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1 **Opportunities and challenges for harvest weed seed control in European cropping systems**

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25 **Abstract**

26 The rapid increase of herbicide resistance in some of the most problematic annual weeds, and
27 potential negative impacts of herbicides on human health and the environment have led growers to
28 look for alternative non-chemical weed control. Harvest weed seed control (HWSC) is a non-
29 chemical weed control tactic based on reduction of seed return of primarily annual weed species to
30 the soil seed bank that has been successfully adopted by farmers in Australia. The strategy is to collect
31 and/or destroy the weed seeds in the chaff material during harvest using methods such as chaff carts,
32 bale direct system, integrated impact mills, windrow burning, chaff tramlining and chaff lining or
33 other methods of targeting the chaff material containing the weed seeds. Two biological
34 characteristics are exploited with successful HWSC: the level of weed seed retention at crop harvest
35 above crop canopy height and coincidence of weed and crop maturity. Initial research efforts in
36 Europe have found that there are several candidates for HWSC among weed species with a high
37 importance in European cropping systems. The highest potential has been found for weeds such as
38 *Galium aparine*, *Lolium rigidum* and *Silene noctiflora*. However, there are several challenges for the
39 adoption of these systems under European conditions compared to e.g., Australia. The challenges
40 include that crop and weed maturity are not concomitant which results in lower seed retention values
41 at crop harvest. In addition, there has not been a concerted research effort to evaluate HWSC systems
42 in European cropping systems. Until now, research on HWSC in Europe mainly focused on the rate
43 of weed seed retention in specific weed species. For HWSC to contribute to the mitigation of
44 herbicide resistance and add to the toolbox of integrated weed management measures, there is an
45 urgent need to take HWSC research to the next level. Although HWSC is not functionally equivalent
46 to herbicide application, it may help to reduce herbicide inputs in the long-term when used in
47 combination with other tactics. Future research and development should focus on the evaluation of
48 HWSC strategies for the practical adoption of these tactics in European cropping systems.

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50 **Key words:** Herbicide resistance, annual weeds, seedbank, chaff fraction, integrated weed
51 management

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1. Introduction

Herbicides are, at present, still the major tool to control weeds in most arable cropping systems, but agriculture faces several challenges, which necessitates a change to more diverse integrated weed management strategies (IWM). Harvest weed seed control (HWSC) can be a part of such strategies and this paper highlights the opportunities and challenges connected with this tactic. One of the challenges for continued reliance on herbicide based weed management is that the widespread and persistent exposure of weed populations to herbicide selection pressure has resulted in the development of resistant weed populations (Matzrafi et al. 2021; Peterson et al. 2018; Walsh et al. 2018a). Presently, there are 266 resistant weed species globally, with 153 dicotyledonous and 113 monocotyledonous species (Heap, 2021), of which some are among the most important weed species in Europe including *Alopecurus myosuroides* Huds., *Lolium multiflorum* Lam., *Apera spica-venti* (L.) P. Beauv., *Bromus sterilis* L. and *Papaver rhoeas* L. (Keshtkar et al., 2015; Mahmood et al., 2016; Sen et al., 2021; Stankiewicz-Kosyl et al., 2020). Strict pesticide regulations in the European Union have removed many of the previously most widely used herbicide active ingredients from the market (Hillocks, 2012) and it is expected that some of the herbicides currently used will be withdrawn from the market in the coming years (Kudsk and Mathiassen, 2020) resulting in an even smaller portfolio of active ingredients for resistance management. No-till practices have become more common throughout Europe to reduce costs and preserve soil productivity (Melander et al., 2017). In addition to herbicide resistance, a widespread adoption of conservation agriculture and no-till practices has contributed to an increased infestation with grass and perennial weed species, which in turn leads to an increased use of glyphosate in conventional agriculture (Kudsk and Mathiassen, 2020, Akhter et al 2020a). The future of glyphosate use in Europe is uncertain as the active substance glyphosate is approved in the EU until 15 December 2022 and the renewal of its EU authorization is currently ongoing. A ban of glyphosate will have a higher impact on weed management in Europe than a ban

97 of any other active ingredient (Fogliatto et al., 2020; Kudsk and Mathiassen, 2020). These challenges
98 highlight that now more than ever there is a need for a fundamental shift in weed management
99 practices. Recently, the EU agreed on the Farm to Fork strategy that calls for a 50% reduction in
100 pesticide use in 2030, further adding to the need for alternative weed control measures (European
101 Commission, 2021).

102
103 An IWM strategy should include measures that either: 1) prevent establishment of weeds in the crop
104 from the soil seedbank or subterranean organs, 2) reduce competition for resources by increasing the
105 competitive ability of the crop and/or weakening the competitive ability of the weed, and 3) prevent
106 the return of weed seeds and vegetative organs to the soil (Riemens et al 2022; Kudsk et al., 2020).
107 The primary focus of currently available alternative weed control tactics (e.g. stale seed-bed, strategic
108 ploughing, alteration of seeding dates and densities) continues to focus on preventing weed
109 competition during early crop growth stages (Melander et al., 2017; Walsh et al., 2018b). Some weed
110 plants may inevitably escape weed management practices due to delayed emergence or inefficient
111 direct weed control. In most cases, there are no suitable methods to manage escaped weed plants, and
112 they will therefore complete their life cycle, produce seeds, and sustain a viable soil seedbank (Walsh
113 et al., 2013). HWSC aims at reducing seed return to the soil seedbank and has gained increased
114 interest globally (Walsh et al., 2013). Usually, the major portion of weeds seeds collected by the
115 combine harvester exit the harvester as part of the chaff fraction and weed seeds subsequently enter
116 the soil seedbank. HWSC systems collect and/or destroy the weed seeds at harvest and suppress the
117 replenishment of the weed seedbank by exploiting two biological characteristics of targeted weed
118 species: seed retention until crop harvest and concurrent maturation with the crop (Schwartz et al.,
119 2016; Shergill et al., 2020a; Walsh et al., 2013). Tall and erect weed species maturing simultaneously
120 with the crop and retaining high amounts of seeds until harvest have been found to be good targets

