

**UNIVERSIDADE ESTADUAL PAULISTA “JÚLIO DE MESQUITA FILHO”
FACULDADE DE CIÊNCIAS AGRÁRIAS E VETERINÁRIAS
CAMPUS DE JABOTICABAL**

**IMPACTO DA SUPLEMENTAÇÃO COM BLOCOS
MULTIFUNCIONAIS SOBRE OS PARÂMETROS
NUTRICIONAIS E DIVERSIDADE BACTERIANA RUMINAL DE
NOVILHOS NELORE**

Rayanne Viana Costa

Zootecnista

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NOVILHOS NELORE**

Rayanne Viana Costa

Orientadora: Profa. Dra. Jane Maria Bertocco Ezequiel

Co-orientadora: Dra. Yury Tatiana Granja-Salcedo

Tese apresentada à Faculdade de Ciências Agrárias e Veterinárias - Unesp, Campus de Jaboticabal, como parte das exigências para obtenção do título de Doutor em Zootecnia.

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CERTIFICADO DE APROVAÇÃO

TÍTULO DA TESE: IMPACTO DA SUPLEMENTAÇÃO COM BLOCOS MULTIFUNCIONAIS SOBRE OS PARÂMETROS NUTRICIONAIS E DIVERSIDADE BACTERIANA RUMINAL DE NOVILHOS NELORE

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Jaboticabal, 03 de agosto de 2021

DADOS CURRICULARES DA AUTORA

Rayanne Viana Costa, nascida no dia 05 de agosto de 1992, em Tangará da Serra, no estado de Mato Grosso, filha de Edivaldo Ferreira Costa e Vilma Viana da Silva Costa. No ano de 2010, ingressou no curso de graduação em Zootecnia pela Faculdade de Agronomia e Zootecnia (FAAZ) da Universidade Federal de Mato Grosso - UFMT, campus Cuiabá, concluindo em dezembro de 2014. Em março de 2015 ingressou Mestrado em Ciência Animal na área de produção de ruminantes na mesma instituição, sob orientação do Prof. Dr. Luciano da Silva Cabral, concluindo em fevereiro de 2017. Neste mesmo ano, ingressou no doutorado em Zootecnia na área de nutrição e alimentação de ruminantes pela Faculdade de Ciências Agrárias e Veterinárias da Universidade Estadual Paulista “Júlio de Mesquita Filho” (UNESP) – Campus de Jaboticabal, sob orientação da Profa. Dra. Jane Maria Bertocco Ezequiel. Participou do Programa Doutorado Sanduíche no Exterior (PDSE – CAPES) atuando como pesquisadora visitante no Commonwealth Scientific and Industrial Research Organisation (CSIRO – Brisbane, Austrália), sob orientação do Dr. Christopher Mcsweeney.

Epígrafe

“Não fui eu que lhe ordenei? Seja forte e corajoso! Não se apavore, nem se desanime, pois o Senhor, o seu Deus, estará com você por onde você andar”. (Josué 1:9)

Dedicatória

*Aos meus pais, **Edivaldo e Vilma** pelos exemplos de dignidade e amor, por acreditar em mim e ser a razão de meus esforços.*

*Ao meu irmão, **Rafael**, e minhas sobrinhas, **Sophia e Anna Samara**, pelo apoio e amor incondicional.*

*A minha avó **Ana Alves da Costa** (in memoriam), exemplo de perseverança, me fazendo acreditar que meus sonhos poderiam ser concretizados.*

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A todos que contribuíram direta e indiretamente para execução desse projeto.

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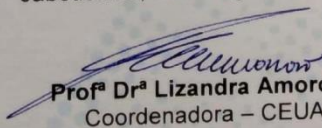
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CERTIFICADO

Certificamos que o projeto intitulado “Desempenho nutricional de bovinos suplementados com mistura de umidade baixa (MUB®)”, protocolo nº 010216/17, sob a responsabilidade da Prof.^a Dr.^a Jane Maria Bertocco Ezequiel, que envolve a produção, manutenção e/ou utilização de animais pertencentes ao Filo Chordata, subfilo Vertebrata (exceto o homem), para fins de pesquisa científica (ou ensino) - encontra-se de acordo com os preceitos da lei nº 11.794, de 08 de outubro de 2008, no decreto 6.899, de 15 de julho de 2009, e com as normas editadas pelo Conselho Nacional de Controle de Experimentação Animal (CONCEA), e foi aprovado pela COMISSÃO DE ÉTICA NO USO DE ANIMAIS (CEUA), da FACULDADE DE CIÊNCIAS AGRÁRIAS E VETERINÁRIAS, UNESP - CÂMPUS DE JABOTICABAL-SP, em reunião ordinária de 03 de Agosto de 2017.

Vigência do Projeto	10/08/2017 a 20/04/2018
Espécie / Linhagem	<i>Bos taurus</i>
Nº de animais	06
Peso / Idade	350 Kg / 22 meses
Sexo	Macho
Origem	Unidade Animal de Estudos Digestivos e Metabólicos – FCAV/Unesp

Jaboticabal, 03 de Agosto de 2017.


Profª Drª Lizandra Amoroso
 Coordenadora – CEUA

IMPACTO DA SUPLEMENTAÇÃO COM BLOCOS MULTIFUNCIONAIS SOBRE OS PARÂMETROS NUTRICIONAIS E DIVERSIDADE BACTERIANA RUMINAL DE NOVILHOS NELORE

RESUMO: Objetivou-se com este estudo avaliar os parâmetros de fermentação ruminal, balanço de nitrogênio, parâmetros da degradabilidade ruminal da matéria seca (MS) e fibra em detergente neutro (FDN), comportamento ingestivo, os parâmetros metabólicos e a diversidade bacteriana ruminal de novilhos Nelore em regime de alimentação com forragem tropical de baixa qualidade recebendo diferentes fontes de suplementação. Foram utilizados seis novilhos Nelore (350 ± 10 kg peso corporal inicial e 24 meses de idade), castrados, canulados permanentemente no rúmen, distribuídos aleatoriamente em um Quadrado Latino duplo 3×3 , sendo três tratamentos e três períodos experimentais. Os animais receberam feno de *Urochloa brizantha* (Hochst.) Stapf, “Marandu” *ad libitum* como dieta basal e foram suplementados com sal mineral ureado (SMU), concentrado proteico-energético comercial (SPE) ou bloco multifuncional (BMF). O consumo de MS, suplemento, MO, FDNcp e FDA foi superior para os animais suplementados com SPE ($P < 0,05$). Entretanto, o uso do BMF aumentou o consumo e a digestibilidade de PB ($P < 0,001$). Maiores coeficientes de digestibilidade da FDNcp foram observados em animais suplementados com SMU ($P = 0,032$). Houve interação tempo $\times$ tratamento para a concentração ruminal de $N-NH_3$ onde animais suplementados com SPE apresentaram maior concentração de amônia as 2, 4 e 6 horas após a alimentação, quando comparado a SMU e BMF ($P < 0,001$). A proporção de propionato foi maior quando BMF foi suplementado ($P = 0,016$). Animais suplementados com BMF e SPE tiveram similar retenção de nitrogênio (RN, g/d) em função do nitrogênio consumido e digerido e eficiência de uso do nitrogênio, porém maiores que os animais suplementados com SMU ($P < 0,007$). A suplementação com concentrado proteico-energético proporcionou maior abundância relativa ruminal de *Mogibacterium.spp*, Ruminococcaceae UCG-004 e *Papilibacter.spp* e tendência a maior população relativa de Eubacterium grupo coprostanoligenes quando comparado ao SMU ($P < 0,05$). O *Clostridium* sp. CAG-352, *Lachnoclostridium* 10, Prevotellaceae UCG-004, Ruminococcaceae-UCG-011 e *Succinivibrio.spp* foram identificados apenas no rúmen de novilhos alimentados com SPE. Novilhos suplementados com SMU apresentaram maior abundância relativa ruminal de *Fretibacterium.spp* e do grupo Lachnospiraceae ND3007. Em relação ao comportamento alimentar, animais suplementados com SPE e BMF despenderam maior tempo na interação com o feno ($P = 0,004$), enquanto animais suplementados com SMU e BMF apresentaram menor tempo de interação com o suplemento ($P = 0,002$). O tempo de alimentação foi maior em animais suplementados com SPE ($P < 0,001$). As concentrações sanguíneas de glicose, insulina, proteínas totais não foram influenciadas pelos tratamentos ($P > 0,05$). Entretanto, a concentração de ureia foi superior em animais suplementados com BMF ($P = 0,05$) e houve efeito de tratamento e tempo de coleta ($P < 0,05$) na concentração de triglicerídeos; o uso do BMF resultou em maiores concentrações de triglicerídeos e houve uma diminuição linear das

concentrações em função do tempo de coleta ($P < 0,05$). A degradabilidade ruminal da fração “a” da MS e a degradabilidade efetiva estimada a 2,5 e 8%^{h-1} foi similar para animais suplementados com SPE e BMF ($P < 0,05$). Em contraste, a degradabilidade ruminal da fração “b” foi similar entre SMU e SPE ($P = 0,013$) e a degradabilidade potencial foi superior para animais suplementados com SPE ($P = 0,015$). A fração “b” foi correlacionada positivamente com o filo *Fibrobacter* ($P = 0,034$; $r = 0,50$) e negativamente com a classe *Bacilli*, as ordens MVP 15, *Lactobacillales*, os gêneros *Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005* e *Succinimonas.spp* ($P < 0,016$; $r < -0,56$). A fração “b” da FDN foi correlacionada positivamente com as ordens *Aeromonadales*, *Desulfuromonadales*, os gêneros *Eubacterium hallii group*, *Coprococcus 1*, *Ruminiclostridium 5*, *Ruminobacter* e a espécie *Lachnospiraceae UCG,002* ($P < 0,001$, $r > 0,70$). A ureia plasmática se correlacionou positivamente com a classe *Gammaproteobacteria*, a família *Ruminococcaceae*, os gêneros *Ruminobacter.spp* e *Succinivibrio.spp* e a OTU *Family XI 2II* ($P < 0,007$; $r > 0,63$) e negativamente com a família *Prevotellaceae* e o gênero *Fretibacterium.spp* ($P < 0,036$; $r < -0,52$). O uso dos blocos multifuncionais influencia a composição do ecossistema bacteriano ruminal em favor da família *Neisseriaceae* e melhora a retenção e a eficiência de uso do nitrogênio. Entretanto, estas mudanças foram semelhantes as geradas pelo suplemento proteico-energético comercial.

Palavras-chave: bactérias, estacionalidade forrageira, feno de baixa qualidade, retenção de nitrogênio, rumen, suplementação alimentar

IMPACT OF LOW-MOISTURE, SUGARCANE MOLASSES-BASED BLOCK SUPPLEMENTATION ON NUTRITIONAL PARAMETERS AND RUMINAL BACTERIAL DIVERSITY OF NELORE STEERS

ABSTRACT: The objective of this study was to evaluate the parameters of ruminal fermentation, nitrogen balance, parameters of ruminal dry matter (DM) and neutral detergent fiber (NDF) degradability, ingestive behavior, metabolic parameters and ruminal bacterial diversity of Nelore steers fed with low quality tropical forage, receiving different sources of supplementation. Six Nelore steers (350 $\pm$ 10 kg initial body weight and 24 months of age), castrated, permanently cannulated in the rumen, randomly distributed in a 3 $\times$ 3 double Latin Square, with three treatments and three experimental periods, were used. The animals received *Urochloa brizantha* (Hochst.) Stapf hay, “Marandu” ad libitum as basal diet and were supplemented with: urea mineral salt (SMU), commercial protein-energy concentrate (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF). The consumption of DM, supplement, MO, NDFcp and FDA was higher for animals supplemented with SPE ($P < 0.05$). However, the use of BMF increased CP intake and digestibility ($P < 0.001$). Higher coefficients of digestibility of NDFcp were observed in animals supplemented with SMU ($P = 0.032$). There was an interaction time $\times$ treatment for the ruminal concentration of N-NH₃ where animals supplemented with SPE had higher ammonia concentration at 2, 4 and 6 hours after feeding, when compared to SMU and BMF ($P < 0.001$). The proportion of propionate was higher when BMF was supplemented ($P = 0.016$). Animals supplemented with BMF and SPE had similar nitrogen retention (RN, g/d) as a function of consumed and digested nitrogen and nitrogen use efficiency, but higher than animals supplemented with SMU ($P < 0.007$). Supplementation with protein-energy concentrate provided higher relative ruminal abundance of *Mogibacterium*.spp, *Ruminococcaceae* UCG-004 and *Papilibacter*.spp and a trend towards higher relative population of *Eubacterium* group coprostanoligenes when compared to SMU ($P < 0.05$). *Clostridium* sp. CAG-352, *Lachnoclostridium* 10, *Prevotellaceae* UCG-004, *Ruminococcaceae*-UCG-011 and *Succinivibrio*.spp were identified only in the rumen of SPE-fed steers. SMU-supplemented steers had higher relative ruminal abundance of *Fretibacterium*.spp and *Lachnospiraceae* ND3007. In relation to feeding behavior, animals supplemented with SPE and BMF spent more time in the interaction with hay ($P = 0.004$), while animals supplemented with SMU and BMF showed shorter interaction time with the supplement ($P = 0.002$). Feeding time was longer in animals supplemented with SPE ($P < 0.001$). Blood glucose, insulin, total protein concentrations were not influenced by treatments ($P > 0.05$). However, the urea concentration was higher in animals supplemented with BMF ($P = 0.05$) and there was an effect of treatment and collection time ($P < 0.05$) on the concentration of triglycerides; the use of BMF resulted in higher concentrations of triglycerides and there was a linear decrease in concentrations as a function of collection time ($P < 0.05$). Ruminal degradability of fraction “a” of DM and estimated effective degradability at 2.5 and 8%h⁻¹ were similar for animals supplemented with SPE and BMF ($P < 0.05$). In contrast, the ruminal degradability of fraction “b” was similar between SMU and SPE ($P = 0.013$) and

the potential degradability was higher for animals supplemented with SPE ($P=0.015$). Fraction “b” was positively correlated with the phylum Fibrobacter ($P=0.034$; $r=0.50$) and negatively with the class Bacilli, the orders MVP 15, Lactobacillales, the genera Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005 and Succinimonas.spp ($P<0.016$; $r<-0.56$). The fraction “b” of NDF was positively correlated with the orders Aeromonadales, Desulfuromonadales, the genera Eubacterium hallii group, Coprococcus 1, Ruminiclostridium 5, Ruminobacter and the species Lachnospiraceae UCG.002 ($P<0.001$, $r>0.70$). Plasma urea correlated positively with the Gammaproteobacteria class, the Ruminococcaceae family, the Ruminobacter.spp and Succinivibrio.spp genera and the OTU Family XI 2II ($P<0.007$; $r>0.63$) and negatively with the Prevotellaceae family and the genus Fretibacterium.spp ($P<0.036$; $r<-0.52$). The use of low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block influences the composition of the ruminal bacterial ecosystem in favor of the Neisseriaceae family and improves nitrogen retention and use efficiency. However, these changes were like those generated by the commercial protein-energy supplement.

Key-words: bacteria, forage seasonality, low quality hay, nitrogen retention, rumen, feed supplementation

CAPÍTULO 1 – CONSIDERAÇÕES GERAIS

1. INTRODUÇÃO

No cenário mundial, o Brasil se destaca por possuir o maior rebanho comercial de bovinos, com aproximadamente 213,68 milhões de cabeças (ABIEC, 2020) distribuídos em cerca de 162,53 milhões de hectares de pastagens (ABIEC, 2019). Estima-se que 87,4% dos animais abatidos no Brasil sejam manejados exclusivamente em pastagem (ABIEC, 2019) e, considerando que a estacionalidade influencia a composição e a qualidade da forragem, torna-se imprescindível o uso de estratégias nutricionais que tenham como objetivo o atendimento das necessidades nutricionais dos animais (ASSOCON, 2012).

No Brasil, a produção de forragem é influenciada pela estacionalidade produtiva, onde as forrageiras tropicais não conseguem manter um balanço ótimo entre a demanda animal e os nutrientes necessários para atender às exigências de ganhos elevados (Reis et al., 2012). A disponibilidade e qualidade das forragens varia de acordo com a estacionalidade, com um período chuvoso (primavera/verão) caracterizado pelo favorecimento do crescimento das plantas, época de maior oferta em quantidade e qualidade de forragem (Reis et al., 2011), e um período seco (outono/inverno), caracterizado pela escassez de chuva, que conseqüentemente reduz a produção de forragem e causa mudanças estruturais do dossel, acúmulo de colmo e material morto, ocorrendo queda na qualidade da forragem (Lazzarini et al., 2009).

A suplementação alimentar pode ser adotada como uma prática tecnológica de apoio à pastagem. O adicional de nutrientes proveniente da suplementação faz com que os animais se tornem mais eficientes na utilização da forragem disponível, através de melhorias nas condições do ambiente ruminal (Reis et al. 2009).

Existem diversas estratégias de suplementação em pasto e as mais comuns utilizam grãos, subprodutos da agroindústria, sais proteinados ou energéticos e, mais recentemente no Brasil, os blocos multifuncionais. Este último permite o baixo consumo de uma mistura de ingredientes compactados, de modo a fornecer nutrientes ao longo do dia. Além disso, evita quedas bruscas do pH e picos de concentração de amônia

ruminal, comuns em uma suplementação convencional (Trater et al., 2003; Katulski et al., 2017).

Alguns estudos têm avaliado o efeito da suplementação com blocos multifuncionais em bovinos. Freitas et al. (2003a), estudaram o efeito da suplementação com blocos multifuncionais com diferentes níveis de melaço de cana-de-açúcar (25, 30, 35 e 40%), observaram que independentemente dos níveis de melaço, houve aumento no consumo, digestibilidade, concentrações ruminais de amônia, nitrogênio uréico sanguíneo e alteração no pH ruminal. Titgemeyer et al. (2004), ao avaliarem a resposta da suplementação com blocos multifuncionais contendo baixo (15%) ou elevado (28%) teor de proteína bruta (PB) para bovinos em crescimento, observaram que animais alimentados com bloco de alto teor de proteína tiveram maior consumo e ganharam mais peso. Entretanto, o estudo dos efeitos da suplementação com blocos multifuncionais sobre o comportamento ingestivo, metabolismo e microbioma ruminal de bovinos alimentados com forragens de baixa qualidade é inexistente.

No Brasil, esse tipo de suplemento ainda não é amplamente utilizado. Porém, os blocos multifuncionais surgem como oportunidade de uso, uma vez que seus benefícios vão desde a melhoria dos parâmetros nutricionais até o desempenho animal, além da facilidade de uso. Assim, o objetivo deste trabalho foi avaliar os parâmetros de fermentação ruminal, balanço de nitrogênio, parâmetros metabólicos, degradabilidade ruminal de nutrientes, comportamento ingestivo, diversidade bacteriana e archaeal ruminal de novilhos Nelore alimentados com forragem tropical de baixa qualidade recebendo diferentes suplementos alimentares, sendo blocos multifuncionais, concentrado proteico energético comercial e sal minera ureado.

1.1. Produção de bovinos de corte em pastagens e o uso de suplementação

De maneira geral, o ganho de peso é determinado principalmente pela ingestão de nutrientes, e, para animais mantidos em pastagens, é dependente da estrutura do dossel forrageiro e das práticas de manejo adotadas (Da Silva et al., 2009; Reis et al., 2012; Vieira Júnior et al., 2013). A disponibilidade e qualidade das forragens varia de acordo com a estacionalidade produtiva. O período chuvoso (primavera/verão) favorece o crescimento das plantas, com elevada produção de massa e teores de PB de 12%,

valor acima do recomendado para plena atividade das bactérias que degradam fibra (Reis et al., 2011), que deve variar entre 6-8% de PB (Van Soest, 1994). Consequentemente, há a maior proporção de conteúdo celular, maior relação folha:colmo e elevada quantidade de fibra em detergente neutro potencialmente digestível (FDNpd) (Barbero et al., 2015).

