

**ACTA
AGRICULTURAE
SLOVENICA**

Letnik **91**

Ljubljana, maj 2008

Številka **1**

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0001-x

Agrovoc descriptors: oil crops, brassica napus, proximate composition, gypsum, potassium sulphate, proteins, fatty acids, oils, fertilizer application

Agris category codes: F04, F60, FO1

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COBISS Code 1.01

Impact of source and application time of sulphur on the yield, oil content and protein content in winter oilseed rape

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Received March 29, 2008; accepted April 29, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 29. marca 2008; sprejeto 29. aprila 2008.

ABSTRACT

At the experimental field of Slovenian Institute of Hop Research and Brewing at Žalec an experiment was conducted in 2006/07 to detect the impact of fertilization by K₂SO₄ and gypsum on the yield, oil content, oil yield, protein content, protein yield and fatty acids composition at two different cultivars of oilseed rape (cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata). In the conditions of the experiment the source of sulphur did not impact the yield, but a negative impact of spring fertilization by sulphur at cultivar Smart was detected. At hybrid Toccata positive impact of gypsum was detected when it was fertilized at sowing. Oil content was higher at cultivar Smart by 3.32% compared to hybrid Toccata. At cultivar Smart no source of sulphur impacted significantly the yield of oil, while at the conditions of the experiment positive impact of spring applications of sulphur on the yield of oil was detected at hybrid Toccata. Oil yield was higher at cultivar Smart compared to hybrid Toccata. Protein content was not impacted by sulphur fertilization. The share of linoleic acid was higher at hybrid Toccata by 2.2% to 2.4%, the share of oleic acid was higher at cultivar Smart by 2.2% to 3.1%, the shares of other investigated acids did not differ a lot between Smart and Toccata.

Key words: gypsum, potassium sulphate, winter oilseed rape, oil, protein, yield, fatty acids, fertilization

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IZVLEČEK**VPLIV OBLIKE TER ČASA APLIKACIJE ŽVEPLA NA PRIDELEK IN VSEBNOST OLJA TER BELJAKOVIN PRI OZIMNI OLJNI OGRŠČICI**

Na poskusnem polju Inštituta za hmeljarstvo in pivovarstvo Slovenije v Žalcu smo v sezoni 2006/07 zastavili poskus, v katerem smo preizkusili vpliv gnojenja s K_2SO_4 in sadro na pridelek, vsebnost olja, pridelek olja, vsebnost beljakovin, pridelek beljakovin in sestavo maščobnih kislin dveh kultivarjev (kultivar Smart in hibrid Toccata) oljne ogrščice. V danih razmerah različne oblike gnojenja z žveplom niso imele značilnega vpliva na pridelek, vendar se pri kultivarju Smart nakazuje negativen učinek spomladanskega gnojenja z gnojili, ki vsebujejo žveplo, pri hibridu Toccata pa pozitiven učinek gnojenja s sadro, če je bila pognojena ob setvi. Vsebnost olja je bila pri kultivarju Smart za 3,32% višja kot pri hibridu Toccata. Pri kultivarju Smart nobena oblika gnojenja z žveplom ni pomembno vplivala na hektarski pridelek olja, pri hibridu Toccata pa se v danih razmerah nakazuje pozitiven učinek spomladanskega gnojenja z žveplom na pridelek olja. Hektarski pridelek olja je pomembno večji pri kultivarju Smart kot pri hibridu Toccata. Na vsebnost beljakovin gnojenje z žveplom ni imelo vpliva. Delež linolne kisline v olju je bil pri hibridu Toccata višji za 2,2% do 2,4%, delež oleinske kisline je bil višji pri kultivarju Smart za 2,2 do 3,1%, delež drugih maščobnih kislin se pri obeh kultivarjih medsebojno le malo razlikuje.

Ključne besede: sadra, kalijev sulfat, oljna ogrščica, olje, beljakovine, pridelek, maščobne kisline, gnojenje

1 INTRODUCTION

To maintain a balanced N and S supply for yield and quality was stressed at oilseed rape (Zhao et al., 1997; Ahmad et al., 1999; McGrath and Zhao, 1996). According to Ahmad et al. (1999) applications of N in split doses and S as a basal dose may create imbalance in the supply of these nutrients during the growth and development of the crop because metabolism of N and that of S are closely linked and play a central role in protein synthesis. In their experiment S was applied (40 kg/ha S in the form of gypsum) in split doses along with N at *Brassica juncea* L. and *Brassica campestris* L. On the basis of results it was concluded that S must be applied in split doses for optimum growth and yield of Brassica genotypes. Also, genetic variability was observed between the two genotypes in response to split application of S and N. The positive impact of S on seed yield at oilseed rape was achieved mainly through reduced pod abortion (Zhao et al., 1993).

In the experiment by Singh and Aggarwal (1998) gypsum applications reflected in better pod length, sees/pod, TGW, protein content and yield of blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo*) compared to the other source of sulphur tested (elemental S, pyrite, gypsum). On the other hand pyrite applications reflected in higher yields compared to gypsum applications at clusterbean (*Cyamopsis tetragonoloba*) in the experiment by Shekhawat et al. (1996); the increasing levels of sulphur from 0 kg/ha to 40 kg/ha increased grains/pod. In the combination with NPK fertilizers gypsum applications reflected in significant improvement in yield of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) (Prasad et al., 2002). On the other hand, in the experiment by Moreira et al. (1998) the S source (gypsum and K_2SO_4) did not affect yield of white clover (*Trifolium repens*). Among the sources of sulphur, gypsum proved significantly superior with respect to yield attributes (pod/plant and TGW), grain and straw yields

and harvest index at different cultivars of lentil (*Lens culinaris*) in the experiment by Singh and Chauhan (2002). Gypsum applications (250 kg/ha) reflected in significant improvement in yield attributes and seed yield of Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) (Rao and Shaktawat, 2002). In the experiment by Samui and Bandopadhyay (1997) application of sulphur through gypsum significantly increased seed yield and oil yield at Indian mustard compared to pyrite. An increase in S level significantly increased the seed yield (0-50 kg/ha S). On the other hand the source of sulphur (gypsum, elemental S, pyrite) did not influence the growth, yield attributes and yields as well as quantity of Indian mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) in the experiment by Kumar et al. (2001). Applications of 40 and 60 kg/ha S gave significantly higher yield and quality (protein and oil contents in seed) over 20 kg/ha and no S applications.

Kowalenko (2004) investigated response of forage grass to sulphur applications on coastal British Columbia soils. In his experiments spring gypsum applications increased yield in two and decreased yield in one of six trials. Powdered elemental S was available to plants sooner than an elemental S fertilizer, but neither as quickly as gypsum. In the experiment by Sanderson and Carter (2002) gypsum increased the S content of rutabaga leaf tissue and reduced soil pH, at the same time marketable yield of rutabagas was not affected by addition of Ca and S amendments on sandy loam to loamy sand Podzols. The effect of gypsum as a sulphur fertilizer on the yield and growth was tested also on other crops, such as sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) (Intodia and Tomar, 1997), cabbage (*Brassica oleracea* L. var. *capitata*) (Sandreson et al., 1996), cereals (Withers et al., 1995).

In the experiment of Hamza and Andreson (2002) the impact of gypsum on solving problems with soil compaction on clay soil with massive soil structure was investigated. Its application (2.5 t/ha) increased water-stable aggregates, the combination of soil ripping and gypsum application in the presence of complete nutrients and annual return of crop residues to the soil was suggested to improve crop grain yield and soil physical fertility on a range of Western Australian soils. Grain yields (wheat and legumes) were increased slightly more on the loamy sand soil than on the sandy clay loam soil due to deep ripping and gypsum application (Hamza and Andreson, 2003). By Fageria and Baligar (2001) in tropical acid soils adequate gypsum use is one of the factors to improve nutrient use efficiency by annual crops.

It can be seen from the literature cited that gypsum ($\text{CaSO}_4 \cdot 2\text{H}_2\text{O}$) is tested in field experiments mainly as an aggregating agent and as a sulphur fertilizer. In the presented investigation gypsum was used as a sulphur fertilizer in the production of winter oilseed rape (*Brassica napus* L. var. *napus*); its impact on the seed yield, oil content, oil yield, protein content and protein yield was compared to another source of sulphur (K_2SO_4). Fertilization by S at sowing and in spring were compared, split dose of S applied by gypsum was included. Response of two different genotypes (cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata) was detected.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Experimental layout

The experiment was conducted at the experimental field of Slovenian Institute of Hop Research and Brewing in the season 2006-2007 as a block trial with three replications. The size of plots was 40 m². There were two winter oilseed rapes sown: cultivar Smart (65 plants/m²) and hybrid Toccata (50 plants/m²). Six different treatments were compared:

- No fertilization by sulphur;
- Sulphur in the form of gypsum applied at sowing (50 kg/ha S);
- Sulphur in the form of K₂SO₄ applied at sowing (50 kg/ha S);
- Sulphur in the form of gypsum applied in spring (50 kg/ha S);
- Sulphur in the form of K₂SO₄ applied in spring (50 kg/ha S);
- Sulphur in the form of gypsum applied at sowing (20 kg/ha S) and in spring (30 kg/ha S).

Gypsum was a product of Cinkarna Celje d.d., its composition is stated in Table 1.

Table 1: Composition of gypsum, used in the experiment, produced at Cinkarna Celje d.d.

SO ₄ ⁻ (%)	Ca (%)	Al (%)	Cr (%)	Cu (%)	Fe (%)	Mn (%)	Ti (%)	Zn (%)
55.6	23.0	0.008	0.005	<0.001	0.13	0.001	0.24	0.001

The experiment was treated according to the good agricultural practice; all the other agrotechnical arrangements except sulphur fertilization were the same for all plots and performed by machines. Sulphur fertilization was performed manually by plots. At the time of maturity experimental field was harvested plot by plot by the plot combine. Yield was weighted; samples of grain to analyse moisture, oil content and protein content were taken.

2.2 Chemical analyses

Moisture content was detected according to ISO 665:1977. Oil content was determined according to ISO 659:1998; oil is extracted out of grinded seeds by a solvent (hexan). After four hours solvent is removed by rotavapour. Fatty acids in oil were derivatized with BF3 to its methyl esters and detected by gas chromatograf (Flame Ionization Detector) according to the method by Hamilnton and Hamilton. Protein content was determined according to the method by Kjeldahl. The method consists of heating a substance with sulfuric acid which decomposes the organic nitrogen present to ammonium sulfate.

2.3 Processing of statistical data

Results were statistically processed by the computer program Statgraphics for block trial in three replications, differences among treatments were detected by Duncan multiple range test ($p<0.05$).

2.4 Weather and soil conditions

Autumn and winter in the season 2006/07 were rather warm compared to the long term average; growth of plants was fast in autumn, a good rosette form was reached before winter, growth was stopped for only a short time in January. January was warmer for some degrees compared to the long term average. February was the second warmest in last 50 years. In the first two decades of March relatively high temperatures continued, while after 19th March it was cooled down and there was snow cover for four days. At that time stems of plants of hybrid Toccata were broken; up to 20% at the treatments where K₂SO₄ and gypsum were applied in spring. Plants recovered and new stems were formed. There was no damage caused by snow at the cultivar Smart, because plants were still in the rosette form at that time. Mean temperature in April was 13.1°C, in May 16.4°C, in June 20.7°C. There was a relatively good water supply through all the season for oilseed rape growth.

Soil at the experimental field is medium heavy to heavy (33.3% sand, 40.3% silt, 26.4% gley). At the beginning of the experiment soil analyze was performed (Table 2) and Nmin content in soil was detected. In the upper 25 cm of soil there was 20 kg/ha N-NO₃ and 26 kg/ha N-NH₄ at the end of August 2006. According to the analyze results soil was fertilized by 220 kg/ha K₂O, no magnesium, phosphorus and boron fertilization was performed.

Nitrogen was applied at three side-dressings: 50 kg/ha N at sowing, 80 kg/ha N in spring and 50 kg/ha N at the beginning of flowering. Before both spring N side-dressings Nmin was detected. In soil there was 6 kg/ha N-NO₃ and 20 kg/ha N-NH₄ in the beginning of March 2007 and 20 kg/ha N-NO₃ and 37 kg/ha N-NH₄ in April.

Table 2: Soil analyze results at the conduction of the experiment in August 2006

Sampling depth (cm)	pH in KCl	P ₂ O ₅ (mg/100 g soil)	K ₂ O (mg/100 g soil)	MgO (mg/100 g soil)	B (mg/100 g soil)	Total S (mg/100 g soil)
0-30	6,9	44 E*	24 C*	16,9 C*	1,3 D*	49

*letters next to the numbers indicate soil supply by certain nutrient:
C: good supply D: excessive supply E: extreme supply

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Grain yield

Higher yield of grain for 540 kg/ha in the average of six treatments (Table 3) was reached by variety Smart compared to hybrid Toccata. The way of S fertilization impacted the two investigated oilseed rapes differently. Yield responses were not consistent among cultivars in the experiment by Asare and Scarisbrick (1995), too. It seems that in our experiment S fertilization did not impacted seed yield at variety Smart, while positive effects of gypsum applications at sowing (50 kg/ha or 20 kg/ha S) were detected at hybrid Toccata, although the differences could not be statistically confirmed. It was detected that S fertilization in spring reflected in lower yields of grain at hybrid Toccata, but the differences in the yields compared to the control could not be statistically confirmed. Probably S content in soil at the conduction of the experiment was high enough, so additional S fertilization did not impacted yield importantly.

In the experiment by Donald et al. (1993) there were no significant effects on crop yield as a result of applied S, probably due to a significant input of atmospheric S in that year, as the authors concluded. On the other hand in the experiment by Withers and Odonnell (1994) seed yield of double-low winter oilseed rape was significantly improved by S applications by 10-17% on sandy soils with severe S deficiency symptoms, while seed yield was consistently but not significant increased by an average of 8% on a shallow calcareous soil which did not show S deficiency symptoms. The effect of S on the yield was significant in the experiment by McGrath and Zhao (1996). The yield benefits were obtained mainly from the application of the first 10 kg/ha S and further yield increases were unlikely above 40 kg/ha S. At the same time seed yield was not increased by S at zero or low (up to 100 kg/ha N) N rates.

At the variety Smart slight better results were indicated when sulphur fertilizers were applied at sowing compared to spring applications (Figure 1). At hybrid Toccata better results were indicated gypsum compared to K₂SO₄. At variants where sulphur fertilizers were applied in spring, lower yields were detected maybe because these two treatments were damaged by snow in March the most. Split amount of sulphur in the form of gypsum resulted in the lowest yield at the cultivar and the highest at the hybrid. This occurrence should be subject for the following investigations.

Table 3: Yields of grain (DM), oil content (%), oil yield (kg/ha), crude protein content (%) and protein yield (kg/ha) at winter oilseed rape (variety Smart and hybrid Toccata; Slovenian Institute of Hop Research and Brewing, June, 2007)

Fertilization by sulphur	Yield of grain (kg/ha DM)		Oil content (%)		Oil yield (kg/ha)		Crude proteins (%)		Crude proteins (kg/ha)	
	Cultivar Smart	Hybrid Toccata	Cultivar Smart	Hybrid Toccata	Cultivar Smart	Hybrid Toccata	Cultivar Smart	Hybrid Toccata	Cultivar Smart	Hybrid Toccata
No fertilization by sulphur	3887 a*	3106 a	44.2 a	40.9 ab	1718	1269	17.4 a	18.1 a	700	600
Gypsum at sowing (50 kg/ha S)	3846 a	3861 a	43.4 a	42.4 b	1671	1637	16.0 a	18.1 a	653	731
K ₂ SO ₄ at sowing (50 kg/ha S)	3982 a	3080 a	43.6 a	39.1 a	1737	1204	17.8 a	18.3 a	701	561
Gypsum in spring (50 kg/ha S)	3617 a	2437 a	42.8 a	39.7 ab	1547	967	16.6 a	18.8 a	669	450
K ₂ SO ₄ in spring (50 kg/ha S)	3797 a	2827 a	44.3 a	39.7 ab	1682	1123	18.5 a	18.2 a	699	530
Gypsum at sowing (20 kg/ha S) and in spring (30 kg/ha S)	3241 a	3874 a	42.3 a	38.9 a	1372	1508	15.5 a	18.4 a	574	758

* The same letter in the column indicates that there is no significant difference between treatments (Duncan multiple range test, $p<0.05$).

3.2 Protein content and protein yield

There were no significant differences among treatments in the crude protein content, while there were important differences among blocks - soil characteristics had an important impact on the crude protein content; in the third block the average value of all six treatments was lower compared to the average value of the first and the second block what brought high variability in the results. At the cultivar Smart a

trend of increasing crude protein content was detected with postponing the time of sulfur fertilization, while no such trend was detected at the hybrid Toccata. Exceeding sulphur rate caused lowering in the crude protein content; at the variant 10x S (500 kg/ha S in the form of gypsum) 14.8% of crude protein content was detected.

At the cultivar Smart S fertilization seemed to impact rather negatively on the protein yield, but the differences among treatments could not be statistically confirmed (Table 3). At the hybrid Toccata gypsum as the source of S gave better results compared to K_2SO_4 when observing protein yield, but differences among treatments could not be statistically confirmed. Protein yield was impacted positively by gypsum applications at sowing or in a split dose, while spring application of gypsum in a whole dose of S reflected in lowering its protein yield. Applications of the whole amount of S in spring reflected in lowering the protein yield compared to the control (no S fertilization).

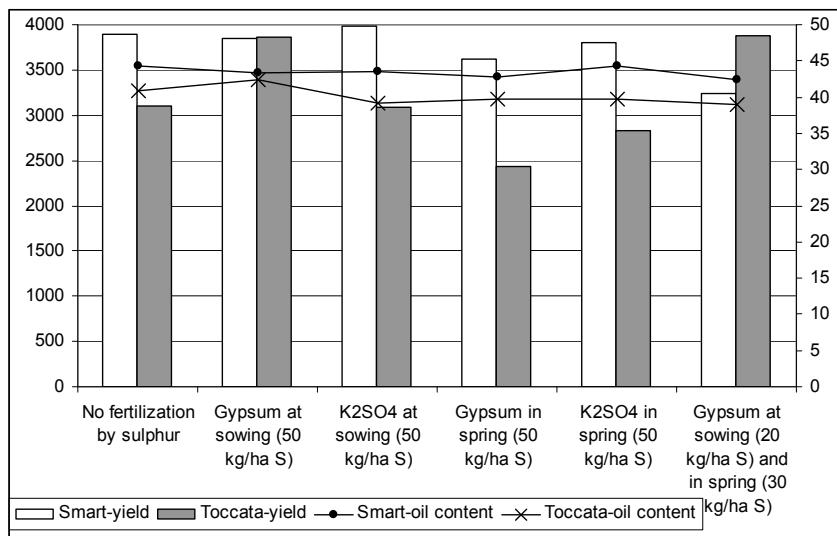


Figure 1: Yield (kg/ha DM) and oil content (% DM) at oilseed rape cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata (Slovenian Institute of Hop Research and Brewing, June 2007)

3.3 Oil content and oil yield

There was higher oil content at the cultivar Smart compared to the hybrid Toccata by 3.32% in the average of six treatments. There were no differences in oil content among treatments at the cultivar Smart while it seemed that gypsum applications at sowing positively impacted oil content at the hybrid Toccata. The latest could not be said in the case of split gypsum applications and applications of K_2SO_4 .

In the experiment by Zhao et al. (1993) applications of S had no significant influences on seed yield and oil content at the S-sufficient site while at the S-deficient site there were significant interactions between S and N on seed yield. Application of S increased oil content in one of three investigated seasons when the degree of S deficiency was particularly severe in the experiment by McGrath and Zhao (1996). The S treatments (0-80 kg/ha S) decreased oil content by an average maximum of 9 mg/g in the experiment by Withers and Odonnell (1994). Sulphur application did not influence oil contents in the experiment by Asare and Scarisbrick (1995).

Samples of oil with the highest and the lowest oil content at both included oilseed rapes were analysed on the presence of fatty acids (Table 4). There were no detectable differences between the samples of the same oilseed rape, while there were differences between cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata. The difference appeared in the content of oleic acid which represented the highest share in oils in all cases. It seems that at the hybrid Toccata higher share of nonsaturated fatty acids is formed compared to the cultivar Smart.

Table 4: Fatty acids content (%) at the cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata (Slovenian Institute of Hop Research and Brewing, June, 2007)

	Cultivar Smart (%)		Hybrid Toccata (%)	
	Maximal	Minimal	Maximal	Minimal
C 16:0 (palmitic acid)	4.6	4.6	4.8	4.7
C 18:0 (stearic acid)	1.7	1.5	1.6	1.3
C 18:1 (oleic acid)	67.1	66.8	64.7	63.7
C 18:2 (linoleic acid)	16.7	16.5	19.1	18.7
C 18:3 (linolenic acid)	7.9	7.5	8.0	8.0

Oil yield was comparable between the control and when applying K_2SO_4 at sowing, all the other variants of S fertilization seemed to lower oil yield at cultivar Smart. At hybrid Toccata gypsum as the source of S gave better results compared to control or K_2SO_4 as the source of S, while application of gypsum in a split dose reflected in the lowest oil yield at that hybrid, but the differences among treatments could not be statistically confirmed.

4 CONCLUSIONS

Applications of 50 kg/ha S in the form of gypsum did not significantly impacted the yield of seed (Duncan multiple range test, $p<0.05$) at the two investigated cultivars of oilseed rapes (cultivar Smart and hybrid Toccata). At cultivar Smart negative impact of spring fertilization by sulphur was detected, while there was a positive impact of gypsum applications at sowing at hybrid Toccata. Oil content was higher

at cultivar Smart compared to hybrid Toccata by 3.32%. At cultivar Smart oil content was relatively the same at all six investigated variants (42.3% to 44.3%), at hybrid Toccata differences in oil content among variants were significant (38.9% to 42.4%). At cultivar Smart no fertilization variant impacted importantly the yield of oil, at hybrid Toccata positive impact of spring fertilization by sulphur on the yield of oil was detected. Oil yield was importantly higher at cultivar Smart compared to the hybrid Toccata. Protein content was not impacted by sulphur applications, it was higher at hybrid Toccata compared to cultivar Smart by 1.35%. Because of the higher seed yield at cultivar Smart protein yield was higher at the latest compared to the hybrid Toccata. Different responses of oilseed rape to sulphur applications are reported by other authors, too. The share of linoleic acid was higher at hybrid Toccata by 2.2% to 2.4%, the share of oleic acid was higher at cultivar Smart by 2.2% to 3.1%, shares of other investigated acids did not differ a lot between Smart and Toccata.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0002-9

Agrovoc descriptors: aphidoidea, biological control, hymenoptera, natural enemies, beneficial organisms, parasitoids, biological control agents, *aphidius matricariae*, vegetables

Agris category codes: H10

University of Ljubljana
Biotechnical Faculty
Department of Agronomy

COBISS Code 1.01

Aphids (Aphididae) and their parasitoids in selected vegetable ecosystems in Slovenia

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Received November 10, 2007, accepted April 28, 2007.

Delo je prispelo 10. novembra 2007; sprejeto 28. aprila 2007

ABSTRACT

Sucking insects, which representatives are also aphids, can cause important economic damage on cultivated and wild-growing plants in vegetable ecosystems. Our research was based on the aim of biological control, which is to limit or to control the pests with the use of their natural enemies. From April to November 2006 living aphids and their mummies were sampled together with their host plants in four locations in Slovenia. The samples have been taken from vegetables, weeds, within-crops plants and from the plants in the field borders. The occurrence of 18 aphid species was confirmed - 14 of them were parasitised. In our research 365 parasitoid specimens (17 species from 8 genera - *Aphidius*, *Binodoxys*, *Diaeretiella*, *Ephedrus*, *Lipolexis*, *Lysiphlebus*, *Monoctonus*, and *Praon* - of the family Aphidiidae) were recorded and identified. The most abundant parasitoid species were *Aphidius matricariae* (32.2 %) and *Lysiphlebus fabarum* (29.3 %). Parasitoid *L. fabarum* had the widest range of hosts; it parasitised aphids on the plants from 7 different botanical families. Sex ratio in our research confirmed the known fact, that in natural ecosystems female parasitoids are more numerous than the male parasitoids; this ratio in our research was 71 % : 29 %.

Key words: aphids, Aphididae, biological control, Hymenoptera, natural enemies, parasitoids, *Aphidius matricariae*, *Lysiphlebus fabarum*

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IZVLEČEK

PRAVE LISTNE UŠI (Aphididae) IN NJIHOVI PARAZITOIDI V IZBRANIH VRTNARSKIH EKOSISTEMIH SLOVENIJE

Sesajoče žuželke, med katere spadajo tudi prave listne uši, lahko povzročajo pomembno gospodarsko škodo na gojenih in samoniklih rastlinah v vrtnarskih ekosistemih. V naši raziskavi smo se opirali na cilj biotičnega varstva rastlin, ki je z naravnimi sovražniki omejiti oziroma zatrepi škodljivce. Od aprila do novembra 2006 smo na štirih lokacijah v Sloveniji vzorčili žive listne uši in ušje mumije na gostiteljskih rastlinah. Vzorce smo nabirali na vrtninah, plevelih, medsevkih in robnih posevkih. Ugotovili smo zastopanost 18 vrst pravih listnih uši, kar 14 vrst pa je bilo parazitiranih. V nabranih vzorcev smo identificirali 365 osebkov parazitoidov listnih uši, ki so pripadali 17 različnim vrstam iz 8 rodov (*Aphidius*, *Binodoxys*, *Daeeretiella*, *Ephedrus*, *Lipolexis*, *Lysiphlebus*, *Monoctonus* in *Praon*) družine Aphidiidae. Najbolj množično sta se pojavljali vrsti *Aphidius matricariae* (32,2 %) in *Lysiphlebus fabarum* (29,3 %). Vrsta *L. fabarum* je imela tudi najširši spekter gostiteljev in je parazitirala uši na rastlinskih vrstah iz 7 različnih botaničnih družin. Če številčno primerjamo zastopanost spolov, lahko potrdimo znano dejstvo, da je število samic v naravi večje od števila samcev; v naši raziskavi je bilo omenjeno razmerje 71 % : 29 %.

Ključne besede: prave listne uši (Aphididae), biotično varstvo rastlin, Hymenoptera, naravni sovražniki, parazitoidi, *Aphidius matricariae*, *Lysiphlebus fabarum*

1 INTRODUCTION

Aphids are an important group of plant insect pests. They have a high biological potential with some of aphids species (Aphididae) having more than ten generations in one year (Iversen and Harding, 2007). Because of their direct (sucking) and indirect (transmission of viruses and honeydew secretion) damage on cultivated and wild-growing plants, the producers of plant food, ornamental plants and feed for livestock control them in different ways. The most frequently mentioned control methods are spraying the plants with insecticides (Parker *et al.*, 2006), the use of corresponding agrotechnical measures and in a lower extent the use of biological control agents (Du *et al.*, 2004). In Slovenia, an exact number of aphid species is not known yet, but it is well known that producers most commonly control the aphids with the use of insecticides. This fact is influenced by relatively modest knowledge of producers about the biological control agents although this field of plant protection is systematically studied at the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana from the beginning of the nineties of the past century (Milevoj, 1991, 1992, 1996, 1997; Trdan *et al.*, 2006).

Among natural enemies of aphids, parasitoids have an important place (Tomanović and Brajković, 2001). Parasitoid is an insect, which larvae feed exclusively on or within the body of the host, which is always killed at the end. Only one host is needed for completion of the life cycle of a parasitoid, but usually more parasitoids are developed in one host. Parasitoids are specialized in selecting their host and are - compared to the hosts - relatively big. Usually are parasitoids only in the stage of larva, meanwhile adult specimens are free-living and they feed with nectar of the plants and honeydew of the aphids (Minks in Harrewijn, 1988; Godfray, 1994). Parasitoids of aphids are mainly oligophagous or polyphagous. After the general classification less than one third from the total number of the species are monophagous (Starý, 1970). It is a known fact that adult parasitoids are frequently

more sensitive on synthetic insecticides than their hosts (Hoffmann in Frodsham, 1993), what is worthy to consider when choosing the methods for controlling aphids.

The aim of our research was to identify and document parasitoid species of different noxious aphids in vegetable ecosystems and to find connections between species of aphids, their parasitoids and host plants. Prior to the beginning of present study it was known that parasitoids in Slovenia, in a contrast to some other groups of natural enemies, are poorly studied and that we need more information about them, specially in a relation to the future production of food. For latter it is foreseeing that it will supported more than till now with environmentally friendly systems of production.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

The sampling took place from 20 April till 27 November 2006 in vegetable ecosystems on four different locations; namely at the Laboratory field of Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana, in Zalog, Velenje and Želimlje. Aphids, their parasitoids and host plants were collected on cultivated and wild-growing plants (Kos, 2007).

While sampling parasitoids, we modified the method according to the life cycle of parasitoids in their hosts (after Brajković in Tomanović, 2005). Parasitoids develop in yet living aphids, that is way we collected living aphids and their mummies in plastic pots, together with their host plants. The pots were covered with nylon patch, which enabled air flow and at the same time prevented the escape of aphids and later flown out parasitoids. The samples were marked with the successive number of sample, date of sampling and location (place of collecting) (Figure 1). Additionally, we annotated also species of host plants, on which the samples were collected.

The samples of aphids for an identification were kept in an Eppendorf tube (1.5 ml) together with 70 % solution of ethanol. Each tube was marked with the number of sample according to the number on the pot. Because of the easier identification we gathered only bigger specimens of winged and non-winged aphids.



Figure 1: Schematic diagram of pot for collecting aphids, their mummies and host plants.

We left pots closed for 2 to 3 weeks, in some cases even longer, so that the wasps flew out from the mummies and died. Afterwards we put the content of the pot on the white surface and

separated the parasitoids with the brush from the rest of the content. The parasitoids were kept in the vessels, which were marked with the corresponding number of the sample. Identification of aphids was performed on the Faculty of Agriculture in Zemun and identification of parasitoids was done on the Faculty of Biology in Belgrade.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

We sampled aphids on 36 different host plants from 13 botanical families. The very same or related species of host plants we treated in the experiment repeatedly in growing season. We found parasitoids on 27 species of host plants from 10 families; higher number of parasitoids were recorded in samples, which were collected in the open.

Table 1: Check-list of the species, sex ratio and total number of parasitoids recorded in our research.

Parasitoid	Female		Male		Total	% from the total number
	nr.	%	nr.	%		
<i>Aphidius absinthii</i> Marshall	2	100	0	0	2	0.6
<i>Aphidius funebris</i> Mackauer	3	75	1	25	4	1.1
<i>Aphidius matricariae</i> (Haliday)	76	64	42	36	118	32.3
<i>Aphidius salicis</i> Haliday	6	54	5	46	11	3.0
<i>Binodoxys acalephae</i> (Marshall)	16	80	4	20	20	5.5
<i>Binodoxys angelicae</i> (Haliday)	18	75	6	25	24	6.5
<i>Binodoxys centaurea</i> (Haliday)	3	50	3	50	6	1.6
<i>Binodoxys heraclei</i> (Haliday)	2	50	2	50	4	1.1
<i>Diaeretiella rapae</i> (McIntosh)	10	42	14	58	24	6.5
<i>Ephedrus plagiator</i> (Nees)	2	40	3	60	5	1.4
<i>Lipolexis gracilis</i> Förster	4	50	4	50	8	2.2
<i>Lysiphlebus fabarum</i> (Marshal)	104	97	3	3	107	29.3
<i>Monoctonus crepidis</i> (Haliday)	1	100	0	0	1	0.3
<i>Praon abjectum</i> (Haliday)	1	100	0	0	1	0.3
<i>Praon barbatum</i> Mackauer	0	0	1	100	1	0.3
<i>Praon volucre</i> (Haliday)	6	46	7	54	13	3.6
<i>Praon yomenae</i> Takada	6	37.5	10	62.5	16	4.4
Total	260	71	105	29	365	100

We determined the presence of 18 aphid species and 14 of them were parasitised. We identified 365 specimens of parasitoids from 17 species and 8 genera of the family Aphidiidae (Table 1). The most frequent were aphids from the genus *Aphis* and these were also the most frequently parasitised. From the parasitoids the most frequent were *Aphidius matricariae* (Haliday) (32.2 %) and *Lysiphlebus fabarum* (Marshall) (29.3 %) (Figure 2). Females were more numerous than males, while from the total number of entrapped specimens 71 % were females.

3.1 Family Fabaceae

L. fabarum parasitised black bean aphid (*Aphis fabae* Scopoli), *Praon barbatum* parasitised pea aphid (*Acyrthosiphon pisum* [Harris]) and *Bionodoxys angelicae* parasitised aphid species from genus *Aphis*.

3.2 Family Asteraceae

From the mummies of aphid *Uroleucon cichorii* (Koch) the parasitoids *Aphidius funebris* and *Praon yomena* developed; aphid *U. hypochoeridis* (Fabricius) was parasitised from *P. yomena* and species *Macrosiphoniella millefolii* (DeGeer) was parasitised from *Aphidius absinthii* and *Binodoxys centaurea*. Black bean aphid was parasitised on Asteraceae plants from *Lysiphlebus fabarum*, and aphid *Aphis fabae cirsiiacanthoides* Scopoli from *B. acalephae*, *B. angelicae* and *Lipolexis gracilis*. From the mummies of green peach aphid (*Myzus persicae* [Sulzer]) the parasitoids of *A. matricariae* developed. From undetermined representatives of genus *Uroleucon* specimens of parasitoid *P. volucre* hatched, while from undetermined representatives of genus *Aphis* parasitoids *A. matricariae* and *L. fabarum* hatched.

On the host plants from the family Asteraceae we found the greatest number of aphids, eight, and also the highest number of parasitoids, namely ten.



Figure 2: Parasitoids *Lysiphlebus fabarum* (left, photo: K. Kos) and *Aphidius matricariae* (right, photo: Ž. Tomanović).

3.3. Families Polygonaceae and Chenopodiaceae

Black bean aphid was parasitised from *L. fabarum*.

3.4. Family Apiaceae

Aphid *Cavariella aegopodii* (Scopoli) was parasitised from *A. salicis* and *B. heraclei* and green peach aphid was parasitised from *A. matricariae*, *Ephedrus plagiator* and *P. abjectum*. From the mummies of aphid *Aulacorthum solani* (Kaltenbach) parasitoids *A. matricariae*, *E. plagiator* and *P. abjectum* flew out.

3.5. Family Cucurbitaceae

Undetermined specimens from genus *Aphis* were parasitised from *L. fabarum* and *B. angelicae*.

3.6 Family Solanaceae

Aphid *Aulacorthum solani* was parasitised from *A. matricariae* and from the mummies of unidentified representatives of genus *Aphis* parasitoides *L. gracilis*, *L. fabarum*, *A. matricariae* and *B. angelicae* flew out.

3.7. Family Boraginaceae

Aphid *Brachycaudus cardui* (L.) was parasitised from *L. fabarum* and *B. angelicae*.

3.8. Family Brassicaceae

D. rapae was determined as parasitoid of aphids *M. persicae* and *Brevicoryne brassicae* (L.), meanwhile for parasitoids *A. matricariae* and *E. plagiator* we found out that they flew out of specimens of green peach aphid.

3.9. Family Valerianaceae

Myzus persicae was parasitised from *A. matricariae*.

Parasitoid *Lysiphlebus fabarum* parasitised the aphids, which appeared on plant species from seven botanical families: Asteraceae, Fabaceae, Solanaceae, Cucurbitaceae, Polygonaceae, Boraginaceae, and Chenopodiaceae. On the territory of Serbia and Montenegro more than 40 hosts of parasitoid *L. fabarum* is known and they are found on cultivated and wild-growing plants from eight families (Tomanović, 1998; Tomanović and Brajković, 2001).

Binodoxys angelicae and *Aphidius matricariae* parasitised aphids from five families of host plants. Parasitoid *B. angelicae* appeared on the hosts from families Asteraceae, Solanaceae, Fabaceae, Cucurbitaceae and Boraginaceae, while *A. matricariae* appeared on the plants from the families Asteraceae, Brassicaceae, Solanaceae, Apiaceae and Valerianaceae.

4 CONCLUSIONS

The research, which results we represent in a present paper, is a continuation and proportion widening of first investigations of parasitoids on aphids in Slovenia. Latter, which were conducted in the nineties of the past century, namely handeled parasitoids *Aphytis matricariae* and *Diaeretiella rapae* on the aphid *Rhopalosiphum padi* (L.) (Milevoj, 1992) and parasitoid *Aphelinus asychis* (Walker) on green peach aphid (Milevoj, 1996).

Due to desire for intensive incorporation of biological control in plant protection into the systems of food and ornamental plants production in Slovenia, we want to gain as much information about the abundance and economical importance of different groups of natural enemies as we can. In the framework of the present research we confirmed high diversity of aphid parasitoids from order Hymenoptera in four locations. We ascertain that different species of parasitoids attack different species of aphids on different plant hosts. One of the reason for this we attribute to the known fact that many species of parasitoids are not capable to distinguish between volatile substances, which are excreted by attacked or non-attacked plants (Wyckhuys and Heimpel, 2007). On plant diversified crops (intercropping, strip cropping, trap cropping, weeded fields etc.) the diversity and species richness of natural enemies is higher due to the presence of alternative hosts. These hosts represent source of food and place of refuge to the parasitoids (Bianchi *et al.*, 2006).

Results of our research exhibit great species diversity and wide circulation of parasitoids in vegetable ecosystems on selected locations in Slovenia. That is way we must devote them more attention in the future; as in the framework of research work, as in the actual care for their conservation or even for the increase of their abundance in agroecosystems. The last we can achieve with the application of non-systemic insecticides in controlling aphids or with the implementation of environmentally friendly systems of plant production (Verkerk *et al.*, 1998).

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0003-8

Agrovoc descriptors: linum usitatissimum, flax, fibre crops, linseed, oil crops, spacing, stems, crop yield, organic agriculture, biodiversity, cultural heritage

Agris category codes: F01, F50

University of Ljubljana
Biotechnical Faculty
Department of Agronomy

COBISS Code 1.01

Influence of row spacing on the yield of two flax cultivars (*Linum usitatissimum* L.)

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Received April 25, 2008; accepted May 8, 2008
Delo je prispelo 25. aprila 2008; sprejeto 8. maja 2008

ABSTRACT

In the period 2003-2006 we have performed block trials with two flax (*Linum usitatissimum*) cultivars: RBK cultivar (domestic flax population from Raztresen farm in Bela Krajina) and Laura cultivar (fibre-type-flax from the Common Catalogue of EU). The trial was carried out at the Experimental Field at the Biotechnical Faculty of Ljubljana (Slovenia). The two cultivars were sown in the first decade of April with manual sowing machine to the row spacing of 8.5 cm, 17 cm and 34 cm. Crop care was traditional. The plants were plucked at the end of the yellow maturity (the last decade of July). There was no significant difference between the average yields of stems produced at the row spacing of 8.5 cm (1.92 t/ha) and 17 cm (1.99 t/ha), but significantly the lowest yield was reached at the row spacing of 34 cm (1.52 t/ha). In the period of 4 years the average yield of stems that was reached by the RBK cultivar was 1.83 t/ha, and the one reached by the Laura cultivar was unsignificantly lower (1.79 t/ha). Compared to the average yield of the flaxseed from both cultivars produced at the row spacing of 8.5 cm (1.34 t/ha) and 34 cm (1.01 t/ha), the average yield of the seeds obtained from the 17 cm row spacing was significantly the highest (1.52 t/ha); for 0.11 t seed/ha the RBK cultivar (1.35 t/ha) was significantly more productive than the Laura cultivar. The influence of growing conditions to the yield of stems and seed was most favourable in the year of the drought (2003), when - with the cultivar RBK and at the row spacing of 17 cm - we produced significantly the highest quantity of stems (2.64 t/ha) and seeds (1.93 t/ha). We discovered that the unbranched stem of the RBK cultivar corresponds to the fibre-type-flax, the height of plants (50 to 60 cm), absolute mass (6.3 to 6.8 g) and the yield of the seed (above 1 t/ha) show good biological capability for the seed production. Production and processing of flax should not remain just an attractive cultural and historical presentation of this activity at some tourist farms in Bela Krajina (JV of Slovenia); it should also present a challenge to young farmers to find the place for this crop in organic production of food and other raw materials with the use of mechanisation and modern technological procedures. The production and processing of flax presents the possibility for increased biotic diversity of the cultural landscape and revitalization of rural areas.

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Key words: flax, *Linum usitatissimum*, domestic flax population, cultivar, fibre-type-flax, seed-type-flax, linseed and fibre types, intermediate-type-flax, dual purpose cultivars, field trial, row spacing, seed yield, stem yield, Slovenia

IZVLEČEK

VPLIV MEDVRSTNEGA RAZMIKA NA PRIDELEK STEBEL IN SEMENA LANU (*Linum usitatissimum* L.)

Na poskusnem polju Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani (Slovenija) so bili v obdobju 2003-2006 izvedeni bločni poljski poskusi s kultivarjem lanu (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) RBK (domača populacija lanu s kmetije Raztresen v Beli Krajini) in Laura (vlaknati tip lanu iz Skupnega kataloga kultivarjev poljščin EU). Lan je bil v vseh letih posejan v prvi dekadi aprila z ročno sejalnico na medvrstni razmik 8,5 cm, 17 cm in 34 cm. Oskrba posevka je bila tradicionalna. Rastline smo populili konec rumene zrelosti (zadnja dekada julija). Med povprečnima pridelkoma stebel pri razmiku 8,5 cm (1,92 t/ha) in 17 cm (1,99 t/ha) ni bilo značilnih razlik, značilno najmanjši pridelek stebel pa je lan dosegel pri razmiku 34 cm (1,52 t/ha). Povprečni pridelek stebel v obdobju 4 let je pri kultivarju RBK znašal 1,83 t/ha, pri kultivarju Laura pa je bil neznačilno manjši, to je 1,79 t/ha. V primerjavi s povprečnim pridelkom semena obeh kultivarjev pri razmiku 8,5 cm (1,34 t/ha) in 34 cm (1,01 t/ha), je bil povprečni pridelek semena pri razmiku 17 cm značilno največji (1,52 t/ha); kultivar RBK (1,35 t/ha) je bil za 0,11 t semena/ha značilno produktivnejši od kultivarja Laura. Vpliv rastnih razmer na pridelek stebel in semena je bil najbolj ugoden v najbolj sušnem letu (2003), ko smo pri razmiku 17 cm s kultivarjem RBK pridelali značilno največ stebel (2,64 t/ha) in semena (1,93 t/ha). Ugotovili smo, da nerazvijeno steblo kultivarja RBK sicer ustreza vlaknatomu tipu lanu, višina rastlin (50 do 60 cm), absolutna masa (6,3 do 6,8 g) in pridelek semena (nad 1 t/ha) pa kažejo na dobro biološko zmogljivost za pridelavo semen. Pridelava in predelava lanu ne sme ostati le privlačen kulturno-zgodovinski prikaz te dejavnosti na nekaterih turističnih kmetijah v Beli Krajini (JV Slovenija), ampak tudi izliv za mlade, da s pomočjo mehaniziranih in sodobnih tehnoloških postopkov tej poljščini najdejo mesto v ekoški pridelavi hrane in neprehranskih surovin. Navsezadnjie je pridelava in predelava lanu možnost za večjo biotsko pestrost kulturne krajine in ohranjanje poseljenosti podeželja.

Ključne besede: lan, *Linum usitatissimum*, domača populacija, kultivar, vlaknati tip lanu, semenski tip lanu, mešani tip lanu, poljski poskus, medvrstni razmik, pridelek semena, pridelek stebel

1 INTRODUCTION

Flax (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) is universally useful fibre and oilseed plant (Sadar, 1935, 1951). Production and processing of fibres and linseed reach far back into the period of the ancient civilizations, their achievements were the basis for the progress until today.

Production of flax for fibres and seed at Ljubljana marsh (Ljubljansko barje) was known from the period of »koliščarji« (people who lived on crannogs) approximately 2000 B.C. At the area of Slovenia flax was the most widespread in the 18th and in the beginning of the 19th century, when it covered at least 6000 ha, production of flax products was a very profitable craft (Bogataj, 1989; Maček, 1993). At the end of the 19th century, the traditional manual flax production and processing of stems into fibres, that was not mechanised on time, was replaced by cotton from tropical areas, which was cheaper and more suitable for machine processing and also by the development and production of synthetic fibres (Sadar, 1951; Kvader Malej, 1992; Rengeo, 1995; Gagro, 1998; Kocjan Ačko, 1998,

1999ab; Štimac, 2004). During the first half of the 20th century, 1000 ha of fields were sown by flax, but after the second world war farmers gradually abandoned its production. Sadar (1951) states, that farmers mostly sow the dual purpose cultivars of flax. They used it for the traditional production of both - stems and flaxseed, the average yield – 0.5 t stems/ha and 0.5 t flaxseed/ha was lower, compared to the sole purpose production – either for the stems or for the flaxseed.

The modern flax cultivars were developed regarding the purpose of use, that is fibre-type-flax or seed-type-flax. Fibre type flax is usually higher with less lateral branches, has longer fibres in the stem but lower yield of the seed. The intermediate-type-flax, that combines characteristics of both types is characteristic for indigenous cultivars, that are still preserved in areas with traditional production. Average world yield of the linseed in the period 2000 to 2006 reached from 0.7 t to 0.9 t/ha, in the same period the average yield of fibre including the tow was between 1.1 to 2 t/ha.

In Slovenia the traditional production and processing of flax still exists only on some tourist farms in Bela Krajina (around Adlešiči), where it mostly has the educational, cultural and historical importance (Kocjan Ačko, 2003; Štimac, 2004; Rožanc Nanut, 2007). Farmers there sow the flax within the 5 to 7 year crop rotation, they use traditional crop care with no synthetic mineral fertilisers and pesticides, which is in harmony with all standards of organic production. Decades ago they used livestock to prepare the land for sowing, which is now replaced by the use of machines, but the sowing is still performed manually crosswise. Weediness of crop is reduced by the crop rotation and manual 2 to 3-time weeding. Like in the past, the main flax product are the fibres, at the same time also flaxseed is produced, used for re-sowing and nutrition, to variegate the food, mainly bakers wares, its healing purpose is preserved by drinks and teas.

On the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana we started the research of agritechnical procedures in flax production for the purpose of revitalization and modernization of stem and seed production in 2003. The purpose of the field trials in the period 2003-2006 was to study the influence of row spacing to the yield of stems and seed for the two flax cultivars with the goal to determine the most suitable combination for the widespread production in Slovenia. Since the living space that flax needs for its growth and development depends on the purpose of production, we followed the previous findings of foreign experts, when sowing in rows. When we sow in rows the fibre type flax, the row spacing of 6 to 10 cm was introduced, on the other side, for the seed type flax bigger spacing is required, that is 20 to 40 cm. Since simultaneous production of stems and seed is no longer so common and widespread, we considered Sadar's (1951) recommendations, who believed that for such cases 15 to 20 cm is the most suitable row spacing. From the research of Easson and Molloy (2000), Weighman and Kindred (2005), Butorac et al. (2006), and Burton (2007) it is clearly seen that the sowing density (number of plants per m²), quantity of seed for sowing (kg/ha) together with the row spacing have the important influence on the yield of stems, fibre and linseed. We wanted to test all the abovementioned facts with our research.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Location and material

Field trials were performed in the period 2003-2006 on the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana (46°04'N, 14°31'E, 299 alt.), Slovenia. In every year the seed of two cultivars was sown according to the random block method in three repetitions. The size of individual parcel was 1 m x 4 m (4 m²). The trials covered the domestic flax population from Bela Krajina and the Dutch cultivar Laura, entered in the EU Common catalogue of crop cultivars and declared for the fibre production. The seed of the domestic flax cultivar that was obtained from organic turistic farm Raztresen in the Jankoviči village near Adlešiči in Bela Krajina, was named the RBK cultivar.

2.2 Agrotechnique, field trials, plant observations and evaluation

Weediness, which is very common in the crops of flax on lands that were previously cultivated and sown with grains, was reduced by sowing flax after the root crops; during the years 2003 and 2005 the previous crop was the sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) and in years 2004 and 2006, the potato (*Solanum tuberosum* L.). Since flax has the tendency to lodging and due to demands of organic production we have chosen not to use any direct fertilizing with mineral or organic fertilizers. Previous crops were fertilized with 20 t of manure/ha and 100 kg KAN (27 % N)/ha. Land treatment included autumn ploughing and spring pre-sowing treatment.

All trials were sown in the first decade of April (2nd April in 2003, 6th April in 2004, 10th April in 2005 and 3rd April in 2006) with the manually operated sowing machine Wintersteiger with the operating width of 1 m. Seed of both cultivars was sown at three different row spacings: 8.5, 17 in 34 cm. In individual row, the spacing was from 2 to 3 cm, the depth of sowing was approximately 1 cm. Approximately 0.5 m wide paths were left between the parcels, protective zone was sown around the experimental field. For the 8.5 cm row spacing, 12 rows were sown on individual parcel, for the medium spacing (17 cm) 6 rows were sown, and for 34 cm row spacing three rows were sown. Despite the excellent seed quality (95 to 100%), the crust, that occurred immediately after sowing, prevented equal germination and growth. That is why we filled in the missing parts with manual re-sowing when the plants were approximately 5 cm high. Weediness, mostly at the 17 cm and 34 cm row spacings, was reduced with manual weeding and hoeing, for the first time when the plants were 10 to 20 cm high and the second time before blooming. Lodging was evaluated at the beginning of the yellow maturity and we have established that in the year 2003 there was no lodging of the crop; in the following years we detected only slight tendency to lodging in the case of dense sowing, but there were no differences between the cultivars.

We have been monitoring the growth and development, the plants were manually plucked in the middle of the yellow maturity of stems from every parcel separately, that is on the 28th of July in 2003, on the 25th July in 2004, on the 28th July in 2005 and on the 29th of July in 2006. For twenty plants we have measured the stem height, that is the distance from the cotyledone node to the highest head in inflorescence and we counted the lateral branches. Plants that were laid down on the parcel were tied in sheafs after 3 to 4 hours and then put into the jutebags. After one month the seed, leaves and husks were shaken off from dry sheafs and from the rest of stems the seed heads were stripped off, crushed and the seed was cleaned and weighted. We measured the humidity of the seed samples of each cultivar from all three row spacings with the Pfeuffer he 50 hygrometer. The yield was calculated to 10% seed humidity. Every year, using the standard ISTA procedure, we analysed the absolute mass of produced linseed for each individual cultivar, considering different row spacing. We also weighted the dry crop of stems with no leaves and seeds. For easier comparison with stems and seed yields, reached in practice, the yields from the experiment were calculated to tons per hectare.

2.3 Data analysis

All the data about the stem and seed yield (t/ha) for the two flax cultivars were analysed using a general analysis of variance (the results of the yield from three different ways of sowing for all years of the trials were pooled) and individual analysis of variance (the results of the yield

for only one way of sowing were treated). Means were separated by Student-Newman-Keuls's multiple range test at $P < 0.05$. Before analysis, each variable was tested for homogeneity of treatment variances. If variances were non-homogeneous, data was transformed to $\log(Y)$ before ANOVA. All statistical analysis was performed with Stat graphics Plus for Windows 4.0 (Statistical Graphics Corp., Manugistics, Inc.). Data is presented as un-transformed means \pm SE.

2.4 Weather conditions in the period 2003 to 2006

Average monthly air temperature in the period April-June per individual year was at the 30-year average, that is for April ($10.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$), for May ($16\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) and for June ($20.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$). Average July temperature ($22.1\text{ }^{\circ}\text{C}$) was above the long term average (Mesečni agrometeorološki bilten..., 2003-2006). Contrary to the temperature data, the analysis of average monthly precipitation in Ljubljana from April to July showed important differences between months and years. The most significant were deviations in 2003, when the average quantity of precipitations from April to July were only 222 mm, compared to the years with more precipitation; 579 mm in 2004, 442 mm in 2005, and 449 mm in 2006. Compared to dry spring in 2003 (in March there was only 3 mm precipitations, in April 81 mm, in May 66 mm and in June 63 mm), there was more rain in the year 2004 (171 mm, 110 mm, and 172 mm), similarly in the years 2005 (119 mm, 97 mm and 84 mm) and 2006 (121 mm, 177 mm and 46 mm). The average July quantity of precipitations per individual years were also comparable, that is 120 mm (2003), 126 mm (2004), 142 mm (2005) and 105 mm (2006).

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 The analysis of the results of the linseed and stem yield regarding the year of the experiment, row spacing and cultivar

With the general statistical analysis we determined that the year of the experiment, row spacing (for both $P < 0.0001$) and cultivar ($P < 0.0039$) all had the significant influence to the yield of the linseed. Significantly the highest yield of linseed was recorded in the years 2003 ($1.33 \pm 0.10\text{ t/ha}$) and 2004 ($1.43 \pm 0.06\text{ t/ha}$), significantly the lowest was the yield in the years 2005 ($1.19 \pm 0.04\text{ t/ha}$) and 2006 ($1.25 \pm 0.04\text{ t/ha}$). Between the years 2003 and 2006 no significant differences in the linseed yield was detected. Significantly the highest seed yield ($1.52 \pm 0.05\text{ t/ha}$) was recorded for the 17 cm row spacing, while significantly the lowest one ($1.01 \pm 0.03\text{ t/ha}$) was recorded for the 34 cm row spacing. The Laura cultivar was less productive ($1.24 \pm 0.03\text{ t/ha}$) and in that sense it is significantly different from the RBK cultivar ($1.35 \pm 0.06\text{ t/ha}$).

With the use of the same analysis we confirmed that the year of the experiment ($P < 0.0002$) and the row spacing ($P < 0.0001$) both had a significant influence to the yield of stems, but not also the cultivar ($P < 0.4407$). Between the years 2004 ($1.82 \pm 0.07\text{ t/ha}$), 2005 ($1.73 \pm 0.04\text{ t/ha}$) and 2006 ($1.68 \pm 0.07\text{ t/ha}$), no significant differences in the yield were detected, significantly the highest yield of stems was recorded in the year 2003 ($2.02 \pm 0.11\text{ t/ha}$). For the smallest ($1.92 \pm 0.03\text{ t/ha}$) and medium row spacing ($2.00 \pm 0.06\text{ t/ha}$) the yields of stems were significantly the highest and significantly the lowest yield ($1.53 \pm 0.06\text{ t/ha}$) was recorded for the largest row spacing. There were no significant differences in stem yields between the tested cultivars ($1.79 \pm 0.07\text{ t/ha}$ for the RBK cultivar and $1.83 \pm 0.04\text{ t/ha}$ for the Laura cultivar).

3.2 Influence of certain yield factors to the yield of stems and linseed and their correlation

Between the linseed yield (y) and the stem yield (x) we have detected a significant ($P < 0.0001$) moderately strong positive correlation with the coefficient of correlation (r) 0.74 ($y = 0.15 + 0.63x$). Between the linseed yield and the number of branches per one plant weak correlations were discovered. In first and third case there was a significant correlation contrary to the second and the last case.

3.3 Analyses of results of the linseed and stem yield for individual row spacing

With individual analysis (separate analyses of results for the yields of linseed and yields of stems per different row spacings) we have discovered that in case of the smallest and medium row spacing, there was a significant influence of the year of the trials ($P \leq 0.0227$) and of the cultivar ($P \leq 0.0497$) on the linseed yield. In the case of the smallest row spacing, only in the first year of the experiment, the RBK cultivar gave significantly higher yield (1.65 ± 0.03 t/ha) compared to the Laura cultivar (1.25 ± 0.03 t/ha), while during the other years of the experiment, there were no significant differences between the two cultivars (figure 1, left). For the medium row spacing, there were no significant differences in the linseed yield between the two cultivars in the year 2004, but in the years 2003, 2005 and 2006, the yield of the RBK cultivar was significantly higher (1.93 ± 0.03 t/ha in the first, 1.42 ± 0.04 t/ha in the third and 1.51 ± 0.05 t/ha in the fourth year) compared to Laura cultivar (1.40 ± 0.14 t/ha in the first, 1.21 ± 0.02 t/ha in the third and 1.30 ± 0.02 t/ha in the fourth year) (figure 2, left). For the largest row spacing there was no significant difference in the linseed yield between the cultivars in the years 2005 and 2006, in the year 2003 the yield was significantly higher at the Laura cultivar (1.05 ± 0.03 t/ha), in the year 2004 it was higher for the RBK cultivar (1.15 ± 0.02 t/ha) (figure 3, left).

The yield of stems was for all three row spacings significantly determined by the year of the trial (in every case $P < 0.0001$) and by the cultivar ($P < 0.0492$). In the years 2004, 2005 and 2006 we detected no significant differences between the cultivars in case of the smallest row spacing; during the first year of the trial, the stem yield of Laura cultivar was significantly higher (2.24 ± 0.08 t/ha) compared to the RBK cultivar (2.03 ± 0.03 t/ha) (figure 1, right). For the medium row spacing, the RBK cultivar was significantly more productive than the Laura cultivar (figure 2, right) during all years of the experiment. The year 2003 gave exceptionally high yields, the RBK cultivar reached the yield of 2.64 ± 0.06 t/ha and the Laura cultivar 2.13 ± 0.06 t/ha. In first two years of the trials, Laura cultivar was significantly more productive, compared to the RBK cultivar, also when the largest row spacing was used, while in the years 2005 and 2006 we detected no significant differences in the stem yield between the two tested cultivars (figure 3, right). In the year 2003 absolutely the highest yield for the largest row spacing was recorded for the Laura cultivar (1.97 ± 0.12 t/ha), absolutely the lowest was recorded in the same year for the RBK cultivar (1.13 ± 0.03 t/ha).

3.4 Influence of certain yield factors to the stem and linseed yield and their correlation regarding the row spacing

For the smallest row spacing, a nonsignificant ($P = 0.1147$) relatively weak positive correlation with the coefficient of correlation (r) 0.33 ($y = 0.65 + 0.36x$) was detected between the linseed yield and stem yield. For the medium row spacing, the correlation between the linseed yield and yield of stems was significant ($P < 0.0001$), moderately strong and positive, the correlation factor (r) was calculated at 0.76 ($y = 0.34 + 0.59x$). For the largest row spacing, we detected significant (90 % confidence level) relatively weak positive correlation between the both parameters with the correlation coefficient (r) 0.36 ($y = 0.76 + 0.17x$).

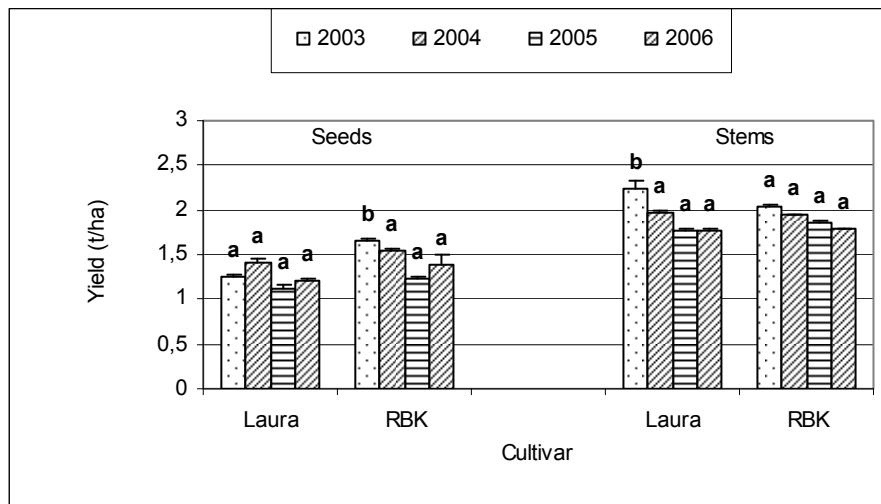


Figure 1. Yield of seeds and stems of the two flax cultivars (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) at the 8.5 cm row spacing in the field trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

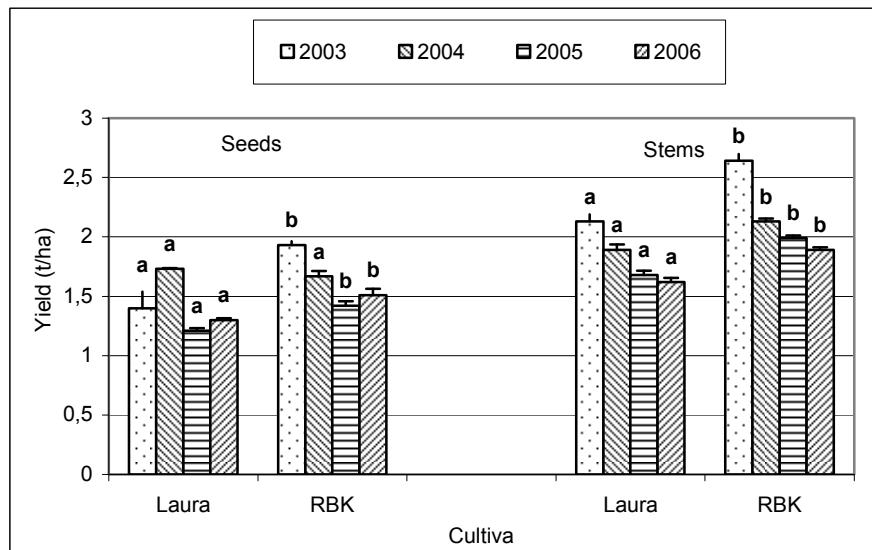


Figure 2. Yield of seeds and stems of the two flax cultivars (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) at the 17 cm row spacing in the field trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

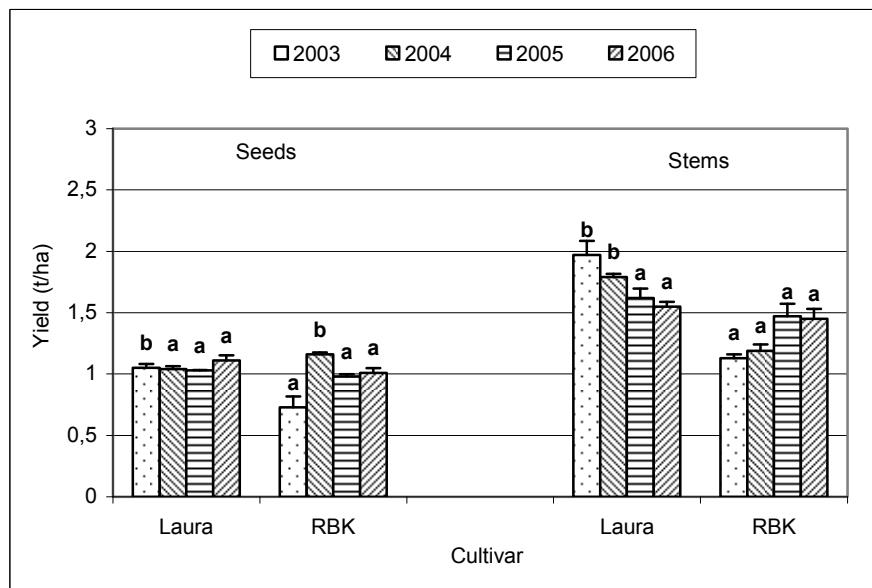


Figure 3. Yield of seeds and stems of the two flax cultivars (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) at the 34 cm row spacing in the field trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

3.5 Plant height, branching of the stem and absolute mass

Analyses of the plant height showed that the plants of the RBK cultivar in the period 2003-2006 reached in average 55.17 cm, which is 23.3 cm more than the plants of the Laura cultivar (78.5 cm). We also detected some differences in the plant height in individual cultivar, regarding the row spacing (Table 1). The height of plants was reducing together with the larger row spacing, which was also confirmed by the research of Butorac et al. (2006).

Table 1. Average height of flax plants (*Linum usitatissimum L.*) for the RBK and Laura cultivars regarding the row spacing in the field trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

Year	Cultivar					
	Laura			RBK		
	Plant height (cm) for row spacing			Plant height (cm) for row spacing		
	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm
2003	82.35	79.07	74.00	59.20	53.63	49.87
2004	85.63	81.80	77.20	60.74	57.06	51.73
2005	82.33	78.80	74.73	58.87	55.97	50.46
2006	81.53	77.20	75.40	58.63	55.20	50.66
Average	82.96	79.22	75.33	59.36	55.46	50.68
Total average	78.50			55.17		

Both cultivars had upright and in the case of the 8.5 cm row spacing straight unbranched stems, only Laura cultivar formed branches, at medium spacing it formed averagely from 0.34 to 1 branch per one stem, but the largest row spacing influenced the formation of one to two branches per stem (Table 2). Branching of the stem is genetically predetermined (Couture et al., 2002), which was confirmed also by our research, where the RBK cultivar remained branchless also at the biggest row spacing 34 cm.

Absolute mass of the produced linseed showed that the flax population from the Raztresen farm had in average thicker, bigger and heavier seeds (AM = 6.56 g), compared to the seeds given by the Laura cultivar, which were lighter for approximately 1.45 g (AM = 5.11 g). In the case of individual cultivar, the differences were also recorded regarding the different row spacings. For both cultivars, the absolute mass of seeds increased by the larger row spacing (Table 3), which was detected also by the authors of other experiments (Weighman and Kindred, 2005; Butorac et al., 2006).

Table. 2. Average branching of flax stems (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) for the RBK and Laura cultivars regarding the row spacing in the field trials on the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

Year	Cultivar					
	Laura			RBK		
	Numer of branches per plant at the row spacing			Number of branches per plant at the row spacing		
	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm
2003	0	0.34	2	0	0	0
2004	0	0	1.67	0	0	0
2005	0	1	2	0	0	0
2006	0	0.67	2	0	0	0
Average	0	0.50	1.92	0	0	0
Total average	0.80			0		

Table. 3. Absolute mass (mass of 1000 grains) of the flax seed (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) for the RBK and Laura cultivars regarding the row spacing in the field trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana in the period 2003-2006.

Year	Cultivar					
	Laura			RBK		
	Absolute mass (g) at row spacing			Absolute mass (g) at row spacing		
	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm	8.5 cm	17 cm	34 cm
2003	4.99	5.07	5.33	6.53	6.69	6.99
2004	5.02	5.11	5.48	6.13	6.58	6.65
2005	4.77	4.99	5.15	6.39	6.61	6.75
2006	4.98	5.12	5.39	6.14	6.55	6.72
Average	4.94	5.07	5.33	6.29	6.61	6.78
Total average	5.11			6.56		

4 CONCLUSIONS

Adapting the agrotechnical procedures to selected cultivars and growing conditions, is the precondition for higher and more stable yield of stem and/or linseed (Easson and Molloy, 2000; Weighman and Kindred, 2005; Butorac et al., 2006; Burton, 2007). In field trials with two flax cultivars (*Linum usitatissimum* L.) at three different row spacings, we have determined that both cultivars have nonsignificantly different stem yield at 8.5 cm (1.92 t/ha) and 17 cm (1.99 t/ha) row spacings. Compared to smaller row spacings, significantly the lowest yield of stems (1.52 t/ha) at the 34 cm row spacing showed, that this spacing is not suitable (too large). From the average 4-year stem yield, it could be detected that the RBK

(1.83 t stems/ha) and Laura (1.79 t stems/ha) cultivars are both equal, according their productivity. Since the stem yield in the trials is much higher, compared to the yield calculated for the Raztresen farm (in average 1 ton stems/ha), we suggested to the farmer, to sow the flax with the ordinary grain sowing machine to the row spacing of 8.5 or 17 cm in the future.

With the analysis of the linseed yield we confirmed that the 17 cm row spacing is the most suitable. At this row spacing, the average seed yield of both cultivars – 1.52 t/ha was significantly the highest, which is for 0.18 tons more than at the 8.5 cm row spacing (1.34 t/ha) and for 0.51 tons more than at the 34 cm row spacing (1.01 t/ha). In the 4-year average, the RBK cultivar (1.35 t/ha) was significantly more productive than the Laura cultivar, for 0.11 t of seeds/ha. The yield of seeds in the trials was almost once as high as the average yield calculated for the Raztresen farm, where in the case of the manual sowing crosswise, it amounts 0.5 t seeds/ha on the average. The results show that the sowing in rows for the production of seed is better than the sowing crosswise and the row spacing of 17 cm is the most suitable one.

Regarding certain morphological and economically significant characteristics, such as absolute mass, plant height and linseed yield (Couture et al., 2002), the domestic cultivar RBK has more characteristics of the seed type flax, but its nonbranched stem is the typical characteristic of the fibre producing flax cultivars. Considering also its fibre yield, it is comparable to the Dutch cultivar Laura, therefore it can be used for fibre production and production of high quality linen, products from the Raztresen farm also confirm its importance for fibre production.

Over one thousand years old tradition of flax production (Sadar, 1935, 1951) and the results of the trials at the Experimental Field of the Biotechnical Faculty in the period 2003-2006 show that in Slovenia there are favourable growing conditions for the production of this old fibre plant and oilseed (Kocjan Ačko, 2003; Štimac, 2004), especially due to recently increasing demand for linseed, textile and technical fibres from organic production.

Regarding the purpose of use of the crop, the oily flax has the advantage, due to increasingly favourable temperature conditions (Burton, 2007). These favourable temperatures are, in the recent years, evident from the periods of drought and mostly by high July temperatures also in Slovenia (in this sense the year 2003 was the warmest and the flax yield was significantly the highest). There is an increased demand for the flaxseeds and flax oil by the domestic buyers, who currently use imported products and there are also possibilities to export the linseed to the north and west of Europe, where the growing conditions, despite the global warming, are less favourable than in Slovenia (Tajnšek, 1990). For the production of the linseed, in addition to the introduction of the machine production, only smaller investments are required, to adjust the operation of present grain sowing and harvesting machines, and every year the number of facilities for the cold pressing of pumpkin seed, oilseed, sunflowers, hemp seeds and flaxseeds is increasing.

Production and processing of flax should not remain just an attractive cultural and historical presentation of the flax production on some tourist farms in Bela Krajina

(JV Slovenia). It should be recognised as an opportunity for the young farmers to find the place of flax in organic crop production as the production of food and other raw materials for craft and industrial products, or for the production of organic fuel, with the use of mechanised production. At the end, the re-introduction and production of flax can have an important influence on the biotic diversity of the cultural landscape and revitalization of rural areas.

Indiginous population of the RBK cultivar is a part of the cultural inheritance of national treasures and a mean of preservation of biotic diversity. It is also an opportunity for the registration of the first flax cultivar of Slovene origin.

Despite significantly higher seed yield of the RBK cultivar compared to the seed yield given by Laura cultivar, it could be a good idea to choose the seed-type-cultivar-flax from the Common catalogue of the EU and verify its yield of seed and fat contents with the field trials.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0004-7

Agrovoc descriptors: biological control, natural enemies, beneficial organisms, biological control agents, insect nematodes, nematoda, steinernema, introduced varieties

Agris category codes: H10

University of Ljubljana
Biotechnical Faculty
Department of Agronomy

COBISS Code 1.01

Entomopathogenic nematode *Steinernema feltiae* (Filipjev) (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae) recorded for the first time in Slovenia

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Delo je prispelo 27. decembra 2007, sprejeto 31. marca 2008.
Received December 27, 2007; accepted March 31, 2008.

