

HERBICIDE RESISTANCE IN WEEDS AND ITS MANAGEMENT

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Article is about Herbicidal resistance and its types and mechanisms of herbicidal resistance and ways and means to control the resistance

Article

HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

Altered response of a formerly susceptible weed species to the extent that some individuals in the species are no longer susceptible.

HISTORY OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

- The resistance in weed *Senecio vulgaris* L. (Common groundsel) to triazines was detected in USA in 1968 and was reported by Ryan in 1970.
- In India, *Phalaris minor* developed resistance to isoproturon during 1992-93, and the same was reported by Malik and Singh (1995). This was the most serious case of herbicide resistance in the world.

TYPES OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

- 1) Cross-resistance
- 2) Negative cross resistance/ collateral
- 3) Multiple resistance
- 4) Reverse resistance
- 5) Co-resistance/compound resistance

1) Cross-resistance

When resistance in weed is evolved due to continuous use of same or more herbicides having similar mode of action/single resistance mechanism.



Common cocklebur resistant to one herbicide (eg. Classic, chlorimuron) may also be resistant to another herbicide (e.g. Scepter, imazaquin) with the same mode of action (ALS-inhibitor). This is known as cross-resistance. Photo courtesy of Dallas Peterson.

2) Negative cross resistance/collateral

Mechanism by which an individual resistant to one herbicide or a chemical family of herbicides shows higher or increased sensitivity to other herbicides than its natural wild type susceptible population.

Example:

Resistant biotype of *Phalaris minor* controlled more effectively by fenoxaprop-p-ethyl than susceptible wild type.

3) Multiple resistance

When resistance to several herbicides results from two or more distinct resistance mechanism in the same plant.



Common waterhemp {*Amaranthus tuberculatus* (syn. *rudis*)} seedlings were identified as having multiple resistance, that is, resistance to both triazine and ALS-inhibiting herbicides, which have two different modes of action with different mechanisms conferring resistance. Photo courtesy of Dallas Peterson.

4) Reverse resistance

Phenomenon in which the weed biotypes resistant to a herbicide falls susceptible to the every herbicide if it is not used for a period of 7 - 10 years, instead some alternative herbicides are used to kill the resistant population.

5) Co-resistance/compound resistance

When weed develops resistance to both mixing partner herbicides of a mixture applied concurrently.

Lolium rigidum developed resistance to Amitrol and Atrazine applied concurrently.

STATUS AND DISTRIBUTION OF HERBICIDE RESISTANT WEED BIOTYPES

| Sr. | Mode of action | Herbicide | Biotypes |
|-----|---|-----------------|----------|
| 1 | Inhibition of ALS/AHAS | Chlorsulfuron | 95 |
| 2 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at PS II | Atrazine | 67 |
| 3 | Inhibition of ACCase | Diclofop methyl | 35 |
| 4 | Synthetic of auxins (Making IAA) | 2,4-D | 26 |
| 5 | PS I electron diversion | Paraquat | 24 |
| 6 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at PS II | Chlorturon | 21 |
| 7 | Inhibition of EPSP synthase | Glyphosate | 14 |
| 8 | Microtubule assembly inhibition | Trifluralin | 10 |
| 9 | Inhibition of lipid synthesis (not ACCase) | Triallate | 8 |
| 10 | Bleaching : inhibition of carotenoid synthase | Amitrol | 4 |
| 11 | Inhibition of protoporphyrinogen oxidase | Oxyflurfen | 3 |
| 12 | Unknown | Flamprop methyl | 2 |
| 13 | Bleaching: Inhibition of carotenoid biosynthesis at phytoenedesaturase step (PDS) | Flurtamore | 2 |
| 14 | Inhibition of cell division | Butachlor | 3 |
| 15 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at PS II | Bromoxynil | 1 |
| 16 | Inhibition of mitosis or microtubule polymerization | Propham | 1 |
| 17 | Inhibition of cell wall (cellulose) synthesis | Dichlobenil | 1 |
| 18 | Unknown | Difenzoquat | 1 |

| | | | |
|--------------|---------|------|------------|
| 19 | Unknown | MSMA | 1 |
| Total | | | 319 |

