73869

CHARACTERIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)

 by

ANJALI K $(2014-11-111)$

THESIS

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture Kerala Agricultural University

DEPARTMENT OF AGRONOMY COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE VELLAVANLTHIRUYANANTHAPURAM-695522 KERALA, INDIA

2016

DECLARATION

1, hereby declare that this thesis, entitled "CHARACTERIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)" is a bonafide record of research work done by me during the course of research and the thesis has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, associateship, fellowship or other similar title, of any other University or Society.

Vellayani, ANJALIK.

Date: 09/09/2016 (2014-11-111)

II.

CERTIFICATE

Certified that this thesis, entitled "CHARACTERIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)" is a record of bonafide research work done independently by Ms. Anjall K. (2014-11-111) under my guidance and supervision and that it has not previously formed the basis for the award of any degree, diploma, fellowship or associateship to her.

Ann mg

Vellayani, Date: 09/09/2016 Dr. Ameena, M. (Major Advisor, Advisory Committee) Assistant Professor (Sr. Scale) Department of Agronomy, College of Agriculture Vellayani.

IV.

CERTIFICATE

We, the undersigned members of the advisory committee of Ms. Anjali K (2014-11-111),, a candidate for the degree of Master of Science in Agriculture with major in Agronomy, agree that the thesis entitled "CHARACTERIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)" may be submitted by Ms. Anjali K in partial fulfillment of the requirement for the degree.

offen atulit

Dr. AMEENA M. Assistant Professor (Sr. Scale) Department of Agronomy, College oi Agriculture, Vellayani.

 $\sqrt{\frac{9}{4}}$
Dr. SANSAMMA GEORGE

Professor

Department of Agronomy,

College of Agriculture, Vellayani

 $\frac{1}{\log |h|}$

Dr.NIMMV JOSE

Assistant Professor (Sr. Scale) Rice Research Station, Moncompu, Thekkekkara, Alappuzha.

 $\frac{1}{\alpha}$

Dr. SHEELA K.R, Professor & Head Department of Agronomy, College of Agriculture. Vellayani.

 $(uu)^{M}$ $\frac{1}{9}$ u^{16}

Dr. R.V. MANJU Professor & Head Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani

EXTERNAL EXAMINER

Notralebarana Professor & Head (Agronomy) Agricultural Research Station, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University Bhavanisagar - 638451

ACKNOWLEDGEMENT

First and above all, I am grateful to the GOD, for the good health and wellbeing that were necessary to complete this book and for providing the energy and enthusiasm through ramifying the paths of thick and thin of my efforts.

I have been amazingly fortunate to have such an advisor who gave me the freedom to explore on my own and at the same time the guidance to recover when my steps faltered. I keep searching for adequate words but in vain to express my sincere and profound gratitude to my chairperson Dr. Ameena., M, Assistant Professor, Oepartment of Agronomy for her prodigious guidance, unstinted attention, criticaf comments, well-timed support, warm encouragement and worthy advices she provided me for the last two years.

I cordially offer my sincere and heartfelt gratitude to Dr. Sheela, K, R., Professor and Head, Department of Agronomy and member of advisory committee for the timely support and help during the study.

I deem it my previlage in expressing my fidelity to the member of my advisory committee Dr. Sansamma George, Professor, Department of Agronomy for her explicit instructions, dexterous help and valuable suggestions throughout my investigation

I sincerely express my profound gratitude to Dr. Manju R.V, Professor, Department of Plant Physiology and member of advisory committeefor her continuous support, encouragement and unaccountable help rendered throughout my study.

I wish to express my deep sense of gratitude to Or. INmmy Jose, Assistant Professor, Rice Research Station, Moncuombu; and member of advisory committee for her continuous support, encouragement, dexterous help and valuable suggestions throughout my study.

I wish to ecpreee my deep sense of gratitude to Dr. Geethakumari, V.L., Dr. R. Pushapkumari, Dr. Elizebth, K. Syriac, Dr. S. Sajitharani., Dr. Kumari, O. Swadija, Dr. S. Lakshmi, Dr. Girija Devi, L., Dr. P. Babu Mathew, Dr. ShaliniPillai, P., Dr. Usha, C. Thomas and Dr. Rajasree Nair faculty members of Department of Agronomy, for the help and support rendered in all aspects for my $thessis$ work...

My special thanks goes to Dr. Vijaya raghava kumar and Dr. K, Uma maheswaran for their help, motivation and support during the course of study.

b

I express my gratitude to the seniors in my department Devi mam, Gayathri chechi, Sheeja mam, Bindumam, Sharu mam, Nishan chechi, Vipitha chichi, Pintu chechi, Anjana Chechi, Surya chechi and Soumaya chechi. I thankfully acknowledge my aratitude to Shibu chettan, Remani chechi, Vimala chechi, Resmi chechi, Anjitha chechi, Stabitha and Akhil for their whole-hearted co-operation and help during the entire period of my research work.

I express my immense gratitude to Raju chettan, Alli chehci, Reejesh chettan and all other labourers for being with me at time.

I do not have words to express my gratitude to my juniors Afna, Varha and Preethu for their love, care and support during the difficult situations.

I express my loving thanks to my classmates Amala, Eldhose, Dona, Ishrath, Elsa, Sheeba, Anjali, A. Hari, Vinod Alur and Vinod Mavarkar.

Many friends have helped me stay sane through these difficult years. Their support and care helped me overcome setbacks and stay focused on my research. I greatly value their help and friendship and I deeply appreciate their belief in me. My heartfelt gratitude to my besties Athulya, Namitha, Anjana and Saumya for their company, constant help, support and inspiration. I express my loving gratitude to Abhimanyu, Jithin, Nikitha and Shelvy for their timely help and assistance.

Also it's a pleasure to acknowledge my everloving seniors Vennadee, Sreekanth sir lovely juniors Manjus, Mamatha and Arya, our Golden group members Sarath, Ambika Sahoo, Anju and Thamilarasi who directly or indirectly, have lent their hand in this venture and the list won't get complete without the name of Balachandran Soman my besty, for inspiring me and teaching me to face toughest situations.

A special thanks goes to my energetic juniors Anjana, Reshma, Athira, Sethu Lakshmi, Limisha, Akhila, Madan, Shekar, Bhaashma and Hareeshma.

I do not have words to express my love, affection and gratitude to my senior Arya $chechi$. Without their help, suggestions and support this thesis would not have been readzed

I am thankful to the KAV for awarding the KAV fellowship during my study.

Words are not enough to express my whole-hearted and affectionate gratitude to my Achan and Amma for their unbounding love, unparallel affection and unstinted encouragement throughout my career and without whose invaluable moral support, the thesis would not have seen the light of the day. I pay my love and homage to my dear sisters Anjana and Anjitha, lovely brother Manesh, Achamma, Midhun ettan and other family members. I also wish to express my loving gratitude to my fatherin-law and mother- in-law. Words are scarce to express my immeasurable thanks to my love Mahesh, who patiently and silently supported my endeavor and shared all the hard moments with love, care and affection.

Though only my name appears on the cover of this thesis, a great many people have contributed to its production. I owe my gratitude to all those people who have made this thesis possible and because of whom my post graduate experience has been one that I will cherish forever.

Anjali K

TABLE OF CONTENTS

viii.

LIST OF TABLES

IX.

Â,

ID

$\mathbf x$

LIST OF TABLES CONTINUED

UST OF TABLES CONTINUED

XI

 $\overline{\omega}$

Xll

LIST OF PLATES

Xlll

LIST OF PLATES CONTINUED

13

xlv

LIST OF PLATES CONTINUED

 \mathcal{U}_t

LIST OF FIGURES

XVI

LIST OF APPENDIX

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

xviil

١Í

Introduction

 \sim z

1. INTRODUCTION

More than half of the world population consider rice as their principal energy source and Asia accounts for 90 per cent of world rice production. To meet the global rice demand it is estimated that about 114 Mt of additional milled rice needs to be produced by 2035 (Singh et al., 2015). In India, the most common method of rice crop establishment is manual transplanting of seedlings in puddled soil. However, to cope up with the problems of labour and water shortage, farmers are shifting from puddled transplanted rice to Direct Seeded Rice (DSR). DSR has advantages like early and easy establishment, lower water requirement, less labour intensive, early maturity by 7 to 10 days and low methane emission (Chauhan, 2012a). Though DSR has all these benefits, one of the major threats that has evolved by continuous adoption of this system was the emergence of one of the most serious weeds in rice field ie. weedy rice (Oryza sativa f. spontanea Roschevicz). It is biosimilar to cultivated rice in most of the attributes and very difficult to identify during the initial stages. Weedy rice is regarded as the most problematic weed of $21st$ century and has already invaded the major rice growing states of the country with an infestation level of 5 to 60 per cent (Varshney and Tiwari, 2008).

Weedy rice, a menace in rice field has largely evolved by natural hybridization between wild and cultivated rice (Rathore et al., 2016). It is presently considered as a major problem in rice fields of Kerala. During recent years, heavy infestation of weedy rice in rice fields of Kerala caused a yield reduction of 30 to 60 per cent with a severity of infestation ranging from 3 to 10 mature plants $m²$ (Abraham et al , 2012). It has already infested large rice growing areas across major rice tracts of Kerala viz., Palakkad, Kuttanad and Kole lands with its diverse morphotypes. Weedy rice has competitive advantage over cultivated rice as it grows taller and faster, tillers profusely and competes with cultivated rice for nutrients, light and space. It flowers much earlier than cultivated rice and produces grain that shatter

easily thus enhancing the weed seed bank. Important traits for the success of weedy rice are early shattering of the grain and variable seed dormancy (Chauhan, 2013). It cannot be differentiated from cultivated rice during the vegetative stage and by the time panicle emerges the damage has already been done. Morphological characterization is hence aimed at identifying the morphological characters of different weedy rice morphotypes in comparison with cultivated rice. With its good physiological traits weedy rice has high level of adapting ability to environmental stress (Rathore et al., 2016). Study of physiological and agronomic characters of weedy rice will help to assess its competing ability.

 σ ₀

The yield loss under weedy rice infestation ranged between 60 to 80 per cent under moderate (15-20 weedy rice panicles m⁻²) to high (21-30 panicles m⁻²) infestation (Azmi and Karim, 2008). Yield of tall and short rice cultivars are reduced by 60 and 90 per cent respectively by weedy rice densities of 35 to 40 plants m^2 , indicating greater loss associated with weedy rice than other grassy weeds (Kwon et $al.$, 1991). Different variants of weedy rice exhibited different growth habits and this affects the growth and yield of cultivated rice differently (Estorninos et al., 2002).

In the absence of selective herbicides, increasing crop competitiveness by higher seed rate and seed priming will help to reduce the weedy rice population (Juraimi et al , 2013). The yield of rice increased with increase in crop seeding rates and seed priming reduces the emergence time, boosts germination percentage and favours competitive advantage over weedy rice. Seeding rates greater than 150 kg ha⁻¹ were practiced in some weedy rice infested areas to reduce the problem of weedy rice. High seeding rates improve the ability of crop to suppress weeds more effectively by facilitating quick canopy closure (Chauhan and Jolinson, 201 la). Seed priming improved competitive ability of crop against weeds with faster emergence and increased vigour which are the key factors for weed suppression (Clark et al., 2011). Seed priming should be considered as a management strategy for weedy rice by increased weed competitiveness in direct seeded rice. Increasing rice crop

2.

interference could reduce weedy rice growth significantly. Hence information on the combined effect of higher seed rate and seed priming will help to develop a strategy for management of weedy rice.

One of the many factors affecting rice production is changing climate as evident from the changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide, rainfall and temperature which will affect the competitiveness of major weeds of rice. As per the projections of Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change (IPCC), the atmospheric carbon dioxide concentration is expected to reach 730 to 1020 ppm by 2100 (Meehl et al., 2007). Ziska et al. (2010) reported that weedy rice responds more strongly to rising carbon dioxide levels than cultivated rice with its greater competing ability suggesting the magnitude of weedy rice as a problem weed in future rice production system. Studying crop weed response in elevated $CO₂$ condition will help to assess its nature of weediness in rice production systems in the era of climate change.

Keeping the above in view, the present study has been proposed with the following objectives

- Morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala
- Formulation of a management strategy
- Assessment of the crop-weed interference under elevated $CO₂$ concentration

Review of Literature

2. REVIEW OF LITERATURE

St3

Rice $(Oryza sativa L.)$ is a major food crop that feed more than half of the world population. More than 90 per cent of the world's rice area and production is fiom Asia. India accounts for an annual production of 104 million tons fiom 45 million hectares. However, to meet the estimated demand of 122 million tons in 2020, the production should increase 22 per cent in the next 10 years. Factors unfavourable to rice production include dwindling land and water resources, labour shortage, hike in fuel prices and changing climatic conditions. Transplanted rice production system largely practiced by Indian farmers faced a shift to direct seeded rice (DSR) production system. According to Chauhan and Johnson (2010), DSR had various advantages like easy to plant and establish, less labour intensive, consumes less water, matures 7 to 10 days earlier, and has fewer methane emissions. Kumar and Ladha (2011) reported that in spite of these advantages, one of the major problems of DSR was the emergence of weeds, and weedy rice (Oryza sativa f. spontanea Roschevicz) is one of the serious groups among them.

Weedy rice is reported to have infested more than 50 countries of the various continents of which Asia is the most infested. Infestation of weedy rice was first reported from Malaysia, Philippines and Vietnam during 1990s (Mortimer et al., 2000). This unwanted plant of the genus Oryza with red or rough pericarp was first documented in USA in 1846 (Londo and Schall, 2007). Weedy rice is known by different names in different parts of the world like Padi Angina in Malaysia, Valvi in Sri Lanka, Khoanok in Thailand and Junglidhan in India (Varshney and Tiwari, 2008). Weedy rice infestation was first reported in India in 1994. The problem was reported from various upland rice production systems of India $i.e.,$ from rice ecosystems of eastern states like Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Odisha, Manipur, West Bengal, and the hilly tracts of the northeast where DSR has been practiced for a long time (Singh et al., 2013).

Weedy rice infestation was first reported from Kerala during 2005, when farmers shifted largely to chemical weeding and mechanical harvesting in the context of acute labour shortage and high wage rate. In Kerala many farmers abandoned rice cultivation due to the severe incidence of weedy rice in rice fields during 2008-09 (Abraham and Jose, 2014). Survey conducted during 2009 to 2012 in major rice growing tracts of Kerala recorded a weedy rice population of I to 15 plants m'^ from infested areas (Jose, 2015).

Watanabe et al. (1996) reported a yield loss of 60 percentages under 35 percentage infestation of weedy rice and 75 percentage yield loss was recorded under serious infestation in direct seeded rice. Chin et al. (2000) studied the yield loss in rice proportionate to weedy rice infestation and found that the yields were 4.05, 2.75 and 0.43 t ha⁻¹ respectively when the number of weedy rice seeds $m⁻²$ was 10,100 and 1000. Azmi and Karim (2008) reported that in Malaysia weedy rice infestation reduced the yield by 60 percentages under moderate infestation of 15 to 20 panicles of weedy rice m^2 and by 80 percentages under high infestation of 21 to 30 panicles $m²$ and 100 percentage yield loss under heavy infestation. Abraham and Jose (2014) reported a crop yield loss of 30 to 60 per cent for weedy rice infestation of 3 to 10 mature weedy rice plants $m²$.

Weedy rice is a natural mutant of cultivated rice with morphological characters similar to rice which make their differentiation difficult in the early growth stages. The research works done on the biology of weedy rice in comparison with cultivated rice and various management practices are reviewed in this chapter. As the competitiveness of this weed in the future era of climate change is studied, relevant literature on crop weed competitiveness on elevated CO₂ levels is also reviewed.

2.1 WEEDY RICE

2.1.1 Origin and Evolution of Weedy Rice

Weedy rice is complex of *Oryza* morphotypes of the grass family poaceae with more than 20 wild species and 10 different genome types. According to Chauhan (2012), weedy rice belongs to the same genus Oryza as that of cultivated rice. But it exhibits some weedy characters which helps for its better survival and establishment in the rice production systems. Characters which adds to the competitiveness of weedy rice includes greater seed dormancy and longevity, high susceptibility to seed shattering, and red pigmentation of pericarp. The above mentioned traits makes the management of weedy rice more difficult and hence it reduces the farmers income by reducing grain yield, quality and profit (Chauhan, 2013).

According to Chen et al. (2004), wild rice species, particularly those of the O. sativa (AA) complex (i.e., O. rufipogon, O. barthii and O. longistaminata) and three species of the O . *officinalis* complex (i.e., O . *punctata*, O . *latifolia* and O . officinalis), have become invasive and troublesome weeds in rice production system. They are expected to be the progenitor of weedy rice. Weedy rice exhibit both phenotypic and genotypic variations (Kumar and Ladha, 2011) and such variations lead to the evolution of weedy rice morphotypes and ecotypes. Chauhan (2013) reported that weedy rice grows unintentionally and vigorously in and around cultivated rice.

Three major hypotheses of weedy rice evolution/origin include natural hybridization between wild rice and cultivated rice, through a process of "dedomestication" of cultivated rice to weedy rice and through direct adaptation of wild rice to continuous habitat disturbance along with domestication of crop species (Londo and Schall, 2007).

2.1.2 Dispersal of Weedy Rice

Weedy rice found to spread rapidly from infested to non infested areas by several means. The most common mechanism of weedy rice seed dispersal includes use of weedy rice contaminated seed lots. According to Delouche et al. (2007), contaminated seed lots act as the major source for the dispersion of weedy rice. Use of machineries contaminated with weedy rice seeds also act as another source. Kanwar et al. (2013) reported that use of certified seeds and proper cleaning of machineries could be adopted as appropriate measures to control weedy rice spread and establishment. Weedy rice also gets dispersed by irrigation water, irrigation channels, heavy winds, storms, floods etc. Reports are available highlighting the importance of awns for seed dispersal. Awn helps for the spread of weedy rice by sticking in to the fur of animals and cloths of humans. Apart from this awns also help in the easy movement of weedy rice though water. Presence of parallel rows of trichomes on grain surface of weedy rice helps in better grip of seeds and facilitate seed dispersal (Jose, 2015).

2.13 Spread and Distribution of Wild and Weedy Species in India and Kerala

Since India is considered as the center of origin of cultivated rice, germplasm of various weedy and wild relatives are associated with this rice growing area. Similar to two groups of rice cultivars viz., indica and japonica, weedy rice is also classified into two and further classification was possible based on the cultivated and wild types. According to Suh *et al.* (1997), Indian weedy rice belongs to indica type, emphasizing that these weedy rice biotypes might have originated by natural hybridization between cultivated rice (indica type) and wild rice.

Being the center of origin of rice, a rich source of wild rice genome are present here and the various species includes O. nivara (AA), O. rufipogon (AA), O. malampuzhaensis (BBCC), O. eichingeri (BBCC), O. granulata (GG), O.

meyeriana (GG), O. indandamanica (GG), and O. ridleyi (HHJJ). Among the wild rice species O, nivara and O. rufipogon are likely to cross pollinate easily since it shares the same genome as cultivated rice (Brar and Khush, 1997).

dL^

According to Vaughan and Sitch (1991) in India, wild and weedy species of rice are mostly concentrated at the eastern (Uttar Pradesh, Bihar, Odisha, Manipur, and West Bengal) and southern parts (Kamataka, Kerala etc), while a few or no infestation was reported from some northern states like Punjab and Haryana. The most common weedy rice species found in Indian rice fields are O. sativa f. spontanea (Vaughan, 1994). Western Ghats acts as the biodiversity hot spot of wild and weedy rice species in southern India and its extension in Kerala (especially places like Bhoothathankettu, Parambikulam, and Kuralai forest reserves) acts as the insitu reserve of the same (Thomas et al., 2001).

2.1.4 Weedy Rice Emergence

Weedy rice exhibits greater competing potential than cultivated rice by its various characters like profuse tillering, taller growth habit, variable seed dormancy, prolific seed shattering, early establishment of vigorous root system *etc* (Kanwar *et* $al., 2013$). This imparts greater competing potential to weedy rice for various growth resources like water, nutrients, light etc.

According to Gealy et al. (2000), weedy rice emergence depends upon various characters like soil texture, soil moisture, seed burial depth, tillage methods and soil temperature. Its emergence decreases with an increase in seed burial depth both under moist and flooded soil conditions. Vidotto and Ferrero (2000) stated that no emergence was recorded from seeds placed below 4 cm depth under flooded conditions (water depth 4 to 5 cm). From the study conducted at Italy it was noted that maximum emergence of weedy rice was recorded from top 0 to 5 cm depth of soil, while zero emergence was noted at a depth of below 10 cm soil layer (Chauhan, 2012b).

Suh and Ha (1993) reported that cultivated rice is found more vulnerable to flooding than weedy rice, in such a way that weedy rice recorded 60 to 100 per cent germination at a water depth of 9 cm, while it was zero for cultivated rice. It was also reported that weedy rice emergence was high under no till system than rotary tillage or ploughing and rotary tillage. This was due to the fact that deep burial of seeds during ploughing prevents the germination of weedy rice seeds and reduces the infestation than no till plots. Ferrero and Vidotto (1999) also reported a decrease in weedy rice seed germination from 2.5 to 7.2 per cent as the burial depth increase from 0 to 10 cm,

2.2 MORPHOLOGY OF WEEDY RICE

According to Hussain et al. (2010) weedy rice exhibits morphological characteristics that are similar to cultivated rice in the early stages of growth, making them more difficult to control than other weeds.

According to Adair and Jodon (1973), culm angle in weedy rice morphotypes ranged from erect to open and suggested that the erect growth habit was recessive to that of a spreading or procumbent growth. Estominos et al. (2002) reported that weedy rice might vary among different variants. The presence of erect plant types could be due to back-crossing between accessions or with the commercial rice cultivar (Gealy et al., 2006). Leaf attitude of weedy rice is classified into erect, semi erect and descending catagories (IRRI, 2007). Vaiiations were observed even in weedy rice morphotypes collected from the same location (Chauhan, 2013).

Larinde in1979 reported about weedy rice morphotypes with different awn length and awn colour from USA. He also reported about some morphotypes with short awns or without awns which might be due to the result of segregation after natural crossing. Gealy and Estominos (2004) reported that the specific rate of outcrossing appeared to be influenced by many factors like the rice variety, the weedy rice ecotype, vertical and horizontal distances between panicles, synchronization of flowering, and aspects of the environment that are not well understood. Burgos (2005) reported that purple coloured pigmentation in the leaf sheath, leaf margin and culm region of weedy rice morphotypes helps in their differentiation from cultivated rice. Microscopic analysis of weedy rice grain surface reported the presence of trichomes and long awns (FAO, 2007). Awns sticks on the fur of animals and help in weedy seed dispersal.

Nelson (1908) reported that weedy rice was always found growing in "clumps" because of numerous tillers up to 60 plant⁻¹. Quereau (1920) stated that weedy rice had an open growth habit with culms growing at an angle of about 65[°] from the vertical rather than essentially erect like the cultivated rice. Shivrain (2010) and Song et al. (2014) , reported that there exist high phenotypic diversity in weedy accessions across different countries, both within and among geographical regions.

2.3 PHYSIOLOGY OF WEEDY RICE

Kannangara (1991) reported that chlorophyll content can be used as an effective index of high photosynthetic efficiency in rice breeding programmes. Hussain et al. (2010) stated that chlorophyll contents at 60 to 70 days after sowing (DAS) were higher for rice than those of the weedy rice accessions. Leaf colour was either green, light green or dark green in all the weedy rice accessions, but commercial varieties only have dark green leaves at the later growth stages (Hussain et al., 2010). A significant reduction of leaf chlorophyll content, flag leaf area and total biomass of cultivated rice was recorded due to weedy rice competition, irrespective of fertilizer application (Kodituwakku et al., 2011).

According to Ishihara and Saito (1987); and Hirasawa et al. (1988), stomatal aperture as well as conductance was strongly correlated with leaf photosynthesis in rice. Maruyama and Tajima (1990) and Ohsumi et al. (2007) reported that varietal differences in stomatal conductance were positively correlated with leaf conductance as well as with the rate of photosynthesis. Swamy et al. (2010) reported that stomatal number correlates positively with stomatal conductance and frequency and was higher at adaxial surface than abaxial surface.

As per Minotti and Sweet (1981) there were several traits that contributed to weed competitiveness in rice and greater root volume is one among them. According to Lai et al, (2013), higher root-shoot ratio helped plants for better water absorption and uptake. Mahajan et al. (2014) reported that high root biomass and volume correlated positively with competitiveness.

Dodson in 1898 reported that weedy rice was found hardier than cultivated rice due to several characters, easy and heavy grain shattering is one among them. Sastry and Sitharaman (1973) reported that early seed shattering of weedy rice was a specific character controlled by the gene Sh exhibited shattering character either in dominant homozygous or heterozygous. According to Ferrero (2010) the germinability of shattered and non shattered seeds is about 20 per cent at 9 days after flowering and reaches 85 per cent at 12 days after flowering. Molecular level works on the shattering ability showed that abscission layer was formed by the inactivation of the CTD phosphates like gene OsCPL 1 hastening seed shattering in rice (Abraham et al., 2012). Yearly addition of weedy rice seeds to soil seed bank intensifies the problem over years and management of weedy rice becomes more difficult (Chauhan, 2013).

Environmental conditions, especially moisture and temperature had significant influence on seed dormancy and viability. A rapid loss of seed dormancy of weedy rice was reported at a moisture content of 6 to 14 per cent and it was very low at moisture content below 5 per cent and above 18 per cent (Leopold et al., 1988). Gu et al. (2006) reported that seed dormancy was associated with environmental factors during seed development. Seed dormancy will be longer for seeds of the dry region since waiting for the wet period favourable for germination (Veasey et al., 2004). High variations in seed longevity helps to retain the viability of weedy rice seeds in soil seed bank and germinate as and when the condition become favourable. This makes weedy rice more persistent in our cultivated rice systems (Azmi and Karim, 2008). According to Suh (2008), dormancy of weedy rice range from a few months to years, and fluctuate with ecotype and storage conditions.

According to Noldin (2000), seed longevity of weedy rice in soil varies with ecotypes and factors like burial depth, soil moisture, and seed dormancy. From study conducted by Noldin et al. (2006) at two locations in Texas and USA, it was found that weedy rice seed longevity increased with increases in burial depth. They found that seeds from the 5 cm soil layer exhibit zero viability after one year, while that buried 12 to 25 cm deep remained viable longer than two years. Some ecotypes form Arkansas, U.S, retained viability (more than 20 per cent) even after 10 years when buried at a depth of 17 cm.

Deep ploughing or tillage is not recommended in areas severely infested with weedy rice because it helps in deep placement of seeds and keeps them viable in soil seed bank for longer periods. Chin et al. (2000) reported that reduction in viability of weedy rice seeds was faster in moist condition than under submerged conditions. One of the most important characters that add to the dispersion, distribution and competitiveness of weedy rice was its heavy and early seed shattering. Azmi and Karim in 2008 reported that seed shattering behaviour is biotype specific and varies from a few days to a few weeks.