ABSTRACT

In Slovenia only recently entomopathogenic nematodes were recorded for the first time. In the beginning of 2007, the presence of *Steinernema affine* was confirmed. During the further investigations in the same year *Steinernema feltiae* was recorded on the arable field near Cerknica. In the previous year this field was planted with chicory. In Slovenia, until now the entomopathogenic nematodes had a status of an exotic agents and their use was allowed only in the laboratory experiments. We expect that in Slovenia the use of these biological agents against insect pests will become important alternative to insecticides as it is known in many other countries of the world.

Key words biological control, entomopathogenic nematodes, exotic agents, Slovenia, *Steinernema affine*, *Steinernema feltiae*

IZVLEČEK

ENTOMOPATOGENA OGORČICA *Steinernema feltiae* (Filipjev) (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae) PRVIČ UGOTOVljENA V SLOVENIJI

V Sloveniji so bile entomopatogene ogorčice prvič ugotovljene šele nedavno. V začetku leta 2007 je bila potrjena zastopanost vrste *Steinernema affine*, med nadaljnji raziskavami v istem letu pa je bila na njivi v bližini Cerknice najdena tudi ogorčica *Steinernema feltiae*. Na omenjenem zemljišču so leto prej pridelovali radič. Doslej so imele entomopatogene ogorčice v Sloveniji status tujerodnih organizmov, njihova uporaba pa je bila dovoljena le v laboratorijskih poskusih. Pričakujemo, da bo v Sloveniji uporaba omenjenih naravnih sovražnikov škodljivih žuželk postala pomembna alternativa insekticidom, kar je sicer že znano v številnih drugih državah sveta.

Ključne besede biotično varstvo, entomopatogene ogorčice, Slovenija, *Steinernema affine*, *Steinernema feltiae*, tujerodni organizmi,

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1 INTRODUCTION

In Slovenia, the first research on entomopathogenic nematodes (EPNs) was carried out in 2004. Because in Slovenia EPNs still have a status of an exotic agents, all earlier researches were limited merely to laboratory experiments. The aim of previous research was to study the efficacy of the nematodes against foliar pests (Laznik *et al.*, 2007).

EPNs from the families Steinernematidae and Heterorhabditidae are important pathogens of insects. These soil organisms are mutually associated with bacteria from genus *Photorhabdus* Boemare, Akhurst and Mourant (genus *Heterorhabdits*) and bacteria from genus *Xenorhabdus* Thomas and Poinar (genus *Steinernema*) (Burnell and Stock, 2000). After infection, the symbiotic bacteria are released into the insect hemocoel, causing septicemia and death of the insect in 24 to 72 hours (Forst and Clarke, 2002).

Because of broad spectrum of target hosts from the class Insecta, their application as a way of biological control of plants against pests is so far very well known (Kaya and Gaugler, 1993). Application of EPNs in biological control was traditionaly engaged in controlling soil pests until some years ago (Ishibashi and Choi, 1991). Results from research in the last two decades indicate also their potential against foliar pests, but only under special conditions (Arthurs *et al.*, 2004). Poorer efficacy of EPNs in controlling foliar pest is a consequence of unsuitable (too low) moisture (Lello *et al.*, 1996), exposure to extreme temperatures (Grewal *et al.*, 1994), and ultraviolet radiation (Gaugler and Boush, 1978). These factors are known as crucial for nematodes survival (Kaya, 1990). For this reason the efficacy of foliar pests with EPNs in the open is therefore often worser as expected, although predecessor laboratory tests shows rather better efficacy (Buitenhuis and Shipp, 2005).

Numerous other research showed that at lower concentration EPNs are much more efficient in controlling preadult stages of insects from order Coleoptera (Ansari *et al.*, 2003). Similar findings were also confirmed with controlling insects from other orders; Thysanoptera (Premachandra *et al.*, 2003), Lepidoptera (Yakir-Ben *et al.*, 1998), Diptera (Willmott *et al.*, 2002) and some others. In majority of cases it was about the larvae, which life cycle is predominantly linked with soil and easily attacked by EPNs.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

In October 2007, we examined 77 soil samples on the occurrence of EPNs in Slovenia. The soil samples were taken in Notranjska region of Slovenia, which is the south central part of the country. We used »Galleria bait method«, which is the most frequently used method of EPNs detection from soil. After the death of wax moth (*Galleria mellonella* [Linnaeus]) larvae, we dried cadavers for 12 days and put them in so called »White trap« (Bedding and Akhurst, 1975) to separate the nematodes from death larvae. With the received suspension we infected artificially larvae of wax moth again. Following procedure contained the use of centrifuge and 5 % concetration of sodium hypochlorate. The aim of this process was to get infective juveniles from the suspension. We confirmed the presence of nematodes in 9.09 % of samples. Only 1 positive sample, B30 (taken on the chicory arable field near Cerknica (SW Slovenia, 45°48'N, 14°22'E, 572 m alt.) was identified to this time.

3 RESULTS

To confirm the identification of isolated nematodes from larvae of wax moth, a selected sample was analysed by molecular biological approach. Genomic DNA was extracted from individual nematodes and PCR was performed to multiply ITS region using primers TW81 and AB28 after Hominick et al. (1997). PCR product were reisolated from 1% TAE-buffered agarose gel using E.Z.N.A. Gel Extraction Kit (Omega Bio-Tek, USA) (Fig. 1). Reisolated sample was sequenced in the laboratory of Agricultural Biotechnology Centre in Gödöllő, Hungary. Sample DNA sequence was compared to sequences of species *Steinernema* using BLAST search in National Centre for Biotechnology Information (NCBI) web site (www.ncbi.nlm.nih.gov). The sequences producing significant alignments and at least 99% identity were derived from *Steinernema feltiae*: GenBank Accession No. DQ310469 and AF121050 (Nguyen et al., 2001) (Fig. 2).

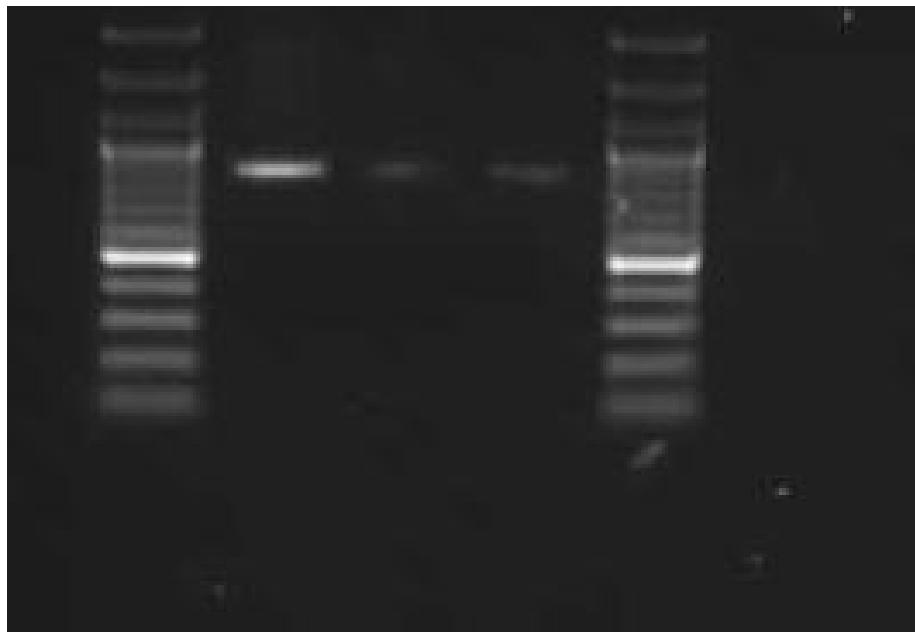


Figure 1: 1% TAE buffered agarose gel, in the 1st and 5th lanes: GeneRuler 100 bp DNA Ladder Plus (Fermentas), in the 2nd lane: PCR product of our sample B30, using the primer pair specified in the text, 3rd lane: PCR product of sample B49, 4th lane: PCR product of sample 3162. The two most strength fragment in the ladder are 500 and 1000 bps length.

4 DISCUSSION

Genetic studies proved that the nematode species is *Steinernema feltiae* Filipjev (1934) (Fig. 3). The ITS1-5.8S-ITS2 region, including the partial 18S and 28S rDNA genes (flanked by above primers) of Slovenian isolate B30 is 742bp long.

BLAST searches (Altschul *et al.*, 1990) in GenBank showed that Slovenian isolate B30 has a high similarity (99%) with those sequences available for *S. feltiae* populations (e.g. accession numbers DQ310469 and AF121050). Sequence of other species from *feltiae* group, namely *S. litorale* was obtained from GenBank searches that exhibited a lesser degree of similarity with the Slovenian isolate and other *S. feltiae* populations (e.g. accession number AB243441) (Fig. 3). The present study constitutes the first report of *S. feltiae* in Slovenia. *S. feltiae* has a wide distribution in temperate regions, being one of the most common species found in Europe, and in many other parts of the world (for a detailed EPN species distribution see Hominick, 2002).

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30381      1   GGCTTA-CCATTT-CTTGGATTCAAATGAATCGAGCTGAAT-TTCGCTG-
TTCGTTCA  56
DQ310469 177 .....T.....A.....-.....-.....-
..... 233
AF121050 177 .....T.....A.....-.....-.....-
..... 233
AB243441 198 .....T.....A.....C-.....A...-
..C... 254

30381      57   AAGCG-TTGT-ATTCTCTCAACTAACGGCTAT-GAATGGTTCTATAGG-TGT-
CTGGAG  111
DQ310469 234 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 288
AF121050 234 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 288
AB243441 255 .....-.....A-.....-.....-.....-
..... 308

30381     112   CAGTTGTATGAGCGTGACTGTGGTATGGACAT-TTTG--
GTGGCTCCTTAGTCG-GGTC  167
DQ310469 289 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 344
AF121050 289 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 344
AB243441 309 .....-.....-.....-.....-A.-.T....-
--.-- 354

30381     168   ACT-AGAATTAAAGAAGTCTGTT-A---TGACTGCCGTTCTTA-AAAAACT-
TCAATTAA 220
DQ310469 345 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 397
AF121050 345 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 397
AB243441 355 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 407

30381     221   ACGTTGATC-AATTTGACTGCACCAGCC-GT-AGGTGT-ACTT-
AAAGATTTATCAAGT  275
DQ310469 398 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 452
AF121050 398 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
..... 452
AB243441 408 .....-.....-.....-.....-.....-G...-
..... 462

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30381	276	CTTGTGGTGGATCACTCGGTCGTAGTCGATGAAAAACGGGGCAAAA-
CCGTTATT	334	
<u>DQ310469</u>	453
.....	511	
<u>AF121050</u>	453
.....	511	
<u>AB243441</u>	463
.....	521	
30381	335	GCGTGAATTGCAGACATATTGAACGCTAAATTTAACGCAAATGG-CAC-
TATCAGG	392	
<u>DQ310469</u>	512
.....	569	
<u>AF121050</u>	512
.....	569	
<u>AB243441</u>	522
.....	579	
30381	393	TTTATATCTGTTAGTATGTTGGTGAGGGTCGATTAATCGAACCTGCA-
GTCTGCTG	451	
<u>DQ310469</u>	570
.....	628	
<u>AF121050</u>	570
.....	628	
<u>AB243441</u>	580
.....	638	
30381	452	TGACTGTTTTT-CGATTAGTTATTTG-G-TT--T-TT--TT-A-
TCGAGTACCTTT-T	500	
<u>DQ310469</u>	629
.....	677	
<u>AF121050</u>	629
.....	677	
<u>AB243441</u>	639
.....	684	C...-A...-C..A...-.
30381	501	-GGAATGTGAATT--T--GATTGTCTAATTGTTCCATAATCG--AAA-
CGAGCTATT	552	
<u>DQ310469</u>	678
.....	729	
<u>AF121050</u>	678
.....	729	
<u>AB243441</u>	685
.....	738	A..T-.....
30381	553	TTA-TTTCTGTGCAATGTATTTGGTGTTCGGCGTT-TTCAGCGACTGA-
T-TGG	608	
<u>DQ310469</u>	730
....	785	
<u>AF121050</u>	730
....	785	
<u>AB243441</u>	739	C...-.....T.....G...-.....C.-.....
....	793	G...-.
30381	609	TACAAACTAACAGT-TCGTATATTTCAGAATT-TTCAGA-GGCCCTTACA-
A-TA-	662	
<u>DQ310469</u>	786
....	839	
<u>AF121050</u>	786
....	839	
<u>AB243441</u>	794
G-..T	842	G..A..-.....

30381	663	CATCA-CTT-GACACAACACGTA-T-CGTTGTCGAG-G--AATTGCGCAAGAA-
AG-AA	713	
<u>DQ310469</u>	840-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
...-..	890	
<u>AF121050</u>	840-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-.....-
...-..	890	
<u>AB243441</u>	843	..A.-..C-.....-C.-.....T.-A-.....-
...-..	892	
30381	714	A-CTTTTCGTT--ACGACCTCAACCCAAGCAA 742
<u>DQ310469</u>	891TT.....T..... 921
<u>AF121050</u>	891TT.....T..... 921
<u>AB243441</u>	893TT.....T..... 923

Figure 2: Multiple sequence alignment of the ITS rDNA region (including partial fragments of the 18S and 28S rDNA genes) of 4 *Steinernema* species. Code 30381 correspond to the Slovenian isolate of *Steinernema feltiae* (B30). Codes DQ310469 and AF121050 are *Steinernema feltiae* strains from Russia and USA. Code AB243441 correspond to *Steinernema litorale* strain from Japan.

We can place mentioned species into »*feltiae* group« of nematodes from genus *Steinernema* (Nguyen, 2006); for infective juveniles it is known that they are between 1000 and 700 µm long (Fig. 3). This nematode lives in symbiosis with bacterium *Xenorhabdus bovienii* (Poinar, 1988). The nematode was first recorded in 1934, and its applicable value in biological control of insect pests is well known (Ebssa, 2001). Some researchers reported that *S. feltiae*, *S. intermedium* (or C1) and *S. affine* like to appear on agricultural land (Sturhan, 1996). In Europe, the occurrence of *S. feltiae* was up to now confirmed in Austria, Belgium, Great Britain, Czech Republic, Denmark (original), Estonia, Finland, France, Germany, Greece, Hungary, Ireland, Italy, Poland, Slovakia, Spain, Sweden, Switzerland, Netherlands, Norway, Ukraine, Bulgaria and Portugal (Hominick, 2002).



Figure 3: Infective juvenile of *Steinernema feltiae* from sample B30.

Up to the present EPNs in Slovenia had a status of exotic agents and their efficacy against different insect pests was performed merely in laboratory experiments; Colorado potato beetle (*Leptinotarsa decemlineata* [Say]), greenhouse whitefly (*Trialeurodes vaporariorum* [Westwood]), western flower thrips (*Frankliniella occidentalis* [Pergande]) (Perme, 2005), sawtoothed grain beetle (*Oryzaephilus surinamensis* [L.]) and granary weevil (*Sitophilus granarius* [L.]) (Trdan et al., 2006) and flea beetles (*Phyllotreta* spp.) (Trdan et al., 2008). The results of these experiments confirmed already known facts that - in optimal conditions - EPNs represent very effective agents to control insect pests. After the first record of *Steinernema feltiae* in Slovenia, we expect that the use of these biological agents against insect pest will become important alternative to insecticides. These will be especially desired against the pests which is not easy to control with insecticides due to their massive occurrence in the period of harvesting, against the pests which are resistant to insecticides etc. B30 strain of *S. feltiae* will be in the future experiments used against different agricultural pests under laboratory conditions as well as in the experiments taken outside.

4 ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work is a part of program Horticulture No P4-0013-0481 granted by Slovenian Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0005-6

Agrovoc descriptors: helianthus annuus, varieties, height, seeds, crop yield, proximate composition, fats, oleic acid, oils, rotational cropping, plant introduction

Agris category codes: F01, F50, F60

University of Ljubljana
Biotechnical Faculty
Department of agriculture

COBISS Code 1.01

Some economically important properties of sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.) in the field trials performed at Biotechnical faculty

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Received: November 8th, 2007; accepted: April 28, 2008
Delo je prispelo 8. novembra 2007; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008

ABSTRACT

The basic parameter of re-introduction of this crop into the crop rotation in Slovenia is testing and trials of sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.), that could be suitable for the growing conditions in Slovenia, for the purpose of organic production and for the production of healthy food for consumers. On the experimental field at Biotechnical Faculty, in the period from 2002 to 2006, we were testing certain economically significant properties of five sunflower cultivars: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szürke csíkos. Seeds were sown by hand to the parcel in the size of 3 m x 11.8 m. Under the growing conditions in central Slovenia the genetic potential of hybrids for the production above 4 t of seed/ha was almost reached and closely approached by the hybrids Kongo and Kernal with average yields 3.5 t/ha and 3.3 t/ha. Yields of Delija and Goleador hybrids were about 1 to 1.2 tons lower, but mutually comparable. The lowest yield (1.6 t/ha) was given by Iregi szurke csikos variety, which is mostly grown by the producers in Slovenia, mainly because it is used and sold as a bird feed. In the year 2003, the fat content in the seed obtained from the hybrids, reached from 38 to 42 %, for Iregi szurke csikos variety it was only 33 %, on the other side - in the year 2005 - the fat content in the seed obtained from the hybrids was higher, that is 39 to 45 %, and for the Iregi szurke csikos variety the average was the same as in the year 2003. The highest fat content in the seed was reached by highly oleic hybrid Goleador, that is 42 % in the year 2003 and 45 % in 2005; for this hybrid, during this two years of the trials the 78- to 79-percent content of oleic acid in the oil was a little lower than its genetic potential, which is above 80 %. Regarding the use of the crop – for the cold pressed oil – the most important cultivars are the highly oleic hybrid Goleador and semi-oleic Delija, and for the bird feed instead of the Iregi szurke csikos variety we could sow Kongo and Kernal hybrids, not only due to their higher yields, but also due to higher fat content. Experts can advise producers how they can increase their production of seeds and oil only on the basis of tested, high quality and accessible sunflower assortment.

Key words: sunflower, cultivars (hybrids, varieties), plant height, yield of seed, fat content of the seed, content of oleic acid in the oil

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IZVLEČEK**NEKATERE GOSPODARSKO POMEMBNE LASTNOSTI KULTIVARJEV SONČNICE
(*Helianthus annuus* L.) V POLJSKIH POSKUSIH BIOTEHNIŠKE FAKULTETE**

Preizkušanje kultivarjev sončnice (*Helianthus annuus* L.), ki bodo ustrezali rastnim razmeram v Sloveniji, potrebam sonaravne pridelave in potrošnikom zdrave hrane, je temelj ponovnega uvajanja te poljščine v kolobar. Na poskusnem polju Biotehniške fakultete smo v obdobju 2002 do 2006 preučevali nekatere gospodarsko pomembne lastnosti petih kultivarjev sončnice: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador in Iregi szürke csíkos. Seme smo posejali ročno na parcelo velikosti 3 m x 11,8 m. Genskemu potencialu hibridov za pridelek nad 4 t semena/ha sta se v rastnih razmerah osrednje Slovenije najbolj približala hibrida Kongo in Kernal s povprečnima pridelkoma 3,5 t/ha in 3,3 t/ha. Pridelek hibridov Delija in Goleador je bil za 1 do 1,2 toni manjši, vendar med seboj primerljiv. Najmanjši pridelek je dala sorta Iregi szürke csíkos (1,6 t/ha), ki jo pridelovalci sončnice v Sloveniji sejejo največ, ker je v prodaji za krmo ptic. Vsebnost olja v semenu v letu 2003 je bila pri hibridih od 38 do 42 %, pri sorti Iregi szürke csíkos pa le 33 %, nasprotno pa je bila oljnatost semena v letu 2005 pri hibridih večja, to je 39 do 45 %, pri sorti Iregi szürke csíkos pa približno enaka kot v letu 2003. Največjo vsebnost olja v semenu je imel visoko oleinski hibrid Goleador, in sicer 42 % v letu 2003 in 45 % v letu 2005; 78- do 79-odstotna vsebnost oleinske kisline v olju pa je bila v obeh letih nekoliko manjša od njegovega genskega potenciala za to lastnost, ki je nad 80 %. Glede na namen uporabe pridelka sta za hladno stisnjeno olje najprimernejša visoko oleinski hibrid Goleador in pol oleinski Delija, za krmo ptic pa bi lahko namesto sorte Iregi szürke csíkos sejali hibrida Kongo in Kernal, ne le zaradi večje rodnosti, ampak tudi zaradi večje vsebnosti maščob. Le na podlagi preizkušenega, kakovostnega in dostopnega sortimenta sončnice bodo lahko strokovnjaki svetovali pridelovalcem, tako, da bodo ti pridelali več semena in maščob.

Ključne besede: sončnica, kultivarji (hibridi, sorte), višina rastlin, pridelek semena, vsebnost maščob v semenu, vsebnost oleinske kisline v olju

1 INTRODUCTION

With the average of 25 million hectares sown lands around the world, the sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.), is one of the main crops for the oil production, following soy, cotton and rape seed (FAO, 2007). In the first half of the 20th century the sunflower was a traditional crop in Slovenia, sown on 500 to 1000 hectares of lands (Sadar, 1951; Tajnšek, 1987). In the beginning of the 21st century, when it is covering only few 10 hectares, it is more often used as a decoration on the borders of smaller fields and in the house gardens. (Kocjan Ačko, 1999). The sunflower seed is not used only for the industrial production of table oil or bio diesel, but also for the production of cold pressed table oil, husked seeds, roasted or fresh, that could be used whole or grounded for different foods. In Slovenia we import not only the raw sunflower oil for the food processing industry but also sunflower seeds for the bird feed. Our total needs are covered by annual import of approximately 600 t (Jereb, 2004).

Since in Slovenia there are no local varieties of sunflower, we can choose among modern foreign cultivars, that are by their genetic composition the hybrids with best properties in the F₁ generation. Well appreciated and spread on two million hectares in the world are the hybrids coming from the Institute for Agriculture in Novi Sad (Inštitut za ratarstvo i povrtarstvo, Novi Sad). The main goals of sunflower selection are: the yield of seeds over 4 t/ha, the husk share lower than 25 %, more than 50-

percent fat content in the seed, higher contents of fatty acids favourable for human health, mostly oleic acid which - in the oil of some hybrids – already reaches over 80-percent (Skorić, 1986).

In Slovenia, after 2004, we can sow any type of cultivar that is listed in the Common catalogue of crop cultivars and is registered in at least one member state of the European Union, but this does not guarantee the successful production under the growing conditions of our country (Kocjan Ačko, 2007). For the selection of a new cultivar, we usually use the descriptions of economically significant properties in commercial catalogues, but the advantage is in any case, in testing the cultivars under the growing conditions of the area where we are planning to organise the production.

The purpose of sunflower field trials is to determine economically significant characteristics of four new hybrids from Serbia - Kernal, Kongo, Delija and Goleador in comparison to an old Hungarian variety Iregi szurke csikos, which is - due to the availability of the seed – mostly sown in Slovenia by amateurs and also by some producers. The purpose of the research is to replace the use of the Iregi szurke csikos variety seed with the hybrid certified seeds where we can expect not only the higher seed yield but also the higher fat production. Registration of two hybrids from Novi sad - Kernal and Goleador in Italy and registration of the Kongo hybrid in the Check Republic, Slovakia and Hungary is the reason, that after the year 2004, there was almost no introduction of sunflower cultivars in Slovenia.

Differences in the speed of growth and development, growing period, plant height, stability and quantity of seed yield, total fat content of the seeds and in the composition of oleic acids in the oil between the cultivars as well as between the different years of testing have been analysed with the use of descriptions of certain economically significant characteristics of these cultivars in commercial catalogues of seed producers (Table1).

Results of trials of the hybrids from Novi Sad on the experimental field of Biotechnical faculty will at least partly replace the official introduction and support the modernization of the assortment and re-introduction of sunflower into the crop rotation.

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

2.1 Field trial

On the Biotechnical faculty experimental field, we have sown every year in the period from 2002 to 2006, the seed of five sunflower cultivars – four hybrids and the Iregi szurke csikos variety, which is being sold in Slovenia as bird feed (Table 1).

Table 1: Economically significant properties of sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.):
Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos from the seed catalogues

Property	Kernal	Kongo	Delija	Goleador	Iregi szurke csikos
Colour of the husk	Black	black brown with white stripes	black	dark grey to black	black grey with white stripes
Growing period	110 to 115 days, middle early hybrid	115 to 120 days, middle early hybrid	100 to 115 days, middle early hybrid	100 to 110 days, middle early hybrid	110 to 120 days, middle early hybrid
Average height	175 to 180 cm	175 to 180 cm	160 to 180 cm	145 to 165 cm	180 cm
Genetic yield potential	above 4 t/ha	above 4 t/ha	4.5 t/ha	4 t/ha	1 to 2 t/ha
Fat content in the seed	46 to 49 %	44 to 48 %	38 to 42 %	48 to 50 %	28 to 32 %
The contents of oleic acid in the oil	26 to 30 %	31 to 35 %	above 40 % - semi oleic hybrid	above 80 % - highly oleic hybrid	26 to 30 %
Use of seeds	eatable, for oil and bird feed	eatable, for oil and bird feed	eatable, for special table oils and bird feed	eatable, for special table oils	eatable and bird feed

Sowing was performed by hand, into rows, 50 cm distance between rows, 25 cm distance between seeds in the row; for each cultivar six rows have been sown on the parcel in the size of 3 m x 11.6 m, that is 34.8 m². The sowing dates were Maj 13th 2002, April 25th 2003, April 22nd 2004, April 26th 2005 and May 10th 2006.

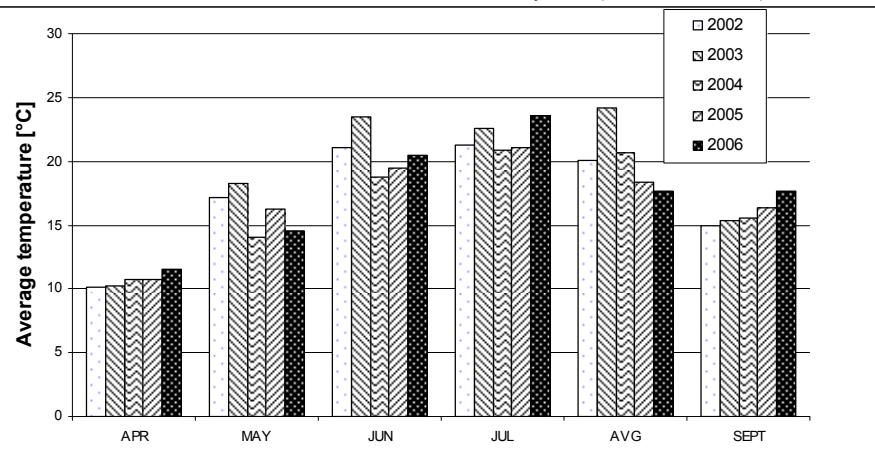
Sunflowers have been sown within the crop rotation after the legumes (soy, low beans, peas) and in this way the need for the mineral nitrate was reduced to the single entry of 60 kg N/ha (27-percent KAN). Weediness was restricted with earthing-up twice, the first time when the plants were 10 to 20 cm high and the second time before the blooming. The sown hybrid seeds were certified and disinfected, and we have disinfected the seed of the Iregi szurke csikos variety ourselves. In the case of poor rising we have replaced the missing plants with additional sowing when the plants were 10 to 20 cm high.

While monitoring the growth and development we have noted the following dates: beginning of blooming, full bloom, beginning of seed formation, wax ripeness and technological ripeness and we calculated the growing period. We also made estimations of lodging and pest attacks, mostly birds. Before the harvest we have measured the height of twenty randomly selected plants on individual parcel. Sunflower heads from the entire parcel were cut by hand for each cultivar separately at the time of technological ripeness of individual hybrid that is between September 2nd and 6th in 2002, August 10th and 14th in 2003, September 2nd and 7th in 2004, August 26th and 31st in 2005 and September 1st and 6th in 2006. Gathering of the heads for individual cultivar was completed within one day, with the exception of the Iregi szurke csikos variety, which was harvested gradually due to unequal ripeness. The heads were further dried in the drier at the temperature 40 to 45 °C. After few days we hulled (trussed) seeds out of the heads and cleaned them with the use of trier from the dry parts of the plant, hulls and empty seeds and weighted them. Within the seed sample of individual cultivar we measured the humidity with the Pfeuffer he 50 humid meter and than we calculated the yield of seed using the prescribed 8-percent humidity for the oil seed storing. For the easier comparison with the yields achieved in

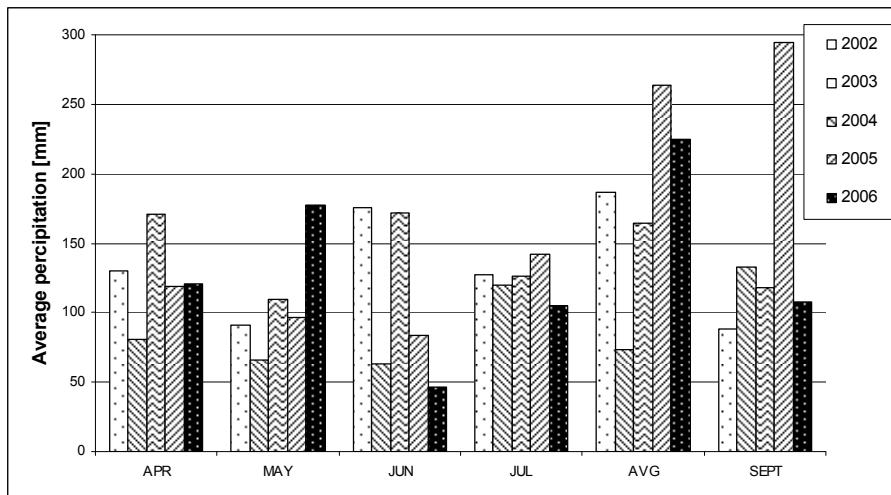
practice, we have calculated the yield from the experimental parcel in the size of 34,8 m² to the data indicating this yield in tons per hectare.

2.2 Weather conditions in the period from 2002 to 2006

Analysis of average temperatures and precipitations in Ljubljana from April to September in the period from 2002 to 2006 showed deviations between the years (Pictures 1 and 2).



Picture 1: Average monthly temperature from April to September in Ljubljana in the period 2002 – 2006



Picture 2: Average monthly quantity of precipitation from April to September in Ljubljana in the period 2002 - 2006

2.3 Oil pressing and fat analysis

Hulled seeds of each individual cultivar (size of the sample 100 g) were pressed and cold pressed oil was obtained. By the SIST ISO 5509 method we established the total fat content or the fat content of the seed, and by gas chromatography we have determined the oleic acids within the oil. Fats were analyzed twice; the first time from the sample of the 2003 yield seeds and the second time from the sample of 2005.

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

3.1 Growth and development of sunflower cultivars in the period 2002 - 2006

While monitoring the growth and development of sunflower cultivars in the period from 2002 to 2006, we have noted the following dates: beginning of blooming, full bloom, beginning of seed formation, wax ripeness and technological ripeness (Table 2) and we calculated the growing period; this is the time from sowing to date of harvest in technological ripeness.

Table 2: Calendar monitoring of beginning of blooming (A), full bloom (B), wax ripeness (C) and technological ripeness (D) for sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.): Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos in the collection plantation, Biotechnical faculty, Ljubljana, 2002 to 2006.

A

Cultivar	Beginning of blooming				
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Kernal	19. July	1. July	26. July	10. July	16. July
Kongo	21. July	4. July	26. July	12. July	17. July
Delija	22. July	5. July	28. July	14. July	18. July
Goleador	22. July	5. July	28. July	14. July	18. July
Iregi s. csikos	21.- 23. July	1. – 5. July	26. – 30. July	10. - 14. July	17. - 20. July

B

Cultivar	Full bloom				
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Kernal	23. July	8. July	30. July	17. July	21. July
Kongo	27. July	9. July	30. July	18. July	22. July
Delija	29. July	12. July	31. July	19. July	22. July
Goleador	31. July	12. July	31. July	19. July	22. July
Iregi s. csikos	23. - 31. July	8. – 12. July	3. - 8. August	18. - 20. July	22. - 25. July

C

Cultivar	Wax ripeness				
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006
Kernal	23. August	1. August	26. August	19. August	25. August
Kongo	24. August	2. August	28. August	20. August	26. August
Delija	26. August	4. August	28. August	23. August	26. August
Goleador	26. August	4. August	28. August	23. August	26. August
Iregi s. csikos	23.- 26.August	1. - 4. August	26. -30.August	20. -25.August	25. - 27.August

D

Cultivar	Technological ripeness				
	Year 2002	Year 2003	Year 2004	Year 2005	Year 2006
Kernal	2. September	10. August	2. September	27. August	1. September
Kongo	4. September	12. August	4. September	29. August	2. September
Delija	5. September	14. August	6. September	30. August	4. September
Goleador	5. September	14. August	6. September	30. August	4. September
Iregi s. csikos	4.-6.September	10-14. August	2.-7.September	29-31. August	1.- 7.September

We detected the differences in growing periods between cultivars (Table 3) and certain deviations from the data published in the catalogue (Table 1). Compared to the medium growing length of 100 to 120 days, the growing period of cultivars in Slovenia was longer for 10 to 20 days. Important oscillations in average daily temperature and higher and more frequent summer precipitations in 2004 are the reason that the growing period was prolonged to 133 or 138 days, respectively. The shortest growing period - 107 to 111 days was recorded in 2003, when the heat started already in June and together with low rainfalls quickened the ripening process.

During the testing period, the Kernal and Kongo hybrids proved to be the earliest, compared to those two, all other cultivars ripened later. While all hybrid plants equally passed over from one to another development stage, the main characteristics of the Iregi szurke csikos variety was the disproportionate blooming and ripening (Table 2).

Table 3: The growing period of sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.): Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos in collection plantation of Biotechnical faculty, Ljubljana, 2002 to 2006.

Cultivar	Length of the growth period (days)					Growing period (days)
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	
Kernal	111	107	133	123	114	107 to 135
Kongo	113	109	135	125	115	109 to 135
Delija	114	111	137	126	117	111 to 137
Goleador	114	111	137	126	117	111 to 137
Iregi s. c.	113 to 115	107 to 111	133 to 138	125 to 127	114 to 120	107 to 138

With the use of plants in the protective crop on the borders of the collection plantation that were left on the field for approximately 10 days longer, after we harvested the experiment, we detected that the solid heads of the Goleador hybrid are less sensitive to bird attacks compared to the loose heads of Delija and Kernal hybrids, where it was easier for the birds to peck out the seeds and seeds were shedding on their own as well.

3.2 Height of plants

Regarding the height of the stalk, the Kernal and Kongo hybrids and the Iregi szurke csikos variety were among higher cultivars, which in the five year average amounted from 181 to 204 cm (Table 4). Compared to the high cultivars, the Delija and Goleador hybrids are lower with average height of 161 cm and 173 cm, respectively. The Delija hybrid, which height was described in the catalogue at 160 to 180 cm, was the lowest one in Slovenia during all five years; in 2004 it only grew 155 cm high.

Table 4: Average height of twenty sample plants of sunflower cultivars (*Helianthus annuus* L.): Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos in collection plantation of Biotechnical Faculty, Ljubljana, 2002 to 2006.

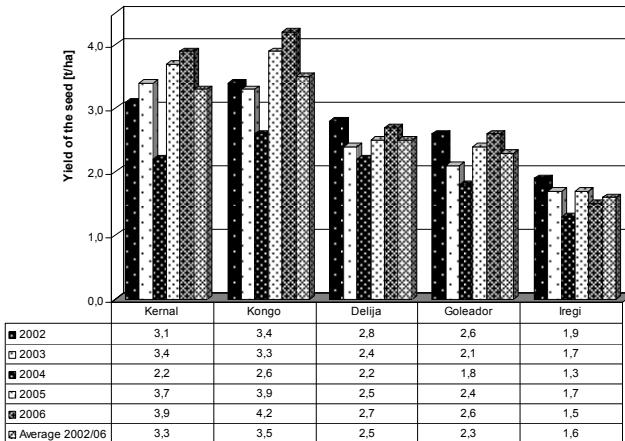
Cultivar	Height (cm)					Average height (cm)
	2002	2003	2004	2005	2006	
Kernal	214	210	190	205	200	204
Kongo	190	182	180	195	185	187
Delija	160	157	155	165	170	161
Goleador	177	177	165	170	175	173
Iregi s. c.	180	180	179	185	180	181
Average height (cm)	184	181	174	184	182	181

The most sensitive to lodging was the highest hybrid Kernal, which is, due to this characteristic, the least appropriate for machine harvesting. On the other side – the Delija and Goleador hybrids proved to be more stable and according their height – the lower two from the hybrids and lower from the Iregi variety.

3.3 Yield of the seed

Under the growing conditions of central Slovenia, the genetic potential of the hybrids for over 4 t seed/ha was most approached by the Kernal and Kongo hybrids (Picture 3). The biggest average yield of the seeds from all five years, calculated per hectare, was given by Kongo hybrid (3.5 t/ha), The yield of the Kernal hybrid was only for 200 kg lower. Yields reached by Delija (2.5 t/ha) in Goleador (2.3 t/ha) are, compared to the most fertile hybrids, lower for 1 to 1.2 tons per hectare and the lowest is the yield given by the Iregi szurke csikos variety (1.6 t/ha).

During the period from 2002 to 2006, the average yields of all cultivars were stable and in line with the highest (3 t/ha), with the exception of the average yield in 2004, which was only 2.0 t/ha. Humid summer in 2004 mostly harmed the two otherwise most fertile hybrids Kernal and Kongo; compared to other years their yield for that year was approximately 1 ton lower. Calculation of four year average crop without the year 2004 revealed, that for every cultivar the four year average values are higher, that is 200 kilograms for the Kernal and Kongo hybrid and 100 kilograms for the Delija and Goleador hybrid and Iregi szurke csikos variety.



Picture 3: Yield (8-percent seed humidity) of the sunflower (*Helianthus annuus* L.) calculated in tons per hectare for the cultivars: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos in collection plantation of Biotechnical Faculty, Ljubljana, 2002 to 2006..

3.4 Fat contents

The content of fat in the seed or the total fat content analyzed in the year 2003 (Table 5) for all hybrids reached from 38 to 41 %, and for the Iregi szurke csikos variety only 33 %, on the other side the fattiness of the seed in the 2005 was higher (Table 6) for all hybrids, that is 39 to 45 %, and for the Iregi szurke csikos variety the same as in 2003. The highest total fat content was given by Goleador, that is 41.81 % in 2003 and 47.71 % in 2005. More than 40-percent average fat content, slightly lower than in the catalogue, was reached by the Kernal (41.53 %), Kongo reached 38.7 %, and the Delija hybrid reached 39.44 % of fat.

Table 5: Oleic acid contents in the oil and total fat contents within the sunflower seed (*Helianthus annuus* L.) for the cultivars: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos. Collection plantation, BF, Ljubljana, 2003.

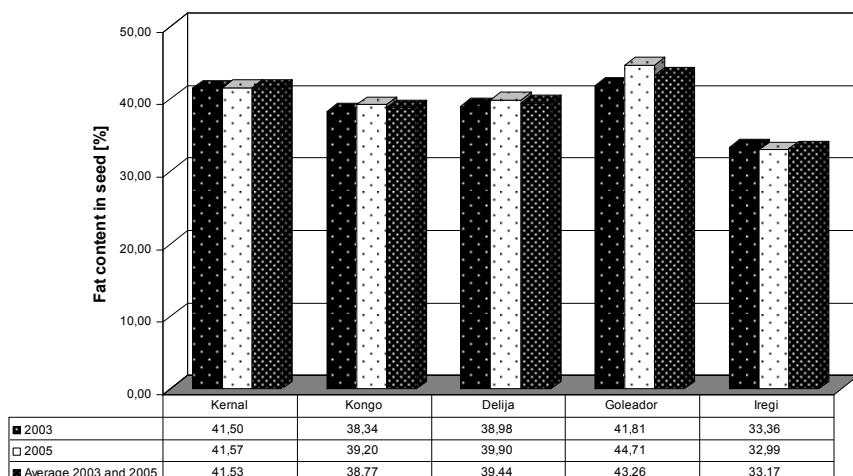
Cultivar	Share of oleic acids (mass % from total oleic acids)					Total fat content (%)
	Palmitic acid C 16 : 0	Stearic acid C 18 : 0	Oleic acid C 18 : 1	Lanoleic acid C 18 : 2	Linolenic acid C 18 : 3	
Kernal	6.09	5.83	27.85	60.09	0.12	41.50
Kongo	5.35	5.24	34.25	55.01	0.14	38.34
Delija	5.77	4.26	43.21	46.63	0.12	38.98
Goleador	4.06	4.09	77.68	14.03	0.11	41.81
Iregi s. c.	6.33	5.63	30.58	57.29	0.16	33.36

For the Goleador hybrid the content of oleic acid in the years 2003 (77.68 %) and 2005 (78.67 %) was a little lower than expected 80 % (Table 1). Semi-oleic hybrid Delija that reached 43.21 % oleic acid in 2003 and 44.22 % in 2005, exceeded the

oleic acid content obtained in the oil from the Kernal, Kongo and Iregi, where it was approximately 30 %.

Table 6: Content of oleic acids in the oil and total fat content in sunflower seed (*Helianthus annuus* L.) for the cultivars: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos from the crop in 2005. Collection plantation, BF, Ljubljana, 2005.

Cultivar	Share of oleic acids (mass % from total oleic acids)					Total fat content (%)
	Palmitic acid C 16 : 0	Stearic acid C 18 : 0	Oleic acid C 18 : 1	Linoleic acid C 18 : 2	Linolenic acid C 18 : 3	
Kernal	6.23	5.73	28.83	59.02	0.18	41.57
Kongo	4.37	5.00	35.17	55.31	0.13	39.20
Delija	5.06	5.23	44.22	45.33	0.15	39.90
Goleador	4.07	4.10	78.67	13.02	0.14	44.71
Iregi s. c.	6.22	5.45	29.84	58.27	0.20	32.99



Picture 4: Total fat content in sunflower seed (*Helianthus annuus* L.) for the cultivars: Kernal, Kongo, Delija, Goleador and Iregi szurke csikos. Collection plantation, BF, Ljubljana, 2003 and 2005.

4 CONCLUSIONS

Since in the past decades in Slovenia we have abolished the production of numerous crops, sunflower among them, farmers are left without suitable expert support, covering the information on cultivar characteristics and instructions for agricultural technical measures. Reproaches from the previous years that the experts failed should not be repeated, now is time for cooperation, based on the common testing of suitability of crops and cultivars for the growing conditions on farm fields and in field trials in scientific institutions.

Results of the field trials with five sunflower cultivars in the period between 2002 and 2006 show important differences between the cultivars in their growing period, plant height, size of the crop, fat content and fatty acid composition. We also detected differences between years and deviations from economically significant properties, determined under different growing conditions.

The expected yield of the hybrids – four tons per hectare, was most approached by the Kernal and Kongo hybrids with the exception of the year 2004, when their crop was half lower, but still also in that year - higher than the crop given by two other hybrids and from the Iregi szurke csikos variety. Not only data for their fertility, but also their fat content of the seed is higher than the values given by the Iregi szurke csikos variety, therefore they are more suitable for economic sowing, either for the bird feed or for the oil pressing.

In spite of the low yield of seed – 2.3 t/ha, the Goleador hybrid with average oleic acid content in the oil in the amount of 77.68 % in the year 2003 and 78.69 in the year 2005 has a good potential, also for Slovene producers of cold pressed oil and consumers of organic foods. Also semi-oleic hybrid Delija with the average 40-percent oleic acid content in the oil and with approximate 40-percent oil content in the seed has all characteristics suitable for production of cold pressed oil, but its yield is one time smaller than the yield given by the Kernal and Kongo hybrids. Since so far the Delija hybrid is not registered in any of the EU member states, we would have to register it here before sowing.

It is our opinion that the sowing of larger quantity of sunflower into the crop rotation has an important impact on widening the usual and very narrow crop rotation (wheat-corn), on the other side by using the sunflower, we can increase the share of root crops, such as potato, which covers less than 6000 hectares and sugar beet, which could no longer be found on Slovene fields after the closing of the Ormož Sugar factory.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0006-5

Agrovoc descriptors: valerianella locusta, leaves, weight, dry matter content, crop yield, varieties, planting equipment, cultivation, sowing

Agris category codes: F01, F62

COBISS Code 1.01

Corn salad (*Valerianella olitoria* L.) yield response to cell size of plug trays

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Received March 20, 2008; accepted April 28, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 20. marca 2008; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008.

ABSTRACT

The research was undertaken to determine if the plug tray cell size had an impact on plant characteristics and yield of corn salad (*Valerianella olitoria* L.). Seeds of four cultivars ('Ljubljanski', 'Holandski', 'Flavor' and 'Masce') were sown in styrofoam plug trays with 40 cells (60 ml cell⁻¹), 84 cells (35 ml cell⁻¹) and 160 cells (20 ml cell⁻¹). Plants growth generally increased with cell size, though the effect varied with different cultivars. An increase in cell volume resulted in an increase in leaves height, leaves number and leaves fresh mass, as well as percentage of dry matter. Cv. 'Holandski' was obtained the highest leaves fresh mass regardless of cell volume.

Key words: *Valerianella olitoria*, corn salad, yield components, leaves fresh mass, percentage of dry matter

IZVLEČEK

VPLIV VELIKOSTI CELICE GOJITVENE PLOŠČE NA PRIDELEK MOTOVILCA (*Valerianella olitoria* L.)

Raziskava je bila izvedena z namenom ugotoviti, ali velikost celice gojitvene plošče lahko vpliva na lastnosti in pridelek motovilca (*Valerianella olitoria* L.). Seme štirih kultivarjev ('Ljubljanski', 'Holandski', 'Flavor' in 'Masce') je bilo posejano v stiroporne gojitvene plošče s 40 celicami (60 ml/ celico), 84 celicami (35 ml/celico) in 160 celicami (20 ml/celico). Na splošno je bila rast rastlin intenzivnejša z večanjem prostornine celice, medtem ko so se kultivarji različno odzivali na velikost celic. Večji volumen celice se je izrazil v večjih listih, večjem številu listov, večjem prideku listne mase, prav tako pa tudi v večjem deležu suhe snovi. Cv. 'Holandski' je dal največji pridelek zelene listne mase ne glede na prostornino celic.

Ključne besede: *Valerianella olitoria*, motovilec, značilnosti pridelka, teža svežih listov, odstotek sušine

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INTRODUCTION

Despite rich assortment of locally grown and imported vegetables in Slovenia supply of fresh and quality vegetables in winter months is poor. Such leafy vegetables as corn salad (*Valerianella olitoria* L.), which do not required high temperature and low light density, should be grown in this season of a year.

In the past vegetables were grown in greenhouse using ground beds or in outdoor ground beds. In last decades, the entire vegetable production system has received attention and changes because the necessity to improve yield and vegetable quality. Nowadays, growers have showed possibilities of vegetable production in alternative systems of production. One from possible system is also using various types of containers, primarily plug trays. With this system, each plant grows in an individual cell so there is less competition among plants and greater uniformity (NeSmith and Duval, 1998). Lee and Yang (1999) also reported that leafy lettuce, Chinese kale and water convolvulus produced from plug trays had a storage life even 3.6, and 2 days longer, respectively, than those grown in soil.

The number of plants in a tray depends on the cell size for each plant. Vegetables are commonly grown in plug trays with 30 to 300 cells (Walter et al., 2005). In general, larger cell leads to greater early yield and they are also easier to manage because the greater soil volume holds more water and nutrients. A trend among many commercial vegetable growers is toward more cells per tray (smaller cells), so that more plants can be grown in the limited space available (Vavrina, 1995). Plant responses to reduced soil volume have been reported for a wide range of crops with some conflicting data among them. There are differences in responses reported between species and even between cultivars within a species (Vavrina, 2001).

The effect of cell size and root restriction on leaf growth has been documented for tomato (Weston and Zandstra, 1986), bell peppers (Weston, 1998)), cabbage (Csizinsky and Shuster, 1993), squash (NeSmith, 1993), watermelon (Liu and Latimer, 1995), lettuce (Nicola and Cantliffe, 1996), salvia (van Iersel, 1997) and rocket (Sink, 2006). To our knowledge this is the first report describing the impact of plug tray cell volume on corn salad yield.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The greenhouse experiment were conducted in the Experimental Field ($46^{\circ} 04' N$, $14^{\circ} 31' W$, 300 m above sea level) of the Biotechnical Faculty in Ljubljana, Slovenia. The experiment was designed as a factorial complete randomised block. In each of four blocks a combination of cultivar and three root cell volume (Tab. 1) was replicated three times. Each replication consisted of a single tray. There were cultivars of corn salad that are grown commercially for fresh market in Slovenia: 'Ljubljanski' (Semenarna), 'Holandski' (Semenarna), 'Masse' (Bejo) and 'Favor' (Enza Zaden).

Table 1: Dimension of cell size used to grow corn salad

Plug tray (cell m ⁻²)	Cell depth (mm)	Cell diameter (mm)	Cell volume (ml)	Cell No. (m ⁻²)
40	55	55	60	166
84	40	40	35	350
160	29	45	20	667

Styrofoam trays were hand-filled with commercial peat-based growing medium Klasmann Tray substrate (pH 6-6.5; N 180 mg L⁻¹; P₂O₅ 210 mg L⁻¹; K₂O 250 mg L⁻¹; MgO 85 mg L⁻¹ + microelements). Two to three seeds were sown in each plug cell on February 12, 2008. Thinning was done at the second true leaf stage leaving one plant per cell. The trays were covered with a 10% shade cloth until seed germination was complete. About 2 weeks after sowing, the shade cloth was removed and plants were exposed to natural light conditions.

Greenhouse conditions and the practices used to produce the seedling were kept as near-ideal ideal as possible. Watering was done as needed (generally four times per week). Once weekly all the plants were supplied with a water-soluble fertilizer (Peters Professional 15-15-15, Scotts Company). In the compartment, average daily temperatures were 14±2 °C. Ventilation temperature was set at 2 °C above the heating temperature set points. Relative humidity was maintained at 75±10 % using ventilation throughout the growing season. Greenhouse climate was monitored and controlled by a DGT-Volmatic System.

Corn salads were extracted from trays on 26 March, cull or diseased plants were removed. Ten plants from each treatment were randomly sampled for harvesting and measuring plant height, number of leaves per plant and leaves fresh mass. The dry matter percentage of leaves tissue was determined by drying fresh leaves for 48–52 h at 60–64.

The data are reported as mean values with a standard error (S.E.). The data were subjected to one-way or two-way analysis of variance and the differences among treatments were determined by Tukey's test ($P < 0.05$). Each treatment consisted of five replicate samples.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

As we expected, cell size had an even greater impact on the rate of crop development. The plants grown in the largest plug volume (90 ml–40 cells plug tray) were much higher and heavier (Fig. 2 and 3) than that grown in smaller volumes so the statistical analysis comparing average fresh leaves mass per plant, plant height (above-ground) and number of leaves per plant, between the cultivars was made separately for each size of plug volume.

When cultivars were compared by plant height (Fig. 1), statistically significant differences were found in all three plug volumes, but they are more expressed between cultivars grown in the largest plug volume (90 ml) where cv. 'Holandski' had in average the highest plants (89 mm) and cv. 'Favor' the smallest (56 mm). Cv. 'Holandski' had the highest plants also when plants were grown in middle and small size plug volume (60 and 20 ml) and cv. 'Favor', grown in 60 ml plug volume and cv. 'Ljubljanski', grown in 20 ml had the smallest plants. According to Nicola and

Cantliffe (1996), the reduced plant height was caused by the reduced water-holding and fertilizer capacity of the small medium volume.

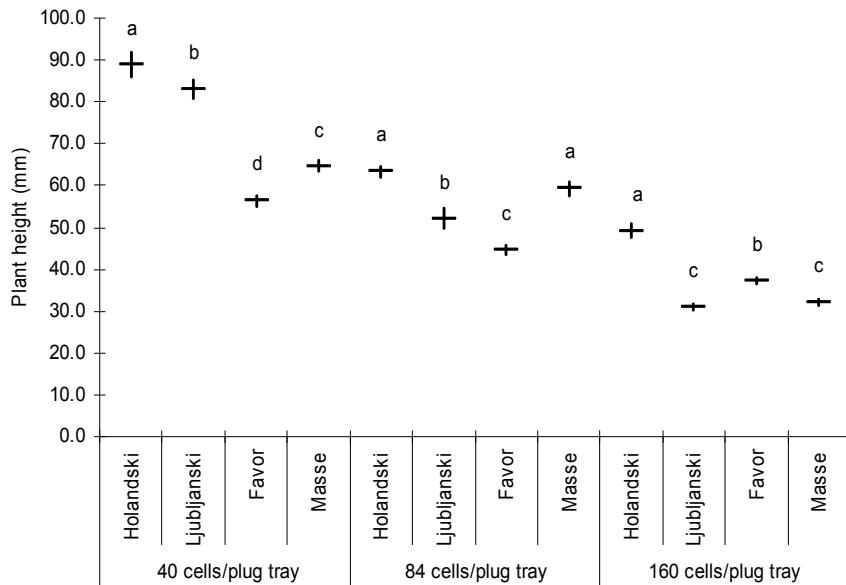


Figure 1: Influence of cell size on plants height (mm). Vertical bars indicate standard errors.

The number of full expanded leaves often reflect the technological maturity of corn salad plants. Our result showed (Fig. 2) that a highest cell volume significant increased the number of leaves per plant. As plant population density increases, each plant produces fewer leaves per plant due to increased plant competition. However, under similar environmental conditions, the larger number of plants compensate with leaves yields per unit area similar to those in lower plant populations. In our research, it seems that the yield was affected mainly by number of leaves per plant.

When plant population density is low ($40 \text{ cells tray}^{-1}$), there is little, between-plant competition. The individual plants will grow larger and produce more and higher leaves. The leaves number at highest cell size was in average 50.5% greater than those above smallest cell size. The plants grown in 90 ml cell volume were the most developed and had in average from 7.5 (cv. 'Holandski') to 11.5 (cv. 'Favor') developed leaves per plants, those grown in 60 ml cell volume had from 6 (cv. 'Masse') to 9 (cv. 'Holandski') expanded leaves per plant and grown in 20 ml cell volume had only from 3.2 (cv. 'Masse') to 5.6 (cv. 'Favor') expanded leaves per plant.

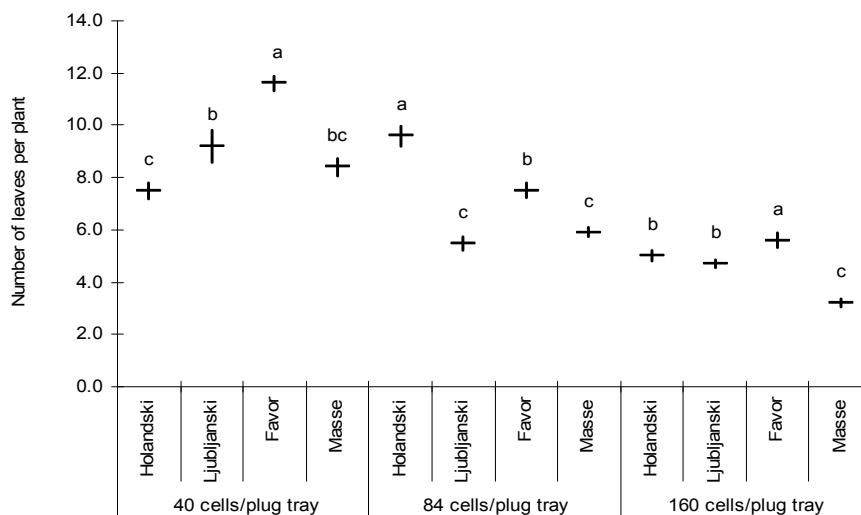


Figure 2: Influence of cell size on leaves number per plant. Vertical bars as in Fig. 1.

Statistical significant differences among cultivars were found in leaves fresh mass at all kinds of plug trays (Fig. 3). There were clear indications that cv. 'Holandski' was the dominant cultivar. In plug trays with 40 cells the results showed that in average the highest leaves fresh mass per plant were recorded by cv. 'Holandski' (2.7 g plant^{-1}) and there were no significant differences in average leaves mass between other cultivars grown in the same cell volume. In plug trays with 84 cells, the highest mass per plant gave also the cv. 'Holandski' ($1.56 \text{ g plant}^{-1}$), and the lowest were recorded by 'Favor' ($0.75 \text{ g plant}^{-1}$). The lowest mass per plant were recorded by plants grown in the smallest cell volume ($20 \text{ ml} - 160 \text{ cell tray}^{-1}$), where the highest mass per plant were also recorded by cv. 'Holandski' (0.7 g plant^{-1}) and the lowest by cv. 'Ljubljanski' (0.3 g plant^{-1}). The differences in plant mass between cultivars were smaller, when plants were grown in the smallest cell volume (20 ml) in comparison with those grown in 60 and 90 ml , respectively. In general, plants grown in 20 ml cell had less leaves mass compared with plants grown in 35 and 60 cell volume. Because the plants in 20 cell volume received the same amount of fertilizer as the plants in the other cell volumes, they may have had more fertilizer stress.

Yield per plug tray is the product of leaves mass per plant and number of plants per unit area. Small cell size (higher densities) increased the number of plants per unit area, whereas at large cell size (lower densities) the plants number per unit area declined. In our research, the greater number of leaves per plant reflected in the greater yield per plug tray (data not shown).

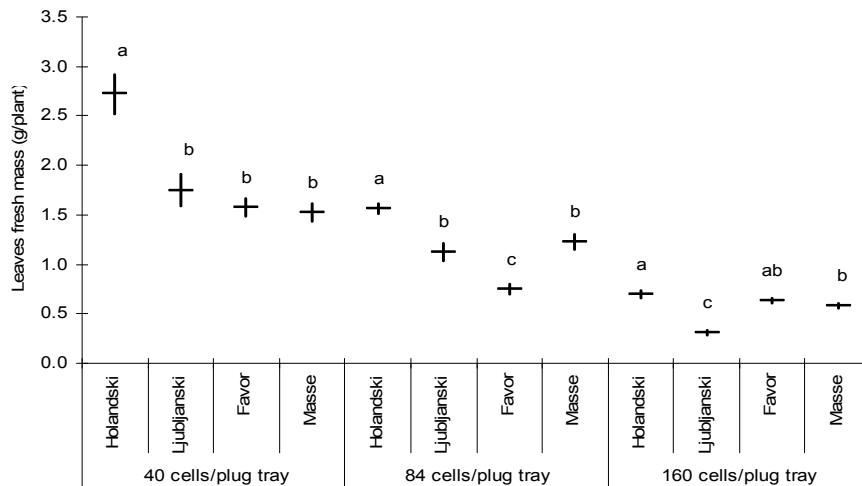


Figure 3: Influence of cell size on leaves fresh mass (g plant^{-1}). Vertical bars as in Fig. 1.

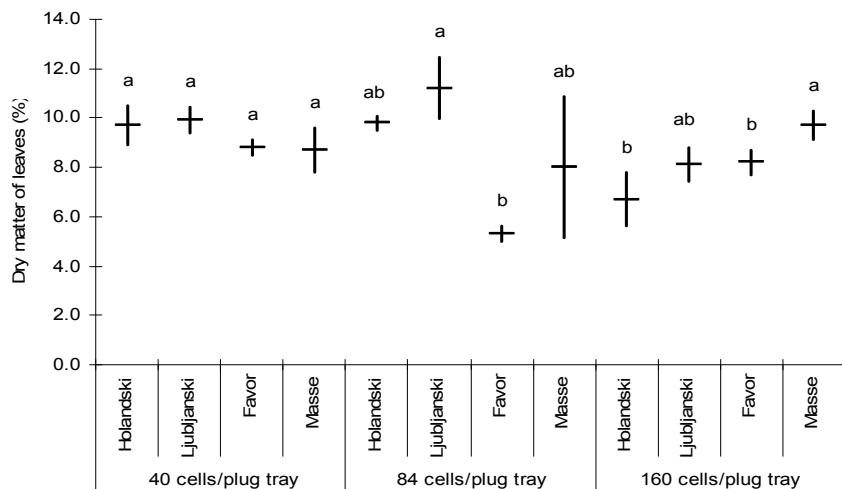


Figure 4: Influence of cell size on the percentage dry matter of leaves (%). Vertical bars as in Fig. 1.

The dry matter content is the ratio between dry and fresh weight expressed as a percentage. According Raupp (2000) and Karić et al. (2005) percentage of dry matter of leaves is an important reference parameter, and is somewhat significant as well to a consumer who does not want to buy watery products. In our experiment, the cell size did no have significant and consistent effect on this parameter. In spite of this fact, there were tendencies for the dry matter content to decrease slightly as the cell volume was decreased. In other words, as plant population density increases, each plant produces less dry weight. The portion of dry matter decreased from

9.30% at 60 ml cells (40 cells tray⁻¹) to 8.20% at 20 ml cells (160 cells tray⁻¹). These results are in agreement with those obtained by Žnidarčič et al. (2007) on cabbage. On the other hand, our results are not conformity with the findings of Agele et al. (1999) on tomato and Siomos (1999) on pak choi.

CONCLUSIONS

From the above results it can be concluded:

- all factors measured – plant height, leaf number and leaves fresh mass per plant – decreased as the cell volume decreased;
- restrictions in root growth reduces dry weight of leaves;
- most optimal plug tray for corn salad growing is 40 cells plug tray;
- cv. ‘Holandski’ (Semenarna) was considered as a suitable cultivar for growing in plug trays;
- last but no least, growing corn salads in plug trays has more advantages. For example, there are fewer weed problems, and the cropping time is shorter because of faster and better growth in artificial media. Furthermore, corn salad grown in plug trays need little or no chemical pesticide, this can be seen as a model of hygienic vegetable production

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0007-4

Agrovoc descriptors: zea mays, maize, inbred lines, leaf area, f1 hybrids, crossbreds, genetic variation

Agris category codes: F30

COBISS Code 1.01

General and specific combining ability studies for leaf area in some maize inbreds in agroecological conditions of Kosovo

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Received March 31, 2008; accepted May 5, 2008.
Prispelo 31. marca 2008; sprejeto 5. maja 2008.

ABSTRACT

In maize breeding one of the most important roles belongs to selection of parents with good combining abilities. The data associated with combining ability and heritability of particular characters can be obtained from diallels. The main objective of this study was to evaluate the leaf area (LA) of 10 inbred lines and their F1 hybrids. Based on a diallel (without reciprocals) GCA and SCA were calculated. The components of the genetic variance were calculated using Griffing's (1956) method 2. The maximum LA value was determined for the combination L6×L10 (788.6 cm^2), whereas the minimum for the combination L4×L5 (558.9 cm^2). The average value of F₁ generation was 678.8 cm^2 and the variation range was from $+109.8 \text{ cm}^2$ to -119.9 cm^2 . Both, the GCA and SCA for LA were significant at $p=0.01$. The highest value of GCA was obtained for L2 (+31.33), whereas the lowest for L4 (-38.07). The highest value of SCA was determined for L6×L10 (+156.73).

Key words: Maize, inbred lines, GCA, SCA, leaf area.

Abbreviations: LA, leaf area; GCA, general combining ability; SCA, specific combining ability; L, inbred line; F₁ generation; MP, middle parents; EP, experimental plots; SE, standard error.

IZVLEČEK

PROUČEVANJE SPLOŠNE IN POSEBNE KOMBINACIJSKE SPOSOBNOSTI LISTNE POVRSINE NEKATERIH SAMOOPLODNIH LINIJ KORUZE V AGROEKOLOŠKIH RAZMERAH KOSOVA

V žlahtnjenju rastlin igra eno od najpomembnejših vlog selekcija roditeljev z dobrimi kombinacijskimi sposobnostmi za želene lastnosti, ki jih običajno ugotavljamo z dialelnimi križanji. Namen raziskave je bil ugotoviti kombinacijsko sposobnost 10 samooplodnih linij koruze ter njihovih križancev za listno površino (LP). Na osnovi njihovih dialelnih križancev (brez recipročnih križancev) je bila za LP izračunana splošna (SKS) in posebna (PKS) kombinacijska sposobnost. Komponente genetske variabilnosti so bile računane po metodi 2 Griffingovega modela (1956) računanja kombinacijskih sposobnosti. Največja LP je bila

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ugotovljena za križanec L6×L10, ($788,6 \text{ cm}^2$), najmanjša pa za križanec L4×L5 ($558,9 \text{ cm}^2$), medtem ko je bila povprečna vrednost vseh križancev $678,8 \text{ cm}^2$. Tako za SKS kot za PKS so bile ugotovljene statistično značilne razlike med križanci pri $p=0,01$. Največja vrednost SKS za LP je bila ugotovljena pri L2 (+31,33), najnižja pa pri L4 (-38,07), medtem ko je bila največja vrednost PKS ugotovljena za križanec L6×L10 (+156,73).

Ključne besede: koruza, samooplodne linije, splošna kombinacijska sposobnost, posebna kombinacijska sposobnost, listna površina.

1 INTRODUCTION

The leaf area is one of the crucial factors in photosynthesis. It is especially important for maize (Sylvester *et al.*, 1990). LA is closely associated with the transpiration process and other physiological characteristics of maize genotypes. Very important are also environmental factors and their interactions with plant characteristics and cultural practice.

In the literature, it is possible to find many researches in this field. Jevtić (1977) in his investigation found that the total surfaces of leaves/plant varied from 0.3-1.2 m^2 . Ničiporović (1961), and Gotlin and Pucarić, (2000) concluded that level of the absorbed energy gets higher with increasing of LA with value $25.000 \text{ m}^2/\text{ha}$. Toming (1977), according to the data of Lapčević (1985), found out that participation of assimilated LA of maize more than $40-50.000 \text{ m}^2/\text{ha}$ did not have any effect for increasing of using energy. In some maize inbred lines Aliu (2003, 2006) obtained average maximal and minimal values of LA $0.56-0.75 \text{ m}^2$, while Salillari *et al.*, (2002) and Jakovljević (1989) at some inbred lines for LA obtained different values from $0.40-0.80 \text{ m}^2$ and 0.79 m^2 , respectively. The present investigation was undertaken to characterize ten diverse lines and their 45 F1 hybrid combinations for their general (GCA) and specific (SCA) combining ability, and to identify leaf area (LA).

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant materials used as parents for crosses in this study were 10 selected superior maize inbred lines (L1, L2, ...L10) with medium maturity, originating from the Agriculture University of Tirana, Albania. Crosses among these inbred lines were based on a diallel. During the first 3 years, we evaluated adaptability of inbred lines to specific agro-ecological conditions of Kosovo, especially in the area near Ferizaj (580 m a.s.l.). In the fourth year, we conducted diallel crosses (with 10 inbreds) following the method of Griffing (1956). The field experiments with F1 hybrids and their parents (10 diverse maize lines and their 45 F1 crosses) were conducted during the fifth year. The experiments were based on a randomized complete block design (RCBD) with three replications. The spacing was $60\times30 \text{ cm}$ or $55.000 \text{ plants per ha}$, experimental plots was 5.4 m^2 per each replications. The seeds were placed 3-5 cm deep. In order to determine LA we measured dimensions of the leaf blade growing from the same node as the ear. We measured 10 plants per replication; altogether 30 plants per combination. LA was determined according to the formula of Montgomery (1911): $A = L \times W \times 0.75$, where L represents leaf length, W is leaf width and 0.75 is the factor used for determination of leaf area in maize. The same formula was also used by several other researchers such as Francis *et al.*, (1969); Whigham *et al.*, (1974) and Pearce *et al.*, (1975). Genetic interpretations and analyses of similar experiments can be found in numerous papers such as Hayman (1954) and Griffing (1956).

Statistical analyses

Differences among observed individuals, within each combination, were analysed using the mathematic model of Griffing (1956):

$$X_{ij} = \mu + g_i + g_j + s_{ij} + e,$$

X_{ij} – value of the progeny derived from the crossing of i^{th} female parent with j^{th} male parent

μ – grand mean,

g_i – the GCA effects of the i^{th} female parent,

g_j – the GCA effects of the j^{th} male parent,

s_{ij} – the SCA effects specific to the hybrid of the i^{th} female line and the j^{th} male line,

e – experimental error.

ANOVA for GCA and SCA was calculated as presented in table 1.

Table 1: Model of ANOVA for GCA and SCA according to Griffing's method 2 (Varghese et al., 1976).

Source	d.f.	S.S.
GCA	$n-1$	$\frac{1}{n+2} \left[\sum (y_{..} + y_{ii})^2 - \frac{4}{n} y_{..}^2 \right]$
SCA	$\frac{n(n-1)}{2}$	$\sum \sum y_{ij}^2 - \frac{1}{n+2} \sum (y_{..} + y_{ii})^2 + \frac{2}{(n+1)(n+2)} y_{..}^2$
Error	$\left[\frac{n(n+1)}{2} - 1 \right] \times (r-1)$	$\frac{\text{Total S.S.} - \text{Treatm. S.S.} - \text{Replic. S.S.}^*}{r}$

- - S.S. out of base ANOVA.

Statistical analyses package were conducted using program – MSTAT-C , version 2.10 (Russell, 1996).

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The calculations showed that the hybrid combination L6×L10 was characterised by the largest leaf area (788.6 cm^2), while the smallest value was obtained for hybrid L4×L5, (558.9 cm^2) (Table 2). The average value of LA for all studied genotypes was 678.8 cm^2 . The variation range between largest leaf area and smallest leaf area was 229.7 cm^2 or 35%, and this difference was significant at $p=0.05$ and $p=0.01$. All F1 hybrids had positive heterosis; the highest value was 48% above the mid parent value (data not shown). The coefficient of variation of the total LA for all genotypes was 3.33%, while SE = ± 21.3 . The highest variability of LA values are obtained for hybrids L6×L10, (96%) and L3×L4, (19%). These difference of LA among F1 generation were statistically significant at $p=0.05$ and $p=0.01$. The heterosis of LA is one of the commonest and most striking manifestations of hybrid vigour (Evans, 1993). Kojić (1982) obtained positive heterosis effect comparing with parents from 27.7-85.9%, while Bocanski (1995) found out that the inheritance of LA could be explained by over-dominance. Earlier genotypes developed smaller LA and they were below the mean value, while the genotypes

with longer vegetation period had higher LA and were above mean value. Difference between the mean of all F1 hybrids and the mean of all parents (F1-MP) was 221.45 cm². This could be considered as a result of heterosis of F₁ generations.

