
CLIMATE CHANGE AND AGRICULTURE PAPER

Challenges for weed management in African rice systems in a changing climate

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SUMMARY

Global changes including increases in temperature, atmospheric greenhouse gases, soil degradation and competition for land and water resources, will have multiple impacts on rice production systems in Africa. These changes will affect weed communities, and management approaches must be adapted to take this into account. Higher temperatures and limited water availability will generally advantage C_4 over C_3 plants (e.g. rice). Conversely, elevated carbon dioxide (CO_2) levels will improve the competitiveness of rice relative to C_4 weeds, which comprise many of the problem weeds of rice. Increased atmospheric CO_2 levels may also improve tolerance of rice against parasitic weeds, while prevalence of parasitic species may be amplified by soil degradation and more frequent droughts or floods. Elevated CO_2 levels tend to promote growth below-ground relative to above-ground, particularly in perennial (C_3) species. This may render mechanical control of weeds within a cropping season less effective or even counterproductive. Increased CO_2 levels, rainfall and temperature may also reduce the effectiveness of chemical control, while the implementation of adaptation technologies, such as water-saving irrigation regimes, will have negative consequences for rice–weed competition. Rain-fed production systems are prevalent throughout Africa and these are likely to be most vulnerable to direct effects of climate change (e.g. higher temperatures and changes in rainfall patterns). Effective weed management strategies in these environments could encompass off-season tillage, the use of well-adapted cultivars (i.e. those with drought and heat tolerance, high weed competitiveness and parasitic weed resistance or tolerance) and rotations, intercropping or short, off-season fallows with weed-suppressive legumes including those that suppress parasitic weeds. In irrigated, non-flooded rice systems, weeds are expected to become more serious. Specifically, perennial rhizomatous C_3 weeds and species adapted to hydromorphic conditions are expected to increase in prevalence. By implementing an integrated weed management strategy primarily targeted at weed prevention, dependency on flood water, herbicides and mechanical control can be lessened. Off-season deep tillage, stale seed bed techniques, use of clean seeds and irrigation water, competitive cultivars, timely transplanting at optimum spacing and judicious fertilizer timings are suitable candidate components for such a strategy. Integrated, novel approaches must be developed to assist farmers in coping with the challenges of weed control in the future.

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INTRODUCTION

Rice is an increasingly important commodity in Africa (Balasubramanian *et al.* 2007); in 2007, rice production reached 23.5 Mt (FAO 2009). Trends show production is rapidly increasing and African production now rivals that of Latin America (Meinke *et al.* 2009a). Five main rice agro-ecosystems are distinguished in sub-Saharan Africa (SSA) based on hydrology and topography: (1) rain-fed uplands and hydromorphic slopes (0.39 of total area under rice), (2) rain-fed lowlands in valley bottoms and floodplains (0.33), (3) irrigated lowlands (deltas and floodplains) and highlands (0.19), (4) deep-water basins along major rivers and (5) mangrove-swamps in lagoons and deltas (4 and 5 combined = 0.09) (Balasubramanian *et al.* 2007; FAO 2009).

A review of rice yield losses due to uncontrolled weed growth reported losses in the range of 28–74% in transplanted lowland rice, 28–89% in direct-seeded lowland rice and 48–100% in upland ecosystems (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009). Improving weed control in farmers' fields was shown to increase rice yields by 15–23%, depending on agro-ecosystem, and it is estimated that weeds may account for annual rice yield losses in SSA of at least 2.2 million tonnes equating to US \$1.45 billion (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009). Given that demand for food is projected to rapidly outpace increases in supply (e.g. von Grebmer *et al.* 2008), effective weed control is a priority in these systems.

Important weeds of upland rice include the perennials *Imperata cylindrica*, *Cyperus rotundus* and *Chromolaena odorata*, the annuals *Digitaria horizontalis* and *Euphorbia heterophylla* and the parasitic weeds *Striga hermonthica* and *Striga asiatica* (Table 1). In lowland rice, the perennial weeds *Oryza longistaminata* and *Cyperus* spp. and annual weeds *Echinochloa* spp., *Oryza barthii*, *Ischaemum rugosum*, *Cyperus difformis*, *Cyperus iria*, *Fimbristylis littoralis* and *Sphenoclea zeylanica* cause serious losses. Common weed management practices in rice-based cropping systems include soil tillage, flooding, fallow and crop rotations, clearance by fire, hand- or hoe-weeding and herbicides; these practices are often used in combination (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009).

