

Responses of *Lotus corniculatus* to environmental change. 4: Root carbohydrate levels at defoliation and regrowth climatic conditions are major drivers of phenolic content and forage quality

by Morris, P., Carter, E.B., Hauck, B., Hughes, J.W., Allison, G. and Theodorou, M.

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Abstract:	<p>The unpredictable nature of proanthocyanidin (condensed tannin) accumulation in regrowth vegetation of the perennial forage legume Lotus corniculatus represents a dilemma to the wider use of this species in agriculture, and a potential problem in the nutritional ecology of some terrestrial herbivores, as variable condensed tannin levels can result in either beneficial or detrimental effects on animal nutrition. However, the source of this variation has not been extensively explore. High levels of carbon allocation to roots during low temperature preconditioning of clonal plants were found to significantly increase condensed tannin and flavonol levels in regrowth foliage, while low levels of carbon allocation to roots during periods of high temperature preconditioning significantly decreased condensed tannin and flavonol levels . Phenolic accumulation and tissue digestibility were also differentially affected by regrowth of these defoliated plants at high CO₂ concentrations and by drought. Lower rates of digestion generally paralleled increases in tannin levels in regrowth leaves under the different environmental conditions, with rates of digestion falling in high tannin plants, despite correspondingly higher levels of leaf carbohydrates. Differential accumulation of root carbohydrates between seasons and years may therefore explain some of the variability found in the nutritional quality of the forage of this species.</p>	

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1 **Responses of *Lotus corniculatus* to environmental change 4.** Root carbohydrate
2 levels at defoliation and regrowth climatic conditions are major drivers of phenolic
3 content and forage quality

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19 **Running title:** Responses of *Lotus corniculatus* to environmental change 4

20
21 **Abbreviations:** IVDMD - In vitro dry matter digestibility; NSCs - Non-structural
22 carbohydrates; TGA - Thioglycolic acid;

23
24 **Keywords:** Carbon allocation, Climate change, CO₂, Condensed tannins, Drought,
25 Digestibility, Flavonoids, Growth temperature, Lignin,

26 27 **Main Conclusion**

28 Differential accumulation of root carbohydrates at defoliation have a higher impact than
29 regrowth environmental conditions on the phenolic content and feed quality of the
30 perennial forage legume *Lotus corniculatus*

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31 **Abstract**

32 The unpredictable nature of proanthocyanidin (condensed tannin) accumulation in regrowth
33 vegetation of the perennial forage legume *Lotus corniculatus* represents a dilemma to the wider
34 use of this species in agriculture, and a potential problem in the nutritional ecology of some
35 terrestrial herbivores, as variable condensed tannin levels can result in either beneficial or
36 detrimental effects on animal nutrition. However, the source of this variation has not been
37 extensively explored.

38 High levels of carbon allocation to roots during low temperature preconditioning of clonal
39 plants were found to significantly increase condensed tannin and flavonol levels in regrowth
40 foliage, while low levels of carbon allocation to roots during periods of high temperature
41 preconditioning significantly decreased condensed tannin and flavonol levels. Phenolic
42 accumulation and tissue digestibility were also differentially affected by regrowth of these
43 defoliated plants at high CO₂ concentrations and by drought. Lower rates of digestion generally
44 paralleled increases in tannin levels in regrowth leaves under the different environmental
45 conditions, with rates of digestion falling in high tannin plants, despite correspondingly higher
46 levels of leaf carbohydrates.

47 Differential accumulation of root carbohydrates between seasons and years may therefore
48 explain some of the variability found in the nutritional quality of the forage of this species.

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50 **Introduction**

51 Stress induced accumulation of plant secondary metabolites by both abiotic and biotic factors
52 is well documented, as is the role of secondary metabolites in general herbivory and plant
53 survival fitness (Swain 1977; Rosenthal and Berenbaum 1992; Bennett and Wallsgrove 1994;
54 Dixon and Paiva 1995; Wink 2003; Iason 2005; Mithöfer and Bolla 2012; Ramakrishna and
55 Ravishankar 2013). Consequently, there is the potential for climate change to modify the levels
56 of plant secondary metabolites resulting in either deleterious levels appearing in food or feed,
57 or reduced levels compromising plant pathogen defence responses. However, not all anti-

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58 nutritional metabolites may necessarily be required for plant survival and not all plant defence
59 responses are likely to adversely affect plant nutritional quality. There is scope therefore for
60 beneficial interventions in plant breeding programmes to improve crop performance under
61 adverse environmental conditions. In order to formulate such strategies a more complete
62 understanding of the consequences of likely climate change on the accumulation of compounds
63 with potentially toxic, anti-nutritional or plant defence properties is required.

64 In relation to the perennial legume *Lotus corniculatus* (birdsfoot trefoil) both as a crop plant for
65 ruminant feed and as a widely distributed species supplying herbage for wild species, our
66 present understanding of the effects of environmental stress on secondary end product
67 accumulation is incomplete and changes in the environment could affect the biosynthesis of
68 secondary metabolites in these plants to a degree that may impact on forage intake, digestion
69 and animal health, and reduce the nutritive value of the vegetation. This is particularly important
70 when considering the accumulation of polyphenolic compounds such as proanthocyanidins
71 (condensed tannins).

72 Condensed tannins are considered anti-nutritional at high concentrations (above 4-5% dry
73 weight) because they reduce both digestibility and palatability (Barry and Duncan, 1984). In
74 contrast, at low concentrations (2-3% dry weight) some condensed tannins are considered
75 beneficial to ruminants as they bind to plant proteins and protect them from deamination by
76 microbes present in the rumen, which reduces the possibility of bloat and increases the amount
77 of protein available for post-ruminal digestion and absorption (Barry and Manley 1984;
78 Waghorn et al. 1987), while some non ruminants use salivary proteins with high affinity with
79 condensed tannins to cope with low concentrations of anti-nutritional dietary tannins (reviewed
80 by Mueller Harvey 2006). Other mechanisms adopted by non-ruminant vertebrates to deal with
81 condensed tannins and other plant secondary metabolites, have been extensively discussed by
82 Dearing et al. (2005).

83 However, *Lotus corniculatus* is not currently extensively used as a forage crop as there are
84 difficulties associated with plant establishment (Van Keuren, and Davis 1968; Taylor et al.

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85 1973) and with the variability and unpredictability of the levels of condensed tannins in the
86 harvestable tissues.

87 It is not surprising therefore to find a considerable interest in manipulating the biosynthesis of
88 condensed tannins in an attempt to improve forage quality. Leaf tannin production in *Lotus*
89 *corniculatus* is inherited as a monogenic dominant with tetrasomic inheritance, and a genetic
90 polymorphism for tannin production in *Lotus corniculatus* results in some individuals that do
91 not produce leaf tannins, while in others tannin production is constitutive (Ross and Jones
92 1983).

93 Several environmental factors implicated in climate change such as temperature, drought and
94 atmospheric CO₂ concentrations affect the accumulation of plant phenolics in forage legumes.
95 Increases in the accumulation of condensed tannins under controlled high temperature
96 conditions were found in *Lotus pedunculatus* (Lees et al. 1994), but not in *L. corniculatus*
97 (Ehike and LeGare 1993; Carter et al. 1999) and the optimum temperature and light intensity
98 for *L. corniculatus* growth and phenolic accumulation has been determined in three clonal
99 genotypes that varied in their tannin content (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)). However, only a few
100 studies have considered the effects of environmentally induced changes in condensed tannins
101 biosynthesis on the nutritional quality of forage legumes. In one study the effects of elevated
102 temperature, CO₂ and drought on the nutritive value of *L. corniculatus* in relation to condensed
103 tannin accumulation showed that decreasing the growth temperature from 25°C to 18°C resulted
104 in an increase in leaf, stem and root condensed tannins as well as in the levels of soluble and
105 storage carbohydrates in these tissues, both at normal and at elevated CO₂ levels and under
106 drought conditions (Carter et al. 1999). Analysis of tissue digestibility showed that the nutritive
107 value of the leaves was inversely related to condensed tannin levels and that a negative
108 relationship existed between condensed tannin of more than 30 g per kg dry weight and the
109 initial rates of gas evolution when subjected to in-vitro fermentation by micro-organisms
110 (Carter et al. 1999).

