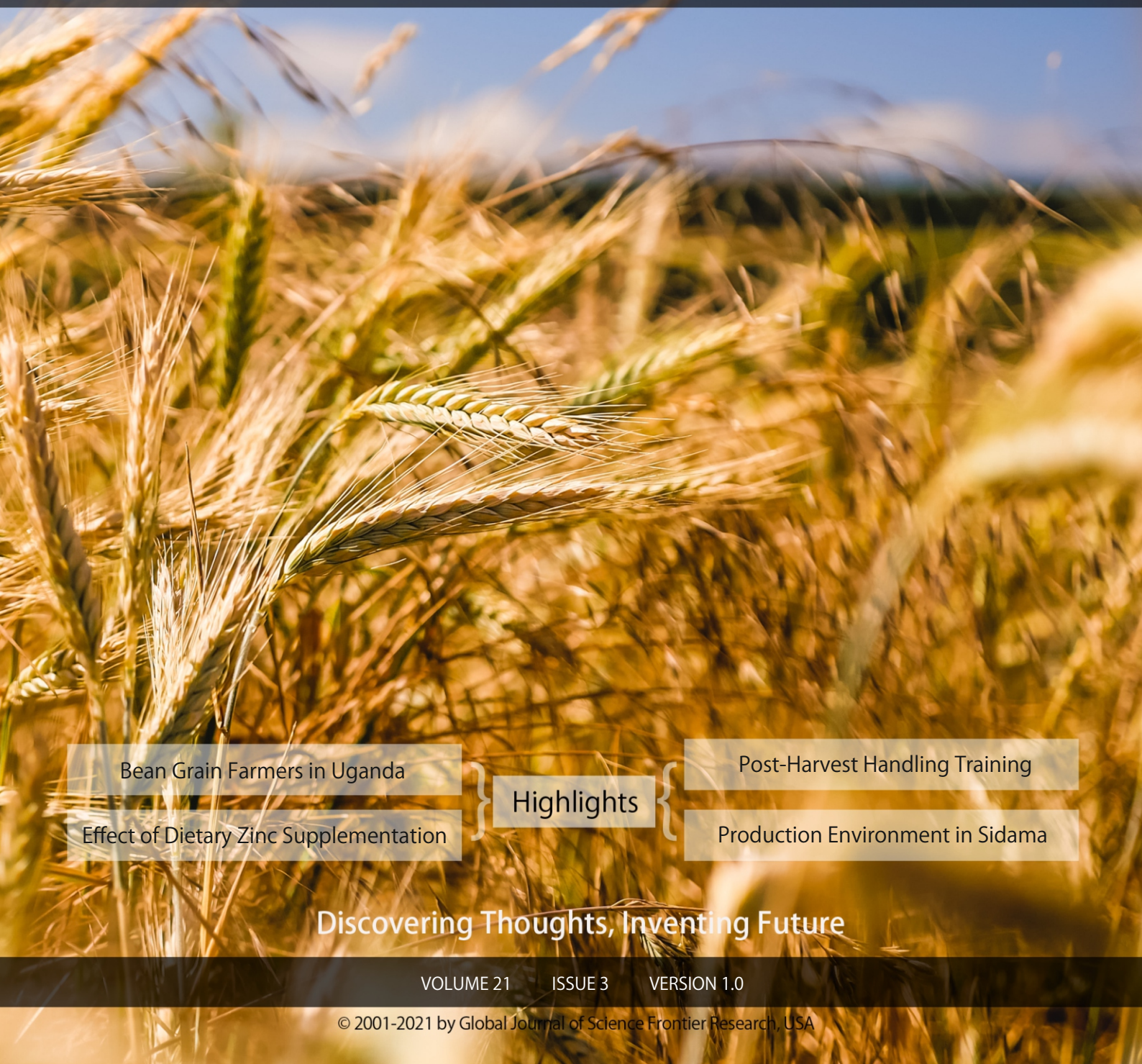


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# Faisabilité De La Culture Du Sorgho Pluvial En Contre Saison Dans Un Systeme D'irrigation Goutte A Goutte En Zone Soudano Sahelienne Du Cameroun

By Philippe Kosma, Yakouba Oumarou, Lando Manfouo  
& Kamgang Ndada Alex

*Université de Maroua*

**Abstract-** Sorghum is a strategically important commodity for food security in Cameroon and several African countries. However, the yields remain low because of several constraints among which the variability of the climatic conditions. With the aim of contributing to the improvement of sorghum production, the present study was conducted to evaluate the growth and yield performance of 03 varieties of rain-fed sorghum grown in a dry-weather system in the Sudano sahelian zone.: Maroua-Cameroon. For this purpose a completely randomized block device has been adopted. The parameters of growth, flowering and yield were recorded and analyzed. The results of the analysis show that the three varieties flowered heterogeneously.

**Keywords:** *sorghum bicolor, dry season, irrigation, maroua.*

**GJSFR-D Classification:** FOR Code: 070199



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# Faisabilité De La Culture Du Sorgho Pluvial En Contre Saison Dans Un Système D'Irrigation Goutte À Goutte En Zone Soudano Sahélienne Du Cameroun

Philippe Kosma<sup>α</sup>, Yakouba Oumarou<sup>σ</sup>, Lando Manfouo<sup>ρ</sup> & Kamgang Ndada Alex<sup>ω</sup>

**Abstract-** Sorghum is a strategically important commodity for food security in Cameroon and several African countries. However, the yields remain low because of several constraints among which the variability of the climatic conditions. With the aim of contributing to the improvement of sorghum production, the present study was conducted to evaluate the growth and yield performance of 03 varieties of rain-fed sorghum grown in a dry-weather system in the Sudano sahelian zone.: Maroua-Cameroon. For this purpose a completely randomized block device has been adopted. The parameters of growth, flowering and yield were recorded and analyzed. The results of the analysis show that the three varieties flowered heterogeneously. Zouaye, which started flowering very early and reaches 50% flowering at 57 JAS behaves like an early variety in front of the S 35 and CS 54 which would be late varieties in off-season. In addition, the analysis of growth parameters including stem height (P-value <0.0055x 10-16), collar diameter (P-value <3.667x 10-16) and the number of tillers (p -value <2.16), shows that there is a highly significant difference (p <0.01) for these parameters. Regarding the yield parameters for panicle length and girth characters, the CS 54 variety records the highest score (28.47 cm and 17.34 cm) while S 35 has the best 1000 grain weight. The variety with the smallest length and panicle circumference gives the lowest yield (2.86 / ha for Zouaye) while the one with higher stem height and leaf length gives the highest yield (3, 35 t / ha) which corresponds to the CS 54. An observation makes the results of analysis of the yield variables shows that the three varieties can be produced in this system drip despite the effects of the off-season. Zouaye can be recommended as forage sorghum because of its high tillering performance; CS 54 would be indicated to increase grain sorghum production in the off-season in the Sudano-sahelian zone.

**Keywords:** *sorghum bicolor, dry season, irrigation, maroua.*

**Résumé-** Le sorgho est une denrée d'importance stratégique pour la sécurité alimentaire au Cameroun et dans plusieurs pays d'Afrique. Cependant, les rendements demeurent faibles à causes de plusieurs contraintes parmi lesquelles les variabilités des conditions climatiques. Dans le but de contribuer à l'amélioration de la production du sorgho, la présente étude a été conduite pour évaluer les performances de croissance et de rendement de 03 variétés de sorgho pluviale cultivées dans un système goutte à goutte en contre

saison en zone soudano sahélienne du Cameroun. A cet effet, un dispositif en bloc complètement randomisé a été adopté. Les paramètres de croissance, de floraison et de rendement ont été relevés et analysés. L'analyse des paramètres de croissance notamment la hauteur des tiges (P-value <0,0055x 10-16), le diamètre au collet (P-value < 3,667x 10-16) et le nombre de talle (p-value <2,16), montre qu'il existe une différence hautement significative (p<0,01) pour ces paramètres. De plus Les résultats de l'analyse montrent que les trois variétés ont fleuri de manière hétérogène. La variété Zouaye qui a débuté sa floraison très tôt et atteint les 50% de floraison à 57 JAS se comporte comme une variété précoce devant les variétés S 35 et CS 54 qui seraient des variétés tardives en contre saison. En ce qui concerne les paramètres de rendement pour les caractères longueur et circonférence de la panicule, la variété CS 54 enregistre le score le plus élevé (28,47 cm et 17,34 cm) tandis que S 35 présente le meilleur poids de 1000 grains. La variété ayant la plus faible longueur et circonférence de panicule donne le rendement le plus faible (2,86/ha pour la Zouaye) tandis que celle ayant une hauteur de tige et une longueur de feuille plus élevée donne le plus haut rendement (3,35 t/ha) qui correspond à la CS 54. Un constat fait des résultats d'analyse des variables de rendement montre que les trois variétés peuvent être produites dans ce système goutte à goutte malgré les effets de la contre saison. La variété Zouaye peut être recommandées comme sorgho fourrage vue sa performance élevée au tallage; CS 54 serait indiquée pour augmenter la production en sorgho grains en contre saison dans la zone soudano sahélienne.

**Mots clés:** *sorghum bicolor, contre saison, irrigation, maroua.*

## I. INTRODUCTION

Le sorgho (*Sorghum bicolor*) est une plante moins exigeante en eau et en éléments minéraux par rapport aux autres céréales. C'est une plante bien adaptée aux zones semis aride peu fertiles (Nekeuam, 1983). En raison de sa capacité à résister à la sécheresse, même dans les zones où le nombre de jours de pluie est inférieur à 60 par an (Dembele, 2009), elle a de beau jour dans Sahel.

La tendance à l'amélioration de la production dans chacune des filières agricole sera accentuée au Cameroun au cours des campagnes 2017 et 2018, puisque les prévisions de décembre 2016 montraient

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que grâce aux actions du Projet d'Investissement et de Développement des Marchés Agricoles (PIDMA), les rendements ont évolué (Adminon, 2017). Des améliorations des rendements sont aussi attendues dans la filière sorgho. Le PIDMA à travers ses objectifs vise à accroître la production du maïs, du sorgho et du manioc au Cameroun afin d'approvisionner les industries agro-alimentaires engagées dans les processus de réduction de leurs importations de matières premières. Ce projet agricole intéressant est une aubaine pour les agro-industries telles que Guinness Cameroun, filiale du brasseur Diageo, ou encore Nestlé Cameroun; avec lesquelles le PIDMA a déjà signé des conventions d'approvisionnement en matières premières. Selon le PIDMA, 2016 les besoins en céréales sont de: 200000 tonnes de maïs, 30000 tonnes de sorgho et 1,4 million de tonnes de racines fraîches de manioc afin de satisfaire la demande. Les besoins de Guinness Cameroun sont évalués à hauteur de 10000 tonnes par an. Or en 2016, seulement 5469 tonnes de sorgho ont été livrés (Adminon, 2017). Les producteurs de sorgho, regroupés en coopératives ont reçu la somme de 1,057 milliard FCFA dans le but d'augmenter la production nationale afin de réduire l'importation de sorgho, une matière première qui rentre dans la production de la bière (Adminon, 2017). Le gouvernement camerounais à travers ses différents centres de recherche (IRAD, CIRAD), partenaires privé (Guinness) et projet (projet C2D-sorgho) vise une amélioration de la filière afin de valoriser les méthodes de production intensive du sorgho et de ses dérivées en zone semi-aride du Cameroun. C'est dans cette même perspective que s'inscrit l'étude sur la faisabilité de la culture du sorgho pluvial en contre saison dans un système d'irrigation goutte à goutte en zone soudano sahélienne du Cameroun.

## II. PROBLÉMATIQUE

Au Nord Cameroun, le contexte régional est caractérisé par des perturbations climatique et un accroissement rapide de la population qui a pour corollaire l'augmentation des besoins viviers et la diversification des besoins économiques (Mathieu 2005). Vu les effets du réchauffement climatiques sur le régime hydrique (baisse) accentué par la variabilité interannuelle et spatiale des précipitations (Somé, 1996; Bationo et Buerkert, 2001), il est très impératif de s'interroger sur les techniques de production capable d'assurer une meilleure production de sorgho le long de l'année afin de satisfaire au besoin de croissant du marché national et international du sorgho. Des études menées par des chercheurs et des projets sous la tutelle de l'IRAD à l'instar du projet C2D/PAR-SORGHO et le PIDMA sur la culture du sorgho ont montré avec succès que le sorgho possède dans son patrimoine génétique des gènes de résistances lui permettant de

s'adapter à des conditions climatiques défavorable à d'autres céréales comme le maïs. Cependant, malgré ses capacités d'adaptation génétiques, en culture le rendement moyen est inférieur à 1 t/ha (DGPSA/MAHRH, 2011). Dans un environnement marqué par le changement climatique, il serait donc nécessaire de mettre à la disposition des agriculteurs des variétés de sorgho performantes, tolérantes au stress hydrique et d'adopter de nouveau système de production plus efficient en eau afin de dégager une production cyclique du sorgho et par conséquent une augmentation des rendements.

## III. METHODOLOGIE

### a) Localisation du site d'étude

La présente étude a été menée dans la région de l'extrême nord Cameroun dans la structure Sahel Agro situé au quartier Kaliaore-Maroua, entre la société SOCODOTON et le Fond National de l'emploi (FNE). Par ailleurs, la ville de Maroua est située entre le 10°30' et 11° de latitude Nord et 14° et 14°30' de longitude Est. La ville de Maroua est également le chef-lieu département du Diamaré.

### b) Matériels

#### i. Matériels biologiques

Il est constitué de trois variétés de sorgho pluvial à savoir une variété locale épurée (Zouaye) et deux variétés lignées (CS-54 et S-35) achetées à IRAD-Maroua. Ces variétés ont été choisies pour leurs qualités intrinsèques à savoir la valeur nutritionnelle et le rendement et leurs valeurs extrinsèques à savoir la demande du marché (agro-industrie).

#### ii. Matériels techniques

Pour la mise en place de l'essai, les outils suivants ont été utilisés. Il s'agit de:

- Une machette pour le nettoyage du champ;
- houe pour le labour;
- piquets pour réaliser le piquetage de la parcelle;
- double décamètre pour le dimensionnement et la mise en place du dispositif;
- ficelle Pour assurer la précision lors du dimensionnement;
- crayon à mine, stylos à bille pour la prise des données;
- balance de précision pour effectuer les pesées des grains après récolte;
- un quick de pompage électrique pour pomper l'eau du sol;
- machettes faucilles, sacs, cuvettes, bâches et étiquettes pour effectuer la récolte.

### c) Méthodes

#### i. Dispositif expérimental

Le dispositif expérimental utilisé dans cette étude est un bloc de Fisher complètement randomisé avec trois traitements (Zouaye, S-35, CS-54) et trois

répétitions (blocs) comme le montre la figure 12. L'allocation des traitements aux unités expérimentales a été faite de manière aléatoire. Entre les parcelles élémentaires se trouvent les allées de 1m de largeur et entre les blocs les allées de 6m de longueur. Chaque unité Expérimentale mesure 15 m<sup>2</sup> soit 5m x 3m et comportant 5 lignes de 10 poquets et un plant par poquet, soit 50 plants par unité expérimentale, 150 plantes par bloc et pour les 3 variétés et 450 plants au total.

#### ii. Collecte des données

##### *Paramètres de croissance*

Les caractères morphologiques mesurés sont:

- Hauteur de la tige

La hauteur des plantes a été mesurée à l'aide d'un mètre ruban à 77 jours après semis et se poursuivant tous les sept jours. Sur chaque unité expérimentale, les dix plantes des poquets centraux ont fait l'objet de collecte des données. A l'aide d'une barre, posé sur sol, collé sur le long de la tige jusqu'à la feuille apicale la valeur de la hauteur du plant a été d'enregistré en centimètre.

- Longueur de la feuille

Mesurée sur les mêmes plantes que la taille, elle a été prise sur la deuxième feuille après la feuille apicale. Elle a été mesurée à partir de la gaine à l'extrémité de la feuille de chaque plante.

- Circonférence au collet

La circonférence au collet a été mesurée à l'aide du pied à coulisse gradué en centimètre, nous avons mesuré le diamètre de dix (10) plants par unité expérimentale. La prise des mesures concernant ce paramètre a débuté à la même période que la taille des plantes et s'est poursuivie tous les 7 jours, à l'aide d'une fiche de collecte.

- Nombre de talles

Le nombre de talle a été évalué par comptage à partir 30 JAS jusqu'à la floraison et s'effectuait tous les 7 jours sur 10 plants suivant un ordre préalablement choisi à l'aide des fiches de collecte préétablis.

##### *Paramètres de floraison*

- Date début floraison

C'est la date à laquelle la première fleur d'une plante de la parcelle est apparue (Nombre de JAS). Cela a été évalué par un comptage en circulant entre ligne de chaque parcelle et suivant les variétés.

- Date de 50% floraison

C'est la date à laquelle 50% des plantes de la parcelle ont fleuri. La prise des données a été faite tous les deux jours qui ont suivi le début de la floraison. Sur chaque parcelle le nombre de plant ayant fleuri était compté et enregistré tous les deux jours jusqu'à ce que la moitié du nombre de plant présent sur parcelle fleurisse.

- Date fin floraison

C'est la date à laquelle l'ensemble des plantes présent sur parcelle ont fleuri. Elle correspond au début de la montaison. Sur chaque parcelle le nombre de plant ayant achevé fleuraison était compté et enregistré tous les deux jours jusqu'à ce que l'ensemble des plants

##### *Paramètres de rendement*

- Longueur de la panicule

La longueur de la panicule a été mesurée après la maturité de la panicule. Elle a été prise à l'aide d'un mètre ruban sur les panicules des 10 plants préalablement choisie. C'est précisément la distance entre le nœud limitant la tige à la panicule et le dernier grain supérieur sur les mêmes plants que les autres paramétrés ont été pris.

- Circonférence de la panicule:

Sur les mêmes panicules que la longueur a été prise, la circonférence. A l'aide d'un mètre ruban la circonférence de la panicule a été mesuré.

- Poids de 1000 graines

Après un comptage manuel de 1000 graines, le poids de 1000 grains (PG) a été obtenu par pesée à l'aide de la balance électronique.

- Rendement en grain

Après récolte et battage des panicules récoltées sur chaque unité expérimentale le poids des grains a fait l'objet de mesure à l'aide d'une balance afin d'obtenir le rendement de chaque variétés.

##### *Analyse des données*

Les données collectées ont été saisies et mises en forme avec le logiciel Microsoft office Excel 2010. Ensuite elles ont été importées (séparateur: tabulation) dans le logiciel R version 3.3.1 pour analyse.

## IV. RESULTATS ET DISCUSSION

### a) *Evaluation des paramètres croissance des trois variétés de sorgho testées*

Le tableau 3 compare les valeurs moyennes des paramètres morphologiques des trois variétés de sorgho pluvial testées.



Tableau 1: Valeurs moyennes des paramètres morphologiques

| Variétés | Paramètres morphologiques |                         |                     |                             |
|----------|---------------------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-----------------------------|
|          | Hauteur de la tige (cm)   | Diamètre au collet (mm) | Nombres de talle    | Longueur de la feuille (cm) |
| CS 54    | 136,57±7,54 <sup>b</sup>  | 30,80±1,15 <sup>b</sup> | 1±0,49 <sup>c</sup> | 93,61±6,78 <sup>ab</sup>    |
| S 35     | 137,11±3,61 <sup>b</sup>  | 30,65±1,41 <sup>b</sup> | 2±0,83 <sup>b</sup> | 96,87±4,85 <sup>b</sup>     |
| ZOUAYE   | 122,01±7,12 <sup>a</sup>  | 27,75±1,52 <sup>a</sup> | 5±1,07 <sup>a</sup> | 93,21±3,92 <sup>a</sup>     |

Pour chaque paramètre, les valeurs suivies d'une même lettre ne sont pas significativement différentes au seuil de 5% (ANOVA).

Les résultats de l'ANOVA montrent que les variétés CS 54 et S 35 sont identiques pour les caractères hauteur de tige et diamètre au collet. Cependant pour le caractère longueur de la feuille, on note une différence entre la S 35 et la Zouaye mais une similitude d'une part entre la CS 54 et la Zouaye et d'autre part entre la CS 54 et la S 35. Le nombre de talle diffère significativement entre toutes ces variétés et c'est la variété Zouaye qui présente plus de talles.

Le tableau présente les différents P-value comparants les variétés pour chaque paramètre mesuré. La p-value perçu entre les variétés montre qu'il existe une différence hautement significative pour l'ensemble des caractères de croissance étudiés au seuil de 5%. Cela met en évidence une plus grande diversité des caractères de croissance entre les trois variétés testées. Bien plus elle témoigne de

l'hétérogénéité des variétés du point de vue phénotypique. Ces résultats corroborent celui obtenu en système pluvial à l'IRAD en 2016 qui enregistrait une différence hautement significative sur l'ensemble des paramètres de croissance pour ces mêmes variétés lors du test d'adaptabilité mené par Danbé (2016). De même, Chantereau, (1998) observe une différence significative du nombre de talle et diamètre au collet en culture de décrue sur différentes variétés de sorgho et explique cela par l'effet de la photopériode tandis Oudraogo *et al.*, (2009) qui a étudié la diversité agromorphologique des sorghos pluvial au burkina explique cela par un effet du tallage. Kaboui(2017) signale également une différence hautement significative pour ces paramètres lors de son étude sur l'effet du tallage sur les caractères agro morphologique de 12 accessions de de sorgho. Par contre Kouamé, (2011) en étudiant la diversité des sorghos cultivés en système pluvial en côte d'ivoire n'observe de différence significative pour le nombre de talle.

Tableau 2: Valeurs de P-value de l'effet des différents paramètres morphologiques testés

| Paramètres mesurés     | Source de variation |               |                            |
|------------------------|---------------------|---------------|----------------------------|
|                        | Effet variété       | Effet bloc    | Interaction Variété x bloc |
| Taille des plants      | < 2.2e-16 ***       | 0.0001198 *** | 0.0094012 **               |
| Diamètre au collet     | <3.677e-14 ***      | 0.6348        | 0.5253                     |
| Longueur de la feuille | <0.0005234 ***      | 8.830e-12 *** | 2.394e-06 ***              |
| Nombre de talles       | <2e-16 ***          | 0.1250        | 0.8244                     |

b) Poids de 1000 grains (PG)

La figure 18 présente les valeurs moyennes du poids de 1000 grains des différentes variétés de sorgho testées.

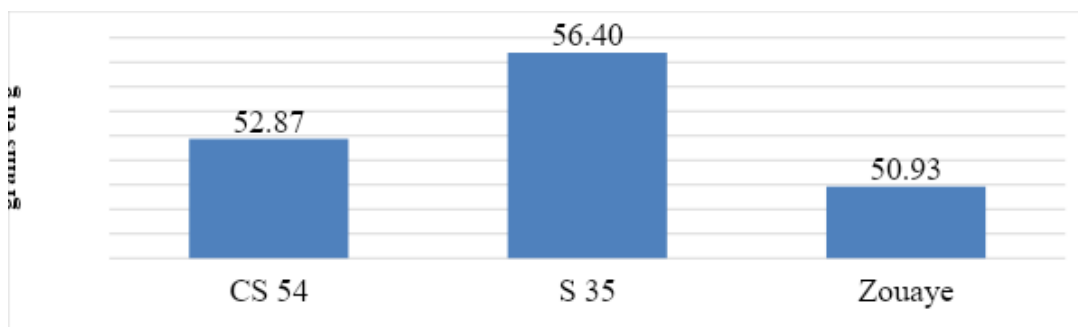


Figure 1: Variation du poids de 1000 grains

Le poids moyen de 1000 grains le plus grand est obtenu chez la variété S 35 avec une valeur de 56,40g et le poids moyen le plus petit est obtenu chez la Zouaye avec une valeur de 50,93 g qui est légèrement inférieur à celui de la CS 54 qui est de 52,87g. L'analyse de variance au seuil de 5% du poids de 1000 grains montre qu'il n'existe pas de différence significative entre ces variétés en ce qui concerne le poids de 1000 grains. Ces résultats ne concordent pas avec celui de HIEMA (2005) qui a obtenu une différence significative

en étudiant les paramètres agro morphologique des sorghos de décrue en saison pluviale au Burkina en système de décrue. De même FITA (2015) dans ces travaux sur cette même variété en système pluvial obtient une différence significative pour ce paramètre.

#### c) *Evaluation du rendement des trois variétés de sorgho testées*

La figure 19 présente la valeur moyenne du rendement des différentes variétés à testées.

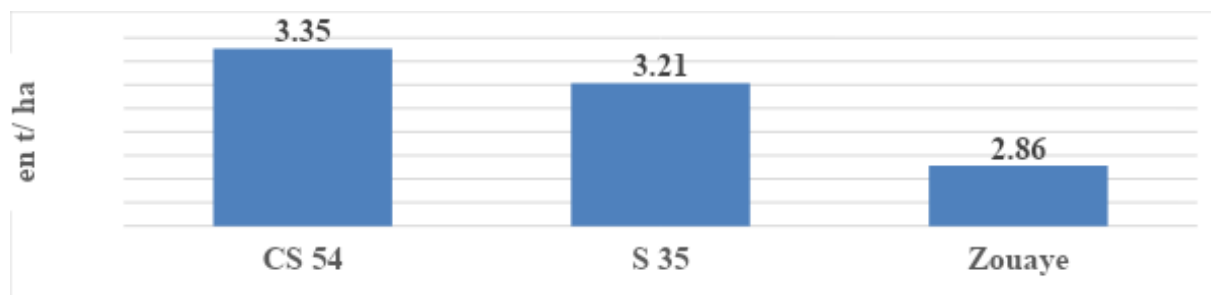


Figure 2: Variation du rendement des variétés de sorgho

La Zouaye a le plus petit rendement moyen avec une valeur de 2,86 t/ha suivie de la S 35 avec une valeur de 3,21 t/ha et de la CS 54 qui a le plus haut rendement moyen avec une valeur de 3,35 t/ha. Cependant, l'analyse de variance au seuil de 5% montre qu'il n'existe pas de différence significative entre le rendement des 3 variétés testées. Ce résultat n'est conforme à celui obtenu par Danbé (2017) qui note différence hautement significative lors de l'étude portant sur l'impact de la variabilité de la pluviométrie sur ces variétés de sorgho en système pluvial. Une différence notoire est également obtenue par Fita (2015) en évaluant les effets des cendres de neem sur les paramètres morphologiques de ces mêmes variétés en condition pluvial qui donne un rendement de 4,5 t/ha pour la S 35, 4 t/ha pour la CS 54 et la Zouaye. Cette variation serait due à l'effet de la contre saison sur ces variétés.

