

## Benefits of Vitamin B Complex Supplements to Ruminants

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### Abstract

Vitamins are nutritional components found in feed that perform specific vital functions in various body systems and are essential for maintaining optimal livestock health. The vitamin B-complex refers to essential water-soluble vitamins such as vitamin B1 (thiamine), vitamin B2 (riboflavin), vitamin B3 (niacin), vitamin B4 (choline), pantothenic acid (vitamin B5), vitamin B6 (pyridoxine), and vitamin B12 (cyanocobalamin). Vitamin B-complex plays a crucial role in the metabolism of carbohydrates, proteins, and fats. The primary source of vitamins in ruminants is green roughage. It is generally recognized that mature ruminants do not require B-vitamin supplements because the vitamins provided by the diet and synthesized by the ruminal microflora are sufficient to prevent deficiency symptoms. However, studies indicate that the synthesis of vitamin B-complex by ruminal microflora is not sufficient for optimal health maintenance and production, necessitating supplementation to meet their needs. Finally, vitamin B-complex supplementation is still necessary for high-production livestock because their requirements far exceed the amounts that can be produced by ruminal microorganisms. This paper aims to briefly review the benefits of vitamin B-complex supplementation in ruminants.

**Keywords:** ruminal microflora; ruminants; supplements; vitamin B-complex

### Introduction

Vitamins are essential organic compounds involved in the metabolic processes of ruminants. Based on their solubility, vitamins are classified as either water-soluble or fat-soluble. Water-soluble vitamins include the B-complex and vitamin C, while fat-soluble vitamins include vitamins A, D, and E. The body does not store vitamin K. Excess water-soluble vitamins are excreted in the urine; therefore, it is essential to consume foods containing adequate amounts of these vitamins.

One important water-soluble vitamin required by livestock is vitamin B-complex (Fattal-Valevski, 2011). The vitamin B-complex consists of several vitamins, including vitamin B1 (thiamine), vitamin B2 (riboflavin), vitamin B3 (niacin), vitamin B4 (choline), vitamin B5 (pantothenic acid), vitamin B6 (pyridoxine), and vitamin B12 (cyanocobalamin) (Niehoff et al., 2013; Elitok & Akgun, 2018). Each vitamin

has synergistic functions and plays a vital role in carbohydrate, protein, and fat metabolism (Demeyer, 1981; Jenkins, 1993; McGrath et al., 2016). In ruminants, rumen microflora produces vitamin B-complex, which serves biological functions such as acting as an enzyme cofactor, supporting enzyme activity, and facilitating oxidation-reduction reactions (Hellmann & Mooney, 2010; Girard, 2017).

The supplementation of vitamin B-complex in ruminants remains a topic of debate among researchers and practitioners. This is due to the general understanding that ruminal microbes produce sufficient quantities of vitamin B-complex to meet nutritional needs (Naga et al., 1975). However, recent research suggests that vitamin B-complex synthesis by ruminal microbes may be insufficient for maintaining optimal health and production, particularly in dairy cattle (Santschi, 2004; Duplessis et al., 2015; Safarkhanlou et al., 2016).

McDowell (2013) also states that vitamin B-complex supplementation is necessary under certain conditions, particularly for niacin, thiamine, choline, and cyanocobalamin. This claim is supported by Santschi *et al.* (2005), who suggest that high-producing livestock may have greater vitamin B-complex requirements than can be produced by ruminal microorganisms. Research indicates that vitamin B-complex supplements can enhance milk production, composition, and metabolic efficiency in high-producing dairy cows (Girard & Matte, 1998; Shaver & Bal, 2000; Graulet *et al.*, 2007).

In contrast to non-ruminants, whose diet is their only source of vitamin B, the minimum vitamin B requirements are relatively easy to calculate. However, in ruminants—especially dairy cattle—the amount of vitamin B synthesized or degraded by ruminal microorganisms must also be considered, making the calculation of vitamin B-complex supplementation more complex. Ballet *et al.* (2000) added that very young ruminants cannot synthesize vitamin B-complex because their rumen is not yet fully developed, making them susceptible to deficiency. To date, numerous studies have been conducted on vitamin B-complex supplementation in beef cattle (Elitok & Akgun, 2018), dairy cattle (Graulet *et al.*, 2007), sheep (Lobley *et al.*, 1996), and goats (Ramadhan *et al.*, 2017). This article provides a brief review of the benefits of vitamin B-complex supplementation in ruminants.