2.4 AGRONOMY OF WEEDY RICE

According to Stansel et al. (1965) and Smith (1968), height is a competitive trait in plant communities and weeds taller than the crop are usually most competitive during the latter half of the season. Taller plants have greater effect on the yield components than growth of the crop as a result of the shading effect and lodging. Patterson (1982) reported that increasing shade would increase plant height until photosyntliate production limits growth. Weedy rice morphotypes are taller compared to cultivated rice varieties (Kwon et al., 1991 and Suh et al., 1997). Chauhan and Johnson (2010) reported that shading caused by rice interference could not influence height of different weedy rice biotypes. Chauhan (2013) stated that weedy rice morphotypes were more tolerant to shade than cultivated rice. Jose et al. (2013) reported about some weedy rice morphotypes with dwarf stature from Kerala.

Earliness in flowering was observed in weedy rice compared to cultivated rice. Weedy rice flowering depends on various characters like day length, plant age, and biotype (Longevin et al., 1990). Early flowering resulted in early grain maturing and seed shattering. Shattered seeds were furtlier added to soil seed bank and intensify the problem in future (Perreto et al., 1993). Weedy rice recorded a flowering period ranging from 8 to 93 days, which was far higher than cultivated rice (7 to 22 days). The floret opening period in weedy rice was also found one hour longer compared to cultivated rice, providing more chance for cross pollination in some weedy rice biotypes (Mongkolbunjong et al., 1999). Olguin et al. (2007) reported that compared to cultivated rice, panicles emerge earlier and mature asynchronously in weedy rice.

Devendra et al. (1983) reported that a low Leaf Area Duration (LAD) could lead to incomplete development of the sinks and will result in a lower yield. According to Ferrero and Vidotto (1999) it is very difficult to distinguish between weedy rice and rice crop in the seedling stage but once tillering starts, weedy rice

could be easily identified by their more numerous, longer and more slender tillers. Zhang et al. (2002) commented about the significant effect of tillering on LAI of rice. Rathore et al. (2016) reported a marked difference in the panicle length and number of panicles in rice and weedy rice.

3

Morphotypes with pigmented nodes exhibited colourless or white awns (Larinde, 1979). Weedy morphotypes having anthocyanin in the apiculus also showed pigmentation in other plant parts like ligules, margins of leaves, intemodes and auricles. This dominant character of anthocyanin pigmentation is controlled by multiple genes (Espinoza et al., 2005). Jose et al. (2013) reported that thousand grain weight of weedy rice ranged between 18 to 19.5 g. Zhang et al. (2015) reported about the existence of pollen sterility in weedy rice morphotypes viz., Cytoplasmic Male Sterility (CMS) which was used in hybrid breeding programmes. Sterile and half filled grains in weedy rice always exhibited a higher germination percentage and even half filled grains were found to germinate under favourable conditions (Jose, 2015).

2.5 MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE

Since weedy rice mimics cultivated rice, all the measures adopted to control weedy rice will naturally affect the cultivated rice. Management of weedy rice is remaining as a challenge for the Indian farmers. Various studies conducted so far revealed that, management of this weed is not possible using a single methodology and hence an integrated approach is needed. According to Maliajan and Chauhan (2013), adoption of Integrated Weed Management (IWM) strategies, which includes preventive, cultural, mechanical, chemical and biotechnological approaches should be adopted for the effective management of weedy rice under Indian conditions. Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness is a relatively new approach.

2.5.1 By Enhancing Rice Competitiveness

Apart from other management practices, weedy rice infestation could be reduced by increasing the rice competitiveness either by the adoption of high crop seeding rate or by priming methods.

2.5.1.1 Adoption of High Crop Seeding Rates

One approach that helps to increase crop competitiveness against weeds is the use of higher seed rate (Mortensen et al. 1998; Gibson et al. 2002; Chauhan and Johnson., 2011b). According to Ahmed et al (2014) use of high seed rate results in quick closure of canopy and which helps to suppress weeds more effectively.

Competitiveness of rice could be increased by using higher seed rate and narrow spacing. This helps in the faster closure of crop canopy and adds to its competing potential. As per the studies of Azmi et al. (2000), when the seed rate increased from 20 to 80 kg ha⁻¹ rice grain yield was increased in DSR system of Malaysia which was severely infested with weedy rice.

Increasing plant density is one of the ways to increase the yield. An increased yield was observed with an increase in plant density up to a limit and thereafter a decline in yield was recorded. This reduction in yield might be due to the reduction in resources per plant. So the reduction in yield will not be compensated by increasing plant number (Yoyock, 1979). Optimum plant density had positive effect on yield of rice (Sivaesarajah et al., 1995). As per the works of Kenneth and Helms (1996), number of panicles per unit area decides yield variations up to 90 per cent in rough rice. It was also reported that number of plants per unit area has an impact on plant architecture, growth and development and production of photosynthates. Very high plant density limits the access of growth resources such as light, water and nutrients due to greater competition among the plants (Abuzar et al., 2011).
Sharma (1994) reported that there was a positive correlation between high seed rate and yield up to a certain level and beyond that optimum level of seed rate, plant yield would start to decline. Height of cultivated rice was reported to decrease with increases in weedy rice density (Kwon et al , 1991). Akbar and Ehsanullah (2004) reported that seeding density had no significant effect on plant height According to Harris and Vijayaragavan (2015) plants tend to grow taller in search of light at a high seeding rate or closer spacing.

Plant population had a significant effect on photosynthetic characters of rice crop and LAI per plant increase along with an increase in density. According to Akita (1982), increase in number of plants per unit area makes more leaf area available for the production of photosynthates. So high LAI per unit area is due to increase in number of plants per unit area (Hu et al., 2000).

Increase in rice yield with increase in seed rate (density) has been reported by Baloch et al. (2002). According to them the plants have sufficient space at low seed rate and this enables to utilize more nutrients, water and solar radiation for better photosynthesis. It was noticed that as the seed rate increased, yield per plant decreased. Although per plant yield was higher at the lowest seed rate (density), this did not compensate for the contribution in terms of yield by more plants at the higher density (Harris and Vijayaragavan, 2015).

Evans and Datta (1979) reported that highest seed rate might result in greater contribution from each plant towards flower and grain formation than lower seed rates and greater radiation during the reproductive and ripening stages. Kennath and Helms (1996) reported that grain yield in rough rice was highest at optimum plant population. Harris and Vijayaragavan (2015) suggested that higher yield may be due to other factors like the panicle and spikelet number $m⁻²$, percentage of filled grains, thousand grain weight and harvest index.

According to Miller et al. (1991), panicle density was the key factor that determines and contributes 89 per cent of differences in yield. Baloch et al. (2002) supported the findings that greater number of plants per unit area multiplies the panicle number per unit area. Increasing seed rate beyond optimum result in more plant population per unit area resulting in severe competition between plants. This further adds to production of unhealthy plants with small panicle making crop susceptible to pests and diseases (Harris and Vijayaragavan, 2015).

Murata et al. (1957) reported that if seed rate is increased beyond an optimum point, there would be an increase in leaf area and vegetative parts per unit area, which will result in increased respiratory rates and which in tum will lead to a reduction in the number of grains. Yoshida (1972) also reported a reduction in number of spikelets beyond an optimum plant density. The physiological explanation of this might be of the fact that increase in photosynthetic apparatus and vegetative parts per unit area will result in a proportionate increment in the respiratory rates which in tum could lead to a reduction in filled grains (Harris and Vijayaragavan., 2015).

According to Akbar and Ehsanullah (2004) high sterility percentage was recorded at a higher seed rate. Harris and Vijayaragavan (2015) reported that compared to panicle density number of filled grains panicle"' is the most important factor that contributes to yield.

Akita (1982), reported that increasing the value of HI is one of the ways to increase the crop yield. Sink formation and ripening are the two physiological processes that explain the improvement in HI.

Finding of Phuhong et al. (2005) explains that in lowland rice, higher seeding rates favoured rice against weeds and, at the same time, increased yields under weedy conditions. Zhao et al. in 2007 reported that in Philippines, seeding rates of 100 to 300 viable seeds m^{-2} increased yield and decreased weed biomass in

aerobic rice systems. According to Guillermo et al. (2009), at low seeding rates, crop plants take more time to close their canopy, which enhances the weed growth. High seeding rates improve the ability of crops to suppress weeds and can reduce yield loss even under partially weedy conditions.

As per the finding of Ahmed et al. (2014), weed infestation level and seeding rate had significant influence on rice biomass which was found to increase when seed rate was increased from 20 to 100 kg ha^{-1}. Lower seed rate results in lesser crop densities and crop cover during the initial growing period, leaving more resources for the growth of weeds and thus enables them to establish and grow quickly.

Weiner et al. (2001) reported that in wheat highest crop biomass was recorded fiom plots treated with high seeding rate even in the presence of weeds. Ni et al. (2004) reported about strong and consistent negative effects due to increased crop density. Ahmed et al. (2014) reported that under weed fiee conditions, the number of grains panicle"' decreased with increase in seeding rate and under partially weeded condition, grain yield was increased by 30 to 33 per cent.

Chauhan (2013) reported that leaf number of rice plant was affected by cultivar and weedy rice density. It was found that leaf production of cultivated rice was significantly affected by weedy rice densities and a decline was observed in the leaf production with increase in weedy rice densities. Variations were reported in the growth and morphological characteristics of different weedy rice morphotypes, further affecting the competitive interactions between weedy rice and cultivated rice.

Diarra et al. (1985) reported that blackhull weedy rice biotypes had 27 per cent more tillers and 18 per cent more straw than strawhull biotypes. Number of tillers in five weedy rice variants of Phillippines ranged from 34 to 48 tillers plant⁻¹ (Chauhan and Johnson 2010).

Aboveground shoot biomass of cultivated rice was affected by the interactions of factors like rice cultivar, weedy rice variant and weedy rice density. Cultivars differed in their competitive ability at low weed infestation but poor response was shown at high weed infestation. The grain yield of cultivated rice was significantly affected by the interaction between weedy rice variants and density (Chauhan, 2013).

Taller weed plants are known to reduce crop yield more than shorter weed plants (Liebman et al., 2001), mainly because of more shading. Low light is known to significantly decrease growth and grain yield in rice (Gibson and Fischer 2004; Praba et al. 2004). High weedy rice infestation can decrease the yield of cultivated rice drastically (Chauhan, 2013).

Kwon et al. (1991) reported that rice yield declined by an average of 270 kg ha⁻¹ for each weedy rice plant up to 20 weedy rice plants m⁻². In a study in the U.S., rice yield reductions were between 100 and 755 kg ha⁻¹ for every weedy rice plant $m²$ (Ottis *et al.*, 2005).

2.5.1.2 Adoption of Priming Methods

Rice competitiveness was increased by various priming methods like hydropriming and hardening. According to Anwar *et al.* (2012) seed priming had significant effect in reducing mean germination time and increasing germination percentage, germination index and seedling vigour index.

According to Rowse (1995) and Farooq et al. (2007) seed priming results in partial hydration of seeds without radicle emergence and activation of most of the physiological processes enliancing the germination and vigour of primed seeds. Such seeds imbibe and revive metabolic activities soon after sowing even after redrying back to initial moisture content exhibiting reduced physiological heterogeneity in germination.

Many researchers studied the effect of seed priming on rice (Lee and Kim, 2000; Ruan et al., 2002; Basra et al., 2004). Primed seeds showed uniform germination, increased germination rate, better allometric attributes and faster emergence of seedlings (Basra et al., 2005; Kaya et al., 2006; Farooq et al., 2007). Farooq et al. (2009) tried various priming methods to improve speed and synchrony of seed germination using methods like soaking prior to sowing, hardening, hormonal priming, hydropriming, osmohardening, osmoconditioning, wetting and drying, ascorbate priming and solid matrix priming.

Du and Tuong (2002) reported a positive influence of seed priming on weed suppression in direct seeded rice even at a low seeding rate. Zhao *et al.* (2007) reported that seed priming did not have any significant influence on weed suppression. Anwar et al. (2012) reported 22 to 27 per cent reduction in weed dry weight by various priming methods in rice. Seed priming and primed stands of rice were found to be more competitive against weeds than unprimed ones.

According to Harris et al. (1999) even simple on farm priming (soaking seeds overnight in water) increases the germination rate and early vigour resulting in higher yields of upland rice. Du and Tuong (2002) and Kaur et al. (2005) reported that priming leads to faster crop growth, early flowering and high yield. Findings of Anwar et al. (2012) showed that relative yield loss due to rice weed competition was as high as 30 per cent and it was reduced to 20 per cent by various priming methods.

Clark et al. (2001) opined that seed priming improved the competitive ability of crop against weeds along with increased vigour and faster emergence which are the key factors for tolerating weeds. Harris et al. (2002) reported that seed priming helped rice seedlings to compete more successfully with weeds. Zhao *et al.* (2006) and Anwar et al. (2012) showed that priming results in rapid seed germination thereby enhancing the competitiveness of rice by imparting characters like early vigour, faster growth rate and high crop biomass.

Harris et al. (2002) reported that due to seed priming rice seedlings could compete more successfully with weeds. According to Anwar et al. (2012), priming methods like hydropriming and hardening results in plants with similar height. He also reported that seed priming enhanced plant height from early growth stage (15 DAS) to harvest and resulted in taller plants.

Clark et al. (2001) reported that better crop stand from primed seeds resulted in rapid canopy development giving preliminary advantage to rice plants over weeds. Basra et al. (2005) reported that priming results in synchronized seed emergence with high vigour. Farooq et al. (2009) observed that primed seeds recorded high LAI and which might be due to the increased efficiency in resource capture and photosynthate assimilation. Anwar et al. (2012) reported that tillering was not significantly influenced by priming techniques but it helps to maintain a weed free condition for crop growth resulting in increased tillering. He also reported that improved LAI was possible while for primed seeds due to the strong and energetic start by vigorous seedlings.

Farooq et al. (2006) reported that number of tillers and panicles were not affected by priming treatments, while thousand grain weight was high for seeds subjected to hardening followed by hydropriming. Anwar et al. (2012) stated that primed seeds exhibited an enhanced germination rate (2 times higher) than unprimed seeds. Of the various priming methods tested hardening and hydroprimig had almost similar effect.

According to Anwar et al. (2012) competition between rice and weeds results in the reduction of Harvest Index (HI) by 10 per cent and seed priming could be effectively used to overcome this problem. He also reported that seedling emergence rate, indicated by higher germination percentage and speed of germination was enhanced by seed priming reflected as higher germination index, lower mean germination time and days to 50 per cent germination.

2.6 RESPONSE OF RICE AND WEEDY RICE TO ELEVATED ATMOSPHERIC $CO₂$

Rising carbon dioxide concentration by various anthropogenic activities had a major role in climate change. Global carbon dioxide concentration has risen from 280 to 300 μ mol mol⁻¹ in the past 250 years and is expected to reach 600 μ mol mol⁻¹ sometime around 2050 (Bolin, 1998; IPCC, 2007). Climate change also influences the weed communities in rice production system by affecting the weed species distribution and prevalence within weed and crop communities (Mahajan et al., 2014).

Various weed management operations could be affected by climate change and ultimately influence the competitiveness of major weeds associated with rice production system. According to Ziska (2003), weeds showed a greater response to elevated CO2 rather than crops. He also reported that weedy rice responded well to elevated CO₂ concentration compared to cultivated rice varieties. Singh and Jasrai (2011) reported that effects of elevated $CO₂$ to plant growth was more pronounced during early growth stages and reduced greatly at later stages of growth.

Kimball et al. (2002) reported that plants with C_3 photosynthetic pathways showed greater response to elevated $CO₂$ compared to plants with $C₄$ pathways. Since weedy rice behave like a C_4 weed with C_3 mechanism, which adds to its competitiveness (Fuhrer, 2003). He also reported that increased atmospheric $CO₂$ levels are likely to be accompanied by higher temperature favouring C_4 weeds over C_3 crops.

Ziska et al. (2010) suggest weedy rice as one of the most problematic weed in future rice production system as it responds more strongly to rising $CO₂$ level than cultivated rice with greater competing ability. Mahajan et al. (2014) reported that climate change not only affect the crop-weed competition, but also trigger early A.

flowering leading to weed seed gennination in several flushes causing serious weed management issues. This earliness in flowering of weedy rice might help to complete its life cycle faster and initiation of more life cycles even within a single crop period.

Weedy rice had high tillering nature which resulted in a high LAI for this plant group (Seeneweera et al., 1994). Matsui et al. (1997) demonstrated that high temperature during flowering induced pollen sterility in rice. This indicated that high temperature associated with elevated carbon dioxide levels induce sterility in rice. Kim et al. (2003) reported a liner relationship between the percentage increase in yield at elevated $CO₂$ and the percentage increase in spikelet number. However, Sherchand and Sharma (2004) reported that elevated $CO₂$ had only little effect on number of grains panicle $^{-1}$.

It can be concluded that to maintain the sustainability of rice production system research should focus on environmental factors affecting crop weed interactions. As climate change has became a reality and it is time to alter the weed management strategies with approaches that will combat the adversities of climate change. Innovative approaches should be developed to assist farmers cope with the challenges of climate change.

Materials and Methods

 μ

3. MATERIALS AND METHODS

The present investigation on 'Characterization and management of weedy rice $(Oryza sativa f. spontanea)'$ was aimed at morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala, formulation of a management strategy and assessment of crop-weed interference under elevated $CO₂$ concentration. The whole programme was carried out during 2014-16 as three separate experiments as given below

- Experiment I: Morpho- physiological and agronomic characterisation of weedy rice (Pot culture)
- Experiment II: (a) Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness (Microplot study)
	- (b) Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness (confirmatory trial in farmer's field)
- Experiment III: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice (Pot culture inside OTC)

3.1 EXPERIMENT DETAILS

3.1.1 Location

Pot culture experiment on 'Morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotype' was carried out at College of Agriculture, Vellayani. Micro plot experiment on 'Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness' was undertaken in the wetlands of the Instructional Farm College of Agriculture (COA), Vellayani, Kerala. The experimental field is located at 8⁰ 25'49" N latitude and 76® 39' 04" E longitudes at an altitude of 29 m above the mean sea

level. Confirmatory trial was conducted in farmer's field of Kanjirathadi padasekharam, in Nemom block, Thiruvananthapuram district, Kerala. Third experiment on 'Effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice' was undertaken as a pot culture experiment in the Open Top Chamber (OTC) facility available in the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani.

 H^2

3.1.2 Climate and Season

Pot culture experiments were taken up during October 2014 - January 2015 and the field experiments were conducted during December 2015 and 2016. A warm humid tropical climate is experienced by the area. The data on various weather parameters, viz., weekly rainfall, maximum and minimum temperature, relative humidity and sun shine hours during the period are presented in Appedix I and graphically represented in Fig 1.

3.1.3 Soil

The soil of the experimental site belonged to the textural class of sandy clay and the taxonomical order Oxisol. The physico-chemical properties of the soil were estimated fiom the composite sample collected at 15 cm depth from field prior to experiment. Data are given in Table I.

3.1.4 Cropping History of the Experimental Site

The experimental site at COA, Vellayani are single cropped wet lands fiom May-June to September- October. The site at farmer's field are double cropped wet lands where first crop was raised under semi dry system and second crop as transplanted or wet sown crop.

Fig 1: Weather data during crop period (December 2014-March 2015) Fig 1: Weather data during crop period (December 20t4-March 2015)

Standard Weeks Standard Weeks

 H^2

reather Parameter:

Table 1. Physico-chemical properties of soil at experiment site

 5^0

3.2 MATERIALS

3.2.1 Crop and variety

The most popular rice variety of the state Uma, was used for the field experiment. It was developed by Rice Research Station, Moncompu, Kerala which is a cross between MO-6 and Pokkali (Pedigree selection, 1988). It is a medium duration red, medium bold variety having a dormancy period of three weeks and suited to all three seasons in Kerala. Other promising characteristics of the variety are dwarfhess, medium tillering, non lodging, resistance to brown plant hopper (BPH), gall midge (GM) biotype-5 and other major pests.

3.2.2 Manures and Fertilizers

The organic manure source used for the experiment was well decomposed dry cow dung containing 0.55 per cent N, 0.23 percent P_2O_5 and 0.46 per cent K₂O. Nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium were applied as urea (46 per cent N), rajphos (20 per cent P_2O_5) and muriate of potash (60 per cent K_2O) respectively. Half N, full P and half K were applied as basal and the remaining half N and K were applied at the time of panicle initiation.

3.2.3 Open Top Chamber (OTC)

Open Top Chamber (OTC) is a structure constructed using UV stabilized polyethylene sheets supported on iron frames and 1 m^2 area at the top end is kept open for free movement of air.

5'

3.3 METHODS

3.3.1 Experiment 1: Morplio-physiological and Agronomic Characterisation of Weedy Rice Morphotypes (Pot culture)

3.3.1.1 Design and Layout

The experiment consisted of growing 8 weedy rice morphotypes collected from major rice tracts of Kerala along with one short duration rice variety (Jyothi) and one medium duration rice variety (Uma) in pots. The major locations from where these morphotypes collected included Thiruvananthapuram, Kuttanad, Kole lands of Thrissur district, Palakkad, Kozhikode and Kaipad lands of Kannur (Ezhome).

3.3.1.2 Treatments

Ti: WRM -1 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Trivandrum having red awn colour) T2: WRM-2 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Trivandrum having while awn colour) T3: WRM -3 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Kuttanad having white awn colour)

Plate 1: Layout of pot culture experiment

59-

N

T4 : WRM -4 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Kole having white awn colour) Ts: WRM -5 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Palakkad having red awn colour) T6 : WRM -6 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Palakkad having white awn colour) T7: WRM -7 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Kozhikode having white awn colour) Tg: WRM -8 (Weedy Rice Morphotype from Ezhome having pink awn colour)

 5°

Control (cultivated varieties)

T9: Jyothi (Short duration)

 T_{10} : Uma (Medium duration)

3.3.13 Sowing and Establishment

Weedy rice seeds were allowed to germinate after breaking dormancy and pre germinated seeds (two seeds per pot) were sown in earthen pots of size 50 cm depth and 30 cm diameter filled with clayey soil collected from rice field. Flooded situation was maintained throughout the crop growth period and all packages of practices were followed. Morpho- physiological and agronomic characters were observed at periodical intervals and recorded for both weedy rice and cultivated rice.

3.3.1.4 Crop Management

All cultural practices except weed management were carried out as per the Kerala Agricultural University Package of Practices (POP) recommendations 'Crops' (KAU, 2011).

5>^

Plate 2: Field view of pot culture experiment

3.3.1.5 Pest and Disease Management

Pests viz., rice stem borer, leaf roller, rice bug and bacterial blight disease were controlled effectively by adopting Integrated Pest Management (IPM) and Integrated Disease Management (IDM) strategies. The pest and pathogen population were maintained below economic threshold level.

33.1.6 Harvest

After panicle emergence each weedy rice morphotype was separately bagged in order to prevent the shattering of grains. Panicles from each weedy rice morphotype and cultivated rice varieties were harvested separately, grains seperated and yield was recorded.

33.1.7 Observations

33,1.7.1 Morphological Characters at 15 DAS (for Rice and Weedy Rice)

All these observations were recorded based on the 'Morphometric Descriptors for wild and cultivated rice' of IRRl, 2007.

3.3.1.7.1.1 Attitude of Leaf Blade

Measured as the angle of attachment between the leaf blade and the main panicle axis. Various classes included are

-
- Erect (1) Horizontal (5)

55

- Semi-erect (intermediate) (3) Descending (7)
-

Plate 3: Attitude of leaf blade

3.3.1.7.1.2 Anthocyanin Colouration of Nodes

The presence and distribution of purple colour (anthocyanin) was observed on the outer surface of the nodes on the culm. Various classes included are

-
- Absent Light purple
-
- Purple Purple lines

3.3.1.7.1.3 Colour and Length of Ligule

A ligule is a thin outgrowth at the junction of leaf and leaf stalk of many grasses.

\triangleright Ligule colour

Various classes include

- Absent (liguleless)
- Whitish
- Yellowish green
- Purple
- Light purple
- Purple lines

\triangleright Ligule length(mm)

Measured from base of collar to the tip of the ligule of the penultimate leaf, i.e. the leaf below the flag leaf.

33.1.7.1.4 Presence of Awns

Recorded as

• Absent • Present

33.1.7.1.5 Colour of Awns

Awn colour was observed visually after anthesis and grouped into the following categories

- Absent (awnless) Light green
- Whitish Red
- Straw Purple
-
- Brown (tawny)

3.3.1.7.1.6 Awn Length

The length of the awn in *mm* was taken from the tip of the grain to the tip of the awn.

3.3.1.7.1.7 Number of Tillers Plant¹

Recorded as the total number of panicle bearing and non bearing tillers.

3.3.1.7.1.8 Culm Thickness (cm)

Measured as the outer diameter of basal portion of the main culm.

-
-
-
- Gold Black

 5°

3.3.1.7.2 Physiological Characters (at 75 DAS & at 50 % Flowering Stage of Rice and Weedy Rice)

3.3.1.7.2.1 Chlorophyll Content

Chlorophyll content was estimated by DMSO (Dimethyl sulphoxide) method. A weighed quantity of sample $(0.5g)$ was taken and cut into small bits. These bits were put in test tubes and incubated overnight at room temperature, after pouring 10 ml DMSO : 80% acetone mixture(1:1 v/v). The coloured solution was decanted into a measuring cylinder and made up to 25 ml with the DMSO- acetone mixture. The absorbance was measured and readings were taken at 663. 645, 480 and 510 nm using spectrophotometer. The chlorophyll content was expressed as mg \mathbf{g}^{-1}

Chla a =
$$
(12.7 \times A_{663} - 2.69 \times A_{645}) \times V/1000 \times 1
$$
/ fresh weight

Chla b =
$$
(22.9 \times A_{645} - 4.68 \times A_{663}) \times V/1000 \times 1
$$
/ fresh weight

Total Chla (a +b) = (8.02 × A₆₆₃ + 20.2 × A₆₄₅) × V/1000 × 1/ fresh weight

3.3.1.7.2.2 Total Soluble Protein

The total soluble protein of leaf samples were estimated using simple protein dye binding assay of Bradford (1976) using bovine serum albumin as the standard. One hundred milligram of CBB 250 was dissolved in 50 ml of 95 % ethanol. To this 100 ml of 85 % (w/v) orthophophoric acid was added. The resulting solution was diluted to a final volume of 200 ml with distilled water. 0.1 g of leaf samples were taken from third fully opened leaves and was ground to a thin paste and soluble protein was extracted with 10 ml of phosphate buffer (pH 7.8). The extract was centrifuged at 5000 rpm for 10 minutes. To the 20 μ l of the supernatant a known volume (5 ml) of diluted dye binding solution was added. The solution was mixed well and allowed to develop a blue colour for at least 5 minutes but no longer than 30 minutes and the absorbance was measured at 596 nm. The protein content was calculated using the BSA standard in the range of $(10-100 \mu g)$. The protein content was expressed as mg⁻¹ FW.

