
Studies on the effect of fertilizer application and crop rotation on the weed infested fields in Iran

A. Rahnavard¹, Z.Y.Ashrafi^{2*}, H.M. Alizade² and S. Sadeghi²

¹Department of Medicinal Plants, Islamic Azad University Tonekabon Branch, Iran.

²Agronomy College, University of Tehran, Iran.

Rahnavard, A., Ashrafi, Z.Y., Alizade, H.M. and Sadeghi, S. (2009). Studies on the effect of fertilizer application and crop rotation on the weed infested fields in Iran. *Journal of Agricultural Technology* 5(1): 41-50.

The effects of management practices on crop growth and yields may or may not be mediated through crop-weed interaction. The research was conducted during 2006 and 2007 at the long-term experimental site of the Department of Agronomy and Experimental Methods, agriculture campus, University of Tehran, Karaj to determine the effects of crop rotation and mineral fertilizers on crop grain yield and weed density. Long-term experience includes continuous of culture – winter rye, potato, barley, clover, flax and fallow, initiated since and crop rotation, included above crops since 1967. The six treatments consists of various combinations of fertilizer: N, P, K, NPK and the control with no fertilizer application as control under weedy and weed free conditions. Results indicated that weed density was reduced by 3 times in rotational cropping than sole cropping for both winter rye and barley. Weed dry matter was also reduced 13 and 4 times, respectively, in winter rye and barley in rotational cropping than sole cropping. Application of nitrogen and NPK fertilizers reduced weed density and dry weight, while in barley the reduction in weed density and dry weight was only occurred when NPK was applied. Crop yield was higher in rotational cropping than sole cropping.

Key words: Crop rotation, mineral fertilizers, weed density, winter rye (*Secale cereale* L.), spring barley (*Hordeum vulgare* L.)

Introduction

In recent years, concerns over the environmental effects, economic costs and long-term efficacy of conventional weed management systems have led a growing number of farmers and scientists to seek alternative systems that are less reliant on herbicides and more reliant on ecological approaches. Herbicide expenditures typically comprised 10 to 20% of input costs for producers (Labrada, 2003). Therefore, efforts to reduce reliance on herbicides while maintaining crop yield can have a large positive impact on net return. Production systems are being developed to give crops a competitive advantage over weeds,

*Corresponding author: Zoheir.Y.Ashrafi; e-mail: z.y.ashrafi@gmail.com

minimize weed density as crops establish, and keep weed communities out of equilibrium to reduce the long-term buildup of troublesome weed species (Daspehov, 1967; Hume, 1982; Peterson and Nalewaja, 1992; Derksen *et al.*, 1993; Gill and Arshad, 1995; Tomaso, 1995; Tabachnik and Fidell, 1996).

Crop rotations have many benefits that can influence the success of crop production enterprises. Crop rotation is an essential practice in sustainable agriculture, because of its many positive effects like increasing soil fertility and reducing crop competitiveness. A well-planned crop rotation system can help producers avoid many of the problems associated with weeds, particularly perennial weeds (Daspehov, 1967, Liebman and Elizabeth, 1993, Tabachnik and Fidell, 1996). In fact crop rotation is an effective practice for controlling serious weeds because it affects weed growth and reproduction negatively and as a result reduces weed density (Derksen *et al.*, 1993; Blackshaw *et al.*, 1994). In addition, Forcella and Lindstrom (1988) reported that after seven to eight years of weed management the number of weed seeds was about six times greater in continuous crop than in a rotated system. Another benefit of crop rotation may be associated with a smaller chance of selecting troublesome weeds, because crop rotation also determines herbicide application and these two factors can interact to affect weed species (Ball, 1992). Therefore, the practice of rotating crops and herbicides has proved to be successful in influencing weed populations and improving crop production (Walker and Buchanan, 1982), and due to increased attention paid to agroecosystem biodiversity, adopting weed management strategies that promote weed species diversity could be encouraged (Clements *et al.*, 1994). Results of a literature survey (234 references) indicate that weed population density and biomass production may be markedly reduced using crop rotation (temporal diversification) and intercropping (spatial diversification) strategies. Crop rotation resulted in emerged weed densities in test crops that was lower in 21 cases, higher in 1 case, and equivalent in 5 cases in comparison to continuous crop systems. Growers experience has shown that changing tillage practices without increasing crop diversity within rotations has generally led to increased weed problems, especially in sole cropping systems (Liebman and Robichaux, 1990). Many studies in long-term experienced at the Academy of Timiriazev had shown that continuous crop increased infestation of fields by weeds 2 – 3 times (Daspehov, 1967; Gruzdev and Satarov, 1969; Tulikov, 1982). Tulikov and Sugrbov (1984) and Daspehov (1967) found that crop rotation decreased weed density and their dried mass 2–3 and 3–4 times, respectively. Ghosheh and Al-Hajaj (2004) found that crop rotation decreased *Hordeum marinum* density and dry matter and weed seed in barley. Marengo and Santos (1999) found that hyacinth bean and especially velvet bean populations in rice reduced when followed by cowpea.

