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**Volume 5 (1); January 25, 2015****Research Paper****Effect of nitrite and citric acid on the chemical composition and pH of the canned beef sausages.**

Maha M.M.A, Abogroun H.A., Ibraheem M.T.

*Online J. Anim. Feed Res.*, 5(1): 01-08, 2015; pii:

S222877011500001-5

**Abstract**

The effects of nitrite and citric acid as preservatives on the chemical composition and pH of the canned beef sausage were investigated after three months storage at room temperature ( $35\pm 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). Two experiments were conducted in this study, the first, was undertaken to determine the effect of nitrite as a preservative on the chemical composition and pH of the canned beef sausages retorted at  $107.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $225^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) for 80 minutes, and at  $115.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $240^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) for 40 minutes. The second experiment, which was based on the results of the first one, was conducted to determine the effects of the absence of nitrite on the canned beef sausage processed with meat treated by immersion in 1% citric acid before processing at (80 and  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for one minute and drained, then the product retorted at  $107.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 80 minutes. The evaluation of percentages of the dry matter, ash, crude protein, fat and also pH were done monthly. The results in experiment 1 indicated that, percentages of the dry matter, ash and crude protein before and after canning of sausages were not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ). The fat (%) was significantly different among treatments ( $P<0.05$ ) in the canned samples, and not in the raw samples. However, there was slight decrease in moisture content (increase in dry matter), ash, protein and fat percentages with increasing of storage period. The results in experiment 2 demonstrated that the dry matter, ash, crude protein and fat percentages were not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ) for the raw, cooked and canned sausages. Generally it was observed a decrease in moisture content (increases in dry matter content), ash%, crude protein fat (%) and pH value with increasing of storage period. Citric acid had no clear effect on chemical properties and pH value.

**Keywords:** Nitrite, Canned sausage, Citric acid.[Full text-PDF](#) [XML](#) [DOAJ](#)**Research Paper****Management practices of dairy farms; case study: Khartoum north and eastern Nile localities, Khartoum, Sudan.**

Saeed S.Y and Fadel Elseed A.M.A.

*Online J. Anim. Feed Res.*, 5(1): 09-17, 2015; pii:

S222877011500002-5

**Abstract**

This case study was conducted to assess the management practices in the dairy farms of Eastern Nile and Khartoum North localities, Khartoum State, Sudan. A questionnaire targeting local dairy producers was used to cover 70 milk producers in the areas of Tibna, Silate, Eidbabiker and Elafoon. The single-visit, multiple-subject approach was used for data collection. The results showed that 53% of the farm owners adopted traditional type of animal keeping. The housing of calves was in groups. Calves, in general looked thin. The number of calves kept together was large and all calves, pre weaning, were kept in the same pen. Eighty-five percent of the farm's cows had high body condition score (BCS) than recommended (obese cows). Ninety-four percent of the owners were not interested in measuring the weight of their animals or calves at birth. The percentage of the infectious diseases such as Mastitis, Foot and Mouth disease, Contagious Bovine Box and Pleuro-pneumonia were found to be 99%, 51%, 13% and 11%, respectively. Diarrhea and Jaundice were the major causes of mortality in suckling calves in the study area. The respondents mentioned three major problems afflicting the dairy sector which were the high cost of nutrition, prices of drugs and lack of new technologies. Lack of extension services, poor veterinary services and scarcity of water comprised as major setbacks.

**Keywords:** Dairy Management, Housing, Calves Management, Body Condition Score, Infectious Diseases.[Full text-PDF](#) [XML](#) [DOAJ](#)

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## Research Paper

### Nutritive value of rubber seed (*Hevea Brasiliensis*).

Hossain M.E., Karim M.H., Alam S. and Nath S.K.

Online J. Anim. Feed Res., 5(1): 18-21, 2015; pii:

S222877011500003-5

#### Abstract

The study was undertaken to find out the chemical composition of rubber seeds (*Hevea brasiliensis*) available in Bangladesh. *Hevea brasiliensis* seeds were collected directly from 200 rubber trees of the rubber garden in the Bandarban area under standard random sampling technique. Seeds were decorticated, ground and dried in hot air oven. Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate for moisture, dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extract (NFE), ether extract (EE) and ash in the animal nutrition laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong, Bangladesh. Metabolizable energy (ME) was calculated mathematically by using standard mathematical formula. Results indicated that, decorticated *Hevea brasiliensis* seeds contained 85.7% DM, 26.1% CP, 43.0% CF, 13.8% NFE, 11.0% EE and 1.8% ash. ME contents in the seeds was 2101.1 kcal/kg DM. Since, decorticated rubber seeds contained substantial amount of metabolizable energy and proximate components, therefore it could be assumed that, like other unconventional feeds, it might be a promising feed resource for livestock.

**Keywords:** Chemical Composition, *Hevea brasiliensis*, Metabolizable Energy, Nutritive Value

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## Research Paper

### Utilization of *Limnocharis flava*, an invasive aquatic weed from Kuttanad wetland ecosystem, Kerala, India as a potential feedstock for livestock.

Smitha Chandran S and Ramasamy EV.

Online J. Anim. Feed Res., 5(1): 22-27, 2015; pii:

S222877011500004-5

#### Abstract

The chemical composition, nutritive value and trace element profiles of *Limnocharis flava*, an emergent aquatic weed during its different growth stages was determined to evaluate as possible cattle feed. Samples were analyzed at three progressive morphological stages of the plant, pre-flowering, flowering and post-flowering. The moisture content, dry matter (DM), ash content, crude protein (CP), ether extract (EE), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extract (NFE) and mineral constituents like sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>) potassium (K<sup>+</sup>), calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), phosphorous (P) and trace elements like iron (Fe<sup>2+</sup>), copper (Cu<sup>2+</sup>), manganese (Mn<sup>2+</sup>), zinc (Zn<sup>2+</sup>), lead (Pb<sup>2+</sup>), chromium (Cr<sup>2+</sup>) nickel (Ni<sup>+</sup>) and cadmium (Cd<sup>+</sup>) contents were analyzed. The moisture content, organic matter (OM), acid detergent fiber content increased during maturation, while CP and EE were found decreased with increased growth stage. Only slight fluctuations occurred in Calcium, Potassium, Phosphorous and Sodium contents. The highest values for crude protein, fiber content, NFE and EE were observed at the flowering stage. These plant possesses several characteristics which makes it a nutritious feed suitable for domestic livestock, and is recommended to use *L.flava*, particularly at the flowering stage of growth.

**Keywords:** *Limnocharis flava*, Aquatic Weed, Nutritive Value, Chemical Composition

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## Research Paper

### Nutritive value of Sal seed (*Shorea Robusta*).

Hossain M.E., Kabir M.H., Sarma S.M. and Sikder H.

Online J. Anim. Feed Res., 5(1): 28-32, 2015; pii:

S222877011500005

#### Abstract

The study was undertaken to find out the chemical composition and nutritive value of Sal seed (*Shorea robusta*) available in Bangladesh. *Shorea robusta* seeds were collected from different remote places of study areas. Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate for dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extracts (NFE), ether extracts (EE) and total ash (TA) in the animal nutrition and poultry research and training centre (PRTC) laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong, Bangladesh. Results indicated that, air dried corticated *Shorea robusta* seed contained 91.6% DM, 7.7% CP, 17.8% CF, 8.1% EE, 54.3% NFE



and 3.7% TA. Similarly, air dried decorticated seed contained 88.7% DM, 8.8% CP, 7.3% CF, 10.0% EE, 58.6% NFE and 4.0% TA. Air dried seed shell contained 88.5% DM, 5.8% CP, 39.3% CF, 3.7% EE, 34.8% NFE and 4.9% TA. Metabolizable energy (ME) was 2614.2 Kcal/kg, 2933.0 Kcal/kg and 1582.9 Kcal/kg in corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell respectively. It could therefore be inferred that, the Shorea robusta seed seems nutritionally sound enough to be utilized as unconventional feed for ruminant especially during scarcity period.

**Keywords:** Chemical Composition, Nutritive Value, Metabolizable Energy, Shorea robusta.

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# EFFECT OF NITRITE AND CITRIC ACID ON THE CHEMICAL COMPOSITION AND pH OF THE CANNED BEEF SAUSAGES

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**ABSTRACT:** The effects of nitrite and citric acid as preservatives on the chemical composition and pH of the canned beef sausage were investigated after three months storage at room temperature ( $35\pm 5^{\circ}\text{C}$ ). Two experiments were conducted in this study, the first, was undertaken to determine the effect of nitrite as a preservative on the chemical composition and pH of the canned beef sausages retorted at  $107.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $225^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) for 80 minutes, and at  $115.5^{\circ}\text{C}$  ( $240^{\circ}\text{F}$ ) for 40 minutes. The second experiment, which was based on the results of the first one, was conducted to determine the effects of the absence of nitrite on the canned beef sausage processed with meat treated by immersion in 1% citric acid before processing at (80 and  $30^{\circ}\text{C}$ ) for one minute and drained, then the product retorted at  $107.2^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 80 minutes. The evaluation of percentages of the dry matter, ash, crude protein, fat and also pH were done monthly. The results in experiment 1 indicated that, percentages of the dry matter, ash and crude protein before and after canning of sausages were not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ). The fat (%) was significantly different among treatments ( $P<0.05$ ) in the canned samples, and not in the raw samples. However, there was slight decrease in moisture content (increase in dry matter), ash, protein and fat percentages with increasing of storage period. The results in experiment 2 demonstrated that the dry matter, ash, crude protein and fat percentages were not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ) for the raw, cooked and canned sausages. Generally it was observed a decrease in moisture content (increases in dry matter content), ash%, crude protein fat (%) and pH value with increasing of storage period. Citric acid had no clear effect on chemical properties and pH value.

**Keywords:** Nitrite, Canned sausage, Citric acid.

ORIGINAL ARTICLE  
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## INTRODUCTION

New processing concepts such as the application of variable retort temperature have received attention from processing experts and promises to improve both the economy and quality of thermally processed foods (Awuah et al., 2007). In the past Sudanese preferred fresh meat to processed meat, but now the profitability and technological advances, and the change in the life style (the working women have a little time for food preparation), will probably affect the rate and ultimate extent to which meat is processed.

Thermal processing, specifically retort processing, has been used as a common preservation technique in food industry for shelf stable low acid foods. The United States Code of Federal Regulations defines commercial sterility as "The condition achieved by application of heat, chemical sterility, or other appropriate treatment that renders the equipment and containers free of viable microorganisms having public health significance, as well as microorganisms of nonhealth significance, capable of reproducing in the food under normal non refrigerated conditions of storage and distribution (USFDA, 2009). In recent times, with the development of computing technology, programs are available to thermal process requirements, and also online monitoring and controlling of the thermal process (Fellows, 2009).

Meat products that can be stored at room temperature without the risk of microbial spoilage are considered to be shelf stable products. They include canned meats such as ham, tuna and chicken, jerky, dry sausages snack sticks, summer sausage and freeze dried meat. Because these products do not need cold temperatures for preservation, they are popular for camping, trips, hunting and fishing expeditions and other activities where refrigeration may not be available. In addition, they are convenient product to have on hand in your cupboard (Elizabeth, 1994). So in the Sudan the farmers in agricultural areas, the army in the military regions, people in the disaster areas, and regions of the displaced people, are in need of shelf stable and acceptable product that does not require refrigeration. Meat canning is a suitable method of preservation to solve these problems that meet the availability of safe foods in those areas.

Today consumers all over the world especially in industrialized and developed countries increasingly demand minimally processed foods and food stuffs, which retain natural flavor, color, texture, nutritional characteristics, and contain fewer additives (e.g. preservatives) especially chemical additives (Ohlsson and Bengtsson, 2002). Accordingly to encourage the consumption of processed meat we must get rid of the use of chemical additives, as

nitrite has been reported to be carcinogenic above and beyond its possible role in formation of nitrosamines (Person and Tauber, 1989). Qing-Lidong et al. (2007) indicated that no significant difference existed among the pH values and fat content of the cooked sausage with different sodium nitrite addition. The objectives of the study were, to investigate the use of many preservatives in canning in order to decrease the time and temperature required for commercial sterilization, to evaluate the necessity of using nitrite in canned sausages by examining its effect on chemical composition and pH of canned beef sausages, and also to develop a meat product that does not need freezing or refrigeration and accessible to people living in remote areas.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Experiment 1

Approximately 7 kgs of lean meat (top side) cut were taken from beef animals of similar breed and age after 24 hours from slaughter at Meat Technology Department in Kuku Animal Production Research Centre and used in sausage preparation. The meat was ground through (0.64 cm diameter) plate of an electrical meat grinder. Synthetic cellulose casings were obtained from local market and round sanitary acid-resistance cans (6.83cm in diameter and 10.16cm in. height of nominal capacity 315 gm) were obtained from a local processing plant.

