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14 **Six-year transition from conventional to organic farming:**
15 **effects on crop production and soil quality**

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35 **Abstract**

36 Organic farming has become increasingly important in recent decades as the consumer has grown
37 its focus on the food and environmental benefits of the technique. However, when compared to
38 conventional farming systems, organic farm system are known to yield less.

39 Presented in this paper are the results from two organic cropping systems following six years of
40 organic management. Fertilisation management differentiated the two systems; one was fertilised
41 with green manure and commercial organic fertilisers, while the other was fertilised with dairy
42 manure. A conventional cropping system, managed with mineral fertiliser as typical in the southern
43 Piemonte region (Italy), served as the “business as usual” crop management. The first hypothesis
44 tested related to crop yield variation during the initial phase of organic management; we expected a
45 sharp reduction in the early phase, then minor reductions later on. The second hypothesis tested
46 related to soil fertility variation; we expected enhanced soil fertility under organic management.

47 Overall, the organic system produced less, relative to the conventional system in interaction with
48 year effect. Yield reduction seemed related to the lower soil nutrient availability of organic
49 fertilisers that provided nutrients consequent to mineralisation. Therefore, summer crops are well-
50 suited to manure-fertilised organic farms as mineralisation happens at higher temperatures, as
51 opposed to winter wheat, which is largely reduced in such systems. Commercial organic fertilisers
52 can, however, limit this effect through their high nutrient availability in the winter and early spring
53 Also shown was that soil quality, defined as a general decrease in soil organic carbon (SOC) over
54 time in the three analysed arable systems, can be mitigated by manure additions. Green manuring
55 can maintain SOC and increase total N in soil, only if introduced for a sufficient number of years
56 during crop rotation. Finally, soil fertility and Potential Mineralisable N in the different systems
57 demonstrated that organic systems managed with commercial organic nitrogen fertilisers and green
58 manure do not improve soil quality, compared to systems managed with mineral fertilisers.

59 **Keywords:** organic farming, crop production, manure fertilisation, commercial organic fertiliser,
60 soil quality.

61 **1. Introduction**

62 The increased importance of organic farming in recent decades has come from a heightened
63 consumer awareness of its associated food and environmental quality benefits. Worldwide land
64 under organic farming in 2011 encompassed more than 37.2 million hectares (Willer and Yiussefi,
65 2011). Organic farming in Italy has also expanded due, in part, to financial support from the
66 European Union through the Rural Development Programme, such that in 2010, its number of
67 organic operators totaled 47,663. Nearly 4% of these farmers were located in the Piemonte region
68 (MiPAAF, 2011). Here, the most important organic crops are grassland and ley managed by
69 livestock farms; they cover 42.6% of the utilized agricultural area (UAA) under organic farming.
70 Other diffuse crops are cereals (31.6% of UAA), such as rice and maize (Corsi, 2008).

71 Organic farming improves the environmental quality of the agricultural system (Gomiero et al.,
72 2011; Gaudino et al., 2014) and the organoleptic quality of its products (Crecente-Campo et al.,
73 2012; Gopinath et al., 2008; Warman and Havard, 1997), with no decrease in sanitary quality and
74 yield (Biffi et al., 2004, Edwards, 2009). However, when compared to conventional farming
75 systems, yield reductions are frequent (Seufert et al., 2012), ranging between 20 and 40% for arable
76 crops and 0 to 30% for forage crops (Seufert et al., 2012, Stockdale et al., 2001). Farmyard manure
77 is able to mitigate such reduced crop yields. Indeed, many long-term field trials have demonstrated
78 average crop yield reductions of 20% on livestock-based organic systems relative to conventional
79 systems. On stockless farms, decreases have been 33 to 45% (Kirchmann and Ryan, 2004).

80 During system transition from conventional to organic, yield reductions are made more evident
81 (Cong Tu et al., 2006; Gopinath et al., 2008; Gopinath et al., 2009; Liebhardt et al., 1989).

82 Conversion of an agricultural system to an organic one requires time for soil biological activity to
83 adapt to its new situation. Moreover, as Monaco et al. (2009) demonstrated, previous organic
84 fertiliser additions affect Nitrogen (N) mineralisation more than do fresh additions. Hence, multiple
85 years are required for the soil to mineralise past organic fertiliser and manure additions for the crop
86 to be provided with appropriate N availability. This causes transition times to vary and generally

87 lengthen if the system was previously fertilised with mineral fertilisers alone (Clark et al., 1998;
88 Drinkwater et al., 1995).

89 Reduced soil N availability is often regarded as the main factor responsible for very low organic
90 system productivity (Berry et al., 2002; Clark et al., 1998; Clark et al., 1999). The capacity of the
91 system to supply the crop with N is affected by the pattern and timing of N mineralisation and its
92 synchronisation to crop N demand (Berry et al., 2002). Fertiliser, ammendment, and fertilisation
93 strategy choices, when appropriate, can synchronise crop need to nutrient availability and minimise
94 environmental pollution (Poudel et al., 2002).

95 The C/N ratio of a fertiliser is a good indicator of its organic matter mineralisation and a useful
96 measure when making an appropriate fertiliser choice (Monaco et al., 2008). Slurry and poultry
97 manures possess C/N ratios of less than 15:1 (Berry et al., 2002). Therefore, these sources are
98 quickly mineralised in soil, increasing nutrient availability and sustaining yield production at levels
99 similar to mineral fertilisers (Olesen et al., 2009; Sistani et al., 2008). Farmyard manures also have
100 C/N ratios close to or less than 15:1, making them crop production promoters as well (Grignani et
101 al., 2007). On the contrary, when the supply of organic matter comes from straw residues or grass
102 catch/cover crops containing higher C/N ratios, N immobilisation is typically increased and rarely
103 accompanied by increased crop yields (Baggs et al., 2000; Olesen et al., 2009).

104 Organic management also has an important effect on soil quality. From a long-term, whole
105 cultivation system perspective, organic management is expected to increase soil organic matter
106 content (SOM) (Schjønning et al., 2002; Stockdale et al., 2001). Nonetheless, there are instances in
107 which increased soil organic matter fails to occur, even in long-term trials (Gosling and Shepherd,
108 2005). Instances in which increased SOM is highly correlated to C balance (Clark et al., 1998;
109 Drinkwater et al., 1995; Mazzoncini et al., 2010; Stockdale et al., 2002) can, in turn, be affected by
110 lower crop yields and crop residue inputs (Gosling and Shepherd, 2005). In addition, factors
111 independent of management practices, such as soil type and climate, can severely limit the capacity
112 of soil to stock more SOM (Fließbach et al., 2007).

113 Organic fertilisation is known to improve soil chemical properties and to increase its microbial
114 biomass activity (Drinkwater et al., 1995; Fließbach et al., 2007; Marinari et al., 2006; Mazzoncini
115 et al., 2010; Poudel et al., 2002; Schjønning et al., 2002; Werner, 1997). In short time frames, soil
116 biologic activity measurements can accurately evaluate the enhanced ecologic and agronomic soil
117 fertility that comes from organic cropping systems. Potentially mineralisable N (PMN) and
118 microbial respiration are considered two sensitive indicators of the changes that soil undergoes with
119 different farming systems (Marinari et al., 2006).

