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# SYSTEMS MODELLING IN ANIMAL PRODUCTION RESEARCH:

# AN INTERACTIVE CASE STUDY

A thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy at Massey University.

Campbell Petrie Miller 1982

#### ABSTRACT

Synthesis of improved systems of year round dairy herd feeding requires whole systems to be assembled and evaluated. In the field, only a limited number of possibilities can be examined and it is likely that there will be interaction between systems and the unique environments in which they are necessarily set. Modelling was undertaken to enlarge the possible number of syntheses and to provide a constant environment in which they could be compared.

A number of forage sources and a variety of milk production patterns were combined in a linear programming model which maximized economic or physical returns from combinations of forage supply and demand, within constraints of pasture and crop management, cow intake and forage quality.

The linear programming model was validated, firstly by exposing details of structure and output to an expert panel and secondly, by comparing model structure and output with those of several real farms.

Experiments were carried out in which cropping level, stocking rate, conservation level, cow production level and forage yield and quality were varied. Selected systems were subjected to simulated climatic variability and milkfat price variability to test the stability of preliminary conclusions.

It was shown clearly that the main thrust of the field research, feeding for higher production per cow, was likely to be both feasible and highly profitable. Most of the potential means for facilitating this were shown also to be feasible and economic, though there were limitations which had not previously been obvious.

Nitrogen fertilizer on pasture was shown to be potentially very valuable. Schedules for nitrogen use in practice would require much better definition of response patterns and the modelling lent weight to decisions regarding research in this area.

High quality, wilted, pasture silage was shown to be an essential component of systems without maize silage where high production (160 kg milkfat per year) per cow is required.

Preliminary evaluation of a summer-growing grass showed large potential benefits and supported an increase in the effort to develop such a grass for commercial use.

Several other forage crops were shown to have value. Somewhat surprising was the finding that grazing these crops was often a more profitable and productive means of utilization than conservation, despite inferior efficiencies in dry matter utilization. This was due to the higher cost of conservation allied with lower quality.

Maize silage was a particularly valuable forage source and it was shown how efforts to increase its yield or energy density, but not its protein content, would be rewarding.

It was concluded that the interaction of modelling and field research had been valuable in both development and testing of hypotheses. Suggestions are made for more formality in validation, for greater continuity in parallel modelling and for more generality in field data collection.

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# TABLE OF CONTENTS

		Page
ACKNOWLEDG	EMENTS	iv
LIST OF TAI	BLES	ix
LIST OF FIG	GURES	xii
CHAPTER 1	INTRODUCTION	
1.	Background	1
2.	Objectives	4
3.	Outline of thesis	4
PART 1	AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND THE SYSTEMS APPROACH	
CHAPTER 2	SYSTEMS CONCEPTS IN AGRICULTURAL	
	RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT	
1.	Introduction	7
2.	Nature of system	7
3.	Systems in agriculture	9
4.	Systems in agricultural research and development	10
5.	Summary	19
CHAPTER 3	RESEARCH PRIORITIES	
1.	Introduction	20
2.	The level of evaluation	20
3.	The nature of value	21
4.	Research benefits	22
5.	Research costs	25
6.	Indices of net economic benefit	27
7.	Other evaluation methods	28
8.	Allocation methods	31
9.	Estimation of research benefits	32
10.	Conclusion	33
CHAPTER 4	THE MODELLING PROCESS	
1.	Introduction	34
2.	Model definition and purpose	34
3.	The modelling process	37

	4.	The use of systems modelling in agricultural	46
		research	
	5.	Summary	48
PAI	RT I	I THE CASE STUDY AND MODEL	
CHAPTER	5	INTRODUCTION TO THE CASE STUDY	
	1.	Introduction	52
	2.	Choice of research program	52
	3.	Forage feeding systems	55
	4.	General approach to the case study	58
	5.	Summary	64
CHAPTER	6	DAIRY COW FEEDING	
	1.	Introduction	65
	2.	The "standard" cow and her derivatives	66
	3.	The prime importance of energy and protein	67
	4.	The lactation cycle as an entity	69
	5.	Maintenance energy	69
	6.	Energy requirements for foetal growth	71
	7.	Energy requirements for liveweight change	72
	8.	Lactation energy	73
	9.	Non-standard lactations	73
1	0.	Protein requirements	75
1	1.	Dry matter intake	77
1	2.	Summary of ME requirements	78
1	.3.	Summary of DCP requirements	80
1	4.	Comparison of model cow with observed cows	80
CHAPTER	7	THE PASTURE COMPONENT	
	1.	Introduction	82
33	2.	Pasture growth	83
7.5	3.	Pasture management and utilization	88
	4.	Nitrogen fertilizer on pasture	89
	5.	Pasture silage	

	6.	Pasture hay	92
	7.	Summary	93
CHAPTER	8 8	THE CROP COMPONENT	
	1.	Introduction	94
	2.	Crop management	94
	3.	Crop nutritive value	96
	4.	Maize	96
	5.	Hybrid grazing sorghum	98
	6.	Winter cereals	100
	7.	Winter cereal-ryegrass mixture	101
	8.	Turnips	103
	9.	Red clover	103
	10.	Subterranean clover	104
	11.	Non-regenerating winter legume	105
,	12.	Perennial summer-growing grass	106
	13.	Summary	108
CHAPTER	9	THE DAIRY SYSTEM MODEL	
	1	Introduction	109
	2.,	Type of model	109
	3.	Model structure	110
		PART III RESULTS OF MODELLING	
		E	
CHAPTER	10	MODEL EVALUATION	
	1.	Introduction	119
	2.	Validation procedures	120
	3.	Early results from Northland model	121
	4.	Later results with Northland, Ruakura and Manawatu	
		versions	129
in the second	5.	Summary	132

# CHAPTER 11 EXPERIMENTATION

1.	Introduction	133
2.	Effects of cropping level	133
3.	Level of conservation	140
4.	Pasture nitrogen	145
5.	Potential of a summer-growing grass	147
6.	Effects of changes in forage yield and quality	149
7.	Effects of higher-producing cows	153
8.	Effects of climatic variability	154
9.	Effects of conservation on damping seasonal	
	variability	175
10.	Effects of change in cost/price ratio	179
11.	Summary	183
CHAPTER 12	IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND	
	GENERAL CONCLUSIONS	
1.	Introduction	184
2.	Synthesis and evaluation of alternative dairy	
	feeding systems	184
3.	Management limitations of proposed systems	192
4.	Research priorities	195
5.	Evaluation of the modelling process	197
6.	Conclusion	202
	al a	
REFERENCES		203
APPENDIX A	MODEL TIME PERIODS	
APPENDIX B	ECONOMIC ASSUMPTIONS	
APPENDIX C	EVALUATION PANEL	
APPENDIX D	FULL MATRIX AND COEFFICIENTS OF THE BASIC LP MODE	L
APPENDIX E	REPRINT OF REFERENCE: (MILLER 1980)	

# LIST OF TABLES

		Page
3.1	Two sets of criteria for ranking research	29
	projects	
5.1	Forage yield assumptions of previous	57
	evaluations with some research yields	
5.2	Economic evaluations of forage systems	59
6.1	Energy requirements for foetal growth of a	71
	Jersey x Friesian cow	
6.2	Lactation patterns and milkfat production per	74
	lactation	
6.3	Comparison of model requirements and responses	81
	with independent calculations and experimental	
	observations	
7.1	Adjustments for radiation differences	84
7.2	Pasture growth estimates	87
7.3	Implied timing of nitrogen application	91
8.1	Sudax: three assumed grazing patterns	99
8.2	Sudax: assumed pattern of availability of dry	99
	matter, metabolizable energy and crude protein	
	when grazed as in table 8.1	
8.3	Cereal/Tama: assumed pattern of growth and dry	102
	matter availability for grazing	
8.4	Subterranean clover: assumed pattern of	105
	forage availability and nutritive value	
8.5	Non-regenerating winter legume: assumed pattern	106
	of forage yield, utilization and nutritive value	
10.1	Effect of cropping level on system structure and	123
	performance	
10.2	Comparisons of farm and model plans and	124
	performances	
10.3	Structure and performance of higher producing	125
	systems	
10.4	Effects of lower milkfat price on system	126
	performance	

		Page
11.1	Effects of stocking rate on feed production	135
	activities	
11.2	Effects of stocking rate on supplementary	136
	feeding and milkfat production	
11.3	Dry matter yield and stocking rate at some	139
	selected points for four cropping levels	
11.4	Some effects of level of conservation in an	142
	all-grass system	
11.5	Influence of stocking rate on forage pro-	144
	duction, level of conservation and efficiency	
	of forage utilization	
11.6	Comparison of structure and performance of an	146
	all-grass system with and without pasture	
	nitrogen	
11.7	Comparison of a system containing Hemarthria	148
	altissima with an all-grass system and an	
	unconstrained cropping system	
11.8	Analysis of variance of gross margin as	150
	affected by dry matter yield and metabolizable	
	energy concentration of maize silage	
11.9	Analysis of variance of gross margin as	150
	affected by dry matter yield and crude protein	
	concentration of maize silage	
11.10	Predicted and observed responses to increases	151
	in silage maize yield	
11.11	Differences in crude protein supplementation	152
	expressed as a percentage of the difference in	
	crude protein contained in maize silage	
11.12	Structure of representative systems in an average	157
	year	
11.13	Performance of representative systems in an	158
	average year	
11.14	Assumed variability of forage yields in Northland	163
	Additional constraints for seasonal variability	165
	experiments	2

		Page
11.16	Average-season values of constraints added	166
	for seasonal variability experiments	
11.17	Mean and extreme values of gross margin in	167
	nine seasons	
11.18	Analysis of variance of gross margin as	168
	affected by systems and seasons	
11.19	Total forage dry matter and mean response of	169
	gross margin to season by seven systems	
11.20	Summary of system performance in variable	171
	seasons	
11.21	Feed production adjustments for variable	172
	seasons - systems without maize	
11.22	Feed production adjustments for variable	173
	seasons - systems with maize	
11.23	Adjustments made in the MZCER system for	177
	variable seasons	
11.24	Effects of seasonal variation on variability	178
	of MZCER system performance with various	
	assumptions about maize yield variation	
11.25	Effects of milkfat price on gross margin of an	180
	unconstrained system with and without	
	reoptimization	
11.26	Effects of milkfat price on economic performance	181
	of a 50 ha farm	
11.27	Effects of milkfat price on optimal physical	182
	characteristics of an unconstrained system	
12 1	Maximum stocking rates on grazed forega	19/

	LIST OF FIGURES	Following
		Page
2.1	A simplified system	10
2.2	Agricultural research processes	14
3.1	Uncertainties of research benefit	23
4.1	Steps of the modelling process	37
6.1	Model of milk and liveweight response to	65
	feed intake	
6.2	Milk production and liveweight patterns	69
	for three planes of nutrition	
6.3	Examples of milk production and liveweight	75
	change functions assumed	
6.4	Digestible crude protein requirements	76
	related to level of production	
6.5	Apparent digestibility of crude protein	76
6.6	Assumed dry matter intake limits	78
7.1	Potential pasture growth rate of original	84
	and modified model	
7.2	Simulated pasture growth rates 1975-77	85
7.3	Average pasture growth rates at Kaitaia	86
	(simulated) and at South Kaipara	
8.1	Maize: assumed growth pattern and	97
	nutritive value	
8.2	Winter cereal: assumed growth pattern and	100
	nutritive value	
8.3	Red clover: assumed growth pattern and	103
	nutritive value	
8.4	Hemarthria altissima: assumed growth pattern	107
	and nutritive value	
9.1	The pasture matrix	112
9.2	The crop matrix	113
9.3	The purchased feed matrix	114
9.4	The cow requirement matrix	114
10.1	Optimal feeding plan of basic, unconstrained	121
	model	
10.2	Supplementary feeding by Brown and model	124
10.3	Production patterns of Brown farm and model	124

		Following
		Page
10.4	Assumed growth pattern of pasture at	131
	Ruakura	
11.1	Effects of stocking rate on gross margin	134
*	at four cropping levels	
11.2	Effects of limiting conservation in an	140
	all-grass system	
11.3	Breakeven responses for pasture nitrogen	146
11.4	Effect of maize yield variation on gross	150
	margin and on milkfat production	*
11.5	Effects of yield and metabolizable energy	152
	and crude protein concentration in maize	
	silage on gross margin	
11.6	Subdivision of the normal probability	161
	distribution	
11.7	Assumed seasonal variation in pasture	162
	growth	
11.8	System responses to seasonal variation	168
11.9	Response of MZCER system to seasonal	178
	variation, as affected by maize yield	
	assumptions	
11.10	Effects of milkfat price variation on	182
	optimal system structure	
12.1	Patterns of relative feed scarcity in	185
	three systems	

## CHAPTER ONE

#### INTRODUCTION

#### 1.1 BACKGROUND

Applied agricultural research has a primary responsibility to solve real problems. However valuable its contributions to scientific knowledge, much earthier motives underlie its sponsorship. An abundant supply of cheap food and fibre is a basic need of all societies and a common measure of their success as organizations. Agriculture in many industrial societies has additional purpose such as generating overseas trading funds, saving imports and managing landscapes. In recent years, doubts have often been expressed about how well agricultural research has discharged its responsibility.

Two types of failure have been identified. Failure to account for adverse effects of change in farming systems has sometimes resulted in extensive soil erosion, salting, water pollution and stream silting (e.g. see McDonald 1979) as well as social injustice (Dillon 1973). This type of failure can be categorized as a failure in definition of objectives. The second type of failure is where the results of agricultural research fail to have any impact on agriculture because of irrelevancy or, more commonly, because the results exist as fragments of information which need synthesizing into a recipe which can be understood by non-scientists (Ebersohn 1976). This type of failure can also stem from inadequate objectives but it commonly occurs because of a lack of commitment by experimental scientists to synthesis of results, coupled with a lack of methodology for doing so.

An important reason for the failure to define objectives and to synthesize systems is the confusion between science and applied research. Science, that activity which adds to the body of codified knowledge, has enjoyed an exalted position since the industrial revolution. It rewards intellectual excellence and contribution to knowledge without much regard to the material benefits. But it achieves most of its success by disassembly, as attested to by the growth of such disciplines as molecular biology and particle physics. Agricultural research has been drawn inevitably in this direction since agricultural researchers generally get a fairly orthodox scientific training.

However, disassembly and specialization of research implies that at succeeding lower levels of system organization, there are many more branches of study and information than at higher levels. In this situation, synthesis of information becomes very difficult. To draw an anology from business and industrial management, where the synthesis of information is also an important activity, synthesis at the 10th level in a strictly dichotomous hierarchy would require information from  $2^{10} = 1024$  sources to be consulted (Beer 1975). Similarly, specialization in particular biological disciplines insulates research from the social and economic forces from which flow the original research objectives.

Research in animal production suffers from specialization more than many branches of agricultural research since it embraces most aspects of agriculture. The traditional areas of soil science, plant nutrition, plant physiology, plant breeding and agronomy can all be identified on the plant side, each with its own subdivisions. A similar hierarchy exists on the animal side. Possibly the biggest hindrance of all to research on, rather than in, animal production systems is the dichotomy forced between plants and animals in the educational, phylogenetic and research aspects of science.

Without implying that this disciplinary research should stop, there is clearly a need for more emphasis on efforts which seek to impose relevant objectives on all levels of agricultural research and to provide the means of synthesizing fragmentary results into relevant packages. Interdisciplinary research is a notion which implies a great deal of consultation but has no meaning in an operational sense without a unifying concept.

It is the unifying concept that a systems approach seeks to provide. Although systems in agriculture and biology can be partially described by statistical measure and diagrams (e.g. Spedding 1975), a working systems approach implies the construction and manipulation of mathematical models. To be an effective part of the research process, system modelling will necessarily be an integral part of the whole research program, implying continuity and concurrence (Sturgess 1972; Morley 1977; Spedding 1976).

Although the approach is being taken up by many research groups (e.g. Wright et al. 1976; White and Morley 1977; Sibbald et al. 1979) many modelling studies reported in the literature have been conducted in isolation, spatially and temporally, from biological research programs (Anderson 1974). In addition, many have been concerned with management decisions in existing systems rather than with the synthesis and evaluation of alternative systems. One reason for these biases is that economists, more attuned to the use of mathematical models, have predominated in this activity.

Possible reasons for conservatism about the use of system models among biologically-trained scientists are several. Firstly, scientific caution (Dillon 1973) inhibits biologists from working further outside their discipline than they assume their competence can reach. Secondly, there is a reluctance to take resources away from the disciplinary areas where peer approval and institutional reward are usually sought and obtained. Thirdly, many of the enthusiastic

reports of modelling in the literature have been, as indicated above, isolated from intimate knowledge of the biological systems they have modelled. Cavalier treatment by a modeller of a specialist area probably reduces the credibility of modelling, as well as modeller, as far as the specialist in that area is concerned.

This study was conceived as an attempt to apply modelling to a current animal production research program with which maximum interaction was sought.

#### 1.2 OBJECTIVES

The general objective was to show whether systems modelling could be useful in assessing priorities in an operational animal production research program.

Within the general objective, two more specific objectives give purpose to the modelling part of the project. These were:

- (a) to synthesize and evaluate alternative dairy feeding systems;
- (b) to develop research priorities in the same area.

#### 1.3 OUTLINE OF THE THESIS

Part I begins by discussing system concepts in agricultural research and development as they apply to goal definition and to conduct of applied research. Next is a consideration of research planning with emphasis on planning at the project level where the individual scientist sets his own priorities. Part I ends with a discussion of modelling in animal production research and how it might be used as a

frame upon which aggregations of research projects might form a cohesive research program.

Part II deals with the background to the case study and with model development. The research program from which the case study evolved was an active one in which various aspects were at a variety of stages in the research process and whose personnel were actively seeking research priorities. Chapters 6 through 9 deal with technical components and relationships used in the model.

Part III deals with validation and use of the model and with developing experimental results as research priorities. Validation was a continuous process throughout all phases of model development and experimentation and although validation and experimentation are given separate chapters here, there remains considerable overlap. Experimental results and the identification of specific research priorities are discussed together since there are large areas of overlap. The final chapter attempts to match the results of the study with the objectives and explores the kind of developments required to make modelling an effective and integral part of applied research in animal production.

# PART 1

AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND

THE SYSTEMS APPROACH

## CHAPTER TWO

#### SYSTEMS CONCEPTS IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

#### 2.1 INTRODUCTION

Fifty years ago, agricultural research was much concerned with variety and fertilizer trials. The production system to which the trial results were to be applied was clearly perceived; indeed the experiments were often embedded within the system. Both research planning and results were clearly in context.

The subsequent fragmentation of disciplines has resulted in a distancing of the research from the context of a production system. An inevitable consequence is that experimental results often find no application in the short and medium term and in the long term run the risk of being submerged in the growing volume of experimental literature.

This chapter is concerned to show how systems concepts developed over the past two or three decades can be used in substitution for the farmers paddock of fifty years ago in giving a production system context to research planning and the integration of experimental results.

#### 2.2 NATURE OF SYSTEM

At least since Aristotle declared that "the whole is more than the sum of its parts" there has been recognition that the functioning of some systems could not be explained by dismantling them and studying their components. In the case of biological systems, the most obvious manifestation of complex systems, a mystical principle, "vitalism", had to be invoked to explain life processes. Only in the present century has there been a realization that the forces of organization, although undoubtedly physical in their ultimate

nature, are peculiar to and cannot be separated from the system in which they are embedded or from the level at which they operate (von Bertalanffy 1975).

The study of these forces has led to the development of "general system theory", which is concerned with the isomorphisms and correspondences among widely divergent systems; in other words a "system of systems" (Boulding 1956). A metalanguage of systems (Beer 1975) clearly becomes necessary to describe the common features of systems as disparate as electro-mechanical thermostats on the one hand and temperature regulation in mammals on the other.

Over the past thirty years, independent workers in a number of scientific fields have developed theories of system structure and function. Information and communication theory arose from the need to consider the transmitter, the receiver, the medium and the message in communication systems (Shannon and Weaver 1949). The role of information in systems whose primary function is not communication stimulated the development of cybernetics, with its notions of feedback and variety (Waddington 1977). On a more applied level, theories of automation and control were also developed (von Bertalanffy 1975).

All of these developments could only have resulted from a need to consider whole systems as more than an accumulation of components. Only by considering the linkages with their components could system functioning be understood. The foundation of the Society for General Systems Research gave recognition to the fact that many of these new system-orientated disciplines had a good deal of common ground; that many systems in the world will actually map onto each other after appropriate transformation (Beer 1975) in the same way as the forelegs of mammals map onto each other and onto the wings of birds with due changes of scale.

#### 2.3 SYSTEMS IN AGRICULTURE

If the systems of General Systems Theory are characterized by complexity, interaction and feedback then agricultural production certainly qualifies as a system. Moreover, the environment is uncertain and in nearly every respect these are open systems, in the sense that they maintain and organize themselves in the face of a continuous exchange of material and information with the environment.

Agricultural products are the end result of systems designed to capture radiant energy in a useful form via photosynthesis. The multiplicity of agricultural products and the ways in which they are produced (Duckham and Masefield 1970; Spedding 1975) is one indication of how complex the process is; another is the fact that despite an efficiency of energy fixation of less than one percent (Duckham 1971), there are no real alternative methods of providing food and clothing to much of the world's population.

Acknowledging agriculture as a system may serve no useful purpose unless its place in higher order socioeconomic systems and ecosystems is also recognized, since its products and side-effects, respectively, must be accommodated in these systems. 'The difficulties in trading internationally in many agricultural commodities serve as a significant constraint not only on methods of production - the structure of the agricultural system - but also on the choice of possible products. The importance of minimizing disturbance to the surrounding ecosystem is often well-recognized in traditional agriculture - as, for example, by New Guinea gardeners who, when clearing forest for a new garden, normally leave seed trees to facilitate forest regeneration when the garden is abandoned - but is often neglected by modern "conquering" agriculture - as, for example, by the early farmers of the Mississippi basin or the Australian mallee.

At almost any level of agriculture, from the cellular to the ecosystem, higher-order and lower-order systems can be perceived, the closest of which interact with the system being considered and the furthest of which have no effect nor are affected. A simple concept of an agricultural production system might include the components shown in figure 2.1. The simplest definition of the environment is that it is unchanged by the operation of the system; conversely the boundary includes all those components which interact with each other. Each of the components shown in figure 2.1 is properly regarded as a sub-system and further hierarchical levels of sub-systems could be postulated until the picture was very complex.

Spedding (1975) has shown how, by the use of concentric rings of variables with a central point representing the output of interest, very complex systems that are difficult to show as conventional flowcharts can be depicted. These not only ease the problem of component identification, but also facilitate the extraction of particular sub-systems, of which there may be many. A hierarchical view of systems has been outlined by Goodall (1976), who suggested that, considered in this way, many systems and sub-systems would be found to be homologous, if not identical.

## 2.4 SYSTEMS IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND DEVELOPMENT

Recognition that agricultural systems are complex and interacting, and incorporate feedback mechanisms, is a necessary condition for taking a systems approach to research on those systems. But it is not, on its own, a sufficient condition, nor does it specify how to go about taking a systems approach. A further condition is that a framework of theory exists, around which hypotheses are generated and tested. Without that framework, research becomes aimless, a mere quest for information in a field where knowledge is required.

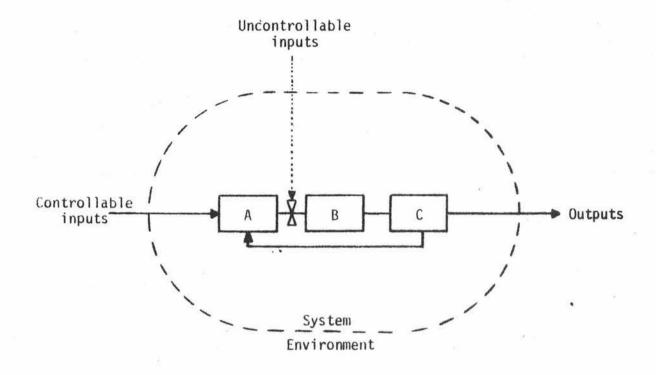


Figure 2.1 A simple system consisting of soil (A), grass (B), and cow (C). Controllable inputs such as fertilizer are distinguished from uncontrollable inputs such as solar radiation.

The development, by Mendeleyev, of the periodic table of elements is an example of a systems concept which led, inevitably, to the discovery of many new elements. Similarly, Harvey's conception of the circulation of blood as a system of pipes and pumps led him to the postulation of capillaries as logical necessities, though he never saw them.

The foundation of modern agriculture is linked with the realization, by Liebig and others in the middle of the last century, that plant growth was a system involving the soil, supplying water and minerals, the atmosphere, supplying carbon dioxide and oxygen, the sun supplying energy and the plant, supplying the biochemical pathways which integrate the material components as growth (Salmon and Hanson 1964). Liebig's "law of the minimum", a manifestation of this early systems concept of growth, served to highlight the importance of each and every part of a system.

This approach, although largely ignoring interaction and feedback as mechanisms of response, was responsible for some of the more spectacular advances in agricultural productivity, particularly in regard to modifying soil fertility by applying inorganic fertilizer. The very success of the approach in the soil fertility field led to the development of the deficiency concept and its occupancy of a central role in many perceptions of the plant-soil system. While leading to the development of viable production systems on many previously barren soils, this approach has probably hindered the development of sound theories of the functioning of the plant-soil system and left agricultural science in the position of being unable to make any quantitative extrapolation from one soil type to another (Collis-George and Davey 1960).

The "law of the minimum" and similar reductionist approaches in other aspects of agricultural science have seen much effort devoted to explaining the effect of this or that factor on plant growth and development but relatively few

attempts to develop general theories of these processes which incorporate all the variables known to be involved. To judge from the pleas at the end of many scientific papers for more research into a specific field, it is implied that once all the data are collected, the functioning of a system will automatically become clear to all observers. But as Spedding (1975) points out, "subjects advance by development of theory, rather than by the accumulation of lore relating to particular experiences".

More modern system laws, such as the law of diminishing returns, and more modern concepts of system behaviour, such as hysteresis (Jeffers 1978) point up the notion that many factors may operate simultaneously and that behaviour may not be completely reversible. It is suggested, therefore, that a systems approach has value in theory development, as well as in the more visible areas of applied agricultural research, formulation of objectives, conduct of experiments and application of results.

## 2.4.1 OBJECTIVES IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

In subsistence agriculture, where continuous or intermittent food shortages occur and human survival is threatened, there appears to be no ambiguity about the primary objective of any research. It is to increase food production. Yet, two qualifications can be imagined immediately. If current food production is already causing resource deterioration in the form of soil erosion, perhaps a first objective might be to develop systems that are stable, even if no more productive. That would at least prevent food production declining. Alternatively, a first objective might be to reduce the variability of food production from year to year, without necessarily increasing average production. That would at least prevent excessive suffering in poor seasons.

One could extend the argument to look at the possibilities of matching food shortages in one district with food surpluses in another. So, even in superficially simple agricultural systems, objectives cannot be clearly identified without first defining the system boundary.

In modern agriculture, the boundary may need to be drawn very wide to include social aspects of agricultural systems (Heady 1971) for, as forcefully suggested by Dillon (1973), narrow or irrelevant goals can bring social disaster to many engaged in the production system while producers and consumers reap the benefits of research.

Notable exceptions to the web of dependency between system boundary and objectives are perhaps the breeding of disease resistant varieties of important crop plants. Here, it is often clear that, without this effort, large sections of agriculture would fail completely.

Realization that producers, consumers, governments and scientists all may have multiple goals makes the definition of research objectives a difficult task. Dillon (1973) has argued that in purposive, hierarchical, socio-economic systems, goals should be formulated at each system level and transmitted downward, perhaps narrowing the possible courses of action but ensuring that research serves some higher-order goal. Nevertheless, it seems likely that, for high-level objectives to be more than "... platitudes which have no operational significance" (Ackoff 1962), a good deal of information, appropriately condensed and filtered (Fishel 1971), will have to flow to high-level decision makers from the operational levels.

At the operational level, formulation of objectives for applied agricultural research is likely to follow the pattern suggested by Andrew and Hildebrand (1976). First requirement is a general objective framed in a metalanguage (Beer 1975) which is meaningful to those working at a higher level of system organization. Within the general objective, it will then usually be necessary to have a number of subsidiary objectives more closely related to the hypotheses to be tested.

# 2.4.2. AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH AND SCIENTIFIC METHOD IN A SYSTEMS CONTEXT

The definition of progressively more specific objectives, referred to in the previous section, implies a movement towards identifying specific problems in the production system. begins when system structure and function are observed (figure The domain of the observations is clearly determined by system boundary (see figure 2.1), the latter having been determined by the general objectives of the research program. Spedding (1975) provides an example where the effects of stocking rate on sheep production, a sub-system in his terminology, includes wool production but excludes breed of ewe; whereas a sub-system to study the effects of lambing date includes ewe breed but excludes wool production. These boundaries, being only conceptual, cannot be absolute unless they include the whole universe, but they serve to limit the scope of observation to a manageable level without arbitrarily segmenting the world into disciplinary compartments.

In specifying problems, it has been pointed out (Andrew and Hildebrand 1976) that a researchable problem does not automatically follow from a problematical situation. But at least some of the specifications suggested for researchable problems would be more easily applied in a systems context. First, to check that problems are not hypothetical, it is necessary that theory (as embodied in the scientific literature and scientific knowledge) and practice (represented

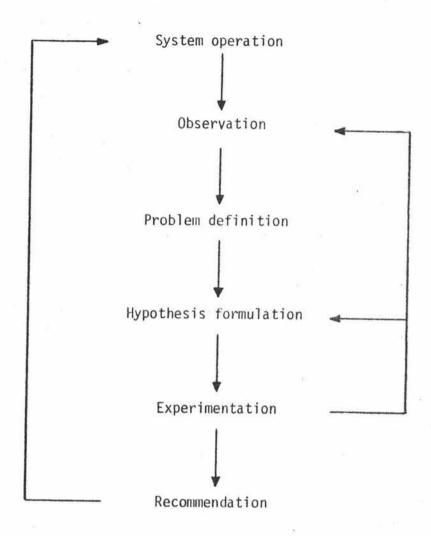


Figure 2.2 Applied agricultural research processes.

by producers and their advisers) have a common framework for interchanging views (Spedding 1975). Agreement on system boundary and structure would seem a useful approach to that communication.

Second, the scope and manageability of problems could be clearly seen in advance by reference to some agreed representation of the system, whether diagram, map or system of equations. A particular problem, for example, may only be considered researchable if there is a good chance of supporting research, identified as being necessary by reference to the whole system, being conducted. Supporting research is more likely to be carried out if those who would be involved can visualize, through some system representation, the importance of that research.

The next stage in research is customarily called hypothesis formulation (Wright 1973; Andrew and Hildebrand 1976). A good deal of conventional scientific activity is concerned with fragmenting systems down to a level where clear-cut binary questions can be posed (Waddington 1977). However, there is increasing doubt whether answers to these sorts of questions are relevant to higher-order production systems (Dillon 1973; Ebersohn 1976). Spedding and Brockington (1976) have concluded that both simple, qualitative hypotheses and complex quantified hypotheses are required in the study of agricultural systems. They note, also, that while hypotheses may be formulated Archimedes-style, in the bath, a systems approach (specifically, model-building) ought to be a better way of dealing with the complex, quantitative type of hypothesis.

A checklist of criteria which hypotheses should satisfy was given by Andrew and Hildebrand (1976) as:

- (a) Hypotheses must be clearly related to the problem.
- (b) They must take the form of "if ... then ..."

- (c) They should be as simple as possible.
- (d) They must be capable of verification or rejection.
- (e) They must suggest a plan of action.
- (f) They must be sufficient and efficient.

The first criterion establishes a clear link through problem definition to research objectives. Increased understanding is an insufficient objective without a statement of the purpose of understanding (Spedding and Brockington 1976). The second criterion is a check against any tendency to ask questions of the "what happens if ..." type and seeks to ensure that hypothesis testing will result in some action (i.e. be applied). The third criterion, simplicity, may have been taken too far in the past and been one of the causes of excessive disciplinary specialization (Boulding 1956). If Occam's maxim was really "Plurality must never be posited without necessity" (Skellam 1972, translated by C.W. Maughan) it might be noted that in complex systems necessity may often require plurality to give useful answers (Collis-George and Davey 1960).

The necessity for hypotheses to be capable of test has two aspects. The first is the philosophical requirement that, by definition, a hypothesis does not exist unless it can be tested (Passmore 1978). The second is the practical requirement that the research must have access to sufficient resources to properly test the hypothesis. The fifth criterion is related to the previous one in that a hypothesis may be testable but if it cannot be tested in present circumstances it is really only speculation. The final criteria, sufficiency and efficiency, interact with the simplicity criterion.

Sufficiency implies that the hypothesis must be as elaborate as is necessary to the problem in hand. Efficiency is that property which will result in the greatest yield of information for a given effort.

Experimentation, the next stage of research, is the testing of hypotheses. Simple hypotheses, leading to simple experiments on individual components and processes of a system, need to be justified by evidence that the part of the system studied does not interact with the rest of the system in a way that invalidates the conclusions (Morley and Spedding 1968). The more complex experiments appropriate for many aspects of agricultural research require a systematic approach to their design if they are to be feasible and relevant. A systems approach to the stages of research already discussed must largely ensure that experimentation fulfils these criteria, but three particular approaches to experimentation with agricultural systems bear some comment:

(a) Multi-factor, factorial, large-scale experiments.

These make large demands on research resources but may only be large-scale versions of the small, orthogonal experiments they replace (Ebersohn 1976). Especially in grazing systems, the desirability of comparing management systems over a range of stocking rates (Morley and Spedding 1968) makes these designs infeasible or puts too many research eggs in one experimental basket. Uniform sites, often considered as desirable for large experiments, may mean that experimental results are only relevant to a restricted set of similar sites, while the interaction of site and treatment, which may be important biologically and economically, is often ignored (McKinney et al. 1978) but is, in any case, difficult to deal with quantitatively.

(b) Evolutionary farmlets (Townsley 1973; Hutton 1973)

These represent attempts to synthesize recipes for better production systems. Hutton (1973) claimed

that regression techniques could be used to determine cause and effect in these systems but in an agricultural context the method appears to be more demonstration than experiment. As originally envisaged (e.g. see Box and Draper 1969) evolutionary experimentation in industrial processes involved a continuous policy of operating part of the system slightly away from its a priori optimum. A new optimum is established when the system reacts favourably to a movement. The procedure is conducted on the actual system whose improvement is sought, not on a model (e.g. farmlet) of it, so that there exist no problems of extrapolation. Besides, responses in an agricultural production system being typically much slower than in an industrial system, they are likely to be dependent on climate. In agricultural research. therefore, evolutionary farmlets seem likely to be more useful for demonstrating system concepts than for testing hypotheses.

## (c) System modelling

The next chapter discusses modelling in some detail but it is worth noting here that the construction of unambiguous models of agricultural production systems can complement physical experimentation by narrowing the range of possible treatments to a manageable but relevant set (Wright et al. 1976). Complementarity of modelling and physical experimentation implies concurrence in time, and to some extent in space, of the two activities.

Extrapolation, as with other phases of research, benefits from a systems approach in terms of generality. Many results of field experiments are soil-specific because of the

interaction between treatments and soil and time-specific because of interactions with climate. In many cases, there may be no way around this problem but to repeat experiments in time and space. In all cases, the definition of system boundary and structure would help make explicit how restrictive these problems are likely to be. System modelling may be able to extrapolate the effects over a longer time sequence by sampling from historical or generated climatic sequences (e.g. see Rickert et al. 1981). That part of extrapolation which involves synthesizing information about components and processes into improved systems of production can also benefit from an approach that recognizes the importance of system linkages as well as components.

#### 2.5 SUMMARY

This chapter has been concerned with establishing the importance of a systems approach to agricultural research. It began by considering the nature of systems in general and in agriculture, pointing to the development of a theory and language of systems which can transcend disciplinary boundaries. Next, it was postulated that systems thinking offered a formal means of giving rational context to research planning and conduct.

The next two chapters deal with the means of employing systems approaches to research planning and conduct respectively. Much of the discussion of research planning is concerned with improving the objectivity of deriving research priorities, mainly by appeal to aspects of the production system with which the research is concerned.

# CHAPTER THREE

#### RESEARCH PRIORITIES

#### 3.1 INTRODUCTION

Agricultural research has expanded rapidly in the past 20 years. On the one hand, disciplinary specialists have been probing ever more deeply into biological mechanisms searching for simplicity and finding complexity. On the other hand, the integrating production scientists have also come to realize the complexity of the systems they have been working with and have responded by accepting the need for more complex concepts and experiments. Both of these tendencies have expanded the range and scope of potentially researchable problems and there is an increasing need for efficiency and relevance in the mix of research projects which are undertaken (Dillon 1973; Brady 1974). The previous chapter outlined a philosophy of a systems approach to agricultural research. The purpose of this chapter is to discuss some ways of assessing research objectives in a systems context.

In the past decade or so, there has been increasing interest in and development of methods for increasing the objectivity of criteria for project evaluation. In the following sections the components of project value are identified and discussed before some methods of combining these into an index of value are outlined. These concepts and methods rely on clear definition of the production systems that are the subject of research.

#### 3.2 THE LEVEL OF EVALUATION

Much of the literature on resource allocation to research deals with decisions at a level higher than that implied by different projects dealing with the same production system, though one of the more ambitious approaches used

a single production system as a case study (Fishel 1971) and sought to present the research manager-administrator with a set of ranked research priorities. It would be in the interests of individual scientists and problem-orientated groups to make use of project evaluation techniques themselves rather than have the results of higher-level evaluations forced upon them.

#### 3.3 THE NATURE OF VALUE

The elements which determine final value of a project may be divided into benefits and costs and most of the indices of value so far developed make some comparison between these two factors. More effort has been made in developing benefit estimates than cost estimates because of the greater number of factors involved and the greater uncertainty of returns. Even for small projects, where a full analysis of benefits and costs cannot be justified (Peterson 1967), the estimation of benefits in relation to objectives can be "... the key to evaluation of research alternatives ... " (Fedkiw and Hjort 1967). Administrators at all levels, under pressure to allocate resources more efficiently, seem increasingly likely to demand from scientists more quantitative estimates of potential research benefits, whether or not formal analytical models are used to discriminate among research alternatives (Bell 1976ь).

Pinstrup-Andersen et al. (1974) point out that, depending on the level at which research priorities are being determined, the research manager may be the individual scientist, a team of scientists or a research director.

#### 3.4 RESEARCH BENEFITS

The major benefit from applied agricultural research must come through the production system on which the research is carried out. But there may also be other benefits and in times when the social and opportunity costs of research are being given public prominence, it may be important to list all benefits, direct and indirect. As with benefits arising from any other kind of project, research may generate the following types of benefits (Puterbaugh 1971).

- (a) Commensurable. These are a direct measure of increased efficiency of output. Expressed in money units as a resource saving and compared with research resource costs, they may be used to compare directly between projects.
- (b) Incommensurable. These are measurable side benefits which may be measured in economic or physical units but are not necessarily additive to commensurable benefits. Reduced stream pollution, resulting from, say, minimum tillage cropping, is an example where the extent of the benefit may be measurable (perhaps in tons of sediment movement) but not yet amenable to economic valuation.
- (c) Intangible. These benefits can be described but not measured. Increased morale in a farming community might be indexed by a decrease in the number of emigrations but cannot be directly measured and would remain an intangible benefit.

It is readily apparent that the evaluation of research benefits along these lines interacts strongly with research objectives. One of the benefits to be expected from attempts at ex ante evaluation of research is a much more explicit

consideration of objectives.<sup>2</sup> Only benefits commensurable with research objectives can be used in estimates of net worth or benefit/cost ratio but, as Puterbaugh (1971) points out, incommensurable benefits may be an important decision criterion for distinguishing between projects with similar net worth or benefit/cost ratios.

The process by which research results are realized as real benefits involves a number of steps, some of which involve uncertainty and delay (see figure 3.1). The first uncertainty is that the research may not produce results which lead directly to production system benefits. The project may also have value in the sense of contributing to scientific knowledge and to scientific training (Fishel 1971) whether or not the project is "successful". The probability of a successful research outcome (P(R) in figure 3.1) would be influenced by a number of factors:

- (a) The location of the project in the research-development continuum. Development of a modified tillage machine might be expected to be more certain of success than, say, development of a cold-resistant banana variety.
- (b) The existence of related knowledge and theory which are necessary for success. These may be in the process of development so that probability of success will change with time.
- (c) Availability of appropriate staff and resources. This type of constraint may perhaps be overcome by a higher level of spending on the same project (Fishel 1971).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> The contribution of a systems approach to the formulation of objectives is discussed in Chapter 2.

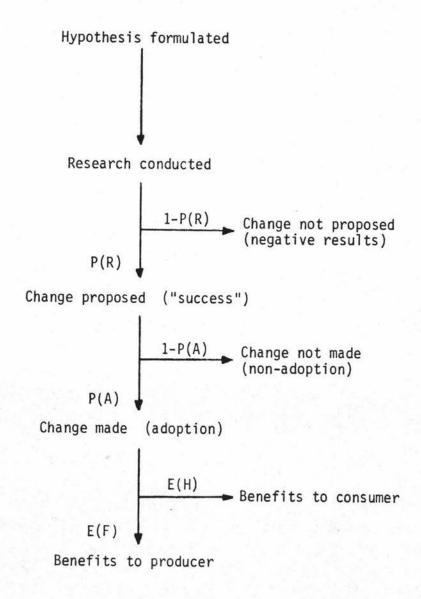


Figure 3.1 Uncertainties of research benefits.

P(R) = probability of technically successful research;

P(A) = probability of adoption;

E(H) = expected benefit to consumer;

E(F) = expected benefit to producer

The next uncertainty relates to the probability of adoption. This is analagous to the probability of commercial success (Libik 1969) in an industrial context. It may be expressed also as a pattern of adoption over time; Fishel (1971), for instance, expressed the rate of adoption with time as

$$1 - e^{t-T}$$

where T = number of years to complete the project
 c = a shape parameter (Fishel used

c = 0.775 in his experiments).

The degree or probability of adoption in the long term will relate to the relevance of a finding to the production systems concerned. The time course of that adoption could well depend on whether commodity prices are affected by adoption.

Auer (1973) has suggested that in cases where adoption results in a decrease in price to producers, early adoption represents an attempt to gain benefits before the price falls, while late adoption represents an attempt to minimize losses after the price falls.

An uncertainty as to the permanence and location of benefits has been raised by a number of studies. Using a simulation model in which a 10 percent increase in resource productivity and output was assumed, Auer (1973) showed that the partition of research benefits between consumer and producer depended strongly on the elasticity of demand for the commodity concerned. A similar partitioning between Canadian and United States wheat growers led Tosterud et al. (1973) to conclude that the net benefit to Canadian producers of the development, in Canada, of a new wheat variety depended strongly on price elasticity assumed. At constant prices long term benefit-cost ratios were 20.8 for Canadian growers, and 37.6 for North American growers, but at a price elasticity of 0.5, net benefits to Canadian growers were calculated to be negative.

Most of the more developed approaches to assessing research benefits estimate present value of future benefits by standard discounting techniques (Bell 1976b). Some use probability distributions as estimates of important variables in the research benefit calculation (Libik 1969; Fishel 1971; Cartwright 1972). Libik (1969) points out (as does Anderson (1976) in another context) that expected present value may be different when several distributions are combined than if single point estimates were used.

Any attempt to compare projects having different objectives would require, in addition to all the foregoing, estimates of the additive and multiplicative effects of multiple technological advances (Bayley 1971).

#### 3.5 RESEARCH COSTS

In contrast to the usual costing of research projects in which only direct costs are estimated, most writers on the topic have stressed the need to include associated costs relating to implementation research and development and costs of disseminating the new technology (Fishel 1971; Mahlstede 1971). Further, allocation of overhead costs is necessary where indices of net research benefit are to be estimated, otherwise indices such as benefit/cost ratio and net present value appear higher than they really are.

Direct costs include all those resources which are specific to the project. These include the costs of professional and technical time, other labour, research materials, data collection and processing, new equipment and facilities and dissemination of results to other scientists (Mahlstede 1971). Overhead costs include clerical and administrative support and some part of the cost of using existing equipment and facilities. Costs of associated research and development necessary for the new technology to

be implemented would be easily neglected. Salmon and Hansen (1964) point out that the implementation of hybrid maize technology was delayed by the necessity to develop seed-producing systems, the cost of which development would rightly attach to the hybrid maize research program. The final cost is that of disseminating the new knowledge to producers. This, too, could be significant part of the overall cost, particularly where a complex series of associated changes in the production system were necessary for successful implementation. New higher-yielding varieties, for instance, often need to be accompanied by improved cultural and fertilizing techniques.

It would be naive to suppose that implementation of research findings never generated adverse effects. It is more likely that they will be explicitly considered if classified as costs rather than as deductions to be made from research benefits. As with benefits, they may be commensurable, incommensurable or intangible. It is possible that incommensurable or intangible costs may preclude selection of a project. Nitrate enrichment of a water catchment containing a unique species, for instance, might be judged to be too great a risk, though no value can be put on the species at risk.

As with benefits, costs are frequently discounted back to the present. It is common experience to find also that costs are invariably higher (in real terms) than originally estimated. Tweeten (1971) presents increases on initial costs ranging from 1.2 for cargo aircraft to 4.1 - 6.4 for missiles. Lack of experience with the latter results in greater bias and variance in the increase.

#### 3.6 INDICES OF NET ECONOMIC BENEFIT

Fishel (1971) gives three indices for comparing among research projects:

- (a) Net Present Value = B C
- (b) Benefit/cost ratio = B/C
- (c) Internal rate of return (R): (B C)/R = 0

He points out that each analysis can lead to a different ordering of alternatives, depending on the ratio of initial investment to annual cash flow. It is obvious that the net present value form will favour large projects. The other two forms are dimensionless ratios in which all costs are included in the denominator.

Even if adequate procedures existed to generate this information accurately and economically, Fishel (1971) has shown that it may only be used for pre-ordering research alternatives and that administrators should and do require other information in deciding between alternatives. The other information, described by Fishel (1971) as boundary and environmental restrictions and by an administrator in the same study as technical literature review, personnel and departments involved, and cooperation expected during the research, was considered to be a vital part of the actual evaluation, as distinct from analysis, of projects.

Bayley (1971) listed four improvements required in cost-benefit analysis before they could be operationally useful:

- (a) Better means of identifying beneficiaries and the way in which they benefit.
- (b) Better means of identifying adverse effects.
- (c) Better means of estimating the duration of beneficial and adverse effects.

(d) Better means of estimating total benefit from a combination of projects (a program).

# 3.7 OTHER EVALUATION METHODS

A variety of methods have been proposed, varying in their objectivity and in the scope of factors they try to encompass. Economic models have already been considered and there seems general agreement that they cannot be used for allocation, only to aid allocation (Armon 1975; Wallace 1978). Other explicit methods are largely methods for scoring.

Scoring methods recognize explicitly that much of the information required for economic analysis can only be subjective and therefore not worthy of too much sophistication or expense in its use. However, there have been serious attempts to increase the objectivity of the criteria, as exemplified by the comparison, in table 3.1, of criteria used by USDA (Arnon 1975) and Iowa Experiment Station (Mahlstede 1971). Although criteria in the latter case are only used for ranking purposes, each criterion is potentially measurable while those in the former are used to score projects but are defined in such a way as to discourage numerical estimates and so produce less defensible evaluations.

Table 3.1 Two sets of criteria for ranking research projects

USDA (with	weights)	Iowa
(Arnon	1975)	(Mahlstede 1971)

- 1. Urgency and need (10)
- Extent to which research meets goals of station, department or nation (9)
- 3. Contribution to knowledge (9)
- 4. Scope and size considering area, people and units affected (8)
- 5. Benefits of research in relation to costs (7)
- 6. Likelihood that results will not be available elsewhere (6)
- 7. Ease of extension and likelihood of immediate adoption (6)
- 8. Feasibility of implementation and likelihood of successful completion in a reasonable time (5)

- 1. Probability of a successful outcome
- Gross benefit from adoption
- 3. Duration of gross benefit
- 4. Indirect benefits
- 5. Estimated direct cost
- 6. Duration of research
- Cost of required associated research and development
- 8. Probability that associated research and development will be undertaken and successful
- Degree and speed of adoption
- Cost and duration of required extension

The Iowa scheme outlined by Mahlstede (1971) is an iterative one in which the criteria are repeatedly applied to projects in relation to different overall goals, beginning with growth (a reduction in resources necessary for production of constant value output) and continuing with equity (distributive justice) and security (preservation of health and well-being of individuals and society).

Another scheme involving more than one stage of evaluation was described by Gilchrist (1973). Here, there were four binding criteria which had to be satisfied before any project could move into the scoring stage of evaluation against eight independent criteria. Fishel (1971) had previously recommended some sort of screening process (he suggested the Iowa scheme) to filter out irrelevant or infeasible projects before moving into an evaluation procedure.

Cartwright (1972) has demonstrated how projects, or research activities, may be assigned scores depending on their contribution to a set of weighted objectives. MacMillan (1973) has used a similar approach to calculating economic benefits from research activities. Goal weights may be useful means of periodically updating evaluation of continuing research; changing weights to reflect changing economic circumstances and agricultural technology permits re-evaluation at any time either of these change (Arnon 1975).

Gilchrist (1973) described another scoring method which estimates potential benefits, probability of success and cost as orders of magnitude (0-5 = OM 0; 5-50 = OM 1; 50-500 = OM 2 etc. ) and from these estimates expected payoff as an order of magnitude. This last estimate can be used to rank projects. Once again, the principle of trying to make numerical estimates is invoked, drawing attention to, if not necessarily resolving, the problem of quantitatively estimating benefits in relation to objectives. Gilchrist (1973) points out that if difficulty is experienced in making any of the estimates within an order of magnitude then the project objectives or planning have probably not been adequately specified. He further shows that order of magnitude estimates can compensate for the underestimation which intuition is likely to produce from dealing with very small percentages. An example given shows that a project having a 1 percent effect on 10 percent of Canadian consumers could

have very large benefits in order of magnitude terms.

# 3.8 ALLOCATION METHODS

Possible allocation approaches will be outlined only briefly since they really belong in the province of the administrator, rather than the production system scientist.

Possible approaches seem to be of three main types:

- (a) Allocating by rank until resources are exhausted;
- (b) Maximizing estimated benefits by programming techniques;
- (c) Minimizing discrepancies between goals and potential achievement.

Where the decisions concern incremental resource allocation to existing projects or programs, the view of Peterson (1967) that an "implicit market force" operates to allocate resources efficiently, finds support in the importance research administrators attach to the identity of the scientists proposing research (Fishel 1971; Gilchrist 1973). This seems to imply that the approaches outlined above would find little use in the normal type of incremental budgeting, though, as noted by Cartwright (1972), there would be value in testing the techniques to encourage explicit consideration of the many aspects of the evaluation problem. While these techniques would have more direct applicability to zero-based budgeting (Hannah 1973), the latter concept has found little support either conceptually or operationally (Puterbaugh 1971). The conceptual objections to zero-base budgeting stem from considerations of continuity of research (termed the "rhythm of research", Libik 1969); long-range planning (Mahlstede 1971); and the absence of an agreed objective in resource allocation (Hurter and Rubenstein 1971).

# 3.9 ESTIMATION OF RESEARCH BENEFITS

In section 3.4, some of the uncertainties of research benefit were discussed. These related to discounts to be made from potential gross benefits and it was implied that, given sufficiently clear objectives, potential benefits could be readily estimated. However, experimental applications (none of the procedures seem to be operational, Cartwright 1972) of these procedures have been conducted on fairly simple production systems, for the obvious reason that the process of assigning research priorities is complex enough.

In comparison with the soybean production system studied by Mahlstede (1971) and Fishel (1971), animal production systems, especially grazing systems, are very complex in terms of the number of ways in which they can be modified (Wright 1973). Research benefits will be correspondingly harder to estimate. Two approaches could ease this problem.

The first is a suggestion by Anderson (1972) that benefits be estimated for a representative farm by such means as budgeting (e.g. see Bell 1976a) or linear programming.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Some procedures require only a ranking or scoring of potential benefits (e.g. Mahlstede 1971; Cartwright 1972) but even that assumes some implicit estimation of commensurable benefits.

<sup>&</sup>quot;It is assumed that a subjective probability distribution with a range of zero to some maximum possible value would be of little help.

With an estimate of degree and rate of adoption, it should be possible to produce an estimate of the aggregate benefit over all farms. The second is an extension of this approach, in which a model of the farm or production system is manipulated to estimate benefits from postulated changes (Dent and Anderson 1971; Arnold and Campbell 1972; Morley 1973; Arnon 1975). This latter approach has been taken by a number of workers (Duncan 1966; Greig 1971; Trebeck 1972; Louw et al. 1976; Baars et al. 1976; Wright et al. 1976). Some, at least, have claimed that the research evaluation process has been influenced by modelling, though there is no way of proving the point.

#### 3.10 CONCLUSION

This chapter has discussed the need for more defensible allocations of research priorities and has outlined some of the techniques being developed for more objective assessments of research benefits and costs. It dealt also with some methods of research resource allocation but recognised that research administrators will frequently have some dominating, intangible criteria upon which to base allocation.

The methods discussed here depended on some appreciation, however qualitative, of the relevant production system. However, a systems approach to the actual conduct of research requires a more explicit representation of the production system concerned. The next chapter, therefore, discusses one comprehensive means of representing a system - modelling. The discussion is restricted to agricultural production systems, in parallel with the operational part of this study.

# CHAPTER FOUR

### THE MODELLING PROCESS

#### 4.1 INTRODUCTION

A systems approach to research requires the use of models for all but the simplest systems (Spedding and Brockington 1976) and for all except the very best researchers (Wright 1973). Nowhere is this more evident than in animal production systems where the boundaries of interest necessarily extend toward soil-plant interactions on the one hand and socio-economic considerations on the other. The grazing interface, in particular, has been a difficult experimental area because the diet of the grazing animal is determined partly by a complex of interrelated animal factors (e.g. N.R.C. 1971) and partly by a complex of interrelated forage factors (e.g. Morley and Spedding 1968).

Most discourses on modelling deal with only one type of model. This chapter represents an attempt to draw together those aspects of modelling common to simulation and linear programming, at least.

#### 4.2 MODEL DEFINITION AND PURPOSE

A variety of classifications of models have been presented (Wright 1971; Innis 1975) but this discussion will primarily be concerned with mathematical models which are manipulated by computer. One classification that has direct application in any discussion of modelling animal production systems is the sequence mental, verbal, diagrammatic, mathematical.

Farmers, their advisers, and scientists in a variety of disciplines dealing with a production system all have their mental picture (model) of system structure and function. Disagreements that arise when these mental images are given verbal form (as at field days and the like) testify to the differences between the models. Differences that derive from the different boundaries that surround each group's system view are a natural expression of the different purpose each group has in manipulating or observing the system. Thus a farmer would probably include variable prices in his mental model while a plant breeder developing new pasture varieties could reasonably exclude the same process. However, differences in system perception that derive from ambiguous or incorrect perceptions of reality are not usually capable of resolution by appeal to the mental models which produced them.

Progression of mental and verbal models towards diagrammatic form begins to force the resolution of ambiguities and disagreements. Diagrammatic models are usually invoked to give qualitative expression to system processes in the form of graphs, histograms, flowcharts. For example, they may distinguish between linear and asymptotic relationships, they may show that winter pasture growth is only a fraction of spring growth, they may show that pasture growth is dependent on defoliation history, as well as on current environmental conditions. One major limitation is that only two or three dimensions can normally be represented. System organization, also, has been difficult to portray diagrammatically; however developments in system representation, such as the state-variable conventions of

The relationship between system boundary and purpose has been discussed in Chapter 2.

