

1 INTERPRETIVE SUMMARY

2 Effects of concentrate crude protein contents on nutrient digestibility, energy utilization and
3 methane emissions of lactating dairy cows fed fresh-cut perennial grass. By Hynes et al.
4 Livestock associated methane emissions have huge environmental implications. The aim of
5 the study was to investigate the effect of concentrate protein content and animal genotype on
6 methane emissions and energy utilization of dairy cows fed fresh grass. Reducing concentrate
7 protein content (18.1 to 14.1%) did not affect methane yields, energy utilization or
8 partitioning in dairy cows. In comparison to Holstein crossbreds, Holstein cows had a greater
9 energy intake and incorporated more energy into milk, but had no effects on energy
10 utilization efficiency or methane emission rates. Grazing cows can be offered low protein
11 concentrates without compromising energy utilization efficiency, although this approach may
12 not be an effective strategy in alleviating methane emissions.

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14 **RUNNING HEAD: CONCENTRATE PROTEINS' EFFECT ON METHANE EMISSIONS**

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16 **Effects of concentrate crude protein contents on nutrient digestibility, energy utilization** 17 **and methane emissions of lactating dairy cows fed fresh-cut perennial grass.**

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ABSTRACT

Although many studies have investigated mitigation strategies for methane (CH₄) output from dairy cows fed a wide variety of diets, research on effects of concentrate crude protein (CP) content on CH₄ emissions from dairy cows offered fresh grass is limited. The present study was therefore designed to evaluate effects of cow genotype and concentrate CP level on nutrient digestibility, energy utilization and CH₄ emissions of dairy cows offered fresh grass based diets. Twelve multiparous lactating dairy cows (6 Holstein and 6 Holstein × Swedish Red) were blocked into 3 groups within each breed and assigned to low, medium or high CP concentrate diet (14.1, 16.1 and 18.1 % on dry matter (DM) basis), respectively, in a 3-period changeover study (25-d / period). Total diets contained (DM basis) 32.8 % concentrates and 67.2 % perennial ryegrass, which was harvested daily. All measurements were undertaken during the final 6-d of each period; digestibility measurements for 6-d and calorimetric measurements in respiration chambers for 3-d. Feed intake and milk production data were reported in a previous paper. No significant interaction between concentrate CP level and cow genotype on any parameter was observed. Concentrate CP level had no significant effect on any energy utilization parameter, except for urinary energy output which was positively related to concentrate CP level. Similarly concentrate CP content had no effect on CH₄ emission (g/d), CH₄ per kg feed intake or nutrient digestibility. The crossbreeding of Holstein cows significantly reduced gross energy, digestible energy and metabolizable energy intake, heat production and milk energy output. However, cow genotype had no significant effects on energy utilization efficiency or CH₄ parameters. Furthermore, the present study yielded a value for gross energy lost as CH₄ (5.6 %) on fresh grass-based diets that is lower than the widely accepted value of 6.5 %. The present findings indicate reducing concentrate CP content from 18.1 to 14.1 % may not be a successful approach to alleviate CH₄ emissions from lactating dairy cows offered good quality fresh grass, however grazing cows could be offered a low CP concentrate without compromising energy utilization efficiency. Further research is needed to investigate whether larger differences in dietary CP content may yield positive results.

Key words: dairy cow, energy utilization, methane, fresh grass.

INTRODUCTION

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The agricultural industry is a major contributor of atmospheric methane (CH₄), and responsible for 13.5 % of total greenhouse gas emissions globally (IPCC et al., 2007). A large proportion of these emissions (80 %) come from livestock production systems (FAO, 2006). In Northern Ireland, agriculture is responsible for the emission of 6.49 MT CO₂ equivalent annually or 29 % of total annual greenhouse gas emissions (Salisbury et al., 2015). Methane emissions do not only raise environmental concerns but also form a sizable loss of feed energy intake from dairy and beef cows, which ranges from 2 to 12 % (Johnson and Johnson, 1995). Therefore alleviating CH₄ emissions may increase ME available and thus improve energy utilization efficiency in ruminant systems. The extent of CH₄ emission rates are influenced by a range of diet and animal factors, such as, feed intake, diet quality and nutrient utilization efficiency (Johnson and Johnson, 1995; Kebreab et al., 2006; Muñoz et al., 2015). A large range of mitigation strategies have been investigated for dairy cows offered ensiled forages, but there is lack of such information for grazing cows. Pasture-based dairy systems are widely used in Ireland and many countries of similar climatic conditions, whereby 89 % of agricultural land is allocated for grazing swards (Hart et al., 2009). For example, promising mitigation strategies, as stated by a number of studies (Aguerre et al., 2011; Haque et al., 2014), appears to be the increase of dietary starch content, either by increasing concentrate input which increases feed costs, or alternatively replacing high protein feed components of the concentrate (e.g. soyabean meal, rapeseed extract) with high starch feed components (e.g. corn, wheat feed). However, replacing CP content of concentrate with starch on pasture based diets, a successful strategy for alleviating N excretion, has not been investigated. In a meta-analysis of indirect calorimetry data of dairy cows offered perennial ryegrass silage-based diets, Yan and Mayne (2007) found a negative relationship between CH₄ / kg DMI and dietary CP concentration. This effect is likely not solely dependent on dietary CP concentrations, but a result of the subsequent change in other

