

Learning From Adaptation Mechanisms of “Superweeds”

-- the Key to Improving Weed Management
and Increasing Crop Productivity
in the 21st Century

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SEARCA Professorial Chair Lecture
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Annual cost (\$) of crop pests (Klingman, 1975)

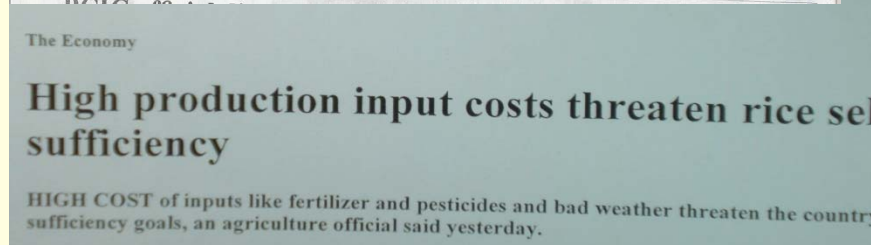
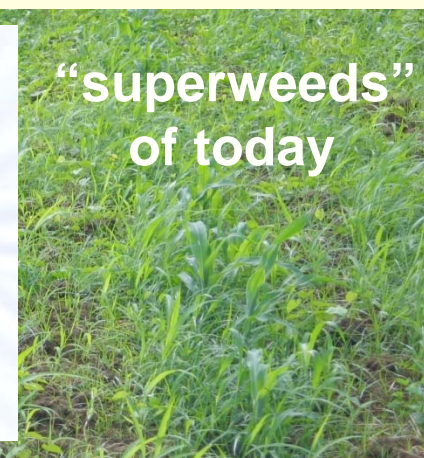
Pest	Losses	Control	Total	% of total
Diseases	3,152,815	115,000	3,267,815	27
Insects	2,965,344	425,000	3,390,344	28
Nematodes	327,335	16,000	388,335	3
Weeds	2,459,630	2,551,050	5,010,680	42



Onion – 3 handweedings/season
180 man-days; P50,000/ha/season
(Baltazar, et al, 2001)



TPR – 100-200 man-hrs/season
DSR – 300-400 man-hrs/season
(De Datta and Moody, 1982)



Single season, direct-removal approaches –
herbicides, handweeding, interrow cultivation
“Putting out the same fire every cropping season”
Tedious, expensive, increase production costs
Major weeds of yesterday are “superweeds” of today
Need for innovative approaches to reduce direct removal inputs
To be able to do this, need deeper understanding of
“weediness” and weed survival and adaptation mechanisms



Topic outline

- Weediness: Ability to adapt, resist control, and multiply:
Why major weeds of yesterday are still “superweeds” of today
- A tale of two “superweeds” – adaptation mechanisms
Barnyardgrass: flood tolerance, resistance to herbicides
Purple nutsedge: flood tolerance, lowland ecotype evolved
- We can learn from weeds
 - Crop improvement and productivity
Ability to adapt: Weed genetic diversity vs crop uniformity
 - Weed management with less herbicides or handweeding
“Weed-resistant” (competitive) crops
“Harmless” or self-destructive weeds
- “Weed resistance” and high-yielding traits in a single cultivar:
is it possible?

World's worst weeds in 1977 and 24 years later (2001)

Species	Country	Crop	Species	CABI citation
<i>C. rotundus</i>	92	52	<i>C. dactylon</i> (2)	5000
<i>C. dactylon</i>	80	40	<i>E. crusgalli</i> (4)	3000
<i>I. cylindrica</i>	75	35	<i>S. halepense</i> (7)	2000
<i>E. crusgalli</i>	61	36	<i>C. rotundus</i> (1)	2000
<i>E. colona</i>	60	35	<i>D. ciliaris</i> (21)	1500
<i>E. indica</i>	60	36	<i>I. cylindrica</i> (3)	1000
<i>S. halepense</i>	53	30	<i>E. indica</i> (6)	1000
<i>A. spinosus</i>	54	28	<i>E. colona</i> (5)	1000
<i>A. conyzoides</i>	46	36	<i>R. cochinchinensis</i> (17)	500
<i>D. aegyptium</i>	45	19	<i>C. difformis</i> (10)	300
<i>B. pilosa</i>	40	31	<i>C. iria</i> (19)	300
<i>E. prostrata</i>	35	22	<i>P. conjugatum</i> (16)	200
<i>R. cochinchinensis</i>	28	18	<i>A. spinosus</i> (8)	200

Holm, Plucknett, Herberger and Pancho, 1977; Terry, 2001

A tale of two weeds: survival and adaptation mechanisms



Purple nutsedge
(mutha, barsanga)
Cyperus rotundus

infests 52 crops
in 92 countries
one plant can produce
3 to 7 million tubers/ha

“Superweeds”
weeds with widespread
global distribution,
which are difficult to
control with conventional
means



Barnyardgrass (bayokibok, television,
antenna) *Echinochloa crusgalli*
infests 36 crops in 61 countries
one plant can produce 40,000 seeds

In the beginning, there was no barnyardgrass or purple nutsedge

Weeds in lowland rice in Muda area, Malaysia

TPR (1979)

DSR (1987)

WSR (1989)

M. vaginalis (b)

L. hyssopifolia (b)

F. miliacea (s)

C. difformis (s)

L. flava (b)

E. crusgalli (g)

E. colona (g)

L. chinensis (g)

S. grossus (s)

F. miliacea (s)

E. crusgalli (g)

L. chinensis (g)

F. miliacea (s)

M. crenata (b)

M. vaginalis (b)

Weeds in lowland rice in Central Luzon, Philippines

TPR (1960)

DSR (1986)

DSR (2005)

M. vaginalis (b) (94%)

S. zeylanica (b)

L. octovalvis (b)

C. iria (s)

E. crusgalli (g) (1%)

E. glabrescens (g)

E. crusgalli (g)

F. miliacea (s)

P. distichum (g)

M. vaginalis (b)

C. rotundus (s)

E. crusgalli (g)

S. zeylanica (b)

I. rugosum (g)

P. distichum (g)

How did barnyardgrass replace broadleaves as major weed in rice?



Before 1970s

Transplanted rice

5-10 cm water

Dominant weeds:
aquatic broadleaves
and sedges

After 1970s

Direct-seeded rice:

Saturated soil

enhances
germination of
both rice and
grasses

Dominant weeds
shifted from
broadleaves
to grasses



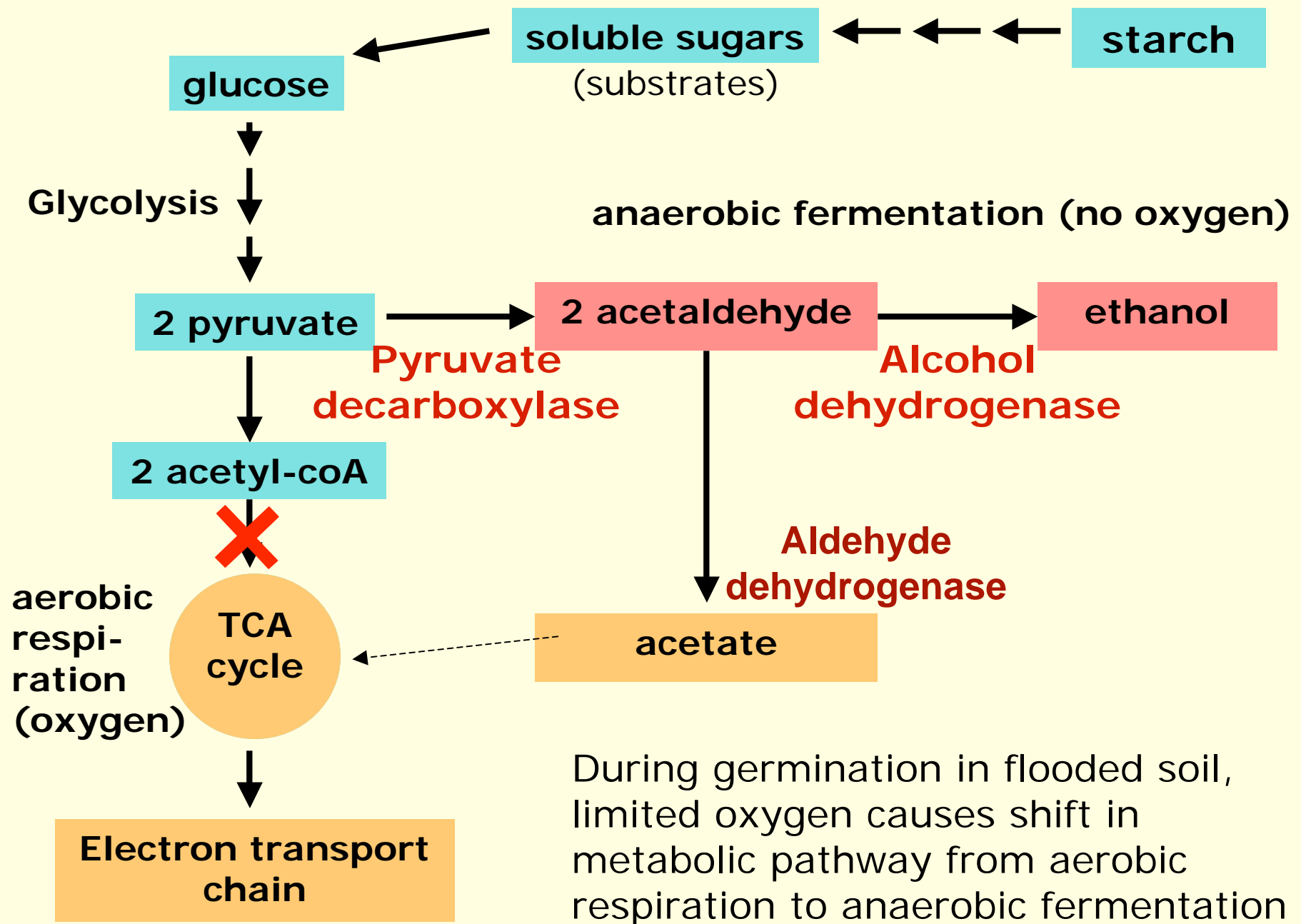
Why does barnyardgrass thrive in flooded soil?

