#### Invited article

Range Mgmt. & Agroforestry 40 (2): 173-180, 2019

ISSN 0971-2070



# Tree fodder for mitigating the forage requirement in Himalayan region

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#### **Abstract**

In Himalayan region, fodder scarcity during lean periods has often been associated with serious economic loses to small hold farmers. Considering this, it has become pertinent to put adequate efforts for investigating alternative feed resources with superior traits over conventional forages. Forage trees, as an alternative or supplementary feed to conventional grasses, are effective sources to overcome scarcity of fodder in some regions. Tree foliages have appreciable amounts of nutrients which keep intestinal micro flora active for digesting cellulosic biomasses. The presence of anti-nutrients in tree foliage reduces the nutrient utilization in animals and results in discontinuation of various metabolic processes in body. The level of different anti-nutrients in tree foliage changes with the seasonal variations. Hence, a better understanding of seasonal variations and antinutrients level would help the farmer to predict optimum lopping time to harvest fodder trees with minimal amount of anti-nutrients. The purpose of reviewing the obnoxious effects of anti-nutrients in this article is to keep farmer aware rather than discourage the use of tree foliage for ruminant feeding. Different processing techniques have been developed to alleviate the ill effects of anti-nutrients in animals. Beside utilization of fodder trees as an excellent feed source, they do have significant values for sustainability of different agroforestry systems. This review emphasize the need of awareness, integration, cultivation and intensification of fodder trees in local farming systems through agroforestry for improving livestock productivity and sustenance of rural livelihoods in Himalayan region.

**Keywords:** Anti-nutrients, Livestock, Nutritional composition, Phenolic compounds, Tree fodder

Abbreviations: ADF: Acid detergent fiber, CP: Crude protein; EE: Ether extract; IVDMD: In vitro dry matter digestibility; NDF: Neutral detergent fiber; NFE: Nitrogen

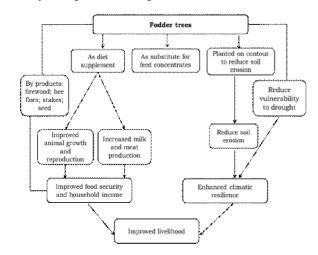
free extract; OM: Organic matter

#### Introduction

A mixed farming based agriculture production system involves complementary interactions between crop and livestock. In India this system is predominant from centuries and has become a crucial source of food, income, and social capital for farmer's livelihood. Although, India has large population of livestock in the world, the productivity is rather low, mainly attributed to inadequacy of quality fodder. According to the report of United Nations, the current world population of 7.2 billion is projected to increase by 1 billion in coming next 12 years and will touch around 9.6 billion in 2050 and importantly, most of the population growth is expected in developing countries like India. As a result, the increased pressure on land for production of food crops will leave meager available land for forage production. The above circumstances necessitate the identification of nonconventional feed resources, not only for their effective utilization but also for identification and introduction of new and lesser known plants capable to grow well in harsh conditions and do not compete with human food (Raghuvansi et al., 2007). The propagation of such nonconventional feed resources could be utilized to combat desertification, drought, to provide economic benefits to farmer, create multiple job opportunities and bridge the gap between supply and demand for animal feeds (Fig 1). This would also lead to diversification of traditional agriculture and conservation of biodiversity through sustainable utilization of natural resources. However, the alternative feed resources must be compatible to existing farming systems and should be well adapted with economic conditions of farmer. The preference of the farmer for different feed resources is mainly based on their feeding value, ease in their availability and their importance in sustainability of agroforestry systems. Fodder trees are considered as best alternative feed resource because they are long lived, require minimum efforts and interventions, source of numerous side products and maintain soil fertility (Rawat and Subhas, 2011). They are also a good source of nutrients and could help in reducing the gap between the demand and supply of essential nutrients when other fodder resources are

not available (Katoch, 2009; Nautiyal et al., 2017; Nabi et al., 2017). To promote the utilization of fodder trees as a component of ruminant diets and for maintaining the sustainability of agroforestry systems, knowledge on points given below is imperative-