3.3.1.7.2.3 Stomatal Frequency

Stomatal count refers to the number of stomata per unit area of leaf. A thick mixture of thermocol and xylene was prepared and this was smeared on both the surfaces of leaves and allowed to dry. It was peeled gently after drying and the peel was observed under microscope and counted using a 40 x objective and 10 x eye pieces. The field of the microscope was measured using a stage micrometer and stomatai frequency per unit area was calculated for both abaxial and adaxial surfaces.

Stomatal frequency $=$ No of stomata/ area of the microscopic field.

3.3.1.7.2,4 Stomatai Conductance (gs)

Stomatai conductance was measured using the SAl-1 Porometer of company Delta T Devices and was expressed in milli moles $m^2 s^{-1}$.

3.3.1.7.2.5 Root Volume

The individual root system volume was measured by means of displacement method.

33.1.7.2.6 Root dry weight

After harvest root samples were carefully separated and dried in an oven at 70 \pm 5⁰C till constant weight was attained and the dry weight was expressed in 'g'.

33,1.7.2.7 Root Shoot Ratio

After harvest root and shoot were separated dried to constant weight and ratio of weight of roots to shoots were worked out

33.1.73.8 Grain Threshability

Determined by hand grip technique (Azmi et al., 2000). Five matured panicles of each morphotype were shattered by hand grip and the grains that were detached from the panicle were counted as shattered. The percentage of shattering was calculated by dividing the number of shattered seed over the total number of seeds panicle⁻¹ multiplied by 100.

33.1.7.2.9 Seed Longevity

Seed longevity is the seed viability after dry storage. Longevity was checked by germination test of the dry stored seeds at monthly interval for a period of 18 months.

3.3.1.7.3 Agronomic Attributes (for Rice and Weedy Rice)

3.3.1.7.3.1 Plant Height

Height of the plant was recorded at 50% flowering stage. The height was measured from the base of the plant to the tip of the longest leaf at vegetative stage and to the tip of the longest ear head at harvest stage. The mean was expressed in $"cm'.$

3.3.1.73.2 Days to 50 % Flowering

Number of days taken by 50 % of the hills to flower was recorded.

3,3,1.7.3.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

Leaf Area Index was calculated at 50 % flowering stage. LAI was computed by the following formula developed by Watson (1947).

 \mathfrak{b}

LAI = Leaf area plant⁻¹ (cm²)

Land area occupied by the plant cm^2)

In field study as there was no definite spacing for weedy rice plants, leaf area $m²$ was used to indicate the crux of this index.

33,1,73.4 Leaf Area Duration of Flag Leaf

Leaf area duration (LAD) was calculated using the formula suggested by Watson (1947) and expressed in days.

$$
\text{LAD} = \frac{L_i + (L_i + 1) \times (t_2 - t_1)}{2}
$$

 L_i = LAI at first stage $L_i + 1 = LAI$ at second stage $(t_2 - t_1)$ = time interval between stages in days

33.1.73.5 Panicle Type

Panicles were classified according to the branching, angle of primary branches and spikelet into various classes

Compact • Intermediate • Open

33.1.7.3.6 Panicle Length

Length of main axis of five randomly selected panicles of observational plants was measured from base to the tip and the average expressed in 'cm'.

ĥe

3.3.1.7.3.7 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The entire spikelels including filled and unfilled grains were counted from five panicles and the mean number of spikelets panicle⁻¹ was worked out.

33.1.7.3.8 Sterility Percentage

The number of filled and unfilled grains panicle⁻¹ was obtained from ten randomly selected panicle separately and sterility percentage was worked out using the following relationship.

Sterility percentage =	Number of unfilled grains per panicle	$\times 100$
Number of total grains per panicle	$\times 100$	

3.3.1.7.3.9 Grain Yield Plant¹

Five sample plants were harvested individually, threshed, cleaned, dried to 14 per cent moisture, weighed and average out to express the grain yield plant'' in g plant''.

3.3.1.7.3.10 Straw Yield Plant¹

The straw obtained from five sample plants was dried to constant weight under sun, weighed and averaged out and the straw yield expressed in g plant⁻¹.

3.3.1.73.11 Thousand Grain Weight

One thousand grains were counted from the cleaned and dried produce from the observational plants and the weight of the grains was recorded in 'g'.

3.3.2 Experiment II (a): Management of Weedy Rice by Enhancing Rice Competitiveness (Microplot Study)

3.3.2.1 Methods

33.2.1.1 Design and Layout

33.2.1.2 Treatments

- T_1 Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ + without priming
- T_2 Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming
- T_3 Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ +hardening with 2.5 % KCl
- T_4 Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ + without priming
- $T₅$ Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming
- T_6 Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hardening with 2.5 % KCl
- T_7 Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ + without priming
- $T_{\rm g}$ Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ +hydropriming

 b^1

Plate 4: Layout of micorplot study

 T_9 - Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ +hardening with 2.5 % KCl

3.3.2.1.3 Field Preparation

Weedy rice management by enhancing rice competitiveness in terms of high seeding density and seed priming was evaluated by raising cultivated rice and most common weedy rice morphotype in micro plots. The experimental area was ploughed twice, levelled and weeds and stubbles were removed. The micro plots of size 1×1 $m²$ were separated by bunds of 10 cm width and drainage channels were provided on the sides.

3.3.2.1.4 Application of Manures and Fertilizers

Dry cowdung powder was incorporated at the time of last ploughing. Full dose of phosphorous along with half dose of nitrogen and potassium were applied as basal dose at 15 DAS and remaining dose of chemical fertilizers were topdressed at 55 days after sowing (DAS) as per the Package of Practices Recommendations 'Crops' (KAU, 2011).

3.3.2.1.5 Application of Lime

Lime $@$ 600 kg ha⁻¹ was applied in two split doses, the first dose of 350 kg $ha⁻¹$ as basal dressing at the time of first ploughing and the second dose of 250 kg ha⁻¹ as top dressing one month after sowing. For top dressing, lime was applied one week prior to the application of fertilizers.

3.3.2.1.6 Seed Treatment and Sowing

Weighed quantities of seeds in accordance with the seed rate were subjected to hydropriming and hardening after germination test. In hydropriming, seeds were soaked in water for 48 h and redried back to original moisture content. In hardening, seeds were dipped in 2.5% KCl solution for 18 hours and redried back to original

Plate 5: General field view of microplot experiment

Plate 6: Bagged weedy rice panicle

Plate 7: A panicle of weedy rice in field situation

moisture content (Sheela, 1993). Seeds were broadcasted in each plot as per treatments.

b

3.3.2.1.7 Crop Management

All the cultural practices except weed management were carried out as per the Package of Practices Recommendations 'Crops' (KAU, 2011).

3.3.2.1.8 Weed Management

Rice was raised along with the most common weedy rice of the locality maintaining a standard weedy rice population of 7 plants $m²$ and the other weeds were removed as and when it appeared in the field.

33.2.1.9 Pest and Disease Management

Rice bug incidence was managed by suitable IPM practices.

3.3.2.1.10 Harvest

The crop was harvested when the grains attained maturity, leaving one row on four sides as border. The net plot area was harvested separately, threshed, winnowed and weight of grains and straw from individual plots were recorded. After panicle emergence weedy rice plants were separately bagged in order to prevent the shattering of grains. Grains from weedy rice and cultivated rice were harvested separately and yield was recorded.

3.3.2.1.11 Observations

All the agronomic attributes of rice crop as well as weedy rice was recorded from the observational plants at the time of harvest. The methodology of all these observations are explained under 3.3.1.5.3

3.3.2.1.12 Grain Yield ha⁻¹

The net plot area leaving one border row from all sides was harvested individually, threshed, cleaned, dried to 14% moisture and weighed to express the grain yield in t ha⁻¹.

3.3.2.1.13 Straw Yield ha⁻¹

The straw obtained from net plot area was dried to constant weight under sun and weighed to express the straw yield in t ha⁻¹.

3.3.2.1.14 Harvest Index (HI)

Harvest index was worked out using the formula suggested by Donald and Hanohlin (1976).

Economic yield $HI =$

Biological yield

33.3 Experiment II (b); Management of Weedy Rice by Enhancing Rice Competitiveness (Confirmatory Trial in Farmer's Field)

The field experiment was repeated under farmer's field situation during December 2015 to March 2016 for confirmation of results.

3.3.3.1 Methods

33.3.1.1 Design and Layout

Design : Randomised Block Design (RBD)

Treatments : 9

w

Plate 8: Layout of field expriment

 6°

3.3.3.1.2 Main Field Preparation

The experimental area was ploughed twice, levelled and weeds and stubbles were removed. Three blocks with twenty seven plots were laid out in randomized design with a plot size of 7×2 m². The blocks were separated with bunds of 30 cm width and two drainage channels were provided in between the blocks. All other field level operations were repeated exactly as in Experiment 11 (a).

 70

3.3.3.1.3 Observations

All set of observations listed under Experiment II (a) were repeated for this experiment also.

333.1.3.1 Observations on Weeds

3.3.3.1.3.1.1 Weedy Rice Count $m⁻²$

Weedy rice population was estimated from the net plot area using a quadrat of size 50 x 50 cm from each plot at harvest stage. The weedy rice population was expressed as the number of plants $m²$.

Plate 9: General filed view of management study in farmers field

Plate 10: Various stages of rice establishment a) Field layout b) Sowing c) Harvesting d) Threshing

3.3.3.1.3.1.2 Weedy Rice Dry Weight (g m^{-2})

The weedy rice plants from the net plot area in each plot were uprooted, cleaned, dried under shade and oven dried at 70 \pm 5 °C, till it recorded constant weight and expressed as $g m²$.

가.

3.3.3.1.3.1.3 Weed Control Efficiency

Weed control efficiency was calculated using the following formula (Upadhyay and Sivanand, 1985).

$$
WCE = \frac{(X-Y) \times 100}{X}
$$

 $WCE =$ weed control efficiency

- $X =$ weed dry weight from treatment which recorded maximum number of weeds
- $Y =$ weed dry weight from the treatment for which weed control efficiency has to be worked out.

3.3.3.1.4 Economic Anaiysis

For analysing the economics of cultivation, net income and benefit cost ratio were determined based on cost of cultivation and prevailing price of the crop produce.

3.3.3.1.5 Net Income

Net income was computed using the formula,
Net income $(Rs. ha^{-1}) = Gross$ income – Cost of cultivation

3.3,3,1.6 Benefit Cost Ratio (BCR)

Gross income

 $BCR =$

Cost of cultivation

3.3.4 Experiment III: Effect of Elevated CO₂ Concentration on Growth of Rice and Weedy Rice (Pot Culture in OTC)

3,3.4.1 Methods

The most common morphotype of weedy rice and two cultivated rice varieties (Jyothi and Uma) were raised in pots under elevated $CO₂$ concentration of 500 ppm in OTC (Chamber A), OTC without external CO₂ supply (Chamber B) and Open condition.

33,4.1,1 Design and Layout

Design : Completely Randomised Design

Treatments : 9

Replications : 3

Location : OTC at COA, Vellayani.

3.3.4.1.2 Treatments

 $T₁$ - Jyothi in Chamber A

 T_2 - Weedy rice in Chamber A

T3- Uma in Chamber A

Plate 11: Layout of experiment at OTC

 γ

T4- Jyothi in Chamber B

T5- Weedy rice in Chamber B

T6- Uma in Chamber B

T7- Jyothi under open condition

Tg- Weedy rice under open condition

T9- Uma under open condition

3.3.4.1.3 Sowing and Establishment

Seeds of most common morphotype of weedy rice present in the locality were allowed to genninate after breaking dormancy. Pre germinated seeds of Jyothi, Uma and weedy rice were sown (two seeds per pot) in plastic pots of size 30 cm depth and 20 cm diameter filled with clayey soil collected from rice field. Flooded situation was maintained throughout the crop growth period and all package of practices were followed.

T-'

3.3.4.1.4 Pest and Disease Management

No pest and disease were observed inside the chambers as well as open condition.

3.3.4.1.5 Harvest

After panicle emergence weedy rice panicles were separately bagged inorder to prevent shattering of grains. Panicles from weedy rice, Jyothi and Uma were harvested separately, grains removed and yield was recorded.

33.4.4 Observations

All the yield attributing characters as explained under Experiment II were observed separately for Uma, Jyothi and Weedy rice at 30 DAS and 50% flowering.

3.3.4.6 Statistical Analysis

The data recorded were subjected to Analysis of Variance techniques (ANOVA) as applied to Completely Randomized Design and Randomized Block Design described by Cochran and Cox (1965). The treatment vs. control comparison is denoted as 'S' when significant and *NS' when not significant.

 $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$, $\mathcal{L}(\mathcal{L})$,

ąî

'}t>

4. RESULTS

The experiment entitled "Characterization and management of weedy rice $(Oryza sativa f. spondanea)$ " was taken up during 2014-16 as three separate experiments viz., morpho- physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice (Pot culture); management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness (micro plot and farmers field); and effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice. The main objectives of the study were morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala; formulation of management strategy and assessment of crop-weed interference under elevated $CO₂$ concentration. The data recorded from the study was analyzed statistically and the results are presented in this chapter.

4.1 EXPERIMENT I: MORPHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL AND AGRONOMIC CHARACTERIZATION OF WEEDY RICE MORPHOTYPES

4.1.1 Morphological Characterization

Observations were recorded based on the 'Morphological Descriptors for wild and cultivated rice' (IRRI, 2007).

4.1.1.1 Attitude of Leaf Blade

The result on attitude of leaf blade is presented in Table 2.

Leaf blade attitude of weedy rice morphotypes belonged to the categories of Erect, Semi erect and Descending. The most common leaf blade attitude was semi erect (intermediate) type similar to cultivated varieties viz., Jyothi and Uma. This included morphotypes from Thiruvananthapuram, Kutlanad, Kole and Palakkad. Morphotypes collected from Palakkad with white coloured awns (WRM- 6) and Ezhome had descending attitude, while that from Kozliikode had an erect attitude.

	Category					
Treatment	Semi erect Erect (intermediate)		Horizontal	Descending		
$T_1(WRM-1)$		Thiruvananthapuram red				
T_2 (WRM-2)		Thiruvananthapuram white				
T_3 (WRM-3)		Kuttanad				
T_4 (WRM-4)	\rightarrow	Kole				
T_5 (WRM-5)		Palakkad red				
T_6 (WRM-6)				Palakkad white		
T_7 (WRM-7)	Kozhikode	۰	۰	÷		
T_8 (WRM-8)				Ezhome		
Control						
Cultivar - 1	Ξ	Jyothi				
Cultivar - 2		Uma				

Table 2. Attitude of leaf blade in weedy rice morphotypes and rice varieties

29

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

4.1.1.2 Anthocyanin Colouration of Nodes

The intensity of anthocyanin colouration at nodes of various morphotypes is presented in Table 3.

The intensity of colour varied from purple to purple lines. Similar to cultivated rice varieties (Jyothi and Uma), weedy rice morphotypes WRM- 2 (Thiruvananthapuram white), WRM- 3 (Kuttanad) and WRM- 7 (Kozhikode) lacked any anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodal region. However, morphotypes from Ezhome had an intense purple nodal pigmentation. Morphotypes from Kole (WRM-4) and Palakkad (WRM- 5) had purple line, whereas those from Thiruvanantliapuram (WRM- 1) and Palakkad (WRM- 6) had light purple pigmentation.

4.1.1.3 Colour of Ligule

The result on colour of liguie is presented in Table 4.

A wide variation in liguie colouration was observed ranging from whitish to purple line. Two of the morphotypes had liguie colour similar to cultivated rice varieties. Morphotypes from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- 2), Kuttanad (WRM- 3) and Palakkad (WRM- 6) had whitish liguie, while another morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- I) and Palakkad (WRM- 5) had yellowish green liguie similar to Jyothi and Uma. Morphotype from Ezhome (WRM- 8) showed the same colour for liguie as well as nodal region viz., light purple. Morphotype from Kole (WRM- 4) belonged to purple line category and that from Kozhikode was in light purple category.

	Category						
Treatment	Absent	Purple	Light	Purple			
			purple	lines			
T_1 (WRM-1)		Thiruvananthapuram					
		red					
T_2 (WRM-2)	Thiruvananthapuram	\overline{a}					
	white						
T_3 (WRM-3)	Kuttanad						
T_4 (WRM-4)	w.	\equiv	Kole				
T_5 (WRM-5)		\rightarrow	Palakkad				
			red				
T_6 (WRM-6)		÷		Palakkad			
				white			
T_7 (WRM-7)	Kozhikode	۰					
T_8 (WRM-8)		Ezhome		$\overline{}$			
Control							
Cultivar - 1	Jyothi	Ξ.					
Cultivar - 2	Uma						

Table 3. Anthocyanin pigmentation of nodes in weedy rice morphoypes and rice varieties

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

Table 4. Colour of ligule in weedy rice morphotypes and rice varieties Table 4. Coloar of ligule in weedy rice morphotypes and rice varieties

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

8

4.1.1.4 Colour of Awn

The result on awn colour is presented in Table 5.

There was wide variation in the colour of awns ranging from whitish to black. Morphotype from Kozhikode (WRM- 7) had whitish awn colour while that from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- 2) and Kuttand (WRM- 3) had straw coloured awns. Morphotype from Kole alone (WRM- 4) had brown coloured awns. Morphotypes from Palakkad (WRM- 6) exhibited light green and red coloured (WRM- 5) awns. Another morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- 1) had red coloured awns, while purple coloured awn was observed in Ezhome (WRM- 8).

4.1.1.5 Length of ligule (mm)

The results are presented in Table 6.

A significant variation was noticed in the ligule length of morphotyes during initial stages and at 50 per cent flowering stage. During initial stages, the ligule length ranged from 3.70 mm (WRM- 4) to 13.7 mm (WRM- 8). Ligule length of WRM- 2 was found to be on par with WRM- 5 and WRM- 7 (4mm). Among cultivated rice varieties, Jyothi recorded higher ligule length (9.7 mm) compared to Uma (6.7 mm) at 15 DAS. At 50 per cent flowering, ligule length became insignificant with Uma recording a ligule length of 7.7 mm. Among weedy rice morphotypes, Palakkad (WRM- 6) recorded significantly higher ligule length (22.3 mm) followed by Ezhome and Thiruvananthapuram with a ligule length of 14.7 and 14 mm. At 50 per cent flowering morphotype from Kozhikode (WRM- 7) recorded significantly lower ligule length (4.3 mm) and was comparable with morphotypes from Kole (WRM-4) and Palakkad (WRM- 5) with a ligule length of 5 and 5.3 mm respectively.

 \mathcal{E}

 $\tilde{\mathbf{a}}$

4.1.1.6 Culm thickness (cm)

The results are presented in Table 6.

Culm thickness during initial stages varied from 1.57 to 2.43 cm. Morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- 1) recorded a higher culm thickness (2.43 cm) followed by morphotypes from Kole (2.4 cm), Palakkad (2.3 cm) and Kozhikode (2.07 cm) . A significantly lower culm thickness was recorded by morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM- 2) and Ezhome (WRM-8) at 1.57 cm each at 15 DAS. No significant difference in culm thickness was observed between cultivated rice varieties (Jyothi and Uma) and weedy rice morphotypes during initial stages. There was a significant difference in the culm thickness of weedy rice and cultivated rice at reproductive stage. At 50 per cent flowering morphotype from Kuttandu recorded a significantly higher culm thickness (3.37 cm), followed by Thiruvananthapuram (3.23 cm) while rice varieties Jyothi and Uma had a culm thickness of 1.93 and 2.27 cm only. All the weedy rice morphotypes had higher culm thickness compared to cultivated rice varieties at 50 per cent flowering stage.

6^

4.1.1.7 Number of tillers plant¹

The results are presented in Table 6.

There was a marked difference in the tillering habit of weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties. Number of tillers in weedy rice morphotypes was found to range from 8 to 20. Morphotype from Palakkad with red awn colour showed a significantly higher tillering habit (20), which was on par with the number of tillers plant⁻¹ in morphotypes from Thiruvananthapuram (16 and 17) and Kole (16). Morphotype from Ezhome only exhibited a low tillering habit compared to cultivated rice varieties.

Table 6. Length of ligule, culm thickness and number of tillers planf'of WRM and rice varieties

ô

'WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype DAS: Days After Sowing

4.1.2 Physiological Characterisation

4.1.2.1 Chlorophyll Content (mg $100g^{-1}$)

The results are presented in Table 7.

There was no significant difference between the chlorophyll a content of weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties during initial stages, but at 50 per cent flowering stage a marked difference was observed. Morphotype from Ezhome recorded significantly higher chlorophyll a content both at 15 DAS (1.74 mg $100g⁻¹$) and at 50 per cent flowering stage (1.84 mg $100g⁻¹$). There was no significant increase in chlorophyll a content during the course of growth. Morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram and Kozhikode recorded significantly lower chlorophyll a content at 15 DAS $(1.26 \text{ mg } 100g^{-1})$ and at 50 per cent flowering stage (0.93 mg) $100g^{-1}$).

 σ

No significant difference was observed between rice and weedy rice in chlorophyll b content at 15 DAS and at 50 per cent flowering. Highest chlorophyll b content at 15 DAS was recorded by morphotype collected fiom Ezhome (0.69 mg $100g⁻¹$) followed by morphotype from Kozhikode (0.36 mg $100g⁻¹$). At 50 per cent flowering stage morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram $(0.53 \text{ mg } 100g^{-1})$ recorded higher chlorophyll b content followed by the morphotype from Kole $(0.52 \text{ mg } 100 \text{ g}^{-1}).$

No significant difference was observed in total chlorophyll content during the initial stages (15 DAS), while a marked difference was there during the later stages (at 50 per cent flowering stage). Morphotype from Ezhome (WRM-8) recorded higher total chlorophyll content of 2.43 mg $100g⁻¹$ during the initial stages followed by that from Kozhikode. Morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram (WRM-2) recorded lower total chlorophyll content of 1.54 mg $100g^{-1}$.

Treatment	Total chlorophyll $(mg 100^{-1} g)$		Chlorophyll a $(mg 100^{-1} g)$		Chlorophyll b $(mg 100^{-1} g)$		$TSP(mg g-1)$	
	15	50%	15	50%	15	50%	15	50%
	DAS	FLW	DAS	FLW	DAS	FLW	DAS	FLW
T_1 (WRM-1)	1.68	2.20	1.35	1.68	0.33	0.53	0.13	1.07
T_2 (WRM-2)	1.54	1.71	1.26	1.34	0.28	0.38	0.30	0.84
$T_3(WRM-3)$	1.63	1.76	1.33	1.37	0.30	0.39	0.30	0.56
T_4 (WRM-4)	1.72	1.63	1.46	1.11	0.26	0.52	0.41	0.59
$T5$ (WRM-5)	1.62	2.19	1.31	1.70	0.32	0.49	0.45	0.61
T_6 (WRM-6)	1.61	2.00	1.30	1.53	0.31	0.48	0.36	0.50
T_7 (WRM-7)	1.79	1.18	1.44	0.93	0.36	0.25	0.18	0.55
T_8 (WRM-8)	2.43	1.72	1.74	1.84	0.69	-0.12	0.43	0.83
SE m $(±)$	0.68	0.03	1.16	0.04	0.80	1.19	1.57	1.75
CD(0.05)	0.00	0.02	0.00	0.03	0.01	0.01	0.01	0.01
Control								
Cultivar- 1 (Jyothi)	1.17	2.52	0.86	1.73	0.31	0.79	0.51	0.73
Cultivar -2 (Uma)	1.15	3.41	0.92	1.61	0.24	1.80	0.44	1.38
$C-1$ vs Treatments	NS	$\mathbf S$	NS	S	NS	NS	NS	NS
$C-2$ vs Treatments	NS	S	NS.	S	NS	NS	NS	NS

Table 7. Chlorophyll and Total soluble protein content in WRM and rice varieties

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

DAS: Days After Sowing

FLW: Flowering

TSP: Total Soluble Protein

O

A significant difference in total chlorophyll content was observed between weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties at 50 per cent flowering stage. Among the weedy rice morphotypes, Thiruvananthapuram (WRM-1) recorded significantly higher total chlorophyll content $(2.20 \text{ mg } 100 \text{g}^{-1})$, followed by Palakkad (2.19 mg $100g^{-1}$). Morphotype from Kozhikode (1.18 mg $100g^{-1}$) recorded significantly lower total chlorophyll content. Rice variety Uma recorded significantly higher chlorophyll content (3.41) followed by Jyothi (2.52 mg $100g^{-1}$).

4.1.2.2 Total Soluble Protein (mg g^{-1})

The results are presented in Table 7.

No significant variation was observed between the Total Soluble Protein (TSP) of rice and weedy rice morphotypes at both the stages. TSP of weedy rice morphotypes ranged from 0.13 to 0.45 mg g^{-1} at 15 DAS and 0.50 to 1.07 mg g^{-1} at 50 per cent flowering stage. Morphotype from Palakkad recorded a higher TSP value at 15 DAS while that from Thiruvananlhapuram recorded lower TSP at 50 per cent flowering (1.07 mg g^{-1}) .

4.1.23 Stomatal Characteristics

4.1.2.3.1 Stomatal Frequency (no of stomata $cm⁻²$)

The results are presented in Table 8.

Stomatal frequency expressed as the number of stomata cm⁻² was used to assess the photosynthetic efficiency of the particular plant group. Stomatal number was counted both at adaxial and abaxial surfaces. It was found that most of the weedy rice morphotypes had a higher stomatal count and frequency than cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma. However, it was statistically non significant. Morphotypes collected from Palakkad, Kole, Kuttanad, Thiruvananlhapuram and

 \mathscr{O}

Table 8. Stomatal characteristics of WRM and rice varieties

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotypc

Ezhome showed a higher stomatal count (704, 715, 637, 659 and 660 $cm²$ respectively) compared to cultivated variety Jyothi (581 cm^{-2}) on the adaxial surface. Morphotype from Thiruvananthapuram recorded a lower stomatal count (477 cm⁻²) in comparison with cultivated rice varieties on the adaxial side. The same trend was observed in abaxial surface also.

4.1.2.3.2 Stomatal Conductance (milli moles $m^2 s^{-1}$)

The results are presented in Table 8.

Stomatal conductance was found to be non significant between weedy rice and cultivated rice. Stomatal conductance of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma were 125.45 and 123.60 milli moles $m^2 s^{-1}$ respectively while weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a wide variation ranging from 48.20 milli moles $m^{-2} s^{-1}$ (Ezhome) to 179.10 milli moles $m^2 s^{-1}$ (Thiruvananthapuram).

4.1.2.4 Root Characters

A marked difference was observed in the root characteristics of rice and weedy rice especially in root volume and root dry weight.