COUNTRY WISE HERBICIDE-RESISTANT WEED BIOTYPES EXISTING IN THE WORLD TILL JULY, 2008

| Country | Weed biotypes |
|--------------|---------------|
| U.S.A. | 122 |
| Australia | 51 |
| Canada | 44 |
| France | 32 |
| Spain | 30 |
| U.K. | 24 |
| Israel | 23 |
| Germany | 19 |
| Japan | 16 |
| South Africa | 14 |
| China | 9 |
| Iran | 5 |
| India | 3 |

RESISTANT WEED SPECIES TO VARIOUS HERBICIDES

| Sr. No. | Herbicides | Weeds |
|---------|---------------------|--|
| 1. | Triazine | Amaranthus spp., Chenopodium album, Echinochloacrusgalli, Poaannua |
| 2. | Dalapan | Cynodon dactylon, Echinochloacrusgalli, Sorghum halepense |
| 3. | 2,4-D | Cirsiumarvense, Daucuscarota |
| 4. | Diclofop-methyl | Alopecurusmyoscuroids, Avenafatua, Loliumrigidium |
| 5. | Paraquat and diquat | Loliumperene, Poaannua |
| 6. | Propanil | Echinochloacrusgalli, Echinochloacolonum |
| 7. | Chlorsulfuron | Loliumrigidium, Kochiascoparia |
| 8. | Trifluralin | Eleusine indica, Setariaviridis |
| 9. | Isoproturon | Phalaris minor |
| 10. | Glyphosate | Cirsiumarvense |

CAUSES FOR DEVELOPMENT OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

- Over reliance on herbicides for weed control due to unavailability of labour and more labour wages

| Pesticide | India % | | World % | |
|-------------|---------|------|---------|------|
| | 1997 | 2008 | 1997 | 2008 |
| Herbicide | 16 | 20 | 47 | 52 |
| Insecticide | 52 | 61 | 29 | 7 |

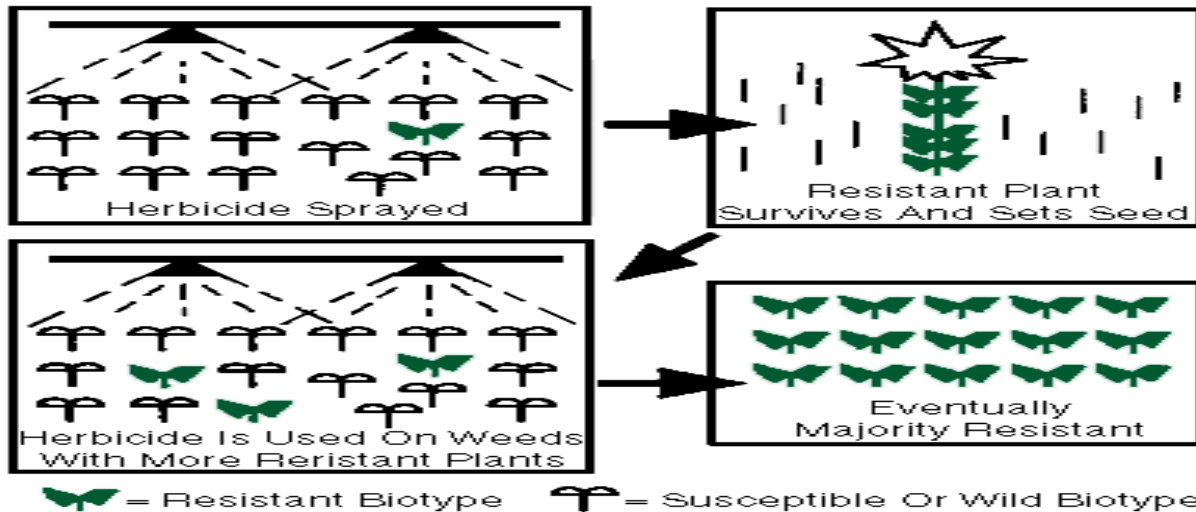
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|-----------|----|----|----|----|
| Fungicide | 30 | 17 | 19 | 32 |
| Others | 2 | 2 | 5 | 4 |

2. Repeated use of same herbicide or other herbicides having same mechanism of action
3. Crop monoculture
4. Minimum/zero tillage

FACTORS OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

- a) **Initial frequency:** Resistant genotypes are present in natural plant population in varying frequency
- b) **Selection pressure:** When the herbicides are applied, the susceptible individuals are killed and the pressure on resistant individuals to develop increases.

