

Soil Water Relations and Yields of Upland Crops
in an Upland Crop-Wetland Rice Sequence^{1/}

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ABSTRACT

Food production in the tropics can be increased by expanding crop culture during the dry season, but soil water is a major constraint. Soil water dynamics under four crops -- cowpea [*Vigna unguiculata* (L.) Walp.], mungbean [*Phaseolus aureus* L.], sorghum [*Sorghum bicolor* (L.) Moench], and soybean [*Glycine max* (L.) Merrill] -- and fallow in an upland crop-rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) system in the Philippines was measured to determine soil-water-plant relationships and evaluate crop performance. Hydraulic properties, profile water content, and rainfall infiltration of the Typic Haplaquoll soil were calculated to determine actual evapotranspiration under crop covers and bare soil. Water uptake by crops or evaporation from bare soil continued at soil moisture contents below the lower limits of availability. Their short growth duration enabled mungbean and soybean to escape severe water stress, whereas cowpea and sorghum encountered severe water stress during the reproductive phase

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IDRC-doc-334

1 when exhaustion of soil profile moisture wilted crops and drastically
2 reduced yields. Identical water losses from soil profile were observed
3 for fallow, mungbean and soybean, which extracted 20.56, 19.81 and 20.6
4 cm water, respectively. Evapotranspiration losses under cowpea and
5 sorghum were 37.52 and 39.26 cm, respectively. We concluded that short
6 season crops with low water demand can be grown during the tropical dry
7 season if soil moisture supports crop establishment.

8
9 Additional index words: Cowpea, Mungbean, Sorghum, Soybean, Fallow,
10 Multiple cropping, Evapotranspiration
11

INTRODUCTION

Inadequate rainfall and high evaporative demand limit crop production under non-irrigated conditions during the dry season in much of the humid tropics. Crop growth under such situations is governed by soil physical properties and crops' rooting depth and moisture extraction characteristics.

Various attempts were made to approximate water dynamics of tropical soils. Soil water was simulated from weekly rainfall and potential evaporation data for fallow-crop rotation systems in subhumid to semi-arid regions in Australia (Fitzpatrick and Nix, 1969). Hasegawa, Parao, and Yoshida (1979) compared water depletion by upland rice and evaporation loss from fallow plots. Angus et al. (1979) used soil moisture changes and rooting configurations to estimate profile water withdrawal by six upland crops and two rice cultivars in the Philippines during the dry season. They showed that cowpea, mungbean, and soybean yielded equally well under non-irrigated and irrigated conditions, whereas rice failed to yield without irrigation. Most investigations, however, ignored flux beyond the root zone and the contribution of capillary rise to profile moisture. About 35% of profile water loss under sorghum, for instance, was by flux from the root zone (Stone, Horton, and Hsiao, 1973).

Much of the difficulty in describing water behavior in the upland soil plant environment occurs because the water is transmitted through the soil under unsaturated conditions. The extreme complexity of unsaturated flow makes the process difficult to describe mathematically (Feddes, Kowalik, and Zaradny, 1978). Advances in approximating unsaturated flow processes over the last two decades, however, resulted in several models

1 for describing water uptake by crop plants (Gardner, 1960; Molz and
2 Remson, 1970; Feddes and Rijtema, 1972; van Bavel and Ahmed, 1976).
3 Those models differ widely in complexity, precision, and applicability
4 under actual field situations (Taylor, Klepper, and Rickman, 1979). Soil
5 water movement and its spatial variability were extensively reported
6 (Nielsen, Biggar, and Erh, 1973), but little attention was devoted to
7 actual field conditions under crop cover (Stone et al., 1973; Molz, 1981).

8 Expanding crop culture during the dry season is one of the most
9 feasible ways of increasing food production in the tropics (Syarifuddin,
10 1979). Because soil water is a major constraint of crop growth under
11 those conditions, information on water behavior in the upland soil-plant
12 environment is needed to achieve that goal. Objectives of studies re-
13 ported here were to determine soil water dynamics under four upland crops
14 and fallow soil and to evaluate crop performance under limited soil
15 moisture conditions.

