THE WEED FLORA OF CALIFORNIAN RICE FIELDS

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ABSTRACT

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Although cultivated rice (Oryza sativa L.) has been grown in the United States since the seventeenth century, it was not until 1912 that commercial rice production was practised in California. At present, approximately one quarter of the total annual U.S. rice crop is produced in the Central Valley of California. Due to the continually flooded conditions that prevail in Californian rice fields, the weed flora is highly specialised and is composed of some 62 species of aquatic vascular plants. The flora is unusual among crop weed floras of California in that it contains a substantial proportion (ca, two thirds) of native species. This is probably a result of the similarity in ecological conditions between rice fields and the original wetland habitats of the Central Valley that they replaced. Seventeen of the 20 alien species in the weed flora are of Old World origin and several (Cyperus difformis L., Dopatrium junceum (Roxb.) Ham., Echinochloa crusgalli (L.) Beauv., Scirpus mucronatus L., Monochoria vaginalis (Burm. f.) Presl, Oryza rufipogon Griff., Ottelia alismoides (L.) Pers. and Rotala indica (Willd.) Koehne are widely distributed and well-documented weeds associated with rice. It is proposed that the most likely method by which these aliens have been introduced to California is as seed contaminants of imported rice stocks. The small seed size, annual life form and autogamous breeding systems of the majority of these species probably aid in their dispersal, establishment and colonization of rice fields. A survey of 70 rice fields distributed throughout the rice-growing areas of the state indicated that the annuals Sagittaria montevidensis Cham. and Schlecht. ssp. calycina (Engelm.) Bogin., Ammannia coccinea Rottb., Bacopa rotundifolia (Michx.) Wettst. and taxa in the Echinochloa crus-galli complex are the most abundant and widely distributed rice weeds in California.

INTRODUCTION

Weed communities of agricultural land in California have received little attention from botanists. In a recent work on the terrestrial vegetation of the state (Barbour and Major, 1977) weed communities were not treated in detail, although one third of the area of California is cultivated or grazed. In addition, 674 alien species are represented in the flora of the state (Raven and Axelrod, 1978).

Baker (1962, 1965, 1972), Allard (1965), Stebbins (1965) and Jain (1969) among others have examined the population biology and evolution of individual Californian weed species. Robbins (1940) described the history of alien species introduction and compiled a manual of weeds of the state (Robbins et al., 1951). However, as Raven and Axelrod (1978) have recently mentioned, the preparation of an up-to-date weed flora of California is highly desirable. Perhaps the most detailed study of weed communities in California is Frenkel's analysis of the ruderal vegetation along Californian roadsides (Frenkel, 1970).

In the Central Valley of California, little of the original vegetation persists (Thompson, 1961; Ornduff, 1974; Jain, 1976; Barbour and Major, 1977) and most of the wetland plant communities have been replaced by agricultural crops. One of the major crops grown in this region is cultivated rice (Oryza sativa L.). Rice is unusual among crop plants in being an aquatic annual. Although 'upland' varieties can be grown under terrestrial conditions, the majority of the world's rice is produced under 'paddy' or flooded cultivation (Grist, 1953). In North America, all commercial rice production is under flooded conditions, although the depth and duration of flood varies from state to state. Due to the flooded conditions that prevail in the rice fields, only relatively specialised weeds capable of growing under aquatic conditions occur. Rice weed floras are often composed of species that are not found as weeds of terrestrial crops, and hence, rice weed communities are highly distinctive. Species lists and ecological studies of these communities have been reported for the following geographical locations: Australia (Clampett and Clough, 1975); China (Anonymous, 1973); Egypt (Imam and Kosinova, 1972); France (Tallon, 1958; Cornet, 1971); Italy (Koch, 1952, 1954; Pignatti, 1957; Cook, 1973); Japan (Noda, 1970; Morishima and Oka, 1977); India (Chakravarty, 1957; Singh, 1969); Lower Amazon (Barrett, 1975); Philippines (Pancho et al., 1969); Romania (Chirila and Melachrinos, 1976); Russia (Vasinger-Alektrova, 1931); Surinam (Dirven and Poerink, 1955); Taiwan (Sung and Chang, 1964); Thailand (Suwatabandhu, 1950) and the United States (Smith et al., 1977).

The objective of this paper is to describe the history of rice cultivation in California and to document the origin, distribution and biological characteristics of the rice weed flora of the state. In addition, the distribution and weed status of California's most serious rice weeds (the *Echinochloa crus-galli* (L.) Beauv. complex) are reviewed. Names used in this paper follow Mason (1957) and Munz and Keck (1959) except where more recent taxonomic treatments are available.

RICE CULTIVATION IN CALIFORNIA

Rice has been grown in the United States since the latter part of the seventeenth century (Gray and Thompson, 1941). Prior to the twentieth century, the major rice producing states were Louisiana, Arkansas and Texas. In an attempt to determine whether commercial rice production was feasible under Californian conditions, small quantities of rice were grown in widely separates sites during the summer of 1860. Sites were chosen in Alameda, Tehama, San Mateo, Santa Cruz and Sonoma Counties. Only 1975 kg of rice was harvested from all plots. None of these localities is currently used for rice cultivation.

In 1862, an attempt was made by the Californian legislature to stimulate the growth of the rice industry by offering financial incentives to growers. However, it was not until 1906 that rice, obtained from Japan, was grown and matured in Fresno County. In the following year, Louisiana rice seed was planted at Stockton and in Sacramento County but failed to produce a crop. In 1908–09 several acres of Japanese and Honduran rice, composed of some 300 varieties, were grown at Biggs, Butte County (Chambliss, 1912).

Experience with these early plantings of rice provided valuable information on the commercial possibilities for rice culture in the state. In 1912, 567 ha of commercial plantings were made near Biggs and a rice experiment station was constructed 7.25 km NW. of the town (Jones, 1923). Since then, the area utilized for rice production has increased steadily and by 1970 some 134 529 ha were under cultivation in California, representing 22% of the total United States' rice crop (Adair, 1973).

All rice currently produced in California is grown in the Central Valley, with 88% of the total area located in the Sacramento Valley (Fig. 1). The major rice-producing counties listed in approximate order of area under cultivation are: Colusa, Sutter, Butte, Glenn, Yolo, Yuba, Fresno, Sacramento, San Joaquin and Merced. The summer climate of this area is characterized by hot, dry conditions, particularly during May—September which constitutes the rice growing season. The principal soils on which rice is grown in California are heavy clay and clay adobes with impervious subsoils.