121 for HWSC technologies. For example, HWSC has become a key tactic for the management of annual
122 weed species such as *Lolium rigidum* Gaudin in winter cereals in Australia (Walsh et al., 2018b). *L.*
123 *rigidum* is a key weed in durum wheat producing areas of Southern Europe where the widespread
124 presence of populations with multiple resistance to ALS and ACCase inhibitors is posing a serious
125 challenge to growers (Loureiro et al., 2017; Scarabel et al., 2020; Torra et al., 2021). In Northern
126 Europe, *L. multiflorum* is causing significant yield losses in winter cereal crops. The fact that *L.*
127 *rigidum* and *L. multiflorum* retain a significant number of seeds until harvest in wheat, indicates that
128 HWSC has potential to manage these two species (Akgun et al., 2008; Blanco-Moreno et al., 2004).
129 The opportunity of collecting and/or destroying weed seeds at crop harvest has already been
130 documented in several other annual weed species in Europe, e.g. *Avena fatua* L. and *B. sterilis* in the
131 UK, *A. fatua*, *Avena sterilis* L. and *L. rigidum* in Spain, and *A. spica-venti*, *A. myosuroides*, *L.*
132 *multiflorum*, *Vulpia myuros* (L.) C. C. Gmel., *Spergula arvensis* L., *Sinapis arvensis* L., *Fallopia*
133 *convolvulus* (L.) Á. Löve and *Stellaria media* (L.) in Denmark (Balsari et al., 1994; Bitarafan and
134 Andreassen, 2020a; Akhter et al., 2020b). Practical implementation of HWSC in Europe could add an
135 additional tactic to the IWM toolbox. In particular, it may limit the regional spread of herbicide
136 resistant weed populations (Walsh et al., 2018b). Yet, the recognition of HWSC as a potential weed
137 management strategy has not gained much attention in Europe compared to Australia, where it has
138 been widely adopted, and the US, where strong efforts are currently being made to include HWSC as
139 a weed control tactic (Beam et al 2019; Schwartz-Lazaro et al 2017a). The focus of the current review
140 is to summarize existing knowledge on HWSC methods, to discuss the opportunities and challenges
141 for the practical implementation of HWSC systems in European cropping systems and to identify
142 areas for further research and development to promote this tactic in this region.

2. Prerequisites for the success of HWSC

High seed retention values at harvest provide the opportunity to collect or destroy retained seeds and reduce seed return to the soil seedbank (Walsh et al., 2013). Seed retention is controlled by weed species or population specific genetic traits as well as environmental conditions (e.g. temperature, humidity, rainfall, soil fertility, wind and moisture) and management practices (e.g. sowing and harvest date) (Maity et al 2021; Tidemann et al., 2017). The relative timing of crop and weed maturity is another key parameter for the success of HWSC. For instance, *A. myosuroides* plants retain higher amounts of seeds in winter barley and winter oil seed rape (early maturing crops) than in winter wheat (late maturing crop) (Unpublished results; Shergill et al., 2020a). Whether a species can be targeted by HWSC also depends on plant architecture as the weed seeds need to be produced at a height where they can be collected during harvest; species with an erect growth habit enhance the seed capturing opportunity during harvest (Soni et al., 2020). *Veronica persica* Poir., *Polygonum aviculare* agg. and *Anagallis arvensis* L. retain up to 60% of their seed at crop maturity, however, weed seed harvest of these species will be poor because of their prostrate growth habit (Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c). A stubble height of around 15 cm is considered as the practical minimum harvest height for most growers in Europe (Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c). Problematic grass weed species in Europe such as *A. myosuroides*, *A. spica-venti* and *L. multiflorum* are tall growing (>80 cm) upright plants with erect seed heads, making it possible to capture the retained seeds with the harvester (CABI, 2021a, Akhter et al. 2020a, Akgun et al., 2008).

The life cycle of a weed is an important factor that determines the success of HWSC systems. HWSC methods mainly target annual weeds, as propagation of seeds in perennial weeds is subordinate to vegetative propagation. In addition, timing of crop harvest is important as early crop harvest enhances the efficacy of HWSC tactics by increasing the number of captured seeds of species that shed seeds

169 over the harvest period (Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020b; Shergill et al., 2020a, Ulber, 2022). Crops
170 with a shorter crop cycle that can be harvested earlier provide an opportunity to collect a greater
171 number of weed seeds at harvest. For example, Codina-Pascual et al. (2022) evaluated the fecundity
172 characteristics of *Papaver rhoeas* L. in the crop *Camelina sativa*. *C. sativa* presents a shorter crop
173 cycle than cereals, therefore, can be harvested earlier. The earlier harvest date implies that a lower
174 proportion of weed seeds are matured, and the potential *P. rhoeas* seed rain was reduced between 34
175 and 70%. These values combined with HWSC could accelerate the depletion of the weed seed bank.
176 The quantity of the chaff fraction produced during crop harvest determines the power requirements
177 of the combiner which is considered an important parameter for the practicalities of some HWSC
178 systems (specifically impact mills). For instance, if a crop produces a large amount of biomass, the
179 integrated impact mill power requirements will increase (Guzzomi et al., 2017).

181 **3. Efficacy and global implementation of current HWSC methods**

182 Different methods for weed seed destruction are available, where the chaff containing the weed
183 seeds is collected and/or destroyed, and managed/processed by using different tactics at harvest.

184 3.1. Chaff collection

185 With the chaff collection method, the combine harvester is modified with a collect and transfer
186 mechanism, which delivers the chaff fraction containing the weed seeds into a collecting cart. The
187 collected chaff fraction is then placed in piles for subsequent destruction. This method has been
188 shown to collect and remove high proportions of seeds of *L. multiflorum* (70%), *Amaranthus palmeri*
189 *S. Watson* (70%) and *Raphanus raphanistrum* L. (95%) (Beam et al., 2019; Norsworthy et al., 2016;
190 Walsh and Powles, 2007). Challenges in manoeuvring the combine harvester due to the rear attached

191 chaff carts, and management of large volumes of chaff has restricted the adoption of this HWSC
192 method in the US and Australia (Shergill et al., 2020a; Walsh et al., 2017).

