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2014 Texas Rice Production Guidelines



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2014 Texas Rice Production Guidelines

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These guidelines are based on rice research conducted by personnel located at the Texas A&M AgriLife Research Center at Beaumont and the David R. Wintermann Rice Research Station at Eagle Lake, and with Texas A&M AgriLife Extension Service. This publication, with distribution by County Extension Agents, was undertaken to provide rice farmers and landowners with the latest production and economic information for the Texas rice crop.

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Copies can be downloaded from:

https://beaumont.tamu.edu/eLibrary/Bulletins/2014_Rice_Production_Guidelines.pdf

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TRRF Proposals Funded in 2012

Project Title: Development of High Yielding, Blast Resistant and Herbicide Tolerant Conventional Long Grain Rice Cultivars for Texas

Project Investigator: Rodante Tabien

Amount: \$121,274

Objectives: The main objective of the project is to develop high yielding elite lines with blast resistance, superior grain quality, and herbicide tolerance. The specific objectives of the project are to generate crosses using breeding lines developed by the program with selected germplasm, and advance elite populations for selection, focusing on high yield, herbicide tolerance and blast resistance, to establish nurseries composed of segregating lines/populations, select desirable phenotypes and evaluate elite lines in various yield trials and to evaluate the degree of tolerance of selected lines to Liberty herbicide application and identify new donors for resistance to herbicide and other traits for abiotic stress.

Project Title: Development of High Yielding Seedling Establishment Cold Tolerant Conventional Rice Cultivars for Texas

Project Investigator: Rodante Tabien

Amount: \$52,289

Objectives: The main objective of the project is to develop high yielding seedling establishment cold tolerant lines with superior grain quality. Specifically, it aims to establish screening nurseries composed of selected known donors for cold tolerance and lines generated by the state breeding project, and to identify the best donors for these traits, to transfer the seedling cold tolerant traits to released high yielding cultivars and elite lines developed by the state breeding project through backcrossing, to develop crosses and to advance populations, and to characterize the germination and degree of seedling cold tolerance of selected cold tolerant lines identified after two years of screening.

Project Title: Establishment of Puerto Rico Winter Nursery for Generation Advance and Seed Increase of Selected Rice Genotypes

Project Investigator: Rodante Tabien,

Amount: \$43,897

Objectives: To establish a winter nursery at Lajas, Puerto Rico composed of 6,000 lines for generation advancement, selection, purification and/or seed increase

Project Title: Rice Varietal Evaluation and Nutrient Management Improvement for Texas Production Practices.

Project Investigator: Fugen Dou, Lee Tarpley, and Garry McCauley

Amount: \$51,000

Objectives: Conduct research at two locations upon a set of potential and current conventional varieties and hybrids for use in Texas rice production. Specifically, 1) Determine varietal evaluation and optimal N fertilizer rate and timing for potential high yielding varieties planted on sandy loam soil and clay soil. Measure each entry's main and ratoon crop yield potential and milling response when using optimum planting dates. The targeted planting dates for this objective will be mid-March to mid-April (optimum planting) at Eagle Lake and late March to mid-April (optimum planting) at Beaumont. 2) Measure the contribution of nitrogen rate and timing effects on ratoon crop yield using Presidio as a test variety at two locations. 3) Provide an economic ranking from each entry's average main, ratoon, and total crop net income. Provide some variety characteristics and growth stage data for use by researchers and producers.

Project Title: The Impact of Rate and Timing of Selected Herbicides on Weed Control in Texas Rice

Project Investigator: Garry McCauley, S.A. Senseman

Amount: \$14,000

Objectives: 1) Evaluate rice varietal response to common rice herbicides; 2) Development of weed nursery of selected problem rice weeds in Texas; 3) and 4) Update the information presented in the Texas Rice Production Guidelines. Establish cooperative research with commercial industry to identify new potential weed control technology and production management.

Project Title: Entomology Research and Extension Program for 2012

Project Investigator: M.O. Way

Amount: \$59,967

Objectives: To provide research and extension expertise to develop and implement integrated pest management (IPM) programs for the array of arthropods attacking rice. Specifically, the project will 1) continue developing economic injury levels for stem borers, 2) evaluate promising insecticides for stem borer control, 3) evaluate dinotefuran for rice water weevil control, 4) determine stem borer and rice water weevil damage on main and ratoon crops, 5) determine seeding rate effects on efficacy of seed treatments, 6) evaluate seed treatments and combinations for rice insect pest control, 7) evaluate Tenchu 20SG and Endigo ZC for rice stink bug control, and 8) extend results of above research to clientele via field visits, *Texas Rice Production Guidelines*, *Rice Farming* articles, *Rice Advocate* articles, *2012 Entomology Annual Report* and extension meetings. Extension information also will be placed on the Beaumont Center website.

Project Title: Publication of Hard Copies of the 2014 Texas Rice Production Guidelines

Project Investigator: M.O. Way

Amount: \$4,500

Objective: Produce electronic and hard copies of the 2014 Texas Rice Production Guidelines. Past experience shows the need for annual updates of this bulletin. Changes in varietal selection, best management practices, economics and delivery tools must be communicated to clientele in a timely manner. This bulletin also will be available on-line through the Beaumont Center website.

Project Title: Disease Management Research for Texas Rice Production

Project Investigator: Xin-Gen Zhou, R. Tabien, G. McCauley, Y.K. Jo, M. O. Way, L. T. Wilson, Y. Yang

Amount: \$65,667

Objectives: The ultimate goal of this project is to develop a more effective integrated disease management program through using resistant variety, effective fungicide, biocontrol agents, and disease forecast for rice production in Texas. The project will 1) continue to evaluate and identify rice resistance to *Cercospora*, sheath blight, and bacterial panicle blight, 2) evaluate efficacy and best application timing of fungicides for control of *Cercospora* and sheath blight in the main and ratoon crops, 3) develop a new strategy of using optimum stubble height for control of *Cercospora* in the ratoon crop, 4) demonstrate efficacy of combined use of biocontrol agent with fungicide for control of sheath blight and reduced use of fungicide, and 5) continue to monitor *Cercospora* disease development in the main and ratoon crops to determine the relationships of disease severity to climate parameters.

Project Title: Development of Fungicide Programs for Main and Ratoon Crop Disease Management

Project Investigator: Y.K. Jo, M.O. Way

Amount: \$2,673

Objective: The major goal of this study is to evaluate different fungicide regimes to control sheath blight and maximize main and ratoon crop production.

Project Title: Development of a Novel Seed Disinfection Treatment Method Using Non-Thermal Plasma Technology and the Molecular Diagnostic Assay for Bacterial Panicle Blight

Project Investigator: Y.K. Jo, M.O. Way and X. Zhou

Amount: \$15,916

Objective: The main goal of this research project is 1) to demonstrate that seed-borne fungus (e.g. bakanae disease caused by *Fusarium moniliforme*) and bacterium (e.g. panicle blight caused by *Burkholderia glumae*) can be effectively eliminated on the seed surface by cold plasma, 2) to develop a prototype platform of plasma seed treatment suited for rice seed disinfection, and 3) to develop a protocol to detect the presence of *B. glumae* in rice seeds with PCR-based molecular technique.

Project Title: Personnel Support at David R. Wintermann Rice Research Station at Eagle Lake

Project Investigator: Jack Vawter

Amount: \$30,000

Objective: To support one position involved in Farm Services activities at the David R. Wintermann Rice Research Station at Eagle Lake.

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Land and Seedbed Preparation

G. N. McCauley

Leveling and Drainage Considerations

Fields for growing rice should be relatively level, but gently sloping toward drainage ditches. Ideally, land leveling for a uniform grade of 0.2% slope or less but not zero grade provides:

- necessary early drainage in the spring for early soil preparation, which permits early seeding;
- uniform flood depth, which reduces the amount of water needed for irrigation; and
- the need for fewer levees.

Importance of Early Land Preparation

Successful rice production requires timely land preparation. Therefore, fields should be plowed in the summer or early fall. Early land preparation is particularly critical when high residue crops such as grain sorghum or corn are planted the year before rice. If the land has been out of production and is grown up in weeds and brush, prepare it as early as possible.

Early land preparation allows repeated germinations of grass, weeds and red rice to be killed by surface cultivation or chemically before planting. Cultivation also incorporates the crop residue to assure good decomposition of plant material to prevent early-season nitrogen deficiency.

If it is not possible to prepare the land early, plant material decomposition will not be at advanced stages at the time of planting. The soil's microorganisms (bacteria, fungi, etc.) that decompose crop residue will compete with rice seedlings for nutrients, particularly nitrogen, causing the rice plant to be nitrogen deficient. If this situation arises, you may need to add 10 to 20 more units of nitrogen per acre when the base fertilizer is applied at or near planting.

Seedbed Preparation

Seedbed preparation is particularly critical in coarse-textured soils. The seedbed should be firm and well pulverized to maintain proper moisture conditions for drilling and adequate soil seed contact. This will ensure rapid germination and emergence of the rice seedlings.

Although seedbed preparation is less critical in areas where rice is not drilled, it is still important to ensure that the desired soil condition is achieved and to allow rapid emergence of the rice seedlings. In all situations it is important to have a weed-free seedbed.

To reduce costs, minimize the number of times a field is cultivated before planting. Avoid "recreational" passes over the field. Research has shown that fields cultivated five times have about the same average yields as those more intensely cultivated.

The cost of operating large tractors for rice production means that one custom cultivation can cost about \$12 per acre. Therefore, some farmers are adding as much as \$60 per acre to the cost of land preparation and may not be realizing a corresponding yield increase.

Reduced Tillage

Reduced tillage refers to any effort to reduce the number of land preparation trips across a field. The discussion here will be restricted to spring and fall stale seedbed techniques.

Spring stale seedbed provides less reduction in cultivation than does the fall stale seedbed technique. The spring system involves normal fall land preparation with early spring seedbed preparation. The seedbed is allowed to set and weeds germinate. The weeds are controlled chemically right up to planting. The last burn-down application can be tank mixed with a preplant herbicide application just before planting. With the spring system, the rice may be drill or water-seeded. For satisfactory stand establishment, you must use a minimum or no-till drill.

The fall stale seedbed technique entails cultivation and seedbed preparation in late summer or early fall. Vegetation is chemically controlled through the fall, winter and spring up to planting. The last burn-down application can be tank mixed with a preplant herbicide application just before planting.

The major advantage of fall stale seedbed is that it ensures optimum early planting, particularly in a wet year when conventional spring field preparation is delayed because of wet field conditions. The fall system also is an excellent tool for the management of red rice. For more details on the spring stale seedbed technique, see the section on Red Rice Management. Equipment and labor costs may be reduced because fields are not cultivated as often with reduced tillage; however, using burn-down herbicides can increase the total herbicide cost.

In a conventional cultivation system, the condition of the seedbed is often unknown until planting. This may make it difficult to select a seeding rate and to plant. With the fall stale seedbed technique when vegetation is managed properly, the seedbed condition is known for weeks or months before planting. Seeding rate selection and seed booking can be completed well before planting.

In a fall stale seedbed system, the seeding rate can generally be reduced 10 to 20% when drilling to moisture. Use a higher seeding rate if a germination flush will be required. This is critical if a preplant herbicide is used. Planting methods are limited to drill or water-seeding because broadcast seeding requires a seed incorporating tillage. Because the use of a minimum or no-till drill is essential, it may be necessary to invest in additional equipment. There is also the potential for extra herbicide usage.

Although water-seeding can be used, weed residue can cause oxygen deficiency, increase seedling diseases and expose seed to birds.

Reduced tillage can affect fertilizer management before establishing the flood, particularly if the soil surface has significant vegetative residue that restricts contact between the soil and fertilizer. To reduce potential nitrogen loss, apply the nitrogen to a dry soil and flush it into the soil as soon as possible.

Nitrogen applied to a wet soil cannot be effectively washed into the soil and is subject to more loss. Preplant nitrogen can be placed into the soil with the no-till drill or knifed in below the soil surface.

Several herbicides are labeled as preplant burn-down herbicides in a reduced tillage situation. The rates of application depend on the weed species and their sizes. Follow the label directions for rate, method of application, control of specific weeds and other restrictions.

Fall stale seedbed management generally increases yields. With this system there is greater likelihood of planting to moisture even in heavy soils, which results in less stress from germination or early seedling flushes. Early flushes can delay emergence and stress young seedlings. Seeding during the optimum planting window is also more likely, which further raises the main and ratoon crop yield potential.

After flood establishment, cultural practices for reduced tillage are the same as for conventional tillage rice production.

Stand Establishment

F. Dou and L. Tarpley

Uniform seedling emergence and optimum seedling density that is evenly distributed are very important to achieving good yield and quality of both the main and ratoon crop.

Other factors that affect stand uniformity and density include quality of seedbed, % seed germination, vigor of germinating seedlings, uniformity of seed distribution (both in depth and across the field), soil moisture, soil texture, drainage and temperature conditions. Variability in these characteristics is responsible for the diversity in planting methods used across the Texas Rice Belt.

Rice seed germination characteristics also dictate planting methods on some soil types. For example, if rice seed are covered by soil (resulting in low light) and water (low oxygen) for extended periods, germination will not occur or will be slow and uneven. These germination restrictions are why seedbed preparation and soil drainage affect stand density and uniformity.

Rice can be drilled to moisture in coarse-textured soils but must be planted shallow (or uncovered) on heavier textured soils, requiring rain or irrigation to supply moisture for germination. Most coarse-textured soils will crust when drying after being water saturated.

Seed treatments can positively affect stand establishment (Please see the section “Seed Treatments” for more information.

Farmers’ experience on each field is important in getting economical results. For example, farmers who have consistently achieved good uniform stands have had some success in reducing their seeding rates. However, farmers should know the hazards of low seeding rates under their conditions before taking such measures.

Seed Treatments

L. Tarpley, M. O. Way, X. G. Zhou and F. Dou

Seed treatments are increasingly used by Texas rice producers to protect seeds, seedlings and plants from pests, including diseases and insects, and to promote germination and emergence. The use of seed treatments can often provide a denser and more uniform stand. Rice seed can often be purchased pre-treated. Whether supplied as a pre-treatment or provided as a custom treatment by the end user, the seed treatment commonly contains an insecticide, fungicide, and/or plant growth regulator. Less frequently, other compounds are also added. Currently, three insecticide-containing seed treatments are labeled for rice in Texas. Each has a unique spectrum of insect activity and effective rate based on amount of active ingredient applied per 100 lb of seed, regardless of seeding rate. Since seed treatments are preventive, farmers must decide to purchase treated seed in advance of the occurrence and abundance of pest populations. Information of field history and location, target pest, cultivar selection, seeding rate, planting date, method and timing of irrigation, and cost of the seed treatment can help the farmer make a decision. In general, recommended seeding rates are decreasing, especially with the hybrids; thus, seed treatments offer protection or “insurance” against possible unacceptable stand losses and future insect outbreaks which can reduce yield and quality significantly. In addition, seed treatments minimize insecticidal drift, reduce insecticidal application costs and associated fuel usage. For more information on insecticidal seed treatments, see the Insect Management section in this bulletin.

The use of fungicide seed treatments is one of the most effective means to enhance rice plant stands and health and to improve yield. Recent disease surveys indicated that seed rot and seedling diseases, caused by numerous soil-borne fungi, are common in the Texas Rice Belt and the occurrence of these diseases is frequently associated with irregular and thin stands. Stand problems are more severe in the early planted fields where soil temperatures are low. Field plot experiments conducted at Beaumont and Eagle Lake, TX in 2010, 2011 and 2012 show fungicide seed treatments can significantly increase stands by 22 to 60% and increase yields by 5 to 22%. Several fungicides are available for seed treatments. For more information on fungicidal seed treatments, see the Seedling Disease Management section in this bulletin.

Plant growth regulators applied as seed treatments are primarily used to enhance germination and early seedling vigor, which can commonly result in an increased emergence rate resulting in decreased exposure to soil diseases, a better stand and earlier crop canopy coverage. The most common plant growth regulator for rice seed treatment is Gibberellic Acid (GA), which appears in many commercial seed treatment packages. For drill-seeded rice, GA promotes seedling emergence by enhancing elongation of the mesocotyl. Studies in Louisiana have shown a GA seed treatment to increase stand density by 50% and plant height at 20 days after planting by 38%, potentially permitting an earlier flood. Zinc is also commonly applied as a seed treatment to enhance early seedling vigor.

Seed treatments provide cost effective protection of the producer's investment in seed and planting, and should be considered for use, especially when working with expensive seed or planting under sub-optimal conditions.

Varieties

R.E. Tabien, L. T. Wilson, L. Tarpley, and F. Dou

Long Grain Varieties

Antonio - Released in 2012, Antonio is a very early maturing conventional long grain derived from a Cypress and Cocodrie cross and was developed by the Texas A&M AgriLife Research at Beaumont. It has agronomic traits comparable to Cocodrie but has higher main crop yield and milling quality. Antonio has consistently higher main crop yield than Colorado, Bowman, Presidio and Wells. It has resistance to rice blast disease with disease package comparable to Cocodrie. Seeds for commercial planting will be available for the 2014 season.

Colorado - Colorado is a new very early maturing long grain released in 2012. It was derived from a cross of Cocodrie and L202 developed at Texas A&M AgriLife Research at Beaumont. It has higher yield than Cocodrie, Presidio, Cheniere and Catahoula. Colorado is consistently higher than Antonio and Cocodrie in percent head rice and total milled rice but is slightly less than Presidio. Similar to Antonio, Colorado is resistant to rice blast but susceptible to sheath blight and bacterial panicle blight. Seeds for commercial planting will be available for the 2015 season.

Bowman - Bowman is an early maturing variety developed by the Delta Research and Extension Center in Mississippi and released in 2007. It has high yield potential with Dixiebelle type parboiling qualities. It has agronomic traits (such as height and number of days to heading) and milling qualities similar to Cocodrie, and its straw strength (lodging tolerance) compares favorably. It is susceptible to blast but has some tolerance to sheath blight.

Catahoula - Catahoula was released by the Louisiana State University Agricultural Center (LSU AgCenter) from a cross of RU9502008-A, which is a sister line of Cocodrie, and Drew. It is very early-maturing, with excellent yield potential and milling quality. It has susceptibility to sheath blight and straighthead but excellent resistance to the predominant races of blast. Agronomic traits of Catahoula are similar to Cocodrie and Cheniere.

Cheniere - Cheniere is a long grain variety released in 2003 by the LSU AgCenter. It was developed from a complex cross using Newbonnet, Katy, L201, Lemont and L202. Cheniere is similar, but not superior, to Cocodrie in yield, ratoon and milling quality. It is 1 to 2 inches shorter and 4 to 5 days later than Cocodrie. It is more susceptible to blast than Cocodrie and is moderately susceptible to sheath blight, but is more resistant to straighthead.

CL111 - CL111 is a long grain variety from the LSU AgCenter released in 2010 and developed for the CLEARFIELD® production system. It has very early maturity like Spring, with a high yield potential approaching CL151. It has better blast resistance than CL151. It is nearly as tall as CL151 but less resistant to lodging. It is much taller and mills better than Cocodrie. Its earliness and very good second crop yield potential are ideal for ratoon cropping.

CL131 - CL131 is a very early-maturing, semidwarf, long grain variety that provides good yield potential and high tolerance to herbicides in the CLEARFIELD production system. It is somewhat shorter than CL161, similar in maturity to Cocodrie, and 4 to 5 days earlier than Cypress, CL161 and Cheniere. CL131 appears to have good straw strength and resistance to lodging. It has high susceptibility to sheath blight and straighthead, as well as susceptibility to blast. CL131 has good adaptability across the southern rice growing area with good ratoon crop potential.

CL142-AR - CL142-AR from the University of Arkansas breeding program is suited for the CLEARFIELD production system. It has excellent vigor and tillering ability and is similar to Francis and most CL varieties in height. It offers outstanding yield potential and has a large-sized kernel, which is ideal for the parboiling market. CL142-AR rates as moderately susceptible to sheath blight and susceptible to rice blast.

CL151 - CL151 is a very early-maturing semidwarf variety with excellent yield potential and good ratooning ability. It has strong tolerance to herbicides that are part of the CLEARFIELD production system. It has susceptibility to blast, sheath blight and straighthead. It is reported to have very good seedling vigor and consistently high head rice yields. It is moderately susceptible to lodging.

CL152 - An early-maturing semidwarf long grain CLEARFIELD rice variety released by the LSU AgCenter in 2011. CL152 was selected from the cross of Tacauri, Cypress, L-202, Tebonnet and CL161. It has very good yield potential, but typically yields somewhat lower than CL151. However, CL152 has very good resistance to lodging and is superior to CL151 in this trait. CL152 also has excellent milling quality and has a low level of chalk under normal growing conditions. It is about 3 days later in maturity than CL151. CL152 has shown good ratoon crop potential. The variety is susceptible to sheath blight and moderately susceptible to blast, narrow brown leaf spot and bacterial panicle blight. CL152 is moderately resistant to straighthead.

CL161 - CL161 is an early, semidwarf, long grain variety that looks much like Cypress. It has good yield potential and high tolerance to herbicides in the CLEARFIELD production system. Its performance and maturity are similar to that of Cypress. It has excellent seedling vigor and good standability. However, this variety can be susceptible to lodging if fertilized excessively. Research data suggest that milling yields and the potential for a ratoon crop are very good. CL161 is susceptible to sheath blight and blast and is moderately resistant to straighthead.

CL162 - CL162 was developed by the Delta Research and Extension Center in Mississippi and released in 2011 for the CLEARFIELD production system. It has lower yield than CL151 but it has very good milling qualities and excellent seedling vigor. Although it is taller than CL151, it has better standability than CL151 and CL111. CL162 is resistant to brown spot, and narrow brown leaf spot, very susceptible to sheath blight, and susceptible to blast, kernel and false smut.

CLEARFIELD XL729 - Released in 2007, this long grain variety offers high hybrid yield potential combined with tolerance to herbicides in the CLEARFIELD production system. It is 1-3 days later maturing than Clearfield XL745 with excellent ratoon potential. CLEARFIELD XL729 is very easy to thresh and should be harvested as soon as grain moisture reaches acceptable levels (18 to 20%). Milling yield is standard. It is resistant to blast and is moderately susceptible to sheath blight.

CLEARFIELD XL745- Released in 2008, this high-yielding, long grain hybrid is tolerant of herbicides in the CLEARFIELD production system. It is 2-3 days earlier than CLEARFIELD XL729 and 1 day later than XL723 with excellent ratoon potential and above average milling quality. It has improved grain retention characteristics compared to CLEARFIELD XL729 and should be harvested at 18-20% grain moisture.

CLEARFIELD XP756 - Released for commercial production in 2011, this long grain hybrid possessing herbicide tolerance for use in the CLEARFIELD production system has similar characteristics to CLEARFIELD XL729, but has better grain retention and is 5-7 days longer maturing which allows spreading of the harvest window. CLEARFIELD XP756 is more tolerant to sheath blight than previously released hybrids. As with other hybrids, CLEARFIELD XP756 should be harvested at 18-20% grain moisture to help maximize grain retention and quality.

Cocodrie - Cocodrie, which was released in 1998, was developed by the LSU AgCenter from a cross of Cypress, L-202 and Tebonnet. It is a semidwarf, long grain variety that matures similar to Presidio. Main crop yields have been excellent and Cocodrie continues to be a very stable and strong performing variety, although other varieties may exceed it in ratoon crop yields and milling quality. This variety has improved resistance to blast similar to that of Presidio, but is considered moderately susceptible to sheath blight.

Cybonnet - The University of Arkansas released Cybonnet in 2003. It was developed from a cross of Cypress, Newbonnet and Katy, and is similar to Cocodrie in yield. Cybonnet is similar in maturity to Wells and later than Cocodrie. It is similar in height to Cypress and taller than Cocodrie; Cybonnet is early and 40 inches tall, while Cocodrie is very early and 38 inches tall. It has excellent milling quality like Cypress and broad spectrum resistance to blast like Katy. It is moderately susceptible to sheath blight.

Mermentau - Mermentau is an early maturing semidwarf rice variety with good grain and milling yields and excellent grain quality developed by LSU AgCenter from the cross of AR1188, Cocodrie, 9502088, and LaGrue and released in 2012. It has the same height and maturity as Cheniere and Catahoula but slightly higher yields. These three varieties had comparable percent head rice. Mermentau is moderately susceptible to blast and straighthead, and susceptible to rice sheath blight and bacterial panicle blight.

Presidio - Presidio, released in 2005, was developed from a cross of Jefferson, Maybelle and Rosemont at the Beaumont Center. It is a long grain variety that is similar in maturity and height to Cocodrie. Its main crop yield is lower than Cocodrie, but its ratoon crop potential averages 35% higher than Cocodrie. Presidio has excellent milling quality, similar to or better than Cocodrie. Presidio inherited broad spectrum blast resistance and moderate susceptibility to sheath blight from Jefferson at a level that is likely to make fungicides unnecessary in most circumstances.

REX - This very early maturing long grain variety was released by the Delta Research and Extension Center of Mississippi in 2010. It has a pedigree of Rosemont, Rexmont and IR36, which is a popular indica variety in Southeast Asia. It is earlier than Cocodrie in maturity, and taller than Presidio and Cocodrie. The milling performance of REX is better than Bowman and Cocodrie.

Roy J - Released in 2010, Roy J was developed by the University of Arkansas from a cross using parents such as LaGrue, Katy, Starbonnet, Newbonnet, Lebonnet and Dawn. It has yield and milling potential comparable to Cocodrie. Maturity and height are similar to Wells, Taggart and Templeton. It is reported to have stiff straw ideal for high yielding varieties.

Templeton - A 2010 release from the University of Arkansas. Templeton, a semi-dwarf long grain, was derived from a cross involving several varieties including Drew, Katy, Starbonnet and Dawn. It is early maturing with yield and milling comparable to Cocodrie. It is similar to Wells in height and maturity and has good resistance to blast.

Taggart - Taggart is another 2010 release from the University of Arkansas. It has a complex pedigree including LaGrue, Katy, Starbonnet and Lemont. It has higher yield potential than Cocodrie but lower head rice. It matures like Templeton and Wells with nearly similar height. With a Lebonnet sized kernel, it can be good for parboiling.

Wells - Wells, which was released in 1999, is a long grain variety developed by the University of Arkansas from a cross of Newbonnet, Lebonnet, CI9902 and Labelle. Compared to Cocodrie, it matures slightly later and is about 3 inches taller. Wells has a high main crop yield similar to or better than Cocodrie, but has lower ratoon crop yield and milling quality. The blast resistance of Wells is similar to Cypress, which is less than Cocodrie. However, its sheath blight resistance is better than that of Cocodrie.

XL723 - Released in 2005, this conventional (non-herbicide tolerant) long grain hybrid offers superior yield and disease resistance and above average straw strength. XL723 has a short season (3-5 days earlier maturing than Cheniere) making it an excellent non-Clearfield. This hybrid also has good milling, is easy to thresh, and should be harvested as soon as grain moisture reaches acceptable levels (18-20%).

XP753 - Released in 2011, XL753 is very similar in stature and agronomics to XL723, with major improvements in grain retention. With a 4-6% yield advantage over XL723 and similar milling quality, XL753 should be considered for both main and ratoon crop situations.

XP754 - Released for commercial production in 2011, this long grain hybrid has improved grain retention and is longer maturing (7-10 days) than XL723, which allows spreading of the harvest window. XP754 also has higher sheath blight tolerance than previously released hybrids. Harvest at 18-20% grain moisture.

Medium Grain Varieties

Bengal - Bengal, which was released in 1992, is a mid-season, reduced height, medium grain variety. Yields of Bengal are slightly less than Jupiter. Milling yields are very good. Its grain size is larger than that of other medium grains. Bengal is moderately resistant to blast, moderately susceptible to sheath blight, and very susceptible to straighthead.

Caffey - An early short stature medium grain rice variety released by the LSU AgCenter in 2011. Caffey was selected from a cross of Mercury, Rico-1 and Bengal. It has excellent yield potential, comparable to that of Jupiter. Caffey also has excellent milling quality with low levels of chalk and a very bold milled grain. The variety is comparable in maturity to Jupiter and Neptune. Caffey is similar in plant height to Jupiter but displays somewhat more resistance to lodging. Caffey is moderately susceptible to sheath blight, blast bacterial panicle blight and straighthead, and moderately resistant to narrow brown leaf spot.

CL261 - CL261 was released from the LSU AgCenter in 2010. It is the first medium grain variety released that is designed for the CLEARFIELD production system. It has good yield potential and very good milling and grain quality but is moderately susceptible to lodging. It is moderately susceptible to sheath blight, sheath rot and kernel smut, and very susceptible to blast, stem rot and bacterial panicle blight disease.

Jupiter - Jupiter is a medium grain variety developed by the LSU AgCenter using the varieties Bengal, Mercury and Rico-1. It has better main crop yield potential than Bengal, but milling yield is comparable. It is similar in height and maturity to Bengal. It is more susceptible to blast than Bengal, but has similar or better resistance to sheath blight and panicle blight disease.

Neptune - Neptune is a semidwarf, mid-season, medium grain variety released in 2007 by the LSU AgCenter. It is derived from a cross involving Bengal, Mercury and Rico varieties. It has excellent yield potential and very good milling qualities. It has good seedling vigor and resistance to lodging. The grain of Neptune is similar to Bengal and bolder than Jupiter. It has better resistance to blast than Jupiter and is moderately susceptible to sheath blight and straighthead.

Specialty Rice Varieties

Della - Della is an aromatic long grain rice that, like Dellmont, is dry and flaky when cooked. Because aromatic varieties cannot be co-mingled with other non-scented varieties, they should be grown only if the producer has an assured market outlet. Della's yield and milling quality are lower than that of Dellmont and Gulfmont. It is very tall and very susceptible to lodging. Della is susceptible to blast and moderately susceptible to sheath blight.

Della-2 - Della-2 is a new dwarf aromatic, moderately early maturing rice developed by the LSU AgCenter and released in 2012. It was selected from a cross of Cypress, L-205 and Della, thus has Della's superior grain quality and aroma characteristics. It has very good grain yield and good milling traits. Della-2 has longer, more slender and more translucent milled rice than that of Della. It is moderately resistant to blast, and moderately susceptible to rice sheath blight, bacterial panicle blight and straighthead disorder.

Dellrose - This variety was released in 1995 by the LSU AgCenter from a cross between Lemont and Della. Dellrose has the same aroma and cooking quality as Della and Dellmont. It has an intermediate height and is taller than Cocodrie. Dellrose is very early maturing, similar to Della, and has greatly improved yield and milling quality compared to Della. It is moderately resistant to blast and moderately susceptible to sheath blight.

Deltabelle - Deltabelle was developed at the Beaumont Center in partnership with the processing industry and is suited for the "quick cooking brown rice" market. Compared to Hidalgo rice, which is currently grown for this market, Deltabelle has significantly reduced lodging susceptibility (6% versus 20%) and therefore, reduces production risks.

Dixiebelle - Dixiebelle is an early maturing, semidwarf, long grain variety developed at the Beaumont Center from Newrex/ Bellmont/CB801. Although Dixiebelle can be used like a conventional long grain, it also possesses special qualities (like Rexmont) that make it preferable for the canning and parboiling industry. The main crop yield of Dixiebelle averages about 10% lower than Cocodrie, whereas ratoon yield and milling quality are similar. Dixiebelle is very susceptible to blast and sheath blight.

Hidalgo - Hidalgo is a long grain specialty variety that was developed at the Beaumont Center from a cross of Cypress, Pelde and Jefferson. It is a semidwarf variety similar in height, maturity and yield potential to Cocodrie. It has higher milling quality than Cocodrie and cooks soft like Toro. It is like Cypress in susceptibility to blast and is considered moderately resistant to sheath blight.

Jasmine 85 - Jasmine 85 is an aromatic rice that has the flavor and aroma of the fragrant rices of Thailand. Although it is a long grain variety, the cooked grains are soft and sticky like a medium grain variety. Jasmine 85 matures about 10 days later than Cypress and is taller than Cypress. The seed of Jasmine 85 has some level of dormancy and may volunteer in following years. Under good management, Jasmine 85 has excellent yield potential. However, it is susceptible to lodging when fertilized heavily. The milling yield of Jasmine 85 is lower than that of other southern U.S. long grain varieties. Jasmine 85 is very resistant to blast and shows good tolerance to sheath blight.

Jazzman - Jazzman is an aromatic rice developed by the LSU AgCenter from a cross of Ahrent and the Chinese aromatic line 96a-8. It is reported to have yields comparable to many U.S. popular varieties and has milling comparable to Cypress. It also has good seedling vigor and disease resistance. Jazzman has the plant height and maturity of Cypress. It has better resistance to sheath blight and blast than Cypress.

Jazzman-2 - An early-maturing, semidwarf, Jasmine-type aromatic long grain variety released by the LSU AgCenter for the 2012 growing season. Jazzman-2 was selected from a cross of line 9502008, Katy, line 902207, Jasmine 85, Leah and Della. It has good yield potential, good lodging tolerance and very good milling quality. Jazzman-2 has typical Jasmine rice quality characteristics found in imported Thai Jasmine, which include soft-cooking, glassy appearance, sweet flavor and very strong aroma. Jazzman-2 is similar to Cocodrie in height and maturity but about 4 inches shorter and 4 days earlier than Jazzman. Jazzman-2 is very susceptible to sheath blight, susceptible to bacterial panicle blight and straighthead, but resistant to blast.

JES - JES is an aromatic, soft-cooking, long grain (Jasmine style) rice that was developed through mutation breeding using Thai Jasmine rice. JES has better yield than Jasmine 85 (currently grown for this market), is 5 inches shorter and a week earlier in maturity. It has strong resistance to blast and moderate resistance to sheath blight. JES may provide another opportunity for U.S. growers to compete with aromatic imports.

Neches - Neches is a long grain, waxy rice developed at the Beaumont Center from a cross of waxy Lebonnet and Bellemont. Neches is very similar to Lemont in height, maturity, and yield. Asian markets want waxy rice as a specialty rice, and it is also used by the ingredients industry as a flour and starch. Its grain is completely opaque, and is very sticky when cooked because of its waxy (glutinous) property. It is moderately resistant to blast and very susceptible to sheath blight.

Rondo - Rondo was developed from a high yielding variety from China. It has excellent yield and disease resistance and can be used in the white milled rice market although its milling quality is lower than Cocodrie. However, like Sabine and Dixiebelle varieties, Rondo has relatively high grain amylose content, making it well suited for use by the parboiling and canning industries. It has very high levels of resistance to blast and sheath blight. High yields can be achieved with relatively low fertilizer inputs. High fertilizer inputs commonly used for semidwarf varieties can result in lodging.

Sabine - Sabine was developed at the Beaumont Center from a cross of an experimental line from the LSU AgCenter and Dixiebelle. It has the same superior parboiling and canning quality that is found in Dixiebelle, and was developed primarily for these industries. Sabine is about 2 inches taller and has higher yield potential than Dixiebelle. The two are very similar in maturity, milling quality and susceptibility to blast and sheath blight.

Sierra - Sierra was developed at the Beaumont Center from a cross involving Dellmont, Basmati 370 and Newrex. It is a long grain rice that possesses the fragrance and cooked kernel elongation characteristics of Basmati style rice. It has excellent aroma and cooks dry and flaky. Sierra is very similar to Lemont in height, maturity, yield, disease resistance and milling quality.

Table 4a summarizes agronomic information for selected released rice varieties relative to Cocodrie.

Table 4a. Maturity, height and yields (main crop, ratoon and milling) relative to Cocodrie of selected released rice varieties.

Variety	Maturity	Height (inches)	Main crop yield	Ratoon crop yield	Milling yield
Cocodrie	Very Early	38	-	-	-
Antonio	Very Early	38	Higher	Higher	Higher
Colorado	Very Early	38	Higher	Higher	Higher
Catahoula	Very Early	37	Higher	Similar	Similar
Dellrose (A)	Very Early	39	Lower	Higher	Higher
Hidalgo	Very Early	39	Lower	Lower	Higher
Presidio	Very Early	38	Lower	Higher	Higher
Bowman	Early	37	Similar	Similar	Similar
Cheniere	Early	36	Similar	Lower	Similar
CL161	Early	38	Higher	Similar	Lower
Cybonnet	Early	40	Lower	Higher	Higher
Deltabelle	Early	38	Lower	Similar	Similar
Dixiebelle	Early	35	Lower	Higher	Similar
Jazzman (A)	Early	38	Lower	Lower	Higher
Neches (WX)	Early	36	Lower	Lower	Higher
Rondo	Early	42	Lower	Lower	Lower
Sabine	Early	37	Similar	Higher	Similar
Sierra (A)	Early	38	Lower	Higher	Similar
Taggart	Early	42	Higher	Higher	Lower
Templeton	Early	41	Similar	Higher	Similar
Wells	Early	41	Similar	Similar	Lower
Bengal (M)	Mid-season	37	Similar	Similar	Similar
Jupiter (M)	Mid-season	36	Higher	Lower	Higher
Jasmine 85 (A)	Late	40	Higher	Lower	Lower

A (aromatic) WX (waxy) M (medium grain)

Planting Dates

F. Dou and L. Tarpley

Optimum planting dates vary with location. They range from March 15 to April 21 in the western area and from March 21 to April 21 in the eastern area.

However, planting after April 15 reduces ratoon crop potential. Also, planting is not recommended when the 4-inch daily minimum soil temperature falls below 65 degrees F. The 4-inch minimum soil temperature is an indicator of residual heat in the soil, which is very important for normal seed germination and seedling growth. The 4-inch soil temperatures are available on-line (<http://beaumont.tamu.edu/ClimaticData/>) for both the Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Extension Center at Beaumont, (409) 752-2741, and the David R. Wintermann Rice Research Station at Eagle Lake, (979) 234-3578. Your county Extension office will also have access to these soil temperatures.