Entretanto, no período seco do ano (outono/inverno), a forragem disponível para alimentação animal apresenta baixo valor nutritivo e dificilmente conseguem manter balanço positivo entre as demandas nutricionais dos animais e os nutrientes disponíveis, para atender às exigências de manutenção e ganhos (Reis et al., 2012). Além disso, o déficit hídrico reduz a produção forrageira e provoca mudanças na estrutura do dossel, caracterizada pela maior participação de colmo e material morto, elevado teor de fibra indigestível e diminuição nos teores de proteína bruta (PB) a limites inferiores a 7%, valor considerado limitante para a síntese de proteína microbiana pelos microrganismos ruminais (Lazzarini et al., 2009). Estas alterações refletem negativamente sobre a qualidade bromatológica e nutricional, e exige a adoção de estratégias para suprir as necessidades dos animais (Paterson et al., 1994).

A condição básica para promover a suplementação é que haja disponibilidade de massa forrageira na pastagem, mesmo esta sendo de baixa qualidade. Assim, a suplementação, seja na fase de recria ou de terminação, permite reduzir o tempo de abate do animal, aumentando o desfrute e o giro de capital na propriedade.

A suplementação pode ter vários efeitos sobre o consumo, como: aditivos, substitutivos, aditivos/substitutivos, aditivos com estímulo. O efeito aditivo seria avaliado como um aumento de ganho de peso, geralmente proporcionado pela suplementação para corrigir deficiências nutricionais específicas em que pequenas quantidades de suplemento são ingeridas (Euclides, 2002), atuando de forma associativa, sem diminuir o consumo total do animal. Já o efeito substitutivo ocorre quando o consumo de suplemento diminui o de forragem, sem melhorar o desempenho animal. Este efeito pode ser utilizado quando se espera aumento da taxa de lotação de determinada área (Silva et al., 2009).

O efeito aditivo/substitutivo é caracterizado pela diminuição do consumo de forragem pelo fornecimento de suplemento, mas ao mesmo tempo ocorre melhora no desempenho animal, em razão da maior disposição de energia (Goes et al., 2005).

A suplementação tem como princípio atender às exigências dos microrganismos presentes no rúmen, principalmente as bactérias, favorecendo o seu crescimento e desenvolvimento, consequentemente aumentando o aproveitamento da dieta, mas principalmente da fração fibrosa consumida. Com o fornecimento adicional de nutrientes por meio da suplementação, os animais se tornam mais eficientes na utilização da forragem disponível, devido à melhoria das condições do ambiente ruminal (Detmann et al., 2014). Existem diversas estratégias de suplementação em pasto, sendo as mais comuns a utilização de grãos, de subprodutos da agroindústria, de sais proteinados, misturas múltiplas e, mais recentemente, os blocos multifuncionais.

O sal-ureia (sal mineralizado adicionado de ureia e sulfato de amônio) pode ser utilizado com o objetivo de promover a manutenção do peso durante o período seco (Ítavo et al., 2008). Além disso, o sal-ureia tem como objetivo fundamental suprir a deficiência de nitrogênio da forragem (Hoffmann et al., 2014), através do uso de nitrogênio não proteico (NPN). Batista et al., (2016) analisaram os efeitos metabólicos da suplementação com PDR, verificaram que o aumento de N retido (g/dia) foi proporcional ao aumento de PDR na dieta e concluiu que suplementação proteica melhorou a utilização de nitrogênio em animais alimentados com fontes volumosas de baixa qualidade.

O suplemento múltiplo caracteriza-se por conter ureia, fontes de proteína, energia, fósforo, cálcio, microelementos, além do sal comum, que juntamente com a ureia se tornam um fator limitante de consumo pelo animal (Jayme et al., 2013). Os blocos multifuncionais, por sua vez, permitem o baixo consumo de uma mistura de ingredientes (melaço de cana-de-açúcar, farelos, ureia, macro e microminerais) compactados, e, ao ser lambido pelo animal, fornecem nutrientes constantemente ao longo do dia (Garmendia, 1994, Freitas et al., 2003a).

Os microrganismos do rúmen necessitam de no mínimo 7% de PB para seu crescimento (Van Soest, 1994). Assim, segundo Hoffmann et al. (2014), a suplementação com fontes de proteína verdadeira e NNP promove o crescimento de

bactérias ruminais, eleva a digestibilidade da forragem de baixa qualidade, o consumo de matéria seca e de energia digestível, e consequentemente, melhora o desempenho animal.

1.2. Blocos multifuncionais na suplementação de bovinos de corte

A suplementação em si foi uma inovação a partir da década de 1990. Ao longo dos anos, pesquisas foram conduzidas para o estabelecimento das características gerais, ou seja, presença de macro e microminerais, ingredientes e aditivos a serem utilizados, teores de proteína e/ou energia e quantidade a ser fornecida (Moraes, 2001; Detmann et al., 2004; Sales et al., 2008; Silva et al., 2009).

A forma de fornecimento é amplamente estudada, podendo ser realizada diariamente, em dias alternados ou semanalmente (Canesin et al., 2007; Simioni et al., 2009) na forma farelada ou em blocos (Trater et al., 2003; De Queiroz e Gallo, 2013; Moriel et al., 2019). Na década de 1990, os blocos multifuncionais (BMF) já eram conhecidos por permitir o baixo consumo de uma mistura de ingredientes compactados (melaço, ureia, farelos e sal mineral), de modo a fornecer nutrientes constantemente ao longo do dia (Garmendia, 1994, Freitas et al., 1999).

O BMF é fabricado por meio de um processo de desidratação do melaço de cana-de-açúcar. O óleo vegetal presente na formulação torna o produto resistente à água, o que permite sua conservação mesmo quando exposta à chuva e ventos (Trater et al., 2003). A utilização do BMF evita quedas bruscas do pH e picos na concentração de amônia ruminal, típicos de uma suplementação convencional (Garmendia, 1994). Além dos benefícios nutricionais, os blocos oferecem vantagens do ponto de vista da logística, devido a sua versatilidade, facilidade de manejo, transporte e armazenamento uma vez que não é necessária a troca constante de suplemento, reduzindo problemas ocasionados por chuva em áreas com cocho descoberto.

Vários fatores influenciam o consumo dos blocos, como a aceitabilidade, a qualidade do pasto e/ou volumoso, a disposição dos blocos no piquete, o número de animais por bloco e o tempo de armazenamento. Entre eles, a dureza do bloco é considerada a principal variável na determinação do consumo (Sansoucy et al., 1988). E esta dureza pode ser influenciada pelas quantidades de melaço, ureia, e a proporção

dos aglutinantes (Hinestroza e Becerra, 1990; Araque e Cortes, 1998; Freitas et al., 1999).

Freitas et al. (2003a) avaliando o efeito da suplementação de feno de Tifton (*Cynodon dactylon*) com BMF formulados com diferentes níveis de melaço de cana-de-açúcar (25, 30, 35 e 40%), observaram aumento no consumo, digestibilidade, concentrações ruminais de amônia de nitrogênio ureico sanguíneo, sem alterações nos valores de pH ruminal quando comparado ao tratamento sem suplementação. Ao avaliarem a resposta da suplementação com blocos de melaço cozido com baixo (15%) ou elevado (28%) teor de proteína bruta (PB) em bovinos em crescimento, alimentados com forragem de diferente qualidade (feno, 8,4% PB; alfafa, 19,1% PB e feno + alfafa, 11,5% PB), Titgemeyer et al. (2004) observaram que independente da qualidade da forragem, novilhas alimentadas com bloco de melaço cozido de elevado teor de proteína ganharam mais peso e tiveram maior consumo.

Efeitos positivos da suplementação com BMF na ingestão de forragens de baixa qualidade foram relatados por Badurdeen et al. (1994) e Greenwood et al. (1998). Badurdeen et al. (1994) observaram um aumento de 10% na ingestão de forragem quando os bezerros receberam um BMF à base de melaço e com 56% de PB, e Greenwood et al. (1998) relataram um aumento de 13% na ingestão de forragem quando um BMF à base de melaço e com 30% de PB foi fornecido. Entretanto, a redução na digestibilidade da fibra em detergente neutro (FDN) foi relatada quando o melaço de cana foi suplementado em níveis de pelo menos 15% do MS da dieta para bovinos alimentados com forragem de baixa qualidade (Kalmbacher et al., 1995).

De acordo com Lima et al. (2008), a proporção e a quantidade dos subprodutos da fermentação microbiana dependem tanto do tipo de alimento e forma como é fornecido, quanto de fatores fisiológicos relacionados ao ambiente ruminal como temperatura, anaerobiose e pH. A suplementação proteico-energética pode provocar alteração no perfil de AGCC (Oliveira et al., 2009; Goes et al., 2015; Sales et al., 2017). Avaliando o uso de suplementação proteica em blocos contendo ureia, melaço e sais minerais, Srinivas e Gupta (1997) observaram diferenças na produção de acetato, bem como nas relações acetato:propionato, onde os animais sem suplementação mantiveram níveis superiores de acetato no fluido ruminal.

As concentrações de nitrogênio amoniacal (N-NH_3) no rúmen estão associadas à velocidade de introdução e liberação das fontes nitrogenadas no rúmen, bem como a sua assimilação em proteínas microbianas, o que é resultado da sincronia de demais nutrientes que compõem as estruturas celulares dos microrganismos (Oliveira et al., 2009).

De maneira geral, a amônia que não é utilizada pelos microrganismos ruminais é absorvida pela parede do rúmen e vai ao fígado por meio da circulação sanguínea, onde entra no ciclo da ureia (Kennedy e Milligan, 1980; Angelidis et al., 2019). Durante períodos de alta disponibilidade ruminal de N, observam-se elevadas concentrações sanguíneas de ureia (Rennó et al., 2000). Em contrapartida, baixo nível de proteína na dieta promove redução de aminoácidos na circulação, diminuindo a concentração de insulina e da taxa de entrada de glicose, e consequentemente, a disponibilidade de energia ao hipotálamo (Ruas et al., 2000). A concentração de ureia plasmática pode indicar uma ineficiência na utilização da PB da dieta em função do excesso no fornecimento ou assincronia de energia-proteína no rúmen (Pessoa et al., 2009).

Como a saúde, o crescimento e o metabolismo dos animais dependem amplamente da produção de metabólitos como a ureia, glicose, insulina, triglicerídeos e as proteínas totais. Assim, uma análise da composição do plasma pode oferecer informações importantes sobre o papel das interações rúmen-dieta nas condições dos animais (Saleem et al., 2013). Moriel et al., (2019) observaram que as concentrações plasmáticas de glicose e ureia plasmática foram maiores nas novilhas suplementadas com BMF e concentrado proteico energético comercial, quando comparado ao sal mineral. Eles relatam que isso podem estar associadas a diferenças na ingestão de energia e proteína entre os tratamentos.

A análise das proteínas totais no plasma também é utilizada como método de avaliação do status proteico. O fígado é o principal órgão produtor dessas proteínas e estão relacionadas com deficiência na alimentação, quando descartadas causas patológicas (Gonzáles, 2000). Estima-se que dietas com menos de 10% de proteína provocam diminuição dos níveis protéicos no sangue (Kaneko et al., 1997).

A complexidade desses fatores, associada ao comportamento de alimentação a pasto (pastejo, ruminação e ócio) e às diferenças na composição dos suplementos, pode

provocar diferentes respostas no ambiente ruminal (Oliveira et al., 2009) alterando os padrões de consumo de suplementos e a utilização de nutrientes (Katulski et al., 2017).

Aubel et al., (2011) avaliaram a ingestão, a frequência de uso e a duração do uso do BMF e sal mineral em capim *Andropogon gerardii* Vitman, em diferentes estações do ano e observaram que o uso do BFM aumentou o consumo de suplemento. Esse resultado foi associado a maior interação dos animais com o BMF e a maior duração dessa interação. Entretanto, pouco se sabe sobre o comportamento ingestivo de bovinos suplementados com blocos multifuncionais e alimentados com forragem tropical de baixa qualidade.

Nesse sentido, ainda não existe entendimento completo dos fatores que interagem entre si, como a concentração de proteína na ração, exigência de nitrogênio para os microrganismos, efeito da suplementação no pH ruminal, quantidade e frequência de suplementação e se o suplemento é baseado em amido, açúcares ou fibra rapidamente digestível (Reis et al. 2012). As informações existentes sobre o BMF permitem que se conclua que seu uso pode ser uma estratégia de suplementação, que deve ser avaliada em condições brasileiras. Também, deve avaliar o efeito deste tipo de suplemento sobre a dinâmica ruminal e microbiana, uma vez que em sua formulação há melaço e ureia. Ainda, quando o volumoso for de baixa qualidade, é preciso avaliar seus efeitos nutricionais e estratégias para otimização do uso do suplemento de forma eficiente e que resulte em economicidade.

1.3. Importância do microbioma ruminal no metabolismo de bovinos em pasto

O processo fermentativo é realizado por uma diversidade de microrganismos que habitam o rúmen e que interagem de diferentes formas, permitindo a transformação dos substratos ingeridos pelo animal em energia para sua manutenção, crescimento e reprodução (Arcuri et al., 2011). As bactérias constituem a maior proporção da biomassa microbiana ruminal (60 a 90%), e são as mais ativas fermentadoras, mais estudadas e consideradas as mais importantes nutricionalmente (Petri et al., 2012).

As bactérias ruminais degradam os componentes dos alimentos (carboidratos e proteínas), transformando-os em produtos como AGCC, proteína microbiana e vitaminas

do complexo B e K, que são utilizados pelo animal. A proporção e a quantidade dos subprodutos da fermentação microbiana dependem tanto do tipo de alimento e forma como é fornecido (Ley et al., 2008; Henderson et al., 2015)., quanto de fatores fisiológicos relacionados ao ambiente ruminal como temperatura, anaerobiose e pH (Lima et al., 2008).

Estudos de mudanças induzidas pela dieta na composição da comunidade microbiana do rúmen em diferentes contextos são numerosas (de Menezes et al., 2011; de Oliveira et al., 2013; Zhang et al., 2014; Lengowski et al., 2016). De Menezes et al., (2011) caracterizaram mudanças na estrutura da comunidade microbiana decorrente da alimentação de vacas leiteiras em duas dietas amplamente utilizadas: pastagem e ração mista total (TMR) e concluíram que houve uma maior abundância de *Fibrobacteraceae* em vacas alimentadas com TMR enquanto *Erysipelotrichaceae*, foi mais abundante em vacas alimentadas com pasto.

De Oliveira et al., (2013) investigaram os compartimentos do trato gastrintestinal (TGI) de um novilho Nelore através do pirosequenciamento 16S rRNA e observaram que a diversidade filogenética da comunidade microbiana na alimentação é diferente do TGI, o que indica ainda que muito poucas bactérias são retidas da alimentação à medida que ela passa pelo TGI. Populações distintas de membros da família *Ruminococcaceae* e do filo Bacteroidetes foram encontradas no intestino grosso, semelhante ao que foi encontrado para o rúmen e é possível que essas comunidades também possam contribuir para uma maior fermentação alimentar a jusante.

Zhang et al., (2014) avaliando dietas com diferentes fontes forrageiras observaram que as proporções relativas dos gêneros *Ruminococcaceae* não classificados, *Anaerotruncus* e *Papillibacter* foram maiores na dieta contendo caule de milho do que nas dietas contendo feno de alfafa ou gramínea perene nativa (*Leymus chinensis*). Além disso, a presença de *Staphylococcus* nos grupos de animais alimentados com caule de milho ou *L. chinensis* foi associada a um risco aumentado mastite bovina.

Henderson et al., (2015) determinaram a composição da microbiota no rúmen em 742 amostras divididas entre bovinos, caprídeos, cervídeos e camélídeos de todo o mundo e observaram que os membros de *Prevotella* e *Succinivibrionaceae* não classificados foram mais abundantes em animais alimentados com dietas contendo

concentrado e *Bacteroidales* e *Ruminococcaceae* não classificados foram mais abundantes em todos os animais alimentados com forragem.

Lengowski et al., (2016) observaram mudanças na comunidade microbiana ruminal quando animais alimentados com silagem de capim apresentaram maior abundância das espécies *F. succinogenes* e *R. amylophilus*, enquanto a maior abundância de protozoários foi observada em vacas alimentadas com dieta baseada em silagem de milho.

De acordo com de Medeiros e Marino (2015) os suplementos proteicos de baixo consumo diminuem a limitação dos baixos teores de N das forragens na seca e aumentam a ingestão de matéria seca o que resulta em maior consumo de forragem pelos animais suplementados em relação aos não suplementados.

Da Silva-Marques et al., (2018) avaliaram os impactos da suplementação com três níveis de proteína em de touros Nelore pastando *Urochloa brizantha* cv. Marandu e observaram que a presença de ureia no suplemento de alta proteína (44% de PB) favoreceu o crescimento das bactérias celulolíticas *Fibrobacter succinogenes*, *R. flavefaciens* e *B. fibrisolvens*, que usam apenas amônia como fonte de nitrogênio para sintetizar proteínas. A proteína microbiana é a principal fonte de proteína metabolizável para os ruminantes (Mikolayunas et al., 2011) e aproximadamente 60 a 90% da proteína que chega ao intestino delgado é de origem microbiana, dependendo principalmente dos ingredientes da dieta.

Os microrganismos ruminais dependem de esqueletos de carbono, disponibilidade de energia e de um concomitante fornecimento de amônia e peptídeos para que haja síntese microbiana. É essencial que haja carboidratos disponíveis no rúmen, por terem efeito sobre a utilização dos compostos nitrogenados, uma vez que as bactérias ruminais podem incorporar os aminoácidos e fermentá-los como fonte de energia (Pereira et al., 2005). Sampaio et al., (2009) avaliando os efeitos da suplementação com compostos nitrogenados sobre a dinâmica ruminal da fibra em detergente neutro (FDN) em bovinos alimentados com forragem tropical de baixa qualidade (4,86% PB) constatou que 6,24 mg/dL de nitrogênio amoniacal ruminal é a concentração mínima necessária para sustentar atividade microbiana adequada na degradação FDN da forragem basal. Adicionalmente, Lazzarini et al., (2009)

trabalhando nas mesmas condições concluiu que é necessário pelo menos 7% de proteína bruta na dieta para sustentar o crescimento microbiano e apoiar a digestão de carboidratos de forragens de baixa qualidade.

Dos microrganismos presentes no rúmen, os mais estudados e classificados são os microrganismos celulolíticos devido a sua importância na degradação da fibra. Atualmente as espécies conhecidas representam apenas 5% da microbiota ruminal. Assim, 95% restante, são microrganismos que desempenham outras funções no ambiente ruminal e ainda não foram descritos (Kong et al., 2012), evidenciando que apesar dos esforços para a compreensão desse ecossistema, há muito ainda que ser elucidado (Bekele et al., 2011).

A aplicação recente de técnicas moleculares que não utilizam cultivo microbiano, a disponibilidade de informações genômicas em bancos de dados públicos e os avanços na caracterização dos ambientes, como o ambiente ruminal estão sendo conquistados (Deng et al., 2008, Mcsweeney e Mackie, 2012; Granja-Salcedo et al., 2017) e utilizadas na identificação e monitoramento de populações específicas em ambientes complexos.

Para a avaliação da diversidade microbiana e composição do ecossistema, a técnica de amplificação e sequenciamento do gene que codifica o RNA 16S (Edwards et al., 2004), é empregada devido à grande quantidade de dados gerados e facilidade de comparação e identificação de microrganismos. E, embora os avanços do genoma estejam fornecendo acesso à vasta diversidade de microrganismos não cultivados, a compreensão das variáveis que moldam as comunidades microbianas do rúmen está iniciando (Anderson et al., 2017).

Os filos bacterianos dominantes no ambiente ruminal são Bacteroidetes e Firmicutes e juntos corresponderam a aproximadamente 75% da composição da comunidade microbiana (Granja-Salcedo et al., 2017; de Jesus et al., 2019). O filo Firmicutes é o maior filo bacteriano e contém mais de 200 gêneros, compostos principalmente por bactérias Gram-positivas e com baixo teor de conteúdo guanina-citosina (GC) (Fernando et al., 2010). Bacteroidetes são as bactérias Gram-negativas mais abundantes encontradas nas comunidades anaeróbicas do rúmen (Jose et al., 2017).