Forrester (1961) and the circular diagrams of Spedding (1975), have eased that difficulty.

Conversion of the qualitative statements of diagrammatic models into the unequivocal form of a mathematical model is the final step in describing a system in terms that can be communicated without loss of meaning or precision.

The purposes of modelling in agricultural research have been summarized as (Wright 1976):

- (a) to improve understanding of how a complex system functions;
- (b) to predict how a system will respond to natural or induced disturbance;
- (c) to solve problems relating to manipulation of the system to achieve given ends.

Prediction and problem solving both require some understanding of system function so that the first objective can be thought to subsume the others. Yet, as Spedding and Brockington (1976) point out, total understanding is not possible and any lesser level of understanding can only be justified by reference to purpose.

In the case of applied research in animal production systems, the subject of this study, an important additional role for modelling can be proposed as the provision of a repository for information (Ebersohn 1976) from the more traditional disciplines of agronomy and animal nutrition. That such a medium is necessary can be gauged from the number of studies reported where there is almost no attempt to explain animal performance in terms of nutrient intake, on the one hand, and almost no attempt to assess the value of forages in animal production terms, on the other. The existence of a model at the animal/forage interface would

impose some obligation to explain results in terms of processes as well as serving as a link between the detail of the disciplines and the generality of theory (Rountree 1977).

# 4.3 THE MODELLING PROCESS

The classification referred to above, mental, verbal, diagrammatic, mathematical, can be considered also as the first stage of the modelling sequence (Anderson 1974; Ebersohn 1976). A general outline of the modelling process is shown in figure 4.1 and it is proposed to discuss the process along these lines. Since a model represents a system, the discussion of section 2.4, dealing with a systems approach to agricultural research, applies equally well to modelling. Some aspects will be reiterated briefly.

#### 4.3.1 PURPOSE AND SCOPE

As with any form of applied research the problem should be well-defined, neither trivial nor hypothetical, and should be within the scope and competence of the research unit (Andrew and Hildebrand 1976). The system boundary, within which the model will operate, is determined by the overall objectives of the research program while the scope of the model will be determined by the nature of the problem.

Many writers on the subject of modelling, particularly simulation modelling, have emphasized the difficulties of, and dangers of not, clearly specifying the modelling objectives (e.g. Garfinkel et al. 1972; Anderson 1974; Charlton and Street 1975; Wright 1976). The danger is encapsulated by Dillon's (1971) Third Law of Simulation which states that "Once started, simulation of a system will continue until available funds are exhausted".

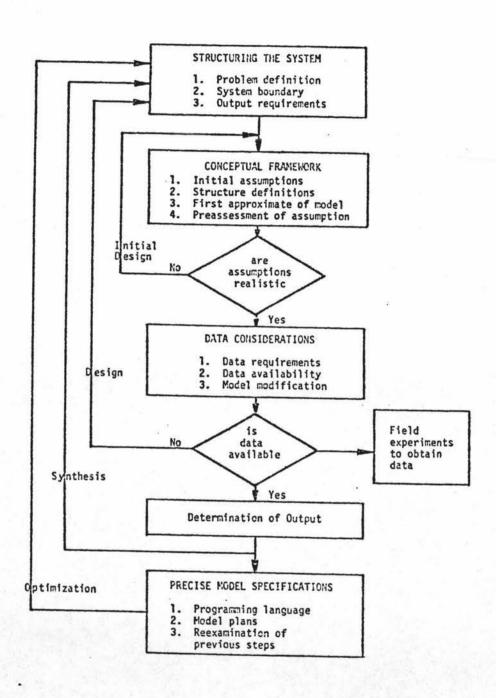


Figure 4.1 Steps of the modelling process (Baker and Curry 1976)

Recognizing the difficulty of knowing in advance all the questions that might be asked of a model (Benyon 1972), one approach to ensuring the model is used to solve problems is to fix deadlines for various stages in the modelling process, as Wright (1976) did for the end point of a modelling project.

#### 4.3.2 MODEL FORMULATION

Some of the characteristics of models to be considered at this stage are (Anon 1973; Anderson 1974):

- (a) the theory and assumption on which the model is based;
- (b) the form of the model;
- (c) the form of equations in which it is expressed;
- (d) the stochasticity to be included;
- (e) the level of resolution;
- (f) the time periods to be included;
- (g) the inputs and outputs required.

Since the model is really a hypothesis of system structure and function, it is probably more important that it summarizes the current state of knowledge accurately (Warner 1964; Garfinkel et al. 1972) than that it be trimmed by Occam's razor (Skellam 1972). Simplicity aids comprehension and manageability but might more properly be seen as a desirable bonus, if achieved, than as a primary objective. For bio-economic models destined for use by extension services, Charlton and Street (1975) advise restricting a model package to a single specific enterprise or problem, rather than trying to develop large complex models with greater generality. Warner (1964) points out that if the modeller is not conscientious and critical at this time, or allows preconceived notions to bias his assessment of the

existing facts, his model is almost sure to lead him to false conclusions about the system. That the model may be the only coherent and comprehensive theory of the system, (e.g. see Dent 1975; Wright et al. 1976) as opposed to a collection of empirical data, may make this step doubly important.

The simplification involved in representing a real system by a mathematical model necessitates the making of assumptions about simplifications and omissions. They need to be as defensible as the structures and relationships which are included and to ensure they are explicit, Garfinkel et al. (1972) recommend they be listed as they are made.

Decisions about form of model include those about whether the model should be optimizing or not; whether the model is to be a mechanistic, process model or a collection of empirical black boxes (Wright 1971); whether the model is to be constructed on skeleton, modular, or representative farm principles (Dent 1975); whether the approach is to be hierarchical (Goodall 1976) or problem oriented (Wright 1976); and whether stochastic relationships are to be included. As pointed out by Innis (1975) and, in a more specific way, by Anderson (1976), most of the models to be found in the literature do not belong to the classifications which would provide the most realistic representations of system behaviour. These deficiencies must be due, in part, to the relative inexperience of many biologists in the modelling process but there is also the need to compromise between realism and manageability and between generality and specificity. Increased realism is achieved at the cost of increased complexity and manageability; it has been suggested (Jeffers 1978) that in hierarchical terms, a manageable model can cover only three levels of organization, 2 the level at

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Levels of organization are discussed in Chapter 2. An example in agriculture might be the sequence molecule, organelle, cell, leaf, tiller, sward, grazed paddock, farm, dairy cooperative, and so on.

which the problem has been defined and one level above and below. The conflict between building a model general enough to justify the costs of construction (which may be considerable - Morley 1973; Arnold and Bennett 1975) and specific enough to solve real problems, inevitable as such conflict is (Charlton and Thompson 1970), seems often to have resulted in models which have found no practical application. This reinforces the need referred to earlier, to have explicit objectives.

The inclusion of stochastic elements in a model, for which Anderson (1976) has argued powerfully, presupposes the existence of data from which the stochastic relationships may be estimated, although Anderson (1974) has suggested that it might be better to include subjective estimates than to ignore variability. Although the techniques of making these estimates and including them in some types of models are relatively well developed (Phillips 1971; Rae 1971; Bell 1976a; Wicks and Guise 1978) it may be expecting too much of novice model-builders (as most still are) to include realistic stochasticity as well as building models which adequately summarize their systems. Moreover, there is the problem, noted by Charlton and Thompson (1970), that inclusion of stochastic variables within the model (as distinct from stochastic exogenous variables like rainfall) may necessitate thousands of runs to determine response with confidence. In any case, Anderson's (1976) warnings seem to be aimed more at models which produce results for makers of economic decisions whereas many animal production models are concerned with trend prediction rather than event prediction (Innis 1975).

Two aspects of time are considered in model formulation. The first is the total duration of modelled time, which will depend on the length of the production period (often a calendar year in animal production systems) and on whether or

not any model variables are stochastic (e.g. Wright (1970) found 25 years to be insufficient for distinguishing between two management policies in a sheep grazing system). The second aspect in models which deal with dynamic relationships is the number of time steps within the production period. In biological models, where most relationships are continuous, these time periods ought to be related to the time intervals between decision points but are frequently compromised by the need to restrict model size or solution times.

The form of input and output are more than trivial programming matters and need consideration during model formulation. Wright and Baars (1975), for instance, decided that to be generally useful, their pasture growth model should not require inputs of meteorological data which are only kept at a very few locations. This circumscribed the form of their model to an extent (W.G. Duncan, personal communication), but satisfied their original objectives and provided useful results (Wright et al. 1976; Wright et al. 1977). Output specifications will involve compromise between the need to restrict the mountains of output that can be produced by computer implementations of a model (Anderson 1974) and the need to monitor individual processes within the model (Wright and Dent 1969; Benyon 1972).

#### 4.3.3 MODEL EVALUATION

Since most mathematical models are simplifications of reality and often contain more assumptions than certainties, their use as predictors requires some assessment of the accuracy of their predictions. In the case of simple models such as linear regression, predictions take the form of a confidence interval in which the predicted mean can be assumed to lie with a specified probability. The theory underpinning the use of such models to explain the data and the calculation

of uncertainty is widely accepted. More complex models, implicitly or explicitly, contain many uncertainties of this sort as well as uncertainty of a less definable kind arising from ignorance of system structure and function.

In the more complex case, no adequate theory exists either to explain the data in appropriate terms<sup>3</sup> or to provide estimates of the accuracy of predictions. These two aspects might be considered as form and content and to some extent apply to all kinds of models (Jeffers 1978). It is proposed here to deal only with simulation and linear programming models.

### 4.3.3.1 MODEL FORM

The process of evaluating the form of simulation models corresponds approximately with the process customarily known as model verification (Anderson 1974). Presumably because simulation models are free-form, a large, introspective literature has developed around the evaluation process. In summary, verification is concerned with determining whether a simulation model represents reality correctly or adequately (Wright 1971), as anticipated (Anderson 1974), or reasonably (Jeffers 1978). Each case is unique as an entity

One purpose of the model is to serve as a hypothesis of the system in terms appropriate to the solution of a particular problem. If adequate theory (a model) did exist, there would be no need for a new model.

although there may well be components within the model, such as stochastic generators, which are in general use. Thus, depending on the purpose of the model, and on the theoretical development of the underlying biology, verification consists of ensuring that the model mimics the system in a way that is representative of the underlying biology. Van Keulen (1976) asserts that a "black box" (Wright 1971) approach at too high a level of organization can preclude the use of the model for extrapolation.

Verification in this sense is not so much a separate stage of modelling, but a continuous iterative process involving model and sub-model formulation and testing.

In contrast to simulation models, the basic form of linear programming models, the form that permits an optimal allocation of specified resources under given conditions, is well known (Heady and Candler 1958). Doubts about the applicability of the standard formulation have given rise to a number of modifications and extensions. The unacceptability of a single-criterion, linear objective function has led to the development of sub-optimal programming (Powell and Hardaker 1969) and separable programming (e.g. Wicks and Guise 1978), the latter permitting non-linear constraints to be included (Burroughs Corp. 1975). These methods, the MOTAD formulation (Hazell 1971) and discrete stochastic programming (Rae 1971) allow the possibility of uncertainty in income due to activities to be explicitly considered in the model solution. Uncertainty in the extent to which constraints will be binding can be considered in chance-constrained programming and uncertainty in the input-output coefficients can be dealt with by a RINOCO (Wicks and Guise 1978) formulation. Intertemporal programming permits a dynamic formulation (Rae 1970).

The other aspect of linear programming model form, methods of describing activities and imposing constraints, is much more akin to the verification phase of simulation modelling. There is scope for considerable idiosyncrasy here, and as with simulation models, a responsibility on the modeller to continually ensure that the model conforms with reality in a meaningful and communicable way.

#### 4.3.3.2 MODEL BEHAVIOUR

Evaluation of model behaviour, normally labelled validation in simulation studies, is usually defined as testing whether model output is adequate for the purpose in mind (Wright 1971; Anderson 1974). The form of the testing is usually in the form of comparison between behaviour of model and real system. In the case of descriptive models which merely summarize existing knowledge, an adequate comparison might be between the sharpened perceptions of system structure and function and the vague, ambiguous images which preceded modelling (Ebersohn 1976).

In the case of models to be used in a problem-solving role (interpolation or extrapolation) the most rigorous procedure is to compare model output and reality under identical conditions. Comparisons need to be applied to the behaviour of sub-models and processes within the model for the procedure to be effective (Benyon 1972; van Keulen 1976). As with verification, the process will commonly be iterative with validation tests being followed by reworking of parts of the model. The importance of avoiding tuning the model without correcting structural faults has been emphasized by a number of writers (e.g. Goodall 1972; van Keulen 1976; Morley 1977). Such an approach must lead to a model which may only represent the data with which it has been forced to agree (Benyon 1972).

The question of having independent data from reality with which to compare model output raises at least two issues. First, if reality, in the form of a production system, does not exist (a new crop rotation, say) or cannot be measured without disturbance (a unique ecosystem, say), then verification as outlined in section 4.3.3.1 is the best that can be done (Anderson 1974). Second, where data describing reality do exist there is a problem of ensuring its independence from the data used in model construction. Van Keulen (1976) points out the difficulty of ignoring any data which is present during model construction and the danger of circular reasoning when such data are unconsciously used in decision-making during model construction and then in validation. Finally, there are obvious advantages in testing models in near limit situations, not only to expose internal errors of specification (van Keulen 1976) but to maximize the universe in which the model might be useful (Goodall 1972).

The next question concerns the nature of the comparison between model and reality. A variety of approaches have been suggested, from qualitative analysis of extreme values, distribution shapes, cycles, convergence, number and timing of turning points (Mize and Cox 1968; Wright 1970) to goodnessof-fit tests and regression (Anderson 1974). All of these represent an attempt to be objective whereas it has been argued by many modellers of bio-economic systems that it would be as well to recognize that validity is a subjective notion (Wright 1971; Anderson 1974; Greig 1979). Statistical tests are usually designed to minimize the probability of a Type I error (rejecting the null hypothesis and the model when, in fact, both are valid) because of "significant" discrepancy whereas Greig (1979) argues that it is the Type II error (accepting the null hypothesis and the model when in fact an alternative hypothesis is true and model is invalid) which is probably more important. He argues this on the basis that the cost of a Type I error is likely to be no more than the cost of the modelling to date, whereas the cost of a Type II error might be as large as the potential benefit expected

from the modelling. Since the latter must initially have been estimated to be larger than the former (otherwise why model?), Greig (1979) argues that the best approach might be to minimize the sum of the probabilities of the two types of error, a notion also proposed for exploratory experiments in some circumstances (Balaam 1972).

Subjective comparisons of model and reality can be placed in an objective context by the use of "Turing"-type tests where unidentified sets of data are presented to one or more experienced system observers (Anderson 1974). If the model output cannot be distinguished, the test is said to be successful. Since much of the criticism of models is likely to be of a subjective nature, making formal tests of this type and reporting the participants and results would lend much credibility to any tests made by the modeller alone (Greig 1979).

# 4.4 THE USE OF SYSTEMS MODELLING IN AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Recognition of the complexity of agricultural production systems, particularly those involving grazing, has led to decreasing confidence in the traditional methods of observation, hypothesis formulation, experiment and induction (Ebersohn 1976). Expansion of the scope of the experimental method to encompass systems instead of components and processes may increase research relevance but it greatly increases the resources used by each iteration of the observation, hypothesis, experiment, induction sequence and increases the importance of making each iteration as productive as possible.

One of the most important roles for systems models is in providing an explicit conceptual base for the research process (Jeffers 1972), as noted in section 4.3.2. There is little doubt that the best researchers have always had a welldeveloped but mental systems model as their conceptual base (Wright 1973). However, the rapid expansion of agricultural research in mid-century saw many of these researchers promoted to administrative positions where their opportunities for communicating their concepts (never a simple process) were much restricted.

With the promotion of mission-oriented research likely to increase (Dillon 1973), the need for an interdisciplinary theoretical framework in interdisciplinary projects will increase. Despite the apparent success of modelling in such a role (e.g. Wright et al. 1976), a warning about the dangers of neglecting the more basic aspects of agricultural science has been given by Boyce and Evenson (1975), who assert that concentration on interdisciplinary projects by the U.S.D.A. commodity research programs led to a relatively unproductive period of research by that organization, though the measure of productivity was not stated.

A feature of many agricultural production system modelling studies has been the areas of ignorance that they have exposed (e.g. Wright et al. 1976; Sibbald et al. 1979) so it seems likely that for some time yet, the main result of modelling might be to send researchers back to disciplinary work, but armed with greater understanding of the framework into which their work must fit. Even when the modelling is "successful" enough to produce results at a system level, the most likely use of the results is to guide aspects of research rather than to provide producers with any directly useful information.

The literature on animal production systems modelling does provide a number of examples of models developed to provide information for use by producers and their advisers (e.g. see Anderson 1974; Charlton and Street 1975), although

it is by no means clear how effective this has been. While the number of models originating from animal production research teams has also been considerable (e.g. see Seligman 1976; De Boer and Rose 1977), there must also be a good deal of unreported modelling going on that is having some effect on the research programs in which it is embedded.

As with the sketchy reporting of validation procedures and results, few of the reports of modelling give any clear indication of how the modelling has affected the research program or the producers. There is, of course, no way of defining accurately the course that research or production would have taken in the absence of modelling, but as with validation, there is a requirement for more rigour in this area.

#### 4.5 SUMMARY

The preceding discussion has dealt with the modelling process in the sequence in which it normally occurs. First, there was consideration of model purpose and system boundary, then model formulation where questions of simplicity, stochasticity, level of resolution in time and space were discussed. Next, model evaluation and its components of verification and validation were outlined. Finally, the use of modelling in research into agricultural production systems was discussed briefly and it was noted that very few objective evaluations of its results have been attempted.

#### PART I CONCLUSION

Part I began by reviewing systems concepts, particularly as they apply in agriculture and in agricultural research. The application of these concepts in agricultural research was then reviewed in two parts. Firstly the setting of research priorities was discussed and it was concluded that the complexities involved, together with intangible criteria held to be important by research administrators, inhibited application of some objective methods developed recently. Next, a formal means of system representation, mathematical modelling, was discussed and it was concluded that in animal production research, although a good deal of modelling had been done, there were few indications of the effects of modelling on physical research programs.

These conclusions led to the decision to concentrate on a particular research program and to develop an interactive modelling program at a production system level rather than probe the area of setting priorities between research programs. The chosen research program and the methodology of the modelling are described in Part II.

# PART II

THE CASE STUDY AND MODEL

# PART II INTRODUCTION

The next five chapters deal with the setting up of a modelling project to interact with an active field research program.

Chapter 5 gives the background to the chosen field research program and outlines previous research in the same field. Chapters 6, 7 and 8 describe the animal and forage components which are potential variables in the feeding system. Chapter 9 outlines the structure of the main model, its full detail being exposed in Appendix D.

# CHAPTER FIVE

#### INTRODUCTION TO THE CASE STUDY

# 5.1 INTRODUCTION

To deal with the stated objectives of studying interaction between modelling and field research in an interdisciplinary field, the first requirement is a real research program. This chapter describes briefly the feeding systems research program being undertaken by Plant Physiology Division, D.S.I.R. and outlines its advantages for concurrent modelling. Next follows a discussion of alternative forage feeding system investigations in New Zealand. Finally, conceptual aspects of the production system are discussed. These include system boundary, level of detail and intensity of technology.

#### 5.2 CHOICE OF RESEARCH PROGRAM

Beginning in the early 1970's, Plant Physiology
Division of D.S.I.R. embarked on a program of developing
specialist feeding systems for Northland dairying, beef and
sheep systems. Besides interest in the productive potential
of alternative feeding systems, a feature shared by most
studies in the field, additional reasons have been advanced
for this work (Taylor et al. 1974; Taylor and Hughes 1976,
1978). Among these are the supplementation of pasture at

<sup>1</sup> See section 5.3.

times of deficiency in quantity or quality; changing patterns of farm output to reduce processing costs; and a wish to put some of the past theoretical evaluations of forage crop systems to test.

The dairying phase of this program has been summarized by Taylor et al. (1979c). After small plot experiments gave encouraging results, four farms became involved in the development of alternative feeding systems. The authors note that because of physical and social constraints four different systems evolved on the farms. Judging from the increase in production on the test farms compared with the district average, each system has been successful in physical terms (Taylor et al. 1976b, 1977b, 1979c). To judge from continued operation of the new systems by the farmers after formal completion of the study, they must also be successful in economic terms.

However, in the experimental sense there is no control treatment and so no absolute measure of benefit. Nor can total benefits be attributed to particular components or practices, some of which may be unrelated to changes in feeding. There may, indeed, be no convenient way of doing so experimentally, since many will have effect only in combination. That is, there may be large interactions but no main effects. But any future decisions about research priorities in this field will require some estimate of the importance of each component, practice or combination.

Exploratory discussion between Plant Physiology
Division and the Farm Management Department of Massey
University in 1976 had revealed that the former were interested in the possibility of system modelling as a means of exploring possible future developments in dairy feeding systems. The latter were interested in the general area of

system modelling as an adjunct to agricultural research and had already done some work on these lines for animal production systems (Pollard 1972; Wright et al. 1976).

Given this background, there were a number of other advantages in using this program as a case study:

- (a) A degree of concurrence between modelling and field research is likely to bring benefits to the model and the modeller as well as to the field research. 2 It is suggested this advantage arises because the field research is active, data are visible and accessible and those conducting the field research are actively thinking about the systems being modelled. Alternative farm systems were being developed and monitored between 1975 and 1978. Model construction and validation spanned the period 1977-79.
- (b) Plant Physiology Division is located adjacent to Massey University campus. Physical proximity of field scientists and modeller allows the possibility of more or less continuous interaction, with attendant benefits to model construction, validation and operation.
- (c) Plant Physiology Division is actively engaged in computer modelling of other systems and has no institutional inhibitions about the purposes or validity of modelling.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See Chapter 4.

#### 5.3 FORAGE FEEDING SYSTEMS

Interest in alternative forage sources for feeding dairy cattle seems to stem from two sources. First is the proposition that, at least during part of the year, the main forage source of New Zealand dairying, ryegrass-white clover pasture, makes ineffective use of the resources available for growth. Representing this point of view, Mitchell (1963, 1966) has pointed to the extravagant use of water made by ryegrass at temperatures above 21°C and to the more efficient energy fixation possible by C4 carbon pathway plants. Mitchell (1970) has also pointed to the limitation of the shallow rooting of ryegrass. Kerr (1975) has shown that maize not only uses water much more efficiently than some C3 forages, but uses less water in total over summer.

A second reason for considering alternative forage sources is that the best dairy systems appear to be utilizing 90 percent or more of pasture grown, so that the scope for further gains in production or profitability lies mainly in greater forage production rather than in increased efficiency of forage utilization (Campbell et al. 1978; Scott 1978).

There has been considerable exploration of the subject, both theoretical and practical, ex ante and ex post. A brief review of these studies precedes discussion of the case study.

# 5.3.1 PREVIOUS EVALUATIONS OF ALTERNATIVE CATTLE FEEDING SYSTEMS

Mitchell (1966, 1969) emphasized the potential productivity of maize-based feeding systems by assuming optimum growing, harvesting, storage and feeding techniques which would maximize energy production per hectare and involve minimum losses.

Following that lead, early ex ante economic evaluations were concerned with a very limited number of similarly intensive systems (McLatchy 1969; Philpott et al. 1972). High crop and pasture yields were assumed but despite markedly increased production and cash surpluses, the capital requirements of these feedlotting systems were so large that they were concluded to be uneconomic at expected prices.

System design was more flexible in the study by
Stephen et al. (1974). Here, several feed production, feed
storage and feeding out sub-systems were specified as
alternative activities in a linear programming matrix. These
authors considered two yield levels which they described as
"research" and "potential", both very high even when compared
with research station yields (table 5.1). Although cropping
and feedlotting increased profitability at higher product
prices, the capital requirements were again large and the
return to additional capital generally less than 10 percent
(Bell 1975).

The first system to show theoretical advantages in all important economic parameters (economic farm surplus, return to capital, benefit/cost ratio) was a system described by Bell (1976a). Although much lower crop and pasture yields were assumed (table 5.1) simple feeding and storage systems for silage meant that additional capital costs were much lower than in the examples already discussed. A preliminary evaluation of this system in the field failed to show any economic advantage over an all-grass system (Campbell et al. 1978). Drought, and higher stocking rates on pasture in the cropping system than on pasture in the all-grass system, were given as two reasons for the failure of the system to match its promise. Mention was also made that maize yields fell below prior assumption and that maize silage had to be imported from outside the system. No allowance was made for the imported forage in the calculations of profitability.

Table 5.1 Forage yield assumptions of previous evaluations with some research yields (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>).

		Permanent pasture	Winter ryegrass	Maize	Winter cereal
ASSUMED YIELDS					
McLatchy	(1969)	16800	7000	16800	<del>(4</del>
Philpott et al.	(1972)	16800	15700	24700	
Mitchell	(1974)	14700	$(12100)^{1}$	25000	14300
Stephen et al.	$(1974)^2$	18400	-	18000	11900
Bell	(1976a)	14500	8300	17300	=
Lambert Baars	(1967) (1976b)	8000 <b>-</b> 11000	-	_	- ' '
MEASURED RESEAR( Lambert				. 10 _	
Hutton & Bryant	10 10	15000	-	4. <del>-</del> 2	7,
Campbell et al.	(1977)	13000	_		-
Piggot et al.	(1978)	12800	_		
McCormick	(1974)	_	_	18000-21500	· _
Thom	(1977)	_	_	16600-22500	
Kerr & Menalda	(1976)	-	7100		16100
Taylor et al.	(1976b)	-	4900-9400	-	13700-17000

<sup>1</sup> Lupins or alternative.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> "Research" yields; "potential" yields were up to 7000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> higher.

In the South Island too, crop grazing systems were predicted to be more profitable than all-grass systems (Stephen and McDonald 1977). As in the north, crop yields achieved on a farmlet scale did not reach the levels assumed in the initial evaluation (McDonald and Stephen 1978). A summary of economic evaluations is shown in table 5.2.

Two general conclusions emerge from this work. Firstly, unless some technical advance greatly reduces the capital costs of storing roughage feeds, cut and carry systems are likely to remain technically attractive, though uneconomic in on-farm terms. Secondly, the yields assumed for crops, while technically feasible, have not been reached consistently at paddock scale.<sup>3</sup>

When explanations of these shortfalls in yield have invoked unusual seasons as the reason for low yield, there has been no clear indication of whether the authors consider the originally assumed means to be too high or the originally assumed variance (if any) to be too low. In any case, comparisons of strategies to cope with variability were apparently made only by Bell (1976a) and then only between his two arbitrary systems.

#### 5.4 GENERAL APPROACH TO THE CASE STUDY

The evaluations discussed in section 5.2 were largely concerned with discovering whether this or that system was on average more or less profitable than another. Mitchell

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup>Possible reasons for discrepancy between experimental and commercial yields are discussed in section 5.4.2.

Table 5.2 Economic evaluations of forage systems

	CONVEN	TIONAL AL	CONVENTIONAL ALL-GRASS SYSTEM	STEM		SYSTEMS	SYSTEMS WITH CROP	
	Cost <sup>1</sup> of feed DM \$ kg <sup>-1</sup>	Total capital \$ ha-1	Economic surplus \$ ha -1	Return to capital %	Cost <sup>1</sup> of feed DM \$\phi\$ kg <sup>-1</sup>	Total capital \$ ha-1	Economic surplus \$ ha-1	Return to capital %
McCLATCHY (1969) Town milk Winter beef	1-1	1559	156 58	10.0	2.71	2080	195	9.4
PHILPOTT et al. (1972) Factory milk Beef	1.70	814 506	65	8.0	2.40	3306	119	3.6
MITCHELL (1974) Dairy Beef	3.14				2.08			
STEPHEN et al. (1974) <sup>2</sup> Dairy grazing feedlot					1.66	1914	829	43.0
Beef grazing feedlot					0.80	2180 5251	750	34.0
BELL (1976a) Dairy	3.06	4082	387	9.5	3.09	4373	780	11.0

Research level yields: milkfat prices = \$1.28 kg<sup>-1</sup>; beef price = \$0.57 kg<sup>-1</sup> 'Including all labour and interest on capital.

(1970) has argued that profit margins can alter radically with new technology and new marketing opportunities and so should not be used to inhibit research into new possibilities but rather for "... posing the issues to be met ...". Previous evaluations have recognized this point but the comparative budgeting of a very few alternatives (McClatchy 1969; Philpott et al. 1972; Bell 1976a) can only give the most general indications of whether to proceed or not.

An approach is required that can assess the physical and economic performance of a whole range of systems under a range of physical and economic circumstances. Then, a benefit/cost approach can be used to indicate best directions rather than to draw conclusions about a whole concept. Stephen et al. (1974) took a step in this direction by constructing supply curves for two levels of technology but their model was too aggregated to draw more than the most general conclusions about research options; later their economic conclusions were questioned (Bell 1975).

Any attempt to deal with research options in any detail requires a much more flexible approach where at least the structure of the systems is not conceptually fixed or overly limited. In addition, the selection of a particular region, Northland, meant that site-specific yields had to be used. Most of the previous studies used subjective estimates of yield which often seemed to assume that each forage source was being grown in its own best environment, despite being used in combination on one farm.

# 5.4.1 SYSTEM STRUCTURE AND BOUNDARY

Although it is suspected that on-farm and off-farm economies interact, particularly with respect to pattern of production (Taylor and Hughes 1978), this study is almost totally concerned with on-farm systems. Apart from a wish to limit the complexity of the systems, there is very little information available about the effect on processing costs, either capital or running, of changing patterns of milk production. It may be that estimation of on-farm costs for patterns of production different from the current ones could promote a useful exchange of information between production technologists on the one hand and processors and marketers on the other. Until such a dialogue is better developed, simulated variation of product price at the farm gate is the only means of estimating the on-farm effects of changed processing economics.

Maximum flexibility of system performance requires that aggregation of components be kept to a minimum in any system model. Separation of components should also ensure minimum bias in the form of preconceived sub-systems. In Northland dairy systems, this requirement translated into separating all forage sources, even when, like Sudax and subterranean clover, they are normally considered as inseparable components of a forage sub-system (Jurlina 1978). It meant also allowing a good deal of variation in per cow performance, rather than meeting a single set of feed requirements (e.g. Stephen et al. 1974) almost certainly more suited to one system of forage production than to any others.

A further dimension of system boundary and flexibility is time. Only steady state systems were considered, although it is clear that the speed of farm development can influence long-term profitability (Bell 1976a). The primary research

problem being considered here is the strategic one of identifying the directions in which a farming system might move. The more tactical problem of choosing the most economical means of changing a system is clearly subsidiary and is likely to vary with the circumstances of individual farms.

A one year production period was chosen. Because of the cyclic nature of lactation and the assumed desirability of having cows calve in a specified condition, there was no need to consider cumulative effects on cows. Surplus greenfeed is assumed to decay while surplus stored feed is most simply accounted for by assigning it a monetary value.

#### 5.4.2 LEVEL OF TECHNOLOGY 5

In previous evaluations of alternative forage cropping systems, the use of "future" yields (an estimate of potential yield at some unspecified time in the future) with present costs and sometimes present prices has probably overstated the benefits of new systems while straining the credulity of the reader. "Future" yields seem likely to coincide with steadily worsening terms of trade for farmers (New Zealand Dairy Board 1979) so that the assumption of present yields together with present costs and prices seems less likely to bias economic predictions.

<sup>4</sup> See Chapter 6.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Specific assumptions are detailed in Chapters 7 and 8.
Only the general approach is dealt with here.

Present yields in this study are taken to mean the yields attained by good farmers using current technology. These are not necessarily the maximum yields attainable by the same farmers but are yields which integrate variation in soil fertility and crop management. In deciding which estimates of yield to use in deriving means and variances, there was still a degree of subjective judgement involved. Since most of the farmers were still learning how best to grow the forages, low yields resulting from recognized mistakes were generally excluded.

In some cases where only experimental plot yields were available, farm yields were calculated by discounting for the effects of scale and sub-optimum management. Davidson and Martin (1965) have pointed out that because experimenters are generally interested in returns to specific resources like land, their intensity of use of other resources such as labour, capital and machinery is often quite different from that of a farmer who is concerned with returns to a total package of resources. They point out that depending on the intensity of the farming systems, these differences in resource use result in differences in yield between farm and experiment.

### 5.4.3 COMPONENTS OF A MODEL

To give context to the description of production system components in the next three chapters it is necessary to preview here the essential elements of model structure. Section 5.4.1 implied that the major potential sources of variation in Northland dairy feeding systems lay in both feed production and cow performance. Specifically, feed production will be assumed to vary in timing, yield, quality and cost of

forage available for grazing or conservation; milk production will be assumed to vary in timing of lactation start and end, and in yield during lactation, as well as in cow numbers.

#### 5.5 SUMMARY

The case study was introduced by describing the background to the chosen field research program and outlining the particular aspects of concurrence and communication which were seen to be advantageous to interaction between field and model research. After outlining previous evaluations of forage feeding systems it was argued that only a flexible model could, with economy, evaluate a large number of alternative combinations of forage. The conceptual limits of the production system were then described. A conservative basis for technology assumptions was then proposed and finally the fundamental elements of a production system model were listed to give context to subsequent descriptions of model components and relationships.

# CHAPTER SIX

#### DAIRY COW FEEDING

#### 6.1 INTRODUCTION

That feeding of dairy cows must still largely be described in terms of requirements instead of production responses is partly due to the fact that lactation begins as a consequence of reproduction, not of feeding. But there is intuitive appeal in the notion that to maintain lactation the cow requires a certain amount of feed, perhaps in the sense of replacing lost nutrients. In much of western Europe and North America, the need to house cows in winter with associated high per cow overheads and running costs must have lent economic reinforcement to the requirements philosophy, by necessitating high levels of production from each cow.

After a few weeks of lactation, feeding level determines milk production between the broad limits of genetic maximum and minimum. While the requirement concept can be useful in hand feeding different amounts of concentrates to cows of different production ability, level of milk production is implied to be the independent factor, not a very useful concept to explain the response of production to given levels of feeding.

Broster (1976) has summarized the state of knowledge regarding dairy cow responses to feed intake in a model (figure 6.1) that is still largely qualitative. That is, an operational, zero-base model of milk production such as proposed by Bywater and Dent (1976) seems a way off yet. But at moderate levels of milk production there is substantial enough agreement between feed intakes of grazing dairy cows

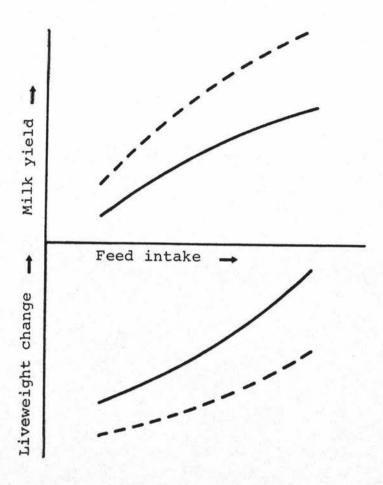


Figure 6.1 Response of milk production and liveweight gain to feed intake for high merit (---) and low merit (---) dairy cows (after Broster 1976).

and predicted requirements (Hutton 1971) to accept that within perhaps narrow limits the requirements concept will work. Taken together with some information about responses at the margin, this acceptance suggests the concept of some kind of "standard" cow whose feeding is determined according to requirements, and variations from which are described as responses. This concept is explained in detail in the next section.

The remainder of the chapter is concerned with establishing energy and protein as the two nutrients of primary importance, then with establishing the lactation cycle as an entity. Next are discussed energy requirements for various bodily functions while protein requirements are considered later as a function of total energy requirement. Then follows a discussion of appetite limits and a final section makes some comparisons between model parameters and experimental observations.

## 6.2 THE "STANDARD" COW AND HER DERIVATIVES

The relatively good agreement between the actual intake of grazing cows and intakes predicted from feeding standards over full and part lactations and dry periods (Hutton 1971) suggested that feeding standards could accurately specify requirements at least for a particular lactation pattern. The pattern assumed was for a Jersey-Friesian cross cow of average genetic merit grazed at fairly high grazing pressures on ryegrass-clover pastures (Scott and Smeaton 1975; M.A.F. 1976) and will be referred to as RUCOW¹ (see figure 6.2). Alone, this assumption does not permit specification of requirements

Referring to Ruakura Cow since the "standard" lactation curve and liveweight pattern was based on Ruakura data.

over periods shorter than those considered by Hutton (1971). To specify requirements over shorter periods a further assumption must be made regarding any changes in requirements with time. In the absence of a series of production functions at various points throughout lactation, the simplest assumption is that, for RUCOW milk production, average requirement is constant. It is further assumed that responses to variation from RUCOW feeding level will be constant throughout lactation. Inspection of monthly requirements estimated by other workers (M.A.F. 1976; Johnstone et al. 1977; Hutton and Bryant 1976) suggests that similar assumptions have been made.

Because calving of a herd is spread over several weeks, herd requirements differ from those of an individual cow, particularly at the beginning and end of lactation. Cow requirements were converted to herd requirements for modelling purposes by assuming a rectilinear calving distribution of 75 percent calving in the first three weeks and the remaining 25 percent in the following three weeks. For each nominal lactation length, 25 percent of cows were dried off 14 days before the remaining 75 percent. The lactation lengths assumed, 183, 211, 239 and 267 days are weighted herd averages.

# 6.3 THE PRIME IMPORTANCE OF ENERGY AND PROTEIN

Energy is accepted as being the prime mover in the diet (Broster 1976). Because of the generally high protein content of New Zealand dairy pastures there has been no need in previous studies to consider the protein content of cows fed almost wholly on pasture. The relative feed values of other forages have generally been expressed in terms of equivalent pasture (Hutton and Bryant 1976; M.A.F. 1976),

presumably on the assumption that forages of low protein content would be fed either in supplementary amounts with pasture or at a time of the lactation cycle when protein requirements are low.

In this study, all forages are seen as potential production feeds so that no such assumption is warranted.

Instead, explicit representation of protein requirement by cows and protein content of feeds must be made.

Energy and protein concentration are certainly a minimum specification of feed quality. It is known that dietary proportions of volatile fatty acids can influence the efficiency of energy utilization for production (Annison 1976) and can influence the partition of dietary energy between lactation and fattening (Moe and Tyrrell 1974), but there are insufficient data from which to derive predictive relationships.

Some of the forages to be considered would be deficient in minerals and vitamins (e.g. Wilkinson and Kilkenny 1977) if fed alone but since this is unlikely to occur and cannot be predicted in advance, adequacy is assumed. If the model were to suggest diets deficient in minerals or vitamins, appropriate costs could be deducted from model gross margin. The amounts and costs would be relatively small (Hutton and Rattray 1976).

Energy is discussed throughout as metabolizable energy (ME) since this fraction represents useful energy (A.R.C. 1976; Bryant 1971). There is conflicting evidence on whether digestibility and thus ME of a feed changes with level of feed intake in the dairy cow. When observed, the effect is much more serious with rations containing higher proportions of concentrate (N.R.C. 1971) whereas this study is concerned with diets composed almost wholly of forage. Recent summaries of dairy cow requirements have recommended that no correction to ME values be made for level of intake (N.R.C. 1971; Alderman et al. 1974).

#### 6.4 THE LACTATION CYCLE AS AN ENTITY

Milk production, body condition and food intake are interdependent aspects of dairy cow functioning. If body reserves are low at the beginning of lactation, peak milk yield will also be low (Broster 1976; Rogers et al. 1979). It follows that, relatively, a greater proportion of food goes towards replenishing reserves than towards milk production; the effect lasts throughout lactation. Thus, the potential efficiency of feed utilization for milk production is determined at the start of each lactation and a good feeding scheme will recognize calving condition as a cardinal point in the lactation cycle.

The response of milk production and liveweight change to current changes in feed supply can be described by figure 6.1. The actual quantities involved depend on peak milk yield, as discussed above, and on stage of lactation. The main point is that the liveweight response must at some stage be reconciled with a target liveweight by next calving, as proposed above.

The assumption made was to specify a range of cows with different production and liveweight patterns with a common target liveweight to be reached by the beginning of the next lactation. These patterns of production and liveweight are shown for 267 day lactations in figure 6.2. Shorter lactations are truncated versions of these. A linear recovery of liveweight to the target was assumed.

#### 6.5 MAINTENANCE ENERGY

Although methods of determining maintenance requirements of energy vary, they seek to estimate the energy which is required for metabolic and kinetic functions. Clearly, production also involves both kinds of function, and whether

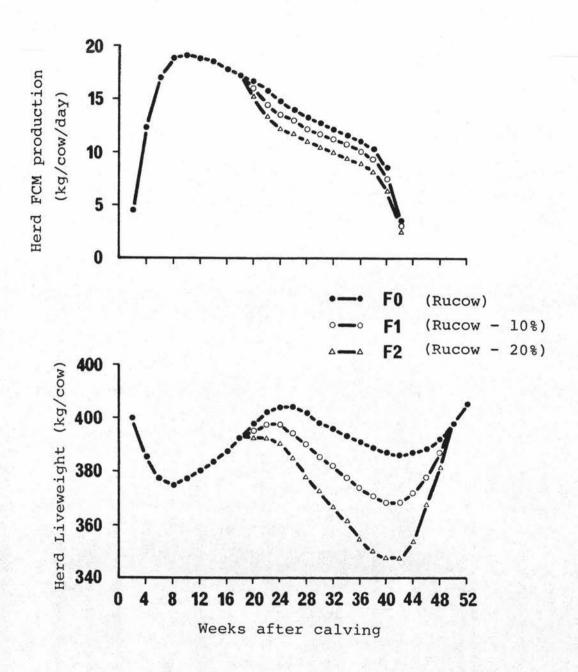


Figure 6.2 Milk production and LW patterns for three planes of nutrition.

extra energy involved in production metabolism is considered as a maintenance or production cost is irrelevant in the context of total energy requirement. Where it is relevant is in estimating the efficiency of conversion of metabolizable energy (ME) because the greater the proportion of total energy ascribed to maintenance then the more efficient production will appear to be.

There is general agreement that maintenance requirement varies with metabolic liveweight (LW<sup>0·75</sup>) (A.R.C. 1965; N.R.C. 1971; Hutton 1971). Estimates vary from 0.41 to 0.62 MJ ME per kg LW<sup>0·75</sup> per day but more recent work was consulted to decide on values of 0.42 and 0.50 MJ ME per kg LW<sup>0·75</sup> per day for non-lactating and lactating cows respectively (Moe and Tyrell 1974; van Es 1976).

These estimates are for stalled, thermoneutral cattle so to this was added an allowance for activity. Suggested additions have been 4.0 MJ ME per day (A.R.C. 1965; Hutton 1971) or an additional 10 percent (Joyce et al. 1975). The maintenance requirements were therefore increased to 0.46 MJ and 0.55 MJ per kg LW<sup>0.75</sup> respectively.

Energy requirements for increased basal metabolism due to pregnancy are usually aggregated with those for foetal growth and increasing cow condition (N.R.C. 1971; Hutton 1971). Because of the need to treat liveweight change separately in this study, the energy requirements for each of these three functions was separately calculated. Energy requirements for increased basal metabolism were calculated from the following regression, calculated from data of Flatt et al. (1969).

 $Mp = 0.00166t - 0.304 (r^2 = 0.76***)$ 

where Mp = additional maintenance energy required from day 184 to day 281 of pregnancy (MJ ME per kg LW<sup>0.75</sup>)

and t = day of pregnancy (days from conception).

### 6.6 ENERGY REQUIREMENTS FOR FOETAL GROWTH

The requirements for growth of foetus and accompanying tissues is relatively small, but since the growth of these tissues is exponential (N.R.C. 1971), the timing of the requirement may be important. Any energy deficiency in late pregnancy would presumably have to be met by mobilization of body reserves since it can be assumed that reproduction would have high priority at that stage.

Combining the data of Hutton and Bryant (1976) on weight of uterine contents with the energy content of reproductive tissue given by Hutton (1971) and assuming an efficiency of conversion of ME of 25 percent (van Es 1976) the requirements shown in table 6.1 were calculated.

Table 6.1 Energy requirements for foetal growth of a Jersey x Friesian cow

Fortnights before calving	Weight of reproductive tissues at mid- fortnight (kg)	Daily pregnancy energy (MJ ME)
10	9	)
9	11	)
8	14	) 6.5
7	17	)
6	21	)
5	25	6.6
4	30	7.5
3	36	9.0
2	42	10.8
1	48	14.4

#### 6.7 ENERGY REQUIREMENTS FOR LIVEWEIGHT CHANGE

Liveweight gain during lactation is relatively efficient in energy terms. Assuming the efficiency is 60 percent (van Es 1976) the metabolizable energy requirement for liveweight gain depends on the value assumed for energy content of tissue gain. Assuming a higher fat/protein ratio than implied by Hutton's (1971) estimate of tissue net energy content (14.6 MJ per kg), a value of 20 MJ per kg is assumed (van Es 1972; Alderman et al. 1974), making the requirement for gain 33.3 MJ ME per kg.

During the dry period, all liveweight gained by RUCOW is assumed to be foetal and reproductive tissue, for which separate allowances are made<sup>2</sup>. Cows which have been underfed during lactation however, must regain body condition during the dry period. Since it is clear that efficiency of tissue gain is lower in dry than in lactating cows (A.R.C. 1965; N.R.C. 1971) it was assumed that efficiency of conversion of ME for liveweight gain fell linearly from 50 percent 12 weeks before calving to 30 percent 2 weeks before calving. Thus ME requirement increases from 40 MJ to 67 MJ per kg liveweight gain.

This falling efficiency is assumed to be related to stage of pregnancy and so any liveweight regained earlier than 12 weeks before calving by cows having shorter lactations is assumed also to require 40 MJ ME per kg.

The energy sparing effect of falling liveweight has been ignored on two grounds. First, the effect in late lactation is very small. Second, in the first few weeks after calving, the large loss in liveweight is assumed to be the unavoidable minimum and that the liveweight profile assumed was that of cows being fed ad Libitum, rather than to calculated requirements.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See section 6.6.

#### 6.8 LACTATION ENERGY

An efficiency of conversion of ME for milk production  $(k_1)$  consistent with the maintenance requirements already discussed is around 60 percent (van Es 1976). Taking the energy content of milk (Tyrrell and Reid 1965) as

 $NE_1 = 0.3858 \text{ MF} + 0.2054 \text{ SNF} - 0.2356$ 

where  $NE_1$  = net energy in milk in MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>

MF = percent milkfat

SNF = percent solids not fat

the net energy content of FCM at 8.9 percent SNF, is 3.14 MJ  $m kg^{-1}$ . At a  $m k_1$  of 60 percent, ME requirement is therefore 5.23 MJ per kg FCM. To this basic requirement was added five percent to allow for additional inefficiencies in forage use. Among these are the effects of high protein content (Morgan 1972) as well as unexplained inefficiencies in silage utilization for milk production (Bryant and Donnelly 1974; Hutton and Rattray 1976; Bryant 1978). This brought the FCM ME requirement to 5.5 MJ  $m kg^{-1}$ , the average requirement assumed for the milk production of RUCOW, throughout lactation.

Following Alderman et al. (1974) the efficiency of ME for milk production was assumed to be unaffected by energy concentration of feed. The latter is not expected to vary widely since concentrate will not be a routine component of rations.

#### 6.9 NON-STANDARD LACTATIONS

Three feeding levels other than that specified for RUCOW were defined. These were 10 percent lower (L10), 20 percent lower (L20) and 12 percent higher (H12). The first two were defined as having total ME intakes uniformly 10 or 20 percent lower than RUCOW from week 18 of lactation to drying off.

Earlier underfeeding was not considered because of the importance of early lactation in setting efficiencies for the remainder of lactation (Broster 1976).

H12 was specified as a series of fortnightly options throughout lactation rather than as a single pattern. The maximum increase assumed for any period was related to stage of lactation and corresponds approximately with appetite limits.

These feeding patterns were chosen to cover the range of production levels found on seasonal supply dairy farms (see table 6.2).

Table 6.2 Lactation patterns and milkfat production per lactation (kg)

Lactation length	Plane of nutrition			
(days)	Standard	-10%	-20%	
267	161¹	155	148	
239	150	145	139	
211	137	133	129	
183	124	121	117	

<sup>1</sup> The so-called "standard" cow (RUCOW).

Assumed responses to these changes in feeding level were derived from Broster's (1976) summary of short-term responses: a change in ME intake of 17 MJ results in a change in milk yield of 1.4 kg FCM and a change in rate of LW change of 0.15 kg per day.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> This was done on the simplifying assumption that liveweight change would be unaffected, an assumption justified only by the infrequency of levels of feeding higher than RUCOW.

Responses assumed for L10 and H12 were changes of 0.083 kg FCM and 0.0088 kg LW change per day for each MJ change in ME intake, as above. For feeding level L20, the response between 10 and 20 percent change in feeding was assumed to be 0.091 kg FCM and 0.0076 kg LW change per MJ change in ME intake, a 10 percent higher milk response but a linear total response in net energy. No change in maintenance energy requirement is considered warranted for loss of what is probably mainly storage fat.

To enable comparison between RUCOW and estimates by other workers these responses need to be expressed in terms of requirements. In these terms feeding 10 percent above or below RUCOW standards requires 12 MJ ME per kg FCM of which 3.6 MJ is unavoidably partitioned to LW change (LW change may be either LW gain or reduction in the rate of LW loss - a contribution to maintenance) giving a net requirement for additional milk production of 8.4 MJ ME. Requirements in the 80-90 percent feeding increment are 11 MJ ME per kg FCM of which 2.8 MJ is partitioned to LW change, giving a net requirement for additional milk of 8.2 MJ ME.

An example of a production function for milk and liveweight is shown in figure 6.3, where the linearity of the joint response can be seen. Calculated over the whole year, the milk production function would be much less linear, due to the penalties associated with regaining depleted body condition during late pregnancy.

#### 6.10 PROTEIN REQUIREMENTS

It has been assumed that energy is the dominant factor in determining productivity. Minimum protein requirements are specified in recognition that some of the forage sources to be included in the model are deficient in protein and would require supplementing with high protein forages or with meatmeal.

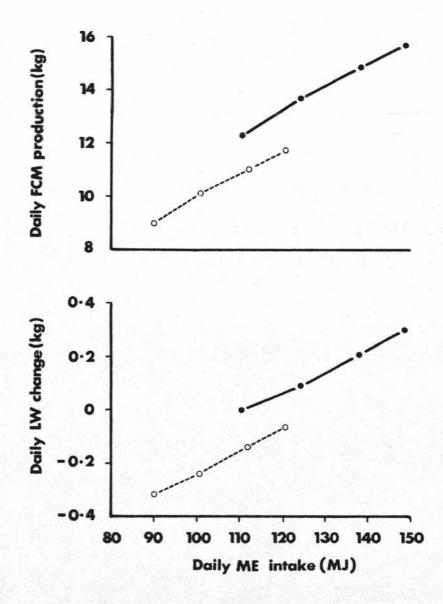


Figure 6.3 Milk production and liveweight change function 23 weeks (---) after calving

Any move toward extensive use of high protein supplements (including non-protein nitrogen) would require a more sophisticated approach such as that suggested by Satter and Roffler (1975).

The derivation of protein requirements generally follows the scheme of Preston (1972). Using a maintenance requirement of 1.6 g digestible crude protein (DCP) per kg LW<sup>0.75</sup>, suggested by Preston (1972) and accepted by Satter and Roffler (1975), and a lactation requirement of 56 g DCP per kg FCM (Broster 1972; Lewis and Annison 1974) produces a requirement curve where on the x axis, energy intake expressed as a multiple of maintenance can be exchanged for level of production and on the y axis, protein requirement per unit energy can be exchanged for absolute protein requirement (figure 6.4). Thus allowances can be made for liveweight gain and pregnancy as well as lactation.

One problem with forages differing widely in protein content is that their protein digestibilities will also differ. Figure 6.5 compares estimates of protein digestibility given by Glover et al. (1957) with values for some forages from the N.R.C. (1971) tables. The former authors have shown that the same relationship applies to mixed feeds so that the digestibility of a mixture of forages of different protein contents will not be the same as a weighted mean of their digestibilities. Preston's (1972) suggestion was to convert animal requirements to crude protein and this has been done by assuming a feed energy content of 10.5 MJ ME per kg.

Thus in weeks 29 and 30 of a standard lactation, total energy requirement is 2.42 times maintenance. From figure 6.4 is read off a protein requirement of 7.15 g DCP per MJ ME which, with 10.5 MJ ME per kg DM, equates to a DCP concentration in the dry matter of 7.5%. From figure 6.5, crude protein required is 12.3% and this converts to 11.71 g CP per MJ ME

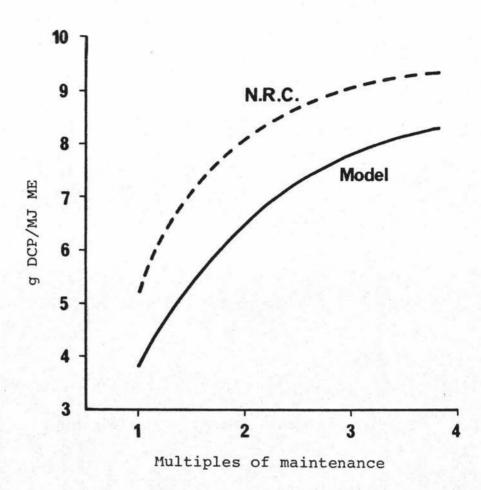


Figure 6.4 Digestible crude protein requirements related to level of production.

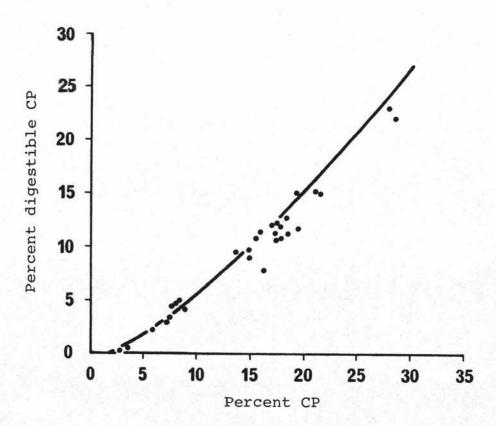


Figure 6.5 Apparent digestibility of crude protein.

Points are NRC (1971) values for maize, lucerne, red clover, wheat and birdsfoot trefoil. Line represents DP = CP (0.7 log CP - 15).

(Glover et al 1957).

and a daily requirement of 1393 g crude protein. In practice, a curve giving the requirement of CP per MJ ME for any multiple of maintenance was constructed and used.

On the assumption that protein is most likely to be limiting in summer and autumn the energy content of 10.5 MJ per kg DM was chosen as an average value for summer forage and silage.

At a forage energy content of 10.5 MJ ME per kg DM, dietary crude protein levels for the RUCOW vary between 8.3 percent at maintenance to 13.7 percent at lactation peak. These estimates may be compared with N.R.C. (1971) estimates of 8.5 percent for maintenance and 14 percent for milk production of less than 20 kg per day. Satter and Roffler (1975), after calculating the metabolizable protein content of various feeds, estimate crude protein requirements of high producing cows as 16.5 percent early in lactation, falling to 10 percent in late lactation.

