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1 **Can repellent crops reduce the abundance of the common vole (*Microtus arvalis*) as a way**
2 **to reduce crop damage?**

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10

11 **Abstract**

12 The common vole is one of the most damaging rodents in agriculture. A number of methods
13 are used to suppress its numbers and limit damage. One option is growing crops that are not
14 suitable for voles; this might limit their numbers and distribution. Through long-term
15 monitoring of common voles throughout the Czech Republic, their abundance in eleven crop
16 types (annual, biennial and perennial crops) was evaluated through active burrow counts.
17 Reference crops were selected from perennials and biennials and annual crops were selected as
18 potential repellents. The perennial crops were clover with alfalfa, which serve as the primary
19 habitat for voles. These crops are where voles are found in their highest densities, and from
20 which they spread to the surrounding crops during periods of high abundance. The biennial
21 winter rape was selected because it provides favourable conditions for voles to overwinter and
22 multiply rapidly in the spring. Compared to perennial crops and winter rape, significantly lower
23 numbers of voles were found in onions, poppy seeds and maize. Additionally, fewer voles were
24 also found in mustard compared to perennial crops. Onion and poppy were the only crops to
25 show a significantly lower abundance of voles in comparison to wheat. The annual crops tested

26 are unattractive to voles and due to the cultivation practices used, they do not even have enough
27 weeds as food. As profitable crops they can be cultivated over sufficiently large areas to
28 potentially prevent the spread of voles to surrounding crops, especially during outbreak years.

29 **Key words:** common vole, annual crops, crop damage, onion, habitat

30

31 **1. Introduction**

32 In Central European countries, the common vole (*Microtus arvalis*, Pallas 1787) is one of the
33 dominant pest species in agroecosystems (Jacob and Tkadlec, 2010; Jacob, 2014). Its preference
34 for crops depends on the frequency of disturbances, particularly ploughing. Permanent stands
35 (e.g. grasslands, pastures, etc.) and perennial crops (e.g. alfalfa, clover) provide the most
36 favourable conditions (Jánová and Heroldová, 2016; Rodríguez-Pastor et al., 2016; Santamaria
37 et al., 2019). Among those, alfalfa (*Medicago sativa*) and clover (*Trifolium* spp.) are the most
38 commonly used (Tertil, 1977; Babinska-Werka, 1979; Batzli, 1985; Balmelli et al., 1999;
39 Lantová and Lanta, 2008; Jánová et al., 2016). Winter crops, represented by cereal species and
40 winter rape (*Brassica napus*), provide food and shelter, aiding in the successful overwintering
41 of voles (Heroldová et al. 2021a, b). It is expected that the highest damages and losses would
42 occur in such preferred crops (Suchomel et al., 2021).

43 There is an irregular variation in the degree of damage suffered by agricultural crops
44 due to cyclic changes in vole population dynamics that takes place every 2–5 years (Jacob et
45 al., 2014). However, in recent years, climate change has had an effect and vole outbreaks have
46 been more intense and may affect large areas of Europe (Jacob et al., 2020). Therefore, efforts
47 are underway to optimize the existing methods of vole population management and damage
48 reduction, as well as to explore new methods to regulate vole numbers (Tobin and Fall, 2004;
49 Aulický et al., 2022).

50 There are numerous methods available to allow the management of vole populations,
51 each of which has its own distinct effects. The most common and effective method is chemical
52 control using rodenticides, current practices predominantly rely on zinc phosphide (Jacob et al.,
53 2014; Aulický et al., 2022). At present, however, their use in the European Union is
54 significantly limited. There is an effort to replace them with integrated pest management or
55 ecologically-based rodent management programs (Tobin and Fall, 2004; Singleton et al., 2007).
56 Agrotechnical interventions during plant cultivation are important components of an integrated
57 ecological protection methodology. These interventions include the removal of vegetation (by
58 mowing meadows and harvesting crops), as well as practices such as mulching, stubble-tillage,
59 and ploughing (Jacob et al., 2014). However, with the exception of ploughing, most of these
60 interventions do not have a sufficiently large effect (Jacob, 2003). Attention is also focused on
61 biological regulation, which involves the use of predators or pathogens (Jacob et al., 2014;
62 Labuschagne et al., 2016; Williams et al., 2018), as well as methods to limit vole fertility
63 (Chambers et al., 1999; Jacob et al., 2004). Plant repellents, based on secondary plant
64 metabolites, are being tested for their effectiveness in repelling rodents (Hansen et al., 2016a,
65 b; Jokić et al., 2018; Quasim et al., 2023). However, all these methods have limitations and are
66 only partially effective.

67 The effort to attempt to implement an integrated system incorporating ecological
68 processes is also tied to a shift in the perception of the role of the common vole in agrocenoses,
69 where voles provide a wide range of ecosystem services (Martin, 2003). This approach focuses
70 on minimizing vole populations to below the damage threshold rather than the pursuit of their
71 total elimination. One approach is through long-term preventative measures related to the
72 structure of the landscape and the reinforcement of self-regulatory mechanisms, including the
73 utilization of ecosystem services from predators, among others (Lindell et al., 2018; Williams
74 et al., 2018).

