

SIDNEI ANTÔNIO LOPES

**ESTRATÉGIAS PARA OTIMIZAÇÃO DA PERFORMANCE DE BOVINOS
EM PASTAGENS TROPICAIS**

Tese apresentada à Universidade Federal de Viçosa, como parte das exigências do Programa de Pós-Graduação em Zootecnia, para obtenção do título de Doctor Scientiae.

VIÇOSA
MINAS GERAIS – BRASIL
2015

**Ficha catalográfica preparada pela Biblioteca Central da Universidade
Federal de Viçosa - Câmpus Viçosa**

T

L864e
2015
Lopes, Sidnei Antônio, 1982-
Estratégia para otimização da performance de bovinos em
pastagens tropicais / Sidnei Antônio Lopes. – Viçosa, MG, 2015.
xi, 84f. : il. ; 29 cm.

Orientador: Mário Fonseca Paulino.
Tese (doutorado) - Universidade Federal de Viçosa.
Inclui bibliografia.

1. Nutrição animal. 2. Nelore (Bovino). 3. Proteínas .
I. Universidade Federal de Viçosa. Departamento de Zootecnia.
Programa de Pós-graduação em Zootecnia. II. Título.

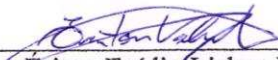
CDD 22. ed. 636.085

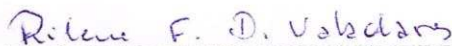
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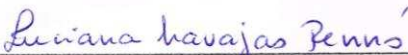
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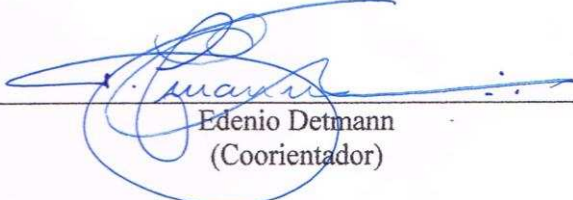
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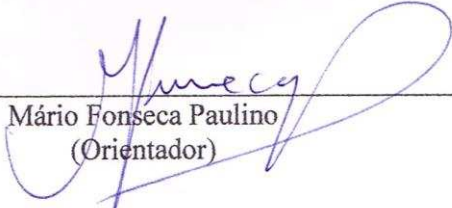
APROVADA: 16 de Outubro de 2015.


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A Deus, que me dá saúde e força a todo o momento

Ofereço.

Aos meus pais Francisco e Irene pelo apoio incondicional,
A minha paciente e companheira esposa Paula pelo incentivo,
Aos meus familiares,
Aos meus amigos

Dedico.

AGRADECIMENTOS

Agradeço a Deus por ter guiado meus passos e tornado esse sonho possível.

À Universidade Federal de Viçosa, especialmente ao Departamento de Zootecnia, pela oportunidade de realização deste trabalho.

Ao Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico (CNPq), à Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa do Estado de Minas Gerais (FAPEMIG) e ao Instituto Nacional de Ciência e Tecnologia de Ciência Animal (INCT-CA) pela concessão da bolsa de estudos e financiamento do trabalho de pesquisa.

Ao professor Mário Fonseca Paulino pela oportunidade, confiança, excelente orientação e pelos valiosos ensinamentos durante a vida acadêmica.

Ao professor Edenio Detmann, pelas fundamentais colaborações na estatística deste trabalho, pelos valiosos conselhos na redação dos artigos e pela coorientação.

Aos professores Sebastião de Campos Valadares Filho e Luciana Navajas Rennó, pelos conselhos e pela coorientação.

Aos professores Carla Heloisa Avelino Cabral, Rilene Ferreira Diniz Valadares e Ériton Egídio Lisboa Valente por disponibilizarem seu tempo e cooperarem com este trabalho.

Aos demais professores do departamento de Zootecnia, pelos ensinamentos que contribuíram para minha formação acadêmica.

Aos meus pais e esposa que sempre me incentivaram e fizeram sacrifícios para me ajudar a realizar esse sonho.

Aos amigos que contribuíram enormemente para a realização deste trabalho. Por medo de cometer injustiça e esquecer o nome de alguém, não irei citar nomes, mas fica minha enorme gratidão e reconhecimento de que sem vocês a execução deste trabalho não seria possível.

Aos funcionários do Setor de Bovinocultura de corte, Laboratório de Nutrição Animal e Laboratório Animal pela ajuda na condução dos trabalhos de campo, colaboração nas análises laboratoriais e companheirismo.

E a todos aqueles que direta ou indiretamente fizeram parte desta jornada;

Meus sinceros agradecimentos!

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RESUMO

LOPES, Sidnei Antônio, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Outubro de 2015. **Estratégias para otimização da performance de bovinos em pastagens tropicais.** Orientador: Mário Fonseca Paulino. Coorientadores: Edenio Detmann, Sebastião de Campos Valadares Filho e Luciana Navajas Rennó.

Foram elaborados três artigos científicos envolvendo avaliações nutricionais e produtivas de bovinos de corte em pastejo, submetidos a diferentes estratégias de suplementação. No primeiro artigo, objetivou-se avaliar os efeitos da suplementação com diferentes teores de proteína sobre desempenho nutricional e produtivo de vacas de corte em pastejo durante o pós-parto. Foram utilizadas 36 vacas de corte com idade e peso corporal médio de 5 anos e $490 \pm 17,9$ kg, respectivamente. O delineamento experimental foi inteiramente casualizado. Os tratamentos foram: controle = vacas receberam somente mistura mineral ad libitum; suplementados = vacas receberam 1 kg/dia de suplemento contendo 80, 200 ou 320 g de proteína bruta (PB)/kg. Não houve efeito ($P \geq 0,16$) da suplementação sobre consumo voluntário. Entre os animais suplementados, o consumo de PB aumentou linearmente ($P < 0,02$) com teor de PB no suplemento. A suplementação não afetou ($P \geq 0,20$) digestibilidade total da matéria orgânica, fibra em detergente neutro corrigida para cinza e proteína (FDNcp) e da PB. Entre os animais suplementados, houve efeito linear positivo ($P < 0,01$) dos teores de PB nos suplementos sobre a digestibilidade da PB. O fluxo intestinal de compostos nitrogenados microbianos e a eficiência de síntese de proteína microbiana não foram afetados ($P \geq 0,18$) pelos tratamentos. O desempenho, produção e composição do leite não foram afetados ($P \geq 0,11$) pelos tratamentos. A suplementação não afetou ($P \geq 0,10$) as concentrações séricas de ácidos graxos esterificados, ureia e progesterona. Conclui-se que a suplementação de vacas de corte em pastejo durante pós-parto não afeta o consumo e o desempenho produtivo. No segundo artigo, objetivou-se avaliar os efeitos de diferentes quantidades de suplemento sobre o desempenho nutricional e produtivo, e características comportamentais de bezerros de corte lactentes, e o desempenho produtivo de suas mães em pastagem tropical. Foram utilizados 44 bezerros de corte machos da raça Nelore com idade e peso corporal inicial médio de 120 dias e $145 \pm$

3,7 kg respectivamente, e suas respectivas mães, com peso corporal médio de $449 \pm 6,9$ kg. O delineamento experimental foi inteiramente casualizado. As quantidades de suplemento avaliadas foram as seguintes: 0 = bezerros receberam somente mistura mineral ad libitum; 3, 6 e 9 = bezerros receberam 3, 6 ou 9 g/kg PC de suplemento, contendo 25 g de PB/kg. Foi observado efeito linear positivo para o consumo de MS e MO ($P < 0,01$). O consumo de FDNcp apresentou comportamento cúbico ($P < 0,07$). Houve diferença ($P < 0,06$) na digestibilidade total da FDNcp. No tocante ao desempenho, efeito cúbico foi observado para o desempenho dos bezerros ($P < 0,01$). Contudo, a suplementação dos bezerros não afetou ($P \geq 0,21$) a produção de leite e o desempenho de suas mães. A suplementação diminuiu o tempo de pastejo ($P < 0,01$), mas não influenciou o tempo de amamentação ($P \geq 0,59$) dos bezerros. Recomenda-se o fornecimento de suplemento contendo 25 g PB/kg na quantidade de 6 g/kg PC para bezerros de corte lactentes manejados em pastagem tropical. A suplementação de bezerros de corte lactentes aumenta o consumo de matéria seca, diminui o tempo de pastejo e o consumo de forragem. Contudo, não influencia o tempo de amamentação e o desempenho produtivo de suas mães. No terceiro artigo, objetivou-se avaliar os efeitos da suplementação de bezerros de corte em sistema de creep feeding sobre a produção de leite, PC, ECC de matrizes de corte em pastagem tropical usando uma abordagem meta-analítica. O banco de dados foi obtido a partir de 11 experimentos conduzidos entre 2009 e 2014 no Brasil, totalizando 485 observações. O banco de dados foi composto por 273 vacas Nelore e 212 mestiças ($7/8$ Nelore \times $1/8$ holandês). Todos os experimentos foram conduzidos na fase de amamentação dos três aos oito meses de idade durante a fase de transição chuvasecas (fevereiro a junho de cada ano). Os dados foram analisados por meio de meta-análise, utilizando os procedimentos do MIXED, considerando aleatórias as variações entre experimentos. Todas as análises estatísticas foram realizadas utilizando 0,05 para a ocorrência do erro tipo I. A suplementação ($P \geq 0,59$) e o sexo ($P \geq 0,48$) dos bezerros não afetaram a produção de leite das vacas. A produção média de leite foi de 6,71 e 6,83 kg/dia para vacas que tiveram suas crias suplementadas e não suplementadas, respectivamente. Foram observadas diferenças ($P < 0,0001$) na produção de leite devido ao grupo genético, onde vacas mestiças apresentaram maior produção de leite (7,37 kg/dia) comparada com vacas Nelore

(6,17 kg/dia). Não houve efeito da suplementação sobre o PC ($P \geq 0.11$) e ECC ($P \geq 0.23$) das vacas. Conclui-se que a suplementação de bezerros de corte utilizando creep feeding em pastagem tropical, não afeta a produção de leite, desempenho e a condição corporal de suas mães.

ABSTRACT

LOPES, Sidnei Antônio, D.Sc., Universidade Federal de Viçosa, October, 2015. **Strategies to optimization of performance of cattle on the tropical pasture.** Adviser: Mário Fonseca Paulino. Co-advisers: Edenio Detmann, Sebastião de Campos Valadares Filho and Luciana Navajas Rennó.

It was elaborated three manuscripts relate to nutritional and productive evaluations of beef cattle on grazing, submitted to different supplementation strategies. In the first manuscript the effects of supplementation with different crude protein contents on nutritional and productive performance of grazing beef cows during post-calving were assessed. Thirty-six beef cows, with age and average body weight of 5 years and 490 ± 17.9 kg, respectively, were used. The experimental design was completely randomized. The treatments were: control = cows received only mineral mixture ad libitum; supplemented = cows received 1 kg/d of supplement containing 80, 200, or 320 g crude protein (CP)/ kg. There was no effect ($P \geq 0.16$) of supplementation on voluntary intake. A linear effect ($P < 0.02$) of the CP content in the supplements was observed among supplemented cows, only for the CP intake. Supplementation did not affect ($P \geq 0.20$) the total digestibility of organic matter, neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and protein, and CP. Among supplemented cows, a positive linear effect ($P < 0.01$) of the CP content in the supplement was observed for the CP digestibility. Intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen compounds and efficiency of microbial synthesis were not affected ($P \geq 0.18$) by treatments. Performance, milk yield and composition were not also affected ($P \geq 0.11$) by treatments. Supplementation did not affect ($P \geq 0.52$) non-esterified fatty acids, urea nitrogen and progesterone serum concentrations. It is concluded that supplementation of grazing beef cows during post-calving does not affect nutritional and productive performance. In the second manuscript, the effects of different amounts of supplement on the productive performance and behavioral characteristics of suckling beef calves, as well as the productive performance of their dams on tropical pastures were assessed. Forty-four male Nellore beef calves with an average age of 120 days and an initial average body weight (BW) of 145 ± 3.7 kg and their respective dams,

with an average BW of 449 ± 6.9 kg, were used. The amounts of supplement evaluated were as follows: 0 = calves received only mineral mixture ad libitum; 3, 6, and 9 = calves received 3, 6, or 9 g/kg BW of supplement, respectively, containing 250 g CP/kg. The experimental design was completely randomized. A linear effect ($P < 0.01$) was observed in the intakes of dry matter and organic matter, and a cubic effect ($P < 0.07$) was observed for the intake of neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and protein. There was difference ($P < 0.06$) in total digestibility only for neutral detergent fiber. A cubic effect ($P < 0.01$) was observed for the calves' performance. However, the calves' supplementation did not affect the milk yield and performance ($P \geq 0.21$) of their dams. The supplementation decreased grazing time ($P < 0.01$) but did not influence suckling time ($P \geq 0.59$). It is recommended supplying of supplement containing 250 g CP/kg in amount 6 g/kg BW to suckling beef calves managed in tropical pasture. Supplementation of suckling beef calves increases the intake of dry matter, decreases grazing time and forage intake. However, it does not affect the suckling time and productive performance of their dams. In the third manuscript, aim was to evaluate the effects of beef calves' supplementation in creep feeding system on milk yield, body weight and body condition score of their dams on tropical pastures using a meta-analytical approach. The database was obtained from 11 experiments conducted between 2009 and 2014 in Brazil, totaling 485 observations. The database was composed by 273 Nellore and 212 crossbred ($7/8$ Nellore \times $1/8$ Holstein) cows. All experiments were carried out in the suckling phase (from 3 to 8 months of age of calves) during transition phase between rainy and dry seasons from February to June of each year. The data was analyzed using meta-analysis using the mixed procedures, considering random variations among experiments. All statistical evaluations were performed using 0.05 as the critical level for the occurrence of type I error. Calves' supplementation ($P \geq 0.59$) and the calf' sex ($P \geq 0.48$) did not affect milk yield of cows. Average fat corrected milk (FCM) yield was 6.71 and 6.83 kg/d for cows that had their calves supplemented and not supplemented, respectively. Differences were observed ($P < 0.0001$) for milk yield due to the genetic group where crossbred cows presented greater FCM yield (7.37 kg/d) compared to Nellore cows (6.17 kg/d). There was no effect of the calves' supplementation on variation of body weight ($P \geq 0.11$) and variation of body

condition score ($P \geq 0.23$) of the cows. Therefore, we concluded that supplementation of beef calves using creep feeding systems in tropical pastures, does not affect milk yield, performance and body condition of their dams.