The latter authors suggest that while non-protein nitrogen can be used extensively as a protein supplement to bring rations up to a crude protein content of about 12.5 percent, only true protein is useful to raise crude protein levels to the higher levels required in the first third of lactation.

#### 6.11 DRY MATTER INTAKE

Despite the existence of simple formulas like

DMI = 0.025 LW + 0.1 Y

where DMI is dry matter intake and Y is milk yield per day (Bines 1976), the control of dry matter intake in most likely a closed-loop system with feedback control mechanisms, and so,

much more complex than the formula just given (Monteiro 1972). If dietary characteristics also influence voluntary intake despite dry matter digestibility being greater than 65-67 percent (Conrad et al. 1964; Bryant and Donnelly 1974) then the prediction of intake limits on variable diets becomes extremely complex.

Experimental estimates of voluntary intake are specific to the cows concerned and normally take no account of cow body condition or of dietary characteristics (e.g. Hutton 1963).

Moreover, the data available are intake achieved rather than potential intake.

The simplified approach taken here is to assume that intake limit is a function of bodyweight alone and is not affected by food source. There is enough experimental evidence to indicate that for forages of greater than 65 percent digestibility, substitution of other forages for pasture does not necessarily result in a decrease in voluntary intake (e.g. Bryant and Donnelly 1974; Hutton and Douglas 1975).

It was assumed that the higher published peak intakes represented limits to forage intake. Accordingly, expressed as a percentage of bodyweight, dry matter intake limit is taken to increase from 2.5 during the dry period to 4.0 after peak lactation and then to fall until the end of lactation (Hutton 1963, 1971; Hutton and Bryant 1976; M.A.F. 1976). The pattern assumed is shown in figure 6.6.

#### 6.12 SUMMARY OF ME REQUIREMENTS

 $\frac{\text{Maintenance}}{\alpha} = \alpha W^{0.75}$   $\alpha = 0.42 \text{ MJ (non-lactating)}$   $\alpha = 0.50 \text{ MJ (lactating)}$ 

plus 10% for grazing activity to give

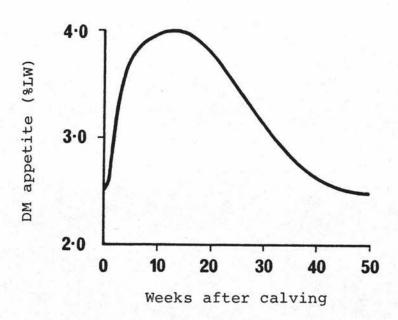


Figure 6.6 Assumed DM appetite limits

 $\alpha$  = 0.46 MJ (non-lactating)  $\alpha$  = 0.55 MJ (lactating)

plus (0.00166 t - 0.304) MJ from day 184-281
 of pregnancy (where t = days from conception).

### Lactation

- (a) "Standard" cow (100% relative feeding)
  5.5 MJ per kg FCM at all stages of lactation.
  This is a net requirement. Liveweight change has separate requirements.
- 90-112% relative feeding 12.0 MJ per kg FCM change of which 3.6 MJ

(b) Marginal requirements

is actually partitioned to LW change (8.4 MJ net).

80-90% relative feeding
11.0 MJ per kg FCM change of which
2.8 MJ is actually for LW change
(8.2 MJ net).

# Liveweight gain

- (a) During lactation 33.3 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>
- (b) Dry period
  40 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> up to 12 weeks before calving
  thereafter (72.4 2.7 w) MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> where
  w = weeks before calving.

#### Growth of foetus etc.

Increasing from 6.5 MJ ME per day 20 weeks before calving to 14.4 MJ ME per day in the week before calving (a total of 1130 MJ).

#### 6.13 SUMMARY OF DCP REQUIREMENTS

#### Maintenance

1.6 g per kg (W0.75)

# Lactation or equivalent energy demand

56 g per kg FCM

# 6.14 COMPARISON OF MODEL COW WITH OBSERVED COWS

Brought together in table 6.3 are comparisons of aggregated requirements between model assumptions and independent data derived from experiments. Where possible, ranges have been compared with ranges but in some instances, only "standard" cows are compared. Where necessary, figures are expressed per unit of liveweight or production to allow comparison between cows of different breeds or liveweights.

Generally, model assumptions fall within the limits of experimental observations although there is scope for compensating errors to exist in model aggregates. In particular, the assumptions of constant requirements for lactation and LW gain of RUCOW and constant rates of response throughout lactation are hard to justify except on the grounds of lack of data.

<sup>\*</sup> M.A.F. (1976) data not experimental and probably not completely independent.

Table 6.3 Comparison of model requirements and responses with independent calculations and experimental observations 1

Model	Observed	Reference
9.07	9.19 8.71	(1) (2)
%) 34.6	34.5 36.1	(1) (2)
0.66	0.80 0.74 0.63	(1) (3) (2)
28.5-23.8	25.0 31.4-25.5 20.0 22.5 23.6-20.0 18.5	(1) (4) (3) (2) (5) (6)
5.8-4.5	5.0	(3)
12.0-8.2	12.6-8.6 7.9-4.7 24.6-10.2 28.0-15.9	(4) (7) (8) (9)
38-44	49-123 <sup>2</sup> 38-41	(7) (9)
	9.07 %) 34.6 0.66 28.5-23.8 5.8-4.5 12.0-8.2	9.07 9.19 8.71 8) 34.6 34.5 36.1 0.66 0.80 0.74 0.63 28.5-23.8 25.0 31.4-25.5 20.0 22.5 23.6-20.0 18.5 5.8-4.5 5.0 12.0-8.2 12.6-8.6 7.9-4.7 24.6-10.2 28.0-15.9

Where not given, pasture ME assumed as 11.0 MJ per kg except in summer when 10.5 MJ assumed; LW gain and FCM assumed to contain 20 MJ and 3.14 MJ NE per kg respectively.

# References: (1) Hutton (1971) (2) M.A.F. (1976) (3) Hutton and Bryant (1976) (4) Hutton (1974) (5) Campbell et al. (1977) (6) Campbell et al. (1978) (7) Bryant and Donnelly (1974) (8) Hutton and Douglas (1975) (9) Bryant (1978)

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> High variance in LW estimates.

# CHAPTER SEVEN

#### THE PASTURE COMPONENT

#### 7.1 INTRODUCTION

In the context of this study, pasture refers to permanent pasture, as normally grazed by dairy cows in New Zealand. This is a mixture of perennial grasses and clover, varying in detailed composition from site to site and from time to time. Other forages, whether permanent or not, grazed or not, are discussed as crops in the next chapter. This chapter deals with the assumptions made regarding conventional pasture in the linear programming model, including the use of a simulation model to generate several years pasture growth data.

The diversity of soil types (Gradwell 1971) and associated pasture in Northland meant that some "representative" pasture type had to be assumed. Although paspalum (Paspalum dilatatum) and kikuyu (Pennisetum clandestinum) can be dominant in Northland pastures, most dairy pastures are dominated by perennial ryegrass (Lolium perenne) and white clover (Thisolium repens). Paspalum is generally decreasing in abundance, probably as a result of increasing stocking rates and black beetle (Heteronychus arator) damage (Percival 1977). Kikuyu is being actively eradicated from dairy farms because of its slow winter and spring growth (Lambert 1967) and its low digestibility in comparison with ryegrass.

A "representative" pasture is assumed also to be growing under conditions of moderate soil moisture or soil fertility.

#### 7.2 PASTURE GROWTH

When the study began, there was no detailed information about ryegrass-clover pasture production in Northland. Kikuyu-dominant swards had been studied at Kaitaia, Dargaville and Whangarei (M.B. O'Connor, personal communication) while published data concerned paspalum-dominant pastures at Dargaville on heavy clay soil (Baars 1976a) or was aggregated into seasonal totals (Lambert 1967).

Initially, the only feasible approach was to consider synthesising pasture growth by modelling. A simulation model of ryegrass-clover pasture growth developed by Wright and Baars (1975) as part of a beef production model (Wright et al. 1976) was the only such model readily accessible at the time so much effort was made to adapt it to Northland conditions.

#### 7.2.1 ADAPTATION OF SIMULATION MODEL

The simulation model uses a set of quadratic functions to define potential growth rate at the mid-point of each month. These curves describe potential growth rate as a function of current dry-matter yield and can be taken to imply the relationships between radiation receipt, leaf area and potential growth rate. Linear interpolation between month mid-points provides functions to calculate potential growth rate each day. Potential growth rate is then modified by a correction factor to account for the difference between daily and long-term average temperature. Growth may be further reduced if soil moisture availability limits potential evapotranspiration.

Differences in radiation receipt between Northland and the region for which the potential growth functions were

originally developed prompted the first adjustments, shown in table 7.1. Mid-points of Northland months were assigned the listed original function or mean of two original functions. These changes had only minor effects on potential growth rate, as shown in figure 7.1.

Table 7.1 Adjustments for radiation differences

Month	Wright and Baars (1975 relationship used	
July	July-August	
August	August	
September	September	
October	September-October	
November	November	
December	December	
January	January-February	
February	February-March	
March	March	
April	March-April	
May	April-May	
June	May	

The second adjustment was for temperature. The original model modifies daily potential growth rate according to the difference between actual and average temperature. Since average temperatures in Northland are higher than in the environment for which the original model was developed, the temperature functions of the original model were used to make permanent increases in the potential growth rates between May and October. These changes resulted in increases in potential growth rate of between 6 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in June and 23 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> in October (see figure 7.1). In summer and early autumn, potential growth rate in the original model was negatively

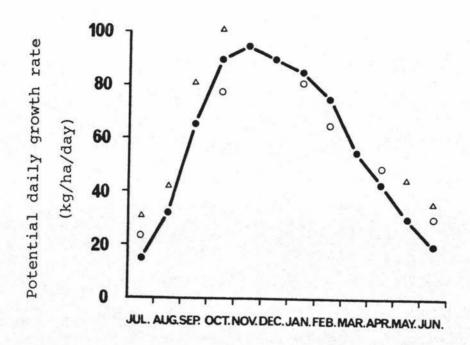


Figure 7.1 Potential growth rates of original model
(solid circles); original rates adjusted
for radiation (open circles); and adjusted
rates modified for temperature (open triangles)

correlated with daily maximum temperature but this relationship was omitted from the Northland model. Reference to the data of Brougham (1959) and Brougham and Glenday (1969) indicated that while ryegrass responded in this way, white clover growth rate was increased by increasing temperature.

In the operational phase of the model, temperature effects operate on potential growth rate in an analagous way. Between mid-April and mid-November each degree difference between daily and average mean temperature causes a ten percent change in growth rate. During the rest of the year, daily temperature has no effect.

The other major change to the original model concerned the effects of nitrogen deficiency, thought to be greater in Northland than elsewhere (Piggot et al. 1978) due possibly to the effects of recurrent summer drought on clover persistence. Nitrogen was assumed to be a rate-limiting factor and nitrogen deficiency was assumed to be important at growth rates above 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. An arbitrary function was defined which would discount by 20 percent growth rates of 100 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> and provide linear interpolation down to 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>.

Using weather data for 1975-77, the results shown in figure 7.2 were obtained. These were discussed with a number of people familiar with Northland pastures and there was general agreement that the pattern was reasonably typical of Northland pasture growth. There were no prospects of better validation so the model was run for 16 years of historical weather data from Kaitaia Aerodrome. The resulting average growth rate in each fortnight is shown in figure 7.3. With no prospect of detailed validation against field data there was no justification for simulating a longer sequence of years.

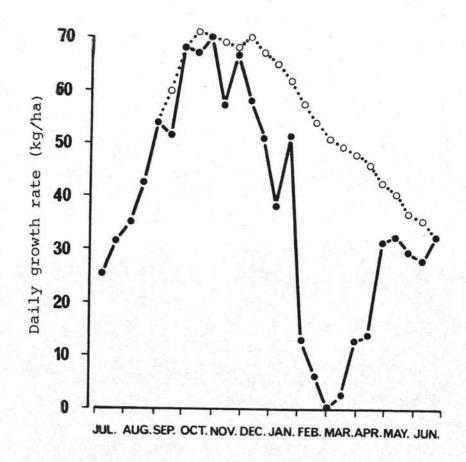


Figure 7.2 Simulated dryland (---) and irrigated (...) pasture growth rates 1975-77.

## 7.2.2 OTHER ESTIMATES OF PASTURE GROWTH

By late 1978 more information about Northland pasture growth rates was available. Ten years measurement of the growth of a ryegrass-clover pasture at South Kaipara was reported by Piggot et al. (1978). Pasture growth at four sites around Kaitaia was measured by Taylor et al. (1979c), and T.S. Clarkson (personal communication) was measuring pasture growth at two sites near Whangarei. Also, L.J. Davies (personal communication) kindly provided data from an experiment comparing ryegrass with some tropical grasses at Kaitaia. All these estimates had much lower late autumn. winter, and early spring growth rates than the simulation model (see table 7.2 and figure 7.3). South Kaipara spring growth rates rose more slowly in spring than the Kaitaia simulation or Hamilton measurements (Baars 1976b), due possibly to greater nitrogen deficiency in Northland (Piggot et al. 1978); excessive soil moisture seems an unlikely cause on such a well-drained soil, although it probably limits spring pasture growth on many Northland soils (A.O. Taylor, personal communication).

#### 7.2.3 FINAL GROWTH PATTERN ASSUMED

Data of Taylor et al. (1979c), Clarkson (personal communication) and L.J. Davies (personal communication) relate to a limited number of years so they were finally used to decide, for each period, whether to accept simulation or South Kaipara growth rates. South Kaipara means were accepted for periods 1-12 (July 1 - December 15) and periods 23-26 (May 5 - June 30) and simulation means for periods 13-22 (December 16 - May 4). However, growth rates for periods 22, 23 and 24 were discounted by 0.5, 0.25 and 0.125 respectively to account for the residual effects of drought on pasture productive capacity. This gave an average growth rate over

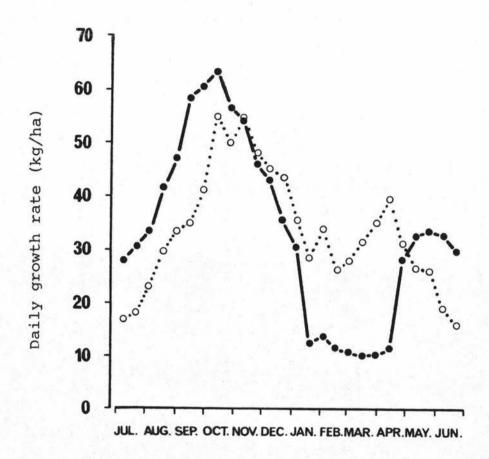


Figure 7.3 Average pasture growth rates at Kaitaia (—, simulated) and at South Kaipara (..., Piggot et al. 1978)

Table 7.2 Pasture growth estimates

Period no.		rting ate	Simulated Kaitaia 1962-78	S.Kaipara 1964-74	Kaitaia 1977-78	Whangarei 1978-79	Kaitaia 1976-78	ASSU Mean	MED S.D.
1	Jul	1	28	17	18	11	18	17.0	1.8
2		15	30	18		11	19	18.3	1.7
3		29	34	23			27	23.1	2.4
4	Aug	12	41	30	17	26	27	29.5	2.4
5		26	47	34		×	27	33.5	3.2
6	Sep	9	58	35		34 .	31	34.8	2.3
7		23	60	41	43	<i>)</i> 4 ·	44	41.1	3.7
8	Oct	7	64	55		27	44	45.0	5.8
9		21	56	50	49	21	40	49.8	12.0
10	Nov	4	54	55	47		49	.54.7	19.1
11		18	46	48	48	21	56	47.8	19.9
12	Dec	2	43	45	40		56	45.4	18.7
13		16	36	43	24		28	35.6	21.8
14		30	31	35	24	12	28	30.5	20.8
15	Jan	13	12	28	12		28	12.5	10.5
16		27	14	34	13	25	23	13.8	14.6
17	Feb	10	12	26		25	23	11.5	14.5
18		24	11	28			. 24	10.8	14.0
19	Mar	10	10	32	7		27	10.1	9.3
20		24	10	35		N/A	13	10.5	10.1
21	Apr	7	11	40	13		13	11.4	6.2
22		21	28	31		20	19	14.0	4.9
23	May	5	33	26	10	28	19	19.9	5.0
24		19	34	26	18		19	22.6	5.5
25	Jun	2	33	19		10	19	19.1	4.6
26		16	30	16		10	19	15.9	2.1
Annual	yiel	d	12785	12760	9780	]	.0627	9500	

the three periods of 18.8 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>, a figure almost identical with the results of Davies and of Taylor (see table 7.2). The final assumed growth rate is shown in the last column of table 7.2.

A feature of the simulations was the markedly skew distribution of growth rates over summer. Between January and April, modal growth rate was less than 10 kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> yet the highest growth rates usually exceeded 40 kg<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup>. There is some doubt whether these high rates are realistic. Much of the rainfall at this time of the year is in the form of high intensity storms and would, in practice, largely be lost as runoff before the profile was recharged.

# 7.3 PASTURE MANAGEMENT AND UTILIZATION

The treatment of pasture management in the model is relatively simple. Unlike the studies of McRae (1976) and Pollard (1972) the details of pasture management are not at issue here. While there may be small gains to be made from better pasture management than occurs in this model or on Northland farms, the reliability of pasture growth data does not justify any attempt at specifying detailed management options.

The basic assumption is that pasture grown in any period can be grazed in that period with 90 percent efficiency. Any assumptions about the level of utilization of standing pasture are implicit in the pasture growth data sources. It is not possible to specify the pasture presentation yields (before or after grazing) which led to the growth pattern assumed. In the case of the growth data taken from Piggot et al. (1978), no presentation yields are available. In the case of the simulation model, the growth rates were averaged over 16 years and over three replicates whose grazing

cycles were 10 days out of phase. No averages for presentation yields were computed but yield before grazing ranged from about 2500 kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup> in autumn and spring to about 1000 kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup> in January-February. Stubble after grazing ranged between 800 and 1000 kg DM ha<sup>-1</sup>.

Pasture grown but not grazed may be saved into the next fortnightly period. For most of the year this is assumed to involve no losses or that whatever losses occur are compensated by an increase in growth rate resulting from average standing pasture yields being closer to those giving optimal potential growth. During summer, slow growth and high temperature desiccation are assumed to result in dry matter losses of 10 percent in periods 15 and 19; of 20 percent in periods 16 and 18; and of 30 percent in period 17. Pasture management is assumed continuous by allowing carryover from the last period to the first.

Pasture energy content is taken directly from estimates made by Wright (personal communication) and his Ruakura colleagues for use with the simulation model described by them. Crude protein content is an amalgamation of the measurements made by Taylor et al. (1976a, 1977b, 1979c).

## 7.4 NITROGEN FERTILIZER ON PASTURE

Nitrogen fertilizer has potential for changing the pattern of pasture growth as well as its total quantity. Responses to nitrogen depend on the interaction of environment and pasture management (Ball 1970) so that the limited field data available are likely to be time and site specific. What is required is a more general scheme for predicting responses.

During (1967) suggested average dry matter responses of 13 kg per kg nitrogen in the cooler parts of the North Island and 20 kg in northern areas. While data can be selected which may or may not support these suggestions, there are enough observations of responses in excess of 20 kg per kg nitrogen (see, for example Ball et al. 1976, Ball 1970, Sherlock and O'Connor 1973) to allow the assumption that given appropriate conditions, these responses can be obtained. As far as timing is concerned, Sherlock and O'Connor (1973) could show no difference in efficiency of response to nitrogen applied at any time between April and early September, only in the time over which the response is spread.

Because of these uncertainties and the unknown effects of continuous nitrogen application, total annual nitrogen was limited to 150 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in three applications. Responses of 20 kg dry matter per kg nitrogen are assumed, recoverable over 8 weeks in late autumn (periods 22-25) and late winter (periods 4-7) and over 6 weeks in spring (periods 7-9). Any application of nitrogen is at 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> and although only 3 application times (periods 4, 7 and 22) are specified, by defining the responses as occurring over several periods, it is possible to imply times of application and availability of responses as shown in table 7.3. If extra herbage grown contains 2.5 percent nitrogen, recovery in the tops of 50 percent of applied nitrogen is assumed. Twenty-five percent of the extra herbage is assumed to be below defoliation height. The remainder is aggregated with pasture growth in the ordinary way.

Table 7.3 Implied timing of nitrogen application and response

Specified application period <sup>1</sup>	Specified response periods	Implied application period
4	4	1
	5	2
	6	3
	7	4
7	7	5
	8	6
	9	7
22	22	19
	23	20
	24	21
	25	22

<sup>1</sup> See table 7.2 for actual dates.

### 7.5 PASTURE SILAGE

Many of the assumptions made about pasture silage are quite arbitrary since there was no information from field monitoring of any silage making in Northland, let alone wilted, fine-chop silage making as assumed here.

Pasture is shut up for 6 weeks before cutting for silage. During that time and for the next 2 weeks no growth is available for grazing. For the next 2 weeks (weeks 9 and 10 from shutting up) only half the normal growth is assumed to take place. Shutting up may commence in periods 7, 8 or 9 (September 23, October 7 or October 21). Yield of silage is not directly related to pasture growth since different defoliation levels are assumed. The two early cuts are

assumed to yield 3.5 t DM ha<sup>-1</sup> fed out, the late cut 3.0 t ha<sup>-1</sup>. With assumed dry matter losses of 12 percent in storage and 5 percent in feeding out, paddock yields of 4.2 t and 3.6 t ha<sup>-1</sup> are implied.

In practice, greater yields may be achieved by delaying harvest, but only at the expense of silage quality. Since one of the objectives of wilted fine-chop silage is to produce a high quality feed suitable for production rations, high quality silage was the only kind specified. Thus all pasture silage was assumed to have a M.E. concentration of 9.5 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> and a crude protein content of 14 percent.

Silage costs were divided into production costs, (those incurred on a per unit area basis), and storage and feeding costs, (those incurred on a per unit weight basis).

#### 7.6 PASTURE HAY

The mechanics of conserving pasture as hay were the same as for silage except that pastures were shut up in periods 8 and 10 and were not available for grazing again until 12 weeks had passed. As with silage, yields are arbitrary. Higher growth rates while pasture is locked up, different defoliation levels, and haymaking losses account for differences between pasture withheld from grazing and yield of hay. While regrowth is delayed in the same way as after silage is harvested, the later timing of haymaking means that there can be no build up of pasture to carry into January and February.

Metabolizable energy content is assumed to be 8.4 MJ per kg DM and crude protein content 12 percent. This implies good quality hay (M.A.F. 1976), a notion again incompatible with delaying harvest to promote higher yields.

Costs are divided in the same manner as for silage but are based on the farmer doing most of his haymaking rather than contracting as with silage. Thus hay was slightly cheaper per unit dry matter or per unit energy, though if costed in the same way as pasture silage would cost more.

# 7.7 SUMMARY

This chapter has outlined the assumptions made about pasture growth and utilization. It began by showing how a simulation model developed for another region was adapted for Northland. Next, the process of combining simulation model output with other estimates of pasture growth to derive a synthetic growth pattern was discussed. Then the assumed simple scheme of pasture grazing management was described. Next, it was argued that the influence of nitrogen fertilizer on pasture growth and utilization was so uncertain that substantial restrictions were necessary on its timing and quantity. Finally, assumptions regarding the conservation of pasture as silage or hay were given.

# CHAPTER EIGHT

#### THE CROP COMPONENT

## 8.1 INTRODUCTION

For purposes of discussion crops are here defined as forage sources other than the conventional pasture dealt with in the previous chapter. Specifically included are perennial swards (of species other than perennial ryegrass and white clover) whose main use will be as grazing.

The range of crops considered is limited to those either in commercial use or which have been tested experimentally in Northland or in a similar environment. The subjective nature of the prior decisions leading to this situation are recognized though there is at present, no remedy. In the present circumstances, a crop may be considered as a potential forage source on two criteria. Firstly, it may be envisaged filling a conceptual role in a particular kind of system, e.g. winter legumes as a means of reducing fertilizer nitrogen inputs (Taylor and Hughes 1976).

Secondly, it may simply have high potential yields but no obvious role in an animal production system, e.g. winter cereals which give yields up to 20 t ha harvested in November-December (Kerr and Menalda 1976).

#### 8.2 CROP MANAGEMENT

The yield advantages of crops over pasture can only be realized where crops are well managed. In particular, time of sowing and harvest have been shown to greatly influence yield of annuals (Menalda and Kerr 1973; Kerr and Menalda 1976; Taylor et al. 1976b). If double cropping systems, as

envisaged in this study, are to succeed there is little latitude for altering sowing dates, though harvesting time is flexible up to a limit. Only one optimal sowing time is assumed for each crop.

This assumption is made on the basis that different patterns of forage availability can be got from different crops or different harvesting times, rather than from sequential planting times as used by Stephen and McDonald (1978). A theoretical example is provided by Taylor and Hughes (1978) where, in the final year of a maize and cereal sequence, an early maturing wheat is substituted for oats so as to allow establishment of red clover in early October.

Other aspects of management, though unspecified, are implicit in the yields and costs given. That is, assumed yields are below experimental means but assume a certain adequate standard of management together with the costs thereby incurred. <sup>1</sup>

Efficient harvesting, storage and feeding of silage (and hay) is assumed. Harvesting losses are assumed to be already accounted for in the yield data. Assumed losses in storage (12 percent) and feeding (5 percent) result in a total loss of 16.4 percent of dry matter yield for all conserved forages.

Changes in nutritive value during the conservation process may result in losses of nutrients additional to those lost physically in the dry matter. For instance, the

Assumptions about level of technology are discussed more fully in section 5.4.2.

reduction of ME content from about 11.0 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> in fresh pasture to 8.4 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> in pasture hay, when added to the 16.4 percent loss in dry matter results in a total ME loss of 36 percent.

### 8.3 CROP NUTRITIVE VALUE

In many cases, there was no direct information about crop quality in Northland or in New Zealand. Recourse was often made to overseas data (e.g. N.A.S. 1971; A.R.C. 1976) which for conserved forages was reasonable enough. However, feeding trials and proximate analyses which provide such data presumably refer to whole plants and will usually underestimate the nutritive value of a crop which is selectively grazed. Some allowance was usually made for the effects of selective grazing on the assumption that cows will select for higher digestibility.

# 8.4 MAIZE (Zea mays)

Maize has been a key component of most alternative forage feeding systems considered for New Zealand. It is widely used as a forage crop in western Europe and the U.S.A. (Taylor 1975). Its putative advantages have been summarized by Kerr (1975) as:

- (a) potential yield twice that of pasture;
- (b) less affected by drought than pasture;
- (c) conserved as silage, it reduces the correlation between season and farm output.

Although there is limited information on maize yields in Northland, substantial data are available for other areas. Mean yield at maturity was therefore calculated by taking the mean Waikato grain yield for the years 1970-71 to 1974-75<sup>2</sup> and converting to silage dry matter yield by multiplying by 1.7 (Kerr 1975). Yields of earlier years were not considered because of the novelty of the crop at that time. The generally declining yields of years after 1974-75 were not included in the calculation. It is suspected that they were due to low temperature in November and December (McCormick, personal communication). The relationship can be described by the equation

$$y = 0.0154x + 1.88 (r^2 = 0.7.9***)$$

where y = grain yield at 15% moisture (t ha<sup>-1</sup>) x = accumulated degree days above 10°C in November and December.

Generally higher temperatures in Northland, it is assumed here, would result in more stable yields. The final silage yield (harvested) assumed was  $14.3 \, \mathrm{t} \, \mathrm{ha}^{-1}$ .

The possibility of earlier grazing of maize required estimates of yield prior to maturity. The growth curve synthesized from data of Menalda and Kerr (1973), Thom (1977) and Ridler (personal communication) is shown in figure 8.1. Utilization by grazing was assumed to fall linearly from 90 percent at a dry matter yield of 3.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (early January) to 65 percent at a dry matter yield of 14.3 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (mid-March) although limited field experience suggests no such simple relationship (B. Ridler, personal communication; K. Jagusch, unpublished data).

Assumed metabolizable energy and crude protein contents of maize consumed by cows are shown in figure 8.1. The

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Data supplied by S.J. McCormick

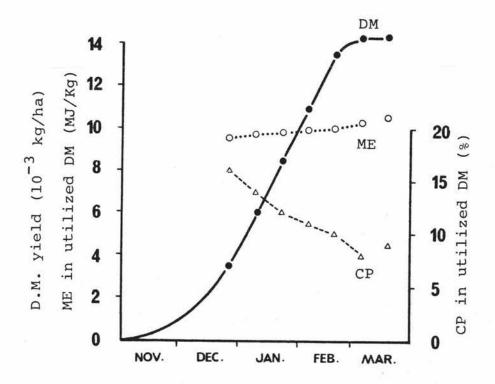


Figure 8.1 Maize: assumed growth pattern and nutritive value of greenfeed (joined points) and silage.

former was inferred from data of N.A.S. (1971), the latter from data of Hanway (1962) who showed that, prior to silking, nitrogen accumulates faster in maize than dry matter. Silage nutritive value is taken from Wilkinson and Kilkenny (1977) who suggest that crude protein content can be increased cheaply, if necessary, by adding urea.

Maize silage is assumed to be made from mature maize with a grain content around 50 percent of the dry matter and with a mean dry matter content of 30-35 percent.

# 8.5 HYBRID GRAZING SORGHUM (Sorghum bicolor x S. sudanense)

Two factors favour the use of a sorghum such as cv. Sudax SX6 in Northland. First is its relative drought resistance (Gerlach and Cottier 1974; Taylor et al. 1974) compared with ryegrass-clover pasture. Second is its characteristic of regrowing after defoliation (Chu and Tillman 1976) thus extending its useful grazing season over a longer period than a non-regrowing crop such as maize.

Cut twice or three times, Sudax in Northland yields around 10000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> DM (Jurlina 1978) compared with 9400-9700 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> in the Waikato (Gerlach and Cottier 1974).

Although much higher yields can be obtained from a single later harvest, a total DM yield of 10000 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> was assumed in this study. Strip grazing can be used to obtain a smooth pattern of dry matter availability over summer (Jurlina 1978) though some quality variation is assumed as the crop becomes more mature. Table 8.1 suggests three grazing patterns which have been aggregated to give the feed availability pattern in table 8.2. Although there may be circumstances in which a different pattern of feed availability might be desirable, the influence of maturity on digestibility, dry matter utilization and regrowth potential (A.O. Taylor, personal communication) and on hydrogen cyanide toxicity (Hunt and

Taylor 1976) effectively limits grazing management options with Sudax.

The quality assumptions of table 8.2 are drawn from N.A.S. (1971) data on Sudan grass together with some crude protein measurements made in Northland (Hunt et al. 1979; Taylor, unpublished data).

Table 8.1 Sudax: three assumed grazing patterns

Period no.	Grazing no.	Yi	eld on o kg ha	ffer	Utilization %
15	1	3500			90
16	1		4500		80
17	1			5000	65
18	2	4000			85
19	2		4500		85
20	2			3000	85
21	3	2000			80
22	3		2000	1000	80
Total		9500	11000	9000	

Table 8.2 Sudax: assumed pattern of availability of DM, ME and CP when grazed as in table 8.1.

Period no.	Utilizable DM	ME content	CP content
110.	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$(MJ kg^{-1})$	(%)
15	1070	10.7	14
16	1220	9.5	12
17	1100	9.4	10
18	1150	10.5	13
19	1290	10.5	13
20	860	10.5	13
21	540	10.3	12
22	410	10.3	12
Total	7640	10.2	12

#### 8.6 WINTER CEREALS

Winter cereals, particularly oats, have been seen as useful forage sources which can be grown between successive maize crops and can be grazed or ensiled (Eagles and Taylor 1976; Kerr and Menalda 1976). Only in the last few years have specialist forage varieties been sought and evaluated (Taylor et al. 1976b; Eagles et al. 1979).

The growth curve assumed for oats was that of Florida 501 grown at Kaitaia (Taylor et al. 1976b). The pattern of growth is similar to that given by Kerr and Menalda (1976) and Eagles et al. (1979) except that rapid growth commences earlier in Northland than in areas further south. These experimental means were discounted by 28.5 percent to give the paddock scale yields shown in figure 8.2. The discount factor was calculated from the ratio of average farm maize yields to average experimental maize yields in the Waikato. This ratio was used on the assumption that yields of crops grown on the same scale and for the same purpose would differ between farm and experiment by the same proportion (Davidson and Martin 1965). The ratio used was 14.3/20 = 0.715 where the numerator is the average maize silage yield assumed in section 8.4 and the denominator is an average recent experimental yield (Thom 1977).

Oats regrowth is significant only if harvested before stem elongation begins, when primary yield is so low that the pattern of feed availability is scarcely changed (Taylor et al. 1976b). Therefore all oats is assumed to be harvested only once. Utilization by grazing cows is assumed to fall

<sup>3</sup> See section 8.4.

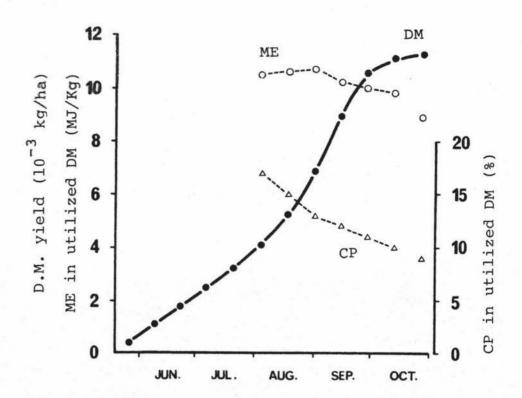


Figure 8.2 Winter cereal: assumed growth pattern and nutritive value of greenfeed (joined points) and silage.

from 85 percent in early August to 60 percent in mid-October.

Crude protein levels were taken from data of Taylor et al. (1976b) while ME contents were inferred from N.A.S. (1971) supplemented by data of Eagles et al. (1979). The nutritive values shown in figure 8.2 for grazed oats are higher than those suggested by some unpublished analyses. However, the latter often refer to whole plant analyses (e.g. Eagles et al. 1979) whereas a fair degree of selective grazing (presumably resulting in higher quality intake) is implied by the utilization quotients given above.

Earlier maturing cereals for silage may be required as part of certain rotations. Karamu wheat was used as a representative, although more specialized early-maturing forage cereals may become available in time. Using yield data from Taylor et al. (1976b) and discounting by 28.5 percent as for oats, a silage yield of 7.94 t ha<sup>-1</sup> was assumed. ME and CP contents were assumed to be identical to those of oats.

### 8.7 WINTER CEREAL-RYEGRASS MIXTURE

For grazing purposes, a mixture of rapidly-growing cereal and an annual ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum*) which establishes more slowly but remains vegetative longer might combine the best features of both (Taylor et al. 1979c).

No growth data for such a mixture were available so a growth pattern was synthesized from data of Taylor et al. (1976b). For periods 01 through 04 mixture growth rate was assumed to be the mean of oats and Tama growth rates. It was

<sup>4</sup> An example is given in section 8.2.

assumed that a first grazing would be complete by then to allow good ryegrass growth/regrowth. In periods 05 through 08 mixture growth was assumed to be represented by Tama growth. A three-period moving average of these growth rates was used as the final smoothed growth pattern and 75 percent of the growth was assumed available for grazing 5 (see table 8.3). Two defoliations by strip grazing are implied. ME content of grazed DM was assumed to be 10.5 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> throughout with a CP content falling from 17 percent in periods 01 through 03, to 15 percent in periods 04 and 05, to 14 percent in periods 06 through 09.

Table 8.3 Cereal/Tama: assumed pattern of growth and DM availability for grazing (kg ha<sup>-1</sup>)

Period	Oats growth	Tama growth/ regrowth	Mean	Moving average (MA)	Utilizable DM (0.75 MA)
01	950	600	780	780	580
02	1100	600	850	850	640
03	1250	600	920	920	690
04	1500	600	1050	820	620
05	all	600	600	670	500
06	first	600	600	580	440
07	grazings	530	530	560	420
80	complete	460	460	480	360
09		460	460	460	345

The reasoning is similar to that for pasture growth in Chapter 7.

# 8.8 TURNIPS (Brassica rapa)

Although not considered to have a permanent place in dairying systems where pasture silage can be made (Jurlina 1978), turnips were included because of their high quality (A.R.C. 1976) and because they are relatively simple and cheap to grow (R.A. Brown, personal communication).

On the basis of a few yield estimates made on Northland turnip crops (Taylor et al. 1976a, 1977b, 1979c), a utilizable DM estimate of 4.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup> was assumed to be available by period 13 (late December). This was assumed available for grazing between periods 13 and 19 with no change in yield. ME content of grazed DM was assumed to rise linearly from 11.8 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> in period 13 to 13.0 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> in period 19 as the top/root ratio decreased (N.A.S. 1971; A.R.C. 1976). Crude protein content was assumed constant at 10 percent (Taylor et al. 1976a, 1977b, 1979c).

# 8.9 RED CLOVER (Trifolium pratense)

In the context of dairy forage systems, red clover has been considered as a ley legume adapted to a wider range of soils than lucerne (Taylor and Hughes 1976). However, being relatively deep-rooted and drought-resistant it may have other roles in areas with dry summers.

Based on yield measurements made in Northland (Taylor et al. 1976a, 1977b, 1979c) and at Palmerston North (Anderson 1973), growth rates assumed for a three year stand of a diploid cultivar such as Turoa are shown in figure 8.3. The lower yields assumed for year 3 reflect declining vigour of the stand (Fergus and Hollowell 1960; Taylor et al. 1977b). Forage produced in October of year 3 is assumed to be volunteer white clover (Taylor et al. 1977b) and the discontinuity of

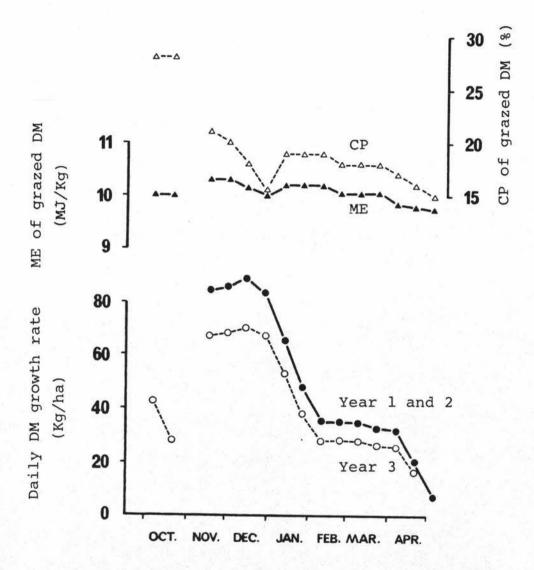


Figure 8.3 Red clover: assumed growth patterns and nutritive value.

the lines in figure 8.3 indicates a hiatus in forage production during late October and early November. Utilization of growth was assumed to be 90 percent.

Nutritive value assumptions in figure 8.3 reflect an assumed pattern of rotational grazing which produces forage of varying maturity and nutritive value (N.A.S. 1971; Taylor et al. 1976a, 1977b).

It was assumed that surplus red clover could be conserved as hay in January or February after shutting paddocks up for six weeks. Hay yields assumed were 3.23 t ha<sup>-1</sup> and 2.35 t ha<sup>-1</sup> in January and February respectively assuming total DM losses of 19 percent between harvest and intake. Hay quality was assumed to be relatively high at 9.5 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> and 15 percent CP (N.A.S. 1971).

# 8.10 SUBTERRANEAN CLOVER (Trifolium subterraneum)

Widely used as a forage legume in Australia both in leys and in more permanent pastures, subterranean clover is adapted and useful in some pastoral situations in New Zealand (Levy 1970). As a dairy forage, it has been seen mainly as a naturally regenerating cool season legume in association with Sudax (Taylor et al. 1976a; Jurlina 1978).

Paddock yields are inferred from data of Jurlina (1978) and Taylor et al. (1979a, 1979b). Three patterns of grazing were specified:

- (a) grazing in period 07 (yield of 3 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and again in period 10 (3 t ha<sup>-1</sup>);
- (b) grazing in period 08 (4 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) and again in period 10 (1 t ha<sup>-1</sup>);

(c) grazing in period 09 (4.5 t ha<sup>-1</sup>) with no further grazing.

At assumed utilizations in the four periods of 90 percent, 80 percent, 70 percent (first grazings) and 85 percent (second grazings) a total of 4.82 t ha<sup>-1</sup> of utilizable DM is produced from a paddock yield of 5.17 t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

Metabolizable energy content was assumed to be lower than the data of Taylor et al. (1977a) suggested because it is likely that an earlier maturing cultivar than Woogenellup will regenerate more reliably (Taylor et al. 1977a). Crude protein content is similarly discounted from data of Taylor et al. (1977a). Table 8.4 shows assumed yields and nutritive value.

Table 8.4 Subterranean clover: assumed pattern of forage availability and nutritive value

Period	Utilizable DM (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	ME in grazed  DM (MJ kg <sup>-1</sup> )	CP in grazed DM (%)
07	1040	10.0	20
08	1240	10.2	20
09	1220	10.0	20
10	1320	10.2	20

#### 8.11 NON-REGENERATING WINTER LEGUME

Non-regenerating but higher yielding annual legumes may also have a role in dairy feeding systems (Taylor and Hughes 1976). Examples which have shown some field promise are burr medic (Medicago polymorpha) and serradella (Ornithopus sativus). Without specifying any particular species or cultivar the assumptions shown in table 8.5 were made. These imply a total yield of 10 t ha<sup>-1</sup> in one cut

(Taylor et al. 1979b, 1979c). The quality assumptions reflect the fact that these legumes mature rapidly when vegetative growth is completed (Taylor et al. 1979a). Field experience has shown that the utilization assumed here is probably too optimistic (see Taylor et al. 1979a).

Table 8.5 Non-regenerating winter legume: assumed pattern of forage yield, utilization and nutritive value

Period	Standing DM (kg/3 ha)	Grazing utilization (%)	Utilizable DM (kg/3 ha)	ME in DM (MJ kg <sup>-1</sup> )	CP in DM (%)
				P.S. 519	6505ATTIVISI
07	2800	0.85	2380	9.1	0.16
08	3300	0.80	2640	9.1	0.16
09	3900	0.75	2925	9.1	0.16
Total ha	a <sup>-1</sup> 10000		7945		

#### 8.12 PERENNIAL SUMMER GROWING GRASS

A perennial summer forage could combine the advantages of greenfeed maize and sorghum in providing feed in summer and early autumn with the simplicity and low cost of conventional pasture. Paspalum dilatatum did fulfil such a role in Northland as a normal component of pastures. Its recent disappearance from many Northland pastures (Percival 1977) is a matter of some concern (R.A. Brown, personal communication; Taylor et al. 1979a) and there has been some effort to find a replacement (Taylor et al. 1976c, 1976d, 1976e). Although a forage of this type has not yet been proven under grazing, a tetraploid form of Hemarthria altissima has shown that the environment is capable of sustaining such a forage. It was decided to carry out some preliminary modelling with such a hypothetical forage.

Unpublished data of L.J. Davies from a three year experiment was used to construct a growth curve. For the warm season between December 16 and April 20, growth rate was assumed as the mean of three years data. For the rest of the year, when the sward was composed largely of temperate grasses such as Poa spp., experimental growth rates were adjusted by calibrating them with assumed ryegrass-clover growth rates. This was done by comparing ryegrass-clover rates from the experiment and from the final assumptions of Chapter 7 and whenever experimental growth rates were higher than assumed growth rates, the ratio of the latter to the former was used to adjust H. altissima growth rates. The final pattern assumed is shown in figure 8.4. It was assumed that 80 percent of growth would be available for grazing throughout the year. While this is 10 percent lower than the utilization assumed for ryegrass-clover, it is by no means clear that H. altissima could be grazed in any conventional sense (Taylor, personal communication).

Metabolizable energy content was assumed to be a constant 10.5 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup> throughout the summer period December 16 to April 20. The only known estimate of digestibility, 71.4 percent, was an *in vitro* measurement from a single harvest (Taylor et al. 1976e). During the cool season, metabolizable energy was assumed to be the same as ryegrass-clover. Crude protein in the warm period was calculated by taking the ratio of *H. altissima* crude protein content in March (Taylor et al. 1976e) to ryegrass-clover crude protein at the same time and applying this to ryegrass-clover crude protein content throughout the period. The ratio used was 0.675. In the cool season a ratio of 0.84 was assumed arbitrarily. Nutritive value assumptions are shown in figure 8.4

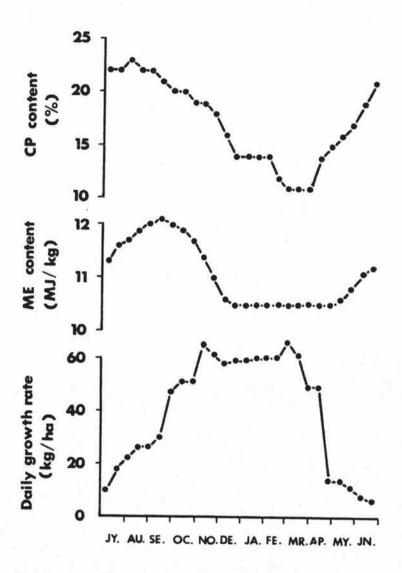


Figure 8.4 Hemarthria altissima: assumed growth pattern and nutritive value

The experiments from which these data were drawn were conducted on well-drained sites which were fertilized with 200 kg N per ha each summer. Any comparison with ryegrass-clover pasture would need to recognize the extra nitrogen as a factor in the environment.

## 8.13 SUMMARY

The chapter began by distinguishing between crops with perceived roles in feeding systems and those with no obvious role but high potential yield. In specifying these crops as model components, however, no such distinction was made because it was one of the purposes of this study to investigate possible roles of the latter type of crop. It was then pointed out that assumed crop management was constrained in certain respects to permit double cropping and to ensure efficient harvesting and storage of conserved feed. Detailed assumptions regarding various crops make up the bulk of the chapter.

# CHAPTER NINE

### THE DAIRY SYSTEM MODEL

### 9.1 INTRODUCTION

Chapter five dealt with the choice of research program and the general attitude taken toward the production system. The next three chapters outlined the relationships assumed to describe the operation of the system. This chapter is intended to describe how the whole system was represented as a mathematical model.

#### 9.2 TYPE OF MODEL

System management (control)may be defined as those operations necessary to make a system work and presupposes the existence of a particular system. Proposing new forms of system organization is the preserve of system design (planning). It is axiomatic that the two functions interact. Comparisons between system designs, the essence of this study, must take account of management, either by qualifying the performance of each system with a statement of the management to which it was subjected or by ensuring that management of each system reaches some specified standard.

One such standard is "optimal", meaning that management, as well as system design, is such that a stated objective is at a maximum value. Linear programming models are optimizing in this sense. Heuristic models can be manipulated so that an objective function approaches (though in a complex model probably never reaches) an optimum, but with a large number of control points, as in a dairying system, approaching an optimum could be quite cumbersome. Furthermore, there will usually be

no means of ensuring that an optimum has been reached.

Thus, the major benefit seen in using a linear programming model is that comparisons between systems are not confounded with differences in system management. The major drawback is likely to be the lack of flexibility in altering relationships within the model as the study progresses.

## 9.3 MODEL STRUCTURE

The crux of the problem is to find the optimum combination of lactation patterns, feed production technologies, and feeding plans for a given objective function, set of constraints and set of assumptions. Feed production may vary in the following characteristics:

- (a) timing of land occupation;
- (b) timing, yield and quality of forage available for grazing or conservation;
- (c) cost of growing, storage and feeding.

Milk production may vary in terms of:

- (a) timing of start of lactation (calving);
- (b) timing of end of lactation (drying off);
- (c) level of milk production within lactation.

The interaction of these variables in the production of output is considered to comprise a sufficient model for the purpose given above. Remaining sections of this chapter deal with the objective function and various sections of the model.

One remaining feature common to most parts of the model is the size of the time periods which comprise the production cycle discussed in Chapter five. As in most modelling studies the decision about the length of individual time periods is somewhat arbitrary, usually a compromise between simplicity and speed of computation on the one hand, and reality and

flexibility on the other. Whereas with crop and pasture growth models, 24 hour periods are a natural expression of the fact that photosynthesis begins anew each morning, ruminant animals, inherently and in the way they are managed, smooth out daily fluctuations in feed production. Thus, unless daily feeding management is under close study there seems every reason for using longer time periods in feeding models.

In a planning model, the length of time periods, between which are located decision points, ought to relate to the timing of decision points in real-life planning of similar systems. Feed budgeting is commonly done on a monthly basis (Bell 1976a; Hutton and Bryant 1976; M.A.F. 1976; Johnstone et al. 1977). Where only pasture is involved and growth rates and forage quality form a continuous pattern through the year, such a level of resolution is probably adequate for both predictive and interpretative purposes, providing pasture defoliation management is not at issue (Pollard 1972; McRae 1976). However, shorter periods seem necessary to adequately specify the discontinuous availability and rapidly changing quality of some forage crops. The final choice was to specify a year as 26 periods each of 14 days. Because lactation was generally expected to begin in late winter-early spring, a model year was assumed to start on July 1. The periods and their starting dates are listed in Appendix A.

In a single year model, the real-life process of carrying stored feed over from one production cycle to the next must be simulated by permitting stored forage to be fed out in the model before it is produced in calendar terms. Such an artifice assumes that forage fed before production has been produced in the previous cycle and that an equivalent quantity is carried over into the next production cycle.

In the following sections, crop and pasture yields refer in all cases to utilizable dry matter. Utilization of forage is specified in such a way that the losses associated with grazing or conservation can be regarded as fixed, so that degree of utilization does not enter the model as a variable. The values given in the tables are not necessarily those actually used in the model though they are of the correct order of magnitude.

#### 9.3.1 PASTURE PRODUCTION AND UTILIZATION

A schematic outline of the pasture portion of the matrix is shown in figure 9.1. Pasture production (PSPR) is specified as 26 separate activities for two reasons. The first is that, for some purposes, pasture area may not be constant, pasture being taken out of production to plant other crops and coming back into production as new pasture develops. The second reason is to enable pasture saving to be limited to one time period.

Land rows (LAND) constrain area of pasture, crop and fallow to be less than a specified area (50 ha in this case). PLAB rows constrain the area of saved pasture to be no more than the area of pasture already present. To make a completely general pasture saving scheme able to handle changing pasture area requires the PLBB rows which constrain the area of pasture in period t to be at least as great as the area saved from period t-1. In circumstances where pasture and crop are not permitted to rotate, the normal assumption in this study, an extra set of rows (PLAND) constrain pasture area in all periods to be equal.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> A scheme suggested by A.F. McRae to prevent saved pasture being ploughed.

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PLBBr-1 0	02 -1														
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PSDM+ 1 0	0> -300			300			-			300					
		-400		-300	400			1		400				. 200	
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COWME <sub>t</sub> 0-								-10.1				-9.5			
COWME t+1 0=								7	8.6-				-0.5		
COWCP <sub>t-1</sub> 02							-0.20				-0.14				
COWCP <sub>t</sub> 02								-0.18				-0.14			
COWCP <sub>t+1</sub> 0≥								0	-0.17			٩	-0.14		
MARGIN	35											SS CHENNE	1000		

Figure 9.1 The Pasture Matrix

Pasture dry matter rows (PSDM) constrain the utilization of pasture produced by the PSPR activities for saving (PSSV), grazing (PSFG) or pasture silage production (PSGP). The PSGDM row constrains the total quantity of pasture silage fed out in various periods (PSGFG) to be not greater than the total produced by the PSGP activities.

Pasture grazing (PSFG) activities transfer pasture dry matter, with its time-specific contents of metabolizable energy and crude protein, to the cow feeding rows that are common to all feeds. Pasture silage feeding activities (PSGFG) transfer silage dry matter, with its constant nutritive value, to each of the 26 time periods.

Pasture nitrogen activities (PSN) add to the supply of pasture in the PSDM rows, thus assuming that the utilizable pasture so produced is identical in quality with pasture produced in the normal way (PSPR). The pasture area fertilized with nitrogen is limited to the amount of pasture present at that time by PSNLIM rows. To be completely general, these area constraints would need to be extended to as many periods as the nitrogen response is spread over.

The objective function normally employed, MARGIN, shows how costs are divided between pasture growth, conservation, and feeding out. This allows silage to be carried over without incurring feeding out costs.

## 9.3.2 CROP PRODUCTION AND UTILIZATION

Crops were dealt with in one of three ways. Those that are normally repeatedly grazed, such as red clover or Sudax, are represented as single activities with vectors of dry matter production. An example in figure 9.2 is CAPR which does not occupy land or produce dry matter (in the CADM rows)

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CADM <sub>t+1</sub>	02	-350	0							1								
CB DMt-1	3			009-								-1						
CBDMt	6				-800								П					
CBDM <sub>t+1</sub>	<b>6</b>					-900								1				
CCSGDM	6						4	-5000								-	-	1
COWDM <sub>t-1</sub>	8											7				7		
COWDMt									7				7				7	
COWDM <sub>t+1</sub>	20									7				7				7
COWME <sub>t-1</sub>	=0										7.5	-11			7	-10		
COWME	=0								-10				-10				-10	
COWME <sub>t+1</sub>	=0									0-				6-				-10
COWCP <sub>t-1</sub>	^ <del>-</del> 0										7	-0.20			٩	-0.1		
COWCPt	ô								-0.2			,	-0.15				-0.1	
COWCP t+1	50									-0.1			•	-0.12				-0.1
MARGIN		-100		-120	-120 -120	-120	1	-350							C	10 0 10 0	5	10

Figure 9.2 The Crop Matrix

over the full year. Crops where grazing is destructive, such as greenfeed maize, are represented by as many activities as there are possible grazing times. Thus in figure 9.2, CBPR represents the same crop occupying land until grazing, later grazings resulting in higher yields (in the CBDM rows). Crop grazing activities (CAFG and CBFG) are specified in a manner analagous to pasture feeding. The third type is a silage crop (e.g. CCSGPR in figure 9.2), where production (CCSGPR in figure 9.2) is represented by a vector of land use and a single final yield (in row CCSGDM), and where feeding out is specified identically with pasture silage.

All costs of grazing crops are allocated to the production activity (in row MARGIN) while costs of silage crops are divided in the same manner as for pasture silage.

#### 9.3.3 PURCHASED CONCENTRATES

Meatmeal or complete meal were specified simply, as shown in figure 9.3. The purchasing activity (CONBUY) was specified in kg of concentrate supplying dry matter to a specific row (CONDM) at a given cost per kg (\$0.15 in the example). Concentrate feeding (CONFG) was specified in the same manner as was silage feeding except that no cost is assumed.

#### 9.3.4 MILK PRODUCTION

Variations in pattern of system milk production were facilitated by specifying, for each of three calving dates, 12 lactation patterns<sup>2</sup> as separate activities (see figure 9.4),

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Specified in Chapter 6.

