

Scotland's Rural College

## **Nutritional strategies to reduce methane emissions from cattle: effects on meat eating quality and retail shelf life of loin steaks**

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*Published in:*  
Meat Science

*DOI:*  
[10.1016/j.meatsci.2019.03.009](https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2019.03.009)

Print publication: 01/07/2019

*Document Version*  
Peer reviewed version

[Link to publication](#)

### *Citation for published version (APA):*

Richardson, I., Duthie, C-A., Hyslop, JJ., Rooke, JA., & Roehe, R. (2019). Nutritional strategies to reduce methane emissions from cattle: effects on meat eating quality and retail shelf life of loin steaks. *Meat Science*, 153, 51-57. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.meatsci.2019.03.009>

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1 **Nutritional strategies to reduce methane emissions from cattle: effects on meat eating**  
2 **quality and retail shelf life of loin steaks**

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11

12

13 ABSTRACT

14 Increasing the lipid concentration and/or inclusion of nitrate in the diet of ruminant livestock  
15 have been proposed as effective strategies to reduce the contribution of methane from the  
16 agricultural sector to greenhouse gas emissions. In this study, the effects of increased lipid  
17 or added nitrate on beef eating quality were investigated in two experiments. In experiment  
18 1, lipid and nitrate were fed alone with two different and contrasting basal diets to finishing  
19 beef cattle. In the second experiment, lipid and nitrate were fed alone or in combination with  
20 a single basal diet. The sensory properties and retail colour shelf life of loin muscle samples  
21 obtained were then characterised. Overall, neither lipid nor nitrate had any adverse effects  
22 on sensory properties or colour shelf life of loin muscle.

23 *Keywords*

24 Beef; methane emissions; nitrate; lipid; eating quality; shelf life

25 **1. Introduction**

26 Methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) produced by fermentation of feed, predominantly in the rumen of  
27 ruminant livestock, contributes significantly to greenhouse gas emissions. In the United  
28 Kingdom in 2014 (Department of Energy and Climate Change, 2016), enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions  
29 were estimated to account for 23.8 Mt carbon dioxide equivalents or 48% of total  
30 greenhouse gas emissions from the agriculture sector. A reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from  
31 livestock is therefore part of international governmental strategies for reducing greenhouse  
32 gas emissions (Australian Government, 2017; Scottish Government, 2018).

33 Manipulation of the diet to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions is an important strategy available to  
34 livestock farming (Hristov et al., 2013). Many such strategies have been tested but  
35 convincing evidence for long-term efficacy *in vivo* for many is lacking. Increasing dietary lipid  
36 and the inclusion of nitrate in the diet have been shown to be effective mitigation strategies  
37 (Hristov et al., 2013) and their use has been recently reviewed (Martin, Morgavi, & Doreau,  
38 2010; Patra, 2014; Lee & Beauchemin, 2014; Yang, Rooke, Cabeza, & Wallace, 2016). The  
39 extent to which either lipid or nitrate can be included in the diet is limited by potential adverse  
40 effects such as a reduction in fibre digestion and consequently feed intake from increased  
41 lipid in the diet and nitrate / nitrite toxicity from adding nitrate. However, little attention has  
42 been paid to the effects the safe application of lipids and nitrate as CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation strategies  
43 have on product quality. For lipids, the focus has been on the effects feeding lipids protected  
44 from rumen biohydrogenation have on both the fatty acid composition of meat lipids and  
45 meat eating quality (Scollan et al., 2014). For nitrate, the main concern to date has been the

46 potential transfer of nitrate or its metabolites (nitrite, nitrosamines) to meat with potential  
47 adverse consequences for consumer health.

48 As there have been no reports of the organoleptic quality of meat, particularly from  
49 nitrate-fed cattle, the present study reports the eating quality, as measured by a trained taste  
50 panel and the simulated retail display shelf life of beef obtained from two studies (Troy et al.,  
51 2015; Duthie et al., 2016, 2018) in which the lipid content was increased or nitrate included  
52 in the diets of finishing beef cattle to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions.

53

## 54 **2. Materials and methods**

55 Both experiments were conducted at Scotland's Rural College (SRUC) Beef and  
56 Sheep Research Centre, UK. The experiments (ED AE 15/2013 and ED AE 08/2014) were  
57 approved by the Animal Experiment Committee of SRUC and conducted in accordance with  
58 the requirements of the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986. For full details of  
59 experimental procedures see Troy et al. (2015) for CH<sub>4</sub> measurements and Duthie et al.  
60 (2016) for growth performance and carcass characteristics for Experiment 1. For Experiment  
61 2, see Duthie et al. (2018) for both CH<sub>4</sub> measurements and growth performance.

### 62 *2.1. Experiment 1. Experimental design, animals and diets*

63 The experiment was of a two × two × three factorial design; comprising two breeds of  
64 steers (crossbred Charolais or purebred Luing; 6 sires per breed), two basal diets which  
65 included; the Mixed basal diet, 480 g concentrate / kg dry matter (DM), and the Concentrate  
66 diet, 920 g concentrate / kg DM, and three treatments selected for their potential as CH<sub>4</sub>  
67 mitigation strategies (Control, Nitrate or increased lipid in the form of rapeseed cake (RSC)).  
68 The Control treatment contained rapeseed meal as the main protein source which was  
69 replaced with either Nitrate in the form of calcium nitrate (Calcinit, Yara, Oslo, Norway; 18 g  
70 nitrate/kg diet DM) or RSC (a by-product from the production of rapeseed oil by cold-  
71 pressing). The ingredient and chemical compositions of the diets are given in Table 1.