111 Herbaceous C₃ plants grown in elevated CO₂ show increases in carbohydrate and starch
112 accumulation within source leaves, with changes in C partitioning between root and shoot.

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113 Root: shoot ratios tend to increase in CO₂-enriched plants but in contrast, increased
114 temperatures tend to decrease both root:shoot ratios and carbohydrate accumulation in source
115 and sink organs (Farrar and Williams 1991). However, increasing temperature with CO₂-
116 enriched plants generally increases sucrose synthesis, and carbohydrate accumulation in the
117 leaves (Farrar and Williams 1991). Metabolism of reserve carbohydrates, such as starch
118 accumulated in taproots of *Lotus corniculatus*, is thought to be essential for regrowth following
119 defoliation and for tolerance to environmental stress with taproot starch concentrations declined
120 in defoliated plants, while increasing in taproots of undefoliated plants (Boyce et al. 1992). For
121 example, *Lotus corniculatus* grown at 18°C exhibited typical carbohydrate root reserve cycles
122 but plants grown at 32°C did not restore their root starch reserves (Nelson and Smith 1968).

123 A positive correlation has been found between spring herbage yields and the mean nonstructural
124 carbohydrate level of the two preceding years, and it was suggested that there is a cumulative
125 effect of carbohydrate levels on growth of *Lotus corniculatus*, and that management practises
126 and breeding strategies should be designed to maintain high levels of root non-structural
127 carbohydrates (Alison and Hoveland 1989). Limited information is available however
128 regarding how root starch accumulation affects phenolic metabolism in shoots following
129 regrowth after defoliation.

130 Previous studies have demonstrated that reduced nutritional quality in some forage legumes is
131 not solely due to condensed tannins, and that the adverse effects of condensed tannins may be
132 combined with the detrimental dietary effects of lignin and that both factors should be
133 considered when determining nutritive value (Barry and Duncan, 1984; Miller and Ehlke 1996).
134 Barry et al. (1986) established that in *L. pedunculatus* and *L. corniculatus* the reduced nutritive
135 value under stress conditions was due to the simultaneous increase in the concentrations of
136 lignin and condensed tannins, both of which depressed rumen carbohydrate fermentation and
137 voluntary intake in sheep (Barry et al. 1986). Regardless of the concomitant effects condensed
138 tannins and lignin levels may have on the digestibility of plant material, it is clear that at low
139 concentrations both can result in improved voluntary feed intake.

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140 In previous experiments (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)) we noticed some anomalous results that
141 suggested that the conditions under which plants were grown affected the levels of tannins
142 accumulated in subsequent vegetative tissues, following harvesting and regrowth. It has also
143 been found that in *Arabidopsis* the current and prior temperature experience of the mother plant
144 controls seed dormancy through inhibition of proanthocyanidin biosynthesis in fruits, resulting
145 in altered seed coat tannin content (Chen et al. 2014).

146 Although it may be predictable that future climate change will alter the levels of secondary
147 metabolites in plants, our understanding of how this will affect plant digestibility and nutritional
148 quality is limited. In particular how perennial forage species, normally subject to intense
149 herbivory, or used as animal feed, may respond after defoliation or in the following year to
150 unusually warm summers or cold winters, and how this affects forage quality has not been
151 widely studied.

152 The aims of this work were firstly to establish how changes in growth temperature modify
153 assimilate partitioning into roots, stems and leaves and secondly to determine the effect of
154 different CO₂ concentrations and water availability during regrowth of plants preconditioned at
155 different temperatures, on the relationships between tannin, flavonoid and lignin accumulation,
156 and subsequent how these changes impact on tissue digestibility.

157 158 **Materials and methods**

159 **Growth of plants**

160 Replicate clonally propagated plants of a high tannin genotype S41 of *L. corniculatus* cv Leo
161 selected from seed obtained from The Genetic Resource Unit, IGER Aberystwyth SY23 3EB,
162 UK. (Carron et al. 1994), were established by crown division of mature plants into 15 cm ramets
163 containing well-developed roots and shoots and grown in low-N compost in 13-cm pots under
164 ambient greenhouse conditions for 6 weeks and then shoots defoliated 5 cm above soil level.
165 Plants were then grown under two pre-conditioning temperatures (10°C or 25°C) for 56 days at
166 a light intensity of 450 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, and then defoliated to 5 cm and regrown at 18°C day/10°C

167 night with combinations of two CO₂ concentrations (ambient ~350ppmv or 700ppmv) and
168 water availability (60% or 100%) for 42 days (Table 1). Plants were maintained at 70–75%
169 relative humidity with an 18-h day length (light intensity, 450 μmol m⁻² s⁻¹). The positions of
170 pots in the growth chambers were randomised daily and mutual shading avoided by staking
171 plants during their growth. Replicated whole plants (three per environment), were harvested
172 after 21 and 42 days and separated into leaf, stem and roots. Sub samples were stored at -80°C,
173 and then freeze dried for further analysis.

174

175 **Determination of condensed tannins**

176 Total condensed tannins were determined as the sum of extractable (acetone soluble) and bound
177 fractions on duplicate 20-30mg samples of freeze-dried powdered leaves, stems and roots using
178 a modification of the butanol-HCl (BuOH/HCl) method outlined by Terrill et al. (1992), as
179 described previously (Carter et al. 1999).

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181 **Determination of flavonoid and flavonoid glycosides.**

182 Freeze-dried samples (200 mg) were re-hydrated in 2 ml H₂O for 1 hour, and then ground tissue
183 extracted with 70% aqueous methanol. Extracts were concentrated on an activated C18 Sep-
184 Pak column (500 mg) [Waters Inc] and bound flavonoids for HPLC analysis eluted with 4 ml
185 100% methanol, as described previously (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)).
186 Alkali hydrolysis was carried out on 1 ml of extract with 1 M NaOH at 100°C for 1 h. The
187 sample was cooled, diluted to 5 ml with distilled water and adjusted to between pH6 and pH7
188 with 0.1 M HCl. The sample was concentrated on an activated C18 Sep-Pak column and the
189 hydrolysed flavonoids eluted with 4 ml of MeOH. Flavonoid profiles were obtained by reverse
190 phase HPLC on a μNovapak 8x10 C18 RCM cartridge (Waters Inc), and quantified as described
191 previously (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)).

192

193 **Determination of non-structural carbohydrates (NSC)**

194 Total sugars and sucrose were determined with anthrone reagent using a modified micro method
195 based on that of Van Handell (1968) as described in detail in Carter et al. 1999. Starch
196 determination was carried out on the dried pellets after sugar extraction using the glucose
197 oxidase and peroxidase method (Trinder glucose analysis kit [Sigma]) after amyloglucosidase
198 treatment. The resulting coloured quinoneimine dye complex was analysed on a
199 spectrophotometer at 510nm and compared to a glucose standard curve, as described in detail
200 in Carter et al. 1999).

201

202 **Determination of thioglycolic acid lignin**

203 Thioglycolic acid soluble lignin (TGA-lignin) levels were determined using a modified version
204 of the method described by Whitmore (1978). Freeze-dried samples (200 mg) were re-hydrated
205 in 2 ml distilled H₂O for 1hour. The samples were then extracted with methanol and acetone.
206 The extracts were discarded and the pellets dried using a sample concentrator. The pellets were
207 then treated with 10% thioglycolic acid in 2M HCl (3 ml/50 mg of sample) at 100°C for 4 h as
208 described previously (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)). The TGA-lignin content of the samples was
209 determined using a PV8700 series UV/Vis spectrophotometer (Philips Scientific and Analytical
210 Equipment) at 280 nm. The TGA-lignin concentration was calculated using a standard curve of
211 known weights of TGA lignin extracted in bulk from transgenic root cultures of *L. corniculatus*
212 (Morris and Robbins 1992).

