# BIOSTATISTICAL ESTIMATION OF WEEDS SURVEYED IN BAGALKOT KARNATAKA 

## T. C. GOPAL

Department of Botany
J.S.S. Arts, Science and Commerce College, Gokak- 591307, Belagavi, Karnataka
e-mail: gopaltcgokak@gmail.com
ORCID ID:htpp://orcid.org/0009-0008-6652-9325

## KEYWORDS

Weeds
flora
Bagalkot
Received on :
21.03.2023

Accepted on :
19.05.2023
*Corresponding
author


#### Abstract

The current study encountered with 120 species under the 101 genera belonging to 36 families. Among 36 families, Asteraceae, Poaceae and Fabaceae were dominated with highest number of species. Among 36 families, Asteraceae, Poaceae and Fabaceae were dominated with 20, 17 and 13 respectively. A few species, including Amaranthus polygonoides, Tridax procumbens, and Parthenium hysterophorus, were determined to be the most regenerative and dominant species in the research region out of all the species. Based on our findings, we have concluded that the study area offers an environment that is conducive to the growth and development of the weed species. Additionally, it is advised that researchers figure out how to get rid of or manage these weeds in the agricultural ecosystem.


## INTRODUCTION

Weeds are unwanted undesirable plants. They flourish in agricultural areas and obstruct access to water and major crops. In addition to harming plant productivity, weeds often pose health risks to both people and animals. Additionally, they have a significant impact on biodiversity (Bhan \& Sushilkumar, 1998, Ramalakshmana et al., 2023). Weeds in cropland compete with the primary crop for nutrients, water, and light; this results in a decrease in the intended crop's yield and quality (Das and Verma, 1997, Kalita and Vishram, 2017). There is no credible research on the extent of the damage caused by weeds globally, although it is widely accepted that weed losses are the highest of any category of agricultural pest losses, including those caused by insects, nematodes, diseases, rodents, etc. (Rawat, 1987, Zhang and Wu, 2021). Out of total annual loss of agriculture products from various pests in India was account for $45 \%$, Insects $30 \%$, Diseases $20 \%$, and other $5 \%$.Depending on the crop, level of weed infestation, weed species, and management techniques, potential yield losses from weeds can reach as high as roughly 65 percent (Yaduraju et al., 2006, Gharde et al., 2018).
The annual cost of managing weeds in India is estimated to be over 20 million tonnes and 100 billion rupees. Weeds are responsible for the loss of food crops because they have higher nutrient levels than crop plants, develop more quickly, and absorb nutrients more effectively, which reduces the amount of nutrients available to crop plants (Prayaga Murty and Venkaiah, 2011, Chauhan et al., 2017).
Even though these weeds do a great deal of harm in a variety
of ways, there are a number of benefits that have been attributed to them. Weeds have a variety of advantageous qualities, including the ability to be used as food and fodder, medicines, aromatics, phyto-remediation, industrial resources, soil and water conservation resources, and more (DWSR, 2011, Singh et al., 2023). Most weeds are the result of the survival of the fittest. Annuals, biennials, and perennials are the three main categories used to categorise weeds according to their life cycles. Both grasses and broad leaf weeds can be found in each group (Rao, 2000, Shinde and Borkar, 2018). It is common knowledge that domestic animals, birds, and wild animals all contribute to the spread of weeds, primarily through their seed grains. Some harmful weeds reproduce by themselves and spread via vegetative means such as stolons, rhizomes, tubers, roots, and bulbs (Rawat, 1987, Seema and Thoi Devi, 2014).
Given this context, an effort has been undertaken in the current research to produce the weeds assessment data for the Bagalkot Tahsil of Karnataka. The following objectives of the study were set forth: survey, collection, documenting of the weed flora, and quantitative analysis of the species.