- We conducted studies to determine flood response mechanisms in rice and barnyardgrass
- We compared **carbohydrate metabolism** and **anaerobic fermentation** in germinating rice and barnyardgrass

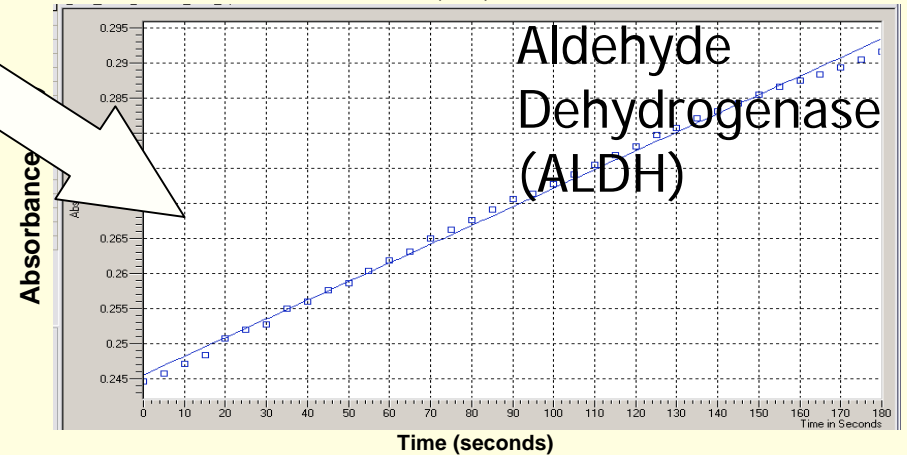
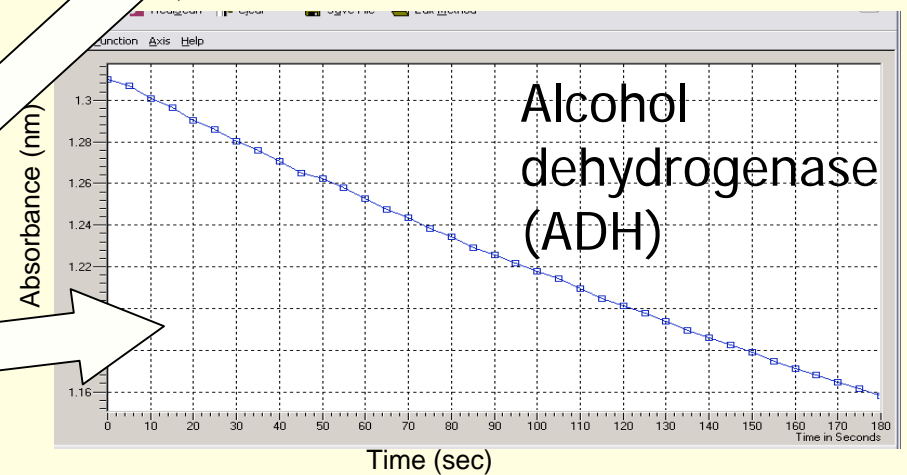
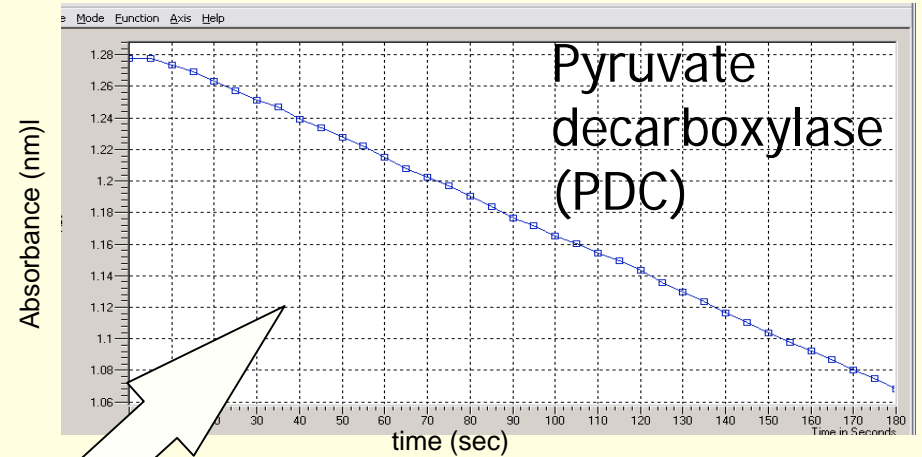
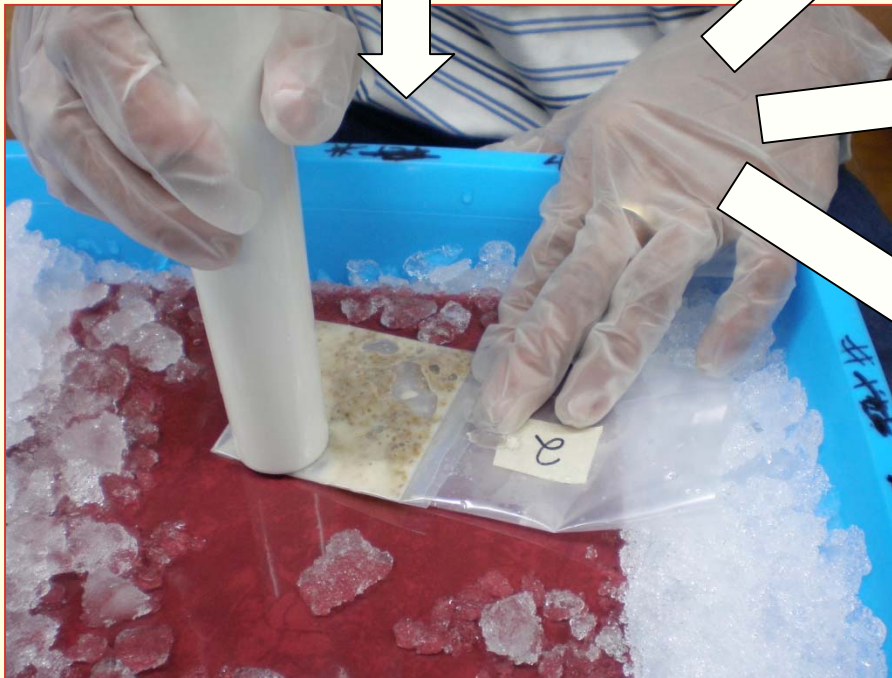
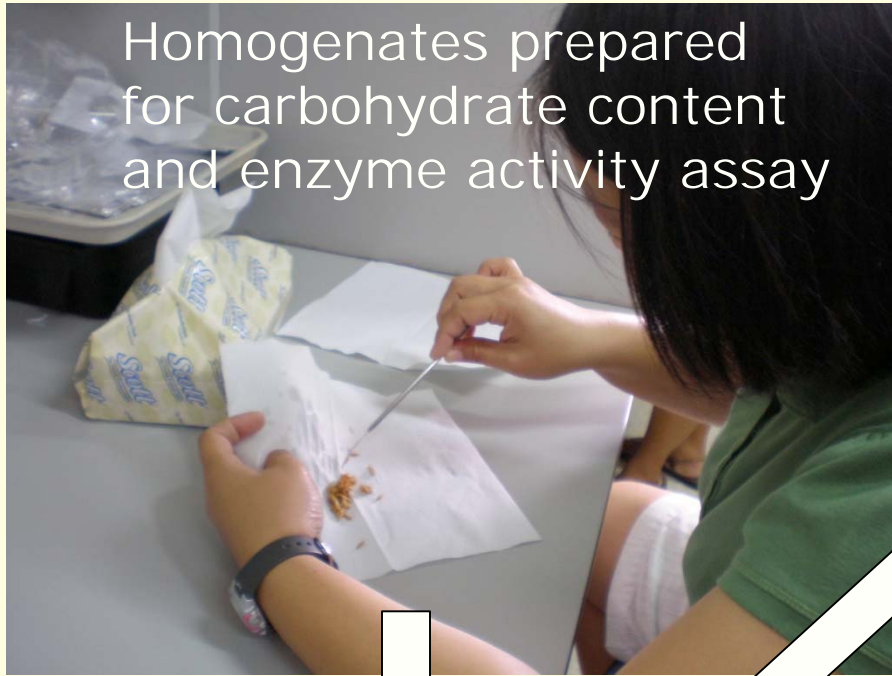


**Germinated in 5,
10, 20, 100 mm
water applied at
0, 2, and 4 DAS**

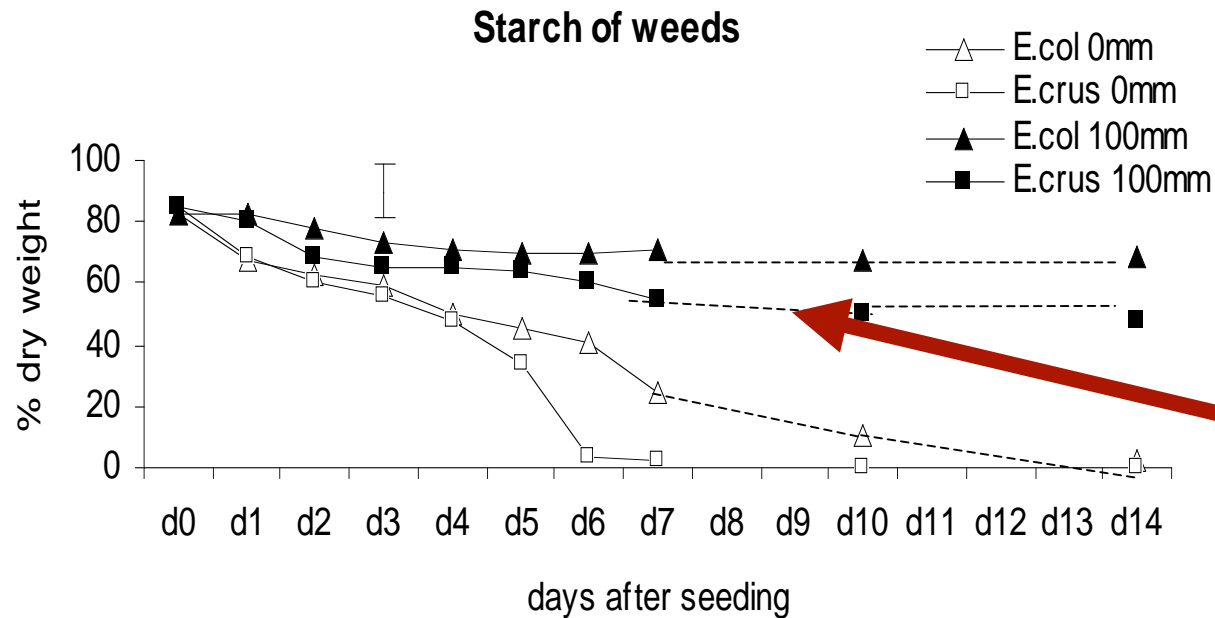
**3 to 4 day-old
seedlings were
grown in
100mm**