## V. CONCLUSION

dans cette étude, il était question de: L'objectif poursuivi à travers cet essai était d'évaluer les comportements agro morphologiques de 3 variétés sorgho pluvial en contre saison dans un système d'irrigation goutte à goutte en zone soudano sahélienne du Cameroun afin de mettre à la disposition des producteurs et consommateurs une gamme de variétés productives et tolérantes aux différents aléas climatiques. L'analyse de variance et en composante principale nous a permis de dégager les résultats selon lesquelles les variétés de sorgho testées réagissent de manière différentes dans ce système de culture tant au niveau des paramètres de croissances tels que la taille, la longueur de la feuille, le nombre de talle et la circonférence au collet que sur les paramètres de

rendement (la floraison, la circonférence et la taille de la panicule et le rendement grain). Ainsi au niveau de la floraison nous avons identifié la Zouaye comme variété précoce avec un cycle semis-50%floraison de 57 jours. De plus les résultats des paramètres de croissance (la hauteur des tiges, le diamètre des tiges, la longueur de la feuille et le nombre) ont montré des différences hautement significatives au seuil de 5% entre les variétés. Au niveau des paramètres de rendement, (Poids de 1000 grains) la S 35 a enregistré le meilleur poids (56,4 g). La CS 54 possède la plus grande longueur et circonférence de la panicule soit respectivement de 17,35 cm et 28,47 cm et par conséquent le plus haut rendement soit de 3,35 t/ha.

De cette présente étude, on peut conclure que les caractères morphologiques observés ont permis d'évaluer les performances agronomiques des différentes variétés étudiés dans la zone. La variété S 35 montre qu'elle peut être bien cultivée en saison de pluie qu'en saison sèche en zone soudano-sahélienne.

Dans le souci d'améliorer les rendements et de répondre à la demande croissante des ménages et des agro-industries, le score réalisé par la variété CS 54 et la variété S-35 montre que celles-ci peuvent être intégrées dans un programme d'évaluation approfondie afin de les vulgariser dans un programme de vulgarisation en contre saison ou en irrigation.

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# On-Farm Phenotypic Characterization of Indigenous Cattle in its Production Environment in Sidama, Ethiopia

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**Keywords:** agroecology, indigenous cattle, linear body measurement.

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# On-Farm Phenotypic Characterization of Indigenous Cattle in its Production Environment in Sidama, Ethiopia

Debir Legesse Belay<sup>α</sup> & Bereket Zeleke<sup>ο</sup>

**Abstract-** This study was conducted to phenotypically characterize the local cattle population under farmers' management conditions. Field studies and collection of data carried out through household survey, focus group discussions, and linear body measurements of sample cattle. A total of 180 households were randomly selected for household interview and 345 cattle were sampled for morphological characterization. Indigenous cattle have variable coat color types, and the most dominant were plain (56.7%), patchy (31.2%), and spotted (11.6%). The frequently observed coat color types are light red, dark red, and black. Body measurements of indigenous cattle are significantly ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) affected by sex and location and, found to be higher in male animals and hotter environments. In male cattle between HG and BL, the linear body measurements show a strong positive correlation ( $r=0.71$ ). Average daily milk yield, lactation yield, and lactation length were significantly ( $P \leq 0.01$ ) higher in highlands areas. Age at first calving (53 months) was also shorter in highland. The criteria used for the selection of breeding animals by the community are high milk yield, fertility, and body size. Phenotypic results of the highland cattle populations varied from the midland and lowland location and, therefore, to put specific characteristics' of the cattle type, further molecular characterization, and productivity evaluation is needed.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Ethiopia is known as a home to diverse cattle genetic resources that are adapted to and distributed in different agro-ecological zones of the country. The current livestock populations are estimated at a 59.5 million, 30.7 million sheep, and 30.2 million goats. The majority of these cattle (98.2%) are local breeds that are kept under a low input system (CSA, 2017). Among the livestock species, cattle have significant contributions to the livelihood of the farmers such as draught power, milk, meat, manure, cash income, social, and cultural values of the society. Indigenous livestock breeds in Ethiopia are a valuable source of genetic material because of their adaptation to harsh climatic conditions, their ability to utilize better the limited, and poor-quality feed resources, and their

tolerance to a range of diseases found in these regions (Tadesse et al., 2014). Livestock contributes to about 30 percent of the agricultural gross domestic product in developing countries, with a projected increase of about 40 percent by 2030. This requires more efficient animal production systems, careful husbandry of natural resources, and measures to reduce waste, and environmental pollution (FAO, 2011).

The Domestic Animal Genetic Resources Information System (DAGRIS, 2007) database summarized 32 recognized indigenous cattle breeds in Ethiopia. Understanding the diversity, distribution, basic characteristics, comparative performance, and the current status of a country's animal genetics resources is essential for efficient, and sustainable use, development, and conservation (FAO, 2007). It is difficult to design appropriate breeding programs for breeds that have not been adequately characterized either phenotypic/or genetically (Mwacharo et al., 2006).

Despite the significant contribution of livestock to the country, little attention is given to identify, characterize and conserve the diversity of the various classes of livestock (DAGRIS, 2009). The exploratory characterization approach is an important confirmatory or advanced characterization in breed identification and classification in ways that farming communities can relate (FAO, 2012).

Morphological descriptions are used to evaluate breeding goals, to assess the type, and function and to estimate the animals' value as potential breeding stock (Solomon, 2010; FAO, 2012). To ensure proper conservation and utilization of indigenous animals, it is necessary to evaluate phenotypic and genetic variation that exists within and among breeds. A large proportion of indigenous cattle in developing countries have yet to be characterized or evaluated at phenotypic and genetic levels (Hannotte, 2005). It is undertaken as a measure of genetic diversity between distinctly defined populations to understand the extent, distribution, characteristics, production and reproduction performance, utility value, and current status of the breed (Workneh et al., 2004).

Although the indigenous cattle population plays a leading role in the sustainability of livelihoods for its owners, there is no published information concerning the characteristics of this cattle type. As a result, the study was mainly focused on finding out basic

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information on the origin, ecology, physical and production characteristics, preferable traits of the indigenous cattle populations in Sidama.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### a) Description of the study area

The study was carried out from January to June 2017 in three agroecological zones (from highland Hulla, midland Shebedino, and lowland Loka Abayaworeda) of Sidama zone. Geographically Sidama zone is situated between the coordinate of 50 45'' and 60 45'' N latitude and 38 39'' and 39 39'' E with an altitude range of 1100 to 3500 meters above sea level. The rainfall pattern of the Sidama is a bimodal type. It has diverse agroecology classified as highlands, midlands, and semi-dry lowlands covering 30%, 60%, and 10%, respectively. The farming system is characterized as mixed crop and livestock farming and endowed with different livestock resources such as cattle, small ruminants, equines, poultry, and honeybee.

### b) Sampling techniques and data collection

From each woreda, three rural kebeles which are known to keep typical and having a higher population density of indigenous cattle were purposely selected. At the same time, a random sampling technique was employed to select sample respondents. Primary data was collected using in-depth interviews and group discussions. About 180 households were randomly selected for a household interview to collect data on cattle performance, breeding practices, selection criteria, and 345 mature cattle (300 female and 45 male) sampled for morphological characterization.

### c) Data analysis

Data were statistically analyzed using Software Package for Social Science (SPSS). Quantitative data were analyzed using the General Linear Model Procedure (univariate and non-parametric tests, chi square/ $\chi^2$ ). An index method is used to calculate the overall rank. The index is the sum of (3 times first-order + 2 times second-order + 1 times third-order) for individual variables divided by the sum of (3 times first-order + 2 times second-order + 1 times third-order) for all variables. The relationship between linear body measurement traits was estimated by simple correlation using the Pearson correlation method. The variation between groups was considered significant when the P-value was less than 0.05.

parents, indigenous Sidama cattle origin in the neighboring highland area of Arsi-Bale area and they were brought and reared over here by their ancestors before many years while midland and lowland cattle type they tend to associate origin with that of the ethnic group of Sidama. In all these places, indigenous cattle are used for multipurpose production functions (milk, beef, manure) and services (social value, savings). Indigenous cattle are small to medium size; both have well-developed humps, forward curved short-horned, long tail, and pigment muzzle. Earlier report Rege and Tawah (1999), indicated that cattle in Sidama is classified into Abyssinian short-horned Zebu (Ethiopian Highland Zebu) and descended from the recent introductions of zebu into Africa from West Asia, and probably developed from a group of small shorthorn Abyssinian Zebu by the highland Oromo people (DAGRIS, 2006).

The coat color patterns of indigenous cattle are variable and the most commonly observed coat color was plain (56.7%), Paid (31.2%), and spotted with different color combinations (11.6%) (Table1). The current finding of coat color pattern is somewhat comparable in Mursi cattle plain (52.0%), (paid, 36.0%), and spotted (12.0%) (Terefe et al., 2012). Cattle in midland location majority of their coat color pattern are uniform (dark red 27.8% followed by light red 24.3% and white and red paid (13.9%). The result further indicated the lowland cattle types' coat color patterns were light red (29.6%), dark red (20%), and whitish shiny (12.1%). Indigenous cattle in highland were black with white face (35.7%), black (28.7%), black and white paid (11.3%). The highland cattle coat color pattern was compatible with the result of Chali (2014) indicated that due to natural and artificial selection, black coat color type is dominating. Similarly, coat color is one of the means for cattle identification in both study locations. Similarly, coat color is used for the identification of cattle in most pastoral communities (FAO, 2009). In this regard, the study made by Tekele (2005) explained that preferred coat color patterns by the Sheko community are red, patchy red, and white. Tefere et al. (2012) also reported that multiple coat color pattern variations come from a preferential selection of the pastoral communities toward animals with variable coat color patterns and uncontrolled mating.

## III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

### a) Phenotypic Description of Indigenous Cattle

Results from focus group discussions and field observations on physical features revealed that highland, midland, and lowland cattle types identified as their geographical. During the discussion, as some elders and the key informant were informed by their

Table 1: Proportion of qualitative traits for indigenous cattle (N=345)

| Variables             | Agro-ecology |             |             | Total (%) |
|-----------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-----------|
|                       | Highland (%) | Midland (%) | Lowland (%) |           |
| Humped                | 100          | 100         | 100         | 100       |
| Horn                  |              |             |             |           |
| Presence              | 97.4         | 98.3        | 96.3        | 97.4      |
| Absence               | 2.6          | 1.7         | 3.5         | 2.6       |
| Horn orientation      |              |             |             |           |
| Forward curved        | 69.7         | 65.2        | 67.8        | 67.5      |
| Upward curved         | 21.7         | 23.5        | 21.7        | 22.3      |
| Dawn ward             | 8.7          | 11.3        | 10.4        | 10.14     |
| Tail                  |              |             |             |           |
| Long                  | 98.2         | 98.3        | 96.1        | 97.5      |
| Medium                | 1.8          | 1.7         | 3.9         | 2.5       |
| Muzile Pigment        |              |             |             |           |
| Pigment               | 100          | 100         | 100         | 100       |
| Coat color patterns   |              |             |             |           |
| Plain                 | 34.74        | 69.6        | 70.5        | 56.2      |
| Paid                  | 55.7         | 21.7        | 13          | 31.1      |
| Spotty                | 9.5          | 8.6         | 16.5        | 11.6      |
| Hair coat color       |              |             |             |           |
| Black                 | 28.7         | 13          | 8.7         | 16.8      |
| Black with white face | 35.7         | 1.7         | 0.9         | 12.7      |
| Black and white       | 11.3         | 6.1         | 3.5         | 7         |
| Light red             | 1.7          | 24.3        | 29.6        | 18.6      |
| Dark Red              | 2.6          | 27.8        | 20          | 16.1      |
| Whitish               | 1.74         | 4.5         | 12.2        | 6         |
| Red and white         | 8.7          | 13.9        | 8.6         | 10.4      |



Figure 1: Different coat colours of local cattle in highland, midland, and low land agro-ecologies

b) Quantitative Traits between Location

As a result, shown in Table 2, linear body measurements except RL and HL of indigenous cattle populations from the midland and lowland were not significantly different and has larger ( $P < 0.001$ ) measurements when compared to the highland, the variation could be due to agro-ecological different among the location, and types of the farming system. The similarity body measurements among midland and

lowland study agroecology might be due to the equivalence of measurements between populations. Compared with other cattle breed characterization results, the body measurements of indigenous cattle types were superior to those of Kereyu cattle (Garoma, 2006) under the pastoral management system in Ethiopia, but still, its body frame is comparable with the highland area of Arsi cattle breed (Chali, 2014).

Table 2: Least square means of body measurements (cm) by agro-ecology (N=345)

| Variables    | Agro-ecologies          |                        |                        |            |
|--------------|-------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------|
|              | Hiland                  | Midland                | Lowland                | Over all   |
| Body length  | 110.2±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 113.9±0.2 <sup>a</sup> | 114.6±.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 113.2±0.21 |
| Heart girth  | 111.2±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 116.9±0.2 <sup>a</sup> | 117.5±.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 115.2±0.2  |
| Ear Length   | 110.9±0.22 <sup>a</sup> | 111.9±0.2 <sup>a</sup> | 111.6±0.4 <sup>a</sup> | 111.5±0.21 |
| Pelvic width | 143.2±0.12 <sup>b</sup> | 151.8±0.2 <sup>a</sup> | 151.0±0.2 <sup>a</sup> | 148.7±0.11 |
| Tail length  | 17.6±0.2 <sup>a</sup>   | 15.5±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 16.6±0.21 <sup>b</sup> | 16.6±0.2   |



|                      |                        |                        |                        |           |
|----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------|
| Horn length          | 32.5±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 34.0±0.15 <sup>a</sup> | 34.7±0.16 <sup>a</sup> | 33.7±0.11 |
| Muzzle circumference | 91.6±0.23 <sup>a</sup> | 90.9±0.16 <sup>a</sup> | 92.5±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 91.7±0.13 |
| Hook circumference   | 26.4±0.18 <sup>a</sup> | 25.6±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 25.9±0.17 <sup>a</sup> | 26.4±0.18 |
| Cannon length        | 38.7±0.17 <sup>a</sup> | 35.2±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 35.5±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 36.5±0.18 |
| Rump length          | 26.4±0.18 <sup>a</sup> | 25.6±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 25.9±0.17 <sup>a</sup> | 26±0.18   |
| Neck length          | 28.9±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 30.1±0.18 <sup>a</sup> | 30.4±0.18 <sup>a</sup> | 29.8±0.14 |
| Facial profile       | 34.4±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 33.8±0.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 36.4±0.16 <sup>a</sup> | 34.9±0.12 |
| Neck length          | 35.2±0.19 <sup>a</sup> | 35.9±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 35.6±0.15 <sup>a</sup> | 35.6±0.13 |
| Facial profile       | 43.1±0.15 <sup>a</sup> | 42.9±0.2 <sup>a</sup>  | 43.0±0.18 <sup>a</sup> | 43±0.16   |

Significant at <sup>a-b</sup> P≤0.01. HG= heart girth, BL= Body length, HW=Height at Withers, PW=pelvic width, TL=tail length, NL=neck length, RL=rump length, FL= Face length, ns=non-significant

c) Quantitative Traits in Female and Male Cattle

The quantitative traits of the measured cattle population in the study areas are present in Table 3. The result showed that body measurements except for HL, NL, TL, and RL all had a P≤0.05 difference among the sex of the animals. Males have the highest body measurement values for variables of BL, HW, HG, EL, TL, MC, HC, and RL. This is consistent with a report by Dessalegn (2012) and Mulugeta (2015), higher mean values of body measurements in males than females, for

Arado and Begait cattle. Fasil (2014) also reported that quantitative dependent variables (BL, HG, HW, PW, MC, EL, TL, DW, HL) indigenous cattle in the Amhara region were significantly affected by the sex of the animal. Taye (2005) also reported that morphological trait measurement of indigenous male cattle is usually greater than female groups. These linear morphometric traits difference was attributable to sensual demography (Mwacharo et al., 20006).

Table 3: Linear body measurements of male and female indigenous cattle

| Variable             | Male (N=45)              | Female (N=300)           | P-value |
|----------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|---------|
| Body length          | 120±9.82 <sup>a</sup>    | 113.33±6.76 <sup>b</sup> | 0.0001  |
| Height at withers    | 116.67±17.2 <sup>a</sup> | 110.9±0.1 <sup>b</sup>   | 0.001   |
| Heart girth          | 154.4±39.85 <sup>a</sup> | 141.88 <sup>b</sup>      | 0.0001  |
| Ear Length           | 18±0.4 <sup>a</sup>      | 16.4±.01 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.001   |
| Pelvic width         | 31.3±0.8 <sup>b</sup>    | 34.4±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 0.001   |
| Tail length          | 93.6±0.8 <sup>a</sup>    | 91.5±0.3 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.0001  |
| Horn length          | 17.9±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 18.9±0.1 <sup>a</sup>    | NS      |
| Muzzle circumference | 38.5±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 36.3±0.1 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.001   |
| Hook circumference   | 29.8±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 24.5±0.1 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.0001  |
| Cannon bone length   | 30.1±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 29.8±0.1 <sup>a</sup>    | NS      |
| Neck length          | 34.2±0.4 <sup>a</sup>    | 34.2±0.11 <sup>a</sup>   | NS      |
| Facial profile       | 43.6±0.13 <sup>a</sup>   | 42.8±0.12 <sup>a</sup>   | NS      |
| ump length           | 36.7±0.3 <sup>a</sup>    | 34.7±0.2 <sup>b</sup>    | 0.0001  |

HG= heart girth, BL= Body length, HW=Height at Withers, PW=pelvic width, TL=tail length, NL=neck length, RL=rump length, FL= Face length, ns=non-significant, Significant at <sup>a-b</sup>P≤0.01

d) Correlations

The phenotypic correlation coefficient estimates between the various traits for female and male indigenous cattle types are presented in Table 4. For females, low to moderate  $\geq 0.001$  positive correlations were found among linear body measurements. HG (r=0.31), RL (r=0.312) and FL (r=0.30) showed low positive correlation with BL and HW (r= 0.42) and NL (r=0.40) had moderate positive correlation with BL. The findings on the correlation of coefficient of the current study agree with those of Chali, (2014) for Arsi female cattle. Regarding the male cattle, most of the linear body measurements are moderate, and a strong positive P≤0.001 correlation was found between HG and BL

(r=0.71). A similar result indicated by Andualem (2016) in males, all the linear body measurements have a positive correlation, and a strong association was found between HG. This could show the enhancement of one trait which, is a positive in correlation with other traits, that there is an opportunity to develop both traits. However, some traits of PW with TL and PW with NL were found to be weak and insignificant correlations.



Table 4: Phenotypic correlations between body measurements for female, and male cattle (N=345)

| Traits | HG     | BL     | HW     | PW                 | TL                 | NL                 | RL      | FL                  |
|--------|--------|--------|--------|--------------------|--------------------|--------------------|---------|---------------------|
| HG     |        | 0.31** | .27**  | 0.18*              | 0.10*              | 0.19 <sup>ns</sup> | .20**   | 0.15*               |
| BL     | 0.71** |        | 0.42** | 0.14*              | 0.21**             | 0.40**             | 0.312** | 0.30**              |
| HW     | 0.67** | 0.59** |        | 0.13*              | 0.15*              | 0.17**             | 0.291** | 0.31**              |
| PW     | 0.61** | 0.57** | 0.50*  |                    | 0.347**            | 0.27**             | 0.388** | 0.144*              |
| TL     | 0.59** | 0.57** | 0.49*  | 0.17 <sup>ns</sup> |                    | 0.230**            | 0.153*  | 0.015 <sup>ns</sup> |
| NL     | 0.46*  | 0.61** | 0.38*  | 0.25 <sup>ns</sup> | 0.20 <sup>ns</sup> |                    | 0.292** | 0.34**              |
| RL     | 0.58** | 0.56** | 0.56** | 0.58**             | 0.62**             | 0.41*              |         | 0.19*               |
| FL     | 0.51*  | 0.56** | 0.55** | 0.53**             | 0.47*              | 0.47*              | 0.41*   |                     |

Significant at \*P<0.05, \*\* P<0.01 HG= heart girth, BL= Body length, HW=Height at Wither, PW=pelvic width, TL=tail length, NL=neck length, RL=rump length, FL= Face length, ns=non-significant

Note: Diagonal line above for female and below for male Sidama cattle population

#### IV. REPRODUCTION AND PRODUCTION PERFORMANCE

##### a) Reproduction performance

The average age at first calving of the present study reported to be 53±4.5. The finding, age at first calving of native cattle was longer than (39.4 months) that reported by Kumar et al. (2014) in the Tigray region. However, it was comparable with the result of Belay et al. (2012) (50.59 months) and Menale et al. (2011) (50.8 months). The average calving interval of indigenous cattle was 17.53±5.2, and there was no significant (P≥0.05) difference among the study agroecology. Reproductive lifetime productivity of male and female cattle was 7.7 ± 1.03 and 12.2 ± 1.7 years,

respectively. The calving interval in the current case was shorter than reported by Shiferaw (2014)(18 months) for Kerryu cattle, but it was longer than End a shaw (2010) (14.3 months) for Mursi cattle and 15.6 months for Sheko cattle (Tekile, 2005). The longer calving interval might be due to the cows' age calving season, and forage availability of study location. The lifetime productivity of female cattle of the current result was shorter than Sheko cattle (14.7 years), as was reported by (Tekile, 2005). The findings of reproductive lifetime productivity of female cattle were in agreement 11.23 years for west Showa cattle Jiregna (2007), 11.5 years for Borana breed Dereje(2015), and 12.17 years for Arsi cattle (Chali, 2014).

Table 5: Reproduction Performance of Indigenous cattle (N=180)

| Variables                      | Agroecology           |                       |                       |           |
|--------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-----------|
|                                | Highland              | Midland               | Lowland               | Overall   |
| Age at first calving           | 51.8±4.5 <sup>a</sup> | 52.0±6.5 <sup>a</sup> | 54.6±3.8 <sup>b</sup> | 53±4.5    |
| Calving interval               | 17.7±4.4 <sup>a</sup> | 17.8±4.5 <sup>a</sup> | 18.1±6.2 <sup>a</sup> | 17.53±5.2 |
| Productive lifetime of male    | 8.2±1.0 <sup>a</sup>  | 7.23±1.0 <sup>b</sup> | 7.1±0.8 <sup>b</sup>  | 7.54±1.03 |
| Productive life time of Female | 12.8±1.7 <sup>a</sup> | 11.0±1.7 <sup>b</sup> | 10.7±1.6 <sup>b</sup> | 11.2±1.7  |

<sup>a-b</sup>different letters significant between agro-ecologies, Significant was set as p<0.01 and p<0.05,

##### b) Milk production performance

The mean daily milk yield, lactation length, and lactation milk yield of indigenous cattle were 1.93 liters, 221.0±55.9 days, and 429.8±61.52 liters, respectively (Table 6). The overall average daily milk yield performance of indigenous cattle in the study area was ranged from 1.62 liters in rural lowland to 2.43liters in highland area. The average daily milk yield and lactation length in highland had significantly (P<0.05) higher than those in midland and lowland study area. The average daily milk yield in the current study is slightly similar to that of Dereje (2015) reported that the on-farm daily milk yield of Wello highland zebu cattle was 1.9 liters per day. However, it was higher than the 1.37 liters national average (CSA, 2014), 1.5liters Demissu et al. (2014) for Horro cattle and 1.44 liters for Arsicattle of Ethiopia (Chali, 2014). The lactation length (LL) of the native

cattle as observed in the study were shorter than those reported by Kumar(2014) (247.11±29.64 days) in Tigray, but it was longer than those reported by Gebrgziabher et al. (2013) for Boran breed (211.1±7.1), and Ngongoni et al. (2006) (201.1±21days) in Zimbabwe. The average lactation milk yield of this study was smaller than Borana (947 liters), and Horro (1201 liters) breeds Gebregziabher et al. (2013) and 645 liters for Begait breed. However, the lactation milk yield of the current result was higher than 238 liters in Yerer watershed Adalibeb woreda located in the Oromia region (Mulugeta, 2005).

Table 6: Milk yield production performance of cattle (N=180)

| Variable                      | Agroecology              |                         |                          |            |
|-------------------------------|--------------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|------------|
|                               | Highland                 | Midland                 | Lowland                  | Overall    |
| Daily milk yield (liters)     | 2.41±0.8 <sup>a</sup>    | 1.8±0.9 <sup>ab</sup>   | 1.62±0.5 <sup>ab</sup>   | 1.95±0.85  |
| Lactation length (days)       | 245±58.3 <sup>a</sup>    | 210±54.5 <sup>ab</sup>  | 204.4±46.4 <sup>ab</sup> | 221.0±55.9 |
| Lactation milk yield (liters) | 589.39±87.3 <sup>a</sup> | 378.1±96.5 <sup>b</sup> | 330.3±1.0 <sup>c</sup>   | 429.8±61.5 |

<sup>a-c</sup>different letters significant between agro-ecologies, Significant was set as  $p < 0.01$  and  $p < 0.05$ ,

c) Selection Criteria for Breeding Cattle

The ranking of traits for selecting breeding animals as perceived by farmers summarized in Table 7. High milk yield followed by high fertility and body size is the most highly rated trait in selecting breeding animals. Similar results indicated that cattle producers from different parts of Ethiopia select dairy cows based on milk yield (Godadaw et al., 2014. Some of the adaptive

traits with disease tolerance character and coat color were mentioned as selection criteria but with a lower ranking. The adaptive traits need for the selection of their livestock, especially when the farmers have to face vagaries nature and depend on ethno veterinary medicines for treating the sick animals (Tsedeke and Edrias, 2011).