Table 2: Leaf area of parents (diagonal, underlined) and their F1 hybrids (above diagonal).

	L1	L2	L3	L4	L5	L6	L7	L8	L9	L10	F1 Mean
L1	<u>489.0</u>	625.6	681.8	715.9	752.7	721.7	580.6	617.2	662.6	643.9	666,89
L2		<u>467.4</u>	737.9	726.8	744.9	757.3	723.1	741.4	761.2	652.0	718,91
L3			<u>472.8</u>	562.8	647.6	683.6	733.8	726.0	730.6	757.8	695,77
L4				<u>470.4</u>	558.9	621.5	626.6	620.4	593.5	605.2	625,73
L5					<u>440.3</u>	626.7	685.8	703.6	583.2	597.9	655,70
L6						<u>392.6</u>	709.4	712.3	682.0	788.6	700,34
L7							<u>463.0</u>	728.0	684.9	681.2	683,71
L8								<u>477.0</u>	702.8	717.8	687,60
L9									<u>490.0</u>	628.5	669,92
L10										<u>412.0</u>	674,77
Grand mean											677.93

LSD_{p=0.05} =42.69, _{p=0.01} =56.20.

The statistical analysis of combining ability indicates that there are significant differences among genotypes in both, GCA and SCA (Tab.3). Non-additive effects of genes have important influence in LA inheritance. The ratio between GCA and SCA was 0.40. A similar ratio (0.36) was obtained by Kojić (1982). Rutger et al. (1971) found that besides non-additive effects, an important role belonged also to additive variance, what was later confirmed also by Mason and Zuber (1976). As reported by Rojas and Sprague (1952), GCA is primarily associated with additive effects, whereas SCA is attributed to the non-additive genetic effects.

Table 3: ANOVA of GCA and SCA for leaf area.

Source	d.f.	S.S.	M.S.	F-Value
GCA	9	125598.06	13955.34	30.71**
SCA	45	1572243.67	34938.75	76.89**
SE	108	49076.53	454.41	

** - Significant at $p=0.01$

The GCA effects for LA showed significant variation between hybrid combination of parental lines. The highest GCA effect for LA was observed for L2 (+31.33) (Tab. 4), with significant differences based on value F, suggesting the dominant gene action regarding LA in F1. The lowest GCA value was denoted by L4 (-38.07). Large proportion between value F and differences among inbred lines for GCA were significant at $p=0.05$ and $p=0.01$ and have different intensity for heritage and variability. Kojić (1982) obtained for LA maximal and minimal values of GCA between +42.971 and -31.314. Malik *et al.*, (2004) published similar results for LA, GCA and SCA, using different genotypes, and obtained values between +41.32 and -20.27.

Table 4: GCA effects for LA (cm^2) in F1 generation.

Rank	Parent	GCA
1	L2	31.33
2	L8	16.15
3	L3	13.68
4	L7	6.71
5	L6	3.90
6	L9	-0.47
7	L1	-1.56
8	L10	-11.02
9	L5	-20.64
10	L4	-38.07

$\text{LSD}_{p=0.05} = 17.22$ $\text{SE(gi)} = 11.3603$

$\text{LSD}_{p=0.01} = 22.70$

Table 5: Specific combining ability (SCA) for leaf area in a diallel among 10 maize inbreds.

Rank	Genotypes	SCA	Homog. groups	Rank	Genotypes	SCA	Homog. groups
1	L6×L10	156,73	a*	24	L7×L9	39,60	efghijkl
2	L1×L5	135,88	ab	25	L6×L9	39,58	efghijkl
3	L1×L4	116,51	abc	26	L1×L3	30,62	fghijklm
4	L3×L10	116,09	abc	27	L1×L9	25,57	gijiklm
5	L2×L5	95,16	bcd	28	L4×L7	18,97	hijklmn
6	L2×L4	94,49	bcd	29	L1×L10	17,50	hijklmno
7	L2×L9	91,35	bcde	30	L4×L6	16,65	hijklmno
8	L2×L6	83,08	bcd ef	31	L3×L5	15,50	hijklmno
9	L1×L6	80,30	cdef	32	L4×L10	15,24	hijklmno
10	L3×L9	78,36	cdefg	33	L3×L6	14,96	hijklmno
11	L3×L7	74,36	cdefg	34	L5×L6	4,42	iiklmnop
12	L8×L10	73,65	cdefg	35	L4×L8	3,34	ijklmnop
13	L5×L8	69,07	cdefgh	36	L9×L10	1,00	ijklmnopq
14	L7×L8	66,09	cdefgh	37	L4×L9	-6,94	jklmnopq
15	L5×L7	60,55	defgh	38	L2×L10	-7,32	kKlmnopq
16	L6×L7	59,80	defghi	39	L5×L10	-9,48	lmnopq
17	L3×L8	55,19	defghi	40	L4×L5	-21,50	mnopq
18	L2×L8	54,94	defghi	41	L1×L7	-33,10	mnopq
19	L2×L3	53,84	defghi	42	L5×L9	-34,70	nopq
20	L6×L8	53,20	defghi	43	L1×L8	-36,40	opq
21	L8×L9	48,10	defghij	44	L1×L2	-43,10	pq
22	L7×L10	46,46	defghijk	45	L3×L4	-51,79	q
23	L2×L7	46,08	defghijk				
	$\text{LSD}_{p=0,05}$	54,46			$\text{LSD}_{p=0,05}$	54,46	
	$\text{LSD}_{p=0,01}$	71,80			$\text{LSD}_{p=0,01}$	71,80	
	SE	128,52			SE	128,52	

* - the same letter indicate the same homogenous group.

The highest values of SCA was obtained for the hybrid L6×L10 (+156.73). This value was also significant for three other hybrids (L1×L5, L1×L4, L3×L10) (Tab. 5). The lowest value of SCA was estimated for the hybrid L3×L4 (-51.79). The total differences for maximum values for phenotype variability were 208.52 in

favour for genotype L6×L10, while in second place, there was the combination L1×L5 (+135.88), which was not significantly different from the hybrid L6×L10. The effect of SE for SCA of crossing parents was 128.52. Different results for SCA of LA with significant differences for maximal (+111.71) and minimal (-96.71) values were obtained by Kojić (1982).

4 CONCLUSIONS

Results of our investigations indicate that there were significantly different combining abilities for leaf area among investigated inbred lines. All F1 hybrids expressed positive heterosis effect (for leaf area) regarding to their parents. The highest value of LA was found for L6×L10, while the lowest value for L4×L5. It was not possible to prove the rule that inbreds with good GCA usually had the good SCA. Namely, the inbred L2 had expressed the highest GCA for the investigated trait, but 2 out of 9 hybrids of this inbred showed negative value of SCA. On the other side, the highest value of SCA was found for hybrid L6×L10, but parental inbreds showed very low (3.90 for L6) or negative (-11.02 for L10) SCA. The investigation suggests that the some of the studied inbreds represent a highly valuable genetic material that could be successively used for further breeding.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0008-3

Agrovoc descriptors: grapevines, vitis vinifera, grapevine leaf roll virus, antibodies**Agris category codes:** H20

COBISS Code 1.01

Introduction of Grapevine virus B and Grapevine leafroll-associated virus 2 testing in sanitary selection of grapevine

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Received October 10, 2007; accepted March 31, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 10. oktobra 2007; sprejeto 31. marca 2008.

ABSTRACT

To introduce testing of Grapevine leafroll-associated virus-2 (GLRaV-2) and Grapevine virus B (GVB) in sanitary selection of grapevine, commercially available antibodies were evaluated and conditions for routine ELISA testing were optimized. Extraction procedure with Granex 91 - special machine, which is used in routine testing in Slovenia, was compared with grinding samples in mortar. Three different extraction buffers were applied in order to overcome the inconvenience of using more than one extraction procedure when testing grapevine material for several viruses in a routine large-scale testing scheme. Results were verified with Western blot and immuno-electron microscopy. The best results were obtained using extraction buffer with unknown composition (pH 9.0) from BIOREBA kit for GLRaV-2. Other extraction buffers gave less positive samples and they are not convenient for routine testing where extraction with Granex is done. Both viruses, GLRaV-2 and GVB were found in Slovenia, but they couldn't be correlated with rougose wood disease that appears on indigenous cultivar Refošk grafted on 'SO4' from collection vineyard in Komen.

Key words: grapevine, selection, Grapevine virus B, Grapevine leafroll-associated virus-2

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IZVLEČEK**UVEDBA TESTIRANJA GRAPEVINE VIRUS B IN GRAPEVINE LEAFROLL-ASSOCIATED VIRUS 2 V ZDRAVSTVENO SELEKCIJO VINSKE TRTE**

Z namenom, da bi uvedli testiranje virusa Grapevine leafroll-associated virus-2 (GLRaV-2) in virusa Grapevine virus B (GVB) v zdravstveno selekcijo vinske trte, smo testirali komercialno dostopna protitelesa in optimizirali pogoje za rutinsko testiranje v ELISA. Primerjali smo ekstrakcijo s strojem Granex 91, ki ga v Sloveniji uporabljajo v rutinskem testiranju, z ekstrakcijo v terilnici. Da bi poenotili ekstrakcijo različnih virusov v obsežnem rutinskem testiranju, smo preizkusili tri različne ekstrakcijske pufre. Rezultate smo preverili z imunskim pivnikom (Western blot) in imunsko elektronsko mikroskopijo. Najboljše rezultate smo dobili pri vzorcih ekstrahiranih s pufrrom nepoznane sestave iz kita za določevanje GLRaV-2 proizvajalca BIOREBA. Z ostalima pufroma smo dobili manj pozitivnih vzorcev, zato menimo, da pufra nista primerna za ekstrakcijo vzorcev v rutinskem testiranju kjer se uporablja stroj Granex 91. Ugotovili smo prisotnost obeh virusov v Sloveniji, nismo pa uspeli dokazati povezave teh dveh virusov z razbrazdanjem lesa, ki se pojavlja na trsih domače sorte Refošk cepljenih na podlagu 'SO4' iz koleksijskega vinograda v Komnu.

Ključne besede: vinska trta, selekcija, Grapevine virus B, Grapevine leafroll-associated virus-2

1 INTRODUCTION

The International Council for the Study of Virus and Virus-like Diseases of the Grapevine (ICVG), recognizes over 70 infectious agents affecting grapevine (viruses, viroids and phytoplasmas) (ICVG, 2003). Many of them cause disorders that reduce the plant vigour and longevity or the quality and quantity of the yield. Infected propagating material is largely responsible for the spread of these diseases among and within viticulture regions. Certification of grapevine nursery stock is a powerful and effective tool to control these agents, that enables vineyards to economically and sustainably maintain quality and productivity.

According to EU directive (Council Directive 68/193/EEC) the presence of harmful organisms which reduce the usefulness of the propagation material shall be at the lowest possible level. The technical annex to the directive interpret this legislation as the absence of Complex of infectious degeneration (Grapevine fanleaf virus (GFLV) and *Arabis* mosaic virus (ArMV)), Grapevine leafroll disease (Grapevine leafroll-associated virus 1 (GLRaV-1) and Grapevine leafroll associated virus 3 (GLRaV-3)) and Grapevine fleaek virus (GFKV) (only for rootstocks) (The Council of the European Communities, 1968). Additionally ICVG recommends that propagation material should be controlled on the agents that are associated with infectious degeneration and grapevine decline (nepoviruses), leafroll disease and associated closteroviruses (grapevine leafroll associated viruses 1, 2, and 3), rugose wood (Grapevine virus A, B and D (GVA, GVB, GVD)) and phytoplasmas (grapevine yellows) (ICVG, 2003).

In Slovenia grapevine selection and clone multiplication started after Second World War. The required tests were made to meet the European grapevine certification program but in order to assure better propagation material the recommendations of ICVG were also considered (Korošec-Koruza et al, 1998; Walter and Martelli,

1997). With the purpose to introduce GLRaV-2 and GVB testing to the certification scheme the optimization of ELISA procedure was done.

Both viruses, GLRaV-2 and GVB, are associated with rugose wood disease in which four different disorders participate, i.e., coky bark (CB), rupestris stem pitting (RSP), Kober stem grooving (KSG) and LN 33 stem grooving. Individual disorders can be distinguished on the basis of the differential reactions of *Vitis* indicators (Goheen, 1988; Bonavia et al. 1996; Credi, 1997).

Rugose wood is worldwide disease and it was recorded also in Slovenia. In selection vineyard of cv. 'Refošk', an old indigenous variety, 15 % of vines show rugose wood symptoms (Tomažič et al., 2005). Old indigenous varieties were not commercially interesting in the past and were not included in any type of selection. Consecutively, they are often heavily infected with viruses.

GLRaV-2 was first purified from a coky bark-affected grapevine and was designated as Grapevine coky bark associated virus (GCBaV) (Namba et al., 1991). GCBaV was later identified as identical to the GLRaV-2 isolate from France (Zimmermann et al., 1990; Boscia et al., 1995). Bonavia et al. (1996) found close relationship between coky bark disease and GVB, but not with GLRaV-2. GLRaV-2 is rather involved in leafroll symptoms, graft incompatibility and in quick decline of newly replanted vineyards (Pirolo et al., 2006).

The purpose of this study was to introduce the ELISA for detection of GVB and GLRV-2 into routine testing of grapevine and to find out correlation of GLRaV-2 and GVB with rugose wood on cv. 'Refošk' grafted on 'SO4' (*V. riparia* × *V. berlandieri*).

2 MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant material. Samples were collected from selection vineyard of cv. Refošk in Komen – Karst region and from two grapevine germplasm collections Brda and Vipava in Primorje winegrowing region of Slovenia. Selection vineyard of Refošk was established in 1991. 76 old Refošk vines were chosen as mother plants for selection vineyard and potential clone material according to their specific, potentially interesting production characteristics and good visual sanitary status. Vines were grafted on 'SO4' rootstocks. In 1999 all of the 1680 vines from selection vineyard were visually inspected for rugose wood symptoms. 15 % (253) of vines showed rugose wood symptoms on rootstocks or on scion. Rugose wood disease could not be associated with the presence of GVA (data not shown). Vines from germplasm collections in Brda and Vipava were selected because they are heavily infected with different viruses. The collections were planted only to preserve the old indigenous cultivars and were not visually selected. Germplasm collections Brda and Vipava include 48 old cultivars. In 1999 dormant canes and leaves were collected for testing.

ELISA: For detection of GLRaV-2, two different procedures and antisera were used: 1) standard double antibody sandwich ELISA (DAS-ELISA) (Clark and Adams, 1977) was used for the detection of GLRaV-2 with specific antiserum produced by Agritest (Italy) and 2) indirect PTA (plate trapping assay) ELISA was adopted for the detection of GLRaV-2 with antiserum produced by Bioreba (Switzerland) (Lommel et al., 1982; Kai-Shu et al. 2007). To determine which tissue is better for ELISA testing of GLRaV-2, grapevine leaves and cane phloem were pulverized in liquid nitrogen and analyzed using the Bioreba detection kit.

For detection of GVB in double antibody sandwich indirect (DAS-I) ELISA (Boscia *et al.*, 1997), GVB specific antiserum from Agritest was used. Reactions were evaluated by measuring the absorbance at 405 nm. Absorbance was measured several times during the incubation with a substrate.

In order to overcome the inconvenience of using more than one extraction procedure when testing grapevine material for several viruses in a routine large-scale testing scheme, three different extraction buffers were compared:

- 1) Extraction buffer with unknown composition (pH 9.0) from Bioreba kit for GLRaV-2;
- 2) 0.5 M Tris extraction buffer (pH 8.2) containing 0.8 % NaCl, 2 % PVP (MW 24000), 1 % PEG (MW 6000), 0.02 % NaN₃ and 0.05 % Tween 20 from Bioreba;
- 3) 0.2 M Tris extraction buffer (pH 8.0) containing 0.8 % NaCl, 2 % PVP, 0.001 % Merthiolate and 0.05 % Tween 20 from Agritest.

The extracts were prepared mechanically from mature canes with Granex 91, special machine used in routine testing, which enables us to prepare up to 1500 samples per day.

Western blot: Phloem tissue from green shoots collected in August was ground in liquid nitrogen and homogenized with ELISA extraction buffer 2 containing 20 mM protease inhibitor phenylmethyl-sulfonyl-flouride and 0.2 % β-mercapto-ethanol (2-Me). After centrifugation (5 min at 6,000×g) samples were mixed with an equal volume of loading buffer (125 mM Tris-HCl pH 6.8, 20 % glycerol, 4 % SDS, 10 % 2-Me and 0.1 % Coomassie Brilliant Blue R-250) and denatured in boiling water for 6 minutes. Sodium dodecyl sulphate polyacrylamide gel electrophoresis (SDS-PAGE) was done in 5 % stacking and 12 % resolving polyacrylamide gels at a constant voltage of 75 V for two hours using Trans Blot Mini Cell (Bio Rad). A Kaleidoscope Prestained Standard (Bio Rad) was used for molecular weight determination. Proteins were electro-transferred to polyvinylidene difluoride membrane (Bio-Rad) for 1 h at 100 V. Membranes were blocked for 30 min with PBS pH 7.4 (0.8 % NaCl, 0.02 % KH₂PO₄, 0.115 % Na₂HPO₄, 0.02 % KCl) containing 0.05 % Tween-20 and 10 % nonfat dry milk. Virus specific IgG diluted 1:1000 (Bioreba) or 1:500 (alkaline phosphatase conjugated - Agritest) were added individually to the blocking buffer and incubated at 4 °C overnight. The membrane was washed three times for 15 min with PBS containing 0.05 % Tween-20. In case of using Bioreba antiserum, the membrane was incubated for 2 h with alkaline phosphatase conjugated anti-mouse antibody and washed as described above. Immuno-reactive proteins were visualized using NBT/BCIP development solution (Bio Rad).

Immuno-electron microscopy. Immuno-electron microscopy (IEM) was used to confirm the presence of GLRaV-2 and GVB in plants. The following antisera were used for IEM:

GLRaV-2 - Agritest (GLRaV-2-Agr), Bioreba (GLRaV-2-Bio), antiserum 2/16/3 donated by D.E. Gosczinsky (GLRaV-2-Gos) (Agricultural Research Council, Plant Protection Research Institute, Pretoria, Republic of South Africa),

GVB - Agritest, antiserum GVB 33-I donated by D.E. Gosczinsky (Agricultural Research Council, Plant Protection Research Institute, Pretoria, Republic of South Africa),

Phloem of dormant canes or green shoots was homogenized in 0.1 M phosphate buffer pH 7 with 2 % PVP MW 40K. Carbon-coated Formvar-filmed grids were incubated on antiserum diluted 1:1000 for 5 minutes, rinsed with phosphate buffer and incubated on plant sap extracts for 1 hour. After rinsing, grids were incubated on antiserum diluted 1:50 for 15 minutes, rinsed with distilled water, negatively stained with 1 % uranyl acetate, and viewed in a transmission electron microscope (Philips CM100).

3 RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Detection of GLRaV-2: Positive samples from cortical scrapings grinded in mortar with buffer 1 (as recommended by antiserum producer) gave strong reaction with Bioreba antiserum. Samples are clearly divided in group of positive and group of negative samples (Table 1). Negative samples have low OD value even after 15 hours; for example OD of 'Refošk' 13 II/27 was 0.283 while OD of positive

samples still increase (OD of 'Sevka' IV/51 was 1.898). When samples were prepared from leaves the background was higher (after 5 hours OD of 'Refošk' 13 II/27 was 0.268, OD of 'Sevka' IV/51 was 0.548) and it was difficult to determinate threshold value, which discriminates positive results from background (Fig. 1).

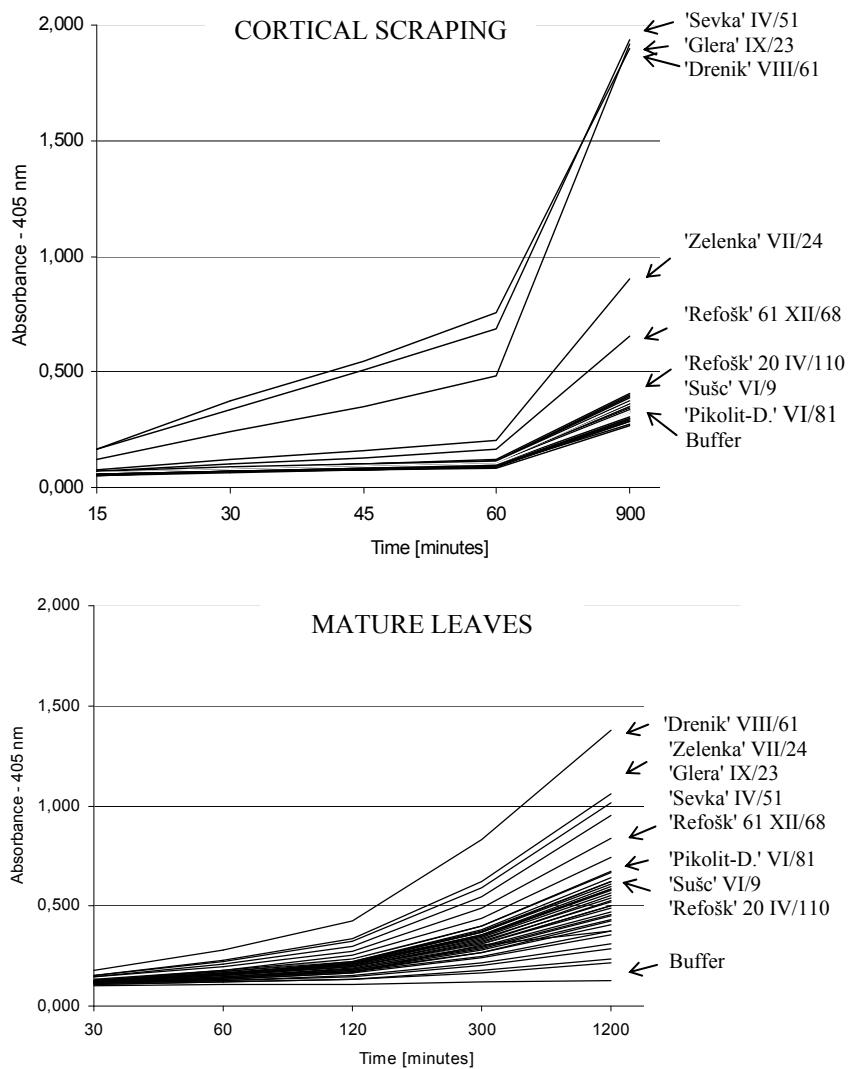


Fig. 1: Change of absorbance at 405 nm over time of the incubation with substrate in enzyme-linked immunosorbent assay (ELISA) when samples were prepared from cortical scraping in comparison with those from leaves. Each line represents one sample (all together 45 samples). Grapevine leafroll associated virus-2 Bioreba antiserum was used.

Western blot confirmed ELISA results (Fig. 2). GLRaV-2-Gos decorated virus particles well (Fig. 4) and they confirmed the presence of GLRaV-2 in samples of 'Klarnica' V/3, 'Sevka' IV/51, 'Zelenka' VII/24 and 'Refošk' 61 XII/77. In IEM GLRaV-2-Bio decorated only damaged parts of virus particles from 'Klarnica' V/3 and 'Sevka' IV/51 (Fig. 3). GLRaV-2-Agr gave no positive result in IEM or Western blot.

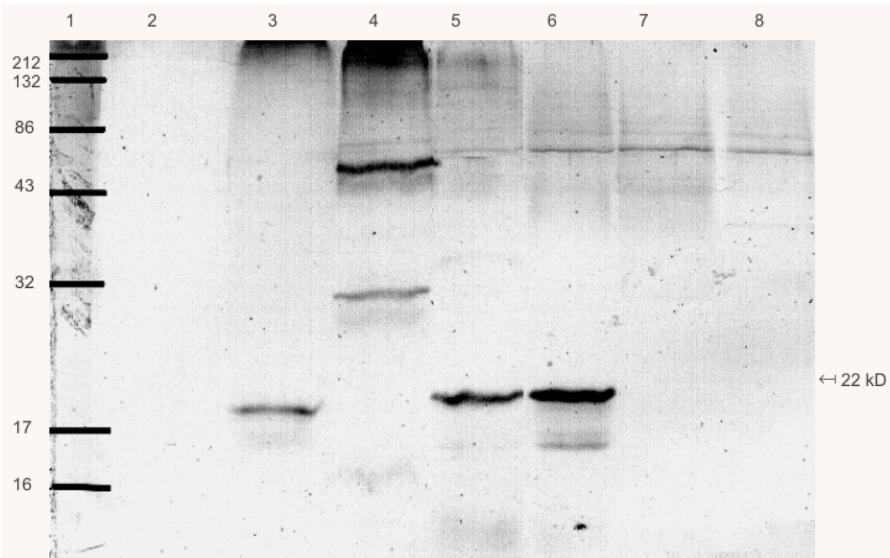


Figure 2: Detection of GLRaV-2 in grapevines by Western blot using the Bioreba antiserum. The samples are: line 2, positive control for GVB from Agritest; line 3, positive control for GLRaV-2 from Agritest; line 4, positive control for GLRaV-2 from Bioreba; line 5, 'Klarnica' V/3; line 6, 'Glera' IX/23; line 7, 'Pikolit-D' VI/81; line 8, 'Sušč' VI/9. The 22 kD coat protein of GLRaV-2 is indicated by arrow.

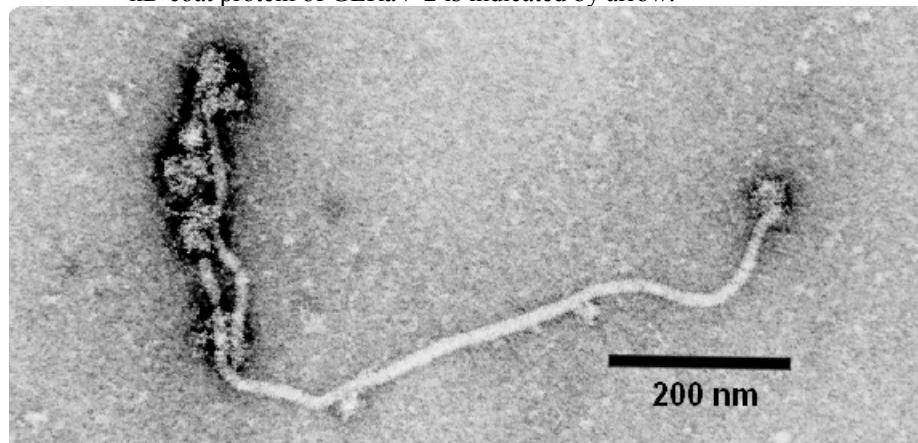


Figure 3: Electron microscopy of GLRaV-2 virus particles decorated with antiserum from Bioreba.

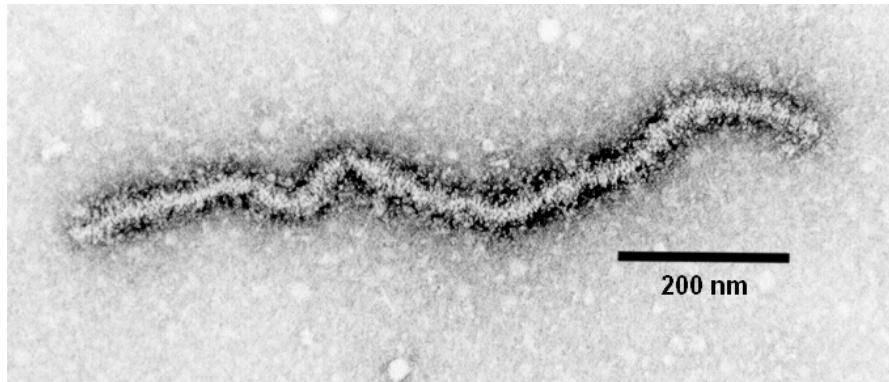


Figure 4: Electron microscopy of GLRaV-2 virus particles decorated with antisera from Goszczynski.

To introduce GLRaV-2 testing in sanitary selection of grapevine the possibility of extraction with special machine Granex 91 was evaluated. Three different extraction buffers were used with antisera from Bioreba and Agritest. With Bioreba antiserum the same samples were positive when they were prepared in mortar or with Granex 91 with buffer 1 (Table 1), but reactions of positive samples were weaker and slower. Buffer 2 and 3 gave less positive results. Agritest antisera gave no positive results when sample extraction was done with buffer 1 and 2 and Granex 91 was used. Some samples which reacted positively in Western blot and IEM failed to be detected by ELISA when buffer 3 and the Agritest antiserum was used (Table 1).

Among 210 tested vines only nine vines were positive for GLRaV-2 and only two of them were cv. 'Refošk'. Infected vines showed no rugose wood symptoms. Rugose wood disease on the rootstocks 'SO4' or the grafted *vinifera* – 'Refošk' part of vine could not be correlated with GLRaV-2.

Detection of GVB: Two positive samples were found when samples were prepared in mortar using antiserum from Agritest and extraction buffer 2 (Table 2). Western blot confirmed ELISA results, but no particles were found in IEM when using the same antiserum from Agritest. However, GVB specific antiserum donated by D.E. Goszczynski (Goszczynski *et al.*, 1997) confirmed virus infections of the same two samples in IEM (Fig. 5). Using extraction with Granex 91 and buffer 2 or 3, we could not find any infected GVB sample. Extraction with Granex 91 and buffer 1 gave the same results as extraction in mortar with buffer 2.

Table 1: A comparison of Bioreba and Agritest antiserum and different extraction buffers for detection of Grapevine leafroll-associated virus 2 (GLRaV-2) in ELISA.

Grapevine accession	method antiserum extraction buffer	ELISA – I/H ^a						Western blot Bioreba	IEM 2/16/3	RW symptoms in vineyard			
		Bioreba			Agritest								
		Mortal	Granex 91	Granex 91	1	2	3						
		1 ^b	1	2	3	1	2	3	2				
‘Klarnica’ V/3		5.8	2.3	0.9	1.0	1.7	1.1	1.3	+	-			
‘Sevka’ IV/51		6.7	2.7	1.3	1.4	1.4	1.0	2.3	+	-			
‘Glera’ IX/23		6.7	3.0	1.4	0.9	1.2	1.0	2.1	NT	-			
‘Zelenka’ VII/24		4.7	1.3	1.1	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.2	+	-			
‘Refošk’ 61 XII/77		2.9	1.5	1.7	1.2	1.5	1.1	1.2	+	-			
‘Refošk’ 13 III/27		0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.0	1.0	NT	+			
‘Refošk’ 20 IV/110		1.0	1.1	1.0	1.2	1.0	1.0	1.0	NT	+			
‘Refošk’ 38 VIII/44		1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.0	NT	+			

^a Values of OD₄₀₅ were measured 60 minutes after adding the substrate *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate when samples were prepared in mortal and after 150 minutes when they were prepared with special machine Granex 91. The I/H (infected/healthy) ratios of tested samples were calculated based on the OD₄₀₅ reading of each accession versus last five samples that were negative in Western blot assays.

^b Three different extraction buffer were used in ELISA: 1 - special buffer for GLRaV-2 from Bioreba with unknown composition (pH 9.0); 2 - 0.5 M Tris pH 8,2 extraction buffer containing 0.8 % NaCl, 2 % PVP (MW 24000), 1 % PEG (MW 6000), 0.02 % NaN₃, 0.05 % Tween 20; 3 - 0.2 M Tris pH 8,0 extraction buffer containing 0.8 % NaCl, 2 % PVP, 0.001 % Merthiolate, 0.05 % Tween 20).

^c + = presence of the decorated virus particle in IEM or the protein band reacted in Western blot; - = absence of the decorated virus particle in IEM or the protein band reacted in Western blot; NT = not tested.

Table 2: A comparison of different extraction buffers for detection of GVB with Agritest antiserum in ELISA.

Grapevine accession	method antiserum extraction buffer	ELISA – I/H ^a						Western blot AGRITEST	IEM 33-I	RW symptoms in vineyard			
		AGRITEST											
		Mortal	Granex 91	2	1	2	3						
		2 ^b			1	2	3	2					
‘Klarnica’ V/3		2.2		1.8	1.1	1.1		+	+	-			
‘Sevka’ IV/51		7.2		2.0	1.0	1.1		+	+	-			
‘Glera’ IX/23		0.9		1.0	1.0	1.0		-	NT	-			
‘Zelenka’ VII/24		0.9		1.0	1.0	1.0		-	NT	-			
‘Refošk’ 61 XII/77		1.1		1.0	1.0	1.0		-	NT	-			
‘Refošk’ 13 III/27		0.8		0.9	1.0	1.0		-	NT	+			
‘Refošk’ 20 IV/110		0.9		1.0	1.0	1.1		-	NT	+			
‘Refošk’ 38 VIII/44		1.3		0.9	0.9	0.9		-	-	+			

^a Values of OD₄₀₅ were measured 120 minutes after adding the substrate *p*-nitrophenyl phosphate when samples were prepared in mortal and after 260 minutes when they were prepared with special machine Granex 91. The I/H (infected/healthy) ratios of tested samples were calculated based on the OD₄₀₅ reading of each accession versus those samples that were negative in Western blot assays.



Figure 5: Electron microscopy of GVB virus particles decorated with antiserum from Goszczynski.

Among all tested vines only two vines were positive for GVB. On cv. 'Refošk' we didn't find any positive samples. Thus rugose wood disease on cv. 'Refošk' grafted on 'SO4' couldn't be correlated with GVB infection.

4 CONCLUSIONS

We found GVB and GLRV-2 in Slovenian indigenous vines using ELISA, Western blot and/or IEM.

The results of ELISA testing showed that extraction is very important step in ELISA. When samples were prepared in mortar only phloem was used while Granex 91 cut all cane in small pieces. Since the concentration of viruses is higher in phloem weaker reaction with Granex 91 is expected. Among the different buffers used for extraction with Granex 91, buffer 1 gave the best results for extraction of GLRaV-2 and GVB. Unfortunately this buffer didn't give good results in extraction of Grapevine flack virus (GFkV), Grapevine virus A (GVA) and Grapevine virus 1 (GLRaV-1) (data not shown), therefore it is not possible to use one universal buffer for extraction of all viruses.

GLRaV-2 antibodies from Agritest gave relatively weaker reactions than antibodies from Bioreba when samples were prepared with Granex 91.

Extraction of GLRaV-2 and GVB with Granex 91 is not convenient for use in sanitary selection since it is not sensitive enough and doesn't prevent propagation of virus-infected vines into new vineyards.

Infection with GLRaV-2 and GVB could not be correlated with rugose wood on cv. 'Refošk' grafted on 'SO4' (*V. riparia* × *V. berlandieri*).

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0009-2

Agrovoc descriptors: phaseolus vulgaris, gene pools, genetic variation, genotypes, genetic markers, polymorphism, provenance, geographical distribution

Agris category codes: F30, F70, F60

COBISS Code 1.01

The efficiency of AFLP and SSR markers in genetic diversity estimation and gene pool classification of common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.)

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Received Sept. 16, 2007; accepted April 28, 2008.
Delo je prispelo 16. sept. 2007; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008.

ABSTRACT

The present work was conducted to evaluate AFLP (Amplified Fragment Length Polymorphism) and SSR (Simple Sequence Repeat) marker systems for their ability to detect genetic diversity within a set of 29 common bean accessions spanning both the Andean and Mesoamerican gene pools and to compare the efficiency of these two marker types in the classification of accessions according to the gene pools of origin. The ten AFLP primer combinations produced 112 polymorphic bands, while 14 SSR primer pairs generated 100 polymorphic bands. Almost two-fold higher value of expected heterozygosity was calculated for SSR (0.63) than for AFLP (0.32). As the result of a higher multiplex ratio component (11.20), higher marker index value was observed for AFLP (3.56) in comparison to SSR (0.63). The higher level of polymorphism detected by SSR markers has contributed to the lower genetic similarity estimates based on SSR markers (mean 0.25) as compared to AFLP markers (mean 0.88). The dendograms generated with hierarchical UPGMA (Unweighted Pair Group Method with Arithmetic mean) cluster analysis of the Jaccard's similarity coefficient matrices revealed two major clusters, which were identified

Prispevek je del doktorskega dela 'Karakterizacija slovenskih genskih virov navadnega fižola (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) z morfološkimi, biokemijskimi in molekulskimi markerji', ki ga je pod mentorstvom prof. dr. Branke Javornik in doc. dr. Vladimira Megliča napisal Marko Maras.

The manuscript is a part of the doctoral dissertation 'Morphological, biochemical and molecular characterization of Slovene common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) genetic resources' written by Marko Maras (supervisors: prof. dr. Branka Javornik and dr. Vladimir Meglič).

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as the Andean and the Mesoamerican gene pools. Both marker systems showed comparable accuracy in grouping genotypes of common bean according to their gene pool of origin.

Key words: AFLP, SSR, gene pool, genetic diversity, *Phaseolus vulgaris*

IZVLEČEK

ANALIZA UČINKOVITosti AFLP IN SSR MARKERSKIH SISTEMOV V PROUČEVANJU GENETSKE RAZNOLIKOSTI IN POREKLA NAVADNEGA FIŽOLA (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.)

V raziskavi smo na vzorcu 29 genotipov navadnega fižola različnega geografskega porekla (srednjameriško, andsko) proučevali učinkovitost AFLP (polimorfizem dolžine pomnoženih restriktionskih fragmentov) in SSR (enostavne ponavljajoče se sekvene) markerjev v vrednotenju genetske raznolikosti in klasifikaciji navadnega fižola glede na poreklo. Z 10 pari AFLP začetnih oligonukleotidov smo v verižni reakciji s polimerazo (PCR) pri 29 genotipih namnožili 112 polimorfnih fragmentov, s 14 pari SSR začetnih oligonukleotidov pa 100. Za SSR markerski sistem (0,63) smo v primerjavi z AFLP sistemom (0,32) izračunali skoraj dvakrat višjo vrednost pričakovane heterozigotnosti polimorfnih lokusov. Pri AFLP sistemu smo zabeležili skoraj šestkrat višjo vrednost markerskega indeksa kot pri SSR (3,56:0,63), kar je posledica večjega povprečnega števila polimorfnih DNA fragmentov, namnoženih v posamezni AFLP analizi, in multipleksnega razmerja. Na podlagi odkritih polimorfizmov smo v primerjavi z AFLP s SSR sistemom izračunali nižjo povprečno vrednost genetske podobnosti med pari genotipov (0,88:0,25). Pri razvrščanju genotipov v skupine z metodo netehane aritmetične sredine (UPGMA) na osnovi podobnosti so se akcesije ne glede na tip markerjev razvrstile v 2 skupini, ki ustrezata dvema izvornima geografskima regijama navadnega fižola (srednjameriško, andsko). Rezultati raziskave kažejo, da sta SSR in AFLP markerska sistema podobno uspešna pri vrednotenju genetske raznolikosti navadnega fižola in njegovi klasifikaciji glede na poreklo.

Ključne besede: AFLP, SSR, genski sklad, genetska raznolikost, *Phaseolus vulgaris*

INTRODUCTION

Common bean (*Phaseolus vulgaris* L.) is a widely distributed crop of considerable importance in many countries around the world, representing a major protein input in the population diet. Two distinct gene pools of cultivated beans, as the result of different domestication events that occurred in the Andes (Peru and Argentina) and in Middle America (Mexico, Central America and Colombia) have been described (Gepts et al., 1986).

Biological evidence supporting this theory came originally from studies of variability in phaseolin, the major seed storage protein (Gepts, 1986). Seed size is the primary morphological characteristic used to discriminate between the gene pools; however, differences have also been observed for leaf and bracteole size and shape, flower color, internode length, pod beak position (Singh et al., 1991a), and climatic adaptation (Debouck et al., 1993). Studies of isozyme variation also revealed the existence of two gene pools within *P. vulgaris* (Singh et al., 1991b). Further evidences for the diversity between the Andean and Mesoamerican gene pools have been found by various molecular techniques. These include RFLP (Restriction Fragment Length Polymorphism) (Velasquez and Gepts, 1994), RAPD (Random Amplification of Polymorphic DNA) (Haley et al., 1994; Johns et al., 1997), and AFLP (Tohme et al., 1996; Maciel et al., 2003; Šuštar-Vozlič et al.,

2006). Microsatellite markers (or SSRs) have been used in common bean to construct a PCR-based genetic map (Yu et al., 2000; Blair et al., 2003), to evaluate intra-specific diversity within the genus (Gaitan-Solis et al., 2002) and to fingerprint genetic diversity of common beans (Metais et al., 2002). Recently, they were shown useful in distinguishing Andean and Mesoamerican genotypes (Blair et al., 2006; Maras et al., 2006).

The objectives of this work were (1) to evaluate AFLP and SSR marker techniques for their ability to detect genetic diversity within a set of 29 common bean accessions spanning both the Andean and Mesoamerican gene pools and (2) to find out if there is any effect of different marker types on the gene pool classification of common bean accessions.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant material

A total of 29 common bean accessions were used in this study (Table 1), including 27 Slovene accessions from the gene bank at the Agricultural Institute of Slovenia and two check accessions ('Michigan Dark Red Kidney' (MDRK) from Andean gene pool and 'Michelite' from Mesoamerican gene pool) from the Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, Gatersleben, Germany. The genetic diversity and the origin of these accessions were assessed in previous study using AFLP (Šuštar-Vozlič et al., 2006) and a part of them (14) was also genotyped in another study using 14 microsatellite markers (Maras et al., 2006). Fifteen accessions were genotyped in addition in this study, using the same microsatellite markers as above.

Table 1: A list of 29 *P. vulgaris* accessions used in AFLP and SSR analysis.

Accession	Species name	Accession	Species name
PHA7 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA418 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA11 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA423 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA15 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA438 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA29 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA452 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA59 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA498 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA153 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA639 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA307 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>	PHA642 (1)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA309 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>	PHA717 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA316 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA777 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA346 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	PHA950 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA358 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>	PHA954 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA363 (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>	PHA973 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA374 (1)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>	Michigan Dark Red Kidney (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>
PHA386 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>nanus</i>	Michelite (5)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>
PHA388 (3)	<i>P. vulgaris</i> var. <i>vulgaris</i>		

Accessions, previously analyzed by 14 SSR markers are in normal type, while the fifteen accessions analyzed in addition in this study are in bold type. The numbers in the brackets indicate the number of individual seeds analyzed by microsatellite markers.

DNA extraction

For the AFLP analysis, fresh leaf samples were taken from 10 field grown plants of each accession, bulked and DNA extracted using a modified CTAB method according to Kump and Javornik (1996). For the SSR analysis, DNA was extracted from single seeds by GenElute Plant Genomic DNA Miniprep Kit (Sigma). The majority of accessions analyzed by SSR markers were represented by three to five individuals (seeds), totaling 107 individuals for all 29 accessions (Table 1).

Molecular analyses

The AFLP assay was carried out in our previous study (Šuštar-Vozlič et al., 2006). Briefly, 500 ng of DNA was restricted using two restriction enzymes, *Eco*RI and *Mse*I, and double stranded adaptors ligated to the fragment ends. This was followed by a pre-amplification step using non-selective primers. Selective amplification was performed on the pre-amplified fragment mixture using a total of 10 *Eco*RI and *Mse*I primer combinations. Amplification products were separated on a 7.5% polyacrylamide denaturing gel in an automated ALFexpressII sequencer (Amersham Biosciences AB, Uppsala, Sweden).

In addition to 14 accessions previously analyzed by 14 microsatellite markers, 15 new accessions were genotyped following the same procedure as described by Maras et al. (2006). In few words, all forward primers were fluorescently labeled, and the PCR products genotyped on an ABI Prism 310 Genetic Analyzer (Applied Biosystems). Allele scoring and sizing were performed using GeneScan-350 (Applied Biosystems) internal size standard and GeneScanTM Analysis Software 2.1 (Applied Biosystems).

Band scoring and data analysis

Profiles for each accession and marker technique (AFLP, SSR) were constructed by scoring 0 and 1 for absence and presence of bands, respectively. In the construction of SSR-based binary matrix, each accession included the number of individuals listed in Table 1. To compare the efficiency of the two marker techniques for diversity assessment in common bean, we estimated the following for each assay unit (U):

- 1) Number of polymorphic bands (n_p);
- 2) Number of monomorphic bands (n_{np});
- 3) Average number of polymorphic bands per assay unit (n_p/U);
- 4) Number of loci (L);
- 5) Number of loci per assay unit: $n_u = L/U$;
- 6) Expected heterozygosity (H_e) of the polymorphic locus for a genetic marker: $H_e = 1 - \sum p_i^2$, where p_i is the allele frequency for the i^{th} allele, and the arithmetic mean of the expected heterozygosity of the polymorphic loci: $H_{ep} = \sum H_e/n_p$;
- 7) Fraction of polymorphic loci: $\beta = n_p/n_p+n_{np}$;
- 8) Effective multiplex ratio: $E = n_u\beta$;
- 9) Marker index: $MI = EH_{ep}$.

For both matrices, genetic similarity estimates (GS_{AFLP} , GS_{SSR}) were calculated using Jaccard's coefficient of similarity (Jaccard, 1908). The accessions were grouped by cluster analysis using the unweighted pair-group method (UPGMA). To determine how accurately the dendograms represent the estimates of genetic similarity among the genotypes, a cophenetic matrix was generated for each of the dendograms and compared with the corresponding similarity matrix by the Mantel matrix correspondence test (Mantel, 1967). The same Mantel statistic was used to compare the similarity matrices as well as the dendograms produced by the AFLP and SSR techniques. All these procedures were performed by appropriate routines in NTSYSpc version 2.0 (Rohlf, 1998). Support for each dendrogram was determined by a bootstrap procedure (100 replications) using the computer package FreeTree (Pavlicek et al., 1999).

RESULTS

Both marker techniques were able to uniquely fingerprint each of the 29 bean accessions. The levels of polymorphism detected with each marker technique and the index comparing their informativeness are reported in Table 2. The total number of assays was 10 and 14 primer combinations for AFLP and SSR, respectively. The total number of polymorphic bands ranged from 112 for AFLP to 100 for SSR. An average number of 7.14 polymorphic bands per assay unit was identified for SSR, while for AFLP this number increased to 11.20. Almost two-fold higher value of expected heterozygosity was calculated for SSR (0.63) than for AFLP (0.32). The higher marker index value observed for AFLP (3.56) in comparison to SSR (0.63) is the result of a relatively high multiplex ratio component (11.20) of the former.

Table 2: Levels of polymorphism and comparison of the discriminating capacity of AFLP and SSR markers in 29 common bean accessions.

Indexes with their abbreviations	Marker system	
	AFLP	SSR
Number of assay units	U	10
Number of polymorphic bands	n_p	112
Number of monomorphic bands	n_{np}	225
Average number of polymorphic bands per assay unit	n_p/U	11.20
Number of loci	L	337
Number of loci per assay unit	n_u	33.70
Expected heterozygosity of the polymorphic loci	H_{ep}	0.32
Fraction of polymorphic loci	β	0.33
Effective multiplex ratio	E	11.20
Marker index	MI	3.56

For all pair-wise comparisons of GS estimates, GS_{AFLP} ranged from 0.73 to 0.99 with an average of 0.88. GS_{SSR} ranged from 0 to 0.74 with an average of 0.25. Accessions PHA346, PHA374, and 'MDRK' shared no SSR allele with accession PHA717. The Mantel test for comparison of the AFLP-based and SSR-based similarity matrices showed moderate but significant correlation ($r = 0.69$).

The dendograms generated with hierarchical UPGMA cluster analysis of the Jaccard's similarity coefficient matrices revealed two major clusters with 100% bootstrap values (Figure 1). The cophenetic correlation between the dendrogram and the similarity matrix was moderate for SSR ($r = 0.82$) and high for AFLP ($r = 0.96$). Cluster I contained Andean check accession 'MDRK' and 23 Slovene accessions distributed into two sub-clusters, Sub-cluster I and Sub-cluster II. In addition to Mesoamerican check accession 'Michelite', minor Cluster II contained only four Slovene accessions. Two accessions, PHA438 and PHA346, clustered differently in dendograms, and these deviations appeared only on the level of the

sub-clusters. Cophenetic correlation of AFLP-based and SSR-based cophenetic matrices was moderate ($r = 0.78$) but highly significant.

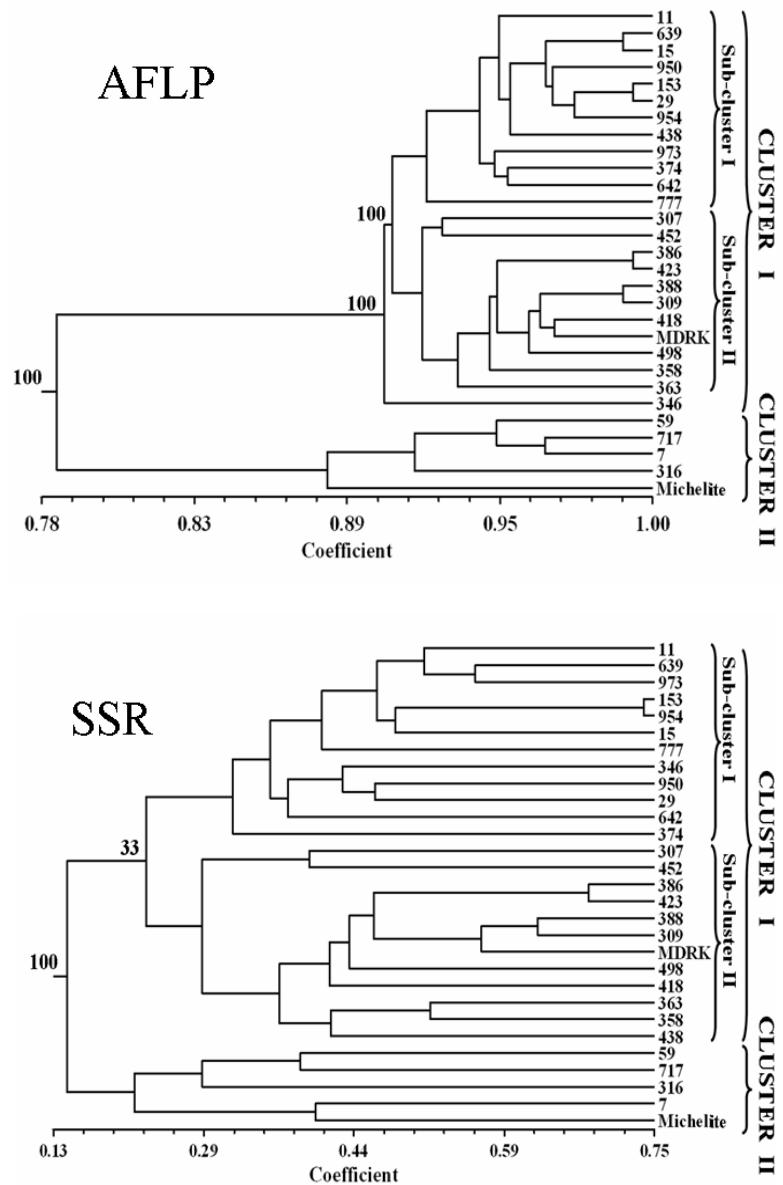


Figure 1: Dendrograms of 29 common bean accessions revealed by cluster analysis of genetic similarity estimates for two different marker sets, AFLP and SSR.

DISCUSSION

In this study, we have compared the marker data-sets produced using two different marker systems, AFLP and SSR, to define genetic relationships among 29 common bean accessions, and to investigate which marker system can be more effectively used in the gene pool classification of common bean.

Using AFLP, 10 primer combinations were sufficient to generate 112 polymorphic markers. A total of 100 bands were obtained from the 14 SSR primers amplified and all bands were polymorphic across all the accessions studied. The present study showed that the expected heterozygosity of polymorphic loci for SSR is greater than for AFLP. This relates to the variation of the average number of polymorphic bands per assay unit, which ranged from 33% for AFLP to a maximum of 100% for SSR. The higher level of polymorphism detected by SSR markers than with AFLPs highlights the discriminating capacity of the former. The hypervariability observed at SSR loci was expected because of the unique mechanism by which this variation is generated: replication slippage is thought to occur more frequently than single nucleotide mutations and insertion/deletion events, which generate the polymorphisms detectable by AFLP (Powell et al., 1996).

A comparison of the overall efficiency of the two marker systems was provided by the marker index (MI). Almost six-fold higher MI calculated for AFLP in comparison to SSR highlights the distinctive nature of the AFLP assay, which is in concurrence with earlier reports in many plant species (Powell et al., 1996; Belaj et al., 2003; Saini et al., 2004; Medini et al., 2005). The distinctive value of MI for AFLP data is related to the effective multiplex ratio. In other words, it depends more on the high number of polymorphic bands obtained per experiment than on the allelic heterozygosity found among accessions.

The higher level of polymorphism detected by SSR markers has contributed to the lower genetic similarity estimates based on SSR markers (mean 0.25) as compared to AFLP markers (mean 0.88). This is in agreement with other studies comparing the level of polymorphism detected with AFLP and SSR markers in soybean (Powell et al., 1996), maize (Pejic et al., 1998), sorghum (Menz et al., 2003), and triticale (Tams et al., 2005). The moderate and significant correlation here between GS_{AFLP} and GS_{SSR} ($r = 0.69$) is comparable with the findings in maize ($r = 0.67$) (Pejic et al., 1998), and triticale ($r = 0.70$) (Tams et al., 2005). Saini et al. (2004) found even lower correlation between these two marker classes (0.50) in rice and assumed, that this is due to different genomic fractions, involving repeat and/or unique sequences, which may have been differentially evolved or preserved in due course of natural or human selection, that are targeted by these markers.

The cophenetic correlation between the similarity matrix obtained by AFLP analysis and corresponding dendrogram revealed a very high degree of fit ($r = 0.96$), while moderate cophenetic correlation ($r = 0.82$) between the similarity matrix obtained by SSR analysis and corresponding dendrogram is probably due to a large number of pair-wise genetic similarity coefficients with intermediate values, which allow a number of similar variants for dendrogram branching (Tams et al.,

2005). This was reflected also in bootstrap analyses, where the node connecting two sub-clusters of major Cluster I appeared in only 33% bootstrap steps. Nevertheless, both marker techniques revealed a high degree of similarity in dendrogram topologies (Figure 1), because the main clusters in the dendograms were consistent for both marker systems. All accessions with affiliation to one of the common bean gene pools were assigned to their specific main cluster. Andean Cluster I contained 23 Slovene accessions and check accession 'MDRK'. Only four accessions grouped with 'Michelite', constituting Mesoamerican gene pool. The results suggest that the majority common bean genotypes cultivated in Slovenia are of Andean origin.

In conclusion, we have shown that AFLP and SSR profiling techniques may provide useful information on the level of polymorphism and diversity in common bean, showing their utility in the characterization of germplasm accessions. Both marker systems have comparable accuracy in grouping genotypes of this species according to their gene pool of origin. In respect to germplasm management this is of great significance since genotypes from different gene pools differ in many important agro-ecological traits, including resistance to diseases and pests, growth habit, yield potential, and sensitivity to photoperiod, high temperatures and moisture stress (Singh et al., 1991a).

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

The Institute of Plant Genetics and Crop Plant Research, Gatersleben, Germany, kindly provided the seeds of 'Michelite' and 'Michigan Dark Red Kidney'. The research was supported by grant L4-3284-0401-01 from the Slovenian Ministry of Education, Science and Sport and the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Food.

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0010-9

Agrovoc descriptors: musa (bananas), bananas, greenhouse crops, plant nematodes, nematoda, parasites, disease surveys, epidemiology, identification, greece

Agris category codes: H10

COBISS Code 1.03

Plant parasitic nematodes associated with banana crop in Crete, Greece

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Received September 14, 2007; accepted March 31, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 14. septembra 2007, sprejeto 31. marca 2008.

ABSTRACT

This is a report on the presence of *Meloidogyne* spp., *Helicotylenchus multicintus* and *Pratylenchus goodeyi* in roots of banana crops in Crete.

Key words: greenhouse crop, root-knot nematodes, lesion nematodes, spiral nematodes

IZVLEČEK

PARAZITSKE OGORČICE RASTLIN UGOTOVljENE V NASADU BANANOVCEV NA KRETI V GRČIJI

To je poročilo o najdbi parazitskih ogorčic *Meloidogyne* spp., *Helicotylenchus multicintus* in *Pratylenchus goodeyi* v koreninah bananovcev na Kreti.

Ključne besede: bananovci, gojenje v rastlinjaku, ogorčice

1 INTRODUCTION

Banana plantations in Crete occupy approximately 63 ha allocated in four areas with the main varieties being Cavendish, Grand Nain and Williams (data from the Banana Growers' Cooperative of Crete for the 2005-2006 growing season). The crop is mainly cultivated in greenhouses and in most cases conventional pest management practices are applied. Nematodes are a major pest of banana crop worldwide (Gowen and Queneherve, 1990). In Crete, a nematological survey on the most representative banana growing areas done in 1990 and 1991 revealed the presence of *Meloidogyne javanica*, *Helicotylenchus multicinctus* and *Pratylenchus goodeyi* (Vovlas et al., 1994).

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In the work described here, the nematode species found in banana roots from samples brought in the Nematology Lab, Plant Protection Institute of Heraklion, by growers during the last 10 years are reported.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Nematodes were extracted only from roots. Roots with lesions and necrotic areas were thoroughly washed from adhering soil and chopped into small pieces, which were spread on plastic sieves partially immersed in dishes with water. Endoparasitic migratory nematodes move outside from the root and are collected in water. For identification, they were prepared in slides, which were microscopically examined.

In cases of root galls, the roots were cut longitudinally and observed in a stereoscope for presence of females and egg masses of root-knot nematodes (*Meloidogyne* spp.). No attempts were made to identify these nematodes to species level.

3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Nematodes are widespread in banana plantations of Crete, farmers are aware of their existence and conventionally manage them through annual applications of organophosphate / carbamate nematicides (personal communication with growers and agrochemical distributors). As banana is considered a high value crop in Crete, it is subjected to a great input of fertilizers, agrochemicals and water supply. Under these cropping systems, the problem of nematodes in reducing plant growth and yield may not be obvious; therefore, there are neither data estimating crop loss in banana plantations in Crete due to nematode attack nor a cost benefit of nematicide application. In the period 1995-2006 only 20 growers brought samples with nematode infection in the lab in cases where plants had early flowering, low production or did not respond to fertilizers. In all cases the spiral nematode *Helicotylenchus multicinctus*, the lesion nematode *Pratylenchus goodeyi* and the root-knot nematode *Meloidogyne* spp either alone or in coexisting populations were found. Almost in all cases, most of the nematode infected roots were deteriorated due to infection by other microorganisms, something that has been previously reported (Vovlas et al., 1994). An order in the frequency of the nematode species can not be determined, as in some cases it was observed that roots coming from different plants from the same greenhouse contained different nematode species.

The root systems infected by root-knot nematodes were heavily galled with galls at root tips (Figure 1). Roots infected by lesion and spiral nematodes indicated extensive black necrosis of epidermal and cortical tissue (Figures 2, 3) which are typical of nematode infection (Gowen and Queneherve, 1990; Vovlas et al., 1994). In our observations no discrimination could be done between root damage caused by lesion or spiral nematodes. Morphometrics of adults of *P. goodeyi* and *H. multicinctus* were within the range presented in species description (Siddiqui, 1973; Machon and Hunt, 1985).

It is concluded that the nematological problems of banana crop in Crete remain the same to those presented 16 years ago. In the meantime the system of banana

planting has been changed. Growers are using now *in vitro* propagated plantlets instead of suckers removed from mother plants. That has significantly restricted the nematode dissemination through propagating material. However land is intensively used without crop rotation and the *in vitro* derived healthy plants are usually established in nematode infested fields. Furthermore, root-knot nematodes become a serious problem in young plantations established in greenhouses where vegetables have been previously grown (Figures 1,4).

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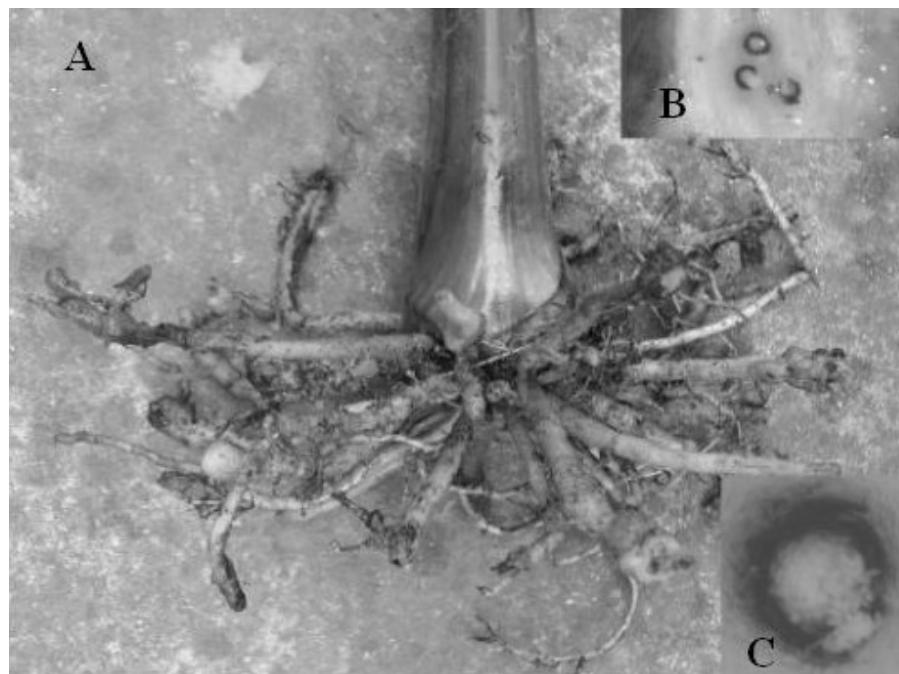


Figure 1. Infection of banana root by *Meloidogyne* spp: **A** Galls at the root tips; **B** Longitudinal gall section indicating the sites of females with egg masses; **C** Egg mass inside the root tissue.

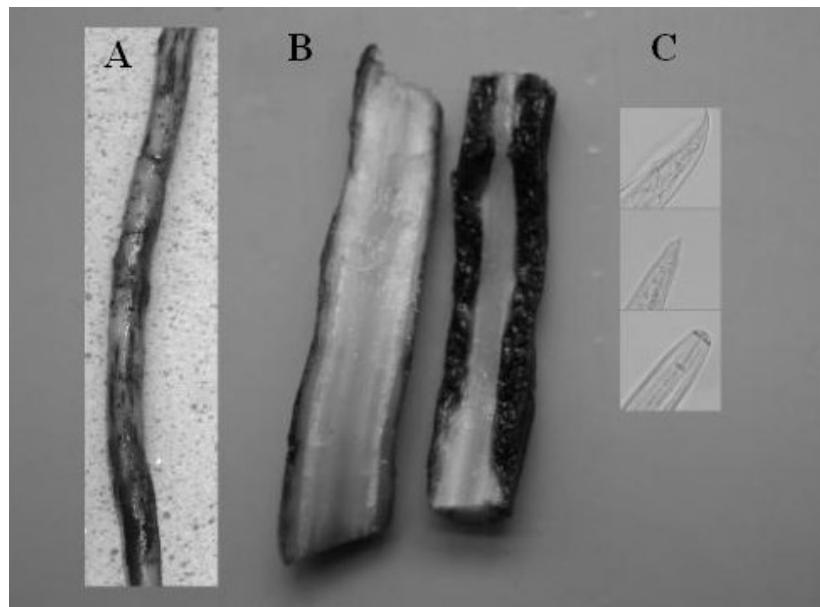


Figure 2. Infection of banana root by *Pratylenchus goodeyi*: **A** Lesions on the root surface; **B** Longitudinal section of healthy (left) and infected (right) root; **C** Male tail, female tail and female head (top to bottom).

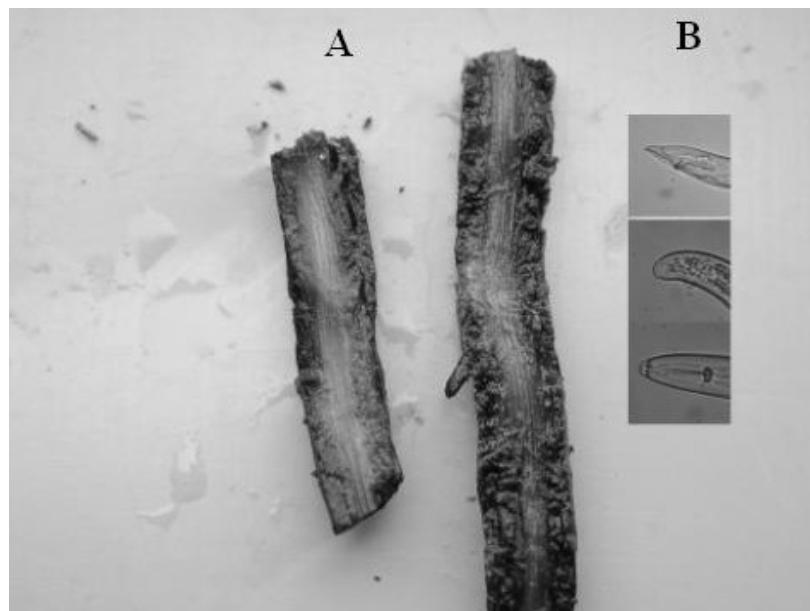


Figure 3. Infection of banana root by *Helicotylenchus multicinctus* : **A** Longitudinal section of infected roots; **B** Male tail, female tail and female head (top to bottom).



Figure 4. A young stunted and chlorotic banana plant due to infection by root-knot nematodes.

DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0011-8

Agrovoc descriptors: tomatoes, lycopersicon esculentum, varieties, crop yield, crop performance, spacing, fertilizer application, phosphorus, phosphate fertilizers, nitrogen, nitrogen fertilizers, Ethiopia

Agris category codes: F04, F61, F62

COBISS Code 1.01

Response of tomato cultivars differing in growth habit to nitrogen and phosphorus fertilizers and spacing on vertisol in Ethiopia

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Received: June 29, 2007; accepted: March 21, 2008.
Prispelo 29. junija 2007; sprejeto 21. marca 2008.

ABSTRACT

A field experiment was conducted on vertisol at Ambo University College (Ethiopia) during 2003/2004 and 2004/2005 cropping seasons to investigate the response of tomato cultivars varying in growth habit to rates of Nitrogen (N) and Phosphorus (P) fertilizers and plant spacing. The treatment consisted of factorial combination of two cultivars (Margelobe and Meika shola), three NP fertilizers rates (50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅/ha, 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha and 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) and three spacing (100 cm x 30 cm, 80 cm x 30 cm and 60 cm x 45 cm) arranged in a Randomized Complete Block Design. Results revealed that fertilizer rates and spacing significantly affected the total and marketable fruit yields as well as % marketable fruit yield. Similarly, plant vigor (plant height), number of fruits per cluster and 10 fruit weight were significantly influenced by all of the main factors. Besides the main factors effect, fertilizer rate*spacing and cultivar*spacing interaction effects were also observed on % marketable fruit yield and 10 fruit weight, respectively. The results of 2003/2004 cropping season showed that the application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha or 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha resulted in significantly higher total as well as marketable fruit yield of the tomato cultivars. Result of 2004/2005 cropping season, however, demonstrated that only the application the highest fertilizer rate (110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) resulted in superior fruit yields whilst the other two rates did not significantly differ from each other in affecting fruit yields. Results of both cropping seasons confirmed significantly higher % marketable fruit yield due to the application of either 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha or 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha. Closer spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm and 60 cm x 45 cm gave higher total as well as marketable fruit yield than the wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm.

Key words: fertilizer rate, marketable fruit yield, tomato cultivars, total fruit yield, spacing

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IZVLEČEK

**VPLIV GNOJENJA Z DUŠIKOM IN FOSFORJEM NA RASTLINE KULTIVARJEV
PARADIŽNIKA Z RAZLIČNO RASTJO
NA VERTISOLU V ETIOPIJI**

Na Ambo University College v Etiopiji je bil v letih 2003/2004 in 2004/2005 izveden poljski poskus z dvema kultivarjem paradižnika (determinantnim in nedeterminantnim) da bi raziskali vpliv gnojenja z dušikom (N) in fosforjem (P) ter razdalje med rastlinami na paradižnik. Izveden je bil faktorski poskus z dvema kultivarjem (Margelobe in Melka shola), tremi odmerki gnojil NP (50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅/ha, 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha in 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) in tremi razdaljami med rastlinami (100 cm x 30 cm, 80 cm x 30 cm in 60 cm x 45 cm) v naključnem bloku. Rezultati so pokazali, da so stopnje gnojenja in gostota rastlin značilno vplivali na celoten in tržen pridelek raslin, kot tudi na odstotek uporabnega pridelka. Podobno so bile višine rastlin, teža in število plodov v značilni povezavi z vsemi glavnimi faktorji. Poleg glavnih vplivov so vplivale tudi interakcije gnojenje*gostota in kultivar*razdalje tako na % tržnega pridelka plodov kot na težo 10 plodov. Rezultati v sezoni 2003/2004 so pokazali da je uporaba 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha ali 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha omogočila značilno višje celokupne in tržne pridelke paradižnikov pri obeh kultivarjih. Toda v sezoni 2004/2005 je samo najvišji odmerek gnojil (110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) dal višje pridelke. Rezultati obeh sezont skupaj so potrdili višji % tržnega pridelka pri uporabi 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha ali 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha. Gostejsa saditev (80 cm x 30 cm oziroma 60 cm x 45 cm) je dala višje pridelke kot redkejša saditev (100 cm x 30 cm).

Ključne besede: celoten pridelek, gostota saditve, kultivarji paradižnika, odmerki gnojil, tržni pridelek

INTRODUCTION

Tomato (*Lycopersicon esculentum* L.) is the most widely grown vegetable in the world being recognized as a reach source of vitamins and minerals. It is also among the most important vegetable crops in Ethiopia. The total production of this crop in the country has shown a marked increase (Lemma et al., 1992) since it became the most profitable crop providing a higher income to small scale farmers compared to other vegetable crops. However, tomato production is highly constrained by several factors especially in developing nations like Ethiopia. The national average of tomato fruit yield in Ethiopia is often low (125 q/ha) compared even to the neighboring African countries like Kenya (164 q/ha) (FAO Production Year Book, 2004). Current productivity under farmers' condition is 90 q/ha, whereas yield up to 400 q/ha can be recorded on research plots (personal communication).

In Ethiopia, farmers get lower yield mainly due to diseases and pests as well as due to sub-optimal fertilization. Mehla et al., (2000) and Pandey et al., (1996) reported that fruit yield in tomato is highly influenced by the NP fertilizers rates applied. Similarly, Sherma et al., (1999) also reported average fruit weight of tomato to have been influenced by the amount of NP fertilizers rates applied. Thus, tomato plant should receive optimum amount of NP fertilizers to produce higher fruit yields. According to (<http://www.avrdc.org>, 2007) the total nitrogen (kg ha⁻¹) required to achieve a target fruit yield is estimated by multiplying the target yield in tons per hectare by 2.4. Similarly, P₂O₅ requirement per hectare can be estimated by multiplying N requirement by 0.35 (<http://www.avrdc.org>, 2007).

