

*Short communication: a survey of grass-clover ley management and creation of a near infra-red reflectance spectroscopy equation to predict clover concentration*

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1 **Short communication: A survey of grass-clover ley management and creation**  
2 **of a Near Infra-Red Reflectance Spectroscopy equation to predict clover**  
3 **concentration**

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5

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12

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14 NIRS,

15

## 16 **Summary**

17 The purpose of the present study was, firstly, to examine current practice for the  
18 agronomy of grass-clover mixed swards used for silage-making in the UK, and  
19 secondly, to develop and validate a Near Infra-Red Reflectance Spectroscopy (NIRS)  
20 equation capable of predicting clover concentration (CC) in undried and unmilled  
21 grass-clover silage samples. A calibration set of 94 grass-clover (white, *trifolium*  
22 *repens*, and red, *trifolium pratense*) mixture silage samples were sourced from UK  
23 farms and an accompanying questionnaire was used to obtain information on the  
24 sward agronomy used to produce each sample. Questionnaire data highlighted that  
25 (i) reducing the use of fertiliser inputs (ii) increasing uptake of new varieties, and (iii)  
26 increasing the farmer's ability to measure botanical composition as potential strategies  
27 for improving the utilisation of clover in grass swards. Botanical composition was  
28 measured by hand separation for each sample and a new NIRS equation was created  
29 and assessed using blind validation with an independent set of 30 grass-clover  
30 samples. The relative standard error of cross validation (SECV, as a percentage of the  
31 measured mean) of the optimised equation produced was 36.8%, and, in an  
32 independent validation test, the ratio of standard error of prediction to the standard  
33 deviation of the reference data set (RPD) was 1.56. The equation could be improved  
34 by increasing accuracy at high CCs but showed promise as a simple tool to assist  
35 growers in sward management decisions.

36

## 37 **Introduction**

38 The use of mixed grass-clover swards for both grazing and silage production is now  
39 relatively wide-spread across temperate European agricultural systems and  
40 particularly in the UK where 70% of grass swards on dairy farms are thought to contain

41 clover (DEFRA, 2015). Grass-legume swards offer a sustainable approach to reduce  
42 fertiliser input into grasslands, as the atmospheric nitrogen (**N**) fixed by clover can be  
43 utilised by grass, an example of niche complementarity between two species (Nyfeler  
44 et al., 2011, Phelan et al., 2015). Utilising niche complementarity in this way is  
45 becoming an area of increasing interest for both binary and complex (3+ species)  
46 sward mixtures. Combining species of different functional groups, can not only  
47 increase productivity and minimise the need for inputs, but may also supply different  
48 beneficial nutrients, minerals, and secondary plant compounds to livestock (Provenza  
49 et al., 2007). A key determinant of the success of mixed swards is determining and  
50 maintaining the correct concentration ratio of species or functional groups so that they  
51 work in harmony. Previous research has shown that, in general, the best results can  
52 be achieved by an even distribution of species within a sward, with no single species  
53 becoming dominant (Finn et al., 2013). Where one species is over-dominant the others  
54 may not reach their production potential or fulfil their niche functionalities, and the  
55 productivity of the whole sward could be reduced (Kirwan et al., 2007, Lüscher et al.,  
56 2014).

57 To date, we are not aware of any published surveys that document the  
58 management strategies farmers utilise for grass-clover leys, and to what extent these  
59 conform to best practice guidelines for maintaining species evenness. Additionally,  
60 there is a need for increased development of practical methods by which growers can  
61 manage species evenness within a sward, beginning with simple binary mixtures. The  
62 first step to improved management is the ability to measure the botanical composition  
63 of a sward with ease. Near Infra-Red Spectroscopy (**NIRS**) analysis offers a quick and  
64 inexpensive method, already routinely used for silage analysis, by which the  
65 composition of a mixed sample might be determined. Prediction equations for NIRS

66 analysis of clover in a mixed grass-clover silage sample have been successfully  
67 reported previously using dried samples for calibration (Wachendorf et al., 1999,  
68 Cougnon et al., 2014) however no prediction equations currently exist which are  
69 appropriate for the UK where silage analysis is performed on undried (fresh) and  
70 unmilled samples. Once the botanical composition of a sward is known, management  
71 may be adjusted to suit one species or another by varying cutting height, cutting  
72 frequency, fertilisation or grazing intensity (Yarrow and Penning, 1994, Phelan et al.,  
73 2014).