Climate change is one of many risk factors affecting rice production and weed management. For the purpose of the present review, 'climate change' is used in the broad sense, including direct and indirect impacts of climate on the environment and on people. Major global changes include further increases in atmospheric greenhouse gases and likely changes in temperatures (>0.2 °C/decade), soil degradation and competing claims for land and water (IPCC 2007). For Africa, climate trends suggest that variability in rainfall will increase and monsoon regions may become drier (Giannini *et al.* 2008), leading to a 5–8%

increase in drought-prone areas in the Sahel and southern Africa by 2080 (IPCC 2007). Equatorial zones of Africa may receive more intense rainfall (Christensen *et al.* 2007). Spatial distribution of future rainfall, however, remains highly uncertain (Giannini *et al.* 2008), particularly for the Sahel for which there are a number of conflicting projections (e.g. Cook & Vizi 2006; Hoerling *et al.* 2006; Biasutti *et al.* 2008).

While many of the aforementioned changes began decades ago, the rates of changes have recently accelerated and impacts are increasingly apparent (Rozenzweig *et al.* 2008). This adds urgency to the required analyses of adaptation options for farmers and for policy and adaptation measures to be introduced (Meinke *et al.* 2009b). Changes in atmospheric carbon dioxide (CO₂), rainfall and temperature will affect weed species' distribution and prevalence within weed and crop communities. Climate changes may also necessitate adaptation of crop management practices, which in turn affect weed growth and the proliferation of certain species. Environmental conditions will impact on effectiveness of weed management operations such as chemical and mechanical control. Obviously, the magnitude of these effects will largely depend on the extent of local and regional changes to environmental conditions.

The present paper discusses (1) the likely effects of projected climate changes on the competitiveness and distribution of major weeds of African rice ecosystems and (2) the consequences of changing climates and changing weed community compositions for weed management in African rice production systems. The objectives are to describe likely climate change effects on weeds in African rice production systems and to identify potentially effective coping strategies for the resource-poor farmers in these systems.

CLIMATE CHANGE EFFECTS

Direct effects – weed competition, abundance and distribution

Temperatures, atmospheric CO₂ concentrations and rainfall irregularities will increase (IPCC 2007), and this will affect weed species in different ways, depending on their photosynthetic pathways and tolerance to environmental stress. Under drought and high temperatures, plants with the C₄ carbon fixation pathway have a competitive advantage over plants possessing the more common C₃ pathway (e.g. Yin & Striuk 2008). This competitive advantage of C₄ weeds diminishes or even reverses under conditions of high soil nitrogen or atmospheric CO₂ concentrations (e.g. Carter & Peterson 1983; Bazzaz & Carlson 1984). Of the 56 weed species most cited in relevant peer-reviewed literature (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009), 20 species (0.36 of total weed species) are C₄ types (Table 1). The C₄-type weed species are most reported

Table 1. Names and biology of important weed species in the three most prevalent rice production ecosystems in Africa (upland, hydromorphic and lowland)

