

Combining targeted grass traits with red clover improves grassland performance and reduces need for nitrogen fertilisation

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1 **Reducing nitrogen use and improving feed quality of grassland: Combining red clover with grasses**
2 **with targeted traits**

3

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15 **Highlights**

- 16
- Herbage yields were greater when red clover was included within the sward
 - 17 • Inclusion of red clover with grass increased sward N and metabolisable energy content
 - 18 • Including red clover in grass swards replaced the need for N fertiliser
 - 19 • *Festulolium* gave no yield advantage over a ryegrass hybrid under drought conditions
 - 20 • The greater root mass of *festulolium* did not affect soil C and N content at depth

21 **Abstract**

22 To increase ruminant production efficiency, the environmental impact of growing forage
23 must be reduced. Here we examined the role of red clover (cv. AberClaret) in minimising nitrogen
24 (N) requirements, alongside two novel grass varieties, (1) a *festulolium* (cv. AberNiche), developed
25 for drought tolerance, with potential for deep-rooting, and (2) a ryegrass hybrid (cv. AberEcho),
26 developed for high-sugar content, which may enhance ruminant N-uptake *in-vivo*. Field trials were
27 conducted at two sites growing *festulolium* and ryegrass ± red clover (at 29% of the seed mix
28 weight), at a range of N fertilisation rates (0 – 600 kg N ha⁻¹), for 2 years (six harvests). We assessed
29 sward performance (N offtake, herbage and silage quality, grass N use efficiency), rooting depth and
30 N transfer from clover to grasses using ¹⁵N natural abundance. Across both sites and years, dry
31 matter and herbage-N content were overall greater from the swards that included clover. Yields
32 from *festulolium* were not greater than from ryegrass under the drought conditions experienced,
33 despite its greater root mass. Agronomic efficiency of fertiliser N was similar between grasses (19 -
34 22 %), however the *festulolium* more effectively used endogenous soil N than the ryegrass. There
35 was no difference in soil N and C profiles between the two grasses. Inclusion of clover in the sward
36 positively affected forage quality (crude protein, metabolisable energy), but reduced sugar and fibre
37 (NDF) content. Among the grass types, metabolisable energy was greater and NDF content less for
38 ryegrass than for *festulolium*. The effect of clover within the sward carried through to the ensiled
39 herbage with increased N and reduced sugar and fibre in the silage from the clover mixed swards,
40 relative to the single species grass swards. A strong reliance on biological N fixation (80 – 94%) for
41 clover was observed, however, N transfer from clover to the neighbouring grass was not evident
42 from the δ¹⁵N signatures. Inclusion of grass varieties that can deep-root or provide high-sugar
43 content had no impact on yield, but herbage quality was relatively better for ryegrass. The capacity
44 for *festulolium* to (i) deep-root and enhance grassland resilience under a prolonged drought, and (ii)
45 promote deep soil C storage was not observed in this study. We conclude that red clover is a viable
46 fertiliser-N replacement strategy in short-term leys, and that grass varieties with improved herbage

47 quality may provide a better option for optimising sward performance than drought tolerant grass
48 varieties.

49

50 **Keywords**

51 Fertiliser response, livestock production, NUE, partial factor productivity, plant trait

52

53 *1. Introduction*

54 The efficiency of nitrogen (N) use in ruminant production systems remains low (Leach et al.,
55 2012; de Klein et al., 2017; Carswell et al., 2019a). However, there are opportunities for improving it,
56 such as in feed and forage production (Misselbrook et al., 2013; Eisler et al., 2014) and the
57 management of excreta (Ma et al., 2010); this study focuses on the former. Grasslands account for
58 3.2×10^9 hectares of the worldwide agricultural area (FAO, 2018). Under intensive grassland
59 systems, pasture performance can be enhanced through N fertilisation, particularly for single-species
60 grass swards. When legumes such as clover, which source N via biological N fixation (BNF), are
61 incorporated within the sward, grasslands can be highly productive (Reid et al., 1970; Burchill et al.,
62 2014; Enriquez-Hidalgo et al., 2016). However, the yield response of mixed grass and clover swards
63 can be suppressed by N fertilisation (Reid et al., 1970; Enriquez-Hidalgo et al., 2016).

64 Red clover can supply a large amount of N when included within grassland swards (ca. 150 -
65 $250 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ N ha}^{-1} \text{ y}^{-1}$, AHDB 2016; Marshall et al., 2017). In addition to sourcing N from BNF for its own
66 use, red clover can also become a N donor and directly transfer BNF sourced-N to neighbouring
67 grasses (Pirhofer-Walzl et al., 2012), negating the need for additional N fertilisation. Further benefits
68 of incorporating red clover within grassland swards include the provision of the enzyme polyphenol
69 oxidase, which, with its lipid-protecting role, can lead to increased levels of polyunsaturated fatty
70 acids in milk and meat from ruminants (van Ranst et al., 2011). Polyphenol oxidase has also been
71 linked to reduced proteolysis during the ensiling process, which is important for forage preservation
72 (Jones et al., 1995). Although the benefits of red clover within swards are well established,

73 difficulties in long-term persistency within swards (>3 y) can occur (Eriksen et al., 2012; Marshall et
74 al., 2017), therefore its inclusion may be limited to short-medium term leys within crop rotations.

75 When sowing a new ley, there is the opportunity to choose a sward including species with
76 specific traits, such as the ability to deep-root, or produce high-sugar content within the herbage
77 (Kell, 2011). *Festulolium* (e.g. *Lolium multiflorum* × *Festuca pratensis*) has been developed for both
78 drought and cold tolerance (Ghesquière et al., 2010). The potential for *festulolium* to produce
79 greater root mass and to deep-root has been associated with other benefits, such as increasing
80 rainwater lag times to receiving water bodies (Macleod et al., 2013), and speculation that deep-
81 rooting might be associated with increased carbon (C) sequestration or indeed increased turnover of
82 C at depth (Marshall et al., 2016). In contrast to *festulolium*, high-sugar grasses have been bred to
83 optimise *in-vivo* N use efficiency in ruminants. When energy supply is low within the rumen,
84 microbes resort to amino acids for energy supply rather than assimilating them into microbial
85 protein. This in turn leads to ammonia accumulating within the rumen, which is subsequently lost
86 from the animal as urea-N (Miller et al., 2001). Merry et al. (2006) investigated the inclusion of red
87 clover within a high-sugar grass silage and demonstrated that conversion of feed-N to microbial-N
88 was increased when red clover silage was mixed with high-sugar grass silage, as was the efficiency of
89 microbial protein synthesis, relative to red clover silage alone. Thus, grasses with high-sugar content,
90 mixed with red clover, may enhance feed N efficiency and reduce ruminant N losses.

91 The objectives of this study were to test the hypotheses that: (1) including red clover in the
92 sward would negate the need for N fertiliser, with BNF providing N to the clover and to neighbouring
93 grasses; (2) inclusion of red clover would not detrimentally affect the forage (herbage or silage)
94 quality; (3) a *festulolium* would produce greater yields under dry conditions relative to the hybrid
95 ryegrass examined; (4) enhanced rooting and nutrient cycling at depth would be observed with the
96 *festulolium* relative to the ryegrass hybrid, but that sufficient N supply would suppress deep-rooting;
97 and (5) that plant uptake of applied N would be greater for the *festulolium* due to its greater rooting
98 potential.

100 2. Materials and methods

101 2.1. Site description

102 The plot trials were conducted over two growing seasons (2017 and 2018) at two sites in the
 103 UK, see Carswell et al. (2019b) for full site descriptions. The first site was at Rothamsted Research –
 104 North Wyke (NW), in the southwest of England (50°46'39"N, 3°54'30"W, 128 m a.s.l.), with an
 105 average annual temperature 9.6 °C and annual precipitation of 1056 mm (40-year average for
 106 research station; Harrod and Hogan, 2008). The NW site was previously a permanent pasture. The
 107 second site was at Henfaes Research Station – Bangor University (HF), in North Wales (53°14'19"N,
 108 4°01'09"W, 15 m a.s.l.), with an average annual temperature of 10.4 °C and annual precipitation of
 109 830 mm (40-year average for Valley, Anglesey; Met Office, 2020). The previous two growing seasons
 110 at the HF site was temporary grass ley. The background soil characteristics, determined after
 111 ploughing and reseeding of new swards (Autumn 2016), are presented in Table 1.

