2019 Field Day

Central Great Plains Research Station 112th Annual Field Day

United States Department of Agriculture

Agricultural Research Service

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2019 Field Day Agenda June 19, 2019 **USDA-ARS Central Great Plains Research Station** Highway 34, Four Miles East of Akron, CO Registration begins at 8:30 am with Coffee and Donuts

- $8:55$ AM Dr. Merle Vigil, ARS Welcome to the Central Great Plains Research Station's 2019 Field Day $9:00 AM$ Dr. R. Wayne Shawcroft
	- Wheat Year Precipitation/Temperature Analysis 2019 Crops
- $9:15 \text{ AM}$ Dr. Dannele Peck, ARS Weather & Climate Resources for Dryland Farming
- Dr. Merle Vigil, ARS $9:30$ AM **Precision Farming Project Update**
- 9:45 AM Dr. Francisco Calderon, ARS Field variability in soil properties according to altitude at the Akron field station

10:00 Break

Dr. Scott Haley Sally Jones-Diamond, Rick Novak, CSU & Brad Erker of Colorado Wheat Walk-through of Wheat Variety Trial

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12:45 Lunch in Bldg. 18

Our Staff

Scientists

Merle Vigil Research Leader (acting) Francisco Calderon Maysoon Mikha David Poss

Admin

Sarah Bernhardt Carolyn Brandon Joy Quick

Seasonal Leanna Clarkson Kelsey Guy Cameron Lyon Alexys McGuire Orian Wagers Ty Lucero Levi Kipp Anthony Dreher Mallory Thompson Technicians

Paul Campbell Cody Hardy Delbert Koch Brandon Peterson Stacey Poland

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WHEAT YEAR PRECIPITATION / TEMPERATURE ANALYSIS

2019 CROP

Dr. R.Wayne Shawcroft **Extension-Irrigation Agronomist** (Retired)

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Central Great Plains Research Station

WINTER WHEAT--CROP MOISTURE YEAR

In the conventional Wheat-Fallow system, the moisture year for the wheat crop can be divided into two periods:

14-month Fallow Period and a 10-month Growing Period.

The TOTAL WATER AVAILABLE for the wheat crop depends on how much of the precipitation is stored in the soil

during the fallow period or the 1% STORAGE EFFICIENCY) and the GROWING SEASON PRECIPITATION.

The following tables compare the FALLOW PERIOD and the GROWING PERIOD conditions for the current wheat crop...to be harvested in 2019.

FALLOW PERIOD SUMMARY:

The July '17 - Aug. '18 fallow period precipitation was 21.74 inches, which ranks as the 49th wettest fallow period in the 110-year record for the 1908-09 through 2017-18 records. This is 0.46 inches above the average of 21.28 inches. The fallow period began with moderate rainfall in the Jul-Oct period. The fall period was dry. The spring period had good rains through April. May through July rain was substantial, but Aug turned very dry. Seeding moisture for the fall crop was marginal.

GROWING SEASON SUMMARY Sep '18-Jun '19:

The GROWING SEASON precipitation for the 2019 crop (through May 29, 2019) has been 8.10 in. which is 3.60 inches BELOW the average of 11.70 inches. The GROWING SEASON precipitation for the current crop ranks only as the 96th wettest on record or the 15th driest. This does not include the remaining days in MAY and JUNE, which could increase this amount. Sept. was very dry, but October was wet. Winter precipitation was low in Nov-Dec, Jan and Feb were about average in precipitation, but March was above average. April was dry, but May has been well above average. Moisture prospects look good through the end of May. The summer pattern seems to be showing frequent rains with cooler temperatures, and should be beneficial for the wheat crop of 2019. SNOWFALL - WINTER 2018-19

Fall snowfall was 7.0 inches with 10 days of snow cover and only 0.61 inches of precipitation. The Jan.1 to May 22 period had 27.3 inches of snow with 33 days of snow cover and 3.83 inches of precipitation. Winter snowfall was sporadic, and somewhat less than average for the winter months. Late spring snows added substantial rainfall for the crop. The big snow/blizzard of March 14-15 provided a big boost to the overall moisture conditions for the crop. The total snowfall has been near 43 inches, but the rapid melting has provided only 33 days of snow cover. The mid-May snow brought a heavy rain-snow mix, but also some freezing temperatures. Late May rainfall has been substantial. TEMPERATURES Sep.18-Jun19: The month of Sept. was very warm, but cooler than average temperatures followed in Oct. and Nov. Dec. and Jan. quite warm. Feb and March were cooler than average, followed by a warm and dry April. May is turning out to be exceptionally cool with several new "cold" records set. Freeze of May 22nd will likely be significant. May, so far, is ranking as 5th coldest May on record. New record low maximum temperatures were recorded on May 21 and 22, and a new record low minimum of 29 occurred on the 22nd. The Sep-May average temperature overall ranks in the coldest 40% of the 108-year record. The 41.16 average mean temperature ranks as only the 70th warmest of the 108-year record.

AVAILABLE WATER SUPPLY:

At a fallow storage efficiency of 25%, the available water supply for the 2019-crop, so far, would be 13.54 inches, which is BELOW the average of 17.02 inches. At a fallow storage efficiency of 45%, the available water supply would be 17.88 inches, which is again, BELOW the average of 21.28 inches, not including the remainder of May and June. The current wheat crop condition reflects a moderate fallow period precipitation, as well as the somewhat up and down spring precipitation. At 25% storage efficiency the seasonal available water would be 59.8% from growing season precipitation, and at 45% storage efficiency growing season precipitation would be at 45.3% of total available. At the 25% storage efficiency, the 2019-crop may be marginal, unless early June precipitation is substantial. At the 45% storage efficiency, the 17.88 inches of water available might be in the "border-line" range for good yields, and likely will need additional and substantial rainfall in June for good yields.

Fallow storage efficiency is usually a key to the success of the crop. With a good fallow period and the late spring precipitation, the prospects for 2019 look relatively good. The range of 13.54 inches at 25% efficiency to 17.88 inches at 45% efficiency would appear to be "marginal" for good yields. Late May rainfall likely needs to continue into early June for good yields.

WHEAT: GROWING PERIOD (SEP-JUN) PRECIP USDA-ARS RESEARCH STATION AKRON, COLO.

saved as: tab "GraphYears" in file "GROWRNK1" printed: 5/29/2019

SEPT-MAY AVE. MEAN TEMP. USDA-ARS RES. STATION, AKRON, COLORADO

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Field Elevation as a Proxy for Field Productivity: Precision farming Study

Vigil M.F., Francisco Calderon, D. J. Poss, Paul Campbell, and Cody Hardy

PROBLEM: The topographical elevation in a field greatly influence winter wheat and dryland corn grain yields and therefore the economic optimum N rate (EONR) will be different for different locations in a field. The change in yield with topographical elevation in a field is linked to changes in soil type and soil productivity, as one moves from the high points in a field to the lower elevations in a field. The change in yield may also be the result of both run-off and run-on of rainfall water from high points in the field to lower elevations in the field.

