Using chlorophyll fluorescence to study the effect of sulfosulfuron and surfactants on little seed canary grass

Piyush Kumar, Dalveer Kaur¹, R.C. Srivastva² and S.K. Guru³

Department of Biochemistry, Physics¹, Plant Physiology² G.B. Pant University of Agriculture and Technology³, Pantnagar (Uttarakhand) E-mail: Piyushkalra22@rediffmail.com

ABSTRACT

Chlorophyll fluorescence has been used widely to detect the effect of herbicides in crops and weeds as it is a simple, sensitive and non-destructive method. Among the chlorophyll fluorescence parameters, maximum quantum efficiency, Fv/Fm, can be used to study the effects of herbicides as well as to monitor the development of herbicide resistance in weeds. In the present study, an attempt was made to assess the effectivity of sulfosulfuron, a sulfonylurea herbicide, in controlling *Phalaris minor*, a notorious weed of wheat crop in the Indo-Gangetic plains. Sulfosulfuron is very effective in controlling the isoproturon resistant population of *P. minor*. Differences in Fv/Fm values were observed among the control and treated plants within a week after treatment.

Key words: Chlorophyll fluorescence, Maximum quantum efficiency, Sulfosulfuron, Phalaris minor.

Screening for herbicide efficacy in the green house or in the field is usually a lengthy process. A wide range of analytical methods is available to detect phytochemical changes, such as chromatographic techniques coupled with various detectors (Bringmann et al. 1999). However, these methods are time-consuming owing to sample preparation, including extraction and filtration, are complicated to perform and require expensive apparatus. Several novel methods have been implemented in an attempt to shorten the evaluation time. If it was possible to apply a cost effective method shortly after exposure to herbicide, the cost of screening experiments would be reduced. One of the most frequently used method for monitoring the status of photosynthetic apparatus in plants involves measurement of in vivo chlorophyll fluorescence. This parameter is effective in providing a snapshot of the physiological status of the plant being exposed to various stress factors. It can also be used for the measurement of plant response to herbicides with various modes of actions including the PS-II inhibitors. It has potential to be used as a tool to indicate future death of grass species due to herbicide exposure by observing early-warning effects.

Wheat is one of the world's most extensively cultivated food crops. In India, wheat is the second key staple food after rice. Acclimatization of high yielding dwarf varieties of wheat has made a remarkable increase in wheat production, particularly in the Indo-Gangetic plains. However, these high yielding varieties are raised under resource rich environment they face a problem of severe competition from weeds. Among weed flora that infests the wheat crop, Phalaris minor (common name: little seed canary grass), is one of the most important noxious weed infesting wheat crop in north-western Indo-Gangetic plains of India. It has a fast initial growth and hence suppresses the growth of wheat crop to a greater extent. Isoproturon, a urea herbicide was effectively used to control P. minor for quite a long time till reports of resistance against herbicide were reported from Punjab and Haryana (Malik and Singh, 1995). Due to resistance, the control of Phalaris minor dropped from an impressive 78 % to a bleak 27% within a time span of 3 years (1990-93), causing yield loss to the tune of 40-60% in affected areas. The affected area ranges between 0.8 and 1.0 million hectares in N-W India, mostly contained in the states of Punjab (0.3 m ha) and Haryana (0.5-0.6 m ha). Sulfosulfuron, a sulfonylurea herbicide, has successfully been used by the farmers in affected areas to control the isproturon resistant P.Minor. This herbicide acts as an inhibitor of acetolactate synthase (ALS) or AHAS, inhibiting the biosynthesis of essential amino acids viz., valine, leucine, isoleucine and hence, stops cell division. After some period, reports of regeneration of P. minor in sulfosulfuron treated plots. There are reports of resistance to the particular herbicide in North Korea (Foes et al. 1999). In present investigation an effort has been made to develop a fast and rapid method for detection of the effect of sulfosulfuron, a sulfonylurea herbicide, on *Phalaris minor* and wheat.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The experiment was carried out at the crop research centre (CRC), Govind Ballabh Pant University of Agriculture, Pantnagar during the winter season of 2004-2005. Wheat variety 2382 was used in the experiment. Twelve treatments of the herbicide sulfosulfuron, consisting of three different doses viz., half (12.5 g/ha), normal (25 g/ha), and double dose of herbicide (50 g/ha) along with surfactants Safal or Active-80 at1250 ml/ha, were applied to the field 35 days after sowing (DAS). The experiment was laid out in a randomized block design (RBD) with three replications. The spraying was done manually with knapsack sprayer fitted with flat fan nozzle delivering 500 l/ha. Chlorophyll fluorescence yield from wheat and Phalaris minor leaves was measured at 0, 24, 48, 96h, and 15 days after herbicide application, using a portable chlorophyll fluorometer (Handy-PEA, Hansatech Instruments, King's Lynn, Norfolk, UK), which emits a light of 650 nm wavelength with an intensity of 3000 μ mol photons/m²s. The measurement was done on dark adapted leaves.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In *P. minor* leaves, F_v/F_m values recorded immediately after herbicide application were similar in both control and herbicide treated plants when used with surfactant 'Safal' (Table 1). Thereafter, at 24 and 48h, a significant decrease in F_v/F_m was observed (0.760 and 0.717, respectively) at higher dose of the herbicide (50 g/ha) as compared to the control plants (0.816). Beyond that, at 96 h and 15d F_v/F_m values were greatly reduced, at normal (25 g/ha) and double dose (50 g/ha) of the herbicide. The values, at 96h were 0.685, 0.650 and at 15d 0.665, 0.546 at normal and double dose of the herbicide, respectively, compared to 0.807 for control plants. In case of wheat plants, no significant changes in F_v/F_m values were observed in different treatments at different time intervals.