16 MATERIALS AND METHODS

17 A field experiment was conducted at the International Rice Research
18 Institute (Philippines) during the dry season of 1980. The soil was
19 Typic Haplaquoll, fine loamy, mixed, isohyperthermic, shallow (R. Brink-
20 man, University of Wageningen, the Netherlands, personal communication)
21 developed on parent materials from hardened tuff deposited by lahar
22 (mudstream of volcanic materials). The Ap horizon extended down to 0.22
23 m and was clay loam with common fine faint dark brown mottle overlaid on
24 a gravelly clay Bg horizon extending to 0.43 m. The R horizon from 0.43
25 to over 1.00 m was weathered rock, light yellowish brown with common
26 fine grey mineral grains. The soil below one meter (3C horizon) was
27 layered, coarse-sandy clay tuff-like unconsolidated material. The water

1 table was not present within 3 m of the soil surface throughout the dry
2 season.

3 Undisturbed soil cores were removed from the soil profile at 0.1-m
4 intervals down to 1.6 m in two pits; at least 20 samples -- 10 vertical
5 and 10 horizontal -- at each depth were used. Bulk densities of the
6 upper soil layer were determined at the beginning and at the end of the
7 experiment but bulk densities of layers below 0.20 m were only obtained
8 at the beginning. The method of McIntyre and Loveday (1974) was used.
9 The same samples were used to determine maximum water holding capacity
10 and soil moisture characteristics by the pressure plate outflow technique
11 (Richards, 1948). After they were removed from the pressure plate, the
12 samples were air-dried, ground and sieved (<2.00 mm) to determine particle
13 density (Blake, 1965). Other subsamples were used to determine saturated
14 hydraulic conductivity (Klute, 1965) and subsequently dried and ground
15 for particle size analysis (Day, 1965). Hydraulic conductivity as a
16 function of soil water content, $K(\theta)$, at 0.2-m intervals down to 1.6 m,
17 was determined in the laboratory by the hot air flow method described by
18 Arya, Farrell, and Blake (1975).

19 The experiment was initiated in early January 1980. Four upland
20 crops -- cowpea [Vigna unguiculata (L.) Walp. cv. 'EG-2'], mungbean
21 [Phaseolus aureus L. cv. 'CES 55'], sorghum [Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench
22 cv. 'COSOR 3'], and soybean [Glycine max (L.) Merrill cv. 'TK-5'] --
23 were planted in 0.1-m-deep furrows containing fertilizer covered by soil
24 granules to a 0.05-m depth (Syarifuddin, 1979). The seeds were dibbled
25 over the soil cover by the side of the furrow. Legumes received 20 kg N
26 and 30 kg P per ha and sorghum received 80 kg N and 30 kg P per ha; the
27 fertilizer sources were ammonium sulfate and superphosphate. Soybean

and mungbean seeds were inoculated before planting. Approximate plant populations were 2.5×10^5 and 2.0×10^5 per ha for beans and sorghum, respectively. Standard practices were followed for pest management.

The experiment was laid out in a randomized complete block design with the four upland crop species and a fallow plot as treatment variables replicated four times. The experimental plots of 11-m x 7-m dimensions were separated by 1-m-wide borders. Irrigation water (0.044 m) was applied for uniform germination after seeding and 0.06 m more water was applied 33 days after seedling emergence to alleviate a prolonged drought of several weeks duration. The crops received 0.172 m rainfall during the growing season (Figure 1).

One 0.05-m-diameter aluminum access tube was installed at the center of each plot and the bottom of the tube was sealed. Soil water contents ($\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$) were determined from 0.2 m to 1.6 m below the surface weekly throughout the growing season. A neutron moisture meter (CPN model 503) calibrated in situ (Greacen and Hignett, 1979) was used. Soil moisture in the surface layer was determined gravimetrically (McGowan and Williams, 1980) because of unavoidable error in the neutron moisture meter at shallow depths.