4.1.2.4.1 Root Volume (cm³)

The results are represented in Table 9.

A significant variation was observed in the root volume of rice and weedy rice both at 15 DAS and 50 per cent flowering. At 15 DAS, Jyothi and Uma recorded a root volume of 14.13 and 7.07 cm³ respectively while morphotype from Kuttanad recorded a very high root volume of 35.33 cm^3 followed by Palakkad (28.26 cm³). It was noticed that there exist an increment of 2.5 to 5 times in root volume between weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice. At harvest stage also a wide variation was observed, with morphotype from Palakkad recording a higher root volume (84.78

Treatment	Root volume $(cm3)$		Root dry weight (g)		Root shoot ratio	
	15 DAS	Harvest	15 DAS	Harvest	15 DAS	Harvest
T_1 (WRM-1)	21.20	70.65	0.15	7.15	0.25	0.31
T_2 (WRM-2)	7.07	84.31	0.12	9.60	0.36	0.39
$T_3(WRM-3)$	35.33	77.61	0.49	14.80	0.37	0.55
T_{4} (WRM-4)	14.13	70.31	0.73	9.15	0.30	0.36
T_5 (WRM-5)	28.26	84.78	0.26	13.25	0.47	0.45
T_6 (WRM-6)	7.07	77.72	0.35	7.45	0.36	0.30
T_7 (WRM-7)	14.13	70.33	0.17	9.00	0.34	0.34
T_8 (WRM-8)	14.13	84.39	0.15	12.50	0.43	0.43
SE m (\pm)	0.78	0.16	0.02	0.34	0.87	0.04
CD(0.05)	5.83	0.49	0.03	1.01	0.00	0.04
Control						
Cultivar-1	14.13	56.48	0.21	10.10	0.38	0.38
(Jyothi)						
Cultivar -2 (Uma)	7.07	63.51	0.06	6.70	0.28	0.28
$C-1$ vs Treatments	S	S	S	$_{NS}$	NS	$_{\rm NS}$
$C-2vs$ Treatments	S	S	S	S	NS	NS

Table 9. Root volume, root dry weight and root shoot ratio of WRM and rice

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype DAS: Days After Sowing

 0_o

 $cm³$) followed by Thiruvananthapuram (84.31 cm³), while root volume of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma were 56.48 and 63.51 cm³ respectively. At harvest stage also an increment of 1.3 to 1.5 times was observed between the root volumes of weedy rice and cultivated rice.

4.1.2.4.2 Root Dry Weight (g)

The results on root dry weight are presented in Table 9.

A significant variation was observed in the root dry weight of various weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties. At 15 DAS, morphotype from Kole recorded significantly higher root dry weight of 0.73 g followed by Kuttanad (0.49 g), while cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded lower values of 0.21 g and 0.06 g respectively. At the harvest stage also a significant variation was observed, with morphotype from Kuttanad recording higher root dry weight (14.80 g) followed by Palakkad (13.25 g).

4.1.2.4.3 Root Shoot Ratio

The results are presented in Table 9.

No significant variation was observed between the root shoot ratios of weedy rice and cultivated rice. Weedy rice morphotypes had a root shoot ratio of 0.30 to 0.55, while it was 0.28 to 0.38 for the cultivated rice varieties at harvest.

4.1.2.5 Grain Threshability (per cent)

The result on grain threshability is presented in Table 10.

Shattering percentage expressed as grain threshability was studied using hand grip method. A significant difference in grain threshability was observed between weedy rice and cultivated rice (Uma). Grain threshability of weedy rice morphotypes

Treatment	Grain threshability (%)	Seed longevity (months)
T_1 (WRM-1)	35.28	12.00
T_2 (WRM-2)	37.80	10.67
$T_3(WRM-3)$	46.32	15.00
$T4$ (WRM-4)	34.04	9.00
$T5$ (WRM-5)	30.02	14.00
T_6 (WRM-6)	29.73	10.00
T_7 (WRM-7)	30.13	8.00
T_8 (WRM-8)	41.17	4.97
SE m (\pm)	2.02	0.80
CD(0.05)	6.07	2.41
Control		
Cultivar-1 (Jyothi)	34.35	6.00
Cultivar - 2 (Uma)	17.83	9.03
C-1 vs Treatments	NS	S
C-2 vs Treatments	S	NS

Table 10. Grain threshability and seed longevity of WRM and rice after harvest

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

ranged from 29.73 per cent to 46.32 per cent, while it was 17 and 34 per cent for cultivated rice varieties Uma and Jyothi respectively. High grain threshability in weedy rice indicates its grain shattering nature. Among the weedy rice morphotypes, WRM-3 from Kuttanad recorded a significantly higher grain threshability.

 $\ddot{}$

4.1.2.6 Seed Longevity (months)

The results are presented in Table 10.

Seed longevity studied for a period of 18 months at monthly interval indicated longer period of viability for weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated varieties. Seed longevity of weedy rice was found to range from 5 to 18 months, while for cultivated varieties (Jyothi and Uma) it ranged between 6 to 9 months. Weedy rice morphotype collected from Kuttanad recorded significantly higher seed longevity compared to other morphotypes.

4.1 J Agronomic Characterization

4.1.3.1 Growth Attributes at Harvest

4.1.3.1.1 Plant Height (cm)

The result on plant height is presented in Table 11.

A significant variation existed in plant height between weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties. All the weedy rice morphotypes were taller than cultivated rice and its height ranged from 105 to 115.67 cm. Morphotype collected from Thiruvananthapuram was found to be taller followed by that from Paiakkad, while height of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma were 96 and 91 cm respectively.

4.1.3.1.2 Days to 50 per cent Flowering

The results are presented in Table 11,

Earliness in flowering was observed for weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated rice varieties. Days to 50 per cent flowering of weedy rice morphotypes was found to range between 49 to 51 days, while that of cultivated rice varieties ranged between 62 to 82 days. Morphotype from Kole flowered earlier followed by morphotype from Palakkad.

4.13.1.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

The results are presented in Table 11.

Most of the weedy rice morphotypes had a very high LAI value compared to cultivated rice (above 5) at 50 per cent flowering stage. Morphotype from Palakkad recorded significantly higher LAI of 5.74, while that from Ezhome recorded lower value of 2.20. Cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded LAI values of 3.30 and 3.44 respectively.

4,1.3.1.4 Leaf Area Duration (LAD)

The results are presented in Table 11.

No significant variation was observed between the LAD of weedy rice and cultivated rice varieties. It was found to be 31 to 32 days for weedy rice and 33 to 34 days for cultivated rice.

4.1.3.2 Yield Attributes at Harvest

4.1.3.2.1 Panicle Length (cm)

The results are presented in Table 12.

Treatment	Plant height (cm)	Days to 50% flowering (Days)	LAI	LAD of FL
T_1 (WRM-1)	108.97	51.43	5.24	32.00
T_2 (WRM-2)	115.67	51.03	4.22	33.67
$T_3(WRM-3)$	110.20	50.36	3.90	32.67
$T4$ (WRM-4)	110.80	49.63	4.96	32.67
T_5 (WRM-5)	113.27	50.13	5.74	31.67
T_6 (WRM-6)	112.77	50.19	5.63	32.33
T_7 (WRM-7)	108.83	51.13	3.77	33.33
T_8 (WRM-8)	105.07	50.43	2.20	31.33
SE m (\pm)	0.73	2.65	0.32	1.03
CD(0.05)	2.19	$_{\rm NS}$	0.94	NS
Control				
Cultivar-1 (Jyothi)	96.17	61.58	3.30	33.00
Cultivar -2 (Uma)	91.17	81.88	3.44	34.00
C-1 vs Treatments	S	S	S	NS
C-2 vs Treatments	S	S	S	NS.

Table 11. Vegetative attributes of WRM and rice varieties at 50®/o flowering

M

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

LAI: Leaf area index FL: flag leaf

LAD: Leaf area duration

A significant variation in panicle length was observed between weedy rice and cultivated rice. All the weedy rice raorphotypes recorded panicle length in the range of 16 to 18 cm, except the morphotype from Palakkad (22.13 cm). Panicle length of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma were 23.00 and 23.73 cm respectively. Morphotype from Kozhikode recorded lower panicle length of 16.80 cm.

4.1.3.2.2 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The result is presented in Table 12.

Number of grains panicle⁻¹ in weedy rice morphotypes was found to be lower compared to cultivated rice varieties. Number of grains panicle⁻¹ in weedy rice morphotypes ranged between 45 to 60 while, cultivated rice varieties recorded higher number of grains panicle⁻¹ (66 and 94).

4.1.3.2.3 Sterility Percentage

The results are presented in Table 12.

A significant variation was observed in the sterility percentage of rice and weedy rice. Weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a higher sterility percentage of 17.78 to 32.79, while the cultivated rice varieties exhibited a lower sterility percentage of 9.24 to 12.85. Morphotype from Kuttanad recorded a higher sterility percentage of 32.79 followed by that from Ezhome (26.72).

4.1.3.2.4 Thousand Grain Weight (g)

The results are presented in Table 13.

Weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a lower thousand grain weight compared to cultivated rice varieties. Test weight (1000 grain weight) of weedy rice

Treatment	Panicle length(cm)	No of grains / panicle	Sterility percentage
T_1 (WRM-1)	17.43	59.00	26.55
T_2 (WRM-2)	17.67	57.00	22.78
$T_3(WRM-3)$	16.83	50.00	32.79
$T4$ (WRM-4)	16.83	45.67	24.19
T_5 (WRM-5)	17.57	53.33	17.78
T_6 (WRM-6)	22.13	59.00	19.09
T_7 (WRM-7)	16.80	60.33	21.63
T_8 (WRM-8)	18.17	48.67	26.72
SE m $(+)$	0.50	3.20	3.49
CD(0.05)	1.51	9.60	NS
Control			
Cultivar-1 (Jyothi)	23.00	66.33	12.85
Cultivar -2 (Uma)	23.73	93.67	9.24
$C-1vs$ Treatments	S.	S	S
$C-2vs$ Treatments	S	S	S

Table 12. Yield attributes of WRM and rice varieties at harvest

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

morphotypes ranged between 20.03 to 21g, while cultivated rice varieties recorded a higher value (Jyothi: 22.77 g; Uma: 23.80g).

4.1.3.2.5 Grain Yield (g plant¹)

The results are presented in Table 13.

Grain yield of cultivated rice varieties was found to be superior in comparison with the grain yield of weedy rice morphotypes. Grain yield of weedy rice morphotypes ranged between 4.35 to 5.36 g plant⁻¹. Morphotype from Kuttanad registered significantly higher grain yield (5.36 g) followed by Palakkad (5.3 g plant⁻¹) and Ezhome (5.29 g plant⁻¹). Cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded grain yields of 8.98 and 10.53 g plant⁻¹ respectively.

4.1.3.2.6 Straw Yield (g plant¹)

The result is presented in Table 13.

A significant variation was observed in the straw yield of rice and weedy rice morphotypes, while it was found non significant among the various morphotypes. Weedy rice morphotype from Palakkad recorded a higher yield of 17.96 g plant⁻¹ followed by Kuttanad (17.76 g plant"'). Cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded straw yields of 23.34 and 20.55 g plant⁻¹ respectively.

4.1.3.2.7 Panicle Type

The result on panicle type is presented in Table 14.

As per morphometric descriptors of IRRI, panicle is classified in to three different types viz., compact, intermediate and open. Morphotypes from Thiruvananthapuram, Kole and Palakkad had compact panicle similar to Jyothi and Uma.

١Ō

Treatment	1000 grain weight	Grain yield plant ⁻¹	Straw yield plant ⁻¹
	(g)	(g)	(g)
T_1 (WRM-1)	20.61	4.78	15.51
T_2 (WRM-2)	21.00	4.35	14.09
T_3 (WRM-3)	20.17	5.36	17.76
$T4$ (WRM-4)	20.30	4.99	15.19
T_5 (WRM-5)	20.03	4.64	15.61
T_6 (WRM-6)	20.17	5.30	17.96
T_7 (WRM-7)	20.27	4.42	15.80
T_8 (WRM-8)	20.87	5.29	17.21
SE m $(+)$	0.43	0.21	0.92
CD(0.05)	NS	0.63	NS
Control			
Cultivar-1 (Jyothi)	22.77	8.98	23.34
Cultivar -2 (Uma)	22.80	10.53	20.55
C-1 vs Treatments	S	S	S
C-2 vs Treatments	S	S	S

Table 13. Yield attributes of WRM and rice varieties at harvest

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

$4.1.3.2.8$ Awn Length (cm)

The result on awn length is presented in Table 14,

Awn length ranged from 2.38 to 9.23 cm, with morphotype from Ezhome having the longest awn (9.23 cm) followed by that from Thiruvananthapuram (7.41) cm) and Kozhikode (7.36 cm). Both the cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma lacked awns.

įĎ

4.2 EXPERIMENT: II (a) MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE BY ENHANCING RICE COMPETITIVENESS (MICRO PLOT EXPERIMENT)

4.2.1 Effect of Treatments on Agronomic Attributes of Rice at Harvest

4.2.1.1 Plant Height (cm)

The result is presented in Table 15.

Plant height remained unaffected due to various treatments. Plant height of rice was found to range from 108.0 to 139.0 cm.

4.2.1.2 Days to SO per cent Flowering

The results on days to 50 per cent flowering are presented in Table 15.

Data showed that days to 50 per cent flowering were not influenced by the weed management practices.

4.2.1.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

The result on Leaf Area Index is presented in Table 15.

LAI was significantly influenced by the various management practices. It ranged between 2.5 to 5.44. T_7 (seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹) recorded significantly

Table 14. Panicle type and awn length of WRM and rice varieties

 \mathbb{D}^2

WRM: Weedy Rice Morphotype

Table 15. Effect of treatments on vegetative characters of rice at harvest (microplot study)

LAI: Leaf Area Index LAD: Leaf Area Duration

 1^b

higher LAI value of 5.44 and was on par with T_8 (4.85). Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ along with hardening recorded distinctly lower LAI of 2.5 and was found to be on par with other treatments of same seed rate $(T_1$ and T_2 with 2.81 and 2.98).

1P\$

4.2.1.4 Leaf Area Duration (LAD) of Flag Leaf (Days)

The results on LAD are presented in Table 15.

Weed management practices did not have any influence on LAD of flag leaf. All treatment combinations of varying seed rates and priming techniques recorded LAD values between 39 to 40 days.

4.2.1.5 Panicle Length (cm)

The result on panicle length is presented in Table 16.

The length of panicle was not significantly influenced by any of the treatments.

4.2.1.6 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The results are presented in Table 16.

The number of grains per panicle was significantly influenced by the various management practices. Treatment with a seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming (T_2) recorded significantly higher number of grains per panicle (120) and was on par with T_5 (seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming). A seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ without priming (T_7) recorded significantly lower number of grains panicle⁻¹ (99), which was on par with same seed rate (T₈ and T₉). Priming methods also exhibited significant effect on number of grains panicle⁻¹. Seeds subjected to

Table 16. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of rice at harvest

(mlcroplot study)

lOb

hydropriming recorded panicles with more number of grains compared to seeds subjected to hardening.

 $,0$

4.2.1.7 Sterility Percentage

The result on sterility percentage is presented in Table 16.

The data indicated that sterility percentage was significantly influenced by various management practices. Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming recorded significantly lower sterility percentage of 10.4 and was on par with $T₅$ (11.58). Distinctly higher sterility percentage of 16.92 was recorded by $T₇$ which was on par with T_g.

4.2.1.8 Thousand Grain Weight (g)

The results are presented in Table 17.

Effect of management practices on thousand grain weight of rice was found to be non significant.

4.2.1.9 Grain Yield (t ha^{-1})

The result on the effect of management practices on grain yield of rice is presented in Table 17.

The results indicated that grain yield was significantly influenced by the treatments. Among all the treatments, a seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming registered significantly higher grain yield of 4.44 t ha⁻¹ followed by 120 kg ha⁻¹ seed rate and hydropriming $(4.07 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$. Management practices receiving a very high seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ recorded significantly lower and comparable grain yield among different seed treatments.

Table 17. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of rice at harvest

(microplot study)

IDA
4.2.1.10 Straw Yield (t ha^{-1})

The results on the effect of treatments on straw yield are presented on Table 17.

Straw yield was found to be significantly influenced by the various treatments. A significantly higher straw yield of 6.72 t ha⁻¹ was recorded with 100 kg seeding rate with hydropriming, which was on par with 120 kg seeding rate with hydropriming.

$4.2.1.11$ Harvest Index (HI)

The result on harvest index is presented in Table 17.

Effect of management practices on HI of rice was found to be non significant.

4.2.2 Effect of Treatments on Agronomic Attributes of Weedy Rice at Harvest

4.2.2.1 Plant Height (cm)

The result on plant height is presented in Table 18.

• Data showed that the management practices had significant influence on height of weedy rice plants. A seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ with hardening recorded significantly higher plant height of 124.05 cm. But no regular trend was observed on plant height with respect to the treatments.

4.2.2.2 Days to 50 per cent Flowering

The result on days to 50 per cent flowering is presented in Table 18.

No significant variation in the number of days taken for flowering of weedy rice plants was observed.

Table 18. Effect of treatments on vegetative characters of weedy rice at harvest (microplot study)

LAI: Leaf Area Index LAD: Leaf Area Duration

4.2.2.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

Results are presented in Table 18.

Leaf area m^2 of weedy rice ranged between 4549.65 to 11651.17 cm². T₂ (seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded significantly lower values of leaf area m⁻² (4549.65 cm²). T₇ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ without priming) recorded significantly higher leaf area (11651.17 cm²) which was on par with $T₉$ (seed rate 140) kg ha⁻¹ + hardening) and T_8 (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) with 12011.87 and 11253.74 cm² respectively.

4.2.2.4 Leaf Area Duration (LAD) of flag leaf (Days)

The result on LAD of flag leaf is presented in Table 18.

No significant variation in the LAD of flag leaf of weedy rice was observed. It was found to range between 33 to 35 days.

4.2.2.5 Panicle Length (cm)

The result on panicle length of weedy rice is presented in Table 19.

No significant variation in the panicle length of weedy rice was observed. It was found to range between 15.75 to 17.27 cm.

4.2.2.6 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The result on number of grains panicle^{-1} of weedy rice is presented in Table19.

Number of grains panicle"' was found to be unaffected by various treatment combinations and number of grains panicle"' ranged between 67 to 70.

Table 19. Effect of treatmeats on yield attributes of weedy rice at harvest (microplot study)

4.2.2.7 Sterility Percentage

The result on sterility percentage is presented in Table 19.

Data revealed that weedy rice had more sterile and unfilled grains compared to cultivated rice. Management practices had no significant influence on sterility percentage of weedy rice.

4.2.2.8 Thousand Grain Weight of weedy rice (g)

The results are presented in Table 20.

No significant variation on thousand grain weight of weedy rice plants was observed. It was found to range between 20.1 to 21.07 g.

4.2.2.9 Grain Yield of weedy rice $(g m^2)$

The result on grain yield of weedy rice is presented in Table 20.

Higher seed rate along with priming techniques had significant influence on grain yield of weedy rice. Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming (T_2) recorded significantly lower grain yield (48.83 g m^{-2}) from weedy rice population, while treatments with high seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, T₈, T₉) recorded a high grain yield (91.42 to 104.00 g m⁻²) for weedy rice.

4.2.2.10 Straw Yield of weedy rice $(g m^2)$

The result on straw yield of weedy rice plants is presented in Table 20.

Data on straw yield also showed similar trend as that of grain yield. Treatments with higher seed rates of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, T₈ and T₉) recorded a higher straw yield of 271.07, 228.06 and 225.53 g m⁻² respectively.

4.2.2.11 Harvest Index (HI)

The result on HI of weedy rice is presented in Table 20.

HI was found to range between 0.28 to 0.31. No significant variation on HI of weedy rice plants was observed, when compared with cultivated rice.

4.3 EXPERIMENT: II (b) MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE BY ENHANCING RICE COMPETITIVENESS (FARMERS' FIELD)

43,1 Effect of Treatments on Agronomic Attributes of Weedy Rice at Harvest

4.3.1.1 Plant Height (cm)

The result on plant height is presented in Table 21.

The results revealed that the treatments did not have significant influence on the plant height of rice. Plant height was found to range between 90 to 93 cm at 50 per cent harvesting stage with an increase in plant height under higher seed rate of $140 \text{ kg} \text{ ha}^{-1}$.

4.3.1.2 Days to 50 per cent Flowering

The results are presented in Table 21.

No significant variation on days to 50 per cent flowering was observed by various treatments. The number of days for 50 per cent flowering ranged between 80 to 81 days.

4.3.1.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

The results arc presented in Table 21.

Table 21. Effect of treatments on vegetative characters of rice at harvest

(confirmatory trial)

lit

LAI: Leaf Area Index LAD: Leaf Area Duration

LAI of rice was significantly influenced by the various levels of seed rates followed for managing weedy rice. It ranged between 3.55 to 6.11 with a higher seed rate (140 kg/ha) recording higher LAI values (T_7 , T_8 and T_9 with 6.11, 5.07 and 5.26 respectively).

p

4.3.1.4 Leaf Area Duration (LAD) of flag leaf (Days)

The result is presented in Table 21.

The data revealed that LAD was not significantly influenced by any of the treatments.

4.3.1.5 Panicle Length (cm)

The result is presented in Table 22.

It was observed that the treatment followed has no significant influence on the panicle length of rice plants.

4.3.1.6 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The result is presented in Table 22.

A significant variation in the number of grains panicle⁻¹ was observed by the various management practices. It was found to range between 101 to 122 numbers. Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming (T_2) was observed with a significantly higher number of grains panicle⁻¹ (122) and was on par with $T₅$ (121) (seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming). All treatments with higher seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, T_s , T_9) recorded lower number of grains panicle⁻¹ with T_7 recording the lowest number of grains (101).

Table 22. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of rice at harvest

(confirmatory trial)

4.3.1.7 Sterility Percentage

The result is presented in Table 22.

Sterility of rice was found to increase with increase in seed rate, it ranged between 10.03 to 16.54. Various levels of seed rates had significant effect on sterility percentage. T₇ (seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹+ without priming) showed highest sterility percentage of 16.54 and was found on par with T_8 and T_9 (15.67 and 15.42 per cent).

١ľ

4.3.1.8 Thousand Grain Weight (g)

The result is presented in Table 23.

Various management practices have no significant influence on 1000 grain weight of rice.

4.3.1.9 Grain Yield (t ha^{-1})

The result is presented in Table 23.

Grain yield was significantly influenced by the various seed rates and seed treatments followed. Among the different seed rates tried, 100 and 120 kg found better when hydroprimed, recording grain yields of 4.3 and 4.24 t ha⁻¹ and were on par.

4.3.1.10 Straw Yield (t ha^{-1})

The result is presented in Table 23.

Straw yield of rice followed a similar trend as grain yield. Seed rate of 100 or 120 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming recorded significantly higher straw yield of 7.31 and 7.21 t ha⁻¹.

Table 23. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of rice at harvest

(confirmatory trial)

43.1.11 Harvest Index (HI)

The results are presented in Table 23.

Effect of management practices on HI of rice was found to be non significant.

VD.

4.3.2 Effect of Treatments on Agronomic Attributes of Weedy Rice at Harvest

4.3.2.1 Plant Height (cm)

The result is presented in Table 24.

Higher seed rates and priming techniques tested for weedy rice management found to have no significant influence on plant height of weedy rice at harvest.

4.3.2.2 Days to 50 per cent Flowering (Days)

The result is presented in Table 24.

No significant variation was observed in the number of days taken for 50 per cent flowering of weedy rice plants by the management practices tested.

4.3.2.3 Leaf Area Index (LAI)

The results are presented in Table 24.

Leaf area m^2 of weedy rice ranged between 4895.50 to 12223.96 cm². T₂ (seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded the lowest values of leaf area m⁻² (4895.50 cm²). T₇ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ without priming) recorded significantly higher leaf area (12223.96 cm²) which was on par with T₉ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hardening) and T_8 (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) with 10806.00 and 10423.09 cm^2 respectively.

Table 24. Effect of treatments on vegetative attributes of weedy rice at harvest (confirmatory trial)

LAI: Leaf Area Index LAD: Leaf Area Duration

 12^{6}

4.3.2.4 Leaf Area Duration (LAD) of flag leaf (Days)

The result is presented in Table 24.

LAD of flag leaf of weedy rice was found not significantly influenced by any of the treatments tested.

33

43.2,5 Panicle Length (cm)

The result is presented in Table 25.

Treatment effect was found to be non significant on panicle length of weedy rice.

4.3.2.6 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The results are presented in Table 25.

Number of grains panicle^{1} in weedy rice was found to increase with increase in seed rate. It was found to range between 65 to 70. T₇ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + without priming) recorded significantly higher number of grains panicle⁻¹, which was on par with treatments T₈ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) and T₉ (seed rate 140 kg ha $^{-1}$ + hardening).

4.3.2.7 Sterility Percentage

The result is presented in Table 25.

Weedy rice exhibited a higher sterility percentage compared to cultivated rice, which ranged between 19.92 to 23.76. Treatments with a higher seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ exhibited lower sterility percentages of 23.76, 22.84 and 23.07 respectively.

Treatment	Panicle length (cm)	No of grains/panicle	Sterility percentage
T_1 , seed rate of 100 kg ha ⁻¹ + without priming	17.78	68.50	20.03
T_2 - seed rate of 100 kg ha ⁻¹ + hydropriming	18.00	66.07	19.92
T_3 – seed rate of 100 kg ha ⁻¹ + hardening with 2.5 % KCl	17.68	67.03	21.81
T_4 - seed rate of 120 kg ha ⁻¹ + without priming	15.92	67.70	20.34
T_5 - seed rate of 120 kg ha ⁻¹ + hydropriming	17.45	65.93	22.62
T_6 - seed rate of 120 kg ha ⁻¹ + hardening with 2.5 % KCl	18.68	66.93	21.75
T_7 - seed rate of 140 kg ha ⁻¹ + without priming	15.10	70.37	23.76
T_8 - seed rate of 140 kg ha ⁻¹ + hydropriming	18.18	69.43	22.84
T_9 - seed rate of 140 kg ha ⁻¹ + hardening with 2.5 % KCl	19.33	69.07	23.07
SE m(±)	1.30	1.05	0.54
CD(0.05)	NS	2.24	1.07

Table25. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of weedy rice at harvest (confirmatory trial)

4.3.2.8 Thousand Grain Weight of weedy rice (g)

The result is presented in Table 26.

It was observed that the 1000 grain weight of weedy rice is not significantly influenced by any of the management practices.

12

4.3.2.9 Grain Yield of weedy rice $(g m^2)$

The result is presented in Table 26.

Grain yield was recorded for weedy rice plants by bagging the plants with cloth net and expressed in g m⁻². Grain yield was found to range between 41.83 to 109.86 g m². T_s (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded significantly lower weedy rice grain yield of 41.83 g m^2 and was superior to all other treatments. Treatments with a higher seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, T₈ and T₉) recorded higher grain yield.