Do not plant varieties with low seedling vigor before the recommended planting dates and soil temperatures. They are more susceptible to environmental hazards, such as disease, cool temperature and salt damage associated with planting too early in the growing season.

Planting earlier than March 15 can result in good yields but higher production costs because: 1) reduced nitrogen utilization increases the amount of nitrogen required; 2) additional flushes increase the amount of water required; and 3) weeds are harder to control, so more herbicide is needed.

Plantings made before March 15 may also have reduced stands caused by seedling diseases and salt accumulation on the soil surface following cold, drying winds.

Planting after the optimum planting dates reduces the opportunity to produce high yields. It has been estimated that a 5% reduction in main crop yield can be expected for each week's delay in planting after April 21.

Seeding Rates

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Uniform stands of healthy rice seedlings pave the way to a productive rice crop. Growers generally can achieve the desired plant population of 15 to 20 seedlings per square foot (9 to 12 seedlings per 7-inch drill row foot) by drill seeding 50 to 70 pounds of non-hybrid rice seed per acre the first week of April.

Lower seeding rate and plant populations (15 seedlings per square foot) are preferred when planting high tillering varieties, such as Jasmine 85, and when disease pressure is expected to be high after canopy closure.

These recommendations assume average seed size (Cocodrie at about 19,000 seeds per pound), well prepared seedbeds, planting at recommended depths, good quality seed and near optimum conditions for April 1 planting.

Adjusting Seeding Rate for Variety

Seeding rate should be adjusted based on seed size and tillering ability due to varietal differences. Table 6a presents the differences in seed size for most common Texas varieties and seed density for a range of seeding rates. Seedling densities from Table 6a assume 100% germination and survivability. Optimum must be adjusted for seed germination % and environmental conditions.

When planting a variety with seed that is larger than average (Bengal or Milagro Filipino with about 16,500 seed per pound) or smaller than average (Dixiebelle or Presidio with about 20,000 seed per pound), adjust the seeding rate to ensure that you get the desired number of seed per square foot. For example, Bengal and Catahoula should be planted at about a 20% higher rate than Presidio or Dixiebelle.

Adjusting Seeding Rate for Conditions

Below are recommendations and considerations when adjusting seeding rate according to planting conditions:

- For broadcast seeding, increase the seeding rate by 50 to 60% above the 50 to 70 pounds per acre for drilled seed.
- If the seedbed is rough or poorly prepared, increase the seeding rate by 15% or more.
- For each week the crop is seeded before March 15, you may need an additional 15% of seed because earlier planting usually means cooler weather.
- You may not need to increase the seeding rate if soil and air temperatures are 70 °F or greater. However, growers who have had problems achieving recommended stands should use higher seeding rates.
- When drilling to moisture in stale seedbed conditions, you can generally reduce the seeding rate by 10 to 15% compared to conventional seedbed conditions.
- If soil conditions require a germination flush and Command will be applied preplant, increase the seeding rate to 10% above conventional recommendations.
- You can reduce the need for higher seeding rates by using gibberellic acid as a seed treatment, which can increase seedling vigor.

Replanting is not recommended unless stands have fewer than 8 to 10 seedlings per square foot over most of the field for semidwarf varieties and 5 seedlings per square foot for hybrids. If there are fewer than 15 seedlings per square foot, you can improve yields by increasing early nitrogen applications by 30 to 50 pounds per acre.

Rice producers who commonly achieve optimum planting density recognize that actual seedlings per square foot (plant population) is a better measure for comparing field performance than seeding rate because plant population is the final product of:

- Seeding rate
- Live seed per pound of seed (determined by % germination and seed size)
- Percent emergence (determined by planting conditions, such as seed depth and vigor, soil moisture, temperature, seedling disease and bird feeding)

Measuring Seedling Stand Density

Growers are encouraged to count seedlings per square foot for a given seeding rate. This information becomes very important in subsequent years when the seeding rate is adjusted for variety and planting conditions. The best measurements of stand density can be made at the three to four leaf rice stage. After the fourth leaf, tillering makes stand counts very difficult.

In broadcast rice, stand density can be measured using a square or circular hoop of 1, 2, 3 or more square feet. The hoop is randomly tossed in the field, and the seedlings inside the hoop are counted. Seedling density is determined by counting and then dividing the number of seedlings inside the hoop by the area of the hoop. This process should be repeated at several locations in the field.

The hoop method should not be used in drill-seeded rice to measure seedling density. The size of the hoop and the row spacing can introduce significant error in accurately measuring seedling stand density. Stand density in drill-seeded rice should be determined by counting the number of seedlings in a given length of row. The seedling density can then be calculated using the seedling count, length of row and row spacing. Research has shown that optimum length of row is 3 feet and that the measurement should be repeated at 7 to 10 random locations in the field. Conversion from seedling count to seedlings per square foot can be made using Table 6b.

Table 6a. The effect of seed per pound (seed size) on the number of seed per square foot at various seeding rates. The number of live seedlings per square foot depends on the germination rate and planting conditions.

Variety	Seed/lb	Seeding Rate (lb/A)								
		20	30	40	50	60	70	80	90	100
		Seeds/Square Foot								
Bengal	16433	8	11	15	19	23	26	30	34	38
Jasmine 85	16619	8	11	15	19	23	27	31	34	38
Milagro Filipino	16884	8	12	16	19	23	27	31	35	39
CL142	16943	8	12	16	19	23	27	31	35	39
Sierra	17340	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40
Jupiter	17356	8	12	16	20	24	28	32	36	40
Catahoula	18071	8	12	17	21	25	29	33	37	41
CL181	18254	8	13	17	21	25	29	34	38	42
Jazzman	18449	8	13	17	21	25	30	34	38	42
CL111	18799	9	13	17	22	26	30	35	39	43
CL261	18814	9	13	17	22	26	30	35	39	43
Neptune	18856	9	13	17	22	26	30	35	39	43
Cocodrie	18888	9	13	17	22	26	30	35	39	43
Cypress	19096	9	13	18	22	26	31	35	39	44
CL161	19399	9	13	18	22	27	31	36	40	45
CL151	19613	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45
CLXL745	19680	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45
CLXL729	19700	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45
XL723	19731	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45
Cheniere	19770	9	14	18	23	27	32	36	41	45
Presidio	20142	9	14	18	23	28	32	37	42	46
Dixiebelle	20500	9	14	19	24	28	33	38	42	47

Table 6b. Conversion of seedling per 3 feet of linear row to seedling per square foot in drill seeded rice.

Seedlings per 3 feet of row	Row spacing (inches)								
	6	6.5	7	7.5	8	8.5	9	9.5	10
	Seedlings per Square Foot								
7	4.67	4.31	4.00	3.73	3.50	3.29	3.11	2.95	2.80
8	5.33	4.92	4.57	4.27	4.00	3.76	3.56	3.37	3.20
9	6.00	5.54	5.14	4.80	4.50	4.24	4.00	3.79	3.60
10	6.67	6.15	5.71	5.33	5.00	4.71	4.44	4.21	4.00
11	7.33	6.77	6.29	5.87	5.50	5.18	4.89	4.63	4.40
12	8.00	7.38	6.86	6.40	6.00	5.65	5.33	5.05	4.80
13	8.67	8.00	7.43	6.93	6.50	6.12	5.78	5.47	5.20
14	9.33	8.62	8.00	7.47	7.00	6.59	6.22	5.89	5.60
15	10.00	9.23	8.57	8.00	7.50	7.06	6.67	6.32	6.00
16	10.67	9.85	9.14	8.53	8.00	7.53	7.11	6.74	6.40
17	11.33	10.46	9.71	9.07	8.50	8.00	7.56	7.16	6.80
18	12.00	11.08	10.29	9.60	9.00	8.47	8.00	7.58	7.20
19	12.67	11.69	10.86	10.13	9.50	8.94	8.44	8.00	7.60
20	13.33	12.31	11.43	10.67	10.00	9.41	8.89	8.42	8.00
21	14.00	12.92	12.00	11.20	10.50	9.88	9.33	8.84	8.40
22	14.67	13.54	12.57	11.73	11.00	10.35	9.78	9.26	8.80
23	15.33	14.15	13.14	12.27	11.50	10.82	10.22	9.68	9.20
24	16.00	14.77	13.71	12.80	12.00	11.29	10.67	10.11	9.60
25	16.67	15.38	14.29	13.33	12.50	11.76	11.11	10.53	10.00
26	17.33	16.00	14.86	13.87	13.00	12.24	11.56	10.95	10.40
27	18.00	16.62	15.43	14.40	13.50	12.71	12.00	11.37	10.80
28	18.67	17.23	16.00	14.93	14.00	13.18	12.44	11.79	11.20
29	19.33	17.85	16.57	15.47	14.50	13.65	12.89	12.21	11.60
30	20.00	18.46	17.14	16.00	15.00	14.12	13.33	12.63	12.00
31	20.67	19.08	17.71	16.53	15.50	14.59	13.78	13.05	12.40
32	21.33	19.69	18.29	17.07	16.00	15.06	14.22	13.47	12.80
33	22.00	20.31	18.86	17.60	16.50	15.53	14.67	13.89	13.20
34	22.67	20.92	19.43	18.13	17.00	16.00	15.11	14.32	13.60
35	23.33	21.54	20.00	18.67	17.50	16.47	15.56	14.74	14.00
36	24.00	22.15	20.57	19.20	18.00	16.94	16.00	15.16	14.40
37	24.67	22.77	21.14	19.73	18.50	17.41	16.44	15.58	14.80
38	25.33	23.38	21.71	20.27	19.00	17.88	16.89	16.00	15.20
39	26.00	24.00	22.29	20.80	19.50	18.35	17.33	16.42	15.60
40	26.67	24.62	22.86	21.33	20.00	18.82	17.78	16.84	16.00
41	27.33	25.23	23.43	21.87	20.50	19.29	18.22	17.26	16.40
42	28.00	25.85	24.00	22.40	21.00	19.76	18.67	17.68	16.80
43	28.67	26.46	24.57	22.93	21.50	20.24	19.11	18.11	17.20
44	29.33	27.08	25.14	23.47	22.00	20.71	19.56	18.53	17.60
45	30.00	27.69	25.71	24.00	22.50	21.18	20.00	18.95	18.00
46	30.67	28.31	26.29	24.53	23.00	21.65	20.44	19.37	18.40
47	31.33	28.92	26.86	25.07	23.50	22.12	20.89	19.79	18.80
48	32.00	29.54	27.43	25.60	24.00	22.59	21.33	20.21	19.20
49	32.67	30.15	28.00	26.13	24.50	23.06	21.78	20.63	19.60
50	33.33	30.77	28.57	26.67	25.00	23.53	22.22	21.05	20.00

Seeding Methods

G. N. McCauley

Seeding methods depend on soil type, weather conditions and producer preference. The main factors to consider in selecting seeding methods are uniformity of seed distribution and seedling emergence. These factors promote good yields as well as grain quality. There is no evidence of yield advantages for drilled versus broadcast-seeding or dry versus water-seeding if stands are adequate.

On fine clay soils, several seeding methods can be used, including dry and water-seeding. A well prepared, weed-free seedbed is important when rice is dry seeded. When dry seeding with a drill on fine clay soils, flush the field immediately after planting to ensure uniform emergence. Seed can be broadcast on a rough, cloddy seedbed if followed immediately with a flush so soil clods disintegrate, seeds are covered and soil-seed contact is established. This allows good germination and uniform emergence.

In some areas, it is possible to broadcast seed on a well-prepared seedbed, followed by dragging to cover the seed. This also requires immediate flushing of the field so that emergence is uniform.

If rice is water-seeded, the seedbed may be left in a rough, cloddy condition because a flood breaks up clods and provides some seed coverage. Planting under these conditions requires a significantly higher seeding rate.

On sandy soils, plant seed in moist soil 1 to 2 inches deep. Seeding depth varies with moisture conditions and variety.

Although all of these planting methods can be used for the semidwarf varieties, experience shows that shallow planting is much better for good stand establishment. For example, on coarse soils, do not drill any deeper than necessary. Although soil crusting conditions cannot always be avoided, use proper management to prevent this condition. Planting in a reduced till/stale seedbed requires the use of a minimum or no-till drill. Depth control is critical for even seed depth and uniform seedling stand density. Closing the disk opener trench and good seed soil contact is essential for maximum germination. Seeding rates may need to be increased if an emergence flush will be used and if a pre-emergence herbicide has been applied.

Early Flood Rice Culture

G. N. McCauley

Definitions

Two systems are used to produce rice with early flood culture: continuous flood and pinpoint flood. In the continuous flood system, dry or sprouted seed are dropped into a flooded field and that flood is maintained until near harvest. In the pinpoint flood system, dry or sprouted seed are dropped into floodwater. The field is drained after 24 hours and left dry for 3 to 5 days to provide oxygen and allow the roots to anchor or “peg” to the soil. Then the flood is reestablished and maintained until near harvest.

There are six advantages of applying water to a field and retaining it throughout the growing season:

- easier water management and less water use;
- red rice and grass suppression;
- less seedling stress from cool weather;
- elimination of early-season blackbird problems;
- reduction in seedling loss due to salt; and
- increased nitrogen efficiency, when nitrogen is applied to dry soil before flooding.

Land Preparation and Stand Establishment

Problems that may be encountered with both systems include the presence of aquatic weeds late in the season, stand establishment in unlevel cuts (area between levees) where water may be too deep or seed is covered with too much soil and the potential for increased rice water weevil damage

The continuous flood technique has two additional disadvantages:

- possibility of seedling damage from rice seed midge; and
- seedling drift, especially in large, open cuts, which can be caused by wind and certain aquatic beetles.

A good seedbed is critical for both of these water management techniques. Prepare land in fall or as early as possible in the spring so that vegetation can be turned under and decomposed before planting to prevent oxygen depletion during germination when soil is flooded. Because cool water contains more oxygen than warm water, it is desirable to plant early in the season before floodwater gets warm. Optimum planting dates vary with location. They range from March 15 to April 21 in the western area and from March 21 to April 21 in the eastern area.

To minimize seedling drift in the continuous flood technique, it is suggested that the soil surface be “grooved” before flooding by pulling a spike-tooth harrow to create ridges in the soil. A compacting groover also can be used to create ridges. The groover compacts the soil surface to stabilize the ridges for more uniform stand establishment and efficient field drainage. Seeds usually settle between ridges where they are less likely to drift.

Another way to minimize seedling drift is to muddy floodwater just before applying seed. The suspended soil will slightly cover and help anchor the seed. A relatively cloddy soil surface minimizes seedling drift better than a “mirror smooth” soil surface.

Water Management

It is important to flood the soil immediately after the final seedbed preparation. If flooding is delayed, red rice and other weeds will establish.

Keep the area between the levees as uniformly level as possible. If the water depth in a cut is less than 2” in the shallow area and more than 6 inches in the deep area, the crop will not emerge and mature uniformly. Try to maintain a uniform flood depth of less than 4” (1 or 2” is preferable) before the rice emerges through the water then increase to 4” as rice gets taller.

Fertilization

When the soil is dry before planting, apply all of the phosphorus and potassium, if needed, and about 70% of the nitrogen. If possible, incorporate the fertilizer into the soil; if not, apply the fertilizer and flood the field immediately.

Apply the remaining nitrogen in the floodwater at panicle differentiation or earlier if plants become nitrogen deficient.

Weed Control

Although continuous and pinpoint flood culture should suppress red rice and other weeds, they do not provide adequate control. To help control weeds:

- Apply Bolero® 8EC preplant at 4 pints per acre to suppress red rice and control certain other weeds. Apply immediately after soil preparation and flood the field within 3 days. Do not seed the field any sooner than 24 hours after the field has been brought to flood level.
- Grandstand® at 0.67 to 1 pint per acre also can be used to control certain broadleaf weeds.
- Permit®, Basagran® or Londax® alone or in combination with propanil also can be used to control certain aquatic weeds. Rates depend on growth stage.

Planting

Flooded conditions at planting mandate that the field be aerially seeded. Timing and management are critical. The field must be seeded as soon as possible after flood establishment and stabilization to minimize damage from rice seed midge. Also, the water oxygen content will decrease each day after flood establishment. The sprouted seed should be ready for planting as soon as the field is flooded. The seeding rate should be increased to 120 to 140 pounds per acre for conventional varieties?

Blackbirds

M. O. Way

Blackbirds, primarily red-winged blackbirds, are pests of rice during the planting season, the seedling stage and the ripening period. The birds consume seed and seedlings on and under the soil, which can result in inadequate plant stands.

In some cases, the fields must be replanted. Reseeding is expensive and delays planting, which may reduce yields and quality and hinder harvesting operations. Also, harvesting the main crop late can make ratoon cropping impractical and increase the chances of blackbird damage on the ripening main and ratoon crops.

Blackbirds also damage the ripening crop by “pinching” grains (squeezing a grain with the beak to force the milky contents into the mouth) in the milk stage, hulling grains in the dough stage, and consuming the contents and breaking panicles by perching and feeding. This type of damage is insignificant in the ripening main crop, according to results of a study in Matagorda County by Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Texas A&M AgriLife Extension Service. However, damage to the ripening ratoon crop was found to be severe, particularly along field margins. Yield losses ranged from about 4 to 15%, even in fields that were patrolled using firearms. The cost of control was as high as \$46 per acre.

Some producers do not ratoon crop, simply because of potential bird problems. Producers have had to abandon parts of fields hit hard by birds and/or have had to harvest too early in order to save the ratoon crop from bird attacks. For both damage periods (planting and heading to harvest), fields close to wetlands or roosts usually suffered more damage.

Unfortunately, no easy solution is available, although a combination of control tactics can reduce the problem.

Bird control on emerging rice

To control blackbirds on emerging rice:

- Delay planting until large flocks of birds move north, and try not to plant when your field is the only one in the area with seeds and seedlings available for the birds.
- Increase the seeding rate if you usually experience bird problems at planting, and cover the seed to make it more difficult for the birds to find.
- Patrol the fields early and consistently using firearms and scare devices.* This is probably the most effective tactic. Laborers can be hired to perform this tedious but important job. If possible, make sure all margins of the field are accessible for patrol. Start patrolling immediately after planting to scare away “scout” birds. Birds are more difficult to move once they establish in a field. Most feeding occurs during the early morning and late afternoon. However, patrol the fields as long as birds are present.
- Use continuous flooding, which can deter blackbirds from feeding on seeds and seedlings. However, other birds, such as ducks, geese, ibises and dowitchers, feed on and/or trample submerged sprouts.
- If possible, destroy roosts and loafing sites on the margins of fields.

DRC 1339, a blackbird toxicant formulated as a bait, can be used to kill blackbirds threatening rice. It can be applied only by authorized governmental personnel. For more information, contact Wildlife Services at (979) 845-6201 or (979) 234-6599.

Bird control on ripening rice

Because production inputs have already been invested in the crop, it is imperative that you protect the ripening rice. To control blackbirds on ripening rice:

- Plant an early-maturing variety so that the harvest occurs before the flocks increase to damaging numbers. Late plantings increase the chance of bird damage to the ratoon crop.
- Again, manage the habitat, and patrol early and consistently. These are the most important control measures.
- Harvest as soon as grain moisture is appropriate. The longer rice remains in the field, the greater the chance for bird damage.

In the fall of 2002, the U.S. Environmental Protection Agency approved the use of Bird Shield™ in rice to limit feeding by blackbirds. The active ingredient in Bird Shield is methyl anthranilate, a bird repellent. Bird Shield can be applied to rice seed at planting or to heading rice. Residue data were collected in Texas to help register the product, but field efficacy data are unavailable. For more details, call (409) 752-2741.

*Contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Extension Center at Beaumont for ordering information on scare devices.

Seedling Disease Management

X. G. Zhou and Y.-K. Jo



Figure 10a. A field with seedling disease.

infect germinating seeds or young seedlings, resulting in seed rot (Fig. 10b), root damage (Fig. 10c) and slow growth or even seedling death (Fig. 10d). Low temperatures slow the germination and growth of rice seedlings, but do not affect the infection of these pathogens. Therefore, damage by these fungi is more severe in rice planted in late February to mid-March when temperatures are typically low.

Seed treatments with fungicides have been shown to significantly increase stands in both drill and water-seeded rice, especially in early plantings. Fungicides should not be applied to sprouted, water-seeded rice since the chemicals can be easily washed off and contaminate water. Fungicides can be applied to soaked seeds using specialized equipment and to water-seeded, dry seeds. Fungicides can increase stands by 22 to 60%, which may

Seed rot and seedling blight are caused by various soil-borne and seed-borne fungi. Seedling blight is also called damping-off. This disease complex can cause irregular, thin stands and weakened plants (Fig. 10a). Cool, wet soil and other conditions that delay seedling emergence favor the development of seed rot and seedling diseases. Severe seed rot and seedling diseases may result in the need to replant.

The organisms that cause seed rot and seedling blight include *Achlya* spp., *Cochliobolus miyabeanus*, *Fusarium* spp., *Pythium* spp., *Rhizoctonia solani*, *Sclerotium rolfsii* and other pathogenic fungi. They survive in the soil or on seeds between crops. These fungi



Figure 10b. Seed rot (Courtesy of R.K. Webster).

not eliminate the need to replant. In addition to fungicide seed treatments, other practices that aid in obtaining a healthy and uniform stand include:

- Plant in a well prepared, uniform seedbed
- Avoid planting too early
- Plant shallow when planting rice early
- Use healthy seeds with high germination and good vigor
- Treat seeds with plant growth regulators such as Gibberellic Acid (GA) (see the Seed Treatments chapter in this bulletin for more details)

The following fungicides (Table 10a) are registered for use on rice seed. CruiserMaxx® Rice is a recently registered seed treatment containing three fungicides and one insecticide targeting a broad spectrum of early-season diseases and selected harmful insect pests. The trade names listed in the Table are for information only does not constitute an endorsement of the product over other products containing the same active ingredients. Follow the label instructions carefully to avoid problems and obtain maximum efficacy.



Figure 10c. Healthy (left) and diseased (right) roots.



Figure 10d. Healthy (left) and dead (right) seedlings.

Table 10a. Fungicides registered for use on rice seed.

Common name	Trade name	Rate/100 lb seed
azoxystrobin	Dynasty®	0.15-1.5 fl oz
carboxin + thiram	Vitavax® CT	9-12 fl oz
	Vitavax® M	9-12 fl oz
fludioxonil	Maxim® 4FS	0.02-0.08 fl oz
mancozeb	Dithane® DF	2.1-4.3 oz
	Dithane® F 45	3.2-6.4 fl oz
	Dithane® M 45	2-4 oz
	Manzate® Flowable	3.4-6.7 fl oz
	Manzate® Pro-Stick	2-4 oz
mefenoxam	Apron XL® LS	0.0425-0.085 fl oz
	Apron XL®	0.0425-0.085 fl oz
mefenoxam + fludioxonil + azoxystrobin + thiamethoxam*	CruiserMaxx® Rice	7.0 fl oz
	containing:	containing:
	Apron XL®	0.141 oz (a.i.)
	Maxim® 4FS	0.022 oz (a.i.)
	Dynasty®	0.111 oz (a.i.)
Crusier 5FS®	2.222 oz (a.i.)	
metalaxyl**	Dyna-Shield®	0.75 fl oz

* Thiamethoxam is an insecticide. See the Insect Management section for more details.

** Effective for controlling *Pythium* damping-off. Use in combination with another material to broaden spectrum of control.

Irrigation and Water Management

G. N. McCauley

Reducing Irrigation Costs

There are two general ways to reduce irrigation costs:

- reduce the amount of water used to produce the rice crop; and/or
- pump each unit of water at the lowest possible cost.

The major factors affecting pumping cost are fuel price, pumping head or lift and pumping plant (power unit and pump) efficiency.

Individual producers can do little to control the price of fuel or pumping lift. However, pumping efficiency can be controlled through careful selection of pumping equipment and timely maintenance of the pump and power unit.

Irrigation costs also can be reduced by maintaining canals and laterals free of leaks and unwanted vegetation.

Evaluating pump Unit Performance

Procedures for evaluating pumping unit performance are described in the publications L-1718, Evaluating Irrigation Pumping Plant Performance (Texas A&M AgriLife Research); BCTR-86-10-12, Evaluating Pump Plant Efficiencies and BCTR-86-10-13, Using Airlines, which are available from your county USDA NRCS or Texas A&M AgriLife Research at Eagle Lake.

To evaluate pump performance, you must measure three values: pumping rate, total pumping head (pumping lift plus head or pressure at the pump discharge) and fuel use per hour. To compare the performance of two or more pumping plants with similar pumping lift or head, you can measure only pumping rate and fuel use.

Measuring the amount of water pumped is essential to any evaluation of the pumping plant or of water management practices. Use a propeller type irrigation water meter, or some other appropriate method, combined with an accurate record of fuel used to calculate fuel cost per unit of water. This is the minimum figure for making management decisions on pumping plant operation, repair or replacement.

Precision Land Forming

Precision land forming, with laser-controlled or manually controlled equipment, makes it easier to manage water. This does not mean that the land surface is absolutely level or zero grade. "Land grading" is a better, more descriptive term because some grade, or slope, is desirable for surface drainage. Zero grade does not use less water than land with a slight uniform grade.

Shallow flood depth decreases the amount of water required and increases yield if weeds are controlled. Land leveling or grading makes it possible to maintain uniform, shallow flood depth, improve uniformity of water distribution when the field is flushed, and improves surface drainage.

Temporary Shallow Flooding

An adequate water supply and timely flushing (temporary shallow flooding) are essential for maximum yields. Early-season water management is important but often overlooked. Appropriate early-season water management practices are determined largely by the planting method.

Flushing encourages uniform, rapid emergence with the broadcast, dry-seeded method of planting. Flushing is normally not used to obtain emergence when rice is drilled into coarse-textured soils because these soils are prone to crusting, which can impede seedling emergence.

Flushing may be necessary if there is not enough moisture available for germination and/or emergence is hindered by soil crusting following a rain. Do not allow the soil to dry or a soil crust to form on shallow planted, semidwarf varieties.

Research indicates that much of the irrigation water applied in flushing leaves the field as runoff. Improved management in the flushing operation can reduce the amount of water required and reduce irrigation pumping costs. Introducing exactly the right amount of water to accomplish the desired flushing with little or no runoff from the bottom of the field is difficult with single inlet irrigation systems.

A multiple inlet system, which introduces irrigation water to each individual cut, makes efficient flushing much easier to accomplish and also makes it possible to maintain freeboard on each cut for storage of rainfall. Use of an inflow meter also allows you to precisely control the amount of inflow.

Water-Seeded Rice on Heavy Soils

When rice is water-seeded on heavy soils, establish a 2 to 4-inch flood as soon as possible after land preparation. The rice should be planted immediately to minimize rice seed midge damage and ensure a good stand. When seed has sprouted, drain the water to a low level or drain it completely to enable rice seedlings to become well anchored.

If cuts (the areas between levees) are completely drained, flushing will eventually be necessary to prevent soils from drying out and reducing seedling stand. Planting floods that last longer than 7 to 10 days may lead to rice seed midge damage.

Early-Season Water Management

Early-season water management should provide soil moisture for growth of the rice seedlings, discourage germination of weed seeds and maintain high nitrogen fertilizer efficiency. Young rice plants grow well under alternating moist and dry soil conditions, but denitrification can seriously reduce the soil's nitrogen level under these conditions.

If possible, keep the soil moist to increase nitrogen efficiency, decrease germination of weed seed and reduce salt damage in areas subject to such damage. Keeping the soil moist appears to be especially important for semi-dwarf varieties.

Delay flushing until 24 hours after propanil is applied (alone or in combination with a preemergence herbicide). Flushing immediately after propanil application washes the propanil off the weeds, reduces absorption and control.

Flood Establishment

The flood should be established as the seedlings reach the 4 to 5-leaf or second tiller stage (assuming continuous flood culture is not being used). Flood depth should be adjusted to allow 1/3 to 1/2 of the seedling above the water. To maintain the flood, apply additional water to replace that lost by evaporation, transpiration, seepage and run-off.

The flood may be drained mid-season only when the field has a history of straighthead. If application of a mid-season herbicide is necessary, lower the flood level to obtain better exposure of broadleaf weeds. To ensure availability of water during the reproductive stage, the rice must be reflooded 7 to 10 days before anticipated panicle differentiation or sooner.

Maintaining a flood is critical during panicle development. The rice plant uses water at a high rate during this period, and moisture stress reduces yield. Maintain a constant flood to provide adequate water for normal plant growth and development.

Maintain the flood at the minimum depth necessary to control weeds. Shallow flood depth minimizes the quantity of water required and increases yield if weeds are controlled.

Field storage of rainfall can also reduce the amount of irrigation water required. However, rainfall can be stored in the field only if some freeboard is available on each levee gate.

Nitrogen Management

F. Dou, L. Tarpley and G. N. McCauley

Research and experience have shown that there is a great deal of flexibility in how farmers can manage their fertilizer programs, provided that the basic nutrient requirements are met. These suggestions provide basic information on which a farmer can build an economical rice fertilizer program and make adjustments to fit particular situations.

Fertilizer can profoundly influence rice yield, and it is a major cost for rice production. Therefore, a critical review of fertilizer practices can mean increased income without sacrificing yields.

For maximum net profit, apply only those fertilizer materials needed for maximum economic yields. Of the three primary nutrients (nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium, or N, P and K), nitrogen affects rice yield in Texas most. Because soil nitrogen availability changes rapidly and continuously, soil testing is not recommended for determining nitrogen rates for rice.

Nitrogen

Nitrogen Sources - Although rice can use both ammonium and nitrate sources of nitrogen, under flooded conditions the nitrate form is unstable and is lost from the soil by leaching and denitrification (a microbial process that converts nitrate to nitrogen gas).

However, ammonium nitrogen (urea and ammonium sulfate) is stable when below the flooded soil surface away from air and can be used by the rice plant. Ammonium on the soil surface or in floodwater gradually changes to nitrate and is lost by denitrification. Ammonium sulfate and urea sources of ammonium are about equally efficient for rice and much more efficient than nitrate nitrogen sources.

If the soils are drained for several days, urea and ammonium sulfate can be converted to the nitrate nitrogen form. Upon flooding the soil, the nitrate nitrogen is lost primarily through denitrification. Therefore, to conserve and maintain nitrogen efficiency, nitrogen fertilizer should be incorporated or flushed into the soil with irrigation water and the soil should remain water saturated or as moist as possible.

Another way to increase nitrogen efficiency is to use banded fluid fertilizer. Recent research has shown that applying fluid fertilizer in a band 2 to 3 inches below the soil surface can improve N uptake in rice compared to dry broadcast fertilizer.

Concerns about banding fluid fertilizer include the skill required to apply the fertilizer uniformly over the field, the initial cost of application equipment and the time required to fill fertilizer tanks. To reduce application costs, attach the fluid applicator knives to the seed drill, which allows 75 to 100 percent of the total N plus P and K to be applied while planting.

In addition, establishing a flood at the four-leaf growth stage rather than at the six-leaf or later stage maximizes the efficiency of banded fluid fertilizer.

Preplant or Initial Fertilizer Application - Apply initial nitrogen fertilizer just before planting, at planting or before the three-leaf stage of rice growth. To increase nitrogen efficiency, incorporate or drill preplant fertilizer applications into the soil.

If the initial fertilizer application is made at seeding time or before the three-leaf stage of rice growth, be sure the application is on dry soil and the field is flushed as soon as possible to move the fertilizer into the root zone. When the fertilizer (urea) will lay on the soil surface for 5 to 10 days before being flushed into the soil, application of a urease inhibitor is recommended to reduce N loss that can occur through ammonium volatilization, especially for coarse soils or soils with high pH value.

After seedling emergence and after initial fertilizer application, keep the soil moist until time for the pre-flooding application. If weed populations are high, a post-emergence nitrogen application may be more economical than a broadcast preplant application because it does not stimulate early weed growth.

Preflood Application - To gain the most from preflood nitrogen application, apply the nitrogen on dry soil just before flooding and allow the floodwater to carry the fertilizer away from air and into the root zone where it has more protection from loss.

If the soil is so wet just before flooding that the applied floodwater will not carry fertilizer nitrogen into the soil, establish the flood and apply 50 percent of the preflood nitrogen in the floodwater and the remaining preflood nitrogen 10 days later.

Some producers prefer applications in floodwater because fertilizer application streaks are less evident. However, in doing so, up to 20 percent of the applied nitrogen may be lost. Splitting the preflood nitrogen application converts a three-way nitrogen split into a four-way split.

PD (Panicle Differentiation) Application - If the rice plants appear nitrogen-deficient, apply nitrogen before the PD stage. If fields are very uniform in stand emergence (emergence within 2 days), applications earlier than PD might be warranted. The PD application is made when 30 percent of the main stems have 2 mm or longer panicles. During this growth stage, this application is efficiently used (taken up within 3 days) by plants because the roots cover the flooded soil surface.

Nitrogen applied at or near heading does not increase main crop yields when sufficient nitrogen is available, but it can maximize ratoon crop potential. (See the Ratoon Crop Production chapter for a discussion of ratoon crop nitrogen rates and timing.)

The following recommended nitrogen timings consistently provide maximum economical yield over a wide range of soil types and planting dates.

March plantings (three applications)

- Apply about 20 to 25 percent of the nitrogen just before planting or by the three-leaf stage of rice growth.
- Apply 35 to 40 percent on dry soil just before flooding.
- Apply 40 percent at PD or before if needed.

April plantings (three applications)

- Increase early-season nitrogen applications over those for March plantings, because April plantings usually grow faster because of the warmer temperature and require more nitrogen early
- Apply about 1/3 of the nitrogen at each of the three application times.

May plantings (two applications)

- Apply about 2/3 of the nitrogen just before planting
- Apply the remaining 1/3 at PD or earlier if needed to correct nitrogen deficiencies.

Nitrogen Timing - Generally, to reduce the total nitrogen required, apply less than 60 pounds of nitrogen per acre after flood establishment. This limitation may influence the number of nitrogen applications. Also, to lower costs, consider nitrogen formulations and the application cost per unit of nitrogen applied by comparing applicator rates for various weights of fertilizer and adjusting these.

Nitrogen Application Rates - Nitrogen requirements for rice vary depending on location, planting date, variety grown, water management and soil conditions. Because soil N availability is difficult to estimate, the recommended nitrogen rates (Table 12a) for each rice variety are determined by nitrogen fertilizer response in research tests. Do not delay nitrogen topdressing when plants become nitrogen deficient, as the yield potential of the semidwarf plant types drops each day they exhibit nitrogen deficiency (yellowing). Make further adjustments in nitrogen, recognizing that early planted rice grows slowly in cool temperatures and may require five to 15 more units of nitrogen over the season than does late planted rice. If a field has a history of severe lodging or has not been cropped recently, reduce the suggested nitrogen rates.

An additional 10 to 15 pounds of nitrogen may be needed when too much low nitrogen foliage or plant residue has been plowed under just before planting. The straw can cause temporary unavailability of the initially applied nitrogen.

If rice is to follow grain sorghum or corn in rotation, shred or disk the grain sorghum or corn stubble immediately after harvest to decrease the nitrogen immobilization during the growing season. Depending on the rate of straw decomposition, the immobilized nitrogen will begin to become available to rice plants at a later growth stage.

Symptoms and characteristics of nitrogen deficiency include:

- Rice on levees is darker green than rice between levees.
- Rice between levees has dark green areas as well as light green rice.
- Plants have yellowish lower (older) leaves with possible brown tips, and green upper (younger) leaves with yellow tips.

Soil and plant Additives - Soil additives, foliar-applied nutrient growth stimulators, and yield enhancers have not increased rice yields in research tests or demonstrations conducted throughout the Texas Rice Belt.

Table 12a. Main crop nitrogen requirements (lb N/A) for specific varieties on various soil types.

Variety	Western rice belt ^a		Eastern rice belt	
	fine (clay)	coarse (sandy)	fine (clay)	coarse (sandy)
Long grain				
Catahoula	220	200	220	200
Cheniere	220	200	220	200
CL111	190	170	190	170
CL151	190	170	190	170
CL161	220	200	220	200
Cocodrie	220	200	220	200
Presidio	220	200	220	200
Sabine	220	200	220	200
Wells	190	170	190	170
Hybrid rice ^b				
CLXL729	150	120	150	150
CLXL745	150	120	150	150
XL723	150	120	150	150
Medium grain				
Bengal	150	120	150	130

^aResearch results from Matagorda County indicate that the semidwarf varieties growing on clayey, high pH (6.7+) soil such as Lake Charles clay may require significantly more units of nitrogen for maximum yields, especially when nitrogen fertilizer is lost in runoff or top dressing cannot be applied to dry soil just before flooding. Sandy (light colored) soils in this area do not require extra nitrogen.

^bRiceTec's nutrient Recommendations (<http://www.ricetec.com/page.asp?id=152>).

2011 Variety Evaluation for Main, Ratoon, and Total Crop Yield Potential

F. Dou, L. Tarpley, and Garry McCauley

Variety evaluations at Beaumont and Eagle Lake compare Main Crop (MC) and Total Crop yields, milling quality and other agronomic traits of recently released or promising varieties and hybrids with established varieties using management practices that maximize yield potential.