The change in soil moisture content was described by a volumetric sink term (Molz and Remson, 1970; Feddes et al., 1978) added to the continuity equation,

$$\frac{\partial \theta}{\partial t} = - \frac{\partial q}{\partial z} - S \quad (1)$$

where θ is soil moisture content in $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-3}$, t is time in days, q is vertical water flux in $\text{m}^3 \text{m}^{-2} \text{S}^{-1}$, and z is the depth coordinate downward. The quantity S in the righthand side of Equation (1) represents uptake of water by roots as a sink term ($\text{m}^3 \text{ water } \text{m}^{-3} \text{ soil } \text{S}^{-1}$) depending on

soil moisture content, θ . Evapotranspiration loss was thus calculated by integrating the sink term over the depth of the profile

$$E = \int_{z=0}^{z=1.60} S \, dz \quad (2)$$

Components of Equation (1) for each individual plot were determined by procedures described by Allmaras et al. (1975) and Willat and Taylor (1978). Changes in moisture content were plotted as a function of time, the quantity $\partial\theta/\partial t$ being the slope of the curve. Assuming a unique relationship between pressure head and soil moisture content obtained from soil moisture characteristic curves (neglecting hysteresis effect) and obtaining $K(\theta)$ separately, the depth dependent gradient in soil moisture flux can be obtained by Equation (3).

$$\frac{\partial q}{\partial t} = \frac{\partial}{\partial z} \left(K(\theta) \frac{\partial H}{\partial z} \right) \quad (3)$$

where $K(\theta)$ is hydraulic conductivity as a function of moisture content, θ , $\partial H/\partial z$ is hydraulic head gradient over depth, and hydraulic head H , is the sum of matric potential (ψ) and gravitational potential (z). Values of matric potential (ψ) were inferred from the measured moisture content for appropriate depth and time using the $\psi(\theta)$ relationship obtained from the desorption curve (Figure 1). Evaluated hydraulic head, $H = \psi + z$, was plotted against corresponding depth intervals each day to get $\partial H/\partial z$. Negative values of $\partial H/\partial z$ corresponded to upward flux. Hydraulic conductivity functions, $K(\theta)$, were obtained separately and water flux (q) at different depth intervals was computed using $K(\theta)$ relationships. Flux values were plotted against corresponding depths and $\partial q/\partial z$ of Equation (3) was determined. The quantity S in Equation (1) was obtained and total water depletion was approximated by integrating the sink term over the profile (Equation 2).

The climate of the experimental area is hot humid tropics characterized by a distinct wet season with surplus water from June to November and a dry season with water deficits from January to May. Mean annual precipitation is 2.03 m ($2.356 \times 10^{-5} \text{ m s}^{-1}$), mean daily solar radiation is $1.7849 \text{ J m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$ ($426 \text{ cal cm}^{-2} \text{ d}^{-1}$), mean daily temperature is 302 K (29 °C), and mean monthly open pan evaporation is 0.154 m ($5.94 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$) (Angus and Manalo, 1979). During the dry season from January to April, precipitation, solar radiation, open pan evaporation, and mean daily temperature are $1.16 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$, $232 \text{ J m}^{-2} \text{ s}^{-1}$, $7.07 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$, and 299 K, respectively.

Mungbeans and soybeans were harvested March 25, 1980. Cowpea and sorghum were harvested before they were completely mature April 12 because of hastened senescence due to droughty weather. Yields and dry matter production for each crop were obtained at maturity from an area 5.0 m^2 about 2 m away from the center of the plot previously demarcated as the harvest area.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Physical characteristics and some hydraulic properties of the experimental soil are presented in Table 1. Bulk density, which ranged from 0.93 to 1.09 Mg m^{-3} , only slightly differed within the soil profile. It was lower in the soil layers from 0.4 to 1.0 m than in the other soil layers, which had identical bulk density values. The clay fraction decreased and silt content increased with increasing depth, whereas sand content changed little in the profile except in the top 0 to 0.2 m and intermediate 0.6 to 1.2 m layers. The high saturated soil moisture content, ranging from 0.54 to $0.69 \text{ m}^3 \text{ m}^{-3}$, likely was associated with the soil's longtime use for lowland rice before it was converted to upland

1 crops (Croney and Coleman, 1954). Extremely low rates of saturated
2 hydraulic conductivity (Table 1) were similarly attributed to structural
3 degradation by wet puddling as well as to the clay and silty clay compo-
4 sition of the soil.

