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

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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 m<sup>2</sup>) 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 20<sup>th</sup>), conventional sowing time (between March 20<sup>th</sup> and April 30<sup>th</sup>),  
191 and delayed sowing time (after April 30<sup>th</sup>). 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<sup>-2</sup>  
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.

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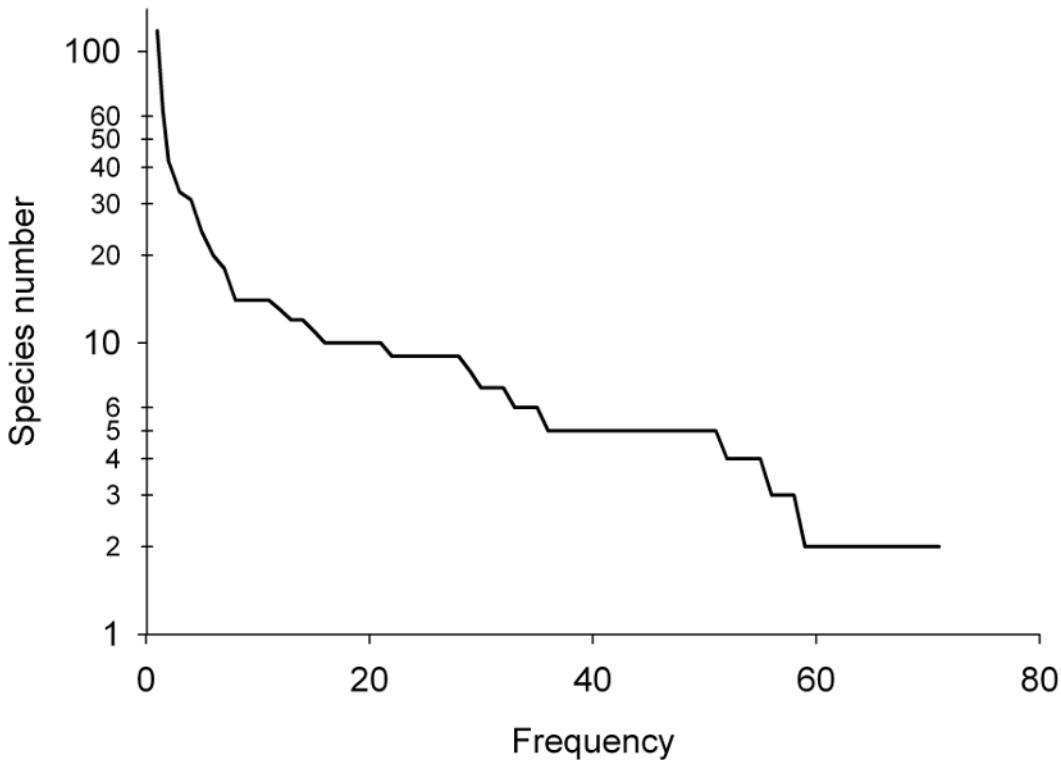
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# Figure