Beaumont

On clay soil at Beaumont (Fig. 13a), most inbreds and hybrids with relatively high MC yields show increased MC yields when treated in either of the following ways:

- Inbred varieties - Fungicide (8 fl oz Quadris plus 6 fl oz Tilt at late boot). Main crop nitrogen (N) as three applications: 45 lb/acre Preplant, 90 lb/acre at Pre Flood, and 80 lb/acre at Panicle Initiation (PI). The Ratoon crop (RC) received 135 lb/acre (preflood);
- Hybrid varieties - Varieties receive nitrogen in two applications: 120 or 150 lb/acre preflood and 30 lb/acre at boot. The ratoon crop received 135 lb/acre preflood.

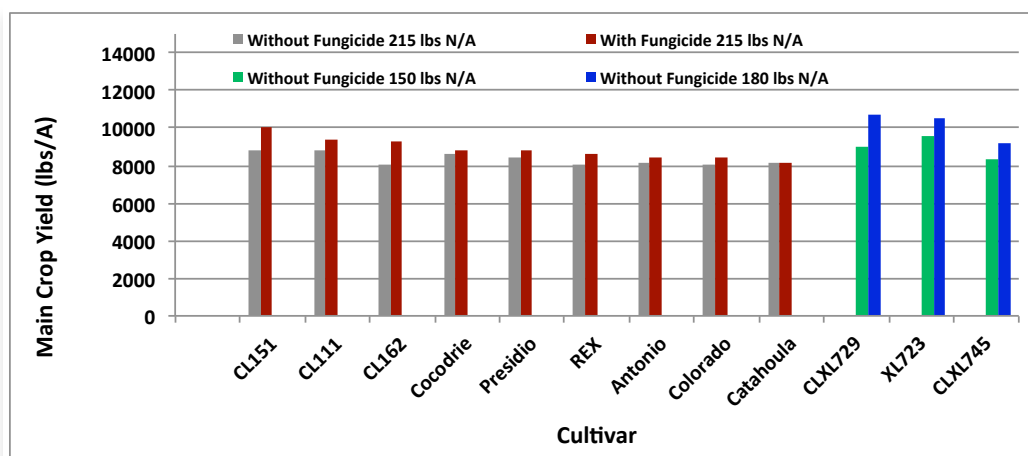


Figure 13a. 2011 variety evaluation, main crop, April 4 planting date, Beaumont, TX.

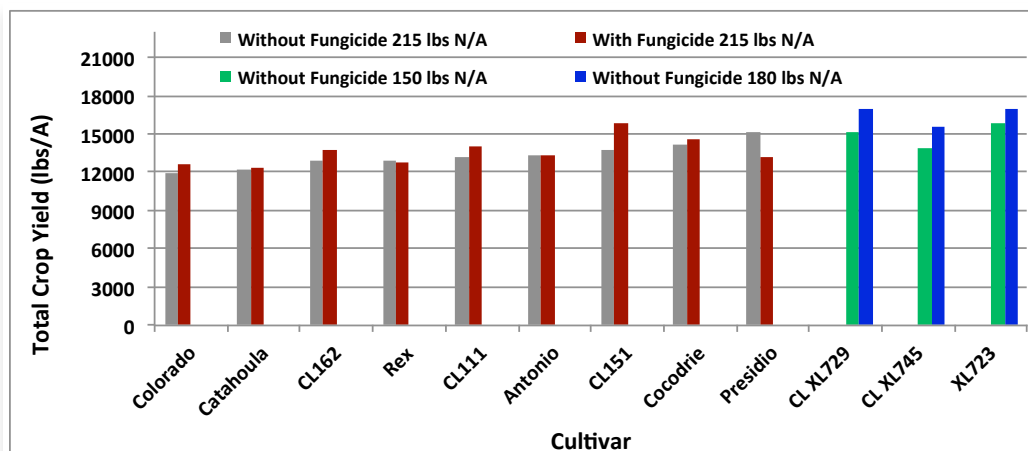


Figure 13b. 2011 variety evaluation, total crop, April 4 planting date, Beaumont, TX.

CLEARFIELD XL745 and XL723 had the highest MC yields. CL151 had the highest MC yields among the inbreds. CL162, Presidio, and Rex were among the varieties with the highest total yield (Fig. 13d).

CLXL729 at the higher nitrogen rate had the highest MC yields. CL151 had the greatest MC yield among the inbreds. These cultivars exhibited a similar rank for total yield (Fig. 13b). Fungicide application to inbreds or higher N to hybrids slightly increased MC milling (Table 13a).

Eagle Lake

On silt loam soil at Eagle Lake (Fig. 13c and Table 13b), applying fungicide to the inbreds (45 lb/acre pre plant, 80 lb/acre preflood and 60 lb/acre at panicle initiation, plus 135 lb/acre for the RC preflood) had similar improvement of yield and milling quality as at Beaumont. However, a higher rate of N to the hybrids (120 lb/acre preflood and 30 lb/acre at boot, plus 135 lb/acre for the ratoon crop preflood, with no fungicide) at Eagle Lake did not increase MC yield. Hybrids had higher MC yields than the inbreds.

Table 13a. Main crop milling quality for varieties planted on April 4th, 2011 on clay soil near Beaumont, TX.

Cultivar- Beaumont Normal Planting	Fungicide/Nitrogen (lbs/A)	% Whole Grain	% Total Milling Yield
Catahoula	No/215	53	70
Catahoula	Yes/215	57	71
CL111	No/215	59	69
CL111	Yes/215	59	69
CL151	No/215	56	68
CL151	Yes/215	56	69
CL162	No/215	52	66
CL162	Yes/215	55	68
Cocodrie	No/215	55	67
Cocodrie	Yes/215	55	67
Presidio	No/215	59	68
Presidio	Yes/215	58	68
Rex	No/215	56	66
Rex	Yes/215	57	67
TXEL0022	No/215	52	65
TXEL0022	Yes/215	50	65
TXEL0038	No/215	49	66
TXEL0038	Yes/215	49	66
CLXL729	No/150	50	68
CLXL729	No/180	52	70
CLXL745	No/150	49	69
CLXL745	No/180	52	71
XL723	No/150	55	70
XL723	No/180	55	70

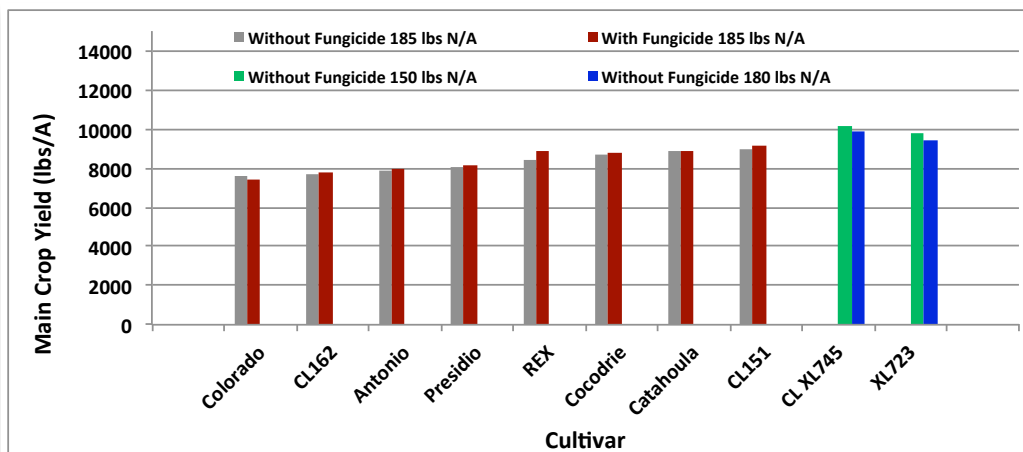


Figure 13c. 2011 variety evaluation, main crop, March 30 planting date, Eagle Lake, TX.

Table 13b. Main crop milling quality for cultivars and hybrids planted on March 30th, 2011 on sandy loam soil near Eagle Lake, TX.

Cultivar- Eagle Lake Normal Planting	Fungicide / Nitrogen (lbs/A)	% Whole Grain	% Total Milling Yield
Catahoula	No/185	56	72
Catahoula	Yes/185	57	72
CL151	No/185	58	71
CL151	Yes/185	61	72
CL162	No/185	54	70
CL162	Yes/185	55	70
Cocodrie	No/185	58	71
Cocodrie	Yes/185	60	72
Presidio	No/185	54	70
Presidio	Yes/185	57	70
REX	No/185	55	71
REX	Yes/185	56	72
TXEL0022	No/185	58	72
TXEL0022	Yes/185	60	72
TXEL0038	No/185	55	71
TXEL0038	Yes/185	55	71
CLXL745	No/150	51	72
CLXL745	No/180	53	71
XL723	No/150	51	71
XL723	No/180	49	71

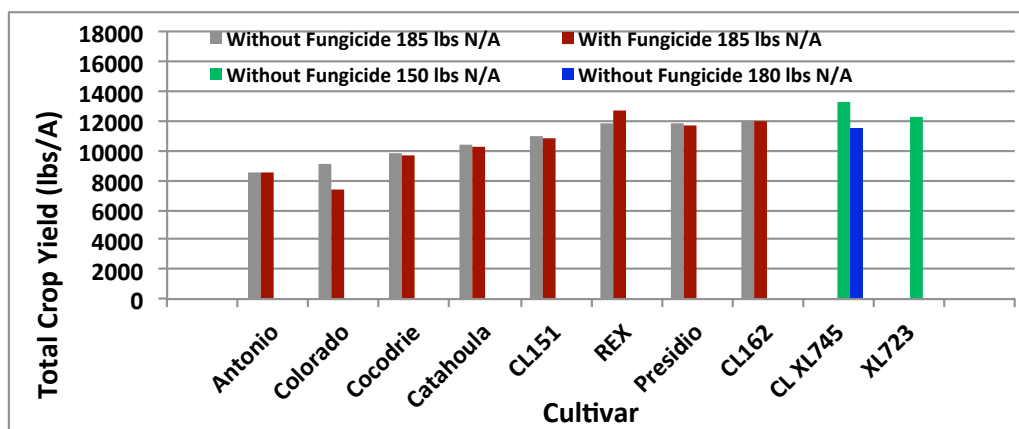


Figure 13d. 2011 variety evaluation, total crop, March 30 planting date, Eagle Lake, TX.

Weed Management

G. N. McCauley and S. A. Senseman

The best approach to controlling weeds in rice involves a combination of good cultural, mechanical and chemical practices. Cultural and mechanical practices include:

- Using certified seed that is relatively free of weed seed;
- Using crop rotations and preparing a good seedbed to eliminate all weeds before planting rice;
- Leveling land in combination with good water management; and
- Developing weed maps or records for individual fields as an aid in determining which herbicides can be used most effectively.

With the semidwarf varieties, it is particularly critical to maintain good early-season weed control because early competition from weeds can significantly reduce rice yield. Therefore, it may be advisable to use a residual herbicide to obtain good initial weed control.

Residual herbicides applied in combination with specific post-emergence herbicides provide good to excellent control of emerged weeds and an additional 4 to 6 weeks of residual control of susceptible species. Because they are soil-active, applying residual herbicides at improper rates can result in long-term rice injury and/or poor weed control. Certain herbicides have label restrictions associated with methods of planting and limitations related to soil texture and water management.

Recommendations and comments

The following is a chronological list of herbicides available for rice with suggested application rates and comments. READ THE LABEL for specific instructions and precautions. See Tables 14a and 14b for weed response ratings for rice herbicides.

Preemergence herbicides

Bolero® 8E

1–2 pt product/acre

(2.0–4.0 lb a.i. thiobencarb/acre)

Comments:

- Rate not dependent on soil factors (texture, organic matter, etc.)
- Safe on rice as soil-applied herbicide
- Can be used on water-seeded rice
- Residual control

Broadhead® 70DF

4.0–12.0 oz product/acre + surfactant

(a.i. carfentrazone + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Can be applied preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Narrow spectrum control
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Do not apply preemergence to water-seeded rice

Command® 3ME

0.7–1.6 pt product/acre

(0.4–0.6 lb a.i. clomazone/acre)

Comments:

- Can be applied to preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Can be applied in split applications with the second application up to 2-leaf rice
- Provides excellent control of grassy weeds
- Very economical
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Application technique critical
- Does not control broadleaf or aquatic weeds
- Does not control emerged grasses

Facet® 75DF

0.33–0.67 lb product/acre

(0.25–0.50 lb a.i. quinclorac/acre)

Comments:

- Can be applied preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Narrow-spectrum control
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Do not apply preemergence to water-seeded rice

Facet® L

21.0–42.0 fl oz product/acre

(0.25–0.50 lb a.i. quinclorac/acre)

Comments:

- Can be applied preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Easier mixing compared to Facet® 75DF
- Narrow-spectrum control
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Do not apply preemergence to water-seeded rice

Facet® 75DF + Bolero® 8EC

0.33-0.67 lb product + 1-2 pt/acre

(0.25-0.50 lb a.i. quinclorac/acre + 2.0-4.0 lb a.i. thiobencarb/acre)

Comments:

- Good control of grass and aquatic weeds
- Safe on rice
- Residual control
- Does not control broadleaf weeds

League®

3.2-6.4 oz product/acre

(0.15-0.3 lb a.i. imazosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Corn, grain sorghum and soybean plant back restricted for 12 months
- Postemergence control restricted to weeds less than 3 inches
- Excellent residual control of sedge and broadleaf weeds
- Does not control grassy weeds

Obey™ 2.5ZC

26.0-52.0 oz product/acre

(0.25-0.5 lb a.i. clomazone + 0.25-0.5 lb a.i. quinclorac)

Comments:

- Can be applied preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Narrow spectrum control
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Do not apply preemergence to water-seeded rice

Permit®

0.67-1.34 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.031-0.062 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Safe on rice
- Does not control grassy weeds
- Narrow weed spectrum

Prowl® H20

1.5–2.0 pt product/acre

(0.75–1.0 lb a.i. pendimethalin/acre)

Comments:

- Good control of grassy weeds
- Residual control
- Narrow-spectrum control
- Short residual control of grassy weeds
- Water management critical

Strada XT²®

6.5 –10.0 oz product/acre

(orthosulfamuron + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Can be applied preemergence or delayed preemergence
- Excellent control of susceptible grasses and emerged broadleaves
- Does not control sprangletop
- Rate dependent upon soil texture
- Do not apply preemergence to water-seeded rice or spray directly on exposed rice seed as severe injury may occur

Postemergence herbicides

Aim® EC

1.6–3.2 fl oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.025–0.05 lb a.i. carfentrazone-ethyl/acre)

Comments:

- Good control of many broadleaf weeds
- Low use rates
- Very economical
- Timing of application critical. Must be applied to small weeds for efficacy
- No residual control

Basagran®

1.5–2.0 pt product/acre

(0.75–1.0 lb a.i. bentazon/acre)

Comments:

- Very safe on rice
- Excellent control of yellow nutsedge and dayflower
- No residual control
- Very narrow weed control spectrum when applied alone

Blazer®

1 pt product/acre + surfactant

(0.25 lb a.i. acifluorfen/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of hemp sesbania
- Timing of application not critical
- Very narrow weed spectrum

Broadhead® 70DF

4.0–12.0 oz product/acre + surfactant

(a.i. carfentrazone + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum weed control
- Contact and residual control
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Restricted from use on sandy soils
- Sensitive to standing water after application

Clincher® SF

10-15 fl oz product/acre + 1 qt COC /acre

(0.19–0.28 lb a.i. cyhalofop/acre)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum grass control
- Safe on rice
- No residual control of weeds
- Performance dependent on environmental conditions; soil moisture is important for effective control

Command® 3ME

0.7–1.6 pt product/acre

(0.4–0.6 lb a.i. clomazone/acre)

Comments:

- Can be applied in split applications with the second application up to 2-leaf rice
- Provides excellent control of grassy weeds
- Very economical
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Application technique critical
- Does not control broadleaf and aquatic weeds
- Does not control emerged grasses

Duet®

3.0 – 5.0 qt product/acre + 1 qt COC/acre

(a.i. propanil + bensulfuron-methyl)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum weed control
- Strong on broadleaf aquatic weeds
- Safe on rice
- Limited residual control of some weeds
- Performance dependent on environmental conditions

Facet® 75DF

0.33–0.67 lb product/acre + COC

(0.25–0.50 lb a.i. quinclorac/acre)

Comments:

- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Narrow spectrum control

Facet® L

21.0–42.0 fl oz product/acre + COC

(0.25–0.50 lb a.i. quinclorac/acre)

Comments:

- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Easier mixing compared to Facet® 75DF
- Narrow spectrum control

Grandstand R®

0.5-0.67 pt product/acre + surfactant

(0.19-0.25 lb a.i. triclopyr/acre)

Comments:

- Good control of broadleaf weeds
- Environmental conditions do not have large impact on performance
- Excellent broad spectrum control of weeds when applied in combination with Stam M4, Stam 80 EDF or Grasp
- Water management critical; delay flooding for 72 hours after application
- Does not control grasses
- May cause injury on young rice; apply after 2- to 3-leaf stage

Grasp®

2.0–2.3 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO

(0.031–0.036 lb a.i. penoxsulam/acre)

Comments:

- Residual control of some weeds and barnyardgrass
- Broad-spectrum control of broadleaf weeds
- Antagonism from Stam on alligatorweed

GraspXtra®

16.0–18.0 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO

1 qt/acre (a.i. penoxsulam + triclopyr)

Comments:

- Residual control for some weeds and barnyardgrass
- Broad-spectrum control of broadleaf weeds
- Water management critical
- Minimum 10 gal/acre spray volume

League®

3.2–4.0 oz product/acre+approved surfactant

(0.15–0.19 lb a.i. imazosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Corn, grain sorghum and soybean plant back restricted for 12 months
- Postemergence control restricted to weeds less than 3 inches
- Excellent contact and residual control of sedge, aquatic and broadleaf weeds
- Does not control grassy weeds

Londax®

1.0–1.66 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.6–1.0 oz a.i. bensulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Timing of application not critical
- Provides some residual control
- Narrow spectrum control
- Water management critical
- Water must cover weeds and remain static in field for minimum of 5 days

Obey™ 2.5ZC

32.0–52.0 oz product/acre

(0.3-0.5 lb a.i. clomazone + 0.3-0.5 lb a.i. quinclorac)

Comments:

- Apply up to the 5-leaf rice stage
- Season-long control of susceptible weeds
- Water management not critical
- Safe on rice
- Narrow spectrum control
- Rate dependent on soil texture
- Can be applied in sequential application with Command 3ME

Permit®

0.67–1.34 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.031–0.062 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Safe on rice
- Does not control grassy weeds
- Narrow weed spectrum

RebelEx®

18.0–20.0 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO

1 qt/acre

(a.i. penoxsulam + cyhalofop)

Comments:

- Residual control for some weeds and barnyardgrass
- Broad spectrum control of broadleaf weeds
- Antagonism from Stam on alligatorweed
- Moist soil critical
- Water management critical
- Minimum 10 gal/acre spray volume

Regiment®

***0.40 – 0.57 oz product/acre + either an approved surfactant and 2% UAN (Urea ammonium nitrate solution)
(might want to designate exactly what UAN is) or an approved surfactant that contains UAN***

(11.25–15.0 gm a.i. bispyribac-sodium/acre)

Comments:

- Broad spectrum control of broadleaf weeds and flatsedges
- Excellent control of large barnyardgrass
- Good control of alligatorweed
- No residual control

RiceBeaux®

3.0–5.3 qt product/acre + surfactant

(a.i. propanil + thiobencarb)

Comments:

- Rate not sensitive to soil characteristics (texture, organic matter, etc.)
- Safe on rice as soil-applied herbicide
- Can be used on water-seeded rice after the 3-leaf stage of rice
- Residual control of grasses
- Performance dependent on environmental conditions
- Phytotoxic interaction with certain insecticides

RicePro®

2.0–4.0 qt product/acre + COC 1.0 qt/acre

(a.i. propanil + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Broad spectrum weed control
- Performance dependent on environmental conditions
- Phytotoxic interaction with certain insecticides

Ricestar HT®

13.0–17.0 fl oz product/acre

(0.94–1.23 lb a.i. fenoxaprop-P/acre)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Excellent control of grassy weeds
- Does not control broadleaf, aquatic weeds or sedges
- Multi-tillered grass control, good to poor

Propanil (Stam M4, 80 EDF, RiceShot and SuperWham)

2.0–4.0 qt or 3.75–5.0 lb product/acre

(2.0–4.0 lb a.i. propanil/acre)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Broad-spectrum weed control
- Used in combination with many other herbicides to increase spectrum of weed control
- No residual control
- Performance dependent on environmental conditions
- Phytotoxic interaction with certain insecticides
- Always use surfactant or COC with Stam 80 EDF or SuperWham

Propanil + Aim® EC

2.0–4.0 qt + 1.6–3.2 fl oz product/acre

(2.0–4.0 lb + 0.025–0.05 lb a.i. propanil + carfentrazone/acre)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum weed control
- No residual control
- Most effective on small weeds

Propanil + Basagran®

2.0–4.0 qt + 1.5–2.0 pt product/acre

(2.0–4.0 lb a.i. propanil + 0.75–1.0 lb a.i. bentazon/ acre)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Broad-spectrum weed control
- No residual control

Propanil + Bolero® 8E

2.0–4.0 qt + 1–2 pt product/acre

(2.0–4.0 a.i. propanil + 2.0–4.0 lb a.i. + thiobencarb/ acre)

Comments:

- Rate not dependent on soil factors (texture, organic matter, etc.)
- Safe on rice as soil-applied herbicide
- Can be used on water-seeded rice
- Residual control

Propanil + Grandstand R®

1.0–4.0 qt + 0.5–0.67 pt product/acre

(1.0–4.0 lb a.i. propanil+ 0.19–0.25 lb a.i. triclopyr/ acre)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum weed control
- Water management critical; delay flooding for 72 hours after application
- May cause injury on young rice

Propanil + Permit®

2.0–4.0 qt + 0.67–1.34 oz product/acre

(2.0–4.0 lb a.i. propanil + 0.031–0.062 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum weed control
- Safe on rice
- No residual control

Storm®

1.5 pt product/acre + surfactant

(a.i. 0.5 lb a.i. bentazon + 0.25 lb a.i. acifluorfen)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- No residual control
- Does not control grassy weeds

Strada®

1.7–2.1 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.053–0.065 lb a.i. orthosulfamuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Good control of selected broadleaves
- Safe on rice
- Good tank mix partner in the CLEARFIELD® System
- Does not control grassy weeds

Strada PRO®

2.08 – 2.5 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.055 - 0.066 lb a.i. orthosulfamuron/acre + 0.0155 - 0.0186 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Good control of selected broadleaves
- Safe on rice
- Good tank mix partner in the CLEARFIELD® System
- Does not control grassy weeds

Strada XT²®

6.5 –10.0 oz product/acre

(orthosulfamuron + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Excellent control of susceptible grasses and emerged broadleaves
- Does not control sprangletop

Post-flood herbicides

2,4-D Amine 4E

1.5–2.5 pt product/acre + surfactant

(0.75–1.25 a.i. 2,4-dichlorophenoxy acetic acid/acre)

Comments:

- Very economical
- Good control of broadleaf weeds
- Timing of application critical
- Apply between tillering and panicle initiation
- No residual control

Clincher® SF

13.5–15.0 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO 1 qt/acre

(0.25–0.28 lb a.i. cyhalofop/acre)

Comments:

- Safe on rice
- Safe on adjacent broadleaf crops (soybean and cotton)
- Good control of annual grassy weeds and knotgrass
- Does not control broadleaf weeds or sedges

Grasp® 2.3–2.8 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO 1 qt/acre

(0.036–0.044 lb a.i. penoxsulam/acre)

Comments:

- Controls large barnyardgrass, many broadleaf weeds and flat sedge
- Excellent control of aquatic weeds
- Does not control broadleaf signalgrass, sprangletop or fall panicum

GraspXtra®

20–22 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO 1 qt/acre

(a.i. 0.039–0.043 lb a.i. penoxsulam + 0.234–0.258 lb acid equivalent (a.e.) triclopyr)

Comments:

- Residual control for some weeds and barnyardgrass
- Broad spectrum control of broadleaf weeds, flat- sedges and barnyardgrass
- Excellent control of alligatorweed
- Minimum 10 gal/acre spray volume
- Do not apply after rice reaches 1/2 inch internode

Permit®

0.67-1.34 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.031-0.062 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Safe on rice
- Does not control grassy weeds
- Narrow weed spectrum

Permit® - Seed head suppression

1.0-1.34 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.046-0.062 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Hemp sesbania and northern jointvetch
- Safe on rice
- Do not apply within 48 days of harvest
- Narrow weed spectrum

RebelEx®

18.0-20.0 fl oz product/acre + COC or MSO 1 qt/ acre

(a.i. 0.035-0.039 lb a.i. penoxsulam + 0.25-0.278 lb a.i. cyhalofop)

Comments:

- Residual control for some weeds
- Broad- spectrum control of broadleaf weeds
- Antagonism from Stam on alligatorweed
- Water management critical
- Minimum 10 gal/acre spray volume
- Do not apply within 60 days of harvest

Regiment®

0.40-0.57 oz product/acre + either an approved surfactant and 2% UAN or an approved surfactant that contains UAN

(11.25-15.0 gm a.i. bispyribac-sodium/acre)

Comments:

- Broad-spectrum control of broadleaf weeds and aquatic weeds
- Excellent control of large barnyardgrass
- No residual control

Strada[®]

2.1 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.065 lb a.i. orthosulfamuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of flatsedges
- Good control of selected broadleaves
- Weeds must be exposed to ensure adequate coverage
- Safe on rice
- Good tank mix partner in the CLEARFIELD[®] System
- Does not control grassy weeds

Strada PRO[®]

2.08 – 2.5 oz product/acre + surfactant

(0.055–0.066 lb a.i. orthosulfamuron/acre + 0.0155 - 0.186 lb a.i. halosulfuron/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of sedges
- Good control of selected broadleaves
- Safe on rice
- Good tank mix partner in the CLEARFIELD[®] System
- Does not control grassy weeds

CLEARFIELD[®] System

Beyond[®]

5.0 oz product/acre + COC

(0.04 lb a.i. imazamox/acre)

Comments:

- Controls red rice escapes in CLEARFIELD
- Limited carryover
- Restricted to imidazolinone-tolerant rice varieties or hybrids possessing the second generation tolerance trait
- Cannot be tank mixed with other herbicides
- Can be applied late postemergence or postflood after two applications of Newpath
- Timing critical
- Two-thirds of red rice plant must be exposed for effective postflood applications

Clearpath®

0.5–0.72 lb product/acre + COC

(a.i. imazethapyr + quinclorac)

Comments:

- Excellent control of red rice, grassy weeds and nutsedge
- Adds broadleaf control to the CLEARFIELD system
- Can be applied preplant, preemergence, or postemergence
- Residual control
- Application timing and water management critical
- CLEARFIELD varieties must be grown
- Clearpath must be preceded or followed by Newpath
- Restricted to imidazolinone-tolerant rice varieties or hybrids possessing the second generation tolerance trait

Newpath®

4.0–6.0 oz product/acre + COC (minimum of 12.8 oz) for postemergence applications

(0.0625 a.i. imazethapyr/acre)

Comments:

- Excellent control of red rice, grassy weeds and nutsedge
- Residual control
- Application timing and water management critical
- Seasonal application not to exceed 12 oz/acre
- Chemical rate, water volume and adjuvant rate are critical
- CLEARFIELD varieties must be grown
- Two applications required (only soybeans can be planted after 12 oz product/acre)
- Restricted to imidazolinone-tolerant rice varieties or hybrids possessing the second generation tolerance trait

Table 14a. Weed response ratings for rice herbicides.

Herbicides	Weeds and control																				
	Barnyardgrass	Crabgrass	Signalgrass	Sprangletop	Red rice	Johnsongrass	Nutsedges	Flatsedges	Spikerush	Ammania (redstem)	Dayflower	Ducksalad	Eclipta	Gooseweed	Jointvetchs	Morningglories	Hemp Sesbania	Smartweed	Water-hyssop	Texasweed	Alligatorweed
Preemergence																					
Bolero	F	E	P	E	U	P	U	F	F	F	G	F	G	F	F	U	U	U	U	U	U
Broadhead	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	G	F	U	F	U	U
Command	E	E	E	E	U	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
Facet 75 DF	E	E	E	F	U	P	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	G	E	U	F	U	U
Facet L	E	E	E	F	U	P	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	G	E	U	F	U	U
Facet + Bolero	E	E	E	F	U	P	U	U	F	F	G	F	G	F	G	G	F	U	F	U	U
Obey	E	E	E	E	U	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	G	E	U	F	U	U
League	U	U	U	-	U	U	E	G	-	-	E	F	G	-	G	G	G	-	-	E	U
Permit	-	U	U	F	U	U	E	-	U	U	E	U	-	U	-	U	U	E	U	U	U
Prowl H2O ¹	G	E	E	E	U	G	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
Strada XT ²	E	E	E	U	U	U	G	E	-	E	G	F	E	-	E	G	E	F	G	F	F
Postemergence																					
Aim ²	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	F	F	F	F	U	E	E	E	G	E	F	F
Basagran ³	U	U	U	U	U	U	E ²	G	G	G	E	E	G	F	U	U	U	F	G	U	U
Blazer	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	U	U	U	U
Broadhead	E	E	E	U	U	U	F	U	U	F	F	F	G	U	E	E	E	G	E	F	U
Clincher	E	G	G	G	U	G ⁶	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
Duet	G	G	E	U	U	U	G	E	E	E	G	G	E	E	E	E	E	U	G	G	U
Facet 75 DF	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	U	G	G	P	U	F	U	U
Facet L	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	U	G	G	P	U	F	U	U
Grandstand R ⁴	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	F	U	F	G	G	E	F	U	G	G	F
Grandstand R +	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	G	G	F	F	F	G	G	E	E	E	F	G	G	F
Grandstand R +	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	E	F	G	F	F	F	G	G	E	E	F	G	G	F
Grasp	E	U	U	U	U	U	F	E	G	F	E	E	E	U	E	F	G	G	G	G	G
GraspXtra	E	U	U	U	U	U	F	E	G	E	E	E	E	F	E	E	E	E	E	G	E
League	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	G	-	G	E	F	G	-	G	G	G	-	-	E	U
Londax	U	U	U	U	U	U	F	G	G	G	G	G	G	G	F	U	U	U	G	G	U
Obey	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	G	E	U	F	U	U
Permit	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	G	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	U	U	U
RebelEx	E	U	F	G	U	G	F	E	G	F	E	E	E	U	E	F	E	G	G	G	G
Regiment	E	U	U	U	U	G	U	G	U	F	G	F	F	G	G	F	E	G	G	F	F
RiceBeaux	E	E	E	G	U	P	U	G	E	G	G	F	G	F	G	U	G	U	G	G	U
RicePro	E	E	E	U	U	G	U	F	G	F	U	F	E	U	G	G	U	F	F	U	U
Ricestar HT	E	P	F	F	U	P	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
Propanil ^{2,5}	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	G	G	F	U	F	G	U	G	U	E	U	F	F	U
Propanil ⁵ + Aim	E	E	E	U	U	U	U	U	U	F	F	F	G	U	E	E	E	G	E	G	F
Propanil ⁵ +	E	E	E	U	U	U	G	G	G	G	E	E	G	G	G	U	G	G	G	F	U
Propanil ⁵ + Bolero	E	E	E	G	U	P	U	G	E	G	G	G	G	F	G	U	G	U	G	G	U
Propanil ⁵ + Permit	E	E	E	U	U	U	E	G	G	F	U	F	G	U	G	U	F	U	G	F	U
Propanil ⁵ + Strada	E	E	E	E	U	U	G	E	G	E	E	G	G	U	E	G	E	F	G	G	G
Strada	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	E	-	E	G	F	F	-	E	F	E	F	G	F	F
Strada PRO	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	E	-	E	G	F	F	-	E	F	E	F	G	F	F
Strada XT ²	E	E	E	U	U	U	G	E	-	E	G	F	E	-	E	G	E	F	G	F	F
Storm	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	G	G	E	E	E	G	G	U	U	E	F	G	U	U

Control symbols: U=Unacceptable <59%, P=Poor 60 – 69%, F=fair 70-79%, G=good 80-89%, E=excellent 90-100%, “-“ = data not available. Control expected under optimum conditions.

¹ delayed preemergence, ² early postemergence, ³ control is based on yellow nutsedge, ⁴ mid-season, ⁵ Stam 4, Stam 80 EDF, RiceShot and Super Wham, ⁶ seedling only.

Table 14b. Weed response ratings for rice herbicides.

Herbicides	Weeds and control																				
	Barnyardgrass	Crabgrass	Signalgrass	Sprangletop	Red rice	Johnsongrass	Nutsedges	Flatsedges	Spikerush	Ammania (redstem)	Dayflower	Ducksalad	Eclipta	Gooseweed	Jointvetchs	Morningglories	Hemp Sesbania	Smartweed	Water-hyssop	Texasweed	Alligatorweed
Postflood																					
2,4-D	U	U	U	U	U	-	U	G	G	E	E	E	E	F	F	E	E	F	E	E	F
Clincher	G	U	E	E	U	-	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U
Grasp	G	U	U	U	U	-	F	E	G	F	G	E	E	-	E	U	G	G	G	-	G
GraspXtra	E	U	U	U	U	-	G	E	G	E	E	E	E	G	E	E	E	E	E	G	E
Permit	U	U	U	U	U	-	E	G	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	U	U	U	U
RebelEx	E	F	G	E	U	-	F	E	G	F	E	E	E	G	E	U	E	G	G	F	G
Regiment	E	U	U	U	U	-	U	G	U	F	G	F	F	F	G	F	G	G	G	F	G
Strada	U	U	U	U	U	U	G	E	-	E	G	F	F	-	E	F	E	F	G	F	F
Strada PRO	U	U	U	U	U	U	E	E	-	E	G	F	F	-	E	F	E	F	G	F	F
CLEARFIELD*																					
Beyond	G	-	E	-	E	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-	-
NewPath	E	E	E	F	E	P	G	E	G	G	F	F	U	U	U	G	U	G	U	F	U
ClearPath	E	E	E	F	E	P	G	E	G	G	F	F	G	U	G	G	F	G	F	F	U

Control symbols: U=Unacceptable <59%, P=Poor 60-69%, F=fair 70-79%, G=good 80-89%, E=excellent 90-100%, "-" = data not available. Control expected under optimum conditions.

Red Rice Management

G. N. McCauley

Controlling red rice requires a program approach that uses good management—a combination of preventive, cultural and chemical methods in conjunction with crop rotation.

Preventive Practices

Preventive measures include planting high quality rice seed and using clean equipment and machinery in farm operations. Use of high quality rice seed free of red rice is extremely important in preventing the introduction of red rice into a field. After working a field infested with red rice, whether during field preparation or harvesting, clean machinery before moving to the next field to prevent the introduction of red rice seed into other fields. Mud and other debris that clings to tractors and cultivating equipment can contain red rice seed that can be moved into a red rice-free field.

Cultural Methods

In addition to preventive practices, certain cultural methods can be used. During seedbed preparation, it is important to **destroy all red rice plants** in the field before planting.

Because red rice is more vigorous and grows faster than commercial rice, give commercial rice an opportunity to compete effectively with red rice by **planting it at the suggested (or at a slightly higher) seeding rate**. Red rice tillering and seed production is decreased when competition from commercial rice is high.

Use **proper water management** to suppress red rice effectively. Permitting soil to cycle (dry out and rewet) encourages the germination of weed and red rice seed.

Water-seeding in combination with good water management helps suppress red rice. Two suggested techniques are continuous flood culture and the pinpoint flood system (see the Irrigation and Water Management section). In these two cultural systems, it is important to flood immediately after seedbed preparation. A delay in flooding allows red rice seed to germinate and get established before flooding, resulting in a loss of red rice suppression.

Post-harvest management is critical in red rice management. High moisture red rice seed incorporated in the soil may remain dormant for many years. Red rice seed left on the soil surface over winter will lose dormancy. These seed will germinate by March and can be killed by cultivation. Red rice will lose its dormancy through a series of wetting and drying cycles. A winter with alternating dry and wet periods most likely will result in severe red rice pressure in the following season. A wet winter generally results in lower red rice pressure the next season.

Herbicide Use

Although both continuous and pinpoint flood culture suppress red rice, they may not provide adequate control. To improve control, use herbicides in combination with specific water management techniques.

Newpath[®] can be applied only to CLEARFIELD rice varieties and provides very effective control of red rice. Two applications are critical for control. The first application can be applied preplant and incorporated or at spiking to one leaf rice or red rice. The later application has proven to provide better red rice control. The second application should be applied at four-leaf rice or red rice. Applications made later (five- to six-leaf) may reduce control.

It is important that the herbicide be activated immediately after application with a flush or rainfall. The best control is obtained when the flood is applied no later than 7 days after the last application. Field selection is critical. Non-CLEARFIELD rice fields and other crops are extremely sensitive to drift. Escapes can occur in either of these chemical management systems. In the CLEARFIELD/Newpath system, Beyond[®] at 5 oz per acre can be used to control escapes. Beyond[®] can be applied between late tillering and panicle initiation. Beyond[®] can be applied only following two applications of Newpath[®]. It is strongly recommended that escapes be rouged from fields before heading.

Stale Seedbed Technique

Another method of red rice control is to use the fall or spring stale seedbed cultural management system as described in the Land and Seedbed Preparation chapter. Keep it idle or stale to allow germination and growth of red rice. If necessary, fields may be flushed to maximize red rice seed germination.

