



**MINISTRY OF EDUCATION AND TRAINING
CAN THO UNIVERSITY**

School year: 2010-2012

LE THUY BINH PHUONG

**MITIGATION OF METHANE PRODUCTION
FROM RUMINANTS: EFFECT OF NITRATE
AND UREA ON METHANE PRODUCTION IN AN
IN VITRO SYSTEM AND ON GROWTH
PERFORMANCE AND METHANE EMISSIONS
IN GROWING CATTLE**

**MASTER OF SCIENCE THESIS IN AGRICULTURAL SCIENCES
ANIMAL HUSBANDRY**

Code Number: 60 - 62 - 40

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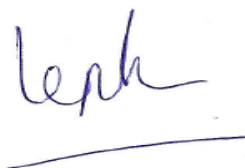
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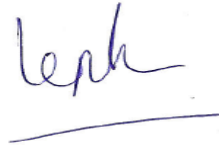


Le Thuy Binh Phuong

COMMITMENT

I assure that this thesis is a scientific work which was implemented by myself. All the figures and results presented in the thesis are true and not published in any previous theses.

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A handwritten signature in blue ink, appearing to read 'leph', is written above a horizontal blue line.

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Abstract

Paper 1

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of replacing urea by calcium nitrate with or without supplementary sulphur (0, 0.4, 0.8% on DM basis) on methane production in an *in vitro* incubation medium inoculated with rumen fluid and using sugar cane stalk and cassava leaf meal as substrate. The design was a 3*2 factorial arrangement of the treatments with 4 replications.

Compared with urea, calcium nitrate reduced methane production. The effect was consistent over successive periods in the 48h incubation. Adding 0.4% sulphur, in the form of sodium sulphate, increased methane production, while 0.8% sulphur reduced methane production. When 0.8% sulphur was combined with nitrate the effects on methane reduction were additive. Methane production increased linearly with the length of the incubation on all treatments.

Key words: *Calcium nitrate, climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, urea, substrate*

Paper 2

This study aimed to evaluate the effect of three nitrate salts (calcium nitrate, potassium nitrate and sodium nitrate) compared with urea on methane production in an *in vitro* 24h incubation with molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrate.

Compared to urea treatment, all nitrate salts diminished total gas production, methane percentage in the gas and methane production per unit of substrate, with no differences among the nitrate salts.

Key words: *Calcium nitrate, climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, potassium nitrate, sodium nitrate, urea*

Paper 3

This *in vitro* incubation was arranged as a 2*3 factorial in a completely randomized block design with 6 treatments and 4 repetitions. The first factor was the source of fermentable N (potassium nitrate or urea); the second factor was the level of added sulphur (0, 0.4 and 0.8% of substrate DM, as sodium sulphate). The substrate was molasses and cassava leaf meal. Incubations were carried out on successive days for 6, 12, 18, 24 and 48h. At the end of each incubation, volume of gas and percentage methane was recorded, and the residual substrate filtered to determine the amount of substrate solubilized.

Gas production, percentage methane in the gas and methane production were reduced by replacing urea by nitrate at incubation times from 6 to 48h, and were increased with length of incubation. Added sulphur

increased methane emissions in the presence of nitrate over the early incubation periods indicating a greater fermentation rate in that period, but sulphur was additive in decreasing methane in longer incubations, indicating nitrate had been fully reduced and sulphur reduction commenced. The reduction in methane production after 48h of incubation, when sulphur and nitrate were combined, was greater than when nitrate was used alone.

Key words: *Climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, potassium nitrate, urea*

Paper4

The objective of this study was to determine the effect of potassium nitrate versus urea, and of supplementary sulphur, on growth performance of cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage. The experiment was designed as a 2*2*3 factorial with 4 replications. The factors were source of NPN (potassium nitrate: 6 % of diet DM basis or urea: 1.8 % of diet DM basis), level of added sulphur (0 or 0.8% S) and source of cassava foliage (fresh foliage or dried leaf meal).

DM intake was not affected by NPN source, but was depressed by adding 0.8% sulphur and was lower for the treatment with fresh cassava foliage compared with leaf meal. After correcting the data by covariance for differences in initial live weight, growth rate was depressed by adding 0.8% sulphur to the diet but was not affected by source of NPN or source of cassava foliage. The ratio of methane to carbon dioxide was reduced by feeding potassium nitrate rather than urea and by fresh cassava foliage compared with cassava leaf meal.

Key words: *Feed conversion, foliage, leaf meal, potassium nitrate, urea*

Abbreviations

ANOVA	Analysis of variance
AOAC	Association of Official Analytical Chemists
ATP	Adenosine tri-phosphate
CH ₄	Methane
CP	Crude protein
DM	Dry matter
FMD	Foot and mouth disease
GEI	Gross Energy Intake
HCN	Hydrogen cyanide
HCO ₃ ⁻	Bicarbonate
LW	Live weight
Mekarn	Mekong basin animal research network
N	Nitrogen
NH ₃	Ammonia
NPN	Non-Protein Nitrogen
NO ₃	Nitrate
NRB	Nitrate-reducing bacteria
NRSOB	Nitrate-reducing sulphide-oxidizing bacteria
OM	Organic matter
pH	Power of/potential Hydrogen
Prob/P	Probability
RCD	Randomized complete design
SEM	Standard error of the mean
SRB	Sulphate-reducing bacteria
U	Urea
VFAs	Volatile fatty acids

Introduction

In recent years the sustainability of animal production has been stressed in view of the increasing human population and climate changes (Pollock 2008). According to FAO (2006) and Steinfeld et al (2006), the resultant trends in meat and milk consumption in developing and developed countries increased from 1980 to 2002 with estimates dramatically increasing in the future. Global livestock production has increased substantially since the 1960s and beef production has more than doubled (Thornton 2010).

Since feed costs are the major part of production costs in livestock production, an increase in the use of indigenous feed resources is an important way of helping farmers reduce their costs. Devendra and Leng (2011) suggested to shift priority for the development of ruminants (buffaloes, cattle, goats and sheep) in key agro-ecological zones towards making intensive use of the available biomass from the forage resources, crop residues, agro-industrial by-products and other non-conventional feed resources to improve efficiency of feed utilization and increase product output.

Fermentation of feeds in the rumen is the largest source of methane from enteric fermentation, and methane is one of the important gases contributing to the greenhouse effect. Moss et al (2000) indicated that agricultural emissions of methane in the EU-15 have recently been estimated at 10.2 million tonnes per year and two-thirds come from enteric fermentation. In particular, beef cattle and dairy cattle combined produced the highest level of methane emissions per head, accounting for 72% and 32% respectively (US. EPA, 2009). Leng (1993) indicated that the methane released from enteric fermentation reduced efficiency of conversion of feed to product (e.g. milk, beef, draught power).

Leng (2008) has suggested that supplementation strategies for ruminants to reduce methane production should be based on feeding of nitrate salts, which provide an alternative electron acceptor whilst still maintaining the efficiency of the fermentative digestion. Nitrate can also supply a high proportion of the total N in a feed, and poor quality forages are typically deficient in fermentable nitrogen.

The lack of conventional concentrate feeds and the need to expand meat production to provide protein for the population are aspects affecting the demand for feeds for livestock.

The use of molasses for cattle fattening has been developed in many countries because a high molasses feeding system has proved economically successful (Preston et al 1967b; Olbrich and Wayman 1972; Cuong et al 2010), since rates of animal performance and efficiency of feed utilization were almost doubled compared with the traditional method.

Leng (1990) suggested that for maximum production from a particular feed, it is necessary to ensure optimal rumen condition for microbial growth and adjust protein to energy ratios in the nutrients absorbed with a bypass protein to optimize efficiency of utilization of the absorbed nutrients. Most feed resources for ruminants are forages that can be described only as poor quality in which the limitations to production are a low protein supply from the microbial ecosystem and a virtual absence of dietary bypass protein (Leng 1993). Cassava is a crop grown widely in the tropics and sub-tropics and can be grown on soils with low organic matter, receiving low rainfall and high temperature. Particularly, cassava leaves contain high level of crude protein (25%) some of which can apparently by-pass the rumen since it is in the form of a tannin-protein complex (Wanapat 1995). The leaves residues after harvesting root can be available source of protein for feeding to many kinds of animals (Preston 2001).

Hypotheses

The hypotheses to be tested were:

Paper 1

Supplementary sulphate will have a synergistic effect in reducing methane production in a basal diet of sugar cane in which the source of non-protein nitrogen (NPN) is nitrate rather than urea.

Paper 2

All nitrate salts (calcium nitrate, potassium nitrate and sodium nitrate) will reduce methane production compared with urea, but no difference among nitrate salts.

Paper 3

Supplementary sulphur in the synergistic interaction between sulphate and nitrate in lowering methane production in an *in vitro* fermentation of a substrate based on molasses and cassava leaf meal.

Paper 4

Feeding a molasses-based diet that is supplemented with potassium nitrate will support better growth and feed conversion than the same diet supplemented with urea.

Literature review

General metabolic pathways in the rumen

Nutritional components such as carbohydrates, proteins and lipids in feedstuffs are degraded by rumen microorganisms and are converted into microbial cells, with volatile fatty acids (VFAs) and gases as the by-product of the fermentation. Several types of carbohydrates (sugars, starch, pectins, hemi-cellulose and cellulose) are degraded by the microorganisms in the rumen. Also degradation of proteins occurs and a significant proportion of the amino acids are either incorporated in microbial protein or degraded further to VFA and ammonia. Lipids and free long-chain fatty acids are hardly fermented, but to some extent, long chain fatty acids may be incorporated in microbial matter (Harfoot and Hazlewood 1997). Within the diversified microorganism ecosystem of the rumen, substrates are fermented to VFA, CO₂, H₂, NH₃ and microbial matter is synthesized. The purpose of the fermentation is to generate energy for maintenance and energy for synthetic processes of microbial polymers which leads to the synthesis of more microbial cells which in turn increases available protein to the animal.

Most of the substrate energy is retained in the end products of fermentation. According to Bergman (1990), current estimates are that VFA contribute approximately 70% to the caloric requirements of ruminants, such as sheep and cattle. The conserved energy is used mainly in the biosynthesis of cellular constituents (carbohydrate, nitrogenous substances, lipids and nucleic acids) that comprise microbial growth (Hobson and Stewart 1997). Figure 1 shows that the mass of microbial cells produced in the rumen is a function of the amount of ATP generated within the cells by catabolism of feed organic matter (pathway A), and the efficiency of ATP utilization for polymer synthesis (pathway B) (Nolan 1998).

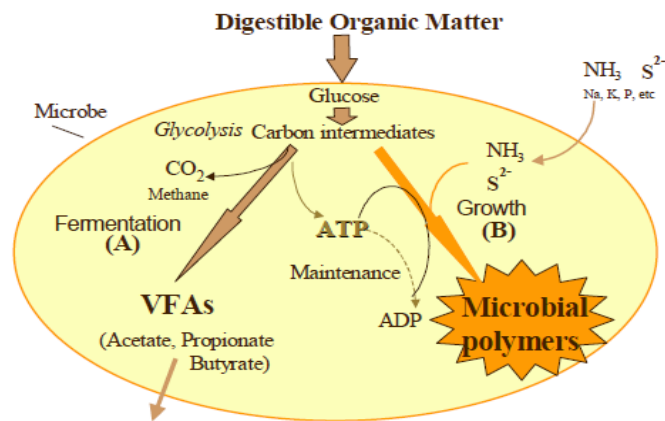


Figure 1. A diagram describing digestion of organic matter in the rumen (Nolan 1998)

The process of methane production in the rumen

The methane is produced through the integrated activities of different microbial species, with the final step carried out by methanogenic bacteria (Moss et al 2000). Methane synthesis is regarded as one such relationship between hydrogen-producing microbes and hydrogen consuming methanogens. Since the hydrogen-producing microbes include fibrolytic fungi and bacteria, their co-association with methanogens allows efficient removal of hydrogen that reduces CO_2 to CH_4 , which facilitates continuous fiber degradation. Therefore, when methane reduction is attempted, it is necessary to consider alternative hydrogen sinks for methanogenesis (Kobayashi 2010).

