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### Methane emissions from two breeds of beef cows offered diets containing barley straw with either grass silage or brewers' grains

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2	Methane emissions from two breeds of beef cows offered diets containing
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#### 26 Abstract

Increasing the concentration of dietary lipid is a promising strategy for reducing 27 methane (CH<sub>4</sub>) emissions from ruminants. This study investigated the effect of 28 29 replacing grass silage with brewers' grains on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of pregnant, nonlactating beef cows of two breeds. The experiment was a two x two factorial design 30 comprising two breeds (LIMx, crossbred Limousin; and LUI, purebred Luing) and two 31 diets consisting of (g/kg diet dry matter (DM)) barley straw (687) and grass silage 32 (301, GS), or barley straw (763) and brewers' grains (226, BG), which were offered 33 ad libitum. Replacing GS with BG increased the acid hydrolysed ether extract 34 concentration from 21 to 37 g/kg diet DM. Cows (n=48) were group-housed in equal 35 numbers of each breed across two pens and each diet was allocated to one pen. 36 Prior to measurements of CH<sub>4</sub>, individual dry matter intake (DMI), weekly BW and 37 weekly body condition score were measured for a minimum of three weeks, following 38 a four week period to acclimatise to the diets. Methane emissions were subsequently 39 40 measured on one occasion from each cow using individual respiration chambers. Due to occasional equipment failures, CH<sub>4</sub> measurements were run over 9 weeks 41 giving 10 observations for each breed x treatment combination (total n=40). There 42 were no differences between diets for daily DMI measured in the chambers (9.92 vs. 43 9.86 kg/day for BG and GS, respectively; P > 0.05). Cows offered the BG diet 44 produced less daily CH<sub>4</sub> than GS-fed cows (131 vs. 156 g/day: P < 0.01). When 45 expressed either as g/kg DMI or kJ/MJ gross energy intake (GEI), BG-fed cows 46 produced less CH<sub>4</sub> than GS-fed cows (13.5 vs. 16.4 g/kg DMI, P < 0.05; 39.2 vs. 47 48.6 kJ/MJ GEI, P < 0.01). Breed did not affect daily DMI or CH<sub>4</sub> expressed as 48 g/day, g/kg DMI or kJ/MJ GEI (P > 0.05). However, when expressed as a proportion 49 of metabolic BW (BW<sup>0.75</sup>), LUI cows had greater DMI than LIMx cows (84.5 vs. 75.7 50

g DMI/kg BW<sup>0.75</sup>, P < 0.05) and produced more CH<sub>4</sub> per kg BW<sup>0.75</sup> than LIMx cows (1.30 vs. 1.05 g CH<sub>4</sub>/kg BW<sup>0.75</sup>; P < 0.01). Molar proportions of acetate were higher (P < 0.001) and propionate and butyrate lower (P < 0.01) in rumen fluid samples from BG-fed compared to GS-fed cows. This study demonstrated that replacing GS with BG in barley straw-based diets can effectively reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from beef cows, with no suppression of DMI.

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58 **Keywords**: brewers' grains, cattle, greenhouse gas, methane, nutrition

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#### 60 Implications

Ruminant production contributes significantly to global greenhouse gas emissions. 61 Consequently, the identification of appropriate strategies to reduce methane is 62 becoming increasingly important. Diet formulation is one of the most promising 63 strategies for reducing methane production from ruminants. Increasing the 64 concentration of lipid in the diet of beef cows, by replacing grass silage with brewers' 65 grains, reduced methane emissions by 17%. As brewers' grains are a widely 66 available by-product feed, their use in ruminant diets provides a practical solution to 67 reduce the environmental impact of beef enterprises. 68

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#### 70 Introduction

Ruminants play a crucial role in food security, being able to convert forages and nonhuman edible food into products for human consumption through enteric fermentation of cellulosic carbohydrates. However, enteric fermentation is the main source of ruminant emissions, where methane ( $CH_4$ ) is an end product of the microbial digestion process. Enteric  $CH_4$  emissions represents a loss of feed energy

to the animal (estimated at 6-10%), which could be used by the animal for production
(e.g. deposition of lean meat) (Cottle *et al.*, 2011; Gerber *et al.*, 2013a and 2013b).

