University of Nebraska - Lincoln [DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/)

[Publications from USDA-ARS / UNL Faculty](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub) [U.S. Department of Agriculture: Agricultural](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaars) [Research Service, Lincoln, Nebraska](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaars)

10-27-2015

Short-Term Soil Responses to Late-Seeded Cover Crops in a Semi-Arid Environment

M. A. Liebig USDA-ARS, mark.liebig@ars.usda.gov

J. R. Hendrickson USDA-ARS, john.hendrickson@ars.usda.gov

D. W. Archer USDA-ARS

M. A. Schmer USDA-ARS, marty.schmer@ars.usda.gov

K. A. Nichols Rodale Institute

See next page for additional authors

Follow this and additional works at: [https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub?utm_source=digitalcommons.unl.edu%2Fusdaarsfacpub%2F1563&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

Liebig, M. A.; Hendrickson, J. R.; Archer, D. W.; Schmer, M. A.; Nichols, K. A.; and Tanaka, D. L., "Short-Term Soil Responses to Late-Seeded Cover Crops in a Semi-Arid Environment" (2015). Publications from USDA-ARS / UNL Faculty. 1563.

[https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub/1563](https://digitalcommons.unl.edu/usdaarsfacpub/1563?utm_source=digitalcommons.unl.edu%2Fusdaarsfacpub%2F1563&utm_medium=PDF&utm_campaign=PDFCoverPages)

This Article is brought to you for free and open access by the U.S. Department of Agriculture: Agricultural Research Service, Lincoln, Nebraska at DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln. It has been accepted for inclusion in Publications from USDA-ARS / UNL Faculty by an authorized administrator of DigitalCommons@University of Nebraska - Lincoln.

Authors

M. A. Liebig, J. R. Hendrickson, D. W. Archer, M. A. Schmer, K. A. Nichols, and D. L. Tanaka

Short-Term Soil Responses to Late-Seeded Cover Crops in a Semi-Arid Environment

M. A. Liebig,* J. R. Hendrickson, D. W. Archer, M. A. Schmer, K. A. Nichols, and D. L. Tanaka

ABSTRACT

Cover crops can expand ecosystem services, though sound management recommendations for their use within semiarid cropping systems is currently constrained by a lack of information. This study was conducted to determine agroecosystem responses to late-summer seeded cover crops under no-till management, with particular emphasis on soil attributes. Short-term effects of late-summer seeded cover crops on soil water, available N, nearsurface soil quality, and residue cover were investigated during three consecutive years on the Area IV Soil Conservation Districts Research Farm near Mandan, ND. Mean aboveground cover crop biomass was highly variable across years (1430, 96, and 937 kg ha⁻¹ in 2008, 2009, and 2010, respectively), and was strongly affected by precipitation received within 14 d following cover crop seeding. During years with appreciable biomass production (2008 and 2010), cover crops significantly reduced available N in the 0.9-m depth the following spring $(P = 0.0291)$ and 0.0464, respectively). Cover crop effects on soil water were subtle, and no differences in soil water were found between cover crop treatments and a no cover crop control before seeding cash crops the following spring. Late-summer seeded cover crops did not affect near-surface soil properties or soil coverage by residue. Soil responses to late-summer seeded cover crops did not differ between cover crop mixtures and monocultures. Late-summer seeded cover crops may enhance ecosystem services provided by semiarid cropping systems through biomass production and N conservation, though achieving these benefits in a consistent manner appears dependent on timely precipitation following cover crop seeding.

This document is a U.S. government work and is not subject to copyright in the United States

Published in Agron. J. 107:2011–2019 (2015) doi:10.2134/agronj15.0146 Received 24 Mar. 2015 Accepted 12 June 2015

Copyright © 2015 by the American Society of Agronomy 5585 Guilford Road, Madison, WI 53711 USA All rights reserved

INCORPORATING COVER CROPS in semiarid cropping
systems can intensify agricultural production. Using co
crops to extend the traditional growing season through
inter- and/or double-cropping allows livestock producers to ncorporating cover crops in semiarid cropping systems can intensify agricultural production. Using cover crops to extend the traditional growing season through increase forage availability, often at a time of the year when abundant, quality forage from grassland has declined (Rogler et al., 1962). Cover crops grown for forage also offer the potential to enhance desirable agroecosystem co-benefits, including improved nutrient-use efficiency and soil tilth (Dabney et al., 2010; Acuña and Villimil, 2014), reduced pests (Lundgren and Fergen, 2010), and increased yield and yield stability (Snapp et al., 2005). Realizing such benefits over the long term can translate to cropping systems with increased resilience and lower environmental impact, thereby creating a more sustainable agriculture.

Despite potential cover crop benefits, their accrual in cropping systems within the northern Great Plains of North America is largely constrained by climate. Short growing seasons, inadequate precipitation, and highly variable weather conditions combine to make crop production in the region risky (Bailey, 1995; Farahani et al., 1998). Historical investigations in the northern Plains found cover crops—when used as a replacement for bare fallow—induced water stress and therefore did not benefit production of subsequent crops (Sarvis and Thysell, 1936; Army and Hide, 1959). Recent regional investigations including cover crops following harvest of a cash crop have shown reduced levels of available N (Reese et al., 2014), increased ground cover in spring (Moyer and Blackshaw, 2009), increased water stress on subsequent crops (Reese et al., 2014), and neutral or negative effects on crop yield (Blackshaw et al., 2010; Reese et al., 2014).

