

**ISSN 2348-1900 (online) Vol 11(sp4): 01–11 <https://doi.org/10.14719/pst.5118>**

**RESEARCH ARTICLE**



# **Screening of herbicides for weed management in quinoa (***Chenopodium quinoa* **Willd.) - The first report from India**

**Lavanya S<sup>1</sup> , Thavaprakaash N1\*, Radhamani S<sup>1</sup> , Janaki P<sup>2</sup> , Djanaguiraman M<sup>3</sup> & Sangeetha SP<sup>1</sup>**

<sup>1</sup>Department of Agronomy, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore 641 003, Tamil Nadu, India <sup>2</sup>Nammazhvar Organic Farming Research Centre, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore 641 003, Tamil Nadu, India <sup>3</sup>Department of Crop Physiology, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore 641 003, Tamil Nadu, India

\*Email: [thavaprakaash.n@tnau.ac.in](mailto:thavaprakaash.n@tnau.ac.in)

# **[OPEN ACCESS](http://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/open_access_policy)**

## **ARTICLE HISTORY**

Received: 18 September 2024 Accepted: 08 October 2024 Available online Version 1.0 : 20 December 2024

Check for updates

#### **Additional information**

**Peer review**: Publisher thanks Sectional Editor and the other anonymous reviewers for their contribution to the peer review of this work.

#### **Reprints & permissions information** is

available at [https://horizonepublishing.com/](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/open_access_policy) [journals/index.php/PST/open\\_access\\_policy](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/open_access_policy)

**Publisher's Note**: Horizon e-Publishing Group remains neutral with regard to jurisdictional claims in published maps and institutional affiliations.

**Indexing**: Plant Science Today, published by Horizon e-Publishing Group, is covered by Scopus, Web of Science, BIOSIS Previews, Clarivate Analytics, NAAS, UGC Care, etc See [https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/indexing_abstracting) [index.php/PST/indexing\\_abstracting](https://horizonepublishing.com/journals/index.php/PST/indexing_abstracting)

**Copyright**: © The Author(s). This is an openaccess article distributed under the terms of the Creative Commons Attribution License, which permits unrestricted use, distribution and reproduction in any medium, provided the original author and source are credited ([https://creativecommons.org/licenses/](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/) [by/4.0/\)](https://creativecommons.org/licenses/by/4.0/)

#### **CITE THIS ARTICLE**

Lavanya S, Thavaprakaash N, Radhamani S, Janaki P, Djanaguiraman M, Sangeetha SP. Screening of herbicides for weed management in quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.) - The first report from India. Plant Science Today.2024;11(sp4):01-11. <https:/doi.org/10.14719/pst.5118>

# **Abstract**

Weed management without herbicide poses a significant challenge in crop production, especially for emerging crops like quinoa, which are highly sensitive to many herbicides. Identifying suitable herbicides and determining their optimal doses are critical steps for enhancing quinoa cultivation. To address this, two screening experiments followed by a conformity study were conducted in pots at Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore in 2024. The study evaluated eight preemergence, six early post-emergence and three post-emergence herbicides, each applied at 100 % and 75 % of the recommended dose (a total of 34 treatments) and compared their effects against a non-treated control (no herbicide). The experiments were carried out in a completely randomized design. Screening results indicated that pre-emergence applications of pretilachlor, butachlor, bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor and pyrazosulfuron ethyl at 100 % recommended doses significantly reduced total weed density and dry weight while enhancing quinoa growth parameters, with minimal phytotoxic effects. In the conformity study, only the full recommended doses of pretilachlor (750 g ha<sup>-1</sup>), butachlor (1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor (660 g ha<sup>-1</sup>) consistently reduced weed density and dry weight effectively. However, phytotoxicity evaluations revealed that both the 100 and 75 % doses of atrazine, metribuzin, oxyfluorfen, tembotrione, topramezone, pendimethalin, imazethapyr, triafamone + ethoxysulfuron, penoxsulam + cyhalofop butyl, pyrazosulfuron ethyl, bispyribac sodium, fomesafen + fluzifop-p-butyl, quizalofop ethyl and pyrithiobac sodium were unsuitable for quinoa due to their high phytotoxicity.

## **Keywords**

bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor; butachlor; phytotoxicity; pretilachlor; quinoa; suitable herbicides

# **Introduction**

Quinoa is an annual herbaceous plant classified as a pseudo-cereal, originating from the Andean region of South America (1). In recognition of the Andean people's long-standing tradition of preserving quinoa for future generations, the UN General Assembly declared 2013 as "The International Year of Quinoa" (2). Quinoa is a protein-rich grain, with protein content ranging from 13.8 to 21.9 % depending on its variety. It is naturally gluten-free and contains higher levels of essential amino acids compared to conventional cereals (3). The grains are particularly rich in lysine and methionine and comprise 67-74 % carbohydrates and 2-10 % of fat. Quinoa's oil content varies between 1.8 % and 9.5 % and it is a significant source of essential fatty acids (4).

Quinoa is a resilient crop capable of thriving under extreme climatic conditions. Its ability to withstand drought is attributed to several mechanisms, including drought escape, tolerance and avoidance, which enable the plant to adapt to diverse environmental challenges (5). Drought escape in quinoa is primarily achieved through early maturity, either at the beginning or end of the growing season. Drought tolerance mechanisms include growth plasticity, tissue elasticity and maintaining low osmotic potential. Additionally, quinoa avoids the adverse effects of drought through features such as a deep root system, leaf shedding to reduce leaf area, specialized vesicular glands and small, thick-walled cells that can endure significant water loss while retaining turgor. Stomatal regulation also plays a key role in minimizing water loss (5).

The ideal temperature range for quinoa cultivation is between 15°C and 30°C, though it can endure temperatures from -4°C to +50°C. Quinoa grows well on a wide variety of soil types, including marginal soils with a broad pH range (6). However, fertile soils significantly enhance its productivity (7). Additionally, quinoa exhibits resistance to drought salinity, pests and diseases, earning it the nickname 'golden grain' due to its resistance to cold, salt and drought, as well as its high nutritional value (8, 9).