There is increasing interest internationally to develop sustainable approaches 78 79 to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> production from cattle. Breeding, enterprise or system management and diet formulation are all useful strategies (Cottle et al., 2011), with diet formulation 80 representing one of the most practical and promising approaches. It has been widely 81 demonstrated that the nutritional composition of the diet significantly affects CH<sub>4</sub> 82 emissions (Cottle et al., 2011). Dietary strategies to reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions are 83 generally based on one of the following principles: (i) reducing the production of 84 hydrogen during fermentation, (ii) direct inhibition of methanogenesis, or (iii) 85 providing alternative pathways for the use of hydrogen within the rumen (Martin et 86 87 al., 2010). One promising approach, and the main focus of this paper, relates to increasing the concentration of dietary lipid which has been demonstrated to 88 effectively reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from ruminants (Martin *et al.*, 2010; Grainger and 89 Beauchemin, 2011; Hristov et al., 2013; Patra, 2013). Lipids reduce CH<sub>4</sub> emissions 90 through various mechanisms: fatty acids are not fermented in the rumen and 91 therefore increasing their proportion in the diet reduces the proportion of feed which 92 is fermentable within the rumen; lipids can also reduce CH<sub>4</sub> production by coating 93 fibre particles, reducing their digestibility, and by reducing the numbers and activity 94 95 of the rumen methanogens and protozoa responsible for methanogenesis (Johnson and Johnson, 1995; Patra, 2013). Dietary lipid can be increased through the addition 96 of plant oils to the diet or through the use of lipid-containing plant by-product feeds 97 from distilleries, breweries or plant oil extraction (Brask et al., 2013). The use of by-98 product feeds from these industries may be cost-effective and represents an 99 important energy source in ruminant diets. Cereals used for brewing beer or distilling 100

101 spirits predominantly use the starch portion for ethanol production with the resultant by-product feed available to the ruminant feed market being proportionately higher in 102 fibre, protein and lipid. Brewers' grains are a widely available animal feed for both 103 104 beef and dairy cattle. Commonly, diets fed to housed beef cows in the winter include large proportions of forages which are low in digestibility, for example barley straw. 105 Baseline data on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from cows offered diets low in digestibility are 106 currently sparse, as is information on effective CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation strategies for these 107 diet types. 108

109 Evidence to support breed differences in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions is also limited. Most studies have focussed on breeds of beef cattle that are typically managed more 110 intensively, but a small number have investigated breeds more suited to extensive 111 112 grazing systems (Fraser et al., 2014; Richmond et al., 2015). One could speculate that breeds suited for hill and upland systems may have developed significant 113 physiological or behavioural differences to suit the harsher environments. They may 114 also differ in CH<sub>4</sub> production when offered a straw-based, poor quality diet in 115 comparison to breeds typically managed more intensively and selected for improved 116 growth and carcass yield. 117

The aim of this study was therefore to investigate the effect of increasing the concentration of dietary lipid in a barley-straw based diet, typical of industry practice, by replacing grass silage with brewers' grains, on  $CH_4$  emissions of pregnant, nonlactating spring calving beef cows of two breeds.

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### 123 Material and methods

124 This study was conducted at the Beef and Sheep Research Centre, SRUC situated 6 125 miles south of Edinburgh UK. The experiment was approved by the Animal

126 Experiment Committee of SRUC and was conducted in accordance with the 127 requirements of the UK Animals (Scientific Procedures) Act 1986.

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#### 129 Experimental design, diets and animals

The experiment was of a two x two factorial design, comprising of two barley-straw 130 based diets with either (i) grass silage or (ii) brewers' grains as alternative protein 131 sources and two cow breed types (LIMx, crossbred Limousin; LUI, purebred Luing). 132 The two experimental diets consisted (g/kg dry matter (**DM**) basis) of (i) barley straw 133 134 (687) and grass silage (301; GS) or (ii) barley straw (763) and brewers' grains (226; **BG**), which were offered as total mixed rations (TMR). The ingredient and chemical 135 composition of the experimental diets are given in Table 1. The chemical 136 composition of individual dietary components is given in Table 2. The DM contents of 137 individual components were determined twice weekly and bulked feed samples 138 (three per component) were analysed. Feed samples were analysed for DM, ash, 139 crude protein, acid detergent fibre, neutral detergent fibre, acid hydrolysed ether 140 extract (AHEE), water soluble carbohydrate, starch and neutral cellulose and 141 gamminase digestibility (Ministry of Agriculture Fisheries and Food, 1992) and gross 142 energy by adiabatic bomb calorimetry. The LIMx cows were all Limousin-sired from a 143 2-breed (Limousin and Aberdeen Angus) reciprocal crossing program whilst the 144 145 Luings were all purebred Luing cows. The breeds were selected to represent two commercially relevant breeds where crossbred Limousin cows represent the most 146 common continental sired beef breed in the UK, whilst the LUI breed is typical of a 147 more extensively managed hardy hill and upland breed. 148