72 In total, 84 steers (13 to 16 months of age at the start of performance trial; 42 of each  
73 breed type) were used. Thus, 14 animals were allocated to each of the 6 concentrate  
74 inclusion × treatment combinations (7 of each breed). The animals on each of the basal diet  
75 × treatment combinations were group-housed in one pen per combination (a total of 6 pens).  
76 All steers were offered feed individually *ad libitum* using electronic feeders (HOKO, Insentec,  
77 Marknesse, The Netherlands). Treatments were balanced for sire, age and live weight (LW)  
78 at the start of the experiment. Prior to the start of the experiment the steers were adapted to

79 the experimental diets in two stages. In stage one, the steers were adapted to basal diets  
80 over a 4 week period. In stage two (also 4 weeks), steers were adapted to the mitigation  
81 treatments by progressively increasing the amounts of nitrate or RSC.

## 82 *2.2. Experiment 2. Experimental design, animals and diets*

83 Except where otherwise stated, the experimental procedures were the same as  
84 Experiment 1. The experiment was a two (breed) × four (treatment) factorial design. The  
85 basal diet contained 450 g of concentrate /kg DM. The four treatments were assigned  
86 according to a 2 x 2 factorial arrangement where the Control treatment contained rapeseed  
87 meal as the main protein source which was replaced either with Nitrate (21.5 g nitrate/kg  
88 DM) or maize distiller's dark grains (MDDG), to increase lipid concentration (Lipid), or with  
89 both nitrate and MDDG (Combined). The ingredient and nutritional compositions of each  
90 treatment are given in Table 2. The 80 cross-bred steers (5 sires per breed; 13 to 15 months  
91 of age at start of performance trial) used were from a rotational cross between pure-bred  
92 Aberdeen Angus or Limousin sires and cross-bred dams of those breeds. Thus, 20 steers  
93 (10 of each breed type) were allocated to each dietary treatment. Treatments were balanced  
94 for sire, age and LW at the start of the experiment.

## 95 *2.3. Performance test and slaughter*

96 Growth, performance and feed conversion were characterized for all steers over a  
97 56-day period. Dry matter intake (DMI, kg/d) was recorded daily for each animal and LW  
98 weekly. At the end of the performance test, steers remained on the same diets until  
99 slaughter and DMI and LW measurements continued throughout. Before slaughter, CH<sub>4</sub>  
100 production was measured (6 steers per week) over 13 weeks (Troy et al., 2015; Duthie et al.,  
101 2018) for both experiments). In each week of CH<sub>4</sub> measurement, steers selected were  
102 balanced for concentrate inclusion and treatment and so that when subsequently sent for  
103 slaughter, variation in LW and visual assessment of fatness between slaughter groups was  
104 minimized and steers achieved commercially acceptable conformation and fat  
105 classifications. Age at slaughter therefore varied; in Experiment 1, steers were slaughtered  
106 in 4 batches on days 85, 106, 127 and 148 after the start of the performance trial. Similarly,  
107 in Experiment 2 slaughter took place 99, 120, 141 and 162 days after the start of the  
108 performance trial. The steers were transported (approximately 1 h) to a commercial abattoir  
109 and slaughtered within 2 h of arrival. Cattle were stunned using a captive bolt,  
110 exsanguinated and subject to low voltage electrical stimulation. Following hide removal,  
111 carcasses were split in half down the mid-line and dressed to UK specifications (see Meat  
112 and Livestock Commercial Services Limited beef authentication manual, [www.mlcs.co.uk](http://www.mlcs.co.uk),

113 for full description). EUROP conformation and fat classifications (Fisher, 2007), based on the  
114 UK scale, were allocated to all carcasses through visual assessment using a trained Meat  
115 and Livestock Commercial assessor.

116 At 48 h *post-mortem*, samples from the loin eye muscle, *M. longissimus thoracis* (LT)  
117 were obtained from all carcasses, vacuum-packed and delivered, using chilled transport, to  
118 the University of Bristol for assessment of sensory characteristics, colour stability under retail  
119 display conditions and vitamin E content (MacKintosh et al., 2017). All samples were chilled  
120 and conditioned at  $0 \pm 1$  °C for 10 days. Then two, 20 mm thick steaks were individually  
121 packaged in modified atmosphere packaging (MAP, 80% oxygen: 20% carbon dioxide) and  
122 displayed in a chiller under simulated retail display conditions (3 °C, 16 h light: 8 h dark, 700  
123 lx). Finally, a 75 mm section was vacuum packed, conditioned for a further 2 days (to a total  
124 of 14 days from slaughter) and then frozen for subsequent analysis by a trained sensory  
125 taste panel.

#### 126 2.4. Meat colour and chemical analysis

127 The colour of duplicate steaks packed in MAP was measured daily at 3 positions on  
128 the meat surface, through the film lid of the pack using a Minolta CR400 (Minolta camera  
129 Company, Milton Keynes, UK) with an open cone for measuring through the package  
130 surface. Illuminant D65 0/45 standard observer 10 °C as per recommendations of the expert  
131 working group (Cassens et al., 1995). A white tile covered by the film lid of MAP was used to  
132 standardise the chromameter. Colour shelf life was measured daily until a chroma of  $\leq 18$   
133 was obtained, which is a critical threshold at which consumers can detect discolouration  
134 (Hood & Riordan, 1973; MacDougall, 1982). Colour saturation (chroma) was calculated as

$$135 \quad \text{Chroma} = [(a^*)^2 + (b^*)^2]^{0.5}$$

136 The vitamin E content of meat was measured according to the methodology  
137 described by Arnold et al. (1993). Rac-5,7-dimethyl-tocol solution was used as the internal  
138 standard, and 4% (v/v) dioxane in hexane was used as the mobile phase for HPLC.

