



Prediction of enteric methane production, yield and intensity of beef cattle using an intercontinental database

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1 **Title**

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3 intercontinental database

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6 Predicting enteric methane from beef cattle

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48 **Abstract**

49 Enteric methane (CH₄) production attributable to beef cattle contributes to global greenhouse gas
50 emissions. Reliably estimating this contribution requires extensive CH₄ emission data from beef
51 cattle under different management conditions worldwide. The objectives were to: 1) predict CH₄
52 production (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹), yield [g (kg dry matter intake; DMI)⁻¹] and intensity [g (kg average
53 daily gain)⁻¹] using an intercontinental database (data from Europe, North America, Brazil,
54 Australia and South Korea); 2) assess the impact of geographic region, and of higher- and lower-
55 forage diets. Linear models were developed by incrementally adding covariates. A *K*-fold cross-
56 validation indicated that a CH₄ production equation using only DMI that was fitted to all available
57 data had a root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of observed mean) of 31.2%. Subsets
58 containing data with ≥ 25% and ≤ 18% dietary forage contents had an RMSPE of 30.8 and 34.2%,
59 with the all-data CH₄ production equation, whereas these errors decreased to 29.3 and 28.4%,
60 respectively, when using CH₄ prediction equations fitted to these subsets. The RMSPE of the ≥
61 25% forage subset further decreased to 24.7% when using multiple regression. Europe- and North
62 America-specific subsets predicted by the best performing ≥ 25% forage multiple regression
63 equation had RMSPE of 24.5 and 20.4%, whereas these errors were 24.5 and 20.0% with region-
64 specific equations, respectively. The developed equations had less RMSPE than extant equations
65 evaluated for all data (22.5 vs. 23.2%), for higher-forage (21.2 vs. 23.1%), but not for the lower-
66 forage subsets (28.4 vs. 27.9%). Splitting the dataset by forage content did not improve CH₄ yield
67 or intensity predictions. Predicting beef cattle CH₄ production using energy conversion factors, as
68 applied by the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change, indicated that adequate forage
69 content-based and region-specific energy conversion factors improve prediction accuracy and are
70 preferred in national or global inventories.

71

72 **Keywords:** empirical modeling, geographical region, forage content, dietary variables, methane

73 emission

74 **1. Introduction**

75 The livestock sector emits about 7.1 gigatonnes of CO₂ equivalents of greenhouse gases
76 per year, which represented approximately 14.5% of total global anthropogenic greenhouse gas
77 emissions in 2005 (Gerber *et al.*, 2013). Cattle emitted 4.6 gigatonnes CO₂ equivalents, of which
78 2.5 gigatonnes originated from beef and 2.1 gigatonnes from dairy cattle, whereas small ruminants
79 and buffalos emitted 0.47 and 0.62 gigatonnes CO₂ equivalents, respectively. Methane from
80 enteric fermentation contributed about 45% of the combined CO₂ equivalents emissions from the
81 two cattle types. World-wide beef cattle systems produced 35 million tonnes of meat, whereas
82 dairy cattle systems produced 27 million tonnes. Meat protein greenhouse gas emission intensity
83 from beef cattle, and combined meat and milk protein intensity from dairy cattle vary from about
84 200 to 1100, and 50 to 350 kg CO₂ equivalents per kg edible protein, respectively, depending on
85 the region of the world (Opio *et al.*, 2013). Based on expected farming and consumer lifestyle
86 practices and the predicted world population growth, compared to 1995, global enteric CH₄
87 emissions are predicted to increase by 70% by 2055 (Popp *et al.*, 2010). To offset this increase and
88 to deal with the highly variable and typically greater CH₄ emission intensity of beef cattle systems,
89 accurate prediction of beef cattle CH₄ emissions across regions are urgently required.

90 Various beef cattle CH₄ prediction equations, for which a variety of diet and animal
91 characteristics were used as covariates, based on treatments means (*e.g.*, Ellis *et al.*, 2009; Escobar-
92 Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a) or individual animal data (Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Moraes *et al.*, 2014) have
93 been published. Although the use of individual animal data as applied in the latter two studies
94 contributes to more explained variation of CH₄ production due to dry matter intake (DMI)
95 differences at the animal level, all previously mentioned studies only comprised data from specific
96 geographical locations. In contrast to these equations, which may be appropriate for cattle systems

97 under similar regional conditions, the widely used Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change
98 (IPCC) methodology recommends a generic CH₄ energy conversion factor (Y_m) without any
99 adjustment for different geographical locations (IPCC, 2014). The Y_m quantifies enteric CH₄
100 emission as a fraction of the gross energy intake and discriminates between diets with forage
101 contents of ≤ 10 and $> 10\%$ DM, with Y_m being 3.0% and 6.5% of the gross energy intake,
102 respectively. However, more complex equations accounting for dietary nutrient composition and
103 individual animal characteristics in addition to total feed intake may perform better than those that
104 ignore these covariates for various cattle categories (Ellis *et al.*, 2007, 2009; Moraes *et al.*, 2014;
105 Santiago-Suarez *et al.*, 2016). Therefore, more complex beef cattle CH₄ prediction equations that
106 draw from databases with a broad range of diets and geographic conditions may more accurately
107 predict global CH₄ emissions. Publications of inventories that investigated cattle enteric CH₄
108 emissions in certain countries or regions (*e.g.*, Basarab *et al.*, 2005; Kebreab *et al.*, 2008; Bannink
109 *et al.*, 2011; Castelan-Ortega *et al.*, 2014; Charmley *et al.*, 2016) compared to an intercontinental
110 evaluation (*e.g.*, Niu *et al.*, 2018) confirm the utility of the latter approach.

111 The objectives of the current study were: 1) to collate an intercontinental database of enteric
112 CH₄ production of individual animal records of beef cattle; 2) to determine the key variables for
113 predicting beef cattle enteric CH₄ production ($\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$), yield [g (kg DMI)^{-1}] and intensity [g
114 ($\text{kg average daily body weight gain})^{-1}$] and their respective relationships; 3) to develop and cross-
115 validate intercontinental and region-specific models, and models for lower- and higher-forage
116 diets.

117

118 **2. Materials and Methods**

119 ***2.1 Database***

120 The 'GLOBAL NETWORK' project is an international collaborative initiative of animal
121 scientists (<http://animalscience.psu.edu/fnn>; accessed May 16, 2017). All animal scientists with an
122 interest in greenhouse gas research and with access to CH₄ measurements from beef cattle were
123 invited to collaborate and contribute data to this collaborative CH₄ mitigation data analysis. The
124 resultant beef cattle CH₄ database that was developed from this initiative contains 2015 individual
125 beef cattle records from 52 studies conducted from 1969 to 2015 by research entities from Europe
126 ($n = 869$ from 18 studies), North America ($n = 649$ from 14 studies), Brazil ($n = 313$ from 12
127 studies), Australia ($n = 174$ from 7 studies) and South Korea ($n = 10$ from 1 study). The European
128 studies were conducted in the UK ($n = 313$ from 7 studies), Switzerland ($n = 96$ from 1 study),
129 Belgium ($n = 72$ from 4 studies), Ireland ($n = 147$ from 2 studies) and France ($n = 241$ from 4
130 studies). Eleven North American studies were from the United States ($n = 492$), and 3 were
131 conducted in Canada ($n = 157$). The database includes records of enteric CH₄ production along
132 with corresponding DMI, dietary gross energy, crude protein, ether extract (EE), neutral detergent
133 fiber (NDF), starch, ash and forage contents, average daily body weight gain (ADG) and body
134 weight (BW). The database comprised a broad variety of beef cattle that included growing and
135 finishing steers, bulls and heifers, pregnant heifers, and pregnant, non-pregnant, dry and lactating
136 beef cows. Various pure beef breeds and crossbreeds were included, *viz.*, Aberdeen Angus, Blonde
137 d'Aquitaine, Belgian Blue, Brahman, Brown Swiss × Limousin, Charolais, Hanwoo, Holstein ×
138 Zebu, Hereford × Angus, Luining and Nellore.

139 The original studies in the database (complete data bibliography is provided in
140 Supplementary information) investigated the impact of diet composition on enteric CH₄ production
141 or cattle metabolism. However, some studies tested the effect of a specific feed additive, nutrient
142 or the use of hormone supplementation, and the data from these treatments were excluded. The

143 excluded treatments included rapeseed cake and nitrate (Troy *et al.*, 2015), limestone (Zanetti *et*
144 *al.*, 2017), Acacia tannins, maca, garlic and lupine seeds (Staerfl *et al.*, 2012), monensin (Caetano
145 *et al.*, 2016, 2018), organosulfur compounds (garlic extracts) (Peiren *et al.*, unpublished) and
146 essential oils (Castro Montoya *et al.*, 2015), lipids (Duthie *et al.*, 2015), dried corn distillers grains
147 (Hünerberg *et al.*, 2013ab), linseed oil and protected fat (Fiorentini *et al.*, 2014), soybean oil and
148 protected fat (Silva *et al.*, 2018), glycerin (Lage *et al.*, 2016), whole soybeans (Rossi *et al.*, 2017),
149 monensin (Hales *et al.*, 2012, 2013, 2014 2015, unpublished; Berndt *et al.*, unpublished),
150 diethylstilbestrol (Rumsey *et al.*, 1981) and growth hormone-releasing factor (Lapierre *et al.*,
151 1992). After removal of data associated with the aforementioned treatments, 1413 individual
152 records were retained.

153 Records with missing CH₄ or DMI values were removed from the database; records from
154 respiration chambers in which two animals were housed simultaneously were combined by
155 averaging the CH₄ and DMI and all other variables regarding the two animals; records from
156 repeated measurements within the same experimental period were averaged over the individual
157 measurements recorded. In total, 1366 individual animal records were subsequently retained. In
158 addition, records from growing cattle with negative ADG, and a study for which DMI varied from
159 9.0 to 32.5 kg d⁻¹ (Rooke *et al.*, 2015, unpublished) were discarded from the dataset, leaving 1257
160 records retained. Finally, studies were screened on the basis of mean CH₄ yield after which two
161 studies, for which the control treatments contained 60 and 82% forage had unrealistically low CH₄
162 yields of 10.3 and 11.3 g (kg DMI)⁻¹ (San Vito *et al.*, 2016; De Carvalho *et al.*, 2016), respectively,
163 were considered outliers and removed from the dataset. This resulted in the retention of 1248
164 records.

165 ***2.2 Model development***

166 Production, yield and intensity of CH₄ were predicted by fitting mixed-effects models
167 according to:

$$168 \quad y_{ij} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 x_{ij1} + \beta_2 x_{ij2} + \dots + \beta_k x_{ijk} + s_i + \epsilon_{ij},$$

169 where y_{ij} denotes the j^{th} response variable of CH₄ production (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹), CH₄ yield [g (kg
170 DMI)⁻¹] or CH₄ intensity [g (kg ADG)⁻¹] from the i^{th} study; β_0 denotes the fixed effect of intercept;
171 x_{ij1} to x_{ijk} denote the fixed effects of predictor variables and β_1 to β_k are the corresponding slopes;
172 s_i and ϵ_{ij} denote the random effect of study and residual error, respectively, distributed as $s_i \sim$
173 $N(0, \sigma_s^2)$, $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, y_{ij}\sigma_e^2)$ for CH₄ production, and $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$ for CH₄ yield and intensity; σ_s^2
174 is the between-study variance, σ_e^2 is the residual variance, and $y_{ij}\sigma_e^2$ is the residual error variance
175 being proportional to the dependent variable.