Indian farmers have been growing quinoa for the past decade with minimum or no use of scientific methods or standardized agricultural practices. To enhance productivity, it is crucial to identify and implement optimal agronomic practices. Several factors affect productivity, including improved seed varieties, land preparation and sowing techniques, water management, nutrient application, weed control and pest and disease management. Among these, weed management is particularly critical in quinoa cultivation, as quinoa typically grows during a season when its wild relatives, such as *Chenopodium album* and *Chenopodium murale*, also thrive. These weeds compete with quinoa for essential resources like light, water, nutrients and space.

Farmers often face challenges in distinguishing quinoa seedlings from weed species during the early stages of growth making weed management a significant concern. Effective weed control has more pronounced effects on the growth and yield of quinoa than other crops. It is essential to identify and manage weeds before the critical weed-free period, which occurs 16 days after seedling emergence (10). Failure to implement proper weed management strategies can substantially reduce quinoa seed yield (11).

The development of effective weed control strategies and the identification of suitable herbicides are critical for advancing quinoa cultivation practices. Existing literature highlights that weed management in quinoa has primarily relied on manual methods or the use of hand tools, with no established chemical weed management protocols in India due to quinoa's sensitivity to herbicides. In other countries, some herbicides were tested that caused phytotoxicity to quinoa plants (12). For instance, post-emergence (PoE) application of herbicides such as atrazine, metribuzin, clethodim, quizalofop tefuryl, clodinafop, haloxyfop methyl, sethoxydim, pendimethalin, oxyfluorfen, bentazon and oxadiazone as well as benoxacor and pendimethalin, have beenreported to be toxic to quinoa (13, 14).

While a few herbicides have been tested alongside manual weeding for managing weeds in quinoa, these studies primarily focused on limited weed parameters (15, 16). However, no comprehensive research has been conducted to screen pre-emergence (PE), early post-emergence (EPoE) and PoE herbicides in quinoa, particularly under tropical conditions like those in India. The current study aims to address this gap by identifying effective PE, EPoE and PoE herbicides for quinoa cultivation while minimizing phytotoxic effects on the crop.

## **Materials and Methods**

#### *Screening experiment*

The screening experiment was conducted twice using pots at the Department of Agronomy, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore, in 2024. Coimbatore, located in the western agroclimatic zone of Tamil Nadu, is positioned at 11°N latitude, 77°E longitude and an altitude of 426.7 m above mean sea level. The soil used in pots was sandy clay loam in texture, with low organic carbon  $(4.54 \text{ g kg}^{-1})$  and available nitrogen (174.5 kg ha<sup>-1</sup>). However, it was high in available phosphorus  $(17.40 \text{ kg} \text{ ha}^{-1})$  and potassium  $(560.2 \text{ kg} \text{ ha}^{-1})$  and had a pH of 8.17. During the study, the maximum and minimum temperatures recorded were 34.10°C and 22.76°C, respectively. The crop was exposed to an average evaporation rate of 6.83 mm, 8.77 hr of bright sunshine daily and mean solar radiation of 405.2 Cal cm<sup>-2</sup> per day. No rainfall was recorded during the pot culture experiment.

The experiment followed a completely randomized design with two replications and involved the screening of 34 treatments. These treatments included addition of herbicides during the pre-emergence (PE), early post-emergence (EPoE) and post-emergence (PoE) stages, each herbicide applied at two different doses (100% and 75% of the recommended dose). The results were compared with a control group that received no herbicide application. Detailed treatment details are presented in Table 1.

Note: EC - emulsifiable concentrate, WP - wettable powder, EW - emulsion-in-water, GR - granules, SC - suspension concentrate, W/W - weight per weight, SL - soluble liquid, PE pre-emergence, EPoE - early post-emergence, PoE - postemergence, a.i. - active ingredient

Quinoa seeds (local variety) were procured from the Agricultural Research Station, Mandor, Jodhpur, Rajasthan. Pots were filled with five kilograms of soil and twenty seeds were sown in each pot. According to the treatment schedule, PE herbicides were applied three days after sowing (DAS), EPoE herbicides at 15 DAS and PoE herbicides at 25 DAS using a 50 mL hand sprayer. Irrigation was provided as needed based on the moisture content of the soil.

## *Observation made*

The number of germinated seeds was recorded on the 10th DAS and the germination percentage was calculated based on the total number of seeds sown (Eqn. 1).

Germination percentage (GP) = Number of seeds germinated x 100



Phytotoxicity in quinoa was evaluated at 30 DAS following herbicide treatment, as per the guidelines recommended by the European Weed Research Council (17). A rating system was used to assess crop phytotoxicity (Table 2).

**Table 2.** Phytotoxicity scoring chart



The density and dry weight of weeds were recorded at 30 DAS and the weed control efficiency (WCE) was calculated as:



Where, WCE - Weed Control Efficiency (%); DMc - Dry matter of weeds in the control (no herbicide) and DMt - Dry matter of weeds in the treated plot.

The growth parameters of quinoa, such as plant height (cm), leaf area (cm<sup>2</sup>), number of leaves per plantand dry matter accumulation (g per plant) were recorded at 15 and 30 DAS.

#### *Conformity experiment*

After two rounds of screening experiments, the most effective treatments were identified based on their weed control efficiency and impact on quinoa. A conformity pot trial was subsequently conducted using a completely randomized design with nine treatments and three replications (Table 3).

All cultivation practices followed the procedures used in the previous screening experiments and the same soil was used for the conformity trail. Twenty seeds were sown in each pot and the PE herbicides were applied at 3 DAS (as per the treatment). Growth and weed parameters were recorded in the same manner as in the screening experiment.

#### *Statistical Analysis*

The original data on weed and plant growth parameters were square root transformed ( $\sqrt{x}$  + 0.5) and subjected to statistical analysis. Statistical significance was determined using the Ftest at a 0.05 probability level. For parameters that showed significant effects ( $p \le 0.05$ ), critical differences (CD) were calculated to compare the impacts of different treatments (18).

