

6 **Farm-scale trade-offs between legume use as forage vs. green manure : The**  
7 **case of *Canavalia brasiliensis***

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#### 34 *ABSTRACT*

35 *To support a sustainable increase in agricultural productivity, the multipurpose*  
36 *legume Canavalia brasiliensis was integrated as forage and green manure into*  
37 *the smallholder crop-livestock system of the Nicaraguan hillsides. Through on-*  
38 *farm trials, surveys, and on-station experiments, we investigated the biophysical*  
39 *and socioeconomic trade-offs in balancing livestock feeding with soil fertility*  
40 *management at farm level, including farmers' perception. Use as forage*  
41 *increased milk yields while use as green manure increased nutrient cycling*  
42 *efficiency. Short term net annual income decreased when used as green manure*  
43 *and increased when used as forage. Management options to handle trade-offs*  
44 *and maximize legume benefits are discussed.*

45

#### 46 *KEYWORDS*

47 *Biophysical and socio-economic trade-offs; Central America; crop-livestock*  
48 *systems; farmers' perceptions; multipurpose legume; soil fertility.*

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50

51 INTRODUCTION

52

53 Smallholder mixed crop-livestock systems provide over 50% of the world's supply of meat  
54 and over 90% of its supply of milk. They are the most important livestock systems in  
55 developing countries (Herrero et al. 2010). In the rural poor areas of the Central American  
56 hillsides, population is expanding, increasing pressure on arable land resources. For meeting  
57 food demands, the expansion of cropland is possible if slopes are taken under plough and/or if  
58 cultivation is intensified on existing cropland. As smallholders have no other choice than  
59 sticking to continuous staple crop production on sloping lands that are prone to erosion, and  
60 as they can hardly afford chemical fertilizers, soil organic matter and soil nutrients are being  
61 depleted, resulting in an overall soil fertility decline and a decrease in soil water availability  
62 (Johnson and Baltodano, 2004). Indeed, one of the main problems mentioned by farmers in  
63 the region is that the soil is "getting tired". This is their way of explaining soil degradation  
64 through nutrient depletion (Schmidt and Orozco 2003), mainly of nitrogen (N; Smyth et al.  
65 2004; Pfister and Baccini 2005; Ayarza et al. 2007). As a consequence, the crop and pasture  
66 productivity is decreasing, resulting in further expansion of cropland, which in turn further  
67 accelerates nutrient depletion, leading to decreased income and higher food insecurity.

68 The most important current feed resources are constituted by naturalized pastures, i.e.,  
69 *Hyparrhenia rufa* Stapf cv. "Jaragua", and to a lesser extent *Andropogon gayanus* Kunth cv.  
70 "Gamba" and *Panicum maximum* Jacq. cv. "Guinea". During the dry season, pasture growth  
71 ceases under severe water deficit and the only available feed resources are dry vegetation and  
72 maize residues of low forage quality (Bartle and Klopfenstein 1988). This feed shortage  
73 results each year in severe bovine malnutrition (PASOLAC 2002) and in a strong decrease in  
74 the production of livestock-source food.

75 The one commonly promoted approach is the incorporation of multipurpose legumes on  
76 cropland, which may function as an efficient interface between crops, soils and livestock.  
77 When used as green manure, legumes can provide a substantial N input into the system  
78 through symbiotic N<sub>2</sub> fixation (Peoples et al. 1995) and build up soil organic matter stocks  
79 (Vanlauwe et al. 1998), thus acting beneficially to associated or subsequent crops. When used  
80 as forage, legumes still provide N input to the system through biological N<sub>2</sub> fixation, but gains  
81 are reduced when legume biomass is grazed or cut and carried for livestock consumption. On  
82 the other hand, ruminant livestock excrete on average about 80% of the N ingested (Rufino et  
83 al. 2006) whereof a significant portion of N is not readily available feces N (Bosshard et al.,  
84 2009, 2011), making efficient animal manure management a key issue for sustainable nutrient  
85 management. In the case of a lack of forage of sufficient quality, the legume-derived increase  
86 in forage availability and nutritional quality of the total diet leads to a net gain in milk and  
87 meat production (Peters et al., 2001, 2003; Lentjes et al., 2010). Effects are more marked  
88 during periods of feed shortage as it is the case when drought tolerant legumes are grown  
89 during the dry season. In smallholder systems, livestock often represents the most important  
90 asset and means of accumulating capital, which can be readily converted into cash when  
91 needed (Stür et al. 2002).

92 In order to identify a suitable legume for improving the production system of the Nicaraguan  
93 hillsides, forage specialists and local extensionists induced a farmer participatory screening  
94 and evaluation of a number of potential legume options. Among the legumes tested,  
95 *Canavalia brasiliensis* Mart. Ex. Benth (canavalia), also known as Brazilian jack bean,  
96 attracted most attention from farmers mainly due to its vigorous growth, good soil cover and  
97 outstanding level of tolerance to drought manifested by green forage yield during the dry  
98 season (Peters et al. 2003; CIAT 2004).

99 When using canavalia, farmers face two alternatives: (a) a short-term alternative, where  
100 canavalia is grazed together with maize residues to increase milk production and earn an extra  
101 income during the dry season when milk prices are highest; or (b) a medium-to-long-term  
102 alternative, where canavalia is left in the field to enhance soil fertility in order to improve crop  
103 yields in subsequent years. One major drawback is that one usage limits the other. To balance  
104 these biophysical and socio-economic trade-offs in resource allocation and use, a good  
105 understanding of the effects of the legume on the individual components of the farming  
106 system is needed (Tittonell et al. 2007).

