

Water Management

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An adequate supply of good quality irrigation water is needed for optimum rice production. Proper management of irrigation is critical for overall profitability, management of diseases (such as rice blast), nutrient management (such as nitrogen and phosphorus), weed management and insect management. Growers need to have a good grasp of the capabilities and limitations of their irrigation system to ensure rice can be flooded in a timely manner. Knowledge of the quality and quantity of irrigation water is required for proper water management.

Determining Water Needs

A water supply is adequate for a given field if you can:

- Flush in two to four days;
- Flood in three to five days; and
- Maintain a continuous flood for the entire season.

Management Key

Flush if necessary for stand establishment or weed control.

Recommended minimum and desired pumping rates (gallons per minute per acre [GPM/acre]) are based on different soil textures (Table 10-1). To determine pumping rate for your field, multiply your field acreage by the value given for your soil type (e.g., 50-acre sandy loam field times 25 GPM/acre = 1,250 GPM). If you already know your pump capacity and field acreage, Table 10-2 can be used as a guide for determining whether your pump capacity is sufficient to maintain an adequate flood on your field. For example, if a well

is pumping 1,200 GPM and rice is grown on a silt loam soil with a pan, this well should not be used to irrigate more than 120 acres of rice. Since most fields

Table 10-1. Recommended pumping rates for different soil textural groups.

Soil Textural Group	(GPM†/Acre)	
	Minimum	Desired
Silt loam – with pan	10	10
Sandy loam	15	25
Silt loam – no pan	10	15
Clay and silty clay	15	20

† GPM = gallons per minute.

Table 10-2. General guide for irrigable acreage for different soil textural groups at various pump capacities.

Pump Capacity (GPM)†	Irrigable Acreage			
	Silt Loam – With Pan	Silt Loam – No Pan	Clay and Silty Clay	Sandy Loam
400	40	27	20	16
600	60	40	30	24
800	80	53	40	32
1,000	100	67	50	40
1,200	120	80	60	48
1,400	140	93	70	56
1,600	160	107	80	64
1,800	180	120	90	72
2,000	200	133	100	80
2,200	220	147	110	88
2,400	240	160	120	96
2,600	260	173	130	104
2,800	280	187	140	112
3,000	300	200	150	120

† GPM = gallons per minute.

may have more than one soil texture, use these pumping rates only as a general guide for determining needed pumping capacities.

Table 10-3 shows the operating time required to pump 1 inch of water on different size fields at different pumping rates. This is useful for estimating the amount of pumping time required for a given situation. For example, a well discharging 1,000 GPM will need 36 hours to produce enough water to apply 1 inch to 80 acres (80 acre-inches).

Management Key

Select fields that hold water adequately and keep acreage within the limits of pumping capacity.

Table 10-3. Hours of operating time to pump one acre-inch of water.

Pumping Capacity (GPM†)	Surface Acres							
	20	40	60	80	120	160	200	240
200	45	91						
400	23	45	68	91				
600	15	30	45	60	91			
800	11	23	34	45	68	91		
1,000		18	27	36	54	72	91	
1,200		15	23	30	45	60	76	91
1,400		13	19	26	39	52	65	78
1,600		11	17	23	34	45	57	68
1,800			15	20	30	40	50	60
2,000			14	18	27	36	45	54
2,200			12	17	25	33	41	49
2,400			11	15	23	30	38	45
2,600				14	21	28	35	42
2,800				13	19	26	32	39
3,000				12	18	24	30	36
3,200				11	17	23	28	34
3,400					16	21	27	32
3,600					15	20	25	30
3,800					14	19	24	29
4,000					14	18	23	27
4,200						17	22	26
4,400						17	21	25
4,600						16	20	24
4,800							19	23
5,000							18	22

† GPM = gallons per minute.

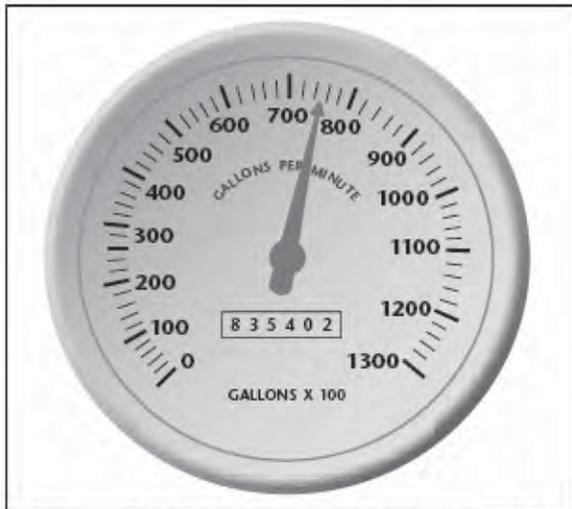
Determining Pump Flow

A good method of determining pump discharge is to use an inline flow meter. Many irrigation equipment dealers handle flow meters and can provide cost and proper installation information. There are many different styles, but the most common is a propeller-style mechanical flow meter. Currently, cost-share is available from the Natural Resource Conservation Service (NRCS) for flow meters. Proper installation is very important to ensure accurate readings and good service from the flow meter. It is most desirable to have at least 5 to 10 feet (sometimes more) of straight pipe before any bends or flow direction changes for accurate reading. However, even when this criterion cannot be met, results are still more accurate with a flow meter than with manual measurements. Flow meters measure both flow rate and the total volume of water applied (referred to as a totalizer).

While most flow meters are permanently installed, a portable flow meter can be used to monitor the flow of more than one pumping plant. Most flow meters are equipped with a totalizer that records the total quantity of water pumped similar to an odometer for a vehicle. This provides useful water management information that can also be used to document irrigation water requirements. Flow meters can be ordered with many different totalizer measurement unit types, such as gallons, acre-foot and acre-inches. Acre-inch totalizers are

Table 10-4. Hours of operating time to pump one acre-inch of water.

Volume	equals
1 gallon (gal)	8.33 pounds (lbs)
1 cubic foot (ft ³)	7.48 gal
1 acre-foot (ac-ft)	325,851 gal
1 acre-inch (ac-in)	27,154 gal
1 ac-in	3,630 ft ³
Flow	equals
1 cubic foot per second (cfs)	448.83 gallons per minute (GPM)
1 cfs	1 ac-in per hour
1 GPM	0.00223 cfs
1 GPM	0.00221 ac-in per hour
1 liter/second (L/s)	15.83 GPM
1 cubic meter/minute (m ³ /min)	264.2 GPM
1 cfs for 1 hour	1 ac-in
542 GPM for 1 hour	1 ac-in



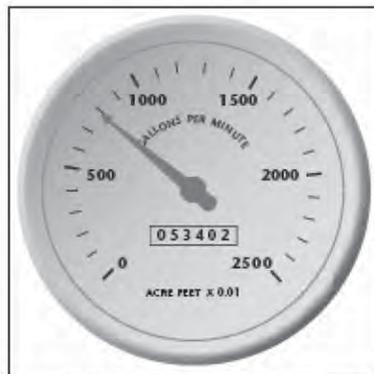
Standard 8-inch dial face with gallons totalizer. Add two zeros to the six-digit number.
Dial face reading = 83,540,200 gallons.



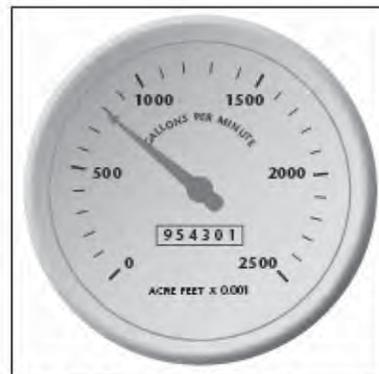
A 10-inch dial face with gallons totalizer. Add three zeros to the six-digit number.
Dial face reading = 631,401,000 gallons.



Dial with cubic feet per second indicator and acre-ft totalizer. Place a decimal point three places to the left.
Acre-ft = 835.402



Acre-ft totalizer. Place a decimal point two places to the left.
Acre-ft = 534.02



Acre-ft totalizer. Place a decimal point three places to the left.
Acre-ft = 954.301

Figure 10-1. Flow meter dial types and how to read them (Source: Sheffield and Bankston 2008. LSU AgCenter Pub. #3082, *Irrigation Flow Measurement*).

the most useful measure because the math to convert to application rate is the simplest, and the end unit is the most useful for irrigation. Table 10-4 shows conversions between different units of water measurement. The most common unit for totalizers is gallons, and there are 27,154 gallons in an acre-inch of water.