Vários estudos foram conduzidos para avaliar o efeito dos teores e fontes de proteína (proteína verdadeira ou NNP) para que haja maior compreensão do metabolismo proteico. Porém poucos estudos avaliaram como a microbiota ruminal se comporta em função dessas mudanças e qual o impacto dessa mudança na retenção de nitrogênio no animal. Chanthakhoun et al., (2012) avaliaram dietas para búfalos com teores de proteína bruta crescentes (9,2; 12,4; 18,1 e 21%) e verificaram que a digestibilidade aparente dos nutrientes, a absorção e retenção de N foi maior com o aumento dos teores de PB na dieta e houve aumento das bactérias totais e das espécies *Fibrobacter succinogenes* e *Ruminococcus albus*.

Estudos que associam animais mais eficientes e a microbiota ruminal começam a contribuir para o avanço na nutrição de ruminantes. O consumo alimentar residual é uma ferramenta utilizada para avaliar a eficiência alimentar (Bezerra et al., 2013).

Rius et al., (2012) avaliando a digestibilidade do N e a comunidade microbiana do rumen em vacas Holandesas-Friesianas em lactação concluíram que as digestibilidades de MS, MO e N foram maiores nas vacas com consumo alimentar residual negativo, mas os efeitos não foram associados ao microbioma ruminal. Myer et al. (2015), ao analisarem a eficiência alimentar e a correlação com a diversidade microbiana, relataram que animais ineficientes apresentavam maiores proporções de *Prevotella*, que é justificado pela diversidade de utilização dos nutrientes por esse gênero.

Elolimy et al., (2018) descreveram que animais mais eficientes apresentaram maior abundância relativa de *Eubacterium ruminantium*, *Fibrobacter succinogenes* e *Megasphaera elsdenii*, e menor densidade bacteriana total e *Succinimonas amylolytica*.

O estudo de microbiologia ruminal deve ser visto com maior atenção na área de pesquisa estratégica, uma vez que o conhecimento minucioso da microbiota ruminal e dos fatores que a afetam está intimamente relacionado ao potencial crescimento da produtividade pecuária, além de possibilitar a caracterização rápida e precisa do perfil da microbiota ruminal.

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CHAPTER 2 - EFFECT OF LOW-MOISTURE, SUGARCANE MOLASSES-BASED BLOCK SUPPLEMENTATION ON NUTRIENT DIGESTIBILITY, NITROGEN BALANCE AND RUMINAL ECOSYSTEM IN BEEF CATTLE FED WITH LOW-QUALITY FORAGE

Abstract: the objective of this study was to evaluate the ruminal fermentation parameters, nitrogen balance and the ruminal bacterial diversity of Nellore steers fed low-quality forage and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) or energy protein supplement (SPE). Six castrated Nellore steers (350 ± 10 kg BW) were used in a simultaneous double 3×3 Latin Square balanced for residual effects, with three experimental periods of 24 days each, and three treatments. The basal diet consisted of hay offered *ad libitum*, and experimental supplements were urea mineral salt (SMU) *ad libitum*, or conventional SPE (0.2% BW), or BMF *ad libitum*. The intake of DM expressed as % of BW and kg/d, supplement, OM, ADF, and TDN were highest when steers were supplemented with SPE ($P \leq 0.05$). However, BMF allowed higher both CP and EE expressed as kg/d, and both CP and NDFap expressed as g/kg0.75 when compared to SMU ($P < 0.05$), and higher intake of EE (Kg/d) when compared to SPE ($P < 0.001$). Steers supplemented with BMF had higher digestibility of CP ($P = 0.023$), and lower digestibility of NDFap ($P = 0.032$) when compared to SMU, respectively. The lowest total daily nitrogen retention (NR), expressed as g/d ($P = 0.007$), in function of N Intake ($P = 0.007$), or function of N digested ($P = 0.010$), were observed in animals supplemented with SMU. Steers supplemented with SPE had the highest $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ concentration at 2, 4, and 6 h after feeding. BFM allowed higher both Isobutyrate and Isovalerate proportion at 0h, while SPE resulted in higher both Isovalerate among 4 and 6h, and Isobutyrate proportion at 14h. SPE had positive correlation with Actinobacteria ($r = 0.86$), Kiritimatiellae ($r = 0.85$), Alphaproteobacteria ($r = 0.84$), Ruminococcus.2 ($r = 0.77$), Christensenellaceae R7 group ($r = 0.42$), the EMS ($r = 0.59$) and propionate proportion in the rumen ($r = 0.15$), and had negative correlation with Prevotella.1 ($r = -0.69$), UNE ($r = -0.59$) and FNE ($r = -0.32$). In contrast, BMF had positive correlation with archaea phylum Euryarchaeota ($r = 0.91$) and species Methanobacterium alkaliphilum ($r = 0.54$), and Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii clade ($r = 0.70$). The bacteria phylum Firmicutes ($r = 0.78$), families Lachnospiraceae ($r = 0.84$) and Ruminococcaceae ($r = 0.79$), and genera Succiniclasticum ($r = 0.59$) also were positively correlated with BMF supplementation and total apparent digestibility of CP ($r = 0.50$). The low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block is useful alternative to a conventional energy protein supplement, that modulates the rumen bacteria population, increasing the ruminal propionate proportion, and improving both rumen ammonia utilization and diet nitrogen retention in beef cattle fed low-quality forage.

Keywords: bacterial diversity, low quality hay, nitrogen retention, propionate, rumen ammonia.

1. INTRODUCTION

Tropical forages are the main feed source for beef cattle in the tropics. However, in these regions during the dry season, there is a drastic decrease in the forage nutritional quality, characterized mainly by higher lignification and lower crude protein content (generally less than 7%), resulting in less both forage intake and fiber microbial degradation in the rumen (Detmann et al., 2014a).

Rumen degradable protein (RDP) is often the most limiting nutrient under grazing low-quality grasses (Titgemeyer et al., 2004, Detmann et al., 2014a). Supplementation with RDP can help to reduce the amount of recycled nitrogen (N) in body pools for use in the rumen, allowing a greater proportion of nitrogen compounds to become available for anabolic purposes (Batista et al., 2016). In this way, supplementation can improve the efficiency of using low-quality pastures and optimize the performance of animals (Casagrande et al., 2011, Detmann et al., 2014b).

Low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) for cattle grazing low-quality forage is a supplementation strategy that has been used due to its practicality, reduced production costs, and the potential to improve forage intake and digestion, due to the RDP supply (Köster et al., 1996; Löest et al., 2001). Besides, the BMF manufacturing process (e.g. extreme heat or pH) can modify the bioavailability of the nutrients, such as the release of ammonia in the rumen (Trater et al., 2003; Katulski et al., 2017), while how to supply supplements (bran *versus* block form) can alter the patterns of supplement intake and the use of nutrients (Katulski et al., 2017).

Regarding that changes in the diet may influence the ruminal microbial community (Dehority and Orpin, 1997, Kim et al., 2011), factors as variations in the forage quality, chemical composition of supplements, or changes in the dynamics of the N supply to the rumen (food supply or via recycling), could affect the ruminal degradation of forage, and consequently the animal productivity. However, few studies are assessing the effects of BMF supplementation on the metabolism and rumen microbiome of cattle fed low-quality forage. Moriel et al., (2019) related that heifers supplemented with BMF fed low-quality forage had better performance than heifers supplemented with a conventional energy

protein supplement (SPE), evidencing the potential of BMF to improve ruminal conditions to the use of low-quality forages.

Despite the importance of an adequate supply of N in the rumen, direct measures of the effect of supplementation with N compounds on microbial diversity and ruminal metabolism are scarce in tropical conditions (Reis et al., 2016). Thus, the objective of this study was to evaluate the ruminal fermentation parameters, nitrogen balance and the ruminal bacterial diversity of Nellore steers fed low-quality forage and supplemented with low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block or energy protein supplement. It was hypothesized that the use of low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block would cause changes in the microbial community and rumen fermentation parameters, resulting in improved use of nutrients and use of nitrogen when compared to conventional energy protein supplementation.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The protocols used in this experiment are in accordance with the guidelines of the Brazilian College of Animal Experimentation and was approved by the Animal Ethics and Welfare Commission of the São Paulo State University “Júlio de Mesquita Filho”, of the School of Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, Jaboticabal campus (Protocol No. 010216/17).

2.1. Animals and treatments

Six castrated Nellore steers (350 ± 10 kg initial body weight and 24 months of age) cannulated in the rumen, were used in a simultaneous double 3×3 Latin Square balanced for residual effects, with three experimental periods of 24 days each, and three treatments (supplements). Animals were housed in individual semi-covered stalls (9.0 m²), equipped with individual feeders and drinkers, and were adapted to the diets during the first 14 days of each experimental period.

The basal diet consisted of *Urochloa brizantha* (Hochst.) Stapf, “Marandu” hay offered *ad libitum*, and experimental supplements were urea mineral salt (SMU) *ad libitum*, or conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE, 0.2% BW), or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) *ad libitum* (Table 1).

Table 1. Proportion of ingredients and chemical composition of experimental supplements and hay.

<i>Inclusion of ingredients (as-fed basis)</i>	Supplements¹			Hay
	SMU	SPE	BMF	
Dried sugarcane molasses	-	-	53.00	-
Ground corn	-	45.00	-	-
Cottonseed meal	-	-	14.30	-
Soybean meal	-	16.00	-	-
Urea	16.00	5.00	13.00	-
Limestone	24.50	10.65	-	-
Ca phosphate	15.00	4.00	8.70	-
Sodium chloride	40.00	15.00	5.00	-
Kaolin ²	-	3.50	-	-
Trace mineral/vitamin premix ³	3.75	0.62	2.50	-
Magnesium oxide	0.67	0.25	0.79	-
Soybean oil	-	-	2.70	-
Palatability enhancer ⁴	0.08	-	-	-
<i>Chemical composition (% DM)</i>				
DM, %	95.00	96.00	94.00	93.65
OM	17.20	63.90	79.70	94.80
CP	46.00	25.00	46.00	3.97
NDFap ⁵	-	7.30	9.13	76.99
ADF	-	14.10	12.30	55.68
RDP, % PB ⁶	100.00	86.60	93.20	22.40
NDICP, %CP	0.69	4.39	3.82	72.65
Lignin	-	-	-	10.35
TDN ⁷	-	53.30	50.70	46.60

¹SMU: urea mineral salt, SPE: protein-energy supplement, BMF: low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block;

² Rumen-inert indigestible substance included;

³ DM basis: 3% Ca, 10% Mg, 23.5% S, 600 mg/kg Co, 20,000 mg/kg Cu, 264 mg/kg Se, 1,200 mg/kg I, 80,000 mg/kg Zn, 53,200 mg/kg Mn, 4,000,000 mg/kg vitamin A, 400,000 mg/kg vitamin D₃, 20,000 mg/kg vitamin E, and 40,000 mg/kg monensin, Poulcox 40, Peshteria, Bulgaria).

⁴Tecnaroma zta sweet note fruit red 4W/10638 powder (New Products Comercial Agricola e Veterinária, Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil).

⁵NDF corrected for ash and protein

⁶ Described by Moriel et al., 2019.

⁷ Calculated as described by Weiss et al. (1992).

Supplements were provided daily at 7:00 am while hay was supplied twice daily (7:00 am and 3:00 pm), in individual feeders. The amount of feed supplied was calculated and adjusted daily to allow 5% leftovers. At the beginning of each experimental period, the body weight of each steer was recorded, after 18 hours of solid fasting, and the amount of SPE provided was adjusted.

2.2. Intake and digestibility of dry matter and nutrients

Intake and digestibility evaluation were carried out on days 18–22 of each experimental period. The daily intake of DM of BMF was estimated by multiplying the concentration of DM of the supplement by the disappearance of the weight of each supplement block obtained between consecutive days. The leftover of hay, SPE, and SMU were collected, homogenized, and weighed every day before the morning feeding, and a subsampled (10%) were stored at -20°C for later analysis.

The total collection of feces was carried out directly from the floor and immediately after each spontaneous defecation. The total feces were weighed each 24 h cycle, homogenized, and a subsampled weighed (10%) and stored at -20°C for later analysis.

Diet samples (hay and supplements), leftovers and feces were pre-dried in an oven with forced air circulation at 55 ° C for 72 hours, then ground in a Willey knife mill to pass a 1mm sieve. For each animal, in each experimental period, were formed a fecal-composite sample based on the pre-dried weight. All samples were analyzed for DM (method 935.01), OM (method 942.05), CP (method 984.13) and EE (method 920.85) according to AOAC (1995). The neutral detergent fiber (NDF) and acid detergent fiber (ADF), their corrections for ash and protein, and lignin also were determined according to Van Soest et al., (1991) and thermostable α -amylase was used in the NDF determination procedure, without the addition of sodium sulphite.

2.3. Nitrogen balance and rumen microbial protein synthesis

Total urine was collected on days 18–22 of each experimental period, using a rubber funnel collector attached to the prepuce and fixed by elastic loops on the steer backs. The funnels were equipped to polyethylene flexible tubes that carried the urine to 20 L containers, and 200 mL H₂SO₄ solution (2.04 M) was placed in each container to prevent the N compounds loss by volatilization (Valadares et al., 1997). At the end of each 24 h cycle, the urine was weighed, mixed, filtered through cheesecloth, a 50 mL subsample were stored to for analysis of total N, and a 10 ml subsample was diluted with 40 ml of 0.036 mM H₂SO₄ for analysis of purine derivatives, both subsamples were stored at -20°C for later analysis.

Rumen microbial protein synthesis was predicted from total purine derivatives (allantoin and uric acid) that were determined in diluted urine subsamples. Concentrations of uric acid were determined using commercial kit (Ácido Úrico Liquiform ref. 140, Labtest®, Diagnostica SA, Minas Gerais, Brazil), and allantoin by the colorimetric method proposed by Chen and Gomes (1992). Purines derivatives absorption (mmol / d) was calculated using the following equation:

$$PDA = (PDe - 0.385 \times BW^{0.75})/0.85$$

where: PDe is the summatory of uric acid and allantoin excreted (mmol/d); 0,385 is the endogenous excretion of purine derivatives (mmol) in the urine unit of metabolic BW ($BW^{0.75}$), and 0.85 is the recovery of absorbed purines as purine derivatives in the urine (mmol/mmol). Microbial N flow (g N / d) was calculated using the following equation:

$$Microbial\ N\ flow = \frac{PDA \times 70}{0.134 \times 0.83 \times 1000}$$

Where PDA is the absorbed purine derivatives (mmol/day), 70 is the purine N content (mg N/mmol), 0.134 is the ratio between bacterial purine N and total N in the rumen, and 0.83 is the true digestibility of purines (Chen e Gomes, 1992).

Urine pure subsamples were analyzed by Kjeldahl method (AOAC, 1995; method 984.13). Total N excreted in the urine daily (g/day) was calculated by utilizing the total N concentration in urine (g/L) and the daily urine volume (L). N retained (NR) were calculated in function of N intake or N digested, using the following equations:

$$NR = NI\ (g/day) - [FNE(g/day) + UNE\ (g/day)] \quad (1)$$

$$NRd = ND\ (g/day) - [UNE\ (g/day)] \quad (2)$$

Where NI corresponds to the daily N intake, FNE is the total of N excreted in the feces daily, UNE is the total of N excreted in the urine daily, and ND is the N digested, calculated as NI – FNE.

2.4. Rumen fermentation parameters

Rumen content samples (± 200 g) were taken through the rumen cannula on 23 d of each experimental period at 0, 2, 4, 6, 8, 10, 12, and 14 h after the morning feeding from different regions of the rumen. Immediately a composite sample were form and filtered through two layers of cheesecloth, to ruminal pH measured using a digital pHmeter (Nova Técnica, PHM, Piracicaba, SP, Brazil), and two subsamples (2 mL each) were taken and stored at -20°C for short chain fatty acids (SCFA) and ammonia ($\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$) concentration analysis.

The SCFA were quantified using gas chromatography (Trace 1300, Thermo Fisher Scientific, Rodano, Milano, Italy), with automatic injector AI 1310, flame ionization detector (FID), a capillary column (15 m x 0.32 mm 0.25 mm diameter, 0.025 mm thick; Carbowax™, Deerfield, IL, USA), and hydrogen as carrier gas. The $\text{NH}_3\text{-N}$ concentration were measured by Kjeldahl distillation according to the methodology of Fenner (1965).

2.5. Rumen bacteria and archaea diversity

Rumen content samples (approximately 50 g of solid and liquid fraction) were collected on 17 d of each experimental period before morning feeding from the ventral and medial region of the rumen. Immediately were added 50 mL of PBS buffer (pH 7.4) at 4°C , mixed vigorously for 3 min, then strained with a sterile mesh fabric (100 μm), and the filtrate was used to obtain a microbial pellet according to Granja-Salcedo et al. (2017). Following, metagenomic DNA extraction was conducted in a subsample (200 mg) of the microbial pellet through the Quick-DNA Fecal/Soil Microbe Miniprep Kit (50 Preps D6010; Zymo Research Corporation, Irvine, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and the FastPrep-24 Classic Instrument (MP biomedical, Illkirch, FR) to cell lyses (Henderson et al., 2013). Metagenomic DNA yield were immediately measured spectrophotometrically (NanoDrop, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and fluorometrically (Qubit® 3.0, kit Qubit® dsDNA Broad Range Assay Kit, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). In addition, purity and integrity were checked spectrophotometrically at A260/A230 nm and A260/A280 nm ratios, and 0.8% agarose

gel electrophoresis staining with SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), respectively.

Sequencing libraries were prepared by amplifying the V4–V5 region of the 16S rRNA gene using primers forward 515F (5'- GTGNCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA- 3') and reverse 926R (5'CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT-3') described by Caporaso et al. (2011). Samples were amplified in duplicates, and the total PCR reaction mixture (20 µl final volume) contained 20 ng of metagenomic DNA, 1,25 mM of MgCl₂; 200 µM de dNTP; 1,0 U of platinum Taq DNA polymerase high fidelity (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA, USA); PCR buffer solution [1×]; 10 µM of each primer and ultrapure water. PCR conditions were held at 95°C for 3 min to denature the DNA, with amplification proceeding for 35 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 53.8°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 45 s; a final extension of 10 min at 72°C. PCR products size was verified through 1% agarose gel electrophoresis using a 1 kb plus DNA ladder (1 kb plus DNA ladder, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Then, PCR products were purified using the Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Recovery kit (Zymo Research Corporation, Irvine, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions, and composite samples were created by combining equimolar ratios of amplicons from the duplicate samples. Sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq (kit MiSeq Reagent v2 (2 × 250pb), Illumina, Inc., NY, USA).

Paired end short read sequence data generated on the Illumina Miseq was processed using the USEARCH package (Edgar, 2010). De-multiplexed paired end sequences were first merged prior to sequence quality filtering, followed by denoising (error correction) and chimera checking and clustering of sequences to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) of 97% similarity. The representative sequences obtained were allocated phylogenetically using the SILVA 132 database (Quast et al., 2013). The complementary analysis was carried out using the R vegan, Phyloseq, and DESeq2 packages in R to calculated Simpson and Shannon indices, Richness ACE and Chao1 estimators, and taxonomic abundance (McMurdie e Holmes, 2013; Oksanen et al., 2013; Love et al., 2014; Wickham, 2016). Sequences have been deposited to the [Sequence Read Archive](#) with accession number PRJNA698580.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyzes were performed using Software R (version 3.5.1). The design adopted was a simultaneous replicated 3×3 Latin square (three treatments and three periods) balanced for residual effects. Initially, both normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and heterogeneity (Bartlett test) of data were verified.

Data of intake, digestibility, nitrogen balance and rumen microbial protein synthesis the model considered the supplement as fixed effects, and the random effects of animal, experimental period, Latin square, and residues from the model:

$$Y_{ijl} = \mu + \kappa l + \tau k + \rho_i(l) + \gamma_j(l) + \tau\kappa(kl) + \varepsilon_{ijl};$$

Where Y_{ijl} = the observed value on steer j to experimental period i, and Latin square l; μ = overall mean; K_l = Latin square effect l; T_k = supplement effect k; $P_i(l)$ = effect of experimental period i into Latin square l; $\gamma_j(l)$ = effect of steer j into Latin square l; $T_k(kl)$ = effect of supplement k and Latin square l interaction; $E_{\varepsilon_{ijl}}$ = residual error.

