

ORGANIC PLANT PRODUCTION - LIMITED BY NUTRIENT SUPPLY? AN OVERVIEW

H.M. Paulsen¹, S. Haneklaus², G. Rahmann¹ and E. Schnug²

¹Institute of Organic Farming, Federal Research Institute for Rural Areas, Forestry and Fisheries (vTI),
Trenthorst 32, 23847 Westerau, Germany, hans.paulsen@vti.bund.de, phone +49 4539 8880 316

²Institute for Crop and Soil Science, Federal Research Center for Cultivated Plants (JKI),
Bundesallee 50, 38116 Braunschweig, Germany,
e-mail: silvia.haneklaus@jki.bund.de, phone +49 531 596 2101

Abstract

In organic plant production the number of approved mineral fertilisers is strictly limited. Additionally, various by-products and residues from industrial processes, mainly from the food industry can be used for fertilisation. The early organic farming movement in the 20th century used household-composts and sewage sludge, but the awareness of the existence of organic and inorganic xenobiotics in those products excludes nowadays categorically nutrient recycling. The vitality of organic plant production is mainly based on farmyard manure and legume growth. Organic farming aims at closed nutrient cycles despite the risk of negative nutrient balances and nutrient mining. Nevertheless the productivity level in organic farming is constant since many years. Residues from local bio-energy production on the basis of organically grown crops could be the key to break up mental reservations against fertilisation with externally recycled materials as the concept is in agreement with legitimate organic directives. Biogas residues from fallow-legumes offer for instance a new tool to optimise N-fertilisation on organic farms and could increase productivity substantially. Other options to improve nutrient management on organic farms comprise nutrient mobilisation in the soil by roots and/or mycorrhiza, improved nutrient uptake and utilisation efficiency of plants by breeding and the recycling of environmentally sound waste-materials.

Keywords: biological nutrient mobilisation, organic farming, macronutrients, micronutrients, farm residues, biogas slurry, waste recycling.

Introduction

Plant nutrition plays a key role in organic farming as a harmonic nutrition of the crop is essential not only for producing high quality feedstuff and food, but also for promoting natural

plant resistance mechanisms against pests and diseases. The major difference between organic and conventional farming is summarized by Schmidt and Haccius (1998): "The primary concern of organic agriculture is not the substitution of depleted nutrients and not that of feeding plants, but rather feeding soil life. Consequently an organic farmer does not aim at defined crop yields by providing for a certain input of fertilizers and nutrients." Organic plant production relies on internal nutrient cycling and on the application of nutrients with organic materials from organic production. With the introduction of mineral fertilisation mid of the last century crop yields increased rapidly in conventional agriculture. In comparison, crop productivity in organic farming relies on a high soil organic matter and soil N content and the conservation of soil water resources so that organic farming may have special advantages under drought conditions (Pimentel *et al.*, 2005) and may contribute to food security in regions, which rely on local farming systems (Badgley *et al.*, 2007; Scialabba, 2007; Scialabba and Hattam, 2002). In contrast, in industrial countries with favourable cropping conditions, high input of resources and crop rotations that are limited by strong market interactions an improved nutrient management is the key to raise yields in organic farming and to secure further yield benefit from future technical-biological developments. For the application of external fertilizers the regulations of organic farming laws on fertiliser use in different countries and special guidelines of different growers associations have to be taken into account. In Europe the EC-Council Regulation No EU 834/2007 is the minimum basis for organic production. Accredited fertilisers are generally listed in the Commission Regulation No EU 889/2008. Trade names and products are published in special lists like the German 'Betriebsmittelliste' (www.FiBL.org) or the US 'National List of Allowed and Prohibited Substances' (www.ams.usda.gov). In this paper current knowledge on nutrient limitations and possibilities to maintain and improve plant nutrient supply in organic production are discussed.

Results and Discussion

Macronutrients

Nitrogen (N) is regularly the strongest limiting growth factor in organic farming systems. The use of mineral N fertilisers is prohibited in organic farming. The N supply is mainly covered by rhizobial N from legume cultivation (Peoples *et al.*, 2009). By-products of animal or vegetable origin (horn meal, feather meal, extracted oilseed rape meal, legume seed meal, molasses, vinasses) are frequently used in organic vegetable production to compensate an insufficient N supply (Laber, 2009; Mueller *et al.*, 2007). Cropping systems relying on organic N import, which is a common problem in arable vegetable production (Koller and Lichtenhahn, 2004) run contrary to the directives of organic farming, which unambiguously

demand closed nutrient cycles. In this context Haneklaus *et al.* (2005) described particular methods of soil analysis for organic farming, which comprise structural and biological soil parameters to evaluate the soil fertility status. The necessity of humus and nutrient recycling from by-products of the food chain was already accentuated in the early days of the organic movement (Rusch, 1964; Sir Albert Howard, 1943). Nowadays the use of household wastes and sludge on agricultural land is excluded for basic reasons of hygiene and contamination with organic (such as pharmaceutical residues) and inorganic (heavy metals) xenobiotics. The development of a complete extraction of all xenobiotics would be necessary before restarting a discussion on their use in organic farming (Rahmann *et al.*, 2009; Gethke *et al.*, 2008). The use of materials produced on an organic farm, particularly its by-products was emphasized by Sir Albert Howard (Sir Albert Howard and Wad, 1941) and an increased use of biomass for bio-energy production might deliver residual products which provide the minimum key nutrient N (Moller *et al.*, 2008, Stinner *et al.* 2008). Thus organic farmers may intensify productivity of cash crops without compromising the primary ideal of organic farming.

