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Landbauforschung

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Volatility transmission on international futures markets during the 2007/08 price surge

Jochen Schmitz* and Oliver von Ledebur*

Abstract

The study is a contribution to the debate on the commodity price spike in 2007 to 2008 and the relationship among commodity futures markets. The transmission of price volatility between futures markets is analysed. The background question is whether, and to what extent, the volatility of agricultural futures at different market places was transferred during the price changes of 2008. The volatility of maize futures at different exchanges is modelled as a multivariate GARCH-process. By doing so, interactions between markets in different venues are incorporated. Estimation results are discussed against the background of the developments in agricultural and biofuel policy.

Keywords: *commodity futures, corn, time series, price volatility transmission, multivariate GARCH.*

Zusammenfassung

Volatilitätsübertragung auf internationalen Terminmärkten während des 2007/08 Preisschubs

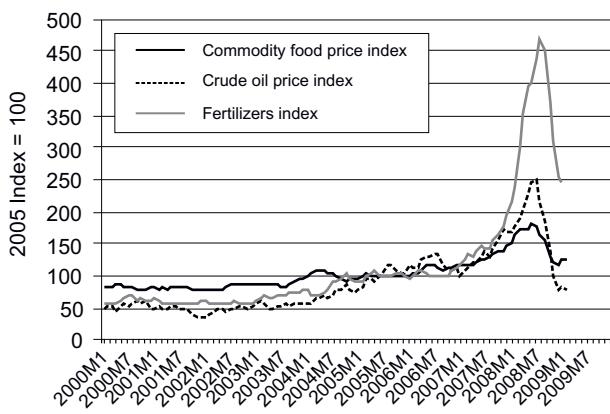
Diese Studie liefert ein Beitrag zur Debatte über den Preisanstieg auf den Rohstoffmärkten in 2007 bis 2008 sowie dem Verständnis der Beziehungen zwischen Warenterminmärkten. Die Übertragung von Preisschwankungen zwischen Warenterminmärkten wird analysiert. Die Kernfrage ist, ob und in welchem Umfang, die Volatilität der Agrar-Futures auf verschiedenen Marktplätzen während der Preisänderungen des Jahres 2008 übertragen wurde. Die Volatilität des Mais-Futures an verschiedenen Börsen wird als ein multivariater GARCH-Prozess modelliert. Dadurch sind die Wechselwirkungen zwischen den Märkten an verschiedenen Börsenplätzen aufgenommen. Die Ergebnisse der Schätzung werden vor dem Hintergrund der Entwicklungen der Agrarpolitik und der Biokraftstoff-Politik diskutiert.

Keywords: *Warenterminkontrakte, Mais, Zeitreihenanalyse, Volatilitätsübertragung, multivariates GARCH*

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1 Introduction

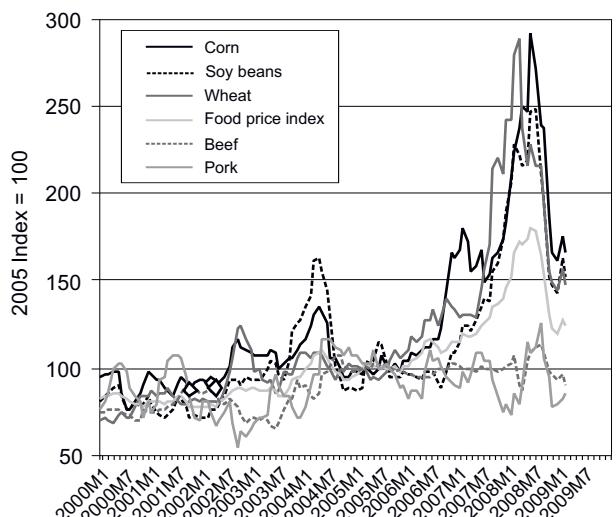
In the past couple of years major changes could be observed on the agricultural markets. Within a short period of time, the price level of agricultural raw materials rose with serious consequences for the entire agricultural sector. The FAO, the EU Commission, IFPRI, the World Bank and other organisations point price dynamics on the agricultural markets as the driving cause of increases of both the price level and price volatility, (EC, 2008a; EC, 2008b: 6ff; Food and Organisation, 2008: 55 to 57; Robles et al., 2009; Caverio and Galian, 2008; Rabobank, 2008: 8ff).



Source: Own calculations based on IMF (2009) and World Bank (2009).

Figure 1:

Monthly price index for fertilizer, crude oil and food (Index 2005 = 100, 2000 to 2008)



Source: Own calculations based on IMF (2009) and World Bank (2009).

Figure 2:

Monthly price index for food agricultural products (Index 2005 = 100, 2000 to 2008)

The price changes on the agricultural markets took place in the course of a general increase in raw materials prices (see Figure 1 and Figure 2).

A series of factors had an impact on the agricultural markets during the period of price increase. Among these, structural changes in global demand and repeated supply shortages in important producing regions during the first decade of the century. This led to continuous global stock reductions which supported the observed positive price development. Other factors were mentioned which influenced the agricultural market volatility in the past years. Among these were changes in the market and trade policy in many countries. The reduction of exportable surpluses in the EU occurred at essentially the same point in time as the world's market supply situation on the cereals market was most constrained. Through the implementation of measures that burden exports at this time, several traditional grain exporting countries prevented a relaxing of the world market situation. With these measures they even increased the existing scarcity, and consequently the supply insecurity, and ultimately the market volatility. Also "new" market interventions, such as the additional demand of agricultural raw materials for fuel use as a consequence of the promotion of bio energy lead to an increase of insecurity related to market supply. Finally, the increase of uninformed and speculative investors on the futures markets must also be mentioned. Many market observers argued they influenced the price level and volatility on the futures markets as well as the physical markets. In the lively debate on this topic, neither a consensus on the level of the influence of policy instruments in the areas of renewable energy providers on the price level of agricultural markets, nor an clear causal interaction between the increased activities of speculative investors on the futures markets, have yet been found (FAO, 2007: 48; Gilbert, 2009; Rabobank, 2008: 9; Tangermann, 2011; USDA, 2008: 20).

This paper analyzes the interrelationship of futures markets of agricultural raw materials. In particular the transmission of price volatility between markets will be considered. The corn market was chosen as the key market for this analysis. This product plays a central role worldwide for the livestock production but also in the area of substitution of fossil fuels with bio-fuels from renewable resources. The emphasis of the approach of substituting fossil fuels with renewable agricultural raw materials as implemented in the United States is based on the use of ethanol from corn starch.

The Chicago futures market takes an exposed position in world trade with agricultural raw materials. A large part of worldwide futures trade with corn is realized at the Chicago Board of Trade (CBOT) since the USA is by far the largest corn producer and exporter at global level.

Contract prices achieved at the CBOT in the course of the futures trading have a wide reaching signal function for global corn markets. In addition to this exchange, there are two other exchanges of interest. These are the Futures Exchange in São Paulo (Bolsa Mercantil e de Futuros, BMF, here denominated BRAZ) in Brazil and the Paris-based Exchange, the Marche à Terme d'Instruments Financiers (MATIF). The Brazilian agricultural markets are characterized by notable large export surplus growth rates. Since the Brazilian macroeconomic stabilization succeeded the 1990's, trade at the BMF has increased, and currently the exchange assumes the role of regional reference market for some commodities. The French exchange takes the role of leading market with regard to cereals markets within the European Union.

In the context of globally increasingly interrelated agricultural and financial markets, the question emerges whether and to what extent futures price volatility was carried over between international trading centres during the drastic price changes of 2008. This question has only been dealt with approximately in the agricultural economic scientific literature (Baffes, 2007; EC, 2008a; EC, 2008b; Garcia and Leuthold, 2004).

Until now, studies on the volatility of agricultural market prices have mainly concentrated methodically on a univariate approach. At the heart of the past analysis is a modelling of volatility as a GARCH (Generalized Auto-regressive Conditional Heteroscedasticity) Process, which was supplemented with exogenous factors. Factors that have been identified are government programs for the US futures and cash wheat markets (Crain and Lee, 1996) or inventories and trading volume for the US corn and wheat futures markets (Goodwin and Schnepf, 2000). Regarding the variability in futures markets, a better understanding of the factors that affect price changes and volatility is needed (Goodwin and Schnepf, 2000; Boudoukh et al., 2003).

Against this methodological background, interactions between futures markets at different trading centres were excluded. In light of the joint price increase across commodity markets, the question emerges of how adequate an isolated consideration of a single market is. For this reason we take a different approach in this study. It appears to be necessary to illustrate the relevant markets simultaneously and to document their interdependencies. In order to achieve this for the global corn market, we illustrate the markets in a multivariate heteroscedasticity model. The modelling approach of a BEKK Model¹ is useful for this purpose. A positive definite covariance matrix H_t (Engle and Kroner, 1995) due to the model set-up let this model

appear to be suited for this analysis. This article is divided into the following areas. The next section introduces in detail the methods of the BEKK model. Section 3 presents the data used and the estimated results. A discussion on the results closes this section. The final section concludes with a discussion of possible future research.

2 Model

GARCH models serve as the backbone of volatility modelling. Through the approach by (Engle, 1982), it is possible to model the (unobserved) second moment. The resulting variance is dependent on the amount of currently available information. The whole GARCH model can be characterized by 4 equations. The first part describes the mean equation and illustrates the first moment of the process (Equation (1)). In this specification only a long term trend component μ is assumed. Daily percentage price changes (Price returns) are used for estimation. Those returns are best characterized by a long term trend component.

The second part describes the variance equation. It serves as the second moment of the process (Equation (4)). The known information set is generated from the returns up to the time point $t-1$. Further model characterizations are needed to fully describe the GARCH model. Equation (2) serves as a link between Equation (1) and Equation (4). It states that the second moment is driven by conditional heteroscedasticity. Equation (3) declares the distribution of the innovation of the process as a normal distribution.

The returns are calculated as $r_t = \log(F_t/F_{t-1})$. The futures price at that point in time is called F_t , and r_t describes the illustrated returns at time point t :

$$r_t = \mu + \varepsilon_t \quad (1)$$

$$\varepsilon_t = \sqrt{h_t} z_t \quad (2)$$

$$\varepsilon_t | I_{t-1} \sim N(0, h_t) \quad (3)$$

The resulting variance of r_t yields the generalization of the model by (Bollerslev, 1986). It permits the inclusion of past variances in addition to the consideration of past innovations. This leads to the general univariate GARCH (p, q) model:

$$h_t = \alpha_0 + \alpha_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 + \dots + \alpha_p \varepsilon_{t-p}^2 + \beta_1 h_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q h_t \quad (4)$$

The past innovations $(\alpha_1 \varepsilon_{t-1}^2 + \dots + \alpha_p \varepsilon_{t-p}^2)$ are called the ARCH-terms while the past variances $(\beta_1 h_{t-1} + \dots + \beta_q h_t)$ are called the GARCH-terms.

The transfer into a multivariate GARCH model takes place with a generalization of the resulting variance matrix H_t .

¹ BEKK models are named after Baba, Engle, Kraft und Kroner.

$$\mathbf{H}_t = \begin{pmatrix} h_{11} & h_{12} & h_{13} \\ h_{21} & h_{22} & h_{23} \\ h_{31} & h_{32} & h_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (5)$$

Each element of \mathbf{H}_t depends on p delayed values of the squared ε_t , the cross product of ε_t and on q delayed values of the elements from \mathbf{H}_{t-1} . We did not make use of the possibility to draw exogenous factors into the resulting variance equation. In general, a multivariate GARCH (1,1) model without exogenous factors can be presented as follows as a BEKK model (Engle and Kroner, 1995). For reasons of clarity time indicators are not included in the presentation. A model with the time delay of only one lag ($t-1$) was modelled.

$$\mathbf{H}_t = \mathbf{C}_0' \mathbf{C}_0 + \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} \varepsilon_1^2 & \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_2 & \varepsilon_1 \varepsilon_3 \\ \varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_1 & \varepsilon_2^2 & \varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_3 \\ \varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_1 & \varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_2 & \varepsilon_3^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} a_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & a_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & a_{33} \end{pmatrix} + \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b_{33} \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} h_1^2 & h_1 h_2 & h_1 h_3 \\ h_2 h_1 & h_2^2 & h_2 h_3 \\ h_3 h_1 & h_3 h_2 & h_3^2 \end{pmatrix} \begin{pmatrix} b_{11} & 0 & 0 \\ 0 & b_{22} & 0 \\ 0 & 0 & b_{33} \end{pmatrix} \quad (6)$$

Through the model construction via the quadratic form it is possible to positively define the resulting variance-covariance matrix \mathbf{H}_t . This ensures that all variances and covariances are always positive. In compact form, the above equation can also be written in this manner:

$$\mathbf{H}_t = \mathbf{C}_0' \mathbf{C}_0 + \mathbf{A}' \varepsilon_{t-1} \varepsilon_{t-1}' \mathbf{A} + \mathbf{B}' \mathbf{H}_{t-1} \mathbf{B} \quad (7)$$

The matrices \mathbf{A} , \mathbf{C}_0 and \mathbf{B} possess the dimension $(n \times n)$. \mathbf{C}_0 is a (lower) triangular matrix. In the model assumed here, we are dealing with the matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} on diagonal matrices. A generalization of the model is possible. Further interactions could be implemented, but then the matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} are not diagonal anymore and results in a much more complex matrix \mathbf{H}_t .

Apart from the achievement of a positive definite matrix \mathbf{H}_t , there is another advantage of the BEKK specification. Due to the diagonal BEKK model assumed here, a checking of the stationary nature of the process is determined solely through the diagonal elements of matrices \mathbf{A} and \mathbf{B} . The diagonal BEKK model is stationary if $\sum_{k=1}^n (a_{kk}^2 + b_{kk}^2) < 1 \forall i$ (Engle and Kroner, 1995, p.133). In accordance with the questions stated in the introduction, three trading centres (exchanges) were studied ($n = 3$). The according variance and covariance equations are as follows:

$$h_{11} = c_{01} + a_{11}^2 \varepsilon_1^2 + b_{11}^2 h_1^2 \quad (8)$$

$$h_{21} = c_{02} + a_{11} a_{22} \varepsilon_2 \varepsilon_1 + b_{11} b_{22} h_{21} \quad (9)$$

$$h_{31} = c_{03} + a_{11} a_{33} \varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_1 + b_{11} b_{33} h_{31} \quad (10)$$

$$h_{22} = c_{04} + a_{22}^2 \varepsilon_2^2 + b_{22}^2 h_2^2 \quad (11)$$

$$h_{32} = c_{05} + a_{22} a_{33} \varepsilon_3 \varepsilon_2 + b_{22} b_{33} h_{32} \quad (12)$$

$$h_{33} = c_{06} + a_{33}^2 \varepsilon_3^2 + b_{33}^2 h_3^2 \quad (13)$$

The indexes used recede to the notation used in Equations (5) and (6). The matrix \mathbf{H}_t contains redundant expressions. For the sake of a clear and comprehensible analysis,

no distinction is made between h_{21}/h_{12} , h_{31}/h_{13} or h_{32}/h_{23} . So the influence from Commodity Market 1 (in our later model implementation CBOT) on Commodity Market 2 (in our later analysis MATIF) is the same and vice versa. The same holds for all other possible market interactions. This analysis should reveal whether there is any relationship between markets at that period of time. It should not answer which market influences the other markets

most. The empirically estimated BEKK-GARCH model is thus based on a multivariate version of Equation (1) and Equations (8) to (13) (derived from Equation (6)).

3 Data and results

The interactions of volatilities between the traded price quotations on the commodity exchanges in the USA (CBOT), Brazil (BRAZ) and Europe/France (MATIF) were studied. The topic of this analysis is related to price quotations which ran out in March 2008, and was dealt with on all three exchanges with the same running time. Exchange quotations from 27. March 2007 to 5. March 2008 were available. The Central Market and Price Reporting Agency (Zentrale Markt- und Preisberichtsstelle – ZMP) provided the data as a courtesy. Price quotations are given in US-Dollars. Each futures contract is based on a different corn quantity. In Europe one contract stands for 50 tons of corn. In Brazil, 450 units of 60 kilogram bags are traded by one contract. This is equivalent to 27 tonnes. In the United States, the unit per contract is 5000 bushels. This is equivalent to 127 tonnes (1 bushel of corn is equal to 25.4 kilogram). This different unit of measurement explains the observed price levels per unit of weight on these markets. Due to holidays, etc., on some days, price notations were not available for all three markets. Thus all exchange quotations were deleted for these days. Overall at the start, 245 exchange quotations were available. After the vali-

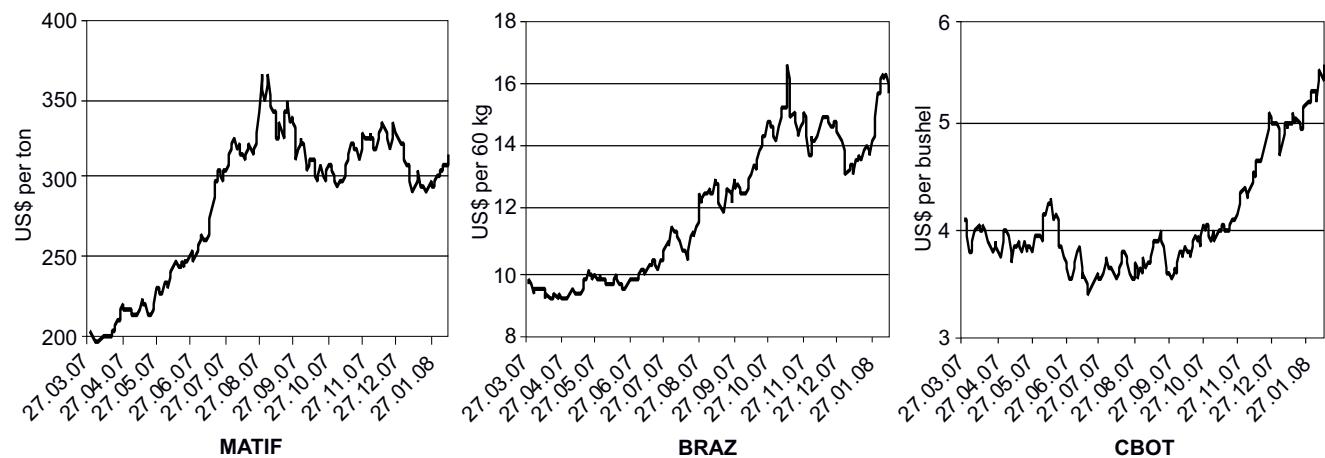
dation, 226 observations remained for the estimates. In the framework of a GARCH estimate, this is just a small sample. At the MATIF and BRAZ trading centres, the appropriate futures were not placed and traded earlier. Thus, only the mentioned 245 daily notations were available. This is due to the different definition of the contracts at the future exchanges.

The time development of prices per unit of weight for corn between 27. March 2007 and 5. March 2008 is presented in the following Figure 3. The value of one futures contract consists of the price per unit of weight multiplied with the corresponding unit of trading. One can recognize a continual price increase on the Chicago exchange. This increase began in October 2007. A comparably strong and permanent price increase cannot be observed for the other

exchanges. Consequently, this price development also affects the returns, the logarithmic difference of the price level, of the process.

According to Figure 3, the processes show a very clear non-stationary behaviour. Stationarity of time series data can be tested by Unit-Root tests. The validation of stationarity will be conducted by the Augmented-Dickey-Fuller-Test (ADF-test). For this test the null hypothesis is non-stationarity. Results are given in Table 1. The results clearly endorse the non-stationary behaviour of the series. Since the estimation of the model using price levels is not indicated, stationary variables are to be used.

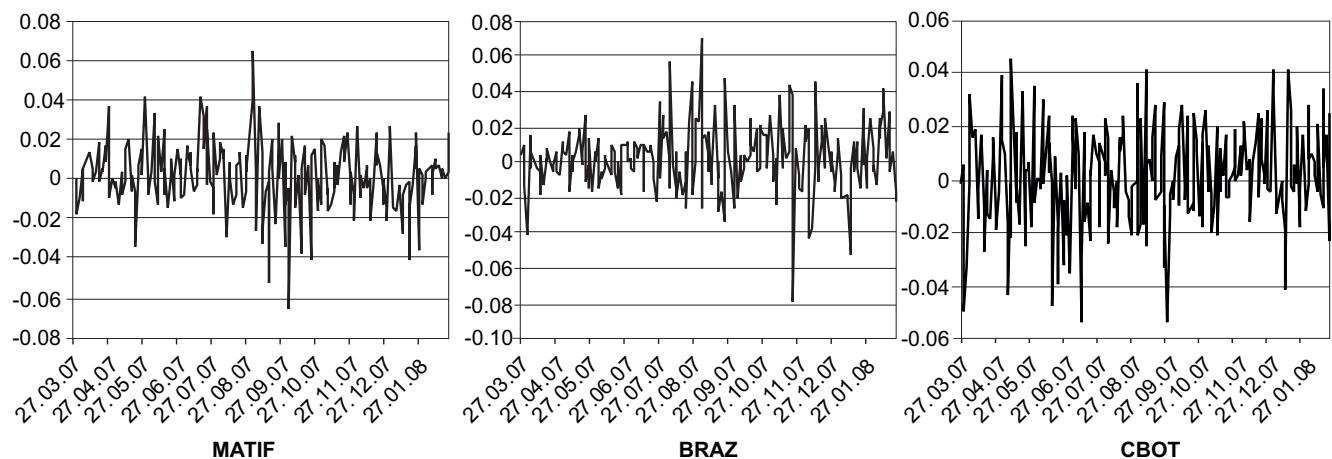
The correspondent returns are significantly stationary at the 1 percent level and are suited for modelling (see Figure 4).



Source: ZMP (2009).

Figure 3:

Corn prices per ton in France (MATIF), per 60 kg in Brazil (Bolsa Mercantil e de Futuros, BRAZ) and per bushel in the USA (CBOT)



Source: Own calculations based on ZMP (2009).

Figure 4:

Corn prices returns in France (MATIF), in Brazil (Bolsa Mercantil e de Futuros, BRAZ) and in the USA (CBOT)

Table 1:

Unit-root tests for price level and returns

	MATIF		BRAZ		CBOT	
	Future	Return	Future	Return	Future	Return
Observations	224	223	224	223	224	223
ADF - Test	1.200 (0.9411)	-12.9035 (0.0000)	1.2520 (0.9464)	-13.0326 (0.0000)	1.400 (0.9594)	-14.3167 (0.0000)

Prob. Value in parenthesis (Prob.value)
Source: Own calculations.

Table 2 contains a summary of the data for the returns of the corn prices. Most clearly evident are the results of the Jarque-Bera statistics in Table 2. According to these values the assumption of normal distribution on the basis of 5 % level cannot be rejected for the CBOT data. This finding is in contrast to the stylized facts of finance market data. This market data reaction can be interpreted as an influence of the political institutional framework at that period of time. In a normal market situation one should expect one price for one product on different markets (in absence of transport cost, etc.). The classic economic "Law of one price" principle was not valid in this time period.

Table 2:

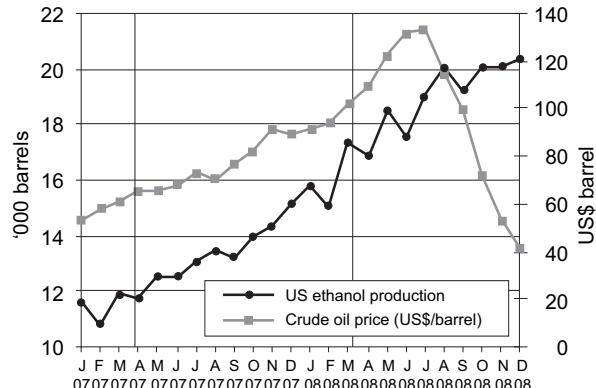
Summary of returns for the selected exchanges (27. March 2007 to 5. March 2008)

	MATIF	BRAZ	CBOT
Mean	0.0020	0.0020	0.0014
Median	0.0026	0.0022	0.0012
Max	0.0645	0.0701	0.0457
Min	-0.0657	-0.0788	-0.0537
Std. deviation	0.0167	0.0182	0.0185
Skewness	-0.2844	-0.0094	-0.2595
Kurtosis	5.0355	5.4022	3.2843
Jarque-Bera	41.6920	53.8667	3.2682
Prob. value	0.0000	0.0000	0.1952

Source: Own calculations.

The reasons for such surprising results could have their origin in the political institutional framework conditions. Here changes in framework conditions apply for the corn market, particularly in the USA, where the corn ethanol industry expansion is highly subsidized. The massively extended production of ethanol on the basis of corn starch, induced by the US ethanol policy, requires according amounts of raw materials. In the USA, corn and soy production compete for land. Already in the previous period (October 2006 to May 2007), one could observe a simultaneous price increase for both products on the futures exchanges and also on the physical markets, which was inter-

preted as an expression of demand pressure evident through the competition for land during the sowing period (Theis, 2007: 48 to 49). The time period considered here comes with a further increase in the price of crude oil, which drove the ethanol boom further. Against the background of this price development, the price competitiveness of the biogenic fuel as a substitute for fossil fuel increased (see Figure 5). In light of the expected further demand, increasingly higher prices were offered for corn contracts on the Chicago exchange in order to secure the supply of corn for processing and feeding.



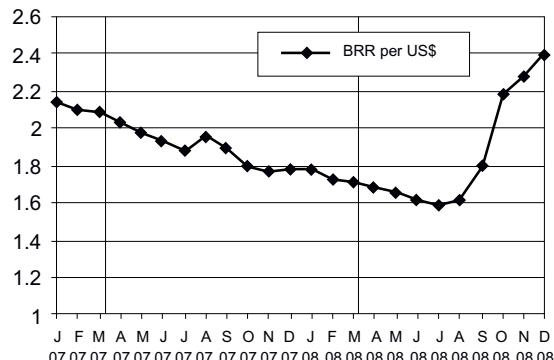
Source: Renewable Fuel Association (2009) and IMF (2009).

Figure 5:

US ethanol production and crude oil price development, January 2007 to December 2008.

The increase of corn price at the CBOT during the time period October 2007 to March 2008 coincides also with a devaluation of the US Dollar against the Brazilian Real (Figure 6). This exchange rate development leads to a relative price advantage of the US priced product, which finally may have led to an increase in foreign demand for US corn. This applies particularly against the background of the tense supply situation of feeding stuff in 2007/08. In the European Union wheat has been substituted by corn and corn has been increasingly imported. Due to genetically modified corn, Argentinean corn did not obtain access to the European markets at this time. This led to an increased demand for Brazilian corn. According to extremely high world market prices, Brazilian corn could be transported

to the EU market without any tariff burden². These factors together lead to a significant price increase, see Figure 3.



Source: (MAPA – Ministério da Agricultura; Pecuária e Abastecimento, 2009).

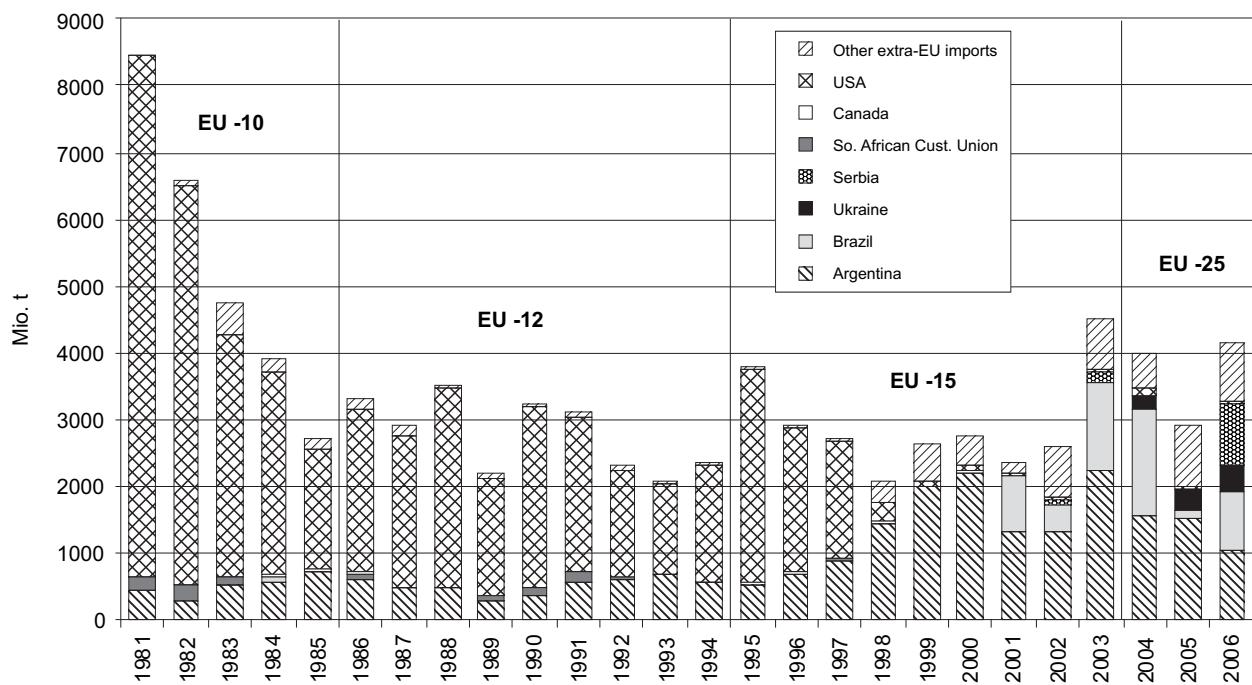
Figure 6:
Exchange rate development Brazilian Real to US Dollar, January 2007 to December 2008.

An impact of an increasing European demand on US corn prices can be excluded because corn imports from the USA have not taken place since the end of the 1990s

due to consumer preferences and existing regulations in the area of consumer protection. The EU Framework regulations on genetically modified organisms (GMOs) are continually being expanded and updated. A series of legal regulation exist with the clear goal of protecting public health and the environment. An important branch of the EU laws on GMOs deal with the release of genetically modified organisms into the environment. In 2002, an authorization procedure was introduced dealing with the release of GMOs or any type of product made from GMOs. The prohibition, or rather, the non-authorization of some so-called Bt Corn varieties led to an actual end of the US exports into the EU (Wirtschaftswoche, 2005), as can be seen in Figure 7.

The politically induced market development in the USA led to a solidifying of expectations for increasing corn prices, which ended, among other things, in fewer price deviations. This may have led to the fact that for the futures price at the Chicago Exchange, the assumption of normal distribution of returns could not be rejected.

Additionally, the prevailing corn price level in the observed period was so high that the variable tariff system

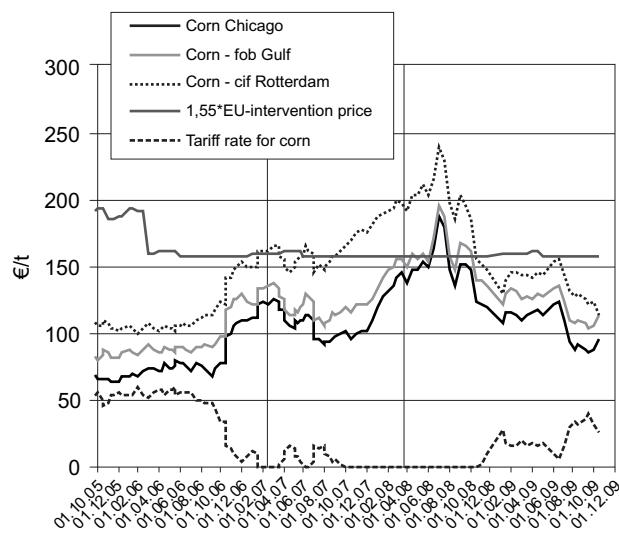


Source: Own calculations based on COMTRADE (2009).

Figure 7:
Development of Corn Imports from Non EC/EU Member States in tonnes, 1981 to 2006

² The calculation of tariff rates for corn by the EU Commission is based on FOB prices of the US goods at the Gulf of Mexico, transport costs to Rotterdam and the administrated intervention price (CAP Monitor, 2009). This link to the US corn market has been lifted under the prevalent market conditions

of the EU for corn was de facto inactive. This system bases upon a series of prices that end with the entry price for imported corn at the port of Rotterdam and allows the European Commission to set and publish the import tariff in the Official Journal of the European Union in a two-week rhythm. Figure 8 illustrates how, due to a high market price level, the resulting import tariff results in zero.



Source: Own calculations based on EU Commission Regulations (several issues).

Figure 8:
Development of EU Corn Imports Tariff, October 2005 to October 2009

Regarding the variance and covariance equations described in Section 2, the interdependence of the markets can now be checked. Particularly the covariance equations provide insight into the interactions of the markets. From the estimated parameters given in Table 3 the following can be seen:

In order to better comprehend the results we address the Equations (8), (11) and (13). Equation (8) is the variance Equation for CBOT, Equation (11) for MATIF and Equation (13) for BRAZ.

Parameters a_{11} , and c_{01} for the CBOT Market are all not statistically significant at the five percent level. This means that the according variance equation is partially valid (Equation (8)). The returns at the Chicago Futures Market were not marked by conditional heteroscedasticity in the time period considered. The conditional variance of CBOT prices is characterised only by its own lagged variance. As parameter a_{11} is insignificant, information shocks are not accounted for. This finding again highlights the peculiarity of this exchange at this time.

This is an important result since Equations (9) and (10) illustrate the spill-over effects of the Chicago Market on MATIF and Brazil and the ARCH-terms of this equations

described by parameters (a_{11}, a_{22}) and (a_{11}, a_{33}) are null. Thus in the time period considered, no spill-over of price or information shocks from Chicago (e.g., updated harvest forecast in the USA) took place on the development of prices at marketplaces MATIF and Brazil. Nevertheless CBOT is of such importance that the other markets considered are influenced via the covariance as the GARCH-term is described by the parameters (b_{11}, b_{22}) and (b_{11}, b_{33}) which are different from zero. These results mean that only the lagged conditional variance of CBOT influences the covariance. The politically induced market development in the USA caused a partial decoupling of the US market from the other markets analysed here. Due to the significance of the Futures exchange in Chicago (it is the global key market), a noticeable influence of the other market places came only via the covariance.

Table 3:
Estimated parameters of the BEKK model

	Coefficient	Prob. value
μ_1	0.0012	0.2850
μ_2	0.0024	0.0475
μ_3	0.0026	0.0210
c_{01}	0.0026	0.6539
c_{02}	0.0018	0.5760
c_{03}	0.0037	0.5903
c_{04}	0.0047	0.0093
c_{05}	-0.0005	0.9102
c_{06}	0.0000	1.0000
a_{11}	-0.0700	0.4179
a_{22}	0.2332	0.0002
a_{33}	0.4709	0.0000
b_{11}	0.9855	0.0000
b_{22}	0.9216	0.0000
b_{33}	0.8745	0.0000

Source: own calculations.

In contrast to the commodity exchange in Chicago, estimation results show that clear interactions exist between MATIF and Brazil. This can be seen due to the significant parameter values a_{22} , a_{33} , b_{22} and b_{33} , which appear in Equation (12). Thus at least an indirect (via the covariance) influence could be identified for both markets. Here both components of the covariance equation are relevant. Information shocks that occur on one of the two market places impact the volatility of the other. The lagged development of the variance of the other market alone does not determine its future development.

Each variance equation shows also the special situation during the time period studied. A GARCH (1,1) process

could be identified for each of the trading centres in Europe and Brazil,. This is not the case for the US market. Major corn markets prices are not always tied together, nor therefore volatility. Transmissions of volatility impulses are disrupted with relation to CBOT. This revision of the volatility market characteristics was one intention of this study. It was shown that the US corn market was decoupled from other corn markets. International corn traders therefore cannot rely on a permanently stable relationship between these markets. So there might be trading opportunities. Also (international) hedging of corn positions gets complicated in such time periods.

This result must be seen in the context of the above-described political framework conditions. The de facto import ban on genetic corn into Europe, as well as the simultaneous ethanol boom, led to strongly changed price development of futures at the Chicago Futures Exchange. This resulted in a decoupling of the price development and volatility transmission at the commodity exchanges in Europe and Brazil. This decoupling was ultimately measured and confirmed by the model. The driving factors behind this cannot be analysed with this methodology approach. No clear identification between the GMO ban and the US biofuel politics can be set as the main factor. The major obstacle in resolving this lies in the different time frequency of available data. This study was carried out with daily data. Decisions regarding GMO ban or biofuel politics are made on a yearly or less frequent basis. Adding (daily) explanatory data, based on low frequent decisions, in models for daily volatility is an unresolved task.

4 Perspectives

The multivariate analysis framework used here contributes to a better understanding of price volatility on the futures exchanges as an interaction of many mutually affected trading centres. It could successfully be shown that the volatility of futures prices at different market places do impact each other. In particular the analysis results show that interactions existed among futures markets for the considered time period. Price formation (price level and volatility) are interrelated at different commodity exchanges. This specific analysis showed that the linkage among exchanges at different market places might be affected by policies as in the case of the support for corn ethanol in the USA during the observed period. Hence an additional building block in the explanation of the volatility could be identified.

The inter-market relationships should not be disregarded. Those volatility spill-over effects play a significant role in explaining volatility patterns on different markets.

This work extended the existing research of Crain and Lee, 1996; Goodwin and Schnepf, 2000; Boudoukh et al., 2003, through a multivariate analysis.

Nevertheless, not all aspects of the determinants of price volatility are clear and fully identified. Future research should also analyse whether or not the interactions identified here are time independent, and if not, which factors of influence play a role. This holds in particular true for the analysis of the markets during and after the turns in the crude products markets as a consequence of global finance market crises. Another topic is the expansion of the current analytical framework to identify interactions between price formation of agricultural and non-agricultural raw products.

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Elektronische Tierkennzeichnung – ISO-Standards und aktuelle Situation in Deutschland

Anja Schwalm* und Heiko Georg*

Zusammenfassung

Die elektronische Tierkennzeichnung hat in den letzten Jahren weiter deutlich an Bedeutung gewonnen. Sie wird inzwischen weltweit bei vielen verschiedenen Tierarten sowohl im Nutztier als auch im Heim- und Hobbytierbereich eingesetzt.

Auch werden in immer mehr Ländern weltweit obligate elektronische Tierkennzeichnungen bei einzelnen Tierarten eingeführt, um die Vorteile dieser Art der Kennzeichnung nutzen zu können. Bei Rindern sind dies z. B. Kanada, Australien, Uruguay, Botswana und Dänemark. Schafe, Ziegen und Equiden müssen z. B. in der EU elektronisch gekennzeichnet sein. Auch im Heimtiersektor sind teilweise elektronische Kennzeichnungen Pflicht. Hunde müssen ab 2012 z. B. bei Grenzübertritten in der EU elektronisch gekennzeichnet sein. In Österreich, der Schweiz und in einigen deutschen Bundesländern besteht eine generelle Chippflicht für Hunde.

Um im Rahmen des globalen Handels eine optimale Nutzung dieser Art der Kennzeichnung gewährleisten zu können, ist es essentiell, internationale Standards diesbezüglich zu entwickeln. Die International Organization for Standardization (ISO) ist die Internationale Organisation für Normung. Sie entwickelt und veröffentlicht internationale Standards auch im Zusammenhang mit elektronischer Tierkennzeichnung. Dieser Artikel gibt eine Übersicht über ISO-Standards im Zusammenhang mit der elektronischen Kennzeichnung von Tieren, gegliedert in die Abschnitte Normung zur Tiererkennung, Standards zu Advanced Transpondern und Normung im Zusammenhang mit Testverfahren für die elektronische Tierkennzeichnung. Zugeleich wird ein Überblick über die aktuelle Situation der ISO-konformen Tierkennzeichnung in Deutschland dargestellt.

Schlüsselwörter: Elektronische Tierkennzeichnung, ISO-Standards, Deutschland

Abstract

Electronic animal identification – ISO-standards and current situation in Germany

The electronic identification of animals (eID) has gained in importance over the last years. It is used worldwide in a wide range of species including productive livestock, pets, zoo animals, endangered species and wildlife. It is becoming increasingly important as an obligatory official animal identification in more and more countries because of the associated benefits resulting of this form of animal identification. In cattle eID is obligatory for example in Canada, Australia, Uruguay, Botswana and Denmark. Sheep, goats and equine have to be electronically identified in the EU. There are obligatory eIDs also in the pet sector. For example pets have to be chipped when they travel in the EU (starting 2012). In Austria, Switzerland and in some federal states of Germany chipping is obligatory for all dogs.

In the light of global trade it is necessary to optimize the use of eID worldwide; therefore, it is essential to have international standards concerning eID of animals. ISO (International Organization for Standardization) is a global network that develops and publishes International Standards.

This article gives a summary of the status quo in ISO-standards concerning electronic animal identification (standards for animal RFID, standards for advanced animal RFID, test procedures for animal RFID). RFID is an acronym for radiofrequency identification. Additionally an overview of the current situation of electronic animal identification in Germany is provided.

Keywords: electronic animal identification, ISO-standards, Germany

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Einleitung

Nachdem im IDEA-Projekt (IDEA-Studie, 2001) die Durchführbarkeit der elektronischen Kennzeichnung von Wiederkäuern bestätigt wurde, ist die elektronische Tierkennzeichnung (eTK) in den letzten Jahren zu einem integralen Bestandteil der Kennzeichnung von Tieren geworden. Sie findet sowohl im Nutztiersektor (insbesondere bei Pferd, Schaf, Ziege und Rind) als auch im Heimtiersektor (Hund, Katze, Frettchen) Anwendung.

Immer mehr Länder weltweit führen obligate elektronische Tierkennzeichnungen für einzelne Tierarten ein, um die Vorteile der elektronischen Form der Tierkennzeichnung nutzen zu können. In vielen weiteren Ländern ist zumindest eine freiwillige elektronische Tierkennzeichnung möglich.

Eine obligate elektronische Kennzeichnung nach ISO 11784 und ISO 11785 von Rindern gibt es zurzeit unter anderem in Kanada, Australien, Uruguay, Botswana und Dänemark. Sehr viele Länder unterstützen zumindest eine freiwillige eTK bei Rindern u.a. Argentinien, EU, Japan, Südkorea, Brasilien, Mexiko, Neuseeland, USA (Greene, 2010; Canadian Cattle Identification Agency, 2011; FCEC, 2009; Europäischen Union, 2011; Hansen, 2010).

Die Europäischen Kommission prüft zur Zeit die Einführung einer offiziellen elektronischen Kennzeichnung von Rindern in Europa (Europäischen Union, 2011).

In der EU ist die eTK von Schaf, Ziege und Pferd Pflicht (VO (EG) 21/2004; VO (EG) 504/2008) und auch Hunde, Katzen und Frettchen müssen ab 2011 elektronisch gekennzeichnet sein, wenn sie innerhalb der EU verreisen (VO (EG) 998/2003). Insbesondere für Hunde fordern inzwischen viele Länder weltweit eine elektronische Kennzeichnung bei der Einreise (z. B. Japan, Australien, Singapur, Neuseeland, etc.) (Agri-Food&Veterinary Authority of Singapore, 2011; Animal Quarantine Service Japan, 2011; Australian Government – Australian Quarantine and Inspection Service, 2011; ENZ, 2011).

Normung

Der Welthandel mit Tieren und tierischen Produkten spielt eine immer größere Rolle in der Weltwirtschaft. Auch der Handel mit lebenden Tieren ist hierbei nicht zu vernachlässigen. Im Jahr 2010 wurden zum Beispiel aus 33 Ländern lebende Tiere nach Deutschland importiert und in 59 Länder exportiert (Statistisches Bundesamt Deutschland – Destatis, 2011). Eine Normung der elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung ist somit international zwingend erforderlich, um ein sicheres Auslesen der Daten an allen Bedarfsstellen zu gewährleisten, insbesondere im Hinblick auf eine Rückverfolgbarkeit im Sinne der Tierseuchenbekämpfung und der öffentlichen Gesundheit.

Eine fehlende Normung kann auch bei Heimtieren unter Umständen zu schwereviegenden Folgen führen, da die Erkennung der tierindividuellen Nummer nicht sicher gegeben ist. In den USA wurde z. B. ein Hund in einem Tierheim eingeschläfert, da der implantierte Mikrochip (ISO konform) mit den verwendeten Lesegeräten des Tierheimes nicht ablesbar war (Nolen, 2004).

Die ISO (International Organization for Standardization) ist die Internationale Organisation für Normung. Sie entwickelt und veröffentlicht internationale Standards und ist ein Netzwerk nationaler Standardorganisationen aus 161 Ländern mit einer Zentrale in Genf. Jedes Mitglied vertritt ein Land, wobei das Deutsche Institut für Normung e.V. (DIN) für Deutschland Mitglied der ISO ist. Die ISO ist keine Regierungsorganisation. Eine ISO-Norm ist grundsätzlich freiwillig und kein Gesetz, kann aber von der jeweiligen Regierung zu einem erklärt werden (ISO, 2011).