176 In order to provide equations that depend on various predictor variables, eight categories of
177 CH₄ production models were developed, of which four used a fixed and another four a selected
178 combination of covariates: DMI only (DMI_C), DMI and dietary NDF content (DMI+NDF_C),
179 DMI and dietary starch content (DMI+STA_C), DMI and dietary EE content (DMI+EE_C); a
180 selection of DMI and the dietary NDF, starch, forage, EE, crude protein and ash contents (Diet_C),
181 the Diet_C covariates plus BW (Animal_C), the Animal_C covariates except DMI
182 (Animal_no_DMI_C), and DMI, the dietary NDF and crude protein contents, and BW (Global_C).
183 Global_C was exclusively associated with covariates that had few or no missing data points. In
184 addition to these eight categories, CH₄ production was predicted using Y_m only. The mixed-effects
185 model to estimate Y_m of this GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equation only included y_{ij} , β_0 , s_i , and
186 ϵ_{ij} of the previously shown model, with $\epsilon_{ij} \sim N(0, \sigma_e^2)$. According to the CH₄ production models,
187 six categories of CH₄ yield prediction models were developed: dietary NDF content only
188 (NDF_C), dietary starch content only (STA_C), dietary EE content only (EE_C); a selection of

189 the dietary NDF, starch, forage, EE, crude protein and ash contents (Diet_no_DMI_C), the
190 Animal_no_DMI_C covariates, and dietary NDF, forage and crude protein contents and BW
191 (Global_no_DMI_C). Finally, eight categories of CH₄ intensity prediction models were
192 developed: DMI_C, DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C, DMI+EE_C, Diet_C, Animal_C,
193 Animal_no_DMI_C and Global_C.

194 Covariates that play a key role in predicting CH₄ production were selected for Diet_C,
195 Diet_no_DMI_C, Animal_C, Animal_no_DMI_C, Global_C and Global_no_DMI_C using a
196 multistep selection approach. Model selection started with all potential covariates associated with
197 the particular model category. Subsequently, one or more next selection steps were performed if
198 not all records without missing values for the selected covariates were used in the previous step.
199 A backward selection approach was applied throughout the different steps, *i.e.*, only covariates
200 selected in a previous step could be selected for the next step. The model selection procedure
201 stopped when the selected covariates were the same as the ones selected in the previous step. With
202 this procedure, a model equation was constructed based on records that contained no missing
203 values for the final selection of covariates and data sufficiency was maximized for the development
204 of model equations throughout the different categories.

205 The Bayesian information criterion (BIC; *e.g.*, James *et al.*, 2014) was computed for all
206 fitted models. The BIC is a well-known quantitative approach to model selection that favors more
207 parsimonious models over more complex models by penalizing the number of parameters included
208 in the model. Models with the smallest BIC were selected, as a smaller BIC indicates a better
209 tradeoff between the goodness of fit and the number of model parameters. In addition, the presence
210 of multicollinearity of fitted models was examined based on the variance inflation factor. The
211 largest variance inflation factor among all predictor variables was considered as an indicator of

212 multicollinearity (Kutner *et al.*, 2005). The identified predictor variables were removed from the
213 model one at a time using a stringent variance inflation factor cutoff value of 3 (Zuur *et al.*, 2010).
214 All models were fitted using the *lme* function (Pinheiro and Bates, 2000) of R language and
215 environment for statistical computing (R Core Team 2017; version 3.5.2).

216 **2.3 Data handling**

217 The entire database contained a wide variety of dietary forage contents ($57.6 \pm 29.8\%$ DM;
218 average \pm SD), ranging from 8 to 100% DM. The database was split into a higher-forage subset
219 containing the records with $\geq 25\%$ forage, and a lower-forage subset containing all data with \leq
220 18% forage. No studies tested forage contents between 18 and 25%. Because of the small
221 coefficient of variation, dietary starch could not be selected for the lower-forage Diet_C,
222 Animal_C, and Animal_no_DMI_C equations. To explore the geographical impact of CH₄
223 production, all European, North American and Brazilian higher-forage data were also used as
224 separate subsets. Because of the scarcity of data from Australia and South Korea, no specific
225 equations for the latter two regions were developed. Data from growing and finishing cattle for
226 which ADG was measured were selected for a growing cattle subset, which enabled the
227 development of CH₄ intensity [$\text{g} (\text{kg ADG})^{-1}$] equations. Other outliers were identified using the
228 interquartile range method (Zwillinger and Kokoska, 2000) based on all dependent and
229 independent variables as in Niu *et al.* (2018). A factor of 1.5 for extremes was used in constructing
230 boundaries to identify outliers for dependent variables and a factor of 2.5 for independent variables.
231 Outliers were identified only for the complete database. The CH₄ intensity [$\text{g} (\text{kg ADG})^{-1}$] values
232 were log transformed to stabilize normality before outlier identification. After removal of records
233 with interquartile range identified outliers in the CH₄ production and variables, 1021 records from
234 114 dietary treatments and 39 studies were retained. Of these records 882 were from 104 treatments

235 and 38 studies in the higher-forage subset, 139 from 10 treatments and 8 studies from the UK,
236 Ireland, France, Canada and Brazil in the low-forage subset, 307 from 28 treatments and 15 studies
237 in the European higher-forage subset, 394 from 36 treatments and 10 studies the North American
238 higher-forage subset, 104 from 17 treatments and 7 studies the Brazilian higher-forage subset, 72
239 from 22 treatments and 5 studies from Australia, and 5 from 1 treatment and 1 study from South
240 Korea.

241 The cleaned dataset used for analysis comprised measurements of enteric CH₄ emission
242 that were obtained from respiration chambers ($n = 676$), the GreenFeed system ($n = 87$), and the
243 sulfur hexafluoride (SF₆) tracer technique ($n = 258$). Animals were either kept in confinement or
244 on pasture ($n = 991$ vs. 30, respectively). Types of forage frequently used in higher-forage diets
245 included fresh alfalfa, sugarcane, sugarcane bagasse, corn silage, barley straw, whole-crop barley
246 silage, whole-crop wheat silage, grass herbage, elephant grass, grass silage, grass seed hay, grass
247 hay wrapping, timothy and natural grassland hay. Types of forage frequently used in lower-forage
248 diets were barley straw, wheat straw, whole-crop wheat silage, corn silage and whole-crop barley
249 silage. Concentrate ingredients in higher-forage and lower-forage diets included dried distillers
250 grains, barley, canola meal, soybean meal, soybean hulls, crude glycerin, corn grain, cereal by-
251 products, dehydrated alfalfa, dehydrated beet pulp, citrus pulp, wheat distillers grains, whole grain
252 oats and minerals.

253 ***2.4 Cross-validation and model evaluation***

254 The predictive accuracy of the developed CH₄ prediction models was evaluated using a
255 leave-one-out cross-validation (*e.g.*, James *et al.*, 2014), in which all individual studies were
256 consecutively taken as the testing set for model evaluation, while all remaining studies were taken
257 as the training set for model fitting. Currently, most national enteric CH₄ inventories are based on

258 energy conversion factors recommended by the IPCC (2006), which were evaluated, *i.e.*, not cross-
259 validated. The IPCC models and the developed models throughout all categories were, if
260 applicable, evaluated on the various (sub)sets using a combination of model evaluation metrics.
261 Furthermore, equations from Yan *et al.* (2000, 2009) based on data from Northern Ireland, Ellis *et*
262 *al.* (2007) based on data from North America, Ellis *et al.* (2009) based on data from Canada, Patra
263 (2017) based on data from Brazil, India, Australia and Zimbabwe, Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*
264 (2017a) based on data from North America, Europe, Australia, Japan and New Zealand, Charmley
265 *et al.* (2016) based on data from Australia, and the Mitscherlich equation from Mills *et al.* (2003)
266 based on data from the UK were evaluated given that the covariates used in these published
267 equations were available in the present database. Of these previously published extant equations,
268 the equation that performed the best using our data and the single regression equation that only
269 depended on DMI and performed the best using our data were reported in the present study. Data
270 from studies included in the present database used for the development of these extant equations
271 were excluded from evaluations of those extant equations to ensure independent evaluation.

272 First, the mean square prediction error (MSPE) was calculated according to Bibby and
273 Toutenburg (1977) as:

$$274 \quad \text{MSPE} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n (O_i - P_i)^2}{n},$$

275 where O_i and P_i denote the observed and predicted value of the response variable for the i^{th}
276 observation, respectively, and n denotes the number of observations. The square root of the mean
277 square prediction error (RMSPE) was used to assess overall model prediction error. In the present
278 study, RMSPE was expressed as a proportion of observed CH₄ production, yield or intensity
279 means. The MSPE was decomposed into mean bias (MB), slope bias (SB) and random bias to
280 identify systematic biases, of which the MB and SB were calculated as follows:

281 $MB = (\bar{O} - \bar{P})^2,$

282 $SB = (s_p - rs_o)^2,$

283 where \bar{O} and \bar{P} denote the predicted and observed means, s_p denotes the standard deviation of
284 predicted values, s_o denotes the standard deviation of observed values, and r denotes the Pearson
285 correlation coefficient. Second, the ratio of RMSPE and s_o , namely RMSPE-observations standard
286 deviation ratio (RSR), which accounts for the specific variability of the data used for evaluation
287 (Moriassi *et al.*, 2007), was used to compare the performance of models based on data from different
288 (sub)sets. Smaller values of RSR indicate less variation in the prediction error compared to the
289 standard deviation of the observations, with $RSR = 1$ indicating the RMSPE variance is equal to
290 observed data variance. If $RSR > 1$, \bar{O} is a better predictor than P_i . Third, the concordance
291 correlation coefficient (CCC; Lin, 1989), which quantifies both accuracy and precision based on
292 the bias correction factor (C_b) and r by comparing the best-fit line and observations to the identity
293 line ($y = x$), respectively, was calculated. The CCC is given as:

294 $CCC = r \cdot C_b,$

295 The closer the CCC of a model to 1, the better the model performance.

296 Different forage proportion cutoff values with increments of 5% from 15 to 50% were
297 tested to evaluate the effect of the cutoff for splitting the database into higher-forage and lower-
298 forage subsets on equation performance. Cutoff values of 0, 15, 20, 25, 30, 35, 40, 45, and 50%
299 forage DM were used for evaluation. Per cutoff value, an RSR weighted to the number of
300 observations for the DMI_C equation was calculated for the higher-forage and lower-forage CH₄
301 production equations, after which the optimal cutoff value could be determined.