### Sausage preparation

The ground meat (6 kgs) was divided into two equal batches, one batch was formulated using the ingredients in Table 1 and 155 ppm sodium nitrite while the other was formulated using the same ingredients in Table 1 without addition of nitrite and considered as control. Each batch was chopped separately. The chopper was started after the minced meat was introduced. Salt, nitrite (in one batch), and half of the recommended ice water were added and uniformly dispersed. Then, the binder and seasoning were added together, with the remainder of the recommended ice water. The entire mass for each batch was chopped for about 5 minutes. The batter for each batch was then stuffed into cellulose casings of 22 mm in diameter and linked at length about 8 cm. The product was cooked for 15 minutes in boiling water followed by immediate cooling in ice water for 5 min. The sausages were peeled, packed in polyethylene bags and stored in refrigeration (4 °C) over night. The product of each batch was divided into two treatments, in one treatment the canning was done by retorting at 107.2 °C for 80 minutes, and in the other treatment the canning was done by retorting at 115.5 °C for 40 minutes and considered at 0 month storage. The other samples were awaiting chemical test at intervals of 1, 2, 3 months of storage.

**Table 1 - Ingredients based on total mixed base**

Ingredients	Percentage
Cold water (crushed ice)	12.20
Salt	2.40
Ground pepper	0.30
Sugar	0.30
Mustard powder	0.20
Skimmed milk powder	3.40

### Canning operation

The empty cans were spray washed with 26.5 °C water in accordance with federal meat inspection regulation (Pearson and Tauber, 1989). Each batch of the product was subdivided into two portions, one part to be canned, and retorted at 107.2 °C for 80 min, and the other part to be canned and retorted at 115.5 °C for 40 minutes. The cans were filled with sausages. Seven pieces (links) of sausage weighing about 160(g) were put in each can. Then the remaining space was filled with decontaminated boiling water. The cans were closed by double sealer machine (Mp 502120207/s) in the Canning Unit of the Food Research Centre, Shambat. Cans were placed into a vertical non-agitating retort. After retorting, cans were water cooled by immersing in a cold water tank. Temperature of water was approximately (15 °C). The wet cans were dried by heat which was permitted to accelerate evaporation (Pearson and Tauber, 1989).

### Product storage

The cans were labeled and stored at room temperature Table 2, 30gm of samples were taken randomly after 72 hours (incubation period) from canning for chemical analysis.

### Experiment 2

**Meat preparation:** Meat samples were taken from beef animals of similar breed and age after 24 hours from slaughter at the Meat Technology Department in Kuku Animal Production Research Center.

Approximately 7 kg of lean meat (top-side) cut were trimmed to a minimum amount of fat were used in sausage preparation in each replicate (three replicates were performed for each treatment). The lean meat was divided into two batches, one batch treated with citric acid and another batch treated with decontaminated water (free of contamination by water filtration). Each batch was divided into two parts. The first part was dipped in 1% (at 30°C) citric acid for one minute and drained for one minute. The 2nd part was dipped in 1% citric acid at (80°C) for one minute and drained for one minute. The third part was dipped in decontaminated water at 30°C for one minute and drained for one minute. The fourth part was dipped in decontaminated water at 80°C for one minute and drained for one minute. The meat was ground through 0.25 in/plate of electrical meat grinder. The same casings and cans as in experiment 1 were used. Four treatments were obtained: sausages processed with meat dipped in 1% citric acid at 30°C for one minute and retorted at 107.2 °C for 80 minutes, sausages processed with meat dipped in 1% citric acid at 80°C and retorted at 107.2°C for 80 minutes, sausages processed with meat dipped in decontaminated water at 30°C for one minute and retorted at 107.2°C for 80 minutes, Sausages processed with meat dipped in decontaminated water at 80°C for one minutes and retorted at 107.2°C for 80 minutes.

#### Sausages preparation

Sausages were prepared following the previously mentioned procedures in experiment one. Random samples of raw (uncooked) and cooked sausages were taken for chemical analysis and pH measurement.

#### Sausages canning

All procedures of canning were performed as in experiment one except the retorting was done for all treatments at 107.2°C for 80 minutes.

#### Product storage

The cans were labeled and stored for three months at room temperature Table 2 waiting chemical analysis and pH measurement every month. Each variable determination was replicated three times.

**Table 2 - Average temperature and humidity of storage for the canned sausages**

No. of experiment	Period of storage	Temperature C°	Humidity %
1	First month	35.30	32.25
	Second month	31.90	23.25
	Third month	30.50	21.30
2	First month	30.10	16.20
	Second month	30.90	14.80
	Third month	35.70	21.10

#### Proximate analysis

Three sausage links were taken randomly from each treatment of the pre-cooked and canned sausages and then a proximately 50 gms portion were taken from different places of each link, and mixed well to assure a representative sample for proximate analysis and pH measurement. Moisture, crude protein, fat and ash content were determined accordingly to the A.O.A.C. (2002) methods.

#### Statistical Analysis

Statistical analysis was performed on all data of the various experiments using SPSS and was subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA). Least significant difference (LSD) was used for mean separation (Gomez & Gomez, 1984).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### Experiment 1

Proximate composition: The results in (Table 3) showed that, addition of nitrite was not affected significantly ( $P>0.05$ ) on the dry matter, ash, crude protein as well as fat content of the raw product (pre-canning) although there was a slight decrease in protein content of the sausages processed without nitrite. Qing- Lidong et al. (2007) in their study for determining the effect of sodium nitrite on the textural properties of cooked pork sausages during days at 0-21°C storage which were prepared at four levels of sodium nitrite (0, 50, 100 and 150mg/kg), found significant differences in moisture and protein content between the control and nitrite added sausages ( $P<0.05$ ), but not for fat contents among the different batches. As for fat content the results are agree with the previous study. The disagreement between the results of the previous study and these results concerning the dry matter, ash and crude protein, may be due to the difference in amount of nitrite used, that we use( 155 p.p.m) in the processing ,also the difference in type of meat used ,that pork was other than beef. Qing-lidong et al., 2007 in their study of nitrite

added sausages during cold storage, found that there was no significant difference in fat contents between the different batches and the control.

The dry matter% as shown in Table 4 was increased with the increasing of storage period but the increase was not significant ( $P>0.05$ ); also the increase in processing temperature caused slight increase in dry matter content. These findings are in agreement with Pearson and Tauber (1989) who reported that, cooking decrease the water content of raw meat, especially on the surface which intern lower the water activity and improves the peel ability of frankfurters and extended their shelf life. The results are also agreed with that reported by Garcia-Arias et al. (2004) and Garcia et al. (1994). As reported by Rasmussen and Morrissey (2007), who found that, percent moisture decreased significantly following the canning process. Leblanc and Leblanc (2007) mentioned that, assessed samples of vacuum canned frozen control lobster meat and meat retorted for 28, 35, 40 and 45min, respectively. Results showed a decrease in moisture content with sterilization.

**Table 3 - Means and standard errors (S.E.) for Dry matter%, Ash %, Crude Protein %, Fat% and pH of the raw sausage treatments\***

Independent Variables	Treatment*		S.E.
	Nitrite		
	With	Without	
Dry mater %	30.24 <sup>a</sup>	30.15 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.30
Ash %	2.17 <sup>b</sup>	2.28 <sup>b</sup>	± 0.04
Protein	20.28 <sup>c</sup>	19.58 <sup>c</sup>	± 0.23
Fat %	2.82 <sup>d</sup>	2.50 <sup>d</sup>	± 0.11
pH	6.97 <sup>e</sup>	6.92 <sup>e</sup>	± 0.03

<sup>a,b,c,d,e</sup>: Means in the same row bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ); \* Sausages canned using 107.2°C and 115.5°C processing temperatures with and without nitrite.

**Table 4 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for Dry matter % of the various canned sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	107.2 °C Nitrite		115.5 °C Nitrite		
	Without	With	Without	With	
0	27.55 <sup>a</sup>	29.08 <sup>a</sup>	28.55 <sup>a</sup>	28.15 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.16
1	30.06 <sup>a</sup>	29.51 <sup>a</sup>	29.49 <sup>a</sup>	30.00 <sup>a</sup>	
2	30.43 <sup>a</sup>	30.79 <sup>a</sup>	30.29 <sup>a</sup>	31.24 <sup>a</sup>	
3	32.20 <sup>a</sup>	31.94 <sup>a</sup>	32.04 <sup>a</sup>	32.22 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup>Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ); \*Sausages canned using 107.2°C and 115.5°C processing temperatures with and without nitrite.

The results in Table 5 explained that, there was a decrease in ash% with increasing of storage period irreversible to the action of nitrite which caused and increase in ash%. The results are in agreement with the findings of Slabyj and Carpenter (2006) who were analyzed blue muscles (*mytilus edules*), the raw and processed meats (fresh, frozen and canned) for proximate composition and mineral content. Initial steaming of blue muscles resulted increase in dry weight of meats but a decrease in carbohydrates and ash content.

**Table 5 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for Ash % of the various canned sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	107.2 °C		115.5 °C		
	Nitrite		Nitrite		
	Without	With	Without	With	
0	2.30 <sup>a</sup>	2.10 <sup>a</sup>	2.22 <sup>a</sup>	2.13 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.10
1	1.70 <sup>a</sup>	1.90 <sup>a</sup>	1.45 <sup>a</sup>	1.85 <sup>a</sup>	
2	1.40 <sup>a</sup>	1.60 <sup>a</sup>	1.42 <sup>a</sup>	1.80 <sup>a</sup>	
3	1.40 <sup>a</sup>	1.60 <sup>a</sup>	1.48 <sup>a</sup>	1.70 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup>Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P>0.05$ ); \* Sausages canned using 107.2°C and 115.5°C processing temperatures with and without nitrite.

As shown in the results of protein% (Table 6) the addition of nitrite in canned sausage kept the protein% higher than the control (without nitrite). Generally the protein% was slightly decreased with increasing of storage period, but the difference was not significant among treatments ( $P>0.05$ ). The increase in canning temperature (107.2-115.5°C) was not affected the protein content for the different treatments. These results are in agreement with Qing-Lidong et al. (2007) who found significant differences in moisture and protein contents between the control and nitrite added sausage. The increase temperature of canning was slightly affected on the protein content. Aberle et al. (2001) stated that, when proteins of muscle are exposed to heat, they lose their native



structure and undergo several changes in configuration which may be accompanied or followed by aggregation, or clumping, of protein molecules (coagulation), the presence of which indicates a loss in protein solubility. The net protein utilization of meat autoclaved in the laboratory in the presence of wheat flour and glucose was 70 compared with a value of 78 for the same meat autoclaved alone. Low net protein utilization value of the canned meat product is due both to the high content of connective tissue and the loss of available methionine on canning in the presence of the other food stuffs (Bender and Husaini, 1976).

**Table 6 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for crude protein % of the various canned sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	107.2 °C		115.5 °C		
	Nitrite		Nitrite		
	Without	With	Without	With	
0	18.75 <sup>a</sup>	20.20 <sup>a</sup>	18.80 <sup>a</sup>	20.55 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.03
1	18.47 <sup>a</sup>	19.62 <sup>a</sup>	18.20 <sup>a</sup>	19.55 <sup>a</sup>	
2	17.77 <sup>a</sup>	18.87 <sup>a</sup>	17.70 <sup>a</sup>	18.75 <sup>a</sup>	
3	17.48 <sup>a</sup>	17.0 <sup>a</sup>	17.50 <sup>a</sup>	17.90 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different (P>0.05); \*Sausages canned using 107.2°C and 115.5°C processing temperatures with and without nitrite.

As for fat% there was a significant decrease in fat content with increasing of storage period (Table 7; P>0.05). The increase in processing temperature (115.5-117.2)°C did not significantly affected on fat content. Addition of nitrite had no significant effect on fat% except for the two samples that processed with and without nitrite and canned at 115.5°C. These results are disagree with the Quing-Lidong et al. (2007) who found no significant difference in fat between the control and nitrite added sausage (P<0.05). Rasmussen & Morrissey (2007) reported that, percent lipid decreased significantly after canning. This finding was in agreement with our results in the present study. Garcia-Arias et al., 2004 and Garcia Arias et al., 1994, found that the canning process has been reported to alter the proximate composition of albacore tuna resulting in a large increase in percent tepid which was not in agreement with our findings and this may be due the difference in the type of meat. During chopping the fat is coated with protein. Myosin in particular plays a very important role in completely covering the fat particles. Once the fat coated with myosin, of stable only for a period of hours, or all most about a day. Heating the emulsion, however, coagulates the protein and stabilizes the emulsion, so that the protein holds the fat in suspension for unlimited period of time (Pearson and Tauber, 1989).

**Table 7 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for fat % of the various canned sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	107.2 °C		115.5 °C		
	Nitrite		Nitrite		
	Without	With	Without	With	
0	2.57 <sup>U</sup>	2.92 <sup>a</sup>	2.77 <sup>a</sup>	2.77 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.08
1	2.02 <sup>c</sup>	2.28 <sup>d</sup>	1.95 <sup>ce</sup>	2.33 <sup>d</sup>	
2	1.61 <sup>fgm</sup>	1.69 <sup>ghi</sup>	1.65 <sup>fhk</sup>	1.83 <sup>ei</sup>	
3	1.42 <sup>j</sup>	1.5 <sup>gkj</sup>	1.42 <sup>jl</sup>	1.45 <sup>jm</sup>	

<sup>a,b,c,d,e</sup> Means bearing different superscripts are significantly different (P<0.05); \* Sausages canned using 107.2°C and 115.5°C processing temperatures with and without nitrite.

