

1 POTENTIAL IMPACT OF CLIMATE VARIABILITY ON NITROGEN LEACHING IN
2 NORTH FLORIDA DAIRY FARMS

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14 **Abstract**

15 Nitrogen leaching on a dairy farm depends on their forage systems, manure N
16 produced, seasonal climatic conditions, soil characteristics, and various livestock and
17 manure management practices. The purpose of this paper was to study the variability in N
18 leaching due to climate variability in north Florida dairy farms. Since N leaching in dairy
19 farms is impacted by climate patterns, seasonal forecasts can be used to predict it. The
20 Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer (DSSAT) was used to predict N
21 leaching and biomass accumulation after being calibrated and validated for specific crops
22 and soils. All eleven forage systems common in North Florida were simulated over 43
23 years using daily weather data, for all levels of manure N applied (20-160 kg N ha⁻¹
24 month⁻¹), and for all ten soil types where dairies are located. Nitrogen leaching and crop
25 biomass accumulation were summarized for different climatic years. Simulated results
26 indicated that higher N leaching and lower biomass accumulation occurred in El Niño
27 years relative to neutral and La Niña years. Winter in general, and January and February
28 specifically, were critical for N leaching, in all ENSO phases. The best forage systems to
29 prevent N leaching were those that start in spring-summer with bermudagrass or maize;
30 had bermudagrass, bahiagrass or maize in summer; and finished with winter forages.
31 Systems that leached the most were those that included millet and/or sorghum.

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1 Introduction

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The presence of high N levels in water is an environmental hazard because it affects human health and ecosystem welfare. The Suwannee River Basin has received much attention in recent years because of increased N levels in water bodies. Dairy waste may be an important factor contributing to this problem. Dairy farmers are now required to comply with more strict environmental regulations either through permits or voluntary incentive-based programs. The main way farms have to reduce their total N loads is through forage crop systems that are able to recycle a large part of N produced on the farm. Improvements in seasonal climate predictions (lead times of 6 to 12 months) may be useful in devising management strategies that dairy farmers in north Florida could adopt to attain economic and ecological sustainability.

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Although exporting manure off the farm is an option, few farms use this practice, typically for a small part of their waste. Dairy farmers must deal with their manure on the farm. Manure is applied to fields through spraying and/or through direct animal deposition. The amount of N in manure is usually high compared with inorganic fertilization applications. Therefore, crops need to absorb as much N as possible to prevent environmental problems.

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A few studies have evaluated manure N uptake and loss in forage systems of dairy farms. In Georgia, Hubbard et al. (1987) found concentrations between 10 to 50 mg L⁻¹ of NO₃-N at 2.4 m below the soil surface in a forage system of bermudagrass (*Cynodon* spp) and ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum*) when 530 to 1080 kg ha⁻¹ of N in dairy effluents were applied. Johnson et al. (1991) presented data indicating that bermudagrass takes up between 107 and 130 kg N ha⁻¹, rye (*Secale cereale* L.) between 140 and 250 kg N ha⁻¹, and maize (*Zea mays* L.) between 178 and 237 kg N ha⁻¹, when applied rates of manure N were between 385 and 1,000 kg N ha⁻¹. Vellidis et al. (1993) found N concentrations

57 between 0 and 14 and between 4 and 21 mg L⁻¹ in a system of bermudagrass-rye applied
58 with 400 and 800 kg ha⁻¹, respectively. A follow up study, reported by Newton et al.
59 (1995), found that N uptake by maize, bermudagrass, and rye was 86, 143, and 91 kg ha⁻¹,
60 with application of 400 kg N ha⁻¹, and 157, 137, and 169 kg ha⁻¹ with application of 800 kg
61 N ha⁻¹.

62 For north Florida conditions, French et al. (1995), presented in Van Horn et al.
63 (1998), found that a crop sequence of perennial peanut (*Arachis glabrata* Benth.) and rye
64 absorbed 430, 470, and 485 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ receiving 400, 455, and 500 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹
65 from manure effluent, respectively. The rye forage in this system accumulated 4, 4.7, and
66 4.5 Mg ha⁻¹ of dry matter containing 60, 80, and 92 kg of N, respectively.

67 Woodard et al. (2002) performed an extensive experiment for four years (1996-2000)
68 on a north Florida dairy with forage systems growing under different rates of effluent
69 application (500, 690, and 910 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹). The accumulated dry biomass was (Mg
70 ha⁻¹) 20.5, 20.9, and 21.2 for bermudagrass, 13.4, 12.6, and 12.8 for maize, 9.6, 8.7, 9.4
71 ha⁻¹, for sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* L.), and 3.4, 3.9, and 4.4 for rye. N removal of these
72 forages was (kg N ha⁻¹) 390, 430, and 467 for bermudagrass, 148, 152, 166 for maize, 111,
73 111, and 120 for sorghum, and 55, 70 and 85 for rye. The rye was in both a bermudagrass-
74 rye system and a maize-sorghum-rye system and it performed similarly in both. For this
75 experiment, lysimeters were installed 1.5 m below the surface and measurements were
76 made every 14 days. In the bermudagrass-rye system, NO₃-N levels never exceeded 10 mg
77 L⁻¹ during the time bermudagrass was growing (April-November) but went above 30 mg
78 L⁻¹ during the time of the rye (December-March). For the maize-sorghum-rye system,
79 NO₃-N were much higher. They reached levels of 20 to 40 mg L⁻¹ during maize growth

80 (April-July), 20 to 60 mg L⁻¹ during sorghum growth (August-November), and 30 to 60 mg
81 L⁻¹ during rye growth (December-March).

82 The use of ENSO-based forecast can reduce N leaching in north Florida dairy farms.
83 The goal of the present study was to assess potential N leaching from forage systems under
84 intensive application of dairy manure in North Florida. The specific objectives were to
85 estimate: 1) the capacity of north Florida forage systems to accumulate biomass and
86 remove N from the soil and 2) the risk of N leaching under different conditions of: a)
87 seasonal climate variation, b) crop systems, c) soil types, d) waste management systems,
88 and e) manure N applications.

89 **2 Materials and Methods**

90 **2.1 Site Description**

91 The study was conducted on dairies in Suwannee, Lafayette, Gilchrist, Levy, and
92 Alachua counties in the Suwannee River Basin (21.30 to 30.37 N, and 82.43 to 83.35 W)
93 (Figure 1). There were 64 dairy farms in the study area: 25 in Lafayette, 19 in Suwannee, 7
94 in Gilchrist, 7 in Levy, and 6 in Alachua. These were located using the land use survey
95 (1995) of the Suwannee River Water Management District, contained in the Florida
96 Geographic Data Library (1995).

97 The soils for each of the farms were located overlaying it on the soil series maps
98 from the Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) from the Natural Resource
99 Conservation Service (2002). Figure 1 and Table 1 present the soils of the dairy farm
100 systems studied.

101 -Place Figure 1-

102 -Place Table 1-

103 The 10 soil types are summarized in Table 1. For more information, there is a
104 reference to the specific soil survey publication. Datasets consisting of several layers of

105 data for each soil type were collected and organized. These data were converted to the
106 format needed by the DSSAT v4.0 system, using SBuild ® software (Uryasev et al., 2003),
107 where the soil water holding limits were estimated using the Saxton et al. (1986) method.

108 Daily weather data were obtained for Levy County (29.42 N, 82.82 W), located in
109 the central south part of the Suwannee River Basin, between the years 1956 and 1998 from
110 Mavromatis et al. (2002). During this time, 11 years were classified as El Niño, 10 as La
111 Niña and 23 as neutral. Each El Niño, La Niña, or neutral year begins in October and runs
112 through September of the next calendar year according to the Japan Meteorological Index
113 (JMI) of sea surface temperature (O'Brien et al., 1999). Daily rainfall, minimum and
114 maximum temperature, and solar radiation between October 1st (day 274 (275 for leap
115 years)) and September 30th of the next year (day 273 (274 for leap years)) were categorized
116 into different ENSO years (Figure 2). The DSSAT v4.0 crop models were fed with daily
117 information of these four weather variables during the 43 years (1956-1998).

