



## Utilization of weeds in rice ecosystem by farmers in Odisha, India

T. Panda\*, N. Mishra<sup>1</sup>, S.K. Rahimuddin<sup>1</sup>, B.K. Pradhan and R.B. Mohanty<sup>2</sup>

Department of Botany, Chandbali College, Chandbali, Bhadrak, Odisha 756133, India

<sup>1</sup>Department of Zoology, Chandbali College, Chandbali, Bhadrak, Odisha 756133, India

<sup>2</sup>Plot No. 1311/7628, Satya Bihar, Rasulgarh, Bhubaneswar, Odisha 751010, India

\*Email: taranisenpanda@yahoo.co.in

### Article information

DOI: 10.5958/0974-8164.2021.00052.6

Type of article: Research article

Received : 5 May 2021

Revised : 19 September 2021

Accepted : 22 September 2021

### KEYWORDS

Plants biodiversity

Bhadrak district

Edible weeds

Rice fields

Ethnomedicine

### ABSTRACT

The aim of this study was to compile an inventory of the weeds in a rice ecosystem as livelihood support to farmers of Bhadrak district, Odisha, India. Information was collected from 165 local inhabitants during 2017-2019, using standard procedures. In the rice fields, altogether 37 plant species belonging to 30 genera and 24 families were recorded. Amaranthaceae was the dominant family. The systematic documentation of the weed flora in the Bhadrak district showed that the area is rich in plants with edible, fodder and ethnomedicinal value and that the inhabitants of the area had significant knowledge about the use of such plants. Ethnobotanical indices like relative frequencies of citation (RFC) and use value (UV) were calculated for each of the recorded weeds. The commonly used weed/plant species are: *Ipomoea aquatica* Forssk. (UV: 0.588) and *Glinus oppositifolius* (L.) Aug. DC. (UV: 0.576) as vegetables; *Echinochloa crus-galli* (L.) P.Beauv. (UV: 0.552) and *Echinochloa stagnina* (Retz) P. Beauv. (UV: 0.527) as fodder; *Centella asiatica* (L.) Urb. (UV: 0.41) followed by *Bacopa monnieri* (L.) Penn. (UV: 0.37) and *Commelina benghalensis* L. (UV: 0.364) for medicinal purposes. The leaves of the herbaceous plant/weed species are the most used by farmers. The reported ethnomedical wisdom of farmers could contribute to basic primary health care and balanced diets for the benefit of local farming community posterity.

### INTRODUCTION

An evolved field knowledge arising from conscious 'hit and trail' methods have resulted in selection of certain plants as edible choices (Sharma *et al.* 2018). The world's agriculture can be regarded as one of the great successes of human civilization. Agricultural biodiversity is the first link in the food chain, developed and safeguarded by indigenous people throughout the world (Nakhauka 2009). Rice fields are rich in biodiversity and playing multifunctional role. It is widely accepted that intensive agriculture plays a decisive role for loss of biodiversity and environmental sustainability in rice agro-ecosystem (Jose-Maria *et al.* 2010). Accordingly, in the ecological and socio-economic context, the protection of diversity of agro-ecosystems is considered to be of immense significance in modern agriculture (Firbank *et al.* 2008). It is well documented that weeds are aggressive, troublesome, compete with crops for water, nutrients and light, reducing detrimentally crop

yield and quality, encourage disease problems, reduce the efficiency of agricultural apparatus, decline the germination potential of crops seed, enhance the cost of production and decrease the market value of crops (Rao *et al.* 2014; Gharde *et al.* 2018). However, limited attention has been devoted to understanding their potential use as food, animal fodder, medicine and erosion control (Marcelino *et al.* 2005; Bilaliset *al.* 2014, Chandrasena 2014). Moreover, one cannot ignore the importance of weeds in agro-ecosystem food web (Bastiaans *et al.* 2000).

In the context of man-plant interactions (Upadhaya *et al.* 2016), the significance of rice ecosystems for food security and the maintenance of biodiversity has been recognized in various Asian countries (Kosaka *et al.* 2013, Cruz-Garcia and Price 2014), whereas the role of weeds in rice fields in the provision of foods is underestimated and undervalued (Halwart and Bartley 2007). Furthermore, scientists affianced in agricultural research usually recommend for eradication of weeds, but the same plant referred

as weed is considered as wild food plants by local farmers (Cruz-Garcia and Price 2012), consequently most research on weed diversity in rice field is focused on weed management. But, the fact is that 89% of the 18 most widespread and aggressive weeds in the world are edible (Rapoport *et al.* 1995) and many of these species have a high nutritional value and medicinal properties (Duke 1992). As it is known that some arable weeds have declined since the 1950s (Lososova 2003) and some alien weeds have threatened the indigenous flora of ecosystems (Panda *et al.* 2018a), therefore, the continued availability of weeds depend on the maintenance of cooperation between farming and wild biodiversity (Pretty 2007).