90 dietary factors (e.g., fiber and starch concentrations). Indeed, Stergiadis et al. (2016) found
91 increasing grass CP and water soluble carbohydrate (**WSC**) concentrations increased CH₄ /
92 kg DMI in dry cows offered fresh perennial ryegrass only diets at maintenance feeding levels.
93 Therefore, the effects of dietary CP contents on CH₄ emissions and energy utilization merit
94 investigation in studies with dairy cows offered fresh forage based diets.

95 Animal genetic factors have been found to play a significant role in influence of energy
96 utilization efficiency and CH₄ emissions from ruminants (Pinares-Patino et al., 2009; Clark,
97 2013). It is well documented improving productivity can lead to a reduction in CH₄ emissions
98 per unit of produce (Chagunda et al., 2009; Wall et al., 2010; Cottle et al., 2011) while
99 simultaneously making mitigation strategies appealing to producers. Beecher et al. (2014)
100 and Palladino et al. (2010) showed that Holstein-Friesian cows on perennial ryegrass silage
101 diets offered at maintenance level and grazing perennial ryegrass respectively may exhibit
102 differences in production efficiency when compared with Jersey and Jersey × Holstein-
103 Friesian. However, comparisons on CH₄ emissions between Holstein and other breeds under
104 grazing or zero-grazing conditions are limited with literature focusing on ensiled forage (Xue
105 et al., 2011; Arndt et al., 2015).

106 The present study was thus designed to address these knowledge gaps as identified
107 previously, by evaluating the effects of reducing concentrate CP contents (with little
108 influence on starch and fiber contents), cow genotype and their interactions on nutrient
109 digestibilities, energy utilization efficiency and CH₄ emissions in lactating dairy cows offered
110 fresh perennial ryegrass diets so that practices are widely applicable in pasture-based
111 systems.

112

MATERIALS AND METHODS

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114 All scientific procedures described were carried out under experimental license from the
115 Department of Health, Social Services and Public Safety of Northern Ireland in accordance
116 with the Animal (Scientific Procedures) Act (Home Office, 1986).

117 *Experimental Design*

118 The current study presents observations from a calorimetry experiment performed at Agri-
119 Food and Biosciences Institute (Hillsborough, Northern Ireland, UK), using 12 multiparous
120 lactating (6 Holstein and 6 Holstein × Swedish Red (50:50) crossbred) cows on diets of fresh-
121 cut perennial ryegrass and concentrate feeds during the 2014 grazing season. Details of
122 animals, experiment design and diets were reported in a companion paper (Hynes et al.,
123 2016). A brief description of the design and measurement procedures follows. Animals were
124 offered 3 dietary treatments with different concentrate CP contents (2 cows within each
125 genotype/diet) in a changeover study with three (25-d) periods. All measurements were taken
126 during the final 6-d of each period; 3-d digestibility units and 3-d in indirect open-circuit
127 respiration calorimeter chambers, with continuation of digestibility measurements in the
128 respiration chambers. Diets composed of zero-grazed perennial ryegrass and concentrate
129 feeds of differing CP content; low CP concentrate diet (LCP, 14.1 % DM), medium CP
130 concentrate diet (MCP, 16.1 % DM) and high CP concentrate diet (HCP, 18.1 % DM) fed at
131 32.8 % DMI in combination with perennial ryegrass fed at 67.2 % DMI. The low and high
132 CP concentrates were formulated to possess the same dietary components and similar
133 chemical composition with the exception of CP level, while the medium CP concentrate was
134 produced by mixing the low and high CP concentrates in equal proportions. This resulted in 3
135 concentrate feeds which were comparable in regard to ME, fermentable ME and fiber
136 content. Concentrates were offered at milking, 50 % at 0700 and 50 % at 1500, and fresh
137 herbage at 1000 (ad libitum) each morning. The zero-grazed herbage was harvested (from a

