

**EFFECTS OF FEEDING BRACHIARIA-BASED DIETS SUPPLEMENTED
WITH DESMODIUM AND DAIRY CUBES ON CATTLE MANURE GREENHOUSE
GAS EMISSIONS**

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**A Thesis Submitted to the Graduate School in Partial Fulfilment of the
Requirements for the Master of Science Degree in Animal Nutrition of Egerton University**

EGERTON UNIVERSITY

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DECLARATION AND RECOMMENDATION

Declaration

This thesis is my original work and has not been presented in this or any other University for the award of a degree.

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Recommendation

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DEDICATION

This work is dedicated to my beloved parents, brothers, and sisters for their support and prayers.

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ABSTRACT

The study evaluated the effect of protein concentrate (dairy cubes) and leguminous forage containing condensed tannins (*Desmodium intortum*) on diet digestibility and their impacts on manure greenhouse gas emissions. Leguminous forages containing condensed tannins (CT) have the potential to reduce manure nitrous oxide (N₂O) and methane (CH₄) emissions and improve diet digestibility and utilization. The objectives of the study were to determine the effects of two protein supplements on (1) the nutritional value and digestibility of diets, (2) manure characteristics, and (3) manure greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Twelve lactating crossbred cows were fed three dietary treatments: diet 1 (D₁) control (Brachiaria only), diet 2 (D₂) Brachiaria + dairy cubes, and diet 3 (D₃) Brachiaria + Desmodium in a completely randomized design with four cows per diet. Total feces and urine from individual cows per diet (n=4) were collected. The manure was incubated in glass jars at 20 °C for 84 days, and CH₄, N₂O, and CO₂ emissions were measured. Objective one involved proximate analysis, i.e. dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), fibre analysis, and *in-vitro* degradability of dietary treatments. Objectives two and three involved analysis of manure samples taken at days 0, 7, 14, 28, 56, and 84 of incubation for water content, total carbon (TC), total nitrogen (TN), fibre, and CT and gas samples for GHG emissions. From the findings, apparent N digestibility differed significantly between dairy cube and desmodium supplemented diets (67.9 ± 2.59 % vs 55.3 ± 2.63 %). Excreted N was higher in excreta from cows receiving N supplementation (dairy cubes and Desmodium) than control diet, both for fecal N (61.2 ± 2.62 and 62.5 ± 2.55 vs 42.7 ± 1.90 g N day⁻¹), and urine N (66.9 ± 4.38 and 34.1 ± 0.93 vs 35.9 ± 0.87 g N day⁻¹). Condensed tannins were higher in feces excreted by cows fed Desmodium supplemented diet than dairy cube supplemented diet (0.82 ± 0.07 vs 0.09 ± 0.06 % DM). Manure cumulative GHG emissions were similar across the diets. However, due to variations between experimental animals, diet effects on manure GHG emissions were not conclusive. From this study, diet composition influenced manure composition. Desmodium is recommended as an alternative protein supplement to expensive concentrates, but harvesting time should be considered for higher nutritional value and animal productivity.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADF	Acid detergent fibre
ADL	Acid detergent lignin
ANOVA	Analysis of variance
C	Carbon
CH ₄	Methane
CP	Crude protein
CT	Condensed tannins
DM	Dry matter
ECD	Electron capture detector
FID	Flame ionization detector
GHG	Greenhouse gas
N	Nitrogen
N ₂	Dinitrogen gas
N ₂ O	Nitrous oxide
NDF	Neutral detergent fibre
NH ₃	Ammonia
NH ₄ ⁺	Ammonium
NO	Nitric oxide
NO ₃ ⁻	Nitrate
OM	Organic matter
TT	Total tannins

CHAPTER ONE

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background Information

Livestock farming is one of the fastest-growing agricultural subsectors in developing countries. This is mainly due to the increased demand for animal-based products caused by population growth, urbanization, and higher incomes (Bruinsma & FAO, 2003; Thornton, 2010). In Kenya, the dairy industry is a growing subsector, contributing approximately 3.5% of the total GDP, with an annual growth rate of 4 to 5% (Government of Kenya, 2008; Makini et al., 2019). In addition to economic significance, the dairy sector serves as a source of income, milk – a significant contributor to food and nutrition security, and manure which can be used as fertilizer in crop and forage production (Makini et al., 2019). However, despite the benefits and Kenya's standing as a major milk producer, the sector is characterized by low productivity, which is attributed to inadequate feed supply and low nutritional value of diets, among other factors (FAO & New Zealand Agricultural Greenhouse Gas Research Cent, 2017). This results in economic inefficiencies and increases enteric methane emission intensities, contributing to climate change (Sakadevan & Nguyen, 2017).

To increase milk production per animal and reduce greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions per unit of product (i.e. GHG emission intensities), smallholder farmers are intensifying their production systems. This shift involves transitioning from free grazing on natural grasslands to stall feeding, incorporating planted improved pastures, crop residues, and protein supplements (Bebe et al., 2002; Brandt et al., 2018; Wilkes et al., 2020). However, dairy intensification could lead to an increase in manure production (Grossi et al., 2019) and nutrient excretion, which negatively impacts the environment via nutrient pollution (Lee et al., 2019; Petersen et al., 2013) and the production of CH₄ and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions (Grossi et al., 2019; Niu et al., 2016). Considering the increasing trend of dairy intensification (Brandt et al., 2018), an increase in amounts of waste (manure) excretions into the environment (FAO, 2009) is expected. Therefore, feeding practice is an important leverage to influence nutrient concentration in excreted manure in dairy systems.

The use of improved forages such as *Brachiaria* grass has been recommended to farmers as ideal fodder because of its desirable agronomic, nutritional, and environmental characteristics (Cheruiyot et al., 2020; Ghimire et al., 2015; Mutimura et al., 2018). However, *Brachiaria* grasses have relatively lower CP, and as a result, protein supplementation is required to improve feed quality and maximize milk production (Paul et al., 2020). Concentrates are the most widely used protein supplements in Kenyan dairy production, but they come at a cost

(Lukuyu et al., 2007). Due to this, there has been a growing interest in the use of affordable and locally grown protein rich leguminous forages and shrubs as alternative protein source to livestock feeds (Cheruiyot et al., 2020; Lukuyu et al., 2012; Mutimura et al., 2018). Their potential to increase milk production has also been shown by Makau et al. (2020) and Paul et al. (2020). In addition, most of the leguminous forages contain condensed tannins (CTs), which have been shown to improve N use in ruminants by decreasing protein degradability in the rumen and increasing its digestion and absorption in the small intestine (Aboagye et al., 2018).

The incorporation of these protein supplements into dairy diets or rations can have considerable follow-on effects on manure nutrient composition and subsequently on GHG emissions (Hindrichsen et al., 2006). They increase diet N and depending on their degradability in the rumen, they can interfere with degradation and flow of N and C sources in the digestive tract. As a result concentrations of these vary in excreta and can consequently affect GHG emissions (Gerber et al., 2013). Concentrates interfere with fibre digestibility leading to more excreted organic matter which is then available for microbial degradation during manure storage (Hindrichsen et al., 2005). The reduced enteric CH₄ emissions as a result of feeding concentrates can, therefore, be deprived by an increase in CH₄ emission during manure storage (Külling et al., 2002). Increasing the concentrate proportion in a diet also increases N intake, which results in higher N excretion, which increases N₂O fluxes from stored manure (Nampoothiri et al., 2018).

In contrast to concentrate additions, leguminous forages containing CTs shift urine N excretion from urine to feces, this lowers the volatile N concentration in manure resulting in reduced ammonia emissions (Misselbrook et al., 2005), and is also expected to reduce N₂O emissions from manure (Gerber et al., 2013). In a study by Min et al. (2020), direct inclusion of CTs in dairy manure reduced cumulative CH₄ and N₂O emissions. Hypothetically, the presence of CTs in the excreted manure from cattle fed CTs rich diets is expected to inhibit microbial activity, resulting in decreased N₂O and CH₄ emissions from the stored manure. However, some studies that included CTs in cattle diets showed no effect on manure CH₄ and N₂O emissions during composting and biodigestion (Fagundes et al., 2021; Hao et al., 2011). The authors attributed this finding to low CTs levels and the probability of microbes in the compost altering the biological activity of tannins.

The present study aims to evaluate whether protein supplementation affects manure characteristics and emissions, given the increasing use of protein supplements in Kenya. Specifically, the study will investigate the effect of two protein sources (concentrate - dairy cubes and tanniferous leguminous forage - *Desmodium intortum*) on diet digestibility, manure

characteristics, and manure GHG emissions. The study's detailed objective is to determine the digestibility of diets based on Brachiaria hay supplemented with dairy cubes and *Desmodium intortum* and to evaluate the effect of feeding dairy cattle on a Brachiaria hay basal diet supplemented with dairy cubes and *Desmodium intortum* on excreted manure composition and manure CH₄ and N₂O emissions.

1.2 Statement of the Problem

The dairy sector in Kenya has become more commercialized and intensified, leading to an increase in the use of improved feeding practices to boost milk production. These practices include feeding animals with highly digestible forages and protein supplements, which not only enhance productivity but also reduces nitrogen excretion and potentially greenhouse gas (GHG) emissions. Manure is among the big sources of agricultural GHG emissions in the livestock sector, but the effect of diets on manure GHGs is still unclear, particularly in developing countries. In this context, leguminous forages have been identified as a promising intervention to enhance cattle productivity in Kenya and other developing countries, with the potential to reduce manure GHG emissions. Nevertheless, a knowledge gap remains, on whether and how improved diets affect the quantity and chemical composition of manure and subsequently manure GHG emissions in Kenyan dairy systems.

1.3 Objectives

1.3.1 Overall Objective

To contribute to the mitigation of climate change by providing scientific evidence that will improve understanding on the potential of diets to reduce manure GHG emissions

1.3.2 Specific Objectives

- i. To determine the nutritional value and digestibility of Brachiaria hay-based diets supplemented with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*
- ii. To determine the effects of feeding Brachiaria hay-based diet with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* supplementation on physico-chemical properties, fibre contents, and tannin contents of manure
- iii. To estimate CH₄, N₂O, and CO₂ emissions from the manure of dairy cows fed Brachiaria hay with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* supplementation

1.4 Hypotheses

- i. There is no significant difference in the digestibility of *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *xaraes* hay-based diets supplemented with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*
- ii. There is no significant effect of supplementing *Brachiaria* hay with dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* on the physico-chemical, fibre contents, and tannin contents of manure
- iii. There is no significant effect of supplementing *Brachiaria* hay with dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* on CH₄, N₂O, and CO₂ emissions from the resultant manure

1.5 Justification

Currently, the rise in GHG emissions from livestock contributing to global warming is a matter of high concern in developing countries. In Kenya, the agricultural sector is the leading source of anthropogenic GHG emissions, with the livestock sub-sector contributing about half of the agricultural GHG emissions (Government of Kenya, 2018). Several initiatives, including the Kenya Dairy Sector Competitiveness Program, are actively engaged in the development of the sector to increase productivity and achieve climate change mitigation benefits by reducing GHG emission intensity (i.e. GHG emissions per unit of product). While the primary focus lies on enhancing productivity and mitigating enteric methane emissions, it is crucial to shift attention also towards reducing emissions from manure. The intensification of the dairy sector, as observed by the current increasing trends, may result in an increase in the production of manure into the environment. Additionally, there is a concern that a reduction achieved in enteric methane emissions due to diet manipulation might be counteracted by increased greenhouse gas emissions from manure. Diet or ration of the animal is a major deciding factor for manure GHG emissions (Nampoothiri et al., 2015), but there is need for more research to be conducted to assess the effect of diets used in Kenyan dairy production systems on manure GHG emissions *in situ*, to provide localized information on which diets can be used to mitigate manure GHG emissions.

CHAPTER TWO

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Current status of dairy farming in Kenya

Dairy farming is a crucial subsector of Kenya's agricultural sector that plays a vital role in the country's economy, food security, employment, and the livelihoods of millions of Kenyan farmers (Herrero et al., 2013; KDB, 2016). As a result of population growth, rising incomes, and urbanization, there is an increase in demand for dairy products, making livestock more important (Adesogan & Dahl, 2020). To meet the growing demand for milk, the dairy sector has been transitioning over time, moving towards commercialization and intensified systems (Bosire et al., 2019; Brandt et al., 2020). This involves increasing stocking densities, improving the genetic merit of the breeds, and feeding more concentrated diets (Chagunda et al., 2016). This is a promising intervention to increase milk production and reduce GHG emission intensity (Brandt et al., 2018), contributing to both the adaptation and mitigation of climate change (Campbell et al., 2014). However, this transition is likely to increase the volumes of manure (Grossi et al., 2019) and influence manure composition (Sorensen et al., 2003), which can negatively impact the environment through nutrient pollution and greenhouse gas emissions (Niu et al., 2016) if not well managed.

2.2 Dietary protein in dairy diets and its effects on animal performance

Protein supplementation is a common practice in dairy cow nutrition, aimed at enhancing growth, reproduction, and productivity of the animal. Protein is an important nutrient for cattle fed low-quality forages. It is essential for meeting the nitrogen requirements of both rumen microorganisms and the animals themselves.

Dietary protein is typically classified into two fractions: rumen-degradable proteins and rumen-undegradable proteins (Ali et al., 2009). Rumen-degradable protein serves as a substrate for microorganisms in the rumen for the synthesis of microbial protein, a valuable source of metabolizable protein for animals. However, the degradation of valuable protein in the rumen also results in losses of nitrogen as urea in the urine.

On the other hand, rumen-undegradable/bypass protein is not degraded in the rumen but is digested and absorbed in the small intestine and is available to the animal. Lactating animals require both microbial and bypass protein to meet their metabolizable protein requirements (Kamalak et al., 2005). Supplementation of dietary rumen-undegradable protein can increase milk yield (Gulati et al., 2005). However, some studies have reported little or no

response, which could be due to poor digestibility postruminally (Kamalak et al., 2005), or deficiencies in the limiting amino acids for milk production (Schingoethe, 1996).

A study by Marghazani et al. (2012) indicated that protein supplements with varying rumen degradability characteristics influenced nutrient intake, digestibility, and yield performance during early lactation in Sahiwal cows. Diets rich in rumen-undegradable proteins during early lactation in tropical conditions have been shown to significantly improve milk yield and its composition (Kanjana-pruthipong & Buatong, 2002).

2.3 Improved livestock feeding as manure GHG mitigation strategy

One promising technique for reducing greenhouse gas (GHG) emission intensities in dairy systems is to improve the nutritional quality of the rations fed to dairy cows. To reduce nitrous oxide (N₂O) and methane (CH₄) emissions from manure, the focus should be on improving nitrogen (N) use efficiency, balancing N input with production levels, and maintaining fiber digestibility while reducing enteric CH₄ fermentation (Montes et al., 2013). In East Africa, dairy production suffers from low productivity due to poor animal nutrition. Although available breeds have high milk potential, the generally low quality forages often fail to meet their nutritional requirements. Moreover, there is seasonality in the quantity and quality of available forage, with many regions experiencing shortages of supply during the dry season, and the forage available during this period is of very poor quality (Njarui et al., 2011).

Improved feeding practices can address this challenge by reducing the fluctuation of feed during the dry season. Ericksen and Crane (2018) proposed the use of improved forages and supplements among others as low GHG emissions strategies. For example, *Brachiaria* is an improved forage with desirable traits such as adaptation to acidic and low fertility soils, tolerance to drought, shade, and flooding, high biomass production potential, palatability, nutritional value, soil carbon sequestration ability, efficient use of soil N (through biological nitrification inhibition), and potential reduction of soil N₂O emissions (Ghimire et al., 2015). In a study by Mutimura et al. (2018), *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *Piata* grass had higher dry matter (DM), organic matter (OM), crude protein (CP), and less neutral detergent fibre (NDF) and acid detergent fibre (ADF) compared to Napier grass (*Pennisetum purpureum*), resulting in increased DM intake, CP intake, metabolizable energy intake, and higher milk yield. It is important to note that for all forage grasses, proper management practices such as manure fertilization to replenish soil nutrients and timely cutting are crucial for achieving good forage quality.

As part of feeding management, supplementation plays a critical role in dairy farming. Although optimized dairy production cannot rely on forage grasses alone, even if managed correctly, supplementation is essential to provide deficient nutrients in forages, mainly proteins, minerals, and trace elements that are required for body maintenance and milk production (Kellaway & Harrington, 2004). Supplements can be in the form of concentrates or forage supplements. Forage supplements, mainly legumes, are fed in addition to forages/grasses to compensate for the poor quality or as substitutes for concentrates (Lukuyu et al., 2007). Concentrates, such as dairy cubes, are nutrient-rich, providing more nutrients (energy and protein) than an equivalent amount of bulk forage. The downside is that they can interfere with the digestibility of forages in the rumen and are expensive. Supplementary forages, such as *Desmodium intortum*, which is an N-fixing tropical leguminous fodder plant that can be intercropped with other feed plants to increase the total protein content, are affordable because farmers can grow them themselves (Lukuyu et al., 2012). In a study by Mutimura et al. (2018) supplementation of *Desmodium* to both *Brachiaria* and Napier grass increased the diet CP, NDF and reduced ADF content. *Desmodium* also contains condensed tannins (CT), which are phenolic plant secondary compounds that can form complexes with proteins, polysaccharides, alkaloids, nucleic acids, and minerals due to the presence of a large number of phenolic hydroxyl groups. Due to their binding capacity, CTs improve N use in ruminants by decreasing the degradability of dietary protein in the rumen and increasing the amount of protein to be digested in the small intestine (Aboagye et al., 2018).