ISO – Standards im Zusammenhang mit Tierkennzeichnung

Es gibt mittlerweile einige ISO-Standards, die im Zusammenhang mit der elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung zu nennen sind. Ein Überblick der Standards ist in Tabelle 1 dargestellt. Bei einigen der Standards wurden in den letzten Jahren Änderungen eingefügt, bzw. kam es zur Entwicklung neuer Standards. Einige wurden wieder verworfen und andere wiederum befinden sich noch im Entwurf-Stadium (Tabelle 1). Daraus lässt sich ableiten, dass die elektronische Tierkennzeichnung auch auf ISO-Standard-Ebene einen sehr aktuellen Platz einnimmt und auch hier die aktuellen Entwicklungen/Veränderungen/Bedürfnisse mit einbezogen werden.

Die ISO-Standards zur Tieridentifikation (ISO 11784, ISO 11785, ISO 14223-1..3) erlauben einen weltweiten Handel mit Tieren und ermöglichen den Austausch von Informationen im Sinne der Tierkennzeichnung.

Die Standards gelten für alle Tierarten, nicht nur für Nutztiere sondern auch für Heimtiere, Zootiere, gefährdete Spezies, Wildtiere und Fische (FECE, 2009).

Tabelle 1:

Übersicht der ISO-Standards im Zusammenhang mit elektronischer Tierkennzeichnung (www.iso.org)

ISO – Standard/Amendment	Ausgabedatum
ISO 11784:1996	1996-08
Radio frequency identification of animals – Code structure	
ISO 11784:1996 AMD 1:2004	2004-11
ISO 11784:1996 AMD 2:2010	2010-06
ISO 3166-1	2006-11
Codes for the representation of names of countries and their subdivisions – Part 1: Country codes	
ISO 3166-1:2006/Cor 1:2007	2007-07
ISO 11785	1996-10
Radio frequency identification of animals – Technical concept	
ISO 11785:1996 Technical Corrigendum 1	2008-12
ISO/IEC 14223-1	2011-03
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Advanced transponders Part 1: Air interface	
ISO/IEC 14223-2	2010-08
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Advanced transponders Part 2: Code and command structure	
ISO/IEC 14223-3	Deleted 2011-03
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Advanced transponders Part 3: Applications	
Norm ISO 24631-1	2009-09
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Teil 1: Beurteilung der Übereinstimmung der RFID-Transponder mit ISO 11784 und ISO 11785 (einschließlich der Gewährung und Anwendung eines Hersteller-Codes).	
Norm ISO 24631-2	2009-09
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Teil 2 : Beurteilung der Übereinstimmung der RFID-Sender/Empfänger mit ISO 11784 und ISO 11785.	
Norm ISO 24631-3	2009-09
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Teil 3 : Beurteilung der Leistung der RFID-Transponder nach ISO 11784 und ISO 11785	
Norm ISO 24631-4	2009-09
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Teil 4 : Beurteilung der Leistung der RFID-Sender/Empfänger nach ISO 11784 und ISO 11785.	
ISO/WD 24631-5 (under development)	--
Radiofrequency identification of animals – RFID transceivers – Part 5: Procedure for testing the capability of reading ISO 11784 and ISO 11785 transponders	
Norm-Entwurf ISO/DIS 24631-6	2010-04
Radiofrequency identification of animals – Part 6: Representation of animal identification information (visual display/ data transfer)	

Standards zur RFID von Tieren

Die Struktur des RFID-Datenwortes für Tiere wird im ISO-Standard 17784 spezifiziert (siehe Tabelle 2).

Durch den hier erwähnten ISO-Standard 3166-1 wird jedem Land unter anderem ein dreistelliger Ziffernkode zugewiesen (000-899). Für Deutschland ist das z. B. die Zahlenkombination 276.

Die Vergabe der Transpondernummern mit Ländercode nach ISO 3166 und die Gewährleistung von deren Einzigartigkeit liegen in nationaler Verantwortung. Gibt es in einem Land keine nationale zentrale Vergabe der Nummern, sollte stattdessen ein Herstellercode (900-998) verwendet werden (ICAR, 2011a). Diese Herstellercodes werden nach ISO 24631-1 von der ICAR (International Committee for Animal Recording) vergeben. Eine Liste der aktuell vergebenen Herstellercodes ist auf ICAR.org einsehbar (ICAR, 2011b). Die Hersteller unterzeichnen einen Code of conduct, in dem sie sich verpflichten gewisse Vorgaben zur Nutzung eines Herstellercodes einzuhalten (ICAR, 2011a).

Tabelle 2:
RFID-Datenwort für Tiere nach ISO 11784

Bit-Nr.	Anzahl Ziffern	Information	Beschreibung
1	1	Flag animal/non animal application	„1“ für Tiere
2-4	1	Retagging counter	Nachkennzeichnung „0-7“
5-9	2	User Information field	z. B. „04“ Schaf und Ziege
10-14	2	reserved	leer für zukünftige Verwendung
15	1	Flag indicating advanced transponder	„1“ advanced transponder
16	1	Flag indicating data block	„1“ Datensatz
17-26	4	ISO 3166-1 numeric country code	„0 + Ländercode“
27-64	12	Nationaler Identifikationscode	

Der ISO-Standard 11785 spezifiziert die Aktivierung und den Datentransfer der Übertragung. Er definiert die Übertragungsverfahren für die Transponderdaten (HDX, FDX) und beschreibt die Anforderungen an Lesegeräte zur Aktivierung des Transponders (z. B. Arbeitsfrequenz (134±1,8 kHz), Aktivierungsfeld, Verfahren zur Synchronisation mehrerer Lesegeräte etc.).

Standards zu Advanced Transpondern

Der ISO-Standard 14223 ist eine direkte Erweiterung zu den ISO-Standards 11784 und 11785. Während Transponder nach ISO 11785 lediglich einen fest programmierten Identifikationscode ausgeben, besteht bei den Advanced Transpondern die Möglichkeit, einen größeren Speicherbereich zu verwalten. Dieser kann gelesen, geschrieben, gegen erneutes Überschreiben geschützt ((lock memory block) oder durch ein Passwort geblockt werden (Finkenzeller, 2008; FCEC, 2009). Der Advanced Transponder ist voll abwärtskompatibel zu ISO 11784/85. Dies bedeutet, dass sowohl die Identifikationsnummer eines jeden Advanced Transponders von einem einfachen ISO 11785 Lesegerät ausgelesen werden kann, als auch, dass ISO 11785 Transponder von jedem Advanced Lesegerät akzeptiert werden (Finkenzeller, 2008). Beim Advanced Transponder ist bit 15 des ISO 11784 Datenrahmens auf „1“ gesetzt (siehe auch Tab. 2) um ihn als Advanced Transponder zu kennzeichnen. Bit 16 des Datenrahmens (ISO 1175) ist ebenso auf „1“ gesetzt und zeigt an, dass zusätzliche Daten vorhanden sind (siehe auch Tab. 2). Befinden sich mehrere Advanced Transponder im Ansprechbereich des Readers wird eine Antikollisionsprozedur gestartet. Dieser Antikollisionsmechanismus benötigt Zeit, so dass diese Methode bei dynamischen Leseprozessen (z. B. eine Gruppe sich schnell bewegender kleiner Tiere) eventuell nicht so einsatzfähig ist (FCEC, 2009).

Zurzeit ist der Advanced Transponder kommerziell für die Tierkennzeichnung noch nicht erhältlich. Eine mögliche Verwendung des Datenspeichers wäre z. B. die Speicherung von Behandlungsdaten. Dies ist insbesondere beim Pferd interessant, da hier z. B. eine Verwendung als lebensmittelieferndes Tier ausgeschlossen werden könnte.

Standards zu Testverfahren von RFID

Es sind verschiedene RFID Produkte auf dem Markt. Für den Nutzer ist es schwierig herauszufinden welches RFID seinen Bedürfnissen am Besten entspricht. Aus diesem Grund wurden Standards entwickelt, mit denen RFID getestet werden können (ISO 24631-1...4, siehe Tabelle 1).

Zwei verschiedene Gruppen von Testprozeduren sind verfügbar:

- Tests zur Übereinstimmung mit ISO 11784 und 11785 von Transpondern und Lesegeräten, inklusive der Vergabe der Herstellercodes (siehe oben).
- Tests zur Leistung der zu ISO 11784 und ISO 11785 konformen Produkte

Die RFID-Daten können in verschiedenen Formaten dargestellt werden. Dies kann unter Umständen zu Fehlern bei der Interpretation der Nummern führen. Daher wird

zurzeit ein ISO-Standard für die Darstellung der Tieridentifikationsinformation entwickelt (ISO 24631-6, siehe Tabelle 1) (FECE, 2009).

ISO entwickelt internationale Standards, führt jedoch selbst keine Tests zur Übereinstimmung mit den ISO-Standards durch. Um eine effektive Nutzung der Standards zu gewährleisten bestimmt die ISO eine kompetente Stelle, die bei Bedarf diese Aufgaben übernimmt. Im Fall der Standards, die die Tierkennzeichnung betreffen, ist dies das International Committee on Animal Recording (ICAR). Die ICAR ist unter anderem dafür verantwortlich Testergebnisse auf ihrer Website zu veröffentlichen (ICAR, 2011c; FECE, 2009).

ISO-konforme Tierkennzeichnung in Deutschland

Für die „offizielle“ elektronische Kennzeichnung (VO (EG) Nr. 504/2008; VO (EG) Nr. 933/2008; VO (EG) Nr. 21/2004) stehen je nach Tierart als Transponderarten die elektronische Ohrmarke mit integriertem Transponder, der Bolus, der im Vormagen von Wiederkäuern verbleibt, das Injekta, das subkutan oder intramuskulär injiziert wird, und ein elektronisches Fesselband zur Verfügung (Schwalm et al., 2009).

Schaf/Ziege

Die EG-Verordnungen (EG) Nr. 21/2004, VO (EG) Nr. 759/2009 und VO (EU) Nr. 506/2010 wurden mit der Viehverkehrsverordnung (ViehVerkV) vom 03. März 2010 in nationales Recht umgesetzt. Danach sind Schafe und Ziegen in der EU und somit auch in Deutschland elektronisch zu kennzeichnen. Es bestehen einige Ausnahmen von der elektronischen Kennzeichnungspflicht z. B. bei den so genannten Schlachtlämmern. In Deutschland liegt die Durchführung der Verordnung und die Vergabe der Nummern bei den jeweiligen Bundesländern. Daraus ergibt sich auch die Situation, dass je nach Bundesland unterschiedliche Ohrmarkenvarianten zu erhalten sind und in nur einigen Bundesländern auch ein Bolus zur elektronischen Kennzeichnung von Schafen und Ziegen zur Verfügung steht (Schwalm et al., 2010a).

Rind

In Deutschland ist nach der VVVO die Kennzeichnung mit zwei Sicht-Ohrmarken verpflichtend (Grundlage: VO (EG) Nr. 1760/2000). Nach der Viehverkehrsverordnung vom 03. März 2010 kann eine dieser Ohrmarken elektronisch ausgeführt sein (mit Genehmigung), d. h. es besteht eine zunächst freiwillige Einführung der eTK. Die Einführung der eTK obliegt auch hier den einzelnen Bundesländern.

Eine obligate elektronische Kennzeichnung von Rindern ist in einigen Ländern bereits im Einsatz (z. B. Kanada, Australien, Uruguay, Dänemark s.o.). Auch in der EU wird die Einführung einer elektronischen Kennzeichnung bei Rindern geprüft (Europäischen Union, 2011a – Tieridentifikation – bovine).

Hund/Katze

Ein elektronisches Kennzeichen (Transponder) ist als Kennzeichnung bei Heimtieren (Hund, Katze, Frettchen) zugelassen und wird ab 2012 obligatorisch bei Reisen innerhalb der EU gefordert (VO (EG) Nr. 998/2003). Es gibt in Deutschland keine generelle Pflicht zur elektronischen Kennzeichnung von Hunden. Es gibt jedoch in jedem Bundesland gesonderte „Hundeverordnungen“, da die Gefahrenabwehr bei den Ländern liegt. Dabei ergeben sich mitunter sehr verschiedene Vorschriften und Regelungen auch im Bezug auf die Kennzeichnungspflicht bei Hunden (Schwalm et al., 2010b). So sind in einigen Bundesländern alle Hunde elektronisch zu kennzeichnen (z. B. Sachsen-Anhalt), in einigen nur bestimmte Hunde (z. B. Schleswig-Holstein) und in einigen ist eine elektronische Kennzeichnung nur auf freiwilliger Basis eingeführt (z. B. Bayern) (Schwalm et al., 2010b).

Equiden

Die EG-Verordnung VO (EG) Nr. 504/2008 wurde mit der Viehverkehrsverordnung vom 03. März 2010 in nationales Recht überführt. Danach sind ab 09. Juni 2009 geborene Einhufer mittels Mikrochip elektronisch zu kennzeichnen.

Schlussbetrachtung

Eine weltweite Normung der elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung ist wichtig und sinnvoll, damit die Vorteile der elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung an allen Bedarfsstellen genutzt werden können. Auch können Synergieeffekte z. B. bei der Verwendung der elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung in der Verfahrenstechnik oder der einzeltierspezifischen Überwachung nur genutzt werden, wenn diese auch erkannt werden können.

An erster Stelle muss jedoch die Gewährleistung der Einzigartigkeit der Tiernummer stehen. Dies kann nur über Datenbanken erfolgen, in denen die ausgegebenen Nummerncodes gespeichert werden. Im Falle einer Kennzeichnung mit Ländercode nach ISO 3166 obliegt die Verwaltung dieser Datenbank und die Vergabe der jeweiligen Nummern dem jeweiligen Land. Ist dies nicht gewährleistet sollte eine Kennzeichnung nur mit Herstellercode erfolgen. In diesem Falle liegt die Verantwortung über die Vergabe und Aufzeichnung der Nummern bei dem jeweiligen Hersteller (ICAR, 2011a).

Mindestens ebenso wichtig wie die einheitliche Kennzeichnung ist die Einrichtung zentraler Datenbanken für Tiere, in denen Halterinformationen, Tierbewegungen etc erfasst werden. Nur so kann die Rückverfolgbarkeit von Tieren und Fleisch, wie von der EU gefordert, gewährleistet werden.

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Eignung von Thermo-Injektaten zur elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung und Körpertemperatur erfassung bei Ziegen

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Zusammenfassung

Die Erfassung der Körpertemperatur eignet sich zur Früherkennung von Krankheiten, die mit einer Änderung der Körpertemperatur einhergehen. Bislang wird die Körpertemperatur zumeist rektal erfasst, wobei der Bedarf an automatischen und kontinuierlich messenden Systemen als Managementhilfe immer größer wird. Ziel dieser Studie war die Überprüfung, ob sich bei Ziegen zwei unterschiedliche Applikationsorte (Ohrgrund und Schwanzfalte) als Injektionsort und für eine subkutane Körpertemperaturnmessung eignen. Die subkutanen Temperaturen wurden mit zwei unterschiedlichen Systemen erfasst. Parallel wurde die Körpertemperatur rektal gemessen. In Abhängigkeit von der Außentemperatur waren die Differenzen zwischen rektaler und subkutaner Temperatur unterschiedlich. Die Ablagetiefe der Transponder war zu niedrig. Das Ohr eignet sich nicht als Applikationsort bei Ziegen.

Schlüsselwörter: Ziegen, Rektaltemperatur, subkutane Körpertemperatur, Injektat, Ökologischer Landbau, Precision organic dairy farming, elektronische Tierkennzeichnung

Summary

Research in goats with bio-thermo-transponders for electronic identification and body core temperature logging

The measurement of body core temperature is a helpful tool for the early recognition of diseases in goats. Up to now, temperature measurement is almost done manually measuring rectal temperature. Nevertheless, there is an increasing demand on automatic and continuously measuring devices.

The objective of our study was the evaluation of injectable transponders with temperature sensing option in goats. In the study injectable transponders with temperature sensor were tested in ten goats at the skin fold of tail and at a second application point at the base of the left ear. The temperatures of the transponders were recorded using two different measurement systems. The rectal temperature was measured simultaneously. In dependence of seasons the differences between rectal temperature and subcutaneous temperature were different. The depth of the injectable transponder was too low. The ear is not suitable as transponder location for goats.

Keywords: goat, rectal temperature, subcutaneous temperature, injectable transponder organic farming, precision organic dairy farming, electronic identification

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1 Einleitung

Die elektronische Einzeltierkennzeichnung bestimmter Tierarten innerhalb der EU und auch in anderen Ländern gewährleistet eine schnelle Rückverfolgbarkeit und leistet damit einen Beitrag zur Lebensmittelsicherheit (Georg et al., 2008).

In Deutschland wurde die elektronische Einzeltierkennzeichnung in der ViehVerkV, die seit dem 9. März 2010 in Kraft getreten ist, für Schafe und Ziegen umgesetzt. Als elektronische Kennzeichen für Schafe und Ziegen gelten Ohrmarken mit integriertem Transponder, Bolus-Transponder und Fußfesseltransponder (nur bei Tieren, die nicht für den innergemeinschaftlichen Handel bestimmt sind).

Injectate werden seit 2009 nach EU-Recht bei der Pferdekennzeichnung eingesetzt, ansonsten werden sie bei lebensmittelliefernden Tieren aufgrund der Problematik bei der Rückgewinnung auf dem Schlachthof sehr kritisch bewertet (Schwalm et al., 2010; Klindtworth, 2007).

Die kritische Meinung zur Nutzung von Injectaten zur elektronischen Kennzeichnung könnte durch verbesserte Maßnahmen bei der Rückgewinnung und durch die Verwendung integrierter Sensoren (z. B. Temperaturmessung), die einen Zusatznutzen bedeuten würden, gesteigert werden (Klindtworth, 2007).

2 Literatur

Erste Projekte zur elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung mit Injectaten begannen 1993/94 im Mittelmeerraum (Spanien, Portugal und Italien) mit insgesamt 5000 Schafen, 3000 Rindern und 2000 Ziegen, denen an verschiedenen Injektionsorten 32 mm x 3,8 mm große Injectate appliziert wurden. Dazu gehörte das FEOGA Projekt (Caja et al., 1994). Im Rahmen des FEOGA Projekts injizierten Fonseca et al. (1994 a) bei 90 Ziegen 32 mm x 3,8 mm große Injectate am Ohrgrund, der Achselhöhle, der Leistenbeuge sowie dem Schwanz. Die Lesbarkeit lag nach drei Monaten bei 93 % am Ohrgrund, 100 % an der Achselhöhle, 98 % in der Leistenbeuge und 89 % am Schwanz. Die Verluste und die beschädigten Injectate waren im Ohrgrund (2 Injectate bzw. 6 %) und im Schwanz (4 Injectate bzw. 7 %) am höchsten. Bei 1362 ausgewachsenen Ziegen mit demselben Injectat, das in die Achselhöhle appliziert wurde, waren nach ca. einem Jahr noch 98 % der Injectate lesbar (Fonseca, 1994 b). Es gab nur geringe Differenzen in Bezug auf einen geübten oder ungeübten Applikator (Caja et al., 1997).

In Deutschland wurden spezielle Untersuchungen zur elektronischen Tierkennzeichnung bei Schafen und Ziegen außerhalb des IDEA-Projekts u. a. an der sächsischen Lehr- und Versuchsanstalt in Köllitsch durchgeführt (Wehlitz et al., 2006). Es wurden dabei Injectate der Größe 23 mm x

4 mm verwendet. 50 Injectate wurden im Alter von 2 bis 5 Monaten in die After-Schwanzfalte appliziert. Die Verluste betrugen 2 %. Aus derselben Applikation bei Schaflämmern, die in den ersten Lebenstagen erfolgte, resultierten Verluste von 24,1 %.

In einem Test von Simon (2006) mit 120 Ziegen auf zwei Betrieben wurden die laktierenden Ziegen in der After-Schwanzfalte mit Injectaten gekennzeichnet. Die After-schwanzfalte ist auch eine gute Position bei der Milchleistungsprüfung im Melkstand. Die Verlustrate war mit drei von 120 Injectaten gering.

Bisher sind nur wenige Projekte mit Bio-Thermo-Injek-taten, die neben der tierindividuellen elektronischen Kennzeichnung auch die Körpertemperatur erfassen können, durchgeführt worden.

Goodwin (1998) hat bei 30 Ziegen, 18 Pferden und 35 Schafen die Körpertemperatur mit einem Infrarotthermometer im Ohr, subkutan über Mikrochip, appliziert in die Achselhöhle, und rektal mit digitalem Thermometer erfasst. Bei den Ziegen waren die rektalen und subkutanen Temperaturen signifikant höher als die Infrarot-Temperaturen, wobei die rektalen und subkutanen Temperaturen sich mit einer Differenz von 0,2 °C nicht signifikant unterschieden. Die subkutane Körpertemperatur zeigte die höheren Werte.

Bei den Pferden und Schafen waren die rektalen Temperaturen signifikant höher als die subkutane Körpertemperatur. Bei den Pferden betrug die Differenz durchschnittlich 1,6 °C, bei den Schafen 3,5 °C.

Eine Untersuchung von Kamann et al. (1999) beschäftigte sich mit 15 Kälbern. Die Injectate wurden unter dem Skutulum, d. h. subkutan unter dem Dreiecksknorpel am Ohrransatz, injiziert. Die Korrelation zwischen rektal und Skutulum betrug $r = 0,82$. Ab der zweiten bis zur zehnten Versuchswoche war die subkutane Temperatur um durchschnittlich 1,0 °C niedriger als die rektale Körpertemperatur.

In einer Untersuchung von Ude et al. (2010) mit zwölf Bullenkälbern lagen 97,0 % der subkutanen Körpertemperaturen des Halses, 79,3 % des Ohrgrunds und 96,0 % der Ohrbasis unterhalb der Rektaltemperatur. Die mittleren Differenzen zwischen rektaler und subkutaner Körpertemperatur des Dreiecksknorpels lagen mit 0,49 °C unter den Differenzen der anderen beiden Injektionsorte mit Werten von 0,96 und 1,27 °C.

3 Ziel der Untersuchung

Ziel dieser Studie war die Überprüfung, ob sich bei Ziegen zwei unterschiedliche Applikationsorte, der Ohrgrund und die Schwanzfalte, als Injektionsort sowie für eine subkutane Körpertemperaturmessung eignen. Damit könnte die elektronische Tierkennzeichnung zur Tieridentifikation

und zur Krankheitsfrüherkennung und somit für die Tiergesundheit genutzt werden. Hierzu wurden mehrere Messperioden unter unterschiedlichen klimatischen Bedingungen durchgeführt.

4 Material und Methode

Der Versuch wurde am Institut für Ökologischen Landbau in Trenthorst (vTI) von Februar 2009 bis Mai 2011 durchgeführt.

Tiere

Am 18.02.2009 wurde 10 Ziegen der Rasse Bunte Deutsche Edelziege, die zu diesem Zeitpunkt ca. ein Jahr alt waren, von einer Tierärztin je zwei Injektate mit Temperatursensor („Bio-Thermo“) subkutan appliziert: Am linken Ohr in den Ohrgrund sowie in die Schwanzfalte. Da im März 2009 und im Oktober 2009 je eine Ziege geschlachtet wurde, wurde im September 2009 zwei weiteren Ziegen je ein Injektat in die Schwanzfalte injiziert, um weiterhin eine Gruppe von zehn Tieren begutachten zu können (Tabelle 1). Allerdings wurde bei den zwei Tieren auf die Applikation im Ohr verzichtet, weil der Ohrgrund zu diesem Zeitpunkt bereits als ungeeignet eingestuft wurde.

Tabelle 1:
Grunddaten

Datum	Vorgang	Anzahl Ziegen	Applikationsort	
			Schwanzfalte	Ohrgrund
02/09	Applikation Injektate	10	10	10
03/09	Schlachtung	1		
09/09	Applikation Injektate	2	2	0
10/09	Schlachtung	1		

Injektate

Die Injektate „Bio-Thermo“, von der Firma Destron Fearing für Versuchszwecke zur Verfügung gestellt, haben eine Größe von ca. 14,5 mm x 2,1 mm und können subkutan oder intramuskulär injiziert werden; die Elektronik ist von einer Glashülle umschlossen. Der „Bio-Thermo“-Chip ermöglicht eine individuelle Identifikation des Tieres über einen 15-stelligen Code und ist mit einem Temperatursensor zur Messung der subkutanen Körpertemperatur ausgestattet.

Lesegeräte

Ein System besteht aus einer Kennung und einem Leser. Die Kennung enthält einen passiven Transponder (ein

Mikrochip ohne Energiequelle), der die gespeicherten Informationen überträgt, wenn der Leser (ein Sende-Empfänger) ihn auf einer bestimmten Frequenz aktiviert. Durch ISO-Normen werden sowohl die Struktur der Tiernummer (ISO 11784) als auch die Funktionsweise des Transponders (ISO 11785) geregelt, so dass durch die Kombination von Ländercode (ISO 3166) und der nationalen Tiernummer jedem Tier eine weltweit einmalige Nummer zugeordnet werden könnte.

Als Datenlesegeräte zur Erfassung der subkutanen Körpertemperatur wurden zwei unterschiedliche Reader eingesetzt:

Bei dem Destron Universal Pocket-Reader EX®, der ebenfalls zur Verfügung gestellt wurde, handelte es sich um einen Handleser, der beim Aktivieren des Geräts durch Knopfdruck die Chip-Nummer und die Körpertemperatur im Display angegeben hat.

Als zweites Lesegerät kam ein vom Institut für Agrartechnologie und Biosystemtechnik des vTI entwickeltes Gerät zum Einsatz. Dieses System bestand aus einer Ringantenne, die über ein ca. 1,5 m langes Kabel an einen Datenlogger angeschlossen war, der in frei wählbaren Intervallen die Körpertemperatur abspeichern kann. Dieses System wurde für einen früheren Versuch zur Erfassung der Körpertemperatur von Milchkühen am Ohrgrund entwickelt.

Fieberthermometer

Für die rektalen Messungen wurde ein digitales Fieberthermometer (VT 1831 der Firma microlife®) aus dem Veterinärbereich eingesetzt, das für eine Messung lediglich 10 Sekunden benötigt.

Datenerfassung

Eine Funktionsüberprüfung in Bezug auf die Lesbarkeit der Injektate wurde von Februar 2009 bis Mai 2011 durchgeführt. Im Jahr 2009 erfolgte dieses alle zwei Wochen, in 2010 und 2011 wurde je einmal pro Jahr eine Prüfung durchgeführt.

Die Erfassung der Körpertemperatur (subkutan und rektal) erfolgte in vier Messperioden von Februar 2009 bis Mai 2010.

Während der ersten Messperiode im Frühjahr 2009 wurden die subkutanen Körpertemperaturen des Ohrgrunds und der Schwanzfalte mit dem Pocket-Reader der Firma Destron Fearing und dem Datenlogger des vTI als Vergleichsmessung erfasst. In dieser Messperiode wurde zu jedem Messzeitpunkt jeder Wert in siebenfacher Wiederholung aufgenommen.

Da es der Firma Destron Fearing nicht möglich war, die Umrechnung der Daten darzulegen, wurden die Daten in

der zweiten und dritten Messperiode ausschließlich mit dem Datenlogger des vTI erfasst.

Im Sommer (Juli) 2009 wurden bei neun Ziegen die subkutane Körpertemperatur in der Schwanzfalte und die Rektaltemperatur in der Sonne und im Schatten erfasst. Die subkutanen Körpertemperaturen wurden in sechsfacher, die rektalen aufgrund niedriger Standardabweichung in dreifacher Wiederholung erfasst. Die Ziegen wurden zunächst für eine Stunde in die Sonne gesperrt bevor die Messung durchgeführt wurde. Nach einer Stunde im Schatten wurde erneut die Körpertemperatur erfasst. Aus Tierschutzgründen wurden die Ziegen nicht länger als eine Stunde der Sonne ausgesetzt.

Im Winter (Dezember 2009 und Januar 2010) wurden bei sechs Ziegen die subkutane Körpertemperatur in der Schwanzfalte sowie die Rektaltemperatur erfasst. Die subkutanen Daten wurden in sechsfacher, die rektalen Werte in dreifacher Wiederholung aufgenommen. Die Körpertemperatur wurde zunächst im Stall erfasst. Anschließend wurden die Ziegen in den Auslauf gesperrt und alle 10 Minuten über eine Dauer von einer Stunde in festgelegter Reihenfolge gemessen.

15 Monate nach Applikation wurde im Mai 2010 noch einmal eine Vergleichsmessung zwischen dem Reader und dem Datenlogger durchgeführt. In dieser Messperiode wurde zu jedem Messzeitpunkt jeder Wert wieder in siebenfacher Wiederholung aufgenommen. Für diese weitere Vergleichsmessung wurde der Pocket-Reader ein weiteres Mal eingesetzt.

Statistische Auswertung

Da die Körpertemperatur tierindividuell und die Applikation der Injektate nicht standardisiert ist, erfolgte eine Einzeltierbetrachtung der Messwerte. So wurden der Korrelationskoeffizient und die Standardabweichungen tierindividuell innerhalb jeder Variante je Messort und je Messzeitpunkt ausgewertet und die Mittelwerte je Messort berechnet. Die statistische Auswertung erfolgte mit SAS 9.1.

5 Ergebnisse

Verluste

Bereits zwei Wochen nach Applikation der Injektate konnte ein Injektat des Ohrgrunds nicht mehr ausgeleren werden. Nach weiteren zwei Wochen waren zwei von neun Injektaten des Ohrgrunds (eine Ziege wurde geschlachtet) defekt. Drei Monate nach Applikation fiel ein weiteres Injektat aus, wieder eines, das am Ohrgrund appliziert wurde. Bis Mai 2010 waren keine weiteren Verluste zu verzeichnen. D. h. von 8 Injektaten im Ohrgrund waren

5 lesbar und bis zu diesem Zeitpunkt waren alle Injektate der Schwanzfalte intakt. Die Funktionsmessung im Mai 2011 zeigte, dass ein weiteres Injektat des Ohrgrunds und zwei Injektate der Schwanzfalte nicht mehr lesbar waren (Tabelle 2).

Tabelle 2:
Ergebnisse der Funktionsmessungen

Datum	Anzahl		
	Ziegen [n]	Ohrgrund [n]	Schwanzfalte [n]
18.02.09	10	10	10
02.03.09	10	9	10
14.03.09	9	7	9
14.05.09	9	6	9
12.10.09	9	6	9
02.12.09	10	5/8*	10
02.05.10	10	5/8*	10
06.05.11	10	4/8*	8

*: Den beiden nachgechippten Ziegen wurde kein Injektat in den Ohrgrund appliziert.

Messperiode im Frühjahr 2009

Die Datenerfassung im Frühjahr erfolgte bei einer Umgebungstemperatur von durchschnittlich 14 °C.

Bei acht von neun Ziegen war der Korrelationskoeffizient zwischen der Rektaltemperatur und der subkutanen des Ohrgrunds höher als zwischen der Rektaltemperatur und der subkutanen der Schwanzfalte (Tabelle 3), d. h. die Korrelation zwischen der Rektaltemperatur und der subkutanen des Ohrgrunds zeigte einen größeren Zusammenhang als zur Schwanzfalte.

Der höchste Korrelationskoeffizient lag bei der Ziege 268 am Ohrgrund bei $r = 0,93$ und der niedrigste bei der Ziege 337 mit $r = 0,09$. Insgesamt zeigten die Korrelationen je Tier sehr unterschiedliche Werte (Tabelle 3), es traten auch negative Korrelationen auf, die einen gegenläufigen Zusammenhang zeigen. Dieses trat bei den Messungen im Frühjahr nur vereinzelt auf, bei den Kältemessungen häufiger (Tabelle 3 und Tabelle 6). Die niedrigen p-Werte ($< 0,05$) verdeutlichen den signifikanten Zusammenhang zwischen der rektalen und der jeweiligen subkutanen Temperatur.

Die niedrigsten Standardabweichungen zeigte die Rektaltemperatur bei allen zehn Ziegen mit Abweichungen $< 0,1$ °C.

Die Standardabweichungen des Datenloggers lagen zwischen 0,05 °C und 0,40 °C, der Reader hatte mit Werten zwischen 0,11 °C und 0,53 °C die größten Abweichungen zu verzeichnen. Je Tier zeigten sich tierindividuelle Unterschiede (Tabelle 4).

Tabelle 3:

Korrelation rektal-subkutan tierindividuell, Messperiode Frühjahr 2009

Ohrmarke	Reader Ohrgrund		Reader Schwanzfalte		Logger Ohrgrund		Logger Schwanzfalte	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
268	0,90	< 0,0001	0,64	< 0,0001	0,93	< 0,0001	0,70	< 0,0001
274	0,72	< 0,0001	0,22	0,1323	0,81	< 0,0001	0,43	0,003
275	0,72	< 0,0001	0,54	< 0,0001	0,83	< 0,0001	0,55	< 0,0001
283	0,55	< 0,0001	0,25	0,0831	0,63	< 0,0001	0,39	0,005
285	0,37	0,0093	0,71	< 0,0001	0,64	0,0003	0,77	< 0,0001
309	0,78	< 0,0001	0,37	0,0093	0,71	< 0,0001	0,50	0,0002
311			-0,08	0,6025			0,39	0,0061
314	0,27	0,0646	0,57	< 0,0001	0,45	0,0014	0,32	0,0348
337	0,64	< 0,0001	-0,29	0,0462	0,61	< 0,0001	0,09	0,561
801	0,72	< 0,0001	0,59	< 0,0001	0,72	< 0,0001	0,38	0,007

Tabelle 4:

Standardabweichungen tierindividuell, Messperiode Frühjahr 2009

Ohrmarke	rektal	Reader		Logger	
	stdev [°C]	Ohrgrund stdev [°C]	Schwanzfalte stdev [°C]	Ohrgrund stdev [°C]	Schwanzfalte stdev [°C]
268	0,026	0,121	0,237	0,090	0,064
274	0,026	0,526	0,199	0,084	0,181
275	0,051	0,116	0,142	0,064	0,404
283	0,075	0,287	0,243	0,072	0,219
285	0,035	0,136	0,214	0,051	0,064
309	0,060	0,168	0,234	0,084	0,130
311	0,040		0,239		0,088
314	0,033	0,141	0,199	0,099	0,171
337	0,040	0,105	0,207	0,122	0,227
801	0,032	0,135	0,126	0,068	0,381

Tabelle 5:

Korrelationen rektal-subkutan und Standardabweichung tierindividuell bei der Sommermessperiode

Messperiode im Sommer 2009

Die Datenerfassung im Sommer erfolgte bei einer Umgebungstemperatur in der Sonne zwischen 23 und 43 °C.

Die Korrelationen bei der Datenerfassung in der Sonne und im Schatten zeigten einen hohen Zusammenhang mit $r = 0,73$ bis $r = 0,94$ und einem p-Wert $< 0,0001$. Die Standardabweichungen lagen im ähnlichen Bereich wie bei den Messungen im Frühjahr mit Werten zwischen 0,068 bis 0,272 (Tabelle 5).

Ohrmarke	Logger Schwanzfalte		Logger	
	r	p	Schwanzfalte Sonne stdev [°C]	Schwanzfalte Schatten stdev [°C]
268	0,88	< 0,0001	0,092	0,068
274	0,89	< 0,0001	0,084	0,106
275	0,73	< 0,0001	0,272	0,218
283	0,85	< 0,0001	0,161	0,193
285	0,93	< 0,0001	0,113	0,200
311	0,95	< 0,0001	0,078	0,175
314	0,85	< 0,0001	0,111	0,179
337	0,85	< 0,0001	0,168	0,161
801	0,89	< 0,0001	0,165	0,258

Messperiode im Winter 2009

Die Korrelationen zwischen der Subkutantemperatur und der Rektaltemperatur sind bis auf wenige Ausnahmen sehr niedrig. Ab 50 min in der Kälte zeigen vier bis fünf von sechs Ziegen negative Korrelationen, weil die Differenz zwischen der Rektal- und Subkutantemperatur zunimmt (Tabelle 6).

Tabelle 6:

Korrelation rektal-subkutan tierindividuell, Messperiode Winter

Ohrmarke	im Stall		im Auslauf nach											
			10 min		20 min		30 min		40 min		50 min		60 min	
	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p	r	p
275	0,81	< 0,0001	0,37	0,106	0,40	0,062	0,06	0,797	0,26	0,249	-0,29	0,250	0,17	0,473
283	0,39	0,078	-0,34	0,134	-0,49	0,025	-0,42	0,056	-0,82	< 0,0001	-0,90	< 0,0001	-0,14	0,573
285	0,44	0,045	0,51	0,018	0,28	0,219	0,47	0,030	0,45	0,042	-0,47	0,049	-0,34	0,172
311	0,28	0,218	0,66	0,001	0,54	0,012	0,21	0,356	-0,66	0,003	-0,37	0,136	0,00	0,990
314	0,37	0,099	0,35	0,123	-0,09	0,736	-0,10	0,696	0,05	0,851	0,18	0,472	0,09	0,748
337	-0,37	0,129	-0,23	0,316	-0,17	0,591	-0,09	0,064	0,06	0,808	-0,24	0,510	-0,41	0,187

Die Rektaltemperatur im Winter, hier nicht dargestellt, variierte innerhalb der 70 Minuten maximal um 0,5 °C. Die Standardabweichungen zeigen im Winter mit Werten zwischen 1,4 °C und 3,9 °C deutlich höhere Werte als im Sommer (Tabelle 7).

Tabelle 7:

Standardabweichung subkutan, tierindividuell, Messperiode Winter

Ohrmarke	im Stall	stdev [°C]					
		10 min	20 min	30 min	40 min	50 min	60 min
275	2,053	2,115	2,680	2,694	2,315	2,991	2,993
283	1,872	1,380	3,080	3,126	2,500	2,207	2,349
285	1,567	1,983	1,364	2,421	2,728	1,655	2,321
311	2,250	1,993	2,862	3,706	2,881	2,985	3,941
314	2,347	2,503	2,039	1,777	1,973	2,124	2,999
337	2,243	3,401	3,140	2,544	2,495	2,965	2,701

Die subkutane Körpertemperatur der Schwanzfalte fiel bei extremer Witterung soweit ab, dass das Lesegerät bei fünf von sechs Tieren keine Messwerte mehr aufzeichnen konnte, da technisch bedingt nur Werte ab 25,0 °C erfasst werden können. Daher fehlen bei der Ziege 283 und 311 die Werte im fünften Messzyklus ab 40 Minuten, bei der Ziege 285 beim fünften Messzyklus ab 50 Minuten und bei der Ziege 314 ab 30 Minuten. Die wenigsten Daten konnten bei Ziege 337 erfasst werden. Hier fehlen die Daten ab dem 5. Messzyklus und jeweils ab 20 bis 30 Minuten.

Messperiode im Mai 2010

Eine weitere Vergleichsmessung im Mai 2010 zwischen dem Reader von Destron Fearing und dem Datenlogger vom vTI zeigen bei der Rektaltemperatur und dem Reader einen gleich bleibenden Zusammenhang gegenüber den Werten aus 2009. Der Logger ermittelt hingegen auch negative Korrelationen (Tabelle 8). Die Umgebungstemperatur betrug durchschnittlich 19 °C.

Tabelle 8:

Korrelation Reader und Logger, Messperiode Mai 2010

Ohrmarke	Reader Schwanzfalte		Logger Schwanzfalte	
	r	p	r	p
266	0,37	0,008	0,40	0,005
274	0,20	0,159	-0,07	0,621
275	-0,28	0,055	-0,28	0,053
283	0,32	0,025	-0,23	0,109
285	0,36	0,012	0,14	0,349
311	0,52	0,000	0,71	< 0,0001
314	0,78	< 0,0001	0,82	< 0,0001
337	0,57	< 0,0001	-0,05	0,719
783	0,81	< 0,0001	0,84	< 0,0001
801	0,14	0,352		

Darstellung der Mittelwerte der rektalen und subkutanen Körpertemperaturen im Sommer und Winter

Die Abbildung 1 und Abbildung 2 verdeutlichen die Korrelationen. Bei den Messungen im Sommer verläuft die rektale und subkutane Körpertemperatur relativ parallel und damit zeigt sich eine positive Korrelation. Im Winter ist die Differenz zwischen Rektaltemperatur und subkutaner Temperatur bereits bei der Messung im Stall deutlich größer und vergrößert sich noch innerhalb der einen Stunde im Auslauf.

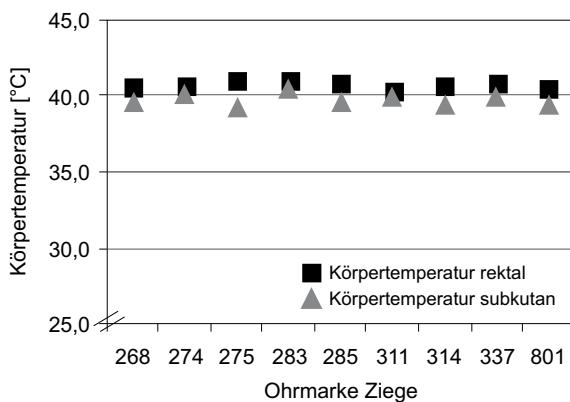


Abbildung 1:
Mittlere Körpertemperaturen je Tier nach einer Stunde in der Sonne (links) und einer Stunde im Schatten (rechts)

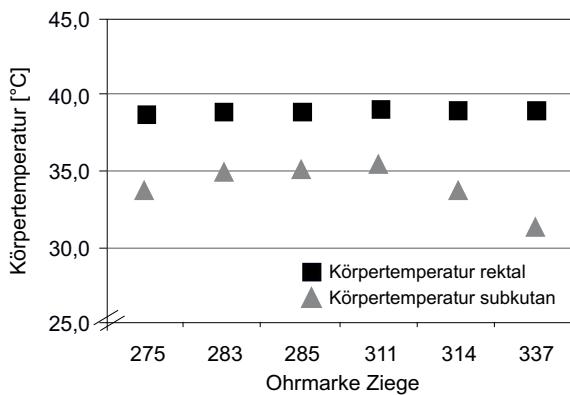


Abbildung 2:
Mittlere Körpertemperaturen je Tier im Winter im Stall (links) und nach einer Stunde im Auslauf (rechts)

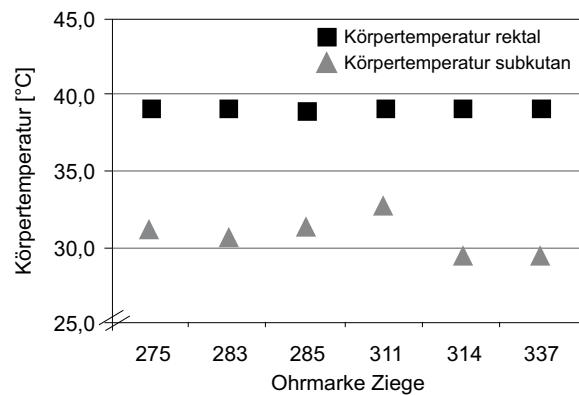
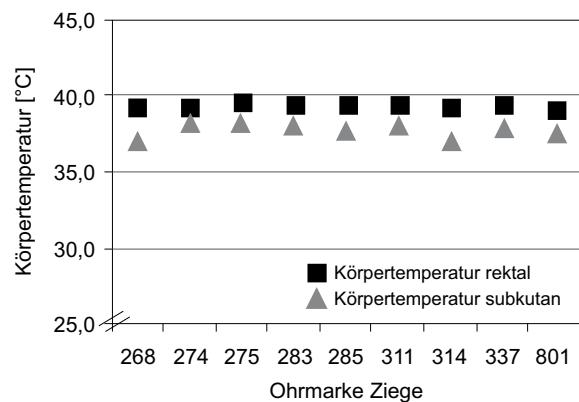
6 Diskussion

Verlustraten der Injektate

Die Verlustraten von Injektaten, die in anderen Versuchen bei Ziegen appliziert wurden, waren niedriger als im eigenen Versuch.

Bei Fonseca (1994 b) betrug die Lesbarkeit bei 90 Ziegen nach drei Monaten 100 % an der Achselhöhle, 98 % in der Leistenbeuge, 93 % am Ohrgrund und 89 % am Schwanz. Bei 1362 ausgewachsenen Ziegen mit demselben Injektat, das in die Achselhöhle appliziert wurde, waren nach ca. 1 Jahr noch 98 % der Injektate lesbar (Fonseca, 1994 b).

Bei Wehlitz et al. (2006) mit 50 Ziegenlämmern wurden bei 50 Ziegenlämmern Injektate im Alter von 2 bis 5 Monaten in die After-Schwanzfalte appliziert. Die Verluste betrugen 2 %. Aus derselben Applikation bei Schafläm-



mern, die in den ersten Lebenstagen erfolgte, resultierten Verluste von 24,1 %. Die Autorin vermutet als Ursache die nicht genügend tiefe Einkapselung im Gewebe am Injektionsort. Die Haut sei noch sehr dünn und Injektate könnten durch die Schwanzbewegungen die Haut durchstochen haben und herausgefallen sein.