The success of rotation systems for weed suppression appears to be based on the use of crop sequences that create varying patterns of resource competition, allelopathic interference, soil disturbance, and mechanical damage to provide an unstable and frequently inhospitable environment that prevents the proliferation of a particular weed species (Ugen *et al.*, 2002). The relative importance and most effective combinations of these weed control tactics have not been adequately assessed. In addition, the weed-suppressive effects of other related factors, such as manipulation of soil fertility dynamics in rotation sequences, need to be examined. Crop competitiveness can be improved through selective fertilization. The importance of inorganic fertilizers in crop productivity is well recognized. Numerous studies have shown that crop yields improved following the application of nutrients to soil, particularly nitrogen (N), potassium (K), and phosphorus (P) (Tulikov *et al.*, 1986; Dusky *et al.*, 1996; Dhima and Eleftherohorinos, 2001). However, while nutrients clearly promote crop growth, many studies have shown that fertilizers benefit weeds more than crops and following the application of fertilizers increased weed density and their biomass (Alkamper, 1976; Jeangros and Nosberger, 1990; Legere *et al.*, 1994; Santos *et al.*, 1998). Certain weed species have a lower optimal rate of N fertilizer than crops, giving weeds a competitive advantage in some situations (Tabachnik and Fidell, 1996). In many situations, particularly those with higher weed densities, added nutrients favors weed growth, often providing little added benefit in crop yield. For example, Carlson and Hill (1986) found that the addition of N fertilizer in a wheat field infested by wild oat (*Avena fatua* L.) increased the density of wild oat panicles and decreased the crop grain yield.

Ugen *et al.* (2002) found that added N and P reduced early growth and the relative competitiveness of bean for nutrients, but K application caused in bean to be more competitive. Evanylo and Zehnder (1989) reported increased competitiveness of beans with weeds with K application. Sindel and Michael (1992) observed in the increased of competitive ability for the weedy fireweed (*Senecio madagascariensis*) in a pasture with N and P application, whereas weed growth was not increased with K application. Many short-term experiments have shown how crop rotation and mineral fertilizers affect weed communities, crop-weed interactions, and crop growth and yield. However, little is known about their combined effects in long-term experiments. The objective of this study was to determine the effects of rotation and fertilizer, and their interactions on crop yield and weeds density.

Materials and methods

The research was conducted during 2006 and 2007 at the long-term experimental farm of the Department of Agronomy and Experimental Methods