The change of cropping system from diversified to simplified (cereal-based systems) has contributed to micronutrient malnutrition in many developing countries (Demment *et al.* 2003). Globally, an estimated 1.02 billion people are undernourished (FAO 2009). In India, about 60% of malnutrition cases are from states which also rank high in poverty. Along with a few other states, Odisha ranks high on both poverty and malnutrition scales (World Bank 2016). There are relatively few studies about weeds based on its usability (Sinha and Larka 2007). Review of literature revealed that no attempts have been made to assess quantitatively the potential value of weeds to farmers of Bhadrak district, Odisha, India. Hence this study was carried out, to evaluate quantitatively the traditional ethnobotanical knowledge of common weeds in rice and to assess its significant role for farmers as supplement to food and primary health care.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Study area

Bhadrak district (20°43'-21°13'N and 86°6'-87° E) is located in north east Odisha and covers an area of 2505 km<sup>2</sup>, with a population of 1.507 million (2011 Census). It borders the Balasore district in the north, Jajpur in the south, Bay of Bengal and Kendrapara district in the east and Koenjhar in the west. The district accounts for 1.61% of the state's territory and shares 3.62% of the state's population. The climate of the district is warm and humid. The maximum and minimum temperatures ranged from 37.4°C to 17.7°C, respectively, and the annual average rainfall is approximately 1428 mm (Anonymous 2019) of which about 71% occurs in the monsoon season. The varying intensities of cyclones, drought and flood are the characteristic feature of the district. More than 70% of the people

are involved in agriculture. Rice is cultivated in two seasons namely *Kharif* (rainy season, June–Nov) and *Rabi* (winter season, January–April). Both traditional and hybrid rice cultivars are cultivated in the surveyed area. Rice cultivation in Bhadrak district during *Kharif* season depends mostly on monsoon rains. South-West monsoon sets in the district and the state during 2<sup>nd</sup> fortnight of June and continues up to 1<sup>st</sup> week of October. Rainfall pattern is highly unpredictable in timing, amount and distribution and therefore, the district suffers either from drought or flood.

### Data Collection

The method employed was designed with the purpose of providing base line information on the use of plant species in rice ecosystem by farmers, through literature survey and field visits in seven blocks of the district *i.e.* Basudevapur, Bhadrak, Bhandaripokhari, Bonth, Chandbali, Dhamnagar and Tihidi. The field study was carried out monthly during June 2017 to July 2019 following established and standard procedures (Martin 1995). The information on the use of weed flora was obtained through structured questionnaires, complemented by free interviews and informal conversations (Martin 1995; Huntington 2000). Elderly persons were considered key informants in the study, and the selection process was based on the knowledge base, experience, and current practices in ethnoedible/ethnomedicine and fodder plant species. The interviews and discussions were carried out individually with members of the inhabitants of the each of the villages visited, in the local language. During repeated visits to the study site, further group (8-12 people) discussions were held with: i) old-aged key informants, and ii) women key-informants known to be especially skilled in the use of uncultivated plants. The valuable and specific information about the plants obtained during personal interviews and group discussions with local inhabitants was further compared and authenticated by cross-checking (Cunningham 2001). In total 165 (98 women and 67 men) persons of different blocks in the district (Basudevapur: 24 farmers, Bhadrak:18 farmers, Bhandaripokhari: 23 farmers, Bonth: 19 farmers, Chandbali: 29 farmers, Dhamnagar: 27 farmers and Tihidi: 25 farmers) were interviewed. The household surveys were also carried out to get information on farming practices used, use of uncultivated plants and their management and personal demographic features. In addition, field visits were made with the respondents to the areas where the respondents normally collect the

uncultivated species. During the visits, harvesting methods, parts used, harvest quantity, treatment for which they are used and storage of different species for their future use were discussed. The collected specimens were processed, dried, herbarium specimens were prepared and identified by referring to Saxena and Brahmam (1996). Voucher specimens of the collected plant species were deposited in the herbarium of the Department of Botany, Chandbali College, Chandbali.

### Quantitative analysis

Relative frequency of citation (RFC): This index determines the local importance of each species and is calculated by the following formula:

$$RFC = \frac{FC}{N} \quad (0 < RFC < 1)$$

Where FC is the number of informants reporting the use of a particular species and N is the total number of informants. RFC value varies from 0 (when nobody refers to a plant as a useful one) to 1 (when all informants mention it as useful) (Tardio and PardodeSantayana 2008).