2.4 Manure production and characteristics

Livestock production naturally generates manure, which is influenced by the amount of feed intake (Oenema et al., 2005). Manure is composed of animal feces and urine, often mixed with bedding materials, spilled feeds, and drinking water. Fecal material contains a variety of organic compounds, including undigested feed components and endogenous losses. Urine contains waste products and excess nutrients not utilized by the animal, primarily urea and other water-soluble nitrogenous compounds (Teenstra et al., 2015). Livestock manure is a valuable source of nutrients essential for crop and pasture production, such as nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P), and potassium (K) as well as micronutrients such as copper (Cu), manganese (Mn) and zinc (Zn). Moreover, manure can be utilized as an energy source through anaerobic digestion for biogas production or thermochemical processes such as pyrolysis, gasification, or combustion for heat or electricity generation (Borhan et al., 2011; Eckhardt et al., 2018). However, manure is also a significant contributor to agricultural GHG emissions, ranking

second to enteric methane (CH₄) (O'Mara, 2011). Major GHGs (CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O) can be produced from manure due to the presence of organic matter and microbes (Li et al., 2012). Manure is responsible for 7% of both agricultural CH₄ and nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions (Waldrip et al., 2015). CO₂ from manure is usually not accounted for in GHG emission inventories because the CO₂ from the manure originates from partly digested plant material. Since plants fix CO₂ during their growth through photosynthesis, the emitted CO₂ from manure and the CO₂ fixed through photosynthesis cancel each other out, resulting in net zero CO₂ emissions.

The quality of manure is influenced by several factors including, the type of animal (ruminant or non-ruminant), diet (forage-based or grain-based), animal age (which can influence the amount of feed consumed), animal environment, and animal productivity (Mathot et al., 2012; Oenema et al., 2005; Tongwane & Moeletsi, 2018).

According to a study by Borhan et al. (2011), the chemical properties of manure are primarily influenced by the chemical composition of the feed given to the animals. In smallholder dairy systems, the quantity and quality of manure differ significantly due to the variability in fodder resources in terms of amount and distribution across different seasons (Rukiko et al., 2018).

Manure is commonly classified based on the total solids content, as follows;

- i. Liquid contains less than 4% solids
- ii. Slurry manure contains 4% to 10% solids
- iii. Semi-solid manure contains between 10 and 20% solids
- iv. Solid manure contains over 20% solids content (Meer, 2008).

2.5 Effects of livestock feeds on manure characteristics and GHG emissions

Diets differ in composition and nutritional quality depending on the formulations, influencing the composition of excreted manure (Boadi et al., 2004). Globally, the total mixed ration is the most predominant feeding method for dairy cows indoors (Gulati et al., 2018). However, in Kenyan smallholder dairy farming, diverse feed resources are utilized, including on-farm grown forages such as Napier grass, Kikuyu grass, Brachiaria grass (currently adopted), and occasionally Rhodes grass, crop residues, externally sourced forages, forage legumes (though not widely adopted) and commercial dairy meal (Gachuri et al., 2017; Kashongwe et al., 2017). The seasonal and rain-fed production of forages often results in shortages during dry seasons. Moreover, the feeding value of most of these tropical forages is comparable to that of older grasses, having high fiber, low energy, and crude protein, and often

failing to meet animal nutrient requirements (Creemers & Aranguiz, 2019). As a result, purchased concentrates are used to supplement the low energy and protein from forages, but are fed in limited amounts, as a result, forage to concentrate ratio is high (Kashongwe et al., 2017; Wilkes et al., 2020).

Cattle fed high forage diets, as is common in smallholder systems, excrete manure with a higher content of plant cell wall material but reduced N concentrations. This manure is rich in C and has a high C: N ratio, influencing both CH₄ emissions (Boadi et al., 2004) and N₂O emissions (Leitner et al., 2021) from manure. Additionally, its lignin-rich nature makes it more resistant to microbial degradation.

The amount of nitrogen excreted in urine is influenced by the protein concentration and degradability of the diet. The use of rumen-undegradable protein sources reduces excessive protein breakdown in the rumen and consequently manure N (Boadi et al., 2004). Conversely, high urinary N excretion rates result from the use of highly degradable protein supplements and high CP diets (Wattiaux & Karg, 2004).

In temperate regions, the feeds for dairy animals are usually richer in N than in the tropics. As a result, when high protein forage-based rations are given to these animals, they tend to excrete more N due to low energy contents and high protein content (Külling et al., 2001), and a higher proportion is usually portioned to urine than feces (Rufino et al., 2006). In smallholder farming systems in the tropics, where animals are fed low quality basal diet with supplements, N excretion is lower, suggesting that less urinary-N is lost through ammonia volatilization and leaching (Delve, 2001). In tropical regions, the concentration of fecal N is often less than 1% due to low protein diets, whereas in temperate regions, it is often above 3% due to higher quality diets (Rufino et al., 2006).

In a study conducted in Kenya by Delve (2001), where Friesian-Ayrshire steers were fed on barley straw supplemented with either *Macrotyloma axillare* (Leguminous forage: high N and low polyphenol content), *Calliandra calothyrsus* (leguminous forage: high in both N and polyphenol content) or poultry manure at 15 or 30% of the DM, found that N intake increased with supplementation. However, urinary N excretion was lower for legume supplementation compared to poultry manure. Nonetheless, only a small percentage of ingested N was excreted in urine, and the animals were under-nourished at the beginning of the experiment, resulting in high N retention during the feeding trial. Faecal N was higher for all the supplemented diets.

Regarding plant secondary compounds, the level of protein-binding polyphenols affects the chemistry of excreta, including concentrations of N in feces and urine, N excretion rates,

ratios of fecal-N to urinary-N, concentrations of fiber fractions in feces, and the relative partitioning of N into fecal fiber fractions (Powell et al., 2009). From the aforementioned study, cows fed alfalfa containing high levels of tannins had the lowest fecal N and urinary N. On the other hand, the fiber fraction relative to fecal N was significantly higher in feces from cows fed high tannin birdsfoot trefoil.

Understanding the impact of dairy diet on manure N composition and transformation can contribute to various short and long-term management decisions. Over the short term, better predictions of manure N mineralization and plant availability can be made. In the long-term, impacts such as soil N accumulation and associated hazards of nitrate leaching and denitrification, sequestration of C in soil, and impacts (e.g., fertilizer use and soil erosion) of the cropping systems designed to provide diet components (e.g., alfalfa vs. corn grain) should be considered (Magdoff & Weil, 2004; Wattiaux & Karg, 2004), but they are beyond the scope of this study.

2.6 Greenhouse gas emissions from manure

Greenhouse gas emissions from manure are biogenic and can be controlled through appropriate handling, treatment, and storage conditions. After excretion manure undergoes a series of reactions, specifically decomposition, hydrolysis, fermentation, nitrification, and denitrification, which transform C- and N-compounds leading to N₂O, CH₄, and CO₂ emissions (Chadwick et al., 2011; Külling et al., 2001). The global warming potential (GWP) of CH₄ and N₂O is 28 and 265 times greater than that of CO₂, respectively, when calculated over 100 years (Pachauri et al., 2015). The IPCC excludes CO₂ emissions from animal and manure sources from greenhouse gas accounting because the carbon dioxide produced is part of natural carbon cycling and is offset by CO₂ fixed through plant photosynthesis (Rotz et al., 2010). However, CO₂ emissions from manure are important indicators of decomposition processes as they provide information on microbial activity.

2.6.1 Carbon dioxide emissions- sources, processes, controls and substrates

Carbon dioxide (CO₂) is released from manure during aerobic decomposition via microbial respiration, as well as from anaerobic decomposition of organic matter in the manure (Li et al., 2012; Moller et al., 2004). Emissions can occur from solid manure piles, anaerobic lagoons with a crust, slurry tanks, and barns (Eckhardt et al., 2018). When fresh manure is exposed to oxygen, organic matter starts to decompose, and organic polymers, such as

carbohydrates, proteins, and fats, break down into their smaller constituents like sugars, amino acids, or fatty acids. Microbial decomposers in organic matter utilize the available C as an energy source and produce CO₂ as a byproduct (Li et al., 2012). Under anaerobic conditions, anaerobic microbes like acidogenic bacteria break down organic compounds to produce CO₂ using other electron receptors than O₂ (e.g. SO₄²⁻ or NO₃⁻) (Li et al., 2012).

Temperature and moisture influence CO₂ emissions from manure, and the decomposition rate slows down if the environmental temperature or moisture content deviates from the optimum (Li et al., 2012). Environmental conditions and the chemical composition of the organic matter (i.e., the substrate) explain around 70% of the observed variation in the decomposition of organic matter in terrestrial ecosystems (Ayres et al., 2009). Similarly, in the case of manure, cellulose, lignin, total N, and C: N influence decomposition rates (Zhu et al., 2020).

2.6.2 Methane emissions - sources/sinks, processes, controls, and substrates

Methane (CH₄) emissions from manure result from anaerobic decomposition of organic matter (Moller et al., 2004). It is emitted from fresh or compacted solid manure, slurry, and liquid manure due to low oxygen levels (Chadwick et al., 2011). Methane can also be oxidized through methanotrophic bacteria in the presence of oxygen, for example, in well-aerated compost heaps or in the outer crust of manure heaps, or on slurry tanks.

The formation of CH₄ involves methanogenic archaea, through a series of biochemical processes which involve four steps. In the hydrolytic phase (step one), organic compounds are decomposed into simpler forms (monomers) by hydrolase (exoenzyme) present in facultative and obligatory hydrolytic and fermentative anaerobic bacteria. In the acidic phase (step two), these monomers are converted into short-chain volatile fatty acids (mainly lactic, butyric, propionic, and valeric acid) by hydrogen-producing acetogenic bacteria. The acid phase continues in step three, where homoacetogenic microorganisms consume the volatile fatty acids to produce acetic acid, CO₂, and hydrogen. Finally, in step four, the methanogenesis phase occurs, during which methanogens (strictly anaerobic) reduce acetate, CO₂, and H₂ into CH₄ via one of three processes:

- i) Acetotrophic pathway $\rightarrow 4\text{CH}_3\text{COOH} \rightarrow 4\text{CO}_2 + 4\text{CH}_4$
- ii) Hydrogenotrophic pathway $\rightarrow \text{CO}_2 + 4\text{H}_2 \rightarrow \text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$
- iii) Methyloctrophic pathway $\rightarrow 4\text{CH}_3\text{OH} + 6\text{H}_2 \rightarrow 3\text{CH}_4 + 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$ (Tauseef et al., 2013).

The production of CH₄ from manure is influenced by both physiochemical and biological factors, with temperature, moisture, manure chemical composition, and microbial activity being the most important (Guo et al., 2020; Li et al., 2012). Additionally, the concentrations of the organic matter (substrates) and CO₂ also regulate methane production (Kebreab et al., 2006).

2.6.3 Nitrous oxide emissions – sources/sinks, processes, controls, and substrates

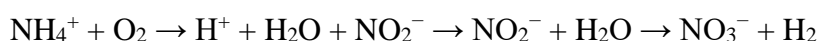
Nitrous oxide emissions from manure result directly from nitrification and denitrification processes, occurring in stacked manure, the crust on the surface of stored manure slurry, bedded-pack manure on barn floors, and on manure-laden dry lot surfaces (Rotz et al., 2010). In addition, manure contributes to indirect N₂O emissions through volatilization, leaching, and runoff of manure-N which is deposited and converted to N₂O elsewhere (Moeletsi & Tongwane, 2015).

The respiratory N₂O reductase found in denitrifying bacteria, serves as a dominant sink for N₂O, as it reduces N₂O to N₂ (Thomson et al., 2012). However, the relative contribution of N₂O to N₂ emissions from manure in SSA is unknown.

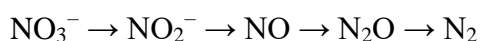
During decomposition, organic N in the manure undergoes mineralization to ammonium (NH₄⁺) (Li et al., 2012). Subsequently, in the presence of oxygen, NH₄⁺ is oxidized to nitrite (NO₂⁻) and further to nitrate (NO₃⁻) as shown in **Equation 1** a process referred to as nitrification. Nitrification is a microbe-mediated process, and the bacteria involved require CO₂, H₂O, O₂, and either NH₄⁺ or NO₂⁻ for growth, as well as a pH above 5 (Kebreab et al., 2006).

Under anaerobic conditions, denitrification occurs where NO₃⁻ is reduced stepwise to NO₂⁻, nitric oxide (NO), N₂O, and finally dinitrogen (N₂) as shown in **Equation 2**. N₂O is produced when the reduction is incomplete (Chadwick et al., 2011). Conditions necessary for denitrification include the presence of heterotrophic bacteria, reductants such as organic C, lack of oxygen, and the presence of N substrates (Kebreab et al., 2006).

Equation 1 : Nitrification



Equation 2: Denitrification



Microbial nitrification and denitrification are the main processes that utilize inorganic N compounds leading to N₂O formation, but there are several other microbial processes such as autotrophic and heterotrophic nitrification, co-denitrification, chemodenitrification, and dissimilatory nitrate reduction to ammonia (DNRA), which can also lead to N₂O formation, albeit usually have a lower contribution (Braker & Conrad, 2011; Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013).

2.7 Factors controlling manure decomposition and GHG emissions

2.7.1 Manure chemistry

The composition of animal manure can differ depending on factors such as the type of animal, feed composition, bedding materials used, and the method of manure management (Rotz, 2004; Sorensen et al., 2003). Cattle that consume diets high in forage produce manure with a higher content of partially digested cell wall material, which is more resistant to microbial degradation compared to manure from cattle that consume high grain diets (Amon et al., 2001). The composition of manure plays a role in influencing the processes of C and N mineralization/immobilization during decomposition (Forge et al., 2005). The key properties of manure affecting mineralization include N content, C content, polyphenol content, and the main structural components such as cellulose and lignin (Morvan et al., 2006). The initial ratios of these components (C: N, lignin: N, cellulose: N, and lignin: cellulose) determine the decomposers involved, the pathways, and the rates of the decomposition process (Talbot & Treseder, 2012). According to the study, interactions among lignin, cellulose, and N were identified as the primary controls over litter decomposition. In this study, it was found that litter N alleviates N limitation of C use by decomposers, cellulose serves as a co-substrate for lignin degradation, and lignin protects cell wall polysaccharides from decay. Lower initial N and high C: N in cattle manure results in slower decomposition rates, and lignin: N and ADF: ADL regulate the decomposition rate (Zhu et al., 2020).

2.7.2 Temperature and moisture

Temperature and moisture are important factors in regulating decomposition rates largely due to their effects on microbial metabolic rates and population structure. The decomposition rate declines if the environmental temperature or moisture content deviates from its optimum range. They collectively affect biogeochemical reactions, such as enzyme activity, respiration, methanogenesis, nitrification, and denitrification (Li et al., 2012). Temperature

controls enzyme activity and metabolic activity of microbes, where increased temperatures can result in an increase in enzyme activity leading to increased decomposition rates, and subsequently an increase in GHG emissions due to enhanced microbial activity (Conant et al., 2011). Moisture affects O₂ availability, stimulates microbial activity and enzyme diffusion, and thereby regulates decomposition rates. In a study by Zhu et al. (2020), an increase in moisture accelerated decomposition rates in semi-arid drylands. This study identified moisture as a main environmental driving factor for the manure decomposition process. The research showed a positive correlation between decomposition rates and cumulative precipitation and a negative correlation with mean temperature, this was attributed to the region of the study (a tropical region), where temperature variation is minimal throughout the year and is generally not a limiting factor for decomposition.

2.7.3 Tannins

Feeds containing natural phytochemicals, such as condensed and hydrolyzable tannins, offer a sustainable approach to mitigate the environmental impacts of ruminants. Tannin-containing feeds have demonstrated the ability to reduce both enteric methane emissions and urinary nitrogen excretion in ruminants (Maamouri et al., 2011; Tan et al., 2011). Tannins are water-soluble phenolic plant secondary compounds of relatively high molecular weight that can form complexes, mainly with proteins, polysaccharides, alkaloids, nucleic acids, and minerals due to the presence of a large number of phenolic hydroxyl groups (Kamra et al., 2006). They are widespread in nutritionally important shrubs, legumes, forage trees, cereals and grains commonly consumed by ruminants. Due to their capacity to form complexes with proteins, they often limit the utilization of these feedstuffs (Frutos et al., 2004; Patra, 2014). Tannins exist in two forms; condensed tannins (CT) and hydrolyzable tannins (HT). Hydrolyzable tannins occur mainly in fruit pods and plant galls, and upon degradation, their products are absorbed in the small intestine of animals and are potentially toxic to ruminants. In contrast, CT, commonly known as proanthocyanidins (PA), are commonly found in forage legumes, trees, and shrubs. Conventionally, the two forms are differentiated based on their molecular weight, with CT having a higher molecular weight than HT (Frutos et al., 2004).

Condensed tannins improve N use in ruminants, they increase the amount of protein digested in the small intestine by decreasing its degradability in the rumen as a result of their binding capacity (Aboagye et al., 2018; Waghorn et al., 1987). This mechanism results in reduced levels of NH₃ produced in the rumen, consequently lowering urinary N and increasing

fecal N. At the environmental level, this change contributes to the reduction of N₂O emissions from manure (Hristov et al., 2013).

