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actually washed out of the soil by the heavy rains. By infestations grazing and overstocking the better and finer grasses tended to disappear, and poorer types of indigenous vegetation and weeds were left in possession of the land. Overstocking was bad enough in normal seasons, but in drought years it led to disastrous results. In such years the better types of native grasses were eaten or killed out owing to their slow growth and non-seeding habits. These grasses were replaced by such plants as barley grass (*Hordeum murinum*), and the useless soft Brome (*Bromus mollis*), barren fescue (*Festuca Bridgidgei*), thistles of various kinds, Cape weed, and plants of low-grazing value. Even in normal times many stock-owners carried stock in such large numbers that the good grasses had no chance to seed. It was natural that the grazier should endeavor to carry as large a number of stock as possible, but though he might gain a temporary advantage with heavy stocking, in the long run the financial results must be unsatisfactory. Pastures should neither be overstocked nor grazed in large areas. Even the evil effects of drought might be greatly lessened by the conservation of fodder in good seasons, improvement in the water supply, increase of irrigation areas, provision of greater transport facilities which would permit of speedy agistment of stock in such years.

Overstocking has been proved to prove disastrous to the pastoral portions of South Australia and the hilly country of the Mount Lofty Ranges. It spread rapidly, forming successive pasture, and did considerably worse in relatively poor land. It was very responsive to applications of soluble phosphate. For the lighter rainfall areas Wimberley's ryegrass (*Lolium subulatum*) is worthy of trial.

The Use of Cereal and Root Crops.

The method of developing grass lands—feeding the grass through the use of liberal dressings of fertilisers applied to certain e.g., wheat, oats, roots, or feed crops was practicable over the whole arable area of the State. In the wheat belt there was no question that the stock-carrying capacity of the farm was greatly increased by the use of liberal dressings of superphosphate on the wheat crop. Experience has shown that the use of liberal dressings of superphosphate not only guaranteed a good wheat crop, but materially stimulated the stock-carrying capacity of the grass and herbage that followed the wheat. This led to increased stock-carrying capacity, more sheep being kept on the wheat farm, and this, in turn, assisted the farmer to secure higher wheat yields. For arable areas in a large rainfall country, this was undoubtedly the best method of securing a

The amount of mineral nutrients removed from the land by the annual crops or live stock was considerable. Of these nutrients the phosphates were of special importance on account of the low phosphate content of Australian soils. During the past 5 years the average number of cattle slaughtered in Australia had been 1,000,000 per annum, and the number of sheep 123 millions. The average amount of phosphoric acid in a sheep carcass was 2½ lb., and in cattle carcass, 15 lb. Hence each year there was removed from the pastoral properties and farms of Australia 25,000 tons of phosphoric acid. If they added the amount of phosphoric acid removed in wool, milk, cream, cheese, pigs, and rabbits, the amount of phosphoric acid removed from stations and farms, apart from what was taken out by the wheat crop, would probably equal 39,000 tons. The amount of 22 per cent. superphosphate required to replace these phosphate losses from pastoral properties and farms would amount to 136,000 tons per annum. As a very small proportion of the grasslands and pastures had received any addition of artificial fertilisers, it could be seen that huge quantities of phosphates were needed to restore their phosphate content. In addition to the removal of mineral nutrients by animals, there were losses by leaching from the soil, especially in regions of heavy rainfall. The main nutrients washed from the soil were nitrates and lime. Fortunately, both phosphoric acid and potash were firmly held by the soil, and the losses of these constituents by leaching were negligible.

Improvement of Grass Lands.

Grass lands might be improved in three ways: 1. Sowing down with native or introduced grasses; 2. Growing a cereal or root crop, and using liberal dressings of fertilisers; 3. Top-dressing the pastures with suitable fertilisers, e.g., superphosphate, or with certain soil amendments, e.g., lime or gypsum. The growing of introduced grasses and clovers was possible only in the higher rainfall areas—the coastal region and the highlands. The sowing of native grasses was a difficult and expensive matter on account of the low vitality of the seed, e.g., its low germinating power, and the scarcity and high price of the grass seed on the market. The type of native grass that could be sown to best advantage was dependent mainly on the amount of rainfall and its seasonal incidence. In the summer-rainfall region of North Australia, the dominant species were the Panic grasses (*Panicum*), Mitchell grasses (*Astrebla*), the Blue grasses (*Andropogon*), and the various species of *Erianthus*. In the drier parts the salt bushes were of considerable importance. These were great drought resisters, and highly adapted to hot dry localities and soils with high saline contents. Of the various genera *Atriplex*, *Kochia*, and *Ranunculus* were of greatest economic importance. It was a curious fact that while California imported seed of these Australian fodder plants for cultivation on the inter-coastal they in Australia were indifferent to the cultivation either of these edible forage plants or their very valuable native grasses. A great field of work awaited investigation in the improvement of Aus-

