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2 Nitrogen balance in Holstein steers grazing winter oats: effect of nitrogen fertilization

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24 **Suggested short title.**

25 Nitrogen balance in grazing steers.

26 **Summary text for the Table of Contents.**

27 A more detailed understanding of N balance in grazing steers is needed to improve N
28 utilization in animals, reducing N losses to the environment and potential for environmental
29 pollution. N fertilization of forage is a common management in Argentina, leading to
30 modifications of the chemical composition of consumed diet, and hence, modifications in the
31 animals. Steers grazing fertilized winter oats had greater N intake, N retention and ADG than
32 steers grazing non-fertilized oats. Also, the steers grazing fertilized oats had greater N
33 excretion, predominantly urinary N. These findings are part of the onset of N cycle in grazing
34 management situations. Due to higher N excretion, it is important to study the environmental
35 impact of animal depositions grazing fertilized oats.

36

37 **Abstract.** The present study evaluated the effect of nitrogen (N) fertilization of winter oats on
38 whole-animal N balance (N intake, N excretion in urine and feces, N retention), partition of
39 urinary N (purine-N derivatives and urea-N) and average daily gain (ADG) in grazing steers.
40 The experimental area was divided in two plots (10 steers/plot), and samples were obtained in
41 two periods (1 plot/period). The experimental area was divided in 2 plots, and each plot in 10
42 strips. Twenty Holstein steers (161.3 ± 7 kg of initial body weight) grazed, for 51 days,
43 individual strips of fertilized (100 kg N/ha; N100) and non-fertilized (N0) winter oats during
44 daylight (10 h/d). The daily individual grazing paddock was adjusted to offer 6 kg DM of
45 green leaf $\cdot 100 \text{ kg BW}^{-1} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$. Chemical composition of the herbage and N diurnal variation
46 were estimated by collecting 3 samples per paddock at 8:30, 13:30 and 18:30 h, twice on each
47 sampling period. Forage intake and *in vivo* digestibility were estimated by the *n*-alkane
48 technique. Individual N intake was estimated using *n*-alkane data, the ingestive behavior data
49 and the diurnal variation of the chemical composition of the forage. N fertilization increased
50 N content ($P < 0.01$; N0=11.4% CP vs. N100=13.9% CP) and decreased the water soluble

51 carbohydrate content ($P < 0.01$; N0=21.1% vs. N100=16.8%) in the forage, but did not modify
52 herbage mass or the DM content. Dry matter intake (4.72 kg DM/d), water intake (7.57 L/d)
53 and DM digestibility (67%) were not affected by N fertilization. However, N intake and N
54 digestibility were higher in N100 than in N0 (20 vs. 7 g N/d). While treatments had similar
55 fecal N excretions (average 45.4 g N/d), there was a trend to increase urinary N excretion with
56 N intake ($P = 0.08$; N100=53.3 vs. N0=47.5 g N/d), a trend to increase N-allantoin excretion
57 ($P = 0.11$; N100=3.18 vs. N0=2.91 g/d) and an increase in urea-N excretion ($P < 0.01$;
58 N100=30.7 vs. N0=23.8 g/d). Increasing N intake led to greater N retention ($P < 0.02$;
59 N100=37.9 vs. N0=20.9 g N/d) and ADG ($P < 0.03$; N100=860 vs. N0=698 g/d). These results
60 suggest that fertilizing winter oats with 100 kg N/ha improves N retention and ADG in young
61 steers under grazing conditions.

62 **Keywords:** nitrogen balance, grazing steer, nitrogen fertilization, *Avena sativa*

63

64 **Introduction**

65 Important economical and environmental reasons exist to reduce nitrogen (N) losses
66 and improve utilization in cattle. Intensification of ruminant production has resulted in greater
67 output of milk and meat, which is made possible, in part, by input of N fertilizers and protein-
68 rich feeds (Dijkstra *et al.*, 2011). Excess of N in the diet leads to high levels of N in urine and
69 feces, contributing to environmental pollution, as ammonia (NH_3), nitrous oxide (N_2O) and
70 nitric oxide (NO) lost to the atmosphere (greenhouse effects) and as nitrate (NO_3^-) in the soil
71 and ground water. To increase our knowledge in whole-animal N metabolism under grazing
72 conditions would allow new strategies to improve nutrient retention efficiency and animal
73 production, and hence, minimize N excretion to the environment.

