

Biological Control of Some Serious Weeds in Dakahlia District. II. Mycoherbicial Production and Physiological Host Responses

Gamal M. Abdel-Fattah*

Botany Department, Faculty of Science, Mansoura University, El-Mansoura 35516, Egypt
(Received April 17, 2002)

Four pathogenic fungal isolates belonging to different genera including *Alternaria*, *Fusarium* and *Curvularia* were isolated from selected diseased weeds growing in the fields in Dakahlia district. The inoculum of these pathogenic fungi specific to weeds were cultured, standardized and formulated as alginate pellets containing mycelium plus culture filtrate. These mycoherbicides were evaluated for disease severity (DS). Maximum DS was obtained with the alginate pellets of mycelium filtrate *Fusarium solani*. Physiological changes of the treated weed were determined 5 and 10 days after treatments. As compared to the healthy weeds, all mycoherbicide formulations significantly decreased the amount of photosynthetic pigments and subsequently soluble and insoluble sugars in the infected weeds. The mycoherbicide formulation of *F. solani* had the greatest effect on lowering to the abovementioned amount in the leaves of *Chenopodium murale*. Generally, treatment of weed leaves with the specific mycoherbicide led to a highly significant increase in total phenol content when compared to the healthy control weed. *C. murale* infected with the mycoherbicide formulation of *F. solani* had higher levels of phenolic compounds than those other treated weeds particularly after 10 days of inoculation.

KEYWORD: Carbohydrates, Disease severity, Mycoherbicide, Phenolic compounds, Weeds

Weeds in Dakahlia district are a major problem in agriculture. Most economic plants are lost every year due to damage done by weeds to various agricultural crops. Mechanical and chemical control methods, which are most commonly used, are not completely satisfactory (Sonawane and Ambekar, 1999). Biological control of weeds using plant pathogens is a practical and environmentally sound method of weed management. A variety of herbaceous, woody, climbing, aquatic, and parasitic weeds have been shown to be capable of being controlled by plant pathogens (Charudattan, 1991). Many examples of weed control with pathogens exist, such as the control of hamakua pamakani weed (*Ageratina riparia* by the *Entyloma compositarum*; Trujillo *et al.*, 1988), milkweed vine or strangler vine (*Morrenia odorata* by DeVine [*Phytophthora palmivora*]; Kenney, 1968), musk thistle (*Carduus nutans* by *Puccinia carduorum*; Baudoin *et al.*, 1993), sicklepod (*Cassia obtusifolia* by *Alternaria cassiae*; Walker and Riley, 1982; Charudattan *et al.*, 1986), silverleaf nightshade (*Solanum elaeagnifolium* by the nematode *Orrina phyllobia*; Parker, 1991), skeletonweed (*Chondrilla juncea* by *Puccinia chondrillina*; Supkoff *et al.*, 1988), yellow nutsedge (*Cyperus esculentus* by *Puccinia canaliculata*; Phatak *et al.*, 1987), and wild persimmon (*Diospyros virginiana* by *Cephalosporium diospyri*; Griffith, 1970).

Biological control with plant pathogens is an effective, safe, selective and practical means of weed management that has gained considerable importance (Charudattan, 1986;

Flint and Thomson, 2000; Pemberton and Strong, 2000; Bouda *et al.*, 2001). Despite considerable success with biological and integrated control methods in the world (Daniel *et al.*, 1973; TeBeest, 1991; Harman *et al.*, 1996; Alec and De Clerck-Floate, 1999), biological control means have not yet been used on the large scale in Egypt and weeds still creates serious problems in Egypt and many other countries (Shabana *et al.*, 1997; Stewart *et al.*, 2000). Harman *et al.* (1996) reported that a number of arthropod species exotic to weeds of New Zealand can be used as biological control. Furthermore, Alec and De Clerck-Floate (1999) concluded that *Omphalopion hookeri* (Kirby) can be used as a biological control agent for chamomile, *Matricaria perforata* Merat of the Canadian prairies by reducing the weeds reproductive output. A significant reduction in weed biomass was due to application of herbicides and hand-weeding once in comparison with the treatments on unweeded control was reported (Sonawane and Ambekar, 1999). Finally, Flint and Thomson (2000) studied the seasonal infection of the weed dyer's woad in New Zealand by a *Puccinia* sp. Rust used for biocontrol.