Improper plant spacing is also among the notable reasons of low productivity of this crop. Lemma et al., (1992) reported that plant spacing greatly influenced fruit yield in both fresh market and processing tomatoes. Likewise, Godfrey-Sam-Aggrey et al., (1985) and Mehla et al., (2000) also reported yield parameters in tomato to have been affected by spacing.

In Ethiopia, so far plant spacing and fertilizer rates were determined for tomatoes only at Melkasa research center which can not agro-ecologically represent the other tomato growing regions of the country and especially no such study was done in tomatoes under vertisol condition and the whole of such previous agronomic studies were confined only to sandy loam soils of the rift valley regions of the country. Although the tomato growers in the rift valley regions can directly use the recommendation from this research center, the same recommendation however, can not apply for the other tomato growing regions with completely different agro-ecology. In tropics in general, the common fertilizer application rates according to literature are 60-120 kg N, and 60-140 kg P₂O₅ and 60-120 kg K₂O per hectare (<http://www.avrdc.org>, 2007). However, this would also be too general to use for specific regions. Since spacing requirement of tomato depends on soil type and its inherent fertility (Lemma et al., 1992) and the type of cultivars (Mehla et al., 2000), the use of blanket recommendation would be inappropriate and it would be indispensable to identify appropriate recommendation for specific soil types and cultivars grown in the region. Thus, the present investigation was proposed with an objective to determine an optimum fertilizer rate and plant spacing for tomato cultivars with contrasting growth habits grown in vertisol dominated region of the central Ethiopia.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The experiment was conducted in the field for two years (2003/2004 and 2004/2005 cropping seasons) on vertisol in Ethiopia at Ambo University College experimental station during off-season with irrigation. Two commonly grown tomato cultivars with contrasting growth habit (Margelobe: an indeterminate cultivar and Melka shola a determinate type) were used for the study. The treatments consisted of factorial combination of two above mentioned cultivars, three spacings (100 cm x 30 cm, 80 cm x 30 cm and 60 cm x 45 cm) where the larger spacing always stands for inter-row spacing and the other for intra-row spacing) and three fertilizer rates (50 kg N/ha + 60 kg P₂O₅/ ha, 80 kg N/ha + 90 kg P₂O₅/ ha and 110 kg N/ha + 120 kg P₂O₅/ ha). A total of 18 treatments were laid out in Randomized Complete Block Design (RCBD) with three replications. The plot size used was 1.8 m x 4 m (Plot area = 7.2 m²) in both years of experimentation. The nitrogen fertilizer (N) was applied as urea whereas phosphorus (P) was applied in the form of Diammonium Phosphate (DAP) both of which are commonly used forms of chemical fertilizers by the small-scale farmers and commercial growers in the country. The whole amount of phosphate fertilizer was applied at transplanting whereas nitrogen was given at two equal splits (half at transplanting and the rest half 30 days after transplanting) as basal application. No any other nutrient was applied since especially Potassium is not limiting in most Ethiopian soils. Data was recorded on plant height (plant vigor) at 60 days after transplanting, number of fruits per cluster and 10 fruit weight only during the first cropping season experiment. However, data on total and marketable fruit yields were recorded during both cropping season experiments. Data for plant height and number of fruits per cluster were determined for 5 randomly selected sample plants for every treatment in each block (i.e. values of each treatment in every block are averages of 5 plants). To see the effect of each factor (cultivars, spacing and fertilizer rate) on the measured parameters, the data were analyzed by analysis of variance-ANOVA and in all cases means were compared at $\alpha = 0.05$ probability level according to Tukey test using SAS statistical software.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

1. *Effect of main factors on total fruit yield*

Fertilizer rate

Generally, higher total fruit yield was obtained during the first year (2003/2004 cropping season) experiment than during the second year (2004/2005 cropping season) experiment. This was mainly because the fruits were harvested over an extended period of time during the first year experiment. The analysis of variance (ANOVA) showed that there was significant main effect of fertilizer rates ($P<0.01$) on the total fruit yield of the tomato cultivars during both cropping seasons (Tables 1 and 2). During the first year experiment, significantly higher total fruit yield (80.5 kg plot⁻¹) was obtained with the application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare as compared to the application of 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare which gave a total fruit yield of only 66 kg plot⁻¹ (Figure 1). During the same year, the application of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ per hectare resulted in a total fruit yield of 73 kg plot⁻¹ which was on par with that obtained with the application of the highest fertilizer rate (110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare). During the second year experiment (2004/2005 cropping season), significantly higher total fruit yield (46.6 kg plot⁻¹) was obtained with the application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare as compared to the application of both 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ and 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare which gave a total fruit yield of 38.3 and 35.7 kg plot⁻¹, respectively (Figure 1). The application of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ per hectare did not significantly differ from the application of 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare in affecting the total fruit yields of the tomato cultivars during both cropping seasons. Higher total fruit yield in tomato at higher NP rate was reported by Rashid (1993), Pandey et al., (1996) and Mehla et al., (2000), which is in agreement with the present finding.

Spacing

Total fruit yield was also significantly affected by the spacing ($P<0.05$) during both years experiments (Tables 1 and 2). During the first year experiment, the mean total fruit yield of the tomato cultivars ranged between 78.6 kg plot⁻¹ and 67.6 kg plot⁻¹ due to spacing effect which was significantly different ($P<0.05$) (Figure 4). A plant spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm resulted in the highest mean total fruit yield (78.6 kg plot⁻¹) whereas spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm gave the lowest mean total fruit yield (67.6 kg plot⁻¹). Likewise, similar effect of spacing on the total fruit yield was observed during the second year experiment. A closer spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm resulted in significantly higher total fruit yield (44.0 kg plot⁻¹) as compared to a wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm which gave a total fruit yield of 35.80 kg plot⁻¹. However, a spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm gave a total yield which was on par with the other spacing treatments during both cropping seasons. The present finding draws support from earlier reports of Reeve and Schmidth (1952), Zahara (1970), Gupta and Shukla (1977), Ali (1995), Teerapolvichitra (1983), Hamid (1985), Nassar (1986) and Mohamed and Ali (1986) who similarly reported the highest total fruit yield of tomato at closer spacing than at wider spacing. The highest total fruit yield of the tomato cultivars at closer spacing could be due to the higher plant population per

plot at closer spacing than at wider spacing as reported by Jia (1992). Moreover, the closer spacing might have enabled maximized use of the applied nutrients better than the wider spacing as has been suggested by Mbinga (1983).

Cultivars

Cultivars did not significantly differ in total fruit yield during both year experiments (Tables 1 and 2).

Interaction effects

No interaction effects of all factors on total fruit yield were observed during both year experiments in the present finding (Tables 1 and 2). However, Mehla et al. (2000) reported significant interaction effects of cultivar*spacing and fertilizer*spacing for total fruit yield in tomato.

2. Effect of main factors on marketable and % marketable fruit yield

Fertilizer rate

Marketability of the produce is of paramount importance to tomato growers since they primarily produce for market. In the present study, undersized fruits, sunscald fruits and fruits attacked by insects were regarded as unmarketable fruits. Marketable and % marketable fruit yield were significantly affected by fertilizer rates ($P<0.001$) during both cropping seasons (Tables 1 and 2). During both year experiments, the trend of fertilizer effect on total fruit yield was also similar to its effect on marketable fruit yield. During the first year experiment (2003/2004 cropping season), application of the highest fertilizer rate (110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) gave significantly higher mean marketable fruit yield (76.1 kg plot⁻¹) than the lowest fertilizer rate (50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅/ha) which gave mean marketable fruit yield of only 59.1 kg plot⁻¹ (Figure 2). During 2004/2005 cropping season, the same fertilizer rate (110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha) exerted a significant influence in boosting marketable fruit yield as compared to the other rates. The application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare resulted in mean marketable fruit yield of 41.4 kg plot⁻¹ which was significantly higher as compared to marketable fruit yield of 33.0 kg plot⁻¹ and 27.2 kg plot⁻¹, which were obtained with the application of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ and 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare, respectively. Application of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ and 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare resulted in mean marketable fruit yields which were on par during the first year but significantly different during the second year experiment.

For all levels of fertilizer, % marketable fruit yield of the tomato cultivars significantly differed during 2003/2004 cropping season (Figure 3). Application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare resulted in significantly higher mean % marketable fruit yield (94 %) than the other two levels, 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ and 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare, which gave a mean % marketable fruit yield of 91.9 % and 88.8 %, respectively. On the other hand, during 2004/2005 cropping season, % marketable fruit yield which was obtained with the application of 110 kg N + 120

kg P₂O₅/ha (87.7 %) did not significantly differ from that obtained with the application of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha (85.5 %), but both of these fertilizer rates gave significantly higher % marketable fruit yield when compared to the application of the lowest rate (50 kg N + 60kg P₂O₅ per hectare), which gave 81.6 % mean marketable fruit yield. The higher marketable fruit yield under higher NP rate might have been achieved probably because the higher NP rate might have improved fruit size thereby contributing to greater marketable fruit yield per plot. However, so far no report was found on the influence of NP fertilizers on marketable and % marketable fruit yields practically for tomato to substantiate the present finding.

Spacing

Similar to fertilizer rate, spacing also significantly influenced marketable fruit yield and % marketable fruit yield ($P<0.001$) (Tables 1 and 2). During both cropping seasons, a spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm and 60 cm x 45 cm resulted in significantly higher mean marketable fruit yield as compared to 100 cm x 30 cm (Figure 5). The tomato cultivars also produced significantly different % marketable fruit yields at all spacing and a spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm gave the highest mean % marketable fruit yield followed by a spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm whereas a wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm gave the lowest mean % marketable fruit yield during both seasons (Figure 6). Teerapolvichitra (1983) also reported the highest marketable fruit yield at closer spacing than at wider spacing, which supports the present finding. However, Godfrey-Sam-Aggrey et al., (1985) and Mehla et al., (2000) reported increased marketable fruit yield at wider spacing which contradicts with the present finding. The higher marketable fruit yield at closer spacing in the current investigation could be due to reduced number of sunscald fruits as has been reported by Mohamed and Ali (1986).

Cultivars:

There was no significant effect of cultivars on marketable fruit yield during both cropping seasons ($P>0.05$) (Tables 1 and 2). However, significant effect of cultivar on % marketable fruit yield was observed during 2003/2004 cropping season (Table 1) with Melka shola producing significantly higher mean % marketable fruit yield (mean data not shown). On the other hand, Warner (2003) have observed significant effect of cultivar on marketable fruit yield of tomato during his first year experiment but this was not repeated in his second and third year experiments. The significant % marketable fruit yield in the present investigation could be due to the greater canopy and growth habit of this determinate cultivar (Melka shola) to cover the fruits from sun scalding thereby contributing to reduced unmarketable fruit yield record of this cultivar.

Interaction effect:

During 2003/2004 cropping season, significant fertilizer*spacing interaction effect was observed on % marketable fruit yield (Table 1). According to the result, at lower fertilizer rates of 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅ and 50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare, plant spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm and 60 cm x 45 cm produced significantly higher % marketable fruit yield as compared to wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm (Table 5).

On the other hand, at the highest fertilizer rate of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha, the mean % marketable fruit yield significantly differed for all spacing and the highest and lowest mean % marketable fruit yield was produced at a spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm and 100 cm x 30 cm, respectively.

3. Effect of main factors on plant height (plant vigour)

All the main factors had highly significant effect on plant height 60 days after transplanting ($P<0.001$). However, there was no interaction effect for any of the main factor (Table 3). An indeterminate cultivar Margelobe had significantly higher mean plant height (72.8 cm) than a determinate cultivar, Melka shola (64.9 cm) (Table 4). The significant difference in plant height between the two cultivars could be due to their distinct growth habit. Plant height was also significantly affected by the rates of fertilizer applied ($P<0.001$). All the three fertilizer rates differed significantly from each other in influencing plant height with 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅ per hectare resulting in the highest mean plant height (81.7 cm) followed by 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha (71.2 cm) as compared to the lowest fertilizer rate (50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅ per hectare) which resulted in mean plant height of only (53.8 cm) which was significantly lower compared to the above two (Table 4). Plant height was also significantly influenced by spacing ($P<0.001$). Closer spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm and 80 cm x 30 cm resulted in significantly higher plant height compared to a wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm (Table 4). Mbinga (1995) and Gupta and Shukla (1977) also reported increased plant height in tomato at closer spacing than at wider spacing which is in line with the present result.

4. Effect of main factors on number of fruits per cluster

The two cultivars differed significantly in total fruit number per cluster ($P<0.001$), Melka shola on average producing more number of fruits per cluster (5.9 fruits/cluster) and Margelobe producing less number of fruits per cluster (4.5 fruits per cluster) (Table 4). Moreover, fertilizer rate also significantly affected number of fruits per cluster ($P<0.001$) and the tomato cultivars showed significant variation in this parameter for all levels of fertilizers applied. The highest number of fruits per cluster (5.97) was obtained with the application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha whereas the lowest rates of fertilizers resulted in the lowest number of fruits per cluster (4.39) (Table 4). This, however, contradicts with the report of Rashid (1993) who did not observe significant effect of fertilizer rate on number of fruits per cluster at higher NP rate in his study. The highest number of fruits per cluster at high NP rate in this study could be due to the positive effect, especially of P, on flower formation and subsequent fruit formation. Likewise, fruit number per cluster was also significantly influenced by spacing, the wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm resulting in significantly more number of fruits per cluster as compared to a closer spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm (Table 4). A spacing of 80 cm x 30 cm, however, did not significantly differ from the other spacing in influencing fruit number per cluster. Nevertheless, no clear trend of effect of spacing on number of fruits per cluster could be illustrated according to the result of the present investigation.

5. Effect of main factors on average weight of 10 fruits

Ten fruit weight was significantly affected by all main factors (cultivars, fertilizer rate and spacing) ($P<0.001$ in all cases) (Table 3). Marglobe, gave significantly higher mean value of ten fruit weight (1.54 kg) compared to Melka shola (0.85 kg) and this was purely due to the genetic difference in fruit size of the two cultivars. Jia (1992) also similarly observed significant difference in average fruit weight between tomato cultivars differing in growth habit, the indeterminate cultivar showing higher average fruit weight than the determinate cultivar, which was similar to the present observation. With regard to the effect of fertilizer rate, the application of 110 kg N + 120 kg P₂O₅/ha and 80 kg N + 90 kg P₂O₅/ha resulted in significantly higher mean value of ten fruit weight (1.31 kg and 1.23 kg, respectively) of the tomato cultivars as compared to the application of the lowest rate of fertilizer (50 kg N + 60 kg P₂O₅/ha) which gave mean ten fruit weight value of 1.05 kg (Table 4). This result is also in line with earlier report of Sharma et al., (1999) who recorded greater average tomato fruit weight with the application of higher NP fertilizers rates. Contrary to the present result, Rashid (1993) did not observe any significant influence of fertilizer rates on this parameter in his study. The highest mean value of ten fruit weight (1.41 kg) of the tomato cultivars was obtained at a wider spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm whereas the lowest value (1.02 kg) was recorded at a spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm, which were significantly different (Table 4). This result was in line with the earlier report of Ali (1997) who found higher average fruit weight at wider spacing as compared to closer spacing. Jia (1992), however, did not observe any significant influence of spacing on average fruit weight of both determinate and indeterminate types of tomatoes in his study.

Additionally, cultivar*spacing interaction effect was also detected as significant for the parameter under discussion ($P<0.05$) (Table 3). For Margelobe the mean value of ten fruit weight significantly differed at all plant spacing investigated (Table 6). For this cultivar significantly higher mean value of ten fruit weight was obtained at a plant spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm (1.8 kg) while the lowest mean value of ten fruit weight (1.3 kg) was obtained at a plant spacing of 60 cm x 45 cm (Table 6). On the other hand, for Melka shola except for a spacing of 100 cm x 30 cm, which produced significantly higher ten fruit weight (1.03 kg), the other two spacing did not result in significantly different mean value of ten fruit weight (0.77 kg and 0.76 kg, respectively).

Acknowledgment

The Author acknowledges Mrs. Etagegn Teshome for her technical assistance right from planting up to field data collection. The author also acknowledges Mr. Bekele Tadesse, and Mr. Ashenafi Chaka, the teaching staff in the horticulture section of Ambo University College, for the follow up of the experiment during my absence. Thanks should also go to Ambo University College for financing this research.

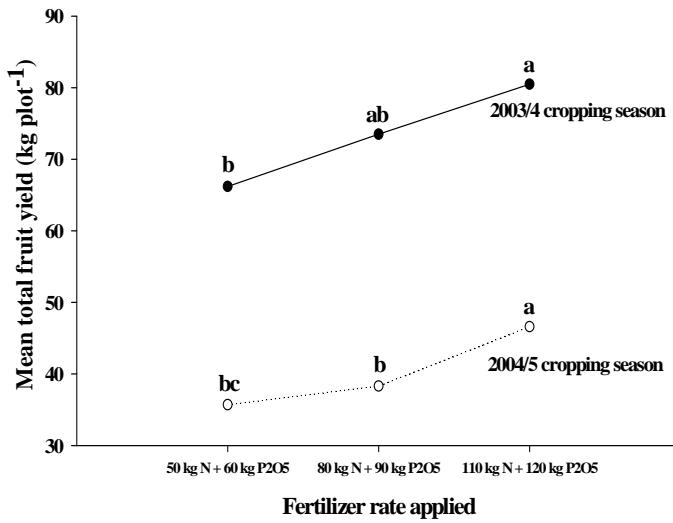


Figure 1. Total fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by fertilizer rate during both cropping seasons

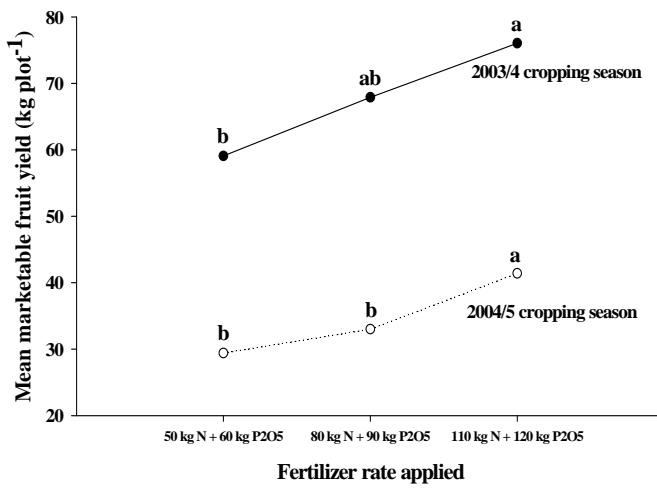


Figure 2. Marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as influenced by fertilizer rate during both cropping seasons

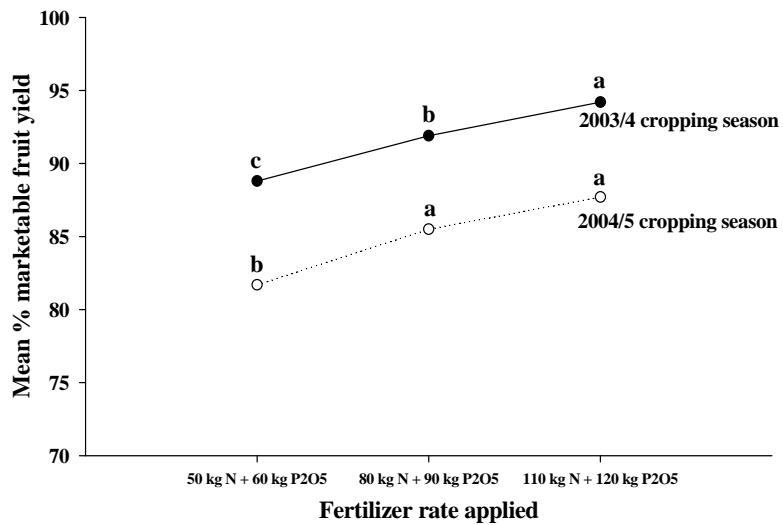


Figure 3. Percent marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by fertilizer rate during both cropping seasons

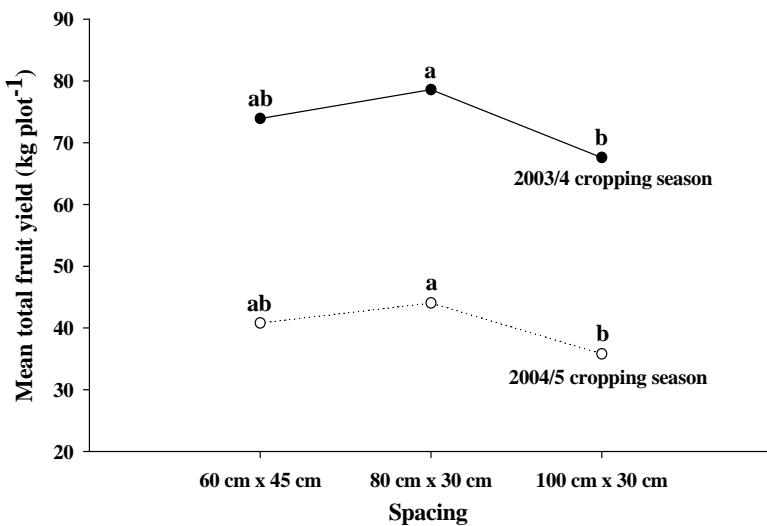


Figure 4. Total fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by spacing during both cropping seasons

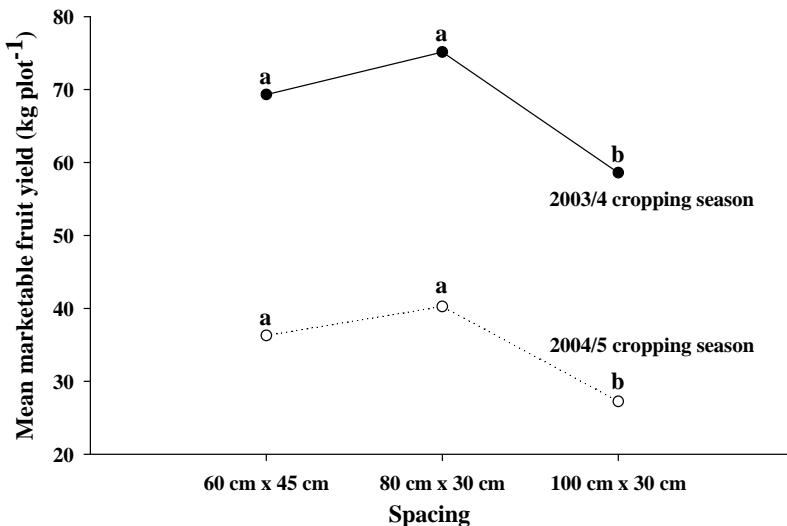


Figure 5. Marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by spacing during both cropping seasons

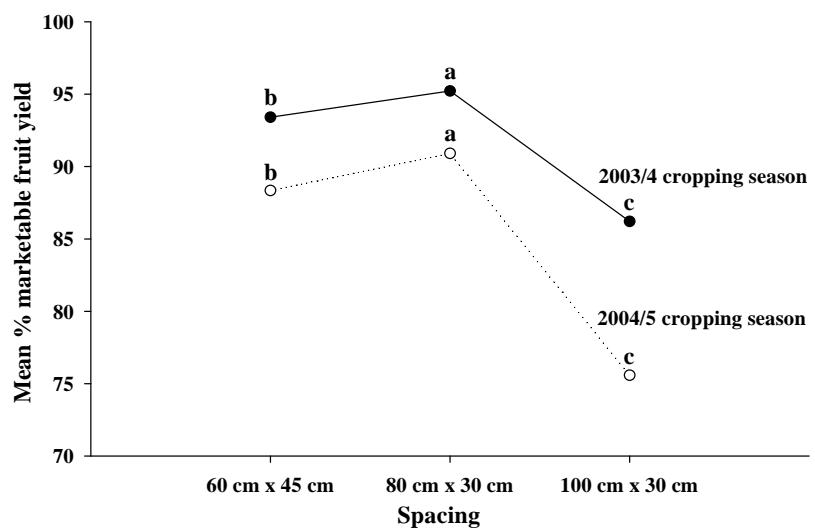


Figure 6. Percent marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by spacing during both cropping seasons

Table 1: Total and marketable fruit yields and % marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by fertilizer rate and spacing in 2003/4 cropping season

Cultivars	Fertilizer rate	Total yield (kg plot ⁻¹)			Marketable yield (kg plot ⁻¹)			% marketable yield		
		60 cm x 45 cm spacing	80 cm x 30 cm spacing	100 cm x 30 cm spacing	60 cm x 45 cm x 30 cm spacing	80 cm x 30 cm spacing	100 cm x 30 cm spacing	60 cm x 45 cm x 30 cm spacing	80 cm x 30 cm spacing	100 cm x 30 cm spacing
Marglobe	50 kg N + 60 kg P ₂ O ₅	64 ± 7.2	70.9 ± 20.1	60.5 ± 7.4	58.3 ± 7.5	65.8 ± 20.1	49.7 ± 6.7	90.2 ± 1.7	92.4 ± 2.5	82.1 ± 1.1
	80 kg N + 90 kg P ₂ O ₅	74.0 ± 19.2	81.2 ± 20.3	72.7 ± 11.7	69.8 ± 18.5	76.7 ± 20.1	62.9 ± 11.7	94.2 ± 2.4	94.2 ± 1.4	86.3 ± 2.4
	110 kg N + 120 kg P ₂ O ₅	82.7 ± 7	87.0 ± 10.0	74.4 ± 21.1	73.1 ± 22.5	84.4 ± 9.4	66.6 ± 20.6	94.3 ± 1.1	97.1 ± 0.7	88.9 ± 2.4
Melska šola	50 kg N + 60 kg P ₂ O ₅	67.6 ± 7.5	72.4 ± 14.7	61.2 ± 6.4	62.2 ± 7.5	68.1 ± 14.8	50.5 ± 6.8	91.9 ± 1.6	93.8 ± 1.9	82.3 ± 2.9
	80 kg N + 90 kg P ₂ O ₅	73.4 ± 18.2	75.5 ± 20.8	64.5 ± 15.0	69.0 ± 18.2	72.8 ± 20.8	56.3 ± 15.5	93.8 ± 1.8	96.2 ± 1.1	86.8 ± 3.8
	110 kg N + 120 kg P ₂ O ₅	81.8 ± 14.4	84.7 ± 26.7	72.4 ± 7.4	73.5 ± 13.7	83.0 ± 26.9	65.7 ± 6.9	96.1 ± 0.1	97.7 ± 1.2	90.8 ± 0.3
Cultivar	ns				ns		*			
Fertilizer	**				***		***			
Spacing	*				***		***			
Cultivar*Fertilizer	ns				ns		ns			
Cultivar*spacing	ns				ns		ns			
Fertilizer*spacing	ns				ns		*			
Cultivar*Fertilizer*spacing	ns				ns		ns			

* , **, *** shows significance at $\alpha = 0.05$, 0.01 and 0.001 probability level, respectively, ns = non-significant

Table 2: Total and marketable fruit yields and % marketable fruit yield of tomato cultivars as affected by fertilizer rate and spacing in 2004/5 cropping season

Cultivars	Fertilizer rate	Total yield (kg plot ⁻¹)			Marketable yield (kg plot ⁻¹)			% marketable yield		
		60 cm x 45 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	100 cm x 30 cm	60 cm x 45 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	100 cm x 30 cm	60 cm x 45 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	100 cm x 30 cm
Marglobe	50 kg N + 60 kg P.O.	388 ± 9.4	379 ± 5.3	339 ± 4.5	336 ± 9.0	333 ± 5.0	245 ± 3.9	86.3 ± 2.6	87.5 ± 1.5	72.0 ± 2.5
	80 kg N + 90 kg P.O.	392 ± 7.1	40.1 ± 12.9	351 ± 3.1	34.6 ± 7.5	36.3 ± 12.9	26.9 ± 2.4	88.1 ± 3.6	89.9 ± 3.1	76.7 ± 2.6
	110 kg N + 120 kg P.O.	41.9 ± 9	52.2 ± 8.1	36.8 ± 8.7	37.5 ± 7.1	48.9 ± 8.3	28.8 ± 7.9	89.4 ± 0.8	93.6 ± 1.7	77.7 ± 3.6
Mellka-shola	50 kg N + 60 kg P.O.	31.6 ± 6.9	37.5 ± 6.9	34.4 ± 11.6	27.7 ± 7.6	33.8 ± 6.1	23.3 ± 8.5	86.8 ± 5.8	90.1 ± 1.0	67.4 ± 3.6
	80 kg N + 90 kg P.O.	39.4 ± 11.8	39.6 ± 0.9	36.6 ± 3.1	35.4 ± 12.7	36.2 ± 1.2	28.6 ± 3.0	88.8 ± 5.5	91.5 ± 1.5	78.2 ± 2.4
	110 kg N + 120 kg P.O.	53.8 ± 8.5	56.8 ± 19.9	38.1 ± 10.0	48.7 ± 7.7	53.1 ± 19.7	31.4 ± 9.7	90.7 ± 0.4	93.0 ± 2.1	81.6 ± 4.6
Cultivar	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Fertilizer	**				***			***		
Spacing	*				***			***		
Cultivar*Fertilizer	ns				ns			ns		
Cultivar*spacing	ns				ns			ns		
Fertilizer*spacing	ns				ns			ns		
Cultivar*fertilizer*spacing	ns				ns			ns		

, **, *** shows significance at $\alpha = 0.05$, 0.01 and 0.001 probability level, respectively, ns = non-significant

Table 3: Plant height, number of fruits per cluster and 10 fruit weight of tomato cultivars as affected by fertilizer rate and spacing in 2003/4

Cultivars	Fertilizer rate	Plant height (cm)		Number of fruits per cluster				10 fruit weight (kg)			
		60 cm x 15 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	60 cm x 15 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	100 cm x 30 cm	60 cm x 15 cm	80 cm x 30 cm	100 cm x 30 cm	60 cm x 30 cm	80 cm x 30 cm
Mangelob e	50 kg N + 60 kg P ₂ O ₅	57.5 ± 2.5	61.4 ± 2.7	52.3 ± 3.0	3.5 ± 0.3	3.7 ± 0.4	4.0 ± 0.2	1.2 ± 0.10	1.4 ± 0.15	1.6 ± 2.0	
	80 kg N + 90 kg P ₂ O ₅	74.7 ± 4.1	78.0 ± 3.2	70.5 ± 1.6	4.2 ± 0.3	4.5 ± 0.5	4.7 ± 0.8	1.3 ± 0.15	1.7 ± 0.10	1.8 ± 0.10	
	110 kg N + 120 kg P ₂ O ₅	90.1 ± 5.4	88.5 ± 5.8	82.5 ± 3.1	5.0 ± 0.9	5.2 ± 0.7	5.4 ± 0.6	1.4 ± 0.21	1.6 ± 0.06	2.0 ± 0.21	
Meika shola	50 kg N + 60 kg P ₂ O ₅	52.0 ± 2.9	52.5 ± 4.6	47.1 ± 3.6	4.7 ± 0.4	5.0 ± 0.8	5.3 ± 0.6	0.7 ± 0.06	0.7 ± 0.06	0.8 ± 0.15	
	80 kg N + 90 kg P ₂ O ₅	69.3 ± 3.0	73.3 ± 3.5	61.3 ± 1.5	6.0 ± 0.4	5.8 ± 0.8	6.2 ± 0.9	0.7 ± 0.06	0.8 ± 0.06	1.1 ± 0.10	
	110 kg N + 120 kg P ₂ O ₅	79.0 ± 6.2	79.7 ± 6.4	70.2 ± 5.9	6.3 ± 0.7	6.6 ± 6.1	7.2 ± 0.4	0.9 ± 0.12	0.9 ± 0.12	1.2 ± 0.15	
Cultivar	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***	***
Fertilizer	***	***	***	*	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Spacing											
Cultivar*Fertilizer	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Cultivar*spacing											
Fertilizer*spacing	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns	ns
Cultivar*fertilizer*spacing											

*, **, *** shows significance at $\alpha = 0.05$, 0.01 and 0.001 probability level, respectively, ns = non-significant

Table 4: Effect of main factors on plant height, number of fruits per cluster and 10 fruit weight of tomato cultivars

Main factors	Mean plant height (cm)	Mean number of fruits per cluster	Mean 10 fruit weight (kg)
<i>Cultivar</i>			
Margelobe	72.8 ^a	4.48 ^b	1.54 ^a
Melka shola	64.9 ^b	5.92 ^a	0.85 ^b
LSD (5 %)	2.34	0.35	0.07
<i>Fertilizer</i>			
50 kg N +60 kg P ₂ O ₅	53.8 ^c	4.39 ^c	1.23 ^a
80 kg N +90 kg P ₂ O ₅	71.2 ^b	5.24 ^b	1.31 ^a
110 kg N+120 kg P ₂ O ₅	81.7 ^a	5.97 ^a	1.05 ^b
LSD (5 %)	3.46	0.51	0.11
<i>Spacing</i>			
60 cm x 45 cm	64.0 ^b	5.48 ^a	1.41 ^a
80 cm x 30 cm	3.46	0.51	0.11
100 cm x 30 cm			
LSD (5 %)			

Means for each main factor in the same column followed by the same letter are not significantly different from each other at ($\alpha = 0.05$) according to Tukey test

Table 5: Interaction effect of fertilizer rate and spacing on % marketable fruit yield of the tomato cultivars

Fertilizer rate	Spacing	% Marketable fruit yield
50 kg N + 60 kg P ₂ O ₅	60 cm x 45 cm	91.1 ^a
	80 cm x 30 cm	93.1 ^a
	100 cm x 30 cm	82.2 ^b
	LSD (5 %)	2.3
80 kg N + 90 kg P ₂ O ₅	60 cm x 45 cm	94.0 ^a
	80 cm x 30 cm	95.2 ^a
	100 cm x 30 cm	86.6 ^b
	LSD (5 %)	2.2
110 kg N + 120 kg P ₂ O ₅	60 cm x 45 cm	95.2 ^b
	80 cm x 30 cm	97.4 ^a
	100 cm x 30 cm	89.9 ^c
	LSD (5 %)	2.1

Means for each fertilizer rate in a column followed by the same letter are not significantly different from each other at ($\alpha = 0.05$) according to Tukey test

Table 6: Interaction effect of cultivar and spacing on mean value of 10 fruit weight

Cultivar	Spacing	10 fruit weight (kg)
Marglobe	60 cm x 45 cm	1.3 ^c
	80 cm x 30 cm	1.5 ^b
	100 cm x 30 cm	1.8 ^a
	LSD (5 %)	0.19
Melka shola	60 cm x 45 cm	0.76 ^b
	80 cm x 30 cm	0.77 ^b
	100 cm x 30 cm	1.03 ^a
	LSD (5 %)	0.13

Means for each cultivar in a column followed by the same letter are not significantly different from each other at ($\alpha = 0.05$) according to Tukey test

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DOI: 10.2478/v10014-008-0012-7

Agrovoc descriptors: solanum tuberosum, potatoes, varieties, drought, selenium, photosynthesis, respiration, crop yield, chlorophylls, fluorescence

Agris category codes: F04, F61, F62

COBISS Code 1.01

The response of two potato cultivars on combined effects of selenium and drought

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Received October 11, 2007; accepted March 31, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 11. oktobra 2007, sprejeto 31. marca 2008.

ABSTRACT

The combined effect of selenium (Se) foliar spraying and drought was studied for 3 months in two cultivars of potato; Bard and Adora in Ljubljana, Slovenia. Four combinations of treatments were conducted: well-watered plants with and without Se foliar spraying, and drought exposed plants with and without Se foliar spraying. Net photosynthesis, transpiration rate, quantum yield of photosystem II (PSII), and respiration potential measured by electron transport system activity were monitored throughout the period. After three months of treatment, leaf water potential, the number and size of leaf stomata, and tuber yield were determined. Several impacts of drought and Se application and their combinations were established, and the responses shown to be cultivar-specific. Net photosynthesis, transpiration rate, effective quantum yield of PSII, and respiratory potential were lower in drought exposed plants. Se lowered respiratory potential in the leaves in cv. Bard. The mass of the tubers in cv. Adora, and photosynthesis in cvs. Bard and Adora were lower in Se treated plants. Se treatment did not significantly affect the number and size of leaf stomata in the cultivars.

Key words chlorophyll fluorescence, drought, photosynthesis, respiratory potential, selenium, yield

IZVLEČEK VPLIV SELENA IN SUŠE NA DVA KULTIVARJA KROMPIRJA

Kombiniran vpliv selena (Se) in suše na dva kultivarja krompirja Bard in Adora, smo preučevali v poskušu, ki je trajal tri mesece. Rastline so bile izpostavljene štirim kombinacijam obravnavanja: zelite rastline z ali brez foliarnega gnojenja s Se in suši izpostavljene rastline z ali brez foliarnega gnojenja s Se. V rastni sezoni smo spremljali neto fotosintezo, transpiracijo, fotokemično učinkovitost fotosistema II (FSII) in respiratorni potencial, merjen s pomočjo meritev aktivnosti terminalnega elektronskega transporta. Po treh mesecih, ko so bile rastline izpostavljene vsem obravnavam, smo izmerili še vodni potencial v listih, število in dimenzije listnih rež in pridelek gomoljev. Preučevana kultivarja sta se na učinke suše in dodanega Se odzvala na različne načine. Neto fotosinteza, transpiracija, fotokemična učinkovitost fotosistema II (FSII) in respiratorni potencial so bili nižji pri rastlinah, ki so bile izpostavljene suši. Rastline, foliarno gnojene s Se so imele nižji respiratorni potencial pri kultivarju Bard.

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Masa gomoljev pri kultivarju Adora in fotosinteza pri obeh kultivarjih sta bili nižji pri rastlinah, kjer smo dodali Se. Dodatek Se ni bistveno vplival na število in dimenzijske listne reže pri preučevanih kultivarjih.

Ključne besede: fotosinteza, klorofilna fluorescencija, pridelek, respiratorni potencial, selen, suša

Abbreviations: cv. - cultivar; cvs. - cultivars; ETS - electron transport system; F - the steady state fluorescence; F_0 - minimal chlorophyll *a* fluorescence yield in dark adapted samples; F_m - maximal chlorophyll *a* fluorescence yield in dark adapted samples; F_m' - the maximal fluorescence of an illuminated sample; F_v - variable fluorescence; INT - iodo-nitro-tetrazolium-chloride; PPFD - photosynthetic photon flux density; PSII - photosystem II.

1 INTRODUCTION

In natural environment plants are subjected to many stresses that can have negative effect on growth, metabolism, and yield. Biotic (insects, bacteria, fungi, and viruses) and abiotic (light, temperature, water availability, nutrients, and soil structure) factors affect the growth of higher plants. Among these, drought is a major abiotic factor that limits agricultural crop production (Reddy et al., 2004). Global warming, which causes fluctuations of precipitation distribution, could increase the risk of plants being exposed repeatedly to drought (Miyashita et al., 2005). The frequency of water limitation stress is likely to increase in the future, even outside today's arid/semi-arid regions (Chaves et al., 2002). Stress caused by drought does not occur abruptly, but develops slowly and increases in intensity by the time of duration in contrast to majority of other stress factors (Larcher, 2003). The ability of plants to cope with water stress varies among species and even cultivars. Photosynthesis, which is one of the primary metabolic processes determining crop production, is directly affected by drought (Pieters and El Souki, 2005). Water limitation mainly limits photosynthesis through stomatal closure and through metabolic impairment (Tezara et al., 1999; Lawson et al., 2003). Lower photosynthetic activity includes decreased photochemical efficiency of PSII, as shown by its lower quantum yield (Pieters and El Souki, 2005). Under severe water stress, photodamage of PSII will result with the possible net loss of D1 protein of PSII reaction centres (Baker, 1993; Cornic, 1994). When CO_2 assimilation decreases electron transport to oxygen via photorespiration, Mehler reaction and dark respiration remove excitation energy (Lawlor and Cornic, 2002). Inhibition of ATP synthesis in chloroplasts might be more sensitive to low water content than in mitochondria. Information about respiratory potential, measured by terminal electron transport system (ETS) activity in mitochondria, enables the general metabolic activity of individual organisms to be estimated. Drought stress can also affect the growth of plant organs, resulting in alteration of the morphological features of the plants (French and Turner, 1991). Selenium (Se) is an essential trace element for animals and humans (Tapiero and al., 2003) but its role in plants is still unclear (Hartikainen et al., 2000). It plays a role in the prevention of

atherosclerosis, specific cancers, arthritis, and altered immunological functions. Se deficiency in animals and humans can lead to heart disease, hypothyroidism and a weakened immune system (Tinggi, 2002). Slovenia is a country with low amounts of Se in the soil (Kreft et al., 2002). Most cereal crops and fodder plants are relatively weakly able to absorb Se, even when grown on soils with higher Se content (Nowak et al., 2004). Se is chemically similar to sulphur, this may cause a non-specific replacement of S by Se in proteins and other sulphur compounds (Nowak et al., 2004). There are indications that it can also play a positive biological role in higher plants (Hartikainen et al., 2000; Germ et al., 2005). Se can increase the tolerance of plants to UV-radiation induced oxidative stress, delay senescence, and promote the growth of ageing seedlings (Xue and Hartikainen, 2000; Xue et al., 2001). Results of Pennanen et al. (2002) have indicated that plant growth promoted by Se is due to the increased starch accumulation in chloroplasts. The positive effects of Se on the recovery of potato from photooxidative and paraquat-generated oxidative stress point to mechanisms that, although they are not yet known, protect chloroplasts during stress (Seppänen et al., 2003). Recently it has been shown that Se can regulate the water status of plants under conditions of water deficiency and thereby performs its protective effect (Kuznetsov et al., 2003). The goal of this work was to determine the response of two cultivars of potato grown outdoors to combined effect of drought and Se.

2 MATERIALS AND METHODS

Plant Material and Growth Conditions

Potato plants (*Solanum tuberosum* L.) cvs. Bard and Adora (recently among the most cultivated potato cvs. in Slovenia), were planted on April 20, 2005, in plastic pots, inner volume 18x18x18 cm, in a mixture of soil (95%) and crushed peat (5%), one plant per pot, five pots per cv. and per treatment on the experimental field of the Biotechnical Faculty, University of Ljubljana (320 m above sea level, 46°35'N, 14°55'E), Slovenia. Soil, peat and irrigation water contained no detectable Se (i.e. soil and peat less than 0.1 mg Se kg⁻¹, water less than 0.5 µg L⁻¹). Plants were daily (at 19.00 h) watered with an amount of water corresponding to 4 L m⁻² rainfall (well-watered plants) or 1.5 L m⁻² (drought exposed plants).

Treatments

Cv. Adora emerged on May 11 and Bard on May 13. On June 20, 2005 plants were sprayed foliarly with a solution of detergent (Triton T-100, Sigma, 0.2 ml L⁻¹) with or without Se (10 mg Se L⁻¹ in the form of sodium selenate). Plants were subjected to one of four treatments; (i) drought exposed without added Se (Se0W0), (ii) well-watered without added Se (Se0W1), (iii) drought exposed with added Se (Se1W0), (iv) well-watered with added Se (Se1W1). Starting values of physiological parameters (net photosynthesis, transpiration rate, quantum yield of PSII, and respiration potential measured by electron transport system activity) were measured just prior to treatment (June 20) and are presented in Table 1. All mentioned parameters were measured two weeks after the start of treatments - a second measurement (II) and four weeks after the start of treatments - a third measurement (III). Leaf water potential, number and dimensions of leaf stomata, and number and mass of the tubers were determined at the end of the growth period on July 30.

Light-saturated Net Photosynthesis and Transpiration Rate

Light-saturated net photosynthesis and transpiration rate were measured with a portable infrared gas analyser (LI-6200, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) and a porometer (LI-1600, LI-COR, Lincoln, NE, USA) respectively.

Chlorophyll Fluorescence

Fluorescence measurement as a non-intrusive method, allows the rapid assessment of quantum yield of electron flow through photosystem (PS) II. The method has been widely used for detecting water stress in plants (Reddy et al., 2004). Measurements were carried out with a portable fluorometer (OS-500, Opti-Sciences, Tyngsboro, MA, USA). Potential quantum yield of PSII ($F_v/F_m = F_m - F_o/F_m$) quantifies the maximum efficiency of the primary photochemical events in photosynthesis. It is an important parameter of the physiological state of the photosynthetic apparatus. F_o and F_m are the minimal and maximal chlorophyll a fluorescence yields in dark adapted samples, and F_v is the variable fluorescence. Fluorescence was excited with a saturating beam of "white light" (PPFD = 8 000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, 0.8 s). F_v/F_m ranged from 0.8 to 0.83 for a variety of dark-adapted plants (Björkman and Demmig-Adams, 1995). The effective quantum yield of PSII was measured under saturating irradiance by providing a saturating pulse of "white light" (PPFD = 9 000 $\mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$, 0.8 s), using a standard 60° angle clip. The effective quantum yield of PSII ($(F_m' - F)/F_m' = \Delta F/F_m'$) gives the actual efficiency of energy conversion in PSII (Björkman and Demmig-Adams, 1995). F_m' is the maximum fluorescence signal of an illuminated leaf after a pulse of saturating light (Pieters and El Souki, 2005) and F is the steady state fluorescence (Schreiber et al., 1995).

All gas exchange and fluorescence measurements were made each day between 11.00 h and 15.00 h (local time) (PPFD $\geq 1\ 100\ \mu\text{mol m}^{-2} \text{s}^{-1}$) at ambient temperature and CO₂ concentration throughout the drought cycle.

Respiratory Potential

Respiratory potential was measured as electron transport system (ETS) activity of mitochondria, as described by Packard (1971) and modified by Kenner and Ahmed (1975). Leaves of known fresh weight were crushed in a mortar in chilled 0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH = 8.4) containing 0.15% (w/v) polyvinyl pyrrolidone, 75 μM MgSO₄, and 0.2% (v/v) Triton-X-100, and homogenized by ultrasound (40W, 4710; Cole-Parmer, Vernon Hills, IL, USA). The extract was centrifuged at 8500 $\times g$ for 4 minutes at 0 °C in a top refrigerated ultracentrifuge (2K15, Sigma, Osterode, Germany). Then 0.5 cm³ of the supernatant was mixed with the 1.5 cm³ substrate solution (0.1 M sodium phosphate buffer (pH = 8.4), 1.7 mM NADH, 0.25 mM NADPH, 0.2% (v/v) Triton-X-100), and 0.5 cm³ INT (20 mg 2-p-iodo-phenyl 3-p-nitrophenyl 5-phenyl tetrazolium chloride in 10 ml of bidistilled water). The mixture was incubated at 20 °C for 40 min. ETS activity was measured as the rate of INT reduction, which was converted to the amount of oxygen utilised per dry matter (DM) of leaves per time, as described by Kenner and Ahmed (1975).

Leaf Water Potential

Leaf water potential was measured using a pressure chamber (PMS Instrument Co., Corvallis, Oregon, USA).

Anatomical and Yield Analyses

The number and dimensions of leaf stomata were counted and measured by Soft Imaging System, GmbH, analysis 3.0, Münster, Germany. The software used for analysis was Soft Imaging System GmbH analysis.

Tubers were separated from the plants, counted, washed and weighed. They were then sliced, oven-dried at 90 °C for 72 h and re-weighed.

All measurements and analyses were made on the first, fully developed leaf.

Statistical Analyses

Two-Factor ANOVA was used to test the effect of drought, Se and their interaction on parameters. Differences at the different levels of probability were accepted as significant; n.s. – non significant $p \geq 0.05$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

3 RESULTS

The effects of drought and Se and their interaction were studied on two cvs. of potato. Physiological parameters were measured before drought and Se treatments (starting values) and two (second measurement) and four weeks (third measurement) after treatments. Some anatomical parameters and yield were measured at the end of the experiment. Phenotypically, cv. Bard looked the most vital at the time of the experiment.

Effects of Drought

The ratio of fresh/dry mass and leaf water potential of leaves were lower in drought exposed plants in cv. Bard (Table 2). Photosynthetic activity was the lowest in cultivar Adora in the start and third measurements (Table 1, Fig. 1). The negative effect of drought on photosynthetic activity was significant in the third measurement in both studied cultivars (Fig. 1, Table 3). Values of transpiration rate were lower in the second than the third measurement in both studied cultivars (Fig. 1). Transpiration rate was significantly higher in well-watered plants than drought exposed plants, except in cv. Adora in the second measurement (Fig. 1, Table 3). Values of potential (F_v/F_m) and effective ($\Delta F/F_m'$) quantum yields of PSII were lowest for cv. Adora in all three measurements, except $\Delta F/F_m'$ in the second measurement (Table 1, Fig. 2). F_v/F_m was unaffected by water stress throughout, except in the third measurement in cultivar Bard, where F_v/F_m was lower in drought exposed plants. Values of $\Delta F/F_m'$ were lowest in the drought exposed specimens in the third measurement for both cultivars and for cv. Bard in the second measurement (Fig. 2, Table 3). Plants exposed to drought conditions exhibited statistically significant lower ETS activity than well-watered plants in the third measurement in both cultivars and in cv. Adora in the second measurement (Fig. 3, Table 3). Drought did not affect the number of stomata in cvs. Bard and Adora, or the length of stomata in the latter (Table 4). The number of tubers was lowest in cv. Adora (except in Se0W0 treatment), which corresponded to the lowest efficiency of PSII and photosynthetic rate. Tuber mass was highest in cv. Bard except under Se0W0 treatment (Table 5).

Effects of Se

The ratio of fresh/dry mass of the leaves in cv. Bard was higher in Se treated plants (Table 2). Leaf water potential in cvs. Bard and Adora was higher in the presence of Se (Table 2). Se lowered transpiration rate in the third measurement in cv. Adora. In contrast, cv. Bard had a higher transpiration rate in Se sprayed plants in the third measurement (Fig. 1, Table 3). Se lowered ETS activity in cv. Bard in the third measurement (Fig. 3, Table 3). Se did not affect the number of stomata in cvs.

Bard and Adora, or the length of stomata in the latter (Table 4). The presence of Se resulted in a decrease in the mass of tubers in well-watered and drought exposed cv. Adora (Table 5).

Effects of Drought in Combination with Se

Se lowered photosynthetic activity in drought exposed plants and had no effect on well-watered plants in the third measurement in cv. Bard, while it did not affect photosynthetic activity in drought exposed plants and lowered it in well-watered plants in the third measurement in cv. Adora (Fig. 1, Table 3). Drought caused lower transpiration rate in the presence of Se in cv. Bard in the third measurement, but not in its absence (Fig. 1, Table 3). $\Delta F/F_m'$ was lower in drought exposed plants in cv. Adora in the third measurement in the presence of Se only. Differences between well-watered and drought exposed plants was small in the absence of Se (Fig. 2, Table 3). The differences in ETS activity between drought exposed and well watered plants were greater in the absence of Se in cv. Bard in the third measurement (Fig. 3, Table 3). The length of the stomata was greater in drought exposed plants in the absence of Se, while the stomata were of similar lengths in the presence of Se in drought exposed and well-watered plants in cv. Bard (Table 4). Se led to an increase in mass of the tubers in plants exposed to water deprivation in cv. Bard and a reduction in mass of tubers in well-watered plants (Table 5).

4 DISCUSSION

The exposure of plants to progressive drought caused disruption of physiological function. The growth of plants of cv. Bard during the vegetative season under water deficiency was accompanied by a significant decrease of ~10% in the water content of leaf tissue, and also by lower leaf water potential of the leaves (Table 2). Interestingly, the ratio of fresh/dry mass and leaf water potential of the leaves in cv. Bard were higher in Se treated plants (Table 2). Under conditions of drought, Se causes enhanced water retention in wheat tissue (Kuznetsov et al., 2003). The latter was achieved by increasing the water uptake capacity of the root system. These results indicate an important role for Se in plants exposed to deprivation of water. Photosynthetic rate was lowest in plants exposed to a limited supply of water in the third measurement (Fig. 1, Table 3). The foliar photosynthesis rate of higher plants is known to decrease as the leaf water potential decreases (Lawlor and Cornic, 2002). However, in drought exposed kidney bean, photosynthesis decreased because stomata were closed before leaf water potential dropped (Miyashita et al., 2005). The addition of high doses of Se to soil (1 mg kg^{-1}) had a harmful effect on photosynthetic processes in strawberry, through changes in activity and/or biosynthesis of enzymes, rather than changes in PSII (Valkama et al., 2003). Lower photosynthetic activity caused by Se in cvs. Bard and Adora in the third measurement are in agreement with these findings (Fig. 1, Table 3). However, the lowering of photosynthetic activity caused by Se in drought exposed plants of cv. Bard, and the similar effect, but on watered plants, in cv. Adora, indicate that the responses to drought and to Se are cultivar-specific. It is expected that under stress conditions photosynthetic processes in different genotypes may be affected differently (Cai et al., 2005; Sharma et al., 2005). Drought caused strong stomatal

limitation in both studied cultivars in the third and in cv. Bard also in the second measurement (Fig. 1, Table 3). It has been shown to cause loss of transpiration in *Allium schoenoprasum* (Egert and Tevini, 2002) and lowered stomatal conductance in potato plants (Kawakami et al., 2005). With the continuation of drought stress, the stomata gradually lose their ability to close and finally remain permanently open (McKersie and Leshem, 1994). Rigidity of the stomata could therefore be the reason for the highest transpiration rate in the third measurement in cvs. Bard and Adora in the present experiment (Fig. 1). Lower transpiration rate and leaf water potential in cv. Bard accompanied the decrease in photosynthesis, indicating that stomatal closure as well as leaf water potential appear to be an important factor contributing to the reduced CO₂ assimilation that has been reported (Reddy et al., 2004; Miyashita et al., 2005). The most sensitive changes resulting from water deprivation relate to rubisco metabolism, although the details of the mechanism are not known. Se lowered transpiration rate in the third measurement in cv. Adora (Fig. 1, Table 3). In contrast, Kuznetsov et al. (2003) found, in wheat, that under conditions of water limitation Se did not inhibit, but slightly increased transpiration rate. Cv. Bard behaved similarly: it exhibited a higher transpiration rate in Se treated plants in the third measurement. Se also caused higher leaf water potential and fresh/dry mass ratio in the leaves of cv. Bard (Table 2), that could enable higher transpiration rate. Cv. Adora exhibited the lower potential (F_v/F_m) and effective ($\Delta F/F_m'$) quantum yield of PSII as well as photosynthetic rate comparing to cv. Bard (Figs. 1,2, Table 3). Thus, cv. Adora is not a desirable cultivar for growing in an area that has experienced limitation of water, especially in recent years. However, it should be noted that our plants were growing in pots. Therefore, some physical as well as chemical components and biological interactions that occur in the fields might be not present. Plants of both cultivars exhibited the lowest photosynthesis rate during drought conditions, while F_v/F_m was maintained mainly on the same level (Figs. 1,2). The similar results were obtained in potato cv. Desiree by Germ et al. (2007). The relative maintenance of F_v/F_m values throughout the experiment demonstrated that drought did not cause damage to the flow of electrons in PSII, as previously reported for potato (Tourneux and Peltier, 1995), kidney bean (Miyashita et al., 2005), sunflower (Panković et al., 1999; Germ et al., 2005) and some other species (Jiménez et al., 1999; Chaves et al., 2002). It was concluded (Cornic and Briantais, 1991) on the basis of chlorophyll *a* fluorescence, that the potential rate of electron transport in thylakoids was maintained, even at low relative water content. Present research supports the idea that photodamage to PSII reaction centres is not the main factor in the depression of CO₂ assimilation of the leaves induced by water stress. However, the large decreases in F_v/F_m observed in lavender and rosemary leaves exposed to drought indicates that either PSII reaction centres had been damaged, or slowly relaxing quenching had been induced (Nogues and Baker, 2000). Values of $\Delta F/F_m'$ were lowest in drought exposed specimens (Fig. 2, Table 3). Down regulation of PSII activity due to drought stress, causing an imbalance between generation and utilization of electrons, apparently results in changes in quantum yield (Foyer and Noctor, 2000; Reddy et al., 2004). Even though $\Delta F/F_m'$ was lowest in the drought exposed plants, the relative closeness of the potential photochemical quantum yield to the theoretical maximum (0.8-0.83) (Fig. 2) indicated reversible inactivation, rather than damage to the reaction centre.

Se treatment did not affect the potential and effective quantum yield of PSII (Fig. 2, Table 3). The impact of Se on potential quantum yield of PSII was also absent in the study in common buckwheat (Breznik et al., 2005).

Packard (1985) stated that when organisms are stressed and demand more energy, ATP production and O₂ consumption in the mitochondria are increased. However, water limitation was found to lower ETS activity in the potato plants (Fig. 3, Table 3). Similarly, when the relative content of water was reduced from 100 to 80%, again in potato, O₂ uptake increased, then remained relatively constant at ca. 60%, until it finally fell in parallel with O₂ evolution (Tourneux and Peltier, 1995). We assumed that the damage caused by drought was sufficiently strong that plants could not overcome the stress, leading to lower respiratory potential. Mitochondrial structure has been reported to be affected by water deficit (Giles et al., 1976). Pb led to lower respiratory potential in the roots of *Picea abies* (L.) Karst. (Vodnik et al., 1999). Unfavourable conditions for growth also lowered ETS activity in *Phragmites australis* (Cav.) Trin. ex Steud. (Urbanc-Berčič and Gaberščik, 2001). Se did not affect ETS activity in cv. Adora (Fig. 3, Table 3), pumpkins and common and tartary buckwheat (Germ et al., 2005; Breznik et al., 2005), in keeping with the results of Seppänen et al. (2003), in which Se application on potato did not suppress or promote mitochondrial reactions. ETS activity was reduced by Se in cv. Bard in the third measurement (Fig. 3, Table 3). Valkama et al. (2003) reported a decreased density of mitochondria in barley in response to Se, that could be attributed to alteration of mitochondrial division. The latter might also be the reason for Se induced lower respiratory potential in cv. Bard.

The mass of tubers was the highest (except under Se0W0 treatment) in cv. Bard, largely the consequence of high canopy expansion and light interception (Table 5). Se lowered the mass of the tubers in watered and drought exposed plants in cv. Adora and in watered plants of cv. Bard. It appears that, in cv. Adora, which expressed the lowest quantum yield of PSII and photosynthetic rate, Se treatment itself could be a stress factor that resulted in lower tuber biomass.

5 CONCLUSIONS

Of the two potato cultivars cv. Adora showed the lower level of adaptation to growth conditions and least ability to cope with drought stress. The findings should be taken into account when choosing cultivars for growing in conditions likely to suffer water limitation. Under water limited conditions, photosynthesis,

transpiration rate, effective quantum yield of PSII, and ETS activity were the lowest of both cultivars. Se lowered photosynthesis in cvs. Bard and Adora and also the mass of tubers in cv. Adora. The effects of drought and Se treatment are different in different potato cultivars, thus the results from certain cultivar can not be extrapolated to the whole species. This could be expected, since both effects have a complex, direct, or more probably indirect impact on traits and parameters of plants.

Acknowledgements

The authors are grateful to Professor Roger Pain for critical reading of the manuscript. This research is a part the projects financed by the Slovenian Research Agency (ARRS), Ljubljana: "The influence of UV-B radiation on antioxidant content and distribution in cultivated plants" (J7-9805-0106-06, and J4-9673-0481-06); and Programmes P1-0255 and P1-0212.

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Table 1. Starting values of physiological parameters in cvs. Bard and Adora. Means \pm SD ($n = 5$).

	Bard	Adora
Net photosynthetic rate	8.53 \pm 6.80	8.26 \pm 5.67
Transpiration rate	7.01 \pm 0.71	6.72 \pm 0.31
F _v /F _m	0.77 \pm 0.04	0.62 \pm 0.03
$\Delta F/F_m'$	0.35 \pm 0.05	0.25 \pm 0.05
ETS activity	6.35 \pm 0.51	5.75 \pm 0.36

Net photosynthetic rate was measured in [$\mu\text{mol}(\text{CO}_2)\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$], transpiration rate in [$\text{mmol}(\text{H}_2\text{O})\text{m}^{-2}\text{s}^{-1}$], fluorescence parameters in relative units, and ETS activity in [$\mu\text{L}(\text{O}_2)\text{mg}^{-1}(\text{DM})\text{h}^{-1}$]. F_v/F_m - potential quantum yield of PSII, $\Delta F/F_m'$ - effective quantum yield of PSII, ETS - electron transport system.

Table 2. Values of fresh/dry mass ratio and leaf water potential in cvs. Bard and Adora, and the level of significance of the treatments or interaction. Means \pm SD ($n = 5$).

	Se0W0	Se0W1	Se1W0	Se1W1	W	Se	WxSe
Fresh/ dry mass							
Bard	6.22 \pm 0.31	6.92 \pm 0.61	6.69 \pm 0.48	7.45 \pm 0.87	**	*	n.s.
Adora	7.33 \pm 0.44	6.92 \pm 0.87	7.22 \pm 0.41	8.19 \pm 1.60	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
L. water potential (MPa)							
Bard	-0.67 \pm 0.10	-0.58 \pm 0.09	-0.60 \pm 0.14	-0.54 \pm 0.12	*	**	n.s.
Adora	-0.64 \pm 0.10	-0.54 \pm 0.06	-0.48 \pm 0.07	-0.53 \pm 0.08	n.s.	*	n.s.

Legend: Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. W - water, Se – selenium, and WxSe – interaction. L. water potential – leaf water potential. Influences of factors are presented as: n.s. – non-significant $p>0.05$, * $p<0.05$, ** $p<0.01$, *** $p<0.001$.

Table 3. The significance of influences of factors on physiological parameters in cvs. Bard and Adora.

		Photosynthetic rate		Transpiration rate		F _v /F _m		$\Delta F/F_m'$		ETS activity	
		II	III	II	III	II	III	II	III	II	III
Bard	Water	n.s.	***	***	**	n.s.	**	***	**	n.s.	*
	Se	n.s.	**	n.s.	***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	***
	Water x Se	n.s.	**	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	*	*
	Water	n.s.	*	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	**	***	*
Adora	Se	n.s.	*	n.s.	***	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	Water x Se	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.	*	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Legend: II stands for the second measurement and III for the third measurement, Se – selenium, and Water x Se – interaction. F_v/F_m - potential quantum yield of PSII, $\Delta F/F_m'$ - effective quantum yield of PSII, ETS - electron transport system.

Influences of factors are presented as: n.s. – non-significant $p \geq 0.05$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 4. The number and dimensions of leaf stomata in cvs. Bard and Adora, and the level of significance of the treatments or interaction. Means \pm SD ($n = 5$).

		Se0W0	Se0W1	Se1W0	Se1W1	W	Se	WxSe
Bard	NoS	94.37 \pm 60.42	270.85 \pm 81.33	313.90 \pm 128.45	271.98 \pm 69.55	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	LeS	34.4 \pm 2.5	31.4 \pm 3.4	33.6 \pm 3.1	34.0 \pm 3.3	n.s.	n.s.	*
	WiS	24.6 \pm 2.5	24.8 \pm 2.3	25.3 \pm 2.0	25.0 \pm 1.9	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
Adora	NoS	47.37 \pm 37.26	263.67 \pm 96.57	262.60 \pm 67.95	226.18 \pm 53.84	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	LeS	32.2 \pm 3.6	36.2 \pm 5.4	33.6 \pm 3.4	34.7 \pm 3.0	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.
	WiS	22.2 \pm 2.6	24.4 \pm 3.2	23.4 \pm 2.7	22.3 \pm 2.6	n.s.	n.s.	n.s.

Legend: NoS – number of the stomata [mm^2], LeS - length of the stomata [μm], WiS – width of the stomata [μm]. Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. W - water, Se – selenium, and WxSe – interaction. Influences of factors are presented as: n.s. – non significant $p \geq 0.05$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

Table 5. The number and mass of the tubers in cvs. Bard and Adora, and the level of significance of the treatments or interaction on the mass of tubers. Means \pm SD ($n = 5$).

		Se0W0	Se0W1	Se1W0	Se1W1	W	Se	WxSe
Mass Bard	of the tubers	[g]						
	64.78 \pm 14.23	94.98 \pm 10.69	120.88 \pm 22.04	68.06 \pm 20.20	n.s.	n.s.	***	
Adora	76.65 \pm 15.10	68.20 \pm 17.07	47.46 \pm 7.28	44.62 \pm 12.01	n.s.	**	n.s.	
	No. of tubers							
Bard	3.2 \pm 0.4	3.0 \pm 1.0	4.2 \pm 1.9	3.8 \pm 1.6				
Adora	3.2 \pm 1.8	2.6 \pm 0.9	2.3 \pm 0.5	3.0 \pm 0.8				

Legend: Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. W - water, Se – selenium, and WxSe – interaction. Influences of factors are presented as: n.s. – non significant $p \geq 0.05$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$.

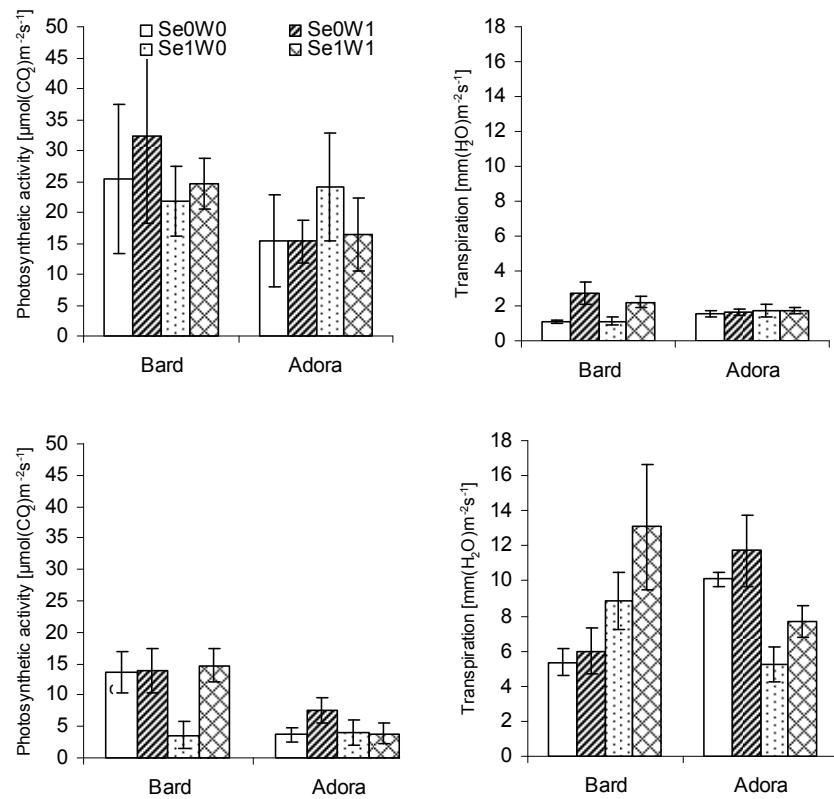


Fig. 1. Net photosynthetic rate (*left panels*) and transpiration rate (*right panels*) in the second measurement (*upper panels*) and in the third measurement (*lower panels*) in cvs. Bard and Adora grown under different drought and Se treatments. Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. Means±SD ($n = 5$).

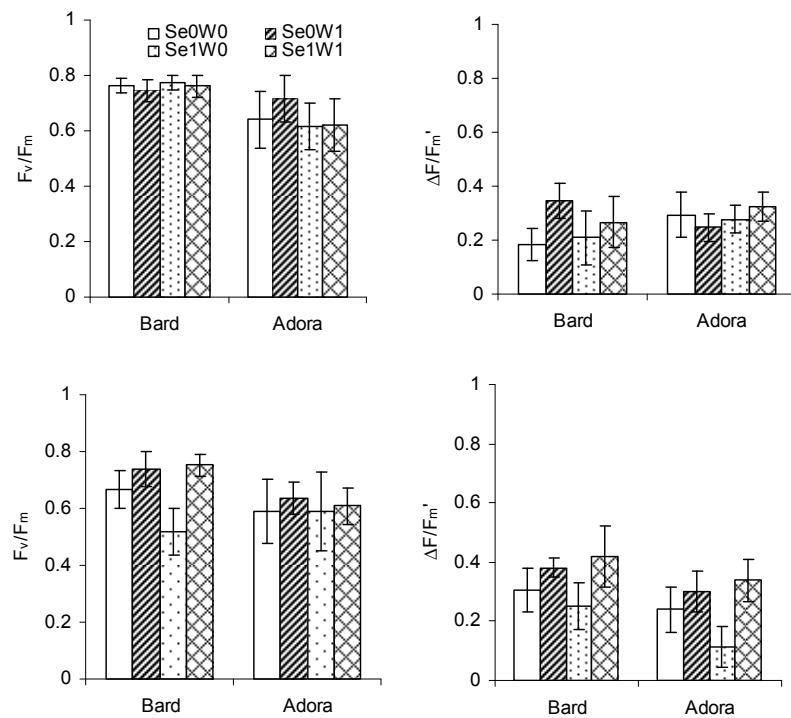


Fig. 2. Potential – F_v/F_m (left panels) and effective – $\Delta F/F_m'$ (right panels) photochemical quantum yield of PSII in the second measurement (upper panels) and in the third measurement (lower panels) in cvs. Bard and Adora grown under different drought and Se treatments. Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. Means \pm SD ($n = 8$).

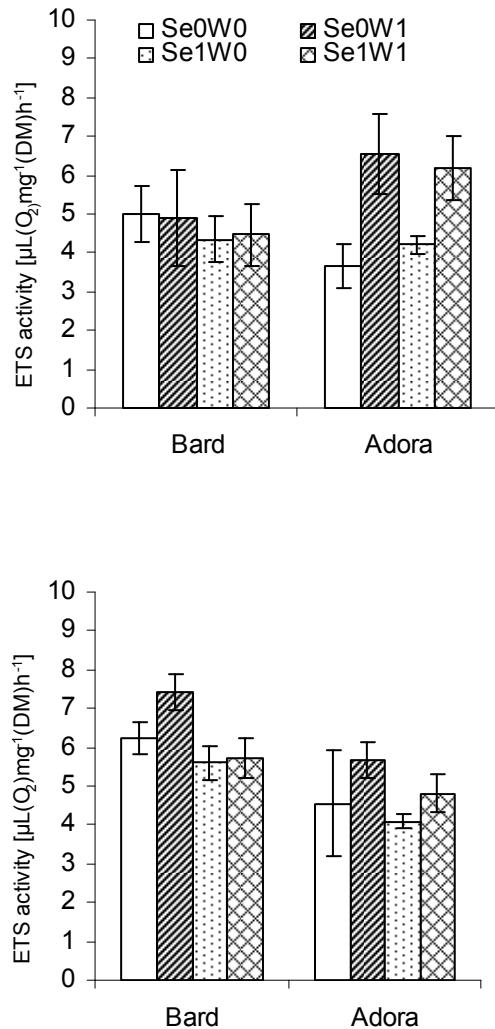


Fig. 3. Terminal electron transport system (ETS) activity in the second measurement (*upper panel*) and in the third measurement (*lower panel*) in cvs. Bard and Adora grown under different drought and Se treatments. Se0W0 - drought exposed without added Se, Se0W1 - well-watered without added Se, Se1W0 - drought exposed with added Se, Se1W1 - well-watered with added Se. Means \pm SD ($n = 4$).