149 In total 48 cows (n=24 of each breed type) were group-housed in equal 150 numbers of each breed type across two pens, and each diet type was allocated to

one pen. Thus, 12 animals were allocated to each diet x breed combination. 151 Treatments were balanced for age at the start of the experiment, number of days into 152 pregnancy and BW. In the group-pens all cows were bedded on wood fibre and 153 sawdust to ensure that consumption of bedding did not contribute to nutrient intake. 154 Fresh water was provided ad libitum using a water trough, and both TMR diets were 155 offered ad libitum to all cows twice daily using electronic feeders (HOKO, Insentec, 156 Marknesse, The Netherlands). The TMR's were formulated to meet the cow's 157 average nutrient requirements for maintenance and pregnancy according to AFRC 158 159 (1993). Prior to measurements using respiration chambers, feed intake and weekly BW and body condition score (BCS) had been measured for a minimum of three 160 weeks, following a four week adaptation period to acclimatise to the diets. 161

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## 163 Emissions Measurement in Respiration Chambers

The cows were originally allocated to six respiration chambers over an eight week 164 period, using a replicated (two times) randomised block design (each block 165 consisting of four weeks). Thus each component of the two x two factorial (breed x 166 diet) experimental design was allocated twice to each respiration chamber. The cows 167 were allocated to minimise variation in stage of pregnancy and BW on entry into the 168 respiration chambers. Prior to entry to the respiration chamber, cows were loose-169 170 housed for a period of six days individually in training pens within the same building of identical size (4 x 3 m) and shape to the pens within the respiration chambers to 171 allow them to acclimatise to being housed individually. The cows were then moved to 172 individual respiration chambers where they remained for three days. Cows were fed 173 once daily with ad libitum access to their respective TMR's and feed consumption 174 was monitored from weigh cells located in feed bins with records made at 10 s 175

intervals. Data for DMI during the 3 d chamber measurement period were averaged per animal. Front doors of chambers were briefly opened and closed at approximately 08.00 h daily to remove feed bins and again to replace bins with fresh feed at approximately 09.00 h. The pens were cleaned daily between 08.00 and 09.00 h. Exact times when doors were opened and closed were recorded.

The methodology for measuring emissions using respiration chambers has 181 been previously described in Rooke et al. (2014). Briefly, six indirect open-circuit 182 respiration chambers were used (No Pollution Industrial Systems Ltd., Edinburgh, 183 UK). The total chamber volume (76 m<sup>3</sup>) was ventilated to give approximately 2.5 air 184 changes/h. Temperature and relative humidity were set at 15°C and 60%, 185 respectively. Total air flow, temperature and humidity were recorded at 5 s intervals. 186 Chambers were operated under negative pressure (50 N/m<sup>2</sup>). 187 Methane concentrations were measured by infrared absorption spectroscopy (MGA3000, 188 Analytical Development Co. Ltd., Hoddesdon, UK). The analyser was calibrated 189 before and after each three day chamber measurement period using calibration 190 gases for zero (99.998% Nitrogen, BOC Ltd., Surrey, UK) and span (500 ppmv CH<sub>4</sub>, 191 1975 ppmv CO<sub>2</sub>, 20.9% O<sub>2</sub>, BOC Ltd., Surrey, UK). Gas concentrations were 192 recorded for each chamber and for inlet air every six min. Prior to the beginning of 193 the experiment, gas recoveries were measured by releasing carbon dioxide at a 194 195 constant rate into each chamber. The mean recovery was 98% (SEM 3.0) which was not different from 100%. The final 48 h of a 72 h measurement period were used to 196 calculate daily gas production. To minimise bias caused by the entry of air when the 197 198 doors to the chamber were opened for feeding, and as cows did not have access to feed at this time, gas concentrations measured during this period were not used for 199 further analysis. Instead, and to minimise bias, these values were replaced by the 200

201 mean value of measurements made in the last hour before the doors were opened. If a cow had consumed feed during that period, mean values for the hour preceding 202 feed consumption was used. During the 8 week period, because of failures in air 203 recirculation (n=3) within chambers and with gas analysis (n=6), and poor DMI from 204 one cow (n=1), data from only 38 cows were obtained and therefore an extra set of 205 measurements were obtained in a ninth week (for 5 of 10 cows above) to bring total 206 number of observations to 43. On completion of the experiment, critical appraisal of 207 the data caused three of these measurements to be rejected because of gas 208 209 analysis problems and therefore there were 40 observations available for analysis (n=10 for each breed x treatment combination). 210

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#### 212 Rumen sampling and volatile fatty acid analysis