Use value (UV): The use value demonstrates the relative importance of plants known locally. It is calculated using the following formula (Gazzaneo *et al.* 2005).

$$UV = \frac{\sum U_i}{N}$$

Where  $U_i$  is the number of uses mentioned by each informant for a given species and N is the total number of informants.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Many weeds are edible, serving as traditional food every day for people all over the world (Duke 1992, Lee *et al.* 2007, Manechote 2007). In India, more than 3000 wild plant species are used as subsidiary food and vegetable by indigenous people, and at least 250 plants can be developed as a new source of food in the near future (Anonymous 1994). At the end of our two year study, 37 rice field weeds belonging to 24 botanical families were considered as edible plants, (Table 1) as reported earlier from other states of India (Sinha and Lakra 2007; Parameswaran and Kumar 2017) and different countries of the world (Díaz-Betancourt *et al.* 1999, Cruz-Garcia and Price 2012, Kosaka *et al.* 2013). All these species appear in the Global Compendium of Weeds (HEAR 2007] and were reported as weed in rice (Moody 1989). Halwart (2006) also emphasized the importance of wild foods from rice-based aquatic ecosystems for food and

nutritional security. In the Asian-Pacific region, more than 150 weed species are considered edible (Kim *et al.* 2007). The importance of wild food plant diversity from agricultural ecosystems has been highlighted by Cruz-Garcia and Price (2012). In this study, Amaranthaceae was the most common family represented by six species, followed by Asteraceae and Poaceae with three species each. Both reproductive (flowers and fruits) and vegetative parts (shoots, leaves, tuber *etc.*) were used for vegetables. Leaves (42.1%) and shoots (33.3%) were eaten most frequently (Table 1). However, in most cases the fruit was not eaten as a vegetable.

The most important species according to their use value with highest RFC and used for vegetable purposes were: *Ipomoea aquatica* (UV 0.588; UR 160), *Glinus oppositifolius* (UV 0.576; UR 155) and *Marsilea minuta* (UV 0.558; UR 149) (Table 2). The importance of edible weeds was emphasized in India (Datta and Banerjee 1978, Sinha and Lakra 2007 and Mishra *et al.* 2012), Philippines (Marcelino *et al.* 2005), Korea and China (Pemberton and Lee 1996), Thailand (Maneechote 2007) and in Laos (Kosaka *et al.* 2013) of Asia; and also in Africa, America and Europe (Grivetti *et al.* 1987, Duke 1992, Pemberton and Lee 1996, Díaz-Betancourt *et al.* 1999, Turner *et al.* 2011). The three top edible weeds in Asian culinary delights are: *Alternanthera sessilis*, *Centella asiatica* and *Ipomoea aquatica* (Chandrasena 2007). These edible weeds of Bhadrak district are also consumed in other Asian countries, for example: *Centella asiatica* in China (Hu 2005), *Glinus oppositifolius* in Thailand (Cruz-Garcia and Price 2012), *Alternanthera sessilis* and *Ipomoea aquatica* in the Philippines and China (Marcelino *et al.* 2005; Hu 2005) and *Coccinia grandis* in Vietnam (van Chin 1999). The reported weeds such as *Glinus oppositifolius*, *Ipomoea aquatica* and *Marsilea minuta* were found, during the survey period, to be sold in the local markets particularly by poor and economically marginalised families, thereby generating a supplementary income to their household economy. Village farmers stated that these food plants are being sold in market for 50 or 60 years, and that demand for these foods has increased with time. The selling of *Glinus oppositifolius*, *Ipomoea aquatica* and *Marsilea minuta* in the local markets was also reported by Srivastava *et al.* (2018).

In addition to food, vegetables usage, the weeds were also used for fodder purpose (Table 1). The study considered as important sources for animal well being because, many weed species are utilized as fodder for buffaloes and cattle as reported elsewhere