- Easy establishment
- Growth pattern and adaptability to local environment conditions
- Tolerance to various management practices
- · Effect of different environmental condition
- · Voluntary intake by the livestock
- Nutritive value of tree foliage
- Ability to regenerate foliage



**Fig 1.** Model presenting fodder trees as a resource for improving rural livelihoods in Himalayan region

## Fodder trees in livestock feeding

Fodder trees have long been considered as an alternative resource to ensure feed to animals during pronounced dry periods when other feeds have been exhausted (Verma et al., 2015; Kaushal et al., 2016; Sahoo et al., 2016; Nag et al., 2017; Katoch et al., 2017). These are green or less affected by seasonal dry conditions due to extensive root system which enable water and nutrients extraction from deep in soil profile and longer life span (Teferi et al., 2008). The small scale farmers of Himalayan region particularly rear cattle, goats and sheep to generate income by producing milk, meat, leather, wool and manure. To maintain a stable condition of the ruminants, farmer generally feed conventional feed resources which contain low amount of protein and energy. Concentrate feeds which contain enough protein are usually recommended to supplement the basic diets of poor quality forages. But the leaves of fodder trees contain high level of proteins (10 to 30% of dry matter) and can replace concentrates to supplement low quality

feeds without any adverse effects.

# Nutritional composition of fodder trees prevalent in Himalayan region

Fodder trees form an integral part of ruminant diets in Himalayan region due to excellent nutrient profile with high feeding value, tolerance of a wide range of management practices, longevity and capacity to provide fodder when other fodder species are scare (Katoch, 2009; Bhardwaj et al., 2018). In general, fodder tree leaves from Himalayan region have high protein and mineral content particularly calcium and phosphorus as compared to conventional grasses (Rana et al., 1999). High level of calcium and phosphorus in fodder trees could be due to rocky mountainous ranges in Himalayan region (Sharma et al., 2003). Tree leaves also have high level of micro minerals well above than their critical levels (Sahoo et al., 2016). The nutrients from fodder trees initiate the microbial activity in digestive tract of ruminants, which increases their ability to digest fiber, and enable livestock for better utilization of dry season pastures (Singh et al., 2015; Nautiyal et al., 2017; Katoch et al., 2017). However, their nutritive value is significantly affected by various plant and environment based factors such as plant maturity, plant parts, season, altitude and harvesting time.

Nutritional composition for a range of tree fodders was reviewed earlier (Table 1). The crude protein content in tree leaves from mid Himalayan region ranged from 9.13 to 22.08% while calcium and phosphorus content ranged from 0.50 to 6.31mg/100g and 0.12 to 0.27 mg/100g of dry matter, respectively (Sharma et al., 1966). Sahoo et al. (2016) reported that calcium content ranged from 1.2 to 2.7% in fodder trees of sub-temperate Himalayas. High calcium content in Ficus palmata (2.7%) than the critical level (<0.30%) could be useful in early stage of lactation in animals. Pal et al. (1979) reported that average dry matter composition (%) of fodder trees growing in mid Himalayan region varied in respect of crude protein from 10.29% in Ficus benghalensis to 20.99% in Albizzia stipulata, crude fiber from 14.38% in Morus alba to 33.74% in Atriplex stipulata, nitrogen free extract (NFE) from 35.41% in Bambusa nutans to 60.41% in Syzygium cumini, total ash from 7.40% in Bauhinia variegata to 17.41% in Cordia dichotoma, insoluble ash from 0.35% in Syzygium cumini to 8.05% in Banksia nutans, calcium from 0.76% in Dendrocalamus hamiltonii to 4.79% in Aegle marmelos and phosphorus from 0.11% in Syzygium cumini and Quercus incana to 0.25% in Callicarpa dichotoma.