213

214 **Determination of tissue digestibility**

215 End point in-vitro-dry-matter-digestibility (IVDMD) of leaves and stems was determined by
216 the in-vitro pepsin-cellulase method (Jones and Hayward 1973), and the initial rate of digestion
217 estimated from the rate of gas evolution in 8-h batch fermentations using the pressure transducer
218 technique of Theodorou et al. (1994). This technique quantified the increase in head-space gas
219 pressure (and thus the gas volume) in closed batch cultures inoculated with rumen micro-
220 organisms. The batch cultures contained 0.5g freeze dried powered tissue in 90 ml of
221 bicarbonate buffered medium and were inoculated with rumen micro-organisms in 10 ml of

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222 clarified rumen fluid, and incubated at 30°C. Initial rates of digestion were calculated from the
223 linear kinetics of gas evolution over the first 6h of incubation.

224

225 **Results**

226 **Plant Growth**

227 As would be anticipated, reducing the temperature from the optimum of 25°C to 10°C resulted
228 in a 2-fold decrease in plant height and a 6-fold decrease in the growth rate over the following
229 8-week preconditioning period (Fig. 1a and b). When, following defoliation, these plants were
230 regrown at 18°C, under different climatic conditions of normal or high CO₂ and with *ad libitum*
231 or restricted water supply, the subsequent growth rates and final plant heights were also highly
232 divergent with plants preconditioned at 10°C having a 3 to 4 fold higher growth rate than plants
233 preconditioned at 25°C (Fig.1b), and with a 3-4 week lag period before normal growth was
234 established. Increasing the CO₂ concentration from ambient ~350 ppmv to 700 ppmv for the
235 regrowth period increased the growth rates of both 10°C and 25°C preconditioned plants (Fig.
236 1b). Drought stress however reduced growth rates in both high and low CO₂ environments on
237 regrowth of both 10°C and 25°C preconditioned plants (Fig. 1b), with 10°C grown plants
238 maintaining at least a 4-fold higher growth rate than plants preconditioned at 25°C, in all
239 environments

240

241 **Accumulation of non-structural carbohydrates (NSCs)**

242 Plants grown at 10°C for 8 weeks had a two-fold higher level of total NSCs (starch, sucrose and
243 reducing sugars) in leaves stems and roots, compared with plants grown for 8 weeks at 25°C.
244 In particular, roots and leaves accumulated up to 4% dry weight of starch at 10°C but less than
245 0.5% at 25°C and roots contained approximately 60% more sucrose than leaves. Levels of
246 reducing sugars were also lower in leaves, stems and roots at the higher growth temperature
247 (Fig. 2). When these plants were defoliated to 5 cm stem height and regrown for 6 weeks at
248 18°C at ambient CO₂ (~350 ppmv) or 700 ppmv CO₂, with and without drought stress (Table

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249 1), leaves stems and roots of plants preconditioned at 10°C consistently maintained higher levels
250 of NSCs than plants preconditioned at 25°C and the total NSCs in leaves stems and roots
251 increased in plants preconditioning at 25°C but generally decreased in plants preconditioned at
252 10°C across all environments (Fig. S1-S3). At the higher CO₂ concentration, levels of total
253 NSCs transiently increased in leaves irrespective of preconditioning temperature but this was
254 not present in plants under water stress. Leaf starch in particular rapidly declined under drought
255 stress in plants preconditioned at 10°C at both 350 and 700 ppmv CO₂ but increased in 25°C
256 conditioned plants (Fig. S1). In roots, starch levels rapidly declined in all environments in plants
257 conditioned at 10°C, but significantly increased in plants conditioned at 25°C (Fig. S3). Neither
258 the higher CO₂ concentration nor drought stress had a significant effect on the sucrose or
259 reducing sugar content of leaves of regrown plants conditioned at either temperature (Fig. S1).
260 Sucrose concentrations were similar, and the predominant sugar found in roots of plants
261 conditioned at both temperatures, increasing during shoot regrowth, but declining on drought
262 stress at both CO₂ concentrations (Fig. 2 and S3).

264 **Accumulation of condensed tannins**

265 Plants grown at 10°C containing high levels of non-structural carbohydrates, particularly starch,
266 had much higher concentrations of condensed tannins than plants grown at a temperature for
267 optimal growth, with total leaf, stem and root tannin levels increasing from 1.2% to 4.8% dry
268 weight in leaves, 0.8% to 1.8% dry weight in stems and 2.8% to 5.8% dry weight in roots in
269 low starch and high starch plants respectively, with a two-fold increase in the ratio of soluble
270 to insoluble tannins in leaves and stems (Fig. 3).

271 Following defoliation, plants regrown for 6 weeks at 18°C with 350 or 700 ppmv CO₂, with and
272 without drought stress (Table 1), maintained high levels of condensed tannins, up to 8% dry
273 weight in leaves, 2% dry weight in stems, and up to 6% dry weight in roots of plants
274 preconditioned at 10°C and lower levels in plants preconditioned at 25°C (Fig. 3). High CO₂
275 levels increased tannin accumulation in leaves, stems and roots of both low and high root starch
276 plants while drought stress reduced tannin levels in all treatments (Fig.3). The kinetics of

277 soluble and insoluble condensed tannin accumulation in leaves, stems and roots over the 42-
278 day growth period in the eight environments are shown in Fig. S4-S6 respectively.

279

280 **Accumulation of flavonoids**

281 Growing plants at 10°C increased the total flavonoids of leaves from 5.5% to 16.4% dry weight
282 and in stems from 0.5% to 3.3% dry weight, compared to plants grown at 25°C [$p=0.001$] (Fig.
283 4a).

284 After harvesting and plant re-growth in each of the eight environments (Table 1), total flavonol
285 levels of leaves varied from 11.5% to 19% dry weight depending on the environment (Fig. 4a),
286 and were significantly higher than in stems (Fig. 4b). The pre-conditioning temperature was a
287 major factor affecting total flavonols in stem tissue of regrown plants but less so in leaves,
288 although total flavonol levels were significantly increased in both leaves and stems of regrown
289 plants by both pre-treatments [$p<0.001$].

290 A near doubling of the CO₂ concentration from ~350ppm to 700ppm significantly increased
291 total flavonoid levels in leaves and stems of both 10°C and 25°C preconditioned plants
292 [$p<0.001$], but drought stress resulted in a decrease in total flavonol levels in leaves and stems
293 [$p<0.001$] and particularly in 25°C conditioned plants grown at the high CO₂ level (Fig. 4).

294 Kaempferol-3-glucoside and kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside were the major flavonoid
295 glycosides in S41 *Lotus* leaves with minor amounts of kaempferol-7-rhamnoside, and
296 kaempferol-3-rhamnoside-7-glucoside as well as a number of minor unidentified kaempferol
297 glycosides (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)). The pre-conditioning growth temperature was found to
298 be the major factor affecting the accumulation of individual flavonols. The concentrations of
299 kaempferol-3-glucoside and kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside were significantly increased
300 [$p<0.001$] at a lower pre-conditioning temperature. Doubling the CO₂ concentration resulted in
301 higher levels of kaempferol-3-glucoside [$p<0.001$] and kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside
302 [$p=0.001$] in regrown leaves and stems in 10°C preconditioned plants whereas drought stress
303 reduced the concentration of kaempferol-3-glucoside [$p=0.001$] (Fig. 4). Analysis of the HPLC

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304 profiles and UV/visible spectra following alkali hydrolysis of extracts showed that the
305 flavonoids detected in the leaves and stems of genotype S41 were all kaempferol glycosides
306 (data not show).