5 Soil moisture characteristic curves from 0.01 MPa to 1.5 MPa for
6 different soil horizons were constructed from pressure plate outflow
7 data (Figure 1). The highest moisture retention was in the 0.2 to 0.4 m
8 soil layer. The top layer and the layers from 0.4 to 1.0 m and 1.2 to
9 1.6 m had nearly similar water retention. Low water retention in the
10 1.0 to 1.2 m layer was probably caused by the high fraction of silt and
11 sand.

12 Estimating available soil water as the amount between field capacity
13 and permanent wilting point, generally considered to be 0.03 MPa and 1.5
14 MPa, respectively, is of questionable value (Ritchie, 1981). Water with-
15 drawal by transpiring plants is a function of root systems, soil hydraulic
16 properties, and soil moisture and pressure characteristics (Hillel, 1971).
17 Plants take up water above 0.01 MPa or field capacity (Lal, 1979) and
18 soil is seldom isotropic; water retention under field conditions is
19 largely regulated by underlying fine-texture soil of relatively low hy-
20 draulic conductivity (Hillel, 1971). Assuming the concept of 'available
21 water' is valid and a root zone of 1.0 m, however, transmissible water
22 content was within the neighborhood of 0.2 m. Available water should be
23 less than 0.2 m for mungbean and soybean because their root systems
24 hardly penetrated deeper than 0.8 m under similar conditions (Angus
25 et al., 1979).

26 Most of the season's rainfall came as typhoons on two occasions
27 (Figure 2). Efficiency of rainfall on crops depends primarily on the

infiltration capacity (INCAP), which is determined by soil physical properties and soil moisture status, toposequence of the land, and crop cover (Hillel, 1977). A prolonged dry spell immediately preceding the second typhoon probably meant that rainfall infiltration from the second storm was equal to maximum infiltration capacity (MAXCAP). MAXCAP and intake rates over time were determined in a separate study (data not shown) and rainfall and other meteorological parameters were recorded on daily basis, but the duration and intensity of rainfall were not available. Assuming that the maximum daily rainfall duration during the dry season did not exceed 4 h and following procedures analogous to Berndt and White (1976), $\text{MAXCAP} \leq 0.04672 \text{ m}$. Based on those assumptions, it is probable that the effective rainfall on March 23 was 0.04672 m . But assuming rainfall duration 4 h and rain (R) $> 0.04672 \text{ m}$, runoff (Q) can be calculated as

$$Q = R - I \tanh(R/I) \quad (4)$$

where Q = runoff (10^{-3} m), R = rainfall (10^{-3} m), I = cumulative infiltration previously determined as a function of time, $I = 11.8667 t^{0.25}$, and t = time (min). Assuming a rainfall duration of 6 h and quantity of 0.0925 m March 23, over 0.04362 m rain was lost from runoff. In that case MAXCAP was $< 0.05 \text{ m}$. The rainfall was considered to be effective on other occasions when rain $< \text{MAXCAP}$.

Periodic changes in profile soil water content under four different crops and fallow are compared in Figure 3. Loss of profile soil moisture in all plots was identical and mostly from the upper part of the profile at the beginning of the experiment. It is evident in Figure 3, however, that profile moisture content varied considerably at the beginning of the experiment. The fallow soil and that under cowpea had relatively

1 uniform moisture contents in the beginning, but the upper layers of the
2 profiles under sorghum and soybean had relatively low moisture contents.
3 Initial differences in soil moisture were probably caused by spatial
4 variation in soil structure or, more likely, by differential infiltration
5 in soil layers or runoff.

6 Water extraction did not markedly vary among crop species or between
7 cropped and fallow plots in the beginning. Five weeks after crop emer-
8 gence, however, water content in the top soil layer (0 to 0.2 m) decreased
9 to the permanent wilting point (Figure 3). The drying front subsequently
10 advanced quite rapidly into deeper layers under sorghum and cowpea.
11 Irrigation applied February 10 to prevent loss of the experiment and
12 rainfall on February 13 greatly recharged the upper layers of the profile
13 but did not saturate the soil or even restore moisture to levels at the
14 beginning of the study. The profile moisture content apparently was
15 adequate to supply the water demand of soybean and mungbean during
16 reproductive stage or at least to forestall severe moisture stress.
17 Subsequent prolonged drought lowered the top soil moisture content
18 below the permanent wilting point for four to five weeks. Cowpea and
19 sorghum relied heavily on water extracted from deeper soil layers and
20 the drying front gradually extended to 1.2 m by the third week of March.
21 Rapid rates of root extension (Angus et al., 1979) enabled cowpea to
22 exhaust nearly all the available water from the profile before the
23 second typhoon March 23. However, water withdrawal diminished to such
24 an extent that cowpea showed clear symptoms of wilting before the second
25 typhoon. Wilting was probably caused by death or inactivation of roots
26 from soil moisture deficits. It is unlikely that the roots penetrated
27 the hardened tuff below 1.0 m (R. Brinkman, personal communication).