**Table 3.** Treatment details of the conformity experiment

| <b>Treatment</b> | Herbicide                         | <b>Formulation</b> | <b>Application rate</b><br>$(g a.i. ha-1)$ | <b>Application</b> |
|------------------|-----------------------------------|--------------------|--|--------------------|
| $\mathsf{T}_1$   | Pretilachlor                      | 50% EC             | 750  | PE                 |
| T,               | Pretilachlor                      | 50% EC             | 560  | РE                 |
| $T_3$            | <b>Butachlor</b>                  | 50% EW             | 1000                                       | PE                 |
| T4               | <b>Butachlor</b>                  | 50% EW             | 750  | PE                 |
| Τ5               | Bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor | $0.6\% + 6\%$ GR   | 660  | PE                 |
| $T_6$            | Bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor | $0.6\% + 6\%$ GR   | 500  | PE                 |
| T <sub>7</sub>   | Pyrazosulfuron ethyl              | 10% WP             | 30   | PE                 |
| $T_8$            | Pyrazosulfuron ethyl              | 10% WP             | 22.5                                       | PE                 |
| T9               | Control (no herbicide)            |                    |  |                    |

### **Results and Discussion**

## *Weeds flora*

The experimental pots were infested with a variety of weeds, including broad-leaved weeds, grasses and sedge weeds. Grassy weeds observed included crabgrass [*Digitaria sanguinalis*], Egyptian crowfoot grass [*Dactylactenium aegeptium*], purple top chloris [*Chloris barbata*], wild foxtail [*Setaria viridis*] and viper grass [*Dinebra retroflexa*]. Sedge weed such as nutgrass [*Cyperus rotundus*] and broad-leaved weeds like black pigweed [*Trianthema portuacastrum*], congress grass [*Parthenium hysterophorus*], common purslane [*Protulaca oleracea*], erect spiderling [*Boerhavia erecta*], prostrate sand mat [*Euphorbia prostrata*], fire plant [*Euphorbia geniculata*] and wild jute [*Corchorus olitoris*] were all observed at 30 DAS.

#### *Germination percentage*

Based on the observation made at 10 DAS in the screening experiments, only the PE herbicide treatments ( $T_1$  to  $T_{16}$ ) showed variation in germination percentage, ranging from 0.00 to 93.75% (Table 4). When atrazine (1000 g ha $^{-1}$ , T<sub>3</sub>) and (750 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>4</sub>), metribuzin (500 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>7</sub>) and (375 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>8</sub>) and oxyfluorfen (250 g ha<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{11}$ ) and (187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{12}$ ) were sprayed as PE treatments at 3 DAS, quinoa germination failed completely (0.00%). However, the highest germination rate (93.75 %) was observed with bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor (500 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>16</sub>), followed closely by butachlor (T<sub>5</sub> and T<sub>6</sub>), pretilachlor (T<sub>9</sub> and T<sub>10</sub>), pyrazosulfuron (T<sub>13</sub> and T<sub>14</sub>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor (660 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>15</sub>), with germination ranging from 70 % to 75 %. Pendimethalin ( $T_1$  and  $T<sub>2</sub>$ ) treatments resulted in the lowest germination percentages (27.50 % and 35.00 %, respectively) among the PE herbicides. Pretilachlor, butachlor and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor are selective herbicides that target specific weed species without adversely affecting quinoa. The variation in germination percentage was due to the phytotoxicity of the individual herbicides. These herbicides exhibit lower phytotoxic effects on quinoa compared to others. Herbicides with higher toxicity can hinder seed germination and seedling vigor, whereas pretilachlor, butachlor and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor are less likely to cause damage, leading to better germination rates. The mode of action of these herbicides appears to be more compatible with the quinoa growth cycle, especially during the early stages of germination and establishment, promoting better seedling emergence and growth. Additionally, these herbicides may have a favourable residual effect in the soil, maintaining weed control during the critical early growth stages, ensuring optimal conditions for quinoa germination without harmful residues that could

inhibit seedling development. In this study, an inverse relationship was observed between the phytotoxicity of PE herbicides and quinoa germination percentage, i.e., the higher the phytotoxicity of the herbicide, the lower the germination percentage. Previous scientific evidence on the variation in germination percentage due to their toxicity supports these findings (19). All other treatments ( $T_{17}$  to  $T_{34}$ ), where herbicides were applied post the 10 DAS observation, recorded 100% germination. The control pot  $(T_{35})$ , with no herbicide application, also achieved full germination (100 %) of quinoa.

# *Effect of herbicides on phytotoxicity of quinoa*

The phytotoxic effects of herbicides on quinoa were evaluated through visual observation at 30 DAS (Table 2). Phytotoxicity was characterized by stunted growth, wilting and a decrease in plant height, leaf area and dry matter production, as well as leaf discolouration in quinoa (Fig. 1). Based on visual observation using a 1-9 point scale, all the treatments exhibited a varying degree of phytotoxicity, with scores ranging from 4 to 9 (Table 4).



Fig. 1. Overall view of the screening experiment (30 DAS).





**5**



Figures in parenthesis are original values which were transformed into  $(\sqrt{x} + 0.5)$ .

Complete destruction (100 % injury; score 9) of quinoa was observed with the PE application of atrazine at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup>  $(T_3)$  and 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>4</sub>), metribuzin at 500 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>7</sub>) and 375 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>8</sub>) and oxyfluorfen at 250 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>11</sub>) and 187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>12</sub>). Similarly, the EPoE application of tembotrione at 120 g ha $^{-1}$  $(T_{23})$  and 90 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>24</sub>), as well as topramezone at 25 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>25</sub>) and 18.75 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>26</sub>), also resulted in 100% injury (Fig. 2).



**Fig. 2.** Phytotoxicity in quinoa plants.

Triazine herbicides, such as atrazine and metribuzin, block electron transport in photosynthesis, hindering seedling growth (20). The herbicide exposure can cause chlorosis due to the disruption of chlorophyll production and the degradation of existing chlorophyll, which may progress to necrosis, particularly in sensitive plants like quinoa (21). These herbicides also cause oxidative stress by promoting the accumulation of reactive oxygen species (ROS), leading to cell membrane damage, lipid peroxidation and reduced cellular function in quinoa (22). Oxyfluorfen inhibits protoporphyrinogen oxidase (PPO), inducing necrosis and eventually plant death (23). This inhibition results in the accumulation of toxic intermediates that cause oxidative stress and damage plant tissues. A similar toxicity effect was observed in quinoa with the application of atrazine, metribuzin and oxyfluorfen, emphasizing the need for careful herbicide selection (13).

