

Elsevier Editorial System(tm) for European Journal of Agronomy

Manuscript Draft

Manuscript Number:

Title: Radiation and water-use associated with growth and yields of wheat and chickpea in sole and mixed crops

Article Type: Research Paper

Keywords: evapotranspiration, transpiration; soil evaporation; dry matter production; grain yield; land equivalent ratio (LER); radiation-use efficiency; water-use efficiency; irrigation

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Manuscript Region of Origin:

**Radiation and water-use associated with growth and yields of
wheat and chickpea in sole and mixed crops**

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Short title: Wheat–chickpea mixed cropping

16 **Abstract**

17

18 There is a renewed interest in boosting farm productivity in the semi-arid Mediterranean
19 agricultural zones of Australia through increased capture and use of solar radiation and soil-
20 water by simultaneous growing of two or more species of plants in mixtures. The present
21 study assessed the performance of wheat and chickpea, mixed at half their sole crop
22 populations for their capacity to capture and use solar radiation and soil-water in the
23 drought season of 1994 and close-to-normal rainfall season of 1995 in South Australia. In
24 both years, there was no advantage of mixed crops over wheat grown as a sole crop (wheat-
25 s) either in terms of green area index (GAI), fraction of photosynthetically active radiation
26 intercepted by the canopy (i_{PAR}), dry matter (DM) or grain yield produced. The lack of a
27 yield advantage of mixed cropping was associated with the low yielding capacity of
28 chickpea and its inability to compensate for its reduced population density in the mixture.
29 Grain yield for chickpea in the mixed crop (chickpea-m) averaged just 29% that of its sole
30 crop (chickpea-s), whereas wheat grown in mixture (wheat-m) produced 72% the yield for
31 wheat-s. Supplementary irrigation from early spring onwards in 1995 increased yield of
32 chickpea-m by 44% over that of chickpea-s, while wheat-m fell to 65% that of wheat-s.
33 Every millimetre of irrigation water increased yield by 10.0, 3.8 and 12.5 kg/ha for wheat-s,
34 mixed crop and chickpea-s, respectively. Mixed cropping did not affect the time taken by
35 either wheat or chickpea to attain maximum growth rate, flowering or maturity. Using the
36 land equivalent ratio (LER) to assess productivity in terms of grain yields for wheat–
37 chickpea intercropping produced values of between 1.01 in 1994 and 1.02 in 1995; an LER
38 of 1.10 was obtained with supplementary irrigation in 1995. Mixed cropping did not
39 improve either radiation-use efficiency or water-use efficiency when compared to wheat-s.

40 It is concluded that there was no advantage of mixed cropping when based on total biomass
41 or grain yield produced by the crops.

42

43

44 *Keywords:* evapotranspiration, transpiration; soil evaporation; dry matter production; grain
45 yield; land equivalent ratio (LER); radiation use efficiency; water-use efficiency; irrigation

46

47 **1. Introduction**

48

49 Mixed cropping has been largely confined to non-mechanised farming systems in less
50 advanced farming systems. Increasing attention being paid in recent years in advanced
51 mechanised agricultural systems, where it's potential benefits for environmental and land
52 management are being explored. In the southern Mediterranean regions of Australia,
53 simultaneous growing of seasonal grain crops with pastures is recognised as an effective
54 management strategy for hydrological control to minimise water logging and deep drainage
55 (Egan and Ransom, 1996; Latta et al., 2001; Humphries et al., 2004). In the temperate
56 cropping districts of Canterbury, New Zealand, mixed cropping of arable crops and pasture
57 legumes is practised primarily to improve soil structure and fertility (Hayes and Francis,
58 1990). Even in these mechanised farming systems, however, the long term objective is to
59 sustain high yields of grain crops and pastures.

60

61 An ideal mixed cropping system would meet long term management objectives while
62 providing increased yields. Increased yields of crops in mixtures often accrue from their
63 capacity of the crops to increase capture and use of biophysical resources relative to that
64 which would be achieved by growing the component crops separately. Competition for
65 these natural resources by the co-existing species could, however, reduce the yields of
66 component crops. Often reductions in the yields of individual species are not large enough
67 to reduce the total yield of the mixture relative to those of either sole crop (Reddy and
68 Wiley, 1981; Yunusa, 1989; Yunusa et al., 1995; Walker and Ogindo, 2003).
69 Competitiveness of a given species for solar radiation, and subsequently its yield, depends
70 on its leaf area index (LAI) and height relative to those of its companion crop(s) (Fukai,

1993; Midmore, 1993). Ali (1993) associated increased yields for millet-groundnut mixtures with its greater light interception relative to that by the sole crops. He further reported that increased yields from mixed cropping in which wheat and chickpea were sown in two alternate rows were due to enhanced light interception leading to increased growth. Enhanced canopy cover is also critical to crop water-use and water-use efficiency in the rainfall especially in the Mediterranean environments with winter rainfall. In these environments, early canopy cover promotes partitioning of evapotranspiration (ET) through transpiration rather than soil evaporation thereby increasing amount of yield per unit ET (Eberbach and Pala, 2005; Gregory et al., 2000; Yunusa te al. 1992).