194 3.2. Narrow windrow burning

195 The narrow windrow burning method concentrates the straw and chaff fraction into narrow lines
196 using a chute attached at the rear of the combine harvester. These narrow lines are later burned to
197 destroy the weed seeds in the chaff fraction. It is one of the most efficient and cost effective HWSC
198 methods, and is currently being widely used in Australia (Walsh et al, 2017a). Previous studies have
199 shown that narrow windrow burning can kill nearly 100% of the seeds of *A. palmeri*, *L. rigidum*,
200 *Sorghum halepense* (L.) Pers. and *R. raphanistrum* present in the narrow windrows (Norsworthy et
201 al., 2020; Norsworthy et al., 2016; Walsh and Newman, 2007). The fire risk, fire bans and
202 environmental pollution put practical limits to the implementation (Walsh et al., 2018b).

204 3.3. Chaff lining and chaff tramlining

205 Chaff lining and chaff tramlining are recently developed innovative HWSC methods that have gained
206 popularity primarily due to their low cost. These methods confine the chaff material into narrow rows
207 either between the crop stubble rows (chaff lining), behind the combine harvester or on dedicated
208 wheel tracks of the combine harvester in a controlled traffic farming system (chaff tramlining). Both
209 chaff lining and chaff tramlining are established using an attachment on the rear of the combine
210 harvester that funnels the chaff into rows. The confinement of the chaff fraction places seeds under
211 conditions that are less favourable for seedling emergence due to the cover of plant material (Walsh
212 et al., 2021). The chaff rows in chaff lining need to be kept undisturbed, as any disturbance in the
213 chaff layer provides opportunity for weed seedling emergence. In comparison with other HWSC
214 systems, limited research is available on the efficacies of these methods.

3.4. Bale direct system

The bale direct system comprises a square or round baler attached to the back of the combine harvester producing bales from the straw and weed seed containing chaff fraction during harvest.

The baled material can be used for livestock feed. The bale direct system has been shown to collect and remove high amounts (up to 95%) of *L. rigidum* seeds from the field (Walsh and Powles, 2007). High power requirements, low market values for the baled products, and risk of spreading herbicide resistant weeds seeds via transportation of bales have limited the wide adoption of this method in Australia (Shergill et al., 2020a; Walsh et al., 2017a).

3.5. Integrated impact mill

Different types of impact mills including Seed Terminator, integrated Harrington Seed Destructor (iHSD), Seed Control Unit (SCU), which fit within the body of the combine harvester, have been developed in Australia. These mills destroy the weed seeds in the seed-bearing chaff material inside the combine harvester during harvesting operation. After processing of the chaff fraction by the mill, the crop and weed residues are returned to the field. The impact mill systems are very compatible for conservation agricultural practices, where the intention is to retain crop residues in the field. In a stationary mill testing using a test stand equipped with an iHSD, Schwartz-Lazaro et al. (2017b) documented 100% seed destruction of *Ambrosia trifida* and *A. palmeri* in USA. In a study including ten weed species with a high relevance in the US soybean production, the iHSD was demonstrated to be highly effective in destroying seeds of all the species tested, with 86% to 100% weed seed destruction. A limitation to the adoption of the impact mills are a high initial purchase costs and high prerequisites in terms of power supply for the impact mill system (Shergill et al 2020b).

3.6. Other HWSC methods

Recently, Glasner et al. (2019) evaluated a new HWSC method under Northern European conditions, where the chaff material were placed on the straw swath and the weed seeds were removed from the field by baling the chaff and straw together. The baling of chaff and straw together was found useful to avoid weed seed return with a weed seed collection up to 60%. Heat treatment of weed seed containing chaff with exhaustive temperature inside a combine is another innovative HWSC method evaluated by Glasner et al. (2019). In this method, the chaff material is exposed to the hot exhaust gas from the combiner to kill weed seeds before returning the chaff fraction to the field. A heat treatment of the chaff material with the exhaust gas of the combine for 10s during harvest suppressed *Centaurea cyanus* L. germination by 99%.

Tall growing weed species such as *A. myosuroides* and *Lolium* species provide an opportunity to cut the weed seed heads above the crop canopy before seeds mature. In the “Top Cut Collect” approach, weed seed heads are cut just above the crop canopy and are removed from the field. The cutting action will trigger the regrowth of seed head, and the potential for seed to mature before harvest is maintained but could potentially be targeted in an integrated approach with a combine fitted with an impact mill at harvest.

4. Implementation and viability of different HWSC methods in Europe

HWSC methods such as chaff lining, direct bale, impact mills are technologies that are likely to become important tools in arable farms under European conditions. However, some challenges described in the following may halt a widespread adoption of these tactics.

4.1. Chaff collection

Collection of chaff piles for livestock feed could be a viable option under European conditions, as the seeds of many problematic weeds do not survive digestion by cattle and sheep (Blackshaw and Rode,

1991; Stanton et al., 2002). Management of large volumes of chaff and finding end uses for this material may hinder the uptake of this tactic under European conditions.

4.2. Narrow windrow burning

In Australia, the adoption of narrow windrow burning is higher compared to other HWSC tactics due to its greater efficacy and lower cost. Nevertheless, narrow windrow burning is not an option in Europe as burning is prohibited as per EU regulation 1259/1999.

4.3. Chaff lining and chaff tramlining

In Northern Europe, yields of wheat are higher and wheat crops produce a greater amount of residue biomass compared to average Australian grain crops, which suggests that chaff lining with high biomass could provide satisfactory weed seed kill rates due to a greater barrier to weed seedling emergence (Walsh et al. 2021). Moreover, weed seeds will germinate in the chaff lining rows, which potentially could be controlled using a more targeted approach (Shergill et al, 2020a; Walsh et al 2018b). Further, seed kill rate could be higher for chaff of canola, barley and rye crops than wheat, because of their allelopathic effect (Modhej et al., 2013). The lower implementation costs of chaff tramlining and chaff lines make them more economically viable that allows growers to funnel the weed seed containing chaff fraction in concentrated lines but there is no experience using this method in European cropping systems.

4.4. Bale direct system

Despite its great potential under European conditions, the unavailability of markets for the baled material could somewhat limit the adoption of this method in the region. The higher biomass

286 production per unit area under European conditions would result in a substantial amount of baled
287 material if this approach was widely adopted..