Throughout California, a single method of rice culture is practised. Levelled fields are flooded prior to aerial seeding of pre-soaked rice seed. This occurs from mid-April to early June with planting reaching a peak in early May. Rice fields remain flooded at a depth of 8-20 cm for the duration of rice growth and water is removed from fields several weeks prior to harvest in September and October. Due to cooler temperatures during the remainder of the year, only a single rice crop is grown annually in California.

The composition of rice weed communities is strongly influenced by the types of water management and rotational practices utilised in rice-growing areas. The 'continuous flood' technique, in which water is maintained on fields for most of the season, was developed in California during the 1920–30s in order to reduce certain weeds, principally *Echinochloa crus-galli* var. *crus-galli* and *Leptochloa fascicularis* (Lam.) Gray, which are unable to tolerate

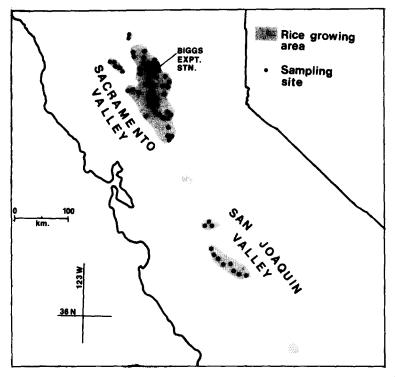


Fig. 1. The rice growing areas of California and the 70 sampling sites utilised in the rice weed survey.

prolonged flooding during seed germination and seedling establishment. This technique is not utilised to any great extent in the other rice growing regions of the United States (i.e. Texas, Louisiana, Arkansas and Mississippi) where seed is usually drilled or broadcast onto dry or saturated soil and germination and rice stand establishment is achieved by rainfall or a series of water flushes followed after 20—30 days by complete or 'permanent' flooding. The deeper water and continuously flooded conditions of Californian rice fields result in a relative more 'aquatic' weed flora compared to the rice weed floras of Southern rice growing states.

Unlike many other rice growing regions of the world, there is at present no established crop rotation pattern for Californian rice lands (Jones et al., 1950). This is because no serious rice disease has yet emerged during the relatively short cropping history (70 years). In addition the soils of rice growing areas of California are inherently quite fertile and soil nutrient depletion has not become a major problem (Johnston and Miller, 1973). Although some growers rotate rice with crops such as safflower (*Carthamus tinctorius* L.), sorghum, sunflower, tomatoes, and wheat, many areas, particularly in Butte, Colusa and Glenn Counties, have been in continuous rice production for over 20 years. Such farming practices have important consequences for the persistence of certain weed species. With the exception of 400 ha of 'organically grown' rice at Richvale, Butte County, the majority of the rice crop in California receives at least two annual herbicide treatments (Smith et al., 1977). The first is a pre- or post-emergence application of S-ethyl hexahydro-1H-azepine-1-carbothioate (molinate) which controls grasses, particularly varieties of *Echinochloa crusgalli*. Between 35 and 50 days after sowing, an application of [(4-chloro-otolyl) oxy] acetic acid (MCPA) is made to control broad-leaved weeds and some sedges. Post-emergence applications of 3', 4'-dichloropropionanilide (propanil) are made for control of these weeds on about 10% of the rice crop in the lower Sacramento and San Joaquin river valleys in lieu of MCPA or molinate. Despite the continuous use of herbicides over the past 10-20 years, weed populations persist and remain one of the major factors reducing yields of rice in California.

THE RICE AGROECOSYSTEM

Agricultural ecosystems are often characterized by a distinctive structure, readily discernable boundaries, and discrete habitats. Ecotones between habitats can be abrupt and temporal changes in the environment, associated with seasonal farming practices, highly predictable. These features are particularly evident in the rice agroecosystem of California (Fig. 2). From the standpoint of weed communities the agroecosystem can be divided into three broad habitat types (Fig. 3) hereafter referred to as the field, levee and



Fig. 2. Aerial view of rice agroecosystem, Sacramento Valley, California.

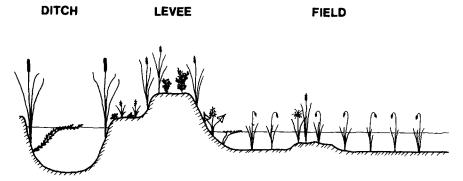


Fig. 3. Schematic diagram of rice agroecosystem illustrating the three major habitats (ditch, levee and field) of weed communities.

ditch habitats. Each of these habitats contains a distinct weed community.

Rice fields represent at least 75% of the total area of the ecosystem. In its simplest form, a rice field is a rectangular block of land subdivided by levees (raised banks) into smaller units known as checks. The checks are flooded and contain dense stands of cultivated rice (average of 120 rice plants m^{-2}). Water depths rarely exceed 0.5 m and shallow water and exposed mud occur at the periphery of each check adjoining the levee and in fields where land has not been adequately levelled. During September—October the fields are drained prior to harvest and from November—March they are left fallow allowing terrestrial weed communities mostly composed of winter annuals, e.g. Capsella bursa-pastoris (L.) Medic., Coronopus didymus (L.) Sm., Erodium cicutarium (L.) L'Her., Poa annua L. and Veronica peregrina L. to make their appearance.

Adjoining the rice fields are complex series of irrigation ditches, drainage ditches, and canals that convey water from rivers, reservoirs, or wells, to the flooded rice fields. These habitats are usually characterised by deep water to depths of 2-3 m, although shallow water is present in the smaller channels. Ditch habitats can contain flowing or relatively stagnant water depending on the season and water management technique employed. At the end of the rice season the majority of irrigation ditches are drained and remain empty until the commencement of rice culture the following year. Drainage ditches usually remain flooded throughout the year. Ditch habitats are mostly infested with native perennial species, including Ceratophyllum demersum L., Elodea canadensis Michx., Ludwigia peploides (HBK) Raven, Polygonum coccineum Muhl., Potamogeton crispus L., P. nodosus Poir., P. pectinatus L., Scirpus acutus Muhl., Typha angustifolia L., T. domingensis Pers. and T. latifolia L.