How Does Selection For Herbicide Resistance Occur?

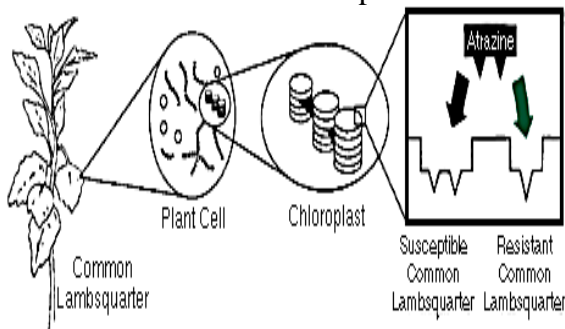


- c) **Fitness:** Measures the potential evolutionary success of a genotype.
- d) **Seed bank in soil:** Strong buffering influence in delaying the rate of appearance of resistance.

MECHANISM OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

1) An alteration of the herbicide site of action :

- In resistant biotypes the herbicide binding site of action is modified due to genetic change and this mechanism is responsible for resistance in most of the triazines, ALS inhibitors and dinitroaniline herbicides.
- Triazine herbicides are primarily photosynthetic inhibitors and in resistant biotypes, loss of herbicide binding ability occurs due to alteration of the binding site on thylakoid membrane of the chloroplast from serine to glycine at amino acid position 264.



The photosynthetic process occurs within a plant cell's chloroplasts. Certain herbicides can inhibit photosynthesis by binding to specific sites within the chloroplast. The relationship of a herbicide to the chloroplast binding site is very specific and any modification of the herbicide or binding site can eliminate herbicidal activity.

2) Enhanced metabolism:

Rapid degradation and or conjugation of herbicides into non-toxic or less toxic form are major mechanism of resistance in several weed species due to activation of certain enzymes

Example:

- Resistance to atrazine in some population of *Abutiliontheophrastiis* due to increased activity of glutathione-s-transferase that detoxifies atrazine.
- Resistance to propanil in *Echinochloacolonais* due to increased activity of enzyme arylacylamidase that detoxifies propanil.
- Isoproturon resistant in *Phalaris minor* is due to rapid degradation catalysed by cytochrome P-450 monooxygenase.

3) Differential translocation:

The less uptake of herbicide by the resistant biotypes generally results in less translocation of herbicides.

In *Loliumrigidium*, the resistant biotypes shows less translocation of chlorsulfuron compared with susceptible ones.

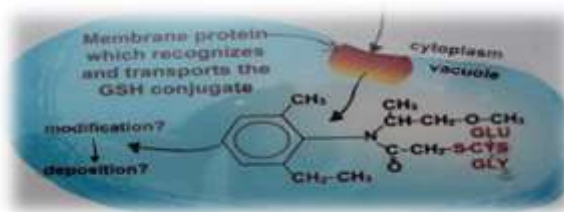
4) Sequestration and compartmentation:

Storing, accumulation or sequestration of the herbicides or their toxic metabolites in cell vacuoles, cells or tissues far from site of action and thus prevent them from reaching to site of action. (*Glutathione sulphydryl*)

Example:

Some lipophilic herbicides may become immobilized by partitioning into lipid rich glands or oil bodies (Stegink and Vaughn, 1988).

One of the major mechanism of resistance to paraquat is compartmentation in *Poaannua*.



MANAGEMENT OF HERBICIDE RESISTANCE

As resistance is essentially irreversible, therefore, it is virtually impossible to reintroduce susceptibility into that community to its pre-resistance level. Hence, it is important to start managing herbicide resistant weeds in initial stage of detection otherwise it may have serious consequences.