289 4.5. Integrated impact mill

290 HWSC methods such as impact mills systems can be viable in European crop production conditions,
291 where they would be an acceptable option for conservation agriculture. Nonetheless, each technology
292 has specific challenges that affect the efficacy of HWSC implementation. For example, early invented
293 chaff mills cost around 75,000 - 104,000 Euros. Given that current prices are already half of these
294 costs; it is believed that with mass manufacturing the cost could be further reduced. Moreover,
295 currently available impact mills need up to 100 horsepower, which can lead to a 12 - 20% reduction
296 in combine efficiency. The increased power requirement increases fuel consumption by 4.5 L/ton of
297 grain (Hartzler, 2018), though this number could vary across different crop and harvest conditions.
298 At the moment, high investment costs for the mills and high-power requirements are limiting the
299 adoption of the impact mills at the individual farm level in Europe. However, contractors could
300 potentially offer harvesting services with combines equipped with an impact mill for fields with heavy
301 weed infestations. In addition, uneven maturity of the crop and weed is common under European
302 conditions, therefore, a higher amount of green material during harvest could negatively impact on
303 the performance of the mill by blocking the chaff flow (Shergill et al., 2020b).

305 4.6. Other HWSC methods

306 Limitations associated with these alternative HWSC methods may limit the adoption in Europe. For
307 example, by baling the chaff and straw together 40% of the chaff material was included in the bales
308 and left on the ground after baling. Wind can also spread the weed seed containing chaff material
309 from the top of straw swath before baling. In addition, turning around the swath that is often needed

310 to dry the wet swath before baling which can result in weed seeds falling to the ground or being
311 carried away by wind. Collection of the chaff with an accompanying trailer was suggested to
312 overcome limitations of this HWSC approach; but it reduced the efficiency of the combine by 10-
313 25% (Shergill et al 2020a). Although the concept of using heated exhaust gas from the combiner to
314 target the weed seed containing chaff fraction has shown promising results with efficacy up to 90%,
315 some limitations such as insufficient availability of heat, wet chaff material and restricted exposure
316 time of heat due to harvesting velocity may decrease the efficiency of this approach (Glasner et al.,
317 2019). The HWSC concepts proposed by Glasner et al. (2019) are in principle possible, but future
318 research is needed to implement these methods as alternative approaches to the current HWSC
319 methods.

320
321 The top cutting of weed seed head above the crop canopy is another promising method that allows
322 growers to prevent the weed seed return to the soil seedbank, but requirement of even crop canopy
323 height and dependence of this method with other HWSC method may limit the adoptability of this
324 tactic. For some weed species such as *A. myosuroides*, the formation of new tillers and seed heads
325 after cutting that might still mature before harvest could also be an issue. Moreover, this method will
326 not be practical over a large area and will have its justification only in specific situations e.g., for
327 fields with severe weed infestations.

328 329 **5. Harvest weed seed control as a new weed management tool in Europe**

330 5.1. What we know about the potential of HWSC in Europe

331 HWSC was introduced in Australia with a focus to target herbicide resistant weeds (Walsh and
332 Powles, 2014) and it is now being adopted for the same purpose in North America in some cropping
333 systems (Shergill et al., 2020a; Shirtliffe and Entz, 2005). To date research on the potential of HWSC

334 in Europe is mainly focused on timing of seed shattering and seed retention of problematic annual
335 weeds. In Europe, the first study focusing on collecting weed seed chaff material was published in
336 Sweden focusing on changes in the weed flora in space and time when chaff material was collected
337 at crop harvest (Fogelfors, 1982). This study concluded that collection of chaff and straw containing
338 seeds of range of species including *Galeopsis* spp., *Chenopodium album*, *Stellaria media*, *Polygonum*
339 spp., and *Galium aparine* during crop harvest is a useful tactic to manage soil seed bank. An insight
340 study by Griepentrog and Brandt (1985) highlighted the potential of chaff collection for weed control
341 in organic farming in Germany. The next three decades did not see any literature on HWSC in Europe,
342 except for a few studies that focused primarily on weed seed dispersal and reported weed seed
343 retention data (Balsari et al., 1994; Barroso et al., 2006; Blanco-Moreno et al., 2004). More recent
344 studies focusing on HWSC as a potential weed control strategy in Europe was published in 2019-
345 2020 (Bergonzoli et al., 2020; Glasner et al., 2019), these studies introduced two HWSC methods in
346 the region.

347 348 5.1.2. Weed seed retention studies

349 Several studies conducted across Europe examined seed retention of important annual weeds in
350 cereals crops and observed variable proportions of seed retention. Certain weed features are a pre-
351 requisite for the success of HWSC technologies and based on these parameters, weed species were
352 classified as good, intermediate, low and poor candidates of HWSC (Table 1). This classification was
353 dependent on the crop, in which the weeds were growing, and it was mainly determined by the ratio
354 of weed seed retention at crop harvest, growth habit and plant height as reported in the literature
355 (Bitarafan and Andreasen 2020c, Shergill et al., 2020a; Walsh et al., 2018b).