#### 139 2.5. Sensory assessment

140 The sensory analysis was performed for each animal by a 10-person trained  
141 professional taste panel, using the same people for the duration of each experiment (British  
142 Standards Institution, 1993). The loin was thawed overnight at 4 °C and cut into 20 mm thick  
143 steaks. Steaks were grilled to an internal temperature of 74 °C, measured using a  
144 thermocouple probe (Testo Limited, Alton, UK). Following cooking, all fat and connective

145 tissue was removed and the steak cut into 2 cm<sup>3</sup> cubes. The samples were placed into pre-  
146 labelled foils and placed in a heated incubator at 65 °C. Assessors tasted the samples in an  
147 order based on the designs outlined by MacFie, Bratchell, Greenhoff, & Vallis (1989) for  
148 balancing carryover effects between samples. All sensory assessments were completed  
149 under red light in a purpose-built sensory suite where each tasting booth was equipped with  
150 computer terminals linked to a fileserver running a sensory software programme (Fizz v  
151 2.20h, Biosystemes, Couternon, France). Each panellist assessed one sample from each  
152 diet per session (six samples for experiment 1 and four samples for experiment 2), with four  
153 sessions in a morning and animals from each of the slaughter dates represented in a  
154 morning. Steaks were scored against 0–100 mm unstructured intensity line scales for a  
155 consensually agreed texture profile, where 0 = nil and 100 = extreme, and 8-point category  
156 scales for tenderness (1 = extremely tough to 8 = extremely tender), juiciness (1 = extremely  
157 dry to 8 = extremely juicy), beefy flavour and abnormal beef flavour intensities (1 = extremely  
158 weak to 8 = extremely strong). The hedonic scale served as an indication of preference by  
159 the panel, but it cannot be used to infer consumer acceptance since the results are based on  
160 10 assessors who can no longer be considered as typical consumers because of the training  
161 they have received in meat assessment.

162

## 163 *2.6. Calculations and statistical analysis*

164 All statistical analysis was performed using GenStat software, 16th Edition. Analyses  
165 of performance and carcass data were conducted using linear mixed models of the REML  
166 procedure with fixed effects of breed (both experiments), concentrate inclusion (experiment  
167 1 only), and treatment (both experiments). Interaction effects of breed, concentrate inclusion  
168 and treatment were included in the models where applicable and significant ( $P < 0.05$ ). For  
169 data recorded after slaughter, age at slaughter and the length of time experimental  
170 treatments were fed were tested as covariates and included where significant. Changes in  
171 chroma during simulated retail display data were analysed using the repeated measures  
172 procedure of REML and fixed effects were as above with the addition of measurement day.  
173 For sensory characteristics, assessor and sensory sessions were additionally included as  
174 fixed effects without interactions with the other fixed effects. The standard error of the  
175 difference (sed) from the analyses is shown, and a P value of  $< 0.05$  was taken as significant  
176 for all statistical analysis.

177

178 **3. Results**

179 *3.1. Experiment 1. Performance and carcass data*

180 Steers offered the Mixed basal diet had greater DMI ( $P<0.001$ ) and LW gains  
181 ( $P=0.002$ ) than those offered the Concentrate basal diet (Table 3) but feed to gain ratio did  
182 not differ between basal diets ( $P=0.56$ ). There were no differences in performance between  
183 the CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation treatments. Steers did not differ between treatments in age at slaughter,  
184 but Mixed basal diet steers had greater slaughter ( $P=0.028$ ) and carcass weights ( $P=0.001$ )  
185 than those fed the Concentrate basal diet. Methane mitigation treatments did not influence  
186 slaughter or carcass weights. Nutritional treatments imposed had no effect (Table 3) on  
187 carcass conformation or fatness ( $P>0.05$ ). Charolais steers grew faster and had superior  
188 feed conversion ratios ( $P<0.001$ ) than Luing steers. Carcass weights ( $P<0.001$ ) were greater  
189 and conformation ( $P<0.001$ ) and fat scores ( $P=0.019$ ) superior for Charolais steers. There  
190 were no interactions between breed and nutritional treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

191 *3.2. Experiment 1. Eating quality and simulated retail display*

192 Loin steaks from steers offered the Mixed basal (Table 4) diet were tougher  
193 ( $P=0.009$ ) but had lower abnormal flavour intensity scores ( $P=0.022$ ) than steaks from steers  
194 fed the Concentrate basal diet. Methane mitigation treatments had no effect on eating quality  
195 ( $P>0.05$ ). Steaks from Luing steers were overall liked better than those from Charolais  
196 steers ( $P<0.001$ ) as a result of better scores for juiciness, tenderness (both  $P<0.001$ ) and  
197 beef flavour ( $P=0.002$ ). There were no interactions between breed and nutritional treatments  
198 ( $P>0.05$ ).

199 Colour chroma declined ( $P<0.001$ ; Fig. 1) as display progressed reaching a value of  
200 18 after 16 – 18 days display. Chroma of Concentrate basal diet steaks were lower than  
201 those of Mixed basal diet steaks ( $P<0.001$ ) and as a result these animals reached a value of  
202 18 earlier than Mixed basal diet samples (Table 4). The rate of chroma decline did not differ  
203 between basal diets (time x basal diet,  $P>0.05$ ). Again, CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation treatment did not  
204 affect meat chroma. There were no significant differences between breed in meat chroma  
205 ( $P>0.05$ ) or interactions between breed and nutritional treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

206 Vitamin E concentrations in loin steaks were greater for Mixed basal diet samples  
207 ( $P<0.001$ ; Table 4) and within concentrate inclusion, greater for Lipid than Control or Nitrate  
208 treatments ( $P<0.001$ ). Steaks from Luing steers had greater vitamin E concentrations than  
209 steaks from Charolais steers ( $P<0.001$ ). As vitamin E is more concentrated in fat than lean  
210 tissues, this would result from the Luing having fatter carcasses.