302

303 **3. Results**

304 The inclusion criterion for dietary treatment had different effects on the variables means,
305 *viz.*, DMI (8.13 *vs.* 8.06 kg d⁻¹; cleaned *vs.* uncleaned averages, respectively), and NDF (35.0 *vs.*
306 35.0% of DM), starch (34.0 *vs.* 30.5% of DM), EE (3.02 *vs.* 3.52% of DM), ash (6.29 *vs.* 7.26%
307 of DM), and forage (51.0 *vs.* 58.1% of DM) content of the diet, BW (478 *vs.* 487 kg), CH₄
308 production (161 *vs.* 164 g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹), CH₄ yield [20.0 *vs.* 20.4 g (kg DMI)⁻¹], CH₄ intensity [145
309 *vs.* 207 g (kg ADG)⁻¹] and *Y_m* (6.0 *vs.* 6.0 % of the gross energy intake). Summary statistics for the
310 (sub)sets of the present cleaned database that included intake, dietary nutrient composition, BW,
311 ADG and CH₄ variables are presented in Tables 1 and S1.

312 ***3.1 Methane production equations***

313 The DMI_C all-data CH₄ production (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) equation indicated a positive
314 relationship of DMI with CH₄ production (Eq. 1; Table 2; regression coefficient ± 2·SE gives a
315 rough estimate of the 95% confidence interval boundaries that correspond to a *P*-value of 0.05, all
316 *P*-values < 0.05 were not reported). The DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C and DMI+EE_C equations
317 had positive, negative and negative regression coefficients for dietary NDF, starch and EE in
318 relation to CH₄ production, respectively (Eqns. 2-4). The RSR, which is the most appropriate
319 statistic for evaluating equations based on different numbers of observations, for the DMI_C,
320 DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C and DMI+EE_C equations indicated similar predictive performance,
321 whereas the CCC indicated the DMI+NDF_C equation performed better than the DMI_C and
322 DMI+EE_C equations (0.63 *vs.* 0.60 and 0.61, respectively). Dietary forage content and DMI were
323 selected for the Diet_C and Animal_C equations (Eqns. 5-6), with BW also selected for the
324 Animal_C equation. Dietary forage and ash and BW were selected for the Animal_no_DMI_C
325 equation (Eq. 7). The Animal_C was the best performing all-data equation developed in the present
326 analysis, with RSR and CCC of 0.61 and 0.76, respectively. Across the developed all-data

327 equations, slope bias ranged from 1.01-12.7%, which was consistently associated with under-
328 prediction at the high end and over-prediction at the low end of production (Fig. 1). Overall,
329 models with a higher number of covariates tended to have less slope bias and had less between-
330 study variance (σ_s^2 not shown).

331 The RSR of the all-data DMI_C CH₄ production equation was 0.71 (Table 3). Splitting the
332 database into higher-forage and lower-forage subsets at cutoffs of 15 to 50% resulted in very
333 similar weighted average RSR values of 0.68 to 0.69. The cutoff of 20% that was applied resulted
334 in an RSR of 0.94 for the lower-forage subset at this cutoff value, whereas the cutoff values from
335 25 to 50% had all lower RSR values for the lower-forage subset. This might suggest that the lower-
336 forage subset is a better predictor at a higher cutoff. However, the prediction of the data associated
337 with $\leq 20\%$ forage did not improve at cutoff values $> 20\%$ (results not shown), indicating that data
338 with $> 20\%$ forage decreased the RSR of the lower-forage subset, but not the data associated with
339 $\leq 20\%$ forage. Based on these differences in performance and the fact that diets containing $\leq 20\%$
340 forage are commonly fed to cattle in intense feedlot production systems, the data were split at 20%
341 forage throughout the present study, which made all lower-forage data contain $\leq 18\%$ forage and
342 the higher-forage $\geq 25\%$ forage.

343 The higher-forage CH₄ production equations overlapped with the all-data equations, where
344 DMI and dietary NDF, starch and EE in the DMI_C, DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C and
345 DMI+EE_C equations showed regression coefficients with the same sign (Eqns. 12-15; Table 4).
346 Moreover, similar covariates were selected for the Diet_C, Animal_C and Animal_no_DMI_C
347 equations as for the all-data equations, although the Animal_no_DMI_C equation did not contain
348 dietary ash (Eqns. 16-18). The higher-forage equations predicted the higher-forage subset better
349 than the all-data equations, with mean RSR of 0.62 vs. 0.66 and CCC of 0.70 vs. 0.68, respectively,

350 for the DMI_C, DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C, DMI+EE_C, Diet_C, Animal_C and
351 Animal_no_DMI_C equations. The developed higher-forage equations under-predicted CH₄
352 production at the high end and over-predicted it at the low end of production, with the multiple
353 regression equations having less slope bias than the DMI_C equation (Fig. 2). In line with the all-
354 data equations, models with a higher number of covariates had less between-study variance.

355 In accordance with the all-data and the higher-forage equations, DMI was positively related
356 to CH₄ production in the lower-forage DMI_C equation (Eq. 20; Table 5). The DMI+NDF_C,
357 DMI+STA_C and DMI+EE_C equations indicated no significant relationships between the
358 corresponding dietary NDF, starch and EE contents with CH₄ production (Eqns. 21-23; *P*-values
359 of 0.14, 0.10 and 0.57, respectively). The lower-forage DMI_C equation predicted the lower-
360 forage subset better than the all-data equations based on RSR, whereas the highest CCC of 0.35
361 for the lower-forage subset were obtained from the all-data DMI+STA_C and Animal_C equations
362 (Eqns. 3, 6; Table 2). Systematic bias, that is the sum of mean and slope bias, was less than 5.75%
363 for these developed lower-forage equations (Table 5), except for the DMI+STA_C equation that
364 had 3.70 and 20.18% mean and slope bias, respectively. The minor slope bias of the lower-forage
365 DMI_C equation ($\leq 0.03\%$) was due to under-prediction of CH₄ production at the high end and
366 over-prediction at the low end (Fig. 3).

367 In contrast to the higher-forage equations, dietary NDF and starch contents in the European
368 higher-forage DMI+NDF_C and DMI+STA_C equations were not related to CH₄ production
369 (Eqns. 29-30, Table 6; *P*-values of 0.20 and 0.69, respectively). Furthermore, DMI, dietary NDF
370 and EE were selected for the Diet_C equation (Eq. 32) with BW also being selected for the
371 Animal_C equation (Eq. 33), whereas DMI and BW, and BW were selected for the Global_C and
372 Animal_no_DMI_C equations, respectively (Eqns. 34-35). The North American higher-forage

373 equations were largely in line with the higher-forage equations. However, the Animal_no_DMI_C
374 equation also contained dietary ash (Eq. 44; Table 7) as obtained for the all-data equation, and the
375 Global_C equation also contained dietary crude protein (Eq. 45). The European higher-forage and
376 North American higher-forage equations under-predicted CH₄ at the high end and over-predicted
377 it at the low end of production, except for the European higher-forage DMI+EE_C equation, which
378 under-predicted CH₄ at the low end and over-predicted at the high end (Figs. 4-5). Dietary NDF
379 and EE contents in the Brazilian higher-forage DMI+NDF_C and DMI+EE_C equations were not
380 significantly related to CH₄ production (Eqns. 49-50, Table S2; *P*-values of 0.28 and 0.05,
381 respectively), the Diet_C equation contained DMI and dietary ash (Eq. 51), whereas the
382 Animal_no_DMI_C equation contained dietary forage (Eq. 52). Slope bias varied from 9.05 to
383 18.9% for the developed Brazilian higher-forage equations, except for the Animal_no_DMI_C
384 equation for which 32.9% slope bias was obtained. Equations under-predicted CH₄ production at
385 the low end and over-predicted at the high end, whereas the Animal_no_DMI_C equation showed
386 a negative observed *vs.* predicted correlation (Fig. S1). Compared to the higher-forage equations,
387 the European higher-forage, North American higher-forage and Brazilian higher-forage data were
388 more adequately predicted by the European higher-forage (mean RSR of 0.80 *vs.* 0.85, mean CCC
389 of 0.50 *vs.* 0.48; respectively; Tables 4, 6), North American higher-forage (mean RSR of 0.53 *vs.*
390 0.57, mean CCC of 0.80 *vs.* 0.77; respectively; Tables 4, 7) and Brazilian higher-forage (mean
391 RSR of 1.13 *vs.* 1.35, respectively; Tables 4, S2), although mean CCC indicated Brazilian higher-
392 forage data was more adequately predicted using the higher-forage than the Brazilian higher-
393 forage equations (0.17 *vs.* 0.11, respectively; Tables 4, S2).

394 The IPCC (2006) Tier 2 higher-forage equation had an RSR of 0.68 and a CCC of 0.75
395 when evaluated using all data (Eq. 9; Table 2). Predicting the higher-forage subset with this

396 equation resulted in RSR and CCC of 0.53 and 0.84, respectively (Eq. 9; Table 4). Despite this
397 high accuracy of prediction of the Tier 2 approach, increased variance appeared along the unity
398 line of the predicted vs. observed plots (Figs. 1-2). The IPCC Tier 2 (2006) lower-forage equation
399 had an RSR of 1.38, a CCC of 0.17 and 59.6% mean bias for the lower-forage subset (Eq. 25;
400 Table 5). The GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations with Y_m of 6.1% and 6.3% (Eqns. 8, 19;
401 Tables 2, 4) performed slightly better than the IPCC Tier 2 (2006) equation for the all-data and
402 higher-forage (sub)sets, respectively [note that the IPCC equations were validated, the GLOBAL
403 NETWORK equations were cross-validated], whereas the lower-forage GLOBAL NETWORK
404 Tier 2 equation with Y_m of 4.5% resulted in RSR of 0.90, a CCC of 0.43 and 0.47% of mean bias
405 (Eq. 24) performed obviously better than the lower-forage IPCC Tier 2 equation. Although the
406 IPCC currently uses a 10% forage cutoff, a Y_m of 4.5% is still more accurate than a Y_m of 3.0% for
407 the present data, with RSR being 0.98 and 1.51, and CCC being 0.40 and 0.16 for the GLOBAL
408 NETWORK and IPCC Tier 2 lower-forage equations, respectively (Eqns. 24-25). The European
409 higher-forage and North American higher-forage subsets were associated with RSR of 0.66 and
410 0.48, and CCC of 0.71 and 0.88 for the IPCC Tier 2 (2006) equation, respectively (Eq. 9; Tables
411 6-7), whereas RSR of 1.81 and CCC of 0.21 were obtained for the Brazilian higher-forage subset
412 (Eq. 9; Table S2). Compared to the latter equation, the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations
413 with Y_m of 6.6 and 6.3% performed similarly based on RSR and CCC for the European higher-
414 forage and North American higher-forage subset (Eqns. 36, 46; Tables 6-7), whereas less mean
415 bias was obtained with 1.89 vs. 3.54% and 2.51 vs. 8.70%, respectively. The Brazilian higher-
416 forage subset was better predicted when using the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 approach resulted
417 in a Y_m of 5.5%, an RSR of 1.29, and a CCC of 0.28 (Eq. 53; Table S2).