The combined effects of protein binding and inhibition of nitrification indicate that tannins have the potential to reduce reactive N, thus reducing total N₂O emissions from manure. Feeding tannins to animals can lead to better nitrogen utilization in forage cropping systems and improve the quality of milk products (Beauchemin et al., 2009). Though previous research has explored tannin feeding trials and their implications on enteric methane emissions and soil nitrogen, there is still a significant gap in understanding the impact on greenhouse gas emissions from manure during storage, especially in developing countries.

CHAPTER THREE

MATERIALS AND METHODS

3.1 Study site

The study was conducted in two laboratories - Egerton University Animal Science Laboratory, located in Njoro at coordinates 00° 19' 00' S 36° 06' 00" E, and the Mazingira Centre for Environmental Research and Education laboratory hosted by the International Livestock Research Institute (ILRI), located in Nairobi at coordinates 1° 16' 11.73' S, 36° 43' 26.0472". The climate is marked by a mean annual temperature of 17°C and a mean annual rainfall of 875 mm that shows a bimodal pattern (long rains from March to June and short rains from October to December).

3.2 Experiment 1: To determine the nutritional value and digestibility of *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *xaraes* hay based diets supplemented with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*

This experiment involved proximate analysis, fibre analysis, and *in-vitro* degradability of the feed ingredients (*Brachiaria* hay, dairy cubes, and *Desmodium intortum* hay) and formulated experimental diets (formulated from the ingredients). The apparent digestibility of DM, N, and NDF were also determined. The experimental diet samples included:

- D₁ (Diet 1): Control, *Brachiaria* + molasses + urea,
- D₂ (Diet 2): D₁ + Dairy cubes
- D₃ (Diet 3): D₁ + *Desmodium*.

The samples were collected during an animal feeding trial (companion study), where cross-bred lactating dairy cows were fed on the three stated experimental diets.

3.2.1 Feed ingredients

The individual feed ingredients were obtained from different locations; *Brachiaria* was harvested from ILRI farm at the late bloom stage and sun-dried for 9 days, while *Desmodium intortum* was obtained from smallholder farmers in western Kenya, and dairy cubes were purchased. *Brachiaria* and *Desmodium* hay were chaffed into about 10 cm lengths.

3.2.2 Diet formulation

The experimental diets were formulated using chopped *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *xaraes* hay, urea (as a protein supplement), molasses (as an energy supplement), and experimental protein supplements (dairy cubes and *Desmodium intortum*). Three diets were formulated to meet the required crude protein and energy requirement for crossbred cows weighing on average 350 kg, supporting the production of 3 litres for the cows on the control diet and 4 litres for the cows on diets 2 and 3 per day as described by John Moran (2005). Diet 1 (D₁) control consisting of 87% brachiaria hay (*Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *xaraes*) with 12.2% molasses and 0.8% urea supplement, diet 2 (D₂) consisting of 65.7% brachiaria hay, 8.5% molasses, 0.8% urea and 25% dairy cubes and diet 3 (D₃) consisting of 35% brachiaria, 6.4% molasses, 0.8% urea and 57.7% *Desmodium* hay as shown in **Table 1** below.

Table 1. Dietary treatments and their proportions in the rations

Diet	D ₁ Control	D ₂ Control + Dairy cubes	D ₃ Control + <i>Desmodium intortum</i>
Diet ingredients and proportions			
Expected DM intake (kg)¹	8.2	8.0	7.83
Basal diet - chopped <i>Brachiaria brizantha</i> cv. <i>xaraes</i> hay	87 % (7.14 kg)	65.7 % (5.25 kg)	35 % (2.75 kg)
N supplement - urea	0.8 % (0.07 kg)	0.8 % (0.07 kg)	0.8 % (0.07 kg)
Energy supplement - molasses	12.2 % (1.0 kg)	8.5 % (0.68 kg)	6.4 % (0.5 kg)
Experimental supplements			
Chopped <i>Desmodium intortum</i> hay	0 %	0 %	57.7 % (4.52 kg)
Dairy cubes	0 %	25% (2 kg)	0 %
Diet composition (%DM)			
CP	7.5	10.3	10.3
NDF	57.6	52.4	61.3
Total tannins	< 0.2	< 0.2	1.6
Condensed tannins	< 0.1	< 0.1	

3.2.3 Sample collection

The individual feed ingredient samples were collected before feed formulation and the experimental diets were sampled during the animal feeding trial. The samples were dried at 50 °C for 96 h, ground to pass through a 1 mm sieve, and stored in plastic bags for proximate, fibre, tannins, and digestibility analysis.

3.2.4 Laboratory analysis

Proximate analysis

Dried ground feed ingredients and diet samples were analyzed using AOAC analytical methods as follows dry matter (DM) (method 934.01), ash (method 942.05), where 2 g of the samples were dried in duplicates at 105 °C for 24 h, cooled in a desiccator and weighed then transferred into a muffle furnace for ashing at 550⁰ C for 4 h. DM was calculated as shown in **Equation 3** and ash in **Equation 4**.

$$\text{Equation 3 \% DM} = \frac{[(\text{Dried sample} + \text{dish weight})g - (\text{empty dish weight})g]}{(\text{initial sample weight})g} \times 100$$

$$\text{Equation 4 \% Ash} = \frac{[(\text{Ashed sample} + \text{dish weight})g - (\text{empty dish weight})g]}{(\text{initial sample weight})g} \times 100$$

The crude protein (CP) was determined as described by AOAC (method 990.03), this procedure involved digestion, distillation, and titration; where 0.3 g of the dried ground feed sample was digested with sulphuric acid (H₂SO₄) in the presence of a catalyst to breakdown all N bonding converting them to ammonium ions, the digest was then alkalinized using sodium hydroxide (NaOH) and distilled, the distillate (ammonia trapped in boric acid) was finally titrated with 0.1 N hydrochloric acid (HCL). The amount of acid used in titration (corresponds to the amount of nitrogen in the sample) was multiplied by 6.25 to convert to CP as shown in **Equation 6**.

$$\text{Equation 5: \% N (on DM basis)} = \frac{[1.4007 \times (V_a - V_b) \times N]}{W \times 100}$$

$$\text{Equation 6: \% CP (on DM basis)} = \% N (\text{on DM basis}) \times 6.25$$

where:

1.4007 = conversion factor (1 ml of the acid is equivalent to 1.4007 mg of N)

V_a = Volume of acid used for titration

V_b = Volume of acid used for titration for blank

N = Normality of acid

W = Weight of sample in g

6.25 = Conversion factor for crude protein for all forages

For ether extract (EE) (method 920.39) was used, where 2g of the sample was weighed into a thimble and placed on a soxhlet extractor, and petroleum ether was used as a solvent. Cell wall constituents were analyzed by the methods of Van Soest et al. (1991). This method allows for sequential extraction of the fibre fractions as neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), and acid detergent lignin (ADL). NDF measures hemicellulose, cellulose, and lignin, while ADF measures cellulose and lignin, and ADL measures lignin content; from these measures, the ‘hemicellulose’ fraction is defined as NDF-ADF, the ‘cellulose’ fraction is defined as ADF-ADL and the ‘lignin’ or ‘acid-unhydrolyzable residue’ fraction is defined as ADL. Gross energy (GE) was measured using a bomb calorimeter (Harris, 1970) and condensed tannins (CT) were determined using Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS).

In vitro degradability

The gas production technique was used to determine the fermentative activity of the mixed microbial population as described by Menke and Steingass (1988). Rumen liquor was collected in the morning (6 am) from fistulated animal before feeding and watering into a pre-warmed thermos-flask and taken to the laboratory. One litre of rumen fluid was filtered through two layers of cheesecloth to obtain strained rumen fluid. This was then flushed with carbon dioxide (CO₂) and mixed with buffers to simulate the action of saliva.

Feed samples weighing 200 mg (1mm screen) were prepared in duplicate and placed into 100 ml glass syringes. The rumen fluid and buffer medium were mixed in the ratio of 1: 2 (v/v). A buffer-rumen fluid mixture of 30 ml was then passed into syringes holding samples, shaken gently and any air bubbles were released. The syringes were then incubated in a thermostatically controlled water bath at 39° C for 0 - 96 hours. Both the samples and blank (rumen fluid + buffer) were run in duplicates.

The volume of gas produced was determined at 0, 3, 6, 9, 12, 18, 36, 48, 72, and 96 hours by reading the calibration of the piston. Two blank syringes containing only 30 ml of buffered rumen fluid were incubated to estimate gas production due to endogenous substrates for the blank corrections. The total increase in volume minus the blank value was used to calculate the gas produced. The calculated values of gas produced were then used to calculate the cumulative gas produced. The mean cumulative gas produced was fitted in the exponential equation by Ørskov and McDonld (1989) as shown in **Equation 7**.

$$\text{Equation 7 : } Y = a + b(1 - e^{-ct})$$

The equation was used to determine gas production characteristics a, b, a+b, c, and RSD constants. These constants explain the degradability potential of the feed ingredients, where Y is the gas produced at time t, a is the gas produced from the immediately soluble fraction, b is the gas produced from the insoluble but degradable fraction, a+b is the potential extent of gas production, and c is the rate constant of gas produced per hour (h⁻¹).

The gas produced at 48 hour was used to calculate *in-vitro* organic matter digestibility (OMD %), metabolizable energy ME (MJ/kg DM) content, and short chain fatty acids (SCFA mmol/200mg DM) of feed ingredients and experimental diets using Equation 8 Equation 9 Equation 10 Equation 11 Equation 12 shown below of Menke and Steingass (1995) and Menke and Steingass (1988).

Equation 8: SCFA (mmol/200mg DM) = 0.0222 GP - 0.00425

For concentrates:

Equation 9: ME (MJ/kg DM) = 1.06 + 0.1570 × Gas produced (ml/200 mg DM) + 0.0084 × CP (g/kg DM) + 0.022 × EE (g/kg DM) – 0.0081 × Ash (g/kg DM)

Equation 10: OMD (%) 48 HR = 9 + 0.9991 × Gas produced (ml/200 mg DM) at 48hrs) + 0.0595 × CP (g/kg DM) + 0.0181 × Total ash (g/kg DM)

For roughages

Equation 11: ME (MJ/kg DM) = 2.20 + 0.1357 × Gas produced (ml/200 mg DM) + 0.0057 × CP (g/kg DM) + 0.0002859 × (EE)² (g/kg DM)

Equation 12: OMD (%) 48 HR = 16.49 + 0.9042 × Gas produced (ml/200 mg DM) at 48hrs) + 0.0492 × CP (g/kg DM) + 0.0387 × Total ash (g/kg DM)

Apparent digestibility

Apparent digestibility of DM, N, and NDF were determined for the experimental diets for the period in which the diet samples were taken. Apparent digestibility was determined by the difference between the amount ingested and the amount excreted in feces, as shown in Equation 13 and nitrogen utilization was calculated using Equation 14 (Barbosa et al., 2018).

Equation 13 : Apparent digestibility (%) = $\frac{\text{Nutrient ingested} - \text{Nutrient excreted}}{\text{Nutrient ingested}} \times 100$

Equation 14: Nitrogen utilization (%) = $\frac{\text{N intake} - \text{Fecal excreted N} - \text{Urine excreted N}}{\text{N Intake}} \times 100$

3.2.5 Data analysis

Data from proximate analysis; (DM, CP, EE, NDF, ADF & ADL) and digestibility analysis (OMD, ME, and SCFA) were presented as analyzed as there were no statistical replicates. The effect of dietary treatment on DM, N, and NDF intake, excretion, and apparent digestibility was analyzed using analysis of variance (ANOVA); PROC GLM of SAS, (2002), following the model:

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + D_i + \epsilon_{ij}$$

where, Y_{ij} = DM, N and NDF intake, excretion, and apparent digestibility, μ = Overall mean, D_i = effect of i^{th} diet, and ϵ_{ij} = random error term. Significant means were separated using Tukey's test at 5% significance.

3.3 Experiment 2: To determine the effects of feeding *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *xaraes* hay with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* supplementation on physico-chemical, fibre, and tannin contents of manure

This experiment involved an animal feeding trial (companion study) and a laboratory manure incubation experiment. At the end of the second period of the companion study, samples for the analysis and manure incubation experiment were collected.

3.3.1 Animal feeding trial (companion study)

The study consisted of three dietary treatments and three feeding periods. Each period lasted for four weeks, with a three-day washout period before the start of each period. The diets were changed in each subsequent period for all animal groups so that all groups had consumed all the dietary treatments by the end of the feeding period. The cows selected for the study were in parity 1 and 2 and were grouped based on milk yield and days in milk into three groups, each with four cows. These groups were then randomly assigned to the dietary treatments. Each animal was housed and fed individually in partitioned open pens measuring 1.90m x 2.87m, which were roofed and bedded with rubber mats. The animals had free access to clean water supplied by automatic waterers.

3.3.2 Feces and urine collection

The manure used in this study was collected during the second feeding period of the experiment. The study collected the feces and urine excreted by each animal within a dietary treatment over 24 hours as shown in **Table 2**. Feces were scooped from the pen floor six times

per day and stored in plastic buckets with lids. Urine was collected using non-invasive urine collection devices designed for female animals. These devices were attached using adhesive glue around the shaved perineum areas (Korir et al., 2022). A silicon tube was attached to the base of the urinals to direct the flow of urine into prefilled 10 L plastic containers with 200 ml of 5 M HCl to lower urine pH from 7.0 – 8.7 to 2 and below, preventing N loss through volatilization.

Table 2. Treatment allocation of experimental animals from which excreta was collected for the laboratory incubation trial.

(D₁)	(D₂)	(D₃)
Control	D₁	D₁
	+	+
	Dairy cubes	Desmodium
Animal B1	Animal C2	Animal A3
Animal B3	Animal C4	Animal A1
Animal B4	Animal C3	Animal A4
Animal B2	Animal C1	Animal A2

3.3.3 Feces and urine sampling

Approximately 500 g of feces were transferred into labeled aluminum foil trays and dried at 50 °C for DM, total organic C and total N (CN), fibre analysis (NDF, ADF, and ADL), and CT analysis. About 100 g of the fresh samples were stored at +4 °C in zipped plastic bags for nitrate (NO₃⁻), ammonium (NH₄⁺), and pH analysis, and approximately 2 kg was immediately used for the laboratory incubation (see **Section 3.3.4**). Of the urine aliquots, 20 ml was stored at +4 °C for analysis of NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺, 20 ml was stored frozen at -20 °C for analysis of Kjeldahl-N, and 1 L was transferred into 1.5 L plastic bottles and immediately used for the laboratory incubation.

3.3.4 Manure preparation for incubation

In this study, it was found that the mean ratio of feces to urine was 70:30 as calculated using **Equation 15** and **Equation 16**. This ratio was also equivalent to their percentage proportions in the manure to be stored, which was 350g. Therefore, the amount of feces and urine to be stored was 70% and 30% of 350g, respectively.

$$\text{Equation 15: Mean ratio of dung (\%)} = \frac{\text{Av. dung excreted}}{\text{Av. total excreta}} \times 100$$

$$\text{Equation 16: Mean ratio of urine (\%)} = \frac{\text{Av. urine excreted}}{\text{Av. total excreta}} \times 100$$

Where total excreta is the sum total of excreted feces and urine.

Manure preparation was conducted as described in the following steps:

Step 1: 1.96 kg of excreted fresh feces was weighed and transferred into a beaker

The total amount of feces required per jar was 70% of 350 g which is 245 g, for each cow there were 5 jars for manure sampling at different times, but for allowance, feces required for 8 jars was calculated as $245 \text{ g} \times 8 = 1.96 \text{ kg}$.

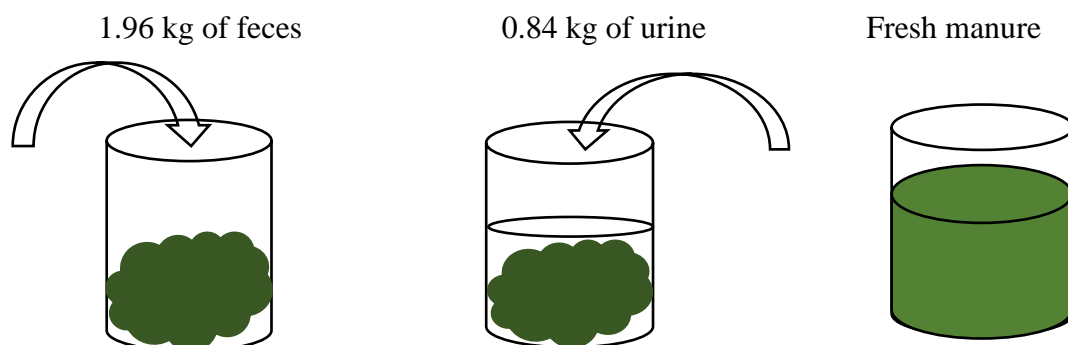
Step 2: Neutralization of urine to a pH of 7.6 using 5 M NaOH:

To prevent nitrogen loss, urine from animals was collected in acidified containers during total collection. Acidified urine slows down urea hydrolysis, which reduces the availability of nitrogen and could alter N₂O emissions during laboratory incubation. Therefore, the urine was neutralized to pH as excreted, as described below:

A sample weighing 0.84 kg of acidified urine was transferred into a beaker and placed onto a magnetic stirrer. The pH was then measured using the pH meter (Jenway model) pre-calibrated with pH buffers 4.0 and 7.0 and drops of 5 M NaOH were added until a pH of 7.6 was attained.

