

# A quantitative review of on-farm feeding practices to enhance the quality of grassland-based ruminant dairy and meat products

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- 1 A quantitative review of on-farm feeding practices to enhance the
- 2 quality of grassland-based ruminant dairy and meat products
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#### **ABSTRACT**

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In the last decades, a large body of evidence has highlighted the major role of feeding management practices in improving specific nutritional, technological and sensory quality traits of ruminant products. However, results have been mostly obtained under controlled conditions, and have been rarely validated on-farm. Therefore, a quantitative review was conducted to quantify the effects of on-farm feeding management practices on carotenoids, fat-soluble vitamins, colour, fatty acids (FA), terpenes and sensory properties in the main animal products categories (PC): dairy products from cattle (DC), sheep (DS) and goat (DG), and meat from cattle (MC) and sheep (MS). Four feeding scenarios were selected according to the consistency of on-farm studies in the literature: a) feeding "Fresh herbage" instead of conserved forages; b) ban any form of silage ("Silage-free") c) ban maize silage ("Maize silage-free"); d) feeding forages from permanent grasslands rich in species or plant secondary metabolites (PSM) ("PSM-rich permanent grassland"). Feeding fresh herbage increased the concentration of carotenoids, fat-soluble vitamin, n-3 FA, rumenic acid, and branched chain FA (BCFA), and reduced the concentration of saturated FA, for all PC, with overall stronger effect for dairy products than for meat. The texture of meat and dairy products was marginally affected, whereas feeding fresh herbage decreased lactic and increased vegetal notes in DC. The "Silage-free" feeding scenario resulted in increased vaccenic acid, rumenic acid, BCFA,

and C18:3n-3 in DC. The "Maize silage-free" feeding scenario lowered n-6 FA whereas increased n-3, rumenic acid and BCFA concentrations in DC. Feeding ruminants with forages from "PSM-rich permanent grasslands", increased monounsaturated FA, n-3 FA and rumenic acid and decreased n-6 FA in dairy products, and only marginally affected meat FA composition. The DC from "PSM-rich permanent grasslands" showed higher intense, spicy and animal notes. Overall, the differences between feeding management practices observed on farm were smaller than those observed under controlled trials. Several confounding factors, not controlled when operating under on-farm conditions, could be at the origin of these divergences (i.e. mixed diets, forage characteristics, animalrelated factors). This review confirmed that farming practices may differently affect several quality traits of ruminant products. It also highlighted the uneven knowledge on the effect of feeding management depending on the PC: larger for milk than for meat and decreasing when moving from cattle to sheep and from sheep to goat.

58 **Keywords**: fatty acids, carotenoids, colour, terpenoids, sensory properties.

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# **Implications**

Feeding management practices are the most impacting factors to improve nutritional, technological and sensory quality of ruminant products in controlled experiments. However, most studies were conducted under controlled conditions. This review aims at quantifying these effects of feeding management on farm. We identified common feeding management practices able to enhance the quality of cattle and small ruminants meat and dairy products. Factors weakening the expected effects on quality traits on farm were highlighted. This review provides sound information to the stakeholders of ruminant production chains for implementing effective feeding management practices to achieve the targeted quality of ruminant products.

### Introduction

Globally, consumers are increasingly demanding for animal products with a high safety standard, nutritional value, and sensory quality, which are, at the same time, obtained through environment- and animal-friendly practices. To achieve these goals, feeding management is one of the most effective strategies (Prache *et al.*, 2020; Cabiddu *et al.* 2019; Minchin *et al.*, 2010). By feeding herbage to ruminants (particularly when grazed), dairy and meat products with specific traits are produced. They are rich in carotenoids, vitamins A and E (Nozière *et al.*, 2006; Prache *et al.*, 2020), volatile organic compounds (VOCs), and fatty acids (FA) favourable for human nutrition [e.g. monounsaturated FA (MUFA), polyunsaturated FA (PUFA), and n-3 FA] (Coppa *et al.*, 2019; Cabiddu *et al.*, 2019; Scerra *et al.*, 2011), and have specific sensory characteristics, preferred by consumers (Martin *et al.*, 2005). For some products, however, the

opposite is true. For instance, certain maize silage and concentrate-based dairy products, such as butter, have been historically preferred for their firmness because the high melting point of fats therein [due to the richness in saturated FA (SFA)], as this make them easy to be transported and commercialised even far from the production area (Prache et al., 2020). Similarly, the U.S. population prefers the sensory characteristics of grainfinished animals (Gwin, 2009). Most feeding strategies that improve the quality of animal products have been tested under controlled conditions (Ferlay et al., 2006; Hurtaud et al., 2009 for dairy products from cattle; Cabiddu et al. 2019 for dairy products from small ruminant; Fraser et al., 2009; and Luciano et al., 2009 for meat). However, under on-farm conditions, other uncontrolled and unstandardised factors (e.g. forage characteristics, animal status, feeding behaviour, and farm management, among others) may interact and thus amplify, confound, or overrule the effects of the employed practices, ultimately affecting the product quality in controlled trials. Furthermore, most studies focused on one or a few specific quality traits of certain products. To the best of our knowledge, a quantitative review underlining the common effects of on-farm management practices on the quality of ruminant-derived products (meat and dairy) is lacking. Such an approach is highly relevant for the selection of effective management practices to be included in the specification of quality-labelled animal products.

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To this end, the aim of the present quantitative review was to elucidate the effects of specific management practices on the quality traits of animal products, focusing exclusively on experiments conducted under on-farm conditions, and to identify which factors effective under controlled conditions remain effective on-farm and to what extent. Furthermore, common management practices that can enhance the quality of grassland-based meat and dairy products derived from cattle and small ruminants are identified. Finally, possible factors explaining the differences in the degree of effect of feeding management on qualitative traits between controlled trials and on-farm studies are discussed.

#### Materials and methods

# Data collection and selection of quality traits

Scientific publications were identified through an initial search of literature in the Web of Knowledge and Scopus databases using several search keywords related to the effect of farm management practices on different quality traits of animal products (i.e. pasture\*, fresh herbage\*, silage\*, maize\*, hay\*, and biodiversity\*). Animal species, animal product type, and each quality trait were used as the keywords. Experiments performed under controlled conditions or on experimental farms were excluded, but those reporting data from commercial farms were selected. The data on animal product quality traits and farming practices were collected from peer-reviewed papers and conference proceedings that were published between 1996 and 2019, included proper statistical analyses, and reported

probability values for the investigated factors. Only studies that provided detailed information on the proportion of feedstuff on a DM basis and in which at least two farming practices were compared were included. A complete list of the included studies is provided in the supplementary material. A total of 98 studies were included, 70 of which were on dairy products and 28 on meat products; 45 studies dealt with cattle, 12 with goat, and 41 with sheep. There was no study on goat meat. Five product categories (PC) were defined by combining the animal product type and species: dairy cattle (DC), dairy goats (DG), dairy sheep (DS), meat cattle (MC), and meat sheep (MS). Quality traits having an interest for human nutrition and health or with an effect on the sensory profile of animal products were evaluated, as well as the sensory profile itself. In particular, fat-soluble vitamins and carotenoids were considered due to the antioxidant potential for humans and their influence on dairy products colour (Nozière et al., 2006). The MUFA, PUFA, C18:1cis9, C18:3n-3 (the main n-3 FA in animal products) and its ratio to C18:2n-6 (the main n-6 FA in animal products), branched chain FA (BCFA), rumenic acid (CLAcis9trans11) and its precursor C18:1trans11 were included because of their potential positive effect on human health (potential contribution to the prevention against cardiovascular diseases, cancer, obesity, etc.) (Givens, 2010). The effect positive or negative effect of SFA and C18:2n-6 on human health is still in debate: i.e. Hooper et al., (2020) showed that a reduction in SFA intake could help to prevent cardiovascular diseases,