APPROACH: Wheat and corn grain yield maps are measured for several fields at the research station (Fig 1). The corresponding elevations in each field are then matched to grain yields at each location (Table 1). We are in effect dividing up fields into 3-6 separate management zones by yield and elevation. We know from previous research that to achieve 12% grain protein we need grain N to be at 2.105%; which translates to 1.263 lbs of N per bushel of grain. The total N needed is more than that because fertilizer recovery is only about 50%. If we assume N recovery is 50% the actual N required per bushel yield is about 2.53 lbs to achieve a grain N concentration of 12% $(2.53=1.263/0.50)$.

Before we calculate the N rate to apply for each location in this field, we need to consider residual inorganic N already present in the soil (nitrate-N plus NH4-N). We also need to consider the amount of N that will be made available during the season from organic matter (OM) decomposition (OM comes from crop residues, and resident soil organic matter, manure etc). CSU has used the relationship of 30 lbs of N/acre will be released from organic matter decomposition for every 1% OM in the soil in the top 6 inches of soil. I checked that rule of thumb and found the relationship is between 20 and 50 depending on the moisture and temperature conditions during the decomposition period. The rule is not too far off so we will use it in our calculations. The fertilizer requirement equation then becomes:

Fert required = (Expected yield x (N needed for 12% protein/efficiency factor) –(N from OM) -(residual N in the top 2 feet of soil profile x efficiency factor for residual N).

Where:

60 lbs for 2 % OM. Residual N $=$ Nitrate N plus NH₄-N found in the top 2 feet of soil profile, where we assume the same efficiency factor as fertilizer of 50%.

For a 42.4 bushel expected yield, with 0.8 % organic matter and 40 lbs of residual N in the top 2 feet of the profile the equations becomes.

Fert N required = $(42.4 \times 2.53) - (0.8 \times 30) - 40 \times 0.5$ Fert N required $= (107.1) -24 -20$ Fert N required $= 63.05$ lbs of N to apply per acre.

If we use the above relationship for N required per bushel of grain yield expected on average measured at various locations in the field, in combination with the soil OM and residual N found at that location, we can estimate potential N fertilizer to apply to achieve that yield for any region in the field (see last column in Table 1).

Fig 1 Winter wheat grain yield map of field SB-4 (1.12 Mg/ha is approximately 16.7 bushels per acre). The high yields are associated with low points in the field and the low yields are associated with high points in the same field. The elevation difference was about 4.7 feet between the high points and the low points.

Management Zone			N required			
Elevation		Management	to meet		Nitrate	
	above	Zone	yield goal		plus	N
above	lowest	Grain	and 12%		NH_4-N	Fertilizer
sea level	point	yield	protein	OM	$top 2$ ft	to apply
$-Ft-$	$-Ft-$	bu/acre	lbs/acre	$\frac{0}{0}$	lbs/acre	lbs/acre
4530.6	4.7	16.7	21.0	0.6	30	9.1
4529.4	3.5	42.5	53.5	0.8	40	63.1
4528.8	2.9	55.9	70.6		40	91.2
4528.3	2.4	64.7	81.5	1.1	55	102.9
4526.7	0.9	90.0	113.6	1.2	60	163.8
4525.9	0.0	104.7	132.2	1.5	70	184.4

Table 1. Wheat grain yields, N required and N fertilizer to apply as related to field elevation in field SB-4 using measured yields and a protein goal of 12%.

The N rate values calculated in the last column of the table were calculated using the 12% protein as the protein goal for the yield measured in that portion of the field. We assumed 50% recovery efficiency for the applied fertilizer N, and we subtracted off the N expected from OM and the residual N already in the soil. In this calculation we have measured yield and elevation and we are estimating the OM levels based on visual soil color and previous analysis of the soils in these fields. The residual N values are based on soil analysis of similar soils on the farm. These data of OM and residual inorganic N (nitrate plus NH4-N) we are measuring on a 30 by 30 m grid for each field in the study. That analysis has not been completed as of this write-up. Therefore, the final calculations may change a little (but probably not substantially) from what is reported here. In any case, these are the data needed to make an educated guess at N fertilizer required for each region or management zone in the field.

An analysis of the data in Table one, suggests the poorer production, in the areas of the field at higher elevations, will require less fertilizer N than in the low lying areas of the same field. In those elevated areas, we have measured lower yields. A walk and visual inspection of the high points in this field showed less stubble, and a lighter colored soil and texture suggesting lower OM. A walk to the lower elevations in the same field revealed better stubble and a darker soil suggesting higher soil OM. We suspect a shallower soil with lower organic matter and less water holding capacity on the high points and a better soil quality at the lower elevations. Those assumptions have yet to be proved through grid sampling of this field and intensive laboratory analysis of those soil samples.

An analysis of the data in Table one, also suggest that N required to achieve grain with adequate protein and yield in the good parts of this field will be 100 to 184 lbs of N. Whereas, the low yielding portions in this field little N is required to achieve 12 % protein. We have not completely done the soil analysis and so some of the numbers might change after that analysis is complete. Also there is the idea of blending high proteins from one part of the field with lower proteins on another part of the field to achieve the best income for the farmer. For example, perhaps 11.5% protein should be the goal for the high yielding portions of the field and 13 or 14% protein should be the goal for the low yielding regions of the field. If we use those protein goals, we calculate different N rates for each management zone (Table 2). In Table 2, we

recommend slightly more N for the poorer yielding soils to achieve 14% and 13% protein than in Table 1. Also, for a lower protein goal of 11.5%, for the high yielding portions of the field, N rates decrease slightly (compare Table 1 and Table 2). All of these ideas need to be tested. Final N recommendations are pending further soil and field analysis of each region in the field. However, the data does suggest a large difference in N requirement that should be taken into account to precision manage this wheat field for crop quality and net returns to land labor and capital investment.

Management Zone				N required			
Elevation		Management		to meet			
	above	Zone		protein		plus	N
above	lowest	Grain	protein	and yield		NH_4-N	Fertilizer
sea level	point	yield	goal	goal	OM	$top 2$ ft	to apply
$-Ft-$	$-Ft-$	bu/acre	$\frac{0}{0}$	lbs/acre	$\frac{0}{0}$	lbs/acre	lbs/acre
4530.6	4.7	16.7		24.5	0.6	30	16.1
4529.4	3.5	42.5	13	58.0	0.8	40	72.0
4528.8	2.9	55.9	12	70.6		40	91.2
4528.3	2.4	64.7	12	81.7	1.1	55	102.9
4526.7	0.9	90.0	11.5	108.9	1.2	60	154.3
4525.9	0.0	104.7	11.5	126.7	1.5	70	173.4

Table 2. Wheat grain yields, N required and N fertilizer to apply as related to field elevation in field SB-4 adjusted for different protein goals from 11.5 to 14.

We did a simple linear regression between elevation in field SB-4 and yield and found that for every meter (3.28 feet) we go up in elevation that were losing about half of the yield potential found in the lowest portions in the field (fig 2.)

