

1 **N, P and K budgets for crop rotations on nine organic farms in the UK**

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18

1 **Abstract.** Nitrogen (N), phosphorus (P) and potassium (K) budgets were calculated
2 for 9 organic farms in the UK. The farms were on sandy loam, silty clay loam and
3 silty loam over chalk with stockless farming systems and cattle, pig and poultry
4 enterprises with a significant proportion of arable cropping. A soil surface nutrient
5 budget was calculated for the target rotation on each farm using information about
6 field management and measurements of the soil, crops and manure. Losses of N
7 through leaching and volatilization were calculated independently using the NITCAT
8 and MANNER models.

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10 Nutrient budgets for seven of the farm rotations showed an N surplus, six a P surplus
11 and three a K surplus. The ratio of N inputs supplied in the form of biological fixation
12 : manure : atmospheric deposition was approximately 2:2:1 for stocked systems and
13 2:0:1 for stockless systems. Phosphorus surpluses resulted from supplementary P
14 fertilizer (rock phosphate) and additional feed for non-ruminant livestock. The
15 stockless system without P fertilizer resulted in a large P deficit and stocked systems,
16 which relied on recycling manure alone, a small P deficit. Only rotations with a large
17 return of manure or imported feed showed a K surplus or a balanced K budget.

18

19 **Keywords:** nutrient budgets, organic farms, rotations, sustainability

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22 **INTRODUCTION**

23 Crop rotations are a lynch-pin of organic farming systems, both for the management
24 of nutrients and soil fertility and the control of pests, diseases and weeds (Stockdale *et*
25 *al.* 2001). The crop rotation is therefore an appropriate level to evaluate organic

1 farming systems both to aid improvements in farm management and profitability, and
2 also to minimise environmental impact.

3

4 Nutrient budgets have been used widely in a range of farming systems at different
5 scales (Scoones & Toulmin 1998) to assess nutrient use efficiency, long-term
6 sustainability and environmental impact of farming systems. Fortune *et al.* (2001)
7 used simple nutrient budgeting approaches at the farm scale to suggest that organic
8 farming systems have the potential to maintain soil fertility and to minimise losses.
9 The principle aim of this study was to compile N budgets for typical ley/arable
10 rotations on organic farms in the UK. Data were also collected to calculate P and K
11 budgets in order to make a simple assessment of the sustainability of organic farming
12 systems in the UK.

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METHODS

Sites

17 Nine organic farms in the UK, which had been fully certified for more than 5 years,
18 and which had a significant proportion of arable cropping in the rotation were chosen
19 (Table 1). The soil types included sandy loam, silty clay loam and shallow silty loam
20 over chalk. The predominant stock used on the farms were dairy cattle (Farms 1 & 3),
21 beef cattle (2 & 9), outdoor pigs (4 & 6) and poultry (7), and two additional farms
22 were stockless (5 & 8). The target rotation for each farm was identified with the farm
23 manager, although this rotation was not necessarily adhered to across the whole farm
24 in every season. For each farm, a set of fields was chosen to represent each phase of
25 the rotation in the year of sampling, 1998-1999. Field management information for

1 this and a number of previous seasons was compiled through interviews with the farm
2 manager and from documented farm records. Between two and five years of
3 management information was collected for each field (Table 2).

4

5 *System definition and approach used to calculate nutrient budgets*

6 A nutrient budget was calculated for each field. The system was defined as the
7 cropped area to the maximum rooting depth (Figure 1). This type of budget is
8 sometimes known as a soil surface budget. Nutrient inputs were from N fixation,
9 atmospheric deposition, rock phosphate, manure and seed. Nutrient outputs were
10 through offtake in crop and animal products, volatilization and leaching. Livestock
11 interacted with the system through returns in manure (including both applied manure
12 and excreta returned during grazing) and through nutrient offtake in the form of milk
13 and growth during grazing. Outdoor pigs interacted with the system less than
14 ruminant livestock because they relied on imported feeds. Their net contribution of
15 nutrients to the soil was through excreta. For this reason the nutrient offtakes in
16 animal products were not calculated for outdoor pigs.

