding periods (j = period 1: 1–14, period 2: 15–28, period 3: 29–42 and period 4: 43–56 d),  $(T \times P)_{ij}$  represents the fixed effect of interaction between treatment and period,  $A_k$  represents the random effect of lambs provided different diets (k = 1, 2, 3, ... 36), and  $e_{ijk}$  represents the random residual error.

On the other hand, data on carcass characteristics, animal organs and meat quality were analysed using the GLM procedure. Each lamb was considered an experimental unit. Initially, final BW was included as a covariate to adjust all variables (carcass characteristics, organs and meat quality). However, this covariate was removed from the model because it was not significant (p > 0.05). The statistical model used was:  $Y_{ijk} = \mu + T_i + e_{ij}$ , in which  $\mu$  is the mean value,  $T_i$  is the treatment effect (fixed), and  $e_{ii}$  is the error term.

Linear and quadratic orthogonal polynomials were used to evaluate the effects of HM level on all variables evaluated. Means of treatments were compared using the Tukey test, and significant differences were considered when  $p \le 0.05$ . In addition, a trend was considered when p > 0.05 and  $\le 0.10$ .

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Productive Performance and Digestibility

Final body weight (FBW) was not affected by treatments (Table 1). For dry matter intake (DMI), no significant differences were found among the treatments during the experimental period. On the other hand, DWG showed a tendency of linear decrease (p = 0.06), and the lambs that were supplemented with HM3 performed lower than the lambs fed with the other diets. However, the feed conversion ratio was not affected by the level of HM added to the diet. On the other hand, the dry matter digestibility (DMD) decreased linearly (p = 0.03) as the dose of HM in the diet increased. The lowest digestibility of DM was observed in lambs fed HM3 diet (Table 1).

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**Table 1.** Productive performance of lambs supplemented with a polyherbal mixture <sup>1</sup> during the final fattening period.

				<i>p</i> -Value			
Parameter	CON	HM1	HM2	НМ3	EEM	Linear	Quadratic
Initial body weight (IBW) kg	23.15	23.45	22.93	23.55	1.233	0.90	0.90
Final body weight (FBW) kg	41.93	39.88	40.13	38.80	1.608	0.21	0.82
Dry matter intake (DMI) kg d <sup>-1</sup>	1.161	1.083	1.059	1.034	0.056	0.12	0.64
Daily weight gain (DWG) kg d <sup>-1</sup>	0.335 *	0.293	0.307	0.272 *	0.020	0.06	0.85
Feed conversion ratio (FCR) DMI/DWG	3.49	3.74	3.54	3.91	0.196	0.23	0.76
Dry matter Digestibility (DMD) %	75.71 <sup>a</sup>	74.72 ab	72.31 ab	70.39 b	1.528	0.03	0.76

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Peptasan® based on *Saccharum officinarum*, *Balanites roxburghi and*, *Acacia concinna*. CON—basal diet without polyherbal mixture (HM); HM1—basal diet + 1 g of HM kg<sup>-1</sup> of DM; HM2—basal diet + 2 g of HM kg<sup>-1</sup> of DM; HM3—basal diet + 3 g of HM kg<sup>-1</sup> of DM; EEM—standard error of the treatment means; <sup>a,b</sup>—means within a row with different subscripts differ when  $p \le 0.05$ ; \*—indicates a tendency.

#### 3.2. Carcass Traits

No differences were observed in hot carcass weight, hot carcass yield, backfat thickness, *longissimus dorsi* muscle area, weight of internal organs (empty rumen, small intestine, large intestine, lungs and trachea, heart, liver, kidneys, spleen), nor in the weight of testicles, skin, feet and head by the effect of supplementation with the HM (Table 2).

Table 2. Carcass traits and organ weights of lambs supplemented with a polyherbal mixture 1 during the final fattening period.

			Treatment			p-	Value
Parameter	CON	HM1	HM2	НМ3	EEM	Linear	Quadratic
Hot carcass weight kg	20.73	19.43	19.38	18.88	0.757	0.11	0.22
Hot carcass yield %	49.47	48.72	48.28	48.95	0.767	0.57	0.54
Backfat thickness mm	3.00	3.11	3.00	3.11	0.114	0.67	0.99
Muscle area longissimus dorsi cm <sup>2</sup>	11.24	10.90	10.92	10.66	0.312	0.22	0.90
Rumen (empty) kg	1.188	1.152	1.134	1.139	0.047	0.43	0.47
Small intestine (empty) kg	0.882	0.839	0.896	0.913	0.046	0.47	0.34
Large intestine (empty) kg	1.046	1.042	1.024	1.045	0.053	0.93	0.86
Lungs and Trachea kg	0.699	0.686	0.679	0.638	0.040	0.30	0.41
Heart kg	0.198	0.172	0.176	0.192	0.009	0.74	0.92
Liver, kg	0.823	0.842	0.839	0.800	0.034	0.64	0.71
Kidneys kg	0.337	0.352	0.328	0.316	0.019	0.31	0.24
Spleen kg	0.076	0.079	0.083	0.078	0.006	0.70	0.60
Testicles kg	0.690	0.717	0.718	0.634	0.055	0.50	0.62
Skin kg	2.914	2.718	2.834	2.527	0.159	0.15	0.40
Feet kg	0.882	0.824	0.833	0.807	0.041	0.25	0.44
Head kg	1.967	2.025	1.986	1.937	0.072	0.69	0.64

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Peptasan<sup>®</sup> based on *Saccharum officinarum, Balanites roxburghi* and, *Acacia concinna*. CON—basal diet without polyherbal mixture (HM); HM1—basal diet + 1 g of HM kg<sup>−1</sup> of DM; HM2—basal diet + 2 g of HM kg<sup>−1</sup> of DM; HM3—basal diet + 3 g of HM kg<sup>−1</sup> of DM; EEM—standard error of the treatment means.

#### 3.3. Meat Quality

Meat pH, cooking loss and drip loss increased linearly (p < 0.05) as the dose of HM in the diet increased (Table 3). The WBSF of meat decreased linearly as the level of HM in the diet increased (p = 0.02). On the other hand, no significant changes were observed in meat colour variables, with the exception of yellowness (b\*), which decreased as dietary HM dose increased (p = 0.04). The chemical composition (moisture, protein, fat and ash) of the meat was not affected by the dose of HM in the diet.

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**Table 3.** Meat characteristics of lambs supplemented with a polyherbal mixture <sup>1</sup> during the final fattening period.

			Treatment			p-	Value
Parameter	CON	HM1	HM2	НМ3	EEM	Linear	Quadratic
Meat pH (24 h)	5.50 ab	5.36 b	5.69 a	5.84 a	0.14	0.04	0.32
WBSF kg cm <sup>-2</sup>	6.47 a	6.29 a	5.53 ab	4.73 b	0.57	0.02	0.58
Cooking loss (%)	16.89	18.72	19.28	20.13	1.09	0.04	0.65
Dripp loss (%)	3.55 b	4.07 ab	4.84 a	4.81 a	0.38	0.01	0.48
Lightness $(L^*)$	36.22	36.20	33.45	34.77	1.27	0.22	0.60
Redness (a*)	9.23	8.45	9.05	9.23	0.44	0.75	0.28
Yellowness $(b^*)$	10.28 a	9.11 b	9.45 ab	8.73 b	0.45	0.04	0.62
Chroma	13.87	12.46	13.12	12.74	0.51	0.25	0.33
Hue °	47.81 a	47.12 ab	46.48 ab	43.40 b	1.65	0.07	0.47
Moisture, g $100 \mathrm{g}^{-1}$	73.70	73.69	73.69	73.58	0.48	0.97	0.99
Crude protein, g 100 g <sup>-1</sup>	20.38	20.47	20.59	20.48	0.38	0.94	0.88
Fat, g 100 g <sup>-1</sup>	2.45	2.46	2.45	2.49	0.07	0.99	0.98
Ash, g $100  \text{g}^{-1}$	1.34	1.33	1.33	1.32	0.03	0.82	0.98

 $<sup>^1</sup>$  Peptasan $^{\oplus}$  based on Saccharum officinarum, Balanites roxburghi and, Acacia concinna. WBSF—Warner-Bratzler shear force; CON—basal diet without polyherbal mixture (HM); HM1—basal diet + 1 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM; HM2—basal diet + 2 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM; HM3—basal diet + 3 g of HM kg $^{-1}$  of DM; EEM—standard error of the treatment means; a,b—means within a row with different subscripts differ when  $p \leq 0.05$ .

#### 4. Discussion

Some plants containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids have shown positive effects on antioxidant capacity and immune status in ruminants [8,41]. In addition, saponins have been reported to improve the energy utilization efficiency and increase the duodenal flux of amino acids and microbial protein [11]. Consequently, lambs supplemented with herbal products containing saponins, polysaccharides, and flavonoids would be expected to have higher growth rates. However, although in our study FBW and DWG were not affected by HM, a linear reduction trend was observed in DWG of lambs fed the HM3 diet, which could be a consequence of the lower dry matter digestibility observed with HM3. This suggests that high doses of HM in the diet could affect the growth rate of lambs when it is used for prolonged periods. Similar results were previously reported by Liu et al. [42] in lambs supplemented with Medicago sativa saponin extracts (0, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM for 90 days); and by Nasri et al. [43] who examined the effects of increasing doses of Quillaja saponaria saponin extracts (0, 30, 60 and 90 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DM for 57 days) in lambs fed high concentrate diets. In the latter investigation, BW and DWG was similar among treatments, regardless of the dose of saponins used. In another study, Wang et al. [9] investigated the effects of supplementing lambs with Astragalus membranaceus roots (0, 20, 50 and  $80~{\rm g~kg^{-1}~DM}$  for  $56~{\rm days}$ ) containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids. In that study, BW was not affected, but DWG was higher in the treatments supplemented with Astragalus membranaceus, perhaps as a consequence of the beneficial effects that the saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides of the plant had on the antioxidant and immune status, and on the serum concentration of growth hormone in the animals.

Some plants containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids increase the relative abundance of fibre-degrading bacteria in the rumen [41]. This could result in higher fibre and feed digestibility and could also increase ruminal passage rate and dry matter intake. However, in our study, DMI was similar among lambs of all treatments during the experimental period. Although HM could increase the rate of passage, saponins are natural surfactant glycosides, which may have a bitter and astringent taste for animals [44]. This can cause low palatability of the diet, which would partially explain the absence of changes observed in DMI. In a similar study, Liu et al. [42] investigated the effects of extracts of *Medicago sativa* saponins (0, 0.5, 1, 2 and 4 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM for 90 days) on the productive performance of lambs. In that study, DMI increased linearly as the dose of saponins in the diet increased. This suggests that the lambs are able to adapt to consume saponins, but this adaptation could require long periods of supplementation.

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Some plant-extracted saponins have shown promising effects on improving feed utilization efficiency because they can suppress enteric methane emissions through direct effects on ruminal microorganisms [12,14]. In the present study, FCR was similar among treatments, suggesting that HM did not affect feed utilization efficiency. The absence of significant changes in FCR could be explained by the fact that DMI and DWG were also not affected by the treatments. Similar results were previously reported by Mandal et al. [18] in goats supplemented with 5 g d $^{-1}$  of *Acacia concinna* pods for 90 days, and by Liu et al. [42] in lambs supplemented with alfalfa saponin extracts (0.5, 1, 2 and 4 g kg $^{-1}$  DM for 90 days). In their study, they observed that FCR was similar among treatments, even though feed digestibility was higher in lambs supplemented with saponins.