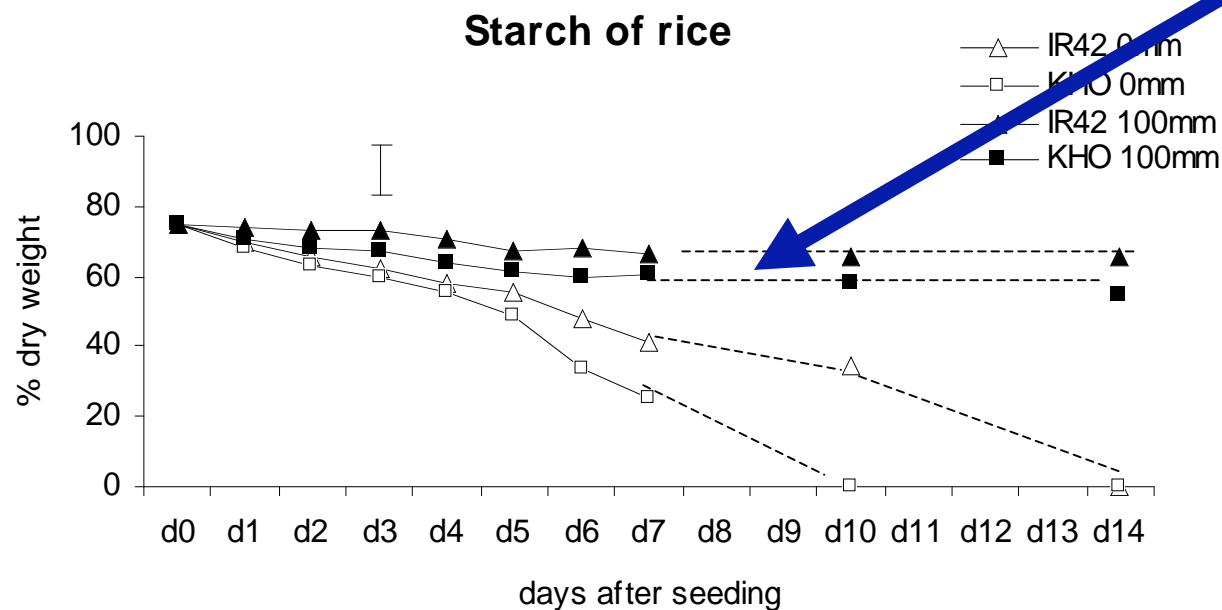
Homogenates prepared for carbohydrate content and enzyme activity assay



carbohydrate metabolism

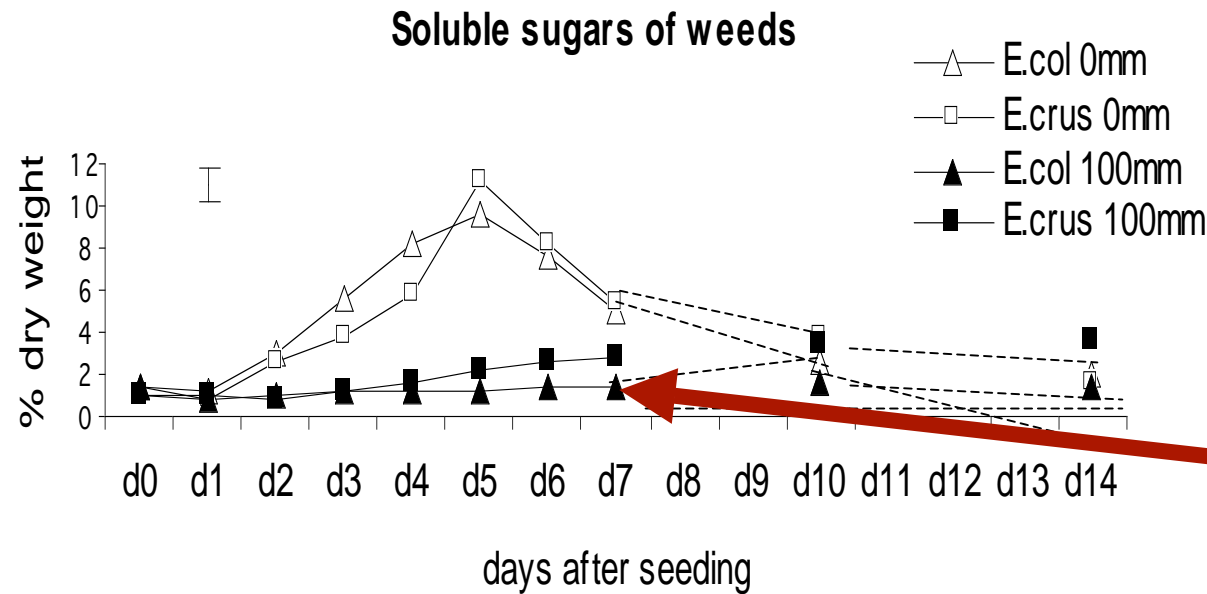


Decreased ability of barnyardgrass and rice to degrade starch when flooded

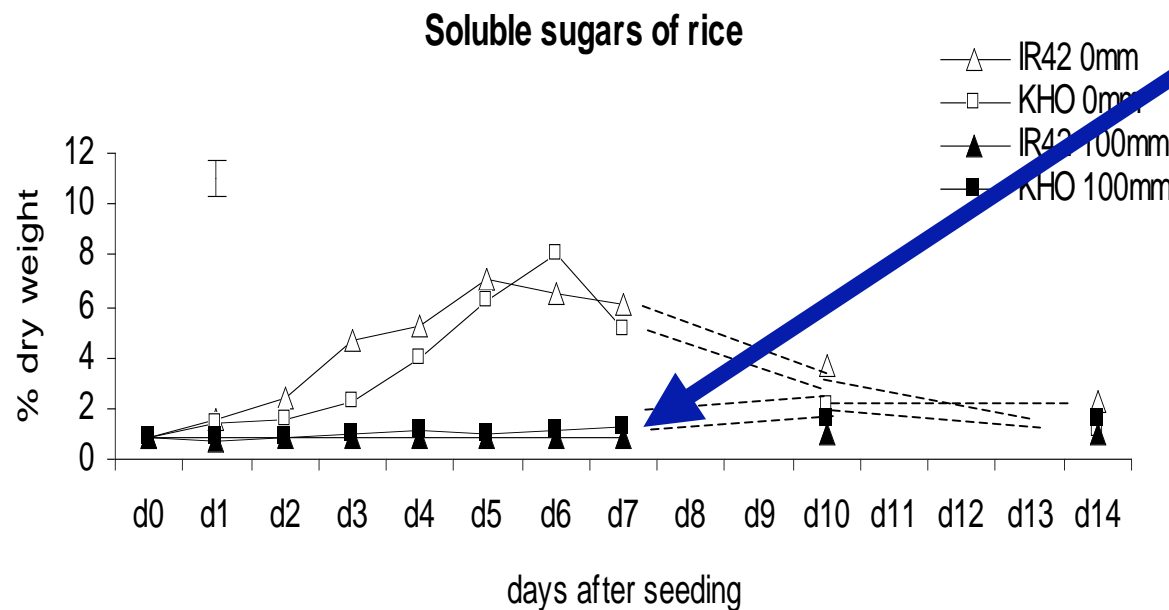


Starch degraded to soluble sugars for anaerobic respiration

carbohydrate metabolism



Decreased ability of barnyardgrass and rice to produce soluble sugars when flooded



Sugars are used as substrates in anaerobic fermentation

anaerobic fermentation

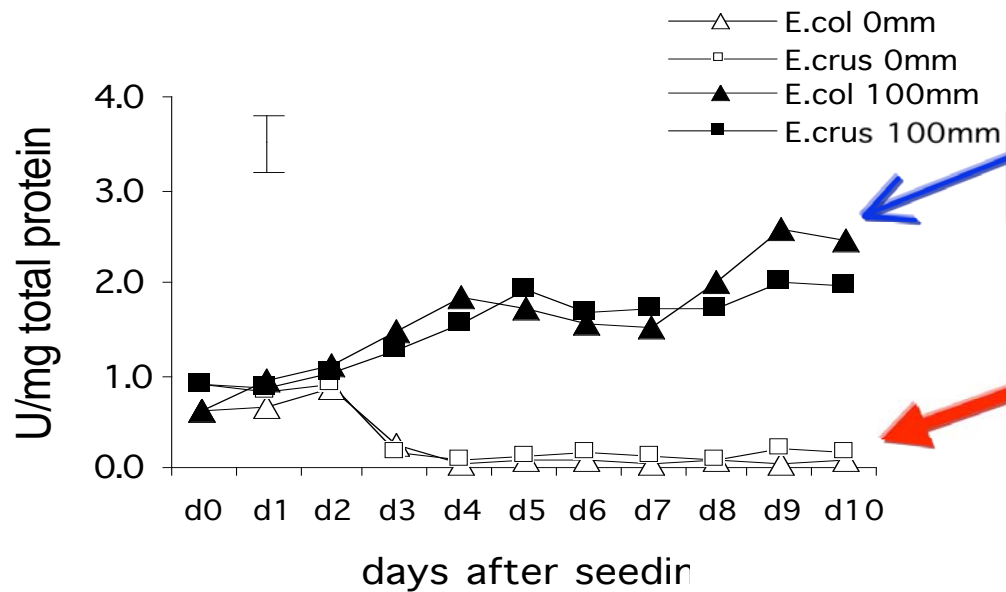
Barnyardgrass (flooded)
PDC and ADH increased
in anaerobic fermentation