17 Nutrient budgets were thus compiled for each field for each of the two to five
18 years of available information. The two to five year budgets calculated for each phase
19 of a rotation were then averaged and the final rotational budget was the average of all
20 the rotational phases, calculated on a per hectare basis.

21

22 *Quantification of inputs and outputs*

23 N fixation by leguminous crops, free-living bacteria and nutrient inputs through
24 atmospheric deposition were estimated using data from the literature (Table 3).

25 Samples of manure and any other composted waste materials were collected on most

1 of the farms, taking care to obtain representative samples (Table 2). Total N was
2 determined on fresh samples by wet oxidation (Kjeldahl method) to avoid N losses by
3 volatilization during drying. Nitrogen inputs in manure and composts were calculated,
4 therefore, from the measured N contents and application rates. For P and K and in the
5 few cases where the N content had not been measured, estimated nutrient contents
6 were used (Table 3). Excretion by outdoor pigs was estimated using the number of
7 animals, age, duration in a field and the amount and type of feed (Smith *et al.* 2000).
8 The feed conversion figures determined for conventionally managed pigs were
9 reduced by 20% to account for their extra maintenance requirements. This resulted in
10 more manure N being produced for the amount of feed N consumed compared with
11 conventionally managed pigs. Nutrient inputs in seed were estimated from drilling
12 rates and literature nutrient content.

13 Crop samples were taken from 18 fields in cereals at the 1999 harvest. Samples
14 were dried and ground before analysis for total N concentration by combustion (Leco
15 CN analyser). The nutrient offtake in these crops was calculated from the yield and its
16 measured N content. For P and K, and crops for which measurements of N
17 concentration were not made, data given in Table 3 were used. Estimates of the
18 amount of N exported by cattle during the grazing period as saleable produce (milk
19 and meat) or lost by volatilization during grazing were based on work done on
20 conventional farms (Jarvis 1993; Scholefield 1991; Sommer & Hutchings 1997; Table
21 3). The amount of N lost due to leaching was calculated using the NITCAT model
22 (Lord 1992). This model estimates the amount of potentially leachable N based on the
23 previous crop, modified according to the balance between N inputs and offtakes. The
24 resulting potential leaching load is further modified according to N inputs in the
25 autumn, mineralization of N residues from previous years and autumn N uptake. The

1 actual amount of N that leached depended on the amount of drainage, which was
2 estimated using IRRIGUIDE (Bailey & Spackman 1996) from inputs of soil type,
3 crop cover and weather. The MANNER model (Chambers *et al.* 1999) was used to
4 calculate the amount of manure N volatilized as ammonia after application. This
5 depended upon the amount of available N in the manure, how quickly it was
6 incorporated after application and, for slurry, whether or not it was injected. The
7 amount of available N in the manure was either measured or a standard value for
8 organically produced manures was assumed (Table 3).

9

10 Soil samples were taken from each field to a depth of 90 cm or to the bed rock.
11 The samples were refrigerated and analysed for total N, NH₄-N and NO₃-N. A soil
12 bulk density of 1.3 g cm⁻³ was assumed to convert the percentage N in the soil to kg N
13 ha⁻¹.

14

15 RESULTS & DISCUSSION

16 *Nitrogen*

17 The N budgets on seven of the nine farms showed positive budgets (18 to 64 kg N ha⁻¹
18 year⁻¹), and two showed negative budgets (-15 and -19 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) (Table 4). In
19 the few other N budget studies that have estimated budgets in organic rotations, these
20 have ranged from -38 to 30 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Nolte & Werner 1994; Kaffka & Koepf
21 1989). The surplus/deficit of N indicates the impact of that particular farm
22 management on the long-term accumulation or depletion of soil N. The data in this
23 study indicates that on seven of the nine farms the rotations are probably sustainable
24 in terms of N and may even build up soil N in the short-term. Soils on the farms that
25 had been converted for 10 or more years contained 15 to 17 t ha⁻¹ of total N (to bed