307

308 **Thioglycolic acid (TGA) lignin**

309 Unlike condensed tannins and flavonoids, the levels of TGA lignin in leaves (Fig. 5a) and stems
310 (Fig. 5b) decreased in plants grown at 10°C compared with plants grown at 25°C and this was
311 particularly significant in stem tissue, suggesting that lignin was less soluble in TGA by growth
312 at low temperatures. This may due to changes in lignin structure rather than a reduction in the
313 total lignin content as thioglycolic acid derivatization involves the formation of thioethers of
314 lignin benzyl alcohol groups, which enables it to be extracted from cell walls by alkali.

315 When these defoliated plants were regrown for 6 weeks at 18°C, the concentration of TGA
316 soluble lignin in the leaves varied between 2.9% and 4.7% dry weight, and in stems from 5.2%
317 to 9.5% dry weight across the eight different growth environments (Fig. 5).

318 In plants regrown at 18°C at ambient CO₂, without water stress TGA soluble lignin levels were
319 similar to levels found in plants grown at 25°C. However, water stress significantly increased
320 TGA soluble lignin in all four environments in leaves [$p<0.001$], and particularly in plants
321 grown at 10°C and regrown at high CO₂. To a lesser extent the levels of TGA soluble lignin in
322 leaves also increased in all other CO₂ enriched environments [$p=0.003$] (Fig. 5a). Drought stress
323 also increased the levels of TGA extractable stem lignin [$p=0.005$] in all environments except
324 in plants grown at 10°C and regrown at high CO₂, but no other significant effects of high CO₂
325 levels on stem TGA soluble lignin were found (Fig. 5b).

326

327 **Effects on tissue digestibility**

328 Despite a two-fold increase in the levels of readily fermentable carbohydrates in leaves of plants
329 grown at 10°C (Fig. 2a), there was a 28% decrease in the initial rate of digestion compared with
330 leaves of plants grown at 25°C, (Fig. 6A), but a simultaneous six-fold increase in leaf tannins
331 (Fig. 3A). In contrast, there was a 2.6-fold increase in the initial rate of digestion of stem tissue

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332 in plants preconditioned at 10°C compared with plants preconditioned at 25°C (Fig. 6b), and a
333 combined effect of a 1.6-fold increase in fermentable carbohydrates (Fig. 2b), a 28% decrease
334 TGA soluble stem lignin (Fig. 5b), and a 2-fold increase in stem tannins (Fig. 3a).

335 In regrowth leaves under the different environmental conditions, rates of digestion also
336 generally paralleled increases in condensed tannins levels with rates of digestion falling from
337 approximately 45 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹ in low tannin plants conditioned at 25°C to 30 ml g⁻¹ h⁻¹ in high
338 tannin plants conditioned at 10°C, despite correspondingly higher levels of NSCs (Fig. 6a).

339 A negative correlation between leaf digestibility and leaf tannin levels and between leaf
340 digestibility and leaf carbohydrate content was found, and a positive correlation between leaf
341 carbohydrates and leaf condensed tannin content. Across all ten treatments there was also a
342 positive correlation between the condensed tannin and flavonoid content of leaves [$R^2=0.74$]
343 and stems [$R^2=0.69$]. However, there was no significant relationship between condensed tannin
344 and lignin content or between lignin and flavonoid content of leaves or stems, despite these
345 phenolics being part of the same metabolic network. The concentrations of total NSCs in leaves
346 however were positively correlated with both condensed tannin [$R^2=0.74$] and flavonoid
347 [$R^2=0.88$] levels, but not between levels of total NSCs and TGA soluble lignin. Analysis of
348 stem material also indicated a positive relationship between total NSC and condensed tannin
349 concentrations [$R^2=0.72$]. Unlike in leaf tissues, there did not appear to be a strong correlation
350 between total NSC and flavonols [$R^2=0.43$]. TGA soluble lignin showed no relationship with
351 total NSCs in *Lotus* stems. No correlation between total NSC levels in the roots with condensed
352 tannin or with TGA lignin content was found.

354 Discussion

355 Generally previous studies have focused on the effects of environmental factors such as drought
356 (Anuraga et al. 1993, Carter et al. 1999) or temperature (Anuraga et al. 1993; Lees et al. 1994,
357 Carter et al. 1999) on plant growth and polymeric phenols, and the stimulating effects of high
358 CO₂ has also been confirmed (Peñuelas et al., 1997; Peñuelas and Estiarte, 1998; Estiarte et

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359 al., 1999). However, many of these studies have not considered the flux of carbon into other
360 pathways and end products or the consequences of carbon reallocation for tissue digestibility.
361 In *L. corniculatus*, carbohydrate reserves are low from spring to autumn even in plants that
362 grow without defoliation (Smith 1962). Although the growth rate of *L. corniculatus* va Leo, was
363 maximal at 25°C in all three genotypes studied, (Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)) maturity was
364 delayed at lower temperatures as found previously (Smith 1970).
365 Previous reports on the effects of growth temperature on tannin accumulation in *Lotus*
366 *corniculatus* showed that accumulation increased in response to low temperature (Carter et al.,
367 1999; Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)), and decreased at high temperature (Ehike and LeGare 1993;
368 Carter et al. 1999; Morris et al. [co-submitted](#)), while other studies have shown that low
369 temperature alone had limited effect on condensed tannin accumulation over several seasons
370 (Anuraga et al. 1993). However, the cost of defense chemical production cannot be predicted
371 merely on the basis of the molecular weight, composition or concentration of condensed tannins
372 (Briggs and Schultz 1990) when total flavonoid concentrations of up to 20% dry weight in the
373 leaves and 3% in stems and TGA extractable lignin concentrations of 5% dry weight in leaves
374 and 10% dry weight in stems, are major pools for carbon allocation. Growing *Lotus* at a
375 temperature below that required for optimum growth resulted in higher concentrations of total
376 flavonoids in both leaf and stem tissues, largely due to significant changes in kaempferol-3-
377 glucoside and kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside. To a lesser extent drought stress also appeared to
378 alter the accumulation of flavonoids, and in both leaves and stems kaempferol-3-glucoside was
379 significantly lower under reduced water availability and this particularly contributed to a
380 reduction in the total flavonoids of stems. In contrast changes in CO₂ availability resulted in
381 significant increases in the level of kaempferol-3-glucoside and kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside
382 in leaves but not in stems.
383 The first branch from the general phenylpropanoid pathway leads to the biosynthesis of lignin.
384 In leaves and stems drought stress was found to be the major factor affecting lignin solubility.
385 In both tissues, lignin solubility decreased in response to reduced water availability while
386 doubling the CO₂ concentration increased lignin extractability of leaves, but high CO₂ had no

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387 obvious affect on stem lignin solubility. Barry and Manley, (1986) showed that climatic stress
388 caused a large and similar increase in the accumulation of condensed tannin and lignin in the
389 shoots of Lotus species which depressed nutritive value.

390 During cold stress there is a reduction in growth rate and shoot biomass and as a result the
391 majority of the carbon fixed in photosynthesis is stored as non-structural carbohydrates in the
392 roots. When plants are then defoliated and re-grown at a higher temperature, they are able to
393 remobilise carbohydrates and use them in the production of new shoot tissues. Although the
394 majority of the carbohydrates may be utilised in primary metabolism some of it is clearly routed
395 towards secondary metabolism where there is an increase in flux towards both condensed
396 tannins and flavonoids.

397 In stems drought had very little effect on the condensed tannin content but digestibility was
398 significantly reduced, suggesting that a reduction in the fermentation rates of stem material
399 might be due to changes in the levels of structural components such as lignin, as evidenced by
400 the reduction in lignin solubility.