Throughout the rice agroecosystem are elevated earth banks or levees that are used for water-depth control within each field. The levees are usually constructed every three or four years by earth-moving machinery. They vary in width from 1-3 m and are elevated above the flooded fields by 0.25-1 m. In contrast to the field and ditch habitats, the weed communities that occur on levees and canal banks are terrestrial in nature and are usually composed of widespread ruderal species, including Abutilon theophrasti Medic., Amaranthus albus L., Avena fatua L., Centaurea solstitialis L., Chenopodium album L., Echinochloa crus-galli var. crus-galli, Lactuca serriola L., Lolium temulentum L., Medicago hispida Gaertn., Melilotus alba Desr., Paspalum dilatatum Poir., Polygonum spp., Rumex crispus L. and Sorghum halepense (L.) Pers. The majority of the levee weeds are aliens which were introduced to California prior to the start of rice cultivation.

Since the rice field habitat is the major and most distinctive component of the agroecosystem, much of the emphasis of this study was directed toward a description of its particular weed flora.

ORIGIN AND HISTORY OF THE WEED FLORA

The weed flora of Californian rice fields and associated ditch habitats is composed of some 62 species of vascular plant. A list of the species and information on their distribution, weed status, habitat and biology are presented in Table I. Weeds found exclusively on levees and other terrestrial habitats associated with the rice agroecosystem are not included. Doubtless the number of species reported here from rice fields of the state will increase with further exploration and collection. We feel confident however that all of the common rice field weeds are included in Table I.

Unlike other weed floras of agricultural crops grown in California, the native element of the rice weed flora is substantial, representing two thirds of the total flora (see Baker, 1962). The large number of native species is probably the result of the similarity in ecological conditions between rice fields and the original wetland habitats of the Central Valley that they replaced (Baker, 1972). Aquatic species of the natural vegetation possess adaptations enabling them to establish and proliferate in the flooded conditions of rice fields. It is noteworthy that species of the vernal pool flora of the Central Valley (see Jain, 1976) are not among the native representatives of the rice weed flora despite the superficial ecological similarity and seasonal nature of both habitats. This is presumably because of the seasonal differences in the availability of the two habitats. Rice fields are flooded from April—September whereas vernal pools occur from November—June depending on rainfall. Several vernal pool species such as Veronica peregrina can be found in poorly drained rice fields during winter and early spring. Populations of these species are usually destroyed during land preparation prior to flooding.

Among the 62 species of the rice agroecosystem are 21 aliens. These can be grouped into three geographical elements based on their areas of origin. The Paleotropical, European and American elements are composed of 11, 7 and 3 taxa, respectively (Table II). All species from the Old World tropics have been previously reported as weeds of the rice agroecosystem (see Table I).

TABLE I

Species list of Californian rice weeds indicating distribution, rice weed status, habitat in rice agroecosystem and life form

Life forms^d An., Sub. An., Sub. An., Em. Pe., Em. Pe., Fl. Pe., Sub. An., Em. An., Em. Pe., Em. Pe., Em. Pe., Sub. Pe., Sub. An., Em. Pe., Em. Pe., Ff. Pe., F1. Major habitats^c ы Ч ц ц ц ц ц ц ц ц ч т т л ч т D, F 0000 1111111 ۶Ŧ, A Southern U.S.A., France, southern U.S.A., France, (other than California)^b taly, Russia, Swaziland, where reported as weed Italy, Egypt, Thailand Not reported elsewhere Not reported elsewhere France, Italy, Romania Not reported elsewhere Not reported elsewhere Not reported elsewhere Not reported elswhere of rice agroecosystem Indonesia, Malaysia, Geographical areas Southern U.S.A.? Southern U.S.A. Italy, Algeria taly, Russia Italy, Egypt Thailand China Italy Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan Distribution N. America N. America N. America New World N. America N. America New World **Old World** Eurasia Native/ alien^a z z ZZZ z ΖZ zΖ z イスススス Schlecht. ssp. calycina (Engelm.) Bogin Echinodorus berteroi (Spreng.) Fassett Najas guadalupensis (Spreng.) Morong Sagittaria montevidensis Cham. & Najas graminea Raffeneau-Delile Sagittaria longiloba Engelm. Potamogeton nodosus Poir. Potamogeton pectinatus L. Marsilea mucronata A. Br. Alisma lanceolatum With. Typha domingensis Pers. Zannichellia palustris L. Azolla filiculoides Lam. Potamogeton crispus L. Typha angustifolia L. Alisma triviale Pursh Typha latifolia L. Potamogetonaceae Zannichelliaceae Alismataceae Marsileaceae Salviniaceae Najadaceae Typhaceae Taxon

| Hydrocharitaceae Elodea canadensis Michx. Ottelia alismoides (L.) Pers. | NA | Cosmopolitan Cosmopolitan | Italy Italy, Egypt, India, Thailand | 99 | Pe., Sub. Pe., Sub. |
|---|----|------------------------------|--|------|------------------------|
| Gramineae Echinochlog colonum (L) Link | ¥ | Cosmopolitan | Worldwide in rice | L, F | An. Em. |
| Echinochloa crus-galli (L.) Beauv. var. crus-galli | A | Cosmopolitan | Worldwide in rice | L, F | An., Em. |
| Echinochloa crus-galli (L.) Beauv. var. orvzienia (Vasing) Ohwi | ¥ | Cosmopolitan | Europe, India, S.E. Asia, Janan, Australia, Russia | Ĺ | An., Em. |
| Echinochloa muricata (Beauv.) Fem. | N | N. America | Australia (Vickery, 1975) | L. F | An Em. |
| Leersia oryzoides (L.) Sw. | Z | N. temperate | Southern U.S.A., Italy, Romania | D, F | Pe., Fl. |
| Leptochloa fascicularis (Lam.) Gray | N | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A. | L, F | An., Em. |
| Leptochloa uninervia (Presl) Hitch. & Chase | N | N. temperate | Southern U.S.A. | L, F | An., Em. |
| Oryza rufipogon Griff. | A | Cosmopolitan | Worldwide in rice | Ŧ | An., Em. |
| Paspalum distichum L. | Z | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A., Brazil, Italy, Romania, Egypt, Swaziland, China | D, F | Pe., Fl. |
| Polypogon monspeliensis (L.) Desf. | ¥ | Europe, Australia | Not reported elsewhere | D, F | An., Em. |
| Cyperaceae | | | | | |
| Cyperus difformis L. | Α | Cosmopolitan | Worldwide in rice | ч | An., Em. |
| Cyperus ery throrhizos Muhl. | Z | N. America | Southern U.S.A. | F, L | An, Em. |
| Cyperus odoratus L. | z | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A., Surinam, Brazil Philinnines | ғ, г | An., Em. |
| Elacahanis aktusa (Willd.) Sahult | 2 | N America | Southern II S A Italy | 5 | An Em |
| DECOMPTE OF THE AND THE OF | 4 | Europe | | ä | |
| Eleocharis palustris (L.) R. & S. | z | N. America | Russia, China, Japan | F | An., Em. |
| Scirpus fluviatilis (Torr.) Gray | Z | N. America Australia | Not reported elsewhere | ۶. | Pe., Em. |
| Scirpus mucronatus L. | A | Eurasia | France, Italy | Ŧ | An., Em. |
| Scirpus acutus Muhl. | Z | N. America | Southern U.S.A. | F, D | Pe., Em. |
| Lemnaceae Lemna minor L. | Z | Cosmopolitan | Italy, Russia, Egypt | F, D | Pe., Ff. |
| Pontederiaceae | | | | | |
| Heteranthera limosa (Sw.) Willd. | A | Neotropics | Southern U.S.A., Costa Rice Venezuela | Ъ. | An., Em. |
| Monochoria vaginalis (Burm. f.) Presl | ¥ | Asia | kusia, India, SE. Asia, Japan | įн, | An., Em. |