118 -Place Figure 2-
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120 **2.2 Survey, Focus Groups, and Additional Information**

121 A sample of 21 dairy farmers (30% of the population) participated in the interviews.
122 This sample was obtained in cooperation with the Suwannee Partnership and the University
123 of Florida Cooperative Extension offices in the study area. It was intended to cover the
124 variability in north Florida dairy farm systems with respect to soils, forage systems and
125 management. Interviews were conversational in nature without an instrument, but with a
126 guideline of topics. Interviews lasted between one and two hours and on several occasions,
127 a tour of the farm followed. Conversations were recorded, transcribed, and classified. More
128 general information was obtained by eight focus groups conducted with farmers and other
129 stakeholders such as extension agents, personnel from government and regulatory agencies,

130 and private consultants. Interviews and focus groups were conducted during summer and
131 fall of 2003. Additional secondary information was also obtained from published studies,
132 dairy farm records, and official records.

133 **2.3 Forage Crop Systems**

134 Interviews and focus groups served to identify and understand forage systems used
135 on north Florida dairy farms, including fodder plans, management practices, and
136 sequences. Forage crop simulations were performed using adapted crop models in the
137 Decision Support System for Agrotechnology Transfer, DSSAT v4.0 (Jones et al., 2003).
138 These dynamic crop models simulate crop growth and yield in response to management,
139 climate, and soil conditions. They include light interception, photosynthesis, N uptake, soil
140 water balance, evapotranspiration, respiration, leaf area extension, growth of component
141 parts, root growth, senescence, N mobilization, and crop development processes. For the
142 soil C and N components, the Century model (Parton et al., 1979) implemented in DSSAT
143 by Gijssman et al. (2002) was used. This model estimates soil N balances that include soil
144 and surface organic matter, inorganic N, additions and removals of N, and all the processes
145 that include the N cycle in the soil, such as decomposition, mineralization, N leaching, etc.

146 Bahiagrass (*Paspalum notatum*) and bermudagrass (Rymph, 2004) are the only
147 forage crops developed for the DSSAT system, therefore, part of the study consisted in
148 adapting, calibrating, and validating crop models for the other forage crops studied based
149 on the closest existing models. For maize forage, maize grain was utilized; for forage
150 sorghum, grain sorghum; for pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum*), grain millet; and for
151 winter forage small grains, wheat (*Triticum aestivum*). These models were utilized after
152 altering their cultivar coefficients. Calibration and validation against local, actual and
153 current studies were performed before running the models.

154 Forage systems were arranged in three growing seasons: spring-summer,
155 summer-fall, and winter as it happens in north Florida dairy farm systems. All potential
156 forage combinations were run for four N effluent ranges, the ten types of soils found in the
157 study area, and the 43 years of daily weather data (1956-1998). Residual organic matter
158 from one crop to the next was accounted for as well as other management choices that are
159 common in these systems such as extra irrigation and harvests events.

160 **2.4 Calibration and Validation of DSSAT Crop Models**

161 Since the main objective was to assess potential N leaching, biomass accumulation
162 (that determines N uptake) was used as the variable in the calibration and validation
163 processes. Cultivar coefficients were manipulated to match field data of biomass
164 production without distinguishing between grain and forage (G. Hoogenboom and K.
165 Boote, personal communication). The most important data sources used for calibration and
166 validation are listed in Table 2.

167 The calibration and validation was similar for sorghum, corn, millet, and winter
168 forages. For brevity, only the calibration and validation for forage sorghum is described.
169 Woodard et al. (2002) found that forage sorghum between early August and early
170 November will produce between 7.3 and 11.1 Mg ha⁻¹ of dry matter and uptakes between
171 99 and 150 kg N ha⁻¹, under large N applications of manure effluents.

172 Environmental conditions of the actual field experiment were recreated with the
173 DSSAT v4.0. Soil data of the series Kershaw for Gilchrist County were obtained from the
174 Soil Survey Geographic Database (SSURGO) (Weatherspoon et al., 1992).

175 -Place Table 2-

176 Daily weather data from Levy (29.42 N, 82.82 W) compiled by Mavromatis et al.
177 (2002) were used. Manure effluent was set up to be applied in two applications every
178 month containing 21, 29, or 38 kg N ha⁻¹ each, for a total of 500, 690, and 910 kg N ha⁻¹ in

179 a year as detailed in the study. The sorghum crop received 6 applications with a total of
180 132, 174, and 228 kg N ha⁻¹, respectively. In addition to the water in the liquid manure,
181 extra irrigations were realized, so the crop would have only minimal stresses. A new
182 cultivar called forage sorghum was created after the process of validation between the
183 simulated and the experimental data.

184 Table 3 shows the final cultivar coefficients and Figure 3 presents a comparison
185 between simulated and observed data (Woodard et al., 2002) for sorghum, corn, winter
186 forage, and millet. As per graphs and RMSE in Figure 3, we concluded that crop models
187 were appropriately simulating crop biomass, N uptake, and consequently N leaching.

188 -Place Table 3-
189 -Place Figure 3-

190 **2.5 Manure N Application**

191 Dairy farm fields received a highly variable amount of manure N depending on herd
192 size, land available, and waste management system. Monthly rates of manure N received
193 by fields were estimated for all variety of north Florida dairy farms. These were estimated
194 by simulating dynamic cow flows in Markov-chains integrating real data from seasonality,
195 culling rates, reproduction rates, and milk production of north Florida dairies (for details
196 see Cabrera, 2004). These rates varied between 20 and 160 kg ha⁻¹ month⁻¹. Considering
197 that sprayfields usually have two applications per month, four treatments were arranged at
198 10, 20, 40, and 80 kg ha⁻¹ application⁻¹ in the DSSAT v4.0 models.

199 **2.6 Analyses**

200 Daily cumulative N leached (kg ha⁻¹) and biomass (kg ha⁻¹) outputs from the
201 simulations were compiled monthly for the span of the study period (1956-1998). All
202 months were classified according to ENSO phases and results were summarized by the

203 factors incorporated in the simulations: 12 months x 3 ENSO phases x 4 Manure N
204 applications x 10 soil types x 11 forage combinations.

205 **3 Results**

206 **3.1 Forage Crop Systems in North Florida Dairies**

207 Interviews and focus groups indicated that there are three marked seasons in the
208 north Florida forage calendar: spring-summer (from late March or early April to mid July),
209 summer-fall (from late July or early August to early or mid November), and fall-winter
210 (from late November or early December to mid March) (Table 4).

211 **Spring-summer crops**

212 Three crops were reported during this season in dairy farm fields: maize,
213 bermudagrass, and bahiagrass. Sorghum or pearl millet could also be an option in this
214 season, but were not reported. Maize is planted for silage and always as a part of a
215 sequence of crops. Bermudagrass and bahiagrass are used for hay, haylage (silage in the
216 field), or grazing, and they are also usually part of a sequence of crops. It is possible to
217 plant maize over the bermudagrass or bahiagrass in this season (sod-planting). One to three
218 cuttings are expected for the grasses during this season (two are usual), if they are not
219 grazed.

220 -Place Table 4-

221 **Summer-fall crops**

222 During the summer-fall season, sorghum and millet are common, although
223 continuation of grasses from the previous season is also common. Some farmers grow
224 maize for silage in this season or let the bermudagrass or bahiagrass re-grow, if they were
225 sod-planted in spring-summer. Another option, mentioned by one farmer, was the
226 re-growth of perennial peanut. Sorghum, millet, perennial peanut, and the grasses can be

227 used for hay, haylage, or grazing. One to three cuttings are expected for the grasses and one
228 to two cuttings for sorghum and millet, if they are not grazed.