Bei Simon und Adams (2006) betrug die Verlustrate bei 120 Ziegen auf zwei Betrieben 2,5 % bei Applikation in die Schwanzfalte. Simon und Adams (2006) kommen zu dem Schluss, dass die Injektate für die Tiere verträglich und relativ stressarm zu applizieren sind. Die Afterschwanzfalte ist auch eine gute Position bei der Milchleistungsprüfung im Melkstand.

In der eigenen Untersuchung sind die Verluste der Lesbarkeit höher ausgefallen: Schon nach drei Monaten waren nur noch sechs von neun Injektaten am Ohr lesbar.

Der erste Verlust in der Schwanzfalte ist nach 1,5 Jahren aufgetreten. Die Injektate sind nicht verloren gegangen, d.h. sie waren noch ertastbar, aber sie konnten nicht mehr ausgelesen werden.

Das Ohr ist bei Rangkämpfen oder beim Hängenbleiben im Gitter zu exponiert und damit zu anfällig. Möglicherweise waren auch die Injektate in der Schwanzfalte zu exponiert, in dem sie nicht tief genug in die Schwanzfalte appliziert wurden, so dass auch bei diesem Applikationsort bei Rangkämpfen die Elektronik nicht ausreichend geschützt werden konnte.

Grundsätzlich ist der Applikationsort in der Schwanzfalte zur Tiererkennung, insbesondere im Melkstand sehr interessant. Es sollte über eine Optimierung der Einkapselung des Injektats nachgedacht werden, damit das Injektat bzw. die Elektronik weniger gefährdet wäre.

Korrelationen und Differenzen

Die Korrelation in der Untersuchung von Goodwin (1998) betrug $r = 0,74$ bei einer Umgebungstemperatur von $20,6^{\circ}\text{C}$. Die Differenzen betrugen $0,2^{\circ}\text{C}$ zwischen der rektalen und subkutanen Körpertemperatur, wobei die subkutane Körpertemperatur die höheren Werte lieferte. Werden die Injektate in die Achselhöhle appliziert, kann der Einfluss der Außentemperatur ausgeschlossen werden; daher eignet sich dieser Ort für die Erfassung der Körpertemperatur. Allerdings ist die Rückgewinnung der Injektate auf dem Schlachthof erschwert.

Bei Kamann et al. (1999) betrug die Korrelation bei Kälbern zwischen rektal und Skutulum $r = 0,82$. Die subkutane Körpertemperatur war dabei um ca. $1,0^{\circ}\text{C}$ niedriger als die rektale Körpertemperatur.

An einem Kälberohr befindet sich mehr Gewebe und damit sind die Injektate nicht so anfällig für die Außentemperatur.

In einer Untersuchung von Ude et al. (2010) mit Bullenkälbern zeigte sich, dass nur 90,8 % der subkutanen Injektatwerte unterhalb der rektalen Werte lagen. Im Einzelnen waren es 97,0 % der Injektate im Hals, 79,3 % des linken Ohres und 96,0 % des rechten Ohres. Der Injektionsort unter dem Skutulum war bei Kamann (1999) und Ude et al. (2010) der gleiche. Hier zeigten sich bei Ude et al. (2010)

geringere Differenzen zur rektalen Temperatur mit Werten zwischen $0,43$ bis $0,68^{\circ}\text{C}$. Das Injektat war bei Ude et al. (2010) deutlich kleiner als das im Versuch von Kamann et al. (1999) mit einer Größe von $3,85\text{ mm} \times 32\text{ mm}$ und war vielleicht weniger anfälliger für ein Auskühlen.

Die Korrelationen in der hier dargestellten Untersuchung zeigten einerseits tierindividuelle Unterschiede mit Werten innerhalb einer Messperiode zwischen $r = 0,45$ bis $r = 0,93$ und andererseits den Einfluss der Außentemperatur. Während die Korrelationen bei den Messungen im Sommer mit Werten zwischen $r = 0,73$ und $r = 0,95$ sehr hoch waren, zeigten die Daten der Wintermessung niedrigere Werte oder auch negative Korrelationen.

Für vergleichbare Körpertemperaturen wäre eine standardisierte Ablagetiefe erforderlich. Dieses ist jedoch sehr schwierig, da das Injektat mit der Schwanzfalte in ein Gewebe appliziert wurde, von dem nicht viel vorhanden ist, oder aber es sich um Fettgewebe handelt.

Gerade die vergleichenden Untersuchungen zu unterschiedlichen Außentemperaturen zeigen den Einfluss der Umgebungstemperatur auf das Injektat, das möglicherweise nicht tief genug abgelegt wurde oder werden konnte. Durch die Vergleichsmessung, die in 2010 durchgeführt wurde, zeigt sich zudem der Einfluss durch die Einkapselung ins Gewebe in sich ändernden, zumeist abnehmenden Korrelationen.

Schlussfolgerung

Injektate bieten die Möglichkeit, Tiere tierindividuell zu kennzeichnen und subkutane Körpertemperaturen zu erfassen. Als Applikationsort ist das Ohr zu anfällig, da es zu exponiert ist und die Injektate funktionslos werden.

Der Applikationsort Schwanzfalte ist gerade für die Tierkennzeichnung sehr interessant und bedeutet keinen zusätzlichen Aufwand während des Schlachtvorganges. Hier sollte über eine Optimierung der Kapsel nachgedacht werden, die es einerseits ermöglicht, Temperaturen zu erfassen, andererseits die Elektronik besser schützt. Eine Langzeituntersuchung zum Einfluss der Einkapselung auf die gemessene subkutane Temperatur wäre empfehlenswert.

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Influence of vitamin B₁₂ and Cobalt on growth of broiler chickens and Pekin ducks

Ingrid Halle*, Martina Henning**, and Peter Köhler**

Summary

The effects of dietary vitamin B₁₂ and cobalt supplementation on feed intake, growth performance, feed-to-gain ratio, carcass composition, and nutrient content of breast meat of ducks were investigated in broilers and Pekin ducks. 768 male chickens and 384 male ducks were allocated to 8 dietary treatment groups (0/10/20/40 µg vitamin B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co, 0.65 mg Co + 10 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co + 20 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B₁₂) and fed for 35 or 49 days. The daily feed intake increased significantly from 76.3 to 81.3 g, the daily weight gain from 52.3 to 56.1 g, the final body weight from 1874 to 2007 g per broiler by raising the B₁₂ concentration from 0 to 40 µg/kg. In the same way the supplementation of 0.65 mg Co improved the feed intake and thus the development of broilers. The feed-to-gain ratio was only affected in the first two weeks under higher B₁₂ and B₁₂ × Co concentration in the feed. The statistical evaluation of the single effects of vitamin B₁₂ and Co and the combined effect of vitamin B₁₂ + Co on performance of ducks could not demonstrate on daily feed intake, body weight gain, and final body weight. The feed conversion was negatively affected by supplementation of Co. An increased supply for the animals with vitamin B₁₂ or Co induced a higher yield of breast meat by supplementation of 20 µg B₁₂ and a higher percentage of breast meat and legs when adding on 0.65 mg Co. In the fresh breast matter of ducks was significantly higher water content and decreased protein content of the 0.65 mg Co-Group compared to 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B₁₂-Group. The results allow the conclusion, that 20 µg of vitamin B₁₂ per kg feed meet the requirements of growing chickens and ducks for fattening. An additional supplementation of Co to feed does not have additional advantages for the birds.

Keywords: vitamin B₁₂, Cobalt, growth performance, broiler, Pekin duck

Zusammenfassung

Einfluss von Vitamin B₁₂ und Kobalt auf das Wachstum von Broiler und Pekingente

Der Einfluss der Supplementierung von Vitamin B₁₂ und Kobalt auf Futteraufnahme, Wachstum, Futteraufwand, Schlachtkörperzusammensetzung und Gehalt an Nährstoffen im Entenbrustmuskel wurde untersucht. In den zwei Versuchen über 35 bzw. 49 Tagen wurden 768 männliche Broilerküken und 384 männliche Pekingenten in 8 Versuchsgruppen (0/10/20/40 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co, 0.65 mg Co + 10 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co + 20 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B₁₂) eingeteilt. Die Erhöhung des Vitamin B₁₂ Gehaltes im Broilerfutter erhöhte statistisch gesichert die tägliche Futteraufnahme von 76,3 auf 81,3 g, die tägliche Lebendmassezunahme von 52,3 auf 56,1 und die Mastendmasse von 1874 g auf 2007. Die Supplementierung von 0,65 mg Co verbesserte die Futteraufnahme und Entwicklung der Broiler. Die bessere Entwicklung der Broiler mit Vitamin B₁₂ im Futter führte zu einem höheren Brustfleischgehalt und Abdominalfettgehalt im Schlachtkörper. Die Supplementierung von B₁₂ oder Co bzw. B₁₂ + Co zum Entenmastfutter hatte keinen statistisch gesicherten Einfluss auf Futteraufnahme, tägliche Lebendmassezunahme und Mastendmasse. Der Futteraufwand war gesichert schlechter nach Co Supplementierung ins Futter. Die Supplementierung von 20 µg B₁₂ oder 0,65 mg Co erhöhte gesichert den Brustfleischgehalt bei den Enten. Die Analyse des frischen Entenbrustfleisches ergab einen gesichert höheren Gehalt an Wasser und niedrigeren Proteingehalt im Fleisch der Gruppe mit 0,65 mg Co im Futter im Vergleich zur Gruppe mit 40 µg B₁₂ + 0,65 mg Co. Die Ergebnisse lassen die Schlussfolgerung zu, dass 20 µg Vitamin B₁₂ pro kg Futter den Bedarf von Broiler und Pekingente decken und eine zusätzliche Co Supplementierung keinen additiven Einfluss hat.

Schlüsselworte: Vitamin B₁₂, Kobalt, Wachstum, Broiler, Pekingente

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Vitamin B₁₂ is the most recently discovered vitamin (West, 1948) with the lowest concentration of vitamins needed to meet the requirement of animals. This vitamin belongs to a specific group of Cobalt (Co)-containing corrinoids with biological activity in humans and animals. The term vitamin B₁₂ is restricted to the recommended biochemical nomenclature for the form of cobalamin. Cobalamin does not occur in plants, it is synthesized in nature by certain bacteria, fungi and algae (Green, 2005). Microbes in the rumen of ruminants incorporate Co into a corrin ring to form vitamin B₁₂. Vitamin B₁₂ is an essential component of several enzyme systems that carry out a number of very basic metabolic functions in the animal's body (McDowell, 1989). This vitamin plays a central role in normal functions of the brain and the nervous system, in the homocysteine metabolism, in the blood function, energy metabolism, cell division and functions of the immune system (EFSA, 2009a; 2010). 10 µg per kg feed are indicated by the NRC (1994), and 9 µg B₁₂ per kg by the GfE (1999) as the requirement for broiler chickens and Pekin ducks.

There is no evidence that monogastric animals (pigs and poultry) require Cobalt (Co) other than through vitamin B₁₂. Consequently, there is no need for any Co supplementation to the feed for these animals (EFSA, 2009b). Although Co is not necessary for nutrition of broiler chickens, it is often added into the vitamin-mineral premix. Poultry obtain their B₁₂ either preformed in feed or indirectly by ingesting faeces.

The objective of this study was to determine the effect of a Vitamin B₁₂-free diet supplemented with Vitamin B₁₂ or/and Cobalt on broiler and Pekin duck performance.

Material and methods

In Trial 1 a total number of 768 one-day old male chickens for fattening (Ross 308) was randomly distributed in treatments with 12 chickens per pen and 8 pens per group (Table 1). The duration of the trial was 35 days. Body weight was recorded for each broiler individually at days 14, 21 and 35 of age. Feed was weighed back on a pen-basis weekly. One bird per pen, representing the mean body weight of broilers of this pen, was slaughtered at the end of the trial (8 broilers per group) to determine carcass composition. Weights of total breast meat (without skin), complete right leg, liver, heart, gizzard, spleen and sum of abdominal and viscera fat were individually recorded. All parts were expressed as percentage of body weight.

In Trial 2 a total number of 384 male one-day old Pekin ducks was randomly distributed in treatments with 6 ducks per pen and 8 pens per group (Table 1). The duration of the trial was 49 days. Body weight was recorded for each duck individually at days 21 and 49 of age. Feed was weighed back on a pen-basis weekly. One bird per

pen, representing the mean body weight of ducks of this pen, was slaughtered at the end of the trial (8 ducks per group) to determine carcass composition. Weights of total breast meat (without skin), complete right leg, liver, heart, gizzard, spleen and sum of abdominal and viscera fat were individually recorded. Breast meat of slaughtered ducks of Groups 1, 4, 5 and 8 was analyzed for moisture and intramuscular fat content with Near Infrared Transmission Spectroscopy (NIT) according to percentages of protein were calculated (Köhler et al., 1995).

Table 1:
Trial design

Group	B ₁₂ , µg/kg	Co, mg/kg
1	0	0
2	10	0
3	20	0
4	40	0
5	0	0.65
6	10	0.65
7	20	0.65
8	40	0.65

Pelleted feed (Table 2) was provided for ad libitum consumption as a one phase feed for broilers and second-phase feed (starter feed: day 1 to 21, fattening feed: day 22 to 49) for Pekin ducks. The basal diet was not supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ and contained Co only from natural sources (wheat, corn, soya bean meal). The microbiological analyses (LUFA Speyer, LUFA SP 22013) of the diet yielded a value of 4 µg B₁₂ per kg. This value resulted from microbiological contamination of the feedstuffs. The basal diet was supplemented with 0/10/20/40 µg B₁₂ per kg, 0.65 mg Co, 0.65 mg Co + 10 µg B₁₂, 0.65 mg Co + 20 µg B₁₂ and 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B₁₂ per kg (Table 1).

Data from the two trials were analyzed by a two-way ANOVA: $y_{ijk} = \mu + V_i + C_j + V_{Cij} + e_{ijk}$, with y_{ijk} = observation, μ = general mean, V_i = vitamin B₁₂ (0, 10, 20 and 40 µg), C_j = Cobalt (0 and 0.65 mg), interaction V_{Cij} and e_{ijk} = error term (random). Multiple comparisons of means were carried out using the Student-Newman-Keuls Test ($P \leq 0.05$). The statistical analyses were performed by the SAS software package (Version 9.1).

Table 2:
Ingredient composition, analysed and calculated nutrients of the diets
(g/kg)

Ingredient	Broiler	Pekin duck	
Age of days	1 - 35	1 - 21	22 - 49
Wheat	150.0	150.0	400.0
Corn	378.7	480.7	316.3
Soya bean meal	386.4	299.8	212.8
Soya oil	49.8	24.9	29.4
Di-calcium-phosphate	10.0	19.6	17.6
Calcium carbonate	10.5	7.8	6.7
Sodium chloride	3.2	3.4	3.5
DL-Methionine	2.8	2.0	2.1
L-Lysine-HCl	1.7	1.6	1.6
L-Threonine	-	0.2	-
Premix ¹⁾	10.0	10.0	10.0
Vitamin B ₁₂ ²⁾ , µg/kg	0/10/20/40	0/10/20/40	0/10/20/40
Co ²⁾ , mg/kg	0/0.65	0/0.65	0/0.65
Dry matter ³⁾	887	878	882
Crude protein ³⁾	202	199	172
ME, MJ/kg ⁴⁾	13.16	12.37	12.62
Lysine ⁵⁾	12.5	11.5	9.5
Methionine + Cystine ⁵⁾	9.6	8.5	8.0
Cobalt, µg/kg ⁶⁾	51	48	39
Vitamin B ₁₂ ⁷⁾ , µg/kg	4.0	4.0	4.0

¹⁾ Vitamin – mineral premix provided per kg of diet: vitamin A, 12000 IE; vitamin D3 3500 IE; tocopherol, 40 mg; menadion, 4.5 mg; thiamine, 2.5 mg; riboflavin, 8 mg; pyridoxine, 6 mg; nicotinic acid, 45 mg; pantothenic acid, 15 mg; folic acid, 1.2 mg; biotin, 50 µg; choline chloride, 550 mg; Fe, 32 mg; Cu, 12 mg; Zn, 80 mg; Mn, 100 mg; Se, 0.4 mg; I, 1.6 mg

²⁾ Cyanocobalamin supplements – 0.1 % vitamin B12; Cobalt carbonat – 5 % Co

3) Analyzed values

⁴⁾ Calculated values (WPSA, 1985)

5) Calculated values

⁶⁾ Calculated values (Souci et al., 2008)

Results

Trial 1 – Broiler chicken

The statistical evaluation of the single effect of vitamin B₁₂ and Co and the combined effect of vitamin B₁₂ + Co on performance of broilers demonstrated a high dependence ($P < 0.05$) of the vitamin B₁₂ or/and Co concentration in the broiler feed on the daily feed intake, the body weight gain, and final body weight. The daily feed intake increased significantly from 76.3 g to 81.3 g, the daily weight gain from 52.3 g to 56.1 g, the final body weight from 1874 g to 2007 g per broiler with raising the B₁₂ concentration from 0 to 40 µg per kg feed (Table 3, 4, 5). In the same way the supplementation of 0.65 mg Co per kg diet improved ($P < 0.05$) the feed intake and thus the development of broiler chickens (Table 6). The feed-to-gain ratio was only affected in the first two weeks of the raised B₁₂ and B₁₂ x Co concentrations in the feed (Table 4). An improved supply of vitamin B₁₂ for the animals led to a higher yield of breast meat ($P < 0.05$), but also a higher mass of viscera fat in broilers (Table 7).

Trial 2 – Pekin ducks

The statistical evaluation of the single effects of vitamin B₁₂ and Co and the combined effect of vitamin B₁₂ + Co on performance of ducks could not demonstrate dependence ($P > 0.05$) of vitamin B₁₂ or/and Co concentration in the feed on the daily feed intake, the body weight gain, and final body weight (Table 8, 9, 10). The feed-to-gain ratio was negatively affected ($P \leq 0.05$) by supplementation of Co in the feed (Table 9, 11). An increased supply with vitamin B₁₂ or Co resulted in a higher yield of breast meat

Table 3:
Performance of broilers – Feed intake, body weight gain (Mean, SD, P-value)

Table 4:
Performance of broilers – Feed-to-gain-ratio, body weight (Mean, SD, P-value)

Treatments		Feed-to-gain ratio, kg/kg, age of days				Body weight, g/broiler, age of days			
B ₁₂ , µg/kg	Co, mg/kg	1 – 14	15 – 21	22 – 35	1 – 35	1	14	21	35
0	0	1.37 ± 0.06	1.40 ± 0.11	1.52 ± 0.05	1.47 ± 0.02	44 ± 1	297 ± 10	591 ± 31	1718 ± 88
10	0	1.27 ± 0.06	1.44 ± 0.04	1.50 ± 0.03	1.45 ± 0.02	44 ± 1	332 ± 17	661 ± 35	1893 ± 87
20	0	1.29 ± 0.04	1.41 ± 0.04	1.50 ± 0.42	1.45 ± 0.03	44 ± 1	347 ± 19	696 ± 44	1983 ± 109
40	0	1.31 ± 0.03	1.41 ± 0.04	1.49 ± 0.04	1.44 ± 0.02	44 ± 1	343 ± 11	699 ± 21	2006 ± 53
0	0.65	1.32 ± 0.03	1.41 ± 0.06	1.50 ± 0.04	1.45 ± 0.03	44 ± 1	351 ± 18	715 ± 47	2031 ± 108
10	0.65	1.33 ± 0.04	1.46 ± 0.04	1.50 ± 0.03	1.47 ± 0.02	44 ± 1	335 ± 12	666 ± 30	1921 ± 84
20	0.65	1.31 ± 0.06	1.45 ± 0.03	1.50 ± 0.03	1.46 ± 0.04	43 ± 1	334 ± 15	670 ± 26	1947 ± 68
40	0.65	1.30 ± 0.02	1.40 ± 0.05	1.50 ± 0.03	1.45 ± 0.02	43 ± 1	340 ± 17	698 ± 35	2008 ± 81
ANOVA, P-value									
B ₁₂		0.018	0.088	0.845	0.508	-	0.007	0.002	< 0.001
Co		0.822	0.261	0.768	0.731	-	0.100	< 0.004	< 0.001
B ₁₂ x Co		0.018	0.718	0.595	0.205	-	< 0.001	< 0.001	< 0.001

($P \leq 0.05$) by supplementation of 20 µg B₁₂ and a higher yield of breast meat and percentage of breast meat and legs of 0.65 mg Co per kg diet (Table 11, 12).

Analysis of the nutrients in the fresh breast matter (Table 13) caused a significantly higher water content and decreased protein content in breast meat of the 0.65 mg Co-Group compared to 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B₁₂-Group.

Table 5:
Influence of vitamin B₁₂ on performance of broilers (Mean, day 1 to 35)

Vitamin B ₁₂ , µg/kg	0	10	20	40
Feed intake, g/broiler/day	76.3 c	77.8 bc	79.8 ab	81.3 a
Body weight gain, g/broiler/day	52.3 c	53.2 bc	54.9 ab	56.1 a
Final body weight, g	1874 c	1907 bc	1965 ab	2007 a

a; b; c; – Means with different letters differ significantly within rows

Table 6:
Influence of Co on performance of broilers (Mean, day 1 to 35)

Co, mg/kg	0	0.65
Feed intake, g/broiler/day	77.1 b	80.4 a
Body weight gain, g/broiler/day	53.0 b	55.2 a
Final body weight, g	1900 b	1977 a

a; b; – Means with different letters differ significantly within rows

Discussion

The effect of Vitamin B₁₂ and Cobalt on growth and body composition was studied in broiler chickens and Pekin ducks. Data on the requirement of Vitamin B₁₂ in chickens for fattening and ducks are limited.

In the present studies the main impact of prolonged vitamin B₁₂ deficiency in chickens for fattening was a reduced daily feed intake. As a result the feed intake of these broilers (supplementation of 0 µg B₁₂ per kg feed) was 6 % and final body weight was 7 % less compared to birds with 40 µg B₁₂ per kg diet. In the trial with Pekin ducks no differences in the feed intake and body weight gain were established between the vitamin B₁₂-deficient group and the vitamin B₁₂-supplemented groups. But the depletion of vitamin B₁₂ decreased the breast meat yield in ducks. The breast meat yield was 12 % less in the control group (0 µg B₁₂ per kg feed) compared to ducks with 20 µg B₁₂ per kg diet at the age of 49 days.

The dietary needs for vitamin B₁₂ for poultry species are low and the NRC (1984) recommended to decrease the vitamin B₁₂ supplementation from 9 to 3 µg B₁₂ per kg feed (dry matter) as Leghorn chicks progress between 0 to 6 and 6 to 12 weeks of age. But there is no evidence to justify this scaling to body weight or age. Pair-feeding broiler studies of Looi and Renner (1974) demonstrated that vitamin B₁₂ stimulated growth of chickens fed either carbohydrate-containing or carbohydrate-free diets by stimulating feed intake and not by increasing utilization of either protein or energy. These results showed that the addition of 20 µg B₁₂ per kg diet caused a significant increase in the growth of chicks (Table 5) and no further significant increase was observed with the addition of higher levels

Table 7:

Carcass (% of body weight), carcass composition (% of carcass weight) and muscle and organ weight (g) of broilers (n = 8) (Mean, SD, P-value)

B ₁₂ , µg/kg	Co, mg/kg	Body weight, g	Carcase, %	Breast skin, %	Breast meat, g	Breast meat, %	Legs, g	Legs, %	Liver, g	Heart, g	Gizzard, g	Spleen, g	Fat, g	Fat, %
0	0	1831 ± 71	64.5 ± 1.0	1.3 ± 0.3	214 ± 18	11.6 ± 0.5	362 ± 17	19.8 ± 1.0	40.6 ± 2.7	12.4 ± 1.6	39.9 ± 3.5	1.8 ± 0.4	20.1 ± 3.4	1.1 ± 0.2
10	0	1958 ± 56	64.6 ± 1.6	1.2 ± 0.2	255 ± 21	13.0 ± 1.0	373 ± 25	19.0 ± 1.1	42.8 ± 5.9	12.2 ± 1.1	33.1 ± 6.6	1.7 ± 0.4	29.0 ± 6.3	1.5 ± 0.3
20	0	1958 ± 20	64.0 ± 1.5	1.2 ± 0.2	221 ± 28	11.3 ± 1.4	380 ± 22	19.4 ± 1.0	43.2 ± 3.2	12.8 ± 1.2	33.6 ± 1.9	2.1 ± 0.5	28.0 ± 6.3	1.4 ± 0.3
40	0	1979 ± 96	64.7 ± 0.9	1.1 ± 0.2	244 ± 21	12.3 ± 0.9	386 ± 20	19.5 ± 0.9	43.3 ± 2.3	12.6 ± 1.2	33.1 ± 7.1	2.4 ± 0.6	29.5 ± 2.4	1.5 ± 0.1
0	0.65	1981 ± 36	64.7 ± 3.6	1.1 ± 0.1	259 ± 31	13.1 ± 1.5	384 ± 26	19.4 ± 1.3	41.4 ± 3.4	11.8 ± 2.0	28.8 ± 4.6	2.0 ± 0.6	20.2 ± 5.9	1.0 ± 0.3
10	0.65	1958 ± 85	64.6 ± 2.4	1.1 ± 0.2	244 ± 21	12.5 ± 0.8	383 ± 30	19.5 ± 1.2	42.9 ± 2.5	12.5 ± 0.9	36.2 ± 9.1	2.1 ± 0.3	25.6 ± 7.5	1.3 ± 0.4
20	0.65	1944 ± 51	63.9 ± 1.9	1.3 ± 0.2	229 ± 34	11.8 ± 1.6	384 ± 16	19.8 ± 0.9	43.8 ± 4.8	12.9 ± 2.0	33.1 ± 5.6	2.0 ± 0.5	23.7 ± 4.8	1.2 ± 0.2
40	0.65	1949 ± 62	65.1 ± 1.4	1.1 ± 0.1	246 ± 23	12.6 ± 1.2	395 ± 24	20.2 ± 1.0	41.7 ± 2.6	13.0 ± 0.6	30.6 ± 6.2	1.6 ± 0.7	23.7 ± 5.3	1.2 ± 0.3
ANOVA, P-value														
B ₁₂		0.055	0.574	0.199	0.043	0.004	0.177	0.495	0.270	0.380	0.391	0.734	0.002	0.004
Co		0.110	0.695	0.233	0.081	0.168	0.060	0.279	1.000	0.993	0.413	0.427	0.018	0.010
B ₁₂ × Co		< 0.001	0.985	0.025	0.018	0.151	0.729	0.495	0.774	0.718	0.272	0.011	0.490	0.799

Table 8:

Performance of ducks – Feed intake, daily weight gain (Mean, SD, P-value)

Treatments		Feed intake, g/duck/day, age of days			Daily weight gain, g/duck/day, age of days		
B ₁₂ µg/kg	Co, mg/kg	1 – 21	22 – 49	1 – 49	1 – 21	22 – 49	1 – 49
0	0	116.0 ± 4.1	256.1 ± 8.0	193.0 ± 4.1	69.2 ± 1.7	92.0 ± 2.4	81.8 ± 1.3
10	0	116.4 ± 5.6	248.8 ± 12.9	189.2 ± 9.3	69.7 ± 3.3	89.9 ± 5.3	80.9 ± 4.0
20	0	116.2 ± 8.8	246.1 ± 23.8	187.7 ± 17.2	69.7 ± 3.6	90.8 ± 4.9	81.4 ± 3.8
40	0	113.7 ± 5.4	250.4 ± 12.1	188.6 ± 8.9	69.5 ± 2.0	90.1 ± 6.0	80.9 ± 3.6
0	65	115.4 ± 5.3	257.4 ± 12.5	194.0 ± 8.2	69.3 ± 2.6	89.6 ± 4.4	80.5 ± 3.0
10	65	117.5 ± 4.3	251.5 ± 19.2	191.6 ± 11.3	70.5 ± 2.8	87.7 ± 7.0	80.1 ± 4.6
20	65	114.7 ± 5.5	253.6 ± 14.2	191.0 ± 9.2	70.3 ± 2.4	88.8 ± 3.2	80.5 ± 2.3
40	65	117.0 ± 3.8	250.6 ± 12.9	190.7 ± 8.3	71.1 ± 2.3	87.1 ± 5.3	80.0 ± 3.6
ANOVA, P-value		0.817	0.523	0.647	0.724	0.584	0.896
B ₁₂		0.708	0.446	0.396	0.265	0.062	0.252
B ₁₂ × Co		0.602	0.906	0.990	0.880	0.994	0.998

of vitamin B₁₂. Patel and McGinnis (1980) found that vitamin B₁₂ is important in the energy metabolism. In a study with White Leghorn chicks the growth and efficiency of feed utilization were depressed upon addition of 10 and 20 % fat unless the diet contained adequate vitamin B₁₂. Isoenergetic substitution of glucose instead of fat also de-

pressed growth unless B₁₂ was added. Higher protein content in the diet increases the need for vitamin B₁₂.

Leeson and Summers (2001) summarized that a deficiency of B₁₂ in growing chickens results in reduced weight gain and feed intake, along with poor feathering and nervous disorders. While a deficiency may lead to perosis, this

Table 9:

Performance of ducks – Feed-to-gain-ratio, body weight (Mean, SD, P-value)

Treatments B ₁₂ , µg/kg	Co, mg/kg	Feed-to-gain ratio, kg/kg, age of days			Body weight, g/duck, age of days		
		1 – 21	22 – 49	1 – 49	1	21	49
0	0	1.68 ± 0.04	2.78 ± 0.09	2.36 ± 0.04	56 ± 3	1510 ± 32	3902 ± 60
10	0	1.67 ± 0.02	2.77 ± 0.15	2.34 ± 0.10	56 ± 2	1519 ± 68	3856 ± 186
20	0	1.66 ± 0.06	2.71 ± 0.20	2.30 ± 0.14	57 ± 2	1522 ± 78	3884 ± 181
40	0	1.64 ± 0.05	2.78 ± 0.11	2.33 ± 0.08	56 ± 2	1515 ± 42	3858 ± 171
0	65	1.67 ± 0.04	2.88 ± 0.18	2.41 ± 0.12	56 ± 1	1512 ± 55	3841 ± 142
10	65	1.67 ± 0.03	2.88 ± 0.27	2.40 ± 0.16	55 ± 1	1536 ± 58	3816 ± 215
20	65	1.63 ± 0.05	2.86 ± 0.16	2.37 ± 0.11	58 ± 2	1532 ± 51	3842 ± 108
40	65	1.65 ± 0.04	2.88 ± 0.14	2.39 ± 0.10	54 ± 2	1547 ± 48	3812 ± 173
ANOVA, P-value							
B ₁₂		0.122	0.819	0.688	-	0.744	0.886
Co		0.368	0.013	0.042	-	0.288	0.247
B ₁₂ x Co		0.465	0.965	0.996	-	0.897	0.998

Table 10:

Influence of vitamin B₁₂ on performance of ducks (Mean, day 1 to 49)

B ₁₂ , µg/kg	0	10	20	40
Feed intake, g/duck/day	193.5	190.4	189.6	189.4
Body weight gain, g/duck/day	90.8	88.8	89.8	88.6
Feed to gain ratio, kg/kg	2.38	2.37	2.34	2.36
Final body weight, g	3872	3836	3863	3835
Breast meat, g	201.8 b	211.8 ab	228.8 a	224.3 ab

a; b; – Means with different letters differ significantly within rows

Table 11:

Influence of Co on performance of ducks (Mean, day 1 to 49)

Co, mg/kg	0	0.65
Feed intake, g/duck/day	189.6	191.8
Body weight gain, g/duck/day	81.2	80.3
Feed to gain ratio, kg/kg	2.33 b	2.39 a
Final body weight, g	3875	3828
Breast meat, g	209.5 b	224.2 a
Breast meat, %	10.8 b	11.7 a
Legs, %	12.6 b	13.0 a

a; b; – Means with different letters differ significantly within rows

is probably a secondary effect due to a dietary deficiency of methionine, choline or betaine as sources of methyl groups. Further clinical signs reported in poultry are anemia, gizzard erosion, and fatty infiltration of heart, liver and kidneys.

Vitamin B₁₂ is retained in the liver for a long time after the feeding of Vitamin B₁₂-deficient diets has begun. For example, two to five months may be needed to deplete hens of

vitamin B₁₂ stores to such an extent that progeny will hatch with low vitamin B₁₂ reserves (Scott et al., 1982). On the question of vitamin B₁₂ storage in the egg Robel (1983) established that changes in vitamin levels (also in vitamin B₁₂) deposited in the egg are related to the aging process of the turkey breeder hen. Squires and Naber (1992) concluded from the results of a study of vitamin profiles of eggs – which concentrations of vitamin B₁₂ between 1.3 and 2.9 µg/100 g egg yolks are found, and for this reason, 8 µg vitamin B₁₂ per kg diet appeared to be needed to support maximum hatchability and egg weight. In the present studies chickens and ducks originated from parent flocks with feeding according nutrient requirements of breeder hens and ducks. Therefore it can be assumed that the storage of vitamin B₁₂ into the egg yolk was stabilized and the freshly hatched chickens and ducks had an optimum B₁₂ depot in the liver and in last part of the yolk sac.

Surprising in the present studies was that supplementation of Co only (without supplementation of vitamin B₁₂ in the diets) did not significantly decrease feed intake, and so the final body weight and the breast meat yield in growing

Table 12:

Carcass (% of body weight), carcass composition (% of carcass weight) and muscle and organ weight (g) of ducks (n = 8) (Mean, SD, P-value)

B ₁₂ , µg/kg	Co, mg/kg	Body weight, g	Carcase, %	Breast skin, %	Breast meat, g	Breast meat, %	Legs, g	Legs, %	Liver, g	Heart, g	Gizzard, g	Spleen, g	Fat, g	Fat %
0	0	3882 ± 121	67.5 ± 0.4	3.6 ± 0.6	377 ± 24	9.7 ± 0.5	497 ± 32	12.9 ± 1.0	93.0 ± 15.4	20.5 ± 1.6	124.6 ± 13.9	2.4 ± 0.4	35.1 ± 5.6	0.9 ± 0.2
10	0	3801 ± 262	66.9 ± 0.8	3.9 ± 1.2	402 ± 45	10.6 ± 1.0	482 ± 56	12.6 ± 0.9	84.2 ± 12.8	19.3 ± 2.3	116.4 ± 14.1	2.3 ± 0.4	37.0 ± 14.9	1.0 ± 0.3
20	0	3960 ± 173	67.3 ± 0.9	4.1 ± 0.6	460 ± 51	11.6 ± 1.3	496 ± 19	12.5 ± 0.6	87.2 ± 12.3	20.0 ± 1.6	126.0 ± 9.3	2.4 ± 0.6	35.9 ± 8.8	0.9 ± 0.2
40	0	3934 ± 150	68.0 ± 1.3	4.2 ± 1.0	432 ± 19	11.0 ± 0.5	484 ± 27	12.3 ± 0.9	85.7 ± 12.0	20.3 ± 1.8	122.2 ± 17.2	1.8 ± 0.6	34.5 ± 8.0	0.9 ± 0.2
0	0.65	3754 ± 217	67.4 ± 1.2	3.9 ± 0.5	428 ± 76	11.4 ± 1.5	480 ± 22	12.8 ± 0.6	84.7 ± 9.7	19.9 ± 2.7	114.8 ± 12.0	2.0 ± 0.6	28.4 ± 7.6	0.8 ± 0.2
10	0.65	3815 ± 311	68.2 ± 1.4	4.4 ± 0.9	445 ± 62	11.7 ± 1.3	516 ± 49	13.5 ± 0.9	75.2 ± 12.0	19.7 ± 1.4	125.6 ± 19.5	1.7 ± 0.6	37.8 ± 14.9	1.0 ± 0.4
20	0.65	3861 ± 100	68.0 ± 1.5	4.2 ± 0.8	455 ± 68	11.8 ± 1.8	516 ± 49	12.7 ± 0.5	78.9 ± 15.2	19.8 ± 1.3	121.1 ± 8.6	2.2 ± 0.5	36.0 ± 14.3	0.9 ± 0.4
40	0.65	3845 ± 155	68.5 ± 1.3	4.2 ± 0.9	465 ± 48	12.1 ± 1.0	497 ± 32	12.9 ± 0.6	87.0 ± 11.8	20.9 ± 2.1	119.6 ± 12.3	2.0 ± 0.6	35.6 ± 11.6	0.9 ± 0.3
ANOVA, P-value														
B ₁₂		0.342	0.280	0.677	0.021	0.045	0.862	0.275	0.336	0.452	0.791	0.264	0.624	0.614
Co		0.162	0.052	0.385	0.025	0.002	0.484	0.052	0.104	0.903	0.675	0.051	0.636	0.825
B ₁₂ x Co		0.805	0.370	0.782	0.450	0.406	0.208	0.320	0.626	0.849	0.349	0.153	0.693	0.659

Table 13:

Content of water, protein and fat in the fresh matter of the breast meat of Pekin ducks (%) (n = 8) (Mean, SD)

Group	1 Control	4 40 µg B ₁₂	5 0.65 mg Co	8 0.65 mg Co + 40 µg B ₁₂
Water	76.6 ab ± 0.4	76.4 ab ± 0.3	76.8 a ± 0.5	75.9 b ± 0.6
Crude fat	1.2 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.1	1.2 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.1
Crude protein	22.2 ab ± 0.4	22.4 ab ± 0.3	22.0 b ± 0.8	22.8 a ± 0.5

a; b; – Means with different letters differ significantly within rows

chickens and ducks for fattening was identical to groups supplemented with vitamin B₁₂ (10/20/40 µg vitamin B₁₂ per kg diet). In studies with pigs it was observed that vitamin B₁₂ – deficiency symptoms, including an accumulation of serum homocysteine, can be attenuated by Nickel and Co, although the mode of action seems to differ (Stangl et al., 2000). Previous studies found out that Co ions induce a series of metabolic changes in experimental animals. Co supplementation only improved homocysteine accretion in serum, whereas the vitamin B₁₂ status remained completely unchanged (Goncharevskaia et al., 1985; Rosen-

berg and Kappas, 1989; Zhang et al., 1998). In this duck study the breast meat yield of the Co group was similar to groups supplemented with vitamin B₁₂, however the protein content of breast meat was decreased. This finding indicated that there is not an improvement of the vitamin B₁₂ status and protein syntheses of the meat after supplementation of Co.

Furthermore it cannot be excluded that broilers, and notably ducks, in the present studies obtained a part of their vitamin B₁₂ requirement more indirectly by ingesting faeces in the litter or with litter in the pens. The faeces bacterial flora is an important source of vitamins for coprophagous animals. The supplementation of Co to the broiler and duck diets supported the vitamin B₁₂ synthesis of bacteria in the digestive tract.

It can be concluded from these observations that a supplementation of 20 µg vitamin B₁₂ per kg broiler feed was sufficient to compensate the deficiencies on feed intake and growing performance. An exclusive supplementation of Co to the broiler feed improved the growing performance in a small scale. The supplementation of B₁₂ plus Co did not have any additive effect on the performance of broilers.

The graded supplementation of vitamin B₁₂ to the diet of Pekin ducks had no significant effect on growing performance, however, increased the breast meat yield par-

ticularly at 20 µg B₁₂ per kg of feed. Supplementation of only Co or Co + B₁₂ into the feed did not change feed intake and growing performance among the ducks either. Although the supplementation of 0.65 mg of Co/kg improved the breast meat yield, it leads to an unfavourable rise of the feed-to-gain ratio, however.

In summary the results allow the conclusion, that 20 µg vitamin B₁₂ per kg feed meet the requirements of growing chickens and ducks for fattening. An additional supplementation of Co to feed does not have additional advantages for the birds.

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Metabolic status in early lactating dairy cows of two breeds kept under conditions of organic farming – a case study

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Abstract

The transition period is the key for the health and performance of the lactating dairy cow: An increasing demand of energy due to the foetal growth, lactogenesis and the beginning lactation is accompanied by a restricted feed intake and leads to a negative energy balance. Organic farming aims to produce forage based milk – a goal which might increase the risk of metabolic disorders during that time. Aim of this study was to compare a dual-purpose (German Red Pied – GRP) and a dairy breed (German Holstein – GH) kept under the same management conditions and a comparison of two herds consisting of the same dairy breed (GH) but managed differently to test the effect of the breed or the management on the metabolic status of cows during the first five weeks of lactation. Records of 179 cows (84 GH at Farm1, and 46 GH and 49 GRP at Farm2) were included in the study. Energy requirements (EB%) were better fulfilled at Farm1 than at Farm2. Week of sampling and farm had an effect on the ratio of fat to protein (FPR) and β -hydroxybutyric acid (BHBA) in milk, nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) and glutamate dehydrogenase (GLDH) in blood, respectively. Breed affected FPR, BHBA and GLDH significantly but not NEFA, and the EB% showed a significant effect on FPR, BHBA and NEFA. Season affected FPR and GLDH with the tendency of higher readings in winter. Our study confirmed that breeds with a higher genetic merit for milk yield suffer a higher metabolic load when the feeding management in the periparturient period is suboptimal but under conditions better fulfilling their demands, these differences could not be observed. Thus, there is no need to prefer dual-purpose breeds in organic dairy farming as long as the management is appropriate for high yielding cows.

Keywords: organic farming, metabolism, ketosis, German Red Pied, German Holstein

Zusammenfassung

Stoffwechselstatus von zwei Rassen in der Frühlaktation unter Bedingungen des ökologischen Landbaus – eine Fallstudie

Die Transition Periode ist entscheidend für die laktierende Kuh: Eine reduzierte Futteraufnahme steht dem steigenden Energiebedarf für das Wachstum des Fötus sowie der Laktogenese gegenüber und bedingt eine negative Energiebilanz. Das Ziel der Bio-Milchviehhaltung, Milch raufutterbasiert zu erzeugen, erhöht das Risiko für Stoffwechselstörungen in dieser Zeit und es stellt sich die Frage, ob weniger milchbetonte Rinderrassen besser für diese Haltungsform geeignet sind. Um den Effekt der Rasse bzw. des Managements auf den Stoffwechselstatus der Kuh während der ersten Laktationswochen zu testen, wurden zum einen eine Doppelnutzungs- (Deutsche Rotbunte – DRB) und eine milchbetonte Rasse (Deutsche Holstein – DH) unter den gleichen Bedingungen und zum anderen zwei unterschiedlich gemanagte Herden gleicher Rasse (DH), verglichen. 179 Kühe (Herde 1: 84 DH, Herde 2: 46 DH und 49 DRB) konnten ausgewertet werden. Der Energiebedarf (EB%) der Tiere wurde in Herde 1 besser gedeckt als in Herde 2. Die Probenwoche sowie die Herde hatten einen Effekt auf den Fett-Eiweiß-Quotienten (FEQ) und den β -Hydroxy-Buttersäure-Gehalt (BHBA) in der Milch, die nichtveresterten freien Fettsäuren (NEFA) und die Glutamadehydrogenase-Aktivität (GLDH) im Blut. Die Rasse beeinflusste FEQ, BHBA und GLDH und EB% zeigte einen Effekt auf FEQ, sowie BHBA und NEFA. Es bestand ein saisonaler Effekt bei FEQ sowie GLDH mit höheren Messwerten im Winter. Es bestätigte sich die stärkere metabolische Belastung von Tieren der milchbetonten Rasse in der Frühlaktation aufgrund suboptimaler Bedingungen während der Transition Periode. Bei einer adäquaten Fütterung trat dieser Unterschied nicht mehr auf.

