### **REVIEW ARTICLE**

# Weed management under climate change in future grain millets

K.N. Geetha\*<sup>1</sup>, A.G. Shankar<sup>1</sup>, J.S. Mishra<sup>2</sup>, R.P. Dubey<sup>2</sup>, Shobha Sondhia<sup>2</sup>, S. Kamala Bai<sup>1</sup>, J.K. Sinchana<sup>1</sup>, B.S. Vidyashree<sup>1</sup> and K. Tilak<sup>1</sup>

Received: 16 July 2024 | Revised: 9 November 2024 | Accepted: 15 November 2024

#### **ABSTRACT**

Climate change is a natural phenomenon in earth's environmental system and used to happen over hundreds or thousands of years, but now it is happening within few decades due to increasing human population and associated activities which are responsible for production of more  $CO_2$ , methane,  $N_2O$  and small quantities of HFC's. This is expected to increase because the projected global population is 11.2 billion by the end of  $21^{st}$  century from the present 8.1 billion as on 2024. Under climate change, increased  $CO_2$  is seen as an advantage for  $C_3$  food crops but concomitant increase in temperature negated this impact favouring  $C_4$  crop production, hence, most weeds which are  $C_4$  in nature are threat to agriculture production. Unlike  $C_3$  cereal crops which are the staple foods, millets being  $C_4$  have advantage to compete with  $C_4$  weeds and millets are more nutritious and drought tolerant. It is a real challenge to plant scientists to sustain and increase the food production. Hence, in this review an attempt is made to critically evaluate existing literature and provide insights to the researchers and policy makers to promote the millets to meet the food and nutritional security for the ever growing population.

Keywords: Climate change, Millets, Weeds, Weed management, Herbicides

#### INTRODUCTION

The energy required for all the living beings on earth is provided by an important physiological process called photosynthesis in Plants (autotrophs). During photosynthesis light energy is trapped and used to convert water, CO<sub>2</sub> and minerals into oxygen and energy rich compounds. These energy rich compounds are the source of energy for heterotrophs (humans, animals and all other living creatures).

In the whole process CO<sub>2</sub> is one of the important inputs present in the atmosphere. CO<sub>2</sub> is constantly being exchanged among the atmosphere, Ocean and land surface as it is being both produced and absorbed by many microorganisms, plants and animals. However, emission and removal of CO<sub>2</sub> by these processes tend to balance. But, the industrial revolution began in 1970 changed the balance of CO<sub>2</sub>, since human activities have contributed substantially to climate change by adding CO<sub>2</sub> and other heat trapping gases (GHG) like methane and nitrous oxide.

The main human activity that emits CO<sub>2</sub> is the combustion of fossil fuels (coal, natural gas and oil) for energy and transportation to meet the needs of the

growing population. In addition, certain industrial processes and land use changes also emit CO<sub>2</sub>. Of the 3 important GHG's (CO<sub>2</sub>, CH<sub>4</sub> and N<sub>2</sub>O), CO<sub>2</sub> concentration substantially increased after the industrial revolution and concomitant increase in global population. According to the EPA, CO<sub>2</sub> accounts for 82% of all GHGs from human activities. The GHGs that impact the gradual warming of the earth's surface are those that stay in the atmosphere for a long period (like CO<sub>2</sub>) and build up over time and the warming power of the gas and the length of time it stays in the atmosphere (**Table 1**).

The atmospheric concentration of  $CO_2$  is 0.04%,  $CH_4$  is 0.002% and  $N_2O$ -0.00003%. Although the warming potential of other gases is more powerful than  $CO_2$ , its emissions dwarf those of other gases due to its large volume of emissions. Human activities have raised atmospheric  $CO_2$  by 50%, meaning the amount of  $CO_2$  is now 150% of its

Table 1. Global warming potentials and atmospheric lifetimes (years)

Green House Gases	Atmospheric Lifetime	Global warming potential over 100-year lifetime
Carbon Dioxide (CO <sub>2</sub> )	50-200	1
Methane (CH <sub>4</sub> )	12	21
Nitrous Oxide (N2O)	114	289
Other	1-50,000	5-22,800

 $Source: Intergovernmental \, Panel \, on \, Climate \, Change, \, 2007 \, Report$ 

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> University of Agricultural Sciences, Bengaluru, Karnataka 560065, India

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> ICAR - Directorate of Weed Research, Maharajpur, Jabalpur, Madhya Pradesh 482004, India

<sup>\*</sup> Corresponding author email: gowdageetha200@gmail.com

value compared to the pre-industrial era. This is greater than the natural CO<sub>2</sub> source. It has risen from 280ppm in late 1700's to 419ppm in 2023 and 422ppm in august, 2024. Increase in the amount of GHGs in the atmosphere attributed mainly to human activity, which caused an unbalance in the process called greenhouse effect. Hence, slowly the availability of the earth's atmosphere to absorb heat from the subsurface has increased and with it the temperature of the atmosphere. This is known as "Global warming".

Millets are a small grain which are predominantly grown and consumed after cereals in the world especially in Africa and Asia (Mishra 2015). There are an estimated 1.2 billion people who consume millet as a part of their diet [WFP]. Millet is a staple and it is a very good substitute for oats and cereals. Millets are rich in minerals and vitamins and pearl millet is a rich source of proteins. Another millet finger millet, is the only food grain which has 320 to 344 milligram Ca<sup>2+</sup> for 100 gram of grain. Millets have a higher nutritional profile that ensures better health benefits (NAAS 2013). India is the World's largest producer of millet following China and Nigeria, and supplies 41% of global output (Kumar et al. 2019). The millets commonly grown in India include Sorghum, pearl millet, finger millet, barnyard millet, proso or common millet, foxtail/ Italian millet, kodo millet, little millet etc. The area, production and yield of millets in India is presented in **Table 2**.

The area under cultivation of millet declined due to a change in conversion of irrigated area for wheat and rice cultivation. Hence, unavailability of millets, low yield, change in consumption pattern under dietary habits resulted in fall in the levels of vit-A, protein and iron that lead to malnutrition. Millets occupy a relatively lower position in Indian agriculture, though they are important from the point of food and nutrition security, especially quality of food.