401 It has been clearly demonstrated that different environmental factors, both alone and in
402 combination, affect the accumulation of the secondary phenolic metabolites of Lotus. However,
403 by far the greatest determinant of tannin accumulation in shoot tissue and hence forage
404 digestibility was found to be the extent of carbon allocation to roots prior to regrowth. Low
405 temperature treatment, which mimics the over-wintering of perennials, is characterized by a
406 substantial increase in root carbon reserves and by a large-scale increase in tannin levels in
407 regrowth tissues, when compared with plants with non-carbon loaded root systems such as
408 would be found during warmer winters.

409 Current models that address developmental and environmental effects on whole-plant carbon
410 partitioning to the phenylpropanoid biosynthetic pathway, such as the protein competition
411 model (PCM) and the extended growth/differentiation balance model (GDB) (Mattson et al.
412 2005), give divergent predictions. The PCM model predicts that partitioning to phenolic
413 compounds will decline, whereas the GDB model predicts that partitioning to phenolic

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414 compounds will increase if CO₂ enrichment simultaneously stimulates both photosynthesis and
415 growth (Mattson et al. 2005).
416 However, the results of this study do not appear to support either the PCM or the GDB model
417 as a generally applicable model in *Lotus* as differential carbohydrate loading of roots and
418 drought stress resulted in contradictory accumulation of phenolics in different tissues. For
419 example, while high CO₂ levels increased growth rates in both low root carbohydrate and high
420 root carbohydrate plants when defoliated and regrown at 18°C, increasing CO₂ resulted in an
421 increase in both tannins (by 41% and 16% respectively), and flavonoids (by 6% and 25%
422 respectively) in leaves and stems of low root carbohydrate plants, but a reduction in leaf and
423 stem tannins (by 13% and 11% respectively) in plants with high root carbohydrate reserves.
424 Under drought conditions however, regrowth of low root carbohydrates plants at high CO₂
425 resulted in a non-significant reduction in leaf tannins and a non-significant increase in stem
426 tannins (by 3% in both cases) and a non-significant increase in leaf flavonoids (3%), but a
427 significant decrease in stem flavonoids (21%). However, in plants with high root carbohydrate
428 levels, drought plus high CO₂ resulted in a reduction in both leaf and stem tannins (by 18% and
429 13% respectively), a non-significant increase in leaf flavonoids (3%) but a significant decrease
430 in stem flavonoids (10%).
431 It may also be considered that the increased accumulation of root storage carbohydrates in
432 response to low temperature, resulting in differential growth and phenolic accumulation
433 following defoliation and regrowth, could be an example of a recently developed theory of
434 ecological stress memory, defined by Walter et al. (2012) as “any response of a single plant
435 after a stress experience that improves the response of the plant towards future stress experience
436 and which is assessed on a whole plant level”. Possible mechanisms envisaged for this are the
437 accumulation of proteins, transcription factors or protective metabolites, as well as epigenetic
438 modifications or morphological change (Walter et al. 2013). In particular an emphasis has been
439 placed on epigenetic responses in intergenerational stress memory as these are known to result
440 in heritable responses to environmental stress (Bruce et al. 2007, Boyko and Kovalchul, 2011).
441 However, ecological stress memory appears to require either a persisting “imprint” modifying

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442 future stress response, or be mediated via intergenerational meiotic events, and it is not clear
443 that these requirements are met in this case.

444 Differential carbohydrate accumulation in roots as a response to environmental stress should
445 not therefore be considered to be either stress memory at the single plant level or
446 intergenerational stress memory mediated via mitotic events as a result of vegetative
447 propagation. Furthermore, this is not a newly observed response of perennial species, although
448 the resulting major effect on subsequent condensed tannin and flavonoid accumulation in
449 regrowth tissues has not been a previously reported response.

450 As previously found in *L. corniculatus* (Carter et al. 1999) there was a positive correlation
451 between condensed tannin and flavonoid content of leaves and stems, which has rarely been
452 demonstrated, and implies co-regulation of condensed tannin and flavonoid biosynthesis in
453 shoot tissues. Similarly, the relationships established here, also suggest that the accumulation
454 of total non-structural carbohydrates, condensed tannins and flavonols in *L. corniculatus* shoots
455 may be regulated by a common mechanism.

456 The extent of carbon loading of roots in previous periods of plant growth therefore not only
457 affects subsequent plant growth but also the levels of phenolic accumulation. This could
458 partially explain the high levels of seasonal and annual variation in the tannin content and
459 quality the forage of this perennial legume. As *L. corniculatus* is widely distributed in the wild,
460 these effects would not be confined to the use of Lotus as a forage or feed for ruminants, but
461 may well have wider implications for any herbivores which forage on this species.

462

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7 469 **Author contributions**

8
9 470 PM devised the project and wrote the manuscript, EBC produced the experimental material and
10
11 471 carried out sugar, tannin and digestibility analysis, JWH and BH carried out the flavonoid and
12
13 472 lignin analysis, and GA edited the manuscript.

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647 **Figure Legends**

648

649 **Fig. 1** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on plant height (**a**) and growth
650 rate (**b**) of genotype S41 after defoliation and plant re-growth for six weeks in each of the eight
651 environments as indicated in Table 1. Different letters in the graph represent significant
652 differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$; $n = 3$).

653

654 **Fig. 2** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on total non-structural
655 carbohydrates (NSC) starch, sucrose and reducing sugars, in leaves (**a**), stems (**b**) and roots (**c**)
656 of genotype S41 after defoliation and plant re-growth for six weeks in each of the eight
657 environments as indicated in Table 1. Bars represent mean values \pm SE, ($n=3$ replicate plants).
658 Different letters in the graph represent significant differences between treatments for total NSPs
659 ($P < 0.05$).

660

661 **Fig. 3** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on soluble and insoluble tannins
662 in leaves (**a**), stems (**b**) and roots (**c**) of genotype S41 after defoliation and plant re-growth for
663 six weeks in each of the eight environments as indicated in Table 1. Bars represent mean values
664 \pm SE, ($n=3$ replicate plants). Different letters in the graph represent significant differences
665 between treatments for total tannins ($P < 0.05$).