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Bauhinia variegata had excellent nutritive profile and collated well with green leguminous fodder in its nutritive value (Negi, 1986). Khosla et al. (1992) observed high protein content (32%) in immature leaves of Grewia optiva, Celtis australis and Robinia pseudoacacia. The digestibility of protein form Grewia oppositifolia and Bambusa arundinacea leaves resembled to leguminous forages (Sharma et al., 1966). In Artocarpus lakoocha, protein content ranged from 13.17 to 16.00% (Brandis, 1978). The comparative analysis of different fodder trees was also done by Khatta and Katoch (1983) and reported that Bambusa arundinacea is a nutritionally superior, ecologically adaptable, fast growing plant with more palatable foliage than other fodder trees. Mulberry (Morus alba var. multicolis) is considered as an excellent alternative for low quality forages in Himalayan region due to excellent nutrient profile with 15.00 to 27.60% of crude protein, 2.30 to 8.0% of ether extract, 9.10 to 15.30% of crude fiber, 48.00 to 49.70% of nitrogen free extract, 63.30% of total carbohydrates, 14.30 to 22.90% of ash, 2.42 to 4.71% of calcium, 0.23 to 0.97% of phosphorus, 30 to 50 ppm of iron, 0.5 to 1.0% of potassium, 33 to 46% of NDF, 28 to 35% of ADF, 5 to 10% of hemicelluloses, 19 to 25% of cellulose and around 11% of lignin content on dry matter basis (Singh et al., 1989; Makkar et al., 1989). Makkar and Becker (1998) observed that protein content in fodder trees prevailing in foot hills of Himalayas ranged from 8.0 to 25.90%. Dhungana et al. (2012) reported that among different fodder trees Artocarpus lakoocha contained substantial amount of crude protein, Ficus lacor had highest crude fiber (42.07%) and Machilus odoratissima yielded highest amount of digestible carbohydrates (21.92%). Sahoo et al. (2016) also observed that OM, CP, EE, NDF and ADF contents in fodder trees of sub-temperate Himalayan region varied from 90.60 to 97.40%, 9.50 to 21.10%, 3.90 to 5.90%, 38.40 to 69.40% and 40.10 to 70.50%, respectively (Table 2). Katoch et al. (2017) reported that Morus alba and Grewia oppsitifolia are excellent source of fodder in mid-Himalayan region for containing appreciable amount of nutrients.

# Anti-nutrients in fodder trees and their seasonal variation

Fodder trees are nutrient-rich and valuable source of green fodder to sustain livestock during lean period in the hills of Indian Himalayas. However, their nutritional potential is significantly affected due to the presence of anti-nutrients (Table 3). The seasonal variations affect the levels of anti-nutrients in foliage and have been greatly emphasized as main determinants of forage quality. A seasonal pattern generally consisting of an increase in

Table 1. Nutritional composition of common fodder trees in Himalayan region

| Fodder  | Scientific                | % DM basis |       |       |       | mg/100g |       |       |      |      |      |      |
|---------|---------------------------|------------|-------|-------|-------|---------|-------|-------|------|------|------|------|
| tree    | name                      | СР         | CF    | EE    | Ash   | NFE     | NDF   | ADF   | Ca   | Р    | Cu   | Zn   |
| Beri    | (Zizyphus<br>nummularia)  | 14.99      | 16.48 | 2.20  | 10.70 | 55.63   | 70.90 | 59.63 | 0.48 | 0.32 | 1.32 | 3.50 |
| Biul    | (Grewia<br>oppositifolia) | 18.32      | 20.95 | 3.39  | 10.63 | 46.71   | 45.56 | 29.67 | 2.41 | 0.28 | 1.69 | 2.06 |
| Dheon   | (Artocarpus<br>Iakoocha)  | 14.45      | 21.10 | 2.40  | 12.13 | 49.92   | 54.48 | 38.72 | 1.11 | 0.31 | 0.96 | 4.48 |
| Kachnar | (Bauhinia<br>variegata)   | 15.25      | 24.36 | 3.42  | 6.72  | 50.25   | 59.81 | 46.59 | 2.13 | 0.27 | 2.80 | 3.50 |
| Khirak  | (Celtis<br>australis)     | 18.08      | 18.10 | 2.19  | 16.43 | 45.20   | 37.21 | 27.12 | 3.16 | 0.26 | 1.68 | 2.63 |
| Oee     | (Albizzia<br>stipulata)   | 10.35      | 32.75 | 3.86  | 7.71  | 45.33   | 68.37 | 33.29 | 1.12 | 0.23 | 1.24 | 5.17 |
| Magar   | (Bambusa<br>arundinacea)  | 18.02      | 29.25 | 5.05  | 11.54 | 36.14   | 70.05 | 30.06 | 0.65 | 0.22 | 1.46 | 2.87 |
| Robinia | (Robinia<br>pseudoacacia) | 17.55<br>) | 18.02 | 4.28  | 4.09  | 43.94   | 51.68 | 34.20 | 1.46 | 0.21 | 1.90 | -    |
| Siras   | (Albizzia<br>lebbek)      | 17.59      | 33.10 | 3.88  | 8.83  | 36.62   | 52.68 | 33.80 | 2.65 | 0.11 | 0.54 | 1.04 |
| Toot    | (Morus alba)              | 26.40      | 11.63 | 5.06  | 16.28 | 40.63   | 41.20 | 23.77 | 2.38 | 0.35 | 2.08 | 4.83 |
| Tuni    | (Cedrela toona            | 14.83      | 12.03 | 12.50 | 11.99 | 48.65   | 37.46 | 20.03 | 2.50 | 0.13 | 0.81 | -    |

