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Effect of intensity of agronomic practices on the yield of two breeding types of winter oilseed rape cultivars

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Abstract

The effect of three fungicide treatment programmes and the level of spring nitrogen fertilisation on the seed yield of two types of cultivars of *Brassica napus* L. sown at two different seeding rates was studied in a field experiment carried out in a split-split-plot design. The subject of the study was an open-pollinated cultivar (Casoar) and a restored hybrid cultivar (Visby). Three plant protection programmes, two levels of spring nitrogen fertilisation (160 and 220 kg N·ha⁻¹), and two different seeding rates for each cultivar (Visby—50 and 70 seeds·m⁻²; Casoar—60 and 80 seeds·m⁻²) were included. The most intensive protection programme

24 comprised three fungicide treatments: first in autumn at the six-leaves-unfolded stage—BBCH
25 16, second in spring at the stem elongation stage—BBCH 33, and third at the full flowering
26 stage—BBCH 65. One of two less intensive programmes of plant protection included fungicide
27 application in autumn at the six-leaves-unfolded stage—BBCH 16 and at the full flowering
28 stage—BBCH 65, while the second included fungicide application in spring at the stem
29 elongation stage—BBCH 33 and at the full flowering stage—BBCH 65.

30 The effectiveness of the protection programmes and nitrogen fertilisation was
31 influenced by the intensity of abiotic stress factors. However, the average yield from the plots
32 protected against pathogens was significantly higher than that from the untreated plots. The
33 increase of nitrogen fertilisation from 160 to 220 kg·ha⁻¹ also caused significant increase of
34 average seed yield. The yield of cultivar Visby was higher and less dependent on the seeding
35 rate compared to cultivar Casoar. Cultivars responded similarly to plant protection programmes
36 and the rate of nitrogen fertilisation in spring. Higher yields of Visby cultivar can be attributed
37 to the higher number of seeds per silique and the higher number of siliques per m².

38

39 **Introduction**

40 Crop yields are shaped by advances in breeding progress, which result in varieties with
41 favourable properties, and intensification of cultivation treatments. In the northern hemisphere
42 characterised by a cold climate, the only commonly cultivated oilseed crop is oilseed rape
43 (*Brassica napus* L.). The possibility of using oilseed rape in the food [1] and feed [25] industry,
44 as well as in the generation of energy [26], especially biofuels, has significantly contributed to
45 the increase in the cultivation area of this oilseed crop (0.6 million ha·year⁻¹ between 1997 and
46 2017) [7]. Increase of the cultivation area as well as the level of yield of oilseed rape recorded
47 since the early 1990s [9, 45] reflects the interest in rapeseed of the food and feed industry,

48 which was gained after the introduction of the double-improved variety with no erucic acid and
49 reduced glucosinolate, and the energy industry using rapeseed oil in biofuel production. The
50 possibility of growing rapeseed for energy purposes has contributed to the increase in the
51 cultivation area of this oilseed plant, and also to its higher yields obtained in Poland.

52 The sown area and yield of oilseed rape increased, respectively, from 0.4 million ha and
53 2.1 Mg·ha⁻¹ on average during 2001–2003 before Poland's accession to the European Union to
54 0.9 million ha and 3.0 Mg·ha⁻¹ in the years 2014–2016 [32]. Such a significant increase in the
55 area stimulates the demand for high- and stable-yielding cultivars that react efficiently to
56 cultivation treatments and justifies the intensification of production strongly conditioned by
57 economic factors. The yields of oilseed rape are shaped on the one hand by the yield potential
58 of the variety [24], its tolerance/resistance to biotic and abiotic stress [41], and on the other
59 hand by cultivation technology, the aim of which is to provide the most favourable conditions
60 for the development of crops and to limit crop losses. The resistance of cultivars to biotic and
61 abiotic stresses is particularly important. Cultivars that exhibit good tolerance to stressful
62 conditions have a better chance of showing good yield potential because the seasons
63 characterised by unfavourable weather conditions for the development of oilseed rape are not
64 uncommon in Poland. For this reason, one of the objectives of the present research is to
65 understand the adaptive abilities of the types of rapeseed cultivars studied to changing
66 environmental conditions. The working hypothesis assumes the overriding role of cultivars'
67 resistance to abiotic stresses in shaping their yield level. The shortage of precipitation during
68 the stages characterised by the greatest demand for water and low temperatures during winter
69 dormant period, which can be seen frequently in Poland, affecting the development of plants
70 may contribute to a significant decrease in the yield level of rape cultivars. In addition, excess
71 of rainfall can limit the yields, especially in the case of cultivars susceptible to infection,
72 because it induces infections and the spreading of pathogens. An effective way to protect plants

73 from pathogens is fungicide treatment [12, 29, 47]. The dependence of humidity conditions of
74 the oilseed rape canopy on the plant density derived from the amount of seeds sown justifies
75 research into the effectiveness of protection against pathogens at different sowing rates. The
76 constant increase of importance of chemical protection against pathogens in the technology of
77 oilseed rape [42] and the decisive significance of the amount of seeds sown for the yield level
78 confirm the accuracy of the selection of these experimental factors. Moreover, the variability
79 of cultivars' resistance to pathogens [14-15] justifies undertaking research aimed at determining
80 their response to the intensification of this factor of production, although it is rare to find results
81 presenting variation in the yields of cultivars resulting from the intensification of protection
82 [10]. Another factor included in this research mainly due to its stimulating impact on the
83 development and yield of rapeseed [2, 6, 30-31], as well as on infection by pathogens [37], is
84 spring nitrogen fertilisation. Understanding the impact of the intensification of nitrogen
85 fertilisation on the development and yielding of the types of rapeseed cultivars compared here
86 is another goal of the present work. The choice of experimental factors studied in this work was
87 also dictated by their significant role in determining cultivation costs. According to Budzyński
88 and Ojczyk [5], fertilisation and protection account for almost 80% of the cultivation costs of
89 oilseed rape.