74 In Argentina, use of winter forages is well established in grazing systems, most of
75 them being fertilized with N, mainly as urea. The effect of N fertilization on forages depends

76 on the timing of fertilization and our ability to quantify it on forage sampling methodology
77 (Wilman, 1980). Across short periods (< 20 d), increases in N content and decreases in water
78 soluble carbohydrates (WSC) in all morphological components of the forage can be detected
79 (Wolf and Opitz von Boberfeld, 2003). In periods of 25 or more days, N fertilization can
80 reduce the lamina:pseudostem ratio and increase pasture height and DM production (Wilman,
81 1980; Delagarde *et al.*, 1997; Wolf and Opitz von Boberfeld, 2003). Chemical and
82 morphological modifications may affect DM intake, DM digestibility (DMD), and therefore,
83 animal production. Effects of N fertilization on voluntary DM intake are not consistent;
84 Delagarde *et al.* (1997) observed a greater DM intake in cows grazing fertilized pastures than
85 in cows grazing non fertilized pastures. Peyraud *et al.* (1997) found no difference in DM
86 intake between cows eating fertilized and non fertilized pastures. Demarquilly (1970) found
87 variable results in several comparisons, while Ferri *et al.* (2004) observed a lower DM intake
88 in animals eating winter pastures with higher levels of N fertilization.

89 Several authors showed a positive effect of N fertilization on animal production. In
90 this scenario, Delagarde *et al.* (1997) observed higher milk yield in cows on fertilized pastures
91 and Archibeque *et al.* (2001) found greater N retention in steers eating forage with high levels
92 of N fertilization.

93 Although different levels of N fertilization seems not to affect DMD (Van Vuuren *et*
94 *al.*, 1991; Gabler and Heinrichs, 2003; Ferri *et al.*, 2004; Knowlton *et al.*, 2010),
95 modifications of N and WSC concentrations could diminish the efficiency of N use of rumen
96 microorganisms (Archibeque *et al.*, 2001; Marini and Van Amburgh, 2003). This could be
97 attributed to the relative high crude protein (CP) concentration on highly fertilized pastures
98 and an imbalance with energy available in rumen (Hoekstra *et al.*, 2007), leading to
99 accumulation of NH_4^+ in rumen, which is absorbed through gastrointestinal tract and
100 converted in urea in the liver. The fate of urea in peripheral blood (i.e., urinary excretion or

101 return to gastrointestinal tract) depends partly, on diet characteristics. In diets with levels of N
102 that exceed the animal requirements or with an energy-N rumen imbalance, the main fate of
103 urea will be urinary excretion (Marini and Van Amburgh, 2005).

104 Although numerous studies on N balance have been conducted under housing
105 conditions, to our knowledge there is no data from growing cattle where different techniques
106 such as *n*-alkane technique, ingestive behavior, sward defoliation and total urine collection
107 were used to estimate N balance under grazing conditions. The objective of the present study
108 was to evaluate the effect of N fertilization of winter oats (*Avena sativa*) on a whole-animal N
109 balance (N intake, N retention, N excretion in urine and feces), urinary N partition (DP-N and
110 urea-N excretion in urine) and ADG in grazing steers.

111

112 **Materials and methods**

113 The study was conducted during late-winter to early-spring of 2009 (4 September to
114 28 October) at the facilities of Facultad de Ciencias Veterinarias de la Universidad Nacional
115 del Centro de la Provincia de Buenos Aires (FCV – UNCPBA; 37°19′S, 59°07′W) in Tandil,
116 Argentina. Twenty Holstein-Friesian steers (161 ± 7.0 kg of initial BW) grazed, in individual
117 paddocks, winter oats (*Avena sativa* cv. Calén) sown on May, 2009. The study lasted for 51 d,
118 divided into a pre-experimental period of 11 d, and an experimental period of 40 d.

119 Procedures were conducted according to Council Directive 2010/63/EU guidelines on the
120 protection of animals used for experimental and other scientific purposes.

121 *Experimental design and treatments*

122 Prior to the beginning of the experiment, the grazing area of the experimental period
123 (180 x 100 m) was divided in 2 plots (plots A and B: 90 x 100 m), and then each plot was
124 divided in 10 strips (90 x 10 m) using a double-wire electric fence. Thirty days before the

125 beginning of the experiment, odd strips of plots A and B were fertilized by hand with 100 kg
126 N/ha (230 kg urea/ha), leaving 1 m on each side without fertilizer.