Volatile fatty acids pattern, hydrogen balance and methane yield

Moss et al (2000) established that CH_4 production can be calculated from the stoichiometry of the main volatile fatty acids (VFA) formed during fermentation: acetate (C_2), propionate (C_3) and butyrate (C_4). VFA are then absorbed and utilized by the host animal. The molar percentage of VFA influences the production of CH_4 . With acetate and butyrate production, H_2 is produced, whereas with propionate and valerate production, H_2 is utilized. It is generally assumed that the excess H_2 is almost completely converted into CH_4 by methanogens. Thus, acetate and butyrate production results in CH_4 production, while propionate formation serves as a competitive pathway for H_2 use in the rumen. With an increased molar proportion of propionate, the molar proportions of acetate and/or butyrate are reduced (Baker 1997). Reduction in CH_4 production can result from a decreased extent of fermentation in the rumen

or from a shift in the VFA pattern towards more propionate and less acetate (Boadi et al 2004).

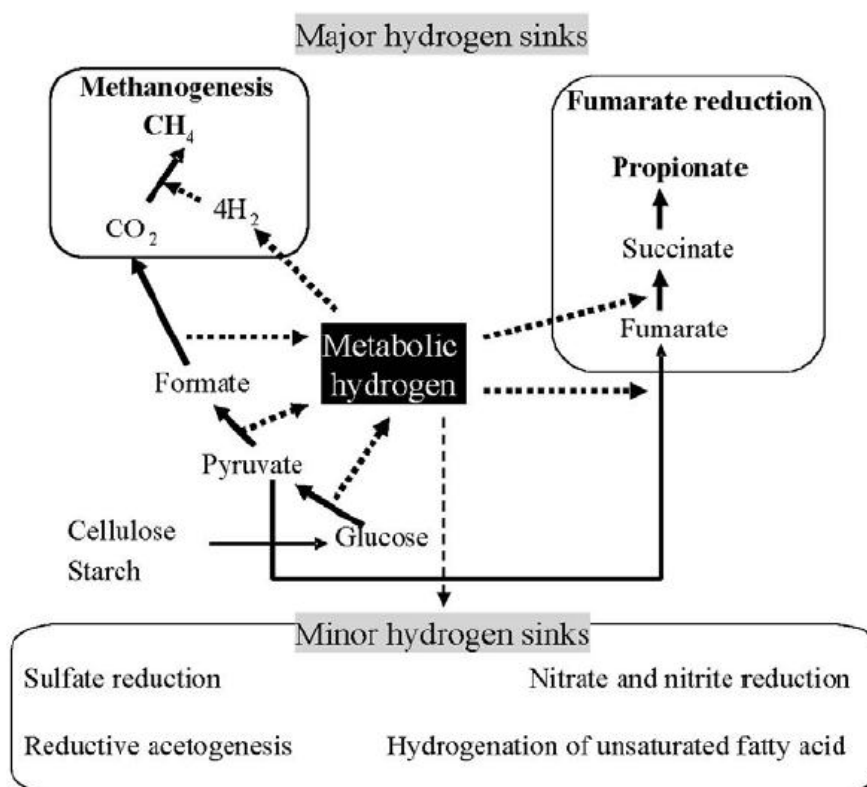


Figure 2. Hydrogen-consuming pathways recognized in the rumen (Source: Kobayashi 2010)

The most important effect on methane yield is dietary characteristics as well as the fermentation conditions in the rumen. According to Tamminga et al (2007), important dietary characteristics are daily feed intake and the resulting rumen fill, the proportion of concentrates in dietary dry matter, and the composition and the rate and extent of degradation of individual feed fractions (the types of carbohydrate and protein) in dietary dry matter. The factors to evaluate the fermentation condition include acidity (pH) of rumen fluid, the presence of unsaturated long chain fatty acids, the composition of the microbial population within the rumen, the dynamics of the passage of particles, fluid and the microbial population, the inflow of saliva and the absorption capacity of the rumen wall.

The type of carbohydrate fermented influences methane production most likely through impacts on ruminal pH and the microbial population. Fermentation of cell wall fiber yields higher acetic:propionic acid ratios and higher methane losses (Moe and Tyrrell 1979). Most *in vivo* studies concluded in general that fiber fermentation increases methanogenesis when

compared to fermentation of soluble carbohydrates (Moe and Tyrrell 1979). Torrent et al. (1994) assumed that non-cell wall carbohydrates should be separated according to their content of sugars and starch, since sugars seemed to be the most methanogenic of the two. Studies by Czerkawski and Breckenridge (1969) with pure carbohydrate sources confirms this assumption. Additionally, as a greater amount of any carbohydrate fraction is fermented per day, whether it is fiber or starch, methane production is decreased.

Requirement of NPN source for cattle

Ammonia is produced in the rumen by metabolism of protein, peptides, amino acids, amides, urea, nitrates and some other non-protein nitrogen (NPN) sources. Dietary proteins are hydrolyzed in the rumen to varying degree depending upon their solubility (Allen and Kirpal 1969). NPN are used by bacteria in the rumen and broken down to ammonia (NH₃) during the normal fermentation process in the rumen. Microorganisms in the rumen combine the ammonia with products of carbohydrate metabolism to form amino acids and hence protein for animal. Thus, the best option for assessing the availability of fermentable N is to measure the level of rumen ammonia in animals given the feed. There is an evidence that efficient utilization of NH₃ for microbial protein synthesis in the rumen occurs at relatively low concentration 5-8 mg NH₃-N/100 mL (Roffler et al 1975). Perdok and Leng (1990), however, suggested that the ammonia level should be at a minimum 100mg N/liter but that levels up to 200mg N/liter were even more efficiently used.

Urea is an important NPN source to form ruminal ammonia; it rapidly broken down into ammonia and carbondioxide by bacteria urease (Pearson and Smith 1943). In addition, urea enters the rumen endogenously via saliva and by diffusion through the rumen wall (Haupt 1959).

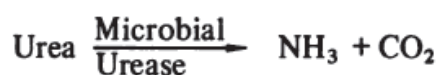


Figure 3. Metabolism of urea by bacteria

However, the efficiency of NH₃ utilization depends on the rumen environment and energy availability (Hungate 1966; Ali et al 2007). The supplementation of urea as NPN for intensive fattening of cattle on molasses-based diets was by Preston (1972). The report of Rush and Totusek (1976) suggested that live weight gain of livestock subsisting on low quality forage was improved with molasses. Yee Tong Wah et al (1981) studied the effect of different urea

levels in molasses on performance of cattle and showed that live weight gains were highest and feed conversion is best on the 2.5% urea level, which was therefore considered to be the optimum level. Kalmbacher et al (1995) measured the performance of mature cows fed creeping bluestem and supplements of either molasses-urea or molasses-cottonseed meal-urea, each containing 30% CP (DM basis). They concluded that the treatment did not affect cow weight loss on range or pregnancy rate but cows supplemented with molasses-urea tended to wean a heavier calf. A molasses-based supplement containing urea was of equal value to one containing a natural protein.

Lewis (1951) first demonstrated reduction of nitrate to ammonia, with nitrite as an intermediate, by rumen microorganisms. Accumulation of the toxic nitrite intermediate was believed due to the relatively rapid conversion of nitrate to nitrite and the slower conversion of nitrite to ammonia. Fewson and Nicholas (1961) have proposed the following scheme for nitrate reduction (Figure 3). The major end products, gaseous nitrogen or ammonia, vary with different microorganisms.

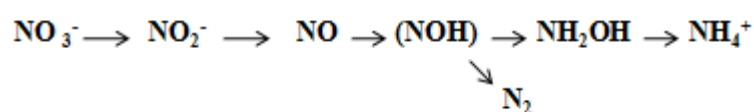


Figure 4. Scheme for nitrate reduction

Readily available carbohydrate, such as glucose, enhances the rate of nitrate reduction to ammonia (Barnett and Bowman 1957; Case 1957) and reduces toxicity of nitrate.

Allison and Reddy (1984) hypothesized that, with NO_3^- as N source, there could be an increase in microbial growth efficiency which might reflect an increase in ATP yield through the functioning of dissimilatory NO_3^- reduction. Thauer et al (1977) reported that nitrate reduction to ammonium is more energetically favorable than HCO_3^- reduction to CH_4 . Thus, the ability of ruminal microorganisms to utilize nitrate as an electron acceptor suggested a potential approach to manipulation of fermentation end products. Satter and Esdale (1968) found acetate served as an electron acceptor and that, through the formation of butyrate, an electron sink was provided for the pair of hydrogen atoms released in lactate oxidation to pyruvate. Nitrate required eight electrons for reduction to ammonia, and could act as an electron sink in place of butyrate formation; acetate production would be increased also

butyrate production. Propionate or methane might also be decreased (Farra and Satter 1971). The potential of nitrate conversion to ammonia is to act as a hydrogen sink in the rumen (Leng 2008) but the major limitations to progress in using nitrate for animal have been the production of methaemoglobinaemia that results from nitrite generated in the rumen.

Leng (2008) indicated that nitrate could be used as a fermentable N source by ruminants provided the rumen ecosystem was allowed to adapt over a sufficiently long period and provided certain nutritional conditions were met. In particular the availability of sulphur appears to be a crucial issue. It was proved by the result of Sophea and Preston (2010) that goats showed no signs of ill-health, even at the highest levels of potassium nitrate (6% of DM basis). There are several experiments *in vitro* and *in vivo* that showed the potential role of nitrate for ruminants. The result of Guo et al (2009) on using nitrate in *in vitro* system showed that nitrate addition diminished methane production and increased microbial nitrogen synthesis compared with urea. Sangkhom et al (2011) concluded that lime can replace NaOH as a means of increasing the fermentability of rice straw and that methane production is decreased with potassium nitrate as NPN source.

In *in vivo* studies where nitrate has replaced urea as a fermentable N source in ruminant diets it has been well demonstrated that energy metabolism is not perturbed and the animals have consumed the same quantity of dry matter and have grown at the same rate (Nguyen Ngoc Anh et al 2010). In high yielding dairy cows fed a maize silage based diet, it was found by calorimetry that replacing 1.5% urea with 2.2% nitrate reduced methane production by 16% and that the effects, following adaptation to nitrate (over 4 weeks), were persistent over a 4 month period (Van Zijderveld et al 2010b).

Requirement of sulphur by cattle

Rumen microorganisms and the host ruminant animal require many macro and micro minerals for normal growth and development. Among these minerals, sulphur is a necessary component of the amino acids cystine and methionine that are building blocks of proteins (Kung et al 1998), some vitamins and several important hormones (NRC 1984). A critical sulphur level in the rumen is 1 µg/ml according to Bray and Till (1975). Lower levels than this are likely to deplete the size of the microbial pool, eventually decreasing digestibility in addition to lowering the protein:energy (P: E) ratio in the nutrients absorbed (Leng 1990). In ruminants, many inorganic forms of sulphur (e.g. potassium sulphate and sodium sulphate)

and some common feeds and minerals that have moderate to high levels of sulphur (e.g. corn gluten meal, molasses) and can be used because sulphate is reduced in the rumen to hydrogen sulfite and hydrogen sulfide by a group of bacteria referred to as the sulphur reducing bacteria (Kung 2008). Some reports showed that sulphate-reducing bacteria (SRB) exist in the rumen and adaptive mechanism increased SRB activity. Cummings et al (1995) did not detect a change in numbers of ruminal sulphate-reducing bacteria as percentages of sulphur in the diet increased. However, after being exposed to high levels of sulphur, ruminal organisms did have a greater capacity to produce sulfide after 10 to 12 days. Oliveira et al (1996) reported that high dietary sulphur resulted in a faster rate of sulphate reduction by ruminal bacteria after several weeks on that diet. Van Zijderveld et al (2010a) showed that enhanced levels of sulphate in diet increased the number of SRB.

