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GRDC GROWNOTES™

GRDC
GRAINS RESEARCH & DEVELOPMENT CORPORATION

SAFFLOWER

SECTION 5

NUTRITION AND FERTILISER

DECLINING SOIL FERTILITY | CROP REMOVAL RATES | SOIL TESTING | PLANT AND/OR TISSUE TESTING FOR NUTRITION LEVELS | NITROGEN | PHOSPHORUS | SULFUR | MICRONUTRIENTS

Nutrition and fertiliser

5.1 Declining soil fertility

The natural fertility of cropped agricultural soils is declining over time, and so growers must continually review their management programs to ensure the long-term sustainability of high quality grain production. Paddock records, including yield and protein levels, fertiliser test strips, crop monitoring, and soil and plant tissue tests all assist in the formulation of an efficient nutrition program.

Pasture leys, legume rotations and fertilisers all play an important role in maintaining and improving the chemical, biological and physical fertility of soils, fertilisers remain the major source of nutrients to replace those removed by grain production. Fertiliser programs must supply a balance of the required nutrients in amounts needed to achieve a crop's yield potential. The higher yielding the crop, the greater the amount of nutrient removed. Increasing fertiliser costs means growers are increasing pulses within their crop rotation and even the use of ley pastures to complement their fertiliser programs and possibly boost soil organic matter. [1]

5.1.1 Soil organic matter

Soil organic matter (SOM) is a critical component of healthy soils and sustainable agricultural production. Growers understand that crops grown in healthy soils perform better and are easier to manage. Soil organic matter is '*all of the organic materials found in soils irrespective of its origin or state of decomposition'* [2] that is anything in or on the soil of biological origin, alive or dead. It is composed mainly of carbon (approximately 60%) as well as a variety of nutrients (including nitrogen, phosphorus and sulfur). It is difficult to actually measure the SOM content of soil directly so we measure the soil organic carbon (SOC) content and estimate SOM through a conversion factor:

Soil organic matter (%) = organic carbon (%) × 1.72

It is important to understand the role of plants in the SOM cycle. Photosynthesis is the process by which plants take in carbon dioxide (CO_2) from the atmosphere, combine with water taken up from the soil, and utilising the energy from the sun, form carbohydrate (organic matter) and release oxygen (O2). This is the start of the SOM cycle. When the leaves and roots (carbohydrate) die they enter the soil and become SOM. These residues are decomposed by soil organisms which provides them with the energy to grow and reproduce. The SOM cycle is a continuum of different forms (or fractions) with different time frames under which decomposition takes place. Over time SOM moves through these fractions; particulate, humic and resistant fractions. As SOM decomposes carbon is released from the system along with any nutrients that are not utilised by the microorganisms. These nutrients are then available for plants to utilise. Eventually a component of these residues will become resistant to further decomposition (resistant fraction Figure 1).

1 QDAF (2010) Nutrition management. Overview. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, https://www.daf.qld.gov.au/plants/field-crops-and-pastures/broadacre-field-crops/nutrition-management/overview

2 JA Baldock, JO Skjemstad (1999) Soil organic carbon/Soil organic matter. In KI Peverill, LA Sparrow, DJ Reuter (eds). Soil analysis: An interpretation manual. CSIRO Publishing, Collingwood Australia.