When red rice is actively growing and 4 inches tall or less, apply 1 quart of 4 lb a.i./gal glyphosate. When applying by air, use 3 to 5 gallons of water per acre. Application to red rice growing in saturated soils is not as effective as in moist soils. Normal production practices are then followed. For the most effective control of red rice, wait at least 6 days but not more than 9 days after application to flood and plant using the water-seeded method.

Crop Rotation

The most practical and economical way to control red rice is to rotate grain sorghum and soybeans with rice. Two suggested 3-year crop rotations are soybeans/soybeans/rice, or grain sorghum/soybeans/rice. When growing soybeans in these rotations, use an herbicide such as Prowl[®], Lasso[®], Dual Magnum[®] or Treflan[®] at recommended label rates. Planting grain sorghum in the rotation and using atrazine is also effective. Although red rice can be controlled with these herbicides, early cultivation and application of a selective post-emergence soybean herbicide such as Poast Plus[®], Select[®], Assure[®] II or Fusilade[®] DX are necessary to control any red rice that escapes the soil-applied herbicide. It is important to plant alternate crops for at least 2 years before rice to achieve satisfactory control of red rice.

Disease Management

X. G. Zhou and Y.-K. Jo

Plant diseases are a serious limiting factor in the production of rice in Texas. The Texas Gulf Coast provides a warm, humid climate favorable for the development of many diseases. It is estimated that diseases annually reduce rice yields an average of 12% across the Texas Rice Belt.

Fungi are the major disease causing organism affecting Texas rice. These include sheath blight, blast, narrow brown leaf spot, sheath rot, stem rot, brown spot, black sheath rot, false smut, and kernel smut. Bacterial panicle blight, caused by *Burkholderia glumae* and/or *B. gladioli*, can also cause significant damage to rice production. Straighthead, a physiological disorder caused by high arsenic levels in the soil and other unknown causes, occasionally results in a significant reduction in yield and quality of rice. Texas and other U.S. rice-producing states currently do not have any serious viral or nematode diseases.

Over the past decade, many changes in rice production practices designed to obtain maximum yields have also created conditions favorable for the development of diseases. Some of these practices include increased nitrogen fertilization, increased acreage planted with susceptible varieties, shortened rotations, increased acreage of rotation with soybean, and high seeding rates.

Several options for management of rice diseases are available. However, employing single disease management options are frequently not very effective or sustainable. Rice producers should try to manage disease losses through an integrated use of resistant varieties, sound cultural practices and chemical controls.

Sheath Blight

Sheath blight, caused by the fungus *Rhizoctonia solani*, is the most important rice disease in Texas and probably the second most important rice disease worldwide. The disease is present wherever rice is grown in Texas. Under favorable conditions for disease development, sheath blight can cause up to 50% grain yield loss. The occurrence of this disease results in reductions in grain yield and grain quality and increased lodging in the main crop. Sheath blight in the main crop directly causes a reduction on healthy plant population in the ratoon crop, resulting in additional yield losses.

The initial lesions on leaf sheaths are circular, oval or ellipsoid, and greenish-gray and start to develop a little above the waterline. The lesions enlarge and coalesce forming bigger lesions with irregular outlines and grayish-white

centers surrounded by dark brown borders (Fig. 16a). As lesions coalesce on the sheaths, entire leaves eventually die. Lesions on the leaf blades are more irregular with dark green, brown or yellow-orange margins. The lesions can develop extensively and coalesce on partial or whole leaf blades, producing a rattlesnake skin pattern (Fig. 16b). Sclerotia, the survival structures of the fungus, form on the surfaces on some sheaths and leaf blades. The pea-sized sclerotia are white when first formed, and then turn brown or dark brown. Diseased plants reduce grain filling, especially in the lower portion of the panicles. Losses in yield also are associated with increased lodging or reduced ratoon crop production.



Figure 16a. Sheath blight lesions on sheath.



Figure 16b. Sheath blight lesions on leaf.

The increased use of sheath blight-susceptible semidwarf varieties, along with the recommended high nitrogen fertilization required to obtain their maximum yield potential has resulted in greater losses from sheath blight. Also, the trend towards shorter crop rotations and rice grown in rotation with soybeans has made the disease more troublesome by allowing the fungus to increase in quantity within fields. The same fungal pathogen, *R. solani*, can infect both rice and soybeans. On soybeans, the pathogen causes aerial blight. None of the leading high yielding varieties have acceptable levels of resistance to sheath blight. As a result, rice producers have increased their reliance on fungicides to manage sheath blight.

Cultural Control - To effectively and economically reduce yield losses from sheath blight, an integrated management approach needs to be used. Some practices may be economical only where sheath blight is a persistent, significant problem. Others are recommended in all situations as sound management practices that will help prevent the buildup of sheath blight or limit its effects where the problem exists. Some recommended cultural practices include:

- Avoid excessive seeding rates, which result in a very dense canopy that creates a moist microclimate favorable to disease development;
- Avoid excessive rates of nitrogen fertilization, which increase the severity of the disease;
- Where possible, increase the interval between rice crops to at least 1 year of rice in every 3 years. Research has shown that rotations of pasture-pasture-rice, soybean-soybean-rice and rice-soybean-rice had an average incidence of sheath blight of 0.4, 2.7 and 5.4%, respectively, at panicle differentiation (PD). In addition, more sheath blight inoculum for future rice crops tends to be produced in drilled soybeans than in row-planted soybeans; and
- Control grass weeds that can serve as hosts of the sheath blight fungus. Barnyardgrass, crabgrass and broadleaf signalgrass are among the most common weed hosts of the pathogen.

Variety Selection - Long grain rice varieties differ in their susceptibility to sheath blight (Table 16a). CL131, CL161, Cocodrie and Cybonnet are very susceptible to sheath blight while Jasmine 85, Jefferson, Wells, Saber, and most of the medium grain and hybrid varieties are less susceptible or moderately resistant. Taller varieties tend to sustain less loss than semidwarf varieties.

Table 16a. Disease reaction of rice varieties in Texas

Variety	Blast	Sheath blight	Kernel smut	Bacterial Panicle blight	Brown spot	Narrow brown leaf spot	Straighthead
Antonio	MR	VS	S	S	MR	S	VS
Banks	MR	MR	-	MR	MR	R	MS
Bengal	S	MS	MS	VS	MR	MS	VS
Bowman	VS*	MS	MS	VS	MR	MS	R
Catahoula	R*	VS	S	MS	MR	S	S
CL111	MS	VS	S	VS	MR	S	MS
CL131	MS*	VS	S	VS	MR	S	S
CL142-AR	S*	MS	S	VS	MR	MS	-
CL151	VS*	S	S	S	MS	S	VS
CL161	S	VS	S	S	MS	S	MR
CL171AR	MR	VS	S	S	MR	S	MS
CL181 AR	MS	VS	S	VS	MR	S	MS

Table 16a. Disease reaction of rice varieties in Texas

Variety	Blast	Sheath blight	Kernel smut	Bacterial Panicle blight	Brown spot	Narrow brown leaf spot	Straighthead
CL261	VS	MS	MS	VS	R	MS	S
CL XL729	R	MS	MS	MR	MS	R	MR
CL XL 730	R	MS	MS	MR	MR	R	MR
CL XL745	MR	MS	MS	MR	MS	R	-
Cheniere	S	S	S	S	MR	S	MR
Cocodrie	MR	VS	S	VS	MR	S	VS
Colorado	MR	VS	S	S	MR	S	VS
Cybonnet	MR	VS	S	S	R	S	MS
Cypress	S	VS	S	VS	MR	MS	MS
Della	S	MS	-	-	S	MR	MS
Dellrose	S	S	-	S	MS	S	MS
Dixiebelle	S	VS	-	-	R	MS	MR
Francis	S	S	S	VS	MS	MR	MR
Hidalgo	S	MR	-	-	-	-	-
Jasmine 85	R	MR	MS	MR	S	R	S
Jazzman	S	S	MS	VS	MR	VS	S
Jazzman 2	MS	S	-	S	-	S	-
Jefferson	MR	MR	S	-	MR	MR	MR
JES	-	S	-	S	MS	R	MR
Jupiter	MS	S	MS	MR	MS	MR	S
Medark	MR	MS	-	MS	MR	R	-
Milagro Filipino	-	MS	-	-	MR	R	-
Neches	MR	VS	-	-	-	-	-

Table 16a. Disease reaction of rice varieties in Texas

Variety	Blast	Sheath blight	Kernel smut	Bacterial Panicle blight	Brown spot	Narrow brown leaf spot	Straighthead
Neptune	MR*	MS	MS	S	MR	MR	MS
Pirogue	MS	MS	MS	MS	MR	MR	MR
Presidio	MR	VS	S	MS	MR	S	MR
Rondo	-	MS	-	MS	MR	R	MR
Saber	R	MR	S	-	R	MS	R
Sierra	MR	VS	-	S	MS	VS	MS
Spring	S	MS	MS	MS	MR	MS	MS
Sabine	S	S	S	VS	MS	VS	-
Taggart	S	MS	S	MS	MR	MS	R
Templeton	R	MS	S	VS	MR	MS	S
Trenasse	MS	VS	S	S	S	S	MR
Wells	S	MS	MR	VS	MS	S	MR
XL723	MR	MR	MS	MR	MS	R	MR
XL744	MR	MR	MS	MR	MS	R	-

VR = very resistance; R = resistant; MR = moderately resistant; MS = moderately susceptible; S = susceptible; VS = very susceptible.

These ratings are relative. Varieties rated S or VS may show extensive disease development under favorable conditions.

Varieties rated R or MR show significantly less damage under similar conditions.

*Based on disease reaction ratings made in Arkansas and/or Louisiana.

Chemical Control - Several fungicides are available for effective control of sheath blight (Table 16b). Sercadis (active ingredient fluxapyroxad) is a new fungicide which can be used on rice in 2014 Texas data show Sercadis is effective for sheath blight control and yield increase. Sercadis provides a new tool for sheath blight resistance management. Sheath blight resistance to azoxystrobin has been found in SW Louisiana. In many situations, foliar fungicides may be economically justified for reducing losses from sheath blight if:

- Disease pressure is sufficiently high;
- Susceptible varieties of rice are grown;
- The crop has a high yield potential in the absence of sheath blight; and
- Environmental conditions are favorable for the disease to spread to the upper leaves of the rice plant.

It is difficult to estimate the potential severity of sheath blight in a field in order to determine the economic feasibility of applying a fungicide. However, given the high costs of fungicide spray programs and the need to reduce production costs, the proper assessment should be made.

Table 16b. Fungicides for rice foliar disease control.

Material	Rate/A and timing
Bumper® 41.8 EC	6.0-10.0 fl oz @ PD to late boot
Gem® 500 SC	3.8-4.7 fl oz @ (PD+5 days) to 50% heading
Moncut® 70 DF	0.5-0.71 lb @ PD and 10-14 days later or 0.5-1.0 lb @ (PD+10 days) to heading
Propimax®	6.0-10.0 fl oz @ PD to late boot
Quadris®	9.0-15.5 fl oz @ (PD+5 days) to 50% heading
Quilt®	14.0-34.5 fl oz @ (PD+5 days) to late boot
QuiltXcel® (contains 0.56 lb ai/gal more azoxystrobin than Quilt®)	14.0-27.0 fl oz applied as a preventative @ 90% panicle emergence, depending on disease
Sercadis®	4.5-6.8 fl oz @ PD to late boot
Stratego®	14.0-19.0 fl oz @ (PD+5 days) to late boot
Tilt®	6.0-10.0 fl oz @ PD to late boot

¹ See product label for details on application rates and timing.

Some other diseases for which fungicides have shown some efficacy include:

Stem rot: Quadris® 12.5-15.5 fl oz/A at PD to mid boot.

Kernel smut: Tilt® 6.0-10.0 fl oz/A or PropiMax® 6.0-10.0 fl oz/A at late boot.

Blast: Quadris® 12.5-15.5 fl oz/A, Gem® 6.4-9.8 fl oz/A, Stratego® 14.0-19.0 fl oz/A, Quilt® 34.5 fl oz/A, or QuiltXcel® 21.0-27.0 fl oz/ at late boot and again at early heading when 50 to 70% of the main tillers have panicles 70 to 80% of their length emerged but with the panicle bases yet unexposed.

If only one fungicide application is used, the early heading application is more effective.

To estimate the severity of sheath blight infestation, monitor the field at or shortly after the PD growth stage (Fig. 16c). It may not be necessary to precisely monitor a field with a recent history of severe sheath blight that is on a short crop rotation (more than one rice crop in a 3 year interval). Under very favorable conditions all varieties benefit from a fungicide for sheath blight control.

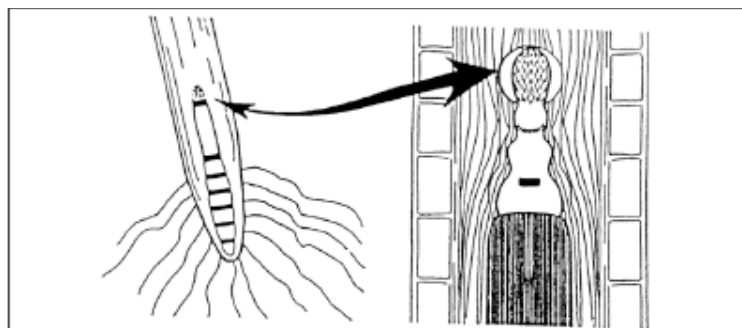


Figure 16c. Panicle differentiation (PD)

Monitoring for Sheath Blight - Sheath blight develops at a rapid pace during favorable environmental conditions.

Begin scouting for evidence of sheath blight during PD by walking across the field in a zigzag pattern (Fig. 16d),

periodically observing rice above the water line for evidence of early sheath blight lesions.

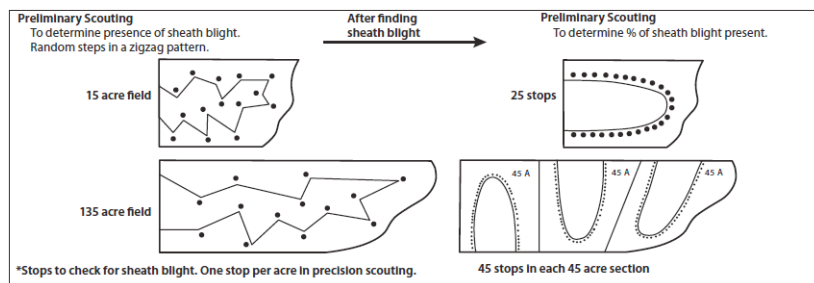


Figure 16d. Suggested scouting procedure for sheath blight.

of a “T,” with a 4 foot handle connected by a “T” joint to two, 14 inch lateral tubes. The device is used to push open the rice canopy and is a back-saver.

To monitor more precisely, divide large fields into 45 to 50 acre sections and inspect each section separately (Fig. 16d). Walk the field sections in a “U” pattern, randomly stopping to check for the presence of sheath blight.

Record the stop as positive for sheath blight even if only one small sheath blight lesion is found on a single plant. The stop is considered negative if absolutely no sheath blight is found. The total number of stops should be at least equal to the number of acres in the area scouted (i.e., 45 acres = 45 or more stops).

Finally, divide the number of positive stops where sheath blight was found by the total number of stops and multiply by 100. This will give the percentage of positive sheath blight stops.

The thresholds for economical fungicide application are based on the amount of sheath blight present at PD and the variety planted (Table 16c). With very susceptible and susceptible varieties, 35% positive stops indicate that a fungicide is necessary. A moderately susceptible variety requires 50% positive stops to justify a fungicide treatment. In the past, two fungicide applications were necessary to control sheath blight but with the advent of more effective fungicides and economic restraints, a single application is generally used. Fungicides are normally applied between 7 days after PD and 50 to 70% heading. Earlier applications tend to weather off too soon to obtain season long control and late applications can allow sheath blight to cause significant damage early in the season. As with blast, fungicides must be applied by the heading growth stage since control is greatly reduced with as little as a 5 day delay.

Table 16c. Threshold guidelines suggested for economical fungicide application for management of sheath blight.

Sheath blight susceptibility*	Positive stops	Infected tillers
Very susceptible varieties: Antonia, Catahoula, CL131, CL161, Cocodrie, Colorado, Cybonnet, Cypress, Sierra, etc.	35%	5%
Moderately susceptible to moderately resistant varieties: Cheniere, Jefferson, Wells, Rondo, Spring, Saber, Cheniere, many medium grain varieties, and hybrid varieties	50%	10%

* See Table 16a for sheath blight susceptibility ratings.

Several other factors to consider in deciding whether or not to use a fungicide include plant density, prevailing weather and ratoon cropping. The denser the canopy, the more favorable the conditions for sheath blight to develop.

The thresholds suggested do not take into account the possibility of second cropping (ratoon cropping) the field being evaluated. They are based on only one harvest. It is well documented that when sheath blight is controlled by fungicides in the main crop, a significant increase in yield also can occur in the ratoon crop. Therefore, if a ratoon crop is planned, the suggested thresholds might be reduced to 25% positive stops for very susceptible varieties or 30% positive stops for moderately susceptible varieties.

The thresholds are estimates based on information and conditions occurring at the time of evaluation, preferably at PD. If very favorable weather conditions develop later and persist, sheath blight can develop rapidly and make the original threshold determination obsolete. Sheath blight should be monitored periodically during the development of the rice crop through heading.

Rice Blast

Rice blast, caused by the fungus *Pyricularia grisea*, can cause severe losses to susceptible varieties when environmental conditions such as warm, moist weather favor disease development.



Figure 16e. Leaf blast

The blast fungus causes leaf symptoms (spots and lesions) on young plants from the seedling to tillering stages, and panicle blast or rotten neck symptoms after heading. Leaf lesions are football- or spindle-shaped and elongated with brown to purple-brown borders and grayish centers (Fig. 16e). Leaves and whole plants are often killed when the disease is severe, especially in upland or non-flooded situations.

The rotten neck phase of the disease is commonly observed 5 to 10 days after head emergence. With rotten neck, a brownish lesion at the node at the base of the panicle (Fig. 16f) often prevents the grains from filling or weakens the neck of the panicle so that filled panicles easily break off before harvest.



Figure 16f. Neck blast (Courtesy D. Groth).

Selecting varieties resistant to blast is the most effective method for management of blast. However, the rice blast fungus is a highly variable pathogen and there are many pathogenic races. In recent years, the races IC-17 and IB-49 have been the most prevalent in Texas. The adoption of varieties with resistance to these races of blast has greatly reduced losses. For the past several years, the occurrence of the disease has been sporadic and the disease has not rare in Texas. However, in 2012, severe outbreaks of rice blast occurred in localized areas.

Chemical control of blast usually is not recommended when resistant or moderately resistant varieties (Table 16a) are planted. When moderately susceptible or susceptible varieties are grown in areas where blast has historically occurred, preventive applications of triazole and/or strobilurin (e.g., Gem®, Quadris®, Stratego® or Quilt®) may be necessary.

The rotten neck phase of blast can occur without leaf blast symptoms because the spores of the pathogen can become air-borne and blow into the field from a distant source. If leaf blast lesions are in the field, the potential for the rotten neck phase of blast is greatly increased.

For optimum blast control, apply Gem®, Quadris®, Stratego® or Quilt® (Table 16b) at late boot to reduce sporulation on leaf lesions and to protect the collar of the flag leaf. Apply again about 5 to 7 days later when 50% of the main tillers have 70 to 90% of the panicle length emerged.

The late boot application is most important if there is a large number of leaf lesions caused by blast. The heading application is more important to protect panicles from spore showers. The heading growth stage is critical for blast control since a delay of as little as 5 days can greatly reduce fungicide efficacy. Blast is favored by excessive nitrogen fertility, thick stands, light sandy soils, and inadequate flooding.

Narrow Brown Leaf Spot

Narrow brown leaf spot (also called *Cercospora* leaf spot) is caused by the fungus *Cercospora janseana*, appears to result in more yield loss than is suspected. Yield losses of up to 40% have been reported in previous field studies. The disease can cause premature ripening, yield reduction, and reduced milling quality. The severity of the disease has increased over years and the disease is now considered one of the most important rice diseases in Texas. Generally, the disease is more severe in the ratoon crop than in the main crop.

The fungus attacks the leaves (Fig. 16g), sheaths (Fig. 16h), internodes, panicle branches and glumes (Fig. 16i). On leaf blades, it causes short, linear, narrow, brown lesions parallel to the leaf veins. As plants approach maturity, leaf spotting can become severe on the more susceptible varieties and result in severe leaf blighting and premature death (Fig. 16j). Infection of the leaf sheaths results in a large, brown blotch or “net blotch” caused by the browning of the leaf veins (Fig. 16k).



Figure 16g.
Narrow brown
leaf spot on leaf.



Figure 16h.
Narrow brown
leaf spot on
sheath.



Figure 16i.
Narrow brown
leaf spot on
glumes.



Figure 16j.
Narrow brown
leaf spot causing
leaf death.



Figure 16k. Net
blotch symptoms
of narrow brown
leaf spot.

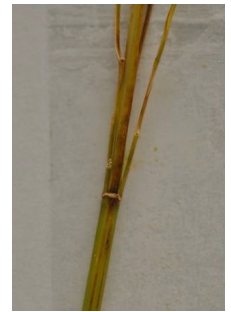


Figure 16l. Neck
blight symptoms
of narrow brown
leaf spot.

The fungus also can cause a “neck blight,” where the internodal area above and below the node at the base of the panicle becomes light brown to tan (Fig. 16l). The affected area dies and the kernels in the lower portion of the panicle fail to fill. Low nitrogen levels seem to enhance the disease.

Some varieties show less susceptibility than others. Planting of varieties resistant to narrow brown leaf spot (Table 16a) is a good option for managing the disease. However, resistance might not durable since new pathogen races can develop quickly.

Fungicides are available for control of this disease (Table 16b). When narrow brown leaf spot is severe enough to justify chemical control, Tilt®, PropiMax®, Bumper®, Stratego® or Quilt® fungicides containing propiconazole active ingredient should be applied in the mid to late boot stage.

Brown Spot

Brown spot, caused by *Cochliobolus miyabeanus*, is one of the most common diseases of rice in Texas. The disease is present on seedlings and young and matured plants. The fungal pathogen attacks the coleoptiles, leaves, leaf sheaths, branches of the panicle, glumes and grains. Although the disease is present at any stages of rice plants, the disease becomes more severe as plants approach maturity. The presence of the disease does not necessarily cause significant economic losses. The disease occasionally causes serious damage to rice production. Significant yield losses happen when extremely wet weather conditions consistently exist, when unfavorable growing soil conditions including N deficiency occur, or when the pathogen attacks panicles. Brown spot is usually common in the main and ratoon crops.

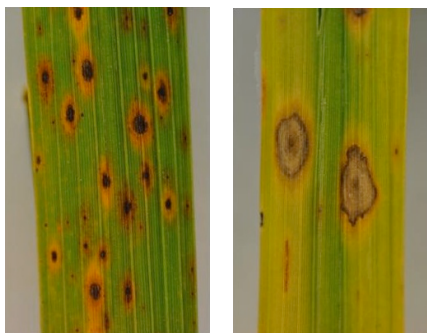


Figure 16m.
Brown spot.

Figure 16n.
Brown spot.

Brown spot attacks seedlings, causing seedling blight. Lesions (spots) on leaves can be found throughout the growing season. The pathogen typically produces circular to oval lesions. The lesions vary in size and color. On young leaves, spots are small, dark brown to reddish-brown (Fig. 16m). On older leaves, spots are relatively large and have a light brown to grey center surrounded by a reddish brown margin and a gold halo (Fig. 16n). The lesions may coalesce, killing large areas of infected leaves. The symptoms on leaf sheaths and hulls are similar to those on the leaves. Symptoms also appear on glumes, causing black discoloration. The disease can cause a reduction in the number of grains per panicle and the weight of kernels.

Brown spot is seedborne. Infected seed is the primary source of inoculum. The pathogen also can overwinter in infected crop debris.

Brown spot tends to be severe on rice plants that are grown under unfavorable growing conditions. These conditions include N, P or K deficiency, or inability of rice plants to use N, P or K because of abiotic or biotic stresses such as root damage and insect injury.

To minimize the damage caused by brown spot, good growing conditions should be maintained by proper fertilization, especially using the recommended rate and timing of N and K, and proper soil and water management. Resistant varieties are available (Table 16a). Fungicide seed treatment can reduce the damage caused by this seedborne pathogen to seedlings. Normally, fungicides are not recommended specifically for control of brown spot. However, fungicides used to manage other foliar diseases may also be effective in reducing this disease.

Stem Rot

Stem rot is caused by a soil-borne fungus (*Sclerotium oryzae*) and is a significant problem in all southern rice-producing states and California. The pathogen survives the winter as tiny seed-like structures called sclerotia, which can survive in the soil for up to 6 years, serving as the primary source for disease infection.

Stem rot is initiated when the sclerotia float to the water surface and infect the rice plant at the waterline. At first, small, rectangular, black lesions develop on the sheath (Fig. 16o). Later these lesions enlarge as the fungus penetrates inward toward the culm. In the later stages of crop maturity, large areas within infested fields may begin to lodge soon after drainage has begun. Within infected culms and sheaths, numerous tiny, black sclerotia can be seen.

Although commercial long grain rice varieties lack significant levels of resistance to stem rot, the newer semidwarf varieties tend to be more tolerant to stem rot because of their resistance to lodging.

Currently registered fungicides do not adequately control stem rot and are not recommended for this purpose. Some fungicides when applied for sheath blight can moderately suppress stem rot.

Crop rotation, increased potassium levels, and lower nitrogen fertilization are recommended management practices for fields with a history of stem rot.

Crown (Black) Sheath Rot

Black sheath rot or crown sheath rot is caused by the soil-borne fungus *Gaeumannomyces graminis* var. *graminis* and has been in Texas rice fields for many years. Previously considered a minor disease of rice, it is becoming more of a problem with the increasingly intensive production systems and shorter rotations. The disease is widespread in the Texas Rice Belt and can cause reduced tillering, poor grain fill, and lodging. The disease usually is observed late in the main crop, but also has been found to infect the ratoon crop to some extent.



Figure 16o. Stem rot (Courtesy of D. Groth).

Infected plants show brown to black discoloration of the leaf sheaths from the crown to considerably above the water line (Fig. 16p). In the early stages of the infection a dark, reddish-brown web of fungal mycelia (filaments)



Figure 16p. Crown (black) sheath rot (Courtesy of D. Groth).

may be seen on the inward facing surface of diseased leaf sheaths.

As the discolored, infected sheath tissue ages, fungal reproductive structures (perithecia) form within the tissue. The perithecia are tiny, black, globose structures imbedded in the sheath tissue, often with short beaks protruding through the surface. These perithecia are barely visible and about the size of a grain of black pepper.

Crop rotation, especially with non-grass crops, will help reduce the carryover of fungal inoculum. Thorough disking and maintaining a clean, fallow field from the prior summer to planting will allow plant residue to decompose and eliminate weed hosts upon which the pathogen survives.

Bacterial Panicle Blight

Bacterial panicle blight, caused by *Burkholderia glumae*, is potentially a serious rice disease that may cause significant yield and quality losses in epidemic years. The causal agent of this disease was first described in Japan in 1967. The disease has since been reported in several major rice-producing countries, including China, Korea, Latin America, the Philippines, and Vietnam. In the U. S., the cause of the disease was not identified until 1996 to 1997 after a severe epidemic of panicle blight in 1995 in the rice production region along the Gulf of Mexico. Recently, *B. gladioli* also was reported to be associated with this disease in rice in Japan and the U. S. Historically, the terms “panicle blight”, “panicle blighting” or “panicle blanking” has been used to describe the losses of rice yield caused by abiotic factors, including high temperatures and water stress, and unknown biotic factors for more than half century in the U. S. In 2010, severe outbreaks of bacterial panicle blight and panicle blight occurred in Texas and other southern U. S. This increases the concern of the impacts of bacterial panicle blight on rice production.

Symptoms of bacterial panicle blight can be distinguished from common panicle blanking. Bacterial panicle blight occurs sporadically on individual plants or in circular or oval patterns in the field. In contrast, common panicle blanking, caused by abiotic stress such as from excessive heat, develops in the field more uniformly and does not form apparent foci (circular or oval patterns). Typical symptoms of bacterial panicle blight usually do not appear until the heading stage. The affected panicle has one to all of the florets with grains that are not fully filled or aborted, which results in the panicle staying upright (Fig. 16q). Infected florets initially have discoloration ranging from light



Figure 16q. Bacterial panicle blight.



Figure 16r. Bacterial panicle blight on kernal.



Figure 16s. Bacterial panicle blight.

green to light brown on the basal portion with a reddish-brown margin separating this area from the rest of the floret that becomes straw-colored later (Fig. 16r). The branches of the panicle remain green at the base of each floret, even

after the glumes desiccate and turn tan (Fig. 16s). Florets at the latest stages of infection usually appear to be gray or black due to the abundant growth of saprophytic fungi on the surface. The disease also can cause linear lesions on sheaths with a distinct reddish-brown border and a gray and necrotic center, resulting in sheath rot and stem rot. On the leaves, lesions are circular to oval in shape with a smooth reddish-brown border and a gray or straw-colored center. If the infected plants are young, this disease can cause seedling blight. However, these symptoms on leaves, sheaths, stems or seedlings are rarely observed under field conditions in the U. S.

Bacterial panicle blight is seedborne. The bacterial pathogen was found to be widely present in rice seed lots in studies conducted in Japan, the Philippines and the U. S. Infected rice seeds are believed to be the primary source of inoculum. The bacterium is capable of inhabiting the surface of plants and soils under a wide range of environments, which can serve as the sources of inoculum. The bacterium invades germinated seeds, inhabits the roots and lower sheaths, and moves up the growing plant as an epiphyte (an organism growing on a plant surface, but not as a parasite). Infection by the bacterium occurs at flowering by invading rice spikelets through stomata or wound in the epidermis of glumes. The bacterium colonizes and multiplies in spikelets quickly after invasion by utilizing intermediate sugars in developing grains. The bacterium is spread primarily by splashing and windblown rain and panicle contact, resulting in the formation of disease foci. High temperatures, especially nighttime temperatures, in combinations with high humidity and frequent rain at the heading and flowering stages are essential for the development of bacterial panicle blight epidemics. Bacterial panicle blight can cause a severe disease in the main crop under these favorable disease development conditions. However, this disease rarely causes significant damage to the ratoon crop since the weather is relatively cool during much of its growth season.

Options for management of bacterial panicle blight are limited. No pesticides are currently labeled for use on rice for control of this disease in the U. S. Partially resistant varieties are available, although most commonly-planted rice varieties are susceptible or very susceptible. Some varieties, such as Jasmine 85, Jupiter, and XL723, are less susceptible to the disease than others (Table 16a). Proper cultural practices, including early planting or use of early maturing varieties to avoid the hottest times of the growing season and avoiding excessive seeding and nitrogen rates, are helpful in reducing the damage caused by the disease. Use of pathogen-free seeds is an effective practice to reduce the incidence of bacterial panicle blight but this practice has not been implemented in the U. S.

Panicle Blanking Complex

Florets that do not pollinate or fill properly can result from a number of biological and environmental factors.

Often “blanked” florets can be numerous and result in significant yield losses. Completely empty florets indicate they are never successfully pollinated.

Research at Texas A&M AgriLife Research at Beaumont and the International Rice Research Institute (IRRI) has shown that temperatures above 95 degrees F during the pollination process (anthesis) cause floret sterility. Another high temperature sensitive period that can cause pollen sterility occurs about 10 days before pollen shed.

Early planting may be one way to reduce heat-induced sterility. Heat sterility should not be confused with the disease called bacterial panicle blight.

Recent research conducted in Louisiana shows that bacterial panicle blight is caused by the bacteria *Burkholderia glumae* or *B. gladioli*. Infected florets often are pollinated but developing embryos abort, leaving a small embryo or undeveloped seed between the glumes. Upon close observation a few days after panicle exertion, a lack of luster in the green glumes of the affected panicle can be noticed. Within 1 to 2 weeks, the glumes turn various shades of tan to light brown and lack the turgidity and brightness of healthy glumes.

Three important characteristics of bacterial panicle blight separate it from other panicle disorders:

- Bacterial panicle blight often does not appear to prevent successful pollination;
- Infected florets initially have discoloration ranging from light green to light brown on the basal portion with a reddish-brown margin separating this area from the rest of the floret that becomes straw-colored later; and

- The rachis or branches of the panicle remain green for a while, right to the base of each floret, even after the glumes desiccate and turn tan.

Ear blight is a disease complex caused by several fungi, including those that cause narrow brown leaf spot (*Cercospora janseana*) and brown spot (*Cochliobolus miyabeanus*). These fungi can cause discoloration and blight of the uppermost internodes, the neck below the panicle, the branches of the rachis, and spikelets of the panicles. Under favorable weather conditions, these fungi also cause black kernels, resulting from a mass of dark pathogen spores covering the kernels. This often results in poorly developed grains and low milling quality. Some fungicides applied in the mid to late boot stage help suppress ear blight.

False Smut

False smut is caused by the fungus *Ustilaginoidea virens*, which infects rice flowers during booting to early heading.

The infected florets are transformed into a velvety “smut ball” measuring up to ½ inch in diameter. Immature smut balls appear orange and are covered with a thin membrane (Fig. 16t). At maturity, the membrane ruptures and exposes a mass of spores that quickly turns to a greenish-black powder.

False smut has historically been a minor disease in Texas, but the recent increase in Arkansas, from a few counties in 1997 to all rice growing counties today, has raised concern in Texas. Rice significantly contaminated with false smut spores could be docked in price.

False smut management suggestions include:

- Plant rice as early as practical, because late maturing fields seem to have more false smut;
- Use recommended rates of nitrogen, because the disease is more severe under high nitrogen fertility; and
- Limited data suggest that Tilt® applied at late boot gives some control of the disease. This application is probably not economical unless mills start to dock growers for contaminated rice.

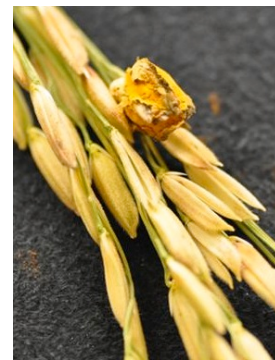


Figure 16t. False smut.



Figure 16u. Kernel smut.

Kernel Smut

Kernel smut is a serious disease caused by the fungus *Tilletia barclayana* (*Neovossia horrida*). The fungus infects and replaces the endosperm of the rice grain completely or partially with a mass of black smut spores (Fig. 16u). Usually only a few grains per panicle are infected.

Although yield losses are insignificant, monetary losses can be very high if the rice cannot be sold or the price is reduced at the mill. Infested lots of grain often have a dull, grayish cast caused by the smut spores. Rice lots exceeding 3% kernel smut infection presently will not qualify for government loan.

The disease is not systemic. The smut spores fall to the soil surface, where they remain dormant until the following rice crop, or they can be introduced into a field on the surface of infested rice seed. The smut spores float to the surface of the irrigation water where they germinate and produce air-borne spores that infect individual rice florets.

Disease development is favored by frequent light showers and high relative humidity.

Kernel smut is difficult to control. Field tests indicate that a late boot application of Tilt® or Propimax® at 4 to 6 fluid ounces per acre reduces the number of smutted kernels. Some varieties (Table 16a) are less susceptible to the disease than Cocodrie or Cypress.

Heavy nitrogen fertilization favors the disease. A 3-year crop rotation should help reduce the number of smut spores present. Do not plant seed contaminated with smut spores.

Straighthead

Straighthead is a physiological disorder that causes seeds to blank and heads to remain upright at maturity. Straighthead generally occurs in spots scattered throughout the field

It is most easily recognized near harvest when normal plants have down-turned heads from the weight of the grain in the panicle, while affected plants remain upright. Hulls of affected grain are distorted into a crescent shape or “parrot beak” (Fig. 16v). Affected plants are darker green through the growing season and often produce shoots from lower nodes on the plant.

The disorder is more frequently found on sandy loam than on clay soils and has been associated with arsenic residues remaining in fields that were at one time planted with cotton. Other soil factors also are likely involved in causing straighthead. Often it is found in fields where excessive non-decaying vegetation has been plowed under the soil soon before planting.

Control of straighthead is mainly achieved by planting resistant varieties (Table 16a). When planting a susceptible variety in fields with a history of straighthead, draining the field just before internode elongation has also provided a certain level of control. Use caution when draining fields planted with a variety susceptible to blast, as leaf blast can intensify in fields that are temporarily drained in the mid-season.



Figure 16v.
Straighthead.

Organic Rice Disease Management

X. G. Zhou

Texas organic rice acreage has been increasing steadily over the past decade. This is driven by increased market demand. Organic rice is produced using methods that differ from those used in conventional rice production. Organic production systems avoid the use of synthetic chemicals such as fertilizers and pesticides used in conventional rice production. Instead, organic production relies on animal manures, crop residues, green manures, tillage, water and other biological measures to maintain soil health and supply plant nutrients. These practices result in significant changes in the incidence and severity of diseases and their management.

Compared to conventional rice, organically-produced rice is more vulnerable to seedling diseases (caused by *Pythium* spp., *Fusarium* spp., *Rhizoctonia solani* and *Sclerotium rolfsii*). Other diseases such as narrow brown leaf spot (caused by *Cercospora janseana*) and brown spot (caused by *Cochiobolus miyabeanus*) are common and can be severe in organic rice. This is partially due to nitrogen (N) deficiency as a result of using slow release organic fertilizers or application of organic fertilizers at a rate lower than recommended. Rice suffering from N deficiency is especially susceptible to narrow brown leaf spot and brown spot. Straighthead, a physiological disorder of unknown cause, is more likely to occur in no-till organic production systems involving direct seeding of rice into a cover crop. Rice grown in flooded (anaerobic) soils with an abundance of decaying crop residues becomes more susceptible to straighthead.