75 The creation of unsuitable habitats, that restrict the occurrence and distribution of voles,
76 can be an effective strategy that allows the optimisation of vole populations and this minimizes
77 crop damage. Various different crops can be used within the sowing plan to create habitats that
78 are unsuitable for voles. Such crops create conditions unsuitable for voles through their
79 biological properties and agricultural cultivation techniques. Mainly annual crops, voles find
80 these plants unattractive and they are intensively cultivated to control weeds. Examples include
81 ornamental flowering bulbs (Curtis et al., 2009), as well as selected bulbs used in cooking and
82 cereals (Nosek, 1956; Holišová, 1959). Many of those crops are commonly cultivated and have
83 economic value. Therefore, in practice they can be utilized as potential barriers against the
84 spread of voles from their primary habitats to other crops.

85 Through the long-term monitoring of the occurrence of the common vole in various
86 crops across the Czech Republic, we assessed its abundance in annual, biannual and perennial
87 crops, and identified species that have the potential to be a repellent for the common vole. This
88 approach, using the evaluated crops, could contribute to a limitation to plant damage and thus
89 yields in ordinary agricultural practice. We assume that certain agricultural crops (such as the
90 poppy (*Papaver somniferum*), white mustard (*Sinapis alba*), maize (*Zea mays*), caraway
91 (*Carum carvi*), purple tansy (*Phacelia tanacetifolia*) and pea (*Pisum sativum*)) can act as
92 repellents and prevent the spread of voles to economically important crops. Therefore, our
93 hypothesis is that there are significantly fewer active burrows in these crops in comparison to
94 the number found in economically important crops (such as winter wheat (*Triticum aestivum*)
95 and winter rape) and perennial crops (such as alfalfa and clover).

96

97 **2. Material and methods**

98 **2.1. Data collection**

99 The data on the presence of common voles in crops were provided by the Division of Plant
100 Health of the Czech Republic, based on a count of active burrow entrances. Active burrows are
101 those visibly used by voles, indicated by signs such as fresh food and faeces at the entrance,
102 and evidence of vegetation consumption around the burrow. Four transects were laid out within
103 each field (Zapletal et al., 2001). The number of active burrows on four plots (1000 m²) was
104 multiplied by 10 to calculate the burrow index per hectare (BI/ha).

105 This study utilized data from a large database spanning the years 2000 to 2018 (Table
106 1), collected from 76 districts across the Czech Republic. We evaluated data from a total of
107 19,873 data records, covering BI/ha in the spring (February to May) and autumn (October to
108 December). Detailed methodology, current situation, and maps are available on the website:
109 http://eagri.cz/public/app/srs_pub/fytoportal/fy-public/, though the information is in Czech.
110 The applicability of this methodology has been demonstrated by Lisická et al. (2007) and
111 Tkadlec et al. (2011).

112

113 2.2. *Crops under study*

114 The analysis focused on the abundance of common voles (active BI) in crops that vary in their
115 degree of attractiveness to voles within the agricultural landscape of Central Europe. Such crops
116 were annuals, biennials and perennials (Table 1). From those, three reference crops were
117 selected to serve as comparative benchmarks. These included leguminous crops (alfalfa,
118 clover), which are occupied year-round by the common vole and show the highest population
119 densities. The second reference crop chosen was winter rape, which provides a highly suitable
120 habitat for voles to overwinter and exhibit robust spring reproduction. The final reference crop
121 chosen was winter wheat, recognized as one of our most important agricultural crops. The
122 number of years of data available for these crops differed and correlated with the intensity of
123 monitoring. The monitoring effort of the state administration was noticeably lower for annual

124 crops (excluding wheat and barley *Hordeum vulgare*) compared to higher risk biennials, such
125 as rape, and perennials. Crops monitored for more than three years were selected for objective
126 evaluation.

127 The monitoring of each crop was conducted across the Czech Republic (Supplementary
128 data, Appendix S1 and S2). The Supplementary data show that for the majority of crop types
129 (i.e. perennial crops, winter rape, winter wheat) more than 100 fields were sampled each year.
130 The other crop types analysed were not monitored as a priority because they are not important
131 to predict vole outbreaks. Therefore, we have a significantly smaller number of sampled fields
132 for these crops compared to the main economic crops.

133

134 2.3. *Data analysis*

135 The importance of crops to predict vole occurrence was modelled using a Bayesian generalized
136 linear model (BRM) implemented in the 'brms' package from the R statistical program
137 (Bürkner, 2021). In the BRM model, crop type was used as the fixed-effect variable, while the
138 variables district (NUTS 3) and sampling season nested within year were used as crossed
139 random intercept factors. To test whether repellent plants are less colonized by voles during
140 outbreak years (represented by 2000, 2005, 2010, 2012, 2015, and 2018), we created a second
141 model. This model differed from the first by including an explanatory variable that accounted
142 for the interaction between crop type and the year of the vole outbreak. As the dependent
143 variable, the decadic logarithm of the number of active burrows per hectare was used.
144 Noninformative priors were set as the prior distribution to model uncertainty in the model
145 parameters, and Gaussian was chosen as the response distribution. To achieve convergence and
146 good mixing across multiple chains, we set up 4 chains in the model with 4,000 iterations each
147 using a Markov Chain Monte Carlo (MCMC). The robustness of the MCMC simulation in
148 ensuring convergence was assessed using a R-hat statistic, which was below the threshold of

149 1.2, indicating good model convergence. Bayesian highest density credible intervals and
150 Bayesian 95% prediction intervals of the estimates were obtained using the 'mcmc_intervals'
151 function of the 'bayesplot' package (Gabri and Mahr, 2022).