Agrovoc descriptors: plants, disease resistance, defence mechanisms, genes, gene expression, viruses, bacteria, nematoda, fungi

Agris category codes: H20, F30, F60

COBISS koda: 1.02

Geni za odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom pri rastlinah

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Prispelo 15. septembra 2007; sprejeto 15. novembra 2007.

Received Sept. 15, 2007; accepted Nov. 15, 2007.

IZVLEČEK

Pri rastlinah so znani različni mehanizmi obrambe proti škodljivim organizmom, med katerimi so nekateri pogojeni z izražanjem genov za odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom, ki jih krajše imenujemo *R* geni. *R* geni kodirajo proteine (*R* proteine) za odpornost proti virusom, bakterijam, ogorčicam in glivam. Večina kloniranih *R* genov kodira proteine, ki spadajo v NBS-LRR razred, za katere je značilna domena za vezavo nukleotidov (NBS domena) in domena bogata z levcini (LRR domena). Za delovanje *R* proteinov so postavljeni modeli receptor-ligand interakcij, ki predvodejo, da produkti *R* genov delujejo kot receptorji za posredno ali neposredno prepoznavanje patogena. Večina *R* genov in *R* genom podobnih sekvenč je izoliranih z insercijsko mutagenezo, pozicijskim kloniranjem in z verižno reakcijo s polimerazo.

Ključne besede: geni za odpornost, NBS-LRR geni, odpornost pri rastlinah

ABSTRACT

PLANT DISEASE RESISTANCE GENES

Plants defend themselves against pathogens using different mechanisms, some of which rely on the expression of disease resistance genes (*R* genes). *R* genes encode proteins (*R* proteins) that provide resistance to a wide spectrum of pathogens including viruses, bacteria, nematodes and fungi. Most of the isolated *R* genes code for the protein of NBS-LRR class with characteristic nucleotide binding domain (NBS domain) and leucine-rich domain (LRR domain). Models of defence mechanism initiated by *R* gene products are proposed, based either on direct or indirect interaction of the plant *R* protein with the product of avirulence pathogen gene. Most of the *R* gene and *R* gene-like sequences are isolated by insertional mutagenesis, map-based cloning and amplification by polymerase chain reaction (PCR).

Key words: disease resistance genes, NBS-LRR genes, plant disease resistance

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1 UVOD

Eden od pomembnejših ciljev žlahtnjiteljskih programov v kmetijstvu je uspešna kontrola bolezni. Namen žlahtnjenja je poiskati ali razviti take kultivarje za katere je značilen kakovosten in stabilen pridelek z ustreznimi lastnostmi za predelovalno industrijo ter z odpornostjo proti boleznim in škodljivcem. Večino bolezni nadzorujemo z uporabo kemičnih preparatov, s čimer se povečajo stroški pridelave in s tem posledično zmanjša konkurenčnost na trgu, poveča pa se tudi obremenitev okolja, kar ogroža ekološko upravičenost pridelave. Velik problem predstavljajo karantenski škodljivci, proti katerim ni učinkovitih kemičnih sredstev, dodaten problem pa predstavlja sočasen razvoj odpornosti škodljivih organizmov na aplicirane kemične preparate. Rastline so v preteklosti požlahtnili s križanjem, kot alternativna metoda klasičnemu križanju pa se v zadnjem času pojavlja prenos genov s transformacijami. Glavna prednost te metode je vključitev gena/genov za želene lastnosti brez spreminjanja lastnosti obstoječega kultivarja. Druga, zelo pomembna prednost je, da lahko gen izhaja iz druge rastlinske vrste ali rodu s podobnih mehanizmom odpornosti.

2 ODPORNOST PROTI ŠKODLJIVIM ORGANIZMOM

Rastline napadajo številni škodljivi organizmi, vendar se bolezensko stanje razmeroma redko pojavi. V večini primerov rastlina škodljivemu organizmu ne nudi ustreznih življenskih razmer za razmnoževanje in razvoj, ker ne zagotavlja esencialnih hranil, ima strukturne bariere in proizvaja toksične komponente ali pa ima razvite obrambne mehanizme s katerimi omeji napad patogenov.

Odpornost pri rastlinah lahko v grobem delimo na dve vrsti, na nespecifično (bazalno) in specifično odpornost, čeprav bi bilo verjetno bolj ustrezeno govoriti o odpornosti proti širokemu ali ozkemu spektru škodljivih organizmov. Nespecifična odpornost je takrat, ko je rastlinska vrsta odporna na vse izolate ali rase enega patogena in jo imenujemo negostiteljska rastlina. Pri tej vrsti se odpornost sproži z nespecifičnim stimulansom biotskega izvora. Genetski ustroj nespecifične odpornosti je zapleten in vključuje veliko število genov, ki kodirajo proteine s številnimi funkcijami, tako pri rastlini kot patogenu. Nekateri izmed genov, ki so vključeni v bazalno odpornost se izražajo konstitutivno.

Z razliko od nespecifične odpornosti temelji specifična odpornost na izražanju enega ali nekaj genov. Pri odpornosti, ki temelji na prepoznavanju škodljivega organizma z receptorjem rastline, se na mestu infekcije sprožijo celični in sistemski signalni procesi, ki aktivirajo multikomponentne odgovore na lokalnem in sistemskem nivoju. Gen pri škodljivem organizmu, katerega produkt sproži obrambne mehanizme pri rastlini imenujemo avirulenten gen, v nadaljevanju *Avr* gen. Gen pri rastlini, ki kodira protein za detekcijo *Avr* genskega produkta imenujemo gen za odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom, v nadaljevanju *R* gen. *Avr* gen kodira signalno molekulo, ki služi kot ligand za vezavo na receptor, ki ga kodira *R* gen. Odkritje specifičnosti delovanja med produkti *R* in *Avr* genov je bil

povod za nastanek termina gen-za-gen odpornosti, ki ga je predlagal Harold Flor v 50-ih letih prejšnjega stoletja (Flor, 1955).

Prvi proces izražanja (specifične) odpornosti je zaznavanje zunajceličnih signalov in njihov prenos skozi plazma membrano. Zgodnje reakcije rastlinskih celic na prisotnost škodljivih organizmov so spremembe v permeabilnosti plazemske membrane, kar vodi do vnosa protonov in kalcija ter izgubo kalija in kloridov. Spremembe v koncentraciji ionov sprožijo ekstracelularno sintezo reaktivnih kisikovih spojin kot sta superoksid in vodikov peroksid (McDowell in Dangl, 2000), sintezo dušikovega monoksida, odpiranje ionskih kanalov v plazma membrani, preoblikovanje citoskeleta in indukcijo fosforilacijskih/defosforilacijskih kaskad, kar je glavni sistem za aktivacijo *R* genov. Proizvodi teh genov posredno ali neposredno prepoznavajo produkte *Avr* genov.

Lokalna produkcija reaktivnih kisikovih intermediatov inducira hipersenzitivni odgovor in ekspresijo *R* genov (Piffanelli in sod., 1999). Inducirana odpornost je sprva omejena na nekrotično mesto kar imenujemo lokalna odpornost. S terminom hipersenzitivni odgovor označujemo programirano celično smrt. Nanaša se na lokalizirano, samo-inducirano celično smrt na mestu infekcije in je rezultat izražanja obrambnih mehanizmov, ki se sprožijo s prepoznavanjem specifičnih signalnih molekul škodljivega organizma (Agrios, 1997). Po prepoznavanju škodljivega organizma se aktivirajo celični signali za odpornost, ki sprožijo aktivacijo genov in sintezo proteinov, proizvajajo inhibitori substanc in mobilizacijo antimikrobnih produktov na mesto napada. Sinteza nekaterih alarmnih substanc in poti signalne transdukcije potekajo le intracelularno, v večini primerov pa se signal prenaša na sosednje celice in pogosto sistemsko po celi rastlini. Posledično se izražanje odpornosti širi na oddaljena, nekužena mesta po rastlini, kar imenujemo sistemski odpornost. Lokalna odpornost se razvije hitro v primerjavi s sistemsko, ki se razvija počasneje. Sistemski odpornost se razvije, ko so bile rastlinske celice že predhodno okužene in omogoča trajnejšo zaščito pred infekcijo s širokim spektrom škodljivih organizmov.

3 GENI ZA ODPORNOST PRI RASTLINAH

Prvi rastlinski *R* gen je bil izoliran leta 1992 iz koruze (*Hm1*) za odpornost proti glivi *Cochliobolus carbonum* sev 1 z metodo sprožanja genskih mutacij s transpozoni (Johal in Briggs, 1992). Kodira od NADPH odvisno reduktazo, ki inaktivira toksin pri glivi. V tem primeru odpornost ne temelji na zaznavanju produkta *Avr* gena, zato ne spada v model gen-za-gen interakcije.

Prvi primer *R* gena, katerega produkt spada v model gen-za-gen interakcije je gen *Pto*, izoliran iz paradižnika. Gen kodira protein serin-treonin kinazo, ki pogojuje odpornost proti bakteriji *Pseudomonas syringae* (Martin in sod., 1993). Po letu 1993 je bila izolirana skupina *R* genov, ki kodirajo proteine z domenami, ki so bogate z levcini – LRR domenami. To je bilo prvo odkritje, da *R* geni, izolirani iz različnih rastlinskih vrst, ki pogojujejo odpornost proti bakterijam, virusom in glivam, kodirajo strukturno podobne proteine.

Med najbolj reprezentativne sodijo naslednji *R* geni:

- gen *RPS2* navadnega repnjakovca *Arabidopsis thaliana*, ki pogojuje odpornost proti sevu bakterije *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *paradižnik* in *Pseudomonas syringae* pv. *maculicola*, ki imajo avirulenten gen *avrRpt2* (Bent in sod., 1994),
- gen *N* tobaka *Nicotiana tabacum*, ki pogojuje odpornost proti tobačnemu mozaičnemu virusu TMV (Whitham in sod., 1994),
- gen *Cf9* paradižnika *Lycopersicon esculentum* za odpornost proti različnim rasam glive *Cladosporium fulvum*, ki so nosilci avirulentnega gena *avr9* (Jones in sod., 1994) ter
- gen *L6* lana *Linum lewisii* za odpornost proti določenim rasam glive *Melampsora lini*, ki imajo avirulenten gen *avr6* (Lawrence in sod., 1995).

Nekateri drugi *R* geni za odpornost proti virusom, ogorčicam, bakterijam, glivam in žuželkam so podani v preglednici 1.

4 STRUKTURNJE DOMENE PROTEINOV ZA ODPORNOST PROTI ŠKODLJIVIM ORGANIZMOM (R PROTEINOV)

Za večino R proteinov so značilne ohranjene strukturne domene. V grobem delimo R proteine na rasno specifične in rasno ne-specifične. Glede na strukturne motive rasno specifičnih R proteinov, ki jih kodirajo *R* geni, *R* gene razdelimo v pet razredov (Hammond-Kosack in Parker, 2003). V prvi razred uvrščamo *R* gene, ki kodirajo serin/treonin kinaze. V ta razred sodi gen *Pto* paradižnika za odpornost proti bakteriji *Pseudomonas syringae*. Serin/treonin kinaze sodelujejo pri signalni transdukciji s spremembou fosforilacijskega stanja proteinov, kar je eden glavnih mehanizmov kontrole aktivnosti proteinov. Za ostale štiri razrede *R* genov je značilno, da kodirajo domene bogate z levcini (LRR domene), razrede pa med seboj ločimo glede na to, kje se LRR domene nahajajo. Za drugi in tretji razred R proteinov je značilna ekstracelularna LRR domena, za četrti in peti pa intracelularna. V drugi razred spadajo *R* geni, ki kodirajo transmembranske receptorje z ekstracelularno LRR domeno (*Cf* genska družina pri paradižniku), za tretji razred *R* genov pa je značilno, da kodirajo ekstracelularno LRR domeno povezano z kinazno domeno (gen *Xa21* pri rižu), in jih krajše imenujemo LLR-RK geni. Slednji zajemajo največjo poddržino kinaz, ki so podobne transmembranskim receptorjem pri rastlinah. LRR-RK regulirajo številne razvojne in obrambne procese.

Za *R* gene, ki spadajo v četrti in peti razred je značilno, da kodirajo intracelularne proteine z NBS in LRR domeno in jih imenujemo NBS-LRR geni. Geni, ki kodirajo NBS-LRR proteine zajemajo največje število kloniranih rastlinskih *R* genov. Aminokislinski motivi kažejo na to, da so vključeni v začetek signalne poti. Do zdaj je edina njihova znana vloga pri odpornosti proti škodljivim organizmom. Na podlagi genomskega sekvenčnega vsebuje navadni repnjakovec 150 NBS-LRR genov (Meyers in sod., 2003). Za četrti razred je na N-terminalnem koncu proteina značilna struktura obvite viačnice (CC struktura), za peti razred pa struktura, ki je podobna regiji receptorjem Toll in interleukin-1 pri sesalcih in vinski mušici (struktura TIR) (Martin, 1999).

Preglednica 1: Klonirani rastlinski geni za odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom
 Table 1: Cloned disease resistance genes

Rastlina	R gen	Škodljivi organizem	Vrsta škodljivega organizma
Paprika <i>Capsicum annuum</i>	<i>Bs2</i>	<i>Xanthomonas campestris</i>	bakterija
Paradižnik <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	<i>Cf-2, Cf-4, Cf-5, Cf-9</i>	<i>Cladosporium fulvum</i>	gliva
Solata <i>Lactuca sativa</i>	<i>Dm3</i>	<i>Bremia lactucae</i>	gliva
Krompir <i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	<i>Gpa2</i>	<i>Globodera pallida</i>	ogorčice
Koruza <i>Zea mays</i>	<i>Hml1</i>	<i>Cochliobolus carbonum</i>	gliva
Paradižnik <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	<i>I2C-1</i>	<i>Fusarium oxysporum</i>	gliva
Lan <i>Linum usitatissimum</i>	<i>L6</i>	<i>Melampsora lini</i>	gliva
Paradižnik <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	<i>Mi</i>	<i>Meloidogyne spp., krompirjeva uš, Macrosiphum euphorbiae, tobakov ščitkar Bemisia tabaci</i>	ogorčice in žuželke
Ječmen <i>Hordeum vulgare</i>	<i>Mla</i>	<i>Blumeria graminis</i>	gliva
Tobak <i>Nicotiana tabacum</i>	<i>N</i>	Tobačni mozaični virus	virus
Paradižnik <i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	<i>Pto</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. paradižnik	bakterija
Koruza <i>Zea mays</i>	<i>Rp1-D</i>	<i>Puccinia sorghi</i>	gliva
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPM1</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. maculicola	bakterija
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPP1</i>	<i>Peronospora parasitica</i>	gliva
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPP5</i>	<i>Peronospora parasitica</i>	gliva
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPS2</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. paradižnik	bakterija
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPS4</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. paradižnik	bakterija
Navadni repnjakovec <i>A. thaliana</i>	<i>RPS5</i>	<i>Pseudomonas syringae</i> pv. paradižnik	bakterija
Krompir <i>Solanum tuberosum</i>	<i>Rx</i>	Virus krompirja X	virus
Riž <i>Oryza sativa</i>	<i>Xa1</i>	<i>Xanthomonas oryzae</i> pv. <i>oryzae</i>	bakterija

Poleg *R* genov, ki spadajo v opisane razrede poznamo *R* gene, ki kodirajo proteine s specifičnimi strukturnimi domenami. Sem sodita gena *Ve1* in *Ve2*, izolirana iz paradižnika, ki pogojujeta odpornost proti glivi *Verticillium albo-atrum*. Od ostalih *R* genov se razlikujeta v tem, da kodirata domeno za endocitozni signal in sta edina znana primera takih receptorjev pri rastlinah (Kawchuk in sod., 2001).

Večina izoliranih *R* genov se deduje dominantno, manj pa je znanega o recesivni odpornosti. Med recesivne gene sodijo gen *Mlo* ječmena, ki deluje rasno nespecifično proti glivi *Erysiphe graminis* (Buschges in sod., 1997), gen *RRS-1* navadnega repnjakovca za odpornost proti različnim sevom bakterije *Ralstonia solanacearum* (Deslandes in sod., 2002) in gen *Xa5* riža za odpornost proti bakteriji *Xanthomonas oryzae* pv. *oryzae* (Iyer in McCouch, 2004).

5 NBS-LRR GENI ZA ODPORNOST PROTI ŠKODLJIVIM ORGANIZMOM

5.1 Struktura NBS-LRR proteinov

NBS-LRR proteini so sestavljeni iz NBS domene na N-terminalnem koncu ter LRR domene na C-terminalnem koncu aminokislinskega zaporedja. LRR domena označuje aminokislinsko zaporedje bogato z levcini ali drugimi hidrofobnimi aminokislinami, ki so v intervalih, imajo pa lahko tudi pravilno razporejeni aminokislini prolin in asparagin (Bent in sod., 1996). LRR domeno sestavljajo ponovljivi motivi od 20 do 29 aminokislin, ki tvorijo strukturo plošče β . LRR domena je zelo variabilna tako po sestavi kot dolžini ponovitev osnovnega motiva in je sestavni del citoplazemskih, membranskih in ekstracelularnih proteinov. Tandemske ponovitve osnovnega motiva imajo številne funkcije kot je vezava proteinov, ligandov, ogljikovih hidratov,... Analize funkcionalnosti LRR domen pri kvasovki, vinski mušici in človeku so pokazale, da sodelujejo pri proteinskih interakcijah med encimi in inhibitorji in med intracelularnimi komponentami signalne transdukcijske kaskade ter pri vezavi peptidnih hormonov na transmembranske receptorje (Kobe in Deisenhofer, 1994). Pri *R* genih so LRR domene pomembne predvsem za vezavo ligandov in prepoznavanje signalnih molekul škodljivih organizmov.

Druga značilnost NBS-LRR proteinov je ohranjena NBS domena, za katero je značilna homologija z evkariotskimi regulatorji celične smrti, kot sta CED-4 in Apaf-1. NBS domene so značilne za različne proteine, ki imajo sposobnost vezave ATP ali GTP molekul kot so: β podenote ATP sintaz, Ras proteini, ribosomski elongacijski faktorji in adenilat ciklaze. Ohranjenost NBS domene pri nekaterih produktih *R* genov podpira hipotezo, da je vezava trifosfatov ključnega pomena za delovanje teh proteinov (Bent, 1996).

Glede na N-terminalni konec zaporedja NBS-LRR proteinov, jih delimo v dva manjša razreda. Za prvi razred, ki ga označimo s TIR-NBS-LRR, je značilna homologija aminokislinskega zaporedja z receptorji Toll pri vinski mušici in receptorji interleukin-1 pri sesalcih. Za receptorje Toll in interleukin-1 ter sorodne

proteine je znano, da so vključeni v nespecifično izražanje odpornosti pri živalih. Glede na analogijo z živalskimi proteini naj bi bili rastlinski proteini s TIR regijo vključeni v signalno transdukcijo (Ellis in Jones, 1998). Novejše raziskave pa kažejo, da so TIR proteini vključeni tudi v prepoznavanje ligandov patogenov. Pri analizi aminokislinskih zaporedij 13 alelov *L* gena pri lanu so Ellis in sod. (1999) ugotovili, da je prepoznavanje različnih ligandov določeno z aminokislinskim zaporedjem znotraj TIR regije. Za drugi razred, ki ga označimo s CC-NBS-LRR je značilna struktura obvite vijačnice. Za strukturo obvite vijačnice so značilne ponovitve sedmih aminokislinskih ostankov. Njihova vloga je znana tudi pri homom in hetero-dimerizaciji evkariotskih transkripcijskih faktorjev (Bent, 1996). TIR-NBS-LRR proteine krajše imenujemo TNL, CC-NBS-LRR proteine pa CNL. Pri navadnem repnjakovcu so *R* geni ali *R* genom podobne sekvene, ki spadajo v TNL razred, zastopane z okoli 60 % NBS-LRR genov, CNL pa zajemajo preostalih 40 %.

TNL in CNL razred *R* genov se razlikujeta tudi po aminokislinskih motivih znotraj NBS domene. Strukturne razlike med TNL in CNL proteini imajo tudi funkcionalen pomen. Pri navadnem repnjakovcu so z mutacijo dveh genov (*EDS11* in *NDR1*) opazili zmanjšano odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom, ki jo pogojujejo produkti genov *RPP5*, *RPS2* in *RPM1* (Parker in sod., 1996; Century in sod., 1997). Z analizami so Aarts in sod. (1998) dokazali, da TNL genski produkti, med katere spada protein *RPP5*, delujejo po EDS1 odvisni poti, medtem ko CNL genski produkti, vključujuč proteine *RPS2* in *RPM1* delujejo odvisno od *NDR1* signalne poti. Amino terminalni TIR ali CC regiji imata najverjetnejše odločilno vlogo pri razcepu signalnih poti (Aarts in sod., 1998).

5.2 Filogenetske analize NBS-LRR sekvenc

Filogenetske analize NBS-LRR sekvenc podpirajo razlikovanje na TNL in CNL razred proteinov. TNL sekvenca ni znanih pri družini *Poaceae* in so najverjetnejše odsotne pri travah. Geni, ki kodirajo TIR motive so sicer prisotni v genomu riža, vendar niso prisotni pri NBS-LRR genih (Bai in sod., 2002).

CNL sekvence so prisotne pri vseh proučevanih vrstah znotraj razreda kritosemenik (*Angiospermae*). Filogenetske analize potrjujejo hipotezo o tem, da je prednik eno in dvokaličnic imel številne CNL sekvence, ki se od takrat razvijajo. Razdelitev CNL sekvenca v podskupine značilne za eno in dvokaličnice pa kažejo na nedavno diverzifikacijo znotraj vrst in sorodnih rodov (Meyers in sod., 1999; Pan in sod., 2000a). Znotraj drevesa sekvenca TNL in CNL razreda je vsaj en *R* gen, kar kaže na to, da je večina NBS sekvenca podobnih znanim *R* genom in je verjetno, da kodirajo funkcionalne R proteine. To je pomembno predvsem zato, ker je večina NBS-LRR sekvenca izoliranih z verižno reakcijo s polimerazo (PCR) in ker ni znanih neposrednih povezav z odpornimi fenotipi.

Znotraj filogenetskega drevesa NBS-LRR sekvenca paradižnika se uvrščajo sekvence različnih vrst iz družine *Solanaceae* (jajčevca, krompirja, paprike,...), iz česar Pan in sod. (2000b) domnevajo, da te NBS-LRR sekvence izhajajo iz skupnega prednika, ki je obstajal pred specializacijo znotraj družine *Solanaceae*.

Nekatere sekvence NBS-LRR paradižnika so bolj sorodne sekvencam krompirja kot drugim paradižnikovim sekvencam in predstavljajo potencialne ortologe oziroma sekvene skupnega prednika. Z vključitvijo 12 NBS-LRR sekvenc navadnega repnjakovca v to drevo, se te sekvene nahajajo popolnoma ločeno. Iz tega Pan in sod. (2000b) zaključujejo, da se je glavni dogodek duplikacije genov zgodil pri ločevanju dvokaličnic na različne redove.

5.3 Delovanje NBS-LRR proteinov

NBS-LRR proteini so najverjetneje intracelularni in delujejo kot receptorji za *avr*-kodirajoče ligande, ali pa v obliki proteinskega kompleksa, ki deluje kot receptor. Citoplazemska lokalizacija R proteinov, ki pogojujejo odpornost proti virusom ni presenetljiva, obstoj intracelularnih NBS-LRR proteinov za odpornost proti bakterijam in glivam pa kaže, da morajo biti ligandi teh organizmov tudi intracelularni. Rastlinski in živalski bakterijski organizmi uporabljajo tip III sekrecijskega sistema za prenos proteinov v gostiteljsko celico. Večina glivnih organizmov oblikuje neposreden membranski kontakt z gostiteljsko celico na površini specializirane strukture, ki jo imenujemo havstorijski sluzi za prehranjevanje, kar verjetno olajša transport ligandov v gostiteljsko celico, vendar o tem ni trdnih dokazov. Pri nehavstorijskih organizmih verjetno obstajajo drugi načini prenosa, vendar niso poznani. Gliva *Magnaporthe grisea*, ki ni havstorijski organizem, direktno penetrira skozi rastlinsko kutikulo in zunano celično steno v epidermalne celice gostitelja (Howard in sod., 1991). Raste intracelularno, ni pa znano ali so intracelularne hife obdane z rastlinsko plazma membrano, kot je to primer havstorijske biotrofnih gliv.

Izraz gen-za gen se nanaša na specifičnost interakcij med *Avr* in *R* geni, a ne predvideva števila *R* genov potrebnih za detekcijo produkta *Avr* gena. Gena *Pto* in *Prf*, ki kodirata različne biokemijske komponente ene signalne poti, sta le en primer multiplih *R* genov vključenih v detekcijo enega patogena. Ravno obratno pa imajo produkti dveh *R* genov na *Cf* lokusu pri paradižniku enako funkcijo pri odpornosti proti glivi *Cladosporium fulvum* (Dixon in sod., 1996). Poznana pa je tudi tretja interpretacija gen-za-gen interakcije, kjer en *R* gen pogojuje odpornost proti več ligandom enega škodljivega organizma. Pri navadnem repnjakovcu pogojuje gen *RPM1* odpornost proti produktom genov *avrB* in *avrRpm1* bakterije *Pseudomonas syringae* (Bisgrove in sod., 1994).

Za *R* gene, ki kodirajo R proteine vezane na odpornost proti različnim škodljivim organizmom je postavljen model receptor-ligand interakcije, ker so za večino R proteinov značilne LRR domene (Bent, 1996). Model predvideva, da produkti *R* genov delujejo kot receptorji za posredno ali neposredno prepoznavanje patogena, vendar direktnih dokazov za večino izoliranih R proteinov pri rastlinah ni.

Dandanes prevladujeta dve hipotezi, ki se medsebojno dopolnjujeta in sicer:

- prva hipoteza temelji na receptor-ligand konceptu, ki domneva, da je fizična interakcija med produkti *R* in *Avr* genov neposredna,
- druga hipoteza izhaja iz angleškega termina »guard hypothesis« (v prevodu pomeni hipoteza nadzorovanja) in temelji na predpostavki, da R proteini

delujejo kot nadzorniki nad drugimi proteini in so sestavni del proteinskih kompleksov. Ta hipoteza predvideva, da razvoj R proteinov ni potekal v smeri direktnega prepoznavanja Avr proteinov, kot je mišljeno pri modelu receptor-ligand, ampak za prepoznavanje delovanja številnih virulentnih faktorjev, ki modificirajo ali motijo delovanje gostiteljskih celičnih tarč. Pri tej hipotezi imajo R proteini vlogo nadzorovanja v celični homeostazi (Dangl in Jones, 2001).

Eksperimentalni podatki, ki podpirajo prvo hipotezo so zelo redki. Opisana pa je direktna interakcija med produktom gena *Pto* paradižnika in ustreznim *avrPto* genskim produkтом bakterije *Pseudomonas syringae* (Scofield in sod., 1996), ter med produkтом gena *Pi-ta* riže, in *Avr-Pita* produkтом glive *Magnaporthe grisea* (Jia in sod., 2000).

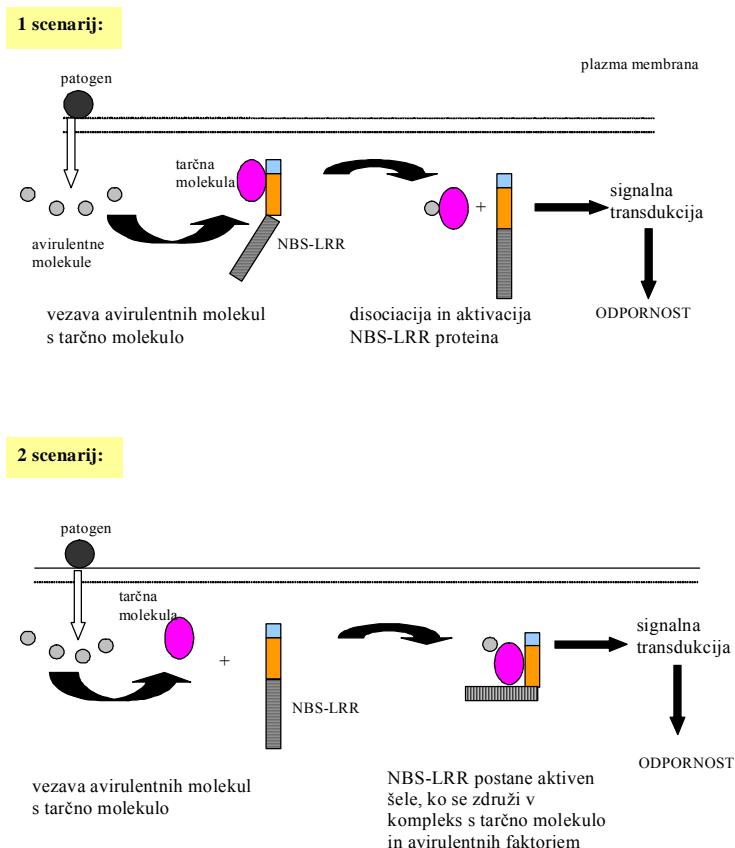
Gen *Pto* kodira serin-treonin kinazo. Prepoznavna specifičnost je v majhni kinazni regiji in raziskave kažejo, da je treonin na 204 mestu aminokislinskega zaporedja ključnega pomena za interakcijo s produkтом *avrPto* gena. Produkt *AvrPto* gena je majhen hidrofilen protein, ki preide v rastlinsko celico in vstopi v interakcijo s produkтом gena *Pto*, vendar so za aktivacijo odpornosti potrebne še druge komponente kot je gen *Prf*, ki kodira NBS-LRR protein s strukturo levcinske zadrge (LZ-NBS-LRR). Protein Prf deluje kot nadzornik proteina Pto, ker detektira vezavo proteina AvrPto na protein Pto, s čimer se sproži obrambni mehanizem.

Za razlogo hipoteze nadzorovanja Dangl in Jones (2001) predlagata dva možna scenarija, ki sta prikazana na sliki 1. Pri prvem scenariju, je R protein konstitutivno vezan na pripadajoč partnerski *trans* protein (na sliki 1 označena tarčna molekula). Z vezavo Avr proteina na partnerski oziroma tarčni protein pride do sprostiteve R proteina, ki se tako aktivira in sodeluje pri signalni transdukciji hipersenzitivnega odgovora. Ta scenarij podpirajo eksperimentalna opazovanja, da prekomerno izražanje Prf proteina vodi do konstitutivne odpornosti (Oldroyd in Staskawicz, 1998). Podobno, tudi prekomerno izražanje NBS-LRR genov *Rx* (za odpornost proti krompirjevemu virusu X), *RPM1* in *RPS2* (za odpornost proti bakteriji *Pseudomonas syringae*), vodi do celične smrti tudi v odsotnosti škodljivega organizma. Že prekomerno izražanje N-terminalnega in NBS zaporedja gena *RPS2* zadostuje za izražanje konstitutivne celične smrti (Tao in sod., 2000). Ta fenomen kaže na pomen regulacije med NBS-LRR proteini in njihovimi *trans* partnerji. Model predlaga, da so NBS-LRR proteini negativno regulirani s partnerskimi proteinimi.

Pri drugem scenariju je za delovanje R proteinov potrebna predhodna vezava liganda na pripadajoč receptor oziroma tarčno molekulo (slika 1). Komformacijske spremembe ligand-receptor kompleksa povečajo afiniteto za vezavo R proteina na ta kompleks, kar sproži aktivacijo nadaljnje signalne poti za razvoj odpornosti.

Za delovanje R proteinov je pomembna tudi oligomerizacija. NBS-LRR proteini imajo podobno strukturo kot družina proteinov NOD pri sesalcih, ki delujejo pri vnetjih in apoptozi (Inohara in Nunez, 2003).

Poleg R proteinov pri izražanju odpornosti sodelujejo številni drugi proteini, ki jim pravimo »s patogenezo povezani proteini«. Pri rastlinah je opisanih 11 družin proteinov povezanih s patogenezo. Ti proteini sodelujejo pri sintezi fitoaleksinov, sintezi encimov za lignifikacijo in pri popravilu tkiv. Sem spadajo endohitinaze, proteinaze, peroksidaze, proteinazni inhibitorji, RNA-ze, osmotini, glukanaze in proteinski prekurzorji. Za delovanje nekaterih NBS-LRR proteinov (RPM1, RPS2 proteinov navadnega repnjakovca in tobačnega proteina N), so potrebni citosolni šaperoni družine Hsp90 (Hubert in sod., 2003; Liu in sod., 2004).



Slika 1: Scenarija, ki ponazarjata delovanje R proteinov pri hipotezi nadzorovanja
Figure 1: Guard hypothesis scenarios for R protein function

Nivo ekpresije *R* genov regulirajo transkripcijski faktorji (TF). Prva izolirana genska družina transkripcijskih faktorjev pri rastlinah je WRKY družina. Ekspresijske analize WRKY genske družine pri navadnem repnjakovcu kažejo, da se pri okužbi z bakterijo *Pseudomonas syringae* ali s tretiranjem s salicilno kislino diferencialno izraža 49 transkripcijskih faktorjev, ki spadajo v družino WRKY.

5.4 Genomska organizacija *R* genov

R geni, ki pogojujejo odpornost proti različnim organizmom ali rasam enega škodljivega organizma, so na kromosomu lahko posamezno ali v večjih skupinah, ki jih imenujemo mega skupine. Največji lokus opisan na molekularnem nivoju z *R* geni, je pri solati, regija Dm3. Sestavlja jo vsaj 24 *R* genskih homologov, ki se nahajajo v območju 3,5 milijonov baz (Meyers in sod., 1998). Za kompleksne lokuse je značilno, da jih sestavljajo tudi psevdogeni protein kinaz in retrotranspozonski elementi. Pri številnih vrstah, so geni za odpornost v bližini telomer ali centromer na kromosому. S fluorescentno *in situ* hibridizacijo so ugotovili, da je pri solati ena skupina *R* genov v bližini telomere, druga skupina *R* genov pa na centromeri (Shen in sod., 1998); gen *Prg1* ječmena je na telomeri, gen *Mi* paradižnika se nahaja blizu centromernega heterokromatina (Zhong in sod., 1999).

5.5 Evolucija in razvoj NBS-LLR genov

Na podlagi nekaterih strukturnih podobnosti *R* genov, izoliranih pri eno- in dvokaličnicah domnevamo, da se je osnovni mehanizem obrambe proti škodljivim organizmom ohranil skozi evolucijo in diverzifikacijo. Prav tako imajo nekateri NBS-LRR proteini nekatere strukturne domene zelo podobne živalskim, ki sodelujejo pri imunskejem sistemu. Kljub podobnostim *R* genov v aminokislinskem zaporedju, se v nukleotidnih zaporedjih razlikujejo, čeprav je za večino kloniranih *R* genov znano, da spadajo v genske družine relativno podobnih sekvenc.

Najbolj znana mehanizma za nastanek *R* genov sta duplikacija in rekombinacija. S temi procesi nastajajo novi lokusi, znotraj genske družine pa se spremeni število predstavnikov. Med homolognimi sekvcencami prihaja do rekombinacij in do neenakega križanja homolognih kromosomov med mejozo (Richter in Ronald, 2000). V primeru skupin sekvcenc z zelo podobnim nukleotidnim zaporedjem, gre lahko za enostavne duplikacije. Podvojeni geni lahko nastanejo na več načinov in sicer z tandemskimi ponovitvami z drsom pri rekombinaciji, z gensko konverzijo, s horizontalnim transferjem in z duplikacijo večjih delov kromosoma. Posledice duplikacije genov se lahko kažejo v povečanem nivoju ekspresije genov, v kolikor imata gena identično ali skoraj identično zaporedje. Indeli in/ali akumulacije točkovnih mutacij pa lahko vodijo do nastanka psevdogenih sekvcenc ali pa se z mutacijami razvijeta dva funkcionalno različna gena. Pri skupinah sekvcenc z zelo različnim zapisom gre verjetno za druge načine diverzifikacije, med katere sodi preureditev sekvcenc. Čeprav je stopnja mutacij in duplikacij NBS-LRR sekvcenc podobna kot pri drugih genskih družinah (Meyers in sod., 2003), lahko naravna selekcija različno vpliva na sestavo genske družine (Meyers in sod., 2005).

Glede na analize aminokislinskih zaporedij, ki jih kodirajo izolirani NBS-LRR *R* geni, selekcija poteka predvsem znotraj LRR regij, na izpostavljenih aminokislinskih ostankih, ki omogočajo vezavo liganda (Wang in sod., 1998). Pri sekvenčni analizi 11 alelov gena *L* pri lanu *Linum lewisii*, od katerih jih 10 pogojuje specifično odpornost proti lanovi rji, so odkrili polimorfna mesta razporejena po

vsej kodirajoči regiji z največjo variabilnostjo v LRR domeni (Ellis in sod., 1999). Kot primer, gena *L6* in *L11* kodirata enako TIR-NBS domeno, razlikujeta pa se v 33 aminokislinah v LRR domeni. Ravno obratno, pa se gena *L6* in *L7* razlikujeta le v amino terminalnem delu TIR regije, kar kaže na to, da polimorfizm znotraj te regije tudi vpliva na specifičnost delovanja. Povečanje ali zmanjšanje števila LRR enot vpliva na distribucijo mest za vezavo ligandov in afiniteto ali specifičnost za različne ligande (Ellis in sod., 2000). Pri primerjavi nukleotidnih zaporedij genov *Xa21* in *Xa21D* riža je pogostost nesintonimnih substitucij (sprememba enega nukleotida vodi v spremembo aminokisline) pogosteje znotraj LRR regij, kar sovpada z vlogo LLR domene pri vezavi rasno specifičnih ligandov (Wang in sod., 1998). Nesintonimne substitucije omogočajo evolucijsko prednost, saj večja diverziteta omogoča boljšo sposobnost prepoznavanja širšega spektra patogenov.

Nastanek specifične odpornosti pa ni omejen zgolj na razvoj *R* genov, ampak tudi na druge komponentne signalne transdukcije pri odpornosti. To prikazuje primer gena paprike *Bs2* za odpornost proti bakteriji *Xanthomonas sp.*, ki je funkcionalen v številnih vrstah znotraj družine *Solanaceae*, ne pa tudi izven te družine. Ena od interpretacij je, da se tudi druge komponente signalne poti razvijajo sočasno z *R* genom. Ta fenomen imenujemo »restriktivna taksonomska funkcionalnost« (Tai in sod., 1999). To potrjuje tudi dejstvo, da večina proteinov deluje kot kompleks z drugimi komponentami, zato je ko-evolucija drugih komponent potrebna za optimizacijo njihovega delovanja, kar lahko vidimo kot različne kvantitativne lastnosti med vrstami.

Presenetljivi rezultati izhajajo iz medvrstnih primerjav sekvenc *R* genov, ki kažejo na večjo podobnost med ortologi kot paralogi. Avtorja Michelmore in Meyers (1998) domnevata, da se geni za odpornost ne razvijajo sočasno s spremjanjem virulence škodljivih organizmov, ampak se razvijajo počasneje, da bi vzpostavili odpornost proti heterogeni populaciji škodljivih organizmov.

6 METODE ZA IZOLACIJO IN KLONIRANJE GENOV ZA ODPORNOST PROTI ŠKODLJIVIM ORGANIZMOM

Med najbolj uspešne metode izolacije *R* genov v primeru, ko nimamo informacij o genskem produktu, sodita insercijska mutageneza in pozicijsko kloniranje na podlagi predhodno izdelanih molekulskih kart.

Za izolacijo *R* genov s pomočjo insercijske mutageneze se uporabljam predvsem transpozoni in T-DNA Ti plazmida, ki jih vključimo v kodirajočo ali regulatorno regijo gena, s čimer se prekine njegovo izražanje. Po infekciji rastlinskih celic z bakterijo *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, se T-DNA plazmida vključi v rastlinski genom, kar povzroči pri določenemu deležu rastlin spremenjen fenotip. Prvi *R* gen izoliran z insercijsko mutagenezo je gen koruze *Hml* (Johal in Briggs, 1992), z enako metodo pa so izolirani še gen tobaka *N* (Whithman in sod., 1994), gen paradižnika *Cf* (Jones in sod., 1994) in gen lana *L* (Ellis in sod., 1995).

Pri pozicijskem kloniranju je potrebno predhodno določiti približno lokacijo iskanega gena na kromosому. Ena najbolj uporabnih metod za povezavo mest na kromosomu z določeno lastnostjo je uporaba RFLP markerjev (polimorfizem dolžin restrikcijskih fragmentov). S pozicijskim kloniranjem je bil s pomočjo RFLP markerja izoliran gen pri paradižniku *Pto* (Martin in sod., 1993). Na podlagi RFLP kart sta bila izolirana tudi gena *RPS2* in *RPM1* navadnega repnjakovca (Bent in sod., 1994; Mindrinos in sod., 1994; Grant in sod., 1995) in gen riža *Xa21* (Song in sod., 1995).

Pri številnih rastlinskih vrstah niso znani funkcionalni *R* geni, čeprav je izoliranih veliko število sekvenc, ki kodirajo zaporedja značilna za *R* gene. Kot alternativna oblika inserijski mutagenezi in pozicijskemu kloniraju se za izolacijo *R* genov uporablja metoda izolacije kandidatnih sekvenc s pomočjo PCR tehnike. Temelji na namnoževanju regij genoma z degeneriranimi začetnimi oligonukleotidi, ki so izdelani na podlagi aminokislinskega zapisa ohranjenih regij kloniranih *R* genov. Ta pristop omogoča hitro in učinkovito izolacijo homologov in analogov *R* genov, brez predhodnega poznavanja genoma.

S PCR metodo so izolirali številne analoge in homologe genov za odpornost proti škodljivim organizmom pri različnih rastlinskih vrstah in sicer pri soji (Kanazin in sod., 1996), krompirju (Leister in sod., 1996), koruzi (Collins in sod., 1998), solati (Shen in sod., 1998), paradižniku (Ohmori in sod., 1998), rižu (Mago in sod., 1999), papriki (Pfleiger in sod., 1999), grahu (Timmerman-Vaughan in sod., 2000), pri hibridu citrusa *Poncirus trifoliata* x *Citrus grandis* (Deng in sod., 2000), kavi (Noir in sod., 2001), lucerni (Cordero in Skinner, 2002), čičeriki (Huettel in sod., 2002), vinski trti (Di Gaspero in Cipriani, 2002), navadnem fižolu (Rivkin in sod., 1999; López in sod., 2003), boru (Liu in Ekramoddoullah, 2003), ječmenu (Madsen in sod., 2003), sladkorni pesi (Hunger in sod., 2003), leči (Yaish in sod., 2004), ovsu (Irigoyen in sod., 2004), jablani (Calenge in sod., 2005), bombažu (He in sod., 2004), marelici (Soriano in sod., 2005) in več kot 100 analognih sekvenc *R* genov pri hmelju *Humulus lupulus* na Biotehniški fakulteti Univerze v Ljubljani (neobjavljen).

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Agrovoc descriptors: heavy metals, soil pollution, contamination, lead, zinc, bioaccumulation, *Lactuca sativa*, mankind, digestive system, in vitro experimentation

Agris category codes: P33, T01, S30

Univerza v Ljubljani
Biotehniška fakulteta
Oddelek za Agronomijo

COBISS koda 1.01

Ocena dostopnosti težkih kovin iz onesnaženih tal Mežiške doline

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Delo je prispelo 31. marca 2008, sprejeto 5. maja 2008.

Received March 31, 2008, accepted May 5, 2008.

IZVLEČEK

V dvanajstih vzorcih tal iz okolice vrtcev, šol, zelenjavnih vrtov in dvorišč v Mežiški dolini, s koncentracijami Pb od 469 do 4333 mg kg⁻¹ in Zn od 313 do 8670 mg kg⁻¹, smo določili mobilnost in biodostopnost Pb in Zn. Koncentracija Pb je v enajstih vzorcih presegla kritično vrednost, koncentracija Zn pa v devetih (glede na uredbo v Ur.I.RS št. 68, 1996). Mobilnost Pb in Zn določena s TCLP metodo (Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure) je pokazala, da nobeden od vzorcev ni presegal vrednosti, ki bi tla po metodologiji EPA (US Environmental Protection Agency) uvrščala med nevarne odpadke. Koncentracije Pb in Zn v testni rastlini solati (*Lactuca sativa* L.) so bile pod mejo detekcije instrumenta (atomski absorpcijski spektrofotometer). S fiziološko osnovanim PBET ekstrakcijskim testom (Physiologically Based Extraction Test) smo vzorcem in talnim prašnim delcem določili delež Pb, ki je biodostopen v človeškem prebavnem sistemu. Iz simulirane želodčne faze je bilo dostopnega 2,8 - 22,8 %, iz črevesne pa 1,2 - 9,0 % celokupnega Pb v tleh. Koncentracije biodostopenega Pb so bile v prašnih delcih manjše kot v vzorcih tal.

Ključne besede: težke kovine, Pb, Zn, Mežiška dolina, biodostopnost, mobilnost

ABSTRACT

EVALUATION OF HEAVY METALS ACCESSIBILITY IN POLUTED SOILS FROM MEŽICA VALLEY

The bioaccessibility and mobility of Pb and Zn were determined in twelve soil samples taken around nursery schools and schools and from vegetable gardens and backyards in Mežiška Valley, Slovenia. The concentrations of Pb ranged from 469 to 4333 mg kg⁻¹ and of Zn from 313 to 8670 mg kg⁻¹. In eleven (Pb) and nine (Zn) samples they were higher than the critical values set by the Slovenian legislature (Ur.I.RS No. 68, 1996). The Pb and Zn mobility was determined using the Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure (TCLP) and was in every

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sample lower than the values set by US EPA for hazardous waste. The concentrations of Pb and Zn in the test plant lettuce (*Lactuca sativa L.*) were below the detection limit of the analytical instrument (Atomic Absorption Spectrophotometer). The bioaccessibility of Pb in soil samples and soil dust in the human gastro-intestinal tract was determined *in vitro* using PBET (Physiologically Based Extraction Test). 2.8 – 22.8 % of the total soil Pb content was available from the simulated stomach and 1.2 – 9.0 % from the intestinal phase. The concentrations of bioaccessible Pb were higher in the soil than in the soil dust.

Key words: Heavy metals, Pb, Zn, Mežica Valley, bioaccessibility, mobility

1 UVOD

Močna onesnaženost okolja v Mežiški dolini s težkimi kovinami je posledica večstoletnega rudarjenja in taljenja svinčeve in cinkove rude. Po zaprtju rudnika onesnaževanje poteka še naprej z onesnaženimi prašnimi delci – talilnica v Žerjavu proizvede do 70 kg prahu/dan (Ribarič Lasnik in sod., 2002), z izpusti flotacijskega mulja v reko Mežo in z odlaganjem metalurških odpadkov. Težke kovine iz tal prehajajo v rastje in živalske organizme, z rastlinami pa dalje v prehrambeno verigo do pridelkov in živil. Še bolj kot vnosu s hrano, smo ljudje izpostavljeni vnosu težkih kovin preko inhalacije prašnih delcev, direktnega vnosa onesnaženih tal v usta (še posebej pri otrocih) in s pitjem onesnažene vode. Svinec predstavlja največjo nevarnost za zdravje prebivalcev v Mežiški dolini, še posebej otrok, ki so zaradi obnašanja in fizioloških značilnosti najbolj ogroženi.

Ocenjevanje onesnaženosti tal v Sloveniji temelji na določanju celokupne koncentracije onesnažil v tleh (Ur.L. št. 68, 1996), kar pa le malo pove o njihovi dostopnosti za žive organizme (biodostopnost). Biodostopen je tisti del celokupne koncentracije onesnažil v tleh, ki jo organizem lahko privzame oz., ki ima vpliv na biološki material (Geebelen et al., 2003). Ocena biodostopnosti onesnažil v tleh je nujna pri določitvi tveganja izpostavljenosti ljudi (in drugih organizmov). Za določanje biodostopnosti onesnažil v tleh lahko uporabimo testne organizme, pogosteje pa fiziološko osnovane *in vitro* ekstrakcijske teste biodostopnosti, ki npr. simulirajo razmere v človeških prebavilih. Nekatere različice teh testov so poenostavljene, enostopenjske (Lee et al., 2006), nekatere dvo ali več stopenjske pa simulirajo razmere v več posameznih delih prebavnega trakta (Ruby et al., 1996).

Zaradi možnosti izpiranja onesnažil iz tal in posledično v podtalnico in vire pitne vode je pomembno določiti njihovo mobilnost. Ekstrakcijsko metodo TCLP (Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure) se po standardiziranem postopku EPA (US Environmental Protection Agency) uporablja za določanje mobilnosti organskih in anorganskih onesnažil v trdnih, več-faznih snoveh. S TCLP dobljene rezultate primerjamo z mejnimi vrednostmi, ki jih po metodologiji EPA uporabljam za klasifikacijo onesnaženih tal in drugih snovi med nevarne odpadke.

V naši študiji smo ocenili dostopnost težkih kovin v tleh v okolici vrtcev in šol ter v tleh zelenjavnih vrtov in igrišč v Mežiški dolini. Potencialno nevarnost vnosu Pb in Zn preko hrane smo ocenili z merjenjem kopiranja Pb in Zn v solati (*Lactuca sativa L.*) kot testni rastlini. Nevarnost izpiranja Pb in Zn iz tal in s tem onesnaženja vodnih virov smo ocenili s testom mobilnosti TCLP. Delež Pb, biodostopen iz tal

preko požiranja prsti (ingestija je značilna za vedenje otrok) ter deloma dostopen tudi preko inhalacije prašnih talnih delcev, smo določili s PBET testom.

2 MATERIAL IN METODE

2.1 Vzorci in analize tal

Zgornji sloj tal (0-5 cm) smo vzorčili novembra 2004 na dvajstih lokacijah v Mežiški dolini. Lokacije so opisane v Tabeli 1. Po sejanju in sušenju, smo vsem talnim vzorcem določili izbrane talne lastnosti: pH (CaCl_2), organsko snov (titracija po Walkley-Blacku), kationsko izmenjalno kapaciteto (amon-acetatna metoda po Mehlichu), teksturo tal (sedimentacijska pipetna metoda), lahko odstranljiv P (kolorimetrično po Egner-Domingovi metodi) in karbonate (manometrično po dodatku HCl).

Tabela 1: Lokacije vzorčenja določene z Gauss Krüger-jevim koordinatnim sistemom.
Table 1: Locations of sampling determined with Gauss Krüger coordinate system.

Št. lokacije	Opis lokacije	y	x
1	Igrisče vrtca v Črni na K., Lamperče 26	489241	147157
2	Zelenjavni vrt za vrtcem v Črni na Koroškem	489280	147092
3	Dvorišče VVE pri OŠ Črna, Center 142	489175	147152
4	Zelenjavni vrt Žerjav	490804	149010
5	Igrisče vrtca v Žerjavu, Žerjav 23	490787	148973
6	Zelenjavni vrt v Žerjavu	490784	149006
7	Zelenjavni vrt v Žerjavu	490450	148983
8	Dvorišče večstanovanjske hiše v Žerjavu	491091	148829
9	Dvorišče družinske hiše v Mežici	490307	150814
10	Zelenjavni vrt v Mežici	489636	152110
11	Zelenjavni vrt v Mežici	489056	152972
12	Igrisče vrtca v Mežici, Partizanska 10	488974	152754

2.2 Priprava talnih prašnih delcev

200 g zračno suhih tal v laboratorijski plastični posodi smo namestili v 60 L prozorno polietilensko vrečo ter vse skupaj intenzivno stresali na rotacijskem stresalniku. Prah, ki je nastajal in se usedal po stenah vrečke smo zbirali do zadostne količine za analizo biodostopnega deleža Pb z metodo PBET.

2.3 Kopičenje Pb in Zn v rastlinah

Dostopnost in kopičenje Pb in Zn v rastlinah smo preverjali s testno rastlino solato (*Lactuca sativa* L.). V 150 mL lončkih smo solato v 4-ih ponovitvah 12 tednov gojili v rastlinjaku. Požete rastline smo temeljito oprali, posušili in zmleli v titanovem mlinu. Vsebnost Pb in Zn v nadzemnih delih rastlin smo določil z AAS (atomskim absorpcijskim spektrofotometerom) po razklopu 0,3 g rastlinskega materiala v 4 mL 65 % HNO_3 v mikrovalovni pečici.

2.4 Biodostopnost Pb v tleh in prašnih delcih

Oralno biodostopnost Pb v tleh in prašnih delcih (ingestija tal, deloma inhalacija prahu) smo določili s PBET. Metoda posnema želodčno in črevesno fazo človeškega prebavnega trakta (Ruby in sod., 1996). Za pripravo želodčne raztopine smo 1,25 g pepsina (aktivnost 800-2500 enot/mg), 0,50 g citrata, 0,50 malata, 420 μL mlečne kisline in 500 μL ocetne kisline raztopili v 1 L deionizirane vode. Z 12 N HCl smo pH raztopine naravnali na $2,50 \pm 0,05$. 0,4 g suhih tal oz. talnih prašnih delcev (presejanih čez 250 μm sito) smo dodali 40 mL simulirane želodčne raztopine v 250 mL polipropilenskih posodah, ki smo jih namestili v vodno kopel pri 37°C , kot simulacijo telesne temperature. V posodah smo z dovanjanjem argona (pretok 20-21 L h^{-1}) simulirali želodčno peristaltiko. Po 1 h inkubaciji, med katero smo pH preverjali vsakih 10 min

in ga po potrebi uravnavali (12 N HCl) smo odvzeli 2 mL vzorca in ga nadomestili s čisto želodčno raztopino. Odvzeti vzorec smo centrifugirali ter supernatant do analize z AAS hranili v hladilniku. Razmere v tankem črevesju smo simulirali s povišanjem pH. pH smo ne-invazivno zvišali s 1 g NaHCO₃ ter 2 mL dH₂O v dializni vrečki (8000 MWCO, Spectra/Por cellulose ester tubing). V posodo smo dodali še 20 mg pankreatina in 70 mg žolčnega ekstrakta. Eno h za tem, ko je pH raztopine dosegel vrednost 7, smo odvzeli vzorec (2 mL), ga centrifugirali in supernatant do analize shranili v hladilniku.

2.5 Določanje mobilnosti Pb in Zn v tleh tleh in prašnih delcih

Mobilnost težkih kovin v tleh smo določali s TCLP (US EPA, 1995). Preprost ekstrakcijski test smo izvedli z 18 h stresanjem 10 g tal v 200 mL raztopini 0,0992 M ocetne kisline in 0,0643 M NaOH (pH raztopine 4,93 ± 0,05) na rotacijskem stresalniku pri 300 rpm. Po koncu stresanja smo suspenzijo prefiltrirali, filtrat zakisali s koncentrirano HNO₃ na pH < 2 ter ga v hladilniku shranili do analize Pb in Zn z AAS.

2.6 Določanje Pb in Zn

Talne vzorce smo zmleli v ahatni terilnici, jih presejali čez 160 µm sito, razklopili v zlatotopki (SIST ISO 11466:1996), razredčili z deionizirano vodo do končnega volumna 100 mL in določili celokupno vsebnost Pb in Zn z AAS (Perkin-Elmer 1100-B, Norwalk, CT, USA). Pb in Zn v posameznih ekstraktih (TCLP, PBET, rastlinski razklop) smo določili neposredno z AAS.

3 REZULTATI IN DISKUSIJA

3.1 Lastnosti tal in njihov vpliv na dostopnost Pb in Zn

Standardne pedološke lastnosti dvanajstih vzorcev tal iz Mežiške doline so podane v Tabeli 2. Vzorčena tla so bila nevtralna s pH med 6,7 in 7,5. pH tal pomembno vpliva na topnost, mobilnost in dostopnost težkih kovin (Kabata-Pendidas & Pendidas, 1992). V kislih tleh namestoobarjanja kovin in tvorjenja koordinacijskih vezi s talnimi seskvioksiadi in organsko snovjo (kompleksiranja) prihaja do adsorbcije kovin na talne koloide, posledično pa se zviša njihova biodostopnost in mobilnost (Adriano, 2001). Sorazmerno z nižanjem pH se namreč zaradi tekmovanja s protoni za adsorpcijska mesta na talnih koloidih znižuje delež adsorbiranih kovinskih kationov. Adsorpcijske reakcije Pb so značile za pH tal med 3 in 5, za Zn pa med pH 5 in 6,5. Obarjenje in reakcije kompleksacije Pb in Zn so značilne za pH vrednosti tal med 6 in 7 (Rieuwerts *et al.*, 1998). Vsebnost organske snovi v analiziranih vzorcih je bila med 5,6 in 21,2 %. Organska snov v tleh zadržuje kovine s kompleksacijo, adsorbcijo in ionsko izmenjavo. Karboksilne skupine humusa ionizirajo z višanjem pH in s kovinami tvorijo stabilne komplekse (Rieuwerts *et al.*, 1998).

Tla v vzorcih so pripadala naslednjim teksturnim razredom: ilovnata, glineno ilovnata in peščeno ilovnata tla. Glinena frakcija mineralne faze tal veže kovine z ionsko izmenjavo in s specifično adsorbcijo. Adsorbcija je večinoma odvisna od pH in je različno močna pri različnih vrstah glinenih mineralov. Vrednosti kationske izmenjevalne kapacitete tal v vzorcih so bile med 20,3 in 61,6 mmol H⁺ 100g⁻¹. Kationska izmenjava težkih in drugih kovin je odvisna od gostote negativnih vezavnih mest na talnih koloidih.

Tabela 2: Pedološke lastnosti zgornjega (0 - 5 cm) sloja tal na dvanajstih lokacijah v Mežiški dolini.
 Table 2: Standard soil analysis of upper soil layer (0 - 5 cm) from twelve sampling sites in Mežica Valley.

Lokacija	pH (CaCl ₂)	Org. snov (%)	Tekstura tal			CO ₃ ²⁻ (mg kg ⁻¹)	KIK*	P (mg kg ⁻¹)
			Pesek (%)	Melj (%)	Gлина (%)			
1	7,4	5,7	37,8	43,2	10,0	13,0	29,2	23,6
2	7,4	10,1	26,3	44,9	28,8	7,8	42,8	275,8
3	7,3	5,7	57,8	30,8	11,4	4,5	23,8	96,9
4	6,9	12,1	47,9	42,3	9,8	41,3	39,1	775,4
5	7,5	7,6	42,9	45,3	11,8	47,2	26,0	110,4
6	6,9	13,6	37,0	47,7	15,3	43,1	35,1	795,9
7	6,7	12,5	49,2	40,2	10,6	31,3	30,4	784,2
8	7,4	21,2	48,5	39,1	12,4	25,9	61,6	45,4
9	7,1	6,4	72,3	19,6	8,1	28,7	20,8	343,9
10	7,0	10,5	43,8	43,8	12,4	13,0	39,6	541,9
11	7,0	6,6	39,9	41,3	18,8	17,6	27,1	446,8
12	7,3	5,6	60,2	28,3	11,5	26,0	20,3	100,8

* v mmol H⁺ 100g⁻¹

Koncentracija P v tleh je lahko pomembna zaradi tvorbe netopnih fosfatnih soli s kovinskimi kationi, kar pomembno vpliva na dosegljivost težkih kovin. Naši talni vzorci so vsebovali precej lahko topnega P; od 23 do 795,9 mg kg⁻¹ tal.

3.2 Celokupna koncentracija Pb in Zn v vzorcih tal

Kritična imisijska vrednost onesnažil je zakonsko določena v Ur. L. RS ŠT.68 (1996) in predstavlja gostoto posamezne nevarne snovi v tleh, pri kateri zaradi škodljivih učinkov ali vplivov na človeka in okolje, onesnažena tla niso primerna za pridelavo rastlin, namenjenih prehrani ljudi in živali ter za zadrževanje ali filtriranje vode.

Kot je razvidno iz Tabele 3, celokupna koncentracija Pb v 11 od 12 vzorcev tal presega kritično vrednost 530 mg kg⁻¹). Najvišja vrednost Pb na zelenjavnem vrtu (lokacija 7) kritično vrednost presega 8-krat. Prav tako do 3-krat kritično vrednost Pb presegajo vzorci iz vseh štirih lokacij v okolici vrtcev in šol. Zn presega kritično vrednost 720 mg kg⁻¹ v devetih vzorcih (Tabela 4). Najvišjo vrednost smo izmerili na dvorišču družinske hiše (lokacija 9), ki 12-krat presega kritično vrednost. Tudi vzorec iz okolice šole (lokacija 3) in dva od vzorcev iz okolice vrtcev (lokaciji 5 in 12) presegajo kritično vrednost za Zn.

Kritične imisijske vrednosti onesnažil so določene arbitrarno in ne povedo veliko o mobilnosti in biodostopnosti onesnažil ter s tem o dejanski nevarnosti, ki jo onesnaženje predstavlja. Vseeno pa je zaskrbljujoč podatek, da so preko kritične vrednosti s Pb onesnažena vsa vzorčena mesta v okolici vrtcev in šol, medtem ko le eno tako vzorčno mesto ne presega kritične vrednosti za Zn.

3.3 Mobilnost Pb in Zn v tleh

Mobilnost onesnažil povzroča njihovo izpiranje iz tal v površinske in podzemne vode. EPA je določila mejne vrednosti onesnažil v TCLP ekstraktih in sicer 5 mg L^{-1} za Pb in 250 mg L^{-1} za Zn. Tla in ostale trdne več-fazne snovi kjer onesnažila presegajo mejne vrednosti za TCLP ekstrakte uvrščamo med nevarne odpadke, ki jih je možno odlagati samo na posebnih deponijah. Kot je razvidno iz Tabel 3 in 4 v nobenem od talnih vzorcev mejna TCLP vrednost za Pb in Zn ni bila presežena. Najvišjo koncentracijo Pb v ekstraktu ($1,95 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) smo določili v tleh iz lokacije 7 (zelenjavni vrt), najvišjo koncentracijo Zn ($51,17 \text{ mg L}^{-1}$) pa je imel TCLP ekstrakt tal iz lokacije 9 (dvorišče družinske hiše).

3.4 Kopičenje Pb in Zn v testno rastlinu *Lactuca sativa* L.

Dostopnost in kopičenje Pb in Zn v rastlinah smo preverili s testno rastlino solato *Lactuca sativa* L.. Merili smo koncentracije Pb in Zn v listih solate, ki je rasla v onesnaženih tleh od setve naprej. Koncentracije Pb in Zn v ekstraktih pridobljenih z razklopom rastlinske biomase so bile v večini primerov pod ali na meji detekcije instrumenta (pri našem AAS $0,25 \text{ mg Pb L}^{-1}$ in $0,18 \text{ mg Zn L}^{-1}$), kar pomeni največ 21 mg Pb in 15 mg Zn na kilogram suhe snovi solate. Ti rezultati kažejo, da

Tabela 3: Celokupna koncentracija Pb, koncentracija biodostopnega Pb v tleh in prašnih delcih določena s PBET (želodčna in črevesna faza) ter koncentracija Pb v TCLP talnih ekstraktih v vzorcih tal iz Mežiške doline.

Table 3: Total Pb concentration, bioavailable Pb concentration in soil and dust particles determined by PBET (stomach and intestinal phase) and Pb concentration in TCLP extractants in soil samples from Mežica Valley

Lokacija	Pb (mg kg ⁻¹)	PBET (mg kg ⁻¹)		PBET prašni delci (mg kg ⁻¹)		TCLP (mg L ⁻¹)
		Žel. f.	Črev. f.	Žel. f.	Črev. f.	
1	680 ± 6	86 ± 22	8 ± 4	10 ± 2	1 ± 0	$0,21 \pm 0,02$
2	469 ± 17	53 ± 27	6 ± 2	5 ± 4	1 ± 0	$0,12 \pm 0,01$
3	542 ± 12	124 ± 62	18 ± 10	14 ± 3	1 ± 0	$0,24 \pm 0,01$
4	3398 ± 49	269 ± 129	98 ± 14	66 ± 19	8 ± 3	$0,88 \pm 0,05$
5	1763 ± 20	210 ± 37	63 ± 25	35 ± 13	3 ± 2	$0,98 \pm 0,05$
6	2790 ± 71	441 ± 140	113 ± 52	34 ± 6	3 ± 1	$1,19 \pm 0,52$
7	4333 ± 118	833 ± 243	332 ± 94	110 ± 27	17 ± 9	$1,95 \pm 0,63$
8	943 ± 8	26 ± 15	26 ± 5	6 ± 2	1 ± 1	$0,32 \pm 0,02$
9	3073 ± 278	390 ± 78	275 ± 14	48 ± 9	5 ± 2	$0,78 \pm 0,04$
10	1969 ± 36	224 ± 82	40 ± 7	25 ± 17	7 ± 5	$0,51 \pm 0,04$
11	1039 ± 28	142 ± 38	36 ± 6	24 ± 7	3 ± 0	$0,39 \pm 0,03$
12	552 ± 13	80 ± 11	21 ± 3	11 ± 3	2 ± 0	$0,29 \pm 0,12$

solata ne kopiči Pb in Zn v visokih koncentracijah. Pri tem je potrebno upoštevati, da je solata rasla v zavarovanem okolju rastlinjaka in ni bila izpostavljena emisijam onesnaženih prašnih delcev in aerosolov, ki bi se lahko odlagali na površino listov.

Solato smo pred analizo tudi temeljito oprali, kar je odstranilo večino delcev. Kos in sod. (1996) navajajo, da se je s temeljitim pranjem regrata (*Plantago lanceolata* L.) in endivije (*Cichorium endiviae* L.) odstranil večji del težkih kovin. Podobno tudi Keane in sod. (2001) poročajo, da se je s pranjem regrata koncentracija kovin v listih zmanjšala za 40 %.

Izračun pokaže, da prebivalec Mežiške doline, ki poje v povprečju 0,5 kg solate na teden (solata vsebuje pribl. 95 % vode), v enem letu lahko zaužije do 30 mg Pb, kar je 17 %, po navodilih Svetovne zdravstvene organizacije, še sprejemljive količine prejetega Pb (500 µg dan⁻¹ oz. 180 mg leto⁻¹).

Tabela 4: Celokupna koncentracija Zn in koncentracija Zn v TCLP ekstraktih vzorcev tal iz Mežiške doline.

Table 4: Total Zn concentration and Zn concentration in TCLP extractants in soil samples from Mežica Valley.

Lokacija	Vsebnost Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	TCLP (mg L ⁻¹)
1	313±13	0,18±0,02
2	422±17	0,86±0,29
3	882±50	1,49±0,25
4	1796±53	3,14±0,05
5	2024±18	4,48±0,16
6	1573±11	3,82±0,52
7	1593±19	4,16±0,40
8	368±20	0,24±0,05
9	8670±759	51,17±3,75
10	2370±5	4,02±0,17
11	1691±31	3,26±0,26
12	1483±90	1,48±0,21

3.5 Biodostopnost Pb v tleh in talnih prašnih delcih

Prašni delci, ki se iz virov onesnaženja sproščajo v zrak, se usedajo na tla in so posledično prisotni v hišnem prahu, pogosto predstavljajo glavno pot vnosa onesnažila v človeški organizem (von Lindren, 2003). Inhalaciji in ingestiji tal in talnega prahu se z zadrževanjem in aktivnostim v onesnaženem okolju težko popolnoma izognemo. Otroci so najbolj izpostavljeni, saj ob igranju (premikanje rok proti ustom) priložnostno zaužijejo več tal in prašnih delcev kot odrasli ljudje (Davis in Mirick, 2006). Še posebej pa so otroci izpostavljeni nevarnosti zastrupitve s Pb, saj le ta zaradi še ne popolnoma razvite bariere med krvjo in možgani hitro prehaja v možgane in jih lahko poškoduje, kar povzroča hiperaktivnost, izpad motoričnih funkcij, encefalopatije, zaostalost, itd..

S PBET testom smo določili koncentracijo in delež oralno biodostopnega Pb v tleh in koncentracijo oralno biodostopnega Pb v prašnih delcih. Pri PBET je oralna biodostopnost kovin v tleh verificirana z *in vivo* vnosom v testne živali (podgane) le za Pb in As (Ruby in sod., 2006), zato oralne biodostopnosti Zn nismo določali.

Rezultati PBET tal predstavljeni v Tabeli 3 kažejo, da je od 2,8 % (vzorec 8) do 22,9 % (vzorec 3) v tleh prisotnega Pb dosegljivega v želodčni in od 1,2 % (vzorec 1) do 9,0 % (vzorec 9) Pb tudi v črevesni fazi. Koncentracije oralno dosegljivega Pb v talnem prahu so bile, zanimivo, tako v želodčni kot črevesni fazi precej manjše od koncentracij Pb biodosegljivega v talnih vzorcih (Tabela 3). Domnevamo lahko, da večino talnega prahu predstavljajo glineni minerali in organo-mineralni delci, na katere so težke kovine močno adsorbirane (specifična adsorpcija, Rieuwerts in sod., 1998) in so zato oralno nedostopne. Talni prah lahko predstavljaja večji del hišnega prahu v bivanjskih objektih (von Lindren, 2003).

Pri interpretaciji rezultatov PBET testa je potrebno upoštevati, da s PBET določamo koncentracijo ali delež Pb, ki je po ingestiji tal (deloma pa tudi pri inhalaciji prahu) dostopen za absorpcijo, ne pa tudi že dejansko absorbiran v organizem. Ren in sod. (2006) so podobno kot mi raziskovali dostopnost Pb v tleh hišnih dvorišč in v okolici otroških vrtcev. Pri otrocih starih med 4 in 5 leti so določili statistično značilno linearno odvisnost med vsebnostjo Pb v krvih in Pb, ki je bil biodostopen v črevesni fazi določen s PBET. Ugotovili so, da se korelacijski koeficient zvišuje s starostjo otrok in je višji pri otrocih, ki so čas preživljali na domačih dvoriščih, kot pri otrocih iz vrtca.