Millets are best options under hot and dry conditions compared to the cereals and predominantly grown in rainfed conditions. The key

Table 2. Area, production and productivity of millets in India (2022-23)

Crop	Area (m ha)	Production (mt)	Productivity (kg/ha)
	(III IIa)	(IIII)	(Kg/III)
Pearl millet	7.57	11.43	1510
Sorghum	3.54	3.81	1079
Finger millet	1.16	1.69	1454
Other minor millets	0.43	0.38	898
Total	12.70	17.32	-

(Source: https://www.indiastat.com/table/agriculture/season-wise-area-production-yield-nutri-cereals-in/1210178)

issue is controlling weeds, since during the rainy season there will be increased soil moisture and relatively high temperature that will favour the weed growth. The competition for resources (sunlight, water and nutrients) between crop and weed can result in lower yield and lower quality crops (Mishra *et al.* 2018). Higher growth of weeds may impede harvesting, increasing its difficulty and duration (Mahalingam *et al.* 2019).

The management of weeds is very crucial to prevent the resource acquisition by weeds which are otherwise meant for crops. The yield loss due to weed can range from 15 to 97% (Dubey *et al.* 2023) in millets due to increased temperature and change in precipitation pattern (Vikarm *et al.* 2021 and Xiaoyan *et al.* 2018). In addition to this climate change can affect the efficacy of herbicides, by breakdown and effectiveness of herbicides. This needs change in use of alternative herbicides. So far, the findings suggest that, holistic approach is required to effectively control weeds to sustain the millet productivity.

Millets are termed as the "miracle grains" or "crops of the future", as they are not only grown under harsh conditions but are drought-resistant crops with fewer inputs. They are dual-purpose crops as they provide both food and fodder providing food security and economic efficiency of farming. Millets will contribute to mitigating climate change by reducing CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere, whereas wheat being a thermally sensitive crop and paddy is a major contributor of climate change through Methane emission. Normally do not depend on use of chemical fertilizer and attract less pests and have a high nutritive value. Millets are superior to rice in terms of nutritional benefits. They are rich in fiber, protein, Vitamins and minerals and have a higher antioxidant content than rice. In fact, foxtail millet and kodo millet are suggested as substitutes for rice. And finger millet is a great substitute for Rice and Wheat for diabetes. And also millets help in curling obesity, lowers the risk of hypertension, cancers, helps in preventing constipation and have low glycemic index. Realizing the importance of millets (Figure 1) both from the point of food and nutrition security, Indian government has initiated a program "Initiative for nutritional security through intensive millet promotion-INSIMP a part of Rastriya Krishi Vikas Yojana-RKVY. And Indian government proposal to FAO in 2018, finally accepted by the United Nations General assembly and declared 2023 the "International year of millets".

## Weeds under millets cropping systems

Climate change is one of the most important aspects that can cause alterations in weed

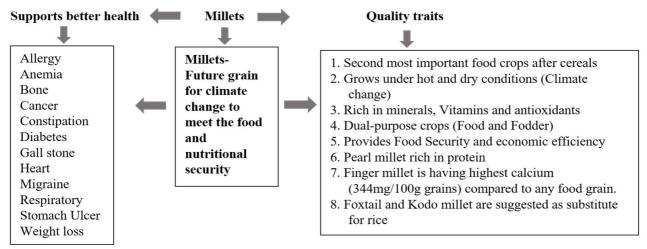


Figure 1. Quality attributes and health benefits of millets (Source: Shankar and Geetha, Unpublished data)

composition, growth, physiological development and infestation pressure. Under the circumstances many weeds may become aggressive and a few weed species may become inactive so that weeds with less phenotypic plasticity may experience population decline. The distribution of weeds depends on prevailing climate, management activities in neighboring fields, crop rotation and soil composition. Soil type is a major factor in deciding the type and variety of species growing in a particular area.

For most weeds the ideal temperature ranges from 10 to 35 °C. Initially when CO<sub>2</sub> levels started increasing, the scientists are of the opinion that food production will be enhanced because out of the top 15 food crops 12 are C<sub>3</sub> plants. C<sub>3</sub> plants are at an advantageous position over C4 plants. Subsequently it was realized that there is a concomitant increase in temperature which changes the complete scenario of CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization impact on crop production (Jordan and Ogren, 1984, Osmond et al. 1982, Morgan et al. 2001). Weed - crop interaction has changed due to global climate change. The advantage envisaged for C<sub>3</sub> crops is nullified because of increase in temperature. Since, optimum temperature for photosynthesis is higher for C<sub>4</sub> (30-45°C) than C<sub>3</sub> (10-25°C) and more top millet weeds are C<sub>4</sub> (**Table 3**) and parthenium and striga weeds are C<sub>3</sub>.

Weed infestation in agricultural field is one of the important biotic components hindering plant growth and productivity. They compete with cultivated crops for sunlight, water and nutrients etc. (eg: *Amaranthus Chenopodium*, Gajar Ghas *etc.*) and grow vigorously than crop plants. In addition, they harbor insects and pathogens, which attack crop plants. Weed infestation alone can reduce 50% yield in some crops. The total actual economic loss of about US\$ 11billion was estimated due to weed alone in 10 major crops of India (and highest being in Rice US\$ 4420 million).

Table 3. Major C4 weed species found in millets

C4 weeds	References	
Cynodon dactylon		
Cyperus rotundus	Dhanapal et al. 2015;	
Dactyloctenium aegyptium	Shubhashree &	
Digitaria marginata	Sowmyalatha 2019;	
Echinochloa crus-galli	Lekhana et al. 2021;	
Euporbia hirta	Sukanya et al. 2021;	
Elusine indica	Gurubasavaswamy et al.	
Imperata cylindrica	2023	
Monochoria vaginalis		
Elusine indica		

Climate change can also play a crucial role in weed distribution of both invasive and noxious weeds (Hakala *et al.* 2011) because it changes precipitation pattern and water availability (Rodenburg *et al.* 2011). Weeds are relatively constant and cause negative effects on agriculture, unlike other biotic stresses like insects and pathogens, which are random and irregular (Kostov and Pacanoski, 2007). Weeds can also cause extensive damage to non-agricultural land and to public health. Furthermore, weeds are known to produce harmful chemicals and serves as hosts for several insects pests and diseases (Swinton *et al.* 1994, Boydston *et al.* 2008).

#### Herbicides

Herbicides are commonly known as weed killers, are substances used to control undesired plants. The commonly used herbicides are alachlor, octachlor, butachlor, metachlor and propachlor. Most of them are hazardous except metachlor. There are 2 types of herbicides: selective (retard the growth of some plants) and non-selective (toxic to all plants). Herbicides are routinely applied because of their simplicity in use and greater efficacy (McErlich and Boydston. 2013). Glyphosate (N-Phosphonic methyl

glycine) is a broad-spectrum herbicide that is absorbed by plant leaves and is systematic (translocated) within the plant. Glyphosate also known as the "Roundup" is the most widely used herbicide in the US. Nearly all herbaceous plants and most woody plants are susceptible to glyphosate which inhibits synthesis of 3 aa's necessary for plant growth. A large number of different classes of herbicides inhibits photosynthesis. 2, 4-Dichlorophenoxyacetic acid (2,4-D) is a common systemic herbicide used in the control of broad -leaf weeds. It is the most widely used herbicide in the world.