| Taxon | Native/ alien ^a | Distribution | Geographical areas where reported as weed of rice agroecosystem (other than California) ^b | Major habitats ^c | Life forms ^d |
|---|-------------------------------|---|---|--------------------------------|-------------------------|
| Polygonaceae | | | | | |
| Polygonum coccineum Muhl. | Z | North America | Not reported elsewhere | Ľ, F | Pe., Em |
| Polygonum persicaria L. | A | North-temper- | France, Italy | L, F | An., Em. |
| Dolotronium lan-thifoli I | | ate | | р н | |
| r onygonam upamnyonum 11. | v | NOTUR-temper- | Italy, I alwan | ŗ, | An., Em. |
| Rumex crispus L. | A | Cosmopolitan | Italy, Taiwan | г. ғ | Pe., Em. |
| Ceratophyllaceae Ceratophyllum demersum L. | z | Cosmopolitan | Italy, Thailand, China | D, F | Pe., Sub. |
| Elatinaceae | : | • | | ł | |
| Elatine caujomica Uray Elatine amhiana Wicht | Ζ < | N. America | Not reported elsewhere | ×, (J | An., Sub. |
| | ¢ | ale all all all all all all all all all | Russia, S.E. Asia | 4 | AU., 540. |
| Elatine rubella Rydb. | Z | N. America | Not reported elsewhere | н | An., Em. |
| Lythraceae Ammannia auriculata Willd | Z | Cosmonolitan | Revnt. Nigeria | Ĩ | An Fim |
| Ammannia coccinea Rottb. | z | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A., Spain, | , Ŀ. | An., Em. |
| | : | i | Portugal, Romania | I | 1 |
| Lythrum hyssopifolia L. Potala indias (uring) V coh-c | z | Cosmopolitan | Italy, Egypt | Ŀ. (| An., Em. |
| | 4 | Cosmoportan | itary, romania, india, S.E. Asia, Taiwan, Japan, China | 54 | Ап., БШ. |
| Rotala ramosior (L.) Koehne | Z | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A., Italy, | ĮT. | An., Em. |
| | | | Philippines (Cook, 1979) | | |
| Onagraceae | : | : | | 1 | 1 |
| Luawigia pepioides (HBK) Raven | z | New World | Southern U.S.A. | Ľ. | Pe., Fl. |
| ruangia repear sorsier | z | N. America | Not reported elsewhere | ч | Pe., Fl. |
| Scrophulariaceae | | | | | |
| Bacopa eisenii (Kell.) Penn. | Z | N. America | Not reported elsewhere | ħ | An., Fl. |
| Bacopa rotundifolia (Michx.) Wettst. | ¥ | N. America | Southern U.S.A. | н | An., Fl. |
| Bacopa repens (Swartz) Wettst. | A | Central | Louisiana | FI FI | An., Fl. |
| : : : : : : : : | | America | | I | |
| Dopatrium junceum (Roxb.) Ham, | V | Cosmopolitan | Southern U.S.A., Swaziland, India, SE. Asia, Taiwan, | ۲ı | An., Em. |
| Lindernia anagallidea (Michx.) Penn. | z | N. America | Japan, Australia Southern U.S.A. | Ŀ | An. Em. |
| | | | | , | |

| Limnophila indica (L.) Druce X sessifiora Bl. | ¥ | Pale otropics | Nigeria | ۲. | Pe., Sub. |
|---|----|---------------------------------|---|------------------|----------------------|
| Lentibulariaceae Utricularia gibba L. | Z | North and Central America | Not reported elsewhere | ۲. | Pe., Sub. |
| Compositae Aster exilis Ell. Eclipta alba (L.) Hassk. | ZZ | New World Cosmopolitan | Not reported elsewhere Southern U.S.A., India, S.E. Asia, Japan | т ц ц ц | An., Em. An., Em. |
| | | | | | |

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^a(A) alien, (N) native species. ^bInformation based on rice weed literature (see Introduction) and authors' observations. ^c(D) = ditch, (F) = field and (L) = levee. ^dMost frequently exhibited life form: (An) annual; (Pe) perennial; (Em) emergent aquatic; (Ff) free-floating aquatic; (F]) floating-leaved aquatic; (Sub) submersed aquatic.

| Taxon | Origin | Earliest collections and references | Current distribution in California rice area |
|--|--------------|--|---|
| Paleotropical element | | | |
| Cyperus difformis | Asia | 1915, Biggs, Butte Co. <i>Johnston W132J</i> UC. (Howell, 1934) | Widespread |
| Dopatrium junceum | Asia | 1944, Biggs, Butte Co. <i>Davis s.n.</i> CDA. (Morton and Howell, 1945) | Widespread |
| Echinochloa colona | Asia | 184 9 1860 (Brewer et al. 1876; Watson, 1880) | Occasional in southern area |
| Echinochloa crus-galli var. oryzicola | Asia | 1915, Biggs, Butte Co. <i>Johnston W151J</i> DAV (Crampton, 1964) | Widespread |
| Elatine ambigua | Asia | 1949, Willows, Glenn Co. Nobs & Smith 1885 UC. | Widespread |
| Limnophila indica X sessiflora | Paleotropics | 1977, Marysville, Yuba Co. A <i>hart s.n.</i> CDA. | Restricted to Marysville |
| Monochoria vaginalis | Asia | 1954, Biggs, Butte Co. Tucker, McCaskill & Harvey 2753 UC. | Restricted to Biggs |
| Najas graminea | Paleotropics | 1946, Grey Lodge Game Refuge, Butte Co. Mason & Grant 13047 UC. | Northern Sacramento Valley |
| Oryza rufipogon Ottelia alismoides | Asia Asia | (Chamblias, 1920; Jones, 1923) 1977, Biggs, Butte Co. Turner 541 UC. | Rare seed contaminant Once restricted to Biggs (population destroyed) |
| Rotala indica | Asia | 1946, Biggs, Butte Co. Mason & Grant 13137 IIC | Restricted to Biggs and Marveville |