120 The availability of phosphorous (P) and potassium (K) to plants is another indicator that can be
121 used; they depend on the P and K budget. In general, organic farm systems have higher P and K
122 inputs than do stockless systems due to their greater use of animal manure (Clark et al., 1998; Eltun
123 et al., 2002; Gosling and Shepherd, 2005; Borda et al., 2011). For example, when poultry manure or
124 sewage sludge with N:P ratios between 0.4 and 1.1 (Sistani et al., 2008) or at 0.6 (Criquet and
125 Braud, 2008) is applied, surface soil horizon available P increases (Shepherd and Withers, 1999).
126 Similarly, animal manure applications (characteristically low N:K ratios) increase soil exchangeable
127 K (Clark et al., 1998; Drinkwater et al., 1995; Sistani et al., 2008). However, while this increase is
128 larger than in conventional systems, it has not always been measured when the balance indicates
129 greater outputs than inputs (Kirchmann and Ryan, 2004)

130 This paper studies the effect of transition from conventional to organic farming on crop yield and
131 soil fertility during a six year-period. Transition is mainly driven by changes in fertilisation and
132 weeds managements. The first tested hypothesis is related to the crop yield variation during the
133 initial phase of organic management; we expected a sharp reduction in the early phase, then minor
134 later on. The second tested hypothesis is related to soil fertility variation; we expected enhanced soil
135 fertility in organic management. Both hypotheses would be more evident under manure fertilisation.
136 We present the results obtained in two organic cropping systems, one fertilised with green manure
137 and commercial organic fertilisers, while the other fertilised with dairy manure. A third, mineral-

138 fertilised conventional cropping system was included to represent the “business as usual” technique
 139 of previous, widespread cropping management in the Piemonte region (Italy) south plain.

140 2. Materials and methods

141 2.1 Experimental site and climate

142 The experiment was carried out in a 1.2 ha experimental field during the 2001-2006 period in NW
 143 Italy (Piemonte region). The site was located at 44° 34’N and 7° 41’E. Field soil was classified as
 144 Aquic Haplustept, coarse-loamy over loamy-skeletal, mixed, nonacid, mesic (Soil Survey Staff,
 145 2010). Prior to start of the experiment, the field was managed with barley monoculture in a
 146 conventional system. Only mineral fertilisers were used. The ploughed soil layer (0-35 cm) had the
 147 following properties: 10.5 g kg⁻¹ soil organic carbon, 1.07 g kg⁻¹ total nitrogen, 9.9 C/N ratio, 33 mg
 148 kg⁻¹ Olsen P and 39 mg kg⁻¹ exchangeable K.

149 The area, characterised as a continental climate, received most of its rainfall during the spring
 150 (April and May) and autumn (September and October). Table 1 reports the main climatic
 151 parameters of the 2001-2006 period. Average annual total rainfall was 702 mm. Mean annual
 152 temperature during the same period was 12.9°C, with average minimum and maximum
 153 temperatures of 7.8 °C and 18.1 °C, respectively. Heavy rains measured during the last two months
 154 of 2003 were more than double that measured as average over the six-year period.

155

156 Table 1: Climatic parameters of the 2001-2006 period.

	2001		2002		2003		2004		2005		2006		Mean	
	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)	*(°C)	** (mm)
January	1.8	22.8	-0.6	9.2	2.2	18.6	1.3	64.6	2.4	3.0	1.3	75.2	1.4	32.2
February	5.4	24.6	4.8	176.0	2.3	0.4	3.5	91.8	2.8	2.4	3.3	52.2	3.7	57.9
March	8.8	44.6	9.4	49.2	9.3	8.8	7.5	14.6	8.8	34.0	7.3	8.6	8.5	26.6
April	11.4	16.8	11.7	63.2	12.7	72.0	12.3	141.0	12.7	123.2	13.7	15.8	12.4	72.0
May	17.9	169.2	15.7	114.8	19.4	17.6	16.5	70.2	19.3	67.4	17.9	30.0	17.8	78.2
June	20.2	9.2	21.3	102.6	24.9	45.0	22.1	15.6	22.6	13.8	21.8	25.6	22.2	35.3
July	22.7	45.4	21.3	104.2	25.2	11.0	23.2	8.6	23.8	35.0	25.7	57.0	23.6	43.5
August	23.4	35.6	20.7	209.8	26.0	14.4	22.9	15.4	22.3	77.4	21.6	25.2	22.8	63.0
September	15.5	43.4	16.6	210.8	18.6	73.6	20.0	7.6	19.6	117.8	20.5	232.6	18.5	114.3
October	15.3	48.0	12.1	85.2	11.0	60.6	14.7	24.8	13.3	93.0	15.5	32.4	13.6	57.3
November	5.6	43.8	7.7	160.2	7.5	137.4	8.1	38.4	6.8	20.6	8.8	6.6	7.4	67.8
December	-0.3	0.6	4.6	76.0	3.9	144.6	4.0	46.0	1.5	18.2	4.1	37.6	3.0	53.8

*C°: Average monthly temperature

** (mm): Monthly total rainfall

157

158 2.2 Experimental design

159 Three cropping systems were compared in a split plot design, in which system represented the main
160 factor and crops the second factor. Due to the expected different behaviors of spring and autumn
161 crops, the dataset was divided by crop and then the statistical analysis was handled as a randomized
162 complete block design repeated for each crop. Each treatment, described below, comprised three
163 plots (300 m² each) in which three crops (wheat, maize, and soybean or pea legume) were hosted
164 simultaneously and replicated in four blocks.

- 165 • OrM represented an organic livestock farm cropping system in which nutrients were
166 supplied from farmyard manure;
- 167 • OrF represented an organic stockless farm cropping system in which fertilisation
168 management used green manuring and commercial organic fertilisers authorized for organic
169 farming by European regulations;
- 170 • Conv represented a low-input, conventional farm cropping system; its fertilisation needs
171 were met with conventional mineral fertilisers.

172 Both OrM and OrF relied on organic agriculture techniques set by Council Regulation (EEC) No
173 2092/91 at the time of the experiment, and Council Regulation (EC) No 834/2007 (EC, 2007) and
174 Commission Regulation (EC) No 889/2008 (EC, 2008) in place currently. The conventional
175 management utilised integrated agriculture techniques (IAT) defined by the regional Rural
176 Development Program (Council Regulation No 1257/1999 at the time of the experiment and by the
177 current Council Regulation No 1698/2005).

178

179 2.3 Agricultural management

180 The three-year rotation included a winter cereal (wheat, *Triticum aestivum* L.), either a legume of
181 soybean (*Glycine max* L. during 2001 to 2003) or field pea (*Pisum sativum* L. during 2004 to 2006),
182 and a summer cereal (maize, *Zea mays* L.). Soybean was replaced by field pea to improve weed
183 management. OrF was planted with green manure (*Vicia villosa* L. at a density of 230 kg seeds ha⁻¹)

184 in October before maize and soybean during 2001 to 2003, but before maize only during 2004 to
185 2006 because field pea planting was too early for sufficient catch crop development. Soybean and
186 maize were planted in the second decade of May, field pea was planted in the second decade of
187 March, and winter wheat was seeded between late October and early November, except in 2004
188 when abundant rainfall in late 2003 severely damaged its autumn emergence and a new crop was
189 established in the spring (March 18th). Sowing densities were 7.5 seeds m⁻² and 35 seeds m⁻² for
190 maize and soybean, respectively and 200 kg seeds ha⁻¹ and 250 kg seeds ha⁻¹ for winter wheat and
191 pea, respectively.

192 Seedbeds were prepared using a rotovator. The soil was regularly ploughed 35 cm deep in autumn
193 for winter wheat and winter vetch and in spring for maize and legumes. Following local practice,
194 maize, soybean, and pea crop residues were incorporated into the soil and winter wheat straw was
195 collected.

196 Weeds were controlled by false seeding and tine harrowing + ridging in OrM; only tine harrowing +
197 ridging was used in OrF. It was not possible to apply false seeding in OrF because of a late harvest
198 of green manure. Herbicides were regularly used in the Conv system.