| Upland | | Hydromorphic | | Lowland |
|------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|------------------|---|
| Widely adapted species | | | | |
| <i>Ageratum conyzoides</i> | A | <i>A. conyzoides</i> | A | |
| <i>Cynodon dactylon</i> | P;C ₄ | <i>C. dactylon</i> | P;C ₄ | |
| <i>Commelina benghalensis</i> | A | <i>Commelina benghalensis</i> | A | |
| <i>Cyperus rotundus</i> | P;C ₄ | <i>C. rotundus</i> | P;C ₄ | |
| <i>Digitaria horizontalis</i> | A;C ₄ | <i>D. horizontalis</i> | A;C ₄ | |
| <i>Panicum laxum</i> | A | <i>Panicum laxum</i> | A | <i>Panicum laxum</i> A |
| | | <i>Fimbristylis littoralis</i> | A;C ₄ | <i>F. littoralis</i> A;C ₄ |
| | | <i>Echinochloa colona</i> | A;C ₄ | <i>E. colona</i> A;C ₄ |
| | | <i>Leersia hexandra</i> | P | <i>L. hexandra</i> P |
| | | <i>Eclipta prostrata</i> | A | <i>E. prostrata</i> A |
| | | <i>Cyperus esculentus</i> | P;C ₄ | <i>C. esculentus</i> P;C ₄ |
| Ecosystem-specific species | | | | |
| <i>Mariscus cylindristachyus</i> | P | <i>Spilanthes uliginosa</i> | A | <i>Oryza barthii</i> A |
| <i>Trianthema portulacastrum</i> | A;C ₄ | <i>Rhamphicarpa fistulosa</i> | A/fhp | <i>Cyperus iria</i> A;C ₄ |
| <i>Striga hermonthica</i> | A/ohp | | | <i>Bolboschoenus maritimus</i> P |
| <i>Striga asiatica</i> | A/ohp | | | <i>Ischaemum rugosum</i> A |
| <i>Amaranthus viridis</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Ludwigia abyssinica</i> A |
| <i>Euphorbia hirta</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Ammania priesoreana</i> A |
| <i>Brachiaria lata</i> | A | | | <i>Heteranthera callifolia</i> A |
| <i>Chromolaena odorata</i> | P | | | <i>Ipomoea aquatica</i> P |
| <i>Calopogonium mucunoides</i> | P | | | <i>Echinochloa pyramidalis</i> P;C ₄ |
| <i>Aspilota bussei</i> | A | | | <i>Cyperus halpan</i> P |
| <i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Sacciolepis africana</i> P |
| <i>Boerhavia erecta</i> | P;C ₄ | | | <i>Acroceras amplexans</i> A |
| <i>Eleusine indica</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Diplachne fusca</i> P |
| <i>Imperata cylindrica</i> | P;C ₄ | | | <i>Panicum repens</i> P;C ₄ |
| <i>Tridax procumbens</i> | A | | | <i>Eleocharis</i> spp. A/P |
| <i>Euphorbia heterophylla</i> | A | | | <i>Cyperus difformis</i> A |
| <i>Paspalum scrobiculatum</i> | P;C ₄ | | | <i>Oryza longistaminata</i> P |
| <i>Dactyloctenium aegyptium</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Echinochloa crus-galli</i> A |
| <i>Rottboellia cochinchinensis</i> | A;C ₄ | | | <i>Fimbristylis ferruginea</i> P;C ₄ |
| | | | | <i>Pycnus macrostachyos</i> A |
| | | | | <i>Schoenoplectus senegalensis</i> A |
| | | | | <i>Ludwigia adscendens</i> P |
| | | | | <i>Sphenoclea zeylanica</i> A |
| | | | | <i>Rhynchospora corymbosa</i> P |

Adapted from: Rodenburg & Johnson (2009). Additional sources on C₄ species: Downton (1975), Raghavendra & Das (1978), Elmore & Paul (1983) and Sage *et al.* (1999).

A = annual, P = perennial, fhp = facultative hemi-parasitic, ohp = obligate hemi-parasitic, C₄ = C₄ photosynthetic pathway.

in upland rice ecosystems (0.52) and least in the lowlands (0.23). For a C₃ crop such as rice, elevated CO₂ levels may have positive effects on crop competitiveness with C₄ weeds (Patterson *et al.* 1999; Fuhrer 2003), and tolerance to *Striga* infection (Watling & Press 2000). The latter may be caused by enhanced rates of photosynthesis which have been shown to play an important role in sustaining host tolerance against *Striga* (Gurney *et al.* 2002; Rodenburg *et al.* 2008). Yet empirical evidence also shows that higher CO₂ levels stimulate biomass production of both C₃ and C₄ grasses. C₃ grass species have a greater increase in tillering, whereas C₄ grass species have a greater increase in leaf area (Wand *et al.* 1999). Tillering and

leaf canopy development are important traits known to affect interspecific competition (e.g. Johnson *et al.* 1998; Saito *et al.* 2010). Increased atmospheric CO₂ levels are likely to be accompanied by higher temperatures favouring C₄ weeds over C₃ crops (Fuhrer 2003). A similar shift in weed species composition can also be expected under increased or prolonged drought conditions (Bjorkman 1976). Although precise changes in future precipitation are unknown, rainfall is likely to become more erratic with a higher frequency in the occurrences of droughts and floods (Giannini *et al.* 2008). Consequently, weeds adapted to these conditions will gain a comparative advantage. In the dry-land areas, besides drought tolerant C₄