Origin, history of introduction and current distribution of alien species in the Californian rice weed flora

TABLE II

| Alisma lanceolatum Eurasia Echinochloa crus-galli Eurasia var. crus-galli Eurasia Polygonum lapathifolium Europe Polypogon monspeliensis Europe Rumex crispus Europe Scirpus mucronatus Eurasia Gentral Mmerica Bacopa repens Central U.S.A. |
|--|
| Venual U.A |

Some, e.g. Cyperus difformis L., Dopatrium junceum (Roxb.) Ham., Echinochloa colonum (L.) Link; Echinochloa crus-galli (L.) Beauv. var. oryzicola (Vasing) Ohwi, Oryza rufipogon Griff., Ottelia alismoides (L.) Pers., and Rotala indica (Willd.) Koehne are among the most cosmopolitan weeds of rice (Sculthorpe, 1967; Pancho et al., 1969; Noda, 1970; Cook, 1973, 1979; Cook et al., 1974; Holm et al., 1977; Reed, 1977).

Species of the Paleotropical element are particularly common as rice weeds in SE. Asia and the Orient, and it is possible that their original introduction to Californian rice fields was as seed contaminants in shipments of rice seed from those regions. Support for this suggestion comes from several lines of evidence: (1) none of the species (except *Echinochloa colonum*, see Table II) is recorded in California prior to the start of rice cultivation and, with the exception of *Oryza rufipogon* and *E. colonum*, they are either absent or rare elsewhere in the U.S.A.; (2) all species were first collected from the rice agroecosystem; and (3), six of the 11 species were first recorded in the vicinity of Biggs Rice Experiment Station, one of the major entry points for imported rice seed stocks (Jones, 1923). *Oryza rufipogon* was introduced to California as a rice seed contaminant, from the southern U.S.A. at the beginning of rice culture (Chambliss, 1920).

With the exception of Scirpus mucronatus L. and Alisma lanceolatum With., the species that make up the European element are common weeds of wet, disturbed ground in California and were established in the state prior to the beginning of rice culture (Robbins, 1940). They frequently occur as weeds of irrigated crops other than rice (Robbins et al., 1951), and their introduction to California is associated with European colonization and agricultural settlement (Robbins, 1940; Frenkel, 1970). Scirpus mucronatus was first observed in California in 1942 (Bellue, 1947) and is currently restricted in the U.S.A. to rice fields of California. The species is a cosmopolitan rice weed (Mason, 1957; Reed, 1977). Earliest collections of A. lanceolatum in California, made in 1946, were incorrectly identified as A. plantago-aquatica L. (Rubtzoff, 1964). At present, A. lanceolatum is reported from Sonoma, Marin, Colusa and Placer Counties (Munz, 1968) and occurs rarely in rice fields. In Europe, the species is reported as a weed of rice in France (Cornet, 1971); Italy (Cook, 1973) and Romania (Chirila and Melanchrinos, 1976).

The alien American element in Californian rice fields is composed of three species, *Bacopa repens* (Swartz) Wettst., *B. rotundifolia* (Michx.) Wettst. and *Heteranthera limosa* (Sw.) Willd. Each species was first reported in California from rice fields (Table II), and virtually all herbarium collections from California (seen by the authors) are from rice field localities. These facts suggest that their introduction to the state was also as seed contaminants of rice stocks. The most likely source of origin of such stocks is the southern U.S.A., where all three species occur as weeds of rice (Smith et al., 1977; Barrett and Strother, 1978). The two species of *Bacopa* have been misunderstood taxonomically as *B. nobsiana* Mason, and considered endemic to the Central Valley (Mason, 1952; Raven and Axelrod, 1978). A recent taxonomic treatment (Barrett and Strother, 1978) clarifies the relationships among Californian Bacopas and discusses the history of their introduction to the state.

The small number of species in the American element probably reflects the absence of a well-developed flooded rice weed flora in the New World comparable to that found in the Old World. This is mainly due to the short period in which rice, an Old World domesticate (Purseglove, 1972), has been grown in the New World. In addition, much of the rice grown in the Americas (outside of the U.S.A.) is of upland varieties grown under terrestrial or upland conditions and there have been few Central or South American rice varieties introduced to North America.

DISTRIBUTION OF RICE WEEDS

There have been no published surveys of the distribution and abundance of rice weeds in California. Lists of major rice weeds were compiled by Kennedy (1923), Bellue (1932), and Robbins et al., (1951). These lists are useful for evaluating changes in the composition of the weed flora, although the identity of some of the weeds listed is difficult to determine because no taxonomic sources are mentioned.

In order to obtain quantitative estimates of the abundance and distribution of rice weeds in California, a survey was undertaken during the summer of 1976, an attempt being made to sample throughout the rice-growing areas of California. The location of sample sites is shown in Fig. 1, and detailed locality data are on file at Biggs Rice Experiment Station. Vegetation on levees, and that associated with ditches and canals was not included in the survey. Seventy sites (rice fields) were chosen for sampling, and at each site the identity of all emergent weed species occurring in twenty five 0.25m² quadrats was recorded. Owing to the difficulty of observation and field identification, submersed aquatics were not included in the survey. Sites were chosen depending on access and the timing of herbicide spray. Quadrats were positioned at random within fields. All sampling was undertaken during early June and fields were sampled prior to MCPA herbicide sprays.

