International Journal of Chemical Studies

P-ISSN: 2349–8528 E-ISSN: 2321–4902 IJCS 2019; 7(2): 636-643 © 2019 IJCS Received: 02-01-2019 Accepted: 04-02-2019

Sanket Kumar

Department of Vegetable Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia, West Bengal, India

Santanu Layek

Department of Vegetable Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia, West Bengal, India

Anamika Upadhyay

Department of Vegetable Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia, West Bengal, India

Correspondence Sanket Kumar Department of Vegetable Science, Faculty of Horticulture, Bidhan Chandra Krishi Viswavidyalaya, Mohanpur, Nadia, West Bengal, India

Potential impact of climate changes on quality, biotic and abiotic stresses in vegetable production- A Review

Sanket Kumar, Santanu Layek and Anamika Upadhyay

Abstract

An increase in the concentration of greenhouse gases in atmosphere results in global warming which directly affects the environment and changes the climate variables. Various climate change factors like temperature, moisture, atmospheric composition, salinity, UV radiation, air pollutants etc. are responsible for the productivity, biotic stresses and quality of vegetable crops. Extreme temperature stress conditions reduces photosynthates, occurs pre-anthesis, prone to diseases and disorders in vegetables. Water stress together with increased temperature affects the yield and quality of vegetables as it reduces precipitation, hampers soil microbial activities and increases evapotranspiration results in desiccating effects and wilting of vegetable plants. Under waterlogged condition, small roots may form due to reduction of oxygen around the root zone. An increase in pollination of vegetable crops was noticed at 50-70% relative humidity. Most of the vegetables are sensitive to UV radiation seeing as it harms photosynthesis, DNA, RNA, proteins and membranes of plants. Through the development and adaptation of efficient and effective measures, adverse effects of climate change can be mitigate that directly influences the yield and quality of the vegetables.

Keywords: Climate change, vegetable, stresses, quality and yield.

Introduction

A considerable variation in the climate or its variability continues for longer period or decades is referred as climate change. It may cause due to various natural internal and external forces, or to constant anthropogenic alters in the atmospheric composition (Singh, 2013) ^[61]. On a global scale, change in climate will hampers the vegetable cultivation as a whole; consequently noteworthy affect the world's food supply. Over ten decades, an increased in the concentration of greenhouse gases (carbon dioxide, methane and nitrous oxide along with halogenated compounds) in atmosphere as of human exercises were recorded which directly affects the environment in the form of global warming (IPCC, 1997) ^[39]. Climate change is widely accepted as a grave hazard to the fruits and vegetable cultivation as fluctuation in temperatures, extreme weather conditions e.g., heavy rain falls and higher rate of "false springs". As vegetables are more prone to abiotic stresses, losses in yield recorded approximately 50% (Bray *et al.*, 2000) ^[14].

Climate change in world and India

Year 2016 was recorded as the warmest year till now, average global temperature across land and ocean surface was notified as 0.94 0 C (1.69 0 F) in this year which suppresses the previous year warmth record by 0.04 0 C (0.07 0 C) (Global Climate Report, 2016) ^[31]. The global combined land and ocean annually-averaged temperature rank along with anomaly for each of the 10 warmest years are mentioned in table 1. It has been documented that the global annual temperature has increased at an average rate of 0.07°C (0.13°F) per decade since 1880. However, an average rate of 0.17°C (0.31°F) at per decade was recorded since 1970 (NOAA's National Centers for Environmental Information, 2016) ^[53]. According to global independent in situ analyses the increasing trend in the globally averaged temperature shows that more areas are warming than cooling. Analysis of climate trends in tomato-growing locations suggests that temperatures are rising and the severity coupled with frequency of above-optimal temperature episodes will increase in the coming decades (Bell *et al.*, 2000) ^[9]. In India, the mean annual temperature of India is increased by 0.68 °C over a period of last 114 years since 1901 (24.23 °C) to 2015 (24.91 °C) (OGD Platform India, 2016) ^[54].

Table 1: Based on Global combined land and ocean annually-
averaged temperature, top ten warmest years since 1880-2016.

Rank (Rank 1 = warmest)	Year	Anomaly °C
1	2016	0.94
2	2015	0.90
3	2014	0.74
4	2010	0.70
5	2013	0.67
6	2005	0.66
7	2009	0.64
8	1998	0.63
9	2012	0.62
10	2003	0.61

Source: (NCEI, 2016)^[53]

Factors responsible for climate change

Climate change variables such as temperature, moisture and atmospheric composition may have a direct and indirect effect on the yield, occurrence of diseases and insect pests that ultimately influences the quality of crops (Newton *et al.*, 2011)^[52]. The severity of environmental stresses i.e., extreme temperatures, reduced water accessibility, water logging and salinity will be main limiting factors in enhancing vegetable production. These factors may also negatively affect the soil fertility and raised soil erosion (de la Pena and Hughes, 2007)^[21].

The responsible factors for climate change and its effect on vegetable crops are illustrated below:

1. Temperature

Optimum temperature plays an important role in the growth and development of crops that ultimately increases the productivity of vegetables. If vegetable grows under unfamiliar extreme high and low temperature, it restricts the production and productivity of crops (Tesfaendrias et al., 2013) [67]. A fluctuation in the temperature particularly escalating temperature tends to increase in formation of tropospheric ozone that causes oxidative stress for the crops. As a result, it reduces photosynthates that check the plant growth and development (Adebayo, 2010; Ainsworth et al., 2012)^[3, 4]. During temperature stress, pre-anthesis occurs and is related with irregularities in the endothecium and epidermis, poor development of pollen, developmental changes in the anthers and lack of opening of the stromium (Sato et al., 2002)^[60]. Under higher temperature, uptake rate of systemic fungicides by plants may also be badly affected negatively due to physiological changes such as thicker epicuticular waxes or smaller opening of stomata in vegetables. Extreme low and high temperatures may also result in disorders that directly affect the quality of vegetable crops (Warland et al., 2006)^[74].