Finally in the next write up we have included some of our actual N rate response data for both a good soil and a poor soil. (see following writeup on variable N rates). That small data set confirms our ideas that management zones may have real value in adjusting N rates for poor soils differently than for high yield soils.

FUTURE PLANS: We are grid sampling all of the fields in this experiment on a 30 m (98.4 feet) by 30 m grid. The experiment takes up about 140 acres and so the number of samples is extensive. At each gird point we will measure total N and C, inorganic N, available P, pH, EC, texture, Soil organic matter (SOM), avail Zn, Fe and Cu. The sampling and analysis will be done incrementally down to a depth of 4 feet (120 cm) starting at the 0-6 inch depth, 6-12 inch depth and then at 1 foot increments thereafter. Yield maps, elevation maps, and soil depth maps will be collected for each field and the grid data will be matched to try to best manage field areas in each field for optimal N management. This will require the establishment of variable N rates across soil types to obtain N response relationships with soil location.

Fig 2. Wheat and corn relative yields versus elevation in 4 fields. Actual yields ranged from 10 to 130 bushels depending on the crop. The data in the graph is normalized to 100%. The relationship indicates that 35% of the expected yield is lost for every m increase in elevation from the lowest point in the field to the highest point for the four fields from which the data was collected. We suspect both run-off and run-on of rainfall and inherent soil depth and natural fertility is causing the yield differences with elevation.

Variable N Application by Soil Type.

Vigil M.F., D. J. Poss, and Franciso Calderon

PROBLEM: Economic optimum nitrogen (N) rates (EONR) are highly dependent on weather, soil nitrate, soil organic matter, management, soil type and production potential of that soil type. In this study, we evaluated 12 years of a 20 year study of winter wheat yield response to N applied and residual inorganic soil N (nitrate-N and ammonium-N) ($NO₃-N$ and $NH₄-N$), by soil type.

APPROACH: Winter wheat N response was measured in a wheat-corn-millet fallow rotation over a four year period. The four year rotation was established on a low productivity shallow soil (Norka-Colby complex) in one replication, a good soil (Rago silt loam) and two replications on a Platner silt loam which is intermediate in soil quality and in production potential. To determine total N requirement we collected biomass yields and biomass N at anthesis each year and compared the total N uptake at anthesis with total N in the grain.

The soil at each of the 12 site-years was sampled to 4 feet for pre-plant inorganic N (nitrate-N and ammonium-N). Fertilizer N was top-dressed in broadcast applications at incremental N rates of 0, 30, 60, and 90 lbs of N/acre as dry urea (46-0-0); or as ammonium nitrate, (34-0-0). All experiments were replicated 4 times. We fertilized the wheat with a phosphorous (P) rate of 15-20 lbs of P as P_2O_5 placed with the seed. Most years we used di-ammonium phosphate DAP (11-52-0) or ammonium polyphosphate (10-34-0). Grain yields were collected and quadratic N response equations were fit to the yield data as a function of N rate and pre-plant available $NO₃-N$ from the top 2 feet of the soil profile.

RESULTS: The grain yield N response on the poor soil is flat (Table 1) for the 12 years used in the analysis. The 12 years used in this analysis all had average yields greater than 23 bushels per acre. This soil never showed a positive measurable grain yield response to applied N. The yields with no N applied, were essentially the same as in those plots that received N rates of 30, 60 and 90 lbs of N per acre. Biomass yield and grain proteins did significantly increase on this soil with applied N. We were surprised that total N uptake at anthesis was about the same on average as the amount found in the grain at harvest. This suggest that translocation of N to the grain is very efficient and that anthesis N is a good proxy for the total that will be recovered in the grain at harvest.

For this poor yielding soil it probably still pays to apply about 30 lbs of N to keep proteins above 11.5%. Flour needs to be greater than 11.5% protein to make a loaf rise adequately. Even though yields were the same with no N applied, the proteins drop to an unacceptable level of 10.4% with 0 N application (Table 1).

 Grain yield response to applied N on the good soil for the same years showed a significant increase in grain yield, biomass yield and protein (Table 2).

			anthesis	grain	
N rate	grain yield	biomass Yield	N-uptake	N-Uptake	Protein
lbs/acre	bushels/acre		$\%$		
	48	4390	39	50	9.9
30	57	5910	60	61	10.2
60	60	6480	69	71	11.4
90	59	6170	70	69	11.7
average	56	5740	60	63	11
P > F	0.0259	0.0021	0.0005	0.0001	.0019

Table 2. Grain yield, biomass yield, N uptake at anthesis, N uptake in the grain at harvest and grain protein from 12 years of an N response study established on a Rago silt loam. Drought years with less than 23 bushel/acres were not included in the analysis.

For the Rago soil, the average yields during the same years were about 16 bushels better than with the poor soil (compare grain yields in Table 1 with those in Table 2). With the Rago soil we measured a classic grain yield and biomass yield response to applied N that increased with each increase in N rate up to 60 lbs of applied N per acre. The 90 lb N rate on average was required to keep proteins above the 11.5% level even though yields did not increase from the 60 lb N rate to the 90 lb N rate. Overall this soil produced average protein levels that were less than those of the poor soil but made up for it with greater yield. The highest biomass yield coincided with the highest grain yield at the 60 lb N rate. For this Rago soil 60 lbs of N was not enough to maintain adequate protein levels. On the other hand the 60 lbs of N was enough to maximize wheat grain yields and was slightly more than the calculated economic optimum N rate (EONR) for \$3.30 wheat and \$0.60 N of 56 lbs of N per acre.

FUTURE PLANS: The effort is ongoing to sort out the predictive relationships between EONR soil type, available water at planting time, growing season precipitation, and residual inorganic nitrates. We are using this data set as a beginning place for developing N rates on the precision farming project.

Figure 1. Economic optimum N rates for 30 different N rate studies with winter wheat. The EONR values are plotted on the vertical axis (Y axis) and the delta yields are plotted on the horizontal or x axis. Delta yield is the difference in yield from the zero N rate and the economic optimum N rate. The values in red are the probabilities of receiving a given amount of growing season moisture plus pre-plant available water stored from the previous year's fallow season moisture plus pre-plant available water stored from the previous year's fallow season.

FIELD VARIABILITY IN SOIL PROPERTIES ACCORDING TO ALTITUDE AT THE AKRON FIELD STATION.

Francisco Calderón, Merle F. Vigil, and Dave Poss

PROBLEM: Many farmers in the high plains have the capacity to obtain a wealth of tractor-based yield data and topographic information. In addition, technologies such as Veris-EC allow for the rapid acquisition of large amounts of soil data across fields. However, there are currently no clear guidelines about how to use this data to inform field management decisions. This is because of the lack of a factbased consensus about the development of specific recommendations based on the different field data layers. In this project, we are studying a replicated set of field-sized experimental plots that each have considerable unevenness in grain yield. We aim to explore and document the relationship between crop productivity and soil variability under natural climate fluctuations at our research station. Ultimately, we will develop an understanding of how adjusting N fertilizer rates across management zones the field can be used to improve farm gate income. We hypothesize that elevation gradients within each field in part account for differences in soil quality, profile water storage, and water movement, all of which determine grain yield variations across the field. A necessary first step in this effort is to is to document geospatial variability in grain yields and soil parameters and identify soil characteristics that are associated with low and high productivity areas within a field. Once those associations are recognized and measured, then we will be able to modify management practices to exploit some of those differences.