Hegarty et al (1994) reported improved dry matter digestion, increased total volatile fatty acids concentration, and more bacteria in the rumen of sheep fed a high versus a low sulphur diet (< 0.25%, dry matter basis). Moderately high percentages of sulphur (8.5g S/kg DM) in the diet have generally had no effects on ruminal volatile fatty acids and ammonia-nitrogen concentrations on sheep (Van Zijderveld et al 2010a). Especially, no clinical signs of polioencephalomalacia (PEM) were observed during this experiment. The effect of extremely high percentages of sulphur (1.3% sulphur in the diet) inhibited microbial protein synthesis in the rumen (Kahlon et al 1975). The explanation for inhibited synthesis is the imbalance of sulphur and nitrogen in diet. The NRC (1984) recommendations on dietary S allowances are based on a perceived optimal N:S ratio for ruminal microbial growth.

The inhibition of methanogenesis owing to the presence of sulphate has been reported for marine and freshwater sediments (Cappenberg et al 1974; Oremland and Taylor 1978) and also for anaerobic digesters (Kroiss and Wabnegg 1983). The inhibition of methanogenesis is interpreted in relation to the levels of sulfide produced by the microbial reduction of sulphate. Speece and Parkin (1983) found that methane production from an unacclimated batch digester was inhibited by a sulfide level as low as 50 mg of S_2^- per liter (1.6 mM). However, with a submerged anaerobic filter, they noticed that sulfide levels up to 400 mg of S_2^- per liter had no significant effect on methane production. At 800 mg of S_2^- per liter methane production was reduced by about 30%. The sulfide produced by the microbial reduction of sulphate is distributed between H_2S , HS^- , and S_2^- in solution and H_2S in biogas (Isac et al 1986).

Interaction of nitrate and sulphur in rumen metabolism

Nitrate may provide a competitive advantage for nitrate-reducing bacteria over sulphate-reducing bacteria during the competition for available electron donors. Londry and Suflita (1999) reported that nitrate amendment controlled the formation of sulphide in oily waste stream. Leng and Preston (2010) suggested that numerous rumen organisms are able to utilize energetically more favourable electron acceptors such as nitrate and sulphate, generating ammonia and hydrogen sulphide respectively. Nitrate-reducing bacteria (NRB) can be categorized according to whether they use organic (hNRB) or inorganic (NR-SOB) electron donors and whether nitrate reduction proceeds via denitrification or dissimilatory nitrate reduction. The NRB appear to effectively compete with SRB for degradable organic electron donors and thus potentially inhibit SRB metabolism (Leng 2008). Thus, in the electron donor competition between NRB and SRB in the anaerobic rumen, NRB always outcompete SRB. Qi et al (1994) reported that ruminal fluid ammonia N tended to decreased quadratically with sulphate supplementation while the bacterial N/S ratio tended to decreased linearly.

Studies with anaerobic ecosystems showed that in the presence of fermentable organic matter and a source of sulphur and nitrate, nitrate reducing organisms developed that can both reduce nitrate to ammonia and oxidize sulphide to sulphate (NRSOB) without release of nitrite. At least one prominent rumen organism has this capacity (*Wollinella succinogenese*) and may be termed an NRSOB (Leng and Preston 2010).

The utilization of feed sources to improve ruminant production rates under tropical conditions

Effect of dietary molasses on performance of ruminants

Molasses is a valuable by-product from the Sugar Industry. The molasses referred to in this article is blackstrap molasses that is the molasses from the production of raw sugar from sugar cane. The feeding value of molasses is based on the fact that it contains approximately 50% sugars in the form of sucrose and invert sugar but only 4% crude protein (Cleasby 1963). An important feature of sugar cane molasses is that it contains 3-7g S/kg DM (Suttle 2010).

Sugar is more rapidly fermented in the rumen than starch (Chamberlain et al 1993). Thus, molasses is considered a source of readily soluble carbohydrate and a major source of dietary energy for ruminants. However, abnormal problem encountered with *ad libitum*

molasses feeding system was a high incidence of molasses toxicity in the feedlot program. Molasses toxicity appears to be precipitated by a low intake of forage in the high-molasses feeding system developed by Preston et al (1967a). Thus, to improve the efficiency of using molasses in the feeding system, the molasses-urea was fed with high protein forages (cassava and sweet potato leaves) (Ffoulkes and Preston 1978). With *ad libitum* feeding of molasses/urea mixtures, there is rarely any risk of urea toxicity since the sugars in molasses and ammonia from urea are quickly used in microbial cell growth (Preston 1986). Therefore carbohydrate available for ruminal fermentation is the key factor for improving the efficiency of ruminal ammonia and the overall dietary nitrogen utilization in ruminants. Sirirat Buphan et al (2011) showed that dietary soluble protein (up to 60% of the crude protein) can be fed to crossbred Thai steers receiving sugar at a level of 12% of the DM had more positive effect on the intake, ruminal fermentation and nutrient digestibility compared with higher levels of soluble protein. Cuong et al (2010) concluded that molasses-based diets (48% on DM basis) with rice straw or pangola hay as a fiber source can support growth rates of finishing cattle better than with the traditional finishing diets.

Utilization of cassava products by ruminants

Cassava (*Manihot esculenta*, Crantz) is a crop of major importance in the tropics. It is grown mainly by smallholder farmers within existing farming systems primarily for the starchy root which is used for human food or as an energy source for non-ruminant or ruminant livestock feed (Khang et al 2005; Khampa et al 2006; Wanapat and Khampa 2007). Cassava can be grown to produce cassava foliage as a by-pass protein feed source (Wanapat 2003; Kiyothong and Wanapat 2004; Khang et al 2005). Wanapat (1995) reported that cassava leaves contain high level of crude protein (25%) some of which can apparently by-pass the rumen since it is in the form of a tannin-protein complex. Tannins, therefore, potentially alter the use and value of tree foliages and may at times be responsible for the poor utilization of such forages by ruminants. Tannins from *Leucaena leucocephala* afford a good level of protection of the protein (Wheeler et al 1995), but tannins from *Lotus pedunculatus* appear to overprotect protein from ryegrass fed to sheep (Waghorn and Shelton 1995) with subsequent increased fecal loss of protein. In general, animal responses to the utilization of cassava foliage as a protein roughage supplement is higher and better responses were obtained when cassava foliage was used as a supplement to molasses-urea based diets (Fernandez et al 1977, Ffoulkes and Preston 1978).

Moore (1976) first demonstrated the feed value of cassava foliage for ruminants in a trial in which steers weighing 250 kg were fed *Pennisetum purpureum* with varying levels of cassava foliage in the diet. Feed intake and growth rate were improved in diets containing cassava foliage supplements compared without cassava foliage in diet. Khang (1999) reported that cassava leaf meal at the rate of 18% of dry matter fed in the diet improved the intake, ruminal NH₃-N, ruminal microflora population and degradability of feeds.

Cassava foliage especially fresh cassava foliage contains cyanogenic glucosides, linamarin and lotaustralin. These are hydrolyzed by the endogenous enzyme linamarase to cyanohydrins after plant tissue damage. Further hydrolysis to HCN is responsible for chronic toxicity (Promkot et al 2011). Varieties of cassava are traditionally designated as "bitter" or "sweet" considered to reflect different levels of cyanogenic glucosides, the precursors of the highly toxic HCN (Chhay Ty et al 2007). Detoxification of cassava leaves may be partially accomplished by heating or boiling to inactivate linamarase and to drive off free hydrogen cyanide. The report of Chhay Ty et al (2007) showed that wilting cassava leaves for up to 48 h reduced HCN content to minimal values, the rate of decrease being more pronounced in the bitter than in the sweet variety. Sangkhom et al (2011a) showed that N solubility was decreased by ensiling and with severity of drying and methane produced per unit of fermented DM in an *in vitro* incubation system was inversely related to N solubility. They concluded that the higher level of cyanide present in fresh cassava leaves could have been responsible for the reduced methane production compared with over-dried leaves. Tham et al (2008) concluded that DM intake, live weight gain and feed conversion were improved with significant linear trends according to the level of supplementation with cassava leaf meal crude protein. Another factor that also contributes to reduce the toxicity of HCN in fresh cassava foliage is the presence of sulphur. Blakley and Coop (1949) found that the metabolism of HCN in rumen fluid was enhanced by the presence of sulphur donors which facilitated the detoxification of HCN by rumen microbes. Recently, Promkot et al (2011) suggested that the utilization of cassava foliage for rumen microorganisms in terms of fermentation and HCN detoxification could be improved by sulphur supplementation of 0.5% of DM.

Conclusion

- There are interactions between nitrate and sulphate as electron acceptors for hydrogen generated by rumen fermentation of carbohydrates. It is not clearly defined under what

dietary conditions there will be a need to provide extra sulphate as well as nitrate in order to ensure maximum reduction in enteric methane.

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Mitigating methane production from ruminants; effect of supplementary sulphate and nitrate on methane production in an *in vitro* incubation using sugar cane stalk and cassava leaf meal as substrate

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Abstract

The aim of this study was to evaluate the effect of replacing urea by calcium nitrate with or without supplementary sulphur (0, 0.4, 0.8% on DM basis) on methane production in an *in vitro* incubation medium inoculated with rumen fluid and using sugar cane stalk and cassava leaf meal as substrate. The design was a 3*2 factorial arrangement of the treatments with 4 replications.

Compared with urea, calcium nitrate reduced methane production. The effect was consistent over successive periods in the 48h incubation. Adding 0.4% sulphur, in the form of sodium sulphate, increased methane production, while 0.8% sulphur reduced methane production. When 0.8% sulphur was combined with nitrate the effects on methane reduction were additive. Methane production increased linearly with the length of the incubation on all treatments

Key words: *Calcium nitrate, climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, urea, substrate*

Introduction

Emissions of greenhouse gases (GHG) from anthropogenic sources (man made) are considered to be the main cause of global warming (IPCC 2007). Livestock production is a major contributor to GHG levels, accounting for about 18% of the anthropogenic GHG emissions (Steinfeld et al 2006). Ruminants produce globally about 80 million tonnes of

methane gas annually which represents some 28% of anthropogenic methane emissions (Leng 2008).

Methane is produced in the fore-stomach of ruminants as a result of microbial fermentation of feed components. In the process of digestion of organic matter reduced cofactors are generated and a requirement for continuous fermentation is that these cofactors are re-oxidised. The oxidation of these reduced cofactors is coupled to high affinity electron acceptors mainly sulphur and nitrate. However if these are in low concentrations or absent, which is the case under normal feeding conditions, carbon dioxide is reduced to methane.

Recently, Leng (2008) has emphasised that nitrate as a feed component replacing urea has a dual role as an electronic sink for hydrogen produced by fermentation, and the ammonia produced is the preferred source of fermentable nitrogen in diets having a low content of crude protein. The dietary conditions which favour utilization of nitrate to lower the production of methane are a source of easily fermentable carbohydrate, a low content of soluble protein, an adequate level of sulphur and a source of bypass protein (Leng 2008). It is thus logical to test whether nitrate can be used to lower enteric methane production and at the same time maintain or promote microbial growth in the rumen. Sugar cane contains 50% of sugars on DM basis and almost no protein. A diet of sugar cane with 3% urea (in DM) and with rice polishing as a bypass protein source has been shown to support growth rates of 800 g/day in fattening cattle (Preston et al 1976). Leng and Preston (2010) have emphasized that the reduction of both nitrate and nitrite could be stimulated by a source of ruminal sulphide produced locally. As most organisms that reduce sulphate are also capable of reducing nitrate or nitrite, the feeding of nitrate and sulphate is likely to have important interactions. Recently, Van Zijderveld et al (2010) demonstrated an added effect on lowering of methane production by feeding a combination of nitrates and sulphate to sheep.