112 **Table 1.** Background soil properties. Values represent means \pm SEM ($n = 4$).

Soil property (0 – 10 cm depth)	North Wyke	Henfaes
Soil classification (FAO)	Gleyi-eutric Fluvisol	Eutric Cambisol
Textural classification	Clay loam	Sandy clay loam
pH (1:2.5; soil:water)	5.7 \pm 0.2	6.5 \pm 0.1
EC (1:2.5; soil:water; μ S cm ⁻¹)	21.8 \pm 1.3	27.5 \pm 1.5
Bulk density (g cm ⁻³)	1.01 \pm 0.05	0.99 \pm 0.01
Total soil C (g kg ⁻¹ DW)	29.3 \pm 1.5	26.5 \pm 1.0
Total soil N (g kg ⁻¹ DW)	3.29 \pm 0.15	2.49 \pm 0.07
Available* soil P (g kg ⁻¹ DW)	2.10 \pm 0.26	2.11 \pm 0.11
Soil C:N ratio	8.88 \pm 0.07	10.6 \pm 0.16
Dissolved organic C (as NPOC; mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	123 \pm 6	95 \pm 3
Dissolved organic N (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	17 \pm 1	23 \pm 1
NH ₄ -N (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	2.78 \pm 0.60	1.15 \pm 0.13
Total oxidised N (NO ₃ -N + NO ₂ -N; mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	2.81 \pm 0.48	2.61 \pm 0.30
Total mineralisable N (mg kg ⁻¹ DW)	43.6 \pm 3.7	52.6 \pm 2.7

EC = electrical conductivity; DW is dry weight equivalent; NPOC = non-purgeable organic C; *Available soil P = extractable with 0.5 M C₂H₄O₂.

113

114 2.2. Experimental design

115 The plot-scale experiment consisted of four swards at each site, including (1) a single species
 116 sward of *festulolium* (*Lolium multiflorum* \times *Festuca pratensis*; cv. AberNiche; Humphreys et al.,

117 2014), henceforth treatment “F”, (2) a single species sward of a hybrid ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* ×
118 *Lolium multiflorum*; tetraploid, cv. AberEcho), treatment “R”, (3) F with *Trifolium pratense* (cv.
119 AberClaret), treatment “FC”, and (4) R with *Trifolium pratense*, treatment “RC”. Seeds were sown at
120 a rate of 30 kg ha⁻¹ for the single species swards and at 20 kg grass seed ha⁻¹ with 8 kg clover seed ha⁻¹
121 for the mixed swards. At NW, all treatments were replicated five times, with a total of twenty plots
122 measuring 72 m² in a balanced incomplete block design, whereas at HF sward treatments were
123 replicated four times, with a total of sixteen plots measuring 90 m² in a randomised complete block
124 design. The single species plots, F and R, were further split into five subplots at NW and six subplots
125 at HF, to allow for multiple N (as ammonium nitrate) fertiliser rates. Nitrogen fertiliser was applied
126 by hand at the equivalent rates of 0, 75, 150, 300, and 450 kg N ha⁻¹, with an additional rate of 600
127 kg N ha⁻¹ at HF, split over three applications (see supplementary information Table S1 for fertilisation
128 dates). The plots containing clover, i.e. RC and FC, were split into two subplots with N rates of 0 and
129 50 kg N ha⁻¹, applied as a single dose in early Spring. Additional fertilisers were applied to ensure P,
130 K, S and Mg were not limiting according to soil tests and crop requirements (Defra, 2010).

131 2.3. *Herbage quantity and quality*

132 The swards were managed as a three-cut silage system, although a fourth cut was conducted
133 at NW in 2017 due to local conditions allowing an extended growing season (Table S1). At both sites,
134 herbage was cut along a swathe of fixed width and measured length (7 m² harvestable area at HF,
135 and 6 m² harvestable area at NW) to a residual height of 5 cm, to allow metrics to be expressed on a
136 per ha basis. Cut herbage was immediately sampled following cutting, with two subsamples taken
137 from each subplot (70 subplots at NW and 64 subplots at HF). The first subsample was divided into
138 clover and grass samples upon which dry matter (DM) was determined after drying at 80 °C to a
139 constant weight, and at NW the total N and ¹⁵N content was measured using a Carlo Erba NA 2000
140 linked to a Sercon 20/22 isotope ratio mass spectrometer (Sercon, Crewe, UK; Carlo Erba, CE
141 Instruments, Wigan, UK). Total N was determined at HF using a TrueSpec[®] analyser (Leco Corp., St
142 Joseph, MI). The second subsample was retained as a whole-sward sample to determine whole-

143 sward quality parameters including crude protein (CP), sugar, neutral detergent fibre (NDF), and
144 metabolisable energy (ME) content, with analyses conducted by Sciantec Analytical Laboratories,
145 Stockbridge Technology Centre, York, UK and Trouw Nutrition GB, Blenheim House, Ashbourne, UK
146 for HF and NW samples respectively.

147 *2.4. Root sampling and analyses*

148 The impacts of the different grass varieties on root development and nutrient cycling at
149 depth was examined via the collection of intact soil cores, taken at the end of the second growing
150 season at each site. Intact soil cores were taken from the F and R swards, from the 0 and 300 kg N
151 ha⁻¹ plots, to a depth of 1 m using a steel-corer with sheath (70 mm i.d.), adapted to fit a pneumatic
152 breaker (Cobra percussion hammer corer; VanWalt Ltd., Haslemere, Surrey, UK). The pneumatic
153 breaker was used to exert downward force to push the steel corer to 1 m depth. Cores were divided
154 into the following seven sections immediately after sampling, 0-10, 10-20, 20-30, 30-40, 40-50, 50-
155 75, 75-100 cm depth. All samples were stored at 4 °C prior to analyses. Sub-samples of the fresh soil
156 containing no visible roots were extracted with 0.5 M K₂SO₄ at a 1:5 soil:extractant ratio (w/v) and
157 the extractant analysed for total N, organic C (as non-purgeable organic C; using a Multi N/C
158 2100/2100 analyser; AnalytikJena AG, Jena, Germany), NH₄-N (according to Mulvaney, 1996) and
159 total oxidised N (NO₃-N and NO₂-N; according to Miranda et al., 2001). The remainder of the soil-
160 core sections were washed of soil and all visible roots removed above 1 mm in length and retained,
161 root content of the sub-sample taken for soil analyses was assumed to be zero. Root dry weight was
162 determined by drying at 80 °C until a constant weight was reached.

163 *2.5. Simulated silage experiment*

164 A simulated ensiling study was conducted at both sites in the second year (2018) to examine
165 the influence of grass variety and clover intercropping on silage quality parameters. Ensiling of
166 herbage, from both N rates of the FC and RC treatments and the 0 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹ fertiliser rates of
167 the F and R treatments, was conducted on the first cut (May/June) samples in 2018. Miniature silos
168 were created in duplicate by placing approximately 100 g of herbage that had been wilted overnight

169 into vacuum bags (polyethylene interior, polyamide exterior; 200 × 300 mm; The Vacuum Pouch
170 Company, Bury, UK). After evacuating the silage bags of air, they were sealed and stored at 22 °C (±
171 0.5 °C) in the dark for 90 days (Johnson et al., 2005). After 90 days one sample (approximately 30 g
172 DW) was freeze-dried prior to water-soluble carbohydrates [WSC; fructan, sucrose, glucose and
173 fructose analysis, based on the method of Maharjan et al. (2017), adapted to separate co-eluting
174 mannitol and fructose peaks; HPLC Agilent 1260 infinity with ELSD, Agilent, California, USA], and
175 analyses of NDF and ash content (Clancy and Wilson, 1966). The second sample was opened, mixed
176 and weighed. After weighing, a sample was taken for immediate pH measurement by placing a 10 g
177 sample into 90 ml of deionised H₂O, the sample was homogenised using a stomacher for 2 min at
178 220 rev min⁻¹ (Seward UK, Worthing, United Kingdom) and the pH of the supernatant measured
179 using a pH probe (Jenway 3320, Cole Palmer, Staffordshire, UK). The remaining sample was dried at
180 80 °C until a constant weight was reached. Total N analysis was performed on the dried silage, as
181 described above.