138 single sward) each morning using a Haldrup 1500, boxed loosely to avoid nutrient
139 degradation and perennial ryegrass' temperature was monitored for the duration of the study.
140 Herbage regrowth intervals (initially 22-d regrowth with incremental increases up to 30-d
141 from June to September) and fertilization practises (within 3-d of harvesting at 35 kg N / ha)
142 were determined based on common routine practices, in order to ensure perennial ryegrass of
143 a similar quality was being offered to animals for the duration of experimental work.
144 Concentrate rations were calculated based on the average DMI of the previous 7-d and
145 animals had free access to water throughout the study.

146 *Digestibility and Calorimeter Chamber Measurements*

147 All procedures for records of feed intake, feces and urine excretion and milk production, and
148 all sample measurements during the final 6-d of each period were reported by Hynes et al.
149 (2016). In brief, perennial ryegrass and concentrate were analyzed for DM, N, gross energy
150 (GE), NDF, ADF, ash, WSC (perennial ryegrass only) and starch (concentrate only) and DM,
151 N, NDF, ADF and ash contents in feces and N in urine was assessed. In addition, analysis of
152 GE was conducted in the present study, using a Parr 6300 oxygen bomb calorimeter (Parr
153 Instrument Company, Illinois, USA), on fecal and urine samples on a dry and fresh basis
154 respectively, as described in Jiao et al. (2013). Gaseous exchange (O₂ consumption and CO₂
155 and CH₄ production) was measured in the final 48 h of the 72 h calorimetric-chamber stage.
156 Two indirect open-circuit respiration calorimeter chambers consisting of a climatic control
157 unit, an air flow and measurement system and 3 gas analyzers were utilized. Chambers were
158 maintained at 16 ± 1°C and 60 % relative humidity via air conditioning unit including a
159 Vaisala PTA 427 digital barometer and Vaisala HUMICAP sensor probes (Delta-T devices,
160 Cambridge, UK). Air was dehumidified, heated or cooled to 13-15°C and re-humidified, if
161 necessary, prior to entering the chambers. Chambers were run under a slight negative
162 pressure and possessed airlock systems for entry and feeding to ensure against leakage. Each

163 chambers' flow system consisted of 2 inlet ambient air tubes and 3 extraction tubes fitted
164 with turbine flow meters (GH flow Automation Ltd. Andover, UK). Suction pumps were set
165 to perform 3.4 (75 m³ / h flowrate / 22 m³ total chamber volume) air exchanges / h.
166 Measurement of flow rate and concentration of ambient and extraction air allowed for
167 calculation of CH₄ output. All gases were measured by ADC MGA3000 Multi gas analyzer
168 (ADC Gas Analysis Ltd., Hertfordshire, UK), CH₄ and CO₂ concentrations by
169 electrochemical sensors and O₂ concentrations by paramagnetic sensor. The analyzer
170 switched between both chambers and span gases every 75 s and completed a full rotation
171 every 225 s. Data were then transferred onto a 16-bit digital converter (Strawberry tree model
172 ACPC -16, Adepth Scientific Mirco System Ltd., Letchworth, UK). All equipment,
173 procedures, analytical methods and calculations used in the calorimetric experiments were as
174 reported by Gordon et al. (1995) and calibration of the chambers by Yan et al. (2000).

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176 *Calculations and Statistical Analysis*

177 Prior to analysis a number of energy utilization parameters were calculated using the
178 equations in Table 1. Heat production (**HP**) was calculated based on O₂ consumption, CO₂
179 and CH₄ production and urinary N excretion using the equation of Brouwer (1965). Retained
180 energy was calculated by subtracting HP and milk energy from ME intake (MEI). The ME
181 requirement for maintenance (**ME_m**) and subsequently the efficiency of ME use for lactation
182 (**ki**) was calculated according to Agnew et al. (2004).