## Study area

The study area is located in the northern part of Karnataka state, and falls within the northern maiden region. It is situated in the interior of the Deccan plateau of India. The Bagalkot district positioned at WikiMiniAtlas $16^{\circ} 122$ N $75^{\circ} 452$ E ÿb / ÿb16.200ㅇN $75.750^{\circ}$ Eÿb / 16.200; 75.750 and covers an area of $6593 \mathrm{~km}^{2}$ according to the central statistical organization of the Government of India. The district is
bounded in the north by Vijayapur district, on the west by part of Belagavi district, and east by part of Vijayapur and Raichur districts, south by Koppal and Gadag districts.
The district drained by three major rivers namely the Krishna, Ghataprabha and Malaprabha, and over lied by deep black soil in major portion of the district, and other part of the district soil is medium black and mixed red soil, alluvial are also mixed with these soils.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

## Selection of sampling points

The study area consisting Bagalkot district comprises nine tehsils Badami, Bagalkote, Bilagi, Hunagund, Ilkal, Jamakhandi, Guledgudda, Mudhol and RabkaviBanhatti. According to Panse and Sukhatme, (1985) around 90 sampling points were selected using random numbers for evaluating the diversity and distribution of the weed components of the cultivated ecosystem. These points were surveyed for three season's viz. monsoon, winter and summer.

## Collection of specimen and herbarium preparation

An extensive and intensive survey throughout the study area was undertaken periodically during 2021 to 2022. Regular field visits were made to collect the plants (in duplicate) in different seasons. The field data such as habit, habitat, flower colour, odour and distribution was recorded. The collected specimens were then pressed in blotting or newspapers. All the collected specimens were identified carefully and processed as per the conventional methods of drying, poisoning, mounting and labelling (Jain and Rao, 1977).

## Plant identification

The collected specimens were identified by referring to various available regional and state Floras (Saldanha, 1984; Singh, 1988; Saldanha, 1996, Kotresha and Kambhar, 2016). Precautions were taken to protect herbarium specimens from damage. Insect repellent such as Paradichlorobenzene (Lawrence, 1951) kept in small quantities in herbarium cabinet and sprayed a weak solution of Mercuric Chloride ( $0.1 \%$ $\mathrm{HgCl}_{2}$ ) on the specimens to control the fungal attack (Ravindranath \& Premnath, 1997). The processed herbarium specimens were deposited in the Herbarium at Department of Botany, The specimens were deposited in the Herbarium Department of Botany, J.S.S. Arts, Science and Commerce College, Gokak, Belagavi, Karnataka. The families are arranged primarily as per the classification given by Bentham and Hooker (1862-1883).

## Quantitative assessment

Phytosociological data were recorded by quadrate method by laying quadrats of $1 \times 1 \mathrm{~m}^{2}$ for herbs (including few climbers). The density, frequency and abundance or dominance relative frequency, relative density and Importance Value Index (IVI) were calculated for every species were calculated by using formulae given by Curtis and 1 McIntosh (1950), Curtis (1959) and Odum (1971).The quadrats were laid in the sampling sites to determine the frequency, density, dominance for all the species. Finally the importance values of each species were computed by adding percentage value of relative frequency, relative density and relative dominance.

Density $=\frac{\text { Total no.of individuals of a species in all quadart }}{\text { Total no.of quadrat studied }}$

$$
\text { Frequency }=\frac{\text { No.of quadrat in which species occurred }}{\text { Total no.of quadrat studied }} \times 100
$$

Abundance $=\frac{\text { Total no.of individuals of a species in all quards }}{\text { Total no.of quards in which the species occuredd }}$

## Curtis and McIntosh Quantitative Analysis

The important quantitative analysis such as density, frequency and abundance of herbs species were determined as per Curtis \& McIntosh (1950). Important Value Index (IVI). This index is used to determine the overall importance of each species in the community structure. In calculating this index, the percentage values of the relative frequency, relative density and relative dominance are summed up together and this value is designated as the Importance Value Index or IVI of the species (Curtis, 1959).