182 2.6. Data analyses

183 The Met Office monthly meteorological data (Met Office, 2020) at the HF site and the UK
184 Environmental Change Network meteorology data (Rennie et al., 2017) at the NW site were used to
185 describe the meteorological conditions experienced during the field trials. To assess the efficiency of
186 N use by the single species grass swards two metrics of N use efficiency were applied to the herbage
187 DM yield data, the agronomic efficiency of applied N (AE_N) and the partial factor productivity of
188 applied N (PFP_N). The former reports the efficiency of crop recovery of applied N only, with the yield
189 of the 0 N controls accounted for in the calculation, whereas the latter reports the efficiency of crop
190 use of both applied and endogenous soil N (Dobermann, 2005). The proportion of N derived from
191 atmosphere in red-clover shoots was calculated according to Unkovich et al. (2008), with two
192 grasses (under zero N fertiliser) used to as a reference for N derived from atmosphere from non-N
193 fixing species (Zhang et al., 2020).

194 The treatment effects of sward composition and N rate on each of the measured parameters
195 were assessed using linear mixed models (REML directive in Genstat v. 20.1, VSN International) to
196 allow for the different designs at each site. All models had a nested random structure,
197 Site/Block/Plot/Subplot/sample, apart from the silage quality parameters for which there was only a
198 single sample per subplot. The fixed structure for N offtake (DM yield x N content of harvested
199 material), DM yield, and herbage quality parameters was Grass * Clover/(N0 + N1) * Cut. This
200 structure tests for differences due to grass variety (F or R), inclusion of clover, N rate when clover is
201 included (N1), N rate when clover is excluded (N0) and cuts. The CP and sugar herbage quality data
202 required a square root transformation to satisfy assumptions of equal variance and normality of
203 residuals.

204 For the silage quality parameters (total N, pH, WSC, NDF and ash) the fixed structure was
205 Grass * Clover/(N0 + N1) which tests for differences due to grass varieties, inclusion of clover, N rate
206 when clover was included (N1) and N rate when clover was excluded (N0). The models fitted to AE_N
207 and PPF_N used a crossed fixed structure to test the effects of grass type, N rate and year. AE_N
208 required a square root transformation with an offset and PPF_N required a log transformation to
209 satisfy model assumptions. To examine differences between root mass, soil mineral N (SMN;
210 ammonium + total oxidised N), soluble organic C (SOC) and soluble organic N (SON) at different
211 rooting depths under the single species swards at 0 and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ the fixed structure of the
212 models has a crossed structure including grass variety, N rate and core depth. The root mass data
213 contained multiple zeros (i.e. no roots present) and required a natural logarithmic data
214 transformation and the SMN, SOC and SON data required a square root transformation to satisfy
215 model assumptions.

216 General analysis of variance with Fishers LSD (Genstat v. 19.1, VSN International) was used
217 to examine differences in the $\delta^{15}N$ signatures of the single species grass when grown with or without
218 clover.

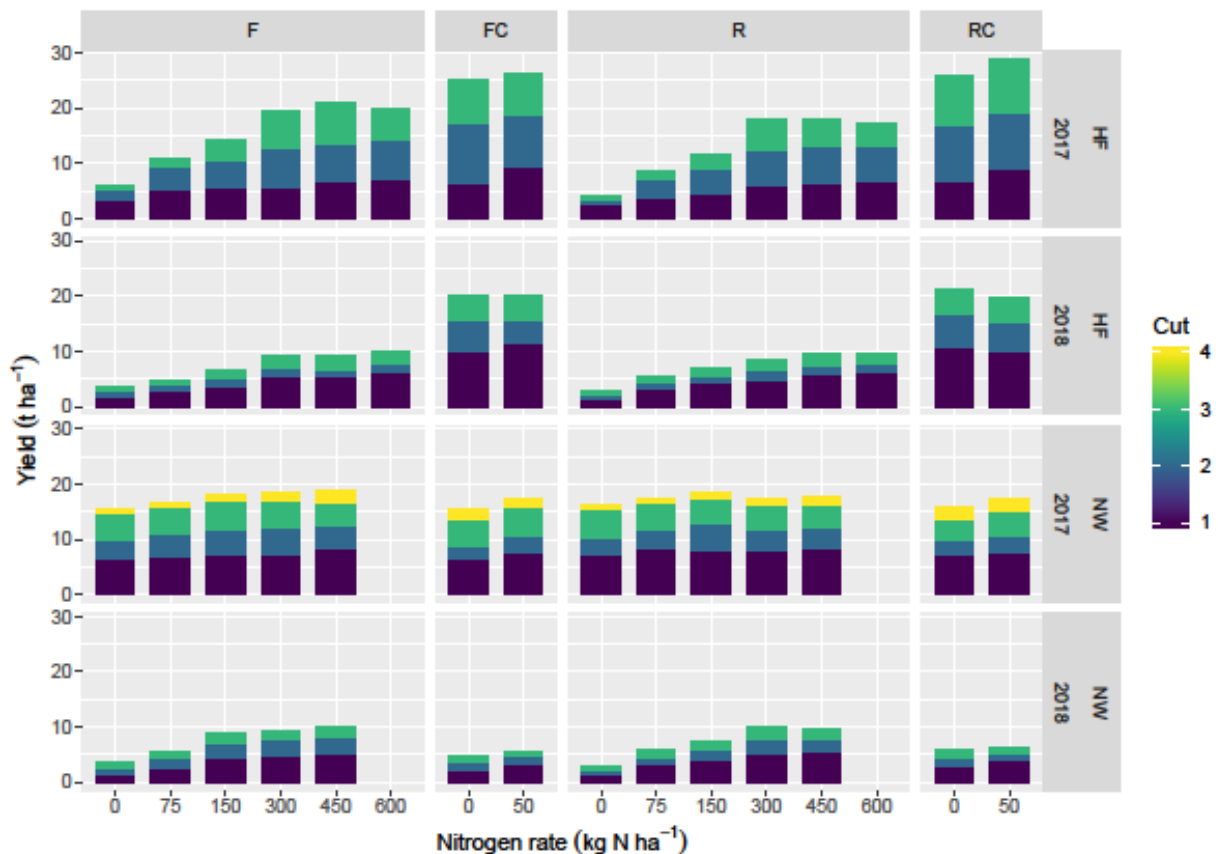
219

220 **3. Results**

221 *3.1. Meteorological conditions*

222 At NW, an extremely dry winter followed the autumn sowing of the treatments with
223 precipitation levels of 21, 45 and 67% of the 40-year average (Harrod and Hogan, 2008) for
224 December, January and February 2016/2017, respectively. This was accompanied by mild spring
225 temperatures in February and March 2017, of 2.1 and 2.5°C above the 40-year average. Similar
226 weather patterns were observed at HF, with precipitation at 26, 79 and 86% of the 40-year average
227 (1971-2010 data for Valley, Anglesey; Met Office, 2020) for October, November and December. The
228 following spring at HF was also mild with March, April and May temperatures at 1.6, 0.8 and 1.9 °C
229 greater than the 40-year averages. The remainder of 2017 had temperatures typical of both sites.
230 Annual precipitation in 2017 was below average at 918 mm for NW and above average at 871 mm
231 for HF (respective long-term averages are 1056 and 830 mm; Harrod and Hogan, 2008; Met Office,
232 2020).

233 In contrast to 2017, 2018 was marked by a wet and cold spring with a total of 266 and 160
234 mm of precipitation falling in March and April together, at NW and HF respectively, and
235 temperatures in February and March at both sites were below average, by 1.0 and 1.1 °C, at NW and
236 1.2 and 1.5 °C, at HF, respectively. The spring/summer of 2018 at NW was markedly warmer than
237 average with temperatures of 2.0, 3.0 and 2.7 °C greater in May, June and, July respectively, and
238 much reduced precipitation levels of 59, 6 and 60% in May June and July respectively (Harrod and
239 Hogan, 2008). The spring/summer of 2018 was also warmer at HF with temperatures in April, May,
240 June and July 0.7, 1.0, 2.2 and 1.6 °C greater than the average, a substantially drier period was also
241 observed, with precipitation during May, June, July and August at 61, 21, 93 and 55% of the 40-year
242 average (Met Office, 2020). Consequently, the spring/summer of 2018, particularly May and June,
243 can be considered a drought period at both field sites, allowing the opportunity to evaluate the
244 *festulolium* under conditions relevant to its novel traits.