90

91 **Materials and methods**

92 The experiment was conducted in 2012–2014 at the Experimental Station of Plant Breeding
93 Smolice Ltd, Co. in Łagiewniki (N 51° 46', E 17° 14'). It was a three-factor type and was laid
94 out in a split-split-plot design with four replications. The main plot factor was the programme
95 of protection against pathogens (Table 1). Three programmes of fungicide application and a
96 control treatment were included in the experiment. The most intensive protection programme
97 comprised three fungicide applications: first in autumn at the six-leaves-unfolded stage—

98 BBCH 16, second in spring at the stem elongation stage—BBCH 33, and third at the full
99 flowering stage—BBCH 65. In addition, two less intensive programmes of plant protection
100 were included: the first one involved fungicide application in autumn at the six-leaves-unfolded
101 stage—BBCH 16 and at the full flowering stage—BBCH 65, while the second involved
102 fungicide application in spring at the stem elongation stage—BBCH 33 and at full flowering
103 stage—BBCH 65. In autumn, metconazole (5-[(4-chlorophenyl)methyl]-2,2-dimethyl-1-(1H-
104 1,2,4-triazol-1-ylmethyl) cyclopentanol) was applied at 60 g·ha⁻¹. At the stem elongation stage,
105 prothioconazole (2-[2-(1-chlorocyclopropyl)-3-(2-chlorophenyl)-2-hydroxypropyl]-1,2-
106 dihydro-3H-1,2,4-triazole-3-thione) was applied at 80 g·ha⁻¹ and tebuconazole (α -(2-(4-
107 chlorophenyl)ethyl)- α -(1,1-dimethylethyl)-1H-1,2,4-triazole-1-ethanol) was applied at 160
108 g·ha⁻¹. At the flowering stage, dimoxystrobin ((α E)-2-[(2,5-dimethylphenoxy)methyl]- α -
109 (methoxyimino)-N-methylbenzeneacetamide) at 100 g·ha⁻¹ and boscalid (2-chloro-N-(4'-
110 chloro[1,1'-biphenyl]-2-yl)-3-pyridinecarboxamide) at 100 g·ha⁻¹ were applied. The subplot
111 factor was the rate of nitrogen fertilisation. Nitrogen fertiliser was applied at two levels: 160
112 and 220 kg N·ha⁻¹. The sub-subplot factor was represented by cultivars sown at different seeding
113 rates; open-pollinated cultivar Casoar was sown at a seeding rate of 60 and 80 seeds·m⁻², while
114 the fertility-restored hybrid cultivar Visby was sown at 50 and 70 seeds·m⁻². The experiment
115 was carried out on proper brown soil formed from heavy clay sand, on light or middle clay, of
116 quality class IIIa and good wheat complex. The winter oilseed rape crops previously cultivated
117 on the soil were rye, lucerne, and spring wheat. The chemical constituents of the soil were as
118 follows: P₂O₅, 221–276 mg·kg⁻¹; K₂O, 135–191 mg·kg⁻¹; Mg, 31–73 mg·kg⁻¹; and N, min 6.6–
119 9.4 mg·kg⁻¹. The pH of the soil ranged from 6.3 to 7.2 when measured using 1 M KCl. Before
120 sowing, the field received 20–25 kg N·ha⁻¹ (ammonium nitrate), 51–80 kg P₂O₅·ha⁻¹ (triple
121 superphosphate), and 105–112 kg K₂O·ha⁻¹ (60% potash salt). Winter oilseed rape was sown
122 with 30-cm row spacing on 26–29 August. Plants on all investigated plots were protected using

123 herbicides and insecticides. The dicotyledonous weeds were controlled with metazachlor (2-
124 chloro-N-(2,6-dimethylphenyl)-N-(1H-pyrazol-1-ylmethyl)acetamide) at a dose of 999 g·ha⁻¹
125 and quinmerac (7-chloro-3-methyl-8-quinolinecarboxylic acid) at a dose of 249 g·ha⁻¹, and
126 volunteer cereals with herbicide cycloxydim (2-[1-(ethoxyimino)butyl]-3-hydroxy-5-
127 (tetrahydro-2H-thiopyran-3-yl)-2-cyclohexen-1-one) at a dose of 150 g·ha⁻¹. Insects were
128 controlled using lambda-cyhalothrin ((R)-cyano(3-phenoxyphenyl)methyl (1S,3S)-rel-3-((1Z)-
129 2-chloro-3,3,3-trifluoro-1-propenyl)-2,2-dimethylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 6.25 g·ha⁻¹),
130 tiachloprid ((Z)-(3-((6-chloro-3-pyridinyl)methyl)-2-thiazolidinylidene)cyanamide, 6.0 g·ha⁻¹),
131 deltamethrin ((S)-cyano(3-phenoxyphenyl)methyl (1R,3R)-3-(2,2-dibromoethenyl)-2,2-
132 dimethylcyclopropanecarboxylate, 60 g·ha⁻¹), and acetamiprid ((1E)-N-[(6-chloro-3-
133 pyridinyl)methyl]-N'-cyano-N-methylethanimidamide, 24 g·ha⁻¹). Matured plants were
134 harvested without swathing using a small-plot combine harvester on 13, 23, and 15 July in 2012,
135 2013, and 2014, respectively. The plot area to be harvested was 9.6 m².

136 Disease identification and assessment of infection were performed at the ripening stage,
137 when 40–50% of siliques were ripe—BBCH 84 and 85. The percentage of plants showing
138 symptoms of white stem rot caused by *Sclerotinia sclerotiorum* and Phoma stem canker caused
139 by *Leptosphaeria* spp. (anamorph *Phoma lingam*) and the percentage of the surface of silique
140 showing *Alternaria* spot caused by *Alternaria* spp. and grey mould caused by *Botrytis cinerea*
141 were determined. The percentage of plants showing symptoms of disease infection was
142 estimated as mean disease incidence (DI) using the formula:

$$143 \quad DI = AP \times 100 / T,$$

144 where AP is the number of affected plants and T is the total number of examined plants.

145 Stem infection was assessed on all plants on a plot, and silique infection was estimated on 100
146 siliques randomly selected per plot. Disease severity of silique lesions was determined as the
147 percentage of disease-affected area of each silique.

