

AperTO - Archivio Istituzionale Open Access dell'Università di Torino

Weed communities in Italian maize fields as affected by pedo-climatic traits and sowing time

This is the author's manuscript

Original Citation:

Availability:

This version is available <http://hdl.handle.net/2318/1557267> since 2016-03-01T14:18:57Z

Published version:

DOI:10.1016/j.eja.2015.11.018

Terms of use:

Open Access

Anyone can freely access the full text of works made available as "Open Access". Works made available under a Creative Commons license can be used according to the terms and conditions of said license. Use of all other works requires consent of the right holder (author or publisher) if not exempted from copyright protection by the applicable law.

(Article begins on next page)



UNIVERSITÀ DEGLI STUDI DI TORINO

This is an author version of the contribution published on:

Questa è la versione dell'autore dell'opera:

Vidotto F., Fogliatto S., Milan M., Ferrero A. (2016) Weed communities in Italian maize fields as affected by pedo-climatic traits and sowing time. European Journal of Agronomy, 74: 38–46.

The definitive version is available at:

La versione definitiva è disponibile alla URL:

<http://www.sciencedirect.com/science/article/pii/S1161030115300654>

1 **Weed communities in Italian maize fields as affected by pedo-climatic traits and**
2 **sowing time**

3 Vidotto Francesco^a, Silvia Fogliatto^a, Marco Milan^a, Aldo Ferrero^a

4 ^aDipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali e Alimentari, Università degli Studi di Torino,
5 Largo Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco, TO, Italy

6 e-mail addresses: francesco.vidotto@unito.it; silvia.fogliatto@unito.it; marco.milan@unito.it;
7 aldo.ferrero@unito.it

8 Corresponding author: Silvia Fogliatto, Largo Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco, TO,
9 Italy. Tel: +39 0116708897

10

11

12 **Abstract**

13 This study examined relationships between weed communities and some pedo-climatic
14 traits in Italian maize cultivation areas. A weed dataset was amassed from studies
15 conducted independently by research groups during 1998-2013. Included were herbicide
16 efficacy field trials and weed surveys from about 600 sites representing 175 northern and
17 central Italy maize fields. The dataset was honed to results from untreated plots in which
18 weed data were collected at least once (June/July) each season. For sites observed more
19 often, only the survey with the highest weed species count was used.

20 Of the approximate 120 species found, just five were present on more than 50% of sites:
21 *Chenopodium album*, *Echinochloa crus-galli*, *Amaranthus retroflexus*, *Solanum nigrum*,
22 and *Persicaria maculosa*. Indices were calculated to describe weed community structure:
23 total weed species count, monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous species counts, and total
24 weed density. Additional soil and climate site data were collected or obtained from regional
25 databases: pH reaction, texture, organic matter content, total nitrogen, Mg/K ratio,
26 assimilable phosphorus, cation exchange capacity (CEC), and C/N ratio, annual total
27 precipitation, annual mean temperature, and Thornthwaite climate classification. Pedo-
28 climatic traits and weed indices relationships were investigated using linear correlation
29 analysis (CA), discriminant analysis (DA), and principal component analysis (PCA).
30 CA and PCA highlighted a weak bias (higher count and density) by monocotyledonous
31 species for sand and alkaline soils, while clay and alkaline soils favored dicotyledonous
32 species. DA classified the sites well based on weed indices using soil parameters as
33 predictor variables, in particular for a Piemonte region (northwest Italy) data subset. Soil
34 texture, CEC, pH, and some nutrient contents significantly predicted some weed indices.

35 This study pointed out that Italian maize field weed communities are influenced by some
36 pedoclimatic traits; the weak relationships observed might be mitigated by the overall
37 influence of crop practices on weed dynamics.

38 **Keywords:** weed community indices; soil traits; climatic data; weed diversity; discriminant
39 analysis

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Weeds are one of the major constraints to maize cultivation that can affect crop yield
42 based on their species composition and density (Kropff et al., 1992). Over the years,
43 weeds typical to maize cultivation have evolved in reaction to cropping system changes
44 and to agronomic practices changes, such as weed control. The heterogeneity of Italian
45 maize systems and their agronomic histories has resulted in a particularly composite and
46 unpredictable weed community (Zanin et al., 1988).

47 Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is one of the most important herbaceous crops in Italy and was
48 cultivated on about 908,000 hectares in 2013 (ISTAT, 2014). Its cultivation is mainly
49 concentrated in the Po River plain, where it represents upwards of 90% of the total Italian
50 maize area (ISTAT, 2014). Soil fertility levels and environmental features that characterize
51 different maize cultivation areas can affect both the crop and its related weeds. Indeed,
52 weed communities vary with crop area pedological and climatic traits (Walter et al., 2002).
53 Specific optimal growth ranges for some of these traits, such as soil pH or water
54 availability, have been defined for certain weeds; some are considered indicator species of
55 particular soils (such as, *Digitaria sanguinalis* for acid soil), environments, and crop
56 managements (Buchanan et al., 1975; Albrecht, 2003). However, most weed species
57 infesting maize and other crops are ubiquitous due primarily to their plasticity and absence
58 of specific needs, which allow them to grow in different environments (Holzner, 1978). This
59 contest begs verification of the possible relationships between weed infestation in a field
60 and the pedo-climatic characteristics of the site. Such an exploration should consider not
61 only the most widespread weed species, but also the entire floral composition of the weed
62 infestation (Légère et al., 2005).

63 Studying arable field weed community composition appears useful to evaluate weed
64 diversity. It provides ecological importance as a host habitat for natural weed enemies, it
65 reduces the chance of selecting herbicide resistant or dominant weeds, and as an
66 indicator of weed community stability (Miyazawa et al., 2004; Murphy et al., 2006). Weed
67 community is usually considered stable when constituted of many species. Agronomic
68 practices and environmental fluctuations of a particular cropping area may affect weed
69 community dynamics (Smith and Gross, 2006).

70 Previous studies have shown the existence of a correlation between some weed species
71 and soil characteristics, even at the field scale (Andreasen et al., 1991; Heisel et al., 1999;
72 Albrecht and Auerwald, 2003). Some authors found that, for example, clay content was
73 correlated with *Alopecurus myosuroides*, *Veronica hederifolia*, *Equisetum arvense*, and
74 *Poa annua* densities (Nordmeyer and Dunker, 1999; Walter et al., 2002). The ability to
75 confirm the presence of these relationships can be difficult, especially on a large scale,
76 despite considerable information can be achievable on any infestation in a given territory.

77 Data hurdle examples include the following: lack of soil nature information for all areas, soil
78 property effects not easily discernable from those of other environmental factors, and
79 limited knowledge of the agronomic practices applied in the years prior to survey (Zanin et
80 al., 1988; Andreasen et al., 1991; Suárez et al., 2001).

81 This last aspect is probably the major limiting factor, but also one of the most important
82 because the agronomic history of a particular site can strongly affect the relationships
83 between weed community, soil, and climate (Buhler, 1995; Pyšek et al., 2005). Weed
84 infestation changes due to management practices and to environmental conditions of a
85 cultivated area make crucial the study of weed community composition to improve weed
86 control (Saavedra et al., 1990). In fact, accurate knowledge on the weed community
87 variability of a certain area may result in a more accurate tuning of sustainable weed
88 management strategies (Davis et al., 2005; Smith and Gross, 2006). The spreading of

89 particular agronomic techniques or the timing in which these are applied, may favor some
90 weed species instead of others, modifying the composition of weed infestation (Smith,
91 2006). For instance, early maize sowing can stimulate the infestation of dicotyledonous
92 species: microtherm, shade tolerant, and those that complete their life cycle after crop
93 harvest (Zanin, 2000).

94 Previous studies have demonstrated the influence of environmental factors on the species
95 constitution of weed communities to an area (Fried et al., 2008; Cimalová and Lososová,
96 2009). For example, annual precipitation and temperature are two important factors that
97 may influence weed composition (Cimalová and Lososová, 2009). However, it has been
98 established that management practices, such as soil tillage and crop rotation explain the
99 majority of weed community variation across different soil typologies (Fried et al., 2008).
100 Few weed surveys exist on Italian maize fields (Zanin et al., 1992; Zanin et al., 1997).
101 Similarly, there is a dearth of knowledge on the change of its weed community composition
102 in response to pedo-climatic factors. The aim of the present study was to verify the
103 existence of relationships between weed communities and some pedological and climatic
104 traits in different Italian maize cultivation areas. The influence of sowing time on weed
105 community composition was also evaluated.

106

107 **2. Materials and Methods**

108 Weed data results of several independent studies carried out in the 1998-2013 period by
109 different research groups were gathered and organized into a large dataset. Data referred
110 to studies aimed at different purposes, including herbicide efficacy field trials and weed
111 surveys, conducted on a total of about 600 sites, representing maize fields on 175
112 localities in northern and central Italy. Only data from untreated plots (size ranging from 10
113 to more than 100 m²) were considered.

114

115 *2.1 Data collection*

116 Weed data were collected at least once in June or July of each year. In the case of
117 multiple weed surveys on a single site, only the observation with the highest number of
118 recorded weed species was used. The collected data were organized into two distinct
119 datasets: one named "ITA" relative to fields located in the eight most important Italian
120 maize cultivation regions (Piemonte, Lombardia, Veneto, Friuli Venezia Giulia, Emilia-
121 Romagna, Lazio, Toscana, and Umbria), and another called "PIE," which was limited to
122 fields situated in the Piemonte region. The ITA dataset comprised data collected on 455
123 fields spread on 170 localities, while the PIE dataset involved 80 fields. For all sites, weed,
124 soil, and climatic data were collected or obtained from regional databases.

125 Due to the large heterogeneity of data included in the ITA dataset, only weed community
126 variables common to all sites and dates were considered, namely total weed species
127 number and the number of monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous species in the fields.

128 The PIE dataset was generated principally from a weed survey program conducted using a
129 common protocol. For this reason, some additional weed community data (such as, weed
130 species density) was included.

131 For both datasets, weed data were obtained from counts carried out on four 0.5 x 0.5 m
132 square areas randomly placed in each plot.

133 Soil properties were also considered in the study for each site; in particular, soil reaction
134 (pH) and texture (relative proportions of sand, silt, and clay) were acquired for both
135 surveys. For the fields comprising dataset PIE, a number of other soil properties, namely
136 organic matter content, total nitrogen, Mg/K ratio, assimilable phosphorus, cation
137 exchange capacity (CEC), and C/N ratio were obtained from the Regione Piemonte soil
138 database. For dataset PIE, some climatic parameters (annual total precipitation, annual
139 mean temperature, and climate classification per Thornthwaite (1948)) were obtained from
140 the Regione Piemonte Agrometeorological network.

141

142 2.2 Data analyses

143 At each site, some indices of weed species diversity were calculated (Table 1). For both
144 datasets, the number of species (*nspec*), number of monocotyledonous (*nmono*) and
145 dicotyledonous species (*ndico*), and the ratio between mono- and dicotyledonous species
146 (*nmon_dic*) were determined. Additional indices relative to each weed species density
147 were calculated for dataset PIE (Table 1). For each site in the survey, both the total
148 number of species and the frequency of species-specific encounters (percentage of sites
149 that included the species *n* over the total number of sites) were determined. For sites in
150 which different maize sowing times were available, species frequency was calculated only
151 for those species with a frequency above 25% (13 species).

152 The relationships between surveyed site weed species and pedo-climatic parameters were
153 determined using three statistical methods. Initially, a series of linear correlations were
154 determined for each pair of weed indices and pedo-climatic parameters, excluding the
155 Thornthwaite climate categorical variable (*Thorn*). The significance of the correlation and
156 Pearson's *r* correlation coefficient were calculated. Afterwards, the collected data were
157 submitted to discriminant analysis to verify, through pedological and climatic parameters
158 (predictors), the potential to classify sites as a function of the weed indices (discriminant
159 variables). These indices, derived from continuous or categorical variables with a high
160 number of categories, were transformed into new categorical variables with four, three, or
161 two modalities, such that each site was classified by four, three, or two categories.

162 Considering the Thornthwaite climate classification (*Thorn*) as the discriminant variable
163 and weed indices as the predictors allowed discriminant analysis performance. This
164 procedure was necessary because the *Thorn* variable was already categorical. Another
165 method, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), was applied only to the ITA dataset to
166 identify variables capable of explaining most of the variability as well as the existence of

167 any hidden structure underlying the variables. PCA was not applied to the PIE dataset
168 because of its relatively limited observations. The correlation, discriminant, and principal
169 component analyses were completed using the correlations, and discriminant and factor
170 functions of statistical software SPSS, version 12.0.

171

172 **3. Results**

173 *3.1 Weed community diversity*

174 The total number of encountered species was similar for both surveys (ITA and PIE) and
175 equaled approximately 120. However, among the species in the ITA dataset, only nine
176 were present on more than 25% of the surveyed sites (Figure 1). Only five species were
177 observed on more than 50% of the sites, and no species were found on more than 72% of
178 the surveyed area. The most widespread species, ranked by diffusion (Table 2), were
179 *Chenopodium album* and *Echinochloa crus-galli* (encounter frequencies above 70%),
180 followed by *Amaranthus retroflexus*, *Solanum nigrum*, and *Persicaria maculosa*. As was
181 true for encountered species, both dataset surveys showed similar trends in weed species
182 frequency. Specifically, only a few species in Emilia Romagna region had high frequency
183 values in dataset ITA, as opposed to Piemonte region where a high diffusion (95%
184 frequency) of *C. album* was observed. In Lombardia a more homogeneous pattern of the
185 most diffused weeds was detected, while in Veneto, and Friuli Venezia Giulia regions the
186 trend were more intermediate in nature (Figure 2).