Other diseases that may cause significant damage to organic rice under favorable disease development conditions include sheath blight (caused by *R. solani*), blast (caused by *Pyricularia grisea*), sheath rot (caused by *Sarocladium oryzae*), bacterial panicle blight (caused by *Burkholderia glumae* and *B. gladioli*), and false smut (caused by *Ustilaginoidea virens*). Leaf smut (caused by *Entyloma oryzae*), stackburn (caused by *Alternaria padwickii*), black kernel (caused by *Curvularia lunata*), kernel smut (caused by *Neovossia horrida*) and pecky rice (caused by various fungi and bacteria and insect injury) are usually minor in Texas. Symptoms of all these diseases on organic rice are similar to those on conventional rice. For information on symptom description of these diseases, see the Disease Management section in this bulletin.

Options for management of diseases in organic rice are limited. However, damage from diseases can be reduced by implementing the following management practices.

Variety Selection

Selection of disease-resistant varieties with high yield potential is the most effective method to minimize damage caused by diseases in organic rice production systems. Varieties differ in resistance to diseases. For example, Charleston Gold, Tesanai 2, Wells, Jasmine 85, and Rondo are resistant to narrow brown leaf spot while varieties such as Jazzman, Sierra and Cocodrie are very susceptible (Fig. 17a). Cocodrie, Antonio and Colorado are very susceptible to straighthead while other varieties such as Tesanai 2, GP2 and Rondo are resistant (Fig. 17b) and have the highest yield potential when grown in an organic production system (Figs. 17a and 17b). For more information on variety resistance to narrow brown leaf spot, straighthead and other diseases, see Table 16a in the Disease Management chapter in this bulletin.

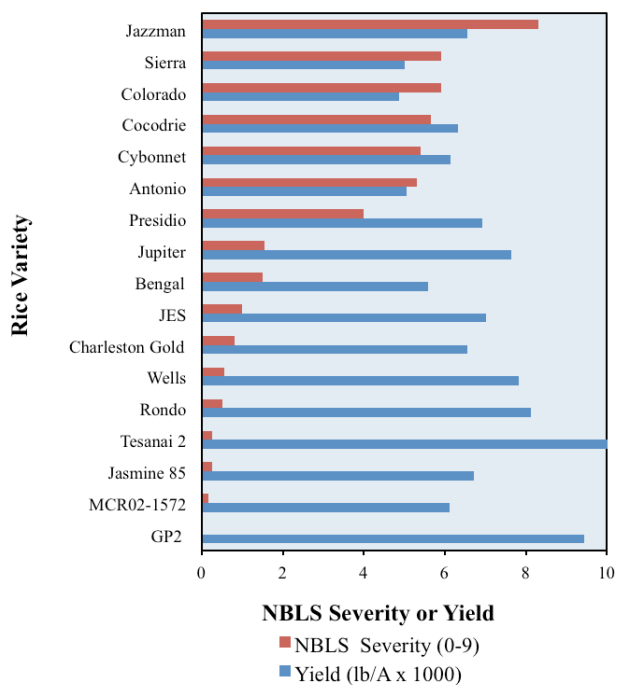


Figure 17a. Narrow brown leaf spot (NBLS) severity and grain yield of 17 rice cultivars grown organically at Beaumont, TX in 2010 and 2011. NBLS rated on a scale of 0 to 9 where 0 = no disease and 9 = most severe.

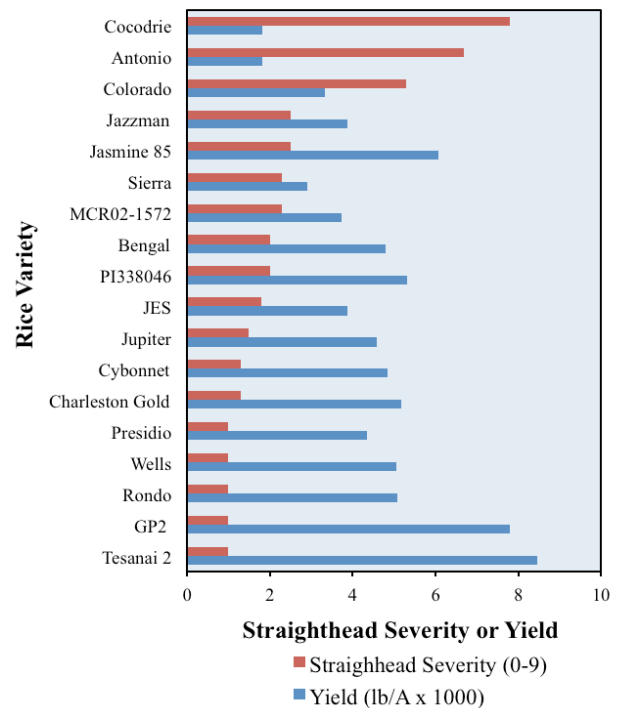


Figure 17b. Straighthead severity and grain yield of 18 rice cultivars grown organically with a no-till clover cover crop at Beaumont, TX in 2010. Straighthead rated on a scale of 0 to 9 where 0 = 0% panicles affected and 9 = 100% panicles affected.

Cultural Control

Damage from diseases can be reduced by implementing proper cultural practices. Use of clean, pathogen-free seeds is an effective practice to control diseases. Planting rice at recommended dates is helpful in reducing certain diseases. Planting too early can result in irregular and thin stands caused by seedling diseases associated with cool soil temperatures early in the growing season. Planting too late usually results in severe foliar diseases including narrow brown leaf spot and brown spot due to increased pathogen inoculum late in the growing season. Proper timing and rate of organic fertilizers, especially nitrogen, can reduce narrow brown leaf spot and other diseases. Damage from diseases also can be decreased by maintaining good growing conditions for rice by crop rotation, land leveling, soil preparation and water management. Rice should not be planted directly into no-till fields having an abundance of decaying crop residues which may decrease stand and induce straighthead.

Insect Management

*M. O. Way and L. Espino**

Insecticides should be applied only when a pest infestation reaches or exceeds levels high enough to economically justify or pay for the treatment in terms of increased yield and/or quality. Besides chemical applications, many other rice production practices influence insect populations and their associated damage. Cultural practices can greatly reduce the number of insecticide applications required.

Water management is critical for rice production and influences insect populations. The rice water weevil is an aquatic pest that requires saturated soil for larvae to survive.

One way to suppress an infestation is to drain the field and allow the soil to dry during larval development. However, the soil must dry until it cracks before larvae die. In general, applying the flood early relative to rice emergence can make rice water weevil damage more severe.

Fall armyworm and chinch bug populations can be much more damaging if there is no standing water. Timely flushing or flooding can help alleviate fall armyworm, chinch bug, thrip, aphid and mite problems.

Planting dates influence the abundance of insect pests. Late planted rice is more vulnerable to attack by armyworms and stalk borers. Rice is likely to escape heavy infestation if it is planted early or late in relation to the emergence of adult rice water weevils. Early maturing rice also may escape high populations of adult rice stink bugs that move into late planted rice from declining alternate hosts such as sorghum.

Fertilization practices can affect the damage caused by rice water weevil larvae. Producers should be careful not to overfertilize, which increases the potential for lodging and disease problems.

A 3-year study in Texas showed that increasing nitrogen fertilizer at panicle differentiation did not compensate for rice water weevil damage. In other words, when rice water weevil damage is observed after the permanent flood, do not apply “extra” nitrogen at panicle differentiation to make up for the damage.

Another 3-year study in Texas showed that increasing nitrogen fertilizer immediately before the flood did not protect rice from rice water weevil damage. Thus, do not apply “extra” nitrogen immediately before the flood in anticipation of later rice water weevil damage.

Variety selection is important not only because varietal response to nitrogen also affects the plants’ response to root damage from rice water weevils, but also because certain varieties show some resistance to feeding by rice water weevils, rice stink bugs and stem borers. Resistance may result from plant characteristics that make certain varieties less attractive to pests than others.

Weed control can reduce the number of alternate hosts in a rice field. Rice stink bug populations build up on other grasses in rice fields, in grassy areas around field margins, and in adjoining pastures and sorghum fields. They begin breeding in rice as the rice heads develop. Thus, sound weed control can delay or reduce rice stink bug infestations in rice fields.

Rice stand has a major impact on rice water weevil populations. In general, thinner stands are associated with more rice water weevils and more damage. Thin rice stands also result in more weeds, including grasses, which can harbor high populations of rice stink bug. Also, thin stands are susceptible to damage by chinch bugs, fall armyworms and South American rice miner.

Thus, to discourage insect problems, growers should employ production practices that ensure strong, uniform stands, including the following:

- Preparing a good seedbed
- Planting high quality seed at the proper depth, time and rate
- Eliminating early weed competition
- Employing proper irrigation procedures

Insecticide-Herbicide Interactions

Phytotoxicity, or plant damage from the use of certain insecticides and herbicides in close sequence, is well documented in rice. Foliar burn can be caused by applying propanil within 15 days of a carbaryl (Sevin) application or within 14 days of a methyl parathion application, as is often contemplated for fall armyworm, chinch bug or aphid control.

Insecticide Regulatory Actions

Be aware that granular carbofuran (Furadan 3G) can no longer be applied on rice. The U.S. Environmental Protection Agency (EPA) withdrew the use of granular carbofuran after the 1999 growing season.

Karate Z - For the 1998 growing season, lambda-cyhalothrin (Karate) was registered by the EPA to control rice water weevils, fall armyworms, chinch bugs, rice stink bugs, grasshoppers, leafhoppers, selected aphid species and stalk borers. For the 2004 growing season, Karate was replaced by Karate Z, which is more concentrated (2.08 versus 1.0 pound of active ingredient per gallon), less susceptible to breakdown by sunlight, safer for handlers and more rainfast than Karate.

Texas data show Karate Z to be as effective as, if not more effective than, Karate.

Mustang MAX - In the winter of 2003, the EPA approved the use of Mustang MAX against rice water weevils, fall armyworms, chinch bugs, rice stink bugs, grasshoppers, leafhoppers and selected aphid species. Mustang MAX was approved later for stalk borer control.

Dimilin 2L - In the spring of 1999, the EPA approved the use of Dimilin 2L to control rice water weevils. Texas data from several years show that Dimilin 2L is as effective as other rice water weevil insecticides when applied at the proper rates and times.

The active ingredient in Dimilin 2L is diflubenzuron, which sterilizes the eggs developing in female adult rice water weevils and prevents larval emergence from eggs. Thus, Dimilin 2L must be applied shortly after application of the flood when adult rice water weevils invade rice fields.

Prolex/DECLARE - In the spring of 2004, the EPA approved the use of Prolex against the rice water weevil, fall armyworm, chinch bug, rice stink bug, grasshoppers, leafhoppers and selected aphid species. The active ingredient in Prolex is gamma-cyhalothrin. Prolex was approved later for stalk borer control. For 2012, Prolex is replaced by DECLARE. Both have the same active ingredient and concentration.

Trebon 3G - In 2009, EPA approved the use of Trebon 3G against the rice water weevil. The active ingredient in Trebon 3G is etofenprox. Trebon 3G is a good option for farmers who grow rice close to crayfish or fish ponds because it is less toxic to these organisms than most other labeled rice water weevil insecticides. In addition, the granular formulation minimizes drift to non-target areas.

Tenchu 20SG - In the spring of 2008, Tenchu 20SG (active ingredient dinotefuran) received a Crisis Exemption and in 2009, 2010, 2011 and 2012 received Section 18 Emergency Exemptions for rice stink bug. We anticipate a full federal label (Section 3) before the 2013 use season. Dinotefuran is systemic and Texas data show residual control of 7 to 11 days. Do not make more than two applications per season; the pre-harvest interval is 7 days. Texas data also show Tenchu 20SG provides control of long-horned grasshoppers.

CruiserMaxx/CruiserMaxx Rice - In the winter of 2009, EPA approved the use of CruiserMaxx seed treatment against the rice water weevil, chinch bug, aphids, thrips, leafhoppers and grape colaspis (which is not a problem in Texas rice but is in Arkansas and Missouri rice). CruiserMaxx does not control stalk borers. The insecticidal active ingredient in CruiserMaxx is thiamethoxam, which is systemic; however, this seed treatment also contains 3 fungicides that control an array of seedling diseases. In 2011, CruiserMaxx was replaced with CruiserMaxx Rice, which contains all 4 pesticidal components in a single formulation.

Dermacor X-100 - For the 2008 and 2009 growing seasons, Dermacor X-100 (active ingredient rynaxypyr/chlorantraniliprole) seed treatment was approved for use in Texas under Section 18 Emergency Exemptions. EPA approved the use of this seed treatment for the 2010 growing season. The target pest for Dermacor X-100 is the rice water weevil. Texas data from several years show Dermacor X-100 provides excellent control of rice water weevil, as well as stalk borers (sugarcane borer and Mexican rice borer), when applied to seed at the recommended treatment rates relative to seeding rate. In short, Texas data show combinations of seeding and Dermacor X-100 treatment rates resulting in less than 0.06 pound a.i. per acre *may* compromise control. For the 2012 growing season, Dermacor X-100 received a 2(ee) recommendation for Texas. Basically, this recommendation for Dermacor X-100 use is specific to conventional, CLEARFIELD and hybrid rice varieties that are planted at different seeding rates. Table 18a shows Dermacor X-100 treatment rates relative to seeding rates. Seeding rates of 80-120, 50-79 and 20-35 lb per acre refer to conventional, CLEARFIELD and hybrid varieties, respectively.

Table 18a. Dermacor® X-100 seed treatment rates.

Dermacor® X-100 (fl oz per cwt seed)	Seeding rate (lb per acre)		lb a.i. per acre range
	Low	High	
1.50	80	120	0.049 – 0.073
1.75	70	79	0.049 – 0.056
2.50	50	69	0.051 – 0.071
4.0-5.0	20	35	0.033 – 0.071

Data from Texas also suggest Dermacor X-100 possesses fly larvae (e.g., South American rice miner) activity. In addition, data from other sources indicate good activity against fall armyworm, but minimal activity against chinch bug or other insects with piercing-sucking mouthparts.

The current label prohibits use of Dermacor X-100 in a water-seeded culture. Because this is a seed treatment, drift of Dermacor X-100 is minimal compared to liquid formulations.

NipsIt INSIDE - For the 2010 and 2011 growing seasons, NipsIt INSIDE (active ingredient clothianidin) seed treatment was approved for use in Texas under Experimental Use Permits with the stipulation the maximum number of rice acres to be treated not exceed 10,000 per growing season. The target pests for NipsIt INSIDE are rice water weevil, grape colaspis, chinch bug, thrips, aphids and other seedling pests with piercing-sucking mouthparts. NipsIt INSIDE was approved by EPA for use on rice in late 2012, so NipsIt INSIDE will be available for use in 2013 with no acreage limitation.

BELAY- BELAY (active ingredient clothianidin) was approved by EPA for use on rice in Texas and other southern rice-producing states in late 2012, so BELAY will be available for use in 2013. BELAY is applied as a foliar treatment primarily for control of rice water weevil, chinch bug, aphids, thrips, sharpshooters and leafhoppers. BELAY may also control rice stink bug, but more research is needed to confirm this possibility.

Rice Water Weevil (*Lissorhoptrus oryzophilus*)

Identification, Biology and Damage (Fig. 18a) - Rice water weevils are brown beetles 1/8 inch long (Fig. 18b) that move into rice fields from overwintering habitats while fields are being flushed and flooded. They appear to be attracted to areas with deep water and thin plant stands.

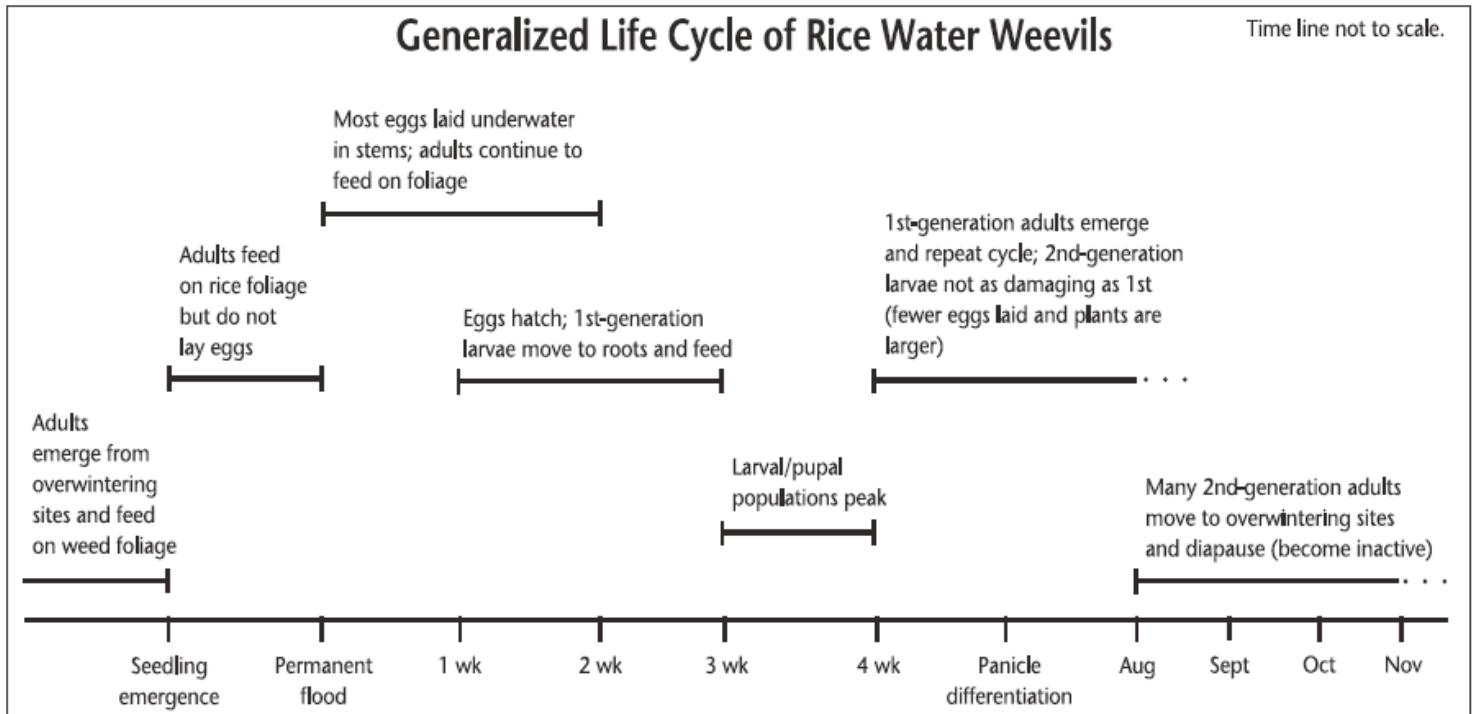


Figure 18a. Rice water weevil occurrence during rice production in Texas.

Adult feeding activity produces characteristic slit-like scars on the leaves. If many egg-laying adult females are in the field soon after flooding, they can subsequently produce high larval (root maggot) populations.

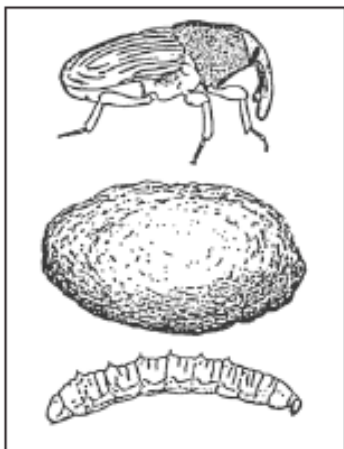


Figure 18b. Rice water weevil life stages: adult, 1/8 inch long (top); pupal cell, 1/3 inch long (middle); and larva, 1/3 inch long (bottom).

Root maggots are aquatic, requiring saturated soils to survive. They feed on the roots of young plants. They are white and grow to nearly 1/3 inch long just before pupating inside mud cells attached to roots.

The life cycle is from 35 to 65 days. Adult weevils emerge from pupal cells throughout the reproductive stage of rice plant development. They are most active during the evening and at night. They cause some additional leaf damage before leaving the field to find alternate host plants, and either begin another generation or overwinter.

The root damage caused by root maggots reduces yield. Damage caused during the main crop can lower the ratoon crop's yield. Research indicates that rice water weevil feeding does not affect milling quality.

Sampling for Larvae - The rice water weevil core sampler and screen bucket (Fig. 18c) can be used to sample for root maggots directly. The core sampler is made from a 4-inch diameter PVC pipe. The business end of the pipe can be beveled or sharpened to make coring easier. The handle can be long or short, bolted to the sides of the pipe and made of durable metal. The screen bucket can be made from a 6-quart galvanized metal bucket with the bottom removed and replaced with a fine (40 mesh) screen.

After taking a core sample containing plants and soil, place it in the bucket and submerge the bucket so that it is partially filled with water. Wash the sample vigorously in the bucket by separating the plant material and rinsing the debris by lifting and lowering the bucket. Dislodged weevil larvae float and are caught in the surface tension, where you can count them.

Take samples 3 to 4 weeks after the flood in a delayed flood system and 2 to 3 weeks after rice emergence through the flood in a pinpoint or continuous flood system.

This procedure can be used over time to monitor the development of weevils and evaluate the effect of a treatment. This direct larval sampling method is accurate and often used in rice water weevil research. However, it is messy and labor intensive. Furthermore, close inspection is necessary to identify the small larvae.

Research in Texas conducted over a 6-year period from 2002 to 2007 with the variety Cocodrie revealed that one larva per core (4-inch diameter by 4-inch deep soil core containing at least one rice plant) reduces yield about 1%. For instance, if you expect to produce 7500 pounds per acre and you have an average of one larva per core, you can expect to lose 75 pounds per acre; if you have 10 larvae per core, you can expect to lose 750 pounds per acre. Table 18b shows the economic injury levels (number of larvae/pupae per core) for varying rice prices and costs of control.

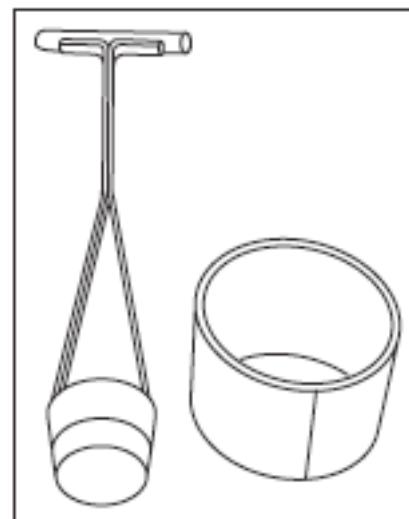


Figure 18c. Core sampler and screen bucket.

Table 18b. Economic injury levels (number of larvae/pupae per core) for rice water weevil.

Estimated main crop yield (lb per acre)	Rough rice price (\$ per cwt)	Cost of control (\$ per acre)				
		10	15	20	25	30
5,000	6	4.0	6.1	8.1	10.1	12.1
	12	2.0	3.0	4.0	5.0	6.1
	18	1.3	2.0	2.7	3.4	4.0
	24	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0
6,000	6	3.0	4.5	6.1	7.6	9.1
	12	1.5	2.3	3.0	3.8	4.5
	18	1.0	1.5	2.0	2.5	3.0
	24	0.8	1.1	1.5	1.9	2.3
7,500	6	2.4	3.6	4.8	6.1	7.3
	12	1.2	1.8	2.4	3.0	3.6
	18	0.8	1.2	1.6	2.0	2.4
	24	0.6	0.9	1.2	1.5	1.8
8,500	6	2.1	3.2	4.3	5.3	6.4
	12	1.1	1.6	2.1	2.7	3.2
	18	0.7	1.1	1.4	1.8	2.1
	24	0.5	0.8	1.1	1.3	1.6

Higher yields and rough rice prices mean lower economic injury levels, while higher control costs mean higher economic injury levels. Although these economic injury levels are based on larval densities 3 weeks after flood and current recommended insecticide applications target adults, the relatively low larval densities throughout the table show the importance of controlling rice water weevil.

Sampling for Adult Feeding Activity - Sampling for adult feeding activity was recommended when Furadan 3G was available. Now that Furadan 3G cannot be applied on rice, adult sampling is not recommended. Insecticides currently registered for rice water weevil are applied at planting or close to the time of the flood.

Texas data have not shown a good correlation between adult feeding activity or adult densities early post-flood and subsequent larval densities. Thus, sampling for adult activity to predict larval populations and damage is not reliable.

Table 18c. Relative susceptibility of selected rice varieties to rice water weevil.

Variety	Very susceptible	Susceptible	Moderately resistant
Bengal	X		
Cheniere	X		
CL121	X		
CL261	X		
CLEARFIELD XL745	X		
Cocodrie	X		
Cypress	X		
Francis	X		
Saber	X		
Bolivar		X	
CL111		X	
CL131		X	
CL161		X	
CLEARFIELD XL730		X	
Dixiebelle		X	
Gulfmont		X	
Jupiter		X	
Pirogue		X	
Presidio		X	
Wells		X	
XL723		X	
CL151			X
CLEARFIELD XL8			X
CLEARFIELD XL729			X
Jefferson			X
Lemont			X
Priscilla			X

Rice Water Weevil Control Alternatives - Occasionally, populations of root maggots can be reduced by draining the rice fields and allowing the soil to dry. This practice can be effective if there is no rain.

However, the cost of this method may be prohibitive. Furthermore, drying rice fields during this phase of plant development can increase weed problems, reduce nitrogen use efficiency, encourage blast development and delay plant maturity. This can reduce main crop yield and it reduces the probability of producing a ratoon crop.

In general, you can reduce rice water weevil populations and damage by delaying application of the flood. Research shows that applying the flood 4 weeks or longer after emergence can dramatically reduce rice water weevil populations and damage compared to applying the flood 2 weeks after emergence. Data from 2000-2011 show that rice water weevils develop varying population densities on different rice varieties. Also, varieties respond differently to rice water weevil damage. Table 18c lists selected varieties in order of their relative susceptibility to rice water weevil. See Table 18d for recommended insecticides and rates.

Table 18d. Insecticides for rice water weevil control.

Active ingredient/product	Rate per acre		Timing of applications
	Active ingredient	Product	
chlorantraniliprole Dermacor® X-100	See Table 18a		Apply to dry seed.
diflubenzuron Dimilin® 2L	0.19–0.25 lb 0.13 lb per application	12.0–16.0 fl oz 8.0 fl oz per application	Delayed flood: 2 to 5 days after flood. Pinpoint/continuous flood: At time of emergence through water to 5 days later, when adults are active in field, and a second application 5 to 7 days after the first application.
etofenprox Trebon™ 3G	0.178-0.268 lb	6-9 lb	3 days before to 7 days after flood.
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.0125–0.02 lb	1.28–2.05 fl oz	Delayed flood: At time of flood to 5 days later. Texas data show application immediately before flood also provides good control. Pinpoint/continuous flood: At time of emergence through water to 1 week later, when adults are active in field, and a second application 7 to 10 days after the first application.
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.025–0.04 lb	1.6–2.56 fl oz	Delayed flood: At time of flood to 5 days later. Texas data show application immediately before flood also provides good control. Pinpoint/continuous flood: At time of emergence through water to 1 week later, when adults are active in field, and a second application 7 to 10 days after the first application.

CruiserMaxx® Rice	Depends on seeding rate	7.0 fl oz/cwt (Each fl oz contains 9.1 g thiamethoxam, 0.1 g fludioxonil, 0.46 g azoxystrobin and 0.57 g mefenoxam)	Apply to dry seed.
clothianidin BELAY®	0.075 lb	4.5 fl oz	Delayed flood: At time of flood to 10 days after flood..
clothianidin NipsIt INSIDE®	Depends on seeding rate	1.92 fl oz/cwt	Apply to dry seed.
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.02– 0.025 lb	3.2–4.0 fl oz	Delayed flood: At time of permanent flood to 5 days later. Texas data show application immediately before permanent flood also provides good control. Pinpoint/continuous flood: At time of emergence through water to 1 week later, when adults are active in field, and a second application 7 to 10 days after the first application.

For additional information on the above products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Chinch Bug (*Blissus leucopterus leucopterus*)

Identification, Biology and Damage - Chinch bugs overwinter as adults. They are black, about 1/8 to 1/6 inch long, and elongated—about three times longer than wide. When viewed from above, the adult appears to have a white “x” on its back. Females are larger than males.

These insects have piercing-sucking mouthparts that they insert into the food-conducting tissues of plants to withdraw fluids. If you turn the insect on its back, you can see the long, straw like mouthparts usually held between its legs.

Adults overwinter and can move into fields after rice emerges. Females lay elongate orange eggs about 1/16 inch long on rice stems, between leaf sheaths and stems and in the soil. In the spring, eggs typically hatch in about 12 days.

First instar nymphs are orange and about 1/16 inch long. Five instars (stages) are completed in about 40 days with each successive instar being larger and darker. The last instar is black, has conspicuous wing pads and is almost as large as the adult.

Newly emerging rice is most susceptible to damage and death. Symptoms of chinch bug damage include striping, stippling and yellowing of leaves. Severely affected seedlings turn brown and die.

Inspect rice often for chinch bugs from emergence to about 3 weeks later. Look for adults on foliage and behind leaf sheaths; then inspect the stem; and finally probe the soil around the plant. Also, bend the seedling from side to side and closely inspect the gap between soil and stem for chinch bugs.

Treatment Thresholds - Texas data show that as few as an average of one chinch bug per two seedlings can cause significant mortality in rice, as well as reduction in height and delay in maturity of the surviving plants. If populations on seedling rice approach an average of one adult per two plants, quick control is suggested. Timely flushing/flooding of fields can help control chinch bugs. Research has shown chinch bug damage is exacerbated by other plant stresses, such as herbicide injury. See Table 18e for recommended insecticides and rates.

Table 18e. Insecticides for chinch bug control.

Active ingredient/product	Rate per acre		Timing of applications
	Active ingredient	Product	
carbaryl Sevin® 50W Sevin®80WSP Sevin®80S Sevin®XLR Sevin®4F	1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb	2–3 lb 1 1/4 – 1 7/8 lb 1 1/4 – 1 7/8 lb 1–1 1/2 qt 1–1 1/2 qt	Apply when adult populations approach an average of one per two seedlings.
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.0125–0.02 lb	1.28–2.05 fl oz	Apply when adult populations approach an average of one per two seedlings.
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.025–0.04 lb	1.6–2.56 fl oz	Apply when adult populations approach an average of one per two seedlings.
CruiserMaxx® Rice	Depends on seeding rate	7.0 fl oz/cwt (Each fl oz contains 9.1 g thiamethoxam, 0.1 g fludioxonil, 0.46 g azoxystrobin and 0.57 g mefenoxam)	Apply to dry seed.
clothianidin BELAY®	0.075 lb	4.5 fl oz	Apply when adult populations approach an average of one per two seedlings.
clothianidin NipsIt INSIDE®	Depends on seeding rate	1.92 fl oz/cwt	Apply to dry seed.
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.0165–0.025 lb	2.64–4.0 fl oz	Apply when adult populations approach an average of one per two seedlings.

For additional information on the above products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Fall Armyworm (*Spodoptera frugiperda*)

Identification, Biology and Damage - All life stages of the fall armyworm can survive along the Gulf Coast during the winter when the larvae feed on grain crops, grasses and other weeds. Rice is most often attacked during the seedling and tillering stages, before flooding.

Caterpillars hatch from egg masses deposited by female moths in the field, or they move into rice from adjoining areas. Caterpillars or larvae are light tan to greenish or brownish and are about 1 1/2 inches long when fully grown. They have three yellowish-white, hairlike stripes on the back, a conspicuous inverted “Y” on the head and prominent black tubercles on the body from which hairs arise.

Small larvae are difficult to detect. They feed in groups near the ground, especially in the hearts of plants. Older larvae feed on leaf blades and can severely reduce plant stands.

Research indicates that a 25% leaf loss in the seedling stage decreases rice yields an average of 130 pounds per acre. Many producers detect infestations of partially grown larvae by observing cattle egrets in the field or by noticing larvae adhering to rubber boots when walking through fields in the morning.

When an infestation is detected, the field can be flooded to force the larvae up onto the foliage and restrict feeding and movement from plant to plant, thereby reducing plant damage. Infestations are generally more severe in late-planted rice fields and in fields adjacent to pastures or grassy areas.

Sampling Methods and Economic Threshold Levels

Stands can be reduced by caterpillars attacking rice seedlings before flooding. When defoliation is more than 25% 2 or 3 weeks before heading, yields can be reduced.

In Arkansas, control is recommended when there are three or more worms per square foot. In Texas, the suggested time for using an insecticide for fall armyworm control is before flooding when larvae are present and stands are threatened, or after flooding when larvae are present and average defoliation approaches 25%. See Table 18f for recommended insecticides and rates.

Table 18f. Insecticides for fall armyworm control.

Active ingredient/product	Rate per acre		Timing of applications
	Active ingredient	Product	
carbaryl Sevin® 50W Sevin®80WSP Sevin®80S Sevin®XLR Sevin®4F	1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb 1.0–1.5 lb	2–3 lb 1¼ – 17/8 lb 1¼ – 17/8 lb 1–1½ qt 1–1½ qt	Apply when extensive defoliation occurs and larvae are present.
chlorantraniliprole Dermacor® X-100	See Table 18a		Apply to dry seed.
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.0125–0.02 lb	1.28–2.05 fl oz	Apply when extensive defoliation occurs and larvae are present.
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.025–0.04 lb	1.6–2.56 fl oz	Apply when extensive defoliation occurs and larvae are present.
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.0165–0.025 lb	2.64–4.0 fl oz	Apply when extensive defoliation occurs and larvae are present.

For additional information on the above products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Grasshoppers

Identification, Biology and Damage - Several grasshopper species attack rice. The most abundant is the meadow grasshopper, *Conocephalus fasciatus*. This green insect, 7/8 to 1 1/8 inches long, feeds on rice leaves and flowers.

A more serious pest can be the differential grasshopper, *Melanopsis differentialis*. It is larger (1 1/4 to 1 1/2 inches long), light brown to yellowish with two black bands on the inside of each jumping leg.

The differential grasshopper enters rice fields from surrounding pasturelands as food becomes scarce. Winged adults chew on the stems of rice plants. When plants are attacked just before or at panicle emergence, the injured plants produce white or “blasted” heads.

Sampling Methods and Treatment Thresholds

In Arkansas, control is recommended when seven to ten grasshoppers are observed per square yard, accompanied by excessive leaf loss. In Mississippi, control measures are suggested only after grasshoppers occur on 10 or more heads per 100 heads inspected. See Table 18g for recommended insecticides and rates.

Table 18g. Insecticides for grasshopper control.

Active ingredient/product	Rate per acre		Timing of applications
	Active ingredient	Product	
carbaryl Various labeled products containing carbaryl	1.0–1.5 lb	Depends on product	Generally, grasshoppers do not cause economic damage. Apply when defoliation or stem and panicle damage is excessive.
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.0125–0.02 lb	1.28–2.05 fl oz	
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.025–0.04 lb	1.6–2.56 fl oz	
methyl parathion	0.5 lb	1 pt (for 4 lb/gal product)	
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.020–0.025 lb	3.2–4.0 fl oz	

For additional information on the above products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Rice Stink Bug (*Oebalus pugnax*)

Identification, Biology and Damage - Adult rice stink bugs (Fig. 18d) overwinter near the ground in grasses. In the spring, the straw-colored, $\frac{3}{8}$ to $\frac{1}{2}$ inch long adults become active and deposit light green egg clusters containing 10 to 50 cylindrical eggs on foliage and panicles of grasses that are producing seed.

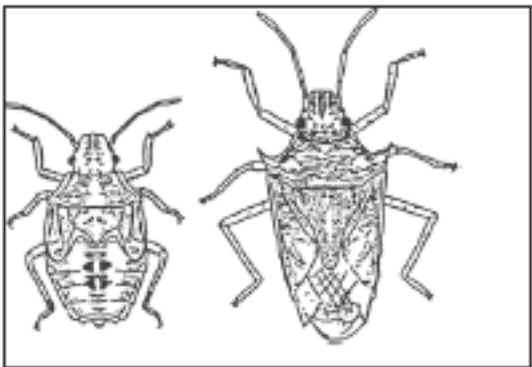


Figure 18d. Rice stink bug, nymph and adult.

Nymphs (Fig. 18d) hatching from these eggs are at first bright red with black markings, but as they grow they become tan colored with intricate red and black patterns on the top of their abdomens. Unlike adults, nymphs have neither wings nor the forward-pointing spines behind their heads.

As the rice panicles emerge, mobile adults migrate from their alternate host plants into rice fields and are generally much more abundant along field margins.

Rice stink bug feeding reduces the quality and perhaps quantity of yield. Grains attacked develop spots (associated with microorganisms), light yellow to black, commonly called “peck.”

The presence of discolored grains lowers the grade and market value of the rice. The damage is much more pronounced on milled, parboiled kernels. A high percentage of peck also has been correlated with reduced head yield and an increased percentage of broken kernels in milled rice.

The percentage of peck in a graded lot of rice represents a broad range of grain imperfections that may not be caused solely by the rice stink bug. Research has shown that even when preventive rice stink bug control programs are conducted, graders often find some level of peck. Other causes could include plant pathogens, genetic imperfections, environmental conditions during grain development, untimely harvest or a combination of factors.