Fluctuation in temperature unaided or coupled with other environmental aspects often affects the vegetative processes in tomatoes (Abdalla and Verkerk, 1968)^[1] and capsicum. Extreme high day and night temperature may affects the productivity of tomato, as reduces the fruit setting percentage and smaller fruits (Stevens and Rudich, 1978; Yamaguchi and Blumwald, 2005; Bhardwaj, 2012)^[64, 80, 11]. High temperature exposure at the pre-anthesis stage in pepper did not affect viability of androecium and gynoecium, but under extreme post-pollination temperatures, a reduced percentage of fruit setting was noticed which indicates fertilization is sensitive to high temperature stress condition (Erickson and Markhart, 2002)^[23]. Depending on varieties, cauliflower requires chilling treatment i.e., vernalisation that ranges from 9.0 ^oC to 14 ⁰C for curd initiation (Grevsen and Olesen, 1994; Pearson et al., 1994)^[32, 56]. Vernalisation process delays under high temperature, results in suspension of curd initiation and plants continued to produce leaves (Wurr et al., 1995) [78]. In a report, delayed curd initiation by up to 49 days and more number of leaves was observed due to an increase in temperature. Wurr and Fellows (1991) [77] recorded that the maximum head weights of lettuce at maturity can be achieved if a mean temperature raise of about 2°C from transplanting to crop maturity, indicated that maturity is directly associated with temperature during hearting. Intense heat in dry months reduces the movement of pollinating agents, changes stigmapollen interactions and quality of leafy vegetables under open conditions (Singh and Bainsla, 2015) [62]. In tomato, high temperature causes bud drop, abnormal flower, poor pollen viability, dehiscence, ovule abortion, fruit set and reduced carbohydrate (Hazra et al., 2007)^[36]. Increased temperature from average mean temperature gave reliably earlier maturity of lettuce. An elevated temperature (35-45°C) in day hours cause denaturation and protoplast injury to cell death in tomato, sweet pepper, palak, lettuce and green onion. Many of the vegetable crops prone to extreme high temperatures causing flower damage, reduces fruit setting and pollen viability percentage (Hanson et al., 2011)^[33].

Under warmer conditions, insects may produce variety of species and higher populations that attacks on more hosts in temperate conditions (Bale et al., 2002)^[6]. With an increase in temperature of 2 °C, the effectiveness of Colorado potato beetle, European corn borer, cabbage and onion maggot, increased to 1-5 supplementary life cycles per year (season) (Yamamura and Kiritani, 1998) [81]. An increase in temperature favours the rapid reproduction of whitefly (Bemisia tabaci), acts as a source of vectors for the dispersion of viral diseases and creates a major threat to solanaceous crops (Hanson et al., 2011)^[33]. Over 30°C temperature, the development of A. gossypii on cucumber extended due to increased mortality rate, reduced fecundity and shortened adult longevity (Satar et al., 2005)^[59]. Tomatoes and pepper may also prone to viroids under high temperature. Due to climate change, fluctuation in temperature coupled with ample soil moisture results in high evapotranspiration and an increase in microclimate of crops that alters the growth, development, pathogenicity and spread of pathogen. It also affects the geographical distribution, physiology and resistance of the both host plant and pathogens (Chakraborty and Datta, 2003; Mina and Sinha, 2008; Gautam et al., 2013) ^[17, 49, 29]. Under high temperature, it has been reported that entire potato crop may destroy, if crop is infested with an early outbreak of *Phytophthora infestans* (Potato late blight) (Caubel et al., 2012)^[16]. Climate change plays an important role in increasing the range and races of pathogens, new type of viruses and insect vectors as genetic changes facilitated through mutation and recombination. A B-biotype whitefly introduced in Brazil that acts as vector of viruses in tomato having an ability to recombine and produce new viral diseases (Fernandes et al., 2006)^[26].

2. Drought

A drought is the most important factor of climate change, responsible for the great famines in past a century. Around 45% of world agricultural lands own extreme drought condition (Bot *et al.*, 2000) ^[13] that badly affects the agriculture ecosystem and consequently food security of the world (Geng *et al.*, 2015) ^[30]. It also influences the function, structure and productivity of soil ecosystem (Liu *et al.*, 2010;

Lal *et al.*, 2013) ^[43, 42], which reduces microbial activities and available nutrient uptake by crops. Severe water stress coupled with increased temperature will affect productivity and quality of vegetables crops due to increase in evapotranspiration, abridged precipitation and reduced soil microbial activities leads to escalation of solute concentration and eventually sinking the water potential, disrupting membranes and photosynthesis processes, leading to cell death. Due to rapid rates of transpiration cause desiccating effects and wilting of plants (Yusuf, 2012) ^[82]. Heat stress decreases the anthesis duration, total soluble protein and nitrogen in leaf as it suppresses the photosynthetic processes, rubisco protein and sucrose phosphate synthase activity (Daniel and Triboi, 2002; Xu and Zhou, 2006) ^[20, 79].