Topramezone and tembotrione caused complete plant death by inhibiting the 4-hydroxyphenyl-pyruvate dioxygenase (HPPD) enzyme, which plays a crucial role in carotenoid biosynthesis. Carotenoids protect chlorophyll from photooxidation and are involved in light absorption for photosynthesis. Inhibition of HPPD disrupts carotenoid production, leading to chlorophyll degradation and oxidative stress, which causes significant phytotoxicity in quinoa plants (24, 25). This damage includes chlorosis, necrosis, impaired water regulation and stunted growth. Similar findings on the phytotoxicity of tembotrione in sorghum and topramezone in finger millet support the results of the current study (26, 27).

A phytotoxicity score of 8 (nearly destroyed; 50-90%) was observed in quinoa due to the application of PE herbicide such as pendimethalin at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>1</sub>) and 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>2</sub>); early post-emergence (EPoE) herbicides such as penoxsulam + cyhalofop butyl 135 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>17</sub>) and 101.25 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>18</sub>), imazethapyr 100 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_{19}$ ) and triafamone + ethoxysulfuron 60 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>27</sub>) and 45 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>28</sub>). Pendimethalin inhibits mitotic cell division, blocks root extension and finally stunts growth (28), leading to reduced growth in emerging quinoa seedlings. Penoxsulam, a selective acetolactate synthase (ALS) inhibitor, disrupts the synthesis of essential branched-chain amino acids

(leucine, isoleucine and valine), impairing protein synthesis and causing the accumulation of toxic metabolites. Cyhalofopbutyl inhibits acetyl-CoA carboxylase (ACCase), an enzyme crucial for fatty acid biosynthesis, disrupting membrane integrity and inhibiting cell growth and division(29). The combined effects of both herbicides can severely impact quinoa's growth and development, resulting in stunted root and shoot development. Quinoa plants exposed to these herbicides exhibit reduced height, smaller leaves and poor overall biomass accumulation. Imazethapyr impedes acetohydroxy acid synthase enzyme activity, disrupting protein synthesis, slowing cell division and eventually leading to cell death (30). Triafamone + ethoxysulfuron inhibits ALS enzyme activity in meristematic tissues, causing plant death (31). Previous toxicity reports on the application of pendimethalin and imazethapyr in quinoa support the findings of this study (13, 14, 16).

Herbicides such as pyrazosulfuron ethyl at 30 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_{13}$ ) as PE, bispyribac sodium at 25 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>21</sub>) as EPoE and fomesafen + fluzifop-p-butyl at 250 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>29</sub>) and 187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>  $(T_{30})$  as PoE resulted in a toxicity score of 7 (30-50 % injury; very heavy) on quinoa. Pyrazosulfuron and bispyribac sodium interfere with ALS enzyme activity, hindering plant growth (32). This disruption leads to impaired protein synthesis, reduced growth and increased oxidative stress, causing chlorosis, stunted growth and necrosis in quinoa plants. Bispyribac sodium has been reported to have slight phytotoxic effects on rice, supporting the present study's findings (33). Fomesafen inhibits chlorophyll production by blocking the PPO enzyme, while fluazifop-p-butyl inhibits the ACCase enzyme, contributing to phytotoxicity in quinoa (34). Minor phytotoxic effects of fomesafen + fluazifop-p-butyl in soybeans have been noted, further supporting the present study's results (35).

The PE herbicide pyrazosulfuron ethyl 22.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>14</sub>); EPoE herbicides like Imazethapyr 75 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>20</sub>) and bispyribac sodium at 18.75 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>22</sub>) and PoE herbicides like quizalofop ethyl 50 g ha<sup>-1</sup>(T<sub>31</sub>) and 37.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>32</sub>), as well as pyrithiobac sodium at 62.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>33</sub>) and 47 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>34</sub>), all exhibited a toxicity score of 6 (Heavy; 20-30 %). These herbicides caused a reduction in plant growth parameters, including plant height, number of leaves, leaf area and plant dry matter, observed 10 days after application. Quizalofop ethyl inhibits the ACCase enzyme in susceptible species while pyrithiobac sodium impairs plant developmentby inhibiting the ALS enzyme (29, 36). The current results are supported by the findings of a previous study, which reported that pyrithiobac sodium and quizalofop ethyl were phytotoxic to cotton (37).

Other PE herbicides, such as pretilachlor at 750 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>9</sub>) and 560 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>10</sub>), butachlor at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sup>5</sup>) and 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>6</sub>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 500 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_{16}$ ), exhibited moderate and lasting toxicity (7.0-12.5 %; score 4). Butachlor and pretilachlor (anilides) are surface-active PE herbicides that interfere with the synthesis of proteins, nucleic acids and longchain fatty acids, leading to lower phytotoxicity in plants (38). These herbicides are more toxic to weeds than to quinoa due to the physiological differences in metabolism and enzyme pathways between quinoa and the target weeds. Earlier studies have demonstrated slight phytotoxicity of pretilachlor and butachlor in rice and wheat, respectively, which supports the

findings of this study (39, 40) . Bensulfuron methyl (an ALS inhibitor) and pretilachlor, which inhibits cell division and elongation, affect specific biochemical pathways more crucial for weeds, leading to their death, while quinoa plants are less affected or can compensate for the inhibition. Quinoa plants have a strong ability to activate detoxifying enzymes, such as cytochrome P450s and glutathione S-transferases, which help break down and metabolize herbicides like pretilachlor, butachlor and bensulfuron methyl before they can cause significant damage. Quinoa's thick-walled cells and tissue elasticity allow it to better withstand osmotic stress, minimizing the negative impact of herbicides on cell division and growth. Additionally, quinoa's special vesicular glands help the plant cope with herbicides in the soil, reducing the likelihood of herbicide uptake and translocation to sensitive tissues. Previous reports on the application of bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor on finger millet showed reduced phytotoxicity further supporting the current findings (41). Although the PE herbicides like pretilachlor, butachlor and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor caused moderate to medium toxicity, quinoa recovered after two weeks and appeared normal, similar to the control.