Rumen fluid samples were taken from each animal within 2 h of animals leaving the 213 respiration chambers. Animals had ad libitum access to feed until removal from 214 chambers at 09.00 h (no fresh feed was provided on the morning of removal). 215 Approximately 50 mL of rumen liquid were taken by inserting a stomach tube (16 x 216 2700 mm Equivet Stomach Tube, JørgenKruuse A/S, Langeskov, Denmark) nasally 217 and aspirating manually. This liquid was filtered through two layers of muslin. A 5 mL 218 sample of the filtered liquid was deproteinised by adding 1 mL metaphosphoric acid 219 220 (215 g/L) and 0.5 ml methylvaleric acid (10 g/L) was added as an internal standard. These samples were stored at -20 °C between collection and analysis. Volatile fatty 221 acid (VFA) concentrations were determined by HPLC as described in Rooke et al. 222 (1990). 223

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225 Statistical analysis

For all traits other than DMI (kg/day) statistical analyses were conducted using the 226 mixed procedure of SAS software (SAS Inst. Inc., Cary, North Carolina). The fixed 227 effects were diet (BG and GS) and breed (LUI and LIMx), and random effects 228 included were week (instead of block to account for the extra week of chamber 229 measurements) and chamber. The interaction between diet and breed was also 230 included in the model when these effects proved significant (P < 0.05). For 231 comparison of daily DMI at different measurement periods, data were analysed using 232 the mixed procedure of SAS software using a repeated measures ANOVA including 233 234 the effects of diet (BG and GS), breed (LUI and LIMx) and measurement period (group pen, training pen, chamber). There were no interactions between diet, breed 235 and period and thus no interaction terms were included in the model. Probability 236 237 values were deemed as significant where P < 0.05. Data are reported as means with their standard errors of the mean (SEM). 238

239

#### 240 **Results**

241 Body weight and body condition score

Mean values for BW and BCS parameters determined in this study are presented in Table 3. Due to cow allocation to treatments there were no diet or breed differences for either age or number of days into pregnancy on entry to the chamber (P > 0.05). Furthermore, there were no between-diet differences for BW or BCS on entry to the chamber (P > 0.05). Body weight was affected by breed where LUI cows had lower BW than LIMx cows (572 vs. 668 kg; P < 0.01). Body condition score was affected by breed where LUI cows had poorer BCS than LIMx cows (2.5 vs. 3.1; P < 0.001).

250 Dry matter intake

No diet or breed differences were observed for DMI expressed as kg per day (Table 251 3: P > 0.05). Dry matter intake differed between measurement periods where cows 252 had lower DMI (kg/day) within the group-pen environment compared to DMI 253 measured in the training pens and respiration chambers (group pen = 9.10 kg/day, 254 training pen = 9.66 kg/day, chamber = 9.88 kg/day; P < 0.05; SEM = 0.259). There 255 was no interaction of measurement period with diet or breed (P > 0.05). However, 256 when expressed as a proportion of metabolic BW (BW<sup>0.75</sup>) LUI cows had greater DMI 257 within the chambers than LIMx cows (84.5 vs. 75.7 g DMI/kg BW<sup>0.75</sup>; P < 0.05). 258

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#### 260 Methane emissions

Cows offered the BG diet (Table 3) produced less CH<sub>4</sub> per day than GS-fed cows 261 (131 vs. 156 g/day; P < 0.01). Whether expressed as g/kg DMI (13.5 vs. 16.4 g/kg 262 DMI; P < 0.05) or kJ/MJ GEI (39.2 vs. 48.6 kJ/MJ GEI; P < 0.01) BG-fed cows 263 produced less CH<sub>4</sub> than cows offered the GS diet. Luing cows consistently produced 264 more CH<sub>4</sub> (g/day, g/kg DMI and kJ/MJ GEI) than LIMx cows although the breed 265 effect was not significant (P > 0.05). However, when CH<sub>4</sub> emission was expressed 266 as a proportion of metabolic BW, LUI cows produced more CH<sub>4</sub> than LIMx cows 267  $(1.30 \text{ vs. } 1.05 \text{ g CH}_4/\text{kg BW}^{0.75}; P < 0.01).$ 268

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#### 270 Volatile fatty acid molar proportions

Molar proportions of acetate (Table 4) were higher in rumen fluid samples from cows fed BG compared to GS (769 *vs.* 737 mmol/mol; P < 0.001), while the proportions were lower for both propionate (146 *vs.* 162 mmol/mol; P < 0.01) and butyrate (65 *vs.* 80 mmol/mol; P < 0.01). The proportions of valerate did not differ between diet types (P > 0.05). Thus the acetate to propionate ratio was greater in cows fed the BG

than the GS diet (5.5 *vs.* 4.6; P < 0.001). There was no difference between the two breeds for volatile fatty acid molar proportions (P > 0.05).

