

Best Management Practices



Agricultural Nitrogen Management

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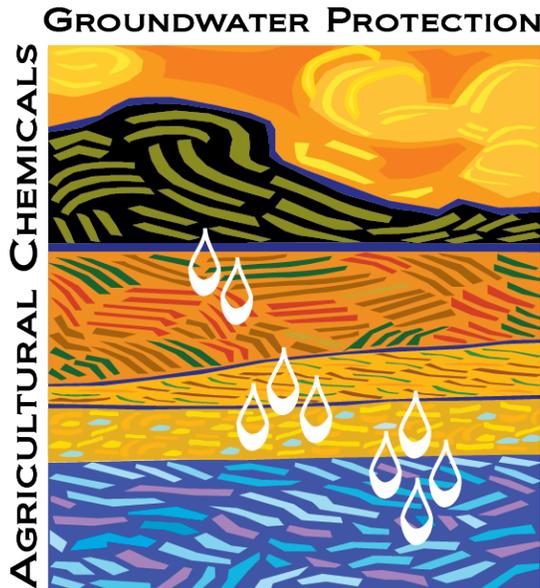
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Nitrogen (N) is the essential plant element that most frequently limits crop production. Commercial N fertilizers, manure and compost, are a cost-effective means of supplementing soil supplied N for plant growth and are typically necessary for sustaining high crop yields. However, it has been documented that improper or excessive use of N sources can lead to nitrate pollution of ground or surface water. Both urban and rural fertilizer applicators can minimize this problem by implementing Best Management Practices (BMPs) for N use.

Managing the amount, form, placement, and timing of N application are the most practical and acceptable approaches to minimizing ground and surface water contamination resulting from fertilizer use. In Colorado, the use of fertilizers by both urban and rural applicators may be regulated under the Agricultural Chemicals and Groundwater Protection Act (C.R.S. 25-8-205.5) if the Colorado Department of Agriculture finds voluntary measures insufficient to protect groundwater. Therefore, applicators need to evaluate the nitrate leaching potential of fields where fertilizer is used and voluntarily adopt BMPs to protect water quality.

The Nitrogen Cycle

While fertilizer use efficiency has greatly improved in U.S. agriculture the last 30 years, it is estimated that about 30% of N applied to crops is lost through leaching, volatilization, or denitrification. These losses are estimated to be even higher during wet years. Leaching is the major problem on coarse-textured soils, while denitrification is the primary pathway on poorly drained clay soils. While a certain amount of loss is unavoidable, producers can gain economic and environmental benefits by minimizing losses and maximizing crop uptake.

To fully understand the transformation and movement of N in the environment, some knowledge of the N cycle is needed. Nitrogen in the soil is commonly found in the form of organic N in the soil humus, ammonium (NH_4), nitrate (NO_3), or in a gaseous form (NH_3 , N_2). Nitrogen in soil organic matter may be converted to the ammonium form

THE BMP APPROACH

The Colorado Legislature passed C.R.S. 25-8-205.5 in 1990, which established authority for the Agricultural Chemicals and Groundwater Protection Program. The mandate of this program is: **“to protect groundwater and the environment from impairment or degradation due to the improper use of agricultural chemicals while allowing for their proper and correct use”**. The approach is to promote the voluntary adoption of Best Management Practices. Voluntary adoption of BMPs by agricultural chemical users will help prevent contamination of water resources, improve public perception of the agricultural industry, and perhaps eliminate the need for regulation and mandatory controls.

BMPs are recommended methods, structures, or practices designed to prevent or reduce water pollution. Implicit within the BMPs concept is a voluntary, site-specific approach to water quality problems. Development of BMPs in Colorado has been accomplished largely at the local level, with significant input from chemical applicators and other local experts. Many of these methods are already standard practices, known to be both environmentally and economically beneficial.