1 rock or 90cm depth). On farms 8 and 9, where the N budgets were negative, the
2 rotations containing grain legumes were followed by one or two cereal crops.
3 Harvested grain legumes frequently leave an N residue equivalent to only about 25 kg
4 ha⁻¹ to a following crop (Table 3). Thus in a rotation with grain legumes followed by
5 cereals, the cereals would have to rely on N supplied by mineralization of soil organic
6 matter and residues of recently added crops and manures. Wheat yields on Farms 8
7 and 9 provide some evidence for this; the mean wheat yield dropped from 6.0 t ha⁻¹
8 after a forage legume to only 3.8 t ha⁻¹ after a grain legume. The total soil N measured
9 in the field of Farm 9, which was converted for more than 10 years, was 12 t ha⁻¹,
10 compared with 15 to 17 t ha⁻¹ for the fields sampled on farms with a positive N
11 budget. This suggests that a grain legume-cereal rotation is exploitative of soil N. It
12 should be noted however, that the N budgets estimated for the two rotations with the
13 most positive and negative N balances would have to continue for 30-40 years to
14 produce a 3 t ha⁻¹ difference in total N.

15
16 The stocked organic systems relied on biological fixation for 42% (range of 35
17 to 46%) of their N inputs, with manure accounting for 35% (26 to 45%); in these
18 studies the remainder of N inputs was made up by estimates of atmospheric
19 deposition, 22% (13 to 26%). Stockless systems relied on biological fixation (70%)
20 for their N inputs, with the remainder estimated to come from atmospheric deposition
21 (27%). While biological fixation of N is the driving force of the rotational N cycle on
22 organic farms, as might have been expected, atmospheric deposition of N is currently
23 a key source of N in both stockless and stocked systems. Goulding *et al.* (2000) also
24 estimated that atmospheric depositions make an important contribution to the N inputs
25 on organic farms, accounting for 13% of the N inputs in lowland systems and 59% in

1 upland systems. The mean N input for each crop that was removed from the field, e.g.
2 cereals, grain legumes and silage, ranged from 150 to 300 kg N ha⁻¹. This is similar to
3 the amounts of N supplied to non-leguminous crops in conventional systems (MAFF,
4 2000). However, unlike conventional systems where much of the N is applied as
5 readily plant available nitrate, not all of this N input would be available for plant use
6 because it is incorporated in plant residues and manures. Factors controlling the
7 supply of available N in organic systems are discussed by Berry *et al.* (2002).

8
9 N outputs resulted mainly from crop offtake and leaching. However, the size of
10 these two outputs was heavily influenced by the intensity of animal production and
11 soil type. For the stockless farms (5 and 8), the low intensity animal production
12 systems with beef (2, 9) and the sparsely stocked outdoor pigs (6), the average N
13 input was 155 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ and the average N output was 141 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. The
14 higher intensity animal systems, which included the dairy systems (1,3), the densely
15 stocked outdoor pigs (4) and the poultry (7), had an average N input of 191 kg ha⁻¹
16 year⁻¹ and an average N output of 155 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. The low intensity systems had a
17 greater proportion of their N outputs as crop offtake (average 59%) compared with
18 leaching (31%) and volatilization (3%) (volatilization could amount to 10% where
19 manure was not incorporated quickly). The high intensity animal systems had a
20 greater proportion of their N output as leaching (41%) compared with crop offtake
21 (31%). Predictably, outputs as animal products and volatilization were greater in the
22 high intensity systems than in the low intensity systems. It appears, therefore that, in
23 these organic systems, efforts to increase animal production resulted in quantitatively
24 and proportionately more N being wasted through leaching and volatilization. This
25 might be expected because the process of converting atmospheric N to animal

1 products via numerous cycles of forage plant growth, grazing and excretion is
2 inefficient. However, this is difficult to demonstrate conclusively with these farm
3 studies because the high intensity systems were also generally on soil types more at
4 risk of leaching.