211 3.3. *Experiment 2. Performance and carcass data*

212 Increasing dietary lipid had no effects on either performance or carcass  
213 characteristics (Table 5,  $P>0.05$ ); there were also no interactions between increased lipid or  
214 inclusion of nitrate. However, steers consuming nitrate grew more slowly ( $P=0.008$ ) and had  
215 poorer feed to gain ratios ( $P=0.013$ ) than steers not fed nitrate. Feeding nitrate (Table 5) had  
216 no effect on age at slaughter, or slaughter or carcass weights, but nitrate-fed steers had  
217 poorer conformation scores ( $P=0.016$ ) than steers not fed nitrate. Aberdeen Angus  
218 crossbred steers had greater DMI and LW gain than Limousin crossbred steers ( $P<0.001$ )  
219 and thus were heavier at slaughter ( $P=0.011$ ). However, there were no differences in feed  
220 conversion ratio, carcass weights, conformation or fat scores between breeds ( $P>0.05$ ).  
221 There were no interactions between breed and nutritional treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

222 3.4. *Experiment 2. Eating quality and simulated retail display*

223 Increased dietary lipid or feeding nitrate (Table 6) had no effect on eating quality or  
224 vitamin E content of loin steaks. Steaks from Aberdeen Angus crossbred steers had greater  
225 overall liking scores ( $P=0.011$ ) than those from Limousin crossbred steers which was  
226 associated with higher scores for juiciness and tenderness (both  $P<0.001$ ). Vitamin E  
227 concentrations were greater for steaks from Aberdeen Angus crossbred steers ( $P=0.017$ ).  
228 There were no interactions between breed and nutritional treatments ( $P>0.05$ ).

229 Colour chroma decreased with time ( $P<0.001$ ) of display (Fig. 2) reaching a chroma  
230 of 18 between 15 and 17 days of display. Increased lipid concentration had no effect on  
231 chroma. However, inclusion of nitrate extended shelf life by approximately 1 day (Table 6;  
232  $P=0.005$ ) because the rate of decline of chroma (time x nitrate interaction,  $P<0.001$ ) was  
233 greater for steaks from steers that were not fed nitrate. Breed had no effect on chroma  
234 change in meat ( $P>0.05$ ).

235

236 4. *Discussion*

237 The primary aim of these experiments was to quantify the efficacy of added nitrate  
238 or increasing dietary lipid as strategies to reduce enteric CH<sub>4</sub> emissions within different  
239 nutritional and genetic backgrounds. The different genetic backgrounds were included to  
240 determine whether breed had any influence on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (which it did not). In  
241 Experiment 1, a comparison was made between breeds with very different characteristics  
242 Charolais, known for fast growth and excellent carcass composition and the Luings, a more

243 extensively managed, hardy hill and upland breed. In Experiment 2, cross-bred Angus x  
244 Limousin cattle, extensively used commercially in the UK and intermediate between  
245 Charolais and Luing, were used. However, an important secondary aim, which is the subject  
246 of this paper, was to determine whether these mitigation strategies had any adverse effects  
247 on meat/product quality; a strategy that adversely impacted the quality of the final product  
248 could not be recommended. Whilst adding nitrate to the Concentrate basal diet (Experiment  
249 1, Troy et al., 2015) did not reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Control v Nitrate, 14.7 v 15.4 g CH<sub>4</sub> / kg  
250 DMI), CH<sub>4</sub> was reduced from 25.1 to 20.6 g/kg DMI when the Mixed basal diet was fed.  
251 Similarly, increasing dietary lipid had no effect on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions when the Concentrate  
252 basal diet was fed (Control v Lipid, 14.7 v 15.7 g/kg DMI) but reduced CH<sub>4</sub> (25.1 v 23.1 g/kg  
253 DMI) when the Mixed basal diet was fed albeit to a lesser extent than Nitrate. In experiment  
254 2 (Duthie et al. 2018) where only the Mixed basal diet was fed, both nitrate and increased  
255 lipid reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions and their effects were additive (Control, 24.0, Nitrate, 22.1,  
256 Lipid, 23.4, Combined 20.9 g /kg DMI). The efficacy of nitrate in reducing CH<sub>4</sub> was less in  
257 Experiment 2 than Experiment 1 (45 v 80% of theoretical maximum reduction). To provide  
258 context to results concerning meat quality, the performance and carcass characteristics of  
259 each experiment (Experiment 1, Duthie et al., 2015; Experiment 2 (performance only),  
260 Duthie et al., 2018) were reproduced in Tables 3 and 5.

#### 261 *4.1 Concentrate inclusion (Experiment 1)*

262 Mixed basal diet-fed steers produced loin steaks which tended to be preferred by  
263 the taste panel compared to steaks from cattle fed the Concentrate basal diet. This was  
264 associated with a lower occurrence of abnormal flavours but tougher meat. Although many  
265 studies have reported effects on meat quality of varying the proportion of concentrate in the  
266 diet, responses have been variable. This is probably due to factors which include a wide  
267 range in proportions of concentrate compared, the composition of the diet and differences in  
268 perception of taste in the panels in different countries (Realini, Duckett, Brito, Dalla Rizza, &  
269 De Mattos, 2004). Focussing on studies which used broadly similar concentrate inclusions to  
270 the current study, French et al. (2001) found no differences in meat quality or colour when  
271 concentrate proportion was varied. However, Aviles, Martinez, Domenech, & Pena (2015)  
272 found, similar to the current experiment, that meat derived from cattle offered 600 g  
273 concentrates / kg total DM was tougher (mechanical testing) than meat from cattle fed a high  
274 concentrate diet. Aviles, Martinez, Domenech, & Pena (2015) also reported differences in  
275 colour parameters between treatments: meat from cattle fed a high concentrate diet had  
276 greater L\* and a\* and lower b\* values than meat from cattle offered 600 g/kg concentrates.