## Experiment 2

Proximate composition: Raw and cooked sausages were analyzed for dry matter, ash, crude protein and fat percentage. The results as shown in Table 9 indicated that, there was no significant difference among treatments for all variables. However, raw sausages scored low values for dry matter (high moisture), crude protein, fat and ash content compared to the cooked sausages. Citric acid was not significantly affected on dry matter, crude protein, fat and ash content for the various sausage treatments compared to the control and this may be due to its low concentration (1%). These results are in agreement with Abrele et al. (2001) who were reported from the U.S. Department of agriculture Hand book the proximate composition and caloric content of separable lean of raw and cooked retail cuts of beef which indicate that (protein, fat and ash) percentage were increased in the cooked retail cuts while the moisture% decreased in comparison with the raw cuts. Also Pearson and Tauber (1989) explained that, cooking decrease the water content of raw meat and leads to denaturation and coagulation which involves change in the protein molecule. This may be due to unfolding of the protein or the loss of its characteristic conformation, which decreases its solubility. Chiou et al. (2004) reported that, in small abalone meats were heated at 80°C and 98°C for 0-120 min, the decrease in moisture and weight were relatively higher for cooking at 98°C than at 80°C.

Means and standard error for dry matter% showed no significant difference among treatments (Table 10; P>0.05) although there was slight increasing in dry matter% age (decrease in moisture %) with increasing of storage period.

**Table 9 - Means and standard errors (S.E.) for Dry matter %, Ash %, Crude Protein %, Fat % and pH of the various sausage treatments\***

Independent Variables	Treatment *				S.E.
	Citric acid (1%)		Treated water		
	30°c	80°c	30°c	80 °c	
Dry matter (%)					
Raw sausages	25.69 <sup>a</sup>	26.53 <sup>a</sup>	25.61 <sup>a</sup>	29.0 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.35
Cooked sausages	26.69 <sup>a</sup>	26.63 <sup>a</sup>	30.22 <sup>a</sup>	31.64 <sup>a</sup>	
Crude protein (%)					
Raw sausages	18.85 <sup>b</sup>	19.1 <sup>b</sup>	18.63 <sup>b</sup>	18.83 <sup>b</sup>	± 0.09
Cooked sausages	19.47 <sup>b</sup>	19.2 <sup>b</sup>	20.28 <sup>b</sup>	19.95 <sup>b</sup>	
Fat (%)					
Raw sausages	2.83 <sup>c</sup>	3.12 <sup>c</sup>	3.03 <sup>c</sup>	3.18 <sup>c</sup>	± 0.07
Cooked sausages	3.22 <sup>c</sup>	3.25 <sup>c</sup>	3.13 <sup>c</sup>	3.23 <sup>c</sup>	
Ash (%)					
Raw sausages	2.07 <sup>d</sup>	2.37 <sup>d</sup>	2.07 <sup>d</sup>	2.37 <sup>d</sup>	± 0.07
Cooked sausages	2.12 <sup>d</sup>	2.12 <sup>d</sup>	2.28 <sup>d</sup>	2.17 <sup>d</sup>	
pH					
Raw sausages	7.05 <sup>e</sup>	6.98 <sup>e</sup>	6.82 <sup>e</sup>	6.78 <sup>e</sup>	± 0.08
Cooked sausages	6.88 <sup>e</sup>	7.05 <sup>e</sup>	6.8 <sup>e</sup>	6.95 <sup>e</sup>	

a, b, c, d, e Means for each independent variable bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $p>0.05$ ); \* Raw meat was dipped in 1% citric acid at 30 °C and at 80° C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing); Raw meat was dipped in treated water at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing).

**Table 10 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for dry matter % of the various sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	Citric acid (1%)		Treated water		
	30°C	80°C	30°C	80°C	
0	31.08 <sup>a</sup>	30.32 <sup>a</sup>	31.73 <sup>a</sup>	30.43 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.51
1	32.57 <sup>a</sup>	31.76 <sup>a</sup>	33.69 <sup>a</sup>	34.94 <sup>a</sup>	
2	34.6 <sup>a</sup>	33.43 <sup>a</sup>	34.44 <sup>a</sup>	33.04 <sup>a</sup>	
3	35.23 <sup>a</sup>	34.42 <sup>a</sup>	35.47 <sup>a</sup>	34.92 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ); \* Raw meat was dipped in 1% citric acid at 30 °C and at 80°C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing); Raw meat was dipped in treated water at 30 °C and at 80°C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing).

As for crude protein the results in (Table 11) shows slight decrease in the protein content by increasing time of storage, but the difference was not significant. Citric acid and the difference of its temperature had no significant effect on the protein content. Bender and Husaini (1976) pointed that low net protein utilization value of the canned meat product is due both to the high content of connective tissue and the loss of available methionine on canning in the presence of the other food stuffs. Desrosier and Desrosier (1977) demonstrated that, denaturation of protein may be brought about by heat in the presence of moisture. When so denatured, the configuration of the nature protein molecules is lost and specific immunological properties which distinguish most proteins are diminished.

There was no significant difference among treatments for fat% (Table 12;  $P>0.05$ ). Nevertheless fat content was slightly decreased with increasing of storage period. Citric acid caused no change in the fat content as the increase in its temperature.

As for ash there was no significant difference among treatments (Table 13;  $P>0.05$ ), but we observed that, the ash content was decreased by increasing of storage period. Citric acid as the difference in its temperature had no significant effect on ash content. Slabyj and Carpenter (2006) claimed that blue mussels (*mytilus edulis*) have been frozen or canned the raw and processed meats (fresh, frozen and canned) were analyzed for proximate composition and mineral content. Initial steaming of blue mussels resulted in significant increase in dry weight of meats but a decrease in carbohydrates and ash content.

**Table 11 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for crude protein % of the various sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	Citric acid (1%)		Treated water		
	30°C	80°C	30°C	80°C	
0	18.75 <sup>a</sup>	18.30 <sup>a</sup>	18.12 <sup>a</sup>	18.78 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.22
1	17.43 <sup>a</sup>	17.47 <sup>a</sup>	17.35 <sup>a</sup>	17.47 <sup>a</sup>	
2	17.10 <sup>a</sup>	16.90 <sup>a</sup>	16.75 <sup>a</sup>	16.78 <sup>a</sup>	
3	16.39 <sup>a</sup>	16.53 <sup>a</sup>	16.23 <sup>a</sup>	16.29 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ); \* Raw meat was dipped in 1% citric acid at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing); Raw meat was dipped in treated water at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing).

**Table 12 - Means and standard error for fat % of the various sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	Citric acid (1%)		Treated water		
	30 °c	80 °c	30 °c	80 °c	
0	2.35 <sup>a</sup>	2.97 <sup>a</sup>	2.97 <sup>a</sup>	3.2 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.11
1	2.35 <sup>a</sup>	2.32 <sup>a</sup>	2.50 <sup>a</sup>	2.43 <sup>a</sup>	
2	1.69 <sup>a</sup>	1.62 <sup>a</sup>	1.49 <sup>a</sup>	1.91 <sup>a</sup>	
3	1.46 <sup>a</sup>	1.39 <sup>a</sup>	1.34 <sup>a</sup>	1.44 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ); \* Raw meat was dipped in 1% citric acid at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing); Raw meat was dipped in treated water at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing).

**Table 13 - Means and standard error (S.E.) for ash % of the various sausage treatments\*.**

Storage (month)	Treatment *				S.E.
	Citric acid (1%)		Treated water		
	30 °c	80 °c	30 °c	80 °c	
0	2.38 <sup>a</sup>	2.58 <sup>a</sup>	2.38 <sup>a</sup>	2.45 <sup>a</sup>	± 0.19
1	1.68 <sup>a</sup>	1.72 <sup>a</sup>	1.62 <sup>a</sup>	2.22 <sup>a</sup>	
2	1.48 <sup>a</sup>	1.31 <sup>a</sup>	1.35	1.65 <sup>a</sup>	
3	1.35 <sup>a</sup>	1.17 <sup>a</sup>	1.20 <sup>a</sup>	1.21 <sup>a</sup>	

<sup>a</sup> Means bearing similar superscripts are not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ); \* Raw meat was dipped in 1% citric acid at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing); Raw meat was dipped in treated water at 30 °C and at 80 °C (dipping and draining were performed for 1 minute in each treatment before processing).

## CONCLUSION

It would be concluded that, the canned beef sausages will be of good chemical properties if processed without added nitrite and retorted at 115.5°C for 80 minute at least for 3 months of storage at room temperature. So, we could get rid of nitrite which caused some problems in the meat industry.

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# MANAGEMENT PRACTICES OF DAIRY FARMS; CASE STUDY: KHARTOUM NORTH AND EASTERN NILE LOCALITIES, KHARTOUM, SUDAN

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**ABSTRACT:** This case study was conducted to assess the management practices in the dairy farms of Eastern Nile and Khartoum North localities, Khartoum State, Sudan. A questionnaire targeting local dairy producers was used to cover 70 milk producers in the areas of Tibna, Silate, Eidbabiker and Elafoon. The single-visit, multiple-subject approach was used for data collection. The results showed that 53% of the farm owners adopted traditional type of animal keeping. The housing of calves was in groups. Calves, in general looked thin. The number of calves kept together was large and all calves, pre weaning, were kept in the same pen. Eighty-five percent of the farm's cows had high body condition score (BCS) than recommended (obese cows). Ninety-four percent of the owners were not interested in measuring the weight of their animals or calves at birth. The percentage of the infectious diseases such as Mastitis, Foot and Mouth disease, Contagious Bovine Box and Pleuro-phneumonia were found to be 99%, 51%, 13% and 11%, respectively. Diarrhea and Jaundice were the major causes of mortality in suckling calves in the study area. The respondents mentioned three major problems afflicting the dairy sector which were the high cost of nutrition, prices of drugs and lack of new technologies. Lack of extension services, poor veterinary services and scarcity of water comprised as major setbacks.

**Keywords:** Dairy Management, Housing, Calves Management, Body Condition Score, Infectious Diseases.

## INTRODUCTION

Dairy cattle are kept all over the world. Keeping a dairy cow can be very lucrative, especially close to urban areas. The dairy cow is, however, a very valuable animal and owning one entails a number of risks. The biggest risk is losing the animal. Low productivity due to poor management will also lead to losses (Bonnier et al., 2004). Cow better management can increase overall health, milk yield, and productive life because of enhanced animal welfare (Wagner-Storch et al., 2003). Housing systems for dairy cows vary from housing cows throughout the year to housing cows in the winter months only. Outdoors grazing is allowed throughout the year in regions with the appropriate climate. Systems in which cows are housed throughout the year [referred to as zero-grazing, (ZG) systems] are used in areas where grazing the cattle is not the most efficient or cost-effective use of the land. Cows can be fed high levels of concentrate feed more easily when they are housed, so extended or continuous housing systems are more common in farms having cows with a high genetic potential for milk yield. It is hypothesized that the increased length of the housing period may have adverse effects on cow lameness and leg injury (Haskell et al., 2006). Provision of adequate shading is the easiest and most effective way in controlling cows' heat stress. Direct sunlight adds a tremendous heat load to the cow, but heat energy that is reflected from areas exposed to the sun such as concrete floors, barn walls and other exposed surfaces also add to the cow's heat stress. Shading reduces the black globe environmental temperature (a measure of temperature and radiant energy) and lowers the rectal temperature and respiration rate of cows, increasing feed intake and milk yield. Gains in milk production of 10 to 20 percent occurred where shaded and unshaded cows were compared (West, 2009). Loose housing barns provide shade for cows without the cost of free stalls or the concrete floors. These barns have a sand base mounded in the center of the barn to minimize accumulation of moisture. The bedding must be cleaned and maintained regularly to prevent pitting and fresh sand must be added as needed (West, 2009).

Kulneff (2006) studied the dairy management system in relatively modern systems in Khartoum State, Sudan, and reported that the animals were housed in pens on the ground, surrounded by either mud walls or iron fences and with access to roofs for shadow. The weaned female calves are kept as replacement heifers, as for the males, there were disposed by sale, and only one or two were retained for the purpose of breeding. A study carried out in Khartoum State, Sudan, revealed that 50% of the farm owners purchased their drugs directly from drug stores, 30% were neither dealt with clinics nor purchased drugs to treat their sick animals, 10% purchased their

drugs from drug stores and treat their animals by themselves and 10% preferred to deal with veterinary clinics to treat their animals (Mustafa, 2008). The study area is known to be the main source of milk supplied to Khartoum State. However, limited studies have been carried out to evaluate the management practices in the study area. Thus the main objective of this study is to assess the management practices in the dairy farms of Eastern Nile and Khartoum North localities, Khartoum State, Sudan. The study also aims to determine the problems and constraints of the milk production sector in the study area.