74 The objectives of the present study were therefore to develop an NIRS equation  
75 to measure the botanical composition of fresh grass-clover silages appropriate for  
76 uptake by laboratories in the UK, and secondly, to assess current management  
77 practices of grass-clover swards to better understand where further research into  
78 management of botanical composition is required.

79

## 80 **Material and methods**

81

### 82 *Experimental design*

83 Ninety-four grass-clover silages (58 baled and 36 clamped) were sourced from 50  
84 commercial farms spread throughout England, Scotland, and Wales, and brought to  
85 the University of Reading's Centre for Dairy Research (**CEDAR**; Arborfield, UK) for  
86 processing. A further 95<sup>th</sup> sample was created by combining one of the original 94  
87 samples with additional grass silage to create a new sample, this was done to create  
88 a greater quantity of material for other *in vivo* analyses. The samples were obtained  
89 to evaluate the use of NIRS analysis for nutrient concentrations as described  
90 previously (Thomson et al., 2018) over three consecutive years (2012/13, 2013/14,

91 and 2014/15). The quantity of each silage collected was approximately 500 kg. Where  
92 the clover species was known ( $n = 65$ ) 66% of samples were red clover (*trifolium*  
93 *repens*), 20% were white clover (*trifolium pratense*) and 14% were a mixture of both.  
94 The number of samples that were first, second, third and fourth cuts were 36, 20, 16,  
95 and 4 respectively (22 samples unknown). Sample processing is described in detail  
96 by Thomson *et al.* (2018), however, in brief, samples were mixed either in a feeder  
97 wagon containing knives (Hi-Spec Mix Max, Hi Spec Engineering, Co. Carlow, Ireland  
98 for 45 min), or in a DataRanger feed mixer without knives (American Calan,  
99 Northwood, NH, USA) for unchopped and pre-chopped samples respectively. After  
100 mixing, representative subsamples of each silage sample were stored separately at -  
101 20°C for future analysis by manual separation and NIRS.

102

### 103 *Silage Questionnaire*

104 A questionnaire was given to each farmer who donated a silage sample to the study.  
105 The questionnaire comprised 17 questions (Supplementary Table 1) relating to the  
106 timing of establishment, fertiliser applications, and harvesting; the composition of seed  
107 mixtures used; and ensiling practices. For the botanical composition of the seed  
108 mixture, the variety sown was recorded for ryegrass and clover whereas any other  
109 components were simply recorded at the species level as variety was rarely provided.  
110 In addition farmers were asked to retrospectively estimate the percentage of clover in  
111 the sward at the time of harvest (Question 9, Supplementary Table 1). Farms were  
112 permitted to contribute more than one silage sample to the study provided the samples  
113 originated from differing cuts, years, or swards. Separate questionnaires were  
114 completed for each of the samples. Questionnaire forms were returned for 64 of the  
115 94 samples however not all questions were answered on all returned questionnaires

116 and in some instances answers were insufficiently detailed to be included. These 64  
117 completed questionnaires originated from 36 individual farms, reflecting that a number  
118 of farms returned more than one questionnaire, each relating to a different crop of  
119 silage.

120

#### 121 *Sample analysis and NIRS scanning*

122 Approximately 200 g of silage was manually aspeciated into clover, grass and other  
123 species as a means of determining the clover concentration (**CC**) in the silage.  
124 Resulting fractions were then oven dried at 60°C for 72 h to determine CC on a DM  
125 basis. A second 2 kg subsample of frozen material was sent to the Agri-Food and  
126 Biosciences Institute (**AFBI**; Hillsborough, Northern Ireland) where all samples were  
127 hand-chopped to 2.5 cm length. Two separate packages were created from each  
128 sample, each containing 100 g of undried and unmilled silage wrapped in non-PVC  
129 cling film which were placed in coarse transport cells for scanning (Park et al., 1999).  
130 NIRS spectra for each scan, recorded as Log 1/Reflectance over a 400-2498 nm range  
131 (2 nm gaps), were obtained using a Foss NIRSystems 6500 machine (Foss, Hillerød,  
132 Denmark) and ISI v.3.10 software (Infrasoft International, Port Matilda, PA, USA).

