

## INFLUENCE OF ADJUVANTS ON SPORE GERMINATION, DESICCATION TOLERANCE AND VIRULENCE OF *Fusarium anthophilum* ON BARNYARD GRASS (*Echinochloa crus-galli*)

Mansoor Montazeri<sup>1</sup>, Mojde Mojaradi<sup>1</sup>, and Hamid Rahimian-Mashhadi<sup>2,11</sup>

### ABSTRACT

Spores of *Fusarium anthophilum* isolate 16c, a pathogen of barnyard grass, were harvested from 10 day old semi-defined culture medium with a C:N ratio of 5:1 and suspended in pure white coconut oil, diethanolamine, PZ, RG<sup>22</sup> or volk, each at 0.2, 0.5, 1 or 2% Spore suspension in distilled water was considered as the control. Droplets (3- $\mu$ L) of spore suspensions were separately placed on semi-permeable membrane and stored at 25 °C with 15% RH for 0, 6, 12 or 38 days. At each interval, four replicated discs of each treatment were place on PDA for 8 h to evaluate germination rate and germ tube elongation. In glasshouse experiments, spores suspended in the above mentioned adjuvants were sprayed onto seedlings of barnyard grass to determine their influence on the virulence of the pathogen. For non-desiccated spores, the highest germination was achieved with coconut oil 2%. After 6-, 12- or 38-day desiccation period, the germination of spores suspended at each concentration of coconut oil or volk at 1% was significantly higher than those suspended in the other adjuvants or water. Germ tubes of non-desiccated spores which were suspended in each concentration of volk, 0.2 or 0.5% PZ, 0.5% diethanolamine or 0.5% coconut oil were significantly longer than other treatments. The enhancing effect of coconut oil 0.5% on germ tube elongation was more pronounced after 6, 12 and 38 day desiccation periods. All adjuvants used in this study significantly enhanced disease expression, compared with water, but the effect of coconut oil 1%, PZ 0.5% and RG 0.2% was higher than diethanolamine at 2% and volk at 1%.

**Keywords:** Biological control, *Echinochloa crus-galli* var. *praticola*, *Fusarium anthophilum*, adjuvants.

### INTRODUCTION

Biological control of weeds, which is believed to be safe to other organisms, is an alternative approach to control or reduce the population of undesirable weed species. There are two approaches to biological weed control using plant pathogens: a) the classical approach and b) the mycoherbicide approach (Templeton & Smith, 1977). In the classical approach, an alien pathogen is introduced into susceptible weed population and allowed to spread (Templeton & Smith, 1977). In the mycoherbicide approach, a pathogen is applied to target weeds using techniques and methodologies similar to those used with chemical herbicides (Charudattan, 1991). This approach is better suited to produce the rapid and high level of weed control. At the present, several mycoherbicides have been registered in USA and Canada (Daniel *et al.*, 1973; Mortensen, 1988; Ridings, 1986; Charudattan, 1991). Moreover, many researchers are investigating microbial herbicides for various weeds (Boyette *et al.*, 1993; Tsukamoto *et al.*, 1997; Cother *et al.*, 2000; Baily *et al.*, 2004). Among registered mycoherbicides, Collego (*Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f. sp. *aeschynomene*) is used for control of northern jointvetch in rice and soybean in several states in the USA (TeBeest, & Templeton, 1985).

Several fungal species have been reported as candidates for biological control of barnyard grass. *Exerohilum monoceras*, *E. rostratum*, *Curvularia lunata*, *C. aeria*, *Colletotrichum graminicola*, *Pyricularia grisea* and *Ustilago trichophora* (Tsukamoto *et al.*, 1997) have been shown to have some promise as microbial agents for biocontrol of barnyard grass. *E. monoceras* has been evaluated as a potential bioherbicide for the control of *Echinochloa* species (Zhang & Watson, 2000). In addition, the potential of *Cochliobolus lunatus*, which induces necrosis on barnyard grass resulting in death of young seedlings, has been reported as a biological control agent against this weed (Scheepens, 1987). However, no mycoherbicide has been registered for barnyard grass.