During flowering and fruiting, many vegetables (cucumbers, melons, pumpkin, squashes, lima beans, snap beans, peas, chilli, sweet corn and tomato) shows susceptibility towards water stress condition. Tubers of potato are highly sensitive to drought, even its yield potential badly affected under moderate level of water scarcity. It was also accounted that water deficit condition may affects and diminishes the yield and quality potential of leafy vegetables (lettuce, spinach, amaranth, chinese cabbage) as these are succulent in nature having more than 90% of water (AVRDC, 1990)^[5]. Drought condition may affects the reproductive stage in some of the legume vegetables such as cowpea, vegetable pea, Indian beans etc. Under water stress condition, abscission of floral part is obvious in the vegetable crops like tomato which may happens due to changes in physiological processes (Wien et al., 1989)^[75]. The germination of vegetable seeds like onion, okra etc. and sprouting of potato tubers are negatively pretentious under water stress condition. Vegetable crops must requires irrigation under certain critical stages, if not so, the productivity and quality of crops drastically reduced or even cause death of plants. Critical stages of irrigation of some vegetables are illustrated in table 2. In tuber, root, and bulb vegetable crops, the yield and quality are significantly reduced under water deficit condition as it suppresses the translocation of carbohydrates from the leaves to the storage organs.

Table 2: Critica	l stages of irrigation	in some vegetables crops.
------------------	------------------------	---------------------------

Crops	Critical stages	
Potato	Stolon and Tuber formation and enlargement	
	of tuber	
Tomato, Brinjal, Chilli	Flowering, fruiting and after each to harvest	
Okra	Flowering and fruiting	
Cole crops	Head/curd formation and development	
Radish, Carrot, Turnip, Beet root	2 D 4 J J	
Beet root	Root development	
Onion & Garlic	Bulb formation & enlargement.	
Cucumber	Bud development, flowering, fruit	
Cucumber	development	
Muskmelon,	Flowering, fruit set and development	
Watermelon		
Nallach	Bud development, flowering and fruit development	
Squash		
Peas	Flowering, seed enlargement and pod filling	
Cowpea	Bloom, fruit set and pod development	
Beans	Pollination, flowering, and pod development	
Leafy vegetables	Consistent moisture throughout the growing	
Leary vegetables	season	
Asparagus	During spear, fern development and harvest	
Sweet corn	Silking, tasseling and ear development	
Rutabaga, Sweet	Root development and enlargement	
Potato		

3. Flooding

Micronutrients (boron, chlorine, copper, iron, manganese, molybdenum and zinc) are vital for plant growth and play a significant role in quantity and quality production of vegetable crops (Rajasekar, 2017)^[57]. In Flooding, nutrients leaches and washes out from upper fertile soils together with erosion of isle soils may results in nutrient deficit soils that directly affect the productivity of vegetables (Tuomisto, 2017)^[71]. Soil deficient in any one of the micronutrient can diminishes the production even all the nutrient available. The decomposition rates of organic sources may also hampers due to rapid loss of chemical nutrients by soil biology (Pandey *et al.*, 2007)^[55]. Under the flooded condition, an aerobic process repressed as a reduction of oxygen around the root zone of vegetable plants.

Tomato, pepper, onion, potato, melons, pea and beans etc are highly sensitive to waterlogged condition. It is also reported that water logging coupled with high temperature in tomato cultivation results in wilting and eventually death of plants (Kuo et al., 1982) ^[41]. Under flooded condition, roots respiration hampers because soil air replaced by water resulting in improper nutrient uptake and also leads prone to soil borne diseases. Survivality and growth of asparagus is reduced, if transplants are placed under submerged condition for 3-4 weeks (Falloon et al., 1991)^[25]. Tomato plants affected in waterlogged condition because oxygen level reduces around root zone which accrue and increases endogenous ethylene (Drew, 1979)^[22]. In pea, concentration of abscisic acid increases in roots during flooding and accumulation of leaves promotes partial closure of stomata. Severe flooding causes rotting of roots, shrinkage of roots in storage and necrotic spots in leaves of sweet potato and yam (Thompson et al., 1992; Igwilo and Udeh, 1987) [68, 38]. Chilli plants sensitive to waterlogged condition, which decreases oxygen supply and nitrogen uptake by roots causes yellowing of leaves, suppresses growth, blackening of roots and swelling at root shoot junction (Hasnain and Sheik, 1976)^[35].

4. Relative humidity

Vegetable plants are very sensitive to the fluctuation in atmospheric moisture. Under elevated relative humidity (85-90%) conditions, the reproductive processes of vegetables are affected in respect to anthesis, anther dehiscence, pollination and fertilization. If plants exposed to high temperature, it requires high humidity because of transpiration. High relative humidity responsible for low transpiration rates, decrease in nutrients (nitrogen, phosphors, potassium, calcium and magnesium), rapid spread of diseases like black spot, powdery mildew, blossom-end rot (along with Ca deficiency) etc., reduced fruit quality and leaf area (Triguii et al., 1999) ^[69]. It has been reported that the pollination in tomato increased around 60% relative humidity, additionally 50-70% relative humidity is optimum for pollination (Harel et al., 2014)^[34]. In pumpkin, pollen viability is extended, if plant exposed to high relative humidity. However, under extreme relative humidity conditions, pollen may become susceptible to heat stress (90% RH). Yield of brinjal is also negatively affected by an increase in humidity percentage. High RH reduces the quality and yield of tomato as it reduces the leaf area index, decreases the translocation of Calcium towards leaves, death of apical parts. (Holder and Cockshull, 1990; Acock et al., 1978; Barker, 1990) [37, 2, 7]. But, a reduction in leaf area index has been observed in cucumber reduces under humidity. Some of the advantages are also available under mild RH stress conditions like hardening (under low RH), osmotic adjustment, leaf turgor regulation etc.