Management recommendations for cover crop use in the northern Plains are currently restricted by a deficiency of published information. Moreover, previous regional investigations have focused on cover crop monocultures, whereas cover crop mixtures are preferentially employed by producers as a means to reduce production risk and capture diversity-enhanced resource use (Wortman et al., 2012b; Tilman, 1999). In this study, we sought to determine agroecosystem responses to late-summer seeded cover crops, with particular emphasis on

M.A. Liebig, J.R. Hendrickson, D.W. Archer, and D.L. Tanaka (retired), USDA-ARS, Northern Great Plains Research Lab., P.O. Box 459, Mandan, ND 58554-0459. M.A. Schmer, USDA-ARS, Agroecosystem Management Research Unit, 137 Keim Hall, Univ. of Nebraska, Lincoln, NE 68583. K.A. Nichols, Rodale Institute, 611 Siegfriedale Rd., Kutztown, PA 19530-9320. *Corresponding author (mark.liebig@ars.usda.gov).

Abbreviations: ALL, all cover crops; PM, proso millet; PTT, purple top turnip; S, soybean; SF, sunflower; ST, spring triticale; VP, vine pea; WC, winter canola.

soil attributes. Specifically, we were interested in quantifying effects of seven cover crops—planted in monoculture and mixtures—on soil moisture, available N, near-surface soil quality, and residue cover under no-till management. The following two hypotheses were used to guide the study:

- 1. Soil responses to late-summer seeded cover crops will be associated with aboveground biomass production.
- 2. The frequency and degree of soil responses to late-summer seeded cover crops will be greater for mixtures compared to monocultures.

MATERIALS AND METHODS Site and Treatment Description

The research site was located approximately 6 km south of Mandan, ND, (46°46′12″ N, 100°54′57″ W) on the Area IV Soil Conservation Districts (SCD) Research Farm. The site possesses a semiarid continental climate, with evaporation typically exceeding precipitation in any given year (Bailey, 1995). Longterm (98 yr) mean annual precipitation is 412 mm, with 79% of the total received during the growing season (April–September). Long-term mean annual temperature is 4°C, though daily averages fluctuate from < –10°C in the winter to >20°C in the summer. Site topography is characterized as gently rolling uplands (0–3% slope). Soils are formed from a silty loess mantle overlying Wisconsin-age till, and are dominated by a mix of Temvik and Wilton silt loams (USDA: fine-silty, mixed, superactive, frigid Typic and Pachic Haplustolls; FAO: Calcic Siltic Chernozems).

Research was initiated in April 2008 by seeding an 8 ha field to dry pea (*Pisum sativum* L.) at 141,700 viable seeds ha–1 with 19-cm row spacing using a John Deere 750 no-till drill (Deere & Company, Moline, IL). Dry pea were inoculated before seeding with *Rhizobium leguminosarium*. No fertilizer was applied. In early August, dry pea seed was harvested with a John Deere 4420 combine. Harvested residue was spread uniformly over the soil surface using a chaff spreader.

On 21–22 Aug. 2008, 19 cover crop treatments were seeded into the dry pea residue using seven crops in monoculture or mixtures. Crops belonged to graminoid, leguminosae, asteraceae, brassicaceae families, and included proso millet (*Panicum miliaceum* L.; warm-season grass), spring triticale (*Triticale hexaploide* Lart.; cool-season grass), soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merr.; warm-season legume], dry pea (cool-season legume), sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.; mycorrhizal broadleaf), winter canola (*Brassica napus* subsp. *Rapifera*; non-mycorrhizal broadleaf), and purple top turnip (*B.rapa*; tuber/root crop). Eleven treatments represented cover crop mixtures, and one treatment served as a no cover crop control. Selection of cover crop treatments and seeding rates were determined in consultation with area farmers and SCD personnel, and are presented in Table 1. Seeding was conducted using a John Deere 750 no-till drill with 19-cm row spacing and 2.4-cm seeding depth. Neither inoculant nor fertilizer were applied with the cover crop seed. Plots were 9.1 by 36.6 m in size, and treatments were replicated four times. Cover crop treatments were allowed to grow until a killing frost without management intervention. In the following spring, four "response crops" (corn [*Zea mays* L.], spring wheat [*Triticum aestivum* L.], soybean, and dry pea) were seeded perpendicular to the cover crop strips, thereby creating a crop sequence/cover crop matrix. Following seeding of response crops, individual experimental units were $83.6 \text{ m}^2 (9.1 \text{ by } 9.1 \text{ m})$ in size.

All treatments were implemented again in 2009 and 2010 on nearby land (approximately 2 km apart) previously seeded to dry pea with the same management history, topography, and soil type. Cover crop seeding dates were 25–26 August during both years.

Measurements

Precipitation, air temperature, and solar radiation were monitored at a North Dakota Agricultural Weather Network (NDAWN) station within 3 km of each field used for the cover crop study. Daily data were downloaded from the NDAWN website and summarized for three time periods at each site

Table 1. Seeding rates for cover crop treatments.

corresponding to the dry pea phase, cover crop growth phase, and the over-winter phase (NDAWN, 2015).