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The field of the research station was a whole field of agriculture. The acquisition of knowledge must precede its application. The work of the research station was progressive. It built on what had gone before, and aimed at finding principles underlying an agricultural problem so that the problem might be solved. In fact, it was the vital part of any system of agricultural education, and must form the basis for framing a sound policy for future agricultural development. Sixty of these stations were established in the United States, and the average expenditure on each exceeded £20,000 per annum. It was demonstrable that the "added" wealth of the State of Wisconsin each year, as a result of the activities of the Experiment Station, was many times the whole appropriations made by Wisconsin for all branches of agricultural education. Of the seven tests widely used in dairying, six originated at the Wisconsin station. The contributions made by the station were regarded as the most important ever made to dairy science, and enabled Wisconsin itself to rise from an obscure position to first rank among the states for the production of both cheese and butter. The dairy products of the state had risen in 20 years from £4,000,000 to £18,000,000 per annum. New and profitable varieties of maize, oats, and barley evolved at the station had added millions sterling to the annual revenue of the state. The field for agricultural investigation in a new country such as the United States was illimitable, and at the present time they were largely dependent on what might be termed the scientific basis of agriculture, or principles established under climatic and economic conditions unlike their own. There was an immense field for work in the confirmation of what was supposed to be the basic principles of the great national industry.

It was to be earnestly hoped that generous support would be forthcoming to extend the scope of agricultural investigation work in this State, and that the necessary facilities and equipment would be provided to carry on a vigorous policy of agricultural research.

Agricultural Education

Agricultural Education.

To determine the value of education and research work in agriculture, they must turn to those countries where systematic and organised instruction in agriculture had been in vogue for several generations, and where opportunity had been provided for testing the value of such educational work. Among such countries, the United States and Germany stood pre-eminent. After 60 years of effort, the American agricultural colleges and research stations had become the most unique, popular, and useful group of educational institutions in the country, and received the widest possible support from all classes of farmers. On no form of education and research had the States and Federal Government provided funds so freely as on agricultural education, and it was universally admitted that no form of public expenditure had there been such magnificent returns for the nation in the form of increased production and better citizenship. Because of the large number of students attending the agricultural colleges—most of which were of university rank—specialisation had been carried to a degree not yet contemplated in Australia. From the ranks of these specialists the leaders necessary for the development and diversification of agricultural industries were foisted. Australians could not be said to have developed a strong national sentiment towards agriculture. No matter from what angle the problem of agricultural education was viewed, it resolved itself ultimately into the problem of providing a sufficiency of trained teachers, agricultural specialists, investigators, and extension workers, and using them as units in an organised scheme of instructional, investigational, and extension work. That was the clear and unmissable lesson to be learned from the educational efforts of other countries.

in co-operation with local communities and organisations. Since the experiment stations were founded, there had been gained a patient investigation sufficient knowledge of soils, crops, and stock to enable the total wealth from agricultural production to be greatly augmented if the information could be widely disseminated and brought home to the last farm and the last farmer. The county agent's office was the clearing house of agricultural information in his district. He was continually observing what the best farmers were doing. A new development of note in any one district, or any other discovery, was immediately made known to other districts. The less progressive a man was the less he cared what others were doing. Consequently the aim in effective extension work was to reach out and get in touch with those men who were usually responsible for bearing down the average yields of the state. The county agent did succeed in reaching these farmers because he was permanently located in the district, and by making farm to farm visits he gave the personal touch which was notably lacking in all other forms of extension work. The main features of the agricultural education system of the United States were: (1) A group of agricultural colleges providing a four-year course of instruction for students, and short courses for farmers who could only afford a few weeks each year; (2) a group of agricultural research stations; (3) a small, well-trained, publicity men, and county agents; (4)

Federal Department of Agriculture working in closest co-operation with the colleges and experiment stations in the work of education and investigation. The United States expenditure on agricultural education and research now exceeded £12,000,000 annually. In the 15 years prior to the war

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NEWS. 8.8.25.
AGRICULTURAL RESEARCH

Lack of Co-ordination

While much has been accomplished in the direction of agricultural research in South Australia well-informed authorities consider that more might be done.

"In America bulletins are tested broadcast, and although valuable reports have been made available by the South Australian Department of Agriculture from time to time in respect to soil testing, in view of the annual expenditure not enough use is made of them."

News. 6.9.5