Alternaria eichhorniae Nag Raje was first reported as a biocontrol agent for waterhyacinth in 1970 in India (Nag Raj and Ponnappa, 1970) and in 1987 in Egypt (Shabana, 1970). In Egypt, Shabana *et al.* (1997) tested the efficacy of mycoherbicide of *A. eichhorniae* against waterhyacinth. Who concluded that the alginate formulation of mycelium plus culture filtrate of this fungus should be employed along with a hydrophilic polymer to waterhya-

*Corresponding author <E-mail: Sinfac@mans.edu.eg>

cinth plants. This formulation can be useful in managing waterhyacinth in Egypt and also probably in other countries. In this connection, waterhyacinth plants treated with algininate pellets of mycelium plus culture filtrate of *A. eichhorniae* (isolate Ae5) had the lowest levels of pigments, carbohydrates and relative water content. Infection of waterhyacinth with Ae5 led to a significant increase in total phenols of leaves as compared to control (Shabana *et al.*, 1997; 2001). Cytological changes noted in infected cells included changes in chloroplast, nucleus and mitochondria.

The purpose of this investigation was conducted to evaluate the efficacy of some prepared mycoherbicide formulations of different specific pathogenic fungi on its weeds under field conditions. The physiological changes (Photosynthetic pigments, carbohydrates and total phenolic compounds) as result of this infection were also appraised.

Materials and Methods

Sampling. Some serious weeds growing in the field in Dakahlia district were collected during the winter of 2001. They were transferred to the laboratory and then preserved in sterilized plastic bags for further study.

Isolation of pathogen. The infected organs for each weed were washed with tap water and then rinsed with sterile distilled water. Small fragments of diseased area were surface sterilized by 10% Clorox for 6 min, and then washed in sterilized water several times. These fragments were incubated at 28°C for 6–10 days on potato dextrose agar. After incubation period, fungi were purified and maintained at 4°C for the identification.

Identification of isolated fungi. In this study, the pathogenic fungi specific to selected weeds were identified according to the keys of Ellis (1976) and Carmichael *et al.* (1980). These fungi were used for mass production (Table 1).

Mycoherbicide production. Each fungus was grown on fresh potato dextrose broth medium (PDB) for 7 days at 28°C in the dark. The mycelium was harvested and rinsed with sterile distilled water. Inoculum preparation (half of mycelium mat with the culture filtrate preparation) was made by blending of mycelium with fungal culture fil-

trate 1 : 1 (W/V) for 10 S in a blender. The blended filtrate- mycelium suspension was diluted 1 : 4 (V/V) with 1.33% sodium alginate in distilled water. Alginate-fungal suspension was dripped into 0.25 M calcium chloride to form gel beads of 3–4 mm diameter. The beads were harvested onto sieves, rinsed with distilled water and spread on a carton sheet to be air dried by using electric fans and then maintained at 4°C until used. Alginate pellets, prepared similarly but without the fungus were used for the control treatments.

Application of mycoherbicide. Under field conditions, the leaves of each weed were pre-wetted with tap water to facilitate adherence of pelletized formulation of specific pathogen. Four replicate plants from each weed were sprinkled with pelletized fungal formulation (0.5 g/plant) and sprayed again with tap water. After incubation, all plants were covered with clear polyethylene bags for 48 h to maintain high humidity in a natural condition. Four replicates of the plants from each treatment were harvested at 5 and 10 days after inoculation.

Disease severity (DS). The presence or absence of disease was determined as a percentage of number of leaves on the weed that exhibited disease symptoms and/or necrotic damage. DS, the amount of disease and/or pathotoxin damage was rated by comparing actual damage to a pictorial disease scale of 0 to 9 where 0 = healthy and 9 = 90% disease (Freeman and Charudattan, 1984). Control plants were sprayed with fungus free alginate pellets.