107 The effects of canavalia used as green manure in the Nicaraguan hillsides were already tested  
108 through a series of experiments. The results thereof show that drought tolerance of canavalia  
109 under low soil fertility conditions is associated with deep rooting ability and vigorous fine  
110 root development to explore a greater volume of soil (Polanía et al. 2010). Above ground  
111 biomass production varies strongly according to soil depth, slope position, amount of clay and  
112 stones in the whole profile, and soil organic carbon and N concentration. Canavalia cannot  
113 fully express its potential as a drought tolerant legume on soils with low organic matter  
114 content as well as on shallow and stony soils that hinder the deep rooting ability of the legume  
115 (Douxchamps et al. 2012). In addition, canavalia fixes significant amounts of N (between  
116 64% and 74% of N in canavalia biomass is derived from the atmosphere) and increases the  
117 soil N budget in rotation with maize (Douxchamps et al. 2010). Although canavalia is a  
118 source of N for the subsequent crop, no effects were observed yet on the yield of the  
119 following maize crop in on-station and on-farm experiments (Douxchamps et al. 2010, 2011).

120 While the effect as green manure had been documented that way, the use of canavalia as  
121 forage still needed to be assessed. In addition, the adoption of a legume for one or the other  
122 usage depends on how farmers themselves perceive the legume and their production system.  
123 Studies have shown that system perception as well as words and definitions of agricultural

124 terms differ between farmers and the scientific community (Müller-Böker 1991; Blaikie et al.  
125 1997; WinklerPrins 1999; Ericksen and Ardón 2003; Ryder 2003; Schoell and Binder 2009).  
126 These differences in perception need to be well understood in order to assess the real potential  
127 of the legume for the production system considered, and to increase its chances of adoption.  
128 Therefore, the objectives of this interdisciplinary study were to address four key questions: (i)  
129 what are the effects of canavalia as forage, (ii) what are the biophysical and socioeconomic  
130 trade-offs in balancing livestock feeding with soil fertility management, with a focus on N as  
131 a key nutrient in the system, (iii) how do farmers perceive these trade-offs, and (iv) what is  
132 the best way to deal with these trade-offs at a farm level?

133

134

## 135 MATERIALS AND METHODS

136

### 137 Site characteristics

138

139 On-farm trials were established at a site representative for the Nicaraguan hillsides: the Rio  
140 Pire watershed (Department of Estelí, northwestern Nicaragua), within a 2 km radius around  
141 the community of Santa Teresa (13°18' N, 86°26' W, 600–900 m a.s.l.). Soils are classified  
142 as Udic and Pachic Argiustolls. The climate is classified as tropical savannah according to the  
143 Köppen-Geiger classification (Peel et al. 2007). Annual mean rainfall (since 1977) is 825 mm  
144 (INETER 2009), with a bimodal distribution from June to August and from September to  
145 November. The dry season lasts from December to May with strong winds and high  
146 temperatures. Farmers in the region are traditional crop-livestock smallholders, cultivating  
147 maize and bean on about 2 ha of land and sharing a low productive pasture area of about 10  
148 ha. Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is grown during the first rainy season, and common bean (*Phaseolus*

149 *vulgaris* L.) on part of their land during the second rainy season. While maize residues are left  
150 on the field, bean plants are entirely pulled out at harvest and removed from the field, so that  
151 no residues are incorporated into the soil.

152 Twelve farmers interested in integrating canavalia in their farms planted canavalia in rotation  
153 with maize during two successive years (2007 and 2008). All farmers participated in the  
154 socio-economic surveys. Half of them tested canavalia as green manure, and the other half  
155 tested it as forage. Details of the trials for use as green manure are given in Douxchamps et al.  
156 (2010; 2012), whereas the trial for use as forage and the surveys are described below.

157 On-station experiments were established at two experimental stations of CIAT in Colombia:  
158 at its headquarters in Palmira (03°05'N, 76°35'W) and a nearby location in Quilichao  
159 (03°06'N, 76°31'W), where the necessary infrastructure was available.

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161

162 Trials for the utility of canavalia as forage

163

164 *Trial 1*

165 On six farms in Santa Teresa, the maize-bean and the maize-canavalia rotations were  
166 established on two plots of 0.35 ha, to compare the traditional grazing of maize-bean plots  
167 with grazing of maize-canavalia plots. Planting density of canavalia was similar to that of  
168 beans, 70 cm between rows (in between the maize) and 30 cm between plants. The currently  
169 recommended canavalia accession CIAT 17009 was used in the trials. At the beginning of the  
170 dry season, three to five lactating cows per farm entered the fields and first grazed the maize-  
171 bean plots (covered with maize stover only as bean plants were entirely removed at harvest),  
172 followed by the maize-canavalia plots (covered with maize stover and canavalia). Each  
173 treatment lasted for 10 days, with 5 days for adaptation and 5 days for data and sample

174 collection. Due to accidental entering of cattle in the fields before the data collection, data  
175 were collected on only three of the six farms.

176

#### 177 *Trial 2*

178 To assess its forage quality, canavalia was planted on fields of the experimental station of  
179 Palmira in four replicate plots of 5 m by 3 m in September 2007 and evaluated after 16 weeks  
180 of growth, which corresponds to the stage for grazing on-farm, where the whole plant was  
181 harvested at about 10 cm above ground.

#### 182 *Trial 3*

183 In 2008, a grazing trial was performed at Quilichao experimental station with three treatments  
184 in a replicated  $3 \times 3$  Latin Square design: 1) maize stover alone, 2) maize stover from  
185 cultivation where canavalia had been intercropped, 3) maize stover from cultivations where  
186 *Vigna unguiculata* (cowpea, know forage of good quality) had been intercropped. Maize was  
187 sown at a seeding rate of  $40 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ . Canavalia was sown between the maize rows on 13 May,  
188 27 May and 10 June with  $20 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$  seeding rate. Three groups of two lactating Holstein  $\times$   
189 Zebu crossbred cows, initially weighing  $424 \text{ kg} (\pm 54)$  and lactating since 153 days ( $\pm 52$ )  
190 subsequently grazed each of the three different experimental treatment plots. Fields of 1 ha  
191 size had been subdivided into six plots to provide enough feed for an adaptation period of 5  
192 days and a measurement period of 5 days for each of the three groups. Measurements  
193 included total available biomass, milk yields and milk fat content.