Aboveground cover crop biomass was measured by clipping one representative 0.25 m^2 quadrat in each plot immediately before a killing frost (Table 2). Collected biomass was separated by species, oven dried at 70°C for 48 h, and weighed.

Soil water content measurements were made for each cover crop treatment soon after cover crop seeding, immediately following a killing frost (except in 2010, when measurements were taken before a killing frost), and before response crop seeding with a neutron soil moisture meter (Model DR503; CPN International, Inc., Concord, CA) (Table 2). Using a single access tube installed in the center of each cover crop plot within the spring wheat response crop strip, meter readings were taken to a depth of 2.1 m in 0.3-m increments. The meter produced approximately 8000 recorded disintegrations per 30 s reading interval in standard, plastic-shielded counting mode. Site homogeneity across the three fields used for the study required a single calibration. The meter was calibrated by determining gravimetric water content of soil cores collected during installation of access tubes by measuring the difference in soil mass before and after drying at 105°C for 24 h (Gardner, 1986). Gravimetric soil water data were converted to volumetric water content using field-measured soil bulk density (Blake and Hartge, 1986). Soil water data were expressed as cm H_2O 0.3-m depth⁻¹.

Soil $NO₃–N$ was measured before cover crop seeding and again in the spring before seeding response crops (Table 2). Two soil samples were collected with a 3.5-cm (i.d.) Giddings hydraulic probe to a depth of 0.9 m near the middle of each plot and partitioned into increments of 0 to 0.15, 0.15 to 0.3, 0.3 to 0.6, and 0.6 to 0.9 m (Giddings Machine Co., Windsor, CO). Soil cores within a plot were composited by depth increment. Collected samples were stored in a double-lined plastic bag and placed in cold storage at 5°C until processing. Within 4 wk of collection, soil samples were dried at 35°C for 3 to 4 d and mechanically ground to pass a 2.0-mm sieve. Identifiable plant material (>2.0 mm diam., >10 mm length) was removed during sieving. Soil NO_3-N was estimated from 1:10 soil-KCl (2 M) extracts using cadmium reduction followed by a modified Griess–Ilosvay method (Mulvaney, 1996), and were expressed on a volumetric basis using field-measured soil bulk density for each depth (Blake and Hartge, 1986).

Near-surface soil properties were measured in the spring of each year before seeding response crops in two cover crop treatments: seven-way cover crop mixture (ALL) and no cover crop control (Table 2). Six soil cores were collected in four locations in each plot from the 0- to 0.075-m depth using a 3.13-cm (internal diameter) step-down probe. Two sampling locations were within the cover crop row, while the other two locations

were between cover crop rows. Collected soil cores were composited by location, stored in a double-lined plastic bag, placed in cold storage at 5°C, and analyzed within 2 wk of collection.

Soil processing involved weighing the total tared soil mass of each sample at field moisture content and then removing 12 to 15 g for assessment of gravimetric water content (Gardner, 1986). Soil samples were then split for chemical and biological analyses into two approximately equal portions. Samples for chemical analyses were dried at 35°C for 3 to 4 d and then ground by hand to pass a 2.0-mm sieve. Identifiable plant material was removed during sieving and discarded. Chemical analyses included assessments of soil pH and particulate organic matter carbon (POM-C). Soil pH was estimated from a 1:1 soil-water mixture (Watson and Brown, 1998), while POM-C was quantified by analyzing the C content of material retained on a 0.053-mm sieve by dry combustion (Gregorich and Ellert, 1993). Biological analyses included assessment of soil microbial biomass, which was estimated using the microwave irradiation method (Islam and Weil, 1998). Before this analysis, field-moist samples were split and passed through a 2.0-mm sieve. Fifty grams of sieved soil was incubated 10 d at 55% water-filled pore space in the presence of 10 mL of 2.0 M NaOH. Carbon dioxide content was determined by single end-point titration with 0.1 M HCl (Paul et al., 1999), and the flush of $CO₂$ –C following irradiation was calculated without subtracting a 10-d control (Franzluebbers et al., 1999). Gravimetric data were converted to a volumetric basis using field-measured soil bulk density (Blake and Hartge, 1986). All data were expressed on an oven-dry basis.

Crop residue coverage of soil was measured in each cover crop treatment the spring of each year using the transect technique (Laflen et al., 1981) (Table 2). Measurements were made within soybean response crop plots immediately before seeding. Crop residue presence on the soil surface was counted along two 25 point transects equally spaced on a 7.6 m cable. Transects in a plot were oriented in a diagonal sampling pattern (V), which pointed in the direction of seeding. Crop residue intersecting with a point on the cable was counted as a contact, and the total number of residue contacts within a plot was recorded. Collected data were converted to percent soil coverage by residue before statistical analyses.

Data Analyses

A randomized complete block experimental design with four replications was adapted for the study. Data were analyzed by year using appropriate PROC MIXED models in SAS assuming cover crop treatment as a fixed effect (Littell et al., 1996). To evaluate potential diversity effects on measured variables, data were further analyzed by aggregating data into three groups:

Table 3. Weather attributes during the study. Cumulative precipitation, mean air and soil temperature, mean solar radiation, and cumulative growing degree days provided for the dry pea, cover crop growth, and over-winter phases at each site.

† Soil temperature at 5-cm depth.