Physiological studies

Plant pigments. Chlorophyll a, b and carotenoids were determined according to spectrophotometers methods recommended by Wellburn and Lichtenthaler (1984).

Carbohydrates. The procedure of extraction, clarification and measurements of reducing sugars, sucrose and polysaccharides from healthy and infected leaves were determined as described by Abood (1990).

Total phenols. Total phenols were extracted from healthy and treated leaves and estimated by the method of Ribereau-Gayon (1972).

All data were subjected to analysis of variance (ANOVA) Significant differences among treatments means were determined with Duncan multiple test at $P = 0.05$.

Table 1. List of specific pathogen isolated from weeds in Dakahlia district and disease symptoms

Pathogen	Principal weed	Associated plant	Disease symptoms
<i>Alternaria fasciculata</i>	<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Citrus	Foliar blight
<i>A. macrospora</i>	<i>Cuscuton pedicellata</i>	Clover	Leaf-spot
<i>Fusarium solani</i>	<i>Chenopodium murale</i>	Tomato	Vascular wilt and chlorosis
<i>Curvularia lunata</i>	<i>Vicia sativa</i>	Green bean	Chlorosis

Table 2. Disease severity (DS) caused by different mycoherbicides of weeds collected from Dakahlia district

Weed	Mycoherbicide treatment	Disease severity (%)	
		Days after inoculation	
		5	10
<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Healthy	0.0 b*	0.0 b
	Infected	35.0 a	43.0 a
<i>Cuscuton pedicellata</i>	Healthy	0.0 b	0.0 b
	Infected	60.8 a	65.7 a
<i>Chenopodium murale</i>	Healthy	0.0 b	0.0 b
	Infected	70.5 a	95.3 a
<i>Vicia sativa</i>	Healthy	0.0 b	0.0 b
	Infected	67.0 a	86.2 a

*Values within a column for each weed followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Duncan multiple rang test at $P=0.05$).

Results and Discussion

Disease severity (DS). DS was determined for each leaf and values were summed and averaged to derive DS for a whole plant (Table 2). The increase in the severity of disease on plants treated with mycelium-filtrate aliginat formulation of pathogen in this study could be due to the fungus being aided by sodium alginate which applied on the plants immediately before inoculation as well as by the pathotoxins produced by the fungus in the cultural medium. Our data agree with those of Robeson *et al.* (1984), Charudattan, 1986 and Shabana *et al.* (1997) who found that the most effective formulation causing disease severity was the mycelium filtrate followed by mycelium alone and the least effective to be the formulation of culture filtrate alone. In this connection, sodium alginate is commonly used in many food products (Connick, 1979) and any residues in plants or water would not be toxic to nontarget organisms. The procedure of drying the pellets immediately after pelletization could simplify the large-

scale production of the bioherbicide. Results of the present investigation showed that the most effective formulation in terms of DS was the mycelium-filtrate of *Fusarium solani* on the *Chenopodium murale* weed. This finding is quite logical since with the formulation of culture-filtrate, the fungus might be supported with more amount of pathotoxins in culture filtrate which might to assist in disease initiation toxins along with pathotoxins of fungus produced during infection process.

Pigments content. The data presented in Table 3 clearly elucidated that there was a massive decrease in the amount of photosynthetic pigments in infected leaf of weeds, as result of mycoherbicide application, when compared with the healthy plants. The mycoherbicide formulation of *F. solani* had the greatest effect in lowering the amount of photosynthetic pigments of *C. murale* leaves. However, there was no significant difference between infected and healthy *E. colonum* weed.