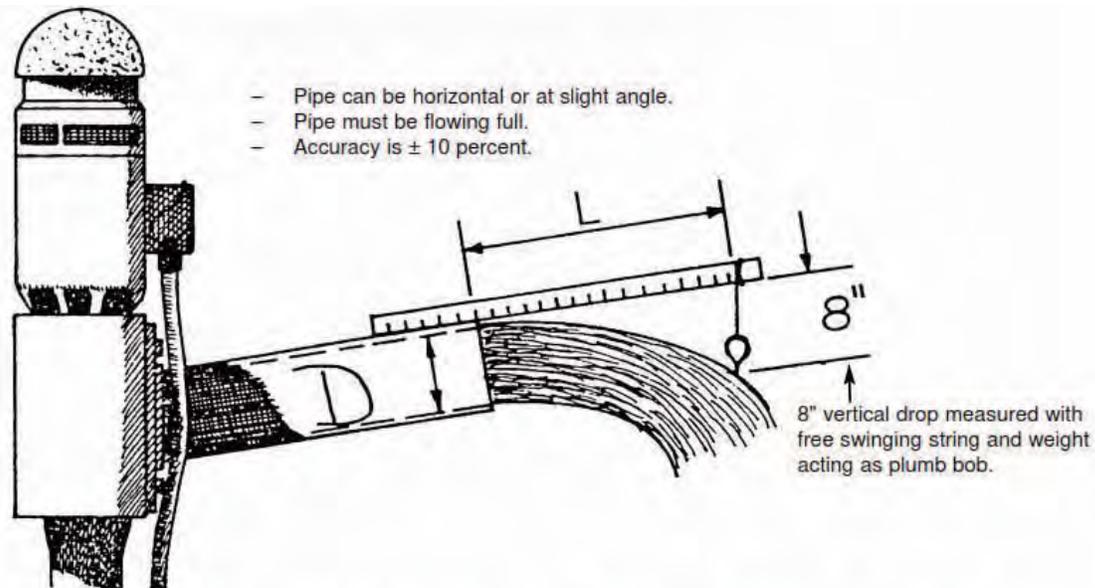
If a flow meter is not available, the discharge rate can be estimated by the plumb bob method described in the following section (Photo 10-1, Table 10-5 and Figure 10-2). When the water discharges from a vertical riser, the flow rate can be estimated with a vertical measurement (Figure 10-3 and Table 10-6).



Photo 10-1. Manual measurement of pump flow using a yardstick and plumb bob.

Table 10-5. Pump flows calculated from yardstick and 8-inch plumb bob measurements.

Inches	Inside Diameter of Pipe (D) – Inches										
	4"	5"	6"	7"	8"	9"	10"	11"	12"	13"	14"
	64	100	144	196	256	324	400	484	476	676	784
4	96	150	216	294	384	486	600	726	864	1014	1176
6	128	200	288	392	512	648	800	968	1152	1352	1568
8	160	250	360	490	640	810	1000	1210	1440	1690	1960
10	192	300	432	588	768	972	1200	1452	1728	2028	2352
12	224	350	504	686	896	1134	1400	1694	2016	2366	2744
14	256	400	576	784	1024	1296	1600	1936	2304	2704	3136
16	288	450	648	882	1152	1458	1800	2178	2592	3042	3428
18	320	500	720	980	1280	1620	2000	2420	2880	3380	3920
20	352	550	792	1078	1408	1782	2200	2662	3168	3718	4312
22	384	600	864	1176	1536	1944	2400	2904	3456	4056	4704
24	416	650	936	1274	1664	2106	2600	3146	3744	4394	5096
26	448	700	1008	1372	1792	2268	2800	3388	4032	4732	5488
28	480	750	1080	1470	1920	2430	3000	3630	4320	5070	5880
30	512	800	1152	1568	2048	2592	3200	3872	4608	5408	6272
32	544	850	1224	1666	2176	2754	3400	4114	4896	5746	6664
34	576	900	1296	1764	2304	2916	3600	4356	5184	6084	7056



Measuring Procedure: Extend yardstick parallel with discharge pipe until 8" plumb bob barely touches the water stream. Measure length (L) and pipe inside diameter (D) which is less than the nominal pipe diameter.

Example: Discharge Pipe – 10 inches (D)
Discharge Length – 14 inches (L)

$$\text{GPM} = 10 \times 10 \times 14$$

$$\text{GPM} = 1400$$

Formula: Gallons per minute = the inside diameter squared x the length in inches.

Note: Discharge pipe must be full and plumb bob length must be 8" for this method to be accurate. See Table 9-4 for flow rates at various measurements.

$$\text{GPM} = D \times D \times L$$

Figure 10-2. Illustration of the manual measurement of pump flow.

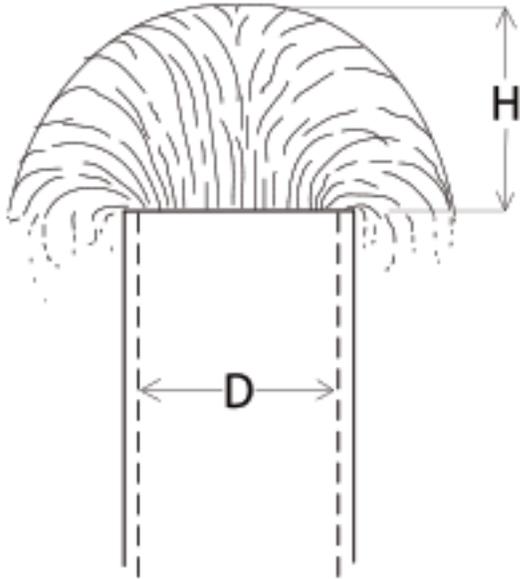


Figure 10-3. Flow from a vertical pipe or casing.

Table 10-6. Flow from vertical pipes or casings.

	Diameter of Pipe (D) (in)						
	4	6	8	10	12	14	16
Water	gallons per minute (GPM)						
3	135	311	569	950	1394	1898	2479
4	161	369	687	1115	1612	2194	2866
6	202	469	872	1415	1975	2688	3511
8	236	548	1025	1640	2281	3104	4055
10	265	621	1155	1840	2547	3466	4528
12	294	685	1275	2010	2789	3796	4958
14	319	740	1380	2170	3014	4103	5359
16	342	796	1480	2370	3224	4388	5732

Source: Irrigation Water Measurement, Louisiana State University.

However, the accuracy is usually very poor because of the difficulty in obtaining a good measurement of the vertical height. A more accurate measurement is usually obtained if a hydrant is installed on the riser, creating a horizontal discharge. A joint of pipe inserted in the hydrant stabilizes the flow and makes the plumb bob method possible.

Pumping Cost

The total cost for pumping irrigation water is influenced by several factors. Taxes, insurance, interest, depreciation, maintenance and energy must all be considered as real costs. Energy is usually more than 50 percent of the total pumping cost over the life of an irrigation pumping plant.

Table 10-7 presents typical energy use values for various energy sources and different pumping depths. Since energy prices can vary from season to season, current energy prices should be applied to the energy use values to calculate actual cost. Energy use values vary due to motor or power unit design, wear and matching to load. The values are presented as a guide for comparison.

Table 10-7. Fuel Use Comparison.

Power Unit Type	Typical Fuel Consumption Per Ac-In for Different Pumping Depths†			
	25'	50'	75'	100'
Electric (KWH)‡ (Conventional vertical hollow shaft)	4.0	8.0	12.0	16.0
Electric (KWH) (Submersible)	4.5	9.0	13.5	18.0
Diesel (GAL)	0.3	0.6	0.9	1.1
LP Gas (GAL)	0.5	1.0	1.6	2.1
Gasoline (GAL)	0.4	0.8	1.2	1.6
Natural Gas (CCF)	0.6	1.1	1.7	2.2

NOTE: Typical fuel consumption can vary \pm 20 percent due to motor or power unit design, wear and matching to load.

† The pumping plant performance values used in the calculations are based on Nebraska Standards and Arkansas pumping plant tests. The values for gasoline, LP and natural gas include a 5 percent drive loss, while no drive loss is considered for electric. All values assume 75 percent pump efficiency. Typical fuel consumption is based on the system performing at 80 percent of the best performance possible. Pumping depth is depth to water when pumping.

‡ GAL is abbreviation for gallon; KWH is abbreviation for kilowatt hour; CCF is abbreviation for 100 cubic feet.

Management Key

Carefully analyze differences in energy costs. Select and use another energy source where economically justified.

Because irrigation system influences irrigation efficiency, the amount of water required for a rice field varies. Typical values for the amount of water pumped in a season have been determined for different irrigation systems (Table 10-8). The values may vary but can be used as a guide for determining seasonal water use.

Tables 10-7 and 10-8 can be used to estimate energy costs as well as to compare actual energy costs to what is presented as typical. This information can be useful for evaluation of water management practices.

Table 10-8. Typical water use amounts applied to rice by irrigation system.