Schlüsselwörter: Ökologischer Landbau, Stoffwechsel, Ketose, Deutsche Rotbunte, Deutsche Holstein

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Introduction

Organic dairy farming aims to "feed no food" and thus, reduce the amount of concentrates fed to cows and produce forage-based milk. Therefore the European Commission Council Regulation on Organic Production (EC, 2007) requires at least 60 % roughage in dairy cow rations. To fulfil the energy requirements of the early lactating cow, this limit might be reduced to 50 % at the beginning of lactation. It is well known that the transition period, starting with the third week prior to calving and lasting until the third week *post partum*, is the key period for the health and performance of the lactating dairy cow (Drackley, 1999). During that time, an increasing demand of energy due to the foetal growth, lactogenesis and the beginning lactation is accompanied by a restricted feed intake and leads to a negative energy balance (e.g., Bell, 1995; Grummer, 1993; Goff & Horst, 1997). Due to homeostatic regulation the nutrients are partitioned to support pregnancy and lactation, and especially the onset of lactation is associated with metabolic changes in body tissues (Bauern & Currie, 1980). To overcome the deficit of energy, body fat is mobilized resulting in an increase of nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) concentration in blood. NEFA are used to provide energy by complete oxidation to carbon dioxide and partial oxidation to ketone bodies; they are incorporated into lipoproteins or stored as triglycerides in the hepatic tissue. Increasing NEFA concentrations in blood are followed by an increasing NEFA uptake rate of the liver resulting in a higher production of ketone bodies and an accumulation of triglycerides in the hepatic tissue, which might cause fatty liver syndrome in the animal (Goff & Horst, 1997). As a consequence of fatty liver syndrome, liver cells will be damaged and release the enzyme glutamate dehydrogenase (GLDH) (Wemheuer, 1987; West, 1990), primarily located in mitochondria of liver cells and required for the urea synthesis. Of all ketone bodies, β -hydroxybutyric acid (BHBA) is seen as predominant (Duffield et al., 2009) and can be found in blood, milk and urine (Nielsen & Ingvarsson, 2004). Elevated NEFA and BHBA concentrations are considered to have a depressing effect on the bovine immune system and thus, to increase the risk of diseases (Hoeben et al., 2000; Hachenberg et al., 2007). Although mastitis as one of the most important diseases of dairy cows has to be seen as caused by various factors, Leslie et al. (2000) found that increased rates of mastitis also were associated with subclinical ketosis.

Besides the sustainability of food production organic farming targets the maintenance of animal health by encouraging the natural immunological defence of the animal, as well as the selection of appropriate breeds and husbandry practices. As a consequence, the EU regulations ban the prophylactic use of "chemically synthesised

allopathic veterinary medicinal products including antibiotics" (EC, 2008), and according to the standards of the American National Organic Program, the treated animal itself as well as its products are not allowed to be labelled organic. Among other things, disease prevention shall be based on breed selection, husbandry management practices and meeting the animal's nutritional requirements at the various stages of its development by providing organic feed of high quality (EC, 2008).

Although one might expect a higher ketosis incidence due to the limitations of concentrate feed, Hardeng and Edge (2001), evaluating treatment records found a much lower risk of ketosis in cows kept under organic farming conditions in Norway, where the maximum limit for concentrates is 30 % of the ration. This is in contrast to Haraldson (2001) who expected cows with high genetic merit for milk yield to be at greater risk to develop metabolic disorders in organic farming.

Hardeng & Edge (2001) explained their results with a tastier while diversified diet and consequently a higher feed intake. However, analyses of veterinary treatment records are always biased by the fact that only treated cases were reported, which means that the records are limited to clinical cases.

Nevertheless, organic cows produced 22 % less milk than the conventional cows in 305 days (Hardeng & Edge, 2001), and this cannot be explained by the use of lower yielding breeds, because high performance breeds like Holsteins are dominant in organic as well as in conventional dairy farming (Rahmann & Nieberg, 2005). According to the calculations made by Knaus et al. (2001), cows kept under the rules of organic farming would be able to produce up to 7,000 kg milk without exceeding the tolerable restrictions for suboptimal energy supply if the quality of the forage were high enough and the management were optimal. However, the current genetic potential of dairy breeds is much higher and the lower performance of organic cows suggests that the farms face difficulties in fulfilling the nutrient requirements of their cows.

EU legislations of organic farming demand the choice of breeds be based on their capacity to adapt to local conditions, their vitality and their resistance to health problems (EC, 2008).

Crossbreeds are seen as advantageous under suboptimal management conditions (Freyer et al., 2008), and organic dairy farming might benefit from using such animals instead of purebred high yielding cows. Another approach would be the use of dual-purpose breeds. Distl et al. (1989) found lower incidences of metabolic disorders in the dual-purpose German Simmental than in the German Brown Swiss, but in the study by Fall et al. (2008) comparing early lactating cows under organic and conventional farming conditions, the dual purpose Swedish Red breed

had significantly higher NEFA readings than the Swedish Holstein breed.

However, the number of studies comparing the metabolic status of dual-purpose and dairy breed cows at the beginning of lactation is still limited, and especially comparisons carried out under conditions of organic farming are lacking.

Thus, our study aimed for comparing of a dual-purpose and a dairy breed kept under the same management conditions and a comparison of two herds consisting of the same dairy breed but managed differently to test the effect of the breed or the management on the metabolic status of the cows during the first five weeks of lactation. NEFA and GLDH in blood, BHBA in milk, and the ratio of fat to protein (FPR) were used as indicators of the metabolic status.

Material and Methods

Animals, housing and feeding

The study was carried out from October 2007 to January 2009 on two research farms working according to the rules of organic farming. The experimental station "Gladbacherhof" of the University Giessen, Germany (Farm1) has been following the rules of the German Bioland organization for more than 20 years and keeps 90 German Holstein black and white cows (Farm1-GH) at a free stall barn.

Since 2004, the Institute of Organic Farming of the Johann Heinrich von Thünen-Institut, Trenthorst, Germany (Farm2), keeps two herds of two different breeds allowing

breed comparisons under the same management conditions. Therefore, the 50 German Holstein black and white (Farm2-GH) and the 50 dual purpose German Red Pied (Farm2-GRP) cows are kept separately in two identically designed compartments of a free stall barn.

Cows were milked twice daily with milking intervals of 11:13 and 10:14 hours at Farm1 and Farm2, respectively. Milk yield was automatically recorded during each milking (Metatron®, GEA, Bönen, Germany). During withdrawal periods (colostral period, medical treatment) the milk was collected in a bucket and manually weighed after milking. Based on the daily records per sampling week the mean milk yield per cow and day was calculated.

At Farm2 the herd was divided into two feeding groups: a group consisting of high yielding and cows in early lactation and a group including dry cows and cows in late lactation. At Farm1 dry cows formed an additional third group. At both farms the cows were fed a mixed ration *ad libitum* and received additional concentrate feed according to the yield and stage of lactation at an automatic feeding station. The mixed ration varied throughout the year and consisted of grass silage, clover grass silage and corn silage in both farms but was supplemented with potatoes, legumes and grain in various parts (Farm1) and 2 kg cow⁻¹ day⁻¹ of the concentrate mixture (Farm2). The composition of the used ingredients was analysed by commercial laboratories ("Hessisches Landeslabor", Kassel, Germany and "LUFA NRW", Köln-Auweiler, Germany). The amount of additional concentrate feed was limited to 8.0 and 6.5 kg cow⁻¹ day⁻¹ at Farm1 and Farm2, respectively. Feedstuff provided by the farms differed in energy, protein and fibre content (Table1).

Table 1:
Mean nutrient contents of the mixed rations and the concentrates fed during the experimental period

		Farm1		Farm2	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Mixed ration					
Dry matter	[%]	41.1	4.0	43.2	3.9
Energy	[MJ NEL kg ⁻¹]	6.5	0.2	6.2	0.2
Crude protein	[g kg ⁻¹]	151	11	143	27
Utilisable crude protein	[g kg ⁻¹]	141	3	136	4
Ruminal-Nitrogen-Balance		1.5	1.6	1.1	4.2
Crude fibre	[g kg ⁻¹]	209	12	231	14
Concentrate feed					
Energy	[MJ NEL kg ⁻¹]	8.4	0.1	7.9	0.1
Crude protein	[g kg ⁻¹]	150	23	173	1
Utilisable crude protein	[g kg ⁻¹]	171	3	167	3
Ruminal-Nitrogen-Balance		-2.8	3.3	0.9	1.8
Crude fibre	[g kg ⁻¹]	40	16	61	23

Three weeks before the expected date of calving, cows at Farm1 received the dry cows' ration supplemented by 10 kg maize silage per cow and day. Heifers were integrated at the same time. Farm2 did not separate the dry cows from the late lactating ones but moved the cows in late pregnancy into the group of early lactating cows. Thus, three weeks ante partum these cows, as well as the new integrated heifers had access to the ration of early lactating and high yielding cows. Between May and October all cows of Farm1 were pastured about 3 hours per day. Animals at Farm2 did not have access to pasture but had outdoor access over the whole time period.

The daily consumption of concentrate feed per cow was recorded on both farms. The mean feed intake per group and day was calculated as difference between the amounts of mixed ration provided (recorded daily) and the remains (recorded once per week). Daily feed intake per cow was then roughly estimated by dividing the feed intake per group by the number of cows belonging to that group in the regarded week.

To get an impression about the nutrient supply despite lacking records of the individual feed intake per cow, the fulfilment of the energy needs was estimated by comparing the individual demand of energy and the energy provided by the ration. At Farm1 maintenance requirements were 35.5 MJ NEL and 39.9 MJ NEL for primiparous (estimated body weight: 650 kg) and pluriparous (estimated body weight: 750 kg) cows, respectively. At Farm2 individual body weight of each cow was recorded twice per day by an automatic walk-through weight scale (GEA, Bönen, Germany). Based on the readings per week, the mean body weight at each lactation week was calculated. The median for primiparous cows was 582 kg (from 448 to 803 kg) and for pluriparous cows 684 kg (from 496 to 866 kg). If less than five readings per week were available, data were rejected due to unreliability and a body weight of 650 kg and 700 kg was assumed for primiparous and pluriparous cows, respectively. The daily requirement for milk production was calculated (Spiekers & Potthast, 2004):

$$\text{MJ NEL} = \text{milk yield [kg day}^{-1}\text{]} \times (0.38 \text{ fat content [%]} + 0.21 \text{ protein content [%]} + 1.05)$$

The total requirement of energy for maintenance and milk production was related to the energy provided by the ration and the concentrate feed, and the individual coverage of the energy needs (EB%) was calculated.

Body condition of the studied animals was scored weekly by trained technicians according to Edmonson et al. (1989) using 0.25 increments on a 1 to 5 scale. BCS loss (BCSDiff) during the experimental period was calculated as difference between BCS on Day 5 and Day 1.

Usually cows at both farms were dried off 6 to 8 weeks before the expected calving. Based on cyto-bacteriological analyses, Farm1 used different antibiotics together with an internal teat sealer (Orbeseal®, Pfizer, New York, USA) whereas Farm2 treated when necessary the animals with Orbenin® (Pfizer, New York, USA). Due to an increased incidence of parturient paresis all cows at Farm2 received a Ca- and P-bolus post calving (Bovikalc, Boehringer Ingelheim Vetmedica GmbH, Ingelheim, Germany). Farm1 applied such a prophylactic treatment only on six older cows.

Sampling and analyses

During the first five weeks post calving cows were sampled once per week on a fixed day. Due to the various calving dates, cows differed in the DIM at the sampling day. On average the first sample was taken at day 5 (range: 1 to 8) and the last at day 35 (range: 27 to 37) of the lactation.

Duplicated composite milk samples were automatically gained at morning milking. One sample was stored at -20 °C until analysis of the fat and protein content was carried out at the laboratory of the "Hessischer Verband für Leistungs- und Qualitätsprüfungen in der Tierzucht e. V." (Alsfeld, Germany, samples of Farm1) and at the laboratory of the "Landeskontrollverband Schleswig-Holstein e. V." (Kiel, Germany, samples of Farm2). The FPR was calculated based on these analyses.

Trichloroacetic acid (TCA, 50 %) was added to the second composite milk sample (ratio: 1 ml TCA to 10 ml milk). Samples were cooled and centrifuged. The supernatant was stored at -20 °C until its analysis for the BHBA content at the laboratory of the University of Applied Science and Arts Hanover (Germany). BHBA was measured using an AutoAnalyzer (Traacs 2000 System®, SEAL Analytical GmbH, Norderstedt, Germany). The analysis based on the oxidation of BHBA to acetoacetate while the enzyme BHBA-dehydrogenase and the coenzyme NAD⁺ are present. The generated NADH was measured photometrically ($\lambda = 340\text{nm}$).

Following the morning milking, trained technicians took blood samples from the jugular vein (Farm1) and by tail venipuncture (Farm2). Serum samples were prepared by centrifugation (15 min, 3000 x g, 4 °C) and aliquoted for analyses of NEFA and GLDH.

Serum aliquots for analyses of NEFA were stored at -20 °C until analysed at the laboratory of the Institute of Animal Science (University of Bonn, Germany). NEFA were measured using an enzymatic test kit (kit nr. 1383175, Roche Diagnostics, Mannheim, Germany), which was adapted for use on microtitre plates (Oliver et al., 1995). Intraassay and interassay coefficients were 6.3 % and 5.6 % plus 8.3 % and 8.2 %, respectively. The test was

based on the enzymatically catalysed reaction of NEFA to Acetyl-CoA resulting in hydrogen peroxide which was measured photometrically ($\lambda = 490$ nm).

The second serum aliquot was cooled and transported to a commercial laboratory (synlab.vet, Geesthacht, Germany) for analysis of GLDH on the sampling day. GLDH was measured photometrically ($\lambda = 340$ nm, AU 2700®, Olympus, Hamburg, Germany).

Statistical analyses were done using the program PASW®Statistics 18.0 (IBM, 2009). The procedure Linear MixedModels was used to analyse the effects of the fixed explanatory variables farm (Farm1 or Farm2), breed (GH or GRP), status (primiparous or pluriparous), season (summer = May to October or winter = November to April) and EB% (continuous) and BCSDiff (continuous), the effect of the repeated sampling (week of sampling 1 to 5) and their interactions on FPR, BHBA, NEFA and GLDH. The cow was included as a random effect. Level of significance was determined at $P < 0.05$. Variables without a significant effect were excluded from the model following a step-wise backward method. If necessary, the response variables were log-transformed to meet statistical assumptions concerning the distribution of the residuals. These assumptions were checked again graphically.

Due to different numbers of cows per group, and thus different sample sizes Hochberg's GT2 procedure (Field, 2009) was used to test the differences between the three groups (Farm1-GH, Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP) in each week of sampling.

Results

185 animals were sampled and records of 179 cows could be included in the analyses. 21 primiparous and 63 pluriparous GH cows belonged to Farm1. From Farm2 46 GH (19 primiparous/ 27 pluriparous) and 49 GRP (18 primiparous/ 31 pluriparous) cows were included. The average number of lactations did not differ between the breeds at Farm2: 2.7 (range: 1 to 6) and 2.6 (range: 1 to 5) for GH and GRP, respectively, but was much lower than on Farm1 (3.8, range: 1 to 12).

Mean milk yield (given as ECM) was equal in the three groups at the beginning of lactation but started to differ significantly between the Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP at the second week, and in Week 5 both GH herds produced significant ($P < 0.05$) more milk than the GRP (Figure 1). As expected, GRP had higher BCS than GH but also the GH at Farm1 and Farm2 differed significantly ($P < 0.001$) over the experimental period (Figure 2). BCSDiff was highest in Farm2-GH (Mean: -0.3, SD: 0.32) and significantly different ($P < 0.01$) from Farm1-GH (Mean: -0.22, SD: 0.31) but not from Farm2-GRP (Mean: -0.24, SD: 0.30).

Calculation of EB% revealed that the energy requirements of the tested animals were significantly better fulfilled at Farm1 than at Farm2 (Figure 3).

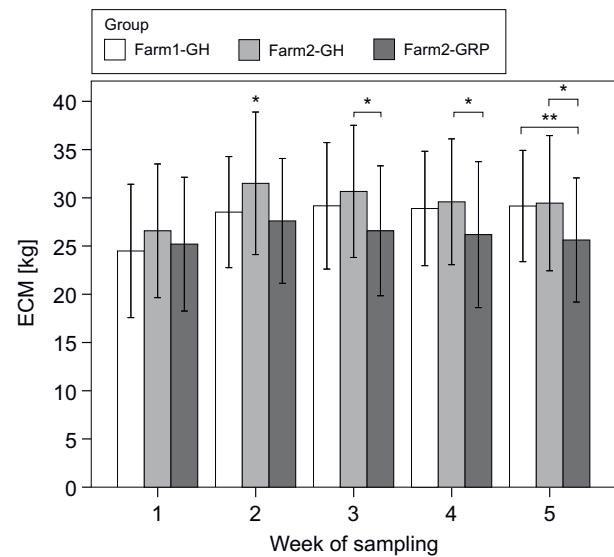


Figure 1:

Mean, SD and significant differences of the daily milk yield given as energy corrected milk (ECM) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at * $P < 0.05$, ** $P < 0.01$)

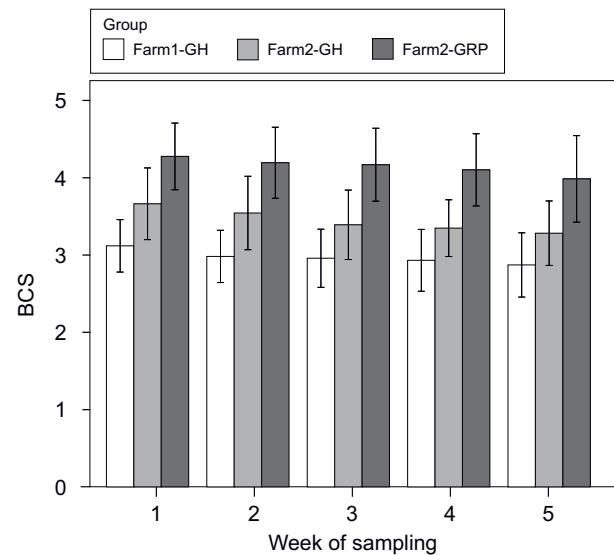


Figure 2:

Mean and SD of the body condition score (BCS) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, all groups significantly differed at $P < 0.001$)

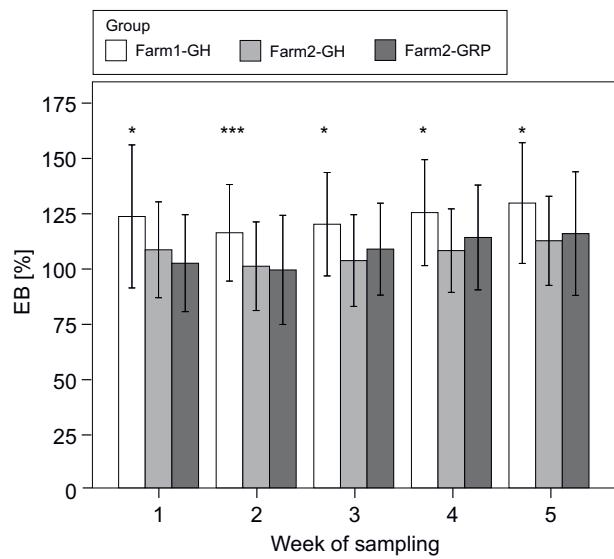


Figure 3:

Mean and SD of the energy needs coverage (EB%) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at * $P < 0.05$, *** $P < 0.001$)

Effects of the tested variables on the outcome variables FPR, BHBA, NEFA and GLDH differed in the models. Farm and the week of sampling affected all studied variables, while breed affected only FPR, BHBA and GLDH (Table 2). An increasing EB% predicted lower readings for FPR ($b = -0.012$, $t = -14.34$, $P < 0.001$), BHBA ($b = -0.003$, $t = -3.33$, $P < 0.01$) and NEFA ($b = -0.004$, $t = -4.66$, $P < 0.001$) but no effect on GLDH was found.

Milk samples

The final model showed that FPR was significantly lower at Farm1 (1.09 ± 0.04) than Farm2 (1.27 ± 0.02 , $t = -4.28$, $P < 0.001$), and GRP (1.11 ± 0.04) had significantly lower readings than GH (1.24 ± 0.02 , $t = -2.75$, $P < 0.01$). During the summer (1.11 ± 0.03) FPR was significantly lower than in winter (1.25 ± 0.03 , $t = -3.93$, $P < 0.001$) and first lactating heifers (1.26 ± 0.04) had higher FPR than older cows (1.09 ± 0.02 , $t = 4.35$, $P < 0.001$). FPR was lowest at the beginning of lactation. In all statistical models the farm effect was more dominant than the breed effect which was confirmed by multiple comparisons of the three groups of cows carried out on data of each sampling week. FPR of milk from Farm1-GH was always significantly lower than from Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP, respectively. The latter differed only at the last sampling day (Figure 4). If an FPR threshold of 1.4 was applied (Dirksen, 1994), 22.6 % (19 out of 84), 76.1 % (35 out of 46) and 59.2 % (29 out of 49) of the sampled Farm1-GH, Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP, respectively, overstepped this threshold at least once during the sampling period.

BHBA increased from week to week, too. Farm1 ($13.33 \pm 1.06 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) had significantly lower BHBA contents than Farm2 ($19.88 \pm 1.04 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, $t = -5.80$, $P < 0.001$) and GH ($18.54 \pm 1.03 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) significantly higher BHBA readings than the dual-purpose breed GRP ($14.30 \pm 1.06 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, $t = -3.40$, $P < 0.01$). Primiparous and pluriparous cows did not differ, and also the season did not significantly affect BHBA. Farm2-GH showed always the highest BHBA contents in milk and always differed significantly from the GH kept on Farm1 (Figure 5). GRP at Farm2 had also higher BHBA readings than Farm1-GH but the differences were not significant until the third week of sampling. In week 4 and 5 also the BHBA of GH and GRP at Farm2 differed

Table 2:

Effects of the explanatory fixed variables on the investigated indicators of metabolic disorders gained in milk (Fat-Protein-Ratio - FPR), β -hydroxybutyric acid - BHBA) and in blood (nonesterified fatty acids – NEFA, glutamate dehydrogenase – GLDH)

	FPR		lnBHBA		lnNEFA		lnGLDH	
	F	P	F	P	F	P	F	P
Farm	18.28	< 0.001	33.66	< 0.001	7.27	< 0.01	21.34	< 0.001
Breed	7.57	< 0.01	11.54	< 0.01	n.s.	n.s.	14.29	< 0.001
Parity status	18.95	< 0.001		n.s.		n.s.		n.s.
Season	15.48	< 0.001		n.s.		n.s.	4.73	< 0.05
Week of sampling	18.81	< 0.001	7.23	< 0.001	43.46	< 0.001	20.49	< 0.001
EB% ^a	205.57	< 0.001	11.07	< 0.01	21.69	< 0.001	n.s.	n.s.
BCSDiff ^b		n.s.		n.s.	11.76	< 0.01		n.s.

^aEB% = coverage of the energy needs,^bBCSDiff = body condition score loss from sampling week 1 to sampling week 5

significantly. Number of cows which showed BHBA readings higher than $70 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ (according to Enjalbert et al., 2001) reflected these findings: 1, 9 and 3 cows sampled in group Farm1-GH, Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP indicated a subclinical ketosis by BHBA contents in milk.

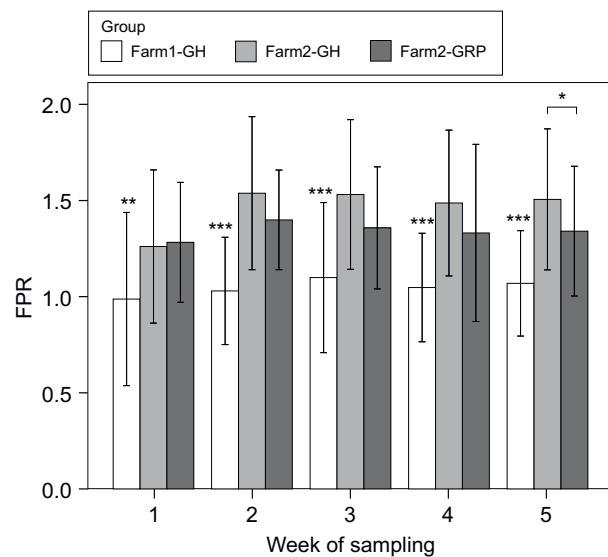


Figure 4:
Mean and SD of the Fat-Protein-Ratio (FPR) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$)

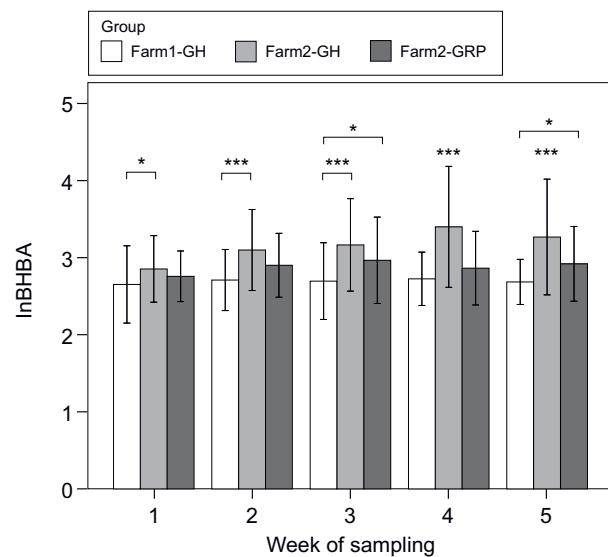


Figure 5:
Mean and SD of the β -hydroxybutyric acid concentration in milk (BHBA) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$)

Blood samples

NEFA contents in blood were highest at the beginning of lactation and decreased over the weeks. Animals of Farm1 ($185 \pm 1.05 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) had significantly lower NEFA readings than animals of Farm2 ($215 \pm 1.04 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$, $t = -2.70$, $P < 0.01$). A negative BCSDiff predicted higher NEFA concentrations in blood ($b = -0.35$, $t = -3.43$, $P < 0.01$). Farm1-GH had always lower NEFA contents in blood but only at Week 2 and 5 were the differences to cows at Farm2 significant. NEFA did not differ between the breeds kept at Farm2 (Figure 6). A total of 9, 8 and 8 animals of Farm1-GH, Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP, respectively, had NEFA contents higher than $500 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ according to the threshold recommended by Hachenberg et al. (2007) for the first week of lactation.

GLDH activity increased over the sampling period and was significantly higher in cows from Farm2 ($11.12 \pm 1.06 \text{ U l}^{-1}$) than from Farm1 ($7.09 \pm 1.08 \text{ U l}^{-1}$, $t = -4.62$, $P < 0.001$). The GLDH of GRP cows ($7.24 \pm 1.09 \text{ U l}^{-1}$) was significantly lower than that of GH cows ($10.89 \pm 1.05 \text{ U l}^{-1}$, $t = -3.78$, $P < 0.001$). There was a slight but significant difference between GLDH activity in summer ($8.11 \pm 1.07 \text{ U l}^{-1}$) and winter ($9.73 \pm 1.06 \text{ U l}^{-1}$, $t = -2.18$, $P < 0.05$). In Farm2-GH, activity of GLDH was always highest and always differed significantly from GH on Farm1 (Figure 7). Farm2-GRP and Farm1-GH never showed significant differences of GLDH activity. GLDH readings higher than 40 U l^{-1} indicating damages of the hepatic tissue (Fürll, 2005) showed at least once during the sampling period 9, 9 and 2 animals of Farm1-GH, Farm2-GH and Farm2-GRP, respectively.

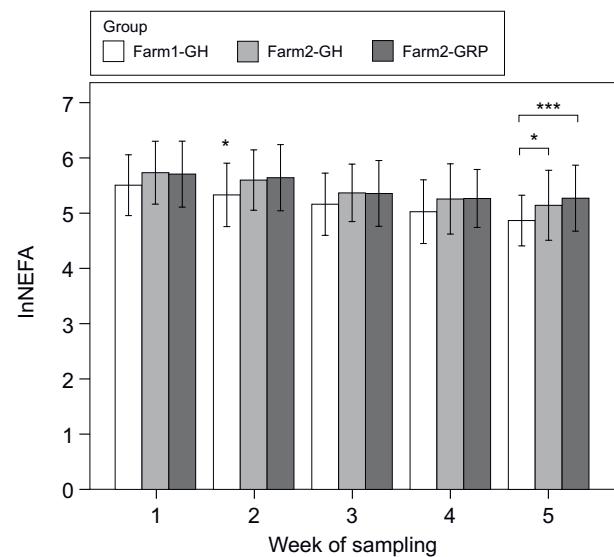


Figure 6:
Mean and SD of the blood concentration of nonesterified fatty acids (NEFA) of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$)

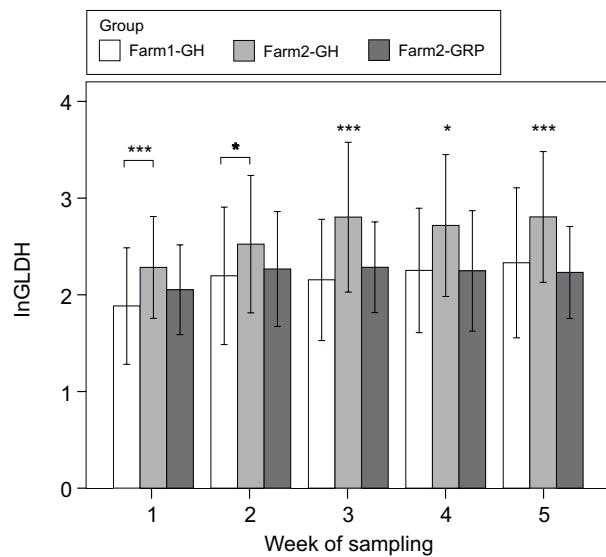


Figure 7:

Mean and SD of the glutamate dehydrogenase activity (GLDH) in blood of the three studied groups during the five sampling weeks (GH = German Holstein, GRP = German Red Pied, signed bars differed at $*P < 0.05$, $**P < 0.01$, $***P < 0.001$)

Discussion

As expected, milk yield of GH was higher than of GRP, and the milk yield of the GH at the two farms differed only once significantly in the second week of sampling. The average milk yield of Farm2-GH was highest in this week and indicates that the acceleration in milk yield from Week 1 to Week 2 was greater than in Farm1-GH. Milk yield acceleration reflects trends for higher stress in high yielding cows (Hansen et al., 2006), and the decrease of ECM in Farm2-GH after the second week might be explained by non-fulfillment of the energy requirements of the cows at Farm2 leading to a depression in milk yield although the partitioning of nutrients in dairy breeds prefers the mammary tissue (Veerkamp et al., 2003).

Besides the lower energy density of the feed provided at Farm2, the dry cow management has perhaps influenced the performance of the cows after calving, too. The BCS support this assumption. BCS ranging from 2.6 to 3.0 are seen as optimal for Holstein breeds (Bernabucci et al., 2005). Due to the different type of nutrient accretion, dual-purpose breeds show higher scores, but a limit of 3.5 is recommended to avoid ketosis (Gillund et al., 2001). Compared to these thresholds the cows at Farm2 were clearly overfed during the dry period. Though BCS is subject to individual effects of the assessors (Edmonson et al., 1989), in this case this does not explain the significant differences between the GH at the farms. All technicians who gained BCS were trained at the beginning of the study and again in the middle of the whole sampling period. Thus, the ob-

served differences have to be a result of the differences in the dry cow management on the two farms.

Adipose tissue of cows overfed during the dry period shows lower basal lipolytic rates and the livers of these cows seem to be less adapted for the metabolism of fatty acids around parturition (Rukkwamsuk et al., 1998). Thus, a higher metabolic load was to be expected in animals at Farm2. NEFA concentration in blood was higher for Farm2 indicating a higher body fat mobilization of cows kept there. This was confirmed by a significantly higher BCS loss of these cows. However, the NEFA concentration only differed significantly in sampling Weeks 2 and 5, and there was no difference at all between GH and GRP at Farm2. This is in contrast to Kronschnabl (2010) who found higher NEFA readings ($+ 100\ldots200 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$) in GH compared to the dual-purpose breed German Simmental. According to Hachenberg et al. (2007), NEFA readings $\geq 500 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ during the first week of lactation signal a limited adaptive performance in dairy cows. When this threshold was applied, the frequency of cows showing this limitation was twice as much at Farm2 than at Farm1 – again without a difference between GH and GRP at Farm2. The fulfilment of the energy requirements at Farm2 as well as the BCS loss did not significantly differ between these two breeds. Thus, either of them had to mobilize body fat to cope with the accelerating milk production. The revealed significant effect of EB% on NEFA concentrations supports these findings which are in accordance with Reist et al., (2002) who found a highly significant and relevant correlation between NEFA concentration in blood and EB ($r = -0.685$, $P < 0.001$). Energy balance profiles through lactation are genetically driven (Friggins et al., 2007) but differences observed between breeds do not point in the same direction: in the study by Friggins et al. (2007) Holstein dairy cows mobilized significantly more body energy at the beginning of lactation than the dual-purpose Danish Red and Jersey breeds kept under the same dietary treatment. This is in contrast to Fall et al. (2008) who found opposite results for Swedish Red and Swedish Holstein cows kept under organic farming conditions.

Unlike NEFA in blood, BHBA concentration in milk was clearly affected by the management conditions on both farms as well as by the breed. Sources of BHBA in milk are the hepatic metabolism resulting from fat mobilization (Nielsen et al., 2003), feedstuff (Ingvartsen, 2006) and the rumen epithelial cells (Nielsen et al., 2003). Although Nielsen et al. (2003) found it difficult to determine an absolute threshold of BHBA in milk as an indicator of ketosis, they recommended using this criterion instead of fat or citrate due to the fact that BHBA responded with a higher increase to feed restrictions in early lactating cows. Previously, Enjalbert et al. (2001) defined a threshold of $70 \mu\text{mol l}^{-1}$ for BHBA as a sign of an increased risk of keto-

sis. Applying this value to our readings, 9 out of 45 of Farm2-GH were at a higher risk compared to 1 out of 84 GH cows at Farm1 and 3 out of 46 Farm2-GRP cows. BHBA in milk is significantly highly correlated to BHBA in serum independent of the metabolic status (Nielsen et al., 2003). Thus, results gained on serum BHBA concentration may be extrapolated – but with care – to BHBA in milk. Rukkwamsuk et al. (1998) found no significant differences of BHBA concentrations in serum of cows either overfed or fed restricted amounts before and after parturition. Therefore, the difference between GRP and GH at Farm2 might not be caused by the overfeeding during the dry period but by the higher body fat mobilization of the GH cows to transfer more energy to the udder. The grade of nutrient partitioning towards the mammary gland is genetically determined (Veerkamp et al., 2003). This was confirmed for serum BHBA concentration by Hammon et al. (2010) who studied Charolais x Holstein F₂ families and revealed sex chromosomal effects causing higher BHBA levels in cows descending from Charolais grandfathers with a higher genetic merit for milk yield.

Cows with serum BHBA concentrations > 1mM show higher fat and lower protein contents in milk, resulting in a higher FPR (Kessel et al., 2008). FPR is a sensitive indicator of changes in nutritional variables, and a useful predictor of the energy status of the cow (Grieve et al., 1986; Heuer, 2004). In our model, EB% showed the strongest influence on FPR of all studied variables and the comparison with the FPR threshold (Dirksen, 1994) revealed an energy deficit in three quarters of all GH cows at Farm2 in contrast to Farm1 where only 20 % of the GH suffered from deprivation. First lactating cows had significantly higher FPR than pluriparous cows, which confirms the results of Meikle et al. (2004) that primiparous cows show a more unbalanced metabolic profile than pluriparous cows. The seasonal effect might indicate a better fulfilment of energy requirements during summer. However, from a practitioner's point of view the easy to gain and fast reacting FPR can be seen as a useful tool to identify shortcomings in dry cow management as well as in feeding of cows in early lactation.

The higher metabolic load also caused elevated GLDH readings in GH cows at Farm2. Although the direct comparison between the three groups at the sampling days did not reveal significant differences between the Farm2-GRP and the Farm1-GH, more Farm1-GH cows showed GLDH readings higher than 40 U l⁻¹ at least once, confirming the significant effect of breed in our model. As in the study by Hachenberg et al. (2007), mean GLDH activity increased over the weeks but the significant difference in the first sampling week between the GH at the two farms might be explained by a compromised liver function prepartum (Burke et al., 2010) maybe caused by overfeeding during

the dry period (Rukkwamsuk et al., 1998). The seasonal effect on GLDH showed the same tendency as on FPR and is in accordance with Distl et al. (1989) who found higher incidences of ketosis during the winter time compared to the summer.

Conclusion

The direct comparison of a dairy and a dual purpose breed kept under the same conditions confirmed the finding that breeds with a higher genetic merit for milk yield suffer a higher metabolic load when the feeding management in the periparturient period is suboptimal. Under conditions better fulfilling the demands of the dairy breed, these differences could not be observed. Thus, there is no need to prefer dual-purpose breeds in organic dairy farming as long as the management is appropriate for high yielding cows.

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Interactive effects of soil water content and phytin supply on phosphorus nutrition of different crops species

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Abstract

An eight week pot experiment was conducted under semi controlled conditions to investigate the interactive effects of organic P nutrition and drought stress on P utilisation of four different crop species.

Two P treatments were established: organic P supply with phytin (0.40 g P per pot) and a control without any additional P supply. The two water treatments were irrigated according to 60 % (well watered) and 30 % (drought stress) water holding capacity of the soil.

The P uptake, shoot biomass and proline content of sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* x *Sorghum sudanense*), amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus*), oilseed rape (*Brassica napus*) and rye (*Secale cereale*) were studied. Furthermore, in the soil we measured the pH value, soil P pools (soluble in water, double-lactate and oxalate) as well as the P sorption capacity, degree of P saturation and the activities of acid and alkaline phosphatases.

Drought stress reduced the P uptake of sorghum and rye, while P uptake of amaranth and oilseed rape was not affected by water supply. The application of organic P increased the plant P uptake and biomass production in both water treatments about 30 % but did not mitigate the effects of water stress. Drought resulted in higher proline contents in plant tissue; significantly elevated values were measured in oilseed rape and rye. The activity of acid phosphatase in soil was increased in the treatments with drought stress as well as after organic P supply. Soil P pools were affected by the balance of P supply and plant P uptake, but obviously not by the water treatments.

The results suggest crop specific reactions on water shortage and P deficiency, which should be taken into consideration for P fertilization recommendations.

Keywords: phosphorus, drought stress, organic fertilizer, phosphatase activity

Zusammenfassung

Wechselseitiger Einfluss von Wassergehalt des Bodens und Phytin-Zufuhr auf die Phosphor-Ernährung verschiedener Fruchtarten

In einem achtwöchigen Gefäßversuch wurden die wechselseitigen Effekte von organischer P-Zufuhr und Trockenstress auf die P-Versorgung vier verschiedener Fruchtarten untersucht. Dabei wurde Phytin als organische P-Quelle (0.40 g P pro Gefäß) genutzt. Zur Kontrolle wurde eine Variante ohne P-Zufuhr angelegt. Zwei Wasserstufen wurden entsprechend 60 % (optimale Versorgung) und 30 % (Trockenstressvariante) der maximalen Wasserhaltekapazität des Bodens eingestellt.

Die P-Aufnahme, der Biomasseertrag sowie der Prolin-Gehalt der Fruchtarten Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* x *Sorghum sudanense*), Amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus*), Raps (*Brassica napus*) und Roggen (*Secale cereale*) wurden untersucht. Im Boden wurden der pH Wert, ausgewählte P-Fraktionen, sowie der Grad der P-Sättigung ermittelt. Zudem wurde die Aktivität der sauren und alkalischen Phosphatase bestimmt.

Trockenstress reduzierte die P-Aufnahme von Sorghum und Roggen, während Amaranth und Raps keinen Rückgang in der P-Aufnahme zeigten. Die Zufuhr von organischem P erhöhte die P-Aufnahme sowie die Biomasse aller Fruchtarten in beiden Wasserstufen um etwa 30 %. Die Wirkung des Trockenstress im Vergleich zur optimalen Wasserversorgung wurde allerdings durch eine P-Zufuhr nicht abgeschwächt. Unter Trockenstress wurden stark erhöhte Prolin-Gehalte bei Raps und Roggen gemessen. Die Aktivität der sauren Phosphatasen im Boden stieg ebenfalls unter Trockenstress sowie durch die Zufuhr von organischem P an. Die P-Pools im Boden wurden durch die Bilanz von P-Zufuhr und P-Aufnahme der Pflanzen beeinflusst, offensichtlich jedoch nicht durch die unterschiedliche Wasserversorgung.

Schlüsselwörter: Phosphor, Trockenstress, organische Düngung, Phosphatase-Aktivität

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Introduction

Drought stress is one of the major abiotic factors that constrains crop productivity. Climate periods with drought will occur more frequently in the near future (Jacob et al., 2008). The growth and the physiological responses of crop plants and therewith the plant yield are highly sensitive to a reduction of water availability in soils (Bartels and Sunkar, 2005).

Plants develop different mechanisms to adapt to drought stress. Drought tolerance may increase by stomatal regulation (Sing and Sing, 1995), maintained water uptake through changes in root characteristics like root length, thickness and rooting depth (Asch et al., 2005) and accumulation of osmolytes like soluble sugars, alcohols or proline (Stoddard et al., 2006). The positive effect of proline as a major osmoregulatory solute under drought stress was shown in different studies (Delauney et al., 1993; Somal et al., 1998; Kuznetsov and Shevyakova, 1999; Diaz et al., 2005).

Drought affects nutrient availability in soil. Generally, a decrease in soil moisture content limits the capacity of mass flow and nutrient diffusion. Especially the less mobile nutrients in soil, such as P, are affected by water deficit. Drought leads to formation of stable P compounds in soil (Hu and Schmidhalter, 2005) and can result in a decreased P absorption by plants (Samarah et al., 2004).

On the other hand, several studies reported that the application of P can improve growth and P uptake of plants under drought conditions and therefore ameliorate negative effects of water stress. For instance P fertilization can increase drought tolerance by advanced root growth. Therewith a larger volume of soil can be explored leading to a higher water and nutrient uptake and higher biomass production (Rodriguez and Oyarzabal, 1996; Gutiérrez-Boem and Thomas, 1999). Furthermore, P supply can enhance chlorophyll content and therewith rate of photosynthesis (Garg et al., 2004). Increased P fertilization has also a beneficial influence on the leaf metabolism, the relative water content (Shubhra et al., 2004) as well as the water use efficiency (He et al., 2002).

In general, P efficiency of crops varies widely. Well adapted plant species develop strategies to enhance the acquisition of P from soil. E.g. they explore a greater volume of soil through modified root morphology like increased root hair density and roots length (Bates and Lynch, 2001; Ma et al., 2001; Abel et al., 2002,) and they increase the root to shoot ratio (Ramaekers et al., 2010). Furthermore, the availability of P compounds can be improved by crop species through rhizosphere modification like shifting pH and excretion of protons (Wittenmayer and Merbach, 2005), organic acids (Römer, 2006; Carvalhais, 2011) and phosphatases (Wang et al., 2008). Therefore, the cultivation of

different crops can result in very different contents of high soluble P in soil (Schiemenz & Eichler-Löbermann, 2010; Eichler-Löbermann et al., 2008).

Organic P compounds are important sources for plant P supply. The largest fraction of organic P appears in form of phytin and its derivatives (Dalal, 1978; Schilling, 2000).

Primarily the activity of phosphatases in soils plays an important role in P cycling transforming organic P in plant available forms (Nuruzzaman et al., 2006). Alkaline (AIP) and acid phosphatase (AcP) can be excreted by crops and microorganisms, whereas higher crops avoid excretion of AIP (Dick et al., 2000).

The activity of phosphatases is influenced by crop species and even varieties. Investigations of Li et al. (2004) showed that chickpea roots were able to secrete greater amounts of AcP than maize and therewith increased hydrolysis of phytates. Ciereszko et al. (2011) found differences in two wheat varieties related to their ability to induce soil phosphatase activity.

The activity of phosphatases usually increases when the P nutrition status in soil decreases (Tarañdar and Claassen, 2005; Krey et al., 2011). Therefore, the activity of phosphatase may play a key role to enhance availability of organic P under dry conditions.

In the past mainly the effects of mineral P were investigated in the context of drought stress. However, information about the utilisation of organic P under water deficiency is rarely available. Therefore, in a pot experiment we cultivated 4 different crops on a soil differing in water and phytin supply.

The objective of this work was to (I) evaluate the ability of different crop species to utilize P under drought conditions, (II) explore the effect of organic P supply on plant and soil parameters in relation to the water supply.

Material and methods

Soil

The soil used for the pot experiment was collected from the A-horizon of a long-term field experiment of the University of Rostock in Northern Germany. The soil was classified as loamy sand. Initial plant-available soil P content of 40.6 mg kg^{-1} (Pdl) indicated a suboptimal P status of the used soil (Table 1). The soil reaction was medium acid ($\text{pH}(\text{H}_2\text{O}) = 5.3$, $\text{pH}(\text{CaCl}_2) = 4.9$).

Treatments and experimental design

An outdoor pot experiment was established in May, 2009 consisting of 4 plant species, 2 levels of irrigation, 2 fertilization treatments and 4 replicates.

Table 1:
Soil properties at the beginning of the pot experiment

pH (CaCl ₂)	Pw (mg kg ⁻¹)	Pdl (mg kg ⁻¹)	Pox (mmol kg ⁻¹)	DPS (%)	PSC (mmol kg ⁻¹)	K dl (mg kg ⁻¹)	Mg dl (mg kg ⁻¹)
4.91	6.15	40.6	16.9	49.3	26.2	64.9	140.0

Pw = water soluble P; Pdl, Kdl, Mgdl = double lactate P, K, Mg; Pox = oxalate soluble P; DPS = degree of P saturation; PSC = P sorption capacity

Mitscherlich pots were filled with 6 kg air dried and 2 mm sieved soil. Before sowing, plant nutrients had been mixed thoroughly with the soil (per pot: 1.4 g NH₄NO₃, 1.4 g MgSO₄·7H₂O, 1.9 g KCl). Organic P supply (P1) was established with 0.4 g P per pot by supply of phytin (C₆H₁₆CaO₂₄P₆). A treatment without P supply (P0) was used as control.