418 Equations developed by Ellis *et al.* (2009), Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-
419 Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) were among the best performing extant equations and outperformed
420 the Yan *et al.* (2000, 2009), Mills *et al.* (2003), Ellis *et al.* (2007) and Patra (2017) equations for
421 all (sub)sets. The best performing equation of Charmley *et al.* (2016) performed better than the
422 all-data DMI_C equation (Eqns. 1, 10; Table 2). The all-forage equation of Escobar-Bahamondes
423 *et al.* (2017a) appeared to perform most accurately among all of the equations (Eq. 11). However,
424 only 646 data points were available for independent evaluation. Based on RSR, it did not
425 outperform the Animal_C equation for these 646 data points. For the higher-forage subset, the best
426 Charmley *et al.* (2016) and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations performed the best
427 based on CCC (Eqns. 20, 11; Table 4), but not on RSR. The Ellis *et al.* (2009) equation that also
428 depended on the NDF:starch ratio (Eq. 26; Table 5) performed the best for the lower-forage data
429 with RSR of 0.89 and CCC of 0.41. For the European higher-forage subset, the best Charmley *et*
430 *al.* (2016) and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations (Eqns. 37, 11; Table 6) did not
431 perform better than the Animal_C equation when just considering RSR and CCC values, although
432 the Animal_C equation was evaluated using fewer data points. For the North American higher-
433 forage subset, the best performing Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation (Eq. 47; Table 7) performed
434 similarly to the Global_C equation based on RSR, whereas the Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation
435 performed even slightly better based on CCC. Despite the accuracy of the various equations of
436 Charmley *et al.* (2016) and in contrast to the Animal_C equations, the predicted vs. observed plots
437 showed increasing variation along the unity line for all-data in particular (Fig. 1). However, the
438 best-performing equations that were developed, which was the Animal_C equation for most
439 subsets, did not show increasing variation along the unity line. This indicates that the best
440 performing equations that were developed explain variation that is not captured by the Charmley

441 *et al.* (2016) equations. These higher precisions obtained from the best performing equations is
442 also indicated by the correlation coefficients of predicted *vs.* observed values on which the CCC
443 is calculated (result not shown).

444 **3.2 Methane yield equations**

445 Positive, negative and negative slope regression coefficients were obtained for the NDF_C,
446 STA_C and EE_C all-data CH₄ yield [g (kg DMI)⁻¹] equations (Eqns. 54-56, Table S3),
447 respectively, which aligned with the all-data CH₄ production equations. The Diet_no_DMI_C and
448 Global_no_DMI_C equations selected dietary forage (Eqns. 57-58), whereas dietary EE and ash
449 were also selected for the Diet_no_DMI_C equation, and dietary crude protein for the
450 Global_no_DMI_C equation. The NDF_C, STA_C, EE_C, Diet_no_DMI_C and
451 Global_no_DMI_C equations had RSR values of 0.98, 1.06, 1.01, 0.97 and 0.96, respectively. The
452 NDF_C, STA_C and EE_C higher-forage CH₄ yield equations indicated positive, negative and
453 negative relationships to CH₄ yield, respectively (Eqns. 59-61, Table S4), whereas only dietary
454 forage content was selected for the Diet_no_DMI_C equation (Eq. 62). The higher-forage CH₄
455 yield was associated with RSR of 1.03 to 1.21 (Table S3) when predicted by the all-data equations,
456 whereas the higher-forage equations predicted CH₄ yield of this subset with RSR values from 0.98
457 to 1.04 (Table S4). The higher-forage equations reproduced the observed variation in CH₄ yield
458 less adequately than the all-data equations, with even a negative observed *vs.* predicted relationship
459 for the higher-forage STA_C and EE_C equations (Figs. S2-S3).

460 **3.3 Methane intensity equations**

461 In contrast to the CH₄ production equations, the DMI regression coefficients in the all-data
462 DMI_C and DMI+EE_C CH₄ intensity equations [g (kg ADG)⁻¹] contained zero in their
463 confidence intervals (*P*-values of 0.14 and 0.22, respectively), whereas the DMI+NDF_C and

464 DMI+STA_C equations had a positive regression coefficient for DMI (Eqns. 63-66; Table S5). In
465 line with the CH₄ production equations, dietary NDF, starch and EE contents in the DMI+NDF_C,
466 DMI+STA_C and DMI+EE_C equations had positive, negative and negative relationships with
467 CH₄ intensity, respectively. Dietary forage content was selected for the Diet_C,
468 Animal_no_DMI_C and Global_C equations (Eqns. 67-69), with DMI also being selected for the
469 Diet_C equation and BW also being selected for the Global_C equation. The Diet_C,
470 Animal_no_DMI_C and Global_C equations had RSR values of 0.99, 1.00 and 0.96, respectively,
471 and appeared to predict the variation in CH₄ intensity most adequately (Fig. S4), whereas the other
472 all-data CH₄ intensity equations had RSR greater than 1 and appeared to predict the variation in
473 CH₄ intensity less adequately.

474 The higher-forage DMI_C, DMI+STA_C and DMI+EE_C equations did not indicate that
475 DMI was related to CH₄ intensity (Eqns. 70, 72-73, Table S6; *P*-values of 0.06, 0.52 and 0.93,
476 respectively). Dietary NDF was positively related to CH₄ intensity (Eq. 71), whereas dietary starch
477 and EE contents were not related to CH₄ intensity (Eqns. 72-73; *P* = 0.32). Dietary ash content
478 was selected for the Diet_C equation (Eq. 74), whereas BW were selected for the Animal_C and
479 Global_C equations (Eqns. 75-76), with dietary NDF also being selected for the Global_C
480 equation. All higher-forage CH₄ intensity equations had $RSR \geq 1.03$. Furthermore, as also obtained
481 for the higher-forage CH₄ yield equations, the higher-forage CH₄ intensity equations did not
482 reproduce the observed variation in CH₄ intensity of the higher-forage subset more adequately than
483 the all-data CH₄ intensity equations (Figs. S4-S5), which was also indicated by the RSR and CCC
484 values.

485

486 **4. Discussion**

487 Global applicability is an important attribute of prediction equations of beef cattle enteric
488 CH₄ emission. Various beef cattle systems that are applied world-wide may fit in our analysis. For
489 more details about these beef cattle fattening systems, we refer to *e.g.*, De Vries *et al.* (2015),
490 Gerssen-Gondelach *et al.* (2017) and Drouillard (2018). Our database, in which data (1021
491 individual records) from a variety of geographical regions across the world is represented,
492 therefore, contributes to the overall robustness and global applicability of our all-data and higher-
493 forage equations in particular. Hence, CH₄ production of beef cattle will be accurately predicted
494 for data samples that represent a wider set of conditions throughout the world, which is a unique
495 feature of the present equations. Several CH₄ prediction equations for beef cattle have been
496 published previously, but they were developed from relatively small databases and only for one
497 specific geographic region, such as Yan *et al.* (2009) using 108 individual animal records from 5
498 studies from Northern Ireland, Ellis *et al.* (2007) using 83 treatment means from 14 studies from
499 North America, Ellis *et al.* (2009) using 872 individual animal records from 12 studies from
500 Alberta (Canada), and Moraes *et al.* (2014) using individual records from 414 heifers and 458
501 steers housed at one research station in the United States.

502 In the present study, we collated a wide-ranging database that included a large number of
503 studies from Europe, North America, Brazil, Australia and South Korea, which represented diverse
504 global beef production systems. Studies from tropical areas were, however, not predominant in the
505 present analysis, for which we refer to Charmley *et al.* (2016) who included studies from tropical
506 Australia, and Patra (2017) who included studies from India, Zimbabwe, Australia and Brazil.
507 Furthermore, Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) had a database comprising 148 treatment means
508 from 38 studies with diets containing > 40% forage, and a database comprising 43 treatment means
509 from 17 studies with diets containing < 20% forage. Therefore, their analysis for lower-forage

510 diets, in particular, included more data from more studies than ours, but their cutoff values for
511 lower and higher forage were based on differences in microbiome composition rather than the
512 prediction error used in the present analysis. Furthermore, their analysis did not explore
513 intercontinental variation in beef cattle CH₄ emissions and did not have the benefit of using
514 individual animal records. Other unique strengths of the present study are the development of CH₄
515 yield and intensity equations, whereas beef cattle studies are commonly limited to only total CH₄
516 production, and the inclusion of dietary forage content as a covariate of the three CH₄ emission
517 metrics.

518 Our database includes data obtained with different CH₄ (*viz.*, respiration chambers,
519 GreenFeed system, SF₆) and DMI (*viz.*, weighing and estimating using marker techniques)
520 measurement methods. The different CH₄ measurement techniques have their strengths and
521 weaknesses (Hammond *et al.*, 2016; Hristov *et al.*, 2018), whereas directly weighing the amount
522 of feed offered and refusals and their dry matter content is regarded as more accurate than the
523 ytterbium and *n*-alkane markers used for some studies in the present database, which may over- or
524 underestimate DMI (Pérez-Ramírez *et al.*, 2012). However, the development of a DMI_C CH₄
525 production equation specific for respiration chamber, GreenFeed system and SF₆ subsets did not
526 consistently improve the RSR and CCC of the corresponding subsets compared with the all-data
527 DMI_C equation (results not shown). Furthermore, including CH₄ measurement method as a
528 covariate in the statistical model of an all-data DMI_C equation did not improve the model fit.
529 Similar results were obtained for measurement method of DMI. Therefore, CH₄ and DMI
530 measurement methods did not have a major effect on the performance of the equations developed
531 in the present analysis. However, the relatively high and low accuracies with which the region-
532 specific subsets could be predicted may be related to the CH₄ measurement methods, because the

533 percentage of use of respiration chambers in the European higher-forage, North American higher-
534 forage and Brazilian higher-forage subsets differed substantially (48, 95 and 0%, respectively).
535 Finally, statistically accounting for cattle breed or cattle type (*e.g.*, steers, heifers, cows) was
536 considered, but did not or not consistently improve the prediction of CH₄ production throughout
537 the subsets.

538 Non-linear CH₄ prediction equations such as the Mitscherlich equation were previously
539 found to outperform linear equations in some studies (*e.g.*, Mills *et al.*, 2003; Patra, 2017).
540 However, for the present database, fitting non-linear equations, *viz.*, Monomolecular, Exponential,
541 Mitscherlich and Power forms, did not result in improved prediction of CH₄ production compared
542 to the linear DMI_C equations (result not shown). The latter result is in line with the non-linear
543 Mills *et al.* (2003) and Patra (2017) equations that did not outperform the linear Charmley *et al.*
544 (2016) equations. This suggests that a multiple linear regression approach, as used for the
545 development of our Animal_C and Global_C equations rather than non-linear approaches,
546 improves the precision and accuracy of prediction of CH₄ production. The utility of ADG and
547 digestibility of EE, NDF, nitrogen, gross energy, DM and organic matter for predicting CH₄ was
548 also evaluated, but these covariates did not result in better prediction of CH₄ production than
549 achieved by the various equations that are presented.