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#### 279 Discussion

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#### 281 Diet effects on methane emissions

Increasing the concentration of lipid in ruminant diets reduces CH<sub>4</sub> emissions (Martin 282 et al., 2010; Grainger and Beauchemin, 2011; Hristov et al., 2013; Patra, 2013). 283 284 However, the effectiveness of dietary lipid depends on the type and amount of lipid added to the diet (Brask et al., 2013; Hristov et al., 2013). However, less attention 285 has been paid to the nature of the basal diet. The present study demonstrated that 286 287 incorporating brewers' grains into a straw-based diet reduced CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from beef cows; replacing grass silage with brewers' grains increased the lipid 288 concentration from 20 to 37 g AHEE/kg diet DM and reduced CH<sub>4</sub> yield (g/kg DMI) by 289 290 17%. In recent reviews, Grainger and Beauchemin (2011) found that CH<sub>4</sub> yield decreased 1 g/kg DMI for every 10 g/kg DM increase in dietary lipid, and Martin et al. 291 (2010) reported that CH<sub>4</sub> yield decreased by 3.8% with every 10 g lipid/kg DM 292 increase. In the present study CH<sub>4</sub> yield decreased by 1.6 g/kg DMI or 10% for every 293 10 g AHEE/kg diet DM increase upon inclusion of brewers' grains which is greater 294 295 than the above reports. In the present study, however, cows were observed to attempt to select brewers' grains from the mixed feed. This would result in a higher 296 proportion of brewers' grains consumed compared to that offered. It was not 297 298 anticipated that the cows would attempt to select specific dietary constituents, thus it is important to consider the potential differences in the composition of the consumed 299 diet. To explore the potential difference in dietary lipid consumed, a corrected 300

301 estimate of the ratio of barley straw to brewers' grains was calculated based on the assumption that all refusals consisted solely of barley straw and did not contain 302 brewers' grains. Based on 216 observations, the consumed ration was calculated as 303 304 (g/kg DM basis) 334 brewers' grains and 666 straw instead of the formulated ration of 226 brewers' grains and 763 straw. Based on this corrected ratio, the lipid content 305 of the diet would have increased to 49 g AHEE/kg diet DM compared to 37 g 306 AHEE/kg diet DM in the formulated ration. This brings the results in line with the 307 findings of Grainger and Beauchemin (2011) where at this corrected concentration a 308 309 1 g/kg reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> for every 10 g/kg increase in dietary lipid was observed. Furthermore, the effect of dietary lipid may be greater within a diet containing a high 310 proportion of low digestible fibre such as barley straw. Martin et al. (2010) reported 311 312 that the effects of dietary lipid were greater on a hay diet than a maize silage diet and previous findings have demonstrated greater reductions in CH<sub>4</sub> production on 313 forage than concentrate-based diets (Lovett et al., 2003; Troy et al., 2015). 314

The use of by-products containing dietary lipid can be an effective strategy for 315 reducing CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from cattle. Troy et al. (2015) investigated the addition of 316 cold-pressed rapeseed cake to the diet of finishing beef steers and found that the 317 addition of rapeseed cake, which is higher in lipid than brewers' grains (174 g 318 AHEE/kg DM), to a mixed forage and concentrate diet (52 g AHEE/kg diet DM) 319 320 resulted in a reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> yield of 3.3% (0.83 g/kg DMI) per 10 g/kg DM increase in dietary lipid, which is slightly lower than the results reported here. Brask et al., 321 (2013) added rapeseed cake (173 g crude fat/kg DM) to the diet of dairy cows and 322 323 found a greater CH<sub>4</sub> yield reduction of 4.6% for every 10 g/kg DM increase in dietary lipid. Relatively few studies have reported the effects of including brewers' grains in 324 the diet on CH<sub>4</sub> production. However, Moate et al. (2011) used brewers' grains, 325

326 hominy meal and a combination of hominy meal and cold pressed rapeseed in dairy cow diets, where the diets contained 51, 65 and 52 g crude fat/kg diet DM, 327 respectively (compared to the control which contained 26 g crude fat /kg diet DM). 328 329 Moate et al. (2011) observed a 5% reduction of CH<sub>4</sub> yield on both the brewers' grains and combined hominy meal and rapeseed treatments, and 12% on the 330 hominy meal treatment; the greater reduction on the hominy meal treatment was 331 likely due to the higher lipid concentration in the diet. They demonstrated for each 10 332 g/kg DM increase in dietary lipid concentration, CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were reduced by 333 334 3.5%. Although the majority of studies to date have not investigated the persistency of the effects of lipid on suppressing CH<sub>4</sub> production, Moate et al. (2011) 335 demonstrated a persistency of their dietary effects over more than 7 weeks. The 336 337 effect of lipid persisted throughout the current experiment (9 weeks) as there was no effect of measurement week (P = 0.50) on CH<sub>4</sub> production. 338