The following crops (species and varieties) were cultivated: sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor* x *Sorghum sudanense*, Inka), amaranth (*Amaranthus cruentus*, Bärnkrafft), oil-seed rape (*Brassica napus*, Palma) and rye (*Secale cereal*, Arantes).

Until BBCH 13 irrigation was done according to crop demand with distilled water for all pots. Afterwards two levels of irrigation were established. The drought treatment was irrigated according to 30 % of the water holding capacity (WHC) of the soil. The well watered control treatment was irrigated according to 60 % WHC. The pots were weighed every second day and the consumed amount of water was replaced accordingly to the treatments. Pots were placed under natural weather conditions; a shelter excluded rainfall to avoid uncontrolled irrigation of the pot experiment.

All plants were harvested after eight weeks of growth. Leave samples were taken, ground in liquid nitrogen and stored at -21 °C until chemical analyses were performed. The remaining plant material was oven-dried at 60 °C until constancy of weight.

Six soil cores (3 cm diameter) were taken per pot, mixed and divided into two sub-samples. Soil samples for biochemical analyses were stored frozen. The other samples were air-dried and passed through a 2 mm sieve before determining chemical soil parameters.

Plant and soil analyses

The shoot P concentration was measured after dry ashing and digestion in 20 % HCl. For P determination the vanadate-molybdate method by Page et al. (1982) was used. The P uptake was calculated from dry matter yield and P content.

Proline analyses were performed from the plant samples as described previously by Bates et al. (1973). Absorbance was measured at 520 nm using a spectrophotometer.

Content of double lactate soluble P (Pdl) as well as soil pH (CaCl₂) were measured according to Blume et al. (2000). Water-extractable P (Pw) in soil was determined as described by Van der Paauw et al. (1971). The P concentration was measured with the phosphomolybdate blue method via flow-injection analysis. The oxalate soluble content of P, aluminium (Al), and iron (Fe) in soil (Pox, Alox, Feox) were analysed by shaking 2 g of soil in acid oxalate solution (100 ml) for 1 h in the dark in accordance to Schwertmann (1964). With these data the P sorption capacity (PSC = [Alox + Feox] / 2 (mmol kg⁻¹)) and the degree of P saturation (DPS [%] = Pox / PSC × 100) were calculated according to Lookman et al. (1995) and Schoumans (2000). Concentration in the filtrate of the elements was determined by inductively coupled plasma (ICP) spectrometry.

Acid and alkaline phosphatase (AcP and AlP) activities were determined using the method of Tabatabai and Bremner (1969). The enzyme activity was measured in μmol p-nitrophenol released from p-nitrophenylphosphate solution in 1 g soil within 1 hour (μmol p-nitrophenol g⁻¹ h⁻¹).

Statistics

Soil and plant data of 4 replicates were subjected to an analysis of variance (General linear model, GLM).

To compare means of soil and plant parameters the Duncan multiple range test was used. Significance was determined at $p < 0.05$, and significantly different means were indicated using different letters.

Results

Effects of water and P supply on plant biomass, P uptake and proline accumulation in leaves

On average, **shoot biomass** increased significantly with organic P and higher water supply. The effect of organic P supply on shoot biomass in this study was found to be higher than the effect of drought stress (Eta^2 0.822 vs. 0.587). P supply resulted in 30 % biomass increase (average of all crops), whereas higher water supply resulted in about 10 % higher biomass weights. Shoot biomass of rye and oilseed rape were highest in both water levels. Low shoot biomass was found for sorghum.

The impact of drought stress, as well as the effect of organic P supply on shoot biomass was found to be different in relation to the cultivated crop species. In our experiment sorghum and rye, but not amaranth and oilseed rape showed a significant reduction of shoot biomass under drought stress compared to well watered conditions (Table 2).

The positive effects of P supply on shoot biomass was comparable in the 60 % WHC and 30 % WHC treatments for amaranth (30.7 % to 33.3 %) and oilseed rape (16.8 % to 16.6 %). For sorghum (73.1 % to 38.7 %) and rye (40.7 % to 19.5 %) the effect of P supply was higher in well watered treatment compared to drought treatment.

In general, the **P uptake** differed between crop species and was influenced by the P supply. A low P uptake was found for sorghum, which was related to the low biomass of sorghum.

The P uptake for amaranth and oilseed rape was not decreased under drought stress, whereas drought stress reduced the P uptake of sorghum and rye in comparison to well watered conditions (Table 2).

Compared to treatments without P supply the organic P application significantly increased the P uptake for amaranth, oilseed rape and rye and in tendency for sorghum in both water treatments.

The **proline** content is a common metabolic response of higher plants to osmotic stresses like water deficits. Huge differences of the proline concentrations were found between crops. Highest values of proline were measured in C3 plants oilseed rape (46.7 µmol g⁻¹ TM) followed by rye (7.38 µmol g⁻¹ TM), whereas much lower contents were determined in the C4 plants sorghum (1.30 µmol g⁻¹ TM) and amaranth (1.97 µmol g⁻¹ TM) (Table 2).

In our experiment oilseed rape and rye had a considerably higher proline concentration under drought conditions than in the treatment with 60 % WHC. In contrast, sorghum and amaranth did not show any differences in proline concentration in dependency of water supply.

P supply lead to a significant decrease of proline content in sorghum leaves under both irrigation regimes. The same tendency was shown for amaranth. In contrast, the proline values of rye were about 4 times higher after P supply in combination with drought stress.

Effects of water and P supply on chemical soil characteristics in relation to crop species

Generally, the organic P supply as well as the crop species but not the water supply had significant effects on pH value and on soil P pools.

Table 2:

Shoot biomass, P uptake and proline accumulation as affected by water treatment, P supply and crop species

P supply	WHC %	Sorghum	Amaranth	Oilseed rape	Rye
Shoot biomass (g pot ⁻¹)					
PO	60	6.70 ab	12.7 a	17.3 ab	23.6 b
	30	6.20 a	12.9 a	15.7 a	20.0 a
P1	60	11.6 c	16.6 b	20.2 c	33.2 c
	30	8.60 b	17.2 b	18.3 bc	23.9 b
Mean		8.30 A	14.9 B	17.9 C	25.2 D
P-uptake of the shoots (mg pot ⁻¹)					
PO	60	18.6 bc	35.9 a	38.1 a	37.7 b
	30	12.1 a	43.6 b	42.0 a	32.7 a
P1	60	20.3 c	56.4 c	47.9 b	53.9 d
	30	14.1 ab	61.5 c	52.6 b	42.0 c
Mean		16.3 A	49.4 D	45.2 C	41.6 B
Proline content (µmol/g TM)					
PO	60	1.61 b	2.11 a	3.80 a	0.84 a
	30	1.51 b	2.24 a	78.4 b	4.75 a
P1	60	0.90 a	1.50 a	18.6 a	0.68 a
	30	1.13 a	1.93 a	75.2 b	23.2 b
Mean		1.30 A	1.97 A	46.7 B	7.38 A

different letters indicate significant different means at $p \leq 0.05$ between the water and the fertilizer treatments,
different capital letters indicate significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$ between crop species

Table 3:

Chemical properties in soil (pH, Pw, Pdl, Pox, DPS and PSC) as affected by water treatment, P supply and crop species

P supply	WHC %	Sorghum	Amaranth	Oilseed rape	Rye
pH (CaCl_2)					
PO	60	4.62 a	4.35 a	4.76 a	4.73 a
	30	4.66 a	4.43 a	4.69 a	4.79 a
P1	60	4.69 a	4.44 a	4.76 a	4.84 a
	30	4.68 a	4.41 a	4.81 a	4.88 a
Mean		4.66 B	4.41 A	4.75 C	4.80 D
Pw (mg kg^{-1})					
PO	60	4.99 a	5.37 a	5.38 a	4.72 a
	30	4.53 a	5.68 b	4.85 a	5.23 a
P1	60	6.50 b	6.53 bc	5.77 a	6.24 b
	30	6.99 b	6.88 c	5.40 a	6.30 b
Mean		5.75 B	6.14 C	5.38 A	5.62 AB
Pdl (mg kg^{-1})					
PO	60	35.8 a	32.0 a	31.5 a	29.9 ab
	30	37.2 a	30.4 a	31.0 a	29.1 a
P1	60	39.9 b	31.7 a	32.9 a	31.3 bc
	30	42.7 c	31.5 a	31.2 a	32.9 c
Mean		38.9 B	31.4 A	31.7 A	30.8 A
Pox (mmol kg^{-1})					
PO	60	14.3 a	11.0 a	13.0 a	12.5 a
	30	13.8 a	9.78 a	13.5 a	12.1 a
P1	60	16.5 b	13.0 b	16.3 b	14.4 a
	30	16.7 b	13.8 b	16.8 b	14.4 a
Mean		15.3 C	11.9 A	14.9 C	13.3 B
DPS (%)					
PO	60	46.4 a	36.6 a	45.7 a	42.8 a
	30	46.0 a	33.8 a	44.9 a	42.1 a
P1	60	53.4 b	43.8 b	54.9 b	48.8 a
	30	54.2 b	44.2 b	55.2 b	50.3 a
Mean		50.0 C	39.6 A	50.18 C	46.0 B
PSC (mmol/kg^{-1})					
PO	60	30.8 a	30.1 a	28.6 a	29.2 a
	30	30.1 a	28.8 a	30.0 a	28.7 a
P1	60	30.9 a	29.7 a	29.8 a	29.4 a
	30	31.0 a	31.3 a	30.5 a	28.6 a
Mean		30.7 A	30.0 A	29.7 A	29.0 A

different letters indicate significant different means at $p \leq 0.05$ between the water and the fertilizer treatments,different capital letters indicate significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$ between crop species

In our experiment, the **pH values** were mainly influenced by the cultivation of different crop species, which all resulted in a further decrease of the initially low values. Mainly after amaranth cultivation extremely low values of pH 4.41 were found (Table 3),

The organic P supply had a positive effect on plant available P pools in soil, in both water treatments. In particular the **Pw** values increased with organic P application. Despite the high P uptake of amaranth, highest Pw concentration in soil were found after cultivation of this crop (Table 3).

P supply also increased the **Pdl** values in combination with sorghum and rye significantly compared to control without P addition. Pw and Pdl values tended to be higher under water deficiency, which can be explained by lower plant P uptake rates (Table 3). Negative correlation between P uptake and Pw ($r = -0.714 **$) and P uptake and Pdl ($r = -0.711 **$) were found.

The supply of organic P increased **Pox** and **DPS** significantly for sorghum, amaranth and oilseed rape and in tendency for rye in both water treatments. In contrast to the Pw content lowest Pox values were measured after amaranth cultivation ($11.9 \text{ mmol kg}^{-1}$) (Table 3).

Neither water and P supply, nor crop species affected the PSC in this experiment (Table 3).

Effects of water and P supply on enzyme activity of different crops

The activity of phosphatases was strongly influenced by water availability, P supply and crop species. The highest AcP values were measured for oilseed rape and rye with 210 and $223 \mu\text{g p-nitrophenol/g/h}$.

Water shortage yielded a higher activity of AcP in soil in comparison to sufficiently watered treatments. Significantly higher values due to drought stress were found for oilseed rape (42.9 %), amaranth (25.1 %) and rye (9.54 %) in treatments without P supply, and for sorghum (15.4 %), amaranth (13.3 %) and rye (10.6 %) in treatments with P application. Generally, the activity of AcP was found to increase after organic P supply (Table 4).

The activity of AIP was about 10 % of the AcP activity. Highest AIP values were measured after sorghum and rye cultivation. The effects of drought stress on AIP depended on the P supply. In treatments without P supply drought stress significantly decreased AIP activity for sorghum and amaranth. In contrast, in the phytin treatments drought stress increased the activity of AIP in combination with amaranth, sorghum and rye cultivation (Table 4).

Discussion

Effect of water supply on P uptake of different crop species

Shoot biomass and P uptake of crop species are usually reduced under dry soil conditions (e. g. Pinkerton and Simpson, 1986). The results of our experiment showed a reduced biomass and P uptake only for sorghum and rye, while the P uptake of amaranth and oilseed rape was not affected by drought stress.

Oilseed rape is described to have a high P efficiency when cultivated on P poor soil, which can be explained by root exudates modifying the biochemical conditions in the rhizosphere (Zhang et al., 1997; Bertrand et al., 1999). This crop is also adapted to P starvation by developing an extensive root system to explore a higher soil volume (Hendriks et al., 1981; Wang et al., 2007). Advanced root growth may also enhance the uptake of water and other nutrients under drought conditions and therewith elevate plant growth. In addition, in our experiment oilseed rape showed by far the highest proline contents in leaves which

Table 4:

Enzyme activities in soil (AcP and AIP) as affected by water treatment, P supply and crop species

P supply	WHC %	Sorghum	Amaranth	Oilseed rape	Rye
AcP ($\mu\text{g p-nitrophenol/g TS/h}$)					
PO	60	178.0 a	148.7 a	160.8 a	206.6 a
	30	180.7 a	185.9 b	229.9 b	226.3 b
P1	60	190.2 a	195.6 c	221.2 b	218.8 b
	30	219.4 b	221.6 d	231.3 b	242.0 c
Mean		192.1 A	188.0 A	210.8 B	223.4 C
AIP ($\mu\text{g p-nitrophenol/g TS/h}$)					
PO	60	12.4 b	9.42 b	11.6 a	12.4 a
	30	8.12 a	7.80 a	11.5 a	12.3 a
P1	60	13.3 b	10.8 c	11.3 a	12.6 a
	30	17.3 c	14.7 d	11.4 a	13.5 b
Mean		12.8 C	10.7 A	11.4 B	12.7 C

different letters indicate significant different means at $p \leq 0.05$ between the water and the fertilizer treatments,
different capital letters indicate significant differences at $p \leq 0.05$ between crop species

were further increased under drought stress. This seems to indicate an adaptation mechanism of oilseed rape to drought stress. Müller et al. (2010) found that oilseed rape plants react to drought stress with osmotic adjustment to keep up tissue metabolic activity and enable re-growth upon re-wetting. Maintenance of physiological plant parameters may also sustain the P uptake of the roots under water deficiency.

Besides oilseed rape **amaranth** was found to maintain P uptake also under drought conditions. The further decrease of pH values in soil after amaranth cultivation might have affected the P availability, although an improved availability due to a further decrease of soil pH can be hardly expected when considering the low initial pH values of the soil. In contrast to its high P uptake amaranth cultivation also resulted in highest values of plant available P_w in soil.

Our results confirmed findings in other studies, showing the overall high nutrient uptake of amaranth (Escudero et al., 1999), the high P uptake efficiency (Ojo et al., 2010) as well as a relatively good adaptation to drought stress (Hura et al., 2007). These authors demonstrated that amaranth maintained the leaf water potential under water deficiency which resulted in less water stress especially at an early stage of growth. Liu and Stützel (2004) found a decreased leaf area per root dry mass for amaranth under drought affecting the balance between water-losing and water-gaining organs.

In our experiment the shoot biomass and the water use efficiency (data not shown) of **rye** were highest of all crops in both water treatments. However, drought resulted in a decrease of shoot biomass and P uptake. Water deficiency was also found to reduce these characteristics for **sorghum**. Generally, rye and sorghum are considered to be adapted to marginal land and to be efficient in water and nutrient uptake (Baon et al., 1994; Berenji and Dahlberg, 2004). It might be speculated that the drought effects on sorghum had been lower under field conditions due to the fast growing root system of sorghum that can explore large soil volumes. Other relevant aspects are the intensity of drought and the growth stage (Al-Karaki et al., 1995; Khalili et al., 2008). Schittenhelm (2010) found that sorghum achieved its maximum biomass yield already at medium water supply with 40 to 50 % of plant available soil water, but reduced biomass considerably when water supply was lower. For rye, negative effect of drought stress on plant growth was also shown by Hlavinka et al. (2009).

The general low shoot biomass formation of sorghum in our investigation was most probably caused by the low temperatures at the beginning of our outdoor pot experiment. Sorghum is known for its cold stress sensitivity (Anda et al., 1994). Acid soil reaction was also shown to reduce the growth of varieties of *Sorghum bicolor* (Duncan, 1991).

Effect of P supply on P uptake of different crop species

In the present study the organic P supply was found to have a greater impact on plant growth than the water supply. P addition increased the P uptake and shoot biomass of the crops in both water treatments. Though, the increasing effect of P supply was usually higher in well watered treatments, which point to the growth limiting effect of water.

From the other point of view, the reduction of shoot biomass for sorghum and rye due to drought was more pronounced in treatments with P than in treatments without P supply. This can be explained by increased plant growth after P supply, which resulted in higher water consumption and the following negative effect through increasing drought stress, as also described by Hu and Schmidhalter (2005). Rye reacted with a significant increased proline accumulation in leaves when P was supplied, which was also an indicator for higher water stress in the fertilized treatment.

In general, the results showed a positive effect of organic P supply on plant parameters. However, the findings did not indicate an increased drought tolerance of the tested crop species as a consequence of the organic P supply.

Effect of water and P supply on chemical soil characteristics

The soil P pools in our study were affected by crop species and P supply. Generally plant available P pools in soil increased when phytin was applied, even the water soluble P content. Thus it may be assumed that organically bound P was mineralized rapidly into highly soluble mineral P forms, irrespective of the water supply.

Drought stress did not lower the plant available P pools in soil in the presented pot experiment. In contrast, increased values were found which were in accordance to lower rates of P uptake. Probably, permanent drought stress under field conditions could reduce plant available P by forming more insoluble compounds in soil, as was shown in other studies, e.g. by Garcia et al. (2008).

The cultivation of the different crop species strongly influenced P_{d1} content in soil. A negative, significant correlation between P uptake and P_{d1} was found ($r = 0,711^{**}$). Therewith P_{d1} content decreased with increasing P demand.

Effect of water and P supply on enzyme activity

The supply of organic P as phytin increased the activities of AcP and AlP compared to treatments without P. Usually, the activity of phosphatases in soil increases with organic P application, catalyzing the transformation of organic P like phytin into plant-available P forms (Yadav and Tarafdar,

2001). In contrast, inorganic P sources did not cause an increase of phosphatase activity in soil (Yadav and Tarafdar, 2001; Wang et al., 2008).

The results of the present research also demonstrate that AcP activity increased under water deficiency. This may contribute to P supply of plants from organic sources under drought conditions.

Conclusions

The results of this study indicate that an application of organic P as phytin can improve the P availability in soil and increase shoot biomass and P uptake under drought conditions. On the other hand, increased plant growth by P supply causes a higher water demand and may enforce negative effects of drought stress. As a consequence, we suggest moderate P fertilizer rates on deficient soils in relation to the water availability of the site. Further studies under field conditions need to be carried out to quantify the interactive role of drought stress and organic P forms in relation to crop species on plant productivity.

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The effect of feed composition and feeding strategies on excretion rates in German pig production

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Abstract

In order to improve the methods and update the data for the German agricultural emission inventory, a survey was made among pig nutrition experts to obtain representative diet compositions and feeding strategies. The analysis shows that the introduction of phase feeding results in reduced excretion rates of volatile solids. Contrary to expectations, the direct effect on all other excretion rates is comparatively small. However, phase feeding with its typical all-in-all-out management results in extended production cycles as fattening of new animal groups commences after cleansing and disinfection, and these do not commence before the last animal left the respective compartment. This leads to a reduction of emissions per place. The effect of diets adjusted to crude protein demands is obvious. Improvement of standard diet is a clear option to reduce emissions.

As the emissions of methane from manure management, as well as those of all nitrogen species, are directly related to the respective amounts excreted, the calculations using detailed information on feed composition will result in reduced emission rates from pig production.

Keywords: pigs, feed, phase feeding, production cycles, excretion, methane, volatile solids, nitrogen, TAN

Zusammenfassung

Der Einfluss von Futterzusammensetzung und Fütterungsstrategien auf die Ausscheidungsraten in der deutschen Schweineproduktion

Zur methodischen Verbesserung und Aktualisierung der deutschen landwirtschaftlichen Emissionsinventare für Schweine wurden repräsentative Futterzusammensetzungen und Daten zu Fütterungsstrategien bei Fütterungsexperten erfragt. Die Auswertung zeigt, dass mit der Einführung der Phasenfütterung die Ausscheidungen von umsetzbarem Kohlenstoff (volatile solids) verringert werden. Der direkte Einfluss auf alle anderen Ausscheidungen ist wider Erwarten gering. Bedingt durch das Mastmanagement der Rein-Raus-Methode verlängern sich die Produktionszyklen. Eine neue Tiergruppe kann erst eingestallt werden, wenn das letzte Tier das Stallabteil geräumt hat und die Reinigung und Desinfektion erfolgt ist. Dies verringert die Emissionen pro Platz erheblich. Der Effekt von N-anangepasster Fütterung ist klar zu erkennen, ebenso das Potential, das bei verbesserter Standardfütterung noch ausgeschöpft werden kann.

Da die Mengen der Ausscheidungen linear die Menge der Emissionen von Methan aus dem Lager sowie sämtlicher Stickstoff-Spezies beeinflusst, werden die Berechnungen unter Verwendung detaillierter Futterzusammensetzungen zu niedrigeren Emissionen aus der Schweine-Produktion führen.

Schlüsselwörter: Schweine, Futter, Phasenfütterung, Produktionszyklen, Ausscheidung, Methan, „volatile solids“, Stickstoff, TAN

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1 Introduction

Pig production is an important sector in German agriculture. It is also a key source of greenhouse gas and ammonia emissions. During the past decades, methods in pig production have changed. This has been due to changes in genetics, feeding, housing, and manure management. According to Good Practice Rules, emission reporting has to reflect these changes as far as possible.

Changes in genetics have been reflected in the performance data used to describe energy intake (Haenel et al., 2011). Housing and manure management as well as the role of air scrubbers have been dealt with in recent publications (Dämmgen et al., 2010; 2011a, b). Changes in feeding practices have not been taken into account yet.

The purpose of this work is the compilation of regional data on feed composition and feeding regimes in a way that allows their incorporation into emission inventories.

In order to illustrate the effects of changing feeding practices, the feed intake rates and excretion rates are calculated for standard animals (see below).

2 Modelling procedures and data requirements

The first step in the calculation of emissions from animal husbandry is the assessment of energy requirements and feed intake rates. Both guidance documents (IPCC, 1996; 2006; EEA, 2009) presuppose that animals are fed according to energy requirements. The second step is the calculation of relevant excretion rates. Methane (CH_4) is directly released as a consequence of enteric fermentation in the digestive tract. Excretions of volatile solids (VS) lead to the emissions of CH_4 from the storage of animal faeces. Excretion of total nitrogen (N) and total ammoniacal nitrogen (TAN) govern the release of ammonia (NH_3), nitrous and nitric oxides (N_2O , NO), and di-nitrogen (N_2) in the animal house, during manure storage and during and after its application. Here, the guidance documents outline the procedure; they also suppose the use of national approaches and data as far as possible.

2.1 Energy intake rates

Energy requirements are the entities governing feed intake rates. The German system makes use of the metabolizable energy (ME) requirements that are calculated according to Flachowsky et al. (2006) as described in Haenel et al. (2011).

The methodology distinguishes between the following subcategories of livestock:

Sows and suckling pigs are treated together. Energy requirements are calculated for two gravidity phases, for the lactating period and the period between weaning and

mating. The number of piglets raised, their final weight and the mean weight of the sow are taken into account.

The *standard sow* used in this work has a mean weight of 200 kg animal⁻¹. No weight gain is considered. 23 piglets are raised and weaned at a weight of 8.5 kg animal⁻¹.

Weaners, fattening pigs and boars (mature males for reproduction) are treated in a similar manner. Their weight and weight gains are considered as drivers for energy requirements. For details see Haenel et al. (2011).

The *standard weaners* have a mean weight gain of 410 g animal⁻¹ d⁻¹ and a final weight of 28.5 kg animal⁻¹. The number of production cycles per year takes a service and disinfection period of 8 d round⁻¹ into account.

Standard fatteners are assumed to have a mean weight gain of 750 g animal⁻¹ d⁻¹ and a final weight of 110 kg animal⁻¹. Service and disinfection periods are variable.

Standard boars have a mean weight of 180 kg animal⁻¹. A weight gain is not taken into account.

2.2 Feed intake rates and feed properties

In addition to the differentiation of subcategories, feeding-phases¹, and administrative region (e.g. federal state or – within Niedersachsen (Lower Saxony) – rural districts) are taken into account. Unless stated otherwise, variables should be subscripted accordingly; a given variable $X_{i,j,k}$ would therefore relate to livestock subcategory i in the feeding phase j and for the region k. Any element of an equation that is constant across livestock category, feeding phase and region is indicated as constant.

Calculation of weighted means. The livestock diets commonly consist of a mixture of constituents. The characteristics of the complete diet (specific ME content etc.) are calculated using a weighted average, so for a given characteristic Z in a diet containing N constituents, the value for the complete diet is:

$$Z = \sum_{n=1}^N (Z_n \cdot X_n) \quad (1)$$

where

Z weighted mean of a given characteristic Z
 Z_n value of the characteristic for the nth constituent
 X_n proportion that the nth constituent contributes to the mass of the complete diet (in kg kg⁻¹)

and

$$\sum_{n=1}^N X_n = 1 \quad \sum_{a=1}^A X_a = 1 \quad (1a)$$

¹ A feeding-phase is defined as a period during which the composition of a diet is kept unchanged. Both beginning and end of a feeding-phase are defined by animal weights.

Feed intake rates (dry matter, DM) are deduced from energy intake rates according to Equation (2):

$$m_{\text{DM, feed, i, j, k}} = \frac{ME_{i, j, k}}{\eta_{\text{ME, i, j, k}}} \quad (2)$$

where

$m_{\text{DM, feed, i, j, k}}$	feed intake rate (DM) for an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in kg animal ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ DM)
$ME_{i, j, k}$	ME requirements of an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in MJ animal ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
$\eta_{\text{ME, i, j, k}}$	specific ME content of feed for an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in MJ kg ⁻¹)

Nitrogen intake rates are obtained by combining feed intake rates with N contents of the feed constituents:

$$m_{\text{N, feed, i, j, k}} = \frac{ME_{i, j, k}}{\eta_{\text{ME, i, j, k}}} \cdot \eta_{\text{N, feed, i, j, k}} \quad (3)$$

where

$m_{\text{N, feed, i, j, k}}$	rate of N intake (dry matter) for an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in kg animal ⁻¹ d ⁻¹ DM)
$ME_{i, j, k}$	metabolizable energy requirements for an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in MJ animal ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
$\eta_{\text{ME, i, j, k}}$	specific ME content of feed for an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
$\eta_{\text{N, feed, i, j, k}}$ mean	N content of feed of an animal subcategory i in a feeding phase j and a region k (in kg ⁻¹ kg ⁻¹)

The mean N contents are weighted means obtained in analogy to Equations (1) and (1a).

Mean feed properties (such as mean gross energy contents $\eta_{\text{GE, i, j, k}}$, mean ash contents $X_{\text{ash, i, j, k}}$) are also weighted means calculated from the respective feed constituents' properties as in Equation (1).

With few exceptions, standard specific ME, GE, N, and ash contents and digestibilities are obtained from Jentsch et al. (2004), crude protein (XP) contents from the lists provided by LfL (2009) and DLG (2011).

The relevant properties of the diet constituents considered are listed in Table 1.

Regional feed compositions were supplied by experts (see Chapter 3).

2.3 Methane excretion from enteric fermentation

IPCC (1996) relates the amount of CH₄ released from enteric fermentation to the gross energy (GE) intake. With data available for German pig production this relation reads:

$$E_{\text{CH4, ent}} = \frac{ME}{\eta_{\text{ME}}} \cdot \eta_{\text{GE}} \cdot \frac{x_{\text{CH4}}}{\eta_{\text{CH4}}} \cdot \alpha \quad (4)$$

where

$E_{\text{CH4, ent}}$	rate of CH ₄ excretion (emission) from enteric fermentation (in kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄)
ME	intake rate of metabolizable energy (in MJ place ⁻¹ d ⁻¹)
η_{ME}	ME content of feed (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
η_{GE}	GE content of feed (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
x_{CH4}	methane conversion rate ($x_{\text{CH4}} = 0.006$ MJ MJ ⁻¹)
η_{CH4}	energy content of methane ($\eta_{\text{CH4}} = 55.65$ MJ (kg CH ₄) ⁻¹)
α	time units conversion factor ($\alpha = 365$ d a ⁻¹)

2.4 Volatile solids excretion rates

VS excretion rates are derived from the intake rates of metabolizable energy, the energy, and the ash contents of feed and the digestibility of organic matter, as expressed in Equation (5)².

$$VS_{\text{faeces}} = \frac{ME}{\eta_{\text{ME}}} \cdot (1 - X_{\text{ash, feed}}) \cdot (1 - X_{\text{DOM}}) \quad (5)$$

where

VS_{faeces}	volatile solids excretion rate with faeces (in kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹)
ME	intake rate of metabolizable energy (in MJ place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹)
η_{ME}	ME content of feed (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
$X_{\text{ash, feed}}$	ash content of feed (in kg kg ⁻¹)
X_{DOM}	apparent digestibility of organic matter (in kg kg ⁻¹)

2.5 Nitrogen excretion rates

The general N balance is used to assess the rates of overall N excreted:

$$m_{\text{excr}} = \frac{ME}{\eta_{\text{ME}}} \cdot \eta_{\text{N}} - m_l - m_g - m_p \quad (6)$$

where

m_{excr}	rate of N excreted (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
ME	ME intake rate with feed (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
η_{ME}	ME content of feed (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
η_{N}	N content of feed (in kg kg ⁻¹), derived from XP content

² This approach differs from the methodology previously used in German inventories (Rösemann et al., 2011). For details see Dämmgen et al. (2011a).

m_1	rate of N excreted with milk (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
m_g	rate of N retained in the animal (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
m_p	rate of N in offspring produced (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)

and

$$\eta_N = \frac{\eta_{XP}}{X_N} \quad (6a)$$

where

η_N	N content of feed (in kg kg ⁻¹)
η_{XP}	crude protein content of feed (in kg kg ⁻¹)
X_N	N content of crude protein in feed ($X_N = 1/6.25$ kg kg ⁻¹)

For sows with suckling-pigs m_1 is ignored in the inventory as the N balance covers the unit of a sow with her litter. Also, for sows, mean weight gains are not taken into account. Hence, m_g is zero for sows. The N content of growing pigs is 0.0256 kg kg⁻¹.

2.6 Total ammoniacal nitrogen excretion rates

It is assumed that TAN is excreted with urine only, whereas all organic N is contained in faeces³.

$$m_{\text{urine}} = \frac{ME}{\eta_{ME}} \cdot \eta_N \cdot X_{DN} - m_1 - m_g - m_p \quad (7)$$

where

m_{urine}	rate of N excreted with urine (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
ME	ME intake rate with feed (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
η_{ME}	ME content of feed (in MJ kg ⁻¹)
η_N	N content of feed (in kg kg ⁻¹)
X_{DN}	apparent digestibility of N (in kg kg ⁻¹)
m_1	rate of N excreted with milk (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
m_g	rate of N retained in the animal (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)
m_p	rate of N in offspring produced (kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N)

3 Data base

A survey was made in 2010 to provide information on feeds for sows with piglets, weaners, fatteners, and boars (for reproduction). This survey provided information about typical animal feed compositions among regions as well as on the frequency distribution of feeding phases, the share of diets with reduced N contents (RAM feed⁴), and the number of animal rounds per year for each German federal state and each year from 1990 to 2009.

³ The method used in Rösemann et al. (2011) was slightly modified by replacing the digestibility of energy by that of N.

⁴ RAM: Rohprotein-anangepasste Mischung: mixture adjusted to crude protein demands

3.1 Feed composition

3.1.1 Results of the survey

A survey was made to assess typical feed compositions for all regional feed types. As a rule, the local agricultural advisors provided various diets for each pig subcategory. So, in all, 288 diets were described, of which 86 were fed to sows, 66 to weaners and 122 to fattening pigs. Boars were normally fed on sow feed. The spatial resolution was to reflect the variability in German pig production that is obviously governed by soil properties and markets as well as tradition. For Niedersachsen, the federal state with the highest pig density, 11 regions were identified where the feed composition was likely to vary. All other federal states were assumed to be homogeneous with respect to their pig feed composition and feeding strategy.

Some advisors considered their information confidential. Hence, results will be anonymized.

3.1.2 Gap filling

One federal state did not provide data. Here, those data from the neighbouring federal states were used that would result in the most unfavourable excretion rates. This was to avoid underestimation of emissions.

For the city states of Hamburg, Bremen (with Bremerhaven), and Berlin data for Schleswig-Holstein, Niedersachsen, and Brandenburg were used, respectively. Saarland was described in the same way as Rheinland-Pfalz.

3.1.3 Temporal representativeness

The composition of feeds is assumed to have changed only to a lesser extent.

From 1996 onwards, the use of grain in the feed manufacturing industry has steadily increased from 35 percent in average over all kind of feed varieties to 44 percent (DVT, 2011). Grain replaced starch-rich by-products like manioc, imported from third countries, as well as by-products from the grain-milling industry like maize gluten feed. In December 2000 the use of by-products from animal origin which was used as protein and energy source in some feed for pigs and poultry was banned because of the BSE crisis. These feedstuffs were replaced by an increased use of, for instance, soya bean meal.

Figure 1 illustrates that the main properties have changed little over the last two decades.

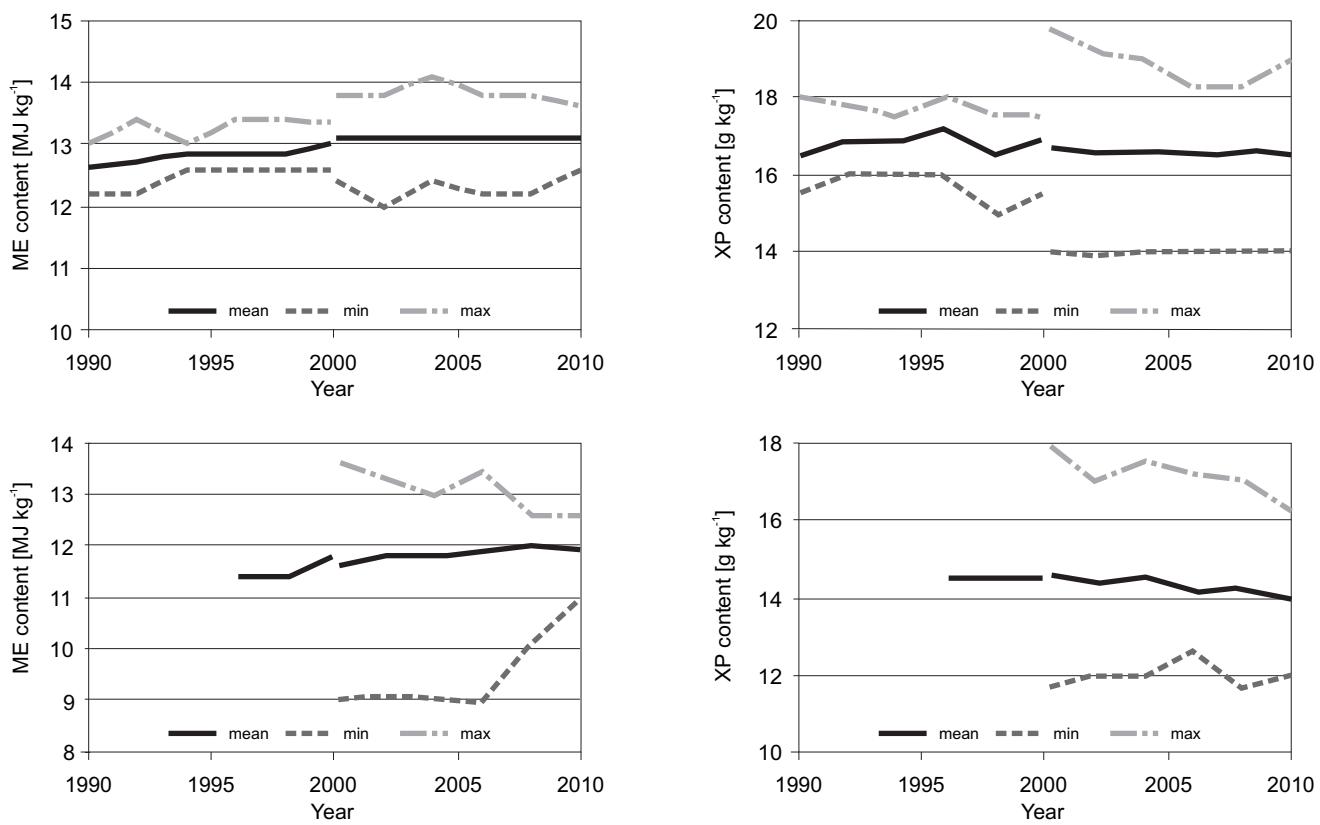


Figure 1

Temporal variation of ME and XP contents of various feeds. Above: fattening pig feeds; below: farrowing sow feeds. Data courtesy of K.-H. Grünwald, contents before 2000 from a limited number of samples, data after 2000 from about 300 to 250 and 140 to 200 samples per year for fattening pigs and sows, respectively.

3.2 Feed properties

3.2.1 Properties of feed constituents

Based on the equations provided in Chapter 2, the calculation of excretion rates for CH_4 , VS, N, and TAN presupposes knowledge of the following feed properties

- metabolizable energy content, η_{ME} , for all animals (feed intake rates)
- gross energy content, η_{GE} (assessment of emissions from enteric fermentation)
- digestibility for organic matter, X_{DOM} , (assessment of VS excretion rates)
- crude protein content, η_{XP} (N intake rate)
- digestibility of N, X_{DN} (assessment of TAN excretion rates)

In Europe, properties and composition of commodities have to be declared to some extent (EC, 2002). This covers the percentages of pig feed constituents as well as the mean ME, XP, and ash contents of the mix. Properties of feed constituents can be obtained from various data collations:

- DLG (2005) is considered to be the official expert judgement for Germany and national consent (Spiekers, head of the group of authors, pers. comm.). Table 3a in DLG (2005) is confined to the most important feed and contains DM, ME, and crude protein (XP) contents.
- LfL (2009) is an almost comprehensive data base. The information used for this work comprises the DM, ME, and XP contents.
- KTBL (unpublished) uses a collation of feed properties that contains the digestibilities X_{DOM} and X_{N} in addition to DM, ME, and XP contents.
- Jentsch et al. (2004) is a comprehensive and very detailed data base. Apart from GE, DE, ME, and ash contents it provides information on the digestibilities X_{DE} , X_{DOM} and X_{DN} .

3.2.2 Harmonization and data gap closing for feed constituents

The backbone of Table 1 is the data provided by Jentsch et al. (2004). In order to meet the "official" information in DLG (2005), weighted means had to be produced from Jentsch et al. (2004) data, such as a mixture of vari-

ous wheat qualities (wheat, full grains, 55 %; wheat, full grains, protein rich, 25 %; wheat, flat grains, 20 %). This applies to green meal, barley, wheat and oat, wheat and rye brans, rape seed expeller, and fish meal.

For some feed constituents (soya and rape seed oils) some properties could be extracted from DLG Futtermittelnet (DLG, 2011).

Properties of corn steep could be deduced from information provided by the manufacturer (Beuker, undated).

Table 1:
Nutritional properties of feed constituents in pig production.

Feed constituent	English	German	DLG/LfL			Jentsch et al.					
			η_{ME} MJ kg ⁻¹	η_{XP} %	η_N kg kg ⁻¹	η_{ME} MJ kg ⁻¹	η_N kg kg ⁻¹	η_{GE} MJ kg ⁻¹	η_{ash} kg kg ⁻¹	X_{DE} MJ MJ ⁻¹	X_{DOM} kg kg ⁻¹
green meal	Grünmehl		7.72	18.71	0.026	7.76		18.24	0.097	0.54	0.57
wheat	Weizen		15.45	13.75	0.022	15.45		18.51	0.027	0.85	0.88
triticale	Triticale		12.73	12.05	0.019	15.59		18.26	0.021	0.87	0.90
rye	Roggen		15.34	10.23	0.016	15.19		18.29	0.021	0.85	0.88
barley	Gerste		14.43	12.39	0.020	14.57		18.46	0.025	0.81	0.84
oat	Hafer		12.73	12.05	0.019	12.72		19.09	0.037	0.68	0.70
CCM	CCM		14.89	10.00	0.016	14.61		18.91	0.020	0.80	0.82
maize	Mais		16.02	10.57	0.017	16.00		18.88	0.017	0.86	0.89
maize flakes	Maisflocken		16.02	10.57	0.017	16.00		18.88	0.017	0.86	0.89
millet	Hirse		14.67	12.95	0.021	15.80		18.68	0.019	0.86	0.90
linseed	Leinsamen		18.33	24.84	0.040	20.00		26.75	0.050	0.81	0.79
potato peel	Kartoffelschalen		13.97	15.45	0.025	11.16		17.06	0.075	0.71	0.76
potato chips	Kartoffelchips					15.50	0.014	15.61	0.045	0.90	0.94
sugar beet pulp	Trockenschnitzel		9.04	10.04	0.016	8.98		18.02	0.055	0.74	0.79
sugar beet pulp with molasses	Melasseschnitzel					9.77	0.017	17.49	0.050	0.77	0.82
bakery waste	Backabfälle		16.65	12.09	0.019	14.38		19.26	0.030	0.80	0.83
wheat bran	Weizenkleie		9.43	16.02	0.026	9.46		18.91	0.064	0.59	0.60
rye bran	Roggenkleie		10.09	16.36	0.026	10.06		13.13	0.068	0.63	0.66
oat flakes	Haferflocken		16.56	12.86	0.021	16.32		19.04	0.025	0.89	0.91
oat bran	Haferschälkleie		6.20	7.49	0.012	6.76		18.76	0.055	0.39	0.40
wheat gluten feed	Weizenkleber					10.87	0.023	20.26	0.030	0.66	0.68
maize gluten feed	Maiskleberfutter		12.15	26.16	0.042	11.72		19.11	0.045	0.68	0.70
distillers dried grains with solubles	Weizenschlempe		11.33	36.93	0.059	11.06		20.05	0.065	0.70	0.71
maize starch	Maisstärke					16.81	0.001	17.30	0.010	0.95	0.98
maize germs	Malzkeime		8.68	29.57	0.047	11.08		18.65	0.066	0.69	0.71
apple pomace	Apfelrestreter					6.06	0.009	19.23	0.030	0.43	0.43
molasses	Melasse		13.28	12.84	0.021	12.79		15.23	0.110	0.90	0.93
peanut oil	Erdnussöl					36.65	0.006	39.80	0.000	0.97	0.98
soya oil	Sojaöl		37.36	0.00	0.000						
rape seed oil	Rapsöl		36.62	0.00	0.000						
sunflower oil	Sonnenblumenöl		36.62	0.00	0.000						
sugar	Zucker		15.16	1.45	0.002	14.75		16.00	0.000	0.95	0.96
peas	Erbsen		15.68	25.11	0.040	15.63		18.75	0.038	0.85	0.89

Some less frequently used feed constituents were left without any or an inconsistent data set. They were replaced by similar constituents:

- maize flakes by maize (all properties)
- rape seed and sunflower oils by soya oil (digestibilities only)
- soya protein by soya beans (all properties)
- soya pulp by legume seed hulls (all properties)
- fish oil by fish juice (all properties)
- lignocellulose by grain straw (all properties)
- rice gluten feed by wheat gluten feed (all properties)
- palm butter by peanut oil (all properties)

Feed constituent	English	German	DLG/LfL			Jentsch et al.					
			η_{ME}	η_{XP}	η_N	η_{ME}	η_N	η_{GE}	η_{ash}	η_{DE}	η_{DOM}
			MJ kg ⁻¹	%	kg kg ⁻¹	MJ kg ⁻¹	kg kg ⁻¹	MJ kg ⁻¹	kg kg ⁻¹	MJ kg ⁻¹	kg kg ⁻¹
faba bean	Ackerbohne		14.77	29.77	0.048	14.84		18.95	0.040	0.83	0.85
soya bean	Sojabohne		17.57	40.43	0.065	18.45		23.96	0.050	0.83	0.86
soya protein	Sojaeiweißkonzentrat		17.57	40.43	0.065	18.45		23.96	0.050	0.83	0.86
linseed expeller	Leinexpeller		12.08	37.49	0.060	13.51		20.69	0.065	0.75	0.76
rape seed expeller	Rapsexpeller		14.13	36.37	0.058	13.19		20.28	0.080	0.75	0.75
soy pulp	Sojaschalen		7.52	12.78	0.020						
rape seed extraction meal	Rapseextraktions-schrot		11.24	39.89	0.064	12.08		19.24	0.085	0.73	0.73
sunflower extraction meal	Sonnenblumen-extraktionsschrot		11.99	45.49	0.073	10.79		19.55	0.070	0.63	0.63
soya bean extraction meal 48 % XP	Sojaextraktions-schrot 48 %, getoastet		16.18	54.83	0.088	15.77		20.05	0.065	0.90	0.91
soya bean extraction meal 44 % XP	Sojaextraktions-schrot 44 %, getoastet		14.66	50.23	0.080	14.82		19.96	0.065	0.88	0.89
potato protein	Kartoffeleiweiß		18.45	83.50	0.134	18.63		22.46	0.024	0.91	0.90
sweet whey	Molke, Süß-, frisch		14.06	13.64	0.022	14.72		16.07	0.088	0.93	0.96
acid whey	Molke, Sauer-, frisch		13.33	15.00	0.024	14.31		15.91	0.115	0.90	0.95
whey protein	Molkeneiweiß, frisch					16.00	0.114	19.56	0.160	0.92	0.91
skimmed milk powder	Milchprodukte (Magermilch-pulver)					15.47	0.060	17.72	0.081	0.93	0.94
whey concentrate	Molke, Süß-, getrocknet					13.92	0.021	15.71	0.095	0.92	0.94
fish meal 64 % XP	Fischmehl 64 % RP		15.00	67.78	0.108	11.98		18.84	0.205	0.72	0.71
yeast	Bierhefe, Wein-hefe (Vinasse)		13.86	52.11	0.083	14.23		20.05	0.085	0.69	0.68
corn steep	Maisquellwasser	Beuer-ker	13.40	43.00	0.069			0.019			
fish oil	Fischöl				0.000			0.000			
lignocellulose	Lignocellulose				0.001			0.030			
rice gluten feed	Reiskleber										
palm butter	Pflanzenfett										
formic acid	Ameisensäure					5.54	0.000	5.54	0.000	1.00	1.00
propionic acid	Propionsäure					21.81	0.000	21.81	0.000	1.00	1.00
calcium phosphate	Calciumphosphat					0.00	0.000	0.00	1.000	0.00	0.00
lime (calcium carbonate)	Kohlensaurer Kalk					0.00	0.000	0.00	1.000	0.00	0.00
sodium bicarbonate	Natriumhydro-gencarbonat					0.00	0.000	0.00	1.000	0.00	0.00
salt	Viehsalz					0.00	0.000	0.00	1.000	0.00	0.00

Dark gray cells indicate data gaps.