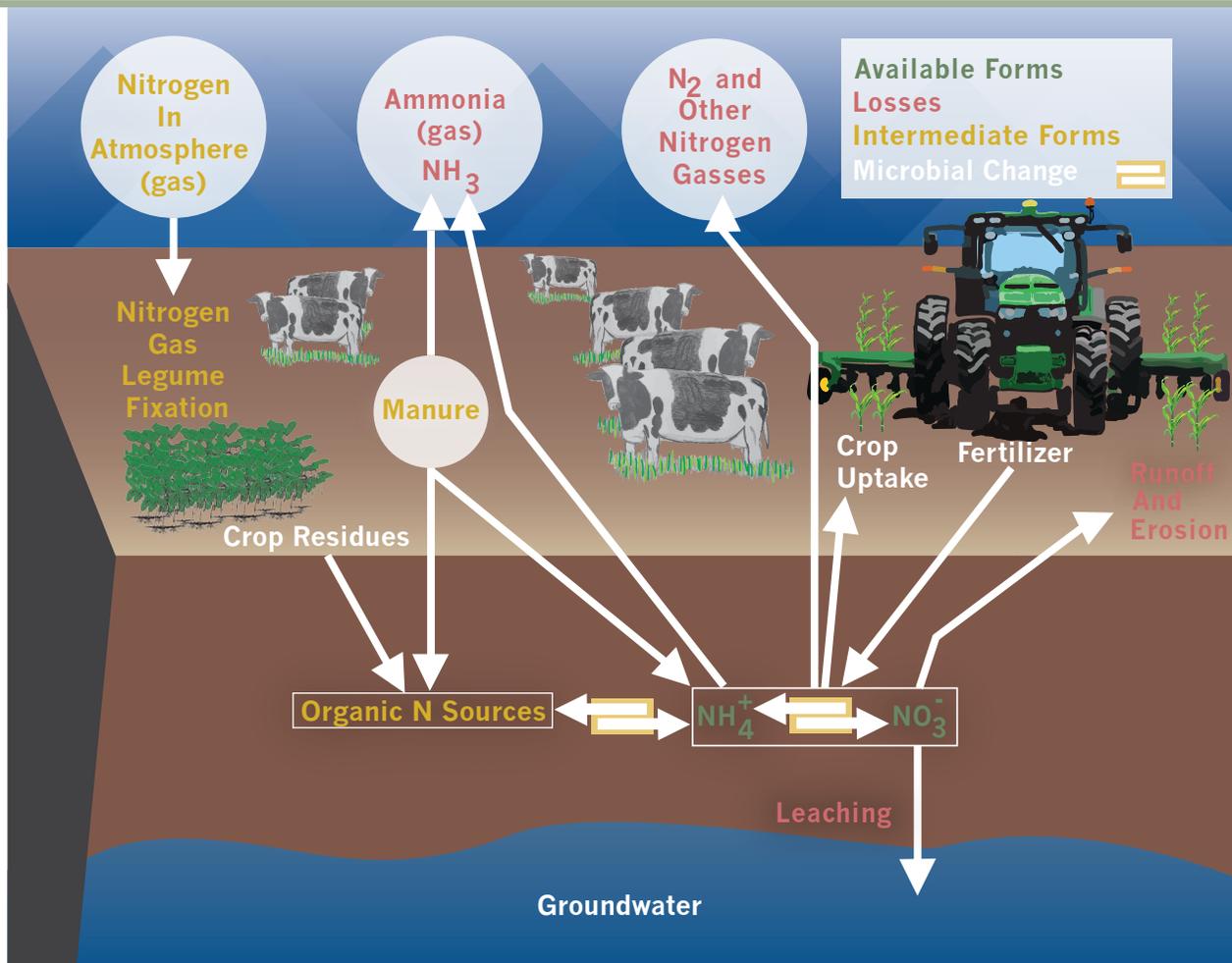


Figure 1. The nitrogen cycle in soils. Nitrogen is dynamic in the soil environment and can exist in many forms.

by a biological process called mineralization. The ammonium form is converted to nitrate by another biological process called nitrification (Figure 1). Fertilizer N, whether organic or inorganic, is biologically transformed to nitrate, which is highly leachable. The speed of this transformation is determined by soil temperature and moisture, but will eventually occur in any well-drained agricultural soil. Plants will absorb and utilize both ammonium and nitrate. Therefore, producers need to match N applications to crop uptake patterns to minimize nitrate leaching and maximize efficiency.

Nitrate in Colorado Groundwater

Nitrate (NO₃) is a naturally occurring form of N that is highly soluble in water and may cause health problems if ingested in large amounts. A number of sources of nitrate exist, including manure, septic and municipal effluent, decomposing soil organic matter, and N fertilizer. High nitrate levels in drinking water can cause methemoglobinemia, or

“blue baby syndrome,” a condition primarily seen in very young infants and farm animals. Although reports of methemoglobinemia are extremely rare, the U.S. EPA has established a safe drinking water standard of 10 parts per million (ppm) of nitrate-nitrogen for community drinking water supplies.

Colorado’s highly varied geography, land use, geology, climate and soils make predicting nitrate contamination of groundwater difficult. Therefore, the Agricultural Chemicals and Groundwater Protection Program (the Groundwater Program) has sampled groundwater in Colorado since 1992. As of December 2016, the Groundwater Program has collected over 3,600 samples from nearly 1,300 wells. Most of these samples were collected in areas of the state with extensive irrigated agricultural production. Wells in urban, suburban, and nonagricultural rural areas have also been sampled, but at a lower frequency. The Groundwater Program samples wells that are used for domestic, livestock, and irrigation purposes, and wells that were installed