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**Figure**  
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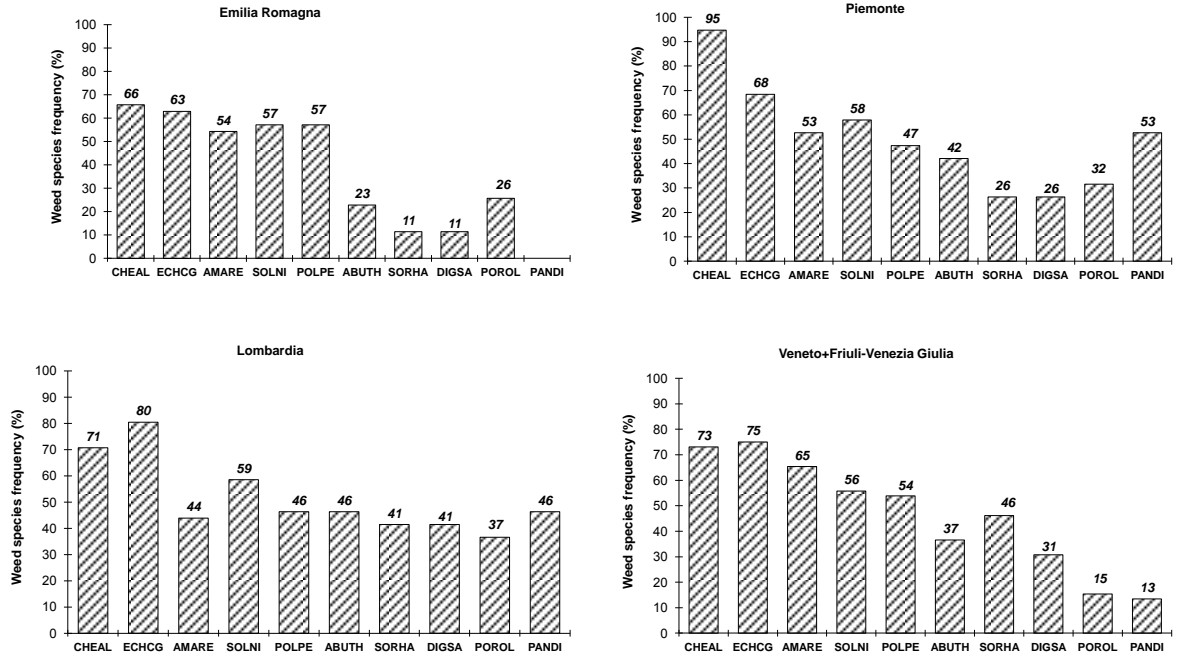


Figure 3  
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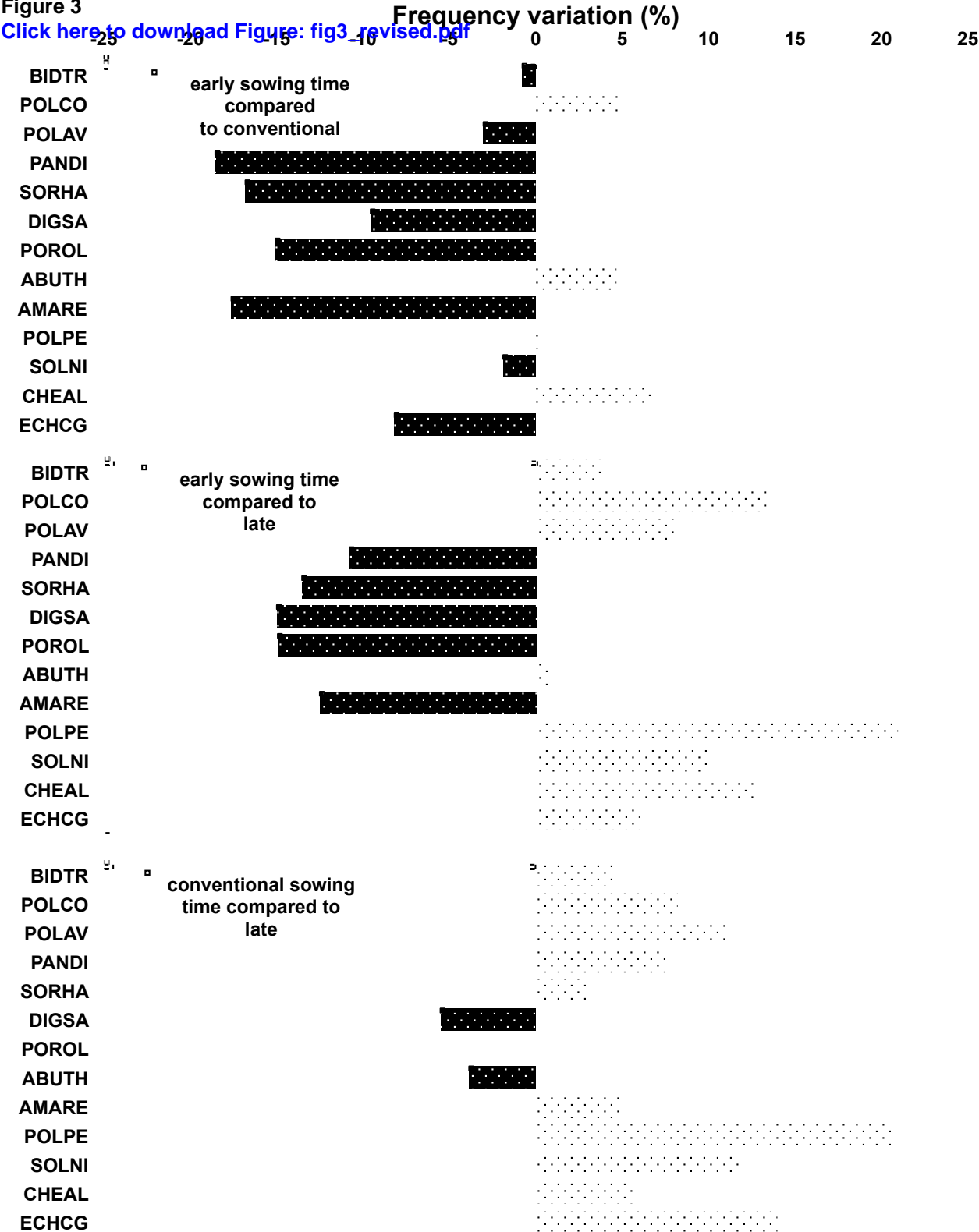