One of the mechanisms by which lipid is thought to suppress CH<sub>4</sub> production 339 340 is through increased production of propionate versus acetate and thus reduction in the amounts of hydrogen generated through fermentation. The meta-analysis of 341 Patra (2013) demonstrated that although total VFA concentrations were not altered 342 by increasing the dietary lipid content, the proportion of propionate to acetate 343 increased and the proportion of butyrate decreased with increasing concentration of 344 345 lipid which supports the above mechanism. In contrast, an increase in acetate and decrease in propionate on the BG diet was observed in the present study alongside 346 a reduction in butyrate. Increasing the concentrate proportion of the diet is normally 347 associated with increases in propionate molar proportions, although the response is 348 likely to depend on the nutrients supplied by the diet. In the present study, 964 g/kg 349 DM in diet BG was accounted for by neutral detergent fibre, crude protein, AHEE 350

and ash whereas only 649 g/kg DM was accounted for by these constituents in diet 351 GS. The constituents unaccounted for in GS include fermentation acids, particularly 352 lactic acid. Since there is a positive correlation between silage lactic acid 353 concentration and rumen propionic acid molar proportion (Martin et al. 1994), the 354 greater propionic acid molar proportions in the GS diet most likely reflected the lactic 355 acid in the silage and the low concentrations of starch in the brewers' grains. From 356 the above, decreased hydrogen supply to the rumen archaea from increased 357 production of propionic acid does not appear to be the most likely mechanism of 358 359 action of lipid in the present experiment. More likely mechanisms may be physical coating of fibre by the lipid and the reduction in rumen-fermentable substrates as a 360 result of lipid addition. Furthermore, apart from the increased lipid content of the diet, 361 the other main changes in the composition of the diet when brewers' grains replaced 362 grass silage were increased NDF and CP contents. The greater acetate to 363 propionate ratio observed for diet BG is consistent with the increase in NDF but there 364 was no increase in branched chain VFA on diet BG which might be expected from 365 increased protein degradation. However, the increase in acetate to propionate ratio 366 on diet BG was not associated as might be expected with an increase in CH<sub>4</sub> 367 emissions and therefore it is likely that the increase in dietary lipid was the major 368 factor underlying the reduction in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions observed when BG rather than GS 369 370 was fed.

At high concentrations in the diet, lipid can negatively affect DMI and productivity, but low concentration of dietary lipid can be used with no adverse effects (Brask *et al.*, 2013). Based on a meta-analysis, Patra (2013) demonstrated that lipid supplementation in excess of 6% causes problems with productivity. Diets which negatively affect productivity are unsuitable for livestock producers, and

376 therefore, in the present study the concentration of lipid in the BG diet was 37 g AHEE/kg diet DM in the formulated ration. As expected, and consistent with the 377 literature, this concentration of dietary lipid did not suppress DMI. Even if we assume 378 379 the animals preferentially selected the diet as observed, the diet would still not have reached a concentration of lipid expected to suppress DMI. However, at this 380 corrected level of BG inclusion a marked decrease in CH<sub>4</sub> production was observed 381 without adverse effects on DMI. Therefore, the use of by-products such as brewers' 382 grains, represents an attractive strategy for use in beef cow diets from both an 383 384 animal productivity and CH<sub>4</sub> mitigation perspective.

In the present study mean  $CH_4$  yields for each of the BG and GS diets were 0.039 and 0.049 MJ/MJ GEI respectively, considerably lower than the value currently adopted by the IPCC (2006) (0.065 MJ/MJ GEI). The IPCC (2006) approach does not account for differences in the digestibility of diets and as a result over-estimates  $CH_4$  yield from diets containing large proportions of forages which are low in digestibility.

Respiration chambers are generally considered to be the most accurate 391 technology for measuring CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from ruminants. However, one of the major 392 challenges associated with this technology is avoiding a reduction in feed intake 393 within the chamber environment, where the animals are individually housed. This is 394 395 necessary for CH<sub>4</sub> emissions data to be representative of normal feeding behaviour in a group-housed environment (Garnsworthy et al., 2012; Bickell et al., 2014). In the 396 present study, no reduction in DMI was observed from group-housing to respiration 397 398 chambers, but there was a small increase in DMI per day of 9%.