550 The linear regression equations of Charmley *et al.* (2016) that depended on DMI and
551 outperformed our DMI_C equations were fitted using models that included more terms than just
552 DMI, which resulted in nearly unbiased predictions of CH₄. Furthermore, the data Charmley *et al.*
553 (2016) used were only from certain regions in Australia and may have been relatively
554 homogeneous. The equations developed using these data may then result in accurate prediction of
555 CH₄ production based on only DMI. Therefore, the prediction bias for our various Animal_C and

556 Global_C equations and some potential overestimation of between-study variance that remained
557 may vanish by the inclusion of even more covariates in the statistical model. The negligible bias
558 obtained for the European higher-forage Animal_C equation, for which dietary crude protein and
559 EE contents were available for all individual animal records used for fitting this model, and
560 suggests that multiple regression equations are associated with less bias. Despite prediction biases
561 of mixed-effects models being associated with the inclusion of the random study effect (see also
562 White *et al.*, 2017), which applies to models with fewer covariates in particular, omission of the
563 random study effect will affect the inference made on the covariates and may result in type II errors
564 (St-Pierre, 2001). Therefore, for achieving unbiased predictions, mixed-effects models are ideally
565 applied to datasets without missing values throughout the different covariates. Such datasets will
566 result in greater variation of the dependent variable explained by multiple fixed-effects terms and
567 less overestimation of the random study effect.

568 ***4.1 Key predictor variables***

569 Dry matter intake was the most important predictor of enteric CH₄ production as it was
570 significantly and positively related to CH₄ production for all-data and the higher-forage, lower-
571 forage, European higher-forage and North American higher-forage subsets. A positive relationship
572 between DMI and CH₄ production is in agreement with previous dairy and beef cattle studies (*e.g.*,
573 Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Hristov *et al.*, 2013a; Richmond *et al.*, 2015; Bell *et al.*, 2016; Charmley *et al.*,
574 2016; Niu *et al.*, 2018) and this is because more CH₄ is produced when more substrate is available
575 for microbial fermentation and in turn methanogenesis. In addition, all Diet_C and Animal_C
576 models based on these five (sub)sets selected DMI for the prediction of CH₄ production, and the
577 Animal_no_DMI_C equations did not perform as well as the Animal_C equations, indicating the
578 importance of DMI relative to other covariates.

579 The positive relationship between the all-data CH₄ production and dietary NDF content
580 also aligns with previous results (*e.g.*, Ellis *et al.*, 2007; Yan *et al.*, 2009; Niu *et al.*, 2018). The
581 coefficients of variation were 43.8, 45.4 and 30.3% for CH₄ production, and 32.0, 30.6 and 8.6%
582 for dietary NDF content for the all-data and the higher-forage and lower-forage subsets,
583 respectively. This decrease in variation is in line with the disappearance of this positive
584 relationship for the all-data and higher-forage *vs.* the lower-forage equations. Therefore,
585 developing subsets with limited variation in forage percentage seems to have masked the positive
586 relationship between CH₄ production and dietary NDF content. Furthermore, dietary nutrient
587 contents change at the expense of other nutrients. Dietary NDF content may increase at the expense
588 of more rapidly fermentable carbohydrates, which is positively associated with CH₄ production
589 (Hatew *et al.*, 2015). The latter hypothesis aligns with a model with DMI and dietary NDF and
590 starch fitted to all data having regression coefficients that were positive, positive and not different
591 from zero for DMI and dietary NDF and starch, respectively (result not shown). However, the
592 lignin fraction of NDF being undegradable indicates that increased dietary NDF may not result in
593 more CH₄ production in case of high lignin contents. Warner *et al.* (2016) observed lower CH₄
594 production but higher CH₄ yield per unit of digestible organic matter for dairy cattle fed grass
595 silage of high lignin and NDF content, compared with grass silage of low lignin and NDF content.
596 The observation of Na *et al.* (2017) who found different CH₄ yields per unit of DMI for deer and
597 goats, but not per unit of digestible DMI may also support this hypothesis.

598 Dietary starch content is negatively related to CH₄ production as it typically increases
599 propionate production in the rumen, yielding less H₂ for the reduction of CO₂ to CH₄ (Martin *et*
600 *al.*, 2010; Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011). The effect of dietary starch on CH₄ production
601 appeared to be less pronounced for higher-forage diets in dairy cows (Van Gastelen *et al.*, 2015),

602 which may explain why no relationship between dietary starch content and CH₄ production was
603 found for the European higher-forage subset, which had the highest forage content of all subsets.
604 Furthermore, it was suggested that a critical dietary content of starch is required to decrease CH₄
605 production (Martin *et al.*, 2010; Van Gastelen *et al.*, 2015), possibly more than approximately 20%
606 of DM, and that slight differences in intakes of starch, and other major carbohydrates (*e.g.*,
607 hemicellulose, cellulose and lignin) cannot explain the difference in CH₄ emissions of cattle (Moe
608 and Tyrrell, 1979; Moate *et al.*, 2018). This may also explain why no relationship between dietary
609 starch content and CH₄ production was obtained based on the European higher-forage subset. The
610 lack of a relationship between CH₄ production and dietary starch content for the lower-forage
611 subset may be related to the small variation in starch content (coefficient of variation is 13.1%).

612 The positive relationship that was obtained between CH₄ production and dietary forage
613 aligns with previously published studies (*e.g.*, Yan *et al.*, 2000; Hristov *et al.*, 2013) stating that
614 either increased forage or decreased concentrate proportion in the diet yielded more CH₄. Johnson
615 and Johnson (1995) referred to cattle fed more than 90% concentrate producing only half of the
616 CH₄ produced by cattle fed more common concentrate proportions, and Aguerre *et al.*, 2011
617 observed a linear increase in CH₄ yield upon increasing dietary forage content from 47 to 68%.
618 Nevertheless, a modeling study by Sauvant and Giger-Reverdin (2009) predicted that a decrease
619 in CH₄ yield is only observed for dietary forage contents less than 65%. Despite the latter
620 prediction, the frequent appearance of dietary forage in the equations developed in the present
621 study indicates dietary forage content is a decent predictor of CH₄ emission, possibly more robust
622 than dietary NDF content that was less frequently selected for the developed equations.

623 Dietary lipid content is commonly negatively related to CH₄ production (Grainger and
624 Beauchemin, 2011). Lipids may inhibit cellulolytic bacteria, protozoal and archaeal activity,

625 decrease NDF digestibility, and supply non-fermentable energy to the rumen, outcomes that can
626 decrease CH₄ production (Maia *et al.*, 2007; Beauchemin *et al.*, 2008; Guyader *et al.*, 2014). Long-
627 chain saturated fatty acids may have a minimal inhibitive effect on archaeal activity and CH₄
628 production, whereas fatty acids such as C12:0 and C18:3 were found to be relatively potent
629 reducers (Machmüller and Kreuzer, 1999; Patra, 2013). Therefore, the actual decrease in CH₄
630 production obtained from lipids may depend on their fatty acid composition, although this is not
631 confirmed by all *in vivo* studies (*e.g.*, Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011). More importantly, the
632 removal of data associated with dietary lipid and oil supplements excluded data with higher dietary
633 EE contents, which more potently decrease CH₄ production (Patra, 2013), may explain why
634 DMI+EE_C equations did not perform better than the DMI_C equations, despite the significant
635 relationships that were obtained for CH₄ production and yield with dietary EE content.

636 Dietary crude protein content being positively associated with the all-data CH₄ yield in the
637 present analysis aligns with the observation that dietary nitrogen content is positively related to
638 fiber digestibility (Dijkstra *et al.*, 1996). However, decreased CH₄ production may only be
639 observed from cattle fed a diet that is deficient in rumen degradable protein (Sutter *et al.*, 2017).
640 In the present study, we did not observe any relationship between crude protein content and NDF
641 digestibility, $r = 0.04$. However, we did observe a correlation between crude protein content and
642 organic matter and dry matter digestibility, $r = 0.42$ and $r = 0.37$, respectively. This is possibly due
643 to higher starch degradability, which could not be verified because of the lack of starch
644 degradability data. Van Lingen *et al.* (2018) applying a multivariate regression approach found
645 that the methodological issues such as the structure of random-effects (co)variance matrices and
646 the combination of fixed-effects variables affect the statistical inference regarding the relationship
647 between dietary crude protein and CH₄ production or yield. Therefore, also based on dietary crude

648 protein selected for only one equation, the latter relationship may not be commonly strong as well
649 as it may not generally exist. Dietary crude protein may actually be associated with lesser CH₄
650 production when sufficient rumen degradable protein is fed so as not to limit fermentation in the
651 rumen due to N shortage (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2011), and may be considered a less robust predictor of
652 CH₄ production than dietary NDF and starch.

653 A positive relationship between BW and CH₄ production observed in various equations in
654 the present analysis aligns with previous cattle research (Yan *et al.*, 2009; Moraes *et al.*, 2014;
655 Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a). Demment and Van Soest (1985) and Smith and Baldwin
656 (1974) observed rumen volume and weight proportional to BW of animals. Consequently, smaller
657 animals ingest less feed and emit less CH₄ (Hristov *et al.*, 2013b). In addition, empirical modeling
658 (Sauvant and Nozière, 2016) and mechanistic model simulations (Huhtanen *et al.*, 2015, 2016)
659 indicated the DMI/BW ratio to be an important factor for CH₄ yield. At similar DMI, smaller cattle
660 tend to produce less CH₄ as the passage rate from the rumen to the intestine may be higher due to
661 a greater DMI/BW ratio. This has been confirmed in sheep for which animals yielding less CH₄
662 had smaller rumen size (Goopy *et al.*, 2014). Therefore, BW influences DMI, and DMI and rumen
663 volume determine the passage rate of ruminal digesta, which affects feed digestibility, rumen
664 fermentation conditions, and ultimately CH₄ production and yield.

665 **4.2 Best performing equations**

666 Various equations and model categories for predicting beef cattle CH₄ emission have been
667 applied on various subsets in the present study. The Y_m models have only one parameter and are
668 the simplest models, the DMI_C models are still fairly simple, whereas the Animal_C models are
669 potentially the most complex. The Animal_C model commonly performed best among all models
670 and outperformed the GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2 equations, except for the European higher-

671 forage subset. The DMI appeared to be the major predictor of enteric CH₄ production in beef cattle,
672 but may not always be available for individual animals on commercial farms, which points to the
673 value of the Animal_no_DMI_C models. Using dietary forage content and BW as a covariate
674 commonly improved the prediction of CH₄ compared with a DMI_C equation. Therefore, the on-
675 farm availability of all previously mentioned variables is recommended. This availability also
676 enables the evaluation of the effect of dietary nutrient composition on CH₄ production. Moreover,
677 the DMI+STA_C equation (Eq. 3) appeared to perform well, and might also be used for the
678 prediction of beef cattle CH₄ production, although this equation was based on fewer observations.
679 Nevertheless, dietary starch content was never selected for the Diet_C, Animal_C,
680 Animal_no_DMI_C and Global_C equations, whereas NDF content was, indicating that
681 DMI+STA_C equations may be slightly less robust than Diet_C and Animal_C equations.