Data from Arkansas show that long, medium and short grain varieties exhibit the least to the most amount of peck caused by rice stink bug.

Sampling Techniques and Economic Thresholds - Single applications of labeled pesticides (carbaryl, lambda-cyhalothrin, gamma-cyhalothrin, zeta-cypermethrin, malathion or methyl parathion) have too little residual activity to protect the kernels during their entire development. Therefore, preventive treatments are usually unjustified and their cost can be prohibitive, except for seed crop production.

Scout rice fields from heading to dough and apply insecticides only when rice stink bug populations exceed treatment thresholds.

Direct Observation Method - In Arkansas, an economic threshold has been established based on randomly checking 100 heads of rice with binoculars. Treatment is recommended when 10 or more stink bugs per 100 heads are observed. The structure of semidwarf rice varieties may make this method unreliable.

Sweep Net Sampling - A recommended technique for sampling rice stink bug populations is to use a 15-inch diameter insect sweep net. When 50% of the panicles have emerged (headed), sample the fields once or twice a week until harvest. Sample when the foliage is not wet from dew.

While walking through the field, make 10 consecutive (180 degree) sweeps. Swing the net from side to side with each step. Be sure to sweep so that the top of the net is even with the top of the panicles.

After 10 successive sweeps, count the adult rice stink bugs as they are removed from the net. Normally, 10 samples of 10 consecutive sweeps are made in a field to determine the population. Then calculate the average number of stink bugs caught per 10 sweeps. Avoid sampling field margins.

Formerly, an insecticide application was justified when infestation levels reached or exceeded five or more stink bugs (adults) per 10 sweeps during heading and milk after 75% panicle emergence. Thereafter, insecticide applications were applied when 10 or more adults per 10 sweeps were collected. Revised treatment thresholds are discussed below.

Visual Sampling - An alternative to sweep net sampling is the use of a 5-foot long sweep stick to determine visually the rice stink bug population level. This method of sampling requires less work and is as reliable as the traditional sweep net method.

Sweep the stick 180 degrees from one side to the other, lightly disturbing the tops of the panicles. While doing this, count the number of adult rice stink bugs observed on the rice or in flight from the area disturbed by the entire length of the stick. Repeat this process for a total of ten sweep stick sweeps per field and calculate the average number of adult rice stink bugs per sweep stick sweep.

The relationship between sweep stick and sweep net counts is given by this formula:

$$SN = (SS + 0.156) \div 0.675$$

where SN = number of adult rice stink bugs caught after ten sweeps with a 15-inch diameter sweep net, SS = number of adult rice stink bugs observed after one sweep of the sweep stick. Using this formula enables you to transform the sweep stick counts into number of insects caught with the sweep net.

When visually sampling for rice stink bugs using the sweep stick, follow the same general recommendations given for sweep net sampling.

Sequential Sampling - Sequential sampling is used to classify an insect population as exceeding or not exceeding the economic threshold. If the threshold is exceeded, a management action is needed. With sequential sampling, fewer sample units than conventional sampling usually are required to reach a decision. This saves time. Tables 18h-18k present sequential sampling plans for the rice stink bug for sweep net and visual sampling. These plans have been created for commonly used economic thresholds in the Texas Rice Belt: five adult rice stink bugs per 10 sweep net sweeps or 3.2 adult rice stink bugs per sweep stick sweep for heading and milk; and 10 adult rice stink bugs per 10 sweep net sweeps or 6.6 adult rice stink bugs per sweep stick sweep for soft dough.

Table 18h. Sequential sampling table for sampling rice stink bugs using the sweep net method (Economic threshold = 5 adult rice stink bugs/10 sweeps, heading and milk stages).

Sample unit number	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Cumulative number of adult rice stink bugs		20% risk		Stop sampling, control action needed
		10% risk	Stop sampling, control action needed	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	
4	14 or fewer	15–33	34 or more	16 or fewer	17–26	27 or more
5	18 or fewer	19–38	39 or more	20 or fewer	21–32	33 or more
6	22 or fewer	23–43	44 or more	25 or fewer	26–37	38 or more
7	27 or fewer	28–48	49 or more	30 or fewer	31–42	43 or more
8	31 or fewer	32–54	55 or more	34 or fewer	35–48	49 or more
9	36 or fewer	37–59	60 or more	39 or fewer	40–53	54 or more
10	40 or fewer	–	65 or more	43 or fewer	–	59 or more

Table 18i. Sequential sampling table for sampling rice stink bugs using the sweep net method (Economic threshold = 10 adult rice stink bugs/10 sweeps, soft dough stage).

Sample unit number	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Cumulative number of adult rice stink bugs		20% risk		Stop sampling, control action needed
		10% risk	Stop sampling, control action needed	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	
4	29 or fewer	30–60	61 or more	33 or fewer	34–50	51 or more
5	38 or fewer	39–70	71 or more	42 or fewer	43–61	62 or more
6	47 or fewer	48–80	81 or more	51 or fewer	52–71	72 or more
7	56 or fewer	57–91	92 or more	61 or fewer	62–82	83 or more
8	65 or fewer	66–101	102 or more	70 or fewer	71–93	94 or more
9	74 or fewer	75–112	113 or more	79 or fewer	80–103	104 or more
10	83 or fewer	–	124 or more	89 or fewer	–	115 or more

Table 18j. Sequential sampling table for sampling rice stink bugs using the visual method (Economic threshold = 3.2 adult rice stink bugs/sweep stick sweep, heading and milk stages).

Sample unit number	Cumulative number of adult rice stink bugs					
	10% risk			20% risk		
	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	Stop sampling, control action needed	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	Stop sampling, control action needed
4	8 or fewer	9–21	22 or more	10 or fewer	11–17	18 or more
5	11 or fewer	12–24	25 or more	13 or fewer	14–21	22 or more
6	14 or fewer	15–28	29 or more	16 or fewer	17–24	25 or more
7	17 or fewer	18–31	32 or more	19 or fewer	20–27	28 or more
8	20 or fewer	21–35	36 or more	22 or fewer	23–31	32 or more
9	22 or fewer	23–38	39 or more	25 or fewer	26–34	35 or more
10	25 or fewer	–	43 or more	28 or fewer	–	39 or more

Table 18k. Sequential sampling table for sampling rice stink bugs using the visual method (Economic threshold = 6.6 adult rice stink bugs/sweep stick sweep, soft dough stage).

Sample unit number	Cumulative number of adult rice stink bugs					
	10% risk			20% risk		
	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	Stop sampling, control action needed	Stop sampling, control action not needed	Continue sampling	Stop sampling, control action needed
4	19 or fewer	20–38	39 or more	22 or fewer	23–33	34 or more
5	25 or fewer	26–45	46 or more	28 or fewer	29–40	41 or more
6	31 or fewer	32–52	53 or more	34 or fewer	35–47	48 or more
7	37 or fewer	38–59	60 or more	40 or fewer	41–54	55 or more
8	43 or fewer	44–66	67 or more	46 or fewer	47–61	62 or more
9	49 or fewer	50–73	74 or more	52 or fewer	53–68	69 or more
10	55 or fewer	–	81 or more	59 or fewer	–	76 or more

Directions for using the sequential sampling tables

- Choose the table corresponding to the sampling method to be used and the economic threshold relevant to the stage of the crop.
- Choose the level of risk. A 20% risk level means that out of 10 samples, there is a probability of reaching a wrong decision two times. A lower risk will require taking more sample units.
- After four sample units have been taken, determine the cumulative number of adult rice stink bugs caught or observed and locate the column that corresponds to this number (a sample unit is 10 sweep net sweeps or one sweep stick sweep). If the cumulative number is in the “stop sampling” column, then additional sampling is not required and a decision is reached. If the cumulative number is in the “continue sampling” column, then you need additional sampling.
- Repeat the process until the cumulative number obtained falls in the “stop sampling” column. If no decision is reached by the tenth sample unit, sample again in a day or two.

Revised Treatment Thresholds - Experiments conducted in Texas in 2005 and 2006 were designed to determine if treatment thresholds for rice stink bug needed revising. The old treatment thresholds were based on obsolete varieties and cultural practices and outdated market conditions. The recent experiments used Cocodrie grown according to current recommended production practices using field cages infested with rice stink bugs during different stages of grain maturation. The results of these experiments differ markedly from those of the old experiments, but recent results seem to corroborate field observations by farmers and crop consultants.

Basically, results of the recent experiments suggest rice stink bug does not reduce grain or head rice yield, given population densities investigated. Thus, the primary damage caused by rice stink bug is peck. Results also show that late instar nymphs can cause significant peck but not as much as adults. All stages of grain maturation (heading, milk, soft dough and hard dough) are susceptible to rice stink bug damage, but the earlier rice stink bugs enter a field, the more likely it is that more peck will develop. Thus, in general, controlling infestations during heading and milk is very crucial to managing peck. Early infestations initiate the peck-producing process sooner, which allows more time for peck to develop. Also, early populations of rice stink bug, if left uncontrolled, have more time to feed on more grains, which can lead to more peck. In addition, higher yields mean more grain is available for rice stink bug feeding, which implies that rice stink bug damage actually can be diluted by increasing yield (evidence does not show that high-yielding fields attract more rice stink bugs). Certain conditions and assumptions are crucial to these revised treatment thresholds:

- The goal is to prevent peck damage from exceeding 2% (Grades 1 and 2 are not penalized). There are severe penalties for more than 2% peck.
- Rice stink bugs do not affect grain yield or head rice yield.
- If left uncontrolled, rice stink bug populations will remain at the same level throughout the entire grain maturation period.
- More grains in a field (i.e., higher yields) dilute rice stink bug damage. Higher yielding fields do not attract more rice stink bugs or cause a change in the feeding behavior of rice stink bugs.
- Sweep net efficiency is 15%. For instance, if 10 rice stink bugs are collected in 10 sweeps, then about 67 rice stink bugs are actually in the area sampled.

Table 181 shows the revised treatment thresholds based on sweep net sampling. When using the sweep net, take 10 consecutive sweeps (one sweep per one step), which is a sample unit. Make sure each sweep covers a 180 degree arc. The top of the net should be level with the tops of the panicles. Take at least four, 10-sweep sample units per field and don't sample near field margins. Your sample units should be distributed over the field. Sample fields at least at the beginning of each grain maturation stage (heading, milk, soft dough and hard dough). To use Table 181, average your sweep net counts for a field. Counts include adult and large nymphs (4th and 5th instars). If your average count per 10 sweeps exceeds the appropriate value in the table, spray. For instance, if you expect a yield of 7,500 pounds per acre and rice is heading, spray your field when your average count is 13 or more rice stink bug adults and large nymphs per 10 sweeps. Keep in mind that these treatment thresholds should be used as a guide to managing rice stink bugs. As more data are generated, these treatment thresholds may change.

Table 181. Revised treatment thresholds for rice stink bug (RSB).

Projected yield (lb/acre)	Average number of RSBs/10 sweeps			
	Heading	Milk	Soft dough	Hard dough
4500	8	10	17	47
6000	10	14	22	63
7500	13	17	28	79
9000	16	21	34	94

¹Includes adults and older nymphs (4th and 5th instars).

Insecticidal Management - Research is on-going to determine possible resistance to pyrethroids. Control may fail when many adults are migrating into rice, often when nearby sorghum fields are maturing or are being harvested. None of the registered products is known to repel rice stink bugs.

Methyl parathion provides rapid kill with little or no residual activity. Karate Z (lambda-cyhalothrin), DECLARE (gamma-cyhalothrin), Mustang MAX (zeta-cypermethrin), Sevin (carbaryl) products and PennCap-M (methyl parathion) provide a few days of residual activity. After initial knockdown, these products act primarily as contact insecticides, killing rice stink bugs only when they crawl across treated surfaces. See Table 18m for recommended insecticides and rates.

Table 18m. Insecticides for rice stink bug control.

Rate per acre			Timing of applications
Active ingredient/product	Active ingredient	Product	
carbaryl Various labeled products containing carbaryl	1.0–1.5 lb	Depends on product	Apply from heading to near harvest when adult rice stink bug populations reach threshold levels.
dinotefuran Tenchu® 20SG	0.094-0.131	7.5-10.5 oz	
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.0125–0.02 lb	1.28–2.05 fl oz	
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.025–0.04 lb	1.6–2.56 fl oz	
methyl parathion	0.25–0.5 lb	1/2 – 1 pt (for 4 lb/gal product)	
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.0165–0.025 lb	2.64–4.0 fl oz	

For additional information on these products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Treatment decisions may be complicated by uneven stands. Rice stink bugs prefer developing grain. In fields where much of the rice has matured, more rice stink bugs will be found on less mature panicles. Populations usually are higher around field margins and in weedy areas.

Sampling these areas may cause artificially high estimates of rice stink bug populations in the field. Unless spot treatments are feasible, decisions are best made using average sample results, as these are representative of the population across the entire field.

Try to avoid applying insecticides to wet foliage or when rain may occur before the product has dried.

The objective of managing rice stink bugs on rice should be to maintain populations at or below the threshold levels; do not expect to completely eliminate rice stink bug activity.

Stalk Borers

Identification, biology and damage - Texas rice is attacked by three species of stalk borers—the sugarcane borer, *Diatraea saccharalis*; the rice stalk borer, *Chilo plejadellus*; and the Mexican rice borer, *Eoreuma loftini*.

Recent studies using pheromone traps detected Mexican rice borers in all rice-producing counties south and west of Houston. In 2004 Mexican rice borers were detected in Chambers and Liberty Counties. In 2005 Mexican rice borers were detected in Jefferson County, so this insect is moving roughly 15 miles eastward per year toward Louisiana. In Calhoun, Colorado, Jackson, Matagorda and Wharton counties, the Mexican rice borer and sugarcane borer are becoming increasingly damaging pests. In the fall of 2008, Mexican rice borer moths were detected for the first time in Louisiana. Since then, they have continued to spread in SW Louisiana.

All three species lay eggs on rice foliage. Upon hatching, the larvae move to the protected areas between the leaf sheaths and culms. Eventually, the larvae bore into the culms and feed inside, which causes whiteheads and deadhearts.

Occasionally, larvae will feed on developing panicles within boots, causing partial blanking of panicles. Pupation occurs within damaged culms followed by emergence of adult moths.

Borer populations may be reduced by low winter temperatures, heavy pasturing of stubble, fall plowing or flooding fields during the winter. Ratoon rice is very susceptible to stalk borer damage. An egg parasite effectively controls sugarcane borers in parts of Texas.

Table 18n. Relative susceptibility of selected rice varieties to stalk borers (sugarcane borer and Mexican rice borer).

Variety	Very susceptible	Susceptible	Moderately resistant
Caffey	X		
CL111	X		
CL121	X		
Cocodrie	X		
Francis	X		
Jazzman	X		
Lemont	X		
Neptune	X		
Priscilla	X		
Saber	X		
Bolivar		X	
Catahoula		X	
Cheniere		X	
CL151		X	
CL161		X	
CLEARFIELD XL729		X	
CLEARFIELD XL730		X	
CLEARFIELD XP756		X	
Cypress		X	
Jacinto		X	
Jefferson		X	
Madison		X	
Presidio		X	
Wells		X	
CLEARFIELD XL8			X
Rondo			X
XL723			X

Some of the varieties in Table 18n are no longer grown in TX.

Data collected from 2000 to 2009 at Ganado, Texas, show that sugarcane borer and Mexican rice borer cause varying damage to rice, depending on variety. Table 18n lists selected varieties and their relative susceptibility to stalk borers.

Treatment thresholds - Treatment thresholds are not yet available for stalk borers, but preliminary work is in progress. However, rice grown in southern counties of the Texas Rice Belt has experienced serious stalk borer problems in recent years. Farmers in these counties who plant a stalk borer susceptible variety may want to consider preventive treatments of labeled insecticides as listed and described in Table 18o. Mexican rice borers often attack the internodes below the panicles, which are very vulnerable due to the small diameter of these internodes.

Table 18o. Insecticides for stalk borer control.

Active ingredient/product	Rate per acre		Timing of applications
	Active ingredient	Product	
chlorantraniliprole Dermacor® X-100	See Table 18a		Apply to dry seed.
gamma-cyhalothrin DECLARE®	0.015–0.02 lb	1.54–2.05 fl oz	In areas with historically high populations of stalk borers and damage, apply at 1- to 2-inch panicle followed by a second application at late boot/early heading. Two applications are more effective than one.
lambda-cyhalothrin Karate® Z	0.03–0.04 lb	1.92–2.56 fl oz	
zeta-cypermethrin Mustang MAX™	0.020–0.025 lb	3.2–4.0 fl oz	

For additional information on these products, read the labels or contact Texas A&M AgriLife Research at (409) 752-2741.

Leafhoppers

The blackfaced leafhopper, *Graminella nigrifrons*, is commonly found in rice, but is not usually abundant. Localized high populations have occurred in Brazoria County. Infested foliage becomes discolored and yield and quality can be lowered. High populations can produce copious quantities of honeydew, a sweet excretion produced by feeding of the leafhopper. A microorganism, sooty mold fungus, grows on this honeydew causing affected foliage to turn black and sticky.

A treatment threshold level has not been developed for this pest. However, several products have been evaluated for control. Of the insecticides registered for use on rice, carbaryl applied at 1.0 pound of active ingredient per acre has provided good suppression. In field trials, both carbaryl and the 4E formulation of methyl parathion significantly reduced leafhopper populations, while Penncap-M did not suppress leafhopper numbers significantly.

Karate Z (lambda-cyhalothrin), Mustang MAX (zeta-cypermethrin) and DECLARE(gamma-cyhalothrin) are registered at 0.025 to 0.04, 0.02 to 0.025 and 0.0125 to 0.02 pound of active ingredient per acre, respectively. CruiserMaxx Rice, NipsIt INSIDE and BELAY at the rates labeled for rice water weevil in Table 18d, are reported to have activity against leafhoppers.

Rice Seed Midges

The larvae of these insects (Order Diptera, Family Chironomidae, Genera *Tanytarsus* and *Chironomus*) are aquatic and can be very abundant in rice fields. The adults are small, gnatlike flies that typically form inverted pyramidal, mating swarms in the spring over stagnant or slow-moving water.

Female flies lay eggs in ribbons on the water surface. The larvae hatch and move downward to the flooded substrate, where they build protective “tubes” of silk, detritus and mud. These brown, wavy “tubes” are easily observed on the mud surface of rice paddies. Occasionally, the larvae will exit the tubes and swim to the surface in a whiplike fashion similar to mosquito larvae.

Midge larvae can damage water-seeded (pinpoint or continuous flood) rice by feeding on the sprouts of submerged germinating rice seeds. Damage can retard seedling growth or kill seedlings; however, the window of vulnerability to midge attack is rather narrow (from seeding to when seedlings are about 3 inches long).

Control rice seed midge problems by dry seeding, then employing a delayed flood, or by draining water-seeded paddies soon after planting. Thus, a pinpoint flood should reduce the potential for rice seed midge damage

relative to a continuous flood. For water-seeded rice, reduce rice seed midge problems by increasing the seeding rate and planting sprouted seed immediately after flooding.

Aphids

Recently, several species of aphids have injured Texas rice. Aphids are small, soft-bodied insects with piercing sucking mouthparts. The adults hold their wings rooflike over their bodies.

Both adults and nymphs move slowly and often are observed in groups feeding together. This aggregation is caused by a reproductive phenomenon called “parthenogenesis,” in which unmated female aphids give birth to living young.

Aphids suck the juices from rice and cause stunting and chlorosis. Young rice is particularly vulnerable and stand reductions can occur under severe aphid pressure.

Specifically, the following aphids have attacked Texas rice:

Bird cherry oat aphid (*Rhopalosiphum padi*) is mottled yellowish or olive green to black. It is often found feeding near the junction of leaf blades and sheaths on foliage. Seedling rice is very vulnerable.

Yellow sugarcane aphid (*Sipha flava*) is lemon yellow and normally found on foliage. It injects a toxin into rice plants that causes the foliage to become reddish. This toxin can cause injury with fewer aphids than other aphid species. Again, seedling rice is very vulnerable.

Rice root aphid (*Rhopalosiphum rufiabdominalis*) is dark (sometimes purplish) and can be found feeding on foliage and/or roots where masses of aphids often can be observed. Flooding controls aphids on roots, but levee rice remains vulnerable to root feeding.

The key to aphid management is scouting. Generally, aphids are more of a threat to seedling rice, so be sure to scout fields carefully and frequently after rice emergence.

If you observe ladybird beetle adults and larvae in your rice, look carefully for aphids. These beetles are voracious predators. Their presence usually indicates high populations of their hosts—aphids.

Also, if the rice foliage is sticky and shiny, inspect it for aphids, which excrete “honeydew.” This excretion is sweet and attracts ants. Thus, another indication of aphids being present is ants crawling on rice foliage.

When searching for aphids, remember to inspect the collar region (the junction of the leaf blade and sheath) of rice plants. Aphids are often found here because the relative humidity is high, the plant tissue is tender and concealment from natural enemies is possible.

No economic thresholds are now available for aphids attacking rice; but, if the stands are threatened or the rice is yellow/reddish/stunted and aphids are present, treat the rice with an approved insecticide.

Karate Z, Mustang MAX, DECLARE, CruiserMaxx Rice, NipsIt INSIDE and BELAY are labeled for certain aphid species at the same rates as those applied for rice water weevil control. (See Table 18d, “Insecticides for Rice Water Weevil Control.”)

Four practices discourage aphid populations and damage:

- Flushing or flooding, which drowns the insects and forces them to move up the plant, where they are more vulnerable to natural control
- Controlling weeds, which prevents aphids from building up on alternate hosts
- Establishing a healthy, uniform stand of rice
- Reducing early-season stress caused by inadequate soil moisture, herbicide injury, nutrient imbalances and damage from other pest insects and diseases

South American Rice Miner (*Hydrellia wirthi*)

During the past 8 years, we have seen the South American rice miner and associated injury in Texas and Louisiana rice. The adult of this insect is a small, gray fly that lays eggs singly on rice foliage. The eggs hatch, and larvae rasp and feed on developing foliage before the leaves unfurl. The larvae feed within leaves, resulting in mines and lesions.

Once the leaves unfurl, it is easy to see the signs of damage: relatively wide, white, elongated mines or lesions (similar to but wider than adult rice water weevil feeding scars) parallel to the leaf venation. This often causes the distal portion of leaves to break off or “hang by a thread,” giving the affected rice plants a ragged, tattered appearance.

The larvae are small, white and legless, and can be found within the lesions or mines. Pupae, which are brown, also can be found inside the lesions or mines.

Generally, injury occurs when rice is tillering. However, in Louisiana in 2004, a rice field planted late was severely damaged soon after emergence. In Texas, economic damage has not been observed, but be aware of this pest and report suspected injury to Mo Way (409) 658-2186.

Channeled Apple Snail (*Pomacea canaliculata*)

Channeled apple snails are invertebrates that were found in or near rice fields in Brazoria, Galveston, Fort Bend, Harris, Waller and Chambers counties. These snails most likely were introduced from South America to Texas via the aquarium pet trade. They have become serious pests of rice in Southeast Asia, where they were originally imported as a food source.

The adults are large (shell height about 3 to 4 inches), globular and banded with brown, black and yellowish-tan patterns of coloration. Although the snails feed on many types of vegetation, they prefer to feed on succulent, submerged plants. We have seen snails in Texas rice fields feeding on alligator weed and duck salad.

The egg masses are cylindrical, pink or red and are typically observed above the waterline on rice plants, weeds or human-made structures. To date, snail damage to rice in Texas has not been documented, possibly because of the practice of delayed flooding in Texas. Look for this potential pest and report any sightings to Mo Way at (409) 658-2186.

Panicle Rice Mite

The panicle rice mite, *Steneotarsonemus spinki*, is a potential arthropod pest of rice in Texas. This mite is native to Asia, but was introduced into Latin America and the Caribbean and was found in the southern U.S. in the 1960s. In 2007, it was found primarily attacking rice in greenhouses in Texas, Louisiana and Arkansas. So, the pest status of this mite on rice in the U.S. is largely unknown. The panicle rice mite has sucking type mouthparts and can be found feeding on the inside of leaf sheaths surrounding culms. Mites can be observed with a 16X hand lens. Severe symptoms of damage are similar to bacterial panicle blight. In 2008 USDA/APHIS/PPQ classified the panicle rice mite as an “actionable” pest and established certain quarantine procedures. In late 2011, this agency rescinded this classification based on evidence the panicle rice mite is not an imminent threat to U.S. rice production. Quarantine procedures for panicle rice mite are left up to individual rice-producing states. Texas has opted to drop USDA/APHIS/PPQ quarantine procedures based on lack of evidence of panicle rice mite damage in Texas.

Other arthropod pests

Many other insects have been reported to be rice pests, but are of undetermined or minor importance:

Coleoptera

Flea beetles

Grape colaspis, *Colaspis brunnea*

Cattail billbug

Sugarcane beetle, *Euetheola rugiceps*

Lepidoptera

Fiery skipper, *Hylephila phyleus*

Least skipper, *Ancyloxypha numitor*

Ocola skipper, *Ponoquina ocola*

Diptera

Rice leaf miner, *Hydrellia griseola*

Hemiptera

Paromius longulus

Leptocorixa tipuloides

Sharpshooter, *Draeculacephala portola*

Thysanoptera

Thrips, species undetermined

Acari

Spider mite, *Schizotetranychus oryza*

Mosquitoes

Many mosquito species breed in Texas rice lands, but four species account for most of the problems. Two of these, *Psorophora columbiae* and *P. ciliata*, are floodwater mosquitoes.

Females of these species lay their eggs on moist soil that floods periodically. The eggs resist desiccation and remain viable for a year or more. Hatching is stimulated by flooding during the warmer months (mid-April through October) of the year.

Two other species require standing water on which the females lay their eggs. *Culex salinarius* is common during the cooler months (from October through the winter to late June or early July). Females lay eggs in rafts (of 200 or more eggs each) on the surface of standing water. Breeding is continuous during the cooler months as long as standing water is available. *Anopheles quadrimaculatus* females deposit single eggs equipped with floating devices on the surface of standing water.

Overlapping generations during the warmer months result in a gradual buildup of adult numbers, which generally reach a peak in late July or early August. This species is the primary vector for the agents that cause malaria and is thus a hazard to human health.

Management: The only effective way to control mosquitoes breeding in rice land is through organized, area wide control programs. Organized mosquito control districts exist in most larger urban areas in the Texas Rice Belt.

There is very little a rice producer can do to prevent or control mosquitoes in rice fields, except:

- Ensure that the fields are graded to promote good drainage when water is no longer needed
- Remove as many off-field standing water sites as possible. Any shallow pools of water allowed to stand for more than 3 days are potential breeding sites for mosquitoes
Take care not to use chemicals that seriously affect aquatic predators, such as fish, back-swimmers, predaceous diving beetles, etc. These predators occur naturally in rice irrigation water and can eliminate up to 60% of a mosquito population.

In 2012, Texas experienced an epidemic of West Nile Virus. Certain species of mosquitoes transmit the virus (the cause of West Nile) from primarily birds to humans. Symptoms of West Nile Virus include high fever, chills, body rash and disorientation. Severe cases can lead to death. Individuals working in or near rice fields should take precautions by applying mosquito repellents with a high concentration of DEET (25%). Also, cover exposed skin as much as possible, especially at dusk when mosquitoes are most active. A co-author of this chapter, Mo Way, contracted West Nile Virus in July of 2012 and continues to feel the effects of this disease.

Stored Grain Pests

Many insect pests attack stored rice. These can be separated into two groups: primary and secondary pests.

Primary pests attack whole kernels and complete their development inside the kernel. These include the rice weevil, *Sitophilus oryzae*; lesser grain borer, *Rhyzopertha dominica*; and Angoumois grain moth, *Sitotroga cerealella*.

Secondary pests feed on the bran coat, germ, cracked or broken kernels and grain dust generated by primary pests. These include the Indian meal moth, *Plodia interpunctella*; almond moth, *Cadra cautela*; sawtoothed grain beetle, *Oryzaephilus surinamensis*; merchant grain beetle, *Oryzaephilus mercator*; flat grain beetle, *Cryptolestes pusillus*; red flour beetle, *Tribolium castaneum*; hairy fungus beetle, *Typhaea stercorea*; cigarette beetle, *Lasioderma serricorne*; and psocids or booklice.

Management: Good management of stored grain insects requires:

- Using good sanitation practices
- Ensuring that high-quality grain is stored
- Providing proper storage conditions
- Monitoring for insect pests
- Making use of well-timed and justifiable insecticide treatments (bin treatments, grain protectants and fumigants)

Sanitation is probably the most important aspect of a good pest management program. Remove any residual material in the storage bins, including chaff, straw and dust. This helps prevent the perpetuation of previous infestations. Never put new grain on top of old grain.

Treat bins after they are cleaned with an approved insecticide, being sure to treat all inside and outside surfaces. One gallon of spray will cover 500 to 700 square feet of surface, depending upon surface characteristics (porous wood surfaces require more spray than metal). Many pests of stored grain are resistant to malathion.

Store dry, clean grain. Avoid storing grain with a high moisture content and many cracked kernels. High humidity promotes the development of certain insects, and cracked kernels lead to the development of secondary pest species.

Aeration cooling will limit insect development during storage by lowering temperatures and moisture.

Grain protectants can be applied to dry, uninfested grain before storage to prevent pest infestations. Protectants will not work if they are applied before drying. Nor will they eliminate existing pest populations. It is essential that the protectant be distributed evenly throughout the grain mass. After binning is completed, level the bin.

Top dressing or treating the top of the grain mass with an approved grain protectant can protect the grain from infestations of Indian meal moths and almond moths.

Monitor for insect populations throughout the storage period by using grain probes, pitfall traps, pheromone traps or other useful methods. Monitoring enables producers to detect pest infestations for early treatment and to evaluate the effectiveness of management tactics.

Fumigation of infested stored grain is often less expensive and more effective when done by a commercial company. Consider treatment cost on a per unit (bushel or hundredweight) basis, taking into account necessary safety and application equipment and estimated time and labor requirements.

Sealing the storage facility is essential for effective control, because successful fumigation depends on holding enough gas long enough to kill insects in all stages (particularly eggs and pupae) throughout the grain mass. Applicators must have state certification to buy and apply fumigants.

Draining for Harvest

G. N. McCauley

Properly timed drainage for harvesting is important in obtaining good quality, high yielding rice. The timing depends on crop maturity, soil texture, weather conditions and field drainage efficiency.

Draining

To conserve water, discontinue irrigation 7 to 10 days before the anticipated drain date. Enough moisture must remain in the soil to ensure that the lower grains on the panicle fill and mature properly before harvest, but the soil must be dry enough to support combines without severely rutting the field if a ratoon crop is anticipated. The Rice Development Advisory at <http://beaumont.tamu.edu/RiceDevA/RiceDevA.aspx> can be used as a guide for draining fields for harvest.

Research from Eagle Lake on a Nada fine, sandy loam soil indicates that a dry period of 20 days is required for optimum ratoon crop yields. On these coarse textured soils, drain 10 days before harvest (25 days after main crop heading) for highest yields and quality.

On fine (clay and clay loam) soils such as Beaumont clay, drain 15 days before harvest (20 days after main crop heading) for highest yields and quality. These fine textured soils can be flooded immediately after main crop harvest without reducing ratoon crop yields, in contrast to the coarse textured soils.

Drain time must be based on experience. Fields with historic internal and external drainage problems must be drained a few days earlier. Drain may be delayed a few days for fields with shallow, coarse-textured soils that dry out quickly.

Harvesting

G. N. McCauley

Several important factors affect the harvesting of rice with a combine. Consider these factors in every instance of combining:

- Timing of harvest
- Condition of the crop and field
- Adjustment of the combine
- Skill of the operator

Timing of Harvest

If the rice crop is harvested too early or too late, the quality of the rice may suffer, cutting profits considerably. Rice is a crop that fruits and matures over a long period and the grain moisture content varies greatly. For maximum quality, rice should be harvested when moisture content is between 18 and 22% or when the grains on the lower panicle are in the hard dough stage.

Quality

Rice quality is an important factor over which producers have some control. Whole grain is worth more than broken grain. In some instances, whole grain sells for 50 to 100% more than broken grain. Rice breakage is preceded by fissuring of the individual grains.

Once rice grains dry to 15% moisture or lower, they will fissure when subjected to a moist environment. Such environments may be found in the fields before harvest, in the combine hopper or in the holding bin after harvest. A rice field may look the same to a producer from one day to the next, but the ambient environment can cause a considerable loss in quality within one night.

Fissured grains in the field or in harvested rough rice are hidden inside the hull and are not visible without close inspection of individual grains. This damage does not become apparent until these grains are combined, dried and milled. Many times this damage is attributed to a mechanical operation and not to the real cause.

Adjusting the Combine

Rice is harvested by direct combining and is difficult to thresh because it is hard to strip from the straw. A spike-tooth threshing cylinder is usually used because of its aggressive threshing action. Rice may be down or lodged, making harvesting more difficult.

Most semidwarf varieties are more difficult to combine than conventional cultivars because the panicle does not emerge above the canopy. Combines must cut extra green foliage to harvest the panicles, thus reducing threshing and separation efficiency. This requires that combine ground speed be reduced for semidwarf varieties. A harvest aid such as sodium chlorate may increase harvest efficiency by desiccating green foliage and weeds.

Caution: Harvest aids may result in severe fissuring if the field is not harvested within 3 days of application. Also, desiccation of the main crop may reduce tillering and therefore yields of the ratoon crop.

It is important to adjust a combine properly to maintain quality and reduce losses. Consult the operator's manual for proper adjustments of the header, reel, cylinder, sieves and fan for the crop and field conditions. After these adjustments are set and a trial run is made, be sure to measure harvest losses.

Unless the operator knows the source of grain losses, he or she cannot reduce them. Some losses are due to improper operation and others are caused by improper adjustment. Preharvest losses are those that occur prior to harvesting. Such losses show up as a result of weather conditions and include shatter loss, grain left attached to the stubble and cut stalks not delivered into the header. Shatter losses may be associated with wind or storms, but also increase when rice is harvested at low grain moisture. Threshing losses occur when grains or panicles are not separated from the chaff and stalks in the combine.

How to Determine Losses in Rice

Preharvest Loss - Select a typical unharvested area of the field well in from the edges. Place a frame 12 inches square in the standing crop. Count all the rice grains lying on the ground within the frame. Make several random samples and determine the average. The loss can be estimated using Table 6a in the Seeding Rates section. Select the variety in the left column, go across the columns until the grain (seed) per square feet is located and the seeding rate at the top of the column becomes the grain loss per acre. For example, the average grain count was 13 for a field of Cocodrie. Table 6a reveals that the shattering loss is 30 pounds per acre.

Machine Losses - Machine loss will be somewhat dependent on the age of the combine. This is due partly to age and partly to improved design. Do not use a straw spreading device, such as a straw chopper or straw spreader, because the loss count will be inaccurate. Harvest a typical area. Allow the machine to clear itself of material, disengage header reel and threshing mechanism, back the combine a distance equal to the length of the machine and stop the combine. This will allow the checking of all loss points without starting and stopping the combine several times.

- Total machine loss—Place the 1 square foot measuring frame on the ground in the residue trail. Separate the filled rice grains from the chaff and count grains. Subtract the number of grains from the preharvest loss from the average count here, then divide by the header width. The loss can be estimated using Table 6a in the Seeding Rates section. Select the variety in the left column, go across the columns until the grain (seed) per square foot is located and the seeding rate at the top of the column becomes the grain loss per acre. If the loss is acceptable, generally less than 5% of the average yield, then the machine check is complete. If the loss is unacceptable then proceed to the next three steps to isolate the exact source of the machine loss.
- Header losses—Place the 1 square foot measuring frame on the ground in front of the combine within the harvested area. Count the number of rice grains found in the frame. Check several other sample areas and average the grain counts. Finally, subtract the number of grains found in the preharvest loss check. The loss can be estimated using Table 6a in the Seeding Rates section. Select the variety in the left column, go across the columns until the grain (seed) per square foot is located and the seeding rate at the top of the column becomes the grain loss per acre. For example, the average grain count was 39 for a field of Cocodrie. Subtracting the preharvest loss leaves 26 grains for the header loss. Table 6a reveals that the header loss is 60 pounds per acre.
- Threshing unit loss—Check the ground in a few places directly behind the combine in the trail of residue, using the 1 square foot frame. Count all the rice grains remaining on partially threshed heads. Do not include kernels lying loose on the ground. The loss can be estimated using Table 6a in the Seeding Rates section. Select the variety in the left column, go across the columns until the grain (seed) per square foot is located and the seeding rate at the top of the column becomes the grain loss per acre. For example, the average grain count was 440 for a field of Cocodrie. Divide the average grain count by the header width. Thus, the threshing system loss was 22 grains for a 20 foot header. Table 6a reveals that the header loss is 50 pounds per acre. Typical threshing unit loss ranges from 1/2 to 1% of the average yield. Acceptable losses are largely a matter of operator preference.

Straw walker and shoe losses—Place the 1 square foot measuring frame on the ground directly behind the combine in the residue trail. Then count the kernels lying loose within the frame. Do not include kernels on partially threshed heads. Subtract the number of kernels found in the header loss check and the preharvest loss check. The remaining figure will be the number of kernels lost over the straw walker and shoe. The loss can be estimated using Table 6a in the Seeding Rates section. Select the variety in the left column, go across the columns until the grain (seed) per square foot is located and the seeding rate at the top of the column becomes the grain loss per acre. For example, the average grain count was 600 for a field of Cocodrie. Subtract the preharvest loss and header loss giving a final count of 561 grains. Divide the average grain count by the header width. Thus, the threshing system loss was 28 grains for a 20 foot header. Table 6a reveals that the header loss is about 65 pounds per acre. Typical straw walker and shoe losses should be less than 1% of the average yield.