#### Crop-weed competition under climate change

Weeds tend to have higher genetic diversity and physiological plasticity than crops, allowing them to exhibit resilience and adapt better to changing CO<sub>2</sub> levels and higher temperature, often competing crops. Among various biotic factors, weeds cause the most substantial yield loss (34%), surpassing insect pests (18%) and diseases (Kaur et al. 2024). Climate change is having different effects on C<sub>3</sub> and C<sub>4</sub> photosynthetic pathways, modifying the dynamics of composition between crops and weeds. It has resulted in yield loss of 183 kg/ha in rice and 88 kg/ha in wheat (Waddington et al. 2010). The competition between weed and crop for limited resources such as water, light, space and nutrients leads to reduced growth, hindered development and yield losses in crops (Kaur et al. 2014). The positive effects of increased CO2 on most crops are offset by high temperature, with no benefits observed for C<sub>3</sub> crops (**Table 4**).

# Weed management in millets

Millets are considered as "climate smart crops" since they are hardy and survive in high temperature and resistant to climate change. Weeds cause substantial crop losses particularly in less developed countries. Increase in temperature due to global

climate change and high CO<sub>2</sub> concentration in atmosphere are likely to have a significant impact on weed biology and weed pressure which in turn will reduce crop productivity. Millets predominantly grown in rain-fed condition and nutrient deficient soils, face the risk of yield losses due to intense weed competition. So far several methods are followed to manage weeds in millets (Dubey *et al.* 2023). Agdag 1995, reported that narrow spacing (<30cm) in prosomillet found to increase the yield and within a crop varietal variation exists. Planting sorghum at higher densities (7.5 plants per meter) reduced weed density of *Echionochloa esculenta*.

Mishra *et al.* (2012) reported that the weed competitive cultivars in sorghum hybrid (CSH-16) out performed weeds by limiting the light availability. The intercropping rather than solo crop increases the usage of natural resources and superior weed control efficiency (65.8%), weed smothering efficiency (52%) and reduced weed dry weight in pearlmillet + black gram and finger millet and onion and increased yield (Vishalini *et al.* 2020). Cultivation of diverse crops season after season and leaving land fallow can suppress weeds to certain extent (Barberi and Lo Cascio 2001). Arora and Tomar (2012) reported soil solarization for 4-6 weeks is the most effective non-chemical and agronomical weed management practice for lowering weed seed bank.

Mulching inhibits penetration of sunlight to the soil slowing or preventing seed germination and growth of weed. It is more effective on small seeded annual weeds and perennial weeds such as *sorghum halpense* and *cynodon dactylon*. The striga weed (C<sub>3</sub> type) can be controlled by applying synthetic analogues of 'strigol' and 'strigol acetate', natural chemical stimulants suppresses weed growth. Preplant incorporation of analogues reduced 50% striga population in sorghum and ethylene treatment resulted in 90% reduction in striga seed bank (Das 2016).

Table 4. The response of C3 and C4 crops with C3 and C4 weeds under climate change scenario

	Climatic parameters			
Types of crops	Ambient CO <sub>2</sub>	High CO <sub>2</sub> (> ambient CO <sub>2</sub> )	High t°C (> ambient t°C)	High CO <sub>2</sub> + high temperature
C <sub>3</sub> crops alone	Normal	Better than C <sub>4</sub>	No response /?	No response /?
C <sub>4</sub> crops alone	Better than C <sub>3</sub>	No response	Better than C <sub>3</sub>	Better than C <sub>3</sub>
$C_3 crop + C_3 weed$	Reduced crop growth	C <sub>3</sub> crop better than C <sub>3</sub> weed	C <sub>3</sub> crop growth reduces	No response /?
$C_3 crop + C_4 weed$	Weed dominates C <sub>3</sub> crop	C <sub>3</sub> crop dominates	Weed dominates	Weed dominates
$C_4 crop + C_3 weed$	Better growth of C <sub>4</sub> crop	Weed dominates /?	Crop dominates	Crop dominates
$C_4 crop + C_4 weed$	No response /?	No response /?	Weed dominates	Weed dominates
C <sub>3</sub> + C <sub>4</sub> weeds in C <sub>3</sub> cro	p No response /?	C <sub>3</sub> crop dominates	C <sub>4</sub> weed dominates	C <sub>4</sub> weed dominates
C <sub>3</sub> + C <sub>4</sub> weeds in C <sub>4</sub> cro	p No response /?	C <sub>3</sub> crop dominates	C <sub>4</sub> weed dominates	C <sub>4</sub> weed dominates

Among the physical (mechanical) methods of weed management, tillage is known to influence the dispersion of weed seeds and propagules through the soil profile and in a rainfed pigeon pea + finger millet cropping system, a considerable reduction in weed density is reported by Vijamahantesh *et al.* 2013. Kujur *et al.* 2018, reported hoeing twice between rows significantly reduced the density and dry matter of weeds in finger millet. Hand weeding which is costlier than chemical weeding is found to be effective in suppressing annual weeds but not perennial weeds (Thanmai *et al.* 2018, Gowda and Dhanjaya 2000).

#### Chemical weed management

Weed control using herbicides found to be simplest way and cost effective yet environmental issues need to be taken care. However information on weed control in small millets is limited because scarcity of herbicides in millets (Vanderlip *et al.* 1998). Atrazine is found to be successful preemergence herbicide in millets (Ramesh *et al.* 2019) and Vinothini and Arthanari (2017) also reported Isoproturon, a pre-emergent controlled the weed density in Kodo millet. Integrated weed management of herbicides spray in combination with one hand weeding found to be effective in weed control in millets for example in Sorghum, Pearl millet and Kodo millet (Deshveer and Deshveer 2005, Girase *et al.* 2017, Lekhana *et al.* 2021 and Thambi *et al.* 2021).