682 If dietary forage content is known to be > 25%, we recommend the use of the higher-forage
683 equations, because the RSR and CCC of these equations are lower and higher, respectively,
684 compared to the higher-forage subset evaluation of the all-data equations. Based on their predictive
685 performance, the higher-forage Animal_C and the Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017a) equations
686 (Eqns. 17, 11; Table 4) are specifically recommended. Despite its lower precision, the Charmley
687 *et al.* (2016) equation (Eq. 20) will still give an accurate estimate of CH₄ production if only DMI
688 is available. If dietary forage percentage is ≤ 18%, we recommend the Ellis *et al.* (2009) equations
689 (Eqns. 26-27; Table 5). In addition, we recommend the lower-forage DMI_C or all-data
690 DMI+NDF_C, DMI+STA_C and Animal_C equations that performed relatively well (Eqns. 20,
691 2-3, 6; Tables 2, 5). If dietary forage content is between 18 and 25%, we suggest an all-data
692 equation that includes dietary forage, or dietary NDF or starch, because of the forage content that
693 is commonly related to the latter two carbohydrate fractions. The European higher-forage and

694 North American higher-forage equations performed somewhat better on RSR and CCC than the
695 higher-forage equations for the European higher-forage and North American higher-forage
696 subsets, and less systematic bias was obtained for the region-specific equations. Therefore, we
697 most strongly recommend the Diet_C, Animal_C and Charmley *et al.* (2016) equations (Eq. 32-
698 33, 37; Table 6). For North American higher-forage data, the Global_C and Charmley *et al.* (2016)
699 equations are recommended in particular (Eqns. 45, 47; Table 7).

700 Models that assumed a fixed Y_m , such as the IPCC and GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2
701 equations, performed nearly as good as the developed more complex best performing equations in
702 most cases. The Tier 2 equations may, therefore, have a high potential for predicting beef cattle
703 CH₄ production as well, in particular for higher-forage diets, although the higher variance along
704 the unity lines of the predicted *vs.* observed plots indicates a lack of precision. Moreover, the
705 substantial mean bias that was obtained for the lower-forage subset in particular emphasizes the
706 importance of an accurate estimate of Y_m . In cases where dietary forage contents are not close to
707 the means of the present data (sub)sets, we do not recommend the use of the Y_m equations
708 considered in the present study, but an equation that contains dietary forage, NDF or starch. A Y_m
709 of 4.5% that was obtained for lower-forage diets may be fairly accurate given a Y_m of 5.2% that
710 was reported for 42 treatments means with $\leq 17\%$ forage (Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017b), and
711 a Y_m of 3.8% for 34 treatments means with $\leq 18\%$ forage (Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.*, 2017a).
712 Both of these studies reported 9.5% forage on average for studies collected from multiple
713 continents. These Y_m values are all higher than the 3.0%, which the IPCC uses for $\leq 10\%$ forage
714 diets. The $\leq 10\%$ forage records in the present analysis, which also had a Y_m of 4.5% suggests that
715 the Y_m value for lower-forage diets used by the IPCC needs to be reconsidered. However, practices
716 such as feeding steam-flaked corn (Hales *et al.*, 2012) and dietary supplementation with monensin

717 (Appuhamy *et al.*, 2013) may require alternative prediction as these diets may have a Y_m value of
718 3.0%. This also applies to fat supplemented diets (Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011; Patra, 2013).

719 For CH₄ yield predictions, the all-data NDF_C, Diet_no_DMI_C and Global_no_DMI_C
720 CH₄ yield equations (Eqns. 54, 57-58) had RSR values < 1 and are suitable for use if dietary forage
721 content is unknown. The Global_no_DMI_C equations may also be used if dietary forage content
722 is known to be $\leq 18\%$. The higher-forage Diet_no_DMI_C CH₄ yield equation is the only equation
723 to consider for forage contents > 25% (Eq. 62; Table S4), based on RSR values > 1 for the other
724 higher-forage CH₄ yield equations. For forage contents between 18 and 25% we recommend an
725 all-data equation with RSR < 1 and the highest CCC value when evaluated with all data, which is
726 the Global_no_DMI_C yield equation (Eq. 58). Given that all CH₄ intensity equations were
727 associated with an RSR value > 1 for the higher- and lower-forage subsets, we recommend the
728 observed average values of 108 and 161 [g (kg ADG)⁻¹] for dietary forage contents of $\leq 18\%$ and
729 $\geq 25\%$, respectively. For dietary contents between 18 and 25% or if forage content is unknown we
730 recommend the all-data Global_C equation (Eq. 69; Table S5).

731

732 **5. Conclusion**

733 Our analysis is based on the large GLOBAL NETWORK dataset comprising data from
734 several continents and a wide variety of forage contents. As observed previously, DMI is the key
735 factor for predicting beef cattle enteric CH₄ production. Non-linear models with DMI as the only
736 independent variable did not outperform their counterpart linear models. However, linear models
737 depending on DMI and dietary forage content or these two covariates plus BW commonly had an
738 improved predictive ability. Separate equations for lower-forage ($\leq 18\%$) and higher-forage (\geq
739 25%) data also improved predictive ability. Model evaluation specific to European higher-forage,

740 North American higher-forage and Brazilian higher-forage diets compared with that of
741 intercontinental higher-forage diet models suggests that overall enteric CH₄ production is more
742 accurately predicted by region-specific models, although in many cases the best intercontinental
743 and region-specific models may perform similarly. The equations developed in the present study
744 commonly had higher precision and less prediction error with similar accuracy compared to the
745 extant equations that were evaluated. Evaluation of CH₄ emission conversion factors indicated that
746 region-specific and in particular dietary forage content-based Y_m values are required for adequately
747 predicting beef cattle CH₄ production in national or global inventories.

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1007 Table 1. Variable summary statistics for all data, higher-forage (data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$), lower-forage (data associated with a forage content
 1008 $\leq 18\%$), European higher-forage (EUR-HF) and North American higher-forage (NrAm-HF) entries of the GLOBAL NETWORK beef cattle database.

Item*	All data (<i>n</i> = 1021)				Higher-forage (<i>n</i> = 882)				Lower-forage (<i>n</i> = 139)				EUR-HF (<i>n</i> = 307)				NrAm-HF (<i>n</i> = 394)			
	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD	Mean	Min	Max	SD
DMI (kg d ⁻¹)	8.13	2.26	17.5	2.82	7.81	2.26	17.5	2.86	10.1	4.77	15.6	1.89	9.46	3.17	15.7	2.12	6.16	2.26	14.1	2.51
GEI (MJ d ⁻¹)	150	42.6	317	53.7	144	42.6	317	53.1	191	88.2	300	37.1	177	57.8	299	42.0	114	42.6	254	45.4
Diet composition (% of DM)																				
CP	14.6	6.19	22.5	2.56	14.6	6.19	21.3	2.60	14.6	11.4	22.5	2.35	14.3	7.80	19.2	1.84	15.6	10.0	21.3	2.52
EE	3.02	0.372	7.02	1.20	2.87	0.372	7.02	1.05	3.90	0.377	5.63	1.57	3.65	0.372	5.80	1.40	2.58	0.669	5.50	0.825
Ash	6.29	3.22	13.7	2.11	6.52	3.22	13.7	2.13	4.85	3.50	8.00	1.24	6.06	3.40	11.4	1.80	6.51	3.22	13.7	2.29
NDF	35.0	17.2	73.9	11.2	36.6	17.2	73.9	11.2	24.7	19.8	33.3	3.12	37.5	26.1	68.4	7.25	32.9	17.5	67.8	9.76
ADF	19.3	6.92	50.8	8.13	20.6	7.50	50.8	8.06	11.6	6.92	14.5	1.99	21.7	14.0	40.3	5.15	17.5	7.50	36.5	7.28
STA	34.0	2.50	64.1	13.6	32.2	2.50	64.1	14.3	42.0	32.0	56.9	4.52	25.3	2.50	40.3	10.3	41.2	16.8	64.1	12.6
For	51.0	8.0	100	27.7	57.7	25.0	100	24.0	9.8	8.0	18.1	3.18	64.6	31.0	100	16.9	47.9	25.0	100	23.6
ADG (kg d ⁻¹)	1.25	0.060	3.38	0.431	1.19	0.060	3.38	0.438	1.46	0.552	2.22	0.330	1.22	0.088	1.99	0.348	NA	NA	NA	NA
BW (kg)	478	133	791	148	454	133	791	144	625	376	734	76.5	571	133	791	128	391	196	699	116
Methane emissions																				
CH ₄ (g d ⁻¹)	161	37.0	372	70.5	162	37.0	372	73.5	153	45.1	310	46.4	215	40.9	372	71.8	125	37.0	313	57.5
CH ₄ /DMI (g kg ⁻¹)	20.0	6.29	35.1	5.05	20.7	6.29	35.1	4.75	15.2	7.50	30.9	4.29	22.5	6.64	35.1	5.19	20.3	6.29	33.3	4.21
CH ₄ /ADG (g kg ⁻¹)																				
¹⁾ †	4.98	3.31	6.68	0.522	5.08	3.31	6.68	0.528	4.68	3.84	5.71	0.362	5.20	3.31	6.68	0.517	NA	NA	NA	NA
Y _m (% of GEI)§	6.0	1.9	10.4	1.5	6.3	1.9	10.4	1.4	4.5	2.3	8.7	1.2	6.7	2.0	10.3	1.5	6.2	1.9	10.4	1.3

1009 *DM = dry matter, DMI = dry matter intake, GEI = gross energy intake, CP = dietary crude protein, EE = dietary ether extract, NDF = dietary neutral detergent fiber,

1010 ADF = dietary acid detergent fiber, STA = dietary starch, For = dietary forage, ADG = average daily body weight gain, BW = body weight.

1011 ‡Min = minimum, Max = maximum, SD = standard deviation.

1012 † In transformed values.

1013 §Methane conversion factor (%): energy of CH₄ as a proportion of GEI; the specific energy of CH₄ is 55.65 MJ kg⁻¹.