Ratoon (Second) Crop Production

G. N. McCauley, L. Tarpley, F. Dou, X.G. Zhou, M. O. Way

Several factors are critical to successful ratoon crop production. The earlier the ratoon crop matures, the higher its potential yield. Therefore, rapid stimulation of regrowth is an important factor. Apply the planned pre-flood nitrogen rate immediately after harvesting the main crop and flood it into the soil to stimulate regrowth. Keep soils moist with a shallow flood until regrowth has advanced and retiling has occurred. An additional option for

stimulating ratoon tiller regrowth is the application of gibberellic acid to the main crop at soft dough (see the “Gibberellic Acid Treatment to Improve Ratoon Stand” section for more information). After retillering, maintain a flood sufficient to control weeds. In addition, maintaining a flood prevents sugarcane beetle from attacking the culms and roots of ratoon rice. Fields should not be flushed after harvest. Flushing permits the germination of rice grain residue from harvesting. These germinated rice seeds become weeds that compete for nutrients and light. Time does not permit them to produce panicles. Flooding immediately after harvest prevents the germination of these seeds through the formation of an anaerobic layer near the soil surface.

Main Crop Cutting Height

Traditionally, the main crop has been cut at about 18 inches above the ground (depending on variety). Ratoon tillers may be generated at any node below this height. Panicles from aerial nodes tend to be smaller with smaller grain compared to tillers originating from the crown. Panicles from different nodes may increase variability in maturity and decrease milling yield. Plot research and field verification tests have shown that reducing the cutting height will increase ratoon crop yield and uniformity. In small plots, yields increased as main crop cutting height decreased to 4 inches. Yields did not increase below 8 to 10 inches in field verification tests. Reducing main crop cutting height will delay ratoon crop maturity by 6 to 10 days. This delay can be offset by making a nitrogen application about 7 days before main crop drain and flooding immediately after harvest. The reduced cutting height can be achieved during combining or by using a flail shredder. **Note: If your ratoon crop is late, you may not want to reduce cutting height.** Finally, recent research conducted in Texas suggests decreasing main crop cutting height reduces populations of stalk borers attacking the ratoon crop. The mowing operation kills many stalk borer larvae and pupae in main crop stubble. Thus, many larvae in the stubble are prevented from moving over to infest new ratoon tillers and many pupae in the stubble are unable to complete development reducing the number of egg-laying moths.

Fertilization

The recommended nitrogen rate for ratoon crop production is dependent on the anticipated yield potential. Maximum ratoon crop yield potential occurs when there is: 1) main crop harvest before August 15, 2) absence of disease in the main crop, 3) limited field rutting by equipment, 4) good weed control in the main crop, and 5) yield of the main crop lower than anticipated but good growth potential. If all or most of the above conditions can be met, application rates of 70 to 130 pounds of nitrogen per acre are recommended. The specific nitrogen rate depends on variety, yield target and economics. Decrease or eliminate nitrogen application if the main crop harvest is delayed; ratoon tillers are few; disease is present; fields are rutted; or weed pressure is significant. Remember, any delay in nitrogen and water application reduces the yield potential of ratoon crop rice.

Nitrogen Timing on Fine (Heavy) Soils

Splitting ratoon crop nitrogen by applying 1/3 to 1/2 at 10 to 15 days after main crop heading and the remainder immediately after main crop harvest has not consistently increased yields of the ratoon crop. If nitrogen deficiency occurs during late stages of main crop development, top dressing of the main crop at this time may hasten ratoon crop tiller development and maturity. However, a near-heading application on a main crop that has sufficient nitrogen can produce excessive green foliage at main crop harvest.

Nitrogen Timing and Water Management on (Light) Coarse Soils

Several years of research data on a coarse soil at Eagle Lake suggest that when this type of soil remains dry for approximately 20 days after main crop harvest, ratoon crop yields can be increased by splitting the ratoon crop nitrogen (i.e., applying 1/2 to 2/3 immediately after harvest and the remainder 25 days after ratoon flood). However, if the ratoon crop flood is delayed more than 10 days after the main crop harvest, splitting the ratoon crop nitrogen does not increase ratoon crop yields. A dry period longer than 30 days between main crop harvest and ratoon crop flood can devastate ratoon crop yields on coarse soils. A dry period of 10 days or less can reduce ratoon crop yields, indicating that coarse soils, particularly those at Eagle Lake, need a dry period of 15 to 20 days and split nitrogen application to achieve optimum yields. Splitting ratoon crop nitrogen does not increase yields when the dry period between the main and ratoon crops is greater than 25 or less than 10 days.

Weed Management

Herbicide use for broadleaf weeds, particularly dayflower, is the biggest concern in ratoon crop rice. Several herbicides are currently labeled for use in ratoon crop rice. These include 2, 4-D, Grandstand R[®], and Basagran[®]. Check the label for rates, timing and weeds controlled.

Disease Management

Narrow brown leaf spot (also called Cercospora leaf spot) is one of the most important diseases in the ratoon crop in Texas, although several other diseases can cause severe damage to the ratoon crop when conditions are favorable for their development. Proper management of this disease with fungicides on the main and ratoon crops provides a significant increase in ratoon crop yield and an improvement in milling quality. Preliminary studies conducted at the David R. Wintermann Rice Research Station at Eagle Lake showed an increase of up to 13% in ratoon crop yield and significant head rice milling quality improvement when a propiconazole-containing fungicide was applied at boot or early heading stage for the main crop, or applied at mid-boot for the ratoon crop. The fungicides that contain propiconazole active ingredient are most effective for managing this disease. These include Bumper[®], PropiMax[®], Stratego[®], Tilt[®], Quilt[®], and QuiltXcel[®]. Be aware that some fungicides are not labeled for use on the ratoon crop. Check the labels for legal use, rates and timing.

Sheath blight is a major disease in the main crop but not in the ratoon crop. No fungicides are currently recommended for control of sheath blight in the ratoon crop. However, good control of sheath blight with fungicides on the main crop is recommended. Sheath blight control in the main crop can increase tiller density in the ratoon crop, resulting in additional yield increases. See the “Disease Management” section for more information on fungicide treatments for management of sheath blight in the main crop.

Insect Management

In general, control of insects in the main crop results in increased yields in the ratoon crop. Texas data consistently show economic returns for the ratoon crop when rice water weevil and stalk borers are controlled in the main crop. Control of these insects results in improved vigor and increased tiller production in the ratoon crop. Also, recent research shows the positive effects of insecticidal seed treatments carry-over to the ratoon crop. Thus, farmers who plan to ratoon crop should seriously consider planting seed treated with an insecticidal seed treatment.

Management of rice stink bug is similar on main and ratoon crop rice. For the ratoon crop, use the same sampling techniques, treatment thresholds and insecticides/timings/rates as described in the Insect Management section. However, ratoon crop maturity is usually not very uniform. Thus, a field of ratoon rice can have panicles emerging to grain in the dough stage. This makes timings of insecticide applications problematic. To address this problem, farmers should consider applying insecticides with residual activity to control rice stink bugs. See the Insect Management section for information on rice stink bug insecticides and properties.

Gibberellic Acid Treatment to Improve Ratoon Tiller Vigor and Yield

L. Tarpley and A.R. Mohammed

Ratoon crop yield increases commonly occur in response to a Gibberellic Acid (GA) treatment of 4 grams (0.009 pounds) active ingredient per acre applied to the main crop between several days past peak flowering up to the soft dough stage. The yield increase appears to be a result of enhanced early growth of the ratoon tillers. Main crop yield and main and ratoon crop milling quality do not appear to be affected by the treatment. The GA application, however, slightly delays main crop development. This needs to be taken into account when planning harvests of main crop fields.

Ratoon yield was increased in 14 of 17 studies conducted on a range of varieties including hybrids. The overall average increase from the 17 studies was 236 pounds per acre. The very early maturing hybrids, such as XL723, appear to be especially responsive to GA treatment with an average ratoon yield increase of 622 pounds per acre.

The GA application at the soft dough stage has the potential additional advantage that it can be tank mixed with insecticide applications applied during grain filling. This would save on application costs and provide an economical way of increasing yields. Preliminary studies conducted in cooperation with M.O. Way and L. Espino (Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Extension Center at Beaumont) showed no loss in efficacy of either compound when GA and a pyrethroid were co-applied at this growth stage. Although there is no known negative effect from later GA applications up to main crop harvest, the benefit gained from enhancing early growth of the ratoon tillers would often be diminished.

Gibberellic Acid applied during stem elongation can enhance elongation, thus increasing plant height and the potential for lodging. Avoid early applications of GA to tall varieties. Application during peak flowering can sometimes decrease main crop yield, according to research at the LSU AgCenter; therefore, GA should be applied after peak flowering. The GA treatment's likelihood of benefit decreases when there is disease or nutritional stress on the ratoon crop. This treatment is applied to the main crop to benefit ratoon crop yield.

The majority of large acreage on-farm trials have provided an increase in ratoon crop yield. Given the low cost of chemical (ca. \$5/A) and the low risk involved, this gibberellic acid treatment can be considered as an "insurance" treatment to be used as a tank-mix addition to insecticides applied during main crop grain filling.

Texas Rice Production Practices

G. N. McCauley, M. O. Way, L. Tarpley, F. Dou, X.G. Zhou and S. A. Senseman

Table 23a is a composite of the major disciplines and operations generally practiced by rice producers in Texas. The practices of land preparation, variety selection and ratoon crop production are not included. However, the sequence of operations through the production season has been correlated to rice plant development.

Note that the procedures listed represent the maximum level of inputs and that these practices should not be implemented unless the need arises or unless implementation can be economically justified. This table does not constitute a recommendation of one production sequence by Texas A&M AgriLife Research. The scheme shown represents a generalized tabulation of rice production to provide producers with an overview and enable them to consider combining management practices when possible to make efficient use of costly trips across the fields. Alterations in one discipline can greatly alter other practices.

Table 23a. The major disciplines and operations generally practiced by Texas rice producers at various rice development stages.

Production practice	Stage of rice plant development when action is taken
Water management	
Flush as needed	Preplant to 1st tiller
Flood	2nd tiller and 5th leaf
Stop pumping	Soft dough to hard dough
Flood stubble	After harvest
Fertilization	
Apply N, P and K	Preplant to 3rd leaf
Apply N	3rd leaf to (and) PD
Weed management	
Stale seedbed:	
Fall	Land preparation late summer and fall Broad-spectrum burndown herbicide or tank-mix through winter to preplant Follow conventional tillage system
Spring	Land preparation late summer and early spring Allow seedbed to firm Broad-spectrum burndown herbicide or tank-mix preplant Residual herbicides preplant or preemergence – herbicide selection should be based on history and/or scouting
Conventional tillage:	
Early postemergence	Follow conventional tillage system Apply contact herbicide to control any emerged weeds based on scouting
Late postemergence	Apply residual herbicide to prevent regrowth based on scouting and history
Post flood/salvage applications	Apply contact herbicide to control any emerged weeds based on scouting Apply residual herbicide to prevent regrowth based on scouting and history Yield loss has occurred if weeds persist at this time – carefully evaluate economics prior to application Salvage grass control should be achieved when water is static after flooding Salvage broadleaf control can generally continue to near panicle initiation depending on herbicide selection
Disease management	
Seed treatments	Planting
Scout fields for sheath blight	Start at PD
Fungicide application	PD+5 days until late boot

Table 23a. The major disciplines and operations generally practiced by Texas rice producers at various rice development stages.

Production practice	Stage of rice plant development when action is taken
Insect management	
Seed treatments	Planting
Scout and apply insecticides as needed for:	
• armyworms	Emergence to maturity
• chinch bug	Emergence to tillering
• aphids	Emergence to tillering
• rice water weevil	Tillering
• rice stink bug	Flowering to maturation
• grasshoppers	Emergence to maturity
• stalk borers	PD to heading
Plant growth regulation	
Seed treatments	Planting
Gibberellic acid for seedling vigor	2nd to 4th leaf
Gibberellic acid for ratoon vigor	MC late flowering to mid-dough

Rice Production Economics

Joe L. Outlaw and J. Marc Raulston

Texas' rice plantings have averaged 170,000 acres in the past 5 years, with a low of 135,000 acres planted in 2012 (Fig. 24a). Cost of production remained relatively stable in 2012 (Fig. 24b). In addition, the ongoing drought and its impact on the availability of surface water for rice producers in the area west of Houston could lead to only a small rebound in planted acres.

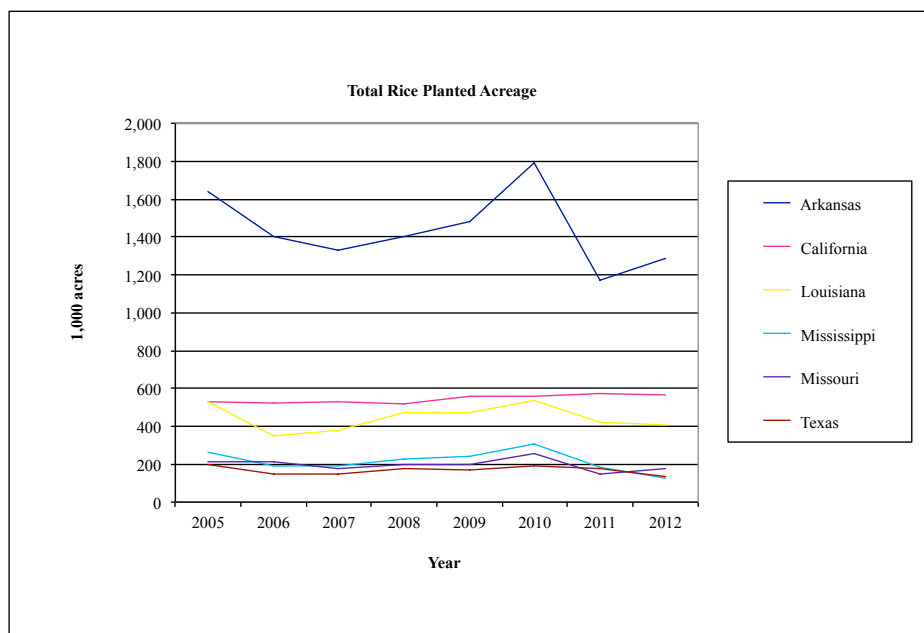


Figure 24a. Total rice acreage planted.

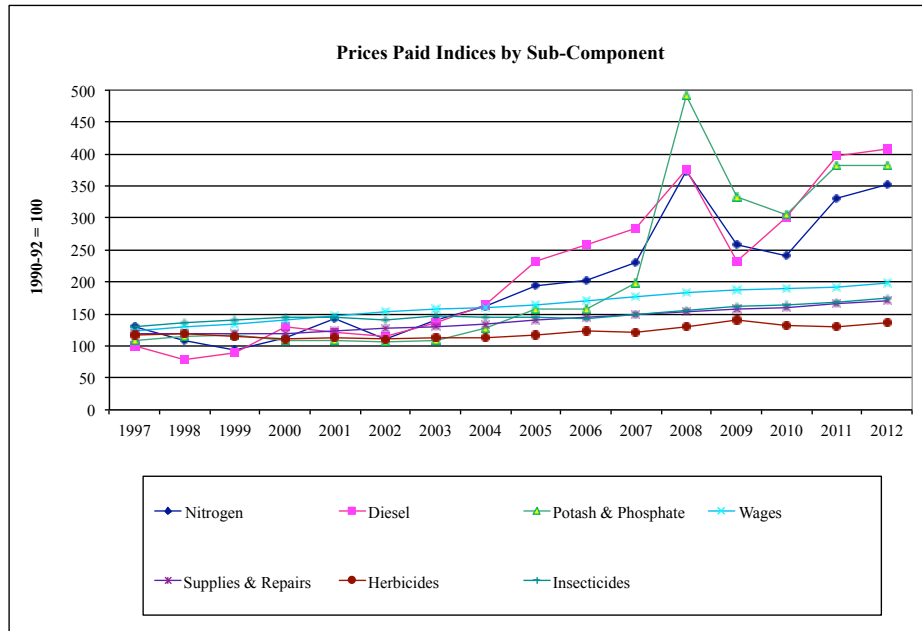


Figure 24b. Prices paid by sub-component.

Cost of Production Estimates for the 2013 Crop

The planning budgets shown in the following tables were developed with input from producers who participate with the Agricultural and Food Policy Center (AFPC) to develop representative rice farms used in analyses for Congress, custom service, product suppliers, and Texas A&M AgriLife Extension Service specialists. These budgets are based on projections for input and output prices for the 2013 crop year. These budgets are intended to represent the cost structure for a hypothetical 450-acre rice operation on land that requires 18-20 levees per 100 acres. The budget scenario represents a moderately high-yield, high input conventional tillage production system with moderate to heavy pest pressure. Main and ratoon crop budgets have been separated, and all general and administrative costs, crop insurance, land, and vehicle charges are assigned to the main crop. Three sets of budgets have been developed based on three sources of irrigation water including surface water, groundwater based on pumping with diesel engines, and groundwater based on pumping with natural gas engines.

Field operations are consistent between the three sets of budgets. Annual usage rates for tractors are projected at 600 hours, with capital recovery factors calculated over an 8-year useful life. Annual usage rate for the combine was estimated at 200 hours with the capital recovery factor calculated over a 10-year useful life. Fixed costs shown in the budget represent the cost of owning machinery and equipment, and are the annualized capital recovery cost for owned durable items. No adjustment was made in aerial application costs for irregular shaped fields. The interest rate charged on the projected operating loan for this budget is 6.5%.

The budgeted fertility program for the main crop includes a base fertilizer application, one pre-flood application and one top-dress application, and is consistent over the three sets of budgets. The total main crop fertilizer application is comprised of 183 units of N, 59 units of P, 39 units of K, and 4.3 units of S. The budgeted main crop herbicide program includes an initial ground applied treatment of clomazone, an aerial application of a general tank-mix over the total planted acreage to control sedges, grasses, and broad-leaf weeds along with a follow-up aerial application over one-half the planted acres to control escaped weeds. The budgeted pesticide program for the main crop includes one fungicide application to control foliar diseases, a pyrethroid application to control water weevils, along with two pyrethroid applications to control rice stink bugs.

The budgeted surface water irrigation program for the main crop includes 1.57 hours per acre of labor for three flushes, flood maintenance and draining. Total main crop water usage is budgeted at 2.75 acre-feet, with water charges based on published Lower Colorado River Authority (LCRA) Lakeside Irrigation System rates for 2013. It should be noted that at the time this budget was developed, the availability of surface water for production of the 2013 crop is in doubt due to the perceived threat of drought.

The budgeted groundwater irrigation program for both the diesel powered and natural gas powered engines includes 33 acre inches for the main crop. These utilization figures are based off a 4 year average provided by the Coastal Bend/Coastal Plains Groundwater Conservation District. Fuel utilization for the diesel powered irrigation system is budgeted at 8 gallons per hour, and 1.9 MCF per hour for the natural gas powered irrigation system.

The budgeted fertility program for the ratoon crop consists of one top-dress application of urea. The total ratoon crop fertilizer application is comprised of 69 units of N. The budgeted pesticide program for the ratoon crop includes one application to control rice stink bugs.

The budgeted surface water irrigation program for the ratoon crop includes 0.71 hours per acre of labor for one flush, flood maintenance, and draining. Total ratoon crop water usage is budgeted at 12 acre-inches; with water charges based on projected LCRA Lakeside Irrigation System rates for 2013.

The budgeted ground water irrigation program for both the diesel powered and natural gas powered engines includes 12 acre inches for ratoon crop irrigation, based on the 4 year average groundwater utilization for rice production provided by the Coastal Bend/Coastal Plains Groundwater Conservation District.

No counter-cyclical, ACRE, or direct payments from USDA are included in these budgets. All the budgeted scenarios generate results that indicate positive returns above direct expenses given an expected premium of \$7.80 per hundredweight.

An enterprise budget is a statement of what is expected if particular production practices are used to produce a specified amount of product, and is based on the economic and technological relationships between inputs and outputs. The scenario shown in Tables 24a-24f represents a general guide and is not intended to predict the costs and returns from any particular farm's operation. For more details related to these budgets, contact your local county Texas A&M AgriLife Extension Service office or go to the Texas A&M AgriLife Extension service budget web site maintained by the Texas A&M University Department of Agricultural Economics at <http://agecoext.tamu.edu/resources/crop-livestock-budgets.html>.

Table 24a. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston—main crop; 450-acre farm; surface water, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your Farm
Income Main					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	70.0000	483.00	_____
Rice—crop prem.	CWT	7.80	70.0000	546.00	_____
Total income				1029.00	_____
Direct expenses					
Adjuvants	acre	7.10	1.0000	7.10	_____
Custom fertilizer application	acre	27.62	1.0000	27.62	_____
Custom spray	acre	41.97	1.0000	41.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	190.63	1.0000	190.63	_____
Fungicides	acre	25.21	1.0000	25.21	_____
Herbicides	acre	83.06	1.0000	83.06	_____
Insecticides	acre	11.70	1.0000	11.70	_____
Irrigation supplies	acre	9.67	1.0000	9.67	_____
Seed	acre	62.00	1.0000	62.00	_____
Survey levees	acre	6.00	1.0000	6.00	_____
Crop insurance—Rice	acre	10.00	1.0000	10.00	_____
Irrigation	acre	116.36	1.0000	116.36	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	11.90	1.0000	11.90	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	105.00	1.0000	105.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	28.70	1.0000	28.70	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	21.00	1.0000	21.00	_____
Vehicles	acre	18.50	1.0000	18.50	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	1.3603	19.13	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	1.5700	22.07	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	12.6673	42.44	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	32.35	1.0000	32.35	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	37.46	1.0000	37.46	_____
Total direct expenses				929.86	_____
Returns above direct expenses				99.14	_____
Total fixed expenses				84.43	_____
Total specified expenses				1014.29	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				14.71	_____
Residual items					
Rice land rent	acre	100.00	1.0000	100.00	_____
G&A overhead	acre	10.79	1.0000	10.79	_____
Management charge	%	1066.36	0.0500	53.32	_____
Residual returns				-149.40	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. General and Administrative (G&A) includes accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses estimated at \$4,855.50 per year. Vehicle charge is based on IRS allowance for 12,000 miles of annual use.

Table 24b. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston–ratoon crop; 450-acre farm; surface water, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your farm
Income Ratoon					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	16.0000	110.40	_____
Rice—crop premium	CWT	7.80	16.0000	128.00	_____
Total income				235.20	_____
Direct expenses					
Custom fertilizer application	acre	9.37	1.0000	9.37	_____
Custom spray	acre	7.97	1.0000	7.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	43.57	1.0000	43.57	_____
Insecticides	acre	2.67	1.0000	2.67	_____
Irrigation	acre	38.04	1.0000	38.04	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	2.72	1.0000	2.72	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	24.00	1.0000	24.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	6.56	1.0000	6.56	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	4.80	1.0000	4.80	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	0.3500	4.92	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	0.7100	9.98	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	2.7795	9.31	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	10.74	1.0000	10.74	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	3.83	1.0000	3.83	_____
Total direct expenses				182.32	_____
Returns above direct expenses				52.88	_____
Total fixed expenses				18.38	_____
Total specified expenses				200.71	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				34.49	_____
Residual items					
Management charge	%	243.74	0.0500	12.19	_____
Residual returns				22.30	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. All G&A costs including accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses are charged to the main crop. All crop insurance and land charges are assigned to the main crop. Vehicle charges are assigned to the main crop.

Table 24c. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston—main crop; 450-acre farm; ground water; diesel engine, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your Farm
Income Main					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	70.0000	483.00	_____
Rice—crop prem.	CWT	7.80	70.0000	546.00	_____
Total income				1029.00	_____
Direct expenses					
Adjuvants	acre	7.10	1.0000	7.10	_____
Custom fertilizer application	acre	27.62	1.0000	27.62	_____
Custom spray	acre	41.97	1.0000	41.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	190.63	1.0000	190.63	_____
Fungicides	acre	25.21	1.0000	25.21	_____
Herbicides	acre	83.06	1.0000	83.06	_____
Insecticides	acre	11.70	1.0000	11.70	_____
Irrigation supplies	acre	9.67	1.0000	9.67	_____
Seed	acre	62.00	1.0000	62.00	_____
Survey levees	acre	6.00	1.0000	6.00	_____
Crop insurance—Rice	acre	10.00	1.0000	10.00	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	11.90	1.0000	11.90	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	105.00	1.0000	105.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	28.70	1.0000	28.70	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	21.00	1.0000	21.00	_____
Vehicles	acre	18.50	1.0000	18.50	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	1.5125	21.27	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	0.6500	9.14	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	59.7205	200.06	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	41.73	1.0000	41.73	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	39.14	1.0000	39.14	_____
Total direct expenses				971.39	_____
Returns above direct expenses				57.61	_____
Total fixed expenses				136.29	_____
Total specified expenses				1107.68	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				-78.68	_____
Residual items					
Rice land rent	acre	100.00	1.0000	100.00	_____
G&A overhead	acre	10.79	1.0000	10.79	_____
Management charge	%	1066.36	0.0500	53.32	_____
Residual returns				-242.79	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. General and Administrative (G&A) includes accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses estimated at \$4,855.50 per year. Vehicle charge is based on IRS allowance for 12,000 miles of annual use.

Table 24d. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston—ratoon crop; 450-acre farm; ground water; diesel engine, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your farm
Income Ratoon					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	16.0000	110.40	_____
Rice—crop premium	CWT	7.80	16.0000	124.8	_____
Total income				235.2	_____
Direct expenses					
Custom fertilizer application	acre	9.37	1.0000	9.37	_____
Custom spray	acre	7.97	1.0000	7.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	43.57	1.0000	43.57	_____
Insecticides	acre	2.67	1.0000	2.67	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	2.72	1.0000	2.72	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	24.00	1.0000	24.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	6.56	1.0000	6.56	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	4.80	1.0000	4.80	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	0.4089	5.75	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	0.1500	2.11	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	20.9936	70.33	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	10.74	1.0000	10.74	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	4.18	1.0000	4.18	_____
Total direct expenses				198.95	_____
Returns above direct expenses				36.25	_____
Total fixed expenses				26.00	_____
Total specified expenses				224.95	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				10.25	_____
Residual items					
Management charge	%	243.74	0.0500	12.19	_____
Residual returns				-1.94	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. All G&A costs including accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses are charged to the main crop. All crop insurance and land charges are assigned to the main crop. Vehicle charges are assigned to the main crop.

Table 24e. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston—main crop; 450-acre farm; ground water; gas engine, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your Farm
Income Main					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	70.0000	483.00	_____
Rice—crop prem.	CWT	7.80	70.0000	546.00	_____
Total income				1029.00	_____
Direct expenses					
Adjuvants	acre	7.10	1.0000	7.10	_____
Custom fertilizer application	acre	27.62	1.0000	27.62	_____
Custom spray	acre	41.97	1.0000	41.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	190.63	1.0000	190.63	_____
Fungicides	acre	25.21	1.0000	25.21	_____
Herbicides	acre	83.06	1.0000	83.06	_____
Insecticides	acre	11.70	1.0000	11.70	_____
Irrigation supplies	acre	9.67	1.0000	9.67	_____
Seed	acre	62.00	1.0000	62.00	_____
Survey levees	acre	6.00	1.0000	6.00	_____
Crop insurance—Rice	acre	10.00	1.0000	10.00	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	11.90	1.0000	11.90	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	105.00	1.0000	105.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	28.70	1.0000	28.70	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	21.00	1.0000	21.00	_____
Vehicles	acre	18.50	1.0000	18.50	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	1.5125	21.27	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	0.6500	9.14	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	12.6673	42.44	_____
Natural gas	cu ft	3.75	9.9642	37.37	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	41.73	1.0000	41.73	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	34.09	1.0000	34.09	_____
Total direct expenses				846.08	_____
Returns above direct expenses				182.92	_____
Total fixed expenses				136.29	_____
Total specified expenses				982.37	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				46.63	_____
Residual items					
Rice land rent	acre	100.00	1.0000	100.00	_____
G&A overhead	acre	10.79	1.0000	10.79	_____
Management charge	%	1066.36	0.0500	53.32	_____
Residual returns				-117.48	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. General and Administrative (G&A) includes accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses estimated at \$4,855.50 per year. Vehicle charge is based on IRS allowance for 12,000 miles of annual use.

Table 24f. Summary of estimated costs and returns per acre; rice west of Houston—ratoon crop; 450-acre farm; ground water; gas engine, District 11, 2013.

Item	Unit	Price (dollars)	Quantity	Amount (dollars)	Your farm
Income Ratoon					
Rice—crop loan	CWT	6.90	16.0000	110.40	_____
Rice—crop premium	CWT	7.80	16.0000	124.80	_____
Total income				235.20	_____
Direct expenses					
Custom fertilizer application	acre	9.37	1.0000	9.37	_____
Custom spray	acre	7.97	1.0000	7.97	_____
Fertilizers	acre	43.57	1.0000	43.57	_____
Insecticides	acre	2.67	1.0000	2.67	_____
Checkoff/commission	acre	2.72	1.0000	2.72	_____
Drying—Rice	acre	24.00	1.0000	24.00	_____
Rice hauling	acre	6.56	1.0000	6.56	_____
Storage—Rice	acre	4.80	1.0000	4.80	_____
Operator labor	hour	14.06	0.4089	5.75	_____
Rice water labor	hour	14.06	0.1500	2.11	_____
Diesel fuel	gal	3.35	2.7795	9.31	_____
Natural gas	cu ft	3.75	3.8571	14.46	_____
Repair and maintenance	acre	10.74	1.0000	10.74	_____
Interest on operating capital	acre	3.16	1.0000	3.16	_____
Total direct expenses				150.35	_____
Returns above direct expenses				84.85	_____
Total fixed expenses				26.00	_____
Total specified expenses				176.35	_____
Returns above total specified expenses				58.85	_____
Residual items					
Management charge	%	243.74	0.0500	12.19	_____
Residual returns				46.66	_____

Note: Cost of production estimates are based on 18 to 20 levees per 100 acres. All G&A costs including accounting, legal, general liability insurance and miscellaneous expenses are charged to the main crop. All crop insurance and land charges are assigned to the main crop. Vehicle charges are assigned to the main crop.

Web-Based Information Delivery

L. T. Wilson and Y. Yang

Over the past four decades, tremendous progress has been made in our understanding of rice production. As data are accumulated, there is an increasing need to integrate information from different disciplines into delivery systems that are easy to use and readily available. The Internet has provided a format that shows great promise in this regard, and we are seeing an increasing trend of developing web-based agricultural management applications.

Web-based applications offer many advantages compared to traditional stand-alone applications, including, but not limited to, greater user accessibility and information delivery, extended lifetimes of service, ease of maintenance and upgrading, and customization for different clientele groups. Web-based programs make it possible for students, researchers, and scientists to explore ideas, to identify areas for research and improvement, and to step across interdisciplinary boundaries, and for growers and consultants to optimize the management of their crops.

To serve the rice production community, the Texas A&M AgriLife Research Center at Beaumont has developed several online applications. The Rice Development Advisory (RiceDevA) is a web-based program that forecasts rice growth stages for multiple varieties and different planting dates for 21 rice counties in Texas. It can be accessed at <http://beaumont.tamu.edu/RiceDevA>.

The Post-Harvest Grain Management (RiceSSWeb) is a web-based program that allows users to predict temperature and grain moisture changes during rice storage and the population dynamics and damage by insects (the lesser grain borer and the rice weevil) inside the storage bins. This program was developed jointly by Texas A&M University, the University of Arkansas, the Agricultural Research Service (Manhattan) of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the University of Missouri. It can be accessed at <http://beaumont.tamu.edu/RiceSSWeb>.

Rice Development Advisory (Major update in 2012)

L. T. Wilson, Y. Yang, J. Wang, J. Vawter, F. Dou and L. Tarpley

A new version of the Rice Development Advisory (RiceDevA) was released in 2012. The greatest change was the addition of approximately 20 rice varieties. RiceDevA provides advanced options for creating, running, and displaying multiple-field growth forecasts for different rice varieties, planting/emergence dates, and counties.

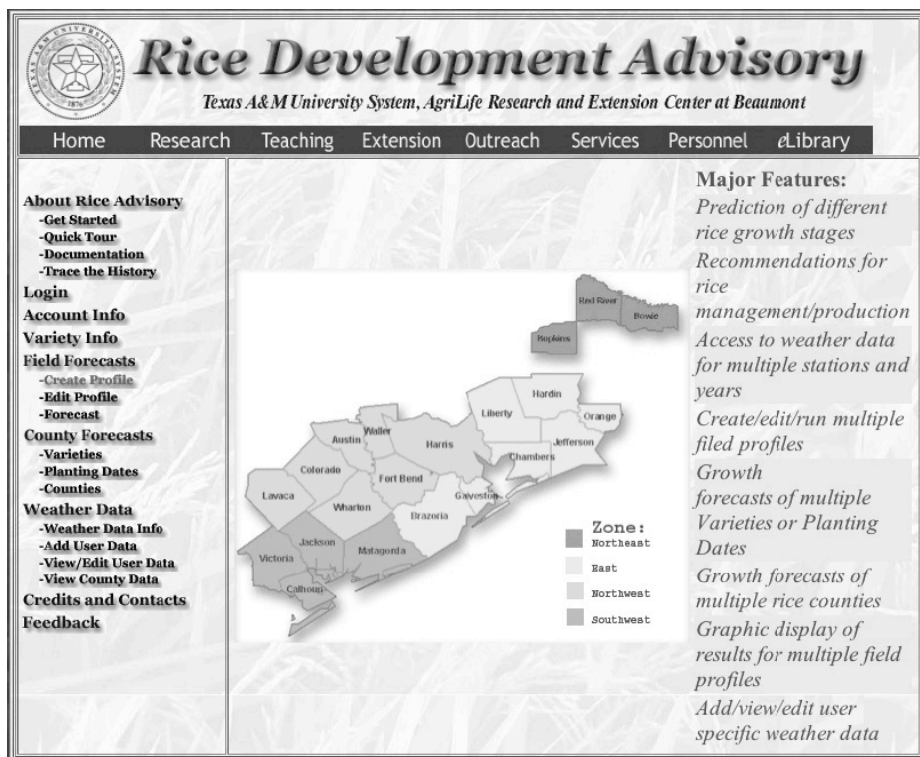


Figure 26a. The RiceDevA Web site can provide growth forecasts and advisories for 21 rice counties in Texas.

Major features

RiceDevA provides growth forecasts and advisories for 21 rice counties in Texas. It allows users to run multiple-field profiles at the same time and display and print results (Fig. 26b). RiceDevA allows users to choose weather stations from any Texas rice-producing county for a specific year, or historic averages for a particular station in a selected county. The program provides interfaces for users to add, view, and edit their own weather data and allows users to view and download county weather data.

Crop forecasting

RiceDevA input data include rice variety, planting date, and 10% and 90% seedling emergence dates. Additional information used by RiceDevA includes weather station data and year, or historic averages for the station. RiceDevA does not predict rice yields or account for changes in crop development because of management practices.

Interface window

The top part of RiceDevA's window displays links to the web site of the Texas A&M AgriLife Research Center at Beaumont (Home, Research, Teaching, Extension, Outreach, Services, Personnel, and eLibrary) (Fig. 26a). The left side of the window displays links to the major features of the Rice Development Advisory (About Rice Advisory, Login, New Account, Account Info, Variety Info, Field Forecasts, County Forecasts, and Weather Data). The remaining part of the window allows users to input, edit, and view data or display results.

Feature access

A user can access features of the RiceDevA by clicking on a link in the left side menu and making appropriate selections.

New account creation: To create a new account, click on the New Account link, fill in the appropriate information, and click on the Submit button. Once your account is created, you are automatically logged in, and you will be presented with more options in the left side menu.

Field profile creation: A field profile is a collection of production and weather data needed to forecast rice plant growth stages. Production data include rice variety, planting date, 10% emergence date and 90% emergence date. Weather data include weather station and year or historic average for the station.

A user can create a field profile by clicking on the Create Profile button under the Field Forecasts menu on the left side and make the appropriate selections for production and weather data. Only users who have accounts with RiceDevA can save a profile or view, edit or delete existing profiles. A field profile is owned by a specific user and is accessible only by that user.