## **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### **Study area:**

The study was conducted in Khartoum State, Sudan, specifically at four administrative units of Khartoum North and Eastern Nile provinces. The included administrative units (regions) were Tibna, Edbabiker, South Silate and Elafon regions. The average minimum and maximum temperatures of the study area during the study period ranged from 16-31 °C in January to 27-42 °C in May (Climate Zone, 2012). Both agro-ecological zones have high dairy cattle concentration and are major producers of milk in Eastern Nile.

### **Data Collection:**

The study started with a survey targeting the local dairy producers. The Single-visit, multiple-subject approach of data gathering described by (Gilbert et al., 1980) was used in this study. A questionnaire covered seventy randomly selected milk producers who accounted for 18% of the total number of milk producers in the area was used in the study. The owners and workers of the visited farms were individually interviewed and the collected data were recorded. Moreover, observations regarding the housing system, conditions of the animals in barns and other issues that may not be reported by the respondents were also recorded.

Descriptive statistics analysis was carried out for the collected data in terms of percentage.

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **Management in study area:**

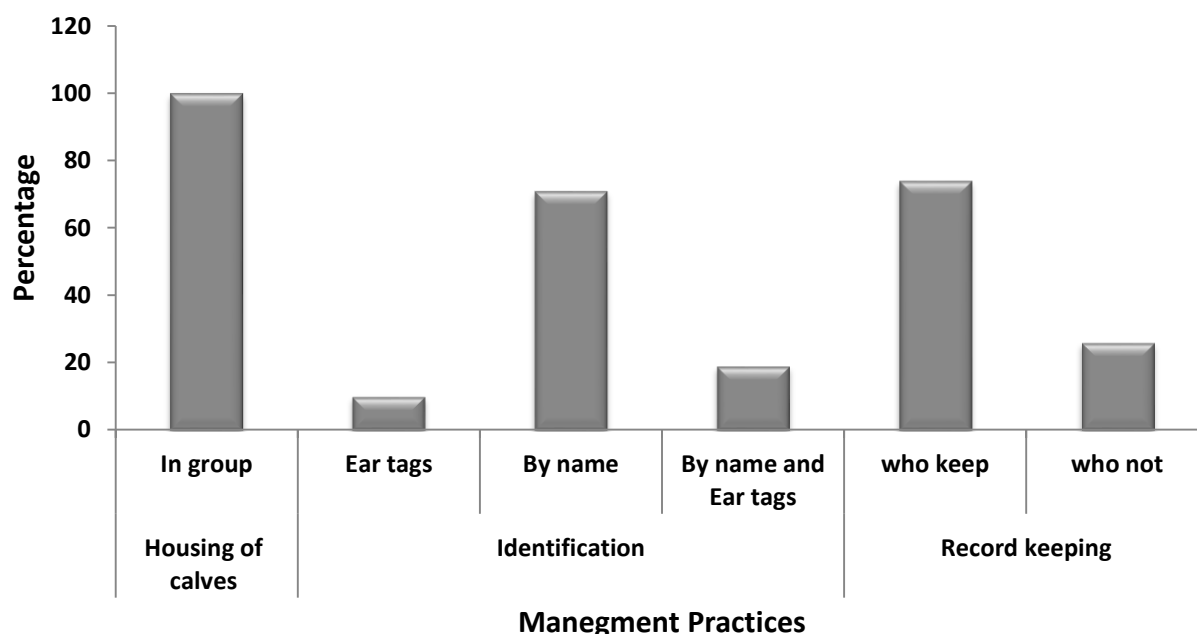
Almost all farm owners in the study area were following the same management system. The study revealed that 47% of the owners adopted modern type of animals keeping and 53% adopted a traditional type (Table 1). Seventy six percent of the traditional type farms' breeders depend on straw in building their barns roofs because they believed that straw roof has a role in avoiding worms, while 19% and 5% depend on reeds and iron scrap, respectively. Most of the barns in study area were shaded. Regarding fencing, 61% of the owners constructed their fences using iron while 26%, 10% and 3% used mud bricks, bricks and wire + zinc, respectively (Table 1). On the other hand, the entire surveyed farms floors were not concreted because the breeders believe that the concrete floor is harmful for their animals' feet. The above results were supported by Kulneff (2006) who studied the dairy management system in relatively modern systems in Khartoum State and reported that the animals were housed in pens on the ground, surrounded by either mud walls or iron fences and with access to roofs for shadow.

The weaned female calves were kept as replacement heifers, as for the males, there were disposed by sale, and only one or two were retained for the purpose of breeding. The returns from the sale of calves often used to cover the costs of feeding. Similar results were reported by Mustafa (2008) who stated that the small and large commercial farmers used the same calves' management system regardless of the studied regions. He also reported that weaned female calves were kept as replacement heifers, while almost all male calves were culled, exchanged or sold to neighboring smallholder dairy farmers. The result is also in line with the findings of Hanyani-Mlambo et al. (1998) who studied the socio-economic aspects of smallholder dairying in Zimbabwe.

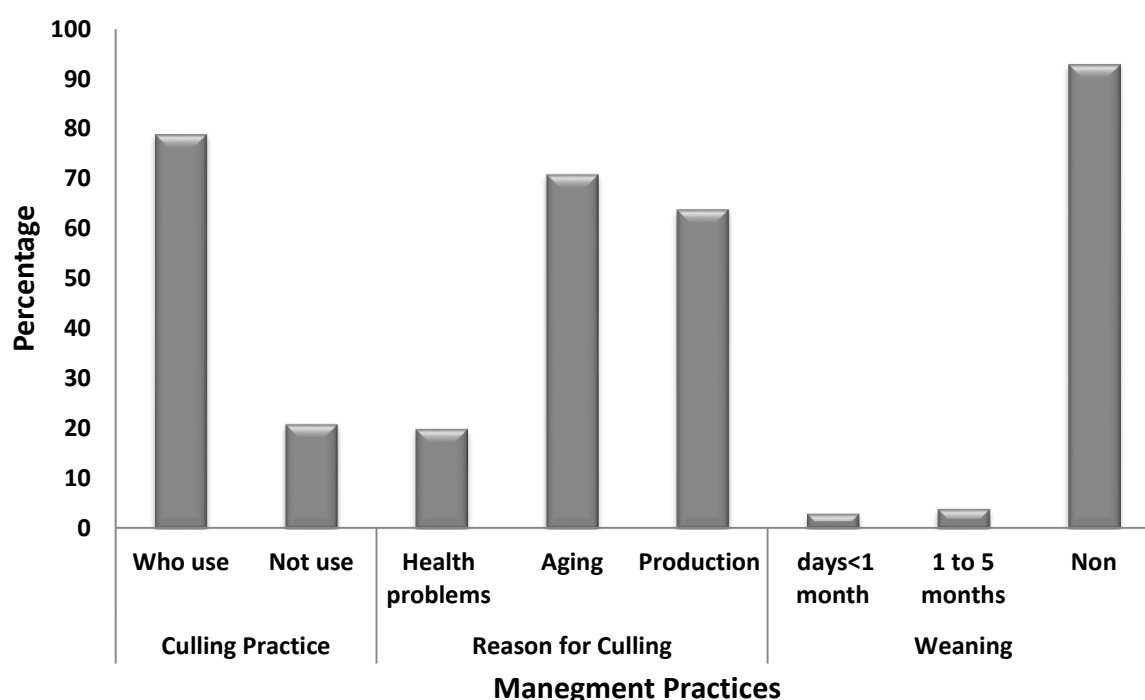
The housing of calves was in groups (Figure 1A). Calves generally looked thin. The number of calves kept together was large and all calves, pre weaning, were kept in the same pen. The pens were on soil and, in some herds, with walls of mud, allowing infectious agents to persist in the environment. Poor growth and health problems in these animals are probably caused by restricted suckling in combination with scanty feeding, poor access to water in some cases and high disease pressure. Some of the farms only kept cattle and others kept several other species beside cattle, in this case all animals were kept together. These results were similar to that reported by Kulneff (2006). The majority of farm owners relied on the naming system to identify their animals by giving them different names (Figure 1A). As for keeping their records, 74% of the farms have records, but these records are not recorded properly and did not contain sufficient information, while the rest lack records. Seventy-nine percent of farmers were culling their animals on the basis of aging and decline of production. Most of the owners did not practice weaning and abandoned their calves with their mothers (Figure 1B). Restricted suckling was the system found to be practiced by almost all owners. Milking is usually done twice a day; early in the morning and in the

evening (Figure 2). Milking is commonly done outside, beside a restraining wooden post erected near the main kraal or under a tree. The calf is allowed to suckle to stimulate milk let down and the cow was then milked. The calf is allowed to suckle again before being tethered away from the cows. In most cases no attempt is made to wash the udder before milking. This may be due to the practice of allowing the calf to suckle before milking. A bad milking practice which is commonly observed is that of the milker dipping his fingers into the milk as a means of lubricating the teats during milking. Similar observations were reported by FAO (1990) and Lyimo et al. (2004) in Southern and Eastern Africa.

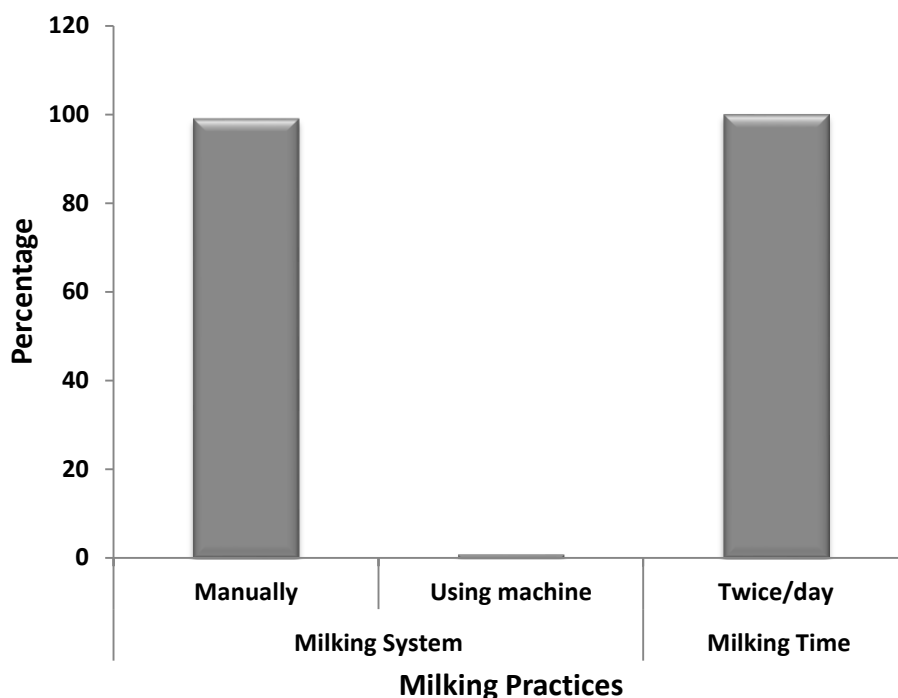
The main obstacles facing calves rearing reported by the owners were calves diseases and poor growth of calves. Others were inadequate knowledge on calf rearing and mortality. As for overall evaluation of the management system in study area, the management system in more than 50% of the farms was judged as very bad (Figure 3).



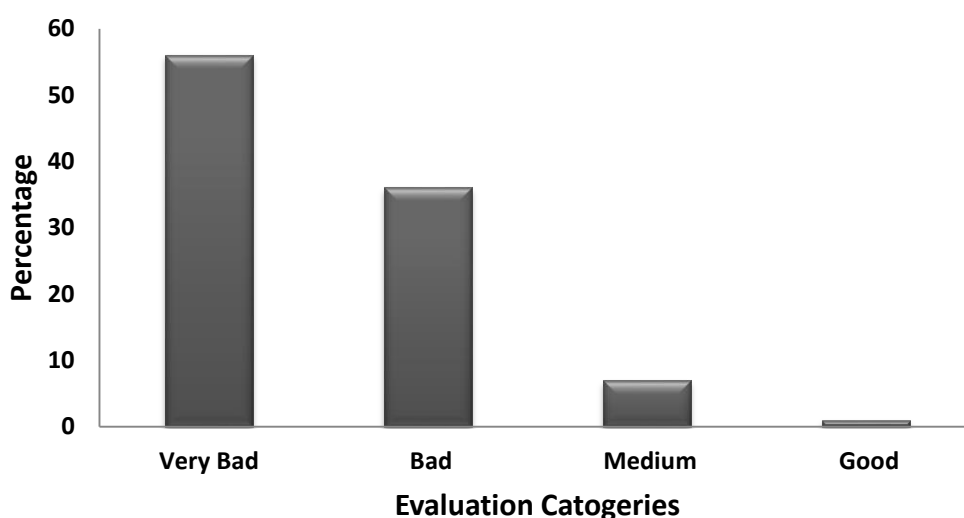
**Figure 1A.** Farm Management in the study area (N=70)