152

153 **3. Results**

154 A total of 11 crop types were evaluated (Fig. 1). One of the results of the Bayesian data analysis
155 revealed a non-significant effect of outbreak years and their interactions with crop types, with
156 the exception of purple tansy, which was more heavily occupied during vole outbreak years
157 compared to years with normal vole populations (Appendix S3). In a separate Bayesian model
158 comparing the effect of different crop types with the reference crops (i.e., perennial fodders,
159 winter rape, and winter wheat), we found a clear reduction in the number of active burrows in
160 repellent plants (Fig. 2-4). When compared to perennial fodders (Fig. 2), the lowest number of
161 active burrows was found in onions (*Allium cepa*) (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -2.886, u-
162 95% = -1.241), followed by maize (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -1.565, u-95% = -0.523),
163 poppy (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -1.462, u-95% = -0.749) and mustard (Bayesian statistics
164 CI: l-95% = -0.827, u-95% = -0.245). Significantly lower number of active burrows were also
165 observed in winter crops (winter wheat – Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -0.774, u-95% = -
166 0.702 and winter rape – Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -0.536, u-95% = -0.466) (Fig. 2).

167 Compared to winter rape (Fig. 3), onions showed a significantly lower number of voles
168 (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -2.374, u-95% = -0.785), followed by poppies (Bayesian
169 statistics CI: l-95% = -0.950, u-95% = -0.247), maize (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -1.065,
170 u-95% = -0.002) and winter wheat (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = -0.263, u-95% = -0.213).
171 Conversely, significantly higher numbers, compared to rape, were found in the perennial
172 fodders (Bayesian statistics CI: l-95% = 0.465, u-95% = 0.536), caraway (Bayesian statistics

173 CI: 1-95% = 0.133, u-95% = 0.547), and fallow areas (Bayesian statistics CI: 1-95% = 0.452, u-
174 95% = 1.283). The differences compared to other crops were not statistically significant.

175 When compared to winter wheat, a statistically significantly lower number of voles were
176 only found in onions (Bayesian statistics CI: 1-95% = -2.110, CI u-95% = -0.563) and poppies
177 (Bayesian statistics CI: 1-95% = -0.714, CI u-95% = -0.022). The abundance of voles in maize
178 crops was not significantly different. The other crops under test had a significantly higher
179 abundance of voles (Fig. 4).

180

181 **4. Discussion**

182 The results demonstrate that the selected annual crops host significantly fewer voles
183 over the long term in comparison to primary perennial habitats such as perennial fodders and
184 ruderal plants, and even in comparison to biennial crops such as rape and wheat. Onion crops
185 were found to be the least suitable habitat. This could be attributed to the presence of specific
186 secondary metabolites that repel rodents. This phenomenon has been demonstrated in
187 laboratory experiments, for example, on water voles *Arvicola amphibius* (Fisher et al., 2013).
188 Garlic (*Allium sativum*) also repels voles, indicating a similar effect to that observed with onions
189 (Fisher et al., 2013). It can be assumed that most plants from the Amaryllidaceae family,
190 including representatives of the *Allium* genus have properties that repel voles. Food analyses
191 have confirmed that these plant species are not consumed by the common vole (Nosek, 1956;
192 Holišová, 1959). The cultivation technology used for onions, particularly the intensive weed
193 suppression using agricultural techniques and chemical regulation also leads to an environment
194 unsuitable for voles (Rubin, 1990; Dhananivetha et al., 2017). Both factors lead to a lack of
195 food in the form of weeds and to limited vegetation cover, leaving the voles vulnerable to
196 predation.

197 Due to the agricultural cultivation techniques used and the absence of food in the form
198 of weeds, voles only minimally colonize maize. Intensive cultivation practices suppress weeds
199 and disturbs the top layer of the soil. The growth of weeds is further limited by herbicides and
200 the presence of the maize during the growing season (Glowacka, 2011; Page et al., 2012). Other
201 cultivated cereals (Poaceae), such as sorghum (*Sorghum* spp.) can have a role as equally
202 unsuitable habitats. Sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*), is similar to maize in terms of its growth and
203 management, but unlike maize it also acts as a repellent. Sorghum contains cyanide and can be
204 toxic to herbivorous mammals (Giantin et al., 2024). The vole will only eat the grains of
205 sorghum and maize, not the green parts of the plants (Holišová, 1959) and is only able to reach
206 the grains when the plants are on the ground, typically due to weather or the activities of other
207 animals, such as wild boar (Tóth et al., 2023). Tillage and intensive weed control can ensure
208 that within such crops the habitat continues to be unsuitable for voles, especially during the
209 early stages of growth when they are particularly susceptible (Vencill and Banks, 1994). If those
210 crops are grown in a no-tillage system, they may be more attractive to voles, as they tend to
211 survive better in such systems (Heroldová et al., 2018). Common vole populations in sorghum
212 stands have not yet been studied, but preliminary results indicate there are low numbers, similar
213 to those observed in maize (Tóth et al., 2023).