A total of 31 species was recorded from the 1750 quadrats sampled. The average number of taxa recorded per site was 9.3 (range 4–17). Table III lists the species recorded in the survey with their respective absolute presence, constancy and frequency values. Species are listed in order of abundance. The most widespread and abundant rice weeds of the state are Sagittaria montevidensis Cham. and Schlecht. ssp. calycina (Engelm.) Bogin, Ammannia coccinea Rottb. and Bacopa rotundifolia. These species occurred in 85% or more of the sites surveyed. None of the remaining species was as widely distributed, although many were locally abundant, e.g. Bacopa eisenii (Kell.) Penn., Cyperus difformis, Eleocharis palustris (L.) R. & S., Heteranthera limosa, Sagittaria longiloba Engelm. and Scirpus mucronatus. It should

TABLE III

Presence and frequency of weed species in a survey of Californian rice fields (n = 70 sites)

| Species in order of presence | Absolute presence ^a | Constancy ^b | Av. frequency ^C | Av, frequency (where present) ^d |
|---|-----------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|---|
| Sagittaria montevidensis ssp. calycina | 65 | 0.929 | 0.521 | 0.561 |
| Ammannia coccinea | 62 | 0.886 | 0.349 | 0.394 |
| Bacopa rotundifolia | 60 | 0.857 | 0.558 | 0.651 |
| Echinochloa crus-galli var. oryzicola | 34 | 0.486 | 0.090 | 0.186 |
| Typha latifolia | 33 | 0.471 | 0.043 | 0.092 |
| Heteranthera limosa | 32 | 0.457 | 0.243 | 0.531 |
| Scirpus mucronatus | 32 | 0.457 | 0.177 | 0.386 |
| Eleocharis palustris | 31 | 0.443 | 0.133 | 0.299 |
| Rotala ramosior | 31 | 0.443 | 0.116 | 0.262 |
| Alisma triviale | 30 | 0.429 | 0.085 | 0.199 |
| Cyperus difformis | 30 | 0.429 | 0.113 | 0.263 |
| Echinochloa crus-galli var, crus-galli | 28 | 0.400 | 0.074 | 0.186 |
| Leptochloa fascicularis | 28 | 0.400 | 0.062 | 0.156 |
| Polygonum coccineum | 26 | 0.371 | 0.020 | 0.054 |
| Lythrum hyssopifolia | 20 | 0.286 | 0.033 | 0.114 |
| Dopatrium junceum | 19 | 0.271 | 0.071 | 0.263 |
| Sagittaria longiloba | 14 | 0.200 | 0.030 | 0.151 |
| Bacopa eisenii | 13 | 0.186 | 0.095 | 0.514 |
| Scirpus fluviatilis | 13 | 0.186 | 0.033 | 0.178 |
| Echinodorus berteroi | 11 | 0.157 | 0.047 | 0.298 |
| Marsilea mucronata | 8 | 0.114 | 0.026 | 0.230 |
| Lindernia anagallidea | 7 | 0.100 | 0.013 | 0.126 |
| Cyperus odoratus | 5 | 0.071 | 0.006 | 0.080 |
| Lemna minor | 3 | 0.043 | 0.016 | 0.373 |
| Rumex crispus | 3 | 0.043 | 0.002 | 0.040 |
| Jussiaea californica | 2 | 0.029 | 0.003 | 0.100 |
| Scirpus acutus | 2 | 0.029 | 0.001 | 0.040 |
| Aster exilis | 1 | 0.014 | 0.003 | 0.240 |
| Eclipta alba | 1 | 0.014 | <0.001 | 0.040 |
| Paspalum distichum | 1 | 0.014 | <0.001 | 0.040 |
| Polypogon monspeliensis | 1 | 0.014 | <0.001 | 0.040 |
| Potamogeton nodosus | 1 | 0.014 | 0.007 | 0.520 |

^aNo. of sites where taxon occurred.

^bProportion of sites where taxon occurred.

^CProportion of quadrats in which taxon occurred averaged for all sites.

^dProportion of quadrats in which taxon occurred averaged for sites where taxon occurred.

be noted that the survey was undertaken after the application of herbicides utilised for control of grasses, primarily varieties of *Echinochloa crus-galli*. As a result, values obtained for these taxa as well as other grass species should be considered underestimates of their actual abundance in rice fields prior to herbicide applications.

Certain geographical patterns were evident from the survey data. Rice weeds with predominantly northern distributions include Alisma triviale Pursh, Heteranthera limosa and Scirpus mucronatus. Bacopa rotundifolia is rare in the southern rice areas of the San Joaquin Valley and is replaced by Bacopa eisenii, which is rare in the southern Sacramento Valley and absent from the northern part of the valley. Aster exilis Ell., Cyperus difformis, Echinodorus berteroi (Spreng.) Fassett, Leptochloa fascicularis and Scirpus fluviatilis (Torr.) Gray are more abundant in the San Joaquin Valley than in the Sacramento Valley. Bacopa rotundifolia and Sagittaria montevidensis ssp. calycina are not mentioned in the early observations on Californian rice weeds by Kennedy (1923) and Bellue (1932). This suggests that their present abundance may have been achieved over a relatively short time period. Several other species appear to be undergoing range extension. Heteranthera limosa was first reported from Glenn County in 1948 (Tucker and McCaskill, 1967); in the present survey, it was recorded from 32 sites in Butte, Glenn, Placer, Sutter and Yuba Counties. Records of early herbarium collections of Bacopa eisenii, Dopatrium junceum, Echinochloa crus-galli var. oryzicola and Scirpus mucronatus indicate that these species have also spread extensively during the past few decades.

Several introduced species have shown little tendency to spread outside of their original sites of entry. The earliest collections of Rotala indica, Bacopa repens and Monochoria vaginalis (Burm. f.) Presl. were made at Biggs in 1946, 1949 and 1954, respectively. Despite an extensive search, the authors have not located any populations of B. repens or M. vaginalis outside of the general vicinity of Biggs and only a single population of R. indica (Williams, s.n., DAV, Marysville, Yuba Co., October 8, 1974). At present, M. vaginalis and R. indica are among the most abundant and conspicuous rice weeds at Biggs Experiment Station. Bacopa repens is more difficult to locate, occurring in small numbers from year to year. The causes behind the restricted nature of the Californian distributions of these species is a problem worthy of future study. In California, all three are autogamous annuals that reproduce exclusively by seed (see below). It seems unlikely that restricted seed dispersal is preventing range extension of the three species since they each produce large quantities of small seed. In the case of B. repens and R. indica, congeneric species (B. rotundifolia, R. ramosior (L.) Koehne) with apparently similar reproductive biologies are widespread weeds of rice.