183 Means of individual animals' variables over the two 3-d collection phases (with the exception
184 of the calorimetric data collected over one 3-d phase) were used for statistical analysis.
185 Experimental data were analyzed using Genstat statistical package (VSN International, 2013).
186 Linear mixed model methodology with REML estimation (Gilmour et al., 1995) was implied
187 with dietary treatment and genotype as fixed factors and cow and date (of entry to collection

188 stage) fitted as random effects. Orthogonal contrasts were used to test for linear and quadratic
189 effects of treatment as described by Hynes et al. (2016). Residuals conveyed no deviation
190 from normality. Differences between treatments, genotypes and interactions were assessed
191 with 5 degrees of significance, non-significant ($P > 0.10$) and significance at $P < 0.05$, $P <$
192 0.01 and $P < 0.001$, while tendencies were declared at $0.05 < P < 0.10$.

193 **RESULTS**

194 There was no significant interaction between concentrate CP level and cow genotype on any
195 parameter evaluated in terms of digestibility, CH₄ emissions or energy intake, output or
196 utilization efficiency. Therefore, only results of main factors were presented in the present
197 study. The results on dietary composition, feed intake and milk production were reported by
198 Hynes et al. (2016) viz. concentrate CP contents did not affect DMI, milk yield (MY) or milk
199 composition. Concentrate feeds had similar chemical compositions only varying in CP
200 content, consequently total dietary CP levels were 16.9, 17.6 and 18.3 % (DM basis) for the
201 LCP, MCP and HCP treatments respectively.

202 *Nutrient Apparent Whole-tract Digestibility*

203 Data on nutrient digestibility are presented in Table 2. Findings conveyed no significant
204 effects of dietary treatment or genotype on any apparent whole-tract digestibility parameter
205 (DM, OM, GE, NDF, ADF or digestible OM in total DM), but a tendency of N digestibility
206 to linearly increase with increasing concentrate CP content, was observed.

207 *Energy Utilization*

208 Findings on the effects of concentrate CP levels and cow genotype on energy utilization
209 variables are displayed in Table 3. Analysis showed there was no significant effect of dietary
210 treatment on energy intake (GE, digestible energy (**DE**) or ME), retained energy or energy
211 partition in feces, CH₄, HP or milk, although there was a positive linear effect of concentrate

212 CP observed urine energy output. We found no significant effect of treatment on DE/GE,
213 ME/GE, HP/MEI or k_1 .

214 In comparison to Crossbreds, Holstein cows had significantly higher GE, DE and ME intakes
215 and consequently higher HP and milk energy output. Cow genotype had no significant effect
216 on DE/GE, ME/GE, HP/MEI or k_1 .

217 *Methane Emissions*

218 Enteric CH₄ emission data are shown in Table 4. Neither concentrate CP level nor cow
219 genotype had significant effect on any CH₄ emission factor, in terms of total emission (g/d),
220 or CH₄ emissions as a proportion of feed intake, MY, or CH₄ energy (**CH₄-E**) as a proportion
221 of GE intake (**GEI**). The ratio of CH₄-E as a proportion of GE, DE and ME intakes had mean
222 values of 0.056, 0.076 and 0.089 (MJ/MJ) respectively.

223 **DISCUSSION**

224 Grazing systems are extensively used in areas with cool and moist climates, which allow a
225 long grazing season and high forage production, thus providing a low-cost feeding approach
226 for ruminant production systems (Peyraud and Delagarde, 2013). Hence profitability of
227 dairying in these areas is fundamentally linked to forage utilization, for example in Ireland
228 every extra tonne of forage yield per ha (DM basis) is worth 161 euro (Shalloo, 2009).

229 Although previous work on CH₄ emissions in grazing animals predominantly relied on the
230 SF₆ tracer method to measure CH₄ emissions (Pinares-Patiño et al., 2007; Cavanagh et al.,
231 2008), in the current study indirect open-circuit calorimetry chambers were used. These
232 chambers measured gaseous exchanges including CH₄ which allowed for the calculation of
233 HP a variable which could not be measured by SF₆ technique. Although the lack of energy
234 expenditure at pasture due to grazing cannot be assessed when animals are in the chambers,

235 results from the current study may be highly applicable to pasture-based systems, due to the
236 zero-grazing practices used, and compliment results from studies using SF₆ tracer techniques.