EPA je na osnovi rezultatov več raziskav o tleh, ki jih otroci stari med 1 do 6 let zaužijejo pri svojih običajnih aktivnostih, kot povprečno dnevno količino navedla 100 mg (US EPA, 2002). Vendar ima 1 - 6 % predšolskih otrok navado, da dajejo v usta stvari, ki niso hrana in na ta način zaužijejo do 20 g tal na dan. Preračun rezultatov meritev biodostopnosti Pb v naših vzorcih pokaže, da pri povprečni količini tal (100 mg) otroci dnevno zaužijejo med 47 in 433 µg Pb, od tega je 2,6 - 83 µg biodostopnega v želodčni, 0,6 - 33 µg pa v črevesni fazi. Večina zaužitega Pb se v organizem absorbira prav iz črevesja (Mushak, 1991). Pri skupini otrok, ki zaradi svojih navad zaužijejo do 20 g tal, je v črevesni fazi dosegljivega med 120 µg in 6,6 mg Pb. Te ocene so lahko tudi podcenjene. Po podatkih EPA naj bi se iz prebavnega sistema v organizem pri odraslih absorbiralo 10 – 15 %, pri otrocih pa kar 50% zaužitega Pb (Oomen, 2003). Pri otrocih bi to lahko pomenilo dnevni vnos od 23 - 216 µg Pb. Pri skupini otrok, ki zaradi svojih navad zaužijejo do 20 g tal pa kar 4,6 - 43,2 mg Pb na dan. Po podatkih Svetovne zdravstvene organizacije, je največja sprejemljiva količina zaužitega Pb 500 µg na dan (WHO, 1996).

Biodostopnega deleža Pb in Zn, ki bi se lahko v človeški organizem absorbiral po inhalaciji prahu preko pljuč, v naši raziskavi nismo določili.

4 ZAKLJUČEK

Naši rezultati kažejo, da so tla v okolici vrtcev in šol v Mežiški dolini močno onesnažena in kot površine za igro otrok neprimerна. Glede na to, da je bila kritična imisijska vrednost za Pb in Zn presežena v skoraj vseh vzorcih, vrtna tla tudi niso primerna za gojenje rastlin namenjenih v prehrambene namene, čeprav je bila vsebnost Pb in Zn v solati (ki je bila dobro oprana) nizka.

Glede na navedbe v literaturi (Mushak, 1991; von Lindren, 2003) zelo pomembno pot vnosa onesnažil v organizem predstavlja inhalacija in ingestija tal in talnih prašnih delcev (npr. v hišnem prahu). Te navedbe potrjujejo tudi naši podatki o oralni biodostopnosti Pb in Zn v tleh in talnem prahu.

Pri polovici triletnikov iz Mežiške doline so bile presežene mejne vrednosti Pb v krvi (Delo, 18.10.2007) in ukrepi za zmanjšanje izpostavljenosti, pa tudi sanacija s težkimi kovinami onesnaženega okolja, so nujno potrebni. Ker je vnos težkih kovin v organizem predvsem pri otrocih povezan z njihovimi igrальнimi navadami, bi s preventivnim delovanjem in izboljšanjem njihovega bivanjskega okolja (npr. skrb za čistočo, redno sesanje prostorov) lahko v precejšnji meri zmanjšali izpostavljenost otrok.

Problem izpostavljenosti težkim kovinam bo potrebno zmanjšati tudi z ukrepi sanacije okolja. Odstranjevanje, prekrivanje in remediacija onesnaženih tal so (poleg finančnih sredstev) odvisni od tipa in rabe tal. Pri tem velja omeniti, da z metodami remediacije Pb in Zn (pa tudi Cd in drugih potencialno nevarnih kovin) iz večine tal ni možno popolnoma odstraniti (Nowack in sod., 2006). Z inceneracijo, stabilizacijo, vitrifikacijo tal lahko močno zmanjšamo dostopnost in mobilnost onesnažil in s tem toksičnost tal. S pranjem in ekstrakcijo tal pa lahko odstranimo vsaj biodostopni del težkih kovin. Nekaj razvojnih izkušenj z uporabo fitoekstrakcije (npr. Kos in sod., 2003), pranja tal (npr. Finžgar in Leštan 2006) in stabilizacije onesnažil v tleh (Udovič in Leštan, 2007) imamo tudi na Centru za pedologijo in varstvo okolja.

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Agrovoc descriptors: statistical methods, classification, hazelnuts, corylus avellana, weight, height, diameter

Agris category codes: F01, U10

Univerza v Ljubljani
Biotehniška fakulteta
Oddelek za agronomijo

COBISS koda 1.02

Diskriminantna analiza in klasifikacija: osnove in primer

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Delo je prispelo 15. januar 2008, sprejeto 28. april 2008.

Received January 15, 2008; accepted April 28, 2008.

POVZETEK

V članku so predstavljene osnove diskriminantne analize in klasifikacije. Njuna uporabnost je predstavljena na preprostem primeru analize treh sort leske na podlagi treh morfoloških lastnosti ploda: mase, višine in premera. Izračuni so narejeni s programom SPSS.

Ključne besede: diskriminantna analiza, klasifikacija

ABSTRACT

DISCRIMINANT ANALYSIS AND CLASSIFICATION: THEORY AND ILLUSTRATION

Discriminant analysis and classification are presented in the paper. Their applicability is illustrated on an example of three hazel cultivars described by hazelnut mass, height and diameter. The calculations were made with the SPSS programme.

Key words: discriminant analysis, classification

1 UVOD

Proučujemo k populacij (skupin), iz katerih vzorčimo dovolj velike vzorce; za vsako enoto imamo podatke za večje število številskih spremenljivk. Diskriminantno analizo naredimo, kadar želimo ugotoviti, po katerih spremenljivkah se populacije (skupine) najbolj razlikujejo med seboj. V kmetijstvu so populacije npr. sorte (kultivarji, genotipi), za vsako sorto imamo vzorec enot, za

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katere so izmerjene številne lastnosti (npr. morfološke, genetske, kemijske,...). Želimo ugotoviti, po katerih lastnostih se sorte najbolj razlikujejo med seboj.

Na podlagi rezultatov diskriminantne analize lahko nadaljujemo s t. i. klasifikacijo (uvrščanje enot) v populacije (skupine). Klasificiramo enote, za katere ne vemo, v katero populacijo sodijo, imamo pa vrednosti istih osnovnih spremenljivk kot za enote, ki so bile vključene v diskriminantno analizo. Ta postopek ima vlogo napovedovanja. V literaturi je ponavadi diskriminacija in uvrščanje v skupine v istih poglavijih (Johnson in Wichern, 2002, Huberty 1994, Klecka, 1980), včasih je ločeno (Rencher, 1995).

Diskriminacija je iskanje linearnih kombinacij osnovnih p spremenljivk, ki najbolje pojasnijo razlike med k skupinami. Dobljenim linearnim kombinacijam rečemo diskriminantne spremenljivke ali diskriminantne funkcije (angl. discriminant functions, discriminant coordinates, canonical variates). Prva diskriminantna spremenljivka določa, po katerih osnovnih spremenljivkah se populacije najbolj razlikujejo, v drugi diskriminantni spremenljivki so kot pomembnejše zastopane osnovne spremenljivke, ki sledijo po pomembnosti tistim v prvi diskriminantni spremenljivki, itd. Pomembnost posameznih spremenljivk pri razlikovanju skupin ugotavljam na podlagi velikosti uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk.

V praksi si želimo, da je pomembnih diskriminantnih spremenljivk čim manj, kar pomeni, da lahko razlike med skupinami razložimo z eno, dvema ali kvečjemu s tremi diskriminantnimi spremenljivkami. Tedaj vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk omogočajo grafične prikaze, ki vizualno predstavijo razlike med skupinami: npr. razsevni grafikon enot v prostoru prvih dveh diskriminantnih spremenljivk predstavlja najboljšo možno dvodimensionalno predstavitev v smislu razločevanja med skupinami (slika 3).

Za uporabo diskriminantne analize je potrebno, da imamo v posamezni skupini dovolj enot; število enot v posamezni skupini mora biti večje od števila spremenljivk.

V članku bomo predstavili osnove diskriminantne analize in osnove klasifikacije ter njuno praktično uporabo na enostavnem primeru razločevanja treh sort leske, ki so opisane z maso, višino in premerom ploda. Uporabili bomo program SPSS.

2 OSNOVE MATEMATIČNE TEORIJE

2.1 ANOVA in MANOVA

Idejo diskriminantne analize bomo razložili z analogijo z enosmerno analizo variance (ANOVA) in enosmerno multivariatno analizo variance (MANOVA).

2.1.1 Variabilnost med skupinami in znotraj skupin

V analizi variance (ANOVA) analiziramo številsko spremenljivko X na k populacijah. Zanima nas, ali se povprečja k populacij razlikujejo med sabo. Ob

predpostavki o enaki varianci po skupinah postavimo ničelno domnevo $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$ in alternativno domnevo H_1 , da vsaj dve povprečji nista enaki. Populacije predstavljajo vzorci velikosti n_i , $i = 1, K, k$. Na osnovi vzorčnih vrednosti izračunamo vzorčna povprečja \bar{x}_i , $i = 1, K, k$, in skupno povprečje \bar{x} . Vsota kvadriranih odklonov B (angl. between groups) in vsota kvadriranih odklonov W (angl. within groups) vrednotita variabilnost med skupinami in variabilnost znotraj skupin:

$$B = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x})^2 \quad W = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2.$$

Njuno razmerje je vsebovano v F -statistiki:

$$F = \frac{B/SP_1}{W/SP_2},$$

ki je v primeru, da ničelna domneva velja, porazdeljena po F -porazdelitvi s stopinjami prostosti $SP_1 = k - 1$ in $SP_2 = n - k$, $n = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$. Večja vrednost F -statistike odraža večje razlike med skupinami.

Če proučujemo več kot eno številsko spremenljivko naenkrat, npr. p spremenljivk X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p , multivariatna analiza variance (MANOVA) nadgradi analizo variance. Predpostavimo, da ima k populacij enako variančno-kovariančno matriko $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \dots = \Sigma_k = \Sigma$. Zanima nas, ali se populacije razlikujejo v p -dimensionalnih vektorjih povprečij $\mu_1, \mu_2, \dots, \mu_k$. Vzorčne vrednosti p spremenljivk v i -ti skupini zapišemo z vektorjem \mathbf{x}_{ij} , $j = 1, K, n_i$, in izračunamo vektorje vzorčnih povprečij $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_1, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_2, \dots, \bar{\mathbf{x}}_k$, $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i = (1/n_i) \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} \mathbf{x}_{ij}$ ter njihovo skupno povprečje $\bar{\mathbf{x}} = 1/k \sum_{i=1}^k \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$. Podobno kot v univariatnem primeru ocenimo variabilnost med skupinami z matriko \mathbf{B} :

$$\mathbf{B} = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i (\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})(\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i - \bar{\mathbf{x}})^T$$

in variabilnost znotraj skupin z matriko \mathbf{W} :

$$\mathbf{W} = \sum_{i=1}^k \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (\mathbf{x}_{ij} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)(\mathbf{x}_{ij} - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)^T.$$

Variabilnost znotraj skupin izrazimo z vzorčnimi variančno-kovariančnimi matrikami po skupinah \mathbf{S}_i , $\mathbf{W} = \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) \mathbf{S}_i$. Nepristrana ocena za Σ je $\mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}} = \mathbf{W}/(n - k)$.

Ničelno domnevo zapišemo v vektorski obliki – delamo primerjavo vektorjev povprečij za posamezne skupine, $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_k$, nasproti alternativni domnevi H_1 , da vsaj dva vektorja povprečij nista enaka.

Za preizkus ničelne domneve lahko uporabimo več različnih preizkusov: Wilkssov, Lawley-Hottelingov, Royev, Pillaijev. Tu omenimo najpogosteje uporabljen Wilkssov preizkus, v katerem je testna statistika Wilksova lambda Λ :

$$\Lambda = \frac{|\mathbf{W}|}{|\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{W}|}.$$

Njeno vrednost izračunamo kot razmerje determinante matrike \mathbf{W} , $|\mathbf{W}|$, in determinante matrike $\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{W}$, $|\mathbf{B} + \mathbf{W}|$; njeno ničelno porazdelitev najdemo v literaturi (Rencher, 1995, str. 181). Če ničelno domnevo zavrnemo, nadaljujemo ali z analizo kontrastov (načrtovanih primerjav) ali s preizkusi mnogoterih primerjav, oboje postane zapleteno zaradi večjega števila spremenljivk. Če imamo dovolj velike vzorce, lahko kot lažje nadaljevanje MANOVA naredimo diskriminantno analizo.

2.1.2 Enakosti varianc oz. variančno-kovariančnih matrik

Predpostavko o enakosti varianc po skupinah pri ANOVA preverjamo z različnimi preizkusi (Leveneov³, F-max preizkus,...), ki jih na tem mestu ne bomo podrobnejše opisovali (Kuehl, 2000). Nekaj več povejmo o preizkusu domneve o enakosti variančno-kovariančnih matrik v primeru MANOVA. Program SPSS za ta primer uporablja Boxov M-preizkus (Box, 1949). Preverjamo ničelno domnevo $H_0 : \Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \dots = \Sigma_k$. Boxova M-statistika je:

$$M = (n - k) \log |\mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}}| - \sum_{i=1}^k (n_i - 1) \log |\mathbf{S}_i|.$$

Aproksimacija njene ničelne porazdelitve je F-porazdelitev (Bryan, 2004, str. 49). Ta preizkus je zelo občutljiv na prisotnost že manjših odstopanj od multivariatne normalne porazdelitve, zato je njegove rezultate treba vzeti z rezervo.

2.2 Diskriminantna analiza

V diskriminantni analizi iščemo take linearne kombinacije spremenljivk X_1, X_2, \dots, X_p , ki kar najbolje razločujejo k populacij. Model diskriminantne analize zapišemo takole:

$$\begin{aligned} Y_1 &= a_{11}X_1 + a_{12}X_2 + \dots + a_{1p}X_p \\ Y_2 &= a_{21}X_1 + a_{22}X_2 + \dots + a_{2p}X_p \\ &\dots \\ Y_s &= a_{s1}X_1 + a_{s2}X_2 + \dots + a_{sp}X_p. \end{aligned}$$

Spremenljivki Y_r , $r = 1, K, s$ rečemo **diskriminantna spremenljivka**, koeficientom linearne kombinacije $\mathbf{a}_r = (a_{r1}, a_{r2}, \dots, a_{rp})^T$ pa **uteži diskriminantne**

³ Program SPSS uporablja Leveneov preizkus.

spremenljivke. Veljati mora predpostavka, da so variančno-kovariančne matrike po populacijah enake, $\Sigma_1 = \Sigma_2 = \Lambda = \Sigma_k = \Sigma$.

Uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk določimo tako, da so razdalje⁴ med povprečji diskriminantnih spremenljivk po skupinah maksimalne (slika 3, razdalje med težišči skupin). Kriterij, ki ga uporabimo, je:

$$\max\left(\frac{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{B} \mathbf{a}}{\mathbf{a}^T \mathbf{W} \mathbf{a}}\right),$$

kjer je \mathbf{a} matrika uteži. Matematično maksimiranje izraza naredimo z odvajanjem zgornjega izraza po \mathbf{a} in izenačitvi izraza z 0. To privede do poslošenega problema lastnih vrednosti in lastnih vektorjev matrike $\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$:

$$(\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B} - \lambda \mathbf{I})\mathbf{a} = 0.$$

Rešitev so lastne vrednosti $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_s \geq 0$ in pripadajoči lastni vektorji $\mathbf{a}_1, \mathbf{a}_2, \dots, \mathbf{a}_s$ matrike $\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$. Lastne vektorje normiramo, sicer pa velja, da so med sabo nekorelirani:

$$\mathbf{a}_i^T \mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}} \mathbf{a}_j = \begin{cases} 1 & i = j \\ 0 & i \neq j \end{cases}.$$

Število neničelnih lastnih vrednosti je enako rangu matrike \mathbf{B} , $s = \min(k-1, p)$. Tako dobimo s diskriminantnih spremenljivk, ki maksimalno razločujejo (diskriminirajo) skupine. Prva diskriminantna spremenljivka ima smer, vzdolž katere je »razmerje \mathbf{B} proti \mathbf{W} « največje; druga diskriminantna spremenljivka ji po tem razmerju sledi, itd. »Razmerje \mathbf{B} proti \mathbf{W} « je mera za razločevanje skupin glede na osnovne spremenljivke; poimenovali ga bomo **različnost skupin**. Relativna pomembnost posamezne diskriminantne spremenljivke je razvidna iz razmerja $\lambda_i / \sum_{j=1}^s \lambda_j$. Glede na lastnost lastnih vrednosti, $\lambda_1 \geq \lambda_2 \geq \dots \geq \lambda_s \geq 0$, to razmerje od prve do zadnje lastne vrednosti pada. Potem razmerje $\lambda_i / \sum_{j=1}^s \lambda_j$ obrazložimo kot delež različnosti skupin, ki je pojasnjен z i -to diskriminantno spremenljivko.

Ponovno naj poudarimo, da moramo imeti za diskriminantno analizo dovolj velike vzorce: $n_i > p$. Matematični izračuni se sicer izvedejo tudi ob manj strogem pogoju $n-2 > p$ in hkrati $n_i \geq 2$, kjer je $n = \sum_{i=1}^k n_i$. Izračuni se matematično ne morejo izvesti, če je ena izmed spremenljivk linearnejša kombinacija ostalih spremenljivk (kolinearnost).

⁴ Uporablja se Mahalanobisova razdalja.

2.3 Obrazložitev rezultatov diskriminantne analize

2.3.1 Uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk

Uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk odražajo velikost parcialne korelacije med posamezno diskriminantno spremenljivko in posamezno osnovno spremenljivko, torej njuno povezanost ob hkratnem upoštevanju vseh ostalih osnovnih spremenljivk.

Če imajo osnovne spremenljivke isto mersko lestvico in je njihova variabilnost približno enaka, absolutne vrednosti uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk izražajo relativno pomembnost pripadajoče spremenljivke pri razlikovanju skupin. V praksi so osnovne spremenljivke pogosto po variabilnosti in merski lestvici različne; v takem primeru za obrazložitev uporabimo **standardizirane uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk**, ki bi jih dobili na standardiziranih osnovnih spremenljivkah⁵.

Absolutna velikost standardiziranih uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk izraža pomembnost pripadajočih osnovnih spremenljivk za razločevanje skupin. Če želimo posamezno diskriminantno spremenljivko vsebinsko poimenovati, je poleg absolutne vrednosti uteži pomemben tudi njen predznak.

V izpisih računalniških programov je tudi t. i. **strukturna matrika**⁶, ki vsebuje korelacijske koeficiente med diskriminantnimi in osnovnimi spremenljivkami in ima podobno vlogo kot pri faktorski analizi (Johnson in Wichern, 2002). Ti koeficienti so manj primerni za obrazložitev rezultatov, saj želimo osnovne spremenljivke obravnavati multivariatno.

2.3.2 Kanonična korelacija

Royeva statistika θ_1 meri, kako uspešno prva diskriminantna spremenljivka razločuje skupine. Izračunamo jo kot razmerje »variabilnosti med skupinami B_{y_1} proti skupni variabilnosti $B_{y_1} + W_{y_1}$ « za prvo diskriminantno spremenljivko Y_1 . To razmerje lahko izrazimo s prvo lastno vrednostjo matrike $\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$:

$$\theta_1 = \frac{B_{y_1}}{B_{y_1} + W_{y_1}} = \frac{\lambda_1}{1 + \lambda_1}.$$

Teorija pokaže, da je θ_1 kvadrat koeficenta kanonične korelacije $r_{k,1}$, ki meri povezano med prvo diskriminantno spremenljivko in linearno kombinacijo $k-1$ nemih spremenljivk; le te imajo vrednosti 0 in 1 in predstavljajo pripadnost enote posameznem vzorcu. Na osnovi lastnih vrednosti matrike $\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ izračunamo koeficiente kanonične korelacije za vsako diskriminantno funkcijo⁷:

⁵ Standardized canonical discriminant function coefficients (SPSS)

⁶ Structure matrix (SPSS)

⁷ SPSS poda tudi koeficiente kanonične korelacije.

$$r_{K,i} = \sqrt{\frac{\lambda_i}{1+\lambda_i}}.$$

Koeficienti kanonične korelacije so med 0 in 1, njihova velikost pada z zaporednimi diskriminantnimi spremenljivkami. Vrednosti blizu 1 kažejo na veliko uspešnost diskriminantne analize. Če imamo samo dve skupini ($k = 2$), dobimo največ eno diskrimantno spremenljivko in je koeficient kanonične korelacije kar Pearsonov koeficient korelacije med diskrimantno spremenljivko in nemo spremenljivko, ki izraža pripadnost posamezni skupini.

2.3.3 Preizkusi o statistični značilnosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk

V nadaljevanju bomo pogledali, ali diskriminantne spremenljivke razločujejo med populacijami. Za statistično sklepanje je poleg zahteve o enakih variančno-kovariančnih matrikah potrebna tudi predpostavka o večrazsežni normalni porazdelitvi p -spremenljivk. Za preverjanje domneve, ali vzorčni podatki kažejo, da se k -populacij razlikuje po povprečjih diskriminantne spremenljivke, uporabimo Wilkovo lambdo. V prvem koraku preverjamo ničelno domnevo, da se vrednosti dobljenih diskriminantnih spremenljivk med populacijami ne razlikujejo, kar pomeni, da so vse lastne vrednosti matrike $\mathbf{W}^{-1}\mathbf{B}$ enake 0:

$$H_0 : \lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = \dots = \lambda_s = 0$$

proti alternativni domnevi, da se populacije razlikujejo vsaj po prvi diskriminantni spremenljivki. Za preverjanje te domneve uporabimo Wilkovo lambdo:

$$\Lambda_1 = \prod_{i=1}^s \frac{1}{1 + \lambda_i},$$

ki se aproksimativno porazdeljuje po χ^2 -porazdelitvi s $SP = p(k-1)$.

Statistično značilnost naslednjih diskriminantnih spremenljivk preverjamo na enak način z dodatnimi preizkusi istega tipa:

$$\Lambda_m = \prod_{i=m}^s \frac{1}{1 + \lambda_i}, \text{ ki se aproksimativno porazdeljuje po } \chi^2\text{-porazdelitvi s } SP = (p-m+1)(k-m).$$

V vsebinsko obrazložitev rezultatov diskriminantne analize običajno vključimo le statistično značilne diskriminantne spremenljivke.

2.4 Klasifikacija

2.4.1 Osnove klasifikacije

Klasifikacija je postopek, pri katerem uvrščamo novo enoto, za katero imamo podatke za p spremenljivk ne pa pripadnosti skupini, v eno izmed vnaprej poznanih k populacij (skupin). Populacije se lahko glede na vrednosti p

spremenljivk strogo razločujejo med seboj, lahko pa se bolj ali manj prekrivajo, kar klasifikacijo otežuje. Nove enote uvrščamo v skupine na podlagi t. i. **klasifikacijskega pravila**, ki pravi, naj bo verjetnost uvrstitev nove enote v napačno populacijo čim manjša. **Skupno verjetnost za napačno uvrstitev** nove enote TPM (angl. total probability of misclassification) izrazimo z vsoto (Johnson in Wichern, 2002, str. 613):

$$TPM = \sum_{i=1}^k p_i \left(\sum_{\substack{j=1 \\ j \neq i}}^k P(j|i) c(j|i) \right),$$

kjer je p_i začetna verjetnost (angl. prior probability), da nova enota pripada i -ti populaciji, $P(j|i)$ je verjetnost, da novo enoto, ki dejansko pripada i -ti populaciji, napačno razvrstimo v j -to populacijo, $c(j|i)$ pa stroški napačne klasifikacije. Začetna verjetnost p_i temelji na velikosti populacij: če so vse populacije enako velike, je p_i po populacijah enaka, sicer odraža razmerje velikosti populacij.

Optimalno klasifikacijsko pravilo dobimo tako, da ob minimalni vrednosti TPM poiščemo k izključujočih se območij uvrščanja, kar omogoča, da novo enoto uvrstimo v natanko eno populacijo. Za izračun verjetnosti $P(j|i)$ moramo za vsako populacijo poznati p -razsežnostno porazdelitev spremenljivk.

V nadaljevanju si oglejmo primer za p -razsežnostno normalno porazdelitev z enakimi variančno-kovariančnimi matrikami za vseh k populacij. Stroški napačne klasifikacije naj bodo za vse skupine enaki 1. Optimalno klasifikacijsko pravilo, ki določa, v katero izmed k -populacij bo razvrščena enota \mathbf{x}_0 , dobimo na osnovi vrednosti t. i. **linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij** $d_i(\mathbf{x}_0)$, $i = 1, K, k$ (angl. linear classification function, linear discriminant scores). Za opisani primer se le-te izražajo takole:

$$d_i(\mathbf{x}_0) = -\frac{1}{2} D_i^2(\mathbf{x}_0) + \ln p_i,$$

kjer je $D_i^2(\mathbf{x}_0)$ kvadrat Mahalanobisove razdalje:

$$D_i^2(\mathbf{x}_0) = (\mathbf{x}_0 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i)^T \mathbf{S}_{skupna}^{-1} (\mathbf{x}_0 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i).$$

To je razdalja med vektorjem \mathbf{x}_0 in $\bar{\mathbf{x}}_i$, ki upošteva korelacijo med spremenljivkami. V postopku klasifikacije novo enoto \mathbf{x}_0 uvrstimo v tisto populacijo, kjer je $d_i(\mathbf{x}_0)$ največja.

Če izraz za $d_i(\mathbf{x}_0)$ razvijemo in zanemarimo člen $1/2 \mathbf{x}_0^T \mathbf{S}_{skupna}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0$, ki je za vse skupine enak, dobimo enačbo (Johnson in Wichern, 2002, str. 613):

$$d_i(\mathbf{x}_0) = \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i^T \mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}}^{-1} \mathbf{x}_0 - \frac{1}{2} \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i^T \mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}}^{-1} \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i + \ln p_i,$$

kjer prvi člen predstavlja linearno kombinacijo osnovnih p spremenljivk, druga dva člena pa konstanto za i -to skupino. Linearno klasifikacijsko funkcijo zato lahko zapišemo tudi takole:

$$d_i(\mathbf{x}_0) = c_{i0} + c_{i1}x_{01} + c_{i2}x_{02} + \dots + c_{ip}x_{0p},$$

c_{i0} je konstanta, c_{ij} , $j = 1, K, p$ so koeficienti linearne kombinacije, x_{0j} so vrednosti j -te osnovne spremenljivke na novi enoti.⁸ Za novo enoto \mathbf{x}_0 torej v postopku klasifikacije izračunamo vrednosti k linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij $d_i(\mathbf{x}_0)$ in jo uvrstimo v tisto skupino, za katero je vrednost klasifikacijske funkcije največja.

2.4.2 Klasifikacija in diskriminantna analiza

Fisherjevo klasifikacijsko pravilo (1936) je direktno povezano z diskriminantno analizo. Za novo enoto $\mathbf{x}_0 = (x_{01}, K, x_{0p})^T$ izračunamo njen položaj v prostoru diskriminantnih spremenljivk $\mathbf{y}_0 = (y_{01}, K, y_{0s})^T$. Za vsako skupino izračunamo oddaljenost \mathbf{y}_0 od težišča skupine v prostoru diskriminantnih spremenljivk. Izračuna se kvadrat Mahalanobisove razdalje, ki je v prostoru diskriminantnih spremenljivk enak kvadru Evklidske razdalje:

$$D_i^2(\mathbf{x}_0) = \sum_{j=1}^s (y_{0j} - \bar{y}_{ij})^2 = \sum_{j=1}^s (\mathbf{a}_j^T (\mathbf{x}_0 - \bar{\mathbf{x}}_i))^2,$$

y_{0j} je vrednost j -te diskrimantne spremenljivke za novo enoto, \mathbf{a}_j je vektor uteži j -te diskrimantne spremenljivke. Novo enoto uvrstimo v skupino, za katero je vrednost Mahalanobisove razdalje v prostoru diskriminantni spremenljivk najmanjša.⁹

Fisherjevo klasifikacijsko pravilo je enakovredno optimalnemu klasifikacijskemu pravilu, če v slednjem verjetnosti p_i ocenimo s $p_1 = p_2 = K = p_k = 1/k$. Opozorimo naj, da pri klasifikaciji upoštevamo vseh s diskriminantnih spremenljivk ne glede na njihovo pomembnost pri razločevanju skupin (Johnson in Wichern, 2002, str. 638).

2.4.3 Klasifikacija v vlogi verifikacije modela diskriminantne analize

Postopek klasifikacije lahko uporabimo tudi za neke vrste oceno ustreznosti dobljenih diskriminantnih spremenljivk. V ta namen z dobljenimi utežmi

⁸ SPSS, *Classification Function Coefficients*

⁹ SPSS, *Discriminant Analysis:Classification*, možnost *Casewise results* izračuna kvadrate Mahalanobisove razdalje za vse enote vključene v diskriminantno analizo.

disriminantnih spremenljivk povratno izračunamo vrednosti linearne klasifikacijske funkcije za vsako enoto vključeno v diskriminantno analizo ter jo po opisanem postopku klasificiramo (uvrstimo) v skupino. Nato naredimo t. i. klasifikacijsko tabelo, v kateri je razvidno, koliko enot je bilo pravilno in koliko napačno uvrščenih (preglednica 10). Rezultati tega postopka so zgolj informativni, običajno preoptimistični, ker delamo model diskriminantne analize in njegovo verifikacijo na podlagi istih podatkov.

Boljši način ocene ustreznosti dobljenih diskriminantnih spremenljivk je t. i. **navzkrižno preverjanje** (angl. cross-validation, leaving one-out method). Ta postopek je računsко zahtevnejši, saj naredimo izračune uteži diskriminantnih funkcij n -krat: pri i -tem izračunu izpustimo i -ti podatek in ga nato po klasifikacijskem pravilu uvrstimo v posamezno skupino. Tudi v tem primeru naredimo klasifikacijsko tabelo, na podlagi katere izračunamo delež pravilno uvrščenih enot (preglednica 10). Ta način verifikacije je bolj smiseln in verodostojen.

3 PRIMER UPORABE DISKRIMINANTNE ANALIZE S PROGRAMOM SPSS

Uporabo diskriminantne analize ilustriramo na primeru treh sort leske ('Istrske dolgoplodne leske', 'Tonda gentile dele langhe', 'Fertile de coutard'), ki so opisane s tremi morfološkimi lastnostmi (masa, višina, premer plodu). Za vsako sorto imamo vzorec velikosti 30. Empirične porazdelitve spremenljivk so prikazane na sliki 1, ki nakazuje, da obstajajo razlike v omenjenih morfoloških lastnostih lešnika med tremi sortami.

3.1 Univariatna analiza variance (ANOVA)

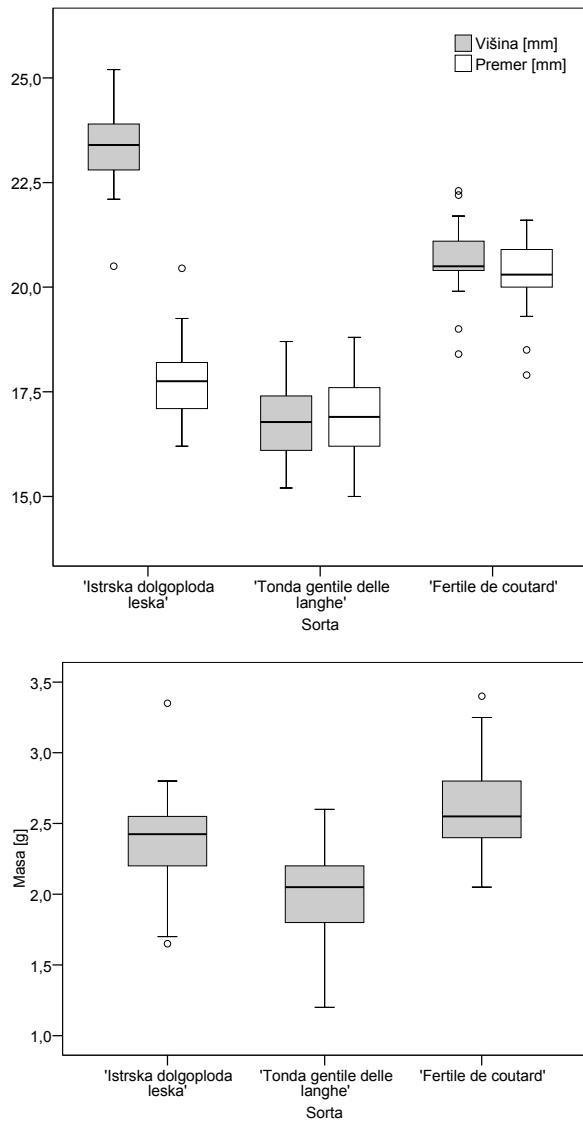
Zaradi kasnejše primerjave rezultatov bomo najprej naredili ANOVA za vsako obravnavano spremenljivko. Iz preglednice 1 je razvidna enakost varianc po sortah, iz preglednic 2 in 3 pa, da se tri izbrane sorte leske statistično značilno razlikujejo med sabo v vseh treh morfoloških lastnostih (ANOVA in Duncanov preizkus).

Preglednica 1: Rezultati Leveneovega preizkusa o enakih variancah po sortah leske za maso, višino in premer plodu. (SPSS, *Analyse/General linear models/Multivariate*, izbira možnosti *Homogeneity tests* v pogovornem oknu *Multivariate:Options*).

Table 1: Levene's test of equality of variances for hazelnut mass, height and diameter for three cultivars.

Leneneov preizkus o enakih variancah
Levene's Test of Equality of Error Variances

	F F	SP_1 $df1$	SP_2 $df2$	p -vrednost <i>Sig.</i>
Masa [g] <i>Mass</i> [g]	,044	2	87	,957
Višina [mm] <i>Height</i> [mmg]	,798	2	87	,453
Premer [mm] <i>Diameter</i> [mm]	,522	2	87	,595



Slika 1: Okvirji z ročaji za višino, premer (zgoraj) in maso (spodaj) lešnikov treh sort leske, velikosti vzorcev 30.

Figure 1: Box plot for hazelnut height and diameter (above) and hazelnut mass (below) for three cultivars, sample size 30.

Preglednica 2: ANOVA za maso, višino in premer lešnikov treh sort leske.

Table 2: ANOVA for hazelnut mass, height and diameter for three cultivars.

Spremenljivka Variables	Vir Source	VKO SS	SP df	SKO MS	F F	p-vrednost Sig.
Masa [g] Mass [g]	Med sortami <i>Between cultivars</i>	5,898	2	2,949	30,3	,000
	Znotraj sort <i>Within cultivars</i>	8,473	87	,097		
	Skupaj <i>Total</i>	14,371	89			
Višina [mm] Height [mm]	Med sortami <i>Between cultivars</i>	654,463	2	327,232	426,9	,000
	Znotraj sort <i>Within cultivars</i>	66,695	87	,767		
	Skupaj <i>Total</i>	721,158	89			
Premer [mm] Diameter [mm]	Med sortami <i>Between cultivars</i>	192,755	2	96,378	119,2	,000
	Znotraj sort <i>Within cultivars</i>	70,379	87	,809		
	Skupaj <i>Total</i>	263,134	89			

Preglednica 3: Povprečja za maso, višino in premer lešnikov po sortah in rezultati Duncanovega preizkusa mnogoterih primerjav, $p < 0,05$. (SPSS, Analyse/General linear models/Multivariate, v pogovornem oknu Multivariate: Post Hoc izberemo možnost *Duncan*).

Table 3: Averages for hazelnut mass, height and diameter for three cultivars and results of Duncan's test.

Masa [g] Mass [g]

	Sorta <i>Cultivar</i>	N	Podskupina Subset		
			1	2	3
Duncan	'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	30	1,992		
	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	30		2,398	
	'Fertile de coutard'	30			2,608

Višina [mm] Height [mm]

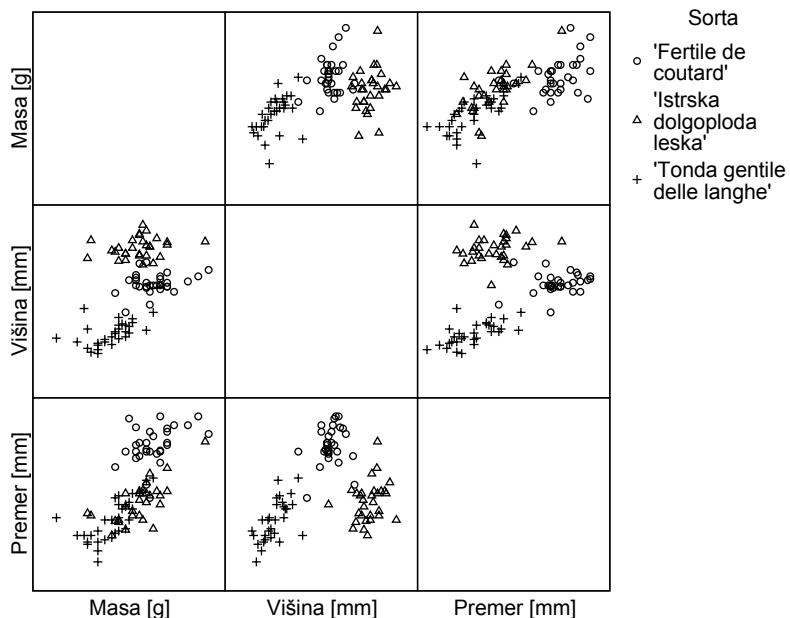
	Sorta Cultivar	N	Podskupina Subset		
			1	2	3
Duncan	'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	30	16,745		
	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	30		20,647	
	'Fertile de coutard'	30			23,312

Premer [mm] Diameter [mm]

	Sorta Cultivar	N	Podskupina Subset		
			1	2	3
Duncan	'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	30	16,860		
	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	30		17,718	
	'Fertile de coutard'	30			20,303

3.2 Multivariatna analiza variance (MANOVA)

Rezultati univariatne analize variance zadoščajo, če spremenljivke niso povezane med sabo. Morebitno povezanost spremenljivk najlepše vidimo v matriki razsevnih grafikonov (slika 2). Opazimo, da med izbranimi tremi spremenljivkami obstaja rahla linearna povezanost, največja je med maso in premerom ($r = 0,609$, preglednica 4).



Slika 2: Matrika razsevnih grafikonov za maso, višino in premer lešnika za tri sorte.

Figure 2: Scatterplot matrix for hazelnut mass, height and diameter for three cultivars.

Preden se lotimo MANOVA, moramo preveriti, ali je za izbrane podatke izpolnjena predpostavka o enakosti variančno-kovariančnih matrik po sortah. V preglednici 4 je podana matrika $\mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}}$ in vzorčne variančno-kovariančne matrike po sortah (\mathbf{S}_i , $i = 1, \dots, 3$). Vidimo, da se matrika $\mathbf{S}_{\text{skupna}}$ na različne načine razlikuje od matrik \mathbf{S}_i , vendar razlike niso dovolj velike, da bi jih Boxov M-preizkus (preglednica 5) odkril kot statistično značilne ($p = 0,484$).

Preglednica 4: Vzorčna variančno-kovariančna matrika S_{skupna} in pripadajoča korelacijska matrika (zgoraj) ter vzorčne variančno-kovariančne matrike za vsako sorto posebej. (SPSS, *Analyze/Classify/Discriminant*, možnost *Within groups covariances in Separate groups covariances* v pogovornem oknu *Discriminant Analysis: Statistics*).

Table 4: Sample variance-covariance matrix and its corresponding correlation matrix (upper table) and sample variance-covariance matrices for each cultivar.

Skupna variančno-kovariančna matrika *Pooled Within-Groups Matrices*

		Masa Mass [g]	Višina Height [mm]	Premer Diameter [mm]
Kovarianca <i>Covariance</i>	Masa Mass [g]	,097	,074	,171
	Višina Height [mm]	,074	,767	,291
	Premer Diameter [mm]	,171	,291	,809
Korelacija <i>Correlation</i>	Masa Mass [g]	1,000	,271	,609
	Višina Height [mm]	,271	1,000	,369
	Premer Diameter [mm]	,609	,369	1,000

Variančno-kovariančne matrike *Covariance Matrices*

Sorta		Masa Mass [g]	Višina Height [mm]	Premer Diameter [mm]
'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	Masa Mass [g]	,112	,026	,216
	Višina Height [mm]	,026	,870	,210
	Premer Diameter [mm]	,216	,210	,826
'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	Masa Mass [g]	,092	,132	,197
	Višina Height [mm]	,132	,798	,531
	Premer Diameter [mm]	,197	,531	,885
'Fertile de Coutard'	Masa Mass [g]	,088	,064	,100
	Višina Height [mm]	,064	,632	,132
	Premer Diameter [mm]	,100	,132	,716

Preglednica 5: Boxov M -preizkus o enakosti variančno-kovariančnih matrik po sortah (SPSS, Analyse/Classify/Discriminant, možnost Box's M v pogovornem oknu Discriminant Analysis: Statistics).

Table 5: Box's M -test for equality of variance-covariance matrices for cultivars.

Rezultati preizkusa *Test Results*

Boxova M -statistika <i>Box's M</i>	12,146
Aproksimativna F statistika <i>F Approx.</i>	,961
SP_1 <i>df1</i>	12
SP_2 <i>df2</i>	36680,5
<i>p</i> -vrednost <i>Sig.</i>	,484

Torej lahko nadaljujemo z MANOVA in preizkusimo ničelno domnevo, da so vektorji povprečij (masa, višina, premer) za vse tri sorte enaki. Rezultati MANOVA (preglednica 6) pokažejo, da ničelno domnevo zavrnemo, širje različni testi dajo enako statistično značilnost.

Preglednica 6: MANOVA za maso, višino in premer lešnikov treh sort leske (SPSS, Analyse/General linear models/Multivariate).

Table 6: MANOVA for hazelnut mass, height and diameter for three cultivars.

Multivariatni preizkusi *Multivariate Tests*

Dejavnik/ <i>Effect</i>		Vrednost <i>Value</i>	F <i>F</i>	SP_{sorta} <i>Hypothesis df</i>	$SP_{ostanka}$ <i>Error df</i>	<i>p</i> -vrednost <i>Sig.</i>
Sorta <i>Cultivar</i>	Pillai's Trace	1,650	135,3	6	172	,000
	Wilks' Lambda	,023	158,6	6	170	,000
	Hotelling's Trace	13,220	185,1	6	168	,000
	Roy's Largest Root	10,402	298,2	3	86	,000

Z diskriminantno analizo bomo ugotavljali, katera morfološka lastnost sorte najbolj razločuje.

3.3 Diskriminantna analiza

V diskriminantno analizo vključimo vse tri spremenljivke, izmerjene na treh vzorcih sort leske. Že pri MANOVA smo preverili predpostavko o enakosti variančno-kovariančne matrike za tri sorte leske (preglednica 5), kar je pogoj za uporabo diskriminantne analize.

Diskriminantna analiza pokaže (preglednica 7), da prva diskriminantna spremenljivka pojasni 78,7 % različnosti skupin, druga pa preostalih 21,3 %. Tudi njuna koeficiente kanonične korelacije sta velika (0,96; 0,86). Obe diskriminantni

spremenljivki sta statistično značilni, Wilks-ovi lambdi sta dovolj majhni, da je $p = 0,000$.

Največjo standardizirano utež prve diskriminantne spremenljivke (preglednica 8) ima višina (1,064), sledi premer (-0,338), kar pomeni, da se sorte leske med seboj najbolj razločujejo po višini plodov. Druga diskriminantna spremenljivka ima največjo standardizirano utež pri premeru (1,181), sledi masa (-0,308), kar pomeni, da se sorte v manjši meri razločujejo po premeru. Ob upoštevanju višine in premera postane masa plodu nepomembna za razlikovanje treh sort lešnika.

Če pogledamo struktorno matriko - korelacijske koeficiente (preglednica 8), ki merijo povezanost med posamezno diskriminantno spremenljivko in posamezno osnovno spremenljivko, dobimo enake rezultate.

Preglednica 7: Lastne vrednosti (Eigenvalues) diskriminantnih spremenljivk, njihova relativna pomembnost (% of Variance) in pripadajoča kumulativa (Cumulative %) ter koeficient kanonične korelacije (zgoraj). Rezultati Wilksovega preizkusa (spodaj).

Table 7: Eigenvalues, % of variance, cumulative % and canonical correlation (above), Wilks' test (below).

Lastne vrednosti *Eigenvalues*

Function	Eigenvalue	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Canonical Correlation
1	10,402(a)	78,7	78,7	,955
2	2,818(a)	21,3	100,0	,859

Wilksova lambda *Wilks' Lambda*

Preizkus diskriminantnih spremenljivk <i>Test of Function(s)</i>	Wilksova lambda <i>Wilks' Lambda</i>	Hi-kvadrat <i>Chi-square</i>	SP df	p-vrednost <i>Sig.</i>
$\lambda_1 = \lambda_2 = 0$ oz. vsaj $\lambda_1 = 0$ <i>1 through 2</i>	,023	324,528	6	,000
$\lambda_2 = 0$ 2	,262	115,222	2	,000

Preglednica 8: Standardizirane uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk in strukturne uteži (SPSS, Analyze/Classify/Discriminant).

Table 8: Standardized discriminant function coefficients and structure matrix.

Standardizirane uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk
Standardized Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

	Funkcija Function	
	1	2
Masa Mass [g]	,077	-,308
Višina Height [mm]	1,064	-,074
Premer Diameter [mm]	-,338	1,181

Strukturna matrika
Structure Matrix

	Diskriminantna spremenljivka Function	
	1	2
Višina Height [mm]	,960	,279
Premer Diameter [mm]	,102	,966
Masa Mass [g]	,159	,391

V preglednici 9 so navedene uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk. Potrebujemo jih za izračun vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk (angl. discriminant score) za enote v vzorcih. Poglejmo si en primer izračuna: za lešnik sorte 'Itrska dolgoploda leska' imamo naslednje vrednosti spremenljivk *masa* = 2,65 g , *višina* = 24,15 mm in *premer* = 18,20 mm ; vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk (y_1 in y_2) izračunamo z enačbama¹⁰:

$$y_1 = -18,299 + 0,246 \cdot \text{masa} + 1,216 \cdot \text{višina} - 0,376 \cdot \text{premer} = 4,783$$

$$y_2 = -20,006 - 0,988 \cdot \text{masa} - 0,085 \cdot \text{višina} + 1,314 \cdot \text{premer} = -0,769 .$$

Ti dve vrednosti določata točko, ki prikazuje izbrani lešnik v ravnini diskriminantnih spremenljivk na sliki 3. Po enakem postopku so izračunane vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk za vse ostale lešnike. Njihovo povprečje za posamezno sorto predstavlja težišče sorte, ki je na sliki 3 prikazano s črnim kvadratkom. Koordinate težišč sort leske v ravnini diskriminantnih spremenljivk so v zadnji tabeli preglednice 9. Slika 3 prikazuje, da prva diskriminantna spremenljivka dobro razločuje vse tri sorte, kar je razvidno iz projekcije težišč na absciso. Druga diskriminantna spremenljivka pa razločuje predvsem sorto 'Fertile de coutard' od ostalih dveh, saj sta projekciji težišč sort 'Itrska dolgoploda leska' in 'Tonda gentile delle langhe' na ordinato zelo blizu skupaj.

¹⁰ Vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk so izračunane na podlagi uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk z vsaj šestimi decimalkami, v tabelah in v enačbi so le te prikazane samo s tremi decimalnimi mestimi.

Preglednica 9: Uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk in težišča sort v ravnini diskriminantnih spremenljivk (SPSS, *Analyze/Classify/Discriminant*, gumb *Statistics*, možnost *Unstandardized* v razdelku *Function Coefficients*).

Table 9: Unstandardized canonical discriminant function coefficients and group centroids.

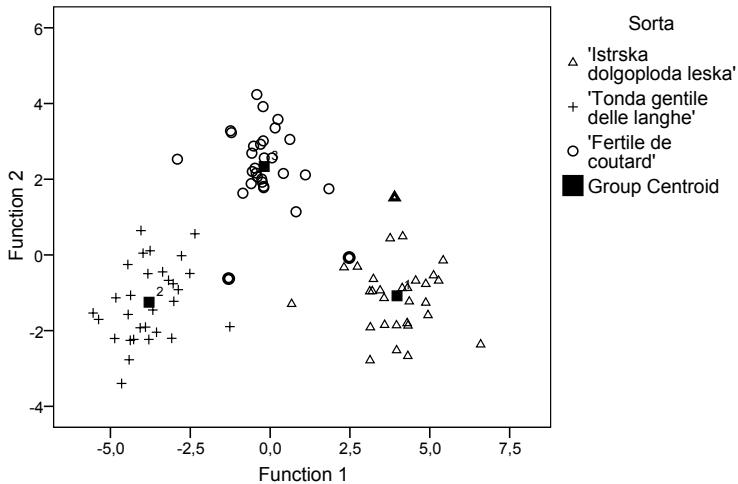
Nestandardizirane uteži diskriminantnih spremenljivk
Canonical Discriminant Function Coefficients

	Diskriminantna spremenljivka <i>Function</i>	
	1	2
Masa Mass [g]	,246	-,988
Višina Height [mm]	1,216	-,085
Premer Diameter [mm]	-,376	1,314
(Konstanta) (Constant)	-18,299	-20,006

Težiščne vrednosti diskriminantnih spremenljivk
Functions at Group Centroids

Sorta Cultivar	Diskriminantna spremenljivka <i>Function</i>	
	1	2
'Istrska dolgoploda leska'	3,973	-1,082
'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	-3,787	-1,250
'Fertile de Coutard'	-,186	2,332

Canonical Discriminant Functions



Slika 3: Razsevni grafikon v ravnini prvih dveh diskriminantnih spremenljivk dobljenih pri diskriminantni analizi treh morfoloških lastnosti lešnikov treh sort leske. (SPSS, *Analyze/Classify/Discriminant*, gumb *Classification*, razdelek *Plots*, možnost *Combined-groups*).

Figure 3: Scatterplot in the space of the first two discriminant variables.

3.4 Klasifikacija za namen verifikacije modela diskriminantne analize

V preglednici 10 so koeficienti linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij, ki jih dobimo na podlagi zgoraj predstavljenih diskriminantnih spremenljivk in predpostavk klasifikacije. Poleg enakosti variančno-kovariančnih matrik smo tu predpostavili še več-razsežnostno normalno porazdelitev (Shapiro-Wilkov preizkus za naše podatke pokaže, da je predpostavka upravičena).

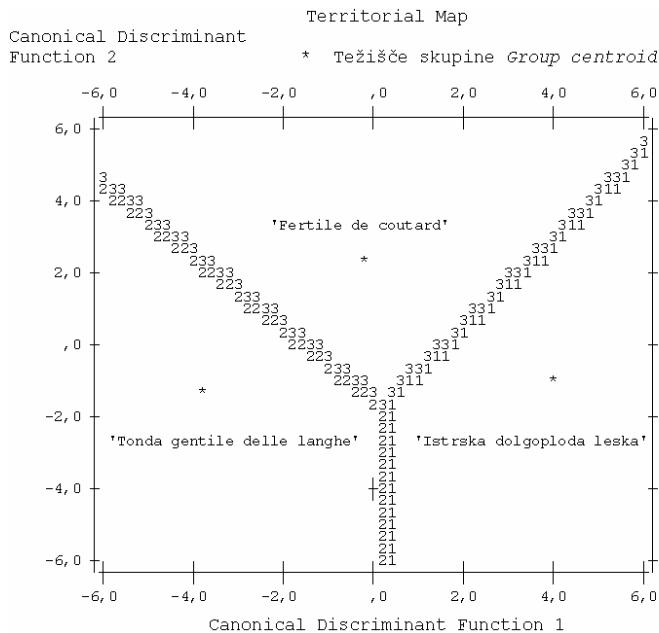
Preglednica 10: Koeficienti treh linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij: c_{i0} in c_{ij} , $j = (\text{masa}, \text{višina}, \text{premer})$, $i = (\text{'Itrska dolgoploda leska'}, \text{'Tonda gentile delle langhe'}, \text{'Fertile de coutard'})$. (SPSS, Analyze/Classify/Discriminant, gumb Statistics, možnost, v razdelku Function Coefficients izberemo možnost Fisher's).

Table 10: Coefficients of three classification functions: c_{i0} in, c_{ij} , $j = (\text{mass}, \text{height}, \text{diameter})$, $i = (\text{'Itrska dolgoploda leska'}, \text{'Tonda gentile delle langhe'}, \text{'Fertile de coutard'})$.

Koeficienti linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij
Classification Function Coefficients

	Sorta Cultivar		
	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	'Fertile de coutard'
Masa Mass [g]	-27,359	-29,101	-31,754
Višina Height [mm]	26,109	16,688	20,762
Premer Diameter [mm]	18,296	20,991	24,343
(Konstanta) (Constant)	-434,697	-288,798	-421,145

Slika 4 prikazuje tri izključujoča si območja v prostoru diskriminantnih spremenljivk, ki so določena na podlagi dobljenega klasifikacijskega pravila (angl. territorial map).



Slika 4: Izključujoča območja v ravnini diskriminantnih spremenljivk, ki jih določajo vrednosti linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij (SPSS, Analyze/Classify/Discriminant, gumb Classification, razdelek Plots, možnost Territorial map).

Figure 4: Territorial map in the space of discriminant variables.

Metodo klasifikacije bomo uporabili za oceno primernosti modela diskriminantne analize. Začetne verjetnosti so v našem primeru za vse tri sorte leske enake, $p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = 1/3$. Za vsak lešnik izračunamo kvadrat Mahalanobisove razdalje D_i^2 , $i = \text{'Istrska dolgoploda leska', 'Tonda gentile delle langhe', 'Fertile de coutard'}$, in ga uvrstimo (klasificiramo) v tisto sorto, za katero je ta razdalja najmanjša. Če za prikaz primera izračuna uporabimo isti lešnik kot zgoraj, dobimo:

$$D_{\text{Istrska}}^2 = (4,873 - 3,973)^2 + (-0,769 - (-1,082))^2 = 0,908$$

$$D_{\text{Tonda}}^2 = (4,873 - (-3,787))^2 + (-0,769 - (-1,250))^2 = 75,240$$

$$D_{\text{Fertile}}^2 = (4,873 - (-0,186))^2 + (-0,769 - 2,332)^2 = 35,219.$$

Izbrani lešnik je najbližje težišču 'Istrske dolgoplode leske'. Enak rezultat dobimo, če izračunamo vrednosti treh linearnih klasifikacijskih funkcij (preglednica 10):

$$d_{\text{Istrska}} = -434,697 - 27,359 \cdot \text{masa} + 26,109 \cdot \text{višina} + 18,296 \cdot \text{premer} = 456,31$$

$$d_{\text{Tonda}} = -288,798 - 29,101 \cdot \text{masa} + 16,688 \cdot \text{višina} + 20,991 \cdot \text{premer} = 419,15$$

$$d_{\text{Fertile}} = -421,145 - 31,754 \cdot \text{masa} + 20,762 \cdot \text{višina} + 24,343 \cdot \text{premer} = 439,16.$$

Največja vrednost je $d_{Istrska}$, kar pomeni, da po klasifikacijskem pravilu lešnik pravilno uvrstimo k sorti 'Itrska dolgoploda leska'.

Izkaže se, da skupno dobimo dva napačno uvrščena lešnika, ki sicer pripadata sorti 'Fertile de coutard', eden od njiju je uvrščen k sorti 'Itrska dolgoploda leska', drugi pa k sorti 'Tonda gentile delle langhe' (preglednica 11). Ostalih 88 lešnikov (97,8 %) je pravilno uvrščenih. Na sliki 3 sta napačno uvrščena lešnika prikazana kot odebelenja kroga.

Pri navzkrižnem preverjanju (preglednica 11) dobimo napačno uvrščene tri lešnike, ista dva kot po prejšnjem postopku in še en lešnik iz sorte 'Itrska dolgoploda leska', ki je napačno uvrščen k sorti 'Tonda gentile delle langhe', na sliki 3 je ta lešnik prikazan z odebelenim trikotnikom. Ti rezultati kažejo, da lahko zaupamo rezultatom diskriminantne analize.

Preglednica 11: Rezultati klasifikacije lešnikov na podlagi linearne klasifikacijske funkcije (SPSS, Analyze/Cassify/Discriminant, klik gumba Cassify, izbira možnosti Summary table in leave-one out classification v razdelku Display).

Table 11: Classification results.

Rezultati klasifikacije *Classification Results*

		Sorta <i>Cultivar</i>	Napovedana pripadnost skupini <i>Predicted Group Membership</i>			Skupaj <i>Total</i>
			'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	'Fertile de Coutard'	
Dejanska pripadnost skupini <i>Original</i>	Število <i>Count</i>	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	30	0	0	30
		'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	0	30	0	30
		'Fertile de Coutard'	1	1	28	30
	%	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	100,0	,0	,0	100,0
		'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	,0	100,0	,0	100,0
		'Fertile de Coutard'	3,3	3,3	93,3	100,0
Navzkrižno preverjanje <i>Cross- validate</i>	Število <i>Count</i>	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	29	0	1	30
		'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	0	30	0	30
		'Fertile de Coutard'	1	1	28	30
	%	'Itrska dolgoploda leska'	96,7	,0	3,3	100,0
		'Tonda gentile delle langhe'	,0	100,0	,0	100,0
		'Fertile de Coutard'	3,3	3,3	93,3	100,0

3.5 Razprava

Na preprostem primeru smo prikazali uporabo diskriminantne analize in klasifikacije kot metode za oceno ustreznosti modela diskriminantne analize. Univariatna ANOVA pokaže, da se sorte statistično značilno razlikujejo po masi, premeru in višini lešnikov. Diskriminantna analiza kot multivariatna metoda pa je pokazala, da se plodovi treh sort leske med seboj najbolj razlikujejo po višini, nato

po premeru, masa postane ob upoštevanju višine in premera nepomembna za razlikovanje sort.

Klasifikacijo smo v obravnavanem primeru uporabili le za verifikacijo modela diskriminantne analize ob predpostavkah, ki omogočajo uporabo Fisherjevega klasifikacijskega pravila. Metodo bi lahko uporabili tudi za uvrščanje lešnikov neznane sorte z znanimi vrednostmi za maso, višino in premer plodu, v eno izmed treh obravnavanih sort leske.

4 ZAKLJUČEK

Diskriminantna analiza je multivariatna statistična metoda, ki upošteva linearno povezanost osnovnih spremenljivk, zaradi katere določenih zakonitosti v podatkih ne moremo razbrati ob univariatnih analizah posameznih spremenljivk. Obstajajo primeri podatkov, ko univariatne analize posameznih spremenljivk ne pokažejo statistično značilnih razlik med populacijami, diskriminantna analiza pa pokaže, da lahko populacije razlikujemo na podlagi ene ali več linearnih kombinacij osnovnih spremenljivk (diskriminantnih funkcij).

Rezultati diskriminantne analize so lahko napačni, če korelacija med osnovnimi spremenljivkami ni linearja ali če v podatkih obstaja veliko osamelcev. Slednje ponavadi povzroči, da ne moremo predpostaviti enakih variančno-kovariančnih matrik po populacijah. Zato je potrebno na začetku statistične analize narediti različne pregledovalne grafične predstavitev podatkov, ki pokažejo morebitno nelinearnost in prisotnost osamelcev. V določenih primerih se tako nelinearnosti kot tudi osamelcev znebimo z ustreznimi transformacijami osnovnih spremenljivk. Pri obrazložitvi rezultatov diskriminantne analize se moramo zavedati, da so rezultati zanesljivi le, kadar je razmerje med številom enot v vzorcih in številom osnovnih spremenljivk ($\sum_{i=1}^k n_i / p$) dovolj veliko; nekateri priporočajo vrednost tega razmerja od 4 do 5. Če je to razmerje majhno, so rezultati vezani na izbrane vzorce in jih ne moremo posplošiti na pripadajoče populacije. Včasih se zgodi, da dobimo posamezno diskriminantno spremenljivko statistično značilno, čeprav je njen prispevek k razločevanju skupin $\lambda_i / \sum_{j=1}^s \lambda_j$ zelo majhen, v takem primeru ji ne posvečamo posebne pozornosti.

Diskriminantno analizo smo prikazali kot možnost nadaljevanja enosmerne multivariatne analize variance, ki je primerna, kadar obravnavamo podatke pridobljene za slučajne skupine. V primerih, ko osnovnih predpostavk diskriminantne analize ne moremo izpolniti, je primernejše, če podatke analiziramo z logistično regresijo (za dve populaciji) ali pa z multinomsko logistično regresijo (za več populacij).

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Agrovoc descriptors: agriculture, farms, small farms, allotments, domestic gardens, urban agriculture, urban areas, towns, sustainability, gardening, europe, usa, canada, australia

Agris category codes: A01, E20, E50

COBISS koda 1.02

Mestno kmetijstvo – oblike in izkušnje

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Delo je prispelo 7. januarja 2008; sprejeto 5. maja 2008

Received January 7, 2008; accepted May 5, 2008

IZVLEČEK

Problem mestnega in primestnega kmetijstva postaja vse bolj pereč tudi v Sloveniji, tako zaradi širjenja mest v njihovo ruralno zaledje, kot tudi zaradi vse nižje prehranske kompetence prebivalstva. Osnovni namen prispevka je spodbudit zanimanje za to dokaj novo področje kmetijstva, njegov cilj pa je prikazati stanje na področju mestnega kmetijstva in primere dobre prakse na tem področju v razvitih državah. Mestno kmetijstvo je definirano kot dejavnost, ki je locirana v mestih, velemestih ali metropolah oziroma v njihovem obrobu in obsega pridelovanje/rejo, predelavo in razpečevanje različnih prehranskih in neprehranskih dobrin, pri čemer v veliki meri uporablja in ponovno izrablja človeške in naravne vire, izdelke/pridelke in storitve, ki so na razpolago neposredno v urbanem območju oziroma v njegovi bližnji okolici ter zagotavlja človeške in gmotne vire, izdelke/pridelke in storitve temu urbanemu območju. Ključne determinante mestnega kmetijstva so prostorska, ekonomska, sociološka in ekološka umeščenost v živo tkivo sodobnih mest, ki jo generirajo in utrujejo potrebe meščanov. Najbolj razširjena modela mestnega kmetijstva sta vrtičkarstvo in lokalno podprtlo kmetijstvo, uveljavljajo pa se tudi novi, komercialno usmerjeni modeli, kot je npr. SPIN kmetijstvo.

Ključne besede: kmetijstvo, mestno kmetijstvo, trajnostno mesto, vrtičkarstvo, skupnostni vrt, mestna kmetija, Evropa, ZDA, Kanada, Avstralija

URBAN AGRICULTURE – TYPES AND EXPERIENCES

ABSTRACT

An issue of urban and periurban agriculture becomes more and more urgent because of towns spreading into their rural surroundings and because of decreasing nutritional competence of the people in Slovenia. The basic goal of the article is to stimulate an interest for this rather new area of agriculture, while its' aim is to present state-of-art in the field of urban agriculture, as well as examples of good practice in the developed countries. Urban agriculture is an industry located within (intra-urban) or on the fringe (peri-urban) of a town, a city or a metropolis, which grows and raises, processes, and distributes a diversity of food and nonfood products, using or reusing largely human and natural resources, products, and services found in and around that urban area, and in turn supplying human and material resources, products,

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and services largely to that urban area. Key determinants of urban agriculture are its spatial, economic, social and ecological incorporation into vivid tissue of modern towns/cities/metropolis that is generated and consolidated by the needs of urban population. The most common models of urban agriculture are gardening and locally supported agriculture, although new commercially oriented models, e.g. SPIN agriculture, are emerging recently.

Key words: agriculture, urban agriculture, sustainable city, gardening, community garden, city farm, Europe, USA, Canada, Australia

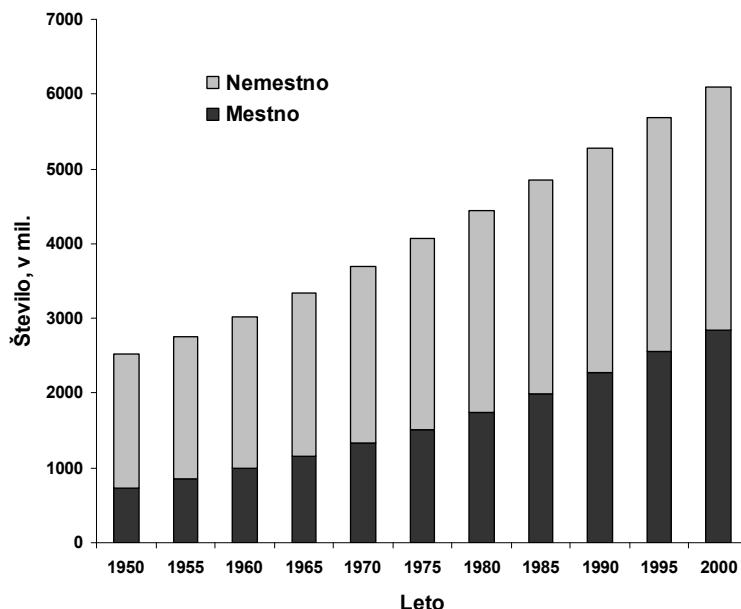
UVOD

Dvajseto stoletje je bil čas nagle urbanizacije. Leta 1900 je v mestih živelo 13 % vsega svetovnega prebivalstva, leta 1950 29 %, leta 2000 pa že 47 %. Leta 2007 naj bi število mestnega prebivalstva prvič v zgodovini preseglo število ne-mestnega. Leta 2030 pa naj bi v mestih živelo 60 % vsega svetovnega prebivalstva oziroma 4,9 milijarde ljudi (UN, 2006).

Nagla urbanizacija je značilna predvsem za drugo polovico dvajsetega stoletja. V obdobju 1950-2000 se je število mestnega prebivalstva v svetu skoraj početverilo (indeks 2000/1950=389), medtem ko se je skupno število prebivalstva povečalo za nekaj manj kot dvainpolkrat (indeks 2000/1950=242) (UN, 2006). Zato je to tudi čas, ko se je pojavil problem trajnostne urbanizacije. Na to, da gre za zelo resen javni problem sodobnosti in prihodnosti, je prva opozorila Konferenca Združenih narodov o okolju in razvoju leta 1992 v Agendi 21, s katero je bila sprejeta tudi zaveza, da bodo nacionalne in lokalne oblasti, zasebni sektor in nevladne organizacije v državah v razvoju poskrbeli za boljše upravljanje hitro rastočih mest in da je potrebno razviti primere dobrih praks na lokalnih ravneh, predvsem na področju okoljskih pritiskov in degradacije mestnih središč (UN, 2005).

Štiri leta kasneje, leta 1996, je bila na konferenci v Carigradu sprejeta Habitat agenda, s katero so bili začrtani ukrepi za doseganje trajnostnega razvoja mest. Izhodiščno sporočilo te agende je bilo, da velja naselja načrtovati, razvijati in izboljševati v skladu z načeli trajnostnega razvoja. Pri oblikovanju trajnostnih naselij in ohranjanju ekosistemov, na katerih temeljijo, naj bi imele ključno vlogo znanost in tehnologija (UN, 2003).

V okviru Habitat programa (Program človeških naselij) je umeščen podprogram Mestno in regionalno gospodarstvo, katerega cilj je pospeševanje lokalnega ekonomskega razvoja na podlagi ozaveščanja in usposabljanja osrednjih in lokalnih oblasti na področju razvojnega povezovanja urbanih in ruralnih območij. V ta kontekst sta umeščena tudi mestno in primestno kmetijstvo kot pomembna deležnika oblikovanja mrež trajnostnega razvoja, s posebnim poudarkom na prehranski varnosti (UN, 2007). Pomemben partner pri razvojnih iniciativah na področju (pri)mestnega kmetijstva je tudi Organizacija ZN za kmetijstvo in prehrano.



Slika 1: Gibanje mestnega in ne-mestnega prebivalstva v svetu v obdobju 1950-2000 (preračunano na podlagi podatkov UN, 2006)

V prvih letih razvoja so bili programi mestnega kmetijstva usmerjeni predvsem v reševanje revščine v naglo rastučih metropolah držav v razvoju oziroma nerazvitih držav, kjer so bili v ospredju predvsem problemi odpravljanja lakote, zagotavljanja prehranske varnosti in spodbujanja rabe vseh, v teh mestih razpoložljivih virov. Ob prelому tisočletja pa so postali enako pomembni tudi programi v mestih, prestolnicah in metropolah razvitih držav, kjer pa so v ospredju potrebe meščanov po stiku z naravo in problemi organskega povezovanja mest s podeželskim obrojem, v katerega se ta mesta širijo (Madelano, 2001).

Problem trajnostnega povezovanja mesta in njegovega ruralnega zaledja postaja vse bolj pereč tudi v Sloveniji. Tako sta se reševanja tega problema lotili Ljubljana in njena okolica v okviru leta 2002 začetega razvojnega programa »Sožitje med mestom in podeželjem« (Regionalna ..., 2002). Med Slovenci je, enako kot med prebivalci, drugih razvitih držav, vse bolj pereč tudi problem nizke prehranske kompetence, ki se kaže v njihovem »nezdravem«, bolje rečeno dezorientiranem vedenju na področju kupovanja živil in prehranjevanja (Zakotnik Mavčec, 1998). Pri tem pa ne gre toliko za ti. šibek značaj, pomanjkanje samokontrole in discipline sl, kot za izgubljanje stika in s tem tudi vedenja o pridelovanju hrane. Ponudniki hitre hrane, živilska industrija in velike trgovci (super, hiper in mega marketi) vzbujajo pri ljudeh, predvsem otrocih, vtiš, da so krave vijoličaste in da korenček že zraste lepo očiščen, zapakiran in pripravljen za uživanje. Zato je znanje o pridelavi in ravnanju s hrano potrebno približati vsakodnevnim situacijam različnih skupin potrošnikov. Pri tem pa ni dovolj, da učenje o prehranski kompetenci vsebuje samo teorijo (uporaba glave), temveč mora vsebovati tudi prakso (uporaba

rok) in čustev (uporaba srca) (Oltersdorf, 2003). Povečanje prehranske kompetence je torej eno od področij, ki spodbuja zanimanje za mestno kmetijstvo v razvitih državah. Razlogov, da se tudi pri nas začnemo bolj sistematično ukvarjati z mestnim kmetijstvom, je torej dovolj. Spodbujanju zanimanja za to, dokaj novo področje kmetijstva, je osnovni namen prispevka.

Cilj prispevka je prikazati stanje na področju mestnega kmetijstva in primere dobre prakse na tem področju v razvitih državah.

MATERIAL IN METODE

Pri pripravi pregleda mestnega kmetijstva v razvitih državah smo uporabili metodo računalniškega iskanja, in sicer: program OVID – Agris, program OVID - Cab Abstracts, WWW Google, WWW Google Scholar, WWW Najdi.si in zbirko Cobiss-Cobib. Iskalna gesla so bile naslednje ključne besede:

- v slovenščini
- mestno kmetijstvo
- primestno kmetijstvo
- mestna kmetija
- vrtičkarstvo
- urbanizacija
- urbanizem
- urbanistično načrtovanje
- trajnostno mesto
- Evropa, ZDA, Kanada, Avstralija
- v angleščini
- urban agriculture
- peri-urban agriculture
- city farm
- gardening, community garden
- urbanisation
- urbanism
- urban planning
- sustainable city
- Europe, USA, Canada, Australija.