Main principle is selection pressure for evolution of resistance, therefore, main focus should be on modifying those factors and practices which are responsible for quicker evolution of resistance.

- Over reliance on herbicides for control of weeds
- Repeated use of same herbicide or other herbicides having same mechanism of action
- Crop monoculture
- Minimum/zero tillage

1) Use of alternative herbicides:

Immediately after detecting the herbicide resistance the use of that particular herbicide should be stopped.

Isoproturon – resistant *P. minor* has been effectively controlled by application of pendimethalin, clodinafop, fenoxaprop and sulfosulfuron.

2) Herbicides mixture and rotation:

The use of two or more herbicides having different mechanisms of action when used in mixture or rotation reduces the selection pressure or resistant biotypes and delay the rate of evolution as compared to individual herbicide used alone.

RECOMMENDED HERBICIDE MIXTURES FOR DIFFERENT CROPS

| Crop | Herbicide mixture |
|-------|--|
| Wheat | Diclofop-methyl 750 g + Fluroxypyr 100 g/ha |
| | Diclofop - methyl 750 g + Isoproturon 500 g/ha |
| | Isoproturon 750 g + tribennuron 100 g/ha |
| | Isoproturon 750 g + 2,4- D 500 g/ha |
| Rice | Tralkoxydim 350 g + 2,4 –D 500 g/ha |
| | Anilofos 0.4 kg + 2,4 –DEE 0.50 kg/ha |
| | Butachlor 1.0 kg + Propanil 2.0 kg/ha |
| | Butachlor 1.0 kg + 2,4-DEE 0.5 kg/ha |
| | Benthiocarb 1.0 kg + Chlorimuron 4 g/ha |
| | Anilofos 300 g + Metsulfuron-methyl 4 g/ha |

3) Herbicide selection and application:

The record of herbicide resistant weeds reveals that few weeds have evolved resistance to chloracetamides, diphenyl ether and glyphosate despite extensive use of these herbicides. Therefore, they are considered as a low risk for the evolution of herbicide resistance in weeds.

Isoproturon – resistant P. minor has been effectively controlled by application of pendimethalin, clodinafop, fenoxaprop and sulfosulfuron.

| Herbicide group | Degree of risk |
|-----------------|---|
| Group A to B | Has high risk for development of resistance |
| Group C to H | Moderate risk for development of resistance |
| Group I to H | Low risk for development of resistance |

CLASSIFICATION OF HERBICIDE BASED ON MODE OF ACTION

| Group | Mode of action | Chemical family | Active ingredient |
|-----------|--|----------------------------|----------------------|
| A | Inhibition of acetyl CoA carboxylase (ACCase) | Aryloxyphenoxy propionates | Clodinafop-propargyl |
| | | Cyclohexanediones | sethoxidim |
| B | Inhibition of acetolactate synthase (ALS/AHAS) | Sulfonylureas | Chlorimuron-ethyl |
| | | Imidazolinones | Imazathathyr |
| | | Triazolopyrimidines | Diclosulam |
| | | Pyrimidinylthiobenzoates | Pyriminobac-methyl |
| C1 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at photosystem II | Triazines | Atrazine, simazine |
| | | Triazinones | Metribuzin |
| | | Pyridazinone | Pyrazon |
| | | Phenyl carbamates | Desmediphem |
| C2 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at photosystem II | Ureas | Isoproturon, Diuron |
| | | Amide | Propanil |