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but Astrup et al., (2020) highlighted that the intake of SFA form whole fat dairy and unprocessed meat is not associated with increased risk of cardiovascular diseases. Some FA (SFA, MUFA, PUFA, C18:1cis9/C16:0) affect the fat melting point with consequences on the texture of animal products. Moreover, PUFA can contribute to develop odour active compounds trough oxidation (Martin et al., 2005). Mono-, sesqui-, and total terpenes can potentially play a role on sensory profile as odour active compounds (Martin et al., 2005). Both instrumentally measured sensory traits, such as colour and texture, pH at 24 h (only for meat), and those evaluated by panel tests (colour, appearance, texture, odour, flavour, and taste) were considered. Only quality traits for which data from at least three publications in a feeding scenario were available were included in the statistical analysis. Several other quality traits were also found in the literature (i.e. other FA, single terpenes, total antioxidant capacity, muscle water holding capacity and microstructure, and cheese granular texture), but the available data were limited to yield reliable statistics; thus, such traits were not considered in the present review. As sensory attributes are often specific to a product (particularly dairy products), they were grouped under sensory families, as described by Piccinali (2012), based on odour, flavour, and taste: intensity, spicy, lactic (acid, milk, yoghurt, cream, fermented cream, and butter), fruity (hazelnut), vegetal (grassy, boiled vegetables, garlic, and onion), brown (caramel, smoked, sweet, and vanilla), animal (animal, stable, barn, and manure), and others (salty,

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- bitter, silage, mould, mothball, and cheese mite). Data on floral and spicy
- sensory families were limited. Furthermore, texture properties (firm and
- 182 elastic), including meat tenderness, fattiness, juiciness, and visually
- 183 estimated intramuscular fat, were considered.
- 184 When quality traits were expressed using different units of measurement
- in different studies, the data were converted to a common unit [mg·kg<sup>-1</sup>]
- DM to mg·kg<sup>-1</sup> fat for fat-soluble vitamins, g·100 g<sup>-1</sup> milk or g·100 g<sup>-1</sup> DM to
- 187 g·100 g<sup>-1</sup> FA for FA, 10<sup>6</sup> arbitrary area unit (AAU) to ln (natural logarithm)
- of AAU for terpenes, and 0-n to a 0-10 scale for sensory descriptors].

# Selection of management practices

- 190 As most studies focused on specific feeding practices, a common ground
- 191 for analysis was achieved by grouping them under four main feeding
- scenarios. The %DM of feedstuffs in the diet, representing the explanatory
- variables for the quantified effect, was also recorded.
- 194 The collected data were attributed to the following main feeding scenarios:
- 195 1. Inclusion of fresh herbage in the diet instead of feeding conserved
- forage and/or concentrates (*fresh herbage*)
- 197 2. Renunciation to feed any form of silages in conserved forage- or
- pasture-based systems during the winter period (but approval to feed
- 199 hay) (silage-free)
- 200 3. Renunciation to feed maize silage, including the winter periods in
- pasture-based systems, but approval to feed grass silage (maize silage-
- 202 *free*)

 Use of forages from permanent grasslands rich in species or plant secondary metabolites (PSM) instead of temporary grasslands dominated by grasses or poor in PSM (*PSM-rich permanent grasslands*).

Each main feeding scenario was analysed with the aim of quantifying the effects of feeding practices. Similarities and differences in effects for cattle and small ruminant meat or dairy products between controlled and on-farm conditions as well as possible confounding factors under on-farm conditions were highlighted.

#### Statistical analysis

For each study included in the statistical analysis, the mean across replicates, years, and other factors not addressed in the present review were computed for each feeding practice and considered a statistical unit. To evaluate the significance and extent of effect of the most frequent feeding scenario (inclusion of fresh herbage in the diet instead of feeding conserved forage and/or concentrates), a paired sample t-test was performed for each quality trait within each PC. When the paired sample t-test detected significant differences in a quality trait within a PC, the percent relative change ( $\Delta$ %) for each data pair was calculated as follows:

$$222 \Delta\% = \frac{X1 - X0}{X0} \times 100$$

where X0 is the reference value and X1 is the value to be compared with X0.

Then, general linear model (GLM) analysis was performed, considering the respective DM  $\Delta\%$  of fresh herbage in the diet as a covariate. PC and their interactions with the covariate were included as the fixed effects to estimate the differences among PC and detecting various responses to the corresponding feeding practice. Considering the great variability of experimental conditions in different studies included, eight or more cases was considered the minimum number for each PC to be included in the GLM analysis. Bonferroni post hoc test was performed to analyse differences in PC and their interactions with the covariate (respective DM  $\Delta\%$  of fresh herbage in the diet). For other main feeding scenarios, sufficient data were not available to perform the same analysis. All the statistical analyses were performed using Minitab v. 14.1 (Minitab Inc., State College, PA, USA).

#### Results and discussion

#### Structure of the dataset

Among all farming practices considered in this review, the effect of fresh herbage inclusion in animal diets was the most studied under on-farm conditions, but the number of available data varied according to the PCs and quality traits considered. Overall, DC was the most studied category (40 studies), followed by MS and DS (22 and 18 studies, respectively). However, there were a few studies on DG (12 studies) and very few on MC (5 studies); there was no study on goat meat. Furthermore, the studies assessed the effects of feeding hay instead of silage or grass silage

instead of maize silage under on-farm conditions on DC alone, and studies on other PCs were lacking. Moreover, the studies assessed the effects of pasture plant diversity under on-farm conditions on DC, DS, and MS alone. Furthermore, among the various quality traits, major FA composition of dairy and meat products was the most widely studied for all farming management practices analysed (61 studies), followed by colour and carotenoids (18 studies), sensory characteristics (11 studies), and total terpene content (7 studies). The fresh herbage proportion (%DM) of animal diet in the dataset used to investigate the 'fresh herbage' feeding scenario showed marked differences between the "fresh herbage" and the "conserved forages" groups (Table 1); its average proportion in the fresh herbage group ranged between 61 and 100% within a PC, with a mean paired-sample difference of 54-94%. The fresh herbage proportion of animal diet in the dataset used to test the 'PSM-rich permanent grasslands' feeding scenario was comparable between the high- and low-biodiversity groups, regardless of the PC (85-100%, with a mean paired-sample difference of 1-2%; Table 1). Regarding the 'silage-free' feeding scenario, the proportion (%DM) of hay in dairy cattle diet was 61 ± 21.3% (average ± standard deviation; range: 41-100%) and 8  $\pm$  8.1% (range: 0-28%) in the hay and silage groups, respectively, with a paired-sample difference of 53 ± 24.0% (range: 25-100%). In the 'maize silage-free' feeding scenario, the grass silage proportion (%DM) of dairy cattle diet was 48 ± 12.4% (range 31-

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271 61%) and 6  $\pm$  7.3% (range: 0-18%) in the grass silage and maize silage 272 groups, respectively, with a paired-sample difference of 46  $\pm$  12.4% (range 273 31-91%). Conversely, the maize silage proportion (%DM) was 1  $\pm$  1.9 % 274 (range 0-4%) and 49  $\pm$  12.7% (range 39-60%) in the grass silage and 275 maize silage groups, respectively, with a paired-sample difference of 49  $\pm$ 276 14.8% (range 39-59%).