Previous studies have reported that digestion and utilization of nutrients in the diet of ruminants could be improved by dietary supplementation of saponins [12,45], and plants containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids [41]. However, in our study, a negative effect of HM on DM digestibility was observed. Similar results were previously reported by Nasri et al. [43] in lambs supplemented with saponin extracts from *Quillaja saponaria* at dietary concentrations of 30, 60 and 90 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DM; and by Nasehi et al. [21] in lambs supplemented with increasing doses (0, 6.1, 8.7 and 11.3 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM) of saponins from the green tea plant (*Camellia sinensis*). Their results showed that saponins reduced the digestibility of DM of the lambs but did not affect their productive performance.

Regarding carcass characteristics, HCW and HCY were not affected by dietary supplementation of HM. No information is available on the effects of HM containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids on sheep or goat carcass characteristics. However, results that are congruent with our findings were previously reported by Nasri et al. [43] on lambs supplemented with increasing doses of saponin extracts from *Quillaja saponaria* (0, 30, 60 and 90 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DM for 57 days); and by Abdallah et al. [46] on sheep supplemented with 10 and 15% dried *Astragalus membranaceus* roots containing saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides. Their results showed that HCW and HCY were not affected by dietary supplementation of saponins, and neither were they affected by the mixture of saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids from *Astragalus membranaceus*. The limited information on the effects of HM on ruminant carcass characteristics makes it difficult to explain the results observed in this and other studies. However, the similarity of BFT in the carcass of lambs from all treatments may partially explain the absence of changes in HCY in the present study.

BFT and LMA were also not affected by the HM dietary supplementation. The mechanism of action of herbal products and their bioactive compounds on lipogenesis has not been studied in lambs [4]. However, Liang et al. [47] observed that, in beef cattle fed with high-grain rations, supplementation of flavonoid extracts in the diet increased BFT through changes in the differential expression of genes involved in lipid metabolism. In the present study BFT was not affected by the inclusion of HM in the diet, even though it contains parts of the plant *Balanites roxburghii*, which contains flavonoids [25]. This suggests that the effects of flavonoids on BFT are dependent on botanical origin. Given that fat deposition, physical and chemical carcass characteristics of lambs are influenced by breed, sex, age and weight [48,49], the homogeneity of these characteristics in the lambs used in the present study partially explains the absence of changes in LMA and BFT.

Regarding the internal and external organs of lambs, similar results were previously reported by Hundal et al. [19] in goats supplemented with 2% of *Macrotyloma uniflorum* seeds containing saponins; and by Abdallah et al. [46] in sheep supplemented with 10 and 15% of *Astragalus membranaceus* roots containing saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides. They observed that the weight of the kidneys on sheep supplemented with the highest dose of saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides from *A. membranaceus* was higher than that on sheep from the other treatments, but there was no effect on the other internal organs. Information on the effects of herbal products or their bioactive compounds on the size and weight of internal organs in ruminants is still limited, which makes it difficult to explain the results observed in this study. However, differences in the internal organs of sheep are

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influenced by the breed, sex and age of the animals [50], and by the feeding regime [51]. In the present study all these factors were controlled, which would partially explain the absence of significant changes.

The lowest pH of the meat was observed in the lambs with the HM1 treatment, while in the animals of the other treatments the pH was similar, within the normal range of 5.5 to 5.8 suggested by Sañudo et al. [52]. Abdallah et al. [46] did not observe pH changes in the meat of lambs supplemented with 10 and 15% *Astragalus membranaceus* roots containing saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides. In another study, Nasri et al. [43] also did not observe pH changes in the meat of lambs supplemented with saponin extracts from *Quillaja saponaria* at concentrations of 30, 60 and 90 mg kg<sup>-1</sup> DM. However, it was observed that the pH of the meat in lambs of all treatments was below the normal range, similar to what was observed in our study with the HM1 treatment. Therefore, the effects of HM on the pH of the meat observed in the present study could be related to the presence of bioactive compounds. The pH is important for preserving meat during storage. A low pH has a bacteriostatic effect, while a pH above the normal range favours the growth of proteolytic microorganisms [53,54]. This suggests that supplementation of low doses of HM in the diet could promote favourable bacteriostatic effects in lamb meat, and thus increase its shelf life.

Ponnampalam et al. [55] mentioned that an ultimate pH > 5.8 is associated with alterations in drip loss and WBSF. In addition, in sheep meat, Watanabe et al. [56] reported a curvilinear association between ultimate pH and WBSF values, with a toughness peak at pH around 6.0 and improvements in tenderness at pH below and above 6.0. In our study, WBSF decreased as the dose of HM increased; however, this result must be carefully interpreted considering the low number of replicates used and the high coefficient of variation observed (30.74%, data not shown). Similar results were previously reported by Qin et al. [57] in lambs fed pomace (7.8 and 16% for 80 days) obtained from Hippophae rhamnoides fruits, which contained 0.69 and 1.02% flavonoids, respectively. In that experiment, WBSF decreased when the flavonoid dose increased. In another study, Abdalla et al. [46] observed no significant changes in WBSF of meat from lambs supplemented with saponins, flavonoids and polysaccharides from Astragalus membranaceus roots. WBSF is a well-known method for estimating the meat tenderness [57], consequently, the lower WBSF observed in the present study suggests that dietary supplementation of HM could improve the lamb meat tenderness. Although the exact mechanism is unknown, the changes in WBSF observed in this and other studies suggest that bioactive compounds contained in some plants facilitate the activation of some peptidases such as calpains and cathepsins, which help prevent and delay post-mortem muscle fibre stiffening [58]. It is also possible that these bioactive compounds act by reducing calpastatin activity, allowing a higher rate of myofibril protein degradation [59]. This hypothesis is supported by the observed linear increase in drip loss as WBSF decreased, because drip water losses may increase when calpastatin activity decreases [60]. Furthermore, Webb and Agbeniga [61] reported a linear relationship between WBSF and drip loss, in which higher drip loss was associated with rapid tenderisation and lower WBSF of the meat.

Drip loss is associated with the capacity to retain water in the muscle, with the juiciness and the tenderness of the meat [46,49]. In the present study, the drip loss of meat increased when the dose of HM increased, indicating that high doses of HM could affect the water retention capacity, tenderness and juiciness of meat. Abdallah et al. [46] investigated the effects of dietary supplementation with dried *Astragalus membranaceus* roots containing saponins, flavonoids, and polysaccharides, and observed that meat drip loss decreased in response to *A. membranaceus* supplementation. However, WBSF was similar in the meat of lambs from all treatments. Although the exact mechanism involved is unknown, the higher drip loss observed in the meat analysed in the present study could be related to the observed changes in WBSF, as previously discussed.

Colour is an important attribute of meat quality because it is the first aspect that attracts consumers when choosing fresh meat [62]. A variety of secondary compounds

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from plants can improve oxidative stability and prevent discolouration of meat of small ruminants [2]. In the present study, HM did not affect the values of L\*, a\*, Chroma and Hue °. However, b\* decreased in response to supplementation of HM in the diet. This result could be positive because consumers generally do not expect to find high b\* in fresh meat [63]. Similarly, previous studies [46,64] reported that supplementation with medicinal plants containing saponins, polysaccharides, and flavonoids also did not affect the colouration of meat from lambs and goats.

There is little information on the use of HM containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids as a colour preservative in ruminant meat. The pigment content of meat can modify its colouration [35]. Likewise, the inclusion of some medicinal plants containing flavonoids increases the hypertrophy of muscle fibres in lambs [57], which could dilute the content of muscle pigments and consequently alter meat colour [65,66]. These findings suggest that the HM used could increase muscle hypertrophy, which would partially explain the observed reduction in b\*. On the other hand, Luo et al. [64] reported that dietary supplementation of medicinal plants containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids altered the pigment content on the meat of small ruminants. Similar effects of consumption of these metabolites would partially explain the b\* changes in the meat of lambs supplemented with HM in the present study.

In the present study, the chemical composition of lamb meat was similar in all treatments, perhaps as a consequence of the low impact of HM supplementation on the nutritional composition of the diet. In a similar study, Abdallah et al. [46] investigated the effects of *Astragalus membranaceus* roots (0, 10 and 15% for 47 days) containing saponins, polysaccharides and flavonoids on sheep meat quality. In that research, the moisture, protein and ash content of the meat was similar among treatments. However, they observed that fat content decreased in sheep that ate *A. membranaceus* roots. Furthermore, in our study, HM supplementation had little impact on the final BW of the lambs, all being of the same breed and age, which partially explains the absence of significant changes in the chemical composition of the meat [48,49,54].

#### 5. Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that dietary supplementation with HM reduces dry matter digestibility (linear effect). However, the inclusion of up to  $3 \text{ g HM kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$ does not affect productive performance, carcass characteristics, chemical composition, and meat colouration (lightness and redness) of lambs fed high concentrate diets during the final fattening period. Meat yellowness decreases (linear effect) in response to HM supplementation in the diet, which could be positive because consumers, in general, do not expect to find high yellowness in fresh meat. On the other hand, meat pH, cooking loss and drip loss increase linearly as the dose of HM in the diet increases (linear effect). In addition, Warner-Bratzler shear force decreases as the dose of HM increases (linear effect). Thus, Peptasan® HM could be used to improve meat tenderness of lambs fed high concentrate diets. However, this result must be carefully interpreted considering the low number of replicates used. In addition, the increased drip loss in response to HM supplementation could be a risk of microbial spoilage during meat storage. Therefore, it is convenient to carry out meat quality analyses at the muscle level to evaluate the impact of other doses of this HM in rations with different proportion of concentrate for lambs in different experimental periods and physiological stages.

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**Data Availability Statement:** The datasets used and analyzed during the current study are available from the corresponding author on reasonable request.

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# 4. GROWTH PERFORMANCE, MEAT QUALITY AND ANTIOXIDANT STATUS OF SHEEP SUPPLEMENTED WITH TANNINS: A META-ANALYSIS

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Review

## Growth Performance, Meat Quality and Antioxidant Status of Sheep Supplemented with Tannins: A Meta-Analysis

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Simple Summary: Tannins can be used to improve productive performance, meat quality and antioxidant status of ruminants. The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of dietary tannin supplementation on productive performance, carcass characteristics, meat quality and blood serum antioxidant status of sheep through a meta-analysis. Only studies with weaned or older sheep were included. The sheep included in the present study were between 2 and 6 months old, and between 12 and 31 kg of body weight. Tannin supplementation improved productive performance, carcass yield, meat oxidative stability and blood serum antioxidant capacity. This suggests that the inclusion of tannins in sheep diets could be used to improve growth and reduce oxidative stress in animals, and to improve meat quality and shelf life.