Barnyardgrass (aerobic)
PDC and ADH shut down
No anaerobic fermentation

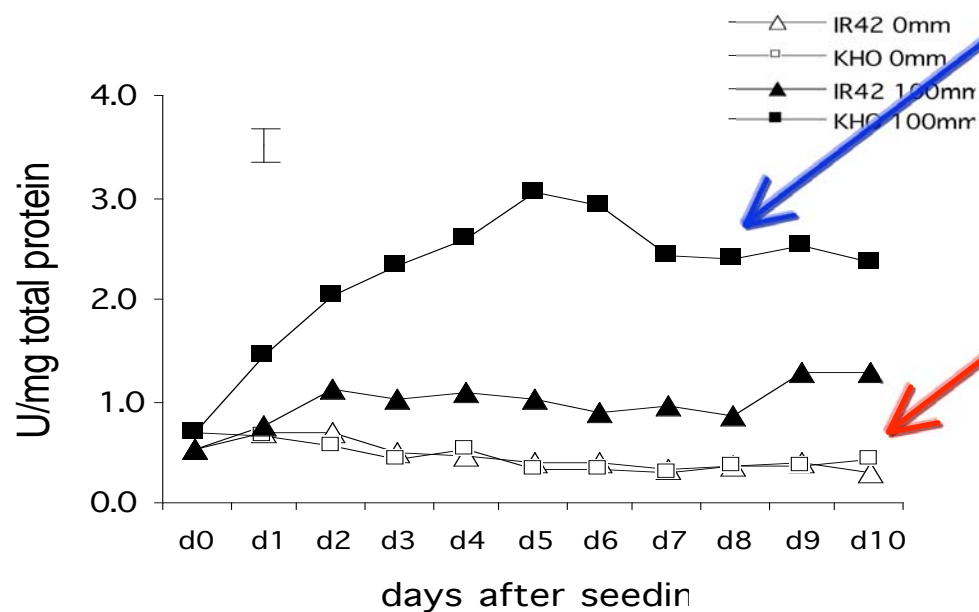
Rice (flooded)
PDC and ADH increased
in anaerobic fermentation

Rice (aerobic)
PDC and ADH still active
both aerobic and anaerobic
processes taking place at
the same time

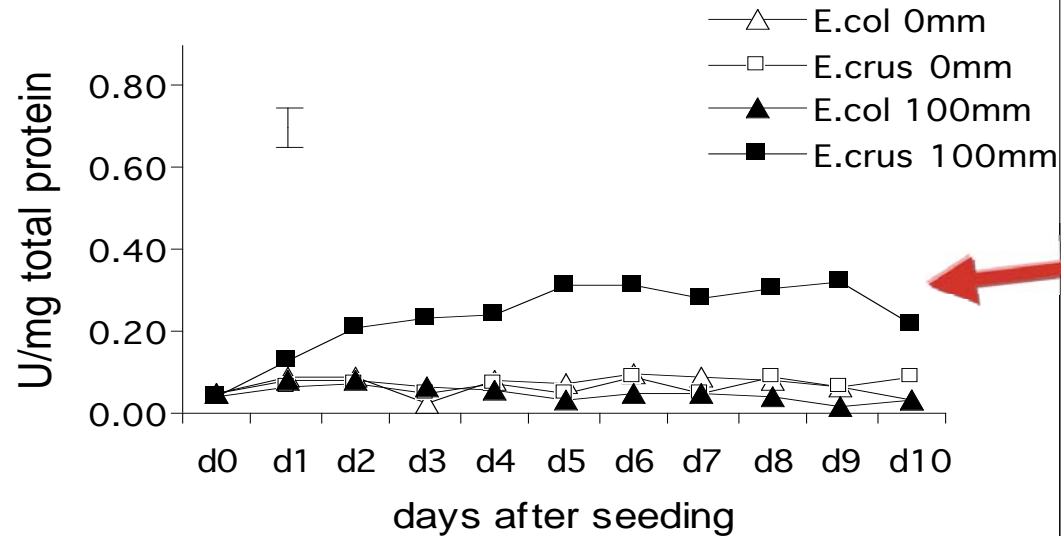
PDC of weeds



PDC of rice



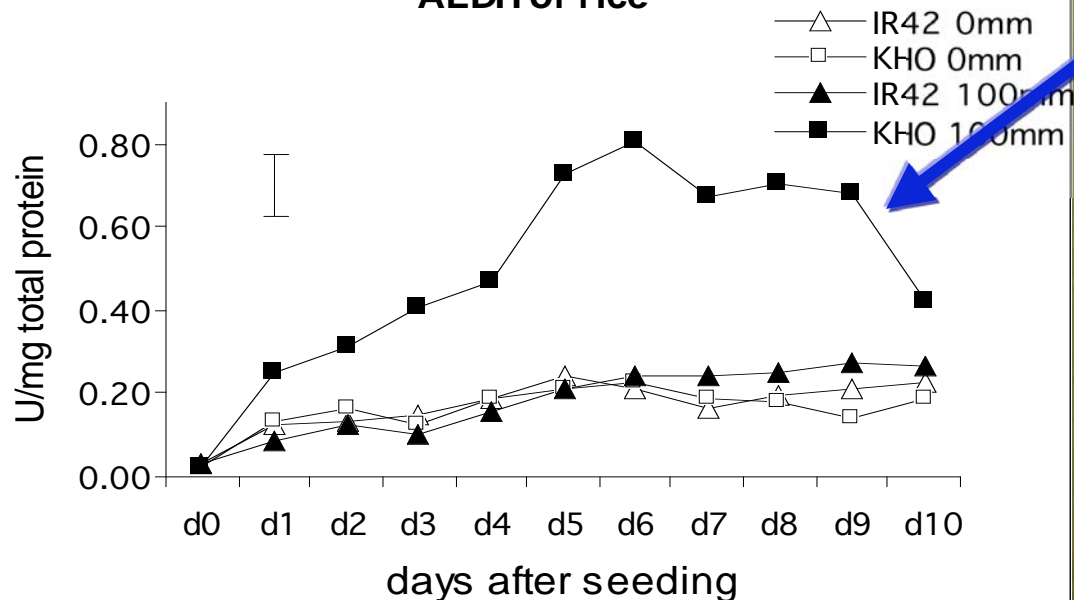
ALDH of weeds



aldehyde
dehydrogenase

ALDH activity in *E.crus-galli* much higher when submerged

ALDH of rice



ALDH activity in rice much higher when submerged

ALDH detoxifies acetaldehyde, which is toxic to plant cells, thus may play a role in flood tolerance of rice and barnyardgrass

Barnyardgrass eventually replaced broadleaves as major weeds in rice possibly because

- In flooded soil, barnyardgrass can undergo anaerobic fermentation just as well as rice.
- While rice undergoes some degree of aerobic respiration in flooded soil, barnyardgrass can shut down aerobic respiration completely in flooded soil.
- Barnyardgrass can easily recover fast from initial injury incurred in flooded soil.



germinating rice



germinating
E. crusgalli



Fast recovery of *E.crusgalli* from flooding injury

Flooding depth	Shoot length (mm)		Root length (mm)	
	Barnyardgrass	Rice	Barnyardgrass	Rice
7 DAS				
0 mm	220	361	94	126
100 mm	194	361	74	118
% redn	12	0	22	6
14 DAS				
0 mm	274	386	237	162
100 m	371	483	144	144
% redn	0	0	39	11

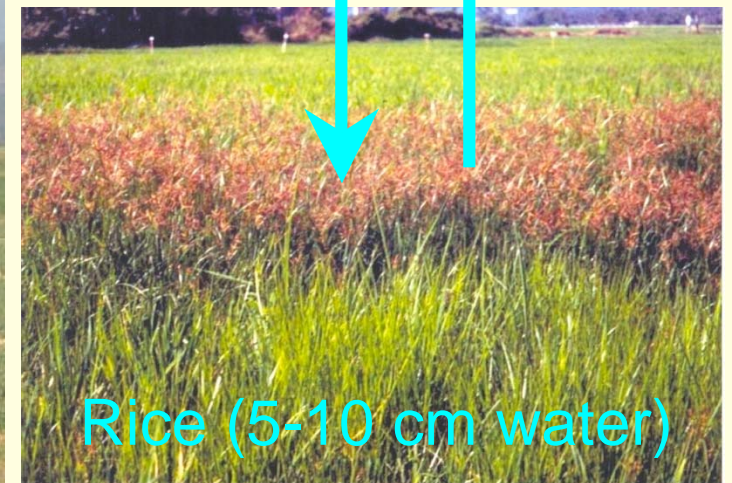
Purple nutsedge: A tough nut to crack



- 52 crops in 92 countries
- a single plant can produce 3 to 7 million tubers/ha
- tubers not controlled by herbicides
- farmers spend P10,000/ha for handweeding labor
- has evolved a lowland ecotype which has adapted to flooded soil

Continuous rice-vegetable rotation over the years is selecting for purple nutsedge that can grow in flooded soil