Source: Katoch (2009)

Table 2. Nutritional composition of preferred fodder tree species in sub-temperate Himalayan region

| Tree species            | % DM basis |       |      |       |       |       |  |  |
|-------------------------|------------|-------|------|-------|-------|-------|--|--|
|                         | OM         | СР    | Œ    | NDF   | ADF   | IVDMD |  |  |
| Ficus nemoralis         | 93.30      | 14.50 | 5.70 | 43.00 | 48.70 | 72.80 |  |  |
| Ficus palmata           | 91.50      | 13.80 | 4.90 | 38.40 | 40.30 | 68.50 |  |  |
| Ficus roxburghii        | 91.20      | 13.30 | 5.90 | 47.50 | 53.50 | 66.50 |  |  |
| Quercus semicarpifolia  | 97.40      | 9.50  | 5.30 | 64.50 | 60.50 | 65.40 |  |  |
| Quercus leucotricophora | 96.70      | 10.50 | 5.60 | 66.20 | 60.10 | 64.70 |  |  |
| Quercus floribunda      | 96.40      | 9.70  | 4.40 | 58.80 | 58.20 | 62.30 |  |  |
| Quercus glauca          | 90.60      | 11.00 | 5.20 | 69.40 | 70.50 | 52.60 |  |  |
| Alnus nepalensis        | 92.80      | 10.20 | 5.50 | 63.50 | 65.70 | 56.40 |  |  |
| Mean                    | 93.3       | 13.2  | 5.2  | 55.8  | 54.7  | 65.1  |  |  |
| SE(m)                   | 0.75       | 1.17  | 0.32 | 3.25  | 3.37  | 2.17  |  |  |

Source: Sahoo et al. (2016)

total phenols content during summer and decrease in winter season was reported by Rana *et al.* (2006) and Amaral *et al.* (2010). Similar trend was also observed for condensed tannins in fodder tree leaves.

Rana et al. (2006) reported that condensed tannins start to accumulate during winter season and reaches highest level during summer season. The condensation of tannins during winter season contributes to plant defense system in order to avoid any damage from stress full environment (Salaj and Karmutak, 1995). Onyeonagu et al. (2013) reported that in tree foliage harvested from the month of July to October had high levels of alkaloids, phytate, saponins and tannin content, than those harvested in dry season (November to February). The different stages of phonological development of plants also affect the livestock performance (Aganga and Tshwenyane, 2003; Rana et al., 2006; Jones et al., 2009; Pandey et al., 2011). Frutos et al. (2004) observed that variation in anti-nutrients also correlates with phenological stages of plants. During early stages of plant growth, most of the anti-nutrients are present at higher concentration. This may be due to high susceptibility of plant to various pests at younger stages. Pandey et al. (2011) reported a decreasing trend in hydrocyanic acid content with the advancement in plant maturity. Similar trend was also reported for oxalate content in fodder tree leaves earlier (Davis, 1981).