3.2.3 Gap closure for a missing diet digestibility of organic matter

One federal state did not report feed composition data but overall feed properties. These did not cover digestibility of OM. The diet digestibility of OM cannot be derived from the digestibility for energy by a simple regression analysis (see Figure 2). Hence, the reported digestibilities for energy were used as a substitute.

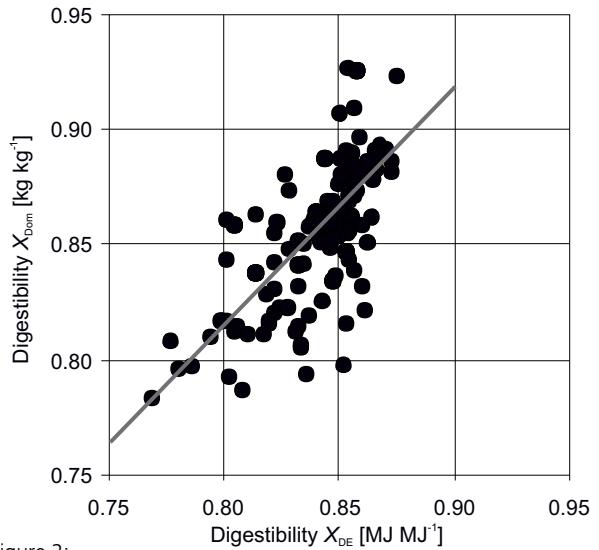


Figure 2:

Comparison between the diet digestibilities for energy X_{DE} and organic matter X_{DOM} . Data pairs calculated for the various exemplar German districts.

3.2.4 Exemplary feed composition and properties

The experts communicated feed compositions and properties as listed with the advice notes. The weighted mean was formed if more than one feed composition was available. Table 2 shows an example.

Table 2:

Composition of fattening pig feeds in a district. Feeds for fattening pigs in Schleswig-Holstein, weights 45 to 85 kg animal $^{-1}$. Feed properties related to fresh matter (FM) (DM content of FM 0.88 kg kg $^{-1}$).

feed constituent	feed 1	feed 2	feed 3	feed 4	feed 5	mean	unit
barley	25	25.2	26.4	20	28	24.9	%
triticale	0	0	0	5	5	2.0	%
wheat	40	54.2	43.8	49	42	45.8	%
wheat bran	2.4	0	4.3	1	0	1.5	%
maize	3.5	0	0	0	0	0.7	%
millet	5.1	0	0	0	0	1.0	%
rape seed extraction meal	2	2	4.3	0	0	1.7	%
rape seed expeller	6	6	2.5	8	8	6.1	%
soya bean extraction meal 48 % XP	11	10	14	13.4	13.1	12.3	%
molasses	0.5	0.4	1.7	0	0	0.5	%
palm butter	1.4	0.5	2.1	0.5	0.9	1.1	%
lime (calcium carbonate)	1.17	1.1	1.1	1.13	1.12	1.1	%
calcium phosphate	0.12	0.3	0.1	0.13	0.16	0.2	%
salt	0.39	0.4	0.4	0.41	0.45	0.4	%
weighting factor	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2	0.2		
ME content	13.4	13.4	13.4	13.4	13.4	13.4	MJ kg $^{-1}$
XP content			0.175	0.17	0.17	0.171	kg kg $^{-1}$
ash content		0.047	0.047	0.047	0.047	0.047	kg kg $^{-1}$

3.3 Feeding strategies

For sows and weaners, single and two-phase feedings are considered. Fattening pigs are assumed to be fed in one, two or three phases; big modern enterprises feeding continuously varying feeds are included in three-phase feeding. In Niedersachsen, special diets are fed with reduced N contents. An example result of the inquiry is shown in Table 3.

other was derived from weight and weight gain data and local times for service, cleansing, and disinfection. As some of the data were communicated confidentially, the results shown in Table 4 have to be presented anonymously.

3.4.2 Data gap closure

Numbers of animal rounds are required for each single federal state as complete time series. However, some of the time series were incomplete. The analysis of the data

Table 3:
Fattening pigs – feeding strategies (% of animal places). Example results obtained for Emsland rural district.

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
1 phase	30	25	20	15	10	5	5	5	5	5
2 phases	65	66	67	68	69	70	70	70	70	70
of which N reduced	0	0	5	7.5	10	12.5	15	20	25	25
3 phases	5	9	13	17	21	25	25	25	25	25
of which N reduced	0	0	5	7.5	10	12.5	15	20	25	25
	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009
1 phase	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3	3
2 phases	70	65	60	55	50	45	45	45	45	45
of which N reduced	30	40	50	60	70	70	75	80	85	85
3 phases	27	32	37	42	47	52	52	52	52	52
of which N reduced	30	40	50	60	70	70	75	80	85	85

3.4 Animal rounds

A distinction is made between the assessments of animal rounds for single and multi-phase feeding. Experts agree on the fact that, in single phase feeding, it had been German practice to replace animals without the thorough cleansing procedure that has become standard for "all-in-all-out" production in two- and three-phase feeding. They also agree that in single phase feeding the mean duration of the period during which the place is empty, is about 5 d round⁻¹ (see also KTBL, 2006, pg. 503). This is assumed to be constant over the whole period considered. In contrast multi-phase feeding is typically related to "all-in-all-out" production. Here, service, cleansing, and disinfection vary with time.

3.4.1 Expert judgement

German experts were asked to contribute the time series of animal rounds for their respective region. Results from almost all German federal states could be obtained. Some data was extracted from reports of breeders' institutions,

provided by the experts revealed that the assumption of a linear reduction of the time span during which places were empty for any reason from 22 d round⁻¹ in 1990 and 15 d round⁻¹ resulted in the smallest scatter. Hence, these time spans in combination with reported weights and weight gains were used to assess the number of animal rounds.

One federal state did not supply data. The lowest number of animal rounds obtained for its direct neighbours was used instead.

Information about animal performance is non-existent or rare for the smaller states. Again, it is assumed that Hamburg can be treated in the same way as Schleswig-Holstein, Bremen as Niedersachsen, Berlin as Brandenburg, and Saarland as Rheinland-Pfalz.

The results for the various federal states are collated in Table 4.

Table 4:

Fattening pigs, number of animal rounds in two- and three-phase feeding. Reported data upright, data achieved from gap filling in italics.

	1990	1991	1992	1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999
1	2.49	2.55	2.45	2.40	2.49	2.42	2.53	2.54	2.44	2.49
2	2.18	2.55	2.45	2.40	2.49	2.44	2.52	2.51	2.53	2.50
3	2.47	2.49	2.45	2.40	2.49	2.42	2.47	2.44	2.44	2.49
4	2.33	2.34	2.25	2.27	2.37	2.39	2.46	2.49	2.52	2.56
5	2.33	2.34	2.25	2.27	2.37	2.39	2.46	2.49	2.52	2.56
6	2.47	2.49	2.48	2.46	2.55	2.46	2.47	2.44	2.44	2.52
7	2.60	2.70	2.70	2.60	2.70	2.70	2.70	2.60	2.70	2.50
8	2.47	2.49	2.48	2.46	2.55	2.46	2.47	2.44	2.44	2.52
9	2.18	2.55	2.45	2.40	2.49	2.42	2.52	2.47	2.57	2.56
10	2.33	2.34	2.25	2.27	2.37	2.39	2.46	2.49	2.63	2.56
11	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67	2.67
12	2.40	2.40	2.41	2.41	2.35	2.31	2.35	2.36	2.38	2.44
13	2.35	2.31	2.33	2.34	2.37	2.35	2.35	2.41	2.46	2.53
mean	2.39	2.44	2.42	2.41	2.43	2.40	2.43	2.44	2.48	2.50

	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008
1	2.60	2.82	2.56	2.55	2.80	2.57	2.49	2.57	2.65
2	2.55	2.42	2.77	2.43	2.48	2.55	2.76	2.76	2.94
3	2.60	2.66	2.50	2.55	2.56	2.57	2.49	2.57	2.65
4	2.56	2.58	2.60	2.56	2.50	2.46	2.41	2.55	2.58
5	2.56	2.58	2.60	2.56	2.50	2.46	2.41	2.55	2.58
6	2.63	2.66	2.50	2.58	2.56	2.63	2.54	2.62	2.66
7	2.60	2.70	2.70	2.60	2.70	2.70	2.70	2.70	2.70
8	2.63	2.66	2.50	2.58	2.56	2.63	2.54	2.62	2.66
9	2.59	2.56	2.56	2.58	2.61	2.65	2.68	2.73	2.78
10	2.59	2.61	2.60	2.69	2.35	2.34	2.41	2.55	2.71
11	2.67	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.69	2.68	2.68
12	2.56	2.48	2.49	2.50	2.54	2.57	2.61	2.61	2.62
13	2.51	2.54	2.50	2.46	2.51	2.53	2.57	2.57	2.55
mean	2.56	2.57	2.55	2.52	2.55	2.56	2.58	2.61	2.62

4 Results

Examples of excretion rates for standard animals are calculated for the years 1994, 2001, and 2007. They are compared with the results obtained with the previously used feeding strategies and diet compositions. Hitherto, no regional differentiation was made. All sows, weaners, and fattening pigs had been treated as being fed with two phases. Reduced-N feed had been taken into account for some districts in Niedersachsen. For details see Rösemann et al. (2011).

Similar calculations had been performed for Niedersachsen and fattening pigs (Dämmgen et al., 2011c) partly using the same data source as this work. After completion of these calculations, the calculation procedures for VS and N

excretion rates used hitherto were checked and modified (Dämmgen et al., 2011a). Hence, the results obtained in the work at hand may differ from those published earlier.

4.1 Methane excretion rates (enteric fermentation)

Emissions from enteric fermentation depend on the GE intake and on the methane conversion factor. The latter is assumed to be constant for all pigs (IPCC, 1996, Table A-4 provides a methane conversion factor of 0.006 MJ MJ⁻¹ for developed countries, which is used in the German emission inventory). As the GE contents of feeds are almost constant for the major feed constituents (Table 5), hardly any changes are expected as a result of changed feeding practices (Table 6).

Table 5:
GE contents of feed, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	18.32	18.28	18.31	18.45	MJ kg ⁻¹ GE
weaners	18.76	18.77	18.78	18.45	MJ kg ⁻¹ GE
fattening pigs	18.71	18.67	18.65	18.45	MJ kg ⁻¹ GE
boars	18.32	18.33	18.34	18.45	MJ kg ⁻¹ GE

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 6:
Methane excretion rates (enteric fermentation), annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	2.07	2.07	2.08	2.13	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
weaners	0.42	0.42	0.42	0.43	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
fattening pigs	1.21	1.18	1.17	1.32	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
boars	1.75	1.74	1.75	1.73	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 7:
Digestibilities of organic matter, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	0.84	0.84	0.84	0.81	kg kg ⁻¹
weaners	0.86	0.85	0.87	0.85	kg kg ⁻¹
fattening pigs	0.86	0.86	0.86	0.82	kg kg ⁻¹
boars	0.83	0.84	0.83	0.83	kg kg ⁻¹

¹⁾ digestibilities of energy in MJ MJ-1, using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 8:
Ash contents of feed, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	0.062	0.059	0.059	0.02	kg kg ⁻¹
weaners	0.058	0.058	0.058	0.02	kg kg ⁻¹
fattening pigs	0.056	0.056	0.056	0.02	kg kg ⁻¹
boars	0.057	0.056	0.057	0.02	kg kg ⁻¹

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 9:
Volatile solids excretion rates, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	155	161	163	205	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
weaners	26.0	26.2	26.5	31.6	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
fattening pigs	80.5	79.3	79.4	117	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
boars	128	129	128	145	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 10:

Nitrogen excretion rates, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	25.7	25.3	25.2	26.3	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
weaners	3.5	3.4	3.4	3.0	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
fattening pigs	11.9	11.5	11.3	13.9	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
boars	27.0	27.1	27.0	27.5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

Table 11:

Total ammoniacal nitrogen excretion rates, annual national means

	1994	2001	2007	previous calculations ¹⁾	unit
sows (including suckling piglets)	19.4	19.1	19.0	20.1	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ TAN
weaners	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.1	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ TAN
fattening pigs	8.6	8.2	8.0	10.2	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ TAN
boars	21.4	21.4	21.3	22.2	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ TAN

¹⁾ using the methodology described in Rösemann et al. (2011)

4.2 Volatile solids excretion rates

Major changes can be observed for VS (Table 9). The small differences in digestibilities (Table 7) have a large effect on VS excretion rates, which is far more important than the trebling of the ash contents (Table 8).

4.3 Nitrogen and TAN excretion rates

The effect of reduced N input and the reduction of production cycles lead to a significant reduction in N excretion rates for fattening pigs, compared to the previous method. The changes in N excretion rates for the other subcategories are smaller. A significant increase is observed for weaners (Table 10). This applies also to TAN excretion rates (Table 11). The use of the digestibility of crude protein (XP) N instead of the digestibility of energy reduces TAN excretion rates.

5 Discussion

For sows, nutrition requirements (energy, protein) vary significantly among the different stages of the piglet production cycle. For growing pigs (weaners and fatteners) the ratio of crude protein to energy decreases continually with age. Hence, it has become general practice to reflect this in the diets by phase feeding as this is also economically beneficial.

In Niedersachsen, special measures have been taken to reduce the N and phosphorus loads on the environment by introducing special diets with reduced XP and phosphorus contents.

An example detailed analysis of the influence of the various input parameters is made for Niedersachsen, as here feeding practices are more differentiated than in other federal states. Five feeding types were distinguished:

- 1 single phase feeding
- 2S two-phase feeding, standard XP contents
- 2R two-phase feeding, reduced XP contents
- 3S three-phase feeding, standard XP contents
- 3R three-phase feeding, reduced XP contents

The comparison is performed for sows with litter and fattening pigs, as the contribution to emissions from weaners and boars is of minor importance. The 2007 data set is used.

Changes are negative for reductions and positive for increases.

5.1 Sows with litter

Due to the fact that the feed intake is governed by energy requirements, the energy intake is not affected by phase feeding. As CH₄ emissions from enteric fermentation are derived from energy intake, they are also not affected by phase feeding (Table 12).

Table 12:

Sows plus litter. CH₄ excretion rates (emissions) per animal place as a function of feeding strategy.

Feed type	1	2S	2R	unit
CH ₄ excretion rate	2.1	2.1	2.1	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
changes compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content			+ 0.0	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
introduction of phase feeding	+0.0	+0.0		kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄

The energy content of feeds is adjusted to the requirements of lactating and non-lactating sows. This results in a considerable reduction in VS excretions. The reduction of the XP content has a small negative effect (Table 13).

Table 13:

Sows plus litter. VS excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy.

Feed type	1	2S	2R	unit
VS excretion rate	165	142	147	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
changes compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content		0	+5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
introduction of phase feeding	-23	-23		kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS

A minor effect on N excretion rates can be observed as a result of phase feeding. However, the reduction of feed XP contents is clearly visible (Table 14).

Table 14:

Sows plus litter. N excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy.

Feed type	1	2S	2R	unit
N excretion rate	26.5	26.2	24.3	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
changes compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content			-1.9	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
introduction of phase feeding	-0.3	-0.3		kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N

In contrast to N excretion rates, TAN excretion rates are reduced by phase feeding. For the diets compared, the effect of the reduced XP contents is adverse, albeit small (Table 15).

Table 15:

Sows plus litter. TAN excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy.

Feed type	1	2S	2R	unit
TAN excretion rate	19.1	17.3	18.5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
changes compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content			+1.2	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
introduction of phase feeding	-1.8	-1.8		kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N

5.2 Fattening pigs

Phase feeding results in a reduced number of animal rounds. This causes a linear reduction in all emissions.

For CH₄ emission rates, the effects of both adjusted energy and XP contents of the feed are of minor importance (Table 16).

Table 16:

Fattening pigs. Methane excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy.

Feed type	1	2S	2R	3S	3R	unit
CH ₄ excretion rate	1.31	1.20	1.18	1.16	1.17	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
changes compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content				-0.01		+0.01 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
introduction of phase feeding				+0.04	+0.04	-0.00 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄
reduced number of rounds				-0.15	-0.15	-0.15 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ CH ₄

With VS excretion rates, changes in both energy and XP contents have an adverse effect. This may even overcompensate the gains due to reduced animal rounds in the case of 3R feeding (Table 17).

Table 17:

Fattening pigs. VS excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy (2007 data set).

Feed type	1	2S	2R	3S	3R	unit
VS excretion rate	84.8	79.2	80.7	84.0	86.7	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
reductions compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content				+1.5		+2.8 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
introduction of phase feeding				+4.3	+4.3	+9.1 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS
reduced number of rounds				-9.9	-9.9	-9.9 kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ VS

N excretion rates benefit from all aspects of feeding changes. The introduction of phase feeding alone reduces N excretion rates of about 7 %, which is in line with experimental findings (e.g. Lindermeyer et al., 2010; Anonymus, 2010). Here the reduced N inputs into the animals affect the excretions significantly. Adjusted feeding as a whole has positive effects. There is hardly any difference between 2S and 3S feedings. The combined effects add up to more than 5 kg place⁻¹ a⁻¹ N (Table 18).

Table 18:

Fattening pigs. N excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy

Feed type	1	2S	2R	3S	3R	unit
N excretion rate	13.2	10.8	9.9	11.1	7.7	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
reductions compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content			-0.9		-3.5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
introduction of phase feeding		-0.9	-0.9	-0.5	-0.5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
reduced number of rounds		-1.5	-1.5	-1.5	-1.5	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N

The introduction of phase feeding as a measure to adjust feed properties to energy requirements has only a minor effect on TAN excretions rates. However, XP reduction adds a considerable amount of savings (Table 19).

Table 19:

Fattening pigs. TAN excretion rates per animal place as a function of feeding strategy (2007 data set).

Feed type	1	2S	2R	3S	3R	unit
TAN excretion rate	9.1	7.8	6.6	7.8	5.4	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
reductions compared to "1" due to adjusted XP content			-1.2		-2.4	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
introduction of phase feeding		-0.3	-0.3	-0.2	-0.2	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N
reduced number of rounds		-1.1	-1.1	-1.1	-1.1	kg place ⁻¹ a ⁻¹ N

Both N and TAN excretion rates vary regionally. Figure 3 illustrates the results obtained for the 22 German regions investigated.

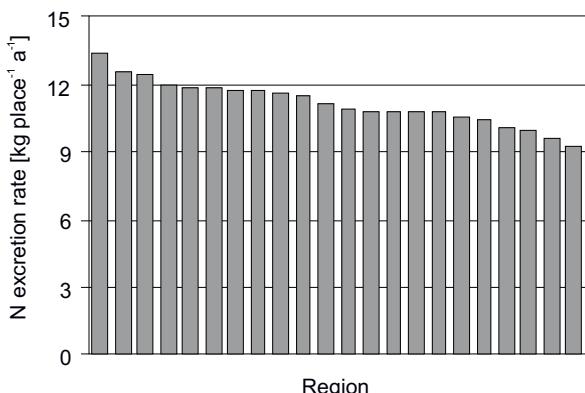


Figure 3.

Variability of total nitrogen (N) and urinary nitrogen (TAN) excretion rates calculated for 22 German regions

6 Conclusions

The German data sets collated for this work show that phase feeding alone results in reduced VS excretion rates. The reduction is achieved in the step from single to two-phase feeding. The introduction of a third phase is far less effective.

Changed feed compositions do not affect CH₄ excretions from enteric fermentation, nor do they show a great effect on N excretions. This contradicts the statements found in the literature with respect to N excretion rates.

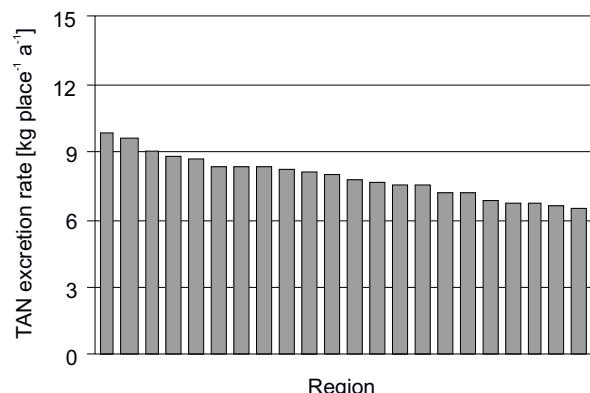
In two- and three-phase feeding, the reductions in N and TAN excretions are a side effect of the reduced number of animal rounds that goes with the introduction of phase feeding.

However, N excretion rates for two-phase feeding of fattening pigs range from 10.1 to 13.1 kg place⁻¹ a⁻¹ N and from 6.4 to 9.8 kg place⁻¹ a⁻¹ TAN, indicating that there is considerable room for reductions.

A remarkable reduction in the excretion rates of N and TAN can be achieved by adjusting the protein contents of the feed to the requirements.

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Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat in landwirtschaftlichen Biogasanlagen

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Zusammenfassung

Das Betreiben von Biogasanlagen erfordert die Bereitstellung von Futtersubstrat in ausreichender Menge und gleichmäßiger Qualität. Durch häufige Substratwechsel und eine stark schwankende Futterqualität kann es zu einer sinkenden Prozessstabilität mit einer zunehmenden Versäuerung des Fermenters kommen. Im kontinuierlichen Labormaßstab konnte erfolgreich der präventive und akute Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat zur Behebung von Versäuerungen nachgewiesen werden. Die Überführung und Anwendung der Erkenntnisse aus den Laborversuchen in eine landwirtschaftliche Praxisanlage ist Gegenstand dieser Arbeit. Grundlage sind zwei baugleiche landwirtschaftliche Biogasanlagen, wobei eine nachweislich durch Überfütterung, d. h. zu hohe Mengen an Inputsubstraten, in ihrer Prozessstabilität beeinträchtigt war und daraufhin mit Natriumhydrogencarbonat behandelt wurde, während die zweite Anlage stabil lief und als Kontrolle diente. Beide Anlagen gehörten zu einem Anlagenkomplex und wurden vor dem Versuch unterschiedlich in Art/ Menge und während des Versuches mit identischen Inputsubstraten versorgt. In der überfütterten Praxisanlage konnte Natriumhydrogencarbonat sowohl zur Akutapplikation wie auch als Präventionsmittel erfolgreich eingesetzt werden und bestätigt damit bisherige Ergebnisse aus Laborversuchen. Zudem zeigte sich die leistungsfördernde Wirkung in Form einer höheren Biogasausbeute bei gleichzeitig hohen Methanqualitäten. Weiterhin wurde durch den effektiven Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat eine Verminderung des noch vorhandenen Restgaspotentials und somit eine Reduzierung des Ausstoßes klimarelevanter Spurengase im Gärrest bewirkt. Natriumhydrogencarbonat kann somit als Prozesshilfsstoff in landwirtschaftlichen Biogasanlagen für ein kontrolliertes Anheben des pH-Wertes und zur Stabilisierung der Prozessbiologie bei Versäuerungserscheinungen uneingeschränkt angewendet werden.

Schlüsselworte: Biogas, Prozesshilfsstoff, Versäuerung

Abstract

Application of sodium bicarbonate in agricultural biogas plants

Biogas plants require consistent volume and quality of feedstock input. Frequent changes in type and quality of feedstock reduce the process stability by causing increased acidification in the biogas digester. In laboratory experiments the addition of sodium bicarbonate to prevent and reverse acidification in biogas digesters has been proven to be successful. This paper focuses on the application in agricultural biogas plants. Two identically designed biogas digesters were used. In one of the digesters the process had destabilized as a result of overfeeding and therefore was treated with sodium bicarbonate, while the other one ran under stable conditions and was used as the control. Both biogas digesters were part of the same biogas plant and were supplied with identical feedstock material. Sodium bicarbonate has been added to the biogas digester to successfully reverse acute acidification as well as to prevent acidification, confirming earlier results from laboratory experiments. At the same time the addition of sodium bicarbonate also enhanced the performance of the biogas digester by increasing the yield of methane thereby improving the quality of the biogas. In addition, the effective input reduces the residual biogas potential and the unwanted emission of greenhouse gases from the digest residues. Therefore, sodium bicarbonate can unequivocally be used in agricultural biogas plants as a process additive for a controlled increase in pH and to stabilize the biological process in the event of acidification.

Keywords: biogas, process additive, acidification

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1 Einleitung

Die Biogasbranche erlebt gegenwärtig ein rasantes Wachstum. Die Zahl der Biogasanlagen in Deutschland wird heute auf über 5000 Anlagen mit einer elektrischen Leistung von ca. 2000 MW_{el} geschätzt (Schüsseler, 2011). Biogas stellt derzeit die wichtigste und auch vielseitigste Form der Bioenergie aus der Landwirtschaft dar. Für die effiziente Biogaserzeugung ist jedoch die Gestaltung optimaler Prozessbedingungen unabdingbar. Aufgrund von Fütterungs- und Managementfehlern beim Betreiben einer Biogasanlage kann es zu Schwankungen innerhalb der Prozessbiologie durch eine Versäuerung und damit zu einer Beeinträchtigung der Effizienz der gesamten Anlage kommen. Die Versäuerung führt zu einer Verringerung der Biogasbeute und der Methanqualität bei einer gleichzeitigen Anreicherung von unerwünschten Spurengasen. Ammoniak (NH₃), Lachgas (N₂O) und Schwefelwasserstoff (H₂S) führen zu einer qualitativen Verschlechterung des Biogases sowie zu umweltrelevanten Geruchs- und Emissionsproblemen im Gärrestlager. Nach Pesta und Meyer-Pittroff (2002) sowie Pesta et al. (2004) führen unerwünschte Spurengase bei der Verwertung von Rohgasgemischen zu erheblichen technischen Problemen im Verbrennungsraum und Abgasystem der Blockheizkraftwerke. Der Brennwert und das Zündverhalten reduzieren sich und die gesetzlichen Abgasnormen werden überschritten.

Um im Praxisbetrieb einer Versäuerung des Fermenterinhaltens entgegenzuwirken wäre eine Möglichkeit ein abrupter Fütterungsstop, der dann wiederum zu erheblichen wirtschaftlichen Einbußen führen kann, oder aber der Einsatz von vermeintlich puffernden Additiven wie Branntkalk und Löschkalk. Diese besitzen jedoch eine Vielzahl von negativen Eigenschaften, wie Ablagerungs- und Verhärtungerscheinungen, schlechte Wasserlöslichkeit, Spurenelementfixierungen oder Hemmungen des biologischen Systems durch Calcium (Hoffmann, 2008). Dennoch werden Branntkalk und Löschkalk „unverständlichlicherweise“ in der gängigen Praxis eingesetzt. Als Folge wird die Effizienz der gesamten Anlage beeinflusst, es entsteht weniger Biogas, wodurch sich der Erlös des Energiewirtes reduziert. Eine Alternative, um eine Versäuerung zu vermeiden oder sie beim Auftreten kostengünstig zu beheben und den damit verbundenen Problemen entgegenzuwirken, stellt das aus der Tierernährung bekannte Natriumhydrogencarbonat dar. Da bislang nur kontinuierliche labortechnische Versuche zum Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat im Biogasprozess existieren (Burgstaler et al., 2010; 2011), sowie diskontinuierliche Batchversuche zur Verbesserung der Pufferkapazität und Steigerung der Effizienz durchgeführt wurden (Scherer, 2008; Raposo et al., 2006; Kasali et al., 1989; Brovko und Chen, 1977; Barber, 1978) soll die vorliegende Untersuchung die in Laborver-

suchen gewonnenen wissenschaftlichen Erkenntnisse an einer landwirtschaftlichen Biogasanlage überprüfen. Dabei soll nachgewiesen werden, ob Natriumhydrogencarbonat im Praxisbetrieb eine akute Versäuerung beheben kann, eine Steigerung der Effizienz und Methanqualität bewirkt, welchen Einfluss verschiedene Applikationsformen haben und wie sich der Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat auf das Restgaspotential und damit die praktische Weiternutzung des Gärrestes auswirkt.

2 Anlagenbeschreibung und Versuchsplan

Versuchsobjekt für den Praxisversuch war ein Anlagenkomplex bestehend aus fünf einzelnen Modulen die zu einer landwirtschaftlichen Biogasanlage zusammengefasst sind. Im Rahmen des Praxistests wurden davon zwei baugleiche Biogasanlagen ausgewählt, wobei ein Modul (Modul 5) durch Überfütterung in der Prozessstabilität beeinträchtigt war, während das zweite Modul (Modul 1) stabil lief und als Kontrolle diente. Beide Anlagen wurden ab Versuchsbeginn (15. bis 139. Versuchstag) mit identischem Inputsubstrat, bestehend aus durchschnittlich 56 % Maisilage und 44 % Schweinegülle, versorgt. Zusätzlich wurden sie über den Versuchszeitraum mit annähernd gleichen Raumbelastungen gefahren. Die tägliche Substratzufuhr im Mittel beider Anlagen betrug: 25,23 t·d⁻¹ Maisilage (25,21 bis 25,25 t·d⁻¹) mit durchschnittlich 35,35 % Trockensubstanz (TS) und 20,06 t·d⁻¹ Schweinegülle (19,18 bis 20,94 t·d⁻¹) mit im Mittel 1,81 % TS.

Natriumhydrogencarbonat wurde als Bicar® Z 0/50 zur Stabilisierung des Gärprozesses eingesetzt. Die baugleichen Biogasanlagenmodule 1 und 5 weisen eine elektrische Leistung von je 526 kW_{el} und ein Fermentervolumen von 2.560 m³ auf. Beide Module sind in einen Biogasanlagenkomplex mit insgesamt 2,63 MW_{el} integriert. Weitere wichtige Parameter die von den Betreibern zu den Modulen 1 und 5 angegeben wurden sind eine Faulraumbelastung von ca. 3,8 bis 4,5 kg oTS·m⁻³·d⁻¹ und eine durchschnittliche jährliche Verweilzeit von ca. 40 d ohne Rezirkulat bzw. ca. 20 d mit Rezirkulat.

Tabelle 1:

Versuchsphasen beim diskontinuierlichen und kontinuierlichen Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat in einer Praxisanlage (Modul 5)

Phase	Versuchstage
Vorbereitungsphase	0. - 15.
1.Versuchphase: Akutapplikation (einmalige Gabe a 5,00 t)	15. - 38.
2.Versuchphase: Teilapplikation (drei Gaben zu je 2,33 t)	38. - 77.
3.Versuchphase: kontinuierliche Applikation (konstante Gaben a 125 kg·d ⁻¹)	77. - 125.
Rekonvaleszenzphase: Erholungsphase ohne Puffersubstanz	125. - 139.

Der Versuch erstreckte sich über 139 Tage, unterteilt in zwei Phasen mit diskontinuierlichem und eine Phase mit kontinuierlichem Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat im Modul 5 (Tabelle 1).

Zur Beurteilung der Prozessstabilität der Biogasanlagen wurden die Prozessparameter zu Beginn sowie in den folgenden Versuchsphasen am 15., 36., 49., 70., 105. und 131. Versuchstag erfasst. Die Auswahl der Versuchstage basierte auf Ergebnissen von Laborversuchen sowie aus praktischen Gegebenheiten. Die Untersuchungen zur Prozessparametererfassung wurden von der LUFA Nord-West, LUFA Rostock, der Universität Rostock und dem Betreiber vor Ort begleitet. Die Universität Rostock und der Betreiber vor Ort führten an den Versuchstagen eine unabhängige Probenahme durch, wobei die notwendigen Parameter mit mindestens dreifacher Wiederholung analysiert wurden. Die aus den Wiederholungen des Betreibers und der Universität Rostock gebildeten Mittelwerte wurden aufgrund der geringen Streuung von $\leq 2\%$ zu einem Mittelwert zusammengefasst.

In den verschiedenen Versuchsphasen wurden jeweils die in Tabelle 2 untersuchten Prozessparameter und chemische Analysengrößen bestimmt (Burgstaler et al., 2010, 2011).

Tabelle 2:
Untersuchte Prozessparameter und chemische Analysengrößen der Praxisanlagen

Parameter	Einheit	Vorschrift
Biogasausbeute	$\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$	VDI-4630
Biogasqualität	Vol.%, ppm	VDI-4630
Analysegrößen	Einheit	Vorschrift
pH-Wert (Mittelwert)	-	DIN 38404-C5
Trockensubstanzgehalt (TS)	%	DIN 12880
organischer Trockensubstanzgehalt (oTS)	$\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ FM	DIN 12879
organische Säuren (Sr)	$\text{g} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$	DIN 38414-S19
organische Substanz ($\text{oS} = \text{oTS} + \text{Sr}$)	$\text{g} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1}$ FM	DIN 12880/ DIN 12879/ DIN 38414-S19
Alkalinität	$\text{mmol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$	DIN 38409-7
FOS/TAC-Wert	-	VTI-Arbeitsanweisung (2007): Nordmann-Methode

FOS/TAC = flüchtige organische Säuren/ totalen anorganischen Carbonat

Vorbereitungsphase

In der Vorbereitungsphase, also vor dem eigentlichen Versuchsbeginn, wurden die zu untersuchenden Prozessparameter und die chemische Analysengrößen in den Modulen 1 und 5 erfasst. Die Prozessdaten pH-Wert, organische Säuregehalt (Sr), Alkalinität und FOS/TAC wurden zu diesem Zeitpunkt vom Betreiber erhoben. Die Bestim-

mung der Parameter erfolgte auch hier wie in Tabelle 2 beschrieben nach DIN Vorschriften. Zusätzlich wurden die Gehalte der Spurenelemente Co, Mo, Ni, Se, Cr, Mn, Fe und Zn nach DIN EN ISO 11885-E22 im Gärsubstrat von Modul 5 von der LUFA Rostock bestimmt, um eine Spurenelementunterversorgung als Ursache der Versäuerung in der weiteren Anwendung auszuschließen.

Um die Überfütterung des Moduls 5 vor dem Versuchszeitraum gegenüber dem Modul 1 nachzuweisen, erfolgte eine Auswertung des Betriebstagebuchs zu den verfüllten Inputmaterialien Maissilage und Schweinegülle. Dabei wurde ersichtlich, dass Modul 5 eine erhebliche Variabilität in der täglichen Substratzufuhr von 7 bis 32 $\text{t} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ Maisilage (Mittelwert 22,2 $\text{t} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) mit schwankender Qualität 24 bis 45 % TS und 7 bis 69 $\text{t} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ (Mittelwert 32,3 $\text{t} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$) Schweinegülle mit unterschiedlichen hohen Trockensubstanzgehalten von 1 bis 6 % und eine unregelmäßige Zufuhr von Getreide und Wasser aufwies.

Versuchsphasen: Akutapplikation, Teilapplikation und kontinuierliche Applikation

Im Vorfeld der Anwendung zur Akutapplikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat wurden Gärrestproben der Module 1 und 5 hinsichtlich der benötigten Mengen an Natriumhydrogencarbonat untersucht. Dabei wurde ein TAC-Wert von $> 9.000 \text{ mg CaCO}_3 \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$ und eine Säurekapazität (Alkalinität) von $> 200 \text{ mmol} \cdot \text{l}^{-1}$ als Zielgröße definiert. In Titrationsversuchen mit Gärresten des Moduls 5 wurden die definierten Zielgrößen mittels Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat eingestellt und die Menge an Puffersubstanz bestimmt. Auf dieser Basis konnte die Gesamtmenge in Teilmengen in Form von Pulver (Bicar® Z 0/50) verabreicht werden.

Akutapplikation: Zur Akutapplikation wurden dem Modul 5 am 15. Versuchstag in einer Stoßgabe 5,00 t Natriumhydrogencarbonat (Bicar® Z 0/50) zugegeben.

Teilapplikation: Die zweite Versuchsphase war gekennzeichnet durch eine Dosierung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat in drei Teilgaben zu je 2,33 t am 38., 40. und 42. Versuchstag. Weiterhin erfolgte im Modul 5 vom 5. bis zum 20. Versuchstag eine konstante Substratzufuhr und vom 20. bis zum 51. Versuchstag eine gesteigerte Substratzufuhr mit Silagewechseln. Im Modul 1 (Kontrolle) wurde über die gesamte Versuchsphase vom 5. bis zum 51. Versuchstag dagegen konstant Inputsubstrat zugeführt mit ebenfalls wechselnden Silagen. Die Silagewechsel waren charakterisiert durch schwankende TS-Gehalte von 33 bis 37 % TS, die eine Veränderung der Fütterung bzw. der Raumbelastung und Verweilzeiten nach sich zogen.

kontinuierliche Applikation: In der dritten Versuchsphase wurde Natriumhydrogencarbonat in kleinen konstanten Gaben zu je 125 $\text{kg} \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ vom 77. bis zum 125. Ver-

suchtag in das Modul 5 verabreicht. Das Versuchsdesign wurde mit der Akutapplikation zu Beginn gewählt, um das Modul 5 schnellst möglich auf das prozessbiologische Niveau des Moduls 1 zu bringen, damit der wirtschaftliche Schaden gering gehalten wird.

Die Zugabe von Natriumhydrogencarbonat erfolgte durch Mischung mit dem Futtersubstrat vor Zugabe in den Fermenter. Die Volldurchmischung im Fermenter wurde durch automatische Rührwerke mit einer Rührdauer von 15 Minuten je Stunde gewährleistet.

Zur Beurteilung der Restgas- und Methanpotentiale wurde am 87. Versuchstag (35 Tage nach der letzten Teilapplikation), Gärrest vom Modul 1 und 5 entnommen und eine Restgaspotentialbestimmung nach den Vorgaben der VDI 4630 (2006) durchgeführt.

Rekonvaleszenzphase

Das Ziel dieser Phase war es, das Modul 5 nach der Verabreichung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat, auf das prozessbiologische Niveau der zu untersuchenden Parameter des Moduls 1 zu bringen. Dies ist erreicht, wenn die Gasmenge und -qualität, die chemischen Prozessparameter und die Raumbelastung dem von Modul 1 entsprechen.

3 Ergebnisse und Diskussion

Ausgangssituation vor der Applikation mit Natriumhydrogencarbonat

Tabelle 3 zeigt die vom Betreiber gemessenen chemischen Analysegrößen der Module 1 und 5 vor Versuchsbeginn.

Tabelle 3:

Gemessene chemische Analysegrößen des Gärrestes der Module 1 und 5 vor dem diskontinuierlichen und kontinuierlichen Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat

Parameter	Einheit	Modul 1	Modul 5
pH-Wert		7,60	7,00
Säuregehalt (Sr)	g·kg ⁻¹ FM	< 2,00	6,79
Alkalinität	mmol·l ⁻¹	> 200	< 150
FOS/TAC-Wert		0,25	1,49

Alle ausgewählten Prozessparameter von Modul 1 befinden sich im Normalbereich landwirtschaftlicher Biogasanlagen (Gers-Grapperhaus et al., 2009). Modul 5 hingegen hat einen pH-Wert außerhalb des optimalen pH-Wertbereichs von 7,3 bis 7,8 für Aceto- und Methanbakterien (Mähnert, 2007; Spendlin, 1991). Weiterhin sind neben dem niedrigen pH-Wert von 7,0 auch der erhöhte Säure-

gehalt von 6,79 g·kg⁻¹ FM, ausgelöst durch die erhöhte Zufuhr an organischer Substanz, ein sicheres Indiz dafür, dass sich der Biogasprozess aufgrund eines Ungleichgewichts zwischen Säureproduzenten und Säurekonsumenten im Stresszustand befindet (Oechsner und Lemmer, 2007; Lahav und Morgan, 2004; Pullammanappallil et al., 2001; Switzenbaum et al., 1990; Boone et al., 1980; McCarty, 1964). Als Richtwerte für einen stabilen Fermentationsprozess gelten Säuregehalte von ≤ 4,0 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM (Effenberger und Lebuhn, 2008) sowie Alkalinitätswerte von 250 bis 500 mmol·l⁻¹ (Kaiser et al., 2007). Anhand des FOS/TAC-Wertes können potentielle Störungen und das Umkippen der Fermenterbiologie frühzeitig erkannt werden. Somit dienen die FOS/TAC-Verhältnisse der Beurteilung des Gärprozesses und sind bei Werten von über 0,8 als deutlich instabil einzuschätzen (Effenberger und Lebuhn, 2008). Sie kennzeichnen damit im Modul 5 mit Werten von 1,5 einen gestörten Vergärungsprozess. Aufgrund dieser prozessbiologischen Probleme, hervorgerufen durch Managementfehler die nachweislich aus einer Überfütterung resultierten, wurde Modul 5 zu Beginn der Untersuchung für den Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat ausgewählt.

Historische Daten, die rückwirkend vom Betreiber zur Verfügung gestellt wurden, zeigten die auftretenden prozessbiologischen Probleme einer Versäuerung in diesem Modul bereits im Monat vor Versuchsbeginn an (Abbildung 1).

Die FOS-Werte, als Maß für den Anteil der im Biogasprozess enthaltenden flüchtigen organischen Säuren (Essigsäureäquivalente), liegen dabei auf einem sehr hohen Niveau mit Spitzen bei 7.000 mg·l⁻¹ Fermenterinhalt. Empfohlene Richtwerte sollten sich nach Scherer (2008) aus Umweltgründen (Geruchs- und Emissionsproblemen bei einer offenen Lagerung der Gärreste) unter 3.000 mg·l⁻¹ Fermenterinhalt einstellen. Nach Weiland und Rieger (2006) sind auch höhere Werte möglich, dürfen aber FOS-Werte von > 6.000 mg·l⁻¹ Fermenterinhalt nicht überschreiten. Die TAC-Werte, als Maß der alkalischen Pufferkapazität in Form des totalen anorganischen Carbonatanteils, sinken im Verlauf zum Ende des Vormonats bis auf unter 5.000 mg CaCO₃·l⁻¹ ab und sind als sehr kritisch zu werten (Scherer, 2008; Iza, 2007). Diese Daten weisen eindeutig auf eine Versäuerung des Fermenters hin. Eine Spurenelementunter- bzw. Überdosierung kann durch die Erfassung der Mikronährstoffe im Vorfeld der Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat ausgeschlossen werden (SOLVAY, Europäisches Patent: 10162425.2 - 1521). In Tabelle 4 sind dazu die erfassten Spurenelemente in Anteil je Trockenmasse bzw. Frischmasse Gärrest dargestellt. Deren Bestimmung erfolgte nach DIN EN ISO 11885-E 22.