Table 1. Maximum quantum efficiency (F_{v}/F_{m}) of <i>Phataris minor</i> and wheat plants at different time intervals after application of sulfosulfuron with surfactant, Safal (S_{1}) .									
D		•	XX 71 4						

Doses of	Phalaris minor				Wheat					
sulfosulfuron	0h	24h	48h	96h	15d	0h	24h	48h	96h	15d
Control	0.826	0.816	0.798	0.807	0.791	0.826	0.771	0.811	0.821	0.802
Conrotl+S ₁	0.822	0.789	0.783	0.801	0.810	0.826	0.790	0.806	0.783	0.787
$12.5 + S_1$	0.815	0.786	0.777	0.760	0.671	0.820	0.773	0.790	0.787	0.796
25+S ₁	0.802	0.780	0.749	0.685	0.665	0.816	0.781	0.777	0.800	0.796
50+S ₁	0.809	0.760	0.717	0.650	0.546	0.821	0.783	0.783	0.798	0.790
LSD(P=0.05)	0.026	0.044	0.050	0.0220	0.0250	0.500	0.544	0.020	0.500	0.0140

h - hour

With the second surfactant i.e. Active-80, $F_{V}F_m$ values of *Phalaris minor* leaves did not differ significantly up to 48 h among all the treatments (Table 2). Thereafter, at 96 h and 15 days, significant decreases in $F_{V}F_m$ values (0.670-0.697 and 0.610-0.673, respectively) were observed at normal and double doses of the herbicide. In case of wheat plants, however, $F_{V}F_m$ values were similar in both control and treated plants at all stages of development.

According to the Bjorkman and Demming (1987), or Frachbout and Leipner (2003) if $F_V F_m$ values are in between 0.700-0.830, efficiency of PS-II is not affected. Because of its robustness, $F_V F_m$ has been widely used to quantify stress-induced perturbations in the photosynthetic apparatus, since a decrease in F_v/F_m may be caused by development of slowly quenching processes and damage to PS-II reaction centre, both of them reducing the maximum quantum efficiency of PS-II photochemistry. In the present study, reduction in F_v/F_m values in *P. minor* plants at 48h-15d after herbicide application indicates injury to the photosynthetic apparatus. There are evidences that many inhibitors of metabolic processes that are not directly involved in photosynthetic metabolism can modify fluorescence kinetics (Blowers 1989, Percival and Baker 1991). Kirkwood *et al.* 2000 also reported similar findings and found that glyphosphate caused large changes in F_v/F_m values after 1 day.

Doses of sulfosulfuron	Phalaris minor				Wheat					
sunosunuron	0h	24h	48h	96h	15d	0h	24h	48h	96h	15d
Control	0.826	0.816	0.798	0.807	0.791	0.826	0.771	0.811	0.821	0.802
Control+S ₂	0.810	0.812	0.782	0.792	0.785	0.795	0.767	0.805	0.812	0.795
12.5+ S ₂	0.794	0.809	0.780	0.743	0.722	0.810	0.777	0.783	0.796	0.779
25+S ₂	0.801	0.789	0.777	0.697	0.673	0.820	0.770	0.787	0.773	0.786
50+S ₂	0.806	0.775	0.767	0.670	0.610	0.830	0.765	0.796	0.789	0.790
LSD (P=0.05)	0.026	0.044	0.050	0.022	0.025	0.500	0.544	0.020	0.500	0.014

Table 2. Maximum quantum efficiency (F_v/F_m) of *Phalaris minor* and wheat plants at different time intervals after application of sulfosulfuron with surfactant, Active-80 (S₂).

h - hour

Dry matter production and per cent regeneration of P. minor plants treated with different doses of sulfosulfuron along with two surfactants is presented in Figure 1 and Figure 2, respectively. Weed dry matter was maximum $(556.68 \text{ and } 410 \text{ g/m}^2)$ in the control plots. It was reduced significantly when treated with different doses of sulfosulfuron. The dry matter of P. minor in sulfosulfuron treated plots ranged between 100-133.3 g/m² when used with the surfactant 'Safal' and between 190-113.3 g/m² when used with Active-80. However, there were no significant differences in weed dry matter among the different doses of sulfosulfuron. Figure 2 shows regeneration of P. minor plants at different doses of herbicide applied with both the surfactants. No regeneration was noticed when surfactant Safal was used. However, with the surfactant Active-80, 20-40% regeneration was noticed at half and normal dose of the herbicide, respectively.