**Figure 1B.** Farm Management in the study area (N=70)



**Figure 2.** Milking system and milking frequency in study area (N=70)



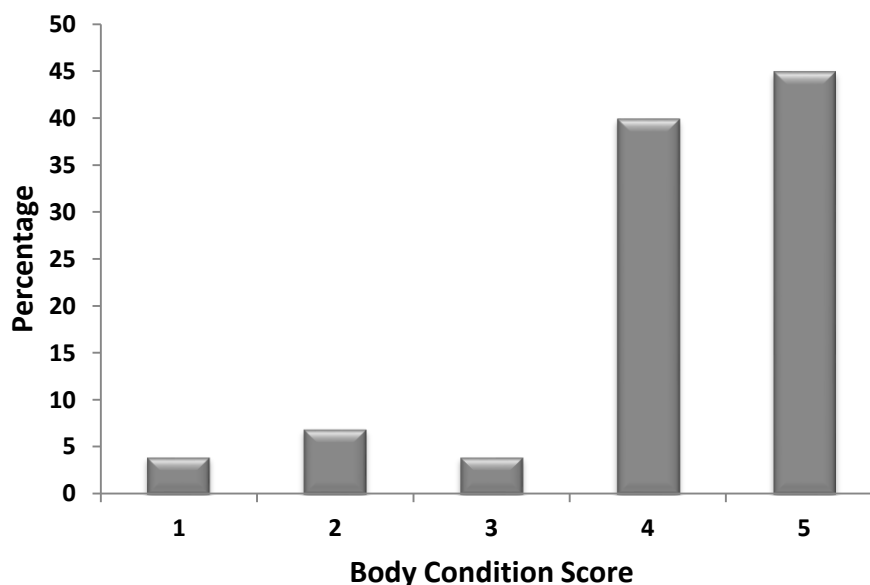
**Figure 3.** Evaluation of the Current Management System in Study Area (N=70)

### Body Condition Score

Body condition score (BCS) is a method of evaluating fatness or thinness in cows, according to a five-point scale and used the score to fine-tune dairy herd nutrition and health. Evaluation of BCS is recommended because it reflects the nutritional status and energy balance in dairy cows (Kim and Suh, 2003). Eighty five percent of the farms cows had higher BCS than recommended (obese cows), while 4% had BCS lower than physiologically accepted (Figure 4). These finding are consistent with these reported by Mustafa (2008). This result could be due to the lack of specific feeding plans. Concentrate was given to dairy herds irrespective of physiological status of the animal. The Feed quantities were not weighed and sometimes cows given more than their actual requirements. On the other hand, the fertility problems in the study area could be attributed to the higher BCS. Mongeon (2011) reported that the successful pregnancy can be achieved earlier when the BCS low point and reserve replenishment happens early in lactation. It also seems that the optimal BCS at the onset of the breeding period should range between 3.0 and 3.5. For cows above or below this range, successful heat detection decreases rapidly. Cows with high BCS at calving have a much greater risk of coming down with metabolic problems later on. He also reported a 30% increase in the risk of milk fever if a cow's BCS was greater than 3.5 at calving. Similarly, a doubling of ketosis risk was recorded in dairy cows calving at a BCS greater than 3.5 compared to cows calving at 3.5. Generally, over-



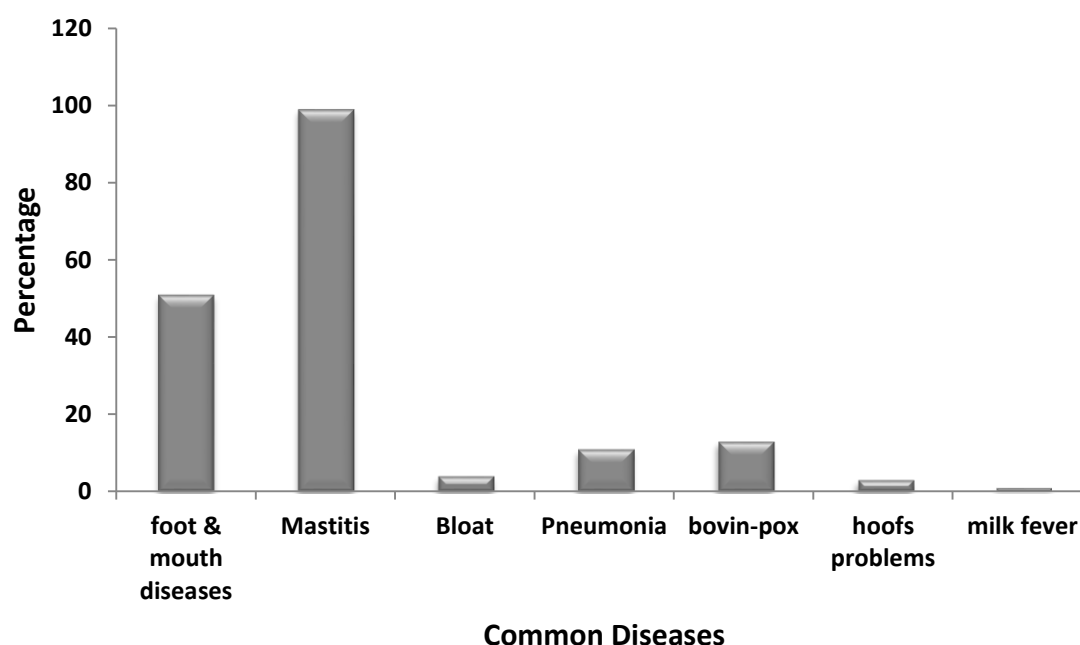
conditioning-BCS greater than 3.5 increased risk of metabolic disorders around calving time. BCS has also been linked to lameness. Recent findings suggest previous BCS recommendations need to be lowered slightly. Optimal BCS at calving should range between 3.0 and 3.25, and the loss of BCS after calving should be no more than 1 point to a lowest score of 2.25 quoting by Mongeon (2011). High BCS before calving, as well as marked losses in body condition after calving are associated with metabolism related diseases like fatty liver, decreased fertility and increased culling rates (Hayirli et al., 2002; Šamanc et al., 2010).



**Fig 4.** Body Condition Score (BCS) of milking cows in study area (N=70)

#### **Animal health and common diseases in study area**

Livestock keepers in the study area, irrespective of the location in the four regions had listed a wide range of diseases. The percentage of the infectious diseases such as Mastitis, Foot and Mouth disease, Contagious Bovine Box and Pleuro-phneumonia that frequently occurred in the milk herd in both small and large scale livestock keepers were 99%, 51%, 13% and 11%, respectively (Figure 5). Other diseases of importance were Bloats 4%, hoof problems 3% due to bad management and milk fever 1%. These finding are partly complying with these reported by Mustafa (2008) who found that infectious diseases such as Foot and Mouth diseases, Contagious Bovine and Pleuro-phneumonia had frequently occurred in the herd with a percentage of 60%, he also found Mastitis with a percentage of 35.6% and Diarrheas and Bloats with a percentage of 24.4%.



**Figure 5.** Percentage of common diseases in study area

Musa et al. (2006) also found the incidences of infectious diseases in cows in Butana cattle area at a rate of 24% for Foot and Mouth diseases and 40% for Contagious Bovine and Pleuro-pneumonia. The same study also reported a similar finding for Diarrheas. Mustafa (2008) observed that Foot and Mouth disease, Rinderpest and Hemorrhagic septicemia in ruminants are among the most infectious diseases found in the traditional production system in Khartoum urban and peri-urban regions.

Diarrhea and Jaundice were the major causes of mortality in suckling calves in study area (Table 2). Diarrhea and Jaundice together are responsible for 36% of the suckling calves mortality, while Diarrhea, Jaundice and other problems were responsible for 33%, 13% and 15%, respectively. As the ground was soil in the study area, infectious agents may remain in the permanent pen and thus put a high disease pressure on new calves introduced into the herd. This result is in accordance with the result of Kulneff (2006). Because the majority of farmers in the study area did not wean the calves which remain with their mothers until it gives birth for the second time, the colostrums may not be enough to the newborn calves and this might weaken their immunity against diseases. This might be another reason for the high mortality rate of the suckling calves in the study area as colostrum is an important factor in developing immunity. Lidfors (1996) found lower mortality rates for calves that received their colostrum by suckling their mothers compared to calves that received colostrum from an open bucket.

Disease prevention has to be adjusted to the management system and the disease pattern in the herd (Payne and Wilson, 1999). The ways available to protect livestock from infectious diseases are by increasing the host's defense and by preventing the animals from meeting the contagion. Through breeding regimes, animals have become more tolerant or even resistant to some diseases. Generally, by providing good hygienic conditions, the disease pressure can be diminished (Payne and Wilson, 1999). In a housed environment, other ways of spreading diseases has to be taken into consideration. Many animals then have close contact in a limited area. The walls and floors may harbour infectious agents. Other ways of controlling diseases are by vaccination, vector control (e.g. dipping) and for young animals by securing colostral immunity (Algers et al., 2009).

No separation between groups, permanent pens directly on the soil, and poor watering and feeding regimes, cause many problems for the health of animals and thus productivity and income for the farmers. Many of these problems could be diminished by extension activities.

#### **Major constraints facing small-scale dairy farms**

The respondents mentioned three major problems afflicting the dairy sector which were the high cost of nutrition, prices of drugs and lack of new technologies (Table 3). Also they stated some other obstacles facing the dairy sector including location, taxes, marketing and financing. This is in accordance with the finding of Mustafa (2008) who found that the major constraints for livestock production were high prices of concentrates, high taxes, poor extension coverage, small land area and pressures from governmental health authorities. Other constraints included lack of utilizable technologies, lack of capital, poor local genes, and poor management practices. Also Masangi (1998) and Leslie et al. (1999) reported that animal feed is a major constraint for zero-grazed dairy cattle. The results also goes in line with the finding of Musa et al. (2006) who reported that Kenana and Butana cattle herders stressed that lack of livestock feed was the most important limiting factor for productivity of their cattle. However, Habeeballa (1996) attributed high concentrates prices to export of industrial by-products and high prices of green fodder to seasonal factors. In some cases especially during fall and festivals low milk prices and high concentrates prices acted as a disincentive, forcing producers to restrict their feeding.

#### **Problems of dairy farms observed in the study area**

Many problems were observed in the study area including lack of extension services (70%), poor veterinary services (63%), availability of water (44%), spread of ticks (30%) and fertility problems (30%). In addition to some other minor problems like obesity, extreme emaciation, over feeding and expensive feed components. Some of the studied farms provided different types of concentrates per day in order to reduce the feeding cost (Table 4). Moreover some farms have large numbers of milking cows which were milking manually.

Mustafa (2008) reported that only 5.6% of the respondents indicated the availability of extension services from governmental extension authorities. The reason behind poor government extension coverage could be due to the negligence of government authorities to this important sub-sector. In this context and regarding the veterinary services, El-Sammani et al. (1996) reported that the high incidence of infectious diseases and the high cost of veterinary drugs could be attributed to the liberalization of the economy and the sudden shift from completely government subsidized to privatized veterinary services provided at market price.

For the tick problems, Jongejan et al. (1987) reported that the greater number of ticks in Khartoum than in other locations is probably due to the dense livestock population in the area, which would have led to a high pick-up

rate of ticks by cattle that are always kept in pens. Cattle in the other locations are not confined in pens because of the nomadic life of cattle owners.

**Table 1 - Type of Barns, fences and floor in the study area**

Items	Types	%
Type of Barns	Modern	47%
	Traditional	53%
Traditional	Straw	76%
	Reeds	19%
	Iron scrap	5%
Shading	Yes	96%
	No	4%
Fencing	Barbed wire + Zinc	3%
	Iron fence	61%
	Mud brick wall	26%
	Bricks	10%
Floor type	Soil	100%

**Table 2 - Percentage the causes of mortality in Suckling calves in study area**

Mortality	%
Diarrhea	33%
Jaundice	16%
Diarrhea & Jaundice	36%
Others	15%
Total	100%

**Table 3 - Major constraints encountered in small-scale dairy farming**

Major constraints	% of the studied farms
Funding	4%
Cost of Nutrition	100%
Technical	100%
Prices of drugs	100%
Marketing	6%
Tax	13%
Location	14%

**Table 4 - Problems of Dairy Farms Observed in the study Area**

Problems	% of studied farms
Lack of Extension services	70%
Veterinary services	63%
Availability of water	44%
Fertility problems	30%
Ticks	30%
Over Feeding	21%
Obesity	20%
Providing different types of concentrates per day	19%
Vaccination	14%
Lacking of milking parlour	11%
Extreme emaciation	8%
Availability of workers	6%
Expensive components	4%

Among the constraints facing productive and reproductive performance of dairy cows, Duguma et al. (2012) reported that the age at first calving was affected by shortage of feed, feeding and disease and the combined effect of feeding, disease and breeding management. The respondents in this study reported that feed shortage and interactions of nutrition, health, housing and management level were major problems affecting milk production in the neighboring country Ethiopia. Age at first calving was reported to be influenced by the onset of puberty, which itself is affected by environment, breed type, season and herd effects (Mukasa-Mugerwa, 1989). Duguma et al. (2012) reported that dry season feed shortage was the main reason for seasonal fluctuation of milk production.

Poor nutrition increases the susceptibility of dairy cows to health problem and physiological stress which results in lower production, much longer calving intervals, as well as problems in fertility (Reda, 1999; De Boer, 1999).