399

400 Breed effects on methane emissions

401 There is limited experimental evidence to support differences in CH<sub>4</sub> emissions between breeds. Rooke et al. (2014) examined CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from crossbred 402 Limousin and crossbred Aberdeen Angus, and found no difference between these 403 404 breeds in methane yield whether expressed per level of DMI or GEI. Troy et al. (2015) compared two breeds of finishing beef steers (purebred Luing and crossbred 405 Charolais) and reported no differences between breeds in CH<sub>4</sub> whether expressed 406 as g/day, g/kg DMI or kJ/MJ GEI. These studies were both conducted using the 407 same respiration chambers and methodologies to those used in the current study. 408

409 Differences in grazing behaviour between breeds is likely to have a large impact on CH<sub>4</sub> emissions, as demonstrated in a modelling study by Ricci et al. 410 (2014). Based on the potential for differences in animal physiology or behaviour to 411 412 influence CH<sub>4</sub> production, a number of recent studies have been conducted within outdoor grazing environments to examine CH<sub>4</sub> emissions from breeds which are 413 suited to extensive grazing systems compared to more intensively managed breeds 414 selected for increased growth and carcass yields. Measurements of CH<sub>4</sub> in grazing 415 environments are possible using the SF6 tracer technique (Deighton et al., 2014). In 416 the studies of Fraser et al. (2014) and Richmond et al. (2015), where two breeds 417 were studied on two pasture types (lowland vs. upland pasture), no difference 418 419 between breeds (or interactions with pasture type) were identified for CH<sub>4</sub> expressed 420 on a daily, DMI or GEI basis. Rooke et al. (2015) reported CH<sub>4</sub> emissions of lactating beef cows of the same two breeds considered in the present study on either 421 reseeded predominantly perennial ryegrass pasture or rough hill grazing. Consistent 422 423 with previous findings, daily CH<sub>4</sub> emissions were influenced by pasture type, but not breed. The results of the present study, although measured in chamber 424 environments, were consistent with Rooke et al. (2015) where these breeds of beef 425

cow did not influence CH<sub>4</sub> when expressed as g/day, g/kg DMI or kJ/MJ GEI. These 426 expressions of CH<sub>4</sub>, however do not take account of the differences in BW of these 427 two breed types. Within the present study, LUI cows were considerably smaller than 428 429 the LIMx cows (572 vs. 668 kg BW) and produced greater levels of CH<sub>4</sub> per kg metabolic BW compared to the LIMx cows. This greater level of CH<sub>4</sub> is driven by the 430 differences in DMI/kg BW<sup>0.75</sup>, where LUI cows consumed greater DMI per kg 431 metabolic BW than LIMx cows. When considering the difference between breeds, it 432 is important to take additional characteristics of the animals (such as DMI/kg BW<sup>0.75</sup>) 433 434 into account as these have an important influence on CH<sub>4</sub> production.

435

Increasing the dietary lipid concentration has been shown to effectively reduce CH<sub>4</sub> 436 production from ruminants provided the amount fed is less than that which adversely 437 affects digestion and feed intake. However, the practicality and sustainability of this 438 approach is dependent on the type of lipid used. Pure oils that could be used for 439 440 human food are of high cost, or indeed where production is controversial (palm oil) may not represent the best sustainable solution. The use of by-products from ethanol 441 production (biodiesel and alcoholic beverages) or oil extraction produces feeds that 442 are better balanced in protein and lipid/energy supply than the parent feeds and are 443 well established for use within ruminant diets. Thus the use of by-products, such as 444 445 brewers' grains represents a cost-effective and sustainable solution for mitigation of CH<sub>4</sub> from ruminant systems. 446

447

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**Table 1** Component composition and calculated chemical composition of experimental diets

558	(BG, Barley straw-	brewers' grains; GS,	Barley straw-grass silage)
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Diets	BG	GS
Components (g/kg dry matter)		
Barley straw	763	687
Grass silage		301
Brewers' grains	226	
Mineral / vitamin mix <sup>1</sup>	11	12
Composition (g/kg dry matter)		
Dry matter (g/kg)	550	533
Crude protein	73	59
NDF <sup>2</sup>	771	693
ADF <sup>2</sup>	516	499
Starch	6	0
WSC <sup>2</sup>	6	20
AHEE <sup>2</sup>	37	20
Ash	38	48
Metabolisable energy (MJ /kg DM)	7.4	8.1
Gross energy (MJ /kg DM)	19.4	18.9

<sup>1</sup>mineral / vitamin mix (Norvite, Insch, Aberdeenshire, UK) supplied (mg /kg unless stated otherwise) vitamin A, 500000 international units (IU); Vitamin D 100000 iu; Vitamin E 4000;
 Fe, 5271; Mn, 5000; Zn, 3600; I, 1000; Co, 90; Cu, 3000; Se, 35.