The total amount of urine required for a jar is 30% of 350 which is 105 g, as calculated for fresh dung, urine required for 8 jars was also calculated as $105 \text{ g} \times 8 = 0.84 \text{ kg}$

Step 3: The neutralized urine was transferred into the beakers containing faeces and gently mixed using a spatula.



Step 4: Aliquots of 350 g of the mixed manure from the 12 cows were then transferred into five replicates of labeled 1 L mason jars and transferred into a temperature-controlled chamber set at 20 °C, where they were incubated for 12 weeks. Four of the five replicate jars

were used for destructive manure sampling after 1, 2, 4, and 8 weeks of incubation, while the remaining jar was used for continuous manual gas sampling and the final manure sampling after 12 weeks as shown in the illustration below **Figure 1** (beaker represents a mason jar)

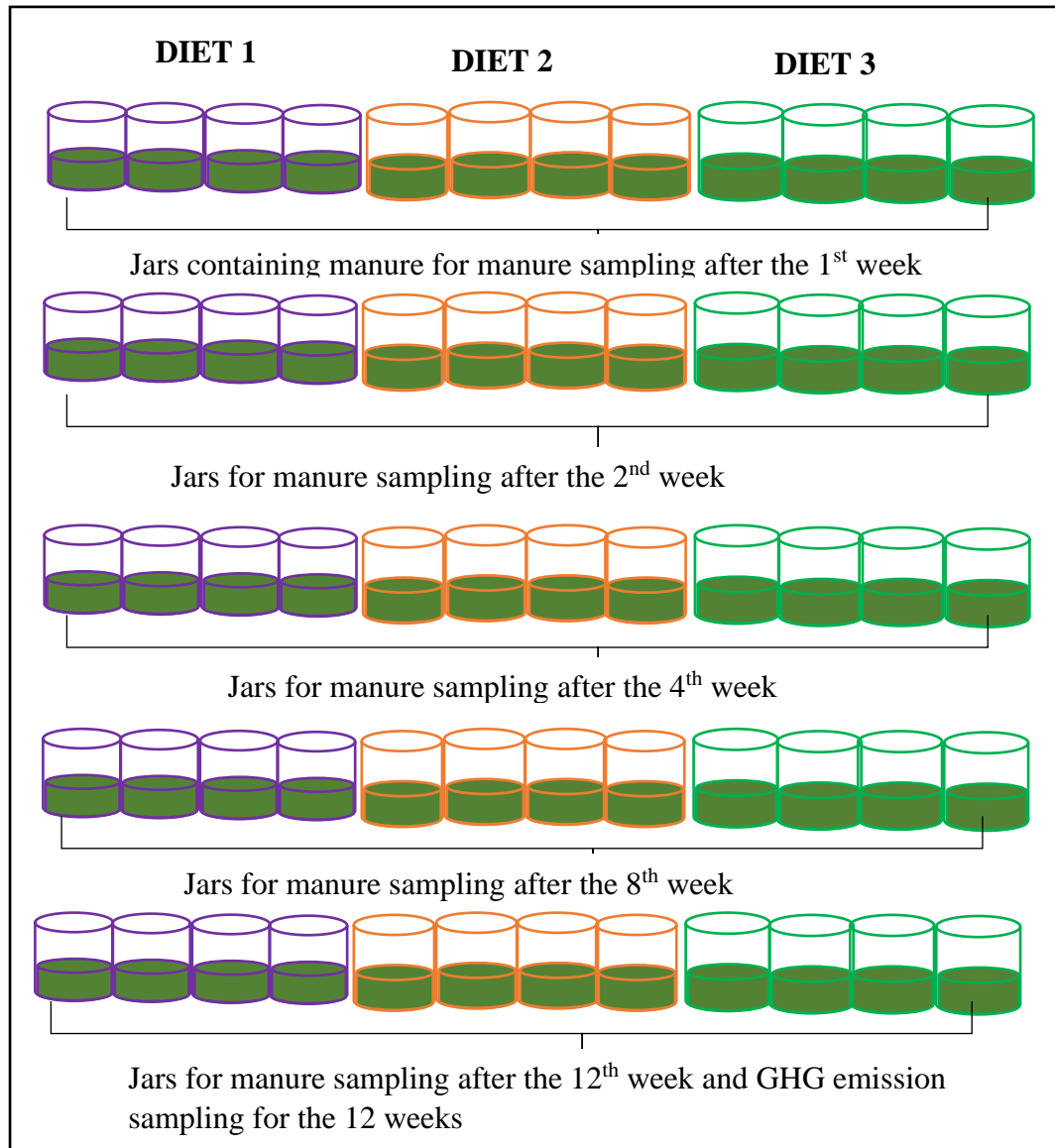


Figure 1. Illustration of the setup of mason jars containing manure for manure sampling and gas sampling for the 12 weeks of manure storage

3.3.5 Manure sampling

At each manure sampling time point, aliquots of the manure were sampled and stored at +4 °C for pH, NO₃⁻ and NH₄⁺ analysis, and 300 g was transferred into aluminum dishes and dried in the oven at 50 °C for 72 h and ground to pass through a 1 mm sieve and stored in zipped plastic bags at air temperature until fibre and CT analysis.

3.3.6 Laboratory analysis

Feces, urine, and manure sample analysis

The feces and manure sub-samples were analyzed for chemical composition, specifically DM, water content (WC), ash, NH_4^+ and NO_3^- concentration, total N, organic C, neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), acid detergent lignin (ADL) and CT content.

Dry matter and WC were determined as recommended by Peters et al. (2003), where 50 g of feces and manure was weighed into pre-weighed aluminum trays using a Mettler Toledo weighing balance at 0.01 g precision and dried at 50 °C for 72 h using a Genlab Thermocoupled drying oven. The DM and WC were then calculated as shown in **Equation 17** and **Equation 18**.

$$\text{Equation 17 \% DM} = \frac{[(\text{Dry sample weight} + \text{tray}) - (\text{empty tray weight})]}{[(\text{wet sample weight} + \text{tray}) - (\text{empty tray weight})]} \times 100$$

$$\text{Equation 18 \% WC} = \frac{[(\text{wet sample weight} + \text{tray}) - (\text{dry sample weight} + \text{tray})]}{[(\text{wet sample weight} + \text{tray}) - (\text{empty tray weight})]} \times 100$$

Crude ash was determined as described by AOAC (Association of Official Analytical Chemists) (1990), where crucibles with 0.5 g of the samples were dried first at 105 °C for 24 h then transferred into the muffle furnace for incineration at 550 °C for 4 h. NDF, ADF and ADL were done following Van Soest et al. (1991). Condensed tannins were determined using Near-infrared spectroscopy (NIRS). Ammonium (NH_4^+) and NO_3^- content were determined using colorimetric method as described by Hood-Nowotny et al. (2010), where 1 g of manure was extracted using 25 ml of 0.5M K_2SO_4 , shaken for 30 mins, then centrifuged for 30 mins at 3000 rpm and filtered using ashless Whatman Filter Paper No. 42. The extract was then stored in the freezer for analysis.

For NH_4^+ determination, standards, colour reagent (0.3 M NaOH: Salicylate solution: deionized H_2O in the ratio 1:1:1), and oxidation solution (dichloroisocyanuric acid sodium solution) were prepared. 100 μl of blanks (extractant), standards, and samples were then pipetted in triplicates into a transparent 96-well microplate, and in each well 50 μl of the colour reagent was added first then 20 μl of the oxidation solution. The plates were then covered using microplate lids, and incubated at room temperature for 30 mins for colour development, after which the absorbance was measured photometrically without the lids at 660 nm.

NH_4^+ concentration calculations were done as follows:

Step 1: The standards were used for calibration; where a linear curve was plotted using the standards absorbance (x-axis) against the concentration (y-axis). The slope obtained was used as the calibration slope.

Step 2: The blank absorbance average was calculated

Step 3: Blank-corrected concentrations were calculated for all samples as shown in **Equation 19**:

$$\text{Equation 19: Blank-corrected concentration } (\mu\text{g NH}_4\text{-N ml}^{-1}) \\ = (\text{sample absorbance} - \text{av. blank absorbance}) \times \text{calibration slope}$$

Step 4: Concentration in $\mu\text{g NH}_4\text{-N g}^{-1}$ DW was calculated as shown in **Equation 20**:

$$\text{Equation 20} = \frac{\text{Blank-corrected concentration} \times \text{Dilution factor} \times \text{Extraction volume (ml)}}{\text{Dry matter (g)}}$$

For NO_3^- determination, standards, Griess reagent (N-Naphtylethylendiamin solution and sulfanilic acid in the ratio 1:1) and Vanadium(III)chloride were prepared. 100 μl of blanks, standards, and samples were pipetted in triplicates into a transparent 96-well microplate and into each well 100 μl of the griess reagent was first added then 100 μl of vanadium(III)chloride solution. Microplates were then covered using the microplate lids and incubated at room temperature for 60 minutes, after which the absorbance was measured photometrically without the lids at 540 nm. The calculation of NO_3^- concentration was done following the steps used for NH_4^+ where the final calculation was done as shown in **Equation 21** below:

Nitrate ($\mu\text{g NO}_3\text{-N g}^{-1}$ DW)

$$\text{Equation 21} = \frac{(\text{Blank-corrected concentration} \times \text{Dilution factor} \times \text{Extraction volume (ml)})}{\text{Dry matter (g)}}$$

Total nitrogen (N) and carbon (C) content were measured using the elemental combustion method described by Pella (1990) and Watson et al. (2003). Triplicate samples of 200 mg dried manure were analyzed on a Vario Max cube elemental analyzer.

The pH was measured according to Peters et al. (2003). Fresh feces and manure samples (5 g each) were weighed in triplicate and placed in 50 ml plastic screw cap bottles. Then, 25 ml of 0.01 M CaCl_2 (manure to CaCl_2 ratio of 1:5) was added. The bottles were shaken for 10 minutes on a shaker and allowed to stand for 20 minutes. The pH meter was calibrated using

pH buffers 4.0 and 7.0. The electrode of a Jenway model pH meter was then immersed in each bottle containing the supernatant solution to measure the pH.

3.3.7 Statistical analysis

Differences in excreta (feces and urine) and manure composition caused by different diets were analyzed by ANOVA, using PROC GLM of SAS (2002) using the model;

$$Y_{ij} = \mu + D_i + \varepsilon_{ij}$$

where, Y_{ij} = excreta and manure composition (WC, pH, total C, total N, C/N ratio, fibre, and CT) μ = Overall mean, D_i = effect of i^{th} diet, and ε_{ij} = random error term. Significant means were separated using Tukey's test at 5% significance.

Correlation analysis was also conducted using the Pearson correlation of SAS (2002) between nutrient intake and nutrient excreted to determine the relationship between diet composition and excreta composition. Additionally, for manure properties measured at different time points during storage, repeated measures analysis was done using PROC GLM of SAS to test for the effect of diet, time, and their interactions using the model:

$$Y_{ijk} = \mu + D_i + T_j + (DT)_{ij} + \varepsilon_{ijk}$$

where, Y_{ijk} = manure property at j^{th} time from cows fed i^{th} diet, D_i = effect of i^{th} diet, T_j = effect of j^{th} time, $(DT)_{ij}$ = effect of interaction between diet and time and ε_{ijk} = random error term.

Experiment 3: To estimate CH₄, N₂O, and CO₂ manure emissions from dairy cattle fed *Brachiaria brizantha* cv. xaraes hay supplemented with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*

3.4.1 Data collection

Gas sampling

Gas sampling was done daily for the first 15 days of incubation, then four times a week for the next 15 days, and three times a week for the remaining 8 weeks. To this end, the mason jars were fitted with lids and rubber seals to allow for air-tight closure during gas sampling, and a sampling port containing a rubber septum through which gas samples were drawn with a syringe. At each sampling date, jars were taken out of the incubation chamber, placed onto the lab bench, and left open for ventilation for 10 minutes. Lids were then closed and five gas samples of 30 ml each were drawn from each mason jar headspace using 60 ml plastic syringes through the sampling port and transferred to pre-evacuated 10 ml gas chromatography (GC)

vials. The gas sampling protocol involved sampling at intervals of 2 min (0, 2, 4, 6, and 8 min) for the first 4 weeks, and at intervals of 3 min for the last 8 weeks (0, 3, 6, 9, and 12 min). After each time a gas sample was drawn from the jar, the same volume of air of known GHG concentration was injected into the mason jar to refill the initial headspace volume and avoid under-pressure build up.

3.4.2 Laboratory analysis

Gas sample analysis and calculations

The CO₂, CH₄, and N₂O concentrations were determined using a gas chromatograph (SRI 8610C, SRI Instruments, Torrance, CA, USA) equipped with an electron capture detector (ECD) for N₂O detection, and a flame ionization detector (FID) with a methanizer for CO₂ and CH₄ detection. The peak areas measured by the GC were converted into concentrations using calibration curve equations generated from standard gas concentrations (2.03 to 49.8 ppm for CH₄, 4003 to 2420 ppm for CO₂, and 329 to 2530 ppb for N₂O) relative to measured peak areas of standards. Linear equations were used for CO₂, CH₄, and a power function for N₂O.

Calculation of manure-atmosphere GHG fluxes

Before gas flux calculation, the volumetric gas concentrations (ppm or ppb) for the second to last sampling time point were corrected to account for the air refilled during gas sampling for pressure equilibration (**Equation 22**, **Equation 23**, and **Equation 24**);

$$\text{Equation 22 } c_{diluted_t} = \frac{(c_{measured_t} \times \frac{AW}{22.41}) \times (V_{HS} - V_{spl}) + (c_{refilled} \times \frac{AW}{22.41}) \times V_{spl}}{V_{HS}} \times \frac{22.41}{AW}$$

$$\text{Equation 23 } \Delta c_t = c_{measured_t} - c_{diluted_t}$$

$$\text{Equation 24 } c_{corrected_{t+1}} = c_{measured_{t+1}} + \Delta c_t$$

In the first step (Equation 22), the dilution of the air concentration at timepoint t ($c_{diluted_t}$) was determined by using the relative contributions of the measured gas sample concentration at timepoint t ($c_{measured_t}$) and the concentration of the air used for refilling the headspace volume ($c_{refilled}$) weighed for their respective volumes (V_{HS} , headspace volume, V_{spl} , sample volume). For this, concentrations were converted from mixing ratios (ppm for CO₂, and ppb for CH₄ and N₂O) to a mass-per-volume basis using the ideal gas law ($PV=nRT$). Because pressure (P), temperature (T), and the ideal gas constant (R , 8.314 JK⁻¹mol⁻¹) are the same for both concentrations, they can be disregarded, leaving only the volume (V) and the

number of atoms or mixing ratios (n). Therefore, the mixing ratios were converted to a mass-per-volume basis by multiplying with the atomic weights (AW) of C (12 g mol^{-1}) for CH_4 and CO_2 , or $2 \times \text{N}$ (28 g mol^{-1}) for N_2O , and dividing by the ideal gas volume (V , 22.41 L mol^{-1}).

In the second step (Equation 23), the change in concentration due to the dilution (Δc_t) was calculated by subtracting the diluted concentration at timepoint t ($c_{diluted_t}$) from the measured concentration at timepoint t ($c_{measured_t}$). Finally (Equation 24), the change in concentration was considered for the gas concentration at the next timepoint, $t+1$ to give the corrected concentration ($c_{corrected_{t+1}}$) by adding the change in concentration (Δc_t) to the measured concentration at the next timepoint ($c_{measured_{t+1}}$).

Emissions were then computed from the change in concentrations with time using the measured concentration at the first time point ($t_0 = 0$ minutes, before any dilution steps had been conducted) and the corrected concentrations at the subsequent time points. For this, a linear regression approach was used as described by Butterbach-Bahl et al. (2011) to estimate the slope of headspace (gas concentration change over time). The slope was then used to calculate the flux rate following **Equation 25** for CO_2 and CH_4 , and

Equation 26 for N_2O :

$$\text{Equation 25 Gas flux (CO}_2 \text{ \& CH}_4) = \frac{dConc}{dt} \times \frac{P}{1013} \times \frac{273}{T+273} \times \frac{12}{22.41} \times \frac{V_{HS}}{DM} \times 60$$

$$\text{Equation 26 Gas flux (N}_2\text{O)} = \frac{dConc}{dt} \times \frac{P}{1013} \times \frac{273}{T+273} \times \frac{28}{22.41} \times \frac{V_{HS}}{DM} \times 60$$

where $dConc/dt$ is the change in gas concentration over time (slope, ppm min^{-1}), P is the air pressure (hPa), 1013 is the sea level air pressure (hPa), T is the incubation chamber temperature ($^{\circ}\text{C}$), 22.41 is the ideal gas volume (L), 12 and 28 are the molecular weight of one atom of C and 2 atoms of N, respectively, V_{HS} is the headspace volume of the glass jar (ml), V_{HS} was obtained by subtracting the volume of the jar from the volume occupied by the manure. The volume occupied by manure was determined from the measured density and mass of the manure in the jar, where volume is equivalent to mass over density. DM is the manure dry matter (g) and 60 is the conversion factor from minutes to hours. Units of gas fluxes calculated were $\text{mg CH}_4\text{-C g}^{-1} \text{ DM h}^{-1}$, $\text{mg CO}_2\text{-C g}^{-1} \text{ DM h}^{-1}$, and $\mu\text{g N}_2\text{O-N g}^{-1} \text{ DM h}^{-1}$.