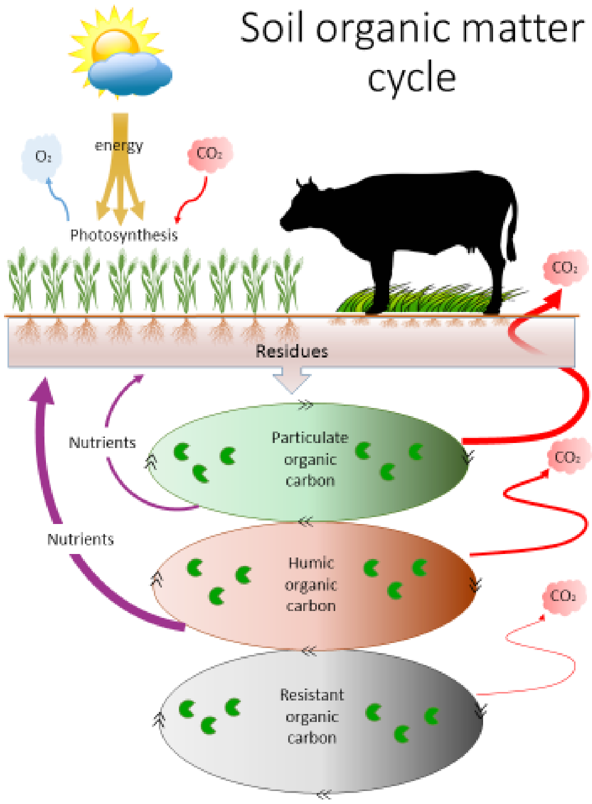

Figure 1: *Organic matter cycle.*

Source: J Gentry, QDAF

Organic matter is fundamental to several of the physical, chemical and biological functions of the soil. It helps to ameliorate or buffer the harmful effects of plant pathogens and chemical toxicities. It enhances surface and deeper soil structure, with positive effects on infiltration and exchange of water and gases, and for keeping the soil in place. It improves soil water-holding capacity and, through its high cation-exchange capacity, prevents the leaching of essential cations such as calcium (Ca), magnesium (Mg), potassium (K) and sodium (Na). Most importantly, it is a major repository for the cycling of nitrogen and other nutrients and their delivery to crops and pastures.

Australian soils are generally low in SOM. Initial SOM levels are limited by dry matter production (and so climate) for each land type/location. SOM levels have declined under traditional cropping practices. On-farm measures (sampled 2012–15) from over 500 sites in Queensland and northern NSW confirm that soil organic matter, measured as soil organic carbon, declines dramatically when land is cleared and continuously cropped. This decline affects all soils and land types but is most dramatic for the brigalow–belah soils because their starting organic carbon levels are so high (Figure 2). [3]

3 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

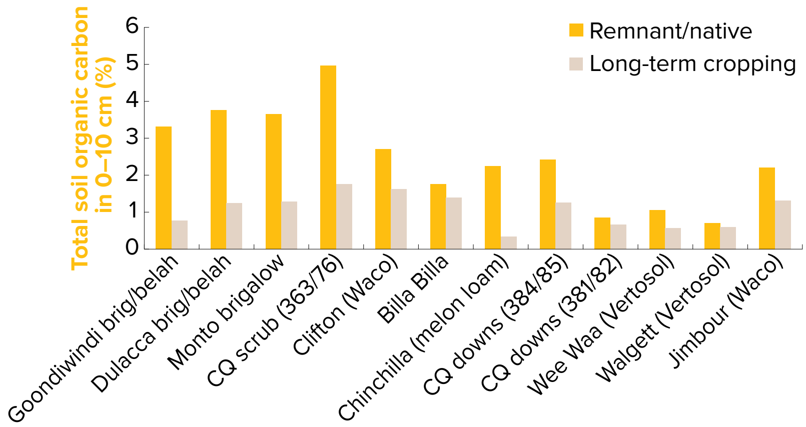

Figure 2: *The decline of soil organic carbon in long-term cropping systems.* [4]

Declining levels of SOM have implications for soil structure, soil moisture retention, nutrient delivery and microbial activity. However, probably the single most important effect is the decline in the soil's capacity to mineralise organic nitrogen (N) to plant-available N. Past research (1983) has shown that N mineralisation capacity was reduced by 39–57%, with an overall average decline of 52% (Figure 3). [5] This translated into reduced wheat yields when crops were grown without fertiliser N.

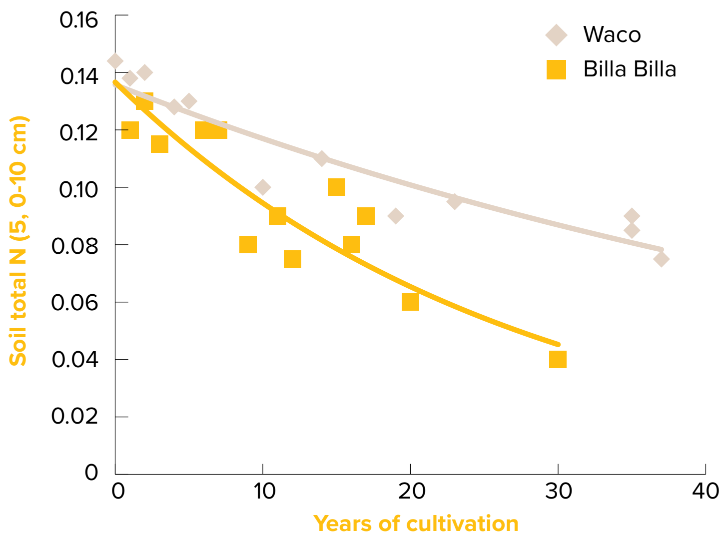

Figure 3: *Graph of decline in soil total N with years of cropping. The decline was greater for the Billa Billa soil (clay content 34%) than the Waco soil (clay content 74%).* [6]