**Table 1. List of weeds consumed as vegetables and used for various purposes in Bhadrak district, Odisha, India**

| Weed   | Family           | Vernacular name | Edible part(s) as mentioned by respondents | Uses*    |
|--|------------------|-----------------|--|----------|
| <i>Alternanthera philoxeroides</i> (Mart.) Griseb. | Amaranthaceae    | Ghodamadarama   | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD    |
| <i>Alternanthera sessilis</i> (L.) R. Br. Ex DC.   | Amaranthaceae    | Madarama        | Shoot, leaf                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Amaranthus viridis</i> L.                       | Amaranthaceae    | Leutia          | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD    |
| <i>Amaranthus spinosus</i> L.                      | Amaranthaceae    | Kantaneutia     | Leaf                                       | F, FD, M |
| <i>Amaranthus tricolor</i> L.                      | Amaranthaceae    | Nautia          | Leaf                                       | F        |
| <i>Aponogeton natans</i> (L.) Engl. & Krause       | Aponogetonaceae  | Ghechu          | Bulbil                                     | F, FD    |
| <i>Argemone mexicana</i> L.                        | Papaveraceae     | Kantakusuma     | Leaf                                       | F, FD, M |
| <i>Bacopa monnieri</i> (L.) Penn.                  | Scrophulariaceae | Brahmi          | Shoot                                      | F, FD, M |
| <i>Boerhavia diffusa</i> L.                        | Nyctaginaceae    | Puruni          | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Centella asiatica</i> (L.) Urb.                 | Apiaceae         | Thalkudi        | Leaf, petiole                              | F, FD, M |
| <i>Chenopodium album</i> L.                        | Amaranthaceae    | Bathuasaga      | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Coccinia grandis</i> (L.) Voigt.                | Cucurbitaceae    | Kundri          | Fruit                                      | F        |
| <i>Colocasia esculenta</i> (L.) Schott.            | Araceae          | Saru            | Leaf, tuber                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Commelina benghalensis</i> L.                   | Commelinaceae    | Kansiri         | Leaf, shoot                                | F, M     |
| <i>Crinum asiaticum</i> L.                         | Amoryllidaceae   | Panikenduli     | Rhizome                                    | F, M     |
| <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> (L.) P. Beauv.       | Poaceae          | Dhera           | Grain                                      | F, FD    |
| <i>Echinochloa stagnina</i> (Retz) P. Beauv.       | Poaceae          | Jhipa           | Grain                                      | F, FD    |
| <i>Eclipta alba</i> (L.) Hassk.                    | Asteraceae       | Bhrungaraj      | Shoot                                      | F, FD, M |
| <i>Emilia sonchifolia</i> (L.) DC.                 | Asteraceae       | Sarkara         | Shoot                                      | F        |
| <i>Enydra fluctuans</i> Lour.                      | Asteraceae       | Hidimicha       | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Glinus oppositifolius</i> (L.) Aug. DC.         | Molluginaceae    | Pitasaga        | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Hydrolea zeylanica</i> (L.) Vahl                | Hydrophyllaceae  | Langulia        | Whole plant                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Hygrophila auriculata</i> (Schumacher) Heine    | Acanthaceae      | Koelikhia       | Leaf                                       | F, M     |
| <i>Ipomoea aquatica</i> Forssk.                    | Convolvulaceae   | Kalamasaga      | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Limnophila indica</i> (L.) Druce.               | Scrophulariaceae | Keralata        | Leaf                                       | F        |
| <i>Ludwigia adscendens</i> (L.) H. Hara            | Onagraceae       | Jagal           | Shoot, leaf                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Ludwigia prostrata</i> Roxb.                    | Onagraceae       |                 | Shoot, leaf                                | F        |
| <i>Marsilea minuta</i> L.                          | Marsileaceae     | Sunsunia        | Leaf, petiole                              | F, FD, M |
| <i>Monochoria hastata</i> (L.) Solms               | Pontederiaceae   |                 | Leaf, shoot, flower                        | F, FD    |
| <i>Nymphaea nouchali</i> Burm. f.                  | Nymphaeaceae     | Nilakain        | Fruit                                      | F, M     |
| <i>Nymphaea pubescens</i> Willd.                   | Nymphaeaceae     | Rangakain       | Fruit                                      | F        |
| <i>Otelia alismoides</i> (L.) Pers.                | Hydrocharitaceae | Panikundri      | Shoot, flower                              | F, FD, M |
| <i>Oryza rufipogon</i> Griff.                      | Poaceae          | Balunga         | Grain                                      | F, FD    |
| <i>Oxalis corniculata</i> L.                       | Oxalidaceae      | Ambiliti saga   | Leaf                                       | F, FD, M |
| <i>Polygonum plebeium</i> R.Br.                    | Polygonaceae     | Muthisaga       | Leaf, shoot                                | F        |
| <i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L.                       | Portulacaceae    | Badabalbaula    | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD, M |
| <i>Portulaca quadrifida</i> L.                     | Portulacaceae    | Balbaula        | Leaf, shoot                                | F, FD    |

\*F= Food; FD= Fodder; M= Medicinal use

by Marcelino *et al.* (2005). The most significant species according to their use value for fodder were *Echinochloa crus-galli* (0.552), *Echinochloa stagnina* (0.527) and *Alternanthera philoxeroides* (0.436). The rice fields are abundant sources of forage production for dairy cattle (Zahra *et al.* 2014) and weeds such as *E. crus-galli* and *E. stagnina* are considered as a source of protein as well as additives to the fodder for animals (Sherag *et al.* 2014). The use of *Alternanthera philoxeroides* as forage for animals was also reported (Banerjee and Matai 1990, Sushilkumar and Vishwakarma ) in addition to its reported use as medicine (Panda and Misra 2011) and food (as leafy vegetables) for human consumption (Sarma and Saikia 2010).

The plant species with use value (UV) for medicinal purposes were *Centella asiatica* (L.) Urb. (UV: 0.41) followed by *Bacopa monnieri* (L.) Penn. (UV: 0.37) and *Commelina benghalensis* L. (UV:

0.364) (**Table 2**). *Centella asiatica* use, for the treatment of various ailments such as stomach disorders, irregular menstruation, maternal health care, has been reported (Prakash *et al.* 2017, Panda *et al.* 2018b). In Ayurveda, *Bacopa monnieri* is recommended for improvement of memory, variety of diseases like anti-inflammatory, analgesic, antipyretic and sedative (Russo and Borrelli 2005). Aguiar and Borowski (2013) and Kongkeaw *et al.* (2014) stated that *Bacopa monnieri* targets the CNS and manage conditions such as memory, lack of concentration, and anxiety. Similarly, *Glinus oppositifolius* has been used in the treatment of skin disease, increase appetite, cures kapha, piles, leukoderma, tonic to intestine, urinary infections, fever, cough, liver problem and also used as antioxidant due to its excellent properties and potent phytoconstituents (Sheu *et al.* 2014). Likewise, *Ipomoea aquatica* is effectively used against