#### Fresh herbage vs. conserved forage and concentrates

# 278 Carotenoids and colour

A fresh herbage-containing diet increased the content of all carotenoids in dairy and meat products (except retinol content in DC) compared with the conserved forage (Table 2). This may be because carotenoids in herbage are photodegraded during forage harvesting and drying (Nozière *et al.*, 2006). For DC,  $\Delta$ % was +30% for  $\alpha$ -tocopherol, +41% for  $\beta$ -carotene, +45% for zeaxanthin, and +63% for lutein. The  $\alpha$ -tocopherol and  $\beta$ -carotene content increased by respectively 0.9% and 1.8% per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet (R² = 0.67 and 0.82, respectively; Table 3). The extent of these differences is consistent with the findings of controlled trials (Nozière *et al.*, 2006; Prache *et al.*, 2020). For DG, a similar increase was noted for retinol content and a much larger increase for  $\alpha$ -tocopherol content (approximately +480%). This may be because only four data sources were available for DG, mostly from studies conducted in Mediterranean shrubby areas, where shrub leaves contain high amounts of  $\alpha$ -tocopherol precursors to prevent

photooxidative damage in arid environments (Gratani and Varone, 2014). Fresh herbage inclusion in animal diet also increased α-tocopherol content (by 73%) in MS. The lack of difference in retinol content in DC contradicts the increase in its content with fresh herbage inclusion in the diet found in controlled trials (Nozière et al., 2006). However, Chassaing et al. (2016) highlighted the variability in the retinol content of milk in cattle receiving conserved forage on commercial farms. Indeed, grass silage contains more retinol than hay (Nozière et al., 2006). Although carotenoid content is related to colour (Nozière et al., 2006; Luciano et al., 2009), no significant difference in b\*, a\*, or L\* value were found in products derived from animals fed on fresh herbage and conserved forage. The sole exception was the yellower products of grazed DG (+20%). This overall lack of colour differences regardless of significant differences in carotenoid content is unexpected and difficult to explain. This could partially be due to the structure of the dataset. Indeed, carotenoids and colour were extracted by different studies given the lack of studies reporting the results for both. Although correlated, both colour and carotenoid content strongly vary according to the forage type and characteristics (later discussed) (Nozière et al., 2006), inducing high variability and probably concurring to confound the effect under a certain feeding scenario. Furthermore, carotenoids are usually expressed on fat unit, whereas colour is measured on the whole products; different fat or fat

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on dry matter contents could have contributed to weaken colour differences.

#### Terpenoids

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A fresh herbage-containing diet increased monoterpene (+10%) and total terpene (+5%) content in DS compared with conserved forage. A similar tendency (P < 0.1) was also observed for monoterpenes in DC (+9%). Terpenes are PSM that are particularly abundant in dicots (Mariaca et al., 1997) and can be transferred directly from herbage to milk and then to cheese (Tornambé et al., 2006). Being volatile, some of these compounds are lost during forage harvesting and conservation, resulting in a lower terpene content in dairy products derived from animals fed conserved forage in controlled trials (Croissant et al., 2007; Cabiddu et al., 2019). Thus, it was quite unexpected that neither monoterpenes nor total terpenes in DC and sesquiterpenes in DS were affected by the presence of fresh herbage in the animal diet. This lack of differences, contrary to that observed in controlled trials, could be attributed to several confounding factors, such as forage characteristics (discussed later) and the terpene analytical methods used, which makes it difficult to generalise the differences found in single studies (Abilleira et al., 2010).

# Fatty acids

Not all FA showed significant differences in all PCs (Table 4). Feeding fresh herbage similarly affected the content of several FA in both dairy and meat products. Specifically, it reduced the content of C16:0 (between -6%

and -10%) and SFA (approximately -5%) in dairy products of all studied animals (not significant for SFA in DG) and meat products of sheep (-5% and -6%, respectively) (Table 4). This effect of fresh herbage in animal diets on reducing the C16:0 content of meat and dairy products is welldocumented under controlled conditions (Elgersma et al., 2015; Daley et al., 2010; Sinclair, 2007), although it appears to be stronger than that found in the present study (between -11 and -31% for both in DC) (Ferlay et al., 2006; Cabiddu et al., 2019). C16:0 is partially derived from intake, and its content is low in fresh herbage (Elgersma et al., 2015). It is also partially synthesised de novo in the mammary gland and partially inhibited when high amounts of PUFA are transferred to the mammary gland (Elgersma et al., 2015). In our study, the C16:0 and SFA content decreased by respectively -0.2% and -0.1% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet, regardless of the PC (Table 3). The BCFA (content) of the products of DC increased when the animals were fed fresh herbage rather than conserved forage (+11%; Table 4). These FA are derived from ruminal cellulolytic bacteria (Buccioni et al., 2012). In controlled trials (Couvreur et al., 2006; Ferlay et al., 2006), their content in the milk of fresh herbage-fed cattle has been reported to be higher because of the higher cellulose and hemicellulose content and fibre digestibility of fresh herbage than of conserved forage (Couvreur et al., 2006; Ferlay et al., 2006).

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Feeding fresh herbage instead of conserved forage increased the C18:1cis9 and MUFA content in DC (+7% and +9%, respectively) and DS (+13% and +17%, respectively), but did not affect the content of these FA in meat, except for MUFA in MS (+6%) (Table 4). The C18:1cis9 content of dairy products and that of MUFA in MS increased linearly by 0.2% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of diet. A high C18:1cis9 content of animal products is related to fresh herbage intake (Elgersma et al., 2015). However, this FA is derived from multiple pathways. It can originate from lipid mobilisation or mammary  $\Delta^9$ -desaturase action (Chilliard et al., 2007). The C18:1cis9/C16:0 ratio increased with the increasing proportion of fresh herbage in DC (+17%) and DS (+22%); this was expected because of the abovementioned results of single FA. Its value increased by 0.3% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet. This ratio, also called the spreadability index, is related to the texture and sensory properties of dairy products (Hurtaud et al., 2009; Giaccone et al., 2016; Chilliard et al., 2007). Furthermore, feeding fresh herbage strongly increased the content of C18:3n-3, the major FA of fresh herbage (Elgersma et al., 2015), in both dairy and meat products of all species studied (+41% and +73%, respectively) (Table 4). However, it decreased the C18:2n-6 content of dairy (-14% in DC) and meat (between -15 and -18%). The C18:3n-3 content linearly increased by 1.1% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet, regardless of the animal product (R<sup>2</sup> =

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0.42; Table 3). Similar results were observed for C18:2n-6 (-0.2 % per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet), although the model fit was poor ( $R^2 = 0.12$ ; Table 3). The C18:2n-6 is the second major constituent of herbage lipids, but it is also abundant in maize silage and cereal concentrates (Elgersma et al., 2015). This implies that its content in various products also depends on the type and proportion of conserved forage and concentrate in the diet (Chilliard et al., 2007; Daley et al., 2010; Sinclair, 2007). According to the differences observed for C18:3n-3 and C18:2n-6, their ratio greatly increased (between 52 and 71% in dairy products and between 77 and 124% in meat) when fresh herbage was provided instead of conserved forages (Table 4). This ratio linearly increased by 1.1% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet, regardless of the animal products ( $R^2 = 0.65$ ; Table 3). The observed increase in the C18:3n-3 content by feeding fresh herbagebased diets was greater (between 80 and 150%) in controlled trials (Couvreur et al., 2006; Biondi et al., 2008; Daley et al., 2010, Scerra et al., 2011); however, the trend was similar, albeit sometimes not significant, for C18:2n-6 (Couvreur et al. 2006; Khanal et al., 2008), largely depending on the type of conserved forage and concentrate. Compared to that in conserved forage, C18:3n-3 in fresh herbage can be more efficiently transferred to the animal products, as this FA is allocated to the membrane lipids (Buccioni et al., 2012).