INTRODUÇÃO GERAL

Os pastos tropicais constituem a principal fonte de nutrientes para a bovinocultura de corte no Brasil, destacando-se dos demais meios de alimentação pelo baixo custo de produção e alta praticidade (Paulino et al., 2008). Segundo o Anuário da Pecuária Brasileira (Anualpec, 2014), 91% dos animais abatidos são provenientes de sistemas baseados em pastagens. Sendo assim, deve-se enfatizar maneiras para aumentar a proporção de energia proveniente da pastagem que pode ser convertida em produto animal.

As forragens pastejadas devem ser entendidas como recurso nutricional basal de elevada complexidade, uma vez que sua capacidade de fornecimento de substratos para a produção animal varia qualitativa e quantitativamente ao longo do ano em função, principalmente, da influência de variáveis climáticas (Detmann et al., 2010). Logo, os pastos tropicais raramente constituem uma dieta balanceada no sentido que seus constituintes orgânicos e inorgânicos estejam presentes nas concentrações e proporções que satisfaçam as necessidades dos animais. Portanto, os bovinos geralmente sofrem carências múltiplas de proteína, energia, minerais e vitaminas (Paulino et al., 2014). Desta forma, para um programa de produção contínua de carne eficiente e competitivo, torna-se essencial minimizar ou mesmo eliminar os efeitos das carências nutricionais múltiplas no desenvolvimento animal, proporcionando aos mesmos, condições para expressar todo seu mérito genético, durante todo o ano, a fim de alcançar as metas produtivas estabelecidas dentro do sistema.

Neste contexto, os programas de suplementação constituem ferramentas para o provimento de recursos suplementares visando à redução ou eliminação de entraves

nutricionais e/ou metabólicos (meta primária) e o alcance de metas de produção animal (meta secundária) (Detmann et al., 2014). Em síntese, a suplementação de bovinos em pastejo permite inserir uma fonte adicional de nutrientes, refletindo em mudanças no consumo de forragem, na disponibilidade de energia dietética e, conseqüentemente, no desempenho animal (Paulino et al., 2010).

Entretanto, verifica-se que ainda existem questionamentos sobre a viabilidade técnica e econômica da suplementação nas diversas fases de produção, sobre a quantidade adequada de suplemento a ser utilizado em cada fase e mesmo sobre a resposta produtiva possível de ser alcançada.

A intervenção técnica sempre foi focada no processo final de engorda, de maior visibilidade e de resultado palpável e imediato (Paulino et al., 2014). Contudo, o sucesso dessa etapa depende da qualidade dos animais produzidos na fase de cria. No entanto, até a produção de um bezerro as matrizes de corte demandam grande investimento, sendo que, cabe ao bezerro, o produto desta categoria, gerar o retorno econômico. Assim, por não representar uma forma imediata de geração de renda, a nutrição desta categoria é frequentemente negligenciada, refletindo em baixos índices reprodutivos no rebanho.

De modo geral, os índices reprodutivos da pecuária de corte brasileira ainda são muito baixos. A alta proporção de vacas em anestro no início da estação de monta é uma condição comum em rebanhos de corte e afeta negativamente a eficiência reprodutiva, causando sérios prejuízos à pecuária brasileira (Ribeiro et al., 2009). Nos sistemas extensivos de criação de bovinos de corte, observa-se que cerca de 50% das matrizes não recebem manejo que contribua com melhores índices de fertilidade (Madureira et al., 2006).

Entretanto, para o processo de cria ser considerado eficiente, as vacas precisam produzir um bezerro a cada 12-13 meses (Torres Jr. et al., 2009). Para isto, o retorno da vaca à ciclicidade deve ocorrer até 60 dias pós-parto. Deste modo, a implantação de práticas que possibilitem elevar o número de animais em produção no rebanho de cria assume grande importância para o estabelecimento de bovinocultura de alto desempenho competitiva e sustentável.

A nutrição influencia diretamente a fertilidade dos ruminantes pelo suprimento de nutrientes específicos requeridos nos processos de ovulação, fertilização, sobrevivência embrionária e gestação; e indiretamente, pelo impacto na circulação de hormônios e metabólitos que são requeridos nesses processos (Robinson et al., 2006). A baixa ingestão de proteína durante os períodos pré e pós-parto afeta negativamente o desempenho reprodutivo de vacas de corte (Peixoto & Osório, 2007), sendo fundamental a ingestão de níveis adequados de proteína no final da gestação e no início da lactação.

A avaliação do estado nutricional dos ruminantes de interesse zootécnico por meio da observação da condição corporal constitui medida subjetiva baseada na avaliação visual, classificando-os em função da cobertura muscular e da massa de gordura. Embora, seja considerada medida subjetiva, a avaliação da condição corporal é correlacionada com diversos eventos reprodutivos como: intervalo entre partos, serviços por concepção, produção de leite, peso à desmama, dificuldade de parto e sobrevivência do bezerro (Bischoff et al., 2011). O NRC (1996) recomendou a escala de pontuação de escores de condição corporal (ECC) de 1 a 9, em que 1 corresponde a animais extremamente magros e 9 a animais extremamente gordos, sendo desejáveis vacas com escore mínimo de 5 ao parto.

Adicionalmente, a avaliação do perfil metabólico em vacas de corte constitui abordagem que vem despertando o interesse de pesquisadores. Segundo Contreras (2000), o perfil metabólico pode colaborar no estudo do balanço nutricional dos rebanhos, uma vez que, em algumas situações, os desbalanços nutricionais podem influenciar nas concentrações sanguíneas de alguns metabólitos. Entre os metabólitos mais usados para a avaliação do status nutricional estão a glicose, o beta-hidroxibutirato (BHB), os ácidos graxos não esterificados ou livres (AGL), o nitrogênio uréico e a albumina sérica.

Os níveis sanguíneos de AGL são bastante significativos para avaliar o estado de energia em ruminantes, respondendo rapidamente a mudanças no consumo de alimentos (Peixoto & Osório, 2007). Quando as vacas estão em balanço energético negativo (situação comum durante o pós-parto) aumentam as concentrações sanguíneas de AGL, ureia e β -hidroxibutirato (Sartori & Guardieiro, 2010). Assim, a suplementação estratégica poderia minimizar os efeitos do balanço energético negativo e contribuir para acelerar o reinício da ciclicidade nas vacas pós-parto.

Por outro lado, além da eficiência reprodutiva discutida anteriormente, a exploração da bovinocultura de corte intensiva, caracteriza-se pelo acasalamento das novilhas aos 14-16 meses de idade, e o abate dos machos entre 11 e 16 meses de idade. Assim, ganhos de peso contínuo do nascimento a desmama são fundamentais para o sucesso do sistema (Paulino et al., 2012).

A fase de cria dos bezerros constitui etapa altamente responsiva a práticas de manejo e alimentação. Evidências apontam que na fase pré-desmame verifica-se as maiores taxas de ganho de peso, podendo alcançar em apenas sete meses de vida, de 25 a 50% do peso corporal adulto. Durante as primeiras semanas de vida, o leite é a

principal fonte de energia e nutrientes para os bezerros de corte. Estima-se que para cada 1 kg de ganho de peso corporal seja necessário que o bezerro consuma 6,9 kg de leite (Forster et al., 2010). Porém, a relação entre esses dois fatores diminui bastante de intensidade por volta de 16 semanas de vida (Silva 2000). Mesmo que o aumento na produção de leite permita aumentar o ganho de peso a desmama dos bezerros, não se pode negligenciar que o nível nutricional na maior parte dos sistemas baseados em pastagens é limitante para dar suporte a níveis elevados de produção de leite (Paulino et al., 2012).

Por outro lado, à medida que o animal se desenvolve, as exigências nutricionais aumentam e o consumo de leite diminui. Nos sistemas de produção de bovinos de corte, o leite produzido pelas matrizes não é suficiente para atender as exigências nutricionais dos bezerros a partir dos três meses de idade (Henriques et al., 2011). Adicionalmente, entre o 3º e 4º mês de idade, ocorrem mudanças consideráveis no trato digestório do bezerro e este se transforma efetivamente em animal ruminante (Porto et al., 2009). A partir desta idade, o bezerro se torna cada vez mais dependente do pasto. Entretanto, na maioria dos sistemas de produção brasileiros, estes processos acontecem durante o período de transição águas-seca, período em que ocorre a diminuição na qualidade e quantidade de forragem disponível para o pastejo. Conseqüentemente, a diferença entre as exigências nutricionais do bezerro e a quantidade de nutrientes supridos pelo leite e pelo pasto tendem a aumentar (Oliveira et al., 2006; Rasby & Niemeyer, 2011), colocando o bezerro em situação desfavorável no tocante ao equilíbrio nutricional.

Assim, nos sistemas intensivos de produção de bovinos, em que se exige maior aporte nutricional, visualiza-se a suplementação dos animais lactentes sob

sistema de creep feeding, que consiste em fornecimento do alimento em local cujo acesso é restrito aos bezerros (Paulino et al., 2012). Tal técnica, ao corrigir e enriquecer a dieta do bezerro pode otimizar o desempenho de cada indivíduo, o que resultaria em maior peso corporal ao desmame ensejando em redução no ciclo de produção.

Ademais, poucos estudos têm avaliado os efeitos do creep feeding sobre a matriz de corte. Souza et al. (2007) observaram que vacas cujos bezerros foram suplementados em creep feeding, tiveram maior peso corporal e escore de condição corporal à desmama comparadas àquelas vacas cujos bezerros não foram suplementados. Tais autores atribuíram essa observação ao aumento do número de mamadas diárias, o que estimulou a maior produção de leite, ensejando em redução da condição corporal das vacas cujos bezerros não foram suplementados. Em contraste, Sampaio et al. (2010) observaram que vacas de corte cujos bezerros receberam suplementação apresentaram maior perda de peso. Por outro lado, Porto et al. (2009) e Valente et al. (2013) não observaram diferenças na produção de leite, escore de condição corporal e peso corporal à desmama das vacas devido à suplementação dos bezerros.

Estudos, portanto, são necessários para avaliar as respostas de bovinos de corte de diferentes categorias submetidos a diferentes planos de suplementação. Desta forma, objetivou-se com este estudo avaliar inter-relações entre planos de suplementação e as respostas de bovinos de corte manejados em pastagens tropicais.

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26 **Introduction**

27 For an efficient production of beef cattle on pastures, cows need to produce a
28 calf every 12-13 months. However, the cow/calf system is normally conducted using
29 low-quality forages and supplementation of beef cows is still uncommon practice in
30 Brazil (Cabral et al., 2012).

31 Nutrition influences directly the fertility of ruminants as the supply of specific
32 nutrients is required for the ovulation process, fertilization, embryo survival and
33 development; and indirectly through the impact on the circulation of hormones and
34 metabolites required for those processes (Robinson et al., 2006).

35 Cows poorly nourished and with low-body condition score will be inefficient
36 in the following breeding season (Cabral et al., 2012). According to Peixoto and
37 Osório (2007), protein intake below the requirements during peripartum period
38 would affect negatively the productive performance of beef cows.

39 The strategic supplementation of this animal category during certain months of
40 the year could contribute to maintain body condition of beef cows in the post-calving
41 and consequently, improve productive and reproductive performance.