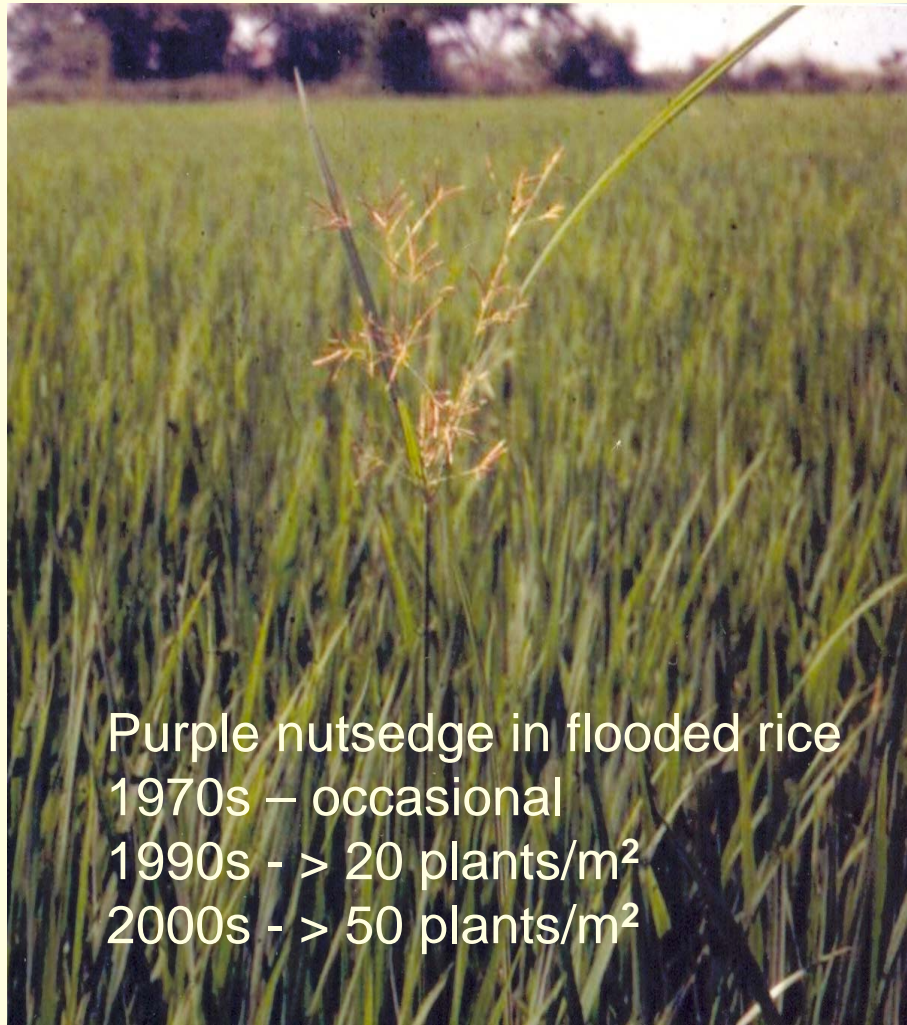
Rainfed areas: rice WS, vegetables DS



Tubers carried over into next crop, can cause weed population build-up



1996: Increasing occurrence of lowland purple nutsedge in lowland rice



Purple nutsedge in flooded rice
1970s – occasional
1990s - > 20 plants/m²
2000s - > 50 plants/m²

Survey of weeds in rice-vegetable fields in Nueva Ecija from 1996 to 2000





Nueva Ecija
1998



Laguna
1998



Iloilo
2005



Tarlac
2006



Bulacan
2006

07/17/2006



Pampanga
2006

07/17/2006

1996-2005: increase in lowland purple nutsedge populations

Weed species	Summed dominance ratio (2005)			
	Iloilo	N Ecija	Pangasinan	Tarlac
<i>C. rotundus</i>	81(6)*	74 (4)*	69 (4)*	87 (2)*
<i>P. distichum</i>	3	2	13	0
<i>S. zeylanica</i>	0.1	4	10	0
<i>I. rugosum</i>	12	1	1	0
<i>H. zeylanica</i>	0	13	4	0
<i>E. crusgalli</i>	2	1	1	0
<i>C. difformis</i>	0	1	3	6
<i>F. miliacea</i>	1	1	3	0
<i>C. iria</i>	0	1	0	0

- Numbers in parenthesis: fields with 100% purple nutsedge populations
- Survey of 30 fields in 4 provinces, 2005 wet season

Appearance of lowland purple nutsedge means that a lowland ecotype has evolved a mechanism to adapt to flooded soil.



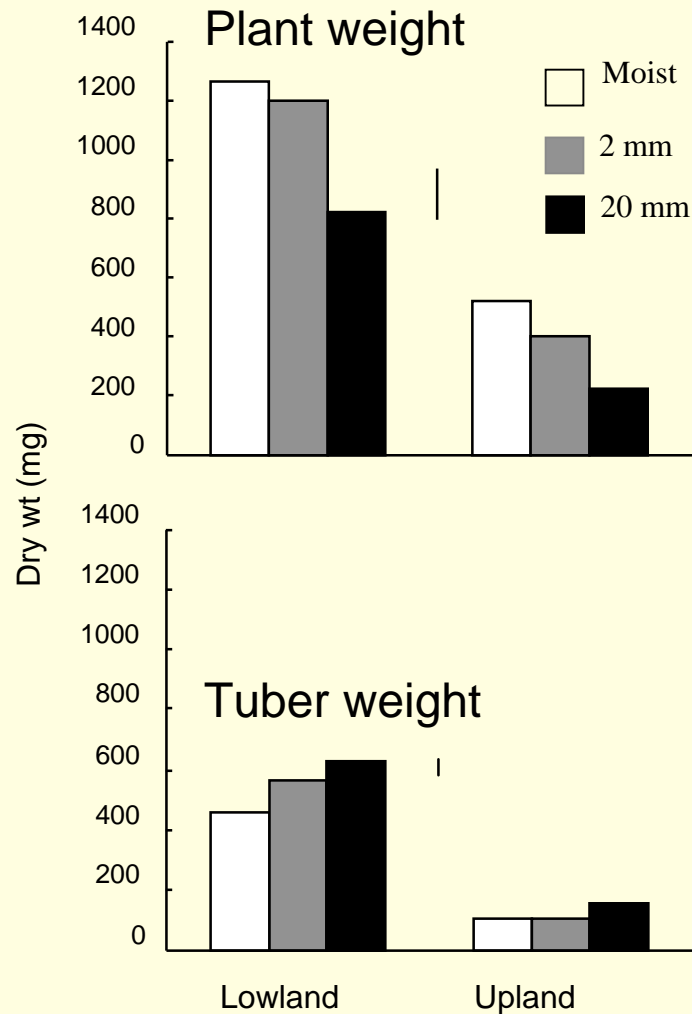
Upland ecotype



lowland ecotype

How did purple nutsedge adapt to flooded soil?
To answer this question, we compared morphological and biochemical features of upland and lowland ecotypes

Morphological comparison of upland and lowland ecotypes



Lowland



Upland

Air space in stem
(aerenchyma)



Wetland – 1.2 g



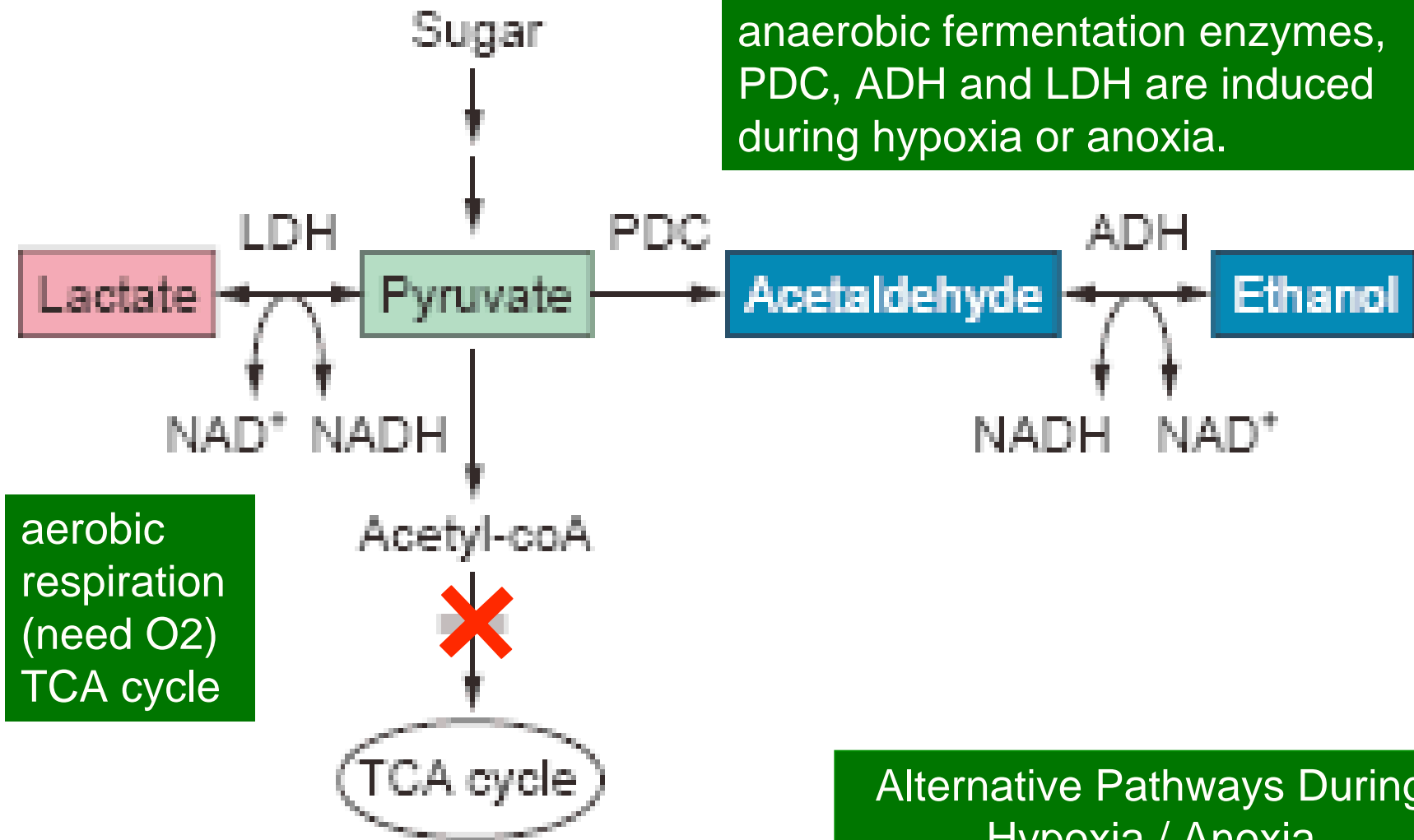
Dryland – 0.4 g

Tubers sprouting in flooded soil (hypoxia) or anoxia (no oxygen) undergo anaerobic fermentation instead of aerobic respiration.



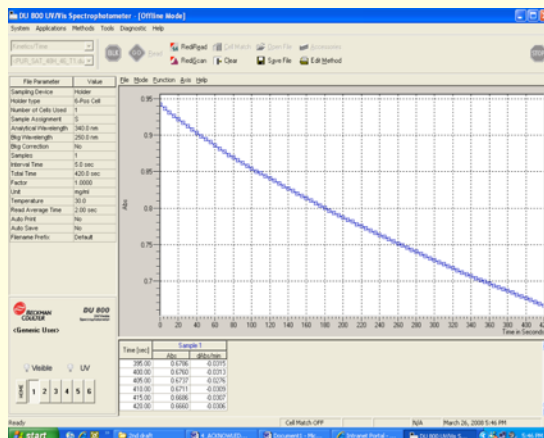
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How did lowland purple nutsedge adapt to flooded soil?