127 Steers were stratified by initial BW and then randomly assigned to one of each
128 treatment (N100=fertilized; N0=non-fertilized). During the pre-experimental period (d 1 to
129 11), steers grazed in groups according to their treatment in 2 adjacent areas (one fertilized
130 with 100 kg N/ha) for animal adaptation to diet. On d 11, steers within treatment were
131 randomly assigned to plots A or B and within each plot to individual strips where they
132 remained until the end of the experiment. The experimental period was divided in two
133 sampling periods: period I (PI; from d 22 to 30) when steers from plot A were sampled, and
134 period II (PII; from d 31 to 39) when steers from plot B were sampled.

135 Steers grazed a new paddock every day from 9 to 19 h, and then were individually
136 stalled from 19 to 9 h in a grass-free paddock with access to water (individual troughs). The
137 daily paddock was offered in two sub-paddocks at 9 h (AM; morning sub-paddock) and 14 h
138 (PM; afternoon sub-paddock). Herbage allowance was, approximately, 6 kg DM of green
139 leaf·100 kg BW⁻¹·d⁻¹. Size of the daily strips was determined according to the herbage mass
140 of each strip and individual BW.

141 *Herbage measurements*

142 *Herbage mass.* For herbage mass, 9 randomly selected samples of herbage within each
143 individual paddock were clipped to ground level using quadrats of 0.05 m² on d 1, 14, 25 and
144 32. Samples taken on d 25 and 32 were manually separated into lamina and pseudostem.
145 Samples were oven-dried at 100°C.

146 *Chemical Composition.* For chemical composition and diurnal variation, 3 randomly
147 selected samples of 5 ungrazed tillers were collected at 8:30, 13:30 and 18:30 h on d 29 and
148 31 for PI and d 37 and 39 for PII, on each individual paddock cutting to ground level.

149 Immediately, samples were frozen in the field with liquid N and stored at -20°C until further
150 analysis. Prior to analysis, samples were separated in lamina and pseudostem.

151 *Sward surface height.* Sward surface height (SSH) was measured in AM and PM sub-
152 paddocks at entry time and every 150 min (i.e., 9:00, 11:30 and 14:00 for AM and 14:00,
153 16:30 and 19:00 h, for PM sub-paddocks, respectively) to determine intensity of defoliation.
154 Intensity of defoliation was determined by difference between pre and post-grazing SSH.
155 Sward height was taken using a sward stick detailed in Nadin *et al.* (2012). Measurements
156 were performed on d 29 and 31 for PI and d 37 and 39 for PII.

157 *n-Alkane content of consumed forage.* On d 29 (PI) and d 37 (PII), 3 herbage samples
158 from each strip were taken and then pooled by treatment. Samples were randomly collected
159 by hand-plucking, considering the mean post-grazing height of the paddock grazed on the
160 previous day. Pooled samples were manually separated in lamina and pseudostem;
161 subsamples were oven-dried at 60°C for 48 h and then finely grounded with an electrical
162 coffee grinder (Connoisseur CG 700, Kin Hip M & P Factory Ltd., Kowloon, Hong Kong).
163 Subsamples were stored at room temperature until *n*-alkane analysis was performed. The
164 remaining fresh material was dried at 100°C until constant weight, and the proportion of each
165 component in the grazed horizon was estimated.

166 *Animal Measurements*

167 *DM intake and fecal output.* Forage DM intake and fecal output (FO) were estimated by
168 the *n*-alkane technique. From d 22 to 30 (PI) and d 31 to 39 (PII) and before entering to a new
169 sub-paddock, the steers were orally dosed with cellucotton stoppers (34.5 x 22 mm Carl-Roth
170 GmbH and Co KG, Karlsruhe, Germany) containing dotriacontane (C₃₂ - 120 mg/pellet) and
171 hexatriacontane (C₃₆ - 70 mg/pellet; Sigma-Aldrich, Aldrich Chemical Co, Gillingham, UK).
172 Each dose was prepared by pipetting a controlled amount of 2 solutions of C₃₂ and C₃₆ in *n*-
173 heptane, respectively, into each cellucotton stopper. During the last 4 d of *n*-alkane dose,

174 individual daily feces were collected thrice a day from field depositions (ca. 5 g/deposition)
175 and pooled by animal. Once sampled, feces in the field were identified by paint. Pooled
176 samples were oven-dried at 60°C for 48 h, grounded with an electrical coffee grinder and
177 stored at room temperature until *n*-alkane analysis was performed.