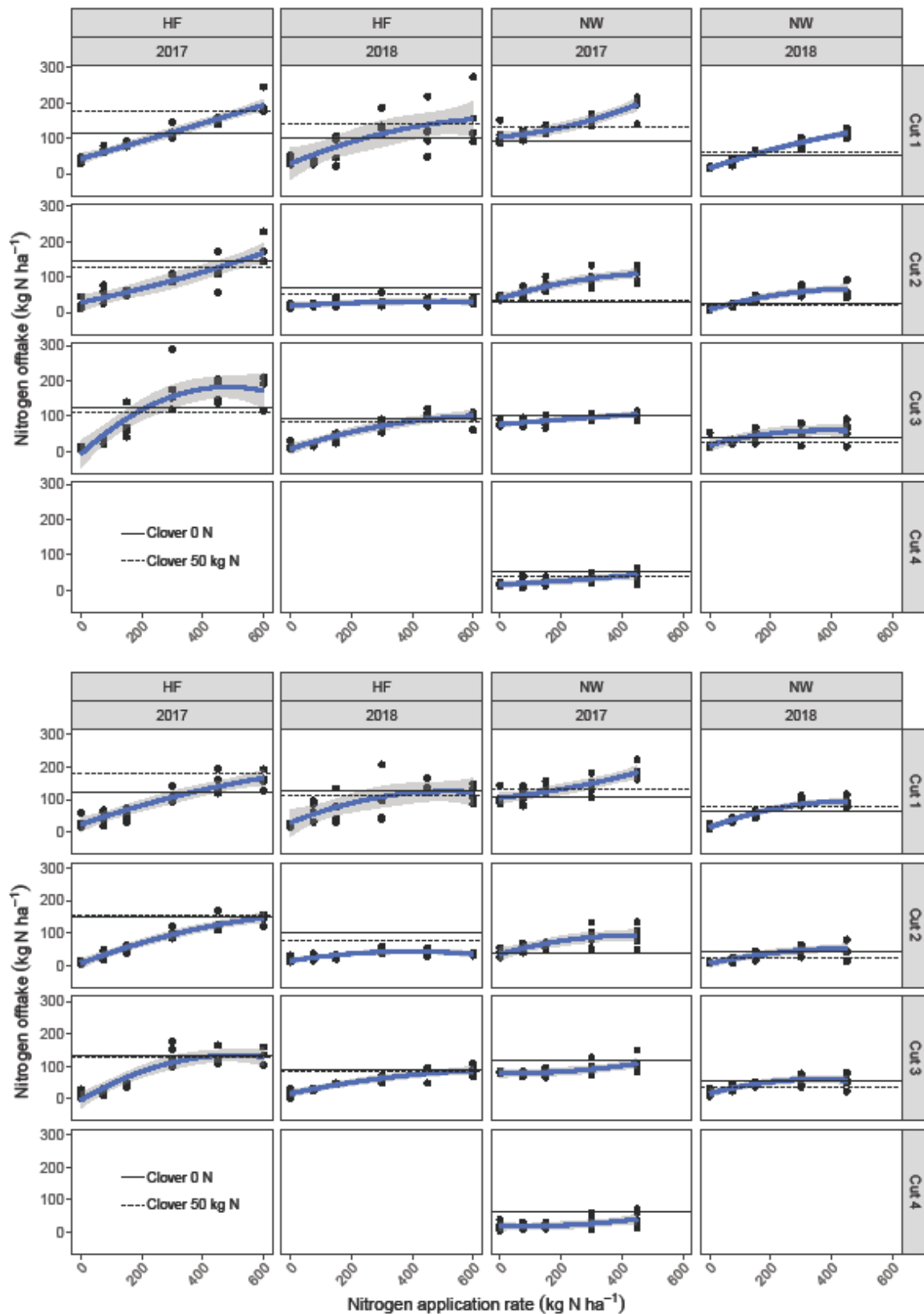
245
 246 **Figure 1.** Dry matter yields with and without clover (C), for the *festulolium* (F) and the high-sugar
 247 ryegrass (R). Bars are mean values calculated on a cut-basis, where $n = 4$ for the Henfaes site (HF)
 248 and $n = 5$ for the North Wyke site (NW). See Table S2 for full dataset with standard errors.
 249

250 3.2. Herbage yield and quality

251 Annual average DM yields across both sites and years were 14.2 ± 2.8 and 14.8 ± 2.9 t ha⁻¹
 252 for RC at 0 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹ (\pm data refers to standard error of mean hereafter) respectively, and 14.1
 253 ± 3.0 and 14.4 ± 3.0 t ha⁻¹ for FC at 0 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively. The application of 50 kg N ha⁻¹ in
 254 the spring did not significantly affect DM yields on the mixed swards ($p = 0.581$). Where clover was
 255 not present in the swards, DM yields were less ($p < 0.001$), with DM yields of 9.6 ± 1.2 , 11.3 ± 1.4 ,
 256 10.7 ± 1.3 , and 12.5 ± 1.6 t ha⁻¹ observed at N application rates of 150 and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ for R and of
 257 150 and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ for F across both sites and years, respectively (Figure 1, see also Table S2).

258 As with DM yields, inclusion of clover in the sward had a significant effect on N offtake ($p =$
 259 0.002), with greater N offtake achieved in the treatments with clover (Figure 2). Nitrogen application
 260 rate only affected N offtake in the single species sward ($p < 0.001$), with no effect observed in the
 261 mixed swards ($p=0.566$). Greatest N offtakes were observed at the NW site in 2017, which can be

262 linked to a high yielding first cut. Typically, lower N offtake was observed for all treatments in 2018
263 due to the summer drought limiting rhizosphere processes. However, exceptions to this occurred at
264 the HF site for the single species R sward at lower N rates (0, 75 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹), with the 2018
265 dry weather only affecting these treatments by the third cut (Figure 2 and Table S2). Annual N
266 offtake from the mixed swards receiving 0 kg N ha⁻¹ was 297 ± 27 and 260 ± 27 kg N ha⁻¹ for RC and
267 FC respectively, which was equivalent to N offtake from the single species treatments at between
268 300 and 450 kg N ha⁻¹ for R and between 150 and 300 kg N ha⁻¹ for F. Thus, BNF was able to provide
269 crop N yields equivalent to those of typical N application rates for intensive grasslands (150 - 300 kg
270 N ha⁻¹).



271

272 **Figure 2.** Nitrogen offtake at each cut for the clover mixed swards relative to the single species
 273 swards. The upper panel presents the *festulolium* hybrid (F) with *Trifolium pratense* mix (FC), and the
 274 lower panel presents the *Lolium perenne* × *Lolium multiflorum* hybrid (R) with *Trifolium pratense* mix
 275 (RC). The solid and dashed lines indicate the mean herbage yield for the mixed swards at 0 and 50 kg

276 N ha⁻¹ respectively, whereas, the data points present the individual replicate herbage yields from the
277 single species swards at varying N application rates. The N response for the single species swards
278 was best described by second order polynomial functions, shown in the trendline with standard
279 error as the grey curved area.
280

281 Herbage quality parameters were measured on whole sward samples at all cuts (except cut
282 4 at NW in 2017; see Table S3 for mean values \pm SEM) and examined across both sites and years
283 together. The interquartile ranges for CP, NDF, sugar and ME were 103 and 166, 407 and 518, 71 and
284 168, and 10.5 and 11.4 g kg⁻¹ DM respectively. Inclusion of clover within the swards had a significant
285 positive effect on CP ($p = 0.048$) and ME ($p = 0.003$) content and a negative effect on sugar ($p <$
286 0.001) and NDF ($p < 0.001$) content. The same trade-off between CP vs. sugar was observed for N
287 application rate on the single species swards, with positive trends observed for CP, and NDF up to
288 the 300 kg N ha⁻¹ application rate, and negative trends observed for sugar and ME ($p < 0.001$ for all).
289 However, for the mixed swards, only sugar content was significantly affected by N application rate (p
290 < 0.001) with greater sugar content from the 50 kg N ha⁻¹ relative to the zero N treatment. The
291 impact of weather and season was observed for all herbage quality parameters when differences
292 between cuts were examined ($p < 0.001$ for CP, NDF, sugar and ME). The herbage quality for the two
293 grass types (F and R) only differed for NDF and ME content ($p < 0.001$) with F having greater NDF and
294 lesser ME relative to R. Nonetheless, the interaction between grass type and cut was significant for
295 all parameters ($p \leq 0.023$), with R having greater sugar and lesser NDF than F for the 2017-Cut 2 and
296 3, and 2018-Cut 2 for NDF only, again highlighting the importance of seasonal growth characteristics
297 for optimal sward performance.