42 Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of supply
43 supplements with different crude protein contents on nutritional and productive
44 performance of grazing beef cows during post-calving.

45

46 **Material and methods**

47 All procedures involving animals were approved by the Institutional
48 Committee of Universidade Federal de Viçosa for animal care and use
49 experimentation, process UFV number 43/2014.

50 Animals, experimental design, and diets

51 The experiment was conducted at the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, MG,
52 Brazil, (20° 45' S, 42° 52' W), between September and November 2012, during
53 transition phase between dry and rainy seasons. The experimental area was located in
54 a hilly region, at altitude of 670 m. Over days measurements, the average minimum
55 and maximum temperatures were, respectively, 13.6°C and 27.8°C in September,
56 16.0°C and 29.6°C in October, and 18.3°C and 26.5°C in November. The amounts of
57 rainfall were 46.9 mm in September, 98.9 mm in October and 225.3 mm in
58 November.

59 Thirty-six Nellore beef cows, averaging 5 years-old and 490 ± 17.9 kg of
60 body weight (BW) were used. The treatments were distributed randomly to the cows
61 at calving occurrence. The experimental treatments were: control = cows received
62 only mineral mixture ad libitum; supplemented = cows received 1 kg of supplement
63 containing 80, 200, or 320 g of crude protein (CP)/kg (Table 1), fed once a day at
64 11h00.

65 The evaluations started from the first day post-calving. The period between
66 the first and last calving lasted 25 days, consequently, the experiment lasted 85 days.
67 Before calving, all cows were managed into a 30-ha paddock with *Brachiaria*
68 *decumbens* where they receiving only mineral mixture ad libitum. After calving,
69 cow-calf pairs were managed into a 40-ha with *Brachiaria decumbens*, divided in
70 four paddocks of 10-ha each, where there were drinkers and shaded feeders in each
71 paddock and cows received one of the treatments assessed.

72 To minimize the possible effects of the paddock on the experimental
73 treatments, the cow/calf groups were rotated among the four paddocks every seven
74 days, so that each group stayed on each paddock for the same period.

75

76 Experimental procedures and sampling

77 For performance evaluation, the cows were weighed on the first, thirtieth,
78 and sixtieth days post-calving (always in the morning at 6h30), and the BCS of the
79 cows was evaluated using a scale from 1 to 9, as recommended by the NRC (1996);
80 all evaluations were performed by the same four evaluators.

81 Forage samples were collected every 28 days for the evaluation of forage
82 availability. In each paddock, four samples of forage were randomly selected using a
83 metallic square (0.5×0.5 m), and forage was cut approximately 1 cm above the
84 ground. Sampling for the qualitative assessment of the forage consumed by the
85 animals was obtained every fourteen days by the hand-plucking method. All the
86 samples were oven-dried (60°C /72 hours) and ground in a Wiley mill (model 3,
87 Arthur H. Thomas, Philadelphia, PA) to pass through a 2-mm screen. After that, half
88 of each ground sample was ground again to pass through a 1-mm screen.

89 Twenty days after the last calving, a nine-day assay was performed to
90 evaluate voluntary intake and digestibility. Chromium oxide (Cr₂O₃), used to
91 estimate fecal excretion, was packaged in paper cartridges in the amount of 20 g per
92 cow/d, and was introduced (11h00) into the esophagus via a rubber tube; titanium
93 dioxide (TiO₂), used to estimate individual supplement intake, was mixed with the
94 supplement distributed to the cows in an amount equal to 15 g per animal/d. The first
95 six days were used to stabilize the flow of markers in gastrointestinal tract of the

96 animals, while the last three days were used for feces collection at 16h00 on day 7, at
97 11h00 on day 8, and at 6h00 on day 9. The fecal samples were oven-dried (60°C /72
98 hours) and proportionally pooled per animal, then ground in a Wiley mill (model 3,
99 Arthur H. Thomas, Philadelphia, PA) to pass through a 2-mm screen. After that, half
100 of each ground sample was ground again to pass through a 1-mm screen. In the fifth
101 day of the digestibility assay, a sample of forage in each paddock was obtained by
102 the hand-plucking method, to estimate voluntary intake and digestibility.

103 To evaluate the microbial protein production of cows, spot urine samples (10
104 mL) were collected from spontaneous micturition 4 hours after supply of supplement
105 in the 9th day of the digestibility assay. Urine samples were diluted in 40 mL of
106 H₂SO₄ (0.036 N) and frozen (-20°C).

107 To estimate milk yield, cows were milked at days 32 and 62 of the
108 experiment. Cows were separated from their calves at 18h00. At 6h00 of the
109 following day, cows were injected with 2-mL oxytocin (10 IU/mL; Ocitovet®,
110 Brazil) in the mammary artery and immediately milked. The exact time when each
111 cow was milked was recorded, and the milk produced was proportionally converted
112 into a 24-h based production. The milk produced was corrected to 4 % of fat (FCM)
113 according to NRC (2001):

$$114 \text{ FCM} = 0.4 \times \text{milk yield (kg/d)} + 15 \times \text{fat yield (kg/d)} \quad (1)$$

115 Blood samples were collected on the thirtieth and sixtieth days post-calving
116 via jugular vein puncture, using vacuum tubes with separator gel (BD Vacutainer ®
117 SST II Advance) and were centrifuged at 3000 × g for 15 minutes; the serum was
118 frozen (-20°C) for later analysis.

119

120 Chemical analysis

121 Samples of forage, feces, and supplement processed to pass through 1-mm
122 screen sieves were analyzed according to the standard analytical procedures of the
123 Brazilian National Institute of Science and Technology in Animal Science (INCT-
124 CA; Detmann et al., 2012) for dry matter (DM; INCT-CA method G-003/1), ash
125 (INCT-CA method M-001/1), crude protein (CP; INCT-CA method N-001/1), ether
126 extract (EE; INCT-CA method G-004/1), neutral detergent fiber (NDFap; INCT-CA
127 method F-002/1), using alpha thermostable amylase without addition of sodium
128 sulfite and corrected for ash and protein (NDIP; INCT-CA method N-004/1).
129 Indigestible neutral detergent fiber (iNDF; INCT-CA method F-009/1) was
130 quantified by in situ incubation procedures with F57 bags (Ankom®) for 288 hours
131 in samples processed at 2-mm. Fecal samples were evaluated for the contents of
132 chromium (INCT-CA method M-005/1) and titanium (INCT-CA method M-007/1).
133 Milk samples were analyzed with regards as protein, fat, lactose, and total solids
134 content using infrared spectroscopy (Foss MilkoScan FT120, Hillerød, Denmark).

135 The percentage of potentially digestible DM (DMpd) in the forage samples
136 obtained for evaluation of forage availability was estimated according to Paulino et
137 al. (2008):

$$138 \text{ DMpd} = 0.98 \times (100 - \text{NDF}) + (\text{NDF} - \text{iNDF}) \quad (2)$$

139 where: DMpd = forage content of potentially digestible DM (DM %); 0.98 = true
140 digestible coefficient of cell content; and NDF and iNDF = forage content of NDF
141 and iNDF, respectively (DM %).

142 Individual DM intake of supplement (DMS) was estimated by relation of
143 excretion of TiO₂ in feces and marker concentration in the supplement.

144 The voluntary intake of from forage (DMF) was estimated using an internal
145 iNDF, according to Detmann et al. (2001), using the following equation:

$$146 \quad DMF = [(FE \times iNDF_{feces}) - DMSi \times iNDF_{sup}] \div iNDF_{forage} \quad (3)$$

147 where FE = fecal excretion (kg/d), $iNDF_{feces}$ = concentration of iNDF in the feces
148 (kg/kg), DMSi = dry matter supplement intake (kg/day), $iNDF_{sup}$ = concentration of
149 iNDF in the supplement (kg/kg), and $iNDF_{forage}$ = concentration of iNDF in the
150 forage (kg/kg).

151 The total DM intake was calculated by the sum of DMF intake and DMS
152 intake.

153 Samples of serum were analyzed for concentrations of progesterone (P4),
154 non-esterified fatty acids (NEFA), and serum urea nitrogen (SUN) by
155 chemiluminescence, enzymatic spectrophotometry, and kinetic fixed time methods,
156 respectively. The analyses were conducted at clinical analyses Laboratory
157 (Viçosalab, Viçosa, MG). Progesterone concentrations higher than 1 ng/ml ($P4 > 1$
158 ng/ml) were considered an indicator of ovarian activity (Nogueira et al., 1993).

159 In the urine samples, analyses were performed for creatinine, uric acid, and
160 urea by colorimetric kinetic, enzymatic colorimetric and kinetic fixed time methods,
161 respectively, using automatic biochemical analyzer (Mindray, BS200E model).

162 Daily urinary volume was calculated using the relationship between the daily
163 creatinine excretion (CE), taking as reference the equation proposed by Costa e Silva
164 et al. (2012), and its concentration in the spot samples:

$$165 \quad CE(g/d) = 0.0345 \times SBW^{0.9491} \quad (4)$$

166 where: SBW = shrunk body weight

167 Allantoin was analyzed by the colorimetric method as described by Chen &
168 Gomes (1992). Total excretion of purine derivatives was calculated by the sum of the
169 amounts of allantoin and uric acid excreted in urine.

170 The purines absorbed were calculated from the excretion of purine derivatives
171 according the equation Barbosa et al. (2011):

$$172 \quad AP = \frac{(PD - 0.301 \times BW^{0.75})}{0.80} \quad (5)$$

173 where: AP = absorbed purines (mmol/d); PD = excretion of purine derivative
174 (mmol/day); 0.301 = endogenous excretion of purine derivative in the urine (mmol)
175 per unit of metabolic weight ($BW^{0.75}$); and 0.80 = recovery of purine absorbed as
176 purine derivative in the urine (mmol/mmol).

177 Ruminal synthesis of microbial nitrogen compounds was calculated as a
178 function of AP using the equation described by Barbosa et al. (2011).

$$179 \quad N_{mic} = \frac{(70 \times AP)}{(0.93 \times R \times 1000)} \quad (6)$$

180 where: NMIC = intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen compounds (g/d); 70 = N
181 content in purines (mg N/mol); 0.93 = digestibility of microbial purines and R =
182 0.134 = N purine: total N in the bacteria according to Valadares et al. (1999).

183

184 Statistical analysis

185 The experiment was carried out according to a completely randomized
186 design, including the fixed effects of treatments and using the BW of the cows at
187 calving as a covariate. The comparisons among treatments were performed using a
188 set of orthogonal contrasts which encompassed a comparison between the control

189 treatment and the treatments with supplementation, and the linear and quadratic
190 effects of the CP contents in supplements. All statistical procedures were performed
191 adopting 0.10 as the critical level of probability for the type I error and the MIXED
192 procedure of the Statistical Analysis System 9.4 (SAS Institute, Inc.).

193

194 **Results**

195 Average availability of DM and DMpd during the experiment was 5.3 t/ha
196 and 3.1 t/ha, respectively, which corresponded to the momentary average availability
197 of 203.1 and 119.0 g/kg BW. Forage sampled by hand-plucking had an average CP
198 content of 72 g/kg DM (Table 2).

199 The average milk yield and composition were not affected ($P \geq 0.11$) by the
200 treatments (Table 3).

201 Overall, there was not effect ($P \geq 0.16$) of supplementation on voluntary
202 intake (Table 4). A linear effect ($P < 0.02$) of the CP content in the supplements was
203 observed among supplemented cows only for the CP intake (Table 4).

204 The average CP contents in the diet, calculated from the ratio of the CP intake
205 on total DM intake, were 69, 70, 80, and 82 g/kg for the control, and supplements
206 with 80, 200, and 320 g CP/kg DM, respectively.

207 Supplementation did not affect ($P \geq 0.20$) the total digestibility of OM,
208 NDFap, and CP (Table 5). However, among supplemented cows, a positive linear
209 effect ($P < 0.01$) of the CP content in the supplement was observed for the CP
210 digestibility (Table 5).

211 The efficiency of microbial protein synthesis (EMS) and NMIC were not
212 affected ($P \geq 0.18$) by treatments. Nevertheless, NMIC in relation to nitrogen intake

213 (NMIC/NI) was lower in supplemented cows compared to the control cows. Among
214 supplemented cows, a negative linear effect ($P < 0.01$) of the CP content in the
215 supplements was observed for NMIC/NI (Table 5).

216 There was not ($P \geq 0.14$) effect of supplementation or of the CP content in the
217 supplements on performance productive (Table 6). Supplementation did not affect (P
218 ≥ 0.52) NEFA, SUN and progesterone serum concentrations (Table 7). However,
219 among supplemented cows, a positive linear effect ($P < 0.03$) of the CP content in the
220 supplements was observed for SUN concentrations at 30 days post-calving (Table 7).