5
6 In absolute terms, the largest source of error within the N budgets was from
7 estimates of biological fixation. The range of biological fixation was reviewed by
8 Watson *et al.* (2002); they concluded that a 1 to 2 year old white clover ley could fix
9 50% more or less N than that assumed in Table 3. This variability is so large that it
10 highlights the need to develop more precise methods of quantifying the effects of
11 legume species, soil pH, soil available N etc. on N fixation. Estimates of the amount
12 of N added in manures are often a large source of error in N budgets, but this was
13 minimised in this study through measurement. NITCAT was developed to estimate
14 leaching under conventionally managed systems, but was able to accommodate
15 organic systems because it had been based on data from experiments without
16 inorganic N fertilizer and measured values of soil organic matter were used for
17 estimating rates of mineralization. Nitrous oxide losses from the soil were not
18 estimated for these N budgets because they have been shown to be negligible in
19 grassland when applications of inorganic fertilizer were less than 100 kg N ha⁻¹
20 (Scholefield *et al.* 1991) and to only amount to losses of between 1 and 3 kg N ha⁻¹
21 year⁻¹ in conventionally managed arable systems (Webb *et al.* 2000). Volatilization
22 losses of N from cut and mulched grass clover ley were found to be only 0.2 kg ha⁻¹
23 year⁻¹ by Schmidt *et al.* (1999) and were therefore assumed to be negligible in these
24 budgets.

25

1 This study has shown that N budgets should be calculated using crop N contents
2 of produce from organic farms rather than conventional farms, e.g. the average N
3 content of conventionally produced wheat, barley, oats and potatoes (Alderman &
4 Cottrill, 1995) was about 20% greater than in organic crop produce (data from this
5 study and W. Cormack *pers. comm.*).

6

7 *Phosphorus*

8 The P budgets on 6 of the farms showed a positive budget (6 to 34 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹)
9 while 3 had negative budgets (-1 to -8 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹). Other farm scale budgets
10 have measured a similar range of P budgets, -1 to 23 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, (Hermansten &
11 Kristensen 1998; Cuttle & Bowling 1999). Because P flows in rotational systems are
12 quantitatively much smaller than those of N (average outputs of 14 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in
13 this study), the small deficits reported here, if widely applicable, may have a
14 significant impact on the sustainability of such organic systems even in the medium
15 term. However, in most cases the use of supplementary P fertilizer in the form of
16 rock phosphate (on 5 farms), corrected any potential P deficit. The large P surplus (34
17 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) on Farm 1 would be removed if the supplementary P fertilizer (33 kg
18 P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) currently used was withdrawn. On Farms 4 and 7 the use of
19 supplementary feed for the non-ruminant livestock contributed to the P surpluses of
20 26 and 7 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ respectively. This has been inferred from the manure returns
21 because imported feed was not accounted for directly in these P budgets. Whether or
22 not release of P from soil reserves is sufficient to match any net export of P within a
23 rotation depends upon soil type and past P manuring before conversion to organic
24 husbandry. The available P content in the upper 5cm of a sandy soil in the
25 Netherlands under a silaged grass/clover ley fell by 25% over 5 years, even when

1 manure was applied (Younie & Baars 1997). However on a non-sandy soil, an annual
2 P deficit of 2 to 4 kg P ha⁻¹ caused no decline in the content of extractable P over 10
3 years (Kaffka & Koepf, 1989).