‡ 5°C base temperature used for growing degree days.

mixtures, monocultures, and a no cover crop control. Before statistical analysis, aboveground biomass data were summed across species for cover crop treatments with multiple species. Soil water and NO_3 –N data were analyzed by individual and summed depths within each sampling time. The Tukey–Kramer method for multiple pairwise comparisons was used to identify differences between means using a significance criterion of $P \le 0.05$. Variation of means was documented using standard error. Data for near-surface soil properties were averaged across sampling

Table 4. Aboveground cover crop biomass production for individual and aggregated cover crop treatments, 2008 to 2010. Cover crop treatments aggregated by monocultures and mixtures.

† Individual treatment values in a column with unlike letters differ at $P \leq 0.05$. No differences in aboveground cover crop biomass were observed between monocultures and mixtures in any year.

locations, as row-interrow differences were nonsignificant (data not shown). Where applicable, associations between measured variables were identified using Pearson correlation analysis.

RESULTS

Weather conditions during the dry pea phase were relatively constant between years, with narrow ranges of cumulative precipitation (292–362 mm), mean air temperature (15.1–16.9°C), and growing degree days (1334 –1581 d; 5°C base temperature) (Table 3). Mean length of the cover crop growth phase was 63 d, and ranged from 56 to 70 d. Cumulative precipitation received during the cover crop growth phase increased each year (76, 115, and 138 mm for 2008, 2009, and 2010, respectively). Mean air and soil temperatures during the cover crop growth phase were approximately 2°C warmer in 2008 compared to 2009 and 2010. While mean solar radiation mirrored temperature trends between years during the cover crop growth phase $(14.8 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1} \text{ in } 2008 \text{ vs. } 13.0 \text{ and } 13.1 \text{ MJ m}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1} \text{ in } 2009$ and 2010, respectively), growing degree days across years were nearly constant (Mean = 515 d; Range = 511 to 517 d). The overwinter phase during the final year of the study was dryer and colder than the previous over-winter phases (Table 3).

Aboveground cover crop biomass was greatest in 2008 (1430 \pm 178 kg ha⁻¹), least in 2009 (96 \pm 19 kg ha⁻¹), and intermediate in 2010 (937 \pm 115 kg ha⁻¹) (Table 4). Differences in cover crop biomass between years were likely driven by variation in weather conditions. As reviewed above, mean solar radiation and air and soil temperatures were greater during the cover crop growth phase in 2008 compared to 2009 and 2010, thereby providing improved growing conditions in the former. Additionally, precipitation timing was likely a key determinant affecting biomass production, as 23, 1, and 92 mm of precipitation was received during the first 14 d following cover crop seeding in 2008, 2009, and 2010, respectively (NDAWN, 2015; data not shown).

Among cover crop treatments, purple top turnip produced significantly more aboveground biomass compared to four monocultures (proso millet, soybean, vine pea, sunflower) and three mixtures (ALL minus proso millet, ALL minus vine pea, ALL minus sunflower) in 2008 (Table 4). No differences in

† Individual treatment values in a column with unlike letters differ at *P* £ 0.05 (a, b, c used for individual treatments; x, y, z used for aggregated treatments). ns = Treatment effects not significant at $P \le 0.05$.

aboveground cover crop biomass were observed among treatments in 2009, while in 2010, greater aboveground biomass was observed with spring triticale compared to proso millet, soybean, and sunflower.

No differences in aboveground cover crop biomass were observed when treatments were aggregated by monocultures and mixtures (Table 4). Ranges in aboveground cover crop biomass, however, were narrower among mixtures compared to monoculture treatments. For mixtures, aboveground cover crop biomass ranged from 1014 to 2030, 61 to 141, and 720 to 1343 kg ha⁻¹ in 2008, 2009, and 2010, respectively, whereas among monoculture treatments, aboveground cover crop biomass ranged from 16 to 2889, 7 to 349, and 2 to 1550 kg ha⁻¹.

Late-summer seeded cover crops had a subtle effect on soil water. No differences in soil water content were observed among treatments immediately after cover crop seeding or before seeding response crops the following spring (data not shown). Across all treatments, soil water in the surface (0.3 m) depth after seeding was 5.7, 6.0, and 6.8 cm in 2008, 2009, and 2010, respectively. Only after a killing frost in 2008 were differences in soil water content observed among treatments. Soil water at 0.3 m was greater in the no cover crop control (9.1 cm) and ALL minus proso millet and spring triticale (8.9 cm) compared to ALL minus sunflower $(6.2 \text{ cm}) (P = 0.0059)$ (Table 5). Significant treatment effects extended to 0.6 m during this same time period, with greater soil water in ALL minus proso millet and spring triticale (8.6 cm) compared to ALL minus

sunflower (5.1 cm) (*P* = 0.0299). Among aggregated treatments, soil water at 0.3 m was significantly greater in the no cover crop control compared to monocultures and mixtures (9.1 cm vs. 7.8 and 7.5 cm, respectively; *P* = 0.0274) (Table 5). Soil water below 0.3 m did not differ among aggregated treatments.