Irrigation System	Irrigation Water Applied (ac-in/ac)
Zero grade	19
Precision grade	32
Non-precision grade	32
Multiple inlet	24
Sprinkler or center-pivot	19

Source: Rice Research Verification Program. Note: there is limited data on sandy soils; expect much higher water use for these soil types. No soil type difference was found in this dataset. Data from sprinkler or center-pivot rice is very limited (Source: Vories et. al., 2011).

Example scenario:

You are considering converting an existing diesel pumping plant to electricity or natural gas. The rice field soil type is predominately clay. The pumping depth for the well is 100 feet. You have a diesel power unit with diesel at \$3.52 per gallon. Typical energy use from Table 10-7 is 1.1 gal/ac-in. Typical water use from Table 10-8 is 32 ac-in/ac.

Maintaining diesel unit, the estimated energy cost is:
 $1.1 \text{ gal/ac-in} \times 32 \text{ ac-in/ac} \times \$3.52/\text{gal} = \$123.90/\text{ac}$

Estimated Energy Cost if Unit is converted to electricity:
 Typical energy use from Table 10-7 for a vertical turbine is 16 KWH/ac-in.
 $16 \text{ KWH/ac-in} \times 32 \text{ ac-in/ac} \times 0.10 \text{ cents/KWH} = \$51.20/\text{ac}$

Estimated Energy Cost if Unit is converted to Natural Gas:
 Typical energy use from Table 10-7 for natural gas power unit is 2.2 CCF/ac-in.
 $2.2 \text{ CCF/ac-in} \times 32 \text{ ac-in} \times \$1.00/\text{CCF} = \$70.40/\text{ac}$

For more information on pumping irrigation water, contact your local county Extension office.

Management Key

Choose the electric rate structure best suited for specific pumping situations and allow the electric company to control the well if water supply is adequate.

Well Operation

The basic approach to rice irrigation is to flush if necessary to obtain an acceptable rice stand and establish the initial flood at beginning tillering (4 to 5 leaf;

6 to 10 inches tall). A shallow flood depth of 2 to 4 inches should be maintained until about two weeks prior to harvest unless there is a reason for draining, such as for straighthead control. If the field has conditions favorable for rice blast disease or blast develops in the field, the flood depth should be increased after midseason to a depth of 4 to 6 inches to help suppress the disease. Research has shown a major reduction in the severity of rice blast when a deep flood is maintained during reproductive growth (See Chapter 11, Management of Rice Diseases). If cultivars are selected that are resistant to blast then it is not necessary to increase flood depth.

If the well continues operating until the last levee is flooded, a significant amount of water can be wasted as runoff. Determining when to stop a well so that the water in transit will fill the remaining levee area requires experience. This depends on field size, soil type and well capacity. Table 10-1 can be used as a guide. If the pumping rate is near the recommended minimum, the water should be 90 percent down the field before the well is turned off. When the pumping rate is near the desired value, you can typically turn the well off when the water is 70 to 80 percent down the field. Some growers find that they can better establish the initial flood by filling up the bottom levee pad first and then stair-stepping the flood back up the field by raising the levee gates.

Electric companies offer a variety of rate structures that are suited to particular situations. Consult with your electric company representative to determine the best rate structure. Significant energy savings (20 to 30 percent) are usually possible when the electric company is allowed to turn off an electric service for two to four hours during the daily peak load periods (often referred to as load management programs). Some electrical utilities are allowing customers access to the control system so that that pumps can be controlled by customers during the off-peak time periods, providing remote pump operation at no additional cost. Table 10-1 can be used as a guide to determine if enough pumping capacity exists to take advantage of load control programs. It is suggested to use load management for two- and four-hour shut-downs if the pumping rate is closer to the desired value than the minimum value.

Power units operate over a wide range of speeds (1,500 to 2,400 RPM). The best fuel consumption

performance is usually obtained over a much narrower range of speeds (1,600 to 1,900 RPM). Recent research by the University of Missouri reported 1,350 RPM as the lowest cost of water speed and 1,550 RPM as the highest, as a general recommendation across all diesel engine types. It is best to determine the most economical operating speed and run the unit at this setting whenever possible. Other factors, such as desired pump speed and load on the power unit, must be considered. This information can be determined from pump and power unit performance specifications available through irrigation equipment dealers. Reviewing this information with a dealer can be helpful, particularly when operating a new well installation or a power unit that you are not familiar with. It is also important to make sure the gearhead ratio is correct to ensure that the pump is turning at the desired speed. A portable tachometer is a good tool for verifying both engine and pump speed.

Management Key

Service and check out the pumping plant before the pumping season to prevent costly pumping delays.

Irrigation Water Quality

While ample irrigation water is necessary for a productive rice crop, poor quality water can cause soil-related problems that negatively impact rice. Some of the predominant soil-related problems that affect rice include salinity (high soluble salts), zinc deficiency, phosphorus deficiency and excessive sodium (which causes poor soil physical conditions).

Salinity is most often associated with arid or semi-arid regions of the world, such as in the southwestern USA. However, salinity problems are common in the rice-producing regions of Arkansas in some circumstances. The poor drainage characteristics of the soils in Arkansas that allow them to be efficient for rice production also contribute to the problems associated with salinity.

Salinity results from adding salt to soils, usually in irrigation water, faster than it is removed by natural processes, such as surface runoff and downward percolation. Irrigation water is the major contributor of soluble salts in Arkansas but excessive nutrient additions from fertilizers, manures or waste materials

may also contribute to the accumulation of salts. The types of soluble salts that usually contribute to salinity problems include calcium, magnesium, sodium, chloride, sulfate and nitrate.

In addition to the effect on rice production, irrigation water that contains excessive levels of chloride can lead to chloride toxicity in soybeans. Rice is very sensitive to chloride and nitrate salts at the seedling growth stage. Sodium problems are usually native to particular soils such as the Foley, Lafe, Hillemann and Stuttgart soil mapping units. However, isolated cases of water containing excess sodium have been observed. Excessive sodium may cause poor physical conditions of the soils which can interfere with crop stand establishment.

Zinc and phosphorus deficiencies are usually associated with alkaline (high pH) soils, particularly on silt loam soils. Alkaline soils are created by irrigating with water that contains high concentrations of calcium and magnesium bicarbonate. When the water enters the field, the bicarbonates are converted to calcium and magnesium carbonate (lime) which are then deposited in the field. The soil pH increases in the field where the carbonates (lime) are deposited. A soil pH gradient is usually created such that the soil pH is higher near the water inlet and decreases down the slope.

Management Key

Proper soil sampling is critical to identifying areas of the field that may require zinc or phosphorus fertilizer to prevent deficiencies. Water samples are also useful for identifying irrigation wells that may contribute to the development of these problems.

It is possible to develop both salinity and alkalinity problems in the same field. Correct diagnosis of problems concerning irrigation water quality is critical for effective management. Water quality testing is an important step in diagnosing existing problems and identifying potential problems. Several values are helpful in evaluating the quality of a particular water source. These include calcium concentration, bicarbonate concentration, chloride concentration, electrical conductivity (EC) and sodium absorption ratio (SAR). Table 10-9 provides a brief guide for evaluating water quality. The calcium and bicarbonate

Table 10-9. General rice irrigation water quality.

Water Quality Variable	Level Considered to Cause Concern†	Concern
Calcium (Ca)	> 60 ppm (> 3 meq/L)	Together can cause soil pH increases near water inlet and inflow areas; causing zinc or phosphorus deficiency in silt loam soils.
Bicarbonate (HCO ₃)	> 305 ppm (> 5 meq/L)	
Electrical Conductivity (EC) [after lime deposition]	> 770 ppm (> 1200 µmhos/cm; 1.2 dS/m)	Causes high soil salinity which can injure and/or kill seedling rice.
Chloride (Cl)	> 100 ppm (> 35 meq/L)	Contributes to measured EC level (see above). High Cl alone may pose a problem for soybeans in rotation.
Sodium Adsorption Rate (SAR)‡	> 10	Causes sodic soil which has poor physical condition.

† Lower levels can cause injury in some cases.

‡ SAR = $Na / \sqrt{[(Ca + Mg)/2]}$, where Na, Ca and Mg are in meq/L.

concentrations provide an estimate of the amount of lime that will be deposited, and predictions can be made concerning the change in soil pH with long-term use. Electrical conductivity is a measure of the total salts that are dissolved in the water, which allows an estimate of the potential for salinity injury to rice with use of the water.

Chloride concentration is important because of the potential for chloride toxicity to soybeans and because it often is the major contributor to high electrical conductivity. The SAR is a ratio of sodium to calcium and magnesium. This number provides an estimate of how much sodium is in the water relative to calcium and magnesium. The SAR allows the prediction of whether sodic (high sodium) soils are likely to develop with long-term use of the water.

The University of Arkansas conducts water quality testing for a small fee that includes a computer prediction of any long-term effects that may result from using the irrigation water. This analysis includes effects of various crop rotations, soil texture and water management alternatives.