### **Feed Sources of Vitamin B-Complex for Ruminants**

Bechdel conducted studies on the vitamin B-complex requirements of ruminant livestock more than 90 years ago. The study concluded that adult ruminants do not require vitamin B supplements because rumen microflora can synthesize enough to meet their nutritional needs (Combs, 2012). Apart from being synthesized by rumen microorganisms, vitamin B-complex intake also comes from forage, grain, vegetable waste, fruit, and concentrates (Ewan, 1993; Cruyvagen & Bunge, 2004; Schwab *et al.*, 2006; Karapinar *et al.*, 2010; Khattak & Rahman, 2017). However, with advancements in animal feed technology, many feed supplement

products, including vitamin B-complex, are now widely available.

According to Braunlich *et al.* (1976) and McDowell (1989), ruminants with a healthy rumen function are generally considered not to require vitamin B1 (thiamine) supplementation due to its synthesis by rumen microbes—especially when the feed contains a high proportion of grains. Miller *et al.* (1986) added that the type of grain influences thiamine synthesis in the rumen, although this effect is not yet fully understood.

The primary source of thiamine in ruminants is its synthesis in the reticulo-rumen, with approximately 90% of thiamine found in rumen fluid in the form of thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP), which is readily accessible to extracellular microbial thiaminase (Holler & Breves, 1980; Edwin & Jackman, 1982).

### **Riboflavin (Vitamin B2) Sources for Ruminants**

All plant and animal cells contain riboflavin, but only a few are rich in it, namely yeast and liver. Other sources of vitamin B2 (riboflavin) include milk, egg whites, fish eggs, kidneys, and plant leaves (EFSA, 2006). Farmer *et al.* (2011) added that broccoli, collard greens, and radishes are also sources of riboflavin. However, grains generally contain little riboflavin.

In ruminants, riboflavin is primarily synthesized by rumen microorganisms, eliminating the need for dietary intake (Zinn, 1992; NRC, 2000). Currently, riboflavin can be mass-produced through fermentation using various microorganisms. Initially, riboflavin products were used for human food supplements and deficiency therapy. However, they are now increasingly used as supplements for ruminants (Kutsal & Özbas, 1989; Lim *et al.*, 2001).

### **Niacin (Vitamin B3) Sources for Ruminants**

Vitamin B3 (niacin) is found in both plant and animal sources. In plants, niacin exists as nicotinic acid, whereas in animals, it is present as nicotinamide (Jaster & Ward, 1990). According to Panda *et al.* (2017), ruminants obtain niacin from various feed ingredients. Niacin intake for ruminants comes from three primary sources: (1) plant- and animal-based feed, (2) the conversion of tryptophan to niacin (Scott *et al.*, 1982;

Fukuwatari & Shibata, 2013), and (3) synthesis by rumen microflora (Tienken et al., 2015).

Common plant and animal feed sources of niacin include corn, wheat, rice, soybean meal, animal by-products, and fish (Harmeyer & Kollenkirchen, 1989; Erickson et al., 1991; Shah et al., 2016; Çatak, 2019). Hankes (1984) further noted that niacin in feed grains is likely bound to polysaccharides, polypeptides, and glycopeptides in the form of ester bonds.

### **Choline (Vitamin B4) Sources for Ruminants**

Animal feed sources relatively rich in vitamin B4 (choline) include soybeans, soybean meal, fish meal, and yeast (Pinotti et al., 2002). According to Zeisel et al. (2000), choline is an essential vitamin in mammals, particularly when methionine and folic acid are insufficient in the diet.

However, ruminants differ from non-ruminants in choline metabolism, as choline is extensively degraded in the rumen of adult ruminants (Neill et al., 1979). As a result, the exact choline requirements of ruminants, particularly dairy cattle, remain uncertain, and external supplementation may still be necessary (NRC, 2001). The beneficial effects of choline supplementation on livestock performance are likely influenced by protein intake and the availability of other feed components, such as carbohydrates and fats (Hartwell et al., 2000; Scheer et al., 2002; Pinotti et al., 2003; Zeisel & Da Costa, 2009).