133

#### 134 *Data Analysis*

135 *Statistical analysis.* Survey data are summarised and reported as percentages of  
136 recieved responses for each question. A one-way ANOVA followed by a post-hoc  
137 Tukey test was used to determine the effect of cut number in the year (1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, 3<sup>rd</sup> or  
138 4<sup>th</sup>) on CC, where CC was the independent variable, in Genstat 16th Edition (VSN  
139 International, Hemel Hempsted, UK). *P* values < 0.05 were considered statistically



140 significant. As the survey only concerns one group of farmers (rather than contrasting  
141 multiple groups) no further statistical analysis was deemed necessary.

142

143 *Data pre-treatment and production of new NIRS equations.* Creation of a new  
144 prediction equation for CC was performed as described by Thomson *et al.* (2018)  
145 using WinISI III v1.50 (Infrasoft International, Port Matilda, PA, USA). Calibration was  
146 carried out as Modified Partial Least Squares regressions over the range 1100-2498  
147 nm using a 2 nm gap. To prevent any sub-sampling error the root mean square  
148 difference of each sub-sample was calculated (an upper limit of 5000 was used to  
149 judge poor replication however none of the samples in the calibration set were above  
150 this limit). Raw data and two derivatives were tested (Raw (0,0,1,1), 1st Derivative  
151 (1,4,4,1) and 2nd Derivative (2,10,5,1)) and three scatter corrections (Standard  
152 Normal Variate Detrending (**SNVD**), Normal Multiplicative Scatter Correction (**NMSC**)  
153 and Weighted Multiplicative Scatter Correction (**WMSC**)) for each of the derivatives.  
154 The maximum number of terms set for each equation was 11. For cross validation,  
155 three elimination passes were carried out and the cross validation value was set at 6  
156 (i.e. the calibration set was divided into six groups with one group removed  
157 sequentially and predicted using a calibration formed using the remaining samples)  
158 and the combined standard error of cross validation (**SECV**) was obtained in addition  
159 to the standard error of calibration (**SEC**). The optimal equation (lowest SECV) was  
160 compared against an equation produced using the UK industry standard data-  
161 pretreatment method: first derivative (1,4,4,1) SNVD scatter correction and a  
162 repeatability file (a file containing multiple spectra from the same sample measured  
163 under different conditions) (Park *et al.*, 1997). For the purposes of a blind validation  
164 test, 30 independant grass-clover silage samples of known CC (for which NIR spectra

165 had been previously obtained at AFBI in a prior study) were used to assess prediction  
166 accuracy of the new equation using root mean square error of prediction (**RMSEP**)  
167 and the ratio of the standard error of prediction to the standard deviation of the  
168 measured sample set (**RPD**) (Williams, 2014).

169

## 170 **Results and Discussion**

### 171 *Grass-clover management questionnaire*

172 The final set of 95 samples had a mean concentration of clover, grass and other  
173 species of 310, 640 and 50 g/kg DM, respectively (median CC = 280 g/kg DM). The  
174 distribution of CC, shown in Figure 1a, indicated that low CC silages were more  
175 common than high CC silages within the sample set. Ploughing or subsoiling were the  
176 most common forms of cultivation prior to establishment with 48% of those providing  
177 cultivation information employing these methods. A further 34% of respondents used  
178 light cultivation such as discs, tines or a power harrow and 18% reported using a  
179 minimum or no tillage approach. In 18 instances (31% of responses) the sward was  
180 established by under-sowing. The timing of crop establishment (where known) was  
181 roughly evenly split between spring and autumn with 20 sown in March, April or May,  
182 4 sown in June or July, and 22 sown in August or September.

183 All farms providing seed information reported sowing more than one variety of  
184 grass and 22 (52% of responses) sowed more than one variety of clover within a single  
185 ley. Sowing for increased varietal richness helps mitigate the risk of any one variety  
186 performing poorly (Surault et al., 2010). In total 38 different grass varieties including  
187 varieties of italian ryegrass, ryegrass hybrids, timothy, cocksfoot, fescues, and  
188 festuloliums were sown, but the predominant species was perennial ryegrass (23 of  
189 the 38 varieties). In comparison, only 19 different varieties of clover were represented