5. Salinity

During dry conditions, considerable water loss occurs due to high evapo-transpiration rate and accumulation of salt around roots that restricts the uptake of water and nutrient by the plants (Taiz and Zeiger, 2006)^[65]. High salinity in soil alters the K⁺/Na⁺ ratios results in ion-specific stresses that make Na⁺ and Cl⁻ concentrations which is harmful to plants. It affects the plants in various mechanisms like decrease photosynthesis, loss of turgidity, tissue necrosis, leaf curling, leaf abscission, wilting and even death of plant under severe conditions (Cheeseman 1988; Yamaguchi and Blumwald, 2005)^[18, 80]. The excess salinity in soil affects the ontogeny of plants and decreases the productivity of vegetables. The effects of accumulated salts may encounter by the plants through various mechanisms such as osmotic stress tolerance and salt exclusion (Munns and Tester, 2008)^[50]. Vegetable productivity may also affects through irrigation as the ground water is contaminated with deposition of salts in bedrocks or by various natural or manmade actions.

It has been reported that saline soil reduces the intercellular spaces and enhances stomatal density in spinach and pea leaves, respectively. In almost all the cucurbits, high salt in soil causes reduction in total chlorophyll content, relative water along with fresh and dry weight (Baysal *et al.*, 2004)^[8]. According to USDA, onions are prone to brackish soils, whereas cucumbers, brinjal, chilli and tomatoes are moderately sensitive. Under saline condition, thicker epidermis and mesophyll cells were observed in bean leaves. However, yield of vegetables like tomato, pepper, celery, peas etc are also badly affects by the saline soils (Maggio *et al.*, 2004; Maksimovic *et al.*, 2008)^[44, 45].

6. Air pollutants

Presently, tropospheric ozone concentrations found above preindustrial levels in most agricultural areas of the world. Air pollutants (NO₂, CO₂, CH₄ etc.) react with hydroxyl radicals in the presence of solar radiation, results in formation of ozone at ground level, which may cause oxidative damage to photosynthetic activity in most of the vegetables (Wilkinson et al., 2012) ^[76]. Under drought conditions, higher atmospheric CO₂ level helps in maintaining biomass production. It was concluded from the previous studies that 1000 to 3000 µmol/mol CO₂ concentrations increases both antioxidants and yield but at the same time very high concentration of CO2 (3000 to 5000 µmol/mol) results in decreased protein content, growth, yield and quality of crops (Kimball and Idso 1983; Tuab et al., 2008)^[40, 70]. Under elevated CO₂ concentration will reduce O₃ level uptake by crop plants due to reduced stomatal conductance, thereby limiting injury to the plant and sustaining crop production (McKee *et al.*, 2000) ^[47]. High CO₂ concentrations reduces stomata opening, changes in physiological characteristics of leaves which decreases the pathogen attacks on stomata results in increases host resistance to pathogens and decreases disease incidence in the plant (Mcelrone et al., 2005)^[46].

An increased rate of both yield and antioxidant content was reported at high concentration of CO_2 (1000 and 3000 µmol/mol), compared to CO_2 at ground level (400 µmol/mol). It was also recorded that yield potentiality increased by an average of 36% through CO_2 fortification (Kimball, and Idso, 1983)^[40]. For lettuce and cabbage, optimal CO_2 concentration for high yield was 2000 and 3000 µmol/mol respectively;

however concentration should not be exceeding 3000 μ mol/mol (Fu *et al.*, 2015)^[27]. Under high CO₂ concentration, the reproduction rate of green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae*) was significantly enhanced on *Brassica oleracea* plants (Bezemer *et al.*, 1999)^[10].

7. UV radiation

Over the past few decades, it has been observed that the stratospheric ozone protecting layer the Earth surface from UV radiation, which is depleting due to emissions of chlorofluorocarbon and nitrous oxides by human activities. One percent ozone layer of stratosphere depletion, which results in an increase of UV-B radiation on earth by 2% (Cutchis, 1974)^[19]. Most vegetables (e.g. pea, cowpea, beans, tomatoes, spinach, radish, carrots, potato, beet, rhubarb, cabbage, brusseels sprout, knol khol, watermelon, cucumber and gourd) were found to be more affected than wooded plants because it readily harms DNA, RNA, proteins and membranes of plants and also photosynthesis (Bjorn *et al.*, 1999; Caldwell *et al.*, 2007) ^[12, 15]. The genetic evolutions in pathogens have been reported under enhanced UV-B radiation results in development of new races of pathogens. It has been observed that total soluble proteins found in leaves of tomato, potato, radish, beans and spinach are increased with increasing UV-B irradiation (Esser, 1980) [24]. High UV-B irradiation may reduces amino acids, plant vigour, chlorophyll contents, proteins, carotenoids and starch in plants (Musil, 1996) and the RuBCase activity (40-60%) in pea due to decrease in carboxylating enzyme (Vu et al., 1984)^[72]. In pea, stomatal resistance was unaffected, but net photosynthesis was markedly reduced just after 4 hrs of UV-B radiation. There is some stomatal resistance was observed in radish and remarkable effects on cucumber under moderate UV-B radiation (Teramura et al., 1983) ^[66]. Chlorophyll concentration in cabbage, pea crops has been reduced under high UV-B irradiance along with PAR growth levels irradiance and it also inhibits the biosynthesis of chlorophyll b more than a (Garrard et al., 1976; Vu et al., 1983)^[28, 73].