1014 Table 2. All-data CH₄ emission (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) prediction equations for various categories and model performance across the data (sub)sets
 1015 based on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB
 1016 and SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development				Model performance						
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[1]	DMI_C	54.2 (7.6) + 12.6 (0.6) × DMI	1021	All-data	991	31.2	0.71	0.69	12.55	0.60
				Higher-forage	852	30.8	0.67	3.86	27.26	0.64
				Lower-forage	139	33.9	1.12	34.96	0.59	0.27
[2]	DMI+NDF_C	-16.4 (9.0) + 12.1 (0.6) × DMI + 2.10 (0.16) × NDF	1021	All-data	991	31.4	0.71	0.92	1.99	0.63
				Higher-forage	852	31.8	0.69	1.82	2.81	0.65
				Lower-forage	139	28.7	0.94	3.45	2.10	0.32
[3]	DMI+STA_C	126 (11) + 11.5 (0.9) × DMI – 1.75 (0.16) × STA	704	All-data	704	28.9	0.71	6.09	1.01	0.65
				Higher-forage	575	28.7	0.70	13.87	1.80	0.68
				Lower-forage	129	30.1	0.96	15.77	0.64	0.35
[4]	DMI+EE_C	83.0 (9.8) + 11.9 (0.6) × DMI – 7.31 (1.69) × EE	754	All-data	754	29.4	0.71	1.35	8.83	0.61
				Higher-forage	644	29.2	0.67	0.08	19.59	0.64
				Lower-forage	110	30.3	1.21	37.59	4.20	0.25
[5]	Diet_C	-0.767 (7.493) + 12.0 (0.5) × DMI + 1.12 (0.06) × For	1021	All-data	991	29.5	0.67	2.39	1.24	0.70
				Higher-forage	852	29.5	0.64	1.30	2.12	0.72
				Lower-forage	139	29.8	0.98	17.57	0.30	0.32
[6]	Animal_C, Global_C		1003	All-data	991	26.9	0.61	2.20	1.37	0.76
				All-data ^{‡,§}	646	22.5	0.52	3.05	0.41	0.84

		$-28.3 (8.3) + 10.3 (0.6) \times \text{DMI} +$		Higher-forage	852	26.8	0.58	2.00	1.83	0.78
		$1.12 (0.06) \times \text{For} + 0.0885$		Lower-forage	139	27.8	0.91	3.72	0.65	0.35
		$(0.0150) \times \text{BW}$								
[7]	Animal_no_DMI_C	$6.03 (10.40) + 1.25 (0.07) \times \text{For} -$	992	All-data	991	30.9	0.70	0.55	1.98	0.65
		$2.29 (0.77) \times \text{Ash} + 0.212 (0.015)$		Higher-forage	852	30.9	0.67	0.23	3.04	0.68
		$\times \text{BW}$		Lower-forage	139	31.3	1.03	5.86	3.26	0.11
[8]	GLOBAL	$[0.061 (0.001) \times \text{GEI}] / 0.05565$	1021	All-data	991	28.5	0.64	0.59	0.27	0.75
	NETWORK Tier 2			All-data ^{†,‡}	991	28.3	0.64	0.23	0.87	0.76
[9]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) ¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	All-data [†]	991	29.9	0.68	7.97	3.04	0.75
[10]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$-6.10 + 20.6 \times \text{DMI}$		All-data ^{†,}	939	28.9	0.66	0.00	1.15	0.74
[11]	Escobar-Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} -$ $69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		All-data ^{†,‡}	646	23.2	0.54	11.66	2.12	0.85

1017 § Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1018 * Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d⁻¹), NDF = dietary neutral

1019 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), Ash = dietary ash (% of DM), For = dietary

1020 forage (% of DM), BW = body weight (kg), GEI = gross energy intake (MJ d⁻¹), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d⁻¹).

1021 †*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations

1022 ‡All-data = all data collected for analysis, Higher-forage = data associated with a forage content ≥ 25%, Lower-forage = data associated with a

1023 forage content ≤ 18%.

1024 †*p* = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

1025 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

1026 †Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

- 1027 ♪No independent evaluation.
- 1028 ¶The 991 data points minus data from Tomkins *et al.* (2011) and Kennedy and Charmley (2012) to ensure independent evaluation.
- 1029 #The 991 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), Chaves *et al.* (2006), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl
- 1030 *et al.* (2012), Hünérberg *et al.* (2013ab) and Troy *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.

1031 Table 3. Root mean square prediction error-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR) of the DMI_C CH₄ production (g d⁻¹) equations based on lower-forage
 1032 (≤ forage content cutoff) and higher-forage (> forage content cutoff) subsets, their number of observations (*n*), and the average RSR weighted to
 1033 the number of higher- and lower-forage observations (All) for various diet forage content cutoff values to split the entire dataset into lower-forage
 1034 and higher-forage subsets.

(Sub)set	Forage content cutoff (% of DM)									
	0	15	20	25	30	35	40	45	50	
Higher-forage	NA	0.65	0.64	0.65	0.68	0.68	0.69	0.70	0.62	
<i>n</i>	NA	902	882	783	672	664	602	579	474	
Lower-forage	NA	0.95	0.94	0.78	0.69	0.70	0.68	0.68	0.73	
<i>n</i>	NA	119	139	238	349	357	419	442	547	
All	0.71	0.68	0.68	0.68	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.69	0.68	

1035

1036 Table 4. Higher-forage CH₄ emission (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) prediction equations for various categories and model performance across the data subsets
 1037 based on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB
 1038 and SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development					Model performance					
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[12]	DMI_C	52.8 (7.5) + 13.8 (0.6) × DMI	882	Higher-forage	852	29.3	0.64	0.28	22.78	0.68
				EUR-HF	307	29.3	0.88	26.42	15.91	0.43
				NrAm-HF	394	27.3	0.59	16.37	27.26	0.75
				BRZ-HF	75	26.1	1.40	31.70	22.96	0.23
[13]	DMI+NDF_C	23.8 (9.1) + 13.5 (0.6) × DMI + 0.844 (0.165) × NDF	882	Higher-forage	852	29.1	0.64	0.20	17.83	0.69
				EUR-HF	307	29.0	0.87	27.08	14.11	0.45
				NrAm-HF	394	25.2	0.55	13.46	21.70	0.80
				BRZ-HF	75	24.9	1.34	24.24	26.05	0.25
[14]	DMI+STA_C	83.4 (11.4) + 13.6 (0.8) × DMI – 0.594 (0.161) × STA	575	Higher-forage	575	26.6	0.65	1.42	16.37	0.68
				EUR-HF	273	26.0	0.93	21.41	4.37	0.35
				NrAm-HF	269	24.7	0.56	16.08	20.02	0.78
				BRZ-HF	14	29.2	2.47	77.05	9.49	-0.04
[15]	DMI+EE_C	66.4 (9.5) + 13.3 (0.6) × DMI – 3.69 (1.56) × EE	644	Higher-forage	644	27.8	0.64	1.32	15.45	0.69
				EUR-HF	122	26.1	1.00	43.22	6.45	0.39
				NrAm-HF	394	28.4	0.61	18.29	28.79	0.73
				BRZ-HF	104	24.0	1.33	30.48	19.06	0.23
[16]	Diet_C		882	Higher-forage	852	27.9	0.61	0.49	15.52	0.72

		$23.4 (8.1) + 13.2 (0.5) \times \text{DMI} +$		EUR-HF	307	27.9	0.84	25.38	12.04	0.49
		$0.571 (0.080) \times \text{For}$		NrAm-HF	394	23.1	0.50	8.40	17.91	0.83
				BRZ-HF	75	22.6	1.21	14.48	25.25	0.28
[17]	Animal_C, Global_C	$-6.41 (8.31) + 11.3 (0.6) \times \text{DMI} +$	864	Higher-forage	852	24.6	0.54	0.80	14.74	0.80
		$0.557 (0.077) \times \text{For} + 0.0996$		Higher-forage [‡]	567	21.2	0.47	0.11	10.43	0.86
		$(0.0142) \times \text{BW}$		EUR-HF	307	24.5	0.73	18.25	11.11	0.61
				NrAm-HF	394	20.3	0.44	3.82	11.92	0.88
				BRZ-HF	75	21.2	1.14	1.36	27.11	0.22
[18]	Animal_no_DMI_C	$17.9 (10.4) + 0.732 (0.091) \times \text{For} +$	864	Higher-forage	852	30.8	0.67	0.01	13.23	0.65
		$0.226 (0.015) \times \text{BW}$		EUR-HF	307	26.3	0.79	14.80	11.89	0.52
				NrAm-HF	394	33.1	0.72	18.90	5.82	0.65
				BRZ-HF	75	27.0	1.45	31.74	25.94	-0.14
[19]	GLOBAL	$[0.063 (0.002) \times \text{GEI}] / 0.05565$	882	Higher-forage	852	24.6	0.54	2.12	1.37	0.82
	NETWORK Tier 2			Higher-forage ^{‡,†}	852	24.0	0.52	0.14	0.62	0.83
[9]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) ¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	Higher-forage [‡]	852	24.1	0.53	1.19	0.06	0.84
[20]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$21.0 \times \text{DMI}$		Higher-forage ^{‡,l}	829	25.4	0.57	0.10	0.05	0.81
[11]	Escobar-Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} -$ $69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		Higher-forage ^{‡,#}	567	23.1	0.51	9.61	1.56	0.86

1039 § Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1040 * Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d⁻¹), NDF = dietary neutral

1041 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), For = dietary forage (% of DM), BW = body

1042 weight (kg), GEI = gross energy intake (MJ d⁻¹), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d⁻¹).

1043 †*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1044 ‡Higher-forage = data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$, EUR-HF = European data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$, NrAm-HF =
1045 North American data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$, BRZ-HF = Brazilian data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$.
1046 † p = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.
1047 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.
1048 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.
1049 ♫No independent evaluation.
1050 ¶The 852 data points minus data from Tomkins *et al.* (2011) and Kennedy and Charmley (2012) to ensure independent evaluation.
1051 #The 852 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), Chaves *et al.* (2006), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl
1052 *et al.* (2012), Hünnerberg *et al.* (2013ab) and Troy *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.

1053 Table 5. Lower-forage CH₄ emission (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) prediction equations and model performance using the lower-forage subset based on root
 1054 mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and SB; % of
 1055 mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Model development					Model performance					
Eq.	Category§	Prediction equation*	n†	(Sub)set‡	p‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[20]	DMI_C, Diet_C, Animal_C, Global_C	46.6 (19.4) + 9.54 (1.80) × DMI	139	Lower-forage	139	28.4	0.94	4.81	0.03	0.26
[21]	DMI+NDF_C	112 (47) + 9.46 (1.79) × DMI – 2.58 (1.72) × NDF	139	Lower-forage	139	29.3	0.96	4.74	1.34	0.25
[22]	DMI+STA_C	42.0 (38.9) + 9.85 (1.88) × DMI + 0.0331 (0.7546) × STA	129	Lower-forage	129	34.5	1.11	3.70	20.18	0.23
[23]	DMI+EE_C	57.0 (18.1) + 8.84 (1.74) × DMI – 1.17 (2.03) × EE	110	Lower-forage	110	24.1	0.96	4.54	1.22	0.26
[24]	GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2	[0.045 (0.002) × GEI] / 0.05565	139	Lower-forage	139	27.9	0.92	3.13	3.02	0.39
				Lower-forage ^{♯,♯♯}	139	27.3	0.90	0.47	3.99	0.43
				Lower-forage ^{♯,}	101	25.2	0.98	2.27	12.91	0.41
[25]	IPCC Tier 2 (2006) Lower-forage [¶]	(0.030 × GEI) / 0.05565	-	Lower-forage [♯]	139	42.1	1.38	59.60	0.08	0.17
				Lower-forage ^{♯,}	101	39.0	1.51	64.08	0.35	0.16
[26]	Ellis <i>et al.</i> (2009); Eq. N	48.2 + 14.1 × DMI – 20.5 × (STA/NDF)		Lower-forage [♯]	129	27.8	0.89	0.26	2.04	0.41
[27]	Ellis <i>et al.</i> (2009); Eq. A	41.2 + 12.0 × DMI		Lower-forage [♯]	139	27.9	0.92	6.19	0.15	0.34

1056 §Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section; no
1057 Animal_no_DMI_C equation available.