Rumen fermentation parameters, the sampling time was considered as repeated measure over time, and the ANOVA considered the supplement, the time and its interaction as fixed effects, and the of animal, experimental period, Latin square, and residues from the model. Tukey's post-hoc was applied when ANOVA indicated a significant difference to mean comparison, considering statistical significance when $P \leq 0.05$.

Principal components analysis (PCA) through the FactorMiner package in R was used to extracting the important rumen microbes correlated with fermentation and metabolic parameters observed in the steers grouped by supplement. Beta diversity among supplements was evaluated using the betadisper function on the Vegan package. Richness estimators, alpha diversity index, and relative abundance of ruminal bacteria were compared through Kruskal-Wallis and Dunn's post-hoc test. Differential bacterial abundance was assessed using a pairwise Wilcoxon test between BMF vs SMU, and SPE vs SMU. For both tests were considered statistical significance when $P \leq 0.05$, and tendencies when $P > 0.05$ and $P < 0.10$.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Intake and digestibility

Similar intake of Hay expressed as % of BW and Kg/d, intake of both CP, NDFap expressed as Kg/d and $g/kg^{0.75}$, and nutrients digestibility were observed among SPE and BMF supplements (Table 2). The intake of DM expressed as % of BW and Kg/d, supplement, OM, ADF, and TDN were highest when steers were supplemented with SPE ($P \leq 0.05$). However, BMF allowed higher both CP and EE expressed as Kg/d, and both CP and NDFap expressed as $g/kg^{0.75}$ when compared to SMU ($P < 0.05$), and higher intake of EE (Kg/d) when compared to SPE ($P < 0.001$).

The total apparent digestibility of DM, OM, and ADF were not affected by supplements tested ($P > 0.05$). However, steers supplemented with BMF had higher digestibility of CP ($P = 0.023$), and lower digestibility of NDFap ($P = 0.032$) when compared to SMU, respectively.

Table 1. Intake and total apparent digestibility of nutrients of Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

Item	Supplements			SEM	P value
	SMU	SPE	BMF		
BW, kg	348.30	341.20	353.60		
Intake, %BW					
DM	0.85 ^b	1.17 ^a	0.92 ^b	0.06	<0.001
Hay	0.81 ^b	1.01 ^a	0.87 ^{ab}	0.05	0.015
Supplement	0.04 ^b	0.16 ^a	0.05 ^b	0.01	<0.001
Intake, kg/d					
DM	3.07 ^b	4.12 ^a	3.24 ^b	0.21	0.001
DM Hay	2.91 ^b	3.55 ^a	3.06 ^{ab}	0.19	0.024
DM Supplement	0.15 ^b	0.56 ^a	0.17 ^b	0.05	<0.001
OM	2.80 ^b	3.74 ^a	3.05 ^b	0.19	0.002
CP	0.18 ^b	0.30 ^a	0.40 ^a	0.02	<0.001
NDFap	2.26 ^b	2.74 ^a	2.37 ^{ab}	0.14	0.022
ADF	1.61 ^b	1.97 ^a	1.68 ^b	0.10	0.020
EE	0.02 ^c	0.04 ^b	0.05 ^a	0.00	<0.001
TDN	1.35 ^b	1.95 ^a	1.51 ^b	0.10	<0.001
Intake, $g/kg^{0.75}$					
DM	37.32 ^b	50.92 ^a	39.89 ^b	2.61	<0.001
NDFac	29.67 ^b	37.53 ^a	33.61 ^a	1.97	0.018
CP	2.27 ^b	3.81 ^a	4.94 ^a	0.33	<0.001
TDN	16.48 ^b	24.16 ^a	18.63 ^b	1.27	<0.001

*Apparent digestibility,
%*

DM	52.69	50.99	46.89	1.03	0.136
OM	54.23	52.79	49.75	0.94	0.226
CP	66.68 ^b	69.88 ^{ab}	77.01 ^a	1.76	0.023
NDFac	62.96 ^a	57.42 ^{ab}	56.68 ^b	0.95	0.032
ADF	59.26	55.55	52.14	1.24	0.085

SEM: standard error mean, DM: dry matter, OM: organic matter, CP: crude protein, NDFac: neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and protein, ADF: acid detergent fiber. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

3.2. Nitrogen balance and rumen microbial protein synthesis

Supplements used did not affect both production of microbial nitrogen in the rumen (Nmic) and the efficiency of microbial synthesis in the rumen (EMS) (Table 3). Nitrogen intake (NI) and Nitrogen digested (ND) as g/d were lower in SMU than both SPE and BMF ($P < 0.001$), while steers supplemented with BMF had higher total ND than SPE ($P = 0.002$).

The highest total daily fecal excretion of N (FNE) expressed as g/d was found in steers supplemented with SPE ($P < 0.001$), following by steers supplemented with BMF, being the lowest ENF observed with SMU supplement. However, steers supplemented with BMF had lower FNE when expressed as % of NI than both SPE and SMU ($P = 0.002$).

BMF resulted in higher total daily urine N excretion (UNE) expressed as g/d when compared to SPE ($P = 0.026$), still, when UNE was expressed in function of N intake (% of NI) no differences were observed between BMF and SPE, and steers supplemented with SPE had lower values than SMU ($P = 0.028$). Besides, UNE expressed in function of RN (% of RN) steers supplemented with SMU had highest values ($P = 0.017$).

The lowest total daily nitrogen retention (NR), expressed as g/d ($P = 0.007$), in function of NI (% of NI) ($P = 0.007$), or function of ND (g/d and % of ND) ($P = 0.010$), were observed in animals supplemented with SMU, while steers supplemented with SPE and BMF had similar RN.

Table 3. Nitrogen intake and nitrogen balance as a function of the nitrogen ingested of Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

	Supplements			SEM	<i>P</i> -value
	SMU	SPE	BMF		
NI, g/d	29.76 ^b	49.39 ^a	64.24 ^a	4.40	<0.001
ND, g/d	19.77 ^c	34.62 ^b	50.50 ^a	4.40	0.003
FNE, g/d	9.98 ^c	14.76 ^a	12.60 ^b	0.85	<0.001
UNE, g/d	17.20 ^{ab}	12.58 ^b	24.40 ^a	1.73	0.026
NR, g/d	2.58 ^b	22.03 ^a	27.23 ^a	3.64	0.007
Nmic, g/d	52.33	64.90	89.70	7.62	0.232
EMS, g/ kg TDN	41.39	34.14	64.05	6.85	0.236
% NI					
FNE, %	33.30 ^a	30.10 ^a	20.71 ^b	1.81	0.002
UNE, %	59.82 ^a	27.54 ^b	38.58 ^{ab}	4.86	0.028
NR, %	6.86 ^b	42.35 ^a	40.70 ^a	3.64	0.007
% ND					
NR, g/d	2.57 ^b	22.03 ^a	26.10 ^a	3.60	0.010
UNE, %	90.68 ^a	40.15 ^b	50.66 ^b	7.90	0.017
NR, %	9.32 ^b	59.84 ^a	49.33 ^a	7.70	0.017

SEM: standard error mean, NI: nitrogen intake, ND: nitrogen digested, FNE: fecal nitrogen excretion, UNE: urinary nitrogen excretion, NR: nitrogen retention, Nmic: production of microbial nitrogen in the rumen, EMS: efficiency of microbial synthesis in the rumen. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

3.3. Rumen fermentation parameters

There was an interaction between supplement and sampling time on ruminal NH₃-N concentration ($P=0.001$), Isobutyrate proportion ($P=0.021$) and Isovalerate proportion ($P=0.003$); steers supplemented with SPE had the highest NH₃-N concentration at 2, 4, and 6 h after feeding (Figure 1). BFM allowed higher both Isobutyrate (Figure 1) and Isovalerate (Figure 1) proportion at 0h, while SPE resulted in higher both Isovalerate among 4 and 6h, and Isobutyrate proportion at 14h. Steers supplemented with SMU had higher both Isobutyrate and Isovalerate proportion at 8h (<0.05).

The supplement affected the average ruminal pH, the propionate, butyrate, and valerate proportion, the A:P ratio, and the NGP (Table 4); steers supplemented with BMF had the highest average ruminal pH ($P<0.001$). BMF also resulted in higher propionate proportion and lower both A:P ratio ($P=0.017$) and NGP ($P=0.002$) than SPE. In contrast,

steers supplemented with SPE had higher both butyrate ($P = 0.005$) and valerate ($P = 0.010$) proportion than steers supplemented with SMU.

Sampling time influenced ruminal pH ($P < 0.001$) and propionate proportion ($P = 0.022$). Thus, at 2h after feeding were observed the highest ruminal pH (7.07, 7.27 and 7.19 for SMU, SPE and BMF respectively), while the lowest value was observed at 14h (6.98, 6.80, and 7.03 for SMU, SPE and BMF respectively). Likewise, at 10h after feeding were observed the highest propionate proportion (23.05, 24.41 and 31.49 for SMU, SPE and BMF respectively), while the lowest value was observed at 0h for SMU (20.52), 12h for SPE (20.26) and 14h for BFM (22.27).

Table 4. Ruminal fermentation parameters of Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

Item	Supplements			SEM	<i>P</i> -value		
	SMU	SPE	BMF		Treat	Time	Treat*Time
NH ₃ -N, mg/dL	8.81	16.02	8.27	0.70	<0.001	<0.001	0.001
pH	7.07 ^b	6.99 ^b	7.18 ^a	0.01	<0.001	<0.001	0.055
Acetate, %	71.40	70.27	70.16	0.64	0.136	0.702	0.259
Propionate, %	22.46 ^{ab}	21.70 ^b	24.15 ^a	0.34	0.016	0.022	0.531
Butyrate, %	4.30 ^b	5.14 ^a	4.69 ^{ab}	0.23	0.005	0.599	0.325
Isobutyrate, %	0.76	0.78	0.67	0.02	0.086	0.081	0.021
Valerate, %	0.62 ^b	0.72 ^a	0.66 ^{ab}	0.05	0.010	0.186	0.905
Isovalerate, %	0.89	0.93	0.70	0.05	0.003	0.006	0.003
A:P ratio	3.20 ^{ab}	3.37 ^a	2.96 ^b	0.06	0.017	0.089	0.712
NGP	3.61 ^{ab}	3.86 ^a	3.39 ^b	0.05	0.002	0.184	0.757

SEM: standard error mean, SCFA: short-chain fatty acid, A:P ratio: acetate: propionate ratio, NGP: non-glycogenic proportion of fatty acids: (acetate + (2 butyrate)) ÷ propionate. Treat: supplement type effect, Time: effect of collection time. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

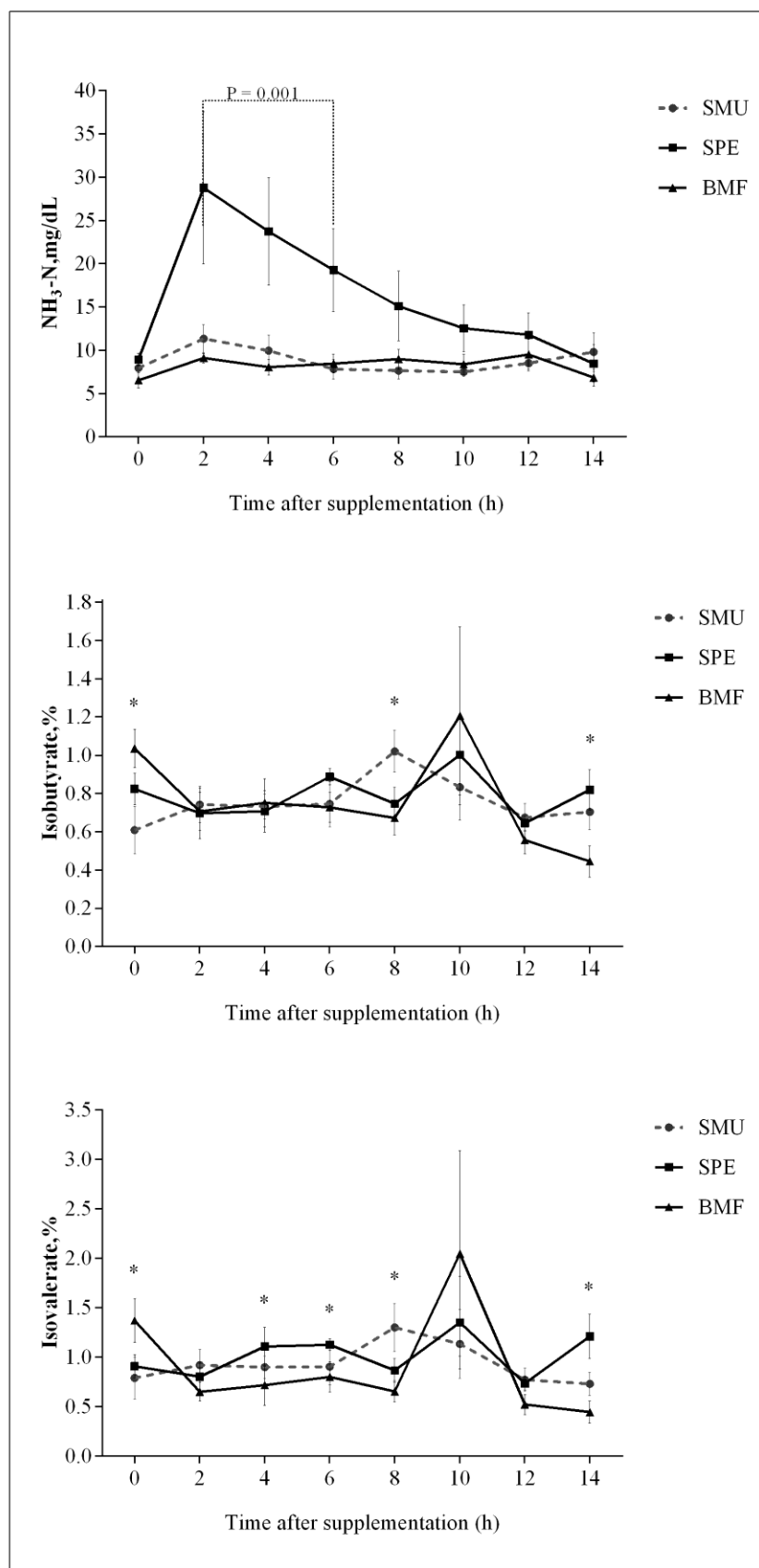


Figure 1. Ruminal ammonia concentration (mg/dL), isobutyrate and isovalerate proportion in function of sampling time of Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF). * treat × time interaction ($P < 0.05$) as obtained with Tukey's test.

3.4. Rumen bacteria and archaea diversity

A total of 691,292 reads were generated, in mean were identified 8,858 OTUs per sample with 97% of similarity. Supplements tested did not affect the beta diversity ($P = 0.709$; Figure S1), the alpha diversity indexes Simpson (0.998 ± 0.001 , $P=0.931$) and Shannon Wiener (6.68 ± 0.2 , $P=0.745$), the richness estimators ACE (1050 ± 249 , $P=0.818$), Chao 1 (1054 ± 250 , $P=0.882$), and the total of observed OTUs (1048 ± 246 , $P= 0.818$).

Near to 5.79% of total OTUs corresponded to the Archaea domain, which was represented exclusively by the Euryarchaeota phylum. The 94.00% of remained OTUs were classified as bacteria and distributed in 17 phyla, 24 classes, 33 orders, 50 families, and 127 genera. Supplements tested did not affect the relative abundance of phyla in the rumen (Table 5), Bacteroidetes (41.20%), Firmicutes (33.56%), and Fibrobacteres (4.55%) were the most abundant phyla, and the Bacteroidetes: Firmicutes ratio were 1.15, 1.24, and 1.36 to BMF, SPE, and SMU, respectively ($P=0.344$).

At the family level, steers supplemented with BMF had lower abundance of Rikenellaceae when compared to SPE ($P=0.049$, Table 5). Both SPE and BMF reduced the relative abundance of Neisseriaceae family when compared to SMU ($P=0.038$). Prevotellaceae was the most abundant family and tended to be lower when steers were supplemented with SPE, than BMF and SMU ($P=0.075$), while the abundance of Bacteroidales F082 family tended to be higher in the rumen of SPE, than BMF and SMU ($P=0.057$). Veillonellaceae tended to be higher in the rumen when steers fed BMF (2.44%) than SPE and SMU ($P=0.095$).

Table 5. Median and interquartile range of phylum and family's relative abundance (%) in Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

	Supplements			P-value
	SMU	SPE	BMF	
Actinobacteria	0.488 ± 0.13	0.513±0.18	0.574±0.29	0.749
Bacteroidetes	42.4 ± 1.76	40.8±3.40	40.4±4.73	0.717
<i>Bacteroidales F082</i>	2.96 ± 0.53 ^b	5.01±2.56 ^a	3.13±1.17 ^b	0.057
<i>Rikenellaceae</i>	10.70 ± 1.11 ^a	11.00±2.30 ^a	8.09±0.37 ^b	0.049
<i>Prevotellaceae</i>	22.00 ± 2.19 ^a	15.70±3.10 ^b	20.90±1.34 ^{ab}	0.075
Chloroflexi	1.03 ± 0.44	0.962±0.54	1.20±0.99	0.863
Cyanobacteria	1.85 ± 0.76	1.42±0.65	1.52±0.39	0.296
Elusimicrobia	0.642 ± 0.32	0.443±0.15	0.592±0.29	0.266
Fibrobacteres	4.71 ± 1.09	4.73±2.55	4.22±1.40	0.794
Firmicutes	31.0 ± 5.56	34.6±2.44	35.1±2.54	0.229
<i>Veillonellaceae</i>	0.941 ± 0.34 ^b	1.08±1.12 ^{ab}	2.44±1.84 ^a	0.095
Fusobacteria	0.025 ± 0.06	NI	0.007±0.03	0.888
Kiritimatiellaeota	3.29 ± 2.75	3.20±1.85	2.74±1.94	0.882
Lentisphaerae	1.40 ± 0.90	1.01±0.86	0.842±0.60	0.749
Planctomycetes	1.11±0.87	0.763±0.37	0.789±0.28	0.745
Proteobacteria	1.52±0.13	1.53±0.77	1.39±0.25	0.794
<i>Neisseriaceae</i>	0.102±0.04 ^a	0.026±0.03 ^b	0.061±0.03 ^{ab}	0.038
Spirochaetes	2.07±0.83	2.22±0.32	2.15±0.23	0.717
Synergistetes	0.639±0.37	0.248±0.17	0.508±0.35	0.106
Verrucomicrobia	NI	0.019±0.03	0.116±0.03	0.704
Unassigned	1.39±0.17	1.15±0.30	1.42±0.45	0.245
Euryarchaeota	6.11±1.21	5.27±1.70	6.01±1.45	0.490

NI: not identified. Values followed with superscript letters indicate statistical differences ($P < 0.05$) based on Kruskal-Wallis test.

At the genera level, the BMF supplementation allowed a higher relative abundance of *Quinella.spp* ($P = 0.033$), *Moryella.spp* ($P = 0.011$), and *Marvinbryantia.spp* ($P = 0.041$), and trend to increase *Ruminococcaceae UCG-001* ($P = 0.068$), *Ruminococcaceae UCG-002* ($P = 0.069$), *Ruminiclostridium 5* ($P = 0.080$) and *Olsenella.spp* ($P = 0.088$) population when compared to SMU (Figure 2A). BMF also resulted in lower ruminal relative abundance of *CPla-4 termite* group ($P = 0.011$) and *Rikenellaceae RC9 gut* group ($P=0.033$), and the relative abundance of *Lachnospiraceae UCG-002* ($P = 0.055$),

Methanimicrococcus blatticola ($P = 0.084$) and *Butyrivibrio.2* ($P = 0.088$) tended to be lower in the rumen of BMF supplemented steers.