In rainfall-limited environments, productivity of mixed cropping, as for any cropping system, would depend on availability of soil-water. Singh and Singh (1983) found that every extra millimetre of water supply through irrigation increased yields of wheat-chickpea mixtures by between 7 and 10 kg/ha. They also obtained lowest water –use efficiency (WUE) of $4.8 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ mm}^{-1}$ from sole crop of chickpea and the highest value of $12.0 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} \text{ mm}^{-1}$ from the chickpea –wheat intercrop. Much of the yield differences were associated with canopy development. To optimise productivity, an ideal mixed cropping will be one that limits competition for solar radiation and soil-water to optimise performance of the component species. This can be achieved by using crop species of widely different phenology and/or morphology to maximise capture of, and minimize competition for, solar radiation and soil-water (Trenbath, 1974). Crops such as wheat and chickpea, based on the known differences in their canopy development, could be appropriate for the low rainfall winter cropping districts of southern Australia.

In the current study, we assessed growth and yield of wheat and chickpea sown in pure and

96 mixed stands on the basis of their acquisition and use of radiation and soil-water in the
97 South Australia. Our objectives were to (1) quantify amount of solar radiation and soil-
98 water use by the crops during the season, (2) analyse the efficiency with which the two
99 resources were used to produce biomass and grains, and (3) determine the productivity of
100 mixed crop relative to those of the sole crops.

101

102 **2.0 Material and Methods**

103

104 *2.1 Site*

105

106 Field experiments were conducted during winter cropping season (June to November) in
107 1994 and 1995 on the experimental farms of the University of Adelaide, Roseworthy
108 Campus (34° 32'S, 138° 41'E), about 50 km north of Adelaide in South Australia. The
109 region has a Mediterranean climate with a winter growing season (May–August) that is
110 generally cool and wet. This is followed with a dry and warm main spring period
111 (September–October) when grain filling occurs. The soil at the site was alkaline in which
112 pH measured in water increased from around 8.0 near the surface to 9.5 at 1.8 m depth. The
113 soil is commonly referred to as a red-brown earth and belongs to the Natrixeralf of the
114 American classification system (Soil Survey Staff, 2003). It has a duplex profile consisting
115 of a sandy loam of between 0.6 to 0.8 m depths overlying a B horizon of calcrete layers that
116 contains considerable amounts of boron. Below the B-horizon is a heavy clay layer with
117 low permeability. There is gradual rise in the bulk density with depth from 1.3 Mg m⁻³ in
118 the top layers to 1.6 Mg m⁻³ at 1.8 m depth. Further details of soil type and climate at
119 Roseworthy were given by Yunusa et al. (2004).

120

121 *2.2 Plot layout and crop management*

122

123 Prior to sowing, the existing stubble was slashed and then raked into the soil, which was
124 then disked and rolled. The block was then treated with pre-seeding herbicides
125 (glyphosate and trifluralin), subsequent control of weeds was achieved by hand weeding.
126 Super phosphate fertiliser was applied to supply 20 kg ha⁻¹ of phosphorus (P). Nitrogen
127 (N) fertiliser in the form of ammonium sulphate was applied at 50 kg N ha⁻¹ at sowing. In
128 both years wheat (*Triticum aestivum*, cultivar Excalibur) and chickpea (*Cicer arietinum*,
129 cultivar Semsan) were sown either in sole or in mixed plots of 2.4 m by 15 m. Sole wheat
130 was planted in 0.20 m rows and sole chickpea in 0.40 m rows using a six row-seeder. The
131 plots were planted to produce 155 plants m⁻² for sole wheat and 40 plants m⁻² for sole
132 chickpea. Due to poor opening rains in 1994 planting was delayed until 19 July, while in
133 1995 planting was undertaken on 14 June. The intercrops were formed by sowing
134 alternating 2 rows each of wheat and chickpea at rates that produced half their sole crop
135 densities. This produced four rows each of wheat and chickpea per plot. Chickpea seeds
136 were inoculated with appropriate commercial rhizobium before planting. All plant
137 measurements were made in the inner two rows for each of the crops. Each of the three
138 treatments (sole, sole chickpea and mixed crops) was replicated four times in both years. In
139 1995 an additional three replicates were set up and were irrigated to further explore the role
140 of soil-water supply. Irrigation was applied to these replicates between 9 September
141 (tillering) and physiological maturity at 125 days after sowing (DAS) in late October. The
142 first irrigation of 20 mm was followed with four sessions each of 37 mm applied at 10-day
143 intervals making a total of 131 mm. soil-water and growth variables were not measured in

144 these three replicates, only DM and grain yield were measured at the end of the season.

145

146 *2.3 Measurements*

147

148 *2.3.1 Growth and grain yield*

149

150 Flowering in wheat was recorded when half the number of plants in a plot had at least one
151 dehisced anther. Flowering in chickpea was taken to occur when half the number of plants
152 in plot had at least one open flower with a visible corolla. Dry matter (DM) produced above
153 ground by the crop was measured only at the end of the season in 1994, but six times in
154 1995 at 41, 73, 86, 95, 115 and 126 days after seeding (DAS). These dates in 1995
155 coincided with early tillering, jointing, late booting, flowering and grain filling of the
156 wheat. In both years, two quadrats (0.5 x 0.8 m) samples were taken at random from each
157 plot. The samples were dried at 70°C for 72 hours and then weighed. Grain yield was
158 determined from the final quadrat samples taken at the end of the season. In 1995, logistic
159 curves were fitted to DM so that growth of the crops in the various treatments could be
160 quantitatively defined. The general form of the curve is:

161

$$162 \quad y = C/(1 + \text{EXP}[-B/D(X-M)]) \quad (1)$$

163

164 in which y is the response variable; M , days after sowing required for the crop to reach their
165 maximum growth rate; C , maximum dry matter production (kg ha^{-1}); B , parameter that
166 estimates the slope of the curve; and D , duration of growth.