Once a water source has been tested, retesting is usually not necessary for at least five years. However, earlier retesting may be necessary when crop problems develop that may be related to water quality or when the pumping rate or depth changes significantly.

For more information on management of saline or alkaline soils, refer to Chapter 9, Soil Fertility, or to University of Arkansas Soil Test Note No. ST003, *Management of Soils With High Soluble Salts*.

Establishing Levees

An accurate levee survey is important to ensure proper control of water (Photo 10-2). All surveying instruments should be properly adjusted and checked for accuracy. Be careful not to exceed the operating range or distance of the equipment. A levee elevation difference of no more than 0.2 foot is generally recommended. This difference is increased on steeper fields when narrow distances between levees present a problem for combine operation. Pre-marking levees on clay soils and establishing levees as soon as conditions allow can reduce water loss from levee seepage. Levee gates should be installed early in the event flushing is necessary and also to provide outlets to avoid levee washouts if heavy rainfall occurs. One gate per levee is usually



Photo 10-2. Surveying levees in a rice field.

Management Key

Contact your local county Extension office for water quality testing if there is no recent history.

adequate. Two gates may be necessary in small loop levees near the water source and in larger bays (greater than 10 acres) to ensure adequate water control. If using multiple inlet irrigation, levee gates should be set higher than those for cascade flow.

Management Key

Survey levees on 0.2-foot intervals when possible. Establish a levee base as early as possible (before seeding) on clay soils. An accurate survey is critical to effective water management.

Land Grading

Precision land grading is desirable for reducing the number of levees in a field and for improving the field for furrow irrigation. Fewer levees means more productive flooded field area. If you are considering precision grading, make certain that cut areas won't expose subsoil with undesirable properties. Before grading, determine the soil mapping unit of the field by consulting your county soil survey available from NRCS. Extreme caution should be taken before grading if the soil mapping unit is Lafe, Foley, Hilleman or Stuttgart as these soils contain high sodium levels below the surface ranging in depth from 6 inches to 4 feet or greater. For these soils, take deep soil samples in 6-inch increments and compare sodium levels to the "cut sheet" to ensure that high sodium levels are not exposed in the leveling process of cutting and filling.

Even for other soil mapping units, it is recommended to take several deep (greater than 6 inches) soil cores or samples, but especially if a problem soil is suspected. If soil salinity, sodium or other problems are encountered after leveling, then the addition of poultry litter has shown good results for improving rice yields on cut soil areas.

Additional information on management of precision-graded soils is given in Chapter 9, Soil Fertility. More recently, there are new land-grading techniques that can optimize the cut and fill ratios and provide an "economic" land-grading plan rather than a precision-graded field to uniformly set tolerances.

When a field is precision graded, it is recommended that a slope of no less than 0.05 percent (0.05 foot per 100 feet) should be provided in at least one direction.

A slope of 0.1 percent (0.1 foot per 100 feet) is the general recommendation because it provides good drainage and is often easier to construct and maintain than flatter slopes. It is also recommended to consider putting a field to grade in only one direction (i.e., zero cross slope) if it doesn't require a significant amount of extra dirt work. Building a permanent pad or elevated road on one or more sides of a field should also be considered in the grading plan. Settling often occurs in the deeper fill areas following a grading job. If possible, touch up these areas before planting or provide field drain furrows for improved drainage. The land-grading design should consider the type of drain outlets and the number required for the field. If possible, it is best to provide an outlet point for every 20 acres.

It is not usually desirable to precision grade a field to zero slope (zero-grade) in all directions unless continuous rice production is planned. Rotation crops will usually perform better on zero-grade fields that are not over 50 acres in size. It is also critical that the perimeter ditch around the field have unrestricted drainage at its outlet(s). Another consideration for the rotation crop would be to plant on a slightly raised bed but still install a network of drain furrows in the field.

Yearly preplant field leveling or smoothing is essential for seedbed preparation, surface drainage and maintaining optimum flood depths. A landplane or float should be used to remove reverse grades, fill "potholes" and smooth out old levees, rows or ruts in a field. **Rice can germinate under either soil or water, but not both.** Therefore, maintaining a field surface that provides good drainage is important for stand establishment; controlling weeds, diseases and insects; maintaining desired flood depths; and providing a dry field for harvesting.

Water Delivery to Fields

Ditches and canals are sometimes used for water delivery to fields. There is a certain amount of water loss associated with seepage and evaporation from ditches. In addition, canals and ditches require continuous maintenance. Replacing ditches and canals with either surface or underground pipe is desirable when possible. Installing pipe not only eliminates seepage and evaporation losses but provides more accurate water control and may return land back to production.

Management Key

Replace ditch and canal water delivery systems with pipe or tubing when possible.

Flexible irrigation tubing (“poly pipe”) may be used to replace ditches and canals. The tubing is designed for low pressure and comes in various thicknesses that have different pressure capacities. If water will flow in the ditch or irrigation canal, then the tubing should be applicable to the situation. The minimum thickness recommended for this application is 9 mil. This can be an alternative when installing underground pipe is not affordable.

Multiple Inlet Irrigation

The basic concept of multiple inlet irrigation is to proportion the irrigation water evenly over the whole field at one time. The proportioning is accomplished by placing irrigation tubing across each paddy (area between levees) and releasing water into each paddy at the same time through holes or gates in the tubing. Tubing can be placed along the side of the field (side-inlet; Photo 10-3) or through the field (Photo 10-4) depending on the location of the irrigation source (Figure 10-4). This can be done on fields with straight levees and also on fields that have contour levees.



Photo 10-3. Multiple inlet irrigation with tubing placed as side-inlet.



Photo 10-4. Multiple-inlet rice irrigation with tubing placed through the field.

Multiple inlet irrigation provides the potential for improved water management in the following ways:

- Ability to establish flood quicker – increased fertilizer and herbicide efficiency;
- Reduce pumping time during season;
- Reduce pumping cost;
- Reduce amount of water pumped;
- Reduce water runoff from field;
- Reduce irrigation labor;
- Reduce “cold water effect”;
- Avoid risk of levee washout from over-pumping top levees;
- Reduce problems associated with scum and algae buildup in levee spills (gates);
- Reduce risk levee washout during heavy rainstorms; and
- Ability to capture rainfall.

Contour or Straight Levees

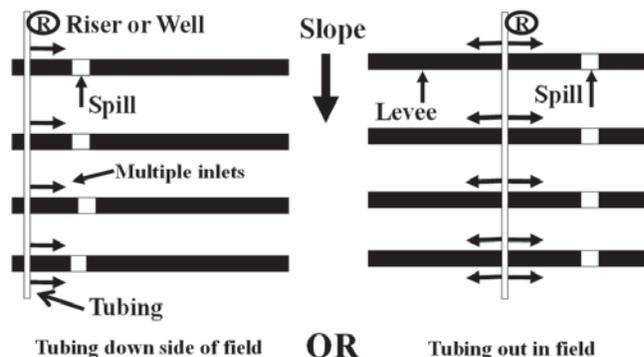


Figure 10-4. Comparison of multiple inlet irrigation setup with tubing placed along the field edge in a side-inlet design (left) and down the middle of the field in a traditional multiple inlet setup (right).

Management Key

Set levee gates higher with multiple inlet irrigation so rainfall can be captured. Proper use of multiple inlet irrigation can reduce pumping costs by 25 to 50 percent.

Less time is required to establish a permanent flood when it is possible to put the water in at different points down the field. Once a flood is established with multiple inlets, the levee gates can be set above the desired flood depth so that more rainfall can be held on the field. Inlets to individual levees can provide more precise water control for situations, such as when there are one or more levees that seem to dry out faster. The flow to these levees can be increased independently of the other levees to avoid excessive pumping on the rest of the field. Multiple inlet irrigation is possibly more easily managed on precision graded fields that have uniform acreage between the levees, but it can still offer improved water management on non-graded fields.

One important management change that must occur to be successful with multiple or side-inlet irrigation is to limit water going over the spills from pumping and rainfall. If multiple-inlet fields are pumped up and water cascades through the spills and is managed the same as a conventional rice field, no pumping time savings will be recognized. In multiple-inlet fields, spills become emergency overflows to keep levees from failing during large storm events.

Management Key

In multiple-inlet fields, spills should be used as emergency overflows only. Don't allow water to cascade through spills when irrigating or water savings will be reduced.

Information from field demonstrations and producer experiences indicates that multiple inlet irrigation provides an average reduction in labor of 30 percent and an average reduction in pumping of 25 percent. Some producers who are using multiple inlet irrigation on sandier fields feel that it has reduced pumping by up to 50 percent. This is very possible under certain conditions, but most producers will experience about a 25 percent savings, and in some situations there may be a minimal reduction in pumping savings. Producers

who aren't experiencing a significant reduction in pumping still use it for the other benefits it offers, especially the irrigation labor savings.