		•••	CONBUY	•••	$CONFG_{t}$	CONFG <sub>t+1</sub>	
:							
CONDM :	0≥	*	-1		1	1	
COWDMt	0≤				-1		
$:^{COWDM_{t+1}}$	0≤		5			-1	
COWME <sub>t</sub>	0=				-12		•
COWME <sub>t+1</sub>	0=					-12	
COWCPt	0≥				-0.14		
COWCP <sub>t+1</sub>	0≥					-0.14	
MARGIN			-0.15				

Figure 9.3 The purchased feed matrix

NMJJET				-	1.6
:					
XZT th	14	146	1.7	-0.11	≤1900
×Σπ <sup>+</sup>	12	125	1.5	-0.10	<1800
:	ж <b>4</b>	0 0	2 2	_	
2 F 3 8 P L A	173	069	-, -,	-117	
1 F38 B10 A	173	069	5	-121	
0 F 3 8 1 C A	173	069	2	-124	
:					
J≻280F1	156	1410	17	-145	
:					
ATL®WI7	136	770	8 5	-117	
AUOVFU	136	1430	18	-148	
4440VF1	136	1120	13	-155	
A G U O V F Ø	136	770	<b>∞</b> σ	-161	
:					
	8 8	= 0	8 8	6	
	COWDMt COWDMt+1	COWME <sub>t</sub>	COWCP <sub>t</sub>	MILKFAT	MARGIN

Figure 9.4 The cow requirement matrix

each representing a notional cow. The three calving dates were July 1, August 1 and April 1. In addition, to permit higher than "standard" milk production and mid-late lactation increases in production in above average conditions, a number of activities (XMF) were defined which were not intended to represent a cow, but the requirements of one cow for a specified increase in milkfat production. The size of the increase was limited according to the stage of lactation (see figure 6.2) and the limit to activity (XMF) level was the number of cows in the average-season plan.

Specifying each lactation pattern (implying an associated liveweight pattern) as a separate vector of feed requirements satisfies the requirement of Chapter 6 to have a mechanism which ensures lost bodyweight is regained following "underfeeding". It also enables the specification of shortened lactations, each with a different pattern of liveweight change in the early part of the dry period.

Each notional cow has a set of metabolizable energy requirements which must be met in the COWME rows. This establishes unequivocally the prime role of energy in determining voluntary intake. If both energy and protein are specified only as minimum requirements then either could determine voluntary intake by causing an increase in dry matter intake (and an excess intake of the other) when present in a feed at low concentrations. An increase in dry matter intake (and possibly feeding an "excess" of energy) resulting from low protein concentrations, a possible solution in such a scheme, would be contrary to the generally accepted notion that low feed protein actually depresses intake.

<sup>3</sup> With calving distributions as in Chapter 6.

Minimum crude protein requirements of each notional cow are specified in the COWCP rows as kg crude protein. Similarly, voluntary intake limits are specified in COWDM rows to ensure that energy and protein requirements are met within the limits of cow appetite. Total milkfat production of each notional cow was specified in the MILKFAT row from which a selling activity (SELIMF) sells milkfat by contributing the only positive value to the objective function (MARGIN).

#### 9.3.5 OBJECTIVE FUNCTION

Total gross margin, the function normally to be maximized, is defined as gross return from milkfat sales less all variable feed costs. The latter included all expenses directly attributable to feed production but excluded such infrastructure expenses as are not normally attributed to particular areas or practices. Examples of such overheads are fencing, water supply, repairs and maintenance of plant and equipment, labour, rates and electricity. The model incorporates no constraints on capital or labour supply so that most operations additional to those on conventional all-grass farms were assumed to be contracted out, and are costed on this basis. Storage and feeding out of silage cannot be costed in this way so were dealt with by including depreciation and interest on additional capital as part of the variable cost of silage at the point of feeding out.

#### 9.3.6 MISCELLANEOUS ROWS

For a variety of purposes, output interpretation and parametric analysis among them, a number of rows with no time dimension were defined. These were normally non-computational rows.

<sup>4</sup> Detailed in Appendix B.

Total maize (MAIZE) and total winter cereal (CER) rows calculated the total area of these respective forages. Four cash flow (CASH) rows aggregated the cash requirements of the forage production program for each of four seasons. A capital row (CAPITAL) aggregated the total capital requirements of the plan and calving time rows (APCOWS, JYCOWS, AUCOWS) aggregated all cows calving in each of April, July and August. Total cows (COWS) and total silage area (SIL) aggregated their respective activities.

PART III

RESULTS OF MODELLING

# CHAPTER TEN

#### MODEL EVALUATION

## 10.1 INTRODUCTION

This chapter is concerned with model behaviour under a variety of conditions. Chapters 6 through 9 dealt with the relationships assumed for the model and can be seen as analagous to the process of verification. Evaluation of whole-model behaviour, as considered here, is analagous to the process of validation. <sup>1</sup>

Model development involved a good deal of interdisciplinary consultation but initially was largely a one way
process of obtaining information from specialists to use in
model construction. Nevertheless, the model was run many
times during this process as a means of preliminary validation.
Most of the checks at this stage were merely to see if performance parameters were rational and that model logic was as
intended. When these criteria were met basic model development was considered complete.

Evaluation, although in practice a continuous process, is discussed here in two stages. The first deals with the presentation of some early results for Northland to a panel of experts, Here, emphasis was placed on evaluating model behaviour in near-limit situations. The second stage deals

Verification and validation processes are discussed in Chapter 4.

with later testing and evaluation, some of it in conjunction with extension and research personnel in Northland and Manawatu and at Ruakura.

## 10.2 VALIDATION PROCEDURES

Validity of the model was pre-defined as acceptance of the model for its defined purpose. That is, providing the model appeared to represent reality (in a logical sense) in those aspects under study, the model was considered valid if it produced output acceptable to experienced observers. However, system behaviour consists of more than the value of the objective function, particularly since gross margin (the objective function normally employed here) is neither an absolute quantity, nor is it as familiar a measure to biological scientists as more physical ones like dry matter yield and milkfat production. Thus, validation was taken to include many aspects of a solution:- feed production combinations, dry matter production, feed surpluses, potential feed deficits, 2 feeding patterns, stocking rates, calving patterns, lactation patterns and cash and capital requirements. In this respect, the model used here differed considerably from those of Pollard (1972) and McRae (1976) where the majority of activities described a grazing sequence which was frequently arbitrary<sup>3</sup> and was conceded to be difficult to interpret in practical terms.

With a variety of criteria available for validation and in view of the difficulties in establishing a rational

The model does not permit real feed deficits but meal feeding and feed row shadow prices indicate where within-system feed is most expensive.

<sup>3</sup> In linear programming terms, there was no unique solution.

significance level for statistical comparisons (Grieg 1979) it was decided to concentrate on subjective validation by independent experts. Much of the reviewing and validation involved only one consultant at a time but on one occasion before the main experimental program began, the model and its output were presented to a meeting at which all the main consultants were present. This occasion is described in some detail to illustrate the validation-reviewing process and to provide some independent evidence of model validity.

## 10.3 EARLY RESULTS FROM NORTHLAND MODEL

Panel members were given an up to date summary of progress in advance of the meeting. This document also proposed three main areas for discussion: model validity, system stability and component value. These are considered separately below. The panel comprised seven people, combining expertise in crop and grassland agronomy, dairy cow nutrition and management, process and system modelling, economics and farm management. All had been in some contact with the study from its early stages.

## 10.3.1 BASIC MODEL

With only the basic set of constraints<sup>5</sup> operating, the optimal feeding plan (figure 10.1) was quite complex and some associated feed production activities were in novel combinations.

<sup>4</sup> Identified in Appendix C.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Described in Chapter 9.

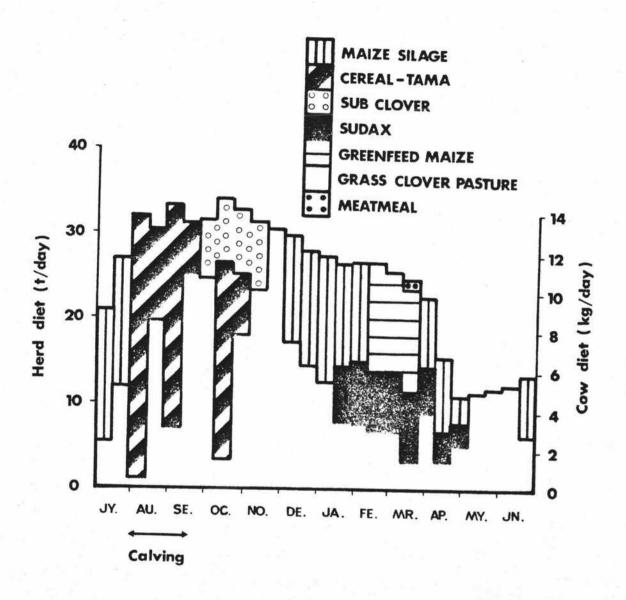


Figure 10.1 Optimal feeding plan of basic, unconstrained model

However, it illustrated what was to become a common pattern. Considering ryegrass-clover pasture as the basic forage source, the gross pattern of feed supply was altered to the feed demand pattern of high-producing cows by three means; by application of nitrogen to pasture whenever possible (August-September and April-May), by the growing of greenfeed crops whenever possible (August-November, January-May) and by the use of maize silage to fill remaining gaps.

Some details of farm organization are listed in the last column of table 10.1 where it can be seen that half the farm area was devoted to cropping, a situation unlikely to be encountered in current practice. Feed conservation, while substantially greater than average practice, nevertheless represented less than 20 percent of total feed utilized.

## 10.3.2 CONSTRAINED CROPPING LEVELS

In order for validation to proceed from more familiar starting points a series of plans beginning from all-grass systems and progressing through increasing levels of cropping were examined. In addition to the basic constraints, each plan was constrained to have a certain minimum area of conventional pasture but was otherwise unrestricted.

Table 10.1 shows that the main effects of permitting increased cropping were increases in total forage yield, stocking rate, total milkfat production and gross margin, and a replacement of pasture silage by crop silage. None of these plans suggested model rejection though the all-grass plan had higher-producing cows than Northland averages (N.Z.D.B. 1979), indicating that, to represent an average existing Northland farm, the model would need to be constrained still further.

Table 10.1 The effect of cropping level on system structure and performance (50 ha)

Maximum crop area (%	of farm)	0	10	20	33	50 <sup>1</sup>
Summer GF	(ha)	_	3	5	10	15
Winter GF	(ha)	-	2	8	15	25
Pasture silage	(t)	79	29	3	4	1
Crop silage	(t)	_	52	69	92	121
DM grown per ha	(t)	11.6	12.5	13.3	14.7	15.9
Cows milked	(no.)	130	137	144	156	165
Milkfat per ha	(kg)	414	442	460	500	530
Gross margin per ha	(\$)	514	555	580	606	621

<sup>1</sup> Optimum cropping level

# 10.3.3 COMPARISON WITH REAL FARMS

Since the opportunity to evaluate the model before a panel of experts was likely to occur only once, the scope of evaluation was widened by attempting to have the model generate optimal plans for three of the real farms monitored and described by Taylor et al. (1979c). While the model was never intended to be used in this mode, it was considered that there could be value in having the model represent something more tangible than a "representative" Northland farm.

The model was constrained to permit only those crops already grown successfully on each farm and allowance was made for replacements and non-dairy stock run. Apart from limiting calving to July and August no other modifications were made to the model. A major difficulty in comparing model predictions with real farm performance is in assigning a relative value to pasture on the various soil-topographic associations of a heterogeneous farm. The least heterogeneous, and the only one where most of the pasture was of the type assumed in the model, was the Brown farm so this farm was compared in more detail

with the model.

A summary of all farms is given in table 10.2 where all entries refer to a 50 effective ha farm to facilitate comparisons between farms—as well as within farms. In the Jurlina and Milich systems the model grew more crop and conserved more silage than the farms and also fed cows better. In the Brown system, model and farm conserved equivalent total silage but different proportions of maize and pasture. In other respects Brown model and farm were in good agreement (see figures 10.2 and 10.3).

Table 10.2 Comparisons of farm and model plans and performances

		BR	OWN.	JUR	LINA	MIL	ICH
		FARM	MODEL	FARM	MODEL	FARM	MODEL
GF maize	(ha)	1	2	-	_	_	-
Sudax-sub clover	(ha)	-	_	5	11	_	-
Pasture silage	(t)	38	14	23	28	47	64
Maize silage	(t)	70	88		::	_	=
Cows milked	(no.)	126	133	79	105	84	120
Days in milk		251	252	265	250	245	243
Milkfat per cow	(kg)	163	159	146	158	148	156
Milkfat per ha	(kg)	409	424	232	332	250	374
Adjusted MF per ha <sup>2</sup>	(kg)	428		349		376	

<sup>1</sup> All comparisons assume a 50 ha farm.

Before any comparisons of farms and model had been made, farmers were asked to make a subjective estimate of the value of pasture (relative to the best pasture in the district, as assumed in the model) on each soil-topographic association of their farm. Two farmers were very precise about this and

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> See text.

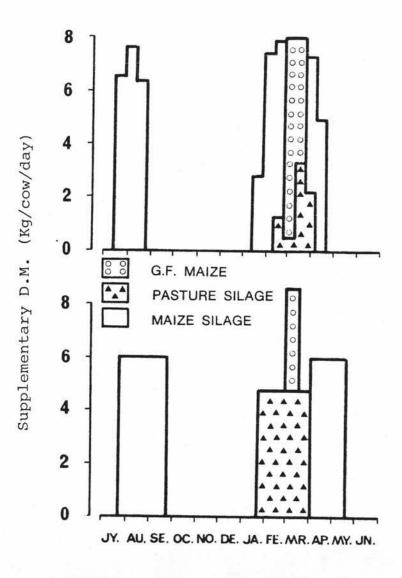


Figure 10.2 Supplementary feeding by Brown (lower) and Model (upper).

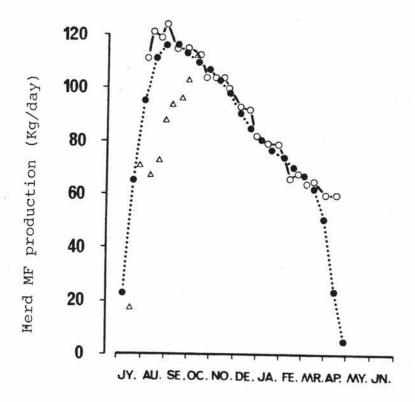


Figure 10.3 Production patterns of Brown farm (open triangles 1976-77, open circles 1977-78) and model (solid circles)

it was possible to derive an overall rating of farm pasture in relation to model pasture. The third farm was given the same rating as the farm most like it topographically. Correcting milkfat per ha production using these ratings gave the estimate given in the last line of table 10.2. These adjusted estimates appeared to add to the evidence for model acceptance.

#### 10.3.4 HIGH MILKFAT PRODUCTION

The consequences of increasing milkfat production beyond an optimal level are outlined in table 10.3. These plans were generated by specifying a minimum level of milkfat production and then maximizing gross margin. An apparent maximum cropping level of 60 percent corresponded with the simultaneous operation of quality constraints in several periods of the year. Beyond this level of milkfat production, energy supplements were necessary and gross margin fell sharply.

Table 10.3 The structure and performance of higher producing systems (50 ha)

Milkfat (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )		530	560	600	638 <sup>1</sup>
Crop area (% of farm	n)	50	56	61	60
Summer GF	(ha)	15	14	12	2
Winter GF	(ha)	25	27	30	22
Pasture silage	(t)	1	9	20	24
Crop silage	(t)	121	168	237	399
DM grown per ha	(t)	15.9	17.1	18.4	19.3
Cows milked	(no.)	165	173	186	198
Gross margin per ha	(\$)	621	619	613	571

<sup>1</sup> Maximum milkfat production from a self-contained system.

At the maximum production level shown in table 10.3, protein density of the diet was limiting at all times except during May and June. This is a consequence of high levels of low-protein crop silage.

None of these results indicated the model should be rejected.

# 10.3.5 LOW MILKFAT PRICES

With decreasing milkfat price, the model exhibited the insensitivity around the optimum characteristic of bio-economic systems (Jardine 1975). For instance, despite a 25 percent decrease in milkfat price, the savings from reorganization of the farm plan amounted to less than 2 percent of the gross margin (see table 10.4), whereas with a 50 percent decrease in milkfat price, savings amounted to 23 percent of gross margin.

Table 10.4 Effects of lower milkfat price on system performance

Mi	lkfat pr	ice (\$ k	g <sup>-1</sup> )
1.60	1.20	0.80	0.40
0	0	62	133
732	480	96	0
165	153	128	114
530	494	413	367
621	416	243	86
621	409	197	-15
	1.60 0 732 165 530 621	1.60 1.20 0 0 732 480 165 153 530 494 621 416	0 0 62 732 480 96 165 153 128 530 494 413 621 416 243

The other effects of lower milkfat price, less conservation (particularly of crop) and a generally less intensive operation, were in accord with previous analyses (e.g. Stephen et al. 1974).

## 10.3.6 PANEL REACTION

There was general agreement amongst the panel with the overall pattern of model assumptions and behaviour although it was recognized that, in the limited time available, there was no possibility of making many details of the model transparent to panel members. Some specific reactions were as follows:

- (a) The panel showed some surprise at the consistent role of grazing crops but had no specific objection to this aspect of model output. Since the role of grazing crop and the effects of level of conservation are not well-explored areas, there was little experience to draw on for validation of these aspects. This is an almost inevitable situation where the model being used to synthesize alternative systems produces novel results.
- (b) There was concern that the assumed maximum level of milkfat production per cow may have been too low to allow maximum expression of cropping and conservation benefits.

Within undetermined limits, it would be more efficient, in terms of feed requirements (see table 6.3), to increase productivity per cow. However, despite observations of Friesian cows producing 200 kg MF or more on all-forage diets (A.M. Bryant, personal communication; Scott 1978) there were no experimental bases, comparable to those used in calculating the

requirements of a "standard" cow producing 161 kg MF, on which to calculate feed conversion efficiency, and thus feed requirements, of such cows.

The general conclusion was that although higher producing cows might conceivably suit forage crop systems better than the lower producing cows assumed optimal for all-grass systems, there was insufficient information to justify the routine inclusion of high producing cows in the planning model.

(c) Information presented to the panel did not clarify the possible model relationships between stocking rate, feed availability patterns and forage yield.

This aspect of the early model results may have actually reduced the credibility of the model in the eyes of the panel. It was to an extent unavoidable in that when many aspects of an optimal system change simultaneously with a change in one or more constraints, there is no simple cause and effect relationship which can be unambiguously identified. The only clear effect was that, once milkfat per cow reached the specified maximum, feed supply and stocking rate increased together.

The conclusion drawn from this section of the discussion was that there was a need for a detailed explanation of the interaction between stocking rate and system structures as it affected optimal farm plans.

(d) The panel raised the possibility that the forage supply options included in the model would predetermine the kinds of systems the model could predict as useful. In particular, the broad pattern of feed deficiency on Northland dairy farms, long known, may have resulted in a biased selection of forages for field study and for model construction. The argument applies more to the selection of forage sources for field research than to the alternatives specified in the model. These latter, within the very broad limits of data availability, were not restricted in any conscious way. In fact, the range of alternatives was deliberately expanded by including crops which were being actively discouraged (e.g. turnips) and by including alternative end uses (e.g. grazing of oats, a crop seen mainly as a silage source).

# 10.4 LATER RESULTS WITH NORTHLAND, RUAKURA AND MANAWATU VERSIONS

These later evaluations were carried out over a period of some months. The process was iterative, evaluation normally being followed by some experimentation. The results of such experiments were often used in evaluating the model for particular roles, though the experiments did not necessarily have that purpose.

# 10.4.1 FURTHER EVALUATION OF NORTHLAND VERSION

A synopsis of the foregoing results, together with some later results, were presented to meetings of advisory and research people at Whangarei and advisory people and farmers at Kaitaia. The main additional result was a plan representing an all-grass, no-nitrogen, low conservation system, a system commonly found in practice. This plan was taken from a series where conservation was parametrically constrained and represents a point where further reduction in conservation would result in a combination of pasture surpluses and meal feeding. Some details of this plan are:

Silage fed cow	(kg)	97
Meal fed per cow	(kg)	67
Stocking rate	(cows per ha)	2.53
Lactation length	(days)	195
Milkfat per cow	(kg)	128
Gross margin per ha	(\$)	450

The main feature of this plan that caused comment was the stocking rate. Average Northland stocking rate over the period 1973-74 to 1976-77 was only 1.28 cows per effective ha. This was ascribed to the general heterogeneity of Northland pastures, many of them on poorly drained soils or on light sandy soils, whereas the model assumes homogeneous pastures.

In other respects, the model conformed with the perceptions of the observers. In addition, neither lactation length nor plane of nutrition nor milkfat per cow reached their minimum values under fairly severe constraints and it was concluded that no arbitrary limits were likely to limit the adaptability of the model system.

#### 10.4.2 EVALUATION OF A RUAKURA VERSION

Results of modelling were discussed with a small group of Ruakura dairy nutrition research people. In addition to the foregoing results another dimension was added to the evaluation by including a plan for an all-grass, no-nitrogen system based on Ruakura pasture growth data. These latter were taken from unpublished data of A. Wright and are shown in figure 10.4. Nutritive value assumptions were unchanged from those used in the Northland model. With calving limited to July and August the resulting plan had the following features:

Forage grown per ha	(t)	15.4
Silage fed per cow	(kg)	280
Stocking rate	(cows per ha)	3.5
Lactation length	(days)	266
Milkfat per cow	(kg)	160
Milkfat per ha	(kg)	561
Gross margin per ha	(\$)	834

Milkfat production per ha corresponds well with observations made over the past ten years at Ruakura (Hutton and Bryant 1976; Campbell et al. 1977), but is achieved at a lower stocking rate and higher production per cow. To achieve this higher production, 80 percent of the silage is fed in late lactation, whereas the systems described by Hutton and Bryant (1976) and Campbell et al. (1977), and commercial systems, tend to feed conserved feed in winter to increase cow body condition. The difference was concluded to be due to the wilted silage in the model being of high enough quality to be fed as part of a production diet and thus to prevent large losses in cow body condition during summer and autumn.

# 10.4.3 EVALUATION OF A MANAWATU VERSION

Using local pasture growth rates, B.J. Ridler (personal communication) has found that the model predicted milkfat production of two farms closely enough to warrant using the model as a basis for preliminary investigation of alternative calving times.

## 10.4.4 UNSOLICITED EVALUATION

Interest was expressed in using the model to investigate

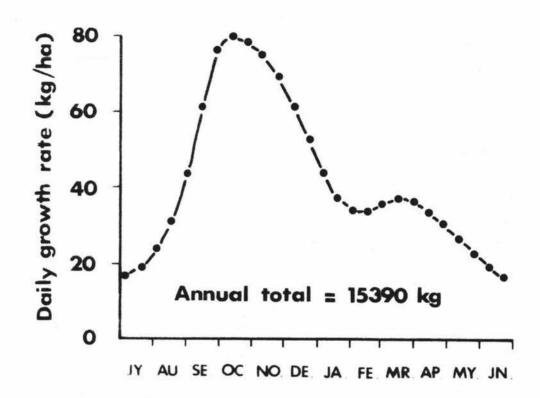


figure 10.4 Assumed growth pattern of pasture at Ruakura

the consequences of altering calving time (A.M. Bryant and K.L. McMillan, personal communication) and in using the model as the production module of a dairy industry model (K. Hall, personal communication). Such interest followed some exposure to model results and was interpreted as additional evidence that the model could be useful.

## 10.5 SUMMARY

The linear programming model was evaluated in two stages. In the first, a preliminary set of results was presented to a panel of experts. These results concentrated on model behaviour in near-limit situations and on comparisons of model and real farm structure and production. The second stage was a continuing interaction between model output and research and extension personnel in Northland and Manawatu and at Ruakura.

Defining validity as acceptance of the model for its defined purpose, the model was judged to be adequate for its purpose. There were also indications that it might be accepted for use for other purposes in other dairying regions.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>Some preliminary work has been completed and published (Taylor and Miller 1979).

# CHAPTER 11

## **EXPERIMENTATION**

## 11.1 INTRODUCTION

Having concluded that the model was valid for the purpose of synthesizing optimal forage feeding systems for a variety of circumstances, the next step was to fulfil that purpose under as many relevant circumstances as possible.

Two types of experiment were conducted. The first was where specific, agronomic-type questions were raised. This included such aspects as the effect of cropping level and conservation level on productivity and profitability, the possible role of a summer-growing grass, and the sensitivity of forage systems to variation in forage yield. The second type sought to test some of the earlier conclusions under varying climatic and economic environments.

Slight modifications to the model mean that comparisons between results of this chapter and chapter 10 are not valid. Modifications to some feed production costs, winter cereal yields and quality, and bloat prevention costs associated with red clover resulted in the values given in chapter 8 and Appendix B.

## 11.2 EFFECTS OF CROPPING LEVEL

Preliminary experiments had shown that there were large differences in physical productivity between systems

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> See sections 10.3.2 and 10.3.4

with differing cropping levels though the economic differences were somewhat smaller. Since economic circumstances may change considerably during the course of a medium-long term field research program there was interest in estimating the physical limitations of various classes of forage system. It was intended also that benchmarks be developed, against which the productivity and profitability of simplified systems could be compared.

The basic experimental design was a factorial combination of cropping levels and stocking rates. Cropping level was either unconstrained (CROPOPT) or fixed at either zero (CROPO), 20 percent (CROP 20) or 40 percent (CROP 40) of farm area. The unconstrained level was included to give a reference optimal system at each stocking rate while the three fixed-level systems were chosen to represent the range of feasible cropping levels.

Stocking rate, the most important variable influencing milkfat production (Campbell et al. 1977), was used as a means of manipulating milkfat production in the model. For each of the four systems, stocking rate was varied from a level below which land or forage was unused up to a level where energy supplement was purchased.

Figure 11.1 shows that increasing cropping level resulted in systems that were able to adapt to a wider range of stocking rates. With the initial economic assumptions, stocking rates above 2.2 cows per hectare would require some cropping and above 3.2 cows per hectare would require more than 20 percent of the farm area to be devoted to cropping. The arrows of figure 11.1 indicate where energy supplements were necessary to sustain further increases in production. These points are almost independent of economic assumptions since they resulted from the operation of quality and quantity constraints in the diet. In that sense they indicate the upper limit of production from self-contained systems. With higher

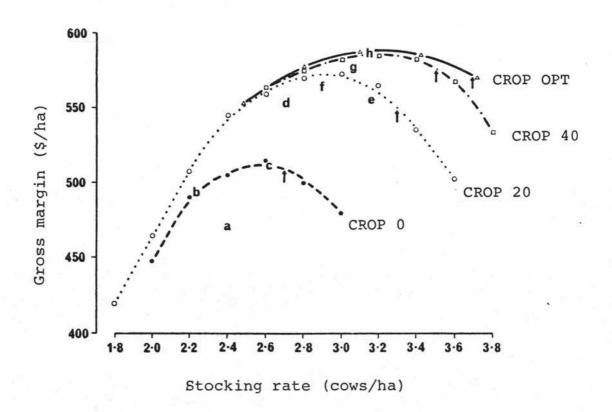


Figure 11.1 Effects of stocking rate on gross margin at four cropping levels. Arrows indicate the stocking rate at which meal feeding commenced. Letters refer to the systems of section 11.8

meal cost, stocking rate could be further increased without meal feeding but only at the expense of milkfat production per cow.

Table 11.1 Effects of stocking rate on feed production activities

	Pasture nitrogen¹		ed crops Winter	Crop Summer	silage Winter	Pasture Silage
Stocking rate	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)
(cows ha <sup>-1</sup> )			CRO	PO		
2.00 2.20 2.40 2.60 2.80	0 0 48 104 118				-	12.0 13.5 17.8 22.3 18.4
			CRO	P20		
2.00 2.20 2.40 2.60 2.80 3.20 3.40	0 8 42 65 148 150	10.0 10.0 10.0 8.2 6.4 3.7 1.4	0 1.5 9.8 7.3 6.2 2.1 3.7	0 0 1.8 3.6 6.3 8.6	0 0 0 1.7 3.8 7.9 6.3	0.4 3.4 5.1 3.6 0
			CRO	P40		
2.46 2.60 2.80 3.00 3.20 3.40 3.60	3 33 57 93 120 150	17.2 18.8 15.2 12.8 8.9 7.8 4.1	19.1 20.0 20.0 18.2 17.5 11.9	0.5 1.2 4.8 7.2 11.1 12.2 15.9	0 0 0 1.8 2.5 8.1 8.6	6.2 3.4 1.7 1.3 0
			CROI	POPT		
2.22 2.48 2.80 3.11 3.42 3.73	0 11 79 143 150	5.8 13.3 23.2 22.5 16.4 7.6	0.6 11.7 18.0 22.9 24.1 18.2	0 1.2 4.1 10.7 16.9 20.2	0 0 0 0.4 2.9 10.8	4.2 1.7 0 0 0

An index of N use on pasture = total N used/total pasture area. N could be applied only at 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> at three times of the year. Maximum possible is 150 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>.

Table 11.2 Effects of stocking rate on supplementary feeding and milkfat production

	Silage Crop	fed	per cow Pasture	Milkfat per cow	pro	duction per ha
	(kg)		(kg)	(kg)		(kg)
Stocking rate (cows ha <sup>-1</sup> )			CD	OPO		
2.00						07.0
2.00 2.20 2.40 2.60 2.80			425 430 520 600 445	159 158 158 159 155		318 348 380 413 434
			CR	OP20		
2.00 2.20 2.40 2.60 2.80 3.00 3.20 3.40	0 0 277 536 693 875 900		15 100 150 98 39 0 0	161 161 161 161 161 161 155		322 354 386 419 451 483 497 531
			CRO	OP40		
2.46 2.60 2.80 3.00 3.20 3.40 3.60	49 108 407 660 955 1238 1448		176 92 38 30 0	161 161 161 161 161 161		396 419 451 483 515 547 576
			CRO	OPOPT		
2.22 2.48 2.80 3.11 3.42 3.73	0 113 346 845 1320 1760		137 45 0 0 0	158 161 161 161 161 161		350 400 450 500 550 600

The changes in structure and production which produced these economic results are summarized in tables 11.1 and 11.2. Taking CROPOPT first, since it is the least constrained system, the changes with increasing stocking rate are:

- (a) Increased use of pasture nitrogen, firstly in spring and, as stocking rate increases further, in autumn also.
- (b) Greenfeed crops increased at first but then decreased as silage crops increased. Between stocking rates of 3.1 and 3.7, total crop area was relatively constant.
- (c) Pasture silage was significant only at the lowest stocking rates and was rapidly replaced by crop silage as stocking rate increased.
- (d) Milkfat production per hectare was closely related to stocking rate, since milkfat per cow was relatively constant.

Patterns of change as stocking rate changed were similar in the CROP 40 system except that, because of the fixed cropping level, there was more cropping at the lowest stocking rate, 2.46 cows per hectare, than in CROPOPT at a similar stocking rate.

In the CROP 20 system, summer greenfeed crops apparently replaced pasture silage at stocking rates below 2.4 cows per hectare as there was considerable fallowing of winter-spring crop land.

In the all-grass system, CROPO, where the possibilities for coping with higher stocking rates were fewest, pasture nitrogen usage increased with increasing stocking rate, although the maximum level was not used. Pasture silage, on the other hand, increased to 2.6 cows per hectare and then decreased as meal feeding increased.

Overall, this experiment led to the following conclusions:

- (a) Increased cropping (and conservation) enabled increases in forage yield, stocking rate and milkfat production substantially beyond those possible in all-grass systems. Table 11.3 shows that potential forage yield was almost doubled moving from an all-grass to an allcrop system.
- (b) Greater use of pasture nitrogen could be made in cropping systems than in all-grass systems. Autumn application of nitrogen was of only limited use in an all-grass system because of the dominating importance of feed deficiencies in summer and early autumn.<sup>2</sup>
- (c) Only in all-grass systems is pasture silage an important component. Besides pasture nitrogen, it was the principal means in an all-grass system of adjusting the match between forage supply and demand. However, it simply transfers feed from a time of high demand (around peak lactation) to a time of even higher demand (midsummer drought) so that opportunity costs can only be high.
- (d) In physical terms alone, the amount of crop grown for conservation was limited by the quality of crop silage. Thus, in an unconstrained system, total forage yield at maximum stocking rate was only 77 percent of potential (see table 11.3) whereas in systems with constrained cropping levels, relative forage yield was more than 95 percent of potential. Both energy density and protein concentration were limiting in a number of time periods.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Discussed in more detail in Chapter 12.

- (e) The first increment of cropping resulted in the largest increase in system flexibility. Maximum stocking rates increased by 0.6 cows per hectare, maximum milkfat production increased by almost 100 kg per hectare and optimum gross margin by \$55.00 per hectare. Only at stocking rates above 3 cows per hectare was there any advantage in having more than 20 percent cropping.
- (f) In economic terms, each system produced almost optimal (95 percent) gross margin at stocking rates and dry matter yields well below those resulting in optimal gross margin (see table 11.3). This is important in operational terms where sub-optimal management or variable environment could reduce forage yield, and in planning terms where assumptions made in the planning may not be matched by reality.

Table 11.3 Dry matter yield and stocking rate at some selected points for four cropping levels

	CROPO	CROP20	CROP40	CROPOPT
Maximum possible DM yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	12.5	14.8	17.2	24.3
Relative yield at maximum stocking rate 1	96	100	98	77
Relative yield at optimal GM (%)	93	95	93	63
Relative yield at 95% optimal GM (%)	76	75	75	50
Stocking rate at optimal GM (cows ha 1)	2.6	3.0	3.2	3.2
Relative stocking rate at 95% optimal GM (%)	85	80	81	78

<sup>1</sup> That stocking rate above which dairy meal is fed as an energy source.

## 11.3 LEVEL OF CONSERVATION AND SUPPLEMENTARY FEEDING

Feed conservation has several conceptual roles in dairy feeding systems:

- (a) To alleviate expected feed deficits by transferring feed from a period of relative surplus.
- (b) To maximize yield of nutrients per hectare by harvesting at a specified time and by avoiding the losses associated with grazing.
- (c) To disconnect milk production pattern (and patterns of other downstream processes) from a highly seasonal and uncertain pasture supply.

The importance of the first role was examined by varying conservation in an all-grass system in which the only other possible adjustments were in cow numbers, meal feeding, plane of cow nutrition, lactation length and consequent level of milkfat production. Pasture nitrogen was excluded to simplify interpretation since its timing as well as its quantity was a variable in the model.<sup>3</sup>

Results of this experiment are summarized in table 11.4 and figure 11.2.

In table 11.4, marginal pasture DM values are an index of relative pasture scarcity. They are in fact shadow prices (marginal value products) of pasture dry matter reconciliation rows and represent the gross value to the plan if an extra unit of pasture could be made available at that time without reducing resources at other times. While the model structure

Effects of pasture nitrogen are discussed in section 11.4.

More accurately, the shadow prices represent the quantity dZ/dp where Z = gross margin of plan and p = pasture DM available in the period.

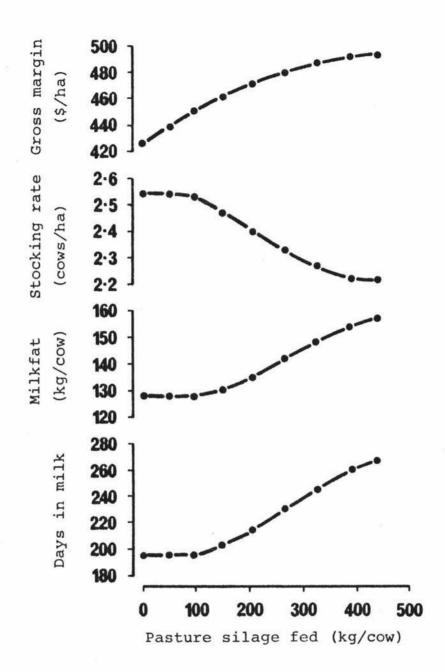


Figure 11.2 Effects of limiting conservation in an all-grass system.

does not permit real shortfalls in feed supply, McRae (1976) has shown the validity of treating these values as indices of relative scarcity by using them to iteratively adjust the match between feed supply and demand and so progress to higher "optima".

At levels of silage feeding below 50 kg per cow, there was considerable meal feeding despite the presence of surplus pasture (see table 11.4). Where more conservation was permitted, such surplus could be transferred into summer and early autumn and displace the meal fed during feed deficits at that time. Below 100 kg silage per cow, this substitution was the mechanism responsible for increased gross margin, since there were no changes in cow numbers or productivity (see figure 11.2).

As conservation increased above 100 kg silage per cow, a decreasing number of better-fed cows was able to maintain and increase total milkfat production, while gross margin increased throughout. However, the increase in total milkfat (see table 11.4) was quite modest since only the timing of forage supply, not its total quantity, was changing significantly.

A general effect seen in table 11.4 is an increase in the differences between marginal pasture values in each season as conservation decreases. This serves simply to indicate the increasingly poor match between supply and demand with decreasing conservation. Adjustments made to minimize the mismatching were increases in stocking rate and shorter lactations. This results in increasing feed scarcity in July and August and a consequent shift towards August calving.

deficits and meal feeding in an all-grass system. Numbers in brackets Some effects of level of conservation on calving date, potential feed show tonnes of surplus pasture and the season in which they occurred. Table 11.4

Milkfat	Production (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	323	323	323	322	324	331	338	343	346
*	Meal fed (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )	148	108	49	24	0	0	0	0	0
lue	Jan-Apr	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.2	12.0	12.0	9.01	10.3	8.4
Mean marginal pasture DM value	-1) Oct-Dec	0.7(13)	0.7(6)	6.0	1.3	2.0	2.6	4.0	4.3	5.7
marginal pa	Jul-Sep (c kg	10.8	10.8	10.5	10.1	9.5	8.4	7.9	7.7	7.7
Mean	May-Jun <sup>1</sup>	. 8 ·	1.8	1.4	1.4	2.1	2.2	1.4	1.5	1.3
Median	date	AUG 4	AUG 4	AUG 4	AUG 2	JUL 30	JUL 28	JUL 25	JUL 22	JUL 19
600	(kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )	0	67	26	150	207	265	326	390	441
Percent of	conserved	0	7	80	12	16	20	24	28	32

1 Seasonal periods correspond approximately with dry period, and early, mid and late lactation respectively.

However, one of the more important results has, so far, been only implied. It is that all conserved feed, and meal, is fed in February and March. The only interpretation possible is that supplements are used to extend lactation and can do so economically by bridging a relatively short feed deficit between the end of vigorous pasture growth in early summer and the beginning of rapid autumn growth.

Important conclusions from this experiment are:

- (a) Milkfat production per hectare in all-grass systems can be largely maintained at low levels of conservation by increasing stocking rate and decreasing lactation length, as recommended by Ruakura workers (Campbell et al. 1977; Scott 1978). However, for the assumptions used here regarding Northland pasture, there was a considerable economic advantage in feeding cows for higher production.
- (b) While conservation used solely to produce extra milkfat through increasing level of production or by extending lactation length may be a doubtful economic proposition (Scott and Smeaton 1975; Bryant 1978), its value may be enhanced by using it to maintain lactation between two periods of adequate pasture growth.

With 20 percent or more cropping, there was, as already indicated in the previous section, sufficiently good match between forage supply and demand to enable the maximum assumed milkfat per cow using only small quantities (less than 100 kg per cow) of conserved feed. Thus, the effects of conservation in cropping systems must be primarily those involved in the second role of conservation mentioned above, maximizing forage yields and minimizing utilization losses.

Although no specific experimentation was conducted on this point, table 11.5 shows changes in forage yield, conservation level and efficiency of forage utilization in the CROP 40 system as stocking rate was changed in the experiment already described. This table clearly shows that while forage grown increased by 40 percent and conservation of forage grown increased from 5 to 30 percent, there was no change in overall efficiency of dry matter utilization. This was achieved in the model by grazing crops at a stage of maturity when grazing losses were at their lowest and nutritive values at their highest. In turn, this was achieved by growing a mix of crops with differing maturity times. For example, at a stocking rate of 3.4 cows per ha a total of 11.9 ha of winter greenfeed consisted of 4.4 ha cereal/Tama, 4.4 ha sub clover and 3.1 ha winter legume. In practice, serial plantings of particular forage might fulfil the same function.

Table 11.5 Influence of stocking rate on forage production, level of conservation and efficiency of forage utilization with a fixed 40 percent of the farm area cropped.

	DM grown	DM conserved	DM/MF
	$(kg ha^{-1})$	(%)	(kg)
Stocking rate			
(cows ha <sup>-1</sup> )			
2.46	11794	5	29.8
2.60	12515	5	29.9
2.80	13476	12	29.9
3.00	14466	17	30.0
3.20	15452	24	30.0
3.40	16534	30	30.2

Results with the other cropping systems were very similar. The conclusion that conservation will result in maximal forage yields without necessarily lower utilization losses than grazing must be qualified by recognition of the importance in model solutions of maize silage. Maize is one of the few crops which maintains high digestibility at maturity and so can combine high yield with high nutritive value. Generalizing with respect to other crops, high yields approaching maturity are associated with poor utilization in the case of grazing or with low nutritive value in the case of conservation.

#### 11.4 PASTURE NITROGEN

The effects of nitrogen fertilizer on pasture growth are not well known for dairy pastures; the effects on milk production and profitability in whole systems have only been guessed at. This study provides an opportunity to estimate the latter.

The effects of pasture nitrogen in facilitating a different pattern of feed supply is confounded with stocking rate, increases in which result in a greater potential mismatch of supply and demand. Thus, in the comparison between all-grass systems with and without pasture nitrogen (see table 11.6), there is only a very slight increase in milkfat production per cow but an 18 percent increase in stocking rate. However, an additional 30 t of pasture silage in the latter system is made economic by strategic pasture nitrogen.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Defined as the presence of black-layer development on kernels (Menalda and Kerr 1973).

Table 11.6 Comparison of structure and performance of an all-grass system with and without pasture nitrogen.

		Without N	With N
Pasture N	(ha)		
August		H	50
September		-	50
April		-	5
Pasture silage	(t)	49	79
Total DM	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	9500	11590
Stocking rate	$(cows ha^{-1})$	2.22	2.60
Milkfat per cow	(kg)	157	159
Milkfat per ha	(kg)	349	414
Gross margin	(\$)	493	514

Another means of indicating where additional pasture nitrogen might improve system performance is to calculate what response or what price would make nitrogen economic. The breakeven responses shown in figure 11.3 are calculated from:

$$\frac{Px}{MVPy}$$
  $\frac{1}{0.75}$ 

where Px is the price per unit of nitrogen MVPy is the shadow price of pasture dry matter and it is assumed, as before, that only 75 percent of the response can be utilized.

To preserve clarity only three systems are shown in the figure but the curves for all cropping systems follow the Sudax one shown quite closely. Calculations for different nitrogen prices would only be valid if it could be assumed that no other prices, especially that of milkfat, changed. The pattern is similar for all systems with breakeven responses of around 10 kg DM per kg N in mid winter, late summer and

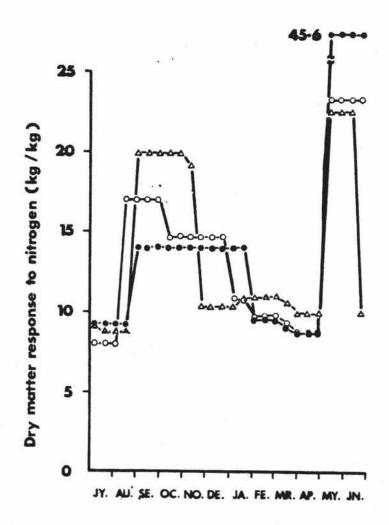


Figure 11.3 Responses necessary to make pasture nitrogen economic at a nitrogen price of \$0.60kg<sup>-1</sup> (Solid circles all-grass without N; open circles, all grass with N; open triangles, 20% of farm area in Sudax-subclover).

and early autumn but higher responses in spring, late autumn and early winter.

It is not possible to predict, for any particular assumed responses and system, how much nitrogen would be used or what its effects would be. But the consistency between systems in the quantity of nitrogen used, especially in spring, suggests that nitrogen has an important role to play in both changing pattern of feed supply and in increasing yields generally.

#### 11.5 POTENTIAL OF A SUMMER-GROWING GRASS

As mentioned in chapter 8, the sub-tropical grass Hemarthria altissima was being considered as a potential forage source for Northland. Although a good way off being proven as a practical proposition, indications of its potential value to production and profitability when integrated into a dairy feeding system were considered desirable as a basis for continuing agronomic research.

A system having H. altissima as a forage source (HEMARTH) but otherwise with the same constraints as CROPOPT is compared with that system and an all-grass system (CROPO) in table 11.7. In this comparison, each system is at its optimal stocking rate. The large difference in productivity between CROPO and HEMARTH was due primarily to the much higher assumed yield of H. altissima compared with conventional pasture, together with the presence of maize silage. The resulting 36 percent increase in total forage yield was reflected in increases of more than 30 percent in stocking rate and milkfat production and a 21 percent increase in gross margin.

Table 11.7 Comparison of a system containing Hemarthria altissima (HEMARTH) with an all-grass system (CROPO) and an unconstrained cropping system (CROPOPT), each at its optimal stocking rate.

		CROPOPT	HEMARTH	CROPO
Conventional pasture	(ha)	20.1	1.3	50.0
Hemarthria	(ha)	-	37.6	
Summer greenfeed	(ha)	18.9	0	_
Silage maize	(ha)	11.0	11.1	-
Winter greenfeed	(ha)	29.1	11.1	-
Total forage DM	$(kg ha^{-1})$	15420	15789	11593
Stocking rate	(cows ha 1)	3.14	3.40	2.60
Milkfat production	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	506	548	414
Gross margin	(\$ ha <sup>-1</sup> )	586	623	514

However, when compared with the unconstrained cropping system (CROPOPT), HEMARTH had very similar forage yields although there were substantial differences in stocking rate, milkfat production and profitability. This was clearly the result of H. altissima replacing all the summer greenfeed and more than half of the winter greenfeed, giving generally higher quality forage at lower cost.

This result, together with the presence of H. altissima in many plans derived during model development and validation, confirms that efforts to find new summer growing grasses for Northland (Taylor et al. 1976c) could be very rewarding. It shows also how the benefits of any particular pattern of forage availability added to any chosen base system could be estimated.

## 11.6 EFFECTS OF CHANGES IN FORAGE YIELD AND QUALITY

A common goal of physiological and agronomic research is to increase crop yield or quality. The sensitivity of a Northland dairy system to changes in yield and quality of forage was examined using maize. Greenfeed maize, a relatively minor forage source in the systems so far discussed, was excluded so that there could be no direct effect on distribution of forage yield and quality through the year, only on total quantity.

Two experiments were carried out. In both, maize yield in a 30 percent cropping system was varied parametrically from 14.3 to 20.3 t per ha. In the first experiment, there were three metabolizable energy densities (10.0, 10.5, 11.0 MJ per kg) at each yield level. In the second there were three crude protein concentrations (5.0, 7.5, 10.0 percent) at each yield level.

Analyses of variance, shown in tables 11.8 and 11.9 indicate large effects of yield, smaller effects of nutritive value, and very little interaction. The mean effects of yield variation on productivity and profitability are summarized in figure 11.4. Increasing responses up to 16.7 t per ha were associated with increasing areas of maize in the respective optimal plans. The extra maize area resulted from displacement of greenfeed Sudax and to a lesser extent, silage oats.

Table 11.8 Analysis of variance of gross margin per ha as affected by DM yield and ME concentration of maize silage.

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Mean square
Yield	5	2708
ME	2	794
Yield x ME	10	13

Table 11.9 Analysis of variance of gross margin per ha as affected by DM yield and crude protein concentration of maize silage

Source of variation	Degrees of freedom	Mean square
Yield	5	2622
CP	2	436
Yield x CP	10	41

Average system response in the linear interval between 16.7 t ha<sup>-1</sup> and 20.3 t ha<sup>-1</sup> was 5.07¢ per kg yield increase. As indicated by the lower rate of response at maize yields below 16.7 t ha<sup>-1</sup> (see figure 11.4) the rate of response of the whole system to yield change must depend on the proportion of total area in maize.

The responses to changing maize yield estimated in this experiment are very close to those predicted by the solution shadow prices of maize silage dry matter, as shown by the comparison in table 11.10. The diminishing returns of table 11.10 translate into increasing returns in figure 11.4 because of the increasing optimal area of silage maize up to a maize yield of 16.7 t ha<sup>-1</sup>.

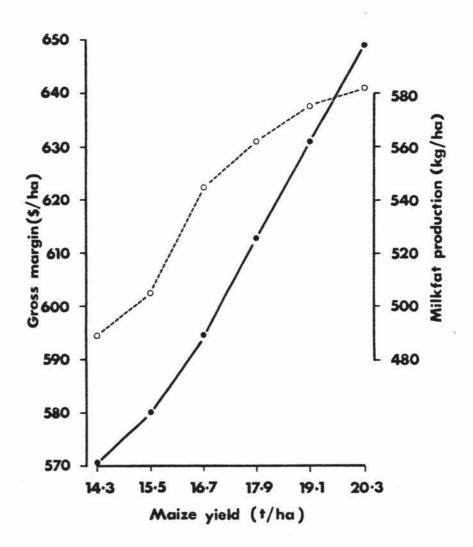


Figure 11.4 Effect of maize yield variation on gross margin (---) and on milkfat production (---)

Table 11.10 Predicted and observed response to increases in silage maize yield (c per kg yield increase).

	Predicted	Observed
	marginal	marginal
The state of the s	value	value
Maize		
yield		
14.3	5.64	$(5.43)^1$
15.5	5.42	(5.24)
16.7	5.10	5.09
17.9	5.08	5.07
19.1	5.07	5.06
20.3	5.04	-

Values in brackets are estimated from mean area of maize between two plans.

Diminishing response in milkfat production with increasing yield (see figure 11.4) above 16.7 t per ha was associated with a diminishing rate of increase in total forage grown as increasing areas of lower-yielding forages such as sub clover were grown to supplement diet quality.

The close agreement between predicted and observed (through model manipulation) responses to maize yield increase (in table 11.10) suggests that, where other forage sources are being used at near-optimum levels, their shadow prices may be used as an indication of potential system response to yield increase. Such predictions are discussed in chapter 12.

The effect of a change in energy concentration is almost identical with the effect of a change in energy yield resulting from a change in dry matter yield. Taking the top three curves of figure 11.5 to represent the maximum rate of response to increasing energy density, the mean response is 0.608 c MJ<sup>-1</sup>, compared with a response of 0.578 c MJ<sup>-1</sup> when energy yield was increased by increasing silage dry matter yield. The similarity of these responses indicates that metabolizable energy yield, where ME density is greater than 10 MJ kg<sup>-1</sup>, is a reasonable basis for comparison of forages, providing they are fitted into an appropriate system, a conclusion also reached when comparing responses to yield change in pasture and maize (Miller 1980).

Maximum responses to changes in crude protein content were 10.5 - 12.2 c kg<sup>-1</sup> crude protein, a good deal less than the cost of protein supplements. Protein supplement was used at rates up to 37 kg cow<sup>-1</sup> but the extra protein supplement fed with maize silage of low protein content was less than half of the difference in system protein resulting from differences in maize silage protein content (see table 11.11). Larger quantities of sub clover, smaller quantities of cereal silage and adjustments in timing of various forages were the other main mechanisms of maintaining protein intake.

Table 11.11 Differences in crude protein supplementation expressed as a percentage of the difference in crude protein contained in maize silage.

Maize yield	Maize crude pro	otein interval
(t ha <sup>-1</sup> )	10.0-7.5	7.5-5.0
17.9	37	12
19.1	39	36
20.3	35	44

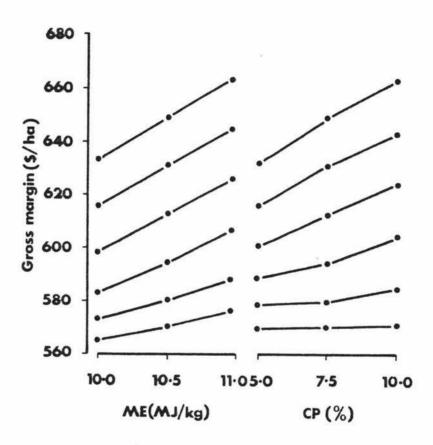


Figure 11.5 Effects of metabolizable energy and crude protein concentration of maize silage on gross margin at six yield levels. Yield levels are those of figure 11.4 and increase from bottom to top.

There is no way of comparing directly the responses to crude protein changes with the responses to change in yield or energy density. However, on a density basis, variation of  $\stackrel{+}{-}$  50 percent in crude protein had effects similar to that produced by variation of  $\stackrel{+}{-}$  5 percent in energy density. It must be concluded that, in a relative sense, energy is by far the most important aspect of diet and that the conclusions reached about maize would apply to other forages in a similar way.

#### 11.7 EFFECTS OF HIGHER PRODUCING COWS

Possible understatement of the benefits of forage cropping and conservation through limiting cows to a maximum annual 161 kg milkfat<sup>6</sup> was assessed by including cows with a potential of 190 kg milkfat and with feed requirements extrapolated from those described in chapter 6. With respect to feed production possibilities the model had no constraints additional to those described in chapter 9.

#### Details of the resulting plan were:

Stocking rate	$3.0 \text{ cows ha}^{-1}$
Proportion of farm cropped	57 percent
Forage grown	$15.4 t ha^{-1}$
Silage fed	950 kg cow <sup>-1</sup>
Days in milk	267 days
Milkfat per cow	176 kg
Milkfat per ha	520 kg
Gross margin per ha	\$596

During the 42 weeks of lactation, dietary energy density was limiting for 12 weeks, dietary protein density for 8 weeks

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Foreshadowed in section 10.3.6.

and both for a further 4 weeks. Energy density was within 0.25 MJ ME per kg of being limiting for a further 8 weeks. Since half these limitations occurred in early lactation when appetite is high, and since all forage options were available, it must be concluded that this level of cow productivity is close to the economic limit with the voluntary intake limits assumed. The increase in gross margin associated with these higher producing cows was only \$9.94 per ha. The economic response to allowing higher per cow production in an all-grass system could, because of less restrictive quality limitations, possibly be higher than this if there were no other effects. Practically, decreasing efficiency of pasture utilization brought about by lower grazing pressure would likely nullify any such extra response (Hutton 1971).

### 11.8 EFFECTS OF CLIMATIC VARIABILITY

All the results so far refer to an assumed average year. It is necessary, in a study of this type, to expand the domain of the results (or to falsify the initial results) by subjecting the systems in question to deliberate disturbance.

Variations in economic assumptions are dealt with in a subsequent section. This section is concerned with the effects of seasonal variability on system performance. There is no intention of finding, for particular kinds of systems, a plan which maximizes expected value under uncertainty, although there are some fairly elaborate linear programming formulations designed for the purpose (Hazell 1971; Rae 1971; Wicks and Guise 1978). What is required is a comparison between selected systems in their reaction to seasonal variability. This was achieved by running eight selected systems through nine arbitrary seasons.

#### 11.8.1 DEFINITION OF SIMPLIFIED SYSTEMS

The results of the stocking rate x cropping level experiments suggested that, at least for assumed average conditions, a number of cropping levels, conservation levels and stocking rates had to be considered. Systems designed to represent a variety of combinations could have been chosen from among the optimal plans generated in the stocking rate x cropping level experiments. They would have been not only arbitrary but also unnecessarily complex. Some may even have been agronomically and logistically infeasible by implying such anomalies as legume - legume rotations and conservation of three different silages.

A more subjective selection of systems, to include some which were under evaluation in the field, was made by taking three levels of cropping, 0, 20 and 40 percent and specifying at least two levels of conservation systems in each. In all-grass systems, level of nitrogen usage was an additional major factor which could be used for subdivision. Eight systems were finally specified:

- (a) GRASSA An all-grass, no nitrogen system in which conservation was limited to that necessary to obviate any requirement to purchase feed. This system is typical of many existing dairy farms and represents the kind of system often recommended for North Island dairying districts (Hutton and Bryant 1976; Campbell et al. 1977; Scott 1978).
- (b) GRASSB An all-grass, no nitrogen system with an optimal level of conservation. This is meant to represent the limit of the previous system without introducing any new technology.