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406 The C18:1trans11 and CLAcis9trans11 content increased by respectively 407 72% and 94% in dairy products with the inclusion of fresh herbage in animal diet (Table 4), consistent with the increase in C18:3n-3 and 408 409 C18:2n-6 content. In fact, C18:3n-3 and C18:2n-6 are partially biohydrogenated to C18:1trans11 (Buccioni et al., 2012), which is 410 411 desaturated in the mammary gland to CLAcis9trans11 (Chilliard et al., 2007). Similarly, the C18:1trans11 content was significantly increased in 412 MS (+59%) and the CLAcis9trans11 content was increased in MC (+48%) 413 414 when the animals were fed fresh herbage. Such increases for both FA 415 have also been reported in controlled trials, albeit with a greater variability. 416 Ferlay et al. (2006) and Coppa et al. (2015) have reported consistent 417 increases under on-farm conditions, while other studies have reported larger increases (between +150 and +478% for C18:1trans11 and 418 419 between +177 and +380%, with an extreme of +16% at the lower range, for CLAcis9trans11) (Khanal et al., 2008; Biondi et al., 2008; Daley et al., 420 421 2010). The C18:1trans11 content in all PCs linearly increased by 2.1% 422 with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet (R<sup>2</sup> = 423 0.64; P < 0.01, Table 3). The CLAcis9trans11 content showed different increasing trends between dairy and meat products; in the former, it 424 425 linearly increased by 0.7% and 0.6% with per unit increase in the fresh 426 herbage proportion of cattle and sheep diets, respectively, not differing 427 between dairy product category, but the slope coefficient of 428 CLAcis9trans11 in MC was not significant (Table 3). This difference in MC

could be due to the lower activity of  $\Delta^9$ -desaturase in the adipose tissue than in the mammary gland (Chilliard et al. 2007) or partially due to the heterogeneity of the dataset in terms of animal age and sex (De la Torre et al., 2006), coupled with a relatively low number (8) of available studies. The PUFA content in dairy products increased between 17 and 23% with a fresh herbage-based diet (Table 4), whereas no effect was observed for meat. Its content in all dairy products increased by 0.6% with per unit increase in the fresh herbage proportion of animal diet ( $R^2 = 0.57$ ; P < 0.01) (Table 3). These results are consistent with those of controlled trials on cattle (Chilliard et al. 2007) and goats (Mancilla-Leyton et al. 2013), although controversial results have been reported for DS, perhaps because of the variability induced by mixed diets, as discussed later (Biondi et al. 2008; Cabiddu et al. 2019). Such an increase of PUFA content in dairy products is relevant both for the sensory properties of milk and cheese and for human nutrition, as an increase in PUFA intake is considered a preventive factor against cardiovascular diseases. High PUFA content in dairy products has been associated to a less firm and more melting texture and to a greater richness in odour active compounds and sensory descriptors (Hurtaud et al., 2009; Giaccone et al., 2016; Frétin et al., 2018).

#### 449 Sensory properties

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The evaluation of sensory properties of several diverse dairy and meat products is a scientific challenge, as sensory descriptors are often specific

to a single product. The choice of grouping specific and heterogeneous sensory descriptors in sensory families implied an increase in the variability of the dataset. This is particularly the case for different cheese types, as the cheesemaking technology employed is one of the most influential factors for the sensory profile of cheese (Martin et al., 2005). Thus, a substantial loss of the significance of the effect of farming practices was expected. However, several sensory families of dairy and meat products were affected by the inclusion of fresh herbage in animal diets (Table 5). This diet tended (P < 0.1) to make the meat more elastic in DS (+18%) than conserved forage, which is consistent with the results of the C18:1cis9/C16:0 ratio and MUFA and PUFA content (Martin et al., 2005; Hurtaud et al., 2009; Frétin et al., 2019). Differences in cheese texture between fresh herbage and conserved forage diets and across cheesemaking processes (Martin et al., 2005; Farruggia et al., 2014) have been well documented in controlled trials. As such, cheese derived from fresh herbage-fed animals is less firm and more elastic and melts more easily. However, the lack of effect on cheese texture under on-farm conditions is not surprising. Cheesemakers can indeed reduce textural variations by adapting curd draining. Conversely, flavour, odour, and taste are more difficult to control, as shown by the differences we observed in these traits under on-farm conditions. In particular, fresh herbage-based diets reduced lactic notes in cheese compared with conserved forage for both DC and DS (-10% and -21%, respectively; Table 5). Under controlled

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475 conditions, cheese lactic notes were suppressed with a reduction of fresh herbage proportion of diet in DC and DS (Giaccone et al., 2016; 476 477 Valdivieslo et al., 2016). Fresh herbage inclusion in diet increased vegetal family notes for DC 478 479 (+30%). Giaccone et al. (2016) showed that cheese derived from grazing cattle had more pronounced vegetal notes, which may be related to the 480 481 high unsaturated FA (UFA) content of cheese. The authors hypothesised that the oxidation of UFA, which have a low oxidative stability, produces 482 483 several odour-active compounds during cheese ripening, such as 484 alcohols, esters, aldehydes, and ketones, which are associated with vegetal and herbaceous notes. However, Frétin et al. (2019) have 485 486 proposed a microbial origin of such flavour differences related to fresh 487 herbage inclusion in cattle diets. Fresh herbage increased animal family 488 notes in MS compared with conserved forage (+12%; Table 5). Fresh 489 herbage increased the indole and skatole content of sheep meat 490 compared with conserved forages (Vasta et al., 2006; Schreurs et al. 491 2007). Skatole is produced by ruminal bacteria-mediated degradation of 492 tryptophan, and its availability increases with a high protein content and 493 high protein/readily digestible carbohydrate ratio, as in fresh herbage-494 based diet (Vasta et al., 2006). 495 Intramuscular fat in meat sheep decreased when animals were fed fresh herbage (-31%). A number of intrinsic (age, breed, and sex) and extrinsic 496 497 factors (pasture quality and physical activity) may contribute to the variation in intramuscular fat deposition (De Brito *et al.*, 2016). According to Gallo *et al.* (2019), the overall lack of concentrates in diet of grazing sheep reduces the availability of propionate at the ruminal level, which is a precursor of glucose and glycogen at the muscular level. Moreover, enhanced lipid mobilisation due to a lower energy intake may favour lean muscle deposition in grazing animals.

#### Hay vs. silage

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Feeding grass silage instead of hay increased the α-tocopherol content in DC (+10%; Table 6). This may be due to shorter exposure to photodegrading UV light during silage making (Noziere et al., 2006). Furthermore, when herbage is ensiled, it is often harvested at an earlier phenological stage than hay, and the content of α-tocopherol in herbage decreases with herbage maturation, with a pivotal role played by the decreased stem/leaf ratio (Noziere et al., 2006). However, although this decrease was common to all carotenoids, no differences in β-carotene and retinol content were observed between silage and hay. Feeding hay instead of silage increased the content of C18:1trans11 (+19%), CLAcis9trans11 (+18%), and BCFA (+14%), while slightly increasing trends were observed for the C18:3n-3 content and C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6 ratio (+17% and +20%, respectively, both P < 0.1) (Table 6). These findings corroborate the results obtained under controlled conditions, although the extent of increase under the controlled conditions was higher (between 22% and 48% for all listed FA; Ferlay et al., 2006). The FA profile of milk derived from hay-fed animals was consistent with a higher transfer rate of C18:3n-3 from a hay-based than a silage-based diet (Chilliard *et al.*, 2007). In addition, maize silage was poor in C18:3n-3 but rich in C18:2n-6, which differently affected milk FA profiles depending to the type of silage (grass or maize) fed to the animals.