148 The plants were counted per unit area on each plot before and after winter and directly
 149 before harvest. Before the harvest, the number of siliques per plant were counted on 15
 150 consecutive plants on each plot. Number of seeds per silique was determined by counting the
 151 number of seeds in 25 siliques sampled randomly from each plot. Weight of 1000 seeds was
 152 calculated from the weight of 400 seeds taken from the bulk yield samples. Based on the number
 153 of siliques per plant and the number of plants counted directly before harvest, the number of
 154 siliques per unit area was determined. Yield of seeds per plot was adjusted to 13% moisture
 155 content and then converted to Mg·ha⁻¹.

156 The experimental data were compared using an analysis of variance (ANOVA). When
 157 *F*-ratio was significant, the least significant difference was calculated at $P \leq 0.05$ using Tukey's
 158 test. ANOVA was performed using STATISTICA software (StatSoft Inc., 2011).

159 Table 1. Experimental factors and levels in the experiment in split-split plot design

Experimental factor	Symbol	Level
Main plot factor - protection programme (time of application)	A	60 g·ha ⁻¹ metconazole (BBCH 16), 80 g·ha ⁻¹ prothioconazole and 160 g·ha ⁻¹ tebuconazole (BBCH 33), 100 g·ha ⁻¹ dimoxystrobin and 100 g·ha ⁻¹ boscalid (BBCH 65)
		60 g·ha ⁻¹ metconazole (BBCH 16), 100 g·ha ⁻¹ dimoxystrobin and 100 g·ha ⁻¹ boscalid (BBCH 65)
		80 g·ha ⁻¹ prothioconazole and 160 g·ha ⁻¹ tebuconazole (BBCH 33), 100 g·ha ⁻¹ dimoxystrobin and 100 g·ha ⁻¹ boscalid (BBCH 65)
Subplot factor - spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹)	B	160
		220
Sub-subplot factor - cultivars sown at different seeding rates (seeds·m ⁻²)	C	Open pollinated cultivar Casoar sown in 60 seeding rate
		Open pollinated cultivar Casoar sown in 80 seeding rate
		Hybrid cultivar Visby sown in 50 seeding rate
		Hybrid cultivar Visby sown in 70 seeding rate

160

161 **Results**

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163 **Weather conditions and phenological crop development**

164 The growing seasons in which the experiment was conducted differed significantly in
165 meteorological conditions and influenced the phenological development of winter oilseed rape
166 plants (Table 2). The length of the fall growing season ranged from 78 days in 2011 to 94 days
167 in 2012, and total precipitation from 45.8 mm in 2011 to 109.9 mm in 2013. The most
168 unfavourable weather condition in autumn was noted in 2013, when the shortage of
169 precipitation before sowing, the cool and very rainy September and the cool first decade of
170 October, and the stagnation of vegetation at the end of the second decade of November limited
171 the development and the number of plants before winter. As a result of these conditions, oilseed
172 rape plants developed only eight medium-sized leaves before winter, compared to 2011 and
173 2012 when the crop plants developed 12 large-sized leaves before winter and were in very good
174 condition. The mean daily temperature during the winter dormancy was determined at -1.0 °C
175 in 2012–2013 and at 2.9 °C in 2013–2014, while in the coldest decade of winter this parameter
176 ranged from -12.4 °C in 2011–2012 to -5.3 °C in 2012–2013 (Table 2). In 2013 and 2014, the
177 climatic condition during winter were conducive to crop overwintering, while in the coldest
178 decade of 2012, frost reaching -20 °C at night, not accompanied by snowfall did not favour
179 overwintering of oilseed rape plants. Due to the difference in the beginning of vegetation, the
180 length of the spring growing season ranged from 106 days in 2013 to 122 days in 2014. The
181 beginning of vegetation in spring was observed on 16 and 15 March in 2012 and 2014,
182 respectively, while in 2013, on 8 April. Total precipitation was determined at 170 mm in 2012
183 and over 244 mm in 2014. A small amount of precipitation until the full flowering phase in
184 2012 did not favour the production of siliques. In 2013, a similar effect resulted from the late

185 start of vegetation. Water conditions that were much more favourable for the development of
 186 siliques were observed in 2014. However, abundant rainfall during this flowering season was
 187 also conducive to plant infection by *S. sclerotiorum*. The seed harvest was carried out on 13,
 188 23, and 15 July in 2012, 2013, and 2014, respectively.

189

190 Table 2. Fenological development of winter oilseed rape and weatcher conditions (2011-2014)

Parameter	Period	Growing season			
		2011/2012	2012/2013	2013/2014	1957-2014
Number of days	Fall growth	78	94	84	95
	Winter dormacy	121	129	117	125
	Spring growth	119	106	122	99
	flowering	20	28	35	
	Entire growing season	318	329	323	319
Total precipitation (mm) *snowfall	Fall growth	45.8	93.9	109.9	120.7
	The decade of sowing	27.6	56.3	2.5	
	September/first decade of October	18.8/5.0	34.1/9.8	80.7/0.0	42.2/
	Winter dormacy	143.3	171.5	69.6	133.4
	The coldest decade in winter	1.0*	17.3*	20.5*	
	Spring growth	170	213.0	244.4	200.0
	flowering	22.8	48.6	81.7	
Entire growing season	348.1	464.9	423.9	454.1	
Mean daily temperature (°C)	Fall growth	9.6	9.4	9.5	8.8
	September/first decade of October	15.2/12.9	14.5/10.4	12.6/8.4	13.6/
	Winter dormacy	1.0	-1.0	2.9	0.3
	The coldest decade in winter	-12.4	-5.3	-7.9	
	Spring growth	13.8	15.8	13.7	14.1
	flowering	14.7	14.0	12.4	
Entire growing season	7.9	7.2	8.6	7.7	

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193 **Disease control**

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195 The protective programs significantly affected the occurrence of pathogens on the crop (Tabela
196 3). All effectively limited the disease symptoms (Table 4). Moreover, by affecting
197 overwintering of plants and 1000 seed weight significantly affected the yield (Table 5). The
198 average yield of seeds from the plants subjected to protective programmes was significantly
199 higher than that from the unprotected plants by 420–560 kg·ha⁻¹ (Table 6). The effectiveness of
200 plant protection programmes depended on the environmental conditions that shaped the
201 development of plants (Table 7). In the season 2011–2012, significantly higher yields were
202 obtained on plots where plants were protected in autumn compared to the yields on control
203 plots. The autumn treatment of plants with a fungicide with growth-regulating properties
204 contributed to the limitation of plant losses during the winter which resulted in greater number
205 of siliques per m² compared to unprotected plots in autumn. However, in the season 2013–
206 2014, when plant development in the early stages was limited by the precipitation
207 shortage before sowing and relatively low temperatures in September and the first
208 decade of October (Table 2), significantly higher yields were obtained from the plots
209 without the autumn treatment compared to the yields on the control plots. In the season
210 2012–2013, all methods of protection against pathogens significantly prevented the loss of
211 yield. The yield from the protected plots was significantly higher than the yield from the
212 unprotected plots by 420–580 kg·ha⁻¹. None of the remaining experimental factors—cultivars
213 sown at different seeding rates and levels of nitrogen fertilisation—had influence on the yield-
214 protecting effect of fungicide treatment (Table 5).