Abstract: The objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of dietary supplementation with tannins (TANs) on productive performance, carcass characteristics, meat quality, oxidative stability, and blood serum antioxidant capacity of sheep through a meta-analysis. Using Scopus, Web of Science, ScienceDirect, and PubMed databases, a systematic search was performed for studies published in scientific journals that investigated the effects of TANs supplementation on the variables of interest. Only studies with weaned or older sheep were included. The data analyzed were extracted from 53 peer-reviewed publications. The sheep included in the present study were between 2 and 6 months old, and between 12 and 31 kg of body weight. The effects of TANs were analyzed using random-effects statistical models to examine the standardized mean difference (SMD) between treatments with TANs and control (no TANs). Heterogeneity was explored by meta-regression and a subgroup analysis was performed for covariates that were significant. Supplementation with TANs did not affect dry matter intake, pH, color (L\* and b\*), Warner-Bratzler shear force, cooking loss and meat chemical composition (p > 0.05). Supplementation with TANs increased daily weight gain (SMD = 0.274, p < 0.05), total antioxidant capacity (SMD = 1.120, p < 0.001), glutathione peroxidase enzyme activity (SMD = 0.801, p < 0.001) and catalase (SMD = 0.848, p < 0.001), and decreased malondialdehyde (MDA) concentration in blood serum (SMD = -0.535, p < 0.05). Supplementation with TANs decreased feed conversion rate (SMD = -0.246, p < 0.05), and the concentration of MDA (SMD = -2.020, p < 0.001) and metmyoglobin (SMD = -0.482, p < 0.05) in meat. However, meat redness (SMD = 0.365), hot carcass yield (SMD = 0.234), cold carcass yield (SMD = 0.510), backfat thickness (SMD = 0.565) and the Longissimus dorsi muscle area (SMD = 0.413) increased in response to TANs supplementation (p < 0.05). In conclusion, the addition of tannins in sheep diets improves productive performance, antioxidant status in blood serum, oxidative stability of meat and some other characteristics related to meat and carcass quality.

Keywords: oxidative stability; natural antioxidants; polyphenolic compounds; meta-regression



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#### 1. Introduction

Antibiotics (e.g., monensin) have been used for several decades as growth promoters in animals [1]. However, the inappropriate use of these products results in an accumulation of toxic residues in meat, which can affect the health of the consumer [2,3]. In addition, the emergence of bacterial strains resistant to the antibiotic effects [4] as well as the prohibition of these compounds in some countries [5] have led the industry and researchers to search for alternative products with similar effects as antibiotics, but of natural origin. Tannins (TANs), which are derived from plants, have received special attention and are among the most studied bioactive compounds, particularly in ruminants [1]. TANs are a group of polyphenolic compounds present in a wide variety of plants, which can be grouped into hydrolysable tannins (HTs) and condensed tannins (CTs) based on their chemical structure [6,7]. TANs can produce positive effects in animals, such as those of the antioxidant, antimicrobial, antiparasitic, immunomodulatory, and anti-inflammatory varities [1,6].

TANs can play an important role in the nutritional value of the feed, the quality of the products obtained, and the health and welfare of the animals [8]. Dietary inclusion of TANs at low to moderate concentrations (20 to 45 g kg $^{-1}$  DM) can improve growth rate and feed utilization efficiency in ruminants, mainly due to a reduction in protein degradation in the rumen and a subsequent increase in the flow of amino acids to the small intestine [9–11]. However, large amounts (>55 g kg $^{-1}$  DM) of TANs in the diet reduce feed intake, rumen microbial activity, nutrient digestibility and endogenous digestive enzyme activity [1,9,10,12], resulting in lower feed efficiency and growth rate.

Particularly in sheep, several studies have been conducted to evaluate the effects of dietary supplementation with extracts of TANs and TANs-rich plants on productive performance [13,14], carcass characteristics [15,16], oxidative stability and physicochemical characteristics of meat [17–20], and blood serum antioxidant status [21,22]. However, the results are still not consistent, probably as a consequence of variability among the studies regarding feeding conditions, age of the animals, type of product used, dosage and source of TANs [1,8]. Therefore, identifying the factors that contribute to this variability is a key aspect in the development of products containing TANs that can be used to improve productive performance, meat and carcass quality, and antioxidant status of sheep.

Some review articles [1,8,23,24] have suggested that dietary supplementation with TANs can improve productive performance, meat quality and antioxidant status of livestock. However, these reviews did not use a meta-analysis approach and also did not focus only on sheep. In addition, narrative reviews can lead to biased conclusions because they lack a methodological approach and are subjective to the author's interpretation of previous research [25]. In contrast, meta-analysis (MA) is a statistical tool that allows synthesizing data published in different studies in a quantitative way [26,27]. Furthermore, MA allows us to explore the heterogeneity sources among the diverse studies, which helps to obtain additional information about the factors contributing to the variability of the observed outcomes in response to a specific treatment [28]. MA has been frequently used in biomedical and clinical research, but its use in research related to secondary plant metabolites and meat science is still limited [29]. The objective of this meta-analysis was to evaluate the effect of dietary supplementation with tannins on productive performance, carcass characteristics, meat quality and oxidative stability, and antioxidant status of sheep blood plasma. The heterogeneity of responses was also examined using meta-regression analysis with the purpose of identifying factors contributing to the variability in the response variables.

#### 2. Materials and Methods

#### 2.1. Literature Search and Study Selection

To perform a robust meta-analysis, the Preferred Reporting Items for Systematic Reviews and Meta-Analyses (PRISMA) guidelines [30] were used in the identification, selection, choice and inclusion of information, as shown in Figure S1. To identify studies that evaluated the effect of supplementation with TANs on productive performance, carcass and meat quality characteristics, and antioxidant status of sheep blood serum, a systematic

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literature search was performed in the scientific databases of Scopus, ScienceDirect, Web of Science, and PubMed. The following keywords were used in all databases: tannin, lamb, sheep, growth performance, intake, carcass characteristics, meat quality, antioxidant status, and oxidative stability. The search and selection process was limited to the results of papers published between January 2010 and June 2021, where 1157 scientific publications were identified (Figure S1). These publications went through a two-step selection process as previously described by other authors [31,32]. First, a selection of titles and abstracts was performed excluding simulation studies, review articles, studies not conducted in sheep, invitro studies, and articles that did not include the variables of interest. Subsequently, to be considered, studies had to meet inclusion criteria previously used by other authors [31–33]: (1) Use of sheep and specify the procedure used to randomly assign animals within treatments; (2) data on productive performance, oxidative stability of meat, meat and/or carcass quality characteristics, or blood serum antioxidant status; (3) similarity between control and experimental groups except for the presence of TANs; (4) quantification or possible determination of the amount of TANs in the diet; (5) peer-reviewed journal articles written in English; (6) least squares means of the control and experimental groups with measures of variability (standard deviation or standard error); and (7) sample size.

#### 2.2. Data Extraction

After exclusion of duplicate papers and selection of titles and abstracts, 99 full-text articles were evaluated; of these, only 53 articles met the inclusion criteria (Table A1) and were used to obtain the quantitative data for the meta-analysis. To be considered, variables had to be reported in at least three studies [32,34]. Consequently, the response variables included in the meta-analysis were: daily weight gain, dry matter intake, feed conversion rate (feed intake/weight gain), hot and cold carcass yield, backfat thickness, Longissimus dorsi muscle area, meat quality characteristics (pH, color, chemical composition, malondialdehyde content, among others), as well as total antioxidant capacity, malondialdehyde content (as an indicator of lipid oxidation) and antioxidant enzyme activity (superoxide dismutase, catalase and glutathione peroxidase) in blood serum. In addition, when available, additional data were collected, such as: characteristics of the published study (author and year of publication), chemical composition of the diet, amount of forage in the diet  $(g kg^{-1} DM)$ , number of replicates, amount of TANs in the diet  $(g kg^{-1} DM)$ , period of supplementation with TANs (days), type of TANs (HTs, CTs or mixture of both), source of botanical origin of the TANs, and method of inclusion of the TANs (extract or naturally present in the diet). The references of the articles included in the dataset are listed in Table A1. Averages, standard deviation (SD), and number of replicates for each treatment were extracted from these articles. When the articles presented the SD of each experimental group, these values were used directly in the meta-analysis. Where the SD was not reported, it was calculated by multiplying the standard error of the means (SEM) by the square root of the sample size, using the equation:  $SD = SEM \times \sqrt{n}$ , as previously reported by Higgins and Thomas [35], where n = number of replicates.

#### 2.3. Calculations and Statistical Analysis

Meta-analysis and meta-regression data were analyzed using the Open Meta-analyst for Ecology and Evolution software [36]. Response variables were analyzed using the standardized mean difference (SMD), also referred to as effect size (ES), in which the difference between the means of the experimental and control groups was standardized using the SD of the groups with and without TANs [37]. SMDs were calculated using methods previously described by DerSimonian and Laird [38] for random-effects models. The SMD is a more robust estimate of ES when heterogeneity exists in the data set [39]. The variables of the chemical composition of the diets were analyzed with the MEANS procedure using the SAS statistical program [40] to obtain descriptive statistics values. Differences in the composition of the diets of the control and TANs-supplemented treatments were evaluated

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by the MIXED procedure, using the studies as random effect and Tukey's test to detect differences between treatments, as previously reported by other authors [32,41].

#### 2.4. Heterogeneity

Heterogeneity was measured using the  $I^2$  statistic and the chi-square (Q) test [42]. Because of the relatively low capacity of the Q test to detect heterogeneity among a small number of treatment comparisons, an  $\alpha$  level of 0.10 was used [39,43].  $I^2$  (percentage of variation) values range from 0 to 100%, where values close to 25% indicate low heterogeneity, close to 50% indicate moderate heterogeneity, and close to 75% indicate high heterogeneity between studies [26,28]. Likewise,  $I^2$  values greater than 50% indicate significant heterogeneity [33].

#### 2.5. Publication Bias

Since a visual inspection of funnel plots (generally used to assess publication bias) is subjective and must be balanced with additional analyses [44], three methods were used to assess evidence of publication bias: (1) the funnel plot [45]; (2) Begg's adjusted rank correlation [46]; and (3) Egger's regression asymmetry test [47]. Bias was considered to be present when the funnel plot showed asymmetry, or when at least one of the statistical methods (Begg's test and Egger's test) was significant (p < 0.10). Tests to assess publication bias are inappropriate when the variable to be assessed is not reported in at least 10 studies, and when significant heterogeneity (Q) is detected with an  $\alpha \le 0.10$ , because it may lead to false-positive claims [48]. Consequently, funnel plots, Begg's test, and Egger's test were only performed for variables that met the aforementioned criteria. In cases where statistical evidence of publication bias was found, the "trim-and-fill" method of Duval and Tweedie was used to estimate the number of possible missing observations [49].