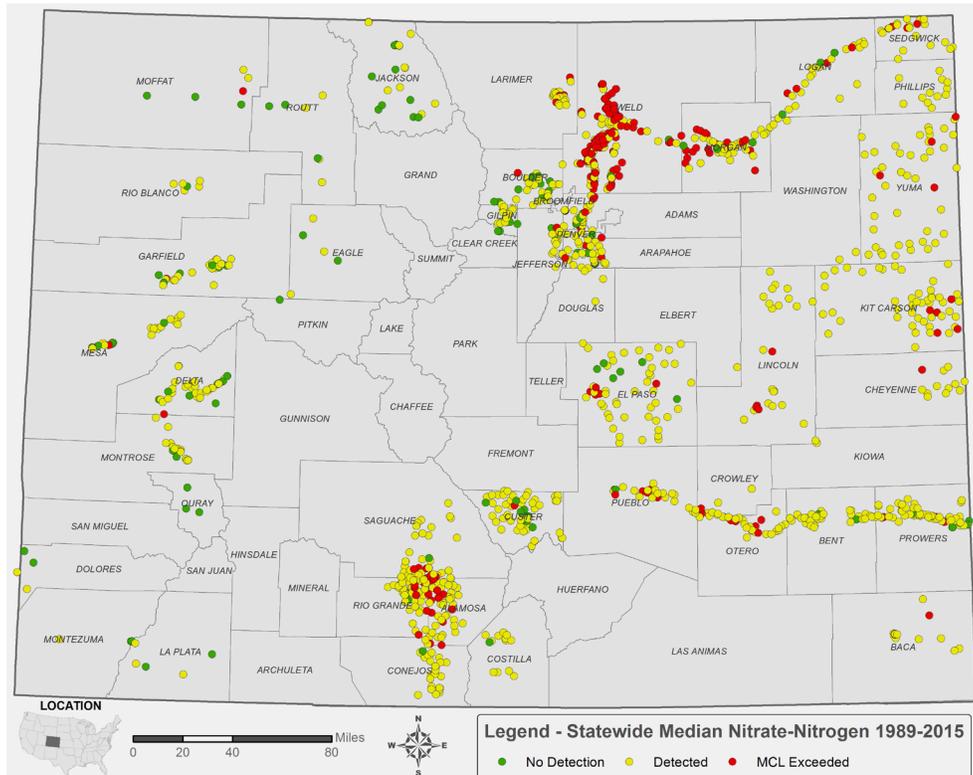


Figure 2. Groundwater nitrate detections in Colorado from monitoring conducted by the Groundwater Program. Detections in yellow are nitrate at levels from 0.1 to 9.9 ppm nitrate-nitrogen. Nitrate above the Maximum Contamination Level (MCL) are samples exceeding 10 ppm nitrate-nitrogen.

specifically for groundwater monitoring.

Statewide, the Groundwater Program’s monitoring results from 1992 to 2015 have found detectable levels of nitrate in 95% of the wells sampled. However, the nitrate concentration was below the U.S. EPA drinking water standard of 10 ppm nitrate-nitrogen in 77% of the wells, but greater than the standard in 23% of wells. As shown in Figure 2, nitrate contamination of groundwater is most extensive in the shallow alluvial aquifer along the S. Platte River and in the unconfined aquifer in the San Luis Valley. These areas have a significant number of wells with nitrate-nitrogen concentrations above the drinking water standard of 10 ppm. Nitrate has also been found at elevated levels in scattered portions of the Arkansas Valley, the High Plains, and along the Urban Corridor. Full results of the Groundwater Program’s monitoring efforts are available in an interactive, online database at: http://erams.com/co_groundwater/

Groundwater Vulnerability to Nitrate Leaching

Groundwater monitoring has also shown that there is significant variability in Colorado’s groundwater with respect to nitrate concentration. This variability is partially due to the extreme spatial differences in the application of N containing fertilizers, biosolids, and manures in Colorado and in the location and quantity of groundwater resources. Thus, certain combinations of land use and hydrogeologic factors cause some areas to be more vulnerable to nitrate leaching than others. Figure 3 was produced using five factors that influence aquifer vulnerability to nitrate on a regional scale: aquifer locations, depth to water, soil drainage class (texture and slope), land use, and recharge availability. The validity of the map was checked using data similar to Figure 2.

Vulnerability is commonly described as the relative ease with which a contaminant can migrate to an aquifer under a given set of agronomic management practices and aquifer sensitivity

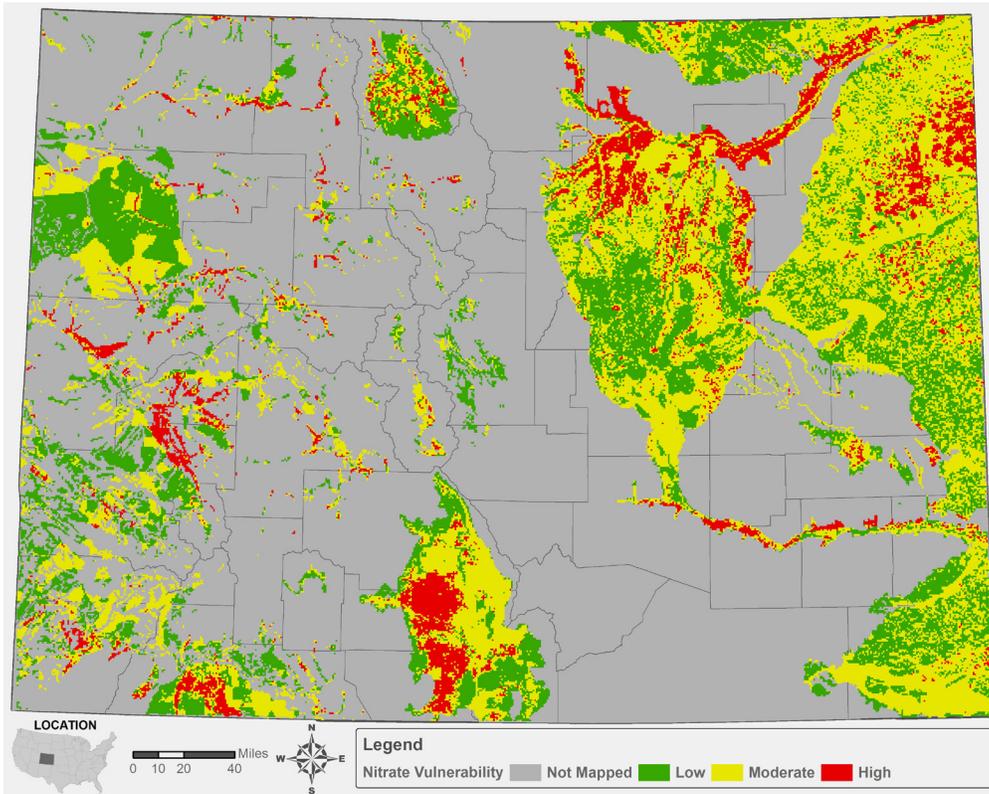


Figure 3. Vulnerability of Colorado’s groundwater to nitrate contamination as mapped by Cepelch, et al, 2004.

conditions. Areas where groundwater is less vulnerable to nitrate contamination may not require the same level of management as areas with high vulnerability. Figure 3 shows these vulnerability differences and areas that may need higher levels of N management to prevent contamination of groundwater. A quick comparison of Figures 2 and 3 shows that many of the areas mapped as highly vulnerable are also regions with significant nitrate contamination. However, nitrate contamination can and has occurred in places where groundwater is not mapped as vulnerable and not all highly vulnerable groundwater is contaminated. These discrepancies can be partially explained by the management of N fertilizer and manure, which is why it is important to assess leaching hazard at the field scale and adjust management practices accordingly.