215 Table 3. Anova *F*-test statistics

Effect	<i>S. sclerotiorum</i>	<i>Leptosphaeria</i> spp.	<i>B. fuckeliana</i>	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.
	Disease incidence (%)		Disease severity (% of disease-affected area of each silique)	
Growing season (Y)	203.75**	3.50*	2.21*	279.98**
Protection programme (time of application) (A)	284.44**	11.91**	2.85*	25.37**
Spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹) (B)	0.08 ns	0.22 ns	0.00 ns	2.24 ns
Cultivars sown at different seeding rates (C)	3.69*	6.09**	1.14 ns	1.16 ns
YXA	2.11 ns	2.16 ns	1.96 ns	2.45 ns
YXB	0.27 ns	0.54 ns	0.43 ns	0.11 ns
YXC	1.66 ns	1.83 ns	1.96 ns	1.45 ns
AXB	0.10 ns	0.68 ns	0.10 ns	1.82 ns
AXC	1.11 ns	1.09 ns	1.02 ns	1.14 ns
BXC	0.82 ns	0.77 ns	0.90 ns	0.34 ns
YXAXB	0.75 ns	0.70 ns	0.53 ns	0.59 ns
YXAXBXC	1.05 ns	0.40 ns	1.06 ns	0.41 ns

216 ns-not significant

217 *Significant P<0.05

218 **Significant P<0.01

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224 Table 4. Significance of differences between mean values of evaluated factors in evaluation of disease symptoms on plants caused by parhogens

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Factor/level	<i>S. sclerotiorum</i>	<i>Leptosphaeria</i> spp.	<i>B. fuckeliana</i>	<i>Alternaria</i> spp.
	Disease incidence (%)		Disease severity (% of disease-affected area of each silique)	
Growing season				
2012	4.2 b ¹	14.0 a	4.46 a	13.9 a
2013	8.0 b	10.3 ab	1.78 b	3.2 b
2014	6.1 ab	7.6 b	4.12 a	4.1 b
Protection programme (time of application)				
BBCH 16 + BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	1.9 b	8.3 b	3.01 b	5.77 b
BBCH 16 + BBCH 33	4.0 b	9.9 b	3.10 b	6.23 b
BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	2.3 b	10.9 b	3.14 b	6.12 b
Control	28.6 a	13.4 a	4.56 a	10.1 a
Spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹)				
160	9.1 a	10.8 a	3.45 a	6.8 a
220	9.2 a	10.5 a	3.45 a	7.4 a
Cultivars sown at different seeding rates				
Casoar 60	9.9 a	8.4 b	3.10 a	6.9 a
Casoar 80	9.9 a	10.3 ab	3.83 a	6.6 a
Visby 50	8.2 b	11.4 ab	3.29 a	7.2 a
Visby 70	8.8 ab	12.5 a	3.61 a	7.6 a

226 ¹ Means with the same letter are not significantly different at P<0.05 according to Tukey's HSD test

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232 Table 5. Anova *F*-test statistics

Effect	Seed yield (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	Plants ·m ⁻²		Overwintering (%)	Plants ·m ⁻² before harvest	Silique·plant ⁻¹	Silique·m ⁻²	Seeds·silique ⁻¹	1000 seed weight (g)
		before winter	after winter						
Growing season (Y)	650.03**	25.94**	84.5**	256.80**	90.90**	154.68**	281.92**	9.71*	23.36**
Protection programme (time of application) (A)	25.16**	0.57 ns	1.34ns	2.92*	1.58 ns	2.88 ns	4.47*	2.43 ns	31.92**
Spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹) (B)	5.70**	1.46 ns	0.84 ns	0.00 ns	0.94 ns	0.54 ns	4.50*	0.01 ns	1.76 ns
Cultivars sown at different seeding rates (C)	140.61**	43.43**	35.09**	71.27**	34.71**	7.73**	11.26**	161.51**	138.96**
YXA	3.93**	0.95 ns	0.84 ns	4.64 **	0.76 ns	0.99 ns	2.58*	1.93 ns	11.16**
YXB	3.12*	2.24 ns	2.10 ns	0.03 ns	2.08 ns	1.16 ns	0.43 ns	1.01 ns	0.99 ns
YXC	37.35**	3.09**	55.67**	60.11**	48.63**	0.37 ns	8.04 **	0.26 ns	0.74 ns
AXB	1.07 ns	0.36 ns	0.76 ns	1.57 ns	0.80 ns	0.97 ns	0.68 ns	0.88 ns	0.96 ns
AXC	1.29 ns	1.27 ns	1.54 ns	1.85 ns	1.77 ns	0.28 ns	1.73 ns	0.88 ns	0.52 ns
BXC	0.59 ns	0.67 ns	1.53 ns	0.63 ns	2.05 ns	0.28 ns	0.34 ns	1.33 ns	0.99 ns
YXAXB	1.90 ns	0.85 ns	1.20 ns	2.61 ns	0.99 ns	1.42 ns	0.91 ns	0.75 ns	0.82 ns
YXAXBXC	0.60 ns	1.09 ns	1.19ns	1.01 ns	1.26 ns	0.25 ns	0.91 ns	1.24 ns	2.09 ns

233 ns-not significant

234 *Significant P<0.05

235 **Significant P<0.01

236 Table 6. Significance of differences between mean values of evaluated factors in evaluation of seed yield, plant overwintering and yield components