167

168 2.3.2 Green area index (GAI)

169

170 This was taken as the ratio of the areas of green surfaces (leaves and stems) produced by
171 crops to that of the land area, and was determined from sub-samples of six plants of wheat
172 and three plants of chickpea taken from the quadrat samples used for the DM. The areas of
173 the green parts were measured with a planimeter (Patten Electrolate Electronic, model
174 EP711, SA Australia). There were no green materials present at sampling on 126 DAS

175

176 2.3.3 Fraction of radiation intercepted by the canopy (i_{PAR})

177

178 A ceptometer (Decagon Devices Inc., USA) was used to measure photosynthetically active
179 radiation (PAR) (400-700 nm) incident above (P_a) and below (P_b) the crop canopy.

180 Measurements were made between 1100 and 1300 hours mostly at fortnightly intervals, and
181 used along with measurements of incident radiation to determine radiation use efficiency
182 (RUE) following the procedures described by Yunusa et al. (1993b). Briefly, fraction of
183 PAR intercepted by the canopy was obtained as: $i_{PAR} = 1 - (P_a / P_b)$, and was used to scale
184 sums of incident solar radiation measured at a nearby weather station between sampling
185 intervals to obtain amount of PAR intercepted by the crops ($MJ\ m^{-2}$); the PAR was taken
186 as half of the incident solar radiation (Monteith and Unsworth, 1990). Radiation use
187 efficiency (RUE) was calculated by dividing DM or grain yield with PAR intercepted
188 during the season.

189

190 2.3.4 Soil-water storage and evapotranspiration

191

Soil-water was measured in 1.25 m depth profile only in non-irrigated plots using a neutron moisture meter (Campbell Pacific Nuclear model 503, Ca, USA) along steel access tubes (37.5 mm internal diameter and 1.5 m length) installed in the inter-row space near the middle of each plot. Neutron counts were made along the tubes at depths of 0.2, 0.4, 0.6, 0.8, 1 and 1.25 m starting on 9 September (wheat tillering stage), and repeated at approximately fortnightly intervals, until just before harvest. The water in the top 0.2 m of the soil was determined by gravimetry using soil samples taken near the access tubes. Soil water at the start of the season and prior to planting was obtained from measurements taken in an adjoining paddock which had similar soil type and cropping history as the paddock used for the current study. The neutron meter was calibrated for the site in an earlier study (Yunusa et al., 2004).

Crop water use or evapotranspiration (ET) was obtained from the change in the soil-water stored plus rainfall, since both runoff and deep drainage were negligible on this soil (Yunusa et al., 2004). We partitioned ET into transpiration (E_c) and soil evaporation, by estimating the former in two stages following the procedure given by Yunusa et al. (1993a). E_c was obtained as follows (1994):

$$\begin{aligned} E_c &= E_p(e^{K \cdot GAI}) && \text{when FAW} \geq 0.35 \\ &= 0.014 + 2.25 \text{ SW}/E_p && \text{when FAW} < 0.35 \end{aligned} \quad (2)$$

in which E_p was potential evapotranspiration (mm) according to Penman-Monteith's equation (Monteith and Unsworth, 1990), K , radiation extinction coefficient (dimensionless) for which we used a value of 0.30; GAI, green area index (dimensionless), defined above; SW, stored soil-water (mm) in the top 0.2 m profile. Once the fraction of

217 available soil water (FAW), calculated as given by Yunusa et al. (1992), fell to 0.35, E_c
218 became dependent on soil-water. The FAW of 0.35 was found to be restricted on a red
219 brown earth (Siddique and Sedgley, 1985; Yunusa et al 1994). Soil evaporation (E_s) was
220 obtained as the difference between ET and T. Water-use efficiency (WUE) was obtained as
221 the ratio of either DM or grain yields produced to ET during the season.

222

223 The land equivalent ratio (LER) defined as land needed to produce in pure stand the same
224 amount of yields of the crops in the mixture (Fisher, 1977) was used to analyse efficiency
225 of intercropping system. This was calculated as given by Mead and Willey (1980):

226

$$227 \quad LER = GY_{wm}/G_{ws} + GY_{cm}/GY_{cs} \quad (3)$$

228

229 in which the subscripts w and c refer to wheat and chickpea, respectively, in either sole (s)
230 or mixed (m) crops. LERs > 1.0 indicated yield benefit from the mixed crop, while < 1.0
231 indicated lack of advantage of the mixed crop on yield.

232

233 *2.4 Data analysis*

234

235 Analysis of variance was performed on all data using the General Linear Model in the
236 Minitab Version 13.1 software package. When analysis of variance indicated effects of
237 treatment, means were compared using Tukey-Kramer tests to determine significant
238 differences between means at $p = 0.05$. Data for the three irrigated blocks in 1995 were
239 compared against the corresponding non-irrigated plots using standard errors of means.

240

241 **3.0 Results**

242

243 *3.1 Weather*

244

245 Mean temperatures and rainfall data for 1994 and 1995 and the long term averages are
246 presented in Figure 1. The start of the seasons in 1994 and 1995 were cooler than normal,
247 but 1994 experienced particularly warm growing season in winter when mean temperatures
248 in June and July were warmer than in the preceding and following months. Except for
249 January, 1994 was much drier than normal with monthly rainfall being mostly about a third
250 of their long term averages during the growing season. The season of 1995 was close to
251 normal in terms of rainfall during much of the season and, except during the winter, was
252 particularly wet between June and July; the terminal growing period (September-October)
253 was drier than normal in this year. Rainfall during growing season was 104 mm in 1994
254 and 272 mm in 1995 compared to the normal values of 292 mm.