298 *3.3. Nitrogen use efficiency of single species swards*

299 The AE_N was statistically similar between both grass types ($p = 0.224$; see also Table 2).
300 Perhaps unsurprisingly, only N application rate had a significant effect on AE_N ($p < 0.001$), reaching a
301 maximum at the 150 kg N ha⁻¹ application rate and a minimum at 600 kg N ha⁻¹. In contrast where
302 both applied and endogenous N sources were accounted for under PFP_N the grass types
303 demonstrated significant differences in their efficiency of N use ($p < 0.001$), with F achieving greater

304 PFP_N than R (Table 2). Year also had a significant effect on PFP_N ($p < 0.001$), with the low yields under
 305 the drought conditions experienced in 2018 making PFP_N 40% lower than that observed for 2017. As
 306 for AE_N, N application rate had a significant effect on PFP_N ($p < 0.001$), however the trend was for
 307 declining PFP_N with increasing N application rate.

308 **Table 2** Nitrogen use efficiency metrics for the single species grass varieties

		Agronomic efficiency of nitrogen (g DM g ⁻¹ N)	Partial factor productivity of nitrogen (g DM g ⁻¹ N)
Grass type	F	22.0 (3.7 - 44.2)	44.4 (40.9 - 48.1)
	R	19.3 (1.5 - 41.0)	40.3 (37.2 - 43.7)
Nitrogen rate (kg N ha ⁻¹)	75	27.8 (10.4 - 48.3)	99.3 (91.1 - 108.3)
	150	30.5 (12.7 - 51.4)	64.5 (59.1 - 70.3)
	300	21.8 (5.4 - 41.3)	37.7 (34.6 - 41.2)
	450	15.7 (0.4 - 34.1)	25.7 (23.6 - 28.0)
	600	8.9 (-5.6 - 26.8)	21.8 (19.5 - 24.3)
Year	2017	21.0 (4.7 - 40.3)	54.5 (50.0 - 59.4)
	2018	20.3 (4.1 - 39.5)	32.8 (30.1 - 35.7)
Significance of fixed effects			
Grass type		0.22	< 0.001
Nitrogen rate		< 0.001	< 0.001
Year		0.86	< 0.001

DM = dry matter; F = *festulolium*; R = ryegrass (*Lolium perenne* × *Lolium multiflorum* hybrid);
 values are means with 95% confidence intervals in brackets

309

310 3.4. Silage quality

311 Silage quality parameters were measured on the first cut of 2018 at both sites (see Table S1
 312 for cutting dates) from the single species swards, at the 0 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹ application rates, and on
 313 the clover mixed swards, at the 0 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹ application rates (Table 3). Across both sites, the
 314 presence of clover within the sward had a significant effect on all silage quality parameters
 315 examined ($p < 0.001$ for total N, ash, NDF, and WSC, and $p = 0.016$ for pH), with greater total N, ash
 316 and pH, and lower NDF and WSC relative to the single species swards. Within the swards containing
 317 clover, N application rate had a significant effect on ash ($p = 0.001$) and there was marginal evidence
 318 of an effect on NDF ($p = 0.061$), with greater ash and lower NDF for the 0 N treatment relative to the

319 50 kg N ha⁻¹ treatment. Grass type was only observed to have an impact on ash content ($p = 0.020$)
 320 when examined for swards both with and without clover, and this effect was also seen in the
 321 interaction between grass type and N rate within the single species swards ($p = 0.028$), with F at 0 kg
 322 N ha⁻¹ having a greater ash content than R at 0 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹ and F at 150 kg N ha⁻¹ (Table 3).

323 **Table 3.** Silage quality properties for each sward treatment, across both the Henfaes and North
 324 Wyke sites.

	Grass sward composition							
	R		RC		F		FC	
Nitrogen fertilizer addition rate (kg N ha ⁻¹)	0	150	0	50	0	150	0	50
DM (g kg ⁻¹ fresh weight)	288 ± 25	266 ± 16	268 ± 13	273 ± 16	300 ± 25	278 ± 13	289 ± 22	272 ± 20
Ash (% of DM)	6.23 ± 0.83	5.99 ± 0.82	8.05 ± 0.82	7.09 ± 0.82	7.19 ± 0.82	5.89 ± 0.83	8.27 ± 0.82	7.66 ± 0.82
Neutral detergent fibre (% of DOM)	50.0 ± 1.8	49.5 ± 1.7	43.3 ± 1.7	47.4 ± 1.7	47.7 ± 1.7	50.1 ± 1.8	44.2 ± 1.7	45.4 ± 1.7
pH (1:9 silage:water)	5.1 ± 0.1	5.0 ± 0.1	5.2 ± 0.1	5.2 ± 0.1	5.1 ± 0.1	4.9 ± 0.1	5.4 ± 0.1	5.3 ± 0.1
Total nitrogen (% of DM)	1.70 ± 0.09	1.78 ± 0.09	2.30 ± 0.09	2.20 ± 0.09	1.81 ± 0.09	1.91 ± 0.09	2.20 ± 0.09	2.30 ± 0.09
Water soluble carbohydrates (% of DM)	9.11 ± 1.99	8.75 ± 1.96	5.39 ± 1.96	4.28 ± 1.96	8.22 ± 1.96	7.88 ± 1.99	5.32 ± 1.96	4.37 ± 1.96

DM is dry matter; DOM is dry organic matter; F is *Festulolium*, FC is *Festulolium* with clover, R is ryegrass, and RC is ryegrass with clover; all values are means ($n = 9$) ± standard error, with the predicted means from the REML analyses presented for ash, neutral detergent fibre, pH, total nitrogen and water soluble carbohydrates. Herbage cutting dates were 30th May 2018 at the Henfaes site and 23rd May 2018 at the North Wyke site.