229 **Fall-winter crops**

230 Winter forages are usually small grains or ryegrass. Small grains often used are rye,
231 oats (*Avena sativa*) or wheat. Bermudagrass and bahiagrass are perennial, but are dormant
232 during this season and can be multi-cropped with other species usually, non-till sod
233 planted. Small grains are used for hay or haylage; ryegrass is preferred for silage. Winter
234 small grains could be cut one to four times (two cuts are usual), if they are not grazed.
235 Clover (*Trifolium* spp.) was also mentioned as an option by one farmer, intercropped with
236 several other grasses.

237 **Sequences of forages**

238 If bermudagrass or bahiagrass is established and allowed to re-grow in the
239 spring-summer season, it will continue growing in the summer-fall season, and no other
240 crops will be grown on the same field until the fall-winter season. However, if maize is
241 grown in spring-summer planted into one of those grasses, the grass will be allowed to
242 re-grow in the summer-fall season.

243 If maize, sorghum, or millet is planted in the spring-summer season, any summer-fall
244 crop will be possible. In the fall-winter season, any small grain or ryegrass could follow
245 any summer-fall crop. If perennial grasses are not established, the most common sequence
246 of forages is silage maize in spring-summer followed by sorghum or millet in the
247 summer-fall, and any small grain or ryegrass in the fall-winter. If grasses are established, a
248 common sequence is grass-grass-small grain or ryegrass. Bermudagrass is much more
249 common than bahiagrass and both are much more common than perennial peanut.

250 Rye, oats, and wheat are very similar forages and farmers use them indistinctly.
251 Ryegrass was indicated as having better-quality forage, but requires more care and time. It
252 is very common to mix all these winter forages in the fields.

253 Farmers try to have a crop in the field at all times, with brief windows between the
254 growing seasons. The regulatory agencies strongly recommend this practice in order to
255 ameliorate the risk of N leaching.

256 **3.2 Nitrogen Leaching**

257 At least some amount of N leaching is predicted to occur in every month of the year;
258 however, there was great variability in those amounts depending upon climate conditions,
259 season of the year, soil characteristics, crops in the fields, and amounts of manure N
260 applied. There was consistently a much greater likelihood of higher N leaching during El
261 Niño years than during neutral years and in neutral years than in La Niña years (Figure 4).
262 Relative variations in N leaching among ENSO phases due to changes in other biophysical
263 and environmental factors (i.e., crops and soils) were not monotonically distributed; but
264 always hold that higher amounts of N leaching occurred in El Niño and lower amounts in
265 La Niña phases.

266 Absolute amounts of N leaching ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ yr}^{-1}$) when the manure N application was 40
267 $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ varied from more than 500 (El Niño phase, soil type 6: Millhopper-Bonneau,
268 and corn-sorghum rotation) to less than 260 (La Niña phase, soils type 2: Arredondo-
269 Jonesville-Lake and bermudagrass or bahiagrass rotation) (Figure 4). Absolute differences
270 between El Niño and La Niña phases varied from (kg ha yr^{-1}) less than 17 (soil type 5:
271 Penney-Kershaw and bermudagrass rotation) to more than 64 (soil Otella-Jonesville-
272 Seaboard and corn-sorghum rotation). There was no consistence in the differences between
273 neutral phases and El Niño or La Niña phases regarding N leaching, but usually neutral N

274 leaching amounts were closer to El Niño phases; for example N leaching (kg ha yr^{-1}), in
275 soil type 5, for millet-corn rotation in neutral phase was almost the same as for El Niño
276 phase, however for corn-sorghum rotation N leaching in neutral phase was much closer to
277 La Niña phase than to El Niño phase.

278 Monthly N leaching predictions ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ mo}^{-1}$) indicated great variation among ENSO
279 phase distributions throughout the year and identified a critical period (Dec-Jan-Feb) when
280 the N leaching is substantially superior to the rest of the year and a critical single month
281 (January) when the N leaching could represent as much or more than half of the total year
282 (Figure 5).

283 Figure 5 shows a typical N cycle in dairy fields in north Florida depending upon crop
284 patterns and climate conditions. During January, the distribution of N leaching predicted
285 was slightly skewed to the right (high measurements) and overall presented more N
286 leaching in El Niño than neutral and La Niña years. It is also predicted for El Niño phase
287 higher N leaching in the months of December, August, September, and November; for La
288 Niña years, February; and for neutral years, March, April, and May. For the months of
289 June, July, and October the distributions of the three phases are very close and the actual N
290 leaching amounts will depend of the specific climatic conditions. Notice that usually during
291 neutral years, there was higher variability of monthly N leaching than during the other
292 ENSO phases.

293 Differences in the predicted amounts of N leached ($\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{ mo}^{-1}$) when changing the
294 applications of manure N effluent varied differently. In the case study of the month of
295 October (Figure 6), this was almost imperceptibly when the applications doubled from
296 10N to 20N, however this increased substantially when the applications went to 40N and
297 increased exponentially when applications went to 80N (Figure 6). Consistent with

298 previous results shown in Figure 5, distributions of the three phases are very close in the
299 month of October. It was noticed that the variability of the results also increased with
300 higher amounts of manure N applied, demonstrated in substantially larger ranges of outputs
301 in the distributions.

302 A case study of relative amounts of N leaching by different crop systems in soils type
303 3: Bonneau-Blanton-Eunola can be studied by comparing Figures 7 and 8. As previously,
304 in January, winter forages showed substantially higher amounts of N leaching (between 70
305 and 180 kg ha⁻¹ mo⁻¹) (refer to Figure 7, soil type 3) than spring or summer crops (Figure 8)
306 that ranged between 2 to 95 kg ha⁻¹ mo⁻¹.

307 -Place Figure 7-

308 In spring and summer, millet and sorghum presented greater amounts of N leaching,
309 while bahiagrass and bermudagrass presented much lower amounts (Figure 8); corn
310 presented medium amounts, in the higher end during spring and in the lower end during
311 summer. There were higher predicted amounts of N leaching for El Niño phases and lower
312 amounts for La Niña phases, for all crops in spring and summer, although this was less
313 marked for bermudagrass and bahiagrass during fall.

314 -Place Figure 8-

315 During January, the crop models estimated more N leaching for El Niño phases and
316 lower for La Niña phases in all 10 soils found in the study area (Figure 7). Soils type 3, 4,
317 5, 6, and 9 presented overall higher N leaching amounts, while soils type 1, 2, 7, 8, and 10
318 presented overall lower N leaching, however lower variability was noticed for soils type 3
319 and 5.

320 **4 Discussion**

321 Findings from this study of both N leaching and biomass accumulation are consistent
322 with data reported by the literature. Absolute values and trends of N leaching and its intra

323 and inter annual variability are highly consistent with previous field experiments. For
324 example, by comparing results presented in Figures 4 to 8 with field studies in the same
325 location as Woodard et al. (2002, 2003) and Macoon et al. (2002), it was noticed, high
326 level of agreement between the simulations and the experiments regarding: a) absolute
327 values of dry matter accumulation of individual and yearly crops rotations, b) seasonality
328 of substantially higher amounts of N in the soil solution during winter, c) higher N removal
329 and consequently less N leaching with grasses (bermudagrass and bahiagrass), and d)
330 sudden increment in N leaching after a threshold of manure N application above 500 kg
331 yr^{-1} . Previous field studies did not last more than a few years and based on them it is not
332 possible to infer differences among ENSO phases; fortunately this study, its
333 documentation, and its corroboration with previous literature allowed us to estimate the
334 risks of N leaching by ENSO phase and their distributions.