255

256 *3.2 Summary of yield data in 1994*

257

258 The dry season in 1994 severely inhibited growth and yields for crops both in sole and
259 mixed plots (Table 1). There was no advantage from mixing the crops in terms of
260 maximum GAI and i_{PAR} , both of which were larger for wheat grown in sole crops (wheat-s)
261 than for either of the other cropping systems. Mixed crop, however, had larger GAI than
262 chickpea grown sole (chickpea-s). Both final DM at harvest and grain yield were similar for
263 mixed crops and wheat-s, both of which were more productive than chickpea-s. The LER
264 for the the mixed crop departed very little from unity, being 0.97 based on DM and 1.01

265 based on grain yield.

266

267 *3.3 Extraction of soil-water in 1995*

268

269 Changes in the soil's volumetric water content (θ) during the season are presented in Fig. 2.

270 Water content was similar for the three cropping systems at early tillering (53 DAS), when

271 the top 0.1 m of the profile was dry and had only 10% moisture content. Below the top

272 layer, θ was largely uniform (~30%) down to 1.0 m, but increased to 35% at 1.4 m depth

273 for all treatments. At all later dates chickpea had the wettest profile while wheat had the

274 driest; the differences in θ for these treatments were especially evident between 0.3 to 0.8

275 m depths, indicating this was the zone of vigorous activity by the wheat root. In this zone,

276 the difference in θ between wheat-s and chickpea-s averaged 10% at 73 DAS and grew to a

277 maximum of 15% at 103 DAS shortly after anthesis. The zone of soil between 0.2 and 1.2

278 m depths was always wetter under chickpea-s, then mixture and then sole wheat; there were

279 no changes in θ at 1.4 m depth for all cropping systems throughout the season. At the end

280 of the season chickpea had a wetter soil profile than the other two treatments.

281

282 *3.4 Growth and yield variables in 1995*

283

284 Anthesis occurred in wheat at 97 days after sowing (DAS) in both sole and mixed crops,

285 while chickpea attained flowering on 101 DAS. There was no difference in the GAI (Fig.

286 3a) between wheat-s and the mixed crop throughout the growing season; both of these

287 crops had larger canopies than chickpea-s until flowering. Decline in GAI towards the end

288 of the season was slower for chickpea-s, which at 116 DAS had higher GAI than either of

the other two crops. Difference in i_{PAR} between the crops (Fig. 3b) reflected those in GAI in the first 90 days, after which it was similar for the three crops. Amount of energy captured during the season by the crops were similar for wheat-s and the mixed crop, which were at least 18% higher than for chickpea-s (Table 2).

Water-use did not differ significantly between the three cropping systems throughout the season. For all cropping systems, ET (Fig. 3c) was particularly rapid between 80 and 100 DAS, when it averaged 3.4 mm d^{-1} for mixed crop compared with 3.2 mm d^{-1} for wheat-s and only 2.6 mm d^{-1} for chickpea-s. Total ET during the season for the mixed crop was 94% that for wheat-s and 9% more than for chickpea-s (Table 2). There were no differences between the cropping systems in their partitioning of the seasonal ET. While almost half of ET was used for transpiration (E_c) in wheat-s and mixed crops, only 35% was used for this process in chickpea-s. Thus, the mixed crop lost 10 mm less water to evaporation (E_s) than wheat-s and 22 mm less than chickpea-s.

There was no difference between mixed crops and wheat-s in their DM accumulation during the season; either of these crops produced significantly more biomass than chickpea-s (Fig. 3d). Much of the differences in biomass production between the crops occurred between 70 and 95 DAS when daily rates for DM (kg/ha.day) accumulation was 127 for the mixed crop compared with 151 for wheat-s and 84 kg for chickpea-s. At harvest, DM was in the order wheat-s > mixed crops > chickpea-s. DM for wheat-m was 72% that for wheat-s, while for chickpea-m it was just 28%.

Fitting logistic curves to DM showed that growing wheat and chickpea in mixtures changed their growth characteristics, such as number of days taken to attain maximum growth rate

314 was earlier by four days for wheat-m than wheat-s (Table 3). For chickpea, this point was
315 attained seven days earlier in mixture than in sole crops, while for the mixed crop the
316 duration was similar for the component wheat and chickpea. Peak DM produced by the
317 crops was reduced by 22% for wheat-m and 75% for chickpea-m compared with those by
318 either wheat-s or chickpea-s. This value for the mixed crops lies almost mid-way between
319 values for wheat-s and wheat-m. Total duration of growth for the three cropping systems
320 was similar.

321

322 Data in Table 4 show that grain yield was similar for the mixed crop (2445 kg/ha) and
323 wheat-s (3042 kg/ha), either of which produced at least 70% more grains than chickpea-s
324 (242 kg/ha). Grain yields produced by wheat-m was 72% that of wheat-s, while chickpea-m
325 had only 30% the yield of chickpea-s.