Determining Field Scale Leaching Hazard

Leaching potential of a given site depends upon soil properties, management, irrigation, and climatic factors. Depth to groundwater and the overlying geologic material determine the contamination potential of an aquifer. Due to the site-specific

nature of these properties, applicators should determine the relative leaching hazard of each application site in order to select the appropriate BMPs (Table 1).

Leaching hazard can be ranked as severe, moderate, or slight by simultaneously considering soil characteristics, irrigation method, and aquifer vulnerability. Those operators with sites that have a severe leaching potential and a shallow water table (<25 feet deep) should select appropriate BMPs to decrease leaching hazard. Operators working under moderate leaching conditions should assess what particular practices may cause future groundwater contamination and make

the necessary changes to reduce any groundwater quality problems. Operators with uncontaminated groundwater and slight leaching hazard should continue observing good management practices. Table 1 can help operators evaluate the potential leaching hazard of their particular sites.

Information on the depth to the water table and water quality can be obtained through several sources, if not currently known. All rural well owners are strongly encouraged to periodically have a water sample analyzed by a qualified laboratory. The website provided on the previous page provides localized groundwater quality and depth in some cases, as well as the nitrate vulnerability map in Figure 3. Experienced local well drillers also have knowledge of local groundwater conditions. Agencies such as the Natural Resources Conservation Service (NRCS), CSU Extension, and others can frequently provide information to help you evaluate groundwater vulnerability at your site.

In some cases, soil type and a shallow water table combine to create a very high leaching potential. For example, if the soil at a given site is coarse

Table 1. Potential leaching hazard as predicted by soil type¹, aquifer depth², and irrigation method *

Irrigation method	Aquifer Depth and Condition		
	Shallow or contaminated	Deep or uncontaminated	Aquifer properties unknown
Flood or conventional furrow with efficiency < 60%	Coarse soil: Severe Fine soil: Moderate	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight	Coarse soil: Severe Fine soil: Moderate
Sprinkler or surge furrow with efficiency > 60%	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight
Dryland or drip irrigation	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight	Coarse soil: Slight Fine soil: Slight	Coarse soil: Moderate Fine soil: Slight
<p>Severe leaching hazard: Operators should implement all appropriate BMPs. Moderate leaching hazard: Operators should evaluate fertilizer use and apply appropriate BMPs. Slight leaching hazard: Operators should continue to use fertilizers according to recommendations and good management procedures.</p>			

¹ Soil texture breakdown: Coarse soil is soil with >35% sand and <30% clay including sand, loamy sand, sandy loam, sandy clay loam, or loam soil. If greater than a third of the field contains these coarse-textured soils, the entire field should be considered coarse in this rating scale. Fine-textured soil includes all soils not listed above.

² Shallow groundwater is defined here as <25 feet below the soil surface. Contaminated refers to aquifers yielding water with > 10 ppm nitrate-nitrogen or any detection of pesticide.

* For more detailed information about your site and soils, contact your local USDA Natural Resources Conservation Service office.

textured, and depth to the water table is less than 10 feet, it is recommended that shallow-rooted crops not be grown under conventional furrow irrigation. Deeper rooted crops and higher efficiency irrigation methods are necessary for these conditions.

Another tool to help growers and their advisers assess nitrate leaching risk is the Colorado Nitrogen Leaching Index Risk Assessment available through the NRCS and at <http://waterquality.colostate.edu>. This risk tool combines field level factors such as soil type and irrigation efficiency with N application rates and management practices to help better define nitrate leaching risk.

Nitrogen in Surface Water

Along with phosphorus, excess N can cause water quality concerns for lakes, rivers, and streams. Currently in Colorado surface water, are regulated nutrients by Regulation No. 85. To learn more about this regulation and potential impacts to agriculture see coloradoagnutrients.org. Unlike groundwater, N in surface water can occur in several different forms besides nitrate. Nitrogen can move to surface water in soluble forms such as nitrate, ammonium, and dissolved organic N, but also as total N in particulate

forms and attached to sediment and organic matter. Reducing irrigation and precipitation induced runoff and sediment losses from fields can significantly reduce N movement and potential contamination concerns.

Nitrogen Management Practices to Protect Water Quality

While soil, climatic, and geologic characteristics of the site strongly influence leaching potential, management practices ultimately determine the amount and extent of N leaching. Proper nutrient management includes:

- Correct accounting for crop N needs according to a realistic yield goal; and
- applying appropriate inputs as determined by N budget (see N worksheet) (right rate); and
- applying N when (right time) and where (right place) it can be used most efficiently by the crop; and
- applying the right form of N fertilizer or organic source for the crop and soil conditions.

These practices will assure that residual soil NO₃ is minimized. The following management practices

will help producers and fertilizer applicators maximize economic returns from fertilizer dollars while protecting water quality.

Soil Testing

Soil testing is a very important BMP for determining plant nutrient needs. Yearly sampling of each field is necessary to make accurate N fertilizer recommendations. The key to good soil test results is proper sampling protocol. Each sample should contain 12 to 20 cores of soil from a reasonably uniform area of approximately 40 acres. Large fields should be broken into sampling units based upon crop, yield, and fertilizer histories. Deep soil sampling for residual nitrate is requisite to precise fertilizer recommendations and provides producers season end information regarding crop N use and N remaining for next year's crop. Depending upon crops, sampling to a depth of two to three feet is recommended for all soil types.