#### Grass silage vs. maize silage

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The α-tocopherol and β-carotene content in DC did not differ between maize silage- and grass silage-based diets (Table 7). Although milk derived from animals fed maize silage-based diets is poor in α-tocopherol (Stergiadis et al., 2015; Botana et al. 2018), maize silage is often not the exclusive conserved forage under on-farm conditions, and grass silage is also present in non-negligible proportions in cattle diet, particularly in intensive farming systems (Stergiadis et al., 2015). Indeed, Botana et al. (2018) showed that diets containing exclusively maize or grass silage as forage led to differences in the vitamin and carotenoid content of milk. Feeding grass silage instead of maize silage decreased the milk content of C16:0 (-4%; *P* < 0.1) and of C18:2n-6 (-9%) but increased in milk content of C18:3n-3 (+34%), CLAcis9trans11 (+24%; P < 0.1), PUFA (+7%), BCFA (+15%) as well as the ratio of C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6 (+39%) in DC. The extent of these changes was consistent with findings obtained under controlled trials (Ferlay et al., 2006; Chilliard et al., 2007; Khanal et al. 2008). Furthermore, maize silage is rich in starch, and a shift in the

ruminal population from cellulolytic to amylolytic bacteria reduces the BCFA content of milk (Buccioni *et al.*, 2012).

#### Permanent grasslands rich in species or in plant secondary

# metabolites vs. temporary grasslands

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547 Most experiments related to the effects of pasture plant diversity have 548 revealed significant differences in quality traits such as terpenes, FA, 549 carotenoids, and sensory properties (among others Ferlay et al., 2006; Tornambé et al., 2006; Cabiddu et al., 2019; Serrano et al., 2011). 550 551 However, under on-farm conditions, increasing plant diversity tended to decrease retinol content (-10%; P < 0.1) in DC (Table 8). The results for 552 553 carotenoids are consistent with those for colour. 554 Similarly, although a number of experimental studies have shown that the terpene content of dairy products was strongly affected by grassland 555 556 biodiversity (Abilleira et al., 2010; Bovolenta et al. 2014), no difference in 557 terpene content in dairy products was detected depending on the 558 biodiversity of grazed pastures (Table 8). 559 Grazing on permanent grasslands with a high plant diversity rather than on 560 temporary grassland with a low diversity reduced the C16:0 content in MS 561 (-11%). Sheep operate a remarkable selection of forage plants to meet 562 their nutritive requirements (Villalba et al., 2011). A greater herbage species diversity in permanent grasslands may promote their selective 563 564 behaviour toward patches with a high nutritive value and abundant PUFA.

thus modifying the FA composition of the ingested diet in the favour of

566 PUFA and decreasing the accumulation of *de novo*-synthesised FA.

The high botanical diversity of pastures decreased the SFA content (-4%)

568 but increased the C18:1trans11 (+10%), C18:1cis9/C16:0 (+13%),

569 C18:2n-6 (+10%), C18:3n-3 (+13%), CLAcis9trans11 (+15%), MUFA

(+7%), and PUFA (+13%) content and the C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6 (+6%) ratio

571 in DC. It also increased the C18:2n-6 (+10%), C18:3n-3 (+19%),

572 CLAcis9trans11 (+15%), MUFA (+3 %), and PUFA (+15%) content in DS

(Table 9). Similar results for these FA have been reported under controlled

conditions, albeit at greater extents (between 29 and 53%; Farruggia et

575 al., 2014; Cabiddu et al., 2019). The high concentration of unsaturated FA

(notably C18:3n-3, C18:2n-6, and their ruminal biohydrogenation

intermediates) is consistent with the partial inhibition of ruminal microbial

activity by PSMs, which are usually abundant in botanically diverse

pasture (Buccioni et al., 2012). Moreover, the greater outflow of PUFA

from the rumen as a result of the inhibition of biohydrogenation may have

reduced the deposition of C16:0 in MS.

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Grazing on pastures with a high plant diversity affected the sensory profile

of products in DC by increasing their intensity (+10%), spicy (+100%), and

animal (+57%; P < 0.1) notes (Table 8). These results are particularly

relevant as they corroborate some findings observed in controlled trials

(Farruggia et al., 2014; Bovolenta et al. 2014), although the extent of these

changes was much larger under on-farm conditions. This can partially be

due to the smaller cheese size and shorter ripening period often applied in controlled trials than in practices on commercial farms. Larger size changes the rind-paste ratio and slows microbial dynamics within a wheel. Indeed, cheeses from pastures with a high botanical diversity require longer ripening periods to fully develop their aromatic potential than those from temporary grassland, allowing differentiation in the sensory profile only after a long ripening period (Agabriel et al., 2004; Farruggia et al., 2014). There is no straightforward explanation for the effects of grassland biodiversity on hardness in MS. Highly diversified grasslands are rich in PSMs, which exhibit strong antioxidant activity (Vasta and Priolo, 2006). Therefore, a greater intake of PSM may protect phospholipids from oxidative damage to a greater extent in the cell membranes in the muscle of sheep grazing on diversified pasture, which may in turn improve water retention. In addition, the difference in hardness could be due to the uneven availability of nutrients in the two types of pasture. In particular, the greater availability of plant species in highly diversified grasslands may enable (or favour) the selection of a more balanced diet in terms of nutrients and allow animals to reach the target slaughtering weight earlier. Factors weakening the effect of feeding management practices under

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# Factors weakening the effect of feeding management practices under on-farm conditions

Overall, we found differences in fewer traits between farming practices than did previous controlled trials. Furthermore, the extent of differences

611 observed here under on-farm conditions was generally lower than that 612 under controlled conditions. Indeed, several confounding factors may be 613 acting on farms, increasing variability and thus weakening the differences 614 observed in controlled trials (Bronkema et al., 2019; Coppa et al., 2019). 615 First, in controlled experiments, well-contrasted diets are usually 616 compared, whereas on-farm, diets are often characterised by other forage 617 components at a minor proportion relative to the dominant one (Coppa et al., 2019; Biondi et al., 2008; Monteils and Sibra, 2019). In particular, this 618 619 may explain the lack of differences in the retinol content of milk of animals 620 fed fresh herbage or conserved forage, as mineral supplements or concentrates, often enriched in vitamin A, may be added to such diets 621 622 (Nozière et al., 2006). The same may be true for the FA composition between hay- and silage-based diets, as different proportions of grass or 623 maize silage may be included in the animal diets (Ferlay et al., 2006; 624 Hurtaud et al., 2009; Chilliard et al., 2007; Minchin et al., 2010). In 625 626 addition, the level and type of concentrate supplementation may have 627 weakened the differences in the quality traits between the addressed practices within each feeding management scenario (Chilliard et al., 2007; 628 629 Minchin *et al.*, 2010). 630 Second, the characteristics of forage fed to animals, particularly of fresh 631 herbage, can significantly affect the extent of differences expected on the quality traits. Advanced phenological stages of herbage decreased the 632 633 content of C18:1trans 11, CLAcis9trans11, and C18:3n-3 but increased

the content of C16:0 in milk (Coppa et al., 2015; Cabiddu et al., 2019). The herbage and milk terpene content increased from the vegetative to flowering stage (Tornambé et al., 2006; Cabiddu et al., 2019), probably affecting the differences expected at the pasture biodiversity level. In addition, grazing selection by animals (Coppa et al., 2011; Coppa et al., 2015; Molle et al. 2017) may be considered a confounding factor, as it can change according to pasture botanical composition, plant morphology, maturity stage, slope, and grazing management (Coppa et al., 2011; Cabiddu et al., 2017). Under the availability of numerous species at different phenological stages, ruminants are expected to preferably select plants at an earlier developmental stage, which contain low levels of PSMs. Restriction of selection in grazing pastures with a high plant diversity increased the milk monoterpene content by up to 200% (Tornambé et al., 2006). Similarly, the milk SFA content changed by approximately 10% from the beginning to the end of a paddock (Coppa et al., 2015). Plant composition can also significantly affect the extent of differences expected in carotenoid and fat-soluble vitamin content of cattle milk (Bovolenta et al. 2014), as legumes usually have a lower α-tocopherol content but a higher β-carotene content than grasses (Nozière et al., 2006). Herbage terpene content is also highly variable between plant species (Mariaca et al., 1997; Cabiddu et al., 2019), conferring specific terpene fingerprints to dairy products (Bovolenta et al., 2014; Aprea et al. 2016). Accordingly, single terpenoids may allow for a more robust