214 Poppy and mustard are also not a preferred food for the common vole, as voles often
215 ignore them (Holišová, 1959; Balmelli et al., 1999). Poppy stands may contain a variety of
216 species of weeds, but they are highest in number at the margins of the fields and significantly
217 decrease towards the centre, thereby limiting the potential food supply for voles (Pinke et al.,
218 2011). Mustard stands suppress the formation of weed communities, especially during the
219 summer, which means a lack of food for voles (Alcántara et al., 2011).

220 All these crops are secondary habitats that voles only typically inhabit during population
221 outbreaks (Stein, 1958; Pelikán, 1959). Even during outbreak years, the abundance of voles in

222 these habitats remains low, as indicated by the findings of this study (Appendix S3). Hence, it
223 can be assumed that such crops are able to limit the spread of voles to other crops if the planted
224 area is large enough. To be effective as a barrier, they should be grown in strips with a width
225 of more than 20 meters. This width corresponds to the maximum movement distance of the
226 common vole. Depending on the type of crop and seasonal development of vegetation, voles
227 usually only move 0.5–9 m from the burrow, with a maximum range of up to 19 meters. By
228 autumn, the burrows can reach a maximum length of 20 meters (Stein, 1958; Pelikán, 1959;
229 Zejda et. al, 2002). Natal and breeding females (dispersers) can spread further to establish a
230 new nest, at distances ranging from 16 to 537 meters (Boyce and Boyce, 1988). In areas with
231 sparser vegetation, voles move a shorter distance from the burrow (approx. 0.5 meters), while
232 long-distance movement (tens of meters) only occurs in dense and closed vegetation (Pelikán,
233 1959; Zejda et al., 2002). Wide-row crops with low plant density and intensive cultivation thus
234 hinder vole movement, which typically occurs only over short distances (in the order of meters).
235 Crops colonized by voles that have come from strips of permanent vegetation or stands of
236 perennial forage are most densely populated near the edges (Rodríguez-Pastor et al., 2016). The
237 vole population density decreases towards the centre of the field (Rodríguez-Pastor et al., 2016;
238 Suchomel et al., 2021), as those crops are unsuitable for voles, essentially acting as 'sink sites'.
239 Therefore, an increase in the width of the strip of the selected repellent crop can be expected to
240 enhance their effectiveness.

241 The effect of plant stands that repel rodents has only occasionally been tested. For
242 example, there have been studies on ornamental plants and within orchards (Curtis et al., 2003;
243 Wiman et al., 2009), but research in fields is lacking. A demonstrable influence was observed,
244 for example, with the sweet woodruff (*Galium odoratum*), which, however is not an
245 economically beneficial crop for farmers. On the other hand, the tested plants do fulfil the need
246 to provide an economic benefit in addition to the need to reduce vole numbers. The

247 demonstrably lower abundance of voles in onion, corn and poppy stands suggests that they can
248 serve as barriers, not only against the spread of voles from primary habitats such as perennial
249 forage and permanent stands, but also against the spread from winter rape to cereals. Growing
250 winter rape in the vicinity of cereals poses a risk. It facilitates the survival of the common vole
251 over the winter and provides the necessary conditions for reproduction in the spring (Heroldová
252 et al., 2021b). However, at the end of its phenological development, during ripening in June,
253 winter rape becomes completely unsuitable as a habitat for voles due to a lack of food which
254 causes the voles to leave. If other suitable crops, such as cereals, are grown next to winter rape,
255 voles will quickly colonize them and cause considerable damage. This is particularly evident
256 during rodent outbreak years (Suchomel et al., 2021). Restrictive belts of selected annual crops
257 can prevent or significantly reduce this damage.

258 One of the prospective crops recently introduced into our range of cultivated plants is the
259 sunflower (*Helianthus annuus*). According to Jánová et al. (2011), two years of snap-trapping
260 of rodent species in various crops in years with high common vole populations resulted in the
261 capture of zero common voles in 17 sunflower fields. There was also a very low number of
262 burrows found at the margins of the fields. The same experiment was also carried out within 20
263 maize fields with similar results (Jánová et al. 2011). The low number of common voles in both
264 of these crops in all phenological stages (even if young leaves of crops were within the reach
265 of the voles) might find a practical application in plant agriculture management. Thereby such
266 crops may be used as an isolating zone that protect more attractive crops against vole
267 colonisation.