#### 2.6. Meta-Regression

Sources of parameter heterogeneity that showed Q with an  $\alpha$  level of  $\leq 0.10$  [43] or I<sup>2</sup> greater than 50% [26] were assessed by meta-regression analysis. Similar to the publication bias tests, meta regression analysis was only performed for response variables that were reported in at least 10 studies [44]. The meta regression was estimated using the DerSimonian and Laird method of moments, which is well known for estimating variance among studies [26]. Continuous and categorical variables were used in the meta-regression. The continuous variables included: differences in neutral detergent fiber (NDF) and ether extract (EE) content in the diets (g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM), TANs dose (g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM), and duration of the experimental phase (days). Categorical variables included: source of botanical origin of TANs, method by which TANs were supplied (extract or as part of some dietary ingredient), type of TANs (CTs, HTs or mixture of both), and age of animals (≤3 months of age or >3 months of age). When categorical covariates were significant at an  $\alpha$  level of  $\leq 0.05$ , SMD was assessed by subgroup analysis [32,41]. Likewise, when the meta regression was significant ( $p \le 0.05$ ) for supplementation level and experimental period, these covariates were evaluated by subgroup analysis by dividing the covariates as follows: dietary TANs supplementation level (≤20 or >20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM); and experimental period  $(\le 70 \text{ or } > 70 \text{ days}).$ 

#### 3. Results

#### 3.1. Study Attributes and Excluded Studies

Descriptive statistics and mean test for diet composition are presented in Table 1. Except for NDF, EE and organic matter (OM) content, no significant differences were observed between the control and TANs treatment for the rest of the nutritional components of the diet. Among the nutritional components, only fiber and fat content seem to have considerable effects on productive performance, carcass characteristics and meat quality [50]. Thus, it is possible to exclude the effects of the rest of the diet components on the response of animals to TANs supplementation for the data set.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics of the complete data set for the effect of tannins supplementation to sheep diets.

Parameter		Me	ean	Med	dian	Mini	mum	Maxi	mum	S	D
Dietary Features	NC	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin	Control	Tannin
Forage, g kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	122	428.5	432.2	400.0	400.0	0	0	1000	1000	265.6	261.3
$DM, g kg^{-1}$	100	874.8	871.7	900.0	903.4	160.0	156.0	953.9	947.5	122.8	130.8
OM, g kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	46	857.5 b	866.8 a	910.0	922.0	148.0	146.0	957.2	984.5	193.7	188.7
$CP$ , $g kg^{-1} DM$	124	156.3	156.9	157.0	156.5	84.0	89.0	251.0	255.0	26.9	26.5
$EE$ , $g kg^{-1} DM$	106	35.5 b	40.7 a	29.3	36.3	13.0	12.8	81.0	98.3	16.6	18.3
NDF, g kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	122	388.8 a	375.9 b	385.7	365.5	156.0	152.0	731.1	704.9	179.6	108.7
ADF, g kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	94	211.2	212.1	190.0	179.5	81.0	69.8	516.0	496.5	94.1	94.2
$Ca, g kg^{-1} DM$	24	7.0	7.2	6.1	6.7	3.4	3.6	17.0	18.0	3.1	3.4
$P_{s} g kg^{-1} DM$	22	4.0	4.0	4.4	4.4	2.0	2.0	5.8	6.2	1.2	1.3
ME, MJ kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	56	10.6	10.6	10.5	10.7	9.2	8.8	12.5	12.6	0.8	0.9
Tannin, g kg <sup>-1</sup> DM	135	27	20.2	2	15.5	2	0.02	12	132.0	12	20.6
Duration, days	135	70	0.0	70	0.0	28	3.0	18	0.0	30	0.0

NC: number of comparisons; SD: standard deviation; DM: dry matter; OM: organic matter; CP: crude protein; EE: ether extract; NDF: neutral detergent fiber; ADF: acid detergent fiber; Ca: calcium; P: phosphorus; MJ: megajoule;  $^{a}$ ,  $^{b}$ : in the same row, means followed by different letters differ significantly by the Tukey test (p < 0.05).

The studies included in the present meta-analysis were conducted in 21 different countries, predominantly in Brazil (17%) and Iran (13.2%). The experimental doses of TANs ranged from 0.02 to 132 g kg $^{-1}$  DM, and the duration of the experimental periods varied from 28 to 180 days (Table 1). The TANs used were divided into: CTs, HTs and mixture of both. Of the treatments, 54.7% used mixtures of CTs and HTs, 39.6% used CTs and the remaining 5.7% used HTs. Moreover, 79.3% of the treatments used plant parts, forages or by-products containing TANs in natural form, and 20.7% used extracts of TANs in the diets. The studies included in the meta-analysis used a total of 36 different sources of TANs, the majority of treatments (13.2%) used TANs from Vitis vinifera, 9.4% from Cistus ladanifer, 7.5% from plant mixtures and 9.4% from pomegranate (Punica granatum) and in the other 60.5% of the treatments, 32 other different sources of TANs were used.

#### 3.2. Growth Performance and Carcass Characteristics

Table 2 shows that dietary supplementation with TANs increased (p < 0.05) daily weight gain (DWG), hot carcass yield (HCY), cold carcass yield (CCY), backfat thickness (BFT) and *Longissimus dorsi* muscle area (LMA). There was no observed a significant impact of the inclusion of TANs in the diet on dry matter intake (DMI; p > 0.05). In addition, feed conversion ratio (FCR) decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs (p < 0.05).

Table 2. Growth performance and carcass characteristics of sheep supplemented with tannins.

	N				95%	6 CI	Heterogeneity			
Parameter		NC	SMD	SE	Lower	Upper	p-Value	Q	p-Value	I <sup>2</sup> (%)
Daily weight gain (DWG)	42	104	0.274	0.116	0.046	0.501	0.018	472.57	< 0.001	78.20
Dry matter intake (DMI)	42	104	0.090	0.124	-0.152	0.333	0.466	524.508	< 0.001	80.36
Feed conversion ratio (FCR)	27	60	-0.308	0.127	-0.556	-0.060	0.015	197.05	< 0.001	70.06
Hot carcass yield (HCY)	26	59	0.234	0.108	0.023	0.445	0.030	142.03	< 0.001	59.16
Cold carcass yield (CCY)	9	23	0.510	0.228	0.063	0.957	0.025	86.09	< 0.001	74.45
Backfat thickness (BFT)	9	24	0.565	0.193	0.188	0.943	0.003	77.94	< 0.001	70.49
Longissimus dorsi muscle area (LMA)	10	22	0.413	0.170	0.080	0.747	0.015	52.40	< 0.001	59.92

N: number of studies; NC: number of comparisons; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval of SMD; SE: standard error. Q: chi-squared statistic and associated significance level (p-value); 12: percentage of variation.

#### 3.3. Meat Quality Characteristics

No significant effects of TANs inclusion in the sheep diet (p > 0.05) were observed on meat pH, meat lightness (L\*) and yellowness (b\*), Warner–Bratzler shear force (WBSF), meat cooking loss (CL), protein content, intramuscular fat (IMF) and meat ash (Table 3). Dietary supplementation with TANs decreased drip loss (DL) and meat moisture (p < 0.05). While meat redness (a\*) increased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs

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(p < 0.05). In addition, malondialdehyde content in raw meat (MDAc) and metmyoglobin (MetMb) content of meat decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs (p < 0.05).

					95%	6 CI		ŀ	Ieterogeneit	ty
Parameter	N	NC	SMD	SE	Lower	Upper	p-Value	Q	p-Value	I <sup>2</sup> (%)
Meat pH	19	52	0.037	0.098	-0.156	0.230	0.706	89.29	< 0.001	42.88
Lightness (L*)	20	54	0.008	0.128	-0.243	0.260	0.950	151.88	< 0.001	65.10
Redness (a*)	20	54	0.365	0.120	0.129	0.601	0.002	133.39	< 0.001	62.27
Yellowness (b*)	20	54	0.048	0.145	-0.236	0.332	0.742	186.70	< 0.001	71.61
WBSF	15	42	-0.027	0.093	-0.210	0.155	0.769	53.74	0.088	23.71
Drip loss (DL)	4	17	-2.828	0.516	-3.839	-1.817	< 0.001	149.57	< 0.001	89.30
Cooking loss (CL)	14	42	0.105	0.216	-0.317	0.528	0.626	243.00	< 0.001	83.13
Moisture	5	16	-0.693	0.333	-1.345	-0.041	0.037	77.25	< 0.001	80.58
Protein	8	23	0.249	0.282	-0.304	0.802	0.378	114.45	< 0.001	80.78
Intramuscular fat (IMF)	16	40	-0.168	0.186	-0.532	0.196	0.366	172.04	< 0.001	77.33
Ash	6	20	0.507	0.332	-0.144	1.158	0.127	108.41	< 0.001	82.47
Malondialdehyde (MDAc)	10	29	-2.020	0.326	-2.659	-1.380	< 0.001	195.96	< 0.001	85.65
Metmyoglobin (MetMb)	3	6	-0.482	0.222	-0.916	-0.047	0.030	5.25	0.387	4.68

Table 3. Meat characteristics of sheep supplemented with tannins.

#### 3.4. Antioxidant Status

Table 4 shows that dietary supplementation with TANs increased total antioxidant capacity (TAC), and catalase (CAT) and glutathione peroxidase (GPx) enzyme activity in blood serum (p < 0.05). On the other hand, the concentration of malondialdehyde in blood serum (MDAs) decreased (p < 0.05; Table 2) in response to TANs' supplementation. Moreover, no significant impact was observed for blood serum superoxide dismutase (SOD) enzyme activity (p > 0.05).

		NC	SMD		95%	. CI	Heterogeneity			
Parameter	N			SE	Lower	Upper	p-Value	Q	p-Value	I <sup>2</sup> (%)
Total antioxidant capacity (TAC)	9	17	1.120	0.222	0.686	1.555	< 0.001	43.661	< 0.001	63.35
Superoxide dismutase (SOD)	6	14	-0.122	0.328	-0.766	0.521	0.709	61.306	< 0.001	78.79
Catalase (CAT)	5	12	0.848	0.239	0.380	1.315	< 0.001	22.963	0.018	52.10
Glutathione peroxidase (GPx)	3	6	0.801	0.209	0.392	1.211	< 0.001	2.267	0.811	0
Malondialdehyde (MDAs)	7	17	-0.535	0.244	-1.014	-0.056	0.029	54.824	< 0.001	70.81

Table 4. Oxidative status of lambs supplemented with tannins.

N: number of studies; NC: number of comparisons; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval of SMD; SE: standard error. Q: chi-squared statistic and associated significance level (p-value); I<sup>2</sup>: percentage of variation.

#### 3.5. Analysis of Publication Bias

DWG, DMI, FCR, HCY, LMA, meat pH, meat color (L\*, a\* and b\*), WBSF, CL, IMF and MDAc had significant heterogeneity (Q) with an  $\alpha \leq 0.10$ . Whereas CCY, BFT, DL, moisture, protein, ash, MetMb, TAC, SOD, CAT, GPx and MDAs were reported in less than 10 studies. Therefore, tests to assess publication bias were not performed for any variable, because under these conditions they may result in false positive claims [48].

#### 3.6. Meta-Regression

Significant heterogeneity (Q; p < 0.10) was observed for DWG, DMI, FCR, HCY, LMA (Table 2), meat pH, meat color (L\*, a\* and b\*), WBSF, DL, CL, moisture content, protein, IMF, meat ash, MDAc, MetMb (Table 3), TAC, SOD, CAT, and MDAs (Table 4). Since it is not advisable to use meta-regression when there are fewer than 10 studies that reported

 $N: number of studies; NC: number of comparisons; SMD: standardized mean difference; CI: confidence interval of SMD; SE: standard error. \\ Q: chi-squared statistic and associated significance level (p-value); <math>I^2$ : percentage of variation; WBSF: Warner-Bratzler shear force.

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the response variable of interest [44], this analysis was only performed for the variables: DWG, DMI, FCR, HCY, LMA, meat pH, L\*, a\*, b\*, CL, IMF, and MDAc.