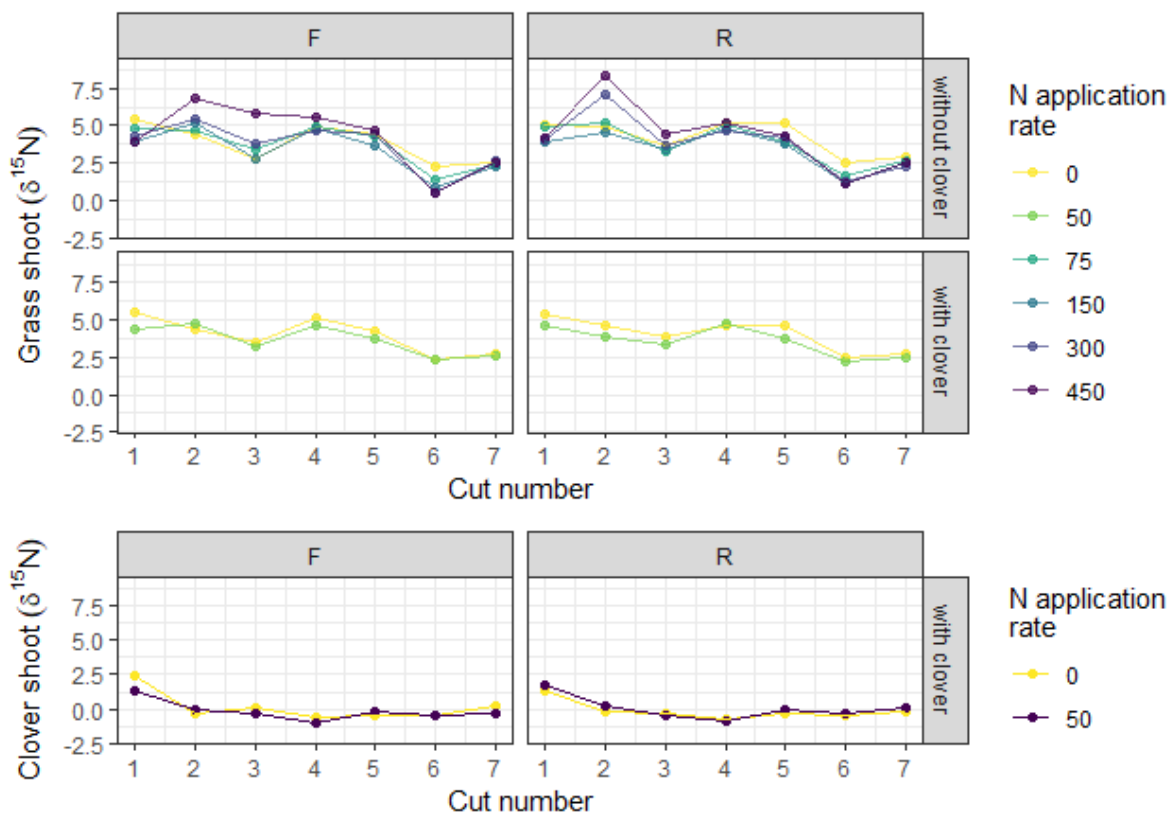
325

326 3.5. Biological nitrogen fixation and $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature of shoots

327 Clover $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ was consistently lower than that of the grass $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ (Figure 3), with interquartile
 328 ranges of -0.51 to +0.15 and +2.71 to +4.85‰, respectively. The proximity of clover $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ to that of
 329 the atmosphere from the zero N treatments demonstrates a strong reliance on BNF as the plant N
 330 source, with the N derived from atmosphere ranging 80 ± 1.6 to 94 ± 1.8% (± SE; $n = 10$) for cuts 2 to
 331 7. However, N derived from the atmosphere was much lower in the clover from the first cut at 45 ±

332 13% (\pm SE; $n = 9$), suggesting that during clover plant establishment N was sourced from the soil as
 333 well as from BNF.

334 To test the hypothesis that BNF would provide a N source to the neighbouring grasses, we
 335 compared the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ of the F and R grasses, grown under 0 N fertiliser at NW, with and without clover
 336 at every cut over the two growing seasons (Figure 3, upper and middle panels). Natural abundance
 337 ^{15}N of grass and clover shoots was examined on the 0 N treatments in the statistical analyses to
 338 avoid the impact of the N fertiliser on the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ signature. No significant effect of clover inclusion
 339 within the sward was observed for the grass-shoot $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values ($p = 0.357$), at 3.78, 4.09, 4.12 and
 340 4.17‰ for the F, FC, R and RC treatments respectively. However, cut and the prevailing weather and
 341 seasonality associated with it was found to have a significant impact on $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ values across all swards
 342 ($p < 0.001$), with the lowest values of 2.43 and 2.73‰ observed at cuts performed following dry
 343 conditions, and the greatest values of 5.32 and 4.99‰ observed in the spring and autumn.



344

345 **Figure 3.** Shoot $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ for grass and clover at each herbage cut for the North Wyke site. Where F is the
 346 *festulolium*, R is the perennial x Italian ryegrass hybrid, cuts 1, 2, 3 and 4 were conducted in April,

347 June, August and October respectively in 2017, and cuts 5, 6 and 7 were conducted in May, July and
348 September respectively in 2018. Data points represent mean values ($n = 5$).
349

351 **Table 4** Root mass, nitrogen pools and organic carbon for the *festulolium* and ryegrass hybrid under two nitrogen fertiliser rates, at depth.

		N rate (kg N ha ⁻¹)	Depth (cm)							
			0 – 10	10 – 20	20 - 30	30 – 40	40 – 50	50 – 75	75 – 100	
Root mass (g DM m ⁻³ soil)	F	0	1074.7 (271.7 - 4248.6)	233.5 (55.51 - 979.4)	79 (19.8 - 313)	11.9 (2.84 - 48)	24.9 (5.76 - 105.3)	4.4 (0.86 - 19.3)	0.1 (-0.17 - 1)	
		300	1546.9 (391.17 - 6115.3)	257.6 (64.97 - 1018.8)	45.7 (11.37 - 181.2)	3.1 (0.61 - 13.1)	7.0 (1.48 - 30.2)	0.8 (-0.03 - 5.1)	0.2 (-0.14 - 1.6)	
	R	0	427.3 (107.93 - 1689.8)	222.4 (56.09 - 880)	32 (7.91 - 127.2)	7.9 (1.68 - 33.7)	0.7 (-0.02 - 3.8)	0.4 (-0.14 - 3.1)	0.2 (-0.15 - 1.7)	
		300	603.5 (143.83 - 2529.3)	282.3 (71.23 - 1116.5)	27.3 (6.73 - 108.7)	7.2 (1.64 - 29.4)	1.4 (0.15 - 6.7)	0.7 (-0.02 - 3.3)	0.1 (-0.17 - 1.1)	
	Soil mineral N (mg N kg ⁻¹ soil)	F	0	8.42 (4.40 - 13.74)	8.44 (4.41 - 13.76)	4.27 (1.59 - 8.24)	2.14 (0.43 - 5.15)	1.42 (0.15 - 3.99)	1.18 (0.08 - 3.57)	1.05 (0.02 - 3.61)
			300	12.21 (7.23 - 18.49)	13.67 (8.37 - 20.27)	6.19 (2.83 - 10.85)	3.36 (1.06 - 6.96)	2.61 (0.64 - 5.92)	1.55 (0.17 - 4.32)	0.07 (0.68 - 1.81)
R		0	7.93 (3.40 - 13.21)	8.20 (4.23 - 13.45)	4.35 (1.64 - 8.36)	2.59 (0.63 - 5.89)	2.50 (0.58 - 5.75)	2.86 (0.71 - 6.48)	1.13 (0 - 4.60)	
		300	11.85 (6.95 - 18.04)	10.25 (5.74 - 16.05)	5.84 (2.60 - 10.38)	3.79 (1.31 - 7.58)	3.14 (0.91 - 6.70)	2.71 (0.69 - 6.06)	1.22 (0.07 - 3.75)	
Soil SON (mg N kg ⁻¹ soil)		F	0	8.53 (2.66 - 17.74)	14.82 (7.23 - 25.11)	8.85 (3.29 - 17.1)	5.07 (1.19 - 11.64)	3.62 (0.55 - 9.39)	2.50 (0.18 - 7.51)	1.35 (0.01 - 5.79)
			300	10.60 (3.86 - 20.67)	12.10 (5.37 - 21.52)	7.56 (2.52 - 15.30)	4.13 (0.76 - 10.20)	1.52 (0.004 - 5.80)	3.02 (0.30 - 8.58)	0.08 (1.47 - 3.10)
	R	0	8.06 (2.18 - 17.63)	16.77 (8.61 - 27.63)	7.95 (2.75 - 15.84)	5.48 (1.36 - 12.35)	4.04 (0.70 - 10.14)	3.25 (0.35 - 9.09)	1.34 (0.11 - 6.98)	
		300	7.26 (1.97 - 15.89)	13.18 (6.03 - 23.08)	9.06 (3.42 - 17.40)	5.85 (1.55 - 12.91)	4.15 (0.75 - 10.32)	2.59 (0.19 - 7.76)	1.35 (0.001 - 5.53)	
	Soil SOC (mg C kg ⁻¹ soil)	F	0	136.2 (51.7 - 260.9)	147.2 (62.5 - 267.6)	88.6 (26.9 - 186.1)	70.2 (17.2 - 158.8)	55.1 (10.2 - 135.7)	36.6 (3.3 - 105.6)	45.5 (5.6 - 124.1)
			300	101.4	146.1	89.2	57.9	36.6	29.1	30.0

		(31.2 - 211.7)	(61.8 - 266.1)	(27.2 - 187.0)	(11.5 - 140.2)	(3.2 - 106.2)	(1.2 - 93.8)	(0.3 - 107.8)
	0	90.4	148.8	92.7	74.3	55.2	30.6	24.4
R		(23.8 - 199.9)	(63.6 - 269.8)	(29.2 - 192.0)	(19.0 - 165.7)	(10.1 - 136.5)	(1.4 - 97.4)	(0 - 96.9)
	300	95.7	140.5	125.5	68.0	58.0	40.5	25.1
		(28.1 - 203.5)	(57.8 - 259.4)	(48.7 - 238.1)	(16.0 - 156.3)	(11.3 - 140.9)	(4.5 - 112.7)	(0.5 - 86.5)

F is *Festulolium*, R is ryegrass, soil mineral N is the sum of NO₃-N, NO₂-N and NH₄-N, SON is soluble organic N and SOC is soluble organic. All values are predicted means from REML analysis (95% confidence interval) across both experimental sites.