UV-B radiation enhances root sucrose in sugar beet, while reduces root weight, reducing sugar and starch of sugar beet, spinach and radish, respectively. Moderate UV-B irradiance negatively affects the leaf expansion and net photosynthesis in squash whereas flavonoids absorbance has been significantly increased in squash, pea and parsley (Sisson, 1981) [63]. Growth and calcium content increased in tomato and cucumber, the crops are treated UV-B radiation in range of 290-310 nm. Under green house condition, bronzing in tomato leaves may develop if plants are exposed to UV-B radiation (Robberecht and Caldwell, 1978)^[58]. It has been reported that yields in potato (up to 41%), spinach (up to 66%), cabbage (up to 49%), bean (up to 75%), broccoli and number of fruits in pepper significantly reduced under high UV radiation from unfiltered lamps (simulating up to 40% ozone reduction) (Esser, 1980)^[24]. In addition to this, total fruit weight of squash, tomato and pod yield of pea, chlorophyll a and b in cow pea were reduced under UV-B irradiation (Michaela et al., 2000) [48]. However, it induces flavonoids, proline, copherol and ascorbate contents.

Adaptation strategies and mitigation to climate change

Adverse effects of climate change can be mitigating through adaptation of efficient and effective measures which directly promotes the yield and quality of the vegetables. There are various methods to mitigate the effects of climate change are enlisted below:

- **a)** Improvement and development of cultivars against abiotic stresses. Abiotic stress tolerant varieties of vegetables are enlisted in table 3.
- **b**) By adjusting sowing and planting date, fertigation, drip irrigation, protected cultivation etc.
- c) At high temperature, reflective materials like particle films (calcium carbonate or kaolin based) are spayed on plants, which may reduces the heat effects by reflecting the sun rays.
- d) Grafting of cultivars on abiotic tolerant wild species.
- e) Use of plant growth regulators such as ethylene inhibitors (1-MCP and strobilurins) reduce flower and fruit drop. Cytokinins and jasmonates changes the plant stress related biochemical pathways.

- **f**) Organic cultivation can check the residual effects of pesticides and also improves the potential of soil.
- **g**) Soil temperatures may significantly reduces, if covered with white plastic mulch and natural mulches such as paddy straw, grasses etc.
- **h**) Atmospheric temperature can be reducing by increasing the plantation rate.
- i) By promoting scientific research towards the global climate change and its impact on agriculture.
- **j**) Some biological agents such as Mycorrhizal fungi, *Bacillus subtilis* bacteria etc. acts as root inoculants and have potential to improve the tolerance to plant stress condition.

Table 3: List of released abiotic tolerant cultivars of vegetables	
---------------------------------------------------------------------------	--

Crop	Cultivars	Crop	Cultivars
Heat tolerance			Drought tolerance
Tomato	Pusa Hybrid-1	Tomato	Arka Vikas
Cauliflower	Arka Kanti, Pusa Early Synthetic	Indian Bean	Arka Jay, Arka Vijay
Cabbage	Pusa Ageti, Summer King, Green Express, KK Cross	Cucumber	Hanski 264
Radish	Pusa Chetki, Punjab Safed	Sweet Potato	Sree Nandini
Carrot	Pusa Vrishti, Pusa Kesar	Cassava	Sree Sahya, Sree Prakash
Cold/frost tolerance		Salt tolerance	
Tomato	Pusa Sheetal	Tomato	Sabaur Suphala
Knol Khol	Weismoor, White Forcing	Pea	Newline Perfection, Market Prize
Pea	Alderman, Thomas Laxton	Palak	Jobner Green, HS-23, Pusa Harit
Cucumber	Japanese Long green, Straight-8, Pusa Sanyog	Cabbage	Golden Acre, Pusa Synthetic, Pride of India
Photoinsensitive			Flood tolerance
Cowpea	Kashi Kanchan, Kashi Unnati, Kashi Gauri, Arka Garima, - Arka Suman, Arka Samrudhi	Sweet Potato	Rajendra Sakarkand-92
		Off season	
		Cauliflower	Pusa Himjyoti
French bean	Arka Suvidha, Arka Bold, Arka Anoop, Arka Sharath	Turnip	Pusa Sweti

Conclusion

Last few decades, it has been noticed that there is huge change in the climate as it is continuous process, which indirectly affects the production, productivity and quality of vegetable crops. Global warming and pollutions (mostly soil, air and water) are the two main causes of the climate change. According to reports, it seems that it may largely impacts on the world food security in near future. So, for sustaining the quality and quantity of vegetables, the impacts of climate change can be mitigate by adopting the proper approaches/strategies like develop improved cultivars tolerance to biotic and abiotic stresses; forest, soil and water conservation; utilisation of renewable energy, protected cultivation, Hi-tech and judicious management land resource, cropping sequence etc. Various extension programmes need to be made for demonstrating these approaches among the farmers, so that they can easily adopt these technologies in vegetable cultivation practices.

References

- 1. Abdalla AA, Verkerk K. Growth, flowering and fruit set of the tomato at high temperature. Netherlands Journal of Agricultural Science. 1968; 16:71-76.
- 2. Acock B, Charles-Edwards DA, Fitter DJ, Hand DW, Ludwig LJ, Warren Wilson J *et al.* The contribution of leaves from different levels within a tomato crop to canopy net photosynthesis: an experimental examination of two canopy models. Journal of Experimental Botany. 1978; 29:815-827.
- 3. Adebayo AA. Climate: Resource and Resistance to Agriculture. Eight inaugural lecture. Federal University of Technology Yola, 2010.