# Management of weeds in millets under climate change

#### Climate variation on weed growth

In the beginning of global warming, scientists were very enthusiastic feeling that the higher levels of CO<sub>2</sub> in the atmosphere (termed as CO<sub>2</sub> fertilization) can act as a fertilizer and increase plant growth because most of the crop plants are C<sub>3</sub>. Similarly, they thought there will be an advantage for C<sub>3</sub> crops to compete better with weeds, since most of the weeds are C4. The studies conducted to manage weeds in millet fields are summarized as below. Pre-emergence application of Atrazine at 0.5 kg/ha + one hand weeding at 35 days after sowing and the postemergence application of atrazine 0.4 kg/ha +one hand weeding at 35 days of sowing gave best control in pearl millet (Girase et al. 2017). In case of Kodo millet, research revealed that post-emergence herbicide application of bispyribac sodium 20 g/ha on 20 days after transplant had controlled weeds of all kinds in transplanted kodo millet Jawahar et al. (2020).

In *Kharif* (2018), in a transplanted finger millet, an experiment was conducted to evaluate the weed control in the field. The results showed that the preemergence application of biosulfuran-methyl 0.6G at 60 g/ha + pertilachlor 6G at 600 g/ha followed by early post-emergent application of bispyribac-sodium 10SC at 25 g/ha had the lower total weed density, total weed dry weight and greater Weed Control Efficiency. Ramadevi *et al.* (2021), reported greater grain production was obtained by applying 20 g/ha of phenoxsulam post-emergence (PoE) in transplanted finger millet. Applying isoprotaron 750 kg/ha prior to emergence and manual weeding 40 days post-sowing resulted in weed density & dry weight below the economic threshold (Vinothini and Arthanari 2017).

#### Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature

Climate change is the result of both increased CO<sub>2</sub> concentration and increased temperature. Weeds being C<sub>4</sub> plants have better adaptation to heat stress, due to high water use efficiency (Osmond et al. 1982, Long 1999, Morgan et al. 2001). Differential impacts of climate change variability such as temperature regimes, CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature levels on weeds and crops allows weeds to compete well and thrive even in unpredictable environments (Hartfield 2011). It is also reported that higher temperature enhances mineralization processes that increase the nutrient availability to plants (Beier 2004, Schmidt et al. 2002). Prolonged drought leads to dehydration of roots and reduced soil nutrient mobility impede root activity and nutrients uptake (Hinsinger et al. 2009). Dynamics of nutrients between crop and weeds is also influenced by elevated CO<sub>2</sub> (Zeng et al. 2011).

Weeds are managed by several ways. Of these, herbicides application for weed management is costeffective and more reliable method. But, under climate-change scenario, elevated levels of CO2 high temperature, precipitation, Relative humidity and solar radiation are the factors that alter the herbicide efficacy. High CO<sub>2</sub> and high temperature have contrast effect on herbicide entry through the leaf and translocation to the weed plants. Under high CO<sub>2</sub> more biomass produced by weeds may cause dilution effect and lower the efficacy of herbicide. Similarly roots grow deeper into soil layers preventing the uptake of herbicides which are present in the surface and top layer of soil (Manea et al. 2011). Whereas, under high temperature enhances the root uptake of herbicides due to a decrease in soil organic matter and high evaporation rates (Miraglia et al. 2009)

Reduction in stomatal conductance (around 50% in some plants) and leaf thickening which

causes stomatal closing and increase in leaf starch concentration due to elevated CO2 in weeds helps them to survive from post-emergence herbicides (Ziska 2008, Jackson et al. 2011). On the other hand, high temperatures are known to alter and lower the viscosity of cuticular lipids which in turn influences the permeability and diffusion of herbicides through the cuticles. Other temperature dependent processes such as phloem translocation, respiration and protoplasm streaming in plants will affect the efficiency of herbicides under high temperature. Not only above ground temperature, even high soil temperature causes decrease in permeability, increasing volatility and microbial breakdown affecting the efficacy of herbicides. For example at high soil temperature (25°C), triallate volatilization increased from 14 to 60% in sandy and 41 % in loamy soils (Atienza et al. 2001). These studies suggest that increased dose or number of applications of herbicides may become the order of the day in the future under climate change scenarios.

#### Precipitation and relative humidity

Global climate change influences precipitation patterns and Relative humidity. These two parameters accompanied by warmer temperature leads to extreme drought and as well flooding (Clements et al. 2014). Intense rainfall immediately after herbicide application may dilute the concentration by washing off spray droplets and reduce herbicide retention on leaf and uptake. On the other hand lower precipitation will enhance uptake by rewetting the dried spray droplets on the leaf surface (Olesen and Kudsk 1987) and lower the translocation and decreased transpiration within the plant lowers herbicide efficacy (Zanatta 2008, Keikothaile 2011). All preemergence herbicides require optimum moisture in the soil for active absorption of herbicides (Olson et al. 2000). Dry conditions increase the adsorption of herbicides on soil particles, which will be eventually washed off due to heavy rainfall leading to heavy loss due to leaching (Soukup et al. 2004).

Though optimum relative humidity is desirable at the time of spraying, at high relative humidity stomatoes remain open and helps in better uptake of herbicides into the leaf (Kudsk *et al.* 1990). Studies have shown that relative humidity could exert greater influence on the uptake of foliar sprayed herbicides than temperature (Devine *et al.* 1993, Anderson *et al.* 1993). Most of the studies suggest that high temperature accompanied with high relative humidity is beneficial for weed control by most herbicides (Stopps *et al.* 2013).

#### **Solar radiation**

Solar radiation is an important determinant, it is not only critical for plant growth and development but also important for herbicide efficacy, since it facilitates the entry of herbicide through stomata and translocation of herbicides within the plant and target sites for actions. Several herbicides such as Bentazon, Clethodim and Talkoxydim showed higher efficacy of herbicides (Hatterman-valenti et al. 2011). In some cases, solar radiation may directly affect the chemical properties of herbicides through photodegradation. For contact herbicides light is crucial for activation of herbicides and to increase efficacy (Wright et al. 1995) For example paraquat (contact herbicide) efficiency decreased as UV radiation increased. This may be due to increased wax content as a mechanism by plants to prevent UV damage resulting in lower absorption and efficacy (Wang et al. 2006).

In the crop-weed competition enhancing the high interception by crop and thereby reducing the amount of the light reaching the land surface is one of the approaches, which can be manipulated by crop orientation (Borger *et al.* 2015, Holt 1995).

Millets being photo-insensitive, they can adapt to different environmental conditions, hence they are resilient to climate change. But, millets are having slow growth initially, they can't suppress weeds unless they adequately grow to shade the weeds (Mishra 2015). Hence optimising spacing between rows is very crucial, since large rows results in higher penetration of light to the soil surface favouring weed growth. Some findings suggested narrow row spacing results in higher productivity of finger millet by suppressing weeds (Fufa and Mariam 2016, Chavan *et al.* 2017).