Table 7: Selection criteria for breeding of cattle in the study area (N=180)

| Parameter          | Agroecology     |                 |                 |       |                 |                 |                 |       |                 |                 |                 |       |
|--------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|-------|
|                    | Highland        |                 |                 |       | Midland         |                 |                 |       | Lowland         |                 |                 |       |
|                    | 1 <sup>st</sup> | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | index | 1 <sup>st</sup> | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | index | 1 <sup>st</sup> | 2 <sup>nd</sup> | 3 <sup>rd</sup> | index |
| High milk yield    | 73.3            | 23.3            | 0               | 0.31  | 71.7            | 11.7            | 15              | 0.30  | 78.8            | 21.2            | 0               | 0.29  |
| High fertility     | 21.7            | 58.3            | 18.3            | 0.27  | 16.7            | 81.6            | 0               | 0.27  | 13.5            | 59.6            | 26.9            | 0.26  |
| Body size          | 0               | 16.7            | 76.7            | 0.2   | 11.7            | 5               | 68.3            | 0.21  | 7.7             | 9.6             | 42.3            | 0.15  |
| Feeding behavior   | 5               | 0               | 1.7             | 0.1   | 0               | 0               | 3.3             | 0.1   | 0               | 9.6             | 23.1            | 0.1   |
| Good temperament   | 0               | 0               | 1.7             | 0.04  | 0               | 3.3             | 13.3            | 0.04  | 0               | 0               | 7.7             | 0.03  |
| Coat color         | 0               | 1.7             | 1.7             | 0.05  | 0               | 0               | 0               | 0.02  | 0               | 0               | 0               | 0.09  |
| Disease resistance | 0               | 0               | 0               | 0.03  | 0               | 0               | 0               | 0.06  | 0               | 0               | 0               | 0.08  |

Index=the sum of (3 times first order + 2 times second order + 1 times third order) for individual variables divided by the sum of (3 times first order + 2 times second order + 1 times third order)

V. CONCLUSION AND RECOMANDATION

Indigenous cattle in each study location dominant with forward and upward curved horn shape orientation and hamped. Animals in the study areas have variable coat color types, and the most dominant coat color patterns were plain, patchy, and spotted. This variability shows the absence of selection towards particular traits and may have contributed to their production environment. Sex of animals had a significant effect on linear body measurement traits, and males had higher linear body measurements than their female counterparts. Most of the linear body measurements of the male animals are moderate, and a strong positive correlation was found between HG and BL. Indigenous cattle play multi-functional roles and mostly kept milk for home consumption and income source. Owners preferred high milk yield, fertility, and body size traits. Natural uncontrolled mating is the most common system of mating due to the free grazing

system practice of the area. More specifically, the cattle in Sidama area are similar to the Arsi-Bale breed in their body measurement traits. The productivity performance of indigenous cattle is comparable to some other zebu cattle in the country such as low milk yield performance, long age at first calving, long calving interval, and short reproductive lifespan. Phenotypic result of highland sample cattle populations varied from midland and lowland areas and therefore; to put specific characteristics' of the cattle type, further molecular characterization, and productivity evaluation is needed to fully describe the cattle type.

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## Effect of Dietary Zinc Supplementation on the Productive Performances, Carcass Traits and Blood Profile of Broiler

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**Abstract-** This study was conducted to determine the effect of zinc on the productive performances, carcass yield and blood profiles of broilers. Experiment was done for a period of 35 days with a number of 60 day old broiler chicks. Birds were divided into four dietary treatment groups with 3 replications each having 5 birds per replication. The dietary treatment groups were; T<sub>0</sub> (basal diet; no zinc), T<sub>1</sub> (basal diet + 50 mg zinc/kg feed), T<sub>2</sub> (basal diet + 100 mg zinc/kg feed), T<sub>3</sub> (basal diet + 150 mg zinc/kg feed). Results indicated that body weight and body weight gain were increased significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the zinc supplemented group compared to the control group. Higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) feed intake and better ( $P < 0.05$ ) FE were also observed in the zinc supplemented group than control group and best performance was observed in the group fed 150mg zinc/kg feed (T<sub>3</sub>). Carcass yield was significantly higher ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the groups fed dietary zinc. Net profit was slightly higher in the T<sub>3</sub> group but not significantly ( $P > 0.05$ ) differed with the control group. However, T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> showed less profit even than the control group. Blood profile of the experimental birds including Hb, PCV and ESR did not significantly differed ( $P > 0.05$ ) among the groups. The results indicate that addition of zinc in the broiler diet improves productive performances, carcass yield and increases net profit without affecting health status of broiler. So, zinc can be used as an effective and useful micronutrient to improve the performances of broiler.

**Keywords:** zinc, productive performances, carcass yield, blood profile, net profit and broiler.

**GJSFR-D Classification:** FOR Code: 079999



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# Effect of Dietary Zinc Supplementation on the Productive Performances, Carcass Traits and Blood Profile of Broiler

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**Abstract-** This study was conducted to determine the effect of zinc on the productive performances, carcass yield and blood profiles of broilers. Experiment was done for a period of 35 days with a number of 60 day old broiler chicks. Birds were divided into four dietary treatment groups with 3 replications each having 5 birds per replication. The dietary treatment groups were; T<sub>0</sub> (basal diet; no zinc), T<sub>1</sub> (basal diet + 50 mg zinc/kg feed), T<sub>2</sub> (basal diet + 100 mg zinc/kg feed), T<sub>3</sub> (basal diet + 150 mg zinc/kg feed). Results indicated that body weight and body weight gain were increased significantly (P<0.05) in the zinc supplemented group compared to the control group. Higher (P<0.05) feed intake and better (P<0.05) FE were also observed in the zinc supplemented group than control group and best performance was observed in the group fed 150mg zinc/kg feed (T<sub>3</sub>). Carcass yield was significantly higher (P<0.05) in the groups fed dietary zinc. Net profit was slightly higher in the T<sub>3</sub> group but not significantly (P>0.05) differed with the control group. However, T<sub>1</sub> and T<sub>2</sub> showed less profit even than the control group. Blood profile of the experimental birds including Hb, PCV and ESR did not significantly differed (P>0.05) among the groups. The results indicate that addition of zinc in the broiler diet improves productive performances, carcass yield and increases net profit without affecting health status of broiler. So, zinc can be used as an effective and useful micronutrient to improve the performances of broiler.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

Poultry sector is one of the most emerging and feasible sector for Bangladesh. Poultry industry can contribute to the GDP growth rate by managing food security as well as ensuring employment and reducing poverty at a large scale. Large proportion of daily human intake of animal protein comes from livestock products. Poultry industry provides quality protein to the people of Bangladesh at the lowest price.

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Poultry meat especially chicken meat is the most desirable animal protein and is acceptable to most of the people belonging to all castes and religions. Per capita requirement for meat in Bangladesh is 120 g meat/day but per capita consumption is only 16.5 g/day with a deficiency of 50.15% (Amin, 2015). The availability is quite inadequate for normal growth and development of the body. Whereas, world per capita consumption of poultry meat is 30.14 g/day, which is 95.89 g/day for USA (Farrell et al., 2003). Per capita meat consumption in Bangladesh was 5.1, 5.2 and 5.3 kg for the years 2008-2009, 2010-2011 and 2011-2012 respectively (BBS, 2012).

Broiler is one of the most important poultry used for fulfilling the protein demand. The broiler industry in Bangladesh is developing rapidly and its success depends on how rapidly a chick attains maximum marketable weight. Broiler raisers are always interested to different approaches for attaining better growth and economic production. Unfortunately, farmers are using antibiotics with broiler feed to improve growth and feed efficiency, which adversely affects on human health. Antibiotics used as growth promoters tend to be given in feed at sub-therapeutic levels over extended periods to entire herds and flocks. Until recently, the major concerns about incorporation of antibiotics in animal feeds related to antibiotic residues in products from treated animals. Now there is mounting evidence that the antibiotics are widely used on farm animals are also diminishing the power of important antibiotics to help people. As a result, each and every chicken is becoming a depot of antibiotics and other inorganic substances. When these chickens are consumed by human these antibiotic and other inorganic residue enters into human body and causes serious human health hazards with drug resistance (Kibria et al., 2009). For this reason European Union has banned regulation the use of antibiotics in animal production from 2006 and its use has become limited in other developed countries. Due to the ban of antibiotic growth promoters in poultry diets in different countries, it is of high interest to investigate potential alternatives to maintain good growth performance of broilers.

Zinc (Zn) is the essential trace element for growth, enzyme structure and function, appetite, normal immune function, maintenance and with particular

importance for fast-growing of poultry. Trace mineral, such as Zn is essential for broiler growth and are involved in many digestive, physiological, and biosynthetic processes within the body. Its function primarily as catalysts in enzyme systems within cells or as parts of enzymes. It is also the constituents of hundreds of proteins involved in intermediary metabolism, hormone secretion pathways, and immune defense systems (Dozier *et al.*, 2003). Traditionally, these trace minerals are supplemented in the form of inorganic salts; such as sulfates, oxides, and carbonates, to provide levels of minerals that prevent clinical deficiencies, allow the bird to reach its genetic growth potential, or both.

Zinc plays multiple roles in poultry metabolism. At low concentrations, it serves as an essential nutrient and functions as a metal cofactor for several enzymes. Zinc also appears to be directly involved in immune cellular functions and zinc deficiencies might also have indirect consequences on the immune system by failure to limit bacterial infections. Zinc can be taken up by biological systems, and bacterial transport and efflux systems have been identified that are energy dependent and highly regulated. Intestinal uptake is carrier-mediated facilitated diffusion and the mechanism is not well understood.

A few researches showed that supplemental Zn could improve carcass traits of animal. Organic Zn could increase carcass quality grade, marbling, and the fat of pelvis and heart in animals (Greene *et al.*, 1988). Zinc consumption also increase body weight of chicken and increase in abdominal fat deposit in female chickens (Butler and Curtis, 1973). Zinc has numerous biological roles including protein metabolism (Blamberg *et al.*, 1984), DNA synthesis (Lieberman *et al.*, 2001), cell division and multiplication (Rubin, 1972 and Rubin and Koide, 1973) and performance (Sadoval *et al.*, 1999), carbohydrate metabolism, and basic functions in growth performance (Mohanna, 1999). Zinc boost immune system (Luecke *et al.*, 2001) and it is the only metal essential for at least one enzyme in all six enzyme classes; Oxidoreductase (4 enzymes), transferase (3 enzymes), hydrolase (3 enzymes), ligase (one enzyme), isomerase (one enzyme) as well as ligase (one enzyme) (Kidd *et al.*, 1996). As zinc has a direct effect on improving body condition of broiler present study was conducted by using Zis-Vet® that contains zinc sulphate monohydrate.

Despite enormous advances in poultry production and technology, research into trace mineral nutrition has lagged behind than other areas of nutrition. Although zinc has a lot of feasibility to be used as a harmless trace mineral as well as growth promoter for broiler a very few number of researches have been conducted to see the effect of different level of zinc on the broiler diet and there has not been any definite conclusion was drawn regarding its effect on broiler

productive performances as well as on their carcass traits. Therefore was conducted with the following objectives-to know the effect of dietary zinc on the productive performances of broiler and to know the effect of dietary zinc on the carcass traits and blood profile of broiler.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

This experiment was conducted with 60 day old (Cobb 500) broilers for a period of 35 days (from 7<sup>th</sup> May to 10<sup>th</sup> June, 2016) at the commercial poultry farm of Mr. Mostakim, Karnai, Baserhat, Dinajpur. The aim was to investigate the effect of supplying different level of zinc with the feed to improve the production performances of broilers.

Zinc solution used in this experiment was purchased from local market named Zinc-Vet® (1ml solution contain 2mg zinc sulphate monohydrate USP) which was manufactured and marketed by Navana Bangladesh, Animal health division (a reputed veterinary drugs company), Bangladesh. For the free of cost support, experimental solution was collected from Navana Bangladesh, Animal health division.

The day old broilers were randomly assigned into 4 dietary treatment groups having 3 replications in each treatment. The treatments were 0, 50, 100 and 150 mg zinc in each kg of feed. There were 5 broilers in each replication. The layout of the experiment is presented in Table 1.

*Table 1:* Layout showing the distribution of broilers to treatments and replications

| Replication  | Zinc level (mg/kg feed) |                      |                       |                       | Total |
|--------------|-------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|-------|
|              | 0 (T <sub>0</sub> )     | 50 (T <sub>1</sub> ) | 100 (T <sub>2</sub> ) | 150 (T <sub>3</sub> ) |       |
| 1            | 5                       | 5                    | 5                     | 5                     | 20    |
| 2            | 5                       | 5                    | 5                     | 5                     | 20    |
| 3            | 5                       | 5                    | 5                     | 5                     | 20    |
| <b>Total</b> | 15                      | 15                   | 15                    | 15                    | 60    |

Experimental house was divided into 4 parts for four dietary treatment group and each part was subdivided with three parts to facilitate the accommodation of 5 birds in each sub group. After 15 days the room was disinfected with PPM solution. The experimental room was thoroughly brushed, swiped and properly washed by water after that bleaching powder @ 1kg/500sq.ft was spread over the floor and it was kept 24 hours without any further attention. The bleaching powder was cleaned by using forced tap water. After that the room was disinfected by TH4+ solution (Manufactured by Sogeval, France, Marketed by-Century Agro Ltd, Bangladesh). Feeders, waterers, buckets and all other necessary equipments were also

properly, washed and disinfected by TH4+ solution. Subsequently dried them and left empty for a week before arrival of chicks. Fresh dried sow dust was used as litter at a depth of 2 cm. All birds were reared under same care and management.

For the first seven days the feed was given in paper and then in small trays. After that feed was supplied in the round feeder. Zinc solution was at first taken by the measuring syringe than mixed with the pellet feed. After mixing the experimental zinc solution to the feed in required amount, feed was supplied to the different group of birds according to their age. Feed was purchased from the Nourish feed company.

Blood was collected from the wing vein of the experimental birds and kept in sterile test tubes containing anticoagulant (EDTA). Then the hematological tests were performed.

The birds were assigned to different experimental groups under Completely Randomized Design (CRD). The data were analyzed by the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) program. The data were expressed as the mean $\pm$ SEM and significance level were calculated under 5 % level of significance.

### III. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

#### a) Live weight

Live weight of birds during the experimental period is presented in Table 2. Present experiment was started with day old chicks with the average live weight of 45 $\pm$ 0.19 g. At the 7<sup>th</sup> day live weight of birds were not significantly differed ( $P>0.05$ ) among the groups but it was significantly ( $P<0.05$ ) differed at the 14<sup>th</sup>, 21<sup>st</sup> and 28<sup>th</sup> day of experimental period where higher live weight

was observed in the bird fed 150 mg zinc/ kg of feed than the birds of control group (0 mg Zinc/kg feed). Although birds fed 50 and 100 mg Zinc/kg feed showed higher live weight gain but not significantly differed with the control group. At the end of the experiment significantly higher live weight was observed in the birds fed 100 and 150 mg Zinc/kg feed (1494.3 and 1758.53 g, respectively) than the control group (1376.8 g).

It may be due to the critical importance of Zinc in maintaining the structure of metallo proteins such as insulin and growth hormone. Results from the growth performance of this study showed that supplemental Zn promoted growth of broilers. Present findings supports the findings of the Ezzati *et al.* (2013) in which they found supplementation of 125 ppm zinc had a significantly higher live weight (2734 g) than the un-supplemented group (2680 g). Liu *et al.* (2012) also found a significant effect in live weight of broiler birds by supplying different level of zinc. Midilli *et al.* (2014) found increasing live weight, while they supplied inorganic and organic form of zinc alone or combination with microbial phytase. Abhishek *et al.* (2016) reported with a significant effect on increase in live weight in groups fed with 80 mg/ kg of zinc from 21-45 days of age, the author found the lowest live weight of birds in control group then the other 4 treatment groups which prove that zinc was essential for growth. Bartlett and Smith (1998) found that a significant increase in live weight of zinc fed broiler occurs than the control group (1576 g vs 1387 g avg. live weight in birds fed adequate and no zinc). Another author Mohanna and Nys (1999) reported that up to 25 mg/kg of zinc supplementation on diet has the effect to increase the live weight.

Table 2: Live weight of birds fed different level of Zinc

| Live weight (g) in different time period | Dietary Treatments*             |                                 |                                |                                 | Level of Significance |
|--|---------------------------------|---------------------------------|--------------------------------|---------------------------------|-----------------------|
|  | T <sub>0</sub>                  | T <sub>1</sub>                  | T <sub>2</sub>                 | T <sub>3</sub>                  |                       |
| 0 day (day old)                          | 45 $\pm$ 0.12                   | 44.8 $\pm$ 0.18                 | 45.1 $\pm$ 0.21                | 45.3 $\pm$ 0.16                 | NS                    |
| 7 <sup>th</sup> day                      | 203 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.42     | 202.5 $\pm$ 1.91 <sup>a</sup>   | 202 $\pm$ 2.31 <sup>a</sup>    | 204 $\pm$ 2.57 <sup>a</sup>     | NS                    |
| 14 <sup>th</sup> day                     | 385.8 $\pm$ 4.54 <sup>a</sup>   | 467.4 $\pm$ 3.48 <sup>b</sup>   | 442.7 $\pm$ 2.21 <sup>ab</sup> | 489.4 $\pm$ 2.89 <sup>b</sup>   | *                     |
| 21 <sup>st</sup> day                     | 667.8 $\pm$ 6.87 <sup>a</sup>   | 646.8 $\pm$ 4.21 <sup>a</sup>   | 691.7 $\pm$ 4.15 <sup>a</sup>  | 901.13 $\pm$ 0.4 <sup>b</sup>   | *                     |
| 28 <sup>th</sup> day                     | 1078.3 $\pm$ 6.18 <sup>a</sup>  | 1163.6 $\pm$ 7.4 <sup>a</sup>   | 1176.5 $\pm$ 1.63 <sup>a</sup> | 1439.3 $\pm$ 5.35 <sup>b</sup>  | *                     |
| 35 <sup>th</sup> day                     | 1376.8 $\pm$ 11.42 <sup>a</sup> | 1320.3 $\pm$ 7.23 <sup>ab</sup> | 1494.3 $\pm$ 9.14 <sup>b</sup> | 1758.53 $\pm$ 6.16 <sup>c</sup> | **                    |

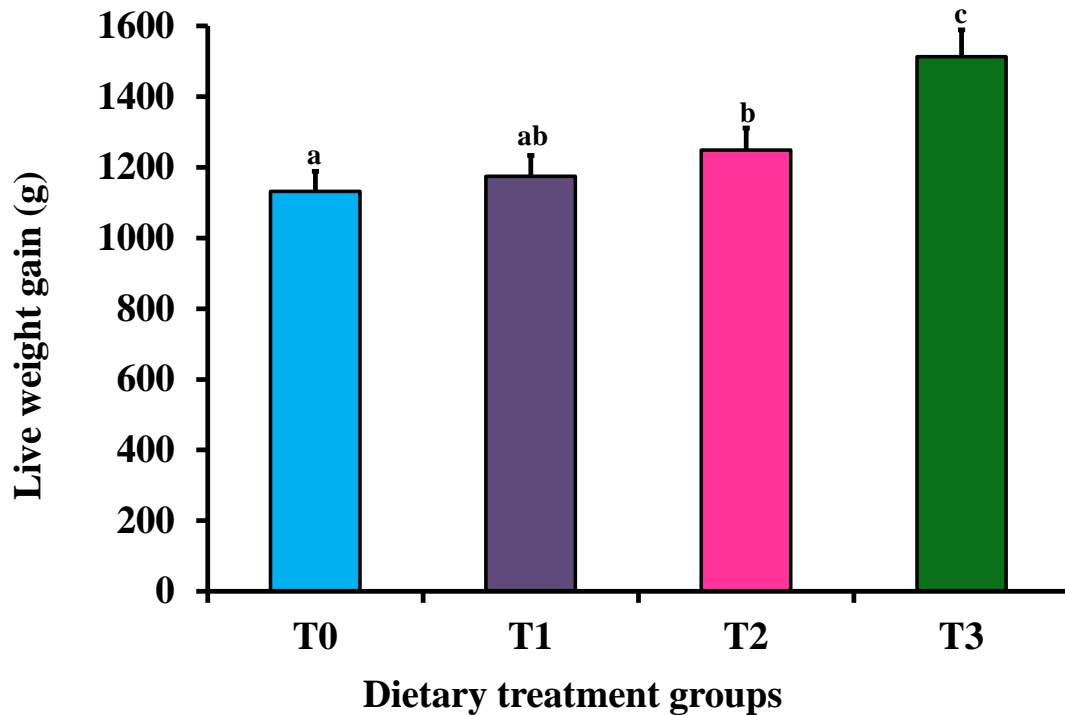
The above values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE) of the live weight of broiler in different weeks of the experimental period. Mean values with the same superscripts within the same row are statistically non-significant ( $P>0.05$ ) and Mean values with the different superscripts within the same row are statistically significant ( $P<0.05$ )

\*Here, T<sub>0</sub>= 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group), T<sub>1</sub>=5 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed, T<sub>2</sub> = 100 mg Zinc/ kg of feed and T<sub>3</sub>= 150 mg Zinc/ kg of feed.

b) *Live weight gain*

Weight gain of the experimental birds at the day of 35 is shown in Figure 1. It was observed that weight gain at the day of 35 was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher in the birds fed 100 and 150 mg Zinc/kg feed (1249.3g and 1513.53 g, respectively) than the control group  $T_0$  (1131.8 g). However, higher weight gain was also observed in the birds fed 50 g zinc/ kg feed (1175.3 g) but was not significantly different ( $P > 0.05$ ) than the control group (1131.8 g). This significant difference in total weight gain is might be due to the association of zinc in protein metabolism of broiler birds. Present

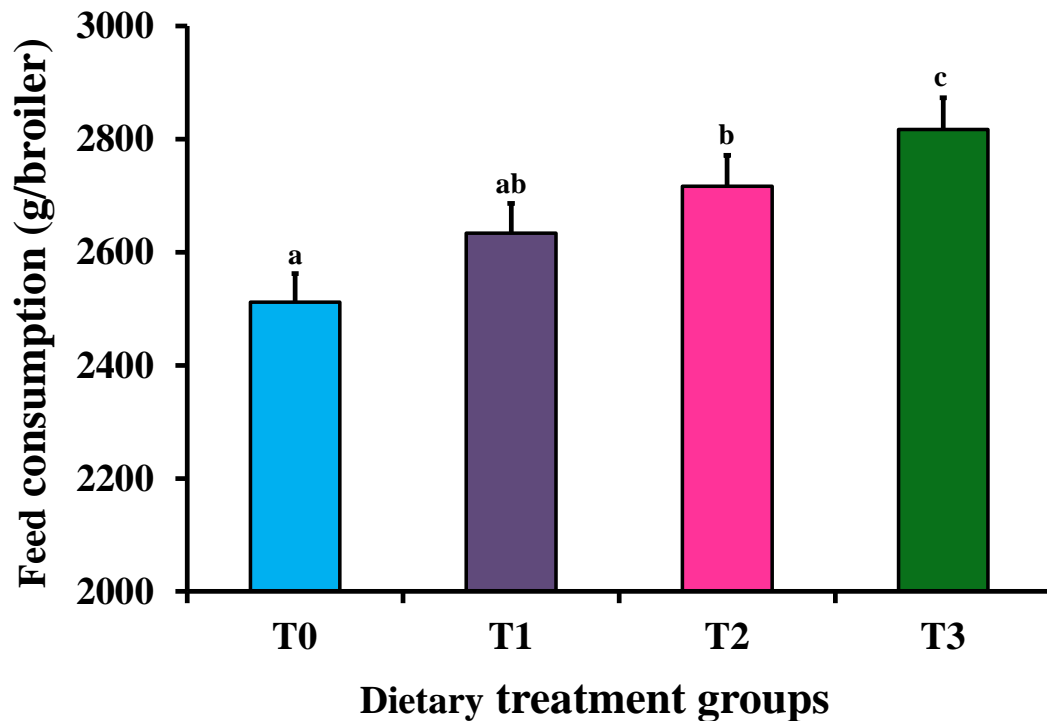
findings supports the findings of the Ezzati *et al.* (2013), Liu *et al.* (2012) and Bartlett and Smith (1998), they also found significantly higher live weight gain in the zinc supplemented birds but does not support the findings of the Sahin *et al.* (2005) who had not found any significant differences in the live weight gain of broiler birds by supplying 20 ppm, 40 ppm and 80 ppm dietary zinc to the broiler birds. Midilli *et al.* (2014) found improved live weight gain when they added zinc at the level of 90 mg/kg of diet. Ao *et al.* (2007) also reported that chicks fed as the inorganic form had lower ( $P < 0.01$ ) live weight gain.



**Figure 1:** Live weight gain (g) of broiler birds fed different levels of Zinc ( $T_0 = 0$  mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group),  $T_1 = 50$  mg Zinc/ kg of feed,  $T_2 = 100$  mg Zinc/ kg of feed and  $T_3 = 150$  mg Zinc/ kg of feed). Each bar with error bar represents Mean  $\pm$  SEM value. Differences were significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) among the groups.

c) *Feed consumption*

Feed consumption of birds during the experimental period is shown in Figure 2. It was observed that feed consumption was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher in the birds fed 100 mg Zinc/kg feed (2717 g/broiler) and 150 mg Zinc/kg feed (2816 g/broiler) than the control group  $T_0$  (2512g). However, higher feed consumption was also observed in the birds fed 50g zinc/ kg feed (2634 g/broiler) but was not significantly differed ( $P > 0.05$ ) than the control group (2512 g/broiler). Present findings supports the findings of the Ezzati *et al.* (2013) in which they found supplementation of 125ppm zinc had a significantly higher feed intake (6030 g) than the un-supplemented group (5878 g).



**Figure 2:** Feed consumption (g/bird) of broiler fed different levels of Zinc ( $T_0$  = 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group),  $T_1$  = 50 mg Zinc/ kg of feed,  $T_2$  = 100 mg Zinc/ kg of feed and  $T_3$  = 150 mg Zinc/ kg of feed). Each bar with error bar represents Mean  $\pm$  SEM value. Differences were significant ( $P < 0.01$ ) among the groups.

**d) Feed efficiency (FE)**

Feed efficiency (FE) of birds during the experimental period is presented in Figure 3. It was observed that FE was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) differed between the birds fed 150 mg Zinc/ kg feed (1.79) and control group  $T_0$  (2.13). Birds fed, 50 mg Zinc/kg feed showed slightly higher FE (2.15) than the control group (2.13) but this difference is not statistically significant ( $P > 0.05$ ). However, birds fed 150 mg Zinc/kg feed also showed lower FE (2.09) but was not significantly ( $P > 0.05$ ) differed that of the control group (2.15). Present findings supports the findings of the Hosseini-Mansoub *et al.* (2010) in which they found zinc supplemented bird had a lower FE than the un-supplemented zinc group. Present findings does not supports the findings of the Ezzati *et al.* (2013) in which they found supplementation of 125ppm zinc had a FE 2.15 which was not significantly lower than the un-supplemented zinc group FE (2.15). Huang *et al.* (2007) also found highest FE when zinc was added at the level of 20 mg/kg in diet. Another form of zinc is reported to beneficial for broilers that is zinc-methionine which improves the feed efficiency significantly rather than zinc oxide (Sanford and Kawchumnong, 1972).