Mineralization of organic N likely contributed to increases in soil NO_3 –N between fall and spring during the first 2 yr of the study. Pre-plant baseline values in 2008 and 2009 were 43.3 ± 1.7 and 18.7 ± 0.7 kg N ha⁻¹ for the 0- to 0.9-m depth, whereas mean values across treatments in the following spring increased to 62.7 \pm 3.9 and 45.6 ± 1.4 kg N ha⁻¹ (Fig. 1). A limited change in fall vs. spring soil NO₃–N during the third year of the study (29.0 \pm 1.2 vs. 29.8 \pm 0.6 kg N ha⁻¹) may have been influenced by limited N mineralization due to dry and cold conditions overwinter.

Spring soil NO_3-N was significantly affected by cover crop treatment in 2009 and 2011 (Table 6). In 2009, significant responses to individual and aggregated treatments were observed to a 0.6-m depth, whereas in 2011, only subsurface depths (>0.3 m) were affected by cover crop treatments (Table 6). Treatment effects on soil $NO₃–N$ were observed for the cumulative 0 to 0.9-m depth during both years for individual treatments and in 2009 for aggregated treatments.

Treatment effects on soil NO_3-N within individual depth increments generally followed trends across the 0- to 0.9-m depth, so results for the latter serve as a focus for this report. Individual cover crop treatments in 2009 were apportioned into three groups based on spring soil NO_3-N levels (Fig. 1), with the no cover crop

Fig. 1. Spring soil nitrate at 0 to 0.9 m for individual and aggregated cover crop treatments, 2009 to 2011. Years possessing a significant treatment response indicated with a P value. Baseline soil nitrate measured before seeding cover crops shown in green. Bars reflect standard error of the mean. Treatment acronyms: PTT, purple top turnip; PM, proso millet; ST, spring triticale; S, soybean; VP, vine pea; WC, winter canola; SF, sunflower; ALL, all cover crops;-PTT, ALL minus PTT;-PM, ALL minus PM;-ST, ALL minus ST;-S, All minus S;-VP, ALL minus VP;- WC, ALL minus WC;-SF, ALL minus SF;-PM&ST, ALL minus PM and ST;-S&VP, ALL minus S and VP;-WC&SF, ALL minus WC and SF.

Table 6. Summary of P values from analysis of variance for cover crop effects on spring soil $NO₃–N$ at multiple depths, 2009 to 2011. *P* values presented for comparisons across individual treatments as well as treatments aggregated by monocultures, mixtures, and a no cover crop control.

control and sunflower treatments highest (105–109 kg N ha⁻¹), purple top turnip lowest $(46 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1})$, and all other treatments intermediate (48–85 kg N ha⁻¹). In 2011, spring soil NO₃–N fell within a narrower range than in 2009, with significant differences limited to levels under sunflower (36 kg N ha^{-1}) being greater than under spring triticale $(24 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1}) (P = 0.0464)$. Individual cover crop treatments with numerically lower levels of spring soil $NO₃–N$ included purple-top turnip, ALL minus soybean, and ALL minus sunflower in 2009 (46–48 kg N ha⁻¹), proso millet, spring triticale, and ALL minus vine pea in 2010 $(31–41 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1})$, and spring triticale, winter canola, and ALL minus soybean in 2011 (23–27 kg N ha⁻¹). Spring soil NO_3-N differed among aggregated treatments only in 2009 (Fig. 1), where the no cover crop control had significantly greater soil $NO₃–N$ at 0 to 0.9 m (108.7 \pm 14.2 kg N ha⁻¹) compared to mixtures $(54.0 \pm 3.0 \text{ kg N ha}^{-1})$ (*P* = 0.0336).

When differences in spring soil $NO₃–N$ between the no cover crop control and individual treatments (as a surrogate of cover crop NO_3 –N uptake) were regressed against aboveground cover crop biomass, significant associations were observed during each year of the study $(r = 0.85, 0.50, \text{ and } 0.76 \text{ for first, second,})$ and third year of the study, respectively (all $P \le 0.05$; $n = 19$)). A similar outcome was observed when the same variables were regressed across all years (*r* = 0.74; *P* ≤ 0.0001; *n* = 57).

Table 8. Summary of P values from analysis of variance for nearsurface soil property comparisons between a seven-way cover crop mixture (ALL) and a no cover crop control, 2009 to 2011.

Soil property, 0-0.1 m	2009	2010	2011
Soil bulk density	0.1777	0.9707	0.0597
Soil pH	0.0927	0.3804	0.6838
Particulate organic matter C	0.8298	0.7774	0.9446
Microbial biomass C	0.3494	0.9881	0.6511

Soil coverage by residue did not differ among individual cover crop treatments or treatments aggregated by monocultures, mixtures, and a no cover crop control (Table 7). Mean soil coverage by residue was exceptionally high in each year of the study, ranging from 85 to 95%. The lowest soil coverage by residue was 58%, observed in 2009 within the vine pea treatment, which was still well above the 30% guideline used to define conservation tillage (Conservation Technology Information Center, 2015).

Near-surface soil properties did not differ between the sevenway cover crop mixture (ALL) and the no cover crop control (Table 8). Only in 2011 did a noticeable trend emerge, with slightly lower soil bulk density in the no cover crop control compared to the mixture (1.22 Mg m⁻³ vs. 1.25 Mg m⁻³; $P =$ 0.0597), presumably due to a lack of field operations (i.e., cover crop planting) in the former.