### **Pantothenic Acid (Vitamin B5) Sources for Ruminants**

Ruminants obtain vitamin B5 (pantothenic acid) from two sources: feed and synthesis by microorganisms in the rumen (Ragaller et al., 2011). Animal feed grains that serve as sources of pantothenic acid include barley, soybean meal, wheat, corn kernels, alfalfa, peanut meal, sugar cane, yeast, rice bran, and forage (Roth-Maier & Kirchgessner, 1979; Souci et al., 2000; Shah et al., 2016; Sinbad et al., 2019). Since many feed ingredients contain pantothenic acid, ruminant deficiencies are rare and typically occur only if the vitamin is degraded in the rumen before it can be absorbed in the small intestine (Finlayson & Seeley, 1983; Volker et al., 2011).

### **Pyridoxine (Vitamin B6) Sources for Ruminants**

Sources of pyridoxine in ruminants include grain concentrates such as barley, sorghum, oats, corn, and soybean meal (Gregory & Kirk, 1981; McDowell & Ward, 2008; Shah et al., 2016). Pyridoxine is also present in meat, liver, and legume by-products (McDowell & Ward, 2008). Although little is known about the digestion and absorption of pyridoxine in ruminants, Zinn (1992) stated that deficiency rarely occurs because pyridoxine is not readily degraded in the rumen and is synthesized in large amounts by rumen microflora.

### **Cyanocobalamin (Vitamin B12) Sources for Ruminants**

Animal-based feed ingredients, particularly liver and kidney, are rich sources of cyanocobalamin (Driskell et al., 2001). Meanwhile, the primary source of cyanocobalamin for ruminants comes from bacterial synthesis in the rumen, as fungi and yeast do not play a role in this process (Stemme et al., 2008; Girard et al., 2009).

Although minimal amounts of cyanocobalamin are present in plant tissue, these levels are insufficient to meet ruminant needs (Watanabe & Bito, 2017). Brito et al. (2015) further noted that bacteria are almost entirely responsible for synthesizing cyanocobalamin, which is why it is found in large quantities in fermented feed ingredients. Currently, cyanocobalamin is commercially produced through fermentation. According to Gadiant (1986), commercial cyanocobalamin has low sensitivity to heat, oxygen, humidity, and pH.

### **The Role of Vitamin B Complex in Ruminants**

Most research on the relationship between ruminants and the vitamin B complex has been conducted over the past 90 years (Girard, 2017). This research concludes that adult ruminants do not require a dietary supply of vitamin B complex because rumen microflora synthesize sufficient amounts to prevent deficiency. The vitamin B complex produced by rumen microflora plays a vital role in carbohydrate, protein, and fat metabolism (Coleman, 1980;

Demeyer, 1981). Additionally, ruminants need vitamin B complex to maintain normal bodily functions and support immunity (Yoshii *et al.*, 2019). According to Leklem (1991) and Girard (1998), ruminants obtain vitamin B by digesting bacteria in the rumen or absorbing it from body fluids. Vitamin B can only be synthesized by plants, yeast, and bacteria. In contrast, mammals cannot synthesize it, so they must obtain it from food sources or microbes in the digestive tract.

### **Thiamine (Vitamin B1) in Ruminants**

Thiamine plays a crucial role in metabolism, particularly in energy production through carbohydrate metabolism. Its primary function in cells is as a coenzyme in thiamine pyrophosphate (TPP) or cocarboxylase (Bender & Mayes, 2003; Pan *et al.*, 2018). Thiamine pyrophosphate serves as a coenzyme for three important enzyme complexes: pyruvate dehydrogenase,  $\alpha$ -ketoglutarate dehydrogenase, and keto-acid dehydrogenase (Karapinar *et al.*, 2010).

Although thiamine can be synthesized by rumen microflora, in high-producing cows, this synthesis may not meet overall requirements (Santschi *et al.*, 2005). If the rumen does not function normally due to various disorders, the synthetic ability decreases, potentially leading to a deficiency (NRC, 2000; Casals & Calsamiglia, 2012). Thiamine deficiency in ruminants can result in clinical disorders such as anorexia (Liu *et al.*, 2014) and cerebrocortical necrosis (Randhawa *et al.*, 1988; Nocek, 1997; Vetreno *et al.*, 2012).

### **Riboflavin (Vitamin B2) in Ruminants**

There is ongoing uncertainty regarding the optimal amount of riboflavin supplementation for adult ruminants because riboflavin is synthesized in the rumen. According to Radostits *et al.* (2007), riboflavin plays a vital role in the synthesis of carbohydrates, amino acids, and fatty acids. Rivlin (2006) further noted that riboflavin functions in the flavoprotein enzyme system, helping regulate cell metabolism, particularly in carbohydrate metabolism.