Table 5 shows that the dose of TANs explained (p < 0.05) 0.54, 3.02, 8.84, 14.48, 1.26, 9.56, and 17.0% of the heterogeneity observed for DWG, DMI, FCR, HCY, CL, IMF, and MDAc, respectively. The period of TANs supplementation had a significant relationship with DWG, DMI, FCR, LMA, a\*, and MDAc (p < 0.05); however, it only explained between 1.15 and 26.30% of the observed heterogeneity in these variables. Animal age was significantly related to FCR, LMA, a\*, b\*, IMF and MDAc, explaining 6.57, 66.18, 28.53, 2.80, 14.55 and 56.60% of the observed heterogeneity, respectively (p < 0.05). The type of TANs explained between 11.65 and 54.54% of the observed heterogeneity for FCR, meat pH, L\*, b\* and MDAc (p < 0.01). The method of inclusion of TANs in the diet explained 1.17, 23.06 and 5.11 of the observed heterogeneity in DWG, meat pH and MDAc, respectively (p < 0.05). The botanical origin of TANs had a significant relationship with DMI, FCR, HCY, LMA, meat pH, L\*, b\*, CL, IMF and MDAc, explaining between 1.12 and 100% of the observed heterogeneity in these variables (p < 0.01). A significant relationship (p < 0.001) was observed between a\* and MDAc with dietary ether extract content (EED), where the variation in EED explained 19.28 and 4.60% of the heterogeneity observed in a\* and MDAc, respectively. A significant relationship (p < 0.05) was observed between HCY and a\* with the neutral detergent fiber content of the diets (NDFD), where variation in NDFD explained 6.27 and 21.86% of the heterogeneity observed in HCY and a\*, respectively.

#### 3.7. Subgroup Analysis

Table S1 shows that DWG increased when doses of TANs lower than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM were used (SDM = 0.485; p < 0.001), but doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM did not affect DWG (SMD = -0.282; p > 0.05). Similarly, DMI increased when doses of TANs lower than  $20 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$  were used (SDM = 0.324; p < 0.05), but doses higher than  $20 \text{ g kg}^{-1} \text{ DM}$  did not affect DMI (SMD = -0.416; p > 0.05). Additionally, animals from studies using doses lower than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM had lower FCR (SMD = -0.423; p < 0.001), but no differences were observed with respect to FCR in animals from studies using doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM (SMD = 0.640; p > 0.05). HCY was higher in animals supplemented with doses of TANs lower than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM (SMD = 0.276; p < 0.05), whereas doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM did not modify HCY (SMD = 0.152; p > 0.05). CL increased when TANs doses lower than  $20 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  DM were used (SMD = 0.501; p < 0.05) but decreased with doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM (SMD = -1.158; p < 0.05). Low doses of TANs (<20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM) did not affect IMF content (SMD = 0.207; p > 0.05), but doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM reduced IMF content (SMD = -0.691; p < 0.001). MDAc decreased regardless of the dose of TANs used (p < 0.01); however, the effect was greater when doses lower than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM were used (SMD = -2.735) compared to doses higher than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM (SMD = -1.058).

Table S2 shows that DWG increased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs regardless of the supplementation period (p < 0.05). However, the effect was greater when TANs were offered for more than 70 days (SMD = 0.515) compared to periods up to 70 days (SMD = 0.256). On the other hand, DMI increased when dietary supplementation with TANs lasted more than 70 days (SMD = 0.590; p < 0.05) but was not affected when TANs were offered for up to 70 days (SMD = -0.142; p > 0.05). In contrast, FCR decreased when dietary supplementation with TANs lasted more than 70 days (SMD = -0.549; p < 0.05) but was not affected when TANs were offered for up to 70 days (SMD = -0.197; p > 0.05). Additionally, a\* of meat increased when dietary supplementation with TANs lasted more than 70 days (SMD = -0.981; p < 0.001) but was not affected when TANs were offered for up to 70 days (SMD = -0.029; p > 0.05). Higher LMA was observed when supplementation periods longer than 70 days were used (SMD = 0.870; p < 0.01), but when the period lasted less than 70 days no significant effects were observed in LMA (SMD = 0.063; p > 0.05). MDAc decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs regardless of the supplementation period used (p < 0.001). However, the effect was greater when TANs

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were offered for more than 70 days (SMD = -2.706) compared to periods up to 70 days (SMD = -0.784).

**Table 5.** Meta-regression of the effects of dietary tannins supplementation on growth performance, meat quality and antioxidant status of sheep.

Parameter		Tannins Dose	Supplementation Period	Lamb's Age	Tannins Type	Tannins Source	Method of Inclusion	EED	NDFD
DWG	QM	6.943	8.263	0.378	1.070	43.329	5.786	1.092	0.240
	df	1	1	1	2	32	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.008	0.004	0.989	0.586	0.087	0.016	0.296	0.624
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0.54	2.85	0	0	0	1.17	0.92	0
DMI	QM	4.800	10.206	0.927	2.503	113.649	0.892	0.033	2.752
	df	1	1	1	2	32	1	1	1
	<i>p</i> -Value	0.028	0.001	0.336	0.286	< 0.001	0.345	0.856	0.097
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	3.02	2.49	0	0	14.37	0	0	0
FCR	QM	7.711	3.716	5.348	9.193	48.362	0.129	0.006	0.335
	df	1	1	1	2	22	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.005	0.050	0.021	0.010	< 0.001	0.720	0.940	0.563
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	8.84	3.35	6.57	13.11	29.30	0	0	0
HCY	QM	7.401	2.618	1.168	0.017	65.118	0.226	3.348	4.094
	df	1	1	1	2	22	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.007	0.106	0.280	0.992	< 0.001	0.634	0.067	0.043
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	14.48	4.97	1.39	0	68.77	0	7.78	6.27
LMA	QM	0.004	5.968	13.647	0.100	36.514	0.625	2.658	2.251
	df	1	1	1	1	6	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.947	0.015	< 0.001	0.751	< 0.001	0.429	0.103	0.134
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0	26.30	66.18	0	97.92	0	8.86	8.61
Meat pH	QM	0.453	1.354	0.076	17.572	68.102	6.236	0.852	0.016
	df	1	1	1	2	18	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.501	0.245	0.783	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.013	0.356	0.899
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0	2.62	0	54.54	100	23.06	0	0
L*	QM	0.132	1.913	0.728	9.171	38.080	2.731	3.146	0.126
	df	1	1	1	2	19	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.716	0.167	0.393	0.010	0.006	0.098	0.076	0.723
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0	0	0	11.65	26.61	1.34	0	0
a*	QM	0.003	13.834	16.603	4.698	29.143	0.435	12.199	10.968
	df	1	1	1	2	19	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.956	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.095	0.064	0.509	< 0.001	< 0.001
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0	18.51	28.53	2.86	13.73	0	19.28	21.86
b*	QM	1.982	0.257	5.999	19.021	37.939	1.091	0.590	0.014
	df	1	1	1	2	19	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.159	0.612	0.014	< 0.001	0.009	0.296	0.442	0.906
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	0	0	2.80	12.91	1.12	0	0	0
CL	QM	4.339	0.121	0.471	4.947	52.306	2.199	0.121	0.036
	df	1	1	1	2	14	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.037	0.728	0.492	0.084	< 0.001	0.138	0.728	0.849
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	1.26	0	0	8.34	16.48	3.11	0	0
IMF	QM	3.967	0.419	7.676	0.866	80.997	2.191	1.462	3.435
	df	1	1	1	2	18	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.047	0.517	0.006	0.649	< 0.001	0.139	0.227	0.064
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	9.56	0.38	14.55	0	54.24	0.33	1.96	2.56
MDAc	QM	9.33	11.05	56.60	29.38	143.390	9.83	13.23	0.31
	df	1	1	1	2	12	1	1	1
	p-Value	0.002	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001	0.002	< 0.001	0.574
	R <sup>2</sup> (%)	17.00	1.15	56.60	32.50	93.81	5.11	4.60	4.73

QM: coefficient of moderators; QM was considered significant at p < 0.05;  $R^2$ : amount of heterogeneity accounted for; df: degree of freedom; DWG: daily weight gain; DMI: dry matter intake; FCR: feed conversion ratio; HCY: hot carcass yield; LMA: Longissimus dorsi muscle area; L\*: lightness; a\*: redness: b\*: yellowness; CL: cooking loss; IMF: intramuscular fat content; MDAc: malondialdehyde content in raw meat; EED: variation in ether extract content of the diets; NDFD: variation in neutral detergent fiber content of the diets.

Table S3 shows that supplementation with TANs reduced FCR in animals older than three months of age (SMD = -0.519; p < 0.01), but no effect was observed in lambs up to

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three months of age (SMD = 0.099; p > 0.05). In contrast, LMA increased in sheep older than three months of age (SMD = 1.108; p < 0.001); however, supplementation with TANs did not affect LMA when lambs were up to three months of age (SMD = -0.245; p > 0.05). On the other hand, a\* of meat increased when TANs were offered to sheep older than three months of age (SMD = 0.844; p < 0.001); however, supplementation with TANs did not affect a\* of meat when sheep were up to three months of age (SMD = -0.061; p > 0.05). In contrast, meat b\* decreased when TANs were offered to sheep up to three months of age (SMD = -0.246; p < 0.05), but no significant effects were observed in sheep older than three months of age (SMD = 0.502; p > 0.05). Dietary supplementation with TANs decreased IMF content in animals up to three months of age (SMD = -0.498; p < 0.01); nevertheless, when TANs were offered to sheep older than three months of age IMF content was not affected (SMD = 0.553; p > 0.05). Dietary supplementation with TANs reduced MDAc in animals older than three months of age (SMD = -4.489; p < 0.001), but no effect was observed in lambs up to three months of age (SMD = -0.320; p > 0.05).

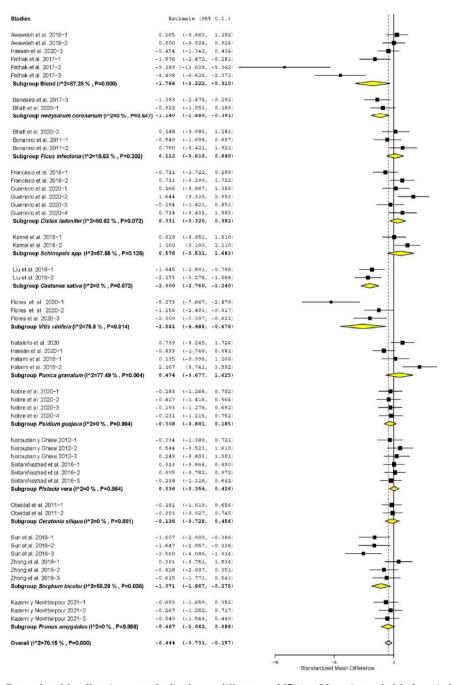
Table S4 shows that FCR decreased in response to dietary supplementation of CTs (SMD = -0.563; p < 0.05) and HTs (SMD = -2.000; p < 0.001), but there was no change in FCR in sheep supplemented with mixtures of CTs and HTs (SMD = -0.093; p > 0.05). Meat pH decreased in response to dietary supplementation with HTs (SMD = -1.556; p < 0.001). However, there was no significant change in meat pH (p > 0.05) when CTs (SMD = -0.111) and mixtures of CTs and HTs (SMD = 0.128) were used. L\* of meat increased when HTs were used (SMD = 1.373; p < 0.05), but there was no change (p > 0.05) when CTs (SMD = -0.072) and mixtures of CTs and HTs (SMD = -0.114) were used. Similarly, b\* of meat increased when HTs were used (SMD = 3.312; p < 0.05) but decreased when CTs were used (SMD = -0.500; p < 0.001). However, meat b\* was not affected in sheep supplemented with mixtures of CTs and HTs (SMD = 0.123; p > 0.05). Dietary supplementation with mixtures of CTs and HTs decreased MDAc (SMD = -3.666; p < 0.001), but there was no change (p > 0.05) of MDAc in sheep supplemented with CTs (SMD = -0.313) and HTs (SMD = -0.106).