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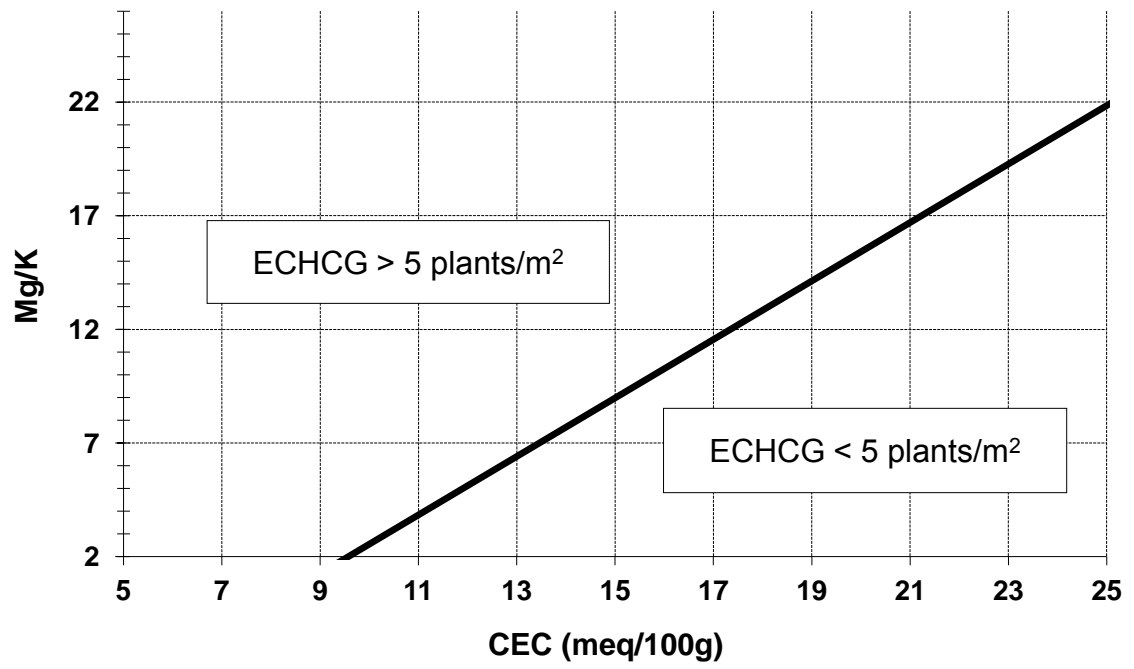