Factor/level	Seed yield (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	Plants ·m ⁻²		Overwintering (%)	Plants ·m ⁻² before harvest	Silique·plant ⁻¹	Silique·m ⁻²	Seeds·silique ⁻¹	1000 seed weight (g)
		before winter	after winter						
Growing season									
2011/2012	1.82 c ¹	48.9 ab	24.3 b	53.2 b	23.3 b	99 b	2143 c	21.4 b	5.48 a
2012/2013	5.27 b	57.2 a	56.2 a	98.2 a	55.2 a	91 b	4795 b	22.1 a	5.08 b
2013/2014	6.39 a	30.2 b	28.6 b	95.2 a	28.6 b	236 a	6111 a	22.7 ab	5.31 ab
Protection programme (time of application)									
BBCH 16 + BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	4.63 a	44.6 a	36.2 a	83.4 a	36.1 a	144 a	4448 a	22.4 a	5.29 a
BBCH 16 + BBCH 33	4.73 a	46.3 a	39.3 a	84.2 a	37.6 a	131 a	4408 a	22.6 a	5.36 a
BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	4.59 a	46.3 a	35.5 a	79.7 b	34.5 a	155 a	4547 a	21.5 a	5.34 a
Control	4.17 b	44.5 a	35.5 a	81.4 b	34.7 a	136 a	3995 b	22.0 a	5.17 b
Spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹)									
160	4.47 b	44.8 a	35.9 a	82.2 a	35.3 a	140 a	4202 b	22.1 a	5.28 a
220	4.58 a	46.0 a	36.8 a	82.2 a	36.1 a	144 a	4498 a	22.1 a	5.30 a
Cultivars sown at different seeding rates									
Casoar 60	3.90 c	42.9 b	31.2 b	72.7 b	31.0 b	141 b	3764 b	18.6 b	5.48 a
Casoar 80	4.31 b	55.1 a	39.0 a	73.8 b	38.9 a	118 c	3949 b	19.0 b	5.42 a
Visby 50	4.76 a	37.0 c	33.5 b	91.5 a	32.0 b	166 a	4409 a	25.4 a	5.14 b
Visby 70	5.04 a	46.7 b	41.7 a	90.7 a	40.5 a	142 b	4685 a	25.3 a	5.11 b

237 ¹ Means with the same letter are not significantly different at P<0.05 according to Tukey's HSD

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241 Tabela 7. Significance of differences between mean values of evaluated factors of growing season and protection programme in evaluation of seed
 242 yield, plant overwintering and yield components

Growing season	Protection programme (time of application)	Seed yield (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	Plants ·m ⁻²		Overwintering (%)	Plants ·m ⁻² before harvest	Silique·plant ⁻¹	Silique·m ⁻²	Seeds·silique ⁻¹	1000 seed weight (g)
			before winter	after winter						
2011/2012	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	2.09 ab ¹	47.1 a	25.3 a	59.3 a	26.1 a	105 a	2415 a	21.6 a	5.39 a
	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33	2.18 a	49.0 a	27.6 a	59.1 a	26.3 a	89 a	2398 a	22.1 a	5.53 a
	BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	1.74 bc	52.8 a	22.6 a	45.7 b	20.6 a	109 a	1951 b	21.0 a	5.50 a
	Control	1.66 c	46.9 a	21.8 a	48.6 b	20.4 a	91 a	1806 b	20.9 a	5.49 a
2012/2013	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	5.41 a	56.2 a	55.2 a	98.2 a	54.2 a	93 a	4808 a	21.5 a	5.11 a
	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33	5.47 a	57.5 a	56.5 a	98.2 a	55.5 a	93 a	4861 a	22.8 a	5.15 a
	BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	5.31 a	55.9 a	54.9 a	98.1 a	53.9 a	93 a	4872 a	22.3 a	5.12 a
	Control	4.89 b	59.1 a	58.1 a	98.1 a	57.1 a	84 a	4639 a	22.0 a	4.96 a
2013/2014	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	6.37 ab	30.4 a	28.1 a	92.9 a	28.1 a	235 a	6123 b	23.9 a	5.35 a
	BBCH 16 + BBCH 33	6.54 ab	32.4 a	30.9 a	95.4 a	30.9 a	212 a	5963 b	22.9 a	5.41 a
	BBCH 33 + BBCH 65	6.72 a	30.2 a	28.9 a	95.2 a	28.9 a	262 a	6818 a	21.1 a	5.41 a
	Control	5.95 b	27.6 a	26.6 a	97.3 a	26.6 a	234 a	5541 c	23.0 a	5.06 b

243 ¹ Means with the same letter are not significantly different at P<0.05 according to Tukey's HSD

244 **Rate of nitrogen fertilisation**

245 The increase in the level of nitrogen fertiliser from 160 to 220 kg·ha⁻¹ caused a significant
 246 increase in the average seed yield (Table 6). The effectiveness of nitrogen fertilisation varied
 247 during the years of the study. The nitrogen fertilisation significantly increased the seed yield in
 248 the second and the third season (2012–2013 and 2013–2014) (Table 8). The effectiveness of
 249 nitrogen fertilisation was not influenced neither by cultivars sown at different seeding rates nor
 250 by fungicide treatment (Table 5). The higher yield obtained with 220 kg N·ha⁻¹ can be attributed
 251 to the higher number of siliques per unit area (Table 6). The number of siliques per unit area
 252 was the only yield component that significantly increased with an increase in the rate of nitrogen
 253 fertilisation (220 kg·ha⁻¹). Similar to the yield, this parameter also significantly increased with
 254 the increase in the rate of nitrogen fertilisation in the second and the third experimental cycle
 255 (2012–2013 and 2013–2014) (Table 8).