weeds, parasitic weeds well adapted to low rainfall environments (e.g. *S. hermonthica*) or temporary flooded conditions (e.g. *Rhamphicarpa fistulosa*) could benefit from greater variability in rainfall (Rodenburg *et al.* 2010). *Striga* spp. infestations are often associated with low soil fertility (Vogt *et al.* 1991; Kroschel 1998), and should climate extremes lead to greater soil degradation (IPCC 2007) this might favour parasitic weeds. Such a scenario increases the importance of developing improved soil conservation and fertility management. Selection of appropriate soil conservation and fertility measures requires knowledge of local conditions and an understanding of the overall system dynamics. For instance, zero-tillage as a component of conservation agriculture, inappropriate fertilizer applications or the lack of fertilization can all lead to increased weed infestations, which in turn increase herbicide use or reduce fertilizer use efficiencies (e.g. Liebman & Davis 2000; Giller *et al.* 2009; Keating *et al.* 2010).

Temperature changes will impact the geographic distribution of weeds (Patterson *et al.* 1999), with some species moving to higher latitudes (Patterson 1995) and altitudes (Parmesan 1996). For instance, Witchweeds (*Striga* spp.) might extend their geographic range in this way (Mohamed *et al.* 2006). Based on genetic understanding and ecological niche modelling, Mohamed *et al.* (2007) suggest that the *Striga* area might expand to moderate climate zones. However, *S. asiatica* has been found to be relatively insensitive to temperature (Patterson *et al.* 1982) and distribution may be more affected by changes in the range of the host crop rather than directly by temperature (Cochrane & Press 1997). Phoenix & Press (2005) argued that this could be true for parasitic weeds in general. Recent progress in the development of heat, cold or drought tolerant rice germplasm increases the adaptive capacity of the crop to future environmental stress (Wassmann *et al.* 2009). This might enable rice to be grown in previously unfavourable conditions, which may cause a concomitant shift in the range of parasitic weeds.

Indirect effects – crop management adaptations and weed management effectiveness

Water is an increasingly scarce resource in many parts of SSA (Seckler *et al.* 1999), and rice varieties and cropping methods need to be adapted accordingly (Ingram *et al.* 2008). For rain-fed rice, drought tolerance will be important not only to reduce losses due to moisture stress but also to maintain or improve the crop's competitiveness against weeds (Asch *et al.* 2005). Elsewhere, systems to conserve irrigation water, such as aerobic rice and alternate wetting and drying, may be adopted but will have consequences for weed abundance, and concomitant rice yield losses, due to the extended periods when the soil will not be flooded

(Morita & Kabaki 2002; de Vries *et al.* 2010; Krupnik *et al.*, *in press*). Effective weed control technologies for such production systems will be required. Flooding is commonly the primary cultural means to suppress weeds in irrigated rice and even a few millimetres of water depth will prevent germination and emergence of the majority of the weeds, such as annual sedges (e.g. Akobundu 1987; Chauhan & Johnson 2009a). In Indonesia, Haden *et al.* (2007) observed an increased incidence of sedges due to reduced periods of flooding. Effective weed control by flooding requires the soil to remain flooded for prolonged periods throughout crop establishment. Drainage or shallow flooding may also encourage the emergence of grass weeds such as *Leptochloa chinensis* and *Echinochloa* spp. (Chauhan & Johnson 2008, 2009b). A shift to weed communities adapted to hydromorphic conditions may include species such as *Acroceras amplexans*, *Echinochloa* spp., *Leptochloa* spp., *Eleusine indica*, *Panicum repens*, *Cyperus esculentus*, *Eleocharis* spp., *Bolboschoenus maritimus*, *Ageratum conyzoides* and *Eclipta prostrata*. The need for hand weeding has been reported to increase by 35% as a result of temporary rather than permanent flooding (Latif *et al.* 2005). Where irrigation water is becoming scarcer, maintaining soil flooding to suppress weeds is likely to be increasingly difficult. In these circumstances, where farmers lack alternative means for effective weed control, yield losses are likely to rise (e.g. Barrett *et al.* 2004).

In rain-fed rice fields, a lack of rainfall in the early part of the wet season may result in inadequate land preparation or limited flooding of the soil in the early stages of the crop. In turn, this will limit the opportunity to suppress weeds through early flooding and early crop canopy closure. Such disruption is likely to be most acute in the rain-fed lowlands or inland valley systems, which is a major agro-ecosystem of Africa.