Steers supplemented with SPE had a greater ruminal relative abundance of *Mogibacterium.spp* ($P = 0.006$), *Ruminococcaceae UCG-004* ($P = 0.016$), and *Papillibacter.spp* ($P = 0.037$), and trend to have a higher relative population of *Eubacterium coprostanoligenes group* ($P = 0.054$) when compared to SMU (Figure 2B). The *Clostridium sp. CAG-352* ($P = 0.054$), *Lachnoclostridium 10* ($P = 0.054$), *Prevotellaceae UCG-004*, *Ruminococcaceae-UCG-011*, and *Succinivibrio.spp* only were identified in the rumen of steers fed SPE. Steers supplemented with SMU showed a higher ruminal relative abundance of *Fretibacterium.spp* ($P = 0.009$), and *Lachnospiraceae ND3007 group* ($P = 0.024$). The relative abundance of *Prevotellaceae UCG-003* ($P = 0.054$) tended to be lower in the rumen of SPE (Figure 2B).

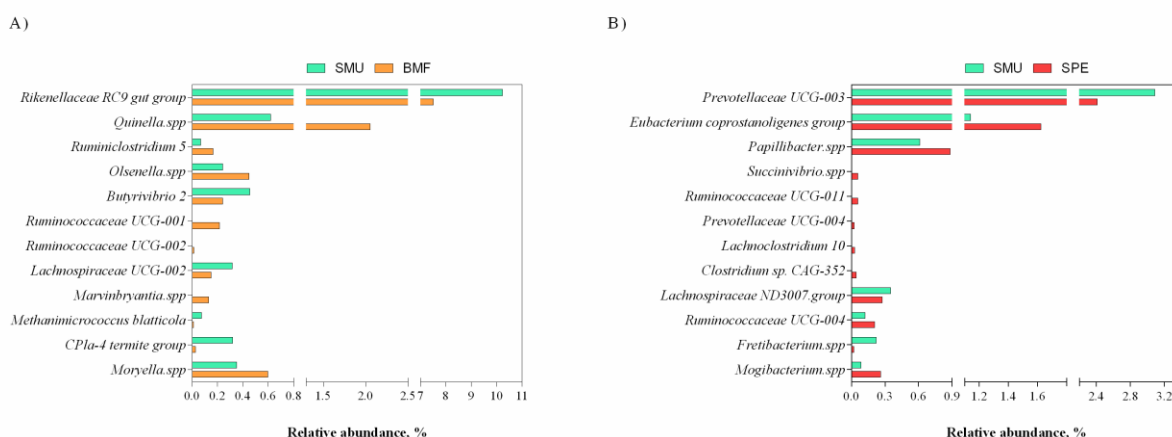


Figure 2. Changes in the rumen microbial relative abundance in Nelore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF, A) or conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE, B).

3.5. Relationships between rumen bacteria and host metabolism

The principal component analysis (PCA) allowed for 58% of the total variability in bacterial communities and diet metabolism in steers (Figure 3). SPE was distributed along the negative region of principal component 1 (Dim 1) with positive correlation with Actinobacteria ($r = 0.86$), Kiritimatiellae ($r = 0.85$), Alphaproteobacteria ($r = 0.84$), *Ruminococcus 2* ($r = 0.77$), Christensenellaceae R7 group ($r = 0.42$), the EMS ($r = 0.59$) and propionate proportion in the rumen ($r = 0.15$), and had negative correlation with *Prevotella.1* ($r = -0.69$), UNE ($r = -0.59$) and FNE ($r = -0.32$). In contrast, BMF was

mainly distributed along the positive region of principal Dim 1 and negative region of the principal component 2 (Dim 2), with a positive correlation with archaea phylum Euryarchaeota ($r = 0.91$) and species *Methanobacterium alkaliphilum* ($r = 0.54$), and *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii* clade ($r = 0.70$). The bacteria phylum Firmicutes ($r = 0.78$), families Lachnospiraceae ($r = 0.84$) and Ruminococcaceae ($r = 0.79$), and genera *Succiniclasticum* ($r = 0.59$) also were positively correlated with BMF supplementation and total apparent digestibility of CP ($r = 0.50$). Finally, the total apparent digestibility of NDF ($r = 0.47$), *Elusimicrobium* ($r = 0.74$), *Streptococcus* ($r = 0.72$), Ruminococcaceae UCG 013 ($r = 0.67$), Gastranaerophilales ($r = 0.64$), and the archaea *Methanomicrobium mobile* ($r = 0.74$) were positively correlated with SMU supplementation.

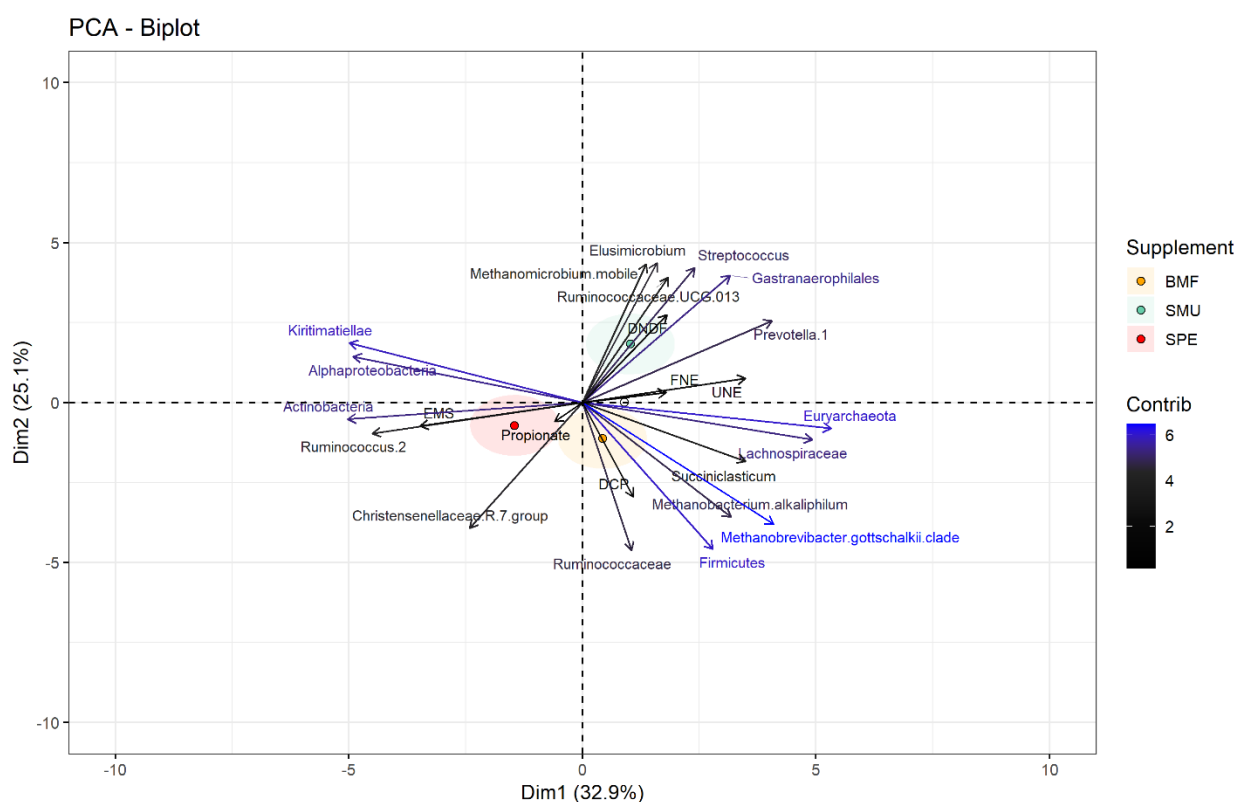


Figure 3. Principal component analysis (PCA) of rumen microbial relative abundance and host metabolism in Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF). DCP: total apparent digestibility of crude protein, DNDF: total apparent digestibility of neutral detergent fiber, FNE: fecal nitrogen excretion, UNE: urinary nitrogen excretion, EMS: efficiency of microbial synthesis in the rumen.

4. DISCUSSION

Improving the low-quality tropical forage utilization by cattle through supplementation has been the focus of several studies. However, understand how the type of supplementation can modulate the rumen microbiome, the fermentation parameters, and the use of nitrogen in beef cattle is still required. Our hypothesis that the use of BMF would cause changes in the microbial community and rumen fermentation parameters improving the use of nutrients and use of nitrogen when compared to conventional energy protein supplementation was rejected, because our results showed that despite the use of BMF influenced the rumen bacterial population composition and the nitrogen utilization efficiency in Nellore steer fed low-quality hay, these changes were similar to those promoted by SPE. However, BMF may be useful as a practical alternative to SPE that may allow a reduction in operative cost.

The forage intake in cattle is modulated by the integration of several mechanisms. When ruminants fed low-quality forage is expected that the rumen filling effect be the main factor that limited the intake (Mertens, 1994). Thus, the low quality of hay (e.g. high NDF content 81.76% and low crude protein content 3.97%) limited the forage intake. Our finds of DM intake in all groups (from 37.3 to 50.9 g/kg^{0.75}) are in line with Preston and Leng (1987) that reported a voluntary intake of tropical forage in cattle between 30 - 80 g/kg^{0.75}. Besides, the high lignin content in the hay (10.35%) may reduce the energy available to rumen microorganisms and consequently, reduce both fiber degradation and ruminal passage rate (de Medeiros and Marino, 2015). The rumen filling effect associated to a low ruminal passage rate may be involved in the increasing of the retention time of digesta in the rumen allowing lower hay intake and higher fiber digestibility (Clipes et al., 2010), as observed in the SMU group, that at PCA showed an important positive association with NDF digestibility and ruminal population of *Streptococcus.spp* and Gastranaerophilales. Some species of *Streptococcus.spp* hydrolyzes cellulose (Oyeleke and Okusanmi, 2008) and urea supplementation can promote higher abundance of this genus (Jin et al., 2016). The Gastranaerophilales order has been recently documented in guts and feces from humans and animals with a role supporting the diet digestion, once can ferment a range of sugars as glucose, starch, and hemicellulose (Di Renzi et al., 2013).

Several studies have reported the voluntary low-quality forage intake increasing by the N compounds supplementation associated with both fiber degradation improvement and microbial growth-promoting (Lazzarini et al., 2009a; Sampaio et al., 2010). However, this effect was not observed in our study, once steers supplemented exclusively with urea (e.g. SMU) showed lower hay intake, evidencing that even N be considered the main limiting nutrient in low-quality forage, the energy substrates from forage limited the microbial fiber degradation activity. This fact may be due to the low NDT intake and associated with UNE, NR and Nmic results suggesting that the SMU supplementation was not enough to increase the N utilization by ruminal microorganism. This may be due to the faster ruminal hydrolysis of non-protein N (NPN) resulting in higher ammonia production that associated with limited energy sources (Souza et al., 2010), that allows ammonia absorption by the ruminal epithelium to the urea conversion in the liver, largely excreted through urine and a lower proportion return to rumen by recycling mechanisms (Kennedy and Milligan, 1980; Angelidis et al., 2019). Is important to highlight that steers fed SMU had a greater proportion of CP intake (116 g) by low-quality hay with lower availability this nutrient (3.97% de PB and 72.65% NDICP). 70 g of CP intake was in the NPN form which if not incorporated by the microorganisms into PBmic, is not useful as a CP source to the animal (Kertz, 2010). The higher ruminal abundance of the Neisseriaceae family of steers supplemented with SMU corroborates the urea hydrolysis activity of this bacterial group in the rumen, as previously suggested by Jin et al. (2016).

The lower DM and NDFcp intake observed in steers fed BMF when compared to those fed SPE may be possibly due to the CP excess (> 100 g CP/kg DM) to the metabolism (Sampaio, 2007), consumed by supplemented BMF steers (123.7 g CP/kg DM), providing higher UNE in these steers. In contrast, the high UNE observed in steers fed SMU may be due to the limited energy source, as previously discussed. The N excess in the rumen may reduce the voluntary intake of NDF (Detmann et al., 2009) and is line with previous reports in beef cattle fed low-quality forage (Sampaio, 2007; Lazzarini et al., 2009b). The urea synthesis in the liver results in a negative balance of 1 ATP per mol of urea (Brody, 1993). In this context, the energy necessary to urea synthesis from the excess protein decreases in function of the energy liquid/metabolizable, being directed to the production of body heat (NRC, 1988). Thus, ruminants may reduce the intake as

compensatory mechanism even without visible signal of this stress (Poppi and McLennan, 1995). The urea cycle depends of Krebs cycle to both energy and oxaloacetate supply, and the excess of ammonia has a negative feedback to Krebs cycle by α -ketoglutarate reduction. Thus, tissues use a pathway with high energy expense (formation of glutamine from glutamate) as an alternative for excess ammonia regulation (Brody, 1993). The energy deficit impairs the brain function and resulting in animal discomfort (Detmann et al., 2007).

Even find some differences in nutrient intake (CP and NDT) among groups, the supplements did not influence the acetate proportion in the rumen. This reasonably agrees to the limited intake of nutrients, once DM, CP and NDT intake in all groups were lower than BR-CORTE requirements System (Valadares Filho et al., 2016) recommendations grazing steers in maintenance (6.30 kg DM; 3.77 kg NDT and 0.69 kg CP).

On another hand, the BMF supplementation promoted a higher propionate proportion in the rumen and consequently lower acetate: propionate ratio. Even with a low inclusion of BMF on the total diet, these results correspond to the fast fermentation of sugar cane molasses present in this supplement (Oba et al., 2015). The BMF were positively associated with *Succinivibrionaceae* population, a gram-negative ruminal bacterium with reported propionate production through succinate conversion (Van Gylswyk, 1995). BMF also promoted the *Quinella.spp* abundance, a propionate producer bacterium related with molasses-fed sheep and steers (Vicini et al., 1987; Tolosa et al., 2004). The lower ruminal abundance of Rikenellaceae family allowed by BMF may be associated to the increasing propionate proportion in the rumen. Rikenellaceae are mainly acetate producer (Zhao et al., 2018) and has been negatively associated with propionate proportion in the rumen of bulls (Wang et al., 2019).

In contrast, SPE supplementation allowed higher valerate acid and iso acids (isobutyrate and isovalerate) ruminal proportion probably through a higher amino acid supply via soybean meal and corn. These SCFA indicates the amino acids fermentation and rumen microorganism recycling commonly used as substrate to microbial growth (Van Soest, 1994), mainly to cellulolytic bacteria as *Fibrobacter succinogenes* and *Butyrivibrio fibrisolvens* (Teodoro, 2014). SPE also tended to promote the ruminal

abundance of Bacteroidales F082 family and may be due the positive correlation with isobutyrate proportions previously reported in dairy calves (Park et al., 2021).

The SPE also allowed higher rumen ammonia concentration mainly at 2 – 6 hours after supplementation. It was expected once the highest concentrations of ammonia usually occur 3 to 5 hours after supplementation (Guimarães Júnior et al., 2016). Some bacteria may be associated with higher ammonia concentration in SPE, as Alphaproteobacteria class that contain members with recognized denitrifying capacity (Muck et al., 2019) and was positively associated with SPE. *Mogibacterium.spp* which was promoted by this supplement and have been associated with ammonia assimilation through the rumen epithelial wall in cattle (Li et al., 2012). *Succinivibrio.spp*, was only identified in the rumen of steers fed SPE and has been positively associated with ruminal ammonia concentrations in grazing Nelore cattle (Granja-Salcedo et al., 2019). *Succinivibrio.spp* represents a group of gram-negative anaerobic bacteria of recognized amylolytic capacity (O'herrin e Kenealy, 1993) and probably was promoted due to the starch supplied by both corn content and higher supplement intake, once its population is generally promoted when cattle or sheep are fed high-grain diets containing starch (Zhang et al. 2018).

The higher rumen pH values allowed by BMF is in line with previous reports in ruminants supplemented with sugarcane molasses and urea combination (Mold et al., 1983; Royes et al., 2001), and may be associated to the higher ruminal relative abundance of *Moryella.spp* in these animals. This genus has been described as a strictly anaerobic that can use glucose, galactose, maltose and ribose as a substrate in a variety of ways and its main metabolic products are acetic, butyric and lactic acids (Carrier, K'ouas and Han, 2007). In ruminants, *Moryella* species were predominant in the rumen of lambs fed on forage (Ellison et al., 2017). Interestingly, the higher rumen pH may be promoted the abundance of *Marvinbryantia.spp* (from Lachnospiraceae family), bacterium considered an uncultured gut acetogens (Petri et al., 2013; Guillén et al., 2019) with an optimal growth pH near to 7.0 (Takors et al., 2018).

The higher FNE (g and %NI) by SPE steers may be explained by the higher N intake when compared to SMU since the proportion of N excreted by urine and feces may increase as dietary N intake and CP digestibility increase (Schuba et al., 2017). To the

environment, fecal N is more stable and contributes lower to N emissions than urine N (Satter, Klopfenstein and Erickson, 2002). Fecal N is composed by undigested diet N and metabolic fecal N, last one as an endogenous fraction with microbial N as a component) (Schwarm et al., 2009). Thus, is probably that the high fiber ingested by steers could promote a post-ruminal fermentation and microbial growth at large intestine (de Oliveira et al., 2013), which provides among 5 - 10% of diet energy (Gressley, Hall and Armentano, 2011) and consequently, increase the N fecal concentration.

In contrast, BMF allowed a higher UNE (g) possibly associated to the higher CP digestibility observed in this group, once a major fraction of N intake was as NPN form that may allow higher urinary urea excretion (Fanchone et al., 2013). Increase the N excretion by urine pathway in cattle is undesirable because it is the main source of ammonia volatilized from cattle manure (Satter, Klopfenstein e Erickson, 2002). However, ENU values observed in both BMF and SPE were near to expected range for diets for ruminants (15 - 40% of N intake) (Calsamiglia et al., 2010). Interestingly, PCA showed an important association among CP digestibility and phylum Firmicutes and its families Lachnospiraceae and Ruminococcaceae in BMF. Lachnospiraceae family has been correlated with amino acid degradation in the rumen (Li e Guan, 2017). Our results are in line with that Alves et al. (2021) who found a positively correlation among Lachnospiraceae and higher UNE in beef cattle and reported that bacteria may promote a greater urinary N excretion through ruminal protein deamination.

Despite both BFM and SPE supplementation provided higher N intake, the lower ruminal N-NH₃ concentration and higher N_{mic} observed in steers supplemented with BFM suggest that BFM may be released higher N assimilation in the rumen compared to SMU and SPE. The total N_{mic} flow depends mainly of energy availability in the rumen (Edwards et al. 2008, Souza et al., 2010), in this case supported by sugarcane molasses inclusion in BMF composition and the EMS, since N supply is not limited (Calsamiglia et al., 2010). Positive effects on NR are frequently associate to improvements in the energy supply in the rumen with microbial protein synthesis increasing and N losses reduction (Schuba et al., 2017). This is in line with our finds once steers fed BMF showed lower both fecal and urinary N excretion (% NI) and higher EMS compared to SMU.

Finally, was possible noticed that BMF supplementation promoted the network in the rumen ecosystem among two important domains of life form in the rumen. With the phylum Euryarchaeota, and species *Methanobacterium alkaliphilum* and *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii* clade as archaea members, and the bacterial phylum Firmicutes and its families Lachnospiraceae and Ruminococcaceae, corroborating the highly interactions in the rumen ecosystem among specific archaea methanogens and cellulose degrader bacteria. The co-occurrence of *Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii* and *Ruminococcaceae* family previous reported by Kittelmann et al. (2013).

5. CONCLUSION

The low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block is useful alternative to a conventional energy protein supplement, that modulates the rumen bacteria population, increasing the ruminal propionate proportion, and improving both rumen ammonia utilization and diet nitrogen retention in beef cattle fed low-quality forage.