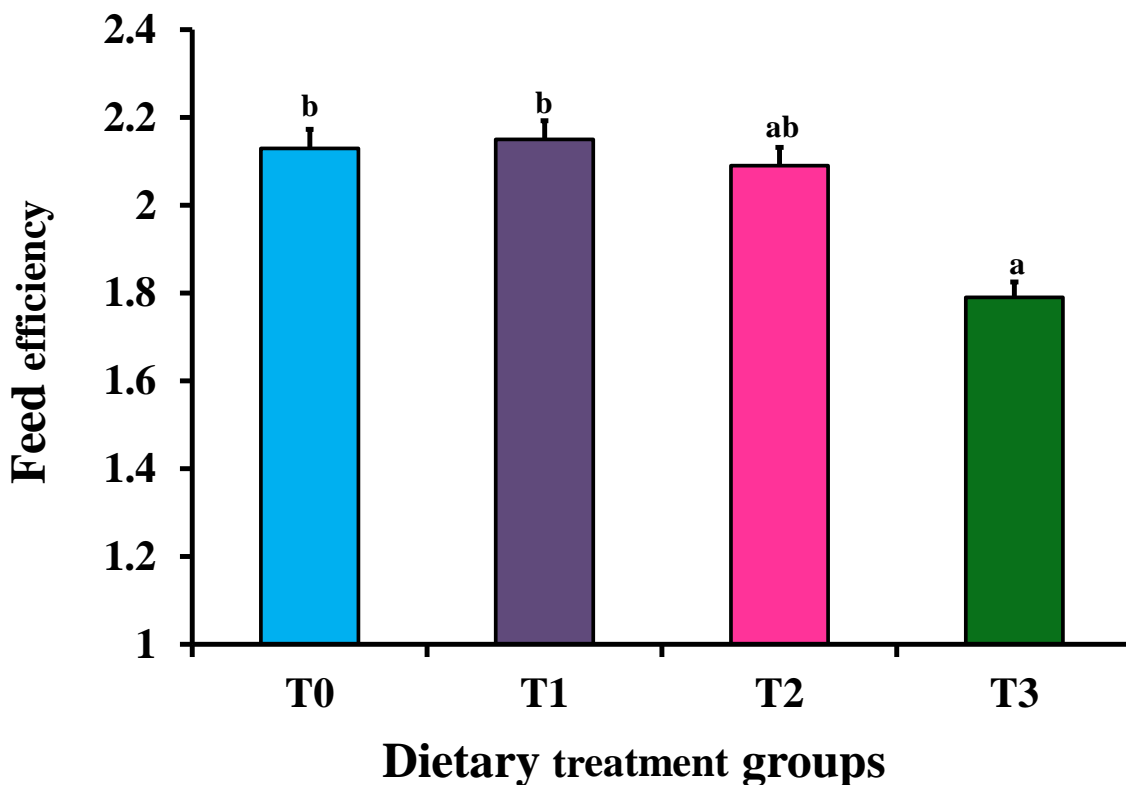


Figure 3: Feed efficiency of broiler birds fed different levels of ( $T_0$  = 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group),  $T_1$  = 50 mg Zinc/ kg of feed,  $T_2$  = 100 mg Zinc/ kg of feed and  $T_3$  = 150 mg Zinc/ kg of feed). Each bar with error bar represents Mean  $\pm$  SEM value. Differences were significant ( $P < 0.05$ ) among the groups.

e) Carcass yield

Weight of different internal organs such as heart, gizzard, liver, spleen, pancreas of the birds of  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  are shown in the Table 3. Statistical analysis of

the data did not show any difference between the relative organs weight of the birds of different feeding groups using feed with or without supplementation of Zinc.

Table 3: Carcass characteristics of broiler birds fed different level of Zinc

| Parameter (%)  | Control                                   | Dietary treatment groups       |                                |                               | Level of Significance |
|----------------|---|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|
|                | $T_0$ (n=5)<br>Mean $\pm$ SE              | $T_1$ (n=5)<br>Mean $\pm$ SE   | $T_2$ (n=5)<br>Mean $\pm$ SE   | $T_3$ (n=5)                   |                       |
| Dressing yield | 55.90 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 1.73             | 57.45 <sup>ab</sup> $\pm$ 1.35 | 58.10 <sup>ab</sup> $\pm$ 1.19 | 61.75 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 1.41 | *                     |
| Breast meat    | 14.62 $\pm$ 1.73                          | 14.81 $\pm$ 1.73               | 14.67 $\pm$ 1.73               | 14.03 $\pm$ 1.73              | NS                    |
| Thigh meat     | 8.15 <sup>a</sup> $\pm$ 0.73 <sup>a</sup> | 8.25 $\pm$ 0.13 <sup>a</sup>   | 8.85 $\pm$ 0.81 <sup>ab</sup>  | 9.33 $\pm$ 0.95 <sup>b</sup>  | *                     |
| Drumstick meat | 5.27 $\pm$ 0.31 <sup>a</sup>              | 5.78 <sup>ab</sup> $\pm$ 0.41  | 5.91 <sup>ab</sup> $\pm$ 0.38  | 6.43 <sup>b</sup> $\pm$ 0.41  | *                     |
| Drumstick bone | 1.81 $\pm$ 1.05                           | 1.93 $\pm$ 0.10                | 1.87 $\pm$ 0.12                | 1.91 $\pm$ 0.09               | NS                    |
| Wing meat      | 3.22 $\pm$ 0.21                           | 3.24 $\pm$ 0.38                | 3.72 $\pm$ 0.37                | 3.79 $\pm$ 0.12               | NS                    |
| Abdominal fat  | 1.21 $\pm$ 0.11                           | 1.19 $\pm$ 0.05                | 1.75 $\pm$ 0.03                | 1.82 $\pm$ 0.02               | NS                    |
| Gizzard        | 1.44 $\pm$ 0.02                           | 1.46 $\pm$ 0.05                | 1.46 $\pm$ 0.11                | 1.51 $\pm$ 0.15               | NS                    |

|            |            |            |            |            |    |
|------------|------------|------------|------------|------------|----|
| Head       | 2.49±0.16  | 2.43±0.21  | 2.48±0.15  | 2.46±0.17  | NS |
| Heart      | 0.47±0.005 | 0.46±0.02  | 0.47±0.04  | 0.49±0.09  | NS |
| Liver      | 2.20±0.12  | 2.24±0.15  | 2.18±0.13  | 2.19±0.08  | NS |
| Neck wt.   | 1.74±0.03  | 1.51±0.05  | 1.86±0.07  | 1.82±0.07  | NS |
| Wing bone  | 2.09±0.11  | 2.25±0.16  | 2.16±0.12  | 2.31±0.17  | NS |
| Blood      | 4.07±0.09  | 4.09±0.17  | 4.36±0.12  | 4.65±0.18  | NS |
| Thigh bone | 1.27±0.11  | 1.24±0.07  | 1.38±0.09  | 1.42±0.11  | NS |
| Spleen     | 0.15±0.002 | 0.14±0.004 | 0.12±0.007 | 0.15±0.002 | NS |
| Skin       | 8.21±0.53  | 8.19±0.36  | 7.96±0.75  | 8.39±0.81  | NS |

The above values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE) of the live weight of broiler in different weeks of the experimental period. Mean values with the same superscripts within the same row are statistically non-significant ( $P>0.05$ ) and Mean values with the different superscripts within the same row are statistically significant ( $P<0.05$ ).

\*Here,  $T_0$  = 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group),  $T_1$  = 50 mg Zinc/ kg of feed,  $T_2$  = 100 mg Zinc/ kg of feed and  $T_3$  = 150 mg Zinc/ kg of feed.

For evaluating carcass yield characteristics dressing yield, breast meat, thigh meat, drumstick meat, drumstick bone, wing meat, abdominal fat, gizzard, head, heart, liver, neck wt., wing bone, blood, thigh bone, spleen and skin were taken as variables. It was observed that except dressing yield, thigh meat and drumstick meat all other variables are not significantly differed among the groups. Dressing yield was highest at birds fed 150 mg zinc/ kg feed while it was 55.90, 57.45 and 58.10 g in  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$  and  $T_3$  group, respectively. Thigh meat weight was also significantly higher in the birds fed 150 mg zinc/ kg feed while it was 8.15, 8.25 and 8.85 g in  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  group, respectively. Drumstick meat was also significantly higher in weight in the birds fed 150 mg zinc/ kg feed (6.43 g). Thigh meat contains more protein less fat, has less tendon, ligaments, myoglobin and blood vessels than that of dark meat. As a result, digestibility of thigh meat is higher than other meat. The demand is higher for thigh meat than the dark meat.

Thus, thigh meat is the one of the valuable part of broiler. So, difference in thigh and drumstick meat yield is manically important. It is very difficult to explain the mechanism of increasing trend of thigh and drumstick meat yield for groups receiving zinc in feed. Most probably this effect was due to the comparative increase in the live weight of broiler birds fed zinc. Present findings support the findings of the Ezzati *et al.* (2013) in which they also found a significantly higher carcass yield in zinc supplemented birds than the un-supplemented group. But Liu *et al.* (2012) had not found any significant effect in carcass yield characteristics of broiler birds by supplying different level of zinc

#### f) Blood profile

Hematological parameters of the experimental birds were shown in Table-4. It was found that hemoglobin (g/dl) was not significantly differed ( $P>0.05$ ) among the different groups of broiler birds (6.50, 6.65, 6.80 and 6.91g/dl respectively in  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  group, respectively). Packed cell volume (PCV) was 16.80, 17.10, 17.40 and 17.38 % in  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$ ,  $T_2$  and  $T_3$  group, respectively which was not significantly ( $P>0.05$ ) differed among the groups. Erythrocyte sedimentation rate (ESR) was not significantly differed ( $P>0.05$ ) among the treatment and control groups and it was 6.67, 6.45, 6.45, 6.65 and 6.67 mm in  $T_0$ ,  $T_1$  and  $T_2$  group, respectively.

Hb, PCV and ESR value of the birds of different groups does not differ significantly among the groups and it was within the normal range. That indicates that supplementation of zinc has no negative effect on the blood profile of broiler birds that means broiler birds was physically sound and healthy during the experimental period and experimented zinc supplementation was safe for the broiler birds.

Table 4: Hematological parameters of broiler fed different level of dietary zinc

| Blood Parameters                 | Dietary treatment groups* |                |                |                | Level of Significance |
|----------------------------------|---------------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------------|
|                                  | T <sub>0</sub>            | T <sub>1</sub> | T <sub>2</sub> | T <sub>3</sub> |                       |
| Hemoglobin (g/dl)                | 6.50±0.12                 | 6.65±0.06      | 6.80±0.07      | 6.91±0.07      | NS                    |
| PCV (%)                          | 16.80±0.67                | 17.10±0.49     | 17.40±0.50     | 17.38±0.30     | NS                    |
| ESR (mm in 1 <sup>st</sup> hour) | 6.67±0.76                 | 6.45±0.68      | 6.65±0.63      | 6.73±0.87      | NS                    |

The above values represent the mean  $\pm$  standard error (SE) of the live weight of broiler in different weeks of the experimental period. Mean values with the same superscripts within the same heading are statistically non-significant ( $P>0.05$ ) and Mean values with the different superscripts within the same headings are statistically significant ( $P<0.05$ )

Here, T<sub>0</sub>= 0 mg Zinc/ kg of feed (Control group), T<sub>1</sub>=50 mg Zinc/ kg of feed, T<sub>2</sub> = 100 mg Zinc/ kg of feed and T<sub>3</sub>= 150 mg Zinc/ kg of feed.

#### IV. CONCLUSION

At the end it can be sum up that, zinc can be safely and beneficially used in the broiler diets to improve their productive performances, carcass yield and economic benefit. Present research findings may be useful for the small and large scale poultry farmers to earn more profit through improving broiler performances by using zinc and can contribute in the minimization of national protein need and health hazards by supplying tasty, healthy and antibiotic free broiler meat.

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# Antecedents of Transfer of Post-Harvest Handling Training among Small Scale Bean Grain Farmers in Uganda

By Richard Miiro, Joseph Kiwanuka, Frank Matsiko & Micheal Ugen

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**Abstract- Purpose:** The study was conducted to determine the role of transfer factors in influencing the transfer of post-harvest handling training among bean grain farmers, and what differences in the perceptions of the transfer factors existed among participants of varying demography.

**Methodology:** A sample survey of 301 responded to the Learning Transfer Systems Inventory (LTSI) following translation to a local dialect. Independent T-test, hierarchical multivariate regression, and MANOVA were used to answer the specific issues of the study.

**Results:** Transfer levels of post-harvest training were high, with women having a significantly higher training transfer than men. 'Motivation to transfer', and 'performance self-efficacy' significantly predicted the outcomes. Participants of primary education rated themselves highly on 'personal capacity to transfer' compared to more educated farmers, while participants of 18 to 35 years rated themselves high on 'readiness to learn' compared to their elders.

**Keywords:** training of transfer, transfer system factors, bean grain post-harvest training, uganda.

**GJSFR-D Classification:** FOR Code: 070199



Strictly as per the compliance and regulations of:



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**Implication:** Enhancing the transfer of post-harvest handling of bean grain needs to pay attention to the unique capacity needs of men and women who are involved. Strategies that enhance motivation to transfer and self-efficacy need to be identified, while demographic differences among trainees should inform transfer strategies.

**Application:** Specific ways of improving planning for training and training transfer design for farmers is critical. One of these is to endeavor to be gender-responsive and ensuring the market viability of interventions to enhance motivation to transfer training.

**Originality:** The application of the LTSI in a specific training need of African farmers important in farming has been extended, as well as bringing out the gender and demographic factors unique to a context and their implications for transfer design.

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## 1. INTRODUCTION

In Sub Saharan Africa (SSA) despite the large contribution of agriculture to the region's Gross Domestic Product (GDP), agricultural productivity is generally lower than in other developing regions in the

world (ACET, 2017). At the same time, agriculture's share in SSA countries' GDP has been declining with an increase in low value-added services, which are unlikely to provide the foundations for sustainable economic development. Linked to this, we find that SSA accounts for the majority of the world's extreme poverty, and most of this extreme poverty is located in rural areas amongst populations dependent on agriculture. This implies that agricultural innovation and transformation will be central to the goal of providing an adequate standard of living to rural populations in SSA countries (ACET, 2017). The development of new technologies, practices, and methods to increase agricultural productivity and enable smallholder farmers to participate and benefit from markets is a priority for sustainable development.

For smallholder farmers to contribute successfully to increased agricultural productivity, and to compete for domestic and global markets, they need training in the use of new technologies and practices. Training will not only improve personal competitiveness, but it is likely to result in improved standards of living and income leading to country-level economic growth. The major objective of any training is to improve personal performance at the workplace that can impact that workplace (Babkina, 2014). While training can have far-reaching positive impacts, it depends a lot on the extent of transfer of the trained knowledge and skills to the workplace. The extent of transfer depends on a system of factors that affect the extent to which the trainee will back to the job and workplace (Baldwin and Ford, 1988; Holton, Bates and Ruona, 2000).

Transfer of training can be defined as the generalization of skills, knowledge, and attitude from the training to the jobs (Lii, Chen, & Naquin, 2003). Studies have shown that trainees often fail to transfer their learning to the workplace. Identifying the extent of transfer and the factors that positively influence the transfer of the skills, knowledge, and attitude acquired from the training into improved work performance is critical at the farm work environment of smallholder farmers in Africa. The extent of transfer reveals the level to which trainees have applied what they have learned back to their job or work context. Additionally, the extent of transfer is influenced by a number of factors inherent in the trainee, the training strategy and the work environment.

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## II. THE LEARNING TRANSFER SYSTEM INVENTORY: CONCEPTUAL AND ANALYTICAL APPROACH

Holton *et al.*, (2000) has argued that the factors that affect training transfer operate as a system. Together with his colleague Bates, they developed the Learning Transfer System Inventory (LTSI) to evaluate the effectiveness of the transfer of training. This would happen through identifying which factors can be responsible for the transfer of training irrespective of the type and place of training. Many studies have used the LTSI to measure the effectiveness of training in various areas and fields. (Kiwanuka, Miuro, Matsiko, & Nkalubo, 2020), used the LTSI to study the effects of trainee and training design characteristics on the transfer of agricultural training in Uganda among bean seed farmers. Soerensen, Stegeager, and Bates (2017) used the LTSI to study the students taking adult vocational training, professional academic programs, diploma, and master's degree training programs in Denmark. Antunes, Nascimento, and Bates (2018), and Velada, Caetano, Bates, and Holton (2009) used the LTSI among private organizations in Portugal. Sseguya, Bekunda, Muthoni, Flavian, and Masigo (2018); Zamani, Ataei, and Bates (2016), Muthoni and Miuro (2016), as well as Miuro, Mazur, and Matsiko (2012) used the LTSI in agricultural training targeting farmers. The LTSI has been used in the public and private sector entities in Ukraine ranging from health, University education, agricultural agencies, high schools, and business (Yamkovenko, Holton and Bates, 2007). It has been used to evaluating training in banking in South Africa (Coetsee, Eiselen, & Basson, 2006); among private sector companies working in engineering, construction, financial services, health, telecommunications in German (Bates, Kauffeld, & Holton, 2007), in training related to policing and law enforcement (Hutchins, Nimon, Bates, & Holton, 2013); manufacturing, health, and non-profit international agencies among French-speakers in Belgium (Devos *et al.* 2007), health services in Ireland (Kirwan & Birchall, 2006), private and public sector organizations in Jordan (Khasawneh, Bates and Holton, 2006; Yaghi *et al.*, 2007).

In the field of agriculture, transfer of training studies have been scarce (Kiwanuka 2020; Sseguya *et al.*, 2018; Zamani, Ataei and Bates, 2016). Yamkovenko *et al.*, 2007 study in Ukraine sampled from an agrarian University, and an agricultural academy involved in agricultural extension service. However, their sample was mixed with respondents from other organizations like hospitals, sales, and high schools. Specific studies on the transfer of training in agricultural aspects have been initiated in the last six years. Miuro *et al.* (2012) studied the transfer of governance-facilitation skills by leaders of farmers' marketing organizations in Uganda.

Zamani *et al.*, 2016, their study in Iran looked at the transfer of over six sustainable agriculture skill sets given to farmers ranging from crop agronomy to milk quality training. Miuro *et al.* (2012) focused on farmer leaders who had received governance-facilitation training while Zamani *et al.*, (2016) focused on farmers from clusters that had received training in distinct sustainable agriculture skills. Muthoni and Miuro (2016) focused on the transfer of technical skills like breeding, grain systems and marketing, and on social areas such as gender, monitoring, and evaluation by agricultural scientists working under the auspices of an international agricultural research systems context in Africa. Sseguya *et al.* (2018), looked at the transfer of training of sustainable intensification in agriculture practices (improved crop varieties, good agricultural practices, household nutrition and handling food waste) by farmer trainers in Tanzania. Kiwanuka (2020) looked at the bean agronomic training among bean seed farmers.

In terms of the extent of transfer of training in the field of agriculture training transfer levels are high. Zamani *et al.* (2016) registered an 80% transfer of sustainable intensification skills among farmers in Iran. Muthoni & Miuro (2016) who studied 'What influences the transfer of training in an African agricultural research network' registered an average of 75% transfer for each of the four training areas. Miuro *et al.*, (2012) reported 67% transfer of governance-facilitation skills leaders of the farmer marketing organizations. While these rates are high, the factors that influence such outcomes have varied, and so are the implications on how enhancing the transfer of training skill investments. Training transfer studies on agricultural field practices are still few Kiwanuka (2020), Sseguya, *et al.* (2018), and Zamani *et al.* (2016). There is a need to extend research focused on agricultural training among farmers and its transfer in Africa. The level of transfer of training can differ depending on the sex of the trainee. Kingiri (2010) noted that there are unequal relations between men and women in households, men and women have varying challenges in agricultural production, varying opportunities and also play varying roles. These gender differences are bound to affect levels of uptake of agricultural interventions (Mudege, Mwanga, Mdege, Chevo, and Abidin, 2018). Mudege *et al.* (2018) observed fewer women involved in market-oriented sweet potato vine multiplication than the men. From the above literature we hypothesized the following:

*H 1: There will be no difference in the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training between men and women farmers*

The four training transfer studies in the field of agriculture have looked at actual transfer and explored the factors in the learning transfer system that influence actual transfer as opposed to intended transfer or predictive transfer (Hutchins *et al.*, 2013; Zamani *et al.*,

2016). The most common methods of determining the factors that explain transfer of training have involved the use of hierarchical regression given that the influencing factors are categorized into trainee, training design and work environment-related factors (Bates, *et al.*, 2007; Velada *et al.*, 2007; Miiro *et al.*, 2012; Hutchins, *et al.*, 2013; Sseguya *et al.*, 2018). Zamani *et al.* (2016) on the other hand used path analysis and looked at what influenced the direct transfer of training, and how the explanatory variables related to each other. Both Miiro *et al.* (2012) and Zamani *et al.* (2016) used the LTSI tool while Sseguya *et al.* (2018) used another tool. Respondents in two of the studies were farmer leaders/trainers (Miiro *et al.* 2012; Sseguya *et al.* 2018), while Zamani *et al.* (2016) dealt with farmers directly, with Muthoni and Miiro (2016) dealing with agricultural scientists.

In agriculture-focused training transfer studies, the combination of factors that influenced transfer has differed from one study to another. In Sseguya *et al.* (2018) the combination of predictive factors that were significant in training transfer included 'motivation to learn', 'training design and delivery', and 'work environment' factors. In Muthoni and Miiro (2016) there was no significant contributor to the combination of factors that predicted the transfer of training. Only personal capacity to transfer in the initial block entry of trainee characteristics significantly contributed to transfer. In Miiro *et al.* (2012), 'personal capacity to transfer' in terms of having the mental, physical, knowledge and time to transfer, 'training design and delivery', 'supervisor encouragement' and 'feedback' were critical factors in influencing transfer. In Miiro *et al.* (2012), influencing factors were mainly from work environment while for Zamani *et al.* (2016), they represented trainee and work environment factors ('motivation to transfer', 'performance self-efficacy', 'supervisor support', 'performance-outcomes expectations', 'opportunity to use' and 'supervisor sanctions'). Different influencing factors seem to arise depending on the context, and this means interventions need to be targeted to the unique factors in that special context if the transfer of training is to be enhanced. Given the diversity of the agricultural sector within countries, across countries, the varied levels of capacity building whether governance, policy, managerial, research, business/marketing, extension and farmer level, and the varying skills set across the agricultural value chain, more studies on training transfer are still needed if definite interventions are to be identified.

While it is important to look at the whole system of factors known to affect training transfer (Holton *et al.*, 2003), research that focuses on system factors is needed. For example by looking at what individual factors, or what training design factors influence training transfer. Cromwell and Kolb (2004) studied the work environment factors that affected the transfer of

supervision skills. Lim (2000), had as one of the objectives identifying the trainee learning and training design factors that influenced the transfer of training albeit he used an open-ended approach of asking the respondents what in the training design supported or inhibited the transfer of training. Some studies have focused on aspects of trainee characteristics that affect the motivation of the trainees (Sahoo and Misra, 2019). Trainee characteristics, and training design and delivery factors that influence the transfer of training were the interest of this study. Work environment factors were presented in another context and expanded to capture the uniqueness of the farmers' work environment.

#### a) *Trainee characteristics and training transfer*

The research revealed that the physical, psychological and cognitive ability characteristics of an individual can influence training outcomes. Factors such as; 'Personal capacity to transfer', 'motivation to learn', 'readiness to learn' and 'performance self-efficacy' (See Table 2). According to Tziner *et al.* (2007), trainees who have a high 'performance self-efficacy', are more likely to transfer training than their counterparts with low levels. Trainees with high motivation, prior to training are more likely to transfer training than trainees with low or no motivation (Moreira *et al.*, 2019; Pham & Le, 2019; Chiaburu and Marinova, 2005)., Based on these assertions we hypothesize that:

*H 2: There will be no difference in the way each of the trainee characteristics contributes to the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training*

#### b) *Training design and delivery factors and transfer of training*

Training design refers to strategies used to enhance learning and transfer of learning back to the job (Holton, Bates, & Ruona, 2000). Training design factors that influence training transfer include training design (Hutchins *et al.*, 2013; Velada *et al.*, 2007) and perceived content validity (Bates, Holton, and Hatala, 2012; Ataei and Zamani, 2015). Transfer literature suggests that content design (Bhatti *et al.*, 2014; Lim and Morris, 2005) and instructional methods (Yelon, Sheppard, Sleight, & Ford, 1997) are the main categories of training design. Other factors like having general rules and principles to guide application when back to one's job can also affect transfer (Lim & Morris, 2006). Basing on the above assertions we believe it is a significant characteristic in the transfer of training process, thus we hypothesize the following:

*H 3: There will be no difference in the way each of the training design factors contributes to the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training*

#### c) *Influence of demographic variables on partial LU-LTSI*

It is important to note that even within the same training and training transfer context, the demographic



characteristics of the trainees will influence the way the transfer environment is perceived, affecting the level of transfer of training. Hardly any training transfer study in the field of agriculture has considered the demographic differences that create variation in the way respondents view the training transfer system. Will farmers of varied age, sex, education, socioeconomic status, and work experience view the transfer system of factors the same way, and if not what are the implications for training transfer strategizing? Antunes, Nascimento, and Bates (2018) in Portugal, Soerensen, Stegeager and Bates (2017) in Denmark, Velada, Caetano, Bates and Holton (2009) in Portugal, Khasawneh, Bates and Holton (2006) in Jordan, Chen (2006) in Taiwan, Yamnill and McLean (2005) in Thailand have all looked at demographic factors of respondents and how they influenced the way transfer factors were perceived. Trainees of various demographic levels are likely to view training transfer factors differently. Men, for example, tend to view 'performance-outcome expectations' whether positive or negative more positively than women. Respondents of higher age tend to have a lower expectation of 'peer support', 'performance outcomes', and 'coaching'. What demographic differences among agricultural training beneficiaries will influence the perception of the transfer of training factors and what should be done in resultant situations? Petty, Lim, and Zulauf, (2007), examined the gender difference in perception of transfer of related training between CD-ROM-based instruction and traditional based instruction and found no difference in gender. Chen *et al.* (2006), found a significant difference in perception of transfer system characteristics across gender.

*H 4: There will be no difference in the way respondents of various gender, age, education, and working experience view the various LTSI factors*

*d) The Learning Transfer System Inventory conceptual Framework*

To begin with, personal factors such as; age, farming experience and level of education are expected to influence the way trainee characteristics and training design is perceived. Depending on the perception, participants will hold on themselves, this will be the level perceived on the transfer of bean post-harvest handling. Trainee characteristics and training design factors of the LTSI finally will influence training transfer of bean agronomic and post-harvest handling.

The arrows indicate how factors influence each other to cause a transfer of training.