**Table 2. Quantitative analysis of weeds use in Bhadrak district, Odisha, India**

| Weed                               | Number of respondents* using the weed as |        |          | Relative frequency of citation | Use value |        |               |
|------------------------------------|--|--------|----------|--------------------------------|-----------|--------|---------------|
|                                    | Food                                     | Fodder | Medicine |                                | Food      | Fodder | Medicinal use |
| <i>Alternanthera sessilis</i>      | 52                                       | 51     | 22       | 0.824                          | 0.315     | 0.309  | 0.133         |
| <i>Alternanthera philoxeroides</i> | 11                                       | 72     | 02       | 0.552                          | 0.067     | 0.436  | 0.012         |
| <i>Amaranthus viridis</i>          | 87                                       | 11     | NR       | 0.612                          | 0.527     | 0.067  | -             |
| <i>Amaranthus spinosus</i>         | 18                                       | 11     | 33       | 0.418                          | 0.109     | 0.067  | 0.2           |
| <i>Amaranthus tricolor</i>         | 57                                       | NR     | NR       | 0.412                          | 0.345     | -      | -             |
| <i>Aponogeton natans</i>           | 17                                       | 12     | NR       | 0.188                          | 0.103     | 0.072  | -             |
| <i>Argemone mexicana</i>           | 06                                       | 13     | 36       | 0.455                          | 0.036     | 0.079  | 0.218         |
| <i>Bacopa monnieri</i>             | 37                                       | 05     | 61       | 0.661                          | 0.224     | 0.03   | 0.37          |
| <i>Boerhavia diffusa</i>           | 51                                       | 34     | 44       | 0.83                           | 0.309     | 0.206  | 0.27          |
| <i>Centella asiatica</i>           | 33                                       | 14     | 67       | 0.709                          | 0.2       | 0.085  | 0.41          |
| <i>Chenopodium album</i>           | 53                                       | 9      | 15       | 0.497                          | 0.321     | 0.054  | 0.09          |
| <i>Coccinia grandis</i>            | 47                                       | NR     | NR       | 0.333                          | 0.284     | -      | -             |
| <i>Colocasia esculenta</i>         | 85                                       | 03     | 32       | 0.733                          | 0.515     | 0.018  | 0.193         |
| <i>Commelina benghalensis</i>      | 19                                       | NR     | 60       | 0.491                          | 0.115     | -      | 0.364         |
| <i>Crinum asiaticum</i>            | 22                                       | NR     | 30       | 0.352                          | 0.133     | -      | 0.182         |
| <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i>      | 14                                       | 91     | NR       | 0.666                          | 0.084     | 0.552  | -             |
| <i>Echinochloa stagnina</i>        | 09                                       | 87     | NR       | 0.624                          | 0.054     | 0.527  | -             |
| <i>Eclipta alba</i>                | 24                                       | 33     | 51       | 0.672                          | 0.145     | 0.2    | 0.309         |
| <i>Emilia sonchifolia</i>          | 19                                       | NR     | NR       | 0.158                          | 0.115     | -      | -             |
| <i>Enydra fluctuans</i>            | 41                                       | 16     | 34       | 0.618                          | 0.248     | 0.097  | 0.206         |
| <i>Glinus oppositifolius</i>       | 95                                       | 13     | 47       | 0.976                          | 0.576     | 0.079  | 0.284         |
| <i>Hydrolea zeylanica</i>          | 03                                       | 56     | 03       | 0.388                          | 0.018     | 0.34   | 0.018         |
| <i>Hygrophila auriculata</i>       | 31                                       | NR     | 29       | 0.484                          | 0.188     | -      | 0.176         |
| <i>Ipomoea aquatica</i>            | 97                                       | 14     | 49       | 0.982                          | 0.588     | 0.084  | 0.297         |
| <i>Limnophila indica</i>           | 35                                       | 18     | 11       | 0.461                          | 0.212     | 0.109  | 0.067         |
| <i>Ludwigia adscendens</i>         | 48                                       | 34     | 24       | 0.715                          | 0.291     | 0.206  | 0.145         |
| <i>Ludwigia prostrata</i>          | 24                                       | 15     | 08       | 0.309                          | 0.145     | 0.091  | 0.048         |
| <i>Marsilea minuta</i>             | 92                                       | 16     | 41       | 0.945                          | 0.558     | 0.097  | 0.248         |
| <i>Monochoria hastata</i>          | 17                                       | 06     | 11       | 0.212                          | 0.103     | 0.036  | 0.067         |
| <i>Nymphaea nouchali</i>           | 28                                       | 05     | 29       | 0.412                          | 0.17      | 0.03   | 0.176         |
| <i>Nymphaea pubescens</i>          | 39                                       | NR     | 22       | 0.43                           | 0.236     | -      | 0.133         |
| <i>Ottelia alismoides</i>          | 28                                       | 17     | 23       | 0.473                          | 0.17      | 0.103  | 0.139         |
| <i>Oryza rufipogon</i>             | 09                                       | 33     | NR       | 0.345                          | 0.055     | 0.2    | -             |
| <i>Oxalis corniculata</i>          | 72                                       | 20     | 15       | 0.661                          | 0.436     | 0.121  | 0.091         |
| <i>Polygonum plebeium</i>          | 83                                       | NR     | NR       | 0.558                          | 0.503     | -      | -             |
| <i>Portulaca oleracea</i>          | 26                                       | 27     | 17       | 0.436                          | 0.158     | 0.164  | 0.103         |
| <i>Portulaca quadrifida</i>        | 19                                       | 13     | NR       | 0.206                          | 0.115     | 0.079  | -             |