Thus, there is a negative correlation between the DS and chlorophyll level in the infected plants (Tables 2 and 3). The pathogenic fungi may diminish the rate of photosynthesis in the infected leaves by affecting either the chloroplasts or chlorophyll content directly or through the enzymes concerned with photosynthesis (Aldesuquy and Baka, 1992). Arntzen (1972) suggested that the decrease of chlorophyll in infected weed might be explained by an inhibition caused by the fungal toxins of photophosphorylation at the terminal steps of ATP synthesis. The significant decrease in chlorophyll **a** and **b** and carotenoids of the infected leaves of weeds compared to the control healthy plants was in agreement with many studies which reported that the fungal pathogens cause a reduction in chlorophyll concentration to a great extent (Aldesuquy and Baka, 1992). The reduction in chlorophyll content in the inoculated weed plants in this investigation coincided with the ultrastructural changes of chloroplasts of infected

Table 3. Content of pigments in healthy and infected leaves of weeds from Dakahlia district

Weed	Mycoherb. treatment	Amount of pigments ($\mu\text{g/g}$ fresh weight)					
		Days after inoculation					
		5			10		
		Chl. a	Chl. b	Carotenoids	Chl. a	Chl. b	Carotenoids
<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Healthy	530 a*	449 a	80 a	568 a	451 a	71 a
	Infected	510 a	449 a	75 a	499 a	410 a	62 a
<i>Cuscuton pedicellata</i>	Healthy	670 a	530 a	133 a	660 a	522 a	129 a
	Infected	580 a	415 a	118 a	543 b	349 b	100 a
<i>Chenopodium murale</i>	Healthy	750 a	660 a	210 a	741 a	652 a	210 a
	Infected	410 b	395 b	187 a	318 b	301 b	153 b
<i>Vicia sativa</i>	Healthy	680 a	550 a	120 a	660 a	500 a	105 a
	Infected	370 b	340 b	085 a	290 b	291 b	065 b

*Values within a column for each weed followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Duncan multiple rang test at $P=0.05$).

Table 4. Content of carbohydrates in healthy and infected leaves of weeds in from Dakahlia district

Weed	Mycoherb. treatment	Content of carbohydrates ($\mu\text{g/g}$ fresh weight)					
		Days after inoculation					
		5			10		
		Reducing sugars	Sucrose	Polysaccharides	Reducing sugars	Sucrose	Polysaccharides
<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Healthy	0.43 a*	2.00 a	7.62 a	0.35 a	1.87 a	8.30 a
	Infected	0.33 a	1.88 b	6.95 b	0.24 a	1.48 a	6.28 a
<i>Cuscuton pedicellata</i>	Healthy	0.55 a	4.20 a	9.02 a	0.42 a	3.90 a	10.08 a
	Infected	0.43 a	3.50 a	7.82 a	0.31 b	2.88 b	07.05 a
<i>Chenopodium murale</i>	Healthy	0.68 a	4.45 a	9.83 a	0.61 a	4.09 a	11.19 a
	Infected	0.41 b	3.91 b	5.18 b	0.30 b	2.88 b	04.95 b
<i>Vicia sativa</i>	Healthy	0.60 a	3.95 a	9.71 a	0.55 a	3.20 a	10.22 a
	Infected	0.40 b	2.66 b	5.89 a	0.31 b	2.05 b	03.18 b

*Values within a column for each weed followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Duncan multiple range test at $P=0.05$).

plants of waterhyacinth (Shabana *et al.*, 1997).

Carbohydrate content. It is obvious from Table 4 that the four mycoherbicide formulations significantly caused a marked decrease, to some extent, in soluble sugars (reducing sugars and sucrose) and insoluble sugars (polysaccharides) in the infected weeds compared with the healthy controls. It is also obvious that the soluble sugars decreased with the progress of the experiment both in healthy and treated plants. Unlikely, the polysaccharide increased in infected leaves but were mostly stable in healthy control leaves over time. The leaves which were treated with mycoherbicide of *F. solani* had the greatest level of decline in soluble and insoluble sugars than those treated with other mycoherbicides. However, there was no significant difference in these contents between healthy and infected *E. colonum* particularly after 10 days of inoculation. Carbohydrates, principally sugars and starch, are the most abundant organic constituents of plants serving as important sources of energy enabling plants to survive through periods of disease stress, nutrient depletion, drought, etc. Infection by pathogenic fungi may lead to substantial changes in the carbohydrate content of infected plants which may reflect the alteration in the different metabolic processes favorable or unfavorable for fungal development (Aldesuquy and Baka, 1992). Our results showed that the treatment with different mycoherbicides led to a decrease in the level of soluble and insoluble carbohydrates in weed leaves as compared with healthy ones. This decrease in infected/damaged tissues was probably due to the increase in respiration of treated plants (Daly *et al.*, 1961), and/or increase in dehydrogenase and pentose cycle enzyme activities (Cutter, 1951). Depletion of starch in the chloroplast could be attributed to sporulation which has been reported by Baka and Aldesuquy (1992) or likely to be due to the decrease in photosynthetic efficiency.