Since mycoherbicides can be influenced by environmental factors, a wide range of adjuvants can be used to minimize the undesirable effects of these factors (Prasad, 1993; 1994), and overcome weed defenses to achieve adequate control (Hoagland, 1996). Various adjuvants and amendments have been used either to improve or modify spore germination, pathogen stability and virulence, environmental requirements, or host preference, all of which greatly influence the bioherbicidal potential of a candidate microorganism (Boyette *et al.*, 1996). Bailey *et al.* (2004) evaluated the effect of several adjuvants on spore germination, appressorium formation and virulence of *Pleospora papaveracea*, a biocontrol agent of opium poppy. In their experiment, the inclusion of Tween 20 (1% v/v) plus pathogen ( $1 \times 10^6$  spores mL<sup>-1</sup>), greatly enhanced spore germination and disease incitement on opium poppy. The response of mycoherbicides to different adjuvants varies, with different concentration. Grant *et al.* (1990) evaluated the effects of 16 adjuvants on spore germination and production in *C. gloeosporioides* f.sp. *malva*. In their studies, many alcohol- and ether-based adjuvants inhibited spore germination.

An indigenous isolate of *Fusarium anthophilum* (A. Braun) Wollenweber obtained from Guilan, North of Iran, has been identified as a pathogen for microbial control of barnyard grass (Mojaradi *et al.*, 2006). Sporulation and spore germination of the pathogen grown in a semi-defined liquid medium with a constant carbon concentration of 4 gL<sup>-1</sup> and a C:N ratio of 5:1 were higher than in other nutritional regimes (Mojaradi *et al.*, 2006). The purpose of this investigation was evaluate the effects of some adjuvants on germination, germ-tube elongation and desiccation tolerance of spores and disease expression by the pathogen on barnyard grass.

## MATERIALS AND METHODS

### Spore Production

Based on previous investigation (Mojaradi *et al.*, 2006), a liquid semi-defined medium with a constant carbon concentration of 4 gL<sup>-1</sup> and a C:N ratio of 5:1 was used for spore production. The final pH of the medium was adjusted to 6 with 1-M HCl or 1- M NaOH before autoclaving. The contents of flasks were inoculated under sterile conditions with two 5-mm plugs of *F. anthophilum*, obtained from 7-day old culture on potato dextrose agar (PDA) medium. Flasks were placed on an orbital shaker (90 rpm) in room temperature (25±2 °C). The cultures were shaken by hand daily to remove fungal growth from the flask internal wall. After 10 days, the contents of flasks were mixed and filtered through 4 layers of muslin cloth to remove mycelia and culture debris. The spore suspension was used for further studies.

### Spore Germination and Desiccation Tolerance

Spore suspension in 21 tubes, each containing 15 ml of the suspension, was centrifuged at 6000 rpm for 4 minutes. The resulting pellet of each tube was separately suspended in pure white coconut oil (Sime Darby Edible Product Ltd., Jurong Town, Singapore), diethanolamine (Merk KGaA, Darmstadt, Germany), PZ (Pars Zangaran, Shahryar, Tehran, Iran), RG<sup>22</sup> (Pars Zangaran, Shahryar, Tehran, Iran) or volk (Giah, Karaj, Iran), each at 0.2, 0.5, 1 or 2%. Suspending the pellet in distilled water was considered as the control. The resulting suspensions were diluted to  $1 \times 10^6$  spore mL<sup>-1</sup> in appropriate solution, using a haemocytometer. Droplets (3-µL) of each suspension were put separately onto autoclaved 6-mm discs of semipermeable membrane (Visking Dialysis Membrane, Medicell International Ltd, London, UK) and air dried for 30 minutes at ambient laboratory temperature (22±2 °C) and 45±2 % relative humidity. The dried discs were stored for 0 (no storage), 6, 12 or 38 days at 25 °C in polycarbonate boxes (17×11×4 cm) containing 100 g CaCl<sub>2</sub>.H<sub>2</sub>O (BDH Laboratory Supplies Poole, UK ) to obtain 15% relative humidity (Montazeri & Greaves, 2002). The humidity was monitored throughout the storage period using a hygrometer (Rotronic Ag, Basserdorf, Swizerland) inserted through a narrow pipe sitting in the end of the box. The experiment was arranged as completely randomized design with four replications.

At each interval of storage, four discs were taken from each treatment and placed on PDA in Petri dishes at 20 °C for 8 h, with the spores on the upper surface. Then, 5-µL droplet of aniline blue/lactophenol [0.1 g aniline blue (Riedel-de-Hean, Seelze, Germany) plus 67 mL lactophenol (BDH laboratory supplies, Poole, UK) + 20 ml distilled water] was put on each disc to stain the spores and stop their growth. The number of germinated spores and length of germ-tube present in a sample of randomly selected spores was determined. Germination and germ-tube elongation were determined microscopically for about 40 spores on each disc. The experiment was conducted twice and the means of data (obtained from both experiments) were subjected to analysis of variance.