#### **Detrimental effects of anti-nutrients**

Foliages from the fodder trees have varying levels of antinutrients which exert varying affects on the physiology and productivity of livestock, as mentioned below-

**Table 3.** Major anti-nutritional compounds in foliage of fodder trees

| <b>Anti-nutritional compounds</b> | Fodder tree species   |  |  |  |
|-----------------------------------|-----------------------|--|--|--|
| Polyphenolic compounds            |                       |  |  |  |
| (A) Tannins                       | All vascular plants   |  |  |  |
| (B) Lignins                       | All vascular plants   |  |  |  |
| Non protein amino acids           |                       |  |  |  |
| (A) Mimosine                      | Leucaena leucocephala |  |  |  |
| Glycosides                        |                       |  |  |  |
| (A) Cyanogens                     | Acacia giraffae       |  |  |  |
|                                   | A. cunninghamii       |  |  |  |
|                                   | A. sieberiana         |  |  |  |
|                                   | Bambusa bambos        |  |  |  |
| (B) Saponins                      | Albizia stipulata     |  |  |  |
|                                   | Bassia latifolia      |  |  |  |
|                                   | Sesbania sesban       |  |  |  |
| Phytohaemagglutinins              |                       |  |  |  |
| (A) Robin                         | Bauhinia purpurea     |  |  |  |
|                                   | Robinia pseudoacacia  |  |  |  |
| Alkaloids                         |                       |  |  |  |
| (A) N-methyl-β-phene              | Acacia berlandieri    |  |  |  |
| thylamine                         |                       |  |  |  |
| (B) Sesabine                      | Sesbania vesicaria    |  |  |  |
|                                   | S. drummondii         |  |  |  |
|                                   | S. punicea            |  |  |  |
| Oxalates                          | Acacia aneura         |  |  |  |

Source: Kumar (2003)

**Digestibility:** Tannins in fodder trees form the most common incriminating factors. Several *in vitro* and *in vivo* studies have shown that tannins decreases the protein digestibility either by inactivating digestive enzymes or by reducing the susceptibility of substrate proteins to digest after complex formation. The two types of tannins differ in their nutritional and toxic effects. Condensed tannins have profound reducing effect on digestibility than hydrolysable tannins. Hydrolysable tannin reduces the digestibility after

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hydrolysis in rumen (Akande *et al.*, 2010). The high level of condensed tannins in feeds have been implicated in low milk production, decreased absorption of methionine and lysine, degenerative changes in intestine, liver, spleen and kidney. The unavailability of methionine also increases the toxicity of cyanogenic glucosides, because methionine play crucial role in cyanide detoxification. Tannins also reduces the availability of vitamins particularly vitamin A and vitamin B<sub>12</sub> to livestock.

Palatability: The elevated levels of tannins in fodder trees also have negative impact on appetite for short period (within 20 to 60 minutes) and long period (from days to weeks). The short term effects of tannins are mainly due to astringent nature of tannins and adverse post-ingestive influences on the epithelium of oral cavity and foregut of ruminants, whereas, long term effects are mainly attributed to reduced concentration of ammonia and volatile fatty acids which in turn serves as metabolic cue for deficiency of nitrogen, energy or both.

Toxicity: Nitrate poisoning is probably the most widespread toxicity associated with grazing animals. If a significant amount of nitrate accumulated inside the body of grazing animal, it converts hemoglobin into the less oxygenic form and as a result animal dies due to hypoxia and circulatory collapse. Fodder trees also suffer from the problem of releasing hydrocyanic acid. However, cyanogens are not toxic themselves but become toxic when tree foliage is exposed to ruminal enzymes especially  $\beta$ -glucosidase that release hydrocyanic acid. The increased levels of cyanide in body inhibit the action of cytochrome oxidase in electron transport chain as a result tissues suffer from energy deprivation and ultimately lead to death. Maslin et al. (1987) suggested that in fodder species, hydrocyanic acid above than 200 mg/kg of fresh weight cause toxicity in ruminants. High oxalate concentration (> 2% or more soluble oxalates) also leads to acute toxicosis in ruminants. During the early stages of growth, there is a rapid rise in oxalate content followed by a decline in oxalate levels as plant matures (Davis, 1981). The high levels of other antinutritional factors in fodder trees such as non-protein amino acids, glycosides, phytohemagglutinins, polyphenols, and alkaloids are also considered as toxicogenic compounds as their increased levels produce several toxic symptoms in animals. For example alkaloid Sesabine from Sesbania vesicaria interacts with intestinal epithelial cells and causes haemorrhagic diarrhea in ruminants.