187 *3.2 Weed infestation and maize sowing time*

188 The large variation in maize growing conditions to which the ITA database referred allowed
189 site comparison by classifying them into three maize sowing time groups: early sowing
190 time (before March 20th), conventional sowing time (between March 20th and April 30th),
191 and delayed sowing time (after April 30th). Infestation levels in fields sown at different times
192 showed higher frequencies of *C. album*, *Abutilon theophrasti*, and *Fallopia convolvulus* at

193 early sowing *versus* conventional sowing time, even though the three species had
194 frequency variations below 10%. Moreover, fields at the early sowing time demonstrated
195 remarkably lower frequency of encounters for *Panicum dichotomiflorum*, *Sorghum*
196 *halepense*, *A. retroflexus*, and *Portulaca oleracea* (Figure 3). In general, observations at
197 early sowing compared to late sowing found a greater presence of the species belonging
198 to the Polygonaceae family (*P. maculosa*, *P. aviculare*, and *F. convolvulus*), in addition to
199 *E. crus-galli*, *C. album*, and *S. nigrum*. In particular, frequency varied 21% for *P. maculosa*
200 at early sowing time compared to delayed sowing time (Figure 3). Observations at
201 conventional sowing compared to late sowing showed an even higher number of species
202 occurring more frequently, including *P. dichotomiflorum*, *S. halepense* and *A. retroflexus*
203 (Figure 3).

204

205 3.3 Weed species and pedo-climatic parameters

206 3.3.1. Linear correlation analysis

207 Linear correlation analysis identified some significant relationships between the
208 pedological parameters *pH*, *sand*, *silt* and *clay* and some weed indices (Table 3). For the
209 ITA dataset, height such correlations were found to be significant; five were identified in
210 the PIE dataset. In ITA dataset, positive significant correlation was found between *sand*
211 and *nmono* and between *sand* and *nmon_dic* ($r = 0.364$, $r = 0.285$, respectively). All the
212 other correlations were negative. In PIE dataset, positive significant correlation was found
213 only between *sand* and *dmono* ($r = 0.324$). In general, even though the correlations found
214 were highly significant in some cases, the Pearson correlation coefficients were rather low,
215 which indicated strong data variability.

216 3.3.2. Discriminant analysis

217 Among the pedo-climatic parameters, discriminant analysis detected some statistical
218 predictors valid for both datasets (Table 4). The ITA dataset discriminant functions using
219 soil property parameters *sand* and *clay* properly classified the sites (60-70% of correct site
220 classification) and predicted based on variables *nmono* and *nmon_dic* which category the
221 sites should have been included. Classification accuracy was quite constant considering
222 that the two weed indices were subdivided in four, three, or two categories. However,
223 when, the indices were subdivided into more than two categories, prediction accuracy was
224 higher for the extreme classes. Indeed, the most accurate classification was observed for
225 the sites with very high or very low numbers of monocotyledonous species. For this
226 reason, the number of final categories was reduced to two. In the case of ITA dataset, a
227 *nmono* threshold value of 1 was set to divide the dataset in the two categories: sites with
228 up to one monocotyledonous species were classified in the first category, while sites with
229 more than one monocotyledonous species were classified in the second category. In these
230 conditions about 67% of sites (304) fall in the first category. The accuracy site
231 classification considering only two categories comprised between 62% and 82% of both
232 datasets.

233 Discriminant analysis in PIE produced the best results when each weed variable was
234 composed of only two categories (i.e. high and low weed densities). Accurate predictions
235 of classes to which the sites pertained was obtained using several variables and
236 predictors: *Sl* and *P. dichotomiflorum* density with *pH*, *dmono* with *sand*, *dmon_dic* with
237 *Pass*, *P. maculosa* density with *Ntot*, *E. crus-galli* density with *Mg/K* and *CEC*, and
238 *Stellaria media* density with *CEC* (Table 4). In the case of the ratio between
239 monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous density (*dmon_dic*), the discriminant analysis
240 correctly classified about 75% of sites in the lowest weed density category (data not
241 shown). For most analyses, the discriminant function included only one pedological
242 parameter as a valid predictor. When this was the case, only one pedological parameter

243 was considered for site classification from one of the two categories in which a weed index
244 was subdivided (i.e. high or low *SI*).

245 Among weed indices, only for *E. crus-galli* density were two predictors, *Mg/K* and *CEC*,
246 used to classify sites. If the average value for *CEC* (13) among all PIE sites is used, then
247 when *Mg/K* is above 6.5, the predicted *E. crus-galli* density was greater than 5 plants m⁻²
248 (Figure 4). For any given site, the farther the pair of *CEC* and *Mg/K* values is from the
249 straight line, the more accurate is the site classification based on *E. crus-galli* density
250 (Figure 4).

251 When used as a separation variable, parameter *Thorn* was reclassified by reducing the
252 initial five categories to two categories into which the various sites could be classified.

253 These were referred to more humid-tending sites (merging the sites falling into the
254 categories B4B1rb3 and B4B2rb3) and less humid-tending sites (merging the sites falling
255 into the categories C1B2sb3, C2B1rb3, C2B2rb3) according to the Thornthwaite climate
256 classification (Thornthwaite, 1948). Using this classification, the weed indices *aden*, *SI*,
257 and *nmon_dic* proved to be good predictors, with, about 60% and 70% of the sites
258 correctly classified into generally more humid areas and generally less humid areas,
259 respectively. In general, in the more humid sites both a higher number of weed species
260 (low *SI* values) and a prevalence of monocotyledonous were observed, in contrast with
261 what was recorded for the less humid sites.

262 3.3.3. Principal Component Analysis

263 The first three components calculated by PCA explained more than 80% of the variation in
264 the original ITA dataset sites. The first component was positively correlated mainly with
265 some weed indices, and in particular, with the number of monocotyledonous species
266 (*nmono*) and with the mono-dicot ratio (*nmono_dic*) (Table 5). The second component
267 correlated mostly with pedological parameters, and specifically as follows with those
268 related to soil texture fraction: high positive correlation with *silt*, lower positive correlation

269 with *clay*, and high negative correlation with *sand*. Figure 5 shows a representation in bi-
270 dimensional space of these first two components, in which the sites were indicated with
271 symbols referring to their actual soil texture (*clay*, *silt*, *sand*, and *loam*).
272 The majority of sites with clay soils were concentrated around near slightly negative values
273 of the first component, indicating that in these sites the monocotyledonous species were
274 less abundant, both in absolute and relative terms to the dicotyledonous species number.
275 The cloud formed by sites with other soil textures (*silt*, *sand*, and *loam*) showed a more
276 spread arrangement, moving from negative to positive values of first component. This
277 suggests that in sites with soil different from clay, weed indices are basically not influenced
278 by soil texture.

279

280 4. Discussion

281 4.1 Weed community diversity

282 Study results made it possible to characterize the weed vegetation of maize fields in the
283 main Italian areas of crop cultivation, and in detail for the Piemonte region. The 120 total
284 detected weed species fell within the range of 75-124 species found in previous studies for
285 other summer crops (Frick and Thomas, 1992; Zanin et al., 1997; Viggiani et al., 1998).
286 Since both the entire area and Piemonte region surveys recorded a similar number of
287 species, this parameter seemed unrelated to survey area size. Despite the high
288 simplification in Italian maize cropping systems currently, the number of observed weed
289 species was great. A number of factors may contribute to this effect: high agronomic
290 practice variation, even in maize mono-cropping, farm fragmentation, and pedological and
291 climatic conditions that vary at both the farm and territory levels. A study conducted in
292 France by Fried et al. (2008) showed weed species diversity and composition were
293 particularly influenced by crop type and the crop preceding maize in the rotation.

294 Only some of the many species found were widespread. Indeed, only five weed species
295 were recorded in more than 50% of the surveyed sites. Among these, only one grass weed
296 was highly diffused (*E. crus-galli*); it is common to crop fields worldwide because of its
297 ability to germinate and flower in different environmental conditions (Keeley and Thullen,
298 1989). This study found that grass weeds constituted one-third of the nine weed species
299 present on more than 25% of the surveyed sites, which agreed with the prevalence of
300 broad-leaved species seeds discussed in a previous study undertaken on the seedbank of
301 an Italian field after five years of maize cultivation (Bàrberi et al., 1998). Many experiments
302 associate high grass weed counts with reduced input cultivation systems, while broad-
303 leaved species predominate in conventional plowed systems (Froud-Williams et al., 1983;
304 Mohler, 1993; Bàrberi et al., 1998). Italian maize fields are typically plowed, which may
305 explain broad-leaved weed preponderance; another explanation may be their higher seed
306 longevity and persistence in soil compared to that of grass weeds (Burnside et al., 1996).
307 For broad-leaved species, this survey confirmed the findings of previous studies (Viggiani
308 et al., 1998) as it showed the ubiquitous characteristic of *C. album*. In fact, this species
309 was the most dispersed probably due to its abundant seed production and longevity
310 (Clements et al., 1996). In fact, *C. album* is one of the five most widespread weeds
311 globally, the seventh most abundant in maize, and one of the most troublesome weeds in
312 the U.S. corn belt (Forcella et al., 1992; Clements et al., 1996).

313 *4.2. Weed infestation and maize sowing time*

314 Maize sowing time showed it had an important effect on weed community composition—
315 enhancing or reducing the presence of different species. In this study, early sowing of
316 maize is a practice widely used in northern Italy. This study detected a different weed
317 community composition depending on maize sowing time as other studies have
318 demonstrated (Otto et al., 2009). At early sowing time some species were encountered

319 more frequently than others. *E. crus-galli* was one such species, probably because it is
320 able to emerge rapidly, even at temperatures characteristic of early March (about 15 °C)
321 (Keeley and Thullen, 1989). The same holds for *F. convolvulus* and other Polygonaceae
322 species, for which low temperatures induce high emergence flushes (Metzger, 1992).

323 4.3. Weed species and pedo-climatic parameters

324 The results of the study highlighted some relationships among the weed indices and pedo-
325 climatic parameters of the surveyed sites, as observed in previous studies (Andreasen et
326 al., 1991; Cimalová and Lososová, 2009). However, the correlations described in those
327 studies were generally moderate and did not allow clarification of the precise relationships
328 among the parameters. It is, nevertheless, possible to hypothesize that interactions may
329 be hidden by agronomic practice effects, for which information was not available. Other
330 studies have demonstrated effects from certain agronomic practices, such as soil
331 fertilization or weed community tillage (Andersson and Milberg, 1998; Hyvönen and
332 Salonen, 2002; Cimalová and Lososová, 2009).

333 The few significant relationships found among some macroscopic weed indices and pedo-
334 climatic parameters (i.e., mono/dicot ratio and soil texture, Simpson indices and climatic
335 classification) have importance. For example, soil reaction was proved to affect weed
336 community composition either directly or indirectly by changing the availability of different
337 soil nutrients (Buchanan et al., 1975; Dieleman et al., 2000). Correlation analysis results
338 indicated that a higher and a lower number of monocots were found in sand and clay soils,
339 respectively. In addition, a lower mono/dicots ratio was found in soils dealing with a higher
340 pH value.

341 Both PCA and discriminant analysis also confirmed the existence of relationships among
342 the weed indices and some pedo-climatic traits. For example, discriminant analysis
343 provided a good classification of the surveyed sites on the basis of weed indices using soil

344 parameters as predictor variables. In particular, soil texture, *CEC*, as well as pH and some
345 nutrient contents, resulted significant predicting many weed indices. Furthermore,
346 discriminant analysis successfully classified the sites based on the density of *E. crus-galli*
347 using two soil parameters, namely *Mg/K* and *CEC*.
348 Finally, mean annual precipitation and mean annual temperature affected weed species
349 composition as observed in previous studies, even though they appear not to be the main
350 source of weed community variation (Cimalová and Lososová, 2009).

351 *4.4 Conclusions*

352 In general, many factors impact weed community dynamics; in particular, management
353 practices, soil tillage, and crop type play important roles. This study highlighted not only
354 the diversity of weed species in Italian maize, but also the importance of pedological and
355 climatic factor contributions to weed species variation. Study analyses did establish some
356 relationships between certain weed indices and pedo-climatic parameters, however, it also
357 demonstrated the particular difficulty associated with distinguishing single factor effects.
358 Weed community variation seems to result from an interaction of different cropping and
359 pedo-climatic aspects. Further studies are needed to better clarify these relationships as
360 this information may improve the predictability of weed flora composition based on the
361 environmental characteristics of a certain area.

362 **References**

363

364 Albrecht, H., 2003. Suitability of arable weeds as indicator organisms to evaluate species
365 conservation effects of management in agricultural ecosystems. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*
366 98, 201-211.

367 Albrecht, H., Auerswald, K., 2003. Arable weed seedbanks and their relation to soil
368 properties. *Aspects Appl. Biol.* 69, 11-20.

369 Andersson, T.N., Milberg, P., 1998. Weed flora and the relative importance of site, crop,
370 crop rotation, and nitrogen. *Weed Sci.* 46, 30-38.

371 Andreasen, C., Streibig, J.C., Haas, H., 1991. Soil properties affecting the distribution of
372 37 weed species in Danish fields. *Weed Res.* 31, 181-187.