256 Table 8. Significance of differences between mean values of evaluated factors of growing
 257 season and spring nitrogen fertilization in evaluation of seed yield, plant overwintering and
 258 yield components

Growing season	Spring rate of N fertilizer (kg·ha ⁻¹)	Seed yield (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	Plants m ⁻²		Overwintering (%)	Plants m ⁻² before harvest	Silique plant ⁻¹	Silique m ⁻²	Seeds siique ⁻¹	1000 seed weight (g)
			before winter	after winter						
2011/2012	160	1.93 a ¹	46.9 a	22.7 a	53.0 a	21.8 a	100 a	2060 a	21.6 a	5.47 a
	220	1.90 a	51.0 a	25.9 a	53.4 a	24.9 a	96 a	2225 a	21.2 a	5.48 a
2012/2013	160	5.15 b	57.6 a	56.6 a	98.2 a	55.6 a	84 a	4533 b	22.2 a	5.08 a
	220	5.39 a	56.8 a	55.8 a	98.1 a	54.8 a	98 a	5057 a	22.1 a	5.08 a
2013/2014	160	6.34 b	30.0 a	28.6 a	95.3 a	28.6 a	235 a	6012 b	22.4 a	5.28 a
	220	6.45 a	30.3 a	28.7 a	95.1 a	28.7 a	237 a	6210 a	23.1 a	5.34 a

259 ¹ Means with the same letter are not significantly different at P<0.05 according to Tukey's HSD

260 **Cultivars sown at different seeding rates**

261 The average yield in the 3-year experiment ranged from 1.82 to 6.39 Mg·ha⁻¹ (Table 6). The
 262 highest seed yield was observed in the season with favourable wintering and water conditions
 263 for the stages of flowering and fruit growth (2013–2014), whereas the lowest yield was noticed
 264 in the year with the least favourable conditions for dormancy (2011–2012). Regardless of the
 265 seeding rate, the hybrid cultivar Visby showed the highest average yields (5.04 Mg·ha⁻¹ at 70
 266 seeds·m⁻² and 4.76 Mg·ha⁻¹ at 50 seeds·m⁻²) in the study. The average yield of the open-

267 pollinated cultivar Casoar was more dependent on the seeding rate; a higher yield ($4.31 \text{ Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$)
268 was obtained at the higher seeding rate ($80 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$), whereas lowering the seeding rate to 60
269 $\text{seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ resulted in a yield decrease by $410 \text{ kg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$. The effect of seeding rate on the yield of
270 the assessed cultivars was dependant on the weather conditions during the seasons in which the
271 experiment was conducted (Table 9). In the least favourable conditions for plant development
272 (2011–2012), significant differences in the yields were noted in Visby cultivar sown at different
273 seeding rates ($2.87 \text{ Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ at $70 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ and $2.29 \text{ Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ at $50 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$). However, in the
274 most favourable conditions (2013–2014), significant differences were observed in the yields of
275 Casoar cultivar ($6.54 \text{ Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ at $80 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ and $5.82 \text{ Mg}\cdot\text{ha}^{-1}$ at $60 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$). Moreover, in
276 these conditions, and also in the conditions of the 2012–2013 season, the yields of Casoar
277 cultivar from the plots sown at a higher seeding rate ($80 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) did not differ significantly
278 from the yields of Visby cultivar from the plots sown at 50 and $70 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$.

279 Higher yields of Visby cultivar can be attributed to the higher number of seeds per silique and
280 higher number of siliques per m^2 resulting from the higher number of plants per m^2 before
281 harvest despite the lower seeding rate of $10 \text{ seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$ and the greater compensation ability
282 expressed by the greater number of siliques per plant (Table 6). Average higher number of
283 Visby cultivar plants before harvest observed with the lowest seeding rate resulted from the
284 greater overwintering success of this cultivar in the season with the worst conditions of
285 dormancy. In turn, the higher number of siliques per plant of Visby cultivar was a result of the
286 higher plant height. On average, a Visby cultivar plant was taller than a Casoar cultivar plant
287 by 15 cm (data not shown). Irrespective of the cultivar, an increase in seeding rate (Visby: 50–
288 $70 \text{ pure live seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$; Casoar: $60\text{--}80 \text{ pure live seeds}\cdot\text{m}^{-2}$) decreased the number of siliques per
289 plant and the weight of 1000 seeds. However, significant differences were recorded between
290 the cultivars only in the number of siliques per plant.

291 Table 9. Significance of differences between mean values of evaluated factors of growing season and cultivar sown in seeding rate in evaluation
 292 of seed yield, plant overwintering and yield components

Growing season	Cultivars sown at different seeding rates	Seed yield (Mg·ha ⁻¹)	Plants ·m ⁻²		Overwintering (%)	Plants ·m ⁻² before harvest	Silique·plant ⁻¹	Silique·m ⁻²	Seeds·silique ⁻¹	1000 seed weight (g)
			before winter	after winter						
2012	Casoar 60	1.20 c ¹	42.9 b	12.0 b	29.3 b	12.3 b	101 a	1034 b	18.9 b	5.69 a
	Casoar 80	1.02 c	59.8 a	14.0 b	26.8 b	14.6 b	76 a	1148 b	18.7 b	5.62 a
	Visby 50	2.29 b	40.9 b	32.3 a	81.1 a	30.1 a	113 a	3296 a	23.9 a	5.31 b
	Visby 70	2.87 a	52.3 ab	38.9 a	75.7 a	36.3 a	92 a	3082 a	24.0 a	5.27 b
2013	Casoar 60	4.87 b	53.3 b	52.2 bc	98.0 a	51.2 bc	92 a	4483 a	18.7 b	5.25 a
	Casoar 80	5.20 ab	69.5 a	68.4 a	98.5 a	67.5 a	69 a	4581 a	19.7 b	5.22 a
	Visby 50	5.48 a	47.4 b	46.4 c	97.9 a	45.4 c	110 a	4971 a	25.4 a	4.94 b
	Visby 70	5.53 a	58.6 ab	57.6 b	98.2 a	56.6 b	95 a	5146 a	24.9 a	4.92 b
2014	Casoar 60	5.82 b	32.6 ab	29.4 ab	90.8 a	29.4 ab	231 a	5998 a	18.3 b	5.49 a
	Casoar 80	6.54 a	36.1 a	34.7 a	96.2 a	34.7 a	205 a	6385 a	18.6 b	5.43 a
	Visby 50	6.50 a	22.7 b	21.7 b	95.6 a	21.7 b	270 a	5419 a	26.9 a	5.17 b
	Visby 70	6.72 a	29.3 ab	28.6 ab	98.2 a	28.6 ab	235 a	6642 a	27.2 a	5.15 b

293 ¹ Means with the same letter are not significantly different at P<0.05 according to Tukey's HSD