Hypothesis

Supplementary sulphate will have a synergistic effect in reducing methane production in a basal diet of sugar cane in which the source of non-protein nitrogen (NPN) is nitrate rather than urea.

Objectives

To study the effect of sulphate and nitrate on methane production in an *in vitro* system inoculated with rumen fluid using sugar cane as the basal substrate and cassava leaf meal as the source of protein.

Materials and methods

Location and duration

The experiment was conducted in the laboratory of An Giang University from September to November, 2010.

Experimental design

Three levels of sulphur and two sources of NPN were compared in an *in vitro* fermentation system. The design was a 3*2 factorial arrangement with 4 replications. The levels of sulphur (as sodium sulphate) were 0, 0.4 and 0.8% (in DM); the NPN sources were urea (2% in DM) and calcium nitrate (3.8% in DM).

The individual treatments were:

- CaN: Calcium nitrate
- U: Urea
- CaN-0.4S: CaN + 0.4% sulphur as sodium sulphate
- U-0.4S: Urea + 0.4% sulphur as sodium sulphate
- CaN-0.8S: CaN + 0.8% sulphur as sodium sulphate
- U-0.8S: Urea + 0.8% sulphur as sodium sulphate

Material preparation and implementation of the method

Fresh sugar cane stalk was purchased in the market. The outer rind was removed with a knife and the central part (the sugar-rich pith) chopped into small pieces (about 2mm section). Cassava leaves were sun-dried and ground through a 4 mm sieve. These two components (cassava leaf meal and sugar cane stalk) were mixed with the sources of N (urea or nitrate) and sulphate (according to the proportions shown in Table 1). Representative samples of the mixtures (12g DM) were put in the incubation bottle to which were added 960ml of buffer solution (Table 2) and 240ml of rumen fluid obtained from a buffalo, prior to filling each bottle with carbon dioxide. The rumen fluid was taken at 10-11pm in the slaughter-house from a buffalo immediately after the animal was killed. A representative sample of the rumen contents (including feed residues) was put in a vacuum flask and stored until 8-9am the

following morning when the contents were filtered through one layer of cloth before being added to the incubation bottle. The gas space inside the bottle was then flushed with carbon dioxide prior to the incubation at 38°C for 48h. A simple *in vitro* system was used (Photo 1) based on the procedure reported by Sangkhom et al (2011).

Table 1.Ingredients in the substrate (g DM)

	CaN0.4S	U0.4S	CaN0.8S	U0.8S	CaN	U
Sugar cane stalk	8.13	8.55	7.92	8.33	8.34	8.76
Cassava leaf meal	3	3	3	3	3	3
Urea		0.24		0.24		0.24
Ca(NO ₃) ₂ ·4H ₂ O	0.66		0.66		0.66	
Na ₂ SO ₄	0.21	0.21	0.42	0.42		

Table 2. Ingredients of the buffer solution (adapted from Tilly and Terry 1964)

Ingredients	CaCl ₂	NaHPO ₄ ·12H ₂ O	NaCl	KCl	MgSO ₄ ·7H ₂ O	NaHCO ₃	Cysteine
(g/liter)	0.04	9.30	0.47	0.57	0.12	9.80	0.25



Photo 1. The *in vitro* incubation system

Measurements

The gas volume was measured at 8, 24, and 48h by water displacement from the receiving bottle suspended in water which was calibrated at intervals of 50ml. On each occasion, after measuring the volume, the gas was ejected from the receiving bottle through a tube attached to a Crowcom meter (Crowcom Instruments Ltd, UK) fitted with an infra-red sensor to measure methane (Photo 2). Undigested substrate at the end of the incubation after 48h was filtered by cloth and was then dried at 105⁰C for 24h to determine residual DM. The DM and crude protein contents of the substrates were determined according to AOAC (1990) methods.



Photo 2. CH₄ measurement
with Crowcom meter

Statistic analysis

The data were analyzed by the General Linear Model (GLM) option in the ANOVA program of the Minitab Software (version13.2) (Minitab 2000). Sources of variation in the model were: levels of sulphur, NPN source, interaction sulphur*NPN source and error

Results and Discussion

At each stage of the fermentation and overall, gas production, per cent of methane in the gas, was less when nitrate rather than when urea, was the source of NPN (Table 3). Increasing the level of sulphur reduced gas production but the effect on methane production was variable. Methane production increased with sulphur level in samples taken after 8 and 24h. Only the last samples (25-48h) and overall values showed reduction in methane with level of sulphur. There was an interaction between NPN source and level of sulphur, such that when nitrate was the supplementary source of N, the relative reduction in methane with added 0.8% sulphur was greater than when 0.8% sulphur was given with urea as the fermentable N source, indicating suppression of sulphur-reducing bacteria by nitrate.

The substrate DM fermented in 48h incubation was less with nitrate than with urea; and was reduced with added sulphur.

Methane production per unit substrate fermented was lowered by some 30% when nitrate was the NPN source but there was no difference due to added sulphur. On all levels of added sulphur, the nitrate consistently reduced methane production (Figure 1), with the greatest reduction being observed when 0.8% sulphur was added to the substrate.

Table 3. Mean value for gas production, methane percentage in the gas, substrate fermented and methane production per substrate fermented

	NPN source				% added sulphur				P	P(S*NPN)
	CaN	Urea	SEM	P	0S	0.4S	0.8S	SEM		
Gas production, ml										
0-8h	770	817	23.6	0.18	875	700	806	28.9	0.001	0.02
9h-24h	552	817	34.3	0.001	925	575	553	34.3	0.001	0.63
25-48h	321	363	28.5	0.31	450	344	231	34.9	0.001	0.22
Total	1644	1996	54.2	0.001	2250	1619	1590	66.4	0.001	0.09
Methane, %										
0-8h	14.2	17.7	0.43	0.001	14.4	17.3	16.1	0.52	0.001	0.49
9h-24h	19.8	28.6	0.55	0.001	19.6	26.8	26.1	0.68	0.001	0.03
25-48h	25.6	39.6	1.92	0.001	37.4	33.9	26.5	2.36	0.01	0.001
Total methane, ml	313	513	11.7	0.001	474	397	367	14.3	0.001	0.012
Methane, ml/g substrate										
0-8h	8.96	12.0	0.36	0.001	10.4	10.1	10.9	0.44	0.47	0.09
9h-24h	8.80	18.8	0.56	0.001	15.2	13.3	12.9	0.69	0.063	0.12
25-48h	8.28	11.9	0.68	0.001	13.9	9.57	6.83	0.83	0.001	0.11
0-48h	26.0	42.7	0.97	0.001	39.5	33.0	30.6	1.20	0.001	0.072
DM solubilized after 48h, %	44.0	49.4	1.43	0.02	55.8	41.4	42.90	1.75	0.001	0.245
Methane, ml/g DM solubilized										
	60.8	89.7	3.71	0.001	72.6	81	72.2	4.53	0.33	0.151

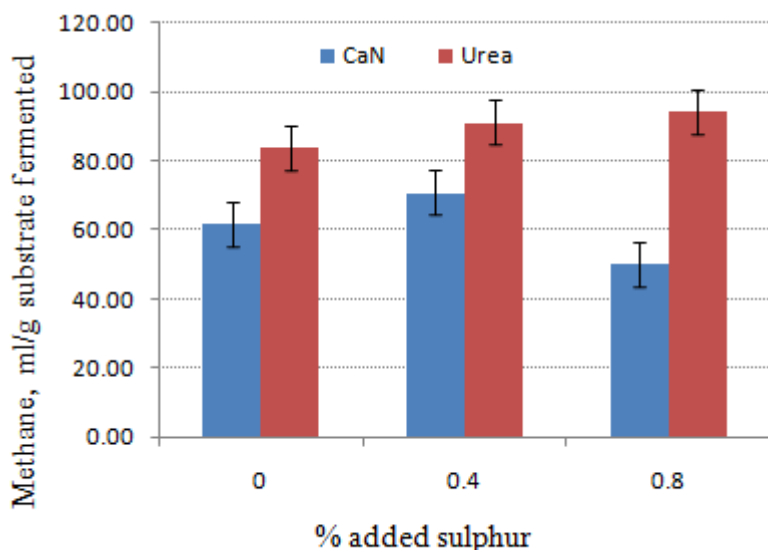


Figure 1. Effect on methane production of replacing urea by calcium nitrate as NPN source in an *in vitro* fermentation of sugar cane stalk and cassava leaf meal with different levels of added sulphur.

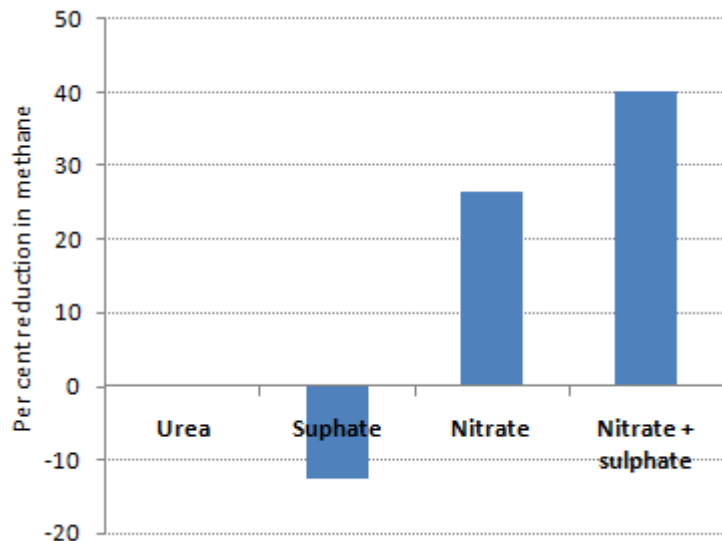


Figure 2. Reduction in methane due to addition of 0.8% sulphur, 3.8% calcium nitrate or 3.8% nitrate plus 0.8% sulphur.

The interaction between nitrate and sulphur is apparent in the incubations when methane production rate was compared on the treatments with zero and 0.8% sulphur with urea or nitrate as NPN source. Sulphur alone appeared to increase methane production whereas in combination with nitrate the lowering in methane production was greater than on nitrate alone (Figure 2). The effects with 0.8% sulphur are similar to those reported by Van Zijderveld et al (2010) and Silivong et al (2011) when 0.8% sulphur and nitrate had additive effects in lowering methane production. A low level of sulphur appears to stimulate fermentation rate as it actually increased methane output indicating that the incubation medium on the 0% sulphur treatment was actually deficient in S. At higher sulphate additions undoubtedly the extra S was reduced through the production of hydrogen sulphide. As the electron acceptors in the medium are used up there will be a swing with time from nitrate conversion to ammonia to sulphate reduction to hydrogen sulphide and when sulphate is exhausted it appears that methane will be generated from reduction of carbon dioxide. These are governed by, and in accord with, the Gibbs free energy change of the reactions.

The curvilinear increase in methane production with duration of incubation (Figures 3 and 4), indicative of the transition to a secondary fermentation of the VFA to methane, supports the findings of Sangkhom et al (2011), who used cassava leaves or mimosa foliage as supplements to cassava root meal, and Outhen et al (2011) who employed fresh or dried cassava leaves with sugar cane stalk, as substrate in a similar *in vitro* system.