| | | | |
|-----------|---|-------------------|-----------------------------|
| C3 | Inhibition of photosynthesis at photosystem II | Nitriles | Bromoxynil |
| | | Benzothiadiazole | Bentazon |
| D | Photosystem I electron diversion | Bipyridiliums | Diquat, paraquat |
| E | Inhibition of Protoporphyrinogen oxidase | Diphenyl ether | Lactofen, oxyflourfen |
| | | Thiadiazaoles | Thidiazim |
| | | Oxadiazole | Oxadiazon |
| | | Triazolinone | Cafentrazone |
| | | Pyridazinone | Norflurazone |
| F1 | Bleaching inhibition of caretenoidbiosynthesis | Nicotinanie | Diflufenican |
| | | Others | Flurtamone |
| F2 | Bleaching inhibition of 4-hydroxyphenyl-pyruvate-dioxygenase (4-HPPD) | Triketone | Sulcotrione |
| | | Isoxasole | Isoxaflutole |
| F3 | Bleaching inhibition of caretenoid biosynthesis (unknown target) | Pyrazole | Pyrazoynate |
| | | Triazole | Amitrole |
| | | Isoxazolidinone | Clomazone |
| G | Inhibition of EPSPS synthase | Glycines | Glyphosate, sulfosate |
| H | Inhibition of glutamine synthase | Phosphinic acids | Glufisinate-ammonium |
| I | Inhibition of DHP (dihydropteroate) synthase | Carbamate | Asulam |
| K1 | Microtubule assembly inhibition | Dinitroanilines | Trifluralin, pendimethalin |
| | | Phosphoroamidate | Amiprofos-methyl butamiphos |
| | | Pyradazines | Dithiopyr |
| | | Benzoic acid | DCPA |
| K2 | Inhibition of mitosis | Carbamates | Propham |
| | | Benzyl ether | Cinmethalin |
| K3 | Inhibition of cell division | Chloro-acetamides | Alachlor, Butachlor |
| | | Carbamate | Carbetamide |
| | | Acetamides | Diphenamid |
| | | Benzamides | Propyzamide |
| | | Oxyacetamids | Fluthiamid |
| L | Inhibition of cell wall (cellulose) synthesis | Nitriles | Dichlobenil |
| | | Benzamide | Isoxaben |
| M | Uncoupling (membrane disruption) | Dinitrophenols | DNOC, dinoseb |
| N | Inhibition of lipid | Thiocarbamates | EPTC, |

| | | | |
|----------|--|----------------------------|---------------------------|
| | synthesis not ACCase inhibition | Phosphorodithioate | Bensulide |
| | | Benzafuran | Ethofumesate |
| | | Cholo carbonic acid | TCA, dalapon |
| O | Synthetic auxins (IAA) | Phenoxy-carboxylic acids | 2,4-D, 2,4,5 – T, MCPB |
| | | Benzoic acid | Dicamba |
| | | Pyridie carboxylic acids | Clopyralid |
| | | Quiniline carboxylic acids | Quinclorac |
| | | Others | Benazolin-ethyl |
| P | Inhibition of indoleacetic acid action | Phthalamate | Naptalam |
| | | Semi-carbazone | Diflufenzopyr |
| Z | Unknown | Arylamio-propionic acid | Flaprop-methyl |
| | | Organoarsenicals | DSMA, MSMA |
| | | Others | Bromobutideflurenoldymron |

4) Crop rotation:

Crop rotation also facilitates herbicide rotation. Many serious weeds are always associated with specific crops. Due to change of planting time in each crop, use of different weed control measures, the substituted crop can give the effective control of weeds.

Example:

Problem of *Phalaris minor* in rice-wheat system, could be tackled by inclusion of maize in kharif or berseem/sunflower/ mustard/barley or oat in rabi.

5) Tillage practices:

Minimum and zero till systems, the weed seeds remain close to soil surface and susceptible individuals are killed by herbicides and also the change of dilution of resistance from buried seed is less.

Deep tillage: Deep tillage/inversion tillage reduced the requirement of herbicides and delay the build up of resistance due to reduction in selection pressure.

OTHER CULTURAL PRACTICES TO AVOID OVER RELIANCE ON HERBICIDES

- 1) Stale seed bed preparation
- 2) Selection of competitive crop
- 3) Modifying the time of planting
- 4) Optimum seed rate
- 5) Crop stimulation

INTEGRATED WEED MANAGEMENT PRACTICES (FAO, 1966)

Adoption of IWM involving physical, cultural, chemical and biological methods in an integrated fashion without excessive reliance on any single method, can help in successfully managing herbicide resistance.

Example:

Summer deep ploughing + stale seed bed + use of weed free seed for sowing + post-emergence herbicides - can dilute the resistance against *Phalaris minor* in wheat.

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| References (if any) |
| 1. |
| 2. |

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