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discrimination than total terpenes between animal products from grasslands with different biodiversity levels (Moran et al., 2019). However, for the same botanical intraspecific variability, this result of terpene profile is valuable only under controlled experimental conditions and cannot be generalised to on-farm conditions. Recently Renna et al. (2020) reported an important scientific upgrade on the effect of pasture characteristics on DC. The authors studied the hierarchy of herbage-related factors affecting milk FA composition. However, there is no such study for other quality traits and animal PCs. Finally, another important confounding factor may be the animal characteristics. Even if animal-related factors (e.g. lactation stage, breed, and parity) only marginally affect the quality traits of dairy products, this is not the case for meat (Prache et al., 2020). Animal breed, age, sex, and duration and type of the finishing period affect meat quality. In particular, fattening period duration and initial weight at the beginning of this period affect meat composition and sensory traits in small and large ruminants depending on the animal category (Soulat et al., 2016; De Brito et al., 2016). Regarding MS, studies conducted in different regions (both under controlled or on farm conditions) have drawn different conclusions, and their results should be generalised with caution. For instance, young male lambs are almost exclusively destined for a short fattening period in the Mediterranean regions, whereas older sheep of both sexes are slaughtered in Australia. Moreover, different levels of intramuscular fat

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affect the meat FA profile. In several studies aimed at comparing the effects of different feeding systems on meat FA, the diets offered to the animals were periodically adjusted to achieve comparable growth rates (Luciano *et al.*, 2009; Scerra *et al.*, 2011).

#### **Conclusions**

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To the best of our knowledge, this is the first quantitative review to investigate the effects of farming practices on a wide array of quality traits (carotenoids, fat-soluble vitamins, colour, FA, terpenes, and sensory properties) of dairy and meat products in cattle and small ruminants. The effects under controlled trials reported in the literature were corroborated on farms only for a part of the addressed quality traits, and when these differences were significant, the extent of effect under on-farm conditions was lower than under controlled conditions. Several confounding factors, for which there is no experimental control when operating on farm, may be the reason of these differences (i.e. mixed diets, phenological stage, and botanical composition of herbage, and animal-related factors). However, differences in several quality traits according to farming practices were confirmed. Specifically, feeding fresh herbage instead of conserved forage to animals affected the quality traits common to several PC, particularly FA composition, probably because of the higher number of studies conducted on farms on these quality traits. It is not surprising that differences between farming practices emerged more frequently for parameters with a higher number of available studies within a PC. However, the high

variability in the reference dataset resulting from the pooling of data obtained under heterogeneous conditions on farms could only be partially compensated by the high number of studies included in the statistical analysis. Further studies are required to reinforce the available knowledge on the effect of the studied farming practices: this is the case for meat products (MC in particular) and for all goat products.

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# **Ethics approval**

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# Data and model availability statement

Neither the data not the model were deposited in an official repository.

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#### **Author Contribution**

A. Cabiddu: validation, data curation, writing - original draft; G. Peratoner:

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#### **Declaration of interest**

732 None

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980 TABLES

Table 1. Fresh herbage proportion (%DM) in ruminants' diet according to the feeding scenario within each group.

_	•	rbag	e in the diet instead of fe	eding conserved forag	e and/or
concentr	ates				
Product	Animal species	n¹	Fresh Herbage group <sup>2</sup>	Conserved Forages group <sup>2</sup>	Paired sample difference <sup>2</sup>
	Cattle	66	61±22.7 (37-100)	8±24.4 (0-45)	54±21.1 (25-100)
Dairy	Sheep	50	85±21.1 (32-100)	7±15.5 (0-48)	78±21.2 (30-100)
	Goat	16	79±23.1 (48-100)	0±0 (0-0)	79±17.2 (48-100)
Meat	Cattle	12	66±20.5 (45-100)	0±0 (0-0)	66±20.5 (45-100)
ivieai	Sheep	Sheep 35 100±0.0 (100-100		6±19.3 (0-40)	94±20.8 (60-100)
Use of fo	rages fro	m pe	ermanent grasslands rich	n in species or PSM <sup>3</sup>	
Product	Animal High highly oreity/P		High biodiversity/PSM group <sup>2</sup>	Low biodiversity/PSM group <sup>2</sup>	Paired sample difference <sup>2</sup>
Doiny	Cattle	28	87±24.2 (30-100)	85±17.1 (32-100)	2±1.0 (0-10)
Dairy	Sheep	9	100±0.0 (100-100)	100±1.5 (97-100)	1±1.5 (0-3)
Meat	Sheep	14	93±13.2 (70-100)	95±18.3 (50-100)	2±3.8 (0-10)
1	ام کے سما				

<sup>983 &</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> n, number of data.

<sup>984 &</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> average ± standard deviation (minimum-maximum).

<sup>985 &</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> PSM, plant secondary metabolites.

Item	Product	Animal species	n¹	Fresh Herbage group	Conserved Forages group	SEM <sup>2</sup>	Significance <sup>3</sup>
Carotenoids and vitamins (mg/kg fat)							
	Dairy	Cattle	20	23.39	17.95	1.458	**
α-Tocopherol	•	Goat	3	37.20	6.37	0.306	***
	Meat	Sheep	3	5.88	3.39	0.155	
Retinol	Dairy	Cattle	7	6.88	5.91	0.977	ns *
O Caratana	•	Goat	3	9.17	7.20	0.503	**
β-Carotene Lutein	Dairy Dairy	Cattle Cattle	18 8	6.20 0.67	4.40 0.41	0.579 0.101	*
Zeaxanthin	Dairy	Cattle	7	0.07	0.41	0.101	†
	•	Cattle	3	12.48	11.32	2.419	ı ns
Terpenes tot (In AAU)	Dairy	Sheep	5	18.84	17.88	0.289	*
	<b>.</b> .	Cattle	3	11.22	10.34	2.937	†
Monoterpenes tot (In AAU)	Dairy	Sheep	5	17.99	16.36	0.33	**
Constitute and a section (Inc. A.A.I.I.)	D !	Cattle	3	11.73	9.67	1.820	ns
Sesquiterpenes tot (In AAU)	Dairy	Sheep	5	18.85	10.38	5.170	ns
Colour							
	Dairy	Cattle	9	15.99	14.76	3.134	ns
b*	Dany	Goat	4	2.56	2.14	0.288	*
D	Meat	Cattle	4	11.25	10.80	0.318	ns
		Sheep	8	6.38	6.40	1.088	ns
	Dairy	Cattle	9	-1.85	-2.08	0.693	ns
a*	Meat	Cattle	4	21.95	21.80	0.952	ns
		Sheep	10	13.10	13.24	0.881	ns
	Dairy	Cattle	9	76.30	76.88	2.590	ns
L*	Meat	Cattle	4	39.30	38.10	0.346	† **
pH 24h	Meat	Sheep Sheep	10 14	40.65 5.72	42.78 5.72	1.429 0.070	ns

<sup>990 &</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> n, number of data.

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<sup>991 &</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean; AUU, arbitrary area units.

<sup>992</sup>  $^3$  \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi ant.