APPROACH: We have divided our fields into two main treatments: aspirational, and business as usual. The aspirational four-year rotation consists of winter wheat-corn-millet-fallow, which will be managed using a precision farming approach with variable N fertilizer rates. The business as usual rotation will be a reduced-till wheat-fallow managed uniformly across each field. All phases of each rotation appear each year to avoid confounding with year-to-year climate variability. In order to characterize the spatial variation in soil quality across the fields we sampled the soils using a grid pattern in each field with 30 m by 30 m equidistant spacing. Soil samples were obtained at 0-15 and 15-30 cm depths. This sampling is currently also being used to provide data for constructing management zone boundaries that will help decide future sampling locations and management decisions. Soil data includes percent clay, percent sand, nitrate, total N, total C, plant available Olsen P, K, S, Zn, Fe, Cu and Mn. Veris-EC data was obtained separately with a tractor mounted sensor which ran transects across each field. Yield was obtained at harvest time and elevation maps were obtained at planting using Ag-Leader and Trimble software fully integrated on our combine harvesters and planters. Each soil sample, Veris, elevation and grain yield data layer were interpolated with GIS software, which allowed for the comparison of the soil and yield data layers.

RESULTS: The kriging of the different data sources permitted us to carry out a redundancy analysis between the different soil properties across the 12 different aspirational fields, which are divided into three different areas within the research station, namely S, SCD, and SB (Figure 1; Table 1). The redundancy analysis in figure 1 shows arrows for the different soil properties, and when these arrows point in the same direction, it indicates a positive correlation between the soil attributes. Conversely, soil variables with arrows pointing in opposite directions are anticorrelated, and the length of the arrows indicates the strength of the relationship. The analysis shows that

Olsen P, which measures plant available P, is higher in the 0-15 cm soil depth than the deeper depth, and that Olsen P is positively related to Fe, Mn, and Cu content, but anticorrelated with pH. The CEC is a common a measure of soil fertility which indicates the capacity of the soil to hold several nutrients like K, NH4, and Ca in a form available to plants. Figure 1 shows that CEC

Figure 1. Discriminant analysis biplot of the soil data from the 0-15.2 cm depth.

increases with pH, salts, and Ca, clay and Mg. Soil organic matter (OM_LOI) is correlated to K, and anticorrelated to sand. The figure also shows that pH increases with soil depth. In terms of the fields, The S fields, which are all clustered at the south of the research station, tend to have low sand content, and high soil organic matter. The SB fields, at the northeast end of the station, tend to contain high sand content and low organic matter.

Up to two years of crop yield data was available from each field, from 2017 to 2018. A few fields only had one crop year because one of the years coincided with a fallow period. Here there were high variability between fields, and crop species, overall 2018 tended to have slightly higher grain yields than 2017 (Table 1). 2017 had a cumulative precipitation of 416.6 mm for the year, which is slightly below the long-term average, while 2018 reached 454.7 mm.

The average grain yields from the kriged data shows that fields in the SB section of the station had the highest wheat yields,

whereas fields in the SCD section of the field had the highest millet and corn yields (Table 1). This is surprising, given that the S fields had higher soil organic matter and least sand of all fields. Within each field, the more marked the elevation difference between high and low point, the more likely topography was to affect crop yields. This pattern was evident only on the S and SCD fields, not on the SB fields (which also were the sandiest).

	Elev. diff.,	μ produced by Krightg interpotation from the grid sampling.	% Soil $C, 0-$	% Soil $C, 15.2-$	Clay $%$ $0 - 15.2$	Sand % 0 -	Olsen P $0 - 15.2$	Soil pH $1:1,0-$	Veris Ec shallow
Field	meters	Yield kg ha ⁻¹	15.2 cm	30.4 cm ----mean (std)-----	cm	15.2 cm	cm	15.2 cm	
S ₂	1.2	Wheat (2018): 5157.4 (423.0)	1.23 (0.10)	1.08 (0.34)	27.9 (0.7)	32.8(2.7)	20.3 (4.7)	6.66 (0.24)	32.0(3.5)
S4	2.1	Corn (2017) : 3306.8 (853.7) Millet (2018): 2862.4 (1052.8)	1.05 (0.10)	0.93 (0.27)	28.1 (1.2)	37.9(1.4)	25.5 (9.0)	6.62 (0.59)	27.9(3.3)
S ₅	2.4	Wheat (2017): 1710.8 (956.3) Corn (2018) : 4367.9 (1424.9)	0.86 (0.06)	0.73 (0.05)	25.4 (1.0)	42.0(2.9)	25.4 (3.5)	6.11 (0.16)	25.5(2.5)
S6	2.3	Millet (2017): 2342.6 (1851.6)	0.95 (0.12)	0.71 (0.09)	28.1 (1.1)	37.2(2.0)	33.7 (2.7)	5.87 (0.19)	23.3(4.1)
$SB-1$	2.7	Corn (2017) : 3599.9 (682.3) Corn (2018): 3354.4 (780.2)	0.91 (0.03)	0.79 (0.15)	24.8 (0.9)	42.6(1.1)	27.6 (2.0)	6.18 (0.29)	20.4(5.4)
$SB-4$	1.5	Wheat (2017): 5170.1 (1251.5) Millet (2018): 2957.3 (1645.3)	0.96 (0.12)	0.76 (0.12)	23.9 (1.7)	46.2(3.3)	32.2 (3.3)	6.10 (0.11)	19.0(4.8)
$SB-5$	3.6	Wheat (2018): 3979.7 (712.2)	0.57 (0.04)	0.52 (0.04)	19.8 (1.1)	63.7(1.9)	10.1 (1.7)	6.46 (0.23)	29.0(5.5)
$SB-7$	3.5	Millet (2017): 2083.7 (1296.1)	0.66 (0.09)	0.55 (0.06)	21.1 (0.8)	57.6(1.8)	14.4 (1.1)	6.29 (0.37)	18.6(2.4)
$SCD-2$	2.1	Corn (2017) : 3383.3 (797.2) Millet (2018): 2585.7 (1111.0)	0.91 (0.07)	0.75 (0.08)	22.7 (0.7)	45.5(2.7)	39.9 (4.7)	5.63 (0.14)	25.1(5.6)
$SCD-3$	2.3	Wheat (2018): 4390.8 (628.6)	0.87 (0.15)	0.87 (0.38)	25.5 (0.8)	41.3(3.5)	31.7 (6.2)	6.43 (0.68)	32.5(6.2)
$SCD-5$	1.9	Millet (2017): 5552.9 (3635.8)	0.86 (0.04)	0.64 (0.02)	23.5 (1.5)	48.3(5.4)	26.0 (2.1)	6.38 (0.40)	19.0(2.7)
SCD-6	1.7	Wheat (2017): 2976.5 (595.3) Corn (2018): 4377.6 (575.6)	1.07 (0.07)	0.73 (0.04)	26.6 (0.6)	40.1(0.9)	31.6 (1.2)	6.20 (0.03)	27.5(3.6)

Table 1. Elevation difference between the high and low points in each field and mean and standard deviation of selected variables from the raster files produced by kriging interpolation from the grid sampling.