Phenol content. Generally, the treatment of weed leaves with specific mycoherbicide led to a highly significant increase ($P=0.05$) in total phenol content when compared to the healthy control plants (Table 5). However, no significant difference was observed in these contents between healthy and infected *Echinochloa colonum* weed at 5 and 10 days after inoculation. On the other hand, *Chenopodium murale* infected with the mycoherbicide formulation of *F. solani* had higher levels of phenolic compounds than those other treated weeds particularly after 10 days of inoculation.

Generally, the concentration of total phenols increased as time progressed. Many authors indicated that phenolic compounds might have unlimited potential in accounting for the many differences that occurred in plant response to disease (Nicholson, 1992 and Martyn *et al.*, 1983). In this connection, Matern and Kneusel (1988) have proposed that the defensive strategy of plants exists in two stages: the first is assumed to involve the rapid accumulation of

Table 5. Phenolic compounds of healthy and infected leaves of weeds in Dakahlia district

Weed	Mycoherbicide treatment	Phenolic compounds ($\mu\text{g/g}$ dry weight)	
		Days after inoculation	
		5	10
<i>Echinochloa colonum</i>	Healthy	690 a*	725 a
	Infected	715 a	793 a
<i>Cuscuton pedicellata</i>	Healthy	538 a	612 a
	Infected	621 b	689 b
<i>Chenopodium murale</i>	Healthy	370 a	420 a
	Infected	495 b	1205 b
<i>Vicia sativa</i>	Healthy	460 a	551 a
	Infected	558 b	1210 b

*Values within a column for each weed followed by the same letters are not significantly different (Duncan multiple range test at $P=0.05$).

phenols at the infection site, which function to slow the growth of the pathogen. The second would involve the activation of specific defences such as the synthesis of phytoalexins or other stress-related substances. Our results confirm this conviction since a spectacular increase of phenols followed the treatment of weed leaves with the pathogens formulation as compared to the healthy leaves. Additionally, studies on phenolic inhibitors in noninfected weed plants were conducted by Singh and Srivastava (1983). They reported the existence of p-cumaric, chlorogenic, vanillic, ferulic, protocatechuic, resorcylic, and p-hydroxybenzoic acids in healthy leaves of weeds. This, in general, interprets our observation of being phenolic compounds existing in the noninoculated control plants.

As compared to healthy plants for each treatment, results of the present investigation showed that the phenols contents in the inoculated *Chenopodium murale* weed leaves with the formulations of mycelium plus culture filtrate of pathogen (*F. solani*) were greatly higher than those in leaves of weed treated with other mycoherbicides.

The results reported here permit the conclusion that the biological control with fungal pathogens (Mycoherbicides) offers a feasible alternative and supplement to chemical weed control. Economic and public demands for affordable and safe herbicides are expected to increase in this field. With our increasing knowledge of mycoherbicides has come a better understanding of the limitations facing this field. These include efficacy, extreme level of host specificity, incompatibility with chemical pesticides, the need to produce spores as inocula, technical difficulties in product development, competition from chemical herbicides, economic based on market size, and potential building of weeds resistant to the microbial herbicide. Further researches for the application of these mycoherbicides as a biological control of weeds should be focused on the previous aspects.