335 By studying the outcomes of the simulations it is possible to infer management
336 strategies that evidence the trade-off between N leaching and biomass production. In
337 Figure 4 we set up arbitrarily levels of N leaching and biomass at 300 and 3000 $\text{kg ha}^{-1} \text{yr}^{-1}$,
338 respectively, which divide each graph in four panels, which could be assumed as follow:
339 low N leaching, low biomass; low N leaching, high biomass; high N leaching, low N
340 leaching; high N leaching, high biomass. From these, farmers' objective would be high
341 biomass accumulation and, if possible, low N leaching; while environmental agencies
342 would pursue mostly low N leaching levels. For example, there would be high biomass
343 accumulation with corn-sorghum rotations for most of the soils (except soil type 3), but
344 there would be high biomass together with low N leaching only with soils type 2, in neutral
345 and La Niña years with soils type 8 and 1, and in neutral years with soils type 5 (Figure
346 4B). However, because soil type is a fixed characteristic that farmers can not change,

347 Figure 4A would give interesting guidelines of this trade-off by a specific soil type (in
348 Figure 4A, soil type 5) and the potential crop options. Evidently, crop rotations for all
349 ENSO phases consisting of corn-bermudagrass, and corn-corn, and during La Niña years of
350 millet-corn and corn-sorghum would be highly advisable since the point of view of the
351 farmer looking for high production returns and low N leaching. Following the same logic,
352 if the regulation pressure is too high requiring farmers to decrease N leaching drastically,
353 crop rotations consisting of bahiagrass, bermudagrass, or a rotation of corn-bahiagrass
354 would be advisable for the least amounts of N leaching.

355 Following on the previous discussion, knowing that the interviews and focus groups in
356 this study indicated that major changes for dairy farms' environmental accountability
357 regarding N leaching would be based mostly in adjusting crop rotations, it is evident that
358 seasonal climate forecast plays a critical role in crops selection since they are highly
359 sensitive to daily weather represented in seasonal climate variations. Great amounts of N
360 lost could be prevented by selecting the right crops for a set of given conditions including
361 seasonal climate predictions. This analysis should be performed in an individual farm-by-
362 farm basis.

363 Figure 5 describes a common N cycle in north Florida dairy farm fields under constant
364 high pressure of manure effluent applications. A build-up of N in the soil starts early in
365 spring (April) when a new agricultural year begins. During April, dominant low
366 precipitation conditions (Figure 2), a new crop in high requirement of N, and a depletion of
367 N during previous winter create conditions to decrease N leaching; in summer, rapid plant
368 growth sucks great amounts of N and decrease amounts of N leaching; in fall, high N
369 uptake would remain moving towards the end of the season with N build up in the soil; and
370 in winter, low crop growth and low N uptake increases the amounts of N leaching. This

371 intra-annual soil N cycle impacted by seasonal climate variability, is also be impacted by
372 inter-annual climate variability represented by ENSO phases. In this study, it was not
373 considered sequential carryover of N from year to year assuming that the dynamics of the
374 soil have reached steady state, however it would be interesting to study the N cycle in the
375 soil (and perhaps its movement to ground and superficial waters) for a series of years.

376 Even though beyond the scope of this study, we can conjecture here that it would be
377 desirable to couple results from crop simulation models with whole dairy mechanic and
378 economic models to assert holistic management strategies toward economic and ecologic
379 sustainability of these systems.

380 The higher (lower) N leaching (biomass accumulation) predicted for El Niño years than
381 Neutral years or La Niña years is attributed to climate patterns, mostly the number and
382 intensity of rainfall events and temperature cycles. Nitrogen in the soil will be lixiviated
383 easily with strong rainfalls, while it could be promoted in its absorption by the plants if
384 there are frequent soft rainfalls, even though the overall rainfall amounts in both cases are
385 similar over a period of time. Temperature and its variations will impact the N leaching
386 either because it promotes different plant growth and consequently different N uptake or
387 because it impacts the speed of the decomposition in the soil. An attempt to relate the N
388 leaching with the Japan Meteorological Index (JMA) (O'Brien et al., 1999), used to predict
389 the El Niño Southern Oscillation phases, showed little or no correlation.

390 There is great variability in the interaction of soil types and months of the year
391 regarding N leaching and biomass accumulation. Water holding capacity, pH and
392 permeability of soils are believed to hold most of the causes for these differences. Soils
393 with very low permeability and higher pH will facilitate the leaching of N, which also will
394 vary throughout the year, and at the same time it will determine higher biomass

395 accumulation. There is more biomass accumulation for soils with higher N leaching rates
396 because in these intense systems there will be little stress because of the lack of N, other
397 nutrients, and/or water as these fields have irrigation systems that deliver the manure
398 effluent and artificial irrigation as needed.

399 **5 Conclusions**

400 The use of crop simulations was critical in recognizing trends, interactions, and
401 identifying absolute values of N leaching and biomass accumulation under different
402 conditions of climate, manure N application, soil type, and forage systems. It would be
403 impossible to design and conduct a field experiment of this magnitude.

404 It is consistent that higher amounts of N leaching are expected during El Niño years
405 and lower amounts during La Niña years. Higher variability in N leaching is expected in
406 neutral years. During winter, specifically between December and March more than 50% of
407 a year N leaching occurs.

408 In general, the best forage systems to prevent N leaching are those that start in
409 spring-summer with bermudagrass or maize; have bermudagrass, bahiagrass or maize in
410 summer; and finish with winter forages. The systems that leach the most are those that
411 include millet and/or sorghum. Bahiagrass could also leach high N in conditions of high
412 manure N application.

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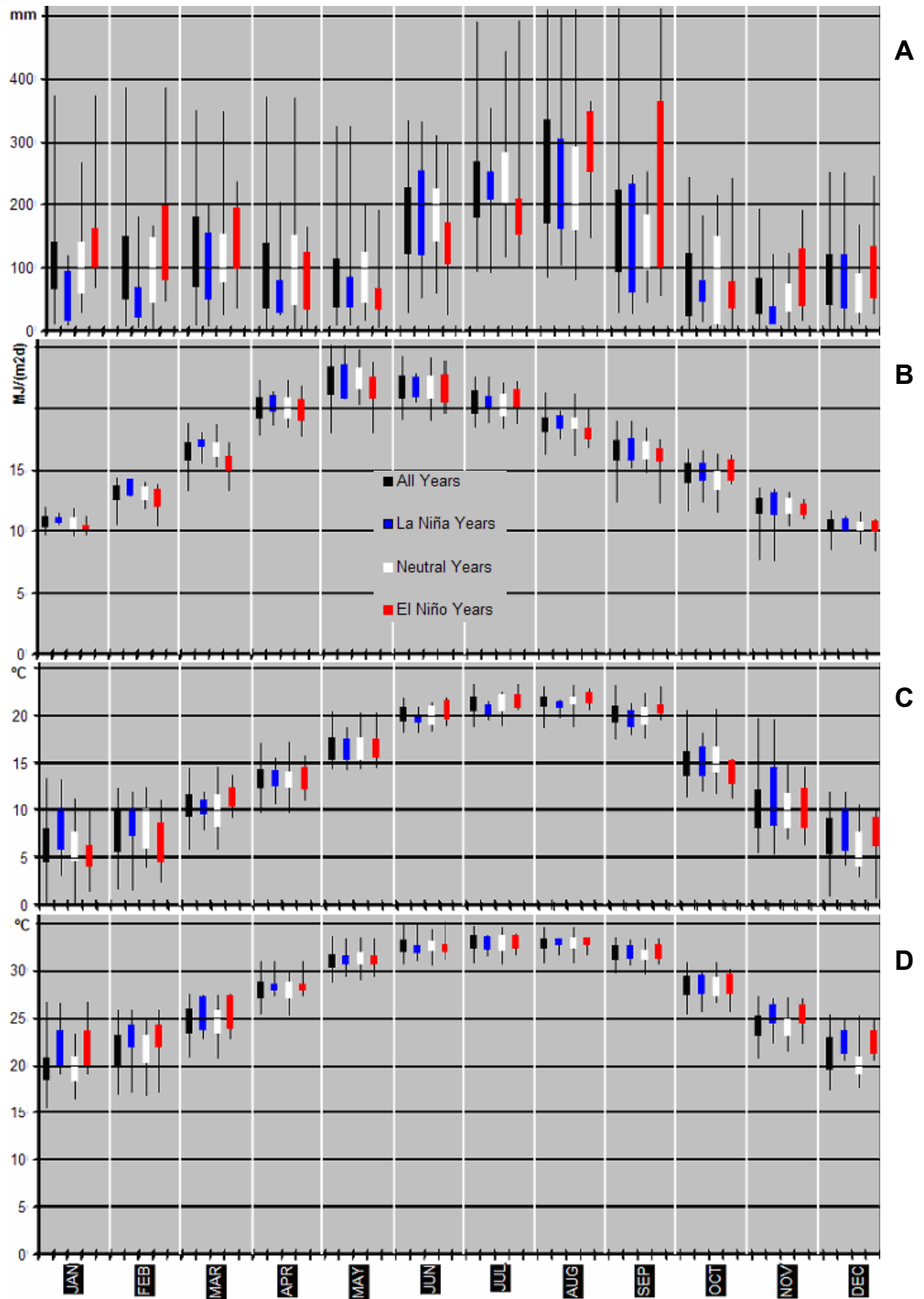
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503 Figure 1. Study area, dairy farms, and soil types