277 The concentrations of the fat soluble vitamin E in loin steaks were measured  
278 because of the positive association between vitamin E concentration and shelf life as  
279 measured by changes in colour chroma (Wood et al., 2008, Scollan et al., 2014) and  
280 therefore to aid interpretation. Meat from Mixed basal diet steers contained higher  
281 concentrations of vitamin E (2.8 v 1.7 µg/kg Mixed v Concentrate) and had approximately  
282 one day longer shelf life in simulated retail display than Concentrate basal diet samples. This  
283 longer shelf life may be associated with the higher vitamin E concentrations in the Mixed  
284 samples which may well be derived from the grass silage in the Mixed basal diet  
285 (Mackintosh et al., 2017). It is also noteworthy that meat vitamin E concentration from both  
286 diets was less than the value of 3.0 mg/kg reported as optimum for colour stability by Liu,  
287 Scheller, Arp, Schaefer, & Williams, (1996). However, as the rate of decline in chroma did  
288 not differ between basal diets, differences in stability between treatments may relate more to  
289 differences in chroma at the start of simulated display which may be unrelated to vitamin E  
290 concentration.

291

#### 292 4.2. Nitrate

293 The present study extends the findings on the efficacy of nitrate in reducing CH<sub>4</sub>  
294 production to aspects of meat quality. In studies using similar dietary concentrations (around  
295 20 g nitrate / kg diet DM) to the present study, nitrate has had few negative impacts on  
296 animal performance (see reviews by Lee & Beauchemin, 2014; Yang, Rooke, Cabeza, &  
297 Wallace, 2016). The poorer feed conversion ratio in Experiment 2 when nitrate was fed is an  
298 exception. In terms of negative impacts, the potential toxicity of nitrate to the animal mainly  
299 through formation of Met-haemoglobin from nitrite absorbed from the rumen as a product of  
300 nitrate reduction has been most studied. As found in the current studies (see Duthie et al.,  
301 2016, 2018) after careful adaptation of animals to nitrate, no potentially toxic Met-  
302 haemoglobin concentrations were found. More recently, Hegarty et al. (2016) and Lee,  
303 Araujo, Koenig, & Beauchemin, (2017) found no adverse effects of adding nitrate to diets on  
304 carcass characteristics. Similarly, in the present experiments, carcass characteristics, with  
305 the exception of a poorer carcass conformation in experiment 2, were not affected by nitrate.  
306 Sensory meat quality was not influenced by addition of nitrate to diets irrespective of basal  
307 diet or whether nitrate was fed alone or with increased lipid in the diet. Thus, this experiment  
308 extends the evidence that dietary nitrate when used appropriately has no adverse effects on  
309 product quality.

310 Addition of nitrate to the diet had no effect on simulated retail display in Experiment 1  
311 but improved shelf life by around 1 day in Experiment 2. This improvement in Experiment 2  
312 appeared unrelated to vitamin E concentrations which did not differ in the presence or  
313 absence of nitrate. It is possible that elevated nitrate or nitrite in meat in Experiment 2 might  
314 have provided the extra stability. When the data for Medium concentrate diets in  
315 Experiments 1 and 2 were compared, the major difference was that in experiment 2, nitrate  
316 was less effective in reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions. As noted above, in Experiment 1, the  
317 reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions was 80% of the theoretical maximum if all nitrate fed was  
318 reduced to ammonia in the rumen but only 42% in Experiment 2. This implies that 20  
319 (Experiment 1) and 58% (Experiment 2) of the nitrate fed may have been absorbed and  
320 excreted either as nitrate *per se* or after metabolism. Potential metabolites of nitrate are N  
321 containing gases, nitrite or nitrosamines. Of these, nitrate, nitrite and nitrosamines would be  
322 of concern if elevated in meat. Guyader et al. (2016) did not detect nitrate in milk from  
323 nitrate-fed cows, nor did Hegarty et al. (2016) find elevated nitrate in meat from nitrate-fed  
324 cattle and nitrosamines were below the level of detection. Lee, Araujo, Koenig, &  
325 Beauchemin (2017) did report an increase in nitrate (from 0.1 in control to 0.6 mg/kg in  
326 muscle from nitrate-fed steers) but pointed out that these concentrations were below the  
327 level of concern for human diets. In the current study, concentrations of nitrate in meat from  
328 Experiment 1 were below the limit of detection of the assay employed (data not reported).  
329 Although the above evidence suggests that increased nitrate / nitrite concentrations in meat  
330 are unlikely, because 58% of the nitrate fed in experiment 2 could not be accounted for by  
331 ammonia formation in the rumen, this possibility can not be ruled out.