237 *Nutrient Digestibility and Energy Utilization Efficiency*

238 Due to the relatively high apparent digestibilities in the present study, DMI were high across
239 all treatments; the positive association between highly digestible feed and DMI has been
240 previously demonstrated (NRC, 2001). Apparent DM digestibility of 0.76 in the present study
241 is comparable with published figures (0.76-0.78) of dairy cows on similar diets (Whelan et
242 al., 2012). Lack of effect of dietary treatment on digestibility parameters obtained in the
243 present study is in agreement with results from a study by Moorby et al. (2006) in dairy cows
244 offered diets containing 65 % ryegrass silage and 35 % concentrate. The present N
245 digestibility values were similar to those observed in studies under a wide variety of dietary
246 regimes (Huhtanen et al., 2008), including fresh-forage diets (van Vuuren et al., 1992).
247 Increasing N digestibility with increasing dietary CP concentration, as tended to occur in the
248 present study, reflects the increased urine N loss with increasing concentrate CP content
249 while treatment had no effect on milk N output or retained N (Hynes et al., 2016). However,
250 NDF (0.725) and organic matter (OM; 0.792) digestibility values obtained in the present
251 study were higher than previously recorded figures (Nousiainen et al., 2004; Huhtanen et al.,
252 2008) which averaged at 0.622 and 0.726 respectively. This may be explained by the good
253 quality perennial ryegrass offered during the present study which may have improved feed
254 OM digestibility (Stergiadis et al., 2015).

255

256 Energy (GE, DE and ME) intakes and outputs did not differ across dietary treatments with the
257 exception of urine energy outputs. The observed differences in urinary energy partitioning are
258 in agreement with previous work (Ramin and Huhtanen, 2013), which reported urinary
259 energy was positively associated with dietary CP content on a wide range of dietary

260 treatments (n = 207). This may be due to the associated excess N in urine that increases urine
261 energy content as found to be the case in Holstein steers on concentrate based diets (Mwenya
262 et al., 2004). The lack of effect of diet treatments on energy intake, utilization efficiency and
263 nutrient digestibility values obtained in the present study may imply that the total dietary CP
264 content (16.9 %) of the LCP treatment may be sufficient to supply degradable CP for rumen
265 microbial activity and MP for milk production. Indeed, the present study found that
266 increasing concentrate CP levels had no significant effect on total DMI, MY or composition
267 or N utilization efficiency in terms of N excretion in feces, urine or milk as a proportion of N
268 intake (Hynes et al., 2016). However, increasing concentrate CP levels significantly increased
269 N excretion in urine and urine N/manure N. It is a common practice in dairy farming in
270 Northern Ireland to feed dairy cows grazing diets and winter diets containing CP content of
271 approximately 18 % (DM basis). However, the present study clearly demonstrated the
272 grazing diet at a CP content of 17 % (DM basis) is enough to sustain milk production as
273 reported by Hynes et al. (2016) and energy digestibility, metabolizability and k_1 . Further
274 investigation into the long term effects on production efficiency and other functional traits
275 (e.g., fertility) would also need to be evaluated. Feeding dairy cows low CP diets may save on
276 feed cost of high priced protein feeds (e.g. soybean meal), and also reduce environmental
277 footprint (urinary N excretion).

278

279 The present study demonstrated that crossbreeding of Holstein cows with Swedish Red sires
280 had no effects on nutrient and energy digestibility, energy metabolizability or k_1 when cows
281 were offered fresh perennial ryegrass-based diets, although Holstein cows had significantly
282 greater GE, DE and ME intakes. A number of previous studies also found a similar result
283 when offered ensiled forage. For example, Xue et al. (2011) observed no difference in energy
284 metabolizability or k_1 between Holstein and Jersey-Holstein cows offered perennial ryegrass

285 silage diets containing either 30 % or 70 % of concentrates. Heins et al. (2008) also reported
286 that the feed efficiency for d 4 to 150 of lactation was similar for Jersey-Holstein and pure
287 Holstein cows offered diets containing alfalfa hay and corn silage. These results along with
288 those from the current study indicate that the cross-breeding of Holstein cows with Swedish
289 Red or Jersey sires has negligible influence on the potential of high production efficiency of
290 the Holstein breed. Swedish Red cows have been traditionally selected for milk production
291 and other functional traits (e.g. fertility, disease resistance) and thus have a longer service
292 term than Holstein cows (Swalve, 2007). Consequently, Swedish Red sires have been widely
293 used to improve reproductive performance and health status of Holstein cows. The present
294 study indicates that although the crossbred cows had a lower feed intake and MY as reported
295 by Hynes et al. (2016), energy digestibility, energy metabolizability and k_1 traits were not
296 compromised when compared to pure Holstein cow offered fresh perennial ryegrass based
297 diets.