Relative density $=\frac{\text { No.of individuals of the species }}{\text { No.of individuals of the all the quadrats }} \mathrm{X} 100$
Relative frequency $=\frac{\text { No of occurrence of the species }}{\text { No.of individuals of the all the species }} \times 100$
Relative frequency $=\frac{\text { No of occurrence of the species }}{\text { No.of individuals of the all the species }} \times 100$

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Weeds are a major issue in agriculture because they compete with crop plants for resources like water, minerals, nutrients, space, and light, greatly reducing the productivity of agricultural lands (Monteiro and Santos, 2021). New crop varieties with high yields require a proportionally greater amount of water and fertilizer. The likelihood of luxuriant weed growth and the emergence of new weed communities rise under favourable conditions of high fertility and plentiful soil moisture (Mahgoub, 2021). In general, weeds are aggressive. They produce a lot of seeds that are healthy and ready for spreading. These features


Figure 1. First ten dominant species with their IVI value




$\stackrel{\circ}{\circ}$ ©

₹

앙


| Sr . <br> No | Species Name | Family |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | Abutilon indicum (L.) Sweet | Malvaceae |
| 2. | Abutilon ramosum (Cav.) Guill. \& Perr. | Malvaceae |
| 3. | Acalypha indica L. | Euphorbiaceae |
| 4. | Acanthospermum hispidum DC. | Asteraceae |
| 5. | Achyranthes aspera L. | Amaranthaceae |
| 6. | Aerva lanata (L.) Juss. ex Schulf. | Amaranthaceae |
| 7. | Ageratum conyzoides L. | Asteraceae |
| 8. | Alternanthera pungens Kunth. | Amaranthaceae |
| 9. | Alysicarpus bupleurifolius (L.) DC. | Fabaceae |
| 10. | Alysicarpus vaginalis (L.) DC. | Fabaceae |
| 11. | Amaranthus polygonoides L. | Amaranthaceae |
| 12. | Amaranthus viridis L. | Amaranthaceae |
| 13. | Apluda muctica L. | Asteraceae |
| 14. | Aristida setacea Retz. | Poaceae |
| 15. | Bidens biternata (Lour.) Meer. \& Sherff. | Asteraceae |
| 16. | Blainvillea acmella (L.) Philip. | Asteraceae |
| 17. | Blumea lacera (Burm.f.) DC. | Asteraceae |
| 18. | Boerhavia diffusa L. | Nyctaginaceae |
| 19. | Boerhavia verticillata Poir. | Nyctaginaceae |
| 20. | Brachiaria ramosa (L.) Stapf. | Poaceae |
| 21. | Cardiospermum helicacabum L. | Sapindaceae |
| 22. | Cassia absus L. | Caesalpiniaceae |
| 23. | Cassia senna L. | Cesalpiniaceae |
| 24. | Catharanthus roseus (L.) G.Don. | Apocynaceae |
| 25. | Celosia argentea L. | Amaranthaceae |
| 26. | Centella asiatica (L.) Urban | Apiaceae |
| 27. | Chenopodium album L. | Chenopodiaceae |
| 28. | Chloris virgata Sw. | Poaceae |
| 29. | Chlorophytum sp. | Liliaceae |
| 30. | Chrozophora rottleri A. Juss. | Euphorbiaceae |
| 31. | Chrysopogon fulvus (Spreng.) Chiov. | Poaceae |
| 32. | Cleome gynandra L. | Cleomaceae |
| 33. | Cleome viscosa L. | Cleomaceae |
| 34. | Clitoria ternatea L. | Fabaceae |
| 35. | Coccinia grandis (L.) Voigt | Cucurbitaceae |
| 36. | Comellina bengalensis L. | Commelinaceae |
| 37. | Commelina sp. | Commelinaceae |
| 38. | Convolvulus arvensis L. | Convolvulaceae |
| 39. | Conyza bonariensis (Kunth) Sch. | Asteraceae |
| 40. | Cryptostegia grandiflora R.Br. | Asclepidiaceae |
| 41. | Cucumis callosus (Rottler) Cogn. | Cucurbitaceae |
| 42. | Cucumis sativus L. | Cucurbitaceae |
| 43. | Cyanotis axillaris (L) D.Don ex Sweet | Commelinaceae |
| 44. | Desmodium triflorum (L.) DC | Fabaceae |
| 45. | Digera muricata (L.) Mart. | Amaranthaceae |
| 46. | Dipteracanthus prostratus (Poir.) Nees | Acanthaceae |
| 47. | Echinochloa colonum (L.) Link | Poaceae |
| 48. | Eclipta prostrata (L.) L. | Asteraceae |

```
Nొ\Omega
```



```
N~
```