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		Produ	ct category		Δ% fresh herba	age		SE <sup>3</sup>		Sig	nificance (S	Sign.) <sup>4</sup>
Item <sup>1</sup>	Product	Animal species	Intercept (± SE)	Sign.	Covariate coefficient (± SE)	Sign.	N <sup>2</sup>	model	R <sup>2</sup>	Product category	Δ% fresh herbage	Interaction
Carotenoids and vitamins												
α-Tocopherol	Dairy	Cattle	-9.1 (± 6.33)	ns	0.9 (± 0.14)	***	20	12.37	0.67	nd	***	nd
β-Carotene	Dairy	Cattle	-26.6 (± 9.39)	*	1.8 (± 0.21)	***	18	18.85	0.82	nd	***	nd
Fatty acids												
		Cattle	-5.4 (± 0.99) °	***			42					
C16:0	Dairy	Goat	2.5 (± 1.39) ab	ns	-0.2 (± 0.02)	***	10	5.39	0.38	***	***	ns
C10.0		Sheep	-3 (± 1.19) bc	ns	-0.2 (± 0.02)		25	5.55	0.50			113
	Meat	Sheep	5.9 (± 3.17) a	**			17					
C18:1trans11	Dairy	Cattle Sheep	-22.1 (± 11.86)	†	2.1 (± 0.22)	***	41 24	37.78	0.64	ns	***	ns
C18:1cis9	Dairy	Cattle Sheep	4.3 (± 3.42)	*	0.2 (± 0.04)	***	42 25	8.52	0.38	***	**	ns
	Dairy	Cattle					41					
C18:2n-6	Meat	Cattle Sheep	1.1 (± 4.27)	ns	-0.2 (± 0.07)	**	26 8	15.53	0.12	ns	**	ns
		Cattle					48					
	Dairy	Goat					10					
C18:3n-3	•	Sheep	-8 (± 8.58)	ns	1.1 (± 0.13)	***	26	35.93	0.42	ns	***	ns
	Maat	Cattle	, ,		,		8					
	Meat	Sheep					19					
CLAcis9trans11	Dairy	Cattle Sheep	0.7 (± 14.3)	ns	0.7 (± 0.25) a 0.6 (± 0.25) a	*	53 26	3672	0.65	ns	***	*

	Meat	Cattle			0.2 (± 0.13) b	ns	8					
SFA	Dairy	Cattle Sheep	0 (± 0.54) a -2.4 (± 0.6) b	ns ***	-0.1 (± 0.01)	***	50 25	2.94	0.44	**	***	ns
	Meat	Cattle	2.4 (± 1.65) a	**	(= 0.01)		8		•			
	Doiru	Cattle	-1.3 (± 1.67) b	ns			50					
MUFA	Dairy	Sheep	7.9 (± 1.93) a	***	0.2 (± 0.04)	***	24	9.99	0.32	**	**	ns
	Meat	Sheep	-6.6 (± 5) b	*			11					
		Cattle					50					
PUFA	Dairy	Goat	-12.4 (± 3.99)	**	0.6 (± 0.07)	***	10	14.6	0.57	ns	***	ns
		Sheep					25					
C18:1cis9/C16:0	Dairy	Cattle Sheep	11.1 (± 3.98)	*	0.3 (± 0.06)	***	47 25	12.88	0.30	**	***	ns
		Cattle	24 (± 7.64)	**			41					
	Dairy	Goat	-35 (± 11.41)	**			10					
C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6	,	Sheep	27.9 (± 8.54)	**	2.1 (± 0.17)	***	26	39.4	0.65	***	***	ns
	14	Cattle	4.9 (± 12.6)	ns	, ,		8					
	Meat	Sheep	-21.9 (± 20.77)	*			19					

998 This is a straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0, MUFA, sum of monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0, MUFA, sum of monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of monounsaturated FA for

999 polyunsaturated FA form C18:2 to C22:6.

1000 <sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

1001 <sup>3</sup> SE, standard error.

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1002 <sup>4</sup> \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi ant; nd: not determinable.

		Goat Sheep	10 22	0.73 0.92	0.69 0.75	0.087 0.493	ns ***
	Moot	Cattle	4	1.47	1.41	0.070	ns
	Meat	Sheep	16	1.61	1.56	0.069	ns
		Cattle	41	0.53	0.33	0.036	***
	Dairy	Goat	10	0.34	0.22	0.036	***
C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6	-	Sheep	23	0.64	0.37	0.799	***
	Maat	Cattle	8	0.51	0.29	0.050	**
	Meat	Sheep	19	0.39	0.18	0.041	***

1007 This straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0, MUFA, sum of

monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of polyunsaturated FA

form C18:2 to C22:6, BCFA, sum of branched chain FA from C13:0-iso to C18:0-

1010 iso.

1011 <sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

1012 <sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean.

1013 <sup>4</sup> \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi □ant.

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**Table 5.** Effect of feeding fresh herbage instead of conserved forage and/or concentrates on the sensory properties of different animal products.

Item <sup>1</sup>	Product	Animal Species	n²	Fresh herbage group	Conserved Forages group	SEM <sup>3</sup>	Significance <sup>4</sup>
Elastic	Dairy	Cattle	4	2.54	2.44	1.120	ns
Liastic	Daliy	Sheep	3	3.40	2.80	0.200	†
Tenderness	Meat	Cattle	5	5.60	5.60	0.231	ns
	ivicat	Sheep	8	5.56	5.28	0.330	ns
	Dairy	Cattle	3	3.90	3.27	0.100	ns
Intensity	Dairy	Sheep	3	1.10	0.74	0.150	ns
intensity	Meat	Cattle	4	5.80	5.70	0.577	ns
		Sheep	10	4.75	3.99	0.375	ns
	Dairy	Cattle	17	3.01	3.34	0.361	*
Lactic		Sheep	6	2.22	2.80	0.381	*
	Meat	Sheep	6	3.13	3.72	0.517	ns
Vegetable	Dairy	Cattle	15	3.25	2.51	0.360	***
Brown	Dairy	Cattle	12	2.19	1.71	0.495	ns
Animal	Dairy	Cattle	8	2.64	2.23	0.859	ns
Allillai	Meat	Sheep	6	5.12	4.50	0.247	**
Others	Dairy	Cattle	15	3.00	2.65	0.539	†
Fattiness	Meat	Cattle	8	2.02	1.91	0.116	ns
Juiciness	Moot	Cattle	4	5.30	5.20	0.058	ns
Juiciness	Meat	Sheep	8	4.37	4.62	0.465	ns
Intramuscular fat	Meat	Sheep	8	1.94	2.81	0.370	*

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sensory properties were grouped under sensory families, as described by

Piccinali (2012), based on odour, flavour, and taste: intensity, lactic (acid, milk, yoghurt, cream, fermented cream, and butter), vegetable (grassy, boiled vegetables, garlic, and onion), "brown" (caramel, smoked, sweet, and vanilla), animal (animal, stable, barn, and manure), and others (salty, bitter, silage, mould, mothball, and cheese mite). Sensory traits data were converted to a common 0–10 scale.

<sup>1025 &</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean.

4 \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi □ant.

Table 6. Effect of feeding hay instead of silage on the quality traits of cattle dairy products.

Item <sup>1</sup>	n²	Hay group	Silage group	SEM <sup>3</sup>	Significance <sup>4</sup>
Carotenoids and vitamins (mg/kg fat)					_
α-Tocopherol	4	9.01	9.91	0.358	*
Retinol	4	5.73	5.84	0.945	ns
β-Carotene	3	2.46	2.65	0.930	ns
Fatty acids (g/100 g FA)					
C16:0	15	31.31	32.11	0.711	ns
C18:1trans11	12	1.23	1.00	0.090	*
C18:1cis9	14	19.10	18.52	0.569	ns
C18:2n-6	15	1.88	1.93	0.153	ns
C18:3n-3	15	0.54	0.45	0.043	†
CLAcis9trans11	15	0.58	0.47	0.032	*
SFA	15	65.95	66.61	2.610	ns
MUFA	15	25.42	25.07	0.714	ns
PUFA	15	3.69	3.49	0.217	ns
BCFA	12	1.83	1.57	0.193	*
C18:1cis9/C16:0	15	0.61	0.59	0.027	ns
C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6	15	0.33	0.26	0.034	<u> </u>

1 SFA, sum of straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0; MUFA, sum of

monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of polyunsaturated FA form C18:2 to C22:6, BCFA, sum of branched chain FA from C13:0-iso to C18:0-iso.