4.3.2.10 Straw Yield of weedy rice $(g m^2)$

The results are presented in Table 26.

Data on straw yield of weedy rice also showed a similar trend. $T₅$ (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded the lowest straw yield of 103.75 g m⁻², which was statistically superior to all other treatments. T_7 , T_8 and T_9 recorded a higher straw yields.

4.3.2. II Harvest Index of weedy rice (HI)

The results are presented in Table 26.

Various seed rates and priming melliods adopted have no significant influence on the HI of weedy rice.

Table 26. Effect of treatments on yield attributes of weedy rice at harvest (confirmatory trial)

4.3.2.12 Weedy Rice Count m^{-2}

The result is presented in Table 27.

Weedy rice count expressed as plant population per unit land area was found to be significantly influenced by various levels of seed rates and priming methods tested. T₂ (seed rate 100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded a significantly lower weedy rice count per unit area (3.84) and was on par with T_5 recording 3.85 (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming). T₇ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹) recorded a significantly higher weedy rice count of 7.75 which was on par with T₈ (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) and T_9 (seed rate 140 kg ha⁻¹ + hardening) with a weedy count of 7.30 and 7.37 respectively.

I.D

4.3.2.13 Dry Weight of Weedy Rice (g $m⁻²$)

The result is presented in Table 27.

Data on dry weight of weedy rice exhibited a similar trend like that of count per unit area and was significantly different. T₂ (seed rate 100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded significantly lower weedy dry weight (90.05 g m⁻²) and was on par with T₅ (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) with 91.98 g m⁻². Treatments with higher seed rates $(T_7, T_8 \text{ and } T_9)$ recorded higher dry weights of 187.01, 172.86 and 175.77 $\mathrm{g\,m}^2$ respectively.

4.3.2.14 Weed Control Efficiency (WCE)

The results are presented in Table 27.

Weed control efficiency was calculated by taking T_7 as control, which recorded comparatively higher weed dry weight. Accordingly T_2 (seed rate 100 kg

Table 27. Effect of treatments on weedy rice incidence at harvest (confirmatory trial)

+ hydropriming) and T_5 (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) recorded the significantly higher WCE values of 51.85 and 50.82 per cent respectively, which were superior and on par with other treatments. High weedy rice population and dry weight was observed in treatments with high seed rate.

۱Ĵ

4.3.2.15 Economics

Results are presented in Table 28.

Net income was substantially influenced by the management practices. Net income obtained for all practices except seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ was higher than that of other treatments. A higher net income was recorded by T_2 followed by T_5 . T_7 recorded a lower net income.

The benefit cost ratio was significantly influenced by various weed management practices and it was found to range from 1.00 to 1.68. Among the management practices, a seed rate of 100 kg ha"' along with hydropriming recorded higher B:C ratio of 1.68 followed by T₅ (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) with a B:C ratio of 1.64. Higher seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ without any priming treatments recorded lower B:C ratio of 1.00.

4.4 EXPERIMENT: III EFFECT OF ELEVATED $CO₂$ CONCENTRATION ON GROWTH OF RICE AND WEEDY RICE

4.4.1 Agronomic Attributes of Rice and Weedy Rice

4.4.1.1 Plant Height (cm)

Result is presented in Table 29 and 30.

A significant increase in plant height was observed for weedy rice (57.87 cm) under elevated CO_2 condition in Chamber A, followed by chamber B (56.87 cm) and

Table 28. Effect of treatments on economies of rice production

(confirmatory trial)

١Ő

open condition (55.47 cm) at one month after sowing. Height of weedy rice increased by 4.3 per cent under elevated $CO₂$ condition compared to open. However, plant height of Jyothi and Uma was higher in Qiamber B followed by Chamber A and Open conditions. Plant height of Jyothi and Uma showed an increase of 17.46 per cent and 11.59 per cent in Chamber B compared to open condition. Lower plant height was recorded for Uma (40.53 cm) under open condition.

When observed at 50 per cent flowering, a same trend was observed. Chamber B recorded taller plants of weedy rice (112,77 cm) and rice (98.16 and 91.06 cm for Jyothi and Uma respectively) followed by chamber A and open condition. A significant variation in plant height was observed among the varieties inside A and B chambers. Weedy rice recorded a greater plant height compared to cultivated varieties. A significant difference in plant height was also found between the chambers due to the increase in $CO₂$ levels both during initial stages and at 50 per cent flowering stage.

4.4.1.2 Number of tillers

Result is presented in Table 29 and 30.

At 30 DAS, significant increase in tillering was observed under elevated $CO₂$ condition for both weedy rice and cultivated rice variety Uma. Weedy rice showed 36.5 per cent increase in tillering under elevated $CO₂$ condition compared to open condition. Variety Jyothi showed low response to elevated $CO₂$ condition compared to Uma. Weedy rice recorded greater number of tillers (3.67) in chamber A followed by Uma and Jyothi. Jyothi, Uma and weedy rice responded equally to the situation of chamber B while in the open condition, weedy rice recorded greater number of tillers compared to cultivated rice.

At 50 per cent flowering stage also, weedy rice and Uma responded well under elevated $CO₂$ condition with higher number of tillers (17.33 and 11.33

Chamber	Treatment	Plant height (cm)		No of tillers	
		30 DAS	50% FW	30 DAS	50% FW
Chamber A	T_1 (Jyothi)	48.43	96.17	3.00	9.00
	T_2 (Weedy rice)	57.87	108.97	3.67	17.33
	T_3 (Uma)	45.23	90.72	3.33	11.33
Chamber B	T_4 (Jyothi)	50.40	98.16	3.33	9.33
	T_5 (Weedy rice)	56.87	112.77	3.33	13.33
	T_6 (Uma)	46.57	91.06	3.33	8.67
Open condition	T_7 (Jyothi)	41.23	92.43	2.00	4.33
	T_8 (Weedy rice)	55.47	105.07	2.33	6.00
	T_9 (Uma)	40.53	88.37	1.00	3.33
	SE(±)	1.71	1.43	0.27	1.09
	CD(0.05)	5.08	4.26	0.81	3.26

Table 29, Performance of rice varieties and weedy rice under elevated CO2 condition

DAS: Days After Sowing FW: Flowering

Table 30. Response of selected systems to the treatments

DAS: Days After Sowing FW: Flowering

respectively). Compared to open condition the number of tillers of weedy rice and Uma in chamber A increased 3.46 and 3.40 times respectively. A significant difference in tillering habit was observed among varieties in chamber A while it was on par between varieties in Chamber B during initial stages. At 50 per cent flowering stage, a significant variation was observed in tillering both under chamber A and B. No significant variation was observed in tillering behavior between chambers during initial stages. Uma under open condition had lower number of tillers both during 30 DAS and at 50 per cent flowering stage, while weedy rice exhibited significantly higher tiller number of 2.33 and 6 respectively.

h.

4.4.1.3 Days to 50 per cent Flowering

Result is presented in Table 31 and 32.

Earliness in flowering was observed for weedy rice, Jyothi and Uma under elevated $CO₂$ condition. Weedy rice showed a significant earliness in flowering inside chamber A (35 days), followed by chamber B (43 days) and open condition (50 days). Compared to open condition earliness of 15 and 7 days was recorded in Chamber A and B respectively. Uma and Jyothi also recorded an earliness of 8 and 17 days in Chamber B and A, respectively.

4.4.1.4 LAD of Flag Leaf (Days)

The results are represented in Table 31 and 32.

Leaf area duration of flag leaf was found to increase with increasing carbon dioxide levels. However under open condition rice varieties recorded higher LAD values (36 and 37 days for Jyothi and Uma) compared to weedy rice (33 days). Weedy rice retained greenness of leaves for a longer period similar to cultivated varieties in both chambers. A significant difference was observed in the leaf area

Chamber	Treatment	Days to 50% flowering (Days)	LAD of FL (Days)	LAI	
				30 DAS	50 % flowering
Chamber A	T_1 (Jyothi)	61.78	39.00	0.85	3.47
	$\rm T_2$ (Weedy rice)	45.97	40.20	0.93	4.23
	T_3 (Uma)	77.57	42.33	0.92	2.92
Chamber B	T ₄ (Jyothi)	62.28	39.00	1.16	3.03
	T_5 (Weedy rice)	48.27	39.33	0.89	3.87
	T_6 (Uma)	79.69	40.33	0.75	2.23
Open condition	T_7 (Jyothi)	67.78	36.00	0.40	2.25
	T_{8} (Weedy rice)	51.57	33.67	0.64	2.02
	T_9 (Uma)	81.88	37.00	0.27	1.25
	SE(±)	0.34	1.08	0.07	0.33
	CD(0.05)	1.02	3.22	0.22	0.98

Table 31. Performance of rice varieties and weedy rice under elevated $CO₂$ condition

LAD: Leaf Area Duration DAS: Days After Sowing

LAI: Leaf Area Index

FL: Flag leaf

 $13⁵$

Table 32. Response of selected systems to the treatments

LAD: Leaf Area Duration DAS: Days After Sowing

LAI: Leaf Area Index FL: Flag leaf

duration between varieties in chamber A and B; between chambers and open condition.

4.4.1.5 LeafArea Index

The results are presented in Table 31 and 32.

A significant increase in Leaf area index was observed under elevated $CO₂$ for both weedy rice and cultivated rice variety Uma at 30 DAS and at 50 per cent flowering stage. For Jyothi significantly higher LAI was observed in chamber B followed by chamber A and open conditions. Jyothi under elevated $CO₂$ recorded a higher LAI at 30 DAS while weedy rice recorded significantly higher LAI at 50 per cent flowering stage. Uma under open condition recorded significantly lower LAI during both the growth stages indicating the significant effect of elevated $CO₂$ levels on LAI. A marked difference in LAI was observed between chambers and open condition at both the stages.

4.4.1.6 Panicle Length (cm)

The result is presented in Table 33 and 34.

Panicle length of Jyothi, weedy rice and Uma was found to increase with carbon dioxide levels. Panicle length varied significantly within the chambers under all the three situations but it was non significant between chambers. Weedy rice recorded a significantly lower panicle length in comparison with Jyothi and Uma under all the three conditions.

Chamber	Treatment	Panicle length (cm)	Number of grains panicle ⁻¹	Sterility percentage
Chamber А	T_1 (Jyothi)	22.24	100.00	45.46
	T_2 (Weedy rice)	16.43	63.67	40.98
	T_3 (Uma)	20.41	114.00	26.27
Chamber B	T_4 (Jyothi)	21.85	95.67	51.05
	T_5 (Weedy rice)	16.07	60.08	45.97
	T_6 (Uma)	20.56	105.00	23.99
	T_7 (Jyothi)	21.43	98.33	6.10
Open condition	T_8 (Weedy rice)	16.97	48.33	14.92
	$T9$ (Uma)	18.40	90.67	6.22
	SE(±)	0.57	3.93	2.91
	CD(0.05)	1.72	11.67	8.64

Table 33. Performance of rice varieties and weedy rice under elevated $CO₂$ condition

 $\vert \tilde{L}$

Table 34. Response of selected systems to the treatments

ìЖ

4.4.1.7 Number of Grains Panicle⁻¹

The result is presented in Table 33 and 34.

Number of grains per panicle was found to be higher under elevated carbon dioxide condition for both cultivated rice and weedy rice. Among the three, Uma recorded a significantly higher number of grains panicle⁻¹ (114) compared to weedy rice (64) and Jyothi (100) in chamber A. A similar trend was observed in Chamber B and Open conditions too. Uma recorded a higher response to elevated $CO₂$ condition compared to weedy rice and Jyothi.

4.4.1.8 Sterility Percentage

The results are presented in Table 33 and 34.

Results revealed that sterility percentage varied significantly between the chambers and among the varieties. Sterility percentage was found to be higher in Chamber B compared to Chamber A and it was found significantly lower under open condition. Jyothi in Chamber B recorded a significantly higher sterility percentage of 51.05 while Jyothi in open condition recorded a lower sterility (6.1 per cent). However, among the plant groups, weedy rice recorded significantly higher sterility percentage followed by Uma and Jyothi in open condition. A significant variation was observed between cultivars within Chamber A, Chamber B and between chambers.

4.4.1.9 Thousand Grain Weight (g)

The result is presented in Table 35 and 36.

The thousand grain weight was found to be significantly influenced by elevated CO2 levels. Cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded significantly higher thousand grain weight of 24 g each in chamber A. A significant difference

Table 35. Performance of rice varieties and weedy rice under elevated $CO₂$ condition

Treatment mean 1000 grain weight (g) Grain yield plant'' (g) Straw yield plant⁻¹ (g) Chamber A 22.93 11.62 47.22 Chamber B 22.08 9.32 38.63 Outside condition 21.91 7.87 24.74 Inside chamber A S NS NS NS Inside chamber B S S NS S S Between chambers S S S S S Open condition S NS NS NS

Table 36.Response of selected systems to the treatments

was observed in thousand grain weight inside Chamber A, Chamber B, between Chambers and Open condition. An increase in $CO₂$ level was found to have a higher thousand grain weight. There was no significant difference between the thousand grain weight of weedy rice in open condition and elevated $CO₂$ condition.

۱Þ

4.4.1.10 Grain Yield Plant¹ (g)

The result is presented in Table 35 and 36.

Among the different situations, Uma in chamber A recorded significantly higher grain yield of 17.75 g plant⁻¹ followed by Uma in chamber B with a grain yield of 14.36 g plant¹. Variety Uma was found to respond well under elevated $CO₂$ condition compared to cultivated rice variety Jyothi and weedy rice plants. Uma showed a percentage increment of 51.4 per cent in chamber A and 40 per cent in chamber B, while weedy recorded an increment of 42.3 and 16 per cent respectively. Variey Jyothi exhibited a negative response to elevated $CO₂$ levels. When comparing between yields under various $CO₂$ concentrations, for all the varieties a higher grain yield per plant was recorded in Chamber A with an elevated $CO₂$ level (2.3 times than open condition), followed by Chamber B (recorded 1.6 times than open condition).

No significant variation was observed among varieties within Chamber A and Chamber B and open condition. A significant variation was observed between chambers, indicating the effect of elevated $CO₂$ on grain yield.

4.4.1.11 Straw Yield Plant¹ (g)

The result is presented in Table 35 and 36.

Straw yield per plant also followed a similar trend like that of grain yield per plant. Uma in chamber A recorded a significantly higher straw yield of 59.45 g plant¹ followed by weedy rice in chamber A. Among the chambers, higher straw yield was recorded in Chamber A followed by Chamber B and open condition. Weedy rice and Uma recorded significantly lower straw yield of 23 and 20 g plant ' respectively. No significant variation was observed inside Chamber A and in open condition, but a marked difference was observed inside Chamber B and between \mathbb{N}^{1}

chambers.
Discussion

 $\tilde{\mathbb{M}}$

5. DISCUSSION

vht

Weedy rice (Oryza sativa f. spontanea) has emerged as a major threat to rice cultivation in Kerala and has already established in the major rice growing tracts of Kerala like Palakkad, Kuttanad and Kole lands. The present study entitled "Characterization and management of weedy rice $(Oryza sativa f. spontanea)$ " was aimed at agro-morphological and physiological characterization of various weedy rice morphotypes collected across the stale and formulation of a management strategy by employing high crop seeding rates and priming methods. Crop weed interference under elevated $CO₂$ concentration was also studied to understand the competitiveness and potential of this weed in the future era of climate change. The results of this study are briefly discussed in this chapter.

5.1 MORPHO-PHYSIOLOGICAL AND AGRONOMIC CHARACTERIZATION OF WEEDY RICE MORPHOTYPES

5.1.1 Morphological Characterization

The main objective of the study was to compare the morphological characteristics among the morphotypes as well as between the morphotypes and cultivated rice so as to find out a morphometric relationship between weedy and cultivated rice during early growth stages. For this purpose, various morphotypes of weedy rice were collected across the state, representing the major rice tracts of Kerala and morphological characterization was done both for qualitative and quantitative traits. There were many similar characters among weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated varieties. However, some characters varied significantly between weedy rice and cultivated rice during initial growth stages viz., culm thickness, colour and length of ligule and number of tillers plant⁻¹.

Attitude of leaf blade was found to vary widely among various weedy rice morphotypes. Most of the weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a semi erect or intermediate attitude similar to cultivated rice. But a marked difference was recorded by the morphotypes collected from Palakkad and Ezhome. Morphotype from Kozhikode had an erect attitude. According to Adair and Jodon (1973) the distribution of the culm angle in weedy rice morphotypes ranging from erect to open suggested that the erect plants' growth habit is recessive to that of a spreading or procumbent growth. The presence of erect plant types could be due to back-crossing between accessions or with the commercial rice cultivar (Gealy et al., 2006). In the present study, variations in morphology among morphotypes might be due to the variations in the agro-ecological situations in which the morphotype was developed and the variety cultivated. Since weedy rice emerged by natural hybridization between wild rice and cultivated rice, naturally the weedy rice morphotype present in a location may have characters of most common cultivated rice varieties of that location. Variations were observed among morphotypes of the same location which were in line with the findings of Estorninos *et al.* (2002) and Chauhan (2013) that weedy rice might vary among different variants. It could also be attributed to the variation in the availability of natural resources, nutrients and emergence pattem under field situation.

YИ

Anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodes could be used as a character to differentiate between weedy rice and cultivated rice varieties in Ezhome, which exhibited an intense purple pigmentation at the nodal region. However, some morphotypes lacked anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodes (Trivandrum white, Kuttanad and Kozhikode). Since morphotypes with and without pigmentation at the nodal region were observed, presence or absence of anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodal region alone could not be considered as a morphometric character for weedy rice identification. Varieties like Purple puttu, Violet sundhari etc., also possess anthocyanin pigmentation in plant parts. In heavily infested areas cultivating

Plate 12: Anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodes in weedy rice morphotypes

Plate 13: Attitude of leaf blade of weedy rice morphotypes

pigmented rice can ease the roguing of non pigmented weedy rice from infested fields.

Colour of ligule is another character which could be used for differentiation between weedy rice and cultivated rice. Ligule colour ranged between whitish to purple. Morphotypes from Ezhome, Kozhikode and Kole lands could be differentiated from cultivated rice using the ligule pigmentation, as they had purple shaded ligule. Burgos (2005) reported purple coloured pigmentation in the leaf sheath, leaf margin and culm region of weedy rice morphotypes which aid in differentiation from cultivated rice.

Results of morphological study revealed that weedy rice morphotypes were highly diverse but not structured to a geographical region, with different types of morphotypes in the same field. Awn colour can be used as the best indication for this diversity. Morphotypes collected from Trivandrum and Palakkad exhibited both white and red awn colour. Apart from this, a wide variation in awn colour was observed ranging firom whitish to black. Morphotype from Trivandrum and Kuttand had straw coloured awns; Kozhikode had whitish awns; Kole had brown awns; Palakkad had light green and Ezhome had purple coloured awns. Larinde (1979) reported about the variation in awns with short awns or without awns, which might be the result of segregation after natural crossing. In the present study, some morphotypes were observed with very short awns or without awns. Repeated back crossing between weedy rice and cultivated rice varieties might have imparted the awnless nature of cultivated rice to weedy rice making it very similar to cultivated rice.

In addition, certain demarcating characters were observed in some weedy rice morphotypes like distinct black ring at the nodal region (morphotype from Palakkad and Kole), characteristic bend at the nodal region (morphotype from Kozhikode), presence of adventitious roots (morphotype from Kullanad), apiculus colouration (for

Plate 14: Awn colour of weedy rice morphotypes

all morphotypes) and presence of very short awns (morphotype from Trivandrum). These characters might have emerged as an adaptation to the ecological situation in the prevailing tract. Presence of adventitious roots for morphotypes from Kuttanad helped them to thrive under water logged condition. This observation was in confirmation with the findings of Gealy and Estorninos (2004), who reported that the specific rate of back crossing appeared to be influenced by aspects of the environment that are not well understood. Hence, a thorough knowledge of the ecosystem and cultivation practices of a particular area is needed to differentiate and manage weedy rice in cultivated fields. Microscopic analysis of rice and weedy rice grain surface revealed that weedy rice grain surface is hairy with trichomes and help them for easy dispersal. Presence of trichomes and long awns helped in weedy rice seed dispersal via, fur of animals and through water (Jose, 2015).

 \mathcal{D}

Morphological traits were analyzed quantitatively by recording characters like ligule length, number of tillers plant⁻¹ and culm thickness. Significant variation was observed in the ligule length of morphotypes during initial stages. Jose et al. (2013) reported a ligule length ranging from 2 to 20 mm for weedy rice collected from Kuttanad and in the present study a ligule length of 3.70 mm to 13.7 mm was recorded for weedy rice and 9.7 and 6.7 mm respectively for Jyothi and Uma. Results showed that 75 per cent of weedy rice morphotypes had smaller ligules compared to cultivated rice varieties during initial stages. Upto 15 DAS shorter ligule could be used as a demarcating character between weedy rice and cultivated rice. However, at later stages this difference becomes less significant. It could be inferred that length of ligule could be considered as a character to differentiate with Jyothi during early stages and with Uma at later stages.

Culm thickness of weedy rice was also found to exhibit distinctiveness. Culm of weedy morphotypes was found to be more cylindrical compared to cultivated rice. Results revealed that most of the weedy rice morphotypes had higher culm thickness

Plate 16: Colour of pericarp of weedy rice morphotypes

6

Plate 17: Microscopic view of spikelet a) Rice variety Uma b) Weedy rice

Plate 18: Trichomes present on weedy rice a) Grain surface b) Awns

Plate 19: Root characteristics of weedy rice morphotypes in comparison with Uma

 15

compared to cultivated rice varieties both at initial as well as later growth stages, which could be used for identification of this weed species from cultivated rice.

Number of tillers plant¹ varied widely between weedy rice and cultivated rice. Higher tiller number was observed in weedy rice compared to cultivated rice during initial as well as later stages of growth. About 87 per cent of weedy rice morphotypes had higher tiller number (ranged from 11 to 20) compared to cultivated rice (10 and 9 for Jyothi and Uma respectively) and the only morphotype from Ezhome recorded a lower tiller number of eight. Hence it could be concluded that high tiller number and its lean nature could be used as a trait to differentiate between weedy rice and cultivated rice.

The study documented the existing variations amongst the weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala. As many of the characters was very similar to cultivated rice it was not possible to differentiate between them using a single character. As different morphotypes exhibited different characters the results drawn from this study should be limited to those areas from where morphotypes were collected. There existed high phenotypic diversity in weedy rice accessions across different countries, both within and among geographical regions (Shivrain, 2010 and Song et al., 2014). Similarities between weedy rice and cultivated rice increasing year after year might be due to the repeated back crossing and gene flow between two plant types.

However a combination of quantitative and qualitative morphological traits could be used for the identification of weedy rice from cultivated rice. Of the various quantitative traits studied, length of ligule, culm thickness and number of tillers were significantly different for weedy rice during the early growth stages. It could be inferred that weedy rice plants were lanky, thin, with more round culm, with or without anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodal region, short ligule and with more number of tillers and awncd grains.

Plate 20: Differnce in plant height between Uma & weedy rice

Plate 22: Root system of weedy rice in pot culture study

Plate21: Grain shattering in weedy rice

Plate 23: Weedy rice morphotype having very short awns

Plate 24: Panicle type of weedy rice morphotyes a) Open b) Intermediate c) Compact

Plate 25: Ligule colour of weedy rice morphotypes

Plate 26: Distinct black ring at the nodal region of weedy rice

Plate 28: Apiculus colouration at the grain tip of weedy rice

Plate 27: Adventitious root emergence in weedy rice morphotype from kuttanad

Plate 29: Characteristic bend at the nodal region of weedy rice

5.1.2 Physiological Characterisation

Data on physiological characterisation revealed that weedy rice exhibited superiority over cultivated rice varieties in various physiological parameters which imparted more competitiveness to weedy morphotypes in comparison with rice. In future this might result in the greater survival and invasiveness of the weedy rice in rice fields of Kerala.

✓'O'

Results of physiological characterization showed that at 15 DAS weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a higher value of chlorophyll a, b and total chlorophyll content compared to cultivated rice varieties, though it was statistically non significant. Rathore et al. (2016) also observed a statistically non significant variation in chlorophyll content between rice and weedy rice. Higher chlorophyll content during initial stages of growth might have increased photosynthetic activity resulting in high competing ability of weedy rice compared to cultivated rice varieties. This was in agreement with the findings of Kannangara (1991), who reported that chlorophyll content could be used as an effective index for high photosynthetic efficiency in rice.

However, during reproductive stage chlorophyll content in rice was found to be higher compared to weedy rice. Hussain et al. (2010) also observed higher chlorophyll content for rice at 60 to 70 DAS, than weedy rice accessions. Rice plants exhibited more greenness than weedy rice morphotypes at 50 per cent flowering stage while weedy rice had paler leaves. Leaf colour was either green, light green or dark green in all the weedy rice accessions, but commercial varieties have only dark green leaves at the later growth stages (Hussain *et al.*, 2010). These results suggest that higher chlorophyll content during initial stages enhanced photosynthetic efficiency and thereby contributed more competing ability for weedy rice compared to cultivated rice. Dissimilarities in the leaf colour at early stages makes hand weeding impossible and incomplete.

 158

Fig 3: Variations in chlorophyll content of weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice varieties at 50% flowering

Total Soluble Protein (TSP) is an indication of total enzymatic activity of a plant. About 50 per cent of TSP are associated with Rubisco {ribulose-1,5 bisphosphate carboxylase-oxygenase) protein in rice leaves (Makino et al., 1987). Results on total soluble protein indicated that there was no significant variation between the TSP values of weedy rice morphotypes and cultivated rice. All the weedy morphotypes recorded a lower TSP content both at 15 DAS (0.13 to 0.45 mg g^{-1}) and at 50 per cent flowering stage (0.5 to 1.07 mg g^{-1}) compared to cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma (0.51 and 0.44 mg g^{-1} at 15 DAS and 0.73 and 1.38 mg g^{-1} at 50 per cent flowering stage respectively). The study confirms the finding that among the species of *Oryza* the differences in enzymatic properties of Rubisco are less (Makino et al., 1987).

 15^{6}

Data on stomatal characteristics viz., conductance and frequency suggest that most of the weedy rice morphotypes had a higher stomatal frequency and conductance, giving some additional advantages to them in comparison with cultivated rice varieties though it was statistically non significant.

Stomatal frequency, is used to assess the photosynlhetic efficiency of a particular plant group. It was counted both at adaxial and abaxial surfaces and expressed as the number of stomata $cm²$. Stomatal frequency was found to be higher in the adaxial surface for both weedy rice (morphotypes) and cultivated rice than abaxial surface. Out of eight weedy rice morphotypes, six recorded higher stomatal frequency than Jyothi, while only three weedy rice morphotypes recorded higher value of stomatal frequency than Uma. This indicated that stomatal characteristics varied with weedy rice morphotypes, rice cultivar and growing conditions. Similar results were reported by Swamy et al. (2010), stating that stomatal number correlated positively with stomatal conductance and frequency and stomatal number was found to be higher in the adaxial surface compared to abaxial surface.