University of University of Tehran, Karaj that was initiated in 1926. The soil type was podsols. Monthly mean 30-years average temperature and rainfall during vegetative period were recorded in a meteorological site near the experimental station (Fig.1). Long-term experience included continuous culture – winter rye, potato, barley (before 1984 oat grown), clover, flax and fallow, and 6-yr crop rotation: winter rye, potato, barley + clover, clover and flax. Weed communities occurring in plots of two of these crops were examined (winter rye and barley). The five treatments consisted of various fertilizers: N, P, K and NPK, and the control with no fertilizer added (St). The fertilizers were broadcast before planting at 100 kg N ha⁻¹ as ammonium nitrate, 150 kg P₂O₅ ha⁻¹ as triple super phosphate, and 120 kg K ha⁻¹ as potassium chloride. The fertilizers were immediately incorporated into the soil. Individual plot size was 50 m² (10 by 5). Vockhod-2 winter rye was planted on 23 August 2005 and 25 August 2006, and spring barley was planted on 3 May 2004 and 19 May 2005. Winter rye and spring barley were drilled in 15 cm rows at 6 and 5.5 million plants ha⁻¹, respectively. Immediately after seeding three permanent quadrates were staked in each plot, each quadrate measuring 50×50 cm. Just prior to herbicide application, quadrates were covered with polyethylene boxes to prevent herbicide drift. The boxes were removed immediately after spraying.

Weed density was counted at full tillering and wax maturity stages in permanent quadrates. At wax maturity weeds were cut at ground level, counted, oven dried at 105°C and weighed. The crops yields were determined by standard methodology from same three quadrates (Vasilev *et al.*, 2004).

Data for rye and barley parameters were normally distributed, therefore standard errors were calculated from the univariate ANOVA of the raw data and the central tendencies were described with the mean (SPSS, 1998). Weed dry weight data were transformed (natural logarithm) prior to analysis. Abnormal weed data distributions required the use of the median as an indicator of central tendency and the SE from the ANOVA of transformed (natural logarithm) data as an indicator of precision (Tabachnik and Fidell, 1996). All analyses were conducted for individual years because weed density and dry weight varied considerably among years due to the wide range of environmental conditions (Fig. 1).

Results and discussion

Long-term effects of crop rotation and mineral fertilizer application on weed density

Weed species most commonly found in continuous crop winter rye included *Viola arvensis* L., *Capsella bursa-pastoris* L., *Centaurea cyanus* L., *Matricaria inodora* L., *Equisetum arvense* L., and in continuous crop spring

barley were *Raphanus raphanistrum* L., *Galeopsis speciosa* Mill., *Spergula vulgaris* L., *Matricaria inodora* L., *Equisetum arvense* L., and *Poa annua* L. was the most dominant weed species at both rotations.

Weed density and dry weight were significantly higher in continuous crop fields compared to rotational cropping (Fig. 2 and Table 2). Results showed a positive role at crop rotation in reduction of weed density and dry weight at both crops and two years that coordinated with the other researches results (Daspehov, 1967; Liebman and Dyck, 1993). As shown in Fig. 2 (A and B), weed density at full tillering stage in crop rotation winter rye and barley are 4.8 and 2.8 times lower than in continuous cropping of the same crops and at the wax maturity stage are 2 and 3.8 times lower than in continuous cropping of the same crops, respectively.

The negative effect of crop rotation on abundance of weeds may be due to the inhibitory effect of residues of the previous crops on weed seeds germination, through releasing allelochemicals, shading effects or acting as a physical barrier impeding weed seedlings development. The reduction in weed competitiveness due to crop rotation observed in this experiment is in agreement with other investigations in which cropping sequence reduced weed density (Liebman and Elizabeth, 1993, Blackshaw *et al.*, 1994).

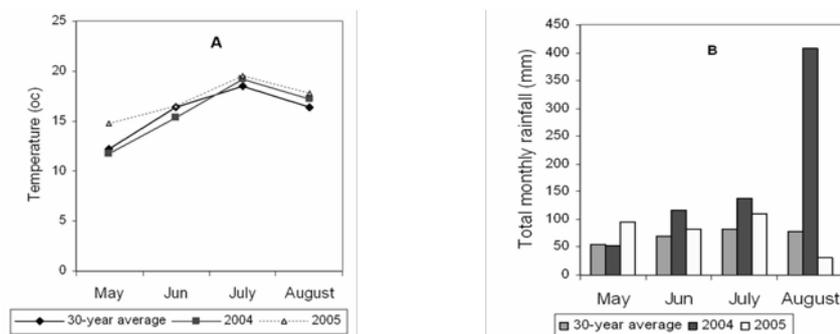


Fig. 1. Monthly means temperature and total rainfall for experimental area for 2006 and 2007, and 30-years average.