*e) The Case of Post-harvest handling practices for bean grains*

This study focused on a training offered by Community Enterprises Development Organization in Uganda. (CEDO). This was under a research project called pre-cooked beans for food, nutrition, and

income(Aseete *et al.*, 2018). Farmers were trained on various bean pos- harvest handling practices so that they can produce enough beans to supply the pre-cooked bean industry that aimed at addressing the growing demand of urban and peri-urban consumers (Aseete *et al.*, 2018).

CEDO a social enterprise non-government organization engaged farmers in the growing of bean grain under a contract arrangement. It trained farmers in grain production activities, CEDO would buy the bean grain from the farmers at a price that was put in a contract. Farmers were expected to observe the quality standards such as having beans of the same varieties, well dried, clean, not damaged and free from pests. These standards demanded that farmers be trained in bean grain post-harvest handling practices.

The post-harvest practices training took on average 8 hours and covered principles and practices using a hands-on practical approach. Trainers of trainees, selected from different farmer groups, in different villages were trained by a subject specialist. The subject specialists were given smartphones, containing the subject content from which they would select, what to train others. The training which took place two weeks before harvesting included topics like proper drying, winnowing and good storage methods like triple bagging. Weekly radio program on bean farming covering post-harvest handling, was aired out, as information support to farmers. Arrangements were put in place to support farmers who faced any challenge during the production of a bean grain. The arrangements included contacting specialists like extension workers, and some farmers who provided technical backstopping.

### III. METHODOLOGY

*a) Research approach*

The study was a quantitative cross-sectional survey design that permitted the determination of factors from the LTSI that influenced the perceived transfer of post-harvest training.

*b) Instrumentation*

The study adopted) LTSI questionnaire (Holton *et al.*, 2000). The tool has been used by several studies; Kiwanuaka(2020); Ataei and Zamani (2015), Bates *et al.* (2007), Devoset al. (2007), and Kirwan and Birchall (2006).Bates, the co-developer of the instrument offered user permission to Dr. Richard Miiro the main -author in this article.

The LTSI was translated into a local dialect called 'Luganda',forming the 'Luganda' Learning transfer system inventory version (LU-LTSI). The LU-LTSI was translated initially from English to Luganda and from Luganda back to English.



The translated LTSI reliability was pretested with 30 farmers in the research population, and factor analyzed. Cronbach's alpha coefficient ranged between 0.7 and 0.8 (Table 2). The Independent variable constructs in a local version were measured (Table 1).

Six items were used to measure the dependent variable. Each item was scored on a five-point Likert-type scales with responses ranging from, 1=strongly disagree to 5=strongly agree. The 6 items were; "I enjoy challenges related to bean grain post-harvest practices", "I like to share my ideas on bean grain post-harvest handling with others", "I use more of what I learned in the bean grain post-harvest training", "I am confident that I have progressed since the bean grain post-harvest course", "I am confident about applying the learning from bean grain post-harvest training to my garden", "I have higher expectations from my bean grain post-harvest learning performance since participating in the course". The reliability of these items in measuring transfer was  $\alpha = 0.877$ . The instrument also collected demographic data. To ensure construct validity, the tool was given to supervisors to assess sentence construction, language clarity and comprehensiveness of the questionnaire, visa-a-vie the set objective in terms of length, the comments were incorporated in the final draft.

c) *Study area*

The study was conducted in the central Uganda. The mean annual rainfall ranged between 1278 mm-1542 mm in two seasons. The mean daily temperature ranged between 15 °C - 28 °C. The districts had adequate precipitation and relatively fertile soil making agriculture feasible and a major livelihood strategy in the region.

d) *Sampling procedure*

Rakai and Lyantonde districts were purposively selected based on having the highest levels of bean grain production. Using a random sampling procedure.

e) *Data analysis*

Quantitative data analysis involved getting factors that gave an interpretable structure of the LTSI used in this study. SPSS for Windows Version 16.0 software was used to analyze data. Principal Axis Factoring (PAF) was used to extract the underlying factor structure of the instrument (Costello & Osbourne,

2005). The measure of sampling adequacy using the Kaiser-Meyer-olkin (KMO) was 0.85, which qualified the data for factor analysis (Coetsee et al., 2006). The Bartlett's test of sphericity was  $P < 0.001$ . Six factors were extracted explaining 46.9% of the common variance. Items with loadings of greater than 0.4 were selected (Leech, Barrett, & Morgan, 2014) (Table 1).

Independent t-Tests were conducted on all the practices to determine if a difference in score existed in the level of transfer training between men and women that had attended the bean grain post-harvest training.

A hierarchical multiple linear regression analysis was used to determine the combination of factors (trainee, and training design) that influenced the transfer of the training. It was appropriate because the LTSI has three sets of known factors that influence the transfer of training. Thus each set had to be entered as a block to capture the unique factors that contributed to training transfer. Multiple Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was used to analyze how demographic variables affected perceptions of the LTSI factors. MANOVA was chosen over the univariate analysis of Variance ANOVA. Because, more than one dependent variable could be included simultaneously (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2008). Prior to analysis, data were tested against required assumptions including normality, homoscedasticity, and multicollinearity (Doane & Seward, 2011). Outliers were removed by eliminating z-values from raw data above -/ +3.29 (Tabachnick and Fidell, 2008). Descriptive statistics were also used. Levene's F-test was tested (Hair, Black, Babin, Anderson, & Tatham, 2006). Cohen's d for effect size was used (Cohen, 1992)

IV. RESULTS

a) *Sample description*

Respondents' age ranged from 18 to 82. Close to 72% of the population indicated being between 18 and 50 years old. Similarly, 13% were had no formal education, 55 % had primary education, 23% had secondary education and 9% indicated having post-secondary education. The average land size owned was 5.63(SD= 6.6). The average proportion of land used for bean growing was 2.0 (SD=1.5) acres. The average distance trekked to training centers was 2.6 (SD=2.45) kilometers and the longest distance traveled was 7 kilometers.

Table 1: Factor loading of rotated items

| Item  | PSE         | PCV         | MOT | RL | PCT | TD | Communality |
|-------|-------------|-------------|-----|----|-----|----|-------------|
| Q 83  | <b>.768</b> |             |     |    |     |    | .564        |
| Q 84  | <b>.636</b> |             |     |    |     |    | .540        |
| Q 82  | <b>.626</b> |             |     |    |     |    | .470        |
| Q 85  | <b>.593</b> |             |     |    |     |    | .466        |
| Q 58  |             | <b>.792</b> |     |    |     |    | .632        |
| Q 59  |             | <b>.679</b> |     |    |     |    | .566        |
| Q 49. |             | <b>.653</b> |     |    |     |    | .539        |
| Q 48  |             | <b>.613</b> |     |    |     |    | .540        |

|                     |              |             |             |             |             |             |
|---------------------|--------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|-------------|
| Q 47                | .610         |             |             |             |             | .519        |
| Q 3                 |              | .809        |             |             |             | .702        |
| Q 5                 |              | .782        |             |             |             | .622        |
| Q 4                 |              | .761        |             |             |             | .665        |
| Q 10                |              |             | .819        |             |             | .635        |
| Q 9                 |              |             | .778        |             |             | .586        |
| Q 13                |              |             | .584        |             |             | .491        |
| Q 11.               |              |             |             | .660        |             | .394        |
| Q 20                |              |             |             | .620        |             | .374        |
| Q 12                |              |             |             | .549        |             | .346        |
| Q 27                |              |             |             | .508        |             | .307        |
| Q 26                |              |             |             | .438        |             | .344        |
| Q 54                |              |             |             |             | .556        | .494        |
| Q 52                |              |             |             |             | .513        | .485        |
| Q 53                |              |             |             |             | .512        | .510        |
| <b>Eigen values</b> | <b>9.30</b>  | <b>3.67</b> | <b>2.55</b> | <b>1.77</b> | <b>1.62</b> | <b>1.26</b> |
| <b>% variance</b>   | <b>21.62</b> | <b>8.54</b> | <b>5.92</b> | <b>4.12</b> | <b>3.78</b> | <b>2.92</b> |

PSE =Performance self-efficacy, MOT= Motivation to transfer, PCT= Personal capacity for transfer, PCV =Perceived content validity, RL= Readiness to learn, TD =Training design

Table 2: LU-LTSI scale definitions sample items and cronbach's alphas coefficient

| Variable                            | Definition   | Sample item   | No. of Item | $\alpha$ |
|-------------------------------------|--|---|-------------|----------|
| <i>Train characteristic factors</i> |  |   |             |          |
| Performance self-efficacy           | Personal judgment about individual competency to perform defined tasks   | I never doubt my ability to use newly learnt skills on the farm                             | 4           | 0.8      |
| Readiness to learn                  | The extent to which an individual knows expected outcomes of the training and Understands how the training is prepared for him or her prior to participating in training | I knew what to expect from the training before it began                                     | 3           | 0.85     |
| Motivation to transfer learning     | The individual willingness and excitement to try out new learning to the farm and the belief that new skills will help him or her perform tasks better.                  | When I left training I couldn't wait to get back to work.                                   | 3           | 0.87     |
| Personal capacity to transfer       | Individual belief in overcoming obstacles like lack of time  | I did not have time to try to use the knowledge from training                               | 4           | 0.7      |
| <i>Training design factors</i>      |  |   |             |          |
| Perceived content validity          | Individual judgement about the match between training content and job requirements   | What was taught closely matched my farming requirement                                      | 5           | 0.8      |
| Training design                     | Individual perception on how the training was designed to enable them apply what they learnt to the farm   | The trainer(s) used lots of examples that showed me how I could use my learning on the farm | 3           | 0.7      |

Adopted from Kiwanuka et al. (2020)

Table 3: Independent t-Test for the transfer of post -harvest practices by gender

| Variable                             |             |      |           | MEN  |       | WOMEN |      |
|--------------------------------------|-------------|------|-----------|------|-------|-------|------|
|                                      | t-Test      | P    | Cohen's d | M    | SD    | M     | SD   |
| Use of tarpaulins to dry bean        | t(186)=1.48 | 0.14 | 0.2       | 4.37 | 0.674 | 4.53  | 0.73 |
| <i>Winnowing beans before sale</i>   | t(250)=2.91 | 0.01 | 0.4       | 4.36 | 0.678 | 4.60  | 0.60 |
| Use of Triple bagging storage method | t(221)=1.19 | 0.2  | 0.2       | 3.61 | 0.61  | 3.53  | 0.62 |

Note. Only significant practices are in italics. M=Mean, P= p-value, SD=standard deviation

b) *Level of transfer of bean grain post-harvest training among men and women farmers*

The extent of transfer of *bean grain post-harvest training* among men and women farmers were assessed. A statistically significant difference between the mean score of transfer of training for men (n=148, Mean=26.99,SD=3.27) and women (n=101, Mean=27.91, SD=3.01),t (247) =2.26, P=0.025 was obtained. The effect size was a medium effect (Cohen's d = 0.3). The 95% confidence interval in which the true mean lied was -1.73-to -0.12. The assumption of homogeneity of variance was tested and satisfied via Levene's F-test, F=1.41, P=0.24. Independent t-Test was associated with statistically significant effect, thus women transferred more than men.

*Winnowing of beans* before the sale found to have a statistically significant difference between the mean transfer of training score for men and women (n=151, Mean=26.80, SD=3.39) and women (n=101, Mean=28.01, SD=2.98), t (250) =2.91, P= 0.004. The effect size (Cohen's d = 0.4) was a medium effect.

c) *Trainee characteristic factors influencing the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training.*

H 2: *There will be no difference in the way each of the trainee characteristics influences the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training*

Using hierarchical regression modelling, the trainee characteristic factors were entered as a block to determine those which significantly influence the transfer

of bean grain post-harvest training (Table 5). These significantly predicted transfer of bean grain post-harvest training (adj.R<sup>2</sup> = 0. 270; F (4, 217) = 21.384, P<0.001). 'Motivation for transfer' (β=0.397, p < 0.001), 'perceived self-efficacy' (β=0.167, p < 0.01) and 'readiness to learn' β=0.153, p < 0.01, significantly contributed to the model.

d) *Training design and delivery factors influencing the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training*

H 3: *There will be no difference in the way each of the training design factors contributes to the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training*

In the second step, training design factors ('perceived content validity' and 'training design') were entered as a block to give the final model. The combined and final model significantly predicted the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training (adj.R<sup>2</sup> = 0. 268, F= 14.867, p<0.01). Both trainee characteristics and training design factors explained 27% of the variance in the transfer of training. Trainee characteristic factors emerged as the strongest predictors of bean grain post-harvest training transfer. 'Motivation to transfer' (β=0.394, p< 0.01) and 'performance self-efficacy' (β=0.137, p< 0.05), significantly contributed to the model. None of the training design factors significantly contributed to the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training among the farmers in the final model (Table 5).

Table 4: Hierarchical regression for the transfer of post -harvest training

| Dependent variable                         |          |          |                       |                 |
|--|----------|----------|-----------------------|-----------------|
| Transfer of post-harvest handling training |          |          |                       |                 |
|  | Model 1  | Model 2  | Tolerance for model 2 | VIF for model 2 |
| Performance self-efficacy                  | .167**   | .137*    | .795                  | 1.257           |
| Readiness to learn                         | .153**   | .117     | .852                  | 1.174           |
| Motivation to transfer                     | .397**   | .394**   | .838                  | 1.194           |
| Personal capacity to transfer              | .094     | .106     | .974                  | 1.027           |
| Perceived content validity                 | -        | .096     | .803                  | 1.246           |
| Transfer design                            | -        | .043     | .766                  | 1.305           |
| R <sup>2</sup>                             | .283     | .293     |                       |                 |
| Adj.R <sup>2</sup>                         | .270     | .274     |                       |                 |
| F  | 21.384** | 14.867** |                       |                 |
| Performance self-efficacy                  | .167**   | .137*    | .795                  | 1.257           |

\*\*P <0.01 \* P<0.05

Note VIF Variance inflation factor.

e) *Influence of demographic variables on bean grain post-harvest transfer outcome*

H 4: *There will be no difference in the way respondents of various gender, age, education, and working experience view the various LTSI factors*

Multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) was conducted to test whether farmer trainees of varying

demographics age and education level differed in their perceptions of the factors that influenced the transfer of bean grain post-harvest training.

Education level: MANOVA showed a significant difference across the education levels (Wilk's λ =0.893, F = (18, 879) = 1.97, P =0.009, partial η<sup>2</sup> =0.039). In the between-subjects, ANOVA showed only one of the

six factors was significant across the education level. The factor was 'personal capacity to transfer' ( $F: 3,296 = 6.38, P < .001$ ). The strength of association was small partial  $\eta^2 = 0.061$  (Table 6). Post hoc examination indicated that respondents with primary education and

below rated 'Personal capacity to transfer' higher than did respondents with no formal education. Similarly, respondents with secondary education and above rated 'Personal capacity to transfer' training higher than those with primary education and below.

Table 5: Univariate comparisons of training design and trainee characteristics factors by education level

| Dependent Variable            | Education level Means |          |                     |         |           | F     | Sig. |                |
|-------------------------------|-----------------------|----------|---------------------|---------|-----------|-------|------|----------------|
|                               | Partial LU-LTSI       | Over all | No formal education | Primary | Secondary |       |      | Post-secondary |
| Performance self-efficacy     |                       | 17.48    | 16.88               | 17.87   | 17.78     | 17.39 | 2.03 | 0.11           |
| Perceived content validity    |                       | 22.11    | 22.40               | 22.84   | 21.99     | 21.19 | 1.01 | 0.39           |
| Personal capacity to transfer |                       | 14.35    | 12.50               | 12.96   | 15.79     | 16.15 | 6.38 | 0.00           |
| Training design               |                       | 13.74    | 13.60               | 13.91   | 13.81     | 13.62 | 0.68 | 0.56           |
| Readiness to learn,           |                       | 9.99     | 9.23                | 10.28   | 9.81      | 10.65 | 0.96 | 0.41           |
| Motivation to transfer        |                       | 14.32    | 14.25               | 14.47   | 14.24     | 14.31 | 1.46 | 0.30           |

Age levels: MANOVA showed no significant difference between the different categories of age groups when considered jointly on the variables of LU-LTSI (Wilk's  $\lambda = .935, F = (12, 586) = 1.65, P > 0.05$ , partial  $\eta^2 = 0.033$ ). In the between-subjects, ANOVA showed a significant difference between the age groups on the

factor of 'readiness to learn' ( $F = (2, 297) = 5.77, P < 0.01$ ). The strength of association was very low partial  $\eta^2 = 0.037$  (Table 7). Post hoc comparison across age groups showed that, respondents aged 18 to 38 rated 'readiness to learn' higher than did those aged between thirty-nine and fifty-nine and those older than fifty-nine.

Table 6: Univariate comparisons of training design and trainee characteristics factors by Age groups

| Dependent Variable            | Age (years) means |         |       |              | F    | Sig. |
|-------------------------------|-------------------|---------|-------|--------------|------|------|
|                               | Over all          | 18 - 38 | 39-59 | 60 and above |      |      |
| Performance self-efficacy     | 17.69             | 17.94   | 17.46 | 17.67        | 1.37 | 0.26 |
| Perceived content validity    | 20.14             | 14.29   | 21.86 | 24.27        | 2.01 | 0.14 |
| Personal capacity to transfer | 13.72             | 13.68   | 14.00 | 13.47        | 0.16 | 0.85 |
| Training design               | 13.89             | 13.90   | 13.70 | 14.03        | 1.05 | 0.35 |
| Readiness to learn,           | 10.20             | 10.94   | 9.27  | 10.40        | 5.77 | 0.00 |
| Motivation to transfer        | 14.38             | 14.29   | 14.43 | 14.43        | 0.83 | 0.43 |

## V. DISCUSSION

This paper addresses a relevant concern on why lessons from most pieces of training in most smallholder farming communities with a focus on improving uptake and scaling of innovations or new practices, are often not taken up in practice in spite of the fact that the pieces of training are initiated based on needs assessments. The results of this study shed light in this direction by highlighting what needs to be taken into consideration and reveals the differences in the level of training transfer between men and women, insights on a combination of trainee characteristics, training design, and trainees' perception of the transfer system.

### The extent of skills transfer across gender

This study addressed the question of whether men and women differed with respect to the extent of

training transfer of bean grain post-harvest practices. Results indicated that generally, the transfer of training was high with women having higher training transfer than men. This is in line with findings Kiwanuaka (2020) who found out that women, were having a significantly higher training transfer than men. Job & Fajuyigbe (2014), found out that women farmers involved in upland rice growing were more efficient in using technology than men farmers. The possible explanation is that most of the women are often in charge of post-harvest activities of bean grain this means the training they received just reinforced their abilities making it easy for them to transfer in the same line the crop is used as source and women in African cultures are in charge of preparing food for the family hence the high rate of transfer.

### *Influence of trainee characteristics and training design factors*

The result of this study revealed that 'motivation to transfer' was key to the transfer of post-harvest training. This is in agreement with the findings of Kim, Park & Kang, (2019),

Hutchins et al. (2013), Suhepi, (2018) and Zamani et al. (2016), who found out that, 'motivation to transfer' had a direct influence on transfer outcome. Since the training took place in the context of commercial bean grain production with a ready buyer of the grain farmers were to produce under a contract arrangement. This might have served as a motivation for those involved in the post-harvest training. Given the role of motivation to transfer in the transfer of training, effort should be made to improve farmers' motivation to ensure better training outcomes.

The results revealed that 'personal self-efficacy' positively influenced training transfer. The finding is consistent with the findings of Zamani et al. (2016), Suhepi (2018) and (Velada, Caetano, Michel, Lyons, & Kavanagh, 2007) who found that self-efficacy predicted learning transfer. This finding suggests that self-efficacy was critical if one was to transfer the post-harvest handling skills. This was because those trainee farmers who perceived themselves with higher self-efficacy indicated to have transferred post-harvest training to their farms more.

### *Effect of demographic variables on partial LU-LTSI*

On the demographic influences on the perceptions of the transfer factors, respondents with secondary education and above rated 'personal capacity to transfer' training higher than those with primary education and below. Primary level education rated 'personal capacity to transfer' higher than did respondents with no formal education. Education played an important role in the trainee's understanding of the training and therefore, their perceived capacity to transfer the training. It appears that the post-harvest practices including proper drying, winnowing and good storage methods like triple bagging made more sense and where understandable to farmers who had more education. Implying the importance of education in grasping the aspects that were trained. These findings differ from Antunes et al. (2018), Velada et al. (2009) who found the more educated trainees had negative perceptions as compared to the less educated. Khasawneh et al. (2006) reported lower levels of education have higher levels of motivation to transfer. Velada et al. (2009), argued that educated people tended not to see the value-added in training and were often critical of training goals, designs, and content. It seems since farmers in this study were in farming as a business, continuous learning was important to the advantage of the more educated than not. Farmers who were between 18 to 38 years old rated

'readiness to learn' higher than those aged between thirty-nine and fifty-nine, and those older than fifty-nine. Antunes, et al. (2018) also found that younger trainees perceived certain transfer factors more highly and positively. While 'readiness to learn' was not specifically rated highly in their study, young people tend to rate 'performance outcome' whether negative or positive and 'content validity' and 'performance coaching' positively and thus helpful for transferring learning. Unlike the older ones who have gained career stability and value efforts to transfer less. The same arguments work for 'readiness to learn' (Antunes, et al., 2018). Younger farmers who were likely to building farming as a business career can have greater readiness to learn, because of the opportunities of making more income.

## VI. CREATIVITY

The applicability of LTSI among smallholder farmers in Uganda has been verified, attention to gender differences in the levels of transfer has been made. Demographic factors (age and education) role in influencing farmer trainee perception of transfer system factors among farmers has been highlighted. While most studies have found trainees of higher education apathetic to transfer efforts and not so interested in the outcomes, the study has found out that having an education was useful for farmers to transfer the training. 'Motivation to transfer' and 'performance self-efficacy' were the factors that influenced the transfer of bean grain post-harvest handling training among farmers under the commercial contract based bean grain marketing arrangement. The LTSI has proven its usefulness in assessing whether training is being applied and what can be done to enhance transfer in unique situations. Given that there are countless training targeting farmers and value chain actors, the LTSI is now available as a tool to establish what will make things work irrespective of the context.

## VII. LIMITATION

This study was collected by the self-reporting of the farmers which can be subjective to recall bias and this greatly depends on memory. Respondents generally find it problematic, to remember incidents that happened in the past. Sometimes respondents have the attendance of placing themselves in favorable ways regardless of their actual thoughts and feelings (De Rijdt et al. 2013). Measuring actual transfer can improve the findings.

## VIII. CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Training transfer is gendered, and the study showed that women farmers transferred post-harvest handling skills more than men. 'Motivation to transfer' and 'performance self-efficacy' strongly predicted the



transfer of bean grain post-harvest training among the farmers. Age and education level revealed varying perceptions of the transfer system factors among farmers. The young farmers rated 'readiness to learn' higher than the older farmers, while having a higher level of education was important in one's personal capacity to transfer of post-harvest training.

The findings point to some important practical recommendations. The findings suggest that farmers should be highly motivated to transfer the result of the training into the work. Because the farmers are motivated to transfer then transfer will be in line with the purpose of the training. However, if the trainees are not motivated and just came because they were supposed to attend to meet the invitation from the change agent then the transfer will be low therefore, the facilitator should be able to motivate the farmers and show them how the training is related to their work and how they will apply it on their farms.

Facilitators should also pay more attention to ensuring farmer's self-efficacy this can be achieved by giving more practical examples during the training session, to help the farmers understand how these training outcomes are related to their work. Thus the use of real-life examples and day to day work can build trainees sense of confidence and motivate them to transfer the training to their work

Lastly, it is critical in training and training transfer design to pay attention to the demographic differences of the trainees, and design ways to get the most out of training that suits the demographics of the trainees. This should also guide the selection of who should benefit from training. Policymakers should establish guidelines for training farmers that embrace the critical factors identified in this study.

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# Nutrient use and Response of African Catfish *Clarias Gariepinus* to Fishmeal Diets Containing Auto-Detoxified Mixtures of Jatropha Kernel Cake with Bovine Blood

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**Abstract-** African catfish *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings were used as a model to evaluate diets containing three auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake with bovine blood (ADMJKC/bb) ingredients. The test ingredients and a control were used to produce seven isonitrogenous and isocaloric diets in which they either replaced 30% or 50% level of fishmeal. The Jatropha kernel cake mixed with bovine blood at a ratio of 2:1; heated, spread dried, remoistened and substituting 30% of fishmeal, and the Jatropha kernel cake mixed with bovine blood at a ratio of 3:1; unheated, spread dried, without remoistening, and substituting 30% of fishmeal), were similar to the control in feed conversion ratio and feed cost per gram of gain.

**Keywords:** auto-detoxified, jatropha -kernel -cake bovine -blood, *clarias gariepinus*.

**GJSFR-D Classification:** FOR Code: 070799



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# Nutrient use and Response of African Catfish *Clarias Gariepinus* to Fishmeal Diets Containing Auto-Detoxified Mixtures of Jatropha Kernel Cake with Bovine Blood

Divine. Ewane<sup>α</sup>, Benedicta. O. Oben<sup>σ</sup>, Maurice. E. Mele<sup>ρ</sup>, Kenneth. J. Ngoh Ndamukong<sup>ω</sup>, Kingsley. A. Etchu<sup>¥</sup>, Eugene. E. Ehabe<sup>§</sup>, Jane. M. Chah<sup>χ</sup>, Kennedy. F. Chah<sup>ν</sup> & Pius. Mbu Oben<sup>θ</sup>

**Abstract-** African catfish *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings were used as a model to evaluate diets containing three auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake with bovine blood (ADMJKC/bb) ingredients. The test ingredients and a control were used to produce seven isonitrogenous and isocaloric diets in which they either replaced 30% or 50% level of fishmeal. The Jatropha kernel cake mixed with bovine blood at a ratio of 2:1; heated, spread dried, remoistened and substituting 30% of fishmeal, and the Jatropha kernel cake mixed with bovine blood at a ratio of 3:1; unheated, spread dried, without remoistening, and substituting 30% of fishmeal, were similar to the control in feed conversion ratio and feed cost per gram of gain. The control significantly out-performed the Y<sub>30</sub>, Z<sub>20</sub>, Z<sub>30</sub> and Z<sub>40</sub> in feed efficiency, indicating thereby that at 30% fishmeal substitution, the 2:1 mixture of Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood (heated) and the 3:1 mixture of Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood (unheated) are biologically and economically satisfactory for *C. gariepinus* fingerlings, and could be recommended for *C. gariepinus* industrial rearing.