REZULTATI IN RAZPRAVA

Definicija mestnega kmetijstva

Prve definicije mestnega kmetijstva so nastale v okviru različnih mednarodnih vladnih organizacij v sestavi Organizacije združenih narodov (OZN). Tako so v okviru Razvojnega programa OZN (UNDP - United Nations Development Program oziroma Program Združenih narodov za razvoj) v devetdesetih mestno kmetijstvo opredelili kot dejavnost, ki uporablja in predeluje naravne vire in mestne odpadke za pridelavo kulturnih rastlin in revo živali. Trženjsko je orientirano prvenstveno na mestni trg, manj na nacionalne ali globalne trge. Izvaja se na mnogih majhnih in velikih kmetijskih gospodarstvih, ki obsegajo od domačih vrtov z 20 m² ali celo manj, preko majhnih kmetij, ki dosegajo velikosti okrog 200 m², do velikih kmetijskih gospodarstev, ki pridelujejo na več 10 ha velikih zemljiščih (UNDP, 1996, cit. po RUAF, 2007a). V istem obdobju je svojo definicijo oblikovala tudi Organizacija za kmetijstvo in prehrano (FAO - Food and Agriculture Organisation) in mestno kmetijstvo opredelila kot pridelovanje hrane na območju mesta. Pridelovanje se lahko odvija na dvoriščih, strehah, terasah in balkonih, na komunalnih vrtovih in v komunalnih sadovnjakih ter na javnih zelenicah, ki niso v rabi. Mestno kmetijstvo se osredotoča predvsem na pridelke, ki ne zahtevajo veliko zemljišč, lahko jih je pridelovati z omejenimi viri in so hitropokvarljivi (zelenjava,

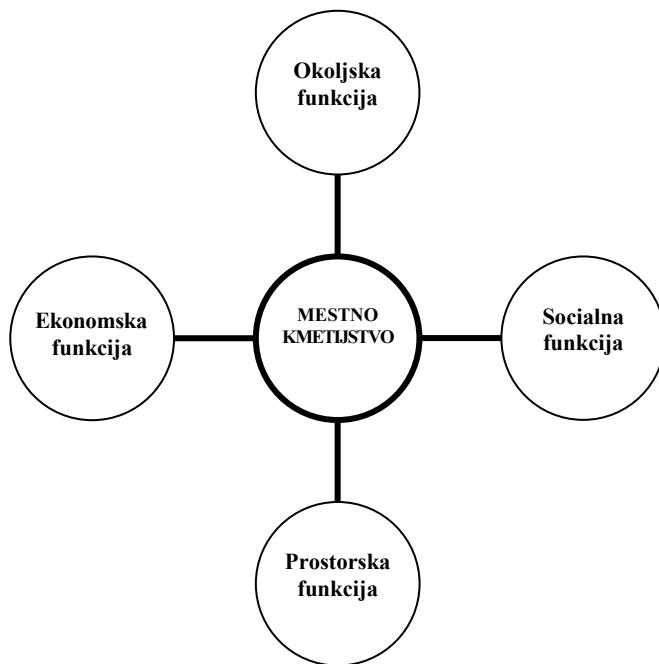
jagodičevje, zelišča, sadje) (FAO, 1996). Koncem devetdesetih so v okviru te organizacije začeli uporabljati nekoliko bolj razčlenjeno opredelitev, ki razlikuje mestno in primestno kmetijstvo. Obe obliki zajemata kmetovanje v mestu oziroma okoli njega, ki z drugimi dejavnostmi, ki tudi lahko zadovoljijo zahteve mestnega prebivalstva, tekmuje za vire - zemljo, vodo, energijo in delo. Mestno kmetijstvo zajema pridelovanje na majhnih območjih v mestih, kot so prazne parcele, vrtovi, obrobki, balkoni in posode, ki jih uporabimo za pridelovanje kmetijskih pridelkov in rejo majhnih domačih živali ter molznic, za lastno oskrbo ali za prodajo na trgih v soseski. Primestno kmetijstvo zajema pridelovanje oziroma rejo na kmetijski enotah v bližini mesta, ki delujejo kot intenzivni delno ali v celoti komercialni hortikulturni ali živilorejski obrati (mleko, jajca) (FAO, 1999).

Fundacija RUAFF (RUAFF - Resource Centres on Urban Agriculture and Food Security Foundation oziroma Fundacija Centri virov na področju mestnega kmetijstva in prehranske varnosti) definira mestno kmetijstvo kot pridelovanje kulturnih rastlin in rejo domačih živali v mestih in okoli njih. Mestno kmetijstvo uporablja in predeluje naravne vire in mestne odpadke za pridelavo kulturnih rastlin in rejo živali. Najbolj izstopajoča značilnost mestnega kmetijstva, ki ga razlikuje od podeželskega kmetijstva, je njegova vpetost v mestni ekonomski in ekološki sistem: mestno kmetijstvo je umeščeno v in prepleteno z mestnim ekosistemom. Ta prepletenost vključuje uporabo prebivalcev mesta kot delovnih moči, uporabo tipičnih mestnih virov (organski odpadki za kompost in odpadne vode za namakanje), neposredne vezi s porabniki, neposredni učinki na mestno ekologijo (pozitivni in negativni). Mestni kmetijstvo je del mestnega prehranskega sistema, ki tekmuje z drugimi funkcijami mesta za prostor, in je pod vplivom mestne politike ter mestnih načrtov. Mestno kmetijstvo tako ni ostanek preteklosti, ki bi izginil (mestno kmetijstvo se z rastjo mest krepi), niti ga niso s seboj prinesli priseljenci s podeželja, ki bodo svoje podeželske navade postopno izgubili. Je del mestnega sistema (RUAFF, 2007b).

Za ti. uradno definicijo mestnega kmetijstva velja opredelitev, ki jo je podal L. Mougeot. Mestno kmetijstvo je dejavnost, ki je locirana v mestih, velemestih ali metropolah oziroma na njihovem obrobu in obsega pridelovanje/rejo, predelavo in razpečavanje različnih prehranskih in neprehranskih dobrin, pri čemer v veliki meri uporablja in ponovno izrablja človeške in naravne vire, izdelke/pridelke in storitve, ki so neposredno na razpolago v urbanem območju oziroma v njegovi bližnji okolici ter zagotavlja človeške in gmotne vire, izdelke/pridelke in storitve temu urbanemu območju (Mougeot, 2006).

Funkcije mestnega kmetijstva

Ključne determinante mestnega kmetijstva so prostorska, ekonomska, sociološka in ekološka umeščenost v živo tkivo sodobnih mest, ki jo generirajo in utrjujejo potrebe meščanov.



Slika 2: Funkcije mestnega kmetijstva

Potrebe meščanov pa določajo tudi zelo različne vloge urbanega kmetijstva v mestih nerazvitih držav oziroma držav v razvoju in v mestih v razvitih državah.

Preglednica 1: Vloga mestnega kmetijstva v državah v razvoju in v razvitih državah

Države v razvoju (Bruunisma in Hertog, 2003)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • pospeševanje prehranske varnosti in prehrane prebivalcev • prispevek k lokalnem ekonomskem razvoju • zmanjševanje revščine in socialnih nemirov med (socialno) ogroženimi skupinami prebivalcev • prispevek k trajnostnemu okoljskemu razvoju mesta
Razvite države (Sommers in Smith, 1994)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • izboljšanje dostopnosti in kakovosti (pre)hrane • zagotavljanje dopolnilnega dohodka gospodinjstva • rekreacija in prostočasnih aktivnosti • kultura • izobraževanje

Razvoj raziskovanja na področju mestnega kmetijstva

Preglednica 2: Razvoj raziskovanja na področju mestnega kmetijstva (Mougeot, 2001)

	Sedemdeseta-osemdeseta leta 20. stoletja	Devetdeseta leta 20. stoletja
Vzvodi	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • znanje (znanstveni problem) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • ukrepanje (javna zadeva)
Odgovorni	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • posamezniki 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • institucije
Pristop	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • disciplinaren 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • multidisciplinaren
Trajanje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • kratkotrajno 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • trajno
Tip raziskovanja	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • bazično, deskriptivno, generično 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • aplikativno, globinsko, specifično
Načrtovanje in izvajanje	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • raziskovalec 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • participativno
Geografski obseg	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • lokalno, posamično mesto 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • regionalno, več mest
Pridobivanje znanja	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • omejeno (s pomočjo osebnih stikov) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • bolj široko in globoko (s pomočjo mrež)
Uporaba rezultatov	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • znanstvene objave 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • usposabljanje, svetovanje in ocenjevanje; večciljne javnosti

Preglednica 3: Osnovne značilnosti sodobnega mestnega kmetijstva (prirejeno po Bruinisma in Hertog, 2003)

Indikator	Značilnosti
Vrste proizvodov	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pridelovanje različnih vrst pridelkov (žita, zelenjava, gobe, sadje) ali reja različnih vrst domačih živali (perutnina, zajci, koze, ovce, govedo, prašiči, ribe ipd.) ali kombinacija le-teh. • Pomembno je tudi pridelovanje začimbnic in zdravilnih zelišč, okrasnih rastlin in drevnin. • Pogosto pridelujejo hitropokvarljive pridelke z visoko dodano vrednostjo.
Vrste ekonomskih aktivnosti	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pridelovanje, predelava in trženje kmetijskih pridelkov, priprava in ponudba inputov (npr. kompost) ter ponudba storitev (npr. izobraževanje). • Proizvodne enote so pogosto visoko specializirane, prodajna mesta pa so znotraj proizvodnih enot. • Zelo pomembne so tudi interakcije med izvajalci posameznih aktivnosti (tržne verige, proizvodni grozdi). • Pridelava, predelava in trženje so po času in prostoru bolj strnjeni kot na podeželju zaradi manjšega območja in hitrejšega pretoka virov.
Vrste lokacij	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ekonomski aktivnosti potekajo na lastnih, najetih ali javnih zemljiščih. • Odvijajo se na zemljiščih ob stanovanjskih objektih ali na zemljiščih, ki so od njih bolj ali manj oddaljena (vrtovi, tudi vrtovi šol in bolnišnic, nepozidana zemljišča, parki in zelenice, obrobki ob cestah in železnicah in podobno).
Obseg pridelave in uporabljene tehnologije	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Bolj kot ekonomija obsega prevladuje združevanje. • Ekonomski aktivnosti izvajajo posamezne družinske kmetije, skupine pridelovalcev ali zadruge ter mikro, majhna, srednja in velika podjetja. • Pri kmetovanju so v rabi tako tehnologije nizkih inputov (integrirano ali ekološko kmetovanje) kot tudi tehnologije visokih inputov (konvencionalno kmetovanje).
Stopnja tržne usmerjenosti	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Po stopnji tržne usmerjenosti se pojavljata dva tipa: samooskrbno in komercialno. • V primeru samooskrbnega kmetijstva so pridelki namenjeni porabi v gospodinjstvih pridelovalcev, ki pa eventualne presežke tudi prodajajo. V primeru komercialnega pridelovanja gre za povsem tržno usmerjeno prakso tako po količini kot ekonomski vrednosti. • Pridelovalci tržijo svoje pridelke na domačem dvorišču in z dostavo v domače in druge soseske (zvezni pridelki), kot tudi v lokalnih trgovinah in na lokalnih tržnicah, prodajajo tudi posrednikom ali velikim trgovcem (pakirane oziroma ustrezno predelane pridelke).
Vključeni akterji	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pridelovalci praviloma pripadajo nižjim oziroma srednjim slojem, ki si lahko zagotovijo dostop do potrebnih virov (predvsem zemlje in vode). • Revni in priseljenci s podeželja praviloma nimajo dostopa do potrebnih virov.

Bruinisma in Hertog (2003) pa sta izoblikovala sistem indikatorjev, primernih za bazično in aplikativno raziskovanje mestnega kmetijstva, in sicer: vrste proizvodov, vrste ekonomskeh aktivnosti, vrste lokacij, obseg pridelave in uporabljeni tehnologiji, stopnja tržne usmerjenosti in vključeni akterji (preglednica 3).

Pregled mestnega kmetijstva v razvitih državah

Območje srednje in vzhodne Evrope

V letih 1992-2002 je v t.i. tranzicijskih državah srednje in vzhodne Evrope potekala raziskava, katere cilj je bil pregledati stanje na področju mestnega kmetijstva v Bolgariji, na Češkem, v Romuniji, Sloveniji in Rusiji ter prispevati k oblikovanju politik na področju mestnega kmetijstva v ciljnih državah (de Zeeuw, 2003). V okviru projekta so pripravili tudi naslednje konkretna načrte aktivnost na področje mestnega kmetijstva: načrt razvoja trajnostnega kmetijstva in kmečkega turizma na primestnem območju Trojan v Bolgariji, akcijski načrt razvoja mestnega kmetijstva v funkciji povečanja prehranske varnosti mesta v Bukarešti v Romuniji, inovativni model za izboljšanje in razširitev vrtičkarstva v mestu Hradec Králové na Češkem, v procesu participativnega načrtovanja oblikovane stalne ekološke tržnice, ki prinaša konkretne ekonomske koristi kmetom na obrobju Ljubljane in v enakem procesu oblikovane krovne organizacije vrtičarskih skupnosti v Peterburgu v Rusiji, katere ključni naloge sta sodelovanje pri kreiranju lokalnih politik in načrtov in zagotavljanje potrebnih storitev združenim vrtičkarjem. Rezultate raziskave so strnili v naslednje ugotovitve (de Zeeuw, 2003):

- mestno kmetijstvo je urbani fenomen, kar pomeni, da je integralni del mestnega sistema, ki ga tradicionalno izvajajo avtohtoni prebivalci, ki največkrat prihajajo iz mest, in ne prebivalci, ki se v mesto priselijo s podeželja
- mestno kmetijstvo je sestavni del socialno-kulturene dediščine mest in njihovih prebivalcev ter integralni del mestne krajine.
- mestno kmetijstvo je imelo v tranzicijskih državah v času tranzicijske ekonomske krize ključno vlogo pri zagotavljanju socialne varnosti, saj je mestnim prebivalcem z nižjimi dohodki (upokojenci, nezaposleni) je pomagalo prihraniti pri stroških za hrano
- funkcije mestnega kmetijstva se spremenjajo hkrati s socialno-političnimi in ekonomskimi razmerami; v zadnjih petdesetih letih je doživelno zanimive spremembe od statusnega simbola in dostopnosti za redke srečneže, prek vikend naselij, do socialne varnosti za upokojence in nezaposlene v času tranzicije do današnje rekreativnih in prehransko-izobraževalnih vlog.
- Pridelava hrane za lastno porabo je še vedno pomembna, saj si večina »mestnih kmetov-pridelovalcev« želi še naprej kmetovati v enakem obsegu kot doslej, mestne oblasti pa podpirajo kmetijsko pridelavo kot vir sveže hrane in kot prispevek k zmanjševanju stroškov za hrano prebivalcev z nižjimi dohodki
- razvoj mestnega kmetijstva zavirajo različni dejavniki, kot so zanemarjanje te aktivnosti s strani oblasti, konkurenca uvoženih pridelkov, »nizka zaščita«

- kmetijskih zemljišč in njihovo spreminjanje v stavbna zemljišča, nerazčiščeni lastniški odnosi in namembnosti rabe, težave pri pridobivanju novih zemljišč zaradi zapletenih administrativnih postopkov in slabega delovanja trga nepremičnin, težak dostop do finančnih virov in pomanjkanje ustreznih svetovalnih služb
- postopno narašča pomen »ljubiteljskega« vrtnarjenja, potreb po »zdravi prehrani« in po estetsko-rekreacijskih odprtih prostorih, saj se s povečanjem življenjskega standarda »vrtičkarstvo zaradi potrebe« umika »vrtičkarstvu zaradi užitka« (vlaga se več časa in denarja v estetski izgled obdelovanih zemljišč in v konstrukcijske izboljšave počitniških hišic)
 - nove socialno-ekonomske perspektive za mestno kmetijstvo se kažejo v upravljanju s krajino in v vzdrževanju biodiverzitete (npr. vzdrževanje travnikov, tradicionalne divjadi, pomoč pri zasajanju nasadov, naraščajoči kmečki turizem, pridelava ekoloških in tradicionalnih pridelkov in hrane)
 - mestno kmetijstvo lahko opišemo kot kmetijstvo z »nizkimi vložki«, zato so njegovi negativni vplivi na kakovost tal in vode majhni
 - razlikovanje med različnimi tipi mestnega kmetijstva pa je zelo pomembno zaradi potreb po specifičnih pristopih pri uvajanju podpornih in regulatornih ukrepov
 - nosilci mestnega kmetijstva so praviloma slabo organizirani, kar je posledica politično zgodovinskih razmer v posamezni državi kot tudi relativno velike »neformalnosti« kmetovanja oziroma vrtičkarstva, po drugi strani pa je le-ta vzrok za nizko zastopanost interesov »mestnih kmetov« in vrtičkarjev na ravni odločanja v mestnih občinah, kot tudi za njihov slab dostop do ustreznegra znanja in storitev
 - načrtovanje in izvajanje politik na področju mestnega kmetijstva je najbolj uspešno, če poteka po metodi participativnega odločanja, kar pomeni da v procesu sodelujejo vsi deležniki.

Sofija

Yoveva in sod. (1999) so analizirali razmere na področju mestnega kmetijstva v bolgarskem glavnem mestu – Sofiji.

Mestno kmetijstvo je pomemben element življenja v Bolgariji že stoletja in je tipično za vsa mesta, vključno z glavnim mestom - Sofijo. Med ekonomsko aktivnimi prebivalci s celotnega območja Sofije je 2 % takih, ki se s kmetijstvom ukvarjajo polni delovni čas. Približno polovica mestnih gospodinjstev se ukvarja s pridelavo sadja, zelenjave in začimbnic. Samooskrbnih je 14 % gospodinjstev. Kmetijska zemljišča imajo v celotnem ozemlju Sofije kar 41 % delež.

Za mestni predel Sofije sta značilna dva tipa mestnega kmetijstva, in sicer zasebne kmetije in vrtičkarstvo oziroma kmetijska pridelava za potrebe gospodinjstev.

Zasebne kmetije kmetujejo na kmetijskih zemljiščih, ki se nahajajo v glavnem na meji med mestom in sosednjimi vasmi. Torej gre za primestno kmetijstvo. Ukvartajo se predvsem z rejo živali ter pridelavo sadja in zelenjave. Nekatere izmed kmetij delujejo kot majhna podjetja, ki se ukvarjajo tudi s predelovanjem pridelanega.

Vrtičkarstvo oziroma kmetijska pridelava za potrebe gospodinjstev se odvija v treh oblikah:

- zasebno vrtičkarstvo ob stanovanjskih hišah, ki prevladuje tako v središču mesta kot tudi na njegovem obrobu
- zasebno vrtičkarstvo ob počitniških hišicah, ki so od središča mesta oddaljene okoli 100 km
- kmetovanje pod okriljem mestnih oblasti na zemljiščih v lasti mesta, katerih rabo določajo mestne oblasti, in je namenjeno samooskrbi vrtičkarjev in rekreaciji.

V Sofiji in okolici se najbolj pogosto ukvarjajo s pridelavo zelenjave (korenje, krompir, čebula in koleraba). Večje zasebne kmetije pa pridelujejo žita, zelenjavo in redijo živali v nekoliko večjem obsegu. Po podatkih iz leta 1997 je bilo na območju Sofije nekaj na 7 tisoč krav, 9 tisoč koz, 24 tisoč ovac, 21 tisoč prašičev in 219 tisoč piščancev. Priredili so 17 tisoč ton mleka, 6 tisoč ton mesa in 23 milijona jaje.

Pridelke prodajajo na avkcijah, na dvoriščih, na mestnih tržnicah ali preko posrednikov. Vzvod za prihodnji razvoj mestnega in primestnega kmetijstva na območju Sofije vidijo ravno v povpraševanju meščanov po sveži hrani, pridelani na območjih, ki jih poznajo.

Razvite (post)industrijske države

Nizozemska inovativna mreža

Mason (2006) poroča o Inovativni mreži (Innovative Network), ki jo je leta 2000 ustanovila nizozemska vlada. Njen namen je olajšati in pospešiti uvajanje sistemskih inovacij na področju optimiranja učinkov razvoja trajnostnih odnosov med ruralnimi območji, kmetijstvom in zdravstvenimi vidiki prehrane prebivalstva. Mreža deluje samostojno, vendar tesno povezano z raziskovalno sfero, vlado in gospodarstvom. V okviru mreže je lansiranih več kot trideset projektov, od katerih pa se ne pričakuje sto odstotna uspešnost.

Eden od projektov je tudi projekt Nova vas (v kateri lahko živi tudi več kot 16.000 ljudi). V okviru tega projekta želijo ugotoviti, kakšne so možnosti za kombiniranje navidezno nezdružljivih želja na podeželju. Ne gre le za ustvarjanje možnosti za prebivanje na podeželju, temveč tudi za izboljšanje kakovosti podeželja, spoštovanje regionalnih razlik, zagotavljanje potrebnih vodnih virov in načinov za pokrivanje družbenih in kulturnih potreb prihodnjih stanovalcev.

Drugi sklop projektov poteka pod imenom Agripark. V kraju Bergerden na urbanem območju Arnhem-Nijmegen je na 300 ha oblikovan integriran kmetijski poslovni kompleks, ki vključuje tudi predelovalno industrijo in distribucijo. Model izhaja iz podmene, da odpadke ene ali več dejavnosti, kot so perutminarstvo in prašičereja, lahko uporabi kot vir druga dejavnost, kot je pridelovanje zelenjave in gob. Rastlinjaki bodo uporabljali najnovejše tehnologije za pridobivanje energije, na njihovih strehah pa bodo nameščene naprave za zajetje deževnice kot vira vode za splošno uporabo.

London

Petts (2001) je analiziral razmere na področju mestnega kmetijstva v Londonu, Velika Britanija, in njegovi okolici. Na tem območju je mestnemu in primestnemu kmetijstvu namenjenih okoli 15 tisoč ha zemljišč. Londonsko mestno kmetijstvo je usmerjeno tako komercialno kot tudi samooskrbno oziroma rekreativno. Pridelovanje se odvija na komercialnih obratih v mestnem zelenem obroču, na majhnih zasebnih, javnih ali občinskih vrtovih in tudi na balkonih, terasah in strehah. Najbolj pogosti pridelki so sadje in zelenjava, meso, jajca, mleko, med in vino.

Mestno in primestno kmetijstvo je v Veliki Britaniji zelo dobro organizirano. Na nacionalnem in lokalnem nivoju delujejo številne organizacije, ki povezujejo interes ljudi, ki so vključeni v mestno/primestno kmetijstvo (npr. National Society of Allotment and Leisure Gardeners, Common Ground ali Federation of City Farms and Community Garden. Permaculture Association of Britain, Soil Association itd.). Mestno kmetijstvo se vse bolj vključuje tudi v sistem socialnega in zdravstvenega varstva (npr. projekt »Natural Growth, ki poteka v severnem Londonu in je namenjen žrtvam nasilja in »Hilling Gardens, ki je namenjen dolgotrajnim in terminalnim bolnikom).

Oblike, v katerih deluje mestno kmetijstvo v Londonu, so zelo pestre. Komercialni hortikulti je namenjenih okoli 500 ha zemljišč, na katerih pridelajo okoli 8 tisoč t sadja in zelenjave ter ustvarijo vrednost v višini okoli 3 milijone funtov. Center hortikulture je območje Lea Valley (SV London), kjer delujejo predvsem večje kmetije. Na tem območju poteka pridelovanje že od 18. stoletja. Razvoj so omogočala kakovostna zemljišča, dostopna voda, bližina trga in železnica, ki je s cen enim prevozom premoga omogočila razcvet pridelovanja v steklenjakih (ananas, lubenice, grozdje in breskve) v 19. stoletju. Zaradi davkov (na rastlinjake), industrijskega onesnaženja in cenene čezmorske konkurence je pridelovanje postopoma zamiralo in ponoven razcvet doživel v drugi polovici 20. stoletja. Leta 1950 je pridelava potekala na 650 ha pod steklenjaki, danes pa na 150 ha. Pri tem pa se je storilnost več kot potrojila. Na območju deluje 200 kmetijskih podjetij, ki obdelujejo od 0,5 ha do 10 ha zavarovanih zemljišč. V steklenjakih je pridelovanje avtomatizirano in poteka po hidroponski tehnologiji. Pridelovalci so povezani v združenju pridelovalcev s področja Lea Valley (Lea Valley Growers Association). Nekatera okrožja v Londonu imajo še vedno v upravljanju svoje kmetije, tako imenovane okrožne kmetije. Tako okrožje Hillingdon razpolaga s 300 ha veliko kmetijo Park Lodge Farm, na kateri je zaposleno 5 delavcev. Na kmetiji je 180 molznih krav, 250 pitancev, koze, osli, konji in prašiči. Pridelujejo tudi krmo.

Čeprav je pridelava komercialno usmerjena, organizirajo tudi obiske šolarjev. Nekatera zemljišča pa oddajajo v najem.

Na območju širšega Londona je na območjih z vrtovi aktivnih okoli 30.000 nosilcev vrtičkarstva, ki se odvija na 831 ha v ožjem Londonu, od katerih jih je 273 ha v neposrednem centru Londona, in 1.776 ha v okolini. V centru je 4 % vrtov v najemu, zato je čakalna lista za parcele zelo dolga (npr. v Islingtonu se čaka na parcelo eno leto). V okolini je v najemu 18 % vrtov. Veliko vrtov je v okolini stanovanjskih hiš. Območja z vrtovi so v glavnem v lasti in upravljanju mestnih oblasti, ki vrtičkarstvo zelo spodbujajo. Okrog 6 % območij z vrtovi je v zasebni lasti. Na teh območjih se obseg vrtov zmanjšuje, ker si lastniki želijo bolj komercialne rabe zemljišč. Tradicionalno se je z vrtičkarstvom ukvarjala starejša populacija z nižjimi dohodki. Danes je med vrtičkarji vse več mlajših, iz različnih etničnih skupin in z višjo izobrazbo.

Mnogi vrtičkarji se povezujejo v združenja, ki zastopajo njihove interese. Nekateri bolj napredni imajo organizirano upravljanje, pobiranje najemnin in pravila. Takšen način omogoča boljšo urejenost vrtov in njihovo kakovostno umeščanje v območje. V Londonu je 8 mestnih kmetij z zemljišči velikosti od 0,25 ha do 2,5 ha. Navadno na njih poteka hortikulturna pridelava, pomembna pa je tudi živinoreja. Prodaja poteka neposredno na kmetiji ali v trgovinah. Mestne kmetije imajo dve ključni nalogi: oskrbovanje lokalne skupnosti s svežimi pridelki in pa izobraževanje odraslih in predvsem otrok. Tako so na nekaterih kmetijah razvili izobraževalne pakete z vsebinami, prilagojenimi šolarjem. Mestne kmetije so financirane iz različnih virov, predvsem mestnega proračuna in dobodelnih fundacij, upravlja pa jih člani lokalne skupnosti.

Mestni vrtovi so razporejeni po vsem mestu. Na njih gojijo okrasne rastline, zelišča, pogosta pa je tudi pridelava paradižnika. Letno jih obiše 650.000 obiskovalcev, kar je okoli 10 % prebivalcev Londona.

Vsaj polovica od 2,8 milijonov gospodinjstev v Londonu ima lastne vrtove, ki zavzemajo okoli 20 % vsega ozemlja mesta.

Na šolskih dvoriščih so predvsem zemljišča, urejena za igro, v nekaterih šolah pa imajo tudi šolske vrtove, kjer pridelujejo sadje in zelenjavko. Vrtički so majhni, njihov namen pa je predvsem izobraževalen.

Velika Britanija ima 2.000 avtohtonih vrst jablan. V Londonu so še posebej pogosti javni nasadi jablan, ki jih je 15. V njih izvajajo različne aktivnosti za skupnost, kot so kulturne prireditve, okoljsko osveščanje, letni Dnevi jabolk, pikniki, šolski izleti in podobno.

Območje mesta Sydney, Avstralija

Po mnenju Knowda, Masona in Dockinga (Knowd in sod., 2005) so razvojna razmišljanja na področju mestnega kmetijstva preobremenjena z z golj eno njegovo razsežnostjo, in sicer prehrano oziroma prehransko varnostjo, kar pa omejuje

razvojni horizont v gospodarsko razvitetih območjih sveta. Zato so na primeru območja mesta Sydney razvili nov, alternativni pristop k trajnostnemu povezovanju kmetijstva, mesta, krajine in družbe.

Preglednica 4: Kontinuum mestnega kmetijstva na območju mesta Sydney ter z njim povezane vrednote in koristi (Knowd in sod., 2005)

	Oblike mestnega kmetijstva	Vrednote/koristi
Družba	Vrtovi ob hišah	Rekreacija, vsi vidiki zdravja, banke semen, dodatna oskrba s hrano
	Skupnostni in občinski vrtovi	Socialna kohezija na podlagi skupnega delovanja, izobraževanje, dostop do hrane, produktivna raba občinskih zemljišč
	Vrtovi na strehah	Skupno delo, blaginja delavca, učinkovita raba prostora
	Šolski vrtovi	Izobraževanje, povezava s kulturno in prakso kmetovanja
	Zgodovinski vrtovi	Dedičina, ohranjanje in zbiranje artefaktov, muzejske zbirke, izobraževanje, raziskovanje
Podjetništvo	Ljubiteljski vrtovi	Upravljanje z naravnim okoljem, rekreacija, diverzifikacija živiljenjskih stilov. Dodatni dohodek, pridelovanje za tržne vrzeli, pridelovanje majhnega obsega
	Butični vrtovi, podeželski vrtovi, vrtovi posebnih pridelkov	Pestrost, podeželski odprt prostor, pridelovanje majhnega obsega, specializirano pridelovanje
	Dvorišče kmetije	Denar ostane v lokalni skupnosti; 80 % jih pridobi z 20 % prodaje na kmetiji; ponovna integracija v skupnost; doživetja, izobraževanje, alternativne tržne poti, novi trgi
	Kmetijski (kmečki) turizem	Diverzifikacija virov dohodka; med-dejavnostni vplivi-gostoljubnost, turizem, kmetijstvo, dom/posel na podlagi kmetovanja z dodano vrednostjo; koristi od odnosa pridelovalec-potrošnik
	Konjeništvo rekreacija konjušnica/trening	rekreacija; vizualna estetika krajine; vzreja čistokrvnih konj; kultura in zgodovina konjeništva; multiplikacija denarnih učinkov za podporne dejavnosti
Pridelovanje	Območje poplavna nižine (tržni vrtovi; mlekarna; proizvodnja šote; sadovnjaki; pridelovanje krme)	Medgeneracijska pravičnost; prehranska varnost; večja inherentna trajnost-tla in talni cikli, dostop do vode, oblikovanje kopnega, biološka pestrost (obrežja, močvirja; odpadne vode in zeleno recikliranje). Hidrološki sistem, mikro in makro klimatski učinki, ločevanje mestnih odpadkov, zeleni pasovi, estetski prispevki k podeželskim skupnostim
	Območja, ki niso poplavno ogrožena (tržni vrtovi; mlekarna; sadovnjaki; pridelovanje krme/agri-gozdarstvo)	Ohranjanje naravnih virov za pokrivanje prihodnjih, mogoče še neznanih potreb in izzivov (n.pr. posledice globalnega segrevanja), kot tudi tehnologij (nanotehnologije); trajnostno mesto kmetijstvo kot orodje upravljanja z naravnimi viri, še posebej v primeru, ko raba zemljišč ustreza trajnostnemu kmetijstvu; kulturna pestrost skupnosti-ljudje z različnim kulturnim in jezikovnim porekлом; ogljikov kredit
	Nadzorovano okolje /visoke tehnologije (vrtnarstvo v pokritih prostorih; drevesnice; perutninarstvo; hlevska prireja mleka; pridelovanje gob; zavarovanje pridelovanje)	Denarni multiplikator za podporne dejavnosti; zveži hitropokvarljivi pridelki, pridelani blizu trga; zmanjšane emisije zaradi krajsih transportnih poti, visoka storilnost in učinkovitost, nadzorovani sistemi odpadkov, porabe pesticidov, vode in energije.

Kanadska mesta

Montreal je primer (Sommers in Smith, 1994) uspešnega razvoja mestnega kmetijstva, ki ga podpirajo mestne oblasti. Začetki sodelovanja s strani mestnih oblasti segajo v leto 1975. V najbolj mestnem predelu je preko 100 vrtnarskih območij, od katerih jih mesto vzdržuje 75. Na teh vrtovih je 6.500 vrtičkov. Mesto preskrbi zemljišča, ograje, gnojila, nekaj orodja, prostore za druženje, odvoz smeti in drugo vzdrževanje. Vsakodnevno administracijo opravljajo prostovoljne organizacije (prostovoljci).

Bhat in Kongshaug (2005) pa poudarjata predvsem socialne učinke mestnega kmetijstva (mestnih kmetij, vrtičkov in podobno) oziroma njegov prispevek k družbeni koheziji (vključevanje starejših in etničnih manjšin). Hkrati pa opozarjata na zelo kompleksno motivacijo »mestnih kmetov« oziroma vrtičkarjev, ki jo sooblikujejo socialni, ekonomski, kulturni in zdravstveni motivi ter težnje po kakovosti življenja, ki jih morajo upoštevati načrtovalci mest, če želijo, da bo mesto resnično živilo.

Toronto, Calgary in Edmonton so mesta, kjer je pobuda na področju razvoja mestnega kmetijstva prišla s strani prebivalcev (od spodaj navzgor) in so se ji mestne oblasti priključile šele kasneje. V Torontu mestne oblasti podpirajo samooskrbo s hrano in vsako leto se pojavi 6 do 10 novih, z vrtovi zaokroženih skupnosti. V Vancouvrju imajo 26 vrtnarskih predelov z 2.000 vrtovi, ki so nastali na pobudo meščanov. V Viktoriji in sosednjih mestih (Sanitch, Esquimalt, Langford, Oak Bay, in Colwood) je 15 vrtnarskih predelov s 430 vrtovi (Sommers in Smith, 1994).

Modeli mestnega kmetijstva

Vrtičkarstvo

Vrtičkarstvo je ena od rab mestnega prostora in dejavnosti mestnih prebivalcev. Je dinamičen pojav, ki spremlja razvoj mesta in ga pozna v vseh velikih mestih na svetu. Po podatkih najbolj obsežne raziskave o proizvodnji hrane v mestih, ki so jo izvedli v okviru OZN, se zaradi razvoja drugih dejavnosti in zgoščevanja mest vrtičkarstvo seli in dobiva nove oblike (Urban Agriculture, 1996).

Ker je vrtičkarstvo v Sloveniji najbolj pogosta oblika mestnega kmetijstva, podajamo v nadaljevanju nekaj domačih definicij tega pojava. Vrtičkarstvo je obdelovanje zemljišč ob upoštevanju načel dobrega gospodarjenja z namenom pridelovanja rastlin za potrebe lastnega gospodinjstva (Odlok..., 1985). Vrtiček je zemljišče, ki je vrtnarsko obdelano. Čeprav na mnogih vrtovih gojijo tudi krompir in včasih na robovih posejejo koruzo, lahko vrtičarsko pridelavo bolj primerjamo z intenzivno zelenjadarsko pridelavo kot s poljedelstvom. Pod pojmom vrtičkarstvo ponekod razumejo tudi gojitev malih živali, ki pa v Ljubljani na vrtičkih ni dovoljeno (Simoneti, 1993). Vastlova (2001) ga definira kot dejavnost obdelovanja zemlje in pridelovanja vrtnin za lastne potrebe na območjih, ki so dislocirana od bivališč.

Vrtičkarji so meščani, ki običajno najemajo zemljo za obdelavo. Vrtičkarstvu se posvečajo različne skupine prebivalcev (Simoneti, 1993).

Glede razvoja vrtičkarstva v Sloveniji velja prisluhniti opozorilom (Vastl, 2001), da je vrtičkarstvo kot dejavnost, kot raba prostora in kot socialni fenomen obravnavano marginalno, nemalokrat celo odklonilno, čeprav je, tudi globalno gledano, proces v stalnem širjenju. Vrtičkarstvo je kompleksen pojav, ki zahteva interdisciplinarno obravnavo, saj hkrati zadovoljuje eksistenčne, fizične, socialne in psihološke potrebe ljudi in ima specifično prostorsko pojavnost. Zato je vrtičkarstvo potrebno priznati kot pomembno prostočasovno dejavnost velikega dela mestnega prebivalstva in ga sprejeti kot prostorsko dejstvo. Pri njegovi strokovni obravnavi je potrebno v največji možni meri omogočiti skladno in sočasno obravnavo prostorskih problemov mesta in resničnih potreb sodobnega mestnega človeka. Vrtičkarska območja je potrebno vključiti v zeleni sistem mesta kot enakovredni del. Načela za načrtovanje in oblikovanje vrtičkarskih območij morajo ostati dovolj odprta, dinamična in prožna. Regulativa s strani mestnih oblasti ne sme biti preveč omejujoča, ker je vrtičkarstvo za ljudi pomemben samoiniciativni in samorealizacijski prostor. V mestni strukturi je potrebno definirati področja za trajno in začasno rabo za vrtičkarska območja. Degradirana urbana območja, mestne praznine in nedefinirane prostore je potrebno preučiti kot možnost začasne rabe za vrtičkarstvo. Vrtičkarska območja naj bodo definirana fleksibilno po vzorcih generičnih jeder, prestrukturiranja, interpolacij, implantantov, adicij (Vastl, 2001).

Zaradi svoje dinamične organske vpetosti v živo tkivo mesta je vrtičkarstvo tisto področje mestnega kmetijstva, katerega razvoj je bistveno povezan s krepitvijo sistema pricipativnega odločanja, saj gre za kompleksen odločitveni sistem z visoko soodvisnostjo med akterji, kar pomeni, da nihče od njih posamezno ne more vpeljati/izpeljati ustrezne politike (Cornwall in Jewkes, 1995).

Simoneti in Kranjc (2007) podarjata, da se je vrtičkarstvo v mestih po EU pojavilo že pred sto in več leti kot ena od dejavnosti, ki so spremljale številčno rast mest v času industrijskega razvoja. Danes so vrtičkarska območja prostorsko načrtovana, vrtičkarji pa so povezani v številne, dobro organizirane skupnosti, ki skrbijo za upravljanje in delovanje vrtičkarstva. Zasledimo lahko različne ravni organiziranosti, od društev in forumov do resnih državnih in občinskih služb, pravno podprtih z ustreznimi zakonskimi podlagami, ki omogočajo urejen razvoj dejavnosti. Vsakdo, ki želi v mestu vrtnariti, lahko to počne samo na posebej določenih delih prostora in pod določenimi pogoji. Kot možni referenčni model navajata razmere v Avstriji, kjer je vrtičkarstvu namenjenih okoli 900 ha in se z njim ukvarja okoli 35 tisoč ljudi. Po standardu urejenosti posebej izstopa Dunaj. Vsa vrtičkarska območja morajo biti enotno urejena, komunalni vodi, sistem cest in poti pa skrbno načrtovani vnaprej. Pravila ponekod omogočajo tudi gradnje manjših hiš, garaž ali ureditev bazena, vendar pa se raznolikost objektov lahko giblje samo znotraj natančno določenih pravil, ki jih uporabniki zelo vestno spoštujejo. Kot posebno zanimiv primer navajata tudi vrtičkarsko kolonijo v kraju Naerum na Danskem, ki je zaščitena kot kulturna dediščina.

Lokalno podprto kmetijstvo

Prvi modeli lokalno podprtga kmetijstva ((Community Supported Agriculture - CSA) so zaživeli v šestdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja v Švici in na Japonskem, od koder so razširili v ZDA v osemdesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja. Izhodiščna ideja je bila v gospodarsko partnerstvo povezati kupce, katerih interes je varna hrana, in kmete, katerih interes je stabilen trg (DeMuth, 1993).

CSA je tako relativno nov socialno-ekonomski model pridelave, prodaje in distribucije hrane, katerega namen je povečati kakovost hrane in kakovost okolja. Preprečuje izgube pridelkov in zmanjšuje finančna tveganja za pridelovalce. Je metoda, primerna za manjše komercialne kmete in vrtnarje, ki svoje pridelke plasirajo na razmeroma znanem (določenem) trgu. CSA je navadno osredotočen na sistem tedenske dostave zelenjave, včasih cvetja, sadja, začimbnic in celo mleka ter mesnih proizvodov.

Osrednji model CSA temelji na pridelavi hrane visoke kakovosti, ki vključuje ekološke ali biodinamične tehnologije pridelave. Tak način kmetovanja deluje z visoko stopnjo vključevanja potrošnikov in drugih deležnikov, vključenih v sistem, katerega posledica je močna povezanost potrošnik – pridelovalec.

Osnovni predpogoj modela je skupina potrošnikov, ki je pripravljena financirati celoletno pridelavo v zameno za celoletno dobavo kakovostne hrane. Sistem ima mnogo izpeljank, ki vključujejo različne vrste financiranja s strani potrošnikov in različne načine, kako pridelovalci dostavljajo hrano. CSA gradi na naslednjem izhodišču: čim bolj je kmetija celostno vključena v sistem in čim bolj je zagotovljeno njeno financiranje, tem bolj se lahko osredotoči na kakovost in zmanjševanje kala in tako dosega boljše finančne učinke.

V najbolj formalnih strukturah, ki jih zasledimo v Evropi in Severni Ameriki, je glavni poudarek na naslednjem:

- pregleden celoletni proračun za pridelavo točno določene palete pridelkov za vsakotedenško dostavo čez celo leto
- skupen cenovni sistem, v katerem se pridelovalci in potrošniki demokratično dogovorijo glede cen, ki jih sprejmejo s proračunom
- skupinski dogovor o razmerju tveganje – nagrada; potrošniki dobijo pridelke, ki jih kmetje pridelajo, upoštevajoč neugodne razmere.

Potrošniki, ki nastopajo kot posamezniki, družine ali skupine ne plačujejo po sistemu plačila za kg pridelka, pač pa dobijo tedenski izbor in pridelane količine, glede na sezono. Tak način zmanjšuje tržna tveganja in stroške pridelovalcev ter pomeni velik prihranek časa in delovnih ur, ki bi jih porabil za prodajo. Zaradi tega se pridelovalec lahko osredotoči na kakovost pridelka in storitve (dostave). Zmanjšajo se ostanki v sistemu, saj pridelovalci vnaprej vedo za koga in koliko pridelati (Community...., 2007).

Po podatkih organizacije Local Harvest je leta 2005 v ZDA in Kanadi delovalo preko 1.500 takšnih kmetij. (Local..., 2007).

SPIN kmetijstvo

Model SPIN (Small Plot INTensive) kmetijstva so razvili v ZDA, in sicer na kmetiji Somerton Tanks v Filadelfiji (Sullivan, 2006) in na mestnem vrtu Wally's Urban Market Garden, v mestu Saskatoon Saskatchewan SPIN je izrazito tržno usmerjen sistem pridelovanja, predvsem zelenjave, Model je skrbno izdelan skupek izhodišč in procesov in je pravno zaščiten (Spin..., 2007).

Prednosti SPIN kmetijstva so v tem, da omogoča pridelovalcem preoblikovati obstoječe tehnologije pridelovanja v bolj konkurenčno prakso, za katero so značilni nizki kapitalski vložki, okolju prijazne metode pridelovanja, bližina trga in podjetniška načela poslovanja. SPIN kmetijstvo omogoča pridelovanje, ki izpolnjuje potrebe in želje potrošnikov iz mesta in bližnje okolice.

Preglednica 5: Osnovne značilnosti SPIN kmetijstva (prirejeno po Christensen, 2007)

Značilnost	Opis
Majhen obseg zemljišč	Zemljišča, na katerih se odvija tržna pridelava, so manjša kot 0,5 ha. Lahko so v enem ali več kosih. Ni potrebno, da ima kmet na začetku v lasti veliko zemlje, saj ponavadi začne z manjšo količino pridelave.
Načrtno delo	Delo je strogo načrtovano in opravljeno v skladu z načrtom, saj je le tako mogoče doseči, da je vse delo opravljeno kljub velikemu številu dnevnih delovnih operacij.
Kratke in dolge spravilne poti	Spravilne tehnike se razlikujejo glede na dolžino tržnih poti. Pri dolgih spravilnih poteh uporabljajo komercialne tehnike hlajenja, pri kratkih pa ne.
Pridelki višje prodajne vrednosti	Večino zemljišč mora biti namenjenih pridelovanju pridelkov višjih prodajnih vrednosti, najmanj 100 USD na pridelek in gredo.
»Štafetno« pridelovanje	Intenzivno vrstenje pomeni pridelovanje 3 do 4 vrst pridelkov na isti gredi v eni sezoni. Dvojno vrstenje pomeni pridelovanje 2 vrst pridelkov zapored na isti gredi v eni sezoni. Enojno vrstenje pomeni le eno vrsto pridelka na isti gredi v sezoni.
Načrt gredic po načelu 1-2-3	Zemljišča so strukturirana v tri skupine glede na stopnjo intenzivnost vrstenja.
Alokacija zemljišč po načelu 75/25	To načelo določa razmerje med zemljišči, namenjenih pridelovanju pridelkov višje in nižje prodajne vrednosti, s čemer je omogočeno doseganje ciljnih prihodkov in dobičkov ter zagotavljanje likvidnosti.
Organizacija zemljišč	Zemljišča so razdeljena na manjše parcele, ki so široke 2 čevlja ali 60,96 cm (1 čevalj=30,48 cm), kar omogoča rabo motokultivatorja. Na 0,5 ha je tako približno 400 standardiziranih gred, ki vključujejo poti in potrebne dostope. Možne so prilagoditve na tradicionalne, lokalne načine organizacije zemljišč.
Standardizirana velikost grede	Grede so široke dva čevlja oziroma 60,96 cm in dolge 25 čevljev oziroma 762,00 cm (1 čevalj=30,48 cm).

Preglednica 6: Osnovne značilnosti SPIN kmetijstva (prirejeno po Christensen, 2007) (nadaljevanje)

Značilnost	Opis
Ciljni prihodki	S pridelovanjem pridelkov višje prodajne vrednosti (v ZDA več kot 100 USD po rastlini na gredo) in z večkratnim obratom (vsaj trikrat letno) oziroma z intenzivno pridelavo naj bi dosegli ciljnih 300 USD prihodka na gredo na sezono. Ciljni letni prihodek na ha je tako 60.000 USD.
Ekološka pridelava	Tehnologija temelji izključno na ekoloških praksah in zahtevah. Pridelovanje minimalno onesnažuje okolje in je skoraj brez odpadkov.
Pestrost rastlin	Nabor pridelkov je veliko bolj pester kot pri »običajnem« pridelovanju. Nekatere SPIN kmetije pridelujejo v sezoni več kot 100 različnih vrst. Obstajajo pa tudi SPIN kmetije, ki so izrecno specializirane na pridelavo določene rastline.
Podaljševanje sezone ni splošna praksa	Podaljševanje sezone ni običajna praksa, jo pa na nekaterih SPIN kmetijah izvajajo zato, da povečujejo količine in vrste pridelkov ter prihodke.
Neposredno trženje	Nabor pridelkov je prilagojen povpraševanju na lokalnih trgih. Bližina trga zagotavlja neposreden povratni tok informacij in omogoča lojalno in medsebojno povezano skupino potrošnikov.
Pripravljeni paketi pridelkov	Trženjski pristop temelji na sistemu priprave »košare« pridelkov, njihove skupne prodaje in oblikovanja cen »na košaro«.
Komercialne hladilne tehnike	Komercialne hladilne tehnike so nujne, saj hlajenje pridelkov takoj po spravilu ohranja kakovost, ki je osnova za doseganje konkurenčnih cen. Hlajenje omogoča tudi smiselno dinamiko spravila.
Minimalna mehanizacija in infrastruktura	Najpomembnejša kmetijska stroja sta motokultivator in mobilna hladilna enota. Vso ostalo mehanizacijo in orodja je mogoče kupiti v trgovini z vrtinarskimi pripomočki.
Domače delovne moči	Pridelovanje temelji predvsem na domačih delovnih močeh. Potrebe po najetih dodatnih delovnih močeh je minimalna. Veliko je tudi medsosedske pomoči.
Uporaba obstoječih lokalnih vodnih virov	Za zalivanje in namakanje pridelkov so uporabljeni lokalni viri vode.
Nizka kapitalska intenzivnost	Infrastruktura, zagonski in upravljalski stroški so minimalni. Zato se pridelovalci zelo malo ali sploh ne zadolžujejo.

Christensen (2007) navaja tudi številne primere dobre prakse, od skupine žensk z Univerze Minesota, ki so organizirale v samem kampusu manj kot 1 aker (1 aker =

40,467 arov) veliko kmetijo in vsak teden svojim strankam, glede na njihova elektronska naročila, prodajo pridelke, ki so na voljo, pa do centra za ostarele emigrante v kanadskem mestu Edmonton, Alberta, kjer SPIN uporabljajo pri njihovem usposabljanju na področju mestnega kmetijstva.

SKLEPI

V mestih, tudi metropolah, industrijsko razvitih državah postaja mestno kmetijstvo vse bolj pomembna sestavina njihovega trajnostnega razvoja. Ne gre torej za nostalgijo ali »nemestne« navade priseljencev z ruralnih območij, temveč za sistem potreb mješčanov, ki jih generira življenje v mestu samo. Da je teh potreb veliko in da so zelo pestre kažejo tudi zelo različne oblike in modelih, v katerih se mestno kmetijstvo pojavlja: od rekreativnih vrtičkov do pravih, komercialno usmerjenih podjetniških praks. Za razvoj mestnega kmetijstva je ključni vzvod taka regulativa s strani mestnih oblasti, ki bo uspela tradicionalno samoiniciativno in samoragulatorsko kulturo vrtičkarjev produktivno soočiti s celovito razvojno paradigmom mesta. To pa je mogoče doseči le z participativnim odločanjem, ki je podprtlo s participativnim raziskovanjem.

SUMMARY

Urban agriculture becomes more and more important element of sustainable development of the towns/cities and metropolis in the developed industrial countries. It is not a matter of nostalgia or “non-urban” habits of immigrants from rural areas, but a matter of the needs of townspeople, which are generated by city life itself. Variety of types and models of urban agriculture, from recreative gardens to market oriented business practices, shows that these needs are numerous and quite different. The key factor of further development of urban agriculture is municipal regulation that will be able to interlace productively the traditionally self-initiatives and self-regulations of the city gardeners with the holistic development paradigm of the city. This might be attained by participatory decision-making that is backed by participatory research.

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Agrovoc descriptors: biological control, natural enemies, beneficial organisms, biological control agents, insect nematodes, nematoda, thysanoptera, thrips (genus)

Agris category codes: H10

Univerza v Ljubljani
Biotehniška fakulteta
Oddelek za agronomijo

COBISS koda 1.02

Entomopatogene in entomofilne ogorčice – naravni sovražniki resarjev (Thysanoptera)

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Delo je prispelo 22. decembra 2006, sprejeto 16. oktobra 2007.

Received December 22, 2006; accepted October 16, 2007.

IZVLEČEK

V prispevku so predstavljeni rezultati dosedanjih raziskav delovanja entomopatogenih ogorčic na gospodarsko škodljive resarje (zlasti na vrsto *Frankliniella occidentalis*) in doslej v resarjih ugotovljene vrste entomofilnih (parazitskih) ogorčic (rod *Thripinema*). Zlasti entomopatogene ogorčice bodo v bližnji prihodnosti najverjetneje delno nadomestile insekticide pri zatiranju resarjev in drugih rastlinskih škodljivcev, medtem ko bo potreben mehanizem delovanja in bionomijo entomofilnih ogorčic za njihovo učinkovitejšo rabo pri zatiranju resarjev v prihodnosti še natančneje preučiti.

Ključne besede: entomopatogene ogorčice, entomofilne ogorčice, parazitske ogorčice, resarji, Thysanoptera, biotično varstvo rastlin

ABSTRACT

ENTOMOPATHOGENIC AND ENTOMOPHILIC NEMATODES - NATURAL ENEMIES OF THRIPS (THYSANOPTERA)

The results of previous research on activity of entomopathogenic nematodes against harmful Thysanoptera species (particularly against *Frankliniella occidentalis*) and so far recorded entomophilic (parasitic) nematodes (*Thripinema* genus) in the body of thrips are presented in the paper. The most probably in the near future entomopathogenic nematodes will partly substitute the insecticides in controlling thrips and other plant pests. The investigation on the mode of action and the bionomics of entomophilic nematodes will be required to improve their activity in controlling thrips.

Key words: entomopathogenic nematodes, entomophilic nematodes, parasitic nematodes, thrips, Thysanoptera, biological control

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1 UVOD

Resarji (Thysanoptera) so na različnih območjih sveta pomembni škodljivci gojenih rastlin. Škodljivi so tako na prostem kot v zavarovanih prostorih, s sesanjem rastlinskega soka pa na nadzemskih delih gostiteljev povzročajo srebrenje listov in cvetov, zvijanje listov ali brazgotinavost plodov. Ob masovnem pojavu lahko resarji vplivajo tudi na odpadanje nadzemskih organov rastlin (Childers, 1997). Resarji so edini prenašalci rastlinam škodljivih virusov iz rodu *Tospovirus*, med katerimi po razširjenosti in gospodarskem pomenu izstopa virus tomato spotted wilt (Kegler et al., 1993). Do nedavno je varstvo rastlin pred resarji temeljilo zlasti na uporabi insekticidov; večkrat pretirana ali drugače neustrezna raba tovrstnih pripravkov pa je na različnih območjih sveta vplivala na pojav rezistence resarjev na nekatere aktivne snovi (Herron and James, 2005).

Biotično varstvo rastlin pred omenjenimi škodljivci pridobiva večji pomen v zadnjem obdobju. Prvotni načini biotičnega zatiranja resarjev so temeljili predvsem na uporabi predatorskih pršic (Acarina: Phytoseiidae in Hypoaspididae) in predatorskih stenic (Heteroptera: Anthocoridae) (Brødsgaard, 2004; Shipp in Ramakers, 2004), vendar pa se ti postopki niso pokazali za dovolj učinkovite (Jacobson, 1997; Castañè et al., 1999). Uporaba entomopatogenih ogorčic (EPO), kot načina biotičnega varstva rastlin pred škodljivimi žuželkami, je dobro znana (Kaya in Gaugler, 1993; Helyer et al., 1995). EPO živijo v sožitju z bakterijami, ki jih ogorčice po vstopu v žrtev sprostijo v hemolimfo gostitelja (Gaugler, 2002). Le infektivne ličinke (IL), ki v posebnih črevesnih veziklih prenašajo simbiotske bakterije, lahko vstopijo v gostitelje (Kaya, 2000). Takšne žuželke navadno umrejo zaradi zastrupitve ali odpovedi nekaterih organov v obdobju od 24 do 72 ur (Smart, 1995; Forst in Clarke, 2002). V nekaterih raziskavah so EPO potrdili za učinkovite biotične agense pup (bab) cvetličnega resarja (*Frankliniella occidentalis* [Pergande]) (Heyler et al., 1995; Ebssa et al., 2001b; Premachandra et al. 2003a). V zadnjih letih strokovnjaki intenzivno preučujejo načine foliarne aplikacije suspenzije EPO z napravami za nanos fitofarmacevtskih sredstev. V tej zvezi je bila doslej za zatiranje nadzemskih stadijev resarjev najbolj intenzivno preučevana ogorčica *Steinernema fetiae* (Filipjev) (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae) (Lello et al., 1996).

Za entomofilne ali (entomo)parazitske ogorčice iz rodu *Thripinema* (Tylenchida: Allantonematidae) je bilo dokazano, da lahko parazitirajo več vrst resarjev (Sharga, 1932; Nickle in Wood, 1964; Wilson in Cooley, 1972; Reddy et al., 1982; Greene in Parrella, 1993; Tipping et al., 1998). Omenjene ogorčice so obligatni paraziti, ki povzročajo sterilnost napadenih resarjev, ne povzročijo pa njihove hitre smrti. Zato niso neposredno uporabne v biotičnem varstvu rastlin pred resarji (Nickle in Wood, 1964; Reddy et al., 1982; Greene in Parrella, 1993). Znanih je več vrst entomoparazitskih ogorčic resarjev, med učinkovitejše pa štejemo vrste *Thripinema nicklewoodi* (Siddiqi), *T. khrustalevi* (Chizov et al.), *T. fuscum* Tipping & Nguyen, *T. reniraoi* (Reddy, Nickle & Rao) in *T. aptini* (Sharga) (Stavisky et al., 2001). Razumevanje njihove bionomije in delovanja na resarje je zaenkrat tudi v strokovnih krogih bolj skromno (Lim et al., 2001).

2 ENTOMOPATOGENE OGORČICE

2.1 Cvetlični resar (*Frankliniella occidentalis* [Pergande])

Cvetlični resar, ki je bil v Evropo vnesen v začetku 80-ih letih prejšnjega stoletja, se je v slabem desetletju razširil po vsej Stari celini. Kot značilna toploljubna žuželka je danes v večini evropskih držav razširjen zlasti v zavarovanih prostorih, kjer je neposredno (sesanje) ali posredno (prenos tospovirusov) škodljiv zlasti na vrtninah in okrasnih rastlinah (Kirk and Terry, 2003). Zaradi majhnosti, prikritega načina življenja in polifagnosti je zatiranje cvetličnega resarja, ki je bil v preteklih letih tudi v Sloveniji načrtno preučevan (Trdan in Milevoj, 2000), zelo zahtevno (Ullio, 2002). Uporaba EPO (Rhabditida: Steinernematidae in Heterorhabditidae) za zatiranje resarjev v nekaterih evropskih državah vse bolj pridobiva na pomenu (Gutierrez et al., 2005; Kaya et al., 2006). Prve raziskave teh biotičnih agensov za zatiranje resarjev na Stari celini so stare približno desetletje.

Že leta 1996 so v Izraelu preučevali učinkovitost različnih vrst EPO proti prepupam in pupam istega škodljivca, in sicer ogorčic *S. riobravis*, *S. feltiae* in *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora*. Najboljše delovanje je pokazala vrsta *H. bacteriophora* (36-49% smrtnost resarjev), medtem ko sta bili ogorčici iz rodu *Steinernema* precej manj učinkoviti (okrog 10% učinkovitost). Pri višji koncentraciji suspenzije (10000 IL/ml) vrste *H. bacteriophora* je bila smrtnost cvetličnega resarja precej višja (41,8-73,4%) kot pri nižji koncentraciji (500 IL/ml), kjer je bila ta med 35 in 50%. Za vse tri vrste ogorčic so izračunali tudi vrednosti LC₅₀; te so znašale za vrsto *H. bacteriophora* 143 IL, za vrsto *S. feltiae* 182 IL in za vrsto *S. riobravis* 262 IL/cm² talnega površja (Chyzik et al., 1996).

Leta 2001 je Ebssa s sodelavci v laboratorijskih razmerah preučeval učinkovitost šestih ras EPO za zatiranje resarja *F. occidentalis*. V poskus so bile vključene rase *H. bacteriophora* HK3, *H. bacteriophora* HB Brecan, *S. feltiae* Sylt, *S. feltiae* OBSIII, *S. feltiae* CR ter *S. carpocapsae* DD136. Vse rase so se izkazale kot zelo učinkovite za zatiranje talnih stadijev škodljivca. Najbolj virulentne so bile rase *S. feltiae* Sylt, *S. carpocapsae* DD136 in *H. bacteriophora* HK3. Rasa *S. feltiae* OBSIII je bila najbolj virulentna za drugi stadij ličink in prepupe v nadpovprečno vlažnih talnih razmerah, njena učinkovitost pa je bila precej slabša v suhih tleh (Ebssa et al., 2001a). Pri koncentraciji suspenzije 400 IL/cm² je bila dosežena do 60% smrtnost škodljivca, zadovoljiv odstotek smrtnosti (30-50%) pa je bil dosežen tudi pri nižjih koncentracijah suspenzije (100-200 IL/cm²) (Ebssa et al., 2001a).

Omenjene raziskovalce je zanimal tudi morebiten sinergizem EPO in plenilske pršice *Hypoaspis aculeifer* (Canestrini) (Acarina: Laelapidae) pri zatiranju talnih razvojnih stadijev cvetličnega resarja. Pri tem so v poskus vključili iste vrste EPO (Ebssa et al., 2001a). Ugotovili so, da se je odstotek smrtnosti škodljivca (~80%) znatno povečal, če so ob sočasni aplikaciji suspenzije ogorčic s koncentracijo 400 IL/cm² in 2800 pršic/m² tretirali talne razvojne stadije resarja. To odkritje nedvomno odpira nekatere nove možnosti biotičnega zatiranja škodljivca (Ebssa, 2005). Enak poskus je bil ponovljen tudi naslednje leto, a rezultati niso signifikantno odstopali od rezultatov prvega (Premachandra et al., 2003b).

V sorodni laboratorijski raziskavi so preučevali učinkovitost ogorčic *S. arenarium* Anomali, *S. carpocapsae* DD136, *S. carpocapsae* Agriotos, *S. feltiae* Sylt, *S. feltiae* Hybrid 1, *Steinernema* sp. Marocco, *H. bacteriophora* HD01, *H. bacteriophora* HK3 in *H. bacteriophora* Hybrid 2. Najbolj učinkoviti sta bili rasi *S. feltiae* Sylt in *H. bacteriophora* HD01, ki sta povzročili 65 oz. 59% smrtnost ličink cvetličnega resarja. Rasi *S. carpocapsae* Agriotos in *S. arenarium* Anomali sta bili s 40 oz. 45% učinkovotostjo zadovoljivo uspešni. Ostale rase se v poskusu niso signifikantno razlikovale od kontrole. Učinkovitost omenjenih ogorčic je bila boljša pri koncentracijah višjih od 400 IL/cm², ugotovili pa so tudi, da lahko rasi *H. bacteriophora* HK3 in *S. feltiae* Sylt v tleh preživita najmanj 6 dni - v tem obdobju lahko IL vstopijo v talne razvojne stadije škodljivca (Premachandra, 2003a).

Delovanje ras *S. carpocapsae* DD136 in *H. bacteriophora* HK3 na starejše ličinke cvetličnega resarja so preučevali pri dveh koncentracijah suspenzije ogorčic, 200 in 400 IL/cm². Ogorčice iz rodu *Heterorhabditis* so je izkazala za bolj učinkovite (76% stopnja smrtnosti ličink), medtem, ko je bil soj iz rodu *Steinernema* manj učinkovit (37% stopnja smrtnosti ličink) (Belay et al., 2005). Rezultati raziskave so potrdili dejstvo, da so za zatiranje cvetličnega resarja precej bolj učinkovite vrste iz rodu *Heterorhabditis* kot ogorčice iz rodu *Steinernema* (Chyzik et al., 1996; Premachandra et al., 2003a).

Pomembno odkritje je sledilo leta 2004, ko so preučevali učinkovitost ogorčic *S. bicornutum* in *H. indica*, v odvisnosti od globine talnih razvojnih stadijev cvetličnega resarja in koncentracije suspenzije ogorčic (100 in 400 IL/cm²). Za vrsto *S. bicornutum* so ugotovili, da je, ne glede na koncentracijo suspenzije ogorčic, mnogo bolj učinkovita do globine 3 cm kot pa v plasti od 3 do 5 cm (57 oz. 5%). Globina ni imela vpliva na učinkovitost ogorčic *H. indica*, vendar pa je bila dosežena zadovoljiva stopnja učinkovitosti v globlji plasti le pri višji koncentraciji suspenzije. Kar 80% ličink resarja se je nahajalo v nižji plasti tal, zato so avtorji sklepali, da je globina, kjer se nahajajo ličinke, zelo pomemben dejavnik pri zatiranju cvetličnega resarja z EPO (Ebbsa et al., 2004c).

Poleg omenjenih laboratorijskih poskusov je Ebbsa (2001ab) preučeval tudi učinkovitost EPO za zatiranje vrste *F. occidentalis* v poljskih razmerah, in sicer na fižolu. V poskus so bile vključene ogorčice *S. feltiae*, *S. carpocapsae* DD136 in *H. bacteriophora* HK3. Pri koncentraciji suspenzije 1000 IL/cm² tal je bila številčnost obravnavanega škodljivca zmanjšana za 70% (Ebbsa, 2005). Rezultati tega poskusa so bili med prvimi, ki so nakazovali na možnost foliarnega zatiranja škodljivca, kar je bilo dotelej le predmet razprav (Ebbsa et al., 2001ab; Premachandra, 2003a).

Dosedanji poskusi foliarnega zatiranja rastlinskih škodljivcev z EPO so bili z nekaj svetlimi izjemami načeloma manj uspešni od tistih, kjer je bilo zatiranje usmerjeno na talne razvojne stadije (Shapiro-Ilan et al., 2006). Uporaba omenjenih agensov v biotičnem varstvu rastlin je bila do pred nekaj leti tradicionalno vezana na zatiranje talnih škodljivcev (Hazir et al., 2004). Rezultati raziskav v zadnjih dveh desetletjih pa kažejo na njihov potencial tudi pri zatiranju nadzemskih škodljivcev, vendar le pod določenimi pogoji (Begley, 1990; Arthurs et al., 2004). Slabša učinkovitost

EPO pri zatiranju nadzemskih stadijev škodljivcev je predvsem posledica neustrezne (prenizke) vlage (Lello et al., 1996), izpostavljenosti temperaturnim ekstremom (Grewal et al., 1994a) in ultravijoličnemu sevanju (Gaugler in Boush, 1978; Gaugler et al., 1992a). Ti dejavniki so namreč ključni za preživetje ogorčic (Gaugler, 2002). Zato ogorčice slabše delujejo na nadzemski škodljivci na prostem, čeprav predhodni laboratorijski testi pokažejo precej večjo učinkovitost (Berry in Lewis, 1993). Zatiranje resarjev na nadzemskih delih rastlin, to je njihovih ličink in odraslih osebkov, je bilo doslej relativno slabo preučevano, vendar se število takšnih raziskav v zadnjih letih povečuje (Wardlow et al., 2001; Benninson et al., 1998; Buitenhuis in Shipp, 2005; Tomalak et al., 2005).

Leta 2003 so ugotavljali vpliv temperature na učinkovitost EPO pri iskanju gostiteljev in s tem tudi na njihovo stopnjo smrtnosti. Znano je namreč, da imajo ti biotični agensi različne strategije iskanja njihovih žrtev (Koppenhöfer et al., 1996). Tako poznamo strategijo »sedi in čakaj« (angl. »sit and wait«) in njej nasprotno »hodi in isči« (angl. »walk and search«). V poskus sta bili vključeni vrsti *H. indica* in *S. bicornutum*. Prva se je najbolj izkazala pri 25°C. Pri koncentraciji suspenzije 400 IL/cm² je bila njena učinkovitost kar 84%, medtem ko je bila ta pri najnižji koncentraciji (100 IL/cm²) le 49 %. Za omenjeno vrsto je znano, da izhaja iz tropov in ji ustrezajo nekoliko višje temperature. Zato ni bilo presenetljivo, da je ogorčica tudi pri 30°C in koncentraciji suspenzije 400 IL/cm² vplivala na 77% smrtnost talnih razvojnih stadijev cvetličnega resarja. Zadovoljivo učinkovitost (36%) je ista vrsta pri tako visoki temperaturi pokazala tudi pri nižji koncentraciji (100 IL/cm²) (Ebssa et al., 2003). Vrsta *S. bicornutum*, za katero je znano, da ima večjo stopnjo infektivnosti pri nekoliko nižjih temperaturah (Griffin, 1993; Glazer, 2002), se je najbolj izkazala pri 25°C in koncentraciji 400 IL/cm²). V takšnih razmerah je bila smrtnosti resarja 47%. Pri 20°C in enaki koncentraciji suspenzije ogorčice je bila smrtnost škodljivca nekoliko manjša, in sicer 34%. Pri 30 ter 35°C in enaki koncentraciji je bila učinkovitost biotičnega agensa primerljiva s kontrolo (Ebssa s sod, 2003; Ebssa, 2005). Podobne rezultate so ugotovili tudi pri nižji koncentraciji suspenzije (100 IL/cm²), saj je bila ogorčica najbolj učinkovita pri 25°C (39%), medtem ko se pri ostalih temperaturah (20, 30 in 35°C) njeno delovanje ni razlikovalo od kontrole (Ebssa et al., 2003). Vzrok za manjšo učinkovitost vrste *H. indica* pri 20°C so pripisali dejству, da je ogorčica pri tej temperaturi manj mobilna in ima zato manjšo sposobnost infektivnosti kot pri višjih temperaturah (Ebssa, 2005).

Pomemben dejavnik učinkovitosti EPO je tudi stopnja nasičenosti tal z vodo (Molyneus in Bedding, 1984; Koppenhöfer et al., 1995; Fujii et al., 1996; Grant in Villani, 2003). V enem od poskusov so žeeli preučiti vpliv različnih stopenj (67, 78, 88 in 95%) nasičenosti tal z vodo in različnih koncentracij suspenzije ogorčic (100 in 400 IL/cm²) na učinkovitost ogorčic *H. indica* in *S. bicornutum* pri zatiranju cvetličnega resarja. Ugotovili so, da je bila ogorčica *S. bicornutum* bolj učinkovita pri obeh koncentracijah, če je bila nasičenost tal z vodo večja (Ebssa et al., 2004b). Vrsta *H. indica* je pokazala pri višji stopnji zasičenosti tal z vodo boljše delovanje pri nižji koncentraciji. Najboljše delovanje ogorčic so ugotovili pri 88% stopnji zasičenosti tal z vodo, kjer so pri nižji koncentraciji vplivale na 44% smrtnost škodljivca, pri višji koncentraciji pa na njegovo 60% smrtnost (Ebssa et al., 2004b).

Pri večji nasičenosti tal z vodo je ogorčica *H. indica* bolj mobilna (Ebbsa, 2005) in kot takšna lažje doseže svoje žrtve (Ehlers, 2001). Pri manj mobilni vrsti *S. bicornutum* (Gaugler, 2002) lahko večja stopnja zasičenosti tal z vodo vpliva na migracijo ogorčic v globlje plasti tal (Ebssa et al., 2004b). To dejstvo lahko pojasni slabšo učinkovitost vrste *S. bicornutum* pri nižji koncentraciji. Pri večji koncentraciji suspenzije ogorčic bi bila njihova aktivnost v smislu zatiranja talnih razvojnih stadijev cvetličnega resarja večja predvsem zaradi njihove enakomernejše razporeditve po različnih globinah (Ebssa, 2005).