Tables 1 and 2 illustrates the long-term effects of crop rotation and mineral fertilizers on weed density and dry weight. In continuous crops, mineral fertilizers application influenced weed density at both stages. In both years, total weed density in continuous crop winter rye and spring barley at both stages was the highest when P was applied (Table 1). In 2005 with P application weed density at both stages in continuous crop winter rye were recorded 440 and 477 plants at m-2, respectively, but in 2005, where rainfall was lower and temperature higher P application increased weed density to 636 and 523 plants m-2 at the first and second sampling stages, respectively. Dusky *et al.* (1996) observed increased growth of lettuce (*Lactuca sativa* L.) and spiny

amaranth (*Amaranthus spinosus* L.) with P application, but spiny amaranth became relatively more competitive where P was applied with a relative crowding coefficient that was three times that of lettuce.

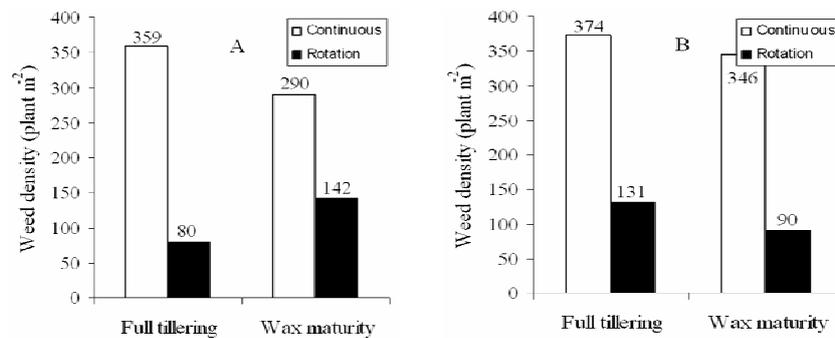


Fig. 2. Long-term effects of crop rotation on total weed density (plants m⁻²) at full tillering and wax maturity stages in winter rye (A) and spring barley (B) in 2005 and 2006 (Karaj).

In continuous crop winter rye, N application reduced weed density and dry weight at both growth stages, compared to control (Table 1). These reductions were greater in 2005 where environmental conditions were favorable to crop competition with weed. Weed density reduction at full tillering in 2005 was 1.8 times compared to 6% in 2006. This may be due to drier and warmer weather in 2006. ICARDA (1984) researchers in Syria, working in a Mediterranean-type climate, showed that there was a strong interaction between weed control and nitrogen fertilization at wetter sites having severe weed infestations. No nitrogen response was obtained in the drier sites.

In contrast, long-term N application in continuous spring barley not only reduce weed density and dry weight but also increased them at both phenological stages (Tables 1 and 2). Only in 2005 growing season, nitrogen application reduced weed density by 22 % at full tillering stage compared to control (Table 1).

In 2005, N application significantly increased weed density in continuous spring barley, where weed density increased 46% and about two times at full tillering and wax maturity stages, respectively, compared to control. Everaarts (1992) reported that N and P, but not K, application stimulated weeds growth on a sandy loam soil. Similarly, Ugen *et al.* (2002) found greater weeds growth in non-weeded beans crop with N and P application.

In continuous winter rye K application had not significantly affected abundance weed at full tillering stage, but at wax maturity stage, reduced weed density (Table 1). Crop rotation significantly reduced weed dry weight in the both crops (Table 2). Reduction weed dry weight in the crop rotation, in winter

rye as compared to continuous cropping was greater with P application than other treatments.

Table 1. Long-term effects of crop rotation and mineral fertilizers on total weed density at full tillering and wax maturity stages in winter rye and spring barley (Average 2004 and 2005) (Moscow).