## Virulence Assay

Seeds of barnyard grass were placed on moistened filter paper in Petri dishes and incubated at 25 °C for 7 days in a germinator in continuous darkness to induce seed germination. Germinated seeds were transplanted in 20 cm plastic pots (5 seedlings per pot) containing a clay loam:peat:sand mixture (6:4:2) and placed on a glasshouse bench. Temperature in the glasshouse was 23±3 °C with 60±3% relative humidity (RH) with 16 h day length. Plants were irrigated once a day.

The spores of *F. anthophilum* were suspended in RG<sup>22</sup>, PZ, pure white coconut oil, volk, diethanolamine (respectively at 0.2%, 0.5%, 1%, 1%, and 2%) or distilled water to achieve a concentration of 1×10<sup>6</sup> spore mL<sup>-1</sup>. Each resulting suspension was sprayed on four replicated pots, each containing five seedlings of barnyard grass at 4-5 leaf stage, using a laboratory aerosol sprayer (Airbrush, Humbrol Ltd., Hull, UK) delivering an application volume of 10 mL per pot from a distance of 30 cm from the target. Untreated pots were considered as control. The pots were kept for 24 h in a white plastic box in which the relative humidity was over 90%. The seven treatments were replicated four times in a completely randomized design.

To assess the effect of treatments on disease severity, the seedlings of each pot were removed 10 days after treatment and were dried in an oven at 75 °C for 72 h after washing their roots. The dried seedlings of each pot were weighed.

## Analysis of Variance

In both experiments, the data obtained at each storage period were subjected to analysis of variance using SAS<sup>™</sup> (SAS Institute Inc., 1989). The treatment means were compared with Duncan's Multiple Range Tests.

## RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

There were significant variations in germination and germ tube elongation of spores treated with different adjuvants. For the non-stored spores, coconut oil at 2% enhanced their germination significantly than the control and other adjuvants (Fig. 1 A). Germination of the non-stored spores treated with coconut oil at 0.2, 0.5 and 1% and volk at 1%, was also higher than the control (Fig. 1 A). After 6 and 12 days desiccation period (when spores were placed on PDA medium for 8 hours) the effect of coconut oil at all concentrations and volk 1% in enhancing spore germination was significantly more than the other treatments (Fig. 1 B & C). At this interval, the influence of coconut oil at all concentrations was significantly higher than other adjuvants (Fig. 1 D).

For non-stored spores, volk at all concentration, PZ at 0.2 or 0.5%, diethanolamine at 2% and coconut oil at 2% had significant effect, compared with control, on germ tube elongation (Fig. 2 A). After 6 to 38 days desiccation period, the effect of coconut oil 0.5% on germ tube elongation was significantly higher than the other treatments (Fig. 2 B-D). In addition to this treatment, the effect of coconut oil 1 or 2 %, PZ 0.2% and volk 1% on germ tube elongation of stored spores was significant (Fig. 2 B-D).

The dry weight of barnyard grass seedlings treated with spores suspended in each adjuvant was significantly lower than those of suspended in water and the control (untreated with spore suspension) (Fig. 3). Among the adjuvants, the dry weight of seedlings inoculated with spore suspensions which contained 2% RG<sup>22</sup>, 1% coconut oil or 0.5% PZ was significantly lower than those treated with spore suspensions containing 2% diethanolamine or 1% volk (Fig. 3).

The simplest mycoherbicide delivery system uses water to carry the fungus. However, most weeds are covered with a wax cuticle that prevents a water-based product from spreading evenly, which can result in unequal distribution of microbial agent (McWhorter *et al.*, 1988). Adjuvants help to wet the plants and aid in dispersing the fungal spores throughout the spray mix (Boyette *et al.*, 1996). But, the spore germination of fungi may be affected by adjuvants (Bailey *et al.*, 2004; Boyette *et al.*, 1996). The reaction of various fungal pathogens to different adjuvants varies with different concentration. In the current investigation, coconut oil at all at concentrations and volk 1% significantly enhanced spore germination of non-stored spores. The effect of adjuvants on spore germination after a desiccation period is important, because mycoherbicides must retain their viability and virulence under desiccation condition in storage and delivery system. The results of this study indicated that the effect of coconut oil, especially at 0.5%,