373 Bàrberi, P., Cozzani, A., Macchia, M., Bonari, E., 1998. Size and composition of the weed
374 seedbank under different management systems for continuous maize cropping. *Weed*
375 *Res.* 38, 319-334.

376 Buchanan, G.A., Hoveland, C.S., Harris, M.C., 1975. Response of weeds to soil pH. *Weed*
377 *Sci.* 23, 473-477.

378 Buhler, D.D., 1995. Influence of tillage systems on weed population dynamics and
379 management in corn and soybean in the Central USA. *Crop Sci.* 35, 1247-1258.

380 Burnside, O.C., Wilson, R.G., Weisberg, S., Hubbard, K.G., 1996. Seed longevity of 41
381 weed species buried 17 years in Eastern and Western Nebraska. *Weed Sci.* 44, 74-86.

382 Cimalová, Š., Lososová, Z., 2009. Arable weed vegetation of the Northeastern part of the
383 Czech Republic: effects of environmental factors on species composition. *Plant Ecol.* 203,
384 45-57.

385 Clements, D.R., Benott, D.L., Murphy, S.D., Swanton, C.J., 1996. Tillage effects on weed
386 seed return and seedbank composition. *Weed Sci.* 44, 314-322.

387 Davis, A.S., Renner, K.A., Gross, K.L., 2005. Weed seedbank and community shifts in a
388 long-term cropping systems experiment. *Weed Sci.* 53, 296-306.

389 Dieleman, A.J., Mortensen, D.A., Buhler, D.D., Ferguson, R.B., 2000. Identifying
390 associations among site properties and weed species abundance. II. Hypothesis
391 generation. *Weed Sci.* 48, 576-587.

392 Forcella, F., Wilson, R.G., Renner, K.A., Dekker, J., Harvey, R.G., Alm, D.A., Buhler, D.D.,
393 Cardina, J., 1992. Weed seedbanks of the U.S. corn belt: magnitude, variation,
394 emergence, and application. *Weed Sci.* 40, 636-644.

395 Frick, B.L., Thomas, A.G., 1992. Weed surveys in different tillage systems in southwestern
396 Ontario field crops. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 72, 1337-1347.

397 Fried, G., Norton, L.R., Reboud, X., 2008. Environmental and management factors
398 determining weed species composition and diversity in France. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*
399 128, 68-76.

400 Froud-Williams, R.J., Drennan, D.S.H., Chancellor, R.J., 1983. Influence of cultivation
401 regime on weed floras of arable cropping systems. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 20, 187-197.

402 Heisel, T., Ersbøll, A.K., Andreasen, C., 1999. Weed mapping with co-kriging using soil
403 properties. *Precis. Agric.* 1, 39-52-52.

404 Holzner, W., 1978. Weed species and weed communities. *Vegetatio* 38, 13-20.

405 Hyvönen, T., Salonen, J., 2002. Weed species diversity and community composition in
406 cropping practices at two intensity levels: a six-year experiment. *Plant Ecol.* 159, 73-81.

407 ISTAT, 2014. Italia in cifre. ISTAT, Roma. [http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-](http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-agricoltura.pdf)
408 [agricoltura.pdf](http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-agricoltura.pdf) (read 12th December 2014).

409 Keeley, P.E., Thullen, R.J., 1989. Influence of planting date on growth of Barnyardgrass
410 (*Echinochloa crus-galli*). *Weed Sci.* 37, 557-561.

411 Kropff, M.J., Weaver, S.E., Smits, M.A., 1992. Use of ecophysiological models for crop-
412 weed interference: relations amongst weed density, relative time of weed emergence,
413 relative leaf area, and yield loss. *Weed Sci.* 40, 296-301.

414 Légère, A., Stevenson, F.C., Benoit, D.L., 2005. Diversity and assembly of weed
415 communities: contrasting responses across cropping systems. *Weed Res.* 45, 303-315.

416 Metzger, J.D., 1992. Physiological basis of achene dormancy in *Polygonum convolvulus*
417 (*Polygonaceae*). *Am. J. Bot.* 79.

418 Miyazawa, K.A.E., Tsuji, H., Yamagata, M., Nakano, H., Nakamoto, T., 2004. Response of
419 weed flora to combinations of reduced tillage, biocide application and fertilization practices
420 in a 3-year crop rotation. *Weed Biol. Manage.* 4, 24-34.

421 Mohler, C.L., 1993. A model of the effects of tillage on emergence of weed seedlings.
422 *Ecol. Appl.* 3, 53-73.

423 Murphy, S.D., Clements, D.R., Belaoussoff, S., Kevan, P.G., Swanton, C.J., 2006.
424 Promotion of weed species diversity and reduction of weed seedbanks with conservation
425 tillage and crop rotation. *Weed Sci.* 54, 69-77.

426 Nordmeyer, H., Dunker, M., 1999. Variable weed densities and soil properties in a weed
427 mapping concept for patchy weed control. In: Stafford, J.V. (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 2nd*
428 *European Conference on Precision Agriculture*. Sheffield Academic Press, Odense,
429 Denmark, pp. 453-462.

430 Otto, S., Masin, R., Casari, G., Zanin, G., 2009. Weed-corn competition parameters in late-
431 winter sowing in Northern Italy. *Weed Sci.* 57, 194-201.

432 Pyšek, P., Jarošík, V., Kropáč, Z., Chytrý, M., Wild, J., Tichý, L., 2005. Effects of abiotic
433 factors on species richness and cover in Central European weed communities. *Agric.*
434 *Ecosyst. Environ.* 109, 1-8.

435 Saavedra, M., Garcia-Torres, L., Hernandez-Bermejo, E., Hidalgo, B., 1990. Influence of
436 environmental factors on the weed flora in crops in the Guadalquivir Valley. *Weed Res.* 30,
437 363-374.

438 Smith, R.G., 2006. Timing of tillage is an important filter on the assembly of weed
439 communities. *Weed Sci.* 54, 705-712.

440 Smith, R.G., Gross, K.L., 2006. Weed community and corn yield variability in diverse
441 management systems. *Weed Sci.* 54, 106-113.

442 Suárez, S.A., de la Fuente, E.B., Ghera, C.M., León, R.J.C., 2001. Weed community as
443 an indicator of summer crop yield and site quality. *Agron. J.* 93, 524-530.

444 Thornthwaite, C.W., 1948. An approach toward a rational classification of climate. *Geogr.*
445 *Rev.* 38, 55-94.

446 Viggiani, P., Baldoni, G., Montemurro, P., 1998. Indagine sulla flora infestante del
447 pomodoro da industria in alcuni ambienti tipici italiani. In: Tei, F. (Ed.), *Il controllo della*
448 *flora infestante nelle colture orticole. XI convegno biennali SIRFI, Bari*, pp. 241-251.

449 Walter, A.M., Christensen, S., Simmelsgaard, S.E., 2002. Spatial correlation between
450 weed species densities and soil properties. *Weed Res.* 42, 26-38.

451 Zanin, G., 2000. Caratteristiche ed evoluzione della flora infestante del mais. *L'Informatore*
452 *Agrario* 23, 79.

453 Zanin, G., Mosca, G., Catizone, P., 1988. La vegetazione infestante del mais nella pianura
454 padano-veneta: risultati di un'indagine: nota¹ aspetti qualitativi. *L'Informatore Agrario* 44,
455 195-205.

456 Zanin, G., Mosca, G., Catizone, P., 1992. A profile of the potential flora in maize fields of
457 the Po Valley. *Weed Res.* 32, 407-418.

458 Zanin, G., Otto, S., Riello, L., Borin, M., 1997. Ecological interpretation of weed flora
459 dynamics under different tillage systems. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 66, 177-188.

Figure

[Click here to download Figure: Fig1.pdf](#)

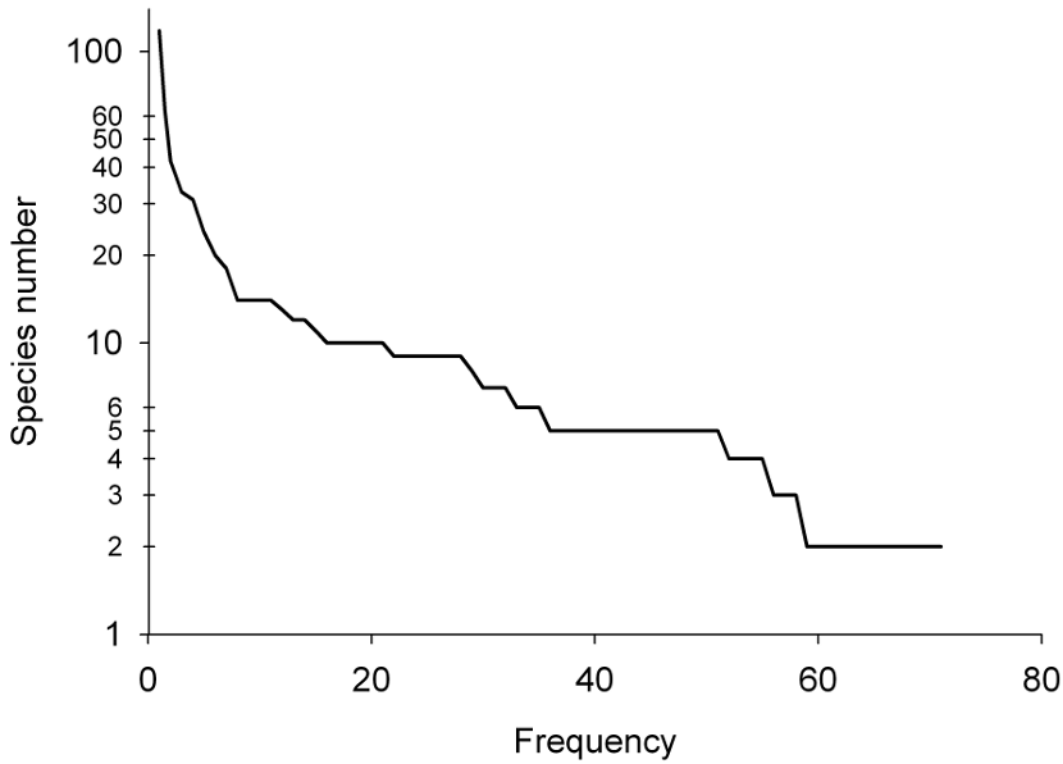


Figure
[Click here to download Figure: fig2.pdf](#)

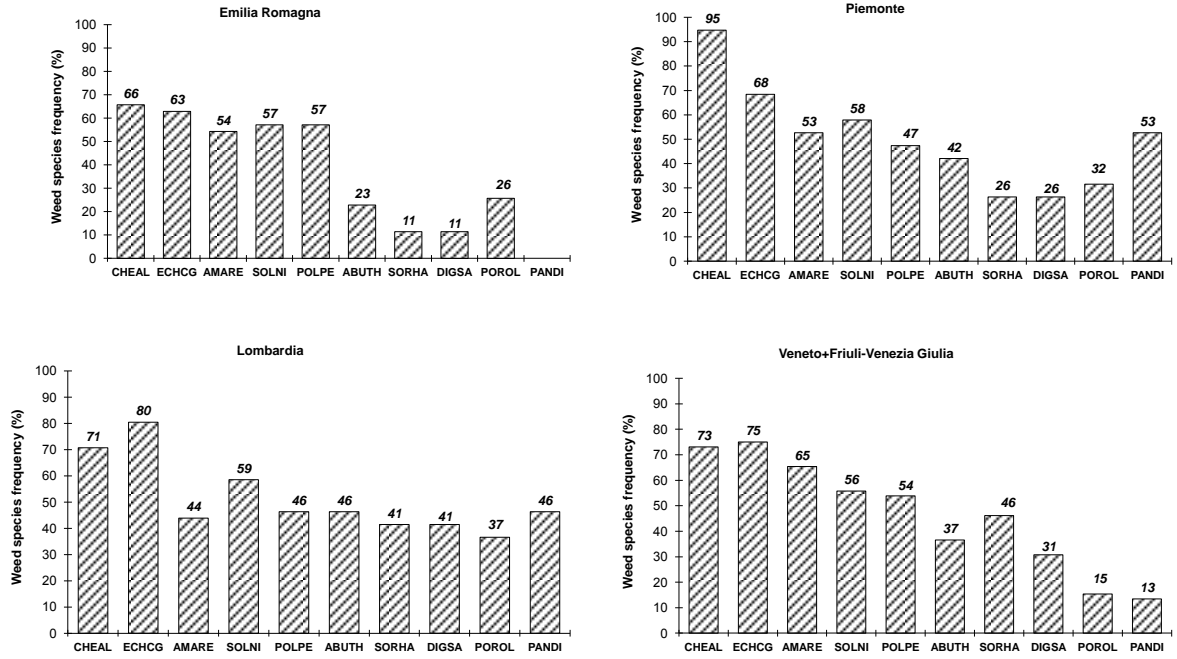


Figure 3
[Click here to download Figure: fig3_revised.pdf](#)