357 Differences in temporal seed shattering patterns within a weed species have been reported for
358 European conditions. For example, seeds of *A. spica-venti*, *V. myuros*, *L. multiflorum* and *A.*
359 *myosuroides* in Denmark started seed shattering at 1690, 1567, 1646, 1387 degree days (°C) in the
360 2017-18 growing season, and at 2249, 2165, 2213, 1870 degree days (°C) in the growing season of
361 2018-19 (Akhter et al., 2020a). An unusual wet autumn and a dry and warm summer characterized
362 the 2017-18 growing season, whereas the weather conditions were closer to normal in the growing
363 season of 2018-19. Similarly, Bitarafan and Andreasen (2020b) found differences in shattering
364 patterns between two growing seasons in Denmark for *A. myosuroides* and *A. spica-venti* and
365 concluded this was because of different environmental conditions (temperature and rainfall).
366 Moreover, the unpredictable weather conditions particularly in the Northwestern parts of Europe
367 often result in a delay of harvesting operations. A delayed harvest can lead to fewer weed seeds
368 captured by the harvester due to seed shedding (Akhter et al 2020a). Different levels of seed retention
369 in *Avena* spp. were also reported across European sites and years (Barroso et al., 2006; Feldman and
370 Reed, 1974; Wilson 1970). For *V. myuros* and *L. multiflorum*, a field study showed that the amount
371 of seed retention at maturity was significantly influenced by crop competition, where lower seed
372 retention was observed for plants grown in competition with winter wheat compared to pure weed
373 stands, whereas such effects were not observed for *A. myosuroides* and *A. spica-venti* (Unpublished
374 results). In contrast, a higher seed retention was observed by Burton et al. (2016) for weed plants
375 growing under strong competitive conditions than for those grown under less competitive conditions.
376 It is difficult to extrapolate results between geographically distant regions as conditions, such as the
377 length of the growing season varies considerably. Under Australian conditions *Lolium* spp. retained
378 twice the ratio of seeds in comparison with *Lolium* spp. from the great plains area in the US (Soni et
379 al, 2020; Walsh et al., 2018b). In general, the lack of synchronised maturity of crop and weed species
380 in Europe compared to North America or Southern Australia results in lower level of seed retention

381 at crop harvest, and thus reduces HWSC efficacy. For instance, at wheat crop maturity in Western
382 Australia, *A. fatua* had high seed retention rates (84%) but seed retention for this species was low at
383 the time of wheat harvest in Europe (10-20%) (Barroso et al., 2006; Walsh and Powles, 2014).

384 385 5.2. Opportunities for HWSC in European cropping systems

386 Wheat is the most widely grown crop in Europe and constitutes 44% of total European cereal
387 production (Eurostat, 2021). Wheat production is a prime candidate for HWSC in Europe because of
388 the threat posed by winter annual grass weeds. Herbicide resistant *L. rigidum* populations currently
389 represent the main problems for wheat growers in Southern Europe, causing significant economic
390 losses due to yield reduction and higher costs for additional herbicide applications. HWSC tactics
391 could provide an important contribution to manage *L. rigidum*. The concurrent maturity of *L. rigidum*
392 with winter wheat indicate that HWSC has a potential for the control of this weed species. For *L.*
393 *multiflorum*, the situation in Europe is very similar to Australia where the high frequency of herbicide
394 resistant *L. rigidum* populations triggered the introduction of HWSC tactics. *A. myosuroides*, *A.*
395 *spica-venti* and *L. multiflorum* are the main winter annual grass weeds in wheat production in central
396 and North-western Europe, with an increasing number of cases of resistance and multiple resistance
397 to the most widely used post-emergence herbicides; acetolactate synthase (ALS) and acetyl-
398 Coenzyme A carboxylase (ACCase) inhibiting herbicides (Keshtkar et al., 2015; Mahmood et al.,
399 2016). The concurrent maturity of *L. multiflorum* with winter wheat provides an opportunity to collect
400 its seeds during harvest and reduce seed return to the soil seedbank. Because of low seed retention at
401 crop harvest in *A. myosuroides* there is reduced potential for HWSC in winter wheat but it might
402 potentially have a greater efficacy in the earlier maturing winter barley or oilseed rape (Bitarafan and
403 Andreasen 2020; Walsh et al. 2018b; Akhter MJ, Unpublished results). Although *A. myosuroides*
404 sheds its seeds before crop maturity, it usually grows taller than the winter wheat (Akhter, 2020). The

405 height of *A. myosuroides* provides an opportunity to cut the seed heads above the crop canopy before
406 the seeds mature (BBCH 60-71) (Akhter et al 2020a). An added advantage of cutting the heads could
407 be that the seed head regrowing from the cut plants will mature later and could potentially be targeted
408 by HWSC tactics during crop harvest. *A. spica-venti* is ranked as one of the most competitive grass
409 weed in winter wheat production systems in Europe (Akhter et al., 2021). The level of seed retention
410 and its concurrent maturity with winter wheat indicate the potential of HWSC against *A. spica-venti*
411 (Table 1). *A. fatua* and *Avena sterilis* are other problematic weeds in Europe. High variability of
412 reported seed retention (10-84%) suggest that it will be difficult to predict the impact of HWSC on
413 *Avena* spp. population dynamic. *Poa annua* L. is another frequently found weed species in Europe,
414 particularly in Northern European countries (Andreasen and Streibig, 2011), however, because of the
415 low plant stature, and multiple generations during a season, it is a poor candidate for HWSC.
416 Recently, *V. myuros* has become a problematic weed in Northern Europe (Akhter et al 2020a). Due
417 to its natural tolerance against ACCase inhibiting herbicides, there are only few herbicides available
418 to control *V. myuros* and most only provide relatively low efficacies (Akhter, 2020c). *V. myuros*
419 showed concurrent maturity with winter wheat (Unpublished results), therefore, HWSC could be
420 helpful in managing *V. myuros*. Panicles of *V. myuros* are, however, not upright but bend downwards
421 (San Martín et al., 2021), therefore, a low crop harvest height is needed to collect seed during harvest.

422
423 Broadleaved weeds of winter cereal and spring cereal crops, such as *Capsella bursa-pastoris* (L.)
424 Medik., *Geranium molle* L., *S. media*, *F. convolvulus* and *S. arvensis* showed intermediate level of
425 seed retention, erect growth habit and weed seeds present at a height where they can be collected
426 during harvesting, and were classified intermediate candidate of HWSC (Bitarafan and Andreasen,
427 2020a; Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c). *Papaver rhoeas* L., is another broad leaf species infesting
428 winter cereals (Torra and Recasens, 2008). According to parameters used for considering HWSC, *P.*

429 *rhoeas* is classified as intermediate candidate for HWSC. The control of *P. rhoeas* with HWSC would
430 be increased if crop harvest is advanced for one or two weeks (Westerman *et al.*, 2012).