A few potential disadvantages or problems that can occur with multiple inlet irrigation are:

- Cost of riser bonnets (universal hydrants) and irrigation tubing;
- Initial installation of irrigation tubing and initial adjustment of the inlets (holes or gates);
- Floating, moving and twisting of irrigation tubing early in the season;
- Working around or over irrigation tubing with field equipment (i.e., spraying levees);
- Animal damage to tubing; and
- Removal and disposal of tubing.

Discussions about these problems/disadvantages with producers using multiple inlet irrigation indicate that most are willing to deal with these problems because of the advantages offered.

To establish multiple inlet irrigation for a field, a grower needs a good estimate or measurement of the pumping capacity at the field and the field acreage. The pumping capacity (GPM) is divided by the field acreage to get the ratio of GPM per acre. The estimated or measured acreage in each paddy is then multiplied by this ratio to determine the amount of water to proportion into each paddy. Following is an example of this process:

Example:

Pumping capacity = 1,500 GPM

Field Acreage = 100 acres

1,500 GPM divided by 100 acres = 15 GPM/acre

4-acre paddy: 15 GPM per acre x 4 acres = 60 GPM

7-acre paddy: 15 GPM per acre x 7 acres = 105 GPM

The required flow to each paddy is provided either through several punched holes or a few adjustable gates. Either will work, but the adjustable gate seems to be easier to manage. The most common adjustable gate has a 2.5-inch opening that can be shut completely off or left open to flow approximately 75 GPM. Producers report that the best way to manage the gates is to adjust gates on the first irrigation so that all the paddies flood up evenly. Only small adjustments should be needed during the rest of the

growing season. Also, when flooding up fields, do not pump the level up to the levee gate; leave room for rainfall capture 1 to 3 inches (“freeboard”).

Example:

105 GPM for a 7-acre paddy / 75 GPM per gate = 1.4 gates

Round up to 2 gates; punch 2 holes (2.5 in.); and install a blue gate in one to regulate flow.

The 9 to 10 mil tubing is recommended for multiple inlet irrigation, and the suggested sizes for different flow rates are as follows:

- 12 inch – less than 1,200 GPM;
- 15 inch – 1,200 to 2,200 GPM; and
- 18 inch – greater than 2,200 GPM.

When the slope is steep enough that the flow causes the water to surge in the tubing, the tubing should be choked at various locations down the slope to hold water up grade. This can be accomplished by several methods including choke ropes, clamps, half barrels, etc.

Management Key

A rule of thumb is that each 2.5 inch hole or blue gate provides a flow of 75 GPM.

The tubing is usually placed over the levees or along the side of the field on the permanent pad. In both cases, it is recommended that the tubing be placed in a shallow trench when it is installed to prevent the pipe from rolling and twisting. In some fields where an outside levee is pulled, it is possible to place the tubing in the borrow ditch on the inside of this levee. When crossing the levees, the tubing should go straight over without any angle in order to avoid twisting of the tubing. On firm levees, some of the levee top should be knocked off into the barrow ditch to provide a smooth ramp across the ditch so the tubing won't twist. The tops of fresh or sandy levees should not be knocked off. They will usually settle enough from the weight of the water and tubing, so some soil should be shoveled from the field into the barrow ditch. On sandier levees it may be necessary to put a plastic spill under the tubing at the levee crossing to better avoid levee washout.

If the tubing is laid further out in the field, a short pipe might need to be placed under the tubing at the low side of each levee pad, as a culvert, to ensure water can flow under the tubing. When placed out in the field, the tubing is more likely to float and move which can cause the tubing to twist at the levee. To help prevent unwanted movement, some type of stake can be placed on both sides of the tubing, or a piece of PVC pipe can be driven through the tubing. Once the rice increases in size, it will help keep the tubing from moving.

When the tubing is laid on the permanent pad, it is critical that it be placed on the flat area in a shallow ditch to avoid rolling or twisting. In this application, the water will tend to flow to the low end of the tubing. It may be necessary to make some humps under the tubing with mounded soil, pipe, buckets, barrels, etc., as it goes down the slope to help hold the water back to the high side of the field. This can also be accomplished by using some type of rope or strap around the tubing to squeeze or choke down on the tubing in order to restrict the water flow. It is also recommended that small holes be punched in the air pockets that form in the tubing once it is laid. These holes can be punched with pencil or ink pen points, wire flags, toothpicks, etc. The idea is to punch a small hole rather than cut the tubing, so caution has to be taken if a pocket knife is used.

Furrow-Irrigated Rice

Furrow-irrigated rice presents unique challenges to rice production, but in the right situations, can be done successfully. Furrow-irrigated rice (a.k.a. “row-rice”) is most suitable on fields that are difficult to maintain a flood or severely sloping land that requires many levees. Often these severely sloping fields have levees so close that there is effectively very little paddy rice in the field. This system eliminates the need for levees, which reduces labor, facilitates easier harvest and may reduce wear-and-tear on harvesting equipment.

Management of furrow-irrigated rice is more practical now that more options are available for weed management. Management of grass weeds can be effectively controlled with residual herbicides such as Command, Facet, Prowl, Bolero, etc. However, management of nontraditional rice field weeds can be an issue. Broadleaf weeds such as pigweed (Palmer amaranth), groundcherry, etc., present situations that are not

easily solved. Fertilizer management becomes more similar to upland crops such as corn, since a constant flood is not maintained. However, fertilizer efficiency may be affected by the frequency of irrigation. One of the biggest unknowns at this time is how frequently the fields should be irrigated. Previous research suggests that the field should not get drier than field capacity. This will require frequent irrigation to maintain adequate soil moisture. Research is currently underway to better assess the irrigation needs and potential water savings of furrow-irrigated rice.

The following management recommendations are suggested to increase the probability of success.

- Plant rice varieties or hybrids with blast resistance.
- Use a residual herbicide program.
- Be certain sufficient water is available during reproductive growth (after joint movement).
- Be prepared to use multiple broadleaf herbicides, particularly for weeds commonly only encountered on levees in flooded rice.
- Apply N fertilizer as NBPT-treated urea or ammonium sulfate at 4-6 leaf stage and at midseason, similar to normal flooded rice, immediately prior to irrigation.
- Scout carefully for sheath blight, as pressure is likely to be just as high as in flooded rice.

Sprinkler-Irrigated Rice

Sprinkler irrigation of rice is very limited in Arkansas, although it is expected that crop insurance coverage may become available to growers in 2015, which may increase interest and acreage in this production system. Research and experience show that the best potential is either on clay or sandy loam soils that are relatively free of johnsongrass. Many silt loam soils tend to crust, which causes excessive runoff and inadequate infiltration in the soil, so deep tillage, soil amendments, manure application and sprinkler package changes may be necessary to improve infiltration. Center pivots need to be modified for use in rice, and the operation of the irrigation system and crop management are different than for other row crops. Center-pivot systems for rice should be able to provide a minimum of 7.5 GPA to grow rice and have a sprinkler package that is appropriate for rice. Most importantly, the tire package and/or traction system should be appropriate for the field conditions. Span

lengths of 180 feet or less are recommended to minimize tower weights so the pivot system can traverse the wetter soil moisture conditions. In extreme cases, additional axles, track systems and boombucks are available options. Consult your pivot dealer to ensure the system will be adequate for rice production before committing to this production system.

Pivot operation is more frequent for rice than for other row crops during the vegetative stage, and be prepared to operate the pivot every day during panicle initiation and heading. A pivot that is not able to deliver adequate water either due to pump capacity, speed or breakdowns can lead to drought stress and can result in decreased yields.

Weed control is different in sprinkler-irrigated rice because the flood is not present to suppress weed pressures typically not experienced in flood-irrigated rice. The weed control program will be similar to a conventional flooded rice field, but there may be more frequent applications needed. There are fewer rescue options available, so be prompt with herbicide applications, apply when weeds are small and rotate herbicide chemistries. Pivot-irrigated rice fields should be scouted for blast and brown spot the same as in flooded fields and fungicides applied as needed. If disease pressure is expected, plant cultivars that are resistant to blast and other diseases. There is also a possibility that certain disease problems could be increased when the foliage is wetted at the frequency associated with sprinkler irrigation.

The following recommendations should be considered for sprinkler rice:

- For soils that tend to crust or seal, deep tillage, manure application, soil amendments and sprinkler package and irrigation management changes should be considered.
- Use a residual herbicide program.
- Be certain sufficient water is available during reproductive growth (after joint movement).
- Be prepared to use multiple broadleaf herbicides at midseason.
- Plant rice cultivars with blast resistance.