It can be concluded that farms suffer from poor management and the impact of the spread of disease, especially Mastitis and Foot and mouth disease, in addition to the high mortality rate of calves due to Diarrhea and Jaundice diseases. The dairy sector completely lacks the extension services, as well as veterinary services as the majority of the farm owners buy the medicines and treat their animals by themselves.

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## NUTRITIVE VALUE OF RUBBER SEED (*Hevea brasiliensis*)

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**ABSTRACT:** The study was undertaken to find out the chemical composition of rubber seeds (*Hevea brasiliensis*) available in Bangladesh. *Hevea brasiliensis* seeds were collected directly from 200 rubber trees of the rubber garden in the Bandarban area under standard random sampling technique. Seeds were decorticated, ground and dried in hot air oven. Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate for moisture, dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extract (NFE), ether extract (EE) and ash in the animal nutrition laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong, Bangladesh. Metabolizable energy (ME) was calculated mathematically by using standard mathematical formula. Results indicated that, decorticated *Hevea brasiliensis* seeds contained 85.7% DM, 26.1% CP, 43.0% CF, 13.8% NFE, 11.0% EE and 1.8% ash. ME contents in the seeds was 2101.1 kcal/kg DM. Since, decorticated rubber seeds contained substantial amount of metabolizable energy and proximate components, therefore it could be assumed that, like other unconventional feeds, it might be a promising feed resource for livestock.

**Keywords:** Chemical Composition, *Hevea brasiliensis*, Metabolizable Energy, Nutritive Value.

### INTRODUCTION

The rubber tree (*Hevea brasiliensis*) is a perennial plantation crop indigenous to South America and a cultivated industrial crop in Southeast Asia since 1876 (Abdullah and Salimon, 2009). The British planters first introduced it in Bangladesh in the early twentieth century and commercial plantation was started in 1961 by the government in Chittagong and Sylhet hilly regions. Later on, plantations were expanded in Chittagong Hill Tracts and Madhupur by the government and public enterprises. The British and some other private companies also planted rubber trees in the fellow lands of tea estates. At present about 25,000 hectare of land is under rubber plantation in Bangladesh and annual production is about 7,500 tons

against 20,000 tons of the total demand of natural rubber (Anonymous, 2006). Rubber tree starts to bear fruit at four year of age. Each fruit contains three or four seeds, which fall to the ground when fruit ripens and splits away. Each tree yields about 800 seeds (5 kg/tree annually) twice a year (Bressani et al., 1983). Rubber plantation is estimated to produce about 800-1200 kg rubber seed/ha/year which is normally regarded as waste in Bangladesh. There is no doubt that at this moment persistent shortage of conventional feedstuffs for livestock in Bangladesh is due to inadequate production of farm crops to meet their growing demands at commercial scale. These scenario forcing animal nutritionists to evoke and intensify research for potentially useful but neglected crop products like rubber seed (*Hevea brasiliensis*) obtained from rubber tree (Babatunde et al., 1990).

The Malaysian, Nigerian and Indian rubber seeds are rich in oil (10.1-68.5%), crude protein (14.9-34.1%), ash (2.4-3.1%) linoleic acid, lysine (4.26 mg/16gN), leucine (6.81 mg/16gN), isoleucine (3.28 mg/16gN), valine (7.08 mg/16gN), threonine (3.72 mg/16gN), methionine (1.37 mg/16gN) and other non-essential amino acids. Rubber seed oil is very rich in linolenic and linoleic acids (Babatunde and Pond, 1987b). Malaysia, Indonesia, Nigeria and Srilanka has already extracted and used rubber seed meal in livestock feed. However, no systematic studies have so far been carried out in Bangladesh to find out the nutritive values of rubber seeds and feasibility to explore it as



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feed in livestock industry. Therefore, current study aims to estimate the nutritive value of decorticated rubber seeds collected from different rubber gardens available in Bangladesh.

## **MATERIAL AND METHODS**

### **Study area**

Most of the rubber gardens of Chittagong Hilly areas are located in Cox's bazaar and Bandarban areas. Therefore, the current study was conducted in randomly selected three rubber gardens of Bandarban district. The study area has a latitude of 22° 21'N, longitude 91° 49'E and elevation of 29 m. The area is fairly hot with annual average temperature of 25.1 °C. The variation of daily average temperature is 8.8 °C. Mean monthly temperature has a variation of 9 °C the hottest month is May having a mean temperature of 28 °C. The coolest month is January which has a mean temperature of 19 °C. The average annual relative humidity of the area is 73.7% and average monthly relative humidity ranges from 58% in January to 86% in August. The area has an average of 2735 mm rainfall per year.

### **Collection of sample**

The rubber tree begins to produce fruit at 4 years of age. A fruit contains 3 to 4 seeds, which consist of a hard shell, which is brown or black with some white spots and a soft white kernel. The proportion of the kernel is about 50% of the total weight of the seed. The soft kernel is used to produce oil and the by-product is rubber seed meal (Dong, 2003). Dried rubber seeds containing intact kernel were collected from 200 trees of the Bandarban area under standard random sampling technique. Total 10 kg of rubber seeds were collected for a period of 30 days. Seeds were packed in airtight sacks and sent to the Animal Nutrition Laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University for chemical analysis.

### **Preparation of sample**

Entire dried seeds were decorticated, kernels were ground (1-3 mm sieve) and dried in hot air oven. Dried ground kernels were blended to powder. Later on, it was mixed properly and exposed to shade to cool down. Samples were wrapped up by polythene bag and preserved in the laboratory for chemical analysis.

### **Analysis of sample**

Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extracts (NFE), ether extracts (EE) and total ash (TA) in the animal nutrition laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong, Bangladesh as per AOAC (2006).

### **Calculation of Metabolizable Energy (ME)**

Metabolizable Energy (ME) was calculated from proximate components by mathematical formula as per Lodhi et al. (1976).

## **RESULTS AND DISCUSSION**

### **Dry matter (DM)**

The DM content of rubber seeds determined in this study was 95.7% (Table 1). The result is in close agreement with earlier studies where it was 96.1% (Eka et al., 2010), 96.1% (Onwurah et al., 2010), 96.4% (Giok et al., 1967), 97.0% (Ukhun and Uwatse, 1988) and 94.2% (Madubuike et al., 2006). However, the result differs with the findings of other investigators who reported it 91.0% (Oyekunle and Omode, 2008), 90.4% (Ly et al., 2001) and 90.6% (Babatunde et al., 1990).

### **Crude protein (CP)**

The crude protein content of rubber seeds determined in this study was 26.1% (Table 1). The result is in line with previous studies where it was reported to be 23.6% (Chanjula et al., 2011), 22.3% (Onwurah et al., 2010), 28.3% (Babatunde et al., 1990), 27.4% (Narahari and Kothandaraman, 1984) and 27.0% (Giok et al., 1967). However, the result differs with the findings of other investigators who reported it 17.4% (Eka et al., 2010), 14.9% (Ly et al., 2001), 18.2% (Achinewhu, 1986) and 11.4% (Bressani et al., 1983).

### **Total ash (TA)**

The TA content of rubber seeds determined in this study was 1.8% (Table 1). The result is similar with studies where it was 2.6% (Onwurah et al., 2010) and 2.4% (Giok et al., 1967). However, the result differs with the findings

of other investigators who reported it 3.1% (Eka et al., 2010; Mmrole, 2008; Ly et al., 2001) and 3.5-5.0% (Ukhun and Uwatse, 1988; Oyekunle and Omode, 2008).

### Ether extracts (EE)

The EE content of rubber seeds in the present study was 11.0% which is in good comparison with Mmereole (2008) (10.1%). However, this result differs with other researchers who reported it 40.8% (Chanjula et al., 2011); 68.5 % (Eka et al., 2010); 42.5% (Onwurah et al., 2010); 28.4% (Ly et al., 2001); 28.8% (Babatunde et al., 1990); 21.8% (Achinewhu, 1986); 24% (Narahari & Kothandaraman, 1984) and 32.3% (Giok et al., 1967). The possible reason for high ether extract content could be either due to variation in the proportion of kernel content of the seeds or preparation techniques of rubber seed meal.

**Table 1 - Nutritive value of decorticated rubber seed meal available in Bangladesh (N=200)**

Ingredient	ME	DM	CP	CF	NFE	EE	ASH
Rubber seed	2101.1	85.7	26.1	43.0	13.8	11.0	1.8

DM=Dry matter, ME=Metabolizable energy, CP=Crude protein, CF=Crude fibre, NFE=Nitrogen free extract, EE=Ether extract

**Table 2 - Nutritive value of rubber seed meal available worldwide**

Investigators	ME	DM	CP	CF	NFE	EE	TA
Chanjula et al., 2011	4674.8	-	23.6	-	-	40.8	-
Eka et al., 2010	-	96.1	17.4	-	-	68.5	3.1
Onwurah et al., 2010	-	96.1	22.3	-	29.0	42.5	2.6
Mmrole, 2008	2520	-	34.1	4.4	-	10.1	3.1
Ly et al., 2001	-	90.4	14.9	-	-	28.4	3.1
Babatunde et al., 1990	-	90.6	28.3	-	-	28.8	-
Achinewhu, 1986	-	-	18.2	13.7	35.7	21.8	-
Narahari & Kothandaraman, 1984	-	-	27.4	15.9	-	24.0	-
Giok et al., 1967	-	96.4	27.0	-	-	32.3	2.4

DM=Dry matter, ME=Metabolizable energy, CP=Crude protein, CF=Crude fibre, NFE=Nitrogen free extract, EE=Ether extract

## CONCLUSION

Rubber seed is a neglected waste but nutritionally promising unconventional feed resource for Bangladesh. Therefore, if rubber seed meal could be incorporated in animal diet, it would reduce production cost of broilers, layers as well as other farm animals. Additionally, rubber seed oil could be exploited for the industrial use of paint and varnish. The seeds contain cyanogenetic glycosides but this disadvantage can be overcome by proper cooking. The main limitation in rubber seed meal is the presence of hydrocyanic acid up to 540 ppm. However, both heat treatment and storage time can be used to reduce it.

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# UTILIZATION OF *Limnocharis flava*, AN INVASIVE AQUATIC WEED FROM KUTTANAD WETLAND ECOSYSTEM, KERALA, INDIA AS A POTENTIAL FEEDSTOCK FOR LIVESTOCK

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**ABSTRACT:** The chemical composition, nutritive value and trace element profiles of *Limnocharis flava*, an emergent aquatic weed during its different growth stages was determined to evaluate as possible cattle feed. Samples were analyzed at three progressive morphological stages of the plant, pre-flowering, flowering and post-flowering. The moisture content, dry matter (DM), ash content, crude protein (CP), ether extract (EE), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extract (NFE) and mineral constituents like sodium (Na<sup>+</sup>) potassium (K<sup>+</sup>), calcium (Ca<sup>2+</sup>), phosphorous (P) and trace elements like iron (Fe<sup>2+</sup>), copper (Cu<sup>2+</sup>), manganese (Mn<sup>2+</sup>), zinc (Zn<sup>2+</sup>), lead (Pb<sup>2+</sup>), chromium (Cr<sup>2+</sup>) nickel (Ni<sup>+</sup>) and cadmium (Cd<sup>+</sup>) contents were analyzed. The moisture content, organic matter (OM), acid detergent fiber content increased during maturation, while CP and EE were found decreased with increased growth stage. Only slight fluctuations occurred in Calcium, Potassium, Phosphorous and Sodium contents. The highest values for crude protein, fiber content, NFE and EE were observed at the flowering stage. These plant posses several characteristics which makes it a nutritious feed suitable for domestic livestock, and is recommended to use *L.flava*, particularly at the flowering stage of growth.

**Keywords:** *Limnocharis flava*, Aquatic Weed, Nutritive Value, Chemical Composition.

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## INTRODUCTION

Alien weed invasion has been identified as one of the biggest threat to biological diversity around globe. They are aggressive colonizers with flexible habitat requirement and ability to out compete native species. Recent studies reveal that the tropics are the major ecological regions, which often became the victims of biological invasions (Ramakrishnan, 1999). Attempts to eradicate such weeds with chemical, biological, mechanical or hybrid means (Abbasi and Ramasamy, 1999; Abbasi and Nipanay, 1986, Bindu and Ramasamy, 2005) have generally failed throughout the world on a long term basis. These methods succeed only in keeping weed infestations in check at enormous costs (Gajalekshmi et al., 2001). Alternatively, the initial clearance of the weed followed by regular, periodic removal of the regrown weeds, coupled with proper utilization of the harvested weeds seems to be a viable solution to the weed menace. By this means the high productivity of such weeds can be made an asset (Gupta, 1979; Abbasi and Nipanay, 1986; Ramasamy and Abbasi, 1999; Kurian and Ramasamy, 2005). The objectives of this study to determine the potential utilization of an exotic aquatic weed, *Limnocharis flava* as unconventional feed resource to livestock.