Fertilizer	Full tillering				Wax maturity			
	2005		2006		2005		2006	
	No rotation	Rotation	No rotation	Rotation	No rotation	Rotation	No rotation	Rotation
Winter rye								
St	354	117	356	41	269	96	406	226
N	193	80	337	52	73	33	255	202
P	440	91	636	52	477	115	523	140
K	355	71	354	65	211	145	296	219
NPK	230	112	331	117	156	45	238	197
95 % C.I ±	49.7	35.2	116.8	40.4	40.3	43.7	92.5	83.3
Spring barley								
St	410	135	385	313	346	118	188	169
N	319	175	457	350	504	50	400	210
P	435	113	492	243	616	121	436	171
K	443	108	452	224	412	85	243	158
NPK	142	124	202	237	92	75	228	151
95 % C.I ±	66.9	12.6	119.6	13.7	76.4	6.3	97.1	7.2

Long-term effect crop rotation and mineral fertilizer application on grain yield

Crop rotation greatly increased crops grain yield, especially spring barley (Fig. 3). This increment was higher in 2006. Stevenson *et al.* (1998) found that barley grain yield was 23 % higher in barley-forage crop rotation than in its continuous.

Winter rye grain yield was 130 and 57% higher in rotational cropping system when followed by fallow than the sole cropping in 2005 and 2006, respectively (Fig. 3). The lower increment in winter rye grain yield in 2005 was due to lower rainfall during grain filling period. The observed yield increment may be attributed to the effects of fallow on soil water reserve also to its negative effect on weed density compared to sole cropping system.

In 2005, spring barley grain yield in rotational cropping was 3.4 times greater than in the continuous, but not in 2006 due to higher weed infestation. Liebmen and Robichaux (1990) reported that barley yield loss due to competition by weed phenological was greater the in the seasons with the least rainfall during the vegetation period.

Table 2. Effects of crop rotation and fertilizers on dried weed biomass at maturing stage of winter cereal and spring barley in long-term experimental field in Karaj in 2005 and 2006.

Fertilizer	2005		2006		Means	
	No rotation	Rotation	No rotation	Rotation	No rotation	Rotation
Winter rye						
St	70.6	4.6	161.2	9.2	116.9	6.8
N	20.2	4.4	194.0	13.8	107.1	9.1
P	212.1	13.5	300.7	26.5	256.4	20.1
K	68.8	5.6	156.8	30.5	112.8	18.0
NPK	53.8	13.3	250.8	18.3	162.8	15.8
95 % C.I ±	15.4	1.5	83.3	50.1	38.9	8.0
Spring barley						
St	95.0	48.5	146.0	121.4	84.10	84.95
N	334.0	38.8	322.1	137.5	248.80	88.15
P	154.4	52.1	235.3	98.4	153.55	75.25
K	88.7	56.6	96.1	71.8	70.35	64.20
NPK	84.4	13.0	274.8	76.7	111.65	44.85
95 % C.I ±	67.9	5.8	88.7	10.4	32.3	11.7

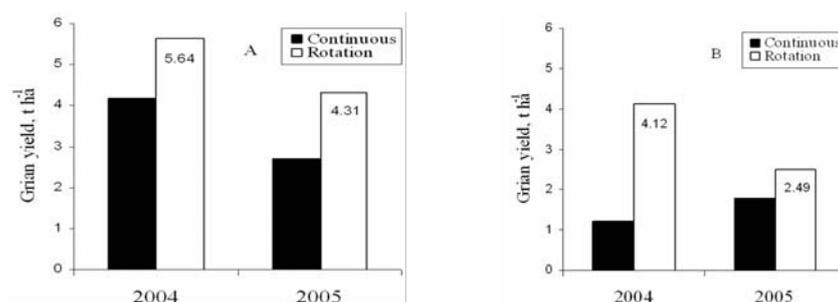


Fig. 3. Long-term effects of crop rotations on grain yield (t ha⁻¹) winter rye (A) and spring barley (B) in 2004 and 2005 (Karaj).

The long-term mineral fertilizers application increased grain yield. This increment was lower in 2004, especially under N application. The reduction can be attributed to higher weed infestation and low rainfall in 2006.