Table 1:Continue.

| 98. Setaria verticillata (L.) P.Beauv. | Poaceae | 145 | 0.05 | 0.05 | 1 | 0.31 | 0.28 | 0.31 | 0.9 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 99. Sida rhombiflolia L. | Malvaceae | 150 | 0.06 | 0.03 | 2 | 0.37 | 0.56 | 0.37 | 1.3 |
| 100. Sida spinosa L. | Malvaceae | 65 | 0.17 | 0.04 | 4 | 1.05 | 1.12 | 1.05 | 3.22 |
| 101. Solanum nigrum L. | Solanaceae | 78 | 0.11 | 0.03 | 4 | 0.68 | 1.12 | 0.68 | 2.48 |
| 102 Sonchus oleraceus L. | Asteraceae | 6 | 0.22 | 0.07 | 3 | 1.36 | 0.84 | 1.36 | 3.55 |
| 103. Striga densifolia (Benth.) Benth. | Scorphulariaceae | 43 | 0.09 | 0.02 | 5 | 0.56 | 1.4 | 0.56 | 2.51 |
| 104. Synedrella nodiflora (L.) Gaertn. | Asteraceae | 74 | 0.13 | 0.04 | 3 | 0.8 | 0.84 | 0.8 | 2.44 |
| 105. Tephrosia pumila (Lam.) Pers. | Fabaceae | 64 | 0.11 | 0.04 | 3 | 0.68 | 0.84 | 0.68 | 2.2 |
| 106. Tephrosia strigosa (Dalzell) Santapau \& Mahashw. | Euphorbiaceae | 82 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.25 | 0.28 | 0.25 | 0.77 |
| 107. Tetrapogon tenellus ((Roxb.) Chiov. | Poaceae | 25 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 1 | 0.06 | 0.28 | 0.06 | 0.4 |
| 108. Tragia plukenetii L. | Poaceae | 69 | 0.01 | 0.01 | 1 | 0.06 | 0.28 | 0.06 | 0.4 |
| 109. Tribulus terresris L. | Zygophyllaceae | 7 | 0.11 | 0.04 | 3 | 0.68 | 0.84 | 0.68 | 2.2 |
| 110. Trichodesma indicum (L.) Lehmann. | Boraginaceae | 70 | 0.29 | 0.06 | 5 | 1.79 | 1.4 | 1.79 | 4.98 |
| 111 Trichurus monsonie (L.f.) Bennet. | Amaranthaceae | 31 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.25 | 0.28 | 0.25 | 0.77 |
| 112. Tridax procumbens L. | Asteraceae | 81 | 0.83 | 0.05 | 17 | 5.12 | 4.75 | 5.12 | 15 |
| 113 Triumfelta mulabarica Voem. ex Roth | Tiliaceae | 8 | 0.04 | 0.02 | 2 | 0.25 | 0.56 | 0.25 | 1.05 |
| 114. Turnera ulmifolia L. | Turneraceae | 51 | 0.03 | 0.03 | 1 | 0.19 | 0.28 | 0.19 | 0.65 |
| 115. Venonia cinerea (L.) Less. | Asteraceae | 41 | 0.49 | 0.06 | 8 | 3.02 | 2.23 | 3.02 | 8.28 |
| 116. Vigna radiata (L.) Wilezek | Fabaceae | 80 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.25 | 0.28 | 0.25 | 0.77 |
| 117. Waltheria indica L. | Sterculiceae | 10 | 0.04 | 0.04 | 1 | 0.25 | 0.28 | 0.25 | 0.77 |
| 118 Wattakaka volubilis (L.f.) Benth. ex Hook. | Asclepidiaceae | 44 | 0.02 | 0.02 | 1 | 0.12 | 0.28 | 0.12 | 0.53 |
| 119. Withania somni | Solanaceae fera (L.) Dunal. | 42 | 0.08 | 0.02 | 4 | 0.49 | 1.12 | 0.49 | 2.1 |
| 120. Xanthium indicum | Asteraceae Koening | 9 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.04 \\ & \mathbf{1 6 . 2} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{array}{r} 0.04 \\ 5.31 \\ \hline \end{array}$ | 1 <br> 358 | $\begin{aligned} & 0.25 \\ & \mathbf{1 0 0} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.28 \\ & \mathbf{1 0 0} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.25 \\ & \mathbf{1 0 0} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & 0.77 \\ & \mathbf{3 0 0} \\ & \hline \end{aligned}$ |