References

- Abood, J. K. 1990. Metabolic studies of powdery infection of cucumber and its possible control by lithium chloride. Ph.D Thesis. University of Sheffield, England, pp. 39-46.
- Alec, M. and De Clerck-Floate, R. 1999. Establishment and early effects of *Omphalopion hookeri* (Kirby) (Coleoptera: Apionidae) as a biological control agent for scentless chamomile, *Matricaria perforata* Merat (Asteraceae). *Biological Control* **14**: 85-95.
- Aldesuquy, H. S. and Baka, Z. A. 1992. Physiological and biochemical changes in host leaf tissues associated with the growth of two biotrophic fungi growing in Egypt. *Phyton (Horn, Austria)* **32**: 129-142.
- Amtzen, C. J. 1972. Inhibition of photophosphorylation by tentoxin, a cyclic tetrapeptide. *Biochim. Biophys. Acta* **283**: 539-542.
- Baka, Z. A. and Aldesuquy, H. S. 1992. Changes in ultrastructure and hormones of the fully senescent leaf of *Senecio aegyptius*. *Beitr. Biol. Pflanzen* **66**: 271-281.
- Bouda, H., Tapondiou, L. A., Fontem, D. A. and Gumedzoe, M. Y. 2001. Effect of essential oils from leaves of *Ageratum conyzoides*, *Lantana camara* and *Chromolaena odorata* on the mortality of *Sitophilus zeamais* (Coleoptera). *J. Stored Prod. Res.* **37**: 103-109.
- Carmichael, J. W., Brycekendrick, W., Connors, I. L. and Sigler, L. (1980). Genera of Hyphomycetes. The University of Alberta Press Edmonton, Alberta, Canada.
- Charudattan, R. 1986. Integrated control of waterhyacinth (*Eichhornia crassipes*) with a pathogen, insects, and herbicides. *Weed Sci.* **43**: 26-30.
- _____. 1991. The mycoherbicide approach with plant pathogens. Pp. 24-57. In: TeBeest, D. O. Eds. Microbial control of weeds. Chapman & Hall, NY.
- _____, Walker, H. L., Boyette, C. D., Ridings, W. H., TeBeest, D. O., Van Dyke, C. G. and Worsham, A. D. 1968. Evaluation of *Alternaria cassiae* as a mycoherbicide for sicklepod (*Cassia obtusifolia*) in regional field-tests. Southern Coop. Ser. Bull. 317. Alabama Agric. Exp. Sta., Auburn Univ., Alabama.
- Connick, W. J. Jr. 1979. Encapsulation of herbicides in alginate gels for aquatic weed control. Book of abstracts. Sixth Int. Symp. Controlled Release of Bioactive Material. Sect. III, pp. 1-3, New Orleans, LA.
- Cutter, V. M. 1951. The isolation of plant rusts upon artificial medium and some speculations on the metabolism of obligate plant parasites. *Trans. N.Y. Acad. Sci.* **14**: 103-108.
- Daly, J. M., Bell, A. A. and Krupta, L. R. 1961. Respiratory changes during development of rust diseases. *Phytopathol.* **51**: 461-491.
- Daniel, J. T., Templeton, G. E., Smith, R. J. Jr. and Fox, W. T. 1973. Biological control of northern jointvetch in rice with an endemic fungal disease. *Weed Sci.* **21**: 303-307.
- Ellis, M. B. 1976. More Dematiaceous Hyphomycetes, Commonwealth Mycological Institute, England.
- Flint, M. K. and Thomson, S. V. 2000. Seasonal infection of the weed dyers woad by a *Puccinia* sp. Rust used for biocontrol, and effects of temperature on basidiophore production. *Plant Disease* **84**: 753-759.
- Freeman, T. E. and Charudattan, R. 1984. *Cercospora rodmanii* Conway, a biocontrol agent of waterhyacinth. Florida Exp. Sta. Bull. No. 842. University of Florida, Gainesville, FL.
- Griffith, C. A. 1970. Persimmon Wilt Research. Annual report 1960-1970. Noble Foundation Agricultural Division. Ardmore, Oklahoma, 1970, 13pp.
- Kenney, P. E. 1991. DeVine-the way it was developed an industrialists view. *Weed Sci.* **34**: 15-16
- Martyn, R. D., Samuelson, D. A. and Freeman, T. E. 1983. Phenol storing cells in waterhyacinth leaves. *J. Aquat Plant Manage.* **21**: 49-53.
- Matern, U. and Kneusel, R. E. 1988. Phenolic compounds in plant disease resistance. *Phytoparasitica* **16**: 153-170.
- Nag Raj, T. R. and Ponnappa, K. M. 1970. Blight of waterhyacinth caused by *Alternaria eichhorniae* sp. nov. *Trans. Brit. Mycol. Soc.* **55**: 123-130.
- Nicholson, R. L. 1992. Phenolic compounds and their role in disease resistance. *Ann. Rev. Phytopathol.* **30**: 369-389.
- Parker, P. E. 1991. Nematode as biological control agents of weeds. Pp. 58-68. In: TeBeest, D. O. Ed. Microbial control of