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7. SUPPLEMENTARY DATA

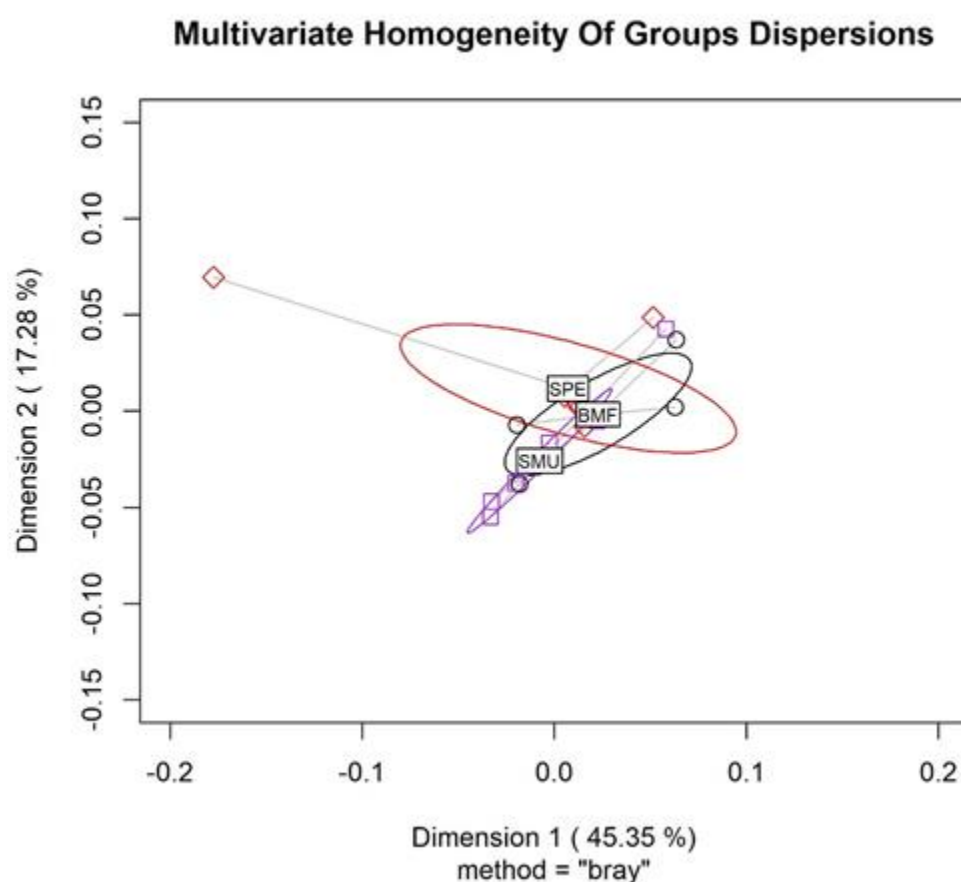


Figure S1. Rumen bacteria beta diversity tested by Permutation test of Multivariate Homogeneity of groups Dispersions based on Bray–Curtis as a similarity index of Nellore steers fed low-quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF).

CHAPTER 3 - EFFECT OF LOW-MOISTURE, SUGARCANE MOLASSES-BASED BLOCK SUPPLEMENTATION ON *IN SITU* RUMINAL DEGRADABILITY, INGESTIVE BEHAVIOR, METABOLIC PARAMETERS, RUMINAL MICROORGANISMS AND THEIR ASSOCIATIONS IN BEEF CATTLE FED WITH LOW QUALITY FORAGE

ABSTRACT: Our objective was to evaluate the ingestive behavior, *in situ* ruminal degradability parameters of dry matter (DM) and neutral detergent fiber (NDF), metabolic parameters, bacterial diversity and ruminal archaea and their correlations in Nellore steers fed with low quality forage and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) or energy protein supplement (SPE). Six castrated Nellore steers (350 ± 10 kg BW) were used in a simultaneous double 3×3 Latin Square balanced for residual effects, with three experimental periods of 24 days each, and three treatments. The basal diet consisted of hay offered *ad libitum*, and experimental supplements were urea mineral salt (SMU) *ad libitum*, or conventional SPE (0.2% BW), or BMF *ad libitum*. Trained observers assess behavior at 5-minute intervals for 24 hours. Metabolic parameters (glucose, urea, triglycerides, total protein and insulin) were measured on day 16 of each period at 0 (before feeding), 4, 8, and 12 hours after feeding. The kinetic parameters of ruminal degradation of total diets were measured using the Ørskov and McDonald methodology. The bags were heat sealed, inserted into the rumen in triplicate and incubated for 4, 8, 12, 24, 36, 48 and 96 hours. Animals supplemented with both SPE and BMF spent higher time in hay interaction than SMU steers ($P=0.004$), while the supplement interaction and total eating time was higher in SPE steers than both SMU and BMF ($P=0.02$). Glucose, insulin, and total protein blood concentrations were not influenced by treatments ($P>0.05$; Table 4); however, the urea concentration was higher in animals supplemented with BMF ($P=0.05$). There was effect of both treatment ($P = 0.022$) and collection time ($P < 0.001$) on triglycerides blood concentration; thus, the BMF supplementation resulted in higher concentrations of triglycerides than SPE supplementation and were observed a linear decreasing concentration as a function of collection time ($P=0.022$). Ruminal degradability of fraction “a” of DM and estimated effective degradability at 2.5 and $8\%h^{-1}$ were similar for animals supplemented with SPE and BMF ($P<0.05$). In contrast, the ruminal degradability of fraction “b” was higher in SMU compared to BMF ($P=0.013$) and the potential degradability was higher for animals supplemented with SPE ($P=0.015$). Fraction “b” was positively correlated with the phylum Fibrobacter ($P=0.034$; $r=0.50$) and negatively with the class Bacilli, the order Lactobacillales, the genera Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005 and Succinimonas.spp ($P<0.016$); $r<-0.56$). The fraction “b” of NDF was positively correlated with the orders Aeromonadales, Desulfuromonadales, the genera Eubacterium hallii group, Coprococcus 1, Ruminiclostridium 5, Ruminobacter and the species Lachnospiraceae UCG.002 ($P<0.001$, $r>0.70$). Plasma urea correlated positively with the Gammaproteobacteria class, the Ruminococcaceae family, the Ruminobacter.spp and Succinivibrio.spp genera and negatively with the Prevotellaceae family and the genus Fretibacterium.spp ($P<0.036$; $r<-0.52$). The low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block is a useful alternative to the conventional energy protein supplement, which modulates the population of ruminal archaea, improving

protein status, ingestive behavior and ruminal degradability in the diet of forage-fed beef cattle.

Key words: low quality hay, ruminal microorganisms, fiber degradation, blood metabolites, supplement

1. INTRODUCTION

Given the capacity of the ruminal ecosystem to successfully digest both structural and cellular components of forage, the host can profit from degradation products as an energy source (Xue et al., 2016). Dietary forage is an important nutrients source and an energy supply for ruminants, which provides the fiber needed to optimize rumen function (Turano, Tiwari and Jha, 2016). One of the most common indices to assess forage quality is the amount of neutral detergent fiber (NDF) and nutrient bioavailability, essential information to ensure that the nutritional requirements of animals are met (Ali et al., 2016).

In tropical grasses, due to forage seasonality, there is a drastic decrease in nutritional quality characterized mainly by both higher lignification and lower crude protein content (Detmann et al., 2014a). To correct this condition, supplementation is used to improve the use of low-quality pastures (Casagrande et al., 2011; Detmann et al., 2014b).

In the search for a low-cost and efficient supplementation, there are the choice of non-protein nitrogen (NPN) sources, such as urea, which has been a good alternative to reduce the cost in protein supplementation in cattle (Sales et al., 2008). The use of low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) associating urea and sugarcane molasses, as supplementation strategy has been adopted (Köster et al., 1996; Titgemeyer et al., 2004; Moriel et al., 2019), mainly due to its manufacturing process, and changes in the bioavailability of nutrients, as the release of ammonia in the rumen (Trater et al., 2003; Katulski et al., 2017). However, the ingestive behavior as a change in supplement intake patterns and nutrient use (Katulski et al., 2017), and differences in both composition and form of supply of supplements, can allow different rumen environment responses (Oliveira et al., 2009).

Ruminal ammonia not used by the microbiome is transported through the rumen wall to the liver over the bloodstream, achieving the urea cycle (Kennedy and Milligan, 1980, Angelidis et al., 2019). During periods of high ruminal availability of N, high blood concentrations of urea are observed (Rennó et al., 2000). In contrast, a low level of protein in the diet promotes a reduction of circulating amino acids, decreasing both the insulin concentration and the entry of glucose rate, and consequently, the availability of energy to the hypothalamus (Ruas et al., 2000). Total proteins found in the plasma are related to nutritional deficiency (González, 2000). Diets with less than 10% protein have been

estimated to decrease blood protein levels (Kaneko et al., 1997). In addition, plasma urea concentration may be an indicator of the diet protein efficiency of use, due to excess supply or asynchrony of energy protein in the rumen (Pessoa et al., 2009).

Therefore, an analysis of the plasma composition and its association with the rumen microbiome can provide important information about the role of rumen-diet interactions in animal conditions, since the health, growth and metabolism of animals are largely dependent on the production of metabolites such as urea, glucose, insulin, triglycerides, and total proteins (Saleem et al., 2013). Thus, the objective of this study was to evaluate the parameters of ruminal degradability of DM and NDF, ingestive behavior, blood metabolic parameters and their possible interaction with ruminal microorganisms in Nellore steers supplemented with low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) fed with low-quality hay. Were hypothesized that supplementation with BMF allows the improvement of ruminal degradability and blood metabolic profile in beef cattle fed low-quality tropical forage.

2. MATERIAL AND METHODS

The protocols used in this experiment are in accordance with the guidelines of the Brazilian College of Animal Experimentation and was approved by the Animal Ethics and Welfare Commission of the São Paulo State University “Júlio de Mesquita Filho”, of the School of Agricultural and Veterinary Sciences, Jaboticabal campus (Protocol No. 010216/17).

2.1. Animals and treatments

Six castrated Nellore steers (350 ± 10 kg initial body weight and 24 months of age) cannulated in the rumen, were used in a simultaneous double 3×3 Latin Square balanced for residual effects, with three experimental periods of 24 days each, and three treatments (supplements). Animals were housed in individual semi-covered stalls (9.0 m²), equipped with individual feeders and drinkers, and were adapted to the diets during the first 14 days of each experimental period.

The basal diet consisted of *Urochloa brizantha* (Hochst.) Stapf, “Marandu” hay offered ad libitum, and experimental supplements were urea mineral salt (SMU) ad libitum, or conventional protein-energy supplement (SPE, 0.2% BW), or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF) ad libitum (Table 1)

Table 1. Proportion of ingredients and chemical composition of experimental supplements and hay.

<i>Inclusion of ingredients (as-fed basis)</i>	Supplements¹			Hay
	SMU	SPE	BMF	
Dried sugarcane molasses	-	-	53.00	-
Ground corn	-	45.00	-	-
Cottonseed meal	-	-	14.30	-
Soybean meal	-	16.00	-	-
Urea	16.00	5.00	13.00	-
Limestone	24.50	10.65	-	-
Ca phosphate	15.00	4.00	8.70	-
Sodium chloride	40.00	15.00	5.00	-
Kaolin ²	-	3.50	-	-
Trace mineral/vitamin premix ³	3.75	0.62	2.50	-
Magnesium oxide	0.67	0.25	0.79	-
Soybean oil	-	-	2.70	-
Palatability enhancer ⁴	0.08	-	-	-
<i>Chemical composition (% DM)</i>				
DM, %	95.00	96.00	94.00	93.65
OM	17.20	63.90	79.70	94.80
CP	46.00	25.00	46.00	3.97
NDFap ⁵	-	7.30	9.13	76.99
ADF	-	14.10	12.30	55.68
RDP, % PB ⁶	100.00	86.60	93.20	22.40
NDICP, %CP	0.69	4.39	3.82	72.65
Lignin	-	-	-	10.35
TDN ⁷	-	53.30	50.70	46.60

¹SMU: urea mineral salt, SPE: protein-energy supplement, BMF: low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block;

²Rumen-inert indigestible substance included;

³DM basis: 3% Ca, 10% Mg, 23.5% S, 600 mg/kg Co, 20,000 mg/kg Cu, 264 mg/kg Se, 1,200 mg/kg I, 80,000 mg/kg Zn, 53,200 mg/kg Mn, 4,000,000 mg/kg vitamin A, 400,000 mg/kg vitamin D₃, 20,000 mg/kg vitamin E, and 40,000 mg/kg monensin, Poulcox 40, Peshteria, Bulgaria).

⁴Tecnaroma zta Sweet note fruit red 4W/10638 powder (New Products Comercial Agrícola e Veterinária, Campinas, São Paulo, Brazil).

⁵NDF corrected for ash and protein

⁶Described by Moriel et al., 2019.

⁷ Calculated as described by Weiss et al. (1992).

Supplements were provided daily at 7:00 am while hay was supplied twice daily (7:00 am and 3:00 pm), in individual feeders. The amount of food supplied was calculated and adjusted daily to allow 5% leftovers. At the beginning of each experimental period, the body weight of each steer was recorded, after 18 hours of solid fasting, and the amount of SPE provided was adjusted.

2.2. Ingestive behavior

Ingestive behavior was performed on day 15 of each experimental period, using the methodology described by Bürger et al. (2000) and Van Cleef et al. (2016). Trained observers assess behavior at 5-minute intervals for 24 hours. Hay interactions, supplement interactions, feeders interactions, drinker interactions, idleness, stereotypies (when the animal bit the stall wood, licked repeatedly or knocked repeatedly), rumination and other activities (ie. urinating, defecating) were evaluate.

The time spent on each activity was calculated by the number of observations recorded multiplied by 5 and then divided by 60 and expressed in hours/day. The number and time of mericic chewing per ruminal bolus and the average time spent in mericic chewing per ruminal bolus were also observed, using a digital chronometer.

The results regarding the factors of ingestive behavior were obtained by the following relationships:

$$FE = DMI/TOF$$

$$FE = NDFI/TOF$$

$$RUE = DMI/RUT$$

$$RUE = NDFI/RUT$$

$$TCT = TOF + RUT$$

$$BOL = RUT/MCtb$$

$$MCnd = BOL * MCnb$$

Where: FE (g DM/h e g NDF/h) is the feed efficiency; DMI (g DM/day) is dry matter intake; NDFI (g NDF/day) is NDF intake; TOF (h/day) is feeding time; RUE (g DM/h; g NDF/h) is rumination efficiency; RUT (h/day) is rumination time; TCT (h/day) is the total

chewing time, BOL (no/day) is the number of ruminal boluses; RUT (s/day) is rumination time; MCtb (s/bolus) is the chewing time of mericic by the ruminal bolus (Polli, Restle e Senna 1996); MCnd (no/day) is the number of mericic chews and MCnb (no/bolus) is the number of mericic chews per bolus.

2.3. Metabolics parameters

Blood metabolic parameters (glucose, urea, triglycerides, total protein, and insulin) were measured on day 16 of each period. Two blood samples (10 mL each) from the jugular vein of each animal were obtained at 0 (before feeding), 4, 8, and 12 hours after feeding, through hypodermic needles and two vacuum tubes containing heparin (BD Vacutainer® Heparin 143 UI) and kept under constant cooling. Then, one of the samples was centrifuged at 3000 rpm at 4°C for 15 minutes for analysis of glucose, urea, triglycerides, and total protein. The other sample was centrifuged at 4000 rpm, at 4°C for 20 minutes for insulin analysis.

Serum from centrifuged samples was transferred to an identified Eppendorf microtube and frozen at -20°C until the moment of analysis. Insulin was estimated by dual antibody liquid-phase radioimmunoassay, while concentrations of glucose (ref. 133), urea (ref. 27), triglycerides (ref. 87) and total protein (ref. 99) were determined by a commercial kit (Labtest®, Diagnostica SA, Minas Gerais, Brazil) according to the manufacturer's recommendations in the Animal Physiology Laboratory (FZEA/USP, Pirassununga, São Paulo, Brazil).

2.4. Ruminal degradability of diets

The kinetic parameters of ruminal degradation of total diets were taken using the nylon bag technique (Ørskov and McDonald, 1979). Nylon bags (50 µm, 5 × 10 cm), dried at 105 °C, weighed and identified were used. Subsequently, they were filled with approximately 5 g of the evaluated diets, previously ground to 5 mm, corresponding to a ratio of sample weight / nylon bag surface area of 12.5 mg/cm² (Nocek, 1988). Then, the bags were heat sealed, inserted into the rumen in triplicate and incubated for 4, 8, 12, 24, 36, 48, and 96 hours, in reverse order of times so that all bags were removed from the

rumen at the end of the fermentation period. For each animal within a period, 21 bags were prepared.

The soluble fraction was estimated by washing the unincubated bags (time 0) and, immediately after recovery, all bags were placed in a bucket with cold water to stop the microbial fermentation and washed in the machine for 10 minutes. The bag residues were grouped by time and treatment in each experimental period, ground in a sieve with a 1 mm and retained in containers for later determination of its composition. Diets and residues were analyzed for DM (method 935.01; AOAC, 1995) and NDF (Van Soest et al., 1991). The content of these fractions in diet samples and the incubation residues, together with the weights of the incubated materials and residues were used to calculate the disappearance of the fractions. Nutrient degradation kinetics were estimated using non-linear regression.

To assess the potential degradation of the variables, the model proposed by Ørskov and McDonald (1979) was used:

$$PD = a + b(1 - e^{-ct}),$$

Where: PD (%) is potential degradation of the nutritive component; a , b , and c = model constants (a = soluble and very rapidly degradable fraction; b = slowly degradable fraction; and c = fractional degradation rate of b); and t (h) is the incubation time.

To determine the effective degradability, the expression:

$$ED = a + [(b \times c) / (c + k)],$$

Where: ED (%) is effective degradation; a , b , and c are as described above, and k is the fractional rate of passage from the rumen (AFRC, 1993).

2.5. Rumen bacteria and archaea diversity

Rumen content samples (approximately 50 g of solid and liquid fraction) were collected on 17 d of each experimental period before morning feeding from the ventral

and medial region of the rumen. Immediately were added 50 mL of PBS buffer (pH 7.4) at 4°C, mixed vigorously for 3 min, then strained with a sterile mesh fabric (100 µm), and the filtrate was used to obtain a microbial pellet according to Granja-Salcedo et al. (2017). Following, metagenomic DNA extraction was conducted in a subsample (200 mg) of the microbial pellet through the Quick-DNA Fecal/Soil Microbe Miniprep Kit (50 Preps D6010; Zymo Research Corporation, Irvine, USA) according to the manufacturer's instructions and the FastPrep-24 Classic Instrument (MP biomedical, Illkirch, FR) to cell lyses (Henderson et al., 2013). Metagenomic DNA yield was immediately measured spectrophotometrically (NanoDrop, ThermoFisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA) and fluorometrically (Qubit® 3.0, kit Qubit® dsDNA Broad Range Assay Kit, Life Technologies, Carlsbad, CA, USA). In addition, purity and integrity were checked spectrophotometrically at A260/A230 nm and A260/A280 nm ratios, and 0.8% agarose gel electrophoresis staining with SYBR Gold Nucleic Acid Gel Stain (Thermo Fisher Scientific, Waltham, MA, USA), respectively

Sequencing libraries were prepared by amplifying the V4–V5 region of the 16S rRNA gene using primers forward 515F (5'- GTGNCAGCMGCCGCGGTAA- 3') and reverse 926R (5'CCGYCAATTYMTTTRAGTTT-3') described by Caporaso et al. (2011). Samples were amplified in duplicates, and the total PCR reaction mixture (20 µl final volume) contained 20 ng of metagenomic DNA, 1,25 mM of MgCl₂; 200 µM de dNTP; 1,0 U of Platinum Taq DNA polymerase high fidelity (Invitrogen; Carlsbad, CA, USA); PCR buffer solution [1×]; 10 µM of each primer and ultrapure water. PCR conditions were held at 95°C for 3 min to denature the DNA, with amplification proceeding for 35 cycles at 95°C for 30 s, 53.8°C for 30 s, and 72°C for 45 s; a final extension of 10 min at 72°C. PCR products size was verified through 1% agarose gel electrophoresis using a 1 kb plus DNA ladder (1 kb plus DNA ladder, Invitrogen, Carlsbad, CA, USA). Then, PCR products were purified using the Zymoclean™ Gel DNA Recovery kit (Zymo Research Corporation, Irvine, USA) following the manufacturer's instructions, and composite samples were created by combining equimolar ratios of amplicons from the duplicate samples. Sequencing was performed using the Illumina MiSeq (kit MiSeq Reagent v2 (2 × 250pb), Illumina, Inc., NY, USA).