194

#### 195 *Samples analyses*

196 In canavalia samples, crude protein (CP) was determined according to Temminghoff (2010)  
197 and expressed as  $\text{N} \times 6.25$ . Neutral detergent fibre (NDF) was determined according to Van  
198 Soest et al. (1991), *in vitro* dry matter (DM) digestibility (IVDMD) according to Tilley and



199 Terry (1963), and total tannins given as tannic acid equivalents according to Makkar (2003a;  
200 b). Milk fat was analyzed by the Babcock method (Anonymous 1894).

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202

203 Assessment of biophysical trade-offs

204

205 The biophysical trade-offs in using canavalia above ground biomass for soil fertility or for  
206 livestock feeding were assessed by comparing the N cycling efficiencies for the green manure  
207 and for the forage management options. Nitrogen follows different pathways from canavalia  
208 to the subsequent maize, going through different compartments according to the management  
209 options. With the green manure option, N goes straight from the biomass to the soil; with the  
210 forage option, it goes first through the animal and the manure before going back to the soil,  
211 assuming that manure is deposited directly to the soil, without previous storage. Urine N was  
212 not included. The N cycling efficiencies (NCE, %) were defined for each compartments as the  
213 ratio of effective or useful output to input in a system component provided that the output can  
214 be reused within the system (Rufino et al. 2006). For the soil compartment, NCE varies  
215 according to the material considered. NCE were estimated as follows: NCE cow, Rufino et al.  
216 (2006); NCE cow manure, Brouwer and Powell (1995), NCE soil and maize, Douchamps et  
217 al. (2011). Overall NCE is the product of the NCE fraction of each compartment. For each  
218 pathway, the product of the NCE of each compartment and of the quantity of legume N  
219 initially available gives an estimation of the amount of N derived from the legume (N<sub>dff</sub>) in  
220 the subsequent maize. It was calculated from canavalia above ground biomass compartment  
221 size, which is 23 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup> for the 1<sup>st</sup> growth cycle (Douchamps et al. 2010) and 10 kg N ha<sup>-1</sup>  
222 for the regrowth, estimated from Herridge et al. (2008).

223

224 Estimation of economic trade-offs

225

226 The short term economic benefits of the introduction of canavalia into the crop-livestock  
227 system were estimated through a survey carried out with the farmers involved in the on-farm  
228 trials. During the survey information on land use, animal inventory, use of fertilizers and  
229 pesticides, family and contracted labor, and human food consumption was collected to  
230 estimate animal and crop production costs, and income from the sale of milk, meat, maize,  
231 and beans. The effects of the introduction of canavalia on farmers' net income were calculated  
232 by subtracting the production costs from the incomes for three scenarios: traditional maize  
233 system, canavalia used as green manure, and canavalia used as forage. Net income was  
234 calculated for a typical farm with 2 ha of maize, 1 ha of bean, 1 ha of canavalia and 3 dairy  
235 cows, over one year following the implementation of canavalia. The data on livestock  
236 productivity used was taken from the results of the on-farm trials. The data on crop  
237 productivity used was that of the trials for green manure use carried on in the same farms  
238 (Douxchamps et al. 2010, 2012), except for beans for which grain yields were exceptionally  
239 low mainly due to diseases during the two years. Here, the average bean yields for the  
240 Nicaraguan hillsides were used ( $1092 \text{ kg ha}^{-1}$ , from local experts). For the extrapolation of  
241 milk yield over the whole dry season, we assumed that 1 ha of canavalia produces feed for  
242 three dairy cows over 20 weeks. This assumption is based on a canavalia DM yield of  $2.2 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$   
243 <sup>1</sup> (i.e. average yield from the on-farm trials) and a daily supply of  $5 \text{ kg canavalia DM cow}^{-1}$ .

244

245 Definition and analysis of farmers' perceptions

246

247 The Structural Mental Model Approach (SMMA; Binder and Schoell 2010; Schoell and  
248 Binder 2009) was applied in order to compare farmers' and experts' perception of the  
249 introduction of canavalia into the mixed crop-livestock system. The approach consisted of

250 three steps: (i) definition and weighting of the different livelihood capitals (physical, natural,  
251 human, financial); (ii) analysis of livelihood dynamics, and (iii) definition of the social  
252 capital. The methodology provides an understanding of farmers' risks and priorities as seen  
253 by experts and farmers themselves, and gives insight into the origins of the differences  
254 between experts' and farmers' risk perception (Schoell and Binder 2009). The method was  
255 applied to define and analyze farmers' perception of the impact of the introduction of  
256 canavalia on their livelihood, the impact of the study on farmers' human capital, and of the  
257 study experts on farmers' social capital. Fourteen experts were interviewed, as well as 20  
258 farmers, 10 of whom were participating in the study and 10 were representing a control group.  
259 The experts can be divided in two groups. The first group consisted of scientists and technical  
260 assistance people involved in the study (from ETH, CIAT and INTA). They had specific  
261 expertise in agronomy or related fields. The second group included people who were not at all  
262 involved in the study. They were selected to represent types of capital (see Binder and  
263 Schoell, 2010; Schoell, and Binder 2009) and included, teachers, priest, a representative of the  
264 local government and representatives of the local health institution.  
265 The analysis was performed in two steps. In a first step the differences between the cumulated  
266 experts mental model and the farmers' mental models were analyzed according to Binder and  
267 Schoell (2010). In a second step the differences between the mental models of the farmers  
268 participating in the study and the control group were analyzed.