*Limnocharis flava* (L) Buchenau, an ornamental plant commonly called yellow bur-head, is a monocot weed in the *Limnocharitaceae* family. This emergent weed is a native of tropical and subtropical America and now has invaded in the freshwater ponds, lakes and floodplains of Kuttanad including Vembanad lake, a Ramsar site in Kerala, India. The plant inhabits shallow swamps, ditches, pools and wet rice fields where it grows in more or less stagnant fresh water and rooted in the mud, amidst *Colocassia*, *Monochoria* and other emergent aquatic plants. It has been reported that this plant has become a pest in rice fields of Ceylon, Indonesia and Malaysia and paddy cultivation is often abandoned due to its serious infestation (Kammathy and Subramanyan, 1967, Bahadur and Raizada, 1968). Another important aspect is its methods of propagation. Fruiting takes place throughout the year and the seeds are produced in abundance. A single fruit produces about 1,000 seeds and a single plant may produce over 1,000,000 seeds per year (Senratna, 1940). It has both vegetative and ramets mode of propagation.

Holm-Nielson (1992) in his monograph on *Limnocharitaceae* in the "Flora of Neotropica" has reported that *Limnocharis flava* is a neotropic weed, distributed in the northern Argentina and eastern Brazil. Ochse et al. (1931) included the *Limnocharis flava* as an aquatic leafy vegetable in the 'Vegetable of Dutch East Indies'. National Academy of Science, Washington (1976) reported that in Java, juvenile leaves and young plants of *Limnocharis*

*flava* are a common and much esteemed vegetable. The plant is used as an aquatic ornamental plant in the United States of America. In Sumatra and other places, the plant is used as a fodder for cattle and pigs. The use of *Limnocharis flava* as a livestock feed will help in enhancing the available feed resource and control its spread. A detailed literature search has revealed that several studies have been reported on the nutritional and mineral characteristics of aquatic macrophytes (Harper et al., 1935; Bailey, 1965; Boyd, 1968; 1968a; 1969) but no study has been reported on *Limnocharis*. Keeping this in view, the present study was carried out to investigate the chemical composition and nutritional characteristics of *Limnocharis flava*.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Collection of Plant samples

Immature *Limnocharis flava* plants (average height of 5-10 cm) were collected from five different sites, within 80 km of Kottayam district, Kerala. In order to obtain information on variation of chemical composition of natural stand, samples were collected from different environmental conditions and all sites represent a wide range of edaphic and climatic conditions. The climatic patterns of these sites are characterized by high precipitation at May, June, July and with little rainfall in summer and winter. Mean daily temperature ranges from 22-31°C.

Seedlings of *Limnocharis flava* were grown in a green house in 40x165 cm pots and transplanted to the soil collected from the natural sites where the plants were collected. Sufficient replicates (5 seedlings from each site) were raised. The holes of the pots were sealed in order to provide a water impounded stage similar to the natural conditions and the plants were watered every day. Plant material was harvested for analysis at pre-flowering, flowering and post flowering from the green house plantings.

### Chemical analysis

Whole plant samples were washed and dried in an oven to constant weight at 70°C to determine the dry matter (DM) content and were then air equilibrated, ground well and passed through a 1mm screen and stored for later analyses. The samples were analysed for Ash Content, Acid Soluble Ash, Crude Protein, Crude Fiber, Nitrogen Free Extract (NFE), Ether Extract (EE), Phosphorous and Calcium following standard procedures described in AOAC, 1990. A Flame photometer (Systronics make, Model-128) was used for Sodium and Potassium estimation. The trace elements like Iron, copper, manganese, zinc, cadmium, lead, chromium and nickel were determined using a Varian AA Spectra 20 Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer at the appropriate wavelengths.

### Statistical analysis

Variability of the chemical composition, nutritive value of forage harvested at three stages of maturity were tested for statistical significance by one way analysis of variance (ANOVA) using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS, V.II.263 Inc, Chicago, USA).

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results of the proximate analysis of *Limnocharis flava* at its three morphological stages of growth are presented in Table 1. The moisture content, ash content, acid soluble ash content increased slightly during maturation, while crude protein, nitrogen free extract (NFE) and ether extract (EE) decreased. The ash content was significantly higher at the post flowering stage than the other two stages ( $P < 0.05$ ).

**Table 1 - Chemical Composition and Nutritive value (%) of *Limnocharis flava* at three stages of growth.**

Analyses	Pre-flowering	Flowering	Post-flowering
Moisture content	87.00 ± 1.61 <sup>a</sup>	90.00 ± 1.97 <sup>a</sup>	92.00 ± 3.43 <sup>a</sup>
Ash content	7.80 ± 0.54 <sup>a</sup>	9.20 ± 1.05 <sup>a</sup>	9.68 ± 0.36 <sup>b</sup>
Acid Soluble ash	0.60 ± 0.07 <sup>a</sup>	0.80 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>	0.90 ± 0.07 <sup>a</sup>
Crude protein	13.90 ± 0.4 <sup>a</sup>	14.20 ± 0.51 <sup>a</sup>	11.44 ± 0.76 <sup>a</sup>
Crude fibre	5.30 ± 0.58 <sup>a</sup>	7.60 ± 0.51 <sup>a</sup>	7.94 ± 0.5 <sup>a</sup>
Nitrogen free extract	65.40 ± 0.79 <sup>a</sup>	72.84 ± 0.44 <sup>a</sup>	69.40 ± 0.49 <sup>a</sup>
Ether Extract	6.70 ± 0.48 <sup>a</sup>	7.53 ± 0.44 <sup>a</sup>	6.88 ± 0.52 <sup>a</sup>

Mean of 5 samples ± S.D., Within a row, the values with different letters differ significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )

The mean values of selected inorganic nutrients (dry wt basis) in *Limnocharis flava* at its three stages of growth are presented in Table 2. The Potassium and Sodium concentrations at the pre-flowering and flowering



stages differ, but there is no significant difference in calcium and phosphorous concentrations at the three stages of maturation ( $P < 0.05$ ). The trace metal composition of *Limnocharis flava* is presented in Table 3. There are significant differences in the concentrations of iron, copper, manganese, zinc, lead and nickel at the flowering and post-flowering stages ( $P < 0.05$ ).

**Table 2 - Selected inorganic nutrient composition (%) in *Limnocharis flava* at three stages of growth.**

Growth stages	Pre-flowering	Flowering	Post-flowering
Calcium	4.8±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	5.62±0.44 <sup>a</sup>	5.76±0.42 <sup>a</sup>
Phosphorous	0.66±0.03 <sup>a</sup>	0.76±0.04 <sup>a</sup>	0.79±0.05 <sup>a</sup>
Potassium	0.48±0.05 <sup>a</sup>	1.2±0.36 <sup>b</sup>	1.29±0.46 <sup>b</sup>
Sodium	0.0208±0.01 <sup>a</sup>	0.0292±0.004 <sup>b</sup>	0.0348±0.004 <sup>b</sup>

Mean of 5 samples ± S.D. Within a row, the values with different letters differ significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )

**Table.3. Trace metal composition of *Limnocharis flava* at the three stages of growth**

Growth stages	Pre-flowering	Flowering	Post-flowering
Iron	1.91±0.025 <sup>a</sup>	1.98±0.013 <sup>a</sup>	2.23±0.011 <sup>b</sup>
Copper	0.020± 0.00002 <sup>a</sup>	0.023±0.00002 <sup>a</sup>	0.025±0.00008 <sup>b</sup>
Manganese	0.071±0.00001 <sup>a</sup>	0.076±0.00003 <sup>a</sup>	0.08±0.00004 <sup>b</sup>
Zinc	0.002±0.000002 <sup>a</sup>	0.004±0.000001 <sup>a</sup>	0.007±0.000001 <sup>b</sup>
Lead	0.019±0.0007 <sup>a</sup>	0.023±0.0013 <sup>a</sup>	0.028±0.0017 <sup>b</sup>
Chromium	0.007±0.000003 <sup>a</sup>	0.008±0.000001 <sup>a</sup>	0.01±0.0004 <sup>b</sup>
Nickel	BDL	BDL	BDL
Cadmium	BDL	BDL	BDL

All values are in ppm. Mean of 5 samples ± S.D. Within a row, the values with different letters differ significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ). BDL – Below Detectable Level

In the present study, the chemical composition, the nutritive value and the trace element profiles of the weed, *Limnocharis flava* at three morphological stages of growth was analyzed and determined. The crude protein, ash content, ether extract, crude fiber and Nitrogen free extract contents on its mature stage resemble that of most other common aquatic plants (Table 4). Boyd (1969) states that protein content declines rapidly with maturity. So harvesting for fodder should be at maximum protein content related to total plant material. This trend is also observed in the present study. The highest value of crude protein, crude fiber, Nitrogen free extract and ether extract were obtained at the flowering stage (Table1). Therefore, the harvesting of the plant at the flowering stage is most recommended.

**Table 4. Results of Proximate Analysis of some common aquatic weeds.**

Plant	CP	Ash	EE	CF	NFE	References
<i>Eichhornia crassipes</i>	5.70	0.62	0.40	2.90	64.2	Muktar, 1967
<i>Alternanthera philoxeroides</i>	6.40	12.0	0.80	7.50	60.8	Alfred, 1952
<i>Pistia stratiotes</i>	0.78	2.00	0.30	—	—	Boyd, 1969
<i>Hydrilla verticellata</i>	1.37	3.2	0.27	—	—	Boyd, 1969
<i>Lemna Minor</i>	17.86	1.61	2.19	11.82	66.52	Linn, 1975
<i>Ceratophyllum demersum</i>	17.00	2.18	1.51	15.2	64.11	Linn, 1975
<i>Chara vulgaris</i>	7.92	5.62	0.12	7.65	77.56	Linn, 1975
<i>Typha angustifolia</i>	6.92	0.93	0.98	27.32	53.46	Linn, 1975
<i>Potamogeton pectinatus</i>	14.05	3.22	0.09	15.64	67.00	Little et al., 1967
<i>Limnocharis flava</i>	14.22	9.20	7.60	7.63	72.84	Present study

All values are in percentage.

Boyd (1969) found that the crude protein levels in *Pistia stratiotes* and *Hydrilla verticellata* was 0.78% and 1.37% respectively. The crude Protein content of *Limnocharis flava* is appreciably higher than that most of the other common aquatic weeds of Kerala. The Crude fibre content of *Limnocharis flava* was comparable to the studies by Alfred, 1952 and Linn, 1975a on *Alternanthera philoxeroides* and *Chara vulgaris*. The mean crude protein levels were as high as values reported for many high quality forages (Morrison, 1961). On comparing the chemical composition of *Limnocharis flava* with other common tropical feedstuffs, it has been observed that the plant has rather similar or high values than the other common feeds (Table 6).

**Table 5 - The Chemical Composition (% of dry matter) in some common tropical feeds.**

Items	DM	CP	Ash	Crude fibre	References
Chopped whole					
Sugarcane	23.7	2.5	2.3	41.1	Van et al., 2001
Rice straw	89.4	3.88	4.9	—	Keir et al., 1997
<i>Flemingia macrophylla</i>	28.5	18.3	5.4	52	Van et al., 2005
Jackfruit foliages	32.8	14.8	10.6	50.6	Van et al., 2001
<i>Acacia mangium</i>	31.6	16.2	4.6	49.8	Van et al., 2004
Cassava hay	28.5	15.6	9.8	—	Keir et al., 1997
Rubber seed cake	12.5	14.8	5.9	34.7	Hao and Ledin, 1999
Ground nut cake	88.1	3.02	1.3	26.2	Hao and Ledin, 1999
<i>Limnocharis flava</i>	9.0	9.68	9.68	7.94	Present study

**Table 6 - Recommended Mineral requirements for lactating cattle**

Mineral Constituent	Percent in dry matter*	Present study
Calcium	0.43-0.77%	5.76%
Phosphorous	0.28-0.49%	0.79%
Potassium	0.90-1.00%	1.29%
Sodium	0.18%	0.035%
Iron	50ppm	2.23ppm
Copper	0.10ppm	0.025ppm
Manganese	40ppm	0.08ppm
Zinc	40-60ppm	0.007ppm

\* As recommended in Sharma and Mahajan, 2002.

The calcium, phosphorous and potassium content during its mature stage is 5.6%, 0.76% and 1.19% respectively are equal to or above the nutritional requirement for finishing cattle (National Academy of Sciences, 1976). On comparing the mineral requirements of lactating dairy cattle (Table 5) with that of the present study it has been observed that the calcium, phosphorous and potassium concentrations are exceeding the prescribed values for lactating cattle. Moreover, compared to other alien aquatic weeds like *Eichhornia crassipes*, *Alternanthera philoxeroides*, *Pistia stratiotes*, *Hydrilla verticellata*, *Chara vulgaris*, *Typha angustifolia* and *Potamogeton pectinatus* this emergent aquatic weed has higher value of Crude protein, Ash and Crude fibre.

## CONCLUSION

In this study, the possibility of utilizing this plant as a food was considered. Based on the proximate and chemical analysis done, the plant species appears to be a potential feed for domestic livestock. These species produce mono specific stands, which cover large areas. Therefore, methods of utilization would develop an important resource in many areas.