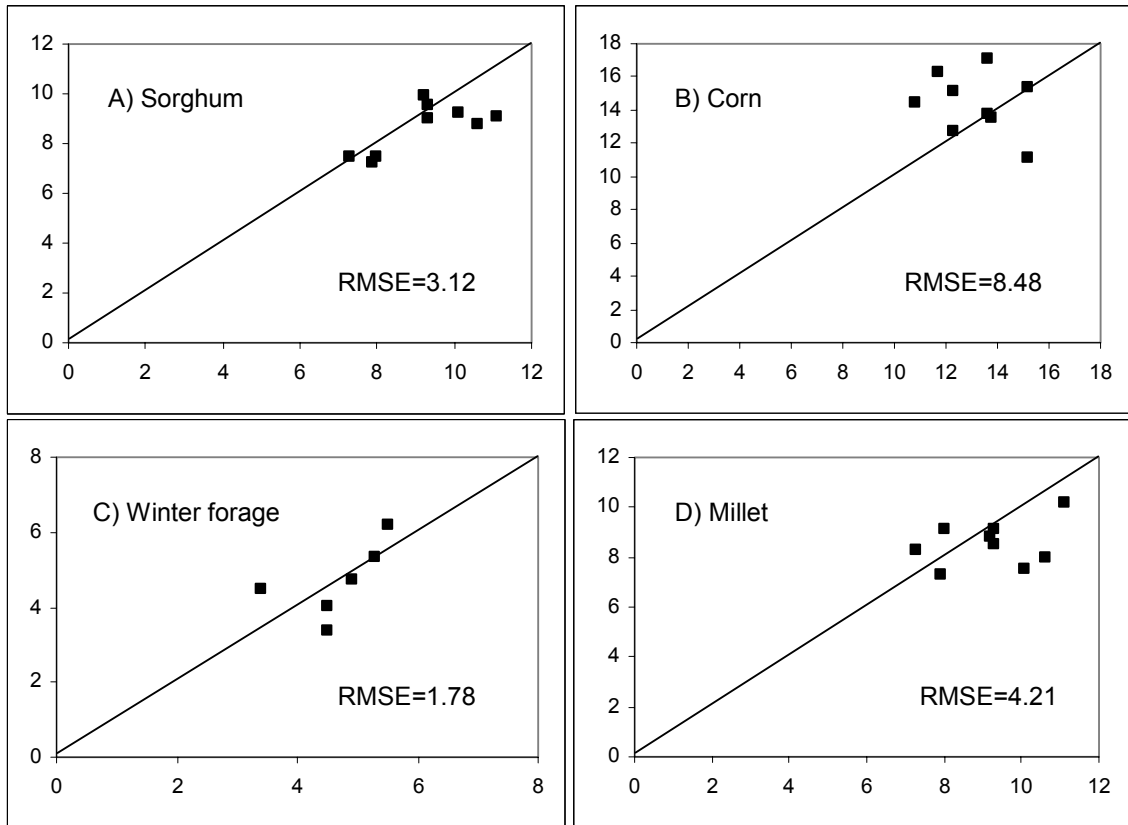


504

505 Figure 2. Climate for different ENSO phases (1956-1998) in north Florida.
 506 A) Precipitation. B) Solar Radiation. C) Minimum Temperature. D) Maximum
 507 Temperature. Station: Levy (29.42 N, 82.82 W). Source: Mavromatis et al. (2002).

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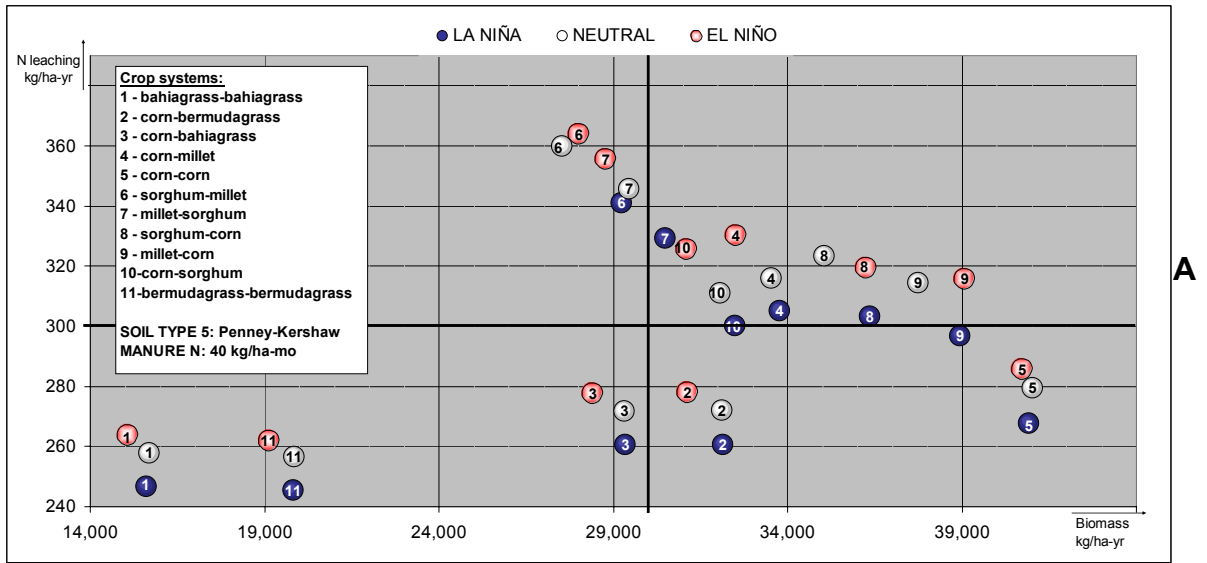
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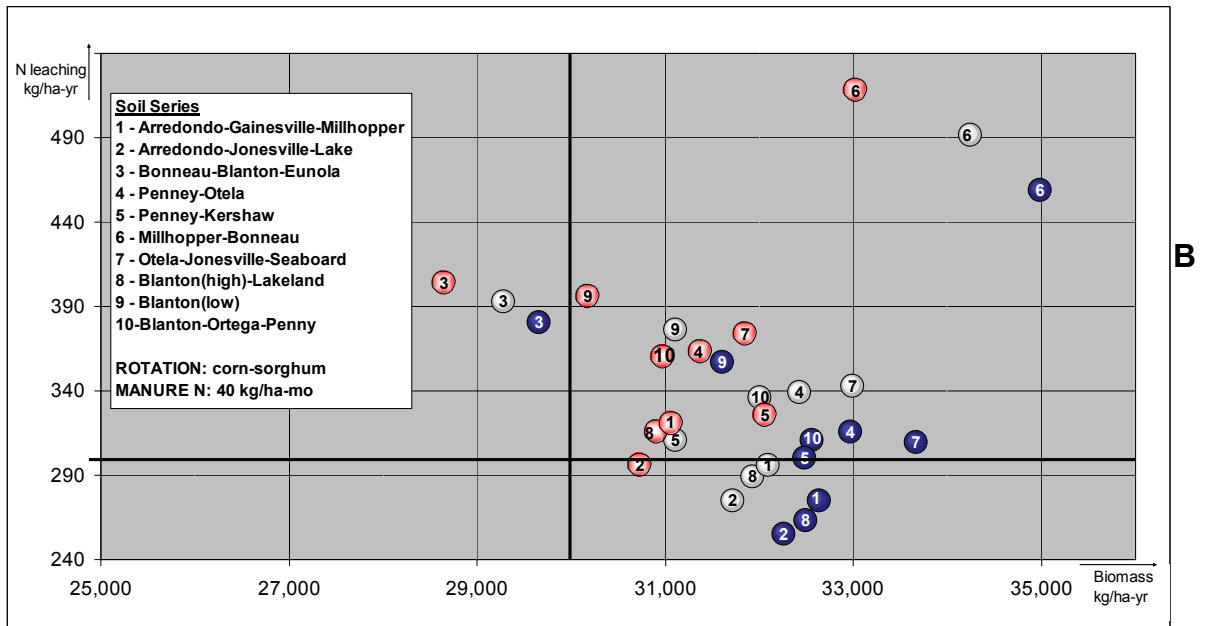
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Figure 3. Forage sorghum: Observed and simulated biomass production, Bell, 1996-1998 and overall Root Mean Square Errors (RMSE).