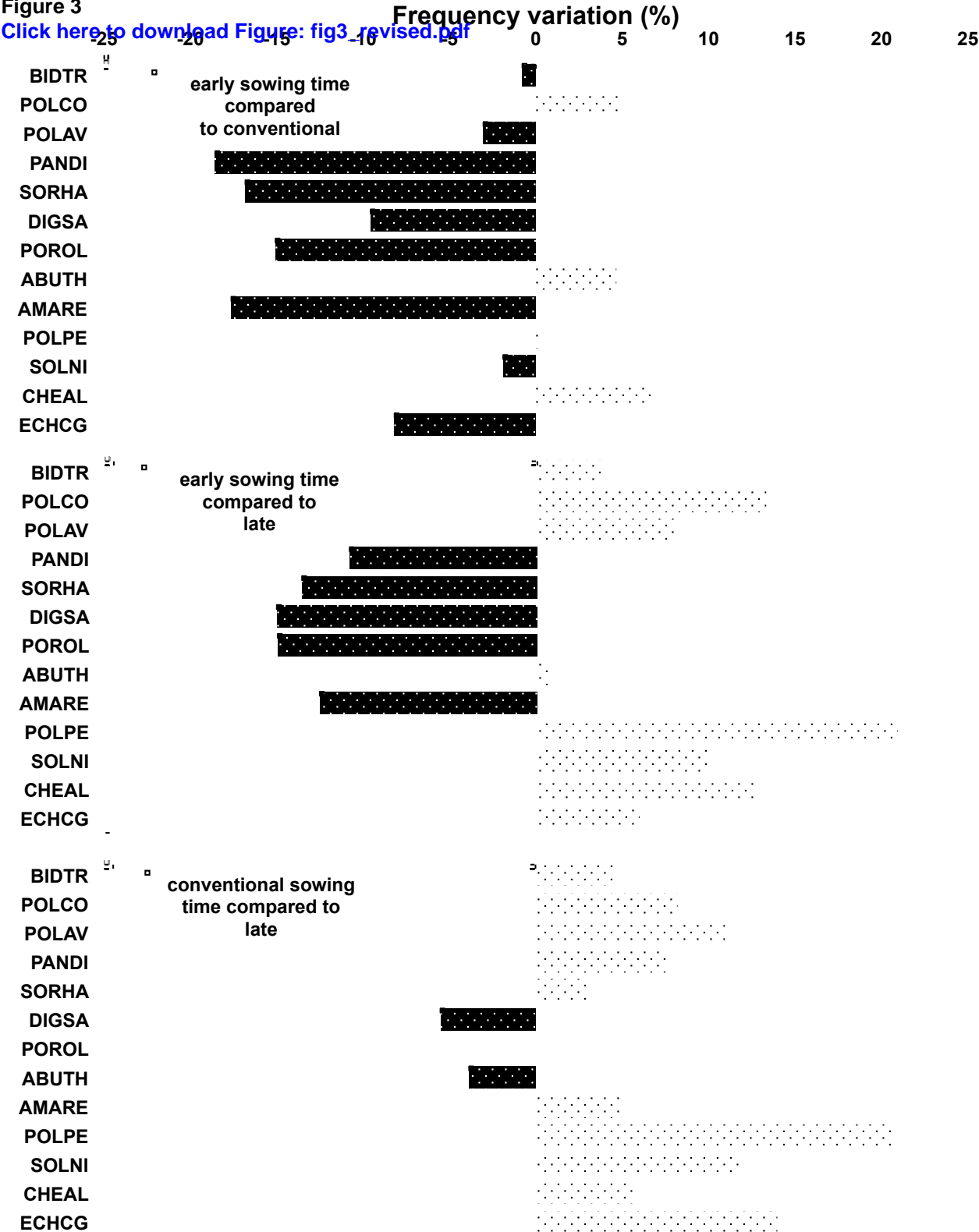


Figure
[Click here to download Figure: fig4.pdf](#)

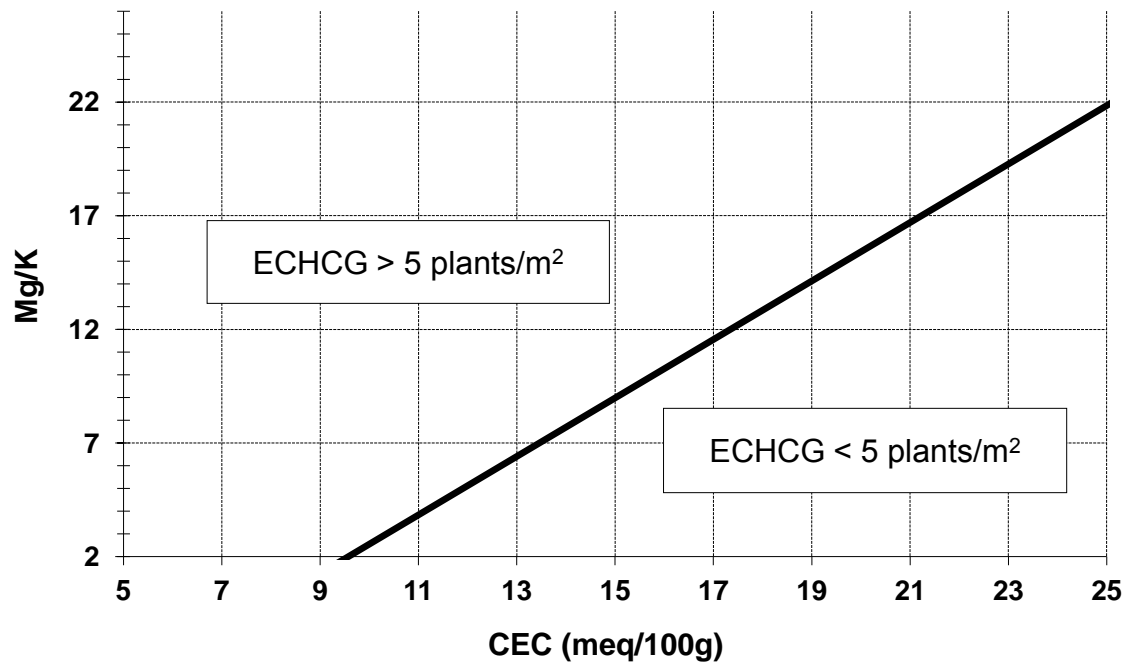


Figure 5
[Click here to download Figure: Fig.5_rev.pdf](#)

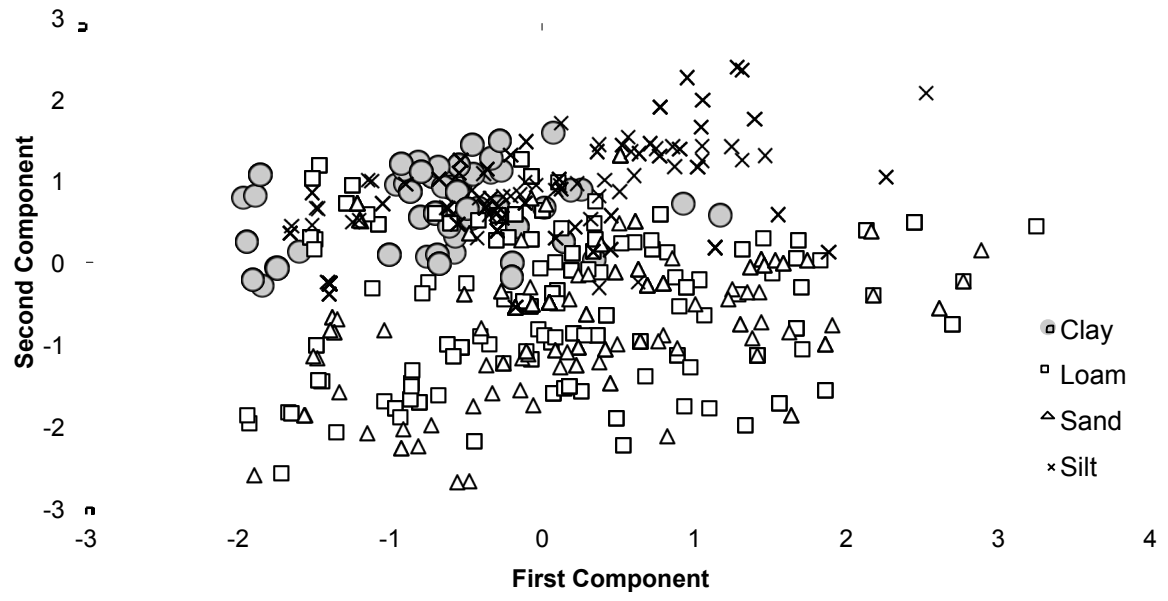


Table 1. Weed, pedological, and climatic variables considered in the study.

variables	code	Unit of measurement	dataset		Calculation method ⁽¹⁾
			ITA	PIE	
Weed indices					
Total weed density	<i>dentot</i>	plants/m ²		X	
Number of weed species	<i>nspec</i>	n ^a	X	X	
Mean weed density of the present species	<i>aden</i>	plants/m ²		X	$dentot / nspec$
Weed density of the single species	n_i	plants/m ²		X	
Number of species contributing for more than 5% and 10%	<i>con5</i> <i>con10</i>	n		X	$con5 = \sum i; \text{ for } n_i \geq (0.05 \cdot dentot)$ $con10 = \sum i; \text{ for } n_i \geq (0.10 \cdot dentot)$
Simpson index	<i>SI</i>	ad ^b		X	$SI = \sum (n_i / dentot)$
Shannon index	<i>H'</i>	ad		X	$H' = -\sum [(n_i / dentot) \cdot \ln(n_i / dentot)]$
Numbers of MONOCOT species	<i>nmono</i>	n	X	X	
Numbers of DICOT species	<i>ndico</i>	n	X	X	
Number of MONCOT/DICOT species ratio	<i>nmon_dic</i>	ad	X	X	$nmono / ndico$
Total MONOCOT density	<i>dmono</i>	plants/m ²		X	
Total DICOT density	<i>ddico</i>	plants/m ²		X	
MONOCOT/DICOT density ratio	<i>dmon_dic</i>	ad		X	$dmono / ddico$
Pedological indices					
Sand	<i>sand</i>	%	X	X	
Silt	<i>silt</i>	%	X	X	
Clay	<i>clay</i>	%	X	X	
pH	<i>pH</i>		X	X	
Organic matter content	<i>SO</i>	%		X	
Total nitrogen	<i>Ntot</i>	%		X	
Mg/K ratio	<i>Mg/K</i>	ad		X	
Assimilable phosphorous	<i>Pass</i>	ppm		X	
Cation exchange capacity	<i>CEC</i>	meq/100g		X	
Carbon/Nitrogen ratio	<i>C/N</i>	ad		X	
Climatic indices					
Total annual precipitation	<i>Ptot</i>	mm		X	
Anuual mean temperature	<i>Tavg</i>	°C		X	
Thornthwaite climatic classification	<i>Thorn</i>	ad		X	

^an indicates number of species; ^bad indicates adimensional

Table 2. Frequency of encounters for the most diffused weed species across all surveyed sites (site number in which a weed species was present relative to total surveyed sites).

Species	Encounter frequency (%)
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	71.6
<i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i>	71.6
<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i>	58.6
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	55.6
<i>Persicaria maculosa</i>	50.0
<i>Abutilon theophrasti</i>	35.5
<i>Sorghum halepense</i>	32.5
<i>Digitaria sanguinalis</i>	29.6
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i>	28.4
<i>Panicum dichotomiflorum</i>	21.3
<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i>	15.4
<i>Polygonum aviculare</i>	14.8
<i>Setaria glauca</i>	12.4
<i>Bidens tripartita</i>	11.8
<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i>	7.7

1 Table 3. Significance values (P) and Pearson correlation coefficients (r) (in brackets), of
 2 the relationships among some pedological parameters and weed indices for the ITA and
 3 PIE datasets (P≤0.05).

4
 5

	<i>ITA</i>		<i>PIE</i>	
	<i>nmono</i>	<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>dmono</i>	<i>dmon_dic</i>
<i>pH</i>	<0.001 (-0.299)	<0.001 (-0.330)	0.273 (-0.124)	0.001 (-0.352)
<i>sand</i>	<0.001 (0.364)	<0.001 (0.285)	0.003 (0.324)	0.086 (0.193)
<i>silt</i>	<0.001 (-0.150)	0.018 (-0.090)	0.045 (-0.224)	0.570 (-0.065)
<i>clay</i>	<0.001 (-0.364)	<0.001 (-0.303)	0.006 (-0.303)	0.025 (-0.251)

6 Table 4. Pedo-climatic variables for which significant relationships were found according to
 7 discriminant analysis and threshold value dividing the two categories.

8

Separation variables	Estimators	Percentage of correct classification ^a	Threshold value ^b
ITA dataset			
<i>nmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	61.9	1
<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>clay</i>	69.0	25
PIE dataset			
<i>SI</i>	<i>pH</i>	71.4	0.25
<i>dmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	67.9	70
<i>dmon_dic</i>	<i>Pass</i>	64.3	50
<i>POLPE density</i>	<i>Ntot</i>	64.3	5
<i>ECHCG density</i>	<i>Mg/K; CEC</i>	75.0	5
<i>STEME density</i>	<i>CEC</i>	82.0	5
<i>PANDI density</i>	<i>pH</i>	64.3	5
<i>Thorn</i>	<i>aden, SI, nmondic</i>	76.0	

9 ^aPercentage of sites used for validation (sites not used to build the discriminant function) and
 10 percentage correctly classified.

11 ^bValues equal or below threshold belonged to category 1, values above belonged to category 2.

Table 5. Component matrix of the first two principal components relative to surveyed sites (pedological and weed indices) and their respective loads.