431
432 Aside from wheat, there is a potential for HWSC technologies in other major crops in Europe such
433 as grain maize, grain sorghum and oilseed rape. In grain maize and grain sorghum, *Chenopodium*
434 *album* L. and *Echinochloa crus-galli* (L.) P. Beauv. are important weed species across Europe.
435 *Amaranthus* sp. and *S. halepense* are two species that frequently occur in these crops in Southern
436 Europe. Seed retention studies under Northern European conditions suggested intermediate HWSC
437 efficacy against *C. album* (Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c) (Table 1). Data from studies carried out
438 in Australia and the US have demonstrated high seed retention in *Amaranthus* spp (98%), and
439 intermediate seed retention in *E. crus-galli* (41%), indicating potential of HWSC against these weed
440 species (Schwartz-Lazaro *et al.*, 2017). In Southern Europe, soybean producers are facing increasing
441 problems in controlling ALS-resistant *Amaranthus* spp. populations and resistance problems are
442 increasing after the identification of ALS-resistant *A. palmeri* populations in Italy and Spain (Milani
443 *et al* 2021; Torra *et al* 2020). Given that extremely high seed retention was reported for several
444 *Amaranthus* spp. across many sites in the US under different environmental conditions (Schwartz-
445 Lazaro *et al* 2021), these species are ideal candidates for HWSC in spring crops also in Southern
446 Europe. There is no published information on *S. halepense* weed seed retention at maturity under
447 European conditions, but a high level of seed retention at crop harvest (approx. 75%) was observed
448 during assessments conducted for three years in soybean fields in Northern Italy with some variability
449 across sites (Loddo D, personal communications). Further, a study from the US demonstrated high
450 level of seed retention in *S. halepense* (>96%), making this species a potential candidate for HWSC
451 (Schwartz-Lazaro *et al.*, 2021b). The potential of HWSC against other important weeds in Europe is
452 presented in the Table 1.

5.4. HWSC and IWM

An effective IWM approach limits weed germination, crop-weed competition and seed return to the soil seedbank (Kudsk et al 2020b; Riemens et al 2022). HWSC is a strategy that targets weed seeds at harvest and reduces seed return and ultimately limits weed density and thus crop-weed competition. To achieve sufficient weed control and to prevent further losses of viable herbicide options, farmers will have to change their practices and adopt more IWM approaches. IWM approaches should combine several weed management tactics, where the combined effect of early and late season weed control tactics can reduce weed populations to low levels (Walsh et al. 2013). HWSC, as a late season weed control strategy, is a potential tactic that farmers could consider. A simulation study from the US using the PAM (Palmer Amaranth Management) model assessed the impact of HWSC in combination with a standard weed management program practiced in maize and soybean. The results from this analysis showed that HWSC, applied annually with an efficacy of 50%, could reduce the size of the seed bank of *A. palmeri* up to 73% in 5 years (Shergill et al., 2020a).

To demonstrate the potential of HWSC on *L. multiflorum* in European cropping systems, we performed a case study using the DK-RIM (Danish Ryegrass Integrated Management) model (Sønderskov et al 2020) to visualize the long-term impact of different levels of HWSC on the development of a population of *L. multiflorum* in winter wheat-spring barley crop rotation. Population densities were assessed in terms of number of *L. multiflorum* seeds in the soil per m⁻² at the beginning of the following season over a period of 10 years. In the DK-RIM model, a density of 20 *L. multiflorum* plants m⁻² was used to initiate the simulations. This density represents a significant weed control problem that is likely to stimulate the adoption of an alternative weed control technique. Details on the DK-RIM model and employed parameters are described in Sønderskov et al. (2020). The herbicide programme for winter wheat was prosulfocarb pre-emergence followed by iodosulfuron-methyl-sodium post emergence. The herbicide program for spring barley consisted of

477 iodosulfuron-methyl-sodium post emergence. Three levels of HWSC efficacy (30%, 60% and 90%)
478 were included plus a control treatment without application of HWSC. The DK-RIM predicted that a
479 HWSC efficacy of 30% reduced the size of the seed bank by 45 and 65% after 5 and 10 years,
480 respectively, compared to the control treatment, while an increasing HWSC efficacy resulted in soil
481 seed bank reductions between 75 and 90% after 5 years and reductions above 90% after 10 years (Fig.
482 1). The study suggests that an annual application of HWSC practices could potentially diminish the
483 weed seed bank significantly when included as part of a IWM program that also includes effective
484 herbicide use.

486 **6. Potential for weed adaptation to HWSC**

487 Adaptation or resistance evolution has been observed to evolve when weed populations are repeatedly
488 exposed to strong selection pressure in terms of specific weed management strategies (Diggle et al.,
489 2001; Neve and Powles, 2005). Adaptation to hand weeding, mowing and grazing has been reported
490 worldwide (Barrett and Wilson, 1981; Chavana et al., 2021; Gould, 1991; McKinney and Fowler,
491 1991). HWSC technologies will, like other weed management tactics, exert a selection pressure, and
492 if that selection pressure is strong enough, adaptation will evolve to counteract HWSC. Various
493 adaptive traits could reduce the amount of retained seeds at harvest. Early flowering is an important
494 potential approach for weed plants to escape HWSC tactics (Ashworth et al., 2016; Walsh et al.,
495 2013). Early flowering in response to different environmental conditions has been reported in
496 populations of several agronomically important weeds e.g., *S. media*, *R. raphanistrum*, *V. myuros*, *S.*
497 *halepense* (Akhter et al., 2020a; Ashworth et al., 2016; Lososová and Simonova, 2008), showing their
498 potential to adapt as a response to repeated selection pressure. Moreover, evolutionary changes in the
499 timing and intensity of seed shattering can also occur in weeds, for example, adaptation in seed

500 shattering patterns has been reported in a range of species including *S. halepense*, *R. raphanistrum*,
501 *Oryza sativa* (Ellstrand et al., 2010; Shergill et al., 2020a).

502 Implementing HWSC could result in shifts in the weed flora. For example, HWSC could control only
503 those weed species susceptible to this tactic which may result in an increased future abundance of
504 weed species not targeted by HWSC (Shergill et al., 2020a). Although weed adaptation to HWSC has
505 not yet been reported in field experiments, the potential remains and must be taken into account when
506 designing HWSC approaches (Ashworth et al., 2016; Walsh et al., 2013).