**Keywords:** auto-detoxified, jatropha -kernel -cake bovine -blood, *clarias gariepinus*.

## I. INTRODUCTION

The African catfish (*Clarias gariepinus*) has served as a good model for evaluating animal feed resources when supplemented with the Jackbean (Osuigwe *et al.*, 2005; 2006), poultry viscera (Toutou *et al.*; 2018) and soybean meal (Davies and Gouveia, 2008; Abdel-Warith *et al.*, 2020). This omnivorous scavenger, particularly amenable to farming practices of peasant small holders in the Tropics and sub-Tropics, was used

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in this study to test diets containing auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake (a co-product following extraction of Jatropha oil from *Jatropha curcas* seeds) and bovine blood - ADMJKC/bb (Ewane *et al.*; 2017). The Jatropha auto-detoxification process (Ewane *et al.*, 2017) and its enrichment with bovine blood (Ewane *et al.*, 2021) were meant to maximize the former's benefits to the resource-poor smallholder farmers. This study, which involved in-vitro and in vivo trials, was undertaken to assess the growth, nutrient utilization and economic response of the African catfish fed with diets containing auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake enriched with bovine blood (ADMJKC/bb) at different levels of fishmeal substitution.

## II. MATERIALS AND METHODS

### a) Experimental ingredients and diets

Auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood (ADMJKC/bb) were produced as described elsewhere (Ewane *et al.*, 2021), and three recommended ingredients (Table 1) were tested in isocaloric and iso-nitrogenous diets, at 30% and 50% replacement levels for fishmeal.

**Table 1:** Auto-detoxified mixtures of Jatropha kernel cake (JKC) and bovine blood (bb) - ADMJKC/bb

| Test ingredients | Code | Description and preparation protocol   |
|------------------|------|--|
| Treatment 1      | Y3   | JKC : bb (2:1 v/v), heated, spread dried, and remoistened daily to 66% w/w dry matter  |
| Treatment 2      | Z2   | JKC: bb (3:1 v/v) unheated, spread dried without remoistening                          |
| Treatment 3      | Z4   | JKC: bb (3:1 v/v). Unheated, spread dried, and remoistened daily to 66% w/w dry matter |

For the purpose of this study, the control treatment was composed of fishmeal, blood meal, maize, palm oil, bone meal, and premix and titanium



oxide, without any Jatropha or soybean meal. Whereas all the treatments had the same quantities of blood meal (3% w/w), palm oil (5% w/w), bone meal (1% w/w), titanium oxide (1% w/w) and premix (3% w/w), the quantity of ingredients in each formulation/treatment, given as parts per hundred of fishmeal (Table 2), varied with respect to the quantities of maize (16.2 to 36% w/w), soybean cake (0 to 19.8% w/w), ADMJKC/bb (0 to 25% w/w) and fish meal (25 to 50% w/w). The 30% ADMJKC/bb treatment level was based on the recommendation of Fakunle *et al* (2013) and Alatise *et al* (2014) for a test with *Clarias gariepinus* while the 50% ADMJKC/bb treatment level was based on the

recommendation of Kumar *et al* (2011) for a test with carp.

With these ingredients, seven iso-nitrogenous and iso-caloric diets were prepared containing crude protein (38% w/w), metabolizable energy (3000 MCal/kg), and 1% titanium oxide as inert tracer. The materials were thoroughly ground; uniformly using a hammer mill then hand-mixed to produce a mash, and the latter compressed (with a pelletizer) into 2-mm diameter hard pellets. The pellets were sun-dried for 1 h and packaged in dark 50-µm thin polyethylene sheets, and stored at room temperature for eventual use.

Table 2: Composition of experimental diets

| Treatments |            |                  | Ingredients |              |           |            |           |          |           |                  |          |       |
|------------|------------|------------------|-------------|--------------|-----------|------------|-----------|----------|-----------|------------------|----------|-------|
| Fish meal  | ADMJKC/bb* | Code             | Maize       | Soybean cake | ADMJKC/bb | Blood meal | Fish meal | Palm oil | Bone meal | TiO <sub>2</sub> | Premix** | Total |
| 100%       | Control    | -                | 36          | 0            | 0         | 3          | 50        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 70%        | 30% Y3     | Y3 <sub>30</sub> | 25          | 11           | 15        | 3          | 35        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 50%        | 50% Y3     | Y3 <sub>50</sub> | 16.2        | 19.8         | 25        | 3          | 25        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 70%        | 30% Z2     | Z2 <sub>30</sub> | 32          | 4            | 15        | 3          | 35        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 50%        | 50% Z2     | Z2 <sub>50</sub> | 29          | 7            | 25        | 3          | 25        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 70%        | 30% Z4     | Z4 <sub>30</sub> | 26.3        | 9.7          | 15        | 3          | 35        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |
| 50%        | 50% Z4     | Z4 <sub>50</sub> | 18.5        | 17.5         | 25        | 3          | 25        | 5        | 2         | 1                | 3        | 100   |

\* Auto-detoxified mix of Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood

\*\* Premix: composed (mg vitamin and mineral/kg premix): vitamin A 4,800,000 IU, vitamin D3 800,000 IU, vitamin E 4800 mg, vitamin K 800 mg, thiamine 600 mg, riboflavin 2800 mg, vitamin B3 4800 mg, pyridoxine 600 mg, vitamin B12 4 mg, folic acid 200 mg, cobalt 160 mg, copper 1200 mg, iron 9000 mg, iodine 480 mg, magnesium 2730 mg, manganese 28000 mg, zinc 20000 mg

Table 3 shows that the overall proximate composition of the experimental test ingredients were considerably different in terms of nitrogen-free and ether extracts as well as the ash and crude protein contents and less so in terms of their dry matter and crude fibre contents.

In a similar manner, as opposed to their tannin contents, the overall proximate composition of anti-nutritional factors in the test ingredients were significantly different with respect to phytates content, trypsin inhibitor, saponins, crude phorbol ester and lectin activity (Table 3b).

Table 3: Proximate composition of test ingredients

Figures followed by the same letter in a row were not significantly different (P=5%)

a. Nutritional factors

| Formulations     | Dry matter (%) | Crude protein (%) | Ether extract (%) | Crude fibre (%) | Ash (%) | NFE <sup>†</sup> (%) |
|------------------|----------------|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------|---------|----------------------|
| Control          |                |                   |                   |                 |         |                      |
| Treatment1 (Y3)  | 92.09          | 34.78             | 39.64             | 11.56           | 7.31    | 5.38                 |
| Treatment 2 (Z2) | 94.33          | 50.72             | 32.89             | 10.03           | 5.95    | 0.41                 |
| Treatment 3 (Z4) | 93.71          | 41.81             | 37.36             | 11.43           | 7.16    | 2.24                 |

b. *Anti-nutritional factors in test ingredients*

| Formulations    | Phytates (% dry matter) | Trypsin inhibitor (TIU/mg) | Saponins (g/100 g) | Tannin (%)         | Crude Phorbol Esther (mg/g) | Lectin activity (mg/mL) |
|-----------------|-------------------------|----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|-----------------------------|-------------------------|
| Control         |                         |                            |                    |                    |                             |                         |
| Treatment 1, Y3 | 1.71 <sup>a</sup>       | 3.99 <sup>a</sup>          | 0.10 <sup>a</sup>  | 0.044 <sup>a</sup> | 0.36 <sup>a</sup>           | 8.50 <sup>a</sup>       |
| Treatment 2, Z2 | 1.92 <sup>b</sup>       | 4.13 <sup>a</sup>          | 0.11 <sup>a</sup>  | 0.046 <sup>a</sup> | 0.41 <sup>b</sup>           | 9.13 <sup>b</sup>       |
| Treatment 3, Z4 | 2.29 <sup>c</sup>       | 4.31 <sup>b</sup>          | 0.13 <sup>b</sup>  | 0.047 <sup>a</sup> | 0.47 <sup>c</sup>           | 9.68 <sup>c</sup>       |

† NFE = Nitrogen free extract

b) *Experimental system and animals*

For the feeding trial, modelled after the work of Kumar *et al* (2011), 700 African catfish fingerlings weighing between 2.5 and 5 g, were obtained from the Batoke-Limbe Station of the Institute of Agricultural Research for Development (IRAD) and transferred to the Ekona Centre of the same institute where feeding trials were conducted. Hand aerators were used to supply oxygen to the fingerlings during transportation. Upon arrival at Ekona, they were rested for 6 h in two 50-litre tanks, then, randomly split in twenty one (21) groups of 20 fingerlings and each group placed in 35-litre aquaria to acclimatize, over a period of 14 days during which they were fed a commercial diet containing no vegetable protein.

The fish were all starved for 24h before the start of trials. Thereafter, the aquaria were thoroughly washed, rinsed and disinfected. Each fingerling was separately weighed and the five (5) with extreme weights in each group were retrieved and discarded, leaving 15 fingerlings in each tank (experimental unit). Each tank was thus a replicate and three tanks constituted a treatment. About two thirds of the water in each aquarium was siphoned and replaced daily (between 6 am and 8.30 am) with fresh water that had been stored for about 24 hat room temperature in the laboratory. Preliminary measurements showed no detectable levels of nitrite in the water before the start of the experiment. The water quality was monitored regularly and adjustments were made daily (between 3 and 10 pm) to keep the values within optimum range for fresh water fish culture (Temperature of 23-26°C, pH of 7- 8, dissolved oxygen of 5 - 6.8 mg/L, conductance of 65.6 – 107  $\mu\text{moh}/\text{cm}^3$ , total  $\text{NH}_3$  of 0.1 -0.2 mg/L, nitrites of 0.02 – 0.08 mg/L and nitrates of 1–3 mg/L).

The weekly rations of the fish were composed of 5% of their body weight. The daily ration was supplied in five equal parts, and given at five specific periods during the day (9 am, 11.30 am, 2 pm, 4.30 pm and 7 pm), in order to encourage consumption of feed formulations and allow for elimination of less promising treatments. Weight and feed data was recorded for each fish.

Throughout, fish behaviour seemed normal for all the treatments as they were well dispersed and did not always clump into one side of the tank despite

routine daily handling. However, fish fed Z4<sub>50</sub> test ingredient sometimes ate slowly and always left uneaten feed. This behaviour was not observed in the fishes fed the control and other ingredients.

c) *Digestibility trial and measurements*

The last 14 days of feeding trial were modelled into a digestibility trial during which the inert-marker (titanium dioxide) containing-diets were fed to the fish in accordance with the usual daily schedule. All leftover feed in each aquarium was siphoned (using a pipe) and discarded while the faeces were separately siphoned, poured into labelled beakers, and centrifuged at 4000g. The supernatants were discarded and the sediments (faeces) retrieved and deep-frozen at -20°C for subsequent analysis. Titanium dioxide in feed and faeces were determined using the method of Richter *et al.* (2003) while the nutrients' apparent digestibility coefficients (ADC) and the energy of the various diets were calculated according to (Cho *et al.*, 1982). The apparent digestibility coefficients of test ingredients (ADCI) were then calculated based on the digestibility of the reference and test diets using Equations of (Bureau and Cho, 1999),

d) *Body composition analysis*

From each replicate, twenty (20) fish samples were used for the initial body composition analysis and three (3) for the final body composition analysis. In each case, the fish were sacrificed by immersion in ice slurry, then, autoclaved at 120°C for 10 min, homogenized using a domestic blender and portions retrieved for proximate compositional analysis.

e) *Evaluation Parameters*

Growth performance and nutrient utilization were assessed in terms of:

- Body mass gain (BMG): The percentage ratio of the change in body mass (Final body mass less Initial body mass) to the initial body mass
- Average daily gain (ADG): The ratio of the change in body mass (final body mass less initial body mass) to the number of trial days
- Specific growth rate (SGR): The percentage ratio of the change in body mass [ $\text{Ln}(\text{final body mass}) - \text{Ln}(\text{initial body mass})$ ] to the number of trial days

- Interval survival rate (ISR): The ratio of the fish mortality (Initial number of fish less the mortality at midway of Trial) to the initial number of fish
- Final survival rate (FSR): The ratio of the fish mortality (Initial number of fish less the mortality at end of Trial) to the initial number of fish
- Feed conversion ratio (FCR): The ratio of the dry feed intake to the body mass gain
- Protein efficiency ratio (PER): The ratio of the fresh body mass gain to the crude protein fed
- Protein productive value (PPV): The percentage ratio of the change in body protein (Final fish body protein less initial fish body protein) to the total crude protein consumed
- Lipid production value (LPV): The percentage ratio of the change in body lipid (Final fish body lipid less initial fish body lipid) to the total crude lipid consumed
- Metabolic growth rate (MGR):

$$= \frac{\frac{\text{Body mass gain in g}}{\left[ \frac{\text{Initial body mass in g}/1000^{0.8} + \text{final body mass in g}/1000^{0.8}}{2} \right]}}{\text{Number of trial days}}$$

Assuming the market value of a kilogram of *Clarias gariepinus* was 2,000 FCFA (~ 3.64 USD), economic performance was assessed in terms of:

- Cost of feed consumed, which was the product of quantity of feed intake and their unit cost
- Feed cost per gram of gain (USD/g), which was the ratio of the cost of feed consumed to the body mass gain
- Value of live weight gain (in USD), which was a thousandth of the product of the body mass gain and the unit cost of fish

- Economy of gain, which was the ratio of the cost of feed consumed and the value of live-weight gain.

f) *Statistical analysis*

The experiment was conducted using a Completely Randomized Design and all data were subjected to a one-way analysis of variance using the SPSS Software (IBM Corp., Released 2013). Significant differences between means were detected using the Duncan Multiple Range Test (DMRT).

### III. RESULTS

a) *Growth performance, survival and feed utilization response to 3ADMJKC/bb ingredient based diets*

The initial weights, final weights and body mass gain of *Clarias* fed test diets are shown in Table 4 while the growth performance, survival, feed utilization and feed assimilation are shown in Table: 5. the initial weight of the fishes averaged  $2.8 \pm 0.19$  g. The fishes fed the control diet significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) had higher final weight and body mass gain than those fed the ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets. The fishes fed the ADMJKC/bb at 30% replacement of fishmeal ( $Y_{30}$ ,  $Z_{30}$  and  $Z_{40}$ ) significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) had higher final weights and body mass gains than their counterparts fed 50% level of fishmeal replacement ( $Y_{50}$ ,  $Z_{50}$  and  $Z_{40}$ ). However, fishes fed the  $Z_{40}$  ingredient significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) had lower final weights and body mass gains than those fed similar levels of test ingredient  $Z_{230}$  and  $Y_{30}$ .

Table 4: Body mass gain of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed with ADMJKC/bb ingredient based diets for 8 weeks

| Treatment*                 |                         |          | Initial weight(g) | Final weight (g) | Body mass gain (g)            |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|----------|-------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|
| Fish meal                  | Proportion of ADMJKC/bb | Code     |                   |                  |                               |
| 100%                       | Control *               | Control  | $2.8 \pm 0.08$    | $12.20 \pm 1.09$ | $9.40 \pm 1.07$ <sup>d</sup>  |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 1         | $Y_{30}$ | $2.82 \pm 0.08$   | $6.55 \pm 0.62$  | $3.72 \pm 0.61$ <sup>c</sup>  |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 1         | $Y_{50}$ | $2.92 \pm 0.08$   | $4.03 \pm 0.46$  | $1.11 \pm 0.51$ <sup>ab</sup> |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 2         | $Z_{30}$ | $2.89 \pm 0.12$   | $6.52 \pm 0.65$  | $3.63 \pm 0.66$ <sup>c</sup>  |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 2         | $Z_{50}$ | $2.92 \pm 0.15$   | $3.75 \pm 0.17$  | $0.83 \pm 0.27$ <sup>a</sup>  |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 3         | $Z_{40}$ | $2.99 \pm 0.04$   | $5.09 \pm 0.29$  | $2.10 \pm 0.30$ <sup>b</sup>  |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 3         | $Z_{40}$ | $2.92 \pm 0.08$   | $3.11 \pm 0.09$  | $0.19 \pm 0.01$ <sup>a</sup>  |
| Standard error of the mean |                         |          | 0.02              | 0.65             | 0.66                          |

**Table 5:** Growth performance, survival, feed utilization and feed assimilation of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed ADMJKC/bb ingredient based diets for 8 weeks

Values (means ± standard deviation) in a column followed by different superscript differ significantly (P < 0.05)

| Treatment*                 |                         |                  | Growth Performance  |                                  |                          |   | Survival                    |                         | Feed Utilization                 |                        |                          | Feed Assimilation            |                            |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|---------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|---|-----------------------------|-------------------------|----------------------------------|------------------------|--------------------------|------------------------------|----------------------------|
| Fish meal                  | Proportion of ADMJKC/bb | Code             | Body mass gain (%)  | Average daily gain (mg/fish/day) | Specific growth rate (%) | Metabolic growth rate (gkg <sup>0.8</sup> day <sup>-1</sup> ) | Intervals survival rate (%) | Final survival rate (%) | Average daily feed (mg/fish/day) | Feed conversion ratio  | Protein efficiency ratio | Protein productive value (%) | Lipid production value (%) |
| 100 %                      | Control                 | T0               | 335±38 <sub>d</sub> | 168 ± 19 <sub>d</sub>            | 2.62±0.15 <sub>e</sub>   | 8.69±0.51 <sub>e</sub>  | 100±0                       | 82.2±3.9 <sub>ab</sub>  | 364±6 <sub>e</sub>               | 2.2±0.2 <sub>a</sub>   | 1.47±0.17 <sub>f</sub>   | 28.7±3.1 <sub>e</sub>        | 61.3 ± 6.7 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>30</sub> | 132±22 <sub>c</sub> | 66 ± 11 <sub>c</sub>             | 1.50±0.17 <sub>d</sub>   | 4.90±0.57 <sub>d</sub>  | 100±0                       | 80.0±0 <sub>a</sub>     | 234±12 <sub>d</sub>              | 3.6±0.4 <sub>a</sub>   | 0.87±0.11 <sub>e</sub>   | 16.5±1.6 <sub>d</sub>        | 41.0 ± 3.9 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>50</sub> | 38±18 <sub>ab</sub> | 20 ± 9 <sub>ab</sub>             | 0.57±0.24 <sub>b</sub>   | 1.82±0.78 <sub>b</sub>  | 98±4                        | 93.3±6.7 <sub>b</sub>   | 181±12 <sub>b</sub>              | 11.0±0.4 <sub>bc</sub> | 0.33±0.14 <sub>c</sub>   | 8.2±1.9 <sub>b</sub>         | 20.6 ± 5.2 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>30</sub> | 126±24 <sub>c</sub> | 65 ± 12 <sub>c</sub>             | 1.45±0.20 <sub>d</sub>   | 4.76±0.65 <sub>d</sub>  | 100±0                       | 80.0±6.7 <sub>ab</sub>  | 230±1 <sub>d</sub>               | 3.6±0.6 <sub>a</sub>   | 0.85±0.13 <sub>e</sub>   | 16.1±1.9 <sub>d</sub>        | 40.7 ± 4.9 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>50</sub> | 29±11 <sub>c</sub>  | 15 ± 5 <sub>a</sub>              | 0.45±0.15 <sub>b</sub>   | 1.42±0.47 <sub>b</sub>  | 100±0                       | 84.4±7.7 <sub>ab</sub>  | 178±5 <sub>b</sub>               | 13.1±5.3 <sub>c</sub>  | 0.25±0.08 <sub>ab</sub>  | 7.0±1.1 <sub>ab</sub>        | 14.9 ± 3.0 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>30</sub> | 70±11 <sub>c</sub>  | 38 ± 6 <sub>b</sub>              | 0.95±0.11 <sub>c</sub>   | 3.10±0.36 <sub>c</sub>  | 100±0                       | 93.9±6.7 <sub>b</sub>   | 208±15 <sub>c</sub>              | 5.6±0.7 <sub>ab</sub>  | 0.55±0.07 <sub>d</sub>   | 11.4±1.1 <sub>c</sub>        | 28.8 ± 2.8 <sub>a</sub>    |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>50</sub> | 7±0 <sub>a</sub>    | 3 ± 1 <sub>a</sub>               | 0.11±0.00 <sub>a</sub>   | 0.35±0.01 <sub>a</sub>  | 98±4                        | 71.1±19.2 <sub>a</sub>  | 145±3 <sub>a</sub>               | 43.0±1.2 <sub>d</sub>  | 0.07±0.00 <sub>a</sub>   | 4.5±0.1 <sub>a</sub>         | 9.2 ± 0.1 <sub>a</sub>     |
| standard error of the mean |                         |                  | 23.49               | 1                                | 0.18                     | 0.59  | 0.44                        | 2.35                    | 0.01                             | 3.03                   | 0.10                     | 1.72                         | 3.8                        |

There was no significant difference (P>0.05) in final weight and body mass gain among all fishes fed the ADMJKC/bb at 50% level of fishmeal replacement (Y3<sub>50</sub>, Z2<sub>50</sub> and Z4<sub>50</sub>). However, fishes fed the Y3 ingredient at 50% replacement (Y3<sub>50</sub>) were similar to those fed Z4 ingredient at 30% level of fishmeal replacement (Z4<sub>30</sub>) in body mass gain. The percentage body mass gain and the average daily gains (ADG) followed the same trend as the body mass gains while the specific growth rate (SGR) and the metabolic growth rate (MGR) followed the same trend as the final weights. The Z4<sub>30</sub> ingredients significantly (P<0.05) induced better SGR and MGR than the Y3<sub>50</sub> ingredients.

The intermediary survival rates (ISR) were similar (P>0.05) for all the treatment groups including the control. However, Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub> had similar final survival rates (FSR) with the control (P>0.05) and these were lower compared to Y3<sub>50</sub> and Z2<sub>50</sub> although the differences were not significant (P>0.05). On the other hand, Z4<sub>30</sub> significantly (P<0.05) had better final survival rate than Z4<sub>50</sub>.

Average daily feed (ADF) consumption for the control was significantly (P<0.05) higher than the ADMJKC/bb ingredients. The ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement were significantly consumed more than their counterparts fed at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. The feed conversion ratio did not significantly (P>0.05) differ between the control and the ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement. However, FCR for each ingredient fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement was significantly (P<0.05) better than the same ingredient fed at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. The protein efficiency ratio (PER) was significantly (P<0.05) higher for the control compared to the ADMJKC/bb. Similarly, the ADMJKC/bb fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement significantly (P<0.05) had higher PER than their counterparts fed ADMJKC/bb ingredients at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. Protein productive value (PPV) and lipid productive value (LPV) were all significantly (P<0.05) higher for the control than the ADMJKC/bb fed

fish. Also, the ingredients fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) induced higher PPV and LPV than their counterparts fed at 50% level of fishmeal inclusion. However, Z<sub>30</sub> had significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) lower PPV and LPV values than Z<sub>30</sub> and Y<sub>30</sub>.

b) Proximate composition of whole body carcass of *Clarias gariepinus*

The proximate composition of the whole body carcass of *Clarias gariepinus* fed experiment 6 diets is found in Table 6. The dry matter crude protein, crude fibre and ash contents were not significantly different

( $P > 0.05$ ) among the treatments. The ether extract content of the test fish varied from 5.94% for Z<sub>50</sub> to 8.12% for the control, but there were no significant difference ( $P > 0.05$ ) between the control and the ADMJKC/bb fed fish except for Z<sub>50</sub>. Similarly, the control and the ADMJKC/bb fed fish were statistically similar in nitrogen free extract (NFE) except the Z<sub>50</sub>. The control was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher in gross energy compared to the fishes fed higher levels of the test ingredients (Y<sub>30</sub>, Z<sub>50</sub> and Z<sub>40</sub>).

Table 6: Proximate composition of whole body carcass of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed ADMJKC/bb Ingredient based diets for 8 weeks

Values (means ± standard deviation) in a column followed by different superscript differ significantly ( $P < 0.05$ )

| Treatment*                 |                         |                 | Dry matter (%) | Crude protein (%) | Ether extract (%)        | Crude fibre (%)           | Ash (%)                    | Nitrogen Free Extract(%)   | Gross energy (Kcal/100g)    |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------|----------------|-------------------|--------------------------|---------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|-----------------------------|
| Fish meal                  | Proportion of ADMJKC/bb | Code            |                |                   |                          |                           |                            |                            |                             |
| Pre-Experimental Fish      |                         |                 | 72.05 ± 1.41   | 63.35 ± 1.12      | 6.02 ± 1.28 <sup>c</sup> | 0.14 ± 0.01 <sup>bc</sup> | 15.26 ± 1.53 <sup>c</sup>  | 15.23 ± 3.93 <sup>c</sup>  | 306.31 ± 1.11 <sup>c</sup>  |
| 100%                       | Control *               | Control         | 76.18 ± 1.19   | 65.38 ± 0.95      | 8.12 ± 1.08 <sup>a</sup> | 0.15 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>  | 15.44 ± 1.29 <sup>bc</sup> | 10.91 ± 1.11 <sup>ab</sup> | 323.21 ± 0.94 <sup>a</sup>  |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 1         | Y <sub>30</sub> | 77.52 ± 1.34   | 65.21 ± 1.06      | 8.11 ± 1.22 <sup>a</sup> | 0.16 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>  | 16.38 ± 1.45 <sup>b</sup>  | 10.15 ± 1.25 <sup>a</sup>  | 322.16 ± 1.05 <sup>c</sup>  |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 1         | Y <sub>30</sub> | 77.13 ± 1.07   | 64.38 ± 0.85      | 7.52 ± 0.97 <sup>b</sup> | 0.17 ± 0.04 <sup>b</sup>  | 16.52 ± 1.16 <sup>a</sup>  | 11.41 ± 1.0 <sup>bc</sup>  | 317.6 ± 0.84 <sup>ab</sup>  |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 2         | Z <sub>30</sub> | 76.18 ± 0.80   | 65.11 ± 0.64      | 8.02 ± 0.73 <sup>a</sup> | 0.15 ± 0.03 <sup>b</sup>  | 16.34 ± 0.87 <sup>b</sup>  | 10.39 ± 0.75 <sup>ab</sup> | 322.12 ± 0.63 <sup>c</sup>  |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 2         | Z <sub>50</sub> | 76.91 ± 1.05   | 64.38 ± 0.83      | 6.75 ± 0.95 <sup>b</sup> | 0.21 ± 0.04 <sup>a</sup>  | 16.58 ± 1.13 <sup>a</sup>  | 12.08 ± 0.97 <sup>bc</sup> | 314.69 ± 0.82 <sup>bc</sup> |
| 70%                        | 30% Treatment 3         | Z <sub>40</sub> | 77.19 ± 1.25   | 64.75 ± 1.00      | 7.72 ± 1.14 <sup>b</sup> | 0.16 ± 0.05 <sup>b</sup>  | 16.39 ± 1.36 <sup>b</sup>  | 10.98 ± 1.17 <sup>ab</sup> | 319.72 ± 0.99 <sup>ab</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 3         | Z <sub>40</sub> | 76.56 ± 1.21   | 63.78 ± 0.96      | 5.94 ± 1.09 <sup>c</sup> | 0.22 ± 0.05 <sup>a</sup>  | 16.56 ± 1.31 <sup>a</sup>  | 13.51 ± 1.13 <sup>c</sup>  | 312.92 ± 0.95 <sup>c</sup>  |
| Standard error of the mean |                         |                 | 0.23           | 0.29              | 0.23                     | 0.01                      | 0.24                       | 0.33                       | 1.32                        |

c) Digestibility of Diets and ADMJKC/bb ingredients

The digestible nutrients and energy of ADMJKC/bb test ingredients are shown in Table 7 The digestible dry matter of the ingredients fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacement was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher for all test ingredients than their counterparts fed at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. The digestible dry matter for Y3 and Z2 was similar ( $P > 0.05$ ) at both the 30% and 50% levels of inclusion and significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) superior to Z4 at all the corresponding levels of inclusion.