cause weeds to proliferate swiftly in agricultural areas, where they hinder crop growth by absorbing nutrients from the soil (Khamare et al., 2022). Many of the weeds that are present in cultivated crops are tropical species that were introduced along with the seeds and seedlings of cultivated plants. (Kambhar et al., 2017).
About 120 species of weeds were encountered in the study area under the 101 genera belonging to 36 families. Among 36 families, Asteraceae, Poaceae and Fabaceae were dominated with 20, 17 and 13 respectively. This was followed by Amaranthaceae, Euphorbiaceae contributed 9 sp. each, Malvaceae 6 sp., Acanthaceae, Convolvulaceae contributing 5 sp. each, Asclepidiaceae 4 sp ., and Commelinaceae 3 sp each.
These first ten families contribute 80 species with proportion of $69 \%$. The two families represent 3 sp . each, they are Portulaceae and Verbenaceae. Nine families are represented by just 2 species each, they are Chenopodiaceae, Commelinaceae, Convolvulaceae, Cucurbitaceae, Gentianaceae, Menispermaceae, Nyctaginaceae, Scorphulariaceae and, Tiliaceae and 12 families are only represented by a single species (Aizoaceae, Asclepidiaceae, Balsaminaceae, Boraginaceae, Cyperaceae, Lythraceae, Mimosaceae, Orobanchaceae, Oxalidaceae, Papaveraceae, Polygalaceae and Primulaceae).
Diversity is also known as variety or variability. The term "species diversity" refers to the diversity that exists among the many living organisms. Richness and plenty are frequently condensed into a single numerical figure. Therefore, these are known as heterogeneity indexes (Sun et al., 2023). Different combinations of species richness and abundance can produce a given diversity index value. It would be exceedingly challenging to distinguish between the relative importance of species richness and abundance. Therefore, these two indices are frequently employed to indicate the average level of uncertainty in determining to which specific species an individual selected at random from a sample would belong (Kotresha and Kambhar, 2016).

## Species Density, Frequency and Abundance

The study area constitutes variety of weed species, various biotic and edaphic factors have played dominant role in determining its growth and their development. The most dominant species in study area was Parthenium hysterophorus,Tridax procumbens, Amaranthus polygonoides, Phyllanthus amarus., Venonia cinerea, Abutilon indicum, and Amaranthus viridis. The least dominant weed species were Pentanema indica, Tetrapogon tenellus and Tragia plukenetii.

## Density and Abundance

The species of Partheniumhy sterophorus ( $\mathrm{Dn}=1.24, \mathrm{Ab}=$ 0.04 ) have highest density and abundance, followed by Tridax procumbens $(\mathrm{Dn}=0.83, \mathrm{Ab}=0.05)$ and Amaranthus polygonoides ( $\mathrm{Dn}=0.61, \mathrm{Ab}=0.08$ ). Other species showing least density and abundance Blainvillea acmella., Cucumis sativus., Pentanema indica., Tetrapogon tenellus and Tragia plukenetii $(\mathrm{Dn}=0.01, \mathrm{Ab}=0.01)$ tabulated in Table 1.