221

222 **Discussion**

223 The forage mass available was not supposed being a limiting factor for feed
224 intake in this study. According to Paulino et al. (2008), the interpretation of forage
225 available for grazing as baseline nutritional resource should be conducted from the
226 perspective of the fraction potentially convertible into animal product which can be
227 achieved by applying the concept of DMpd, as it integrates the quantity and quality
228 regardless of season. The average mass of DMpd (119 g/kg BW) was higher than
229 those recommended by Paulino et al. (2004) from 40 to 50 g/kg BW for satisfactory
230 performance in a grazing system. Thus, the availability of forage could be considered
231 non-restrictive, giving to animals the possibility of a high selective grazing and
232 choose by the best-quality forage parts.

233 On the other hand, if there is a minimum quantity of forage mass to supply
234 animal demand, canopy structure, and nutritive value are more important than forage
235 mass to pasture intake (Valente et al., 2013). In tropical pastures, protein supply is
236 the major limiting nutrient to production. Average CP content of forage during the

237 current experiment was approximately 72 g CP/kg DM; in addition, approximately
238 360 g/kg CP was associated to fiber, being slowly available to ruminal
239 microorganisms (Table 2). According to observations obtained in tropical conditions,
240 additional supplying of nitrogen compounds to animals consuming low quality
241 forage would favor fibrolytic bacteria growth increasing ruminal NDF degradation,
242 voluntary forage intake and energy extraction from fibrous carbohydrates (Paulino et
243 al., 2008; Detmann et al., 2010).

244 However, positive effects on voluntary intake (Table 4) and fiber digestibility
245 (Table 5) were not observed in this study. The absence of effect on digestible neutral
246 detergent fiber (DNDF) intake indicates that no change was caused by
247 supplementation or by CP contents in the supplement on forage intake and
248 digestibility. According to Detmann et al. (2014a), positive responses on fiber
249 degradation has been observed with increased dietary CP levels for concentrations
250 close to 100 g/kg DM, in addition, the voluntary intake of forage has been stimulated
251 with the establishment of concentrations close to 145 g/kg DM (Detmann et al.,
252 2014b). In this study, there was not difference in protein intake between
253 supplemented and control cows (Table 4). Although it has been observed a linear
254 increase on protein intake among supplemented animals, dietary crude protein
255 content increased slightly, remaining below the suggested by the authors cited above,
256 resulting in deficiency of nitrogen compounds to synthesis of microbial enzymes
257 responsible for the degradation of the fibrous forage compounds (Detmann et al.,
258 2009), resulting in absence of changes in digestion and forage intake.

259 The absence of effect on voluntary intake reflected on animal performance.
260 Thus, BW did not differ among treatments. In contrast, other studies aiming to

261 evaluate supplementation of grazing beef cows during post-calving in the tropics
262 found improved weight in supplemented animals (Ruas et al., 2000; Godoy et al.,
263 2004). However, Oliveira et al. (2006) highlighted that the evaluation of BCS is
264 more efficient than BW, because it takes into account the accumulation of body
265 reserves, which the female has to mobilize during suckling period. Moreover, two
266 animals can be marked difference in BW and similar BCS. Nevertheless, there was
267 no effect on BCS. It observed BCS of the cows was lower than the minimum body
268 condition score at parturition (5.0) recommended by the NRC (2000) so that females
269 will have a good reproductive performance in the next breeding season.

270 Overall, effects of supplementation on the digestibility was focused on
271 increase the CP digestibility with the increase of CP contents in the supplements
272 (Table 5), which may be due to the effect of lower proportion of metabolic fecal
273 fraction in relation to ingested nutrients (Barros et al., 2011).

274 There was no effect of supplementation or CP contents in the supplements, on
275 NMIC and EMS (Table 5). The absence effect on NMIC has also been observed in
276 others studies using beef cattle grazing in tropical conditions (Cabral et al., 2012;
277 Barros et al., 2014). This behavior could be attributed to the fact that in situations
278 where there lack of nitrogen compounds in diet, there would be a net gain of nitrogen
279 to rumen in the system via recycling to support the rumen microbial growth that is
280 first order demand (Detmann et al., 2014b).

281 On the other hand, NMIC/NI was affected by supplementation and CP levels
282 in the supplements. According to Detmann et al. (2010) estimates of NMIC/NI
283 higher than one indicates that intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen is higher than
284 ingested nitrogen. These cases, there will be greater reliance on recycling events to

285 provide adequate supply of N in the rumen (Detmann et al., 2014b). In this study, it
286 may observe that average estimates were close to one, in the control animals, and
287 became lower when supplemental CP was provided. This observation again indicates
288 the occurrence of protein deficit in the animals' diet.

289 During early lactation, the partitioning mechanisms of nutrients give priority
290 for the milk yield in relation to other functions; thus, increasing feeding levels by
291 supplementation during post-calving could improve milk yield. However, there was
292 no effect of supplementation or CP contents in the supplements on milk yield.
293 Similar results were reported by Ruas et al. (2000), who provided 1 or 2 kg of
294 supplement for Nellore cows during post-calving. The absence of effects on milk
295 yield could be attributed, at least in part, to an increased mobilization of body
296 reserves by cows without supplementation. However, the lack of difference on BCS
297 and serum concentrations of NEFA among supplemented and control cows does not
298 support such argument. Thus, the absence of answer on total intake (Table 4) as a
299 function of supplementation, it seems to more plausibly explain this fact.

300 In post-calving condition, nutritional requirements of beef cows increase
301 above which pastures can normally provide, and cows usually begin negative energy
302 balance (NEB). In this situation, there is fat mobilization and a subsequent increase
303 in NEFA serum concentrations (Sartori & Guardieiro, 2010). The serum levels of
304 NEFA are quite significant for evaluating the energy state in ruminants, responding
305 quickly to changing feed intake (Peixoto et al., 2007). Thus, adding supplements to
306 the animals' diet, we would expect higher intake and improved energy status of the
307 animal, which could be reflected in decreasing serum concentrations of NEFA.
308 However, serum concentrations of NEFA did not differ between treatments (Table

309 7). Similar results were reported by Mulliniks et al. (2013), who worked with beef
310 cows grazing on native range during post-calving.

311 Few studies indicate what threshold of serum NEFA would be considered
312 wherein there is a high lipid mobilization, but according to Oetzel (2004), values
313 higher than 0.40 mmol/L already indicate problems concerning energy balance. The
314 values of NEFA serum (Table 7) suggests that the cows were mobilizing body
315 reserves to supply nutritional deficit. Thus, as previously discussed, supplementation
316 failed to increase energy intake of animals and reduce the NEB.

317 These observations together would justify, at least in part, the absence of
318 return to ovarian activity, as evidenced by low the concentration of P4 for all
319 treatments (Table 7). Overall, the results suggest that supplementation was no
320 enough for minimize energy balance negative and induce to reproductive response.
321 According to Santos et al. (2009), calved cows are more likely to reconception when
322 presenting weight gain or weight maintenance in the critical period of reproduction.

323

324 **Conclusions**

325 It is concluded that supplementation of grazing beef cows during post-calving
326 does not affect nutritional and productive performance.

327

328 **Acknowledgment**

329 The authors wish to thank the Instituto Nacional de Ciência e Tecnologia de
330 Ciência Animal (INCT-CA), Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa de Minas Gerais
331 (FAPEMIG), Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior

332 (CAPES) and Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico
333 (CNPq, Brazil) for financial support.
334

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433

434 **Tables**

435

436 **Table 1** Supplement composition (g/kg as fed)

Ingredient	Crude protein content		
	80	200	320
Ground corn	470	305	140
Ground sorghum	470	305	140
Soybean meal	0	330	660
Mineral mixture ^a	60	60	60

437 ^aComposition: dicalcium phosphate (500.0 g/kg), sodium chloride (471.9 g/kg), zinc sulfate (15.0
438 g/kg), copper sulfate (7.0 g/kg), cobalt sulfate (0.5 g/kg), potassium iodide (0.5 g/kg), sodium selenite
439 (0.1 g/kg), and manganese sulfate (5.0 g/kg).

440

441 **Table 2** Chemical composition of the supplements and forage

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)			Brachiaria decumbens	
	80	200	320	Forage ^d	Forage ^e
DM ^a	955	952	957	326±0.6	348±0.3
OM ^b	939	921	903	921±0.2	932±0.4
CP ^b	77	209	329	72±0.8	70±0.5
EE ^b	11	13	14	9±0.2	8±0.6
NDFap ^b	138	150	155	658±1.1	698±0.5
NFC ^b	713	549	405	187±1.1	157±0.8
iNDF ^b	5	6	6	261±1.4	266±0.3
NDIN ^c	184	176	137	360±3.3	380±2.3

442 DM = dry matter; OM = organic matter; CP = crude protein; EE = ether extract; NDFap = neutral
 443 detergent fiber correct for ash and protein; NFC = non-fiber carbohydrate; iNDF = indigestible neutral
 444 detergent fiber; NIDN = insoluble neutral detergent nitrogen.

445 ^a/ g/kg as fed

446 ^b/ g/kg DM

447 ^c/ g/kg total nitrogen

448 ^d/ Mean ± standard error of the mean (hand-plucked samples collected throughout study)

449 ^e/ Mean ± standard error of the mean (hand-plucked samples collected during digestibility trial)

450

451 **Table 3** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 452 indicative for milk yield and composition

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)				SEM	P value ^a		
	Control	80	200	320		CONT	L	Q
	kg/d							
Milk	8.55	8.94	9.21	9.26	0.87	0.370	0.296	0.720
FCM ^b	8.99	8.91	9.13	9.34	0.95	0.904	0.755	0.994
	g/kg							
Fat	43.4	39.7	39.0	34.0	0.33	0.150	0.301	0.438
Protein	29.9	29.5	30.5	30.4	0.06	0.724	0.361	0.511
Lactose	45.0	46.3	46.0	47.4	0.08	0.109	0.346	0.383
Total solids	128.7	125.4	126.9	122.6	0.33	0.340	0.557	0.477

453 ^a/ CONT = contrast between supplemented and non-supplemented; L, and Q = linear and quadratic
 454 effects regarding to CP content in the supplements: 80, 200 and 320 g/kg

455 ^b/ FCM = 4 % fat-corrected milk yield

456

457 **Table 4** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 458 indicative for voluntary intake

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)					P value ^a		
	Control	80	200	320	SEM	CONT	L	Q
	kg/d							
DM	12.01	11.27	12.00	12.23	0.84	0.860	0.431	0.812
DMF	12.01	10.43	11.10	11.42	0.77	0.260	0.373	0.860
OM	11.19	10.52	11.18	11.34	0.78	0.852	0.445	0.813
CP	0.83	0.79	0.96	1.06	0.07	0.812	0.012	0.688
NDFap	8.20	7.48	7.89	8.10	0.55	0.359	0.375	0.845
iNDF	3.20	2.78	2.96	3.05	0.20	0.269	0.372	0.859
DOM	6.31	5.85	6.23	6.17	0.44	0.653	0.613	0.687
DNDF	5.09	4.40	4.70	4.78	0.32	0.161	0.403	0.804
	g/kg BW							
DM	24.6	24.2	24.9	24.9	1.43	0.945	0.749	0.836
DMF	24.6	22.3	23.3	23.8	1.33	0.596	0.437	0.871
OM	22.6	22.4	23.3	23.6	1.34	0.739	0.532	0.842
NDFap	16.8	16.1	16.4	16.7	0.94	0.724	0.675	0.979

459 DM = dry matter, DMF = forage dry matter, OM = organic matter, CP = crude protein, NDFap =
 460 neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and protein, iNDF = indigestible neutral detergent fiber, DOM
 461 = digestible organic matter, DNDF = digestible neutral detergent fiber

462 ^a/ CONT = contrast between supplemented and non-supplemented; L and Q = linear and quadratic
 463 effects regarding to CP content in the supplements: 80, 200 and 320 g/kg

464

465 **Table 5** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 466 indicative for total digestibility and synthesis of microbial nitrogen compounds

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)					P value ^a		
	Control	80	200	320	SEM	CONT	L	Q
OM	55.71	55.21	55.98	55.05	0.54	0.647	0.840	0.211
CP	49.36	45.32	48.27	50.26	1.00	0.236	0.002	0.702
NDFap	61.05	60.08	60.05	60.01	0.66	0.205	0.951	0.993
DOM	525.17	518.91	519.65	504.37	5.44	0.072	0.051	0.205
NMIC	127.36	111.65	115.30	103.06	10.51	0.181	0.577	0.543
NMIC/NI	0.95	0.88	0.75	0.65	0.06	0.097	0.003	0.105
EMS	122.10	108.10	119.47	107.24	8.91	0.311	0.945	0.263

467 OM = organic matter, CP = crude protein, NDFap = neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and
 468 protein, DOM = digestible organic matter (g/kg DM), NMIC = intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen
 469 compounds (g/d), NMIC/NI = NMIC in relation to nitrogen intake (g/g ingested N), EMS = efficiency
 470 of microbial protein synthesis (g microbial CP synthesis/ kg DOM intake)