1 Because root growth in the lower and upper soil layers is independent
2 (Portas and Taylor, 1976), growth likely continued until moisture
3 extraction from the lower layers was complete. When that happened,
4 root activity was disrupted and the plants eventually senesced.

5 Sorghum had a pattern of water extraction similar to that of cowpea
6 but did not show wilting symptoms until late March. The crop experienced
7 severe moisture stress during booting and flowering stages and the
8 subsequent rain failed to stimulate growth. The plants started wilting
9 approximately two weeks after the rain, although soil moisture in all
10 except the top of the root zone was at or above field capacity. The
11 severe moisture stress apparently caused blasting and poor head filling
12 (Vanderlip, 1979) and hastened senescence of the plants.

13 Soil moisture uptake by plants or evaporation from the soil surface
14 apparently continued, albeit at diminishing rates, at moisture contents
15 below the lower limits of availability (Figure 3). Those results agreed
16 with Angus et al. (1980), who showed that the volume of extracted water
17 below 1.5 MPa tension by wheat was sufficient to keep the crop alive.

18 Soil water flux through the root zone layers is illustrated in
19 Figure 4. Initial soil moisture together with irrigation water caused
20 internal drainage which continued throughout January in all plots
21 (negative Y axis). Drainage and flux rates varied considerably, perhaps
22 due to differences in starting soil moisture and uptake by crops, but
23 the trend reversed by mid-February except under mungbean and fallow.
24 Soil layers 1.6 m below the surface apparently contributed to recharging
25 the root zone, at least under sorghum and cowpea, even in the absence of
26 a phreatic level in the bottom layer. In contrast, downward water flux
27 continued under fallow until mid-March (Figure 4) and reversal of the

1 trend did not markedly alter the profile moisture status. Upward soil
2 water flux through the 1.2 to 1.6 m layer reached a maximum of about
3 $9.26 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ under sorghum 66 days after emergence March 14 and
4 gradually diminished to $1.16 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ April 12. Maximum upward flux
5 of $1.97 \times 10^{-8} \text{ m s}^{-1}$ under cowpea occurred March 14 and the value declined
6 to below detectable limits by April 1. Upward flux under the other
7 treatments was negligible. Considerable upward flux into the root zone
8 was also reported by van Bavel et al. (1968) and Stone et al. (1973) for
9 sorghum and by Willat and Taylor (1978) for soybeans.

10 Potential evapotranspiration rates for individual crops were
11 determined following Doorenbos and Kassam (1979). Reference evapotrans-
12 piration (ET_o) was computed for each 10-day period using standard open
13 pan evaporation and pan coefficient. Crop coefficients (K_c) for each
14 crop at different growth stages were selected from the values given by
15 Doorenbos and Kassam (1979). Potential evapotranspiration values were
16 taken as the product of ET_o and K_c. Actual evapotranspiration (ET_a)
17 under crop cover calculated from profile moisture loss minus downward
18 flux (Figure 4) was compared with potential evapotranspiration (ET_p).

19 Runoff was considered negligibly small except on two occasions when
20 rainfall exceeded MAXCAP as described earlier and horizontal flow below
21 the soil surface was considered nonexistent. Cumulative evapotrans-
22 piration for different cropping systems against time is plotted in
23 Figure 5 and should be viewed in conjunction with Figures 3 and 4. The
24 surface soil was never saturated except briefly during irrigation or
25 heavy downpours. Therefore, the evaporation rate never equalled poten-
26 tial evaporation and hence was limited by soil profile hydraulics, not
27 by evaporativity (Hillel, 1977). At early stage, when crop cover was

1 too sparse to influence evaporation or surface drying, water loss was
2 largely due to evaporation as reflected by almost uniform evapotranspira-
3 tion rates under different treatments until mid-February.