Analyses of the dehydrated samples indicate that the plant contain rather large amounts of crude protein, crude fibre and ether extract and had satisfactory level of micro-minerals like Iron, Copper, Manganese and Zinc. More over the concentrations of macro-minerals like Calcium, Potassium and Phosphorous is very high and rather higher than the requirements for lactating cattle.

In summary, *Limnocharis flava* seem to possess several characteristics, which make it as a suitable candidate for consideration as a cattle feed. The utilization of this weed as a source of livestock feed also serves as an effective means of weed control.

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# NUTRITIVE VALUE OF SAL SEED (*Shorea robusta*)

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**ABSTRACT:** The study was undertaken to find out the chemical composition and nutritive value of Sal seed (*Shorea robusta*) available in Bangladesh. *Shorea robusta* seeds were collected from different remote places of study areas. Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate for dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extracts (NFE), ether extracts (EE) and total ash (TA) in the animal nutrition and poultry research and training centre (PRTC) laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong, Bangladesh. Results indicated that, air dried corticated *Shorea robusta* seed contained 91.6% DM, 7.7% CP, 17.8% CF, 8.1% EE, 54.3% NFE and 3.7% TA. Similarly, air dried decorticated seed contained 88.7% DM, 8.8% CP, 7.3% CF, 10.0% EE, 58.6% NFE and 4.0% TA. Air dried seed shell contained 88.5% DM, 5.8% CP, 39.3% CF, 3.7% EE, 34.8% NFE and 4.9% TA. Metabolizable energy (ME) was 2614.2 Kcal/kg, 2933.0 Kcal/kg and 1582.9 Kcal/kg in corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell respectively. It could therefore be inferred that, the *Shorea robusta* seed seems nutritionally sound enough to be utilized as unconventional feed for ruminant especially during scarcity period.

**Keywords:** Chemical Composition, Nutritive Value, Metabolizable Energy, *Shorea robusta*.

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## INTRODUCTION

Sal is a dominant tall tree providing excellent quality timber. Its botanical name is *Shorea robusta*. Local name in Bengali is Sal. It grows well in deciduous dry and evergreen moist forests with sandy loam soil of low height plain land from 200 to 1200 meters above sea level and sensitive to frost and water logging condition (Orwa et al., 2009). It grows extensively in Northern and Central India and as far north as the outer Himalayan region. This is a native tree to Myanmar and Nepal. It is moderate to slow growing and attain heights of 30 to 35 m with a trunk diameter of up to 2-2.5 m in around 100 years under favorable conditions. The leaves are simple, shiny, reddish and glabrous about 10-25 cm long and 5-15 cm broad (Orwa et al., 2009).

Sal seed leaves are used as medium to poor quality roughage (Orwa et al., 2009). The high content of NFE suggests using it as a source of cheap metabolizable energy (ME) in livestock diets in place of cereals like maize and barley. Sal seed fat has a buttery texture with a fatty acid composition of palmitic acid (4.5%), stearic acid (44.2%), arachidic acid (6.3%), oleic acid (42.2%) and lenoleic acid (2.8%). The oil is used for cooking and lighting and is suitable as a substitute for cocoa butter in the manufacture of chocolate (CSIR, 1972). On a dry matter basis, Sal seed meal has a low content of calcium (0.18-0.29%) and phosphorus (0.16-0.18) (ICAR, 1967). The tannin content appears to be 3.5 to 4.0% (Panda, et al., 1969), 6.2 to 13.7% (Devendra, 1988) and 7.6% (Kumar et al., 1970). Verma (1970) determined ME value of 11.10MJ/kg in goats (Khan et al., 1986). Negi (1982) reviewed the use of Indian Sal seed in livestock rations and concluded that it is comparable to other poor quality roughages.



No systematic study has so far been conducted to find out the chemical composition of Sal seed available in Bangladesh. Therefore, current study aimed to collect process and determine the chemical composition and nutritive value of Bangladeshi Sal seed.

## MATERIAL AND METHODS

### Study area

Most of the Sal forests in Bangladesh are extended over Madhupur and very few of them in Chittagong, Rangpur, Dinajpur and Rajshahi districts. However, most of the Sal forests are degrading and encroached by industrial plantation of fuel woods along with exotic species. The Chittagong Sal forest is the largest Sal forest patch in the country. Therefore, the current study was conducted in Chittagong Sal forest.

### Collection of sample

Sal fruits start falling on ground from 2nd to 3rd week of May. Strong wind and storm help in bumper fall of Sal seed towards end of May. Collection seed was done in forenoon because of apprehension for casual storm and rainfall in the afternoon. Fresh seeds were collected from Chittagong area under standard random sampling technique. Total 3.0 kg of seeds were collected directly from the Sal forest for a total period of 30 days. Production of kernel from seed was almost 2:1. Seeds were packed in airtight sacks and sent to the Animal Nutrition and PRTC laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University for proximate analysis.

### Preparation of sample

From the winged fruit, Sal seed was processed in two gradual stages. De-winging was done in two different ways. The fruit after being completely dried were beaten on plain hard ground with a wooden stick to break the brittle wings. In this process the wings were broken and round seed pods with shell and covers were separated.

### Chemical Analysis

Chemical analyses of the samples were carried out in triplicate dry matter (DM), crude protein (CP), crude fiber (CF), nitrogen free extracts (NFE), ether extracts (EE) and total ash (TA) in the Animal Nutrition laboratory, Chittagong Veterinary and Animal Sciences University, Chittagong as per AOAC (2006).

### Estimation of ME

All samples were subjected to proximate analysis in triplicate. Later on, ME available in all seeds, kernel and shells were estimated by using a standard mathematical formula as per Lodhi et al. (1976).

### Data analysis

Data related to chemical composition and nutritive value of corticated *Shorea robusta* seed, decorticated *Shorea robusta* seed and *Shorea robusta* seed shell were collected, compiled and analyzed for mean values by using Microsoft Excel 2007.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The average DM contents of corticated *Shorea robusta* seed, decorticated seed (Inner kernel) and seed shell estimated in this study were 91.6%, 88.7% and 88.5% respectively. The average CP contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 7.7%, 8.7% and 5.8% respectively. The average CF contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 17.8%, 7.3% and 39.3% respectively. The average NFE contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 54.3%, 58.6% and 34.8% respectively. The average EE contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 8.1%, 10.0% and 3.7% respectively. The average TA contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 3.7%, 4.0% and 4.9% respectively. The average ME contents of corticated seed, decorticated seed and seed shell were 82614.2%, 2933.0% and 1582.9% respectively.

*Shorea robusta* seed has been used successfully in a wide range of studies. In cattle, up to 20% has been recommended (Gohl, 1982). Up to 30% was recommended in diets for growing heifers with or without 2% urea (Sonwane et al., 1974; Devendra, 1985). In growing calves, supplementation of 30% seed meal did not affect health, intake and performance (Garg et al., 1984). Recommendations have been made for its incorporation in poultry mash at 5-7% level. In concentrate mixtures for growing and lactating cattle 10-20% was suggested (ICAR, 1972). In another study, deoiled seed meal replaced maize in dairy cows up to 20% (Rajagopal et al., 1983). Kurar and Mudgal (1972) included 10, 20 and 30% seed meal and 2% biuret in diets for growing heifers and found

that up to 30% of the meal and 2% biuret was optimum for growing heifers. The seed cake has a low protein and fat content and its usefulness as feedstuff has been questioned (Negi, 1982). Despite many advantages, inclusion of 40% seed in cattle diet caused indigestion (Dash et al., 1972) and bullocks receiving 100% meal lost 14.0 kg in 60 days (Shukla and Talapada, 1973). In another study, digestibility of the seed meal was negative (Robb, 1976). It was suggested that tannins may have formed complexes with proteins in the meal to give the negative result.

**Table 1 - Chemical composition (% Air DM) and nutritive value of corticated *Shorea robusta* seed**

Parameter	Unit (% Air DM)
Dry matter (DM)	91.6
Crude protein (CP)	7.7
Crude fiber (CF)	17.8
Nitrogen free Extract (NFE)	54.3
Ether Extract (EE)	8.1
Ash	3.7
Metabolizable Energy (Kcal/kg)	2614.2

**Table 2- Chemical composition (% Air DM) and nutritive value of decorticated (Inner kernel) *Shorea robusta* seed**

Parameter	Unit (% Air DM)
Dry matter (DM)	88.7
Crude protein (CP)	8.8
Crude fiber (CF)	7.3
Nitrogen free Extract (NFE)	58.6
Ether Extract (EE)	10.0
Ash	4.0
Metabolizable Energy (Kcal/kg)	2933.0

**Table 3 - Chemical composition (% Air DM) and nutritive value of *Shorea robusta* seed shell**

Parameter	Unit (% Air DM)
Dry matter (DM)	88.5
Crude protein (CP)	5.8
Crude fiber (CF)	39.3
Nitrogen free Extract (NFE)	34.8
Ether Extract (EE)	3.7
Ash	4.9
Metabolizable Energy (Kcal/kg)	1582.9

Tannins adversely affect the utilization of other feed proteins while attempts to remove tannins from seed meal are neither effective nor practicable (Negi, 1982). Tannins in the diet resulted in reduced weight gain and poor feed efficiencies in chicken (Ahmed et al., 1991; Santos-Buelga and Scalbertm, 2000). By virtue of its availability, the seed and seed meal have a tremendous potential for its utilization as animal feed. However, the utilization of seed and seed meal as feed for cattle, poultry, and pigs showed that tannins limited their utilization (Negi, 1982, 1990). Nutritive value of 3% untreated seed meal and 0.1% NaOH treated seed meal was compared by lactating Murrah buffaloes. It was evident that, digestibility of crude protein and production of milk were favored by alkali treatment (Singh and Arora, 1981). In another study, Rao and Rao (1986) also reported 20-71% losses in dry matter of *Shorea robusta* seed meal as a result of washing after soaking in sodium hydroxide and sodium carbonate, respectively.

*Shorea robusta* seed cake has negative effects in poultry due to high tannin content. Inclusion of 50 g seed meal/kg in the diet of chicks resulted retarded growth and poor feed efficiency (Zombade et al., 1979). Similarly, broilers and layers fed 50% seed cake showed depressed nutrient digestibility and lower pancreatic and intestinal enzyme activity and hens produced eggs with discolored, greenish-yellow eggs (Mahmood et al., 2006). In another study, Panda et al., (1975) replaced maize by *Shorea robusta* seed meal in chick diets at levels varying between 2.25 to 45% and found an inverse relationship between seed meal level and body weight attained by the chicks. Similarly, Mohanty et al. (1967) substituted 2.4 to 5.0% of the maize with *Shorea robusta* seed meal to feed chicks up to eight weeks of age. The results indicated depression in growth rate compared to the control diets.



Up to 40% *Shorea robusta* seed cake in pig diets replacing maize had no significant effect on pig performance (Pathak et al., 1973; Devendra, 1985). Murty et al. (1969) used 20% seed meal to replace maize and noted reduced live weight gain, N and P balance. Similarly, Agarwal (1971) reported a drastic drop in live weight gain when maize or Ragi was replaced by deoiled *Shorea robusta* seed meal.

## CONCLUSION

*Shorea robusta* seed is good source of crude protein. However, it contains tannins that can be removed either by boiling or soaking in water. Therefore, tannin in *Shorea robusta* seed is no more a problem. Additionally, tannin present in seed has protein binding capacity. Therefore, *Shorea robusta* seed cake may be used to improve forages containing highly degradable protein. Apart from seed, *Shorea robusta* leaves may also be used for feeding the silkworm pupa (*Antheraea mylitta*) for garments industry.

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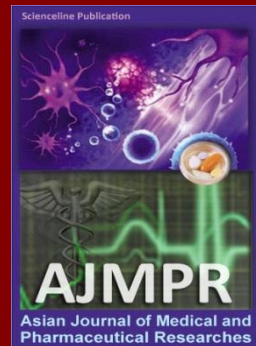
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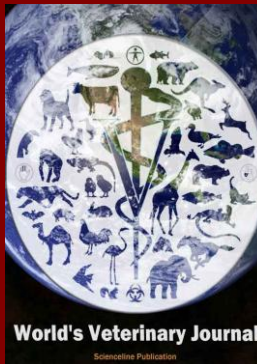
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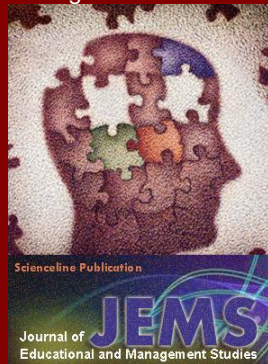
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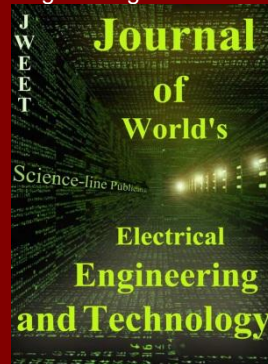
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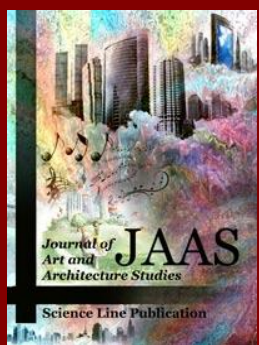
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