199 Irrigations supplied 40-50 mm of water 0-4 times annually on maize per climate conditions.

200

201 2.4 Fertilisation management

202 Fertilisation management in both OrM and OrF conformed to the European regulation limit of 170
203 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹, which refers to the farm average of the full three-year crop rotation. Fertilisation is
204 specific to crop need and averaged to be within the total value, such that the total average may
205 differ little from the limit due to post-distribution analysis of N content of the different fertilisers. P
206 and K amounts were constrained by N/P and N/K ratios of the organic fertilisers. In OrM, manure
207 was spread before seeding at an average rate of 61.5 t⁻¹ ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in maize and 34.5 t⁻¹ ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ in
208 winter wheat. In OrF system, a mixture of composted organic fertilisers (poultry manure, manure,
209 feather meal, and oleaginous residues) was applied to winter wheat before seeding (2.4 t⁻¹ ha⁻¹ year⁻¹

210 ¹). Poultry manure alone was supplied to maize before seeding and at sidedressing ($3.1 \text{ t}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$
211 per application), as well as at sidedressing for winter wheat ($1.5 \text{ t}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$). No N was supplied
212 to legumes, but they did receive a distribution of potassium sulphate containing magnesium salt
213 prior to seeding ($433.5 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$). Vetch green manure was seeded in autumn before summer
214 crops (maize and soybean) during the first three-year rotation and prior to maize only during the
215 second three-year rotation. The crop was chopped and immediately ploughed into the soil in early
216 May.

217 N, P, and K supply in Conv respected local regulations and standards for integrated agriculture
218 techniques (IAT) according to the specific crop: 200 kg N ha^{-1} for maize, 140 kg N ha^{-1} for winter
219 wheat, and no N supply for legumes. Only mineral fertilisers were applied in Conv. Ammonium
220 nitrate ($241.5 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) and urea ($125 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) were spread during winter wheat
221 topdressing; urea ($200 \text{ kg}^{-1} \text{ ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$) alone was spread during maize topdressing. Potassium
222 chloride was supplied before seeding in winter wheat, maize, and legumes (248 , 250 , and 241.5 kg^{-1}
223 $\text{ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, respectively). Amounts were based on crop demand and soil enrichment needs. No P
224 was spread in Conv because IAT precludes P fertilisation in soil richer than 20 mg kg^{-1} of Olsen P.

225 All organic fertilisers were sampled for nutrient concentration analysis during fertiliser spreading
226 (Table 2). Each sample was analysed for dry matter, C, total N, total P, and total K. Dry matter was
227 measured after drying samples for 24 h at 70°C ; C and total N content was determined using a
228 CHN elemental analyser (Flash EA 1112, Thermoquest, according to MIPAF method, 2000).
229 Ammonium N was quantified through steam distillation: total P and K contents were determined
230 after mineralisation in a muffle furnace at 450°C for 5 h with spectroscopy under continuous-flow
231 conditions (Evolution II, Alliance) for P and with atomic-absorption spectroscopy (GBC 900) for K.
232 Organic fertilisers showed very high variability in composition as expected for these matrices. The
233 fraction of ammonium N on total N was between 12% and 16%, with higher values in Poultry
234 manure. Composted organic fertiliser showed a lower presence of P and K compared to N content,
235 while the highest proportional contents were in Poultry manure for P and Farmyard manure for K.

236 Table 2: Chemical characteristics of the organic fertilisers. Values in brackets indicate SD.

Fertiliser	Number	Dry matter g kg ⁻¹ fresh matter	Organic C g kg ⁻¹ dry matter	Total N g kg ⁻¹ fresh matter	C/N	NH ₄ -N g kg ⁻¹ of fresh matter	Total P g kg ⁻¹ of fresh matter	Total K g kg ⁻¹ of fresh matter
Farmyard manure	12	237 (40.1)	244 (134.3)	5.5 (0.8)	10.6 (5.8)	0.7 (0.5)	1.4 (0.3)	6.0 (2.1)
Composted organic fertilizer	6	915 (40.2)	355 (112.4)	65.7 (27.3)	7.5 (7.7)	7.6 (10.4)	10.4 (11.3)	8.6 (3.1)
Poltry manure	5	860 (37.5)	310 (61.4)	31.1 (13.2)	9.7 (3.3)	5.0 (3.5)	13.6 (5.7)	25.5 (7.8)

238

239 Tab 3: Fertilisation management from 2001 to 2003 (1st 3-year period) and from 2003 to 2006 (2nd 3-
240 year period). Values are expressed in kg ha⁻¹ y⁻¹.

System	Timing	Winter wheat	Maize	Soybean/Pea
OrM	Before seeding	Manure: 1 st N: 193, P: 63, K: 265 2 nd N: 208, P: 45, K: 198	Manure: 1 st N: 347, P: 101, K: 362 2 nd N: 313, P: 57, K: 298	
		Composted Organic fertiliser 1 st N: 123, P: 9, K: 25 2 nd N: 168, P: 38, K: 20	Green manure: 1 st N: 220 2 nd N: 149 Poultry-manure: 1 st N: 75, P: 51, K: 78 2 nd N: 100, P: 39, K: 76	Green manure: 1 st N: 190. Potassium sulfate: 1 st K: 117 2 nd K: 100
OrF	Sidedressing	Poultry- manure: 1 st N: 34, P: 26, K: 35 2 st N: 91, P: 32, K: 39	Poultry- manure: 1 st N: 44, P: 28, K: 47 2 nd N: 100, P: 39, K: 76	
	Before seeding	Potassium chloride: 1 st K: 123 2 nd K: 127	Potassium chloride: 1 st and 2 nd K: 125 Urea: 1 st N: 73 2 nd N: 96	Potassium chloride: 1 st K: 125 2 nd K: 116
Conv	Sidedressing 1	Ammonium nitrate: 1 st N: 65 2 nd N: 61		
	Sidedressing 2	Urea: 1 st N: 85 2 nd N: 46	Urea: 1 st N: 108 2 nd N: 92	

241

Note. OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

242 Table 3 lists the nutrients applied through fertilisation during the two three-year rotations. The
243 average N applied in Conv during the second three-year rotation is less than that applied during the
244 first, which derived from a reduced N supply to wheat during 2004 (spring sowed due to adverse
245 2003 autumn weather). Consequently, only ammonium nitrate was applied during topdressing.

246 OrF had the highest average N input values of 229 (first rotation) and 203 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ (second
247 three-year rotation). These results are the sum of fertilisation input and vetch green manure fixed-N.
248 Vetch green manure fixed-N was quantified according to the ¹⁵N isotope dilution method (Rennie,
249 1984) described in the “Data analysis” section.

250 During the first three-year rotation, legume green manuring supplied an average of 137 kg N ha⁻¹
251 year⁻¹, as opposed to 50 kg N ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ when green manuring was limited to maize in the second
252 three-year rotation.

253 P and K supply depended on the amounts of organic fertilisers applied based on their N content,
254 which meant both organic systems received high P quantities. On the other hand, Conv system
255 received no P fertilisation due to its high available P level in soil. OrM system had the highest
256 supply of K because of the large K content common in farmyard manure. Both of the organic
257 systems exhibited highly variable nutrient supplies during both rotation periods, likely resulting
258 from variability in the nutrient concentrations of commercial organic fertilisers and from differing
259 quantities of biomass incorporated in green manure.

260

261 2.5 Crop sampling and analysis

262 Samples were collected to determine yield, quality, and nutrient uptake of grain and aboveground
263 biomasses. Maize was manually collected from areas of 18 m² from each plot, while winter wheat
264 and legumes were collected by using a plot combine harvester from areas of 9 m² within each plot.
265 Each crop grain and straw yield were weighted independently. Aboveground vetch biomass was
266 collected from 3 m² areas within each plot. Plant samples were dried at 60 °C for 72 hours to
267 determine dry matter (DM).

268 We determined grain and plant total N with a CHN elemental analyser (Flash EA 1112,
269 Thermoquest, MIPAF method, 2000). Total P content was quantified after mineralisation in a
270 muffle furnace at 450°C for 5 h with spectroscopy under continuous-flow conditions (Evolution II,

271 Alliance), as was total K content after mineralisation with atomic-absorption spectroscopy (GBC
272 900). Soil surface budgets were then calculated from fertiliser input information.

273 Surface weed coverage was constantly monitored to evaluate its influence on crop yields. Surface
274 weed coverage was quantified on three 0.5 m² areas in each plot during April, May, and June for
275 winter wheat and during May, June, and July for maize. Reported values represent the average of
276 the three measurements.