Variables	Component	
	1	2
<i>pH</i>	-0.465	0.425
<i>sand</i>	0.280	-0.942
<i>silt</i>	0.108	0.807
<i>clay</i>	0.470	0.589
<i>nspec</i>	0.204	-0.033
<i>nmono</i>	0.863	-0.122
<i>ndico</i>	-0.249	0.014
<i>nmon_dic</i>	0.871	-0.053

1 **Weed communities in Italian maize fields as affected by pedo-climatic traits and**
2 **sowing time**

3 Vidotto Francesco^a, Silvia Fogliatto^a, Marco Milan^a, Aldo Ferrero^a

4 ^aDipartimento di Scienze Agrarie, Forestali e Alimentari, Università degli Studi di Torino,
5 Largo Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco, TO, Italy

6 e-mail addresses: francesco.vidotto@unito.it; silvia.fogliatto@unito.it; marco.milan@unito.it;
7 aldo.ferrero@unito.it

8 Corresponding author: Silvia Fogliatto, Largo Paolo Braccini 2, 10095, Grugliasco, TO,
9 Italy. Tel: +39 0116708897

10

11

12 **Abstract**

13 This study examined relationships between weed communities and some pedo-climatic
14 traits in Italian maize cultivation areas. A weed dataset was amassed from studies
15 conducted independently by research groups during 1998-2013. Included were herbicide
16 efficacy field trials and weed surveys from about 600 sites representing 175 northern and
17 central Italy maize fields. The dataset was honed to results from untreated plots in which
18 weed data were collected at least once (June/July) each season. For sites observed more
19 often, only the survey with the highest weed species count was used.

20 Of the approximate 120 species found, just five were present on more than 50% of sites:
21 *Chenopodium album*, *Echinochloa crus-galli*, *Amaranthus retroflexus*, *Solanum nigrum*,
22 and *Persicaria maculosa*. Indices were calculated to describe weed community structure:
23 total weed species count, monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous species counts, and total
24 weed density. Additional soil and climate site data were collected or obtained from regional
25 databases: pH reaction, texture, organic matter content, total nitrogen, Mg/K ratio,
26 assimilable phosphorus, cation exchange capacity (CEC), and C/N ratio, annual total
27 precipitation, annual mean temperature, and Thornthwaite climate classification. Pedo-
28 climatic traits and weed indices relationships were investigated using linear correlation
29 analysis (CA), discriminant analysis (DA), and principal component analysis (PCA).
30 CA and PCA highlighted a weak bias (higher count and density) by monocotyledonous
31 species for sand and alkaline soils, while clay and alkaline soils favored dicotyledonous
32 species. DA classified the sites well based on weed indices using soil parameters as
33 predictor variables, in particular for a Piemonte region (northwest Italy) data subset. Soil
34 texture, CEC, pH, and some nutrient contents significantly predicted some weed indices.

35 This study pointed out that Italian maize field weed communities are influenced by some
36 pedoclimatic traits; the weak relationships observed might be mitigated by the overall
37 influence of crop practices on weed dynamics.

38 **Keywords:** weed community indices; soil traits; climatic data; weed diversity; discriminant
39 analysis

40 **1. Introduction**

41 Weeds are one of the major constraints to maize cultivation that can affect crop yield
42 based on their species composition and density (Kropff et al., 1992). Over the years,
43 weeds typical to maize cultivation have evolved in reaction to cropping system changes
44 and to agronomic practices changes, such as weed control. The heterogeneity of Italian
45 maize systems and their agronomic histories has resulted in a particularly composite and
46 unpredictable weed community (Zanin et al., 1988).

47 Maize (*Zea mays* L.) is one of the most important herbaceous crops in Italy and was
48 cultivated on about 908,000 hectares in 2013 (ISTAT, 2014). Its cultivation is mainly
49 concentrated in the Po River plain, where it represents upwards of 90% of the total Italian
50 maize area (ISTAT, 2014). Soil fertility levels and environmental features that characterize
51 different maize cultivation areas can affect both the crop and its related weeds. Indeed,
52 weed communities vary with crop area pedological and climatic traits (Walter et al., 2002).
53 Specific optimal growth ranges for some of these traits, such as soil pH or water
54 availability, have been defined for certain weeds; some are considered indicator species of
55 particular soils (such as, *Digitaria sanguinalis* for acid soil), environments, and crop
56 managements (Buchanan et al., 1975; Albrecht, 2003). However, most weed species
57 infesting maize and other crops are ubiquitous due primarily to their plasticity and absence
58 of specific needs, which allow them to grow in different environments (Holzner, 1978). This
59 contest begs verification of the possible relationships between weed infestation in a field
60 and the pedo-climatic characteristics of the site. Such an exploration should consider not
61 only the most widespread weed species, but also the entire floral composition of the weed
62 infestation (Légère et al., 2005).

63 Studying arable field weed community composition appears useful to evaluate weed
64 diversity. It provides ecological importance as a host habitat for natural weed enemies, it
65 reduces the chance of selecting herbicide resistant or dominant weeds, and as an
66 indicator of weed community stability (Miyazawa et al., 2004; Murphy et al., 2006). Weed
67 community is usually considered stable when constituted of many species. Agronomic
68 practices and environmental fluctuations of a particular cropping area may affect weed
69 community dynamics (Smith and Gross, 2006).

70 Previous studies have shown the existence of a correlation between some weed species
71 and soil characteristics, even at the field scale (Andreasen et al., 1991; Heisel et al., 1999;
72 Albrecht and Auerwald, 2003). Some authors found that, for example, clay content was
73 correlated with *Alopecurus myosuroides*, *Veronica hederifolia*, *Equisetum arvense*, and
74 *Poa annua* densities (Nordmeyer and Dunker, 1999; Walter et al., 2002). The ability to
75 confirm the presence of these relationships can be difficult, especially on a large scale,
76 despite considerable information can be achievable on any infestation in a given territory.

77 Data hurdle examples include the following: lack of soil nature information for all areas, soil
78 property effects not easily discernable from those of other environmental factors, and
79 limited knowledge of the agronomic practices applied in the years prior to survey (Zanin et
80 al., 1988; Andreasen et al., 1991; Suárez et al., 2001).

81 This last aspect is probably the major limiting factor, but also one of the most important
82 because the agronomic history of a particular site can strongly affect the relationships
83 between weed community, soil, and climate (Buhler, 1995; Pyšek et al., 2005). Weed
84 infestation changes due to management practices and to environmental conditions of a
85 cultivated area make crucial the study of weed community composition to improve weed
86 control (Saavedra et al., 1990). In fact, accurate knowledge on the weed community
87 variability of a certain area may result in a more accurate tuning of sustainable weed
88 management strategies (Davis et al., 2005; Smith and Gross, 2006). The spreading of

89 particular agronomic techniques or the timing in which these are applied, may favor some
90 weed species instead of others, modifying the composition of weed infestation (Smith,
91 2006). For instance, early maize sowing can stimulate the infestation of dicotyledonous
92 species: microtherm, shade tolerant, and those that complete their life cycle after crop
93 harvest (Zanin, 2000).

94 Previous studies have demonstrated the influence of environmental factors on the species
95 constitution of weed communities to an area (Fried et al., 2008; Cimalová and Lososová,
96 2009). For example, annual precipitation and temperature are two important factors that
97 may influence weed composition (Cimalová and Lososová, 2009). However, it has been
98 established that management practices, such as soil tillage and crop rotation explain the
99 majority of weed community variation across different soil typologies (Fried et al., 2008).
100 Few weed surveys exist on Italian maize fields (Zanin et al., 1992; Zanin et al., 1997).
101 Similarly, there is a dearth of knowledge on the change of its weed community composition
102 in response to pedo-climatic factors. The aim of the present study was to verify the
103 existence of relationships between weed communities and some pedological and climatic
104 traits in different Italian maize cultivation areas. The influence of sowing time on weed
105 community composition was also evaluated.

106

107 **2. Materials and Methods**

108 Weed data results of several independent studies carried out in the 1998-2013 period by
109 different research groups were gathered and organized into a large dataset. Data referred
110 to studies aimed at different purposes, including herbicide efficacy field trials and weed
111 surveys, conducted on a total of about 600 sites, representing maize fields on 175
112 localities in northern and central Italy. Only data from untreated plots (size ranging from 10
113 to more than 100 m²) were considered.

114

115 *2.1 Data collection*

116 Weed data were collected at least once in June or July of each year. In the case of
117 multiple weed surveys on a single site, only the observation with the highest number of
118 recorded weed species was used. The collected data were organized into two distinct
119 datasets: one named "ITA" relative to fields located in the eight most important Italian
120 maize cultivation regions (Piemonte, Lombardia, Veneto, Friuli Venezia Giulia, Emilia-
121 Romagna, Lazio, Toscana, and Umbria), and another called "PIE," which was limited to
122 fields situated in the Piemonte region. The ITA dataset comprised data collected on 455
123 fields spread on 170 localities, while the PIE dataset involved 80 fields. For all sites, weed,
124 soil, and climatic data were collected or obtained from regional databases.

125 Due to the large heterogeneity of data included in the ITA dataset, only weed community
126 variables common to all sites and dates were considered, namely total weed species
127 number and the number of monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous species in the fields.

128 The PIE dataset was generated principally from a weed survey program conducted using a
129 common protocol. For this reason, some additional weed community data (such as, weed
130 species density) was included.

131 For both datasets, weed data were obtained from counts carried out on four 0.5 x 0.5 m
132 square areas randomly placed in each plot.

133 Soil properties were also considered in the study for each site; in particular, soil reaction
134 (pH) and texture (relative proportions of sand, silt, and clay) were acquired for both
135 surveys. For the fields comprising dataset PIE, a number of other soil properties, namely
136 organic matter content, total nitrogen, Mg/K ratio, assimilable phosphorus, cation
137 exchange capacity (CEC), and C/N ratio were obtained from the Regione Piemonte soil
138 database. For dataset PIE, some climatic parameters (annual total precipitation, annual
139 mean temperature, and climate classification per Thornthwaite (1948)) were obtained from
140 the Regione Piemonte Agrometeorological network.

141

142 2.2 Data analyses

143 At each site, some indices of weed species diversity were calculated (Table 1). For both
144 datasets, the number of species (*nspec*), number of monocotyledonous (*nmono*) and
145 dicotyledonous species (*ndico*), and the ratio between mono- and dicotyledonous species
146 (*nmon_dic*) were determined. Additional indices relative to each weed species density
147 were calculated for dataset PIE (Table 1). For each site in the survey, both the total
148 number of species and the frequency of species-specific encounters (percentage of sites
149 that included the species *n* over the total number of sites) were determined. For sites in
150 which different maize sowing times were available, species frequency was calculated only
151 for those species with a frequency above 25% (13 species).

152 The relationships between surveyed site weed species and pedo-climatic parameters were
153 determined using three statistical methods. Initially, a series of linear correlations were
154 determined for each pair of weed indices and pedo-climatic parameters, excluding the
155 Thornthwaite climate categorical variable (*Thorn*). The significance of the correlation and
156 Pearson's *r* correlation coefficient were calculated. Afterwards, the collected data were
157 submitted to discriminant analysis to verify, through pedological and climatic parameters
158 (predictors), the potential to classify sites as a function of the weed indices (discriminant
159 variables). These indices, derived from continuous or categorical variables with a high
160 number of categories, were transformed into new categorical variables with four, three, or
161 two modalities, such that each site was classified by four, three, or two categories.

162 Considering the Thornthwaite climate classification (*Thorn*) as the discriminant variable
163 and weed indices as the predictors allowed discriminant analysis performance. This
164 procedure was necessary because the *Thorn* variable was already categorical. Another
165 method, Principal Component Analysis (PCA), was applied only to the ITA dataset to
166 identify variables capable of explaining most of the variability as well as the existence of

167 any hidden structure underlying the variables. PCA was not applied to the PIE dataset
168 because of its relatively limited observations. The correlation, discriminant, and principal
169 component analyses were completed using the correlations, and discriminant and factor
170 functions of statistical software SPSS, version 12.0.

171

172 **3. Results**

173 *3.1 Weed community diversity*

174 The total number of encountered species was similar for both surveys (ITA and PIE) and
175 equaled approximately 120. However, among the species in the ITA dataset, only nine
176 were present on more than 25% of the surveyed sites (Figure 1). Only five species were
177 observed on more than 50% of the sites, and no species were found on more than 72% of
178 the surveyed area. The most widespread species, ranked by diffusion (Table 2), were
179 *Chenopodium album* and *Echinochloa crus-galli* (encounter frequencies above 70%),
180 followed by *Amaranthus retroflexus*, *Solanum nigrum*, and *Persicaria maculosa*. As was
181 true for encountered species, both dataset surveys showed similar trends in weed species
182 frequency. Specifically, only a few species in Emilia Romagna region had high frequency
183 values in dataset ITA, as opposed to Piemonte region where a high diffusion (95%
184 frequency) of *C. album* was observed. In Lombardia a more homogeneous pattern of the
185 most diffused weeds was detected, while in Veneto, and Friuli Venezia Giulia regions the
186 trend were more intermediate in nature (Figure 2).