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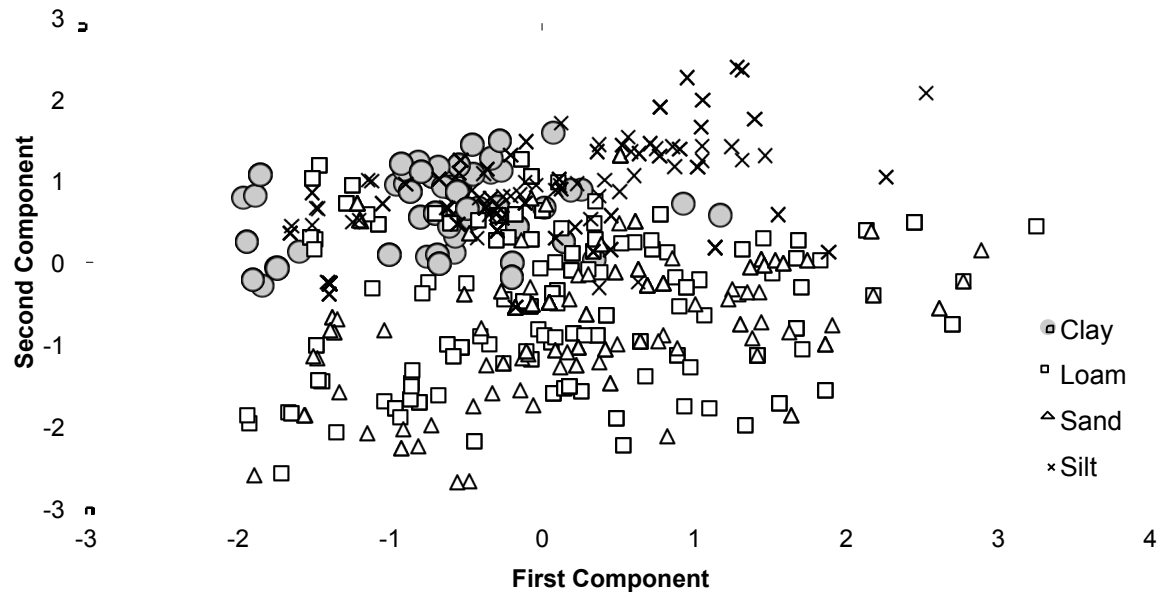


Table 1. Weed, pedological, and climatic variables considered in the study.

variables	code	Unit of measurement	dataset		Calculation method <sup>(1)</sup>
			ITA	PIE	
<b>Weed indices</b>					
Total weed density	<i>dentot</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	
Number of weed species	<i>nspec</i>	n <sup>a</sup>	X	X	
Mean weed density of the present species	<i>aden</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	$dentot / nspec$
Weed density of the single species	$n_i$	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		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 <sup>b</sup>		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 <sup>2</sup>		X	
Total DICOT density	<i>ddico</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	
MONOCOT/DICOT density ratio	<i>dmon_dic</i>	ad		X	$dmono / ddico$
<b>Pedological indices</b>					
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	
<b>Climatic indices</b>					
Total annual precipitation	<i>Ptot</i>	mm		X	
Anuual mean temperature	<i>Tavg</i>	°C		X	
Thornthwaite climatic classification	<i>Thorn</i>	ad		X	

<sup>a</sup>n indicates number of species; <sup>b</sup>ad 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 <sup>a</sup>	Threshold value <sup>b</sup>
<b>ITA dataset</b>			
<i>nmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	61.9	1
<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>clay</i>	69.0	25
<b>PIE dataset</b>			
<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 <sup>a</sup>Percentage of sites used for validation (sites not used to build the discriminant function) and  
 10 percentage correctly classified.

11 <sup>b</sup>Values 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.

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Component</b>	
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
<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**

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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 m<sup>2</sup>) 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 20<sup>th</sup>), conventional sowing time (between March 20<sup>th</sup> and April 30<sup>th</sup>),  
191 and delayed sowing time (after April 30<sup>th</sup>). 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<sup>-2</sup>  
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.