277

278 2.6 Soil sampling and analysis

279 The soil was sampled at the start of the experiment (in 2000) and after each three-year rotation
280 cycle (2003 and 2006). The samples were collected in October before autumn fertilisation. Three 0-
281 35 cm soil cores were sampled from each plot, air dried, and then sieved through 2-mm mesh
282 screen. From these samples, organic C, total N, exchangeable K, and Olsen P were all measured.
283 Organic C and total N were determined using a CHN elemental analyser (Flash EA 1112,
284 Thermoquest); exchangeable K (BaCl₂ extraction followed by AAS determination) and Olsen P
285 (Olsen et al., 1954) were determined according to the MIPAF method (2000).

286 PMN was also analysed through anaerobic incubation (modified Keeney, 1982) after each three-
287 year rotation to estimate the availability of organic N to the soil. Samples were taken from the same
288 0-35 cm horizon.

289

290 2.7 Data analysis

291 Crop N balance surplus (CBS) was calculated according to Bassanino et al. (2007) as follows:

292

$$293 \text{ CBS} = F_c + F_o + A_d + B_f x - (Y * b) \quad (1)$$

294

295 where F_c is the mineral fertiliser N; F_o is manure or other organic fertiliser N; A_d is wet and dry
296 atmospheric deposition N (26 kg N ha⁻¹, Bassanino et al., 2011); $B_f x$ is the biological N fixation by

297 legumes; Y is crop yield (grain or crop residues collected from the field); and b is the respective N
298 content of all harvests.

299 B_{fx} was quantified as:

300

$$301 \quad B_{fx} \text{ (kg N ha}^{-1}\text{)} = N_{dfa} * ((Y * b) + (Y_r * b_r)) \quad (2)$$

302

303 where N_{dfa} is the ratio of N derived from the atmosphere, Y_r is the below ground biomass yield, and
304 b_r is N content of root.

305 N_{dfa} refers to the aboveground soybean and vetch biomasses determined during 2002 and 2003
306 using the ^{15}N isotope dilution method (Rennie, 1984) on 2 m² microplots. Sorghum and sunflower
307 were selected as non-fixing comparative species for soybean N_{dfa} estimation, and Italian ryegrass
308 was chosen for vetch. N_{dfa} values for soybean showed large statistically significant differences
309 between systems ($P(F) = 0.033$) in 2003, where OrF (53.0%) and Conv (69.1%) had higher values
310 of N_{dfa} than did OrM (11.4%). In vetch, the average N_{dfa} value calculated in OrF corresponded to
311 92.4%.

312 N fixation of pea was estimated as equal to 79 % (Rennie and Dubetz, 1986).

313 N_{dfa} for roots was assumed to be the same as that of aboveground biomass. The N content of root
314 legumes biomass was quantified according to Mahieu et al. (2009).

315 CBS was also calculated for P and K without accounting for Ad, which was assumed to be negligible.

316 Results on yield, aboveground biomass, and nutrient concentration of grain and straw for each crop
317 were analysed through ANOVA that accounted for system, block, and year effects, in addition to
318 system x year interactions.

319 Variations in soil chemical properties and PMN were analysed through ANOVA separately for each
320 sampling and for the full six-year period.

321 As CBS values served mainly to justify soil changes, they were calculated for each replication and
322 averaged over the two three-year rotations and over the six-year period. Values were analysed through
323 one-way ANOVA.

324 Homogeneity of variance was tested through the Levene test, and residuals were tested for normality
325 via the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test. When system averages were significantly different, they were
326 separated by the Bonferroni multiple comparison test. When system x year interaction resulted
327 significant, average values per system in each year were separated through the Bonferroni multiple
328 comparison test.

329 Statistical correlations between straw winter wheat P concentration and soil Olsen P, as well as
330 between straw winter wheat K concentration and soil exchangeable K, were studied using Pearson's
331 correlation. The P analysis was separated between years to eliminate inter-year variability that cannot
332 be explained by this correlation; the K analysis was separated between systems.

333 All statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS 17.0 software.

334

335

336 **3. Results**

337 3.1 Crop yields

338 Crop yields for the different crops are reported in Table 4. It shows that system, year, and system x
 339 year effects were always highly significant. System yields differed each year, and highlighted very
 340 strong year interaction with meteorological variability, competitive weed differences, and plant
 341 disease development.

342

343 Table 4: Grain yield and above-ground biomass (Mg DM ha⁻¹). Legumes refer to soybean (2001 -
 344 2003) and pea (2004 - 2006). Different letters denote different System means (P < 0.05). Different
 345 letters in System×Year interaction denote different means of grain or ABG (P < 0.05) between
 346 systems in each year. Averages were separated through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	mean	Effect	P(F)	
Wheat	Grain	Conv	4.6 a	5.5 a	5.2 a	5.3 a	6.5	6.7 a	5.6 a	System	0.000
		OrM	3.4 b	5.0 a	3.6 b	4.0 b	6.6	5.6 b	4.7 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	3.9 ab	3.5 b	4.9 a	3.6 b	6.7	7.0 a	4.9 b	Syst. x Year	0.000
	ABG*	Conv	8.4 a	10.5 a	9.5 a	8.6 a	12.8	13.6 a	10.6 a	System	0.000
		OrM	6.6 b	9.6 ab	6.7 b	6.5 b	12.4	10.7 b	8.8 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	7.1 ab	6.7 b	9.1 a	5.9 b	12.6	15.2 a	9.4 b	Syst. x Year	0.000
Maize	Grain	Conv	13.1 a	11.2 a	8.9 a	12.4 a	12.5	9.5	11.2 a	System	0.000
		OrM	10.0 b	10.2 a	5.8 b	10.3 a	10.9	9.2	9.4 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	11.1 ab	7.1 b	9.0 a	7.2 b	11.3	8.8	9.1 b	Syst. x Year	0.000
	ABG*	Conv	24.1 a	21.2 a	15.6 ab	23.5 a	24.2	19.4	21.3 a	System	0.000
		OrM	19.6 b	19.2 a	12.1 b	21.1 a	22.5	19.6	19.0 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	21.4 ab	12.9 b	17.2 a	14.7 b	21.2	18.4	17.6 c	Syst. x Year	0.000
Legumes	Grain	Conv	2.6 a	2.8 a	3.7 a	3.4 b	5.3	3.6	3.6 a	System	0.000
		OrM	2.0 ab	2.4 ab	4.3 a	4.7 a	4.8	3.6	3.6 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	1.7 b	1.9 b	1.5 b	1.6 c	4.9	3.6	2.5 b	Syst. x Year	0.000
	ABG*	Conv	7.0 a	4.8	7.5 a	5.6 b	9.2	7.1	6.9 a	System	0.000
		OrM	4.9 b	4.5	8.4 a	8.0 a	8.8	7.2	7.0 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	4.3 b	4.1	3.3 b	2.5 c	8.9	8.0	5.2 b	Syst. x Year	0.000

* Above Ground Biomass

Note: Block effect P(F) = 0.000 in Wheat grain and ABG; 0.040 in Maize grain; n.s. in Maize ABG, Legumes grain and ABG

OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv. conventional farm cropping system

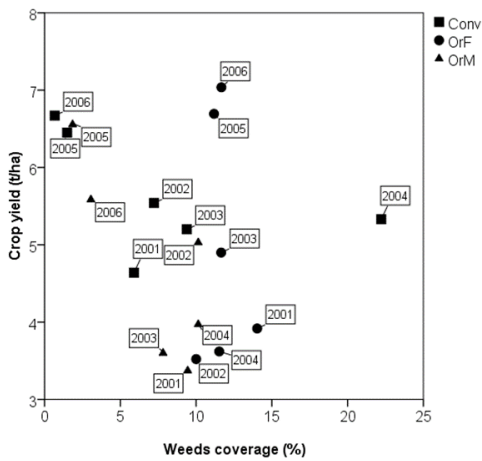
347

348 In general, weed infestation is not correlated to crop yield (Figures 1 and 2), however in single year
 349 weeds coverage was usually higher in organic systems, mainly in OrF system.