The digestible crude protein was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher for ingredients fed at 30% level of fishmeal replacements compared to their counterparts fed at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. Specifically, however, the Z2 ingredients had significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher digestible crude protein values at both the 30%

and 50% levels of fishmeal replacement compared to the Y3 and Z4 ingredients. In the same light, the Y3 ingredients were significantly superior to the Z4 ingredients in digestible crude protein at both the 30% and 50% levels of fishmeal replacement. Irrespective of level of fishmeal replacement, ether extract digestibility was similar for the Z2 and Y3 ingredients which were all significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) superior to the Z4 ingredient at both levels. However, the ether extract digestibility of Z<sub>30</sub> was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher than Z<sub>50</sub>. The digestible energy content followed the same pattern as the dry matter digestibility.



**Table 7:** Percentage digestible nutrients and energy of ADMJKC/bb test ingredients fed to *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings in experimental diets

Values (means ± standard deviation) in a column followed by different superscript differ significantly (P < 0.05)

| Treatment*                 |                         |                  | Dry matter (%)          | Crude Protein (%)       | Ether extract (%)       | Energy (MCal/kg)        |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|
| Fish meal                  | Proportion of ADMJKC/bb | Code             |                         |                         |                         |                         |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>30</sub> | 42.75±0.84 <sup>d</sup> | 84.42±0.59 <sup>d</sup> | 63.49±1.34 <sup>c</sup> | 64.84±1.12 <sup>d</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>50</sub> | 39.27±1.08 <sup>c</sup> | 73.98±1.16 <sup>c</sup> | 62.52±1.92 <sup>c</sup> | 58.39±1.54 <sup>c</sup> |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>30</sub> | 42.27±0.84 <sup>d</sup> | 85.91±0.80 <sup>d</sup> | 60.43±1.47 <sup>c</sup> | 64.70±1.26 <sup>d</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>50</sub> | 39.80±1.32 <sup>c</sup> | 83.36±1.27 <sup>d</sup> | 59.99±2.59 <sup>c</sup> | 59.15±2.04 <sup>c</sup> |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>30</sub> | 31.31±1.40 <sup>b</sup> | 57.60±1.2 <sup>b</sup>  | 54.21±2.42 <sup>b</sup> | 32.37±1.78 <sup>b</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>50</sub> | 26.82±1.56 <sup>a</sup> | 30.63±1.57 <sup>a</sup> | 24.52±3.92 <sup>a</sup> | 13.26±4.05 <sup>a</sup> |
| Standard error of the mean |                         |                  | 1.45                    | 4.81                    | 3.33                    | 4.71                    |

d) *Economic performance of Clarias gariepinus fingerlings on ADMJKC/bb based diets*

The economic performance of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed ADMJKC/bb based diets is shown in Table 8. The financial value of the body mass gain for the control fish was significantly (P<0.05) higher than the fishes fed ADMJKC/bb based diets. The fishes fed 30% level of fishmeal replacement significantly (P<0.05) had higher financial value of body mass gain compared to their counterparts fed 50% level of fishmeal replacement, with the exception of the Z4<sub>30</sub> ingredient which did not differ significantly (P>0.05) from its Z4<sub>50</sub> counterparts. Similarly, the control significantly (P<0.05) had higher cost of feed consumed compared to the fishes fed ADMJKC/bb based diets. Also fishes fed ADMJKC/bb based diets at 30% significantly (P<0.05) had higher cost of feed consumed than their counterparts fed at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. The cost of feed consumed by Z4<sub>30</sub> was

significantly (P<0.05) lower than that of Z2<sub>30</sub> and Y3<sub>30</sub>. The cost of feed consumed by Z4<sub>50</sub> was significantly (P<0.05) lower than the cost of feed consumed by Z2<sub>50</sub> and Y3<sub>50</sub>. In the same line the cost of feed consumed by Z2<sub>50</sub> was significantly (P<0.05) lower than the cost of feed consumed by Y3<sub>50</sub>. The control and fishes fed ADMJKC/bb based diets at 30% of fishmeal replacement did not differ significantly (P<0.05) in feed cost per gram of gain. However, these fishes fed ADMJKC/bb based diets at 30% level of fishmeal replacement significantly (P<0.05) had lower feed cost per gram of gain compared to their counterparts fed ADMJKC/bb based diets at 50% level of fishmeal replacement. The most expensive gains were made by fishes fed Z4<sub>50</sub> ADMJKC/bb based diets while the least expensive gains were made by the control fishes (compare 17.85 fcfa/g to 0.93 fcfa/g). The economy of gain followed the same trend as the feed cost per gram of gain.

**Table 8:** Economic performance of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed ADMJKC/bb based diets for 8 weeks.

Values (means ± standard deviation) in a column followed by different superscript differ significantly (P < 0.05)

| Treatment*                 |                         |                  | Value of body mass gain (FCFA) | Cost of feed consumed (FCFA) | Feed cost per gram of gain (FCFA/g) | Economy of Gain        |
|----------------------------|-------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------------------|------------------------|
| Fish meal                  | Proportion of ADMJKC/bb | Code             |                                |                              |                                     |                        |
| 100%                       | Control *               | Control          | 18.79±2.15 <sup>d</sup>        | 8.64±0.15 <sup>c</sup>       | 0.93±0.09 <sup>a</sup>              | 0.46±0.05 <sup>a</sup> |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>30</sub> | 7.44±1.24 <sup>c</sup>         | 5.49±0.27 <sup>a</sup>       | 1.49±0.18 <sup>a</sup>              | 0.75±0.09 <sup>a</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 1         | Y3 <sub>50</sub> | 2.22±1.02 <sup>a</sup>         | 4.27±0.28 <sup>b</sup>       | 4.62±2.63 <sup>b</sup>              | 2.31±1.31 <sup>b</sup> |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>30</sub> | 7.27±1.32 <sup>c</sup>         | 5.22±0.25 <sup>b</sup>       | 1.46±0.23 <sup>a</sup>              | 0.73±0.12 <sup>a</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 2         | Z2 <sub>50</sub> | 1.67±0.55 <sup>a</sup>         | 3.88±0.12 <sup>a</sup>       | 5.10±2.06 <sup>b</sup>              | 2.55±1.03 <sup>b</sup> |
| 50%                        | 30% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>30</sub> | 4.20±0.61 <sup>b</sup>         | 4.83±0.22 <sup>b</sup>       | 2.32±0.30 <sup>a</sup>              | 1.16±0.15 <sup>a</sup> |
| 50%                        | 50% Treatment 3         | Z4 <sub>50</sub> | 0.38±0.02 <sup>a</sup>         | 3.38±0.07 <sup>a</sup>       | 17.85±0.49 <sup>c</sup>             | 8.93±0.24 <sup>c</sup> |
| Standard error of the mean |                         |                  | 1.31                           | 0.36                         | 1.26                                | 0.63                   |

Control= Fish meal, blood meal, maize, palm oil, bone meal, premix and Titanium oxide, without any *Jatropha* meal and soybean meal.

#### IV. DISCUSSION

The proximate composition of maize, fishmeal, soybean cake and blood meal used in this trial is within normal range and agree with values of Tacon *et al.* (2009). However, the crude protein values for the ADMJKC/bb appear lower than expected. Since bovine blood has more crude protein (81.50%) compared to JKC (29.83%), it was normal to expect that the Y3 ingredient should contain more crude protein than Z2 and Z4, but the converse was observed. Also, Z2 and Z4 were expected to be the same or closer. The difference in crude protein values among the ADMJKC/bb is an indicator that they are not just mixtures of JKC and bovine blood. They have surely undergone biochemical processes which are unique to each mixture. The Y3 and Z4 ingredients were remoistened daily at 66% dry matter while Z2 was not. The Z2 therefore was undergoing a process similar to solid state fermentation. However, the regular remoistening of Y3 and Z4 probably induced a different path of microbial succession that was responsible for the net loss of nitrogen and, consequently, lower crude protein. Such a loss was higher with the Y3 ingredient that had just two parts of JKC compared to the Z4 ingredient that had three parts of JKC. According to Philippot *et al.* (2013), denitrification is the main biological process responsible for the return of fixed nitrogen to the atmosphere, thus completing the N-cycle. Denitrifiers are taxonomically diverse microorganisms capable of reducing soluble nitrogen oxides into the gases  $N_2O$  and  $N_2$ . It is possible that Y3 and Z4 that were constantly remoistened attracted an active denitrification microbial population that was responsible for its lower than expected crude protein content.

Similarly the microbial succession path undertaken by the Z2 ingredient may be responsible for its comparatively lower level of ether extract. The Z2 ingredient could attract much lipase producing microbes which contribute in lowering the level of ether extract. It is also possible that *J. curcas* lipase activity which is endogenous in dormant and germinating seeds was enhanced by the Z2 treatment. Abigor *et al.* (2002) noted that endogenous *J. curcas* lipase, hydrolyses *J. curcas* oil, at twice the rate for palm kernel and coconut oils. Mendes and Castro (2005) also used commercially available lipase preparations from animal source to decrease fat and organic contents in dairy wastewater.

The anti-nutrients were lowest in Y3, moderate in Z2 and highest in Z4. However, the differences were not significant ( $P > 0.05$ ) except for lectin activity, where Z4 was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher than Y3. The lower level of anti-nutrients in Y3 could be as a result of its lower content of JKC in the mixture, or a combination of JKC content and the unique auto-detoxification path taken by this ingredient. However, the difference between Z2 and Z4 was solely dependent on the unique

auto-detoxification path taken by each ingredient following the treatment applied.

All the diets which compared three ADMJKC/bb as ingredients at 30% and 50% levels of fishmeal replacement in this study were iso-nitrogenous and iso-calorific, and were similar in proximate composition with the diets for *Clarias gariepinus* reported by Fakunle *et al.* (2013), Alatise *et al.* (2014) and Musiba *et al.* (2014). Slow eating behaviour observed for Z4<sub>50</sub> was similar to that reported by Kumar *et al.* (2011) for carp fed a poorly detoxified JKM diet at 75% level.

The control was significantly better than the ADMJKC/bb ingredients in all growth parameters. This was followed by the lower replacement levels of Y3 and Z2 (Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub>) which recorded similar performance but significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) outperformed the Z4<sub>30</sub> and the higher replacement levels (Y3<sub>50</sub>, Z2<sub>50</sub> and Z4<sub>50</sub>). This result is not in agreement with Fakunle *et al.* (2013) and Alatise *et al.* (2014) who reported that a 30% level of including boiled *Jatropha* in the diets of *Clarias gariepinus* significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) outperformed the control with 0% boiled *Jatropha* kernels. Several studies (Aregheore, *et al.*, 2003; Martinez-Herrera *et al.*, 2006; and Gogoi *et al.*, 2014) have concluded that moist heat has no significant effect on reducing phorbol esters which is the main toxic component in *Jatropha* seeds. The poorer performance of the higher replacement levels (Y3<sub>50</sub>, Z2<sub>50</sub> and Z4<sub>50</sub>) as well as Z4 ingredient irrespective of levels is an indication that ADMJKC/bb ingredients still had some level of toxicity. Detoxified JKM has been reported to contain "residual toxicity". This was detected after a feeding trial with carp which revealed that the sensitivity of the HPLC method for determination of phorbol esters has to be enhanced (Kumar *et al.*, 2011). Working with Carp, Kumar *et al.* (2011) observed highest body mass gain, specific growth rate, and metabolic growth rate and energy production value for the group fed JKM detoxified for 60 minutes and replacing 50% fishmeal. These results were statistically similar to that for the control group and significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) higher than for all test ingredient groups. Therefore, a 50% level of fishmeal replacement by detoxified JKC for *Clarias gariepinus* is achievable since *Clarias gariepinus* like carp is classified more as an omnivore. Moreover, carp is not able to utilize high level (more than 50% of FM protein replacement) of plant derived protein in the diet because of low palatability, high fibre and anti nutrients content (Kumar *et al.*, 2011), whereas, *Clarias gariepinus* has recorded good performance on purely plant proteins (Musiba *et al.*, 2014).

The intermediary and final survival rates were similar between the control and the ADMJKC/bb ingredients. Also, intake levels did not affect survival except for the Z4 where FSR was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) lower for Z4<sub>50</sub> than Z4<sub>30</sub>. This may suggest that the Z4 ingredient retained a higher level of toxicity than

the Y3 and Z2 ingredients. The feed utilization data further buttress this suggestion because the FCR was statistically similar between the control Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub> ingredient based diets. In addition, the feed assimilation data indicates that Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub> were statistically similar in PPV and LPV, but significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) superior to all other ADMJKC/bb ingredients.

The fish fed ADMJKC/bb based diets were similar ( $P > 0.05$ ) in whole proximate composition except in ether extract, NFE and energy where the control was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) different from the Z4<sub>50</sub> ingredient based diets. According to Petricorena (2014), chemical composition of fish varies greatly among species and from an individual fish to another, depending on age, sex, environment and season. In this study all other factors were held constant except type and level of ADMJKC/bb ingredients. The differences observed therefore resulted from the test ingredients. There was similarity of this result with the results obtained by Kumar *et al.* (2011) for carp. The higher ether extract and gross energy values for the control and the fishes fed lower levels of ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets is an indication of better fat deposition in the tissues. At higher levels of inclusion, particularly the Z4 based ingredient, efforts at detoxifying anti-nutrients could contribute in reducing ether extract and gross energy of whole fish carcass. This suggestion is corroborated by the lower PPV and LPV for fish fed higher levels of ADMJKC/bb ingredients. The NFE values followed the same trend as ether extract and gross energy. The only difference is that NFE values were higher where EE and GE values were lower. The NFE values for *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings recorded in this study are lower than those reported for another type of African catfish (*Heterobranchus bidorsalis*) by Akhirebulu and Okonji (2013). This difference could be as a result of age and species differences. NFE is a measure of the readily available carbohydrates calculated by subtracting all proximate components from 100. Therefore it is likely to suffer from errors compounded in measuring other proximate components.

In the present study, data on digestible nutrients and energy (dry matter, crude protein, ether extract and gross energy) of ADMJKC/bb test ingredients fed indicates that the Z4 ingredient, irrespective of levels, significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) had the lowest digestibility. This therefore reduces its chances of being selected for further development.

The control was significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) superior to the ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets in terms of the financial value of body mass gain. Conversely, it also significantly ( $P < 0.05$ ) recorded a higher cost of feed consumed. However, when evaluated in terms of feed cost per gram of gain as well as the economy of the gain, the control was statistically similar ( $P > 0.05$ ) to the Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub> ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets. Feed cost per gram of gain is a parameter that

combines biology with economics. It tells if the gains made biologically are financially expensive or not. The similarity of Y3<sub>30</sub> and Z2<sub>30</sub> ADMJKC/bb ingredients based diets with the control in feed cost per gram of gain is an indication that these levels of ADMJKC/bb ingredients can be recommended for *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings. At the Y3<sub>50</sub> and Z2<sub>50</sub> levels, the elevated effects of anti-nutrients make it both biologically and economically not feasible for practical diets with *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings. These results also confirm that the Z4 ADMJKC/bb ingredient is not biologically and economically practical for inclusion into diets of *Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings at either the 30 % or 50% level of fishmeal replacement.

## V. CONCLUSION

*Clarias gariepinus* fingerlings fed diets containing either Y3 or Z2 ADMJKC/bb diets, where any replaces 30% of fishmeal, have both positive biological and economic performance comparable to the control. At higher levels of 50% fishmeal replacement, biological and economic performance reduces. After this study, the Y3 and Z2 ingredients have been recommended for further development

## ABBREVIATIONS

ADMJKC/bb: auto-detoxified mixtures Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood; ANOVA: analysis of variance; ADG: Average daily gain; BMG: Body mass gain; FCR: Feed conversion ratio; FSR: Final survival rate; ISR: Interval survival rate; JKC: Jatropha kernel cake; JKM: Jatropha kernel meal; LPV: Lipid production value; MGR: Metabolic growth rate; NFE: Nitrogen free extract; PER: Protein efficiency ratio; PPV: Protein productive value; SGR: Specific growth rate; Y3: Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood, mixed at a ratio of 2:1. Heated, spread dried, remoisten to 66% dry matter; Z2: Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood, mixed at a ratio of 3:1. Unheated, spread dried without remoistening; Z4: Jatropha kernel cake and bovine blood, mixed at a ratio of 3:1. Unheated, spread dried, Remoistened to 66% dry matter.

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### SUPPORTING INFORMATION

**Table A:** Proximate composition and anti-nutritional factors of ingredients used in the feeding trial

| Parameter  | Ingredient |           |              |            |        |        |        |
|--|------------|-----------|--------------|------------|--------|--------|--------|
|  | Maize      | Fish meal | Soybean Meal | Blood meal | Y3     | Z2     | Z4     |
| Dry matter (%)   | 88.40      | 94.10     | 94.60        | 92.00      | 92.09  | 94.33  | 93.71  |
| Crude protein (%)  | 8.00       | 66.80     | 45.20        | 81.50      | 34.78  | 50.72  | 41.81  |
| Ether extract (%)  | 5.90       | 8.10      | 12.60        | 3.50       | 39.64  | 32.89  | 37.36  |
| Crude fibre (%)  | 1.90       | 1.04      | 4.98         | 0.00       | 11.56  | 10.03  | 11.43  |
| Ash (%)  | 4.20       | 13.80     | 6.50         | 12.36      | 7.31   | 5.95   | 7.16   |
| NFE (%)  | 80.00      | 10.26     | 30.72        | 2.64       | 5.38   | 0.41   | 2.24   |
| Gross energy (Kcal/100g)   | 394.3      | 442.3     | 419.7        | 486.0      | 485.61 | 460.77 | 467.74 |
| <b>Anti-nutrients</b>  |            |           |              |            |        |        |        |
| Phytates (% dry matter)  | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 1.71   | 1.92   | 2.29   |
| Trypsin inhibitor (TIU/mg)   | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 3.99   | 4.13   | 4.31   |
| Saponins (g/100 g)   | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 0.10   | 110    | 0.125  |
| Tannin (%)   | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 0.044  | 0.046  | 0.047  |
| Lectin activity (inverse of mg meal per mL of the assay that produced haemagglutination) | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 8.50   | 9.13   | 9.68   |
| CrudePhorbol Esther (mg/g)   | ND         | ND        | ND           | ND         | 0.36   | 0.41   | 0.47   |

ND= Not Determined

**Table B:** Proximate composition of diets used in feeding trial which compared three ADMJKC/bb as ingredients at 30% and 50% levels of fishmeal replacement

| Parameter                      | Treatment* |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |                  |
|--------------------------------|------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|------------------|
|                                | Control    | Y3 <sub>30</sub> | Y3 <sub>50</sub> | Z2 <sub>30</sub> | Z2 <sub>50</sub> | Z4 <sub>30</sub> | Z4 <sub>50</sub> |
| Dry matter (%)                 | 93.4       | 93.2             | 93.1             | 94.3             | 94.21            | 94.3             | 94.1             |
| Crude protein (%)              | 38.12      | 38.02            | 37.99            | 38.68            | 38.08            | 38.15            | 38.04            |
| Ether extract (%)              | 9.15       | 9.53             | 9.98             | 8.43             | 8.57             | 9.17             | 9.53             |
| Crude fibre (%)                | 3.26       | 3.11             | 3.17             | 3.1              | 3.12             | 3.21             | 3.36             |
| Ash (%)                        | 7.14       | 8.41             | 8.53             | 8.45             | 8.74             | 8.39             | 8.55             |
| NFE (%)                        | 42.33      | 40.93            | 40.33            | 41.34            | 41.49            | 41.08            | 40.52            |
| Metabolisable energy (Kcal/kg) | 3032       | 3014.45          | 3001.85          | 3068.1           | 3091.5           | 3023.95          | 3002.5           |
| Cost / Kg (fca)                | 424        | 415.75           | 420.65           | 402.15           | 390.25           | 413.75           | 414.75           |



Table C: Mean weekly water quality parameters of 35L rectangular tanks used in feeding trial

| Week | Temp (°C) | pH  | Dissolved Oxygen (mg l <sup>-1</sup> ) | Conductance (µhom/cm³) | NH <sub>3</sub> (mg l <sup>-1</sup> ) | Nitrate (mg l <sup>-1</sup> ) |
|------|-----------|-----|--|------------------------|---------------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| 1    | 24.0      | 7.3 | 5.8                                    | 80.9                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 2    | 24.5      | 7.3 | 5.7                                    | 84.8                   | 0.1                                   | 0.9                           |
| 3    | 24.5      | 7.4 | 5.6                                    | 85.5                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 4    | 23.5      | 7.4 | 5.7                                    | 85.7                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 5    | 24.5      | 7.5 | 5.8                                    | 85.7                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 6    | 24.5      | 7.6 | 5.8                                    | 85.8                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 7    | 25.5      | 7.8 | 5.8                                    | 80.6                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |
| 8    | 25.0      | 7.8 | 5.8                                    | 80.6                   | 0.1                                   | 0.8                           |

Table D: Apparent Digestibility Coefficients (%) of dry matter, crude protein, ether extract and gross energy of ADMJKC/bb ingredient based diets fed to *Clariasgariiepinus* fingerlings

| Treatment*       | Dry matter Digestibility | Crude Protein Digestibility | Ether Extract Digestibility | Gross Energy Digestibility |
|------------------|--------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------------|----------------------------|
| Control          | 80.31 <sup>c</sup> ±0.3  | 91.82 <sup>e</sup> ±0.20    | 93.76 <sup>d</sup> ±0.53    | 81.65 <sup>d</sup> ±0.64   |
| Y3 <sub>30</sub> | 71.53 <sup>b</sup> ±0.7  | 83.97 <sup>d</sup> ±0.42    | 66.88 <sup>c</sup> ±0.84    | 72.78 <sup>c</sup> ±0.80   |
| Y3 <sub>50</sub> | 66.41 <sup>a</sup> ±0.9  | 79.91 <sup>b</sup> ±0.83    | 61.12 <sup>b</sup> ±1.20    | 68.39 <sup>b</sup> ±1.10   |
| Z2 <sub>30</sub> | 71.16 <sup>b</sup> ±0.7  | 82.46 <sup>c</sup> ±0.57    | 66.15 <sup>c</sup> ±0.92    | 72.58 <sup>c</sup> ±0.90   |
| Z2 <sub>50</sub> | 66.08 <sup>a</sup> ±1.1  | 79.57 <sup>b</sup> ±0.91    | 60.38 <sup>b</sup> ±1.62    | 68.38 <sup>b</sup> ±1.46   |
| Z4 <sub>30</sub> | 70.93 <sup>b</sup> ±1.2  | 81.96 <sup>c</sup> ±0.87    | 65.88 <sup>c</sup> ±1.51    | 70.46 <sup>b</sup> ±1.27   |
| Z4 <sub>50</sub> | 65.42 <sup>a</sup> ±1.3  | 73.52 <sup>a</sup> ±1.12    | 49.62 <sup>a</sup> ±2.45    | 61.24 <sup>a</sup> ±2.89   |
| SEM              | 1.08                     | 1.15                        | 2.81                        | 1.30                       |

Values are means (n = 3) ± Standard deviation.

Mean values in the same column with different superscript differ significantly (P < 0.05)

SEM = standard error of the mean

\*Seven treatments designated as follows:

Control= Fish meal, blood meal, maize, palm oil, bone meal, premix and Titanium oxide, without any Jatropha meal and soybean meal.

Y3<sub>30</sub>=50% of Fish meal replaced by 30% Y3 ADMJKC/bb

Y3<sub>50</sub>=50% of Fish meal replaced by 50% Y3 ADMJKC/bb

Z2<sub>30</sub>=50% of Fish meal replaced by 30% Z2 ADMJKC/bb

Z2<sub>50</sub>=50% of Fish meal replaced by 50% Z2 ADMJKC/bb

Z4<sub>30</sub>= 50% of Fish meal replaced by 30% Z4 ADMJKC/bb

Z4<sub>50</sub>=50% of Fish meal replaced by 50% Z4 ADMJKC/bb



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Career

Credibility

Exclusive

Reputation



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Credibility

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The primary objective is to recognize the leaders in research and scientific fields of the current era with a global perspective and to create a channel between them and other researchers for better exposure and knowledge sharing. Members are most eminent scientists, engineers, and technologists from all across the world. Associate membership can later be promoted to Fellow Membership. Associates are elected for life through a peer review process on the basis of excellence in the respective domain. There is no limit on the number of new nominations made in any year. Each year, the Open Association of Research Society elect up to 12 new Associate Members.



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Career

Credibility

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### DESIGNATION

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Career

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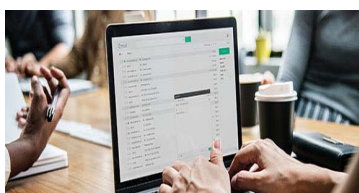


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|---|---|---|---|
| <p>\$4800<br/>lifetime designation</p> <hr/> <p>Certificate, LoR and Momento<br/>2 discounted publishing/year<br/>Gradation of Research<br/>10 research contacts/day<br/>1 GB Cloud Storage<br/>GJ Community Access</p> | <p>\$6800<br/>lifetime designation</p> <hr/> <p>Certificate, LoR and Momento<br/>Unlimited discounted publishing/year<br/>Gradation of Research<br/>Unlimited research contacts/day<br/>5 GB Cloud Storage<br/>Online Presense Assistance<br/>GJ Community Access</p> | <p>\$12500.00<br/>organizational</p> <hr/> <p>Certificates, LoRs and Momentos<br/>Unlimited free publishing/year<br/>Gradation of Research<br/>Unlimited research contacts/day<br/>Unlimited Cloud Storage<br/>Online Presense Assistance<br/>GJ Community Access</p> | <p>APC<br/>per article</p> <hr/> <p>GJ Community Access</p> |



# PREFERRED AUTHOR GUIDELINES

**We accept the manuscript submissions in any standard (generic) format.**

We typeset manuscripts using advanced typesetting tools like Adobe In Design, CorelDraw, TeXnicCenter, and TeXStudio. We usually recommend authors submit their research using any standard format they are comfortable with, and let Global Journals do the rest.