Symptoms of riboflavin deficiency are usually non-specific, including anorexia, chronic diarrhea, and stunted growth. However,

deficiency symptoms are more pronounced in young ruminants whose rumen is not yet fully developed (Fletcher, 1956; Hurley & Doane, 1989). Roy (1980) estimated that young ruminants require 1 to 1.6 mg/kg (0.45 to 0.73 mg/lb) of dry matter to prevent riboflavin deficiency.

### **Niacin (Vitamin B3) in Ruminants**

According to Girard (1998), niacin is essential for protein and energy metabolism in ruminants and can enhance rumen microbial protein synthesis. Research by Rammell and Hill (1986) indicates that rumen microflora synthesis can meet ruminants' niacin requirements. Cervantes *et al.* (1996) reported that niacin supplementation can increase milk production, reduce the incidence of ketosis, and enhance microbial protein synthesis. Schwab *et al.* (2005) and Panda *et al.* (2017) further stated that niacin, derived from both rumen microflora and feed, plays a role in energy production and the synthesis of amino acids and fats essential for milk production.

Niacin deficiency in young ruminants, whose rumen is not yet fully developed, manifests as symptoms such as anorexia, diarrhea, ataxia, and dehydration (NRC, 2001). According to Campbell *et al.* (1994), commercial niacin is available in two forms: nicotinamide and nicotinic acid, both of which have the same biological activity. Commercial niacin supplementation has been proven to increase milk production in dairy cows.

### **Choline (Vitamin B4) in Ruminants**

Choline, or vitamin B4, is an integral component of tissue structure and plays a role in all normal cellular functions. It acts as an acetylcholine precursor (Kuksis & Mookerjea, 1978) and indirectly contributes to fat metabolism by promoting carnitine synthesis (Zeisel & Holmes-McNary, 1991; McGuffey, 2017). Grummer (1993) added that choline aids in fatty acid transport, helping maintain normal fat concentrations in the liver.

However, choline metabolism in adult ruminants differs from that of most mammals, as it is extensively degraded in the rumen (Sharma & Erdman, 1988). Zeisel and Holmes-McNary

(1991) stated that choline deficiency can lead to fatty liver degeneration and lipid metabolism disorders. Therefore, choline supplementation can help prevent fatty degeneration and reduce fat accumulation in the liver (Zom et al., 2001).

### **Pantothenic Acid in Ruminants**

The ability of microorganisms in the rumen to synthesize pantothenic acid has long been known. However, determining the total amount synthesized is challenging due to the dynamic nature of the rumen, where synthesis, degradation, passage along the digestive tract, and possibly absorption occur simultaneously (Ragaller et al., 2011; Yoshii et al., 2019). The primary role of pantothenic acid is in the production of coenzyme A and as a catalyst in the conversion of carbohydrates, fats, and proteins into energy (Leonardi & Jackowski, 2007; Acevedo-Rocha et al., 2019). Sheppard and Johnson (1957) discovered that pantothenic acid deficiency in ruminants results in coarse hair, visual impairment, dermatitis, excessive nasal discharge, decreased appetite, impaired growth, and weight loss, which may ultimately lead to death.

### **Pyridoxine (Vitamin B6) in Ruminants**

Pyridoxine plays an essential role in maintaining the function of the nervous, immune, and endocrine systems. It also serves as a cofactor for more than 60 enzymatic reactions involved in the metabolism of proteins, lipids, and carbohydrates (McCormick & Chen, 1999; Ahmad et al., 2013). The pyridoxine needs of ruminants are met through both dietary intake and microbial synthesis in the rumen. However, the precise requirement for ruminants remains uncertain (Johnson et al., 1950). Driskell (1984) noted that pyridoxine requirements depend on factors such as species, age, physiological function, feed composition, intestinal microflora, and other variables that are not yet fully understood. According to the NRC (2001), the amount of pyridoxine synthesized by rumen bacteria is sufficient to prevent deficiency symptoms. However, pyridoxine deficiency can result in stunted growth and anemia (Ladipo, 2000).