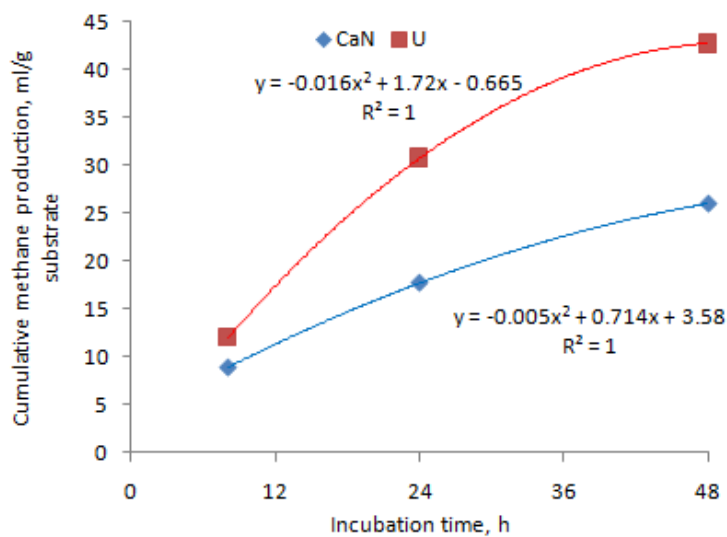


Figure 3. Effect of nitrate vs urea on methane production at intervals during the incubation..

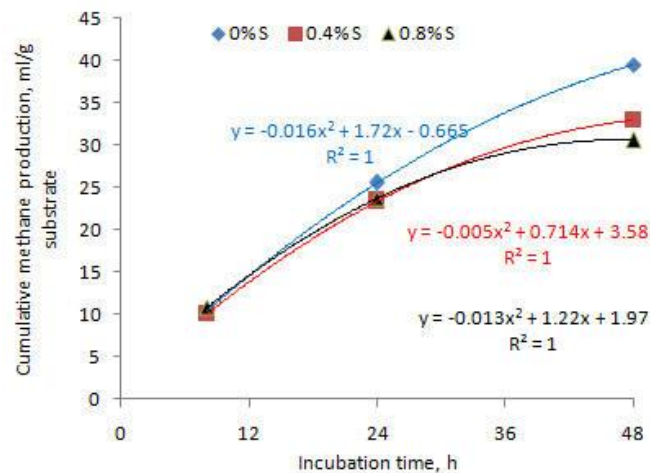


Figure 4. Effect of level of added sulphur on methane production at intervals during the incubation

The lowering of methane production when nitrate replaced urea is in accord with its high affinity for electron capture but following the depletion of nitrate would see the reversion to methane generation by reduction of hydrogen to methane. Moreover, the transition from a primary fermentation to a secondary fermentation where VFA are degraded is more likely to produce relatively higher increments of methane per unit of organic acid degraded. However, with higher sulphur level in treatment 0.8% S, the effect of sulphur in lowering methane production may be more prolonged, while nitrate is depleted. Nitrate is known to inhibit sulphur reducing bacteria (see Hubert and Voordouw 2007). As nitrate is depleted by dissimulatory conversion to ammonia, sulphur reduction will return and hydrogen sulphide production may dilute the methane percentage in the gas (see Bracht and Kung 1997).

Conclusions

- Compared with urea, calcium nitrate reduced methane percentage in the gas produced in an *in vitro* system with sugar cane stalk and cassava leaf meal as substrate. The effect was consistent over successive periods in the 48h incubation.
- Adding 0.4% sulphur, in the form of sodium sulphate, increased methane production indicating S deficiency in the medium; however, at the 0.8% level there appeared to be an additive effect on methane reduction when combined with nitrate.

- Both nitrate compared with urea and increasing level of sulphur decreased rate of gas production and the rate of fermentation of the substrate.
- The methane production increased linearly with the length of the incubation.

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Mitigating methane emissions from ruminants; comparison of three nitrate salts as sources of NPN (and sinks for hydrogen) in an *in vitro* system using molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrates

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Abstract

This study aimed to evaluate the effect of three nitrate salts (calcium nitrate, potassium nitrate and sodium nitrate) compared with urea on methane production in an *in vitro* 24h incubation with molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrate.

Compared to urea treatment, all nitrate salts diminished total gas production, methane percentage in the gas and methane production per unit of substrate. but there were no differences among the three nitrate salts.

Key words: *Calcium nitrate, climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, potassium nitrate, sodium nitrate, urea*

Introduction

It has been established that calcium nitrate acts as an alternative sink for hydrogen in *in vitro* incubations using molasses, sugar cane or cassava root meal as energy substrates and cassava leaf meal as the source of protein (Inthapanya Sangkhom et al 2011; Outhen et al 2011; Binh Phuong et al 2011; Du Thuy Thanh et al 2011). Potassium nitrate was used successfully by Trinh Phuc Hao et al (2009) in feeding trials with goats while sodium nitrate

was studied by Ngoc Huyen et al (2010) with cattle. However, there have been no comparisons of the different nitrate salts in the same experiment.

Calcium nitrate is marketed as Calcinit and contains a small percentage of ammonium ions. Ammonia under warm temperature reacts with sugars in molasses to form a toxic imidazole (Perdok and Leng 1987). In tropical conditions this could be factor in total mixed feeds, so it was decided to confirm that any nitrate salt would have the same effect on methane emissions before comparisons in the whole animal.

The objective of this study was to compare nitrate salts of calcium, sodium and potassium in an *in vitro* incubation using molasses as energy substrate and cassava leaf meal as the protein source. Urea served as the control treatment.

Materials and methods

Location and duration

The *in vitro* experiments were conducted in the laboratory of Nong Lam University, Ho Chi Minh city, Viet Nam, in July, 2011.

Experimental design

The four treatments in a completely randomized design (CRD) were iso-nitrogenous levels of urea and nitrates of calcium, potassium and sodium (Table 1). The substrates were molasses and cassava leaf meal.

Table 1. Individual treatments

Treatment	NPN sources	% N in NPN	% NPN in diet
CaN	$\text{Ca}(\text{NO}_3)_2 \cdot 4\text{H}_2\text{O}$	11.9	7.87
NaN	NaNO_3	16.5	5.67
KN	KNO_3	13.9	6.73
Urea	$(\text{NH}_2)_2\text{CO}$	46.7	2.00

A simple *in vitro* system was used based on the procedure reported by Inthapanya Sangkhom et al (2011).

Material preparation and implementation of the method

Molasses was purchased in the market. Cassava leaves was sun-dried and ground through a 1 mm sieve. The ingredients in the substrate (molasses, cassava leaf meal, source of NPN) were mixed according to the proportions shown in Table 2. Representative samples of the mixtures (12g DM) were put in the incubation bottle to which was added 960ml of buffer solution (Table 4) and 240ml of cattle rumen fluid (taken immediately from a steer that was slaughtered at the local abattoir). The bottles with substrate were then incubated in a water bath at 39 °C for 24h.

Table 2. Ingredients in the different treatments (g)

Treatment	Molasses	Cassava leaf meal	NPN sources			
			Calcium nitrate	Sodium nitrate	Potassium nitrate	Urea
CaN	8.06	3	0.94	-	-	-
NaN	8.32	3	-	0.68	-	-
KN	8.19	3	-	-	0.81	-
Urea	8.76	3	-	-	-	0.24

Table 3. Ingredients of the buffer solution (adapted from Tilly and Terry 1963)

Ingredients	CaCl ₂	NaHPO ₄ .12H ₂ O	NaCl	KCl	MgSO ₄ .7H ₂ O	NaHCO ₃	Cysteine
(g/liter)	0.04	9.30	0.47	0.57	0.12	9.80	0.25

Measurements

The gas volume was measured by water displacement from the receiving bottle suspended in water. The bottle was calibrated at intervals of 50ml. The methane percentage in the gas was measured with a Crowcom meter (Crowcom Instruments Ltd, UK), and expressed as volume of methane per unit substrate.

The DM and crude protein contents of the substrates were determined according to AOAC (1990) methods. The sulphate in molasses was analyzed by Smart3 colorimeter. N solubility was determined by shaking 3g sample with 100ml NaCl 1M for 3 hours, filtering through Whatman No.4 filter paper and determining nitrogen in the filtrate.

Results and discussion

Chemical composition of ingredients in the substrate

Crude protein in the cassava leaf meal was high but very low solubility indicating that cassava leaf meal has potential by-pass protein characteristic. Compared with cassava leaf meal, the crude protein in molasses is low, beside that it contains significant sulphate source. Thus, molasses is easily fermentable substrate for anaerobic incubation and is sulphate source providing for microorganism.

Table 4. Chemical composition of ingredients \in the substrate

	DM,%	CP in DM, %	N solubility, %	Sulphur, g/kg DM
Molasses	57.2	5.77	-	2.53
Cassava leaf meal	88.0	22.6	24.3	-

Gas and methane production

Compared with urea, all the nitrate treatments supported lower gas production (Figure 1). Percentages of methane in the gas were similar for all the nitrate salts, the values being some 25% less than with urea (Table 5; Figure 2). Expressed as volume of methane per unit substrate, the reduction due to the nitrate salts was some 40% (Figure 3). This finding is similar to the report of Ngoc Huyen et al (2010), for sodium nitrate and ammonium nitrate as the sources of fermentable N compared with urea, and Lin et al (2011) who compared sodium nitrate and urea in an *in vitro* experiment.

Table 5. Mean values for total gas production, methane volume, methane percentage and methane production per unit substrate

	CaN	KN	NaN	Urea	SEM	P (nitrate)	SEM	P (NPN sources)
Gas production, ml	1593	1490	1535	1927	31.5	0.12	29.1	<0.001
Methane, ml	237	248	235	394	7.09	0.43	6.78	<0.001
Methane, %	14.9	16.6	15.3	20.4	0.30	0.007	0.27	<0.001
Methane, ml/g substrate	19.8	20.6	19.6	32.8	0.59	0.43	0.57	<0.001

The higher gas production on the urea treatment is partially due to the carbon dioxide liberated from hydrolysis of the urea. One mole of urea produces 1 mole of carbon dioxide which is 22.4 litres of gas thus hydrolysis of 0.24 g of urea accounted for 90ml of the total gas production and would have been produced over a short time after initiation of the incubation. This would account for about 25% of the difference in gas production (about 400 ml) between use of urea compared with the nitrate salts. These results are similar to the

findings of Guo et al (2009), where addition of sodium nitrate in a 24h incubation lead to lower methane production and also less CO₂ production, compared with urea as NPN source.

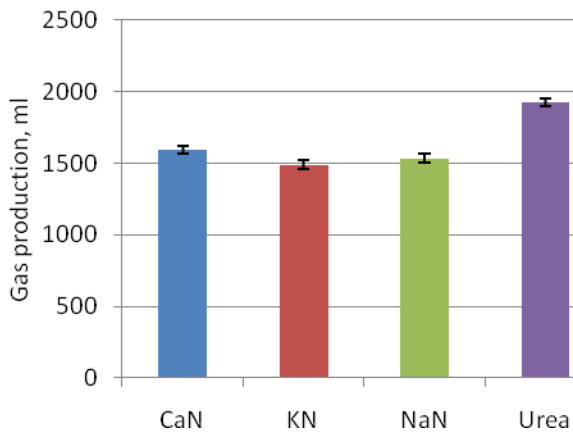


Figure 1. Effect of nitrate sources versus urea on gas production in an *in vitro* system with molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrate.