187 *3.2 Weed infestation and maize sowing time*

188 The large variation in maize growing conditions to which the ITA database referred allowed
189 site comparison by classifying them into three maize sowing time groups: early sowing
190 time (before March 20th), conventional sowing time (between March 20th and April 30th),
191 and delayed sowing time (after April 30th). Infestation levels in fields sown at different times
192 showed higher frequencies of *C. album*, *Abutilon theophrasti*, and *Fallopia convolvulus* at

193 early sowing *versus* conventional sowing time, even though the three species had
194 frequency variations below 10%. Moreover, fields at the early sowing time demonstrated
195 remarkably lower frequency of encounters for *Panicum dichotomiflorum*, *Sorghum*
196 *halepense*, *A. retroflexus*, and *Portulaca oleracea* (Figure 3). In general, observations at
197 early sowing compared to late sowing found a greater presence of the species belonging
198 to the Polygonaceae family (*P. maculosa*, *P. aviculare*, and *F. convolvulus*), in addition to
199 *E. crus-galli*, *C. album*, and *S. nigrum*. In particular, frequency varied 21% for *P. maculosa*
200 at early sowing time compared to delayed sowing time (Figure 3). Observations at
201 conventional sowing compared to late sowing showed an even higher number of species
202 occurring more frequently, including *P. dichotomiflorum*, *S. halepense* and *A. retroflexus*
203 (Figure 3).

204

205 3.3 Weed species and pedo-climatic parameters

206 3.3.1. Linear correlation analysis

207 Linear correlation analysis identified some significant relationships between the
208 pedological parameters *pH*, *sand*, *silt* and *clay* and some weed indices (Table 3). For the
209 ITA dataset, height such correlations were found to be significant; five were identified in
210 the PIE dataset. In ITA dataset, positive significant correlation was found between *sand*
211 and *nmono* and between *sand* and *nmon_dic* ($r = 0.364$, $r = 0.285$, respectively). All the
212 other correlations were negative. In PIE dataset, positive significant correlation was found
213 only between *sand* and *dmono* ($r = 0.324$). In general, even though the correlations found
214 were highly significant in some cases, the Pearson correlation coefficients were rather low,
215 which indicated strong data variability.

216 3.3.2. Discriminant analysis

217 Among the pedo-climatic parameters, discriminant analysis detected some statistical
218 predictors valid for both datasets (Table 4). The ITA dataset discriminant functions using
219 soil property parameters *sand* and *clay* properly classified the sites (60-70% of correct site
220 classification) and predicted based on variables *nmono* and *nmon_dic* which category the
221 sites should have been included. Classification accuracy was quite constant considering
222 that the two weed indices were subdivided in four, three, or two categories. However,
223 when, the indices were subdivided into more than two categories, prediction accuracy was
224 higher for the extreme classes. Indeed, the most accurate classification was observed for
225 the sites with very high or very low numbers of monocotyledonous species. For this
226 reason, the number of final categories was reduced to two. In the case of ITA dataset, a
227 *nmono* threshold value of 1 was set to divide the dataset in the two categories: sites with
228 up to one monocotyledonous species were classified in the first category, while sites with
229 more than one monocotyledonous species were classified in the second category. In these
230 conditions about 67% of sites (304) fall in the first category. The accuracy site
231 classification considering only two categories comprised between 62% and 82% of both
232 datasets.

233 Discriminant analysis in PIE produced the best results when each weed variable was
234 composed of only two categories (i.e. high and low weed densities). Accurate predictions
235 of classes to which the sites pertained was obtained using several variables and
236 predictors: *Sl* and *P. dichotomiflorum* density with *pH*, *dmono* with *sand*, *dmon_dic* with
237 *Pass*, *P. maculosa* density with *Ntot*, *E. crus-galli* density with *Mg/K* and *CEC*, and
238 *Stellaria media* density with *CEC* (Table 4). In the case of the ratio between
239 monocotyledonous and dicotyledonous density (*dmon_dic*), the discriminant analysis
240 correctly classified about 75% of sites in the lowest weed density category (data not
241 shown). For most analyses, the discriminant function included only one pedological
242 parameter as a valid predictor. When this was the case, only one pedological parameter

243 was considered for site classification from one of the two categories in which a weed index
244 was subdivided (i.e. high or low *SI*).

245 Among weed indices, only for *E. crus-galli* density were two predictors, *Mg/K* and *CEC*,
246 used to classify sites. If the average value for *CEC* (13) among all PIE sites is used, then
247 when *Mg/K* is above 6.5, the predicted *E. crus-galli* density was greater than 5 plants m⁻²
248 (Figure 4). For any given site, the farther the pair of *CEC* and *Mg/K* values is from the
249 straight line, the more accurate is the site classification based on *E. crus-galli* density
250 (Figure 4).

251 When used as a separation variable, parameter *Thorn* was reclassified by reducing the
252 initial five categories to two categories into which the various sites could be classified.

253 These were referred to more humid-tending sites (merging the sites falling into the
254 categories B4B1rb3 and B4B2rb3) and less humid-tending sites (merging the sites falling
255 into the categories C1B2sb3, C2B1rb3, C2B2rb3) according to the Thornthwaite climate
256 classification (Thornthwaite, 1948). Using this classification, the weed indices *aden*, *SI*,
257 and *nmon_dic* proved to be good predictors, with, about 60% and 70% of the sites
258 correctly classified into generally more humid areas and generally less humid areas,
259 respectively. In general, in the more humid sites both a higher number of weed species
260 (low *SI* values) and a prevalence of monocotyledonous were observed, in contrast with
261 what was recorded for the less humid sites.

262 3.3.3. Principal Component Analysis

263 The first three components calculated by PCA explained more than 80% of the variation in
264 the original ITA dataset sites. The first component was positively correlated mainly with
265 some weed indices, and in particular, with the number of monocotyledonous species
266 (*nmono*) and with the mono-dicot ratio (*nmono_dic*) (Table 5). The second component
267 correlated mostly with pedological parameters, and specifically as follows with those
268 related to soil texture fraction: high positive correlation with *silt*, lower positive correlation

269 with *clay*, and high negative correlation with *sand*. Figure 5 shows a representation in bi-
270 dimensional space of these first two components, in which the sites were indicated with
271 symbols referring to their actual soil texture (*clay*, *silt*, *sand*, and *loam*).
272 The majority of sites with clay soils were concentrated around near slightly negative values
273 of the first component, indicating that in these sites the monocotyledonous species were
274 less abundant, both in absolute and relative terms to the dicotyledonous species number.
275 The cloud formed by sites with other soil textures (*silt*, *sand*, and *loam*) showed a more
276 spread arrangement, moving from negative to positive values of first component. This
277 suggests that in sites with soil different from clay, weed indices are basically not influenced
278 by soil texture.

279

280 4. Discussion

281 4.1 Weed community diversity

282 Study results made it possible to characterize the weed vegetation of maize fields in the
283 main Italian areas of crop cultivation, and in detail for the Piemonte region. The 120 total
284 detected weed species fell within the range of 75-124 species found in previous studies for
285 other summer crops (Frick and Thomas, 1992; Zanin et al., 1997; Viggiani et al., 1998).
286 Since both the entire area and Piemonte region surveys recorded a similar number of
287 species, this parameter seemed unrelated to survey area size. Despite the high
288 simplification in Italian maize cropping systems currently, the number of observed weed
289 species was great. A number of factors may contribute to this effect: high agronomic
290 practice variation, even in maize mono-cropping, farm fragmentation, and pedological and
291 climatic conditions that vary at both the farm and territory levels. A study conducted in
292 France by Fried et al. (2008) showed weed species diversity and composition were
293 particularly influenced by crop type and the crop preceding maize in the rotation.

294 Only some of the many species found were widespread. Indeed, only five weed species
295 were recorded in more than 50% of the surveyed sites. Among these, only one grass weed
296 was highly diffused (*E. crus-galli*); it is common to crop fields worldwide because of its
297 ability to germinate and flower in different environmental conditions (Keeley and Thullen,
298 1989). This study found that grass weeds constituted one-third of the nine weed species
299 present on more than 25% of the surveyed sites, which agreed with the prevalence of
300 broad-leaved species seeds discussed in a previous study undertaken on the seedbank of
301 an Italian field after five years of maize cultivation (Bàrberi et al., 1998). Many experiments
302 associate high grass weed counts with reduced input cultivation systems, while broad-
303 leaved species predominate in conventional plowed systems (Froud-Williams et al., 1983;
304 Mohler, 1993; Bàrberi et al., 1998). Italian maize fields are typically plowed, which may
305 explain broad-leaved weed preponderance; another explanation may be their higher seed
306 longevity and persistence in soil compared to that of grass weeds (Burnside et al., 1996).
307 For broad-leaved species, this survey confirmed the findings of previous studies (Viggiani
308 et al., 1998) as it showed the ubiquitous characteristic of *C. album*. In fact, this species
309 was the most dispersed probably due to its abundant seed production and longevity
310 (Clements et al., 1996). In fact, *C. album* is one of the five most widespread weeds
311 globally, the seventh most abundant in maize, and one of the most troublesome weeds in
312 the U.S. corn belt (Forcella et al., 1992; Clements et al., 1996).

313 *4.2. Weed infestation and maize sowing time*

314 Maize sowing time showed it had an important effect on weed community composition—
315 enhancing or reducing the presence of different species. In this study, early sowing of
316 maize is a practice widely used in northern Italy. This study detected a different weed
317 community composition depending on maize sowing time as other studies have
318 demonstrated (Otto et al., 2009). At early sowing time some species were encountered

319 more frequently than others. *E. crus-galli* was one such species, probably because it is
320 able to emerge rapidly, even at temperatures characteristic of early March (about 15 °C)
321 (Keeley and Thullen, 1989). The same holds for *F. convolvulus* and other Polygonaceae
322 species, for which low temperatures induce high emergence flushes (Metzger, 1992).

323 4.3. Weed species and pedo-climatic parameters

324 The results of the study highlighted some relationships among the weed indices and pedo-
325 climatic parameters of the surveyed sites, as observed in previous studies (Andreasen et
326 al., 1991; Cimalová and Lososová, 2009). However, the correlations described in those
327 studies were generally moderate and did not allow clarification of the precise relationships
328 among the parameters. It is, nevertheless, possible to hypothesize that interactions may
329 be hidden by agronomic practice effects, for which information was not available. Other
330 studies have demonstrated effects from certain agronomic practices, such as soil
331 fertilization or weed community tillage (Andersson and Milberg, 1998; Hyvönen and
332 Salonen, 2002; Cimalová and Lososová, 2009).

333 The few significant relationships found among some macroscopic weed indices and pedo-
334 climatic parameters (i.e., mono/dicot ratio and soil texture, Simpson indices and climatic
335 classification) have importance. For example, soil reaction was proved to affect weed
336 community composition either directly or indirectly by changing the availability of different
337 soil nutrients (Buchanan et al., 1975; Dieleman et al., 2000). Correlation analysis results
338 indicated that a higher and a lower number of monocots were found in sand and clay soils,
339 respectively. In addition, a lower mono/dicots ratio was found in soils dealing with a higher
340 pH value.

341 Both PCA and discriminant analysis also confirmed the existence of relationships among
342 the weed indices and some pedo-climatic traits. For example, discriminant analysis
343 provided a good classification of the surveyed sites on the basis of weed indices using soil

344 parameters as predictor variables. In particular, soil texture, *CEC*, as well as pH and some
345 nutrient contents, resulted significant predicting many weed indices. Furthermore,
346 discriminant analysis successfully classified the sites based on the density of *E. crus-galli*
347 using two soil parameters, namely *Mg/K* and *CEC*.
348 Finally, mean annual precipitation and mean annual temperature affected weed species
349 composition as observed in previous studies, even though they appear not to be the main
350 source of weed community variation (Cimalová and Lososová, 2009).

351 *4.4 Conclusions*

352 In general, many factors impact weed community dynamics; in particular, management
353 practices, soil tillage, and crop type play important roles. This study highlighted not only
354 the diversity of weed species in Italian maize, but also the importance of pedological and
355 climatic factor contributions to weed species variation. Study analyses did establish some
356 relationships between certain weed indices and pedo-climatic parameters, however, it also
357 demonstrated the particular difficulty associated with distinguishing single factor effects.
358 Weed community variation seems to result from an interaction of different cropping and
359 pedo-climatic aspects. Further studies are needed to better clarify these relationships as
360 this information may improve the predictability of weed flora composition based on the
361 environmental characteristics of a certain area.

362 **References**

363

364 Albrecht, H., 2003. Suitability of arable weeds as indicator organisms to evaluate species
365 conservation effects of management in agricultural ecosystems. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*
366 98, 201-211.

367 Albrecht, H., Auerswald, K., 2003. Arable weed seedbanks and their relation to soil
368 properties. *Aspects Appl. Biol.* 69, 11-20.

369 Andersson, T.N., Milberg, P., 1998. Weed flora and the relative importance of site, crop,
370 crop rotation, and nitrogen. *Weed Sci.* 46, 30-38.

371 Andreasen, C., Streibig, J.C., Haas, H., 1991. Soil properties affecting the distribution of
372 37 weed species in Danish fields. *Weed Res.* 31, 181-187.

373 Bàrberi, P., Cozzani, A., Macchia, M., Bonari, E., 1998. Size and composition of the weed
374 seedbank under different management systems for continuous maize cropping. *Weed*
375 *Res.* 38, 319-334.

376 Buchanan, G.A., Hoveland, C.S., Harris, M.C., 1975. Response of weeds to soil pH. *Weed*
377 *Sci.* 23, 473-477.

378 Buhler, D.D., 1995. Influence of tillage systems on weed population dynamics and
379 management in corn and soybean in the Central USA. *Crop Sci.* 35, 1247-1258.