DIS CUSSION

Agroecosystems are increasingly looked on to provide ecosystem services beyond production of food, feed, fiber, and fuel (Syswerda and Robertson, 2014). Incorporation of cover crops in annual crop production systems represents an approach to potentially expand ecosystem services provided by agroecosystems (Schipanski et al., 2014). Quantifying agronomic and environmental responses following integration of cover crops in annual crop production systems is necessary to understand effects on ecosystem services. Moreover, identifying potential trade-offs among ecosystem services is an essential prerequisite to offering sound management recommendations for agricultural producers (Power, 2010).

Outcomes from this study suggest late-summer seeded cover crops in annual crop production systems in the northern Great Plains of North America can provide biomass production and N conservation. These attributes, characterized by provisioning and supporting ecosystem services, respectively, offer opportunities to producers to expand the traditional growing season while minimizing loss of important crop nutrients. However, as discussed below, there are notable caveats inherent to this region that require careful consideration before adopting this form of cover crop use.

Table 7. Soil coverage by residue immediately before seeding cash crop, 2009 to 2011. *P* values from analysis of variance represent treatment comparisons for individual and aggregated cover crop treatments.

† Cover crop treatments aggregated by monocultures, mixtures, and a no cover crop control.

Production of aboveground cover crop biomass was highly variable during the study. Cover crop seeding, done in mid-August, was inherently risky given limited availability of heat units before a killing frost. Mitigating this production risk may be achieved through the selection of cool-season cover crops within the selected planting timeframe, as biomass produced from warmseason monocultures in this study were consistently lowest among treatments. However, as observed in 2009, an absence of timely precipitation soon after seeding relegated all cover crops to negligible production. Dry conditions and mid-August seeding limited cover crop biomass production at one site under no-till management in western South Dakota (200–630 kg ha⁻¹; Reese et al., 2014), underscoring challenges producers face when considering use of late-seeded cover crops in this region.

Nitrogen conservation is frequently cited as an important role for cover crops in annual crop production systems (Dabney et al., 2010). Outcomes from this study supported this role, as cover crops were effective at scavenging available N in 2 of 3 yr across the 0.9-m soil depth. Regression analyses suggested N conservation benefits were proportional to aboveground cover crop biomass production, thereby underscoring the importance of selecting cover crops with a high probability of growth within a limited production window. Moreover, aboveground cover crop biomass production may serve as a surrogate for estimating the need for supplemental N to meet early growth requirements of cash crops, as mineralized N from cover crop biomass would likely not be available until later in the growing season (Crandall et al., 2005). Observation of N conservation benefits at lower (>0.3 m) soil depths suggests a potential N scavenging role by cover crop roots over-winter (Jewett and Thelen, 2007). Accordingly, additional research on nutrient and cover crop root dynamics seems warranted.

Deficient soil water frequently limits crop production in semiarid regions (Farahani et al., 1998). Inclusion of cover crops in semiarid dryland cropping systems can serve to decrease soil water availability to subsequent cash crops, thereby decreasing yields (Reese et al., 2014). Findings from this study suggest soil water uptake by late-summer seeded cover crops did not generate differences in soil water status compared to a no cover crop control the following spring. Only in 2008, when substantial production of aboveground cover crop biomass served to drawdown soil water in the surface 0.6 m, were differences in soil water status observed in the fall. Differences in soil water status among treatments disappeared by spring, and were likely caused by ample over-winter precipitation and effective snow-catch by standing biomass (Merrill et al., 2007).

Soil fertility represents a supporting ecosystem service that serves as a foundation for agricultural production (Millennium Ecosystem Assessment, 2005). While the suite of soil assessments measured in this study were far from inclusive, no short-term benefits to soil fertility were resolved with cover crop use. Management-induced improvements in near-surface soil properties typically occur slowly in dryland cropping systems (Mikha et al., 2006), yet soil degradation can result in a single growing season through increases in soil disturbance and/or reductions in soil cover (Gilley et al., 2001). Enhanced residue decomposition with cover crop use may contribute to reduced soil cover, as nutrient accumulation by and subsequent decomposition of cover crop biomass can enhance breakdown

of surface residue (Varela et al., 2014). Findings from this study suggest late-summer seeded cover crops did not significantly decrease soil coverage by residue, thereby inferring maintenance of an important regulating ecosystem service, erosion prevention.

Guiding hypotheses used for the study suggested pre-investigation inferences about soil responses and late-summer seeded cover crops were mixed. As reviewed above, soil responses to cover crops, while subtle overall, were associated with aboveground biomass production. Accordingly, the first hypothesis (soil responses to late-summer seeded cover crops will be associated with aboveground biomass production) was not rejected. The second hypothesis, focused on the frequency and degree of soil responses from cover crop mixtures and monocultures (presumed greater in the former), was rejected, as measured attributes in this study were not different between mixtures and monocultures. While cover crop mixtures may increase production stability, resilience, and resource-use efficiency compared to monocultures (Wortman et al., 2012a), resolving potential benefits to soil condition in the short-term remains elusive.

SU MMARY

A multi-year study was conducted near Mandan, ND, to investigate effects of late-summer seeded cover crops on soil attributes under no-till management. Cover crops were found to reduce soil $NO₃–N$ levels in the spring compared to a no cover crop control in 2 of 3 yr, thereby providing N conservation benefits within a semiarid dryland cropping system. Late-summer seeded cover crops had negligible effects on soil water status, and cover cropinduced deficiencies in soil water were not observed in the spring before seeding cash crops. No short-term cover crop effects were detected on near-surface soil properties or soil coverage by residue in this study. The degree and frequency of soil responses to cover crops were associated with aboveground biomass production, while effects of cover crop mixtures and monocultures on soil attributes were similar. Collectively, findings from this study suggest late-summer seeded cover crops in annual crop production systems in the northern Great Plains of North America can provide agronomic and environmental benefits through biomass production and N conservation, though achieving these benefits consistently appears dependent on timely precipitation following cover crop seeding.