4 Two distinctly different trends in evapotranspiration developed
5 after late February: rates from cowpea and sorghum exceeded rates from
6 soybean and mungbean, which did not differ markedly in actual evapo-
7 transpiration (ETa) from fallow plots. Soybean and mungbean were
8 similar to fallow because fallow plots had higher evaporation loss
9 immediately after rainfall or irrigation probably because of surface
10 crust and higher runoff which caused overestimation of evaporation loss.
11 Soybean and mungbean extracted 0.21 m and 0.20 m of water, respectively,
12 from the root zone compared to 0.21 m evaporation loss under fallow till
13 March 25. Total water uptake recorded for cowpea and sorghum at harvest
14 (April 12) was 0.38 m and 0.39 m, respectively.

15 The ratio ETa/ETp , an index of water deficits, is plotted against
16 time for different crops for a selected period in Figure 6. Figures 3
17 and 6 reveal that actual ET ratio was a function of relative water
18 content in the profile and declined progressively with depletion of
19 profile soil moisture. Cowpea, however, maintained vigorous growth
20 until flowering. Severe water deficits indicated by the ETa/ETp ratio
21 0.30 restricted pod formation and development and caused early senes-
22 cence and poor yields of cowpea. The results compared favorably with
23 those of Labanauskas, House, and Stolzy (1981), who found yields of
24 field-grown cowpea decreased 67% when the crop was subjected to moisture
25 stress during flowering and pod filling stages.

26 Total water use and water use efficiencies of four different crop
27 species are given in Table 2: Sorghum and cowpea used more water than

1 the other crops because of their longer growth duration and water
2 extraction from deeper layers. The high biomass production of sorghum,
3 however, caused it to have the greatest water use efficiency, whereas
4 the low economic yield greatly decreased water use efficiency of sorghum.
5 The dichotomy likely was caused by the moisture stress the crops en-
6 countered during the reproductive stage. Results reported here and
7 earlier (Angus et al., 1979; Hasegawa et al., 1979) indicated that
8 short season crops with low water demand like mungbean and soybean can
9 be grown during the tropical dry season provided soil moisture supports
10 crop establishment. The findings are based on one season's field experi-
11 ments, however, and need revalidation before firm conclusions can be
12 drawn.

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Table 1. Physical characteristics and hydraulic properties of the experimental soil profile used for upland crops at IRRI, Philippines, during 1980.

Soil depth	Bulk density	Particle size analysis			Saturated moisture content	Saturated hydraulic conductivity
		Clay	Silt	Sand		
m	Mg m ⁻³	- - - - -	%- - - - -	- - - - -	m ³ m ⁻³	m s ⁻¹
0.0-0.2	1.09*	46	14	40	0.59	2.48 X 10 ⁻⁷
0.2-0.4	1.08	55	20	25	0.64	3.50 X 10 ⁻⁸
0.4-0.6	0.97	19	54	27	0.63	1.44 X 10 ⁻⁷
0.6-1.0	0.93	11	53	36	0.69	1.47 X 10 ⁻⁷
1.0-1.2	1.06	13	49	38	0.54	2.39 X 10 ⁻⁷
1.2-1.6	1.08	19	60	21	0.62	1.99 X 10 ⁻⁷

* Bulk density values shown for surface soil were obtained at the beginning of the experiment. Values for the subsequent samplings are not shown here.

Table 2. Dry matter production, yield, water uptake, and water use efficiencies for four upland crops at IRRI, Philippines, during 1980.

Crop species	Total ET_a	Total DM at maturity	Ratio DM/ET_a	Economic yield	Ratio $yield/ET_a$
	m	$g\ m^{-2}$	$g\ m^{-2}m^{-1}$	$g\ m^{-2}$	$g\ m^{-2}m^{-1}$
Cowpea	0.375	340	907	130 ^{1/}	347
Mungbean	0.198	124	626	73	369
Sorghum	0.393	635	1 616	154	392
Soybean	0.206	220	1 068	108	524

^{1/}Yield of cowpea was taken as green pod weight.

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