269

270

271 Statistical analysis

272

273 Statistical analyses were performed using the program SAS 9.2 for LINUX (SAS Institute  
274 Inc., Cary, NC, USA). For the grazing trials an analysis of variance between the different

275 grazing regimes was performed using the Ryon-Einot-Gabriel Welsch multiple range test for  
276 detecting statistical differences ( $P < 0.05$ ) in the fat corrected milk yield. For the on-farm trials  
277 in Santa Teresa, statistical analyses were done using SPSS 9.0 for Windows, option General  
278 Linear Model (Analysis of Variance).

279 For the SMMA, the mean distance and standard deviation of the actors to the farmer were  
280 calculated (see Binder and Schoell, 2010 for details on the methodology).

281

282

## 283 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

284

### 285 Forage quality of canavalia

286

287 The nutritional composition of canavalia pure stand (Trial 2) after 16 weeks of growth was,  
288 per kg DM, 89 g CP, 620 g NDF and 645 g IVDMD. When intercropped with maize (Trial 3),  
289 canavalia had a CP concentration of 160 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM and an IVDMD of 700 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM after 14  
290 weeks growth. The NDF concentration was 500 g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM. Total tannins given as tannic acid  
291 equivalents were  $< 10$  g kg<sup>-1</sup> DM. Basically, this indicates that important potentially  
292 antinutritional factors were present only at low levels in canavalia, which is further  
293 demonstrated by its positive effects on milk yield (see next section). Canavalia also proved to  
294 be a good source of CP. In comparison to low quality feeds like straw and nutrient poor grass  
295 species (such as *Brachiaria humidicola*, formerly called *Brachiaria dictyoneura*; Tiemann et  
296 al. 2008), digestibility and estimated energy concentration of canavalia were higher than in  
297 these low quality feeds though maybe not as high as that of other herbaceous tropical legumes  
298 like *Arachis pintoi* (Hess et al. 2002) and cowpea (Heinritz et al. 2012; Tiemann et al. 2008).

299

300

301 Effect of feeding canavalia on milk yields

302

303 In the experimental swards, the total available biomass was 3766, 5334 and 3075 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> DM  
304 for maize stover alone, maize stover plus canavalia and maize stover plus cowpea,  
305 respectively (Trial 3). The fat-corrected milk yield was 7.5 kg cow<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the sward with  
306 canavalia (~14 weeks old) and 8.2 kg cow<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in the sward with cowpea (~12 weeks old;  
307 not significantly different from the canavalia treatment) and these values were significantly  
308 higher compared to the 6.1 kg cow<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> achieved with maize stover only. Milk fat contents  
309 was 4.2%, 4.5% and 4.1% with maize stover alone, maize stover plus canavalia and maize  
310 stover plus cowpea, respectively. These values did not significantly differ among each other.

311 The effects of the canavalia diet on milk yields and milk fat contents were confirmed in the  
312 on-farm trials performed in Santa Teresa (Trial 1), during two consecutive years (Table 1).  
313 The integration of canavalia increased DM availability from an average value of 4000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>  
314 by 2000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>, and resulted in a significant increase in milk yield of 1 kg cow<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> ( $P$   
315 <0.01) (Table 1). There were no significant effects on fat content.

316

317

318 Biophysical trade-offs

319

320 The N pathways and the NCE for the different options for use of canavalia above ground  
321 biomass are presented in Figure 1. These different options are not equivalent in terms of NCE,  
322 which is reflected in the N availability for the subsequent maize crop. This approach shows  
323 that the use of canavalia as green manure provides a more substantial N input to the  
324 subsequent maize than the use of animal manure, although both amounts are small compared

325 to maize total N needs. From the workshops organized during the course of the study and the  
326 observations in the field, it is clear that farmers are rather motivated to use canavalia as  
327 forage. This use entails a risk of soil N depletion up to  $41 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}$ , which could be mitigated  
328 by returning animal manure to the soil (Douxchamps et al., 2010). During grazing part of  
329 animal's excreta is deposited on the field but its distribution is uneven. The manure produced  
330 in corrals is usually collected, but its recycling to the field is generally inefficient, especially  
331 when it comes to the urine which contains N with high plant availability. Unless manure is  
332 properly stored and managed, its quality is often too poor to be an effective source of nutrients  
333 (Rufino et al. 2006). After it has been grazed, canavalia usually regrows during the dry  
334 season. Although this regrowth represents less biomass, it can again be used as forage or as  
335 green manure. On the long term, the use of canavalia regrowth as green manure represents a  
336 more interesting option for crop production than the use of animal manure.

337 What is not apparent from the NCE approach is how much soil N stocks are built up in each  
338 option. Douxchamps et al. (2011a) showed that the N recovery in soil is higher from canavalia  
339 residues than from animal manure, which speaks in favor of the regrowth-for-soil option.  
340 Additional "losses" from the direct N pathways with the forage option do not necessarily  
341 imply a loss to the farmers as this leads to higher milk and meat production. Also, we have  
342 not studied the belowground N input by canavalia into the soil. Legume belowground N can  
343 be as high as above ground N (Wichern et al. 2008), and can result in a residual N value to  
344 subsequent crops (Mayer et al. 2003).