Additional information on pivot rice can be found at Circles for Rice, an industry supported program and web site on pivot rice by Valmont. There is a Center Pivot and Linear System Rice Production Guide that

provides additional information about the mechanics of growing pivot rice that can be obtained through Valmont dealerships (www.circlesforrice.com). References to specific companies do not imply endorsement by the University of Arkansas or imply approval or the exclusion of other products or companies that provide information, equipment or services for sprinkler rice.

Intermittent Flood or Alternate Wetting and Drying (AWD)

Intermittent flood or alternate wetting and drying (AWD) is another water management practice that is not currently widely practiced in Arkansas but has been practiced with success in nearby states and in other countries. Instead of maintaining a continuous flood in levees and fields, the flood is allowed to recede until the soil surface is visible (wet or dry) before the field is reflooded. This practice has the potential to reduce pumping because during these dry-down times the levees have more storage capacity to capture rainfall. It is not well known how dry the soil can become before reflooding is necessary. Some producers and experts in other states report only drying down to where the soil is still wet, while some report drying down to dry soil. Potential for blast is a concern and should be scouted for during the growing season, and the use of blast-resistant cultivars is recommended. To use AWD, the use of multiple inlet irrigation is necessary and a single pre-flood application of nitrogen should be used. Herbicide programs would be similar to a constant flood system, and confirmation that the irrigation system can flood the field up adequately during peak water demand times needs to be checked before attempting. AWD has the potential to reduce greenhouse gas emissions, and growers may be able to claim carbon credits and sell those credits for using this production system and other aerobic production systems.

If attempting to use AWD, the following are recommended:

- Verify adequate pump capacity to flood up field in reasonable amount of time.
- Use multiple or side-inlet irrigation to manage water distribution.
- Apply only a single pre-flood application of nitrogen.

- Use a residual herbicide program.
- Be prepared to use multiple broadleaf herbicides at midseason.
- Plant rice cultivars with blast resistance.

Irrigation Termination

Current recommendations for draining the flood from the rice fields as predicted by the Rice DD50 program is 25 days after 50 percent heading for long-grain cultivars, 30 days for medium-grain cultivars and 35 days for short-grain cultivars. While there are situations that may not require the 25-day duration, earlier draining can negatively impact rice grain yields on some fields (Table 10-10). Grain yields were substantially lower when drained 14 days after heading than when drained 28 days after heading at Stuttgart and Pine Tree. When averaged across three years and four locations, the response was consistent for all four varieties evaluated (Figure 10-5). Little rainfall and rapid soil drying conditions allowed the early drain treatments to dry below permanent wilting point (15 percent volumetric moisture content) during the time before the recommended drain time (Figures 10-6 and 10-7).

Table 10-10. Influence of drain timing on rice grain yields on two silt loam soils.

Drain Timing dah‡	Grain Yield			
	RREC†		PTBS†	
	2004	2005	2004	2006
	bu/A			
14	189	176	209	146
21	195	188	213	--
28	212	195	218	239
35	198	198	226	202
LSD	11	15	10	14

† RREC = Rice Research and Extension Center; PTBS = Pine Tree Branch Experiment Station

‡ dah = days after 50% heading

Source: Richards et al., 2006. p. 298-303. B.R. Wells Rice Research Studies 2005. Ark. Agr. Exp. Sta. Res. Ser. 540.

This indicates that the soil moisture became limiting during the latter part of grain filling and influenced yield. Thus, it is important to ensure adequate moisture for the rice plant throughout the grain-filling process.

Some clay soils that are poorly drained may benefit from early draining. A general rule is that if fields

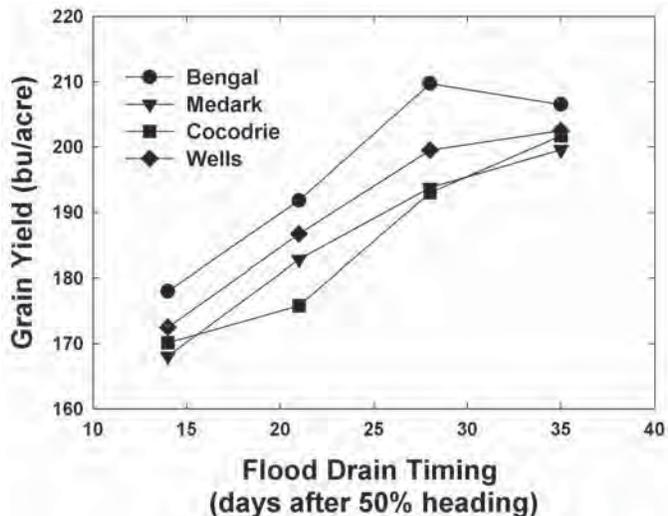


Figure 10-5. Influence of drain timing on grain yields of four rice cultivars, 2004-2006.

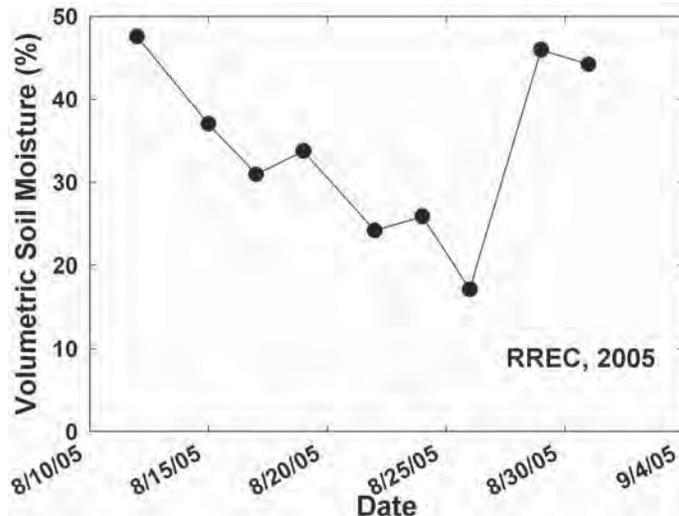


Figure 10-7. Soil moisture content following draining 14 days after heading at the Rice Research and Extension Center during 2005.

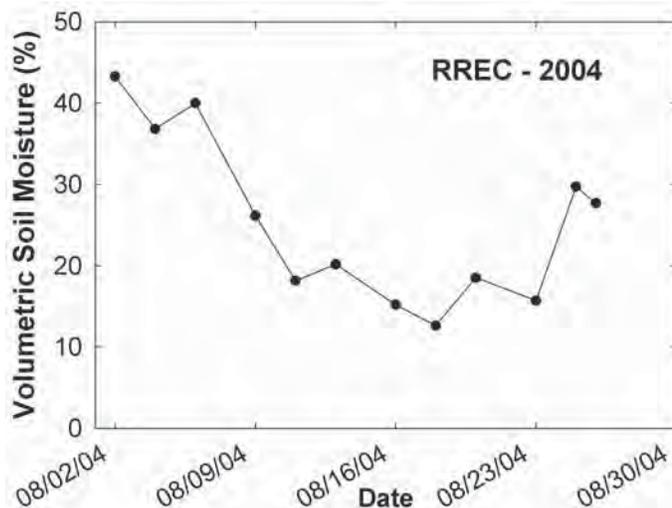


Figure 10-6. Soil moisture content following draining 14 days after heading at the Rice Research and Extension Center during 2004.

heading predicts temperatures above 95°F and no rain, then the flood should be maintained. There are some physical considerations for this practice. When fields are allowed to dry rather than utilizing a draining event, levees often dry to the point of reducing the efficiency of levee gate removal. Some soils become “hard” enough that removing the gates becomes more laborious than what is desired. Therefore, many producers prefer to hold the water until the time to drain.

Management Key

Drain as early as feasible to reduce pumping costs but maintain adequate soil moisture throughout the grain-filling stage.

are never dry at harvest, even when little or no rainfall occurs, these fields are candidates for earlier draining. There is certainly some economic benefit to prevent rutting during harvest whenever possible. However, weather patterns are difficult to predict and caution should be used when draining early. Reduced yields resulting from early draining on clay soils has been observed when little or no rainfall occurs after draining.

Research indicates that it may be possible to stop pumping as early as 14 days after heading if the field will retain a flood for 7 to 10 days after pumping is ceased. If the weather forecast at 10 to 14 days after

Utilizing Surface Water for Irrigation in Critical Groundwater Areas

Critical Groundwater Designations

Several areas in rice-producing regions of Arkansas have been declared “Critical Groundwater Areas” (Figure 10-7) by the Arkansas Natural Resources Commission (ANRC) under the authority of the Arkansas Groundwater Protection and Management Act (https://static.ark.org/eeuploads/anrc/title_4.pdf). A critical groundwater area may be

declared by ANRC for unconfined aquifers, such as the alluvial aquifer that underlies much of Eastern Arkansas, when the water table exhibits an average decline of one foot or more annually for a minimum of five years and/or water levels have been reduced such that 50 percent or less of the formation is saturated.