Realistic Yield Goals

Setting realistic yield goals is also a very important BMP. N Fertilizer recommendations are based upon a yield goal submitted by producers with their soil samples. Overestimating yield goals results in excess N applications, leading to loss of farm income and potential groundwater contamination. For example, applying enough fertilizer for a 200 bu/A corn crop, when other conditions such as limited irrigation water will only allow a 150 bu/A yield, can result in 60-70 lb/A of excess N being applied. Rather than project a **yield goal**, it is recommended that producers establish a **yield expectation** based upon historical yield averages.

Yield expectations must be established on a field-by-field basis. The five most recent yield averages for each field should represent an obtainable yield. If a recent crop has been lost to hail or other disaster, that year's yield should be omitted from the average. Colorado State University suggests that a producer add 5% to the five-year yield average and use this value as the yield expectation. If the crop season and growing conditions appear to be above average, producers can adjust N rates upward at sidedressing or by applying N through irrigation water. In-season soil or plant tissue analysis may

Table 2. Nitrogen credits for crop requirements

Crop		lb N/A credit*
Alfalfa	> 80% stand	100 - 140
	60 - 80% stand	60 - 100
	0 - 60% stand	0 - 60
Sweet clover and red clover		80% of credit for alfalfa
Dry beans		30
Sugar beets**		50
Manure		lb N/ton credit***
	dry basis	wet
Beef	10	5 (at 70% DM****)
Dairy	15	7 - 12 (at 50% DM)
Poultry	25	25 (at 75% DM)
Swine		2 - 8 (at 20% DM)
Sheep		5 - 10 (at 70% DM)
Irrigation Water		2.7 x ppm NO ₃ -N x AF Water
*For the second year, use ½ of the first year N credit.		
**Sugar beets are included due to the incorporation of beet tops. They are not a legume crop.		
***For the second and third years, use ½ and ¼ of the first year N credits, respectively.		
****Dry matter.		

Calculation 1. Irrigation water N credit

Example:

30 inches of water applied containing 7 ppm NO₃-N

12 ppm NO₃-N x 2.7 lb N/AF x 15 inches applied/A = 40.5 lb N/A

(12 inches/AF)

be used to determine if additional N is required. The key to setting realistic yield expectations is to base them on actual field averages plus a modest increase for improved management and good growing conditions.

Nitrogen Credits from Sources other than Commercial Fertilizer

Soil organic matter, irrigation water, manure, and previous legume crops all contribute N to the growing crop. The N contribution from these sources

must be credited in order to make accurate fertilizer recommendations. Table 2 suggests average credits from various sources of N.

Legume Credit

Legume crops can be a very significant source of plant available N due to bacterial N₂ fixation in root nodules. Plowing down a full stand of alfalfa will release as much as 100 pounds of N per acre in the first year after plowdown. The amount of N credit given for legumes depends upon the crop, stand, and degree of nodulation. A minimum of 30 lb N/acre should be credited in the first year after any legume crop.

Irrigation Water

Irrigation water containing nitrate can supply N to the crop since it is applied and taken up as the crop is actively growing. Water tests for nitrate should be taken annually to accurately calculate this credit, especially in areas of high nitrate. Multiply ppm nitrate by 2.7 lb/AF times the amount of effective water applied (in feet) to the crop to determine pounds of N per acre applied in the irrigation water. For grain crops, only credit N applied during the vegetative growth period (prior to tasseling or anthesis). Inexpensive quick tests are available for on-farm water testing. If a water sample is taken for laboratory analysis, it should be kept cool, but not frozen, until it gets to the lab.

Manure and Biosolids

Manure is an excellent plant nutrient source, but excessive manure applications can result in water pollution from soil buildup of N and P. Several areas of high nitrate in Colorado groundwater have a high density of confined animal feeding operations. Thus proper manure application is critical to prevent nitrate losses from manured fields. Manure application rates should be based on crop requirements for N unless soil test P levels and the Colorado Phosphorus Risk Index suggest that a P based application rate assessment.

Manure is a highly variable material based upon animal type, diet, storage, and age. For best results, manure should be analyzed prior to application

to determine nutrient content. In the absence of an accurate manure analysis, utilize table values supplied by NRCS or Extension (Table 2) to determine a manure N credit. Incorporate as soon as possible to preserve the ammonia (NH₄-N) fraction and to prevent runoff losses. Frequently manured fields should be sampled annually to monitor N and P accumulation. For more information on the nutrient value of manure, refer to Manure Utilization: Best Management Practices, Bulletin 568A. Subsequent manure application rates should be determined by factoring the previous application to avoid excess nutrient loading.

Biosolids (sewage sludge) is another valuable source of plant nutrients that must be properly used to avoid environmental problems. In Colorado, the land application of municipal biosolids is regulated by the Colorado Department of Public Health & Environment (Biosolids Regulation 4.9.0) and restrictions are in place to prevent ground or surface water contamination. While application rates may be limited by heavy metal content of the biosolids or P content of the soil, crop N requirements typically set the appropriate biosolids application rate. However, biosolids application rates can exceed actual crop N uptake when crop yields are significantly lower than anticipated. Biosolids acts as a slow release N source and can cause a buildup of soil nitrate levels over time if N uptake is lower than estimated. For this reason, producers using biosolids should use deep soil testing and biosolids analysis to adjust application rates over time. Crop N uptake should be calculated using



Figure 4. Nitrogen credits from sources such as previous legume crops or irrigation water nitrate will reduce fertilizer requirements.