Table S5 shows that DWG increased when ingredients containing TANs were supplied naturally in the diets (SMD = 0.422; p < 0.002) but DWG was not affected when TANs extracts were used (SMD = -0.233; p > 0.05). Meat pH was not affected by the method of inclusion of TANs in the diet (p > 0.05). MDAc decreased when ingredients containing TANs were supplied naturally in the diets (SMD = -2.664; p < 0.001) but was not affected when TANs extracts were used (SMD = -0.159; p > 0.05).

Figure S2 shows that DMI increased only when TANs came from *Mimosa tenuiflora* (SMD = 4.531; p = 0.001), *Hedysarum coronarium* (SMD = 7.809; p < 0.001), *Ficus infectoria* (SMD = 1.448; p < 0.001), *Schinopsis* spp. (SMD = 0.862; p = 0.026), *Pistacia vera* (SMD = 0.638; p = 0.038), *Passiflora edulis* (SMD = 0.872; p = 0.044) and *Prunus amygdalus* (SMD = 0.860; p = 0.036). However, it decreased when TANs came from *Cistus ladanifer* (SMD = -0.363; p = 0.050) and was not affected when TANs came from other plants (p > 0.05). Figure 1 shows that FCR decreased when TANs came from plant mixtures (SMD = -1.766; p = 0.017), *Hedysarum coronarium* (SMD = -1.140; p = 0.003), *Castanea sativa* (SMD = -2.000; p < 0.001); *Vitis vinifera* (SMD = -2.581; p = 0.008) and *Sorghum bicolor* (SMD = -1.071; p = 0.008). FCR was not affected in sheep supplemented with other sources of TANs (p > 0.05).

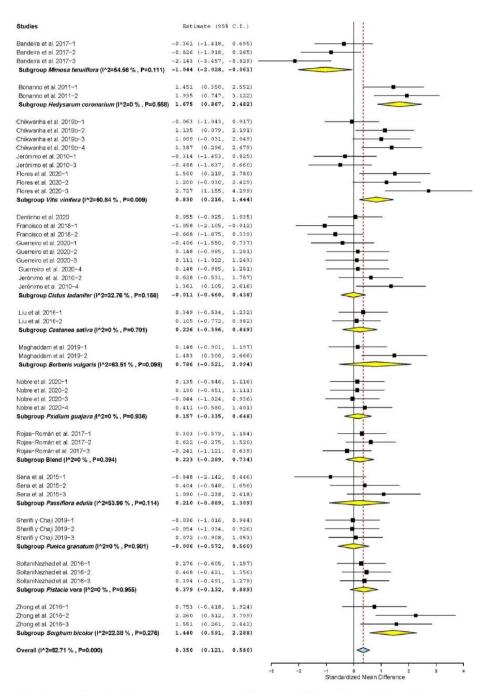
Figure 2 shows that HCY only increased when TANs were from *Hedysarum coronarium* (SMD = 1.675; p < 0.001), *Vitis vinifera* (SMD = 0.830; p = 0.008) and Sorghum bicolor (SMD = 1.440; p < 0.001). However, HCY decreased when TANs were from *Mimosa tenuiflora* (SMD = -1.044; p = 0.037). HCY was not affected when other plants were used as sources of TANs (p > 0.05).

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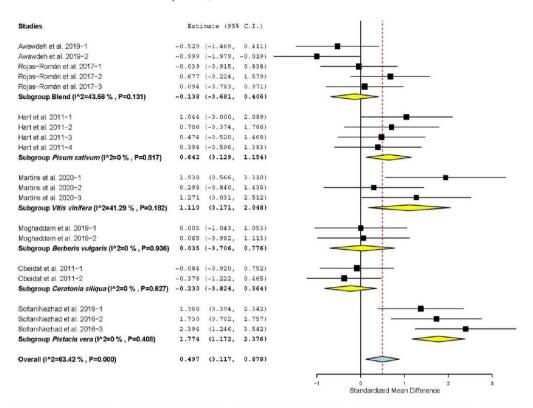
**Figure 1.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on feed conversion ratio (FCR) in sheep. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction in FCR, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in FCR.

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**Figure 2.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on hot carcass yield (HCY) of sheep. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction in HCY, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in HCY.

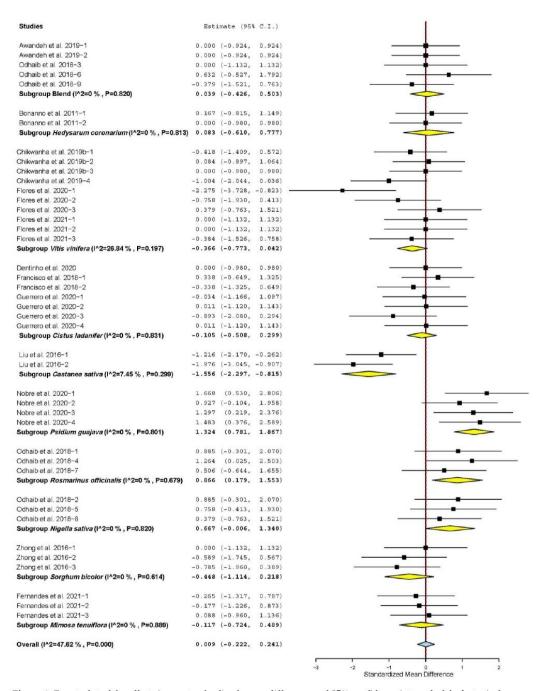
Figure 3 shows that LMA increased only when  $Pisum\ sativum\ (SMD = 0.642;\ p = 0.014)$ ,  $Vitis\ vinifera\ (SMD = 1.110;\ p = 0.021)$  and  $Pistacia\ vera\ (SMD = 1.774;\ p < 0.001)$  were used as sources of TANs. However, LMA was not affected when other plants were used as sources of TANs (p > 0.05).



**Figure 3.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on sheep *Longissimus dorsi* muscle area (LMA). The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction in LMA, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in LMA.

Figure 4 shows that meat pH increased only when TANs came from *Psidium guajava* (SMD = 1.324; p < 0.001), *Rosmarinus officinalis* (SMD = 0.866; p = 0.013) and *Nigella sativa* (SMD = 0.667; p = 0.050). Meat pH decreased when TANs were from *Castanea sativa* (SMD = -1.556; p < 0.001), and it was not affected when TANs were from other sources (p > 0.05).

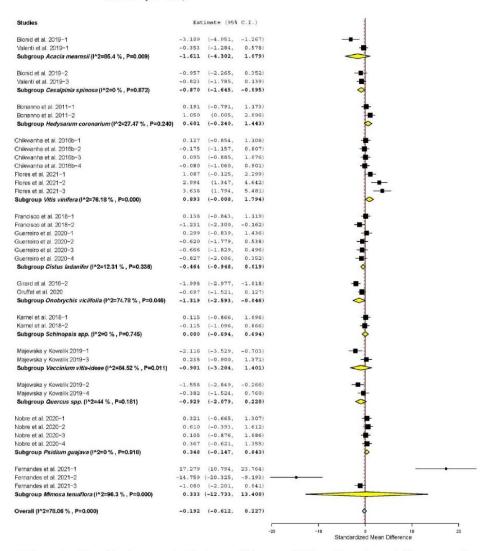
Figure S3 shows that L\* of meat increased only when Cistus ladanifer (SMD = 0.470; p = 0.028), Castanea sativa (SMD = 1.803; p = 0.036) and Mimosa tenuiflora (SMD = 0.851; p = 0.009) were used as sources of TANs. L\* decreased when TANs were from Sorghum bicolor (SMD = -0.947; p = 0.007), and it was not affected by other sources of TANs (p > 0.05). In contrast, Figure S4 shows that b\* of meat decreased only when Acacia mearnsii (SMD = -0.884; p = 0.042), Ceratonia siliqua (SMD = -0.618; p = 0.045) and Sorghum bicolor (SMD = -1.358; p < 0.001) were used as sources of TANs. However, b\* increased when TANs were from Mimosa tenuiflora (SMD = 1.903; p = 0.033), and it was not affected when TANs were from other sources (p > 0.05).



**Figure 4.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on meat pH of sheep. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction in meat pH, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in meat pH.

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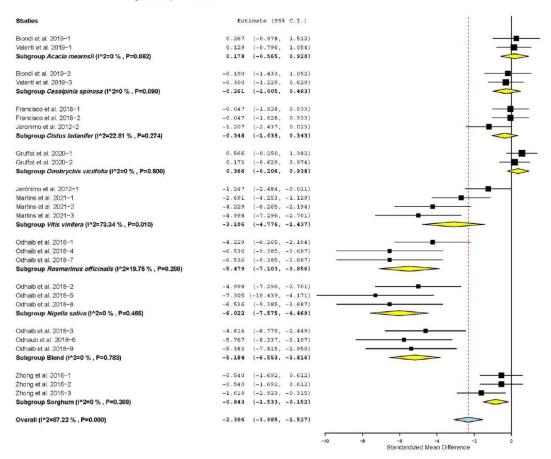
Figure 5 shows that the IMF content of meat decreased only when *Cesalpinia spinosa* (SMD = -0.870; p = 0.028) and *Onobrychis viciifolia* (SMD = -1.319; p = 0.042) were used as sources of TANs. However, IMF increased when TANs were from *Vitis vinifera* (SMD = 0.893; p = 0.050), and it was not affected when TANs were from other plants (p > 0.05). Additionally, Figure S5 shows that CL decreased only when TANs came from *Vitis vinifera* (SMD = -1.584; p = 0.047) and *Rosmarinus officinalis* (SMD = -0.691; p = 0.045). CL increased when TANs came from *Castanea sativa* (SMD = 1.949; p < 0.001) and *Psidium guajava* (SMD = 6.842; p < 0.001), and it was not affected when TANs came from other sources (p > 0.05).



**Figure 5.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical origin of tannin on intramuscular fat (IMF) content in sheep meat. The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction in IMF, while points to the right of the line indicate increase in IMF.

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Figure 6 shows that MDAc content decreased only when TANs came from *Vitis vinifera* (SMD = -3.106; p < 0.001), *Rosmainus officinalis* (SMD = -5.479; p < 0.001), *Nigella sativa* (SMD = -6.022; p < 0.001), *Sorghum bicolor* (SMD = -0.843; p = 0.017) and plant mixtures (SMD = -5.184; p < 0.001). While MDAc was not affected when TANs were from other plants (p > 0.05).



**Figure 6.** Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical origin of tannin on the malondialdehyde content of raw sheep meat (MDAc). The solid vertical black line represents the mean difference of zero or no effect. Points to the left of the solid vertical black line represent reduction of MDAc, while points to the right of the line indicate increase of MDAc.