## Frequency

The species of Parthenium hysterophorus ( $\mathrm{Fr}=30$ ) have
highest density and abundance, followed by Tridax procumbens $(\mathrm{Fr}=17)$, and Amaranthus polygonoidesL. $(\mathrm{Fr}=8)$. Other species showing least frequency Tetrapogon tenellus ( $\mathrm{Fr}=1$ ) and Tragia plukenetii $(\mathrm{Fr}=1)$ tabulated in Table 1.
Higher characteristic variations in percentage of frequency, density and abundance. Higher frequency, density and abundance of their species in black cotton soil may be due to availability of more water and richer micro flora. Such soils are very rich in nutrients also similar kind observations have been made by Dubey (1968) Pätzold et al. (2020). Seasonal variations in percentage frequency, density and abundance for the weed crop association of jowar and wheat field have been studied by Pathak (1981), Verma (1981), Adesina et al., (2012). Such variations in \% frequency, density and abundance may be attributed to the mechanism of seed germination as also suggested by earlier workers Thurston (1960), Hall (1974), Shivnath and Gupta (1982), Sharma (1984), Punia et al. (2017).

Due to differences in climatic regimes and to the formation of many niches in a micro-climate. Dubey (1968) and Pathak (1981) described that there are some common weed in the cultivated field which having many adaptations such as hard seed coat, branched creeping habit, rooting at each node, enable the species to collect moisture and nutrients from a larger area of black cotton soil (Clements and Jones, 2021).

## Importance Value Index (IVI)

Importance value index (IVI) combines relative density, relative frequency and relative dominance can be used to indicate the ecological influence of each species in the ecosystem. Species with the greatest importance value are the most dominant of particular vegetation. The importance value indexes of herb species are shown in Table 1.
Analysis of IVI of a species can be used to recognize the pattern of association of dominant species in a community. Based on their higher IVI value, the ten dominant and ecologically most significant species are Parthenium hysterophorus, TridaxprocumbensL, Amaranthus polygonoidesL, Phyllanthus amarus Schumach. and Thon, Venonia cinerea (L.) Less., Abutilon indicum (L.) Sweet, Amaranthus viridis L. Ipomoea obscura (L.) Ker Gawl, and Euphorbia hirta L. These species might also be the most successful species in regeneration (Figure 1).

The similar kind of publication regarding weed species and its related natural and cultivated fields has been studied by various workers. The weed flora has been recorded in the field site of maize comprised of grasses and sedges and broad leaved weeds, among the broad leaved weed was Parthenium hysterophorus, Commelina benghalensis, Portulaca oleracea (Hajj et al., 2012). Similarly, Angadi et al. (2017) recorded 73 species of weeds belonging to 26 families in the Karnataka College Campus, Dharwad. On the other hand, Kambhar et al. (2017) evaluated the weed diversity in north east part of Belagavi and represented with 116 weed species under 90 genera belonging to 33 families. Among these 33 families, Asteraceae, Poaceae and Euphorbiaceae were dominant. The species like Parthenium hysterophorus, Cyperus rotundus and Euphorbia heterophylla were most successful regenerative species. With compare to earlier results, it is evaluated that,
the Asteraceae, Amaranthaceae and Euphorbiaceae were found dominant in the study area.

## CONCLUSION

Weeds are considered dynamic in nature because their number and dominance fluctuate in response to changes in the agro-ecosystem. Based on phytosociological values, it can be stated that the research area contains a dominating weed species such as Parthenium hysterophorus, Tridax procumbens, Amaranthus polygonoides, Phyllanthus amarus.,Venonia cinerea, Abutilon indicum, and Amaranthus viridis. As a result, it may be assumed that weed species are capable of establishing a major link with the prevailing micro and macro climatic conditions inside the habitat.

## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Author is grateful to The Principal, J.S.S. Arts, Science and Commerce College, Gokak for providing laboratory facility to conduct this work. Author is very much thankful to anonymous reviewer for thoroughly revising the manuscript.