Paired-end short read sequence data generated on the Illumina Miseq was processed using the USEARCH package (Edgar, 2010). De-multiplexed paired-end sequences were first merged prior to sequence quality filtering, followed by denoising (error correction) and chimera checking and clustering of sequences to operational taxonomic units (OTUs) of 97% similarity. The representative sequences obtained were allocated phylogenetically using the SILVA 132 database (Quast et al., 2013) and e RIM-DB (Seedorf et al., 2014). The complementary analysis was carried out using the R vegan, Phyloseq, and DESeq2 packages in R to calculate Simpson and Shannon indices, Richness ACE and Chao1 estimators, and taxonomic abundance (McMurdie & Holmes, 2013; Oksanen et al., 2013; Love et al., 2014; Wickham, 2016). Sequences have been deposited to the [Sequence Read Archive](#) with accession number PRJNA698580.

2.6. Statistical analysis

Statistical analyses were performed using Software R (version 3.5.1). The design adopted was a simultaneous replicated 3×3 Latin square (three treatments and three periods) balanced for residual effects. Initially, both normality (Shapiro-Wilk test) and heterogeneity (Bartlett test) of data were verified.

Data of intake, ruminal degradability and ingestive behavior were analyzed according to the following statistical model:

$$Y_{ijl} = \mu + \kappa l + \tau k + \rho_i(l) + \gamma_j(l) + \tau\kappa(kl) + \varepsilon_{ijl};$$

Where Y_{ijl} = the observed value on steer j to experimental period i , and Latin square l ; μ = overall mean; K_l = Latin square effect l ; T_k = supplement effect k ; $P_i(l)$ = effect of experimental period i into Latin square l ; $\gamma_j(l)$ = effect of steer j into Latin square l ; $T_k(kl)$ = effect of supplement k and Latin square l interaction; $E_{\varepsilon_{ijl}}$ = residual error.

Metabolic parameters, the sampling time was considered as a repeated measure over time, and the ANOVA considered the supplement, the time and its interaction as fixed effects, and same random effects than the previously described model. Tukey's post-hoc was applied when ANOVA indicated a significant difference to mean comparison, considering statistical significance when $P \leq 0.05$.

Ruminal abundances of Archaea were compared between supplements by the Kruskal-Wallis test. Spearman correlation analysis was used to test the relationship between metabolic parameters, ruminal degradability, and relative abundance of taxa in bacterial populations. The resulting correlation matrix was performed and visualized in a heat map format generated by the R Software corrrplot package and only significant correlations ($P \leq 0.05$) for at least one of the analyzed variables were shown.

3. RESULTS

3.1. Ingestive behavior

Animals supplemented with both SPE and BMF spent higher time in hay interaction than SMU steers ($P=0.004$), while the supplement interaction and total eating time was higher in SPE steers than both SMU and BMF ($P=0.02$; Table 2). Steers supplemented with SMU showed higher both idle time ($P=0.020$) and stereotypies time ($P=0.042$) than SPE and BMF steers. The time spent in water intake, rumination and other activities were not influenced by the treatments ($P > 0.05$).

The total chewing time ($P=0.001$) and the number of ruminal boluses ($P=0.028$) were higher in SPE steers than SMU and BMF steers. While the number of chews, number of chews per bolus and time of mericic chews per ruminal bolus did not differ among treatments ($P>0.05$; Table 2).

Table 2. Ingestive behavior, total and mericic chewing time of Nellore steers fed with low quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), protein energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF).

Item	Supplements			SEM	<i>P value</i>
	SMU	SPE	BMF		
<i>Activity, h/day</i>					
Hay interactions	3,18 ^b	4,12 ^a	3,77 ^a	0,17	0,004
Supplement interaction	0,25 ^b	0,47 ^a	0,23 ^b	0,04	0,002
Eating	3,43 ^c	4,59 ^a	4,00 ^b	0,18	<0,001
Water intake	0,20	0,11	0,22	0,06	0,655
Rumination	5,36	6,47	5,82	0,31	0,067
Idle	13,37 ^a	12,02 ^b	12,90 ^{ab}	0,37	0,020
Other activities	0,44	0,41	0,51	0,07	0,949
Stereotypies	1,19 ^a	0,40 ^b	0,55 ^b	0,15	0,042

Merivic chews

TCT, min/day	527,50 ^c	662,50 ^a	590,83 ^b	24,46	0,001
BOL, no./day	286,91 ^b	410,14 ^a	312,67 ^{ab}	27,97	0,032
MCnd, no./day ¹	17,42	20,16	18,33	1,17	0,394
MCnb, no./bolus	62,16 ^a	50,41 ^a	60,88 ^a	2,66	0,233
MCTb, min/bolus	1,14	0,98	1,15	0,04	0,196

SEM: standard error mean; TCT: total chewing time; BOL: number of ruminal boluses; MCTb: chewing time of merivic by the ruminal bolus; MCnd: number of merivic chews; MCnb: number of merivic chews per bolus.¹×10³. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

The DM (g/day, %BW, P=0.001) and NDF intake (P=0.027) was higher in animals supplemented with SPE. Both, feeding and rumination efficiencies (g DM/h and g NDF/h) were similar among treatments (Table 3).

Table 3. Dry matter and neutral detergent fiber intakes, feeding and rumination efficiencies of Nellore steers fed with low quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), protein energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF).

Item	Supplements			SEM	P value
	SMU	SPE	BMF		
DMI, g/day	3070,71 ^b	4126,18 ^a	3241,60 ^b	0,215	0,001
DMI, % BW	0,85 ^b	1,17 ^a	0,92 ^b	0,061	0,001
NDFI, g/day	2442,78 ^b	3041,61 ^a	2729,73 ^{ab}	0,162	0,027
FE, g DM/h	935,84	913,90	811,58	55,26	0,152
FE, g NDF/h	743,03	673,78	681,76	42,86	0,627
RUE, g DM/h	574,11	674,75	575,27	40,37	0,239
RUE, g NDF/h	456,47	496,07	482,84	30,49	0,754

SEM: standard error mean. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

3.2. Metabolics parameters

Glucose, insulin, and total protein blood concentrations were not influenced by treatments (P>0.05; Table 4); however, the urea concentration was higher in animals supplemented with BMF (P=0.05). There was effect of both treatment (P = 0.022) and collection time (P < 0.001) on triglycerides blood concentration; thus, the BMF supplementation resulted in higher concentrations of triglycerides than SPE supplementation and were observed a linear decreasing concentration as a function of

collection time, from 3.25 mg/dL at time 0 to 2.27 mg/dL 12 hours after supplementation ($P = 0.022$).

Table 4. Metabolic parameters of Nellore steers fed with low quality hay and supplemented with urea mineral salt (SMU), protein energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

Item	Supplements			SEM	<i>P value</i>		
	SMU	SPE	BMF		Tr	Time	Time*Tr
Glucose, mg/dL	59,80	62,10	61,95	0,76	0,193	0,054	0,883
Insulin, μ UI/mL	8,18	7,02	7,42	0,37	0,110	0,117	0,054
Total protein, g/dL	8,12	8,06	8,09	0,05	0,868	0,332	0,546
Urea, mg/dL	36,47 ^b	36,86 ^b	39,13 ^a	1,12	0,050	0,154	0,726
Triglycerides, mg/dL	19,85 ^{ab}	19,59 ^b	20,74 ^a	0,30	0,022	<0,001	0,674

SEM: standard error mean. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

3.3. Ruminal degradability

The ruminal degradability of the fraction “a” of dry matter ($P=0.009$), estimated effective degradability at 2 ($P=0.005$), 5 ($P=0.004$) and 8%h-1 ($P=0.003$) was lower in SMU when compared to both SPE and BMF supplements. In contrast, the ruminal degradability of fraction “b” was higher in SMU compared to BMF ($P=0.013$; Table 5) and the potential degradability was higher for animals supplemented with SPE ($P=0.015$). The tested supplements did not influence any of the variables studied in the ruminal degradability of NDF ($P>0.05$).

Table 5. *In situ* ruminal degradation parameters of DM and NDF of Nellore steers fed with low-quality hay and supplemented with ureated mineral salt (SMU), protein energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF)

Item	Degradability parameters	Supplements			SEM	<i>P value</i>
		SMU	SPE	BMF		
DM	a	18,91 ^b	22,54 ^a	22,58 ^a	0,57	0,009
	b	32,14 ^a	31,06 ^{ab}	30,28 ^b	0,51	0,013
	c	48,93	46,4	47,13	0,61	0,283
	Kd	2,26	2,74	2,58	0,25	0,372
	PD	47,18 ^b	51,15 ^a	49,46 ^{ab}	0,54	0,015
	ED, 2% h ⁻¹	35,84 ^b	40,42 ^a	38,94 ^a	0,56	0,005
	ED, 5% h ⁻¹	28,84 ^b	33,54 ^a	32,34 ^a	0,58	0,004

NDF	ED, 8% ^{h-1}	25,94 ^b	30,51 ^a	29,54 ^a	0,58	0,003
	a	16,14	21,06	19,52	1,53	0,337
	b	34,75	32,97	35,99	0,93	0,193
	c	49,09	45,95	44,48	1,24	0,383
	Kd	2,44	3,34	3,07	0,32	0,508
	PD	47,13	51,9	51,9	1,34	0,301
	ED, 2% ^{h-1}	34,99	41,14	40,24	1,55	0,185
	ED, 5% ^{h-1}	27,39	33,94	32,59	1,61	0,160
	ED, 8% ^{h-1}	24,17	30,58	29,16	1,60	0,152

SEM: standard error mean; kd: rate of ruminal degradation of the fraction; DP: potential degradability; ED: effective degradability, calculated as $Kd = 0.02, 0.05$ and $0.08\ h^{-1}$. Values followed by different superscript letters on the same line differ by Tukey's test at 5% probability.

3.4. Ruminal microorganisms and their association with rumen degradation and metabolic parameters

The ruminal bacterial composition is described in chapter 2. Overall, 8,858 OTUs were identified, distributed in 17 phyla, 24 classes, 33 orders, 50 families, 127 genera, and 12 species of rumen bacteria, but only 35 OTUs were correlated with the parameters of rumen degradation and 41 OTUs to metabolic parameters.

Regarding the methanogenic Archaea, 12 species belonging to the Euryarchaeota phylum were identified (Table 1) and were not influenced by the treatments. However, the species Group10.sp was not identified in animals supplemented with SPE, and the species Group5.sp was identified only in animals supplemented with SMU. Only four OTUs within the Archaea domain were correlated to degradation parameters or metabolic parameters.

Table 6. Median and interquartile range of relative ruminal Archaea abundance at the level of phylum, family, genus, and species (%) in Nellore steers fed low quality hay and supplemented with ureate mineral salt (SMU), protein energy supplement (SPE) or low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block (BMF).

	Supplements			P value
	SMU	SPE	BMF	
Phyla				
Euryarchaeota	6,11±1,21	5,27±1,70	6,01±1,45	0,490
Family				
<i>Methanobacteriaceae</i>	3,77±0,67	4,35±1,94	4,70±2,22	0,818
<i>Methanomassiliococcaceae</i>	0,350±0,20	0,313±0,07	0,546±0,13	0,479
<i>Methanomicrobiaceae</i>	1,33±2,00	0,375±0,13	0,697±0,44	0,369

<i>Methanosarcinaceae</i>	0,072±0,09	0,010±0,06	0,011±0,02	0,208
Genus				
<i>Methanimicrococcus</i>	0,072±0,09	0,010±0,06	0,011±0,02	0,208
<i>Methanobacterium</i>	0,180±0,07	0,327±0,20	0,339±0,28	0,365
<i>Methanobrevibacter</i>	3,45±0,68	3,84±2,00	4,32±1,77	0,686
<i>Methanomicrobium</i>	1,33±2,00	0,375±0,13	0,697±0,44	0,369
<i>Methanosphaera</i>	0,184±0,07	0,153±0,14	0,154±0,11	0,855
Species				
<i>Group10.sp</i>	0,121±0,10	NI	0,243±0,15	0,122
<i>Group9.sp.ISO4.G1</i>	0,158±0,02	0,146±0,13	0,193±0,02	0,503
<i>Group5.sp</i>	0,076±0,00	NI	NI	0,434
<i>Group8.sp WGK1</i>	0,069±0,08	0,031±0,00	0,059±0,02	0,702
<i>Group9.s CH1270</i>	0,022±0,02	0,011±0,00	NI	0,380
<i>Methanimicrococcus blatticola</i>	0,072±0,09	0,010±0,06	0,011±0,02	0,208
<i>Methanobacterium alkaliphilum</i>	0,180±0,07	0,327±0,20	0,339±0,28	0,365
<i>Methanobrevibacter gottschalkii clade</i>	1,92±0,61	2,43±0,53	2,58±0,76	0,441
<i>Methanobrevibacter ruminantium clade</i>	1,44±0,45	1,34±1,31	1,74±1,01	0,794
<i>Methanomicrobium.mobile</i>	1,33±2,00	0,375±0,13	0,697±0,44	0,369
<i>Methanosphaera.sp..ISO3.F5</i>	0,184±0,07	0,153±0,14	0,154±0,11	0,855
Not assigned	94,00±1,24	94,80±1,69	94,00±1,38	0,426

NI: not identified. Values followed with different superscript letters on the same line differ by the Kruskal-Wallis test at 5% probability.

The DM fraction “a” were positively correlated with the genera Lachnospiraceae NK4A136 group and Mogibacterium.spp ($P<0.007$; $r>0.61$) and negatively correlated with the phylum Melainabacteria, the class Betaproteobacteriales, the order Gastranaerophilales, the family Neisseriaceae and genus hoas 07d05 gut group ($P<0.012$; $r<-0.57$; Figure 1).

The phylum Fibrobacter, both Bacilli and Betaproteobacteriales classes, the Lactobacillales order, and the genera Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005, Lachnospiraceae XPB1014 group, Pseudobutyribrio, Streptococcus.spp, and Succinimonas.spp were positively correlated with the DM fraction “c” ($P<0.004$; $r>0.63$). This fraction also was negatively correlated with the order Bacteroidales BS11 gut group, the Christensenellaceae family, the both Christensenellaceae R.7 group and Lachnospiraceae NK4A136 group genera ($P<0.003$; $r<-0.66$).

Fraction “b” was positively correlated with the phylum Fibrobacter ($P=0.034$; $r=0.50$) and negatively correlated with the class Bacilli, the orders MVP 15, Lactobacillales, and the genera Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005 and Succinimonas.spp ($P<0.016$; $r<-0.56$).

The DM potential degradability was positively correlated to Bacteroidales BS11 gut group order, the families Christensenellaceae and Porphyromonadaceae, the genera Christensenellaceae R.7 group and Methanobacterium.spp, and the species Eubacterium coprostanoligenes group and Methanobacterium alkaliphilum ($P < 0.003$; $r > 0.67$). In contrast, a negative correlation was observed with the Betaproteobacteriales class, the families Neisseriaceae and Prevotellaceae, and the genus Pseudobutyrvibrio.spp ($P < 0.001$; $r < -0.71$).

The effective DM degradation rates at 2 and 5%/h showed the same correlations: positively with the Bacteroidales BS11 gut group order, the family Porphyromonadaceae, genera Mogibacterium.spp and Methanobacterium.spp, and the species species Methanobacterium alkaliphilum and the Eubacterium coprostanoligenes group, the ($r > 0.59$; $P < 0.019$), and negatively with both Neisseriaceae and Prevotellaceae families ($r < -0.58$; $P < 0.013$). The effective NDF degradation at 8%/h showed same correlations previously described, except for the positive correlation with the genus Lachnospiraceae NK4A136 group ($P = 0.026$, $r = 0.52$) and negative correlation with the class Melainabacteria and the genus hoA5 -07d05 gut group ($P < 0.038$; $r < -0.49$).

The NDF fraction “a” was positively correlated only with the genus Atopobium.spp ($P = 0.029$; $r = 0.51$). On the other hand, it showed a negative correlation with the phyla Melainabacteria and Proteobacteria, the class Gammaproteobacteria, the orders MVP 15, Aeromonadales, Desulfuromonadales, Gastranaerophilales, the genera Ruminobacter.spp and Succinimonas.spp, the species Eubacterium hallii group, Family XIII AD3011 group and Lachnospiraceae UCG,002 ($P < 0.001$; $r < -0.74$).

The NDF fraction “c” was positively correlated with the phylum Melainabacteria, the class Bacilli, the orders MVP 15, Gastranaerophilales, Lactobacillales, the genera Lachnospiraceae bacterium FD2005, Lachnospiraceae XPB1014 group, Pseudobutyrvibrio, Streptococcus and Succinimonas species AD30, the species Family XIII ($P < 0.001$; $r > 0.70$) and negatively correlated with the Christensenellaceae families, the genera Atopobium.spp and Christensenellaceae R.7 group ($P < 0.011$; $r < -0.58$).

The NDF fraction “b” was positively correlated with the orders Aeromonadales, Desulfuromonadales, the genera Eubacterium hallii group, Coprococcus 1,

Ruminiclostridium 5, Ruminobacter and the species Lachnospiraceae UCG.002 ($P<0.001$, $r>0.70$).

The NDF potential degradability was positively correlated with the genus Bacteroidales BS11 gut group ($P=0.045$, $r=0.48$) and negatively correlated with the classes Bacilli, Melainabacteria, the order Lactobacillales, the genera Lachnospiraceae XPB1014 and Pseudobutyrvibrio ($P<0.021$; $r<-0.54$).

The NDF degradation rate of 2%/h was positively correlated with the genus Mogibacterium.spp ($P=0.027$, $r=0.52$) and negatively correlated with the phylum Melainabacteria, the order Betaproteobacteriales, the family Prevotellaceae and the genus Eubacterium hallii group ($P<0.027$, $r<-0.52$). The NDF degradation rate at 8%/h was negatively correlated with the phylum Proteobacteria, the order Gastranaerophilales and the species Eubacterium hallii group ($P<0.001$; $r<-0.71$). Finally, the degradation rate at 5%/h presented similar behavior, additionally it also presented a negative correlation with the phylum Melainabacteria, the genus hoas 07d05 gut group ($P<0.035$; $r<-0.50$) and positive with the genus Mogibacterium.spp ($P=0.028$, $r=0.52$).

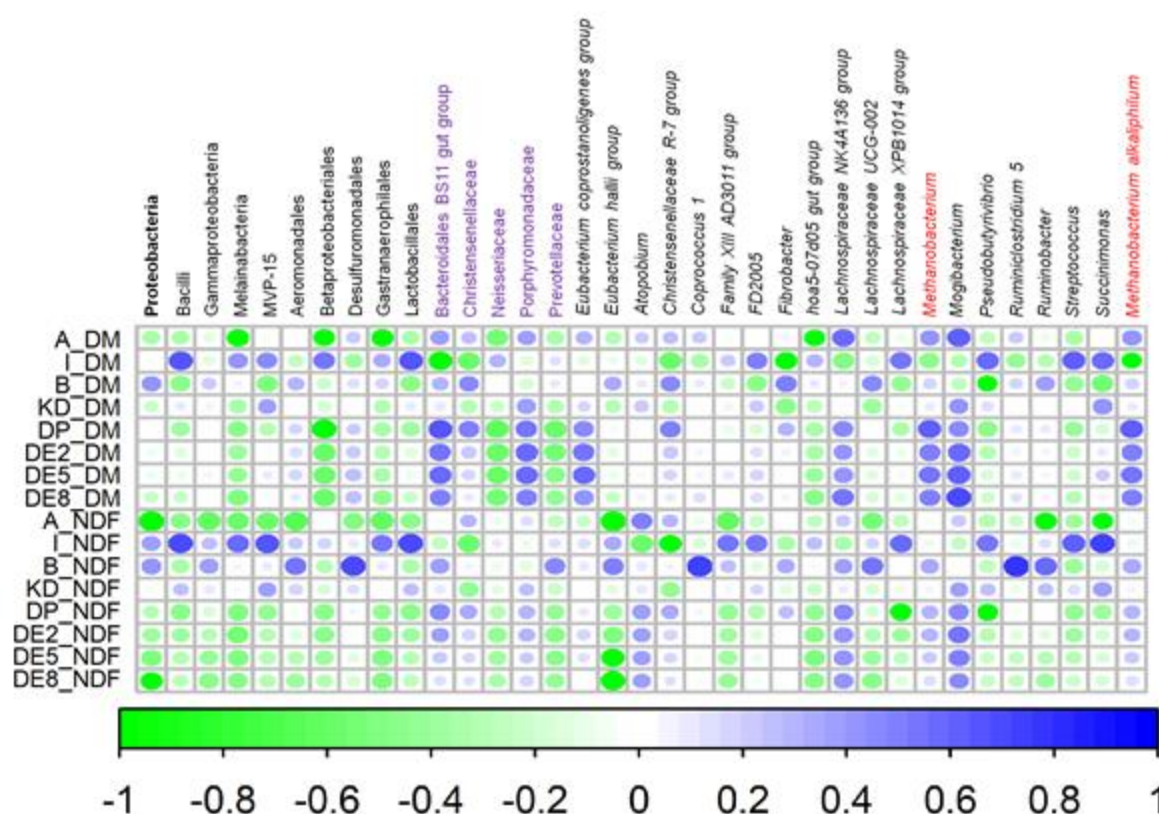


Figure 1. Spearman correlations between DM and NDF ruminal degradation parameters and relative ruminal microbial abundance at the level of phylum (bold), family (purple), genus and species (italic) and Archaeas (red). Only significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) for at least one of the analyzed variables are shown.