190 within the sample set which was likely reflective of the wider range of grass varieties  
191 available on the market. The two most frequent grass varieties sown were 'Solid' (34%  
192 of responses) and 'Tetragraze' (26% of responses) which are both hybrids of Italian  
193 and perennial ryegrass. 'High sugar' grass varieties 'AberDart' and 'AberStar' were the  
194 joint 5<sup>th</sup> most frequently sown grasses (each sown in 12% of reported swards)  
195 indicating good uptake, possibly as a result of research showing the use of high-sugar  
196 grasses in combination with red clover produces a favourable balance of  
197 metabolisable protein and fermentable energy in the ruminant diet (Merry et al., 2006).  
198 Of the four most frequently sown clover varieties, all were red clovers with the varieties  
199 'Merviot' and 'Milvus' being the most popular (sown in 33% and 21% of reported  
200 swards). These are both older varieties (for example, Merviot was first introduced to  
201 the UK recommended list of varieties in 1980) perhaps indicating a need for greater  
202 adoption of newer clover varieties to take advantage of genetic gains (Frick et al.,  
203 2008, Capstaff and Miller, 2018). A recent study showed that, out of 12 clover varieties  
204 sown, 10 new varieties showed increased persistency within a 3-year ley when  
205 compared to Merviot or Milvus (Marshall et al., 2012).

206 Information relating to applications that occurred in the year prior to harvesting  
207 was given for 46 of the silages. Of the 46 silages, 23 silages (50%) had slurry applied  
208 and 12 (26%) had been fertilised using an inorganic fertiliser containing nitrogen (N).  
209 A further 5 (11%) had an application of farm yard manure. Only 5 silages (11%) had  
210 been reported as having no fertiliser applied. Where excess applications of N are  
211 applied, clover adapts by reducing the rate of fixation, and is more likely to be  
212 outcompeted by grass (Nyfeler et al., 2011). Farmers were not required to state the  
213 timing of the application; therefore, the applications may have been early in the year  
214 or during establishment for first year silages, however, even out-of-season N

215 applications have been shown to reduce CC over the summer months (Laidlaw et al.,  
216 1992). Those applying slurry may benefit from the application of potassium and  
217 phosphorous for soil fertility, however, even slurry may contain enough N to adversely  
218 affect N fixation efficiency by clover and sward CC if applied in excess of 50 T/ha  
219 (Nesheim et al., 1990). This evidence suggests that few farmers are maximising the  
220 N-fixation potential of clover and possibly seeing reduced economic performance as  
221 a result, particularly where expensive inorganic N fertiliser is applied to clover-  
222 containing swards.

223         The most common months for taking silage cuts were May, July and September  
224 for 1<sup>st</sup>, 2<sup>nd</sup>, and 3<sup>rd</sup> cuts respectively. Stepwise increases in CC were seen in 1<sup>st</sup> to 3<sup>rd</sup>  
225 cuts ( $P < 0.001$ ) as shown in Figure 1b. The use of silage additives was relatively  
226 common with 13 different brands of additive reported. Of these 13 additives used, 10  
227 were bacterial inoculants and the remainder contained either enzymes or salt as the  
228 active ingredient. Of 29 total responses to the question on the use of additives, 5  
229 specified that no additive had been used.

230         Farmers were retrospectively asked to estimate the CC of the sample based on  
231 their memory of the sward at harvest. Fifty-five estimations were received and  
232 compared against reference values obtained by hand separation (Figure 2). The  
233 majority of farmers estimated a value between 300 to 700 g/kg DM clover. As a result  
234 samples containing a measured CC of less than 400 g/kg DM were generally over-  
235 estimated while samples containing greater than 400 g/kg DM CC were often under-  
236 estimated. The number of farmers that successfully predicted CC to within  $\pm 100$  and  
237  $\pm 200$  g/kg DM was low at 15 and 31 out of 55 respectively. One possible explanation  
238 for this would be poor uniformity within the sward meaning that the sample taken was  
239 not representative of the general crop (Marriott et al., 1997), although this explanation

240 is more valid for baled samples as opposed to those ensiled in a clamp where mixing  
241 is performed in the forage harvester. The inability of many farmers to recall an accurate  
242 estimate of the CC of their forage highlights the need for tools to be developed which  
243 automate this process and provide lasting records; one option being the use of NIRS  
244 on resulting silage which has been explored in the present study. Another option which  
245 has been investigated previously is to determine n-alkane concentration which differs  
246 distinctively between species (Jurado et al., 2015), however, the use of a laboratory  
247 assay of this kind is expensive and time consuming.