## REFERENCES

Adesina, G.O., Akinyemiju, O.A. and Ola, O.T. 2012. Assessment of frequency, density and abundance of weed species in different Cropping Systems.J.Natural Sciences Research. 2(9): 107-119.
Agadi, S.N., Thangadurai, D., Talawar, P.L. and EmmiS.N. 2017.Documentation of Weed Flora in Karnataka College Campus at Dharwad in South India. J. Plant Development Sciences (6): 615617.

Bhan, V.M. and Sushilkumar 1998. Weed Science research in India. J. Ind. Agric. Sci. 68(8):567-582.

Chauhan, B.S., Matloob, A., Mahajan, G., Aslam, F., Florentine, S. K., and Jha, P. 2017. Emerging challenges and opportunities for education and research in weed science. Front. Plant Sci. 8:1537.
Clements, D.R. and Jones, V.L. 2021. Ten Ways That Weed Evolution Defies Human Management Efforts Amidst a Changing Climate. Agronomy. 11:284.
Curtis, J.T. 1959. The vegetation of Wisconsin: An ordination of plant communities. University Wisconsin press, Madison.pp. 657.
Curtis, J.T. and McIntosh R.P. 1950.The interrelation of certain analytic synthetic phytosociological characters.Ecology.31: 43-445.
Das, S.B. andVerma, O.P. 1997. Preliminary studies on efficacy of some botanicals against pod borer complex of Pigeon pea. $1^{\text {st }}$ International Confer. onParthenium Management. pp. 160-163.
Dubey, P.S. 1968. Ecological life history to two common weeds on crops fields. Ph.D. Thesis submitted to Vikram University, Ujjain.
DWSR 2011.Vision 2030.Maharajpur, Adhartal Jabalpur, MP, India. p. 42.

Gharde, Y., Singh, P.K., Dubey, R.P., Gupta, P.K. 2018.Assessment of yield and economic losses in agriculture due to weeds in India. Crop Prot. 107: PP.12-18.
Haji, I.D., Hunshal, C.S., Malligwad, L.H., Basavraj, B. and Chimmad, V.P. 2012.Effect of pre and post emergence herbicides on weed control in maize (Zea mays L.).Karnataka. J. Agricultural Science. 25(3): 392394.

Hall, R.L. 1974. Analysis of the nature of interference between plants of different species. I. concept and extension of the de wit analysis.

Aust. J. Agric. Res. 25:739-747.
Kalita, H.C. and Vishram, R. 2017. Weed Diversity in Different Fallow Cycle of Slash and Burn Agriculture in Northeast India. The Bioscan. 12(4): 1873-1878.
Kambhar,S.V., Jadhav, P.M. and Chougala, S.S. 2017. Weed diversity in north-east part of Belgavi district, Karnataka (India). Indian Forester, 143(6): 589-594.
Khamare, Y., Chen, J. and Marble, S.C. 2022. Allelopathy and its application as a weed management tool: A review. Front Plant Sci. 13:1034649.
Kotresha, K. and Kambhar S.V. 2016.Flora of Gadag District, Karnataka.Lambert Academic Publishers, Germany.p. 382.
Lawrence, G.H.M. 1951. Taxonomy of Vascular Plants. Oxford \& IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.p. 251.
Mahgoub, M.M.A. 2021. Measuring the ecological preference for growth of 150 of the most influential weeds in weed community structure associated with agronomic and horticultural crops. Saudi J. Biological Sciences. 28(10): 5593-5608.
Monteiro, A. and Santos, S. 2022. Sustainable Approach to Weed Management: The Role of Precision Weed Management. Agronomy .2022, 12(1): 118.
Odum, E.P. 1971. Fundamentals of ecology.Nataraj Publishers. Dehra Dun.p. 28.
Panse, V.G. andSukhatme, P.V. 1985. Statistical methods for agricultural workers. ICAR, New Delhi. p. 87-89
Pathak, T. 1981. Ecophysiological studies of some weeds with special reference to Commelinabanghalensis. Ph.D. Thesis submitted to Univ. of Sagar, Sagar, M.P.
Pätzold, S., Hbirkou, C., Dicke, D. 2020. Linking weed patterns with soil properties: a long-term case study. Precision Agric. 21:569-588.
PrayagaMurty, P. andVenkaiah, M. 2011. Biodiversity of Weed Species in Crop Fields of North Coastal Andhra Pradesh, India.Indian J. Fund. Appl. Life Sci. 1:59-67.