471 ^a/ CONT = contrast between supplemented and non-supplemented; L and Q = linear and quadratic
 472 effects regarding to CP content in the supplements: 80, 200 and 320 g/kg

473

474

475 **Table 6** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 476 indicative for performance

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)					P value ^a		
	Control	80	200	320	SEM	CONT	L	Q
BW3	492.80	490.65	489.58	496.48	5.63	0.931	0.471	0.568
BW6	469.29	476.49	477.06	476.04	5.88	0.295	0.958	0.913
BCS3	4.63	4.83	4.94	4.90	0.17	0.197	0.771	0.706
BCS6	4.25	4.57	4.51	4.60	0.17	0.145	0.934	0.716

477 BW3, BW6 = body weight in kg at 30 and 60 days post-calving; BCS3, BCS6 = body condition score
 478 at 30 and 60 days post-calving

479 ^a/ CONT = contrast between supplemented and non-supplemented; L and Q = linear and quadratic
 480 effects regarding to CP content in the supplements: 80, 200 and 320 g/kg

481

482

483 **Table 7** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 484 indicative for metabolites

Item	Crude protein content (g/kg DM)					P value ^a		
	Control	80	200	320	SEM	CONT	L	Q
NEFA3	0.57	0.61	0.55	0.57	0.08	0.929	0.730	0.651
NEFA6	0.44	0.52	0.43	0.51	0.06	0.526	0.963	0.264
SUN3	8.49	8.28	8.73	10.04	0.51	0.383	0.021	0.500
SUN6	13.58	12.47	12.58	15.25	1.33	0.920	0.182	0.451
P4/3	0.30	0.33	0.31	0.32	0.04	0.613	0.905	0.762
P4/6	0.25	0.24	0.32	0.25	0.05	0.915	0.595	0.128

485 NEFA = Non esterified fatty acids (mmol/L), SUN = serum urea nitrogen (mg/dL), P4 = Progesterone
 486 (ng/mL) 30 and 60 days post-calving

487 ^a/ CONT = contrast between supplemented and non-supplemented; L and Q = linear and quadratic
 488 effects regarding to CP content in the supplements: 80, 200 and 320 g/kg

25 **Introduction**

26 In the production of grazing young beef cattle in the tropics, weaning weight
27 is one of the most important indicators related to production system efficiency.

28 During the first few weeks of life, milk is the main source of energy and
29 nutrient for young beef calves. Starting at about three months of age, however, milk
30 is no longer sufficient for supplying their requirements (Henriques et al., 2011).
31 Thus, supplementation of suckling calves in creep feeding can therefore enable the
32 exploration of optimum of each individual, resulting in better performance and
33 higher body weight (BW) at weaning (Paulino et al., 2012).

34 Studies in the tropics on creep feeding have consistently shown an increase in
35 the weaning weight of calves (Porto et al., 2009; Valente et al., 2013; Lopes et al.,
36 2014). Studies have also suggested that calves' supplementation in creep feeding
37 could influence the behavior of calves and reduce their suckling time and frequency.
38 Thus, cows' milk may be reduced due to a reduction in suckling stimulation
39 (Fordyce et al., 1996). As a result, this could have an influence on cow performance.
40 Few studies have evaluated the behavior of beef calves in creep-feeding system,
41 however, and questions remain about the relations among the amounts of
42 supplements that are used, which may influence the biological response of beef
43 calves managed in tropical pasture that are subjected to different supplementation
44 plans.

45 The objective of this study was thus to evaluate the effect of different
46 amounts of supplement on the productive performance and behavioral characteristics
47 of suckling beef calves, as well as on the productive performance of their dams on
48 tropical pastures.

49

50 **Material and methods**

51 All procedures involving animals were approved by the Institutional
52 Committee of Universidade Federal de Viçosa for animal care and use
53 experimentation, process UFV number 43/2014.

54

55 Animals, experimental design and diets

56 The experiment was conducted in the beef cattle sector at the Universidade
57 Federal de Viçosa, Viçosa-MG, Brazil (20° 45' S 42° 52' W), in a 40-ha area with
58 four paddock for grazing with continuous stocking. This study was carried out during
59 the transition phase between rainy and dry seasons from February to June 2013. Over
60 days of measurements, the average minimum and maximum temperatures were
61 18.3°C and 29.5°C in February, 19.1°C and 27.9°C in March, 16.5°C and 26.3°C in
62 April, 13.7°C and 24.7°C in May and 13.8°C and 24.3°C in June. The amounts of
63 rainfall were 111 mm in February, 222 mm in March, 120 mm in April, 62 mm in
64 May, and 25 mm in June.

65 Forty-four Nellore beef calves males in the suckling phase averaging age of
66 120 days and 145 ± 3.7 kg of initial body weight (BW), and their respective dams
67 averaging 5 years-old and 449 ± 6.9 kg of BW were used. The experimental design
68 was completely randomized with four treatments and eleven replicates. The
69 treatments for the calves were: 0 = calves received only mineral mixture; 3, 6, and 9
70 = calves received 3, 6, or 9 g/kg BW of supplement. The supplement was formulated
71 to contain 250 g CP/kg, with a mixture of corn (260 g/kg), sorghum (260 g/kg),
72 soybean meal (450 g/kg), and molasses (30 g/kg), plus mineral mixture (40

73 g/animal/d) which was weighed and mixed with supplement to be supplied to the
74 group of calves daily.

75 Each group was managed on a 10-ha paddock with *Brachiaria decumbens*
76 pastures. There were private feeders for each group of calves (0.5 m per calf); where
77 the cows had no access. Calves were fed daily at 11 a.m. Cows received a mineral
78 mixture ad libitum. The mineral mixture consisted of dicalcium phosphate, (500.0
79 g/kg), sodium chloride (471.9 g/kg), zinc sulfate (15.0 g/kg), copper sulfate (7.0
80 g/kg), cobalt sulfate (0.5 g/kg), potassium iodide (0.5 g/kg), sodium selenite (0.1
81 g/kg) and manganese sulfate (5.0 g/kg).

82 In order to minimize the possible effects of paddock on the experimental
83 treatments, animals were rotated among the paddocks every 7 days, so that each
84 group stayed on each paddock for the same period.

85

86 Experimental procedures and sampling

87 Animals were submitted to 10 days of adaptation to the diet and experimental
88 area, and 140 days of evaluation (five periods of 28 days). For performance
89 evaluation, the animals were weighed at the beginning and end of the experiment
90 after 14 hours of fasting. At the beginning of the experiment, and every 28 days
91 thereafter, the calves were weighed without fasting (and always in the morning at
92 6h00) in order to adjust the amount of supplement to be provided to each group. The
93 BCS of the cows was evaluated by the same four trained evaluators, using a scale of
94 1 to 9, as recommended by the NRC (1996).

95 The diurnal behavior of calves was monitored by human observation. It took
96 8 days of observations nonconsecutive, being that each group was observed in each

97 paddock twice. Using the continuous focal animal recording method, the observers
98 stayed at a distance of approximately 50 m from the animals, from 6 a.m. to 6 p.m.
99 similarly to the description by Valente et al. (2013). The behavior observed in this
100 study was the time the animals spent grazing, idling, suckling, and feeding.

101 Forage samples were collected on the 14th day of each experimental period to
102 evaluate forage availability. In each paddock, four samples of forage were randomly
103 selected using a metallic square (0.5 × 0.5 m) and cut approximately 1 cm above the
104 ground. Sampling for the qualitative assessment of forage consumed by the animals
105 was obtained every fourteen days by the hand-plucking method. All the samples
106 were oven-dried (60^oC /72 hours) and ground in a Wiley mill (model 3, Arthur H.
107 Thomas, Philadelphia, PA) to pass through a 2-mm screen. After that, half of each
108 ground sample was ground again to pass through a 1-mm screen.

109 To estimate milk yield, cows were milked at days 35, and 90 of the
110 experiment. Cows were separated from their calves at 18h00. At 6h00 of the
111 following day, cows were injected with 2-mL oxytocin (10 IU/mL; Ocitovet®,
112 Brazil) in the mammary artery and immediately milked. The exact time when each
113 cow was milked was recorded, and the milk produced was proportionally converted
114 into a 24-h based production. The milk produced was corrected to 4 % of fat (FCM)
115 according to NRC (2001):

$$116 \text{ FCM} = 0.4 \times \text{milk yield (kg/d)} + 15 \times \text{fat yield (kg/d)} \quad (1)$$

117 Seventy days after the beginning of the experiment, a nine-day assay to
118 evaluate voluntary intake and digestibility of the calves was carried out. Chromium
119 oxide (Cr₂O₃), used to estimate fecal excretion, was packaged in paper cartridges in
120 the amount of 10 g per calf/d and was introduced (11h00) into the esophagus via a

121 rubber tube; while titanium dioxide (TiO₂), used to estimate individual supplement
122 intake, was mixed with the supplement distributed to the calves in an amount equal
123 to 10 g per animal/d. The first six days were used to stabilize the flow of markers in
124 gastrointestinal tract of the animals, while the last three days were used for feces
125 collection at 16h00 on day 7, at 11h00 on day 8, and at 6h00 on day 9. The fecal
126 samples were oven-dried (60°C /72 hours) and proportionally pooled per animal,
127 then ground in a Wiley mill (model 3, Arthur H. Thomas, Philadelphia, PA) to pass
128 through a 2-mm screen. After that, half of each ground sample was ground again to
129 pass through a 1-mm screen. In the fifth day of the digestibility assay, a sample of
130 forage in each paddock was obtained by the hand-plucking method, to estimate
131 voluntary intake and digestibility.

132 To evaluate the microbial protein production of calves, spot urine samples (10
133 mL) were collected from spontaneous micturition 4 hours after supply of supplement
134 in the 80th experimental day. Urine samples were diluted in 40 mL of H₂SO₄ (0.036
135 N) and frozen (-20°C). After urine collection, blood samples were collected by
136 jugular vein puncture, using vacuum tubes with separator gel (BD Vacutainer ® SST
137 II Advance), and centrifuged at 3000 × g for 15 minutes and the serum was then
138 frozen (-20°C).

139

140 Chemical analysis

141 Samples of forage, feces, and supplement processed to pass through 1-mm
142 screen sieve were analyzed according to the standard analytical procedures of the
143 Brazilian National Institute of Science and Technology in Animal Science (INCT-
144 CA; Detmann et al., 2012) for dry matter (DM; INCT-CA method G-003/1), ash

145 (INCT-CA method M-001/1), crude protein (CP; INCT-CA method N-001/1), ether
146 extract (EE; INCT-CA method G-004/1), neutral detergent fiber (NDFap; INCT-CA
147 method F-002/1), using alpha thermostable amylase without addition of sodium
148 sulfite and corrected for ash and protein (NDIP; INCT-CA method N-004/1).
149 Indigestible neutral detergent fiber (iNDF; INCT-CA method F-009/1) was
150 quantified by in situ incubation procedures with F57 bags (Ankom®) for 288 hours
151 in samples processed at 2-mm. In addition, fecal samples were evaluated for the
152 contents of chromium (INCT-CA method M-005/1) and titanium (INCT-CA method
153 M-007/1). Milk samples were analyzed with regards as protein, fat, lactose, and total
154 solids content using infrared spectroscopy (Foss MilkoScan FT120, Hillerød,
155 Denmark). Milk samples were analyzed with regards as protein, fat, lactose, and total
156 solids content using infrared spectroscopy (Foss MilkoScan FT120, Hillerød,
157 Denmark).

158 The percentage of potentially digestible DM (DM_{pd}) in the forage samples
159 obtained for evaluation of forage availability was estimated according to Paulino et
160 al. (2008):

$$161 \quad \text{DM}_{\text{pd}} = 0.98 \times (100 - \text{NDF}) + (\text{NDF} - \text{iNDF}) \quad (2)$$

162 where: DM_{pd} = forage content of potentially digestible DM (DM %); 0.98 = true
163 digestible coefficient of cell content; and NDF and iNDF = forage content of NDF
164 and iNDF, respectively (DM %).

165 Fecal excretion was estimated by rationing the quantity of chromic oxide
166 offered and the concentration in feces.

167 Individual DM of the supplement (DMS) intake was estimated by relation of
168 excretion of TiO₂ in feces and marker concentration in the supplement.

169 The voluntary intake of DM from forage (DMF) was estimated using an
170 internal iNDF according to Detmann et al. (2001), using the following equation:

$$171 \quad DMF = [(FE \times iNDF_{feces}) - DMSi \times iNDF_{sup}] \div iNDF_{forage} \quad (3)$$

172 where FE = fecal excretion (kg/d), $iNDF_{feces}$ = concentration of iNDF in the feces
173 (kg/kg), $DMSi$ = dry matter supplement intake (kg/day), $iNDF_{sup}$ = concentration of
174 iNDF in the supplement (kg/kg), and $iNDF_{forage}$ = concentration of iNDF in the
175 forage (kg/kg).