In contrast to N, for all other essential plant nutrients the off-take by harvest products is higher than the input. Nutrient balances are required for keeping a balanced nutrient input (Watson *et al.*, 2002). But threshold values available for crops produced on conventional farms (Barker and Pilbeam, 2006) have not been validated for organic farming. Static critical nutrient values are not applicable in organic farming systems because the target is not a targeted crop yield. Interactions between growth factors need to be taken into account site-specifically. An appropriate approach to interpret results and derive critical nutrient values for soils and plants is provided for instance by the BOUNDARY LINE DEVELOPMENT SYSTEM BOLIDES (Schnug and Haneklaus, 2008). So far, lower soil nutrient levels are supposed to be sufficient because of the lower nutrient demand of crops for a reduced yield level (Kolbe, 2001). Such approach, however, does not live up to the basic ideas of organic farming. It will be necessary to compare separately critical nutrient values for different organic farming systems and on arable and livestock farms.

The K supply on organic farms may be marginal or insufficient on coarse structured soils (Oborn *et al.*, 2005; Askegaard *et al.*, 2003). Here, deficiencies can easily be compensated with K salts. In case of S (Paulsen, 2005) and Mg deficiencies natural gypsum, kieserite and Mg or S containing limestone can be used.

Looking at the limited world phosphate (P) reserves an efficient recycling of residual P from industries, households and incineration of biomass is inevitable (Schnug *et al.*, 2003). There are consistent results that organic farming takes advantage of soil P levels from former

(conventional) fertilisation (Van Den Bossche *et al.*, 2005; Oehl *et al.*, 2002; Loes and Ogaard, 2001). The application of raw phosphates is not adequate to satisfy the P demand of crops because of their insufficient solubility. A sustainable use of P in organic farming requires a substantial improvement of the solubility of rock phosphates and bone meals as otherwise this non-renewable resource is deposited in a non-accessible form for plants in soils. The result: plant available soil P levels will decrease and soil fertility will diminish. An *in situ* digestion with a combination product of elemental S and rock phosphate enhanced significantly the solubility of non water-soluble P sources (Schnug and Haneklaus, 2006). Other options to improve P uptake is mobilisation by mycorrhiza (Kahiluoto and Vestberg, 1998) and P-efficient plants, which are able to explore P reserves by high root density or root exudates (Eichler-Lobermann *et al.*, 2008).

Micronutrients

Usually an insufficient supply with micronutrients is a problem of limited plant availability and not a limited reserve. In general, adjustment of the soil pH by liming will ensure a sufficient supply with micronutrients.

The application of organic manures or composts increases the micronutrient supply (Mn, Zn, Cu) (Herencia *et al.*, 2008). Studies on microelement concentrations in herbage indicated that Cu, Mo, Co, Zn, Fe or Mn were not limiting plant growth in organic herbage production (Govasmark *et al.*, 2005a; Govasmark *et al.*, 2005b). A higher mycorrhizal colonization of roots because of a lower P supply in organic systems may yield higher Zn concentrations when compared to conventional wheat grain (Ryan *et al.*, 2004). Another external source of micronutrients are feed additives. Mineral feed additives may charge soils with micronutrient loads (Cu), which needs to be evaluated critically (Gustafson *et al.*, 2007; Linden *et al.*, 2001; Olsson *et al.*, 2001). Heavy metal contents (Cd, Pb, Hg, As) and other undesirable substances in animal feed are limited in the Directive 2002/32/EC. Particularly phosphates may contain considerable amounts of undesired elements (Sullivan *et al.*, 1994). The Cd content in fertilisers is regulated to a maximum of 90 mg kg⁻¹ P₂O₅ (EC 889/2008), but lower values are discussed and part of the fertiliser directives of some EU Members states (e. g. Germany 60, Finland 50 mg Cd kg⁻¹ P₂O₅). So far no thresholds exists for U in fertilisers and feed additives (Knolle *et al.*, 2008; Uberschar, 2006). U is a toxic heavy metal and anthropogenic U contamination of agricultural soils is closely related to nationwide fertilization practices. The U content in rock phosphates may be as high as 220 mg kg⁻¹ U. Particularly P fertilizers are known to add significant U loads to soils (Schnug and De Kok, 2008).

The results clearly reveal research deficits in the field of development of methods and criteria for evaluating nutrient availability and nutrient supply, and fertiliser demand in organic farming. In addition organic farming requires not only innovative approaches to improve nutrient availability as it was shown exemplary for P, but also regulatory updates of fertiliser regulations concerning environmentally relevant elements such as U.

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