298 *Methane Emissions*

299 The present findings, that dietary CP concentration did not affect CH_4 emissions, is in
300 agreement with van Dorland et al. (2007). However, in a meta-analysis of calorimetry data,
301 Yan and Mayne (2007) found a negative relationship between CH_4 / kg DMI and dietary CP
302 concentration. Conversely, Stergiadis et al. (2016) found increasing perennial ryegrass CP
303 and WSC contents increased CH_4 / kg DMI in dry cows offered fresh perennial ryegrass only
304 diets at maintenance level. Arndt et al. (2015) suggested a quadratic relationship between
305 CH_4 (g/d, g/kg DMI and MJ/MJ GEI) and dietary CP when different ratios of alfalfa silage to
306 corn silage were fed. It is difficult to determine the root cause of changes in CH_4 yields, but
307 Hassanat et al. (2013) suggested it may be due to increasing dietary starch content with
308 decreasing CP content resulting in a drop in pH, protozoa and methanogens. Similarly,
309 Dijkstra et al. (2011) speculated yields of CH_4 may decrease when starch increased at the

310 expense of CP content due to fermentation of fiber, producing higher volumes of VFA,
311 acetate and butyrate which yield H₂, a precursor of methanogenesis, in comparison to starch
312 which results in higher volumes of propionate, a reaction which utilizes H₂. Although this
313 may imply the resultant altered fiber / starch concentration can affect enteric CH₄ outputs, in
314 addition to a reduction in urinary N output when dietary N content decreases (Külling et al.,
315 2001; Weiss et al., 2009, Arndt et al., 2015), the outcome of present study did not confirm
316 this hypothesis. In the present study the formulation of concentrate supplements did not alter
317 their NDF and ADF concentrations. Although increasing CP contents decreased starch
318 contents in the 3 concentrates, the differences in starch contents were relatively small (21.1 to
319 23.2 % DM basis) between the 3 concentrates and negligible (6.9 to 7.6 %) between total
320 diets. Therefore, the present study suggests that increasing concentrate CP contents resulting
321 in a concomitant increase in total dietary CP content from 16.9 to 18.3 % had no effects on
322 enteric CH₄ emission rates on perennial ryegrass and concentrate base diets.

323

324 The present study found that crossbreeding of Holstein cows with Swedish Red sires had no
325 significant effect on CH₄ / kg DMI, CH₄ / kg OM intake or CH₄-E / GEI (MJ/MJ), with CH₄ /
326 kg ECM yield being identical between the 2 genotypes. Although there were no comparable
327 calorimetry data with fresh ryegrass, Yan and Mayne (2009) observed a similar result when
328 compared between Holstein and Jersey × Holstein cows offered diets containing perennial
329 ryegrass silage and either 30 % or 70 % concentrates. A number of recent studies have
330 assessed the potential association between enteric CH₄ emissions and microbial ecology of
331 ruminal methanogens. Using the culture-independent methods, Zhou et al. (2009; 2010)
332 reported that while there was no significant difference in the total population of methanogens
333 between cattle with different feed efficiencies, their rumen methanogenesis capacity was
334 highly related to changes in feed intake and dietary composition. The abundance of

335 predominant methanogenic species obtained on the low energy density diet shifted to a
336 community containing a more diverse range of predominant species with the high energy
337 density diet (Zhou et al., 2010). These results indicated that enteric CH₄ emission rate in
338 cattle is mainly driven by feed intake and dietary nutrient composition and cow genotypes
339 based on the Holstein breed may have little effect on the inherent genetic capacity for the
340 rumen methanogenesis. The heritability for CH₄ emissions of Holstein cows is low (Lassen
341 and Løvendahl, 2016). Hence rather than breeding for reduced CH₄ (g/d) or CH₄ / kg DMI,
342 Cottle et al. (2011) suggested that a breeding approach for improved feeding efficiency would
343 be more successful and in line with current breeding objectives, so as to minimise risk of
344 undesirable trade-offs.

345

346 In the present study, GEI lost as CH₄-E was on average 5.6 %. This figure is very close to the
347 simulated prediction (5.8 %) by Bannink et al. (2010) with lactating dairy cows on a similar
348 DMI and fresh forage: concentrate ratio, and similar to that (averaging 5.7 %) of grazing
349 dairy cows with CH₄ emissions measured using the SF₆ technique (O'Neill et al., 2012; Jiao
350 et al., 2014). However, these CH₄/GEI data are all lower than that of 6.5 % recommended by
351 IPCC (2006) to calculate enteric CH₄ emission inventory for a region where local CH₄
352 emission data are not available. Therefore it is possible utilizing the IPCC default value for
353 inventory purposes would overestimate CH₄ production in grazing systems, especially for
354 countries where grazing management regimes are a major component of dairy production,
355 such as in Ireland, UK, New Zealand and Australia. This issue merits further investigation.