507 Recognising that weeds will adapt to HWSC as to any other weed management tactic, there is a
508 common understanding that HWSC methods need to be used in a way that long term efficacy of these
509 tactics remains intact. For example, the combination of HWSC with crop rotation would contribute
510 to the delay in the adaptation of the biology of weeds to these techniques.

511

512 **7. Future research needs**

513 To date research in Europe has mainly focused on weed seed retention studies. Results from these
514 studies clearly demonstrate the need for continued research efforts on HWSC. Based on crop and
515 weed biological parameters, we have classified the susceptibility of weeds to HWSC under European
516 conditions. From the studied weed species, three were classified as good candidates for HWSC,
517 thirteen species showed intermediate susceptibility, and five species showed low level of
518 susceptibility to HWSC (Table 1). However, this information was derived from studies in a limited
519 number of crop types. Further research is needed to assess the potential of HWSC for a range of crops
520 including soybean, corn and sugar beet. Several weed species, such as *S. halepense*, *P. annua*, *Elymus*
521 *repens*, *Amaranthus* spp. and *E. crus-galli*, are equally important in European cropping systems, but
522 no data on seed retention rates are available on these weed species in the European region. Future

523 studies are needed to determine the proportion of seed retention on these weed species in order to
524 evaluate their susceptibility to HWSC. Future research should also evaluate the potential influence of
525 environment and agronomic factors such as temperature and wind on seed shattering.

526
527 The next step for the research should be to evaluate different HWSC methods to enable the adoption
528 of these tactics in the European cropping systems. More specifically there is need to assess the
529 practicalities of different available HWSC systems, evaluate their efficacies and usage in different
530 crop rotations, determine required operating costs and suitability across different regions and
531 cropping systems in Europe. Another important task is to conduct long-term and on-farm studies to
532 support the adoption of HWSC systems across the continent. Considering reasons mentioned above
533 (section 4), chaff lining and tramlining, and integrated impact mills should be given priority in the
534 long term HWSC evaluation. There are some reports suggesting that impact mills will be less
535 effective when crop residues contain high moisture contents (>12%) at the time of harvest (Schwartz-
536 Lazaro et al. 2017b; Walsh et al. 2018b). The introduction of impact mill systems into European
537 cropping systems will require to evaluate the influence of frequent cold and humid harvest
538 environments on the efficiency of impact mills.

539
540 Seed persistence in the soil plays a role in determining the success of HWSC. Species with short seed
541 persistence can easier be exploited with HWSC compared to species with long seed persistence. For
542 example, HWSC would show results faster if targeting seeds with short longevity in soil (like many
543 grasses) compared to species with long longevity (like many broadleaved weeds). Future research
544 should evaluate the potential impact of seed persistence on the success of HWSC. Moreover, there is
545 a need to assess the long-term impact of HWSC strategies on weed populations dynamics when
546 integrated with other IWM tools to understand its significance in weed management programs. For

547 example, it can be expected that late sowing might delay weed maturity and consequently reduce seed
548 shattering and increase the efficacy of HWSC. Future studies should also assess the impact of sowing
549 date on the efficacy of HWSC. There are several challenges that can hamper the practical
550 implementation of HWSC in Europe, and farmers should be involved in research activities to drive
551 HWSC adoption.

552
553 To date research on HWSC has been conducted mainly in Northwestern European countries, and in
554 a limited number of crops, while little research has been performed in other parts of Europe. It is not
555 clear whether results from Northwestern Europe are representative for other European countries with
556 dissimilar weed flora, climatic conditions, cropping systems, geography, land holdings and economic
557 conditions. Further research is needed in other parts of Europe to address the knowledge gap.

559 **8. Conclusion**

560 For annual weed species which retain a significant proportion of their seeds until crop harvest, HWSC
561 is an effective IWM tool for disrupting the reproductive cycle. The need for alternative non-chemical
562 weed control options due to widespread evolution of herbicide resistance and a decreasing number of
563 available herbicide active ingredients make HWSC an interesting tactic in Europe. Weed seed
564 retention studies highlighted the potential of HWSC for weed species with specific characteristics.
565 HWSC shows a high potential in winter wheat cropping systems because of the threat posed by winter
566 annual grass weeds with life cycles similar to the autumn sown crops. Nonetheless, research to
567 evaluate the different HWSC approaches in commercial fields is lacking but is needed to understand
568 the impact of HWSC systems on weed population dynamics. To promote the practical implication of
569 HWSC in Europe, the regional differences in cropping systems, occurrence in weed species and the
570 climatic conditions that influence the adoption of this tactic must be understood. Other HWSC

571 challenges in European production systems are a longer growing season, later harvest and more
572 humid conditions at harvest, particularly in Northwestern Europe, compared to regions where HWSC
573 is adopted in Australia. Like the evolution of herbicide resistance in weeds enable them to sustain
574 herbicide use, weeds may adapt to the continuous use of HWSC systems through selection of plant
575 traits such as early seed shattering, lodging and shorter plant height that allows plants to escape
576 HWSC methods. Therefore, as recommended for other weed control tactics, diversity in weed
577 management approaches is essential on the long-term to achieve sustainability of this tactic. In
578 addition to practical obstacles, a collective effort is required to overcome the barriers among farmers
579 to adopt HWSC in IWM strategies in Europe.