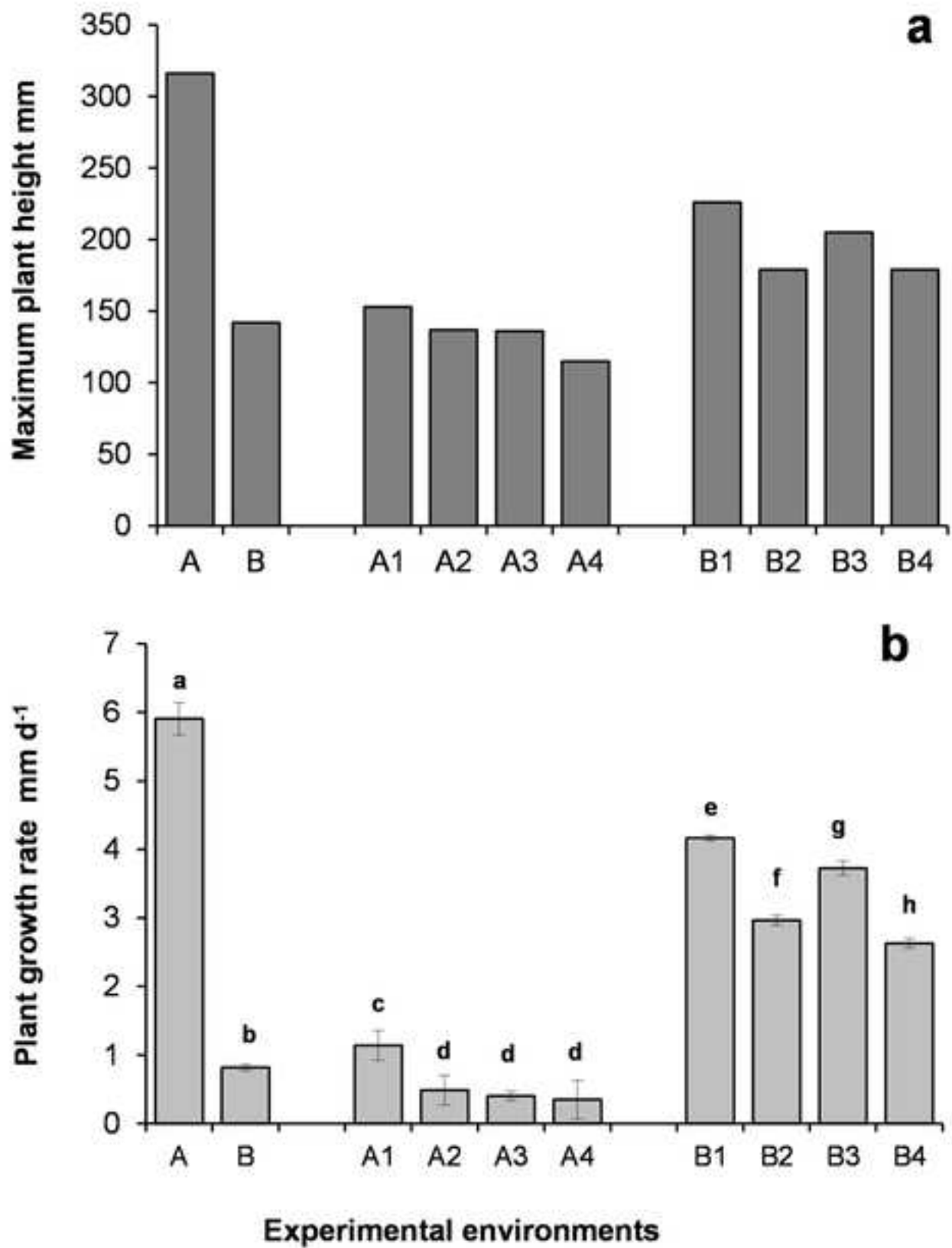
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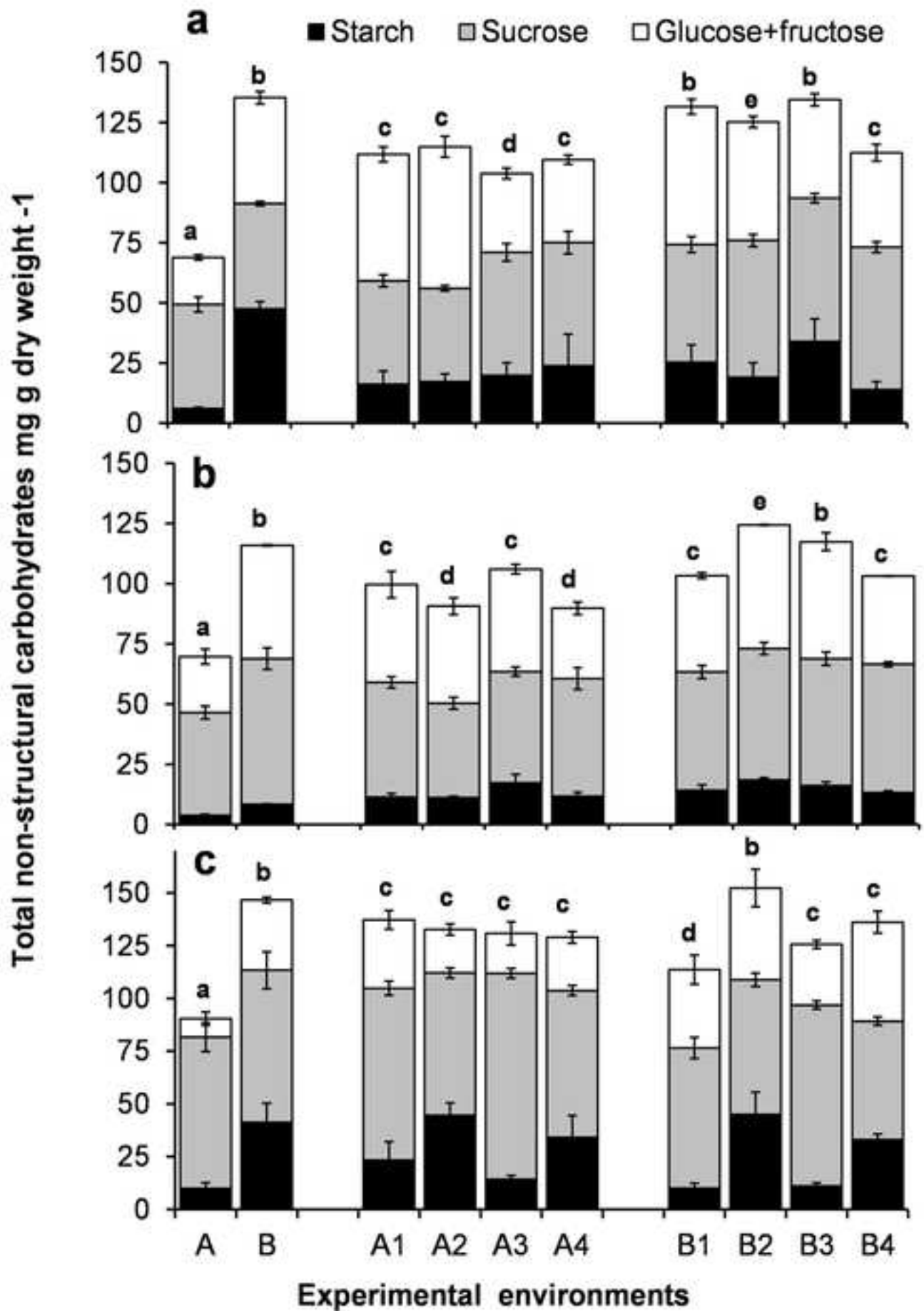
667 **Fig. 4** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on the major flavonoids in leaves
668 (**a**) and stems (**b**) of genotype S41 and after defoliation and plant re-growth for six weeks in
669 each of the eight environments as indicated in Table 1. Bars represent mean values \pm SE, ($n=3$
670 replicate plants). K-3G = kaempferol-3-glucoside*, K-3,7dR = kaempferol-3,7-dirhamnoside*,
671 K-7R = kaempferol-7-rhamnoside*, K-3R-7G = kaempferol-7-rhamnoside-3 glucoside*. Peaks
672 identified by reference to authentic standards. Different letters in the graph represent significant
673 differences between treatments for total flavonoids ($P < 0.05$).