Table 2 shows the correlation between soil attributes and grain yields for the different fields and crop species. The table does show that generally our hypothesis that elevation is negatively correlated to crop yields is true for most fields, crop yields do increase in the low parts of each field. Although there is a high amount of variability, Table 2 also indicates that sections of the field with high Olsen P and low sand content also tend to give higher grain yields. Also, Veris Ec seemed to be a better indicator of grain yields in corn than in millet or wheat. Conversely, clay was sometimes positively correlated with grain yields, and this was more evident in some of the wheat fields. Clay ended to be highly correlated with yields only when elevation was negatively correlated with yields (Tables 1 and 2). Again, surprisingly soil C did not have a consistent geospatial relationship with yields.

Table 2. Correlations (R) between crop yields and selected variables from the raster files produced by interpolation, including elevation, yields, and soil pH and C data from the grid sampling.

				Soil C					
			Soil C 0-	15.2-30.4	$Clay 0-$	Sand 0-	Olsen P 0-	pH 0-15.2	Shallow
Field	Crop	Elev.	15.2 cm	cm	15.2 cm	15.2 cm	15.2 cm	cm	Veris Ec
S ₂	Wheat	0.05	-0.52	-0.01	-0.04	-0.26	-0.07	0.24	-0.16
S4	Corn	-0.60	-0.56	-0.39	-0.43	0.20	0.48	-0.14	-0.02
S4	Millet	-0.71	-0.68	-0.70	-0.31	0.33	0.57	-0.59	-0.11
S ₅	Wheat	-0.77	-0.22	0.43	0.47	-0.39	-0.21	0.43	0.03
S ₅	Corn	-0.61	-0.03	0.27	0.38	-0.53	-0.02	0.27	-0.11
S ₆	Millet	-0.45	-0.11	-0.29	-0.07	-0.44	0.04	-0.15	-0.29
$SB-1$	Corn	-0.52	0.44	0.20	0.31	-0.11	0.30	-0.13	-0.48
$SB-1$	Corn	-0.64	0.44	0.35	0.16	0.18	0.03	0.04	-0.61
$SB-4$	Millet	-0.19	0.40	0.47	0.42	-0.40	0.37	-0.03	-0.15
$SB-4$	Wheat	-0.56	0.57	0.27	0.57	-0.50	0.58	-0.44	-0.40
$SB-5$	Wheat	-0.38	0.14	-0.18	-0.17	0.00	0.30	-0.22	-0.10
$SB-7$	Millet	0.20	0.26	0.36	0.16	-0.28	0.04	-0.27	0.11
SCD-2	Corn	0.05	0.40	0.12	0.11	-0.55	0.63	-0.41	-0.45
SCD-2	Millet	-0.32	-0.04	0.031	0.13	-0.18	0.19	-0.31	-0.35
SCD-3	Wheat	-0.26	-0.27	-0.42	0.38	-0.34	0.37	-0.37	0.15
SCD-5	Millet	-0.04	0.03	-0.12	0.02	-0.13	0.04	0.02	0.00
SCD-6	Wheat	-0.03	-0.07	0.09	0.11	-0.03	0.00	0.00	0.05
SCD-6	Corn	0.22	0.26	-0.35	-0.38	-0.11	0.12	0.012	-0.03

Figure 2 shows the interpolations for field SB-1, which has a particularly strong relationship between corn yields, elevation, soil C, and Veris Ec. The graphics show that for this particular field, soil C has a positive relationship with yields, while Veris Ec and elevation have a clear negative relationship. Coming into the project, we hypothesized that patterns such as this would be more prevalent, but it turns out that field SB-1 is rather the exception.

Figure 2. Kriging interpolations of corn yields, elevation, Veris Ec, and soil C. Reds indicate high values, and blues indicate low values. Although the data ranges are not shown, the interpolations show the geospatial relationship between the different layers.

In conclusion, with the first two years of data, it is becoming evident that topography is more important than soil factors in determining the spatial variation in crop yields. We believe that these rather small variations in elevation are associated with hydrologic phenomena that are in the end the most directly pertinent to crop performance in our semiarid climate.

FUTURE PLANS: This effort will continue, and we expect to obtain more samples and more geospatial data in future years to develop an understanding of field variability in soil quality and the potential benefits of precision zone management in dryland systems

Winter Annual Forage Variety Trial D. J. Poss, M.F. Vigil

PROBLEM: While there is a vast amount of information available about varieties or hybrids of major field crops there is very limited information about winter annual forage varieties. From personal conversations with producers we have found that when a decision is made to plant triticale or other winter annual forages, most producers call a seed dealer and purchase the variety they carry. Also, most seed dealers carry only one variety and often that variety is 'VNS' (Variety Not Stated) seed. For the benefit of producers in the Great Plains area that grow triticale and other annual forages, an unbiased replicated study of available varieties is needed.

APPROACH: For the third consecutive year several varieties of winter annual forages were planted in a randomized complete block design. Starting in the 2016-17 crop-year, rye hybrids were included in the trial. We procured most of the triticale varieties from the University of Nebraska's breeding program. KWS seeds provided the hybrid rye varieties for the trial.

The plots were planted on 18 October 2017 at a seeding rate of 50 lbs/ac. We planted the plots using a cone drill with double disk openers spaced 7.5 inches apart. Urea fertilizer was broadcast applied prior to planting at 90 lbs N/ac. This rate was 18 lbs/acre higher than last year since nitrogen deficiency symptoms were apparent in the 2016-17 crop. Plots measured 30 feet long by 15 feet wide, replicated four times. Three passes were planted side by side to accommodate for two forage sampling dates and one grain sampling date.

We took forage samples on 24 May and 06 June 2018 using a Carter forage harvester with a flail head leaving approximately six inches of stubble. Five rows were harvested for a sampling width of 37.5 inches. We weighed the samples using a scale on the machine. A subsample was taken from which harvest moisture was calculated after drying the samples at 60 degrees C until no more moisture was being lost. The forage samples were mailed to Ward Labs in Kearny, NE for a forage analysis.

We collected grain samples on 19 July using a Wintersteiger plot combine with a header width of 60 inches. These samples were collected and returned to the lab where they were weighed, cleaned, and analyzed for moisture and test weight.

RESULTS: Precipitation prior to planting and during the growing season was slightly above average. Planting was delayed a few weeks due to rain. On 22 September, we received 0.89 inches of precipitation and the following two weeks it stayed cooler and more precipitation was received preventing us from planting until the middle of October. This later planting date did not appear to affect stand or yield. Precipitation during the critical months of April and May was 189% of average (Table 1). The precipitation received during these months resulted in exceptional yields.