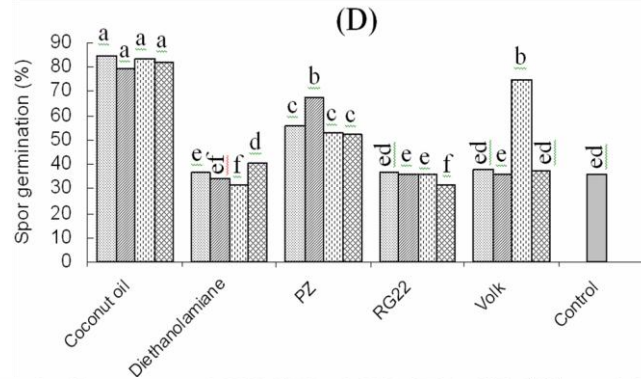
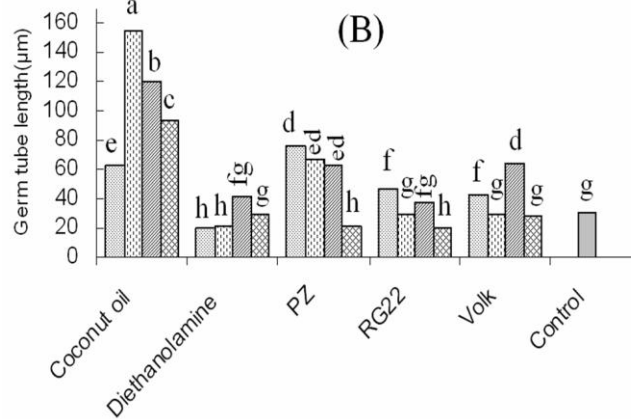
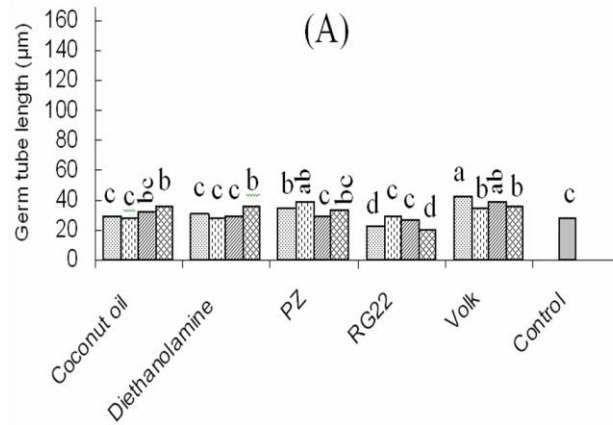


Fig. 1. The effect of adjuvants at 0.2% (▨), 0.5% (▩), 1% (▧) and 2% (▦), compared with control (□), on spore germination of *Fusarium anthophilum* isolate 16c after 0 (A), 6 (B), 12 (C) or 38 (D) days incubating at 20 °C with 15% relative humidity. At each interval, spores were placed on PDA medium for 8 h to stimulate germination. Columns with the same letter have no significant differences at  $p=0.05$ .