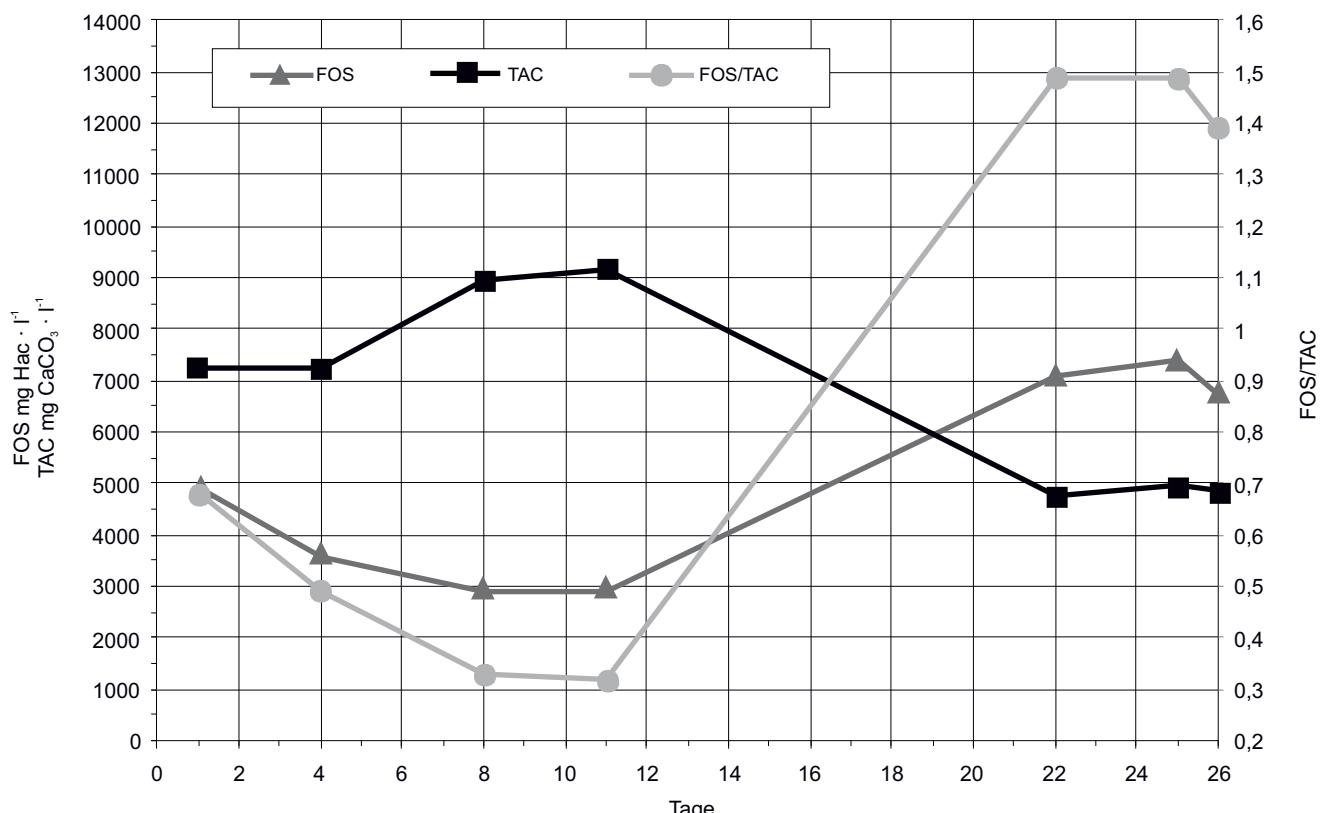


Abbildung 1:

Zeitliche Entwicklung der Prozessparameter FOS, TAC und FOS/TAC im Modul 5 vor Versuchsbeginn (FOS in mg·l⁻¹ Essigsäureäquivalente, TAC in mg CaCO₃·l⁻¹)

Tabelle 4:
Spurenelementgehalte je Trockenmasse bzw. Frischmasse Gärrest

Spurenelemente	mg·kg ⁻¹ TM	mg·kg ⁻¹ FM
Kobalt (Co)	1,67	0,09
Molybdän (Mo)	2,00	0,10
Nickel (Ni)	3,29	0,17
Selen (Se)	1,77	0,09
Chrom (Cr)	4,52	0,23
Mangan (Mn)	322,09	16,43
Eisen (Fe)	2322,00	118,42
Zink (Zn)	198,90	10,14

Versuchphasen mit Akut-, Teil- und kontinuierlicher Applikation und anschließende Rekonvaleszenzphase

In der Tabelle 5 sind die Analysenergebnisse und Prozessparameter für Modul 1 und 5 vom 15. bis 131. Versuchstag dargestellt. Modul 1 erhielt keine Natriumhydrogencarbonatapplikation, während Modul 5 mit drei Versuchphasen, Akut-, Teil- und kontinuierlicher Applikation und anschließender Rekonvaleszenzphase, behandelt wurde.

Im Modul 1 liegt der pH-Wert zwischen 7,47 und 7,73, und befindet sich damit durchgängig im optimalen Bereich für Methanbakterien (Mähnert, 2007; Spendlin, 1991). Der niedrige pH-Wert (7,0) von Modul 5 zu Versuchsbeginn konnte durch die Akutapplikation von 5,00 t Natriumhydrogencarbonat auf 7,43 bis 7,48 zum 15. und 36. Versuchstag angehoben werden. In der zweiten Versuchsphase mit drei Teillapplikationen von jeweils 2,33 t Natriumhydrogencarbonat stieg der pH-Wert bis auf 7,62 an. In der Versuchsphase mit kontinuierlicher Applikation von täglich 125 kg Natriumhydrogencarbonat vom 77. bis 125. Versuchstag wurden pH-Werte von 7,50 erfasst. Die Rekonvaleszenzphase mit einem pH-Wert von 7,77 am 131. Versuchstag beendete den Praxisversuch. Der pH-Wertbereich des Moduls 5 lag somit nach den Applikationen von Natriumhydrogencarbonat zwischen 7,43 bis 7,77 und erreicht damit an allen Versuchstagen das Niveau des Moduls 1 (siehe Tabelle 5) was als optimal einzustufen ist (Mähnert, 2007; Böhnke et al., 1993; Spendlin, 1991).

Die Trockensubstanzgehalte mit 5,90 bis 7,86 % TS des Moduls 1 befinden sich in einem typischen Bereich einer Nassvergärung mit 5 bis 15 % TS (Burgstaler, 2007; Böhnke et al., 1993). Im Modul 5 sind die Trockensubstanzgehalte mit 5,0 bis 5,6 % TS zu Beginn niedriger als im Modul 1. Ursache dafür sind die starke Variabilität der eingesetz-

Tabelle 5:

Analysenergebnisse und Prozessparameter für Modul 1 ohne Applikation und Modul 5 mit Akut-, Teil- und kontinuierlicher Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat und anschließender Rekonvaleszenzphase (15. bis 131. Versuchstag)

Parame- ter	Einheit	Modul 1 - Kontrollfermenter						Modul 5 - Versuchsfermenter					
		15	36	49	70	105	131	15	36	49	70	105	131
Versuchs- zeit	d												
pH-Wert		7,47	7,66	7,60	7,61	7,55	7,73	7,43	7,48	7,48	7,62	7,50	7,77
TS-Gehalt	% TS ₁₀₅	5,90	6,90	6,06	6,80	6,30	7,86	5,00	5,60	5,51	6,52	6,54	7,71
oS	g·kg ⁻¹ FM	52,14	61,36	51,93	58,61	52,97	67,56	44,79	50,29	47,64	57,34	55,77	68,68
Sr	g·kg ⁻¹ FM	2,78	1,83	1,82	1,68	2,05	1,96	2,66	3,03	3,47	2,59	2,58	3,10
FOS/TAC- Wert		0,33	0,23	0,24	0,23	0,26	0,23	0,36	0,40	0,42	0,33	0,28	0,37
TAC-Wert	mg CaCO ₃ ·l ⁻¹	9236	9854	9809	9890	9868	10118	7145	7933	9131	9305	10079	10307
Alkalinität	mmol·l ⁻¹	225	230	235	230	239	229	177	198	227	228	244	229
Biogas- ausbeute	Nm ³ ·kg ⁻¹ oS	0,454	0,449	0,479	0,482	0,472	0,507	0,464	0,355	0,427	0,502	0,473	0,556
Raumbel- astung*	g oS·l ⁻¹ ·d ⁻¹		5,31			5,26		4,82				5,26	

TS-Gehalt = Trockensubstanzgehalt, oS = organische Substanz, Sr = organische Säuren,

FOS/TAC = flüchtige organische Säuren/ totalen anorganischen Carbonat

Raumbelastung* im Mittel vom 15. bis zum 36. Versuchstag und im Mittel vom 36. bis zum 131. Versuchstag

ten Substrate im Vormonat des eigentlichen Versuches. Durch den erhöhten Eintrag der Schweinegülle kam es zu einer Verdünnung des Fermenterinhaltes und damit zu geringeren Trockensubstanzgehalten gegenüber dem Modul 1. Daneben wird deutlich, dass zum 131. Versuchstag in der Rekonvaleszenzphase der Trockensubstanzgehalt, gegenüber den anderen Versuchstagen, angestiegen ist. Grund dafür war der hohe Trockensubstanzgehalt der verfütterten Maissilage zum Versuchsende. Beide Module erreichen dennoch über die gesamte Versuchsdauer normale Bereiche einer Nassfermentation (Burgstaler, 2007; Böhne et al., 1993).

Die Gehalte an organischer Substanz im Modul 1 schwanken zwischen 52,14 und 67,56 g oS·kg⁻¹ FM mit dem höchsten Wert zum Ende des Versuchs. Ab dem 36. Versuchstag liegen die Werte im empfohlenen Bereich von > 54 g oTS·kg⁻¹ FM (Hölker, 2008). Die organischen Substanzgehalte des Moduls 5 befinden sich vom 15. bis zum 49. Versuchstag mit Werten von 45 bis 50 g oS·kg⁻¹ FM auf einem niedrigeren Niveau als Modul 1 und unterhalb eines typischen Bereichs (Hölker, 2008). Erwartungsgemäß wirkte sich die stark angepasste Fütterung zum „Hochfahren“ des Moduls 5 auch auf die Höhe der organischen Substanzgehalte aus. Vom 70. bis zum 131. Versuchstag befinden sich beide Module auf einem einheitlichem Niveau.

Die Säuregehalte vom Modul 1 erreichen ihren Höchstwert zu Beginn der Untersuchung am 15. Versuchstag mit 2,78 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM und pendeln sich danach zwischen 1,68 bis 2,05 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM ein. Nach Hölker (2008) sollte der Gehalt 3,5 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM und nach Iza (2007) und Scherer

(2007) sogar 3,0 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM nicht übersteigen. Die sehr hohen Säuregehalte des Moduls 5 vor dem Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat erreichte Spitzen bis zu 7 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM. Nach der Akutapplikation und stark reduzierten Fütterung am 15. Versuchstag liegen die Säuregehalte bei 2,66 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM und bestätigen damit die Wirksamkeit von Natriumhydrogencarbonat für eine Akutapplikation. Sie steigen durch die beginnende Wiederbefütterung des Moduls 5 am 36. bis zum 49. Versuchstag von 3,03 bis 3,47 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM wieder geringfügig an und erreichten damit einen Höchstwert. Die positiven Auswirkungen der Teilapplikationen und der sich anschließenden kontinuierlichen Applikation zeigt sich in Messwerten um 2,6 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM. Am Ende des Versuches (131. VT) liegen leicht höhere Säuregehalte von 3,10 g Sr·kg⁻¹ FM vor. Dennoch wird mit der Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat an fast allen Versuchstagen ein zulässiger Bereich für einen stabilen Gärprozess und eine effektive Biogasproduktion erreicht (Effenberger und Lebuhn, 2008). Kritisch für den Fermentationsprozess sind hingegen schlagartige und abrupte Säureanreicherungen innerhalb kurzer Zeitabstände (Hoffmann, 2008). Aufgrund des langen Versuchszeitraumes und der geringen Schwankungsbreite der organischen Säuregehalte innerhalb der 116 Versuchstage kann dies jedoch ausgeschlossen werden. Die Anreicherungen vom 36. bis zum 49. Versuchstag resultieren aus der starken Wiederbefütterung mittels Maissilage gegenüber den geringer werdenden Gülle- und Rezikulatmengen.

FOS/TAC-Werte, als Verhältnis der flüchtigen organischen Fettsäuren zum totalen anorganischen Carbonat-

gehalt, dienen hauptsächlich der Beurteilung der Langzeitentwicklung in Fermentern. Im Modul 1 deuten die FOS/TAC-Werte mit 0,33 bis 0,23 auf ein intaktes Verhältnis, wie von Voß et al. (2009), Kaiser et al. (2007), Weiland und Rieger (2006) und Wiese und König (2006) beschrieben mit 0,15 bis 0,45 hin. Im Modul 5 sank durch die Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat mit angepasster Fütterung der FOS/TAC-Wert von 1,00 auf 0,36 ab. Der leichte Anstieg der FOS/TAC-Werte vom 36. bis zum 49. Versuchstag auf 0,40 resultiert aus der schon beschriebenen Wiederbefütterung mit steigenden Maismengen im Modul 5. Danach wurden durchgängig FOS/TAC-Werte von 0,28 und 0,37 im optimalen Bereich erfasst (Voß et al., 2009).

Die definierte Zielgröße, innerhalb der Versuchsphase mit einem angestrebten TAC-Wert von > 9.000 mg CaCO₃·l⁻¹, wurde am 131. Versuchstag mit 10.307 mg CaCO₃·l⁻¹ erreicht und ist als günstig für die Milieubedingungen einzustufen (Hölker, 2008).

Die Alkalinitätswerte des Moduls 1 schwanken während der 116-tägigen Versuchsdauer zwischen 225 bis 239 mmol·l⁻¹. Im Modul 5 hingegen konnten die wesentlich niedrigeren Alkalinitätswerte von 177 bis 198 mmol·l⁻¹ zu Beginn durch die Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat auf die Zielgröße von > 200 mmol·l⁻¹ mit 227 bis 244 mmol·l⁻¹ angehoben werden. Damit befinden sich beide Fermenter nach Meinung von Kaiser et al. (2007) auf einem etwas zu niedrigen Niveau, während Kottmair (2010) diesen Bereich als unproblematisch und stabil für den Biogasprozess einstuft.

Die mittlere Raumbelastung des Moduls 1 betrug für den 15. bis 36. Versuchstag 5,31 g oS·l⁻¹·d⁻¹, danach wurde eine mittlere Raumbelastung von 5,26 g oS·l⁻¹·d⁻¹ bis zum Versuchsende im Fermenter eingestellt. Modul 5 zeigte ein ähnliches Verhalten, geringere Werte mit 4,82 g oS·l⁻¹·d⁻¹ zu Beginn aufgrund der Anfahrphase mit ansteigender Be-fütterung und anschließend eine mittlere Raumbelastung von 5,26 g oS·l⁻¹·d⁻¹.

Aufgrund der hohen Raumbelastung zu Beginn und der damit stärkeren Belastung des biologischen Milieus, fallen zunächst auch die Biogasausbeuten des Moduls 1 vom 15. bis zum 36. Versuchstag mit 0,454 bis 0,449 Nm³·kg⁻¹ oS niedriger aus. Einen ähnlichen Abfall zeigt auch Modul 5, der jedoch bedingt ist durch die schnelle Verstoffwechselung der vorliegenden angereicherten Säuren, ausgelöst durch die Überfütterung vor dem 15. Versuchstag. Ab dem 49. Versuchstag nehmen die Biogasausbeuten jedoch in beiden Modulen wieder zu und erreichen Endwerte von 0,507 bzw. 0,556 Nm³·kg⁻¹ oS der Module 1 bzw. 5. Ähnliche Werte werden auch von vergleichbaren Anlagen des Biogas Messprogramms (Gemmke et al., 2009) erreicht. Die Biogasausbeuten des Moduls 5 liegen ab dem 70. Versuchstag über denen des Moduls 1 und beweisen

nochmals die schon in den vorangegangenen kontinuierlichen Laborversuchen (Burgstaler et al., 2010, 2011) nachgewiesenen positiven Effekte bei optimal angepasster Dosierung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat (Scherer, 2008; Raposo et al., 2006; Kasali et al., 1989; Brovko und Chen, 1977; Barber, 1978).

Die durchschnittliche Verweilzeit im Versuchszeitraum des Moduls 1 liegt bei 58 Tagen ohne Rezirkulat, während sie rund 55 Tage ohne Rezirkulat für Modul 5 beträgt. Die niedrigere gemittelte Verweilzeit des Moduls 5 gegenüber dem Modul 1 resultiert aus dem vermehrten Einsatz von Schweinegülle im Anfahrprozess.

In dem Modul 5 wurden insgesamt 18 t Natriumhydrogencarbonat während der Versuchsphasen mit Akut-, Teil- und kontinuierlicher Applikation verabreicht. Dabei wurden die in den kontinuierlichen Laborversuchen von Burgstaler et al., (2010, 2011) gewonnen Erkenntnisse zur Akutwirksamkeit von Natriumhydrogencarbonat (Akutapplikation) bei einer bestehenden Versäuerung sowie zur Leistungsförderung und Effizienzverbesserung des Biogasprozesses bei einer Teil- und kontinuierlichen Applikation auf einer Praxisanlage nachgewiesen. Erkenntnisse aus anderen Arbeiten wie z. B. von Scherer (2008), Raposo et al. (2006) und Kasali et al. (1989) konnten nicht herangezogen werden, da sich diese nur auf diskontinuierliche Versuche bezogen und keine Rückschlüsse auf die zu verwendeten Mengen von Natriumhydrogencarbonat ableiten konnten.

Die Biogasmengen und -qualitäten des Moduls 1 während der Versuchsphasen vom 15. bis 139. Versuchstag sind in Abbildung 2 dargestellt. Der Verlauf der normierten Biogasausbeute schwankt innerhalb dieses Zeitraumes zwischen 5.500 bis 6.500 Nm³ je Tag. Die Methangehalte bewegen sich von 45 bis 53 Vol. % und die Kohlendioxidgehalte liegen in einem Bereich von 47 bis 54 Vol. %.

Abbildung 3 zeigt ebenfalls die erfassten Biogasmengen und -qualitäten des Moduls 5 während der Versuchsphasen vom 15. bis 139. Versuchstag. In beiden Modulen sind die Methan- und Kohlendioxidgehalte relativ einheitlich. Der mittlere Methangehalt während der Versuchsphasen lag bei 49,8 Vol. % für Modul 1 und bei 49,2 Vol. % für Modul 5, mit einem Schwankungsbereich von 45 bis 53 Vol. % bei beiden Modulen. Die mittleren Kohlendioxidgehalte befanden sich zwischen 49,9 bzw. 50,3 Vol. % für Modul 1 bzw. 5, auch hier mit nur geringen Schwankungen von 47 bis 54 Vol. %. Im Gegensatz zu bisherigen Laboruntersuchungen (Burgstaler et al., 2010; Kasali et al., 1989; Brovko und Chen, 1977) konnten keine durchschnittlich höheren Methanqualitäten im Modul 5 erfasst werden.

Die normierten Biogasausbeuten der beiden Module zu Beginn der Versuchsphasen weisen Unterschiede auf. Der Verlauf der normierten Biogasausbeute von Modul 1

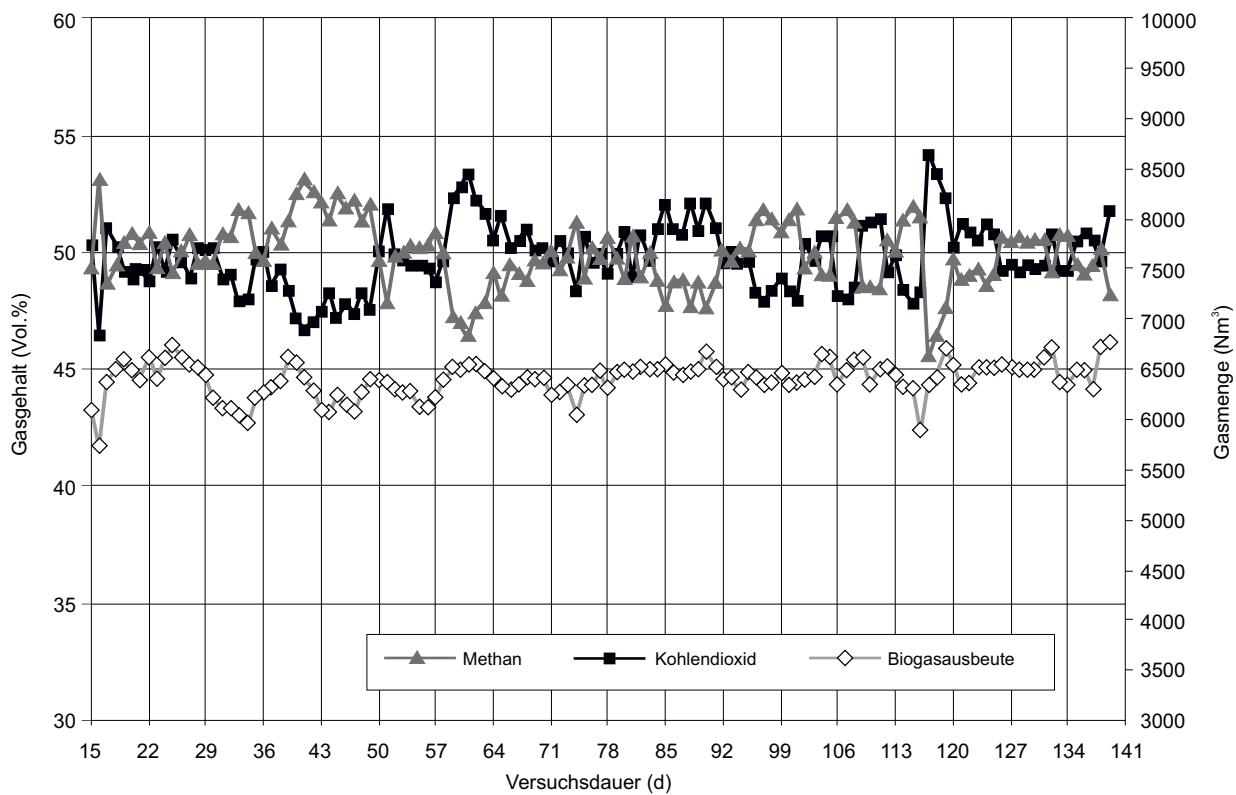


Abbildung 2:

Biogasmengen und -qualitäten des Moduls 1 während der Versuchphasen (15. bis 139. Versuchstag)

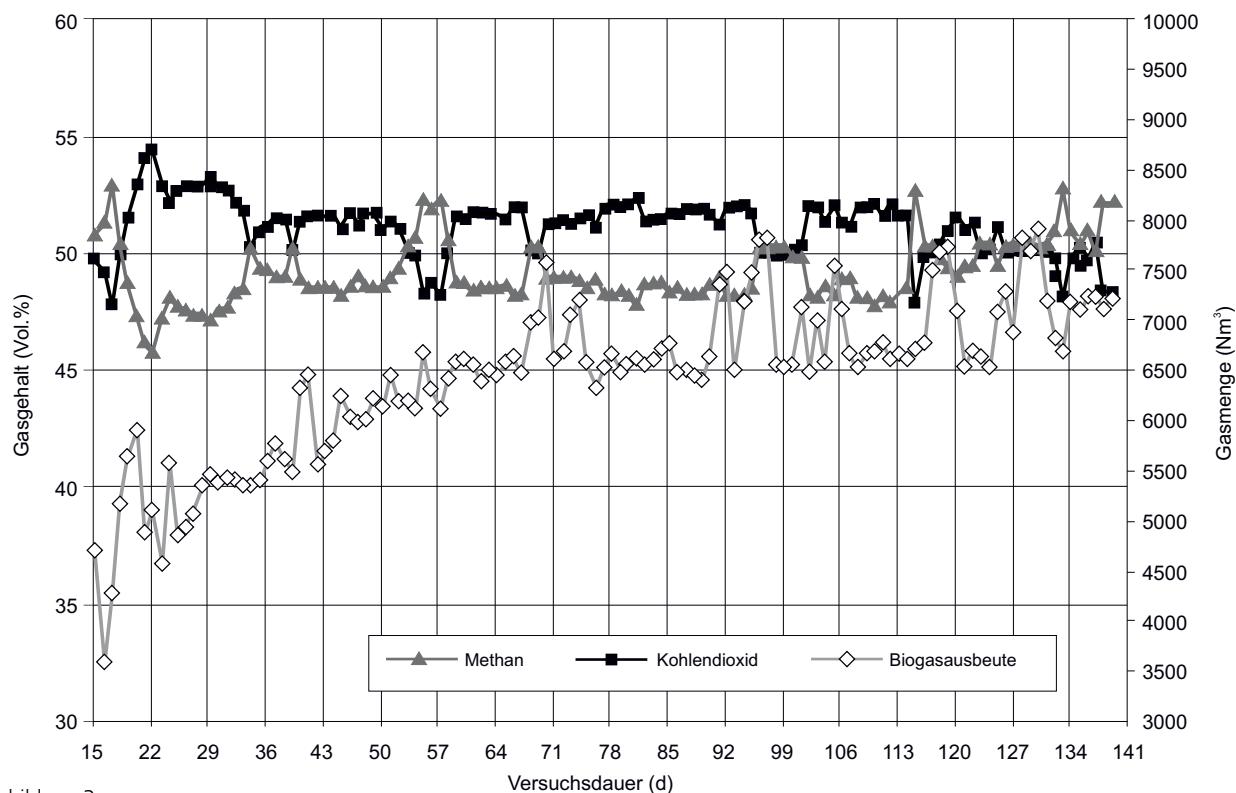


Abbildung 3:

Biogasmengen und -qualitäten des Moduls 5 während der Versuchphasen (15. bis 139. Versuchstag)

variierte innerhalb des gesamten Versuchszeitraums zwischen 5.500 bis 6.500 $\text{Nm}^3 \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$ mit einem Mittel von 6.404 $\text{Nm}^3 \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$. Hingegen befindet sich die normierte Biogasausbeute von Modul 5 vom 15. bis zum 50. Versuchstag auf einem niedrigeren Niveau, erreicht aber ausgehend vom 51. Versuchstag höhere Biogasausbeuten als das Modul 1 mit einem durchschnittlichen Mehrertrag von 115 $\text{m}^3 \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$. Die geringeren normierten Gasausbeuten bis zum 50. Versuchstag lassen sich durch die geringere Raumbelastung in der Anfahrphase des Moduls 5 gegenüber dem Modul 1 erklären. Im Mittel erreicht Modul 5 sogar eine höhere Biogasausbeute mit 6.519 $\text{Nm}^3 \cdot \text{d}^{-1}$. Die erzielten Biogasausbeuten des Moduls 5 befinden sich auf einem hohen Niveau und im Bereich vergleichbarer Anlagen (Gemmeke et al., 2009). Sie erlauben damit eine positive Kosten- und Nutzenbilanz für den landwirtschaftlichen Betreiber der Biogasanlage.

In der Tabelle 6 sind die gebildeten Restgas- und die Methanpotentiale der Fermenter vom 87. Versuchstag dargestellt.

Tabelle 6:

Restgas- und Methanpotentiale vom Modul 1 und 5 am 87. Versuchstag

Proben	Restgas-potential	Methan-potential	Methan-potential	Methan-anteil
	($\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$)	($\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$)	($\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{oS}$)	(Vol. %)
Modul 1	10,24	5,87	104,65	57,4
Modul 5	5,90	3,49	80,76	59,1

Erwartungsgemäß unterscheiden sich die Restgaspotentiale ($\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$ bzw. $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{oS}$) bezogen auf die Frischmasse bzw. organische Substanz der einzelnen Fermenterinhalte voneinander. Das höchste Restgaspotential besitzt das Modul 1 und das geringste Modul 5. Entsprechend dem Restgaspotential wurde das höchste Methanpotential (5,9 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$) bei dem Modul 1 und das niedrigste beim Modul 5 (3,5 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$) ermittelt. Alle Werte befinden sich weit unter denen des Biogas Messprogramms (Gemmeke et al., 2009), die ein durchschnittliches Methanpotential von 9,5 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{FM}$ ausweisen. Die Methanpotentiale des Moduls 1 mit 105 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{oS}$ und des Moduls 5 mit 81 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{oS}$, sind damit deutlich niedriger als die Angaben des Biogas Messprogramms (Gemmeke et al., 2009) mit im Mittel 130 $\text{l}_\text{N} \cdot \text{kg}^{-1} \cdot \text{oTS}$. Das geringere Restgas- und Methanpotential des Moduls 5 gegenüber dem Modul 1 ist ein weiteres Indiz für einen bedarfsgerechten Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat und spricht für einen effizienteren Biogasprozess. Dennoch kann von den beschriebenen praktischen Bedingungen eine Beeinflussung der chemischen Analyse- und Prozessparameter durch den

erhöhten Einsatz von Schweinegülle im Modul 5 nicht ausgeschlossen werden. Trotzdem lassen die Ergebnisse eindeutig die positiven Wirkungen von Natriumhydrogencarbonat erkennen.

Der Methananteil in Volumenprozent ergibt sich aus dem Quotienten der Biogas- und Methanmenge. Der Vergleich der beiden Fermenter zeigt, dass das Modul 1 mit 57,4 Vol.% die geringere und das Modul 5 mit 59,1 Vol.% die höhere Methanqualität besitzt. Beide Methangehalte liegen eng beieinander und sind in Bezug auf typische Bereiche für Biogasanlagen als normal einzustufen (Leschber und Loll, 1996; Eder et al., 2007; Weiland, 2003).

In der abschließenden Rekonvaleszenzphase vom 125. bis zum 139. Versuchstag wurde im Modul 5 ein annähernd gleiches prozessbiologisches Niveau eingestellt wie im Modul 1. Die gebildeten Gasqualitäten, chemischen Prozessparameter und Raumbelastungen des Moduls 5 entsprachen dem Modul 1, übertrafen aber die Erwartungen des Modul 5 im Bezug auf die generierten Biogasmengen um 1,8 % pro Tag gegenüber dem Modul 1.

Damit konnten in dem mit Natriumhydrogencarbonat versetzten Fermenter höhere Biogasausbeuten nachgewiesen werden. Innerhalb von knapp einem Monat wurde der Biogasprozess des versäuerten Fermenters auf das Niveau der Kontrolle angehoben. Jedoch konnten dabei keine durchschnittlich höheren Methanqualitäten erfasst werden.

4 Schlussfolgerung

Eine Versäuerung von Biogastermentern ausgelöst durch eine Überfütterung führt zur erheblichen wirtschaftlichen Schäden. Natriumhydrogencarbonat kann nachweislich den pH-Wert anheben und damit einen versäuerten Fermenterinhalt effizient abpuffern und führt zu einer Stabilisierung der Prozessbiologie. Aufgrund der basischen Wirkung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat erfolgt eine Milieverbesserung für die methanogenen Bakterien.

Die Untersuchungen bei der Anwendung an einer Praxisanlage haben gezeigt, dass Natriumhydrogencarbonat als Prozesshilfsstoff bei einer starken Versäuerung in Form einer bedarfsgerechten einmaligen Gabe (Akutapplikation) eingesetzt werden kann. Daneben konnte bei schwankenden Substratqualitäten des eingesetzten Inputsubstrates sowie bei zeitweisen hohen Raumbelastungen (Stoßbelastungen), bei Substratwechsel, im Anfahr- und Hochfahrmodus die positive Wirkung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat in Form von größeren Teilapplikationen nachgewiesen werden. Weiterhin eignet sich Natriumhydrogencarbonat als Präventionsmittel und Leistungsförderer bei kontinuierlicher Applikation zur Optimierung des Biogasprozesses. Um eine bedarfsgerechte Dosierung von Natriumhydrogencarbonat zu ermöglichen, muss eine sorgfältige Analyse des Prozesses im Hinblick auf die varia-

blen Prozessparameter und Analysedaten (Substratart und -menge, Verweilzeiten, Raumbelastungen, Gasmenge und Gasqualität) durchgeführt werden. Parallel dazu müssen im Labor bestimmte mikrobiologisch, chemisch relevante Prozesswerte erfasst und abgeglichen werden. Auf Grundlage dieser Analysedaten kann eine exakte Applikation von Natriumhydrogencarbonat erfolgen.

Generell ist damit der Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat eine praktikable Variante um Prozessstörung durch Versäuerungen zu vermeiden. Da Natriumhydrogencarbonat relativ günstig verfügbar ist, stellt es eine preiswerte Alternative zum kompletten Herunterfahren von versäuernten Biogasanlagen dar.

Zu berücksichtigen ist zudem, dass der Praxisversuch beim Einsatz von Natriumhydrogencarbonat im Gärrest zu einem verringerten Restgaspotential und somit zur einer Reduzierung von klimarelevanten Treibhausgasen führt. Dies ist besonders für die weitere Verwendung in der Landwirtschaft von Vorteil, aufgrund von reduzierten Emissionen und einer Erhöhung des pH-Wertes im Boden.

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Heavy metal concentrations in soils in the vicinity of a fertilizer factory in Southern Brazil¹⁾

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Abstract

A peninsula in Rio Grande do Sul (Southern Brazil) has been known to be influenced by the immissions of a phosphorus fertilizer factory since four decades. As other industries are assumed to affect the spatial distribution of metals at this site as well, this study was conducted to identify and differentiate between potential contamination sources and their impact on accumulation of environmentally relevant elements in soils and groundwater. The concentrations of major elements (Al, Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Na, and P) and heavy and trace metals (Cu, Co, Ni, Nb, Pb, Sr, Th, U, V, Zn, and rare earth elements including Y (REY)) were determined in top and sub soils and groundwater along a transect. High enrichment factors for all trace metals in the top soil showed a strong contamination at the site of the factory. A petroleum refinery and a wood preservation factory were identified as potential sources for Ni, V, Cu, and As accumulation in soils. Phosphorus fertilizer samples used in Southern Brazil were analyzed to explore coherences with metal emission patterns potentially released by processing of the rock phosphate. High variation coefficients of all metal concentrations in fertilizers indicate different origins and show the potential contamination hazard for soils through agricultural fertilization. The REY patterns of the fertilizers allowed for the identification of the sedimentary or igneous origin of the phosphate rock used for fertilizer production. The REY patterns of top soil in the vicinity of the factory confirm that the fertilizer factory is a major source of contamination in the surrounding environment.

Keywords: Southern Brazil, soil contamination, fertilizer factory, phosphorus fertilizer, heavy metals, rare earth elements, trace elements

Zusammenfassung

Schwermetallgehalte in Böden im Umfeld einer Düngerfabrik in Südbrasilien

Eine Halbinsel in Rio Grande do Sul (Südbrasilien) wird seit vier Jahrzehnten durch die Immissionen einer Fabrik zur Herstellung von Phosphordüngemitteln beeinflusst. Diese Studie hatte zum Ziel, diese und andere industrielle Kontaminationsquellen in Ober- und Unterböden und Grundwasser zu identifizieren und ihren Einfluss auf die räumliche Verteilung von Hauptelementen (Al, Ca, Fe, K, Mg, Na und P) und Schwermetallen bzw. Spurenelementen (Cu, Co, Ni, Nb, Pb, Sr, Th, U, V, Zn und Seltene Erd-Elemente inklusive Y (REY)) zu untersuchen. Hohe Anreichungsfaktoren aller Spurenelemente in der Nähe der Fabrik belegen eine starke Kontamination durch die Düngemittelproduktion. Weiterhin wurden eine Holzimprägnierungsfabrik und eine Erdölraffinerie als mögliche Emissionsquellen von Cu und As bzw. V und Ni identifiziert. Hohe Variationskoeffizienten der Spurenmetall-Konzentrationen in Düngemitteln aus Südbrasilien kennzeichnen deren unterschiedliche Herkunft. Durch Untersuchung der REY-Muster der Düngemittel und Böden konnte die sedimentäre oder magmatische Herkunft identifiziert werden. Die Dünger zeigen Zusammenhänge mit Emissionsmustern der Elemente, die bei der Rohphosphat-Verarbeitung freigesetzt wurden und weisen die Düngemittelfabrik als Hauptverursacher der Kontamination der näheren Umgebung aus. Entsprechend kann auch landwirtschaftliche Düngung zum Eintrag von Schwermetallen in Böden führen.

Schlüsselworte: Südbrasilien, Bodenkontamination, Düngemittelfabrik, Phosphor-Düngemittel, Schwermetalle, Seltene Erden, Spurenelemente

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1 Introduction

Chemical production sites are known as potential emitters of organic and inorganic contaminants, which may pollute the environment. The understanding of the dispersion and spatial distribution of the emitted substances from any kind of factory is important to assess the risk of environmental pollution. Fertilizer production is among these potential sources of environmental pollution, which has to be controlled and regulated by the industry (FAO, 2004). For example, the release of silicon tetrafluoride (SiF_4), hydrogen fluoride (HF), and particulates composed of fluoride and phosphate material has to be minimized in phosphate processing factories (USEPA, 1995). Standard quality of emission for the release of fluorine at the reaction unit of a factory should not be higher than 30 mg m^{-3} (FAO, 2004). Besides fluorine, sulfur dioxide, nitrogen dioxide, and the total particle release from phosphorus (P) fertilizer factories, a regulation of other hazardous trace elements (heavy metals, radionuclides, rare earth elements, and other trace elements) does not exist. The production of P fertilizers requires rock phosphates as raw material, which can be found as a mixture of fluorapatite $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{F}$, hydroxylapatite $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3(\text{OH})$, chlorapatite $\text{Ca}_5(\text{PO}_4)_3\text{Cl}$, and francolite $\text{Ca}_{10}(\text{PO}_4)_{6-x}(\text{CO}_3)_x(\text{F},\text{OH})_{2+x}$. The rock phosphate has to be ground and treated with concentrated sulfuric or phosphoric acid for the destruction of the calcium phosphate mineral to extract the final product P fertilizer and the by-product phosphogypsum (PG).

Rock phosphates contain trace elements in a range of 1 to 100 mg kg^{-1} Cd, 70 to 110 mg kg^{-1} Cr, 1 to 1000 mg kg^{-1} Cu, < LLD (lower limit of detection) -117 mg kg^{-1} Ni, < LLD -45 mg kg^{-1} Pb, 4 to 1000 mg kg^{-1} Zn, 710 mg kg^{-1} F, and 8 to 220 mg kg^{-1} U (Malavolta, 1994; Da Conceicao and Bonotto, 2006; Kratz et al., 2008). Depending on the origin of the rock phosphates mineral fertilizers show trace element concentrations in a range of < LLD -58.8 mg kg^{-1} Cd, 10.4 to 72.7 mg kg^{-1} Cr, 1 to 183 mg kg^{-1} Cu, 5 to 26.9 mg kg^{-1} Ni, 0.6 to 30.7 mg kg^{-1} Pb, 8.8 to 181 mg kg^{-1} Zn, and 39.7 to 206 mg kg^{-1} U (Hamamo et al., 1995; Camelo et al., 1997; Abdel-Haleem et al., 2001; McBride and Spiers, 2001; Smidt et al., 2011b).

Phosphogypsum (PG) is usually deposited, but is also used for liming of tropical arable soils in Brazil. PG contains high concentrations of Cd (15 mg kg^{-1}), Cu (32 mg kg^{-1}), Ni (43 mg kg^{-1}), Sr (963 mg kg^{-1}), Zn (263 mg kg^{-1}), U (135 mg kg^{-1}), and of the radionuclides ^{226}Ra , ^{40}K , and U (Perez-Lopez et al., 2007; Abril et al., 2009). Its use for agricultural practices as a soil amendment is banned in the US since 1992 unless the Ra activity is lower than 370 Bq kg^{-1} (USEPA, 1999).

The minimization of the total loads of trace elements by agricultural fertilizer application to arable fields are dis-

cussed worldwide and many countries developed limits for certain heavy metals in fertilizers (USEPA 1999, DÜMV 2008). Phosphorus fertilizer-derived pollutants may reach the food chain by cropping and carry-over into dairy products, or leaching into groundwater resources. The diffuse pollution pathway of trace element co-application by fertilizers is intensively discussed in the scientific community (Rogasik et al., 2008; Kratz et al. 2008; Tunney et al., 2009; Smidt et al., 2011a and 2011b).

The cumulative load of gaseous and particulate pollutants from a P fertilizer factory into the neighboring environment can be considerably high. Elevated concentrations of toxic elements (Hg, F, Cd, and As) were found in soils and waters around a P fertilizer factory on a peninsula close to the city of Rio Grande (Southern Brazil) (Mirlean et al., 2003a; 2003b; 2006, and 2007). This study site has been known to be strongly influenced by the emissions from a P fertilizer factory since 40 years. However, so far nothing is known about the input of other rock phosphate-derived trace elements into the environment at this site. In this study the concentrations of numerous trace elements in soils and groundwater, potentially released from the P fertilizer factory in Rio Grande have been investigated. Additionally a collection of fertilizers traded in southern Brazil was analyzed to identify possible contaminants in the products and to source the sedimentary or igneous origin of the raw material. It was tested if coherences between emission patterns released by the factory through particulate emission enable to identify the origin of the processed phosphate rock type.

2 Materials and methods

2.1 Study area

The study site is located on a peninsula "Superporto" in the Patos Lagoon estuary in the vicinity of the city of Rio Grande in the federal state of Rio Grande do Sul (RS) – Brazil (Figure 1). This peninsula is part of a Holocene barrier-lagoon system having very fine-grained quartz beach sands, derived probably from the inner continental shelf. The overall geological setting of the study area consists of Paleozoic and Mezozoic sedimentary and volcanic rocks of the Paraná Basin in the northern part of RS and the igneous and metamorphic rocks of the Precambrian shield in the southern part of RS (Tomazelli et al., 2000). The subtropical oceanic climate with an average annual precipitation of 1300 mm and prevailing wind directions from north-northeast in summer and south-southwest in winter formed a dune sand vegetation with different grass species in the north of the peninsula. Only small areas are used as pasture for cattle grazing and eucalyptus plantations can be found randomly. The southern end of the peninsula is directly influenced by the oceanic sea spray and brackish

groundwater, which is shown by the halophyte plant community at this site (Mirlean and Roisenberg, 2006).

The soil is a sandy soil with low organic carbon content, which is influenced by the groundwater level at 1 to 2 m depth forming anoxic gleyic soil conditions, identified through the typical Fe(III)-rich oxidized horizon (Go) and the anoxic reduced horizon (Gr). At the southern part of the peninsula the groundwater is influenced by diurnal tidal changes, resulting in temporal water logged conditions. A container freight terminal, a shipyard, a wood factory and a rural settlement are located at the southern part and one rural settlement at the northern part of the 11.5 km long peninsula.

2.2 Sampling

In 2008 soil samples ($N = 21$) were taken at seven sites along a transect from north to south across the production site from different depths (0 to 10, 10 to 40, and 40 to 100 cm; Figure 1). Corresponding to the location of the P fertilizer factory (km 0) one soil sampling point is located in northern direction (km -1.1) of and five soil samples were taken southwards (km 1, km 1.9, km 5.1, km 6.3, km 9.3). The north-south transect across the fertilizer factory was chosen to determine the distribution of pollutants potentially released by the factory effected by seasonal changes in the prevailing wind direction. The spatial distribution of the sampling sites follows the transect studied by Mirlean and Roisenberg (2006 and 2007). In this study the selection of the seven sampling sites was based on the results of the named authors, who showed increased Cd and As concentration in top soils ($N = 19$) at the factory site with decreasing concentrations towards km 5.1 and increasing concentration of As at the southern end of the peninsula. In our study the soil horizons were opened with a shovel to a sampling depth of 100 cm to study the vertical distribution of trace elements in soils. The time consuming sampling procedure did not allow opening more than seven horizons at one day. Samples were taken with a stainless steel knife out of the different horizons and stored in polyethylene (PE) bags. The groundwater level depths varied along the transect and samples could only be collected at the sampling points km -1.1, km 0.9, km 6.1, and km 9.3. After the opening of the soil horizon the pit was cleaned and the groundwater was sampled with PE bottles after sedimentation of dispersed soil particles.

Phosphorus fertilizer samples ($N = 39$) traded in Southern Brazil in 2007 and 2008 were collected to determine typical trace element concentrations of local products. Out of the 39 samples 29 are multi component fertilizers (13 NPK, 11 NP, and 5 PK) and 10 straight P fertilizers (4 single superphosphate and 6 triple superphosphate). Phosphorus contents vary between 14 to 52 %.