- 4. Ainsworth EA, Yendrek CR, Sitch S, Collins WJ, Emberson LD. The effects of tropospheric ozone on net primary productivity and implications for climate change. Annual Review of Plant Biology. 2012; 63:637-661.
- 5. AVRDC. Vegetable Production Training Manual. Asian Vegetable Research and Training Center. Shanhua, Tainan. 1990, 447.
- 6. Bale JS, Masters GJ, Hodkinson ID, Awmack C, Bezemer TM, Brown VK *et al.* Herbivory in global climate change research: direct effects of rising temperature on insect herbivores. Global Change Biology. 2002; 8:1-16.
- Barker JC. Effects of day and night humidity on yield and fruit quality of glasshouse tomatoes (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.). Journal of Horticultural Science. 1990; 65(3):323-331.
- Baysal G, Tipirdamaz R, Ekmekci Y. Effects of salinity on some physiological parameters in three cultivars of cucumber (*Cucumis sativus*). Progress in cucurbit genetics and breeding research. Proceedings of Cucurbitaceae. The 8th EUCARPIA Meeting on Cucurbit genetics and Breeding, Olomouc, Chech Republic, 2004.
- 9. Bell GD, Halpert MS, Schnell RC, Higgins RW, Lowrimore J, Kousky VE *et al.* Climate Assessment for 1999. Supplement June 2000. Bulletin of the American Meteorological Society, 2000, 81.
- 10. Bezemer TM, Jones TH, Knight KJ. Long term effects of elevated CO_2 and temperature on population of peach potato aphid *Myzus persicae* and its parasitoid *Aphidium matricariae*. Oecologia. 1999; 116:128-135.

- Bhardwaj ML. Effect of Climate Change on Vegetable Production in India in Vegetable Production under Changing Climate Scenario. Edts by Bhardwaj, M.L, Sharma, H.D., Kumar, M., Kumar, R., Kansal, S., Thakur, K. Singh, S.P., Kumari, D., Kumari, S., Gupta, M. and Sharma, V, 2012.
- Bjorn LO, Callaghan TV, Gehrke C, Johanson U, Sonesson M. Ozone depletion, ultraviolet radiation and plant life. Chemosphere: Global Change Science. 1999; 1:449-454.
- 13. Bot AJ, Nachtergaele FO, Young A. Land Resource Potential and Constraints at Regional and Country Levels; World Soil Resources Reports 90; Land and Water Development Division, FAO: Rome, Italy, 2000.
- Bray EA, Bailey-Serres J, Weretilnyk E. Responses to abiotic stresses. In: W. Gruissem, B. Buchannan, R. Jones (ed.). Biochemistry and molecular biology of plants, ASPP, Rockville, MD. 2000, 1158-1249.
- Caldwell MM, Bornman JF, Ballare CL, Flint SD, Kulandaivelu G. Terrestrial ecosystems, increased solar ultraviolet radiation, and interactions with other climate change factors. Photochemical & Photobiological Science. 2007; 6:252-266.
- 16. Caubel J, Launay M, Lannou C, Brisson N. Generic response functions to simulate climate-based processes in models for the development of airborne fungal crop pathogens. Ecological Modelling. 2012; 242:92-104.
- 17. Chakraborty S, Datta S. How will plant pathogens adapt to host plant resistance at elevated CO₂ under a changing climate? New Phytologist. 2003; 159:733-742.
- 18. Cheeseman J. Mechanisms of salinity tolerance in plants. Plant Physiology. 1988; 87:104-108.
- 19. Cutchis P. Stratospheric ozone depletion and solar ultraviolet radiation on earth. Science. 1974; 184:13-19.
- 20. Daniel C, Triboi E. Changes in wheat protein aggregation during grain development: Effects of temperature and water stress. European Journal of Agronomy. 2002; 16:1-12.
- 21. de la Pena R, Hughes J. Improving Vegetable Productivity in a Variable and Changing Climate. Journal of SAT Agricultural Research. 2007; 4:1-22.
- 22. Drew MC. Plant responses to anaerobic conditions in soil and solution culture. Curr Adv Plant Sci. 1979; 36:1-14.
- Erickson AN, Markhart AH. Flower developmental stage and organ sensitivity of bell pepper (*Capsicum annuum* L.) to elevated temperature. Plant, Cell and Environment. 2002; 25:123-130.
- 24. Esser G. Einflul 3 einer nach Schadstoffimission vermehrten Einstrahlung yon UV-B-Licht auf Kulturpflanzen, 2. Versuchsjahr. Bericht Batelle Institut e.V. Frankfurt, BF-R-63. 1980, 984-1.
- 25. Falloon PG, Greathead AS, Mullen RJ, Benson BL, RG Grogan. Individual and combined effects of flooding, phytophthora rot and metalaxyl on asparagus establishment. Plant Diseases. 1991; 75:514-518.
- 26. Fernandes JJ, Carvalho MG, Andrade EC, Brommonschenkel SH, Fontes EPB, Zerbini FM. Biological and molecular properties of Tomato rugose mosaic virus (ToRMV), a new tomato infecting begomovirus from Brazil. Plant Pathology. 2006; 55:513-522.
- 27. Fu Y, Shao L, Liu H, Li H, Zhao Z, Ye P *et al.* Unexpected decrease in yield and antioxidants in vegetable at very high CO₂ levels. Environmental Chemistry Letters. 2015; 13(4):473-479.