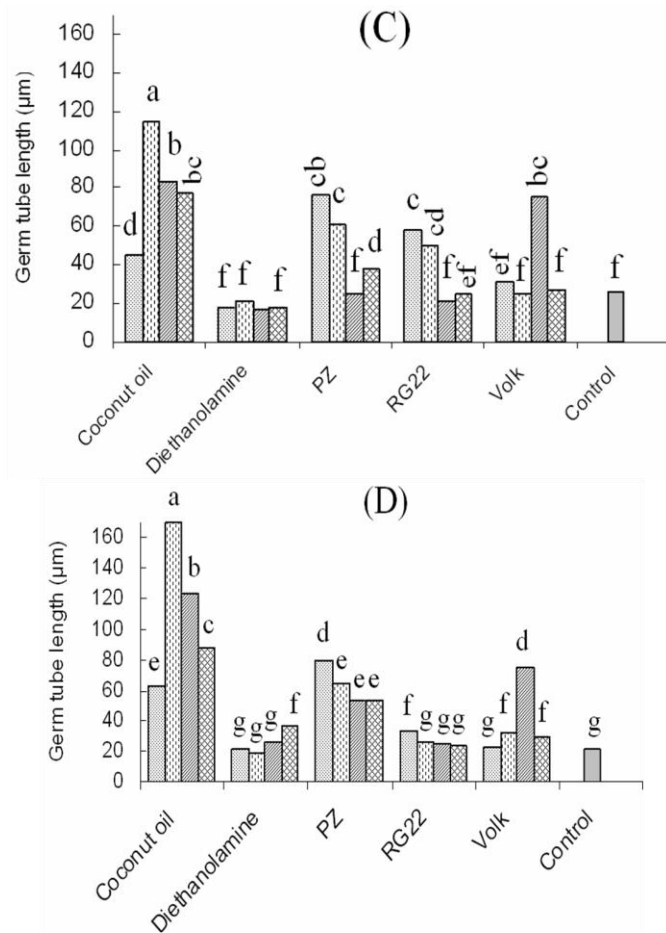


Fig. 2. The effect of adjuvants at 0.2% (▨), 0.5% (▩), 1% (▧) and 2% (▦), compared with control (▭), on spore germ tube elongation of *Fusarium anthiphilum* isolate 16c after 0 (A), 6 (B), 12 (C) or 38 (D) days incubating at 20°C with 15% relative humidity. At each interval, spores were placed on PDA for 8 h to stimulate germination. Column with the same letter have no significant differences at p=0.05.

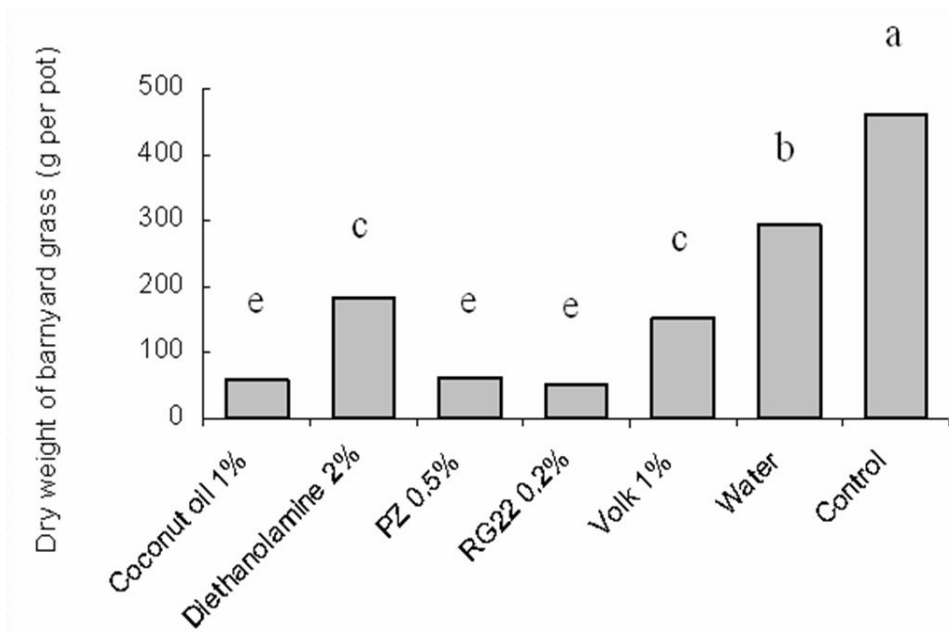


Fig. 3. Dry weight of barnyard grass seedlings 10 days after inoculations with spores suspended in the adjuvants, compared with the control (non-inoculated seedlings). Columns with the same letter have no significant differences at  $p=0.05$ .

## REFERENCES CITED

- Baily, B.A, N.R. O'Neill, and J D Anderson. 2004. Influence of adjuvants on disease development by *Pleospora papaveracea* on opium poppy (*Papaver somniferum*). *Weed Sci.* 52: 424-432.
- Boyette, C.D., H.K. Abbas, and W.J. Connick(.Jr.). 1993. Evaluation of *Fusarium oxysparumas* a potential bioherbicide for sicklepod (*Cassia obtusifolia*), coffee senna (*C. occidentalis*), and hemp sesbania (*Sesbania exaltata*). *Weed Sci.* 41: 678-681.
- Boyette, C.D., P.C Quimby (.Jr.), A.J.Caesar, J.L. Birdsall, W.J.Connick (Jr.), D.J.Daigle, M.A.Jackson, G.H. Egley, and H. K. Abbas. 1996. Adjuvants, formulations, and spraying systems for improvement of mycoherbicides. *Weed Technol.* 10: 637-644.
- Charudattan, R. 1991. The mycoherbicide approach with plant pathogens. In D.O. TeBeest (ed.). *Microbial Control of Weeds*, Chapman Hall, New York, pp. 24-57.
- Cother, E.J., F.G. Jahromi, and G.J.Ash. 2000. Control of Alismataceae weeds in rice using the mycoherbistat fungus *Rhynchosporium alismatis*. In N.R Spencer (ed.). *Proc. Xth International Symposium on Biological Control of Weeds*, 4-14 July 1999, Boznan, Montana, USA, pp. 422-423.
- Daniel, J.T., G.E.Templeton, R.J.Smith (Jr.) and W.T.Fox. 1973. Biological control of northern joinvetch in rice with an endemic fungal disease. *Weed Sci.* 21: 303-307.
- Grant, N.T., E.Prusinkiewicz, R.M.D.Makowski, B.Holmstrom-Ruddick, and K. Mortensen. 1990. Effect of selected pesticides on survival of *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f.sp.*malva*, a bioherbicide for round-leaved mallow (*Malva pusilla*). *Weed Technol.* 4: 701-715.
- Hoagland, R.E. 1996. Chemical interactions with bioherbicides to improve efficacy. *Weed Technol.* 10: 651-674.
- McWhorter, C.G., F.E.Fulgham and W.L.Barrentine 1988. An air-assist spray nozzle for applying herbicides in ultra low volume. *Weed Sci.* 36: 118-121.