326

327 *3.4 Responses of DM and grain yield to irrigation in 1995*

328

329 Application of supplementary irrigation significantly increased the performance of all the
330 three cropping systems (Table 4). This improvement was particularly pronounced for
331 chickpea-m in which both DM and grain yield were increased 2.5-fold and 4.4-fold,
332 respectively. Improvements due to irrigation in the performance of wheat were modest; DM
333 for wheat-s increased by 23% and for wheat-m by 50%, while the increases in grain yield
334 were 44% and 30%, respectively. In the mixed crop, irrigation increased the grain yield for
335 chickpea-m by 44% more than for chickpea-s, while grain yield for wheat-m declined to
336 65% that for wheat-s. Additional water supply increased DM by 38% and grain yield by
337 20% for the mixed crop. It also increased the harvest index (grain yield/DM at harvest) for
338 all crops, except for wheat-m and mixed crop where it declined by about 15%. Every

339 millimetre of irrigation produced a gain in grain yield of 10 kg/ha for wheat-s, 3.8 kg/ha for
340 the mixed crop and 12.5 kg/ha for chickpea-s. Irrespective of irrigation, productivity of the
341 mixed crop was not substantially higher than that for wheat-s, with LER based DM being
342 just 1.07 for the non-irrigated mixed crop and 0.99 for the irrigated mixed crop;
343 corresponding LER based on grain yield were 1.03 and 1.10.

344

345 *3.5 Efficiency of resource use in 1995*

346

347 The RUE based on either DM (RUE_d) or grain yield (RUE_g) was similar for wheat-s and
348 mixed crops and was at least twice those for chickpea-s (Table 5). The WUE for DM
349 (WUE_d) was also similar for wheat-s and mixed crops, either of which produced at least 20
350 kg of DM per hectare for every millimetre of ET compared to just 9.4 kg for chickpea-s. A
351 similar trend was obtained for water-use efficiency based on grain yield (WUE_g) which for
352 chickpea-s was less than a third those for wheat-s and the mixed crop.

353

354 **4. Discussion**

355

356 Results presented here suggested that a mixed crop of wheat and chickpea had no
357 advantage over wheat planted as a sole crop in terms of either biomass or grain yield that
358 we observed. It is noteworthy that DM for wheat-s and the mixed crop was similar in both
359 the dry year of 1994 and 1995, and even with supplementary irrigation in 1995 (Table 4).
360 Of the three factors comprising soil N, soil-water and radiation that determine growth and
361 yield in mixed cropping (Fukai, 1993), the first was in adequate supply in the current study.
362 The 50 kg N/ha applied at planting was sufficient to meet the needs for the crops either in

363 their sole or mixed plots in a similar environment of southern Australia (Ofori and Stern,
364 1986). Also, earlier experimental and simulation studies found that 30 kg N/ha was
365 adequate for optimum yield of wheat in this environment (Yunusa et al., 2004). This leaves
366 interception of solar energy and soil-water as major factors that might have limited
367 productivity of the mixed crop in this study.

368

369 Productivity of mixed crops in terms of biomass production is often associated with canopy
370 development and intercepted radiation. Since the mixed crop in the present study did not
371 have advantage in either GAI or i_{PAR} compared to wheat-s (Fig. 3), there were no
372 differences between these two treatments in the amount of solar energy intercepted and/or
373 the amount of water used. Consequently, DM produced by wheat was not affected by
374 cropping system. Total energy absorbed by the three cropping systems during the season
375 was reduced only for chickpea-s by as much as 37% (Table 2). Interception of radiation
376 during the season by the mixed crop increased relative to that of chickpea-s only and not to
377 that of wheat-s. This was contrary to experience of Tsubo et al. (2001) who obtained a 15%
378 increase in incident radiation intercepted by maize–bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) mixtures
379 relative to those of the sole crops of either of the component species.

380

381 An inability of the mixed crop to significantly modify solar energy interception also
382 ensured similarity in its water use and that of wheat-s. There was therefore no difference in
383 the DM and grain yields between these two cropping systems in the dry year of 1994 and in
384 1995. Performance of the mixed crop was largely determined by wheat that had a higher
385 growth rate and productivity than chickpea (Table 3). Shading of chickpea by wheat in the
386 mixture was minimised by the planting configuration of alternating two rows of each
387 species. The relatively low yields of chickpea in either cropping system were therefore a

388 consequence of its genetic characteristics, which limits its yield capacity to less than that
389 for wheat even at the same level of input and management (Thomas and Fukai, 1995). Thus
390 the legume failed to increase its relative yield in the mixture to compensate for its low plant
391 density. For instance, both DM and grain yields of chickpea-m never exceeded 30% those
392 of chickpea-s, except with irrigation when grain yield rose to 44%; whereas wheat-m
393 produced 72% the yields of wheat-s. Given that both crops were sown at 50% their sole
394 crop population, their yields in the mixture would nominally be expected to be half those of
395 their sole crops. However, yield of wheat-s was 72% that of wheat-s resulting in yield-to-
396 density ratio of 1.44 (i.e 72/50), while it was just 0.60 for chickpea-m. Chickpea has one of
397 the lowest growth rate and small canopies amongst winter pulses in Australia, where its
398 peak GAI is often about a quarter that of other pulses such as faba bean (*Vicia faba*)
399 (Mwanamwenge et al., 1997). Furthermore, there were only small differences in the
400 phenology between wheat and chickpea so that both crops attained peak canopy
401 development, flowering and maturity at about the same time.

402

403 Inherent limitation of chickpea also included its apparent shallow rooting as shown in the
404 depths of extraction of soil-water (Fig. 2). This crop did not appear to have developed roots
405 and extract water below 0.8 m, unlike wheat-s and mixed crop under which the top 1.0 m of
406 the soil was drier for much of the pre-flowering period up to 103 DAS. Later extraction in
407 the post-flowering period still left considerable amount of soil-water unused below 0.8 m
408 depth under chickpea-s compared to either mixed crop or wheat-s at the end of the season.
409 Poor canopy development also exposed much of the soil surface to solar radiation thereby
410 promoting soil evaporation at the expense of transpiration. While wheat-s and mixed crop
411 used almost half of ET for transpiration, E_c constituted just 35% for chickpea-s (Table 2).
412 Much of the E_s would have occurred early in the season when frequent rainfall kept the

413 exposed soil surface wet for most of this time as is common in Mediterranean environments
414 (Eberbach and Pala, 2005; Gregory et al., 2000; Yunusa et al., 1992). A more rapid and
415 larger canopy development by the cereal, therefore, enabled wheat-m to exploit soil-water
416 at the expense of chickpea-m. This enabled wheat-m to produce 75% of its sole crop yield
417 with half the density of wheat-s, while chickpea-m could produce only 30% that of its sole
418 crop yield.