380 Burnside, O.C., Wilson, R.G., Weisberg, S., Hubbard, K.G., 1996. Seed longevity of 41
381 weed species buried 17 years in Eastern and Western Nebraska. *Weed Sci.* 44, 74-86.

382 Cimalová, Š., Lososová, Z., 2009. Arable weed vegetation of the Northeastern part of the
383 Czech Republic: effects of environmental factors on species composition. *Plant Ecol.* 203,
384 45-57.

385 Clements, D.R., Benott, D.L., Murphy, S.D., Swanton, C.J., 1996. Tillage effects on weed
386 seed return and seedbank composition. *Weed Sci.* 44, 314-322.

387 Davis, A.S., Renner, K.A., Gross, K.L., 2005. Weed seedbank and community shifts in a
388 long-term cropping systems experiment. *Weed Sci.* 53, 296-306.

389 Dieleman, A.J., Mortensen, D.A., Buhler, D.D., Ferguson, R.B., 2000. Identifying
390 associations among site properties and weed species abundance. II. Hypothesis
391 generation. *Weed Sci.* 48, 576-587.

392 Forcella, F., Wilson, R.G., Renner, K.A., Dekker, J., Harvey, R.G., Alm, D.A., Buhler, D.D.,
393 Cardina, J., 1992. Weed seedbanks of the U.S. corn belt: magnitude, variation,
394 emergence, and application. *Weed Sci.* 40, 636-644.

395 Frick, B.L., Thomas, A.G., 1992. Weed surveys in different tillage systems in southwestern
396 Ontario field crops. *Can. J. Plant Sci.* 72, 1337-1347.

397 Fried, G., Norton, L.R., Reboud, X., 2008. Environmental and management factors
398 determining weed species composition and diversity in France. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.*
399 128, 68-76.

400 Froud-Williams, R.J., Drennan, D.S.H., Chancellor, R.J., 1983. Influence of cultivation
401 regime on weed floras of arable cropping systems. *J. Appl. Ecol.* 20, 187-197.

402 Heisel, T., Ersbøll, A.K., Andreasen, C., 1999. Weed mapping with co-kriging using soil
403 properties. *Precis. Agric.* 1, 39-52-52.

404 Holzner, W., 1978. Weed species and weed communities. *Vegetatio* 38, 13-20.

405 Hyvönen, T., Salonen, J., 2002. Weed species diversity and community composition in
406 cropping practices at two intensity levels: a six-year experiment. *Plant Ecol.* 159, 73-81.

407 ISTAT, 2014. Italia in cifre. ISTAT, Roma. [http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-](http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-agricoltura.pdf)
408 [agricoltura.pdf](http://www.istat.it/it/files/2014/10/14-agricoltura.pdf) (read 12th December 2014).

409 Keeley, P.E., Thullen, R.J., 1989. Influence of planting date on growth of Barnyardgrass
410 (*Echinochloa crus-galli*). *Weed Sci.* 37, 557-561.

411 Kropff, M.J., Weaver, S.E., Smits, M.A., 1992. Use of ecophysiological models for crop-
412 weed interference: relations amongst weed density, relative time of weed emergence,
413 relative leaf area, and yield loss. *Weed Sci.* 40, 296-301.

414 Légère, A., Stevenson, F.C., Benoit, D.L., 2005. Diversity and assembly of weed
415 communities: contrasting responses across cropping systems. *Weed Res.* 45, 303-315.

416 Metzger, J.D., 1992. Physiological basis of achene dormancy in *Polygonum convolvulus*
417 (*Polygonaceae*). *Am. J. Bot.* 79.

418 Miyazawa, K.A.E., Tsuji, H., Yamagata, M., Nakano, H., Nakamoto, T., 2004. Response of
419 weed flora to combinations of reduced tillage, biocide application and fertilization practices
420 in a 3-year crop rotation. *Weed Biol. Manage.* 4, 24-34.

421 Mohler, C.L., 1993. A model of the effects of tillage on emergence of weed seedlings.
422 *Ecol. Appl.* 3, 53-73.

423 Murphy, S.D., Clements, D.R., Belaoussoff, S., Kevan, P.G., Swanton, C.J., 2006.
424 Promotion of weed species diversity and reduction of weed seedbanks with conservation
425 tillage and crop rotation. *Weed Sci.* 54, 69-77.

426 Nordmeyer, H., Dunker, M., 1999. Variable weed densities and soil properties in a weed
427 mapping concept for patchy weed control. In: Stafford, J.V. (Ed.), *Proceedings of the 2nd*
428 *European Conference on Precision Agriculture*. Sheffield Academic Press, Odense,
429 Denmark, pp. 453-462.

430 Otto, S., Masin, R., Casari, G., Zanin, G., 2009. Weed-corn competition parameters in late-
431 winter sowing in Northern Italy. *Weed Sci.* 57, 194-201.

432 Pyšek, P., Jarošík, V., Kropáč, Z., Chytrý, M., Wild, J., Tichý, L., 2005. Effects of abiotic
433 factors on species richness and cover in Central European weed communities. *Agric.*
434 *Ecosyst. Environ.* 109, 1-8.

435 Saavedra, M., Garcia-Torres, L., Hernandez-Bermejo, E., Hidalgo, B., 1990. Influence of
436 environmental factors on the weed flora in crops in the Guadalquivir Valley. *Weed Res.* 30,
437 363-374.

438 Smith, R.G., 2006. Timing of tillage is an important filter on the assembly of weed
439 communities. *Weed Sci.* 54, 705-712.

440 Smith, R.G., Gross, K.L., 2006. Weed community and corn yield variability in diverse
441 management systems. *Weed Sci.* 54, 106-113.

442 Suárez, S.A., de la Fuente, E.B., Ghera, C.M., León, R.J.C., 2001. Weed community as
443 an indicator of summer crop yield and site quality. *Agron. J.* 93, 524-530.

444 Thornthwaite, C.W., 1948. An approach toward a rational classification of climate. *Geogr.*
445 *Rev.* 38, 55-94.

446 Viggiani, P., Baldoni, G., Montemurro, P., 1998. Indagine sulla flora infestante del
447 pomodoro da industria in alcuni ambienti tipici italiani. In: Tei, F. (Ed.), *Il controllo della*
448 *flora infestante nelle colture orticole. XI convegno biennali SIRFI, Bari*, pp. 241-251.

449 Walter, A.M., Christensen, S., Simmelsgaard, S.E., 2002. Spatial correlation between
450 weed species densities and soil properties. *Weed Res.* 42, 26-38.

451 Zanin, G., 2000. Caratteristiche ed evoluzione della flora infestante del mais. *L'Informatore*
452 *Agrario* 23, 79.

453 Zanin, G., Mosca, G., Catizone, P., 1988. La vegetazione infestante del mais nella pianura
454 padano-veneta: risultati di un'indagine: nota¹ aspetti qualitativi. *L'Informatore Agrario* 44,
455 195-205.

456 Zanin, G., Mosca, G., Catizone, P., 1992. A profile of the potential flora in maize fields of
457 the Po Valley. *Weed Res.* 32, 407-418.

458 Zanin, G., Otto, S., Riello, L., Borin, M., 1997. Ecological interpretation of weed flora
459 dynamics under different tillage systems. *Agric. Ecosyst. Environ.* 66, 177-188.

Figure
[Click here to download Figure: Fig1.pdf](#)

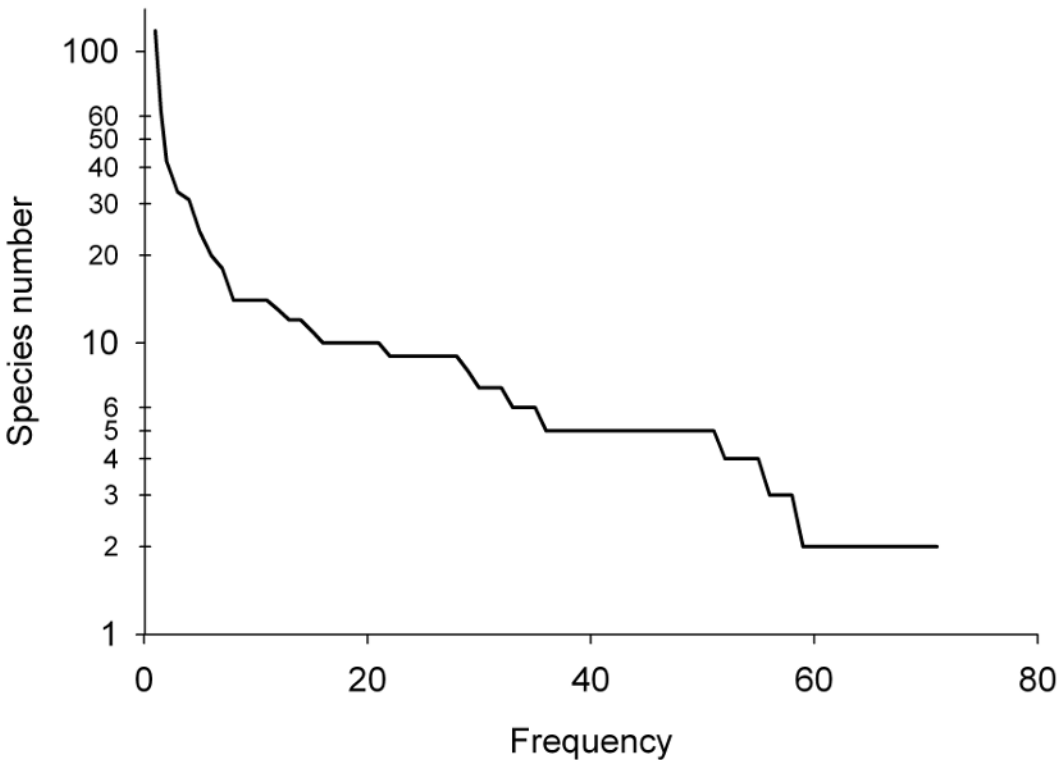


Figure
[Click here to download Figure: fig2.pdf](#)

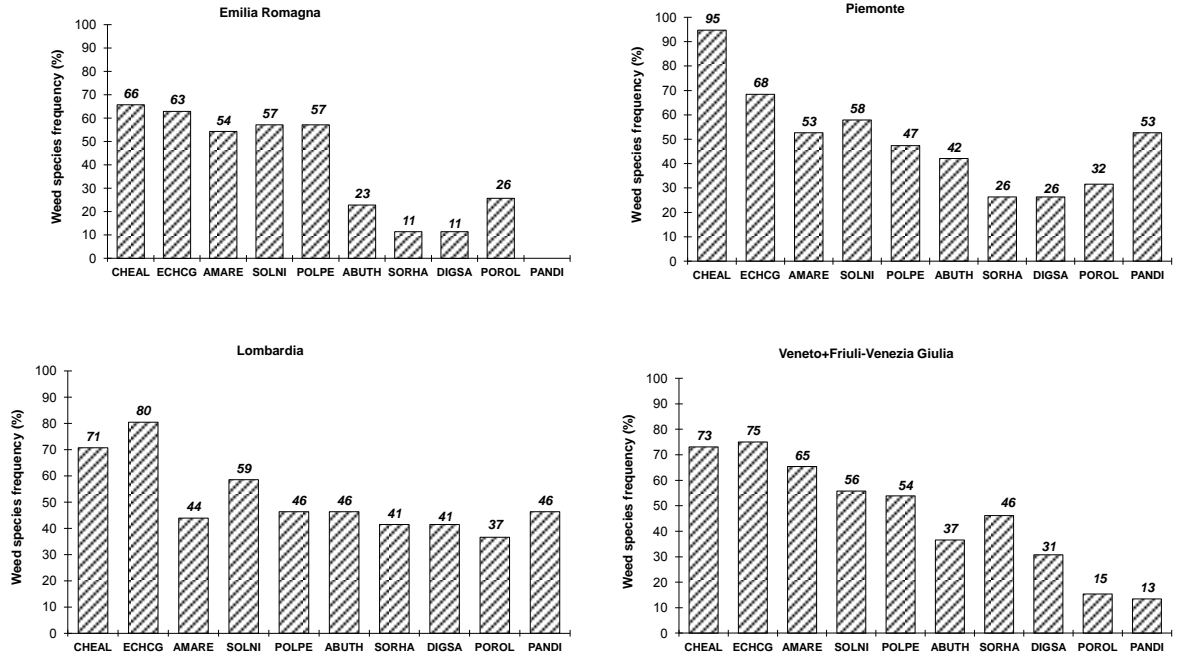


Figure 3
[Click here to download Figure: fig3_revised.pdf](#)