#### *Effect of herbicides on weed parameters*

Based on the screening experiment (mean of two trials), herbicide application resulted in significant variations in weed density and dry weight at 30 DAS (Table 4). Among the herbicides tested, pretilachlor at 750 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>9</sub>) recorded the lowest weed density (2.25 pot<sup>-1</sup>) and dry weight (0.07 g pot<sup>-1</sup>) compared to all other treatments. Other treatments like butachlor at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>5</sub>) (2.58 pot<sup>-1</sup> and 0.09 g pot<sup>-1</sup>, respectively), bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_{15}$ )  $(2.90$  pot<sup>1</sup> and 0.09 g pot<sup>1</sup>, respectively) and pyrazosulfuron ethyl at 30 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_{13}$ ) (3.00 pot<sup>-1</sup> and 0.10 g pot<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) showed comparatively low weed density and dry weight. In the conformity trial, the lowest weed density  $(2.83 \text{ pot}^{-1})$  and dry weight  $(0.07 \text{ g }$  pot<sup>-1</sup>) were observed with the application of pretilachlor at 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_1$ ) at 30 DAS (Table 5). This was statistically similar to butachlor at 1000 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>3</sub>) (3.23 pot<sup>-1</sup> and 0.09 g pot<sup>-1</sup>, respectively) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>5</sub>) (3.27 pot<sup>-1</sup> and 0.09 g pot<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). This may be attributed to the superior weed control efficacy of these herbicides compared to others. Pretilachlor and butachlor inhibit cell division by blocking the synthesis of proteins, nucleic acids and gibberellic acid, thereby suppressing weed growth (42). These herbicides primarily target the growing shoots, making them effective against both broadleaf weeds and grasses. Similarly, bensulfuron methyl, which interferes with ALS, inhibits cell division and disrupts the synthesis of branchedchain amino acids in weeds, stunting their growth. The combination of bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor utilizes different mechanisms of action to control a broader spectrum of weeds. Pretilachlor mainly targets grasses, while bensulfuron methyl is more effective against broadleaf weeds and sedges. This complementary action results in more comprehensive weed control compared to a single herbicide. These herbicides are typically applied in the PE stage, targeting weeds before they can compete with the crop. The gradual reduction in weed density and dry weight, observed in previous studies due to the application of pretilachlor butachlor (45) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor (46), strongly supports the conclusions of

the present study (43-46). Pretilachlor 50 % EC was found to be more effective at reducing weed biomass than other herbicidal treatments, including butachlor (47). Notably, the control (no herbicide) demonstrated the highest weed density (33.50 and  $31.00$  pot<sup>1</sup> in the screening and conformity experiments, respectively) and dry weight  $(1.31$  and 0.99 g pot<sup>-1</sup>, respectively). The maximum weed density and dry weight in the control were due to the absence of herbicide application, which allowed for the unchecked growth of weeds.

The application of different herbicides to quinoa significantly influenced the WCE (Table 4). Based on the screening experiments, a higher WCE was found at the 100 % dose compared to the 75 % dose. The maximum WCE (100 %) was recorded with metribuzin at 500 g ha<sup>-1</sup> ( $T_7$ ) and 375 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>8</sub>) and oxyfluorfen 250 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>11</sub>) and 187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>12</sub>), although these treatments resulted in the death of quinoa plants. This was followed by pretilachlor at 750 g ha $^{-1}$  (95.04 %;  $T_9$ ), butachlor at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (93.51 %; T<sub>3</sub>), bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (93.32 %; T<sub>15</sub>) and pyrazosulfuron ethyl at 30 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (92.56 %;  $T_{13}$ ). In the conformity experiment (Table 5), the highest WCE (92.50 %) was recorded with pretilachlor at 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>1</sub>), followed by butachlor at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (90.91 %; T<sub>3</sub>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (90.91 %; T<sub>5</sub>) (Fig. 3). The lower dry weight of weeds in these treatments contributed to the higher WCE. Additionally, the mode of action of these herbicides effectively controlled weed flora in quinoa by inhibiting development and cell division, which further contributed to the high WCE observed with pretilachlor 50% EC in the current experiment. These results are in agreement with previous studies that documented better WCE with pretilachlor in rice butachlor in rice and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor in finger millet (41, 48).

#### *Effect of herbicides on the growth of quinoa*

The application of herbicides significantly affected the plant height, number of leaves per plant, leaf area and dry matter production of quinoa (Table 6; Fig. 4). Based on the mean results from both screening experiments, the application of pretilachlor 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>9</sub>) recorded the higher plant height (9.89 and 21.20 cm), number of leaves per plant(13.78 and 31.20), leaf area (20.59 and  $79.00 \text{ cm}^2$ ) and dry matter accumulation per plant (0.21 and 0.67 g per plant) at 15 and 30 DAS, respectively compared to other herbicides.However, herbicides such as butachlor 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>5</sub>), bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor 660 g ha $^{-1}$  (T<sub>15</sub>) and pyrazosulfuron ethyl 30 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>13</sub>) showed similar results to pretilachlor (T<sub>9</sub>) in terms of quinoa growth parameters. In the conformity experiment (Table 7), pretilachlor at 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>1</sub>) as a PE application also demonstrated superior performance with respect to plant height (9.93 and 21.23 cm), number of leaves per plant (14.83 and 30.60), leaf area (20.99 and 72.39 cm<sup>2</sup>) and dry matter production (0.21 and 0.65 g per plant) at 15 and 30 DAS, respectively, than control. However, it was comparable to butachlor at 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>3</sub>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor at 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup> (T<sub>5</sub>). The improvement in growth parameters for these treatments was attributed to effective weed control, as evidenced by lower weed density, reduced dry weight and enhanced WCE (Table 4 & 5; Fig. 1 & 3), which minimized competition for resource in quinoa. Reduced weed growth likely enhanced the availability of nutrient, light and

**Table 5.** Effect of herbicides on weed parameters in quinoa at 30 DAS (Conformity trial)



Figures in parenthesis are original values which were transformed into  $(\sqrt{X} + 0.5)$ .