Another cultural practice could be growing intercrops which facilitates better utilization of natural resources by crops and reducing the availability to weeds. Similar results can be obtained by increasing the seed rate, so that the crop can dominate over the weeds because of a higher population (Vishalini et al. 2020, Kumar et al. 2019, Dubey et al. 2023, Hozayn et al. 2012). Any management practices that lead to faster canopy cover of the crop will substantially decrease weed germination (Locke et al. 2002). Vishalini et al. (2020) reported that intercropping of finger millet with onion increased weed control efficiency and yield and the same results found in intercropping of pearl millet and blackgram (Mathukia et al. 2015) and also with legume intercropping such as mungbean, cowpea, soybean and groundnut. Yet another option is mulching, which reduces light penetration to the soil surface and exerts a smothering effect on weeds (Teasdale and Mohler 2000, Kaur and Singh 2006).

Climate change is known to enhance the intensity of both flooding and drought globally (Bannayan *et al.* 2011; Challinor *et al.* 2014). To manage these situations which vary depending on the location and types of cultivation (Etana *et al.* 2022), shifting (pre or postponing) sowing date is also a type of management (Liu *et al.* 2020) strategy to prevent synchronization of crop critical growth stages (Mulla *et al.* 2019).

#### Weed competitive cultivars

The crop varieties selected to compete with weeds should possess competitive potential traits, which can grow faster, have canopy structure, ability to acquire and efficiently use light, moisture and nutrients better than weeds or release allelochemicals to prevent the germination of weeds (Peerzada et al. 2017, Buhler 2002; Stahlman and Wicks 2000; Gholami et al. 2013, Mishra et al. 2015). For example, CSH-16 sorghum hybrid known to suppress weed (Mishra et al. 2015). Several strigaresistant varieties/lines are developed by ICRISAT for Africa and Asia, S1561, S1477, S1511, IS 6961, IS 7777, IS 7739, IS 14825, IS 14928, Framida and P 967083. The mechanism here is to prevent attachment of striga to the plant through reducing stimulant production.

In addition to these interventions to control weeds in the future, attempts are made to develop herbicide resistant millet cultivar. In China, attempts are being made to develop novel herbicide-resistant millet varieties/hybrids by millet breeders (Darmency et al. 2017). But it is time consuming and laborious. The alternative would be to employ biotechnological/ molecular breeding approaches to develop herbicideresistant cultivars. Already canola, soybean varieties and corn hybrids which are resistant to herbicides are developed. At the same time, it is important to follow herbicide rotation to prevent weeds developing resistant to a particular herbicide. It may not be an immediately feasible approach since the Indian Government is yet to permit growing of genetically modified crops. Till that time, one can explore gene editing and CRISPR-cas9 technologies to develop herbicide resistant cultivar (Rich et al. 2004; Haussmann 2004; Makaza et al. 2023).

#### Conclusion

Global climate change has already resulted in several uncertainties in agriculture production. More or less precipitation and increased temperature are certain and order of the day in future. These events are going to be much more frequent and intensive in the future that questions the capability of sustaining food production for ever increasing global population. Weed management also seems to be more crucial in days to come under climate change scenarios to sustain food production because increased CO2 and high temperature tend to favor growth of weeds (C<sub>4</sub>) compared to crops (C<sub>3</sub>). This scenario is not different either with the production of millets, which are suggested to be substitutes for cereals. Because millets were hitherto considered as poor man's crops not given as much attention as in the case of cereals in managing and attaining higher productivity. In recent years, they are paid attention not only to sustain hunger but also to meet nutritional requirements since they are richer in protein (pearl millet), minerals, vitamins and antioxidants than cereals. Millets are C<sub>4</sub> similar to weeds, hence they can compete and thrive under climate change scenarios better than C<sub>3</sub> cereals. They are considered an alternative crop for the climate change condition. In fact many farmers in India already switched over to short duration, less water requiring and climate change resistant millet crops over rice, wheat and corn. Limited information suggests the herbicide application is crucial to manage weeds even in millets notwithstanding the environmental impact. Task before scientists is not only to develop herbicide resistant crops but also avoiding development of resistance in weeds. A comprehensive research program is required to understand the biology and distribution of weeds under climate change and the efficacy of herbicides to control weeds in millet crops and it is very crucial to sustain the future grain for human population.

#### REFERENCES

Agdag MI. 1995. Row spacing in proso millet. Univ. Nebraska, Lincoln. M.S. Thesis. Anderson RL and Greb BW. 1987.

Anderson DM, Swanton CJ, Hall JC, and Mersey BG. 1993. The influence of temperature and relative humidity on the efficacy of glufosinate-ammonium. *Weed Research* **33**: 139–147.

Anderson LJ, Derner JD, Polley HD, Wendys, Gordon K, Davidm EW, and Robertb Jackon. 2010. Root responses along a sub ambient to elevated CO<sub>2</sub> gradient in a C-3-C-4 grassland. *Global Change Biology* **16**: 454–468.

Arora A and Tomar SS. 2012. Effect of soil solarization on weed seed bank in soil. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **44**(2): 122-123.

Atienza J, Tabernero MT, A 'Ivarez-Benedý' J and Sanz M.,2001. Volatilisation of triallate as affected by soil texture and air velocity. *Chemosphere* 42: 257–261.

Bannayan M, Sadeghi Lotfabadi S, Sanjani S, Mohamadian A, Aghaalikhani M. 2011. Effects of precipitation and temperature on crop production variability in northeast Iran. *International Journal of Biometeorology* **55**: 387–401.