- (c) GRASSN An all-grass system with optimal nitrogen use and conservation. It represents the first step into relatively unorthodox technology. Because nitrogen application is limited to 50 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> at only three times of the year, the system by no means represents the limits of pasture production.
- (d) SUDAX A system with 20 percent of farm area in a Sudax-subterranean clover rotation. Agronomically the rotation seems to be viable and it has been successfully integrated into a dairy feeding system (Jurlina 1978). It is relatively unsophisticated in its requirements for additional machinery and skills. Pasture silage is the only conservation possible.
- (e) MZCER A system with 20 percent of farm area in a maize-oats rotation and all crop conserved. It should achieve maximum utilization of all forage grown and maximum yields from forage crops but would demand quite sophisticated farming techniques.
- (f) MZRCLOV A system where at any time, 20 percent of farm area is in red clover and 20 percent in a maizecereal rotation. The two areas would alternate with each other every three years to maximize agronomic benefits from the legume ley (Taylor and Hughes 1976). To avoid the small quantities of cereal silage produced in preliminary experiments with this system, cereal could only be grazed in the final specification.
- (g) MZSDX This system was an attempt to simplify the optimal but complex cropping plan (CROPOPT) generated in the stocking rate x cropping level experiments. Sudax-sub clover was specified on 20 percent of the farm and maize-cereal on another 20 percent. Again, winter cereal could only be grazed.
- (h) FREE With no constraints other than those of the basic model this "system" provided, in most situations, a benchmark against which the performance of sub-optimal systems could be compared. In some experiments, its capacity for adjustment was limited, for reasons detailed in the appropriate place.

To justify use of these systems it was first necessary to calculate their sub-optimality with respect to the unsimplified systems having the same cropping level. Except for GRASSA, a system designed to be significantly sub-optimal, all simplified systems had gross margins within \$20.00 per ha of the maximum gross margin for their respective cropping levels (see figure 11.1). In the case of GRASSA the difference was \$45.00 per ha. Other features of these simplified systems are shown in tables 11.12 and 11.13.

Table 11.12 Structure of representative systems in an average year.

	Pasture	Greenfe Summer	d crops Winter	Crop s Summer	ilage Winter	Pasture silage	Pasture N <sup>1</sup>
	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )
051001	(50.)2					V (27)	
GRASSA	$(50)^2$	-	<del>-</del>	-	-	(6)	-
GRASSB	(50)	-	_	_	-	14	
GRASSN	(50)	-		-	_	23	105
SUDAX	(40)	(10)	(10)	-	-	16	112
MZCER	(40)	-	2-2	(10)	(10)	0	125
MZRCLOV	(30)	15	(20)	5	_	0	120
MZSDX	(30)	12	(20)	8	-	2	133
FREE	20	19	29	11	. 1	0	144

<sup>1</sup> See footnote to table 11.1

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Numbersin brackets were fixed in advance.

Discussed in sections 11.2 and 11.3.

Performance of representative systems in an average year Table 11.13

	DM grown (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Stocking rate (cows ha")	Milkfat production (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> ) (kg ha <sup>-1</sup>	roduction (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Gross margin (\$ ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Variance of feed supply <sup>1</sup>
GRASSA	9500	2.40	135	324	471	27.5
GRASSB	9500	2.22	157	349	493	8.1
GRASSN	11590	2.60	159	414	514	7.9
SUDAX	12590	2.70	161	436	552	5.8
MZCER	14390	3.16	161	501	555	1.1
MZRCLOV	13790	2.90	161	997	564	3.3
MZSDX	14660	3.06	161	491	. 845	4.5
FREE	15420	3.14	161	906	586	. 2.8
		٠				

of marginal value product for dry matter in each fortnight. See text for full details. 1 An index of difficulty in matching feed supply and demand. Calculated as the variance

In table 11.13, variance of feed supply is given to demonstrate the difference between systems in feed scarcity through the year. The reasoning behind this index requires some explanation. A linear programming solution tableau provides information concerning the scarcity of resources. may indicate that the resource is not scarce at all by having a surplus or it may give a "shadow price" for the resource, indicating the marginal value product of an increase in nutrients is expressed in the surpluses and shadow prices of the 26 metabolizable energy rows, 26 crude protein rows and 26 dry matter appetite rows. Since neither appetite restrictions nor crude protein are normally limiting it is proposed that the metabolizable energy rows be used as an index of feed scarcity. In order that the shadow prices of these rows can be compared with the costs of providing supplements, the values are converted to a dry matter equivalent, assuming a "standard" forage ME concentration (M/D) of 11.0 MJ kg -1. However, where crude protein is also limiting, the shadow price of crude protein can similarly be converted to a dry matter equivalent. This is done by assuming that any useful protein supplement would need to contain 20 percent crude protein. Where both protein and energy are scarce the highest of the two shadow prices so calculated is taken to represent feed scarcity. Crude protein and appetite limitations, where indicated, mean that the shadow prices given according to the above scheme are valid only for diets of the same or better quality.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Strictly, in a maximization problem, the shadow price is the decrease in value of the objective function for a marginal decrease in resource supply.

#### 11.8.2 DEFINITION OF SEASONAL VARIABILITY

Seasonal variability, expressed for the purpose of this model as variation in yield of pasture and crop, could be defined in several ways. One is to subject the model to a sequence of historical years. Historical yields, while real within the limits of measurement error, imply a considerable data base and would require a considerable number of years to establish a pattern of response. These data are not available.

Random sampling from defined yield distributions would be difficult when many of the forage yields would be correlated with each other and would show autocorrelation with time. As with sampling historical years, a large number of years would need to be simulated to derive stable means and there would be little opportunity to analyse the effects of individual seasons.

A third possibility is to choose the extreme seasons of interest and specify yields for those seasons. An example might be to take the driest summer-autumn on record, take yields recorded or estimated for that season and assume that system reaction to this circumstance characterizes its stability or lack thereof.

The approach adopted here was to specify a number of arbitrary seasons, defining yield in each according to some assumed distribution. Such an approach recognizes that yields are variable because of climatic variation but that equally, because of limited observation, there is great uncertainty as to the actual means, variances and correlations. For many of the forages considered here there were less than ten estimates of yield, more than one often having been made in a single year.

It was first necessary to define the seasons. Subjective assessments of the merits of seasons made by people with experience of Northland made frequent mention of spring,

summer and early autumn. To simplify interpretation it was decided to define variability only for that part of the year between October 7 and April 20 and assume constant average conditions in the remainder of the year. Some justification of this decision is to be found in the results of simulating 16 years of pasture growth at Kaitaia. Standard deviations were 2-10 kg ha<sup>-1</sup> day<sup>-1</sup> between May and September while the range was 8-22 kg ha 1 day during the period assumed variable. However, it was also clear from the results of these simulations that variation in late spring - early summer growth was largely due to temperature variations while that in late summer - early autumn was mainly due to variations in soil moisture status. An arbitrary division was therefore made at January 12-13 giving two variable seasons, each 14 weeks long. Because the sources of variation differ in kind there was reason to suppose that the seasons were independent; no significant correlation was found between the sums of 16 years pasture growth in the two seasons. Therefore, allowing for the possibility in each season of above average, below average, and average conditions provided for a total of nine different kinds of years.

Next, in was necessary to define above and below average seasons in probability terms. This was done by taking a standard normal probability curve, cutting off 2.5 percent in each tail and dividing the remaining area into three equal parts (see figure 11.6) and assuming seasons would occur in each area with equal probability. Each area was represented by the point of median probability, the point dividing each area into two halves of equal probability (see figure 11.6). Thus, the points chosen to represent above average (G), average (M) and below average (B) seasons are  $(\bar{x} + 0.903 \text{ S.D.})$ ,  $\bar{x}$ , and  $(\bar{x} - 0.903 \text{ S.D.})$  respectively, where  $\bar{x}$  = mean and S.D. = standard deviation.

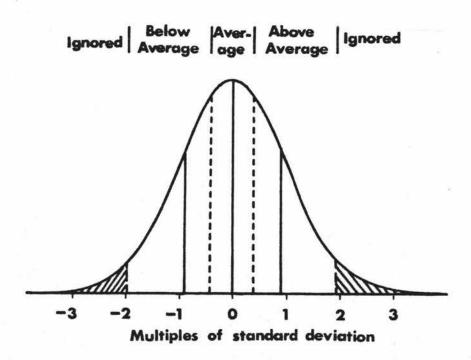


Figure 11.6 Areas of equal probability of a standard normal probability distribution with 2.5 percent cut off in each tail. Solid vertical lines halve each area.

Defining forage yields corresponding to these points was a two-stage process. First, the standard deviation of yield of each crop was estimated from yields of all siteyear combinations available. For the purposes of this estimation, the justification for regarding between-site and between-year variation as equivalent lies in the wide variation between sites in moisture retention capacity of soils and in rainfall pattern over short distances (Gradwell 1971; Taylor personal communication). Pasture yield variability was estimated from data of Piggot et al. (1978) for the October 7 - January 12 period (hereafter labelled "summer" in this context) and from the simulation results for the January 13 - April 20 period (hereafter "autumn"). These sources had originally been used for pasture growth means in the two periods. The resulting coefficients of variation were 27 percent in "summer" and 54 percent in "autumn". These estimates referred to total pasture yield in each 14 week period.

Secondly, this total variability was apportioned among the seven fortnights of each period in proportion to the standard deviation calculated for each fortnight. By so doing it was assumed that a particular season type, say, below average, would be uniformly so throughout 14 weeks. The pasture growth patterns so assumed are shown in figure 11.7.

The standard deviations calculated for crops in some cases combine variability from each of the variable seasons, so it was necessary to apportion it between them. This was accomplished by assuming that "autumn" variability was twice that of "summer" variability, as calculated for pasture. In the cases when one type of "autumn" followed a different type of "summer" it was necessary to apply the estimates of variability to net growth so that the final yield of, say, greenfeed maize in an average "autumn" depended on whether the preceding "summer" had been average or above or below average. The final variability assumed for all important forage

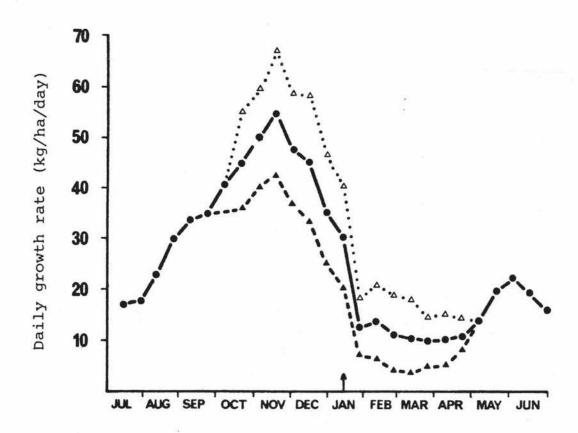


Figure 11.7 Assumed seasonal variation in pasture growth (mean—, above average ..., below average ---). Division into "summer" and "autumn" shown by arrow.

sources is shown in table 11.14. It is important to note that any comparison between forages is really a comparison between forage-environment combinations. There is, for instance, no deliberate implication that red clover is more resistant to drought than maize; it may well have been grown on betterwatered sites.

Table 11.14 Assumed variability of forage yields in Northland

	Coefficien	ts of Variat	ion (%)
	"Summer"	"Autumn"	Total
Pasture	27	54	_
Greenfeed maize	14	27	25
Sudax	12	23	19
Winter cereals	27		_
Red clover	12	24	20
Winter legumes	27	~	-

For this set of experiments, yield of silage maize is assumed constant. In model solutions the bulk of maize silage is fed before the current maize silage crop is harvested, implying carryover from the previous year. Since maize yields between consecutive summers are likely to be independent in practice, there was no theoretical basis for varying carried-over maize silage in response to current season. 9

The nine seasonal combinations are referenced as BB, BM, BG, MB, MM, MG, GB, GM, GG where the first letter of each pair refers to "summer", the second to "autumn", B refers to below-average, M to average and G to above-average.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> However, see section 11.9 where the effects of independently varying silage maize yield are estimated.

# 11.8.3 THE LINEAR PROGRAMMING MODEL AS AN OPTIMIZING SIMULATOR

As already envisaged, the experimental plan called for a scheme which would optimize feed allocation in a relatively fixed system. Selection of a range of representative systems has already been dealt with<sup>10</sup> but the only fixed aspect of these was their cropping areas.

In practice, many other aspects of a farm plan are fixed, or at least constrained within limits, in advance of seasonal variation. Cow numbers and calving times are to a large extent determined at the beginning of the (July to June) year; spring nitrogen must be applied to pasture before there are any indications of late spring-early summer feed deficits; pasture silage must be made before the extent of these feed deficits are known but after seasonal variation has begun. Specific limits are detailed in table 11.15. Here it may be noted that cow numbers, calving times and spring pasture nitrogen, activities all requiring decision before seasonal variation is assumed to begin, were fixed at their optimal values for average conditions. Pasture silage was fixed at its average-season optimal level for average "summers" but was allowed to exceed this value in above-average "summers". In below-average "summers", pasture conservation was limited to half optimal level so that the model could not conserve surpluses for silage in anticipation of feed deficits later in the summer or in the autumn. The last line of table 11.15 refers to an assumption that in good seasons maize originally destined for silage may be fed off as greenfeed; conversely

<sup>10</sup> In section 11.8.1

this constraint prevents poor autumns from being anticipated. The other modification for these experiments was provision for higher production per cow so that the system could respond to above average conditions with fixed cow numbers. Because higher production per cow, as specified here, is very profitable, the possibility was permitted only in above-average seasons.

Table 11.15 Additional constraints for seasonal variability experiments.

_		
Type	of	"Summer"

	above average	average	below average	
July calving cows	= M	= M	= M	
August calving cows	= M	= M	= M	
Spring pasture N	= M	= M	= M	
Pasture silage	≥ M	= M	< 0.5M	
Area silage maize/ Total maize area	≼ M	≤ M	≤ M	

M represents the activity value in the optimal plan for an average season.

A somewhat arbitrary division has been made between feeding activities and those activities concerned with feed production and cow nutrient requirements. All the foregoing limitations apply to feed production and cow requirements and numbers and, as in previous experimentation with the model, no explicit constraints at all were imposed on the manner in which forage is apportioned to cows through the year.

This is entirely consistent with early decisions 11 to compare systems at an "optimum" level of management, though it clearly permits a degree of foreknowledge not usually granted in true simulators. The limiting values are those resulting from optimal solutions in average seasons and are shown in table 11.16. The only seasonal constraints on FREE were stocking rate, calving time and maximum silage maize area. Total crop area, spring pasture nitrogen and crop silage, activities limited in various ways in all other plans, were not limited in any season for the FREE plan.

Table 11.16 Average-season values (M) of constraints added for seasonal variability experiments.

	Crop area (%)	Stocking Rate (cows ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Med: cal- da	ving	Spring pasture nitrogen (kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	Pasture silage (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )	Crop silage (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )
GRASSA	0	2.40	JUL	30	0	175	_
GRASSB	0	2.22	JUL	20	0	440	_
GRASSN	0	2.60	AUG	2	100	615	-
SUDAX	20	2.70	AUG	9	96	420	
MZCER	20	3.16	AUG	2	100	0	1270
MZRCLOV	40	2.90	JUL	22	100	0	420
MZSDX	40	3.06	JUL	17	93	45	600
FREE	NL	3.14	AUG	1	NL	0	NL

NL = no limits except a maximum 22% of farm area in silage maize.

<sup>11</sup> Detailed in chapters 9 and 10.

Over the full range of specified seasons, gross margin varied by up to 30 percent above and below average. Generally, there was a larger response to below-average than to aboveaverage seasons, so that mean performance over all seasons (these are the means referred to subsequently in this section) was usually lower than performance in an average season. was partly due to the limited potential for increased production per cow, but largely due to the curvilinearity of the milk production function, as shown by the fact that milk production never fell to its lowest possible level of 117 kg per cow (see table 11.20). The range of gross margins for each system are shown in table 11.17. All minimum gross margins occurred in a year when both "summer" and "autumn" were below-average and all maximums occurred in a year when both "summer" and "autumn" were above-average. The rankings of the three parameters of table 11.17 were almost identical with the ranking of gross margin in an average season. The major exceptions concerned MZCER which was less variable than all other systems except FREE.

Table 11.17 Mean and extreme values of gross margin (\$ ha<sup>-1</sup>) in nine seasons.

GRASSA	GRASSB	GRASSN	SUDAX	MZCER	MZRCLOV	MZSDX	FREE
471	493	514	552	555	564	578	586
308	339	382	381	431	422	429	501
452	481	509	544	555	560	574	604
579	590	619	662	657	664	689	714
79	77	80	88	71	74	82	66
	471 308 452 579	471 493 308 339 452 481 579 590	471     493     514       308     339     382       452     481     509       579     590     619	471     493     514     552       308     339     382     381       452     481     509     544       579     590     619     662	471     493     514     552     555       308     339     382     381     431       452     481     509     544     555       579     590     619     662     657	471     493     514     552     555     564       308     339     382     381     431     422       452     481     509     544     555     560       579     590     619     662     657     664	471     493     514     552     555     564     578       308     339     382     381     431     422     429       452     481     509     544     555     560     574       579     590     619     662     657     664     689

S.D. = standard deviation

An analysis of variance of gross margin for the 7 system x 9 season combinations is summarized in table 11.18. Interactions had relatively minor effects in contrast to seasons and to systems. As far as systems are concerned, the absence of interaction implies that systems with higher mean gross margin dominate those with lower gross margin. whatever season two systems were compared in, their gross margin ranking would remain unchanged. Nevertheless, for the purposes of this study, it is pertinent to look at the responses of individual systems to seasonal variation. are depicted in figure 11.8 where there are indications that the all-grass, no-nitrogen systems (GRASSA and GRASSB) performed relatively poorly in good "summers" and in poor "autumns". The former characteristic is a consequence of the inflexibility of these systems in utilizing surplus pasture in October-November and May-June. In other systems, a combination of strategic nitrogen, conservation and cropping permitted full use of forage grown. Poor "autumns", on the other hand, resulted in intensive meal feeding in GRASSA and GRASSB because in these systems, cows are already underfed in average conditions and thus have limited flexibility to be fed at a still lower plane of mutrition.

Table 11.18 Analysis of variance of gross margin as affected by systems and seasons.

Source of variation	Degrees	of freedom	Mean square
System	6		18606
Season	8		
summer		2	149283
autumn		2	41198
summer x autumn		4	984
System x Season	48		
system x summer		12	246
system x autumn		12	249
system x summer x autumn		24	63

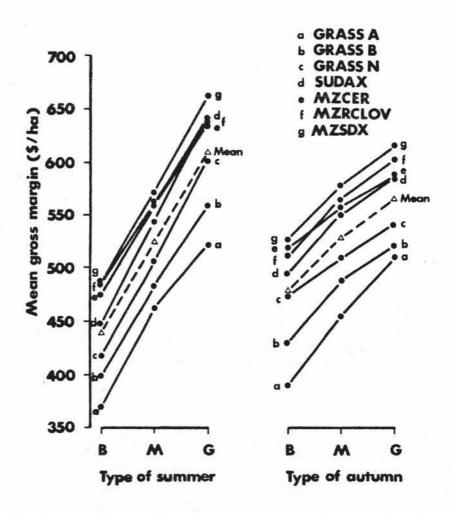


Figure 11.8 System responses to seasonal variation

The other main feature of figure 11.8 is that average "summer" responses were larger than "autumn" responses. But when related to the actual variation in forage yield, a procedure analagous to making the length of the x-axis of figure 11.8 proportional to the range in forage yield, there was almost no difference. Mean "summer" response was 9.2 c change in gross margin per kg change in total forage yield and mean "autumn" response was 9.6 c kg<sup>-1</sup>.

In order to relate the response in gross margin to all seasonal variation in forage yield, least squares estimates of the response of each system over all nine seasons were calculated and are shown in table 11.19 along with average and extreme forage yields. The regression coefficients show that increasing responses accompany increasing cropping and conservation. The high value for MZCER was associated with normal variability of gross margin, with the possible exception of poor "autumns" (see figure 11.8), but with a lower than average dry matter variability. The high conservation apparently permitted efficient reorganization of feeding according to seasonal circumstances.

Table 11.19 Total forage dry matter, and mean response of gross margin to season by seven systems.

	То	Least			
	BB	MM (kg	GG ha <sup>-1</sup> )	S.D.	Squares GM/DM (c kg <sup>-1</sup> )
GRASSA	7890	9500	11110	970	7.46
GRASSB	7890	9500	11110	970	7.81
GRASSN	9890	11590	13110	960	8.20
SUDAX	10630	12590	14270	1030	8.43
MZCER	13420	14390	15220	540	13.05
MZRCLOV	12770	13790	14750	710	9.60
MZSDX	13240	14650	15810	840	9.56

Other physical aspects of system performance in variable seasons are summarized in table 11.20. The relative similarity among fixed systems in the extent of variation of milkfat production and lactation length disguises an important difference between systems. This is that the first four systems were not self contained, all requiring substantial amounts of meal to maintain lactation in poor seasons. Meal feeding at the levels indicated in table 11.20 was an optimum economic level. Minimum levels of meal consistent with model physical constraints would result in lower levels of milkfat production in the first four systems, together with lower gross margins as a result of having to recoup large cow bodyweight losses.

The main feed production adjustments made in variable seasons are shown in tables 11.21 and 11.22. The only unrealistic adjustments amongst all these were the large increases in pasture silage areas of the MZRCLOV and MZSDX systems in GB seasons. Here, it could be argued that the increase was only made in the knowledge of an impending feed shortage in late summer and autumn. However, that it was a genuine pasture surplus is indicated by the observations that no meal was fed in that season and that milkfat per cow in that season was less than 3 kg below that in the GM and GG seasons.

In non-maize systems, the main feed production adjustment was in the area of pasture topdressed with nitrogen in autumn (table 11.21). It is possible that if higher levels of production per cow were assumed, there could be greater adjustments in these systems, perhaps in the quantity of pasture silage conserved. In the two all-grass systems, not detailed in table 11.21, there was only one possible adjustment besides those already discussed. That was the area of pasture conserved as silage. In both GRASSA and GRASSB, maximum silage was conserved in all below-average "summers" while minimum silage was conserved in above-average "summers".

Table 11.20 Summary of system performance in variable seasons.

		GRASSA	GRASSB	GRASSN	SUDAX	MZCER	MZRCLOV MZSDX	MZSDX	FREE
MF yield (kg ha-1)	Mean	334	344	408	429	509	697	487	526
	S.D.	30	42	50	67	42	75	67	24
	Minimum	301	288	337	320	435	386	397	506
	Maximum	393	405	897	488	562	528	979	559
MF prodn (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )	Mean	139	155	158	159	161	162	159	168
	S.D.	13	19	18	18	13.	15	16	₩
	Minimum	126	130	130	131	138	133	130	161
	Maximum	164	183	180	181	178	179	178	178
			9						
Lactation length	Mean	213	243	250	253	262	261	252	267
(days)	S.D.	15	22	19	.19	11	13	20	0
	Minimum	199	210	213	215	234	228	208	267
	Maximum	240	267	267	267	267	267	267	267
Maximum meal fed (kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )		37.1	223	130	153	5	10	0	0
					.5				

S.D. = standard deviation

Table 11.21 Feed production adjustments for variable seasons - systems without maize.

		Autumn pasture nitrogen	Pasture Area	silage Quantity
		(ha)	(ha)	(t)
GRASSN				
	BB	0	11.4	30
	BM	1	11.4	30
	BG	21	11.4	30
	MB	16	22.7	79
	MM	5	22.7	79
	MG	0	22.7	79
	GB	8	25.3	110
	GM	0	22.7	90
	GG	0	22.7	90
SUDAX				
	BB	12	8.1	21
	GM	24	8.1	21
	BG	22	8.1	21
	MG	26	16.1	56
	MM	13	16.1	56
	MG	0	16.1	56
	GB	16	15.0	
	GM	16	17.9	78
		0	16.1	69
	GG	0	16.1	66

Table 11.22 Feed production adjustments for variable seasons - systems with maize.

		Autumn pasture N	Pasture silage area	Maize a	
		(ha)	(ha)	(ha)	(ha)
MZRCLO	V				
	BB	30	0	4.9	5.1
	BM	30	0	4.9	5.1
	BG	28	0	4.9	5.1
	MB	29	0	4.9	5.1
	MM	12	0	4.9	5.1
	MG	12	0	7.1	2.9
	GB	21	12.0	4.9	5.1
	GM	12	1.6	5.4	4.6
	GG	0	1.6	6.7	3.3
MZSDX					
	BB	11	0	2.3	7.7
	BM	11	0	2.3	7.7
	BG	11	0	2.3	7.7
	MB	11	2.0	2.3	7.7
	MM	7	2.0	2.3	7.7
	MG	7	2.0	4.5	5.5
	GB	11	8.0	2.3	7.7
	GM	7	4.0	4.0	6.0
	GG	0	4.0	5.7	4.3
FREE					
	BB BM BG	27 24 22	0 0 0	9.6 7.4 6.1	11.0 11.0 11.0
	MB MM MG	21 18 20	0 0	7.7 4.8 1.7	11.0 11.0 8.4
	GB	24	4.8	7.7	11.0
	GM	19	4.6	3.6	8.9
	GG	9	2.1	0.7	5.6

In systems with maize, the additional potential adjustment was to divert maize from silage to greenfeed on the
assumption that maize silage already in storage and not required could be carried over for a further year. In both MZRCLOV
and MZSDX systems, substantial diversion of maize to greenfeed
occurred only in MG, GM or GG seasons, that is in an aboveaverage "autumn" following an average "summer" or where aboveaverage "summers" were followed by average or better "autumns".

Adjustments made by the less constrained FREE system serve to indicate what kind of strategies and structure minimize decreases in production and income even though the adjustments themselves might be unrealistic in a practical system. The major adjustment in feed production concerns cereal silage which increased from a nominal 6 t in an average season through 35-45 t in MB, BM and BG seasons to 90 t in a BB season. The extra cereal replaced sub clover and Sudax. Feed quality was maintained partly through increased use of meatmeal but mainly through a larger area of pasture, all of which was grazed. This latter result is somewhat surprising in that, of all forage sources, pasture yields are the most variable in "autumn" and at least as variable as any other in "summer". The stability offered by this structure of pasture with crop silage is even more pronounced than tables 11.17 and 11.20 suggest. Lower variability in production and gross margin is largely the result of better performance in belowaverage seasons whereas reaction to above-average seasons was similar to that of other systems.

The main purpose of this set of experiments was to test earlier conclusions under different climatic conditions. It is apparent that in both physical and financial performance, rankings of the systems were unchanged. This finding adds strength to earlier conclusions regarding the roles of pasture nitrogen, cropping, conservation, summer-growing grass, and higher yielding forage.

Two other conclusions are important. Firstly, it was shown that increasing cropping and conservation and pasture nitrogen reduces the effects of poor seasons. Secondly, greater use of crop silage to combat poor seasons requires greater use of higher quality forage, pasture in this case, to offset lower crop silage quality.

## 11.9 EFFECTS OF CONSERVATION ON DAMPING SEASONAL VARIABILITY

In the main experiment dealing with seasonal variation, the yield of silage maize was assumed not to vary with season. It was reasoned that since most of the maize silage fed in a variety of systems was fed before March 30, when maize is assumed to be harvested for silage, the silage must derive from a crop in the previous year. However, variation in yield of silage maize, even if independent of current seasonal conditions, may be expected to result in a greater variability of forage supply than previously assumed. An estimate of the contribution of silage maize yield variability would be useful on two counts. Firstly, it should provide an assessment of the degree to which the main experiment on climatic variability misrepresented a more realistic situation. Second, it should provide an estimate of the value of disconnecting, to some extent, feed supply from current seasonal conditions.

In each of the nine plans derived for MZCER in section 11.7, therefore, maize silage yields of 9.015 and 14.885 t per ha<sup>12</sup> were substituted for the previously assumed yield of 11.95 t per ha. Possible adjustments in these re-optimizations were limited to the same extent as in the previous section. In the

<sup>12</sup> Computed as for greenfeed maize in section 11.8.2.

case of MZCER, these comprised autumn pasture nitrogen, meal feeding, lactation length, plane of nutrition and forage allocation to cows. This gave a total of 27 solutions, enabling two main comparisons:

- (a) Between the mean of 9 solutions with constant maize yield and the mean of 27 solutions with independently varying maize yield. This estimates the extent to which the previous assumption of constant yield underestimates the variability of this system.
- (b) Between the mean of 27 solutions with independently varying maize yield and the mean of 9 of these solutions where maize yield varies with other forage yields as if the maize was being grown in the current season. This comparison estimates the extent to which variability is damped by storage of conserved feed from one season to an independent, subsequent season.

Some details of the physical adjustments made are shown in table 11.23. As in the previous section, most of the feed production adjustments were relatively minor and variation in forage yields was accommodated through changes in feeding pattern and consequently milkfat production. No pasture silage was made in any of the 27 solutions and the only forage detail not shown in table 11.23 is the occurrence of surplus cereal silage (up to 33 t) in some of the above-average seasons with high maize yield.

The two comparisons referred to above are summarized in table 11.24 and figure 11.9. The first comparison indicates that assuming constant yield resulted in only slight overestimation of mean gross margin and mean milkfat production (table 11.24). Under-estimation of variation was only slightly greater and would amount to a difference of only \$500.00 in net income of a 50 ha farm at a probability of one year in ten. These small differences are taken as justification for the decision not to vary silage maize yield in other systems.

It has to be recognized that maize silage in the MZCER system formed only about 20 percent of the total feed supply and that these simplifying assumptions could perhaps not be applied where the feed in question comprised a larger part of total feed supply.

Table 11.23 Adjustments made in the MZCER systems for variable seasons.

	7 . 7	Dairy Meal	Autumn pasture N	Days in milk	Milkfat production
		(t)	(ha)		(kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )
Maize Yield (t ha <sup>-1</sup> )					
	BB	20.8	40	228	134
9.015	MM	0	40	262	151
	GG	0	29	267	175
	BB	0.7	40	234	138
11.95	MM	0	20	267	161
	GG	0	0	267	177
	BB	0	40	267	151
14.885	MM	0	20	267	161
-	GG	0	0	267	178

Table 11.24 Effects of seasonal variation on variability of MZCER performance with maize yield constant, varying with current season, and varying independently.

2			Maize Yield	1
		Constant	Varying independently	Varying with current season
		(n=9)	(n=27)	(n=9)
Gross margin	Mean	555	550	547
(\$ ha <sup>-1</sup> )	S.D.	71	75	85
	Low (P=0.1)	464	454	438
	High (P=0.1)	646	646	656
Milkfat	Mean	509	506	504
(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	S.D.	42	42	45
	Low (P=0.1)	455	450	446
	High (P=0.1)	563	564	562
Milkfat	Mean	161	160	160
(kg cow <sup>-1</sup> )	S.D.	13	13	14
Total forage DM	Mean	14380	14380	14480
(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	S.D.	722	660	817

S.D. = standard deviation

The second comparison indicates that storage of feed from one year to the next had only minor effects on mean gross margin and milkfat production but a greater influence on reducing variability of gross margin, if not variability of production (table 11.24). Figure 11.9 shows that the reduction of variability was manifested primarily in autumn, reflecting the fact that, in these systems, maize silage was largely fed at that time. If the difference in slope of the response to variable autumns is taken as a measure of the damping effect

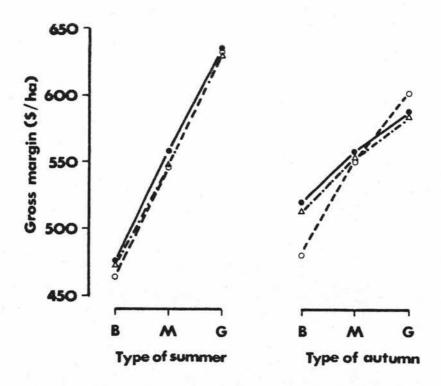


Figure 11.9 Responses of MZCER system to seasonal variation, assuming contant maize yield (——), and maize yield varying with current season (——) or independently (-.-)

of feed storage from year to year, the average effect was 1.6 c  $kg^{-1}$ , or, on a 50 ha farm, about \$1000.00. Again, were maize silage a larger component of the total diet, the effect would be magnified to some extent.

## 11.10 EFFECTS OF CHANGE IN COST/PRICE RATIO

The objectives of subjecting systems to different economic conditions are twofold, as in the previous two sections.

- (a) To test the robustness of earlier conclusions about agronomic-type questions.
- (b) To indicate the types of system which best withstand adverse economic conditions. There is no intention here of deriving detailed optimal plans for an uncertain future.

As a first step, an unconstrained system was reoptimized for a range of milkfat prices. Comparisons of profitability between the reoptimized plan and the original plan
under the new economic conditions gave an estimate of the
benefits of reoptimizing. Because of the flexibility of an
unconstrained system, such an estimate is a maximum since the
potential adjustments are unlimited. If the benefits of reoptimization under these circumstances are small, then there
is scarcely any need to reoptimize more constrained systems
when economic circumstances change.

In table 11.25, it is clear that although changes in milkfat price result in large changes in gross margin, the effects of reoptimizing are small except at the very extremes of price change. In absolute terms, the effects are smaller at low milkfat prices than at high ones. These results were taken to justify the next step of recalculating, without reoptimization, gross margins of a range of systems at lower milkfat prices.

Table 11.25 Effects of milkfat price on gross margin on an unconstrained system with and without reoptimization.

Gross margin of \$1.60 plan	Gross margin of reoptimized plan	Difference	
(\$ ha )	(\$ ha )	(\$ ha )	(%)
280	303	23	8
381	390	9	2
482	487	5	1
583	583	_	-
684	693	9	1
785	812	27	3
886	931	45	5
	of \$1.60 plan  (\$ ha - )  280 381 482 583 684 785	of \$1.60 plan reoptimized plan  (\$ ha	of \$1.60 plan reoptimized plan  (\$ ha^- ) (\$ ha^- ) (\$ ha^- )  280 303 23 381 390 9 482 487 5 583 583 - 684 693 9 785 812 27

Table 11.26 shows the recalculated gross margins, together with economic farm surplus. In both these calculations, gross margin and milkfat production at \$1.60 are the means of the nine seasons of section 11.7. Economic farm surplus (EFS) is defined here as

EFS = GR-CFE-CDE-MA where

GR = gross revenue from milkfat sales,

CFE = cash feed expenses,

CDE = other cash and depreciation expenses; assumed here as \$14091 for a 50 ha farm,

MA = manager's allowance of \$6240, and is the effective return to capital.

Decreasing milkfat price had the largest effect on higher-producing systems so that one effect was to compress profitability differences, both absolute and relative, between systems (table 11.26). A second effect was to render four systems unprofitable (negative EFS) at a 20 percent lower milk-fat price and all systems unprofitable at a 40 percent lower milkfat price (table 11.26). Changes in rank were the third effect. Almost no rank changes resulted from a 20 percent change but at the lowest milkfat price there were wholesale changes in rank resulting in SUDAX having the smallest losses and MZCER the largest.

Although this last result suggests that under economic stress grazing systems perform better than conservation systems, both MZSDX and MZRCLOV, systems incorporating considerable conservation, were almost as effective as SUDAX at low milkfat prices (table 11.26). Averaged over the full range of prices, MZSDX was the top ranking system.

Table 11.26 Effects of milkfat price on economic performance of a 50 ha farm.

	GROSS MARGIN (\$ ha <sup>-1</sup> )			ECONOM	ECONOMIC SURPLUS (\$)		
MF price	\$1.60	\$1.28	\$0.96	\$1.60	\$1.28	\$0.96	
GRASSA	452	346	240	2290	-2374	-7718	
GRASSB	481	372	263	3778	-1718	-7222	
GRASSN	509	379	249	5180	-1259	-7787	
SUDAX	544	407	270	6904	73	-6791	
MZCER	555	387	219	7681	-387	-8531	
MZRCLOV	560	410	260	8114	312	-7192	
MZSDX	574	418	262	8858	811	-6981	

Together with the consistently low ranking of all-grass systems, this result suggested that a combined crop-grass system incorporating moderate conservation might be the most resilient in the face of worsening economic conditions.

Support for this suggestion was found by examining the physical

aspects of the unconstrained system previously reoptimized for a range of milkfat prices. The resulting farm plans are outlined in figure 11.10 and their physical and economic performance summarized in table 11.27.

Table 11.27 Effects of milkfat price on optimal physical characteristics of an unconstrained system.

	Pasture <sup>1</sup> nitrogen	Forage DM	Stocking rate	Milkfat	Gross margin
-	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	(cows ha <sup>-1</sup> )	(kg ha <sup>-1</sup> )	$($ ha^{-1})$
Milkfat Price					
$(\$ ka^{-1})$					
1.00	75	13140	2.73	439	303
1.20	85	13560	2.81	453	390
1.40	115	14540	2.96	477	487
1.60	150	15570	3.14	505	583
1.80	150	16370	3.32	534	693
2.00	150	18230	3.64	586	812
2.20	150	18540	3.69	595	931

<sup>1</sup> See table 11.1 for an explanation of the units.

The main features of the farm plans were the relatively constant total crop and pasture area and the increase in crop silage area with increasing milkfat price. As with the seasonal variability experiments, pasture fulfilled two separate roles, one as a cheap energy source, the other as a cheap, high quality supplement to silage. The former was relatively more important under adverse economic conditions and the latter under favourable conditions.

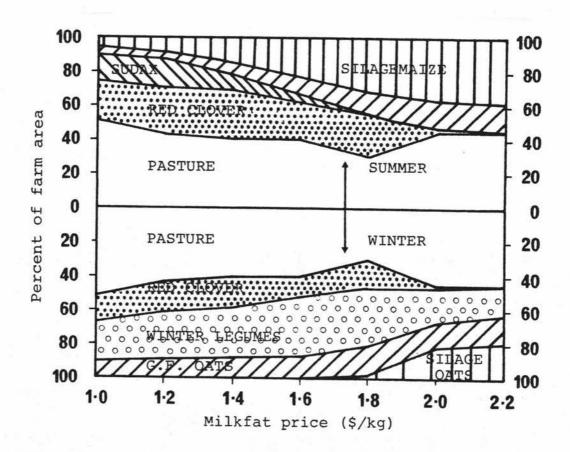


Figure 11.10 Effects of milkfat price variation on optimal system structure.

Results in table 11.27 show that there were considerable changes in physical aspects of production as milkfat price varied. As milkfat price increased, extra forage was produced, to be consumed by more, fully-fed cows. Thus, even though it was shown above that reoptimization had only minor effects on profitability, there are considerable production benefits to be gained from changes in system structure as economic conditions improve. The corollary is that the economic incentives to make such changes are very small under the present assumptions.

#### 11.11 SUMMARY

Earlier sections of this chapter sought to test the effects on Northland dairy feeding systems of some alternative forage sources. Among these were pasture nitrogen, conventional forage crops, grazed and conserved, as well as less orthodox possibilities such a sub-tropical grass. All were shown to have value in particular circumstances.

These preliminary conclusions were confirmed and extended under economic and climatic conditions different from those initially assumed. It remains to place these conclusions in the context of field research options and priorities, the subject of the next, concluding chapter.

## CHAPTER TWELVE

## IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH AND GENERAL CONCLUSIONS

#### 12.1 INTRODUCTION

The previous chapter dealt with specific experiments and their results. Although a good many research alternatives were implied there, it remains to draw them together here as an integrated statement. In addition, both convention and the fact that the study was solicited and supported by a physical research organization require an evaluation of modelling as an active adjunct to field research.

# 12.2 SYNTHESIS AND EVALUATION OF ALTERNATIVE DAIRY FEEDING SYSTEMS

One objective of the study was to do this synthesis and evaluation through modelling. This section outlines the objectives of the Northland dairy forage feeding system project as they existed at the beginning of the study and indicates how they have been modified, subtracted from and added to during the modelling project. The objectives of the field program are taken mainly from Taylor et al. (1979c) and from discussions with those involved.

## 12.2.1 FEEDING FOR HIGHER PRODUCTION

Low production per cow in Northland was ascribed to poor feeding on the basis of observed cow condition. A major field research priority was to derive some input-output relationships describing the response by cows to various systems of improved feeding.

Modelling had two roles to play here. First, it was possible to show the relative importance of feed deficiencies at various times, assuming certain feed supplies and feed demand patterns. An illustration of the seasonal pattern of relative feed scarcity for three systems is given in figure 12.1. All systems have periods of relative feed abundance in spring and late autumn while GRASSA and SUDAX have a period of relative scarcity in summer or autumn. There is an interesting contrast between GRASSA and MZCER in that while the former gives a very poor match between cow demands and feed supplies compared with the latter, it has no quality problems. MZCER on the other hand has limiting crude protein from January 13 to April 20 and limiting energy density from January 13 to April 6. During this period the MZCER plan includes a high level of crop silage feeding.

Figure 12.1 shows clearly that an all-grass, low conservation system (GRASSA) did not cope well with the feed demand pattern of the lactating cows even though the lactations were 53 days shorter than the 267 days of other feed supply systems. High shadow prices of feed during February through April indicate where feed is most limiting and where attempts to improve feeding might start. The same curve suggests the gains from any alleviation of feed scarcity during this summer-autumn period might be quite limited because of similar scarcities in July-August (see figure 12.1). However, when this change was modelled, as for instance by changing the feed supply pattern to that of GRASSB with its much higher pasture silage potential, the optimum number of cows decreased as production per cow increased, so that the relative scarcity of winter compared with summer feed did not increase.

The consistency of this kind of result throughout the modelling study reinforced the conclusion that under most circumstances, summer feed supplies remained the most important limitation to system productivity and profitability.

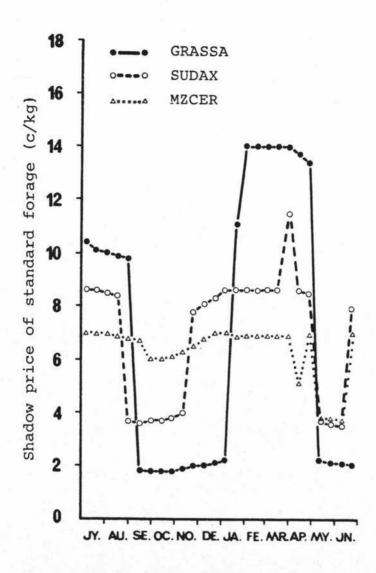


Figure 12.1 Pattern of relative feed scarcity in three systems.

The second role of modelling higher production per cow was to indicate the physical and economic effects of various strategies aimed at permitting higher production. It was clearly shown that almost all strategies were successful. Increasing pasture silage alone resulted in an extra 22 kg MF per cow and, despite a lower stocking rate, an extra 25 kg MF per ha. Addition of pasture nitrogen to this all-grass system resulted in an economic increase in stocking rate while milkfat per cow increased slightly. Grazing crops and conserved crops, either alone or in combination, produced further economic increases in stocking rate.

Because the model was able to consider the whole 12 month production period at once, evaluation of the effects of improving seasonal feed supply was much more comprehensive than otherwise possible. An instance of such integration was in the level of conservation experiment and in seasonal variability experiments where meal and silage were frequently fed in late lactation. Such a policy would be uneconomic were it not for the other mechanisms, included in the model, of firstly, maintaining cow condition and avoiding the penalties associated with regaining that condition during the dry period and secondly, bridging a feed deficit between two periods of relative plenty.

# 12.2.2 EFFECTS OF PASTURE NITROGEN ON SYSTEM PERFORMANCE

Comparatively simple budgeting can be used to demonstrate that nitrogen on pasture is likely to be economic under some circumstances. Assuming a pasture dry matter requirement of 25 kg per kg milkfat, a milkfat price of \$1.60 per kg (as in this study) and a utilizable pasture dry matter response of 15 kg per kg N, a breakeven cost of N is \$0.96 per kg. However, such calculations have very limited validity despite the reasonable nature of the assumptions. Responses of pasture to

nitrogen, and of milkfat production to pasture, change seasonally depending on climatic environment, stage of lactation and grazing pressure. Pollard (1972) used a linear programming model to cope with some of these changes and was able to show a variety of pasture-based farm plans for the Manawatu that could use nitrogen economically.

The present study extended the analysis to cope with the effects of plane of nutrition on cow liveweight and the effects of other, interacting forage sources. Furthermore, the results have been expressed not only as farm plans but also in terms of breakeven responses. It was shown that pasture nitrogen, particularly when applied in late winter and late summer, could be used extensively to increase stocking rates and milkfat production. This was shown to be true for a variety of systems, nitrogen usage on pasture actually increasing as forage cropping increased. When these conclusions were tested over a range of seasonal conditions and a range of milkfat prices it was shown that although late summer pasture nitrogen usage was somewhat sensitive to climatic and economic conditions, late winter usage was very consistent.

Since the agronomic assumptions regarding pasture nitrogen were fairly arbitrary and could only be justified for very limited periods of the year, it is clearly important to define nitrogen response functions for pasture. Such functions would ideally include climatic and edaphic conditions as well as the physiological state of the pasture and its capacity for growth.

A major field study to define pasture responses to nitrogen in Northland was begun by Plant Physiology Division of DSIR in 1979 as a first step in defining these functions. An ideal future would see information from these field experiments being progressively incorporated in a model such as the present one. That could be done either by specifying

a complete matrix of responses related to pasture stage and time of year, as in Pollard's (1972) study, or by iterative optimization following definition of response functions for periods of the year when feed is scarcest, as in McRae (1975).

# 12.2.3 EFFECTS OF WILTED, FINE-CHOP PASTURE SILAGE

Silage has commonly been used in New Zealand dairying as an alternative maintenance forage to hay. It has mostly been made from mature pasture of low digestibility and chopped and ensiled fairly casually. The result has been material of poor quality resulting in low intake and poor responses. It was argued (Taylor et al. 1979c) that with minimal intervention in existing management systems, it would be possible on most Northland dairy farms to make high quality pasture silage. Instead of a maintenance forage, it was postulated, this material could be used in mid-late lactation as a production feed. This was seen as a particularly important option for farms where, because of soil limitations, cropping would not be feasible.

By the time of this study, field testing had already shown the validity of the general argument. Nevertheless, the modelling work was able to explore the interactions between pasture nitrogen and pasture silage, on the one hand, and between pasture silage and forage crops, on the other.

Pasture silage was shown to be an essential part of all-grass systems for high production per cow. Although pasture nitrogen was apparently not essential for this level of per cow production, it was shown that its use could enable an extra 30 t of pasture silage to be made with a consequent 17 percent increase in stocking rate.

The interaction between pasture silage and forage cropping was completely dominated by maize silage. Where maize silage was available, all plans used it to the almost total exclusion of pasture silage, presumably a reflection, in part, of the much higher yield of maize silage.

## 12.2.4 POTENTIAL OF A SUMMER-GROWING PASTURE GRASS

The search for a sub-tropical pasture grass arose originally from the notion that in many parts of New Zealand a plant with a C4 carbon fixation pathway would likely make better use of soil moisture during summer than the traditional C3 plants (Mitchell 1966; Kerr 1975). The concept was originally applied to forage crops such as maize and sorghum but was later extended to more orthodox pasture grasses (Taylor et al. 1976c, 1976d, 1976e), partly as a response to the disappearance of paspalum from most Northland pastures.

Modelling showed clearly that a summer-growing grass could have large effects on productivity and profitability. This result lent considerable weight to a decision to pursue more actively the evaluation of summer growing grasses.

This process of preliminary data collection followed by modelling to help evaluate the results was a useful illustration of the benefits of interaction between modelling and field research. Favourable results justify the collection of more detailed data and more detailed modelling could again evaluate the results.

### 12.2.5 EFFECTS OF FORAGE CROPS

Forage cropping was originally seen as a means of increasing total forage yield above the apparent ceiling set by ryegrass - white clover pasture (Mitchell 1963, 1966).

Mitchell (1969, 1970) proposed a combination of double cropping and heavy use of nitrogen fertilizer as a means of greatly increasing milk and beef production.

This concept was modified by Taylor et al. (1979c) to incorporate as a principal objective the improvement of seasonal patterns of feed supply. It was envisaged also that, in contrast to some of the earlier proposals for cropping-only systems, forage cropping in Northland would be integrated with grazed pasture and grazed crops.

Modelling showed that a variety of systems incorporating forage cropping could give substantially higher milkfat production and profitability than all-grass systems, a finding that paralleled the development of three different successful systems in the field (Taylor et al. 1979c).

Grazing crops were shown to have a consistent role in cropping systems, despite lower than maximum yields of utilizable nutrients. This was a result of the high costs associated with conservation, costs only justified substantially by maize, with its high yield and its high nutritive value at maturity.

The maximum extent of forage crop used appeared to be limited more by dietary quality constraints than by economic factors. Because pasture was by far the most economical high-quality supplement to silage, cropping never exceeded about 65 percent of farm area, though as a fraction of diet, forage crops reached 75 percent.

Both energy density and protein density of forage crops were limiting. The future may see cheaper or more effective protein supplements in the form of fishmeal but it is difficult to imagine an energy-rich supplement which would not have more economical uses in more direct application to human food. That being the case, the only means of increasing cropping above the limits mentioned above would be to forego some production per cow. In the present economic context that would not be a profitable alternative.

The importance of maize silage has previously been referred to. Modelling systems with maize silage has shown that, more so than other crop forages, it can enable much greater flexibility in feed supply pattern. This is so because its relatively high energy density enables it to be fed at almost any stage of lactation.

On the other hand, it was shown that storing 20 percent of total feed supply from one season to another had very minor effects on either mean or variability of production and profitability compared with using feed in the same season in which it has grown.

For a forage of such potential importance as maize silage, it is important to define those characteristics which make it valuable to the system, thereby giving agronomic research a focus within the chosen crop. Study of model reaction to changes in assumptions about maize yield, energy density and protein content made clear the importance of the first two characteristics and the relative unimportance of protein content. It was shown that the effects of the first two were relatively similar when expressed on a metabolizable energy basis so that the decision about which aspect to tackle in research becomes based on the potential variability in each characteristic and the chances of influencing those characteristics by genotype selection or by environmental modification.

The role of legume crops deserves particular mention because of their potential role as nitrogen fixers for succeeding gramineous crops. Several systems incorporated a legume in rotation with maize, sorghum and cereals. selection as potential forage sources clearly involves some a priori assumptions that legumes would be useful both as dietary protein sources, and for their nitrogen-fixing capacity. This study has concerned itself with the former, to the complete exclusion of the latter. In estimating costs of forages no allowance was made for the nitrogen contribution of the legumes, so that legumes may be more valuable than the solutions indicate. To assist evaluation of legume nitrogen contribution, it could be useful to estimate the penalties associated with forcing a legume into a system. This was done only with red clover where the legume was forced into an otherwise optimal system to the extent of 18 percent of farm area. The cost was \$328 or \$37.04 per ha of red clover. At a nitrogen value of \$0.60 kg -1 the red clover would need to contribute the equivalent of 62 kg N ha yr to make its presence economic.

Regardless of their potential value, several rotations predicted here, and elsewhere, are not fully tested, either for feasibility, or for cost. Doubts regarding feasibility are mainly in the area of timeliness of planting and harvesting in double cropping sequences; they are likely to be resolved only by the development of adequate direct drilling technology - a problem of research and development.

## 12.3 MANAGEMENT LIMITATIONS OF PROPOSED SYSTEMS

Many of the structural changes discussed up to now imply changes in management. These changes have been assumed to be feasible and effective but the validity of that assumption for the more important changes requires some discussion.

#### 12.3.1 CROP MANAGEMENT

It has been assumed throughout this study that crops and pasture did not rotate with each other. The limited areas on typical Northland dairy farms that are suitable for cropping forced this assumption, despite the probability that rotating crops (gramineous ones at least) with pasture would be the safest way to preserve soil structure and fertility (Taylor and Hughes 1976). Some of the systems in this study have cropping programs which are by no means proven.

#### 12.3.2 GRAZING MANAGEMENT

One of the effects of cropping and conservation is that, to the extent that land is taken out of the grazing area, so stocking rates on the remaining grazing area are increased. The effect is magnified when, as a consequence of an increase in total forage yield, total stock numbers are also increased. Stocking rate estimates in table 12.1 show that there is a twofold to fourfold increase in maximum stocking rates between all-grass and forage cropping systems. In modelling such a situation, it is usual to assume, as have Pollard (1972) and Wright et al. (1976), that conserved feeds are fed before grazing commences or that stock are held off the grazing area for an appropriate time. Both those assumptions have been made here so that stock are assumed to commence grazing with only sufficient appetite or sufficient time to graze their greenfeed ration.

Table 12.1 Maximum stocking rates on grazed forage (cows ha<sup>-1</sup>)

	Jul-Sep	Oct-Dec	Jan-Apr	May-Jun
GRASSA	2.73	2.73	2.40	2.40
GRASSB	2.22	3.09	2.22	2.22
GRASSN	2.60	4.17	2.60	2.60
SUDAX	3.38	3.38	2.70	3.38
MZCER	3.95	3.95	3.95	3.95
MZRCLOV	3.73	4.14	3.62	4.83
MZSDX	5.10	5.10	3.82	5.10
FREE	7.83	4.97	4.97	7.83

In reality, very high stocking rates may present novel problems of grazing management, especially on pasture, where, for both agronomic and animal husbandry reasons, a specified residual yield after grazing is desired (Brougham 1970; M.A.F. 1976). Clearly, these potential problems ought to be expressed as grazing pressure in the sense that units of appetite (measured as liveweight or some function of liveweight) per unit of forage (measured as dry matter or energy) is an index of pressure that is not specific to a particular stocking rate or forage yield. At very high animal densities, there may also be social effects on grazing behaviour. It may be concluded that any development of systems incorporating a significant level of cropping will require development of management techniques to minimize untoward effects of high stock densities on limited grazing areas.

#### 12.4 RESEARCH PRIORITIES

An objective of this study was to develop research priorities for the field research program. One means of beginning this process is to calculate system benefits from increases in forage yield and rank forage sources accordingly. Using this approach, it was concluded that short term returns would be greatest if research was concentrated on grazing forages, particularly perennial pasture-type forages (Miller 1980).

However, as indicated in that discussion, potential benefits would in many cases be reduced by weighting the estimated benefits by the area potentially suitable for the forage. Many other weighting procedures could be applied, some objective, some intangible, some within the boundaries of the systems modelled, some outside. In addition, there are possible research avenues which do not seek to increase forage yield. Many of the considerations of this type which would be necessary in priority allocation are clearly the province of those who will be conducting the research and would be outside the competence of an external modeller.

Nevertheless, some generalized priorities can be stated without too much presumption:

#### 12.4.1 PASTURE GROWTH

There is a clear need for more information regarding seasonal patterns of pasture growth and the limitations involved. Perennial pasture occupies a central place in existing systems and in any alternative systems considered in this study. The main reasons for this are low cost and high quality. It is therefore essential, when synthesizing new systems in the

future, that patterns of growth and quality are well defined. These patterns need to be defined as functions of environment and management, rather than as averages across unknown variations of both. Environmental variation should encompass soil factors like drainage and nutrient supply as well as the more usual climatic variations between years and sites.

Comprehensive description of growth and quality patterns would also provide a better basis for design of conservation and nitrogen application strategies, both shown here to have potential value.

## 12.4.2 ALTERNATIVE PASTURE SPECIES

The potentially high value of moisture-efficient, summergrowing forages alluded to in chapter 5 have been confirmed in this study. Hemarthria altissima, Sudax and maize were each important components of higher-producing systems. As well as low cost, pasture types of forage have the particular merit, not specified in the modelling, that they involve the least disruption to present management systems on dairy farms. Further, the introduction and development of new genetic material can lead to improvements in farming which require few other new inputs to sustain them. The species evaluation work which has led to the selection of H. altissima and Setaria sphacelata should therefore be maintained or expanded.