**Fig. 3.** Overall view of the conformity experiment (30 DAS).



**Fig. 4.** Effect of herbicides on weeds and quinoa plants (30 DAS).

**Table 6.** Effect of herbicide treatments on growth parameters in quinoa (mean of two screening experiments)





Figures in parenthesis are original values which were transformed into  $(\sqrt{X} + 0.5)$ . T<sub>1</sub>- Pendimethalin 1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>2</sub>- Pendimethalin 750 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>3</sub>- Atrazine 1000 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>4</sub> - Atrazine 750 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>5</sub> - Butachlor 1000 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>6</sub> - Butachlor 750 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>7</sub> - Metribuzin 500 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>8</sub> - Metribuzin 375 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>9</sub> - Pretilachlor 750 g ha<sup>.1</sup>, T<sub>10</sub> -Pretilachlor 560 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>11</sub> - Oxyfluorfen 250 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>12</sub> - Oxyfluorfen 187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>13</sub> - Pyrazosulfuron ethyl 30 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>14</sub> - Pyrazosulfuron ethyl 22.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>15</sub> -Bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor 660 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>16</sub> - Bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor 500 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>17</sub> - Penoxsulam + cyhalofop butyl 135 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>18</sub> - Penoxsulam + cyhalofop butyl 101.25 g ha<sup>.ı</sup>, T<sub>19</sub> - Imazethapyr 100 g ha<sup>.ı</sup>, T<sub>20</sub> - Imazethapyr 100 g ha<sup>.</sup>i, T<sub>21</sub> - Bispyribac sodium 25 g ha<sup>.</sup>i, T<sub>22</sub> - Bispyribac sodium 18.75 g ha<sup>.</sup>i, T<sub>23</sub> -Tembotrione 120 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>24</sub> - Tembotrione 90 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>25</sub> - Topramezone 25 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>26</sub> - Topramezone 18.75 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>27</sub> - Triafamone + ethoxysulfuron 60 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>28</sub> -Triafamone + ethoxysulfuron 45 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>29</sub> - Fomesafen + fluzifop-p-butyl 250 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>30</sub> - Fomesafen + fluzifop-p-butyl 187.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>31</sub> - Quizalofop ethyl 50 g ha<sup>-1</sup>,  $T_{32}$  - Quizalofop ethyl 37.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>33</sub> - Pyrithiobac sodium 62.5 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>34</sub> - Pyrithiobac sodium 47 g ha<sup>-1</sup>, T<sub>35</sub> - Control (no herbicide).

**Table 7.** Effect of herbicide treatments on growth parameters in quinoa (Conformity trial)



moisture for quinoa, improving nutrients uptake and consequently leading to better growth. Similar findings were reported by Thimmegowda et al*.,* who observed that better weed control created a favourable soil environment in herbicide-treated plots, resulting in improved growth parameters (49). Additionally, previous studies on rice also highlighted similar improvements in growth parameters due to superior weed management, consistent with the results of the present study on quinoa (48, 50).

# **Conclusion**

Based on the findings from two screening experiments followed by a conformity investigation, it can be concluded that PE herbicides such as pretilachlor (750 g ha<sup>-1</sup>), butachlor (1000 g ha<sup>-1</sup>) and bensulfuron methyl + pretilachlor (660 g ha $^{-1}$ ) are effective for controlling weeds in quinoa with minimal phytotoxicity, making them highly recommended herbicide candidate for use in quinoa cultivation. In contrast, the application of atrazine, metribuzin, oxyfluorfen, tembotrione, topramezone, pendimethalin, imazethapyr, triafamone + ethoxysulfuron, penoxsulam + cyhalofop butyl, pyrazosulfuron ethyl, bispyribac sodium, fomesafen + fluzifop-p-butyl, quizalofop ethyl and pyrithiobac sodium resulted in phytotoxicity on quinoa plants, making these herbicides unsuitable for quinoa cultivation.

## **Acknowledgements**

The authors would like to extend their gratitude and sincere thanks to the Department of Agronomy, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore.

# **Authors' contributions**

All the authors have contributed equally to data collection, analysis, writing the original manuscript draft, editing and reviewing.