268

269 **5. Conclusion**

270 The results clearly demonstrate that the selected types of annual crop host significantly
271 lower numbers of voles than perennial crops. In the case of wide-row crops with intensive

272 cultivation and weed suppression, the method of cultivation significantly limits the food supply
273 for voles (weeds) and the vegetation cover needed by voles to hide from predators. Additionally,
274 as a food source the tested crops are not attractive to voles, likely due to secondary metabolites
275 or the low quality of the plant biomass. Overall, they provide an unsuitable habitat for the
276 common vole. When combined with their economic or other benefits for farmers, such crops
277 can be grown in large enough areas to serve as potential barriers against the spread of voles to
278 the main economic crops such as cereals, rape, sugar beet, etc. In theory, we might generalise
279 and expect that these properties will apply to all crops of this type. It is important to apply the
280 cultivation technology for broad-row crops in a way that ensures a poor quality habitat for voles,
281 achieved through practices such as weed minimization and soil disturbance, i.e., tilling. In the
282 case of no-tillage cultivation, where the quality of the habitat is higher for voles, there is a risk
283 that they will successfully settle. As a future research project, it would be appropriate to test
284 these and other similar types of crops in a controlled experiment. The aims would be: 1) to
285 determine the optimum width of a stand in terms of its effectiveness in limiting the spread of
286 voles (with a hypothesis of more than 20 m); 2) to investigate the possibility of the effectiveness
287 of some types of crops in a no-till cultivation system.

288

289 **CRedit authorship contribution statement**

290 **Josef Suchomel:** Conceptualization, Data curation, Methodology, Writing – original draft,
291 Writing – review & editing. **Jan Šipoš:** Data curation, Methodology, Formal analysis, Writing
292 – review & editing. **Marta Heroldová:** Conceptualization, Methodology, Writing – review &
293 editing.

294

295 **Declaration of competing interest**

296 The authors declare that they have no known competing financial interests or personal
297 relationships that could have appeared to influence the work reported in this paper.

298

299 **Data availability**

300 Data will be made available on request.

301

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308

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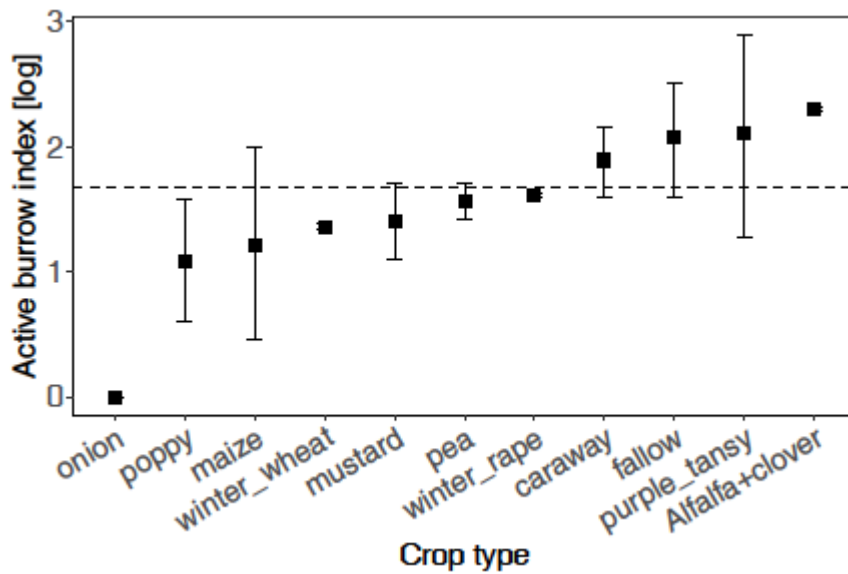
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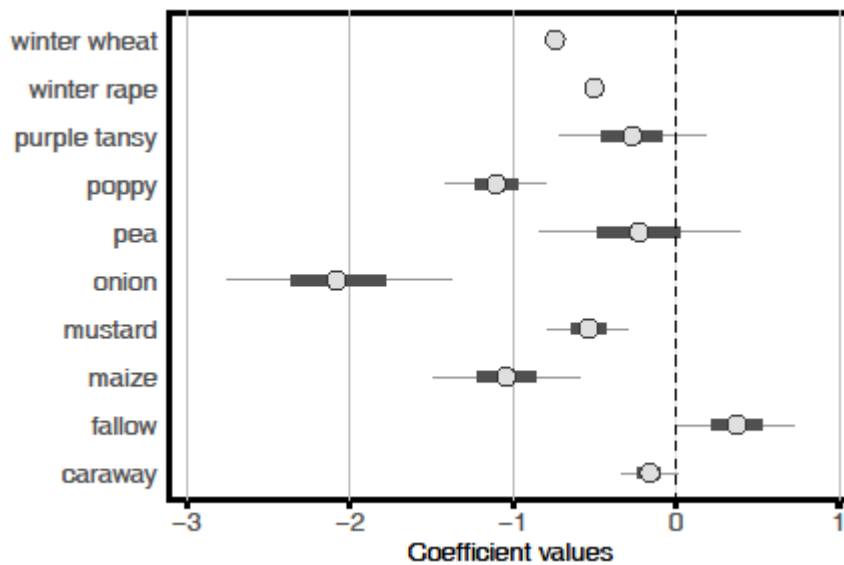
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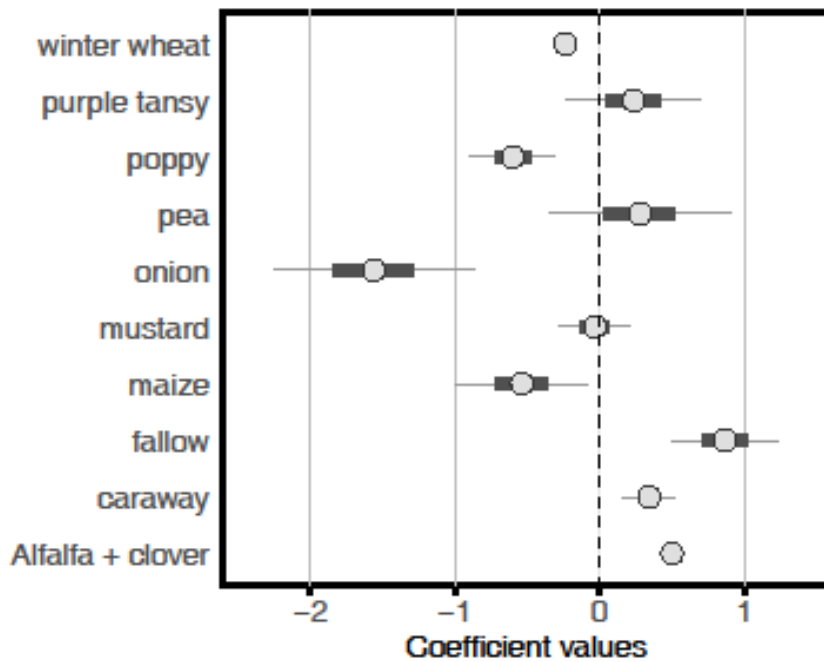
470 Fig. 1. The average number of active burrows (BI) in stands of the tested crops. The error lines
 471 show the 95% confidence intervals and the black squares indicate the arithmetical means. The
 472 horizontal dashed line represents the mean BI for all studied crops.