353 Across both sites, root mass declined with soil depth ($p < 0.001$), with a root mass maxima of 809
354 (confidence intervals (CI) 309.82 – 2112.9) g DM m⁻³ soil at 0 – 10 cm and minima of 0.1 (CI -0.11 –
355 0.8) g DM m⁻³ soil at 75 – 100 cm depth. Across all depths, root mass was greater for F than R ($p =$
356 0.032). In addition, there was a general trend for greater root mass at depth for F relative to R ($p =$
357 0.038) and the reverse was true at depths of 10 – 20 and 30 – 40 cm (Table 4). No significant effect
358 of N supply on root mass development was observed ($p = 0.26$).

359 Similar trends to root mass were also observed for concentrations of soluble N forms and
360 soluble organic C (SOC) in the soil at the rooting depths examined (Table 4). There was a significant
361 effect of soil depth for all nutrients examined ($p < 0.001$), with greater concentrations of soil mineral
362 N, soluble organic N (SON) and SOC at the shallower depths, and concentrations decreasing to a
363 minimum at the 75 – 100 cm depth (Table 4). However, no significant effect of grass variety, or N
364 fertiliser rate was observed.

365

366 **4. Discussion**

367 *4.1. Impacts of grass type and red clover inclusion on herbage yields*

368 The inclusion of red clover within the swards provided substantial N supply from BNF, with
369 80 – 94% of N in clover derived from the atmosphere (data from zero N fertiliser swards, Figure 3). A
370 trend for greater DM yields and crop N offtake were harvested from the mixed swards than from the
371 single species grass swards under chemical N fertiliser at the same rates (Figures 2 and 3), in
372 agreement with findings from other studies for white clover (Reid et al., 1970; Burchill et al., 2014).
373 Where chemical N fertiliser was applied to the swards containing red clover, this did not increase
374 yields overall, although there was a general trend for increased yields for the first cut when F was
375 the accompanying grass. Inclusion of white clover within a perennial ryegrass-sward has been shown
376 to give a significant increase in DM yield under 0 N application, however, this effect continued for N
377 application rates up to 200 kg N ha⁻¹ (Enriquez-Hidalgo et al., 2016). Sørensen and Nielsen (2012)
378 examined the impact of inclusion of both white and red clover within a grass sward (of *festulolium*

379 and perennial ryegrass) and showed inclusion of red clover, at 25, 50, 75 and 100% of the clover
380 seed, consistently increased DM yields and protein content at N application rates of 0, 110, and 220
381 kg N ha⁻¹. The positive effect of including red clover within the swards on yield and N offtake (Figures
382 2 and 3) leads us to accept the first hypothesis, that including red clover in the sward would negate
383 the need for N fertiliser, with BNF providing N to the clover and the neighbouring grasses. However,
384 it should be noted that the $\delta^{15}\text{N}$ dataset did not provide evidence of transfer of N from clover to
385 neighbouring grasses. Although there is a body of evidence demonstrating the potential for
386 improved DM yields, reduced requirements for N fertiliser, and increased protein content (Figures 2,
387 3, Tables 2, S3) when red clover is included within swards, there are difficulties associated with
388 establishment and longevity of red clover. This is especially the case for red clover under grazed
389 systems, with persistence problems and associated declines in DM yields in the third year following
390 sowing (Eriksen et al., 2012). Persistence of twelve red clover-varieties was examined under an
391 annual three-cut system in the UK with a general trend of improved stability of DM yield over four
392 years observed for two of the varieties (Marshall et al., 2017), including AberClaret as used in this
393 study. Although it was beyond the scope of this study to examine the long-term persistence of red
394 clover, clover cover increased between the first fertiliser application and the final cut of year two,
395 from 3.6 ± 0.6 to 36.3 ± 5.1 % of the total ground cover within the mixed swards, with greater clover
396 coverage observed on the 0 N treatments (data from North Wyke site only; see Figure S1). However,
397 under a rotational-grazing system in New Zealand, AberClaret was amongst the lowest performing
398 red clover varieties in terms of percentage plant survival. These studies suggest that persistence of
399 red clover in medium-term leys (of 3 – 4 years) and their associated benefits might be achieved.
400 However, clarity is needed on the impacts of agronomic management (grazing vs cutting, or a
401 combination of both), soil and environmental variables, and accompanying species on the
402 persistence of red clover varieties within medium-term leys. Consequently, there is great potential
403 for reduced N fertiliser requirements and enhanced yields of forage when red clover is included
404 within the swards, but this is currently restricted to short-term leys and cut-grass systems.

405 *4.2. Impacts of grass type and red clover inclusion on herbage and silage quality*

406 A key aspect of the high-sugar grass examined here (R) was that it should provide increased
407 carbohydrates to the rumen for energy supply (Miller et al., 2001). In this study, we observed greater
408 ME content and lower NDF content for R relative to F in cut grass. Only when the interaction with
409 cut was included with grass type did the grasses become significantly different from each other for
410 all quality measures examined, which can be attributed to the impact of prevailing meteorological
411 conditions (e.g. drought) and season on plant productivity at the time the cut was performed.
412 However, plant establishment, especially the development of a plant root system can also be
413 important temporally for herbage quality (McGrath, 1988). Thus, the importance of exploring the
414 quality of herbage throughout the growing season is critical, particularly when attempting to
415 determine whether the target phenotype is expressed under conditions applicable to agricultural
416 systems. In line with other studies (Reid, 1970; Delevatti et al., 2019), we observed a significant
417 trend of increasing CP content with increasing N rate on the single species swards. The same trend
418 was observed for NDF content up to the rate of 300 kg N ha⁻¹, whilst sugar and ME content
419 decreased with increasing N rates, as expected (McGrath 1992). The effect of increasing N rate on CP
420 is unsurprising as N is increasingly available to the plant, however increasing N content in forage and
421 feed is associated with greater urinary N losses from livestock (Cole et al., 2005; Dijkstra et al.,
422 2013), and is not linked to increased livestock-N retention (Vasconcelos et al., 2009) when it is
423 consumed in amounts surplus to requirement. Moreover, with approximately 75% and 64 - 85% of N
424 intake excreted from beef and dairy cattle respectively (de Klein et al., 2017; Angelidis et al., 2019),
425 increasing CP or N content of forage and feed will lead to increased N excretion with implications for
426 NH₃ and N₂O emissions, and N leaching (Külling et al, 2001; Dijkstra et al., 2013). Additionally,
427 increasing NDF content is linked to reduced DM intake (Vazquez and Smith, 2000), which slows
428 growth and reduces livestock productivity, but should remain above 30% of DM (Lee et al., 2018).
429 Therefore, N application must be at a rate that ensures DM yield and protein content and yet
430 minimises trade-offs with sugar and ME content, as the latter two are critical for optimising animal

431 performance (Lee et al., 2018) and minimising environmental impacts of ruminant production. In the
432 mixed swards at 0 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹, N rate did not have a significant effect on ME, CP and NDF at $p =$
433 0.06, $p = 0.09$, and $p = 0.23$ respectively, and only significantly impacted ($p < 0.001$) sugar content,
434 with greater sugar content from the 50 kg N ha⁻¹ swards. This dampened response to fertiliser N is
435 linked to BNF providing N to both the 0 and 50 kg N ha⁻¹ swards and reducing the impact of N
436 fertiliser application. The inclusion of clover within the swards was linked to greater CP and ME
437 contents, and reduced sugar and NDF content. Therefore, the hypothesis: (2) inclusion of red clover
438 would not detrimentally affect the herbage or silage quality can be accepted, although the
439 proportion of clover to grass content might require optimising to ensure the herbage or silage does
440 not contain excess N.