345

346

347 Economic trade-offs

348

349 Farmers' net income and its components for the three scenarios is presented in Table 2. The  
350 introduction of canavalia increased the annual need for labor by 19 man days per farm  
351 compared to the traditional system. This additional labor has to be provided by hired workers  
352 or by the family. When canavalia was used as forage, the economic net annual return per farm  
353 increased by 8% with respect to the traditional system, mainly due to a 12% increase in milk  
354 production and to an 18% increase in milk prices during the dry season compared to the rainy  
355 season (Table 2). When used as green manure, a net annual income decrease of 12% was  
356 observed compared to the traditional system, which can be explained by the fact that no  
357 significant increase in maize yield was observed during the two first years of canavalia  
358 cultivation (Douxchamps et al. 2010).

359

360

361 Farmers' perception

362

363 From the analysis of farmers' perception, no trend towards one or the other use of canavalia  
364 can be deducted. The perception of experts and farmers differed in some specific issues. The  
365 most important difference was that farmers did not see any impact of crop harvests on their  
366 financial capital. The SMMA also showed that farmers attributed changes observed in their  
367 natural capital to their participation in the canavalia trials. Farmers' stated that, due to the  
368 cultivation of canavalia, they observed an increase in maize and milk yields. However, one  
369 has to consider that six out of ten farmers did not recognize canavalia on a photograph and  
370 four out of ten did not understand why canavalia should affect soil fertility.

371 Farmers claimed an overall improvement of the system, although no significant increase in  
372 maize yields was measured after two years of canavalia cultivation in their fields  
373 (Douxchamps et al. 2010). On one hand, farmers perceived a positive effect of canavalia on

374 both milk and maize yields; on the other hand they did not yet associate this increase with  
375 extra income. However, the economic evaluation showed that the use as forage provides an  
376 immediate net income, while the use as green manure provides no economic benefit in the  
377 short term. These discrepancies between farmers' and experts' perception of the system have  
378 been already reported with the SMMA, and were also reported by other studies (Fischer and  
379 Vasseur 2002; Ericksen and Ardón 2003). Farmers and scientists have different reference  
380 frameworks: while farmers tend to use their farm and immediate surroundings as the reference  
381 framework for observations, scientists mostly use universally accepted reference frameworks,  
382 measurement units and classifications (Van Asten et al. 2009). In addition, farmers may  
383 intentionally or unintentionally bend the truth by providing 'desired' information, either to  
384 attract a project and achieve short-term benefits (Van Asten et al. 2009; Van der Hoek 2009),  
385 or because of a temporary enthusiasm or discouragement making them looking at their system  
386 with optimistic or pessimistic lenses.

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388

389 Use of canavalia on-farm

390

391 Based on the on-farm experience in Nicaragua, a global on-farm N flow scheme for the  
392 smallholder system was developed (Figure 2). It highlights the changes in N flows generated  
393 by the introduction of canavalia into the system for the proposed management option:  
394 canavalia grazed, animal manure back to the plot, regrowth used as green manure. As  
395 canavalia above ground biomass production is strongly affected by the position in the  
396 landscape (Douxchamps et al., 2012), the integration of canavalia in farms located on slopes  
397 could be ideally complemented by soil conservation technologies such as live barriers to  
398 avoid that the N gained is subsequently eroded downhill. The system would benefit from



399 small changes in management like increase in crop planting density and timing of mineral  
400 fertilizer application. Indeed, maize productivity may be limited by poor agronomic  
401 management and therefore not fully benefit from the N supplied by canavalia. Increased use  
402 of improved pastures like *Brachiaria* spp. grasses and/or forage conservation practices would  
403 diversify dry season feeding strategies and would allow livestock to be less dependent on  
404 canavalia amended crop residues. Better N distribution would be achieved through rotations  
405 between pasture area and cropland.

406 This shows that canavalia has to be seen as one component of a management strategy,  
407 possibly comprising also other legumes and aiming at increasing the production of the system  
408 and its resilience, based on the progressive restoration of degraded soils and on optimal N  
409 flows.

410

411

412 Potential of canavalia to improve the system

413

414 Canavalia has the potential to improve the mixed crop-livestock system of the Nicaraguan  
415 hillsides. It increases livestock production through increased animal feed availability and  
416 quality. The combination of both factors leads to (1) a higher production per animal and (2) an  
417 increased carrying capacity (number of animals per area), resulting in an increase in milk  
418 production during the dry season. Net income from the use of canavalia as forage may  
419 increase over time as costs arising from supplementary feeding and pasture leasing decrease.

420 These trends need to be confirmed for the long-term effects. Although an income decrease has  
421 been observed with the green manure usage, canavalia biomass production increases soil  
422 fertility with time and it is expected that production costs of maize would decrease due to  
423 lower fertilizer application, and that income would subsequently increase due to maize yield

424 increase. The time period until an effect on maize productivity can be perceived depends on  
425 the biophysical limitations of each site and the management options chosen by the farmers. It  
426 is assumed that canavalia yield is stable during at least for the two initial years. Still, yields of  
427 newly introduced legume species may decrease after a few years of cultivation due to a build-  
428 up of populations of new pests and diseases, as has been reported in other studies (Bünemann  
429 et al. 2004). However, this has not been observed in a 6-year old on-station canavalia  
430 experiment carried out at San Dionisio, Nicaragua. Nonetheless, comprehensive evaluation of  
431 the maize-canavalia rotation sequence needs on-farm testing over a longer period. More  
432 complex rotations combining different legumes with different purposes, like intercropping  
433 cowpea with maize during the first rainy season and growing canavalia or bean during the  
434 second rainy season, were found to be promising on-station (A. Schmidt, personal  
435 communication) and would need to be further tested on-farm. Indeed, the use of various  
436 legumes for various purposes on the same farm is consistent with the general trend for high  
437 diversity on smallholder farms and has been a successful strategy elsewhere (Stür et al. 2002).  
438 There is a need to define the longer-term economic threshold of productivity at the whole  
439 farm level for farmers to adopt canavalia as a legume option, as on more degraded soils,  
440 canavalia needs to be combined with mineral fertilizer and other soil fertility management  
441 practices during the early part of its integration.