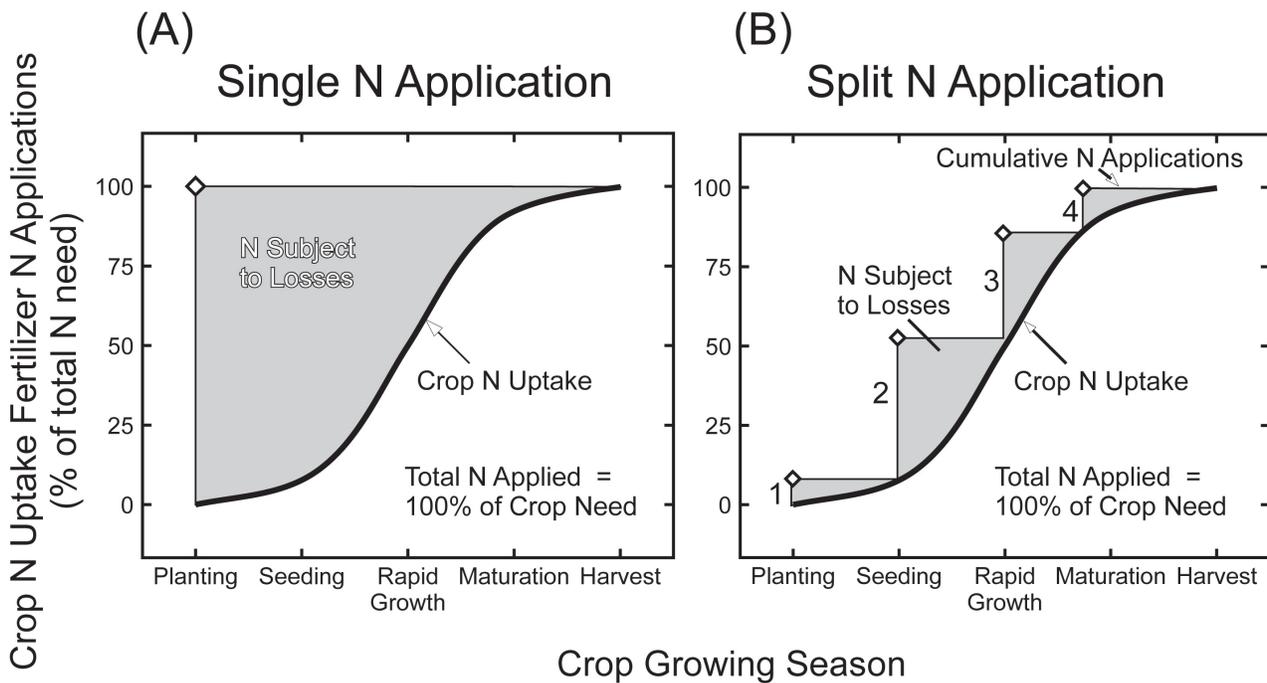


Figure 4. Applying nitrogen in smaller increments immediately before and during the crop season (B) will improve uptake efficiency and reduce the potential for losses as compared to pre-plant (A) applications.

realistic yield estimates and crediting all available N sources. The amount of N released in the first year following application can vary from about 20 to 33 % of the organic N in eastern Colorado. Research by Colorado State University found that 3 dry tons/A of anaerobically digested biosolids allowed for similar or better yields than 50 to 60 lbs/A of commercial fertilizer following decades of application to dryland winter wheat.

Fertilizer Placement and Timing

Proper timing and optimal fertilizer placement

Nitrogen use efficiency according to timing of application	
Highest	Sprinkler applied during rapid growth
	Sidedress just before rapid growth
	Post-plant incorporated
	Pre-plant incorporated
Lowest	Fall application for next year's crop

can greatly enhance plant uptake of N. Subsurface applied or incorporated fertilizer is much less subject to surface losses than surface broadcast fertilizer. Band applied fertilizer can be placed in closer proximity to plant roots. All surface applied fertilizers should be incorporated to reduce runoff

and volatilization. In furrow irrigated cropland, alternate furrow irrigation used with ridge banded fertilizer can significantly reduce downward

CONSIDER THE FOUR 'R'S IN YOUR NITROGEN FERTILIZATION PROGRAM:

- **Right Amount** – N rate determined by crop requirement for appropriate yield goal, soil testing, and nutrient credits.
- **Right Time** – Time N application to maximize plant uptake and reduce losses.
- **Right Place** – N application techniques to reduce runoff, leaching, and volatilization losses.
- **Right Source** – Consider time-released fertilizers for situations with higher likelihood of N loss to the environment.

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movement of N. Application of N through high efficiency irrigation systems such as center pivot or surge systems at periods of maximum crop uptake will increase N use efficiency. It is not recommended that N be applied through low efficiency furrow or flood systems due to runoff and deep percolation losses. Surface application of fertilizer or manure on frozen or snow-covered sloping fields should also be avoided.

Fertilizer applications should be timed to coincide as closely as possible to the period of maximum crop uptake. Fall applied N fertilizer has been shown to cause groundwater degradation in areas of high fall and winter precipitation. It should be avoided on spring planted crops in situations with severe potential leaching hazard (Table 1). There may be economic and management benefits to applying N in the fall, but the environmental risks make this a poor choice on coarse-textured soils or in situations where preplant irrigation is necessary. Partial application of N in the spring, followed by sidedress application, improves crop N uptake efficiency and reduces N available for leaching (Figure 4). Waiting until the crop is well established before applying large amounts of N reduces early season losses and allows producers to more accurately determine the crop yield potential. Poor stands, poor weed control, and below average precipitation are good reasons to adjust N rates downward at sidedress time. Conversely, exceptional conditions warrant increased N at sidedress. This type of managerial flexibility offers producers economic benefits and helps maintain water quality.