248

#### 249 *Creation and validation of an NIRS equation to predict clover concentration*

250 The best-performing NIRS prediction equation for CC was produced using 182  
251 spectra, and NMSC (2,10, 5,1) data pre-treatment which gave an SEC of 8.99 and an  
252 SECV of 36.8% of the measured mean. Using the industry standard data pre-  
253 treatment of SNVD (1,4,4,1) slightly reduced calibration performance by a small  
254 margin with an SEC of 10.0 and an SECV of 37.5% of the measured mean.

255 Spectra from 30 independent grass-clover silage samples of known CC were  
256 used in a blind validation test of the industry standard CC equation. The measured  
257 mean CC within this independent set of samples was 440 g/kg DM, which was greater  
258 than that of the calibration set. Using this data set the equation gave an RMSEP of  
259 52.2% of the measured mean and an RPD value of 1.56. Plotting measured against  
260 predicted CC in this test indicated over-estimation at low CC and under-estimation at  
261 high CC with the average bias being towards under-estimation (Figure 3). For samples  
262 that contained 1000 g/kg clover by DM, the equation underpredicted CC by 300-400  
263 g/kg DM. A group of samples with 150 g/kg DM CC showed the best prediction  
264 accuracy. Prediction for samples with the same botanical composition often differed

265 by 150-400 g/kg DM CC indicating low repeatability. Other studies in which prediction  
266 equations for CC have been produced have shown more robust prediction accuracy  
267 than the present study, for example Cougnon *et al.* (2014) produced an equation with  
268 an RPD of 3.8 using just 42 silage samples as a calibration set. In another study  
269 Wachendorf *et al.* (1999) produced separate equations for freshly cut grass-red clover  
270 and grass-white clover mixtures with large calibration sets ( $n = 282$  and  $183$   
271 respectively) where the relative SECV were 29.9 and 23.5% respectively, which again  
272 shows an improvement over equations in the present study. A major difference  
273 between the calibration samples used in the present study and those used by  
274 Cougnon *et al.* (2014) and Wachendorf *et al.* (1999) is that no sample preparation  
275 such as drying or milling was used in line with UK recommendations whereas, in the  
276 previous studies samples were dried and milled. The drying and milling process  
277 reduces heterogeneity within the sample (which is particularly important to  
278 representatively subsample mixtures for analysis) and also removes peaks produced  
279 by water molecules from the resulting NIRS spectra, reducing noise, and improving  
280 interpretation and repeatability (Sorensen, 2004). The reference technique used to  
281 measure CC (manual separation prior to drying and milling) was the same in the  
282 present study and in the studies of Cougnon *et al.* (2014) and Wachendorf *et al.*  
283 (1999), however, the drawback of this technique is that results can be subjective,  
284 particularly on chopped samples as were used in the present study, due to the lack of  
285 species-defining characteristics on some particles. Using a reference technique prone  
286 to human error such as this reduces the likelihood of producing a robust prediction  
287 equation. We conclude that, even though the equation produced in the present study  
288 was less robust than in previous examples, the equation may still be of use to guide  
289 on-farm decisions, particularly for swards containing low CCs.

290

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300

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394

395 **Figure captions**

396

397 **Figure 1** The distribution of clover concentration within a set of 94 grass-clover  
398 silages sourced from working farms across the UK over various cuts (1<sup>st</sup> - 4<sup>th</sup>) and  
399 years (2012-2015; Figure 1a) and the effect of cut number on clover concentration  
400 (Figure 1b).

401 **Figure 2** The relationship between actual clover concentration (●) and the grower's  
402 prediction of clover concentration (○) in a range of 54 grass-clover silage samples  
403 sourced from working UK farms over several years (2012-2015). White drop lines  
404 indicate over-prediction and dark drop lines indicate under-prediction of clover  
405 concentration.

406 **Figure 3** The results of a blind validation of a Near Infra-Red Spectroscopy  
407 prediction equation for clover concentration calibrated using a set of 94 diverse fresh  
408 grass-clover silage samples which were manually aspeciated to produce reference  
409 values and validated using an independent set of 30 grass-red clover silage samples  
410 of 6 known clover concentrations (0, 150, 450, 600, and 1000 g/kg dry matter)

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