The present distribution and weed status of taxa within the Echinochloa crus-galli complex (barnyard grass or water grass) are worth considering here in detail because of confusion in the literature and among agronomists concerning the identity and ecological characteristics of constituent taxa (Kennedy, 1923; Jones, 1933; Robbins et al., 1951). Barnyard grasses are the most serious threat to rice production in California, and are among the most widespread weeds of rice (Yabuno, 1966; Michael, 1973, 1978; Holm et al., 1977). The polymorphic nature of the complex has resulted in the naming of countless intraspecific taxa (see Wiegand, 1921; Hitchcock and Chase, 1950; Smith et al., 1977). In this discussion, Gould's treatment of Echinochloa for the U.S.A. (Gould et al., 1972) is followed throughout. Three major forms of barnyard grass occur in Californian rice fields (Kennedy, 1923); all three are introduced from the Old World. The most widespread form is Echinochloa crus-galli var. crus-galli which is morphologically variable with awned and awnless individuals occurring within populations. Its variable nature is no doubt the result of many separate introductions to North America coupled with an autogamous breeding system. It was recorded in California prior to the beginning of rice culture (Jones, 1923; Frenkel, 1970) and is abundant on levees and in shallow areas within fields. Deep water management controls this form in the majority of fields (Jones, 1933). In the present survey it was recorded from 40.0% of the fields studied although it was observed at all sites growing on levees.

Two morphologically and phenologically distinct forms of *Echinochloa* crus-galli var. oryzicola occur in Californian rice fields (Fig. 4). Both forms were probably introduced as rice seed contaminants at the beginning of rice



Fig. 4. Panicles of the major forms of Echinochloa crus-galli occurring in Californian rice fields. From left to right: E. crus-galli var. crus-galli, non-awned form; E. crus-galli var. crus-galli, awned form; E. crus-galli var. oryzicola, early flowering form; E. crus-galli var. oryzicola, late flowering form.

culture in California. Label data on early collections from Biggs and a temporary rice experiment station at Cortena, Colusa Co. distinguish these forms as "a new form of water grass" (*Kennedy s.n.*, DAV, Cortena, Colusa Co., Sept. 18, 1925) and "late form green throughout" (*Kennedy s.n.*, AHUC, Biggs, Butte Co., Sept. 9, 1921). Kennedy and other rice agronomists in California have referred to both forms as "Japanese, Oriental or White Water Grass" (Jones, 1923; Davis, 1950). The behaviour of the two forms since their original introduction to California has been strikingly different. The early flowering form (anthesis begins in June) with lax drooping panicles, awned spikelets and pale green foliage is widespread throughout the area of rice production and constitutes a major weed problem. It was recorded from 48.6% of the sites surveyed. This form corresponds to E. oryzoides (Ard.) Fritsch of European authors and is an important weed of rice in Eurasia and Australia (Vickery, 1975; Chirila and Melachrinos, 1976; Michael, 1978; Clayton, 1980). The second form of E. crus-galli var. oryzicola was not encountered in the weed survey, but occurs abundantly in the vicinity of Biggs Experiment Station and in scattered localities in Butte, Colusa, Glenn, Kern, Merced, Sacramento, Sutter and Yuba counties. This form has dark green, upright foliage, erect panicles and awnless spikelets. It begins flowering at the same time as rice (mid-August), resembles the rice plant in its vegetative condition, and is an example of a crop-mimic (Yabuno, 1966). Ohwi (1962), Bor (1968) and Gould et al. (1972) consider this taxon to be a variety of E. crus-galli whereas Crampton (1964) and Yabuno (1966) elevate the taxon to specific rank as E. oryzicola (Vasing.) Vasing. (Yabuno, 1966). The form corresponds to E. phyllopogon (Stapf.) Koss of some European authors (e.g. Chirila and Melachrinos, 1976) and occurs as a rice weed in China, Europe, India, Japan and Russia.

Both forms of *Echinochloa crus-galli* var. *oryzicola* can be distinguished from *E. crus-galli* var. *crus-galli* by an absence of any well-developed anthocyanin pigmentation, by their larger spikelets, and by seed size. Previous workers in California have not recognized the distinctive nature of the early flowering form of var. *oryzicola* and have considered it as part of the variation encompassed within *E. crus-galli* var. *crus-galli*. Hence, reference to the distribution and weed status of *E. crus-galli* var. *oryzicola* in Crampton (1964) and Gould et al. (1972) refer to the late flowering, crop-mimic form only. It is of interest to note that although *Echinochloa crus-galli* var. *crusgalli* causes a serious weed problem in the remaining rice growing states of the U.S.A. (Smith, 1960; Smith et al., 1977), *E. crus-galli* var. *oryzicola* is absent from these areas.

BIOLOGY

Life forms

There are 36 Monocotyledons, 24 Dicotyledons and 2 Pteridophytes represented in the Californian rice weed flora. The major families are the Gramineae (9 spp.), Cyperaceae (8 spp.), Scrophulariaceae (6 spp.) and Lythraceae (5 spp.). Compositae, Leguminosae and Cruciferae are absent or poorly represented in comparison to the Californian flora as a whole. These families include few herbaceous aquatic species. The weed flora can be considered aquatic and individual species can be classified by aquatic life forms following Sculthorpe (1967). The four life forms recognized are all represented in the flora: emergent aquatics (38 spp.), submersed aquatics

(13 spp.), floating-leaved aquatics (9 spp.) and free-floating aquatics (2 spp.). Cultivated rice exhibits the emergent life form and it is not surprising that the majority of species in rice fields (61%) are emergent aquatics since rice cultural practices favour this form. The smaller representation of the other life forms is probably due to their inability to tolerate dense shade at the water surface once the rice canopy has become established. Many of the species in these remaining groups begin flowering prior to canopy closure, or persist in open water areas at the periphery of fields and where rice stands are thinned by unfavourable growing conditions.

Submersed aquatics are well represented in the Californian rice weed flora in comparison to the southern rice growing states of the U.S.A., where they are generally absent. Their presence in Californian rice fields is probably aided by the continuous flood culture practised in the state combined with favourable water conditions. The water, obtained from the nearby Sierra Nevada mountains is cooler, less turbid and more oxygenated than water utilised in southern states where discontinuous flooding of rice fields is practised.

Those species which persist from year to year in the rice fields complete their reproductive activities before drainage and harvest or alternatively produce perennating organs which can survive burning, ploughing, drying and occasional winter-freezing. The weed flora is composed of 38 annuals and 24 perennials. Some species, e.g. Alisma triviale, Eleocharis palustris and Scirpus mucronatus exhibit both annual and perennial life histories but grow mainly as annuals. The balance between the two is determined by the specific farming practices employed. The type and depth of ploughing is of particular importance in determining the persistence of perennials. For example, deep ploughing and drying of soil after the autumn harvest tends to destroy perennating organs, whereas shallow ploughing in the spring multiplies and spreads vegetative propagules. Among the annual species, both obligate and facultative annuals occur. Taxa such as Bacopa rotundifolia. Heteranthera limosa, Dopatrium junceum, Echinochloa crus-galli, Ammannia and Rotala spp., die back after flowering regardless of environmental conditions. Facultative annuals such as Bacopa eisenii and Monochoria vaginalis are destroyed as a result of field drainage. Glasshouse-grown plants of these latter species have remained in active growth for over one year (Barrett and Strother, 1978; S.C.H. Barrett, unpublished data).