ACKNOWLEDGMENTS

We acknowledge the contribution of the Area IV SCDs in North Dakota for providing land to conduct research reported in this manuscript. Robert Kolberg, Delmer Schlenker, Marvin Hatzenbuhler, Nicanor Saliendra, Mary Kay Tokach, Jason Gross, Holly Johnson, Heather Dose, Dawn Wetch, Becky Wald, and Gary Brucker provided excellent technical support during plot establishment and maintenance, sample collection, sample processing and analyses, and data summarization. We also acknowledge Jay Fuhrer (USDA-NRCS) and members of the Burleigh County SCD for helpful guidance before initiating the study. The U.S. Department of Agriculture (USDA) prohibits discrimination in all its programs and activities on the basis of race, color, national origin, age, disability, and where applicable, sex, marital status, family status, parental status, religion, sexual orientation, genetic information, political beliefs, reprisal, or because all or part of an individual's income is derived from any public assistance program. (Not all prohibited bases apply to all programs.) USDA is an equal opportunity

provider and employer. Mention of commercial products and organizations in this manuscript is solely to provide specific information. It does not constitute endorsement by USDA-ARS over other products and organizations not mentioned.

REFERENCES

- Acuña, J.C.M., and M.B. Villimil. 2014. Short-term effects of cover crops and compaction on soil properties and soybean production in Illinois. Agron. J. 106:860–870. doi:10.2134/agronj13.0370
- Army, T.J., and J.C. Hide. 1959. Effect of green manure on dryland wheat production in the Great Plain area of Montana. Agron. J. 51:196–198. doi:10.2134/agronj1959.00021962005100040004x
- Bailey, R.G. 1995. Description of the ecoregions of the United States. Misc. Publ. 1391. 2nd ed. USDA, Forest Serv., Washington, DC.
- Blackshaw, R.E., L.J. Molnar, and J.R. Moyer. 2010. Suitability of legume cover crop-winter wheat intercrops on the semi-arid Canadian prairies. Can. J. Plant Sci. 90:479–488. doi:10.4141/CJPS10006
- Blake, G.R., and K.H. Hartge. 1986. Bulk density. In: A. Klute, editor, Methods of soil analysis. Part1- Physical and mineralogical methods. 2nd ed. SSSA Book Ser. 5. SSSA and ASA, Madison, WI. p. 363–382.
- Conservation Technology Information Center (CTIC). 2015. Tillage type definitions. CTIC, West Lafeyette, IN. http://www.ctic.purdue.edu/resourcedisplay/322/ (accessed 9 Jan. 2015).
- Crandall, S.M., M.L. Ruffo, and G.A. Bollero. 2005. Cropping system and nitrogen dynamics under a cereal winter cover crop preceding corn. Plant Soil 268:209–219. doi:10.1007/s11104-004-0272-x
- Dabney, S., J. Delgado, J. Meisinger, H. Schomberg, M. Liebig, M. Kasper et al. 2010. Using cover crops and cropping systems for nitrogen management. In: J.A. Delgado and R.F. Follett, editors, Advances in nitrogen management for water quality. Soil and Water Conserv. Soc., Ankeny, IA. p. 231–282.
- Farahani, H.J., G.A. Peterson, and D.G. Westfall. 1998. Dryland cropping intensification: A fundamental solution to efficient use of precipitation. Adv. Agron. 64:197–223. doi:10.1016/S0065-2113(08)60505-2
- Franzluebbers, A.J., R.L. Haney, F.M. Hons, and D.A. Zuberer. 1999. Assessing biological soil quality with chloroform fumigationincubation: Why subtract a control? Can. J. Soil Sci. 79:521–528. doi:10.4141/S99-010
- Gardner, W.H. 1986. Water content. In: A. Klute, editor, Methods of soil analysis. Part 1–Physical and mineralogical methods. 2nd ed. SSSA Book Ser. 5. SSSA and ASA, Madison, WI. p. 493–544.
- Gilley, J.E., J.W. Doran, and B. Eghball. 2001. Tillage and fallow effects on selected soil quality characteristics of former conservation reserve program sites. J. Soil Water Conserv. 56:126–132.
- Gregorich, E.G., and B.H. Ellert. 1993. Light fraction and macroorganic matter in mineral soils. In: M.R. Carter, editor, Soil sampling methods and analysis. Can. Soc. Soil Sci. Lewis Publ., Boca Raton, FL. p. 397–407.
- Islam, K.R., and R.R. Weil. 1998. Microwave irradiation of soil for routine measurement of microbial biomass carbon. Biol. Fertil. Soils 27:408–416. doi:10.1007/s003740050451
- Jewett, M.R., and K.D. Thelen. 2007. Winter cereal cover crop removal strategy affects spring soil nitrate levels. J. Sustain. Agric. 29:55–67. doi:10.1300/J064v29n03_06