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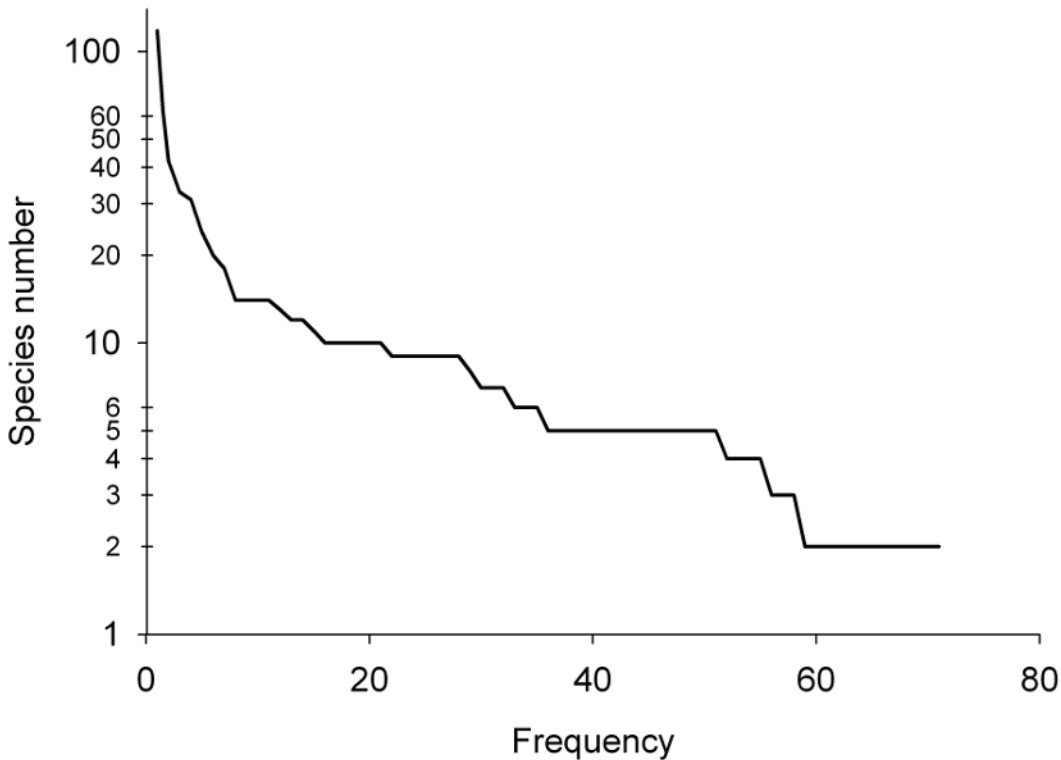
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# Figure