#### 12.4.3 HIGH ENERGY CROPS

Crops with high DM yields and with energy densities greater than about 9.5 MJ ME kg<sup>-1</sup> in the forage as fed featured prominently in modelled systems. Increases in energy yield through increase in either DM yield or energy density

have been shown here to be of equivalent and high value. An important priority is to make these crops, particularly silage maize, more reliably productive because, although high yields are known to be possible, variability of yield appears to be high. Developing better silage maize varieties, in particular, need not be very expensive since a good deal of improved genetic material must become available from large breeding programs in Europe and North America.

Two further considerations apply to this type of crop. Firstly, they will require high levels of soil nitrogen which may have to be met, in part at least, by rotating legumes. Secondly, regular double cropping will require adequate minimum tillage technology. An integrated research and development program involving engineers and agronomists will be required to develop such technology.

## 12.5 EVALUATION OF THE MODELLING PROCESS

It is difficult to imagine an objective means of estimating the effects of an exercise such as has been attempted here. On the one hand, there is no parallel but "untreated" research program for comparison. On the other hand, the stated attitudes of those involved need bear no relationship to the actual effect, however objectively the attitudes are assessed. Wright et al. (1976) noted similar difficulties. All that can be done here is to note some of the symptoms of success and some aspects of the approach which have not been well-developed in the literature.

#### 12.5.1 SOME POTENTIAL ROLES

Progress in defining those aspects of technology which might repay research have been discussed already. Whether modelling is the most efficient means of this kind of system analysis cannot be decided here. Where it was efficient was as a means of assembling knowledge from diverse disciplines and sources into a coherent representation of a dairy forage feeding system. As with most other modelling studies, the assembly process revealed areas of ignorance. Some of these areas are more important than others but it is the more general conclusions that are outlined here.

- (a) Despite the imprecision with which many biological events can be predicted in the short term, modelling at a level of organization and detail somewhat coarser than specialists would like has illuminated aspects of system behaviour which are not generally amenable to intuition or practical desk calculation.
- (b) A possible corollary of identifying sensitive areas is that these areas should perhaps, themselves, be modelled to refine the focus of technological research. In contrast to physical experimentation, model experimentation offers a completely controllable environment where variability, instead of being blanketed out by experimental designs which seek to provide very simplified models of reality, can be progressively assigned to explicit aspects of system and sub-system structure and function.
- (c) Modelling agricultural systems at any particular level of organization or detail illustrates the need for better models at lower levels of organization. These needs are probably also apparent to those who do no modelling, but without a coherent context, such as a system model, the only rational response is to call for more research in general terms, a call that implies exponential increases in research activity.

## 12.5.2 LIMITATIONS AND ADVANTAGES OF THE APPROACH

Again, concern here is with general aspects of the approach rather than with technical details of the modelling. Several aspects can be noted:

- (a) Concurrence of the study with a functioning, welldefined research program had a number of features worth outlining. Firstly, a well-defined research program facilitated the development of a model with well-defined objectives and boundaries, a factor argued in chapter 4 to be important. Secondly, whatever information was available was readily accessible and could usually be checked against raw data and memory, no trivial matter according to Wright and Baars (1975). One disadvantage is that some experiments will always be incomplete, tempting the modeller to wait for more information. Thirdly, validation procedures can appeal to a variety of people associated with the research program. current involvement in the program is likely to maximize their power and motivation of critical evaluation of the model.
- (b) The fact that the modeller was an outsider to the research program and to the particular research organization had advantages and disadvantages. The disadvantage of ignorance and unfamiliarity with the production system was countered, to some extent, by the neutrality of the modeller. This found expression in the modelling as a reluctance to aggregate parts of the system which could be validly left separate and a reluctance to impose subjective constraints based on ill-defined notions of aggregate behaviour. Perhaps the chief disadvantages lie in the lack of continuity and the difficulty of an outsider becoming really involved in developing research

- priorities. For this reason, modelling as an aid to research planning would probably best originate from within a research group.
- (c) The time involved in interdisciplinary cooperation and continuous interaction between model, modeller and real research program was a real limitation. Despite the speed with which experiments can be conducted on a mathematical model, the real time involved in model development, testing, evaluation, experimental planning, and result interpretation, much of it iterative, limited the modelling process. In particular, the development of formal Turingtype tests for validation purposes, a procedure that ought to become standard practice, would have required more time to be spent on the validation phase of the modelling. In addition, development of quantitative research priorities beyond the level attempted here would certainly have required more extensive experimentation with the model.

The extensive time required for this kind of interaction between modelling and research program has been noted also by Wright et al. (1976) but often has not been explicitly considered where the modelling has been isolated from the research program in space or time.

(d) Many of the agronomic data for Northland were collected from a very limited number of sites in only a few seasons. Many measurements had been made under only one system of management and at only one or a very few times during crop growth and development. The uncertainty deriving from these limitations would be relieved by data collection with extrapolation more in mind.

One means of guiding the collection of more generally useful data would be to use some kind of model as a framework (McPherson et al. 1979). But there are two other kinds of hedges against information being too specific.

Firstly, although measurements ought properly to be concentrated on what are likely to be key areas in the present and near-future context of use, some measurements ought to be made in areas which conceivably could have future importance. An example is a silage crop, where most measurements will be concentrated around assumed optimum harvest time. There may be circumstances of season where the parameters of an unconventional end-use would be more easily estimated if some estimates of crop yield and quality were made at intervals during the vegetative stage of growth.

Secondly, a more general hedge would be a better understanding of crop growth and development as influenced by edaphic and climatic circumstances. This is not to say that every variety trial ought to attempt to explain differences in dynamic terms but that fewer field experiments ought to be conducted and they ought to include more measurements of both environmental factors and crop growth and development (e.g. see Collis-George and Davey 1960), especially with the variety of multivariate analyses now widely available (e.g. Kendall 1975). An example from the Northland work is the study of crop growth curves from serial plantings (Taylor et al. 1976b). Such understanding would ease the difficulty of extrapolating forage performance in space and time.

#### 12.6 CONCLUSION

This study has taken place on a number of different levels. At the top of the hierarchy was the research system which, it was postulated, could be influenced beneficially by systems modelling. Next were the animal production systems, the subject of the case study research program, which, it was postulated, could be notionally manipulated by means of a mathematical model. At a lower level still were the biological systems which comprised the animal production system and which, it was postulated, could be described mathematically. Finally, there was an information system, informal though it may be, which, it was postulated, could provide the concepts and numbers of the biological system.

Each postulate has been satisfied sufficiently to influence the research system at the top of the hierarchy (Taylor et al. 1979c). It has proved possible and beneficial to synthesize and evaluate alternative dairy feeding systems, the first objective of this study. The second objective, development of research priorities, has been less well fulfilled because the modeller was external to the research program. However, the process of interaction between a field research program and a modelling program has been a valuable one. It would be more valuable still if taken up on a continuing basis by any cross-disciplinary research program.

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### APPENDIX A: MODEL TIME PERIODS

Period number	Starting	date
1	July	7 1
2		15
3		29
4	August	12
5		26
6	September	9
7		23
8	October	7
9		21
10	November	4
11		18
12	December	2
13		16
14		30
15	January	13
16		27
17	February	10
18		24
19	March	10
20		24
21	April	7
22		21
23	May	5
24		19
25	June	2
26		16

# APPENDIX B: ECONOMIC ASSUMPTIONS

(Bell 1976a)	
Fertilizer O.5t/ha	30.50
Oversowing \$35/10 years	3.50
Weed control \$5/5years	1.00
Total variable costs	35.00
2. Pasture silage production	(\$/ha)
(Bell 1976a; A.C. Innes, unpublished)	
Harvesting	45.00
Stacking \$8.33/t	
Total variable costs for 4.2t/ha	80.00
for 3.6 t/ha	75.00
3. Silage storage and feeding	(\$/t)
(Bell 1976a; Taylor et al. 1979c;	
Wallace 1978)	
Cover	0.70
Feeding (labour and tractor)	4.00
Bunker capital	
depreciation 5% of \$10.00	0.50
interest 10% of \$10.00	1.00
Wagon	
depreciation 10% of \$11.70	1.17
interest 10% of \$11.70	1.17
Total variable costs	8.54

4.	Silage maize production	(\$/ha)
	(MAF 1977)	
	Cultivation	50
	Seed	30
	Fertilizer	100
	Planting	20
	Insecticide	30
	Herbicide	30
	Harvesting	130
	Total variable costs into bunker	390
5.	Greenfeed maize	(\$/ha)
	(K.I. Lowe, B.J. Ridler; personal communicati	on)
	Cultivation	40
	Seed	30
	Fertilizer	32
	Planting	11
	Insecticide	20
	Total variable costs	133
ó.	Sudax	(\$/ha)
	(Taylor et al. 1979c)	
	Total variable costs	133
7.	Winter cereals and mixtures (MAF 1977)	(\$/ha)
	Cultivation and planting	53
	Seed	36
	Fertilizer	21
	Pesticide	15
	Total variable growing costs	125
	Harvesting and stacking silage	127
	Total variable costs into bunker	252

8.	Red clover (MAF 1977)	(\$/ha)
	Year 1:	
	Seed	21
	Cultivation and planting	52
	Fertilizer	35
	Year 2 and 3:	
	Fertilizer	35
	Total variable growing costs/3 years	178
	Bloat Control:	
	1500 grazing half days @ \$0.40	
	in the following pattern.	

Period	Cost (\$/ha)
08	1.10
09	0.74
11	6.83
12	6.94
13	7.19
14	6.78
15	5.36
16	3.93
17	2.90
18	2.90
19	2.83
20	2.64
21	2.57
22	1.68
23	5.57
Total	60.00
	2500-2500-250

Harvesting,	storing	and	feeding	hay	(\$/ha)
			Jan	uary	129
			Febr	uary	94

9.	Winter legume		(\$/ha)
	Cultivation and drilling		25
	Seed		25
	Total variable costs	,	50
10.	Turnips		(\$/ha)
	Cultivation and planting		45
	Seed		8
	Fertilizer		37
	Total variable costs		90
			-
11.	Concentrates		(\$/kg)
	MAF (1977)		
	Meat meal		0.30
	Complete dairy meal		0.15

## APPENDIX C: EVALUATION PANEL

Dr A.M. Bryant,	Ruakura Agricultural Research Centre.
Dr T.R.O. Field,	Grasslands Division, D.S.I.R. Palmerston North.
Dr J.P. Kerr,	Plant Physiology Division, D.S.I.R. Palmerston North.
Mr B.J. Ridler,	Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Massey University.
Dr A.O. Taylor,	Plant Physiology Division, D.S.I.R. Palmerston North. Now at Whangarei.
Prof. R.J. Townsley,	Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Massey University.
Dr A. Wright,	Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Massey University.

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#### NOTES

- 1. The matrix listed here is an example only. It may not correspond in every detail with the generalized description given in Chapter 9.
- 2. Explanatory material relating to the matrix can be found in "Matrix details of a Forage Systems Research Model", Technical Discussion Paper No 17, Department of Agricultural Economics and Farm Management, Massey University. The paper is available upon request.

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9 K K K K K K K K K K K K K K K K K K K	LANDOOS LANDOOS LANDOOS LANDOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS COMMOOS	1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 -420.00000 -620.00000 -440.00000	LANNULOUR LANNULOUR LANNULOUR LANNULOUR LANNULOUR LANNULOUR LANULOUR MATCHER MATCHER LANULOUR MATCHER LANULO	1:00000 1:00000 1:00000 1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -3:00000 -3:000000 -3:000000
22222222222222222222222222222222222222	CTDM020 LAND014 LAND0116 LAND0116 LAND0120 LAND022 LAND022 LAND023 LAND0M130 SXXDM20	-640.00000 1.000000 1.000000 1.000000 1.000000 1.000000 -1.000000 -1.000000 -1.000000 -1.000000	CASHDIII CASHDIII LANNDIII LANNDIII LANNDIII LANNDIII LANNDIII LANNDIII SXXDMII SXXDMII SXXDMII SXXDMII SXXDX SXXDX SXXDX	90.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 -1070.00000 -1290.00000 -540.00000 -133.00000
SAPR SAPR TUKPR TUKPR TUKPR	SXDM22 CASHSP LAND10 LAND12 LAND14 LAND16	-410.00000 70.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000	MARGIN LANDII LANDII LANDII LANDII	1.00000 1.00000 1.00000 1.00000

TUKPR	LAND18 TURDM	1.00000 -4500.00000	LANU19 MARGIA	1.00000
TUKPR	LANDO7	1.00000	LANLOD	1:00000
TURPH	LAV22	1.00000	Lusoza	
TURPR	LAV22	-1.00000	LANLOB LUSU7- CASHSP	55100000
RCER	LANDO3 LANDO3	2.00000 2.00000 3.00000	LANDUZ	55 00000 2 00000 2 00000 2 00000 3 00000
RCFR	LANDOS	2.00000	LANDO4	2100000
RUTK	LANDO7	2.00000	LANDOS	2100000
RCFR	LANDO9	3.00000	LANLIO	3400000
RUPK	LAND11	3.00000	LANU12	3.00000
RUPR	LANDIS	3.00000	LANU14	3.00000
RCFR	LAND 15	3.00000	LANDIO LANDIO LANDIO	3 • 0 0 0 0 0
RUPE	LAND 17	. 3.00000	LANDIO	3:00000
RUPR	LAND19 LAND21	3.00000	LAND20	3:00000 2:00000
RCPR	LAND23	2.00000	LANDZE	2100000
RLTK	LANU25	2400000	LANU24	210000
RUPK	LAND23 LAND25 LUSO7 RCDMO8	1.00000	LAVZZ-	-1100000
RLPK	RCDMOB	-480.00000 -	RCDMOY	-320100000 -3020100000
RLPK		-2970.00000	KCDM12	-3020100000
RLPK	RCDM15	-3130.00000	KCDM14	-2950 + 0 U 0 0 0 -1710 + 0 U 0 0 0
RUPR	RCDM13 RCDM15 RCDM17	-1260400000	RCDM10 RCDM18	-1260 000000
RUPK	KCDM19	-3130.00000 -2330.00000 -1260.00000 -1230.00000	RCDM20	-1150400000
RUPK	RCDM21	-1120+00000	RCDM2Z	-1150100000 -520100000
RCPR	RCDM23	-2420.00000	MARGIN	-178:00000
RUPK	CASHSP	115.00000	1.4.00.009	
SLPK	LANDO3 LANDO3 LANDO5 LANDO7	1.00000	LANDUZ	1.00000
SCPR	LANDO5	1.00000	LANDUO	1:00000
SUPR	LANDO7	1 . 00000	LANDOD	1.00000
SUPR	LANDUY	1.00000	LAND23	1:00000
SUPE	LANU24	1.00000	LANU22	-1,00000
SCTK	LAND26 LUS23	1.00000	LAVIO	-1:00000
SLIFE	SCDMOU	-1240.00000	SCOMO	=1220.00000
SCER	SCDM10	-1320.00000	MARGIN	-1040.00000 -1220.00000
WLPR	LANDO1 LANDO3	1.00000	LANDOZ	1100000
WLPR -	LANDOS	1.00000	LANDO4	1.00000
WLPK	LANDO5 LANDO7	1.00000	LANDOO	1.00000
HLPK	LANDOS	1.00000	LANDOD	1:0000
WLPR	LANDOS	1.00000	LAND2Z LAND24	1.00000
WLPK	LAND23 LAND25 LAV10	1.00000	LANU20	1.00000
WLTK	LAV10	-1.00000	LANU20 LUS22	1.00000
WLER	MLDMOS	-2640.00000	MEDMOA	-2960 à 0 U U O O
WLPR_	MARGIN	-50.00000	LAND21	1.00000
KUSGPR	WLDM07 LAND01	-2400.00000	CASHAD	15.00000
Washi if	- MINDUA	1.00000	LANLUZ	1100000

	A THE STATE			Aug. 1
KUSGPR	LANDO3 LANDO5	1.00000	LANDU4	1 00000
RUSGPR	LANDZZ	1.00000	LAND23	1400000
KUSGPR	LAND24	1.00000	LANUZO	1:00000
KUSLPK	LAND24 LAND26	1.00000	LAVUT	-1100000
KUSCPR	LUS22	1.00000	KÜSGDM	-7940.00000
KUSGPR	MARGIN	-252 4 0 0 0 0 0	LANU21	1100000
KUSGPR	CASHAU	90.00000	CASHSF	110 00000
KUSGPR FW23	CAPITAL	79.00000		•
11123	LAVO7	-1.00000	LUS23	1.00000
FWZ3	LANDO1	1.00000	LANDOZ	1:00000
F W 2 3	LANDO6 LANDO4	1.00000	LANDUS	1 : 00 000
FH23 FH23 FH23	LAND23	1:00000	LANDOS LAND24	1 1 0 0 0 0 0
FW23	LAND25	1.00000	LANU20	1 00000
LPUULOT	LAND25 LAVO7	1.00000	E0867-	-1:00000
FWU7	LUS07	1.00000	LAVIO	-1100000
FWU7	LANDO7	1.00000	LANDON	1100000
FWU7	LANDO9	1.00000		
LrugL10	LAV10	1.00000	LUS10	-1.00000
FNIO	LUSIO	1.00000	LAV22	-1.00000
F m 1 0	LAND10 LAND12	1.00000	LANL11	1.00000
FW10	LAND14	1.00000	LAND13 LAND21	1.00000
FWIO	LANDIS	1.00000	LANDIO	1:00000
FW1G	LAND15 LAND17	1 4 0 0 0 0 0	TAND 15	1 1 0 0 0 0 0
FW10	LAND19	1.00000	LAND20	1100000
LruuL22	LAV22	1.00000	LUSZZ~	-130u000
FH22	LUS22	1.00000	LAV23	-1.00000
FH22	LAND22	1.00000	20020-000	7
LYUUL23 PSSV02	LAV23 PLA/B02	1:00000	LUS23	-1.00000
P55V02	PSDM02	230.00000	PEB/BU3	1.00000
P55V03	PLA/BO3	1.00000	PLB/B04	-230100000
PSSV03	PSDM03	291.00000	PSTMOS	-291700000
PSSV04	PLA/BU4	1.00000	PLB/BOS	1.00000
P55V04	PSDM04	372.00000	PSDMOS	-3/2:00000
PSSV05	PLA/BU5	1.00000	PLB/BO6	1100000
PSSV05	DCDMAS	422.00000	PLB/B06 PSDMO0 PLB/B07	-422100000
P55V06 P55V06	PLA/BUG	1.00000	PLB/BO7	1100000
P22A09	PSDM06	430.00000	PSDMOT	-438100000
P55V07	PLA/B06 PSDM06 PLA/B07 PSDM07 PLA/B09	1.00000	PLB/BOS	1100000
PSSVUB	PINUT	518.00000	PSUMOD	-518:00000
P55V08	PSDMOB	572.00000	PSDMOT PLB/BOZ PSDMOB PLB/BO9 PSDMOT	1.00000 -572.00000
PSSV09	PLA/BU9	1.00000	PLB/BID	1:00000
PSSVOY	PSDMOY	627.00000	PSDMIU	-627.00000
PSSV10	PLA/BIO	1.00000	PLB/BIT	1:00000
PSSV10	PSDM10	089100000	PSDM11	-689 000000
PSSV11	PLA/B1/	1.00000	PLB/RI2	1.00000
		- A - A - A - A - A - A - A - A - A - A	S. MARKETT IN TO MAKE	

P55V11	PSDM11	602.00000	PSDM12_	-602 0000	
PSSV12	PLA/R17	1.00000	- PLB/413-	1 10000	
P55V12 P55V12	PSDM12 PLA/B13 PSDM13	572.00000	PSDM13	-572 00000	
PSSV13	PLAZRIZ	1.00000	PL3/814	1.00000	
PSSV13	PERMIT	448.00000	PSOMIA	-448:00000	
P55V14	PLAZPIZ	1.00000	PSDM15 PLB/B16 PSDM10 PSDM10	1.00000	
P55V14	PLA/B14 PSDM14	384.00000	PENMIS	-384:00000	
P33V14	PI A (PI)	1.00000	010/01/	1:00000	
PSSV15	PLA/B15 PSDM15	1.57.60000	DEC. MIA	-141.80000	
PSSV15	PSUMIS	157.50000	PLB/B17_		
P55V16	PLA/B16	1.00000	FLB/BA/	1100000	
P55V16	PSDM16_	174.60000	PSDM10 PSDM10 PLB/B19	-139.70000	
PSSV17	PLA/B17	1.00000	LLB/Bre	1100000	
PSSV17	PSDM17	144.90000	PSUMIO	-101840000	
PSSV18	PLA/B18	1.00000	PLB/B19	-108170000	
P55V18	PSDM10	135.90000	PSDMIT	-1081/0000	
P55V19	PSDM18 PLA/B19	1.00000	FLB/B2C	1 1 0 0 0 0 0	
P35V19	PSDM19	127.80000	PSDM20	-115100000	
P55V20	PLA/B20	1.00000	PLB/82/		
P55V20	PSDM19 PLA/B20 PSDM20	132.30000	PSDM19 FLB/B 20 FSDM20 PLB/BZ/ PSDM21	-132130000	
P55V21	PLA/B2/ PSDM21	1.00000	PLB/BZ2 PSDM22	1 1 0 0 0 0 0	
P55V21	PSDM21	143.00000	PSDM22	-143100000	
P55V22	PLA/B22	1.00000	PLB/B63	1100000	
PSSV22	PSDM22	176.00000	PSDM23	-176:00000	
PSSV23	PLA/B23	1.00000	PLB/BZ4	1 . 00000	
PSSV23	PSDM23	251:00000	PSDM24	-251.00000	
P55V24	PLA/B24	1.00000	- PLB4825	1100000	
P55V24	PSDM24	284.00000	PSDM25	-284:00000	
P55V25	PLA/B25	1.00000	PLB/BZ6	1.00000	
P 2 2 4 2 2	PCD #257	240.00000	PSDM20	-240:00000	
P55V25	PSDM25		PLB/BOL	1.00000	
P55V26	PLA/BZ6	1.00000	- LBY BUT	-201100000	25 100
P55V26	PSDM26	201.00000	PSDM01	-201100000	
P22101	PLA/B.01	1.00000	PLB/BOZ	1:00000	
P55V01	PSDM01	214.00000	PSDMOZ	-214:00000	
PS1 601	PSDM01	1.00000	COMPMOT	-1100000	-
PS1 601	COWMEU1	-11.30000	COMCPOI	-0.20000	
PS1 602	PSDM02	1.00000	COMDMOZ	-1:00000	
PS1 602	COWME02	-11.60000	CONCP02	-0.20000	
PS1 603	PSDMO3	1.00000	FOMUMOS	-1.00000	100 20
PS1 603	COWME03	-11.70000	COWCPOS	-0:27000	
PS1 604	PSDM04	1.00000	COWUMD4	-1:00000	
PSF 604	COWME04	-11.90000	COWCP04	-0126000	
PS1 605	PSDMOS	1.00000	COMUMOS		
PSF 605	COWMEUS	-12.00000	COMCPOS	-0.20000	
PS1 606	PSDM06	1.00000	COMUMDO	-1:00000	
PS1 606	COMME06	-12.10000	COMCPOO	-0.25000	
PSF 607	PSDM07	1.00000	COMUND7	-1.0000	
PS1 607	COWMEO7	-12.00000	COWCPO7	-0.24000	
954 (1)	PSDMOd	1.00000	COMDMOS	-1100000	
800 129 800 129	COMMEDS	-11.90000	COWCPOS	-0124000	
809 169 909 169	PSDMQ9	1.00000	COMPHOS	-1100000	
LOLU UV	Lanua				-

				•
Task 1:36	CONNETE	m14 20400	COMCOLE	-0 10000
Tut 6:15	COMME15	-12.20000	COWCP15	-0.10000
TUFG16	TURDM	1.00000	COWUMIO	-1:00000
TUIG16	COMME16	-12.40000	COWCP16	-0110000
TUF 617	TURDM	1.00000	COWUM 17	-1100000
Tub ( 17	COMMETT	-14 60000	110000	1.00000
TUFG17	COWME17	-12.60000	CONCPIT	-0:10000
TUFG18	TURDM	1.00000	COMPWIO	-1300000
TUF 618	COWME18	-12.80000	CUWCPto	-0110000
TUFG19	TURUM	1.00000	COMOMEO	-4:00000
101 619		1.00000	COMDMIA	-1:00000
TUF G19	COWME19	-13.00000	COMCPIS	-0110000
RLFG11	RCDM11	1.00000	COWDM11	-1.00000
RCFG11	COWME11	-10.60000	COWCPII	-0:21000
01.10	COMMET			-0.21000
RLFG12	RCDM12	1.00000	COMOM12	-1.00000
RCFG12	COWME12	-10.60000	COWCP12	-0120000
RCF 612 RCF 613	RCDM13	1.00000	COMPWIR	-1.00000
RUFG13	COWME13	-10:30000	0040413	7.0000
201 413		-10.30000	COMCPIS	-0118000
RCFG14	RCDM14	1.00000-	COWUM14	-1100000
RC+ 614	COWME14	-10.00000	COWCP14	-0:16000
RCFG15	RCDMIS	1.00000	COWDMIS	-1.0000
861613	COUNTE	_ A • O O O O O	COMPHIC	-1 600000
RCFG15	COWME15	-10.40000	COWCP15	-0:19000
RUFG15	RCDM16	1.00000	COMUM20	-1:00000
RCFG16	COWME16	-10 -40000	COMCA19	-0119000
01 1 (17	RCDM17	10.70000	CONCIE	-0.19000
RUFG17 RUFG17	L'Chuit	1.00000	COWUM17	-1.00000
RCFG1/	COWME 17	-10.40000	COWCP17	-0119000
RLFG18	RCDM18	1.00000	COMUMIR	-1100000
HLFG18	COMME18	-10.10000	COMCPIB	-0118000
801 610	D C C L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L	10.10000	COMCLIO	-0.10000
Wel Già	RCDM19	1,00000	COMPWIA	-1100000
RCF 619	COWME19	-10:10000	COWDM19 COWCP19	~0118000
RC+ G20 RC+ G20	RCDM2U	1.00000	COMUMZO	-1.00000
RC+ 620	COWME20	-10.10000	COWCPZU	-0:18000
BUL ( 21	DOWNELLO	10.10000	COMCLEO	-0.10000
401.051	KCUMZI	1.00000	COWDMZ1	-1.00000
RCFG21	RCDM21 COWME21 RCDM22	-9.70000	COMCP21	-011/000
RUFG22	RCDM22	-9.70000	COWUMZZ	<b>*1</b> * 00000
RCF 622	COWME22	= 4.70000	COWCP22	m0 2 1 7 0 0 0
001022	DODHOZZ	***************************************	COMCLES	-0.17000
222112223338 G222223338 GCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	RCDM23 COWME23	-9.50000	COMUMES	-0:17000 -1:0000 -0:15000
RUF G23	COWME 23	-9.50000	COWCP23	-0115000
RUTGOS	RCOMOS	1.00000	COMPMOS	-1.00000
RCI GOS	COWMEUS	-10.00000	COMCPOR	-0.28000
81 5 600	Devito	10.0000	COMOLOG	-0.20000
RLI GUY	RCOM09	1.00000	COMPWOA	-1:00000
RCF GU9	COWMEO9	-10.00000	COMCDOA	-0128000
SLF GO7	SCDM07	1.00000	COWLMOT	-1:00000
SCI GU7	COWMEU7	-10.00000		#0:20000
50.00	CONTLO	10.00000	COMCPOI	-0.20000
SCIGUB	SCDMOB	1.00000	COMPWAR	-1.00000
SCI GOS	COWME08	1.00000	COWCPOS	-0120000
SULGOS	SCDMOY	1.00000	COMUNOS	-1.00000
SC1 609	COWHEU9	-10.00000		*0:3:400
201 000	COMMEDA	- 10.00000	COMCPOS	-0.20000
SLF 610	SCDMIU	1.0000	COMUMIU	-1.00000
SCF G10	COWMETO	-10120000	COWCFED	0120000-
WL+ 607	WLDM0/	1.00000	COMUMOT	-1:00000
WLI GO7		*********	CONCHEZ	
HE1 007	COWMEU7	-9.10000	COMCHOS	-0:1:000
WL1 608	MLDWOR	1.00000	COMPHOR	-1.00000

WLI GOS	COWMEU8	-4.10000	COMCHAR	-0.16000 -1.00000	
WLFG09	WEDMO9 COMMEUS	-9.10000 -9.10000	COMPAGA	-0116000	
PSGP0709	PSDM07 PSDM09	660.00000 927.00000	PSDD MOP PSDMID PSDMID PSDMID PSDMID PSDMID PSDMID PSDMID	-3500100000 -3500100000	
PSGP0709	MARGI I PSDM11	301400000	CASHSP-	60.0000	
PSUPO7U9	CAPITAL	35.00000 872.00000	SIL	927:00000	
PSGP0810 PSGP0810	PSDMO8 PSDM10	.689.00000	PSGUM	=3500100000	
PSuPU810 PSuPU810	MARGIN PSDM12	280.00000	PSDM11 CASHSO	602:00000	
PS640810	CAPITAL	35.00000	CASHSO SIL PSDM10 PSDM12	1:00000	
PSGP0911 PSGP0911	PSDM09 PSDM11	602400000	PSDM12	689.00000 572.00000 -3000.0000	
PSGP0911 PSGP0911	PSDM13 MARGIN	224.00000	CASHSU SIL	60100000	
PS6P0911	CAPITAL PSGDM	1.00000	COWDMUI	-1:00000	
PSUFG01 PSUFG01	COWMEU1	-9.50000	COMCPOI	-0:14000	
PSGFG01 PSGFG02	MARGIN PSGDM	1.00000	COMPMOS	-0.14000	
PSUFGO2 PSUFGO2	COWMEU2 MARGIN	-9.50000	COWCPGZ	• 5	
PSGFG03	PSGDM COWMEU3	1.00000	COMPAGE	-1.00000 -0.14000	
P56FG03 P56FG03	MARGIN	-0.00050		-1.00000	
PSUFGO4	PSGDM COWMEU4	-9.50000	COWEP94	-0114000	
PSGFG04 PSGFG05	MARGIN PSGDM	1,00000	COMPMOS	-1.00000	
PSGF 605	COWMEUS MARGIN	-9.50000	CONCPOS	-0114000	
PSUFGOS PSUFGO6	PSGDM	1.00000	COMPHOP	-0.14000	
PSuf GOO PSuf GOO	COMMEU6	-9.50000			
PSUFGUT PSUFGUT	PSGDM COWMEU7	1.00000	COMPHOY	-1.00000	
PSUFGU7	MARGIN	1.00000	COMPMOR	-1.00000	
PSGFGOB PSGFGOB	PSGDM COWMEU8	-9.50000	COMCPOS	-0.14000	
PSufGOD	MARGIN PSGDM	1.00000	COMPHOA	-1.00000	
PSufuuy	COWMEU9 MARGIN	-9.50000	COMCBGÓ	-0.14000	
Pauf Guy Pauf Glu	PSGDM	1.00000	COWCPIU	-0:14000	
PSuf G10 PSuf G10	COWME10 MARGIN	-9.50000	•		
PS & F G 1 1 PS & F G 1 1	PSGDM COWME11	-9.50000	COWCPII	-1.00000 -0.14000	

PSUFG11	MARGIN	-0.00650	250	1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1. 1	
PSGFG12 PSGFG12	PSGDM	1.00000	COWUM12	-1.00000	
PSulfile	COWME12 MARGIN	-9.50000	COWCP12	-0114000	
PSGFG13.	PSGDM	1.00000	COWUMIS	-1.00000	
PSUFGIR	COWME13	-9.50000	COWCPIS	-0.14000	
PSufG13 PSuFG14	MARGIN	1.00000	COMUMIA		
PSGFG14	PSGUM COWME14	-9.50000	COWUM14 COWCP14	-1.00000	
PSGFG14	MARGIN	-0.00850	-	01.4000	
PSGFG15 PSGFG15	PSGDM COWME15	-9.50000	COWCP15	1.00000	
P341 415	MARGIN	-0.00050	CONCES	-0:14000	
PSUFG16 PSUFG16	PSGDM	1.00000	CONUM16	-1.00000	
PSGFG1A	COWME16 MARGIN	-9:50000	COMCHIO	-0:14000	
PSGFG17	PSGUM	1.00000	COWUM17	-1.00000	
PSGF G17 PSGF G17	COWME17 MARGIN	-9.50000	COMCHIL	-0114000	
PSuFG1A	PSGUM	1.00000	COMPMIA	-1.00000	
PSGFG14	COWME18	<b>~9.50000</b>	COWCPIS	-0.14000	
PSUFG18 PSUFG19	MARGIN PSGDM	1100000	COWUMIS		
PSGFG14	COWME19	-y.50u00	COWCPIA	-1.00000 -0.14000	
PSGFG19 PSGFG20	MARGIN	-0.00850	•	14	
PSUFG20	PSGDM COWME20	-9:50000	COMCASO	-1:00000	
PSGFG20	MARGIN	-0.00850		0,14000	
PSGFG21 PSGFG21	PSGDM COWME21	1.00000	COMPW51	-1.00000	
PSGFG21	MARGIN	-9.50000	COMCP21	-0.14000	
PSuFG22	PSGDM	1 4 0 0 4 0 0	COMPWSS	-1.00000	
PSuFG22 PSuFG22	COWME22 MARGIN	-9.50000	COMCPZZ	-0114000	
PSGFG22 PSGFG23	PSGDM	1.00000	COMUM23	-1.00000	
PSGF G23 PSGF G23	COWME23	-9.50000	COWCHES	-0:14000	
PSUFG24	MARGIN PSGUM	1.00000	COMUM24	=1.000.00	
PSGFG24	PSGUM COWME24	-9.50000	COWCP24	-1.00000	
PSGFG24	MARGIN PSGDM	-0.00050			
PSGF G25 PSGF G25	COWME 25	-9.50000	COWDM25	-1.00000	
PSGFG25	MARGIN	-0.00850		-0.14000	
PSGF G26	PSGDM COWME26	-9.50000	COMPWSO	-1.00000	
PSUFG26	MARGII	-U.00050	COMCP26	-0:14000	
MZSGFG01 MZSGFG01	MZSGDM	1,00000	COHUMUI	-1.00000	
MZSGFGU1	COWMED1 MARGIN	-10.60000	COMCHOI	-0:09000	
MZSGFG02	MZSGDH	1.00000	COMPMOS	-1.00000	

86700//700 TEMPO			FREL
VERSIUN: 28.600.000			
M45GFGU2 COWMEO2	-10.60000	COMCLAS	£050A000
M45GFG02 MARGIN M45GFG03 MZ5GDM M45GFG03 COWME03	1.00000	COMPAGS	-0.09000
MZSGFGU3 MARGIN	1.00050	57-3	
MZSGFGO4 MZSGDM MZSGFGO4 COWMEO4 MZSGFGO4 MARGIN	-10.60000	COWCP94	-0:09000
MZSGFGO5 MZSGDM MZSGFGO5 COWMEO5	1400000	COMCEDS	-1.00000
MZSGFG05 MARGIN MZSGFG06 MZSGDM	1.00000	COMPMOP	-1.00000
MZSGFGO6 COMMEU6	10.60000	COMCPO	-0.04000
MZSGFGU7 MZSGDM MZSGFG07 COWMEO7	-10.60000	COMUMUZ	-0.00000
MASGEGOT MARGIN	1.00000	COMPMAR	
MASGEGGB COMMEDS	-10.60000	COMCLOR	-0:09000
MZSGFGOS MARGIN MZSGFGOS MZSGDM MZSGFGOS CONHEDS	1.00000	COMERDY	-1.00000
MZSGFG09 MARGIN MZSGFG10 MZSGDM	1.00000	COWDWIO	-1.00000
MZSGFGIO COWMEIO MZSGFGIO MARGIN	-10.60000	COMCPIO	-0:09000
MZSGFG11 MZSGDM MZSGFG11 COMME11	1.00000	COWDM11 COWCP11	-1.00000
MZSGFG11 MARGIN MZSGFG12 MZSGDM	1.00000	COMUM12	=1.00000
MZSGFG12 CUWME12 MZSGFG12 MARGIN	-10.60000	COMCP12	-0:09000
MZSGFG13 MZSGDM MZSGFG13 COWME13	-10.60000 -10.60000	COMCEIS	=1.00000 =0.09000
M45GFG13 MARGIN M45GFG14 MZSGDM	1:00000	COMUM14	-1.00000
MASCEGIA CONMEIA	-10.60000 -	COWCP14	-0:09000
MZSGFG15 MZSGDM MZSGFG15 COWME15	-10.60000	COWDMIS	-0.00000
MZSGFG15 MARGIN MZSGFG16 MZSGDM	1.00050	COMUN16	=1.00000
MASCIFGI6 COWME16	-10.60000	COWCPIO	-0.09000
M45GFG17 MZSGDA M45GFG17 COWME17	-10.60000	COMCETY -	-1.00000
MASGEGIT MARGIN	1.00050	COMPATO	-1.00000
MASGEGIB COMMETS	-10.60000 =0.00050	COWCPIB	-0:0000

700					
DASGEG10 DASGEG10	MARGIN DASGDM COWME10	1.00000	COWUMIO	-0.09000	
OASGFGIO OASGFGII OASGFGII	MARGIN DASGDM COMME11	1.00000	COWDM11 COMCP11	-1.00000 -0.00000	
OASGFG11 OASGFG12 OASGFG12	MARGIN DASGDM COWME12	1.00000	COMUM12 COMCP12	-1.00000	
DASGEGIZ DASGEGIZ DASGEGIZ DASGEGIZ DASGEGIZ	MARGIN DASGDM COWME13	1.00000	COMPHIS	-1.00000	
DASGFG14	MARGIN DASGDM COWME14	1.00000	COWDM14	-1:00000	mes (c)
DASGEG15 DASGEG15	MARGIN DASGDM COWME15	1.00000	COWUM12 COMCP15	-1.00000	
0A3GFG15 0A3GFG16 0A3GFG16	MARGIN DASGDA COWME16	1.00000 -5.90000	COWUM16 COWCP16	-1.00000 -0.09000	
DASGFG16 DASGFG17 DASGFG17	MARGIN DASGDM COWNE17	1.00000 -8.90000	COWDM1/ COWCP17	-1.00000	SAME SES
DASGFG17 DASGFG18 DASGFG18	MARGIN DASGDM COWME18	1.00000	COWUM18	-1.00000 - -0.09000	
DASGEGIS DASGEGIS DASGEGIS	MARGIN DASGDA CONME19	-0.00050 1.00000 -0.9000	COWUMLY	-1.00000	
DASGEG19 DASGEG20 DASGEG20	MARGIN DASGDM COWME20	1.00000	COMPWSO	-1.00000 -0:09000	
DASGFG20 DASGFG21 DASGFG21	MARGIN DASGDM COWME21	1.00000	COWDM21 COWCP21	-1.00000	¥ .
OASGEG21	MARGIN DASGDH COWME22	-0.00850 1.00000 -8.90000	COWDM22 COWCP22	=1.00000	
OASGFG22 OASGFG22 OASGFG23 OASGFG23	MARGIN DASGDM COWME23	-0.00850 1.00000 -8.90000	COWUM23 COWCP23	-1.00000 -0.00000	
DASGEG24 DASGEG24	MARGIN DASGDM COWME24	1.00000 -8.90000	CDWDM24	-1.00000	
DASGEG25 DASGEG25	MARGIN OASGDM COWME25	1.00000	COWDM25 COWCP25	-1.00000	
DASGFG25 DASGFG26	MARGIN	1.00000	COMPWSP	=1,00000	

0.0						
	DASGFG26 DASGFG26	COWME26 MARGIN	-8.90000 -0.00850	COMCP\$6	-0,09000	
	KUSGFGU1 KUSGFGU1	KUSGDM COMMEU1	1.00000	COWCPOI	-1.00000	
	KUSGFGUZ	MARGIN KUSGDM	1.00000	COMDMUZ	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG02	COWME02 MARGIN	-0.00050	CONCLES	-0 i 0 A 0 0 0 -	
	KUSGFG03 KUSGFG03 KUSGFG03 KUSGFG03	KUSGDM COWME03	1.00000	COMCHOS	-1.00000	
	KUSGFGG4	MARGIN KUSGDM	1.00000	COMUMU4	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG04	COWMEO4 MARGIN	-0.90000	COMCP04	-0:09000	
	KUSGFGUS	KUSGDM	1 - 1:00000	COMPMOS -	-1.00000	
	KUSGF GUS	COMMEOS MARGIN	-0.90000	COMCPOS	-010000	
	KUSGFGU6	KUSGDM COWME06	-8.90000	CDWCP06	=1.00000	
	KUSGF GU6	MARGIN	-U.0085U			
	KUSGFGU7	KUSGDM COWMEU7	-8.90000	COWCPO/	-1.00000	
	KUSGFGU7 KUSGFGU8	MARGIN Kusgdm	1.00000	COMPMOS	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG08	COWMEOR	-0.90000	COMCPOS	-0.09000	
	KUSGFG09	MARGIN KUSGDM	1.00000	COMDMOS	-1.00000	*
	KUSGFGU9	COWMEO9	-0.90000	COMCBOA	-0:09000	
	KUSGFG10 KUSGFG10	KUSGDM COWME10	-8.90000	COWCPIO	-1.00000 -0.09000	
	KUSGFG10	MARGIN	-0.00050	200	•	
	KUSGFG11 KUSGFG11	KUSGDM COWME11	-8.90000	COWCP11	-1.00000 -0.09000	
	KUSGFG11 KUSGFG12	MARGIN KUSGDM	1.00000	COMPW15	The second secon	570
	KUSGFG12	COWME12	-8.90000	COWCPIZ	-0.09000	
	KUSGFG12	MARGIN KUSGDM	1.00000	COWDM13	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG13 KUSGFG13 KUSGFG13	KUSGDM COWME13 MARGIN	-8.90000	COWCPIS	-0:09000	
	KUSGFG14	KUSGDM	1.00000	COWUM14	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG14	COWME14 MARGIN	-8.90000	COWCP14	-0:09000	
	KUSGFG15	KUSGD4 COWME15	-8.90000	COMPWID	-1.00000	
	KUSGFG15	MARGIN	-0100020	COWCPIS		
	KUSGFG16 KUSGFG16	KUSGDM COWME16	-0.90000	COMPH10	-0:09000	
	Kusuf G16	MARGIN	-0.00050	•		

SIUN: 26.60	000.000				
KUSGFG17 KUSGFG17	KUSGDM COWME17	1.00000	COWCP17	-1.00000	
KUSGFG18 KUSGFG18	MARGIN KUSGDM COWME18	-0.00050 1.00000 -0.90000 -0.00050	COWUMIO	-1.00000	
KUSGFG18 KUSGFG19 KUSGFG19 KUSGFG19 KUSGFG20	MARGIN KUSGDM COWME19 MARGIN	1.00000	COWUMIS	-1.00000	
KUSGFG20 KUSGFG20 KUSGFG20	KUSGDM COWME20 MARGIN	1.00000 -8.90000 -0.00850	COMPMEO	-0:09000	e =
KUSGF G21 KUSGF G21 KUSGF G21	KUSGDM COWME21 MARGIN	1.00000 -8.90000 -0.00850	COMPHS1	-1.00000 -0:09000	
KUSGFG22 KUSGFG22 KUSGFG22	KUSGDM COWME22 MARGIN	1.00000	COMCA55 COMPW55	-1.00000	-
KUSGFG23 KUSGFG23 KUSGFG23	KUSGDM COMME23 MARGIN	1.00000 -0.90000 -0.00850	COMPHES	-0.09000	
KUSGFG24 KUSGFG24 KUSGFG24	KUSGDM COWME24 MARGIN	1.00000 -8.90000 -0.00850	COWCP24	-0.09000	
KUSGFG25 KUSGFG25 KUSGFG25	KUSGDM COWME25 MARGIN	1.00000 =8.90000 =0.00850	COMCESS	-0:00000	
KUSGF G26 KUSGF G26 KUSGF G26	KUSGDA COWME26 MARGIN	1.00000 -0.90000 -0.00050	COMPM20	-0:09000	
RUHPRJA RUHPRJA RUHPRJA RUHPRFE	RCDM12 RCDM14 RCHAYUM RCDM14	1010.00000 980.00000 -3230.00000 980.00000	RCDM13 RCDM15 MARGIN RCDM15	1030.00000 840100000 -129100000	
RUMPRFE RUMPRFE RUMFGU1 RUMFGU1	RCDM16 RCHAYDM RCHAYDM COWMEU1	-2350.00000 -2350.00000 1.00000 -9.50000	RCDM1/ MARGIN COWDM01 COHCP01	420:0000 -94:00000 -1:00000 -0:15000	
RCHFGO2 RCHFGO2 RCHFGO3	RCHAYDM COMMED2 RCHAYDM	-9.50000 1.00000	COMC683 COMC603 COMC603	-1:00000 -0:15000 -1:00000	
RUNFGO3 RUNFGO4 RUNFGO4	COWMED3 RCHAYDM COWMED4	1.00000	COWUMO4 COWCP04	-1:00000 -0:15000 -1:00000	
RUMFG05 RUMFG06 RUMFG06 RUMFG06	RCHAYDM CONMEDS RCHAYDM COWMEDS	1.00000 1.00000 -9.50000	COMCP09 COMCP09	-0.15000 -1:00000 -0.15000	
RUMF GOT RUMF GOT	RCHAYDM COWMEU7	1.00000	COMCARI	-1:00000	

BB9900111223344556677BB9900112233445566 00000111111111111111111112222222222222	M8M9M0M1M2H3M4M5M6M7M8M9MQM1M2M3M4M5M6 YEYEYEYIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDIDI		00000000000000000000000000000000000000	-1:00000 -1:00000
MMF GO1	COWDMU1	-1.00000	COWMEU2	-10.00000
MMF GO2	COWCP01	-0.90000	MMDM	1600000
MMF GO2	COWDM02	-1.00000	COWMEU2	-10100000
MMF GO2	COWCP02	-0.90000	MMDM	140000
MMF GO3 MMF GO3 MMF GO4	COWCPO3 COWDMO4	-1.00000 -0.90000 -1.00000	COWMEUS MMDM - COWMEU4	-10:00000 1:00000 -10:00000
MM1 G04	COWCPU4	-0.90000	WWDW -2	-10:00000
MM1 G05	COWCPU5	-1.00000		-10:00000
MM1 G05	COWCPU5	-0.90000		1:00000

MMF GU6	COMDM06		-1.00000	COWME U6	-10.00000	
MMF GO6	COWCP06		0.90000	MHDH	1.00000	
HHIF GOT	COWDMUT		-1.00000	COWMEUT	-10:00000	27.
MMF GU7	COWCPUT		-0.90000	MMDH -	1 1 0 0 0 0 0	
MMF GOB	COMDMOR		-1.00000	COMMEUB	-10400000	
MMF GOB	COWCPU7 COWDMU8 COWCPU8		-0.90000	MMDM -	100000	
MMF GO9	COWDM09		-1.00000	COMMEUY	-10100000	
MM1 609	COWCPU9		-0.690000	MMDM	1.00000	
MMF G10	COWDMIÓ		-1.00000 -	COMMETO	-10100000	
MMF G10	COWCPIO		-0.90000	MMDM -	110000	
MMF G11	COWDMII		-1.00000	COMME 11	-10.00000	
Mir G11	COWCPII		-0.90000	MMDM	1.00000	
Mmr G12	COWDM12		-1.00000	COMMETZ	-10100000	
HNF G12	COWCP12		-0.90000	MMDM	1:00000	
MMF G13	COWDMIS	51	-1.00000	COWMETS	-10100000	337 3
MMr G13	COWCP13		-0.90000	MMDM	1:00000	
MMI GIS	COMUNIA		-1.00000	COWME14	-10100000	
MMF G14 MMF G14	COWUM14 COWCP14		-0.90000	MMDM	1:00000	
Mar (15	COMUNIE		-1.00000	COWMETS	-10:00000	10 25
MMt G15	COWCDIE		-0.90000	MMDM	1300000	
MMF G15	COWCP15 COWCP15 COWDM16		=1.00000	COWME 16	-10100000	
MMr G16	COWCP16		-1.00000	MMDM	1.00000	
MMF G16	COMONIZ		-1.00000	COWME 17	-10:00000	
MNFG17	COWDM17		-1.00000		1,00000	
MMr G17	COWCP17		-0.90000	MMUM ~		
MMF G18	COWDM18		-1.00000	COMMETA	-10100000	
MAIT G18	COWCP18		-0.90000-	MMDM-		
MMF 619	COWUM19		-1.00000	COWMETA	-10100000	
MHF G19	COWCP19		-0.90000	MMDM	-10.00000	
MMr G20	COWDM20		-1.00000	COMMEZO	1.00000	
MMF G20	COWCP20		-0.90000	COMME 21	-10.00000	
MMF G21	COWDM21		. =1.00000	COMMEST	1:00000	
MMF G21	COWCP21		-0.90000	MMDM COWME22	-10800000	0.69
MML 622	COWDM22		-1.00000	MMDM	1.00000	
MMF G22 MMF G22 MMF G23	COWCP22 COWDM23 COWCP23		-0.90000	COMMEZS	-10:00000	-
Mint G23	COMPMES		-0.90000	MMDM	1.00000	
Mrit G24	COWDM24		-1.00000	COWME24	-10100000	
MMF (24	COWCP24		-0.90000	MMDM	110000	
MMF G24 MMF G25	COWDM25		-1.00000	COWMEZS	-10100000	
MMF G25	COWCP25		-0.90000	MMDM	1100000	
MMF G26	COWDM26		-1.00000	COWMEZO	-10100000	
MMF G26	COWCP26		-0.90000	MMDM	1100000	
JI LUCVU1	COWDMOI		140.16000	COMUMUZ	183182000	-
JELUCVUI	COWDMU3		190.94000	COWDMO.4	202116000	
JF LUCVUI	COWDMUS		206.36000	COMPMOP	202116000 210114000 215104000 213150000	
Jr Lucvui	COWDMUT		213.92000_	LDWUMDR	215:04000	
JI LUCVOI	COWDM09		215.60000	COWDMIO	213450000	
JF LGCVU1	COWDM11		208.32000	COWDMIZ	203114000	
JF LUCVUI	COWDM13		197.82000	COWDM14	189100000	
JI LUCVUI	COWDM15		182.00000	COMUM16	172176000	
O' LUCYUI	COUPMEN			40110117-0		1000

3; 1000000000000000000000000000000000000	791351357913579 MM122351357913579 MM1222000000113579 MM1222000000000000000000000000000000000	163.80000 137.76000 137.90000 137.90000 137.90000 1365.20000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2185.80000 21773.80000 1573.800000	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	156.30000 142.600000 135.100000 141.120000 141.120000 1814.40000 2102.800000 2111.120000 1717.800000 1717.800000 1717.800000 1717.800000 1717.800000 1717.800000 1718.10000 276.110000 276.110000 276.110000 276.110000 276.110000 196.790000 196.790000 196.790000 196.790000 196.790000 196.790000
JF LUCVO1	COWCP11 COWCP15 COWCP17 COWCP19 COWCP21 COWCP21 COWCP23 MILKFAT	26.01000 22.00000 20.38000 19.05000 18.55000 10.80000	COWCP14 COWCP16 COWCP18 COWCP22 COWCP24 COWCP24 COWCP24	21:13000 19:79000 19:01000 16:87000 7:66000 9:39000
JF LUCVU3 JF LUCVU3 JF LUCVU3 JF LUCVU3	COWDM03 COWDM05 COWDM07 COWDM11 COWDM13 COWDM15	161.00000 146.16000 198.94000 206.36000 213.92000 215.60000 208.32000	COWDMD8 COWDMD8 COWDM12 COWDM12 COWDM14 COWDM16	183 · 82000 202 · 16000 210 · 14000 215 · 04000 213 · 50000 203 · 14000 189 · 00000 172 · 76000 156 · 38000
JF LUCVU3	COWDM17 COWDM19 COWDM21 COWDM23 COWDM01 COWMEU3 COWMEU3 COWMEU5	182.00000 163.80000 149.10000 137.76000 135.80000 135.80000 1365.00000 1814.40000	0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	172:76000 156:38000 142:80000 135:10000 136:50000 163:50000 163:82000 22:67000 22:67000 27:19000 28:4000
JF LUCVU3	COMMEUT	2102.80000	COWCPO7	28:40000

				V seems proper with	
JI LUCVU3	COWME 08	2224.60000	COMCDOR	28.97000	
3. 200 403	COMMENS	2214.20000	COMCPOS	28481000	
JA LUCVO3	COMMEDS	2210.20000		20.30000	
JI LUCVU3	COWME10	2185.40000	COMCPIU	28.30000	
JI LUCVU3	COWME11	2153.20000	COWCPII	27177000	
JI LUCVU3	COWME12 COWME13 COWME14	2153.20000 2111.20000 2039.80000 1933.40000 1773.80000	COWCP11 COWCP13 COWCP14	27 17 7000 27 11 1000 26 01 000 24 13 6000 22 10 000 21 13 000	
31 505 403	COMMETA	2111.20000	COHCRE	24.01000	
JF LUCVU3	COMMETS	2037100000	COMPLET		
JI LOCVO3	COWME14	1933440000	COWCP14	24436000	
IF LUCYO3	COWME15	1773480000	COWCP15 COWCP16	22100000	
31 500 403	COUNTER	1717.80000	COUCETA	21 1 3000	
JI LUCVO3	COWME16	1/1/40000	COMCLEO	21.13000	
JI LUCVO3	COWME17 COWME18 COWME19		COWCP17		-
JELGCVOS	COWME18	1625.40000	COMCPIO	19479000	
The Cicyon	COMMETO	1571.60000	COWCPIU	19405000	
31 200 003	COMME	1570 80000	CO. (CP 20	10.01000	
JI LUCYU3	CUMMEZO	1510.0000	CONCLEO	17.01000	
JI LUCVU3	COWME20 COWME21	1625.40000 1573.60000 1570.80000 1537.20000 1418.20000	COMCP21	19179000 19105000 191000 18155000 16187000	
JELGCVG3	COWNE22 COWNE23	1418 20000	CDWCP22	16:87000	
14 1 0 0 0 0 3	COMMESS	495.40000	COWCPZ3	10180000	
JI LUCYUS	COMMEZS	704.0000	COMCBA	4163000	
JE LUCVO3	COHME24	704.20000	CONCEST	6163000	
JFLL000033 JFLL0000033 JFLL0000033 JFLL0000033	COWME25	736.40000	COWCPPNI COWCPPNI COWCPPNI COWCPPNI COWCPPNI COWCPPNI		
JELOCVOS	COHME 26	774.20000	CDWCP26	7:66000	
JF L00 V03	COMMECI	521.80000 586.20000	COWCP01 COWCP01	9:06000	
31 146 403	COMMENT	694 - 90 - 00	COUCERS	9139000	
JL FUC 403	COMMERS	600320000	CUNCTOZ	9 9 3 9 0 0 0	
JELUCVOS	MILKFAT	-161.00000	Access of the second se		-
JELOCVOS	COMDM05	146 1 1 6 0 0 0	CDWDMOO	183.82000	
IL LOCALOE	COWDMOT	105.00000	COMPWOR	202:16000	
21 505 405	COMPHO	200.77000	COMPATA	210114000	
JL LUCYUS	COMDMO 9	200430000	COMPWIO		
Jr Lucvu5	COWDM11	206.36000 213.92000 215.60000 206.32000 197.82000	COMPNIS	213150000 213150000 203114000 189100000 172176000 156138000 142180000 135110000	
JELGEVUS	COWDM13 COWDM15 COWDM17	215.60000	COWUM 14	213150000	
It I CCV 15	COWDM15	206.32000	COWDM 26	203114000	
21 - 00 4 0 3	COHOMIZ	107.82000	COMPWIR	18910000	
2L LUCAO5		197.02000	COMPME	137.74000	
JI LUCVUS	COMDM19	IDZAUUUUU	COMUMZO		-
JI LUCVUS	COWDM21	163.80000	COWUMZZ	156438000	
JI LUCVOS	COWDM23	149410000	COWDM24	142 6 8 0 0 0 0	
31 200 005	COMPHASE	149.10000	COWUM26	135110000	
JI LUCVOS	COWDM25	13/ 1/0000	COMPHIC	134150000	
JF LUCVUS	COWDMO1	135.80000	COMPMOS		
JI LUCVUS	COWDMO3	137.90000	COWUM04	191812000	
JF LUCVUS	COWMEUS	1365.00000	CONCPOS	16124000	
The Cock of	COWME 06		CONCHOO	22167000	
JI LUCVUS	COMINE	1014.40000	COUCDEZ	26119000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME 07	2041.20000	COMCDOS	- 20019000	
JF LUCVUS	COWMEOS	2102.80000	COMCHOS	27119000 28140000 28197000	
JI LOCVOS	COWMEO9	2185.40000	COWCPTO	28540000	
JI LOCVUS	COWMETO .	2524.60000	COWCPIG	28197000	
21 50000	COMMETO	2224.00000	COMCP11	28181000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME11 CONME12	. 55 10 150000-	CONOFIA	60.01000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME12 COWME13	2185.40000	COWCP12	28 • 30000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME 13	2153.20000	COWCP13	27877000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME14	2111.20000	COWCP14	28:30000 27:77000 27:11000	
J. L. C. C. V. D. F.	COMMETE	2030.80000	COWCPIS	26.01000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME15	1814.40000 2041.20000 2102.80000 2185.40000 2224.60000 2216.20000 2116.20000 2153.20000 2111.20000 2133.40000 1773.80000	COUCES	20104010	-
JI LUCVUS	COWME 16	1933140000	COWCP10	24.30000	
JILDCVOS	COWME17	1773.80000	COWCP27	22.00000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME 18		COWCPIO	24:36000 22:00000 21:13:000 20:38:000	
TELECTOR	CONME 19	1660.00000	COMCPIN	20130000	
21 100 402	COMMETA				