### **Folic Acid (Vitamin B9) in Ruminants**

Rumen microflora can synthesize sufficient folic acid to meet ruminants' needs (NRC, 2001). Wolin and Miller (1988) identified several bacterial species in the rumen capable of folic acid synthesis. However, the amount produced depends on the type of feed. With technological advancements and the increasing demand for milk, dairy cows now require more folic acid to support higher milk production (Schwab et al., 2006). Consequently, folic acid synthesis by rumen microflora may be insufficient to meet the needs of high-producing dairy cows (Girard & Matte, 1999). Research by Gabory et al. (2011) indicates that clinical folic acid deficiency can lead to placental deformation, premature birth, and low birth weight in calves.

Until now, there has been no definitive recommendation for the vitamin B12 (cyanocobalamin) requirement in ruminants, as it can be produced by rumen microflora (NRC, 2001). According to Combs Jr. (1998), rumen microorganisms can synthesize cyanocobalamin in sufficient quantities, provided that cobalt is adequately supplied through the feed. However, research by Girard et al. (2005) shows that 90% of orally supplemented cyanocobalamin is degraded in the rumen. Cyanocobalamin plays several essential roles in ruminants, including facilitating the utilization of cobalt by rumen microflora, aiding in feed protein digestion, and contributing to trypsin secretion by the pancreas for protein digestion (Underwood & Suttle, 1999). Additionally, cyanocobalamin is crucial for purine and pyrimidine synthesis, protein formation from amino acids, and carbohydrate and fat metabolism (Laquale, 2006). Another primary function of cyanocobalamin is red blood cell synthesis and maintaining nervous system integrity. Consequently, the most apparent sign of cyanocobalamin deficiency is anemia (Yoshii et al., 2019).

The B-complex vitamins are generally produced by microflora in the rumen of ruminants. However, with the increasing global demand for milk and meat, the natural production of B-complex vitamins by rumen microflora is often insufficient. To address this, various efforts have been made to enhance production,

one of which is supplementing with external B-complex vitamins. Currently, numerous commercial B-complex vitamin products are available on the market, making access to supplementation increasingly convenient.

### Benefits of B-Complex Vitamin Supplements for Ruminants

B-complex vitamins play a vital role in the growth and overall health of ruminants. Although rumen microorganisms can synthesize these vitamins, the rapid expansion of the ruminant farming industry necessitates supplementation to optimize growth and physical condition. B vitamins are essential for energy metabolism (Elmadfa *et al.*, 2001), normal bodily functions, immunity (Hosomi *et al.*, 2017), energy production, muscle and nerve maintenance, and protein synthesis (Girard, 1998). Under certain conditions where growth and production decline, B-complex vitamin supplementation is necessary to restore and enhance ruminants' physical condition.

Currently, a wide range of B-complex vitamin supplements is available on the market to improve the performance of both large and small ruminants. Commercial B-complex vitamin supplements used to enhance livestock performance include thiamine (Shaver & Bal, 2000; Neville *et al.*, 2010), riboflavin (Santschi *et al.*, 2005), niacin (Riddell *et al.*, 1981), choline (Morrison *et al.*, 2018), pantothenic acid (Ragaller *et al.*, 2011), pyridoxine (Robinson, 2019), and cyanocobalamin (Judson *et al.*, 2002). These supplements can be administered through feed additives (Shaver & Bal, 2000; Pan *et al.*, 2016), injections (Grace, 1999; Duplessis *et al.*, 2014), intra-ruminal boluses (Judson *et al.*, 1997), or fat-based encapsulation (Ashwin *et al.*, 2018). The effects of B-complex vitamin supplementation on ruminants' physical condition and milk production are presented in Table 1.

Many factors influence the physical condition of ruminants, one of which is feed intake, which is directly related to their vitamin