178 *Water intake.* During the last 4 d of each sampling period, individual water intake was
179 measured by difference between offered and refused water.

180 *Ingestive behavior.* To determine total grazing time and the temporal distribution of
181 grazing events, the IGER behavior recorder (Rutter *et al.*, 1997) was used. For this purpose, 2
182 recordings of 10 h for each animal were obtained during the 4 d of sampling period.

183 *Urine collection.* During the 4 d of sampling period, total urine collection was
184 performed using harnesses containing commercial diapers with a wide-spectre antimicrobial
185 agent as a preservative. Harnesses were changed 4 times a day at 8:30, 13:30, 18:30 and 0:00
186 h. Once the harnesses were removed, total urine was weighed and aliquots (~100 mL) of urine
187 were immediately taken, acidified (pH<3) with 10% H₂SO₄ (vol/vol) and stored at -20°C until
188 further analyses.

189 *Body weight.* The animals were weighed on d 1 and d 51 after 48 h of fasting (steers had
190 access to water for the first 24 h), with an electronic weighing scale (sensitivity: 50 g;
191 Challenger SC 101; Balcoppan; Sistemas Coppan S.R.L.; Argentina).

192 *Analyses and Calculations*

193 For the purpose of this experiment, the N balance was calculated by difference
194 between N intake and N excretion in urine and feces, and the N use efficiency was estimated
195 as the retained proportion of N intake. The N content in herbage, feces and urine were
196 performed by Kjeldahl (Nelson and Sommers, 1973) and WSC content in herbage was
197 measured by the anthrone method (Morris, 1948).

198 *n*-Alkane analysis was carried out on morphological components of the forage, fecal
199 samples and cellucotton stoppers. For the *n*-alkane analysis, all samples were oven-dried at
200 60°C for 48 h and analyzed according to the method of Dove and Mayes (2006) with
201 modifications (Sánchez Chopa *et al.*, 2012). All calculations were performed according to the
202 equations presented by Dove and Mayes (2006), using ratio C₃₂:C₃₃ for DM intake, C₃₆ for FO
203 and their ratio for DMD estimation.

204 Recordings obtained from the ingestive behavior recorder were analyzed using
205 software “Graze 8.0” (Rutter, 2000). Total grazing time was determined and temporal
206 distribution of grazing events were divided in 4 periods of 2.5 h each, and grazing time within
207 each period was analyzed individually.

208 Nitrogen intake was calculated individually according to DM intake and N content of
209 the forage. For this purpose, N diurnal variation in the forage and moment and duration of
210 each grazing event along the day, were taken into account. *In vivo* N digestibility was
211 estimated individually according to N intake and N fecal excretion.

212 Urine was analyzed for N-allantoin (Chen *et al.*, 1993) and N-urea (Marsh *et al.*,
213 1965). Absorbed microbial purines (X, mmol/d) derived from urinary excretion of N-PD (Y,
214 mmol/d) was estimated from the equation presented by Kahn and Nolan (2000), where Y=
215 0.94X + 0.385 * BW^{0.75}. Microbial N entering duodenum (g/d) was estimated from the
216 equation (Chen and Ørskov, 2004):

$$MN (g/d) = \frac{X(mmol/d) * 70}{0.116 * 0.83 * 1000}$$

217 where, MN is microbial nitrogen flux; 70 is the N content of purines (mg N/mmol); 0.116 is
218 N-PD:total N ratio in ruminal microorganisms (11.6:100); and 0.83 is microbial purine
219 average digestibility.

220 *Statistical Analysis*

221 All data were analyzed by ANOVA using the General Linear Model (GLM) procedure
222 of SAS Institute (2010) according to a complete random design. Classes included in the
223 model were treatment, period and their interaction. The general form of the model used was:

$$224 \quad Y_{ij} = \mu + T_i + P_j + e_{ij}$$

225 Where, Y_{ij} is the observation on the i th treatment in j th Period; μ is the overall mean;
226 T_i is the effect due to i th treatment; P_j is the effect due to j th period; e_{ij} is random error.

227 Significant differences between mean values were tested using the Duncan's multiple range
228 test. Differences among means with $P < 0.05$ were accepted as representing statistically
229 significant differences and tendencies were accepted if $0.05 < P < 0.10$.