In continuous spring barley N application significantly reduced grain yield. These results agreed with that of Carlson and Hill (1986) and Dhima and Eleftherohorinos (2001), who found that nitrogen application increased competitive ability of weeds and consequently decreased wheat grain yield. Grain yield of winter rye and spring barley had not shown response to P and K application. In continuous winter rye response of grain yield to NPK application similar with N application but in spring barley the highest grain yield reached in NPK treatment. In crop rotation, especially in 2005 season differences between responses of grain yield to fertilizer treatments was reduced.

References

- Alkamper, J. (1976). Influence of weed infestation on effect of fertilizer dressings. *Pflanzen.-Nachr. Bayer.* 29: 191-235.
- Ball, D.A. (1992). Weed seedbank response to tillage, herbicides, and crop rotation sequence. *Weed Science* 40: 654-659.
- Blackshaw, R.E., Larney, F.O., Lindwall, C.W. and Kozub, G.C. (1994). Crop rotation and tillage effects on weed populations on the semi-arid Canadian prairies. *Weed Technology* 8: 231-237.
- Carlson, H.L. and Hill, J.E. (1986). Wild oat (*Avena fatua*) competition with spring wheat: effects of nitrogen fertilization. *Weed Science* 34: 29-33.
- Clements, D.R., Welse, S.F. and Swanton, C.J. (1994). Integrated weed management and weed species diversity. *Phytoprotec.* 75: 1-18.
- Daspehov, B.A. (1967). Effects of long-term application fertilizers and crop rotation on infestation fields. *Izvestia TCXA.* 3: 51-65.
- Derksen, D.A., Lafond, G.P., Thomas, A.G., Loepky, H.A. and Swanton, C.J. (1993). Impact of agronomic practices on weed communities: tillage systems. *Weed Science* 41: 409-417.
- Dhima, R.V. and Eleftherohorinos, I.G. (2001). Influence of nitrogen on competition winter cereals and sterile oat. *Weed Science* 49: 77-82.
- Dusky, J.A., Shreffler, J.W., Shilling, D.G., Brecke, B.J., Colvin, D.L., Sanchez, C.A. and Stall, W.M. (1996). Influence of phosphorus fertility on competition between lettuce and *Amaranthus spinosus* L. *Proc. 2th Intl'. Weed Control Congress, Denmark*, pp. 141-145.
- Evanylo, G.K. and Zehnder, G.W. (1989). Common Ragweed interference in Snap Beans at various soil potassium levels. *Applied Agricultural Research* 4: 101-105.
- Everaarts, A.P. (1992). Response of weed to application of nitrogen, phosphorus and potassium on low- fertility acid soils in Suriname. *Weed Research* 32: 385-390.
- Forcella, F. and Lindstrom, M. J. (1998). Weed seed populations in ridge and conventional tillage. *Weed Science* 36: 500-504.
- Ghosheh, H.Z. and Al-Hajaj, N.A. (2004). Impact of soil tillage and crop rotation on barley (*Hordeum vulgare*) and weeds in a semi-arid environment. *Journal of Agronomy & Crop Science* 190: 374-381.
- Gill, K.S. and Arshad, M.A. (1995). Weed flora in early growth period of spring crops under conventional, reduced, and zero tillage systems on a clay soil in northern Alberta, Canada. *Soil & Tillage Research* 33: 65-79.
- Gruzdev, G.C. and Satarov, A.V. (1969). Effects of fertilizer application on weed in spring cereals. *Agrochemistry* 12: 8-9.
- Hume, L. (1982). Long-term effect of fertilizer application and three rotations on weed communities in wheat (after 21-22 years at Indian Head, Saskatchewan). *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 62:741-750.
- ICARDA. (1984) International Center for Agricultural Research in the Dry Areas. Aleppo Syria, C. 6 – 68.
- Jeanros, B. and Nosberger, J. (1990). Effects of an established sward of *Lolium perenne* L. on the growth and development of *Kumexobtus folius* L. seedlings. *Grass and Forage Science* 45: 1-7.
- Labrada, R. (2003). Weed management for developing countries. *FAO, Rome*, 356p.
- Legere, A., Simard, R.R. and Lapierre, C. (1994). Response of spring barley and weed communities to lime, phosphorus and tillage. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 74: 421-428.
- Liebman, M. and Elizabeth, D. (1993). Crop rotation and intercropping strategies for weed management. *Ecolo. Appl.* 3: 92-122.