#### 332 4.3 Lipids

333 The concentration of lipid in the diet was increased from 25 in the Control diets to 48  
334 and 37 g / kg DM respectively in Experiments 1 and 2 respectively. These concentrations  
335 were less than the 60 g / kg DM, above which disturbances to rumen function are likely  
336 (Brask et al., 2013). The increases in lipid concentration were limited to avoid excessive  
337 increases in diet crude protein concentration and consequent increases in nitrogen excretion  
338 with potentially adverse environmental consequences. The lipid sources used were by-  
339 products of cold pressed rapeseed oil production in Experiment 1 and the distilling industry  
340 in Experiment 2 to avoid utilising lipid destined for the human food industry. Both rapeseed  
341 (approximately 60% monounsaturated and 30% polyunsaturated) and maize (27%  
342 monounsaturated and 48% polyunsaturated) contain substantial amounts of unsaturated  
343 fatty acids. However, this lipid was not protected from biohydrogenation in the rumen  
344 because diversion of hydrogen from CH<sub>4</sub> formation to biohydrogenation is one of the

345 mechanisms by which lipids reduce CH<sub>4</sub> formation (Martin, Morgavi, & Doreau, 2010). Thus,  
346 in contrast to situations where lipid sources protected from rumen metabolism and  
347 containing high concentrations of polyunsaturated fatty acids are fed (see review by Scollan  
348 et al., 2014), the combination of small increases in dietary lipid and biohydrogenation in the  
349 present experiment, suggests that amounts of unsaturated fatty acid absorbed from the  
350 small intestine and incorporated into meat would be limited. As increases in unsaturated fatty  
351 acid concentrations in meat are a main factor influencing sensory traits (Vatansever et al.,  
352 2000), the absence of any effect of lipid on the sensory qualities of meat in the current  
353 experiments is not surprising. Similarly, there was no effect of lipid on simulated display shelf  
354 life. The only notable effect of lipid on meat characteristics was an increase in vitamin E  
355 concentrations in experiment 1. This may be related to increased fat concentrations in the  
356 meat; the absence of an increase in vitamin E in meat in experiment 2 may be related to the  
357 lesser increase in dietary lipid in that experiment.

## 358 **5. Conclusions**

359 Although basal diet (Experiment 1) and breed (both experiments) had significant  
360 effects on eating quality, in neither experiment did increased lipid or nitrate added to the diet  
361 of beef cattle have a negative effect on eating quality. Similarly, in neither experiment did  
362 CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation treatments reduce the colour shelf life of loin samples although in experiment  
363 2 nitrate did significantly increase colour shelf life. Vitamin E concentrations in loin muscle  
364 were increased significantly by lipid in experiment 1 but there was no difference in  
365 experiment 2; nitrate had no effect on vitamin E concentrations. Overall the nutritional  
366 treatments explored here, which reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, had no adverse effects on meat  
367 quality, although it must be noted that only one cut of meat was assessed and conclusions  
368 may not necessarily apply to other cuts.

## 369 **Conflict of interest statement**

370 The authors declare no conflict of interest.

## 371 **Acknowledgments**

372 The authors are grateful to the technical staff at the Beef Research Centre for their  
373 skilled assistance during the experiments and the technical staff at the University of Bristol  
374 for the analysis of vitamin E, colour shelf life and conduct of the sensory panel. This  
375 research was funded by AHDB Beef and Lamb, the Scottish Government and by DEFRA  
376 and the devolved administrations through the UK Agricultural Greenhouse Gas Inventory  
377 Research Platform.

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**Table 1**

Experiment 1. Ingredient and chemical composition (both g/kg DM unless otherwise stated) of different basal (Mixed, 480 g concentrate /kg DM) and Concentrate (916 g concentrate /kg DM) diets Adapted from Duthie et al. (2016).

Basal diet Treatment	Mixed (480)			Concentrate (916)		
	Control	Nitrate	Lipid	Control	Nitrate	Lipid
Grass silage	189	193	192			
Whole crop barley silage	331	334	334			
Barley straw				84	84	83
Barley	328	374	287	740	797	700
Rapeseed meal	123	45	16	145	63	19
Rapeseed cake			142			167
Calcinit <sup>a</sup>		24			24	
Molasses	19	21	20	21	21	21
Mineral/vitamin premix <sup>b</sup>	9	10	9	10	10	10
Chemical composition						
Dry matter (g/kg fresh weight)	543	539	541	863	860	865
Crude protein	143	148	145	133	138	136
Acid detergent fibre	252	240	253	145	130	143
Neutral detergent fibre	376	361	367	237	220	223
Starch	234	257	211	430	458	408
Ether extract	24	23	44	27	27	51
Ash	48	44	50	36	31	37
Metabolisable Energy (MJ/ kg DM)	11.6	11.4	12.1	12.0	11.9	12.7

<sup>a</sup>Contained (g/kg DM): nitrate, 769; Ca, 229.

<sup>b</sup>Contained (mg/kg): Fe, 6036; Mn, 2200; Zn, 2600; Iodine, 200; Co, 90; Cu, 2500; Se 30; (µg/kg): vitamin E, 2000; vitamin B12, 1000; vitamin A, 151515; vitamin D, 2500

**Table 2**

Experiment 2. Ingredient and chemical composition (both g/kg DM unless otherwise stated) of diets in which rapeseed meal was replaced with nitrate, lipid concentration (using maize distillers dark grains) increased, or both nitrate included and lipid increased (Combined). Adapted from Duthie et al. (2018)

Treatment	Control	Nitrate	Lipid	Combined
Barley	336	388	289	263
Grass silage	210	211	209	210
Whole crop barley silage	347	347	346	346
Rapeseed meal	79	0	0	0
Calcinit <sup>a</sup>	0	25	0	24
Maize distiller's dark grains	0	0	128	127
Molasses	19	20	19	19
Minerals <sup>b</sup>	9	9	9	9
Chemical Composition				
DM (g/kg fresh weight)	533	531	533	533
Crude protein	135	141	136	162
Acid detergent fibre	184	166	184	183
Neutral detergent fibre	308	295	317	313
Starch	281	308	264	250
Ether extract	25	23	37	36
Ash	52	48	51	51
Metabolisable Energy (MJ/kg DM)	11.7	11.5	12.0	11.7

<sup>a</sup>Contained (g/kg DM): nitrate, 757; Ca, 225.