- Garrard LA, Van TK, West SH. Plant response to middle ulb:aviolet (UV-B) radiation: Carbohydrate levels and chloroplast reactions. Soil Crop Science Society of Florida Proceedings. 1976; 36:184-188.
- 29. Gautam HR, Bhardwaj ML, Kumar R. Climate change and its impact on plant diseases. Current Science. 2013; 105(12):1685-1691.
- Geng SM, Yan DH, Zhang TX, Weng BS, Zhang ZB, Qin TL. Effects of drought stress on agriculture soil. Natural Hazards. 2015; 1768(75):1997-2011.
- Global Climate Report-Annual. State of the Climate, National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI), 2016.
- Grevsen K, Olesen JE. Modelling cauliflower development from transplanting to curd initiation. Journal of Horticultural Science. 1994; 69:755-766.
- 33. Hanson P, Gniffke P A, Shieh J, Tan CW. Solanaceous vegetable breeding at AVRDC The World Vegetable Center to meet the challenges of climate change in the tropics. In Proceedings of the Workshop on Crop Breeding and Management of Agricultural Environment for Coping with Climate Change (Eds D.H. Wu, M.T. Lu, T.H. Tseng, Y.T. Wang & C.L. Hsiao). 2011, 163-172.
- 34. Harel D, Fadida H, Slepoy A, Gantz S, Shilo K. The effect of mean daily temperature and relative humidity on pollen, fruit set and yield of tomato grown in commercial protected cultivation. Agronomy. 2014; 4(1):167-177.
- 35. Hasnain S, Sheik KH. Effects of flooding and drainage on the growth of *Capsicum annuum*. Biologia. 1976; 22:89-106.
- 36. Hazra P, Samsul HA, Sikder D, Peter KV. Breeding tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill.) resistant to high temperature stress. International Journal of Plant Breeding. 2007; 1:1.
- Holder R, Cockshull KE. Effects of humidity on the growth and yield of glasshouse tomatoes. Journal of Horticultural Science. 1990; 65(1):31-39.
- Igwilo N, Udeh ACD. Effect of waterlogging yam vines on vegetative growth and tuber yield. Annals of Applied Biology. 1987; 110:391-398.
- IPCC (Intergovermental Panel on Climate Change). IPCC/OECD/IEA Programme on national greenhouse gas inventories. Intergovernmental panel on climate change, 1997.
- 40. Kimball BA, Idso SB. Increasing atmospheric CO₂: Effects on crop yield, water use and climate. Agriculture Water Management. 1983; 7:55-72.
- 41. Kuo CG, Tsay JS, Chen BW, PY Lin. Screening for flooding tolerance in the genus Lycopersicon. HortScience. 1982; 17:76-78.
- 42. Lal S, Bagdi D L, Kakralya B L, Jat ML, Sharma PC. Role of brassinolide in alleviating the adverse effect of drought stress on physiology, growth and yield of green gram (*Vigna radiata* L.) genotypes. Legume Research. 2013; 36:359-363.
- 43. Liu ZF, Fu BJ, Zheng XX. Plant biomass, soil water content and soil N:P ratio regulating soil microbial functional diversity in a temperate steppe: A regional scale study. Soil Biology and Biochemistry. 2010; 42:445-450.
- 44. Maggio A, De Pascale S, Angelino G, Ruggiero C, Barbieri G. Physiological response of tomato to saline irrigation in long term salinized soils. European Journal of Agronomy. 2004; 21:149-159.

- 45. Maksimovic I, Beliæ S, Putnik-Deliæ M, Gani I. The effect of sodium concentration in the irrigation water on pea yield and composition. Proceedings of ECO Conference, Novi Sad. 2008, 231-235.
- 46. Mcelrone AJ, Reid CD, Hoye KA, Hart E, Jackson RB. Elevated CO₂ reduces disease incidence and severity of a red maple fungal pathogen via changes in host physiology and leaf chemistry. Global Change Biology. 2005; 11:1828-1836.
- 47. McKee IF, Mulholland BJ, Craigon J, Black CR, Long SP. Elevated concentrations of atmospheric CO_2 protect against and compensate for O_3 damage to photosynthetic tissues of field-grown wheat. New Phytologist. 2000; 146:427-435.
- 48. Michaela A, Norbert K, George N. Effect of cold and UV-B stress on scavenging systems of *Phaseolus vulgaris* leaves poster. American society of plant biologist, 2000.
- 49. Mina U, Sinha P. Effects of climate change on plant pathogens. Enviro News. 2008; 14(4):6-10.
- 50. Munns R, Tester M. Mechanisms of salinity tolerance. Annual Review of Plant Biology. 2008; 59:651-681.
- 51. Musil CF. Accumulated effect of elevated ultraviolet-b radiation over multiple generations of the aridenvironment annual dimorph the sinuate DC (Asteraceae). Plant Cell & Environment. 1996; 19(9):1017-1027.
- 52. Newton AC, Johnson SN, Gregory PJ. Implications of climate change for diseases, crop yields and food security. Euphytica. 2011; 179:3-18.
- 53. NOAA National Centers for Environmental Information. State of the Climate: Global Analysis for Annual 2016 published online, 2016.
- 54. OGD Platform India. https://data.gov.in/. 2016.
- 55. Pandey RR, Sharma G, Tripathi SK, Singh AK. Litterfall, litter decomposition and nutrient dynamics in a subtropical natural oak forest and managed plantation in Northeastern India. Forest Ecology and Management. 2007; 240(1-3):96-104.
- 56. Pearson S, Hadley P, Wheldon AE. A model of the effects of temperature on the growth and development of cauliflower (*Brassica oleracea* L. *botrytis*). Scientia Horticulturae. 1994; 59:91-106.
- 57. Rajasekar M, Nandhini DU, Swaminathan V, Balakrishnan K. A review on role of macro nutrients on production and quality of vegetables. International Journal of Chemical Studies. 2017; 5(3):304-309.
- Robberecht R, Caldwell MM. Leaf epidermal transmittance of UV radiation and its implications for plant sensitivity to UV-radiation induced injury. Oeco. (Berl.). 1978; 32:277-287.
- 59. Satar S, Kersting U, Uygun N. Effect of temperature on development and fecundity of *Aphis gossypii* Glover (Homoptera: Aphididae) on cucumber. Journal of Pest Science. 2005; 78:133-137.
- 60. Sato S, Peet MM, Thomas JF. Determining critical preand post-anthesis periods and physiological processes in *Lycopersicon esculentum* Mill. Exposed to moderately elevated temperatures. Journal of Experimental Botany. 2002; 53(371):1187-1195.
- 61. Singh HCP, Rao NKS, Shivashankar KS. Climateresilient horticulture; adaptation and mitigation strategies. Springer, 2013.
- 62. Singh S, Bainsla NK. Analysis of Climate Change Impacts and their Mitigation Strategies on Vegetable