Nitrogen Fertilizer Forms

Table 3. Approximate rooting depths for selected crops at maturity.

Crop	Root Depth at Maturity (ft)
Corn	3-5
Small grains	3-5
Onions	1-2
Sugarbeet	5-6
Sunflower	5-6
Alfalfa	8-15
Dry beans	2-3

Nitrate (NO_3) forms of N fertilizer are readily available to crops, but are subject to leaching losses. Nitrate forms should not be applied in large amounts when the leaching hazard is moderate to high. Ammonium (NH_4) N forms, such as urea or anhydrous ammonia, are preferred in these situations because they are not subject to immediate leaching. However, under warm, moist soil conditions, transformation of ammonia to nitrate occurs rapidly. Other more slowly available N sources are commercially available and should be used where they are economically feasible. Improvements in slow or controlled release fertilizer technology have made these products more cost effective in a wider variety of cropping situations than in the past.

Nitrification inhibitors can be used to delay the conversion of NH_4 to NO_3 under certain conditions. Farmers should consider using nitrification inhibitors

IRRIGATION SCHEDULING

- Applying the right amount of water at the right time to prevent crop stress and avoid over-irrigation
- Is critical to both water conservation and N management.
- Soil moisture approaches include hand probes or sensors to provide information on soil water depletion, distribution, and irrigation water requirements
- Water balance approaches use crop evapotranspiration (ET) reports to confirm field measurements and predict future irrigation needs
- An easy to use, online scheduling tool, the Water Irrigation Scheduler for Efficiency (WISE), is available at wise.colostate.edu

when it is not feasible to use split applications or other management techniques on highly leachable soils. Nitrification inhibitors should not be used as a substitute for following other BMPs, but they can reduce leaching, and improve nitrogen use efficiency under certain situations.

Plant Analysis and Sensors

Plant analysis and sensing during the growing season is another practice to help assess nutrient sufficiency in the growing plant. While nutrient deficiencies are often visibly apparent, excess nutrient levels can only be determined by plant tissue analysis. This technology offers producers the ability to apply lower rates of N preplant, and to monitor and adjust plant nutrient status throughout the growing season. Plant analysis, when properly used, offers producers insurance that careful N management will not negatively affect yields.

New technologies for sensing plant N status, combined with global positioning systems (GPS) and variable rate controllers, allow for the added benefit of changing N application rates within a field to account for field variability. While evolving, sensor technology has provided another tool for more precise N application rates, particularly on variable fields.

Irrigation Management

Colorado's semi-arid climate normally results in little off-season leaching of soil nitrate. Under dryland agriculture, the most significant water quality impacts are usually from soil erosion and subsequent nutrient enrichment of surface water. Irrigated crop

production has the greatest potential to cause groundwater contamination due to the large volume of water applied. Nutrients leached below the crop root zone are lost to the system and may become pollutants. Crop root zone depth will vary by soil type, irrigation method, and management (Table 3). Therefore, conscientious management of irrigation water is critical to proper N management.



Figure 5. Nitrogen losses can be minimized through irrigation water management that bases water application timing and amount on crop needs.

Increasing irrigation efficiency and uniformity reduces the amount of water drained through the soil, and decreases the amount of nitrate and other contaminants leached. A number of technologies allow producers to apply water uniformly, and help to determine the optimum timing and amount of water to be applied. Among these are irrigation systems such as improved and properly designed sprinkler systems, furrow irrigation with surge valves, and drip. Delivery systems such as lined ditches and gated pipe, as well as reuse systems such as tailwater recovery ponds, can greatly enhance overall efficiency. Shortening irrigation run lengths on coarse-textured soils can

decrease deep percolation and leaching. Laser leveling of fields, irrigation scheduling according to soil water depletion and plant needs, and conservation tillage methods can also significantly decrease irrigation requirements. Proper irrigation scheduling, coupled with efficient irrigation systems, are among the most important BMPs to reduce nitrate leaching.

Improving irrigation water application efficiency through conversion to sprinklers or drip systems is also very effective in reducing runoff losses. For surface or furrow irrigation, adjusting flow rates, shortening set times, and surging water can increase

efficiency. Where allowed, tail water ponds or reuse systems can be effective in capturing sediment and nutrients before they reach surface water bodies.

The greatest risk for irrigation or rainfall water to pick up N from fertilizer or manure and move it off site, is during the first event after a fertilizer application, especially in surface or shallow band applications. Fertilizer placement and incorporation is important and irrigation water should be managed carefully at these times to reduce losses of valuable nutrients. Conservation tillage, residue management, and vegetative filter strips are other options to help increase infiltration and reduce nutrient runoff and sediment losses. In furrow irrigated fields, avoid banding fertilizer in the bottom of the furrow where irrigation water can easily dissolve and move fertilizer N.

Other N Management Tools

Although proper N rates and good irrigation management are the most critical components of N management, there are other tools that should also be considered. Proper calibration and maintenance of fertilizer equipment is essential to get uniform distribution of fertilizer at the correct rate. Crop rotation can be beneficial by minimizing total fertilizer and pesticide needs. Often, yield improvement and economic benefits are achieved through a good rotation plan that takes advantage of better pest control, soil tilth, and N fixation by legumes. Deep rooted crops can be used to scavenge N left in the subsoil by shallow rooted crops. Finally, cover crops are beneficial in preventing wind and water erosion, and they can use residual N in the soil profile.

Guidance Principle: Manage nitrogen applications to maximize crop growth and economic return while protecting water quality.

To select the nitrogen BMPs that achieve water quality goals for your operation, consider:

- potential leaching hazard of the application site
- overall costs and benefits
- short-term and long-term effects on water quality
- most suitable practices to your site and your farm management plan.