294 **Discussion**

295 **Disease control**

296 The winter oilseed rape is exposed to disease infections throughout the growing season. The
297 loss of yields is caused, on the one hand, by infection depending on the genetically controlled
298 resistance of cultivars [38] and the effectiveness of protection from pathogens, and on the other
299 hand, by the incidence of pathogens that cause the most dangerous diseases in this species, such
300 as blackleg (*P. lingam*, syn. *Leptosphaeria maculans*), stem rot (*S. sclerotiorum*), light leaf spot
301 (*Cylindrosporium concentricum*, syn. *Pyrenopeziza brassicae*), verticillium wilt (*Verticillium*
302 *dahliae*), dark pod spot (*Alternaria brassicae*), downy mildew (*Peronospora parasitica*), grey
303 mould (*B. cinerea*), and clubroot disease (*Plasmodiophora brassicae*) [31, 42, 48], triggered by
304 the environmental and agrotechnical conditions. The conducted experiment showed that the
305 applied fungicides limited the yield losses resulting from pathogen infection and unfavourable
306 wintering conditions (Table 4, 6, 7). The presented results thus broaden the view of Kruse and
307 Verreet [21] that the increase in yield due to fungicides treatment is a result of not only the
308 inhibition of infection by pathogens but also the action of fungicides as a growth regulator,
309 which contributes to shortening the main shoot, reducing plant lodging, and increasing the
310 resistance of siliques to cracking. In the season 2011–2012 characterised by severe and
311 snowless winter, the use of chemical fungicide with growth-regulating properties at the six-leaf
312 phase (BBCH 16) allowed limiting the loss of plants during winter dormancy and thereby
313 resulting in higher crop yields from the protected plots in autumn (Tbla 7). This result is also
314 confirmed by the previous studies of Geisler [11], Paul [27], and Schulz [34], which showed an
315 increase in the winter hardiness of winter oilseed rape as a result of shortening the plant growth
316 with the use of growth regulators. However, in the season 2013–2014, autumn treatment was
317 not very effective (Table 7). The winter was mild (Table 2), and the treatment at the six-leaf
318 stage of winter oilseed rape plants that were poorly developed due to unfavourable weather

319 conditions did not significantly reduce the yield losses (Table 7). During this season,
320 significantly higher yields were obtained with spring treatment, compared to the yields
321 collected from control plots. Although the effectiveness of all the applied protective methods
322 was significant only in the 2012–2013 season, it is worth emphasising that during the
323 experiment period, the lowest yields were always obtained from the unprotected plots. This
324 indicates the effectiveness of the chemical protection programme used in the experiment in
325 reducing plant infection. The programme that included treatment at the full flowering stage
326 (BBCH 65) was the most effective in reducing the symptoms of stem rot (*S. sclerotiorum*) and
327 dark pod spot (*A. brassicae*) (Table 5). The effectiveness of the treatment in the phase of full
328 flowering was also confirmed by Jankowski et al. [17] and Kruse and Verreet [21]. In turn, the
329 combination of the autumn and early-spring treatments was the most effective in limiting the
330 disease symptoms caused by *P. lingam*, syn. *L. maculans* (Table 5). Similar results were also
331 reported by Kruse and Verreet [21]. Moreover, the experiment did not show any differences in
332 yield between the cultivars as a result of intensification of protection, confirming the earlier
333 reports of Jajor et al. [15], Jędryczka and Kaczmarek [18], and Wójtowicz [48] and thus
334 indirectly indicating the need to include a chemical protection programme in the cultivation of
335 winter oilseed rape.

336

337 **Rate of nitrogen fertilisation**

338 Spring nitrogen fertilisation is considered to be one of the most important factors of production
339 [4, 31]. In many experiments, yield increase has been achieved within the dose limits of 150–
340 180 kg N·ha⁻¹ [3, 4, 35], and therefore, high (about 240 kg) [46, 50] and very high doses of
341 nitrogen fertilisation (about 300 kg) [36] are rarely required. Determination of the optimal
342 nitrogen dose is hampered by the strong dependence of fertilisation efficiency on the changing
343 weather conditions in the years. In the present work, the increase in the level of fertilisation

344 from 160 to 220 kg·ha⁻¹ proved to be effective in the second and third growing seasons (2012–
345 2013, 2013–2014). However, in the first season (2011/2012), in the conditions of severe and
346 snowless winter and shortage of rainfall during spring development (Table 2), the increase in
347 the level of fertilisation was ineffective (Table 8). The obtained results correspond with the
348 results presented by Jankowski et al. [17], which also showed the variability of fertilisation
349 efficiency in the years of investigations, when in one season there was a significant increase in
350 the yield at a dose of 240 kg·ha⁻¹, and in another at a dose of 180 kg·ha⁻¹. The present research
351 (Table 5) also confirms the results of studies describing a similar response of cultivars to
352 nitrogen fertilisation [8, 17], despite their diverse ability to take up and use nitrogen [19, 44].
353 Therefore, unequal nitrogen uptake and utilisation abilities are usually not significant enough
354 to contribute to a significant difference in crop yield that can result from the varied level of
355 nitrogen fertilisation in the range of doses recommended for agricultural practice. An indirect
356 confirmation of the above statement is the small number of scientific reports showing a
357 significantly different response of cultivars to nitrogen fertilisation. However Wielebski and
358 Wójtowicz [43] showed a significantly lower dependence of the yield level on the level of
359 nitrogen fertilisation of the first hybrid cultivar Synergy in comparison with population
360 cultivars. A similar tendency was confirmed by the research of Pellet [28], except that no
361 statistically significant differences were shown by the results. The results of the present study
362 (Table 4) are also in line with the results presented by Sadowski et al.[33] and Lemańczyk et
363 al. [23], which showed that the increase in nitrogen fertilisation did not increase the severity of
364 disease symptoms caused by *S. sclerotiorum* and *Leptosphaeria* ssp. The lack of a negative
365 impact of increased nitrogen fertilisation on the infection of plants by the most dangerous
366 pathogens of oilseed rape is desirable from the point of view of production intensification.