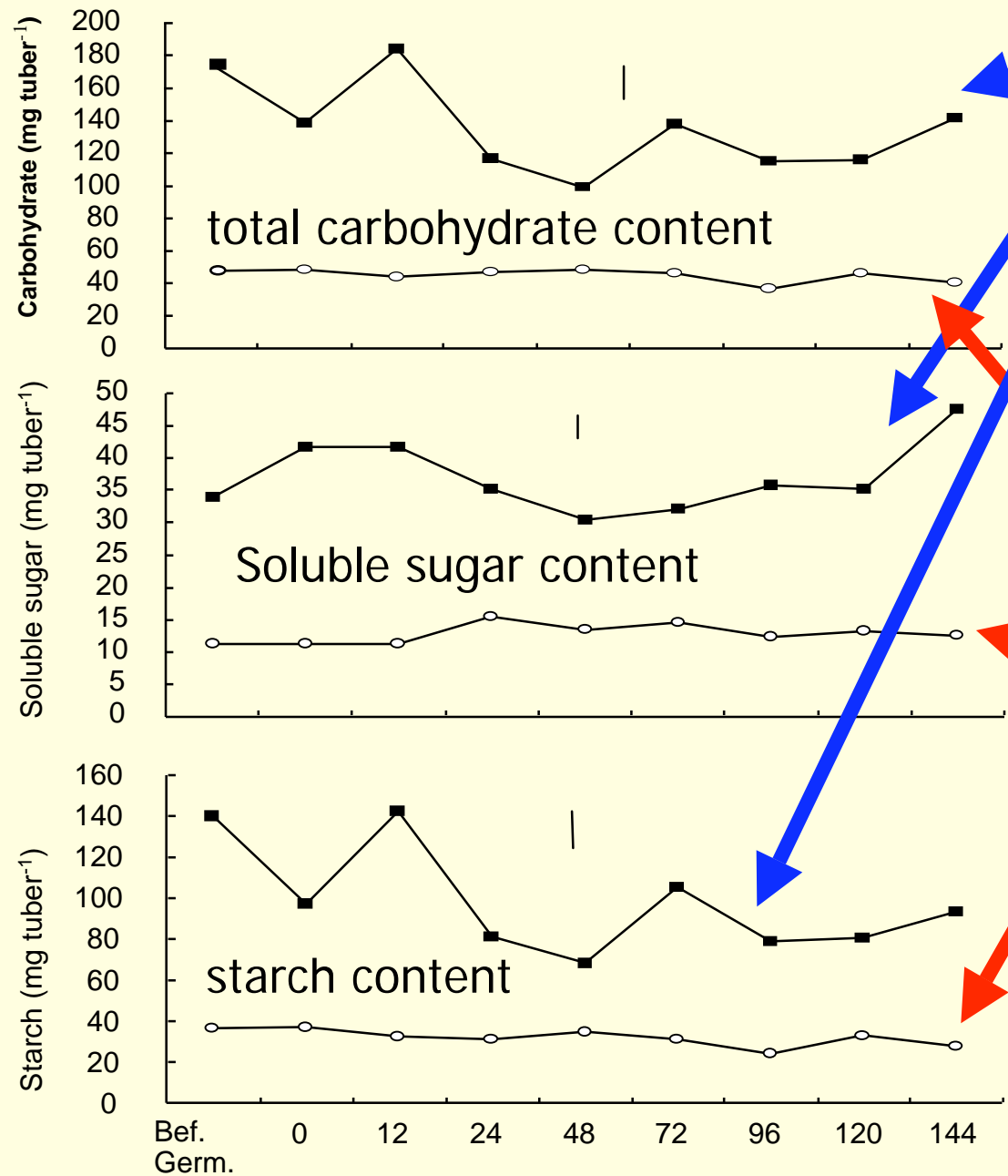


Carbohydrate content and enzyme activity assayed every 24 hrs for 6 days



Carbohydrate, starch, soluble sugar content in tubers
Enzyme activity in roots

- Alcohol dehydrogenase (ADH)
- Pyruvate decarboxylase (PDC)
- Lactate dehydrogenase (LDH)

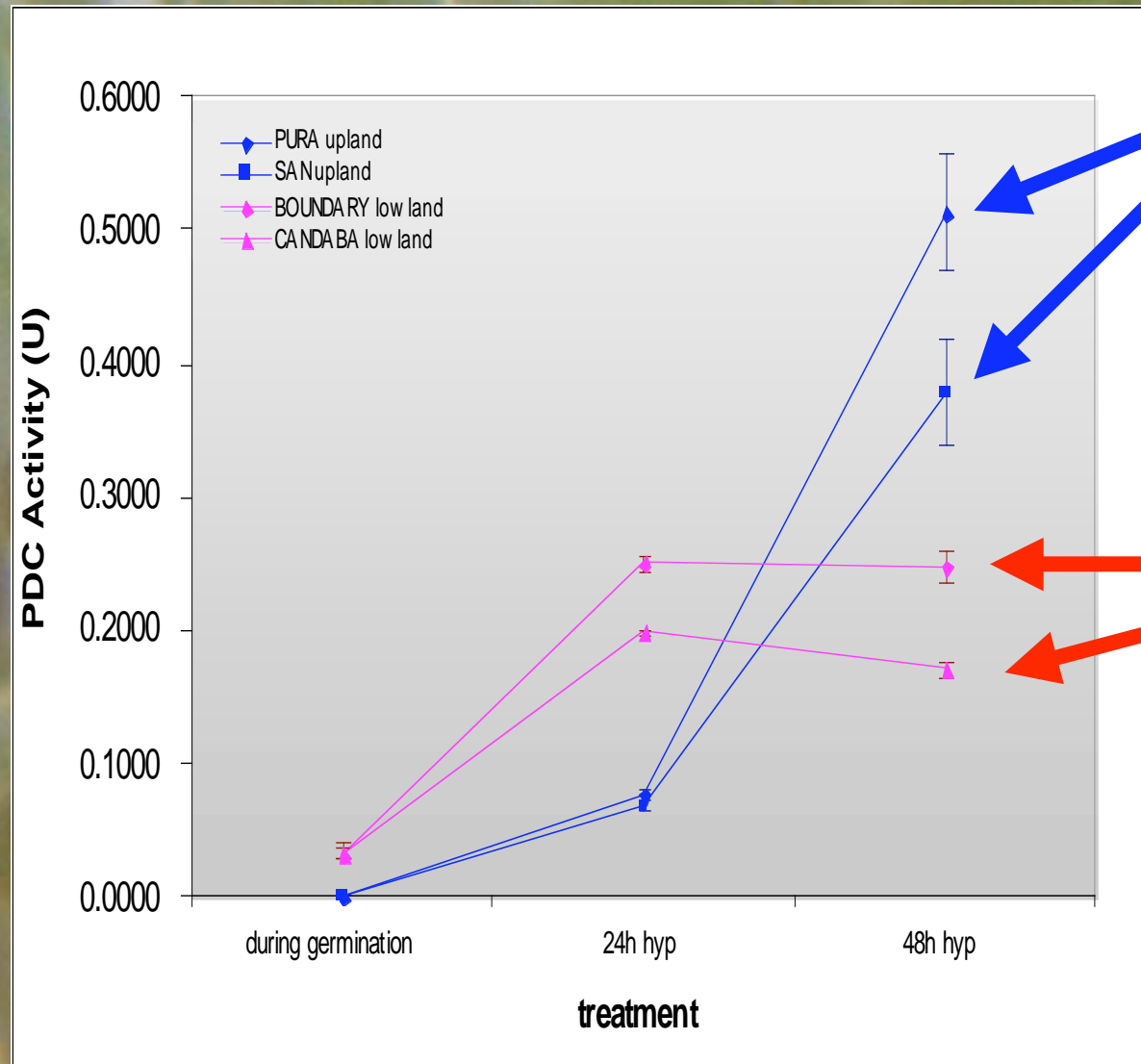


Lowland

- starch decreased
- sugars increased
- starch degraded to soluble sugars
- **more sugars for anaerobic fermentation**

Upland: low sugar content, less degradation of starch to soluble sugars, **less sugars for anaerobic fermentation**

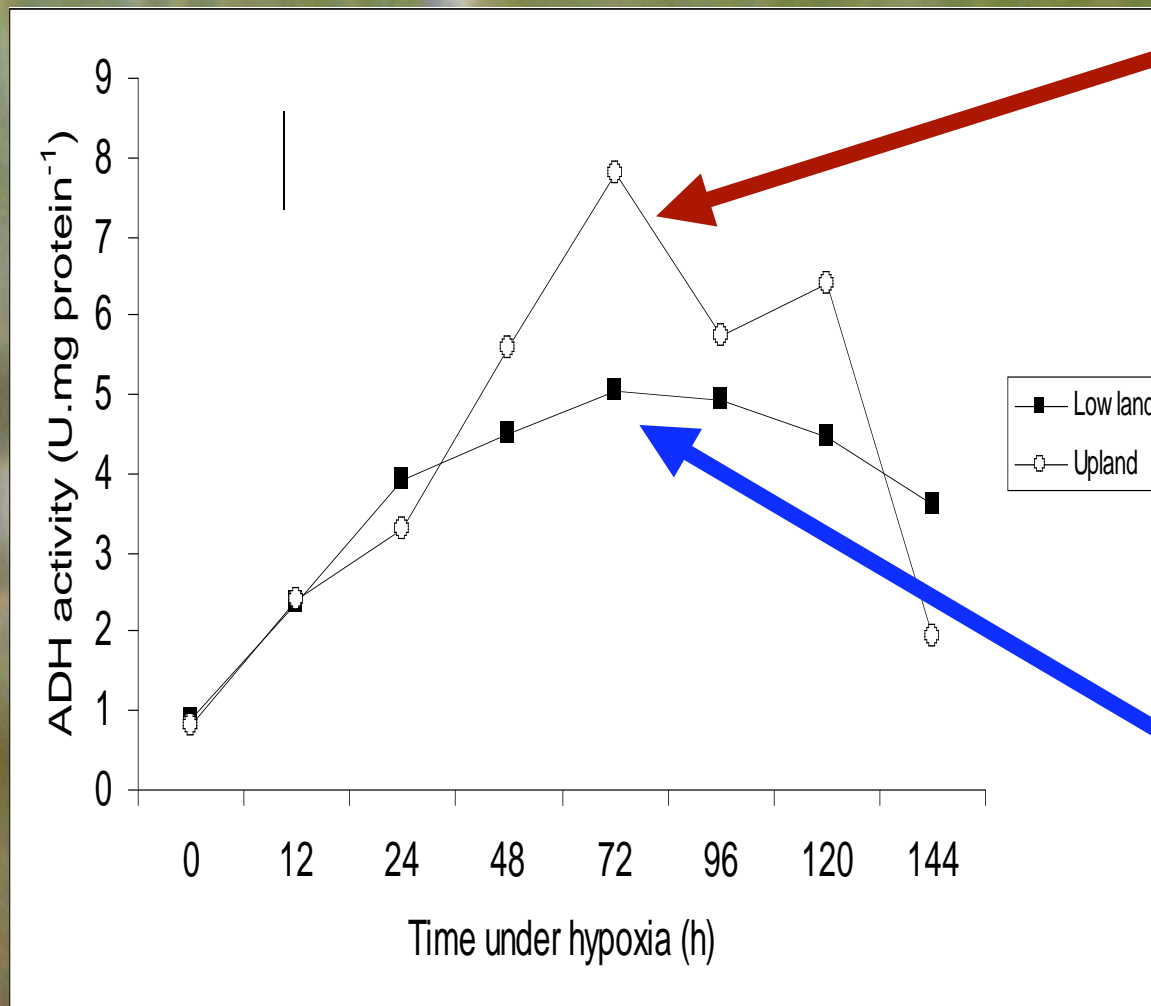
Pyruvate decarboxylase activity in ecotypes