4

5 *Potassium*

6 None of the rotations received any supplementary K fertilizer, though the inputs of
7 rock phosphate contained small amounts of K (Table 4). The K budgets on 3 of the
8 farms showed a positive budget of 9 to 28 kg K ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, one was perfectly
9 balanced (Farm 7) and on 5 farms there was a negative K budget of -21 to -52 kg ha⁻¹
10 year⁻¹. On Farms 1, 3 and 4 there were substantial inputs of manure to the fields being
11 studied and this returned more K than was removed. This occurred because the
12 livestock on these farms were fed with imported concentrates. On the other livestock
13 farms, inputs of K via manure were not sufficient to balance the removal in silage and
14 other crops, except Farm 7. Potassium leaching from the manure heaps was not
15 estimated for farms 1, 2, 3, 7 and 9 because either standard values for composted
16 manures were used or measurements of the manure were made several months before
17 the manure was applied to the land. Leaching from manure heaps may represent a
18 significant loss of K from the system. Godden & Penninckx (1997) reported values
19 from a number of studies showing losses during composting from 18 to 67% of the
20 original K content. On the two farms without stock there were large negative K
21 budgets of up to -52 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹. Other studies have shown that livestock only farm
22 budgets are often positive for K (e.g. Cuttle & Bowling 1999), with mixed farms more
23 likely to have negative budgets (Nolte & Werner 1994). Askegaard and Eriksen
24 (2002) showed that the K budget of a mixed system changed from negative to positive
25 as the stocking rate increased because K returns as manure increased. As with P, the

1 ability of any deficits to be compensated through release from soil reserves depends
2 upon soil type and past manuring before organic conversion. Some soils in the UK
3 can supply up to 40 kg K ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (Goulding & Loveland 1990). However, the
4 extractable K content of sandy soils has been shown to decrease by 62% within 3
5 years under a silaged grass/clover ley (Younie & Baars 1997). In general, K deficits
6 of greater than 25 kg K ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in any rotation should be a matter of concern
7 (particularly on farms 8 and 9) and soil K index should be carefully monitored, so that
8 depletion of soil reserves can be prevented.

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10

11 **CONCLUSIONS**

12 Of the nine farms studied here, seven had a positive N budget, six had a positive P
13 budget and three had a positive K budget. The degree to which a particular nutrient
14 was in surplus or deficit appeared to be independent of the budgets of the other
15 nutrients within the rotation. The ratio of N inputs supplied in the form of biological
16 fixation : manure : atmospheric deposition was approximately 2:2:1 for stocked
17 systems and 2:0:1 for stockless systems. This emphasises the importance of the N
18 supplied by atmospheric deposition and indicates that policies to reduce N emissions
19 to the atmosphere could have a major impact on N budgets for organic systems.
20 Applications of rock phosphate and additional feed for non-ruminant livestock caused
21 the surplus P budget on the farms with livestock. Stockless systems without rock
22 phosphate had a large P deficit and stocked systems which relied only on recycling
23 manure had a small P deficit. Only farms with large manure returns from stock fed
24 with bought-in feed had a positive or neutral K budget. The surplus would have been
25 less for the cattle farms and the poultry farm if there had been K leaching from

1 manure heaps and this had been estimated. The productivity of the rotations in P or K
2 deficit will depend on the ability of the soil to supply these elements by weathering of
3 native soil P and K or from reserves accumulated before conversion to organic
4 systems.

5 The budgets calculated for these case studies indicate that there is no reason why
6 organic farms should be inherently unsustainable with regard to N. However, it is
7 clear that the farms are reliant on importing animal feeds, rock phosphate or other
8 supplementary nutrients to achieve a balanced budget for P and K. The wide
9 differences in the nutrient budgets arise from the contrasting rotations, the intensity of
10 livestock production and the use of supplementary nutrients. Similar data have been
11 obtained in studies of nutrient budgets in other organic farming systems (e.g. Kaffka
12 & Koepf 1989; Cuttle and Bowling 1999; Nolte & Werner 1994; Watson *et al.* 2002).
13 The data presented here suggests that there is scope for individual organic farms to
14 increase the efficiency with which they use nutrients within the rotation to minimise
15 losses to the environment.