473

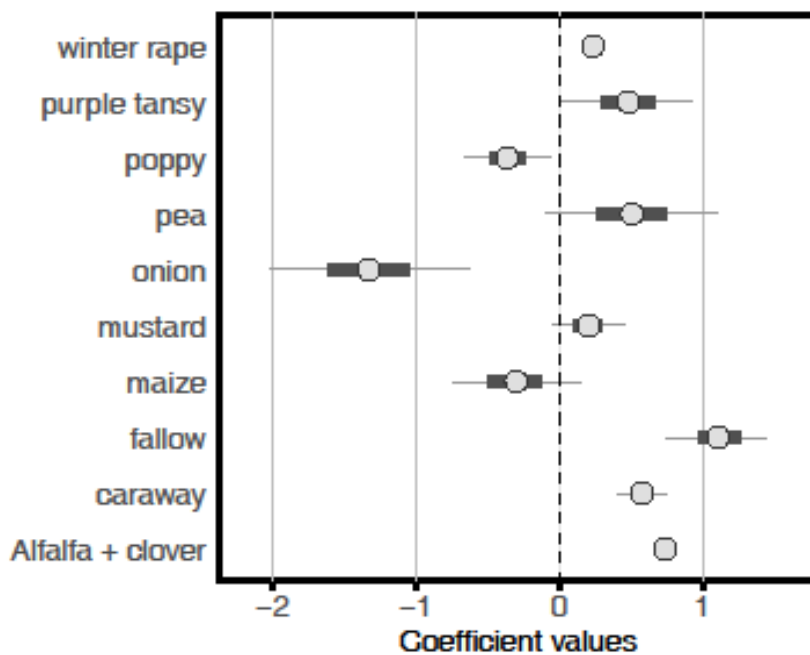
474 Fig. 2. The interval plot of the coefficients' posterior distribution shows the effect size of
 475 different crops relative to the reference crop, Alfalfa + Clover, on the number of active vole
 476 burrows (BI) based on MCMC draws. The figure depicts the median estimates of the posterior
 477 distribution of coefficients (circle), Bayesian highest density credible intervals (thick gray line),
 478 and Bayesian 95% prediction intervals (thin gray line).

479



480

481 Fig. 3. The interval plot of the coefficients' posterior distribution shows the effect size of
 482 different crops relative to the reference crop, winter rape, on the number of active vole burrows
 483 (BI) based on MCMC draws. The figure depicts the median estimates of the posterior
 484 distribution of coefficients (circle), Bayesian highest density credible intervals (thick gray line),
 485 and Bayesian 95% prediction intervals (thin gray line).