For quality check, the R^2 of the calculated slopes were considered; where CO_2 slopes with $R^2 < 0.9$ and CH_4 and N_2O slopes with $R^2 < 0.7$ were considered not valid. The limit of detection (LoD) of the GC was also calculated based on Parkin et al. (2012), and fluxes below the LOD were set at 0.001. The gas fluxes were used to calculate cumulative GHG emission or uptake for the 84 days of storage using trapezoidal interpolation and finally expressed per 100 g of stored manure.

CHAPTER FOUR

RESULTS

4.1 Nutritive value of Brachiaria hay based diets supplemented with either dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*

4.1.1 Chemical Composition of the Feed Ingredients

As shown in **Table 3**, results indicate the content of dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fat (CF), neutral detergent fibre (NDF), acid detergent fibre (ADF), lignin (ADL), and ash of the feed samples that were analyzed. From the data, it is evident that dairy cubes (17.7 ± 0.06 % DM) and Desmodium (14.9 ± 0.41 % DM) had a higher percentage of CP compared to Brachiaria (5.09 ± 0.07 % DM). On the other hand, Brachiaria had a higher cellulose content (34.0 ± 0.24 % DM) compared to Desmodium (32.7 ± 0.24 % DM) and dairy cubes (12.3 ± 0.10 % DM). Conversely, Desmodium had a higher lignin content (18.6 ± 0.02 % DM) compared to Brachiaria (4.18 ± 0.02 % DM) and dairy cubes (3.60 ± 0.02 % DM).

Table 3. Nutrient composition of feed ingredients

	Feed ingredients		
	Brachiaria	Dairy cubes	Desmodium
DM (%)	95.3 ± 0.02	93.5 ± 0.17	94.6 ± 0.28
CP (% DM)	5.09 ± 0.07	17.7 ± 0.06	14.9 ± 0.41
CF (% DM)	2.80 ± 0.03	21.3 ± 0.48	7.62 ± 0.10
NDF (% DM)	69.2 ± 0.01	42.4 ± 1.03	67.5 ± 1.27
ADF (% DM)	38.2 ± 0.25	15.9 ± 0.11	51.2 ± 0.37
¹ Hemicellulose (% DM)	31.0 ± 0.25	26.5 ± 1.14	16.3 ± 0.89
² Cellulose (% DM)	34.0 ± 0.24	12.3 ± 0.10	32.7 ± 0.24
ADL (% DM)	4.18 ± 0.02	3.60 ± 0.02	18.6 ± 0.02
ASH (%)	10.8 ± 0.09	7.65 ± 0.14	6.46 ± 0.14

¹ Calculated as NDF – ADF, ² ADF – ADL. DM= dry matter, CP= crude protein, CF= crude fat, NDF= neutral detergent fiber, ADF= acid detergent fiber, ADL= acid detergent lignin. Values are mean \pm standard deviation for the analyzed duplicates.

The feed ingredients mentioned above were used to formulate three experimental diets for the study. Brachiaria was used as the control and basal diet, which was supplemented with

either dairy cubes or *Desmodium* as protein sources. The basal diet (*Brachiaria*) used in this experiment had lower CP than expected, so urea was added to the diets as an N supplement, and molasses was included as an energy supplement. The proportions of the feed ingredients allocated to each experimental diet are presented in

Table 4 below.

Table 4. Proportions of feed ingredients allocated to the experimental diets

	D₁	D₂	D₃
Feed ingredients	Control	D₁ + Dairy cubes	D₁ + <i>D. intortum</i>
Basal diet (<i>B. brizantha xaraes</i> hay)	87 %	65.6 %	35 %
N supplement - urea	0.8 %	0.8 %	0.8 %
Energy supplement - molasses	12.2 %	8.5 %	6.4 %
Experimental supplements			
Chopped <i>Desmodium intortum</i> hay	0 %	0 %	57.7%
Dairy cubes	0 %	25%	0 %

4.1.2 Chemical composition of experimental diets

The nutrient composition of the experimental diets is presented in [Table 5](#) below. The dry matter (DM) was found to be similar for all diets and ranged between 94.2 ± 0.26 and $94.6 \pm 0.02\%$. As expected, the diets that were supplemented with protein had a higher crude protein (CP) content. Diet 2 (D₂) had a CP content of $12.2 \pm 0.30\%$ DM, and Diet 3 (D₃) had a CP content of $11.3 \pm 0.48\%$ DM, while Diet 1 (D₁) had a CP content of $10.1 \pm 0.36\%$ DM. The cellulose content was found to be higher in D₃ ($39.5 \pm 0.25\%$ DM) as compared to D₁ ($36.8 \pm 0.25\%$ DM) and D₂ ($36.0 \pm 0.01\%$ DM). Additionally, the lignin content was higher in D₃ ($10.2 \pm 0.03\%$ DM) as compared to D₂ ($3.98 \pm 0.01\%$ DM) and D₁ ($3.17 \pm 0.00\%$ DM).

Table 5. Nutrient composition of experimental diets

Nutrient (%DM)	Experimental diets		
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)
DM (%)	94.2 ± 0.26	94.5 ± 0.21	94.6 ± 0.02
CP	10.1 ± 0.36	12.2 ± 0.30	11.3 ± 0.48
CF	3.68 ± 0.46	12.9 ± 0.12	8.11 ± 0.42
NDF	64.0 ± 0.03	64.7 ± 0.44	68.7 ± 0.15
ADF	39.9 ± 0.24	40.0 ± 0.02	49.7 ± 0.17
Hemicellulose	24.0 ± 0.21	24.8 ± 0.42	19.0 ± 0.31
Cellulose	36.8 ± 0.25	36.0 ± 0.01	39.5 ± 0.25
ADL	3.17 ± 0.00	3.98 ± 0.01	10.2 ± 0.03
ASH	9.76 ± 0.03	9.57 ± 0.06	8.18 ± 0.03

DM= dry matter, CP= crude protein, CF= crude fat, NDF= neutral detergent fiber, ADF= acid detergent fiber, ADL= acid detergent lignin. Values are mean ± standard deviation for the analyzed duplicates.

4.1.3 Phenol content of experimental diets

According to **Table 6**, the total tannin content (TT) differed among the diets. D₃ had a higher content (2.16 ± 0.12%) than D₁ (1.77 ± 0.06%) and D₂ (1.71 ± 0.03%). Condensed tannins also varied and were higher in D₃ (0.42 ± 0.04%) compared to D₁ (0.27 ± 0.00%) and D₂ (0.23 ± 0.04%)

Table 6. Phenol content of experimental diets

Phenol type (%)	Experimental diets			ANOVA	
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)	P	R ²
TT	1.77±0.06 _b	1.71±0.03 ^b	2.16±0.12 ^a	0.0533	0.86
CT	0.27±0.00 _b	0.23±0.04 ^b	0.42±0.04 ^a	0.051	0.86

TT= total tannins, CT= condensed tannins. Values are mean ± SE, (n=2). Different superscripts within a row indicate significant differences (P <0.05).

4.1.4 *In vitro* dry matter degradability of the feed ingredients and experimental diets

According to **Table 7**, the gas production was higher in dairy cubes (51.9 ml) in comparison with Brachiaria (40.9 ml) and Desmodium (28.5 ml). In the case of experimental diets, the gas production was comparatively lower in D₃ (34.4 ml) as compared to D₂ (47.6 ml) and D₁ (47.8 ml).

Table 7. *In-vitro* gas production and characteristic parameters of feed ingredients and experimental diets

	Cumulative gas (ml) produced at				Parameters of gas production			
	12 h	24 h	48 h	96 h	A	b	a+b	c
<i>Feed ingredients</i>								
Brachiaria	14.2	23.6	31.0	40.9	1.3	39.4	40.8	0.03
Dairy cubes	18.7	32.1	41.7	51.9	0.5	50.7	51.2	0.04
Desmodium	9.51	16.4	22.7	28.5	1.0	28.6	29.7	0.03
<i>Experimental diets</i>								
D ₁ (Control)	19.6	30.8	38.2	47.8	1.5	43.9	45.4	0.04
D ₂ (D ₁ +Dairy cubes)	21.2	30.7	38.1	47.6	3.9	41.5	45.4	0.04
D ₃ (D ₁ +Desmodium)	12.7	20.6	27.0	34.4	0.9	32.9	33.8	0.04

a, b, c are constants in the equation (Ørskov and McDonld, 1989); a = gas production (ml) from readily soluble fraction, b = gas production (ml) from insoluble but degradable fraction, (a+b) = potential gas production, c = gas production rate. Values are mean.

4.1.5 Short chain fatty acids, metabolizable energy, and organic matter digestibility by *In vitro* gas production

As shown in **Table 8**, dairy cubes had higher levels of short-chain fatty acids (SCFA) (0.92 mmol/200mg DM) compared with Brachiaria (0.68 mmol/200mg DM) and Desmodium (0.50 mmol/200mg DM). Additionally, dairy cubes had a higher organic matter digestibility (OMD) (62.7 %) compared to Brachiaria (51.4 %) and Desmodium (47.0 %). The experimental diets also showed that SCFA was higher in both D₁ and D₂ (0.84 mmol/200mg DM) compared to D₃ (0.59 mmol/200mg DM). Similarly, OMD was higher in D₂ (60.8 %) and D₁ (60.0 %) compared with D₃ (49.8 %).

Table 8. Short chain fatty acids, metabolizable energy, and organic matter digestibility of feed ingredients by *In vitro* degradability

	SCFA (mmol/200mg DM)	ME MJ/Kg DM	OMD% 48 h
<i>Feed Ingredients</i>			
Brachiaria	0.68	6.92	51.4
Dairy cubes	0.92	13.1	62.7
Desmodium	0.50	7.99	47.0
<i>Experimental diets</i>			
D ₁ (Control)	0.84	8.35	60.0
D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	0.84	12.80	60.8
D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)	0.59	8.38	49.8

4.1.6 Total apparent digestibility of dry matter, nitrogen, and fibre of the experimental diets

The data presented in **Table 9** shows that there was no significant difference in DM digestibility among the experimental diets, which ranged from 55.2 ± 2.86 to $61.8 \pm 1.83\%$. However, there was a significant difference in nitrogen digestibility, with D₂ ($67.9 \pm 2.59\%$) and D₁ ($66.6 \pm 1.33\%$) having higher digestibilities compared to D₃ ($55.3 \pm 2.63\%$). Nitrogen utilization was also significantly different, with cows fed D₁ ($38.1 \pm 2.23\%$) having a higher utilization rate compared to those fed D₃ ($15.8 \pm 4.71\%$), cows fed D₂ ($24.9 \pm 5.86\%$) had a utilization rate in between. NDF digestibility was higher in cows fed D₂ ($66.3 \pm 1.68\%$) compared to those fed D₃ ($59.9 \pm 1.82\%$).

Table 9. Apparent digestibility of DM, N, and NDF of three experimental diets fed to cows

Item	Experimental diets			ANOVA	
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)	P	R ²
DM					
Intake, kg/d	8.52 ± 0.53 ^a	10.6 ± 0.74 ^a	8.58 ± 0.79 ^a	0.1017	0.40
Feces excretion kg/d	3.41 ± 0.17 ^a	4.05 ± 0.29 ^a	3.41 ± 0.15 ^a	0.1684	0.33
Digestibility %	59.7 ± 1.15 ^a	61.8 ± 1.83 ^a	55.2 ± 2.86 ^a	0.1220	0.37
l Intake,g/day	133.6 ± 8.58 ^b	203.1 ± 14.2 ^a	148.7 ± 13.6 ^b	0.0077	0.66
Feces excretion, g/day	44.4 ± 2.04 ^b	64.2 ± 2.73 ^a	65.5 ± 2.67 ^a	0.0003	0.83
Digestibility, %	66.6 ± 1.33 ^a	67.9 ± 2.59 ^a	55.3 ± 2.63 ^b	0.0063	0.68
Urine excretion g/day	37.8 ± 2.76 ^c	86.0 ± 2.91 ^a	57.8 ± 2.72 ^b	<.0001	0.94
Net utilization %¹	38.1 ± 2.23 ^a	24.9 ± 5.86 ^{ab}	15.8 ± 4.71 ^b	0.0213	0.57
Intake, kg/d	5.45 ± 0.34 ^a	6.88 ± 0.48 ^a	5.90 ± 0.55 ^a	0.1339	0.36
NDF					
Feces excretion kg/d	1.93 ± 0.09 ^a	2.32 ± 0.21 ^a	2.35 ± 0.16 ^a	0.1829	0.31
Digestibility %	64.5 ± 1.00 ^{ab}	66.3 ± 1.68 ^a	59.9 ± 1.82 ^b	0.0399	0.51

¹Calculated as N intake - Fecal excreted N – Urine excreted N/N Intake *100,DM= dry matter, N= nitrogen, NDF= neutral detergent fibre.

Values are mean ± SE, (n=4). ^{a, b, c} Within a row, least square means without a common superscript differ ($P < 0.05$).

Effects of feeding dietary treatments (*Brachiaria* hay with dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum* supplementation) on physico-chemical, fibre, and tannin contents of manure

This objective determined excreta properties (feces, urine, and their mixture), specifically N, C, C: N ratio, fibre, and CT content, as a result of feeding three experimental diets. For manure, initial properties of freshly excreted manure as well as changes over time until the end of the incubation period of 12 weeks were determined.

4.2.1 Effect of feeding experimental diets on nitrogen (N) excretion and fecal chemical composition

Cows fed on the D₂ diet had higher N excretion rates than those fed D₁. Specifically, the urinary N increased by 46% and 49% compared with the D₁ and D₃, respectively. Consequently, the urinary N to fecal N ratio was higher ($P < 0.001$) for cows fed the D₂ compared with the D₁ and D₃.

When expressed as a proportion of the total N excreted, the amount of N in cow's feces was 12% lower for those fed the D₂ diet and 16% higher for those fed the D₃ compared with those fed D₁. Conversely, urinary N was 12% higher for cows fed the D₂ and 23% lower for cows fed D₃ compared with D₁, (**Table 10**).

Table 10. Nitrogen (N) excretions of dairy cows fed three experimental diets

Parameter	Experimental diet			<i>P</i> -value
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	D ₃ (D ₁ +Desmodium)	
Excreta Output				
Urine (kg day ⁻¹)	10.9 ± 0.26 ^a	12.2 ± 0.80 ^a	7.58 ± 0.21 ^b	<0.001
Feces (kg DM day ⁻¹)	3.28 ± 0.14 ^a	3.87 ± 0.28 ^a	3.62 ± 0.17 ^a	0.191
Nitrogen excretion (g day⁻¹)				
Feces	42.7 ± 1.90 ^b	61.2 ± 2.62 ^a	62.5 ± 2.55 ^a	<0.001
Urine	35.9 ± 0.87 ^b	66.9 ± 4.38 ^a	34.1 ± 0.93 ^b	<0.001
Total N (Fecal + Urine)	78.6 ± 1.69 ^c	128 ± 6.93 ^a	96.6 ± 3.03	<0.001
Urinary N: Fecal N	0.85 ± 0.05 ^b	1.09 ± 0.03 ^a	0.55 ± 0.02 ^c	<0.001
N, % of total N excretions				
Feces	54.3 ± 1.45 ^b	47.9 ± 0.67 ^c	64.7 ± 0.88 ^a	<0.001
Urine	45.7 ± 1.45 ^b	52.0 ± 0.67 ^a	35.3 ± 0.88 ^c	<0.001

DM= dry matter, N= nitrogen. Values are mean ± SE, (n=4). ^{a, b, c} Within a row, least square means without a common superscript differ ($P < 0.05$).

This study found that feces from cows fed with D₃ had 4% higher total carbon (C) concentrations compared with those on D₂ and D₁ (**Table 11**). Additionally, the lignin content in the feces of cows fed with D₃ was 71% higher ($P < 0.001$) than those fed with D₂ and D₁. The feces of cows fed D₃ also contained 89% more condensed tannins (CTs) than those fed D₂.

Table 11. Water, carbon, C: N, condensed tannin, and fibre content of feces excreted by dairy cows fed three experimental diets

Parameter	Experimental diet			P
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (Dairy cubes)	(D ₁ + D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)	
Water content (%)	83.2 ± 0.38 ^a	82.7±0.48 ^a	.6±0.61 ^a	0.126
Total Carbon (% DM)	42.1 ± 0.11 ^b	41.9± 0.21 ^b	.0 ± 0.24 ^a	<0.001
Carbon: Nitrogen	31.2 ± 0.51 ^a	25.3 ± 1.41 ^b	.3 ± 0.35 ^b	0.001
Hemicellulose (% DM)	24.3 ± 0.61 ^b	26.4 ± 0.51 ^a	1.7 ± 0.31 ^c	<0.001
Cellulose (% DM)	28.6 ± 0.87 ^a	26.1 ± 0.77 ^a	1.2 ± 0.74 ^a	0.055
Lignin (% DM)	3.53 ± 0.17 ^b	4.57 ± 0.06 ^b	1.9 ± 0.62 ^a	<0.001
Condensed Tannins (% DM)	BLOD	0.09 ± 0.06 ^b	32± 0.07 ^a	<0.001

BLOD= below limit of detection. Values are mean ± SE, (n=4). ^{a, b, c} Within a row, least square means without a common superscript differ ($P<0.05$).