- Laflen, J.M., M. Amemiya, and E.A. Hintz. 1981. Measuring crop residue cover. J. Soil Water Conserv. 36:341–343.
- Littell, R.C., G.A. Milliken, W.W. Stroup, and R.D. Wolfinger. 1996. SAS system for mixed models. SAS Inst., Cary, NC.
- Lundgren, J.G., and J.K. Fergen. 2010. The effects of a winter cover crop on Diabrotica Virgifera (Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae) populations and beneficial arthropod communities in no-till maize. Environ. Entomol. 39:1816–1828. doi:10.1603/EN10041
- Merrill, S.D., D.L. Tanaka, J.M. Krupinsky, M.A. Liebig, and J.D. Hanson. 2007. Soil water depletion and recharge under ten crop species and applications to the principles of dynamic cropping systems. Agron. J. 99:931–938. doi:10.2134/agronj2006.0134s
- Mikha, M.M., M.F. Vigil, M.A. Liebig, R.A. Bowman, B. McConkey, E.J. Deibert, and J.L. Pikul, Jr. 2006. Cropping system influences on soil chemical properties and soil quality in the Great Plains. Renew. Agric. Food Syst. 21:26–35. doi:10.1079/RAFS2005123
- Millennium Ecosystem Assessment. 2005. Ecosystems and human wellbeing: Synthesis. Island Press, Washington, DC.
- Moyer, J.R., and R.E. Blackshaw. 2009. Fall-seeded cover crops after dry bean and potato in southern Alberta. Can. J. Plant Sci. 89:133–139. doi:10.4141/CJPS08038
- Mulvaney, R.L. 1996. Nitrogen–Inorganic forms. In: D.L. Sparks, editor, Methods of soil analysis. Part 3. Chemical methods. SSSA Book Ser. 5. SSSA and ASA, Madison, WI. p. 1123–1184.
- NDAWN. 2015. North Dakota Agricultural Weather Network. North Dakota State Univ., Fargo. http://ndawn.ndsu.nodak.edu/index. html (accessed 8 Jan. 2015).
- Paul, E.A., D. Harris, M.J. Klug, and R.W. Ruess. 1999. The determination of microbial biomass. In: G.P. Robertson, D.C. Coleman, C.S. Bledsoe, and P. Sollins, editors, Standard soil methods for long-term ecological research. Oxford Univ. Press, New York. p. 291–317.
- Power, A.G. 2010. Ecosystem services and agriculture: Tradeoffs and synergies. Philos. Trans. R. Soc. Lond., B 365:2959–2971. doi:10.1098/ rstb.2010.0143
- Reese, C.L., D.E. Clay, S.A. Clay, A.D. Bich, A.C. Kennedy, S.A. Hansen, and J. Moriles. 2014. Winter cover crops impact on corn production in semiarid regions. Agron. J. 106:1479–1488. doi:10.2134/ agronj13.0540
- Rogler, G.A., R.J. Lorenz, and H.M. Schaaf. 1962. Progress with grass. Bull. 439. North Dakota Agric. Exp. Stn., Fargo.
- Sarvis, J.T., and J.C. Thysell. 1936. Crop rotation and tillage experiments at the Northern Great Plains Field Station, Mandan, N. Dak. Tech. Bull. 536. USDA, Washington, DC.
- Schipanski, M.E., M.E. Barbercheck, M.R. Douglas, D.M. Finney, K. Haider, J.P. Kaye et al. 2014. A framework for evaluating multifunctionality of cover crops in agroecosystems. Agric. Syst. 125:12–22. doi:10.1016/j.agsy.2013.11.004
- Snapp, S.S., S.M. Swinton, R. Labarta, D. Mutch, J.R. Black, R. Leep, J. Nyiraneza, and K. O'Neil. 2005. Evaluating cover crops for benefits, costs and performance within cropping system niches. Agron. J. 97:322–332.
- Syswerda, S.P., and G.P. Robertson. 2014. Ecosystem services along a management gradient in Michigan (USA) cropping systems. Agric. Ecosyst. Environ. 189:28–35. doi:10.1016/j.agee.2014.03.006
- Tilman, D. 1999. The ecological consequences of changes in biodiversity: A search for general principles. Ecology 80:1455–1474.
- Varela, M.F., C.M. Scianca, M.A. Taboada, and G. Rubio. 2014. Cover crop effects on soybean residue decomposition and P release in no-tillage systems of Argentina. Soil Tillage Res. 143:59–66. doi:10.1016/j.still.2014.05.005
- Watson, M.E., and J.R. Brown. 1998. pH and lime requirement. In: J.R. Brown, editor, Recommended chemical soil test procedures for the North Central Region. NCR Publ. 221 (revised). Bull. SB1001. Missouri Agric. Exp. Stn., Columbia. p. 13–16.
- Wortman, S.E., C.A. Francis, M.L. Bernards, R.A. Drijber, and J.L. Lindquist. 2012a. Optimizing cover crop benefits with diverse mixtures and an alternative termination method. Agron. J. 104:1425– 1435. doi:10.2134/agronj2012.0185
- Wortman, S.E., C.A. Francis, and J.L. Lundquist. 2012b. Cover crop mixtures for the western Corn Belt: Opportunities for increased productivity and stability. Agron. J. 104:699–705. doi:10.2134/ agronj2011.0422