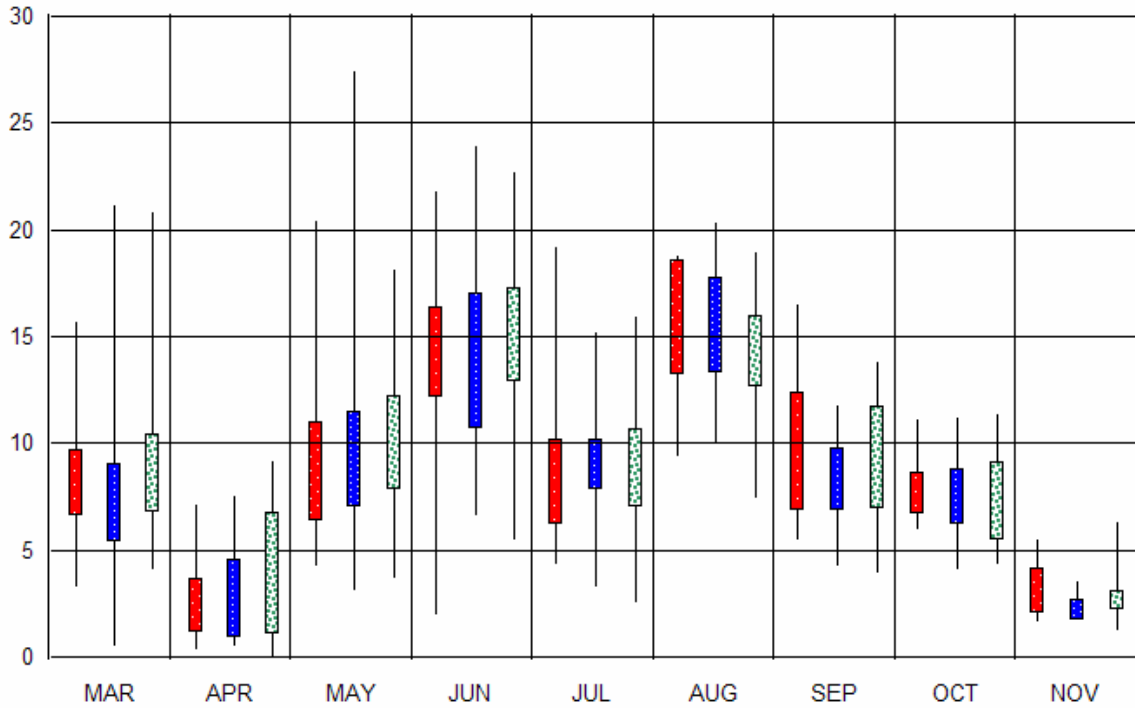
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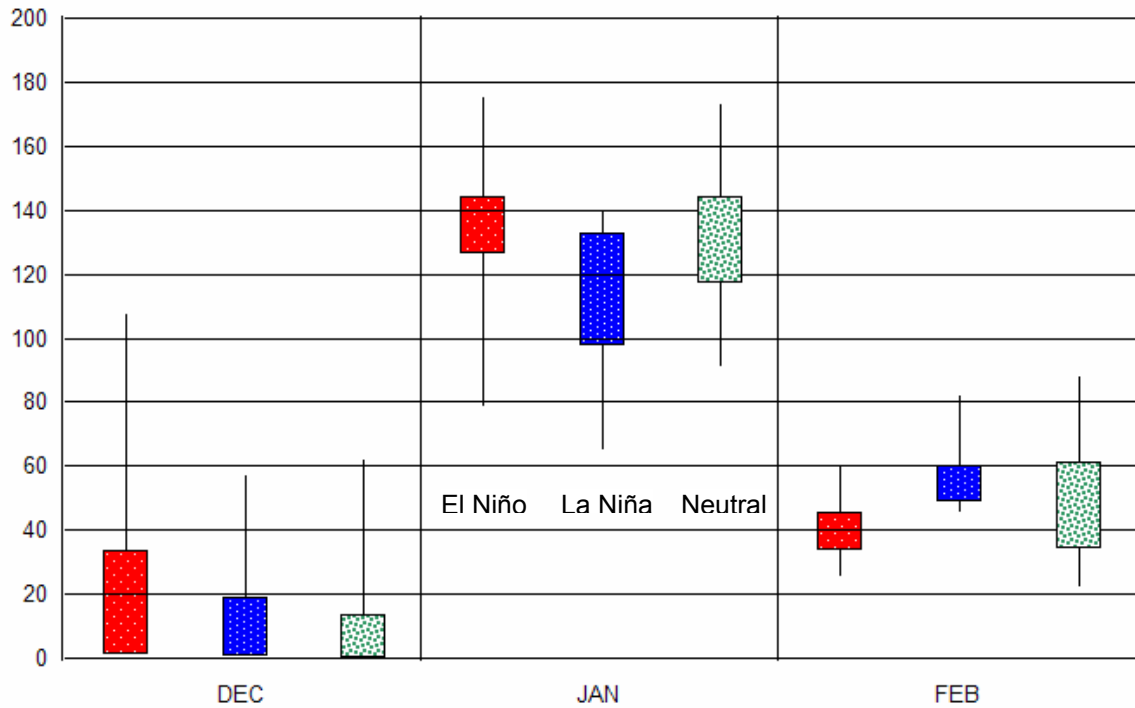
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517 Figure 4. Trade off of N leaching and biomass accumulation for different ENSO phases (La
 518 Niña, Neutral, El Niño) when applied 40 kg ha⁻¹ mo⁻¹ for A) different crop rotations with
 519 soil type 5: Penney-Kershaw and B) for different soil types with corn-sorghum rotation.
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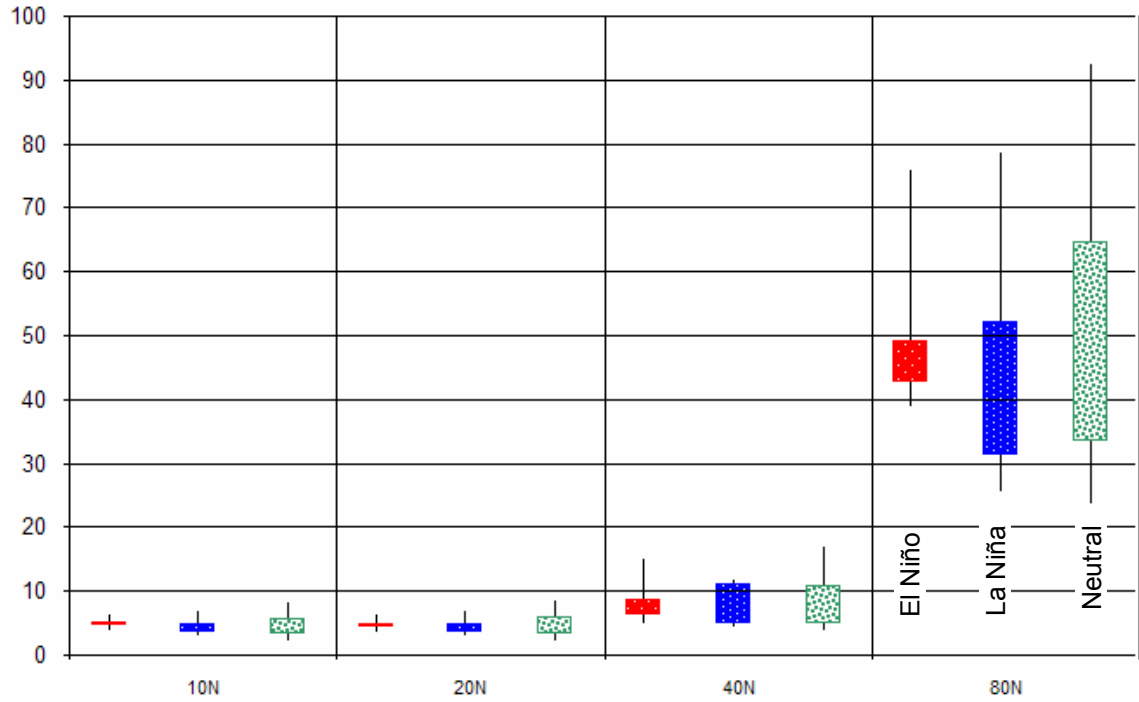