367

368 **Cultivars sown at different seeding rates**

369 The yield level is an indicator of a plant's development which depends on its response to
370 environmental and agrotechnical conditions. The plant response is in turn mainly conditioned
371 by the impact of environmental and agrotechnical factors and its adaptability to adverse
372 conditions. In the unfavourable seasons, yields are significantly determined by the plant
373 resistance to stress. Compared to the Casoar cultivar, over 1-tonne higher yield was recorded
374 for the Visby cultivar in the 2011–2012 season (Table 9), characterised by severe and snowless
375 winter (Table 2), due to the greater winter hardiness and consequently the better wintering of
376 this cultivar, which resulted in a much greater number of siliques per unit area (by more than
377 1000 per m²). In the conditions of severe and snowless winter and shortage of rainfall during
378 spring development in the season 2011–2012, the yield of the Visby cultivar was influenced
379 mainly by the derivative of the sowing rate—the number of plants per unit area—as evidenced
380 by the higher yields (over 0.5 tonne) collected from the plants sown densely at 70 seeds·m⁻²
381 (Table 9). In the season 2013–2014 characterised by a shortage of rainfall during emergence
382 and good moisture content in spring, the amount of seeds sown determined the yields of the
383 Casoar cultivar which showed a significant difference. Significantly higher yields were
384 collected from the Casoar cultivar plants sown more densely at 80 seeds·m⁻². The lack of a
385 significant variation in the yield of the hybrid cultivar in this season indicates that due to its
386 greater vigour it was able to better utilise the favourable humidity conditions recorded in spring
387 2014. In the remaining growing seasons, the variation in the yield level between the plots sown
388 at different rates was statistically insignificant. Nevertheless, in the case of both hybrid and
389 open-pollinated cultivars, higher yields were collected from the plants sown more densely.
390 These results are consistent with the study by Jankowski et al. [17], which assessed the impact
391 of the seeding rate (80, 60, and 40 seeds·m⁻²) of hybrid cultivars on their yield and showed that
392 the highest yields were obtained from densely sown plants (80 seeds·m⁻²). Similar results are

393 found in the work of Wójtowicz et al. [49], which revealed a significant reduction in the yield
394 of the hybrid cultivar when the amount of seeds sown was reduced from 70 to 35 seeds·m⁻².
395 Experiments showed that in the conditions of Wielkopolska higher yields were obtained at
396 higher seeding rates as a consequence of the unfavourable humidity conditions during
397 emergence and thermal conditions during the winter dormancy period resulting in a reduction
398 in the number of plants per unit area and the late beginning of vegetation and shortage of
399 precipitation in the spring limiting the production of siliques. This broadens the view presented
400 by Jankowski and Budzyński [16] about the influence of thermal conditions during winter and
401 humidity in spring on the yields from plots sown at varied seeding rates. The humidity
402 conditions during emergence also play an equally important role and can significantly adversely
403 affect the number of plants per unit area. Earlier results of Wójtowicz et al. [49] proved that
404 adverse conditions causing a decrease in plant density can occur with high probability during
405 plant emergence.

406 In the three years of experiment (2009–2011) conducted in Wielkopolska region, unfavourable
407 conditions during early autumn development, which contributed to a reduction in the number
408 of plants in relation to the amount of seeds sown by about 40%, were recorded in two growing
409 seasons (2009–2010 and 2010–2011). From the presented results (Table 5), the lack of a
410 significant interaction between the amount of seeds sown for the evaluated cultivars and the
411 applied levels of nitrogen fertilisation is also worth noting. The above dependence suggests that
412 in the experimental conditions higher plant density did not limit plant development. These
413 results are consistent with those of Budzyński [4], who in intensive technologies for excessive
414 compaction for hybrid cultivars in spring recognised 60 plants·m⁻². Despite the documented
415 possibility of reducing the amount of seeds sown to 20–40 pure live seeds·m⁻² [20, 22, 40], the
416 presented results force taking into account the humidity conditions when determining the
417 seeding rate, especially in the areas characterised by higher probability of precipitation

418 shortage. In addition, the results lead to a hypothesis that under the conditions of predicted
419 global warming, which will result in greater weather variability, the role of the amount of seeds
420 sown, a basic element of rapeseed agrotechnology, in yielding will increase. Another factor that
421 will be of more importance in the future is the selection of cultivar for cultivation. Furthermore,
422 the more frequent occurrence of unfavourable conditions for the development of crop plants
423 will require looking for stable-yielding cultivars.

424

425 **Conclusion**

426 The conducted experiment showed that all the analysed factors had a significant impact on the
427 yield level. The applied fungicides limited the crop losses resulting from pathogen infection
428 and unfavourable wintering conditions. The protection programme consisting of treatment at
429 the BBCH 65 flowering stage most effectively reduced the damage caused by stem rot (*S.*
430 *sclerotiorum*) and dark pod spot (*A. brassicae*). In turn, the protection programme combining
431 the autumn and early-spring treatments most effectively limited the infection caused by *P.*
432 *lingam*, syn. *L. maculans*. In addition, the effectiveness of nitrogen fertilisation varied during
433 the years of the study. In the conditions of shortage of precipitation during spring development
434 after a period of stress caused by severe and snowless winter, the increase in the rate of
435 fertilisation up to 220 kg·ha⁻¹ was ineffective. In less stressful conditions, nitrogen fertilisation
436 exerted a yield-increasing effect up to a rate of 220 kg·ha⁻¹. Increase in nitrogen fertilisation
437 level also did not increase the severity of disease symptoms caused by *S. sclerotiorum* and
438 *Leptosphaeria* ssp. This lack of a negative impact of increased nitrogen fertilisation on plant
439 infection by the most dangerous rape pathogens is desirable from the point of view of
440 production intensification. The yield of seeds depended both on the yield potential of the
441 cultivar and its ability to develop under stressful conditions. The experiment has shown a
442 greater resistance of the restored hybrid cultivar Visby to the adverse thermal conditions. Good

443 winter hardiness allowed obtaining relatively high yields of this cultivar in the conditions of
444 severe and snowless winter. Moreover, due to its greater vigour than Casoar cultivar, Visby
445 cultivar was able to better utilise the favourable humidity conditions that were recorded in
446 spring 2014, and regardless of the amount of seeds sown, its yield was high. By contrast, the
447 yields of Casoar were more dependent on the amount of seeds sown. Nevertheless, both
448 cultivars yielded higher at a higher sowing rate. They also responded similarly to plant
449 protection programmes and the rate of nitrogen fertilisation in spring.

450

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