\*Total number of respondents =165; RFC = Relative frequency of citation *i.e.* use range - 0: when nobody refers to a plant as a useful one, to 1: when all informants mention it as useful Medicinal use; NR= Not reported

nosebleed, high blood pressure, leukoderma, leprosy, jaundice, liver complaints and as anthelmintic (Malakar and Choudhury 2015). Thus, the weeds in rice are an important resource for farmers of Bhadrak district, not only as food (vegetables) but also because of the multiple additional uses they have.

Our results indicated that the distribution of weed species varies seasonally within rice ecosystems. Abundance and distribution of weed flora in rice field is inclined to interaction multiple factors of local environmental conditions (Travlos *et al.* 2018, Kurniadie *et al.* 2019). In this study, a higher number of weeds were observed during *Kharif* (Rainy-wet) (June–Nov) than the *Rabi* (Post-rainy -dry) (January–April) season. Rainfall and flooding were the ‘major drivers’ of this variability. Species diversity increases in the monsoon with bund

(levee) being the most diverse; whereas in the dry season the greatest diversity was in the rice field as observed by Halwart (2006), Kosaka *et al.* (2013) and Subudhi *et al.* (2015).

It may be concluded that traditional knowledge and usage of weeds as supplementary food and primary health care is intimately linked to the livelihood needs of the local communities. However, most of this traditional use of weed is now in danger of vanishing. Therefore, it is important to preserve as much of this traditional knowledge as possible in written form. Hopefully, such knowledge may some day constitute the special heritage of the people of Bhadrak to the world. The reported edible weeds could contribute to basic primary health care and balanced diets for the benefit of posterity.