230

231 **Results**

232 *Herbage Measurements*

233 All data are presented in Table 1. Herbage mass was not affected by N fertilization,
234 nor forage structural characteristics. Although no differences were found for initial SSH and
235 post-grazing SSH, the intensity of defoliation was higher for N100. The actual consumed
236 forage was considered to be similar for both treatments and had an overall lamina:pseudostem
237 ratio of 7:3. Nitrogen fertilization increased total N content and decreased total WSC content
238 of *Avena sativa*, leading to a higher CP:WSC ratio for N100, not only in offered diet, but also
239 in observed consumed forage.

240

241 **(Insert Table 1 here)**

242

243 Within each sampling hour and independently of the morphological component, CP
244 was higher and WSC was lower in N100 than in N0 (Table 2), except for WSC content in
245 N100 lamina collected at 18:30 h, which it was 17% numerically lower compared to WSC

246 content in N0 lamina. According to N and WSC diurnal variation within each treatment, N
247 content of N100 lamina decreased along the day. No differences were found for N content in
248 N100 pseudostem nor N0 lamina and pseudostem, as well as for WSC content in both
249 treatments.

250

251 **(Insert Table 2 here)**

252

253 *Animal Measurements*

254 Total grazing time was not affected by fertilization, and also no differences were
255 observed in grazing time between treatments in the 4 periods in which recordings were
256 divided (Table 3). N fertilization did not affect DM intake nor water intake. Apparent *in vivo*
257 DMD was similar for both treatments, although it differed between sampling periods. Also, N
258 fertilization increased apparent *in vivo* N digestibility (Table 4). To estimate N and WSC
259 intake, mean values of N and WSC forage concentration estimated at 8:30, 13:30 and 18:30 h
260 of each individual strip were used, since no differences in grazing time and grazing
261 defoliation intensity –estimated by differences between initial and final SSH- between M and
262 A were observed.

263

264 **(Insert Table 3 here)**

265

266 Nitrogen balance (N intake, N excretion in urine and feces and N retention) is
267 presented in Table 4. Nitrogen intake and N retention, expressed either as g/d or g
268 $N/BW^{0.75} \cdot d$, were greater for N100 than N0, as well as the N use efficiency. Due to greater N
269 intake and N digestibility in steers grazing fertilized oats, the apparent digestible N actually
270 consumed was 33% higher in N100 than in N0. Although no differences were found for total

271 N excretion, urinary N excretion tended to increase with N fertilization. When N partition
272 (urine, feces and retention) was expressed as N intake ratio, urine N remained similar
273 (PN0=41.8%; N100=39.0%), fecal N was higher for N0 (N0=39.8%; N100=33.3%) and
274 retained N was significantly higher for N100 (N0=18.4%; N100=27.7%).

275 Urinary urea-N excretion linearly increased with total urinary N excretion and
276 represented 50 and 58% of total N excretion in urine for N0 and N100, respectively. Steers on
277 N100 excreted more urea-N, tended to excrete more allantoin-N, while no differences were
278 observed for non ureic-N. A trend to increase estimated microbial N flow to duodenum with
279 N fertilization was observed (N0=47.0 g N/d; N100=51.4 g N/d). Rumen microbial N
280 efficiency (microbial N flux to duodenum:N intake ratio) did not differ between treatments.
281 Apparently digested N was greater for N100, not only in absolute values (N0=68.4 g N/d;
282 N100=91.2 g N/d) but also when expressed on metabolic weight basis (g N/kg BW^{0.75};
283 N0=1.37; N100=1.79). Retention efficiency of apparently digested N also increased
284 (N0=29%; N100=40%) with N fertilization. In agreement with the results obtained for N
285 retention, ADG was higher in animals grazing fertilized winter oats (Table 4).

286

287 **(Insert Table 4 here)**

288

289 **Discussion**

290 No signs of discomfort were observed and the steers adapted well to the experimental
291 protocol. To our knowledge, this is the first N balance performed under grazing conditions.
292 To estimate and quantify a whole body N balance supposes reliable and precise estimates of N
293 intake and N excretion. Research indicates that N balance under grazing conditions is affected
294 by errors in measuring either N intake or N output, which generally results in an

295 overestimation of retained N. Underestimation of fecal and/or urinary N artificially increases
296 N retention, and therefore N use efficiency as seen in the present experiment.