While the Arkansas Groundwater Protection and Management Act allows for regulation, the ANRC has chosen to address critical groundwater areas with education and voluntary efforts such as state income tax credits and USDA financial incentive programs, such as EQIP, which are administered by the federal agency, the Natural Resource Conservation Agency (NRCS). Once an area is designated, producers who

convert from ground to surface water use within the area can receive tax credits amounting to 50 percent of project costs through the Water Resource Conservation and Development Incentives Act. Landowners converting to surface water use outside critical areas are limited to a 10 percent credit.

State Income Tax Credits for Groundwater Water Conservation in Critical Areas

Under the authority of ANRC Title 14, state income tax credits ([https://static.ark.org/eeuploads/anrc/title 14.pdf](https://static.ark.org/eeuploads/anrc/title%2014.pdf)) are available for the following practices in critical groundwater decline areas: 1) water

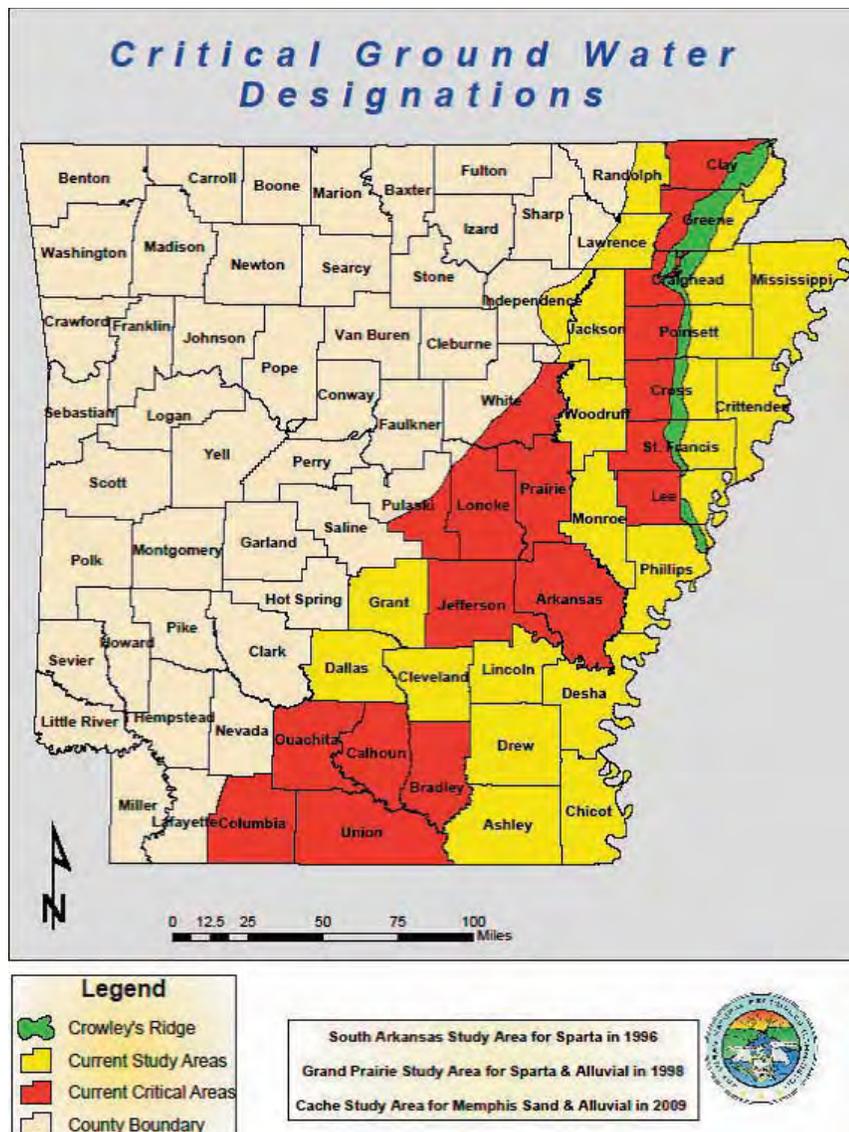


Figure 10-7. A map depicting Critical Groundwater Areas in Arkansas. Courtesy of Arkansas Natural Resources Commission.

impoundment (reservoir) construction that creates water storage of 20 acre-feet or more with a tax credit not to exceed the lesser of 50 percent of the project cost incurred or \$90,000, 2) substitution of surface water for groundwater as an irrigation source with a tax credit not to exceed the lesser of 50 percent of the project cost incurred or \$27,000, 3) Precision Land Leveling with a tax credit not to exceed the lesser of 50 percent of the project cost incurred or \$27,000, and 4) water metering.

It should be noted that the maximum tax credit for a single year is \$9,000 but that credits can be spread over a maximum of nine consecutive years. Also, applications must be approved before any installation activities occur, with the exception of metering, or eligibility is forfeited. Additionally, a taxpayer qualifying for the tax credits provided under this program is entitled to a deduction in an amount equal to the project cost less the total amount of credits to which the taxpayer is entitled. For eligibility requirements, forms and more details, contact ANRC at <http://www.anrc.arkansas.gov/> or (501) 682-1611.

Federal Soil and Water Conservation Financial Incentive Programs

Several water conservation practices are available for rice growers through USDA and the Natural Resources Conservation Service under the Conservation Title of the farm bill. One such program is the Environmental Quality Incentives Program or EQIP. One of the nine primary issues being addressed through EQIP is water quantity and irrigation in critical groundwater areas. A list of the 2013 eligible practices and their associated payment schedule can be found at http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/Internet/FSE_DOCUMENTS/nrcs142p2_034091.pdf.

Underneath the EQIP program is another initiative known as the Agricultural Water Enhancement Program (AWEP) that provides financial incentives to conserve irrigation water and improve runoff water quality (http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/detail/ar/programs/financial/?cid=nrcs142p2_034603). The 2013 general payment schedule for approved practices can be found at http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/Internet/FSE_DOCUMENTS/nrcs142p2_034152.pdf.

A non-farm bill program that provides financial incentive for water conservation is the Mississippi

Healthy River Basin Initiative, or MRBI (http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/detail/ar/programs/landscape/?cid=nrcs142p2_034795). This program is administered by NRCS and adds non-farm bill dollars to the EQIP program in watersheds where conservation partners have applied for these dollars through a competitive selection process. Arkansas has several MRBI project areas (Figure 10-8).

Signup for these programs is continuous and involves an application process with applications being selected through an annual ranking process. For more information about these programs, contact your local USDA Service Center or visit <http://www.nrcs.usda.gov/wps/portal/nrcs/site/ar/home/>.

Surface Water Storage and Water Reuse

A surface collection and irrigation storage system is a planned, systematic irrigation system that allows for the collection, storage, control, movement and reuse of runoff water from previous irrigation or storm water runoff events. The NRCS offers financial assistance via the MRBI and EQIP programs to design and install a system.

The ability to capture, store and reuse irrigation water on farm offers many advantages including:

- Greater control and flexibility of water supply for irrigation.
- Reduced groundwater dependence and energy costs from pumping.
- Reduced off-farm impacts on water quality by capturing sediment and nutrient losses in runoff.

The main disadvantages of developing on-farm collection and surface storage are the large capital investment required for construction and taking land out of production. However, the tax credit and financial incentive programs described above can help defer costs.

While the surface water collection and storage systems may have a unique design for each different farm, they may have some common elements including an irrigation reservoir, tailwater recovery ditches, conveyance ditches or underground pipeline, pumping stations and irrigation risers. For example, a surface collection and storage system designed and cost-shared by