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**Figure**  
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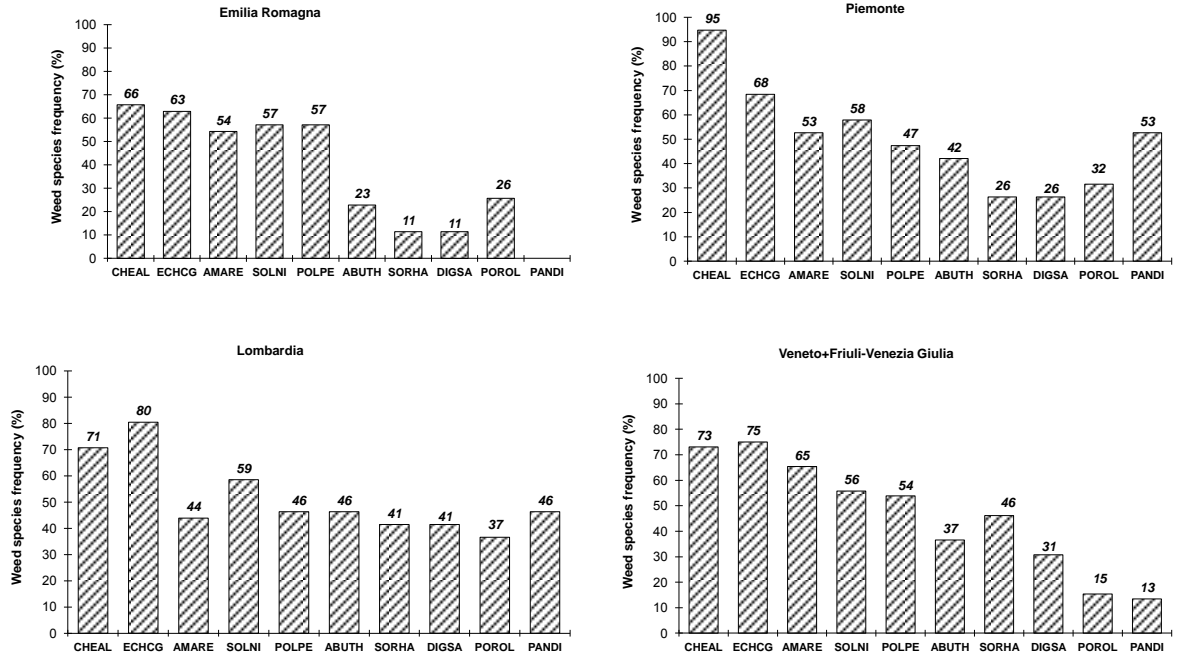


Figure 3  
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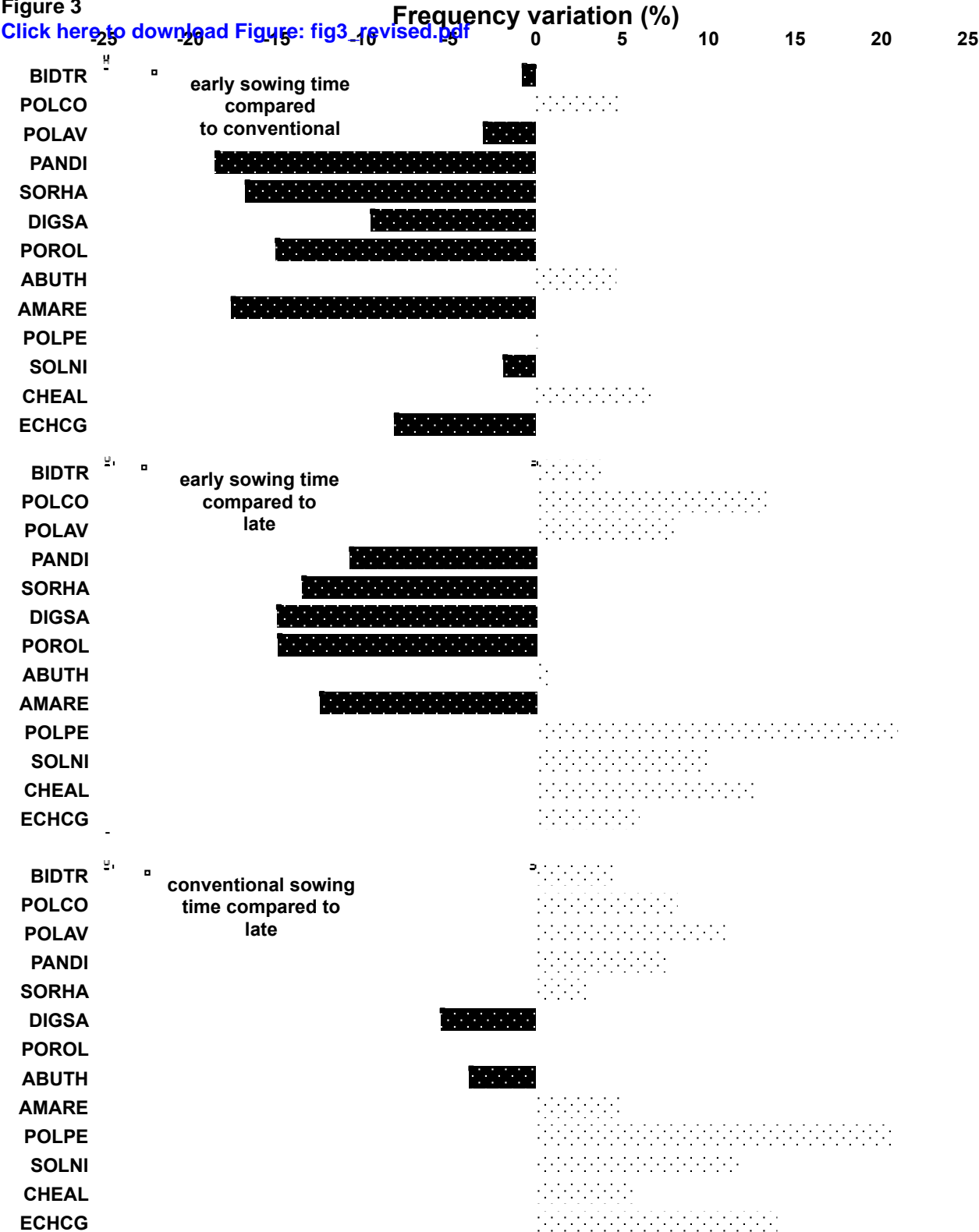