Punia, S.S., Singh, S., Yadav, D.B., Sindhu, V.K. and Duhan, A. 2017. Abundance, distribution and diversity of weeds in wheat in Haryana. Indian J. Weed Science. 49(2): 187-190.
Ramalakshmana, J., Rajesh Babu, Y.T., MatyaRaju, S., Gera, V. and Padal, S.B. 2023. Quantitative Studies on Weed Diversity of Vegetable Crops in the North Coastal Andhra Pradesh, India.Journal of Xi'an University of Architecture and Technology. 15(8):111-123.
Rao, V.S. 2000. Principles of Weed Science.Oxford \& IBH Publishing Com, New Delhi.pp 7-35.
Ravindranath, S. andPremnath, S. 1997.Biomass Studies; Field Methods for Monitoring Biomass.Oxford \& IBH Publishing Co. Pvt. Ltd., New Delhi.pp. 157.
Rawat, A. 1987. An ecological study of some agricultural weeds plants in Bundelkhand region. Ph.D. Thesis submitted to Dr. HarisinghGourVishwavidyala, Sagar, M.P.
Saldanha, C.J. 1984. Flora of Karnataka.Vol. 1.Oxford and IBH publishing Co.New Delhi.p. 535.
Saldanha, C.J. 1996. Flora of Karnataka.Vol. 2.Oxford and IBH publishing Co. New Delhi.p. 304.
Seema, M.K.andThoi Devi, M.T.2014. Effect of nitrogen and weed management on nutrientuptake by weeds under direct seeded aerobic rice. The Bioscan. 9(2): 535-537.
Sharma, A. 1984. Ecological study of some common weeds in Kanarawally. Ph.D. Thesis submitted to Jaipur University, Rajasthan.
Shinde, K.S. and Borkar, S.G. 2018. Microbial diversity of moisture stress tolerantRhizobacteriaassociated with Sorghum and allied weeds during sorghum crop production under drought condition. The

## Bioscan. 13(1): 15-19.

Shivnath and Gupta,S.K. 1982. Phytosociological studies on weeds competing with barley (Hordeum vulgare) crop. Indian J. Ecol. 9:5963.

Singh, N.P. 1988. Flora of eastern Karnataka.Vol. 1\&2.Mittal Publications, Delhi.p. 794.
Singh, T., Choudhary, A. and Kaur, S. 2023. Weeds can help in biodiversity and soil conservation. Indian J. Weed Science. 55(2): 133-140.
Sun, J., Wang, N. and Niu, Z. 2023. Effect of Soil Environment on Species Diversity of Desert Plant Communities. Plants. 12:3465.
Thurston, J.M. 1960. Dormancy in weed seeds. In: The Biology of

Weeds, Harper, J.L.(Eds). Blackwell Sci. Publications, Oxford,pp. 69-82

Verma, A. 1981. Ecological studies of some weeds of central india with reference to Alysicarpus longifolius. Ph.D. thesis submitted in Dr. Harisingh Gour University. Sagar.
Yaduraju N.T., Prasad Babu, M.B.B. andChandla, P. 2006. Herbicide Use.In. Agriculture and Environment.Swaminathan, M.S. andChadha K.L. (Eds.).Malhotra Publishing House, New Delhi, India. pp. 192210.

Zhang, J. and Wu, L.F. 2021. Impact of tillage and crop residue management on the weed community and wheat yield in a wheatmaize double cropping system. Agriculture. 11:265.