## REFERENCES

- Aguiar S and Borowski T. 2013. Neuropharmacological review of the nootropic herb *Bacopa monnieri*. *Rejuvenation Research* **16**: 313–326.
- Anonymous.1994. *Ethnobotany in India: A status Report*. All India Coordinated Research Project in Ethnobotany, Ministry of Environment and Forests, Govt. of India, New Delhi.
- Anonymous. 2019. *District Disaster Management Plan-2019*. Bhadrak, Odisha.
- Banerjee A and Matai S. 1990. Composition of Indian aquatic plants in relation to utilization as animal forage. *Journal of Aquatic Plant Management* **28**: 69–73.
- Bastiaans L, Kropff MJ, Goudriaanb J and Van Laar HH. 2000. Design of weed management systems with a reduced reliance on herbicides poses new challenges and prerequisites for modeling crop-weed interactions. *Field Crop Research* **67**:161–179.
- Bilalis DJ, Travlos IS and Papastylianou P. 2014. Natural vegetation as a key to sustainability of agroecosystems. In: *Sustainability behind sustainability*. (Eds. Zorpas AA), Nova Science Publishers Inc, Hauppauge, New York.
- Chandrasena NR. 2014. Living with weeds - a new paradigm. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **46**(1): 96–110.
- Chandrasena NR. 2007. Liabilities or assets? some Australian perspectives on weeds. pp. 9–56. In: *Utility of Weeds and their Relatives as Resources*. (Eds. Kim KU, Shin DH and Lee IJ), Kyungpook National University, Korea.
- Cruz-Garcia GS and Price LL. 2012. Weeds as important vegetables for farmers. *Acta Societatis Botanicorum Poloniae* **81**(4): 397–403.
- Cruz-Garcia GS and Price LL. 2014. Gathering of wild food plants in anthropogenic environments across the seasons: Implications for poor and vulnerable farm households. *Ecology of Food and Nutrition* **53**: 1–24.
- Cunningham AB. 2001. *Applied Ethnobotany, People, Wild Plant Use and Conservation*. Earthscan Publishing Ltd., Sterling VA, London.
- Datta SC and Banerjee AK. 1978. Useful weeds of west Bengal rice fields. *Economic Botany*. **32**: 297–310.
- Diaz-Betancourt M, Ghennandi L, Ladi A, López-Moreno IR, Raffaele E and Rapoport EH. 1999. Weeds as a source for human consumption. A comparison between tropical and temperate Latin America. *Revista de Biología Tropical* **47** (3): 329–338.
- Demment MW, Young MM and Sensenig RL. 2003. Providing micronutrients through food based solutions: a key to human and national development. *The Journal of Nutrition* **133**: 3879–3885.
- Duke JA.1992. *Handbook of Edible Weeds*. CRC Press, Boca Raton.
- FAO. 2009. *The State of Food Insecurity in the World*. Rome, Italy.
- Firbank LG, Petit S, Smart S, Blain A and Fuller RJ. 2008. Assessing the impacts of agricultural intensification on biodiversity: a British perspective. *Philosophical Transactions of Royal Society London Biological Science* **363**: 777–787.
- Gazzaneo LRS, Lucena RFP and Albuquerque UP. 2005. Knowledge and use of medicinal plants by local specialists in a region of Atlantic forest in the state of Pernambuco. *Journal of Ethnobiology and Ethnomedicine* **1**: 9.
- Gharde Y, Singh PK, Dubey RP, and Gupta P. 2018. Assessment of yield and economic losses in agriculture due to weeds in India. *Crop Protection* **107**: 12–18
- Grivetti LE, Frentzel CJ, Ginsberg KE, Howell KL and Ogle BM.1987. Bush foods and edible weeds of agriculture: perspectives on dietary use of wild plants in Africa, their role in maintaining human nutritional status and implications for agricultural development. pp. 51–81. In: *Health and disease in Tropical Africa: Geographical and Medical Viewpoints*. (Eds. Akhtar R), Harwood Academic Publishers, London.
- Halwart M. 2006. Biodiversity and nutrition in rice-based aquatic ecosystems. *Journal of Food Composition and Analysis* **19**: 747–751.
- Halwart M and Bartley D.2007. Aquatic biodiversity in rice-based ecosystems. pp. 181–199. In: *Managing Biodiversity in Agricultural Ecosystems*. (Eds. Jarvis DI, Padoch C and Coope HD), Columbia University Press, New York.
- HEAR. 2007. *Global Compendium of Weeds*. Hawaiian Ecosystems at Risk project (HEAR).
- Hu SY. 2005. *Food plants of China*. Chinese University Press, Hong Kong.
- Huntington HP. 2000. Using traditional ecological knowledge in science: Methods and applications. *Ecological Applications* **10**(5): 1270–1274.
- Jose-Maria L, Armengot L, Blanco-Moreno JM, Bassa M and Sans X. 2010. Effects of agricultural intensification on plant diversity in Mediterranean dry land cereal fields. *Journal of Applied Ecology* **47**(4):832–840.
- Kim KU, Shin DH and Lee IJ. 2007. *Utility of Weeds and Their Relatives as Resources*. Korea, Kyungpook National University.
- Kongkeaw C, Dilokthornsakul P, Thanarangsarit P, Limpeanchob N and Scholfield NC. 2014. Meta-analysis of randomized controlled trials on cognitive effects of *Bacopa monnieri* extract. *Journal of Ethnopharmacology* **151**: 528–535.
- Kosaka Y, Xayvongsa L, Vilayphone A, Chanthavong H, Takeda S and Kato M. 2013. Wild edible herbs in paddy fields and their sale in a mixture in Houaphan Province, the Lao People's Democratic Republic. *Economic Botany* **67**(4): 335–349.
- Kurniadie D, Irda M, Umiyati U, Widayat D, Sudarjatand Nasahi C. 2019. Weeds diversity of lowland rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) with different farming system in Purwakarta Regency Indonesia. *Journal of Agronomy* **18**: 21–26.
- Lee IY, Park JE, Shin DH, Lee IJ, Kim KU. 2007. Utility of weeds and their relatives as resources in Korea. pp. 213. In: *Utility of Weeds and Their Relatives as Resources*. (Eds. Kim KU, Shin DH and Lee IJ), Kyungpook National University, Korea.
- Lososova Z. 2003. Estimating past distribution of vanishing weed vegetation in South Moravia. *Preslia* **75**: 71–79.