350 OrM management—where less grain and aboveground biomass were produced than in Conv in four
 351 years out of six—limited wheat yields most. Wheat performed somewhat better in OrF where it

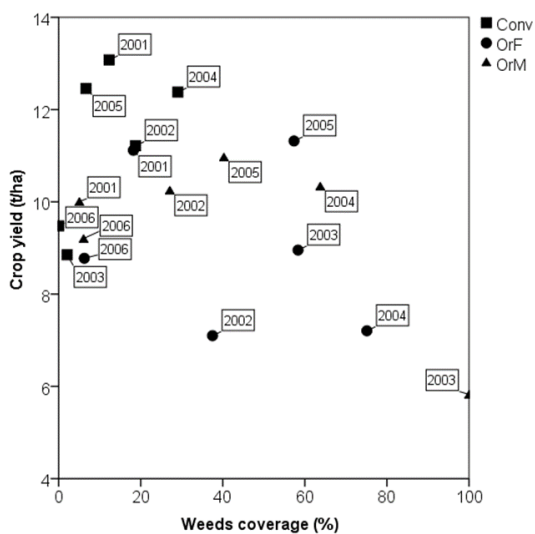
352 produced less than Conv in two of the six years. On the contrary, maize and legume yields did
 353 worse under OrF management. Maize grain yields were reduced, on average, 16% in OrM and 19%
 354 in OrF, and aboveground biomass reductions averaged 11% in OrM and 17% in OrF. Lower
 355 production in OrM maize in 2003 was justified by severe *Sesamia Agriotes* damage. In the case of
 356 legumes, the conventional system never produced more than OrM.
 357

358 Figure 1 Relation between weed coverage and crop yield during the different years in winter wheat.
 359 Pearson's correlation coefficient: -0.345, not significant.



360

361 Figure 2: Relation between weed coverage and crop yield during the different years in maize.
 362 Pearson's correlation coefficient: -0.246, not significant.
 363



364

365 Table 5: N concentration in grain and straw of the different crops (g N kg⁻¹ DM). Legumes refer to
 366 soybean (2001 - 2003) and pea (2004 - 2006). Different letters denote different System means (P <
 367 0.05). Different letters in System×Year interaction denote different means of Grain or Straw (P <
 368 0.05) between systems in each year. Averages were separated through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	mean	Effect	P(F)	
Wheat	Grain	Conv	21.3	28.3 a	25.7 a	30.0 a	26.7	23.1	25.8 a	System	0.002
		OrM	22.2	26.5 a	21.0 b	26.8 b	24.6	23.2	24.1 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	22.4	22.8 b	21.7 b	30.0 a	26.0	24.1	24.5 b	Syst. x Year	0.001
	Straw	Conv	3.1 b	6.2	5.8	9.0 a	7.7	5.9	6.3 a	System	0.003
		OrM	4.4 ab	5.3	4.4	6.6 b	6.2	5.0	5.3 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	5.1 a	4.7	4.8	9.3 a	6.8	6.8	6.3 a	Syst. x Year	0.008
Maize	Grain	Conv	14.6	13.8	12.7	13.1	16.9	17.0	14.7 ab	System	0.036
		OrM	14.0	13.9	16.9	14.7	16.3	16.7	15.4 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	12.7	14.1	14.1	12.3	16.5	16.4	14.4 b	Syst. x Year	n.s.
	Straw	Conv	7.3	8.6	10.2	10.1	9.1	9.7	9.2	System	n.s.
		OrM	6.8	9.5	10.8	11.0	10.3	9.5	9.7	Year	0.000
		OrF	7.2	8.7	9.8	12.2	10.0	10.5	9.7	Syst. x Year	n.s.
Legumes	Grain	Conv	67.5	70.5	68.3 a	37.5 b	36.4	38.5	53.1 a	System	0.015
		OrM	65.9	67.0	63.9 b	34.3 b	38.2	38.4	51.3 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	65.6	67.8	67.0 ab	43.4 a	37.3	38.5	53.3 a	Syst. x Year	0.007
	Straw	Conv	21.2 a	10.4	7.6	7.9 b	16.0	8.8	12.0 ab	System	0.048
		OrM	13.6 b	10.0	8.0	8.9 ab	18.3	9.9	11.4 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	16.0 b	10.8	10.8	12.5 a	18.2	11.5	13.3 a	Syst. x Year	0.012

Note: Block effect P(F) = 0.046 in Wheat straw N concentration; n.s. in all other cases

369 OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

370 Table 6: P concentration in grain and straw of the different crops (g P kg⁻¹ DM). Legumes refer to
 371 soybean (2001- 2003) and pea (2004 – 2006). Different letters denote different System means (P <
 372 0.05). Different letters in System×Year interaction denote different means of Grain or Straw (P <
 373 0.05) between systems in each year. Averages were separated through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	mean	Effect	P(F)	
Wheat	Grain	Conv	2.7	3.8	2.4	3.4	3.6	4.1	3.4	System	n.s.
		OrM	2.7	3.9	2.4	3.0	3.4	4.6	3.4	Year	0.000
		OrF	2.7	3.8	2.4	3.6	4.0	4.2	3.4	Syst. x Year	n.s.
	Straw	Conv	0.8 b	1.2 c	0.8 b	1.0 c	1.1 c	1.0 b	1.0 c	System	0.000
		OrM	1.3 a	2.0 a	1.5 a	1.6 b	1.9 a	1.7 a	1.7 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	0.9 b	1.7 b	1.2 a	1.9 a	1.5 b	1.2 b	1.4 b	Syst. x Year	0.001
Maize	Grain	Conv	2.7	3.3	1.4	2.2	3.2	3.9	2.8 a	System	0.044
		OrM	2.5	2.5	1.8	2.0	2.6	4.6	2.7 ab	Year	0.000
		OrF	1.8	2.8	1.5	2.0	2.3	4.1	2.4 b	Syst. x Year	n.s.
	Straw	Conv	0.9	1.0 b	1.1	0.9 b	1.3	1.3	1.1 b	System	0.004
		OrM	0.9	1.8 a	1.5	1.2 b	1.1	1.6	1.4 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	0.8	1.0 b	1.2	1.9 a	1.4	1.5	1.3 a	Syst. x Year	0.000
Legumes	Grain	Conv	7.1	7.2	6.7	3.6	3.9 a	4.3 b	5.5	System	n.s.
		OrM	6.9	7.5	6.9	3.2	2.8 b	5.5 a	5.5	Year	0.000
		OrF	6.7	7.7	7.0	3.3	3.7 a	5.2 a	5.6	Syst. x Year	0.000
	Straw	Conv	2.3 a	1.3 b	1.1 b	0.6 b	1.5	0.8 b	1.3 b	System	0.000
		OrM	1.7 b	1.8 ab	1.5 ab	0.9 ab	1.8	1.3 a	1.5 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	2.1 ab	1.9 a	1.8 a	1.3 a	1.7	1.3 ab	1.7 a	Syst. x Year	0.014

Note: Block effect P(F) = n.s. in all cases

374 OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

375 3.2 Nutrient concentrations in tissues

376 The values reported in Table 5 show nitrogen concentrations for both wheat and maize grain highest
377 under Conv management. In the case of wheat grain, both organic systems were lower than Conv
378 two years out of six. In maize grain, OrM N concentration was as high as Conv, but lower under
379 OrF. Legume grain concentrations were lowest under OrM management. Averaged wheat straw N
380 concentrations indicated that both OrF and Conv were higher than OrM, while maize and legume
381 straw N concentrations revealed no differences across managements. The P content analysis
382 between systems (Table 6) differed only in maize grain in which Conv and OrM had higher values.
383 When statistical differences arose in straw, the lowest P concentration was usually measured in
384 Conv due to its lack of fertilisation from the start of the experiment. In the analysis of K content
385 (Table 7), grain and straw displayed system, year, and system x year effects for both wheat and
386 legumes. Interaction was not significant in maize. Overall, most of the data ranked the K content of
387 the treatments as OrM, OrF, and Conv (higher to lower). Legume grains demonstrated a different
388 result; OrF was highest due to its low production and OrM was lowest due to its high production.