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JI LOCYUS	COWME20	1625.40000	COWCP20	19.79000	
JF LUCVUS	COWME 21	1573.60000 1570.80000 1537.20000 1418.20000	COWCP21	19:05000 19:01000 18:55000 16:87000 10:80000	
JELUCVU5	COWME22	1537.20000	COWCP22 COWCP23	19101000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME24	1418.20000	COWCP24	16.87000	
JI LUCVUS	COWME25	995.40000	COWCP24 COWCP25	10180000	
JI LOCY 05	COWME 26 COWME 01	704120000	COWCPUI	0 0 0 3 0 0 0	
JI LOCVOS	COWMEO1	774.20000	COMCPOI	6199000	
JI LUCVUS	COMMEOS COMMEOS	821.80000	2042402	7166000	
JI LOCVUS	COWHEO4 MILKFAT	821.80000	COWCP02 COWCP04	9139000	
J+ L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L L	COWDMO7	-161.00000			
JI LUCVUZ	COMDMU9	198.94000	COWDMUS	183.82000	
JI LUCVUT	COWDM11	200436000	CIMUMIS	210114000	
JI LUCVO7	COMDW13	213.92000	COWUM14	215104000	
Ji Lucvoz	COWDM15 COWDM17	215460000	COMPWIP	213:50000	
JF LUCVU7	COMDM19	200.2000 140.16000 140.16000 200.36000 213.92000 215.60000 208.32000	COWDM14 COWDM16 COWDM18 COWDM20	183 · 82000 202 · 16000 210 · 14000 215 · 14000 215 · 50000 213 · 50000 203 · 14000	
JI LUCVUZ	COWDM21 COWDM23	182.00000	COWDM22	172 67 6000	
Jr Lucvor	COMDM23	163.80000	COWUM24	156136000	
JF LUCYO7	COMDM25 COWDM01 COWDM03 COWDM05 COWME07 COWME08	182.00000 163.80000 149.10000 137.76000 135.80000 137.90000	COWDM26 COWDM22	189 10000 172 170000 156 180000 142 180000 135 110000 136 150000 141 12000 121 69800 201 14600 24 1600	
JI LUCVUT	COWDMU3	135.80000	COWLMD4	136450000	
JI LUCYUZ	COMDMOS	137.90000	COWLMD4 COWLP87	141 • 12000	
JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT	COMMEDA	1365400000	COMCPO	12169800	
Jr LUCVU7	COWME 09	1017.70000	COWCPOS	20 1 4 6 0 0	
JI LOCVUT		2102.80000	COWCPTO	25.64800	
JI LUCVUT	COMME11	2185.40000	COWCP11 COWCP12	27.53800	
JI LUCVUZ	COWME13 COWME14 COWME15 COWME17 COWME17 COWME17	2041 • 20 00 0 2102 • 80 00 0 2185 • 40 00 0 2224 • 60 00 0 2185 • 40 00 0 2111 • 20 00 0 2137 • 80 00 0 1717 • 80 00 0 1717 • 80 00 0	COWCPIZ	24 6 9 6 0 0 25 6 6 4 8 0 0 27 6 5 3 8 0 0 27 6 4 2 0 0 27 6 4 2 0 0 27 6 4 0 0 26 6 2 0 0 22 6 8 2 0 0 0 22 6 8 2 0 0 0 22 6 8 2 0 0 0 19 6 6 0 0 18 6 6 0 0 0 18 6 6 0 0 0 18 6 6 2 0 0 18 6 6 2 0 0 18 6 6 2 0 0 18 6 7 5 8 0 0 17 6 1 2 0 0	
JF LUCVO7 JF LUCVO7 JF LUCVO7 JF LUCVO7	COMME14	2185.40000	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	27.14.00	
JI LUCVOZ	COMME15	2153.20000	COWCP15	26.26400	
JELOCVO7	COMMETO	2111.20000	COWCP16	25176000	w name par
JELUCVU7	COMME18	193440000	COWCPIA	24.08200	
Jr Lucvu7	COWMETS COWMENTER COWMENTER COWMETS COWMETS COWMETS COWMETS COWMETS COWMETS	1773.80000	COWCPIY	20139800	
JI LUCVUZ	COMME20	1717.80000	COWCPZO	19:58600	
JILUCVO7 JILUCVO7 JILUCVU7	COWNESS	1625.40000	COWCP21	18:66200	
JELUCVO7 JELUCVU7 JELUCVU7	COMME 23	1573.60000		19:58600 18:68200 18:20000 17:45800 17:12200 16:75800	
JF LUCVUT	COMME24	1570.80000	COWCP23	17:12200	
JELUCVU7	COMMESS.	1537.20000	COMCP25	16:75800	
JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT JF LUCVUT		995.40000	COWCP26	15.17600	
JI LOCVOZ	COMMEDS COMMEDS	704120000	COWCP01 COWCP02 COWCP03	5140000	
JEL GC VOZ	COMMEGS COMMEGS	736.40000	COMCPOS	5.74000	
JF LUCVUT	COWMEO5	1/1/•80000 1666•00000 1625•40000 1573•60000 1573•60000 1573•20000 1418•20000 704•20000 736•40000 774•20000	COWCP05	15.17600 9.45000 5.46800 5.74000 6.103400 6.141200	
			SOUP - 2	0.41200	

JELOCVO7 COMMEGO JELOCVO7 MILKEAT	880.20U00 -161.00U00	COMCPU6	7:26600	
JELUCV21 COWDM21 JELUCV21 COWDM23 JELUCV21 COWDM25	146.16000 198.94000 206.36000	COWDM22 COWDM24 COWDM26	183.82000 202:16000 210:14000	
JILUCYZI COMDMOI	213492000	COWDM04	213150000	
JFLUCV21 COWDMO5 JFLUCV21 COWDMO7 JFLUCV21 COWDMO9	208.32000 197482000 182.00000	COWDMOS COWDMIO	215104000 213150000 203114000 189100000 172176000	
JELOCVŽÍ COWDMII JELOCVŽÍ COWDMII JELOCVŽÍ COWDMIS	163.80000 149.10000 137.76000	COWDM12 COWDM14 COWDM16	156138000	
JELOCV21 COMDM17 JELOCV21 COMDM17 JELOCV21 COMDM19	135.80000	COWDM16 COWDM18 COWDM20	156 38000 142 80000 135 10000 136 50000	
JF LUCV21 COWDM05 JF LUCV21 COWDM05 JF LUCV21 COWDM09 JF LUCV21 COWDM11 JF LUCV21 COWDM15 JF LUCV21 COWDM15 JF LUCV21 COWDM15 JF LUCV21 COWDM17 JF LUCV21 COWDM17 JF LUCV21 COWDM21 JF LUCV21 COWME21 JF LUCV21 COWME22 JF LUCV21 COWME22 JF LUCV21 COWME22	1365.00000 1814.40000 2041.20000 2102.80000 2185.40000	COWCP21 COWCP22	16.24000 22.67000 26.19000	
JFLUCV21 COMME24 JFLUCV21 COMME24 JFLUCV21 COMME25	2041.20000 2102.80000	COWCP23 COWCP24 COWCP25	27119000	
JILUCV21 COWME26	2224.60000	COWCP26 COWCP01 COWCP02	28 4 4 0 0 0 0 28 4 9 7 0 0 0 28 4 8 1 0 0 0 28 4 3 0 0 0 0	
JELUCVZI COWMEOZ JELUCVZI COWMEOZ JELUCVZI COWMEOZ	2185440000 2153120000	CDWCP03 CDWCP04	28130000 27177000 27111000	
JELUCV21 COMMEDS	2224.60000 2216.20000 2185.40000 2153.20000 2111.20000 2039.80000 1933.40000 1773.80000	COMCPOS		
JELUCVZI COWMEON JELUCVZI COWMEON JELUCVZI COWMEON	1773.80000	COWCPO7 COWCPO8	22100000 21113000 - 2013000	
JELUCV21 COWME10	1625.40000 1573.60000 1570.80000 1537.20000	COHCP10 COMCP11	19179000	
JFLOCV21 COWME12 JFLOCV21 COWME13 JFLOCV21 COWME14		COWCP12 COWCP13 COWCP14	19:01000 -18:55000 -16:87000	
JELOCV21 COWNEIS	704.20000	COWCP15 COWCP16 COWCP17	6163000	
THEOCAST COMMETS	795.40000 704.20000 736.40000 774.20000	\$143WB3	7:66000	
JILLICVOI COMMEZO	161.00000- 140.16000	COWCPZO CUWDM24	9:39000	
JELOCV23 COWDM25	190.94000	COWDM26 COWDM02	202:16000	
JILOCV23 COWDMU3 JILOCV23 COWDM05 JILOCV23 COWDM07	213.92000	COMUMO 6 COMUMO 6	213,50000	-
JELUCV23 COMDMO9 JELUCV23 COMDM11	197.82000 182.00000	COMPWIS	183.82000 202.16000 210.14000 215.04000 213.50000 203.14000 189.00000	

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	COWDM035 COWDM035 COWDM035 COWDM039 COWDM03113 COWDM1135 COOWDM113	774.20000 886.20000 140.16000 140.16000 1206.36000 213.60000 215.60000 197.82000 182.0000 182.0000 143.16000 143.16000 143.17.6000 135.60000 137.90000 1365.0000 1514.40000 1514.40000 1514.40000 1514.40000	NONTO DO NATIONAL NAT	183.82000 200.10000 210.14000 215.04000 213.50000 203.14000 189.00000 172.76000 156.38000 142.80000 135.10000 135.10000 136.50000 141.12000 141.12000 22167000 22167000 2814000

JELUCY25	COWMEU4	2224.60000	COMCPU4	28.97000	
	COWMEU6 COWMEO7	2185 • 40000 2153 • 20000 2111 • 20000 2039 • 80000 1933 • 40000	COWCP06 COWCP07	20120000	
JI LUCVES	COWMEUS COWMEUS	2111.20000	COWCPOS	27177000 27111000 27111000 26101000 24136000 22100000 21113000 20138000	
JI LOCVES	COWME10	1933.40000	COWCP10 COWCP11	24:36000	
JI LUCV25	COWME11	1717.80000	COWCP12	21113000	
JI LUCV25	COWME12 COWME13 COWME14 COWME15 COWME16	1625 - 40000	COWCPIA	19:79000	
JF LUCV25	COWME15 COWME16	1573.60000	COWCP15 COWCP16	19.01000	
JELUCV25	COWME17 COWME18	1573.60000 1570.80000 1537.20000 1418.20000	COWCP17	18:55000	
JE LUCV25	COWME19 COWME20	704.20000	COWCPIS	10180000	
JI LOCVES	COWMES!	. 736 440000 -	COWCP20	6.99000	
JI LUCV25	COWME21 COWME22 COWME23 COWME24	774.20000	COWCP22	7166000	
JF LUCV25	MILKIAI	880.20000 =161.00000	COWCP24	9439000	
JILIILVIY	COWDM19 COWCP19	146 16000	COWME 19 COWDMZO	1365.00000 183.82000 22.67000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME20 COWDM21	1814440000	COWCPZU COWMEZI	22 67 000	
JELUCVI9	COWCP21 COWME22	20.19000	COWDM22 COWCP22	202116000	
JI LUCVI9	COWDM23 COWCP23	200.36000	COWMEZ3 COMUMZ4	2185 40000	
JI LUCVI9	COWME24	28.40000	COWCP24	28197000	
JI LUCVIS	COWDM25 COWCP25	213492000	COMPWESS	2216120000 215104000 28130000	
JI LUCVIO JI LUCVIO	COWME 26 COWDMU1	2185.40000 215.60000 27.77000	COMCP26	2153 · 20000 213150000	
JI LUCV19	COWCPU1	27.77000	COWDM02 COWCP02	213150000	
JI LUCVI9 JI LUCVI9 JI LUCVI9	COWDMJ3 COWCP03	200.32400.	COWNED3	27511000 2039 80000 203814000	
JE LUCVIS	COWME 04	1933.40000 197.82000	COWCP04 COWMEDS	1773 80000 189 10000	
JI LUCV19	COWCPU5	22.00000	COWUMD6	21113000	
JI LUCVIS	COWMED6 CONUMJ7	1717.80000	COWMEDY	1666 • 00000	
JI LUCVIS	COWCPU7 COWMEU8	1625.4000	COMPAGG	172170000 19179000 157360000	
JELUCV19	COWDM09	163.80000	COMMEDS	156438000	
JELUCVI9	COWME10 COWDM11	1570.80000	COWCP10 COWME11	19101000	
Alberta Waller		V NAC TO BE A SECOND			

JELDEV19	COWCP11	. 18.55000	COMUNIO	440 Bucco
The CCU I	COMPLET	10.55000	COMPW15	142.80000
JI LUCVIS	COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13	1418.20000	COWCP12	16.87000
JF LOCVIS	COWDM13	137.76000	COWME 13	995140000
JF LICVIS	COWCP13	10.80000	COWUM14	135110000
JELUCVI9	COMMETA	704 20.00	COMPME	133010000
J. LUCVIY	COWME14 COWDM15	704.20000	COWCP14 COWME15	6.63000
JI LUCVIY	COWDMIS	135.80000	COWME 25	736 4 4 0 0 0 0
JFL0CV19 JFL0CV19 JFL0CV19 JFL0CV19	COWCP15 COWME16	774.20000	COWUM10 COWCP16 COWME17	136150000
JELOCVIO	COMMETA	774.20000	COMCRE	120.20000
11 -000	COMMETO	174.20000	COMCETO	7 8 6 6 0 0 0
21 FUCATA	COMPWIL	137.90000	COWMEIN	821 80000
JI LUCV19	COWDM17 COWCP17	9.06000	COMUMIS	9139000
JI LUCVI9	COWME18	886120000	COWCPIB	9114000
JFL0CV19 JFL0CV17 JFL0CV17 JFL0CV17	MILKFAT	-161.00000	CONCIED	9.39000
11 -000 413	MILNIA	-101.00000		
JI LUCVII	COWDM17	146.16000	COWME1/	1365.00000
JI LUCV17	COWCP17	12.69800	COMPWIR	183482000
JI LUCVIT	COWME18	1514.40000	CONCPID	20114600
JI LUCVIT	COWDM19		CONCLE	20.14000
JI LUCVIT	CUMBMIA	190494000	COWME 19	2041 120000
JF LUCVIT	COWCP19	24.69600	COWDMZO	202116000
JF LUCVIT	COWMEZO	2102480000	COWCPZU	25164800
JF LUCVIT	COWDM21	2102.80000 206.36000 27.53800 2224.60000	COWMEZI	25164800
JI LUCVIT	COHODA	200.30000	COMMET	2103440000
JFLUCV17 JFLUCV17	COWCP21	27453800	COMUMEZ	210114000
JI LUCVIT	COWNE22 CUMDH23	2224.60000	COWCP22	28402800
JI LUCVIT	CUMDH23	213.92000	COWMEZS	2216120000
JI LUCVIT	COWCP23	27 48200	COWDM24	2210120000
JILUCVIT JILUCVIT JILUCVIT JILUCVIT	COUNTER	27.48200 2185.40000 215.60000	CUNDMEN	28.02800 2216120000 215104000 27.110400
JFLOCVI7 JFLOCVI7 JFLOCVI7 JFLOCVI7	COWME24	2100440000	COWCP24	27110400
JE LUCV17	COWDM25	215.60000	COWMEZS	2153120000
JF LUCVI7 JF LUCVI7	COWCP25 COWCP25 COWME26	26.26400	COWUM26	2153120000 213150000 25176000
JELUCVIZ	COWMEZA	2111.20.00	COWCP26	205776000
	COMMILLE	26.26400 2111.20000 208.32000 24.68200	CONCELO	23010000
JE LUCVIT	COWDMU1	200.32000	COWMEU1	2039180000
JF LUCV17	COWCPUI	24.68200	COMPMOS	203114000
JI LUCVIT	COWMEU2	1933.40000	COMCP02	22 82000
IFI CCVIZ	COMMEUS COMDMOS	24.68200 1933.40000 197.82000	COWMED3	1773180000
JI LUCVIT	COWCP03	2000	COMMEGS	1113.00000
O' LUCATA	CUMCEOS	20.39800	CUWDM04	189100000
JELOCVI7	COWME 04	1717.60000	COWUMO4 COWCP04	189100000
JI LUCVIT	COWDM05	182.00000	COWMEDS	1666500000
JELOCVIT JELOCVIT JELOCVIT JELOCVIT JELOCVIT	CONCP05	182.00000	COWDM06	170176000
JE LUCVI7	COMME U 6	1435 40200		115010000
JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7	CUMMEOD	1625.40000	COMPEDO	1666 00000 172 76000 1842 0000 1573 60000
JI LUCVIT	COWUM07	163.80000	COWME 07	1573160000
JI LUCVIT JI LUCVIT	COMCP07	17.45000	COMUMOS	156438000
JELUCVI7	COWME08	1570.80000	COMCBUS	17713000
JI LUCVIT	COMDIA09	1570.80000	COWCPOS	17112200
JE LUCVIT	COMPINOS	149.10000	COMMEGA	1537120000
JI LUCVIT	COWCP09	16.75000	COWUMTO	142.80000
JI LUCVI7	COWMETO	1418.20000	COWCPIU	15117600
JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7	COWDM11	137.76000	COWCP10 COWME11	005 7 8 0000
JI LUCVIT	COWCPII	45.000	COMPLET	995140000
The Cocura		16.75800 1418.20000 137.76000 9.45000	COWUM12	135410000
JI LUCVIT	COWNE12	704.20000	COWCP12	5 6 4 0 8 0 0
JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7	COWNE12 CONDM13	135.80000	COWMETS	736140000
JI LOCV17	COWCP13	5.74000	COWUM14	1 16150000
JI LOCVIT	COMME14	774 0000	COMCHE	136550000
JELUCVI7 JELUCVI7	COMMETA	114.50000	COWCF14	6.03400
JF LUCVIT	COWUM15	774.20000	COMMESS	6 0 3 4 0 0 8 2 1 8 8 0 0 0 0
JF LUCVIT	COWCP15	0.41200	COMPWIE	141:12000
			201121120	14111000

JILUCVIT	COMME16	680.20000	COWCP16	7:26600	
JI LBCV17	MILKFAT	=161.00000	00	1245 04000	-
JI LUCVIS	COWDM15	140.16000	COWME15	1365.00000	
Jr LUCV15	COMCEIS	12469800	COWUMIO	183.82000	
JI LUCVIS	COMME16	1514.40000	COWCP16	20114600	
JI LUCV15	COWCP15 COWME16 COWDM17	198.94400	COWME 1/	2041;20000	
JF LUCVI5 JF LUCVI5 JF LUCVI5 JF LUCVI5	COWCPI7	24.69000	COWDM18	20114600 2041220000 202116000 25164800	
JI LUCVIS	COWMEIS	2102 4 80000	COWCPIB	25164800	
JI LUCVIS	COWDM19	206.36000	COWMETS	2185 40000	
JI LUCVIS	COWCP19	27.53800	COWUMZO	210114000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME20	2224.60000	COWCPZU		
JE LUCVIS	COWDM21	214.92000	COWME 21	2214120000	
JE LUCVIS	COWCP21	214.92000	COWUM22	2210.20000	
JI LUCVIS	COMPLETE	27.48200	CONDMEZ	213.04000	
AL LUCAIS	CUMMEZZ	2102140000	COMCPZZ	27014400	
JL LUCATO	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23 COWME24	215.60000	COWME 23	2133420000	
DL FACA12	COMCP23	20.26400	COMUM24	213450000	
JI LOCV15	COWME24	2111.20000	COWCP24 COWME25	251/6000	
JILUCVIS JILUCVIS JILUCVIS JILUCVIS	CHWIIMES	2111.20000	COMMESS	2039180000	-
JI LUCV15	COWCP25	24.68200	COWLP26	203114000	
JI LUCVIS JI LUCVIS JI LUCVIS JI LUCVIS	COWME26	24.68200	COWLPZO	28102800 216120000 215104000 2711400 213150000 213150000 25176000 203114000 203114000 1773180000	
JI LUCVIS	COWDM01	197.82000	COWMEDI	1773 \$ 80000	
JI LUCVIS	COWCPU1	20.39800	COMPWOS		
JI LUCVIS	COWMEUS	20.39800 1717.80000	COWCP02	19158600	
JI LUCVIS JI LUCVIS	COWMEO2 COWDMO3	182.00000	COMMEDS	1666 100000	
JELGCVIS	COWCP03	18.66200	COWUMD4	172476000	
JF LUCV15 JF LUCV15 JF LUCV15 JF LUCV15	COWME04	1625.40000	COHCPO4	1573 60000 1573 60000 156 30000 17 12200 1537 22000	_
JELUCVIS	COWDM05	163.80000 .	COMMEDS	1573460000	
JELGCVIA	COWCP05	17.45.00	ADMITMON	156134000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME U6	1570.80000	COMCHA9	17112200	
JI LUCVIS	COWBMO7	149.10000	COWMEDY-	1537120000	
JI LUCVIS	COWCPUT	16.75000	COMUMOS	142180000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME 08	1418 75000		15117600	
JI LUCVIS	COMMEDO	1418.20000	COMCPOS	15017000	
Jr Lucvis	COWDM09	137.76000	COMMFOR	995140000	
JL FUCATO	COWCPU9	9 4 4 5 0 0 0	COMPHIO	135410000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME 10	704.20000	COMCPIU	5 4 4 8 0 0	
JI LUCV15	COWDM11	135.80000	COWME 11	736140000	
JI LUCVIS	COWCP11 COWME12 COWCP13	5.74000	COMPWIS	136.50000	
JI LUCV15	COMME12	774.20000	COMCHIZ	6.03400	
JI LUCVIS	COWDM13	137.90000	COWMETS COWDM14	821 80000 141 12000	
JI LUCVIS	CUWCP13	0.41200	COWDM14	141112000	
JI LUCVIS	COWME14	886.20000	COWCF14	7:26600	
JF LOCVIS	COWME14 MILKFAT	-161.00000			
JI LUCVI3	COWDM13	146.16000	COWMETS	1365.00000	
JF LUCV13	COWCP13	12.69000	COWUM14	183.82000	
JI LUCVI3	COWME14	1614.40000	COWLP14	20114600	
JE LUCVI3	COWDHIS	198.94000	COWNEIS	2041120000	
JF LUCVI3	COWCP15	24.69000	COMUM16	202116000	a.
JELUCV13	COWME16	24.09000	COMPHIC	25164400	
JELUCVI3		2102.80000	COWCP16 COWME17	25164800	
	COWDM17	200.30000	COMMET	2103.40000	
JI LUCVI3	COWCP17	27.53800	COMPHIR	210:14000	

JF LUCV13	COWME18	2224.60000 CDWC	P18 28.02800	
JF LUCV13	COWDM19 COWCP19	213.92000 COWN 27.48200 COWN	221612000	
Jr Lucv 13	COWME20	2163.40000 COWO	PZU 27:10400 EZ1 2153:20000 MZ2 213:50000 PZ2 25:76000 EZ3 2039:80000 MZ4 203:14000 PZ4 22:82000 EZ3 17:73:80000	
JELUCVI3	COWDM21 COWCP21	26.26400 . COWL	0M22 213350000	
JI LUCVI3	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	2111120000 - CDWC	25176000 E23 2039180000	
JI LUCVI3	COWCP23	24.68200 CDWD	203114000	
JF LUCVI3	COWME24 COWDM25	1933.40000 CDWC	P24 22182000 E25 1773580000	
JF LUCV13	COWCP25 COWME26	20.39800 COMU	10910000	
Jr Lucvis	COWDM01	1717.80000 CDWC	EU1 1666.00000	
JELDCV13	COMCPU1	18166200 COWD	M02 172176000 P02 18120000	
JE LUCVI3	COMDM03	163.80000 CDWM	ED3 1573:60000	
JI LUCV13	COWCPU3 Cowneu4	1570.80000 COWC	E03 1573660000 M84 156838000 P04 17812200	
JI LUCVI3	COWDMU5 COWCPU5	149.10000 COWM	EUS 1537x20000	
JI LUCVI3	COMME06	1418.20000 COWC	M06 142 8 8 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	
Jr Lucvi3	COWDM07	7137176000 COWM	995140000 MD8 135110000	
JI LUCVI3	COWNEO8	704620000 CDWC	P08 5148800	
00000133 00000133 0000000133 0000000133 0000000133 000000133 000000133 000000133 000000133 000000133	COWCP09		736140000 MTO 136150000	
JF LUCVI3	COWME10 COWDM11	774.20000 CDWC	P10 6.03400	
JF LUCV13 JF LUCV13 JF LUCV13	COWCP11 COWME12	0.41200 COWD	M12 141112000	
JI LIIUV13	MILKFAT	*161.00000	•	
AP26/FU AP26/FU	COWDMO1 COWCPO1	213.92000 COWM 25.81000 COWM	EU1 2216.20000	
AT 26/FU	COWMEO2 COWDMO3	2185.40000 CDWC	28:30000	
APZ6/FO	COWCP03	27.77000 COWL	M04 213.50000	
AF 26/FU	COWDMD5	2111.20000 COWC	P04 27111000	
AFZEIFU	COWCPU5	26.01000 'CDWD	MU6 203114000	
ATZ6/FU	COMPMO7	197.82000 COWM	P06 24.36000 E07, 1774100000	
A726/FU	CONCPO7 COMMEDS	1718.00000 COWD	M98 189100000	
AFZ67FU	COMPN13	182.00000 COWM	1666.00000	
APZ6/FU	COMCPO9	20.38000 CDWL	P10 19179000	
APZ6/FU	COMDM11 COMCP11	163.80000 CDWM	E11 1574 00000	
AP26/FU	COWME 12	1571.00000 COWC	P12 19101000	

AT26/FU AT26/FU AT26/FU AT26/FU	COWDM13 COWCP13 COWME14 COWDM15	149.10000 18.55000 1418.00000 137.76000	COWME13 COMUNIA COMCP14 COWME15	1537 • 00000 142380000 16387000 995 • 00000
APZ6/FU APZ6/FU APZ6/FU APZ6/FU APZ6/FU	COWCP15 COWME16 COWDM17 COWCP17 COWME18	10.80000 704.00000 135.80000 0.99000 774.00000	COWUM16 COWCP16 COWME17 COWUM18 COWCP18	135.10000 6.63000 736.00000 136.50000 7.66000
AP26/FU AP26/FU AP26/FU AP26/FU AP26/FU	COWDM19 COWCP19 COWME20 COWDM21 COWCP21	137.90000 9.06000 886.00000 146.16000 16.24000	COMME 19 COMUMZO COMCPZO COMMEZ1 COMUMZ2	82210000 141612000 9539000 1365600000 183682000 22667000
AF26/FO AF26/FO AF26/FO AF26/FO AF26/FO	COWNE22 COWDM23 COWCP23 COWME24 COWDM25	1614.40000 198.94000 26.19000 2102.80000 206.36000	COWCPZZ COWMEZ3 COWDMZ4 COWCPZ4 COWMEZ5	22167000 2041120000 202116000 
AF 26/FU AF 26/FU AF 26/FU AF 26/FU AF 26/F1	COWCP25 COWME26 MILKFAT APCOWS COWDM01	28.40000 2224.60000 -161.00000 1.00000 213.92000	COWDED1	210 1 1 4 0 0 0 28 1 9 7 0 0 0 1 1 0 0 0 0 0 2216 1 2 0 0 0 0
AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1	COWCPO1 COWME02 COWDMU3 COWCPU3 COWME04	28.81000 2185.40000 215.60000 27.77000 2006.00000	COWDM02 COWCP02 COWME03 COWDM04 COWCP04	215.04000 28430000 2153.20000 213.50000 25.44000
AF26/F1 AF26/F1 AF26/F1 AF26/F1	COWDMOS COWCPOS COWMEU6 COWDMU7 COWCPO7	208.32000 22.94000 1740.00000 197.82000	COWMEDS COWLMD6 COWCPD6 COWMED7 COWUMD8	1835100000 203114000 21149000 1596100000
AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1	COWNEO8 COWDMO9 COWCPO9 COWME10	1540.00000 182.00000 17.99000 1463.00000	COWCPOS COWDMIO COWCPIO COWCPIO	18463000 1499400000 172476000 17444000 1417400000
AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1 AP26/F1	COWDM11 COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13	163.80000 16.79000 1414.00000 149.10000	COWDM12 COWCP12 COWME13 COWDM14	156438000 16476000 138340000 142480000 14469000
AF 26/F1 AF 26/F1 AF 26/F1 AF 26/F1 AF 26/F1	COWME14 COWDM15 CDWCP15 COWME16 COWDM17	1277.00000 137.76000 11.52000 868.00000 135.80000	COWCP14 COWME15 COWCP16 COWCP16 COWME17	1044:00000 135410000 9:11000 1029:00000
AF26/F1 AF26/F1	COWCP17 COWME18	1124.00000	COMCAIR	13213000

AP 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	COWCE23 COWCE2	137.90000 12.31000 933.00000 140.16000 160.24000 1814.40000 20.19000 2102.80000 2102.80000 2224.60000 2224.60000 2155.00000	COUNTY CO	1072.00000 141.12000 10108000 1365100000 136510000 22167000 22167000 241120000 27119000 2185140000 28197000 1100000
\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	112334556778999011123345567789990112334 PPEMPPEMPPEMPPEMP11111111112222222222222	213-92000 228-81000 2185-60000 215-60000 215-60000 1900-32000 197-82000 197-82000 197-82000 182-00000 182-00000 1375-00000 144-00000 134-10000 134-10000 137-10000 1430-0000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 154-00000 109-00000 146-140000 198-94000 198-94000 208-94000 208-94000	10000000000000000000000000000000000000	2216.20000 215.04000 28130000 2131500000 2131500000 23140000 218164000 1420.000000 1891000000 172.760000 172.760000 175.700000 175.700000 1421800000 1421800000 1421800000 1421800000 1421800000 13615000000

	,				
AF267F2	COWDM25	206.36000	COWME25	2185.40000	
AF 26/F2	COWCP25 -	28+40000	COMUNZO	210:14000 -	
AF 26 ( F 2 AF 26 ( F 2	COWME26 MILKFAT	2224.60000	COMCPZO	28197000	
AF26/F2	MILKFAT	-148.00000	COMP .	1:00000	
APZ6/12	APCUWS	1.00000	COMMENT	2214.20000	
AFZ39FU	COWDM01	213.92000	COWDESS	2216:20000	-
AP 239 F 0	COWCP01	20.01000	COMDMOS	28:30000	
AF 239F 0	COWMEU2	2185.40000	COWMEDS .	2153 20000	
APZ39FU	COWDMO3	215.60000	COWDM04	213150000	
AP 239F0	COWCP03	21.77000	COMCP04	27111000	*
AF 239F 0	COMMEU4	2111.20000	COMMFO2	2040 000000	
AP 23910	COWDMU5 CONCPU5	26.01000	COMUMO 6	203114000	
APZ39FU		1034 0000	COMCPOS	24:36000	
AFZ39FU AFZ39FU	COWMEU6 COWDMO7	1933.00000	COMMENT	1774 00000	-
AF239FU	COWCPO7	22.00000	COMPWOR	189100000	
AP 239FU	COWMEOR	1718-00000	COMCPOS	21413000	
APZ39FU	COWDMOS	1718.00000	COWMEDS	21:13000	econor
A+239FU	CONCPJ9	20.38000	COWDMIO	172.76000	
AF239FU	COWMETO	1625.00000	COWCPIO	19.79000	
AF 239FU	COWDMII	163.80000	COWME 11	1574800000	
AP 239FU		19.05000	COMPW15	156.30000	20
AF 239FU	COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13	1571.00000	COWCP12	19101000	
AF 239FU	COWDM13	149.10000	COWMETS	1131 00000	
AFZ39FU	COWCP13	12.36000	COWUM 24	142 80000	
AFZ39FU	COWME14	764+00000-	COMCP14	6171000	
AFZ39FL	COWDM15	137.76000	COMMESS	734100000	
ATZ39FU	COWCP15	6.68000	COMPWIO	135:10000	
AFZ34FU	COWME16	704.00000	COWCP10	6163000	
AT & 3 YFU	COWDM17	135.80000	COMMET?	136150000	
APZ39FU	COWCP17	6.99000	COWDMIS	7:66000	
AFZ39FU	COWME 18	774.00000	COWCPIO	7.00000	
APZ39FU	COWDM19	137.90000	COWNE 19	822100000	
AP 239 FO	COWCP19	9.06000-	COWCPZO	9139000	
APZ39FU	COWME20	686.00000	COMMERI	1365100000	
AFZ39FU	CONUM21	146.16000	COWUMZZ	183182000	
AF239F0	COWCP21	10.24000	COWCP22	22167000	
AMZ39FU	COWME 22 COWDM23	198.94000	COWME 23	22167000	-
APZ39FO	COMCROS	26.19000	COWUM24	202116000	
AF239F0	COWCP23 COWME24	2102.80000	COWCP24	27119000	
AP 239F 0	COWUM25	206.36000	COWMEZS	- 2185140000	
AP 239 F 0	COWCP25	20.40000	COWUMZO	210114000	
AP 239F 0	COWME26	2224460000	COWCFZ6	28.97000	
AP239FU	MILKFAT	2224.60000	COMS .	1 6 0 0 0 0 0	
Ar 239F 6	APCOWS	1.00000			
AF 239F1	COWDM01	213.92000	COWMEU1	2216.20000	
Ar 239F1	COWCPOI	28.81000	COMPMOS	215:04000	
AFZ39F1	COMME 02	2185.40000	COWCP02	28130000	
Ar 239F1	COMDMOS	215.60000	COMMEDS	2153120000	
			Comments were a		

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22222222222222222222222222222222222222	COWDMO1 COWCPO1 COWCPO3 COWCPO3 COWCPO5 COWCPO5 COWCPO5 COWCPO7 COWCPO7 COWCPO7 COWCPO7 COWCPO7 COWCPO7	213.92000 28.81000 2185.40000 215.60000 27.77000 1900.00000 208.32000 1947.82000 16.76000 1375.00000	12223441007889 MEMBER BER BER BER BER BER BER BER BER BER	2216.20000 215:04000 28:30000 2153:20000 213:50000 1632:00000 203:14000 1420:0000 189:00000 189:00000 1333:0000

	THE CHARLEST COLUMN				
AF439F2	COWCP09	15.48000	COMPWIO	172.76000	
AF239F2	COWME10	1301.00000	COWCRIO _	15101000	
47239F2	COWDM11	163.80000	COWME 11	1259100000	
APZ39F2 APZ39F2 APZ39F2	COWCP11	14.42000	COWDMIZ	156138000	
AP 239 F 2 AP 239 F 2	COWDM13 COWCP13	1257.00000	COWCP12 COWME13	14139000	
AP 239F2	COWCP13	149410000	COWDM14	142180000	
	COWME14	946400000	COWCP14	9:60000	
APZ39F2 APZ39F2 APZ39F2	COWDM15	137.76000	COWME 15	1084100000	
APZ34F2	COWCP15	12.20000	COMPHIE	135110000	
AFZ34FZ	COWME 16	1070.00000	COMCPIO	12445000	
APZ39F2 APZ39F2	COWDM17 COWCP17	135.80000	COWME 17 COWDM18	1143100000	
AP 239 F 2 AP 239 F 2 AP 239 F 2	COWCP17 COWME18	994.00000	COWCPIO	136150000	
APZRIFE	COWDM19	137.90000	COWME19	A22100000	
AP 239F2 AP 239F2	COWCP19	5 4 4 1 0 0 0	COWDMZO	822100000 141112000	
	COWME 20	146.16000	COWCP20 COWME21	136540000	
AP239F2 AP239F2	COMDM21	146.16000	COMMEZ1	1365100000	
AF 239F 2	CONCP21	10.24000	COMDM22	183182000	
AP 239F 2	COMME22 COWDM23	1514.40000	COWCP22	22167000	
AP 239 F 2	CDWCP23	26.19000	COWUMZ4	202416000	
AF 239 F 2	COWME24	2102.80000	COWCP24	202.16000	
AP239F2	COWDM25	200.36000	COMMEZS	2185140000	
AF239F2 AF239F2	COWCP25	25.40000	COWUMZO	2185140000	
AF239F2	COWME 26	2224+60000	COMCP20-		
AM 239F2 AM 239F2	MILKFAT APCUWS	-138.00000	COMS .	1100000	
AP 239 F 2	COWDMU1	1.00000	COWMEU1	2216.20000	
AFZIIFU	COWCPUI	28.81000	COMPWOS	2216.20000	
AFZ11FG	COWME 02	2185.40000	COMCPOS	28.30000 2153120000 213150000	
APZ11FU	COMDMO3	215.60000	COMMEDS	2153120000	
AFZ11FO	COWCP03	2/6/7/000	COWLM04	213150000	
AFELLEO	COWMEO4	2111.20000	COWCP04	27111000	
AP211F0 AP211F0	COWDMU5 COWCPU5	208.32000	COMMEDS	2040100000	
AF211F0	COWME 06	1933.00000	COMCPOS	24136000	
AF 211F 0	COWDMUT	197.82000	COWME 07	24136000 1774:0000	
AFZIIFU	COWCPU7	1715.00000	CDMPWGR	189100000	
AFZ11FO	COMMEDS	1718.00000	COMCPOR	21113000	
APZ11FU APZ11FU	CUMDMOS	182.00000	COMMEDY	1666100000	
APZ11FU APZ11FU	COWCPU9 COWME10	1625.0000	COWCPIU	172176000	
APZ11FO	COWDMII	163.80000	COWMETI	1170100000	
Are11FU	COWCP11	12.96000	COMPWIS	156638000	
Arzilfu	COMME12	724 400000	COWLP12	6.12000	
AFZIIFU	COMDM13	149.10000	COWME 13	752100000	
AFZ11FU AFZ11FU	COWCP13 COWME14	764.00000	COWLM14 COWCP14	142 80000	
AFZIIFU	COWDM15	137.76000	COWME 15	734100000	
	- C. I. C. I. C. I.		2011		

APP	CCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	704.00000 704.00000 135.80000 774.00000 137.90000 137.90000 140.16000 16.24000 16.24000 16.24000 16.24000 26.19000 2102.80000 224.60000 224.60000 224.60000	THE TOO TOO TOO TOO TOO TOO TOO TOO TOO TO	135 • 10000 6 • 63000 736 • 00000 136 • 50000 822 • 00000 141 • 12000 9839000 1365 • 00000 183 • 82000 22 • 67000 202 • 10000 27 • 19000 210 • 14000 28 • 97000 1800000
######################################	0112333455677789990111233345567778999011123334556777899901112333455677789990111233345567778990111233345567778990111233345567778990111123334556777899011112333455677789901111233345567778990111123334556777899011112333455677	213.92000 2185.40000 2185.600000 215.600000 227.77000 2006.32000 1740.00000 197.820000 197.820000 197.820000 182.00000 1463.600000 14.540000 14.540000 14.540000 14.540000 137.4500000 137.4500000 137.4500000 137.4500000 137.4500000 137.45000000000 137.45000000000000000000000000000000000000	12.134456678890014.2134456678890014.2134456678890014.2134456678890014.2134456678890014.2134456678890014.2134456678890014.213445667889900014.21344566788990014.2134456678899000000000000000000000000000000000	2216 · 20000 215 · 04000 215 · 04000 215 · 04000 215 · 04000 215 · 04000 215 · 04000 1835 · 04000 156 · 04000 172 · 76000 172 · 76000 173 · 76000 174 · 76000 174 · 76000 174 · 76000 175 · 76000 176 · 76000 177 · 760000 177 · 7600000 177 · 760000 177 · 7600000 177 · 76000000 177 · 760000000 177 · 760000000 177 · 760000000 177 · 76000000000000000000000000000000000

Arellfi Arellfi	COWCP21 COWME22	16.24000	COMCP22	183.82000
AF211F1	COWDM23 COWCP23	190.94000	COWMEZ3	2041120000
AF 211F 1 AF 211F 1	COWCP23	20.19000	COWUM24 CDWCP24	202116000
Arzilli	COWCP25	2102.80000	COMPWES -	218514000
AF211F1	COWCP25	28140000	COWUM26	210714000
AF211F1 AF211F1	COWME26 MILKFAT	2224.60000	COWCP26	28197000
AF211F1	APCOWS	1.00000		
APZ11F2 APZ11F2 APZ11F2 APZ11F2	COWUMU1 COWCPU1	213.92000	COWDM67	2216.20000
ATZ11F2 ATZ11F2 ATZ11F2 ATZ11F2	COWMEO2	2185.40000	COWCP02	28130000
APZILEZ	COWDMU3 COWCPU3	212.60000	COWMEDS COWDMO4	2153;20000 213;50000 23;94000
APZILFO	COWME 04	1900.00000	COWCP04	23194000
Arzilfy	COWDM05	208.32000	COMMEDS	1632100000
AF21112 AF21112	COWCPUS COWMEU6	154/ 400000	COMCPOS	18164000
AP 11160	CONDMOT	197.82000	COWME 07	1420 0 0 0 0 0 0
APZ11F2	COWCPO7 COWMEU8	1375.0000	COMCHAR	189100000
APZI1F2	COMDM09	182.00000	COMMEDY	1333400000
AFZI IF2	COWCPU9 COWME10	1301.00000	COWDMIO	172176000
AP211F2	COWDM11	163.80000	_ COWMEIL	1270100000
AF211F2 AF211F2 AF211F2 AF211F2 AF211F2 AF211F2 AF211F2	COWCP11	974.0000	COWUM12 COWCP12	156.30000
AF211F5	COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13	149.10000	COWMERS	1052100000
AP211F2	COWCP13	11.26000	COWUM14 COWCP14	142380000
AP211F2 AP211F2 AP211F2 AP211F2 AP211F2 AP211F2	COWME14 COWDM15	1014.00000	COWCP14 COWME15	934100000
AP211F2 AP211F2	COWCP15	9.81000	COMPWIP	135610000
APZIIFZ APZIIFZ	COWME16 COWDM17	135.80000	COWCP16 COWME17	836100000
Ar 21112	COWCP17	b.78v0v	COMPWIG	136.50000
AF211F2 AF211F2	COWME18	137.90000	COWCPIO	822:0000
AF211F2	COWCP19	8.41000	COMPWSO	141112000
APZ11F2 APZ11F2	COWME20 COWDM21	146.16000	COWCP20	136510000
AFZIIFZ	COWCP21	16.24000	COWLM22	183182000
AFZ11FZ	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	1614.40000	COMCESS	22.67000
AF211F2	COWCP23	198.94000 - 26.19000	COWDM24	202116000
Arz11F2	COWME24	2102.80000	COMCP24	2041 20000 202 10000 27 19000
AF211F2 AF211F2	COWDM25 COWCP25	25.4000	COMPW52	2185140000
AFZ11F2	COWME26	2224.60000	COWCPZO	28.97000
AP211F2	MILKFAT	-126.00000		

AF10311 COWMEU2 2185.40000 COWCPD2 ~38.30000	######################################	11233345567778990111233455677789901123334556T 1000000000000000000000000000000000000	213.92000 2185.40000 215.600000 217.77000 2111.20000 208.32000 208.32000 197.8200000 197.8200000 1718.00000 182.00000 182.00000 183.98000 163.80000 163.80000 163.80000 163.80000 164.00000 137.76000 137.90000 137	122234476678873D122234476678873344766 DDDDDDDDDDDDDRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRRR	2216.20000 215:04000 215:04000 215:20000 213:20000 213:10000 24:11000 24:36000 1774:00000 189:00000 172:760000 172:760000 156:38000 752:00000 140:810000 736:00000 136:5000000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:5000000 136:5000000 136:5000000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:500000 136:5000000 136:50000000
21149000	AF183F1 AF183F1 AF183F1 AF183F1 AF183F1	CONCPOS COWMEU2 COWDMU3 COWCPU3 COWMEU4 COWDMO5 COWCPU5	27.77000	CDWCP02 COWME03 CDWDM04 CDWCP04 CDWME05	2216.2000 215.04000 28.30000 2153.20000 213.50000 25.47000 1835.00000 2031.49000

AF183F1	COWDM07	197.82000	COWMEUT .	1596.00000	
AP163F1 AP163F1	COWCPO7 COWMEO8	19.31000-	COMCPOS	189:00000	
APIBSF1	COMDM09	182400000	COWMERY	1237.00000	
AF183F1 AF183F1	COWCPJ9 COHME10	13.98000	COWDMIO	172476000	
AP183F1	COWDM11	163.80000	COWME 11	680100000	
AP163F1 AP163F1	COWCP11 COWME12	724.0000	COWDM12 COWCP12	156138000	
AF183F1	COWDM13	149.10000	COWME 13	752:00000	
AP163F1 AP183F1	COWCP13 COWME14	764.00000	COWDM14 COWCP14	142180000	
AFIBSFI	COWUM15	137.76000	COWME 15	734100000	
AP183F1 AP183F1	CONCP15 CONME16	704.00000	COMCP16	135 110000	è
AP163F1 AP183F1	COWDM17 COWCP17	135.80000	COWME 17	736100000	
AP183F1	COWME18	7.14000	COMCES	136150000	
AP163F1 AP163F1	COWDM19 COWCP19	137.90000	COWMETS	822100000	
APL B3Fi	COWME20	686 à 00 u 0 u	COMCPZU	141512000	
AP 1 8 3 F 1	COWDM21 COWCP21	146.16000	COWME21	1365:0000 183:82000	
AF183F1	COWME22	1814440000	COMCPZZ	2210/000	
AF 183F 1 AF 163F 1	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	198.94000	COWMEZ3	2041120000	
AFIB3FI	COMME24	2102.80000	COWCF24	27619000	
AF163F1 AF163F1	COWDM25 COWCP25	200.36000	COMMESS	210114000	
AF163F1	COWME26	2224.60000	COMCPZO	28.97000	
APIBSFI	MILKFAT	1.00000	COMS .	1100000	
AP183F2 AP163F2	COWDMO1 COWCPO1	213.92000	COWMEU1	2216.20000	
AF183F2	CUMME 02	2185.40000	COWCP02	28130000	-
AP183F2 AP183F2	COWDMO3 COWCPO3	215.60000	COWMEDS	2153.20000	
	COWME 04	1900.00000	CONCP04	23:94000	
AP183F2 AP183F2 AP183F2	COWDMU5 COWCPU5	19.88000	COWMEDS	1632100000	
APIBSF2	COWME06	154/.00000	COMCP06	18164000	
AF 183F2 AF 183F2	COWDMU7 COWCPU7	-197 +82000	COMPMED!	1420:00000	
APIB3F2	COMMEDS	1375.00000	COMCPOR	16:09000	
AF183F2	COWDM09	182400000	COMMEDA	1237600000	
AF183F2	COWME10	686.00000	COMCPIO	5114000	
AP183F2 AP183F2	COWDM11 COWCP11	163.80000	COWME11 COWDM12	680100000	
AF183F2	COWME12	774.00000	COWCP12	6 8 9 0 0 0	

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JY 26 (FO O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O O	112333455677899901112334556778999011123334556778999011123334556778999011123334556778999011123334556778999011123334556778999011112333455677899990111123334556778999901111233345567789999999999999999999999999999999999	140.16000 10.24000 1514.40000 190.94000 200.36000 2102.80000 28.40000 224.60000 213.92000 213.92000 213.677000 2111.20000 213.82000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000 1933.00000	122344766788900123344766788 100000000000000000000000000000000000	1365.00000 183182000 22167000 2041120000 2719000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2153120000 2153120000 2711000 27111000

		•			
JY267FQ	COWDM19	149.10000	COWMETS	1537.00000	
JYZGPFU	COWCP19	18.55000-	COWUMZO	142.80000	
JYZOFFU	COWME20	1418.00000	COWCPZO	16187000	
JYZOLFU	COWDM21 COWME22 COWME23 COWDM23	137.76000	COWME 21	995.00000	
JY26/FU	COWCP21	10.80000	COWDM22	135 10000	
JY267FU	COMMESS	704.00000	COWCPZZ	736100000	
JY26/F0	COWDM23	6199000	COWDM24	136 50000	
JYZ6/FU	COWME24	774400000	COWCP24	7 6 6 6 0 0 0	
JYZ67FU	COWDM25	137.90000	COWMEZS	822100000	
JY26/F0	COWCP25	9.06000	COWLMZO	141112000	
JY26/FU	COMME26	880.00000	COWCP26	9139000	
JY26/F0	MILKFAT	-161.00000	COMS	1:00000	
JY26/FU JY267F1	JYCOWS	1:00000			1 12 2 2 1 2
JY267F1	COWDMO1	146.16000	COWMEU1	1365.00000	
JY26/F1	COWCP01	10.24000	COMOMOS	183:82000	
JY26/F1	COMMENS	1814.40000	COMCPOS	22167000	
JY 26/F 1	COWDMO3	198.94000	COMMEDS	-2041120000	F 4 10 10
JY26/F1	COMCPOS	20.19000	COWUMD4	202 1 1 0 0 0 0	
JY26/F1	CONMEU4 COWDMO5	2102480000	COWNEDS	27119000	
JY267F1	CONCIPUS	25.40000	COMPMAP	210.14000	
JY267F1	COWMEU6	2224.60000	COWCP06	28197000	S 100 S
JY 26/F1	COWD MO7	213.92000	COWME 07	2216120000	
JY26/F1	CONCPUT	28.81000	COMUMOS	215:04000	
JY26/F1	COMMEO8	2185.40000-	COMCBOR -	28130000	
JY26/F1 JY26/F1	CUWDNU9	215.60000	COWMEDY	2153620000 213650000 25647000	
JY26/F1	COMCPU9	2/6/7000	COMPWIO .	213150000	
J126/11	CONME10	2000.00000	COWCPIO	25147000	
77.56/11	COWDM11	200.32000	COWNEIL COMUMIZ	1835 00000	10.5
JY26/F1	COWCP11	22194000	COMPWIS	203114000	
JY26/F1	COWME12 COWDM13	1740.00000	COWCPIZ	21449000	
JY26/F1	COWCP13	197.82000	COWUM14	1596:00000	
JY26/F1	COWME14	1546.00000	COWCP14	18:63000	
JY 26/F1	COWDM15	182.00000	COWMETS	1499.00000	
JY26/F1	COWCP15	17.99000	COWDMIO	172170000	
	COWME16	1463.00000	COWUPIO	17444000	
JY26/F1	COWDM17	163.80000	COWME 17	1417100000	
JY26/F1	COWCP17	16.79000	COMPWIR	156:38000	
JY26/F1	COWME18	1414.00000	COMCPIR	16176000	
JY 26/F1	COWUM19	149.10000	COWME19	1383100000	
JY26/F1	CONCP19	10.28000	COMPMEO	142480000	
JY26/F1	COWME20 COWUM21	1277.00000	COMCP20	14169000	
JY26/F1	COWCP21	11.52000	COMUMEZ	1044 00000	
JY267F1	COWMESS	868400000	COWCPZO	135110000	
JY267F1	COWME22 COWDM23	135.80000	COWCP22 COWME23	1029:00000	
JY267F1	COWCP23	11.68000	COWUMZ4	136.50000	
JY267F1	COWME24	1124.00000	COWCPZA	13413000	2.74
DAY TON THE					

## FREL

JY201	F1 COWDM25 F1 COWCP25	137.90000	COWME 25	1072.00000
J1261	1 COWME26	933.00000	COWCP26	10108000
JY26/	TI JYCOWS	-155 A00 U00	COWS	1.00000
JY267	COWDMO1	140.16000	COWMEUL	1365.00000
71561	COWCPU1	1814.4000	COMCPOS	1365.00000
JY 26/1	COWCPUI COWMEU2 COWDMU3	190.94000	COMMERS	2216/000
JY26(1	2 COWCPO3	20419000	COWUM04	202116000
JY26/1	COWDMOS	2102.80000	COWCP04	218514000
71591F	2 COWCPUS 2 COWMENS	20.40000	COMPWAP	22167000 2041120000 202116000 27119000 2185140000 210114000
1172676	2 COWDMO7	2224.60000	COWCP06	
7126/1	2 COWCPU7 2 COWMEJ8	213.92000	COMDMOS	215104000
JY26/F JY26/F JY26/F JY26/F	COWDMOS	2185440000	COMCDOR	2216 20000 215 10 4000 28 30000 215 31 20000 213 150000 23 49 4000
JY26/F	2 COWCP09 COWME10	215.60000	COMPHIO	213150000
JY 26/F	2 COMDIMIT	1900.00000	COWCPIO COWMEI1	23494000 1632400000
JY26/F	2 COWCP11	19.88000	COWDMIZ	203 14000
JY267F	2 COWME12 COWDM13	154/400000	COWCP12 COWME13	18164000
JY26/F	2 COWCP13 2 COWME14	16.76000	COWUM14	1420 00000
JY26/F	2 CONDMIS	1375.00000	COWCP14 COWME15	16109000 1333100000 172176000
JY26/F	2 COWCP15	15.48000	COWDMIO	172676000
JY26/F	2 CONDMIT	1301.00000	COWLP16 COWME17	15.01000 1259:00000 156-38000
JY26/F	2 COWCP17 2 CONME18	14442000	COWDMIN	156738000
JY267F	2 COWDW19	125/ .00000	COWCPIO	14:39000
JY26/F	2 COWCP19 2 COWNE20	149.10000	COWDMZO	142180000
JY26/F	2 COWDW21	1134.00000	COWCP20 COWME21	12750000
J126/F	COWDM21 COWCP21 COWME22 COWME23 COWME23 COWME24 COWME25 COWME25 COWME25 COWME25	11.52000	COWUMZZ	1044 100000
JY26/F	2 COWDM23	135.80000	COMMESS	12.12000
JY26/F	2 COWCP23 2 COWME24 2 COWDM25	1/181000	- COMPWS4	1436 00000
JY267F	2 COWDM25	1430.00000	COWCP24 COWME25	17,73000 1322,00000 141,12000
JY26/F	2 COWCF25 2 COWME26	10.04000	COWUMZ6	141112000
JYZGIF	2 MILKFAT	140.00000	COMCPZO	12.60000
715911	2 JYCHWS	1.00000	ATTANA	
JY 239F	O CONCPUT	140.16000	COMMENT	1365.00000
J1239F		1814.40000	COMCPOZ	22:67000
31237	о соирмоз	190.94000	COMMEDS	2041420000