486

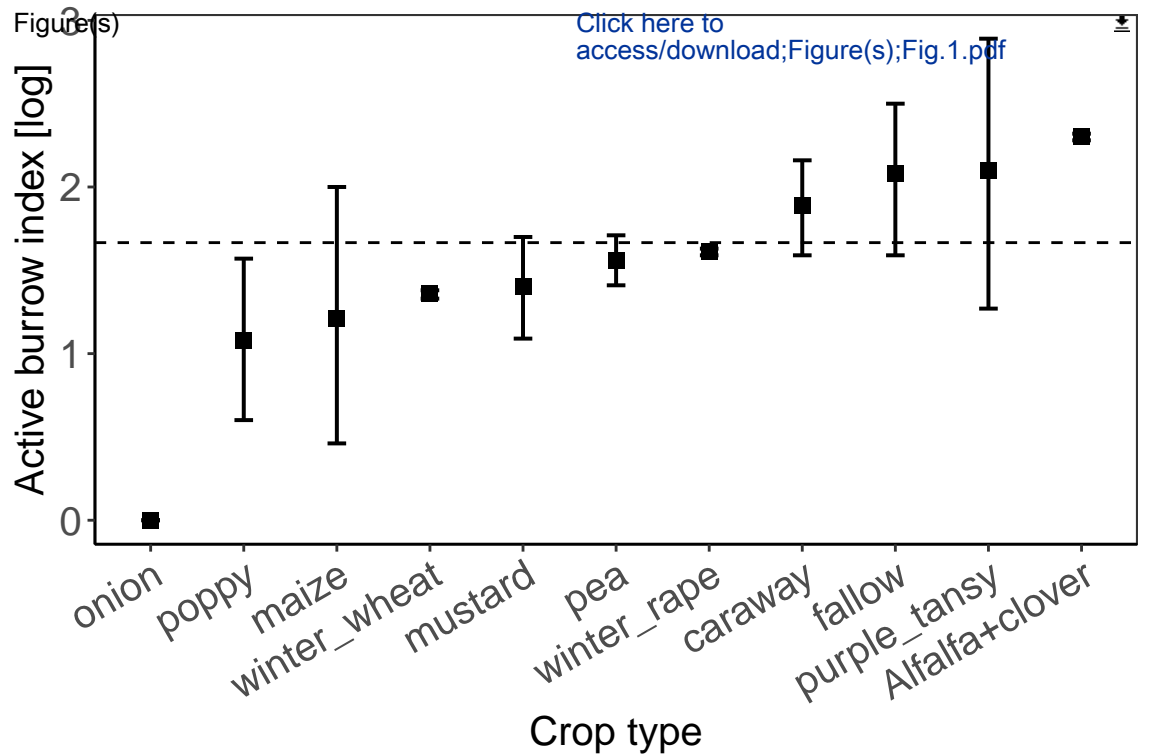
487 Fig. 4. The interval plot of the coefficients' posterior distribution shows the effect size of
488 different crops relative to the reference crop, winter wheat, on the number of active vole
489 burrows (BI) based on MCMC draws. The figure depicts the median estimates of the posterior
490 distribution of coefficients (circle), Bayesian highest density credible intervals (thick gray line),
491 and Bayesian 95% prediction intervals (thin gray line).
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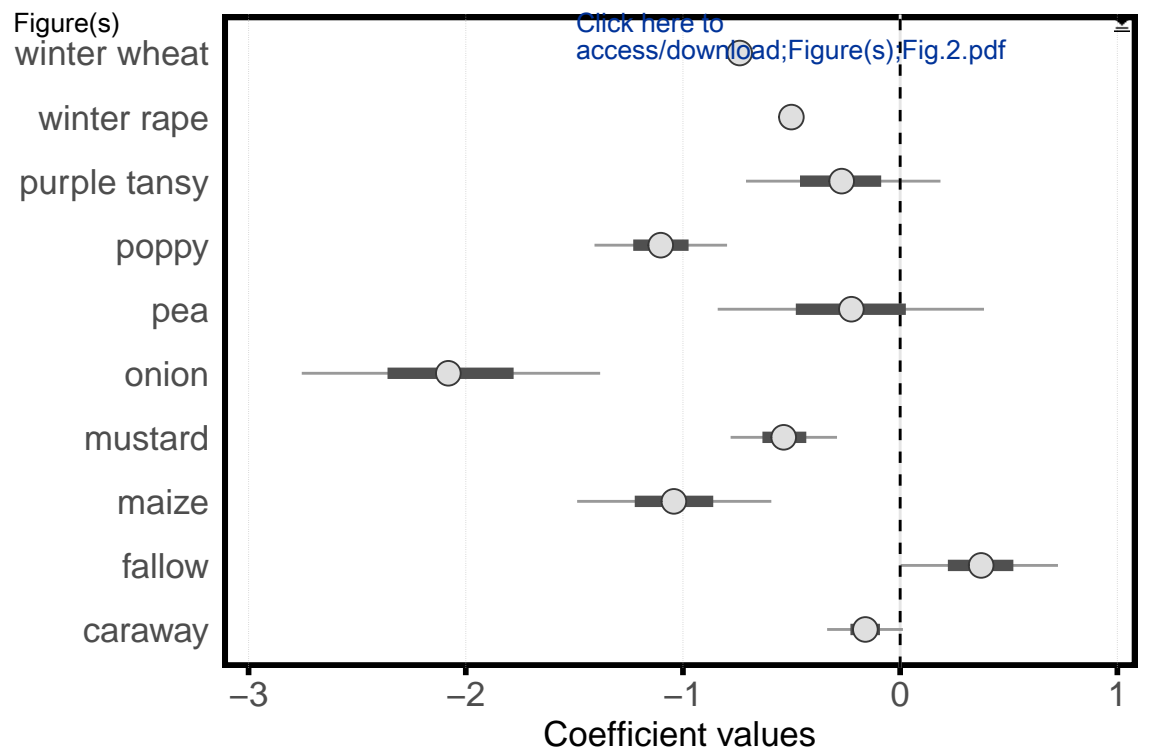
Table 1

The list of tested crops along with the data collection details and burrow index (BI) values.