389

390

391 Table 7: K concentration in grain and straw of the different crops (g K kg⁻¹ DM). Legumes refer to
 392 soybean (2001 – 2003) and pea (2004 – 2006). Different letters denote different System means (P <
 393 0.05). Different letters in System×Year interaction denote different means of Grain or Straw (P <
 394 0.05) between systems in each year. Averages were separated through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	mean	Effect	P(F)	
Wheat	Grain	Conv	5.2	4.9	5.1	5.3	4.9 b	4.3	5.0 b	System	0.004
		OrM	5.5	4.7	5.2	5.4	5.5 a	4.6	5.1 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	5.5	4.7	5.3	5.4	4.9 b	4.3	5.0 ab	Syst. x Year	0.036
	Straw	Conv	9.7	17.9 a	16.5	23.2 a	17.6 b	17.6	17.1 a	System	0.020
		OrM	10.5	16.5 a	14.3	16.4 c	21.3 a	15.7	15.8 b	Year	0.000
		OrF	9.8	12.6 b	16.6	19.3 b	21.0 a	18.5	16.3 ab	Syst. x Year	0.000
Maize	Grain	Conv	4.2	4.9	3.8	4.0	4.0	4.3	4.2 b	System	0.002
		OrM	4.1	4.8	4.6	4.3	4.2	5.0	4.5 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	4.0	4.8	3.9	4.1	3.9	4.6	4.2 b	Syst. x Year	n.s.
	Straw	Conv	9.6	12.3	14.2	11.6	9.2	10.4	11.2 b	System	0.000
		OrM	14.2	12.9	18.4	13.2	11.5	12.7	13.8 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	10.1	11.3	13.4	8.5	8.7	9.5	10.2 b	Syst. x Year	n.s.
Legumes	Grain	Conv	17.9	17.8	20.9 ab	11.7 a	10.6	10.2 b	14.9 b	System	0.001
		OrM	18.4	18.9	20.6 b	10.5 b	11.6	12.0 a	15.3 ab	Year	0.000
		OrF	18.5	18.7	21.9 a	12.4 a	10.9	11.6 a	15.7 a	Syst. x Year	0.003
	Straw	Conv	13.0	10.1	10.9 b	9.0 b	13.7 b	24.4 b	13.5 b	System	0.000
		OrM	12.6	12.2	16.4 a	15.2 a	22.3 a	34.2 a	18.8 a	Year	0.000
		OrF	13.0	14.4	16.8 a	16.1 a	15.0 b	26.5 b	17.0 a	Syst. x Year	0.007

Note: Block effect P(F) = 0.008 in wheat straw K concentration; n.s. in all other cases

OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

395

396
 397 Table 8: Average Crop balance surplus (CBS) for each period (kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹). Different letters
 398 denote different means (P < 0.05) between systems in each period. Averages were separated
 399 through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2001-2003	2004-2006	2001-2006
N	Conv	19 c	-1 c	9 c
	OrM	75 b	98 b	86 b
	OrF	169 a	124 a	146 a
System P(F)		0.000	0.000	0.000
P	Conv	-23 b	-27 c	-25 b
	OrM	35 a	9 b	22 a
	OrF	28 a	25 a	27 a
System P(F)		0.000	0.000	0.000
K	Conv	61 b	47 b	54 b
	OrM	156 a	94 a	125 a
	OrF	47 b	41 b	44 b
System P(F)		0.000	0.000	0.000

Note. OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

400

401 3.3 N, P, and K crop balance surpluses (CBS)

402 In general, the organic systems had larger surpluses than did the conventional system, with minor
 403 exceptions. The N CBSs displayed in Table 8 indicate that throughout the full cropping cycle, larger
 404 surpluses resulted in the organic systems than in Conv. Organic systems had N surpluses during the
 405 entire experimental period (2001-2006), averaging 87 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ for OrM and 153 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹
 406 for OrF. The higher N surplus in OrF derives from the presence of green manuring that through N
 407 fixation provides additional N quota to the system. The main surpluses were associated with maize,
 408 which received the highest N fertilisation (Table 3) among the crops. Reduced N input (Table 3)
 409 and increased productivity of winter wheat (Table 4) achieved in the second three-year period
 410 resulted in a null N CBS for Conv. The P surplus measured in the organic systems followed the
 411 expectation associated with their P fertilisation management. Conv lacked P supply throughout the
 412 experiment, which implied its soil P depletion was about 25 kg ha⁻¹year⁻¹. Finally, K CBS showed a
 413 surplus in all systems. It was noted above all in OrM, while OrF and Conv were quite similar.

414

415 Table 9: Variation in soil property mean values measured October 2000, 2003 and 2006 at 0-35 cm.
 416 Different letters denote different means (P < 0.05) between systems in each period. Averages were
 417 separated through Bonferroni post hoc test.

	System	2000-2003	2003-2006	2000-2006
Org C kg ha ⁻¹	Conv	-7851 b	-8406	-16256 b
	OrM	-1910 a	-5583	-7493 a
	OrF	-2045 a	-10693	-12739 ab
	P(F)			
	System	0.024	n.s.	0.044
	Rotation	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
N tot kg ha ⁻¹	Conv	348 b	-955 ab	-607
	OrM	389 b	-561 a	-172
	OrF	1226 a	-1682 b	-456
	P(F)			
	System	0.015	0.028	n.s.
	Rotation	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Olsen P kg ha ⁻¹	Conv	-29 b	-23 b	-52 b
	OrM	3 a	4 a	7 a
	OrF	-18 b	-16 ab	-34 b
	P(F)			
	System	0.001	0.011	0.000
	Rotation	n.s.	0.001	0.000
Exch. K kg ha ⁻¹	Conv	206 a	46	252
	OrM	70 b	171	241
	OrF	118 ab	29	146
	P(F)			
	System	0.030	n.s.	n.s.
	Rotation	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Note: Block effect P(F) = 0.002 in Olsen P, 2000-2003; 0.042 in Exch. K, 2000-2003; n.s. in all other cases

OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv: conventional farm cropping system

418

419 Table 10: C:N ratio and Potential Mineralisable Nitrogen (PMN) at sampling depth of 0-35 cm
 420 measured in October during the experimental period. Different letters denote different means ($P <$
 421 0.05) between systems in each measured year. Averages were separated through Bonferroni post
 422 hoc test.

System		2000	2003	2006
C:N	Conv	9.7	8.8	8.5 b
	OrM	10	9.2	9.1 a
	OrF	10	8.1	9 a
P(F)		n.s.	n.s.	0.001
PMN mg kg ⁻¹	Conv		24.8 b	32.7 b
	OrM		39.1 a	48.8 a
	OrF		25.8 b	33.8 b
P(F)			0.000	0.000

Note: OrM: organic livestock farm cropping system; OrF: organic stockless farm cropping system; Conv. conventional farm cropping system

423

424

425 3.4 Chemical properties of soil

426 Soil organic carbon (SOC) content decreased in all the systems during the six-year period (Tab. 9).

427 The loss was significantly higher in Conv than in both organic systems during the first three-year

428 period and over the total period. OrM system protected SOC more than OrF did.