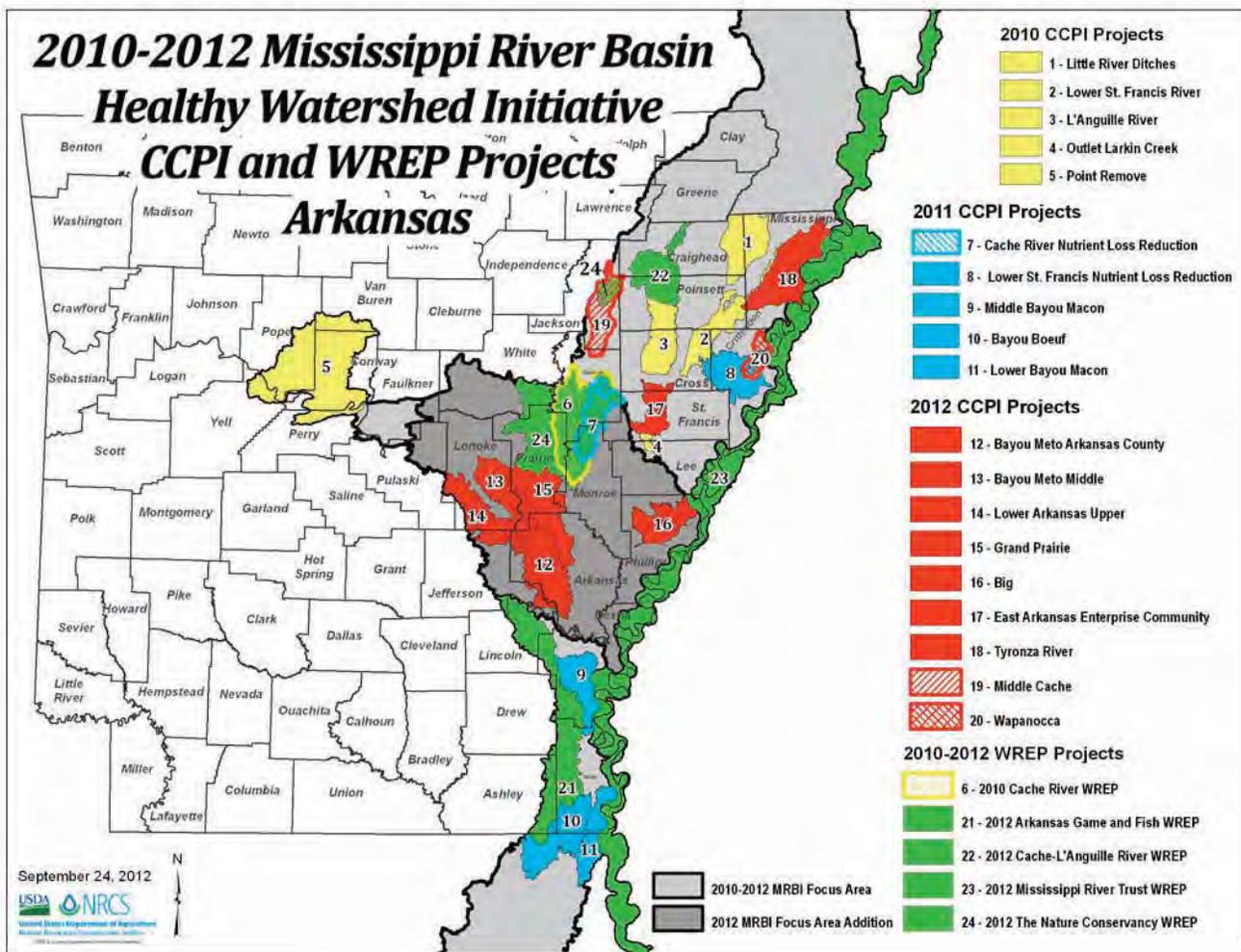


Figure 10-8. Location of Mississippi Healthy River Basin Initiative (MRBI) project areas in Arkansas. Courtesy of NRCS.

NRCS would include several individual conservation practices linked together as a package:

- A drainage or tailwater recovery ditch at the bottom of a field, Practice Code 447 (Photo 10-5)
- Surface drainage piping, main and laterals, Practice Code 608
- Conveyance ditches from recovery pit to storage reservoir, Practice Code 607
- Storage reservoir, Practice Code 436 (Photo 10-6)
- Pumping plants, Practice Code 533
- Irrigation pipeline, Practice Code 430

These components may include but are not limited to ditches, culverts, pipelines, water control and/or grade stabilization structures, or other erosion control measures, as needed. The NRCS offers technical assistance in the design of surface water collection storage systems, and their financial assistance programs allow for the cost-share of all these components.



Photo 10-5. Photo 10-5. A typical tailwater recovery ditch.



Photo 10-6. An on-farm irrigation reservoir constructed with financial assistance through the EQIP program. Courtesy of NRCS.

Irrigation water stored in on-farm reservoirs has four main sources including:

- Precipitation harvesting
- Water reuse from tailwater recovery ditches that capture runoff from irrigation and precipitation
- Relift from streams, bayous and rivers for riparian right owners
- Purchase of irrigation water from irrigation districts

Keys to Water Management Success

- Keep acreage within the limits of pumping capacity.
- Select fields that hold water adequately.
- Establish a smooth field surface that provides a good seedbed, drainage and water control.
- Contact your county Extension office for water quality testing if there is no recent history.
- Use multiple inlet irrigation on fields to improve water management and adjust levee gates to hold rainwater and act as overflow when levees are full.
- Be certain of accurate levee survey, proper levee construction and correct gate installation.
- Survey levees on 0.2-foot intervals when possible.
- Establish a levee base as early as possible (before seeding) on clay soils.
- Where choices exist, attempt to seed longer-season cultivars on fields with good water-holding capacity.
- Service and check out the pumping plant before the pumping season to prevent costly pumping delays and in-season repairs.
- Carefully analyze differences in energy costs. Select and use another energy source where economically justified. Use a meter in conjunction with electric and fuel bills to determine the cost of water for each pump. Use this information to service pumps or make changes to pumping plants.
- Choose the electric rate structure best suited for specific pumping situations. Cost savings are available for irrigation systems that can withstand peak load shutdowns (two to five hours per day).
- Work with equipment dealers on proper pump bowl selection, motor matching and operation of pumping plants. Improper pump selection and power unit selection can increase pump costs by two to three times. New pump installations should be within 80 percent of the Nebraska Pump Standards.
- Consider use of timers or pump control technology to manage irrigation pumps. Pump monitors are available to control pumps and document pump performance.
- Use a flow meter to measure water use. Using more than 19 inches on zero-grade fields and 32 inches on contour and straight levees may indicate a problem.
- Replace ditch and canal water delivery systems with pipe or tubing when possible.
- Flush if necessary for stand establishment or weed control.
- Maintain a shallow flood of 2 to 4 inches from beginning tillering until two weeks prior to harvest. For cultivars susceptible to rice blast disease, flood to a depth of 4 to 6 inches after midseason. Consider ceasing pumping on the field in preparation for harvest 14 days after heading if there is an adequate flood on the field to prevent drought stress during grain fill.
- Drain or allow to dry down if necessary for straighthead, scum or possible rice water weevil control.
- Aim to operate irrigation system so that no water leaves the field during pumping events and small rain events.
- Consider the use or conversion to surface water for irrigation. A decrease in pumping cost may be realized.

Critical Water Management Situations

Situation	Rice Stage	Recommended Practice or Precautions
After dry-seeding, no moisture for germination.	Rice not germinated.	Flush as quickly as possible, being sure surface water does not stand for more than 2 days. Use multiple water inlets if possible to reduce flush time.
Soil surface is crusted.	Rice germinated but not emerged.	Flush to soften crust before rice emerges or lose their penetrating power.
Residual herbicides have been applied, soil surface has become dry, weeds are germinating.	Rice has germinated and may be emerged.	Flush to activate herbicides.
Barnyardgrass has become drought stressed and is less than 4-leaf.	Rice may or may not be emerged.	Flush and apply herbicide before grass gets too large.
Barnyardgrass has become drought stressed and is less than 4-leaf.	Rice may or may not be emerged.	Flush and apply herbicide before grass gets too large.
Barnyardgrass has become too large, drought stressed or was not controlled.	Rice is 6" to 8" tall.	Flood, treat with Clincher, Ricestar or Regiment and maintain flood.
Seedling rice has tipburn and dying before flooding (salinity injury).	Rice has emerged but may be less than 8" tall.	Dilute the salts by flushing and don't let soil surface dry.
Rice has turned chlorotic within 2 to 4 days after flooding (high pH, Zn deficiency).	Rice is 6" to 10" tall.	Drain immediately, apply zinc and, after recovery, add N; reflood to shallow depth.
History of straighthead.	Rice is about 2 to 3 weeks prior to internode movement. (Consider DD50 drying time frame.)	Drain before DD50 first drying date to allow the soil to dry thoroughly until rice plants are drought stressed; then reflood, preferably before ½-inch internode elongation.
Not enough water; severe drought stress.	Rice can be in various stages.	Flush over quickly, then close gates and raise flood to desired depth as water becomes available.
Nitrogen applied on dry soil.	Rice is 3 weeks old.	Flood as soon as possible but within 7 days to place N below soil surface.
Nitrogen applied into flood.	Rice is at internode elongation.	Prefer flood to be low with little water movement. Delay pumping for 24 hours after N application.
Sprangletop or large barnyardgrass.	Rice is tillering to internode elongation (IE) stage.	Apply Clincher into floodwater. Flood must be maintained for suppression.
Drought, pumping flow rate is low.	Rice near heading.	Use multiple inlets; clean out algae in flow pattern to ensure sufficient water as heads emerge.
Preparation for harvest	Rice is about 10 to 14 days after heading; heads beginning to drop and some heads beginning to ripen.	Consider ceasing pumping on field in preparation for harvest 10 to 14 days after heading if there is an adequate flood on the field that would prevent drought stress during grain fill. However, if temperatures are exceedingly hot, then continue pumping 5 to 7 days.

Acknowledgement

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