419

420 Supplementary supply of soil-water changed the yield dynamics of the mixed crop.
421 Additional water supply benefited chickpea in both mixed and sole crops than it did wheat
422 (Section 3.4). Furthermore, the ratio of grain yields for chickpea-m relative to that for
423 chickpea-s of 2.3 was almost 50% greater than 1.5 for wheat-s:wheat-m (Table 4).

424 Increases in yields per unit amount of water from irrigation are consistent with 7–10 kg/ha
425 found for wheat–chickpea mixed crops (Singh and Singh, 1983) and for wheat (Yunusa et
426 al., 1993a). Relative to non-irrigated crops, yield of chickpea-m increased by 75%
427 compared to only 29% for wheat-m. This improvement in chickpea yield could be
428 associated with extended crop duration (Thomas and Fukai, 1995), observed in the delayed
429 senescence of the non-irrigated chickpea during grain filling (Fig. 3a). Delayed senescence
430 for chickpea-s, which had a larger GAI than either mixed crop or wheat-s at 122 DAS (Fig.
431 3), enabled the legume to make a good use of the extra water to improve its harvest index
432 especially in the mixture. This increased the harvest index increased by 74% for chickpea-
433 m, while companion wheat-m experienced a 14% decline. This suggested that relative yield
434 of chickpea could improve appreciably in the mixture when soil-water supply is adequate
435 and is reflected in the LER of 1.10, compared to 1.02 without irrigation. It also suggests
436 that wheat could be vulnerable to competition from chickpea under conditions of adequate
437 supply of soil-water. These yield responses to late season ET further demonstrated the

438 significance of soil-water supply during grain filling in the Mediterranean environment of
439 Australia (Passioura, 1977; Sedgley, 1991).

440

441 The mixed crop, when compared with wheat-s, did not improve interception of solar
442 radiation and ET by the crop nor the efficiency of converting these resources to yields
443 (Table 5). Values for RUE (g DM MJ^{-1}) were all within the range found in this environment
444 for wheat of between 1.52 and 2.40 (O'Connell et al., 2004; Yunusa et al., 1993b) and for
445 chickpea of between 0.49 and 1.15 (Thomas and Fukai, 1995); the low end values were
446 generally associated with water stress (Hughes et al., 1987; Thomas and Fukai, 1995).
447 Also, WUE (kg DM/ha/mm) were consistent with 8.0–12.0 for wheat (Yunusa et al.,
448 1993a) and 6.8–9.5 for chickpea (Siddique and Sedgley, 1986). The low LERs presented
449 here were, therefore, not entirely surprising. They showed that mixed cropping increased
450 productivity based on grain yields by only a 2%, while there was no advantage when based
451 on biomass production. These LER values were much lower than those found with mixing
452 tropical and subtropical cereals and legumes for which values of between 1.18 and 1.39 are
453 often reported (Reddy and Willey, 1980; Yunusa, 1989).

454

455 **5. Conclusions**

456

457 Mixing wheat and chickpea in the Mediterranean environment of southern Australia was
458 not beneficial to yield when compared to growing wheat as a sole crop. The crops species
459 used in our mixtures produced low LER mainly because they had similar phenology by
460 which both attained flowering within a few days of each other, and also due to slow growth
461 of the legume. Similarity in phenology ensured that both species made maximum demand
462 for resources, especially on soil-water, in mid-season (between 70 and 110 DAS). This

463 severely penalised the slow growing chickpea in the mixture and reduced its grain yield to
464 just 30% that of its sole crop, whereas wheat-m produced 70% of its sole crop yield. There
465 is limited opportunity to shift peak demands for soil-water by one of the component species
466 to minimise inter-specific competition, except by planting them on widely different days.
467 This strategy may however not be viable due to the rainfall being confined to just a few
468 months of the year. Furthermore, it may also present management challenges. We
469 recognise, however, that mixed cropping may be practised for other purposes than for just
470 an increase in the productivity of the current crops. In Australia, these include
471 improvements in soil N reserves over the long term and protection of soil surface especially
472 early in the season.

473

474 **Acknowledgements**

475 The advice and support given by Dr Phil Tow were gratefully acknowledged. We thank the
476 farm staff at Roseworthy along with Mr David Mathew, Mr Paul Harris and Ms Anne
477 Mowday for their untiring assistance during the course of this program. The Islamic
478 Republic of Iran is acknowledged for providing the opportunity for Dr Mohammad Reza
479 Jahansooz to undertake his PhD studies in Australia.

480

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 570 structure on efficiency of radiation interception and use in spring wheat cultivars
 571 during the pre-anthesis period in a Mediterranean-type environment. Field Crops Res.
 572 36: 113-122.