1036 <sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

1037 <sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean.

4 \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi□ant.

**Table 7.** Effect of feeding grass silage instead of maize silage on the quality traits of cattle dairy products.

Item <sup>1</sup>	n²	Grass silage group	Maize silage group	SEM <sup>3</sup>	Significance <sup>4</sup>
Carotenoids and vitamins (mg/kg fat)					
α-Tocopherol	3	14.26	13.98	5.455	ns
β-Carotene	3	6.68	3.11	0.965	ns
Fatty acids (g/100 g FA)					
C16:0	6	32.72	33.96	1.137	†
C18:1trans11	6	1.13	0.93	0.231	ns
C18:1cis9	6	17.80	17.32	0.875	ns
C18:2n-6	7	1.57	1.71	0.161	*
C18:3n-3	7	0.62	0.40	0.050	*
CLAcis9trans11	7	0.54	0.41	0.699	†
SFA	7	69.00	69.92	0.707	ns
MUFA	7	24.71	24.22	1.100	ns
PUFA	7	3.33	3.10	0.240	*
BCFA	5	1.91	1.62	0.287	*
C18:1cis9/C16:0	6	0.55	0.51	0.337	ns
C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6	7	0.41	0.25	0.044	*

<sup>1</sup> SFA, sum of straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0; MUFA, sum of

 $1045\,$  monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of polyunsaturated FA

form C18:2 to C22:6, BCFA, sum of branched chain FA from C13:0-iso to C18:0-

1047 iso.

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1048 <sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

1049 <sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean.

1050 4 \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not significant.

1051

**Table 8.** Effect of feeding forages from permanent grasslands, botanically diversified or rich in plant secondary metabolites (PSM) instead of temporary grasslands dominated by grasses on the carotenoids, fat-soluble vitamins, and terpene content, colour and sensory properties of different animal products.

Item <sup>1</sup>	Product	Animal species	n²	High biodiversity group	Low biodiversity group	SEM <sup>3</sup>	Significance <sup>4</sup>
Carotenoids and vitamins							
(mg/kg fat)							
α-Tocopherol	Dairy	Cattle	7	13.55	12.35	2.228	ns
Retinol	Dairy	Cattle	5	5.36	5.93	0.488	†
β-Carotene	Dairy	Cattle	7	5.23	3.87	0.919	ns
Terpenes tot (In AAU)	Dairy	Cattle	4	7.62	7.46	1.432	ns
Colour							
b*	Dairy	Cattle	4	15.79	15.68	4.114	ns
a*	Dairy	Cattle	4	-1.77	-1.66	1.086	ns
L*	Dairy	Cattle	4	76.28	77.60	3.169	ns
Sensory properties	,						
Hardness	Meat	Sheep	4	3.55	3.83	0.144	*
Tenderness	Meat	Sheep	4	6.45	6.10	0.212	ns
Intensity	Dairy	Cattle	4	4.11	3.74	0.094	*
Spicy	Dairy	Cattle	4	4.67	2.23	0.770	*
Animal	Dairy	Cattle	4	4.98	3.18	0.067	†
Othors	Dairy	Cattle	6	2.97	2.44	0.453	ns
Others	Meat	Sheep	10	2.94	2.98	0.484	ns
Fattiness	Meat	Sheep	10	12.93	10.95	3.845	ns
Juiciness	Meat	Sheep	10	13.39	11.36	3.732	ns

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Sensory properties were grouped under sensory families, as described by

Piccinali (2012), based on odour, flavour, and taste: intensity, spicy (clover, nutmeg, pepper, mint), animal (animal, stable, barn, and manure), and others (salty, bitter, silage, mould, mothball, and cheese mite). Sensory traits data were converted to a common 0–10 scale.

<sup>1063 &</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> n, number of data.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean; AUU, arbitrary area units.

4\*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi □ant.

**Table 9.** Effect of feeding forages from permanent grasslands, botanically diversified or rich in plant secondary metabolites (PSM) instead of temporary grasslands dominated by grasses on the fatty acid profile of different animal products.

Fatty acids	D l	Animal	- 2	High	Low	OEM2	0' 'f' 4
(g/100 g FA) <sup>1</sup>	Product	species	n²	biodiversity	biodiversity	SEM <sup>3</sup>	Significance <sup>4</sup>
		•	10	group	group	1 [ 17	
040.0	Dairy	Cattle	16	25.21	25.04	1.547	ns
C16:0	•	Sheep	8	20.94	21.62	0.669	ns *
	Meat	Sheep	14	21.63	24.27	1.083	**
040 41 44	Dairy	Cattle	12	3.37	3.07	0.190	
C18:1trans11	•	Sheep	9	5.18	4.49	0.487	ns
	Meat	Sheep	6	3.14	3.15	0.794	ns
010:1-:-0	Dairy	Cattle	19	22.63	21.78	1.347	ns
C18:1cis9	-	Sheep	8	19.02	19.17	0.536	ns
	Meat	Sheep	14	31.12	30.97	1.540	ns *
040.0 - 0	Dairy	Cattle	19	1.80	1.64	0.083	*
C18:2n-6	-	Sheep	9	2.46	2.23	0.142	
	Meat	Sheep	14	5.27	5.34	0.764	ns *
040.0 - 0	Dairy	Cattle	16	0.93	0.82	0.051	*
C18:3n-3		Sheep	9	1.61	1.35	0.080	
	Meat	Sheep	14	2.14	2.28	0.225	ns *
	Dairy	Cattle	19	1.40	1.22	0.092	
CLAcis9trans11		Sheep	9	2.48	2.15	0.219	†
	Meat	Sheep	10	0.92	0.86	0.090	ns **
054	Dairy	Cattle	18	60.51	62.63	1.164	
SFA	•	Sheep	8	65.70	65.94	2.714	ns
	Meat	Sheep	15	46.78	47.36	1.606	ns **
	Dairy	Cattle	16	31.81	29.86	0.904	*
MUFA	•	Sheep	8	24.68	24.03	0.558	
	Meat	Sheep	14	37.43	37.44	1.150	ns **
DUEA	Dairy	Cattle	18	5.43	4.82	0.267	*
PUFA	•	Sheep	8	6.71	5.82	0.417	
	Meat	Sheep	15	11.91	11.61	1.591	ns
BCFA	Dairy	Cattle	13	2.19	2.11	0.170	ns
	Meat	Sheep	5	5.74	5.48	0.585	ns **
040.4 - 1-0/040.0	Dairy	Cattle	16	0.90	0.79	0.036	
C18:1cis9/C16:0	-	Sheep	8	1.28	1.30	0.179	ns
	Meat	Sheep	8	0.19	1.17	0.125	ns *
0400 0/0400	Dairy	Cattle	16	0.56	0.53	0.027	
C18:3n-3/C18:2n-6	-	Sheep	8	0.67	0.62	0.056	ns
1 054	Meat	Sheep	14	0.57	0.61	0.141	ns

SFA, sum of straight-chain FA form C4:0 to C24:0; MUFA, sum of monounsaturated FA form C10:1 to C24:1; PUFA, sum of polyunsaturated FA form C18:2 to C22:6, BCFA, sum of branched chain FA from C13:0-iso to C18:0-iso.

- 1075 <sup>2</sup> n, number of studies.
- <sup>3</sup> SEM, standard error of the mean.
- $^{4}$  \*\*\*, P < 0.001; \*\*, P < 0.01; \*, P < 0.05; †, P < 0.1; ns, not signifi⊡ant.