Stomatal conductance is closely related to leaf photosynthesis by regulating gas flow. Weedy rice morphotypes recorded wide variation in stomatal conductance ranging from 48.20 to 179.10 milli moles $m^2 s^1$ and majority of morphotypes exhibited similar range of stomatal conductance as that of cultivated rice. Rathore et al. (2016) also observed the same. According to Ishihara and Saito (1987) and Hirasawa et al. (1988), stomatal apertures as well as conductance were strongly correlated with leaf photosynthesis in rice. The aggressivity of weedy rice expressed in its height and root characters can be attributed to the stomatal characters of weedy rice.

Results on root characters revealed a significant difference between rice and weedy rice, enhancing the competitive efficiency of weedy rice plants compared to cultivated rice. At 15 DAS, weedy rice morphotypes had root volume which was 2-5 times that of cultivated rice varieties. During initial stages 62 per cent of weedy morphotypes recorded higher root volume compared to Jyothi, while it was 87 per cent when compared with Uma. There were several traits that contributed to weed competitiveness of which root volume is one among them (Minotti and Sweet, 1981). Greater root volume of weedy rice during initial growth stages might add to its weedy potential and could cause greater threat to cultivated rice. Al reproductive stage also the same trend was followed with root volume 1.3 to 1.5 times higher than cultivated rice. Higher root volume would lead to greater root spread and in turn more absorption of water and nutrients during critical growth stages of rice. Similarly root dry weight also indicated the competitive advantages of weedy rice over cultivated rice. Mahajan et al. (2014) reported that high root biomass and volume correlated positively with competitiveness.

Higher root shoot ratio helped plants for better water absorption and uptake (Lal et al , 2013). In the present study, root-shoot ratio did not show any significant variation between weedy rice and cultivated rice. Weedy rice morphotypes exhibited a ratio between 0.25 to 0.47, while it was 0.38 and 0.28 for Jyothi and Uma at 15 DAS. Proportionate increase in root dry weight made the root shoot ratio of weedy rice in a similar range as that of cultivated rice.

1 b

Shattering percentage of weedy rice morphotypes was expressed as grain threshability. Result on grain thereshability indicated that all the weedy rice morphotypes had a higher threshability percentage. Grain threshability of weedy rice morphotypes ranged from 29.73 per cent to 46.32 per cent, while it ranged from 17 to 34 per cent for cultivated rice varieties, Uma and Jyothi respectively. The significance in grain threshability of weedy rice indicated its high grain shattering nature and further addition of its seeds to soil seed bank. From this study, it was clear that yearly addition of weedy seeds to soil seed bank intensifies the problem over years giving the advantage of early colonization of rice fields as observed by Olajumoke et al. (2016).

Seed longevity is another character which adds to the competitiveness of weedy rice. From the seed longevity studies conducted for a period of 18 months at monthly interval, it could be inferred that weedy rice morphotypes exhibited variable seed dormancy which is a strong indication of its greater competitiveness. Seed longevity of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma was 6 and 9 months respectively, while it varied from 5 to 18 months for weedy rice. The high variation in seed longevity kept the seeds of weedy rice viable in the soil seed bank and made the weed more persistent in rice cultivation system. Similar observations were made by Azmi and Karim (2008). Shattering expressed as grain threshability and variable seed dormancy were the two important weedy traits that attributed to the persistence and spread of weedy rice in rice production system.

5.13 Agronomic Characterization

5.1.3.1 Vegetative Attributes at SOper cent Flowering

Vegetative attributes that were studied included plant height, number of tillers, days to 50 per cent flowering, Leaf Area Index (LAI) and Leaf Area Duration (LAD) of flag leaf. Results revealed that there was significant difference in plant height, days to 50 per cent flowering and LAI between weedy rice and cultivated rice. All the morphotypes were found to be taller than cultivated rice varieties and similar results were reported by Kwon et al. (1991) and Suh et al. (1997). Plant height of weedy rice morphotypes ranged between 105 to 115.67 cm, while the height of cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma were 96 and 91 cm respectively. Jose et al. (2013) reported that weedy rice variants from Kuttand were usually taller (130 to 145 cm) than cultivated rice. According to Stansel *et al.* (1965) and Smith (1968), height is a competitive trait in plant communities and weeds taller than the crop are usually most competitive and have a greater effect on the yield components as a result of the shading effect and lodging. This taller growth habit of weedy rice result in competition between weedy rice and cultivated rice for above ground growth factor ie., light. Taller weedy rice shade the rice plants reducing photosynthetic ability and thereby yield. Patterson (1982) reported that increasing shade would increase plant height until photosynthate production limits growth. Weedy rice morphotypes were reported to be more tolerant to shade than cultivated rice (Chauhan, 2013). However, some dwarf weedy rice morphotypes were observed by Jose et al. (2013), which might be due to the repeated back crossing between weedy rice and cultivated rice.

 \mathbb{R}^2

Earliness in flowering was observed in weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated rice varieties. Fifty percent of weedy rice population flowered in between 49 to 51 DAS, while Jyothi and Uma flowered at 61 and 82 DAS. Early flowering resulted in early grain maturing and seed shattering. Shattered seeds added to soil seed bank would intensify the problem in future (Perreto et al., 1993). Earliness in

 b^2

Fig 5: Variations in stomatal frequencies of weedy rice morphoty pes and cultivated rice varieties

flowering was found to be an additional advantage for weedy rice to survive in rice fields. The results are in confirmation with the findings of Olguin $et al.$ (2007) who observed earliness in panicle emergence and asynchronisation of grain maturity in weedy rice compared to cultivated rice.

A marked difference was observed between the LAI of weedy rice and cultivated rice. Majority of the weedy rice morphotypes recorded higher LAI values than cultivated rice. Higher values of LAI for weedy morphotype might be due to their high tillering nature. Zhang et al. (2002) stated that tillering had significant effect on LAI of rice and all weedy morphotypes except Ezhome recorded high tiller number per unit land area. Studies of Ferrero and Vidotto (1999) in Italy showed that it was very difficult to distinguish between weedy rice and rice crop in the seedling stage but once tillering starts, weedy rice could be easily identified by their more numerous, longer and more slender tillers.

No significant variation was observed between the LAD of weedy rice and cultivated rice. Cultivated rice was found to remain greener for longer period compared to weedy morphotyes, though it was statistically non significant. This might be due to the earliness in flowering and maturity observed in weedy rice, leading to senescence. Devendra *et al.* (1983) reported that a low LAD could lead to incomplete developement of the sinks and thus lower yield.

5.1.3.2 Yield Attributes at harvest

Various yield attributes analyzed were number of grains panicle¹, panicle length, sterility percentage, test weight, grain yield and straw yield. A significant variation was observed in all these characters between rice and weedy rice. Number of grains panicle⁻¹ in weedy rice morphotypes was found to be lower (45 to 60) compared to cultivated rice varieties. Jyothi and Uma recorded higher number of grains panicle⁻¹ (66 and 94). This was in confirmation with the findings of Jose *et al.*

(2013), who reported that the number of grains per panicle in weedy rice ranged between 30 to 80.

A significant variation was observed in the sterility percentage of rice and weedy rice morphotypes. Weedy rice morphotypes exhibited sterility percentage ranging from 17 to 33, while it was 9 to 13 for cultivated rice. Jose et al. (2013) reported a sterility of 30 to 60 per cent for the weedy rice from Kuttanad. Zhang et al. (2015) opined that, there existed pollen sterility in weedy rice, and this cytoplasmic male sterility (CMS) could be used in hybrid breeding programmes. Sterile and half filled grains in weedy rice exhibited a higher germinability, which added to its competitiveness even if there exist high sterility percentage.

Weedy rice and cultivated rice are usually differentiated with the presence of awns. Most of the cultivated rice varieties lack awns except a few traditional varieties which bear very short awns, while most of the weedy rice morphotypes had awns. Awm length of weedy rice morphotypes exhibited wider variation and it ranged fiom 2.38 to 9.23 cm. These findings are in concurrence with the studies of Jose et $al.$ (2013), who reported an awn length of 2.5 to 8 cm for the weedy rice variants in Kerala. It was observed that there was no direct correlation between awn colour and anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodal region. In some cases morphotypes with nodal pigmentation exhibited colourless or white awns and this was in confirmation with the findings of Larinde (1979). Some weedy morphotypes from Trivandrum and Kuttanad were noticed with reduced or no awns, which might be due to the repeated back crossing between weedy rice and cultivated rice resulting in the disappearance of that particular character.

Results on thousand grain weight indicated that weedy rice morphotypes recorded a lower thousand grain weight (20.03 to 21g) compared to cultivated rice (Jyothi: 22.77 and Uma: 23.80 g). Lower thousand grain weight in weedy rice might be due to its lower grain filling. This was in confinnalion with the findings of Jose et al. (2013), who observed that thousand grain weight of weedy rice was in the range of 18 to 19.5 g.

Data on grain and straw yield plant⁻¹ of rice and weedy rice exhibited a significant variation. Cultivated rice varieties Jyothi and Uma recorded a higher grain yield of 8.98 and 10.53 g plant⁻¹ respectively, when compared to weedy rice morphotypes (4.35 to 5.36 g plant⁻¹). Lower grain yield of weedy rice might be due to their lesser number of grains panicle⁻¹, low thousand grain weight and higher sterility percentage. Grain yield of cultivated rice was 2.42 times higher than that of weedy rice morphotypes. Straw yield also followed the same trend as that of grain yield.

Weedy rice had shorter panicles compared to panicles of cultivated rice and only morphotype from Palakkad only recorded a higher panicle length of 22.13 cm. This might be due to the repeated back crossing between the weedy lines and cultivated lines which impart longer panicle to weedy population. Rathore et al. (2016) reported that there was a marked difference in the panicle length and number of panicles in rice and weedy rice. Variation was also observed in the panicle type also. As per morphometric descriptors of IRRI, panicle type of weedy rice can be compact, intermediate or open and Kuttanad morphotypes recorded an intermediate panicle type. However, Jose et al. (2013) recorded open or compact weedy rice panicles among the weedy rice variants from Kuttanad. Morphotypes from Trivandrum, Kole and Palakkad recorded compact type of panicle as that of cultivated rice. This clearly indicated that weedy rice morphotypes of these locations are acquiring characters more similar to cultivated rice by repeated back crossing.

From the study on agro-morphological and physiological characterisation of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala in comparison with two most common cultivated rice varieties viz., Jyothi (short duration) and Uma (medium duration), it could be concluded that early identification between weedy rice and cultivated rice is difficult

though it is possible using selected morphological traits. Agro- physiological characterization revealed the reasons for its high competitive ability as it grow rapidly in height, exhibit high photosynthetic rate, produce abundant roots, high tillering capacity along with grain shattering. The study clearly illustrated the rising negative impact of weedy rice on growth and yield of rice in Kerala in the years to come.

Ip-

5.2 MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE BY ENHANCING RICE COMPETITIVENESS

5.2.1 Effect of Treatments on Vegetative and Yield Attributes of Rice

The objective of this experiment was to study the possibility of increasing crop competitiveness against weedy rice by adopting a high seeding rate and various priming techniques. The experiment under taken in micro plots by raising cultivated rice along with weedy rice morphotype of the locality maintaining a standard weedy rice population of seven plants $m²$. This was followed by confirmatory trial taken up in farmer's field in a locality having heavy weedy rice infestation. The results obtained under above two situations are discussed below.

Among the growth attributes of rice studied LAI was significantly influenced by the treatments. Though rice plant height was not significantly influenced by the treatments, plants were found taller in plots receiving higher seed rate of 120 and 140 kg ha⁻¹. Increase in plant height might be the result of higher competition set up due to high plant density. Harris and Vijayaragavan (2015) confirmed that plant tends to grow taller in search of light when the spacing becomes closer or when go for a high seeding rate. On the contrary, Akbar and Ehsanullah (2004) reported that seeding density had no significant effect on height. Among the priming methods tested, hydropriming showed superiority over hardening with 2.5% KCl by producing vigourous and fast growing seedlings during the initial stages. Anwar et $al.$ (2012) reported that seed priming enhanced plant height from the beginning to harvest and

produced taller plants compared to unprimed seeds. However, the effect of high seed rate and priming did not result in any significant variation in plant height.

Influence of various treatments on days to 50 per cent flowering was found non significant, A marked difference was observed in LAI and was found to range between 2.5 to 5.44 in microplots and 3.55 to 6.11 in farmers field. Treatment receiving higher seed rates of 140 kg ha⁻¹ recorded the highest LAI, which might be due to the higher plant population in unit land area. Hu et al. (2000) reported that plant population had a significant effect on photosynthetic characters of rice. High LAI was due to the increase in number of plants per unit area. Akita (1982) confirmed that increase in number of plants per unit area resulted in high leaf area and enhanced production of photosynthates. LAI values exceeding the optimum indicated an excessive number of leaves plant¹ which caused shading of lower organs of assimilation thereby adversely affecting photosynthesis. Of the various priming methods tested non of them showed any influence on enhancing LAI as effect of priming was limited to the initial growth phase of upto two weeks. On the contrary, Farooq et al. (2009) reported that primed seeds recorded high LAI due to the increased efficiency in resource capture and photosynthate assimilation. LAD of flag leaf which give an indirect index of leaf senescence was found non significant by the enhanced seed rates and priming methods.

Of the various yield attributes analyzed, number of grains panicle⁻¹, sterility percentage, grain and straw yield were found significantly influenced by adopting high seed (100 or 120 kg ha⁻¹) rate along with hydropriming.

Results showed that treatments had significant effect on number of grains panicle $^{-1}$. A seed rate of 100 kg ha $^{-1}$ along with hydropriming recorded significantly higher number of grains (120 and 122 respectively in microplot and farmers field) followed by seed rate of 120 kg ha^{-1} with hydropriming. All the treatments with a higher seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, T₈ and T₉) recorded lower number of grains,

which might be due to the greater competition for various growth factors resulted from increased plant population. Yoshida (1972) also observed a reduction in number of spikelet beyond an optimum plant density. When seed rate was increased beyond an optimum point, there would be an increase in leaf area which resulted in increased respiratory rates and in turn lead to a reduction in number of grains (Murata et al., 1957). From this study it could be inferred that a seed rate of 140 kg ha $^{-1}$ had a negative effect on number of grains panicle"'. Among various priming methods, hydropriming exhibited significant influence with increased number of grains panicle⁻¹. According to Anwar et al. (2012) seed priming had significant effect in reducing mean germination time thereby increasing germination percentage, germination index and seedling vigour index and a vigourous seedling naturally contributes to more number of spikelet plant⁻¹ and an increased yield.

IP,

Rice seeding rates of 100 or 120 kg ha $^{-1}$ with hydropriming recorded high grain yield and lower sterility percentage, while high seeding rates of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T₇, Tg and T9) recorded higher sterility percentage and lower grain yield. Seeding rate increased beyond an optimum lead to marked reduction in filled grains panicle⁻¹ consequent to mutual shading and reduction in transfer of photosynthates to sink. This was in confirmation with the fmdings of Akbar and Ehsanullah (2004).

According to Farooq et al. (2007) seed priming resulted in partial hydration of seeds without radicle emergence and thus enhanced the germination and vigour of seeds. Partial hydration of seed without radicle emergence result in activation of most of the physiological processes and such seeds imbibe and revive metabolic activities soon after sowing though redried back to initial moisture (Rowse, 1995). Primed seeds showed uniform germination, increased germination rate, better allometric attributes and faster emergence of seedlings (Basra et al, 2005, Kaya et al., 2006, Farooq et al., 2007) which improved the competitive ability of seedlings.

In microplot study it was found that an increase in seed rate increased the grain yield up to 13 per cent and further increase $(140 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} + \text{hydropriming})$ resulted in reduction in yield up to 27 per cent. A similar trend was observed in confirmatory trial with yield increase upto 10 per cent in seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming and 39 per cent yield reduction at 140 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming. The higher grain yield registered in these treatments correspond to the lower weedy rice population recorded in these treatments. High crop seeding rates suppressed weedy rice population and hydropriming resulted in enhanced vigour of rice seedlings. The synergistic effect of these two might have resulted in high competing ability of rice over weedy rice reducing its count. Better crop stand from hydroprimed seeds sown at 100 or 120 kg ha⁻¹ resulted in rapid canopy development and gave preliminary advantage to rice plants over weedy rice. Although per plant yield was higher at lower seed rate this did not compensate for the contribution in terms of yield by more plants at higher density. Above optimum LAI values recorded in treatments receiving higher seed rates (140 kg ha⁻¹) support these findings. Results of Zhang *et* al. (2015) revealed positive correlation between high seed rate and yield up to a certain level and beyond that optimum level yield would start to decline because of severe competition for various growth factors. Clark et al. (2001) opined that seed priming improved the competitive ability of crop against weeds, increased vigour of primed stand was the key factor for tolerating weeds.

An inverse relationship was found between the grain yield of rice and weedy rice population present in respective treatments. Reduction in grain yield was observed in treatments with an exceptionally high seed rale, which was directly correlated to the higher weedy rice count $m²$ recorded in these treatments. Higher weedy rice count was recorded in plots receiving the highest seed rate without priming. This might be due to the sever completion set up among rice plants in which weedy rice took advantage of this situation. Chauhan (2013) supported this finding, by slating that with each increase in weedy rice density, the grain yield of

Fig 6: Effect of treatments on grain and straw yield of rice $(t \ ha^{-1})$

Fig 7: Effect of treatments on Weed Control Efficiency of rice

1?'

cultivated rice declined significantly. In a previous study in U.S., rice yield reductions were between 100 and 755 kg $ha⁻¹$ for every weedy rice plant $m²$ (Ottis *et al.*, 2005). Rice yield declined by an average of 270 kg ha⁻¹ for each weedy rice plant up to 20 weedy rice plants $m²$ (Kwon *et al.* 1991). Ahmed *et al.* (2014) reported that grain yield in rice was increased by 30 to 33 per cent under unweeded situation by adopting a higher seed rate.

190

A similar trend was observed in straw yield. Seed rate of 100 kg ha"' along with hydropriming (T_2) recorded higher straw yield of 6.72 and 7.31 t ha⁻¹ in microplot and farmers field respectively and was followed by seed rate of 120 kg ha"' with hydropriming $(6.37 \text{ and } 7.21 \text{ t ha}^{-1}$ respectively in microplot and farmers field). Thousand grain weight and HI values were not influenced by the treatment combination of increased seed rate and various priming methods. Economic analysis of the study indicated that T_2 (100 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming) along with T_5 (120 kg ha⁻¹) + hydropriming) turned out to be the most economic treatment registering a B: C ratio of 1.68 and 1.64 respectively. Highest seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ with or without priming recorded the lowest B:C. The most economic management practice was use of hydroprimed seeds at a rate of 100 kg ha"' for suppression of weedy rice and improving competitive ability of rice.

Weedy rice count and dry weight were recorded lower in T_2 (seed rate 100 kg ha^{-1} + hydropriming) and T₅ (seed rate 120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming), with high weed control efficiencies of 51.85 and 50.82 per cent respectively. At above optimum crop density, canopy closes quickly and shade out the weedy rice plants. Such an advantage obtained during the initial stages will be reflected later as high yield. Phuhong et al. (2005) reported that in lowland rice, higher seeding rates (within the optimal range) favoured rice against weeds and increased the yield even under weedy conditions.

Based on the results from microplot and the confirmatory trial at farmers field it could be concluded that seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming (T_2) could be recommended as the most economic practice for management of weedy rice in rice fields.

-^3

5.2.2 Effect of Treatments on Vegetative and Yield Attributes of Weedy Rice

Enhancing rice competitiveness by adopting high cropping density and priming techniques was conducted to suppress growth and emergence of weedy rice plants. Of the various growth factors of weedy rice analyzed, plant height and LAI, grain and straw yield were influenced by the treatments during both the years. Weedy rice plants were found to be taller at a high seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ in microplot while no such trend was observed in farmers' field. This was in confirmation with the findings of Kwon et al. (1991) who reported that height of cultivated rice plants was found to decrease with increase in weedy rice density. Weedy rice plants taller than cultivated rice would further add to its competitive ability by better harvest of light. According to Chauhan (2012), taller weed plants are known to reduce crop yield more than shorter weed plants mainly because of more shading of crop plants. Low light is known to significantly decrease growth and grain yield in rice (Praba et al., 2004). Earliness in flowering was observed in weedy rice compared to other cultivated rice varieties. It flowered at 51 to 53 DAS while, rice took 80 to 82 days for flowering. Weedy rice flowered one month earlier than cultivated rice leading to early seed maturity and shattering.

The highest seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T_7 , T_8 and T_9) recorded higher leaf area $m²$ for weedy rice in both the situations. This might be due to the high weedy rice count recorded from unit land area. Exceptionally high crop seeding rate generated severe competition among rice plants and weedy rice took advantage of the situation recording high weed densities. Higli tiller number and plant height of weedy rice might shade rice plants which is evident from the higher leaf area $m⁻²$ (11651.17 and

 12223.96 cm² respectively in microplot and farmers field) recorded by weedy rice plants at 140 kg ha"' without priming. Chauhan (2013) reported that leaf production of cultivated rice was significantly affected by weedy rice densities and a decline was observed with increment in weedy rice densities which further lead to a reduction in LAI. LAD of flag leaf in weedy rice remained unaffected by the treatments and was ranged between 33 to 35 days, while it was 39 to 41 days for rice. A significant difference between the LAD of rice and weedy rice was observed under microplot and farmers field with rice remaining greener for a long period enhancing its photosynthetic efficiency.

17,

Panicles of weedy rice were found to be shorter compared to rice under both the studies. Higher seed rate and priming methods had no influence on panicle length of weedy rice as it was genetically determined. Weedy rice panicles recorded lesser number of grains per panicle (67 to 70 both in microplot and farmers field) and remained unaffected by the treatments. Weedy rice panicles contained more sterile and half filled grains with sterility percentage of 30 to 32, than cultivated rice (below 17 per cent) irrespective of the treatments. However sterility percentage of weedy rice was lower in farmers' field (19 to 24). It could be observed that repeated back crossing between persistent weedy rice population and cultivated rice under farmers' field situation lead to more filling of weedy rice panicles. Thousand grain weight of weedy rice plants ranged between 20 to 22 g in both the experiments and was not altered by the treatments. Jose et al. (2013) also reported a lower thousand grain weight for weedy rice (below 19 g).

Grain yield of weedy rice was between 42 to 110 g $m⁻²$ in both microplot and farmers field situation. Higher grain yields for weedy rice was observed in treatments with the highest seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ (T_7 , T_8 and T_9) which was directly correlated to the higher weedy rice counts $m⁻²$ recorded in these treatments. Straw yield of weedy rice plants also followed a similar trend like grain yield.

5.3 EFFECT OF ELEVATED CO₂ CONCENTRATION ON GROWTH AND YIELD OF RICE AND WEEDY RICE

Climate change and associated climatic abrasions are one of the many risk factors affecting the rice production systems of Kerala apart from other threats associated with resource (land, labour, capital) depletion. Rising carbon dioxide concentration by various anthropogenic activities had a major role in climate change. Global carbon dioxide concentration has risen from 280 to 300 μ mol mol⁻¹ in the past 250 years due to continuous anthropogenic activities and it is expected to reach 600 μ mol mol⁻¹ sometime around 2050 (IPCC, 2007). Climate change also influence the weed communities in rice production system by affecting the weed species distribution, and prevalence within weed and crop communities (Mahajan et al., 2012). Various weed management operations could be affected by climate change and ultimately might have influence on the competitiveness of major weeds associated with rice production system. According to Ziska (2003), weeds showed a greater response to elevated $CO₂$ rather than crops. In this background, impact of elevated CO₂ on competitiveness of rice and weedy rice has been discussed.

5.3.1 Performance of Rice Varieties and Weedy Rice Under Elevated $CO₂$ Condition

In this study, the effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice was analyzed under elevated CO₂ concentration of 500 ppm in Open Top Chamber (Chamber A) and in ambient conditions (Chamber B and open field). The most common morphotype of weedy rice and two cultivated rice varieties (Jyothi and Uma) were selected for the study. Significant variations in vegetative (no of tillers, leaf area index and leaf area duration) as well as yield attributes and yield (no. of grains panicle⁻¹, grain yield plant⁻¹) were observed under elevated $CO₂$ levels among the plants. However, the extent of response varied among the cultivars under varying atmospheric situations.

17

Plate 30: Open Top Chamber (OTC) a) General view b) Sensors c) $CO₂$ cylinders and display c)

Plate 31: Number of tillers and anthocyanin pigmentation of Jyothi, Weedy rice and Uma in chamber A

 $\sqrt{7}$

Chamber A Chamber B Open condition

Fig 9: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on plant height at 30 DAS (cm)

Fig 10: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on plant height at 50% flowering (cm)

Of the various growth and yield attributes analyzed, weedy rice responded well compared to cultivated rice variety Jyothi, showing its high competitive potential. There was differential response of rice varieties to elevated $CO₂$ condition with Uma responding well compared to Jyothi.

Elevated $CO₂$ had a significant influence on plant height in both rice and weedy rice in all the three situations. There was a linear increase in plant height of weedy rice in chamber A during initial stages and in chamber B during reproductive stages. This clearly indicated that weedy rice responded well to elevated $CO₂$ condition during the initial stages and at the reproductive stage response was more to the ambient conditions of chamber B. Singh and Jasrai (2011) reported that effects of elevated CO2 to plant growth was more pronounced during early growth stages and reduced greatly at later stages. On analyzing the response between cultivated rice and weedy rice it was observed that Jyothi responded well to elevated CO₂ than Uma in plant height.

Tilling ability of both weedy rice and cultivated rice was significantly affected by various growing situaions. Compared to ambient conditions (chamber B and Open condition), higher tillering was observed under elevated $CO₂$ (chamber A) in which weedy rice tillered profusely (17.33) than cultivated rice species $(9 \text{ and } 11.33)$ for Jyothi and Uma). This was in confirmation with the findings of Ziska et al. (2010), who reported that weedy rice responded more strongly to rising $CO₂$ level than cultivated rice with greater competing ability. Among the cultivars, Uma showed maximum response to elevated $CO₂$ producing 3.33 times more tillers than in open condition. However, Jyothi was found less responsive to elevated $CO₂$ levels in terms of tiller production indicating variation in varietal response to carbon dioxide levels

Earliness in flowering was observed under elevated $CO₂$ condition for both weedy rice and cultivated rice. Compared to the open condition, weedy rice recorded

 $^{\circ}$

Fig 11: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on number of tillers of Jyothi, weedy rice and Uma at 30 DAS

Fig 12: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on number of tillers of Jyothi, weedy rice and Uma at 50% flowering
an earliness of 15 and 7 days in Chamber A and B respectively, indicating the favorable effect of elevated $CO₂$ on flowering. Mahajan et al. (2014), observed that climate change not only affect the crop-weed competition, but also trigger early flowering and weed seed germination in several flushes causing serious weed management issues. This earliness in flowering of weedy rice might help to complete its life cycle faster and initiation of more life cycles even within a single crop period. Jyothi and Uma also recorded an earliness of 17 and 8 days in Chamber A and B respectively. Hence, it could be concluded that early flowering induced from elevated carbon dioxide level would contribute to more weed seed bank and might pose serious threats to rice cultivation in future.