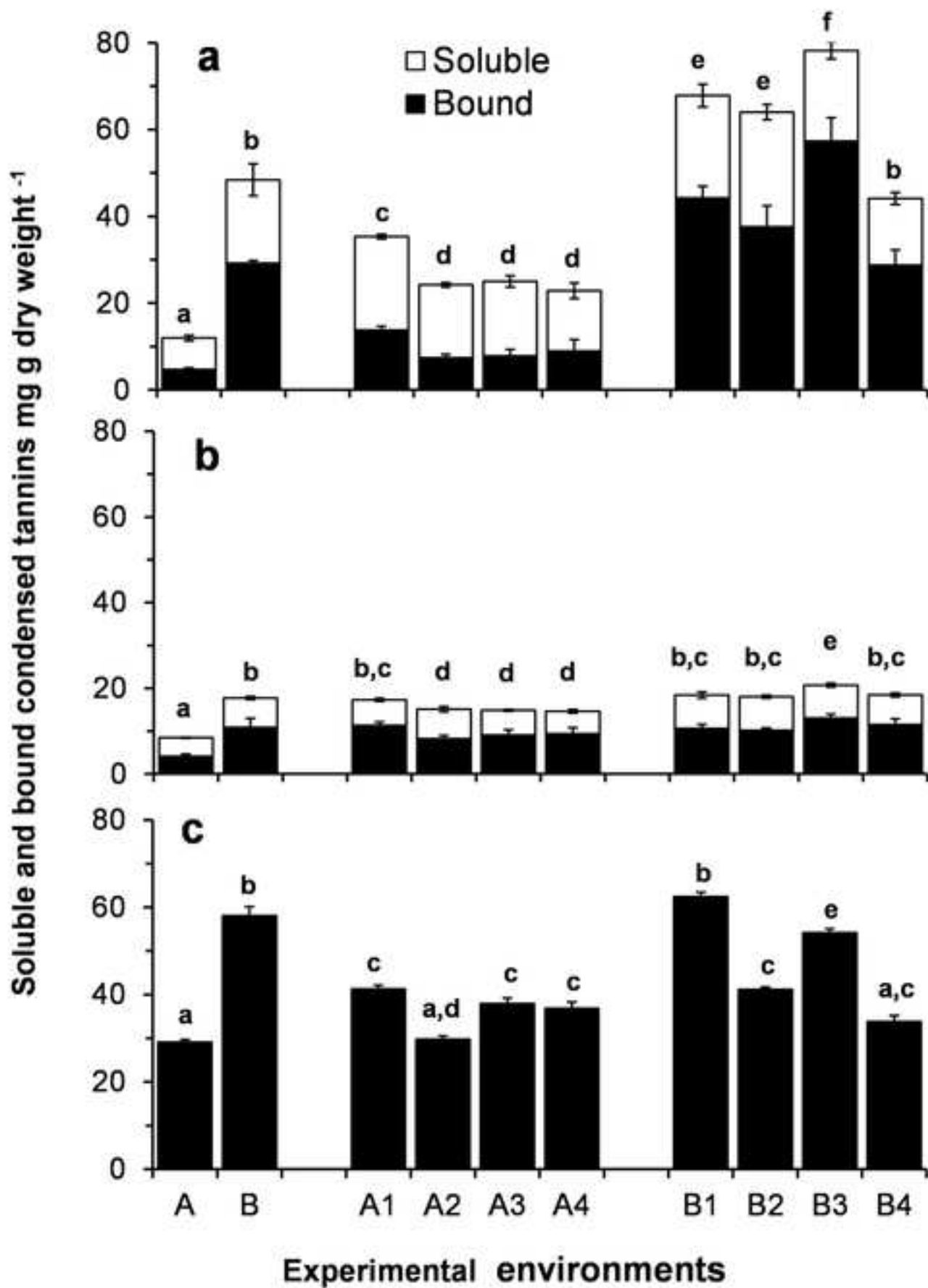
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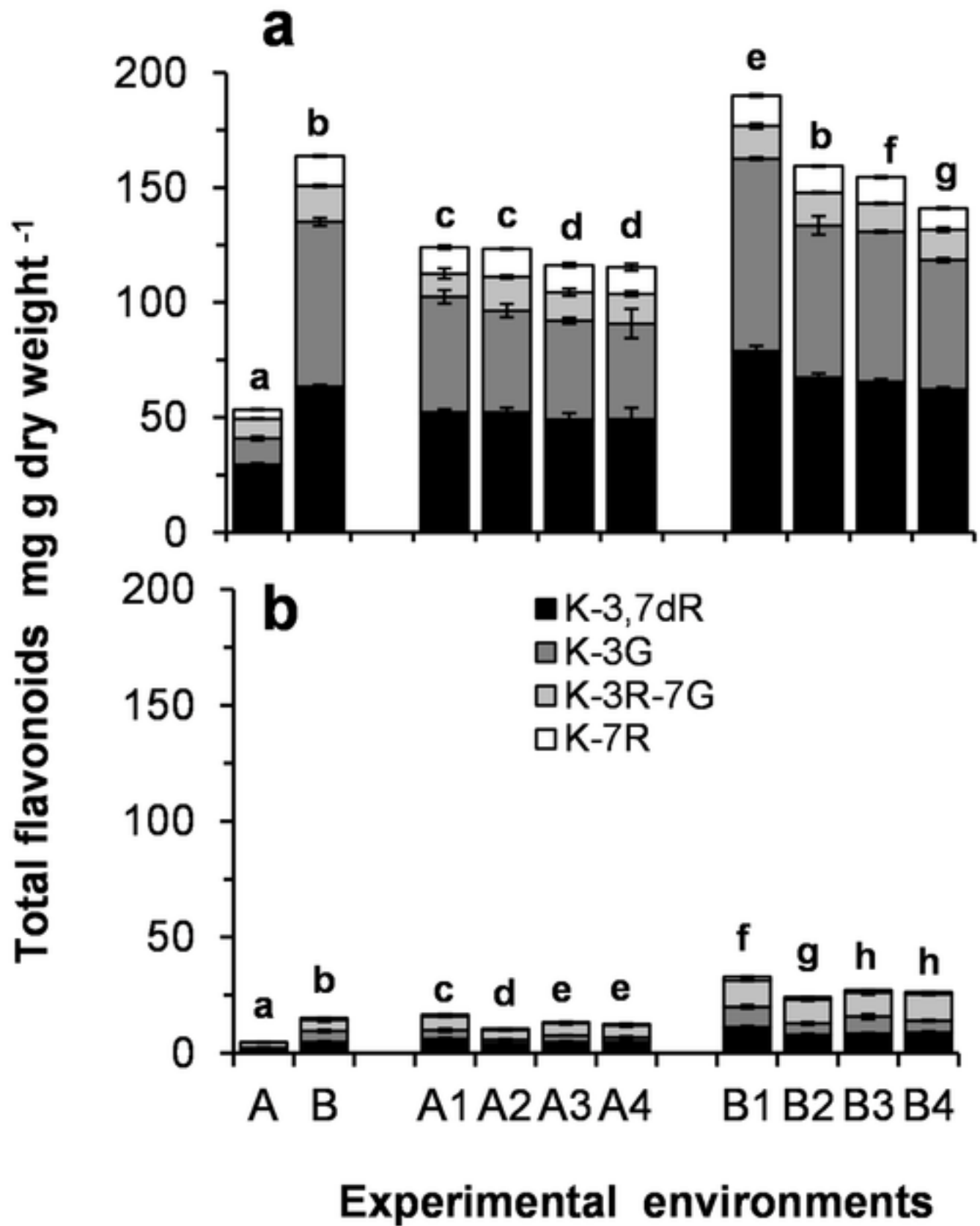
674 **Fig. 5** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on total thioglycolic acid soluble
675 lignin in leaves (**a**) and stems (**b**) of genotype S41 after harvesting and plant re-growth in each
676 of the eight environments for six weeks as indicated in Table 1. Bars represent mean values \pm
677 SE, ($n=3$ replicate plants. Different letters in the graph represent significant differences between
678 treatments ($P < 0.05$).