The rye hybrids certainly had higher forage yields than the triticale varieties on the first sampling date of 24 May averaging 5,627 lbs/ac and 4,34 lbs/ac for the rye and top six triticale varieties, respectively (Table 2). However, thirteen days later when the second sample was taken, the top six triticale varieties nearly caught up with the rye varieties at 9,783 lbs/ac and 9,341 lb/ac.. This was due to the rye having an earlier maturity date so when the first sample was taken it was close to its peak growth curve compared to most of the triticale varieties, especially the higher yielding triticale varieties. Both triticale and the hybrid ryes have vigorous growth if weather conditions are favorable. This year demonstrated this well since biomass yield doubled in thirteen days between the two harvest dates. The mean yield on 24 May was 4,446 lbs/ac and on 06 June the mean yield was 9,091 lbs/ac.

As expected, protein levels decreased significantly during the period between the two harvest dates from 16.5% on 24 May to 10.4% on 06 June averaged across all varieties. The relative feed quality (RFQ) index also decreased during this period. So, while yields increased substantially between the two sampling dates, the quality of the forage decreased, as we would expect. When is the best time to harvest? This is a question that can be different for every producer depending on how it fits into a ration, method of harvest (hay or silage), concern about the presence of awns, plus other possible factors.

Grain yields were exceptional with rye hybrid yields ranging from 100.4 bu/ac to 111.8 bu/ac. Triticale yields were much lower, but still very good, with the highest yielding triticale variety being NT09404 which had a yield of 83.8 bu/ac. The thrashing of the rye with the combine was simple and the grain cleaned easily, similar to wheat, however the triticale varieties were difficult to thrash leaving more chafe and head pieces in the grain sample. This is likely one reason the test weight data for the triticale was lower than that of rye. The test weight for the seven rye hybrids averaged 55.7 lbs/bu compared to 54.1 lbs/bu for the seven heaviest triticale varieties.

In much of the Central Great Plains area rye has a very negative reputation. This reputation is warranted due to persistent volunteer rye, which originated from when it was planted decades ago. Other crops such as wheat and triticale have not had these persistent volunteer issues. The question is, will these hybrid rye varieties act more like the rye, which has been planted in the past, or more like other winter annual cereals with regard to the persistent volunteering? To answer this question we have to ask, why has the rye planted in the past behaved differently than other winter annual cereals in this regard? While we have ideas as to why this difference exists, further research is needed to answer this question.

Yields from the previous two years were good as well (Tables $3 \& 4$). Since initiating this study, we have had very favorable spring precipitation. The data from the 2015-16 and 2016-17 are included here for your convenience. It is best to make variety decision based on more than one year. The details from the previous years has been published in the Central Great Plains Research Station annual report for the respective year.

FUTURE PLANS: This trial will be planted again in fall 2019.

Table 2. Forage & Grain Yields from the Winter Annual Forage Variety Trial at Central Great Plains Research Station at Akron, CO in 2017-18 Crop Year.

MEAN 105 82.7 54.1 446 446 10.5 125 9,091 10.4 105 82.7 54.1 54.1 46.5 125 9,091 10.4 105 82.7 54.1 54.1 1
*Dry weight basis.
***RQ = Relative Feed Quality
***Means followed by the same letter within a column are not signi

*Dry weight basis.

RFQ = Relative Feed Quality *Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different at the 0.10 alpha level based on SNK mean separation test.

		June 10 Forage					June 16 Forage				
Variety	Species	Zadok's	Yield		Protein*	RFQ**	Zadok's	Yield		Protein*	RFQ**
			Ib/ac		$\%$			lb/ac		%	
NT11406	Triticale	61	9.094	$ab***$	13.4	133	69	11,730	a	11.8	132
NT11428	Triticale	61	8.879	ab	12.3	132					
NT05421	Triticale	61	8.706	ab	11.9	126					
NT01451	Triticale	61	8,698	ab	13.7	142					
Syngenta											
718	Triticale	61	8.405	abc	11.8	121	69	9,134	ab	10.0	113
NT07403	Triticale	61	8.208	abc	11.7	128					
NT094231	Triticale	61	8.075	abc	13.3	138					
NT06422	Triticale	61	8.071	abc	11.7	125					
NE422T	Triticale	55	7.408	bc	11.5	131	61	10.376	ab	11.2	112
Pika	Triticale	57	7.047	bc	12.5	134	61	10.337	ab	9.7	103
NE426GT	Triticale	61	6.993	bc	14.0	142					
NE441T	Triticale	59	6.587	bc	12.0	130	65	10.308	ab	9.6	108
Presto	Triticale	61	6.392	bc	13.2	139	69	7.904	abc	11.0	133
Willow											
Creek	Wheat	45	4,783 c		17.7	148	47	8.848	ab	14.5	137
MEAN			7,667					9,805			

Table 4. Forage Yields from the Winter Annual Forage Variety Trial at Central Great Plains Research Station at Akron, CO in 2015-16 Crop Year.

*Dry weight basis.

RFQ = Relative Feed Quality *Means followed by the same letter within a column are not significantly different at the 0.10 alpha level based on SNK mean separation test.

Microbial Community Structure Influenced by Residue Removal and Nitrogen Sources

Maysoon M. Mikha1, Veronica-Acosta Martinez2, and Alan Schlegel ³

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INTRODUCTION:

Management decisions such as residue removal level, nitrogen sources, and tillage practices are critical to manage water availability for crop production and sustain soil health. Maintaining crop residue on the soil surface could reduce wind erosion, increase soil organic matter (SOM), and provide nutrients for subsequent crops through residue decomposition by soil microbial communities. This practice could be complemented with the use of an organic amendment such as manure, which has been found to increase SOM, provide the macro-and micro-nutrients in addition to N that are necessary for crop production, and reduce or eliminate the usage of the inorganic fertilizer that is mostly added as the N source.

Microorganisms are key in 80-90% of decomposition processes. Evaluating changes in soil microbial community size and composition using Fatty Acid Methyl Ester (FAME) profiling due to management is a sensitive parameter of soil health that could help in management decisions. Soil fungi play an important role in C sequestration, and they are physically and chemically (e.g., products of decomposition that can be referred as cementing agents) bind soil particles to form aggregates that are more resistant to soil erosion. Figure 1 shows how arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi-plant root interactions change root dynamics (increases surface area), which can increase plant water and nutrient uptake and also plant drought resistance. Bacteria are also important in many processes. For example, actinobacteria can decompose complex substrates such as lignin. Soil microorganisms are important indicators of soil health and land sustainability because of their key role in soil processes that lead to increases in SOM and nutrients essential to crop growth.

Figure 1. The symbiotic relationship in soil between plant root and mycorrhizal fungi where the plant and the mycorrhizae exchange carbon in form of sugar and other nutrients.

OBJECTIVES:

Evaluate soil microbial community size and structure in continuous no-tillage irrigated corn as influenced by:

- 1) Two N types, cattle beef manure (M) and synthetic fertilizer (F).
- 2) Three residue removal levels: 0%, 50% and 80%.