<sup>2</sup>NDF, neutral detergent fibre; ADF, acid detergent fibre; WSC, water soluble carbohydrate;
 AHEE, acid hydrolysed ether extract

	Barley straw	Grass silage	Brewers' grains
Dry matter (g/kg)	805	298	263
Crude protein	20	150	255
NDF <sup>1</sup>	847	370	553
ADF <sup>1</sup>	593	303	279
Starch	0	0	26
WSC <sup>1</sup>	7	50	3
AHEE <sup>1</sup>	14	36	118
Ash	38	73	38
NCGD <sup>1</sup>	308	0	567
Metabolisable energy (MJ /kg DM)	6.5	12.1	10.9
Gross energy (MJ /kg DM)	18.8	19.8	22.5
рН		4.3	
AHEE, acid hydrolysed ether extract;	NCGD, neutral ce	Ilulose and gama	nase digestibility

# **Table 2** Chemical composition of components (g/kg DM)

583	Table 3 Age,	BW and bod	condition score	(BCS) of cows	at allocation,	intakes and CH <sub>4</sub>
	<b>U</b> ,					

Diet <sup>1</sup>	BG		G	GS		Significance <sup>4</sup>	
Breed	LIMx	LUI	LIMx	LUI	SEM	Breed	Diet
On entry to chamber							
Age (years)	5.2	5.7	6.1	4.6	1.33	ns	ns
Days pregnant <sup>2</sup>	212	224	226	212	4.11	ns	ns
BW (kg)	697	587	638	557	32.58	**	ns
BCS	3.2	2.6	3.0	2.4	0.12	***	ns
DMI							
Group pen kg/d <sup>3</sup>	9.62	8.65	9.28	8.84	0.60	ns	ns
Training pen kg/d	9.70	9.36	10.32	9.26	0.60	ns	ns
Chamber kg/d	10.06	9.77	9.90	9.81	0.82	ns	ns
Chamber g/kg BW <sup>0.75</sup>	74.1	82.8	79.0	85.8	6.45	*	ns
CH₄							
g/d	129	133	143	169	11.17	ns	**
g/kg DMI	13.2	13.9	14.7	18.0	1.48	ns	*
kJ/MJ GEI	38.2	40.3	43.8	53.4	4.36	ns	**
g/kg BW <sup>0.75</sup>	0.95	1.12	1.14	1.48	0.09	**	***

584 production as measured from the respiration chambers (means with average SEM)

585 \**P* < 0.05; \*\**P* < 0.01; \*\*\**P* < 0.001

586 DMI, dry matter intake; GEI, gross energy intake; LIMx, crossbred Limousin; LUI, purebred 587 Luing

<sup>1</sup>BG, Barley Straw-Brewers' Grains; GS, Barley Straw-Grass Silage

<sup>2</sup>Three animals were identified as not in calf (all LUI, one allocated to BG and 2 allocated to S90 GS diet)

<sup>3</sup>Measured throughout 1 week prior to entry to training pen

<sup>4</sup>The interaction effect of breed x diet was not significant for any trait except days pregnant (P<0.01).

595 **Table 4** Volatile fatty acid molar proportions (mmol/mol) in rumen fluid samples taken on exit

Diet <sup>1</sup>	BG		G	GS		Significance <sup>3</sup>	
Breed	LIMx	LUI	LIMx	LUI	SEM	Breed	Diet
Acetate	769	770	738	736	9.2	ns	***
Propionate	145	146	162	162	9.0	ns	**
Butyrate	65	65	78	81	4.2	ns	***
Valerate	6	6	6	6	0.6	ns	ns
Branched Chain <sup>2</sup>	15	13	16	15	1.2	ns	ns
Acetate:propionate ratio	5.5	5.4	4.6	4.6	0.4	ns	***

596 from respiration chambers (means and average SEM are given for effects of breed and diet)

597 \**P* < 0.05; \*\**P* < 0.01; \*\*\**P* < 0.001.

598 LIMx, crossbred Limousin; LUI, purebred Luing

<sup>1</sup>BG, Barley Straw-Brewers' Grains; GS, Barley Straw-Grass Silage

<sup>600</sup> <sup>2</sup>Branched chain is sum of iso-butyrate and iso-valerate

<sup>601</sup> <sup>3</sup>The interaction effect of breed x diet was not significant for any trait