356

CONCLUSION

357 The results from the current study suggest reducing concentrate CP content from 18.1 to
358 14.1% does not affect energy utilization efficiency or enteric CH₄ emission rates in lactating
359 dairy cows on fresh-cut perennial ryegrass based diets. Crossbreeding Holstein cows with

360 Swedish Red sires had no significant effect on energy utilization efficiency or enteric CH₄
361 emission rates, although Holstein cows had higher energy intakes and milk energy outputs.
362 Hence these findings suggest concentrates with CP levels as low as 14.1 % can be offered in
363 combination with good quality perennial ryegrass without any negating effect on CH₄
364 emissions or energy partitioning for production, although sustainability of production would
365 have to be confirmed on a long-term study. Feeding grazing cows with low CP concentrates
366 not only reduces feed costs but is also environmentally beneficial with lower urinary nitrogen
367 excretion.

368

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TABLES

Table 1. Equations used for the calculations of heat production, ME requirement for maintenance and efficiency of ME for lactation^{1,2}

Estimated variable	Equation	Reference
HP (MJ/d)	$= [(16.18 \times O_2) + (5.16 \times CO_2) - (2.42 \times CH_4) - (5.9 \times UN)] / 1000$	(Brouwer, 1965)
ME _m (when E _g < 0)	$= HP - (1/k_{l(AFRC)} - 1) \times E_l - (1/k_t - 2) \times E_g - (1/k_p - 1) \times E_p$	(AFRC, 1993)
ME _m (when E _g > 0)	$= HP - (1/k_{l(AFRC)} - 1) \times E_l - (1/k_g - 2) \times E_g - (1/k_p - 1) \times E_p$	
E _{l(0)} (when E _g < 0)	$= E_l + 0.84 \times E_g$	(AFRC, 1993)
E _{l(0)} (when E _g > 0)	$= E_l + 1/k_g \times E_g$	
k _l	$= E_{l(0)} / (ME_{int} - ME_m)$	(AFRC, 1993)

^{1.} CH₄ = methane produced (L/d), CO₂ = carbon dioxide produced (L/d), O₂ = oxygen consumed (L/d), UN = urinary nitrogen excreted (g/d).

^{2.} E_g = net energy for BW change (MJ/d), E_l = milk energy output (MJ/d), E_{l(0)} = milk energy output adjusted to zero energy balance (MJ/d), E_p = net energy requirement for pregnancy, HP = heat production (MJ/d), ME_{int} = ME intake (MJ/d), ME_m = ME requirement for maintenance (MJ/d), k_g = efficiency of ME use for weight gain, k_l = efficiency of ME use for lactation, k_{l(AFRC)} = efficiency of ME use for lactation calculated from AFRC (1993), k_p = efficiency of ME use for pregnancy, k_t = efficiency of utilization of mobilized energy for lactation.

Table 2. Effect of concentrate CP level and cow genotype on total diet digestibility parameters (kg/kg)

	Concentrate CP level			SEM	P-value ¹		Cow genotype		SEM	P-value
	Low	Medium	High		lin	quad	Holstein	Crossbred ²		
DM	0.759	0.764	0.762	0.0060	0.585	0.615	0.766	0.757	0.0056	0.170
OM	0.780	0.785	0.782	0.0054	0.581	0.537	0.786	0.778	0.0051	0.179
DOMD	0.710	0.714	0.711	0.0053	0.760	0.582	0.716	0.708	0.0049	0.185
N	0.655	0.668	0.673	0.0118	0.088	0.667	0.667	0.664	0.0134	0.880
GE	0.740	0.745	0.741	0.0060	0.611	0.324	0.746	0.738	0.0057	0.236
NDF	0.699	0.701	0.705	0.0093	0.277	0.750	0.711	0.692	0.0090	0.106
ADF	0.681	0.687	0.684	0.0110	0.937	0.512	0.693	0.675	0.0108	0.205

DOMD = Digestible OM in DM, GE = gross energy.

¹Probability of a linear (lin) or quadratic (quad) effect of concentrate CP level in the diet.

² Crossbred cows were crosses between Holstein and Swedish Red.