442 In addition to the CIAT 17009 germplasm accession used in this study, a range of other  
443 accessions of *Canavalia brasiliensis* are available for testing. Some are being screened in both  
444 Colombia and Nicaragua to identify possibly options having properties superior to the  
445 accession tested here. Researched traits include agronomic performance (cover, biomass  
446 production) during the dry season, fertilizer value and nutritional forage characteristics. An  
447 on-farm trial with 12 accessions was established during two growing seasons (2009/2010,  
448 2010/2011) in San Dionisio (Nicaragua). Some accessions (especially *Canavalia brasiliensis*

449 CIAT 7972, 19038, 17462) showed higher soil cover and produced up to twice as much  
450 biomass than the currently recommended accession, CIAT 17009 (CIAT 2010).

451

452

453 Adoption potential

454

455 Adoption of legumes by smallholder farmers is generally below its potential (Sumberg 2002;  
456 Shelton et al. 2005). Reasons identified for poor adoption include lack of perceived economic  
457 benefit (Ali 1999), lack of extension information, limited seed availability, labor shortage,  
458 inappropriate land tenure and land scarcity (Elbasha et al. 1999). Other factors are  
459 unfavorable policy environment (giving preference to external inputs like concentrates and  
460 fertilizer), a lack of farmers' participation in the development of forage germplasm and a lack  
461 of coordination between different research disciplines (Horne et al. 2000; Peters and Lascano  
462 2003). Particularly in Nicaragua, failure to take into account local reality and perspectives has  
463 been reported as a main factor for non-adoption of soil conservation practices (Shriar 2007).  
464 The use of participatory approaches and the evaluation of the whole system into which  
465 legumes are to be integrated are indispensable to address both the obstacles preventing  
466 farmers' adoption and the complexity of legume-crop-livestock cropping systems (Cherr et al.  
467 2006; Mugwe et al. 2009; Van der Hoek 2009).

468 In the present study, farmers were involved from the start. On-farm trials and workshops  
469 allowed checking for the adequacy of the proposed technology to the local cropping system.

470 The ex-ante socioeconomic survey allowed identifying some important factors to be  
471 considered for sustainable adoption of canavalia, like the need for perceived economic benefit  
472 and the need for availability of labor. Most farmers who tried to grow canavalia want to  
473 continue planting it on their plots. Farmers perceived also an increase in maize and milk

474 yields due to the cultivation and use of canavalia. Still, there is room for improvements in the  
475 communication between legume specialists and farmers, so that the knowledge of the farmers  
476 on their own production system further increases. This would help guaranteeing a sustainable  
477 adoption of canavalia. Indeed, the SMMA analysis found that, to achieve a sustainable  
478 adoption, the human capital of farmers should be targeted. This could be attained by  
479 providing farm management courses, further intensifying the involvement of the farmers and  
480 handing over key responsibilities in the future (Mosimann 2009). In particular, an in depth  
481 understanding of nutrient dynamics should be aimed at, whereby one should focus on  
482 departing from farmers understanding and complementing their knowledge specifically using  
483 their own experience and observations.

484 To facilitate adoption, information materials on the use of canavalia designed for the farmers  
485 (user guide, brochure) have been elaborated in collaboration with extension specialists from  
486 INTA, Nicaragua and CIAT headquarters, Colombia (Douxchamps et al. 2011b). Seed  
487 production plots have been implemented, and the official cultivar release by the local  
488 authorities is in process. Moreover, government and other local institutions have already  
489 expressed repeatedly their interest in integrating the new technology in forage production and  
490 soil fertility enhancement programs.

491

492

## 493 PERSPECTIVES AND CONCLUSIONS

494

495 Although a decisive push is still needed for widespread adoption, some farmers are currently  
496 growing canavalia, seed is being produced by a local NGO, and national research and  
497 extension programs and development organizations have started initiatives to scaling this  
498 technology through Farmer Field Schools. There are still gaps in the understanding of the

499 trade-offs between the alternative uses of canavalia, mainly of the biophysical and  
500 socioeconomic effects on the long-term and at farm level, with different rotational sequences.  
501 For example, the water dynamics and the weed suppression in the system have not yet been  
502 studied. Risks associated with continuous use over years (nutrient mining if used as forage or  
503 pest/development as invasive weed if used as green manure) are still poorly defined.  
504 Under the current high input (N fertilizer and concentrates) prices and growing consciousness  
505 of soil fertility decline, smallholder crop-livestock farmers show increasing interest in trying  
506 to integrate legumes for sustainable intensification of their production systems. While  
507 proposing and testing multipurpose legumes to sustain crop and livestock production and to  
508 reduce land degradation, researchers and technicians should monitor closely farmers'  
509 perception and implementation of the new technologies to make adjustments when needed  
510 and insure that the introduced technology is economically and ecologically sustainable.  
511 Multipurpose legume options should be combined with other agricultural intensification  
512 technologies or diverse crop rotations. Various alternatives for integration of legumes could  
513 be developed for a sustainable management of organic resources that maximize nutrient use  
514 efficiency and reduce soil degradation in smallholder crop-livestock systems in the tropics.

515

516

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727

728

## 729 **TABLES AND FIGURE CAPTIONS**

730

731 **FIGURE 1** N pathways in maize-canavalia rotation for different uses of canavalia biomass.  
732 Dashed arrows indicate the N pathways through various compartments according to the  
733 various management options for canavalia. NCE = Nutrient cycling efficiency, ratio of  
734 effective or useful output to input in the system component.