Leaf area duration of flag leaf was increased with increase in $CO₂$ concentration. Uma and weedy rice had a longer duration for flag leaf in both chambers A and B. Under open condition Jyothi and Uma retained the greenness of their leaves for one more week compared to weedy rice.

LAI showed a steady increase with increase in $CO₂$ concentration for both rice and weedy rice at 50 per cent flowering stage. Uma showed a greater response (2.34 times more than open condition) in chamber A, followed by weedy rice (2.09 times more than open condition). It was noticed that weedy rice under all the three situations recorded a higher LAI which might be due to its high tillering nature (Seeneweera et al., 1994; Sherchand and Sharma., 2004). Higher LAI of weedy rice (3.80) at 50 per cent flowering stage under elevated $CO₂$ condition (4.23) indicated its high competitive potential as a weed. Panicle length of weedy rice remained unaffected by various levels of CO₂. Though it varied significantly between rice varieties and growing situations.

Number of grains panicle⁻¹ was found to increase with an increase in $CO₂$ levels. Weedy rice recorded a greater response to number of grains panicle"' in chamber A with a percentage increase of 20.69 to 24.09. Kim et al. (2003) reported a

Plate 32: Performance of weedy rice, Jyothi and Uma in chamber A

Plate 33: Performance of weedy rice in chamber B, A and open condition

Plate 34: Performance of Jyothi in chamber B, A and open condition

Plate 35: Performance of Uma in chamber B, A and open condition

liner relationship between elevated $CO₂$ and spikelet number. Varietal variations were observed with Jyothi recording a poor response and Uma exhibiting a greater response to elevated $CO₂$ concentration. But this was in conflict with the findings of Sherchand and Sharma (2004), who reported that elevated $CO₂$ had little effect on number of grains panicle⁻¹. Though Uma recorded higher number of grains panicle⁻¹ (114) compared to weedy rice (64) and Jyothi (100), percentage increase in number of grains panicle⁻¹ was greater for weedy rice under elevated $CO₂$ condition.

Sterility percentage and thousand grain weight varied significantly between the chambers and among the varieties. Weedy rice recorded a higher sterility percentage compared to cultivated rice under all the situations. But the sterility percentage increased with the increase in the $CO₂$ levels; which might be due to the rise in temperature associated with increased $CO₂$ concentration. Matsui et al. (1997) demonstrated that high temperature during flowering induced pollen sterility in rice. A significant variation was observed between cultivars within Chamber A, Chamber B and between chambers. Variety Uma recorded a comparatively lower sterility percentage with the increased $CO₂$ levels, indicating the temperature tolerance of this variety and open up the scope of using this variety in further breeding programmes.

Grain yields varied under various $CO₂$ concentrations, for weedy rice with a higher grain yield plant⁻¹ in Chamber A (1.73) times more than open condition), followed by Chamber B (1.19 times more than open condition). Uma showed a greater percentage increase in grain yield (51.4 per cent in chamber A and 40 per cent in chamber B) followed by weedy rice (42.3 per cent in chamber A and 16 per cent in chamber B). Higher grain yield of Uma was the result of more number of grains panicle"', low sterility percentage and higher thousand grain weight. Similar results were also reported by Sherchand and Sharma (2004). Jyothi recorded a negative response to elevated $CO₂$ levels. A significant variation was observed between chambers, indicating the effect of elevated $CO₂$ on grain yield. This increase in grain

 $18¹$

Fig 13: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on days to 50% flowering of Jyothi, weedy rice and Uma (days)

Fig 14: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ on grain yield of Jyothi, Weedy rice and Uma (g plant⁻¹)

yield might be due to increase in number of grains panicle"' under elevated levels of $CO₂$.

Straw yield plant⁻¹ also followed a similar trend like grain yield plant⁻¹ and Uma in chamber A recorded higher straw yield followed by weedy rice. Among the chambers, significantly higher straw yield was recorded in Chamber A followed by Chamber B and open condition. According to Sherchand and Sharma (2004), about 30 to 48 per cent increment in straw yield was observed under elevated $CO₂$ concentration.

It could be concluded that weedy rice responded more strongly to rising $CO₂$ condition than cultivated rice during the initial stages as evidenced by the higher plant height and profuse tillering. Between the rice varieties, Uma showed a good response to elevated CO₂ and ambient conditions of chamber B. Rice cultivars having the ability to maximize the benefit of elevated CO₂ should be identified for future breeding programmes to counteract the competitiveness of emerging weeds in the scenario of climate change.

6. SUMMARY

An investigation entitled "Characterization and management of weedy rice (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)" was carried out as three experiments comprising four separate studies during 2014-16. Experiment I: Morpho- physiological and agronomic characterisation of weedy rice (Pot culture study carried out at College of Agriculture, Vellayani). Experiment II: (a) Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness (Micro plot study undertaken in the wetlands of the Instructional Farm College of Agriculture, Vellayani, Kerala) (b) Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness (confirmatory trial in farmer's field of Kanjirathadi padasekharam in Nemom block, Thiruvananthapuram district, Kerala). Experiment III: Effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice (Pot culture experiment in the OTC (Open Top Chamber) facility available under the Department of Plant Physiology, College of Agriculture, Vellayani), The main objectives of the study were morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala; formulation of a management strategy and assessment of crop-weed interference under elevated $CO₂$ concentration.

Morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes' was conducted as pot culture laid out in completely randomized design with eight weedy rice morphotypes collected from major rice tracts of Kerala (Trivandrum, Kuttanad, Kole, Palakkad, Kozhikode and Ezhome). Morphological characterization (done using morphometric descriptors) and agro- physiological characterization was done and compared with cultivated rice varieties (Uma and Jyothi). The results of the study are summarized below:

- During initial stages, weedy rice morphotypes exhibited similar morphological characteristics as the cultivated rice varieties.
- Morphological characters that varied significantly (qualitatively and quantitatively) between weedy rice and cultivated rice during initial

growth stages included culm thicknes, colour and length of ligule and number of tillers plant"'.

- Some other demarcating characters like presence of black ring and \bullet characteristic bend at the nodal region, presence of adventitious roots were observed in some morphotypes.
- Morphotype from Ezhome exhibited a wide variation from other \bullet morphotypes with characters like ligule pigmentation (purple coloured ligules), leaf attitude of flage leaf (deflexed type leaf attitude), colour of awns after anthesis (purple coloured awns) and anthocyanin pigmentation at the nodal region (intense purple anthocyanin pigmentation).
- Physiological characterization of weedy rice morphotypes showed no significant variation in chlorophyll content. Total soluble protein and stomatal characteristics at any stages statistically. However most of the morphotypes recorded a higher chlorophyll contend and stomatal frequency at the initial stages and to the competitiveness of weedy rice.
- Root characteristics in terms of root volume and root dry weight were \bullet superior for most of the weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated rice.
- All the weedy rice morphotypes collected showed a prominence in awn \bullet length ranging from 2.37 to 9.23 cm.
- \bullet Shattering percentage expressed as grain threshability was significantly higher for weedy rice ranging from 29.73 to 46.32 %.
- Weedy rice morphotypes recorded wide variation in seed longevity ranging from 5 to 15 months, which is an indication of variable seed dormancy.
- Agronomic attributes of weedy rice morphotypes showed superiority in plant height. Leaf area index and number of tillers per plant.
- Earliness in 50% flowering was observed in weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated rice.
- Sterility percentage of weedy rice morphotypes were significantly higher (17.77 to 32.79 %) compared to cultivated rice (9.23 to 12.85%).
- An average grain yield of 4.89 g plant⁻¹; straw yield of 16.14 g plant⁻¹ and 1000 grain weight of 20.42 g was recorded by weedy rice morphotypes.

The second experiment (both micro plot and confirmation trial in farmer's field) laid out in randomised block design, comprised of nine treatments replicated thrice. The treatments were: T_1 : Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ without priming, T_2 : Seed rate of 100 kg ha $^{-1}$ along with hydropriming, T₃: Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹with hardening by 2.5 % KCl, T₄: Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ without priming T₅: Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming, T_6 : Seed rate of 120 kg ha⁻¹ with hardening by 2.5 % KCl, T_7 : Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ without priming, T_8 : Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming, T₉ : Seed rate of 140 kg ha⁻¹ with hardening by 2.5 % KCl. The results of the study are summarized below:

- In micro plot experiment, a seed rate of $100 \text{ kg } \text{ha}^{-1}$ along with hydropriming(T_2) recorded higher number of grains per panicle(120.02), grain yield $(4.44 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ and straw yield $(6.71 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ which was on par with T_5 (120 kg ha⁻¹ + hydropriming).
- In field experiment, treatments with a higher seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ or 120kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming resulted in superior yield attributes in rice like number of grains per panicle, grain yield and straw yield.
- Seed rate of 100 or 120 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming recorded lower weedy rice count m⁻² and dry weight of weedy rice.
- The most economic practice for weedy rice management was T_2 (100 kg) ha^{-1} + hydropriming) with a BC ratio of 1.68 which was on par with T₅ $(120 \text{ kg ha}^{-1} + \text{hydropriming})$ with a BC of 1.64.

The third experiment was laid out in completely randomised block design, comprised of nine treatments replicated thrice. The treatments include combination of three cultivars grown in three different $CO₂$ levels. Cultivars include two most popular rice cultivars of Kerala, Jyothi (short duration) and Uma (medium duration), grown along with one of the most common weedy rice morphotypes. Various levels of CO₂ provided for plant growth were chamber A (with an elevated $CO₂$ of 500 ppm, maintained by external supply); chamber B (higher $CO₂$ contend compared to open by natural build up); and open condition (atmospheric $CO₂$ level). The results of the study are summarized below:

- Both vegetative and yield attributes varied significantly among chamber A, B and open condition and within chambers.
- Under elevated $CO₂$ condition in chamber A, the growth characters of both rice and weedy rice showed significant enhancement compared to open.
- Regarding competitiveness of weedy rice, the vegetative as well as yield attributes of weedy rice was significantly high in chamber A which was on par with B and 2.61 times higher than open condition.
- Variety Uma showed a positive response to most of the characters under elevated $CO₂$ levels, pointing the possibility of exploring that variety in future breeding works.

6.1 Future Lines of Research

In the present study, morphological characters of weedy rice identified for early stage differentiation should be standardized for different agro-ecological units of Kerala. Identification of gens contributing to high competing ability of weedy rice can be incorporated into cultivated rice, to make it more competent. Physiological mechanisms behind seed dormancy and longevity need to be studied so as to combat the problem of weed seed bank build up in soil. An

integrated package comprising preventive, cultural, mechanical, biological and chemical methods has to be developed. Rice varieties showing good response to elevated carbon dioxide levels need to be identified to sustain rice production in the coming era of climate change.

173869

 α - α - α - α - α

,<13-

7. REFERENCE

- Abraham, C. T. and Jose, N. 2014. Weedy rice invasion in rice fields of India and management options. J. Crop Weed. 10(2): 365-374.
- Abraham, C. T., Jose, N., and Rathore, M. 2012. Current status of weedy rice in India and strategies for its management. In: Biennial Conference of ISWS on Weed Threat to Agriculture, Biodiversity and Environment; 19—20 April, 2012, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, pp. 8-12.
- Abuzar, M. R., Sadozai, G. U., Baloch, M. S., Shah, A. A., Javaid, T., and Hussain, N. 2011. Effect of plant population densities on yield of maize. J. Ani. Plant Sci. 21(4): 692-695.
- Adair, R. C. and Jodon. N. E. 1973. Rice breeding and testing methods in the United States. In Rice in the United States: Varieties and Production. Washington, D.C.: U.S. Department of Agriculture Handbook 289. pp. 22-75.
- Ahmed, S., Salim, M., and Chauhan, B. S. 2014. Effect of Weed Management and Seed Rate on Crop Growth under Direct Dry Seeded Rice Systems in Bangladesh. J. Crop Weed. 10(1): 234-240.
- Akbar, N. and Ehsanullah. 2004. Agro-qualitative responses of direct seeded fine rice to different seeding densities. Pak. J. Agric. Sci. $41(1/2)$: 76-79.
- Akita, P.S. 1982. Integrated red rice management. In: Rice in Latin America: Improvement, Management andMarketing. (Ed. Cuevas-Perez F.). CIAT and IRRI, pp.143-158.
- Anwar, M. D. P., Juraimi, A. S., Puteh, A,, Selamat, A., Rahman, M. D. M., and Samedani, B. 2012. Seed priming influences weed competitiveness and

productivity of aerobic rice. Acta. Agric. Scandinavica Section B- Soil and Plant Sci. 62: 499-509.

- Azmi, M. and Karim, S. M. R. 2008.WeedyRice: Biology, Ecology and Management. Malaysian Agricultural Research and Development Institute (MARDI), Kuala Lumpur, Malaysia.56 p.
- Azmi, M., Azlan, S., Yim, K. M., George, T. V., and Chew, S. E. 2000. Control of weedy rice in direct-seeded rice using the Clearfield production system in Malaysia. Pak. J. Weed Sci. Res. 18: 49-53.
- Baloch, N. S., Brennan, E. B., Smith, R. F., and Yokota, R. 2002. Effect of seeding rate and planting arrangement on rye cover crop and weed growth. Agr. J. 101:47-51.
- Basra, S. M. A., Farooq, M., and Tabassum, R. 2005. Physiological and biochemical aspects of seed vigor enhancement treatments in fine rice (Oryza sativa L.). Seed Sci. Technol. 33: 623-628.
- Basra, S. M. A., Farooq, M., Hafeez, K., and Ahmad, N, 2004. Osmohardening: a new technique for rice seed invigoration. International Rice Research Notes. 29: 80-81.
- Bolin, B., Doos, B. R., Jager, J., and Warrick, R.A. 1998. The Greenhouse Effect, Climate Change, and Ecosystems. McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York, 298p.
- Bouyoucos, C. J. 1962. Hydrometer method improved for making particle size analysis of soil. Agron. J. 54: 464-465.
- Bradford, M. M. 1976. A rapid and sensitive method for the quantization of microgram quantities of protein utilizing the principle of protein-dye binding. An. Biochem. 72(1): 248-254.
- Brar, D. S. and Khush, G. S. 1997. Alien introgression in rice. Plant Mol. Biol. 35: 35-47.
- Burgos, M. 2005. Gene flow between red rice and rice in herbicide resistant rice fields: evaluating risks and management options. Proceedings of Fourth Brazilian Rice Congress, August 9-12,2005, Santa Maria, RS, Brazil, 2:610p.
- Chauhan, B. S. 2012a. Weed ecology and weed management strategies for dry seeded rice in Asia. Weed Technol. 26: 1-13.
- Chauhan, B. S. 2012b. Response of weedy rice {Oryza sativa L.) to seed burial and flooding depth. Weed Sci. 60: 385-388.
- Chauhan, B. S. 2013. Strategies to manage weedy rice in Asia. Crop Prot. 48: 51-56.
- Chauhan, B. S., and Johnson, D. E. 2010. Weedy rice (Oryza sativa L.) grain characteristics and growth response to competition of weedy rice variants from five Asian countries. Weed Sci. 58: 374-380.
- Chauhan, B. S. and Johnson, D. E. 2011a. Row spacing and weed control timing affect yield of aerobic rice. Field Crops Res. 121: 226-231.
- Chauhan, B. S. and Johnson, D. E. 2011b. Competitive interactions between weedy rice and cultivated rice as a function of added nitrogen and the level of competition. Weed Biol. Manag. 11: 202-209.
- Chen, L. J., Lee, D. S., Song, Z. P., Suh, H. S., and Lu, B. R. 2004. Gene flow from cultivated rice (Oryza sativa) to its weedy and wild relatives. Ann. Bot. 93: 67-73.
- Chin, D. v., Hien, T. V., and Thiet, L. V. 2000. Weedy rice in Vietnam, in Wild and Weedy Rice in Rice Ecosystems in Asia-A Review. International Rice Research Institute: Los Banos (Philippines), pp.45-50.
- Clark, L. J., Whalley, W. R., Ellis-Jones, J., Dent, K., and Chiduza, C. 2011. On farm seed priming in maize: a physiological evaluation. 11-15 February. Seventh Eastern and Southern Africa Regional Maize Conference, pp. 268-273.
- Cochran, W. G. and Cox, 0. M. 1965.Experimental Designs. Prentice- Hall, Newyork, 558p.
- Delouche, J. C., Burgos, N. R., Gealy, D. R., San, D. Z., and Labrada, R. 2007. Weedy rice-origin, biology, ecology and control. Rome: FAG Plant Production and Protection Paper. 188p.
- Devendra, A., Smith, R. J., and Talbert, R, E. 1983. Interference of red rice (Oryza sativa) with rice (Oryza sativa). Weed Sci. 33: 644-649.
- Diarra, K., Lopes, M., and Hardy B (eds.). 1985. Direct seeding: research strategies and opportunities. International Rice Research Institute, Manilla, Philippines, pp. 241-256.
- Dodson, S. R. 1898. Rice and weedy rice (Oryza sativa L.). Crop Prot. 4: 1232-1240.
- Donald, C. M. and Hanohlin, J. 1976. Biological yield and harvest index of cereals as agronomic and plant breeding criteria. Adv. Agron. 28: 361-405.
- Du, L. V. and Tuong, T. P. 2002.Enhancing the performance of dry-seeded rice: effects of seed priming, seedling rate, and time of seeding. Weed Set. 24: 324- 331.
- Espinoza, A. G., Sanchez, E., Vargas, S., Lobo, J., Quesada, T., and Espinoza, M. 2005. The weedy rice complex in Costa Rica. 1. Morphological study of relationships between commercial rice varieties, wild Oryza relatives and weedy types. Genet. Resour. Crop Evol. 52: 575-587.
- Estominos , L. E., Gealy, D. R., and Talbert, R, E. 2002. Growth response of rice (Oryza sativa) and red rice (Oryza sativa) in a replacement series study. Weed Techno!. 16: 401-406.
- Evans, M. and Datta, L. 1979. Decline in rice grain yields with temperature: Models and correlations can give different estimates. Field Crops Res. 98(2-3): 151- 156.
- Farooq, M., Barsa, S. M. A., and Wahid, A. 2006. Priming of field-sown rice seed enhances germination, seedling establishment, allometry and yield. Plant Growth Regul. 49: 285-294.
- Farooq, M., Basra, S. M. A., Ahmad, N., and Murtaza, G. 2009. Enhancing the performance of transplanted course rice by seed priming. Paddy Water Environ. 7: 55-63.
- Farooq, M., Basra, S. M. A., and Ahmad, N. 2007. Improving the performance of transplanted rice by seed priming. Plant Growth Regul. 51: 129-137.
- Ferrero, A. 2010. Mechanical and chemical control of red rice (Oryza sativa L. var. sylvatica) in rice (Oryza sativa L.) preplanting. Crop Prot. 18: 245-251.
- Ferrero, A. and Vidotto, F. 1999. Red rice control in rice pre- and post-planting. In FAO Report of the Global Workshop on Red Rice Control Varadero, Cuba: FAO, pp. 95-107.
- FAO [Food and Agriculture Organization]. 2007. Food balance sheets. Rome (Italy), lOIp.
- Fuhrer, B S. 2003. Genetic diversity of weedy red rice (Oryza sativa) in Arkansas, USA, Weed Res. 50:289-302.
- Gealy, D. R., Wengui, Y., and Ruther, N. 2006. Red rice (Oryza sativa) plant types affect growth, coloration and flowering characteristics of first and second generation crosses with rice. Weed Technol. 20: 839–852.
- Gealy, D. R., Saldain, N. E., and Talbert, R. E. 2000. Emergence of red rice (Oryza sativa L.) Ecotypes under dry seeded rice (Oryza sativa) culture. Weed Techno/. 14: 406-412.
- Gealy, D.R. and Estominos, L. E. 2004. SSR marker confirmation of reciprocal outcrossing rates between rice and rice lines in Arkansas over a five- year period. Proceedings of Southern Weed Sci. Society. 60: 145-153.
- Gibson, K. D. and Fischer, A. J. 2004. Competitiveness of rice cultivars as a tool for crop-based weed management. In: Weed Biology and Management, Inderjit, ed. Dordrecht, The Netherlands. Kluwer Academic Publishers, pp. 517-537.
- Gibson, K. D., Fischer, A. J., Foin, T. C., and Hill, J. E. 2002. Implications of delayed Echinochloa spp. germination and duration of competition for integrated weed management in water-seeded rice. Weed Res. 42: 351-358.
- Gu, X.Y., Kianian, S. F., and Foely, M. E. 2006. Dormancy genes from weedy rice respond divergently to seed development environments. Genet. 172: 1199-11.

 $90($

- Harris, D., Joshi, A., Khan, P. A., Gothkar, P., and Sodhi, P. S. 1999, On-farm seed priming in semi-arid agriculture development and evaluation in maize, rice and chickpea in India using participatory methods. Exp. Agric. 35: 15-29.
- Harris, D., Tripathi, R. S., and Joshi, A. 2002. On-farm seed priming to improve crop establishment and yield in dry direct-seeded rice. In S. Pandey, M. Mortimer, L. Wade, T. P. Tuong, K. Lopes, & B. Hardy (Eds.), Proceedings of the International Workshop on Direct Seeding in Asian Rice Systems: Strategic Research Issues and Opportunities. January 2000. Bangkok, Thailand, pp. 25- 28.
- Harris, K. D. and Vijayaragavan, R. 2015. Optimum Seed Rate for Maximum yield in Rice {Oryza saliva L.). Res. J. Agric.. Sci. 3(11): 1-5.
- Hirasawa, T., lida, Y., and Ishihara, K. 1988. Effect of leaf water potential and air humidity on photosynthetic rate and diffusive conductance in rice plants. *Jpn*. J. Crop Sci. 57:112-118.
- Hu, Y., Peng, J., Tai, N., and Zhanq, X. 2000. Population structure of putative ricered rice hybrid derivatives in the Southern U.S. Weed Science Society of America Meeting Proceedings. 47: p92.
- Hussain, Z. P., Azmi, M., and Othman, A. S. 2010. Morphological study of the relationships between weedy rice accessions (Oryza sativa) and commercial rice varieties in Pulau Pinang rice granary area. Trop. Life Sci. Res. 1: 27-40.
- IRRl [International Rice Research Institute]. 2007. World rice statistics. Manila (Philippines): IRRI, 260p.

 20°

- Ishihara, K. and Saito, K. 1987. Diurnal courses of photosynthesis, transpiration, and diffusive conductance in the single-leaf of the rice plants grown in the paddy field under submerged condition. Jpn. J. Crop Sci. 56: 8-17.
- Jackson, M.L. 1973. Soil Chemical Analysis. Prentice Hall of India Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi, 498p.
- Jose, N. 2015. Biology and Management of Weedy Rice. Ph.D. Thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur. 230 p.
- Jose, N., Abraham, C. T., Mathew, R., and Leenakumari, S. 2013. Biology and management of weedy rice in direct seeded puddled rice. Proceedings of 24th Asian-Pacific Weed Science Society Conference. 22-25 October, 2013. Bandung, Indonesia, pp. 454-461.
- Juraimi, A. S., Uddin, M. K., Anar, M. P., Muda, M. T., Ismail, M. R., and Man, A. 2013. Sustainable weed management in direct seeded rice: A review, Aus. J. Crop Sci. 7: 989-1002.
- Kannangara, C. G. 1991. In; BogoradL,VasiI I K (eds.). The Photosynthetic Apparatus, Academic Press Inc. California, 302-321.
- Kanwar, S.V., Kumar, Y. S., Saharawat, M., Galhala, J. K., Ladha., and Chauhan, B. S. 2013. Weedy rice: An emerging threat for direct-seeded rice production systems in India. J. Rice Res. I: 1-6.
- KAU[Kerala Agricultural University]. 2011. Package of Practices Recommendations: Crops (14th Ed.). Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 360p.
- Kaur, S., Gupta, A. K., and Kaur, N. 2005. Seed priming increases crop yield possibly by modulating enzymes of sucrose metabolism in chick-pea J, Agron. Crop Set. 191: 81-87.
- Kaya, M. D., Okcub, G., Ataka, M., Cikilic, Y., and Kolsaricia, O. 2006. Seed treatments to overcome salt and drought stress during germination in sunflower (Helianthus annuus L.). Eur. J. Agron. 24: 291-295.
- Kenneth, S. and Helms, R. S. 1996. Seeding rate effect on rough rice yield, head rice and total milled rice. Agron. J. 88: 82-84.
- Kim, J. C., Lee, D. W., Kim, Y. H., and Son, S. Y. 2003. Effect of duration of competition and density of red rice on growth and yield of rice. Kor. J. Crop Sci. 7: 45-51.
- Kimball, C., Parry, M. L., Lalesias, A., and Livermore, M. 2002. Effects of climate change on global food production under stress emissions and socio- economic scenarios. Glob. Environ. Change. 14 (1) - 53-67.
- Kodituwakku, P. W. D. E., Abeysekara, A. S. K., and Devasinghe, D. A. U. D. 2011. Weedy rice competition on cultivated rice $(Oryza sativa L.)$ for N, P and K fertilizers. Dept. of Plant Sciences, Faculty of Agriculture, Rajarata University of Sri Lanka, Puliyankulama, Anuradhapura, Sri Lanka. Rice Research and Development Institute, Batalagoda, Ibbagamuwa, Sri Lanka, 600p.
- Kumar, V. and Ladha, J. K. 2011. Direct seeding of rice: recent developments and future research needs. Adv. Agron. Ill: 297-413.

Kwon, S. L., Smith Jr. R. J., and Talbert, R. E. 1991.Interference of red rice {Oryza sativa) densities in rice (Oryza sativa). Weed Sci. 39: 169-174.