## 4. Discussion

It has been suggested that high doses of TANs in the diet (>55 g kg $^{-1}$  DM) may have negative effects on feed utilization efficiency and growth rate of ruminants; however, low-moderate levels (20 to 40 g kg $^{-1}$  DM) could result in neutral or even positive effects [9,12]. In this regard, a meta-analysis conducted by Orzuna-Orzuna et al. [32] reported that dietary supplementation with TANs at average doses of 14.61 g kg $^{-1}$  DM did not affect DWG or feed efficiency in beef cattle. However, in the present meta-analysis, higher DWG and lower FCR were observed in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. This suggests that TANs improve growth rate and feed utilization efficiency in sheep. The lower FCR observed could be explained because TANs supplementation reduces infection by

gastrointestinal nematodes, which decrease feed efficiency in livestock [1]. According to Pimentel et al. [12], dietary inclusion of TANs in moderate doses can increase the efficiency of nutrient utilization of the diet, due to the ability of TANs to form complexes with macromolecules. In addition, the presence of TANs in diets consumed by ruminants has been reported to reduce enteric methane production [32], increase duodenal flux of amino acids and microbial protein [51], and reduce energy losses due to urea excretion [32,52]. This would partially explain the positive effects observed in DWG and FCR for sheep supplemented with TANs. On the other hand, reactive oxygen species (ROS) oxidize and destroy cellular biological molecules and impair the integrity of the intestinal membrane, resulting in reduced nutrient absorption [53,54]. Antioxidant enzymes and exogenous antioxidants can help restore oxidative balance and maintain healthy intestinal mucosa [21,54,55]. Consequently, the positive effects observed for DWG and FCR in the present study suggest that TANs reduced the presence of ROS and intestinal membrane damage in sheep. This hypothesis is supported by the observed increase in CAT and GPx in sheep supplemented with TANs, because CAT and GPx can convert ROS into less harmful compounds for the organism and prevent lesions in the gastrointestinal mucosa [53,56].

Although some review articles have suggested that the presence of TANs in the diet may negatively affect DMI in ruminants [1,9,57], in the present meta-analysis no changes in DMI were observed in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. This absence of changes in DMI probably occurred because the average dose of TANs used was  $19.29~\rm g~kg^{-1}$  DM and negative effects of TANs on intake seem to occur with doses higher than  $50~\rm g~kg^{-1}$  DM [4,9,12]. Similar to our results, two previously elaborated meta-analyses reported that dietary supplementation with TANs at average concentrations of 9.5 and  $14.61~\rm g~kg^{-1}$  DM did not significantly affect DMI of dairy cows in production and beef cattle, respectively [31,32]. These results together suggest that TANs can be used in sheep and cattle without negative effects on feed intake.

It has been suggested that the reduction of feed palatability could be produced by a reaction between dietary TANs and salivary mucoproteins, or by a direct reaction of TANs with taste receptors, causing an astringent sensation [10,58,59]. However, prolonged exposure to dietary TANs can induce adaptive mechanisms in ruminants, such as changes in the amount of proline and other salivary proteins with high affinity for TANs [8,59–61]. Unlike other protein complexes and TANs formed, protein complexes rich in proline and TANs are stable over the entire pH range of the digestive tract, which could eliminate or reduce their negative effect on palatability and feed intake [10,62–64]. Regarding this, in the present study a subgroup analysis revealed that DMI was not affected when TANs were offered for up to 70 days but increased when supplementation lasted more than 70 days.

With respect to carcass characteristics, dietary supplementation with TANs increased HCY and CCY. There is limited information on the effects of TANs on ruminant carcass characteristics, which makes it difficult to explain the results observed in the present meta-analysis. However, variation in carcass fat and muscle deposition can modify carcass performance [65]. Consequently, the observed increase in LMA and BFT in the carcasses of sheep supplemented with TANs could partially explain the higher HCY and CCY obtained in the present meta-analysis.

BFT and LMA also increased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. The mechanism of action of TANs on lipogenesis and muscle development has not been studied in sheep. Nevertheless, some polyphenolic compounds have been reported to increase BFT in beef cattle by changing the differential expression of genes involved in lipid metabolism [66]. Similarly, dietary supplementation from plants with phenolic compounds can increase muscle fiber size and increase skeletal muscle mass in lambs [67]. Similar effects of TANs consumption in the present meta-analysis would partially explain the observed increases in BFT and LMA.

Meat with high pH has higher microbial deterioration, which reduces its quality and shelf life [50]. Although dietary supplementation with TANs did not affect meat pH, subgroup analysis revealed that meat pH decreased significantly when HTs were used.

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This suggests that HTs could reduce microbial spoilage of meat, and consequently improve its quality and increase its shelf life. In this regard, Biondi et al. [68] observed lower overall load of pathogenic bacteria (*Escherichia coli, Enterobacteriaceae* and *Pseudomonas* spp.) in meat from lambs supplemented with HTs (40 g kg $^{-1}$  DM) of *Caesalpinia spinosa* and concluded that HTs may have antimicrobial activity within muscle tissue.

Color is one of the most important characteristics that determines meat quality, because it is the first attribute that attracts consumers when choosing fresh meat [50,69]. The pH, IMF content, the amount of myoglobin, and the formation and accumulation of muscle metmyoglobin are the main factors that influence the color of small ruminant meat [65]. Particularly, L\* of meat depends on the IMF content [70] and is negatively correlated (r = -0.63) with muscle myoglobin concentration [71]. Similarly, b\* of meat is correlated with pH [72], and with the IMF content of meat [70]. In the present metaanalysis, pH and meat IMF content were similar between treatments. In addition, previous studies [17,18] have reported that dietary supplementation of TANs does not affect muscle myoglobin content in sheep. These findings could partially explain the absence of L\* and b\* changes observed in sheep consuming TANs in the present study. Additionally, compounds originating in meat as a consequence of lipid oxidation have been reported to promote the formation of metmyoglobin, which reduces a\* values in meat [73]. In the present meta-analysis, MDAc (as an indicator of lipid oxidation in meat) and the metmyoglobin content of meat decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs, which would partially explain the observed increase in a\* in meat from sheep supplemented with TANs.

Meat tenderness is one of the main characteristics that influences consumers' meat choice and can be evaluated by WBSF [65]. It has been hypothesized that some natural antioxidants, such as polyphenols extracted from citrus fruits, might contain tenderizing compounds because their use can increase meat tenderness [74]. However, although TANs are polyphenolic compounds with antioxidant activity [75], in the present study the addition of TANs in the sheep diet did not affect WBSF. These results suggest that TANs do not affect the tenderness of sheep meat. Malheiros et al. [76] reported that ROS production can improve meat tenderness by increasing the degradation of toughness-related structural proteins. It has been reported that TANs can improve the antioxidant status of small ruminant meat by increasing mRNA and protein expression levels of SOD and GPx in skeletal muscle cells [77]. This effect could reduce structural and functional damage in muscle cells and tissues caused by ROS [78], which would partially explain the absence of changes observed for WBSF in the present study.

DL and CL are parameters used to evaluate the water holding capacity (WHC) of meat [65]. In the present meta-analysis, the values observed for DL suggest that dietary supplementation with TANs can improve WHC. However, these results should be interpreted carefully due to the low number of studies that reported on this variable. There is a strong negative correlation (r = -0.894) between WHC and CL [79]. Therefore, the results observed for CL suggest that TANs do not affect WHC of sheep meat. Meat pH is also related to WHC [50,65], and variation in IMF content can alter muscle structure and modify water retention in meat [65]. This suggests that the similarity of IMF content and meat pH between treatments could be related to the lack of changes observed for CL in the present meta-analysis.

Meat moisture content decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs, suggesting that TANs might affect WHC of meat. However, these results should be interpreted carefully due to the low number of studies that reported on this variable. Moreover, the results observed for protein, IMF and ash content of meat indicate that supplementation with TANs does not affect the nutritional composition of sheep meat.

Subgroup analysis revealed that doses of TANs higher than  $20 \text{ g kg}^{-1}$  DM can reduce IMF content. The mechanism of action of TANs on IMF deposition has not been studied in sheep. However, the number and size of intramuscular adipocytes have been reported to be related to the process of IMF deposition or reduction in livestock [80,81]. Gallic acid (a typical isomer of HTs) can inhibit bovine adipocyte proliferation and adipogenesis under

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in-vitro conditions [81]. Similarly, in-vitro studies have reported that CTs and HTs inhibit preadipocyte differentiation [82,83], and CTs induce apoptosis in mature adipocytes and inhibit lipid accumulation in maturing preadipocytes [82]. This would partly explain the lower IMF content in meat from sheep supplemented with more than 20 g kg $^{-1}$  DM of TANs. The lower IMF content could be related to the reduced moisture content of meat from sheep supplemented with TANs, because there is a negative correlation (r = -0.47) between moisture content and IMF content of meat [84].

Oxidation reactions during the processing, distribution and storage of meat products can cause physicochemical changes and undesirable odors that affect the quality of the final product [85]. For example, oxidation of myoglobin and lipids can cause discoloration and off-flavor development in meat, respectively [86]. In the present meta-analysis, lipid oxidation and myoglobin oxidation of meat decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs. This suggests that TANs may induce antioxidant enzyme gene expression in sheep muscle [87], similar to what was previously observed by Zhong et al. [77] in skeletal muscle cells from goat treated with *Camellia sinensis* TANs under in-vitro conditions. These results also suggest that TANs could be used to delay the discoloration and appearance of off-flavor in meat, and consequently improve the quality and shelf life of meat products.

TANs are polyphenolic compounds with antioxidant activity [75]. It has been reported that phenols can switch from an antioxidant to a prooxidant state when used in high doses [88]. In the present meta-analysis, lipid oxidation of meat decreased in response to dietary supplementation with TANs regardless of the dose used. However, the reduction was greater at doses below  $20~{\rm g~kg^{-1}}$  DM. These results suggest that TANs may improve the oxidative stability of meat when supplied to the diet at low doses, but at high concentrations they could have prooxidant effects on meat, as previously reported for some essential oils rich in phenolic compounds [88].

Subgroup analysis revealed that lipid oxidation of meat decreased significantly only when TANs were fed to animals older than 3 months of age. This probably occurred because the presence of microorganisms in the rumen increases with the age of the animals [89], and the action of ruminal microorganisms increases the bioavailability of ingested TANs in sheep [90].

The type and source of TANs explained most (between 30 and 90%) of the heterogeneity observed in MDAc. These results suggest that the effects of TANs on oxidative stability of meat depend on the type and source of TANs used rather than the dose, period and method of supplementation. Subgroup analyses revealed that MDAc was significantly reduced only when mixtures of CTs and HTs were used. These results suggest a synergistic effect between both types of TANs in reducing lipid oxidation of meat. Although TANs have been shown to have high antioxidant activity [75], their effect on the antioxidant capacity of muscle tissues seems to depend on how effectively they can be absorbed through the gastrointestinal tract [91]. In this regard, it has been reported that some CTs can neither be degraded nor absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract of sheep [91]. In contrast, some HTs act for a short time because they are rapidly transferred to the blood plasma in sheep [90]. Similar effects of individual use of CTs and HTs in sheep would partially explain the results observed in the present meta-analysis.