<sup>b</sup>Contained (mg/kg): Fe, 6036; Mn, 2200; Zn, 2600; Iodine, 200; Co, 90; Cu, 2500; Se 30; (µg/kg): vitamin E, 2000; vitamin B12, 1000; vitamin A, 151515; vitamin D, 2500.

**Table 3**

Experiment 1. Effect of added nitrate or increased lipid in basal diets containing different (g/kg DM) concentrate inclusions (Mixed, 480 and Concentrate, 916) on performance and slaughter characteristics of Charolais (CH) and Luining (LUI) steers. Adapted from Duthie et al. (2016).

	Breed		Mixed			Concentrate			SED	<i>P</i> -value <sup>b</sup>		
	CH	LUI	Control	Lipid	Nitrate	Control	Lipid	Nitrate		Breed	Basal diet	Treatment
Daily gain (kg/day)	1.51	1.41	1.52	1.56	1.53	1.36	1.28	1.48	0.099	<0.001	0.002	0.665
Dry matter intake (kg/day)	11.2	11.8	12.1	11.8	12.1	11.1	10.9	10.8	0.49	0.130	<0.001	0.769
Feed to gain (kg/kg)	7.6	8.8	8.1	7.6	8.1	8.2	8.0	7.4	0.42	<0.001	0.562	0.362
Age at slaughter (days)	565	599	585	578	579	587	584	579	10.1	<0.001	0.625	0.614
Slaughter weight (kg)	723	698	724	718	719	704	700	701	19.2	0.010	0.028	0.883
Carcass weight (kg)	414	369	400	395	395	391	386	383	9.3	<0.001	0.001	0.578
Conformation <sup>a</sup>	9.9	8.0	9.1	9.0	9.0	9.0	8.7	9.0	0.34	<0.001	0.456	0.635
Fatness <sup>a</sup>	10.4	11.2	10.3	11.5	10.4	10.6	10.7	11.4	0.36	0.019	0.552	0.249

<sup>a</sup> 15 point EAAP scale for classification of beef carcasses based on conformation and fatness (Fisher, 2007)

<sup>b</sup> There were no significant ( $P>0.05$ ) basal diet x treatment interactions. SED given for basal diet x treatment, n=14.

**Table 4**

Experiment 1. Effect of added nitrate or increased lipid in basal diets containing different (g/kg DM) concentrate inclusions (Mixed, 480 and Concentrate, 916) on eating quality of grilled beef loin steaks from either Charolais (CH) or Luïng (LUI) steers, cooked to 74°C internal endpoint temperature.

	Breed		Mixed			Concentrate			SED	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>		
	CH	LUI	Control	Lipid	Nitrate	Control	Lipid	Nitrate		Breed	Basal diet	Treatment
Tenderness	5.0	6.0	5.5	5.3	5.3	5.6	5.9	5.6	0.21	<0.001	0.009	0.411
Juiciness	5.1	5.5	5.4	5.4	5.3	5.3	5.4	5.2	0.13	<0.001	0.399	0.463
Beef flavour intensity	4.4	4.5	4.3	4.4	4.4	4.6	4.6	4.5	0.11	0.002	0.157	0.774
Abnormal flavour intensity	2.4	2.1	2.1	2.2	2.2	2.2	2.4	2.2	0.10	<0.001	0.022	0.516
Overall liking	5.0	5.7	5.5	5.4	5.3	5.2	5.3	5.3	0.14	<0.001	0.093	0.876
Colour												
Days to a chroma value of 18	16.9	16.5	17.5	17.1	16.9	16.3	16.2	16.3	0.88	0.760	0.049	0.876
Vitamin E (µg/g loin)	2.00	2.48	2.67	3.13	2.59	1.37	2.07	1.62	0.191	<0.001	<0.001	<0.001

<sup>a</sup> There were no significant ( $P>0.05$ ) basal diet x treatment interactions. SED given for basal diet x treatment, n=14.

**Table 5**

Experiment 2. Effect of diets in which either rapeseed meal was replaced with nitrate, or lipid concentration increased, or both nitrate and lipid (Combined) on growth, and carcass characteristics of Aberdeen Angus (AAx) or Limousin (LIMx) crossbred steers (daily gain, Dry matter intake and feed to gain data adapted from Duthie et al. (2018)).

	Breed		Treatment				SED	<i>P</i> -value <sup>b</sup>		
	AAx	LIMx	Control	Nitrate	Lipid	Combined		Breed	Nitrate	Lipid
Daily gain (kg/day)	1.75	1.56	1.74	1.54	1.72	1.63	0.076	<0.001	0.008	0.445
Dry matter intake (kg/day)	12.1	11.1	11.8	11.4	11.8	11.5	0.39	<0.001	0.257	0.971
Feed to gain (kg/kg)	7.02	7.23	6.85	7.52	6.90	7.18	0.269	0.329	0.013	0.460
Age at slaughter (days)	549	546	548	548	547	547	7.7	0.331	0.876	0.978
Slaughter weight (kg)	687	670	687	675	675	677	12.2	0.011	0.639	0.639
Carcass weight (kg)	381	386	391	380	383	380	7.0	0.631	0.198	0.413
Conformation <sup>a</sup>	9.4	9.7	10.1	9.2	9.6	9.3	0.34	0.412	0.016	0.413
Fatness <sup>a</sup>	10.5	10.3	10.5	10.0	10.4	10.7	0.31	0.232	0.651	0.177

<sup>a</sup>15 point EAAP scale for classification of beef carcasses based on conformation and fatness (Fisher, 2007)

<sup>b</sup> There were no significant interactions ( $P>0.05$ ) between nitrate and lipid; SED for treatment (n=20)

**Table 6**

Experiment 2. Effect of diets in which rapeseed meal was replaced with nitrate, lipid concentration increased, or both nitrate and lipid increased (Combined) on eating quality of grilled beef loin steaks from crossbred Aberdeen Angus (AAx) or Limousin (LIMx) steers, cooked to 74°C internal endpoint temperature.