1058 *Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d⁻¹), NDF = dietary neutral
1059 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), GEI = gross energy intake (MJ d⁻¹).

1060 †*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1061 ‡Lower-forage = data associated with a forage content ≤ 18%.

1062 †*p* = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

1063 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

1064 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

1065 ♫No independent evaluation.

1066 ‖A subset containing ≤ 10% forage records only was used (as recommended by the IPCC, 2006)

1067 Table 6. European higher-forage CH₄ emission (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) prediction equations for various categories and model performance based on root
 1068 mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and SB; % of
 1069 mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Eq.	Category§	Model development			Model performance					
		Prediction equation*	n†	(Sub)set‡	p‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[28]	DMI_C	60.5 (16.4) + 15.0 (1.4) × DMI	307	EUR-HF	307	26.3	0.79	4.86	15.69	0.48
[29]	DMI+NDF_C	38.1 (23.3) + 14.9 (1.4) × DMI + 0.598 (0.470) × NDF	307	EUR-HF	307	25.9	0.77	5.21	13.15	0.51
[30]	DMI+STA_C	92.4 (21.7) + 11.7 (2.0) × DMI + 0.113 (0.285) × STA	273	EUR-HF	273	25.6	0.92	9.92	2.20	0.30
[31]	DMI+EE_C	133 (34) + 14.5 (2.0) × DMI – 18.4 (6.6) × EE	122	EUR-HF	122	23.7	0.91	1.86	13.87	0.54
[32]	Diet_C	–20.9 (43.6) + 14.3 (2.0) × DMI + 4.04 (1.06) × NDF – 15.4 (3.8) × EE	122	EUR-HF	122	18.4	0.70	5.57	0.97	0.70
[33]	Animal_C	–102 (40.5) + 11.6 (2.1) × DMI + 3.74 (0.79) × NDF – 11.1 (3.0) × EE + 0.164 (0.054) × BW	122	EUR-HF EUR_HF#	122 109	16.7 15.5	0.64 0.58	3.49 1.31	0.00 0.13	0.75 0.79
[34]	Animal_no_DMI_C	34.1 (18.7) + 0.287 (0.028) × BW	307	EUR-HF	307	27.0	0.81	10.37	3.73	0.50
[35]	Global_C	24.3 (17.7) + 9.37 (2.06) × DMI + 0.153 (0.040) × BW	307	EUR-HF	307	24.5	0.73	8.88	11.91	0.58
[36]	GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2	[0.066 (0.003) × GEI] / 0.05565	307	EUR-HF EUR-HF♫,♬	307 307	22.9 21.8	0.69 0.65	7.03 1.89	2.04 1.34	0.68 0.71

[9]	IPCC Tier 2, 2006¶	$(0.065 \times \text{GEI}) / 0.05565$	-	EUR-HF♯	307	22.0	0.66	3.54	1.61	0.71
[37]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	$-15.3 + 24.7 \times \text{DMI}$		EUR-HF♯	307	21.9	0.66	0.61	0.16	0.72
					122	19.7	0.75	2.09	3.18	0.66
[11]	Escobar- Bahamondes <i>et al.</i> (2017a)	$-35.0 + 0.08 \times \text{BW} + 1.2 \times \text{For} - 69.8 \times \text{EEI}^3 + 3.14 \times \text{GEI}$		EUR-HF♯,‡	109	16.0	0.60	0.61	0.37	0.77

1070 §Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1071 *Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d⁻¹), NDF = dietary neutral

1072 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), BW = body weight (kg), GEI = gross energy

1073 intake (MJ d⁻¹), EEI = ether extract intake (kg d⁻¹).

1074 †*n* = number of observations used to fit model equations.

1075 ‡EUR-HF = European data associated with a forage content ≥ 25%.

1076 †*p* = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.

1077 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.

1078 ♯Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.

1079 ♪No independent evaluation.

1080 # The 307 data points minus data from Pinares-Patiño *et al.* (2003), McGeough *et al.* (2010ab), Doreau *et al.* (2011), Staerfl *et al.* (2012) and Troy
1081 *et al.* (2015) to ensure independent evaluation.

1082 Table 7. North American higher-forage CH₄ emission (g d⁻¹ animal⁻¹) prediction equations for various categories and model performance based
 1083 on root mean square prediction error (RMSPE; % of mean), RMSPE-observations-standard-deviation-ratio (RSR), mean and slope bias (MB and
 1084 SB; % of mean square prediction error), and concordance correlation coefficient (CCC).

Eq.	Category§	Model development			Model performance					
		Prediction equation*	<i>n</i> †	(Sub)set‡	<i>p</i> ‡	RMSPE, %	RSR	MB, %	SB, %	CCC
[38]	DMI_C	33.9 (7.7) + 14.7 (0.6) × DMI	394	NrAm-HF	394	25.3	0.55	0.00	26.45	0.78
[39]	DMI+NDF_C	1.58 (8.30) + 14.2 (0.6) × DMI + 1.05 (0.16) × NDF	394	NrAm-HF	394	23.8	0.52	0.02	16.29	0.82
[40]	DMI+STA_C	89.7 (10.7) + 14.2 (0.8) × DMI – 1.17 (0.17) × STA	269	NrAm-HF	269	21.4	0.49	1.90	9.73	0.84
[41]	DMI+EE_C	43.7 (8.8) + 14.7 (0.6) × DMI – 3.72 (1.52) × EE	394	NrAm-HF	394	25.0	0.54	0.01	25.47	0.78
[42]	Diet_C	7.41 (7.12) + 14.1 (0.6) × DMI + 0.632 (0.069) × For	394	NrAm-HF	394	22.2	0.48	0.01	11.10	0.85
[43]	Animal_C,	–15.1 (7.5) + 12.7 (0.6) × DMI + 0.644 (0.066) × For + 0.0779 (0.0134) × BW	394	NrAm-HF	394	20.1	0.43	0.02	6.12	0.88
[44]	Animal_no_DMI_C	14.0 (12.3) + 0.965 (0.104) × For + 0.207 (0.018) × BW – 3.02 (0.95) × Ash	394	NrAm-HF	394	32.2	0.70	0.32	5.45	0.63
[45]	Global_C	–38.8 (10.9) + 12.7 (0.6) × DMI + 0.605 (0.066) × For + 1.61 (0.56) × CP + 0.0779 (0.0133) × BW	394	NrAm-HF	394	20.0	0.43	0.04	3.03	0.89
[46]	GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2	[0.063 (0.003) × GEI] / 0.05565	394	NrAm-HF	394	21.9	0.48	0.81	0.03	0.87
[9]	IPCC Tier 2, 2006¶	(0.065 × GEI) / 0.05565	-	NrAm-HF♯,♯	394	21.4	0.46	2.51	0.02	0.88
[47]	Charmley <i>et al.</i> (2016)	20.5 × DMI	-	NrAm-HF♯	394	22.2	0.48	8.70	0.50	0.88
				NrAm-HF♯	394	20.0	0.43	0.45	0.02	0.90

1085 §Category acronyms (*e.g.*, DMI_C) are explained in the ‘Model development’ subsection of the ‘Methods and Materials’ section.

1086 *Equations are presented with regression coefficient standard errors in parenthesis; DMI = dry matter intake (kg d^{-1}), NDF = dietary neutral
1087 detergent fiber (% of DM), STA = dietary starch (% of DM), EE = dietary ether extract (% of DM), For = dietary forage (% of DM), GEI = gross
1088 energy intake (MJ d^{-1}), BW = body weight (kg).
1089 † n = number of observations used to fit model equations.
1090 ‡NrAm-HF = North American data associated with a forage content $\geq 25\%$.
1091 † p = numbers of observations used for model evaluation.
1092 ¶IPCC = Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change.
1093 ♪Performance was evaluated, not cross-validated.
1094 ♫No independent evaluation.

1095 Figure 1. Observed vs. predicted plots for all-data methane emission ($\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$) prediction
1096 equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI_C), dry matter intake and
1097 neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA_C), dry matter
1098 intake and ether extract (DMI+EE_C), diet (Diet_C), animal (Animal_C), animal without DMI
1099 (Animal_no_DMI_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant
1100 Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and black
1101 solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted
1102 values, and the identity line ($y = x$), respectively.

1103

1104 Figure 2. Observed vs. predicted plots for higher-forage methane emission ($\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$)
1105 prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI_C), dry matter
1106 intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA_C),
1107 dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE_C), diet (Diet_C), animal (Animal_C), animal
1108 without DMI (Animal_no_DMI_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the
1109 extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and
1110 black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and
1111 predicted values, and the identity line ($y = x$), respectively.

1112

1113 Figure 3. Observed vs. predicted plots for lower-forage methane emission ($\text{g d}^{-1} \text{ animal}^{-1}$)
1114 prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI_C), dry matter
1115 intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF_C), dry matter intake and starch (DMI+STA_C),
1116 dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE_C), GLOBAL NETWORK Tier 2, IPCC Tier 2
1117 (2006), and the extant Ellis *et al.* (2009) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the

1118 fitted regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity
1119 line ($y = x$), respectively.

1120

1121 Figure 4. Observed vs. predicted plots for European higher-forage methane emission (g d^{-1}
1122 animal^{-1}) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI_C), dry
1123 matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF_C), dry matter intake and starch
1124 (DMI+STA_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE_C), dietary (Diet_C), animal
1125 (Animal_C), animal without DMI (Animal_no_DMI_C), global (Global_C), GLOBAL
1126 NETWORK Tier 2, and IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) and Escobar-
1127 Bahamondes *et al.* (2017) equations. The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted
1128 regression line for the relationship between observed and predicted values, and the identity line
1129 ($y = x$), respectively.

1130

1131 Figure 5. Observed vs. predicted plots for North American higher-forage methane emission (g d^{-1}
1132 animal^{-1}) prediction equations for the different categories, viz., dry matter intake (DMI_C), dry
1133 matter intake and neutral detergent fiber (DMI+NDF_C), dry matter intake and starch
1134 (DMI+STA_C), dry matter intake and ether extract (DMI+EE_C), dietary (Diet_C), animal
1135 (Animal_C), animal without DMI (Animal_no_DMI_C), global (Global_C), GLOBAL
1136 NETWORK Tier 2 (2006), IPCC Tier 2 (2006), and the extant Charmley *et al.* (2016) equation.
1137 The gray and black solid lines represent the fitted regression line for the relationship between
1138 observed and predicted values, and the identity line ($y = x$), respectively.