16 Simple rotational budgets, as used in these case studies, are one tool to enable an
17 increased understanding of nutrient flows at a rotational level by farmers and their
18 advisors. This type of budget should be considered for complete rotations, and in
19 conditions which represent the typical range of management practices and yields for
20 the farming system. While rotational budgets can represent the whole farm nutrient
21 budget for stockless systems, in mixed systems additional consideration of the entire
22 nutrient flows across the farm gate may be critical, especially where budgets are used
23 to propose management changes. In addition temporal flows of nutrients between
24 rotation phases are also important: N is fixed and P and K inputs are often made to the
25 ley phase of the rotation, and then released in plant available forms throughout the

1 whole rotation. Average N, P and K budgets for the rotation as a whole may also
2 mask important differences between fields.

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1 Table 1 Basic farm information and the crop sequence in the target rotation at each
 2 farm.
 3

Farm number	Soil type	Livestock enterprise	Rotation
1	SZL	Dairy	Ley, Ley, Ley, Beet, SB, WT
2	ZCL	Beef	Ley, Ley, Ley, WW, WT
3	SL	Dairy	Ley, Ley, Ley, WW, WT
4	caZL	Pigs/ sheep	Ley, Ley, WW, SC, Pigs, WW
5	ZCL	None	RC, WW, SB, SC
6	ZCL	Pigs	Ley, Ley (pigs), WW, SW, WC
7	SL	Chickens	Ley, Ley, WW, WO, WB, WW, SBa
8	ZCL	None	RC, Pots, WW, SB, SW
9	caZL	Beef/ sheep	Ley, Ley, Ley, WW, WO, WB, WW, SO

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 5 Soil types: ca – calcareous; C – clay; L – loam; S – sand; Z – silt.
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7 Crops: Beet – fodder beet; Ley – white clover / ryegrass ley; Pigs – pigs on stubble; RC – Red clover;
 8 SB – spring beans; SBa – spring barley; SC – spring cereal; SO – spring oats;
 9 SW – spring wheat; WB – winter beans; WC – winter cereal; WO – winter Oats;
 10 WW – winter wheat; WT – winter triticale.
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1 Table 2. Summary of the field management information collected at each farm.

Farm number	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
Years of data	3	2	4	5	2	2	2	5	2
Cultivation dates	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Sowing dates	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Seed rates	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	*	✓	✓
Cultivar	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Over winter cover (%)	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	✓	*
Proportion of clover	*	*	*	*	N/A	*	*	N/A	*
Saleable crop yield	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Saleable crop N content	*	*	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓	✓
Stocking rates	✓	✓	✓	✓	N/A	✓	✓	N/A	✓
On farm feed & N content	N/A	N/A	N/A	✓	N/A	✓	✓	N/A	N/A
Manure N analysis	✓	*	✓	✓	N/A	✓	*	N/A	✓
Manure information	✓	✓	✓	N/A	N/A	✓	✓	N/A	✓

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- ✓ Exact information obtained
- * Estimates made from observation or other information
- N/A Not applicable