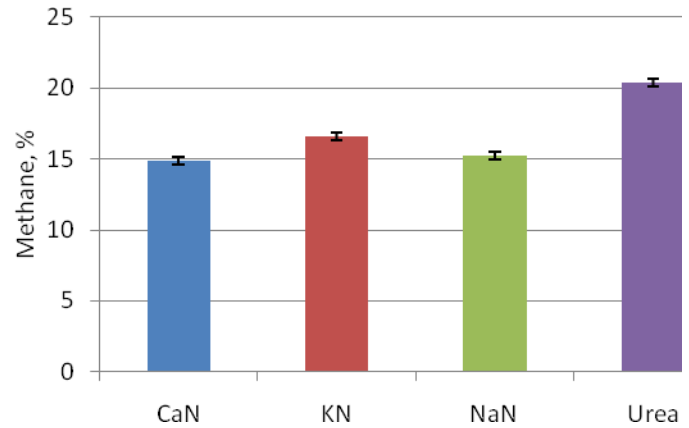


Figure 2. Effect of nitrate sources versus urea on methane percentage in an *in vitro* system with molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrate.

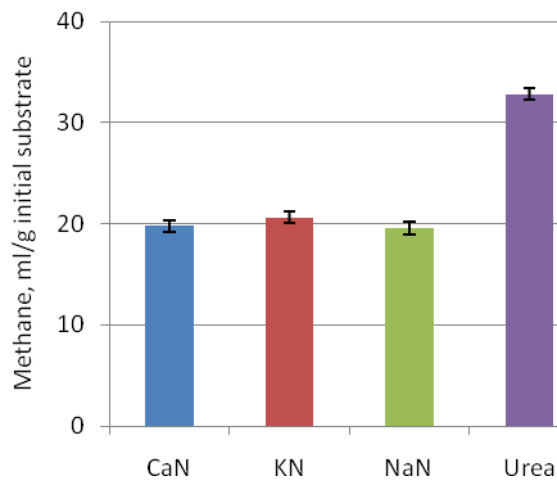


Figure 3. Effect of nitrate sources versus urea on methane production per unit substrate

Conclusions

- Nitrate salts of calcium, potassium and sodium all reduced gas production, methane percentage in the gas and methane production per unit of a substrate composed of

molasses and cassava leaf meal. Thus in the rumen, it is expected that this will be also true unless there are other interactions with either the cations of the different salts and or ammonia (in the case of calcium salts).

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Mitigating methane production from ruminants; effect of supplementary sulphate and nitrate on methane production in an *in vitro* incubation using molasses and cassava leaf meal as substrate

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Abstract

This *in vitro* incubation was arranged as a 2*3 factorial in a completely randomized block design with 6 treatments and 4 repetitions. The first factor was the source of fermentable N (potassium nitrate or urea); the second factor was the level of added sulphur (0, 0.4 and 0.8% of substrate DM, as sodium sulphate). The substrate was molasses and cassava leaf meal. Incubations were carried out on successive days for 6, 12, 18, 24 and 48h. At the end of each incubation, volume of gas and percentage methane were recorded, and the residual substrate filtered to determine the amount of substrate solubilized.

Gas production, percentage methane in the gas and methane production were reduced by replacing urea by nitrate at incubation times from 6 to 48h, and were increased with length of incubation. Added sulphur increased methane emissions in the presence of nitrate over the early incubation periods indicating a greater fermentation rate in that period, but sulphur was additive in decreasing methane in longer incubations, indicating nitrate had been fully reduced and sulphur reduction commenced. The reduction in methane production after 48h of incubation, when sulphur and nitrate were combined, was greater than when nitrate was used alone.

Key words: *climate change, fermentation, gas production, greenhouse gases, potassium nitrate, urea*

Introduction

Livestock are a significant source of global methane (CH₄) emissions, producing some 80 million tonnes annually which represents about 28% of anthropogenic methane emissions

(Steinfeld et al 2006). Enteric methane from ruminant livestock is also an energy cost reducing available feed energy. Blaxter and Clapperton (1965) indicated that 8-12% of the gross feed energy was lost in the form of methane resulting from the ruminant digestion process.

In the absence of hydrogen sinks other than carbon dioxide in the rumen, methane production is indispensable as it maintains molecular hydrogen levels low at the sites in the biofilm (MacAllister et al 1994) close to hydrolytic breakdown of polymers, such as cellulose and other structural carbohydrates, and fermentative degradation of the solubilized organic matter to VFA. This process is a critical requirement for continuous fermentation because of the low partial pressure of hydrogen that is required to re-oxidise reduced cofactors produced in the pathways of metabolism (Cheng et al 1980).

Leng (2008) suggested it was more energetically favourable to use nitrate and sulphate as potential high affinity electron acceptors, competing with carbon dioxide for hydrogen and thus maintaining the availability of oxidized cofactors generated in fermentative degradation of carbohydrates, while at the same time lowering methane production. The products of nitrate and sulphate reduction are then ammonia and sulphide, respectively.

There are several potential benefits from using nitrate as an alternative electron acceptor in the diets of ruminants. These include potentially higher microbial growth efficiency as ATP is generated in the reduction of nitrate to ammonia and the nitrate can substitute fermentable N (e.g. urea) in a low protein diet. The conditions which appear to favor the use of nitrate as a fermentable N source, that also mitigates methane production, are a source of readily fermentable carbohydrate, an adequate level of sulphur, and a protein supplement low in content of soluble protein and high in “bypass” protein (Leng 2008). A source of supplementary sulphur may have an important interaction as sulphide availability in the rumen may be a critical issue in conversion of nitrate to ammonia without releasing nitrite into the medium (Leng and Preston 2010).

Molasses contains approximately 50% of sugars (Cleasby 1963) and may have 3-7g sulphur/kg dry matter (Suttle 2010), depending on the process used for clarification of the sugar-rich juice before centrifugation of the sugar. It is therefore convenient to use molasses as the source of sulphur and fermentable carbohydrate.

Cassava forage has been shown to be a good source of bypass protein in diets based on molasses-urea (Ffoulkes and Preston 1978). Keo Sath et al (2008) and Tham et al (2008) reported that cassava leaf meal improved growth performance and feed conversion in cattle diets based on urea-supplemented rice straw. However, the presence of cyanogenic glucosides in cassava leaves may increase the requirement for sulphur to detoxify the cyanide produced in the rumen. Blakeley and Coop (1949) concluded that approximately 1.2g of sulphur was required to detoxify 1.0g of HCN. Wheeler et al (1975) showed that the supply of sulphur licks to ruminants effectively protected them against chronic cyanide toxicity.

The research reported here examines the role of supplementary sulphur in the synergistic interaction between sulphate and nitrate in lowering methane production in an *in vitro* fermentation of a substrate based on molasses and cassava leaf meal.

Materials and methods

Location and duration

The experiment was conducted in the laboratory of Nong Lam University, Ho Chi Minh city, Viet Nam, from July to August, 2011.

Experimental design

The experiment was arranged as a 2*3 factorial in completely randomized block design (CRBD) with 6 treatments and 4 repetitions (Table 1). The first factor was the source of fermentable N (potassium nitrate [6% of substrate DM] or urea [1.8% of substrate DM]); the second factor was the level of added sulphur (0, 0.4 and 0.8% of diet DM, as sodium sulphate). The substrates were molasses and cassava leaf meal.

Table 1. Individual treatments (as % of substrate DM)

Treatment	NPN levels	Sulphur levels
KN0S	6.0	0
U0S	1.8	0
KN0.4S	6.0	0.4%
U0.4S	1.8	0.4%
KN0.8S	6.0	0.8%
U0.8S	1.8	0.8%

The experiment was conducted using 24 incubation flasks every day (equivalent to 6 treatments and 4 repetitions) for 5 days corresponding to the lengths of each incubation, which were for 6, 12, 18, 24 and 48h. The *in vitro* procedure was that described by Sangkhom Inthapanya et al (2011).

Table 2. Plan of the incubations

Day	Number of flasks	Length of incubation, h
1	24	6
2	24	12
3	24	18
4	24	24
5	24	48

Material preparation and implementation of the method

Molasses was purchased in the market. Cassava leaves (from cassava plants managed for foliage production) were sun-dried and ground through a 1 mm sieve. The ingredients in the substrate (molasses, cassava leaf meal, source of NPN) were mixed according to the proportions shown in Table 3. Representative samples of the mixtures (12g DM) were put in the incubation bottle to which was added 960ml of buffer solution (Tilly and Terry 1963) and 240ml of cattle rumen fluid. The rumen fluid was taken immediately from a steer that was slaughtered at the local abattoir, and held in a thermos flask for about 1hr until placed in the incubation bottles. The bottles with substrate were then incubated in a water bath at 39 °C for the different lengths of incubation (6, 12, 18, 24 and 48h).

Table 3 . Ingredients in the treatments (g DM)

	KN	U	KN-0.4S	U-0.4S	KN-0.8S	U-0.8S
Molasses	8.28	8.784	8.06	8.57	7.85	8.35
Cassava leaf meal	3	3	3	3	3	3
Urea	0	0.22	0	0.22	0	0.22
KNO3	0.72	0	0.72	0	0.72	0
Na ₂ SO ₄	0	0	0.21	0.21	0.42	0.42

Measurements

The gas volume was measured by water displacement from the receiving bottle suspended in water which was calibrated at intervals of 50ml. Methane percentage was measured by

Crowcom meter (Crowcom Instruments Ltd, UK). At the end of each incubation period, residual substrate was filtered through 2 layers of cloth and absorbent cotton, followed by drying of the residue at 100°C for 48h to determine the DM residue.

The DM and N in the molasses and cassava leaf meal, and in the residue after incubation, were determined according to AOAC (1990) methods. The sulphate in molasses was measured with a " Smart 3" colorimeter. N solubility was determined by shaking 3g sample with 100ml 1M NaCl for 3 hours, filtering through Whatman No.4 filter paper and determining nitrogen in the filtrate.

Statistic analysis

The data were analyzed by the General Linear Model (GLM) option in the ANOVA program of the Minitab Softwar (Minitab 2000). Sources of variation in the model were: levels of sulphur, NPN source, interaction sulphur*NPN source and error

Results and Discussion

Chemical composition of ingredients in the substrate

Crude protein in the cassava leaf meal was high but of very low solubility indicating that cassava leaf meal has potential bypass protein characteristics (Table 4). At the levels used, molasses contributed an additional 0.18% sulphur to the substrates.

Table 4. Chemical composition of ingredients \in the substrate

	DM,%	CP in DM, %	N solubility, %	Sulphur, g/kg DM
Molasses	57.2	5.77	-	2.53
Cassava leaf meal	88.0	22.6	24.3	-

In all incubations, gas production, percentage methane in the gas and methane production, were: (i) reduced by replacing urea by nitrate at incubation times from 6 to 48h; and (ii) were increased with length of incubation (Table 5). There were no effects of added sulphur (Figures 1 and 2) with incubation times of 6 and 12h but for incubations of 18, 24 and 48h, methane was reduced by both levels of added sulphur where urea provided the fermentable N source In the presence of nitrate sulphur appeared to increase methane production over the short incubation period possibly indicating an increased fermentation of the substrate but in the longer incubation periods reversed this effect indicating that sulphur reduction increased

with time, possibly through depletion of the energetically more favourable nitrate reduction. The lowering in methane production after 48h of incubation, when sulphur and nitrate were combined, was greater than when nitrate was used alone (Figure 3). These results are similar to our earlier report (Binh Phuong et al 2011) when added sulphur had no effect on methane production over 8h of fermentation, but decreased methane when the incubation was for 48h, with more pronounced effects when nitrate was the NPN source. After 48 hr incubation all the soluble sugar from the added molasses was obviously utilized and the overall effect of nitrate vs urea, and their interactions can be calculated according to the amount of total dry matter included in the flasks that was solubilized (this was not done for the earlier incubations since soluble sugars could lead to error). These results clearly indicate the lowered methane production per g of digestible carbohydrate (Figure 3) owing to nitrate and sulphate additions, relative to urea.