441 Some of the differences measured in the herbage quality parameters were carried through
442 to the silage quality parameters, where clover presence within the sward resulted in greater TN and
443 ash and reduced NDF and WSC, relative to the single species silage (Table 3). Other studies have
444 shown that pure red clover silage has greater protein and mineral (measured through ash) content
445 than pure grass silage (Dewhurst et al., 2003; Dewhurst, 2013). Elgersma and Sørensen (2016) also
446 observed greater yield and ash, and lower NDF content in perennial ryegrass and red clover mixed
447 swards relative to perennial ryegrass alone, as measured here for the clover mixed swards under
448 zero N fertiliser. This can be linked to the greater ash content of red clover being concentrated and
449 the lower NDF content of red clover being diluted within a mixed sward where clover is high yielding
450 (Elgersma and Sørensen, 2016). A key parameter for silage quality is pH, with a good fermentation
451 resulting in pH of < 4.2 (Merry 1995). Here silage made from the single species sward and those with
452 N fertilisation had the lowest pH values (Table 3) indicating better fermentation had occurred
453 compared with those with clover or no N fertilisation. It is generally accepted that where the DM
454 content across treatments is similar, addition of clover to a sward will result in a higher pH, because
455 the driver for this is a combination of TN and mineral content, which buffer the acid produced during
456 fermentation (McDonald, 1991). Additionally, increased availability of sugar is utilised by lactic acid

457 bacteria for acid production which will reduce the pH in the silage, this process is reflected in the
458 results seen here, with greater NDF and WSC observed in the single species swards relative to those
459 containing clover, in the fresh (Table S2 in the supplementary information) and ensiled forage (Table
460 3).

461 Here we have shown that inclusion of red clover within short-medium term leys can be
462 beneficial for reducing N fertiliser requirements and enhancing DM yields without detrimental effect
463 on herbage or silage quality. However, there are concerns around inclusion of red clover within
464 livestock diets due to its high phyto-oestrogen content, which is concentrated when it is ensiled
465 (Marley et al., 2011). A review on the effects of legumes on ewe and cow fertility suggests that
466 fertility issues mainly arise in breeding ewes and although these can be avoided by ensuring red
467 clover makes up < 25% of the feed, this is difficult to achieve as foraging animals will select clover
468 over grass (Marley et al., 2011; see also Kelly et al., 1980). The same review found contradictory
469 evidence on the impact of red clover silage on fertility of cows and no impact on fertility was found
470 for rams and bulls (Marley et al., 2011). Based on these findings, current recommendations in the UK
471 are that ewes should not have red clover within their diet for the six weeks before and after
472 copulation (AHDB, 2016).

473 *4.3. Grass varieties for improved grassland resilience*

474 In terms of AE_N , no differences were observed between the two grass types in their efficiency of
475 using fertiliser N, indeed only N application rate had a significant effect on AE_N with the 150 kg N ha⁻¹
476 rate providing optimal AEN (Table 2). The AE_N at both 75 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹ was slightly greater than
477 that reported by Egan et al. (2019) at 100 kg N ha⁻¹. However, when both the soil and fertiliser N
478 supply was accounted for in the PPF_N a significant difference between grass types was observed,
479 with greater efficiency of N uptake for F relative to R, thus indicating that F had an advantage over R
480 in accessing soil N sources (Dobermann, 2005). As for AE_N , N fertiliser rate had a significant effect on
481 PPF_N . However, PPF_N consistently decreased with increasing rate of N application (Table 2),
482 suggesting that at low N application rates the grasses were reliant on soil N supply; over the long-

483 term this would lead to mining of soil N (Dobermann 2005). Thus, we can reject our hypothesis (5)
484 that F would more efficiently take up applied N than R, although it should be noted that F was better
485 able to access endogenous soil N supply than R, which might have implications in low N input
486 systems.

487 The *festulolium* variety included within this study (F) did not outperform the hybrid ryegrass (R)
488 in terms of yield during the drought conditions experienced (Figures 1, 2 and 3), in contrast to our
489 third hypothesis. Tolerance to both drought and cold are key traits of the *festuca* species, which are
490 targeted in the breeding program for *festuloliums* (Ghesquière et al., 2010). Here, F had a
491 significantly greater root mass than R and a general trend toward greater rooting mass at depth than
492 R (Table 4). However, the greater root mass did not equate to improved yields under the drought
493 conditions experienced at the two field sites. As with other studies (Hejduk and Hrabě, 2003;
494 Coughon et al., 2017) we did not find that N significantly repressed root growth, but there was a
495 slight trend for greater root mass from F under the 0 N rate. Thus, leading us to reject the hypothesis
496 that enhanced rooting and nutrient cycling at depth would be observed with the *festulolium* relative
497 to the ryegrass hybrid, but that sufficient N supply would suppress deep-rooting. Consequently, the
498 trade-off between enhanced drought tolerance vs. reduced forage quality within the *festulolium*
499 sward was not observed in this study and further research is needed to determine the role of F in
500 yield resilience in mixed swards.

501 When soil N and C through the soil profile was examined to 1 m depth, we were unable to
502 detect differences in the soil nutrient content between the F and R treatments. Indeed, a significant
503 effect of depth was observed with greater soluble N and C concentrations in the upper soil layers,
504 but this was true for both grass types, and agrees with other pasture-based studies (Ojeda et al.,
505 2018). Thus, we did not find evidence to suggest enhanced N or C sequestration from the F variety
506 examined, contradictory to suggestions that *festulolium* may have a role for increasing C capture and
507 storage in grasslands (Humphreys et al., 2014), at least in the environments examined here. Our
508 study was limited to one soil sampling point in the Autumn of the second growing season, although

509 we believe root biomass would have been stable at this point, in line with the findings of Ojeda et al.
510 (2018), it is possible that our results would have differed between sampling points.

511

512 **5. Conclusion**

513 Deep-rooting grasses have been suggested as an option for increasing C sequestration in
514 grasslands and for increasing grassland resilience to drought events, however this was not apparent
515 in our study and the field conditions examined here. Under the UK drought experienced in 2018, we
516 did not observe a yield gain under the *festulolium* relative to the ryegrass hybrid. Greater root mass
517 was observed for the *festulolium* relative to the ryegrass hybrid, however this was not found to be
518 significant at depth (up to 1 m). The lack of deep-rooting biomass from the *festulolium* corresponded
519 with no significant differences in soluble N and C pools at depth between the two grass varieties.
520 Our observations support the existing evidence that red clover inclusion within short-term leys can
521 negate the need for N fertiliser inputs, with enhanced DM yield and N offtake in the mixed swards
522 relative to the single species grass swards. The ¹⁵N natural abundance technique demonstrated that
523 up to 94% of clover N was sourced from BNF, however we were not able to detect transfer of BNF
524 sourced-N from clover to the accompanying grass. Inclusion of red clover within the swards resulted
525 in greater CP and ME content and reduced sugar and NDF content of fresh herbage relative to the
526 single species grass swards. These herbage quality parameters were typically carried through to the
527 silage quality parameters, with greater TN and reduced NDF and WSC measured in the clover mixed
528 swards relative to the single species grass swards. We tentatively suggest that these herbage quality
529 differences may have implications for increased N excretion from livestock, due to greater CP and
530 lower sugar content, and potentially for increased DM intake, through reduced NDF and greater ME
531 content, thus sward clover content should be optimised to account for this.

532 The findings here demonstrate that red clover is a viable fertiliser-N replacement strategy in
533 short-term leys and that although novel grass varieties may offer potential ecosystem services these
534 are not always realised under field conditions. Therefore, farmers should select grass varieties based

535 on optimising herbage quality, or perhaps look to optimise their short-term leys with a diverse range
536 of species for enhanced grassland resilience.

537

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