573 Table 1. Summary of growth and yield variables for wheat and chickpea grown in sole or
574 mixed crops, and the land equivalent ratios based on DM (LER_d) or grain yield (LER_g) at
575 Roseworthy in 1994
576

Variables	Cropping systems ^a		
	Wheat-s	Chickpea-s	Mixture
Maximum GAI	1.5a	0.4c	0.7b
Maximum <i>i</i> _{PAR}	0.31a	0.23b	0.26ab
DM at harvest (kg/ha)	3412a	1430b	2771a
Grain yield (kg/ha)	1512a	552b	1368a
Harvest index	0.44a	0.37b	0.49a
LER _d	na	na	0.97
LER _g	na	na	1.01

577
578 ^a Means in the same rows followed by different letter(s) are statistically different at $p \leq$
579 0.05; na, not applicable.
580

Table 2. Seasonal totals for evapotranspiration (ET) and its components of transpiration (E_c) and soil evaporation (E_s), and radiant energy intercepted for the non-irrigated wheat and chickpea and their mixtures at Roseworthy in 1995

Variables	Cropping systems ^a		
	Wheat-s	Chickpea-s	Mixture
ET (mm)	302	261	285
E_c (mm)	144	91	137
E_s (mm)	158	170	148
E_c/ET	47.7	34.9	48.1
PAR intercepted ($MJ\ m^{-2}$)	375a	273b	331a

^a Means in the same rows followed by different letter(s) are statistically different at $p \leq 0.05$.

Table 3. mean values (\pm standard errors of means) for growth indices for the non-irrigated wheat and chickpea in sole or the mixed crop in 1995

Indices	Cropping systems				
	Wheat-s	Wheat-m	Chickpea-s	Chickpea-m	Mixture
Days to maximum growth rate	92 \pm 1.9	88 \pm 1.0	95 \pm 1.6	88 \pm 2.4	89 \pm 1.4
Peak amount of DM produced (C)	7015 \pm 183	5249 \pm 272	3027 \pm 130	771 \pm 46	6211 \pm 280
Growth duration (D, days)	126 \pm 3.7	123 \pm 6.7	128 \pm 5.2	125 \pm 8.6	126 \pm 4.8

Table 4. Growth and grain yield variables for wheat and chickpea in sole and mixed crops grown with (+irrig) or without (0-irrig) irrigation at Roseworthy in 1995

Variables	Irrigation	Cropping systems ^a				
		Wheat-s	Wheat-m	Chickpea-s	Chickpeas-m	Mixture
DM at harvest ((kg/ha)	0-irrig	6989a	5010b	2800c	781e	6164a
	+ irrig	10618a*	7559b*	7007b*	1973c*	8532a*
Grain yield (kg/ha)	0-irrig	3042a	2203b	802c	242c	2445a
	+ irrig	4366a*	2837b	2446c*	1065d*	2938b
Harvest index	0-irrig	0.44a	0.44a	0.29c	0.31c	0.40b
	+ irrig	0.41a	0.38c*	0.35b*	0.54a*	0.34b*

^a Means in the same rows followed by different letter(s) are statistically different at $p = 0.05$;

* indicates significant ($t_{0.05}$) difference between means for pairs of irrigated and non-irrigated treatments.

599 Table 5. Radiation use efficiency (RUE) and water-use efficiency (WUE) for non-irrigated soles crops of wheat and chickpea and of
 600 mixed crops, and land equivalent ratio (LER) for the mixed crop at Roseworthy in 1995

601

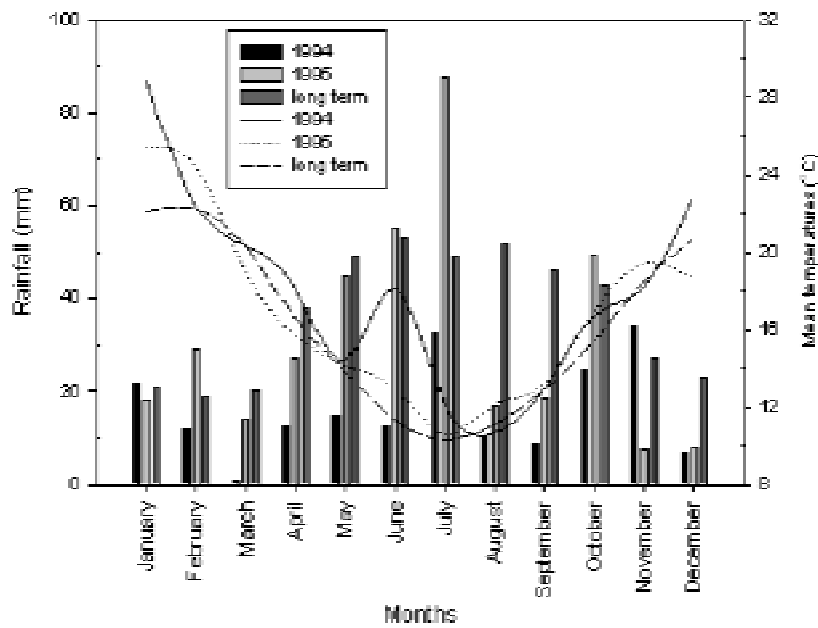
Variables ^b	Cropping systems ^a		
	Wheat-s	Chickpea-s	Mixture
RUE _d (g MJ ⁻¹ m ⁻²)	1.42a	0.87b	1.59a
RUE _g (g MJ ⁻¹ m ⁻²)	0.73a	0.25b	0.66a
WUE _d (kg ha ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹)	20.4a	9.4b	20.8a
WUE _g (kg ha ⁻¹ mm ⁻¹)	8.6a	2.6b	10.3a
LER _d	na	na	1.00
LER _g	na	na	1.02

602

603 ^a Means in the same rows followed by different letter(s) are statistically different at $p \leq 0.05$; *na*, not applicable

604 ^b subscripts d and g denote calculations based on DM and grain yields, respectively.