# **Compliance with Ethical Standards**

**Conflict of interest:** The authors have no conflicts of interest to declare.

### **Ethical issues:** None

#### **References**

- 1. Cusack D. Quinoa: Grain of Incas. Ecologist. 1984;14(1):21-31.
- 2. FAOSTAT. Quinoa area and production in the World. 2013. Available from:<https://www.fao.org>
- 3. Bathal S, Grover K, Gill N. Quinoa A treasure trove of nutrients. J Nutri Res. 2015;3(1):45-49. https://sciresol.s3.us-east-[2.amazonaws.com/srs](https://sciresol.s3.us-east-2.amazonaws.com/srs-j/jnutres/Volume-3/24-Article%20Text-46-1-10-20190428.pdf)[j/jnutres/Volume](https://sciresol.s3.us-east-2.amazonaws.com/srs-j/jnutres/Volume-3/24-Article%20Text-46-1-10-20190428.pdf)-3/24-Article%20Text-46-1-10-20190428.pdf
- 4. Scanlin L, Lewis KA, Dugger P. Quinoa as a sustainable protein source: Production, nutrition and processing. In: Sustainable Protein Sources. Academic Press; 2024; 381-98. [https://doi.org/10.1016/B978](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-91652-3.00009-5) -0-323-91652-[3.00009](https://doi.org/10.1016/B978-0-323-91652-3.00009-5)-5
- 5. Jensen CR, Jacobsen SE, Andersen MN, Nun˜ez N, Andersen SD, Rasmussen L, etal. Leaf gas exchange and water relations of field quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.) during soil drying. European J Agron. 2000;13:11-25. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1161](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1161-0301(00)00055-1)-0301(00)00055-1
- 6. Jacobsen SE, Stølen O. Quinoa -Morphology, phenology and prospects for its production as a new crop in Europe. European J Agron. 1993;2 (1):19-29. [https://doi.org/10.1016/S1161](https://doi.org/10.1016/S1161-0301(14)80148-2)-0301(14)80148-2
- 7. Mobeena S, Thavaprakaash N, Vaiyapuri K, Djanaguiraman M, Geethanjali S, Geetha P. Influence of different types of soils on the growth and yield of quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.). J Appl Nat Sci. 2023;15(1):365-70. <https://doi.org/10.31018/jans.v15i1.4321>
- 8. Yamuna Devi G, Thavaprakaash N, Vanitha K, Sangeetha SP, Thiyagarajan G, Mobeena S. Germination of quinoa seeds under different abiotic stress conditions. Pharma Innov. 2022;11(8):1356- 61. Available from: [https://www.thepharmajournal.com/](https://www.thepharmajournal.com/archives/2022/vol11issue8/PartQ/11-8-133-770.pdf) [archives/2022/vol11issue8/PartQ/11](https://www.thepharmajournal.com/archives/2022/vol11issue8/PartQ/11-8-133-770.pdf)-8-133-770.pdf
- 9. Angeli V, Miguel Silva P, Crispim Massuela D, Khan MW, Hamar A, Khajehei F, et al. Quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.): An overview of the potentials of the "golden grain" and socio-economic and environmental aspects of its cultivation and marketization. Foods. 2020;9(2):216.
- 10. Nurse RE, Obeid K, Page ER. Optimal planting date, row width and critical weed-free period for grain amaranth and quinoa grown in Ontario, Canada*.* Canadian J Plant Sci. 2016;96(3):360-66. [http://](http://dx.doi.org/10.1139/cjps-2015-0160) [dx.doi.org/10.1139/cjps](http://dx.doi.org/10.1139/cjps-2015-0160)-2015-0160
- 11. Jacobsen SE, Christiansen JL, Rasmussen J. Weed harrowing and inter-row hoeing in organic grown quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.). Outlook Agric. 2010;39:223-27. [https://doi.org/10.5367/](https://doi.org/10.5367/oa.2010.0001) [oa.2010.0001](https://doi.org/10.5367/oa.2010.0001)
- 12. Taaime N, Rafik S, El Mejahed K, Oukarroum A, Choukr-Allah R, Bouabid R, et al. Worldwide development of agronomic management practices for quinoa cultivation: A systematic review. Frontiers in Agron. 2023;5:1215441.
- 13. Abbaspoor M. Herbicide screening for weed control in quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa* Willd.). J Plant Prod. 2022;29(3):89-104. <https://doi.org/10.22069/jopp.2022.19425.2866>
- 14. Cowbrough M. Crop injury and yield response of quinoa to applications of various herbicides. Crop advances: Field Crop Reports. 2015.
- 15. Pannacci E, Farneselli M, Ottavini D, Tei F. Mechanical and chemical weed control in quinoa. In: Proceedings of XLVIII Conference of Italian Society for Agronomy; 2019.100-01. Available from: [http://](http://www.siagr.it/index.php/it/2013-02-05-10-10-45/atti-convegni-sia) [www.siagr.it/index.php/it/2013](http://www.siagr.it/index.php/it/2013-02-05-10-10-45/atti-convegni-sia)-02-05-10-10-45/atti-convegni-sia
- 16. Langeroodi ARS, Mancinelli R, Radicetti E. How do intensification practices affect weed management and yield in quinoa (*Chenopodium quinoa*Willd) Crop? Sustain. 2020;12(15):6103.
- 17. Singh DJC, Rao KN. Screening techniques, weed control by chemicals. Sri Lakshmi Press, Bapatla; 1976.
- 18. Gomez KA, Gomez AA. Statistical procedure for agricultural research. 2<sup>nd</sup> ed. John Wiley and Sons, New York. 1984;704.
- 19. Jiang L, Chai K, Fida M, Fang B, Wang K, Bi Y. Germination biology of three Cyperaceae weeds and their response to pre-and postemergence herbicides in paddy fields. Agron. 2024;14(7):592. [https://](https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy14071592) [doi.org/10.3390/agronomy14071592](https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy14071592)
- 20. Steinback KE, McIntosh L, Bogorad L, Arntzen CJ. Identification of the triazine receptor protein as a chloroplast gene product. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 1981;78(12):7463-67. Available from: <https://www.pnas.org/doi/abs/10.1073/pnas.78.12.7463>
- 21. Abendroth JA, Martin AR, Roeth FW. Plant response to combinations of mesotrione and photosystem II inhibitors. Weed Tech. 2006;20 (1):267-74.
- 22. Sher A, Maqbool MM, Iqbal J, Nadeem M, Faiz S, Noor H, et al. The growth, physiological and biochemical response of foxtail millet to atrazine herbicide. Saudi J Bio Sci. 2021;28(11):6471-79.
- 23. Lee Y, Jung S, Back K. Expression of human protoporphyrinogen oxidase in transgenic rice induces both a photodynamic response and oxyfluorfen resistance. Pesticide Biochem Physiol. 2004;80(2):65 -74.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pestbp.2004.06.008>
- 24. Boger P, Sandmann G. Carotenoid biosynthesis inhibitor herbicides -mode of action and resistance mechanism. Pesticides Outlook. 1998;9:29-35. <https://www.cabidigitallibrary.org/doi/full/10.5555/19992300487>
- 25. Pinke G, Toth K, Kovacs AJ, Milics G, Varga Z, Blazsek K, et al. Use of mesotrione and tembotrione herbicides for post-emergence weed control in alkaloid poppy (*Papaver somniferum*). Int J Pest Manag. 2014;60(3):187-90. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09670874.2014.953622>