TAC is an integrated parameter that considers all antioxidants present in blood plasma [92]. In the present study, TAC was observed to increase in response to dietary supplementation with TANs, suggesting that TANs intake may improve the total antioxidant status of sheep. Although there are no reference values for TAC in ruminants [93], TAC changes in blood plasma following supplementation with antioxidant-rich foods or purified antioxidants provide information on the absorption and bioavailability of ingested antioxidant compounds [92]. Therefore, although the metabolic fate of TANs ingested by ruminants is not yet fully understood [22], the results observed in the present meta-analysis suggest that TANs ingested by sheep may be degraded and absorbed in the gastrointestinal tract and subsequently transferred to the bloodstream to serve as exogenous antioxidants.

Excessive accumulation of prooxidant substances, such as ROS, can cause oxidative stress in ruminants [93,94]. Some antioxidant enzymes, such as GPx, SOD and CAT are important because they can convert ROS into less harmful compounds for the organism [56], and consequently can reduce ROS-mediated damage on biological macromolecules [95,96]. On the other hand, although ROS can attack any of the major biomolecules, lipids are particularly susceptible, so biomarkers of lipid peroxidation (e.g., malondialdehyde) are considered the best indicators of oxidative stress [97]. In the present meta-analysis, dietary supplementation with TANs increased the activity of antioxidant enzymes (CAT and GPx) and reduced the concentration of malondialdehyde in sheep blood serum. This suggests that inclusion of TANs in the diet could be used as a dietary strategy to mitigate oxidative stress in sheep, which could improve animal health [94].

#### 5. Conclusions

The results of the present meta-analysis indicate that dietary supplementation with TANs does not affect dry matter intake, but improves daily weight gain, feed conversion ratio, total antioxidant capacity and antioxidant enzyme activity in sheep blood serum. The best result for daily weight gain is achieved using doses of TANs lower than 20 g kg $^{-1}$  DM, with supplementation periods longer than 70 days and when TANs are supplied naturally as ingredients in the diet. The best results for feed conversion ratio are achieved using doses of TANs lower than 20 g kg $^{-1}$  DM, with supplementation periods longer than 70 days, in animals older than three months of age and using CTs.

In addition, TANs reduce lipid oxidation in blood plasma and meat. The best results of lipid oxidation of meat are observed using mixtures of CTs and HTs, with supplementation periods longer than 70 days, using doses lower than 20 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM, in animals older than three months of age, and when TANs are supplied naturally as ingredients in the diet. Supplementation with TANs does not affect meat tenderness, chemical composition, pH and color (L\* and b\*). However, it increases hot and cold carcass yield, backfat thickness and Longissimus dorsi muscle area. The best hot carcass yield is obtained with Vitis vinifera, Hedysarium coronarium and Sorghum bicolor as sources of TANs. In contrast, the best Longissimus dorsi muscle area result is observed in animals older than three months of age, with supplementation periods longer than 70 days, and using Vitis vinifera, Pisum sativum and Pistacia vera as sources of TANs. In addition, supplementation with TANs improves meat a\*, particularly with supplementation periods longer than 70 days and in animals older than three months of age.

Supplementary Materials: The following are available online at https://www.mdpi.com/article/10.3390/ani11113184/s1, Figure S1: A PRISMA flow diagram detailing the literature search strategy and study selection for the meta-analysis. Table S1: Subgroup analysis of the effect of dietary tannin dose in sheep. Table S2: Subgroup analysis of the effect of tannin supplementation period in sheep. Table S3: Subgroup analysis of the effect of age on the response to tannin supplementation in sheep. Table S4: Subgroup analysis of the effect of tannin type in sheep. Table S5: Subgroup analysis of the effect of tannin inclusion method in sheep. Figure S2: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the source of botanical origin of tannin on dry matter intake (DMI) in sheep. Figure S3: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on the lightness (L\*) of sheep meat. Figure S4: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on the yellowness (b\*) of sheep meat. Figure S5: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on the yellowness (b\*) of sheep meat. Figure S5: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on the yellowness (b\*) of sheep meat. Figure S5: Forest plot of the effect size or standardized mean difference and 95% confidence interval of the botanical source of tannin on cooking loss (CL) of sheep meat.

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### Appendix A

Table A1. Summary of the studies included in the meta-analysis.

Author	Country	Tannin Source	Tannin Type	Method of Inclusion
Awawdeh et al. [98]	Jordan	B, B	В, В	N, N
Bandeira et al. [99]	Brazil	Mimosa tenuiflora $(n = 3)$	CT, CT, CT	N, N, N
Bhatt et al. [100]	India	PA, ER	В, В	N, N
Biondi et al. [68]	Spain	AM, CS	B, B	E, E
Bonanno et al. [101]	Italy	Hedysarum coronarium	CT, CT	N.N
Buccioni et al. [102]	Italy	CH, OU	HT, CT	E, E
Chikwanha et al. [103]	South África	VV(n=4)	B, B, B, B, B	N, N, N, N, N
Chikwanha et al. [104]	South Africa	VV(n=4)	B, B, B, B, B	N, N, N, N, N
Costa et al. [105]	Brazil	AM(n=4)	CT, CT, CT, CT, CT	E, E, E, E, E
Dentinho et al. [20]	Brazil	ČL ,	CT	E, 2, 2, 2, 2
Dev et al. [106]	India	Ficus infectoria $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	N, N, N
Abdalla et al. [107]	Brazil	OP. Clep	B. B	N, N
Fernandes et al. [14]	Brazil	Mimosa tenuiflora $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	N, N, N
Francisco et al. [108]	Portugal	CL(n=2)	CT, CT	N, N
	Switzerland	LC and OV	B, B	N, N
Girard et al. [109]				
Guerreiro et al. [110]	Portugal	CL(n=4)	CT, CT, CT, CT, CT	N, N, N, N, N
Gruffat et al. [111]	France	OV(n=2)	CT, CT	N, N
Hart et al. [112]	United Kingdom	Pisum sativum $(n = 4)$	CT, CT, CT, CT, CT	N, N, N, N, N
Hassan et al. [113]	Egypt	Punica granatum, MI, B	B, B, B	N, N, N
Hatami et al. [114]	Iran	Punica granatum $(n = 3)$	B, B	N, N
Jerónimo et al. [115]	Portugal	VV (n = 2), CL (n = 2)	CT, CT, CT, CT, CT	E, N, E, N
Jerónimo et al. [116]	Portugal	VV (n = 2), CL (n = 2)	CT, CT, CT, CT, CT	E, N, E, N
Kamel et al. [117]	Saudi Arabia	QU(n=2)	CT, CT	E, E
Kazemi and Mokhtarpour [118]	Iran	Prunus amygdalus $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	N, N, N
Leparmarai et al. [119]	Switzerland	VV	В	E
Lima et al. [120]	Brazil	Macrotyloma axillare	В	N
Liu et al. [21]	China	CH(n = 2)	HT, HT	E, E
López-Andrés et al. [91]	Italy	QU	CT	E
Majewska and Kowalik [121]	Poland	VAC, Ouercus sp.	B, B	N, N
Flores et al. [122]	Brazil	VV(n=3)	B, B, B	N, N, N
Flores et al. [123]	Brazil	VV(n=3)	B, B, B	N, N, N
Moghaddam et al. [124]	Iran	Berberis vulgaris $(n = 2)$	B. B	N, N
Natalello et al. [18]	Italy	Punica granatum	B	N
Nobre et al. [125]	Brazil	Psidium guajava $(n = 4)$	B. B. B. B. B	N, N, N, N, N
Norouzian and Ghiasi [126]	Iran	Pistacia vera (n = 3)	B, B, B	N, N, N
Obeidat et al. [127]	Jordan	Ceratonia siliqua (n = 2)	CT, CT	N, N
Odhaib et al. [128]	Malaysia	RO $(n = 3)$ , NS $(n = 3)$ , B $(n = 3)$	B(n=9)	N(n = 9)
Pathak et al. [13]	India	B. B	CT, CT	N, N
Peng et al. [95]	Canada	Dalea purpurea	CT	N N
Po et al. [129]	Australia	Ilex paraguarensis	CT	N
Priolo et al. [16]	Italy	Corylus avellana	В	N
				N, N, N
Rajabi et al. [130]	Iran Mexico	Punica granatum $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	
Rojas-Román et al. [15]		B, B, B	В, В, В	E, E, E
Sanchez et al. [131]	Mexico	Caesalpinia coriaria	CT, CT, CT	N
Sena et al. [132]	Brazil	Passiflora edulis (n = 3)		N, N, N
Sharifi and Chaji [133]	Iran	Punica granatum $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	N, N, N
SoltaniNezhad et al. [134]	Iran	Pistacia vera $(n = 3)$	B, B, B	N, N, N
Sun et al. [135]	China	Sorghum bicolor $(n = 3)$	CT, CT, CT	N, N, N
Valenti et al. [17]	Italy	AM, QU, CS	CT, HT, HT	E, E, E
Wang et al. [22]	Ireland	Corylus avellana $(n = 2)$	В, В	N, N
Yisehak et al. [136]	Ethiopia	Albizia gummifera	CT	N
Zhao et al. [137]	China	No reported	В, В	E, E
Zhong et al. [19]	China	Sorghum bicolor $(n = 3)$	CT, CT, CT	N, N, N

B: blend; PA: Pimpinela anisum; ER: Eucalyptus rudis; AM: Acacia mearnsii; CS: Cesalpinia spinosa; CH: chestnut (Castanea sativa); QU: quebracho (Schinopsis spp.); VV: Vitis vinifera; CL: Cistus ladanifer; OP: Orbignya phalerata; Clep: Combretum leprosum; LC: Lotus corniculatus; OV: Onobrychis viciifolia; MI: Mangifera indica; VAC: Vaccinium vitis-ideae; sorghum (Sorghum bicolor); HT: hidrolisable tannin; CT: condensed tannin; E: extract; N: naturally present. n: number of comparisons.

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# 5. CONCLUSIONES GENERALES

Uno de los hallazgos más importantes que surgen de este estudio es que el impacto ambiental de los sistemas de producción de carne de res puede reducirse notablemente cuando se incluyen taninos en la dieta. Por lo tanto, la adición de taninos en la dieta de bovinos podría utilizarse como una alternativa natural sostenible para reducir el impacto ambiental de la producción de carne bovina, sin afectar la sostenibilidad económica. Sin embargo, es necesario abordar varias cuestiones antes de las recomendaciones específicas para el uso comercial de taninos para reducir el impacto ambiental.

Los resultados del presente trabajo también indican que la suplementación dietética con taninos no afecta el consumo de materia seca, pero mejora la ganancia diaria de peso, la tasa de conversión alimenticia, la capacidad antioxidante total y la actividad de las enzimas antioxidantes en el suero sanguíneo de ovinos.

Además, el fitogénico Peptasan® podría ser utilizado para mejorar la terneza de la carne de corderos, sin afectar el comportamiento productivo y las características de la canal. Sin embargo, la mayor pérdida por goteo observada en respuesta a la suplementación con Peptasan® podría ser un riesgo de deterioro microbiano durante el almacenamiento de la carne de cordero. Por lo tanto, es conveniente realizar más estudios de calidad de la carne a nivel muscular para evaluar el impacto de otras dosis de este producto en raciones para ovinos con diferente proporción de concentrado, en periodos experimentales y etapas fisiológicas diferentes.