Source: based on Dalal & Mayer (1986a,b)

4 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

5 RC Dalal, RJ Mayer (1986) Long term trends in fertility of soils under continuous cultivation and cereal cropping in southern Queensland. II. Total organic carbon and its rate of loss from the soil profile. Australian Journal of Soil Research 24, 281–292.

6 RC Dalal, RJ Mayer (1986) Long term trends in fertility of soils under continuous cultivation and cereal cropping in southern Queensland. II. Total organic carbon and its rate of loss from the soil profile. Australian Journal of Soil Research 24, 281–292.

5.1.2 Current situation

Soil organic carbon levels are simply a snapshot of the current balance between inputs (e.g. plant residues and other organic inputs) and losses (e.g. erosion, decomposition) constantly happening in each soil and farming system. The decline over time is overwhelmingly driven by the extent of fallowing in our farming systems. Most fallow rain in the northern region (as much as 75–80% in a summer fallow) is lost as runoff or evaporation. This wasted rain does not grow dry matter to replenish the organic matter reserves in the soil. However, increasing moisture in the fallowed soil continues to support microbial decomposition. This helps accumulate available nitrogen for the next crop, but reduces soil organic carbon. The soil organic matter and carbon levels will continue to decline until they reach a new lower level that the dry matter produced by the new farming system can sustain. Put simply,

'Crops may make more money than trees and pastures, but do not return as much dry matter to the soil.'

Total soil organic carbon levels vary within a paddock, from paddock to paddock and from region to region. Comprehensive sampling was under taken throughout the northern region, with over 900 sites sampled and analysed for total organic carbon at 0–10 cm depth. These results varied enormously across sites. The average was 1.46% however it varied from under 0.5% to over 5% (Figure 4). [7] A selection of these data from representative soil types throughout the northern grains region clearly indicates how soil carbon levels can be significantly different due to soil type (Figure 5). [8]

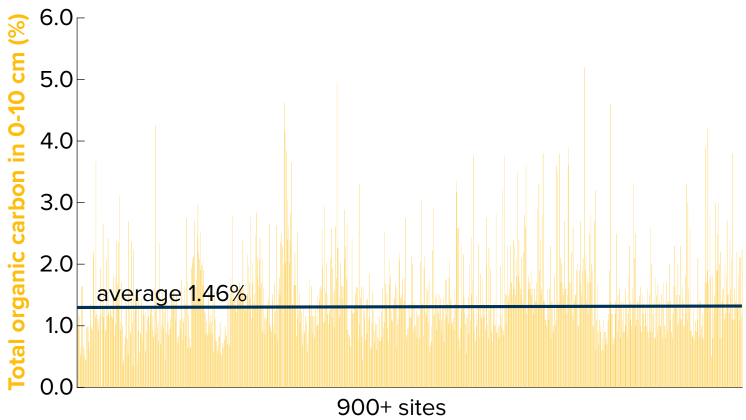

Figure 4: *Soil organic carbon levels on mixed farms within the GRDC Northern Region.* [9]

7 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112 – 117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