Table 5. Mean value for gas production, methane production, substrate fermented and methane production per unit substrate fermented for lengths of incubation of 6, 12, 18, 24 and 48h

	K-nitrate	Urea	SE	P (NPN)	0S	0.4S	0.8S	SEM	P (sulphur)	P (NPN*S)
6h										
Gas production, ml	852	960	14.8	<0.001	970	874	874	18.2	0.002	0.10
Methane, ml	101	134	3.84	<0.001	129	104	119	4.70	<0.001	0.01
Methane, %	11.8	13.8	0.25	<0.001	13.1	11.9	13.5	0.31	0.004	0.009
Methane, ml/g substrate	17.3	21.1	0.73	<0.001	20.5	17.0	20.1	0.89	0.02	0.01
12h										
Gas production, ml	1204	1457	20.6	<0.001	1280	1366	1345	25.2	0.06	0.05
Methane, ml	156	272	4.38	<0.001	200	219	222	5.36	0.02	0.15
Methane, %	12.9	18.7	0.24	<0.001	15.3	15.7	16.4	0.30	0.04	0.68
Methane, ml/g substrate	23.2	36.9	0.63	<0.001	27.3	30.9	32.1	0.77	0.001	0.08
18h										
Gas production, ml	1879	2077	17.6	<0.001	2048	1954	1933	21.58	0.003	0.06
Methane, ml	277	466	8.15	<0.001	398	364	352.	9.98	0.01	0.56
Methane, %	14.7	22.4	0.37	<0.001	19.2	18.5	17.9	0.46	0.21	0.70
methane, ml/g substrate	38.7	61.4	1.33	<0.001	52.5	48.3	49.4	1.63	0.18	0.22
24h										
Gas production, ml	1796	2074	21.3	<0.001	2023	1905	1878	26.1	0.002	0.53
Methane, ml	381	505	4.40	<0.001	479.84	429.45	420	5.39	<0.001	0.78
Methane, %	21.2	24.4	0.20	<0.001	23.7	22.4	22.2	0.24	0.001	0.90
Methane,, ml/g substrate	52.9	65.5	0.98	<0.001	60.9	57.6	59.1	1.20	0.18	0.34
48h										
Gas production, ml	1889	2219	27.4	<0.001	2217	1987	1957	33.5	<0.001	0.40
Methane, ml	411	572	5.67	<0.001	554	470	448	6.94	<0.001	0.05
Methane, %	21.7	25.7	0.19	<0.001	24.9	23.4	22.7	0.23	<0.001	0.02
methane, ml/g substrate	50.5	65.9	0.96	<0.001	64.6	55.6	54.6	1.17	<0.001	0.02
DM solubilized, %	73.5	74.8	0.61	0.145	74.3	74.4	73.7	0.74	0.76	0.34

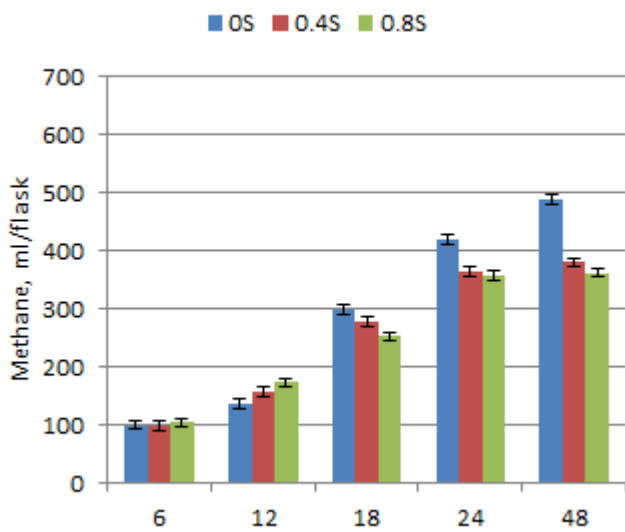


Figure 1. Effect of added sulphur on methane production for different lengths of incubation and substrates with potassium nitrate as NPN source

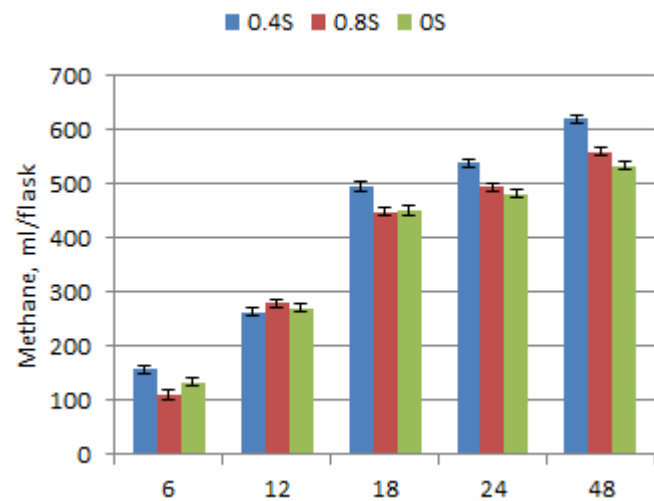


Figure 2. Effect of added sulphur on methane production for different lengths of incubation and substrates with urea as NPN source

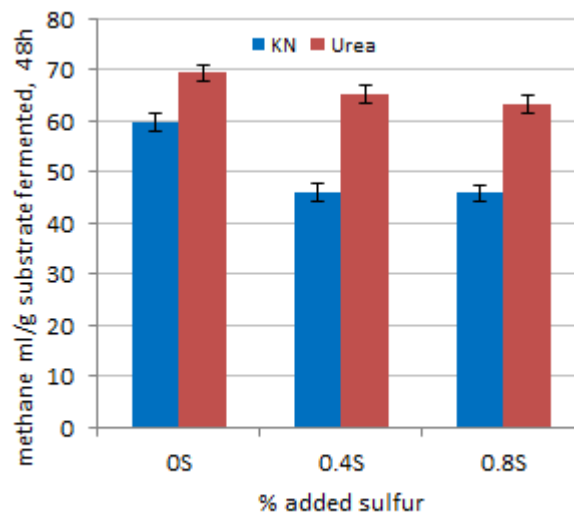


Figure 3. Effect of added sulphur on methane production in the presence of urea or sulphate after 48h incubation

The results of these studies indicate that nitrate-reducing organisms (NRB) are present in the rumen of cattle un-adapted to nitrate, as methane emissions were decreased with nitrate addition compared to that when urea was added. Apparently nitrate reduction takes precedence over sulphur reduction but the apparent effect of added sulphur in the late stage of the fermentation possibly indicates that nitrate N had been fully converted to ammonia and

then sulphur reduction commences indicating the presence of sulphur-reducing bacteria (SRB) in the medium. The lowering of methane production is consistent with higher affinity for hydrogen (or greater Gibbs Free energy change) from reduction of nitrate and sulphur in the rumen as compared to reduction of carbon dioxide. The Gibbs Free energy change of the reduction is greater for nitrate than sulphate which is greater than for carbon dioxide. SRB activity is likely to reflect both sulphur and nitrate reduction as these organisms have a wide range of substrates that they can use in their energy metabolism (Moura et al 2007).

The stoichiometry of nitrate reduction to ammonia indicates that the reduction of 1 mole of nitrate results in the lowering of methane production by 1 mole. From the lowering of methane release measured it appears that the efficiency of nitrate reduction approaches 100% after 12-18h incubation period and then sulphide reduction over the next 30hours contributes further lowering methane production by about 10% over the next 12h.

Conclusions

- Potassium nitrate reduced methane production compared with urea. This effect of nitrate was consistent over all incubations times from 6 to 48h.
- Increasing supplementary level of sulphur did not affect methane production in the primary fermentation (12h).
- From 18 through 48h incubation, supplementary sulphur reduced methane production but there was no difference between 0.4 and 0.8 % added sulphur.
- The reduction in methane production from combined nitrate and sulphur was greater than from nitrate alone.

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Effect of NPN source, level of added sulphur and source of cassava leaves on growth performance and methane emissions in cattle fed a basal diet of molasses

Le Thuy Binh Phuong

Abstract

The objective of this study was to determine the effect of potassium nitrate versus urea, and of supplementary sulphur, on growth performance of cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage. The experiment was designed as a 2*2*3 factorial with 4 replications. The factors were source of NPN (potassium nitrate: 6 % of diet DM basis or urea: 1.8 % of diet DM basis), level of added sulphur (0 or 0.8% S) and source of cassava foliage (fresh foliage or dried leaf meal).

DM intake was not affected by NPN source, but was depressed by adding 0.8% sulphur and was lower for the treatment with fresh cassava foliage compared with leaf meal. After correcting the data by covariance for differences in initial live weight, growth rate was depressed by adding 0.8% sulphur to the diet but was not affected by source of NPN or source of cassava foliage. The ratio of methane to carbon dioxide was reduced by feeding potassium nitrate rather than urea and by fresh cassava foliage compared with cassava leaf meal.

Key words: *Feed conversion, foliage, leaf meal, potassium nitrate, urea*

Introduction

Earlier studies in my laboratory showed that nitrate salts, replacing urea as the NPN source, and supplementary sulphur as sodium sulphate reduced methane production in an *in vitro* incubation with molasses and cassava leaf meal as the substrate (Papers 2 and 3).

The objective of the following experiment was to determine if these dietary modifications would result in improved performance of growing cattle fed a basal diet of molasses and cassava foliage, since it is known that enteric methane production results in 8-12% loss of the gross feed energy resulting from the ruminant digestion process (Blaxter and Clapperton 1965).

Materials and methods

Location and duration

The experiment was conducted at the cattle research station in Binh Duong province, Viet Nam, from November 2011 to January 2012.

Experimental design

The experiment was designed as a 2*2*2 factorial with 2 replications using a total of 16 growing crossbred cattle.

The factors were:

Source of NPN:

- Potassium nitrate (6% of diet DM basis) or urea (1.8% of diet DM basis)

Level of added sulphur:

- 0 or 0.8% S

Source of cassava foliage:

- Fresh foliage or dried leaf meal

Basal diet

Molasses derived from sugar cane was fed *ad libitum*. Fresh native grass was fed at 2 kg/day. Cassava foliage (fresh or as leaf meal) was supplied at 1% of LW (DM basis).

Animals

Sixteen growing Laisind (Red Sindhi*local “Yellow” breed) with initial live weight of 187-234kg were tethered separately in a concrete-floor building. They had individual access to feed troughs containing the molasses and the forage. Water and salt were always available. The cattle were vaccinated against foot and mouth disease and were de-wormed before starting the experiment.

Feeding system

The additives (potassium nitrate, urea and sodium sulphate) were dissolved in the molasses. The grass was harvested in the morning and chopped by machine prior to feeding it at 15.30. Fresh cassava foliage was also harvested in the morning, from plants of 4 to 5 months

maturity, and was offered in the fresh state at 07.15. Cassava leaf meal, purchased from a local feed company, was given at the same time.

Prior to starting the experiment, the cattle were adapted gradually over a 2-week period to the NPN source and the sodium sulphate. Fresh molasses was offered 3 times every day (07.15, 11.00 and 15.30). The prescribed quantities of fermentable N sources (urea, nitrate) and the sodium sulphate were dissolved in the molasses offered at 07.15 and 11.00). Before each morning feeding, the feed residues were removed from the troughs and weighed to determine feed intake.

Data collection and measurements

The cattle were weighed every 14 days using an electronic balance. Feed samples were collected every two weeks for DM and N analysis. Live weight gain was calculated from the linear regression of weight (Y) on days of experiment (X).