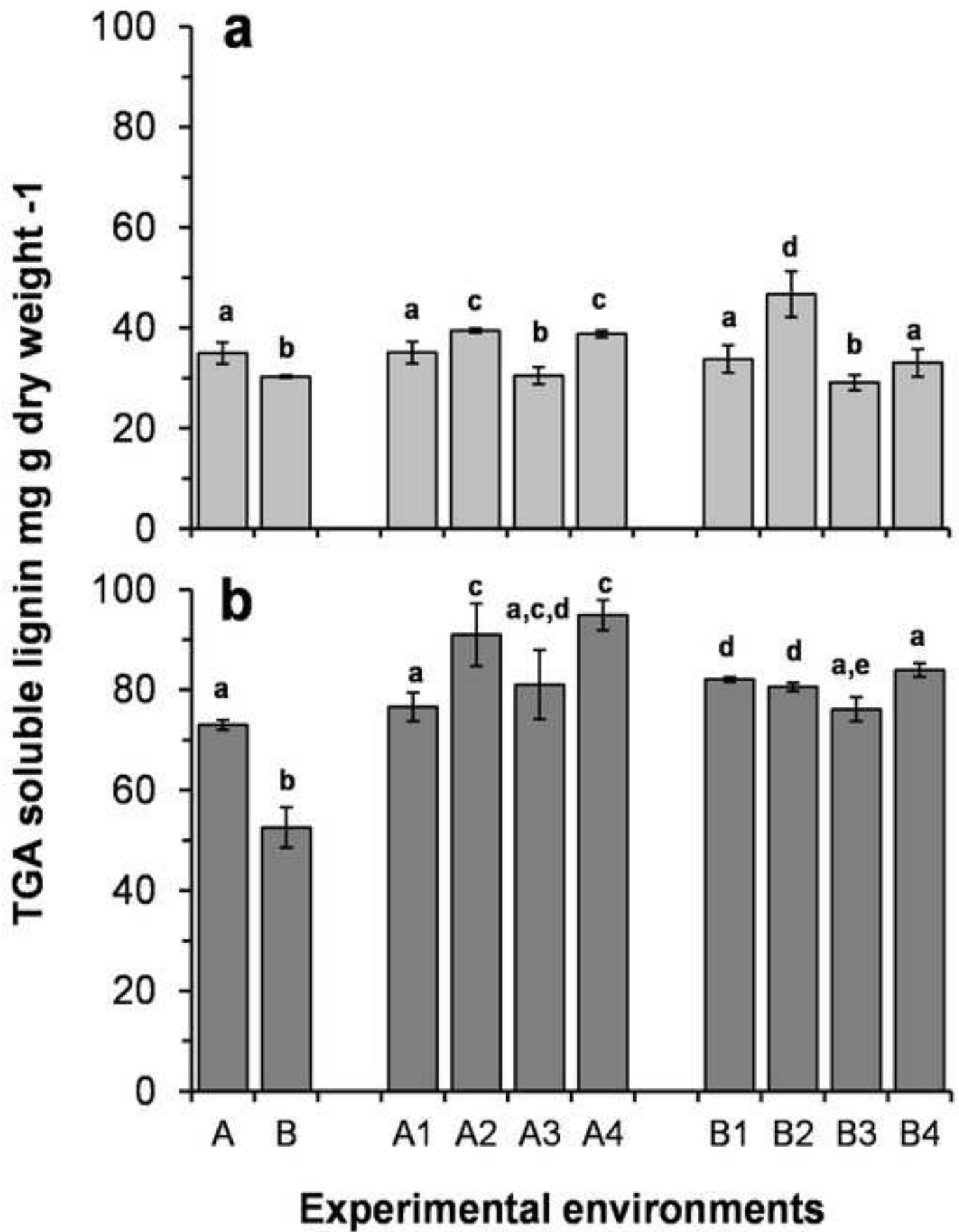
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680 **Fig. 6** Effect of preconditioning temperature (25°C or 10°C), on the initial rate of gas evolution
681 in a simulated rumen environment of leaves (**a**) and stems (**b**) of genotype S41 after harvesting
682 and plant re-growth for six weeks in each of the eight environments as indicated in Table 1.
683 Bars represent mean values \pm SE ($n=3$) replicate plants. Different letters in the graph represent
684 significant differences between treatments ($P < 0.05$).

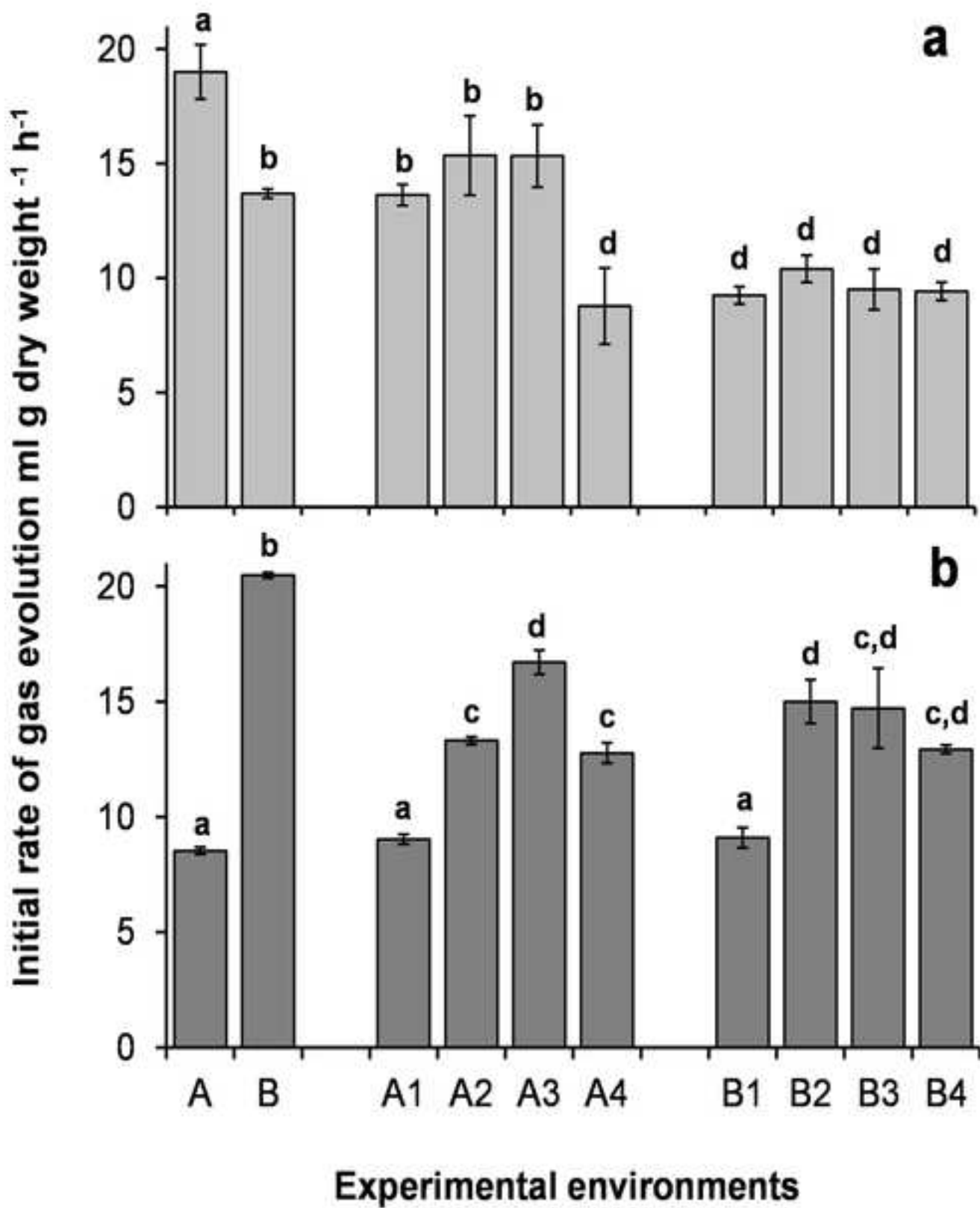












Planta

Responses of *Lotus corniculatus* to environmental change. 4.

Root carbohydrate levels at defoliation and regrowth climatic conditions are important drivers of variation in phenolic content and forage quality.

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Tables

Table 1. Experimental environments. A and B indicate the preconditioning (light intensity, $450 \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) received before plants of genotype S41 were placed into either experimental environments A 1-4 or B 1-4. Environment B3 was the control environment to reflect average midsummer conditions in the United Kingdom.

Growth Environment	Temperature (°C) (Day/Night)	CO ₂ (ppmv)	Water (% of ad libitum)	Days Growth
Precondition A	25/25	350	100	56
Precondition B	10/10	350	100	56
A1	25/15	700	100	42
A2	25/15	700	60	42
A3	25/15	350	100	42
A4	25/15	350	60	42
B1	18/10	700	100	42
B2	18/10	700	60	42
B3	18/10	350	100	42
B4	18/10	350	60	42



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Supplementary Material

Suppl Material PLAA-D-20-00714R2 Morris et al.pdf