Effectiveness of weed management practices will change according to the environmental conditions. Unfavourable weather may increase the risk of herbicides either causing crop damage or not being effective (Patterson *et al.* 1999). Increased temperatures reduce herbicide persistence in the soil and likewise the 'windows' for herbicide effectiveness (Bailey 2004). If rainfall becomes more frequent and/or intense, 'rain-safe' intervals for herbicides application may become scarce and soil active herbicides may become less effective (e.g. Kanampiu *et al.* 2003). Herbicide use is expected to increase in the near future and with it resistant weed ecotypes are increasingly likely to emerge. Herbicide efficacy may also be affected by raised CO₂ levels, which have been shown to increase the tolerance of weeds to herbicides (Ziska *et al.* 1999; Ziska & Teasdale 2000). Changes in CO₂ concentrations may alter transpiration, number of leaf stomata or the thickness of the leaf and through that affect the absorption or uptake of the pesticide (Ziska 2008). In C₃ plants, Wong (1990) found increased

concentrations of leaf starch under elevated CO₂ which in turn might reduce herbicide efficacy (Patterson *et al.* 1999).

Greater CO₂ concentrations may stimulate below-ground growth relative to that of above-ground growth (Ziska 2003). This will favour rhizome and tuber growth of perennial weeds, in particular those following the C₃ photosynthetic pathway (Oechel & Strain 1985), which may render their control more difficult (Patterson 1995; Patterson *et al.* 1999). Where tuber and rhizome growth is encouraged, increased tillage could lead to a multiplication of vegetative propagation material (Ziska 2008). This could mean increasing problems with perennial lowland weeds like *O. longistaminata*, *Leersia hexandra*, *B. maritimus*, *Sacciolepis africana* and *Cyperus halpan*. Other perennial weeds with difficult to control below-ground structures such as *I. cylindrica*, *Cynodon dactylon*, *C. esculentus* and *C. rotundus* that are found on upland and hydromorphic soils, are all of the C₄ type.

OUTLOOK ON WEEDS AND THEIR MANAGEMENT IN AFRICAN RICE SYSTEMS

Rice is an inherently weak competitor with most weeds (e.g. van Heemst 1985) and consequently, yield losses due to weed competition can be high. Small-holder rice farmers in Africa have a limited number of options for preventing weed infestations and concomitant crop losses (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009). Changing environmental conditions may result in reduced efficiencies of existing weed control practices. If so, this requires timely identification and characterization of these emerging problems and the development of acceptable solutions that need to be implemented early to be most effective (Howden *et al.* 2007).

While there are uncertainties about future climate changes, it is likely that changes will have differential effects on weed species and alter the competitive balance between weed species and between weeds and rice in all production systems. Species response will be differentiated by the impact these changes have on the photosynthesis and resource-acquisition rates. Resulting changes in competitiveness and abundance are likely to differ between parasitic and non-parasitic weeds and between C₃- and C₄-type weeds. Further, agro-ecosystem characteristics will determine which of the environmental factors will have the dominant effect on crop and weed growth.

Irrigated systems are likely to be impacted mainly by indirect effects of climate change (e.g. reduced availability of irrigation water and increased herbicide tolerance in weeds). In these systems, herbicides are the primary weed control intervention and some of these are likely to become less effective due to CO₂ increases and more frequently occurring weather

extremes. Moreover, the introduction of water-saving production methods at certain locations will likely cause severe increases in weed competition. In irrigated rice systems, temperature and rainfall variability increases may have less impact on weeds than CO₂ increases. Higher CO₂ concentrations may make rice and C₃ weed species (particularly rhizotomous perennials such as *O. longistaminata*, *L. hexandra*, *B. maritimus*, *S. africana* and *C. halpan*) more competitive against C₄ weeds, whereas mechanical control may become less effective due to the stimulating effect on their below-ground growth. To address the anticipated changes, integrated weed management strategies need to be developed that target the prevention of weed invasion, recruitment and reproduction. Such strategies may comprise combinations of optimal fertilizer timing and doses (Liebman & Davis 2000), off-season dry and deep tillage and land preparation (e.g. Sharma 1997), the use of irrigation water and rice seeds free of weed seeds (e.g. Dastgheib 1989; Rao & Moody 1990) and stale seed bed techniques (e.g. Rao *et al.* 2007), increased plant densities or improved arrangements (Phuong *et al.* 2005), transplanting of young seedlings (Becker & Johnson 1999a) and the use of adapted weed competitive rice cultivars (Haefele *et al.* 2004; Rodenburg *et al.* 2009). Effective approaches that harness available synergies could lessen dependency on irrigation water, chemical and mechanical control practices.