Sector in Tropical Islands of Andaman and Nicobar Islands, India. Journal of Horticulture. 2015; 2(1):126.

- 63. Sisson WB. Photosynthesis, growth and UV-irradiance absorbance of *Cucurbita pepo* L. leaves exposed to UV-B radiation (280-315 nm). Plant Physiology. 1981; 67:120-124.
- 64. Stevens MA, Rudich J. Genetic potential for overcoming physiological limitations on adaptability, yield and quality in the tomato. HortScience. 1978; 13:673-678.
- 65. Taiz L, Zeiger E. Plant Physiology, (4th Edn), Sinauer Associates, Massachusetts, 2006, 690.
- 66. Teramura AH, Tevini M, Iwanzik W. Effects of ultraviolet-B irradiation on plants during mild water stress. Effects on diurnal stomatal resistance. Physiologia Plantarum. 1983; 57:175-180.
- Tesfaendrias MT, McDonald MR. Long-term Yield of Horticultural Crops in Wisconsin in Relation to Seasonal Climate in Comparison with Southern Ontario, Canada. Hortscience. 2013; 48(7):863-869.
- Thompson PG, Smittle DA, Hall MR. Relationship of sweet potato yield and quality to amount of irrigation. HortScience. 1992; 27(1):23-26.
- Triguii M, Barringtoni SF, Gauthier L. Effects of humidity on tomato. Canadian Agricultural Engineering. 1999; 41(3):135-140.
- Tuab DR, Miller B, Allen H. Effects of elevated CO₂ on the protein concentration of food crops: A meta-analysis. Global Change Biology. 2008; 14:564- 575.
- 71. Tuomisto HL, Scheelbeek PFD, Chalabi Z, Green R, Smith RD, Haines, Andy Dangour AD. Effects of environmental change on agriculture, nutrition and health: A framework with a focus on fruits and vegetables. Wellcome Open Research. 2017; 2:21.
- 72. Vu CV, Allen LH, Gaward LH. Effects of enhanced UV-B radiation (280–320 nm) on ribulose-1.5-bisphosphate carboxylase in pea and soybean. Environmental and Experimental Botany. 1984; 24:131-144.
- Vu CV, Allen LH, Bowes G. Effect of light and elevated atmospheric CO₂ on the RuBPcase activity and RuBP levels of soybean leaves. Plant Physiology. 1983; 73:729-734.
- Warland J, McKeown A, McDonald MR. Impact of high air temperature on Brassicaceae crops in southern Ontario. Canadian Journal of Plant Science. 2006; 86:1209-1215.
- Wien HC, Turner AD, Yang SF. Hormonal basis for low light intensity-induced flower bud abscission of pepper. J Amer. Soc. Hort. Sci. 1989; 114:981-985.
- Wilkinson S, Mills G, Illidge R, Davies WJ. How is ozone pollution reducing our food supply? Journal of the American Society for Horticultural Science. 2012; 63:527-536.
- 77. Wurr DCE, Fellows JR. The influence of solar radiation and temperature on the head weight of crisp lettuce. Journal of Horticultural Science. 1991; 66:183-190.
- Wurr DCE, Fellows JR, Hambidge AJ. The potential impact of global warming on summer/autumn cauliflower growth in the UK. Agricultural and Forest Meteorology. 1995; 72:181-193.
- 79. Xu ZZ, Zhou GS. Combined effects of water stress and high temperature on photosynthesis, nitrogen metabolism and lipid peroxidation of perennial grass *Leymus chinensis*. Planta. 2006; 224:1080-1090.

International Journal of Chemical Studies

- 80. Yamaguchi T, Blumwald E. Developing salt-tolerant crop plants: challenges and opportunities. Trends in plant science. 2005; 10:615-620.
- 81. Yamamura K, Kiritani K. A simple method to estimate the potential increase in the number of generations under global warming in temperate zones. Applied Entomology and Zoology. 1998; 33:289-298.
- Yusuf RO. Coping with Environmentally Induced Change in Tomato Production in Rural Settlement of Zuru Local Government Area of Kebbi State. Environmental Issues. 2012; 5(1):47-54.