735

736 **FIGURE 2** N flows on a smallholder crop-livestock farm in the Nicaraguan hillsides.  
737 Proposed changes to the traditional system are indicated in bold: (1) introduction of canavalia,  
738 with above ground biomass of first growth used as forage and the rest as green manure; (2)  
739 return of animal manure to the soil; (3) soil conservation techniques like live barriers or stone  
740 rows to reduce erosion; (4) improved maize management; (5) return of bean roots, usually  
741 pulled out at harvest, to the soil; and (6) introduction of improved pastures

742

743 **TABLE 1** Influence of management options on biomass availability, and milk yield and milk  
744 fat content, Santa Teresa, 2007 and 2008

745

746 **TABLE 2** Composition of the net annual income for three management options, for a typical  
747 smallholder farm, (i.e. 2 ha of maize, 1 ha of bean, seven heads of cattle from which three are  
748 dairy cows and 1 ha of canavalia when applicable)

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ACCEPTED MANUSCRIPT

768 **TABLE 1** Influence of management options on biomass availability, and milk yield and milk  
 769 fat content, Santa Teresa, 2007 and 2008

	Total dry matter		Milk yield		Fat		Protein		Lactose		Solids non-fat	
	t ha <sup>-1</sup>		l cow <sup>-1</sup> day <sup>-1</sup>		%		%		%		%	
	2007	2008	2007	2008	2007	2008	2007	2008	2007	2008	2007	2008
Maize residues + weeds (control)	3.1	4.8	2.9 <sup>a</sup>	3.0 <sup>a</sup>	5.1	4.0	3.2	3.2	4.8	4.8	8.7	8.8
Maize residues + weeds + canavalia	4.0	8.1	3.4 <sup>b</sup>	3.8 <sup>b</sup>	5.2	4.0	3.2	3.1	4.9	4.7	8.9	8.5

Means carrying no equal superscript within the same columns are significantly different at P<0.05, n=12 (2007) and n=11 (2008).

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772 **TABLE 2** Composition of the net annual income for three management options, for a typical  
 773 smallholder farm, (i.e. 2 ha of maize, 1 ha of bean, seven heads of cattle from which three are  
 774 dairy cows and 1 ha of canavalia when applicable).

	Traditional system (US\$ year <sup>-1</sup> )	Canavalia used as green manure (US\$ year <sup>-1</sup> )	Canavalia used as forage (US\$ year <sup>-1</sup> )
<b>Income</b>			
Income from 2 ha of maize <sup>a</sup>	895	895	895
Income from 1 ha of beans <sup>b</sup>	574	574	574
Income due to milk <sup>c</sup>	507	507	641
Income due to meat <sup>d</sup>	360	360	360
<b>Production costs</b>			
Production costs maize (2 ha) <sup>e</sup>	334	334	334
Production costs bean (1 ha) <sup>e</sup>	96	96	96
Production costs canavalia (1 ha) <sup>e</sup>		163	85
Production costs livestock <sup>f</sup>	480	480	423
<b>Net income (US\$ year<sup>-1</sup>)</b>	<b>1426</b>	<b>1263</b>	<b>1533</b>

<sup>a</sup> Calculated with a sale price to producer of US\$270/t<sup>-1</sup>, a productivity of 2.2 t/ha per year, and an auto-consumption of 1 t/farm.year.

<sup>b</sup> Calculated with a sale price to producer of US\$660/t, a productivity of 1.1 t/ha per year, and an auto-consumption of 222 kg/farm.year.

<sup>c</sup> Calculated with a sale price to producer of US\$0.27/l during the rainy season and US\$0.32/l during the dry season, and for 3 milking cows. Milk production is 4.1 l/cow/day during the rainy season and 2.1 l/cow/day during the dry season. With canavalia (forage scenario), milk production increases to 3.1 l/cow/day during 20 weeks for the 3 cows. Auto-consumption is 1789 l/farm.year.

<sup>d</sup> Sale price to producer is US\$1.2/kg, and 452 kg/farm.year are sold.

<sup>e</sup> Include fertilizers and pesticides when applicable, land preparation, seeds for canavalia and labour at a rate of 2.7 US\$/man.day.

<sup>f</sup> Include pasture leasing during the dry season, for 7 heads of cattle during 5 months at an average cost of US\$3.85/head per month. With canavalia, leasing decreases to 4 heads of cattle during 5 months. Family labour contributes for 128 man.days at a rate of 2.7 US\$/man.day.