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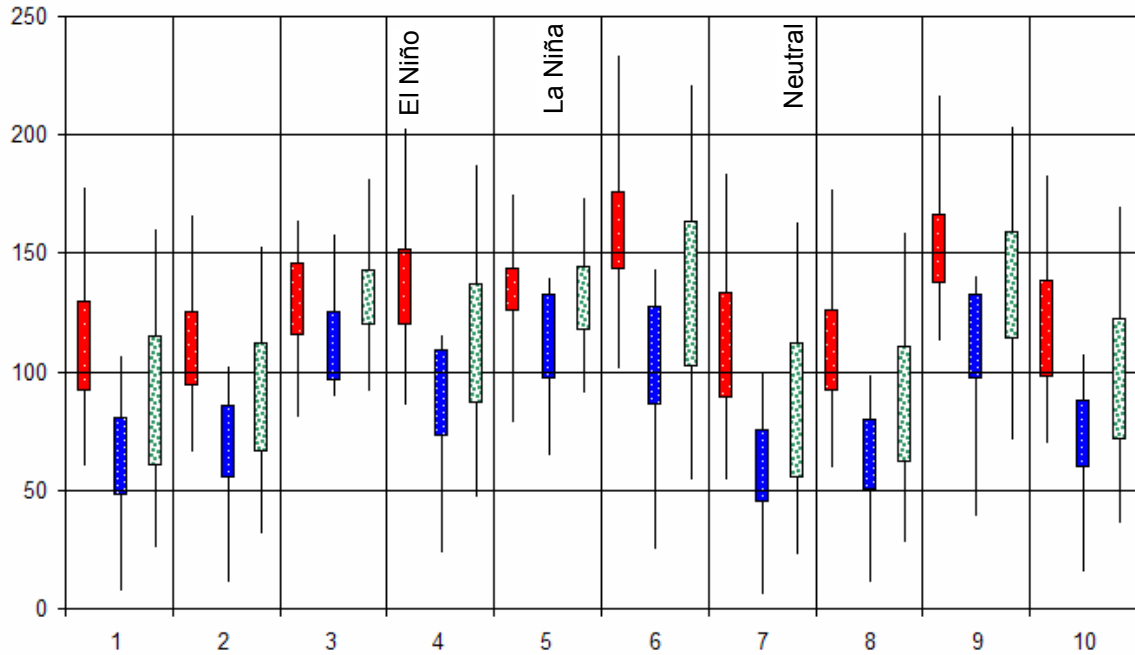
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523 Figure 5. Monthly N leaching (kg ha⁻¹) distribution by ENSO phases for a rotation
 524 consisting of corn-bahiagrass in soil type 5: Penney-Kershaw when applied 40 kg ha⁻¹ mo⁻¹
 525 of manure N effluent. Maximum, 75-percentile, 25-percentile, and minimum values in each
 526 distribution.



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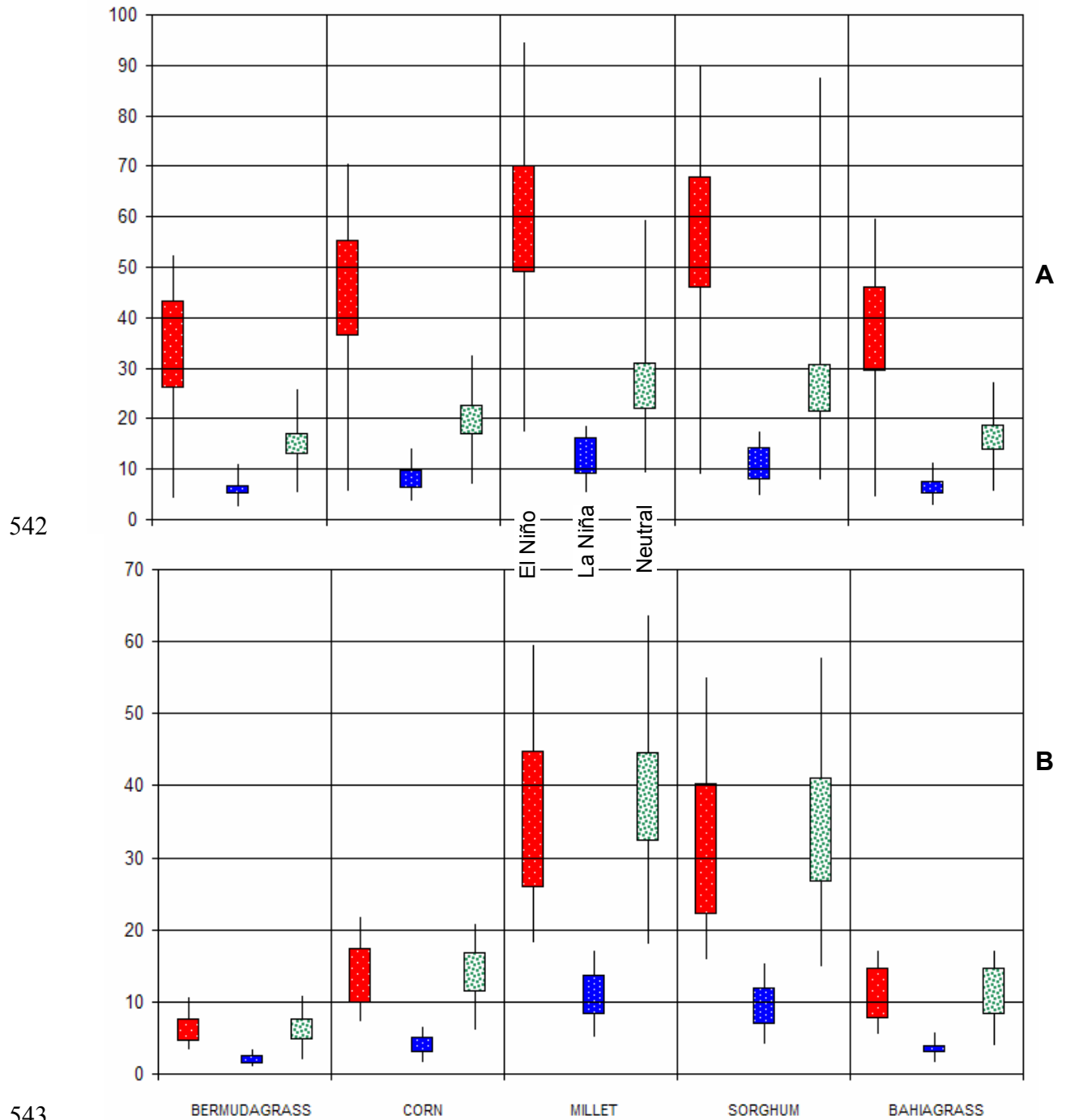
528 Figure 6. Predicted N leaching in the month of October (kg ha mo⁻¹) under different
 529 amounts of manure N applied for soil type 7: Otela-Jonesville-Seaboard and bahiagrass
 530 rotation. Maximum, 75-percentile, 25-percentile, and minimum values in each distribution.
 531 Note: the horizontal axis represents the amount of manure N as effluent applied twice a
 532 month (i.e., 20N means 20 kg N applied twice = 40 kg).