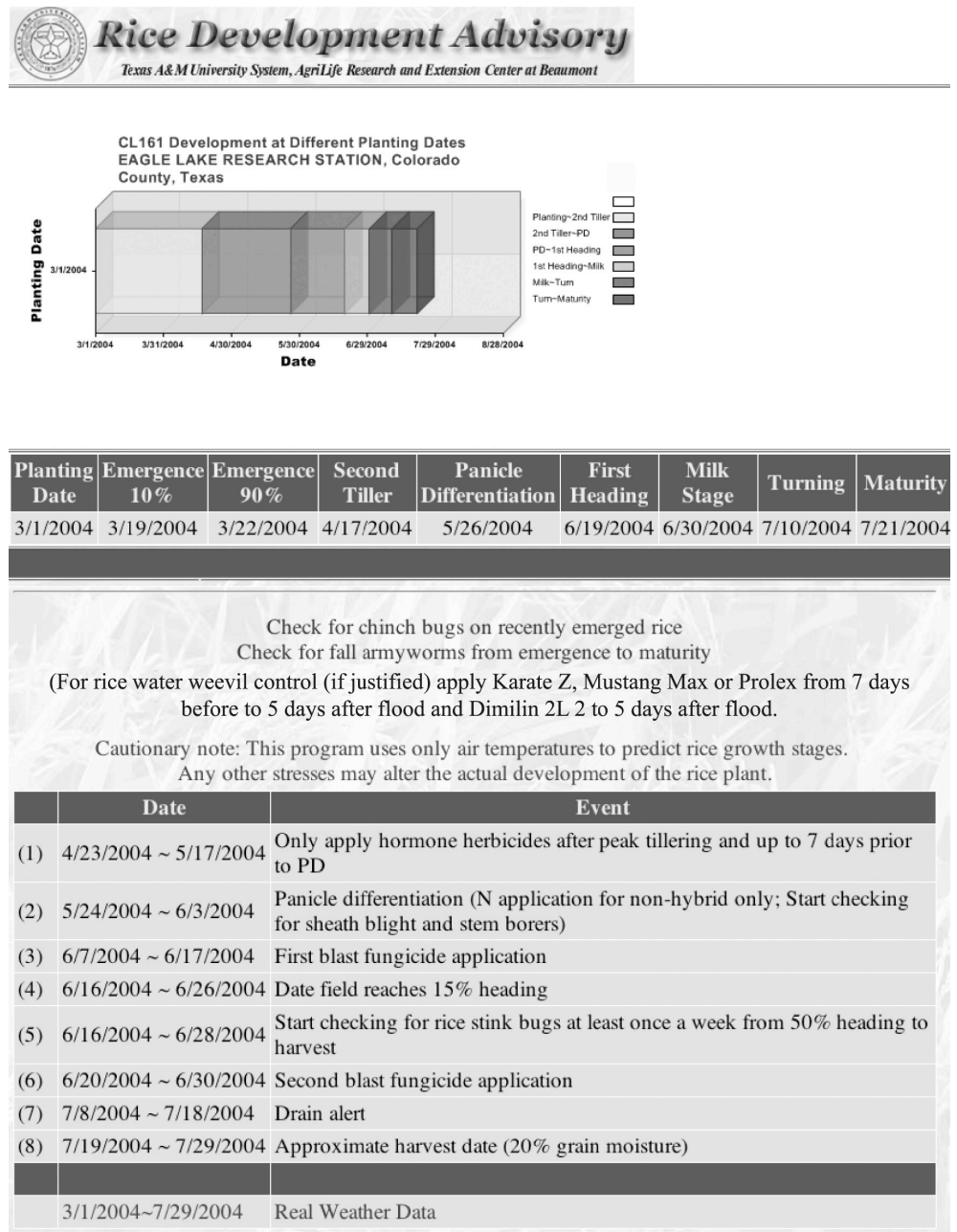


Figure 26b. The RiceDevA allows users to run multiple-field profiles at the same time and display and print results for multiple field profiles.

Menu descriptions

Menus to access RiceDevA features are displayed on the left side of the RiceDevA window (Fig. 26a).

The *Account Info* menu displays information about a user who has registered with RiceDevA (user name, user ID, email, etc.)

The *New Account* menu allows a user to create a new account. A registered user (by creating a new account) will have access to advanced features of RiceDevA.

The *Variety Info* menu displays information about all varieties currently in the system. The information includes heat units to different crop stages (second tiller, panicle differentiation, first heading, milk stage, panicle turning, and grain maturity) and disease resistance (rice blast, sheath blight and straight head). The database includes a total of 49 historic and current rice varieties.

The *Field Forecasts* menu provides growth forecasts for single or multiple field profiles for the current user.

The *Create Profile* submenu allows users to create a new field profile; the *Edit Profile* submenu allows a registered user to edit his/her existing field profile(s); and the *Forecast* submenu allows a registered user to forecast rice crop growth for single or multiple field profiles.

The *County Forecasts* menu allows users to forecast rice crop growth for different varieties, planting dates, and counties. The *Varieties* submenu provides growth forecasts for single or multiple rice varieties; the *Planting Dates* submenu provides growth forecasts for single or multiple planting dates; and the *Counties* submenu provides growth forecasts for single or multiple counties.

The *Weather Data* menu gives users background information about weather data and options for adding user weather data and viewing county weather data. The *Information* submenu provides background information about weather data sources and usage; the *Add User Data* submenu allows a registered user to add user-specific weather data for new or existing user stations; the *View User Data* submenu allows a registered user to view his/her weather data; and the *View County Data* submenu allows any users to view weather data for 21 rice-producing counties in Texas.

Post-Harvest Grain Management

Y. Yang, L. T. Wilson and F. H. Arthur

Aeration and grain management

Once a cereal crop has been harvested, it may need to be stored for a period of time before it can be marketed or used as feed or seed. The length of time cereal grain can be safely stored depends on its condition at harvest and the type of storage facility being used.

Grain stored at lower temperatures and moisture contents can be kept for longer periods before quality deteriorates. Grain quality and storage duration are affected by the presence and buildup of insects, mites, molds, and fungi, which are all affected by grain temperature and grain moisture content.

Although the biggest threats to stored rice are the lesser grain borer and the rice weevil, excessive moisture and temperature variations can also affect grain quality. Monitoring stored grain depends on bin managers, requiring diligence and near constant oversight.

The rice weevil and lesser grain borer are primary feeders that complete development inside the kernel. Because infestations are hidden, they are often undetected until populations reach damaging levels. An important component of any grain bin management program is the use of low-volume ambient air (aeration) to cool the grain mass to levels (60°F) that will either reduce or suppress insect population development.

Aeration is the process of ventilating stored grain at low airflow rates to maintain a fairly uniform grain temperature throughout the bin. Aeration prevents moisture accumulation at the top layers of the bin because of natural convection.

Aeration may be used with field-dried grain or with grain that is harvested damp, then dried and cooled in a heated air dryer. In both cases, the grain may vary in temperature and moisture content, and it may be too warm to store safely.

Variations in grain temperature are also caused by changes in the outside air temperature after the grain is stored. The amount of air required to change the temperature of the grain may not affect grain moisture content because of the low airflow rates used in aeration. Although bin aeration is not intended to be a grain drying system and should not be considered as such, some drying can occur when the weather is very dry and the fan is run for a long time.

Fan operation should be controlled by maintaining a difference of less than 10°F between grain temperature and the average outside air temperature. Grain is cooled in the fall, kept at low temperatures in the winter, and warmed in the spring.

Improper aeration leads to mold development. Early signs of mold growth can be detected by smelling the first air that is exhausted from storage after fans are turned on.

Generally, fans can be operated when the outside relative humidity ranges from 55 to 70%. If the airflow rates are high, humidity below a recommended range could over dry the grain, while humidity above the range may raise the grain moisture to unsafe levels.

These levels are determined by the equilibrium moisture content (EMC) of the grain, a point at which the grain is neither gaining nor losing moisture. If the relative humidity is constant, a rise in air temperature will lower the EMC. Likewise, if the temperature is constant, a rise in relative humidity will raise the EMC.

At 77°F and 75% relative humidity, the EMC for rough rice, brown rice, and milled rice is 11.89, 13.01; and 13.04, respectively. These numbers may change slightly with different varieties and grain types, as lipid levels in the bran affect the EMC.

Most moisture meters read the surface moisture of the grain. Rice just coming out of a dryer may read 13%, but afterward that reading could go up by 1 or more percentage points. This is known as the “rebound effect,” and should be considered as grain goes in to storage. Fissuring occurs when the moisture gradient between the kernel and the air is high, and moisture rapidly enters the grain.

During fan operation, the air temperature should be cooler than the grain in the fall and warmer than the grain in late spring. Some aeration controllers automatically start and stop fans based on grain and air temperatures; some also control based on air humidity.

The minimum airflow rate for grain aeration is 0.5 to 2 cubic foot per minute per bushel (CFM/Bu). Grain with low initial moisture content requires a lower airflow rate. For larger fans, this will speed up the cooling process as more air is moved through the grain.

Warm air rising in the center of the bin cools when it reaches the cold grain near the surface. This results in an increase in moisture content near the surface, which can lead to rapid spoilage.

A common symptom of moisture migration is crusting on the surface of stored grain. Significant migration can occur in cereal grains at moisture contents as low as 12% wet weight basis, if the grain is placed into storage at a high temperature and not cooled.

Grain in storage is subject to moisture migration caused by differences in grain temperature. This is particularly true for grain stored in metal bins. In late fall and early winter, stored grain tends to be warmer than the outside air. Warm air rises slowly out of the center grain. When this air contacts the cold grain on the top of the bin, it cools, increases in relative humidity and causes the top grain to gain moisture.

Sometimes the temperature differences are enough to cause condensation on the top grain. Air and grain that are close to cold walls or floors also cool. The air increases in humidity, sometimes causing the grain closest to the cold metal to gain enough moisture to cause spoilage. Moisture migration is slowed by aeration, regularly forcing outside air through the grain to reduce the temperature difference between the grain and the outside.

During the fall, aeration is used to cool the grain and maintain moisture uniformity. In the winter, aeration is needed just to maintain moisture uniformity.

Keep the grain temperature as low as possible during the spring to reduce insect damage. Insects become active when grain temperature rises above about 65°F, and infestation and damage are likely when the grain temperatures are between 75 and 90°F, which is the optimum range for growth and development of stored-grain insects.

To summarize, good storage practices can prevent losses in grain quality by:

- Keeping the moisture content of grain below about 12.5%, which corresponds to about 65% relative humidity
- Keeping the grain temperature within 10°F of the average monthly air temperature and below 60°F as long as possible during the year
- Designing and operating an aeration system to maintain uniform grain moisture and temperature
- Storing only well-cleaned grain. Fungal (mold) growth is minimal below 65% relative humidity and bacterial growth is minimal at even higher relative humidity.
- Reducing the occurrence of rapid shifts in temperature, thereby controlling grain fissuring
- Monitoring and reacting appropriately to any changes that may occur

Safe, long-term storage moisture for grain is based on grain dryness. Although grain can be stored above about 12% moisture content, the risk of noticeable mold growth increases as moisture, storage time and grain temperature rise. During storage, inspect the grain weekly. Test the discharge air for off-odors, any increases in temperature within the grain, and increases in moisture, which generally indicate a problem.

Web-based Post-Harvest Grain Management Tool (RiceSSWeb)

Y. Yang, L. T. Wilson, J. Wang, and F. H. Arthur

The Post-Harvest Grain Management program (<http://beaumont.tamu.edu/RiceSSWeb>) is a web-based grain management tool (Fig. 28a). It allows users to create different scenarios of bin and fan configurations and different initial conditions of pest infestations. It also allows users to simulate changes in grain temperature and moisture content and the resulting pest density and grain damage.

The tool was developed jointly by scientists from Texas A&M University, the University of Arkansas, the Agricultural Research Service (Manhattan) of the U.S. Department of Agriculture, and the University of Missouri.

The web-based program is directly linked to a weather database that contains data for the southern rice-growing region (Arkansas, Louisiana, Mississippi, Missouri and Texas). The weather database is updated automatically with data from several sources, mainly weather data from the National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration (NOAA).

Major features. RiceSSWeb has the following major features:

- Prediction of grain temperature and moisture dynamics
- Prediction of rice weevil and grain borer dynamics
- Sensitivity analysis of different bin configurations
- Sensitivity analysis of different pest configurations
- Ability to create, edit and run multiple bin profiles
- Graphic display of results for aeration/pest dynamics
- Access to weather data for multiple stations and years
- Ability to add, view and edit user specific weather data

Interface windows. The web interface (Fig. 28a) has three major parts. The left side of the window displays links to the major features of the Post-Harvest Grain Management program (*About This Program, Login, New Account, Create Profile Profile, Results and Analysis, and Weather Data*). Four additional features (*Account Info, Bin Info, View/Edit Profile and Run Profile*) are available for users who have logged in. The top banner displays links to information that is relevant to the Post-Harvest Grain Management program (*Decision Tools, Research Team, Display Unit, Calculators Etc., Knowledge Base, and Resources*). The remaining part of the window allows users to input, edit, and view data and display results.

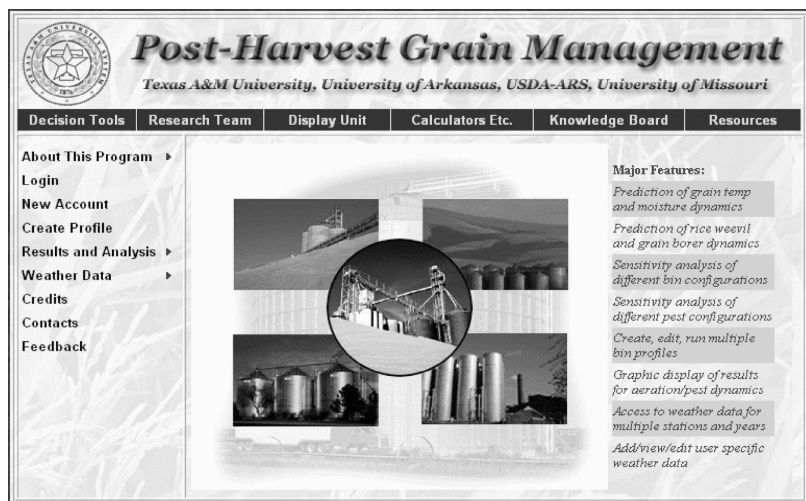


Figure 28a. The RiceSSWeb main page.

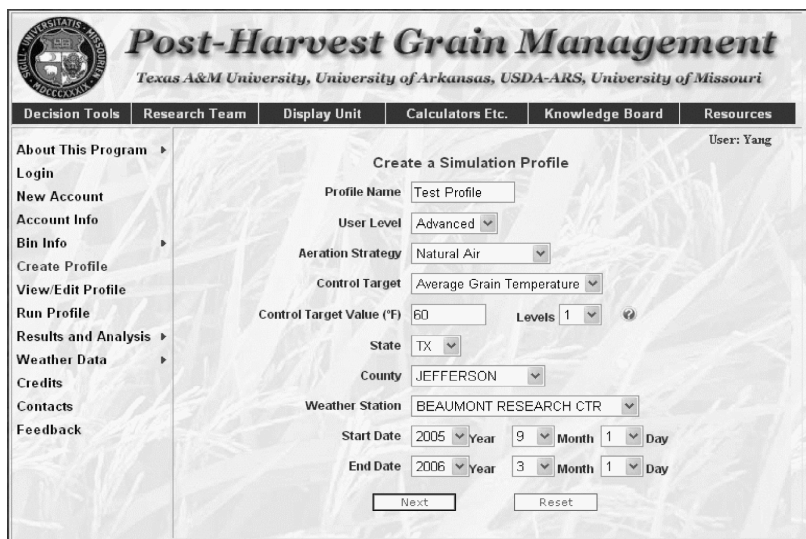


Figure 28b. Create Profile – general and weather data.

Feature access. A user can access features of the Post-Harvest Grain Management program by clicking on a link on the left side menu and making appropriate selections.

New Account Creation: To create a new account, click on the New Account link, fill in the appropriate information, and click on the Submit button. Once your account is created, you are automatically logged in, and more options will appear on the left side menu.

Bin Profile Creation. A bin profile is a collection of bin and pest configuration and weather data needed to forecast dynamics of grain temperature and moisture, and pests (Figs. 28b-28d). Bin configuration includes bin diameter, grain depth, initial grain temperature, and moisture. Pest configuration includes pest species and initial pest density. Weather data include weather station and year or historic average for the station.

A user can create a bin profile by clicking on the Create Profile submenu under Bin Profiles on the left sidebar and making the appropriate selection for the bin, pest, and weather data.

Only users who have accounts with the program can save the profile and view, edit or delete existing profiles. A bin profile is owned by a specific user and is accessible only by that user. Also, only registered users can add, edit, or view their own weather data.

Post-Harvest Grain Management
Texas A&M University, University of Arkansas, USDA-ARS, University of Missouri

Decision Tools | Research Team | Display Unit | Calculators Etc. | Knowledge Board | Resources

User: Yang

About This Program ▶
Login
New Account
Account Info
Bin Info ▶
Create Profile
View/Edit Profile
Run Profile
Results and Analysis ▶
Weather Data ▶
Credits
Contacts
Feedback

Bin Configuration

Parameterer Levels Interval

Bin Name: Bin 1

Bin Grain Depth (ft): 40

Initial Grain MC (%w.b.): 13

Initial Grain Temp (°F): 65

Fan Selection: Air Flow Input

Fan Type: Centrifugal / Axial

Fan Name: 30HP Sukup 1750RPM

Number of Fans: 1

Grain Type: Rice

Bin Floor Type: Perforated / Duct

Heater Power: On / Off

Back Next Reset

Figure 28c. Create Profile – bin configuration.

Post-Harvest Grain Management
Texas A&M University, University of Arkansas, USDA-ARS, University of Missouri

Decision Tools | Research Team | Display Unit | Calculators Etc. | Knowledge Board | Resources

User: Yang

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Credits
Contacts
Feedback

Grain Pest Configuration

Parameterer Levels Interval

Rice Weevil Infestation: Yes / No

Grain Borer Infestation: Yes / No

Pest Density Unit: per bushel

Initial Rice Weevil Egg: 0

Initial Rice Weevil Immature: 0

Initial Rice Weevil Adult: 1

Initial Grain Borer Egg: 0

Initial Grain Borer Immature: 0

Initial Grain Borer Adult: 1

Back Save Profile Run Profile Reset

Figure 28d. Create Profile – pest configuration.

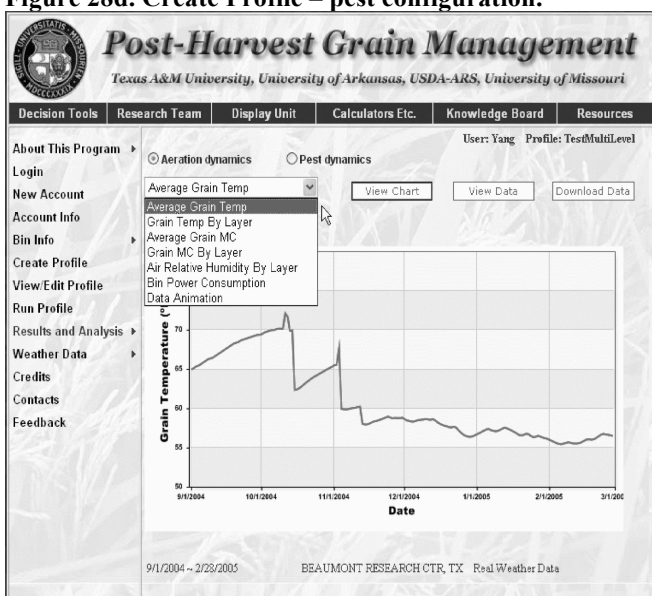


Figure 28e. Simulation results for aeration.

Menu descriptions. Menus to access RiceSSWeb features are displayed on the left side window (Fig. 28b).

The *New Account* menu allows a user to create a new account. A registered user (by creating a new account) will have access to advanced features of the RiceSSWeb.

The *Account Info* menu displays information about a user who has registered with RiceSSWeb (user name, user ID, email, etc.).

The *Bin Info* menu allows a user to add a new bin or view and edit existing bins.

The *Create Profile* menu allows users to create a new bin profile; the *Edit/Run Profile* menu allows a registered user to edit his or her existing bin profile(s); and the *Run Profile* menu allows a registered user to forecast dynamics of bin temperature, moisture, pests, and pest damage for single or multiple profiles.

The *Results and Analysis* menu has three submenus: *Aeration Dynamics*, *Pest Dynamics*, and *Sensitivity Analysis*. The *Aeration Dynamics* submenu displays the dynamics over time for grain temperature, grain moisture, relativity humidity, and fan power consumption. It also displays data animation for grain temperature and moisture (Fig. 28e).

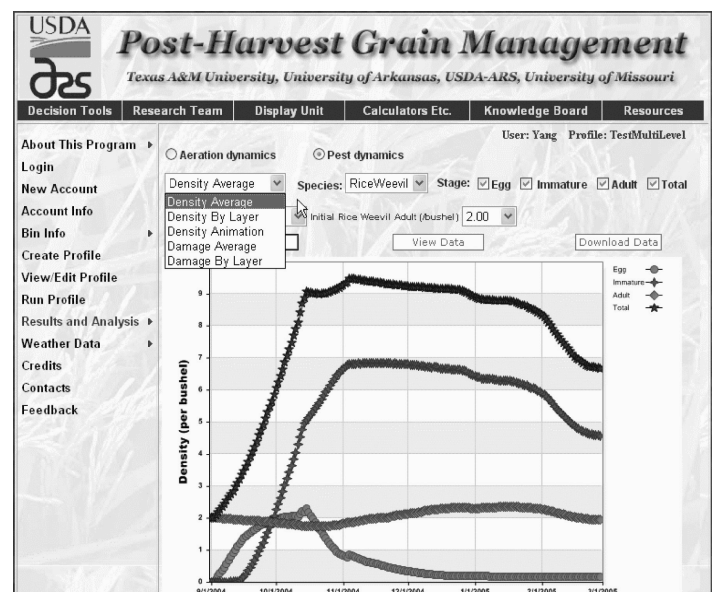


Figure 28f. Simulation results for pest population and grain damage.

The *Pest Dynamics* submenu displays dynamics and damage of rice weevil and/or grain borer over time (Fig. 28f). The *Sensitivity Analysis* submenu displays results at different levels of detail for a selected set of bin and pest attributes and graphically examine the differences in grain temperature and moisture, power consumption, and pest density or pest damage (Figs. 28g and 28h).

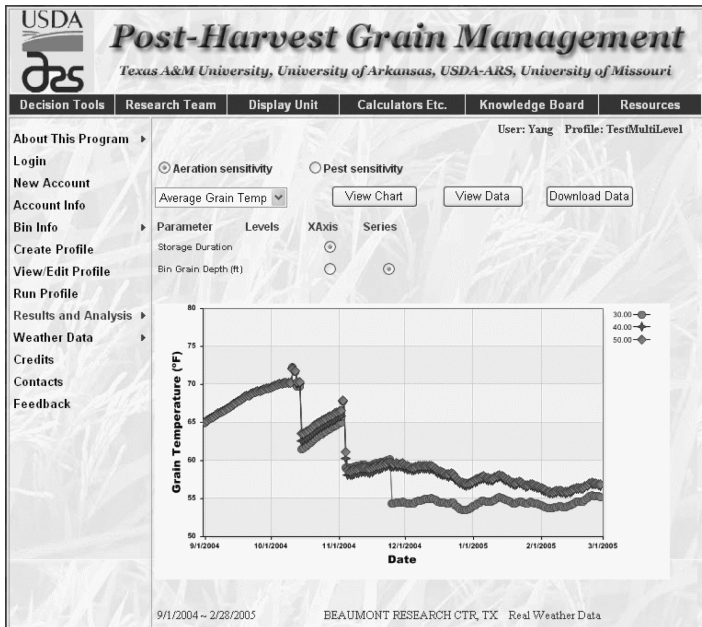


Figure 28g. Bin temperature vs. bin grain depth.

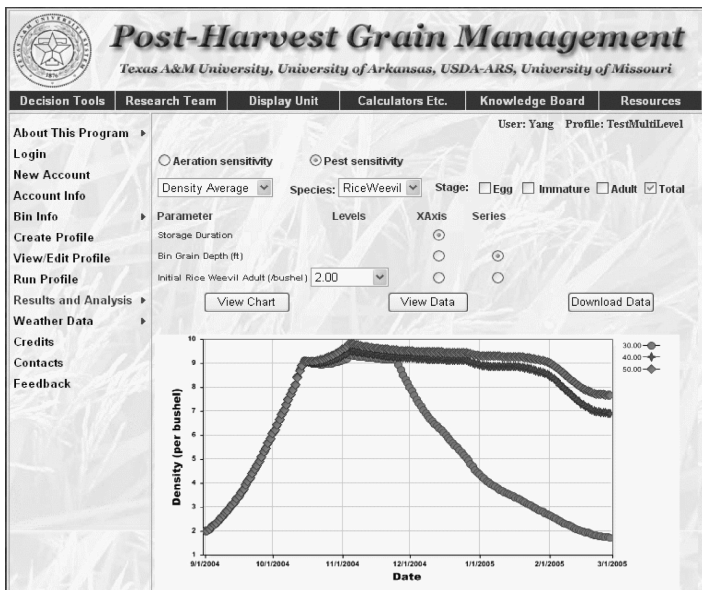


Figure 28h. Pest density vs. bin grain depth.

The *Weather Data* menu gives users background information about weather data and options for adding user weather data and viewing county weather data. The *Information* submenu provides background information about weather data sources and usage.

The *Add User Data* submenu allows a registered user to add user-specific weather data for new or existing user stations. The *View User Data* submenu allows a registered user to view his/her weather data; and the *View/Download County Data* submenu allows any users to view available weather in the database.

Table 29a. 2012-2011 comparison - Texas field yields by variety (main crop).

Variety	2012				2011				Grade			
	Number Of Fields Report	Reported Acreaged	Yield lbs./Acre	Milling Yield %H	Milling Yield %T	Grade	Number Of Fields Report	Reported Acreaged		Yield lbs./Acre	Milling Yield %H	Milling Yield %T
CLXL745	101	8825	7861	59.9	71.2	2.1	102	8421	7344	57.9	70.6	2.1
XL723	99	7864	8997	60.0	72.3	2.0	95	6747	8230	59.0	71.2	2.0
XL753	75	5840	9184	56.9	72.7	2.1	30	1769	8105	59.5	72.1	2.1
RTLG	55	5701	4716	44.0	65.9	2.1						
CL151	64	5312	6790	58.6	70.2	2.2	98	8483	6215	57.8	69.0	2.3
PRESIDIO	50	4748	7151	60.1	71.3	1.9	126	14366	6018	57.6	69.6	2.0
CHENIERE	47	3596	7010	63.2	72.4	1.9	33	3064	6240	61.0	71.3	2.0
CLXL729	34	2964	7941	59.0	71.1	2.1	13	1095	6798	58.9	70.5	2.0
XL754	25	2325	5228	44.8	68.4	2.7	13	692	8200	45.8	70.2	2.0
CATAHOULA	19	1830	6763	58.8	71.8	2.1	19	1800	6702	59.6	71.9	2.1
TEXMATI	7	970	3191	52.5	68.5	2.0	7	884	3932	48.3	67.7	2.0
OTHER	9	797	2948	47.6	66.0	2.0						
COCODRIE	8	754	6710	60.9	70.9	2.0	12	1383	6075	57.3	70.4	2.2
RISOTTO	4	750	2708	38.4	68.3	2.8	4	1931	2305			
CL152	5	452	7389	63.3	70.3	2.0						
DIXIEBELLE	1	10	5820	58.0	70.0	2.0						
NEPTUNE							27	2365	6888	58.0	71.5	2.4
SIERRA							7	964	2840	44.9	69.2	2.2
CL111							9	494	4876	58.7	70.8	2.2
RONDO							8	483	3708	36.8	65.5	2.4
CLXP756							4	268	4711	55.8	71.2	2.0
JUPITER							1	130	2934	56.0	69.0	2.0
Total	603	52738	7203	56.6	70.7	2.0	608	55339	6440	57.5	70.2	2.0

Data compiled by Texas A&M Agrilife Research Center at Beaumont. Data compiled from Texas Rice Belt grower reports, rice dryers and marketing offices. All yields are adjusted to 12% moisture and weighed for field size and reported acres.

Table 29b. 2012 Texas rice acreage by variety and location (zone and county).

Variety Acres By County

COUNTY	2011 ACREAGE	2012 ACREAGE	Acreage Change	% MC Ratoomed	LONG GRAIN										MEDIUM BENGAL						
					PRES	CL151	CHEN	CLXL729	CLXL745	XL753	XL723	CL152	CATA	DIXIE	XP754	RONDO	COCO	MILA	RIS	TEXM	JAZZ- MAN-2
East Zone																					
Brazoria	17604	15326	-12.90%	100	15326																
Chambers	11555	17069	47.70%	14	888	4267	4199	1451	4352			324	461							1144	
Galveston	951	1506	58.40%	0			1506														
Hardin	313	262	-16.30%																		
Jefferson	16949	16917	-0.20%	20	1709			6428				3891								4906	
Liberty	7030	5652	-19.60%	57	1006			678	509	2651										808	
Orange																					
East Total	54402	56732	4.30%	43	16279	7010	5728	8592	4881	2662		4232	463							6886	
Northwest Zone																					
Austin	1166	1182	1.40%	62	892							290									
Colorado	34281	18992	-44.60%	86	1367	2488	1519	589	1728	4615	3342		133	95	1595	1178				342	
Fort Bend	4869	4807	-1.30%	60	1245		524		260	264	389			1510						610	
Harris																					
Lavaca	1280	1649	28.80%	66	228	350	206				411										
Robertson																					
Waller	6051	5141	-15.00%	100				41	1028	1743	2247					82					
Wharton	41656	27307	-34.40%	74	7018	4833	2048	1556	2458	191	710	328	1311	546		928			109	5243	
Lamar	204	204	0.00%																		
Northwest Total	89507	59282	-33.80%	79	10793	7702	4315	2195	5496	7253	7006	329	1907	2160	1601	1183	1015		109	6220	
Southwest Zone																					
Calhoun	2249	1916	-14.80%	43	834							433				650					
Jackson	11739	10524	-10.40%	59	6262	337	1400	674	495					810		547					
Matagorda	21479	1562	-92.70%	46										359			476	362			
Victoria	1851	2027	9.50%	100	2027																
Cameron																					
Southwest Total	37318	16030	-57.00%	61	9124	337	1400	674	495		433		1197	1170		476	362	362			
Northeast Zone																					
Bowie	429	547	27.50%	0			284													263	
Hopkins	105	231	120.00%																		
Red River																					
NorthEast Total	534	778	45.70%	0			404													374	
State Total	181761	132822	-26.90%	61	36277	15069	11748	11478	10886	9927	7450	4567	3576	3338	1603	1184	1016	479	364	264	13122

Data compiled by Texas A&M AgriLife Research and Extension Center at Beaumont. Data collected from dryers, sales offices, agribusiness, USDA/CFSA and county extension agents, as appropriate. Research funded by Texas A&M AgriLife Research - Beaumont.

Table 29c. 20-year Texas rice acreage, yields and production comparison.

Crop Year	Planted Acres*	Main Crop** Yield (lb/A)	Ratoon Crop** Yield (lb/A)	% MC Ratooned**	Total** Yield (lb/A)	Production* ** cwt
1993	296,193	5,054	1,168	34	5,451	14,383,037
1994	345,680	5,944	984	43	6,195	22,089,662
1995	315,108	5,505	165	32	5,558	17,513,703
1996	263,407	6,022	1,228	46	6,587	17,350,830
1997	256,944	5,232	895	42	5,608	14,408,971
1998	271,989	5,413	796	54	5,843	15,891,008
1999	246,228	5,818	1,361	26	6,172	15,196,150
2000	211,241	6,360	948	37	6,711	14,176,944
2001	213,704	6,291	1,264	48	6,898	14,741,250
2002	204,880	6,744	1,017	34	7,090	14,526,940
2003	171,953	6,055	2,247	38	6,909	11,880,000 #
2004	216,810	6,231	1,557	35	6,776	14,690,000 #
2005	201,024	6,538	1,970	27	7,070	14,212,274
2006	147,549	6,913	1,248	39	7,400	10,918,626 *
2007	143,299	6,179	1,948	35	6,860	9,830,311 *
2008	168,039	6,314	1,830	53	7,283	12,238,280 *
2009	169,990	6,531	2,264	58	7,844	13,334,015 *
2010	186,522	5,430	2,315	54	6,680	12,459,669 *
2011	181,761	6,440	1,607	77	7,677	13,953,791 ##
Avg.93-11	221,701	5,972	1,310	42	6,525	14,994,230
2012	132,822	7,203	1,973	61	8,406	11,165,338 ##

*10,271,940 (2007 sales) *8,722,088 (2008 sales) *10,488,859 (2009 sales) *12,429,033 (2010 sales)

*USDA-FSA certified planted acres

**Texas A&M AgriLife Research Beaumont Crop survey data

***U.S. Texas Rice Research Foundation check-off collections

Modified to account for carryover stocks

Estimated

Table 29d. 16-year Texas rice-planted acres comparison.

County	Texas Planted Rice Acreage*														
	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007	2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
Chambers	21,672	17,197	11,432	13,438	13,202	10,937	16,024	12,792	8,088	8,180	13,048	1,262	11,191	11,555	17,069
Brazoria	18,718	19,241	17,163	15,279	14,077	10,395	15,748	15,976	12,997	11,461	14,833	16,452	17,366	17,604	15,326
Jackson	20,128	18,355	16,208	14,953	14,005	13,057	14,734	12,713	9,929	10,115	9,519	11,350	11,042	11,739	10,524
Jefferson	24,422	22,655	18,519	18,575	18,389	15,037	19,954	19,355	14,234	14,112	15,641	13,749	17,264	16,949	16,917
Wharton	57,530	55,253	52,205	50,520	49,958	41,664	53,413	50,678	35,417	34,928	38,699	43,064	45,024	41,656	27,307
Liberty	18,706	14,328	8,740	12,705	9,714	7,949	10,475	9,381	5,440	4,387	7,579	7,227	7,812	7,030	5,652
Colorado	35,698	33,522	31,136	32,110	30,734	28,572	33,273	30,903	25,465	26,517	30,776	31,587	32,116	34,281	18,992
Harris	6,187	4,875	2,957	1,975	2,083	1,664	1,522	1,067	195	192	395				
Calhoun	3,851	3,164	1,568	1,468	1,498	1,897	2,488	2,439	2,767	2,086	2,803	2,154	2,177	2,249	1,917
Fort Bend	10,179	9,006	8,894	8,652	8,615	6,071	7,933	6,409	4,496	4,925	4,358	5,589	4,857	4,869	4,807
Matagord	30,518	28,598	23,036	24,958	24,516	18,878	23,672	21,863	18,075	16,913	17,979	24,594	25,103	21,479	1,562
^a Victoria	3,302	2,401	1,937	1,977	1,748	1,247	1,356	1,705	564		1,081	1,771	1,922	1,851	2,027
Lavaca	2,452	2,006	2,523	1,746	1,790	1,582	2,189	1,804	1,039	1,029	1,255	1,057	1,401	1,280	1,649
Galveston	1,993	1,590	1,360	768	1,166	781	847	833	314	300	654	1,527	463	951	1,506
Orange	2,248	362	531	354	682		90								
Austin	2,673	2,702	2,435	2,601	1,694	1,684	2,313	2,359	904	1,003	959	1,036	1,111	1,166	1,182
Bowie	1,329	1,538	1,030	1,435	1,287	1,332	1,510	2,054	608	284	569	517	881	429	547
Red River	941	1,100	709	965	1,017	587	639	639	440						
Waller	6,694	6,142	6,206	6,951	7,038	7,168	7,868	7,672	6,260	6,038	6,508	6,379	6,288	6,051	5,141
Hardin	1,185	1,052	1,093	801	633	738	762	298	235	670	950	460	504	313	262
Hopkins	1,563	1,141	1,562	1,473	1,034	713	0							105	231
Robertson								87	81	159	200				
Lamar											203	215		204	
Cameron															30
Total	271,989	246,227	211,241	213,703	204,880	171,953	216,810	201,024	147,549	143,298	168,038	169,990	186,523	181,763	132,822

*USDA-FSA certified planted acres.

Table 29e. Texas crop rice development statistics

Date Crop Stages/Events Reached 50% of Surveyed Rice Acres					
	Planted	Emergence	Panicle Differentiation	Headed	Harvested
East Zone					
2012	4-May	18-May	29-Jun	20-Jul	31-Aug
2011	1-Apr	8-Apr	10-Jun	22-Jul	12-Aug
2010	23-Apr	14-May	16-Jul	23-Jul	20-Aug
2009	17-Apr	24-Apr	12-Jun	17-Jul	4-Sep
2008	11-Apr	18-Apr	20-Jun	18-Jul	22-Aug
Mean 2008-2012	17-Apr	28-Apr	23-Jun	20-Jul	24-Aug
Northwest Zone					
2012	6-Apr	13-Apr	8-Jun	29-Jun	17-Aug
2011	25-Mar	1-Apr	17-Jun	1-Jul	12-Aug
2010	9-Apr	16-Apr	11-Jun	9-Jul	13-Aug
2009	3-Apr	10-Apr	12-Jun	3-Jul	14-Aug
2008	28-Mar	11-Apr	13-Jun	27-Jun	15-Aug
Mean 2008-2012	2-Apr	10-Apr	12-Jun	2-Jul	14-Aug
Southwest Zone					
2012	20-Apr	11-May	29-Jun	13-Jul	31-Aug
2011	25-Mar	8-Apr	8-Jul	15-Jul	12-Aug
2010	23-Apr	14-May	25-Jun	16-Jul	27-Aug
2009	27-Mar	10-Apr	12-Jun	26-Jun	4-Sep
2008	4-Apr	11-Apr	20-Jun	18-Jul	15-Aug
Mean 2008-2012	7-Apr	23-Apr	25-Jun	11-Jul	24-Aug
Rice Belt					
2012	20-Apr	27-Apr	22-Jun	13-Jul	24-Aug
2011	1-Apr	8-Apr	17-Jun	8-Jul	12-Aug
2010	9-Apr	23-Apr	18-Jun	16-Jul	20-Aug
2009	3-Apr	10-Apr	12-Jun	3-Jul	21-Aug
2008	4-Apr	11-Apr	13-Jun	11-Jul	15-Aug
Mean 2008-2012	7-Apr	16-Apr	16-Jun	10-Jul	18-Aug