429 In the first three-year period, total N increased in all treatments; OrF varied most over the period

430 due to a large N CBS. During the subsequent three-year period, all treatments had reduced total N,

431 but the reduction was less in OrM, and more in OrF system. Therefore, the total variation over the

432 six-year period showed no significant differences among the systems. Olsen P trend variations were

433 similar in both periods. OrM increased soil P content, while reductions were detected in OrF and in

434 Conv. Exchangeable K increased in all systems according to their respective K budgets.

435 Measurements showed significant differences only after the first period with higher values in Conv.

436 Table 10 lists the soil organic matter characteristics in terms of C/N and PMN for all the systems.

437 System effect separated the treatments for C/N only after six years of rotation when Conv resulted

438 lower than both organic systems. PMN differences between systems were evident after both three
439 and six years of rotation. Results showed higher N availability in OrM compared to OrF and Conv.

440

441

442 **4. Discussion**

443 4.1 Crop yield

444 Organic system crop yields were lower than in the conventional system. The reduction, averaged
445 from the six-year period, was 17% in OrM for both winter wheat and maize; no reduction was
446 recorded in legumes. In OrF, the reductions (same period) were quantified as 12%, 19%, and 29%
447 in winter wheat, maize, and legumes, respectively. However, annual differences were evident and
448 driven mainly by system x year effect. The observed reductions were attributed to fertilisation
449 management (Cong Tu et al., 2006), mineralisation activity (Berry et al., 2002, Stockdale et al.,
450 2002), weed control, and meteorological trends.

451 No clear trend in crop yields was evident over time. Transition period production variation appeared
452 absent. Instead, it was dominated by annual effect, which contrasted with Gopinath et al., (2008)
453 who reported that organic winter wheat yield losses were limited to the first two years of the
454 conversion period. Other authors have proposed yield losses continue for longer periods (Eltun et
455 al., 2002; Kirchmann and Ryan, 2004).

456 The larger winter wheat yield reduction in OrM relative to Conv, probably resulted from low-
457 temperature-induced low mineralisation causing limited nutrient availability during autumn, winter,
458 and early spring. The lower straw wheat N concentrations in OrM confirmed this phenomenon with
459 lower values compared to those of OrF and Conv. OrF demonstrated a better capacity to support
460 winter wheat yields *versus* OrM because commercial organic fertilisers mineralise quickly due to
461 their lower C/N ratios and higher available N fractions. In fact Poultry manure fertiliser showed the
462 higher ratio of readily available N, as confirmed also by Shepherd and Withers (1999).

463 In contrast to wheat, maize grows when a more active N mineralisation is expected; for this reason,
464 fertilisation management influenced grain yields less than in winter wheat. Berry et al. (2002) has
465 noted that maize takes advantage of N mineralisation and crop update synchronisation. Excluding
466 2003 (insect damage data not shown), OrM average maize yields over the entire period were only

467 9% less than those in Conv. Maize straw N concentration exhibited no differences among the
468 systems. This result substantiated that active soil mineralisation adequately supplies maize for
469 growth. Both organic fertilisation managements were able to support maize N uptake. OrF yielded
470 less than Conv due to low weed control.

471 N concentrations in legume tissues confirmed increased availability of N, especially in the manured
472 system during spring and summer for the same reason we recorded a lower Ndfa in OrM and a
473 higher Ndfa value in Conv and OrF (data not shown). In fact, legume N-fixation increases with
474 depletion of soil available N provoked by intercropping or weed uptake, leaching, immobilisation,
475 and others (Corre-Hellou and Crozat, 2005; Hauggaard-Nielsen et al., 2009).

476 Mineralisation activity also controls soil available P (Stockdale et al., 2002). Analysis of P content
477 in straw demonstrated that maize and legumes in Conv (system characterised by no P supply) are
478 often similar to the content in OrM and OrF from the P made available by soil mineralisation. On
479 the contrary, P content in winter wheat straw in Conv was always lower than in the organic systems.
480 This highlighted the lower flux of P that came from mineralisation activity limited by low
481 temperatures. The high P concentrations observed in OrF legume straw was borne out by the lower
482 yield in this system as compared to the other systems.

483 As expected, K tissue content in OrM was higher than in the other systems due to its higher K CBS.

484

485 4.2 N, P, and K Crop Balance Surplus (CBS)

486 Our results showed that N CBSs were higher in organic systems than in Conv. Clark et al. (1998)
487 found similar results in N surplus measures, as much as 36% more in an organic system fertilised
488 with organic external inputs than in conventional. In Conv, where integrated agriculture techniques
489 are applied, N CBSs were rather low and during the second three-year period even slightly negative,
490 underlining the low long-term sustainability of this system.

491 It is expected that in organic systems legumes cause N fixation and consequently lead to increased
492 N CBS (Berry et al., 2002; Corre-Hellou and Crozat, 2005; Stopes et al., 1996). Indeed, this was the

493 case for the OrF system that relied on biological fixation for 46% of its N inputs, as opposed to 5%
494 in OrM characterised by a minor share of legumes and lower N_{fix}.

495 P CBSs in the two organic systems were positive, but lower than those reported by Bassanino et al.
496 (2011) in the same region as the field experiment (39 kg P ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) and on conventional
497 livestock farms characterised by higher organic inputs.

498 Finally, K CBS was quite high in OrM because of its use of external farmyard manure with a
499 narrow N:K ratio (Gopinath et al., 2008; Sheperd and Withers, 1999). K CBS was largely positive
500 in the other two treatments as well due to low input levels and the absence of ley and other crops
501 with large uptakes (Berry et al. 2002).

502

503 4.3 Chemical properties of soil

504 C and N content decreased across all treatments. Despite the start of conversion from conventional
505 to organic management in 2001, SOC did not increase as others have reported (Gopinath et al.,
506 2008; Mazzoncini et al. 2010; Stockdale et al., 2001). However, others have reported neither a
507 decline in SOC content in organic treatments (Tiessen et al., 1982), nor an absence of differences
508 between organic and conventional managements during transition (Clark et al, 1998; Marinari et al.,
509 2006) or after even longer periods (Gosling and Shepherd, 2005). In this experiment, OrM was able
510 to limit SOC depletion to less than 8000 kg C ha⁻¹ over the course of six years, a much smaller
511 quantity than was measured in the Conv system. It must be emphasised that it is not the organic
512 system *per se* that helped to reduce organic matter losses, but the fact that manure fertilisation is
513 part of the organic system (Fließbach et al., 2007). The important role of manure fertilisation to
514 maintain SOC content, or to limit SOC depletion, has been largely documented in other works
515 carried out in similar environments (Bertora et al., 2009; Grignani et al., 2007). Low C/N organic
516 inputs applied as commercial organic fertilisers in OrF systems are not efficient in stocking SOM.

517 Soil total nitrogen trended lower over the six-year period without treatment differences. The near
518 zero (only 9 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹) Conv N imbalance might indicate that 101 kg ha⁻¹ year⁻¹ could represent

519 the average, entire period Conv soil N reduction in the 0-35 cm layer of a system in which input and
520 crop uptake are balanced. This soil N reduction could be related to N losses. Of note is that
521 important soil N reductions occur in systems characterised by fertilisation N similar to crop N
522 uptake. Furthermore, both in OrM and OrF, where CBS is largely positive, soil N is also reduced
523 ($28 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$ and $76 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ year}^{-1}$, respectively). This result suggests that while both organic
524 fertilisation managements failed to reduce N losses, the organic managements, performed better
525 than commercial organic fertilisers, which impart a greater impact on the environment from N
526 losses. The ability of farmyard manure to limit soil N reduction—or even to increase soil N—
527 depends on the fertilisation amount as has already been demonstrated by others in the same
528 environment (Grignani et al., 2007; Bertora et al., 2009). Moreover, the lower capability of
529 commercial organic fertilisers to reduce N losses is usually attributed to lower C/N ratios that are
530 prone to increase the rate of mineralisation and potential N losses (Berry et al., 2002).