- 26. Dan H, Barroso ALL, Dan LGM, Procópio SO, Ferreira Filho WC, Menezes CCE. Tolerância do sorgo granífero ao herbicida tembotrione*.* Planta Daninha. 2010;28:615-20. [https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100](https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-83582010000300019)- [83582010000300019](https://doi.org/10.1590/S0100-83582010000300019)
- 27. Ramadevi S, Sagar GK, Subramanyam D, Kumar ARN. Weed management in transplanted finger millet with pre and postemergence herbicides. Indian J Weed Sci. 2021;53(3):297-99.
- 28. Parka S, Soper O. The physiology and mode of action of the dinitroaniline herbicides. Weed Sci. 1977;79-87. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0043174500032975) [doi.org/10.1017/S0043174500032975](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0043174500032975)
- 29. Burton JD, Acetyl-coenzyme a carboxylase inhibitors. Rev Toxicol. 1997;1(3-4).
- 30. Shaner DL Anderson PC, Stidham MA. Imidazolinones potent inhibitors of acetohydoxyacid synthase. Plant Physiol. 1984;76:545- 46. Available from: [https://academic.oup.com/plphys/article](https://academic.oup.com/plphys/article-abstract/76/2/545/6084467)[abstract/76/2/545/6084467](https://academic.oup.com/plphys/article-abstract/76/2/545/6084467)
- 31. Whitcomb CE. An introduction to ALS-inhibiting herbicides. Toxic Indus Health. 1999;15:231-39.<https://doi.org/10.1177/074823379901500120>
- 32. Vencil WK. Herbicide handbook. 8<sup>th</sup> Ed. Lawerence, Kanas, Weed Science Society of America; 2002. p.51.
- 33. Abd EN, El-Ghandor AMA, Marzoka EA, Soliman HM. Phytotoxicity and residual effect of some herbicides on three Egyptian rice cultivars (*Oryza sativa* L.). Asian J Res Crop Sci. 2024;9(2):64-80. <https://doi.org/10.9734/ajrcs/2024/v9i2268>
- 34. Sherman TD, Becerril JM, Matsumoto H, Duke MV, Jacobs JM, Jacobs NJ, et al. Physiological basis for differential sensitivities of plant species to protoporphyrinogen oxidase-inhibiting herbicides. Plant Physiol. 1991;97(1):280-87. Available from: [https://academic.oup.com/](https://academic.oup.com/plphys/article-abstract/97/1/280/6087183) plphys/article-[abstract/97/1/280/6087183](https://academic.oup.com/plphys/article-abstract/97/1/280/6087183)
- 35. Patidar J, Kewat ML, Sondhia S, Jha AK, Gupta V. Bio-efficacy of fomesafen + fluazifop-p-butyl mixture against weeds and its effect on productivity and profitability of soybean (*Glycine max*) in central India. Indian J Agric Sci. 2023;93(7):750-55. [https://doi.org/10.56093/](https://doi.org/10.56093/ijas.v93i7.127971) [ijas.v93i7.127971](https://doi.org/10.56093/ijas.v93i7.127971)
- 36. Gaeddert JW, Peterson DE, Horak MJ. Control and cross-resistance of an acetolactate synthase inhibitor-resistant palmer amaranth (*Amaranthus palmeri*) biotype. Weed Tech. 1997;11:132-37. [https://](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0890037X00041464) [doi.org/10.1017/S0890037X00041464](https://doi.org/10.1017/S0890037X00041464)
- 37. Panchal PS, Patel VJ, Kalola AD, Rahevar H, Vasava NM. Efficacy and phytotoxicity of herbicides mixture on weeds and Bt. cotton in loamy sand soils of middle Gujarat. Pharma Innov. 2023;12(7):1636-39. Available from: [https://www.thepharmajournal.com/archives/?](https://www.thepharmajournal.com/archives/?year=2023&vol=12&issue=7&ArticleId=21434) [year=2023&vol=12&issue=7&ArticleId=21434](https://www.thepharmajournal.com/archives/?year=2023&vol=12&issue=7&ArticleId=21434)
- 38. Trenkamp S, Martin W, Tietjen K. Specific and differential inhibition of very-long-chain fatty acid elongases from *Arabidopsis thaliana* by different herbicides. Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences. 2004;101(32):11903-08. Available from: [https://](https://www.pnas.org/doi/abs/10.1073/pnas.0404600101) [www.pnas.org/doi/abs/10.1073/pnas.0404600101](https://www.pnas.org/doi/abs/10.1073/pnas.0404600101)
- 39. Shahabuddin M, Hossain NM, Salim M, Begum M. Efficacy of pretilachlor and oxadiazon on weed control and yield performance of transplant aman rice. Progressive Agric. 2016;27(2):119-27.
- 40. Tang W, Sun J, Yu X, Zhou F, Liu S, Liu M, et al. Fenclorim increasing butachlor selectivity between wheat and Roegneria kamoji by seed soaking. Agron. 2022;12(11):2870. [https://doi.org/10.3390/](https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy12112870) [agronomy12112870](https://doi.org/10.3390/agronomy12112870)
- 41. Banu A, Fathima PS, Denesh GR, Sunil CM. Pre and post-emergence herbicides for weed management in finger millet*.* Indian J Weed Sci. 2016;48(4):447-49.
- 42. Challam T, Thabah S. Studying the impact of four pre-emergence herbicides on paddy-field soil microflora. Int Res J Manag Sci Tech. 2018;9(3):404-16.
- 43. Sangeetha C, Velayutham A, Thavaprakaash N, Chinnusamy C. Crop establishment and weed management effects on rice productivity and weed dynamics. Indian J Weed Sci. 2015;47(1):6-10. Available from: [https://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?](https://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:ijws&volume=47&issue=1&article=002) [target=ijor:ijws&volume=47&issue=1&article=002](https://www.indianjournals.com/ijor.aspx?target=ijor:ijws&volume=47&issue=1&article=002)
- 44. Pandian PS, Thavaprakaash N. Influence of weed management methods on weed characteristics, yield and economics of machinetransplanted rice*.*Int J Farm Sci. 2019;9(1):80-84.
- 45. Onwuchekwa-Henry CB, Van Ogtrop F, Roche R, Tan DK. Evaluation of pre-emergence herbicides for weed management and rice yield in direct-seeded rice in Cambodian lowland ecosystems. Farming Sys. 2023;1(2):100018.<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.farsys.2023.100018>
- 46. Seal D, Mishra K, Sardar S, Ahmedi AA, Patra BC. Performance of herbicides for managing weed fora in transplanted aman paddy (*Oryza sativa* L.). Environ Conser J. 2023;24(4):106-15. [https://](https://doi.org/10.36953/ECJ.17192533) [doi.org/10.36953/ECJ.17192533](https://doi.org/10.36953/ECJ.17192533)
- 47. Mondal D, Ghosh A, Bera S, Ghosh R, Bandopadhyay P. Eco-efficacy of pretilachlor 50 % EC in transplanted winter rice and its residual effect on lentil. Indian J Weed Sci. 2019;51(3):220-26.
- 48. Jana K, Biswas S, Sarkar A, Mondal R, Mondal K. Chemical weed management in transplanted rice and its residual effect on follow-up lathyrus (*Lathyrus sativus* L.). Indian J Weed Sci. 2024;56(1):1-7.
- 49. Thimmegowda P, Murthy KNK, Fathima S, Vidya A. Studies on chemical weed control in aerobic rice (*Oryza sativa* L.). Crop Res. 2010;40(1-2):20-24.
- 50. Raj BG, Sureshkumar SM, Baradhan G, Suganya R. Response of direct seeded rice under different formulations of new generation herbicides on growth and yield. Madras Agric J. 2024;111(1-3):1.