**Table 1.** Vitamin B complex supplementation in ruminants

Ruminants	Vitamin B Supplementation	Effect	Library
Sheep	Thiamine, riboflavin, niacin	Increase in Average Daily Gain (ADG) 0.13 kg	Oltjen <i>et al.</i> , 1962
Dairy Cows	Niacin	Increased ADG	Chang <i>et al.</i> , 1995
Dairy Cows	Niacin 10-20mg/hari	Increased milk production 1.0 kg/day	Midla <i>et al.</i> , 1998
Dairy Cows	Thiamine 150 or 300 mg/day	Increase in total milk production 2.7 kg/day, milk protein 0.13 kg/day milk fat 0.10 kg/day	Shaver dan Bal, 2000
Dairy Cows	niacin 6 g/day	Increased conception rate	Kaur <i>et al.</i> , 2003
Dairy Cows	20-30mg/day	Increased dry matter intake and milk production	Rosendo <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Goat	2000 µg vitamin B12	Improved carcass quality	Kadim <i>et al.</i> , 2004
Dairy Cows	Folic acid + cyanocobalamin 2.6 g/day	Increased milk production	Graulet <i>et al.</i> , 2007
Dairy Cows	combination of biotin, folic acid, pantothenic acid and pyridoxine 3 g/day	Increased milk production, protein and fat content	Sacadura <i>et al.</i> , 2008
Dairy Cows	Niacin 14 g/day	Increased milk production, protein, fat and blood glucose levels	Karkoodi and Tamizrad, 2009
Dairy Cows	Niacin 6 g/hari	prevent heat stress	Wrinkle <i>et al.</i> , 2012
Sheep	Combination of cobalt acetate (10 mg/mL), cyanocobalamin (200 µg/mL), and sodium selenite (0.25 mg/mL).	Increased ADG	Keady <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Goat	Vitamin B complex (100 mg thiamine HCl, 5 mg Riboflavin, 10 mg pyridoxine HCl, 100 mcg cyanocobalamin, 100 mg niacin and 10 mg pantothenic acid/1 ml)	Increased cellular immunity against parasitic infestation	Uslu <i>et al.</i> , 2017
Beef cattle	vitamin B Complex 10-20 ml	Rumen tone becomes stronger	Elitok dan Akgun, 2018

B-complex requirements. Supplementing with B-complex vitamins can enhance growth, stimulate rumen microbial activity, and improve fermentation efficiency, ultimately serving as a protein source for livestock (Ashwin et al., 2018). Several studies have also shown that B-complex vitamin supplementation can increase milk production, improve milk composition, and enhance metabolic efficiency in high-producing dairy cows (Graulet et al., 2007; Matte et al., 2011; Zimbelman et al., 2013).

However, research on B-complex vitamin supplementation has produced highly variable results, as presented in Table 1. According to Girard (2017), this variation is likely due to differences in the dosage administered to research animals. Additionally, variations in the route of administration—whether by injection or oral supplementation—may contribute to these differences. According to the NRC (2001), in dairy cattle, choline and cyanocobalamin provided through feed are largely degraded in the rumen. Research findings indicate that B-complex vitamin supplementation via intramuscular injection is significantly more effective than oral administration (Lobley et al., 1996; Akins et al., 2013), as B vitamins can be destroyed or utilized as a nutrient source by rumen microorganisms (Elmadfa et al., 2001; Niehoff et al., 2013).

The main drawback of the vitamin B complex injection route is its short-term effects, requiring frequent administration. Grace et al. (1998) reported that a cyanocobalamin injection in young sheep lasted only three months. This short duration is likely due to the rapid mobilization from the injection site and elimination by the kidneys. To address this issue, researchers have developed long-acting cyanocobalamin injections that remain in the ruminant's system for an extended period. Chen (1999) found that long-acting cyanocobalamin injections could last 6–8 months. Similarly, Grace and Knowles (2011) used long-acting cyanocobalamin injections to prevent vitamin B12 deficiency, though they did not observe an increase in milk production in pasture-raised cows.

So far, research on long-acting injectable supplementation has primarily focused on

cyanocobalamin, while other B vitamins have been studied mainly in oral administration. Jaster and Ward (1990) examined the effects of nicotinic acid and nicotinamide supplementation mixed with a premix containing wheat flour and dry molasses. Their study found that nicotinamide supplementation increased milk production in early lactation, likely due to its effects on fat and energy metabolism. These findings highlight the need for further research into alternative vitamin B supplementation routes, both enteral and parenteral, to improve cost efficiency and maximize effectiveness.

### Conclusion

Rumen microorganisms can naturally synthesize B complex vitamins to meet ruminants' needs. However, in practice, this synthesis is often insufficient to maintain health and support optimal production, necessitating supplementation. The rapid expansion of the ruminant livestock industry has increased the demand for vitamin B complex supplements to enhance production and overall livestock performance. Fortunately, commercially available vitamin B complex supplements are now widely accessible, offering a practical solution for optimizing livestock health and productivity.

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