- Liebman, M. and Dyck, E. (1993). Crop rotation and intercropping strategies for weed management. *Ecol. Appl.* 3:92-122.
- Liebman, M. and Robichaux, R.H. (1990). Competition by barley and pea against mustard: Effects on resource acquisition, photosynthesis and yield. *Agriculture Ecosystems and Environment* 31: 155-172.
- Loepky, H.A. and Derksen, D.A. (1991). Quackgrass suppression through crop rotation in conservation tillage systems. *Canadian Journal of Plant Science* 83:24 - 29.
- Marengo, R.A. and Santos, M.B. (1999). Crop rotation reduced weed competition and increased chlorophyll concentration and yield of rice. *Pesq. agropec. bras. Brasília.* 34:1881-1887.
- Moody, K. (1981). Weed-fertilizer interactions in rice. *Int. Rice Res. Inst. (IRRT), Int. Rice Paper Ser. No.68:* 35 p.
- Peterson, D.E. and Nalewaja, J.D. (1992). Environment influences *Setaria viridis* competition with wheat. *Weed Technology* 6: 607-610.
- Peterson, T.A. and Varvel, G.E. (1989). Crop yield as affected by rotation and nitrogen rate. III. *Corn. Agro. J.* 81: 735-738.
- Santos, B., Dusky, J.A., Stall, W.M., Shilling, D.G. and Bewick, T.A. (1998). Phosphorous effects on competitive interactions of smooth pigweed (*Amaranthus hybridus*) and common purslane (*Portulaca oleracea*) with lettuce. *Weed Science* 46: 307-312.
- Sindel, B.M. and Michael, P.W. (1992). Growth and competitiveness of *Senecio madagascariensis* Poir. (Fireweed) in relation to fertilizer use and increases in soil fertility. *Weed Research* 32: 399-406.
- SPSS Inc. (1998). SPSS for Windows, Version 9. User manual. SPSS Inc. Chicago. IL.
- Stevenson, F. C., Legere, A., Simard R. R., Angers, D. A., Pageau, D. and Lafond, J. (1998). Manure, tillage and crop rotation: Effects on residual weed interference in spring barley cropping systems. *Agron. J.* 90: 496-504.
- Tabachnik, B.G. and Fidell, L.S. (1996). Using multivariate statistics. 3rd ed. Harper Collins College. Publ. New York.
- Tomaso, J.M. (1995). Approaches for improving crop competitiveness with annual weeds as affected by soil nutrient availability. *Weed Science* 50: 530-535.
- Tulikov, A.M. (1982). Weed and management. Moscow. Koloss. 155p.
- Tulikov, A.M. and Sugrobov, V.M. (1984). Role of long-term application fertilizer, lime and crop rotation in change infestation field by weeds. *Izvestia TCXA.* 2: 32-36.
- Tulikov, A.M., Kurash, L.M., Kiraev, R.S. and Fralova, T.N. (1986). Yield of barley and infestation fields by weed depending to crop rotation and application fertilizer and herbicides. *Izvestia TCXA.* 5: 26-30.
- Ugen, M.A., Wien, H.C. and Wortmann, C.S. (2002). Dry bean competitiveness with annual weeds as affected by soil nutrient availability. *Weed Science* 50: 530-535.
- Varobev, C.A. (1978). Crop rotation – Important factor reservation soil and environment. *Вестник с.х. Науки.* 11: 37-45.
- Vasilev, I.P., Tulikov, A.M., Bazdirev, G.I., Zaharenko, A.V. and Safonov, A.F. (2004). Practical Agronomy. Moscow. Koloss. 423p.
- Walker, R.H. and Buchanan, G.A. (1982). Crop manipulation in integrated management systems. *Weed Science.* 30: 17-24.

(Received 8 September 2008; accepted 27 March 2009)