8 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

9 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

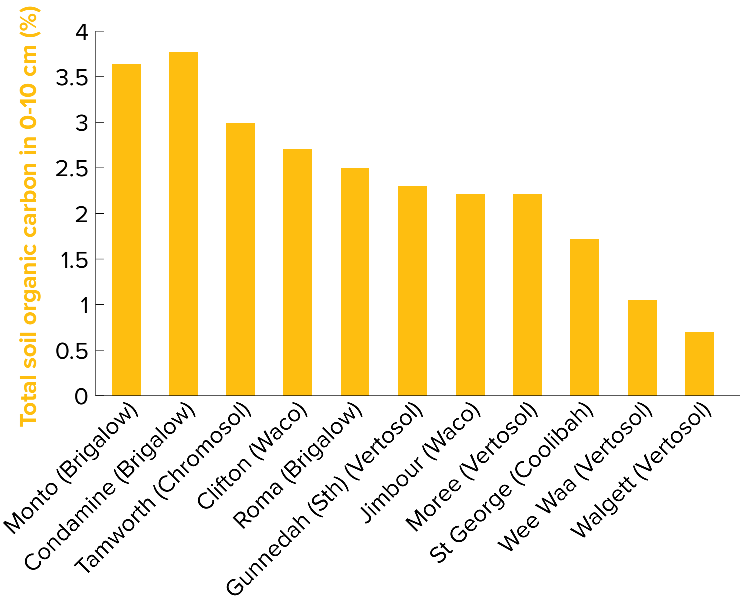

Figure 5: *Impact of land-type on total soil carbon levels (0–10 cm) across the northern region.* [10]

5.1.3 Options for reversing the decline in soil organic matter

Soil organic matter is an under-valued capital resource that needs informed management. Levels of SOC are the result of the balance between inputs (e.g. plant residues and other organic inputs) and losses (e.g. erosion, decomposition, harvested material) in each soil and farming. [11] So maximising total dry matter production will encourage higher SOC levels, and clearing native vegetation for grain cropping will typically reduce SOC and SOM levels. [12]

Modern farming practices that maximise Water Use Efficiency for extra dry matter production are integral in protecting SOM. Greater cropping frequency, crops with higher yields and associated higher stubble loads, pasture rotations and avoiding burning or baling will all help growers in the northern region to maintain SOM.

Research in the past has shown the most direct, effective means of increasing SOM levels is through the use of pastures, however these pasture have to be productive. A grass only pasture will run out of N especially in older paddocks, which is normally the reason why these paddocks are retired from cropping. As a result, a source of nitrogen is required to maximise dry matter production, this can be supplied via a legume or N fertiliser. The rotation experiments of I. Holford and colleagues at Tamworth, NSW and R. Dalal and colleagues in southeast Queensland provide good evidence of this (Table 1).

The greatest gains in soil carbon and nitrogen, relative to the wheat monoculture, were made in the 4-year grass–legume ley, with increases of 550 kg total N/ha and 4.2 t organic C/ha. The chickpea–wheat rotation fared no better than the continuous wheat system. The shorter (1–2-year) lucerne and annual medic leys resulted in marginal increases in soil organic C and N (Table 1).

10 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

11 FC Hoyle, JA Baldock, DV Murphy (2011) Soil organic carbon: Role in rainfed farming systems. In PG Tow, I Cooper, I Partridge, C Birch (eds). Rainfed farming systems. Springer, pp. 339–361.

12 RC Dalal, RJ Mayer (1986) Long term trends in fertility of soils under continuous cultivation and cereal cropping in southern Queensland. II. Total organic carbon and its rate of loss from the soil profile. Australian Journal of Soil Research 24, 281–292.

Clearly, time and good sources of both carbon and nitrogen are required to build up SOM, which is exactly what the 4-year grass–legume ley provided. Nitrogen was supplied via N_2 fixation by the lucerne and annual medic in the pasture, with most of the carbon supplied by the grasses, purple pigeon grass and Rhodes grass. There were no inputs of fertiliser nitrogen in any of the treatments in Table 1. [13]

Table 1: *Effects of different rotations on soil total N and organic C (t/ha) to 30 cm and as gain relative to continuous wheat.*

Rotation	Wheat crops	Soil total N		Organic C	
		0–30 cm	Gain	0–30 cm	Gain
Grass/ legume ley 4 years	0	2.91	0.55	26.5	4.2
Lucerne ley (1-2 years)	2-3	2.56	0.20	23.5	1.2
Annual medic ley (1-2 years)	2-3	2.49	0.13	23.1	0.8
Chickpeas (2 years)	2	2.35	0.00	22.0	0.0
Continuous wheat 4 years	4	2.36	-	22.3	-

Further research was initiated in 2012 to identify cropping practices that have the potential to increase or maintain soil organic carbon and soil organic matter levels at the highest levels possible in a productive cropping system. Paired sampling has shown that returning cropping country to pasture will increase soil carbon levels (Figure 6). However, there were large variations in carbon level increases detected, indicating not all soil types or pastures preform the same. Soil type influences the speed by which carbon levels change, i.e. a sandy soil will lose and store carbon faster than a soil high in clay. As too does the quality and productivity of the pasture, maximising dry matter production by ensuring adequate nutrition (especially in terms of nitrogen and phosphorus) will maximise increases in soil carbon over time. Current research in Queensland being undertaken by the Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry (QDAF) is indicating that the most promising practice to date to rebuild soil carbon stocks, in the shortest time frame, is the establishment of a highly productive pasture rotation with annual applications of nitrogen fertiliser, however, adding an adapted legume is also effective. [14]