4.2.2 Correlation between diet composition and excreta composition

The data in Table 12 shows that there was a strong positive correlation between excreta (fecal) DM and diet DM ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.003$), N ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.002$), hemicellulose ($r = 0.7$, $P = 0.018$) and cellulose ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.002$). In addition, there was a strong correlation between fecal N and diet lignin content ($r = 0.7$, $P = 0.009$), as well as diet N ($r = 0.6$, $P = 0.039$). Urine N was strongly related to diet N ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.001$). Furthermore, for fibre, fecal hemicellulose was strongly correlated with diet hemicellulose ($r = 0.9$, $P < 0.000$), DM ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.003$), N ($r = 0.8$, $P = 0.003$), and cellulose ($r = 0.7$, $P = 0.007$). Cellulose was strongly correlated with diet cellulose content ($r = 0.7$, $P = 0.014$) and DM ($r = 0.6$, $P = 0.025$), while fecal lignin was strongly related to diet lignin content ($r = 0.98$, $P < 0.0001$).

Table 13. Pearson correlation coefficients and *P* values between diet and excreta dry matter, nitrogen content, and fiber content

Excreta composition	Diet composition				
	DM	N	Hemicellulose	Cellulose	Lignin
DM	0.78440 0.0025	0.79715 0.0019	0.66673 0.0179	0.79591 0.0020	0.33504 0.2871
Fecal Nitrogen	0.46024	0.60019	0.26608	0.48377	0.71024
Urinary Nitrogen	0.1322	0.0391	0.4032	0.1110	0.0096
Total excreted N	0.62627 0.0293	0.81366 0.0013	0.61597 0.0330	0.59722	0.16209 0.6147
Hemicellulose	0.61445 0.0335	0.79910 0.0018	0.53855 0.0708	0.60176 0.0384	0.36737 0.2401
Cellulose	0.78041 0.0027	0.77674 0.0030	0.90830 <.0001	0.73387 0.0066	-0.45466 0.1375
Lignin	0.63881 0.0254	0.57205 0.0520	0.44007 0.1522	0.68125 0.0147	0.53887 0.0706
	-0.07388	-0.03987	-0.37323	-0.00268	0.98476
	0.8195	0.9021	0.2321	0.9934	<.0001

DM=dry matter, N= nitrogen content.

4.2.3 Manure properties: dry matter, nitrogen, carbon, and condensed tannin concentrations during incubation

The manure dry matter (DM) of cows fed D₃ was initially 9.6% higher than those fed D₁ (**Table 14**). The DM concentrations decreased slightly during incubation. At the end of the 12-week incubation period, manure from cows fed D₃ still had higher DM (45.9 ± 1.49) compared with D₂ (42.1 ± 1.07) and D₁ (40.0 ± 0.70).

Initial manure total nitrogen (TN) was 31% and 34% higher ($P < 0.001$) in manure from cows D₂ and D₃, respectively, compared with D₁. After 12 weeks of incubation, manure TN had decreased slightly to 0.94 ± 0.03 for D₃ and increased to 0.63 ± 0.01 for D₂, as well as for D₁ (0.63 ± 0.01).

Initial manure total carbon (TC) was 9.91 and 15.1% higher ($P = 0.004$) in manure from cows fed D₃ compared with D₂ and D₁. After 12 weeks of incubation, manure TC had decreased but was still higher for D₃ (19.8 ± 0.85), compared with D₂ (17.1 ± 0.33) and D₁ (16.1 ± 0.33).

Initial lignin content was 67% and 73% higher ($P < 0.001$) in manure from cows fed D₃ compared with those fed D₂ and D₁. After the 12-week incubation period, the lignin content had decreased but was still higher ($P = 0.004$) in incubated manure from cows fed D₃ (5.21 ± 0.33) compared with D₂ (1.31 ± 0.08) and D₁ (1.03 ± 0.04).

The initial manure condensed tannins (CTs) content was 89% higher ($P = 0.008$) in manure from cows fed D₃ compared with D₂ and D₁. During the incubation period, CTs decreased over time, and at the end of incubation, 54% of CTs in manure from cows fed D₃ had been degraded.

Table 14. Average Dry matter, total nitrogen, carbon, lignin, and condensed tannins content of fresh manure and after incubation

	DM g jar ⁻¹	TN g jar ⁻¹ DM	TC g jar ⁻¹ DM	Lignin g jar ⁻¹ DM	CT g jar ⁻¹ DM
Start (day 0)					
D ₁ : Control	44.5 ± 0.75 ^b	0.63 ± 0.01 ^c	18.0 ± 0.47 ^b	1.47 ± 0.05 ^b	0.00 ± 0.00 ^b
D ₂ : D ₁ + Dairy cubes	46.2 ± 1.29 ^{ab}	0.83 ± 0.07 ^b	19.1 ± 0.57 ^b	1.80 ± 0.12 ^b	0.03 ± 0.02 ^b
D ₃ : D ₁ + Desmodium	49.2 ± 1.22 ^a	0.96 ± 0.04 ^a	21.2 ± 0.76 ^a	5.41 ± 0.25 ^a	0.26 ± 0.08 ^a
End (Day 84)					
D ₁ : Control	40.0 ± 0.70 ^b	0.63 ± 0.01 ^c	16.1 ± 0.33 ^b	1.03 ± 0.04 ^b	0.00 ± 0.00 ^b
D ₂ : D ₁ + Dairy cubes	42.1 ± 1.07 ^b	0.87 ± 0.09 ^b	17.1 ± 0.33 ^b	1.31 ± 0.08 ^b	0.00 ± 0.00 ^b
D ₃ : D ₁ + Desmodium	45.0 ± 1.49 ^a	0.94 ± 0.03 ^a	19.8 ± 0.85 ^a	5.21 ± 0.33 ^a	0.12 ± 0.01 ^a

Values are mean ± SE, (n=4). ^{a, b, c} Within a row, least square means without a common superscript differ ($P < 0.05$).

During incubation, both diet had a significant effect on the concentration of DM, and time had a significant effect on total nitrogen and lignin as shown in **Table 15**.

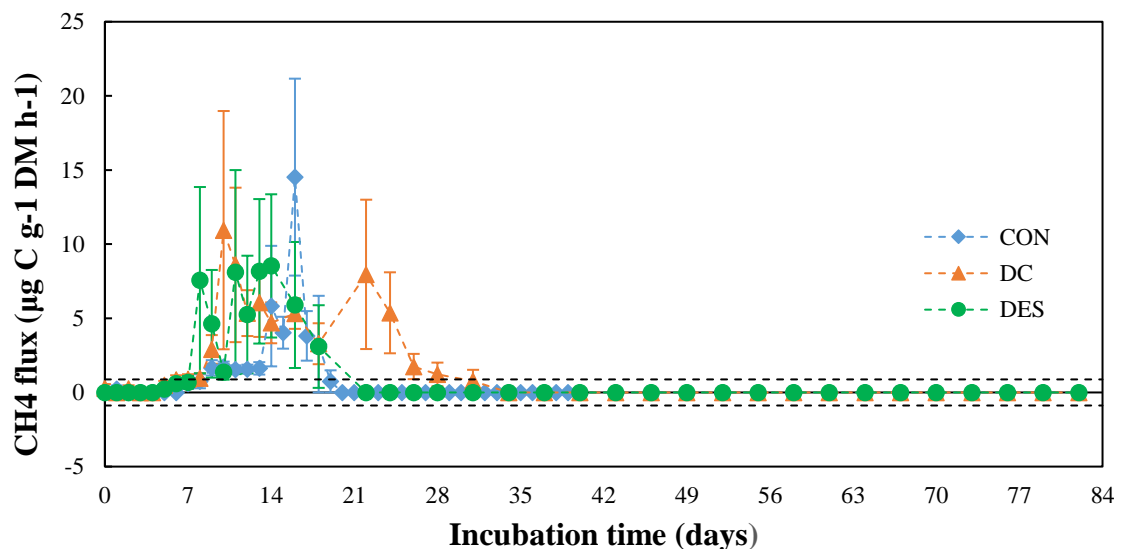
Table 15. Effect of time, diet, and their interactions on manure DM, N, C, and lignin during the 12 weeks of incubation (Repeated Measures)

Manure property	Time (F, df, P-value)	Time*Diet (F, df, P-value)	Diet (F, df, P-value)
DM	6.32, 2.27, 0.006	1.35, 4.54, 0.285	0.34, 2, 0.719
Total Nitrogen	0.77, 1.36, 0.435	0.44, 2.71, 0.711	6.39, 2, 0.019
Total Carbon	2.67, 1.35, 0.121	0.41, 2.70, 0.730	1.38, 2, 0.301
Lignin	1.24, 1.27, 0.304	0.42, 2.54, 0.714	158.3, 2, <.001

Manure CH₄ and N₂O emissions from dairy cattle fed *Brachiaria* hay supplemented with dairy cubes or *Desmodium intortum*

4.3.1 Methane emissions

Manure CH₄ flux rates from manure for all experimental diets were initially below the limit of detection (LOD) of ± 0.88 in the first five days of incubation. Subsequently, CH₄ flux rates gradually increased and peaked between days eight and 16. For cows on the Desmodium diet, the peak was at 8.54 mg C g⁻¹ DM h⁻¹, for cows on the dairy cube diet, it was at 10.9 mg C g⁻¹ DM h⁻¹, and for cows on the CON diet, it was at 14.5 mg CH₄-C g⁻¹ DM h⁻¹. After this period, the emission rates declined and remained below the detection limit until the end of the incubation period as shown in (Figure 2).

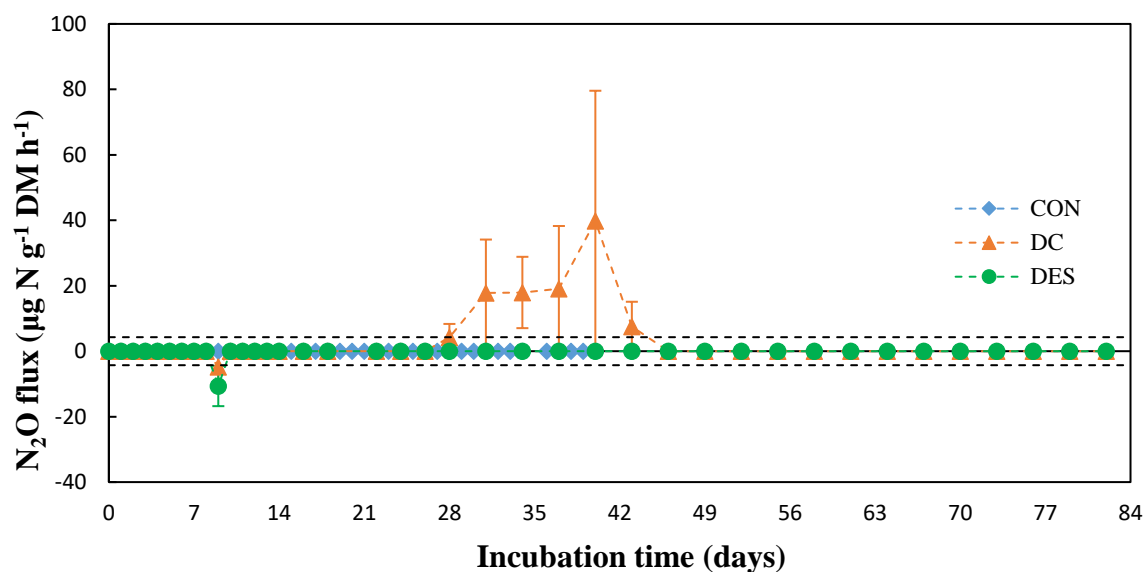


CON= Control, DC= Dairy cubes, DES=Desmodium, LOD= limit of detection. Flux values are mean \pm SE, (n=4). Limit of Detection ($= \pm 0.88$).

Figure 2: Methane (CH₄) emissions during incubation of manure from cows fed three dietary treatments

4.3.2 Nitrous oxide emissions

The manure N₂O flux rates were found to be below the LOD of ± 4.28 in the incubated manure from cows fed with the control diet and Desmodium diet throughout the entire study period. In contrast, manure from cows fed with the dairy cubes diet showed N₂O emissions ranging between 17.8 – 39.8 $\mu\text{g N g}^{-1}$ DM h⁻¹ from day 24 until day 42 (week 6), with high variability between replicates as indicated by the large error bars.



CON= Control, DC= Dairy cubes, DES=Desmodium, LoD= limit of detection. Flux values are mean \pm SE, (n=4). Limit of Detection ($= \pm 4.28$)

Figure 3: Nitrous oxide (N₂O) emissions during incubation of manure from cows fed three dietary treatments

There were no significant differences in manure CH₄ and N₂O cumulative emissions across the diets.

Table 16: Cumulative GHG emissions from incubated manure from cows fed three experimental diets

	Experimental diet			<i>P</i> -value
	D ₁ (Control)	D ₂ (D ₁ + Dairy cubes)	D ₃ (D ₁ + Desmodium)	
mg CH ₄ -C 100 g ⁻¹ stored manure for 12 weeks	35.1 \pm 8.32 ^a	62.1 \pm 33.0 ^a	49.1 \pm 13.7 ^a	0.6760
mg N ₂ O-N 100g ⁻¹ stored manure for 12 weeks	0.09 \pm 0.00 ^a	-4.20 \pm 2.51 ^a	195.2 \pm 136.0 ^a	0.1780

CHAPTER FIVE

DISCUSSION

5.1 Digestibility of experimental diets

5.1.1 Chemical composition of feed ingredients and experimental diets

Chemical composition is an indication of the nutritive value of forages and feedstuffs. It involves measuring the amounts of DM, CP, and fibre content, with CP being a critical measure of the quality of forages and feeds (Speedy & FAO, 1991). In this study, *Brachiaria* grass had a lower CP content (4.85%) compared to another study by Nguku et al. (2016), where the CP of *Brachiaria* varied between 8.0 and 11.1% depending on the harvest period. This difference in CP content could be attributed to late harvesting, which was done at a late bloom stage. The CP content of tropical forages tends to decrease rapidly as plant growth progresses due to the accumulation of cell wall carbohydrates (Van Soest, 1994). In contrast, dairy cubes had a CP of 16.6% because it is a commercial compounded protein supplement formulated to meet the nutritional requirements of dairy cows. Similarly, the legume *Desmodium intortum* had a lower CP (14.1%) compared to the 18.2% reported by another study (Ntakyo et al., 2020). The difference in CP content of the legume could also be attributed to late harvesting time, which leads to an increase in cell wall components and a reduction in CP contents (Gedamu et al., 2019).

Compared to the grass, the levels of CP in dairy cubes and *Desmodium intortum* indicate their potential as protein supplements for ruminants offered diets low in CP. To ensure a higher protein content, the right stage of harvesting should be considered for both *Brachiaria* and *Desmodium*. Regarding the diet mixtures, as expected the diets supplemented with dairy cubes (D₂) and *Desmodium* (D₃) had a higher CP (12.2 and 11.3 % DM) compared to the control diet (D₁) with no protein supplement (10.1 % DM).

Another important measure of forage and feed quality is the fibre content. Feed quality decreases as fibre content increases, but it is also an important dietary component for ruminants as some level of fibre content is required for normal rumen functioning (Van Soest et al., 1991). Fibre fractions measured typically include NDF, ADF, and ADL. In this study, for *Brachiaria* the NDF (65.9%), ADF (36.4%), and lignin (3.98%) were within the ranges reported in a study by Nguku et al. (2016). In *Desmodium*, NDF (63.9%) and ADF (48.5%) were higher in this study compared to values reported by Ntakyo et al. (2020).

5.1.2 In-vitro digestibility of feed ingredients and experimental diets

The technique used in this study measures the volume of gas produced as a result of fermentation. When feedstuffs are mixed with buffered rumen fluid in vitro, the organic matter is fermented into SCFA and gases, mainly CO₂ and CH₄ (Getachew et al., 1998). The differences in gas production among feed ingredients and experimental diets are due to differences in the amount of degradable substrate and soluble fractions being fermented.

In this study, diet with no supplement (D₁) and diet supplemented with dairy cubes (D₂) had higher gas production compared to the diet supplemented with Desmodium (D₃). The low gas production in the Desmodium diet could be due to the higher fibre content and the presence of tannins. Fiber and tannin concentrations are strongly inversely related to gas production (Debela et al., 2011). Tannins can bind with dietary proteins and carbohydrates making them unavailable for degradation (Getachew et al., 2002).

Regarding apparent digestibility, it was found that the diet supplemented with Desmodium had lower DM, N, and NDF digestibility compared to the diet supplemented with dairy cubes and the control diet. This could be explained by the high lignin and tannin content of the Desmodium. High lignin contents lower the digestibility of a diet (Rasby & Anderson, 2008) and tannins can reduce fibre digestion by directly inhibiting cellulolytic microorganisms and preventing microbial digestion as a result of forming complexes with lignocellulose (McSweeney et al., 2001). Moreover, tannins form complexes with protein (Van Soest, 1994), thus reducing the availability of N (Rufino et al., 2006) and lowering N digestibility.

In summary, the results indicate that the diet with dairy cube supplement had higher nutritional value and digestibility compared to Desmodium supplemented diet. However, this is largely due to late harvesting and losses during transportation where a lot of leafy parts were lost. Therefore, since dairy cubes are expensive and not affordable to many smallholder dairy farmers, the use of Desmodium is highly recommended as it is cheaper to grow. To ensure its benefits as a supplement, harvesting time and postharvest management practices should be considered.