Plasma glucose concentration had positive correlations with the Alphaproteobacteria class, the Beijerinckiaceae family, the genera *Acetitomaculum.spp*, *Marvinbryantia.spp*, *Ruminococcus.spp*, *Sediminispirochaeta.spp* ($P < 0.019$; $r > 0.58$). In contrast, had negative correlations with the phylum Synergistes, the order Oligoflexales, the genus *Bacteroidales* UCG 001, *Sediminispirochaeta.spp*, *Streptococcus.spp*, *Succinimonas.spp*, and the uncultivated species X0319 6G20 and *Streptomyces* sp. z20 ($P < 0.001$; $r < -0.78$; Figure 2).

A positive correlation was found among triglycerides concentration and the families Endomicrobiaceae, Methanosarcinaceae, PeH15, and both *Butyrivibrio.spp* and *Methanimicrococcus.spp* genera ($P < 0.036$; $r > 0.52$).

Total proteins concentration was positively correlated with the genera *Coprococcus.spp*, Lachnospiraceae NC2004 group, *Succinivibrionaceae* UCG-002 and

Syntrophococcus.spp ($P<0.022$; $r>0.56$). On the other hand, this parameter was negatively correlated with the families PeH15, Porphyromonadaceae, the genera *Fusobacterium.spp*, *Sediminispirochaeta.spp* and *Syntrophococcus.spp* ($P<0.004$; $r<-0.66$).

Plasma urea was positively correlated with the Gammaproteobacteria class, the Ruminococcaceae family, the *Ruminobacter.spp* and *Succinivibrio.spp* genera and the OTU Family XI 2II ($P<0.007$; $r>0.63$) and negatively correlated with the Prevotellaceae family and the genus *Fretibacterium.spp* ($P<0.036$; $r<-0.52$).

Finally, plasma insulin concentration was positively correlated with Spirochaetes phylum ($P=0.012$; $r=0.60$) and negatively correlated with Planctomycetes and Verrucomicrobia, orders Opitutales and Pirellulales, genera *Cerasicoccus.spp*, *Methanobacterium.spp*, *Ruminococcus.spp*, the species *Coriobacteriales bacterium DNF00809* and *Group10 sp.* ($P<0.005$; $r<-0.66$).

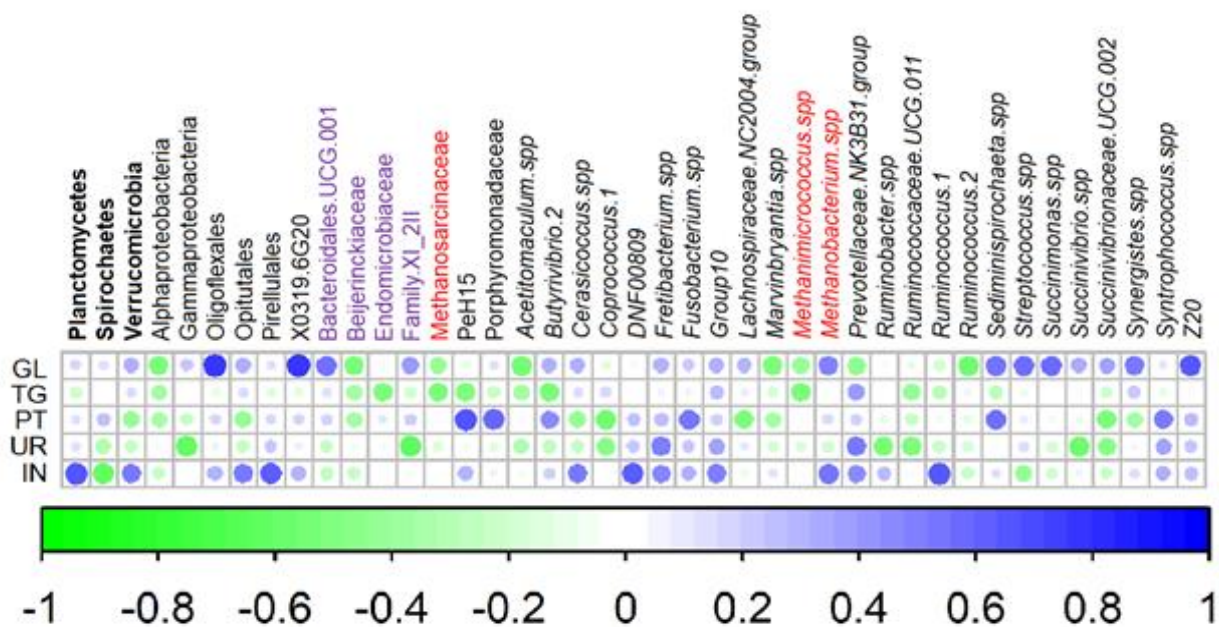


Figure 2. Spearman correlations between metabolic parameters and relative ruminal microbial abundance at the level of phylum (bold), family (purple), genus, species (italic) and Archaeas (red). Only significant correlations ($P<0.05$) for at least one of the analyzed variables are shown.

4. DISCUSSION

In this study, were analyzed the ingestive behavior, ruminal degradability, plasma composition and its association with the rumen microbiome, in order to understand the role of rumen-diet interaction in beef cattle. The hypothesis that BMF supplementation improves ruminal degradability parameters and consequently the blood metabolic profile in cattle fed low-quality tropical forage was accepted as our results showed that the use of BMF influences ingestive behavior, metabolic parameters, and composition of the bacterial population in Nellore steers fed with low-quality hay, however, these changes are like those promoted by SPE.

A low total dry matter intake was observed throughout the study, regardless of the supplement used ($< 2\%$ BW), being strongly influenced by forage dry matter intake, since the supplements were of low consumption. Intake regulation is determined by the integration of different mechanisms. When ruminants are feeding on low quality, energetically diluted and less digestible tropical forage (as in our study, 81.76% NDF and 3.97% crude protein), the effect of physical filling or distension is expected. Ruminal is the main mechanism for controlling intake (Waldo, 1986; Mertens, 1994).

Animals supplemented with SPE had higher DM intake (g/day and % BW), NDF and eating time when compared to SMU and BMF. When the DMI is limited by physical filling, animals may try to maintain the DMI by increasing the number of eating episodes (Dado and Allen 1995). This justifies the longer eating, chewing and intake time of animals supplemented with SPE. Oba and Allen (2000) suggested that forage NDF degradability may affect chewing activities unless a critical amount of rumen digesta is maintained.

The use of BFM affected the DM degradation parameters but did not influence the NDF degradability parameters. The DM fraction “a” degradation rate was higher in this treatment due to the high solubility of sugarcane molasses and urea, ingredients that made up more than 66% of the supplement composition. According to Mezaroba et al., (2010) molasses is a by-product of the sugar industry containing over 50% of sugars and approximately 60% of soluble solids are composed of sucrose, glucose, and fructose.

The potential and effective degradabilities (2, 5 and 8% h⁻¹) of dry matter were lower for animals supplemented with SMU when compared to SPE and BMF. This result

can be attributed to the greater ruminal degradation of the ingredients present in both supplements (SPE and BMF), which provided greater microbial growth and increased rumen degradation (Silveira et al., 2009). However, the low values of effective degradability are probably associated with the low levels of crude protein in the diets. Furthermore, changes in diet, concentrate level and type of NFC affect the pattern of ruminal fermentation and, consequently, the composition of the ruminal microbiota (Khafipouret al., 2009, Henderson et al., 2015).

Bacterial species attached to feed particles constitute up to 75% of the total microbial population (McAllister et al., 1994; Koike et al., 2003) and play the most important role in rumen digestion, producing enzymes to obtain substrates for their growth (Leng, 2014). The activities of cellulases and hemicellulases are notably higher in the solid fraction of the rumen content than in the fluid (Williams and Strachan, 1984; McAllister et al., 1994), so it was expected to find several correlations between fiber degradability parameters and rumen bacterial population.

Some ruminal microorganisms belonging to Aeromonadales are fibrolytic in nature and found in conjunction with fiber-rich diets (Bryant and Small, 1956), which reinforces the positive correlation between these microorganisms and the degradability of the “b” fraction of NDF. Jewell et al. (2015) revealed that the association of individual OTU (belonging to the *Prevotella* genus) can be positive or negative, illustrating possible differences in functional properties between members of a common genus.

In our study, Prevotellaceae was negatively correlated with effective degradabilities at 2% NDF and 5% DM and plasma urea contents. The Prevotellaceae family demonstrates extensive both genetic and metabolic diversity (Bekele et al., 2010; Jiang et al., 2017), playing important roles in carbohydrate metabolism (Gardner et al. 1995; Kabele et al., 2011). On the other hand, some groups of *Prevotella* also responded positively to nitrogen supplementation (Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2020) and can adapt to low nitrogen environments by regulating the expression of genes involved in nitrogen assimilation (Kim et al., 2017). Thus, it can be assumed that the increase in the population of this bacterial family in the rumen environment induced a negative correlation with the effective degradabilities, due to the absence of substrate specificity and its high metabolic diversity.

Another member of the phylum Bacteroidetes positively correlated with both potential and effective degradabilities of DM and NDF, Bacteroidales BS11 represent uncultured families specialized in fermenting different hemicellulosic monomers (xylose, fucose, mannose and rhamnose), producing acetate and butyrate for the host (Solden et al., 2017). These microorganisms become rumen dominant when the host consumes low-quality forage, rich in lignin (Liu et al., 2019).

Mogibacterium.spp was positively correlated with effective DM and NDF degradabilities and is associated with ammonia assimilation through the ruminal epithelial wall (Nakazawa et al., 2000). Species in this genus produce phenylacetic acid, which is a necessary growth factor for cellulose growth and degradation by some members of *Ruminococcus albus* (Odenyo et al. 1991). Phenylacetic acid can bind glutamine to form phenylacetyl glutamine, which is very important in the metabolism and absorption of ammonia in the rumen (Wallace, 1979). Furthermore, it was found in greater abundance in the rumen of animals with low N use efficiency and negatively correlated with nitrogen retention in Nellore steers (Alves et al., 2020). Members of *Mogibacterium.spp* may be important in affecting cellulose degradation (Kim et al., 2014). *Lachnospiraceae* XPB1014 is a member of the family *Lachnospiraceae* (Quast et al. 2013) and many members of this family have the ability to produce butyric acid (Meehan and Beiko 2014) from starch (Flint et al., 2012) through the butanoate metabolism pathways (Kanehisa & Goto 2000).

Cyanobacteria (Melainabacteria) are considered hemicellulose degraders and seem to perform better in the presence of nitrogen supplementation, correlate with higher acetate and butyrate production ratios (Martinez-Fernandes et al., 2020) and appear to be positively correlated with NDF and ADF content of the diet (Qiu et al., 2020), which supports the correlations obtained in this study.

The effects of supplements on protein metabolism were assessed by both blood urea and total protein concentrations. It was expected that the use of multifunctional blocks would increase the substrate for microbial production, increasing the fraction of protein in the blood, since the rate of forage digestion in the rumen can influence the use of ammonia by microorganisms, altering protein synthesis microbial (Silveira et al., 2009) and, consequently, the total availability of amino acids to animals.

The use of BMF increased the concentration of urea in the blood, without changing the concentrations of total protein, glucose, insulin, and triglycerides. The similarity of the animals' DM intake may have influenced the lack of effect on plasma glucose and triglyceride concentrations (Jolazadeh et al., 2015, Niu et al., 2017).

Plasma urea N is produced by protein hydrolysis and amino acid metabolism, and its concentration depends on the level of crude protein in the diet (Zhou et al., 2014). This result reflects the higher concentration of urea in this supplement, higher fermentable substrates in the rumen and higher microbial protein production (Ferrari et al., 2019). Both biomarkers, serum total protein and urea concentration, have been shown to increase with greater protein absorption (Larsen et al., 2014; Amanlou et al., 2017) and reflect the number of amino acids available for absorption (Min et al., 2003).

Plasma urea content was negatively correlated with *Fretibacterium* and *Prevotellaceae*. *Fretibacterium*.ssp is an anaerobic bacterial genus related to chronic human periodontitis (Ariza et al., 2019). In the ruminal environment, it was found in greater abundance in the liquid fraction in the rumen of yaks (Ren et al., 2020) and was associated with lower dietary urea concentrations (Ishaq et al., 2017). Cells of the *Fretibacterium* strain were also reported to be saccharolytic (Vartoukian et al., 2013), suggesting that BMF consumption may have regulated the abundance of these microorganisms in the rumen environment through the supply of sugarcane molasses.

On the other hand, the plasma urea also had positive correlations with *Ruminobacter*.ssp and *Succinivibrio*.ssp, belonging to the phylum Proteobacteria and with important ability to participate in host nitrogen metabolism (Hailemariam et al., 2020). *R. amylophilus* uses only starch or maltose as an energy source and has a high proteolytic activity, but prefers ammonium as the main source of nitrogen (Dehority 2003). *S. dextrinosolvens* has urease production by many of its strains, but it is strongly repressed in a medium containing large amounts of ammonia or other usable nitrogen sources (Wozny et al., 1977).

No significant difference was observed between the tested supplements and the total number of archaea in the rumen environment. The genus *Methanobrevibacter* showed greater relative abundance when compared to the other genera identified. This genus appears to be dominant in the Archaea domain in the rumen environment, is

responsible for most of the methanogenesis in ruminants (Leahy et al., 2013; Henderson et al., 2015), and showed a positive association with higher CH₄ emissions in cattle (Wallace et al., 2015).

Different studies have shown that the abundance of methanogens is not necessarily altered due to a change in the availability of substrate for methanogen, as well as the fact that the abundance of methanogens is not necessarily linked to methane production (Singh et al., 2013; Schären et al., 2017). Other complex biochemical interrelationships or host conditions may be responsible for changes in their abundance (Zhou et al., 2009; Roehe et al., 2016; Malmuthuge, 2017).

The classes *Methanobacteria* and *Methanomicrobia* are well known hydrogenotrophic methanogens and account for 55.9% of all archaea sequences (Mackie, McSweeney and Aminov, 2013). Kittelmann et al. (2013) showed that the *M. ruminantium* clade appears to co-occur with bacteria from the *Fibrobacteraceae* family. This bacterium degrades cellulose in the rumen (Kobayashi et al., 2008), while the two best-known species of *Fibrobacter* spp. (*F. succinogenes* and *F. intestinalis*) produce only format (Rychlik and May, 2000). Thus, the role of ruminal methanogens is unique in that these organisms do not degrade any portion of plant biomass, but instead obtain their energy from by-products, mainly H₂ and CO₂, of fibrolytic organisms (Janssen and Kirs, 2008). By using hydrogen to reduce CO₂, archaea methanogens remove inhibitory levels of H₂ (Janssen and Kirs, 2008), increase ATP yields by redirecting reducing equivalents to acetate (Latham and Wolin, 1977) and thus promote growth (Rychlik and May, 2000) and the ability to produce higher concentrations of fibrolytic enzymes (Piao et al., 2013).

5. CONCLUSION

The low-moisture, sugarcane molasses-based block is a useful alternative to the conventional energy protein supplement, which modulates the population of ruminal archaea, improving protein status, ingestive behavior and ruminal degradability in the diet of forage-fed beef cattle.

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[illegible]

Lachnospiraceae_UCG,002														
Lachnospiraceae_XPB1014_group			0,52	0,026			0,62	0,006						
Methanobacterium									0,51	0,029	0,56	0,016	0,49	0,041
Mogibacterium	0,61	0,007					-0,47	0,050	0,59	0,010	0,64	0,004	0,71	0,001
Pseudobutyrvibrio			0,56	0,015										
Ruminiclostridium_5														
Ruminobacter														
Streptococcus			0,63	0,005										
Succinimonas			0,58	0,011	-0,56	0,016	0,62	0,006						
Methanobacterium_alkaliphilum							0,51	0,029	0,56	0,016	0,49	0,041		

Only significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) for at least one of the analyzed variables are shown.

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Supplementary Table S2. Spearman correlation coefficients between NDF ruminal degradation parameters and ruminal microbial abundance at the level of phylum, family, genus, species and Archaeas

[illegible]

Ruminiclostridium_5							0,52	0,027	0,52	0,028
Ruminobacter			0,54	0,020		-0,49	0,039			
Streptococcus					0,77	0,000				
Succinimonas	-0,58	0,012			0,56	0,015				
Methanobacterium_alkaliphilum			0,62	0,006						
	-0,50	0,034	0,72	0,001						

19 Only significant correlations (P<0.05) for at least one of the analyzed variables are shown.

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Supplementary Table S3. Spearman correlation coefficients between metabolic parameters and ruminal microbial abundance at the rumen level at the level of phylum, family, genus, species and Archaeas

Item	Glucose		Triglycerides		Total proteins		Urea		Insulin	
	P	r	P	r	P	r	P	r	P	r
Planctomycetes									0,005	-0,66
Spirochaetes									0,013	0,61
Verrucomicrobia									0,037	-0,53
Alphaproteobacteria	0,040	0,52								
Gammaproteobacteria							0,012	0,61		
Oligoflexales	0,000	-0,78								
Opitutales									0,037	-0,53
Pirellulales									0,008	-0,64
X0319,6G20	0,000	-0,78								
Bacteroidales UCG 001	0,026	-0,55								
Beijerinckiaceae	0,040	0,52								
Endomicrobiaceae			0,042	0,51						
Family,XI_2II							0,008	0,64		
Methanosarcinaceae			0,037	0,52						
PeH15			0,046	0,50	0,005	-0,67				
Porphyromonadaceae					0,015	-0,60				
Acetitomaculum	0,029	0,55								
Butyrivibrio,2			0,036	0,53						
Cerasicoccus									0,037	-0,53
Coprococcus,1					0,023	0,56				
DNF00809									0,009	-0,63
Fretibacterium							0,045	-0,51		
Fusobacterium					0,033	-0,53				
Group10									0,049	-0,50
Lachnospiraceae NC2004 group					0,046	0,50				
Marvinbryantia	0,043	0,51								
Methanimicrococcus			0,037	0,52						
Methanobacterium									0,031	-0,54
Prevotellaceae NK3B31 group							0,036	-0,53		
Ruminobacter							0,035	0,53		
Ruminococcaceae										
UCG 011							0,045	0,51		
Ruminococcus,1									0,006	-0,66
Ruminococcus,2	0,020	0,58								
Sediminispirochaeta	0,028	-0,55			0,024	-0,56				

Streptococcus	0,020	-0,57		
Succinimonas	0,018	-0,58		
Succinivibrio			0,021	0,57
Succinivibrionaceae				
UCG 002			0,043	0,51
Synergistes	0,038	-0,52		
Syntrophococcus			0,038	-0,52
Z20	0,006	-0,65		

Only significant correlations ($P < 0.05$) for at least one of the analyzed variables are shown.