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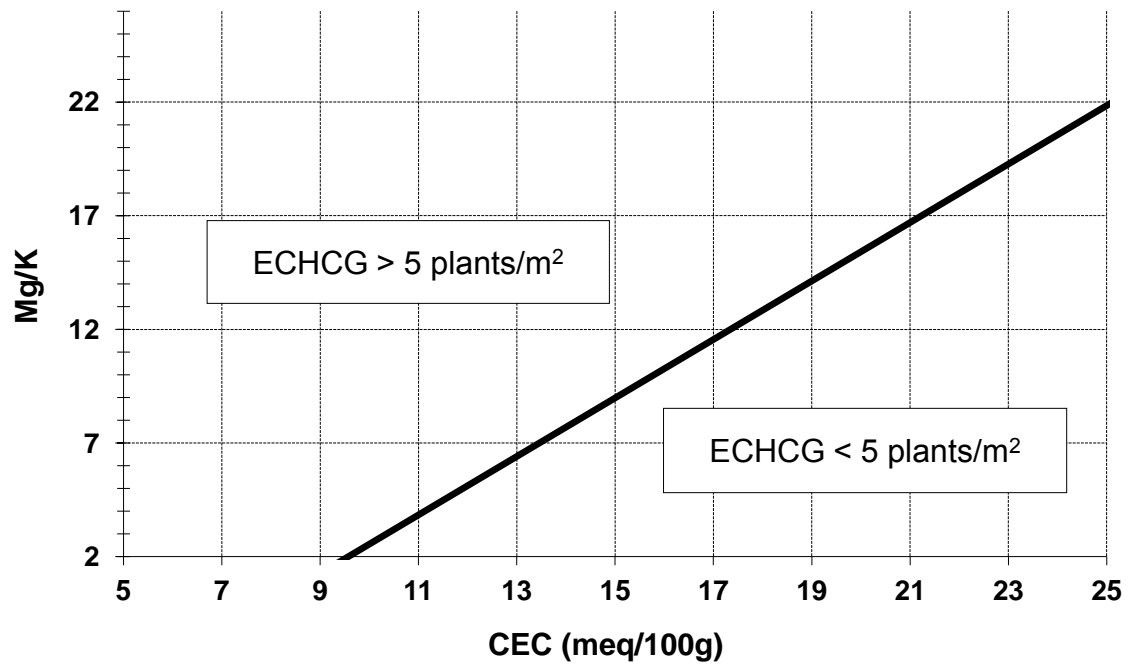