176 The total DM intake was calculated by the sum of DMF intake, DMS intake,
177 and DM milk intake (DMM).

178 In the samples of urine, analyzes were carried out for creatinine, uric acid and
179 urea by methods colorimetric kinetic, enzymatic colorimetric and kinetic fixed time,
180 respectively, using automatic biochemical analyzer (Mindray, BS200E model).

181 Daily urinary volume was calculated using the relationship between the daily
182 creatinine excretion (CE), taking as reference the equation proposed by Costa e Silva
183 et al. (2012), and its concentration in the spot samples:

$$184 \quad CE(g/d) = 0.0345 \times SBW^{0.9491} \quad (4)$$

185 where: SBW = shrunk body weight

186 Allantoin was analyzed by the colorimetric method as described by Chen &
187 Gomes (1992). Total excretion of purine derivatives was calculated by the sum of the
188 amounts of allantoin, uric acid excreted in urine.

189 The purines absorbed were calculated from the excretion of purine derivatives
190 according to Barbosa et al. (2011):

$$191 \quad AP = \frac{(PD - 0.301 \times BW^{0.75})}{0.80} \quad (5)$$

192 where: AP = absorbed purines (mmol/d); PD = excretion of purine derivative
193 (mmol/day); 0.301 = endogenous excretion of purine derivative in the urine (mmol)
194 per unit of metabolic weight (BW^{0.75}); and 0.80 = recovery of purine absorbed as
195 purine derivative in the urine (mmol/mmol).

196 Ruminal synthesis of microbial nitrogen compounds was calculated as a
197 function of AP using the equation described by Barbosa et al. (2011).

$$198 \quad \text{NMIC} = \frac{(70 \times \text{AP})}{(0.93 \times \text{R} \times 1000)} \quad (6)$$

199 where: NMIC = intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen compounds (g/d); 70 = N
200 content in the purines (mg N/mol); 0.93 = digestibility of microbial purines and R =
201 0.134 = N purine: total N in the bacteria according to Valadares et al. (1999).

202

203 Statistical analysis

204 The experiment was carried out according to a completely randomized
205 design, including the fixed effect of treatments and using the initial BW as a
206 covariate. The comparisons among treatments were performed out by orthogonal
207 decomposition of the sum of squares of the treatments in linear, quadratic, and cubic
208 effects related to the effects of supplement amounts. All statistical procedures were
209 performed adopting 0.10 as the critical level of probability for the type I error and the
210 MIXED procedure of the Statistical Analysis System 9.4 (SAS Institute, Inc.).

211

212 **Results**

213 The average availability of DM and DMpd during the experiment was 4.4 and
214 2.5 t/ha, respectively, which corresponded to the momentary mean availability of

215 256.2 and 148.3 g/kg BW. The forage sampled by hand-plucking had an average CP
216 content of 86 g/kg DM (Table 1).

217 The observed supplement intake occurred as planned in the supplementation
218 plans, and orts were not observed. The average supplement intakes throughout the
219 study, were 0.6, 1.2, and 1.8 kg/animal/d for amounts of supplements 3, 6, or 9 g/kg
220 BW, respectively.

221 The average milk yield and composition were not affected ($P \geq 0.18$) by the
222 calves' supplementation (Table 2).

223 The intake of DM, OM, CP, and digestible organic matter (DOM) increased
224 linearly ($P < 0.01$) with an increase in the amount of supplement supplied to the
225 calves. DMF intake, however, decreased linearly ($P < 0.01$) (Table 3). In addition, a
226 cubic effect ($P < 0.07$) was observed for NDF and iNDF intake (Table 3).

227 There were no differences ($P \geq 0.25$) in total digestibility of OM, CP, and EE;
228 on the other hand, a quadratic effect ($P < 0.06$) was observed for the digestibility of
229 NDFap (Table 4).

230 A quadratic effect ($P < 0.08$) was observed in the amount of supplement on
231 the intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen compounds (NMIC); no differences were
232 found ($P \geq 0.65$), however, in the efficiency of microbial protein synthesis (EMS). In
233 addition, the NMIC in relation to nitrogen intake (NMIC/NI) decreased linearly ($P <$
234 0.02) with increases in the amount of supplement provided to calves. A positive
235 linear effect of amount of supplement ($P < 0.01$) was observed in the urea nitrogen
236 excretion in the urine (UUN) and the concentration of serum urea nitrogen (SUN)
237 (Table 4).

238 The calves' supplementation did not affect ($P > 0.21$) the FBW and FBCS of
239 their dams. A cubic effect ($P < 0.01$), however, was observed in the calves'
240 performance with increases in amount of supplement (Table 5). Supplement use
241 efficiency (the additional weight gain of the supplemented calves/supplement intake)
242 was 0.15, 0.17, and 0.09 for amounts of supplements 3, 6, or 9 g/kg BW,
243 respectively.

244 The different amounts of supplement did not affect ($P \geq 0.59$) the suckling
245 behavior of calves. On the other hand, grazing time decreased linearly ($P < 0.01$)
246 with increased amount of supplement, and a cubic effect ($P < 0.01$) was observed for
247 feeding time (Table 6).

248

249 **Discussion**

250 Forage mass did not appear to limit forage intake in this study. The average
251 mass of DMpd (148.3 g/kg BW) was higher than the 40-50 g/kg BW recommended
252 by Paulino et al. (2004) for satisfactory animal performance in a grazing system.
253 Nonetheless, the forage was considered to be of moderate quality (Table 1).
254 According to Detmann et al. (2014a), positive effect on the utilization of energy
255 substrates from forage has been observed with increasing dietary CP content up to
256 100 g/kg DM. In addition, voluntary intake forage have been stimulated with
257 concentrations of up to 145 g CP/kg DM (Detmann et al., 2014b). Thus,
258 supplementation may increase dietary CP content and could optimize the utilization
259 and intake of forage and, as a result, animal performance.

260 In fact, in our study there was a linear increase in the intake of DM and OM,
261 resulting in increased animal performance. However, there was a substitutive effect

262 of the intake of the supplement that was offered on forage intake. Some authors have
263 associated the dietary protein to energy (P:E) ratio, represented by the ratio CP:
264 DOM, with variations in the voluntary intake of forage (Costa et al. 2011; Detmann
265 et al., 2014b). In a recent approach, Detmann et al. (2014b) inferred that the
266 maximum voluntary intake of tropical forages is observed with the ratio of 288 g
267 CP/kg DOM. The CP:DOM ratio observed in our study was 217.4, 248.0, 276.4, and
268 326.9 for the amounts of supplement 0, 3, 6, or 9 g /kg BW, respectively. It would
269 therefore appear that a reduction in the forage intake observed may have been caused
270 in parts by an excess of dietary protein, which supports the occurrence of negative
271 metabolic effects on voluntary forage intake.

272 In situations, with excessive protein intake leads excess ammonia being
273 directed to liver, and an increased liver synthesis of urea, which in turn increases
274 caloric increments (Detmann et al., 2010). Thus, the excessive catabolism of
275 nitrogenous compounds may have caused the reduction in voluntary intake (Detmann
276 et al., 2014b) in an attempt to approach a situation of thermal comfort. This situation
277 can be confirmed by the higher concentrations of SUN and the higher excretion of
278 UUN (Table 4), given the positive correlation between these variables and protein
279 intake. In addition, these arguments could justify the reduction in performance that
280 was observed by providing supplements in the amount of 9 g/kg BW.

281 On the other hand, by analyzing the intake of each treatment it was observed
282 that the provision of supplements in the amount of 6 g/kg BW allowed a ratio of
283 276.4 CP / kg DOM (close to the ratio suggested by the authors cited above); this
284 reflected greater intake (Table 3), and, consequently, greater animal performance.
285 One possible explanation for this superior performance is that this amount presented

286 an appropriate balance of protein and energy, where there occurred a supply of
287 protein deficit dietary with appropriate energy offer, allowing an efficient utilization
288 of protein (Souza et al., 2010) and in turn a greater availability of metabolizable
289 energy and protein for animal metabolism to tissue synthesis.

290 The amounts of supplement assessed did not affect the calves' suckling
291 behavior (Table 6). As a consequence, the calves' DM intake of milk (Table 3) did
292 not differ between treatments; therefore, this was not a factor that would interfere
293 with the difference in performance among calves. On the other hand, there was an
294 increase in the intake of CP, DOM, and NFC, which resulted from increases in the
295 supplement supply; this reflected in higher performance. This fact shows that during
296 the suckling period, the nutrients available from milk and tropical forage alone were
297 not sufficient for supplying the nutritional requirements for optimized weight gain.
298 This result is similar to other studies (Valente et al., 2013; Lopes et al., 2014 and
299 Barros et al., 2014) that have also found increases in performance due to creep
300 feeding. According to Paulino et al. (2010), beef calves with a BW of 200 kg and an
301 ADG of 1 kg/d require a daily intake of 3.0 of total digestible nutrients (TDN) and
302 0.708 kg of CP, respectively. Thus, in our study it was observed that the provision of
303 6 g/kg BW allowed an intake of energy and protein that was close to that suggested
304 by the authors cited above.

305 According to Paulino et al. (2014), in order to enable the production of young
306 beef cattle on tropical pastures, a feeding management system should be established
307 that will allow weight gains from birth until slaughter at 16 months of about 900
308 g/animal/d. In our study, this performance was obtained by providing supplement in
309 the amount of 6 g/kg BW, which provided an additional gain of 200 g/d in relation to

310 the nutritional plan 0 g/kg BW. This observation corroborates statements made by
311 Poppi & McLennan (1995) and Paulino et al. (2008) that stated that it is possible to
312 obtain an additional gain of 200-300 g/d with the use of fodder supplements when
313 the forage grazed has good nutritional quality.

314 Overall, protein supplementation increases the degradation rates of potentially
315 digestible NDF in the rumen (Detmann et al., 2011). In the suckling phase, however,
316 the rumens of calves are still in the development stage, which makes the calves more
317 susceptible to digestive disorders; as such they are less able to utilize rough feed.
318 This fact, together with the low participation of NDFap in the diet, may have
319 contributed to a reduction in NDFap digestibility observed in our study; in addition,
320 increased amounts of the supply of supplements have been reported to have
321 deleterious effects on the digestibility of NDFap (Paula, 2012). Others studies
322 conducted on the suckling phase have also shown the absence of effect or reduction
323 in NDF digestibility (Marquez et al., 2014; Lopes et al., 2014).

324 According to Vargas Jr et al. (2011), milk yield may be increased as the calf
325 stimulates the mammary gland. A high frequency of suckling could make the cow
326 increase milk yield in response to higher stimulation; as result, this may reduce her
327 body condition. On the other hand, as the calf grows, its ability to eat solid feed
328 increases while its milk intake decreases; the adoption of supplementation can thus
329 reduce dependence of calves in relation to cows' productivity levels, resulting in
330 lower variations in body condition. In our study, however, the milk yield was not
331 affected by calves' treatments (Table 2). Consequently, did not observe any effect on
332 cows' performance (Table 5) due to the calves' treatments. Similarly, other studies

333 (Valente et al., 2013; Barros et al, 2014) also did not find differences in milk yield
334 and productive performance in beef cows due to the calves' supplementation.

335 This likely occurred because calves prefer milk, supplement and forage, in
336 that order; it thus seems unlikely that calves would replace milk by supplements.
337 Calves will therefore usually increase supplement and forage intake only after the
338 maximization of milk intake. In our study, were not observed differences in suckling
339 times for different amounts of supplement (Table 6), which is similar to results found
340 by Valente et al. (2013). With increased amount of supplements, however, calves
341 were less dependent upon pasture to supply their nutritional demands, and they spent
342 less time grazing (Table 6), which indicates the replacement of forage intake by
343 supplements (Table 3). Similarly, other studies (Lopes et al., 2014; Cardenas et al.,
344 2015) have also observed that there were no changes in dry matter milk intake;
345 although forage intake was lower for supplemented calves.

346

347 **Conclusions**

348 From the results obtained of this study, it is recommended the provision of
349 supplement containing 250 g CP/kg in the amount of 6 g/kg BW to suckling beef
350 calves managed in tropical pasture. Supplementation of suckling beef calves
351 increases intake of dry matter, and decreases grazing time and forage intake.
352 However, it does not affect suckling time and productive performance of their dams.

353

354 **Acknowledgment**

355 The authors wish to thank the Instituto Nacional de Ciência e Tecnologia de
356 Ciência Animal (INCT-CA), Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa de Minas Gerais

357 (FAPEMIG), Coordenação de Aperfeiçoamento de Pessoal de Nível Superior
358 (CAPES) and Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico
359 (CNPq, Brazil) for financial support.