- Malakar C and Choudhury PPN. 2015. Pharmacological potentiality and medicinal uses of *Ipomoea aquatica* Forssk: a review. *Asian Journal of Pharmacy and Clinical Research* **8**(2): 60–63.
- Maneechote C. 2007. Utilization of weeds and their relatives as resources in Thailand. pp.107–121. In: *Utility of Weeds and Their Relatives as Resources*. (Eds. Kim KU, Shin DH and Lee JJ), Kyungpook National University, Korea.
- Marcelino LR, Inocencio AI, Zaballa CC and Paller EC. 2005. Bicol's weed recipes. *Philippine Journal of Weed Science* **23**: 40–43.
- Martin GJ. 1995. *Ethnobotany: A Methods Manual*. Chapman and Hall, London.
- Misra MK, Panda A and Sahu D. 2012. Survey of useful wetland plants of south Odisha, India. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **11**(4):658–666.
- Moody K. 1989. *Weeds Reported in Rice in South and Southeast Asia*. International Rice Research Institute, Los Banos, Philippines.
- Nakhauka EB. 2009. Agricultural biodiversity for food and nutrient security: The Kenyan perspective. *International Journal of Biodiversity and Conservation* **1**: 208–214.
- Panda A and Misra MK. 2011. Ethnomedicinal survey of some wetland plants of South Orissa and their conservation. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **10**(2): 296–303.
- Panda T, Mishra N, Pradhan BK and Mohanty RB. 2018a. Expansive alien flora of Odisha, India. *Journal of Agriculture and Environment for International Development* **112** (1): 43–64.
- Panda T, Mishra N, Rahimuddin S, Pradhan BK, Rout SD and Mohanty RB. 2018b. Folk medicine used for the treatment of gynaecological disorders in rural areas of Bhadrak district, Odisha, India. *Botanica* **24**(2): 132–142.
- Parameswaran P and Kumar AN. 2017. An account of the 'useful weeds' associated with wetland paddy fields (Vayals) of wayanad, Kerala, India. *Annals of Plant Sciences* **6** (1): 1516–1526.
- Pemberton RW and Lee NS. 1996. Wild food plants in South Korea; market presence, new crops, and exports to the United States. *Economic Botany* **50**(1): 57–70.
- Prakash V, Jaiswal N and Srivastava M. 2017. A review on medicinal properties of *Centella asiatica*. *Asian Journal of Pharmaceutical and Clinical Research* **10** (10): 69–77.
- Pretty J. 2007. *The Earth Only Endures*. Earth scan, London.
- Rao AN, Wani SP and Ladha JK. 2014. Weed management research in India - an analysis of the past and outlook for future. pp. 1–26. In: *Souvenir* (1989-2014). DWR publication No. 18. Directorate of Weed Research, Jabalpur, India
- Rapoport EH, Raffaele E, Ghermandi L and Margutti L. 1995. Edible weeds: a scarcely used resource. *Bulletin of Ecological Society America* **76**(3): 163–166.
- Russo A and Borrelli F. 2005. *Bacopa monniera*, a reputed nootropic plant: an overview. *Phytomedicine* **12**(4): 305–317.
- Sharma L, Samant SS, Kumar A, Lal M, Devi K and Tewari LM. 2018. Diversity, distribution pattern, endemism and indigenous uses of wild edible plants in Cold Desert Biosphere Reserve of Indian Trans Himalaya. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **17**(1): 122–131.
- Sarma SK and Saikia M. 2010. Utilization of wetland resources by the rural people of Nagaon district, Assam. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **9**(1):145–151.
- Saxena HO and Brahmam M. 1996. *The Flora of Orissa*, Vol 1-4. Regional Research Laboratory and Orissa Forest Corporation Ltd., Bhubaneswar.
- Serag MS, Khedr AHA, Khedr AH and Abogadallah GM. 2014. Performance and chemical composition of three *Echinochloa* grasses over short term experiment. *Scientific Journal for Damietta Faculty of Science* **3**(1): 43–52.
- Sheu SY, Yao CH, Lei YC and Kuo TF. 2014. Recent progress in *Glinus oppositifolius* research. *Pharmaceutical Biology* **52**: 1079–1084.
- Sinha R and Larka V. 2007. Edible weeds of tribals of Jharkhand, Orissa and West Bengal. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **6**(1): 217–222.
- Srivastava, Pan RS and Bhatt BP. 2018. Antioxidant and nutritional potential of some under utilized leafy vegetables consumed by tribals of Jharkhand, India. *Current Science* **114** (6): 1222–1233.
- Subudhi HN, Panda SP, Behera PK and Patnaik C. 2015. A checklist of weeds in rice fields of coastal Odisha, India. *Journal of Agricultural Science* **7** (6): 207–216.
- Tardio J and Pardo-de Santayana M. 2008. Cultural importance indices: a comparative analysis based on the useful wild plants of southern Cantabria (Northern Spain). *Economic Botany* **62**: 24–39.
- Travlos IS, Cheimona N, Roussis I and Bilalis DJ. 2018. Weed-Species abundance and diversity indices in relation to tillage systems and fertilization. *Frontiers in Environmental Science* **6**: 11.
- Turner NJ, Łuczaj LJ, Migliorini P, Pieroni A, Dreon AL and Sacchetti LE. 2011. Edible and tended wild plants, traditional ecological knowledge and agroecology. *Critical Review of Plant Science* **30**(1–2):198–225.
- Upadhaya A, Chaturvedi SS and Tiwari BK. 2016. Utilization of wild *Citrus* by Khasi and Garo tribes of Meghalaya. *Indian Journal of Traditional Knowledge* **15**(1): 121–127.
- Van Chin D. 1999. Utilization of weeds in Vietnam. Bangkok, *Proceedings II of the 17th Asian-Pacific Weed Science Society Conference*. Weeds and environmental impact.
- World Bank. 2016. Poverty, growth and inequality: India state briefs. World Bank Group. Washington DC, 1–5.
- Zahra WA, Yasue T, Asagi N, Miyaguchi Y, Purwanto BP and Komatsuzaki M. 2014. A new strategy for utilizing rice forage production using a no-tillage system to enhance the self-sufficient feed ratio of small scale dairy farming in Japan. *Sustainability* **6**: 4975–4989.