605



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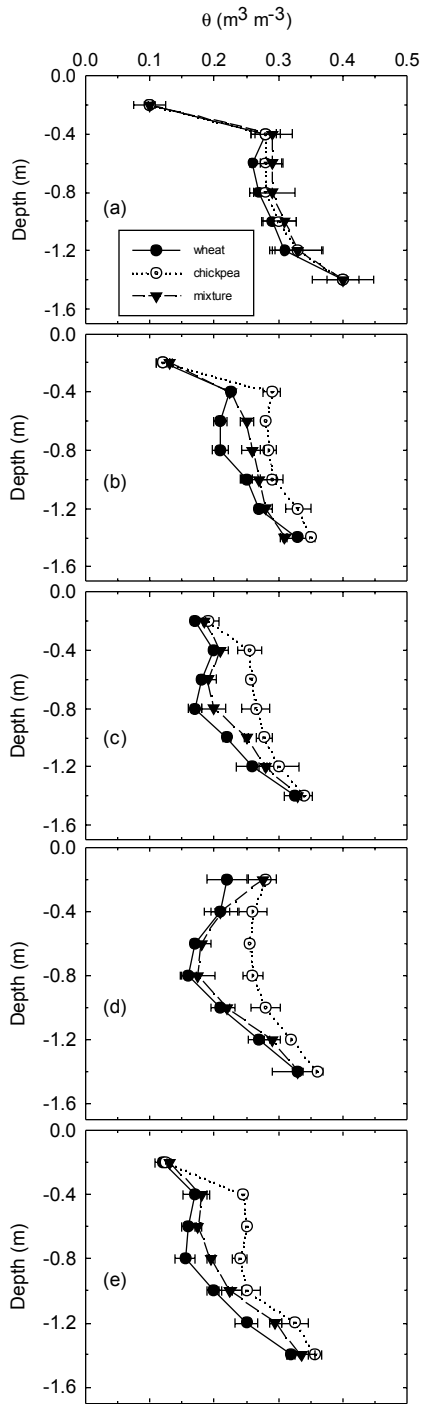
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609 Fig. 1. Values for monthly rainfall (bars) and temperatures (lines) for 1994, 1995 and their
610 long term averages at Roseworthy.

611

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613



614

615 Fig. 2. Distribution of volumetric soil moisture content (θ) (\pm standard errors of means) in
616 the 1.4m soil profile under wheat-s, chickpea-s and in mixed crops at Roseworthy in 1995:
617 (a) 53, (b) 73, (c) 91, (d) 103 and (e) 116 days after sowing.

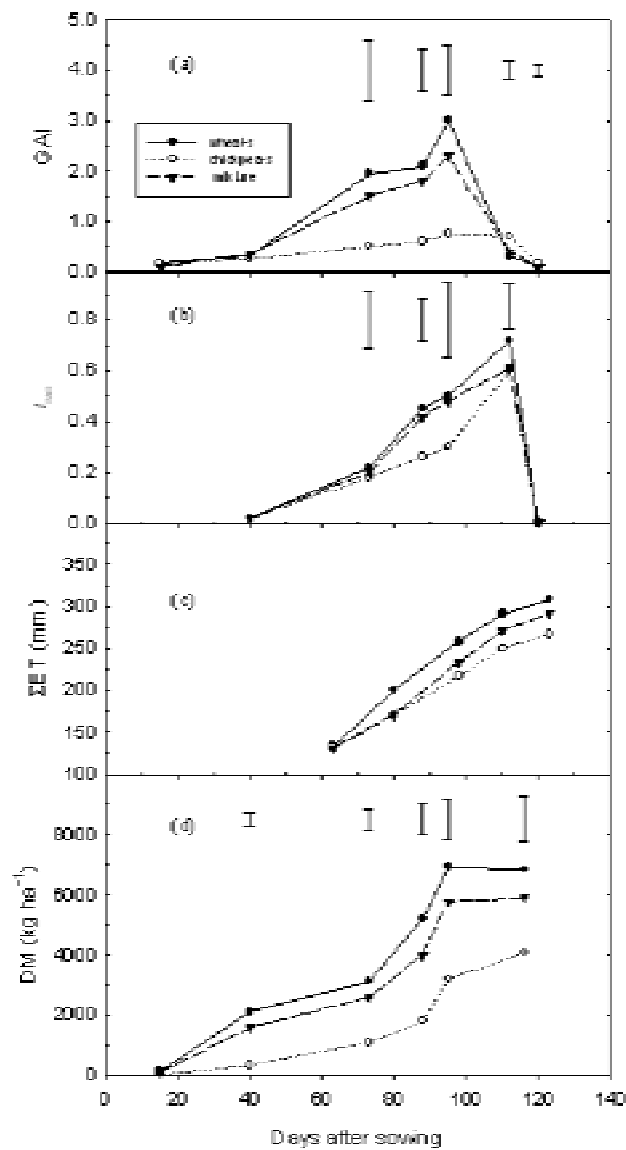


Fig. 3. Growth variables for sole crops of wheat (wheat-s) and chickpea (chickpea-s) and for the mixed crops at Roseworthy in 1995: (a) green area index (GAI), (b) fraction of PAR intercepted (i_{PAR}), (c) cumulative evapotranspiration (ET) and (d) dry matter (DM) accumulation. Bars are LSD at $p = 0.05$, there were no significant effects of cropping system on cumulative ET. Flowering was recorded at 97 DAS for wheat and at 101 DAS for chickpea.



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13 September 2006

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