- Barberi P and Lo Cascio B. 2001. Long-term tillage and crop rotation effects on weed seed bank size and composition. *Weed Research* **41(4)**: 325–340.
- Beier C. 2004. Climate change and ecosystem function-full-scale manipulations of CO<sub>2</sub> and temperature. *New Phytologist* **162**: 243–245.
- Borger CPD, Hashem A and Powles SB. 2015. Manipulating crop row orientation and crop density to suppress *Lolium rigidum. Weed Research* **56**(1): 22–30.
- Boydston RA, Mojtahedi H, Crosslin JM, Brown CR and Anderson T. 2008. Effect of hairy night shade (*Solanum sarrachoides*) presence on potato nematodes, diseases, and insect pests. *Weed Science* **56**: 151–154.
- Buhler DD. 2002. Challenges and opportunities for integrated weed management. Weed Science 50(3): 273–280.
- Challinor AJ, Watson J, Lobell DB, Howden SM, Smith DR and Chhetri N. 2014. A meta-analysis of crop yield under climate change and adaptation. *Nature Climate Change* 4: 287– 291
- Chavan IB, Jagtap DN and Mahadkar UV, 2017. Weed control efficiency and yield of finger millet [Eleusine coracana (L.) Gaertn.] influenced due to different establishment techniques, levels and time of application of nitrogen. Farming and Management 2(2): 108–113.
- Clements DR, DiTommaso A and Hyvonen T. 2014. Ecology and management of weeds in a changing climate. pp. 13–37. In: B.S. Chauhan and G. Mahajan (eds.). *Recent Advances in Weed Management* Springer, New York.
- Darmency H, Tian Yu Wang and Christophe D. 2017. Herbicide Resistance in *Setaria*. Pp. 251–266. In: *Genetics and Genomics of Setaria* (Eds: Andrew Dand Xianmin Diao).
- Das TK. 2016. Weed science basics and applications. Jain Brothers, New Delhi. p 910.
- Deshveer CL and Deshveer LS. 2005. Weed Management in Pearl Millet (*Pennisetum glaucum*) with special reference to *Trianthema portulacastrum*. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **37**(3&4): 212–215.
- Devine MD, Duke SO, Fedtke C. 1993. Foliar absorption of herbicides. Pp. 29–52. In: Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs, NJ.
- Dhanapal GN, Sanjay MT, Hareesh GR and Patil VB. 2015. Weed and fertility management effects on grain yield and economics of finger millet following groundnut. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **47(2)**: 139–143.
- Dinesh Jinger, Anchal Dass, Vijaya Kumar, Ramanjit Kaur and Kavita Kumari. 2016. Weed Management Strategies in the climate change era. *Indian Farming* **66**(9): 09–13
- Dubey RP, Chethan CR, Choudhary VK, Mishra JS. 2023. A review on weed management in millets. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **55**(2):141–148.
- Dubey RP, Mishra JS. Weed management in millets. *Technical Bulletin No.* 25, ICAR-Directorate of Weed Research. 2023; 44.
- Etana D, Snelder DJRM, van Wesenbeeck CFA and de Cock Buning T. 2022. Review of the effectiveness of smallholder farmers' adaptation to climate change and variability in developing countries. *Journal of Environmental Planning and Management* **65**(5): 759–784.

- Fufa A, Mariam GE. 2016. Weed control practices and interrow spacing influences on weed density and grain yield of finger millet (*Eleusine coracana* L. Gaertn) in the Central Rift Valley of Ethiopia. *International Journal of Research in Agriculture and Forestry* 3(9): 1–7.
- Gholami S, Minbashi M, Zand E and Noormohammadi G. 2013. Non-chemical management of
- weeds effects on forage sorghum production. *International Journal of Advanced Biological and Biomedical Research* **1(6):** 614–623.
- Girase PP, Suryawanshi RT, Pawar PP, Wadile SC. 2017. Integrated weed management in pearl millet. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **49**(1): 41–43.
- Gowda MC and Dhananjaya K. 2000. Effect of intercultivation on performance of finger millet under rain–fed conditions. *Karnataka Journal of Agricultural Sciences* **13**(4): 1040–1042.
- Gurubasavaswamy BM, Geetha KN, Kamala Bai S, Pruthviraj N, Karthik AN, Sinchana JK and Tejaswini CR. 2023. Weed management in organic kodo millet in Eastern dry zone of Karnataka. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **55**(3): 355–358.
- Hakala K, Hannukkala A and Huusela-Veistola E. 2011. Pests and diseases in a changing climate a major challenge for Finnish crop production. *Agricultural and Food Science* (Finland) **20**:3–14.
- Hatterman-Valenti H, Pitty A and Owen M. 2011. Environmental effects on velvetleaf (*Abutilon theophrasti*) epicuticular wax deposition and herbicide absorption. *Weed Science* **59**: 14–21.
- Hartfield JL, Boote JK, Kimball BA, Ziska LH, Izaurralde RC, Ort D, Thomson AM, Wolfe D. 2011. Climate impacts on agriculture: Implications for crop production. *Agronomy Journal* 103: 351–370.
- Haussman BIG, Hess DE, Omanya GO, Folkertsma RT, Reddy BVS, Kayentao M, Welz HG and Geiger HH. 2004. Genomic regions influencing resistance to the parasitic weed *Striga hermonthica* in two recombinant inbred populations of sorghum. *Theoretical and Applied Genetics* **109**: 1005–1016.
- Hinsinger P, Bengough AG, Vetterlein D and Young IM. 2009. Rhizosphere: biophysics, biogeochemistry and ecological relevance. *Plant Soil* **321**: 117–152.
- Holt JS. 1995. Plant responses to light: A potential tool for weed management. *Weed Science* **43**(3): 474–482.
- Hozayn M, El-Shahawy TAE and Sharara FA. 2012. Implication of crop row orientation and row spacing for controlling weeds and increasing yield in wheat. *Australian Journal of Basic and Applied Sciences* **6**(3): 422–427.
- https://www.indiastat.com/table/agriculture/season-wise-area-production-yield-nutri-cereals-in/1210178
- IPCC. 2007. Summary for policymakers. In: Climate Change 2007: The Physical Science Basis. Contribution of Working Group I to the, (Eds: Solomon S, Qin D, Manning M, Chen Z, Marquis M, Averyt KB, Tignor M, Miller HL), Fourth Assessment Report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate Change. Cambridge University Press, Cambridge.