13 D Herridge (2011) Managing legume and fertiliser N for northern grains cropping. Revised 2013. GRDC, https://grdc.com.au/research/reports/report?id=3798

14 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

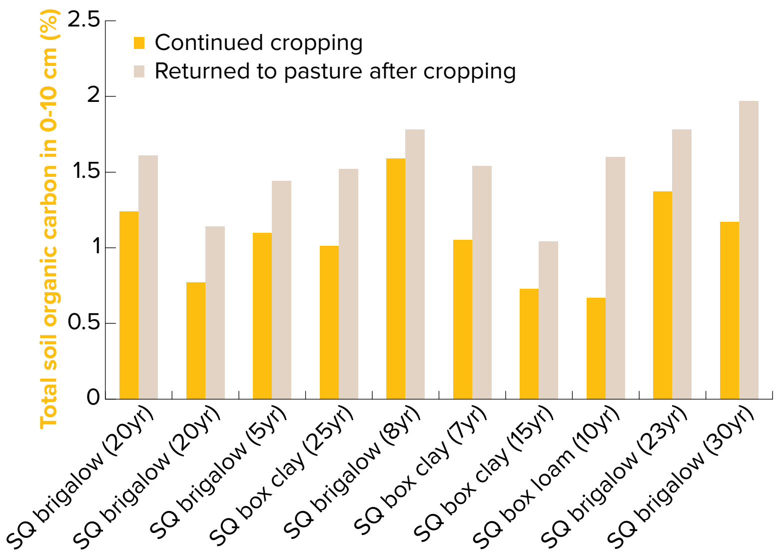

Figure 6: *Total organic carbon comparisons for croplands resown to pasture.* [15]

Impact of fertiliser N inputs on soil

If the rates of fertiliser N are sufficiently high, the effects can be positive. In the Warra experiments, both soil organic C and total N increased marginally (3–4%) over an 8-year period when no-till, continuous wheat, fertilised at a rate of 75 kg N/ha, was grown. This is in contrast with decreases of 10–12% in soil organic C and N in the non-fertilised, continuous wheat and chickpea–wheat plots. The result was much the same in NSW Department of Primary Industries experiments in northern NSW. At the Warialda site, for example, SOM increased during 5 years of cropping but only where fertiliser N had been applied to the cereals.

It is clear from the above examples that building SOM requires N. It works in two ways. First, the fertiliser or legume N produces higher crop/pasture yields and creates more residues that are returned to the soil. Then, these residues are decomposed by the soil microbes, with some eventually becoming stable organic matter or humus. The humus has a C/N ratio of about 10:1, i.e. 10 atoms of C to 1 atom of N. If there are good amounts of mineral N in the soil where the residues are decomposing, the C is efficiently locked into microbial biomass and then into humus.

If, on the other hand, the soil is deficient in mineral N, then more of the C is respired by the soil microbes and less is locked into the stable organic matter. [16]

Safflower has nutrient requirements similar to cereals (Table 1), but requires slightly more phosphorus (P) and may require additional sulfur (S) in soils that are low in or do not have native gypsum. Responses to surface-applied fertiliser have been variable, because the topsoil is often dry later in the season and safflower can extract nutrients from deep in the soil profile. This can be useful for recovery of nitrates and other nutrients that have leached beyond the reach of most other crops. Fertiliser applications should be drilled at sowing, or topdressed onto damp soil prior to bud formation and allowed to leach to the root-zone. Foliar fertilisers are also suitable; they allow certain nutrients to be directly absorbed by leaves but may have a high relative cost. Selection of fertiliser type and rate will depend on soil type, paddock

15 QDAF (2016) Queensland Grains Research – 2015. Regional Research Agronomy Network. Department of Agriculture, Fisheries and Forestry Queensland, pp. 112–117, http://www.moreprofitperdrop.com.au/wp-content/uploads/2016/08/RANsTrials2015-screen.pdf

16 D Herridge (2011) Managing legume and fertiliser N for northern grains cropping. Revised 2013. GRDC, https://grdc.com.au/research/reports/report?id=3798

history, residual nutrient levels, water availability and expected yield. Ideally, soil tests should be conducted in the topsoil and in increments to a depth of 120 cm. [17]

5.2 Crop removal rates

Safflower removes slightly more P and S than wheat; however, the lower relative yield indicates that maintenance requirements would be similar to those of wheat.