- Lal, R., Lorenz, K., Huttl, R. R. J., Schneider, B. U., and von Braun, J. (Eds). 2013. Ecosystem Services and Carbon Sequestration in the Biosphere. Springer, Dordrecht, Netherlands: 464 pp.
- Larinde, M. A. 1979. Seed maturation, development and release of dormancy in red rice. M.Sc. Thesis, Mississippi State University, USA, 65p.
- Lee, S. S., and Kim, J. H. 2000. Total sugars, a- amylase activity, and emergence after priming of normal and aged rice seeds. Kor. J. Crop Sci. 45: 108-111.
- Leopold, A. C., Glenister, R., and Cohn, M. A. 1988. Relationship between water content and after ripening in red rice. Physiol. Plant. 74: 659-662.
- Liebman, M., Mohler, C. L., and Staver, C. P. 2001. Ecological Management of Agricultural Weeds. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge, 324p.
- Londo, J. P. and Schall, B. A. 2007. Origins and population genetics of weedy red rice in the USA. Mol. Ecol. 16: 4523-4535
- Longevin, S. A., Clay, K., and Grace, J. B. 1990. The incidence and effects of hybridization between cultivated rice and its related weed red rice (Oryza sativa L.). Evol. 44: 1000-1008.
- Mahajan, G. and Chauhan, B. S. 2013. The role of cultivars in managing weeds in dry-seeded rice production systems. Crop Prot. 49: 52-57.
- Mahajan, G., Randhawa, R. S., Singh, H., Kang, M. S. 2014. Global wanning and its possible impact on agriculture in India. Adv. Agron. 123: 65-121.

Makino, O., Shinano, T., and Tadano, T. 1987. Effect of nitrogen application on the accumulation of ribulose-l,5-bisphosphate carboxylase/ oxygenase and chlorophyll in several field crops. Soil Sci. Plant Nutr. 39(3): 427-436.

 2^{O2}

- Maruyama, S. and Tajima, K. 1990.Leaf conductance in japonica and indica rice varieties. I. Size, frequency and aperture of stomata. Jpn. J. crop sci. 59: 801-808.
- Matsui,T., Namuco, O. S., Ziska, L. H., and Horie, T. 1997. Effects of high temperature and $CO₂$ concentration on spikelet sterility in indica rice. Field Crops Res. 51:213-219.
- Meehl, G., Washington, W. M., and Collins, W. D. 2007. How much more global warming and sea level rice. Sci. 307:1769-72.
- Miller, B. C., Hill, J. E., and Roberts, S. R. 1991. Plant population effects on growth and yield in water seeded rice. Agron. J. 83: 291-297.
- Minotti, P. L. and Sweet, R. D. 1981. Role of crop competition in limiting losses from weeds. In: Pimentel D, editor. Handbook of pest management in agriculture. Boca Raton (Florida): CRC Press, pp. 351-367.
- Mongkolbunjong, P., Juntakool, S., and Hyakutake, H. 1999. Some agronomic characteristics and seed dormancy study of 12 wild rice (Oryza rufipogon) accessions from different origins. In Proceeding of 17th Asian Pacific Weed Science Society Conference, Thailand, pp. 56-62.
- Mortensen, D. A., Dieleman, J. A., and Johnson, G. A. 1998. Weed spatial variation and weed management. In: Hatfield JL, Buhler DD, Stewart BA (editors). Integrated weed and soil management. Ann Arbor Press, Chelsea, Michigan, USA, 293-310.

Mortimer, M., Pandey, S., and Piggin, C. 2000. Weedy Rice: Approaches to Ecological Appraisal and Implications for Research Priorities, In: B. B. Baki, D. V. Chin and M. Mortimer, Eds., Wild and Weedy Rice in Rice Ecosystems in Asia-A Review. Limited Proceedings No. 2, International Rice Research Institute, Los Banos, pp. 97- 105.

 $a^{D^{\lambda}}$

- Murata, Y,, Osada, A., lyama, J., and Yamada, N. 1957. Photosynthesis of rice plants. Plant factors constituting photosynthetic ability of rice plants growing on paddy fields, Proc. Crop Sci. Soc. Jpn. 25: 133-137.
- Nelson, R. J. 1908. Rice. Ark. Agric. Bull. 98.
- Ni, H. W., Moody, K., and Robles, R. P. 2004. Analysis of competition between wetseeded rice and barnyard grass (*Echinochloa crus-galli* L.) using a responsesurface model. Weed Sci. 52: 142-146.
- Noldin, J. A. 2000. Red rice status and management in the Americas, in Wild and Weedy Rice in Rice Ecosystems in Asia-A Review. International Rice Research Institute: Los Banos (Philippines), pp.21-24.
- Noldin, J. A., Chandler, J. M., and McCauley, G. N. 2006. Seed longevity of red rice ecotypes buried in soil. Planta Daninha. 24: 611-620.
- Ohsumi, A., Takai, T., Ida, M., Yamamoto, T., Sanoh, A., Yano, M., Ando,T., and Kondo, M. 2007. Evaluation of yield performance in rice near-isogenic lines with increased spikelet number. Field Crops Res. 120(1): 68-75.
- Olajumoke, B., Juraimi, A. S., Uddin, Md. K., Husni, M. H. A., and Alam, Md. A. 2016. Competitive ability of cultivated rice against weedy rice biotypes- A review. Chilean J. Agric. Res. 76(2): 243-252.

Olguin, E. S., Espinoza, A. G., and Espinoza, E. A. M. 2007. Vegetative and reproductive development of Costa Rican weedy rice compared with commercial rice {Oryza sativa). Planta Daninha. 1: 13-23.

 20^5

- Ottis, B, v.. Smith, K. L., Scott, R. C., and Taibert, R. E. 2005. Rice yield and quality as affected by cultivar and red rice (Oryza sativa) density. Weed Sci. 53: 499-504.
- Patterson, D.T. 1982. Weeds in a changing climate. Weed Sci. 43: 685-701.
- Perreto, E. L., Peske, S.T., and Galli, J. 1993. Avaliac Seeds and plants or daninho rice. Revista Brasileira de Sementes. 15: 49-54.
- Phuhong, L. T., Denich, M., Vlek, P. L. G., and Balasubramanian, V. 2005. Suppressing weeds in direct seeded lowland rice: effects of methods and rates of seeding. *J. Agron. Crop Sci.* 191: 185–194.
- Praba, M. L., Vanangamudi, M., and Thandapani, V. 2004. Effect of low light on yield and physiological attributes of rice. Int. Rice Res. Notes. 29: 71-73.
- Quereau, F. C. 1920. Rice investigations. Louisiana Agric. Exp. Sta. Bull. 172p.
- Rathore, M., Singh, R., and Kumar, B. 2016. Weedy rice: an emerging threat to rice cultivation and options for its management. Curr. Sci. Ind. 105(8): 1067-1072.
- Rowse, H. R. 1995. Drum priming a non-osmotic method of priming seeds. Seed Sci. Technol. 24: 281-294.
- Ruan, S., Xue, Q., and Tylkowska, K. 2002. Effects of seed priming on emergence and health of rice (Oryza sativa L.) seeds. Seed Sci. Technol. 30: 451-458.

Sastry, M. V. S. and Sitharaman, R. 1973. Inheritance of grain shattering and lazy habit and their interrelationship in rice. Ind. J. Genet. Plant breed. 38:3 18-321.

pb 2y

- Seneweera, S., Makino, A., Mae, A., and Basra, A. S. 1994. Response of rice to (C02) Enrichment: the relationship between photosynthesis and nitrogen metabolism. J. Crop Improv. 13: 31-53.
- Sharma, A. R. 1994. Effect of seed rate and row spacing on the performance of early and late maturing rice cultivars in mixed crop systems under intermediate deep water conditions (15-50 cm). J. Agric. Sci. 122: 201-205.
- Sheela, K. R. 1993. Agronomic evaluation of rice cultivars for rainfed conditions of Kerala. Ph.D. thesis, Kerala Agricultural University, Thrissur, 207p.
- Sherchand, J. B. and Sharma, P. R. 2004. Crop performance and water and nitrogen use efficiencies in dry seeded rice in response to irrigation and fertilizer amounts in northwest India Field Crops Res. 134: 59-70.
- Shivrain, V. K. 2010. Molecular Characterization of the Ace-tolactate Synthase (ALS) Gene and Phenotypic Diversity in Red Rice {Oryza sativa L.), M.Sc. Thesis, University of Arkansas, Fayetteville, 235p.
- Singh, K., Kumar, V., Saharawat, Y. S., Gathala, M., Ladha, J. K., and Chauhan, B. S. 2013. Weedy Rice: An Emerging Threat for Direct- seeded Rice Production Systems in India. J. Rice Res. 1(1): 1-6.
- Singh, M., Bhullar, M. S., and Chauhan, B. S. 2015. Influence of tillage, covercropping and herbicides on weeds and productivity of dry direct seeded rice. Soil Tillage Res. 147: 39-49.

Singh, N. and Jasrai, K. 2011. Allelopathy for weed control in agricultural systems. Crop Prot. 72: 57-65.

- Sivaesarajah, K., Sangakkara, U. R., and Sandanam, S. 1995. Effect of plant density, nitrogen and gypsum on yield parameters of groundnut (Arachis hypogeae L.) in regosols of Batticloa district. Trop. Agric. Res. 7: 112-123.
- Smith, R. J. 1968. Control of red rice (Oryza sativa L.) in water seeded rice {Oryza sativa L.). Weed Set. 29: 61-62.
- Song, B. K., Chuah, T. S., Tam, S. M,, and Olsen, K. M. 2014. Malaysian weedy rice shows its true stripes: wild *Oryza* and elite rice cultivars shape agricultural weed evolution in Southeast Asia. Mol. Ecol. 23: 5003-5017.
- Stansel, J. W., Bollich, C. N.,Thysell, J. R., and Hall, V. I. 1965. The influence of light intensity and nitrogen fertility on rice components of yield. Rice. J. 68: 34-39.
- Subbiah, D.V. and Asija, G.L. 1956. Rapid procedure for estimation of available nitrogen in soil. Curr. Set. 25: 259-260.
- Suh, H. S. 2008. Weedy Rice. Korea: National Institute of Crop Science, Rural Development Administration (RDA), 578p.
- Suh, H. S. and Ha, W. G. 1993. Collection and evaluation of Korean red rice.V. Germination and characteristics on different water and soil depth. Curr. Sci. 38: 128-133.
- Suh, H. S., Sato, Y. I., and Morishima, H. 1997. Genetic characterization of weedy rice (Oryza sativa L) based on morpho-physiology, isozymes and RAPD markers. Theor. Appl. Genet. 94: 316-321.

Swamy, B. P. M., Kaladhar, K., Ramesha, M. S., Viraklamath, B. C., and Sarla. N. 2010. Molecular mapping of OTLs for yield and related traits in Oryza sativa cv Swarna \times Oryza. nivara (IRGC81848) backcross population. Rice Sci. 18: 178-186.

 20^{7}

- Thomas, G., Sreejayan, Joseph, L., and Kuriachan, P. 2001. Genetic variation and population structure in Oryza malampuzhaensis endemic to Western ghats, South India. *J. Genet.* 80: 141-148.
- Upadhyay, S. and Sivanad, L. 1985. Towards an economic framework for evaluating potential benefits from research into weed control. J. Agric. Econ. 44(2): 322- 333.
- Varshney, J. G. and Tiwari, J. P. 2008.Studies on weedy rice infestation and assessment of its impact on rice production. Indian J. Weed Sci. 40: 3-4.
- Vaughan, D. A. 1994. The wild relatives of rice: A genetic resources handbook. IRRI, Philippines, 89p.
- Vaughan, D. A. and Sitch. L. A. 1991. Gene flow from the jungle to farmers. Biosci. 41:22-28.
- Veasey, E. A., Karasawa, M. G. M., Santos, P. P., Rosa, M. S., Mamanie, E., and Oliveira, G. C. X. 2004. Variation in the loss of SD during after-ripening of wild and cultivated Rice Species. Ann Bot. 94:875-882.
- Vidotto, F. and Ferrero, A. 2000. Germination behaviour of red rice {Oryza sativa L.) seeds in field and laboratory conditions. Agron. 20: 375-382.
- Watanabe, H., Vaughan, D. A., and Tomook, N. 1996. Weedy rice complexes: case studies from Malaysia, Vietnam and suriname. In: International symposium on wild and weedy rices in agroecosystems. 10-11 August, Hochiminh city.
- Watson, D. J. 1947. Comparative physiological studies on the growth of field crops; variation in net assimilation rate and leaf area between species and varieties within and between years. Ann. Bot. 11: 47-76.
- Weiner, J., Griepentrog, H., and Kristensen, L. 2001, Suppression of weeds by spring wheat (Triticum aestivum) increases with crop density and spatial uniforminty. J. Appl. Ecol. 38: 784-790.
- Yoshida, S. 1972. Physiological aspects of grain yield. Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. 23: 437-464.
- Yoyock, J. Y. 1979. Effects of variety and spacing on growth, development and dry matter distribution in groundnut at 2 locations in Nigeria. Exp. Agric. 15; 339- 351.
- Zhang, D., Wakelin, A. M., and Dolman, F. C. 2002. Growth response of rice (Oryza sativa) and red rice (Oryza sativa L.) in a replacement series study. Weed Technol. 16(2); 401-406.
- Zhang, H. B., Xia, H., Yang, X., and Lu, B. R. 2015. Fitness effect on insect-resistant F2 progeny of crop-weedy rice hybrids under different cultivation modes. J. Fudan Univ. 4: 419-427.
- Zhao, D. L., Atlin, G. N., Bastiaans, L., and Spiertz, J. H. J. 2006. Cultivar weeds competitiveness in aerobic rice; heritability, correlated traits, and the potential for indirect selection in weed-free environments. Crop Sci. 46: 372-380.
- Zhao, D. L., Bastiaans, L, Atlin, G. N., and Spiertz, J. H. J. 2007.1nteraction of genotype x management on vegetative growth and weed suppression of aerobic rice. Field Crops Res. 100: 327-340.

Ziska, L. H., Tomecek, M. B., and Gealy, D. R. 2010. Competitive interactions between cultivated and red rice as a function of recent and projected increase in atmospheric carbon dioxide. Agron. J. 102: 118-123.

J),

Ziska, L. H. 2003. The impact of nitrogen supply on the potential response of a noxious, invasive weed, Canada thistle {Cirsium arvense) to recent increases in atmospheric carbon dioxide. Physiol. Plant. 119: 105-112.

CHARACTERIZATION AND MANAGEMENT OF WEEDY RICE iOryza sativa f. spontanea)

by

ANJALI K

(2014-11-111)

ABSTRACT

Submitted in partial fulfilment of the

requirement for the degree of

MASTER OF SCIENCE IN AGRICULTURE

Faculty of Agriculture

Kerala Agricultural University

DEPARTMENT OF AGRONOMY

COLLEGE OF AGRICULTURE

VELLAVANl, THlRUVANANTHAPURAM-695522

KERALA, INDIA

ABSTRACT

The study entitled 'Characterization and management of weedy rice (Oryza sativa f. spontanea)' was carried out as four separate experiments conducted at COA, Vellayani and farmers' fields of Nemom block during 2014- 16. The main objectives of the study were morpho-physiologjcal and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes of Kerala; formulation of a management strategy and assessment of crop weed interference under elevated carbon dioxide concentration.

Experiment L 'Morpho-physiological and agronomic characterization of weedy rice morphotypes' was conducted as pot culture laid out in completely randomized design with eight weedy rice morphotypes collected from major rice tracts of Kerala (Trivandrum, Kuttanad, Kole lands, Palakkad, Kozhikode and Ezhome). Morphological characterization of weedy rice morphotypes using morphometric descriptors and its comparison with cultivated varieties revealed that during initial stages most of the weedy rice morphotype possess similar morphological characteristics as the cultivated varieties. Physiological characterization of weedy rice morphotypes revealed no significant variation in chlorophyll content, total soluble protein and stomatal characteristics with cultivated rice varieties. However, root growth in terms of volume and dry weight was significantly higher for most of the morphotypes collected from Trivandrum, Kuttanad, Palakkad, and Ezhome.

Earliness in 50% flowering was observed in all the weedy rice morphotypes compared to cultivated rice. Sterility of weedy rice morphotypes were significantly higher (17.77 to 32.79%) compared to cultivated rice varieties (9.23 to 12.85%). All the weedy rice morphotypes collected showed a prominence in awn length ranging from 2.37 to 9.23 cm. An average grain and straw yield of 4.89 and 16.14 g plant⁻¹ and 1000 grain weight of 20.42 g was recorded by weedy rice morphotypes. Shattering percentage expressed as grain threshability was significantly high for weedy rice morphotypes ranging from 29.73 to 46.32%. The

Experiment II. 'Management of weedy rice by enhancing rice competitiveness' was undertaken as micro plot study by raising cultivated rice and most common weedy rice morphotype and maintaining a standard weedy rice population of 7 plants m⁻². To enhance rice competitiveness, three levels of seed rates viz., 100, 120 and 140 kg ha⁻¹ in combination with three types of priming techniques, *i.e.*, without priming, hydropriming and hardening $(2.5 % KCl)$ were included. Among the treatments, seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming $(T₂)$ recorded significantly higher number of grains per panicle (120.02), grain yield $(4.44 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ and straw yield $(6.71 \text{ t} \text{ ha}^{-1})$ which was on par with T₅ (120 kg) $ha^{-1} + hydropriming$).

months which is an indication of variable seed dormancy.

Confirmatory trial at farmers' field revealed that seed rates of 100 kg ha⁻¹ or 120 kg ha⁻¹ along with hydropriming $(T_2 \& T_5)$ resulted in superior yield attributes in rice viz., number of grains per panicle, grain and straw yield $ha⁻¹$. Weedy rice count m⁻² and dry weight were significantly lower under these treatments. T₂ (100 kg+ hydropriming) along with T₅ (120 kg+ hydropriming) turned out to be the most economic treatment with a B:C ratio of 1.68 and 1.64 respectively.

Experiment III. 'Effect of elevated $CO₂$ concentration on growth of rice and weedy rice', was undertaken as pot study under elevated CO₂ concentration of 500 ppm in Open Top Chamber (Chamber A) and in ambient conditions (Chamber B and open field). The most common morphotype of weedy rice and two cultivated rice varieties (Jyothi and Uma) were selected for the study. Significant variations in vegetative (no of tillers, leaf area index and leaf area duration) as well as yield attributes and yield (no. of grain panicle"', grain yield plant⁻¹) were observed under elevated CO₂ levels in all these three systems. Higher grain yield per plant was recorded by weedy rice in Chamber A with an elevated CO2 level (1.73 times higher than open condition), followed by Chamber

B (recorded 1.19 times more than open condition). However, the extent of response varied among the cultivars under varying atmospheric situations with Uma showing a greater percentage increase in grain yield (51.4% in Chamber A and 40% in Chamber B) followed by weedy rice (42.3% in Chamber A and 16% in Chamber B).

The study revealed significant variation among the weedy rice morphotypes. Cultivated rice and weedy rice exhibited morphological similarity during initial stages of growth. Seed rate of 100 kg ha⁻¹ with hydropriming can be recommended as the most effective and economic management strategy for weedy rice. The response of weedy rice to elevated CO₂ was more compared to cultivated rice varieties.

ω_0

കേരളത്തിലുടനീളമുള്ള നെൽവയലുകളിൽ ഒരു വലിയ ഭീക്ഷണിയായി വരിനെല്ല് മാറിക്കൊണ്ടിരിക്കുന്നു. നെല്ലിനോട് ഏറെ സാദൃശ്യം പുലർത്തുന്ന ഈ കളകളെ നെൽച്ചെടിയിൽ നിന്നും വളർച്ചയുടെ ആദ്യനാളുകളിൽ തിരിച്ചറി യുക ഏറെ ശ്രമകരമാണ്. കതിര് വന്നുകഴിഞ്ഞാൽ നെൽമണിയോടൊട്ടി നിർക്കുന്ന നീണ്ട നാരുകൾ ഉപയോഗിച്ച് ഇവയെ വേർതിരിച്ചറിയാമെങ്കിലും അപ്പോഴേക്കും ഇവ വരുത്തിവെക്കുന്ന നഷ്ടം വലുതായിരിക്കും.

സൂക്ഷ്മമായി നിരീക്ഷിച്ചാൽ വരിനെൽച്ചെടികൾ തമ്മിൽത്തന്നെ ബാഹൃഘടനയിൽ ഏറെ വൃത്യാസം പുലർത്തുന്നതായി കാണാം. ഈ വൃത്യാസങ്ങൾ പഠിച്ചാൽ ഇവയെ വളർച്ചയുടെ ആദ്യഘട്ടത്തിൽ തന്നെ നെൽച്ചെടിയിൽ നിന്നും വേർതിരിച്ചറിയാം. ഈ സാഹചര്യത്തിലാണ് കേരള ത്തിലെ പ്രധാന നെല്ലുല്പാദന കേന്ദ്രങ്ങളിൽ നിന്നും ശേഖരിച്ച നിയന്ത്രണ ത്തിനായി ഒരു പുതിയ മാർഗ്ഗം കണ്ടെത്തൽ, ഭാവിയിലെ കാലാവസ്ഥാവൃതി യാനം കണക്കിലെടുക്കുമ്പോൾ (ഉയർന്ന അളവിൽ $\rm CO_2$ ഉള്ള സാഹചര്യം) നെല്ലും, വരിനെല്ലും തമ്മിലുള്ള മത്സരക്ഷമത പഠിക്കൽ എന്നീ ലക്ഷ്യങ്ങളോടെ "വരിനെൽച്ചെടികളുടെ ബാഹൃ അപഗ്രഥനവും, നിയന്ത്രണവും" എന്ന ഗവേ ഷണപദ്ധതിക്ക് രൂപം നൽകിയത്. 2014 ഡിസംബർ മാസത്തിൽ തുടങ്ങിയ ഗവേഷണം കാർഷിക കോളേജിലും, നേമം ബ്ലോക്കിലെ കാഞ്ഞിരതടി പാടശേ ഖരത്തിലുമായി പൂർത്തീകരിച്ചു.

ഗവേഷണത്തിന്റെ ആദൃഘട്ടത്തിൽ കേരളത്തിലെ പ്രധാനപ്പെട്ട നെല്ലൂ ല്പാദന കേന്ദ്രങ്ങൾ സന്ദർശിച്ച് അവിടെ നിന്നും വരിനെൽച്ചെടിയുടെ വിത്ത് cശഖരിച്ചു. തിരുവനന്തപുരം, ആലപ്പുഴ (കുട്ടനാട്), തൃശൂർ (കോൾ നില ങ്ങൾ), പാലക്കാട്, കോഴിക്കോട്, കണ്ണൂർ (കൈപ്പാട്) എന്നീ ജില്ലകളിൽ നിന്നും ശേഖരിച്ച വരിനെൽ വിത്തുകൾ ജ്യോതി, ഉമ എന്നീ നെൽവിത്തുകളോടൊപ്പം ചട്ടിയിൽ വളർത്തി, വരിനെൽച്ചെടികൾ തമ്മിലും അവയ്ക്ക് നെൽചെടികളുമാ യുള്ള വൃത്യാസങ്ങളും പഠിച്ചു. അന്താരാഷ്ട്ര നെല്ല് ഗവേഷണകേന്ദ്രം പുറ ത്തിറക്കിയ മാനദണ്ഡങ്ങളുപയോഗിച്ച് നടത്തിയ പഠനത്തിൽ നിന്നും ഉയരം, ചിനപ്പുകളുടെ എണ്ണം, തണ്ടിന്റെ ഉരുണ്ട പ്രകൃതം, വേരിന്റെയും, ഇലയുടെയും ഘടന എന്നീ ബാഹ്യ വ്യത്യാസങ്ങൾക്കുപരിയായി ഉയർന്ന ആനുപാതികത്തി ലുള്ള ഹരിതകവും, ആസൃരന്ദ്രങ്ങളും ഇവയുടെ പ്രത്യേകതകളായി കണ്ടെ ത്തി.

 $\mathfrak{A}^{\mathfrak{k}}$

ഗവേഷണത്തിന്റെ രണ്ടാം ഘട്ടത്തിൽ നെൽച്ചെടിയുടെ മത്സരക്ഷമത വർദ്ധിപ്പിച്ച് വരിനെല്ല് നിയന്ത്രണം സാധ്യമാക്കുന്നതിന് ഉയർന്ന വിത്ത്നിര ക്കും, വിത്തുപചാരവും സംയോജിപ്പിച്ച് കൊണ്ടുള്ള വിവിധ രീതികൾ പരീ ക്ഷണ വിധേയമാക്കി. ഉയർന്ന വിത്ത്നിരക്കായ ഹെക്ടർ ഒന്നിന് 100 കിലോ, അലെങ്കിൽ 120 കിലോ എന്ന തോതിൽ വിത്തുകൾ ഹൈഡ്രോപ്രയ്മിങ്ങ് (നെൽവിത്ത് 48 മണിക്കൂർ വെള്ളത്തിൽ കുതിർത്തതിന് ശേഷം ഉണക്കി പഴയ നിലയിലാക്കുന്ന രീതി) തയ്യാറാക്കി വിതയ്ക്കുന്നതിന് യഥാക്രമം 51.85, 50.82 ശതമാനം നിയന്ത്രണം സാധ്യമാക്കി.

ഗവേഷണത്തിന്റെ മൂന്നാം ഘട്ടത്തിൽ ഉയർന്ന അന്തരീക്ഷം CO_2 സാഹ ചര്യങ്ങളോട് നെൽചെടികളും വരിനെല്ലും എങ്ങനെ പ്രതികരിക്കുന്നു എന്നത് പഠനവിധേയമാക്കി. അന്തരീക്ഷത്തിലെ $\rm CO_2$ ന്റെ അളവ് 500 പി.പി.എം. എന്ന ഉയർന്ന നിരക്കിൽ ആയിരിക്കുമ്പോൾ (ചേമ്പർ എ) നെല്ചെടിയുടെയും, വരിനെല്ലിന്റെയും ചിനപ്പൂക്കളുടെ എണ്ണം, ഉയരം, നെൽമണികളുടെ എണ്ണം, തുക്കം എന്നിവയിൽ വർദ്ധനവ് രേഖപ്പെടുത്തി. ഉമയും, ജ്യോതിയും തമ്മിൽ താരതമൃം ചെയ്യുമ്പോൾ ഉമ ഉയർന്ന CO_2 സാഹചര്യങ്ങളോട് മെച്ചപ്പെട്ട രീതി യിൽ പ്രതികരിക്കുന്നതായി കണ്ടെത്തി.

ഈ പഠനത്തിൽ നിന്നും നെൽച്ചെടികളും വരിനെല്ലും വളർച്ചയുടെ ആദ്യഘട്ടത്തിൽ ഏറെ ബാഹ്യസാദൃശ്യം പുലർത്തുന്നതായും; ഉയർന്ന വിത്തു നിരക്കും (100 കിലോ) ഹൈഡ്രോപ്രയ്മിങ്ങും സംയോജിപ്പിച്ച് കൊണ്ടുള്ള രീതിയിൽ 50 ശതമാനത്തോളം വരിനെൽ നിയന്ത്രണം സാധ്യമായതായും; ഉയർന്ന അളവിൽ ഉള്ള $\mathop{\rm CO}_2$ സാഹചര്യങ്ങളോട് നെല്ലും വരിനെല്ലും മെച്ചപ്പെട്ട രീതിയിൽ പ്രതികരിക്കുന്നതായും കണ്ടെത്തി.
Appendix

 516

APPENDIX-I

Weather parameters during the experimental period

(December 2015 - March 2016)