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Authors should submit their complete paper/article, including text illustrations, graphics, conclusions, artwork, and tables. Authors who are not able to submit manuscript using the form above can email the manuscript department at [submit@globaljournals.org](mailto:submit@globaljournals.org) or get in touch with [chiefeditor@globaljournals.org](mailto:chiefeditor@globaljournals.org) if they wish to send the abstract before submission.

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2. Authors must accept the privacy policy, terms, and conditions of Global Journals.
3. Ensure corresponding author's email address and postal address are accurate and reachable.
4. Manuscript to be submitted must include keywords, an abstract, a paper title, co-author(s) names and details (email address, name, phone number, and institution), figures and illustrations in vector format including appropriate captions, tables, including titles and footnotes, a conclusion, results, acknowledgments and references.
5. Authors should submit paper in a ZIP archive if any supplementary files are required along with the paper.
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7. Manuscript submitted *must not have been submitted or published elsewhere* and all authors must be aware of the submission.

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Authors are solely responsible for all the plagiarism that is found. The author must not fabricate, falsify or plagiarize existing research data. The following, if copied, will be considered plagiarism:

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- Findings
- Writings
- Diagrams
- Graphs
- Illustrations
- Lectures



- Printed material
- Graphic representations
- Computer programs
- Electronic material
- Any other original work

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2. Drafting the paper and revising it critically regarding important academic content.
3. Final approval of the version of the paper to be published.

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### Acknowledgments

Contributors to the research other than authors credited should be mentioned in Acknowledgments. The source of funding for the research can be included. Suppliers of resources may be mentioned along with their addresses.

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## PREPARING YOUR MANUSCRIPT

Authors can submit papers and articles in an acceptable file format: MS Word (doc, docx), LaTeX (.tex, .zip or .rar including all of your files), Adobe PDF (.pdf), rich text format (.rtf), simple text document (.txt), Open Document Text (.odt), and Apple Pages (.pages). Our professional layout editors will format the entire paper according to our official guidelines. This is one of the highlights of publishing with Global Journals—authors should not be concerned about the formatting of their paper. Global Journals accepts articles and manuscripts in every major language, be it Spanish, Chinese, Japanese, Portuguese, Russian, French, German, Dutch, Italian, Greek, or any other national language, but the title, subtitle, and abstract should be in English. This will facilitate indexing and the pre-peer review process.

The following is the official style and template developed for publication of a research paper. Authors are not required to follow this style during the submission of the paper. It is just for reference purposes.



### ***Manuscript Style Instruction (Optional)***

- Microsoft Word Document Setting Instructions.
- Font type of all text should be Swis721 Lt BT.
- Page size: 8.27" x 11", left margin: 0.65, right margin: 0.65, bottom margin: 0.75.
- Paper title should be in one column of font size 24.
- Author name in font size of 11 in one column.
- Abstract: font size 9 with the word "Abstract" in bold italics.
- Main text: font size 10 with two justified columns.
- Two columns with equal column width of 3.38 and spacing of 0.2.
- First character must be three lines drop-capped.
- The paragraph before spacing of 1 pt and after of 0 pt.
- Line spacing of 1 pt.
- Large images must be in one column.
- The names of first main headings (Heading 1) must be in Roman font, capital letters, and font size of 10.
- The names of second main headings (Heading 2) must not include numbers and must be in italics with a font size of 10.

### ***Structure and Format of Manuscript***

The recommended size of an original research paper is under 15,000 words and review papers under 7,000 words. Research articles should be less than 10,000 words. Research papers are usually longer than review papers. Review papers are reports of significant research (typically less than 7,000 words, including tables, figures, and references)

A research paper must include:

- a) A title which should be relevant to the theme of the paper.
- b) A summary, known as an abstract (less than 150 words), containing the major results and conclusions.
- c) Up to 10 keywords that precisely identify the paper's subject, purpose, and focus.
- d) An introduction, giving fundamental background objectives.
- e) Resources and techniques with sufficient complete experimental details (wherever possible by reference) to permit repetition, sources of information must be given, and numerical methods must be specified by reference.
- f) Results which should be presented concisely by well-designed tables and figures.
- g) Suitable statistical data should also be given.
- h) All data must have been gathered with attention to numerical detail in the planning stage.

Design has been recognized to be essential to experiments for a considerable time, and the editor has decided that any paper that appears not to have adequate numerical treatments of the data will be returned unrefereed.

- i) Discussion should cover implications and consequences and not just recapitulate the results; conclusions should also be summarized.
- j) There should be brief acknowledgments.
- k) There ought to be references in the conventional format. Global Journals recommends APA format.

Authors should carefully consider the preparation of papers to ensure that they communicate effectively. Papers are much more likely to be accepted if they are carefully designed and laid out, contain few or no errors, are summarizing, and follow instructions. They will also be published with much fewer delays than those that require much technical and editorial correction.

The Editorial Board reserves the right to make literary corrections and suggestions to improve brevity.



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***It is necessary that authors take care in submitting a manuscript that is written in simple language and adheres to published guidelines.***

All manuscripts submitted to Global Journals should include:

### **Title**

The title page must carry an informative title that reflects the content, a running title (less than 45 characters together with spaces), names of the authors and co-authors, and the place(s) where the work was carried out.

### **Author details**

The full postal address of any related author(s) must be specified.

### **Abstract**

The abstract is the foundation of the research paper. It should be clear and concise and must contain the objective of the paper and inferences drawn. It is advised to not include big mathematical equations or complicated jargon.

Many researchers searching for information online will use search engines such as Google, Yahoo or others. By optimizing your paper for search engines, you will amplify the chance of someone finding it. In turn, this will make it more likely to be viewed and cited in further works. Global Journals has compiled these guidelines to facilitate you to maximize the web-friendliness of the most public part of your paper.

### **Keywords**

A major lynchpin of research work for the writing of research papers is the keyword search, which one will employ to find both library and internet resources. Up to eleven keywords or very brief phrases have to be given to help data retrieval, mining, and indexing.

One must be persistent and creative in using keywords. An effective keyword search requires a strategy: planning of a list of possible keywords and phrases to try.

Choice of the main keywords is the first tool of writing a research paper. Research paper writing is an art. Keyword search should be as strategic as possible.

One should start brainstorming lists of potential keywords before even beginning searching. Think about the most important concepts related to research work. Ask, "What words would a source have to include to be truly valuable in a research paper?" Then consider synonyms for the important words.

It may take the discovery of only one important paper to steer in the right keyword direction because, in most databases, the keywords under which a research paper is abstracted are listed with the paper.

### **Numerical Methods**

Numerical methods used should be transparent and, where appropriate, supported by references.

### **Abbreviations**

Authors must list all the abbreviations used in the paper at the end of the paper or in a separate table before using them.

### **Formulas and equations**

Authors are advised to submit any mathematical equation using either MathJax, KaTeX, or LaTeX, or in a very high-quality image.

### **Tables, Figures, and Figure Legends**

Tables: Tables should be cautiously designed, uncrowned, and include only essential data. Each must have an Arabic number, e.g., Table 4, a self-explanatory caption, and be on a separate sheet. Authors must submit tables in an editable format and not as images. References to these tables (if any) must be mentioned accurately.





## Figures

Figures are supposed to be submitted as separate files. Always include a citation in the text for each figure using Arabic numbers, e.g., Fig. 4. Artwork must be submitted online in vector electronic form or by emailing it.

## PREPARATION OF ELETRONIC FIGURES FOR PUBLICATION

Although low-quality images are sufficient for review purposes, print publication requires high-quality images to prevent the final product being blurred or fuzzy. Submit (possibly by e-mail) EPS (line art) or TIFF (halftone/ photographs) files only. MS PowerPoint and Word Graphics are unsuitable for printed pictures. Avoid using pixel-oriented software. Scans (TIFF only) should have a resolution of at least 350 dpi (halftone) or 700 to 1100 dpi (line drawings). Please give the data for figures in black and white or submit a Color Work Agreement form. EPS files must be saved with fonts embedded (and with a TIFF preview, if possible).

For scanned images, the scanning resolution at final image size ought to be as follows to ensure good reproduction: line art: >650 dpi; halftones (including gel photographs): >350 dpi; figures containing both halftone and line images: >650 dpi.

Color charges: Authors are advised to pay the full cost for the reproduction of their color artwork. Hence, please note that if there is color artwork in your manuscript when it is accepted for publication, we would require you to complete and return a Color Work Agreement form before your paper can be published. Also, you can email your editor to remove the color fee after acceptance of the paper.

## TIPS FOR WRITING A GOOD QUALITY SCIENCE FRONTIER RESEARCH PAPER

Techniques for writing a good quality Science Frontier Research paper:

**1. Choosing the topic:** In most cases, the topic is selected by the interests of the author, but it can also be suggested by the guides. You can have several topics, and then judge which you are most comfortable with. This may be done by asking several questions of yourself, like "Will I be able to carry out a search in this area? Will I find all necessary resources to accomplish the search? Will I be able to find all information in this field area?" If the answer to this type of question is "yes," then you ought to choose that topic. In most cases, you may have to conduct surveys and visit several places. Also, you might have to do a lot of work to find all the rises and falls of the various data on that subject. Sometimes, detailed information plays a vital role, instead of short information. Evaluators are human: The first thing to remember is that evaluators are also human beings. They are not only meant for rejecting a paper. They are here to evaluate your paper. So present your best aspect.

**2. Think like evaluators:** If you are in confusion or getting demotivated because your paper may not be accepted by the evaluators, then think, and try to evaluate your paper like an evaluator. Try to understand what an evaluator wants in your research paper, and you will automatically have your answer. Make blueprints of paper: The outline is the plan or framework that will help you to arrange your thoughts. It will make your paper logical. But remember that all points of your outline must be related to the topic you have chosen.

**3. Ask your guides:** If you are having any difficulty with your research, then do not hesitate to share your difficulty with your guide (if you have one). They will surely help you out and resolve your doubts. If you can't clarify what exactly you require for your work, then ask your supervisor to help you with an alternative. He or she might also provide you with a list of essential readings.

**4. Use of computer is recommended:** As you are doing research in the field of science frontier then this point is quite obvious. Use right software: Always use good quality software packages. If you are not capable of judging good software, then you can lose the quality of your paper unknowingly. There are various programs available to help you which you can get through the internet.

**5. Use the internet for help:** An excellent start for your paper is using Google. It is a wondrous search engine, where you can have your doubts resolved. You may also read some answers for the frequent question of how to write your research paper or find a model research paper. You can download books from the internet. If you have all the required books, place importance on reading, selecting, and analyzing the specified information. Then sketch out your research paper. Use big pictures: You may use encyclopedias like Wikipedia to get pictures with the best resolution. At Global Journals, you should strictly follow here.



**6. Bookmarks are useful:** When you read any book or magazine, you generally use bookmarks, right? It is a good habit which helps to not lose your continuity. You should always use bookmarks while searching on the internet also, which will make your search easier.

**7. Revise what you wrote:** When you write anything, always read it, summarize it, and then finalize it.

**8. Make every effort:** Make every effort to mention what you are going to write in your paper. That means always have a good start. Try to mention everything in the introduction—what is the need for a particular research paper. Polish your work with good writing skills and always give an evaluator what he wants. Make backups: When you are going to do any important thing like making a research paper, you should always have backup copies of it either on your computer or on paper. This protects you from losing any portion of your important data.

**9. Produce good diagrams of your own:** Always try to include good charts or diagrams in your paper to improve quality. Using several unnecessary diagrams will degrade the quality of your paper by creating a hodgepodge. So always try to include diagrams which were made by you to improve the readability of your paper. Use of direct quotes: When you do research relevant to literature, history, or current affairs, then use of quotes becomes essential, but if the study is relevant to science, use of quotes is not preferable.

**10. Use proper verb tense:** Use proper verb tenses in your paper. Use past tense to present those events that have happened. Use present tense to indicate events that are going on. Use future tense to indicate events that will happen in the future. Use of wrong tenses will confuse the evaluator. Avoid sentences that are incomplete.

**11. Pick a good study spot:** Always try to pick a spot for your research which is quiet. Not every spot is good for studying.

**12. Know what you know:** Always try to know what you know by making objectives, otherwise you will be confused and unable to achieve your target.

**13. Use good grammar:** Always use good grammar and words that will have a positive impact on the evaluator; use of good vocabulary does not mean using tough words which the evaluator has to find in a dictionary. Do not fragment sentences. Eliminate one-word sentences. Do not ever use a big word when a smaller one would suffice.

Verbs have to be in agreement with their subjects. In a research paper, do not start sentences with conjunctions or finish them with prepositions. When writing formally, it is advisable to never split an infinitive because someone will (wrongly) complain. Avoid clichés like a disease. Always shun irritating alliteration. Use language which is simple and straightforward. Put together a neat summary.

**14. Arrangement of information:** Each section of the main body should start with an opening sentence, and there should be a changeover at the end of the section. Give only valid and powerful arguments for your topic. You may also maintain your arguments with records.

**15. Never start at the last minute:** Always allow enough time for research work. Leaving everything to the last minute will degrade your paper and spoil your work.

**16. Multitasking in research is not good:** Doing several things at the same time is a bad habit in the case of research activity. Research is an area where everything has a particular time slot. Divide your research work into parts, and do a particular part in a particular time slot.

**17. Never copy others' work:** Never copy others' work and give it your name because if the evaluator has seen it anywhere, you will be in trouble. Take proper rest and food: No matter how many hours you spend on your research activity, if you are not taking care of your health, then all your efforts will have been in vain. For quality research, take proper rest and food.

**18. Go to seminars:** Attend seminars if the topic is relevant to your research area. Utilize all your resources.

**19. Refresh your mind after intervals:** Try to give your mind a rest by listening to soft music or sleeping in intervals. This will also improve your memory. Acquire colleagues: Always try to acquire colleagues. No matter how sharp you are, if you acquire colleagues, they can give you ideas which will be helpful to your research.



**20. Think technically:** Always think technically. If anything happens, search for its reasons, benefits, and demerits. Think and then print: When you go to print your paper, check that tables are not split, headings are not detached from their descriptions, and page sequence is maintained.

**21. Adding unnecessary information:** Do not add unnecessary information like "I have used MS Excel to draw graphs." Irrelevant and inappropriate material is superfluous. Foreign terminology and phrases are not apropos. One should never take a broad view. Analogy is like feathers on a snake. Use words properly, regardless of how others use them. Remove quotations. Puns are for kids, not grunt readers. Never oversimplify: When adding material to your research paper, never go for oversimplification; this will definitely irritate the evaluator. Be specific. Never use rhythmic redundancies. Contractions shouldn't be used in a research paper. Comparisons are as terrible as clichés. Give up ampersands, abbreviations, and so on. Remove commas that are not necessary. Parenthetical words should be between brackets or commas. Understatement is always the best way to put forward earth-shaking thoughts. Give a detailed literary review.

**22. Report concluded results:** Use concluded results. From raw data, filter the results, and then conclude your studies based on measurements and observations taken. An appropriate number of decimal places should be used. Parenthetical remarks are prohibited here. Proofread carefully at the final stage. At the end, give an outline to your arguments. Spot perspectives of further study of the subject. Justify your conclusion at the bottom sufficiently, which will probably include examples.

**23. Upon conclusion:** Once you have concluded your research, the next most important step is to present your findings. Presentation is extremely important as it is the definite medium through which your research is going to be in print for the rest of the crowd. Care should be taken to categorize your thoughts well and present them in a logical and neat manner. A good quality research paper format is essential because it serves to highlight your research paper and bring to light all necessary aspects of your research.

## INFORMAL GUIDELINES OF RESEARCH PAPER WRITING

### **Key points to remember:**

- Submit all work in its final form.
- Write your paper in the form which is presented in the guidelines using the template.
- Please note the criteria peer reviewers will use for grading the final paper.

### **Final points:**

One purpose of organizing a research paper is to let people interpret your efforts selectively. The journal requires the following sections, submitted in the order listed, with each section starting on a new page:

*The introduction:* This will be compiled from reference matter and reflect the design processes or outline of basis that directed you to make a study. As you carry out the process of study, the method and process section will be constructed like that. The results segment will show related statistics in nearly sequential order and direct reviewers to similar intellectual paths throughout the data that you gathered to carry out your study.

### **The discussion section:**

This will provide understanding of the data and projections as to the implications of the results. The use of good quality references throughout the paper will give the effort trustworthiness by representing an alertness to prior workings.

Writing a research paper is not an easy job, no matter how trouble-free the actual research or concept. Practice, excellent preparation, and controlled record-keeping are the only means to make straightforward progression.

### **General style:**

Specific editorial column necessities for compliance of a manuscript will always take over from directions in these general guidelines.

**To make a paper clear:** Adhere to recommended page limits.



### *Mistakes to avoid:*

- Insertion of a title at the foot of a page with subsequent text on the next page.
- Separating a table, chart, or figure—confine each to a single page.
- Submitting a manuscript with pages out of sequence.
- In every section of your document, use standard writing style, including articles ("a" and "the").
- Keep paying attention to the topic of the paper.
- Use paragraphs to split each significant point (excluding the abstract).
- Align the primary line of each section.
- Present your points in sound order.
- Use present tense to report well-accepted matters.
- Use past tense to describe specific results.
- Do not use familiar wording; don't address the reviewer directly. Don't use slang or superlatives.
- Avoid use of extra pictures—include only those figures essential to presenting results.

### **Title page:**

Choose a revealing title. It should be short and include the name(s) and address(es) of all authors. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations or exceed two printed lines.

**Abstract:** This summary should be two hundred words or less. It should clearly and briefly explain the key findings reported in the manuscript and must have precise statistics. It should not have acronyms or abbreviations. It should be logical in itself. Do not cite references at this point.

An abstract is a brief, distinct paragraph summary of finished work or work in development. In a minute or less, a reviewer can be taught the foundation behind the study, common approaches to the problem, relevant results, and significant conclusions or new questions.

Write your summary when your paper is completed because how can you write the summary of anything which is not yet written? Wealth of terminology is very essential in abstract. Use comprehensive sentences, and do not sacrifice readability for brevity; you can maintain it succinctly by phrasing sentences so that they provide more than a lone rationale. The author can at this moment go straight to shortening the outcome. Sum up the study with the subsequent elements in any summary. Try to limit the initial two items to no more than one line each.

*Reason for writing the article—theory, overall issue, purpose.*

- Fundamental goal.
- To-the-point depiction of the research.
- Consequences, including definite statistics—if the consequences are quantitative in nature, account for this; results of any numerical analysis should be reported. Significant conclusions or questions that emerge from the research.

### **Approach:**

- Single section and succinct.
- An outline of the job done is always written in past tense.
- Concentrate on shortening results—limit background information to a verdict or two.
- Exact spelling, clarity of sentences and phrases, and appropriate reporting of quantities (proper units, important statistics) are just as significant in an abstract as they are anywhere else.

### **Introduction:**

The introduction should "introduce" the manuscript. The reviewer should be presented with sufficient background information to be capable of comprehending and calculating the purpose of your study without having to refer to other works. The basis for the study should be offered. Give the most important references, but avoid making a comprehensive appraisal of the topic. Describe the problem visibly. If the problem is not acknowledged in a logical, reasonable way, the reviewer will give no attention to your results. Speak in common terms about techniques used to explain the problem, if needed, but do not present any particulars about the protocols here.



*The following approach can create a valuable beginning:*

- Explain the value (significance) of the study.
- Defend the model—why did you employ this particular system or method? What is its compensation? Remark upon its appropriateness from an abstract point of view as well as pointing out sensible reasons for using it.
- Present a justification. State your particular theory(-ies) or aim(s), and describe the logic that led you to choose them.
- Briefly explain the study's tentative purpose and how it meets the declared objectives.

#### **Approach:**

Use past tense except for when referring to recognized facts. After all, the manuscript will be submitted after the entire job is done. Sort out your thoughts; manufacture one key point for every section. If you make the four points listed above, you will need at least four paragraphs. Present surrounding information only when it is necessary to support a situation. The reviewer does not desire to read everything you know about a topic. Shape the theory specifically—do not take a broad view.

As always, give awareness to spelling, simplicity, and correctness of sentences and phrases.

#### **Procedures (methods and materials):**

This part is supposed to be the easiest to carve if you have good skills. A soundly written procedures segment allows a capable scientist to replicate your results. Present precise information about your supplies. The suppliers and clarity of reagents can be helpful bits of information. Present methods in sequential order, but linked methodologies can be grouped as a segment. Be concise when relating the protocols. Attempt to give the least amount of information that would permit another capable scientist to replicate your outcome, but be cautious that vital information is integrated. The use of subheadings is suggested and ought to be synchronized with the results section.

When a technique is used that has been well-described in another section, mention the specific item describing the way, but draw the basic principle while stating the situation. The purpose is to show all particular resources and broad procedures so that another person may use some or all of the methods in one more study or referee the scientific value of your work. It is not to be a step-by-step report of the whole thing you did, nor is a methods section a set of orders.

#### **Materials:**

*Materials may be reported in part of a section or else they may be recognized along with your measures.*

#### **Methods:**

- Report the method and not the particulars of each process that engaged the same methodology.
- Describe the method entirely.
- To be succinct, present methods under headings dedicated to specific dealings or groups of measures.
- Simplify—detail how procedures were completed, not how they were performed on a particular day.
- If well-known procedures were used, account for the procedure by name, possibly with a reference, and that's all.

#### **Approach:**

It is embarrassing to use vigorous voice when documenting methods without using first person, which would focus the reviewer's interest on the researcher rather than the job. As a result, when writing up the methods, most authors use third person passive voice.

Use standard style in this and every other part of the paper—avoid familiar lists, and use full sentences.

#### **What to keep away from:**

- Resources and methods are not a set of information.
- Skip all descriptive information and surroundings—save it for the argument.
- Leave out information that is immaterial to a third party.





**Results:**

The principle of a results segment is to present and demonstrate your conclusion. Create this part as entirely objective details of the outcome, and save all understanding for the discussion.

The page length of this segment is set by the sum and types of data to be reported. Use statistics and tables, if suitable, to present consequences most efficiently.

You must clearly differentiate material which would usually be incorporated in a study editorial from any unprocessed data or additional appendix matter that would not be available. In fact, such matters should not be submitted at all except if requested by the instructor.

**Content:**

- Sum up your conclusions in text and demonstrate them, if suitable, with figures and tables.
- In the manuscript, explain each of your consequences, and point the reader to remarks that are most appropriate.
- Present a background, such as by describing the question that was addressed by creation of an exacting study.
- Explain results of control experiments and give remarks that are not accessible in a prescribed figure or table, if appropriate.
- Examine your data, then prepare the analyzed (transformed) data in the form of a figure (graph), table, or manuscript.

**What to stay away from:**

- Do not discuss or infer your outcome, report surrounding information, or try to explain anything.
- Do not include raw data or intermediate calculations in a research manuscript.
- Do not present similar data more than once.
- A manuscript should complement any figures or tables, not duplicate information.
- Never confuse figures with tables—there is a difference.

**Approach:**

As always, use past tense when you submit your results, and put the whole thing in a reasonable order.

Put figures and tables, appropriately numbered, in order at the end of the report.

If you desire, you may place your figures and tables properly within the text of your results section.

**Figures and tables:**

If you put figures and tables at the end of some details, make certain that they are visibly distinguished from any attached appendix materials, such as raw facts. Whatever the position, each table must be titled, numbered one after the other, and include a heading. All figures and tables must be divided from the text.

**Discussion:**

The discussion is expected to be the trickiest segment to write. A lot of papers submitted to the journal are discarded based on problems with the discussion. There is no rule for how long an argument should be.

Position your understanding of the outcome visibly to lead the reviewer through your conclusions, and then finish the paper with a summing up of the implications of the study. The purpose here is to offer an understanding of your results and support all of your conclusions, using facts from your research and generally accepted information, if suitable. The implication of results should be fully described.

Infer your data in the conversation in suitable depth. This means that when you clarify an observable fact, you must explain mechanisms that may account for the observation. If your results vary from your prospect, make clear why that may have happened. If your results agree, then explain the theory that the proof supported. It is never suitable to just state that the data approved the prospect, and let it drop at that. Make a decision as to whether each premise is supported or discarded or if you cannot make a conclusion with assurance. Do not just dismiss a study or part of a study as "uncertain."



Research papers are not acknowledged if the work is imperfect. Draw what conclusions you can based upon the results that you have, and take care of the study as a finished work.

- You may propose future guidelines, such as how an experiment might be personalized to accomplish a new idea.
- Give details of all of your remarks as much as possible, focusing on mechanisms.
- Make a decision as to whether the tentative design sufficiently addressed the theory and whether or not it was correctly restricted. Try to present substitute explanations if they are sensible alternatives.
- One piece of research will not counter an overall question, so maintain the large picture in mind. Where do you go next? The best studies unlock new avenues of study. What questions remain?
- Recommendations for detailed papers will offer supplementary suggestions.

**Approach:**

When you refer to information, differentiate data generated by your own studies from other available information. Present work done by specific persons (including you) in past tense.

Describe generally acknowledged facts and main beliefs in present tense.

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| <i>Methods and Procedures</i> | Clear and to the point with well arranged paragraph, precision and accuracy of facts and figures, well organized subheads  | Difficult to comprehend with embarrassed text, too much explanation but completed                   | Incorrect and unorganized structure with hazy meaning              |
| <i>Result</i>                 | Well organized, Clear and specific, Correct units with precision, correct data, well structuring of paragraph, no grammar and spelling mistake   | Complete and embarrassed text, difficult to comprehend  | Irregular format with wrong facts and figures                      |
| <i>Discussion</i>             | Well organized, meaningful specification, sound conclusion, logical and concise explanation, highly structured paragraph reference cited   | Wordy, unclear conclusion, spurious   | Conclusion is not cited, unorganized, difficult to comprehend      |
| <i>References</i>             | Complete and correct format, well organized  | Beside the point, Incomplete  | Wrong format and structuring                                       |



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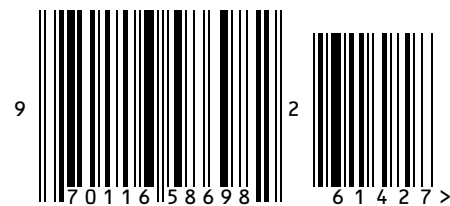


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