533

534 Figure 7. Nitrogen leaching in January for winter forage when applied 80 kg manure N
 535 mo^{-1} for all soil types found in north Florida represented by their codes: 1=Arredondo-
 536 Gainesville-Millhopper, 2=Arredondo Jonesville Lake, 3=Bonneau Blanton Eunola,
 537 4=Penney Otela, 5=Penney Kershaw, 6=Millhopper Bonneau, 7=Otela Jonesville
 538 Seaboard, 8=Blanton(high) Lakeland, 9=Blanton(low), 10=Blanton Ortega Penny.
 539 Maximum, 75-percentile, 25-percentile, and minimum values in each distribution.
 540

541



544 Figure 8. Monthly N leaching (kg ha^{-1}) distribution by ENSO phases when applied 40 kg
 545 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ mo}^{-1}$ of manure N effluent in soil type 3: Bonneau Blanton Eunola for the months of A)
 546 June and B) September. Maximum, 75-percentile, 25-percentile, and minimum values in
 547 each distribution.

548 Table 1. Soil types, some characteristics, and their sources of information used for the
 549 study

Type	Series	County	Drainage ¹ Rate	CEC ² meq 100 g ⁻¹	pH ³	Survey
1	Arredondo-Gainesville-Millhopper	Alachua	0.75	6.0	5.9	Thomas et al., 1985
2	Arredondo-Jonesville-Lake	Alachua	0.65	5.0	6.3	Thomas et al., 1985
3	Bonneau-Blanton-Eunola	Gilchrist	0.80	6.6	5.6	Weatherspoon et al., 1992
4	Penney-Otela	Gilchrist, Lafayette	0.80	3.6	4.9	Weatherspoon et al., 1992
5	Penney-Kershaw	Gilchrist	0.75	3.2	4.7	Weatherspoon et al., 1992
6	Millhopper-Bonneau	Levy	0.85	7.0	5.0	Slabaugh et al., 1996
7	Otela-Jonesville-Seaboard	Levy	0.75	5.5	5.3	Slabaugh et al., 1996
8	Blanton(high)-Lakeland	Suwannee	0.60	2.7	5.1	Houston, 1965
9	Blanton(low)	Suwannee	0.80	7.4	5.3	Houston, 1965
10	Blanton-Ortega-Penny	Lafayette	0.75	5.1	5.3	Weatherspoon et al., 1998

550 Note: Drainage, CEC, and pH are only for the first soil layer. ¹0.60 (well), 0.75 (somewhat
 551 excessive), 0.85 (excessive). ²Cation Exchange Capacity < 3.0 (extremely low), 3.1-5.0
 552 (very low), 5.1-7.0 (low), 7.1-10.0 (medium). ³< 5.0 (very strongly acid), 5.1-5.5 (strongly
 553 acid), 5.6-6.0 (moderately acid), 6.1-6.5 (slightly acid).
 554

555 Table 2. Information sources for calibration and validation of forage crops in north Florida
 556 dairy farm systems

Study/Source	Location	Weather	Soil Series	Observations
Woodard et al. (2002)	North Florida Holsteins Farm, Inc. Bell. 29.73 N, 82.85 W	1996-1998	Kershaw	Several forages: maize, sorghum, rye. Manure effluent applied in rates of 500, 690, and 910 kg N ha ⁻¹ year ⁻¹
Fontaneli et al. (2000) (2001)	Forage Field Evaluation Laboratory. Gainesville. 29.08 N, 82.42 W	1996-1997	Sparr	Cool season forages: comparing winter multi-crops. Warm season forages: comparing three varieties of millet and two varieties of sorghum
Wright et al. (1993)	North Florida Research and Education Center. Quincy. 30.40 N, 84.27 W	1992	Norfolk	Millet and sorghum. Different treatments and purposes
Johnson et al.	Tifton, GA. 31.43 N, 83.89 W	Before 1991	Tifton	Maize and rye with different rates of Manure effluent applied
Survey north Florida dairy farms	Suwannee River Basin	Several years	Several types	Not always precise information, but real and trustworthy

557

558 Table 3. Coefficient values and coefficient definitions of modified crops in DSSAT
 559

Forage	P1	P1V	P1D	P2	P20	P2R	P5	G1	G2	G3	PHINT
sorghum	500.0				10.5	90.0	540.0	5.0	6.0		44.0
Millet*	600.0				10.0	90.0	540.0	5.0	6.0		44.0
Maize	200.0			0.52			940.0		620.0	8.5	38.9
winter forage		47.0	64.0				360.0	28.0	25.0	1.3	80.0

560 P1: Thermal time from seedling emergence to the end of the juvenile phase
 561 (expressed in degree days above a base temperature (10 °C sorghum, 8 °C millet
 562 and maize) during which the plant is not responsive to changes in photoperiod.
 563 P1V: Relative amount that development is slowed for each day of unfulfilled
 564 vernalization, assuming that 50 days of vernalization is sufficient for all cultivars
 565 P1D: Relative amount that development is slowed when plants are grown in a
 566 photoperiod 1 hour shorter than the optimum (which is considered to be 20
 567 hours).
 568 P2: Extent to which development (expressed as days) is delayed for each hour
 569 increase in photoperiod above the longest photoperiod at which development
 570 proceeds at a maximum rate (which is considered to be 12.5 hours).
 571 P20: Critical photoperiod or the longest day length (in hours) at which development
 572 occurs at a maximum rate. At values higher than P20, the rate of development is
 573 reduced.
 574 P2R: Extent to which basic development leading to panicle initiation (expressed in
 575 degree days) is delayed for each hour increase in photoperiod above P20.
 576 P5: Thermal time (degree days above a base temperature (10 oC sorghum, 8 oC millet
 577 and maize, 1 oC winter forages) from beginning of grain filling (3 4 days after
 578 flowering) to physiological maturity.
 579 G1: Scaler for relative leaf size (sorghum and millet); Kernel number per unit weight
 580 of stem (less leaf blades and sheaths) plus spike at anthesis (winter forages)
 581 G2: Scaler for partitioning of assimilates to the panicle (sorghum, millet, maize);
 582 Kernel filling rate under optimum conditions (winter forages)
 583 G3: Kernel filling rate during the linear grain filling stage and under optimum
 584 conditions (maize); Non stressed dry weight of a single stem (excluding leaf
 585 blades and sheaths) and spike when elongation ceases (winter forages)
 586 PHINT: Phylochron interval; the interval in thermal time (degree days) between
 587 successive leaf tip appearances
 588 * Conversion of solar radiation was additionally set to 0.42, which originally was 0.50.

Table 4. Forage systems and their seasonality in north Florida dairy farms

SPRING - SUMMER					SUMMER - FALL					FALL - WINTER				
BAHIAGRASS					BAHIAGRASS					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
BERMUDAGRASS					BERMUDAGRASS					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
CORN					SORGHUM					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
CORN					BERMUDAGRASS					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
CORN					BAHIAGRASS					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
CORN					MILLET					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
CORN					CORN					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
MILLET*					SORGHUM					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
MILLET					SORGHUM					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
SORGHUM*					MILLET					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
SORGHUM					CORN					RYE, OATS, WHEAT, OR RYEGRASS				
					PERENNIAL PEANUT* **					CLOVER**				
MAR	APR	MAY	JUN	JUL	AUG	SEP	OCT	NOV	DEC	JAN	FEB	MAR		

* Not found in the interviews, but they are possible. ** Not common and not simulated with DSSAT.