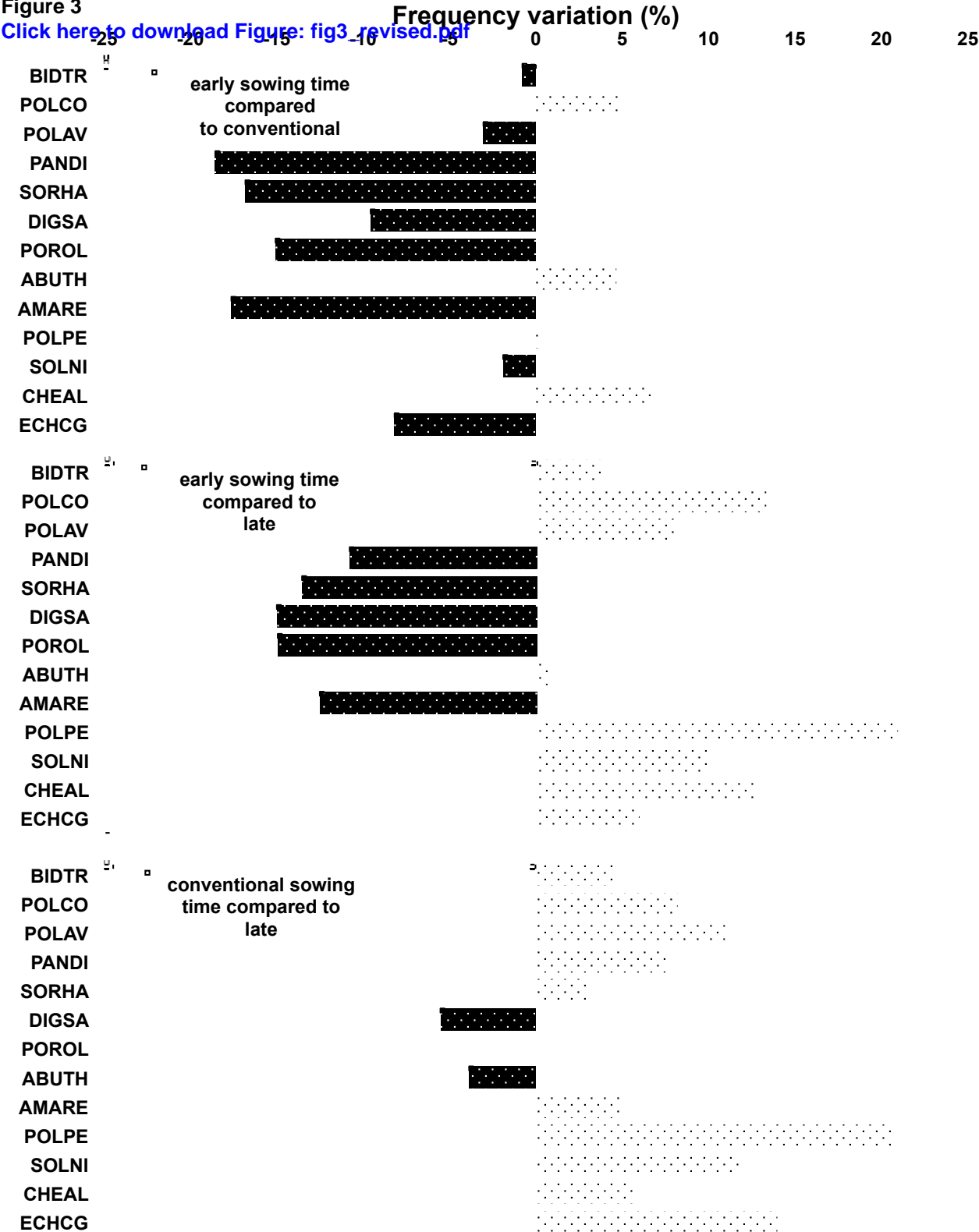


Figure
[Click here to download Figure: fig4.pdf](#)

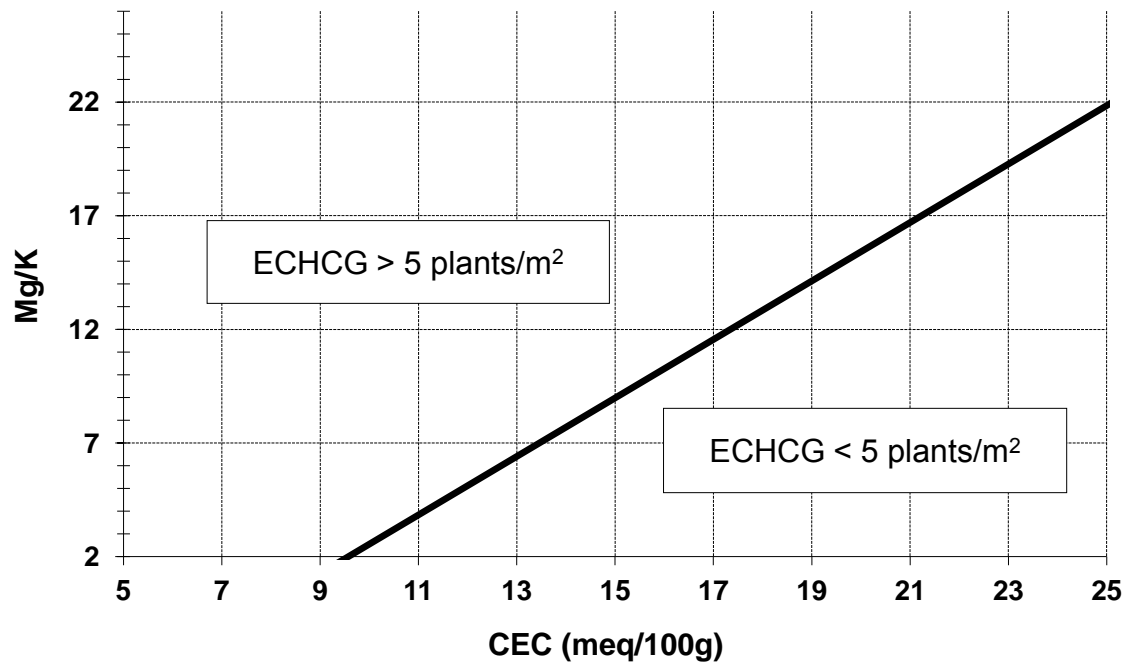


Figure 5
[Click here to download Figure: Fig.5_rev.pdf](#)

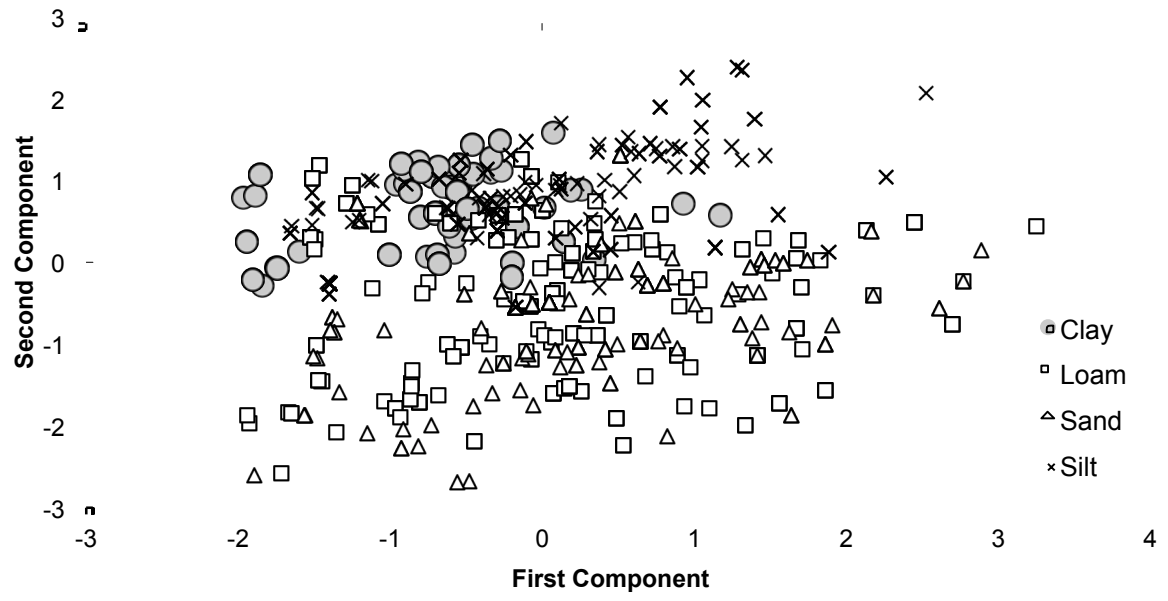


Table 1. Weed, pedological, and climatic variables considered in the study.

variables	code	Unit of measurement	dataset		Calculation method ⁽¹⁾
			ITA	PIE	
Weed indices					
Total weed density	<i>dentot</i>	plants/m ²		X	
Number of weed species	<i>nspec</i>	n ^a	X	X	
Mean weed density of the present species	<i>aden</i>	plants/m ²		X	$dentot / nspec$
Weed density of the single species	n_i	plants/m ²		X	
Number of species contributing for more than 5% and 10%	<i>con5</i> <i>con10</i>	n		X	$con5 = \sum i; \text{ for } n_i \geq (0.05 \cdot dentot)$ $con10 = \sum i; \text{ for } n_i \geq (0.10 \cdot dentot)$
Simpson index	<i>SI</i>	ad ^b		X	$SI = \sum (n_i / dentot)$
Shannon index	<i>H'</i>	ad		X	$H' = -\sum [(n_i / dentot) \cdot \ln(n_i / dentot)]$
Numbers of MONOCOT species	<i>nmono</i>	n	X	X	
Numbers of DICOT species	<i>ndico</i>	n	X	X	
Number of MONCOT/DICOT species ratio	<i>nmon_dic</i>	ad	X	X	$nmono / ndico$
Total MONOCOT density	<i>dmono</i>	plants/m ²		X	
Total DICOT density	<i>ddico</i>	plants/m ²		X	
MONOCOT/DICOT density ratio	<i>dmon_dic</i>	ad		X	$dmono / ddico$
Pedological indices					
Sand	<i>sand</i>	%	X	X	
Silt	<i>silt</i>	%	X	X	
Clay	<i>clay</i>	%	X	X	
pH	<i>pH</i>		X	X	
Organic matter content	<i>SO</i>	%		X	
Total nitrogen	<i>Ntot</i>	%		X	
Mg/K ratio	<i>Mg/K</i>	ad		X	
Assimilable phosphorous	<i>Pass</i>	ppm		X	
Cation exchange capacity	<i>CEC</i>	meq/100g		X	
Carbon/Nitrogen ratio	<i>C/N</i>	ad		X	
Climatic indices					
Total annual precipitation	<i>Ptot</i>	mm		X	
Anuual mean temperature	<i>Tavg</i>	°C		X	
Thornthwaite climatic classification	<i>Thorn</i>	ad		X	

^an indicates number of species; ^bad indicates adimensional

Table 2. Frequency of encounters for the most diffused weed species across all surveyed sites (site number in which a weed species was present relative to total surveyed sites).

Species	Encounter frequency (%)
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	71.6
<i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i>	71.6
<i>Amaranthus retroflexus</i>	58.6
<i>Solanum nigrum</i>	55.6
<i>Persicaria maculosa</i>	50.0
<i>Abutilon theophrasti</i>	35.5
<i>Sorghum halepense</i>	32.5
<i>Digitaria sanguinalis</i>	29.6
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i>	28.4
<i>Panicum dichotomiflorum</i>	21.3
<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i>	15.4
<i>Polygonum aviculare</i>	14.8
<i>Setaria glauca</i>	12.4
<i>Bidens tripartita</i>	11.8
<i>Convolvulus arvensis</i>	7.7

1 Table 3. Significance values (P) and Pearson correlation coefficients (r) (in brackets), of
 2 the relationships among some pedological parameters and weed indices for the ITA and
 3 PIE datasets (P≤0.05).

4
 5

	<i>ITA</i>		<i>PIE</i>	
	<i>nmono</i>	<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>dmono</i>	<i>dmon_dic</i>
<i>pH</i>	<0.001 (-0.299)	<0.001 (-0.330)	0.273 (-0.124)	0.001 (-0.352)
<i>sand</i>	<0.001 (0.364)	<0.001 (0.285)	0.003 (0.324)	0.086 (0.193)
<i>silt</i>	<0.001 (-0.150)	0.018 (-0.090)	0.045 (-0.224)	0.570 (-0.065)
<i>clay</i>	<0.001 (-0.364)	<0.001 (-0.303)	0.006 (-0.303)	0.025 (-0.251)

6 Table 4. Pedo-climatic variables for which significant relationships were found according to
 7 discriminant analysis and threshold value dividing the two categories.

8

Separation variables	Estimators	Percentage of correct classification ^a	Threshold value ^b
ITA dataset			
<i>nmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	61.9	1
<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>clay</i>	69.0	25
PIE dataset			
<i>SI</i>	<i>pH</i>	71.4	0.25
<i>dmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	67.9	70
<i>dmon_dic</i>	<i>Pass</i>	64.3	50
<i>POLPE density</i>	<i>Ntot</i>	64.3	5
<i>ECHCG density</i>	<i>Mg/K; CEC</i>	75.0	5
<i>STEME density</i>	<i>CEC</i>	82.0	5
<i>PANDI density</i>	<i>pH</i>	64.3	5
<i>Thorn</i>	<i>aden, SI, nmondic</i>	76.0	

9 ^aPercentage of sites used for validation (sites not used to build the discriminant function) and
 10 percentage correctly classified.

11 ^bValues equal or below threshold belonged to category 1, values above belonged to category 2.

Table 5. Component matrix of the first two principal components relative to surveyed sites (pedological and weed indices) and their respective loads.

Variables	Component	
	1	2
<i>pH</i>	-0.465	0.425
<i>sand</i>	0.280	-0.942
<i>silt</i>	0.108	0.807
<i>clay</i>	0.470	0.589
<i>nspec</i>	0.204	-0.033
<i>nmono</i>	0.863	-0.122
<i>ndico</i>	-0.249	0.014
<i>nmon_dic</i>	0.871	-0.053