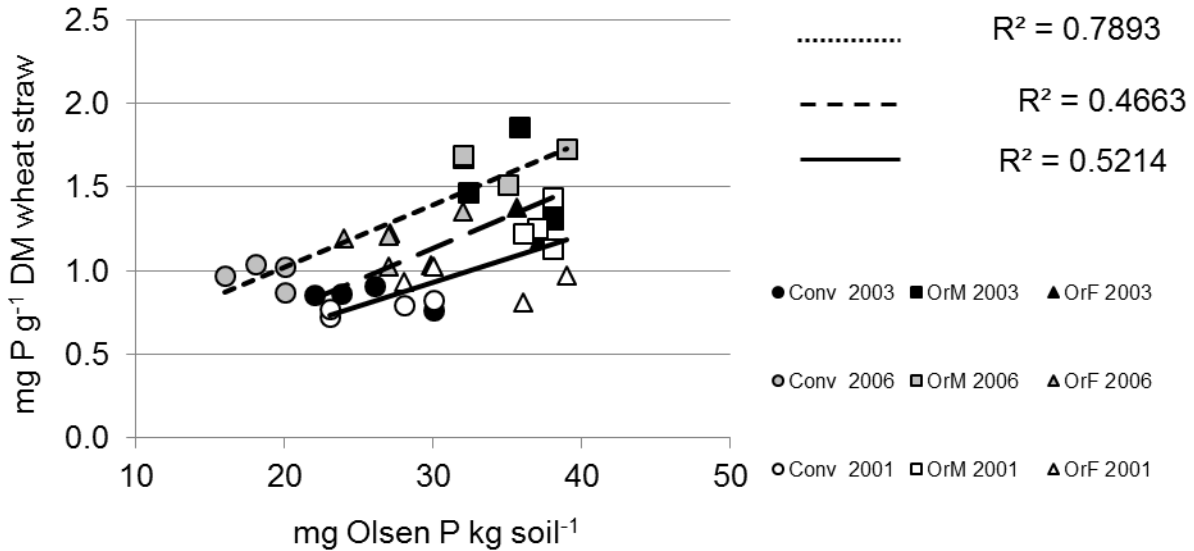
531 Green manuring in OrF during two years of the first three-year rotation expanded its capacity to
532 increase total N of the soil relative to OrM or Conv, as PMN analysis revealed that the added N was
533 less mineralised than that present in OrM. The reduction of N supply through green manuring
534 during the second three-year period reduced the capacity to stock soil organic N, hence the N
535 content in OrF at the end of the study period was equal to that of the other two treatments, but less
536 available than OrM.

537 P CBS values alone cannot explain the variation of Olsen P in the soil (Sistani et al., 2008), as the
538 form used to supply P determined different results. Under Conv management, reduced Olsen P is
539 consistent with the lack of fertilisation. Farmyard manure efficiently maintained P availability in the
540 soil. In OrF the reduction of available soil P relative to positive budgets indicates chemical
541 immobilisation in P forms not available to the crop (Halvorson and Black, 1985) or potential losses
542 from leaching (Borda et al., 2011, Cherry et al., 2008).

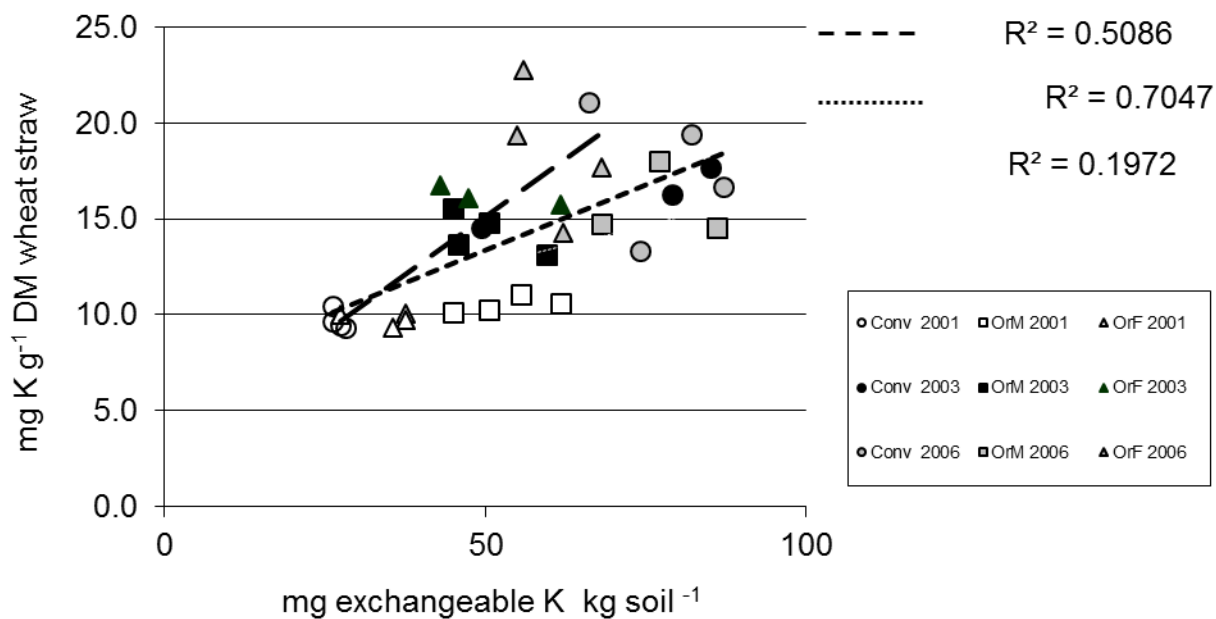
543

544

545 Figure 3: Correlation between winter wheat straw P content and Olsen P in the soil. Pearson
 546 correlation has been split by year (* significant at $p < 0.05$; ** significant at $p < 0.01$; ***
 547 significant at $p < 0.001$).



548
 549 The different availability of soil P is also demonstrated by the strong correlation (Figure 3) of P
 550 concentration in winter wheat straw and Olsen P. In fact, winter wheat straw seemed to be a good
 551 indicator of Olsen P and demonstrated the reduction of soil available P in OrF and Conv.
 552 Finally, positive values of K CBS provoked positive exchangeable K variation. Total variation of
 553 exchangeable K over the six-year period, however, was not proportional to K CBS values, which
 554 probably resulted from the complex role played by organic fertiliser containing K not fully available
 555 to the plant.
 556



557

558 Figure 4: Correlation between winter wheat straw K content and exchangeable K in soil. Pearson
 559 correlation has been split by treatment (* significant at $p < 0.05$; *** significant at $p < 0.001$).
 560

561 The correlation between soil exchangeable K and winter wheat straw K concentration (Figure 4)
 562 revealed that the latter is a good indicator of soil K status, but its significance decreased from Conv
 563 to OrF to OrM due to their progressive increase of K derived from organic fertilisers.

564

565

566 **5. Conclusion**

567 Organic systems produced less, in general, than did the comparative conventional system; however,
568 the reduction was in interaction with year. The expected trend, related to the conversion period, was
569 not evident in this experiment. Instead, yield reduction seemed related to lower soil nutrient
570 availability derived from organic fertilisers that provided nutrients mainly as a consequence of
571 mineralisation activity. This result implies that organic farming based on manure fertilisation is
572 more suitable for summer crops that take advantage of mineralisation and higher summer
573 temperatures. Winter wheat, on the contrary, suffers larger reductions in manured organic system
574 due to slow mineralisation. However, the use of commercial organic fertilisers contains this
575 reduction due to their higher nutrient availability and makes them better suited for winter crops.

576 All arable systems analysed in this work were characterised by decreased soil organic carbon over
577 time. However, manure contained soil organic carbon and soil total N depletion better. Green
578 manuring maintained SOC and increased total N in the soil if applied often during the intercropping
579 periods of crop rotation. Nonetheless, this effect is unstable across years if the frequency of green
580 manuring intercropping falls to less than two out of three years.

581 Soil fertility indicators (soil organic matter, total N variation, P and K availability) and Potential
582 mineralisable N demonstrated that organic systems managed with commercial organic nitrogen
583 fertilisers and green manure perform similarly to those managed with mineral fertilisers.

584 Finally, P and K concentrations in winter wheat straw seem to be good indicators of P and K soil
585 availability.

586

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592

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