20 Table 3. Assumptions used to calculate inputs and outputs of nutrient budgets

Input/output	N	P	K	Source
N fixation (kg element ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)				
1–2 year old white clover ley (<i>Trifolium repens</i>)	150	-	-	Kristensen <i>et al.</i> (1995)
>2 year old white clover ley	85	-	-	Kristensen <i>et al.</i> (1995)
Red clover (<i>Trifolium pratense</i>)	240	-	-	Schmidt <i>et al.</i> (1999)
Spring/winter beans (<i>Vicia faba</i>)	200	-	-	Kopke (1987),
Spring/winter bean residue after grain harvest	25			Sylvester-Bradley & Cross (1991)
Free living soil bacteria	5	-	-	Goulding (1990)
Atmospheric deposition (kg element ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)				
Close to urban areas	40	~0.5	-	Goulding <i>et al.</i> (1998a,b)
Rural areas	30	~0	-	Goulding <i>et al.</i> (1998a,b)
Areas unaffected by sea spray			~3	NEG TAP, 2001
Manures				
Cattle FYM (kg element t ⁻¹ fwt)	5.2	1.1	5.5	Shepherd <i>et al.</i> (1999)
Cattle slurry (kg element m ⁻³)	2.5	0.42	2.1	Shepherd <i>et al.</i> (1999)
Poultry (layer) manure (kg element t ⁻¹ fwt)	16	4.5	6.0	Anon. (2000)
Crop nutrient content (% element of dwt)				
Wheat (<i>Triticum aestivum</i>) grain	1.7	0.3	0.5	OF0178
Wheat straw	0.46	0.1	0.8	OF0145
Spring/winter beans	3.4	0.5	1.0	OF0145
Barley (<i>Hordeum vulgare</i>) grain	1.3	0.3	0.5	OF0178
Oat (<i>Avena sativa</i>) grain	1.6	0.3	0.5	OF0178
Triticale (<i>Tritiosecale</i>) grain	1.5	0.4	0.5	OF0178
Triticale whole crop silage	1.6	0.3	2.0	Alderman & Cottrill (1995)
Grass/clover silage	2.7	0.3	2.1	Alderman & Cottrill (1995)
Fodder beet (<i>Beta vulgaris</i>)	1.0	0.1	0.6	Alderman & Cottrill (1995)
Potatoes (<i>Solanum tuberosum</i>)	1.4	0.1	0.6	OF0145
Livestock (kg element ha ⁻¹ yr ⁻¹)				
Milk offtake during grazing	19	3.0	5.5	Jarvis (1993)
Cattle growth during grazing	14	4.1	1.0	Jarvis (1993)
Cattle gaseous losses during grazing	11	-	-	Scholefield (1991), Sommer & Hutchings (1997)

1 OF0178 – mean of measurements taken in DEFRA project No OF0178, OF0145 - mean of measurements taken in DEFRA project No OF0145

1 Table 4. Average N, P and K budgets (kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) for nine case study farms calculated for a complete rotation. The assumptions used for
 2 the quantification of inputs and outputs are described in the text.
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Farm/rotation	1			2			3			4			5			6			7			8			9					
Stock	DAIRY			BEEF			DAIRY			PIGS			NONE			PIGS			POULTRY			NONE			BEEF					
	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K	N	P	K			
Inputs																														
Biological Fixation	98			81			77			73			110			60			71			76			73					
Manure Deposition	94	19	96	67	8	39	55	9	58	96	31	43				59	14	29	41	18	37							42	8	43
Seed	30	0	3	40	0.5	3	40	0.5	3	40	0.5	3	40	0.5	3	40	0.5	3	40	0.5	3	30	0	3	40	0.5	3	30	0	3
Rock phosphate	2	0.5	1	2	0.5	0.5	2	0.5	0.5	2	0.5	0.5	3	0.5	1	2	0.5	1	4	1	1	5	2	4	3	0.5	1	3	0.5	1
		33	0.5		12	0		0	0		0	0		0	0		7	0		0	0		14	0.5		16	0.5			
Outputs																														
Crop offtake	47	17	85	84	13	64	63	11	51	33	6	19	76	9	25	77	15	60	81	12	41	88	17	60	113	18	82			
Animal offtake	15	2	2	6	2	0.5	11	2	2										2	0.5	0				3	1	0.5			
Leaching	75			39			59			136			49			49			50			38			58					
Volatilization	23			11			10			13			0			12			5						3					
Balance	64	34	14	50	6	-22	31	-3	9	29	26	28	28	-8	-21	23	7	-26	18	7	0	-15	-1	-52	-19	6	-35			

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Figure 1. Conceptual system showing the inputs and outputs of nutrients (N, P & K) used for the calculation of nutrient budgets of a rotation. The livestock interact with the rotation through the returns of manure and by utilisation of the pasture.