5.1.3 Effect of experimental diets on excreta and manure properties

In this study, there were strong positive correlations between excreta composition and diet composition. This is logical because during digestion, nutrients that are ingested by the animal but are not digested and absorbed, or are absorbed but not utilized, are excreted (Sutton & Lander, 2003; Teenstra et al., 2015). Therefore, the composite nutrients ingested by an

animal will be reflected in the excreta. In this study, there was a strong correlation between fecal DM and diet DM, N, hemicellulose, and cellulose. Similar findings were observed in a different study by Wassie et al. (2019), where steers were fed diets at 100%, 80%, 60%, and 40% of their metabolisable energy requirement for maintenance, fecal DM was strongly correlated to DM intake ($r = 0.97$; $p < 0.001$). In another study by Nennich et al. (2005), where regression equations were developed to predict manure DM and nutrient excretion, DM intake was directly related to DM excreted.

The strong correlation between diet fibre (hemicellulose and cellulose component) and excreta DM in this study could be attributed to the strong relationship between diet NDF (hemicellulose + cellulose + lignin) and voluntary DM intake (DMI).

Nitrogen excretion in dairy cows is directly related to and predictable from N intake and DM intake (Nennich et al., 2005; Tomlinson et al., 1996; Vérité & Delaby, 2000). The concentration of N in cattle feces is correlated with the digestibility and concentration of N in the feed (FAO, 2010). In this study, fecal N was strongly correlated to diet N and lignin. The correlation of fecal N with diet ADL could be attributed to the effect of lignin on diet digestibility, a high lignin content reduces diet digestibility (Rasby & Anderson, 2008), and therefore more nutrients are excreted. For urinary N, both protein concentration and degradability of the diet influence the amount excreted (Wattiaux & Karg, 2004). In this study, urinary N was highly correlated to diet N, DM, and hemicellulose, indicating that an increase in N, DM, and hemicellulose intake increased urinary N excretion. In the model prediction studies by Nennich et al. (2005) and Tomlinson et al. (1996) on dietary effects on manure nutrient excretion, urinary N could be accurately predicted with good estimates of diet N and DM content in addition to animal body weight.

In this study, feces and manure from cows supplemented with Desmodium had a higher CT content compared to cows supplemented with dairy cubes and those fed the control diet. This was expected because the CT contained in Desmodium cannot be completely degraded by digestive enzymes (Frutos et al., 2004), resulting in excretion through both feces and urine. However, not all CT in the diet are usually recovered in the excreta (Patra & Saxena, 2011). The detergent action of bile salts and a pH >8 in the duodenum, dissociates bound CT into free CT, which undergoes conformational changes during lower intestinal passage, and the flavonoid ring structure is microbially degraded, this makes it undetectable by current analytical techniques (Perez-Maldonado & Norton, 1996).

In the present study, after excretion CTs were degraded during the manure incubation, likely due to anaerobic and/or aerobic microbial decomposition. These bacterial strains have

been isolated and are capable of degrading condensed tannins both aerobically and anaerobically, as described by Bhat et al. (1998). In a study by Tahmourespour et al. (2017), tannin-degrading bacterial strains isolated from goat feces after grazing on tannin-rich diets were able to degrade fecal tannins during laboratory incubation. In the present study, we did not measure the microbial community in the manure, therefore we can only speculate about the mechanisms and agents of tannin decomposition during our lab incubation.

As expected, due to increased N intake, the excreted N was higher in excreta from cows receiving protein supplementation with dairy cubes and Desmodium. However, although both diets were supplemented at the same CP level, cows fed dairy cubes supplemented diet had higher urinary N excretion compared to cows receiving Desmodium supplemented diet. The lower urinary N from cows fed Desmodium can be attributed to the reduction of ruminal protein degradation due to the presence of CTs in the diet. In a study by Kariuki et al. (2001), cattle supplemented with *Desmodium intortum* had low levels of rumen ammonia-N, indicating low protein degradation in the rumen. It is known that CTs reduce the degradability of protein in the rumen, thereby increasing the fraction of protein available for digestion in the small intestine, and this shift in the site of protein digestion results in reduced urinary-N excretion and a shift towards fecal-N (Mueller-Harvey, 2006).

In this study, the manure N concentration decreased over time during the incubation. Some of this might be attributed to losses via ammonia volatilization, which is the largest pathway of manure N loss during the first week of manure storage (Lee et al., 2011) but was not measured in this study. Other pathways of gaseous N loss are via nitrification resulting in NO_x emissions, and via denitrification resulting in dinitrogen (N₂) and N₂O emissions (Montes et al., 2013). Only N₂O emissions were measured in this study as the focus was on GHG emissions, and the other gases would have required a different analytical setup that was unavailable. Because the laboratory incubation was conducted in glass jars, no leaching losses of manure N were expected.

Carbon content was higher in feces and manure from cows supplemented with Desmodium compared with cows supplemented with dairy cubes and with no supplement (control diet). This could be explained by the low apparent DM and NDF digestibility for Desmodium supplemented diet as a result of high lignin and CT content. In the present study, during manure incubation, C content decreased over time due to gaseous losses through CO₂ and CH₄ emissions (Shan et al., 2019). During incubation, the marked reduction in concentrations of manure properties and the significant effect of time could be attributed to

biochemical processes that lead to continuous changes in manure quantity and quality (Li et al., 2012).

5.1.4 Effect of Manure Properties on CH₄ and N₂O Emissions during Incubation

On methane emissions, in contrast to our expectation, we found that CH₄ emissions were below LOD for the first five days of incubation. Fresh manure contains metabolically active methanogens from the hindgut and is high in degradable organic matter and moisture content, theoretically creating anaerobic conditions that favour the production of CH₄ (Hindrichsen et al., 2005). Consequently, others have found that CH₄ fluxes were highest immediately after manure excretion and decreased as the manure dried out (Leitner et al., 2021; Zhu et al., 2021). It is possible that in our study, methanogens may have been disturbed by the manure preparation (mixing of dung for homogenization, stirring to mix urine and dung) for the incubation setup, for example by mixing air into the manure during sample preparation, which suppressed methanogen activity.

At the end of the first week, CH₄ emissions gradually increased and remained elevated until the end of the third week, after which they returned to levels <LOD until the end of the incubation. This could be explained by the drying of the manure over time, as well as the formation of a crust, which has the potential to consume and significantly reduce CH₄ emissions during storage via bacterial CH₄ oxidation (Ambus & Petersen, 2005; Nielsen et al., 2013). In this study, crust formation was observed after 18 days, and after 49 days (7 weeks) the manure in the jars had dried out completely (i.e., no further moisture loss was observed).

During the manure incubation period, we found that most of the N₂O fluxes were below the LOD, except for a short period of N₂O emissions in the dairy cube supplemented diet. For N₂O emissions to occur, several conditions must be met: the presence of enough NO₃⁻ for denitrification, presence of labile C for heterotrophic denitrifiers, and the right moisture content (i.e., moderately moist but not too dry nor too wet) to give the right proportion of aerobic versus anaerobic microsites (Butterbach-Bahl et al., 2013). In fresh manure, most N is present as organic N, which first needs to be broken down into NH₄⁺ and then nitrified to NO₃⁻. Consequently, several studies have reported a time lag of N₂O emissions of several days (Petersen et al., 2004; Zhu et al., 2021) to weeks (Leitner et al., 2021) after the start of manure incubation, similar to what we have found in this study (emission window from day 28 to 42). Furthermore, the manure C:N ratio in the present study (24.3-31.2) was relatively high compared to other studies, which have simulated a more “Western” diet (e.g. C:N = 23.8 in

Chadwick (2005); C:N = 20.6 in Parkinson (2004). Therefore, it seems plausible that in the present study, manure N-content was limiting denitrification in the control diet (C: N = 31.2 ± 0.5) whereas sufficient N was present for N₂O production in the dairy cube supplemented treatment (C: N = 25.3 ± 1.4). In addition, there might have been an additional effect of CTs on N₂O emissions, which might explain the fact that we did not see N₂O emissions in the Desmodium supplemented treatment (C: N = 24.3 ± 0.4), even though the C: N ratio was similar compared to the dairy cube treatment. As mentioned earlier, the Desmodium supplemented diet led to a shift from urinary-N to faecal-N excretion. Previous studies in Kenya have found that urinary-N is more labile and promotes N₂O emissions from cattle urine patches, whereas dung patches led to lower or negligible N₂O emissions (Zhu et al., 2021, 2021a). In addition, the DES diet likely led to the formation of CT-protein complexes, which has been shown to inhibit microbial decomposition (Min et al., 2022) and potentially led to a slower release of mineral N in the Desmodium supplemented diets, further suppressing N₂O emissions. Finally, the manure incubation simulated aerobic decomposition, as no water was added during incubation to replace water lost through evaporation, and manure dried out over time. Consequently, the conditions in the manure might have been too dry for denitrification (Lee et al., 2011; Montes et al., 2013).

CHAPTER SIX

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

6.1 Conclusions

- i. The diet supplemented with dairy cubes and control had higher organic matter digestibility compared to the diet supplemented with Desmodium.
- ii. Diets supplemented with dairy cubes and Demodium resulted in higher N excretion compared to the control diet with no supplement. Although both diets were formulated to have the same CP content, urinary N was higher for dairy cube than for Desmodium supplementation
- iii. Manure CH₄ and N₂O emissions were lower for incubated manure from cows supplemented with Desmodium compared to dairy cubes, albeit not significantly due to large variability between experimental animals.

6.2 Recommendations

- i. The use of improved forage such as Brachiaria grass can be adopted by dairy farmers due to the high organic matter digestibility, but care should be taken to ensure the grass is harvested before late bloom stage for higher CP contents. Desmodium can be used as a protein supplement but similarly, harvesting time should be considered for higher CP, lower fibre contents, and higher digestibility.
- ii. Protein supplements influence N excretion, to lower N excreted and lost, the use of *Desmodium intortum* can be adopted by dairy farmers as it lowers urinary N, which is the N fraction that is most easily lost from the manure.
- iii. *Desmodium intortum* (leguminous forage) can be used as a protein supplement in dairy diets to lower manure CH₄ and N₂O emissions.

6.3 Further Research

More studies on the effect of diets and animal breed on manure properties and manure GHG emissions in Kenya should be done for conclusive information and if possible quantification of all gases including ammonia. Care should be taken to either increase the number of experimental animals or to mix and homogenize the manure from all treatments to account for variability between individual animals. Given that this was a laboratory incubation, only limited conclusions on absolute GHG emissions can be drawn. Studies that investigate GHG emissions on a larger scale, e.g. from manure stockpiles or slurry tanks are needed to

inform on absolute GHG emissions and derive emission factors that are representative of African smallholder dairy systems.

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APPENDICES

8.1 Appendix 1: Statistical analysis output

Analysis of variance

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Diet Total phenol

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	0.12093333	0.06046667	4.03	0.1412
Error	3	0.04500000	0.01500000		
Corrected Total	5	0.16593333			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	tp Mean
0.728807	5.609518	0.122474	2.183333

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	0.12093333	0.06046667	4.03	0.1412

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
	A	2.3800	2 3
	A	2.1200	2 1
	A	2.0500	2 2

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Total tannins

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	0.23663333	0.11831667	9.09	0.0533
Error	3	0.03905000	0.01301667		
Corrected Total	5	0.27568333			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	tt Mean
0.858352	6.063274	0.114091	1.881667

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	0.23663333	0.11831667	9.09	0.0533

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
	A	2.1600	2 3
	A	1.7750	2 1
	A	1.7100	2 2

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Condensed tannins

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	0.04013333	0.02006667	9.41	0.0510
Error	3	0.00640000	0.00213333		
Corrected Total	5	0.04653333			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	ct Mean
0.862464	15.06131	0.046188	0.306667

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	0.04013333	0.02006667	9.41	0.0510

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
	A	0.42000	2 3
	A	0.27000	2 1
	A	0.23000	2 2

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Dry Matter Digestibility

		Sum of			
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	91.9980667	45.9990333	2.68	0.1220
Error	9	154.3380250	17.1486694		
Corrected Total	11	246.3360917			
	R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	DMD Mean	
	0.373466	7.030821	4.141095	58.89917	

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	91.99806667	45.99903333	2.68	0.1220

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
	A	61.793	4 2
	A	59.738	4 1
	A	55.168	4 3

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Nitrogen Digestibility

		Sum of			
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	384.7748167	192.3874083	9.37	0.0063
Error	9	184.8662750	20.5406972		
Corrected Total	11	569.6410917			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	ND Mean
0.675469	7.163150	4.532185	63.27083

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	384.7748167	192.3874083	9.37	0.0063

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
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A	67.945	4	2			
		A	66.565	4	1	
		B	55.303	4	3	

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: Nitrogen Utilization

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	998.674817	499.337408	6.09	0.0213
Error	9	738.362850	82.040317		
Corrected Total	11	1737.037667			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	NU Mean
0.574930	34.48767	9.057611	26.26333

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	998.6748167	499.3374083	6.09	0.0213

Tukey Grouping		Mean	N	DIET
	A	38.063	4	1
B A	24.883		4	2
	B	15.845	4	3

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: NDF Digestibility

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	89.3558000	44.6779000	4.71	0.0399
Error	9	85.4273000	9.4919222		
Corrected Total	11	174.7831000			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	NDFD Mean
0.511238	4.846844	3.080896	63.56500

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	89.35580000	44.67790000	4.71	0.0399

Tukey Grouping		Mean	N	DIET
	A	66.340	4	2
B A	64.500		4	1
	B	59.855	4	3

Excreta properties ANOVA

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: Dung Carbon

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	804.9097167	402.4548583	21.22	0.0004

Error	9	170.7044500	18.9671611
Corrected Total	11	975.6141667	

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	C Mean
0.825029	1.066080	4.355130	408.5183

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	804.9097167	402.4548583	21.22	0.0004

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	419.758	4	3
B	405.323	4	1
B	400.475	4	2

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Dung Nitrogen

		Sum of			
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	38.73090417	19.36545208	16.18	0.0010
Error	9	10.77151875	1.19683542		
Corrected Total	11	49.50242292			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	DN Mean
0.782404	7.085682	1.094000	15.43958

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	38.73090417	19.36545208	16.18	0.0010

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	17.3038	4	3
A	16.0025	4	2
B	13.0125	4	1

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Urine Nitrogen

		Sum of			
Source	DF	Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	43.65851667	21.82925833	20.13	0.0005
Error	9	9.75855000	1.08428333		
Corrected Total	11	53.41706667			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	UN Mean
0.817314	16.88577	1.041289	6.166667

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	43.65851667	21.82925833	20.13	0.0005

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	7.5725	4	3
A	7.4575	4	2
B	3.4700	4	1

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: Dung Hemicellulose

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	209.0767167	104.5383583	108.18	<.0001
Error	9	8.6969750	0.9663306		
Corrected Total	11	217.7736917			

	R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	HEM Mean
	0.960064	4.376601	0.983021	22.46083

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	209.0767167	104.5383583	108.18	<.0001

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	26.3675	4	2
B	24.3400	4	1
C	16.6750	4	3

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: Dung Cellulose

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	21.16295000	10.58147500	4.17	0.0523
Error	9	22.84025000	2.53780556		
Corrected Total	11	44.00320000			

	R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	CELL Mean
	0.480941	5.695564	1.593049	27.97000

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	21.16295000	10.58147500	4.17	0.0523

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	29.225	4	3
A	28.553	4	1
A	26.133	4	2

The GLM Procedure
Dependent Variable: Dung Lignin

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	374.9556500	187.4778250	337.84	<.0001
Error	9	4.9943750	0.5549306		
Corrected Total	11	379.9500250			

	R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	LIGN Mean
	0.986855	9.326280	0.744937	7.987500

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	374.9556500	187.4778250	337.84	<.0001

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	15.8700	4	3
B	4.5650	4	2
B	3.5275	4	1

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Dung Total Phenols

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	2.74155000	1.37077500	20.23	0.0005
Error	9	0.60995000	0.06777222		
Corrected Total	11	3.35150000			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	TP Mean
0.818007	22.93665	0.260331	1.135000

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	2.74155000	1.37077500	20.23	0.0005

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	1.5725	4	3
A	1.3625	4	2
B	0.4700	4	1

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Dung Total Tannins

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	2.59935000	1.29967500	26.12	0.0002
Error	9	0.44775000	0.04975000		
Corrected Total	11	3.04710000			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	TT Mean
0.853057	20.18526	0.223047	1.105000

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	2.59935000	1.29967500	26.12	0.0002

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	1.5725	4	3
A	1.2725	4	2
B	0.4700	4	1

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Dung Condensed Tannins

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	1.38165000	0.69082500	75.32	<.0001
Error	9	0.08255000	0.00917222		

Corrected Total 11 1.46420000

R-Square Coeff Var Root MSE CT Mean
 0.943621 34.20419 0.095772 0.280000

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr > F
DIET	2	1.38165000	0.69082500	75.32	<.0001

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	DIET
A	0.75750	4	3
B	0.08250	4	2
B	0.00000	4	1

Correlation analysis between nutrient intake and nutrient excreted

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 12

Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

Pearson Correlation Coefficients, N = 12

Prob > |r| under H0: Rho=0

	DMI	DMO	NI	FN	UN	NO
DMI	1.00000	0.78440	0.95536	0.46024	0.62627	0.61445
	0.0025	<.0001	0.1322	0.0293	0.0335	

DMO	0.78440	1.00000	0.79715	0.73824	0.57470	0.67646
	0.0025	0.0019	0.0061	0.0506	0.0157	

NI	0.95536	0.79715	1.00000	0.60019	0.81366	0.79910
<.0001	0.0019		0.0391	0.0013	0.0018	

	HEMI	HEMO	CELLI	CELLO	LIGI	LIGO
DMI	0.94978	0.78041	0.99634	0.63881	0.07111	-0.07388
<.0001	0.0027	<.0001	0.0254	0.8262	0.8195	