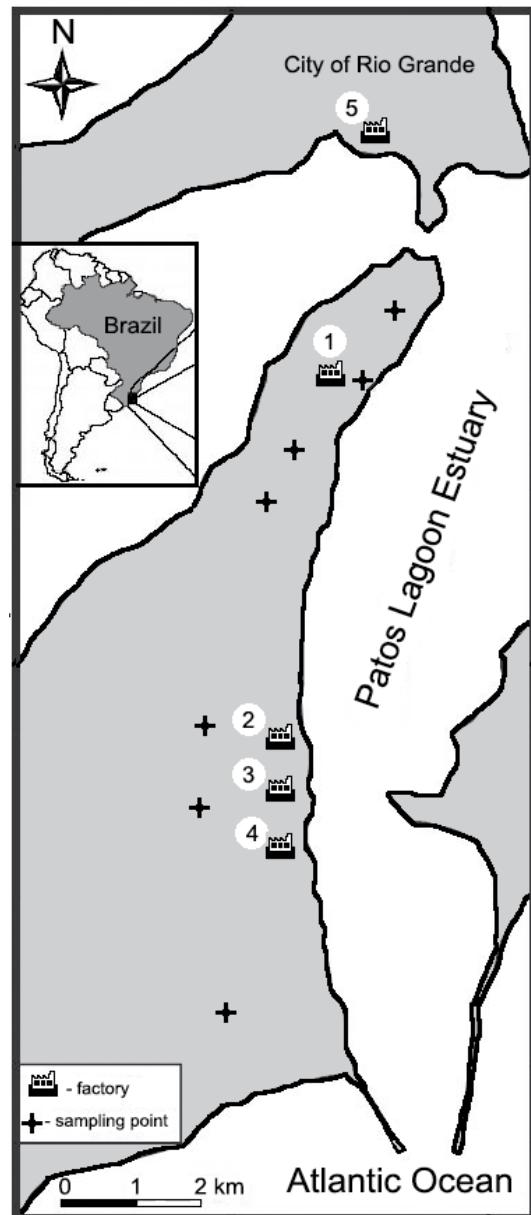


Figure 1:

Sampling site on the peninsula south of Rio Grande (Southern Brazil) showing the spatial distribution of seven sampling points and the location of a P fertilizer factory (1), a wood factory (2), a container freight terminal (3), a ship yard (4), and a petroleum refinery (5) (map modified after Mirlean and Roisenberg, 2006).

2.3 Sample preparation and chemical analysis

The collected soil samples were air-dried and stored in plastic bags. The samples were sieved (2 mm) and ground in an agate ball mill to a particle size of $< 20 \mu\text{m}$ and dried overnight at 105 °C before further chemical treatment. For the determination of the total elemental content the procedure for trace element analyses described by Dulski (1994 and 2001) and Alexander (2008) was used. 100 mg of each sample was digested with 3 ml of HCl, 1 ml HNO_3

and 1 ml HF (all acids used are concentrated and suprapure grade) for 16 hours at > 180 °C in a closed acid pressure digestion system (Picotrace). Prior to the analyses the acids were evaporated in the open teflon vessel at a temperature of 120 °C. The evaporation step was repeated two times with 5 ml HCl for the complete evaporation of fluoride complexes, which affect the rare earth element analysis. The final sample solution was taken up in 50 ml of 0.5M HCl. The groundwater samples were filtered with 0.2 µm cellulose acetate filters immediately after the sampling. The groundwater samples were acidified with concentrated suprapure HNO₃ to pH 2.

The fertilizer samples (N = 39) were hand-ground with a mortar and pestle and together with two certified P rock standard reference material (NIST 120b and NIST 694) dried overnight at 105 °C, and then digested by microwave (MLS Start 1500). The samples (0.05 g) were extracted with aqua regia (3.6 ml concentrated HCl and 1.2 ml concentrated HNO₃) at constant temperature of 210 °C for 60 minutes. Filtered samples were diluted to 100 g with de-ionized water.

2.4 Analytical procedures

Trace element concentrations in soil and fertilizer samples were determined in a 0.5M HNO₃ matrix with a Perkin-Elmer/SciexElan Model 5000 inductively coupled plasma mass spectrometer (ICP-MS) following the procedures of Dulski (2001). Beside the trace elements Cd, Co, Ni, Nb, Pb, Sr, Th, U, and Zr, the rare earth elements La, Ce, Pr, Nd, Pm, Sm, Eu, Gd, Tb, Dy, Ho, Er, Tm, Yb, Lu, and Y (REY) were analysed via ICP-MS. The major elements Al, K, Fe, Ca, Na, Mg, and P and the trace elements Zn and V contents were determined using an inductively couple plasma optical emission spectrometer (Spectro Ciros Vision – ICP-OES). The Cu concentrations in the soil samples were determined using cathodic stripping voltammetry (Metrohm 757 VA Computrace). The accuracy of the measurements was tested using certified reference material (BHVO-2, NIST 120b, and NIST 694). The pH value of the soils was measured in 0.01 M CaCl₂ with a 1:5 soil to solution ratio according to ISO 10390. Major and trace element concentrations in groundwater samples were analyzed via ICP-MS and ICP-OES. Additionally the pH was measured and the anion concentrations (F⁻, Cl⁻, NO₃⁻, and SO₄²⁻) were determined using ion chromatography (Metrohm IC 462).

2.5 Statistical analysis and calculation of enrichment factors for trace elements (EF_{TE})

The statistical description of the dataset, including mean, minimum, maximum values, and standard deviation was carried out with SPSS 12.

The evaluation of the enrichment of the investigated trace elements in the top soils along the transect cannot be done with simple calculation of the top soil/sub soil quotients. The different geochemical behavior and the multiple sources of the trace elements require different calculation of the trace element enrichment factors (EF_{TE}). Therefore a modified calculation model based on methods by Zoller et al. (1974) and Reimann and Caritat (2000) was used. The concentration of the trace element at the site X is devided by the concentration of the trace element at the control site (ctrl). In addition, these values are normalized to a "conservative" element (Zr), which is not anthropogenically enriched in top soils along the transect.

$$EF_{TE} = (\text{conc}(TE)_X / \text{conc}(Zr)_X) / (\text{conc}(TE)_{ctrl} / \text{conc}(Zr)_{ctrl})$$

with EF_{TE}	= enrichment factor for a certain trace element
$\text{conc}(TE)_X$	= concentration of trace element in top soil at sampling point x
$\text{conc}(TE)_{ctrl}$	= concentration of trace element in top soil at sampling point km 5.1
$\text{conc}(Zr)_X$	= concentration of zirkonium in top soil at sampling point x
$\text{conc}(Zr)_{ctrl}$	= concentration of zirkonium in top soil at sampling point km 5.1

3 Results and discussion

3.1 Major and trace elements in P fertilizers traded in Brazil

All Brazilian P fertilizers analyzed in this study show typical ranges of major and trace element concentrations. The mean, median, minimum, and maximum concentration of P₂O₅, K₂O, Ca, Fe, Al, Mg, and Na are given in Table 1. High variation coefficients (RSD) between 41 to 210 % indicate the broad concentration range in the studied P fertilizers. The results in Table 1 and 2 are separated into two classes, which represent a sedimentary (s) (N = 34) and igneous (i) (N = 5) origin of the raw phosphate material. The identification of different geological origin of the raw phosphates is based on the different geochemical composition of the rare earth elements in the two sources (see section 3.5).

The mean, median, minimum, and maximum concentrations of trace elements (Sr, Zn, V, Ce, U, La, Ni, Zr, Cd, Pb, Nb, and Th) are listed in Table 2. While high mean concentrations of the potentially environmental harmful heavy metals Zn (306 mg kg⁻¹), U (78 mg kg⁻¹), Ni (33 mg kg⁻¹), Cd (16 mg kg⁻¹), and Pb (6.9 mg kg⁻¹) were found in fertilizers of sedimentary origin, the mean concentrations of these elements are low in fertilizers of igneous origin (12 mg Zn kg⁻¹, 2 mg U kg⁻¹, 7.7 mg Ni kg⁻¹, < LLD mg Cd kg⁻¹, and 2.9 mg Pb kg⁻¹). In contrast other trace ele-

Table 1:

Concentrations of major components (P_2O_5 , K_2O , Ca, Fe, Al, Mg, and Na) in % in fertilizer samples with sedimentary (s) (N = 34) and igneous (i) (N = 5) origin with a P_2O_5 -content of > 5 % traded in southern Brazil in 2007 and 2008

	P_2O_5		K_2O		Ca		Fe		Al		Mg		Na	
	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i
Mean	29	35	9.9	3.0	8.9	1.0	0.63	0.26	0.56	0.31	0.51	0.06	0.36	0.26
Median	22	34	2.2	0.14	8.9	0.6	0.54	0.33	0.42	0.35	0.28	0.07	0.32	0.21
RSD (%)	48	45	131	210	83	114	79	60	72	41	99	61	55	64
Minimum	14	18	0.05	0.13	0.16	0.17	0.06	0.03	0.13	0.15	0.09	0.03	0.12	0.06
Maximum	53	51	58	14	22	2.9	1.9	0.40	1.6	0.42	2.58	0.12	1.13	0.51

Table 2:

Concentrations of selected trace elements (Sr, Zn, V, Ce, U, La, Ni, Zr, Cd, Pb, Nb, and Th) in mg kg⁻¹ in fertilizer samples with sedimentary (s) (N = 34) and igneous (i) (N = 5) origin with a P_2O_5 -content of > 5 % traded in southern Brazil in 2007 and 2008

	Sr		Zn		V		Ce		U		La	
	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i
Mean	309	1588	306	12	118	105	35	566	78	2	28	317
Median	237	241	235	12	102	116	15	385	61	2.9	20	165
RSD (%)	93	196	79	34	43	17	119	102	74	64	83	131
Minimum	0.16	72	44	8.0	63	85	0.05	54	0.01	0.25	0.06	24
Maximum	1072	7148	1005	16	229	116	171	1558	200	3.5	93	1048
	Ni		Zr		Cd		Pb		Nb		Th	
	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i	s	i
Mean	33	7.7	20	22	16	< LLD	6.9	2.9	1.3	18	5.5	11
Median	25	8.4	18	16	9.7	< LLD	4.0	1.3	0.6	19	3.7	16
RSD (%)	58	24	52	63	98		107	114	119	67	98	76
Minimum	0.35	5.1	0.21	7.7	1.3	< LLD	0.32	0.59	0.01	0.25	0.01	0.13
Maximum	82	9.7	57	44	56	< LLD	31	8.5	6.8	30	20	19

LLD = lower limit of detection

ments were determined in higher mean concentrations in P fertilizers of igneous origin (1588 mg Sr kg⁻¹, 566 mg Ce kg⁻¹, 317 mg La kg⁻¹, and 18 mg Nb kg⁻¹) in comparison to fertilizers of sedimentary origin (309 mg Sr kg⁻¹, 35 mg Ce kg⁻¹, 28 mg La kg⁻¹, and 1.3 mg Nb kg⁻¹). Such variation in trace element contents of fertilizers in relation to the geogenic origin of the material is confirmed by a study from Niedergesäss et al. (1992), who analyzed mineral fertilizers processed from either igneous or sedimentary P rock sources. A comparison of the values of this study with concentrations in P fertilizer products traded in Germany (Smidt et al., 2011b) shows that Brazilian fertilizers contain distinctly higher mean concentrations of P_2O_5 , Cd, and U. The high concentrations of heavy metals (Zn, U, Ni, Cd, and Pb) in the analyzed fertilizers indicate the potential contamination hazard for arable soils which receive regularly applications.

3.2 Major and trace elements in top and sub soils

The mean, minimum, maximum, and variation coefficient (RSD) of major elements in the top soils of the seven sampling sites along the transect are given in Table 3. The broad ranges of all major element concentrations reflect the variation of top soil element contents along the sampled transect. Especially P and Ca, which are the main components of apatite rock phosphates, show extreme maximum concentrations of 5225 and 15035 mg kg⁻¹ in comparison to the mean concentrations (1095 mg P kg⁻¹ and 4318 mg Ca kg⁻¹). The mean, minimum, maximum, and variation coefficient (RSD) of trace elements (Sr, Zn, V, Ce, U, La, Ni, Zr, Cu, Pb, Nb, Th, and Co) (Table 4) show a high variation in the top soils along the investigated transect, which is especially pronounced for Sr, La, Ce, Zn, Nb, Th, and U.

Table 3:

Concentrations of major components (P, K, Ca, Fe, Al, Mg, and Na) in seven top soils from Southern Brazil (mg kg^{-1})

	P	K	Ca	Fe	Al	Mg	Na
Mean	1 095	5 498	4 318	4 532	13 097	510	3 199
Median	398	4 977	3 180	4 072	15 658	540	2 660
RSD (%)	170	36	112	68	43	72	49
Minimum	80	3 245	1 200	1 726	6 109	113	1 683
Maximum	5 225	8 675	15 035	10 267	19 438	1 121	5 912

Table 4:

Concentrations of selected trace elements (Sr, Zn, V, Ce, U, La, Ni, Zr, Cu, Pb, Nb, Th, and Co) in seven top soils from Southern Brazil (mg kg^{-1})

	Sr	Zn	V	Ce	U	La	Ni	Zr	Cu	Pb	Nb	Th	Co
Mean	62	38	12	15	1.1	7.8	2.3	33	8.6	7.3	4.5	1.7	1.4
Median	41	19	11	10	0.5	5.3	1.6	37	5.9	6.7	2.1	1.1	1.2
RSD (%)	83	132	53	120	131	115	74	18	76	58	136	92	74
Minimum	27	9	5.0	2.9	0.32	2.2	0.79	25	2.0	3.5	1.2	0.47	0.51
Maximum	168	151	23	57	4.3	28	5.0	39	18	15	18	5.0	3.3

The spatial distribution of P (Figure 2a) along the sampled transect on the peninsula shows the highest concentration of 5225 mg kg^{-1} in the top soil close to the production site (km 0). From here decreasing concentrations with increasing distance to the P fertilizer factory were found. In the distance of -1.1 and 1 km the concentration of P is still strongly elevated (1188 and 496 mg kg^{-1} , respectively) when compared to the top soil in the distance of 9.3 km at the end of the peninsula with 148 mg kg^{-1} . A slight increase in top soil concentration at the sampling point at km 6.3 is a possible effect of P fertilization of pasture land used for cattle grazing.

Calcium concentrations (Figure 2b) along the transect have also their maximum (15035 mg kg^{-1}) at the factory site, where apatite rocks (CaPO_4) are extracted by H_2SO_4 for P fertilizer production. The lowest concentration (1200 mg kg^{-1}) was found in a distance of 1.9 km. The increasing influence of brackish groundwater causes an increasing Ca concentration in top and sub soils with increasing distance from the sampling point km 5.1 towards the southern end of the peninsula (km 9.3).

The Mg concentration (Figure 2c) in the top soil is elevated at the factory site (774 mg kg^{-1}), but the maximum concentration (1121 mg kg^{-1}) can be found at the northernmost sampling point (km -1.1). The elevated concentrations of Mg and Fe (Figure 2f) at the sampling km -1.1 are probably an effect of urban dust immission. Temporal water logged conditions cause a higher groundwater level at the southern end of the peninsula (km 6.3 and 9.3) which yields anoxic conditions and Fe oxidation along O_2

gradients at plant roots and other macropores up to the top soil. The spatial distribution of K and Na (Figure 2d and 2e) along the sampled transect on the peninsula also shows enrichment at the factory site ($7532 \text{ mg K kg}^{-1}$ and $4095 \text{ mg Na kg}^{-1}$, respectively), but has the highest top soil concentrations ($8675 \text{ mg K kg}^{-1}$ and $5911 \text{ mg Na kg}^{-1}$, respectively) at the outermost sampling point (km 9.3) at the southern end of the peninsula, due to the brackish groundwater influence.

The high concentrations of P and Ca (Figure 2a and 2b) in the top soil (0 to 10 cm) in comparison to the deeper soil layers at 10 to 40 cm and 40 to 100 cm at the factory site (km 0) demonstrate the high P and Ca input to the soils by the P fertilizer production compared to the natural background concentration. The high load of P to the top soil and the acidic pH values of 4.7 enabled slight P leaching to deeper soil horizons as indicated by the small P peak at the factory site in the 10 to 40 cm soil layer. Potassium and Na (Figure 2c and 2d) show a different distribution in top and sub soils at the factory site compared to P. The higher mobility of the monovalent cations K and Na in comparison to the bivalent Ca and Mg in the soil column is reflected in the mostly equal distribution of the elements in top (0 to 10 cm) and sub soil (10 to 40 cm and 40 to 100 cm) horizons. However, the sub soil concentrations of all major elements and P are elevated in the soil layer between 10 to 40 cm at the factory site in comparison to the surrounding sub soils. The dislocated elements are sorbed to the iron-rich Go horizon, which is influenced by changing groundwater levels.

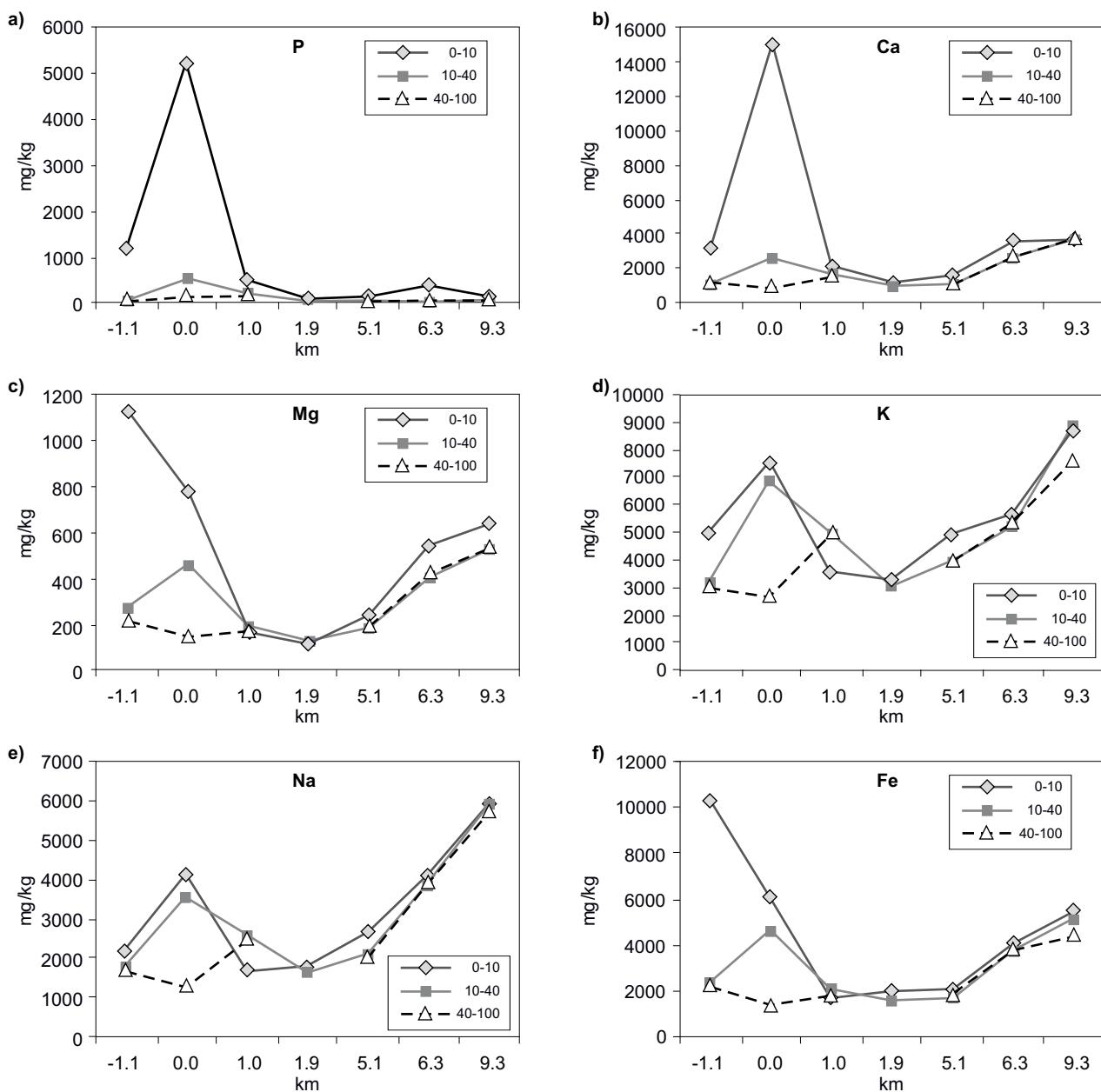


Figure 2:

Spatial distribution of P (a), Ca (b), Mg (c), K (d), Na (e), and Fe (f) in top (0 to 10 cm) – and sub (10 to 40 cm and 40 to 100 cm) – soils (mg kg^{-1}) in relation to the distance from a fertilizer factory (0 km corresponds to the factory position).

The spatial distribution of U (Figure 3a) along the sampled transect on the peninsula shows the highest concentration of 4.3 mg kg^{-1} in the top soil close to the production site (km 0). With increasing distance to the P fertilizer factory decreasing concentrations were found. In the distance of 1 km the concentration of U is still elevated (0.9 mg kg^{-1}) in comparison to the top soil in the distance of 9.3 km at the end of the peninsula (0.5 mg kg^{-1}). The lowest U concentration is found in 5.1 km distance (0.3 mg kg^{-1}). The spatial distributions of Nb, La, Zn, and Pb (Figure 3b, 3c, 3d, and 3e) resemble that of U. The comparison of top soil

and sub soil concentrations of trace elements demonstrate the enrichment in the uppermost horizon at the fertilizer factory. Niobium as a refractory element, which is considered extremely immobile in soils (Kurtz et al., 2000), shows the strongest enrichment of the top soil in comparison to the sub soil at km 0 (Figure 3b) of all analysed trace elements. In comparison to Nb, elevated concentrations of U, Ni, Zn, Pb, and V are found in the iron-rich Go horizon (10 to 40 cm) at the fertilizer factory (km 0), which points to the vertical dislocation of these trace elements at this site. Lead can be found in slightly higher concentration in

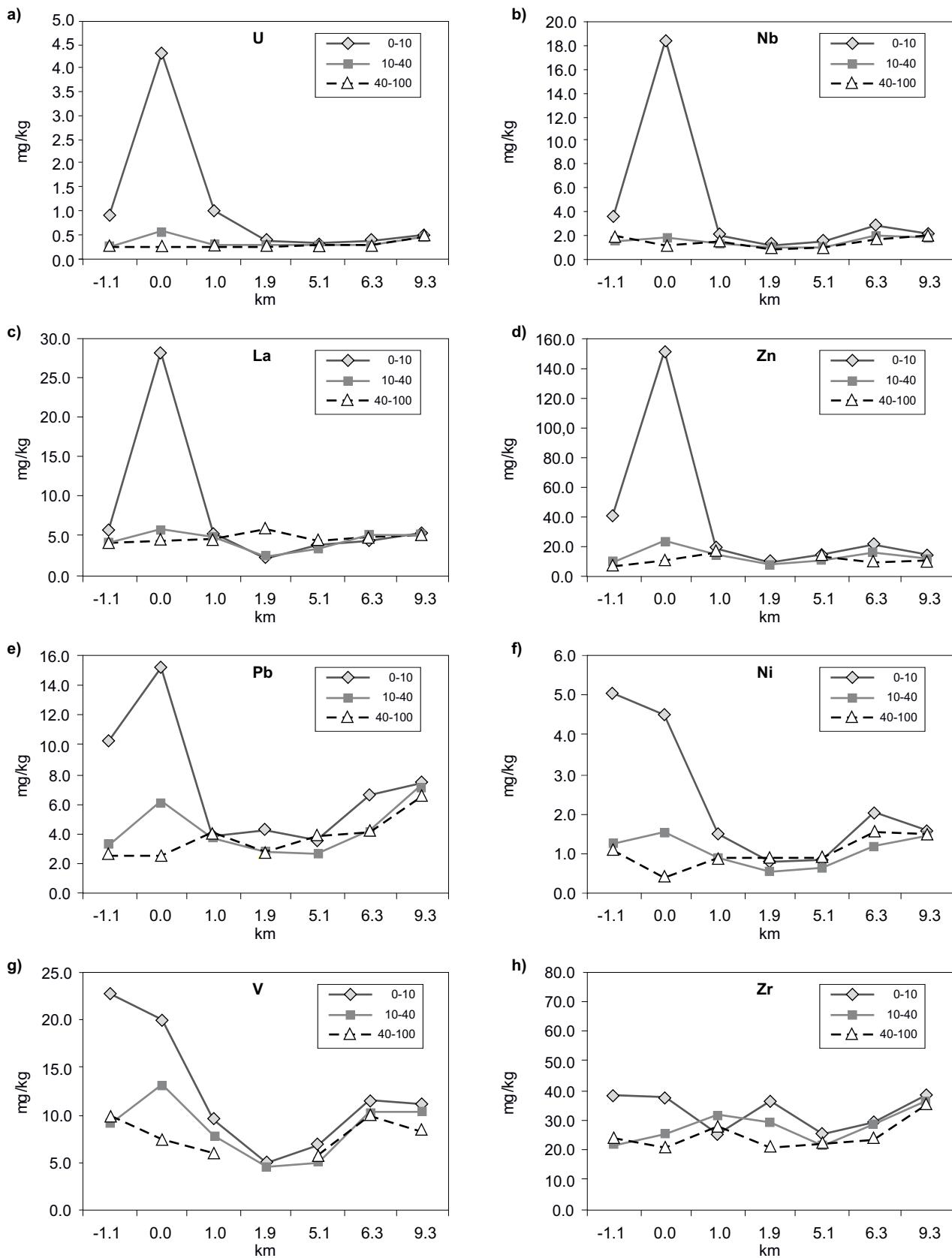


Figure 3:

Spatial distribution of U (a), Nb (b), La (c), Zn (d), Pb (e), Ni (f), V (g), and Zr (h) in top (0 to 10 cm)- and sub (10 to 40 cm and 40 to 100 cm) – soils (mg kg^{-1}) in relation to the distance from a fertilizer factory (0 km corresponds to the factory position).

the top soils along the whole transect in comparison to the sub soils, which possibly originates from the emission of leaded gasoline exhaust from cars until the 1990s. This pollution source may also have affected the increased top soil concentration of Pb (Figure 3e) at the northern end (km -1.1) of the peninsula in the close vicinity to the city of Rio Grande. Copper was found to be increased in top soils at two sampling points along the transect. The potential sources are discussed in the following section. Due to analytical uncertainties the spatial distribution of Cd is not shown, but Mirlean and Roisenberg (2006) found elevated Cd concentrations in topsoils (9.3 mg kg^{-1}) in the vicinity of the P fertilizer factory in comparison to the local background (0.03 mg kg^{-1}).

3.3 Variations of element enrichment factors

Zirkonium (Zr) was chosen as the conservative element for normalization of the trace element enrichment factors (EF_{TE}), since the concentration in the soil transect is practically exclusively influenced by geogenic sources. The mean concentration of Zr is $33.1 \pm 6.1 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ in top soils and $27.7 \pm 5.5 \text{ mg kg}^{-1}$ in sub soils and its spatial distribution does not show any trend (Figure 3h). The sampling point at 5.1 km distance from the P factory is chosen as the control site. This location in the intermediate location between factory and ocean showed the lowest concentration for most of the observed trace elements. Only Cu is normalized against another control site (km 1.9), because Cu is assumed to have another pollution source besides the P fertilizer factory. A wood preservative factory is located at the southern end of the peninsula.

While an EF_{TE} value around 1 indicates no trace element enrichment in the top soil, values higher than 1.5 show a clear enrichment of trace elements by either anthropogenic activities or geological sources. Uranium (9.3), Nb (8.3), Zn (7.3), Ce (5.6), La (5.1), and Th (3.4) show high EF_{TE} only at the factory site (Table 5), which indicates the fertilizer

factory to be a one point pollution source for these elements. The EF_{TE} of Pb (2.9), Ni (3.7), Co (1.7), and V (2.0) also reflect an emission by the fertilizer factory, but the EF_{TE} at the sampling point km -1.1 (1.9, 4.0, 3.8, and 2.2, respectively) give indications for other emission sources from the city of Rio Grande. A petrochemical refinery is located in 2 km linear distance of the sampling point km -1.1 (Figure 1). Nickel and V are known to be emitted by oil refineries and a recent study conducted in the vicinity of the local production site showed four times higher Ni and V concentrations in the top soils close to the emission source in comparison to the local background (Garcia et al., 2010). Another source of pollution of Ni and V could be the combustion of heavy residual fuel oils which typically contain 1 to 1000 mg kg^{-1} V and 3 to 345 mg kg^{-1} Ni (Russell et al., 2010). Heavy residual fuel oils also contain Co, but the concentration level is lower (7 to 3300 $\mu\text{g kg}^{-1}$) in comparison to Ni and V (Russell et al., 2010). The elevated EF_{TE} of Co, Zn, and Pb at the northern end of the transect are possibly derived from other industrial sources in the city of Rio Grande. The spatial distribution of EF_{TE} for Cu shows two points of enrichment in the top soil on the peninsula. One is located at the fertilizer factory (8.9), the second one is located at the sampling point km 5.1 (11.6) and km 6.3 (6.4). At this sampling point a wood factory is located in approximately 500 m distance (Figure 1), possibly using chromated-copper-arsenates (CCA) for wood preservation. The elevated concentrations of As in top soils reported by Mirlean and Roisenberg (2006) are most likely related to this contamination source, too.

3.4 Elemental composition of groundwater

The analyses of groundwater did not show any significantly elevated trace element concentrations at the sampling points close to the fertilizer factory (km -1.1 and km 1). However, the results of anion analyzes show high nitrate, phosphate, fluoride, and sulfate concentrations

Table 5:

Element enrichment factors (EF_{TE}) of trace elements in top soils from Southern Brazil in relation to the distance from a fertilizer factory (TE concentration normalized to background and Zr concentration in top soils at km 5.3 (background for Cu at km 1.9))

Distance (km)	Sr	Zn	V	Ce	U	Nb	La	Ni	Cu	Pb	Th	Co
-1.1	0.9	1.9	2.2	1.2	1.9	1.6	1.0	4.0	2.8	1.9	1.2	3.8
0.0	3.9	7.3	2.0	5.6	9.3	8.3	5.1	3.7	8.9	2.9	3.4	1.7
1.0	1.0	1.3	1.4	1.5	3.2	1.4	1.4	1.8	3.5	1.1	0.9	0.9
1.9	0.7	0.5	0.5	0.3	0.8	0.6	0.4	0.7	1.0	0.8	0.3	0.7
5.1	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	1.0	11.6	1.0	1.0	1.0
6.3	1.7	1.3	1.5	1.1	1.0	1.7	1.0	2.1	6.4	1.6	1.0	1.7
9.3	1.9	0.7	1.1	1.0	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.2	1.4	0.9	2.0

Table 6:

Concentrations of selected compounds (F^- , NO_3^- , PO_4^{3-} , SO_4^{2-} , Cl^- , Na, and Sr) and pH values in four groundwater samples along a transect across the P fertilizer factory (km 0) in Southern Brazil ($mg\ L^{-1}$). (Groundwater could not be sampled at sites km 0, km 1.9, km 5.1 since the groundwater table was lower than 100 cm).

Distance (km)	F^-	NO_3^-	PO_4^{3-}	SO_4^{2-}	Cl^-	Na	Sr	pH
-1.1	1.7	32.7	0.69	36	48	22	0.15	6.6
1.0	7.6	11.5	15.8	143	8.1	6.5	0.16	5.0
6.3	0.26	1.5	< LLD	0.36	38	21	0.16	5.9
9.3	0.39	0.06	< LLD	0.61	112	57	0.43	6.5

LLD = lower limit of detection

(Table 6) at the sampling point at km +1. The highest NO_3^- concentration was found at the northern sampling point at km -1.1, which is influenced by a rural settlement not connected to the urban waste water treatment system. The high Na, Sr, and Cl concentrations at the sampling points at km -1.1, 6.3, and 9.3 indicate the influence of brackish groundwater at these sites. A previous study conducted by Mirlean and Roisenberg (2006) on groundwater of the peninsula showed high concentrations of these anions in the vicinity of the fertilizer production site, too. Here, Cd was found in correlation with ortho-phosphate and nitrate with maximum concentration of $3.06\ \mu g\ L^{-1}$ (background $0.06\ \mu g\ L^{-1}$) in groundwater in the vicinity to the factory.

3.5 Rare earth elements in soils and fertilizers

The determination of rare earth elements and yttrium (REY) and the normalization of the REY_{SN} concentrations against Post Achaean Australian Shale (sub-script 'SN' refers to shale (PAAS) normalized REE concentrations, Taylor and McLennan, 1989) enabled to identify the marine sedimentary or the igneous deposit source of the P rock used for the production of the P fertilizers used in Brazil. Of our 39 fertilizer samples, 5 could be identified as igneous P rock derived, while the remaining 34 were of marine sedimentary origin. This distribution ratio is consistent with the value of 87 % given in literature for a marine sedimentary origin of P fertilizers (Kratz et al., 2006). Fig-

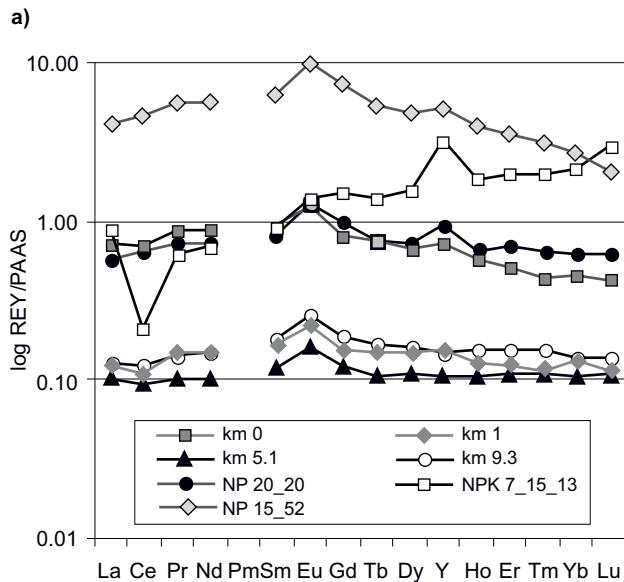
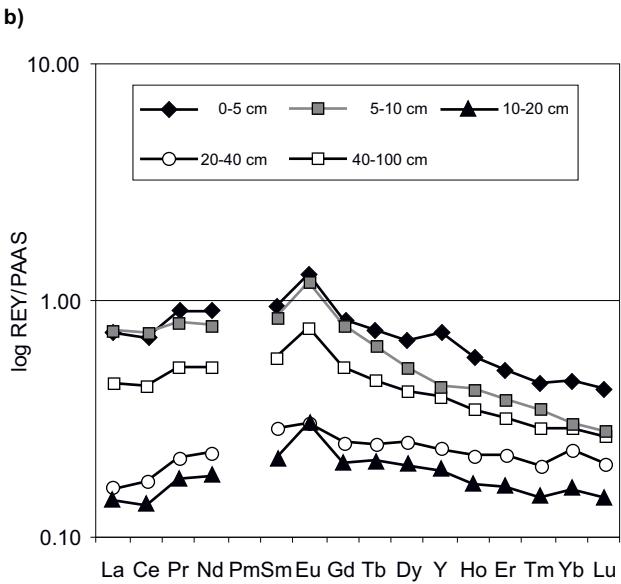


Figure 4a:

REY_{SN} patterns in four top soil samples (0 to 5 cm) from the Rio Grande peninsula (km 0, km 1, km 5.1, and km 9.3) and three fertilizer samples traded in Southern Brazil (NP 20_20, NPK 7_15_13 and NP 15_52)

Figure 4b:

REY_{SN} patterns in five different soil horizon samples (0 to 5, 5 to 10, 10 to 20, 20 to 40, and 40 to 100 cm) from the Rio Grande peninsula taken at the P fertilizer factory (km 0)



ure 2 shows shale normalized REY patterns of three selected fertilizer samples from the analysed set of 39 samples. The sedimentary origin of fertilizer sample NPK 7_15_32 is indicated through the negative Ce and the positive Y anomaly, which are typical seawater features. The samples NP 15_52 and NP 20_20 both show the typical distribution patterns for igneous P rock deposits, indicated by a positive Eu and a slight positive Y anomaly.

The REY_{SN} pattern of the top soil sample at km 0 (Figure 4a and 4b) shows enrichment in REY elements, which confirms the results of the enrichment factor that the P fertilizer factory (km 0) is obviously the source of high REY emission. This also indicates that the factory has predominantly been processing rock phosphates of sedimentary origin. Nevertheless, high Nb concentration found at km 0 also gives indication for processing of rock phosphates of igneous origin. Igneous phosphate rock deposits are used in Brazil for Nb mining providing 85 % of the worldwide Nb supply (Oliveira et al., 2011). Igneous P fertilizers show also significantly higher Nb contents than fertilizers of sedimentary origin (Table 2). Since the factory has been processing fertilizers for 40 years (Mirlean and Roisenberg, 2006), it can be assumed that the rock phosphate sources fluctuate. Figure 4b shows the vertical REY_{SN} patterns of the different soil horizons at the sampling point km 0. The positive europium (Eu) anomaly found in all analyzed top and sub soil samples along the transect originates probably from feldspar mineral content in the dune sand with arkosic composition (Tomazelli et al., 2000; Martins, 2003).

4 Conclusion

The study provides evidence for the release of numerous trace elements from a P fertilizer factory in Rio Grande (Southern Brazil) by analyzing soil samples at different depth and at different distances to the factory and a set of typical fertilizer samples from the region. As P fertilizers contain high concentrations of elements with potential toxicity (U, Cd, Zn, Pb, Ni, Co, and F) the risk of environmental contamination due to the uncontrolled particulate release of these elements is high at such production sites. The multi trace element analyzes of soils conducted in this study identified various industrial pollution sources emitting different trace elements which are spatially distributed along a north-south transect of the peninsula. Beside the P fertilizer factory, a refinery could be identified to emit Ni and V at the northern end of the peninsula. Furthermore, a wood factory possibly using chromate-copper-arsenates is assumed to be the source of elevated Cu (and As) concentration in top soils at the southern end of the peninsula. REY_{SN} patterns of fertilizers in comparison to top soils allowed to distinguish between marine sedimentary or igneous rock sources used as raw material for the fertilizer

production and are yet another manifestation of fertilizer factory-derived pollution of top soils at the investigated site.

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Information zum „Leitfaden zur Einordnung, Planung, Durchführung und Auswertung von Versuchen unter Produktionsbedingungen (On-Farm-Experimente)“

Joachim Spilke*

Versuche spielen als Erkenntnismittel in der Agrarforschung und der Umsetzung von Forschungsergebnissen in die landwirtschaftliche Praxis seit jeher eine zentrale Rolle. So ist es nicht verwunderlich, dass einige für biologische Anwendungen häufig genutzten Methoden der Biometrie ihren Ursprung im landwirtschaftlichen Versuchswesen haben. Ein markantes Beispiel ist die Varianzanalyse.

Heute verfügt die Kulturpflanzenforschung über ein System aufeinander abgestimmter Versuchstypen – vom Tastversuch, Labor- und Klimakamversuch, Gewächshausversuch, Parzellenversuch bis zum Versuch unter Produktionsbedingungen. Jeder dieser Versuchstypen hat eine spezifische Bedeutung und Rechtfertigung im Erkenntnisprozess. Allgemein nimmt in der genannten Folge der Versuchstypen die Möglichkeit der Kontrolle der Umweltbedingungen ab und die Nähe zu landwirtschaftlichen Produktionsbedingungen zu. Um als Versuch im biometrischen Sinne zu gelten, gilt aber für alle Versuche grundsätzlich die Einhaltung der biometrischen Prinzipien Randomisation, Wiederholung und Blockbildung. Diese Prinzipien sind somit die verbindende Klammer, gültig für alle Versuchstypen.

Bei der Auswahl des jeweils geeigneten Versuchstyps geht es stets darum, die Einhaltung der biometrischen Prinzipien zur Durchführung von Versuchen mit einer größtmöglichen Nähe zur landwirtschaftlichen Produktion zu verbinden. Gerade unter dem Gesichtspunkt einer kontrollierten Präzision und Konstanthaltung von Störgrößen haben Parzellenversuche auf Versuchsstationen eine herausragende Bedeutung. Das wird auch in Zukunft so bleiben. Daneben sind aber Untersuchungen unter Produktionsbedingungen, sog. „On-Farm-Experimente“ (OFE), wegen ihrer Nähe zu den landwirtschaftlichen Produktionsbedingungen seit jeher von besonderem Interesse. Wenn derzeit dieses Interesse noch zunimmt, ist das vor allem auch technischen Entwicklungen geschuldet. So bietet die Möglichkeit der räumlichen Ortung von Arbeitsmaschinen

mit GPS (Global Positioning System), verbunden mit leistungsfähiger Prozesstechnik zur flächenspezifischen Ausbringung von Betriebsmitteln wie Düngemitteln oder Saatgut sowie der Ertragserfassung, technische Möglichkeiten, die zu einer Anwendung im Versuchswesen geradezu herausfordern und eine abschließende Bewertung von Forschungsergebnissen im Produktionsfeld ermöglichen. Das ist ein großer Vorteil von OFE. Die damit verbundenen Erwartungen werden sich aber nur erfüllen, wenn man OFE als einen Versuchstyp begreift, für den die biometrischen Prinzipien der Planung und Auswertung vom Grundsatz ebenso gelten wie für jeden anderen Versuchstyp auch. Dieser Sachverhalt wird oft nicht ausreichend beachtet.

Davon abgeleitet hat die Arbeitsgruppe Landwirtschaftliches Versuchswesen der Deutschen Region der Biometrischen Gesellschaft federführend in Zusammenarbeit mit der Arbeitsgruppe Versuchswesen der Gesellschaft für Pflanzenbauwissenschaften, dem Arbeitskreis Biometrie und Versuchsmethodik der Deutschen Phytomedizinischen Gesellschaft und der Arbeitsgruppe Biometrie und Bioinformatik der Gesellschaft für Pflanzenzüchtung einen Leitfaden mit den biometrischen Grundsätzen für die Planung und Auswertung von OFE erarbeitet. Die Erarbeitung erfolgte in enger Abstimmung mit dem Fachausschuss „Versuchswesen in der Pflanzenproduktion“ der Deutschen Landwirtschaftsgesellschaft.

Der Leitfaden behandelt neben den Prinzipien zur Durchführung von Versuchen weitere Themenschwerpunkte wie Versuchsanlagen für OFE, biometrische Modellbildung, Auswertung von Versuchen ohne und mit Georeferenzierung, Datenaufbereitung, Aggregation und Zusammenführung von Merkmalsdaten.

Der Leitfaden richtet sich vorrangig an den Personenkreis, der diese Versuche plant, durchführt und auswertet. Die wichtigsten Aussagen wurden in 10 Thesen zum Leitfaden zusammengefasst. Entsprechend dieses Adressatenkreises wurde der Schwerpunkt bewusst auf die bio-

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metrische Methodik gelegt. Damit lässt sich eine Spezifik und Darstellung von Details nicht vermeiden, um mit dem Leitfaden diesem Nutzerkreis tatsächlich eine wirksame Unterstützung zu liefern.

Natürlich sind die allgemeinen Grundsätze auch für andere Zielgruppen von Interesse. Hier sind zunächst die Führungskräfte in Bundes- und Länderbehörden, Landwirtschaftskammern und Landesanstalten zu nennen, die selbst keine Versuche durchführen, deren Durchführung aber anweisen und kontrollieren. Für diese Zielgruppe wurde ebenfalls ein Thesenpapier erarbeitet (Thesen für Entscheider). Als weitere sehr bedeutsame Zielgruppe ergeben sich die Landwirte, die an der Durchführung von OFE in ihrem Betrieb oder an der Nutzung von OFE-Ergebnissen für die eigene Entscheidungsunterstützung interessiert sind. Auch für diese Zielgruppe sind die Aussagen in Thesen (Thesen für Landwirte) zusammengefasst.

Ein weiterer Abschnitt umfasst Beispiele für die Auswertung von OFE. Hiermit wird die Zielstellung verbunden, an praktischen Beispielen die im Leitfaden dargestellten methodischen Grundsätze zu untermauern. Weiter sollen die Beispiele die große Breite der für OFE bedeutsamen Fragestellungen sowie damit verbundenen Modifikationen der Versuchsdurchführung und Auswertung zeigen, die im Leitfaden nicht vollständig abgebildet werden können. Der Bereich der praktischen Versuche soll schrittweise zu einer Beispieldatenbank ausgebaut werden. Der Leitfaden ist auf den Seiten der Arbeitsgruppe Landwirtschaftliches Versuchswesen der Biometrischen Gesellschaft (www.biometrische-gesellschaft.de) bzw. direkt unter http://130.75.68.3/ibs/arbeitsgruppen/ag-lvv/on-farm-experimente/Leitfaden_OFE.pdf verfügbar.

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