297 When estimating ADG from N retention converted into CP by a coefficient of 6.25
298 (i.e., assuming a body protein N content of 16%), a protein gain of 130.6 g/d for N0 and 236.9
299 g/d for N100 is obtained and, as body protein is associated with water in an average ratio of
300 1:3, and that the ratio of fat:CP deposition is in average 1:1 (NRC, 2001), the calculation of a
301 lean tissue gain of about 0.7 and 1.26 kg/d for N0 and N100, respectively. When comparing
302 these equations with actual ADG, N100 is not consistent with the measured N balance,
303 suggesting an overestimation of N use efficiency. Nevertheless, the N retention of N100 was
304 higher than N0, because of the confidence placed in measured ADG.

305 Some possible errors of this overestimation are detailed. Fecal N could be
306 underestimated due to volatile losses of ammonia from feces in the field (Spanghero and
307 Kowalski, 1997) and/or during the drying of samples (Sharkey, 1970). Another source of
308 error may be the N loss from the urine collection, due to the use of a wide-specter antibiotic as
309 a preservative, instead of using strong acids (H₂SO₄) *in situ* so as to prevent N losses
310 (Spanghero and Kowalski, 1997). We conclude that N balances are overestimated and that the
311 error appears to be enhanced as the dietary N availability increases. In this experiment,
312 applying any equation proposed by Spanghero and Kowalski (1997) to correct N balance did
313 not modify the observed effect of N fertilization upon N balance.

314 Another explanation could be related to total urine excretion. There is an increase in
315 total urine excretion in animals fed high levels of dietary N, possibly due to the need for
316 greater urine volume to excrete the excess of N (Knowlton *et al.*, 2010). Although N100 had
317 greater N intake, total urine excretion (L/d) remained similar between treatments, in
318 accordance with Reynald and Broderick (2005). To help to support this idea, no signs of urine
319 loss were found each time the harnesses were changed and, within animal, the daily CV of

320 urine excretion was between 5 and 15%, except for 2 animals of N100 (26 and 29%,
321 respectively). What is more, the difference in N excretion in urine (12%) is not as high as
322 observed by Knowlton et al. (2010), and could possibly explain the lack of difference in total
323 urine excretion. Another possible explanation is that N retained may not have been transferred
324 to lean tissue but have increased the whole-body urea pool (Archibeque *et al.*, 2001, 2002).

325

326 In the present experiment, N fertilization did not significantly affect any of the forage
327 morphology variables studied, although it increased the N content and decreased the WSC
328 content of lamina and pseudostem, which is in agreement with several authors (Delagarde *et*
329 *al.*, 1997 and Peyraud *et al.*, 1997 in *Lolium perenne* L.; Mazzanti *et al.*, 1997 in *Avena*
330 *sativa*; Ferri *et al.*, 2004 in *Secale cereale*). This chemical variation led to an increase of 58%
331 in CP:WSC ratio of the offered forage. According to Peyraud and Astigarraga (1998), an
332 increase in CP content of 10 g/kg DM would be related to a decrease of 8 to 10 g/kg DM in
333 WSC content, similar to the results of the present experiment (7.5 g/kg DM of WSC).
334 Because N fertilization did not affect the morphological components studied, and taking into
335 account that offered forage (6 kg DM lamina/100 kg BW) did not limit DM intake, results in
336 N balance could be attributed to effects of fertilization on forage chemical composition.

337 When considering the effect of N fertilization on DM intake in grazing animals,
338 conflicting results exist. Demarquilly (1970) observed different effects of N fertilization on
339 DM intake in 32 trials. When comparing N fertilized against non-fertilized pastures, the
340 author reported similar, higher and lower DM intakes on fertilized pastures than non-fertilized
341 pastures in 13, 11 and 8 trials, respectively. What is more, Delagarde *et al.* (1997) observed
342 higher DM intake in lactating cows grazing fertilized grass (*Lolium perenne* L.; 60 kg N/ha)
343 compared with non-fertilized grass, while Ferri *et al.* (2004) observed lower intake of
344 fertilized rye pasture (*Secale cereale* L.) compared to non-fertilized rye pasture, in housed

345 rams. In the present experiment, N fertilization had no effect on DM intake, in agreement with
346 results obtained by Peyraud *et al.* (1997) and Archibeque *et al.* (2001).