Table 3. Effect of concentrate CP level and cow genotype on energy intake and output and energy utilization efficiencies

	Concentrate CP level				P-value ¹		Cow genotype			
	Low	Medium	High	SEM	lin	quad	Holstein	Crossbred ²	SEM	P-value
Energy intake and output (MJ/d)										
GE intake	372	383	375	8.2	0.498	0.197	390	364	6.5	<0.001
DE intake	276	286	278	7.3	0.290	0.055	291	268	6.0	0.002
ME intake	237	246	238	7.1	0.426	0.108	250	231	6.3	0.017
Faecal energy	96	97	96	2.2	0.888	0.742	98	95	2.2	0.392
Urinary energy	17.9	17.9	19.8	0.98	0.004	0.292	19.1	17.9	1.02	0.378
CH ₄ energy	21.1	21.6	20.8	1.15	0.724	0.467	22.4	20.0	1.15	0.164
Heat production	138	133	134	4.1	0.452	0.679	140	130	3.1	0.019
Milk energy	85	85	85	2.9	0.562	0.616	91	79	2.8	0.012
Retained energy	14.7	26.8	17.6	7.35	0.561	0.193	16.8	22.6	7.29	0.519
Energy utilization (MJ/MJ)										
DE / GE	0.740	0.745	0.741	0.0060	0.611	0.324	0.746	0.738	0.0057	0.236
ME / GE	0.636	0.642	0.632	0.0082	0.761	0.165	0.640	0.633	0.0093	0.602
Heat production / ME	0.587	0.546	0.569	0.0229	0.423	0.237	0.570	0.565	0.0215	0.840
Milk energy / ME	0.362	0.344	0.364	0.0159	0.833	0.108	0.367	0.346	0.0153	0.227
Retained energy /ME	0.052	0.108	0.066	0.0313	0.582	0.130	0.062	0.089	0.0310	0.475
k _l	0.623	0.628	0.624	0.0035	0.854	0.519	0.628	0.621	0.0025	0.121

GE = gross energy, DE = digestible energy, k_l = efficiency of ME use for lactation

¹Probability of a linear (lin) or quadratic (quad) effect of concentrate CP level in the diet.

² Crossbred cows were crosses between Holstein and Swedish Red

Table 4. Effect of concentrate CP level and cow genotype on methane emissions in absolute terms or expressed as a proportion of production and energy efficiency

	Concentrate CP level				P-value ¹		Cow genotype		SEM	P-value
	Low	Medium	High	SEM	lin	quad	Holstein	Crossbred ²		
CH ₄ (g/d)	381.6	391.3	377.3	20.8	0.724	0.467	405	362	20.9	0.164
CH ₄ / feed intake or milk yield (g/kg)										
CH ₄ / DMI	18.36	18.43	18.19	1.03	0.904	0.782	18.7	17.9	1.07	0.593
CH ₄ / OMI	20.15	20.25	20.00	1.13	0.923	0.779	20.6	19.7	1.17	0.598
CH ₄ / Digestible DMI	24.20	24.04	23.90	1.41	0.809	0.972	24.4	23.7	1.49	0.737
CH ₄ / Digestible OMI	25.86	25.74	25.60	1.51	0.831	0.863	26.1	25.3	1.60	0.724
CH ₄ / Milk yield	14.35	14.85	14.30	1.01	0.372	0.366	13.8	15.2	0.95	0.225
CH ₄ / ECMY	13.49	14.15	13.33	0.90	0.480	0.240	13.3	14.0	0.90	0.575
CH ₄ -E / energy intake (MJ/MJ)										
CH ₄ -E / GEI	0.056	0.056	0.056	0.0031	0.972	0.755	0.057	0.055	0.0032	0.605
CH ₄ -E / DEI	0.077	0.076	0.076	0.0045	0.712	0.923	0.077	0.075	0.0048	0.724
CH ₄ -E / MEI	0.090	0.089	0.089	0.0059	0.776	0.969	0.091	0.088	0.0063	0.759

OMI = OM intake, ECMY = ECM yield (ECMY = Milk GE content (MJ/Kg) × MY (kg/d) / 3.0968, as shown by Tyrrell and Reid, (1965)), CH₄-E = methane energy output, GEI = gross energy intake, DEI = digestible energy intake, MEI = ME intake.

¹Probability of a linear (lin) or quadratic (quad) effect of concentrate CP level in the diet.

² Crossbred cows were crosses between Holstein and Swedish Red.