360

361

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479 **Tables**

480

481 **Table 1** Chemical composition of the supplements and forage

Item	Supplement	Brachiaria decumbens	
		Forage ^d	Forage ^e
DM ^a	945.0	295.2±0.4	280.3±0.6
OM ^b	963.7	901.5±0.3	903.5±0.4
CP ^b	275.6	86.1±0.2	84.5±0.3
EE ^b	230.0	10.4±0.1	7.8±0.1
NDFap ^b	177.4	630.4±0.9	658.2±1.0
iNDF ^b	8.7	257.7±0.8	254.9±0.4
NFC ^b	487.7	170.0±0.6	152.9±1.2
NDIN ^c	161.7	209.8.±1.1	193.9.±0.8

482 DM = dry matter; OM = organic matter; CP = crude protein; EE = ether extract; NDFap = neutral
 483 detergent fiber correct for ash and protein; iNDF = indigestible neutral detergent fiber; NFC = Non-
 484 fiber carbohydrate; NIDN = insoluble neutral detergent nitrogen

485 ^a/ g/kg as fed

486 ^b/ g/kg DM

487 ^c/ g/kg total nitrogen

488 ^d/ Mean ± standard error of the mean (hand-plucked samples collected throughout study)

489 ^e/ Mean ± standard error of the mean (hand-plucked samples collected during digestibility trial)

490

491

492 **Table 2** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
493 indicative for milk production and composition

Item	Supplement amount (g/kg BW)				SEM	P value ^a		
	0	3	6	9		L	Q	C
	kg/d							
Milk	7.01	7.39	7.46	7.03	0.41	0.555	0.149	0.747
FCM ^b	7.48	7.87	7.97	7.11	0.45	0.559	0.124	0.622
	g/kg							
Fat	46.63	44.21	45.75	46.39	0.14	0.899	0.282	0.442
Protein	34.29	34.32	35.00	34.10	0.04	0.888	0.179	0.182
Lactose	43.80	44.63	43.79	44.88	0.04	0.182	0.743	0.917
Total solids	135.97	134.47	135.95	136.31	0.16	0.730	0.570	0.570

494 ^a/ L, Q and C = linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the supplement amount

495 ^b/ FCM = 4 % fat-corrected milk yield

496

497 **Table 3** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 498 indicative for voluntary intake of calves

Item	Supplement amount (g/kg BW)				SEM	P value ^a		
	0	3	6	9		L	Q	C
	Kg/d							
DM	3.15	3.52	4.20	3.98	0.21	0.001	0.181	0.214
DMF	2.29	1.99	2.06	1.70	0.11	0.004	0.813	0.139
DMM	0.9	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.08	0.786	0.630	0.846
OM	2.85	3.24	3.84	3.69	0.18	0.001	0.174	0.272
CP	0.416	0.563	0.716	0.827	0.05	<0.001	0.734	0.830
EE	0.299	0.345	0.374	0.337	0.03	0.251	0.135	0.699
NDFap	1.50	1.47	1.69	1.20	0.08	0.083	0.012	0.015
NFC	0.35	0.51	0.70	1.09	0.06	<0.001	0.079	0.528
iNDF	0.56	0.51	0.56	0.45	0.03	0.046	0.376	0.068
DOM	1.91	2.27	2.59	2.53	0.15	0.003	0.185	0.633
	g/kg BW							
DM	15.94	17.71	20.03	19.65	0.71	0.002	0.138	0.311
DMF	11.65	10.00	9.87	8.49	0.51	0.002	0.805	0.250
OM	14.43	16.32	18.39	18.22	0.65	<0.001	0.126	0.416
NDFap	7.64	7.40	8.13	6.00	0.36	0.014	0.013	0.023

499 DM = dry matter, DMF = forage dry matter, DMM = milk dry matter, OM = organic matter, CP =
 500 crude protein, EE = ether extract, NDFap = neutral detergent fiber corrected for ash and protein, NFC
 501 = Non-fiber carbohydrate, iNDF = indigestible neutral detergent fiber, DOM = digestible organic
 502 matter, DNDF = digestible neutral detergent fiber

503 ^a/L, Q and C = linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the supplement amount

504

505 **Table 4** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
 506 indicative for digestibility and synthesis of microbial nitrogen compounds

Item	Supplement amount (g/kg BW)				SEM	P value ^a		
	0	3	6	9		L	Q	C
OM	66.80	69.54	67.15	68.47	1.21	0.625	0.553	0.105
CP	63.77	67.34	64.67	68.42	2.15	0.251	0.964	0.200
EE	82.51	86.66	84.17	84.87	1.75	0.569	0.339	0.226
NDFap	61.53	59.72	57.51	49.87	1.51	<0.001	0.056	0.451
NFC	50.51	67.19	65.46	76.14	2.71	<0.001	0.283	0.017
DOM	605	641	616	635	11.2	0.194	0.435	0.042
NMIC	23.97	35.63	33.24	34.74	2.61	0.017	0.069	0.152
NMIC/NI	0.41	0.40	0.28	0.28	0.05	0.018	0.933	0.295
EMS	80.72	92.94	82.20	89.21	7.41	0.652	0.725	0.229
SUN	11.35	13.17	17.41	18.95	0.91	<0.001	0.882	0.220
UNUE	24.44	31.85	43.72	43.42	2.21	<0.001	0.109	0.111

507 OM = organic matter, CP = crude protein, EE = ether extract, NDFap = neutral detergent fiber
 508 corrected for ash and protein, NFC = Non-fiber carbohydrate, DOM = digestible organic matter (g/kg
 509 DM), NMIC = intestinal flow of microbial nitrogen compounds (g/d), NMIC/NI = NMIC in relation
 510 to nitrogen intake (g/g ingested N), EMS = efficiency of microbial protein synthesis (g microbial CP
 511 synthesis/ kg DOM intake), SUN = serum urea nitrogen (mg/dL), UNUE = ureic nitrogen urinary
 512 excretion (g/d)

513 ^a/ L, Q and C = linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the supplement amount

514

515

516 **Table 5** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
517 indicative for performance of calves and cows

Item	Supplement amount (g/kg BW)				SEM	P value ^a		
	0	3	6	9		L	Q	C
Calves								
FBW, kg	246.4	258.3	275.4	269.6	3.70	<0.001	0.021	0.095
ADG	0.72	0.80	0.92	0.89	0.03	<0.001	0.021	0.095
Cows								
FBW	465.5	462.5	465.9	473.6	4.65	0.212	0.253	0.924
FBCS	4.53	4.61	4.54	4.73	0.08	0.139	0.539	0.271

518 FBW = final body weight in kg, ADG = average daily gain in grams, FBCS = final body condition
519 score

520 ^a/L, Q and C = linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the supplement amount

521

522

523 **Table 6** Least squares means, standard error of the mean (SEM) and significance
524 indicative for diurnal behavior of calves

Item	Supplement amount (g/kg BW)				SEM	P value ^a		
	0	3	6	9		L	Q	C
(%)	Calves							
Grazing	33.39	33.07	32.54	27.76	1.28	0.003	0.503	0.707
Idle	61.28	59.49	56.41	61.72	1.30	0.761	0.009	0.105
Suckling	3.09	3.00	3.11	2.80	0.31	0.597	0.728	0.663
Feeding	2.22	3.80	7.93	7.71	0.55	<0.001	0.111	0.008

525 ^a/L, Q and C = linear, quadratic and cubic effects of the supplement amount

526

26 **Introduction**

27 Continuous weight gain from suckling period until slaughter is a critical
28 feature to the success of beef cattle production in the tropics. However, milk
29 nutrients cannot be enough to supply the calves' nutritional requirements for
30 optimized weight gains after three months of age (Henriques et al., 2011). Therefore,
31 the supplementation of suckling calves using a creep feeding systems assumes great
32 importance to assure an improved weaning weight (Paulino et al., 2012).

33 In fact, studies in the tropics on creep-feeding have consistently shown
34 increases in the BW of calves at weaning (Porto et al., 2009; Valente et al., 2013;
35 Barros et al., 2014; Lopes et al., 2014). However, few studies have evaluated the
36 possible effects of creep feeding on cow performance. In addition, most of these
37 studies had a small number of observations and contradictory results have been
38 obtained, which can be, at least partially, confounded with the variation between
39 years of evaluation. Different studies have shown that creep feeding supplementation
40 of calves can either increase (Nogueira et al., 2006; Souza et al., 2007), decrease
41 (Sampaio et al., 2010) or produce no affect (Porto et al., 2009; Valente et al., 2013)
42 cow's performance. Considering these inconsistencies concerning inferences taken
43 from individual studies, it is believed that increasing the number of observations can
44 improve the inferences and a meta-analytical approach can be useful for this.

45 Therefore, the objective of this study was to evaluate the effects of beef
46 calves' supplementation in creep-feeding system on milk yield, BW and BCS of their
47 dams on tropical pastures using a meta-analytical approach.

48

49 **Material and methods**

50

51 Data acquisition and experimental procedures

52 The dataset used to evaluate milk yield, BW and BCS of cows was obtained
53 from 11 experiments conducted between 2009 and 2014 in Brazil, totaling 485
54 observations (cows). The experiments were carried out at the Animal Science
55 Department of the Universidade Federal de Viçosa, Brazil (20° 45' S 42° 52' W), in a
56 90-ha area consisting of thirteen paddocks, covered with *Brachiaria decumbens*, and
57 grazing under continuous stocking rate. There were water dispensers and shaded
58 feeders in each paddock. In addition, there were shaded feeders with access restricted
59 to calves (creep feeders).

60 Experiments were performed during the suckling phase to evaluate the effects
61 of supplementation on calves' performance (Table 1). The database were composed
62 by 273 Nellore and 212 crossbred ($\frac{7}{8}$ Nellore \times $\frac{1}{8}$ Holstein) cows averaging 5 yr
63 old.

64 All experiments were conducted during transition phase between rainy and
65 dry seasons from February to June of each year according to completely randomized
66 designs. The treatments were applied to calves and each study included a control
67 treatment without supplementation (calves receiving only mineral mixture) and three
68 to four treatments where calves had access to creep feeding supplements. In all
69 experiments calves were fed daily at 1100h from three months of age until weaning
70 with approximately eight months old. Overall, the CP content in the supplements
71 ranged from 80 to 550 g/kg as-fed, and the amount of supplements provided to calves
72 ranged from 450 to 1600 g/d (Table 1). Cows received a mineral mixture ad libitum

73 and 100 g of ground corn per day in feeders located close to creep feeders to allow
74 calves to spend more time in the feeder for intake of the supplement. The mineral
75 mixture consisted of dicalcium phosphate, (500.0 g/kg), sodium chloride (471.9
76 g/kg), zinc sulfate (15.0 g/kg), copper sulfate (7.0 g/kg), cobalt sulfate (0.5 g/kg),
77 potassium iodide (0.5 g/kg), sodium selenite (0.1 g/kg) and manganese sulfate (5.0
78 g/kg).

79 In all experiments, BCS of the cows was evaluated using a scale from 1 to 9,
80 as recommended by the NRC (1996). Variation of the BCS of cows was determined
81 by the difference between scores recorded at the end and beginning of the
82 supplementation period. For BW evaluations, the cows were weighed at the
83 beginning and end of the supplementation period after 14-h fasting. To minimize
84 possible interference due to differences among cows used in the different
85 experiments, the variation in BW and BCS was scaled according to the following
86 equations:

$$87 \quad \text{VBW}_r = \frac{(\text{FBW} - \text{IBW})}{\text{IBW}} \quad [1]$$

$$88 \quad \text{VBCS}_r = \frac{(\text{FBCS} - \text{IBCS})}{\text{IBCS}} \quad [2]$$

89 where VBW_r is the variation of BW scaled to initial BW, FBW is the final BW (kg),
90 IBW is the initial BW (kg), VBCS_r is the variation of BCS scaled to initial BCS,
91 FBCS is the final BCS, and IBCS is the initial BCS.

92 To estimate the average milk yield, two to three milkings were performed in
93 each experiment during the supplementation. Cows were separated from their calves
94 at 18h00. At 6h00 of the following day, cows were injected with 2-mL of oxytocin
95 (10 IU/mL; Ocitovet®, Brazil) in the mammary artery and immediately milked. The

96 exact time when each cow was milked was recorded, and the milk produced was
97 proportionally converted into a 24-h based production. Milk samples were analyzed
98 with regard fat content using infrared spectroscopy (Foss MilkoScan FT120,
99 Hillerød, Denmark). The milk produced was corrected to 4 % of fat (FCM) according
100 to NRC (2001):

$$101 \quad \text{FCM} = 0.4 \times \text{milk yield (kg/d)} + 15 \times \text{fat yield (kg/d)} \quad [3]$$

102 A summary of the dataset on calves' and cows' performance is shown in
103 Tables 1 and 2, respectively.

104

105 Statistical analysis

106 The data was analyzed according to meta-analysis techniques (St-Pierre,
107 2001; Van Houwelingen et al., 2002) using the MIXED procedures of SAS 9.4. The
108 basic model included the fixed effects of calves' supplementation (with or without
109 supplementation), genetic group of the cow (Nellore or crossbred), sex of the calves
110 (male or female), and their interactions. The random effect of the different
111 experiments was considered in the parameters estimation. The best (co)variance
112 structures were evaluated using the corrected Akaike's information criterion and the
113 degrees of freedom were estimated according to the Kenward-Roger method. All
114 variance components were estimated using the restricted maximum likelihood
115 method and the statistical evaluations were performed using 0.05 as the critical level
116 for the probability of type I error.