17 & 39 F U 37 & 39 F U 17 & 39 F U	CDWCP03 CDWME05 CDWME05 CDWME06 CDWME07 CDWME07 CDWME08 CDWMMO9 CDWME10 CDWME10	26.19000 2102.80000 206.36000 28.40000 213.92000 213.92000 213.40000 215.60000 27.77000 2111.20000 208.32000	COWWENT COWWEN	202:16000 27:19000 2185:40000 210:14000 28:97000 216:20000 215:104000 28:30000 213:50000 27:11000 2040:00000
J1 × 3 9 F 0 J1 × 3 9 F 0 J2 × 3 9 F 0 J3 × 3 9 F 0 J4 × 3 9 F 0 J5 × 3 9 F 0 J6 × 3 9 F 0 J7 × 3 9 F 0 J7 × 3 9 F 0 J8 × 3 9 F 0 J1 × 3 9 F 0 J2	COWMENT TO COMMENT TO	26.01000 1933.00000 197.82000 22.00000 1718.00000 182.00000 1023.00000 1623.00000 145.00000 145.10000	COUNTY DE LE	203114000 24:36000 1774100000 189100000 21113000 172176000 172176000 19179000 1574600000 156638000 19101000 1052100000
17 × 39 F 0	COWME20 COWDM21 COWCP21 COWME23 COWCP23 COWME24 COWCP23 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP25	764+00000 137-76000 6-68000 704-00000 135-80000 774-00000 137-90000 886-00000 4150-00000	COWCP20 COWME22 COWME22 COWME24 COWME24 COWME24 COWME24 COWME24 COWCP24 COWCP26 COWCP2	73471000 73471000 135.10000 6163000 73640000 136650000 7166000 822700000 141412000 9.39000 1700000
JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1 JY 239F1	COWDEOUS COWMEOUS COW	146.16000 16.24000 1814.40000 198.94000 206.19000 2102.80000 206.36000 28.40000 224.60000 224.60000 224.60000 224.60000 228.81000 238.840000 2185.40000	COUNTY CO	1365 • 0 0 0 0 0 183 • 82 0 0 0 22 6 6 7 0 0 0 22 6 6 7 0 0 0 22 1 6 0 0 0 0 22 1 6 7 0 0 0 0 22 1 6 7 2 0 0 0 0 22 1 6 7 2 0 0 0 0 22 1 6 7 2 0 0 0 0 0 22 1 6 7 2 0 0 0 0 0 22 1 5 7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0

######################################	901112334556778990112334556T 112333455677899001112334556778990000000000000000000000000000000000	27.77000 2006.032000 208.32000 22.94000 179.82000 197.820000 1540.00000 17.99000 1463.00000 16.79000 144.00000 137.76000 149.10000 137.76000 149.10000 137.76000 137.86000 137.86000 137.86000 137.86000 137.86000 137.86000 137.86000 140.10000 140.16000 140.16000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.4000 1514.6000	THE THE THE THE THE TANNAN THAT THE THE THE THE THE THE THE THE THE TH	213.50000 225.47000 203.14000 213.49000 1596.00000 1499.00000 172.76000 172.76000 173.76000 156.38000 16.76000 135.10000 135.10000 135.10000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 136.560000 221.19000 202.116000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2153.20000 2153.20000 2153.50000
14	COMDMU9	215.60000 27.77000 1900.00000 208.32000 19.88000 1547.00000 197.82000 16.76000 1375.00000 182.00000	COMMEDY	2216.20000 215.4000 215.30000 215.50000 213.50000 23.94000 1632.00000 18.64000 1420.00000 189.00000 189.00000

JY239F2	COWCP15 COWME16	1301.00000	COMUM16	172.76000	
JY239F2	COWDM17	163.80000	COWMETY	1259100000	
JY239F2	COWCP17	14442400	COMPWER	156130000	
9444 9444	COWDE 18	1257.00000	COWCPIS	14139000	
JY239F2	COWCP19	12438000	COWUMZO	142 80000	
JY239F2 JY239F2	COWME20	946 4 0 0 0 0 0	CDWCPZO	9160000	
JY 239F2	COWDM21	137.76000	COWMEZI	1084100000	
JY239F2 JY239F2 JY239F2 JY239F2	COWCP21	12.20000	COMPMES	135410000	
JY239F5	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23 COWME24	1076.00000	COWCP22 COWME23	12445000	
JY 234F2	COWCP23	135.80000	COWUM24	136150000	
JY 439F2	COWME24	137.90000	COWCP24	11112000	
JY 239F2	COWDM25 COWCP25	8.41000	COMMESS	822100000	
JY239F5	COWME 26	686.00000	CDWLM26 CDWCP26	141112000	
JY239F2 JY239F2 JY239F2	MILKFAT	*139.00U00	COMS	1100000	01000
JY239F2	JYCOWS	1.00000			
JYZIIFU JYZIIFU	COWDMU1 COWCPU1	140.16000	COWME UI	1365.00000	
JYZIIFO	COMMED2	16.24000	COMPMOS	183 82000	
JY211F4	COMDMUS	198494000	COWMEDS	2041 20000	
JY211FU JY211FU	COWCP03	26.19000	COMUMB4	202110000	
JY211F0	COWMEU4 COWDMU5	2102.80000	COWCP04	27119000	
JY211F0	COWCPUS	20.40000	COMPRES	210114000	
JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0	COWME 06	2224.60000	COMCPOS	28197000 2216 20000 215 04000 28130000	
JY 21110	COWDMOT	213.92000	COMMEDI	2216 • 20000	
JY211FU	COWCPU7 COWME08	28.81000	COMCBOR	215 04000	
JY211F6	COMPMOS	215460000	COMMEDY	2153220000	
JYZ11FO	COWDM09 COWCPU9	215.60000	CDWDMIO	2153120000	
JYZIIFU	COWME 10	2111.20000	COWCPIO	27111000	- 4
JY211F0	COWUM11 COWCP11	200.32000	COWME11	2040 000000	
JYZIIFO	COWMF12	1933.00000	COWUM12 COWCP12	24.36000	
JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0	COWDM13 COWCP13 COWME14	197.82400	COWMEIS	1774400000	
J7211F0	COWCP13	1718.00000	COWUM14	1774100000 189400000 21113000	
JYZIIFO	COWDM15	182.00000	COWCP14 COWME15	21:13000	
JY 211F0	COWCP15	20.38000	COWUMIS	1666100000	
JY211F0	COWCP15 COWME16 COWDM17	1487.00000	CONCPIO	19479000	
JY211F0 JY211F0	COWDM17 COWCP17	163.80000	COMME 3 7	1004400000	
JY 21 1F ()	COWME18	12.96000 724.00000	COMPWIR	156:30000	
JY 211FU	COWDM19	149.10000	COWCPIS -	75210000	
JY211F0	COWCP19	149.10000	COMUMZU	752100000 142180000	
JYZ11FO JYZ11FO	COMMEZO	764.00000	COWCPZO	6.71000	
3121110	CONDM21	137.76000	COMMEST.	734100000	

JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0 JY211F0	COWCP21 COWME22 COWCP23 COWCP24 COWCP25 COWCP25 COWCP26 MILKFAT JYCOWS	704.00000 135.80000 2.99000 774.00000 137.90000 586.00000	COWMENA COWMEN	135.10000 736400000 136450000 822400000 141412000 9439000 1400000
JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1 JY211F1	COWDMO1 COWCP03 COWCP03 COWCP03 COWCP03 COWCP005 COWCP007 COWCP007 COWCP009 COWCP009 COWCP009	146.16000 16.24000 1814.40000 198.94000 208.19000 208.36000 208.40000 213.92000 213.92000 213.92000 213.60000 215.60000 21.77000	11111144 DDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDDD	1365.00000 183.82000 22167000 2041.20000 27819000 2185.40000 2185.40000 2186.20000 215.04000 215.3120000 213.500000 213.500000 213.600000 213.600000 213.600000 213.600000 213.600000 215.600000 215.600000
JY211F1	COWDE10 COWDM11 COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13 COWME14 COWCP15 COWME16 COWME16 COWME16 COWME16 COWME18 COWME18	27.77000 2006.00000 208.32000 22.94000 1740.00000 197.82000 197.82000 19.31000 1546.00000 182.00000 17.99000 1463.000000 1463.000000 1463.000000 149.10000	COWMENT 12 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	183540000 183540000 203114000 21:49000 1596:00000 1876:00000 172:76000 172:76000 172:76000 172:76000 176:38000 188:81000 927:00000
JY211F1	COWCP19 COWME20 COWME21 COWMEP21 COWMEP23 COWMEP23 COWMEP23 COWMEP25 COWMEP25 COWMEP25 COWMEP25 MILKFAT	754.00000 137.76000 754.00000 135.80000 774.00000 137.90000 137.90000	CCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	78410000 78410000 78410000 7839000 761800000 136450000 136450000 822400000 141112000 9837000

2000					
JY211F1	JYCUWS .	1.00000	0004501	1365.00000	
JY211F2	COMDMO1	140.16000	COMMENT	183182000	_
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWCPO1	1614.40000	COWCP02	22167000	
JYZIIFS	COMDMO3	198.94000	COMMEDS	2041 20000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWCPU3	26.19000	COWCP04	27119000	
JY211F2	COWMEO4	200.36000	COMMEDS	2185140000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWDMUS COWCPUS	25440000	COMPM09	2185140000 210114000 28197000	
JY211F2	COMME 06	2224460000	COWCPO	28141000	
JY211F2	COMDMO7 COMCPUT	213.92000	COMPRES	2216120000 215104000 28130000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COMMEDS	2185.40000	COMCLOR	28130000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COMDMU9	213460u00 27477000	COMMEDY	2153420000 213450000 23494000	_
JY211F2	COMCP09	27.77000	COWUM10 COWCP10	213630000	
JY211F2	COMME10 COMDM11	1900 + 00000	COWMETI	1632100000	
JY211F2	COWCPII	208.32000	COMUM12	203 1 4000	-
JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2 JY211F2	COMME 12	1547.00000	COWLP12 COWME13	18164000	
JY211F2	COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13	197.82000	CDWLM14	1420100000	
JY 211F2	COWME14	1375.00000	COWE 15	1333.00000	
JYZ11F2	COWDM15	182.00000	COMMESS	1333,00000	
JY211F2	COWCP15	15.48000	COWUM16 COWCP16	172476000 15401000 1270400000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWME16 COWDM17	.163.80400	_ COWNEY!	1270100000	-
JYZ11F2	COWCP17	14.54000	COMPWIR	156138000	
JY211+2 JY211F2	COWME18	149.10000	COWLP10 COWME19	1052100000	
	COWDM19 COWCP19	11.26000	COMPWZO	142 6 8 0 0 0 0	
JYZIIFZ	COWMF20	1014.00000	COWCPZO	10160000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWDM21	137.76000	COMPRESI	934100000	
JY211F2	COWCP21	9.81000	COWCP22	9.76000	
JYZIIFZ	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	135.80000	LOWMEZS	836.00000	
JY211F2	CONCP23	0.78000	COWLM24	136650000	
JY211F2 JY211F2	COWME24	137.90000	COWMLZD	822:00000	
JY211F2	COWDM25 COWCP25	8.41000	COWUMZO	141612000	
JY211F2	COWME26	880.00000	COMCPZO	9637000	
JY 211 F 2 JY 211 F 2	MILKFAT	140000	COMP .		
JY 183F C	COMPMOT	146.16000	COMMEUL	1365.00000	
JY163F0	CONCPU1	16424000	COMPW05	183.82000	
JY163F (	COMMEOS	1914.40000	COMCPOS	2041120000	
JY163FU JY163FU	COWDM03 COWCP03	26.19000	COWUM04	22:67000 2041:20000 202:16000 27:19000	
JY 183F0	COWMEU4	2102.80000	COMCP04	27119000	
JY183F0 JY183F0	COMDM05	200.36000	COMMEGO	2185.40000	
JY163F U	COWCP05	20.40000	COMPUZO	2.0;	

JY183F0	COWMENO7 COWMENO9 COWMENO9 COWME10 COWME11 COWME12 COWME12 COWME12 COWME12 COWME13 COWME13 COWME13 COWME13 COWME13 COWMENO	2224.60000 213.92000 20.81000 2185.40000 27.77000 2111.20000 208.32000 208.32000 1933.00000 197.82000 197.82000 1579.00000 182.00000	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	28.97000 2216.20000 215804000 28.430000 2153820000 213.50000 27811000 2040400000 203.14000 24.36000 1774300000 189100000 21.13000 10506000000
11 1 2 2 3 3 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5 5	COWMENT STATES OF THE STATES O	686.00000 163.80000 724.00000 149.10000 764.00000 764.00000 764.00000 768.000 704.00000 774.00000 774.00000 137.90000 137.90000 880.00000 124.00000	CCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCCC	75442000 6804000 156438000 752400000 142480000 734400000 135410000 7364500000 1364500000 1364500000 1364500000 141412000 141412000 141412000
JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1	COWDMO1 COWMENU3 COWWENU3 COWW	140.16000 10.24000 1814.40000 198.94000 20.19000 2102.80000 200.36000 224.40000 224.40000 213.92000 213.92000 213.60000 215.60000 217.77000 200.32000 200.32000	1022344566788900112 MMDPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMPEMP	1365.00000 183.82000 22.67000 2041.20000 27.19000 2185.40000 210.14000 226.97000 221.620000 215.3.20000 213.50000 213.50000 213.50000 203.14000

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	JY 163F 1 JY 163F 1	COWME12 COWDM13	1740.00000	COWCP12	21.49000	
	JY163F1	COWCP13	19.31000	COWUM14	189100000	
	JY183F1 JY183F1	COWME14 COWDM15	1540.00000	COWCP14 COWME15	18163000	
	JY183F1	COWCP15	14.98000	COMPAID	172174000	
	JY183F1	COWME16	686.00000	COWUMIO COWCPIO COWMEI7	5 1 1 4 0 0 0 6 8 0 1 0 0 0 0 0	
	JY183F1 JY183F1	COWDM17 COWCP17	163.80000	COMMEIL	680100000	
	JY183F1	COWNE 18	724400000	COWCPIB	156:38000	
	JY183F1	COWUM19	149.10000	COWMERY	752 0 0 0 0 0 0	1-42
	JY163F1 JY183F1	COMCP19	0.54000	-COMUMZO	142180000	
	JY183F1	COWNE20 COWDM21	13/.76000	COWCP20 COWME21	6 8 7 2 0 0 0	
	JY163F1	COWCP21	6468000	COWDM22	734100000 135110000	e-ç-
	JY183F1	COWME22	704400000	COWCP22 COWME23	736 00000	
	JY163F1	COWDM23 COWCP23	135.80000	COWME 23 COWDM24	736100000 136150000	
	JY163F1	COMME24	774.00000	COWCP24	7166000	
	JY183F1	COWDM25	13/.90000	COMMESS	822100000	
	JYIBBFI	COWCP25	0.41000	COMPWSO	141112000	
	JY183F1	COWME26 MILKFAT	-121.00000	COWLP26	1:00000	
	JY183F1	JYCOWS	1.00000			
	JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F1 JY183F2	COWDMO1	146.16000	COMMENI	1365.00000	
	JY183F2	COWCPU1 COWMEO2	16.24000	COWCP02	183:82000	er (f. n. e Transmir), a
	JY163F2	COMPMO3	190.94000	COWMEDS	2041:20000	
	74183E5	COMCPUS	26.19000	COWDM04	202116000	
	JY163F2 JY183F2 JY183F2	COWMEN4 COWDMUS	2102.80000	COWCP04	27419000 2185140000 210114000	
	JY183F2	COWCPOS	28.40000	COMUMOS	210114000	
	7116312	COMME06	2224 60000	COMCPOS	2819/000	
	JY183F2 JY163F2	COWDM07 CONCPO7	213.92000	COMMENY	2216420000	
	1116360	COWMEO8	2185.40000	COMPADA	28.30000	
	CAERITI	COMDMO9	215.60000	COMMEDA	2153.20000	
	J1183F2 J1183F2 J1183F2 J1183F2	COMCPUS	21.77000	COMPNIO	213650000	15.5
	JY183F2	COWNE10	1900.00000	COWCP10 COWME11 COWDM12	23194000 1632100000 203114000	
	JY183F2	COWDM11 COWCP11	19.88000	COWUM12	203114000	
	7110315	COWME12	154/.00000	COMCPIZ	18164000	
	JY183F2	COWDM13 COWCP13	197.82000	COWMEIS COWLM14	1420 000000	
	JY 183F 2	COWNE14	1375.00000	COWCP14	16.09000	
	JY183F2	COMDM15	182.00000	COMMETS	1237100000	
	JY183F2 JY183F2	COWCP15 COWNE16	13.98000	COMCH16	172176000	
	JY183F2	COWDM17	163.80000	COWME 17	680100000	
	JY163F2	COWCP17	6.28000	COMPWIR	156138000	
				7		

	J7163F2	COWME18	774.00000	COWCPIS	4 - 80000
	JY 183F2	COMPMIO	149.10000	COWME 19	6 · 8 9 0 0 0 8 0 2 • 0 0 0 0 0 1 4 2 • 8 0 0 0 0 7 • 4 > 0 0 0
	1Y183F5	COWDM19 COWCP19	7.34000	COWDMZO	42.80000
		COWME 20	614.00000	COWCPZO	7745000
	JY183F5	COWDM21	137.76000	COWMEZI	784100000
	JY183F 2	COLLEDA	7.53000	COWUMZZ	135110000
	JYIBBFS	COWME 22	7.53000	COWCPZZ	7179000
	JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2 JY183F2	COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23 COWME24 COWDM25	135.80000	COWMEZS	83610000
	JY183F2	COWCP23	0.74000	COMUMZA	836100000
1	JY183F2 JY183F2	COWME 24	774.00000	COWMEZ3 COWDM24 COWCP24	7 4 6 6 0 0 0
	JY163F2 JY163F2 JY163F2 JY163F2	COWDM25	137.90000	COWMEZS	
	JY163F2	COWCP25 COWME26	0.41000	COMUMZO	141112000
	JY163F2	COWME26	00000000	COMCHEO	9137000
	JY183F2	MILKFAT	-11/400000	COWS .	1 4 0 0 0 0 0
	JY183F2	JYCUWS	1100000		
	AU26/FO	COMDMO1	137.90000	COWMEU1	822.00000
	AUZ67FO	CONCPUI	9.06000	COMPMOS	141412000
	AU26/F0	COWME 02 COWDM03	686.00000	COWCPO2	9 6 3 9 0 0 0
	AU26/F0	COWDMO3	146.16000	COMMEDS	141512000 9639000 1365100000 183582000 22567000
	AU26/FU	COMCPJ3	16.24000	COWLMO4	183.82000
	AUZ6/FU	COHMEU4	1614.40000	COWCP04	22167000
	AU267FU	COMUMUS	190.94000	COMMEDS	2041 20000
	AU26/F0	CONCPUS	26.19000	COMDW09	202 1 1 6 0 0 0
	AU26/F0	COWMEU6 .	2102.80000	COWE 07	27119000
	AU26/F0	COWDMO7	206.36000	COMMERT	2041;20000 202116000 27;19000 2165;40000 210;14000 28;97000 2216;20000 215;04000 215;20000 215;20000 215;20000 217;11000
	AUZ6/FU	COWCPUT	28.40000	COMUMOS	210:14000
	AUZGIFU	COMMEOR	2224.60000	COWCPOS	28197000
	AU26/10	COMDMO	213.92000	COWMEDY	2216 • 20000
	AUZGIFU	COMCPUS	28.61000 2185.40000 215.60000 27.77000	COWDMIO	215.04000
	AUZOFFU	COMMETO	2185.40000	COHCPIO	28:30000
	AU26/FO AU26/FU	COWDM11	213.00000	COMMETI	2153120000
	AU26/FU AU26/FU	COMERTI	21611000	COWDM12	213450000
		COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13 CUNCP13	2111.20000-	COMCPIZ	2/111000
	AU26/FU	COMPMIS	200.32000	COWME 13	2040400000
	AUZUIFU	COWDM13 CUNCP13 CONME14	26.01000	COWDM:4	2040400000 203114000 24436000
	AUZOTFU	COWDM15	1933.00000	COMUP14	24.30000
	AU26/10	COWCPIS	22.00000	COWME 15	1774 00000
	AUZ6/FU	COWCP15 COWME16	1718.00000	COWCP16	189100000
	AUZEIFU	COWDM17	182.00000	COWCP16 COWME17	1666100000
	AUZ6/FU	CONCEIT	20.38000	COMPMIS	1666100000
	AUZ6/FU	COMMETA	1425.00000	COWCPIS	172476000
	AUZ6/FU	COWCP17 COWME18 COWDM19	163.80000	COWMETS	1574100000
	AUZOTFU	COWCP19	19.05000	COMPWZO	156:38000
	AUZ6/FU	COWCP19 COMME20 COWDM21	19.05000	COWCPZO	19:01000
	AU26/FU	COMBM21	149.10000	COWMEZI	1537.00000
	AUZ6/FU	COWCP21	10:55000	COMUMES	149180000 -
	AUZ6/FU	COMME 22	1410.00000	COWCF22	16187000
	AUZ6/FU	COWDM23	137.76000	COWMEZS	995.00000
	AUZ6/FU	COWMEZZ COWDMZ3 COWCPZ3	10.80000	COWUM24	16487000 995.00000 135.10000
			-0.0000	301101174	133510000

AU26/FU AU26/FU	COWME24 COWDM25	704.00000	COWCP24	73610000	
AU26/F0	COWCP25	6.99000	COWUMZO	136.50000	HOME PLANTS
AUZEIFG	COWME 26	774.00000	COWCP26	7866000	
AU26/FU AU26/FU	MILKFAT	-161.00000	COMS	1 100000	
AUZ6/FU	AUCOWS	1.00000			
AU267F1	COWDMO1	137.90000	COWMEU1	1072.00000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1	COWCPO1	933.0000	CDWDM02 CDWCP02	141.12000	
AU26/F1	COWDMUS	146416000	COMMEDI	1365100000	
AU26/F1	CONCPOS	16.24000	COMUMO4	OOOCRIERI	
AUZ6/F1	COMME 04	1814.40000	COWCP04	22167000 2041120000 202116000 27119000	
AU26711	COWDMOS	198.94400	COWCP04	2041 \$ 20000	
AU26/F1	COWCP05	20.19000	COMPMOO	202116000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1	COWME U6	26.19000	COMCPOS	27119000	
AU26/11	COWDMOT	200.36000	CO.WME 07	2185140000	
AU267F1	COWCP07 COWME08	28 4 40000	COMPWDR	210114000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1	CUMBMO 9	2224.60000	COMCPOS	2216120000	-
AUZ6/F1	COWCP09	28.81000	COMUMIU	215 04000	
AU26/F1	COWME10	2185.40000	COWLPIU	28430000	
AU26/F1	COWDM11	215.60000	COMMETI	2153420000	
AUZ6/F1	COWCP11	27.77000	COMUMIZ	213150000	
AU26/F1	COWME12	2006400000	COWCP12	28630000 2153420000 213850000 25847000	
AU26/F1	CONDM13	208.32000	COMMEIS	1835 00000	
AUZ6/F1	COWCP13	- 22.94000	COMUMI4	203114000	
AUZE/Fi	COWME 14	1740.00000	COWCP14	1596100000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1	COWDM15	19.31000	COMPW19	169100000	
AU26/F1	COWME 16	1540.00000	COWLPIO	18463000	
AU267F1	COWDM17	182.00000	COWME 17	1499100000	
AUZ6/F1	COWCP17	182.00000	COWDMID	172176000	
AU26/F1	COWME18	1463400000	COMCLIA	172176000	
AUZ6/F1	COWDM19	163.80000	COWNERS	1417100000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1	COMCP19	16.79000	COMPWER	156130000	
AU20171	COVME20	1414.00000	COWCPZO	16176000	
AUZOIFI	COWOM21 COWCP21	149.10000	COWMEZ1 COWDMZZ	1383100000	
AU26/F1 AU26/F1 AU26/F1	COWME 22	1277.00000 1277.00000 137.76000 111.52000	COWCP22	142180000	
AU26/F1	COWMEZZ COWDMZ3 COWCPZ3	137476000	COWMEZS	1044:00000	
AU267F1	COWCP23	11152000	COWUM24	135110000	
AUZ6/F1	COVME24	E O O A U U U U U	CONCP24	9111000	
AU267F1	COMDM25	135.80000	COWMERS	1029100000	
AUZ6/F1	CONCP25	11.68000	COMPWSO	136.50000	
AU26/F1	COWMEZ6 MILKFAT	1124.00000	COMCPZO	13113000	
AU26/F1	AUCOWS	1.00000	COMP	1,00000	
AU26/F2	COMOMOI	137.90000	COMMEUL	1322.00000	
AU267F2	COWCPOI	10.04000	COMUMOS	141.12000	
AU26/F2	COWMEU2	1090.00000	COWLPDZ	12164000	

AU26/F2	COMDMOS	140.16000	COWMEUS	1365.00000
AU26/F2	COWCPO3	1814.4000	COWDM04	183682000
	COMMEO 4	1814 • 40000	CONCP04	183 82000
AU26/F2	COWUMUS COWCPUS	198.94000	COMMEDS	2041120000
AUZ6/12 AUZ6/12	COWME 06	2102.80000	COMCPO	202116000
AUZO/FZ	COWDMO7	200.36000	COWME 07	2185140000
AU26/F2	CONCPUT	25 4 40 000	COMPMOR	210114000
AU26/F2	COWMEUS	2224 60000	COMCPOR	210114000
AUZ6/F2	COWDMO9 COWCPO9	213.92000	COWMEDS	2216120000 215104000 28630000 2153120000 213150000 -23194000 1632100000
AU26/F3	COWME 10	2185.40000	COWCPIO	213.04000
AU26/12	COMDM11	215.60000	COMMETI	2153420000
AU26/F2	COWCPII	21.77000	COWUM12	213650000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2	COWME 12 COWDM13	1900.00000	COWCPIZ	23194000
AU26/F2	CONCP13	19.88000	COWDE13	1632100000
AU26/F2	COWME14	1547.00000	COWCP14	203114000
AU267F2	COWDM15	1547.00000	COWMETS	1420100000
AU26/F2	COWCP15	16./6000	COWDMIO	189 00000
AU267F2	COWME 16	1375.00000	COWCPIO	16:09000
AU26/F2	COWDM17 COWCP17	182.00000	COMMETY	1333:00000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2	COWME 18	15.48000	COMCHIB	1/24/6000
AU267F2	COWDM19	163.80000	COWMETY	172476000 15601000 1259600000 156438000 14739000
AU26/F2	COWCP19	14.42000	COWUMZU	156438000
AU26/12	COWMEZO	1257.00000	CONCPZO	14739000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2	CONDM21 CONCP21	149.10000	COMMEST	1229400000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2	COUNE 22	149.10000 13.91000 1134.00000	COWUMZZ	142.50000
AU26/F2	COMDM23	13/176000	COWMEZS	12450000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2 AU26/F2	COWCP23	11.52000	CDWUM24	135110000
AU26/F2 AU26/F2	COWME24	1054.00000	COMCP24	12112000
AU26/F2	COWDM25 COWCP25	132.80000	COMME 25	1436.00000
AU26/F2	COMME 26	1430.00000	COWCP26	136150000
AUZ6/FZ	MILKFAT	-140.00U0U	COMS .	1.00000
AU26/F2 AU239F0	AUCOWS	1.00000	00	
AU239F 6	COWDMO1 COWCPU1	9.06000	COWMEU1	822.00000
AU239F0	COMME 02	886.00000	COWDMOZ	141.12000
AUZ34FU	COMMEO2 COMDMO3	140.16000	COMMEDS	1365100000 183182000 22167000
AUZ39FU	COMCP03	16.24000	COWUMD4 .	183182000
AU239FU AU239FU	COWMEO 4 COWDMOS	1614.40000	CONCP04	22167000
AUZ39FU	COWCP05	20.19000	COMMEDS	
AU239F0	COMMEU6	2102480000	COMCPOS	202116000
AU239FU	COMDMO7	200.36000	COMMEDY	2185140000
AU239F0 AU239F0	COWCPU7	28.40000	COMUMOR	210114000
A023710	COMMEOS	2224.60000	COMCDOP	28:97000

AUZ3YFO	COMDMU9	213.92000	COWMEUS	2216.20000	
AUZ39FU	COWCPOS	28.81000	COWUMTO	215104000	
AUZ39FG.	COWME10	2185.40000	COMCPIO	28130000	
AUZ39F0	COWDM11	215.60000	COWME 21	2153120000 213150000 27111000 2040100000	
AU239F0	COWCP11	27.77000	COMUMIZ	213.50000	
AU239FU	COWDME 12 COWDMI 3	2111.20000	COMMETS	27:11000	
AU239FU	COMDW13	208.32000	COMMERS	2040 000000	
AUZ39FU	COWCP13	20.01000	COWDM14	203114000	
AU239F0	COWME 14	1933.00000	COHCP14	24136000	
AU239F0	COWDM15	197482000	COWME 15	1774100000	144.
AUZ39FO	COWCP15	1718.00000	COMUM: 6	189:00000	
AU239FU AU239FU	COWME16 COWDM17	1710.00000	COWCP16 COWME17	21113000	
MUZ37FU		182.00000	COMMET	1666100000	
AU239F0	COWCP17 COWME18	1625.00000	COWCPIB	172:79000	
AU239FU	COWDM19	163.80000	COWMETS	1574:00000	
ALLZZOFO	COWCP19	16.05.00	COMPWEO	15/4.00000	
AU239FU AU239FU	COWMEZO	1455.00000	COWCP20	156130000	
AU239F0	COMDM21	149.10000	COWME21	1052:00000	
AU239FU	COWCPZI	149.10000	COWUMZZ	142 80000	
AU239FU	COWME 22	764.00000	COWCP22	6171000	
AU239FU	COWDM23	137.76000	COWME23	734100000	
AU239F0	COWCP23	6.68000	COWUM24	135:10000	
AUZ39FO	COWME 24	704.00000	COWCP24	6663000	
AU239FU	COHUM25	135.80000	COWMEZS	736100000	
AUZ39FU	CONCP25	6.99000	COWUMZ6-	136150000-	
AUZ39FU	COWME 26	774.00000	COWCP20	7160000	
AUZ34FO	MILKFAT	-150.00000	COMS .	1100000	
AUZ39FU	AUCUWS	1.00000	2.5		
AU239F1	COMPINAT	137.90000	COMMENT	822.00000	-
AU239F1	COWCP01	8 4 4 1 0 0 0	COMPWOS	141112000	
AU239F1	COMME U2	880.00000	COMCPOS	9:37000	
AU239F1 AU239F1	COMDMO3	140.16000	COWDMED3	1365100000	
AU239F1	COWCP03	18.24000	COMPMON	103102000	-
AUZ39F1	COWMEU4	1814.40000	COWCP04	22:67000	
	COWDMU5 COWCPU5	190.94000	COMMEDS	2041.20000	
AU239F1	COMME 46	2102.80000	COMCPAP	202.16000	
AU239F1	COWDMUT	206.36000	COWME 07	2185:40000	
AU239F1	COWCP 07	28.40000	COMUMOS	210.14000	
AU239F1	COMMEGIS	2224.60000	COWCPOB	28:97000	
AUZ39F1	COMPMOS	213.92000	COMMEDY	2216120000	10 502
AU239F1	COWCPU9	20.61000	COWLMIU	215:04000	
AU239F1	COWME10	2185.40000	COWCPIO	2216120000 215104000 28130000	,
AUZ34F1	COWDM11	215.60000	COWME 11	2153:20000 213:50000 25:47000 1835:00000	
AU239F1	COWCP11	27.77000	COMPWIS	213.50000	
AU239F1	COWME12	2006.00000	COWCP12	25 47000	
AU239F1	COWDM13	206.32000	COWMERS	1835:00000	
AU239F1	COWCP13	22.94000	COMDM14	203:14000	
AU239F1	COWME14	1740.00000	COMCP14	21449000	-
			-		

AUZ39F2 COMMED 1 137.9000 COMMED 1 141.12000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 2 141.12000 COMMED 3 136510000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 4 1814.4000 COMMED 5 2041.6000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 5 19.000 COMMED 5 20.12000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 6 19.000 COMMED 5 20.12000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 6 2102.80000 COMMED 7 22.867.000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 6 2102.80000 COMMED 7 20.316.0000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 6 2102.80000 COMMED 7 2185.40000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 224.60000 COMMED 7 2185.40000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 224.60000 COMMED 8 2210.614.000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 2224.60000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 2224.60000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 224.60000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 224.60000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 2213.92000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 2213.92000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 213.92000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 220.0000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 COMMED 8 2215.60000 AUZ39F2 COMMED 8 200.000 COMMED 8 2215.60000	#3397F11 #3397F11 #33397F1	COUWMANDERSON MERSON MARKENS OF THE COURT OF	197.82000 19.31000 1546.00000 17.99000 1463.00000 16.79000 1414.00000 12.38000 155.00000 137.76000 55.00000 137.76000 55.00000 137.8000 55.00000 137.80000 139.80000 149.100000 139.80000	10667 88900112N3445 66 EMM10H11111N2NN3445 66 WWW.DPLMPEMPEMPEMPP WWW.DDDWWMDDDWWMDCHWWDCOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOOO	1596 • 00000 189 • 00000 18 • 63000 1499 • 00000 172 • 76000 173 • 44000 156 • 35000 16 • 76000 131 • 00000 142 • 80000 884 • 00000 135 • 10000 910 • 00000 136 • 50000 916 • 6000 1500000
AUZ39F2 COWMEIB 1301.00000 COWCP18 15:01000 AUZ39F2 COWCP19 163.80000 COWMEI9 1259100000 AUZ39F2 COWCP19 14.42000 COWCP20 156:38000 AUZ39F2 COWME20 1257.00000 COWCP20 14:39000	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	01123345567789901112334556778990000000000000000000000000000000000	137.90000 8.41000 886.00000 146.16000 1814.4000 1814.4000 26.19000 2102.80000 224.60000 213.92000 213.92000 213.92000 213.92000 213.92000 213.92000 19.880000 19.880000 19.82000 19.82000 19.82000 137.00000 1301.00000	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	141.12000 1365100000 1831820000 241670000 241670000 27.19000 210114000 210114000 210114000 2155140000 2155140000 2155140000 2155140000 2153120000 2153120000 2153140000 2153140000

	80700//700 TEN VERSIUM: 28.60	120			FREE	· <del></del>
	AU239F2	COWDM21	149.10000	COMMEZI COMUMZZ	1131.00000	
i	AU239F2 AU239F2 AU239F2 AU239F2	COWCP21 COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	12.38000 946.00000 137.76000 12.20000	COWCP22 COWME23 COWUM24	1084400000 135410000	
	AU239F2 AU239F2 AU239F2	COWME24 COWDM25 COWCP25	135.80000 135.80000 13.43000 993.00000	COWCP24 COWDM26 COWCP26	114310000 136150000 136150000	
	AU239F2 AU239F2 AU239F2	COMMEZO MILKFAT AUCOMS	137.90000	COMS COMMEUL		
	AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU	COWEPU1 COWEPU1 COWMEU2 COWDMO3	9.06000	COWDM02	141612000	
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWCP03	146 16000   16 24000   16 440000   196 94000	COMMEOS COMUMO4 COMCPO4 COMMEOS	822.00000 141.12000 9139000 1365.000000 1831.82000 224.67000	
	AU211F0 AU211F0 AU211F0	COWDMOS CONCPOS COWMEO6 COWDMO.7	26.19000 2102.80000 200.36000	COMPAGO COMCPAGO COMPEDI	27119000	t
	AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FO	COWCPU7 COWMEU8 COWDMU9	25.40000 2224.60000 213.92000	COWDMOS	210114000 28197000 2216120000	2.516
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWCPU9 COWME10 COWDM11	20481000 2185440000 215460000	COWDMIO COWCPIO COWMEII	215104000 28130000 2153120000	
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13	27.77000 2111.20000 206.32000	CDWDM12 CDWCP12 CDWME13	213450000 27411000 2040400000 203414000	
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWCP13 COWME14 COWDM15	1933.00000 197.82000	COWCP14 COWCP14 COWME15 COWDN16	24,36000 1774,00000 189,00000	
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWME16 COWDM17	1715.00000 1715.00000 182.00000	COWCP16 COWME17 COWDM18	21 1 3 0 0 0 1666 0 0 0 0 0 172 170 0 0 0	
	AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0 AUZ11F0	COWE18 COWDM19	1487.0000 1487.00000 163.80000 12.96000	COWCPIS COWME19 COWDMZO	19179000	-
	AU211F0 AU211F0 AU211F0	COMCP19 COMME20 COMM21	724.00000	COMPWEST COMPWEST	752100000 142180000	
	AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU	COWCP21 COWME22 COWDM23 COWCP23	764.00000 137.76000	COWCP22	6:71000 734:00000 135:1000	
	AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU AUZ11FU	COWDM25 COWCP25	704.00000	COWLM24 COWCP24 COWME25 COWUM26	736100000 136150000	
	AUZIIFU	COWME 26	774.00000	COMCPZO	7166000	

	(A)			
AUZI1FU AUZI1FU	MILKFAT	-137.00000 1.00000	COWS	1:00000
AUZ11F1	COWDMO1	137.90000	COWMEU1	822.00000
AU211F1	COWCPU1 COMMEU2	0.41000	COMPWOS	141.12000
AUZ11F1	COWDMO3	140.16000	COMCPOS	9 \$ 3 7 0 0 0
AU211F1 AU211F1 AU211F1	COMCPUS	1614.4000	COWUMO4	1303.00000
AU211F1	COWME 04	1614.40000	COWCP04	22.67000
AUZIIFI	COWDMU5 COWCPU5	198.94000	COMMEDS	2041 20000
AUZIIFI	CHMMEUS	2102.80000	COMPAGO	202116000
AU211F1	COWDMUT	206.36000	COMMEDI	2185140000
AU211F1 AU211F1	COWCPO7 COWMED8	2224.60000	COMPWOR	210114000
AU211F1 AU211F1	CDWDM09	213492000	COMCPOS	28197000
AU211F1	COMCPUS	28.81000	COMUMIO	215:04000
AU211F1 AU211F1	COWME 10 COWDM11	2185.40000	COWCPIO	28.30000
AUZ11F1	COWCPII	27.77000	COWME 21 COWDM 22	2153120000
AU21111	COWME 12	2000.00000	COWCP12	1365.00000 183682000 22467000 2041320000 2023160000 2185440000 2185440000 2185440000 216420000 2153620000 2153620000 2153620000 2153620000 2153620000 2153620000
AUZ11F1 AUZ11F1	COMDMIS	200.32000	COWMEIS	1835 00000
AU211F1	COWDM13 COWCP13 COWME14	1740.00000	COWDM14 COWCP14	1835 00000 203 14000
AU211F1	COMDM15	197.82000	COMME 12	1596:0000
AUZIIFI	COWME16	197.82000	COWDM16	18363000 18363000 1499300000 172376000 17344000
AU211F1	CONDMIT	1546.00000	COWCP16 COWME17	18:63000
AU211F1	CUWCP17	17.99000	COWDWIS	172176000
AUZ11F1 AUZ11F1	COWME18	1463.00000	COWCPID	17.44000
AU211F1	COWCP19	163.80000	COWMERY	12/04/00000
AUZ11F1	COHME20	899.00000	COWCPZO	156130000
AUZIIFI AUZIIFI	COWDM21	149.10000	COWME21	8 8 1 0 0 0 927 • 0 0 0 0 0
AUZ11F1	COWCP21 COWME22	864.00000	COWDMZZ	142:80000 8:25000
AUZ11F1	CONDM23	137.76000	COWCP22	7 8 2 5 0 0 0
AU211F1	COWCP23	( • 45 u 0 u	COWUM24	784 00000 135 10000
AU211F1 AU211F1	COMMEZ4 COWDM25	754.00000	COWCP24	7.39000
AUZ11F1	COWCP25	135.80000	COWMEZ5	761100000
AUZIIFI	COWCP25 COWME26	774.00000	COWCPZa	136150000
AUZ11F1	MILKFAT AUCOWS	-133.00000	COMS	1100000
AUZ11F2	COWDMO1	13/00000	COWMEUL	
AUZ11F2	COMCBOIL	586.00000	COMUMOS	822.00000
AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2	COWDE 02	880.00000	COMUMOS	0:37000
AUZIIFZ	COWCPO3	140.16000	COWMEDS COWDMO4	1365100000
AUZ11F2	COWCPU3 COWMEU4	161444000	COWCP04	22.67000
AU211F2	COMDM05	190.94000	COMMEDS	1365100000 183482000 22467000 2041120000

Vacan - Charles - Lance	6.20 to 2000 consistent (6.00)				
AUZI1F2	COWCP05	26.19000	COMUMUO	202 • 16000	
AUU 2111FF 222222222222222222222222222222	COMME06	2102-80000	COMCPOS	27119000	
AU21112	COWDMO7	206.36000	COWMEDT	2185140000	CO DO
AU211F22 AU211F22 AU211F22 AU211F22 AU211F22	COWCP07	28.40000	COMPWOR	210114000	
AU211F2	COMMEDS	2224.60000	COMCDOR		
AU21112	COMDWOS	213.92000	COMCPOS	28.397000 215.104000 28.30000 215.3620000 213.150000 23.94000 1632.600000 1816.4000 1420.00000	
AU211F2	COWCPU9	28.81000	COWDMIO	215104000	
AU21112	COWME 10	2185 40000	COWCPIO	28:30000	
AU21112	COWDM11	215.60000	COWMETI	2153720000	
AU21112	CONCP11	215.60000	COMUMIZ	213150000	
AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2	COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13	1900.00000 208.32000 19.88000	COWCP12	23.94000	
AUZITE	COMDW13	208.32000	COWMERS	1632100000	
AUZ11F2	COWCP13	19.88000	COWDM14	203114000	
AUZ11F2 AUZ11F2	COWME14	154/.00000	CONCP14	18164000	
AU21112	COWDM15	197.82000	COWMERS	1420100000	
AU21112	CONCP15	16.76000	COWDM16		
AUZIIF 2	COWME16	1375.00000	COWCP10 COWME17	16109000	
AUZITE2	COWDM17	182.00000	COWME 17	1333100000	Markey
AUZITE2	COWEP17 COWME18	15.48000	COMPWIR	172176000	
AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2 AU 211F2	COMMETA	1301.00000	COMCHIB	172176000	
AUZIIF2	COMPM19	163.80000	COWMETY	12/0400000	
AU211F2	COWCP19	14.54000	COMPWER	156436400	
A1. 149 C.	COWME20	974.00000	COMCPZO	10103000	
AUZ1172	COWDM21	149.10000	COWME21	1052100000	
AU211F2	COWCP21	1014.00000	COWUMZZ	142180000	
AUZ1152	COWME22	1014.00000-	COWCP22	-10.68000	
AU 211 F 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2 2	COWDM23	13/.76000	COMMEZS	934500000	
112115	COWCP23 CONME24	9.81000	COWDM24	135 + 10000	
AU 2116	COWDM25	904.00000	COWCP24	9 1 7 6 0 0 0	
AU21155	COWCP25	135.80000	COWMEZS	836.00000	8 5
AUZITES	COWME26	776.78000	COMPWS	136150000	
AUZ1152	MILKFAT	774.00000	-COMCP20	7 6 6 6 0 0 0	
AUZITES	AUCOWS	-129.00000	COWS '	1100000	
AUT63FU	CONDMO	137.90000	COUNTIE		
AULBSFU	CONCPUI	9.06000	COWMEUL	822.00000	
AULBBEO	COMMEOS	BB6 - 00000	COMPMOS	141112000	
AULBSEG	COMDMOS	146.16000	COWCP02	9:39000	
AU183FO	COWCPU3	10.24000	COWUMO4	-1303+00000	
AU183F0 AU183F0	COMME04	1814.40000	COWCP04	103.02000	
AU183F0	CO WDMUS	190.94000	COMMEDS	2041630000	
AUIBSEO	COWCP05	26.19000	COMPWAR	136540000 183482000 22467000 2041420000 27419000 218544000	
AULBSFO	COWMEU6	2102.80000	COWCPOO	27:14000	-
AU183FU	COWDMU7	206.36000	COMMEDY .	2185140000	
AUL B3FO	COWCP07	20.40000	COMPWOR	210.14000	
AU183F0	COMMEDS	2224.60000	COMCPOD	28.97000	
AU183FO	COMDMOS	213.92000	COWMEDS	2216120000	-
AU183FU	COWCPU9	28.81000	COWDMIO	215104000	
AU183F0	COWME10	2185.40000	COWCPIO	28:30000	
AULBSFU	COMUMII	215.60000	COWNE 11	2153420000	

AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0 AU1837F0	COWCP11 COWME12 COWME14 COWME14 COWME16 COWME16 COWME16 COWCP17 COWCP17 COWCP17 COWCP17 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP119 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP19 COWCP119 CO	27.77000 2111.20000 208.32000 208.32000 1933.00000 197.82000 1579.00000 182.00000 13.98000 163.80000 163.37000 724.00000	COUNTY OF THE PROPERTY OF T	213.50000 27.11000 2040700000 203114000 24.36000 1774600000 189600000 1050600000 172176000 680600000 6812000 752100000
AU183FO AU183FO AU183FO AU183FO AU183FO AU183FO AU183F1 AU183F1	COWCP21 COWME23 COWWEP23 COWWEP24 COWWEP25 COWWEP25 COWWEP35 COWWEP31 COWWEP32 COWWEP32 COWWEP32	764.00000 137.76000 704.00000 130.80000 774.00000 774.00000 124.00000 137.90000 137.90000	COWMENS COWMENS COMMENS	142 80000 6171000 734 00000 135 10000 6 6 3000 736 00000 136 50000 1 00000 1 100000
AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1 AU163F1	COWME04 COWME04 COWME05 COWME06 COWME06 COWME007 COWME009 COWME109 COWME11	146.16000 16.24000 1814.40000 198.94000 2102.80000 206.36000 224.60000 224.60000 213.92000 213.92000 2185.40000	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	216;20000 2216;20000 2216;20000 2183;40000 202;160000 2185;40000 216;20000 216;20000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000 215;604000
AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1 AU183F1	COWCP11 COWME12 COWDM13 COWCP13 COWME14 COWCP15 COWCP15 COWCP15 COWME16 COWDM17	215.60000 27.77000 2006.00000 208.32000 22.94000 1740.00000 197.82000 19.31000 1546.00000	COWMERI COWDMIN COWMERI COWMER	2153120000 213150000 25147000 1835100000 2031149000 1596100000 189100000 189100000 1237100000

BO700/1700 TEMPO		FREL
VERSIUM: 28.600.000	x xx	
AUIB3F1 COMCPI	7 13.98UOO CDWUM18	172.76000
AU183F1 COWMET	8 686.00000 - COWCP18	5:14000
AULUSFI COWDM1	9 163.80000 CDWME19	680100000 156138000
AULBSF1 COWCP1	9 35.10000 CDWUMZU	156138000
AULB3F1 COWME2	0 724.0000 COWCP20 1 149.1000 COWME21	752500000
AU183F1 COWDM2 AU183F1 COWCP2	1 149.10000 CDWME21 1 0.54000 CDWDM22	752100000 142180000
AU183F1 COWME2	2 764.00000 CDWCP22	6172000
AULBSF1 COWDM2	3 137.76000 CDWME23	734100000
AU163F1 COWCP2	3 .0168000 COWDM24	6162000
AU163FI COWME2	4 704.00000 CDWCP24 5 135.80000 CDWME25	
AUIB3F1 COWCP2		136.50000
AU183F1 CONME2	6 774.00000 COMLP20	7 6 6 6 0 0 0
AULB3FI MILKFA	T -121.00000 CDWS	1400000
AU163F1 AUCOWS	1.00000	
AU163F2 COWDMO		822.00000 141.12000
AU183F2 COMCPO	2 686.00000 COWCP02	
AU183F2 COMMED	3 146.16000 COWMEDS	1365100000
AU183F2 CONCPU	3 10.24000 COWUMU4	183182000
		22:67000
AU183F2 COWMEN AU183F2 COWCPO AU183F2 COWCPO	5 198.94000 COWNEDS	2041120000
AU163F2 COWCPU		27119000
AULKSES COWDMO	7 -206:36000 COWNED!	0445144000
AU163FO CONCPO	7 20.40000 COWLMO	210114000
AU16312 COMMEN	8 2224.60000 CDWLP08	28197000
AUTROLS COMPUNO		2216420000
AU163F2 COWCPO	A 2185. ADOLD COMEPTO	28130000
AU183F2 COWDM1	1 215.60000 COWME 11	2153120000
AU183F2 COWCP1	1 27 477000 COWUM 12	213150000
AU183F2 COMME!	2 1900400000 COMCP12	23+77000
AU183F2 COWDM1	3 208132000 COWME13	1632100000
AU163F2 COWNET	4 1547.00000 COWCP14	18 6 4 0 0 0
AU183F5 COWDM1	5 197.82000 CDWML13	1420100000
AU183F2 COWCF1	5 10.76000 CDWDM16	189100000
AU163F2 COWMET	6 1375.00000 COMCP14	16109000
AU183F2 COWDM1	7 182.00000 COWNET	1237100000
		5.14000
AU183F2 COWNET	9 163.80000 COWME15	680:00000
AULUSFS CONCPI	9 0.28000 COWDMZ	156138000
AUIOSF2 COMMEZ	0 774.00000 COMCPZ	6.89000
AUIBJF2 COWDM2 AUIBJF2 COWCP2	149.10000 COWNEZ 1 7.34000 COWDMZ	802100000
AU163F2 COWNES	2 814.00000 CDNCP2	7 6 4 5 0 0 0
AUIB3F2 COWDM2		

AU183F2 AU183F2 AU183F2	COWCP23 COWME24 COWDM25	7.53000 779.00000 135.80000	COWDM24 COWCP24 COWME25	135 • 10000 7679000 836100000
AU183F2 AU183F2 AU183F2	COWCP25 COWME26 MILKFAT AUCOWS	774.00000 -117.00000	COWDM20 COWCP26 COWS	136350000 7866000 1400000
MEALBUY MEALFGO1 MEALFGO1	MILKFAT MEALDM MEALDM COWMEU1	1.00000	MARGIN MARGIN COWDMO1 COWCPO1	1.60000 -0.15000 -1.00000 -0.20000
MEALFGUZ MEALFGUZ MEALFGUZ MEALFGUZ	MEALDH COWMEU2 MEALDH COWMEU3	1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000	COWDM02 COWCP02 CUWDM03 COWCP03	-1:00000 -0:20000 -1:00000
MEALFGO4 MEALFGO5 MEALFGO5 MEALFGO5	MEALDM COWMEO4 MEALDM COWMEO5	1.00000 -11.50000	COWLM04 COWLP04 COWLM05	-0.20000 -1.00000 -0.20000 -1.00000
MEALFGUE MEALFGUE MEALFGUE MEALFGUE	MEALDM COWMEU6 MEALDH	-11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000	COWDMO6 COWDMO6 COWDMO7	-0.20000 -1.00000 -0.20000 -1.00000
MEALFGOS MEALFGOS	COWMEUT MEALDM COWMEUB MEALDM	1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000	COMCP07 COMCP08 COMUM09	-0.20000 -1.00000 -0.20000 -1.00000
MEALFGIO MEALFGIO MEALFGIO MEALFGII	COWMEO9 MEALDH COWME10 MEALDH	-11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000	COWCPTO COWUMIO COWCPTO COWUMII	-0:20000 -1:00000 -0:20000 -1:00000
MEALFG12 MEALFG12 MEALFG13 MEALFG13	COWME11 MEALDM COWME12 MEALDM	11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000	COWCP12 COWCP12 COWCP12 COWUM13	-0.20000 -1.00000 -0.20000 -1.00000
MEALT G14	COWME13 MEALDM COWME14 MEALDM	-11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000	COWCP13 COWDM14 COWCP14 COWDM15	-0120000 -1100000 -0120000 -1100000
MEALFG16 MEALFG16	COWME15 MEALDM COWME16 MEALDM	-11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000	COWCP15 COWLP16	-1500000
MEALFG17 MEALFG18 MEALFG18 MEALFG19	COWME17 MEALD4 COWME18 MEALDM	1.00000 1.00000 -11.50000	COWDM17 COWCP17 COWDM18 COWCP18	-0.20000 -1.00000 -0.20000 -1.00000
MEALFG19 MEALFG20 MEALFG20 MEALFG21	COWME19 MEALDM COWME20 MEALDM	1.00000 1.50000 1.50000	COWDMIN COMCPIN COWCPIN	-1:00000 -0:20000 -1:00000 -0:20000
	TENEDA	1.00000	COMPWS1	-1.00000

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1	MLALFG223 MLALFG223 MLALFG223 MLALFG224 MLALFG225 MLALFG225 MLALFG226 MLALFG226 MLALFG226 MLALFG226	COWME21 MEALDM COWME22 MEALDM COWME23 MEALDM COWME24 MEALDM COWME25 MEALDM COWME25 MEALDM COWME26	-11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 1.00000 -11.50000 -11.50000 -11.50000 -11.50000	COWLO MANA COWLO MANA	-0.20000 -1:00000 -0:20000 -1:00000 -0:20000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -1:00000 -0:20000	
КНS	11111111111111111111111111111111111111	LANDO1 LANDO5 LANDO9 LANDO9 LAND11 LAND13 LAND17 LAND17 LAND19 LAND21 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND23 LAND25	50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000	20000000000000000000000000000000000000	50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000 50.00000	
BUPXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXXX	BR 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1	MZSGPK 012 0ASGFF 4003 0ASGFF 4005 0ASGFF 4005 0ASGFF 4005 0ASGFF 4022 0ASGFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFFF 4022 0ASFF	11.00000			

B0700//700 TFHPO VERSIUM: 28.600.000 FX BNU1 FX BNU1 FX BNU1 ENDATA

JFLUCV17 JFLUCV15 JFLUCV13

FREL

## APPENDIX E

## MODELLING THE CONTRIBUTION OF FORAGE CROPS TO PRODUCTION, PROFITABILITY AND STABILITY OF NORTH ISLAND DAIRY SYSTEMS

C. P. MILLER

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