- Jackson L, Wheeler S, Hollander A, O'Geen A, Orlove B, Six J, Sumner D, Santos-Martin F, Kramer J, Horwath W, Howitt R and Tomich T. 2011. Case study on potential agricultural responses to climate change in a California landscape. Climate Change 109: 407–427.
- Jawahar S, Ramesh S, Vinod Kumar SR, Kalaiyarasan C, Arivukkarasu K and Suseendran K. 2020. Effect of weed management practices on weed indices in transplanted kodo millet. *Plant Archieves* 20(1): 1–3.
- Jordan, DB and Ogren WL. 1984. The CO2/O2 specificity of ribulose 1, 5-bisphosphate carboxylase/oxygenase. *Planta* 161: 308–313.
- Kaur R, Jaidka M and Kingra PK. 2014. Study of optimum time span for distinguishing rumex spinosus in wheat crop through spectral reflectance characteristics. *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences, India Section B: Biological Sciences* **84**: 625–633.
- Kaur R, Kumar S, Ali SA, Ezing UM, Bana RS, Meena SL, Dass A and Singh T. 2024. Impacts of climate change on cropweed dynamics: Challenges and strategies for weed management in a changing climate. Open Journal of Environmental Biology 9(1): 15–21.
- Kaur A and Singh VP. 2006. Weed dynamics as influenced by planting methods, mulching and weed control in rainfed hybrid pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum L.*). *Indian Journal* of Weed Science 38(1&2): 135"136.
- Keikotlhaile BM. 2011. *Influence of the processing factors on pesticide residues in fruits and vegetables and its application in consumer risk assessment*. PhD Dissertation, Ghent University, Ghent.
- Kostov T and Pacanoski Z. 2007. Weeds with major impact on agriculture in Republic of Macedonia. *Pakistan Journal* of *Weed Science Research* 13: 227–239.
- Kudsk P, Olesen T and Thonke KE. 1990. The influence of temperature, humidity and simulated rain on the performance of thiameturon-methyl. *Weed Research* **30**: 261–269.
- Kujur S, Singh VK, Gupta DK, Tandon A, Ekka V, Agrawal HP. 2018. Influence of weed management practices on weeds, yield and economics of fingermillet [Eleusine coracana L. Gaertn]. International Journal of Bio-resource Stress Management 9(2): 209–213.
- Kumar A, Paliwal A, Rawat L, Kumar P, Paliwal A and Chaudhary S. 2019. Barnyard millet (*Echinochloa frumentacea*) productivity enhancement through establishment methods and weed management practices under hilly rain fed conditions. *International Journal of Chemical Studies* 7(2): 1360–1362.
- Lekhana BY, KN Geetha, S Kamala Bai and Kalyana Murthy KN. 2021. Studies on effect of different pre-emergence herbicides on weed dynamics in kodo millet (*Paspalum scrobiculatum* L.). *International Journal of Current Microbiology and Applied Sciences* **10**(4): 127–135.
- Liu T, Yang X, Batchelor WD, Liu Z. Zhang Z, Wan N, Sun S, He B, Gao J, Bai F, Zhang F, and Zhao J. 2020. A case study of climate-smart management in foxtail millet (*Setaria italica*) production under future climate change in Lishu county of Jilin, China. *Agricultural and Forest Meteorology* 292–293: 108131.
- Locke MA, Reddy KN and Zablotowicz RM. 2002. Weed

- management in conservation crop production systems. *Weed Biology and Management* **2**(3): 123–132.
- Long SP. 1999. Environmental responses. pp. 215"249. In: *The biology of C<sub>4</sub> photosynthesis* (Eds. RF Sage and RK Monson). Academic Press, San Diego, California.
- Mahalingam Govindaraj, Kedar Nath Rai, Binu Cherian, Wolfgang Helmut Pfeiffer, Anand Kanatti and Harshad Shivade. 2019. Breeding biofortified pearl millet varieties and hybrids to enhance millet markets for human nutrition. *Agriculture* 9: 1–11,
- Makaza W, Youness En–nahli and Moez Amri. 2023. Harnessing plant resistance against *Striga* spp. parasitism in major cereal crops for enhanced crop production and food security in Sub- Saharan Africa: a review. Food Security https://doi.org/10.1007/s12571–023–01345–9
- Manea A, Leishman MR and Downey PO. 2011. Exotic C4 grasses have increased tolerance to glyphosate under elevated carbon dioxide. *Weed Science* **59**: 28–36.
- Mathukia RK, Mathukia PR and Polara AM. 2015. Intercropping and weed management in pearl millet (*Pennisetum glaucum*) under rainfed condition. *Agricultural Science Digest* **35**(2): 138"141.
- McErlich AF and Boydston RA. 2013. Current state of weed management in organic and conventional cropping systems. Publications from USDA-ARS/UNL Faculty. Paper 1387.
- Miraglia M, Marvin HJP and Kleter GA 2009. Climate change and food safety: An emerging issue with special focus on Europe. *Food and Chemical Toxicology* **47**: 1009–1021.
- Mishra JS, Rao SS and Dixit A. 2012. Evaluation of new herbicides for weed control and crop safety in rainy season sorghum. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **44**(1): 71–72.
- Mishra JS. 2015. Weed management in millets: Retrospect and prospects. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **47**(3): 246–253.
- Mishra JS, Rao SS and Patil JV. 2015. Response of grain sorghum (*Sorghum bicolor*) cultivars to weed competition in semi-arid tropical India. *Indian Journal of Agricultural Sciences* **85**(5): 688–694.
- Mishra JS, Rakesh Kumar, Upadhyay PK and Hansraj Hans. 2018. Weed management in millets. *Indian Farming* **68**(11): 77–79.
- Morgan JA, LeCain DR, Mosier AR and Milchunas DG 2001. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> enhances water relations and productivity and affects gas exchange in C3 and C4 grasses of the Colorado shortgrass steppe. *Global Change Biology* 7: 451–466.
- Mulla S, Singh SK, Singh KK and Praveen B. 2019. Climate change and agriculture: A review of crop models. Pp. 423–435. In: *Global Climate Change and Environmental Policy:*Agriculture Perspectives. Springer Singapore, Singapore.
- NAAS. 2002. Promoting millet production, value addition and consumption. *Policy Paper No. 114*, National Academy of Agricultural Sciences, New Delhi. p24.
- NAAS. 2013. Millets: Future of food and farming. Retrieved fromhttp://naasindia.org/Millets\_Future\_of\_Food \_and\_Farming.pdf
- Olesen T and Kudsk P. 1987. The influence of rain on the effect of chlorsulfuron, fluazifop-butyl and glyphosate. Pp. 256–266. In: *Proceedings 4th Danish Plant Protection Conference on Weeds*.