Upland:
continued fast
increase of enzyme
activity until sugars
are depleted

Lowland: slow
but constant
down-regulated
activity to
conserve sugars
and sustain
anaerobic
fermentation

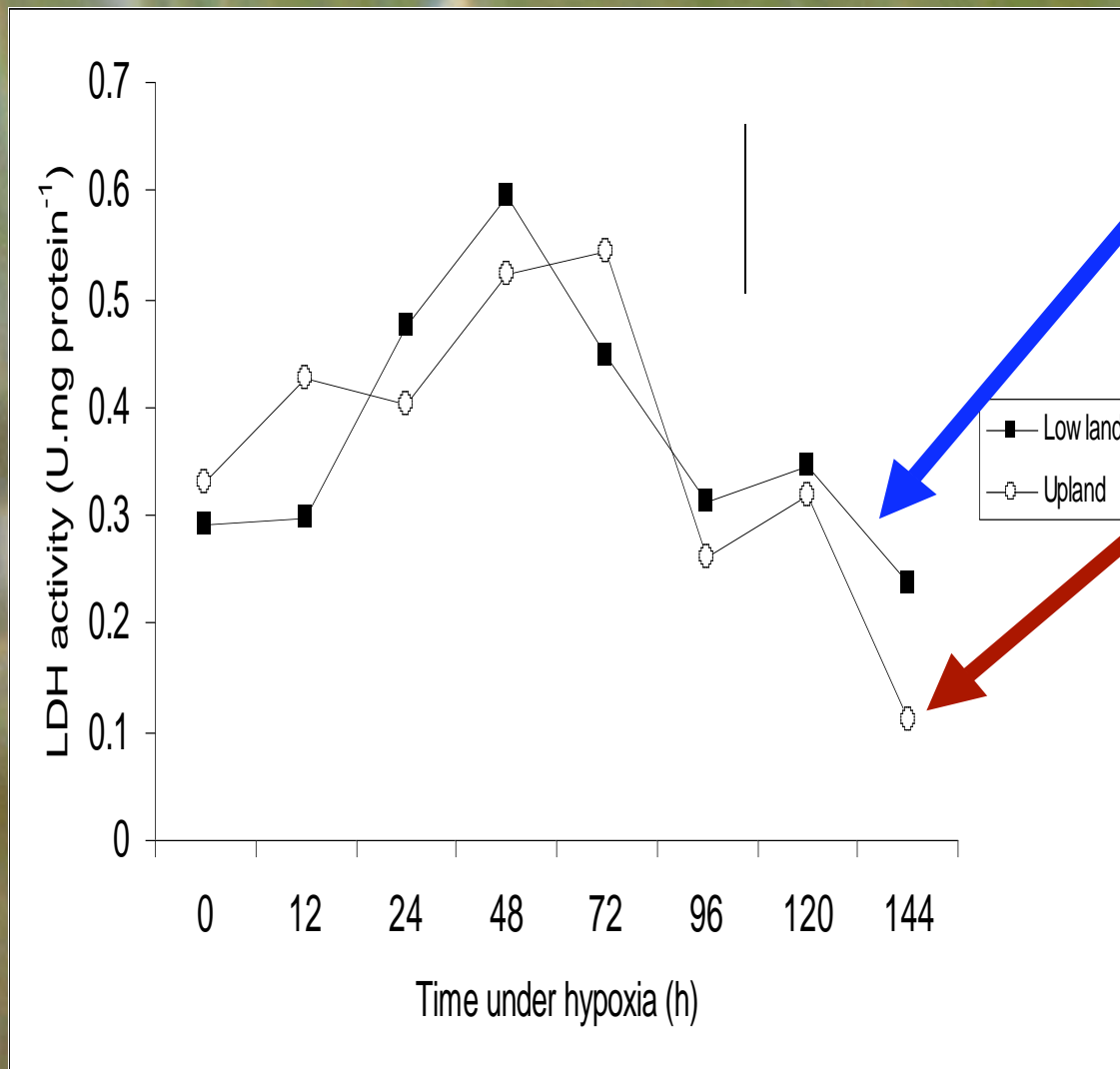
Alcohol dehydrogenase activity in ecotypes



Upland: sharp increase then abrupt decrease **due to sugar depletion**

Lowland: slow increase and constant down-regulated activity **to conserve sugars and sustain anaerobic fermentation**

Lactate dehydrogenase activity in ecotypes



Lowland: higher LDH activity than upland after 6 days

Prevent lactic acid accumulation and acidic pH in cytoplasm in lowland ecotype

Lowland purple nutsedge flood tolerance mechanisms

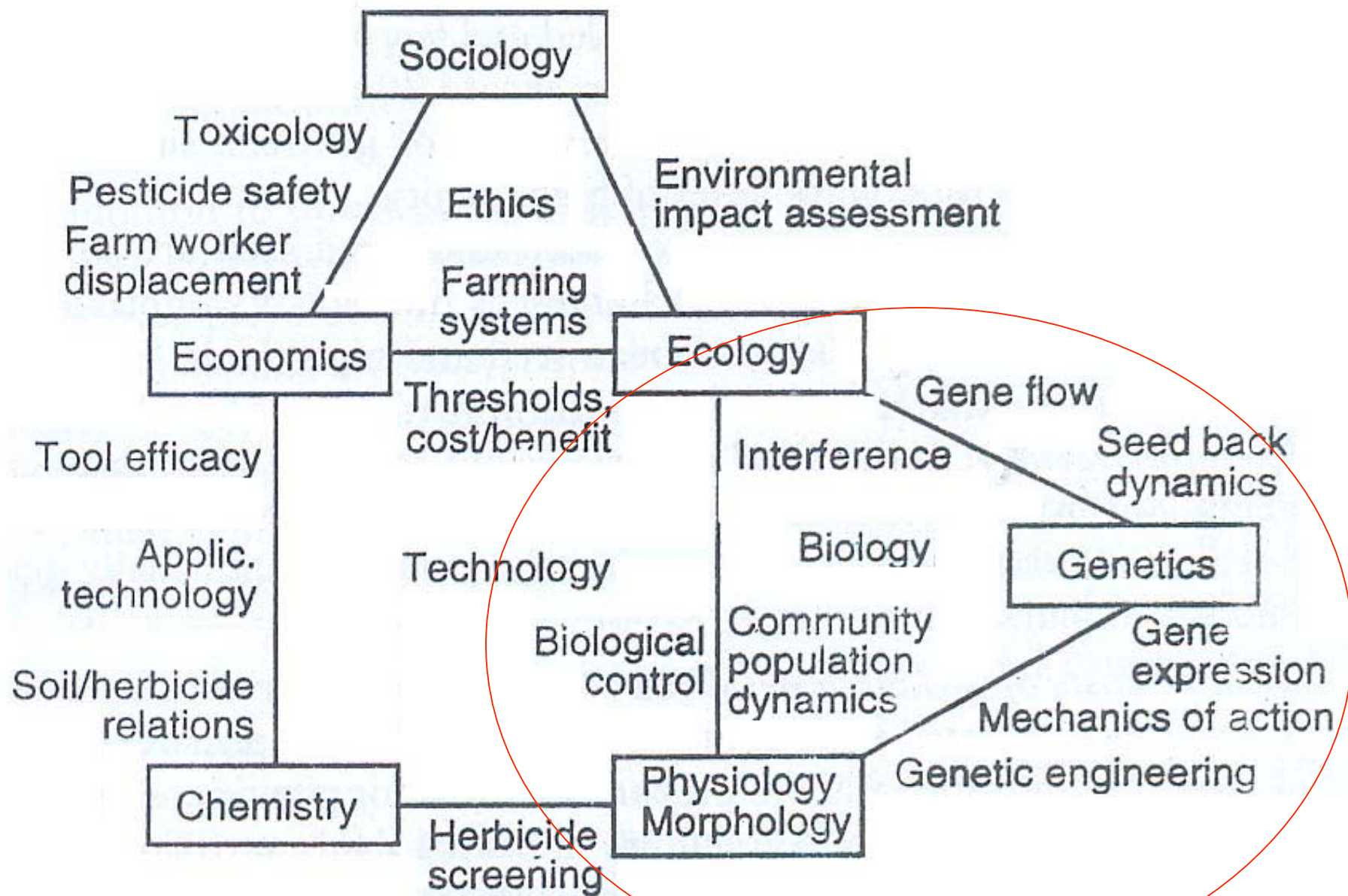
Morphological

- Taller plants, bigger tubers than upland ecotype
- More carbohydrate, starch and soluble sugar content in tubers
- More aerenchyma (air spaces) in roots and stems to diffuse oxygen into submerged parts