347 Total grazing time did not differ between treatments, in agreement with Delagarde *et*
348 *al.* (1997). This could be due to no effects of N fertilization in herbage mass, herbage
349 structure nor DM content, variables related with modifications of animal ingestive behavior
350 (Nadin *et al.*, 2012). The grazing management performed in this study –access to new sub-
351 paddock twice a day and access to forage for 10 h- could have contributed to the similar
352 grazing times.

353 Nitrogen fertilization increased N content of the forage and hence N intake, but had no
354 effects on apparent DMD , as seen by Gabler and Heinrichs (2003), Ferri *et al.* (2004) and
355 Knowlton *et al.* (2010). On the other hand, greater N intake increased N digestibility, since
356 fecal N excretion remained similar between treatments (Demarquilly, 1970; Delagarde *et al.*,
357 1997; Marini and Van Amburgh, 2003, 2005; and Knowlton *et al.*, 2010). Increasing N intake
358 increased excretion of urine urea-N, as seen by several authors (Delagarde *et al.*, 1997;
359 Peyraud *et al.*, 1997; Marini and Van Amburgh, 2003, 2005), while only a trend to increase
360 the total-N excretion in urine. Urinary urea-N excretion was not a reliable indicator of N
361 inefficiency use since the ratio of N-retained:N-intake was greater in N100 compared to N0.

362 N-allantoin excretion in urine tended to be greater in N100, indicating a trend towards
363 more microbial capture and more microbial N flow to duodenum compared with N0. This
364 observation was not expected. Considering that the apparent digestible DM intake remained
365 similar between the treatments and that the diet consumed by N0 had a different CP:WSC
366 ratio (N0=0.87; N100=1.34), a greater microbial N flow to duodenum was expected for N0
367 because of a better ruminal N to energy balance (Hoekstra *et al.*, 2007; Reynolds and
368 Kristensen, 2008). Nevertheless, the trend of more microbial N flow to the duodenum is in
369 accordance with greater ADG for N100 than N0.

370 The lack of data on N balance in grazing beef cattle makes it difficult to discuss the
371 results. A summary of results obtained by several authors in penned animals are shown in
372 Table 5. There is no clear evidence of what to expect in N use efficiency as N intake
373 increases. While some authors observed an increase in N use efficiency with an increase of N
374 intake (Knaus *et al.*, 1998; Archibeque *et al.*, 2002; Wickersham *et al.*, 2008; Knowlton *et al.*,
375 2010), others observed a decrease in N use efficiency (Archibeque *et al.*, 2001; Marini and
376 Van Amburgh, 2003, 2005). In this experiment, the animals of N100 had high levels of N use
377 efficiency (27.7% of N intake), similar to the results obtained by Theurer *et al.* (2002);
378 moreover, several authors obtained higher levels of N use efficiencies (Funaba *et al.*, 1997;
379 Archibeque *et al.*, 2002; Gabler and Heinrichs, 2003; Wickersham *et al.*, 2008).

380 In 2 studies with Holstein heifers (200-270 kg BW), Marini and Van Amburgh (2003,
381 2005) observed an increase in N retention with an increase in N intake, reaching a plateau in
382 N retention when N content of diet was ~30 g N/kg DM. In the present experiment, animals
383 consumed diets with mean N concentration of 24 and 29 g/kg DM for N0 and N100,
384 respectively. Nevertheless, and in contrast with findings of Marini and Van Amburgh (2003),
385 in this study higher N retention efficiency (18.4 and 27.7% for N0 and N100, respectively)
386 was observed with greater N intake. While N intake differed by 20% between treatments, the
387 difference in N retention was 81%. This difference in N retention could be due to greater N
388 intake, leading to greater undegradable dietary N reaching duodenum, along with a probable
389 increase (P=0.109) of microbial N flow to duodenum.

390

391 **(Insert Table 5 here)**

392

393 **Conclusions**

394 In the present study, N fertilization of winter oats increased CP:WSC ratio in diet and
395 in consumed forage, not only by increasing the CP content of the forage but also by
396 decreasing its WSC content. This had no effect on DM intake, apparent *in vivo* DMD, or
397 microbial N capture efficiency. Nevertheless, increasing the amount of N offered to steers
398 increased the N intake, N digestibility, N retention and ADG.. It is important to mention that
399 in this study, the urinary excretion of urea-N and allantoin-N were not good indicators of N
400 use efficiency. Since the whole-body urea pool was not measured, we cannot conclude that
401 increasing the N intake led to higher N use efficiency.

402

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