- weeds. Chapman & Hall, NY.
- Phatak, S. C., Callaway, M. B. and Vavrina, C. S. 1987. Biological control and its integration in weed manggement systems for purple and yellow nutsedge (*Cyperus rotundus* and *C. esculentus*). *Weed Technol.* **1**: 84-91.
- Pemberton, R. W. and Strong, D. R. 2000. Safety data crucial for biological control insect agents. *Science* **8**: 1896-1907.
- Ribereau-Gayon, P. 1972. Plant phenols. Haner Pub. Co., New York, pp. 15-19.
- Robeson, D., Strobel, G., Matusumoto, G. K., Fisher, E. L., Chen, M. H. and Clardy, J. 1984. Alteichin: an unusual phytotoxin from *Alternaria eichhorniae*, a fungal pathogen of waterhyacinth. *Experientia* **40**: 1248-1250.
- Shabana, Y. M. 1992. Biological control of waterhyacinth by using plant pathogens. Ph. D. Faculty of Agric., Mansoura Univ., Egypt, pp. 40-90.
- _____, Baka, Z. A. and Abdel-Fattah, G. M. 1997. *Alternaria eichhorniae*, a biological control agent for waterhyacinth: Mycoherbical formulation and physiological and ultrastructural host responses. *European J. Plant Pathology*, **103**: 99-111.
- _____, El-wakil, M. A. and Charudattan, R. 2001. Effect of nutrition and physical factors on mycelial growth and production of pigments and nonchromatic UV-absorbing compounds of *Alternaria eichhorniae*. *J. Phytopathology* **149**: 21-27.
- Singh, S. P. and Srivastava, S. K. 1983. Studies on phenolic inhibitors in *Eichhornia crassipes*. *Acta Botanica Indica* **11**: 73-74.
- Sonawane, P. D. and Ambekar, A. T. 1999. Weed control in rice (*Oryza sativa*) nursery. *Indian Journal of Agronomy* **44**: 109-111.
- Stewart, A. C., Chapman, B. R. and Frampton, M. C. 2000. Growth of alligator weed (*Alternanthera philoxeroides* (Mart.) Griseb. (Amaranthaceae)) and population development of *Agasicles hygrophila* Selman & Vogt (*Coleoptera: Chrysomelidae*) in northern New Zealand. *Plant Protection Quarterly* **15**: 95-101.
- Supkoff, D. M., Joley, D. B. and marois, J. J. 1988. Effect of introduced biological control organisms on the density of *Chondrilla Juncea* in California. *J. Appl. Ecol.* **25**: 1089-1095.
- TeBeest, D. O. 1991. Microbial Control of Weeds (Book). Routledge, Chapman & Hall, Inc, New York, NY, pp. 154.
- Trujillo, E. E., Aragaki, M. and Shoemaker, R. A. 1988. Infection, disease development, and axenic culture of *Entyloma compositarum*, the cause of *Hamakua pamakani* blight in Hawaii. *Plant Dis.* **72**: 355-357.
- Walker, H. L. and Riley, J. A. 1982. Evaluation of *Alternaria cassiae* for the biocontrol of sicklepod (*Cassia obtusifolia*). *Weed Sci.* **30**: 651-654.
- Welburn, A. R. and Lichtenthaler, H. 1984. Formulae and program to determine total carotenoids and chlorophylls a and b of leaf extracts in different solvents. In: Advances in Photosynthesis research (ed. C. Sybesma), Vol. II- pp. 9-20.