Reduction in dry matter of *P. minor* was observed as a result of treatment with sulfosulfuron. This is in

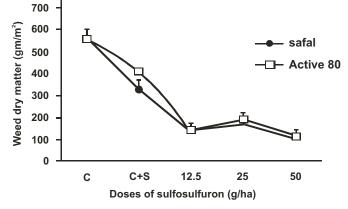


Fig. 1. Dry matter production of *P. minor* treated with different doses of sulfosulfuron along with surfactants, safal (S₁) and active-80 (S₂).

conformity with earlier reports that sulfosulfuron reduces the dry matter of weeds (Brar *et al.* 2002, Saha *et al.* 2003, Singh and Kundra 2003). The present study shows that surfactants play an important role in the effectiveness of herbicide on *P. minor* and different types of surfactants will try to affect its efficacy. In this case, the efficacy of herbicide applied along with sufactant, Safal (S₁) was seem to be higher than when surfactant, Active-80 (S₂) was used.

Regeneration of *P. minor* in sulfosulfuron treated plants has been reported in wheat crop. The present study again confirms that. As regeneration was low or totally absent at higher dose, it indicates that in future, the recommended dose of the herbicide may be increased.

On the basis of data presented in this study , measurement of maximum quantum efficiency (F_{v}/F_{m}) as early as between 48-96h of the herbicide application can be used to assess the effectively of sulfosulfuron as well as that of surfactants.

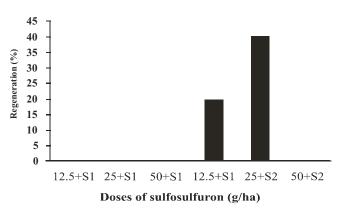


Fig. 2. Regeneration (%) of *P. minor* treated with different doses of sulfosulfuron along with surfactants, safal (S₁) and active-80 (S₂).

Using chlorophyll fluorescence to study the effect of sulfosulfuron and surfactants on little seed canary grass

REFERENCES

- Bjorkman O and Demming B. 1987. Photon yield of O_2 evolution and chlorophyll fluorescence characteristic at 77K among vascular plants of diverse origins. *Planta* **170** : 489-504
- Blowers MH. 1989. Application and chlorophyll fluorescence to study the penetration of herbicides into leaves. Ph.D. thesis, University of Essex, Colchester, U.K.
- Brar LS, Walia US and Gill BS. 2002. Performance at atlantis 3.6
 WDG (mesosulfuron + idosulfuron) for controlling *Phalaris* Retz. and other weed flora. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* 35 (1&2): 6-9.
- Bringmann G, Ruckert M, Messer K, Schupp O and Louis AM 1999. Acetogenic isoquinoline alkaloids. CXXI. Use of on-line high-performance liquid chromatography–nuclear magnetic resonance spectrometry coupling in phytochemical screening studies: rapid identification of metabolites in Dioncophyllum thollonii. *Journal of Chromatography* **837** : 267–272.
- Foes MJ, Liu LX, Vigue G, Stoller EW, Wax LM and Traner PJ. 1999. A Kochea (*Kochea scoparia*) biotype resistant to triazine and ALS inhibiting herbicide. *Weed Science* 47: 22-27.

- Frachbout Y and Leipner J. 2003. The application of chlorophyll fluorescence to study light, temperature and drought stress: In: *Practical applications of chlorophyll fluorescence in Plant Biology.* (eds.) JR DeEll, P.M.A., Toivonen. Kluwer Academic Publishers. Drodrecht. pp. 125-150.
- Kirkwood RC, Hetherington R, Reynolds TL and Marshal G. 2000.
 Absorption, localization, translocation and activity of glyphosphate in Barnyardgrass (*Echinochloa crusgalli* (L.) Beauv) influence of herbicide and surfactant concentration. *Pest Management Science* 56: 359-367
- Malik RK and Singh S. 1995. Little seed canary grass (Phalaris minor) resistance to isoproturon in India. Weed Technology 9:419-425
- Percival MP and Baker NR. 1991. Herbicides photosynthesis. In: Herbicides N.R. Baker and M.P. Percival Eds., . Elsvier Science Publishers. B.V. Amsterdam.
- Saha S, Yadurja NT and Kulshraastha G. 2003. Residue studies and efficacy of sulfosulfuron in wheat crop. *Pesticide Research* **15(2)** : 173-175.
- Singh K and Kundra HC. 2003. Bioefficacy of herbicide against isoproturan resistant biotypes of P. minor in wheat. *Indian Journal of Weed Science* **35** (1&2) : 15-17