Chemical analysis

The DM and N contents of the feeds were analyzed according to AOAC (1990). Samples of eructed gas were collected and analyzed by GASMET infra-red analyser (Gasmeter Company, Finland) for methane and carbon dioxide using the method described by Phonevilay Silivong et al (2011).

Statistical analysis

The data were analyzed by the General Linear Model option in the ANOVA program of Minitab (2000). Sources of variation were: NPN source, Level of sulphur, Source of cassava foliage, interaction NPN*sulphur level and error.

Results and discussion

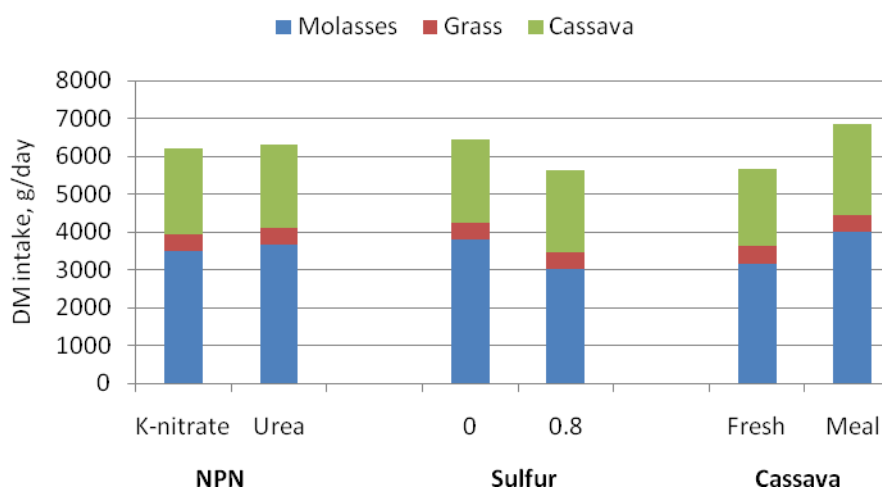
As expected the crude protein content of the leaf meal was slightly higher than in the fresh foliage (Table 1).

Table 1. Composition of dietary ingredient

	DM %	Crude protein, % in DM	Sulphur, g/kg DM
Molasses	62	1.28	2.53
Cassava leaf meal	86.3	24.1	
Cassava foliage#			
Stem	23.8	9.50	
Leaves	30.7	28.1	
Grass	20.9	8.93	

#Ratio on fresh basis was 60.2% leaf and 39.8% stem; calculated average % crude protein in DM of foliage was 21.8%

Molasses represented 53-57% of the DM intake (Figure 1) with cassava foliage providing 34%.

**Figure 1.** DM intakes of dietary components (excluding NPN sources and sulphate)

DM intake was not affected by NPN source, but was depressed by adding 0.8% sulphur and was lower for the treatment with fresh cassava foliage compared with leaf meal (Table 2).

Growth rates of the cattle were uniform throughout the experiment (Figure 2). There were differences in initial live weight between NPN sources and source of cassava foliage. After correcting the data by covariance for differences in initial live weight: (i) adding 0.8% sulphur

to the diet reduced the final weight and the live weight gain (Figure 3); and (ii) sources of NPN and cassava foliage had no effect on final live weight or live weight gain. DM feed conversion was poorer when 0.8% sulphur was added to the diet but was not affected by source of NPN or source of cassava foliage.

Table 2. Mean values for changes in live weight, DM intake and DM feed conversion for cattle fed molasses supplemented with fresh cassava foliage or cassava leaf meal, with NPN from K-nitrate or urea and with or without added sulphur

	NPN			Added sulphur, %			Cassava leaves			SEM
	KN	Urea	P	0	0.8	P	Fresh	Meal	P	
Live weight, kg										
Initial	214	208		211	210		196.1	225.4		2.70
Final	246	239	0.20	245	239	0.29	226	259	0.001	3.50
Final#	242	243	0.91	245	240	0.051	243	242	0.78	1.58
Daily gain, g	420	409		448	381		384	444		17.0
Daily gain, g#	413	416	0.92	447	382	0.013	419	409	0.86	20
DMI, g	6591	6416	0.48	6724	6283	0.09	5877	7130	0.001	168
DM FCR	15.8	15.8	0.90	15.1	16.5	0.015	15.4	16.2	0.176	0.35

Corrected by covariance for differences in initial live weight

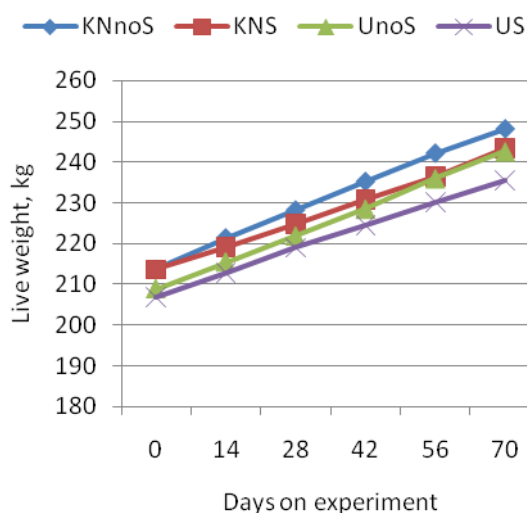


Figure 2. Growth curves of the cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage and supplemented with potassium nitrate or urea and zero or 0.8% added sulphur

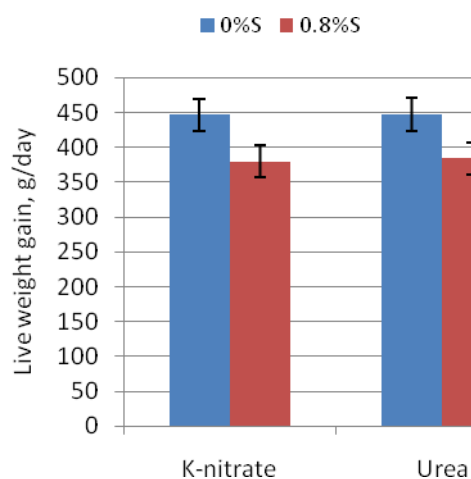


Figure 3. Effect of added sulphur and source of NPN on live weight gain of cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage

The ratio of methane to carbon dioxide ratios was reduced by feeding potassium nitrate rather than urea and by fresh cassava foliage compared with cassava leaf meal (Table 3; Figure 4).

Table 3. Mean values for methane to carbon dioxide in eructed gas from cattle fed molasses supplemented with fresh cassava foliage or cassava leaf meal, with NPN from K-nitrate or urea and with or without added sulphur

CH ₄ /CO ₂	Added									
	NPN		sulphur, %				Cassava			
	KN	Urea	P	0	0.8	P	Fresh Foliage	Leaf meal	P	SEM
	0.0295	0.0353	0.002	0.032	0.0324	0.97	0.0302	0.0347	0.016	0.0013

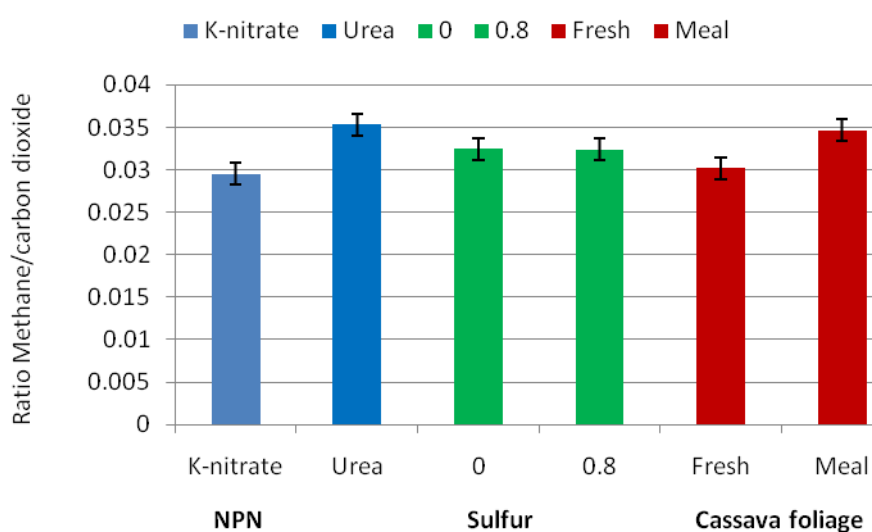


Figure 4. Effect of NPN source, level of sulphur and source of cassava foliage on the ratio of methane to carbon dioxide in eructed gas from cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage.

It appeared that the effect of nitrate in reducing methane production was greater when 0.8% sulphur was added to the diet (Figure 5).

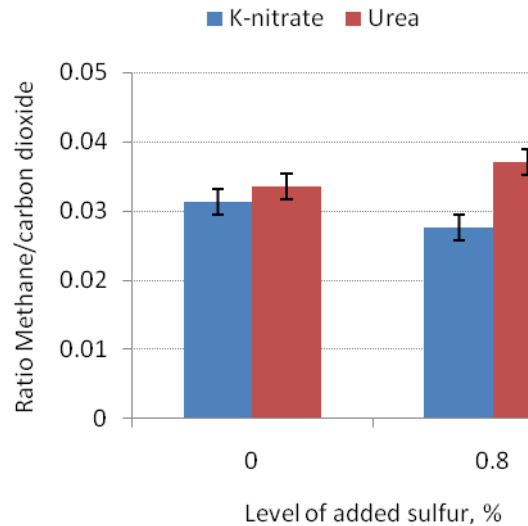


Figure 5. Effect of NPN source and level of sulphur on the ratio of methane to carbon dioxide in eructed gas from cattle fed molasses and cassava foliage

There are many reports showing reductions in methane production when nitrate salts replace urea in *in vitro* incubations with a range of substrates (Binh Phuong et al 2011; Du Thuy Thanh et al 2011; Inthapanya et al 2011). Reports from *in vivo* experiments show similar responses in cattle (Van Zijderveld et al 2010), in goats (Nguyen Ngoc Anh et al 2010) and in sheep (Nolan et al 2010).

However, the hypothesis that the reduction in methane would be accompanied by better animal performance was not proven in the present study, nor was such an effect observed in the reported experiments in the literature research (eg: Van Zijderveld et al 2010; Nguyen Ngoc Anh et al 2010; Nolan et al 2010).

Conclusions

- The ratio of methane to carbon dioxide ratios was reduced by feeding potassium nitrate rather than urea and by fresh cassava foliage compared with cassava leaf meal.
- Live weight gain was not affected by replacing urea with potassium nitrate as NPN source, nor by the source of cassava foliage.
- Adding 0.8% sulphur to the diet reduced the live weight gain and resulted in poorer feed conversion.

Overall conclusions

- Compared with urea, nitrate reduced methane production and gas production in all *in vitro* incubations but there were no differences among the three nitrate salts (potassium nitrate, calcium nitrate and sodium nitrate). This effect of nitrate on reducing methane was consistent over successive periods in the 48h incubation.
- The methane production increased linearly with the time of the incubation. It indicated that an *in vitro* incubation should be stopped after primary fermentation (12h-24h) to match the fermentation to the natural ecology of rumen.
- In the combination of sulphate and nitrate, the lowering in methane production was greater than on nitrate or sulphur alone. However, the presence of molasses as readily soluble carbohydrate, increasing supplementary level of sulphur, did not affect methane production in the primary fermentation (12h).
- In cattle, the ratio of methane to carbon dioxide ratios was reduced by feeding potassium nitrate rather than urea and by fresh cassava foliage compared with cassava leaf meal. However, feeding nitrate rather than urea, and fresh rather than dried (leaf meal) cassava foliage, did not affect live weight gain. Adding 0.8% sulphur to the diet reduced the live weight gain and resulted in poorer feed conversion.

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