DMO	0.66673	0.65056	0.79591	0.87563	0.33504	0.25943
0.0179	0.0220	0.0020	0.0002	0.2871	0.4155	

NI	0.91860	0.77674	0.94031	0.57205	0.10667	-0.03987
<.0001	0.0030	<.0001	0.0520	0.7414	0.9021	

	DMI	DMO	NI	FN	UN	NO
FN	0.46024	0.73824	0.60019	1.00000	0.69307	0.85334
0.1322	0.0061	0.0391		0.0125	0.0004	

UN	0.62627	0.57470	0.81366	0.69307	1.00000	0.96722
0.0293	0.0506	0.0013	0.0125		<.0001	

NO	0.61445	0.67646	0.79910	0.85334	0.96722	1.00000
0.0335	0.0157	0.0018	0.0004	<.0001		
HEMI	0.94978	0.66673	0.91860	0.26608	0.61597	0.53855
<.0001	0.0179	<.0001	0.4032	0.0330	0.0708	
HEMO	0.78041	0.65056	0.77674	0.15909	0.53843	0.44561
0.0027	0.0220	0.0030	0.6214	0.0709	0.1466	
CELLI	0.99634	0.79591	0.94031	0.48377	0.59722	0.60176
<.0001	0.0020	<.0001	0.1110	0.0403	0.0384	
CELLO	0.63881	0.87563	0.57205	0.62299	0.28036	0.42336
0.0254	0.0002	0.0520	0.0305	0.3774	0.1703	
LIGI	0.07111	0.33504	0.10667	0.71024	0.16209	0.36737
0.8262	0.2871	0.7414	0.0096	0.6147	0.2401	
LIGO	-0.07388	0.25943	-0.03987	0.64812	0.04267	0.25934
0.8195	0.4155	0.9021	0.0226	0.8953	0.4157	
	HEMI	HEMO	CELLI	CELLO	LIGI	LIGO
FN	0.26608	0.15909	0.48377	0.62299	0.71024	0.64812
0.4032	0.6214	0.1110	0.0305	0.0096	0.0226	
UN	0.61597	0.53843	0.59722	0.28036	0.16209	0.04267
0.0330	0.0709	0.0403	0.3774	0.6147	0.8953	
NO	0.53855	0.44561	0.60176	0.42336	0.36737	0.25934
0.0708	0.1466	0.0384	0.1703	0.2401	0.4157	
HEMI	1.00000	0.90830	0.92126	0.44007	-0.23444	-0.37323
	<.0001	<.0001	0.1522	0.4633	0.2321	
HEMO	0.90830	1.00000	0.73387	0.37576	-0.45466	-0.54894
<.0001		0.0066	0.2287	0.1375	0.0645	
	HEMI	HEMO	CELLI	CELLO	LIGI	LIGO
CELLI	0.92126	0.73387	1.00000	0.68125	0.14065	-0.00268
<.0001	0.0066			0.0147	0.6628	0.9934
CELLO	0.44007	0.37576	0.68125	1.00000	0.53887	0.48187
0.1522	0.2287	0.0147		0.0706	0.1127	
LIGI	-0.23444	-0.45466	0.14065	0.53887	1.00000	0.98476
0.4633	0.1375	0.6628	0.0706			<.0001

LIGO	-0.37323	-0.54894	-0.00268	0.48187	0.98476	1.00000
	0.2321	0.0645	0.9934	0.1127	<.0001	

Repeated measures analysis

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Dependent Variable: Manure Water content (wc)

Repeated Measures Level Information

Dependent Variable	wc1	wc2	wc3	wc4	wc5	wc6
Level of time	1	2	3	4	5	6

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	540.6081333	270.3040667	10.90	0.0039
Error	9	223.1207042	24.7911894		

Sphericity Tests

Variables	DF	Criterion	Mauchly's Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq
Transformed Variates	14	0.0030923	41.029808	0.0002
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0011658	47.955844	<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no time Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for time

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda	0.0002520		3967.22	5	5 <.0001
Pillai's Trace	0.9997480	3967.22	5	5	<.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	3967.2206681	3967.22	5	5	<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root		3967.2206681	3967.22	5	5 <.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no time*diet Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for time*diet

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda	0.03652697		4.23	10	10 0.0162
Pillai's Trace	1.28318305	2.15	10	12	0.1052
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	17.62432101	8.46	10	5.3333	0.0121
Roy's Greatest Root		17.11285090	20.54	5	6 0.0010

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Dependent Variable: Manure Total Carbon (TC)

Repeated Measures Level Information						
Dependent Variable	TC1	TC2	TC3	TC4	TC5	TC6
Level of TIME	1	2	3	4	5	6

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr>F
DIET	2	129.9455083	64.9727542	1.59	0.2558
Error	9	367.2134292	40.8014921		

Sphericity Tests

Mauchly's

Variables	DF	Criterion	Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq
Transformed Variates	14	0.0068715	35.360688	0.0013
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0090384	33.41451	0.0025

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no TIME

Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr>F
Wilks' Lambda	0.0002874	3478.03	5	5	<.0001
Pillai's Trace	0.9997126	3478.03	5	5	<.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	3478.0300651	3478.03	5	5	<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root	3478.0300651	3478.03	5	5	<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no TIME*DIET Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME*DIET

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr>F
Wilks' Lambda	0.30545681	0.81	10	10	0.6277
Pillai's Trace	0.80749264	0.81	10	12	0.6237
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	1.90401304	0.91	10	5.3333	0.5767
Roy's Greatest Root	1.68449827	2.02	5	6	0.2083

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Dependent Variable: Manure Total Nitrogen (TN)

Repeated Measures Level Information						
Dependent Variable	TN1	TN2	TN3	TN4	TN5	TN6
Level of TIME	1	2	3	4	5	6

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	11.90396944	5.95198472	8.65	0.0080
Error	9	6.19101250	0.68789028		

Sphericity Tests		Mauchly's			
Variables	DF	Criterion	Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq	
Transformed Variates	14	0.002543	42.418254	0.0001	
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0163695	29.197593	0.0098	

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no TIME Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME
E = Error SSCP Matrix
S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda	0.0002103	4754.13	5	5	<.0001
Pillai's Trace	0.9997897	4754.13	5	5	<.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	4754.1302549	4754.13	5	5	<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root	4754.1302549	4754.13	5	5	<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no TIME*DIET Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME*DIET
E = Error SSCP Matrix
S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda	0.00671074	11.21	10	10	0.0004
Pillai's Trace	1.49710055	3.57	10	12	0.0203
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	72.93948683	35.01	10	5.3333	0.0004
Roy's Greatest Root	71.89525430	86.27	5	6	<.0001

The GLM Procedure
Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance
Dependent Variable: Manure Hemicellulose (HEM)

Repeated Measures Level Information

Dependent Variable	HEM1	HEM2	HEM3	HEM4	HEM5	HEM6
Level of TIME	1	2	3	4	5	6

The GLM Procedure
Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	4131.821769	2065.910885	124.77	<.0001
Error	9	149.022825	16.558092		

Sphericity Tests		Mauchly's		
Variables	DF	Criterion	Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq

Transformed Variates	14	0.0332396	24.168485	0.0437
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0347177	23.859588	0.0476

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no TIME

Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda		0.00104834		952.89	5 5
Pillai's Trace	0.99895166		952.89	5	5 <.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	952.89266801	952.89	5	5	<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root		952.89266801	952.89	5	5 <.0001

<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no TIME*DIET Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME*DIET

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F
Wilks' Lambda	0.01439276	7.34	10	10	0.0021
Pillai's Trace	1.38845129	2.72	10	12	0.0517
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	40.49003136	19.44	10	5.3333	0.0016
Roy's Greatest Root	39.78654329	47.74	5	6	<.0001

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Dependent Variable: Manure Cellulose (CELL)

Repeated Measures Level Information

Dependent Variable	CELL1	CELL2	CELL3	CELL4	CELL5	CELL6
Level of TIME	1	2	3	4	5	6

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	160.2384694	80.1192347	3.13	0.0932
Error	9	230.7088458	25.6343162		

Sphericity Tests

Mauchly's

Variables	DF	Criterion	Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq
Transformed Variates	14	0.0163939	29.187022	0.0099
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0182328	28.432197	0.0125

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no TIME

Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5						
Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F	
Wilks' Lambda	0.00146616		681.05	5	5	<.0001
Pillai's Trace	0.99853384		681.05	5	5	<.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	681.05276069	681.05	5	5		<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root	681.05276069		681.05	5	5	<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no TIME*DIET Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME*DIET

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F	
Wilks' Lambda		0.08072313	2.52	10	10	0.0805
Pillai's Trace	1.41210555	2.88	10	12		0.0430
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	5.28285021	2.54	10	5.3333		0.1491
Roy's Greatest Root	3.57520957		4.29	5	6	0.0524

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Dependent Variable: Manure Lignin (LIG)

Repeated Measures Level Information

Dependent Variable	LIG1	LIG2	LIG3	LIG4	LIG5	LIG6
Level of TIME	1	2	3	4	5	6

The GLM Procedure

Repeated Measures Analysis of Variance

Tests of Hypotheses for Between Subjects Effects

Source	DF	Type III SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	5347.037053	2673.518526	1152.02	<.0001
Error	9	20.886458	2.320718		

Sphericity Tests

Mauchly's

Variables	DF	Criterion	Chi-Square	Pr>ChiSq
Transformed Variates	14	0.0231641	26.732588	0.0209
Orthogonal Components	14	0.0167076	29.052427	0.0103

MANOVA Test Criteria and Exact F Statistics for the Hypothesis of no TIME Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=1 M=1.5 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F	
Wilks' Lambda	0.0006715		1488.15	5	5	<.0001
Pillai's Trace	0.9993285		1488.15	5	5	<.0001
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	1488.1528800	1488.15	5	5		<.0001
Roy's Greatest Root	1488.1528800		1488.15	5	5	<.0001

MANOVA Test Criteria and F Approximations for the Hypothesis of no TIME*DIET Effect

H = Type III SSCP Matrix for TIME*DIET

E = Error SSCP Matrix

S=2 M=1 N=1.5

Statistic	Value	F Value	Num DF	Den DF	Pr> F	
Wilks' Lambda	0.00152045		24.65		10	10
						<.0001
Pillai's Trace	1.27573744		2.11		10	12
						0.1100
Hotelling-Lawley Trace	474.34764004	227.69	10	5.3333	<.0001	
Roy's Greatest Root		473.96289987	568.76		5	6
						<.0001

ANOVA

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Manure condensed tannin at day 0

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	0.56051667	0.28025833	8.79	0.0077
Error	9	0.28697500	0.03188611		
Corrected Total	11	0.84749167			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	ct Mean
0.661383	96.95936	0.178567	0.184167

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	0.56051667	0.28025833	8.79	0.0077

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
A	0.4875	4	3
B	0.0650	4	2
B	0.0000	4	1

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Manure condensed tannins at day 28

Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	0.12403333	0.06201667	45.94	0.0056
Error	3	0.00405000	0.00135000		
Corrected Total	5	0.12808333			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	ct Mean
0.968380	36.14001	0.036742	0.101667

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
diet	2	0.12403333	0.06201667	45.94	0.0056

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
A	0.30500	2	3

B	0.00000	2	2
B	0.00000	2	1

Cumulative emissions ANOVA

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Methane (CH₄)

Source	Sum of DF	Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	2819344.34	1409672.17	1.04	0.3931
Error	9	12226724.83	1358524.98		
Corrected Total	11	15046069.18			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	CH Mean
0.187381	60.01303	1165.558	1942.175

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	2819344.343	1409672.172	1.04	0.3931

	Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
A	2607.5	4	2	
A	1752.2	4	1	
A	1466.7	4	3	

The GLM Procedure

Dependent Variable: Nitrous oxide (N₂O)

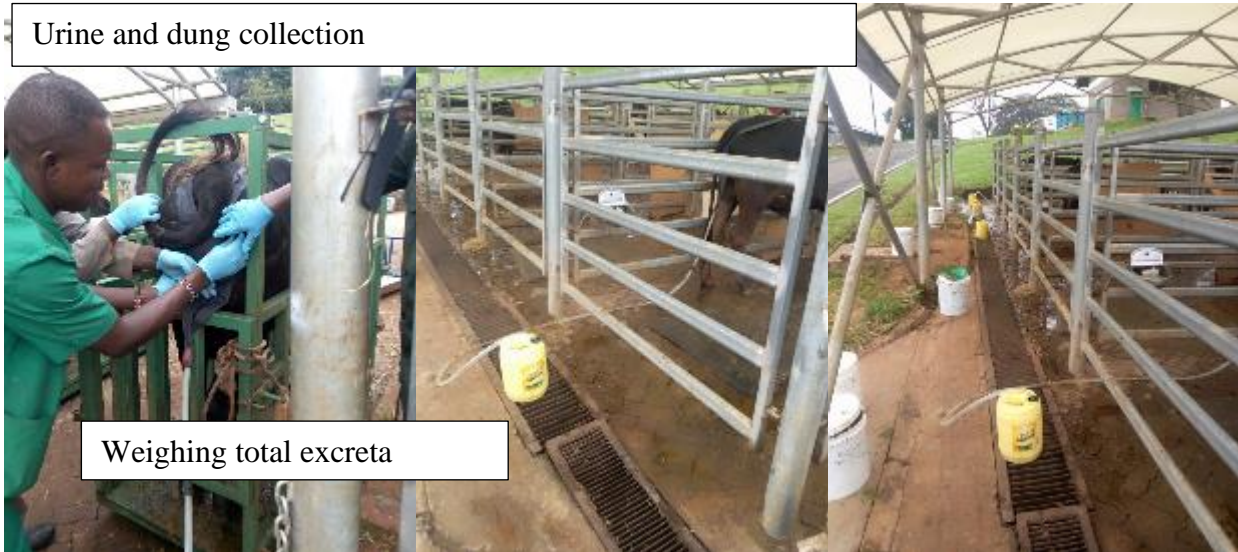
Source	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
Model	2	154484341.0	77242170.5	2.03	0.1874
Error	9	342674163.6	38074907.1		
Corrected Total	11	497158504.6			

R-Square	Coeff Var	Root MSE	NO Mean
0.310735	243.0154	6170.487	2539.134

Source	DF	Type I SS	Mean Square	F Value	Pr> F
DIET	2	154484341.0	77242170.5	2.03	0.1874

Tukey Grouping	Mean	N	diet
A	7613	4	2
A	2	4	1
A	2	4	3

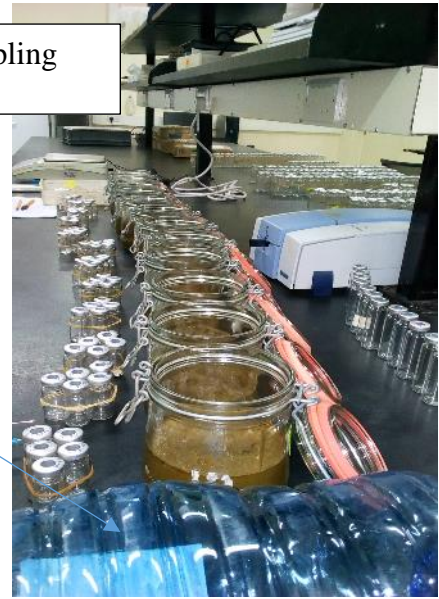
8.2 Appendix 2: Photos of invitro gas production and manure incubation



Manure incubation



Gas sampling



Air for refilling

Crust formation 3rd week of storage



8.3 Appendix 3: Research permit



Ref No: 306493

Date of Issue: 10/March/2021

RESEARCH LICENSE



This is to Certify that Miss. Naomi Jeruto Chepsuge of Egerton University, has been licensed to conduct research in Nairobi on the topic: EFFECTS OF SUPPLEMENTING BRACHLARIA BASED DIETS WITH DAIRY CUBES OR DESMODIUM ON DIET DIGESTIBILITY AND MANURE GREENHOUSE GAS EMISSIONS for the period ending : 10/March/2022.

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8.4 Appendix 4: Publication Abstract

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Effects of supplementing tropical dairy cows with different dietary protein sources on nitrogen excretion and manure greenhouse gas emissions

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Abstract

In Kenya, commercial concentrates and leguminous forages are widely used as protein sources in dairy production. However, little is known on their impact on manure greenhouse gas emissions. This study compared manure chemical composition, nitrogen excretion rates, and methane and nitrous oxide emissions in a controlled laboratory experiment. Fresh manure was collected from lactating dairy cows fed on a basal diet of *Brachiaria* (*Brachiaria brizantha* cv. *Xaraes*) hay (control, CON) and supplemented with either *Desmodium* (*Desmodium intortum*) hay (DES) or dairy cubes (CUBES) and incubated in 1 L mason jars at 20 °C for 84 days. Results showed that DES and CUBES supplementation increased nitrogen excreted both in faeces (1.81±0.02% DM, 1.68±0.10% DM) and urine (0.76±0.05%, 0.75±0.07%) compared to the CON (faeces: 1.35±0.02% DM, urine: 0.35±0.02%). These findings suggest that protein supplements affect manure composition, though in-situ studies are needed to understand their impact on manure emissions.