	Breed		Treatment				SED	<i>P</i> -value <sup>a</sup>		
	AAx	LIMx	Control	Nitrate	Lipid	Combined		Breed	Nitrate	Lipid
Tenderness	6.0	5.4	5.6	5.7	5.8	5.7	0.21	<0.001	0.904	0.456
Juiciness	5.5	5.2	5.4	5.5	5.3	5.3	0.12	<0.001	0.559	0.250
Beef flavour intensity	4.6	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.5	4.6	0.11	0.271	0.799	0.613
Abnormal flavour intensity	2.2	2.2	2.3	2.2	2.2	2.2	0.10	0.679	0.981	0.472
Overall liking	5.5	5.3	5.4	5.2	5.4	5.4	0.13	0.011	0.342	0.401
Colour										
Days to a chroma value of 18	16.2	16.4	15.7	17.0	15.7	16.8	0.60	0.992	0.005	0.896
Vitamin E	3.47	3.19	3.25	3.26	3.43	3.28	0.017	0.017	0.873	0.205

<sup>a</sup> There were no significant interactions ( $P>0.05$ ) between nitrate and lipid; SED for Treatment, n=20

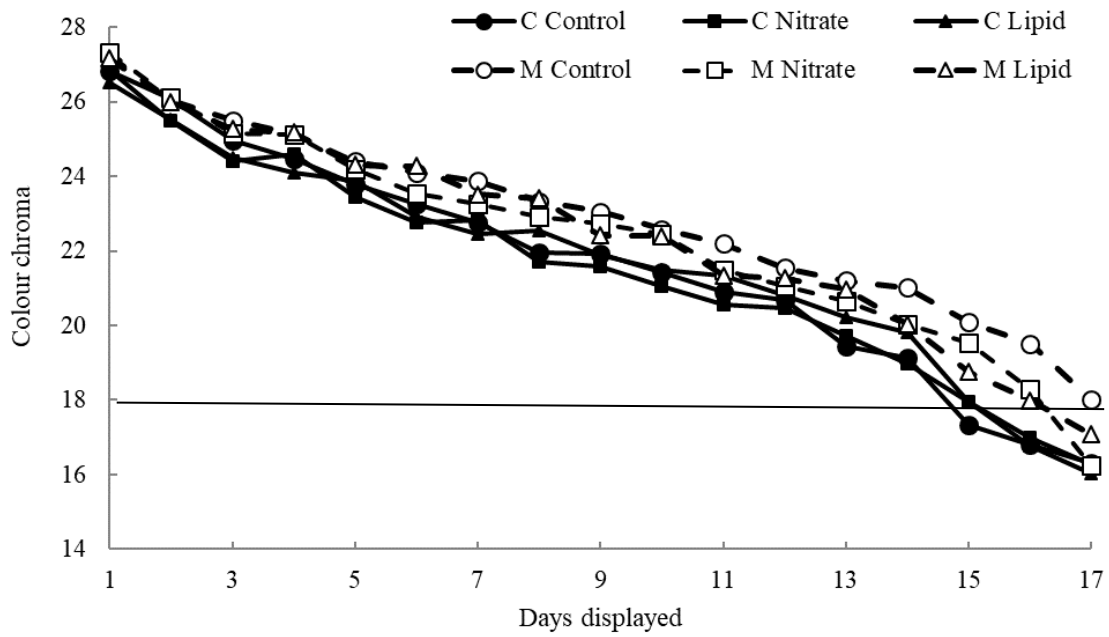
Legends to Figures.

**Fig. 1.** Experiment 1. The change in colour chroma over 17 days simulated retail display of *M. longissimus* steaks in modified atmosphere from steers fed Mixed (M, 480) or Concentrate (C, 916) basal diets (g concentrate/kg DM) and added nitrate or increased lipid concentration. A chroma value of 18 indicates the threshold for consumer acceptability. SE of difference for n=14 was 0.682.

**Fig. 2.** Experiment 2. The change in colour chroma over 16 days simulated retail display of *M. longissimus* steaks in modified atmosphere from steers fed diets in which rapeseed meal was replaced with nitrate, lipid concentration increased, or both nitrate included and lipid increased (Combined). A chroma value of 18 indicates the threshold for consumer acceptability. SE of difference for n=18 was 0.489.



**Fig. 1.** Experiment 1. The change in colour chroma over 17 days simulated retail display of *M. longissimus* steaks in modified atmosphere from steers fed Mixed (M, 480) or Concentrate (C, 916) basal diets (g concentrate/kg DM) and added nitrate or increased lipid concentration. A chroma value of 18 indicates the threshold for consumer acceptability.



**Fig. 2.** Experiment 2. The change in colour chroma over 16 days simulated retail display of *M. longissimus* steaks in modified atmosphere from steers fed diets in which rapeseed meal was replaced with nitrate, lipid concentration increased, or both nitrate included and lipid increased (Combined). A chroma value of 18 indicates the threshold for consumer acceptability.