- Olson BL, Al-Khatib K, Stahlman P and Isakson PJ. 2000 Efficacy and metabolism of MON 37500 in *Triticum aestivum* and weedy grass species as affected by temperature and soil moisture. *Weed Science* 48: 541–548.
- Osmond CB, Winter K and Ziegler H. 1982. Functional significance of different pathways of CO<sub>2</sub> fixation in photosynthesis. Pp. 479"547. In: *Physiological Plant Ecology II* (ed. O.L. Lange, P.S. Nobel, C.B. Osmond, and H. Ziegler). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.
- Peerzada AM, Ali HH and Chauhan BS. 2017. Weed management in sorghum [Sorghum bicolor (L.) Moench] using crop competition: A review. Crop Protection 95: 74–80.
- Ramadevi S, Sagar GK, Subramanyam D and Kumar ARN. 2021. Weed management in transplanted finger millet with preand post-emergence herbicides. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* 53(3): 297–299.
- Ramesh N, Kalaimani M, Baradhan G, Kumar SMS, Ramesh S. 2019. Influence of weed management practices on nutrient uptake and productivity of hybrid pearl millet under different herbicides application. *Plant Archives* 19(2): 2893–2898.
- Rich PJ, Grenier C and Ejeta G. 2004. Striga resistance in wild relatives of sorghum. *Crop Science* 44: 2221–2229.
- Rodenburg, J, Meinke, H and Johnson DE. 2011. Challenges for weed management in African rice systems in a changing climate. *The Journal of Agricultural Science* **149**: 427–435.
- Schmidt IK, Jonasson S and Shaver GR 2002. Mineralization and distribution of nutrients in plants and microbes in four arctic ecosystems: responses to warming. *Plant Soil* **242**: 93–106.
- Shubhashree KS and Sowmyalatha BS. 2019. Integrated weed management approach for direct seeded finger millet (*Eleusine coracana* L.). *International Journal of Agricultural Science* **11**(7): 8193–8195.
- Soukup J, Jursik M and Hamouz P. 2004. Influence of soil pH, rainfall, dosage, and application timing of herbicide Merlin 750 WG (isoxaflutole) on phytotoxicity level in maize (*Zea mays* L.). *Plant Soil Environment* **50**: 88–94.
- Stahlman PW and Wicks GA. 2000. Weeds and their control in grain sorghum. In: [Smith, C.W., Frederiksen, R.A. (Eds.)], Sorghum Origin, History, *Technology and Production*. John Wiley and Sons, Inc, New York. 535–590.
- Stopps GJ, Nurse RE and Sikkema PH. 2013. The effect of time of day on the activity of postemergence soybean herbicides. *Weed Technology* **27**: 690–695.
- Sukanya TS, Chaithra C and Morab PN. 2021. Weed management in kodo millet (*Paspalum scrobiculatum L.*). *Biological Forum An International Journal* **13**(3b): 124–128.
- Swinton SM, Buhler DD, Forcella F, Gunsolus JL and King RP 1994. Estimation of crop yield loss due to interference by multiple weed species. Weed Science 42(1): 103–109.
- Teasdale JR and Mohler CL. 2000. The quantitative relationship between weed emergence and the physical properties of mulches. *Weed Science* **48**(3): 385–392.
- Thambi B, Latha KR, Arthanari PM and Djanaguiraman M. 2021. Integrated weed management practices in barnyard millet (*Echinochloa frumentacea*) under irrigated condition. *The Pharma Innovation Journal* **10**(10): 1404–1408.

- Thanmai PL, Srinivasulu K, Prasad PVN, Babu PR. 2018. Evaluation of post-emergence herbicides in pearl millet (*Pennisetum typhoides*). *International Journal of Chemical Studies* **6**(3): 631–633.
- Vanderlip RK, Roozeboom D Full, J Shroyer, H Kok, D Reger, A Whintey, DH Rogers, M Alam, D Jardine, HL Brooks, RK Taylor, JP Harner and LN Langemeier. 1998. *Grain sorghum production handbook. C–687*. Kansas State Univ. Agric. Exp. Stn. and Coop Ext. Serv., Manhattan, KS.
- Vijaymahantesh, Nanjappa HV, Ramachandrappa BK. 2013. Effect of tillage and nutrient management practices on weed dynamics and yield of finger millet under rainfed pigeon pea-finger millet system in Alfisols of southern India. *African Journal of Agricultural Research* 8(21): 2470–2475.
- Vikram Jeet Singh, Kunnummal Kurungara Vinod, Subbaiyan Gopala Krishnan and Ashok K. Singh. 2021. Rice Adaptation to Climate Change: Opportunities and Priorities in Molecular Breeding. Pp. 1–25. In: *Molecular breeding for rice abiotic stress tolerance and nutritional quality*, https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119633174.ch1
- Vinothini G and Murali Arthanari P. 2017. Pre-emergence herbicide application and hand weeding for effective weed management in irrigated kodo millet (*Paspalum scrobiculatum* L.). International *Journal of Chemical Studies* 5(3): 366–369.
- Vishalini RD, Rajakumar M, Joseph, Gomathy M. 2020. Efficient non-chemical weed management strategy for irrigated finer millet (*Eleusine coracana L.*). *Journal of Pharmacognosy and Phytochemistry* **9**(5): 1210–1212.
- Waddington SR, Li X, Dixon J, Hyman G, De Vicente MC. 2010. Getting the focus right: production constraints for six major food crops in Asian and African farming systems. Food Security 2: 27–48.
- Wang S, Duan L and Li J. 2006. UV-B radiation increases paraquat tolerance of two broad-leaved and two grass weeds in relation to changes in herbicide absorption and photosynthesis. *Weed Research* 47: 122–128.
- Wright TR, Fuerst EP, Ogg AG, Handihall UB and Lee HJ. 1995. Herbicide activity of UCC-C4243 and acifluorfen is due to inhibition of protoporphyrinogen oxidase. *Weed Science* **43**: 47–54.
- Xiaoyan Yang, Wenxiang Wu, Linda Perry, Zhikun Ma, Ofer Bar-Yosef, David J. Cohen, Hongbo Zheng and Quansheng Ge. 2018. Critical role of climate change in plant selection and millet domestication in North China. Scientific reports 8: 1–9.
- Yaduraju NT. 2006. Herbicide resistance crop in weed management. Pp. 297"298: In: The extended Summaries, Golden Jubilee National Symposium on Conservation Agriculture and Environment, 26-28 October, Banaras Hindu University, Banaras; c.
- Zanatta JF. 2008. Teores de agua no solo e eficacia do herbicidafomesafen no controle de *Amaranthushybridus*. *Planta Daninha* **26**: 143–155.
- Zeng Q, Liu B, Gilna B, Zhang Y, Zhu C, Ma H, Pang J, Chen G and Zhu J. 2011. Elevated CO<sub>2</sub> effects on nutrient competition between a C<sub>3</sub> crop (*Oryza sativa* L.) and a C<sub>4</sub> weed (*Echinochloa crusgalli* L.). Nutrient Cycling in Agroecosystems 89: 93–104.
- Ziska LH. 2008. Rising atmospheric carbon dioxide and plant biology: The overlooked paradigm. DNA Cell Biology 27: 165–172.