Physiological

- More starch breakdown into soluble sugars
- Down-regulates PDC and ADH to conserve sugars to sustain anaerobic fermentation probably until its first leaf can undergo aerobic respiration
- Higher LDH activity prevents lactic acid accumulation and acidic pH in cytoplasm



Radosevich, Holt and Ghera, 1997.
Weed Ecology: Implications for Management

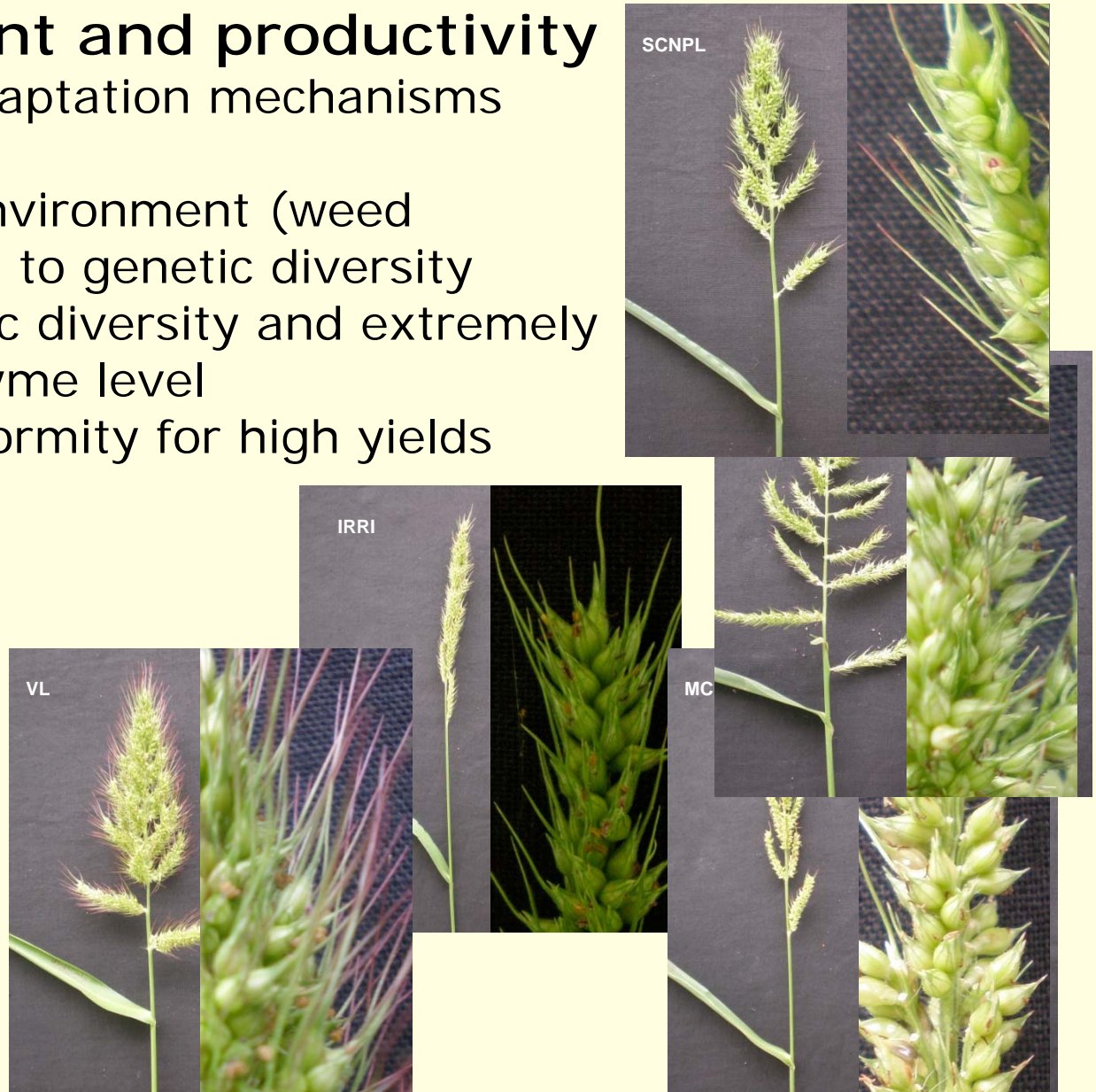
We can learn from weeds

Crop improvement and productivity

Lessons from weed adaptation mechanisms

- Ability to adapt to environment (weed plasticity) is related to genetic diversity
- Weeds – high genetic diversity and extremely variable at the enzyme level
- Crops – genetic uniformity for high yields

- Genus *Echinochloa* has 48 species, including subspecies and varieties
- Each variety has different traits and different responses to environment or control methods



We can learn from weeds

Crop improvement and productivity

Lessons learned from weed adaptation mechanisms

Compare crop genomes and weed genomes

- Only few researches are devoted to study of weed genomes
- Weeds are rich sources of genes which could be used to improve crop adaptation to adverse environment



Most crops are C3 while most weeds are C4

C3 – less competitive

- less efficient in photosynthesis

C4 – more competitive

- more efficient in photosynthesis



We can learn from weeds

Crop improvement and productivity

Lessons learned from weed adaptation mechanisms

- Identification of flood tolerant enzymes in weeds can pave the way for identification of genes that confer flood tolerance
- Incorporate flood-tolerant traits into flood-susceptible crops such as certain rice cultivars and other flood-susceptible crops



We can learn from weeds

Crop improvement and productivity

Lessons learned from weed adaptation mechanisms

- Silencing of genes controlling ADH and PDC in rice for greater competitiveness (rice undergoes both aerobic and anaerobic fermentation in aerobic soil)
- Incorporate genes to enhance LDH and ALDH in flood - susceptible crops to prevent acidosis in flooded soil
- Silencing of genes controlling LDH and ALDH in flood-tolerant weeds to make them flood-susceptible



We can learn from weeds

Weed management – search for sustainable,
innovative strategies

Managing weeds with less chemicals and direct removal inputs like handweeding

- Modify crops to enhance competitiveness against weeds
“Weed-resistant” crops
 - Develop allelopathic crops, C4 crops
- Modify weeds to reduce competitiveness against crops
“Harmless” or “self-destructive” weed
 - convert weeds to being innocuous wild species
(wild weed species are less competitive)

(Gressel, J. 2002. Molecular biology of weed control)

Existing management strategies



Chemical control: Development of herbicide-resistant weeds

Manual control: back-breaking work, labor costs constantly increasing

Need for innovative strategies that enhance crop competitiveness and/or reduce weed competitiveness to reduce direct removal inputs



Herbicides for control of barnyardgrass and herbicide-resistant barnyardgrass

Yr	Herbicide	Resistant species	when	Yrs	Resistance
	mechanism				
1960	Propanil	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	1989	29	degradation
1969	Thiobencarb	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	1993	28	
1970	Butachlor	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	1993	23	
1970	Molinate	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	2000	30	
1974	Pendimethalin				
1983	Sethoxydim				
1987	Mefenacet				
1988	Pretilachlor	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	2004	16	insensitive target site
1989	Fenoxaprop	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	2000	11	
1989	Quinclorac	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	1998	9	
1993	Pyributicarb				
1995	Cyhalofop	<i>E. crusgalli</i>	2000	5	insensitive target site
1995	Flufenacet				
1997	Fentrazamide				
1997	Bispyribac	<i>E. phyllopogon</i>	2000	3	
2000	Metamifop				
2003	Flucetosulfuron				
2004	Penoxsulam				
2007	Duribenzoxim				

Managing weeds with less chemicals

Modify crops to increase weed competitiveness

Search for and develop allelopathic rice cultivars

Allelopathic crop – secretes chemicals which will kill, injure or inhibit growth of surrounding plants (weeds)



Screening for allelopathic rice cultivars being done in various weed research labs in U.S. and Asia

Allelochemicals being identified and isolated

Identify genes responsible for production of allelochemicals; introduce allelopathy genes into crops

Managing weeds with less chemicals

Modify crops to increase competitiveness

Develop a C4 rice cultivar

Plants produce sugars in photosynthesis thru C3 or C4 pathway
C4 more efficient, high-yielding, more competitive than C3 plants

Most tropical grass weeds are C4 plants, rice is a C3 plant



Rice – C3

IRRI research: Develop C4 rice (Leung et al 2008)

- Compare morphology and physiology of rice with C4 plants (wild rice, C4 weeds)
- Compare C4 weed genomes with rice genome, identify genes coding for C4 pathway



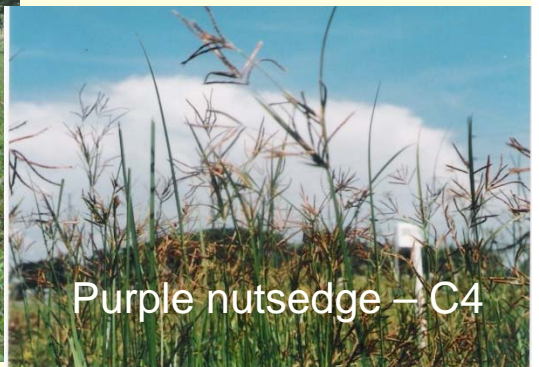
Cogongrass – C4



Barnyardgrass – C4



Itchgrass – C4



Purple nutsedge – C4

Managing weeds with less chemicals

Modify weeds to reduce competitiveness

Develop “self-destructive” or “harmless” weeds

- Incorporate “self-destructive” genes into weeds
 - genes that inhibit growth
 - genes that mimic herbicide action
 - genes that modulate hormone levels

(Gressel, J. 2002. Molecular biology of weed control)



Managing weeds with less chemicals

Modify weeds to reduce competitiveness

Develop “self-destructive” or “harmless” weeds

Genes as target sites for herbicide action

- Silencing genes for ALDH and LDH in weeds to enhance weed susceptibility to flooding
- Silencing genes that modulate ADH and PDC activities in weeds to enhance susceptibility to flooding



However....Why wont plant breeders do what weed scientists ask?

Because

- genes that confer competitiveness are in contrast to those that confer high yields – vegetative vs reproductive growth
- thus, plant breeders opt for high-yielding traits (but need maximum weed control inputs)
- need closer and wider collaboration among weed scientists, geneticists, plant breeders, agronomists and plant physiologists
- weed competitiveness and high-yielding traits in a single cultivar – is it possible?



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