MATERIALS AND METHODS:

This study was initiated in Spring 2011 on irrigated land at the Southwest Research-Extension Center near Tribune, KS to address the effects of crop residue removal and beef manure additions on soil quality and plant productivity. The experiment is a randomized strip design with no-tillage management and two nitrogen sources (manure, M and commercial fertilizer, F). The same N rate of manure nitrogen and commercial fertilizer nitrogen (urea) was added every spring for corn crop production. Three residue removal levels were implemented: No residue removal (0%), Medium residue removal (40-55%), and Maximum residue removal (75-95%). Annually, M was analyzed for inorganic and organic N content and the M addition was calculated considering 100% of inorganic (ammonium, NH_4^+ ; and nitrate, NO_3^-) M associated N and 30% of the organic M associated N will be available during the first year of application. Using the above assumption, the mass of annual M added to designated plots was calculated from 2011 to 2017 where it ranged between 11.18 to 28.9 ton/ac to provide and average of 180 lb N/ac. The fertilizer plots received Urea at the rate of 180 lb N/ac and 50 lb/a of P2O5. Corn (hybrid "Pioneer 1151XR") is normally seeded on early May at 32,000 seed/ac using a JD 1700 planter with 30 inches row spacing.

Soil samples were taken in Spring 2017 at 0-2, 2-4, and 4-6 inches to evaluate microbial community size and composition after 6 years of management practices using the ester-linked FAME procedure. The community size was evaluated according to the sum of all FAMEs. Selected FAMEs were used as microbial markers according to previous research including Gram-positive (Gram+) bacteria (i15:0, a15:0, i17:0, a17:0), Gram-negative (Gram−) bacteria (cy17:0, cy19:0), and actinobacteria (10Me16:0, 10Me17:0, 10Me18:0). Fungal markers included saprophytic fungi (18:1ω9c, 18:2ω6c) and arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) $(16:1\omega 5c)$.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION:

Evaluation of organic amendment and residue removal rates across depth:

After 6 years of N addition with manure or fertilizer, and different levels of residue removal (0%, 50%, and 80%), total FAMEs were greater under M (compared with F) and 0% (no) resid ue removal compared with other removal levels **(Figure 2)**. Thus, the combination of 0% removal and M treatments encouraged a greater microbial community compared with other treatment combination.

A similar pattern was observed when evaluating FAME markers for bacteria **(Figure 3)** or fungi **(Figure 4).** Results indicated that the addition of M (manure) is important in maintaining the soil microbial community when residue will be removed.

Averaged across depths and N source, total FAMEs, bacteria, and fungus were greater with no residue removal (0%) compared with any level of removal. No differences in microbial communities were observed between 50% and 80% residue removal **(Figure 2, 3, and 4)**.

No differences in arbuscular mycorrhizal fungi (AMF) were observed between M and F, but differences were observed among the residue removal levels **(Figure 5)** . The 0% removal enhanced AMF compared with other removal levels. The association between plant and mycorrhizal fungi is important because this association increases plant nutrient and water uptake due to increased plant root volume.

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Figure 2. Total FAMEs as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and residue removal level $(0\%, 50\%, \text{ and } 80\%)$. The different lowercase letter s represent significant differences $(P < 0.05)$ between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P \le 0.05$) among the residue removal levels.

Figure 3. Bacterial markers in soil as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and residue removal level $(0\%, 50\%, \text{ and } 80\%)$. The different lowercase letter s represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels

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Figure 2. Total FAMEs as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and residue removal level (0%, 50%, and 80%). The different lowercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels.

Figure 3. Bacterial markers in soil as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and residue removal level (0%, 50%, and 80%). The different lowercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels

Distinction of organic amendment and residue removal effects with depth:

Averaged across residue removal levels showed higher total FAMEs at the surface 0-2 inches compared with other depths studied **(Figure 6)**. At any depth studied, M treatment exhibited higher microbial community size compared with F treatment. The data reveals that the addition of an organic amendment such as manure enhanced the microbial community of soil even though both fertilizer sources were applied to provide the same amount of N.

Figure 6. Total soil FAME averages across residue removal as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and sampling depth. The different lowercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels.

Figure 7. Total soil FAME average across N sources as influenced by nitrogen source (manure, M and fertilizer F) and sampling depth. The different lowercase letters represent significant differences (P $<$ 0.05) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels.

differences ($P < 0.05$) between the M and F treatments. The different uppercase letters represent significant differences ($P < 0.05$) among the residue removal levels.

Averaged across N sources **(Figure 7)**, total FAMEs were greater at 0-2 inches compared with other depths studied at any removal level. No differences in total FAME was observed among the removal levels at the deeper depth (4-6 inches) which could be related to the no-till practice that minimize residue and soil mixing. The data generated from this study reveals that the M addition is an important management practice that needs to be considered when the residue will be removed because of M showed a positive influence on soil microbial population size and ultimately soil health.

Conclusions

• Manure addition enhances the microbial community of a soil compared with the use of an inorganic fertilizer at any residue removal level.

• Residue removal (even 50%) can decrease the microbial community of a soil compared with maintaining the residue on the soil surface.

• If having to remove crop residue, it needs to be managed properly with irrigation and organic amendments to prevent decreases in the soil microbial community and SOM.

• The influence of different management practices on other soil properties are being evaluated and will be presented in the future to best describe different aspects of soil health.

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Pre-emergent Herbicides for Improved Control of Kochia in Chemical Fallow

John Spring, CSU Extension

Problem: Herbicide resistance kochia continues to present problems across northeast Colorado and adjacent growing regions. While glyphosate-resistance remains the major concern, dicamba-resistance is also increasing in prevalence. Incorporating pre-emergence herbicides into chemical fallow programs can be a successful tactic to control resistant kochia, and to reduce the risk of selecting for further herbicide resistance. In 2018, field trials were conducted to compare potential pre-emergent herbicide options for use in northeast Colorado and Nebraska panhandle conditions. Several products provided good control of resistant kochia populations. These products are being evaluated under a range of realistic use patterns over the 2019 growing season.

Approach: Field trials were established on the USDA-ARS Central High Plains Research Station; on the UNL High Plains Ag Lab near Sidney, NE; and on a private farm near Ovid, CO. Herbicides were applied in multiple-mode-of-action tank mixes, at both a late fall and an early spring application timing. Fall applications were made in late November, after soil temperatures had fallen below 50 F. Spring applications were made in mid-March, prior to any kochia germination. Adequate moisture to activate herbicides was received within 10 days of all applications. Herbicide treatments are shown below.

Table 1. Herbicides, rates, and products applied.

Acknowledgements: Grant funding for this project from the Colorado Wheat Research Foundation is gratefully acknowledged. Thanks also to Dr. Cody Creech for collaboration and hosting the Sidney site; to Dr. Merle Vigil for hosting the Akron site; and to Jim Carlson for hosting the Ovid site.