Table 2: *Nutrient removal by safflower (kg/t seed).*

Nutrient	Safflower	Wheat
Nitrogen	25	23
Phosphorus	4.3	3
Sulfur	4	2

MORE INFORMATION

Why soil sample? Nutrient Advantage

Sampling instructions. Nutrient Advantage

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5.3 Soil testing

Standard soil testing should be carried out to determine residual levels of nutrient and match fertiliser application to the estimated yield of the safflower crop.

5.4 Plant and/or tissue testing for nutrition levels

Tissue tests can be carried out on safflower. It has been reported to respond to foliar application of manganese and iron ~6 weeks after sowing.

5.5 Nitrogen

At least 30 kg/ha of nitrogen (N) should be applied to most dryland crops and this can be increased to >100 kg N/ha for high-yielding crops under irrigation. To avoid toxicity, which will reduce crop establishment, no more than 20 kg N/ha should be drilled with seed. Nitrogen fertiliser rates should also reflect water availability and be moderated where moisture is limited or where high levels of N are present deep in the soil profile. Excess N can boost vegetative seedfill, increasing crop water use early in the season and resulting in poor yields if soil reserves are depleted before flowering and seedfill. Economic responses to high rates of N are most likely in fully irrigated crops, where subsoil water is favourable, and/or where soils have low N fertility. If seasonal conditions are unfavourable, consider sowing with 20 kg N/ha and topdressing or applying liquid forms later in the season if conditions are favourable. [18]

In the Northern Region, however, consider that topdressed N may not be available at depth unless there is sufficient rainfall for movement, and if moisture levels at depth are good, then the crop may still fall short of N later in the season.

5.6 Phosphorus

An adequate supply of P is critical to high yields and the long-term sustainability of farming systems. Soil tests, test strips, local experience and expected yield are all good guides to P requirements. Each tonne of safflower seed contains 4.3 kg P, so a crop of 2.5 t/ha would remove 2.5 × 4.3 = 10.75 kg P from the paddock. As a rule of thumb, 12–20 kg P/ha is recommended on deficient soils. Responses to P are unlikely on soils with Cowell-P levels >40 mg/kg, although small amounts can still be applied at sowing to improve early growth and maintain soil levels. [19]

17 N Wachsmann, T Potter, R Byrne, S Knights (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy. Agronomic information and safflower case studies. GRDC, http://www.grdc.com.au/BetterSafflowerAgronomy

18 N Wachsmann, T Potter, R Byrne, S Knights (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy. Agronomic information and safflower case studies. GRDC, http://www.grdc.com.au/BetterSafflowerAgronomy

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BSES-P tests will give an indication of pool reserves and availability of pool P through the season. Please consult a qualified nutrition adviser.

5.7 Sulfur

Many soils contain adequate levels of S for safflower production. Soil S levels should be monitored with soil tests and S can be applied as gypsum or as a component of a blended fertiliser when necessary. [20]

5.7.1 Potassium

Safflower uses moderate amounts of potassium, but most soils in the cereal-growing regions of Australia contain adequate levels. The general exception is sandy soils, which are not best suited for safflower production unless in high-rainfall regions. Potassium is not very mobile in soils, so where required it is best banded under seed. [21]

5.8 Micronutrients

On certain soil types, such as the black soils in northern NSW or the heavy black or grey clay over limestone soils in South Australia, safflower does respond to manganese, iron and/or zinc. These are best applied as a foliar application around 6 weeks after sowing if necessary. [22]

20 N Wachsmann, T Potter, R Byrne, S Knights (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy. Agronomic information and safflower case studies. GRDC, http://www.grdc.com.au/BetterSafflowerAgronomy

21 N Wachsmann, T Potter, R Byrne, S Knights (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy. Agronomic information and safflower case studies. GRDC, http://www.grdc.com.au/BetterSafflowerAgronomy

22 N Wachsmann, T Potter, R Byrne, S Knights (2010) Raising the bar with better safflower agronomy. Agronomic information and safflower case studies. GRDC, http://www.grdc.com.au/BetterSafflowerAgronomy