Crops	Sampling years	Average BI	Minimum BI	Maximum BI	Sampled fields (N)	Plant life cycle
poppy	2000 - 2002, 2004, 2006, 2007, 2009	127	0	1400	15	annual
maize	2000,2001,2003,2005,2007,2008	111	0	460	7	annual
pea	2000, 2002, 2006, 2012, 2016	38	20	50	9	annual
mustard	2001, 2003, 2004, 2005, 2007	64	0	230	22	annual
purple tansy	2004, 2005, 2007, 2008	981	0	5610	7	annual
onion	2000, 2006, 2007, 2008	0	0	0	7	annual (biennial-perennial)
winter rape*	2000 - 2018	176	0	12400	2704	biennial
winter wheat*	2000 - 2018	119	0	18400	2874	biennial
caraway	2000 - 2006, 2008	485	0	7200	31	biennial-perennial
alfalfa+clover*	2000 - 2018	645	0	28000	1549	perennial
fallow	2000, 2004, 2006 - 2009	292	0	890	8	perennial

* reference crop

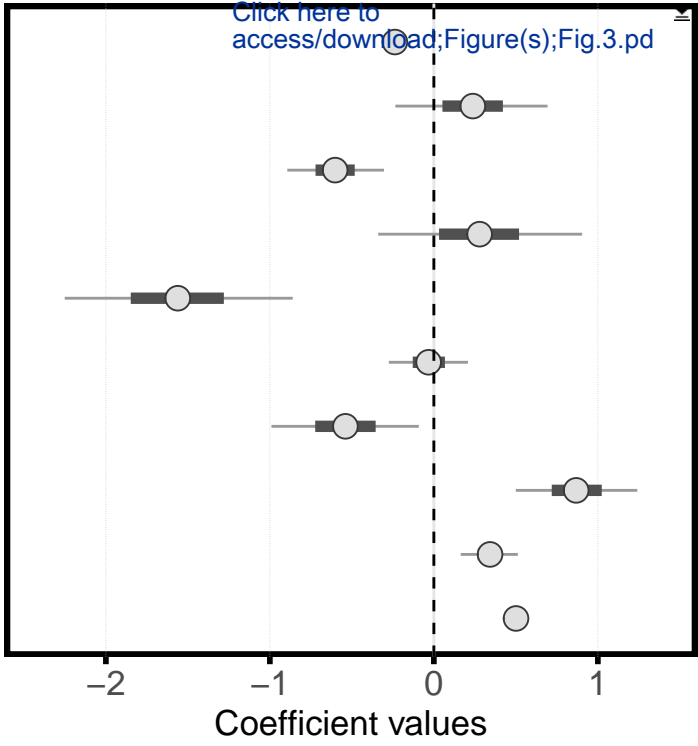




Figure(s)

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- winter wheat
- purple tansy
- poppy
- pea
- onion
- mustard
- maize
- fallow
- caraway
- Alfalfa + clover



Coefficient values

Figure(s)

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winter rape

purple tansy

poppy

pea

onion

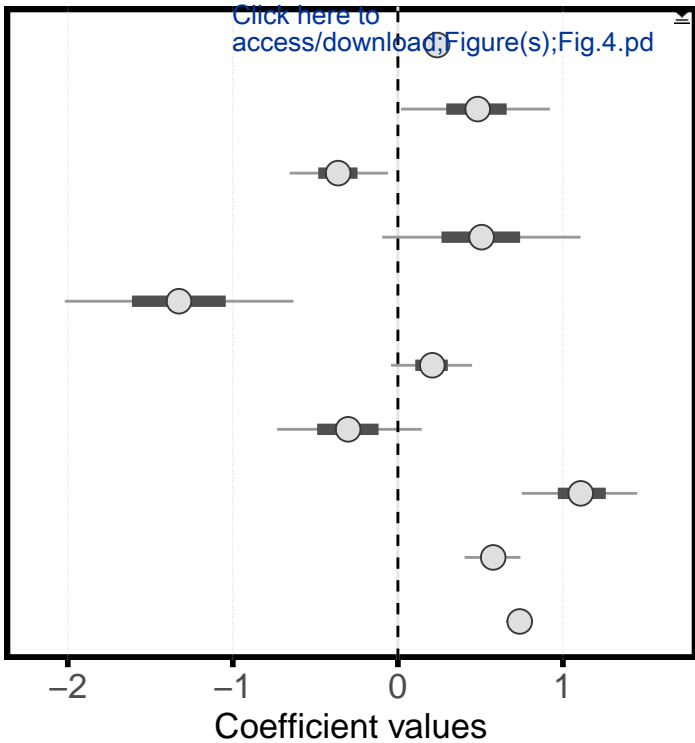
mustard

maize

fallow

caraway

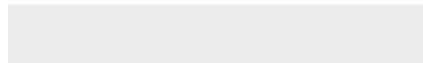
Alfalfa + clover





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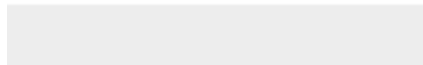
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