580

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585

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589

590

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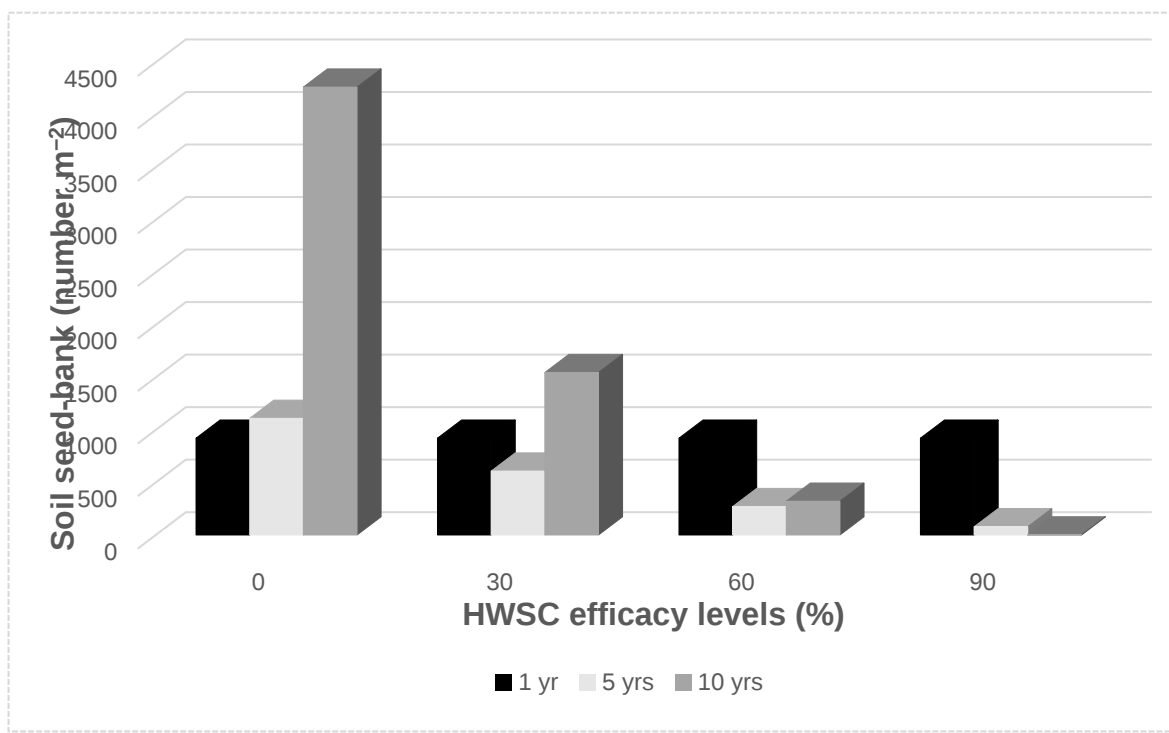
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Figure 1. Results from three scenarios generated by the DK-RIM (Danish - Ryegrass Integrated Model) modelling the impact of different efficacy level of the HWSC tactic on the long-term soil seedbank of *Lolium multiflorum* in wheat–barley crop rotation over 10-year period. The herbicide program used in winter wheat and spring barley was pre-emergence prosulfocarb (Boxer, 800 g L⁻¹ prosulfocarb, Syngenta Crop Protection A/S, Denmark) followed by post-emergence iodosulfuron-methyl-sodium (Hussar Plus OD, 0.14 L ha⁻¹, Bayer A/S, Germany) and post-emergence iodosulfuron-methyl-sodium (Hussar Plus OD, 0.14 L ha⁻¹, Bayer A/S, Germany), respectively.

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909 Table 1. Growth characteristics, seed-retention values and estimated potential for HWSC for commonly found
910 weeds at crop maturity in European cropping system. The crop and country indicate where the related studies
911 were conducted.

Species	Seed retention (%)	Stem type	Plant height (cm)	HWSC potential	Crop, Country	References
<i>Alopecurus myosuroides</i>	29-37	Erect	80	Low	Wheat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020b; CABI, 2021a)
	14				Wheat, Denmark	(Unpublished results)
<i>Apera spica-venti</i>	16-53	Erect	129	Intermediate	Wheat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020b; Akhter et 2020c)
	22				Wheat, Denmark	(Unpublished results)
<i>Avena species</i>	20	Erect	120	Low	Wheat, UK	(Holm et al., 1977; Schulz et al., 2014; Feldman and Reed, 1974)
	10-20				Wheat, UK and Spain	(Barroso et al., 2006)
	84				Wheat, Germany	(Walsh et al., 2013; Wilson, 1970)
<i>Anagallis arvensis</i>	62	Procumbent and ascending stem	10-40	Poor	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Holm et al., 1977)
<i>Bromus hordeaceus</i>	41	Erect, rarely ascending	100	Intermediate	Wheat, Denmark	(Glasner et al., 2019)
<i>Bromus diandrus</i>	40-50	Erect to ascending	30-90	Intermediate	Wheat, UK and Italy	(CABI, 2021b)
<i>Capsella bursa-pastoris</i>	53	Erect	10–50	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Cirsium arvense</i>	11	Erect	150		Wheat, Denmark	(Glasner et al., 2019)
<i>Chenopodium album</i>	67	Erect	20-90	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981),
<i>Fallopia convolvulus</i>	44	Decumbent to erect	200	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020a; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Galium aparine</i>	100	Ascending, sometimes erect	120	Good	Wheat, Denmark	(Glasner et al., 2019; CABI, 2021c)
<i>Geranium molle</i>	58	Erect	15-30	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Chen and Wang, 2005)
<i>Lolium multiflorum</i>	62	Erect	88	Intermediate		(Unpublished results ; Akgun et al., 2008)
<i>Lolium rigidum</i>	96	Erect	90	Good	Wheat, Spain	(Blanco□Moreno et al., 2004)

<i>Papaver rhoeas</i>	20-32	Erect to ascending	20-80	Intermediate	Winter cereals, Spain	Westerman et al (2012)
<i>Persicaria maculosa,</i>	32	Prostrate, ascending or erect	30-100	Low	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Polygonum aviculare</i>	59	Procumbent or ascending	5-60	Poor	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Sinapis arvensis</i>	67	Erect to ascending	30-60	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020a; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Silene noctiflora</i>	96	Erect to ascending	25-60	Good	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; McNeill, 1980)
<i>Sonchus arvensis,</i>	23	Erect	60-150	Low	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Spergula arvensis</i>	45	Prostrate to erect	15-40	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020a; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Stellaria media</i>	56	Ascending to erect	20-60	Intermediate	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020a; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Veronica persica</i>	52	Prostrate	10-50	Poor	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Holm et al., 1997),
<i>Viola arvensis</i>	34	Prostrate, ascending or erect stem	15-35	Low	Oat, Denmark	(Bitarafan and Andreasen, 2020c; Korsmo et al., 1981)
<i>Vulpia myuros</i>	64	Erect or ascending,	117	Intermediate	Wheat, Denmark	(Unpublished results; Akhter et al 2020c)

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