Closely related species in the weed flora usually exhibit similar life histories and reproductive methods. For example related taxa within the genera *Bacopa, Echinochloa* and *Rotala* are autogamous annuals reproducing exclusively by seed. However exceptions occur as in the genus *Sagittaria, S. longiloba* is a monoecious perennial that reproduces predominantly by vegetative means and *S. montevidensis* ssp. *calycina* is an andromonoecious annual capable of autogamy and reproducing exclusively by seed. Populations of both *Sagittaria* species are mostly destroyed by MCPA herbicide sprays applied 35-50 days after the rice is sown. In *S. montevidensis* ssp. calycina flowering commences as soon as 25 days after flooding and enough seed matures to enable populations to persist from year to year. Populations of S. longiloba often take somewhat longer to flower and herbicides destroy many plants before their seeds are mature. Most regeneration is by underground stolons and tubers. The yearly applications of herbicides in Californian rice fields must exert strong selection pressures on sensitive species with regard to development rate and time to flowering.

Breeding systems and dispersal

Previous workers have described the adaptive value of autogamy in annual weeds (Baker, 1955; Stebbins, 1957; Mulligan and Findlay, 1970). The breeding systems of 14 annual species were tested in order to determine their facility for autogamous seed production. The following species were tested: Sagittaria montevidensis ssp. calycina, Echinochloa crus-galli var. crus-galli and oryzicola, E. muricata (Beauv.) Fern., Cyperus difformis, Heteranthera limosa, Monochoria vaginalis, Ammannia coccinea, Lythrum hyssopifolia L., R. ramosior, R. indica, Bacopa eisenii, B. rotundifolia, B. repens and Dopatrium junceum. Isolated plants of each species were grown in a pollinator-free glasshouse and observations of seed set were made. In each species, undisturbed flowers produced seed, suggesting that they are either self-compatible and autogamous or capable of apomixis. Several species (Bacopa rotundifolia, B. repens, Dopatrium junceum, Heteranthera limosa, Monochoria vaginalis) produce both chasmogamous and cleistogamous flowers. The latter type of flower is produced either on submersed shoots or on plants growing in the deep shade of the river canopy. Cleistogamous flowers are also reported in Rotala spp. (see Cook, 1979).

The majority of Californian rice weeds have small to minute, non-fleshy seeds with no obvious appendages. These seed types fall into the sporochore and sclerochore groups in Dansereau and Lems' (1957) classification of diaspore (dispersal unit) types. The major methods by which rice weed seeds are dispersed are by water, by birds, in soil adhering to farm machinery, and as contaminants of cultivated rice seed stocks. Many species produce diaspores which float, and well-developed buoyancy mechanisms occur in *Ammannia coccinea*, *Ottelia alismoides* and *Sagittaria* spp. (see Ridley, 1930). Dispersal in irrigation water is probably the most important method of local dispersal within the rice field agroecosystem.

Californian rice fields are a favourite habitat for birds, including migrating wildfowl and large flocks of granivorous species such as blackbirds. Ducks feed on *Sagittaria* and *Bacopa* spp. (Mason, 1957; S.C.H. Barrett, personal observation) and up to 10% of the diet of species of blackbird (*Agelaius* spp.) can be seeds of *Echinochloa* spp. (Smith and Shaw, 1966). Birds are important in both local and long-distance dispersal of aquatic plants (Ridley, 1930; Cruden, 1966), and they have undoubtedly played a major role in the dissemination and spread of rice weeds. The soils of Californian ricelands

are mostly sticky clays. Mud not only adheres to the feet of wildfowl but also builds up on farm machinery. As vehicles move from one field to another, weed seeds are disseminated in the mud. The high diversity of weed species which can be observed at the corners of rice fields where vehicles routinely enter is evidence of the importance of farm machinery in local weed dispersal.

Perhaps the most effective method by which rice weeds have been introduced to California and have subsequently spread is in contaminated rice seed stocks. As mentioned earlier the most likely way in which many alien species were introduced to the state is with imported rice seed during the early days of rice culture in California. The lax seed purity standards, before present quarantine and seed certification procedures were in effect, and the small seed size of the species involved probably aided this process. Once weeds are established in California this method of dissemination is also important in dispersal from one rice growing area to another. Whether growers sow their own seed, harvested the previous year, or purchase certified seed some weed seeds are usually included. Between 1922 and 1932, 81% of the rice seed lots tested by Bellue (1932) contained seeds of Echinochloa crusgalli and 28% was contaminated with Red Rice (Oryza rufipogon). Today, although Red Rice is still a serious weed in southern states, it has almost been eradicated from Californian rice fields as a result of a vigilant seed certification programme. The smaller seeded E. crus-galli still contaminates cultivated rice seed lots.

Evidence for the importance of contaminated rice stocks as a means of rice weed dissemination comes from the weed survey described earlier. Two fields surveyed in the Corning area (Tehama Co.) contained first and second year crops and represent a new and somewhat isolated area of rice cultivation in California. Although overall species diversity was low (6 and 7 spp.) it is noteworthy that the aliens *Bacopa rotundifolia* and *Echinochloa crusgalli* var. *oryzicola* (early form) were present in small numbers scattered throughout these fields. Since both species are restricted to rice fields and neither had been collected in the general area prior to 1976 it would seem most likely that their introduction to the area was in rice stocks utilised in starting the crop in 1975–1976.

CONCLUSION

This review should be regarded as a preliminary attempt to synthesize information of a general nature on weed communities of the Californian rice agroecosystem. The information comes from scattered sources including floras, herbarium records, agronomy journals and reports, and the authors' own observations.

It is remarkable that despite the conspicuous appearance of rice farming, the highly specialised nature of the weed flora, and the interest shown by Californian botanists in colonizing species (e.g. see Baker and Stebbins, 1965) there has been no detailed botanical work on rice weeds. We hope this study will stimulate interest in further investigation of this distinctive group of aquatic plants.

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