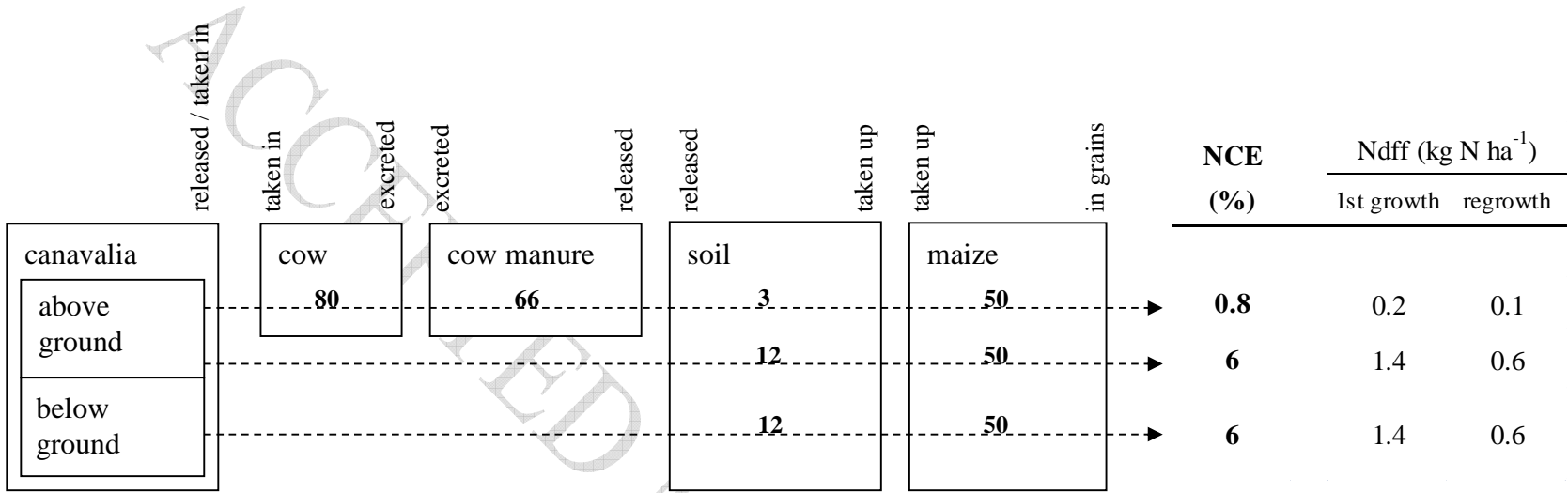
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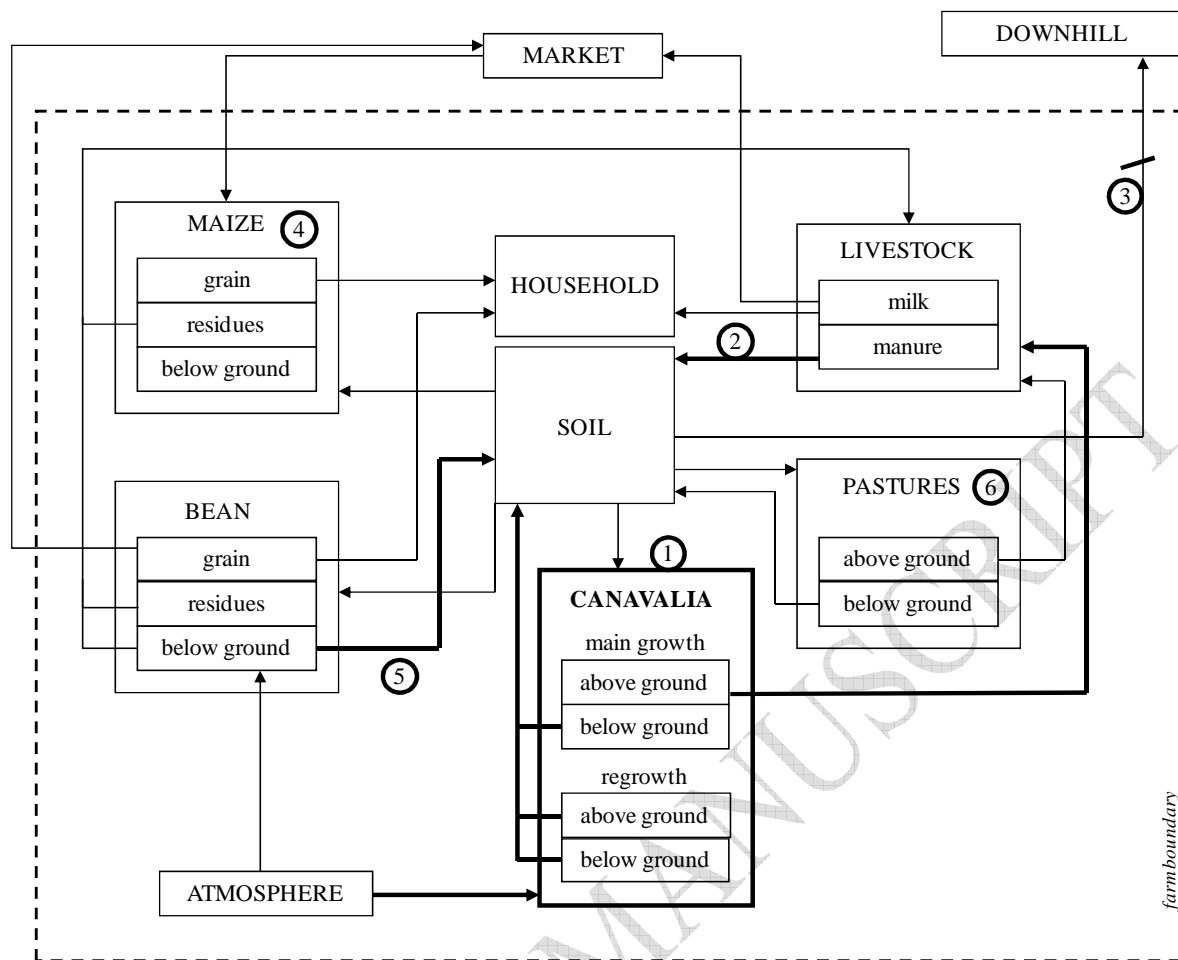
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**FIGURE 1** N pathways in maize-canavalia rotation for different uses of canavalia biomass. Dashed arrows indicate the N pathways through various compartments according to the various management options for canavalia. NCE = Nutrient cycling efficiency, ratio of effective or useful output to input in the system component.



**FIGURE 2** N flows on a smallholder crop-livestock farm in the Nicaraguan hillsides. Proposed changes to the traditional system are indicated in bold: (1) introduction of canavalia, with above ground biomass of first growth used as forage and the rest as green manure; (2) return of animal manure to the soil; (3) soil conservation techniques like live barriers or stone rows to reduce erosion; (4) improved maize management; (5) return of bean roots, usually pulled out at harvest, to the soil; and (6) introduction of improved pastures