Direct effects of climate change are likely to have substantial effects on rain-fed rice areas as these systems harbour most of the C₄ and all of the parasitic weed species. These systems are most vulnerable to rainfall irregularities and soil degradation; in such areas infestations with parasitic weeds *S. asiatica*, *S. hermonthica*, *S. aspera* and *R. fistulosa* could increase (Rodenburg *et al.* 2010). Furthermore, because of the likely tolerance to drought and heat, C₄ species are likely to become more competitive in rain-fed rice. These may include the perennial grasses *I. cylindrica*, *Paspalum scrobiculatum* and *C. dactylon*, the annual grasses *Rottboellia cochinchinensis*, *D. horizontalis*, *E. indica*, *Dactyloctenium aegyptium*, *Pennisetum purpureum*, *Echinochloa colona* and the sedges *F. littoralis*, *C. rotundus* and *C. esculentus*. These weeds could be controlled through integrated approaches that combine preventive and curative measures. Examples of potential practices for these environments are the combined use of organic and inorganic soil fertility enhancers (e.g. Riches *et al.* 2005) with optimal fertilizer timing and doses (Liebman & Davis 2000), off-season dry and deep tillage (e.g. Chikoye *et al.* 2000), the use of weed (including parasitic species) suppressive intercrops, crop rotations and short fallows (e.g. Becker & Johnson 1999b) and the use of well-adapted, weed competitive and parasitic weed resistant/tolerant rice cultivars (Rodenburg & Johnson 2009; Rodenburg *et al.* 2010). Such cultivars should also possess

drought and heat tolerance in order to successfully outcompete or withstand adapted C_4 and parasitic weeds under such conditions.

CONCLUSIONS

The net effect of climate change on weeds in rice production systems in Africa will be the result of a complex set of interactions between local environmental, ecological, biological and human factors such as the production ecosystem, the composition of weed communities, the management practices, atmospheric CO_2 , ambient temperature and soil fertility and water availability. Interaction effects between key environmental factors (temperature, soil, water and CO_2) on different dominant weed species and communities should be systematically investigated.

It is desirable that weed management strategies are sufficiently diverse to lessen dependency on single strategies of irrigation water, herbicides and mechanical control, and approaches should target likely problem species such as hemi-parasitic and perennial rhizotomous weeds. Integrated approaches to prevent species invasion, recruitment and reproduction, and based on current knowledge of weed biology and ecology, are potentially most effective and sustainable. Future strategies for climate change adaptation for rice-based production systems, including novel cropping systems or improved stress-tolerant cultivars, should simultaneously address possible implications for weed control.

Current understanding suggests that perennial C_3 species such as *O. longistaminata*, *L. hexandra*, *B. maritimus*, *S. africana* and *C. halpan* will increase in irrigated rice production systems. Where water-saving production methods are adopted, the hydromorphic conditions will favour species such as *A. amplexans*, *E. colona*, *Echinochloa crus-galli*, *L. chinensis*, *Leptochloa caerulea*, *E. indica*, *P. repens*, *C. esculentus*, *Eleocharis acicularis*, *B. maritimus*, *A. conyzoides* and *E. prostrata*.

In rain-fed uplands parasitic weeds, such as *S. hermonthica* and *S. asiatica*, and C_4 grasses

I. cylindrica, *P. scrobiculatum* and *C. dactylon*, *R. cochinchinensis*, *D. horizontalis*, *E. indica*, *D. aegyptium*, *P. purpureum* and *E. colona* and the C_4 sedges *F. littoralis*, *C. rotundus* and *C. esculentus* will become more dominant.

Timely efforts to fill the most important knowledge gaps on environment, management and weed interactions through strategic and applied research, and to generate and disseminate effective and locally applicable weed management strategies are required in order to raise or even sustain future rice production for the growing populations of Africa under changing climates. Design and implementation of such strategies requires interaction and collaboration between key stakeholders including scientists, extension services and farmers.

While atmospheric CO_2 levels and temperatures will increase, the spatial distribution of future rainfall remains much more uncertain. With the uncertainty surrounding water availability, combined with limited understanding of the interactions between changing environmental factors, the projections of future distribution and importance of particular plant species are conjecture and must be regularly reviewed. What is more certain is that in a future characterized by global changes (including climate change) resources such as water, land and labour will become increasingly scarce. Therefore, farmers will require management strategies including a wide range of technology options and decision support tools to tackle weeds and maintain livelihoods.

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