117

118

119 **Results**

120 Calves' supplementation ($P \geq 0.59$) and sex ($P \geq 0.48$) did not affect the FCM
121 yield of the cows (Table 3). Average FCM yield was 6.71 and 6.83 kg/d for the cows
122 that had their calves supplemented and no supplemented, respectively. However,
123 there was an effect ($P < 0.0001$) of genetic group of cows on milk yield. Average
124 FCM yield was 7.37 and 6.17 kg/d for crossbred and Nellore cows, respectively
125 (Table 4).

126 There was no effect ($P \geq 0.11$) of calves' supplementation on VBWr of the
127 cows (Table 3). Average VBWr was 0.047 and 0.035 for the cows that had their
128 calves supplemented and no supplemented, respectively (Table 4). Similarly, there
129 was no effect of the genetic group ($P \geq 0.36$) of the cows and calf' sex ($P \geq 0.13$) on
130 VBWr (Table 3).

131 There was no effect ($P \geq 0.23$) of calves' supplementation, genetic group of
132 the cows and calf' sex on VBCSr of the cows (Table 3). Average VBCSr was 0.023
133 and 0.021 for cows that had their calves supplemented and no supplemented,
134 respectively (Table 4).

135 No interaction was detected ($P \geq 0.09$) in this study (Table 3).

136

137 **Discussion**

138 According to Vargas Junior et al. (2011), milk yield would be increased as the
139 calf searching for milk would stimulate the mammary gland. On the other hand, solid
140 intake by the calf is negatively correlated with milk yield (Henriques et al., 2011).
141 Thus, supplementation of calves would, in theory, decrease milk yield of cows due to
142 a decreased suckling stimulation (Fordyce et al., 1996).

143 However, according to the present study, calves' supplementation did not
144 affect milk yield of the cows. Similarly, other studies (Gelvin et al., 2004; Barros et
145 al, 2014) also did not find differences for milk yield in beef cows due to calves'
146 supplementation. Thus, it seems that calves' supplementation does not change the
147 suckling behavior of calves, and consequently would not affect milk yield.

148 In fact, several authors in the tropics have not found a decrease in milk intake
149 due to the creep feeding. Valente et al. (2013) evaluated the behavior of beef calves
150 supplemented with different protein-to-carbohydrate ratios during suckling phase and
151 did not observe differences in time and frequency of suckling between supplemented
152 and not supplemented calves. Consequently, these authors did not observe difference
153 in milk yield of cows. Similarly, Lopes (2015), evaluating the effect of increasing the
154 amount of supplement (0, 3, 6, or 9 g/kg BW) for beef calves from 3 to 8 months of
155 age, also did not observe any differences in suckling time and milk yield. The lack of
156 effect of creep feeding on the milk yield probably occurred because calves prefer
157 milk, supplement, and forage, in that order. Therefore, it seems unlikely that calves
158 replace milk by supplement. Thus, calves will usually increase supplement and
159 forage intake only after maximizing milk intake.

160 In fact, in both studies cited above, a decrease in grazing time was observed
161 with supplementation, which means there was the replacement of the forage by
162 supplement, supporting the lack of alteration on milk intake. Other authors (Barros et
163 al., 2014; Lopes et al., 2014; Cardenas et al., 2015) evaluated the effects of
164 supplementation of beef calves in tropical pastures on the intake, and observed that
165 there was no change in milk intake, although, forage intake was lower for
166 supplemented calves.

167 Differences on milk yield were observed with regards the genetic group of the
168 cows, where crossbred animals were more productive. Similarly, Oliveira et al.
169 (2007) and Valente et al. (2012) observed higher milk yield in crossbred cows
170 compared with Nellore cows. Generally, Nellore cows have been considered to
171 present lower potential for milk yield compared to European or crossbred animals.
172 Greater milk yield of crossbred cows may be explained by their greater genetic
173 potential for milk yield related to the effect of heterosis provided by crossbreeding
174 that uses European animals with higher potential for milk yield and lactation
175 persistence.

176 The influence of calf's sex on milk yield of beef cows has been reported in
177 some studies. However, the results seem to be contradictory sometimes. Cruz et al.
178 (1997) found higher milk yield for cows that were breastfeeding male calves. The
179 authors attributed this behavior to the higher suckling by the male calf due to its
180 greater demand for nutrients, thus stimulating the milk yield of their dams. On the
181 other hand, Spasadin et al. (2001) evaluated milk yield and suckling behavior in five
182 beef cattle production systems and did not find any effect of calf's sex on the
183 suckling time and milk yield. A similar behavior was also reported by Fagundes et al.
184 (2004). Similarly, in this study, no influence was observed for calf's sex on milk
185 yield of their dams.

186 Suckling frequency influences milk yield and body condition of dams (Kress
187 et al., 1990). Thus, a higher amount of suckling could increase milk yield in response
188 to stimulation and, consequently, it could lead to higher mobilization of reserves and
189 decrease BCS of the cow. On the other hand, as calf grows up, it increases its ability
190 to eat solid feed while milk intake decreases, so that supplementation could reduce

191 its dependence in relation to cow production, resulting in lower variation in BCS of
192 the cow.

193 However, differences in VBWr were not observed as a consequence of the
194 calves' supplementation. It was observed for all experiments that there was an
195 increase on body weight of calves at weaning with adoption of creep feeding.
196 However, there were no favorable results on cows when adopting the
197 supplementation of their offspring.

198 The absence of effect of calves' supplementation on cow BW and BCS
199 variations may be associated with the lack of difference in milk yield due to the
200 calves' supplementation as discussed previously. It must be emphasized that
201 environmental conditions were the same for all animals and differences should be
202 focused only on the supplementation of calves. Other authors (Duarte, 2007; Valente
203 et al., 2012) evaluated the effects of supplementation of beef calves in tropical
204 pastures from 3 to 8 months of age on BW and BCS of their dams, and also reported
205 none difference caused by calves' supplementation.

206 However, Oliveira et al. (2006) highlighted that the evaluation of BCS would
207 be more efficient than BW, because it would be more able to indicate variation the
208 accumulation of body reserves than a direct measurement of BW variation.
209 Variations in BW could still occur due to variations in rumen fill, physiological
210 condition associated to pregnancy, calving, and tissue hydration, instead of to
211 represent consistent changes in the body as fat and protein contents.

212 Similarly to VBWr, there was no effect of calves' supplementation on
213 VBBSr. Overall, results of the present study shown that other factors such as the
214 availability and quality of forage, or even supplementation of cows, seem to be more

215 related to possible changes in BW and BCS than adoption of supplementation
216 strategy of the offspring.

217

218 **Conclusions**

219 Supplementation of beef calves using creep feeding systems in tropical
220 pastures does not affect milk yield, performance and body condition of their dams.

221

222 **Acknowledgment**

223 The authors wish to thank the Instituto Nacional de Ciência e Tecnologia de
224 Ciência Animal (INCT-CA), Fundação de Amparo à Pesquisa de Minas Gerais
225 (FAPEMIG), and Conselho Nacional de Desenvolvimento Científico e Tecnológico
226 (CNPq, Brazil) for financial support.

227

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336

337 **Tables**

338

339 **Table 1** Summary of the data of experiments used in this study

Study ^a	Experimental period (d)	Calf sex	ASI ^c (g)	ADG ^d	
				NS	SUP
Paula et al. (2012)	112	Male	583	662	728
Valente et al. (2013)	112	Male	530	608	804
Barros et al. (2014)	112	Female	500	687	769
Lopes et al. (2014)	140	Male	900	727	880
Cardenas et al. (2015)	140	Female	500	619	677
Barros et al. (2015)	140	Male	850	731	843
Marquez et al. (2014)	150	Female	450	628	677
Lopes et al. (2014)	140	Male	1200	720	873
Lima (2014)	112	Male/Female	700	511	631
Almeida (2015) ^d	140	Female	800	642	732
Martins (2015) ^d	140	Male	1600	500	900

340 ^aProcessed data; to access individualized data consult the references.

341 ^bASI = average supplement intake in supplemented animals (as-fed).

342 ^cADG = average daily gain (g) , NS = calves received only mineral mixture; or SUP = Calves
 343 received multiple supplements in creep feeding system

344 ^d Unpublished data.

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346

347 **Table 2** Descriptive statistics of database utilized to access the effects of beef calves'
 348 supplementation on beef cows performance

Item ^a	Mean	Minimum	Maximum	SD ^b	n ^c
Overall dataset					
IBCS	4.44	2.40	6.80	0.82	468
VBCS	0.11	-1.80	1.70	0.56	468
VBCSr	0.037	-0.300	0.538	0.136	468
IBW, kg	444	311	620	58.53	485
VBW, kg	18.82	-77.00	110.00	20.60	485
VBWr	0.044	-0.161	0.277	0.047	485
Milk yield, kg/d	6.18	1.10	11.80	1.90	477
FCM, kg/d	6.78	0.70	13.70	2.09	477
Without creep feeding					
IBCS	4.50	2.60	6.50	0.87	105
VBCS	0.06	-1.80	1.60	0.63	105
VBCSr	0.028	-0.300	0.524	0.151	105
IBW, kg	439	312	595	62.70	109
VBW, kg	14.10	-77.00	63.00	21.74	109
VBWr	0.034	-0.161	0.159	0.050	109
Milk yield, kg/d	6.04	1.90	11.80	1.82	104
FCM, kg/d	6.73	1.70	11.20	1.95	104
With creep feeding					
IBCS	4.41	2.40	6.80	0.80	363
VBCS	0.13	-1.50	1.70	0.53	363
VBCSr	0.040	-0.222	0.531	0.129	363
IBW, kg	445	311	620	57.26	376
VBW, kg	20.19	-60.00	110.00	57.32	376
VBWr	0.047	-0.107	0.278	0.047	376
Milk yield, kg/d	6.23	1.10	11.60	1.93	373
FCM, kg/d	6.80	0.70	13.70	2.13	373

349 ^a/IBCS = initial BCS; VBCS = variation of BCS during experimental period; VBCSr = variation of
 350 BCS scaled to initial BCS (see Equation 2); IBW = initial BW; VBW = variation of BW during
 351 experimental period; VBWr = variation of BW scaled to initial BW (see Equation 1); FCM = 4 % fat-
 352 corrected milk yield

353 ^b/Standard deviation

354 ^c/number of observations

355

356 **Table 3** Descriptive level of probability for type I error for the fixed effects of the
 357 calves' supplementation (SUP), cows' genetic group (GG), calf' sex (SEXC), and
 358 their interactions on cows' performance

Effect	Variable ^a		
	VBCSr	VBWr	FCM, kg/d
SUP	0.89	0.11	0.59
GG	0.42	0.36	<0.0001
SEXC	0.23	0.13	0.48
SUPxGG	0.19	0.40	0.72
SUPxSEXC	0.09	0.93	0.46
GGxSEXC	0.92	0.46	0.87
SUPxGGxSEXC	0.76	0.33	0.31

359 ^a/VBCSr = variation of BCS scaled to initial BCS (see Equation 2); VBWr = variation of BW scaled
 360 to initial BW (see Equation 1); FCM = FCM = 4 % fat-corrected milk

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362

363 **Table 4** Least square means for the variables associated with cows' performance
 364 according to the effects of the calves' supplementation (SUP), cows' genetic group
 365 (GG), calves' sex (SEXC), and their interactions on cows' performance

SUP ^b	GG ^c	SEXC ^d	Variable ^a		
			VBCSr	VBWr	FCM
-	C	F	0.058±0.052	0.048±0.014	7.88±0.64
+	C	F	0.056±0.048	0.061±0.011	7.33±0.55
-	C	M	-0.039±0.043	0.021±0.011	7.06±0.54
+	C	M	-0.004±0.040	0.042±0.009	7.23±0.45
-	N	F	0.084±0.050	0.040±0.012	6.45±0.60
+	N	F	0.046±0.046	0.054±0.010	6.42±0.53
-	N	M	-0.017±0.042	0.028±0.011	5.94±0.51
+	N	M	-0.006±0.041	0.032±0.009	5.87±0.45

366 ^a/VBCSr = variation of BCS scaled to initial BCS (see Equation 2); VBWr = variation of BW scaled
 367 to initial BW (see Equation 1); FCM = 4 % fat-corrected milk yield

368 ^b/“-“ SUP = not supplemented calves, and “+” = supplemented calves

369 ^c/C = crossbred cows; and Nellore cows

370 ^d/ F = female and M = male

371