General BMPs

N.1 Base nitrogen fertilizer rates on results from soil analysis, as well as irrigation water and plant analysis when appropriate, using environmentally and economically sound guidelines.

N.2 Analyze soil samples for each field. As a guideline, sample depth should be at least two to three feet, preferably to the depth of the effective root zone.

N.3 Establish realistic crop yield expectations for each crop and field based upon soil properties, available moisture, yield history, and management level. Yield expectations should be based upon established crop yields for each field, plus a reasonable increase (5% suggested) for good management and growing conditions.

N.4 Manage irrigation water to maximize efficiency and minimize leaching and excessive runoff by meeting the Irrigation BMPs or the NRCS approved Irrigation Water Management practice standard and specification.

N.5 Identify fields with severe leaching potential or severe surface loss potential. Employ all appropriate BMPs on these fields to reduce nutrient movement to water.

N.6 Develop a yearly N management plan for each field and crop. The plan should include, at a minimum:

- a. the previous crop, variety, and yield;
- b. the current crop, variety, and expected yield;
- c. current soil test analysis data showing the amount of available N in the soil;

- d. an estimate of the amount of N available from soil organic matter, manure, compost, biosolids, previous legume crops, or other crop residue to become available during the crop growth period;
- e. the amount of supplemental N to be applied to meet expected crop yield. This includes N from chemical fertilizers, manures, organic wastes, irrigation water, and other sources;
- f. special management practices needed to reduce N leaching. These include timing of application, multiple applications such as sidedressing, banding, foliar feeding, fertigation, stable forms of N, nitrification or urease inhibitors, or needed changes in crops or crop sequence; and
- g. maintain N application records for at least three years. (See Nitrogen Management Record Sheet for possible format.)

Nitrogen Application BMPs

N.7 Time application of N fertilizer to coincide as closely as possible to the period of maximum crop uptake.

N.8 Use sidedress or in-season fertilizer application for at least 40% of the total N applied to irrigated spring planted crops or fields with severe leaching potential (Table 1).

N.9 Avoid fall application of nitrogen fertilizer for spring planted crops on fields with severe leaching potential.

N.10 Apply N fertilizers where they can be most efficiently taken up by the crop (Right Place).

- a. Multiple, small applications of N through sprinkler irrigation systems can increase fertilizer efficiency and reduce total N fertilizer application.
- b. Fertilizers applied on irrigated fields with high surface loss potential should be subsurface banded or incorporated immediately after application.
- c. Nitrogen applied in irrigation water should be metered with an appropriate device that is properly calibrated. Due to the increased possibility of leaching or runoff, N fertilization through conventional flood or furrow irrigation systems is strongly discouraged.

N.11 The following recommendations apply to cropland fields where the leaching potential is moderate to severe (see nitrate leaching potential map, figure 3):

- a. Follow alfalfa or other legumes with high N use crops (such as small grains, sugar beets, or corn) that efficiently use N fixed by the legume.
- b. Follow shallow-rooted crops with low N use efficiency in the rotation by a deep-rooted, high N use crop which scavenges excess N (such as corn, sugarbeets, sunflowers, or alfalfa). Analyze subsoil samples for residual nitrate to determine carry over credit to the subsequent crop.
- c. Use fall planted cover crops such as rye or triticale to scavenge excess N in areas where fall growth is sufficient for establishment and water availability allows.

Precision Agricultural BMPs

- a. On highly variable fields, define management zones based upon yield potential when varying N fertilizer rate within fields.
- b. Utilize GPS guidance systems to reduce application overlap.

For more information about nitrogen fertilizer management or specific inquiries about BMPs, contact the Colorado State University Extension Water Quality Program.

Related source material from Colorado State University Extension is available at www.ext.colostate.edu or <http://waterquality.colostate.edu>

Factsheets:

- 0.500 Soil sampling
- 0.501 Soil testing
- 0.502 Soil test explanation
- 0.514 Nitrogen and irrigation management
- 0.517 Nitrates in drinking water
- 0.520 Selecting an analytical laboratory
- 0.547 Biosolids recycling
- 0.550 Nitrogen sources and transformations

Bulletins:

- XCM 574A Best management practices for Colorado corn
- XCM 568A Best management practices for manure utilization
- XCM 179 Protecting your private well

NITROGEN MANAGEMENT RECORD SHEET

Field description: _____

Soil type: _____

Previous crop: _____

Yield: _____ Soil tested: _____

Manure tested: _____ Water tested: _____

Crop year: _____ Crop and variety: _____

1. Expected yield: _____
2. Total N needed to achieve expected yield: _____ lb N/A
(expected crop uptake/efficiency factor)
3. Residual soil NO₃: _____ lb N/A
4. Irrigation water NO₃-N credit: _____ lb N/A
(ppm NO₃-N x AF of effective irrigation water x 2.7 = lb N/A)
5. Soil organic matter credit (credit 30 lb N per % OM): _____ lb N/A
6. Manure credit: _____ lb N/A
7. Nitrogen available from previous manure applications: _____ lb N/A
8. Nitrogen available from previous legume crop: _____ lb N/A
9. Total N available to crops (sum of lines 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8): _____ lb N/A
10. Nitrogen fertilizer requirement: _____ lb N/A

Fertilizer N applied: _____ lb/A Manure N applied: _____ lb/A

Application dates and amounts: _____

Form of N used: _____

Actual crop yield: _____ bu/A Total irrigation water applied: _____

Notes:



Colorado State University
EXTENSION

Agricultural Nitrogen Management

BEST MANAGEMENT PRACTICES