- Mojaradi, M., Montazeri, M. and Rahimian, H. 2006. Study on the biological characteristics of *Fusarium anthophilum* isolated from barnyard grass (*Echinochloa crus-galli*). Proc. First Iranian Weed Science Congress, 25-26 January 2006, Plant Pest & Disease Research Institute, Tehran, Iran. pp. 625-628.
- Montazeri, M. and M.P. Greaves. 2002. Effects of culture age, washing and storage conditions on desiccation tolerance of *Colletotrichum truncatum* conidia. Biocontr. Sci. & Technol. 12: 95-105.
- Mortensen, K. 1988. The potential of an endemic fungus, *Colletotrichum gloeosporioides* f.sp.*malvae*, for biological control of round-leaved mallow (*Malva pusilla*) and velvetleaf (*Abutilon theophrasti*). Weed Sci. 36: 473-478.
- Prasad, R. 1993. Role of adjuvants in modifying the efficacy of a bioherbicide on forest species: compatibility studies under laboratory conditions. Pestic. Sci. 38: 273-275.
- Prasad, R. 1994. Influence of several pesticides and adjuvants on *Chondrostereum purpureum*- a bioherbicide agent for control of forest weeds. Weed Technol. 8: 445-449.
- Ridings, W.H. 1986. Biological control of stragglevine in citrus - a researcher's view. Weed Sci.34 (Suppl. 1): 31-32.
- Scheepens, P.C. 1987. Joint action of *Cochliobolus lunatus* and atrazine on *Echinochloa crus-galli* (L.) Beauv. Weed Res. 27: 43-47.
- TeBeest, D.O. and G.E. Templeton. 1985. Mycoherbicides: progress in the biological control of weeds. Plant Sci. 69: 6-10.
- Templeton, G. E. and R.J. Smith (Jr.). 1977. Managing weeds with pathogens. In. J.G. Horsfall and E.G. Cowling (eds.). Plant Disease: an Advanced Treatise, Academic Pres, New York. pp. 167-176
- Tsukamoto, H., M. Gohbara, M. Tsuda, and T. Fujimori. 1997. Evaluation of fungal pathogens as biological control agents for the paddy weed, *Echinochloa* species by drop inoculation. Ann. Phytopath. Soc. of Japan 63: 366-372.
- Van Dyke, C.G. and R.S.Winder. 1985. *Bipolaris sorghicola*: a potential mycoherbicide for Johnsongrass. Proc. Southern Weed Sci. Soc. 38: 373.
- Walker, H.L. and J.A.Riley. 1982. Evaluation of *Alternaria cassiae* for the biocontrol of sicklepod (*Cassia obtusifolia*). Weed Sci. 30: 651-654.
- Winder, R.S. and C.G. Van Dyke. 1990. The pathogenicity, virulence, and biological potential of two *Bipolaris* species on Johnsongrass (*Sorghum halipense*). Weed Sci. 38: 89-94.
- Zhang, W. and A. K. Watson. 2000. Isolation and partial characteristics of phytotoxins produced by *Exerohilum monoceras*, a potential bioherbicide for control of *Echinochloa* species. In N.R Spencer (ed.). Proc. Xth International Symp. on Biological Control of Weeds, 4-14 July 1999, Montana State University, Bozeman, Montana, USA. pp. 125-130.

<sup>1</sup>. Department of Weed Research, Plant, Pest and Disease Research Institute, P.Box 1454, Tehran 19395, Iran.

<sup>2</sup>. Department of Agronomy, Faculty of Agriculture, University of Tehran, Tehran, Iran.