Contact: If you have further questions or comments about this project, please don't hesitate to contact me. I would be happy to discuss it with you in more detail. *John Spring, (970)474-3479, or john.spring@colostate.edu.*

Impacts of Residue Removal on Irrigated Corn Production Joel P. Schneekloth Francisco Calderon, and Steven Fonte

Problem: Continual removal of corn residue can have significant impacts on soil properties as well as the potential productivity without the additional input of nutrients to offset those removed in the residue. A study began in 2014 at Akron, CO looking at the impact of residue removal and tillage upon the soil characteristics important to crop production as well as crop production and the economics. Two tillage treatments, No-Till (NT) and Tilled (T) were incorporated with residue removal (NR) and no residue removal (R).

Approach: Tillage and residue management treatments were initiated in 2014 on irrigated continuous corn plots at Akron, CO. Residue was harvested in the spring or generally in the fall depending upon conditions after harvest. Tillage was done in the spring prior to planting.

Measurements of infiltration rates were taken in the fall (August or September) each year after the majority of the irrigation season was over. A Cornell Infiltrometer was utilized to make several measurements of time to first runoff, total infiltration and steady state infiltration.

Soil Moisture was taken weekly during the growing season to make irrigation scheduling decisions as well as determining crop water use during the growing season. The final growing season soil moisture measurement was taken near crop maturity. The initial spring soil moisture measurement was taken prior to tillage and planting to determine soil moisture gains over the winter and beginning soil moisture.

Results: Infiltration measurements (Figure 1) were taken in early September after irrigation was ended. This ensured a dry soil surface during the time needed to take measurements. During this time period, infiltration rates have varied from year to year. Infiltration rates in 2015 were the greatest of the 5 years. This may be due to precipitation events that were typically low intensity as compared to the other years where there were intense precipitation events that may have impacted the soil surface.

Infiltration potential of the NT/R was the only management practice that had greater than 2" in each of the 5 years. The 5-year average infiltration for NT/R was 2.98" followed by 2.8" for T/R. The average infiltration for T/NR was 2.45" and 1.84" for NT/NR. Statistically, only NT/R was greater than NT/NR. All other treatments combinations were statistically equal. Although there are what appears to be significant differences between R and NR, the variability across the field was great enough to minimize the statistics.

It is uncertain as to why NT infiltration rates are lower than compared to T when residue was removed. However, it may be due to the mixing of soil with T whereas the soil surface with NT was not physically mixed during the 5 years and degradation of the surface layer may have the greatest impact on limiting infiltration potential.

This analysis was done on relatively level soils. Where fields have greater slopes, the potential for runoff would be lower with NT/R because of the residue acting like dams that would slow movement of water within the field.

Beginning soil moisture (Figure 2) as well as changes within the growing season and winter are important components of residue management. Beginning soil moisture was greater with NT/R followed by T/R and greater than both T/NR and NT/NR. Much of this seasonal difference can be attributed to the increase in winter precipitation storage efficiency when residue is left in the field compared to when residue was harvested in the fall. Capture of winter precipitation when residue remained in the field was 1.5" per year greater than when harvested. This continual difference each year caused the decline in beginning store soil moisture. The change in beginning soil moisture between NT/R and T/R was less than 1" which can partially be attributed to increased evaporation after tillage occurred for the T/R compared to the NT/R.

Figure 2. Beginning soil moisture from 2016 to 2019.

With limited water supplies as well as declining aquifer levels, capture and utilization of precipitation is important in irrigated as well as rainfed production.

Over the 5 years, NT/R showed significantly reduced ET during the vegetative growth stages of 0.75" to 1" per year compared to the other management practices. Irrigation needs for NT/R were reduced by approximately 1" per year compared to all other treatments. This reduction over the 3 years would be 3 ac-in and on a typical irrigated circle would be 10.5 ac-ft of water applied per year. The decrease in beginning soil moisture from 2016 to 2019 was about 4" over those 3 years or average 1.3" per year decrease. That water would have had to be replaced by irrigation or another 13.5 ac-ft of irrigation needs. On average, annual irrigation needs were reduced by approximately 24 ac-ft of water when NT/R was utilized compared to residue harvested and either tillage practice utilized.

Figure 3. Increased water usage by management strategy compared to No-till/Residue Remained for both irrigation and stored soil moisture.

One of the proposed benefits of reducing tillage is increasing organic matter within the soil. Many times, it is heard that organic matter increases with NT are significant within the top 6" of soil. Residue removal would have a significant potential impact on organic matter since the source for producing organic matter, residue, has been removed.

Organic matter (Figure 4) increased in the 0-2" increment for both T and NT when residue remained in the field over the 5 years of management. This increase in organic matter averaged 0.015% for NT/R and 0.03% for T/R. Both NT and T where residue was removed decreased in organic matter by 0.04% per year for NT/NR and 0.05% per year for T/R. Overall, only T/R increased in organic matter within the 0-6" layer of soil. All other treatments had a significant reduction in organic matter from the initial content in 2014. The NT/R management practice is in a delayed response to organic matter changes below 2" since 3 to 4 years of residue remain on the surface in varying states of decomposition. We expect to see significant increases from this point in time as the residue decomposes and is more close to a steady state of decomposition.

Figure 4. Change in Organic Matter in 2-inch increments to 6 inches by management practice.

Changes in water utilization and soil organic matter are important, however, the overall impact to grain yields and economics are the overriding factor to profitability. Grain yields (Figure 5) in 2016 ranged from 175 to 185 bu ac⁻¹. The grain yields from T/R and T/NR were approximately 10 bu ac⁻¹ less than NT/R. In 2017 grain yields for the T/R were 201 bu ac⁻¹ compared to 191 bu ac⁻¹ for NT/R. Both T and NT when residue was removed were 10 to 15 bu ac⁻¹ less than NT/R. In 2018, grain yields for T/NR and NT/NR were 35 bu ac⁻¹ less than NT/R and 30 bu ac⁻¹ less than T/R. The impact of the accumulative decline in store soil moisture significantly impacted grain yields when residue was removed.

Figure 5. Grain yields under limited irrigation for 2016 to 2018.

Future Work: Beginning in 2019, these treatments were subdivided to include compost and cover crops within the system. We will be able to determine the impact of cover crops and compost within each of the 4 management practices compared to normal management practices.

My PhD Research Question

How is human risk from tornadoes and severe hail expected to change across eastern Colorado in the future (by 2100) ?

> (a) Meteorology / Climate (b) Population Dynamics

Severe Hail Reports (1997-2017)

Number of 1"+ hail stones reported in eastern Colorado increasing over the past 20 years due to both population and meteorology

Concessio Scale University

Akron Field Day - 19 June 2019

27

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3

Colorado Scale University

Percent Contribution of Colorado Significant Hail Reports

I Want to Hear Your **Thoughts!!**

~40 minute in-person interview No preparation needed This summer - can even do today!

If interested, find me today to sign up, e-mail me, or fill out the online form: **CSU Hail Interview Study**

Samuel Childs, PhD Candidate, Colorado State University, Dept. of Atmospheric Science sichilds@rams.colostate.edu

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