## Techniques to alleviate the toxic effects of antinutrients

The direct consumption of forage trees with high levels of anti-nutrients produces toxicological symptoms in grazing animals. Therefore, it is necessary to investigate various processing techniques to reduce the concentration of anti-nutrients. For this purpose, the simplest approach is dilution of anti-nutrients by supplementing tree leaves with other feeds. This mixing reduces anti-nutrients levels in tree leaves and certainly reduces the risk of toxicity. Feeding of tree leaves in combination with feed concentrates mitigate the effect of tannins without any adverse effect in animals. This method is quite favorable as animals consume proteins beyond their requirements from concentrate. As a result, anti-nutritional effects of tannins will be masked. Soaking of tree leaves in water remove soluble anti-nutritional factors. However, some metabolic reactions can take place during soaking which will also affect some nutritive compounds. It has been reported that repeated soaking/ washing of tree leaves effectively remove the bitterness associated with saponins (Joshi et al., 1989). The supplementation of tree leaves with polyethylene glycol-4000 (PEG-4000) is also an effective method to reduce or to neutralize tannin content in tree leaves (Ben Salem et al., 2000; Salem et al., 2007). PEG-4000 prevents the formation of tannin-protein complexes and assists the breakdown of already formed complexes (Reddy, 2001). Makkar and Singh (1992) reported 95% reduction in tannins with 0.03 M potassium permanganate and 0.02 M potassium dichromate in tree leaves. These oxidizing agents convert tannins to guinones, which are not capable of forming complexes with proteins and can be used for large scale removal of tannins. The alkalis like sodium hydroxide, sodium carbonate and sodium bicarbonate act by oxidation of phenolics at higher pH (Makkar and Singh, 1992). Among them, Sodium hydroxide (0.05 M) is most effective, followed by sodium carbonate (0.05 M) and sodium bicarbonate (0.1 M). The reduction in tannins in oak leaves using these alkalis ranged between 70 and 90% (Makkar and Singh, 1991). The alkaline treatment with calcium hydroxide can be very effective in preventing the toxic or anti-nutritional effects of tannins. Charcoal has also been advocated as an effective alternative to alkalis, oxidizing agents and PEG whose high cost limits their use and in few cases their utilization could have adverse effects on environmental health (Bhat et al., 2013).

Russel and Lolley (1989) observed that extra nitrogen supplied by urea increases the crude protein concentr-

-ation by destabilizing tannin—protein complexes. The application of ferrous sulphate (0.015 M) also reduces tannins by 85% (Bhat *et al.*, 2013). Fermentation also improves the sensory characteristics, such as flavor and taste by increasing nutrient concentration and availability from tree foliage. In this method, changes are mainly due to increased activity of endogenous enzymes and microbiota present in tree leaves. Simple heating or autoclaving improves protein quality by inactivating heat labile anti-physiological factors and by unfolding the protein structure, which make them more susceptible to digestive enzymes. The proper knowledge of the effect of active season on anti-nutrients also an effective strategy for obtaining tree fodder with minimal amount of anti-nutrients.

#### Conclusion

Fodder trees represent an alternative feed resource to overcome fodder scarcity due to their less susceptibility to sudden climatic changes and longer life spans than conventional forages. In addition to fodder, these trees are also important for sustainability of different agroforestry systems. Fodder trees of Himalayan region have excellent nutritive profile and have the potential to provide quality feed to cattle particularly during off seasons. However, their incorporation in existing farming systems require additional efforts like introduction of promising local fodder tree species, supply best planting material suitable to particular niche area for farmers and facilitation of knowledge intensive practices.

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