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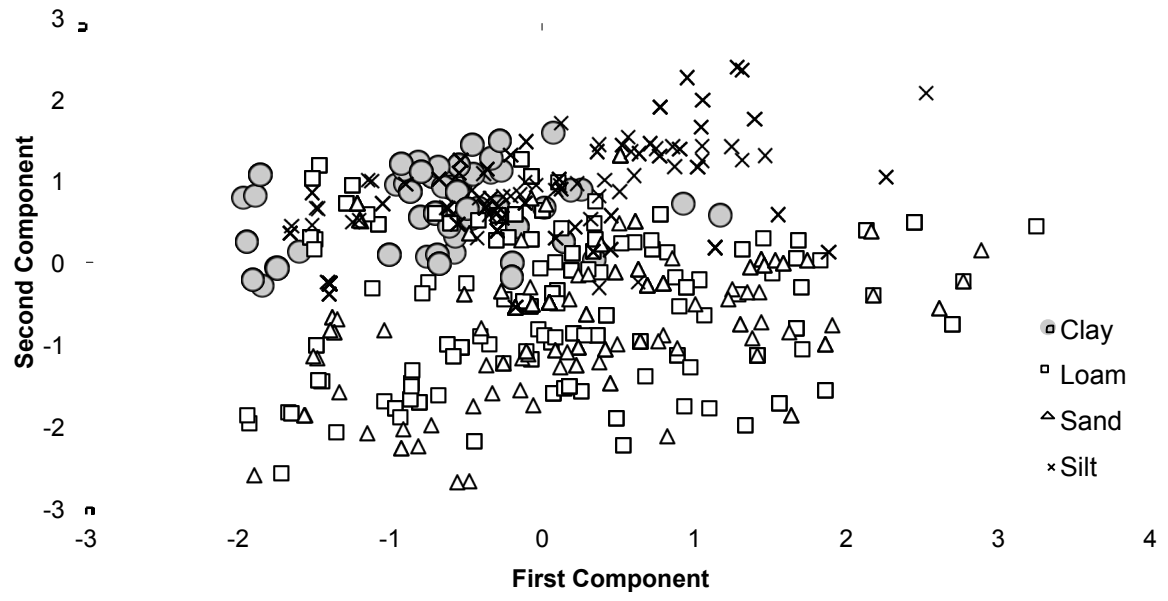


Table 1. Weed, pedological, and climatic variables considered in the study.

variables	code	Unit of measurement	dataset		Calculation method <sup>(1)</sup>
			ITA	PIE	
<b>Weed indices</b>					
Total weed density	<i>dentot</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	
Number of weed species	<i>nspec</i>	n <sup>a</sup>	X	X	
Mean weed density of the present species	<i>aden</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	$dentot / nspec$
Weed density of the single species	$n_i$	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		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 <sup>b</sup>		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 <sup>2</sup>		X	
Total DICOT density	<i>ddico</i>	plants/m <sup>2</sup>		X	
MONOCOT/DICOT density ratio	<i>dmon_dic</i>	ad		X	$dmono / ddico$
<b>Pedological indices</b>					
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	
<b>Climatic indices</b>					
Total annual precipitation	<i>Ptot</i>	mm		X	
Anuual mean temperature	<i>Tavg</i>	°C		X	
Thornthwaite climatic classification	<i>Thorn</i>	ad		X	



<sup>a</sup>n indicates number of species; <sup>b</sup>ad 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).

<b>Species</b>	<b>Encounter frequency (%)</b>
<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 <sup>a</sup>	Threshold value <sup>b</sup>
<b>ITA dataset</b>			
<i>nmono</i>	<i>sand</i>	61.9	1
<i>nmon_dic</i>	<i>clay</i>	69.0	25
<b>PIE dataset</b>			
<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 <sup>a</sup>Percentage of sites used for validation (sites not used to build the discriminant function) and  
 10 percentage correctly classified.

11 <sup>b</sup>Values 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.

<b>Variables</b>	<b>Component</b>	
	<b>1</b>	<b>2</b>
<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