Buitenhuis in Shipp (2005) sta opravila poskus zatiranja cvetličnega resarja na krizantemah v rastlinjaku z EPO *S. feltiae*. Ugotovila sta, da je stopnja smrtnosti škodljivca pri koncentracijah suspenzije ogorčic nad 20000 IL/ml le od 28 do 37%, pri čemer sta bila najbolj občutljiva razvojna stadija prepupa (predbuba) in pupa (buba).

Delovanje različnih vrst EPO na ličinke cvetličnega resarja so v laboratorijskih razmerah preučevali tudi v Sloveniji (Perme, 2005). V poskus so bile vključene vrste *H. bacteriophora*, *H. megidis*, *S. carpocapsae* in *S. feltiae*, njihovo aktivnost pa so preučevali pri treh koncentracijah suspenzije (500, 1000 in 5000 IL/ml), treh temperaturah (15, 20 in 25°C). Najbolj učinkovita vrsta je bila *H. bacteriophora*, ki je peti dan po aplikaciji vplivala na 84% smrtnost ličink škodljivca. Rezultati so potrdili znano dejstvo, da so za zatiranje cvetličnega resarja bolj učinkovite vrste iz rodu *Heterorhabditis* (Chyzik et al., 1996; Premachandra et al., 2003a). Pri najvišji koncentraciji suspenzije sta bili najbolj učinkoviti ogorčici *H. bacteriophora* (92%) in *H. megidis* (71%), pri najnižji pa *S. carpocapsae* (90%) in *S. feltiae* (82%). S temi rezultati so potrdili znano dejstvo, da je aktivnost ogorčic bolj odvisna od temperature kot od koncentracije, saj so bile vse tri vrste ogorčic bolj učinkovite pri 25°C kot pri nižjih temperaturah. Vrsti iz rodu *Steinerinema* sta pokazali dovolj visoko stopnjo učinkovitosti pri nižjih koncentracijah, kar predstavlja prednost v biotičnem zatiranju škodljivca z EPO v povezavi z manjšimi stroški njihove uporabe (Perme, 2005).

2.2 Resarja *Hercinothrips femoralis* (Reuter) in *Thrips palmi* Karny

V Sloveniji so potekale tudi raziskave ugotavljanja učinkovitosti EPO *S. feltiae* in *H. bacteriophora* za zatiranje resarja *Hercinothrips femoralis*. Pri foliarni aplikaciji suspenzije s koncentracijo 1000 IL/ml ali 200 IL/osebek sta bili obe vrsti relativno učinkoviti pri zatiranju ličink in odraslih osebkov resarja, pri čemer sta bolj uspešno zatrli ličinke. Obe vrsti ogorčic sta največjo učinkovitost dosegli pri 25°C, neodvisno od temperature in vrste ogorčic pa je bila povprečna korigirana smrtnost pri ličinkah 37,7%, pri odraslih osebkih pa le 15,4%. Med učinkovitostjo obeh vrst EPO ni bilo signifikantnih razlik (Kužnik, 2006). Glede na rezultate predhodnih raziskav (Chyzik et al., 1996; Premachandra et al., 2003b) je avtor pričakoval različno učinkovitost obeh biotičnih agensov pri zatiranju resarja. Nepričakovano slabšo učinkovitost vrste *H. bacteriophora* pa lahko v tem poskusu pripisemo specifičnemu soju preučevane ogorčice. Iste vrste EPO namreč izolirajo na različnih območjih sveta (Ebssa, 2005), rezultati številnih raziskav pa kažejo, da se različni izolati istih vrst ogorčic med seboj zelo razlikujejo v učinkovitosti za zatiranje

rastlinskih škodljivcev (Premachandra 2003b; Ebssa, 2005). Chyzik in sod. (1996) so med drugim ugotovili, da je ogorčica *H. bacteriophora* soj HP88 zelo učinkovita pri zatiranju resarjev, medtem ko je drug soj (ISS) iste vrste precej slabše učinkovit. Podobne rezultate kažejo tudi nekatere druge raziskave (Premachandra 2003b; Ebssa, 2005). Rezultati sorodne raziskave, kjer so preučevali učinkovitost vrste *S. feltiae* za zatiranje ličink resarja *Thrips palmi* Karny so pokazali, da je bil preučevani biotični agens učinkovit zlasti pri zatiranju ličink škodljivca (North et al., 2006).

3 ENTOMOFILNE ALI (ENTOMO)PARAZITSKE OGORČICE

Te ogorčice so bile prvič najdene v Evropi (Uzel, 1895) in Severni Ameriki (Russell, 1912), vendar tedaj nobene vrste niso natančno opisali. Šele Sharga (1932) je opisal prvo vrsto in jo poimenoval z *Tylenchus aptini*, saj jo je našel v resarju *Aptinothrips rufus* (Haliday). Lysaght (1937) je za isto vrsto predlagal znanstveno ime *Anguillulina aptini*. Wachek (1955) je vrsto nadalje uvrstil v rod *Howardula*. Nickle in Wood (1964) sta poročala, da je vrsta *Howardula aptini* parazitirala resarja *Frankliniella vaccinii* Morgan in resarja *Taeniothrips vaccinophilus* Hood.

Siddiqi (1986) je rod preimenoval v *Thripinema*, s tem pa je preimenoval vrste, ki so jih pred njim že opisali Sharga (1932), Nickle in Wood (1964) ter Reddy et al. (1982) kot *T. aptini*, *T. nicklewoodi* in *T. reniraoi*. Chizov in sodelavci (1995) so opisali vrsto *Thripinema khrustalevi*, ki so jo našli v resarjih *Thrips trehernei* Prisner in *T. physapus* Linnaeus. Leta 1998 so Tipping in sodelavci opisali ogorčico *T. fuscum*, ki so jo našli v resarju *Frankliniella fusca* Hinds na kikirikiju. Teulon in sodelavci (1997) so poročali o najdbi dotedaj neznane vrste iz rodu *Thripinema*, ki jo je našel v resarju *Thrips obscuratus* Crawford na Novi Zelandiji. Trenutno je znanih osem vrst resarjev, ki so gostitelji ogorčic iz roda *Thripinema*; *Aptinothrips rufus* (Haliday) (Sharga, 1932), *Frankliniella vaccinii* Morgan in *Taeniothrips vaceinoptilus* Hood (Nickle in Wood, 1964), *F. occidentalis* (Wilson in Cooley, 1972), *Megalurothrips* spp. (Reddy et al., 1982), *Microcephalothrips abdominalis* (Crawford), *F. schultzei* (Trybom) (Varatharajan, 1985) in *Thrips obscuratus* Crawford (Teulon et al., 1997).

3.1 *Thripinema nicklewoodi* (Siddiqi)

Entomoparazitska vrsta *Thripinema nicklewoodi* je bila prvič opisana leta 1964 (Siddiqi, 1986). Green in Parrella (1993) sta poročala, da je bilo med vzorčenimi populacijami cvetličnega resarja v Kaliforniji z entomoparazitsko ogorčico *T. nicklewoodi* parazitiranih od 19 do 33% nabranih osebkov. Lim in Van Driesche (2005) sta s poskusom želeta dokazati, da lahko vrsta *T. nicklewoodi*, ki je obligativni parazit resarja *F. occidentalis*, parazitira tudi nekatere druge vrste resarjev. V poskus sta vključila vrste *Thrips tabaci* Lindeman, *Heliothrips haemorrhoidalis* (Bouché) in *Franklinothrips orizabensis* Johansen. Le tobakov resar se je izkazal za primernega gostitelja ogorčice *T. nicklewoodi*, saj se stopnja njegovega parazitiranja ni signifikantno razlikovala od stopnje parazitiranja kontrolnega vzorca, to je vrste *F. occidentalis*.

Rezultati preteklih študij so kazali, da omenjena entomoparazitska ogorčica parazitira le samice resarjev (Wilson in Cooley, 1972; Varatharajan, 1985; Greene in Parrella, 1993; Teulon et al., 1997). Lim in sodelavci (2001) pa so prvi dokazali, da lahko omenjene ogorčice napadejo tudi samce cvetličnega resarja, in to celo v večjem številu kot samice. Največji odstotek parazitiranosti so avtorji ugotovili pri resarjevih ličinkah drugega stadija (70%), predbubah (63%) in ličinkah prvega stadija (63%). Raziskava je tudi dokazala, da je izločanje ogorčic iz napadenih resarjev stalno, število novo napadenih resarjev pa se povečuje (Lim et al., 2001). Skoraj vse ogorčice, ki so vstopile v gostitelje, so bile samice (Lim et al., 2001; Mason in Heinz, 2002), kar nakazuje na to, da se ogorčice parijo preden vstopijo v gostitelja (Lim et al., 2001). Več entomoparazitskih ogorčic je bilo najdenih v odraslih samicah resarjev, predvsem na račun velikosti samic, ki so večje od samcev. Ugotovljeno je tudi bilo, da ogorčice, ki parazitirajo odrasle osebke resarjev, v večji meri vplivajo na zmanjšanje preživetja obeh spolov njihovih žrtev, v primerjavi s parazitiranjem mlajših stadijev. Znano je, da se okuženi samci resarjev manj intenzivno hranijo kot okužene samic (Van de Wetering et al., 1998) in zato ogorčice hitreje izčrpajo prav samce, s čimer pomembneje vplivajo na dolžino njihove življenske dobe. Življenska doba zdravih (76 dni) in parazitiranih (46 dni) samic cvetličnega resarja je zato pri 24°C precej daljša kot pri zdravih (33 dni) in okuženih samicih (21 dni) (Lim et al., 2001).

Arthurs in sodelavci (2003) poročajo o podobnih rezultatih delovanja ogorčice *T. nicklewoodi* kot je bilo ugotovljeno v predhodnih raziskavah (Lim et al., 2001; Mason in Heinz, 2002). Pomembno odkritje njihove raziskave pa je bilo, da je bila učinkovitost parazitiranja (60%) cvetličnega resarja s strani omenjene ogorčice v rastlinjaku najboljša pri 15°C, s povečevanjem temperature pa se je njena aktivnost manjšala (pri 30°C je bila le še 15%). Temperatura 15°C je v rastlinjakih na območju, kjer je potekala pričujoča raziskava, okvirno v sredini marca, in to naj bi bilo obdobje, ko bi bilo ustrezno parazitirane resarje naseliti v rastlinjake (Arthurs et al., 2003). Sorodna študija je pokazala zadovoljivo učinkovitost ogorčice *T. nicklewoodi* že pri 10°C (Katayama, 1997), kar nakazuje, da bi s tovrstnim biotičnim zatiranjem cvetličnega resarja v rastlinjakih lahko začeli že zgodaj spomladisi. Ko bi se temperatura zraka zvišala, bi lahko v program biotičnega varstva vključili EPO, za večino katerih je znano, da so najbolj učinkovite v temperaturnem območju med 20 in 25°C (Arthurs in Heinz, 2006).

3.2 *Thripinema fuscum* Tipping & Nguyen

Ta entomoparazitska ogorčica je bila najdena šele leta 1995 v resarju *Frankliniella fusca* (Hinds). Dosedanje raziskave so pokazale, da ogorčica parazitira oba spola omenjenega resarja. Samice ogorčic vstopajo v žrtev skozi intersegmentalne membrane gostitelja. Po vstopu v gostitelja ogorčica nabrekne, kar je značilno za ogorčice iz roda *Thripinema* (Tipping et al., 1998). V posameznem gostitelju lahko najdemo tudi do 200 ogorčic (Tipping et al., 1998). Dokazano je bilo, da je lahko ob veliki številnosti ogorčic v okolju parazitiranih več kot 80% resarjev (Funderburk et al., 2002). Za vrsto *T. fuscum* je bilo ugotovljeno, da lahko parazitira tudi resarja *F. occidentalis* in *F. tritici* (Fitch) (Stavisky et al., 2001).

Ko so Lim in sodelavci (2001) dokazali, da vrsta *T. nicklewoodi* najlažje parazitira mlajše razvojne stadije cvetličnega resarja, so do podobnih sklepov z vrsto *T. fuscum* v istem škodljivcu prišli tudi Funderburk in sodelavci (2002). Resar *F. fusca* je bil s slednjo ogorčico najmočneje (63%) okužen med majem in avgustom. Z zmanjševanjem številčnosti populacije resarja *F. fusca* zaradi parazitske ogorčice *T. fuscum* se zmanjuje tudi okužba z virusom tomato spotted wilt, ki ga omenjeni resar sicer prenaša (Funderburk et al., 2002). Loomans in sodelavci (1997) poročajo, da takšen parazitizem samic *F. fusca* vpliva na njihovo manjšo produkcijo jajčec, s tem pa se zmanjša tudi številčnost populacije resarja.

3.3 *Thripinema khrustalevi* (Chizov et al.)

Za to entomoparazitsko ogorčico je bilo ugotovljeno, da parazitira resarja *Frankliniella australis* (Morgan). Raziskave so pokazale, da je parazitiranost resarjevih samic (84%) večja od parazitiranosti samcev (60%). Stopnja parazitiranosti resarjev je bila večja v toplejšem obdobju leta. Doslej še ni bilo ugotovljeno, da bi omenjena ogorčica parazitirala drugih vrst resarjev. Parazitirane samice imajo v primerjavi z neparazitiranimi manjše ovarije in ne morejo proizvajati jajčec (Funderburk et al., 2002).

4 ZAKLJUČKI

Entomopatogene in entomofilne ali (entomo)parazitske ogorčice predstavljajo potencial za uporabo v biotičnem zatiranju resarjev na različnih območjih sveta. Pričakujemo, da bo njihov pomen v rastlinski pridelavi v Sloveniji v prihodnjih letih večji kot je danes, ko podatkov o zastopanosti parazitskih ogorčic še nimamo, domače raziskave EPO pa so bile doslej vezane le na laboratorijsko delo, saj imajo ti agensi pri naš še vedno status tujerodnih organizmov. Zlasti zadovoljivo delovanje EPO - večino pomembnejših raziskav povzema ta prispevek – nas navdaja z realno željo, da bodo že v bližnji prihodnosti za zatiranje resarjev in drugih rastlinskih škodljivcev uporabljene tudi v Sloveniji.

Entomoparazitske ogorčice bodo v prihodnosti zagotovo v večji meri podvržene temeljnim raziskavam, z namenom, da bi bolj natančno spoznali njihov mehanizem delovanja in bionomijo, s čimer bi jih bilo mogoče v večji meri kot doslej vključiti v okolju sprejemljive sisteme zatiranja rastlinskih škodljivcev. S prihodnjim preučevanjem in uporabo obeh skupin biotičnih agensov pa želimo prispevali k okolju prijaznejši pridelavi živeža v Sloveniji.

5 ZAHVALA

Prispevek je nastal s finančno pomočjo Ministrstva za visoko šolstvo, znanost in tehnologijo in Ministrstva za kmetijstvo, gozdarstvo in prehrano v okviru projektov L4-6477-0481-04 in Hortikultura P4-0013-0481.

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Agrovoc descriptors: biological control, natural enemies, beneficial organisms, biological control agents, foliar application, insect nematodes, nematoda, cruciferae

Agris category codes: H10

Univerza v Ljubljani
Biotehniška fakulteta
Oddelek za agronomijo

COBISS koda 1.02

Entomopatogene ogorčice, naravni sovražniki nadzemskih škodljivcev kapusnic

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Delo je prispelo 26. oktobra 2006, sprejeto 16. oktobra 2007.
Received October 26, 2006; accepted October 16, 2007.

IZVLEČEK

V prispevku je predstavljen pomen, način delovanja in razvojni krog entomopatogenih ogorčic, ki so v svetu pomembni naravni sovražniki talnih in nadzemskih škodljivcev. Poseben poudarek je namenjen dosedanji uporabi entomopatogenih ogorčic pri zatiranju nadzemskih škodljivcev kapusnic; vrst *Delia radicum*, *Plutella xylostella*, *Pieris brassicae*, *Mamestra brassicae* in *Phyllotreta* spp. V prispevku je predstavljena foliarna aplikacija ogorčic, z namenom njihovega hitrejšega in učinkovitejšega delovanja na ciljne organizme.

Ključne besede: entomopatogene ogorčice, kapusnice, foliarna aplikacija, škodljive žuželke, način delovanja, razvojni krog

ABSTRACT

ENTOMOPATHOGENIC NEMATODES, NATURAL ENEMIES OF FOLIAR PESTS OF VEGETABLE BRASSICAS

Significance, mode of action and developmental cycle of entomopathogenic nematodes, which are important natural enemies of soil and foliar pests around the world, are presented. Special emphasis is given to previous use of entomopathogenic nematodes against foliar pests of vegetable Brassicas, such as *Delia radicum*, *Plutella xylostella*, *Pieris brassicae*, *Mamestra brassicae* and *Phyllotreta* spp. Foliar application of nematodes with the aim of their faster and more efficient activity against target organisms is also described.

Key words: entomopathogenic nematodes, vegetable Brassicas, foliar application, harmful insects, mode of action, life cycle

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1 UVOD

Entomopatogene ogorčice so talni organizmi, ki živijo z bakterijami v simbiontsko-mutualističnem odnosu. Njihov pomen v biotičnem varstvu rastlin pred škodljivimi organizmi so odkrili v ZDA v tridesetih letih prejšnjega stoletja. Leta 1923 sta Glaser in Fox našla ogorčico, ki je napadla in povzročila smrt hrošča *Popillia japonica* Newman. Istega leta je Steiner to ogorčico poimenoval z latinskim imenom *Aplectana kraussei*. Leta 1927 je Travassos spremenil prvotno ime rodu ter ga preimenoval v *Steinernema* (Gaugler, 2002). Glaser je vpeljal metodo gojenja entomopatogenih ogorčic »*in vitro*«. S tako vzgojenimi ogorčicami je leta 1939 izvedel prvi poljski poskus v New Jersey-ju za zatiranje vrste *Popillia japonica* (Gaugler in Kaya, 1990).

Izjemno odkritje uporabe entomopatogenih ogorčic v biotičnem varstvu rastlin pred škodljivimi žuželkami je bilo zaradi intenzivne rabe kemičnih sredstev za varstvo rastlin pozabljeno vse do šestdesetih let prejšnjega stoletja. Tedaj so v javnost prišle informacije o strupenosti kloriranih ogljikovodikov (značilen zgled je aktivna snov DDT), ki so jih dotlej množično uporabljali (Koppenhöfer in Kaya, 2002). Ideja o biotičnem zatiranju škodljivih žuželk z entomopatogenimi ogorčicami je tako ponovno zaživelja.

Kar je bilo še pred tridesetimi leti zgolj laboratorijsko delo, je danes že uporabna znanost na poljih. V več kot šestdesetih državah sveta znanstveniki raziskujejo entomopatogene ogorčice in njihove simbiontske bakterije. Na Floridi (ZDA) z omenjenimi ogorčicami vsako leto tretirajo citrusne na 25000 ha. Na različnih območjih ZDA entomopatogene ogorčice uporabljajo tudi za zatiranje škodljivcev brusnic, artičok, gojenih gob, jabolk, breskev, travne ruše in nekaterih drugih gojenih rastlin. Entomopatogene ogorčice so zanimive tudi za raziskave v nekaterih drugih področjih, na primer v biotehnologiji, genetiki in medicini. Raziskave entomopatogenih ogorčic pa so v mnogih državah sveta, tudi v Sloveniji, omejene le na laboratorijsko delo. Vzrok za to je v dejstvu, da so ogorčice na takšnih območjih še vedno t.i. tujerodni organizmi ali »eksotični agensi«, saj njihove zastopanosti še niso potrdili v naravnem okolju (Gaugler, 2002).

2 NAČIN DELOVANJA IN RAZVOJNI KROG ENTOMOPATOGENIH OGORČIC

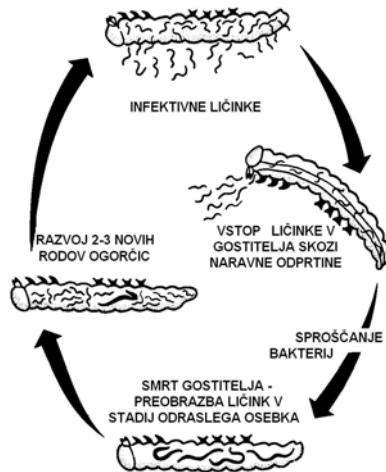
Ob prvem odkritju entomopatogenih ogorčic so postavili hipotezo, da ogorčice same povzročijo smrt napadenih žuželk (Gaugler in Kaya, 1990). Leta 1937 je Bovien prvič omenil možnost obstoja simbiontskih bakterij, ki živijo z entomopatogenimi ogorčicami v mutualističnem odnosu. Njegovo hipotezo sta leta 1955 potrdila Dutky in Weiser (Weiser, 1955). Boemare je leta 1982 dokazal, da ogorčice iz rodu *Steinernema* tvorijo strupene snovi, ki negativno vplivajo na imunski sistem napadenih žuželk. Te ogorčice lahko torej brez prisotnosti simbiontskih bakterij povzročijo smrt gostiteljev. Za entomopatogene ogorčice iz rodu *Heterorhabditis* doslej takšnega delovanja še niso dokazali (Klein, 1990).

O simbiotsko-mutualističnem odnosu med bakterijami in ogorčicami govorimo zato, ker ogorčice nudijo bakterijam bivališče in zaščito. Prostoživeče bakterije

namreč niso sposobne preživeti v tleh. V žuželkah so bakterije tudi nemočne pred protibakterijskim delovanjem gostiteljev, zato jih ogorčice varujejo s tem, da zavrejo tovrstno delovanje gostiteljev. V zameno bakterije hitro ubijejo napadene žuželke in s proizvajanjem antibiotikov onemogočijo razvoj tekmovalnih mikroorganizmov, ki bi se sicer hrаниli v mrtvih osebkih. Bakterije preoblikujejo vsebino gostitelja v hrano, ustrezno za ogorčice, pa tudi same so hrana za ogorčice (Kaya in Koppenhöfer, 1999).

V razvojnem krogu entomopatogenih ogorčic se pojavijo jajčeca, ličinka, ki se navadno štirikrat levi in odrasel osebek. Le ličinke tretjega larvalnega stadija, t.i. infektivne ličinke, lahko napadejo gostitelje. Takšni osebki so prosti živeči in dobro prilagojeni na dolgotrajnejše pomanjkanje hrane (Kaya, 2000). Energijo črpajo iz lastnih zalog (Kaya in Koppenhöfer, 1999). Vsaka infektivna ličinka ima v posebnih vezikah v sprednjem delu črevesa od 200 do 2000 simbiotskih bakterij (Gaugler, 2002). Infektivne ličinke vstopijo v gostitelje prek naravnih odprtin (dihalne odprtine, ustni aparat, zadnjična odptina) ali prek kutikule (Eidt in Thurston, 1995). Znano je, da v košeninarja *Tipula paludosa* Meigen in *Tipula oleracea* L. ogorčice vstopijo neposredno prek povrhnjice in le redko prek ustne ali zadnjične odprtine (Peters in Ehlers, 1994).

V hemolimfi gostiteljev nato ogorčice sprostijo zanje značilne simbiotske bakterije. Bakterije se v hemolimfi hitro množijo in proizvajajo toksine ter druge sekundarne metabolite, ki prispevajo k oslabitvi obrambnega mehanizma gostitelja. V približno dveh dneh po vstopu infektivnih ličink v gostitelja le-ta pogine. V gostitelju torej poteka dvojni razvojni krog, ogorčic in bakterij. Ogorčice prvega rodu preidejo v drugi rod. Po štirikratni levitvi ličink in obdobju odraslega osebka ogorčice preidejo v tretji rod, ki uspeva v gostitelju toliko časa, dokler ima na voljo hrano. Gostitelj je tedaj (24-72 ur po vstopu ogorčice v gostitelja) že mrtev, za kar poskrbijo toksini, ki so jih izločile bakterije. Tretji rod ogorčic je zato že saprofitski (Gaugler, 2002) (slika).



Slika: Razvojni krog entomopatogenih ogorčic (Koppenhöfer in Kaya, 2002)

Bakterije proizvajajo tudi takšne toksine (3,5 dihidroksi-4-izopropilstilben), ki od razpadajočih trupel odvračajo druge mikroorganizme (Hui, 2000). Ko je razvojni krog entomopatogenih ogorčic zaključen, ogorčice zapustijo nerazgrajene dele trupel in se vrnejo v tla. V ugodnih razmerah infektivne ličinke iz rodu *Steinernema* zapustijo gostitelja 6. do 11. dan po vstopu vanj, tiste iz rodu *Heterorhabditis* pa 12. do 14. dan po vstopu (Kaya, 2000). Zunaj gostitelja lahko ogorčice preživijo nekaj mesecev v stadiju infektivnih ličink. Nato poginejo (Gaugler, 2002). Za entomopatogene ogorčice iz rodov *Steinernema* in *Heterorhabditis* je bilo ugotovljeno, da imajo velik potencial za zatiranje škodljivih žuželk (Klein, 1990).

3 RAZISKAVE BIOTIČNEGA VARSTVA RASTLIN PRED ŠKODLJIVIMI ŽUŽELKAMI V SLOVENIJI

Prve znanstvene raziskave na področju biotičnega varstva rastlin pred škodljivimi žuželkami na območju Slovenije datirajo v začetek devetdesetih let prejšnjega desetletja, ko so na Inštitutu za fitomedicino Oddelka za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani začeli preučevati delovanje in bionomijo nekaterih plenilcev (Milevoj, 1991, 1997) in parazitoidov (Milevoj, 1992, 1996). Nadgradnjo tega znanja je pomenil razvoj metode za laboratorijsko gojenje navadne teničarice (*Chrysoperla carnea* Stephens) (Milevoj, 1999), ki je v Sloveniji precej razširjen plenilec, a imamo še vedno premalo podatkov o njegovi učinkovitosti. Prav tako pa moramo omeniti uspešen vnos plenilsko-parazitoidne osice *Neodryinus typhlocybae* Ashmead, ki je uspela zlasti na Primorskem v precejšnji meri omejiti številčnost medečega škržata (*Metcalfa pruinosa* Say) (Žežlina et al., 2001).

Uporaba entomopatogenih ogorčic v biotičnem varstvu rastlin je v Sloveniji še vedno omejena le na laboratorijsko delo, s katerim smo na istem inštitutu začeli leta 2004. Ogorčic namreč v naravnem okolju še nismo odkrili in imajo zato še vedno status t.i. tujerodnih organizmov.

4 KAPUSNICE V SLOVENIJI

Od vseh vrtnin v Sloveniji, je največ površin za pridelovanje zelenjave namenjenih kapusnicam (24,1% ali 871 ha). Med njimi je v letu 2005 prevladovalo belo zelje (696 ha), sledila sta cvetača in brokoli (97 ha), ohrov (58 ha) in kitajski kapus (20 ha). V obdobju od 1995 do 2005 je v Sloveniji viden trend naraščanja površin, na katerih pridelovalci gojijo cvetačo in brokoli, medtem ko je velikost zemljišč, namenjenih pridelavi ohrovta in kitajskega kapusa, skoraj nespremenjena. Površine pod belim zeljem se v zadnjih desetih letih zmanjšujejo; izjema je bilo leto 2003, ko se je njihov obseg začasno povečal. Pridelek omenjenih kapusnic v posameznih letih sovpada s podatki o pridelovalnih površinah (Statistični urad Republike Slovenije, 2005). Ker je zelje v Sloveniji najpomembnejša kapusnica, se vsebina poglavja 5 v največji meri navezuje na dosedanja znanja o zatiranju škodljivcev zelja z entomopatogenimi ogorčicami.

5 DOSEDANJA UPORABA ENTOMOPATOGENIH OGORČIC ZA ZATIRANJE NADZEMSKIH ŠKODLJIVCEV KAPUSNIC V SVETU

5.1 Kapusova muha (*Delia radicum* [L.])

Kapusova muha spada med najpomembnejše škodljivce kapusnic v Evropi in Severni Ameriki (Finch, 1989). Pretekli poskusi, v katerih so žeeli z entomopatogenimi ogorčicami zatreti omenjenega škodljivca, so bili v glavnem neuspešni. Väinonen (1992) je vzroke za to pripisal premalo vlažnim tlem. Schroeder (1996) pa je dokazal, da je lahko ogorčica *Steinernema feltiae* (Filipjev) v zanjo optimalnih razmerah uspešen biotični agens za zatiranje kapusove muhe. Leta 2003 so na Kitajskem izvedli poskus zatiranja kapusove muhe s petimi vrstami entomopatogenih ogorčic. Učinkovitost vrst *Steinernema feltiae*, *S. arenarium*, *S. carpocapsae*, *Heterorhabditis megidis* in *H. bacteriophora* so preizkusili na prostem in v rastlinjakih. V slednjih je bila najbolj učinkovita vrsta *S. feltiae* v koncentracijah 4000 in 8000 infektivnih ličink/rastlino. Čas aplikacije suspenzije te ogorčice ni signifikantno vplival na njeno delovanje na vrsto *D. radicum*. Zatiranje kapusove muhe z ogorčicami je bilo manj uspešno zgodaj spomladti, njihova učinkovitost pa je bila boljša poleti (Chen, 2003).

Entomopatogene ogorčice so uporabili tudi za zatiranje jajčec kapusove muhe v laboratorijskih razmerah. Iste vrste entomopatogenih ogorčic so preizkušali pri temperaturah 10, 15 in 20°C. Pri najnižji temperaturi je le vrsta *S. feltiae* pokazala določeno stopnjo učinkovitosti. Ogorčice *S. carpocapsae*, *S. arenarium* in *H. megidis* so bile uspešne pri 15 in 20°C, medtem ko je bila vrsta *H. bacteriophora* učinkovita le pri 20°C. V nadaljnjih raziskavah, kjer so preučevali sposobnost ogorčic za vstop v gostitelja, so ugotovili, da vrsta *S. carpocapsae* penetrira v gostitelja pri 20°C šele po tridesetih urah, medtem ko vrsta *S. feltiae* že po šestih. Pri 10 in 15°C vstopi vrsta *S. feltiae* v gostitelja v petnajstih oziroma v devetih urah (Chen s sod., 2003).

Na Danskem so ugotavljali številčnost infektivnih ličink entomopatogenih ogorčic v različnih škodljivcih kapusnic, potem ko so jih izpostavili napadu vrste *S. feltiae*. V kljunotaju *Ceutorhynchus assimilis* (Paykull) so jih v povprečju našli od 1200 do 1400, v ličinkah hroščkov iz rodu *Meligethes* od 700 do 1300, daleč največ pa v gosenicah kapusove Sovke (*Mamestra brassicae* [L.]), in sicer kar 47000. Večje število infektivnih ličink so ugotovili tudi v kapusovi muhi, in sicer v manjših ličinkah približno 400 in v večjih okrog 3500. Ugotovili so, da je številčnost infektivnih ličink ogorčice *S. feltiae* v ličinkah kapusove muhe odvisna od velikosti ličink gostitelja (Nielsen in Philipsen, 2004).

5.2 Kapusov molj (*Plutella xylostella* [L.])

Prvi zapiski o delovanju entomopatogenih ogorčic na kapusovega molja segajo v leto 1995, ko je Bauer s sodelavci preučeval učinkovitost vrst *Steinernema carpocapsae*, *S. riobravis* in *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora* za zatiranje škodljivca. Za vrste *S. carpocapsae*, *S. riobravis* in *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora* so bile ugotovljene vrednosti LC₅₀, in sicer 14,6, 15,4 in 65,4 infektivnih ličink/gosenico molja. Iste vrste biotičnih agensov so vplivale na 29, 33 in 14% smrtnost ličink

škodljivca (Bauer, 1995). V sorodni raziskavi v Kanadi so bile vrednosti LC₅₀ za ogorčice *S. carpocapsae*, *S. feltiae* in *S. riobravis* 24,5, 6,0 in 15,5 infektivnih ličink/gosenico (Belair, 2003).

Leta 1997 so Mason in sodelavci v laboratorijskih razmerah preučevali vpliv temperature in ultravijoličnega sevanja na učinkovitost entomopatogenih ogorčic proti gosenicam kapusovega molja. V poskus so vključili vrst iz rodov *Steinernema* in *Heterorhabditis* ter ugotovili, da so najbolj učinkovite v temperaturnem intervalu med 20 in 25°C. V nadaljevanju poskusa so ugotovili, da pri 80% relativni zračni vlagi preživi 51% infektivnih ličink. Raziskovalna skupina je potrdila njihovo hipotezo, da lahko entomopatogene ogorčice učinkovito parazitirajo tudi nadzemsko škodljivce (Arthurs, 2004).

V obdobju 2002-2004 so v Indiji izvajali poljski poskus ugotavljanja učinkovitosti ogorčice *Steinernema thermophilum* za zatiranje vrste *Plutella xylostella*. Pri treh različnih koncentracijah suspenzije ogorčic (1000, 2000 in 3000 infektivnih ličink/ml) niso ugotovili signifikantnih razlik v smrtnosti gosenic. S škropljenjem z najvišjo koncentracijo suspenzije ogorčic so vplivali na 46% smrtnost gosenic, z nižjima koncentracijama pa so dosegli njihovo 40% smrtnost (Singh-Somvanshi, 2006).

V Indoneziji je leta 2005 potekal poljski poskus zatiranja kapusovega molja s entomopatogeno ogorčico *S. carpocapsae*. S škropljenjem s suspeznijo pol milijona infektivnih ličink/m² in dodatkom 0,3% pripravka xanthan in 0,3% pripravka rimulgan® so sedem dni po tretiranju ugotovili, da se je populacija škodljivca zmanjšala za 50% (Schroer, 2005). Razlog za tako visoko učinkovitost ogorčice je najverjetneje v tem, da je podnebje v Indoneziji zelo vlažno, med poskusom pa je nastopilo tudi monsunsko obdobje. Entomopatogene ogorčice so bile v poskusu učinkovitejše od insekticidov, ki jih v Indoneziji uporabljajo za zatiranje vrste *Plutella xylostella* (Schroer, 2005).

5.3 Kapusov belin (*Pieris brassicae* [L.]) in kapusova sovka (*Mamestra brassicae* [L.])

Leta 1999 so na Madžarskem v laboratorijskih razmerah preučevali učinkovitost ogorčic iz rodov *Steinernema* in *Heterorhabditis* pri različnih koncentracijah suspenzije, in sicer 100, 1000 in 10000 infektivnih ličink/ml, za zatiranje gosenic kapusovega belina. Ogorčice so bile učinkovitejše, če so s suspenzijo namesto tal poškropili liste zelja. Pri koncentraciji 1000 infektivnih ličink/ml so ugotovili 100% smrtnost gosenic, medtem ko je bila pri najnižji koncentraciji njihova smrtnost 70%. Večjo učinkovitost so pokazale ogorčice iz rodu *Steinernema* (Nadasy, 1999). Leta 2004 so v Rusiji izvedli soroden poskus. Z aplikacijo ogorčic iz rodov *Steinernema* in *Heterorhabditis* so dosegli 75,6% smrtnost gosenic kapusovega belina v laboratorijskih razmerah (Bobreshova, 2004).

Entomopatogene ogorčice so bile učinkovito uporabljeni tudi za zatiranje gosenic kapusove sovke. V laboratorijskem poskusu, ki je potekal na Madžarskem, so pri dveh od treh uporabljenih koncentracij (100, 1000 in 10000 infektivnih ličink/ml) dokazali zadovoljivo učinkovitost biotičnih agensov. Ogorčice so pokazale

učinkovito delovanje pri najvišjih koncentracijah, pri katerih je bila stopnja smrtnosti gosenic od 90 do 100%. Smrtnost gosenic je bila višja od 60% že sedem dni po aplikaciji (Nadasy, 1999).

5.4 Kapusov bolhač (*Phylloptreta spp.*)

Kljub temu da spadajo kapusovi bolhači med pomembnejše škodljivce kapusnic, tako v Evropi kot na nekaterih drugih celinah, doslej za njihovo zatiranje še niso uporabljali entomopatogenih ogorčic. Edini objavljeni vir (Laznik, 2006) je raziskava, ki smo jo v letu 2005 izvajali na Katedri za entomologijo in fitopatologijo, na Odelku za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani. V laboratorijskem poskusu smo preizkušali delovanje vrst *S. feltiae*, *S. cariocapsae*, *H. megidis* in *H. bacteriophora* na odrasle osebke kapusovega bolhača. Poskus smo izvajali pri treh različnih temperaturah (15, 20 in 25°C) in treh različnih koncentracijah suspenzije ogorčic (200, 1000 in 2000 infektivnih ličink/hroščka). Rezultati so potrdili že prej znana dejstva, da so entomopatogene ogorčice v visokih koncentracijah v povezavi z ugodnimi abiotičnimi dejavniki (visoka vlaga, optimalna temperature) učinkovit biotični agens za zatiranje odraslih osebkov iz reda Coleoptera (Lacey in sod., 1993). Ugotovili smo še, da je aktivnost ogorčic v večji meri odvisna od temperature kot od koncentracije (Laznik, 2006). Vse štiri vrste ogorčic so bile najbolj učinkovite pri 25°C. Le vrsta *S. feltiae* je dosegla zadovoljivo učinkovitost pri najnižji temperaturi, kar je iz praktičnega vidika (tretiranje v oblačnem vremenu ali ponoči) (Akalach in Wright, 1995) zagotovo prednost.

6 FOLIARNA APLIKACIJA ENTOMOPATOGENIH OGORČIC V PRIHODNOSTI

Uporaba entomopatogenih ogorčic v biotičnem varstvu rastlin je bila do pred nekaj leti tradicionalno vezana na zatiranje talnih škodljivcev (Hazir, 2004). Rezultati raziskav v zadnjih dveh desetletjih pa kažejo na njihov potencial tudi pri zatiranju nadzemskih škodljivcev, vendar le v določenih razmerah (Begley, 1990; Arthurs, 2004). Slabša učinkovitost entomopatogenih ogorčic pri zatiranju nadzemskih škodljivcev je predvsem posledica neustrezne (prenizke) vlage (Lello s sod., 1994), izpostavljenosti temperaturnim ekstremom (Grewal s sod., 1994a) in ultravijoličnemu sevanju (Gaugler in Boush, 1978; Gaugler s sod., 1992). Ti dejavniki so namreč ključni za preživetje ogorčic (Gaugler, 2002). Zato ogorčice slabše delujejo na nadzemski škodljivci na prostem, čeprav predhodni laboratorijski testi pokažejo precej večjo učinkovitost (Berry, 1993).

Za nanos ogorčic na rastline lahko uporabljam opremo, ki je namenjena za škropljenje s fitofarmacevtskimi sredstvi, gnojenje ali namakanje. Za ta namen so ustrezne ročne nahrbtne in traktorske škropilnice, pršilniki in tudi letala. Infektivne ličinke lahko prehajajo prek škropilnih cevi, katerih premer znaša vsaj 100 µm, prenesejo pa pritisk do 1086 kPa. Zaradi občutljivosti ogorčic na ultravijolično sevanje, jih moramo na rastline nanašati zvečer, zgodaj zjutraj ali v oblačnem vremenu, ko je intenzivnost sevanja manjša (Gaugler, 2002).

Ker je kmetijstvo interdisciplinarna veda, se sočasno z raziskavami o bionomiji entomopatogenih ogorčic povečuje tudi število raziskav o načinu njihovega nanašanja s stroji (Gaugler, 2002). Strokovnjaki ugotavljajo, da je mogoče s škropilnimi šobami s posebnimi nastavki povečati velikost kapljic, s čimer lahko na liste ali druge nadzemске dele rastlin nanesemo večje število osebkov (Lello et al., 1996). Tudi s povečanjem pretočnosti šob vplivamo na večjo koncentracijo ogorčic na poškropljenih listih (Mason et al., 1998a), s tem pa največkrat vplivamo na večjo smrtnost žuželk na rastlinah. Tudi z dodatkom sredstev, ki zmanjšujejo površinsko napetost na voščenem listnem površju kapusnic, lahko vplivamo na boljšo obstojnost suspenzije na listih in s tem na večjo učinkovitost ogorčic (Mason et al., 1998b).

V prihodnosti bo potrebno izvesti še več raziskav o delovanju entomopatogenih ogorčic na nadzemski škodljivce in o optimizaciji načinov njihovega nanašanja na prostem. Zaradi precejšnjega gospodarskega pomena škodljivih žuželk na kapusnicah v Sloveniji - te pridelovalci še vedno največkrat zatirajo s sintetičnimi insekticidi - želimo zanje razviti in optimizirati nove, okoljsko sprejemljive načine zatiranja. Dosedanje tuje raziskave uporabe entomopatogenih ogorčic za njihovo zatiranje na kapusnicah nas navdajajo z optimizmom. V državah, kjer so entomopatogene ogorčice še vedno le tujerodni organizmi - med njimi je tudi Slovenija – bo zato potrebno več časa nameniti za njihovemu iskanju v tleh. Med številnimi metodami je še posebno enostavna in zato nadvse ustrezna metoda „*Galleria* baiting”, ki uporablja žive ličinke voščene vešče (*Galleria mellonella* [L.]) kot indikatorje zastopanosti entomopatogenih ogorčic v tleh (Gaugler, 2002).

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Agrovoc descriptors: yeasts, candida, biomass, protoplasts, cells, extracts, chromium, extraction, atomic absorption spectrometry

Agris category codes: F60

University of Ljubljana
Biotechnical Faculty
Food Science and Technology Department

COBISS koda 1.01

Ekstrakcija kroma iz kvasne biomase

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Delo je prispelo 15. decembra 2007, sprejeto 28. aprila 2008.

Received December 15, 2007, accepted April 28 2008.

IZVLEČEK

Celokupni krom v kvasni biomasi ni dober pokazatelj količine organsko vezanega oz. biološko aktivnega kroma. Namen študije je bil preizkusiti različne reagente za ekstrakcijo organsko vezanega kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov ter optimizirati parametre ekstrakcije. Kvasovke *Candida intermedia* ZIM 156 smo namnoževali 12 oz. 22 ur pri 28 °C v kemijsko definiranem gojišču z dodanim 1 mM CrCl₃ oz. Na₂Cr₂O₇ (20 µM Cr⁶⁺). Izprane kvasne celice smo suspendirali v reagentih za ekstrakcijo (0,05 M EDTA, 0,7 M CH₃COONa, 0,1 M NH₃, 0,1 M Na₄P₂O₇·10H₂O) ter suspenzije inkubirali pri 28 °C. Optimizirali smo čas ekstrakcije, mešanje med ekstrakcijo in koncentracijo suspenzije kvasovk v EDTA. Iz dela kvasnih celic smo pripravili protoplaste in iz njih ekstrahirali krom. Vsebnosti kroma v ekstraktih, celokupnega kroma v kvasni biomasi in kroma v protoplastih smo določili z atomsko absorpcijsko spektroskopijo. Na podlagi dobavljenih rezultatov smo kot najprimernejši reagent za ekstrakcijo izbrali EDTA, najugodnejši čas ekstrakcije 21 ur, pri čemer stresanje ni potrebno. Iz rezultatov je tudi razvidno, da se z EDTA iz kvasnih celic ekstrahirira približno enak delež kroma kot iz protoplastov, kar velja za obe uporabljeni kromovi spojini v gojišču. Ne moremo pa zaključiti, ali je bil krom, ekstrahiran iz protoplastov, intracelularnega izvora ali je bil vezan v celičnih membranah. Zato bi bilo potrebno v nadaljnjih raziskavah natančneje določiti lastnosti ekstraktov z EDTA, predvsem identificirati spojine, na katere je vezan krom.

Ključne besede: kvasovke, krom, ekstrakcija

Ta članek je del doktorskega dela asist. dr. Maje Paš. Mentor: prof. dr. Peter Raspor

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ABSTRACT**EXTRACTION OF CHROMIUM FROM YEAST BIOMASS**

Total chromium in yeast biomass does not indicate well the amount of organically bound or biologically active chromium. The study presented in this paper investigated different reagents for extraction of organically bound chromium from yeast cells and yeast protoplasts and different parameters of extraction procedure. Yeasts *Candida intermedia* ZIM 156 were cultivated for 12 or 22 hours at 28 °C in chemically defined medium containing 1mM CrCl₃ or Na₂Cr₂O₇ (20 µM Cr⁶⁺). Washed yeast cells were resuspended in appropriate reagents for extraction (0.05 M EDTA, 0.7 M CH₃COONa, 0.1 M NH₃, 0.1 M Na₄P₂O₇·10H₂O) and suspensions were incubated at 28 °C. Extraction time, mixing conditions and concentration of yeast suspension in EDTA were optimized. An aliquot of yeast cells was used to prepare protoplasts from which chromium was extracted. Chromium content in extracts, in yeast biomass and in protoplasts was analysed by atomic absorption spectrometry. On the basis of our results EDTA was chosen as the most appropriate reagent for extraction, optimal extraction time was 21 hours without shaking. Furthermore, the results obtained for both chromium compounds showed, that the amounts of extracted chromium from yeast cells and from protoplasts were approximately the same. Nevertheless, we can not conclude, whether chromium, which was extracted from yeast protoplasts originated from cell interior or from yeast cell membranes. In further research exact properties of EDTA extracts should be determined and chromium compounds in the extracts should be identified.

Key words: yeasts, chromium, extraction

1 UVOD

Krom je pomemben za normalen potek metabolizma ogljikovih hidratov in lipidov. Primeren dnevni vnos (»Adequate Intake«) kroma za odrasle ljudi je od 20 do 35 µg, odvisno od spola, starosti in posebnih fizioloških stanj (nosečnost, dojenje) (Institute of Medicine, Food and Nutrition Board, 2001). Mnoge raziskave potekajo v smeri dokončne identifikacije biološko aktivne oblike kroma in iskanja tako naravnih kot sintetičnih kromovih kompleksov, ki bi bili varni in učinkoviti kot prehranski dodatek. (Andersson s sod., 2007; Jain s sod., 2007; Liu, 2007; Shoeib in Mester, 2007).

S kromom obogatena kvasna biomasa vsebuje »biostabilizirane« in netoksične oblike kroma, zato lahko predstavlja dober naraven vir kroma za prehranske aplikacije (Kaszycki s sod., 2004). Kljub številnim poskusom izolacije in karakterizacije (Shoeib in Mester, 2007), pa natančna struktura (narava) omenjenih oblik kroma v kvasnih celicah še vedno ni določena. Po drugi strani pa skušajo avtorji ovrednotiti količino t.i. biološko aktivnega oz. organsko vezanega kroma v kvasni biomasi z uporabo različnih metod ekstrakcije kroma iz kvasnih celic, pri čemer uporabljajo različne reagente, npr. NH₄OH, etanol. Vsebnost celokupnega akumuliranega kroma namreč ni dober pokazatelj količine biološko aktivnega kroma v kvasni biomasi. (Toepfer s sod., 1973; Anderson s sod., 1978; Demirci in Pometto, 2000; Kaszycki s sod., 2004)

Kljub temu pa definicija "organsko vezanega kroma" v kvasnih celicah ni povsem pojasnjena.

Z uporabo različnih reagentov za ekstrakcijo kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov ter optimizacijo parametrov ekstrakcije smo skušali izbrati najprimernejši reagent za ekstrakcijo biološko aktivne oblike kroma iz kvasnih celic.

Reagente za ekstrakcijo smo izbrali na osnovi izsledkov nekaterih raziskav, pri katerih je šlo bodisi za ekstrakcijo kroma iz zemlje oz. odpadnega blata (Kožuh s sod., 1994; Milačič in Štupar, 1995; Ure, 1996; Lombardi in Garcia Jr., 2002; Tarvainen in Kallio, 2002; Jean, 2007) ali pa za ekstrakcijo kroma iz mikrobne biomase (Toepfer s sod., 1973; Anderson s sod., 1978; Demirci in Pometto, 2000; Kaszycki s sod., 2004)

2 MATERIALI IN METODE

Priprava s kromom obogatene kvasne biomase

V raziskavi smo uporabili kvasovko *Candida intermedia* ZIM 156 iz Zbirke industrijskih mikroorganizmov na Biotehniški fakulteti v Ljubljani. Tri dni staro kulturo kvasovk smo prenesli z agarja v kemijsko definirano gojišče z vrednostjo pH 4 (Paš s sod., 2004), tako da smo dosegli začetno optično gostoto ($\lambda = 650$ nm) kvasne suspenzije okrog 0,25. Sledilo je aerobno namnoževanje kvasovk (200 min^{-1} , 28°C) do pozne eksponentne faze rasti (optična gostota okrog 1,8 pri $\lambda = 650$ nm).

Tako pripravljen inokulum (6 vol%) smo uporabili za pripravo s kromom obogatene kvasne biomase. Namnoževanje kvasovk je potekalo 22 ur v kemijsko definiranem gojišču, ki je vsebovalo 1 mM CrCl_3 (28°C , 200 min^{-1}).

Po zaključeni kultivaciji smo brozge centrifugirali (5 minut, 4000 min^{-1}) in kvasne celice trikrat izprali z $0,015\text{ M}$ fosfatrim pufrom (pH = 4).

Količino celokupnega kroma v kvasni biomasi smo določili s sušenjem izpranih kvasnih celic pri temperaturi 105°C do konstante mase in razgradnjo suhe biomase z dodatkom $65\% \text{ HNO}_3$ (1 ml / 20 mg ss) ter s segrevanjem 30 minut pri temperaturi 140°C . Po razgradnji kvasne biomase in ohladitvi na sobno temperaturo smo vzorce razredčili z bidestilirano vodo in določili vsebnost kroma. Za ta namen smo uporabili bodisi plamensko atomsko absorpcijsko spektroskopijo (PAAS) ali pa elektrotermično atomsko absorpcijsko spektroskopijo (ETAAS). Tehniko smo izbrali glede na koncentracijo kroma v vzorcu – za koncentracijske nivoje $\mu\text{g ml}^{-1}$ smo uporabili PAAS, za koncentracijske nivoje ng ml^{-1} pa ETAAS.

Preizkušanje reagentov za ekstrakcijo

Za preizkušanje posameznih reagentov za ekstrakcijo in za optimiziranje koncentracije kvasovk v reagentu za ekstrakcijo smo uporabili s kromom obogateno kvasno biomaso, ki smo jo namnožili v popolnoma neodvisnih kultivacijah (opisano zgoraj). Izprane kvasne celice smo suspendirali v reagentu za ekstrakcijo ter suspenzije inkubirali pri temperaturi 28°C .

Uporabili smo naslednje reagente:

- $0,05\text{ M}$ vodna razt. EDTA (Kompleksal III; $\text{C}_{10}\text{H}_{14}\text{N}_2\text{Na}_2\text{O}_5\cdot2\text{H}_2\text{O}$), pH = 7,
- $0,7\text{ M}$ vodna razt. CH_3COONa , pH = 5,
- $0,1\text{ M}$ vodna razt. NH_3 , pH = 10,
- $0,1\text{ M}$ vodna razt. $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ ($\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7\cdot10\text{H}_2\text{O}$), pH = 11.

V postopku ekstrakcije smo optimizirali:

- čas ekstrakcije (vzorec med inkubacijo),
- mešanje med ekstrakcijo (polovica vzorcev se je stresala (200 min^{-1}), druga polovica pa ne),
- koncentracijo suspenzije kvasovk v EDTA (5, 10 in 15 % suspenzija).

Po določenih časih ekstrakcije smo vzorce centrifugirali (5 minut, 4000 min^{-1}) in v supernatantih določili količino kroma (z AAS), ki se je ekstrahiralo iz kvasnih celic.

Ekstrakcija kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov z 0,05 M EDTA

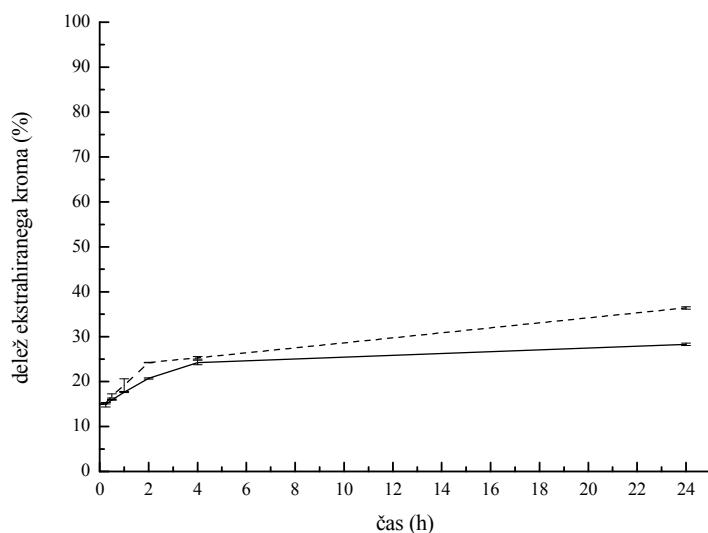
Po prej opisanem postopku smo pripravili s kromom obogateno kvasno biomaso, pri čemer smo kot vir kroma v gojišču uporabili dve kromovi spojini: 1 mM CrCl_3 , v katerem je oksidacijsko stanje kroma +3 in $\text{Na}_2\text{Cr}_2\text{O}_7$ kot Cr^{6+} -spojino s koncentracijo kroma $20 \mu\text{M}$. Aerobna submerzna kultivacija kvasovk v gojišču z dodanimi kromovima spojinama je potekala 12 ur (do pozne eksponentne faze rasti). Z vsako od kromovih spojin smo izvedli tri neodvisne kultivacije.

Izprane kvasne celice smo razdelili na tri dele:

- iz dela celic smo z EDTA ekstrahirali krom in določili njegovo vsebnost v ekstraktih,
- iz drugega dela kvasnih celic smo po postopku, opisanem v Paš s sod. (2004) pripravili protoplaste kvasnih celic, in iz njih ekstrahirali krom. Postopek ekstrakcije in določitve količine ekstrahiranega kroma je bil enak kot za cele kvasne celice, le da smo v primeru protoplastov namesto vodne raztezljivosti EDTA uporabili EDTA v 0,6 M KCl.
- tretji del celic smo uporabili za določitev vsebnosti celokupnega kroma v kvasnih celicah (po prej opisanem postopku).

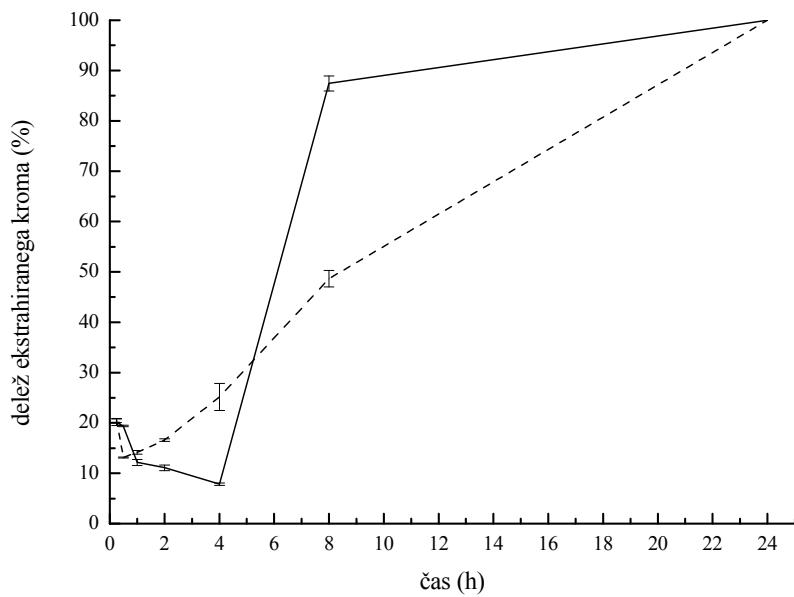
3 REZULTATI IN RAZPRAVA

Izbor reagenta za ekstrakcijo in optimizacija parametrov ekstrakcije



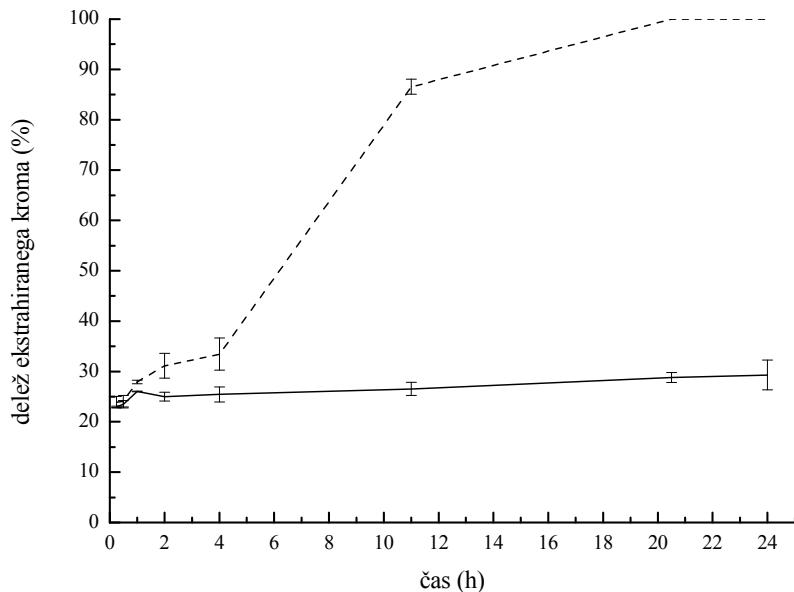
Slika 1: Delež z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma od celokupnega kroma v kvasnih celicah (konc. celokupnega kroma je $40,0 \mu\text{g/g}$ mokre biomase) v odvisnosti od časa ekstrakcije in stresanja (— brez stresanja, ----- s stresanjem)

Figure 1. EDTA extractable chromium (as percentage of total accumulated chromium in yeast cells; total chromium concentration was $40.0 \mu\text{g/g}$ wet biomass) vs. extraction time and shaking pattern (— no shaking, ----- shaking)



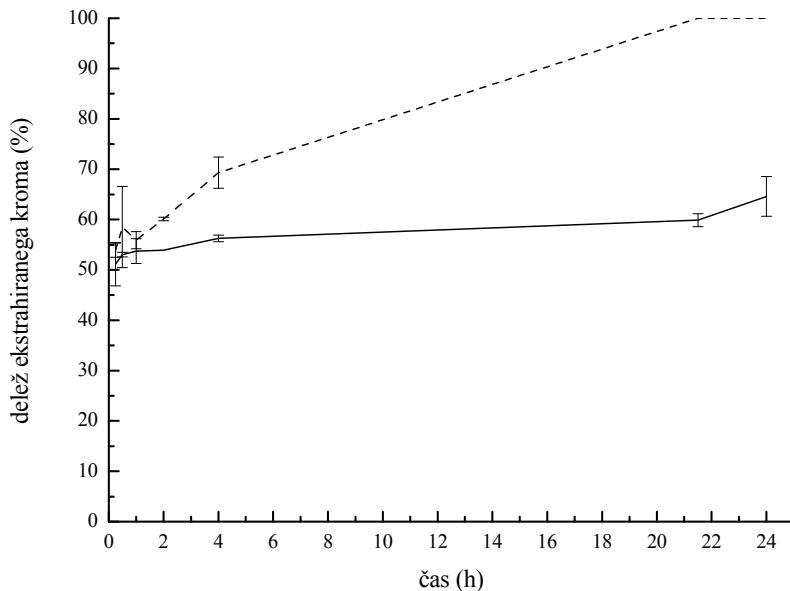
Slika 2: Deleži z NH_3 ekstrahiranega kroma od celokupnega kroma v kvasnih celicah (konc. celokupnega kroma je $50,0 \mu\text{g/g}$ mokre biomase) v odvisnosti od časa ekstrakcije in stresanja (— brez stresanja, ----- s stresanjem)

Figure 2. NH_3 extractable chromium (as percentage of total accumulated chromium in yeast cells; total chromium concentration was $50.0 \mu\text{g/g}$ wet biomass) vs. extraction time and shaking pattern (— no shaking, ----- shaking)



Slika 3: Deleži z CH_3COONa ekstrahiranega kroma od celokupnega kroma v kvasnih celicah (konc. celokupnega kroma je $28,2 \mu\text{g/g}$ mokre biomase) v odvisnosti od časa ekstrakcije in stresanja (— brez stresanja, ----- s stresanjem)

Figure 3. CH_3COONa extractable chromium (as percentage of total accumulated chromium in yeast cells; total chromium concentration was $28.2 \mu\text{g/g}$ wet biomass) vs. extraction time and shaking pattern (— no shaking, ----- shaking)



Slika 4: Delež z $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ ekstrahiranega kroma od celokupnega kroma v kvasnih celicah (konc. celokupnega kroma je $29,9 \mu\text{g/g}$ mokre biomase) v odvisnosti od časa ekstrakcije in stresanja (— brez stresanja, ----- s stresanjem)

Figure 4. $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ extractable chromium (as percentage of total accumulated chromium in yeast cells; total chromium concentration was $29.9 \mu\text{g/g}$ wet biomass) vs. extraction time and shaking pattern (— no shaking, ----- shaking)

Na Slikah 1-4 so prikazani rezultati ekstrakcije kroma iz kvasnih celic z različnimi reagenti za ekstrakcijo po 22-urni kultivaciji kvasovk v gojišču z 1 mM CrCl_3 .

Iz rezultatov je razvidno, da ima čas ekstrakcije najmanjši vpliv na količino ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic, če kot reagent za ekstrakcijo uporabimo EDTA ali CH_3COONa (Sliki 1 in 3), medtem ko se količina ekstrahiranega kroma pri ekstrakciji z NH_3 ali $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ s časom ekstrakcije povečuje (Sliki 2 in 4). V zadnjih dveh primerih se po 24 urah iz kvasnih celic ekstrahira ves akumulirani krom, kar lahko pripišemo poškodbam kvasnih celic zaradi uporabljenih reagentov (eden od možnih vzrokov bi lahko bila visoka vrednost pH).

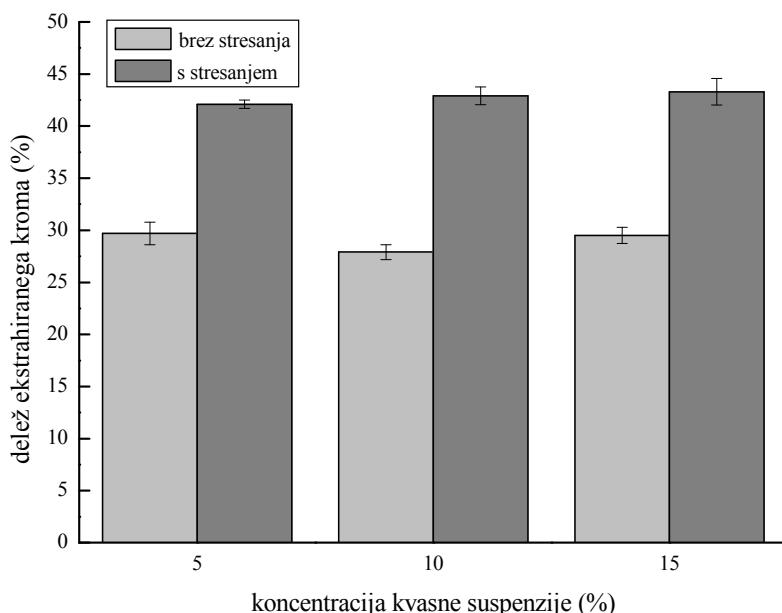
V literaturi najdemo podatke o primerjavi ekstrakcije kroma iz kvasovk z $0,1 \text{ M NH}_4\text{OH}$ in 50 % vodno razt. etanola, ki je pokazala, da se je z NH_4OH sicer ekstrahiralo več kroma iz kvasovk, vendar pa je bil le majhen delež povezan z biološko aktivnostjo. Tako naj bi se kot boljše merilo za količino organsko vezanega kroma v kvasovkah izkazala ekstrakcija z etanolom, saj je količina kroma

v ekstraktih odgovarjala biološki aktivnosti kroma. NH_4OH in etanol povzročita spremembo permeabilnosti celičnih membran. (Toepfer s sod., 1973; Anderson s sod., 1978; Demirci in Pometto, 2000)

Alkalni $\text{Na}_4\text{P}_2\text{O}_7$ se uporablja predvsem za ekstrakcijo organskih snovi iz odpadnega blata, pri čemer pa se lahko del kovin odcepi od organskih snovi in nastanejo topni kompleksi kovine in pirofosfata. (Lombardi in Garcia Jr., 2002)

Iz Slik 1-4 je prav tako razvidno, da je količina ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic v primeru vseh uporabljenih ekstrahentov večja, če vzorce stresamo, kar bi lahko pripisali mehanskim poškodbam kvasnih celic. Najmanjši vpliv stresanja vzorcev opazimo v primeru ekstrakcije z EDTA in CH_3COONa (Slike 1 in 3).

Na osnovi dobljenih rezultatov smo kot najprimernejši reagent za ekstrakcijo izbrali EDTA, najugodnejši čas ekstrakcije 21 ur, pri čemer stresanje ni potrebno.



Slika 5: Vpliv koncentracije kvasne suspenzije v EDTA in stresanja na količino ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic (konc. celokupnega kroma je 31,2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ mokre biomase)

Figure 5. Effect of concentration of yeast suspension in EDTA and shaking pattern on the amount of extracted chromium from yeast cells (total chromium concentration was 31.2 $\mu\text{g/g}$ wet biomass)

Rezultati proučevanja vpliva koncentracije kvasne suspenzije na količino ekstrahiranega kroma kažejo (Slika 5), da različne koncentracije kvasne biomase v EDTA (5 %, 10 % in 15 % suspenzija) ob istih pogojih ekstrakcije ne vplivajo na količino ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasovk. Presežek EDTA je očitno dovolj velik, saj mora biti za doseganje optimalne ekstrakcije koncentracija liganda večja od koncentracije kovine (Jean s sod., 2007). Tako smo za nadaljnje poskuse izbrali najnižjo preizkušeno koncentracijo suspenzije kvasovk v EDTA, t.j. 5 %.

Podobno ugotavljajo drugi avtorji: pri ekstrakciji Pb, Cd in Cu z EDTA iz sedimentov koncentracija suspenzije ni imela vpliva na količino ekstrahirane kovine (Fangueiro s sod., 2002). Za ekstrakcijo Cr⁶⁺ iz zemlje pa so uporabili 10 % suspenzijo v 0,05 M EDTA (Grabarczyk, 2006).

Ekstrakcija kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov z EDTA

Ker smo želeli ugotoviti, iz katerega dela celic izvira ekstrahirani krom, smo z EDTA ekstrahirali krom tako iz kvasnih celic kot iz protoplastov.

Preglednica 1 prikazuje deleže z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov od celokupnega akumuliranega kroma v kvasnih celicah po kultivacijah kvasovk v gojišču z 1 mM CrCl₃ in 20 µM Cr⁶⁺ (Na₂Cr₂O₇).

Preglednica 1: Deleži z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic in protoplastov od celokupnega akumuliranega kroma po treh neodvisnih kultivacijah v gojiščih z 1 mM CrCl₃ in 20 µM Cr⁶⁺ (Na₂Cr₂O₇)

Table 1: EDTA extractable chromium from yeast cells and protoplasts (as percentage of total accumulated chromium in yeast cells) after three independent cultivations in media containing 1 mM CrCl₃ or 20 µM Cr⁶⁺ (Na₂Cr₂O₇)

Cr spojina	konz. Cr v kvasni biomasi (µg/g ss)	delež z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic (%)	konz. Cr v protoplastih (µg/g ss)	delež z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma iz protoplastov (%)
CrCl ₃	502,8 ± 9,8	15,2	354,5 ± 27,9	9,3
	569,5 ± 20,5	11,4	425,0 ± 14,0	7,3
	480,4 ± 35,2	15,6	393,3 ± 28,4	15,8
Na ₂ Cr ₂ O ₇	18,7 ± 3,5	17,4	14,6 ± 2,5	15,5
	16,9 ± 0,3	18,7	11,3 ± 2,0	19,1
	12,4 ± 0,6	21,9	8,7 ± 0,5	23,6

Deleži ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasovk, ki smo jih namnoževali v prisotnosti 1 mM CrCl₃, se gibljejo od 11,4 do 15,6 % (pregl. 1). Ker se omenjene vrednosti ujemajo z deleži kroma, ekstrahiranega iz protoplastov (9,3 do 15,8 %), bi lahko sklepali, da se je z EDTA ekstrahiralo iz kvasnih celic tisti del kroma, ki je bil vezan v protoplastih, ne v celičnih stenah. Podobne ugotovitve kot za CrCl₃ veljajo tudi za Cr⁶⁺-spojino, t.j. Na₂Cr₂O₇ (pregl. 1). Z EDTA se iz kvasnih celic ekstrahira približno enak delež kroma (17,4 do 21,9 %) kot iz protoplastov (15,5 do 23,6 %).

Pri tem ne moremo zaključiti, ali je bil krom, ekstrahiran iz protoplastov, intracelularnega izvora ali je bil vezan v celičnih membranah. Nekateri avtorji namreč poročajo, da se Cr³⁺ pri transportu v kvasne celice zadržijo v membranski strukturi (Belagyi s sod., 1999). Rezultati novejših raziskav pa nakazujejo, da so proteini, ki vežejo krom v kvasnih celicah prisotni tako v celični steni kot v citosolu oz. v notranjih celičnih strukturah (Shoeib in Mester, 2007).

Po drugi strani pa, če primerjamo deleže z EDTA ekstrahiranega kroma iz kvasnih celic z deleži akumuliranega kroma v celičnih stenah (rezultati prikazani v Paš s sod., 2004), opazimo, da so tudi te vrednosti primerljive. EDTA je močan ligand za oblikovanje kompleksov s kovinami - stabilnostna konstanta (K_{ML}) za oblikovanje kompleksov EDTA s Cr³⁺ znaša 24,0, kar je visoka vrednost v primerjavi s stabilnostnimi konstantami za komplekse EDTA z nekaterimi drugimi kovinami (Mendham, 2000), zato obstaja velika verjetnost, da EDTA pri stiku s kvasno celico izluži na površino celičnih sten kvasovk vezane kovinske ione. (Blackwell s sod., 1999; Sun s sod., 2001) Znano je tudi, da EDTA povzroči izločanje kalcijevih ionov iz celičnih sten in tako poveča njihovo permeabilnost. (Gadd, 1990; Beveridge s sod., 1997) Nekateri avtorji so EDTA uporabili za izpiranje kvasnih celic oz. za ekstrakcijo kovin, kot sta Ni in Cr iz celičnih sten kvasovk (Kambe-Honjoh s sod., 1997; Blackwell s sod., 1999).

Če celovito pogledamo rezultate ekstrakcije kroma iz kvasne biomase z različnimi reagenti za ekstrakcijo, lahko povzamemo, da je med vsemi uporabljenimi reagenti najprimernejši EDTA in ga kot takega predlagamo za uporabo v tovrstnih metodah dela. Kljub temu pa bi bilo potrebno v nadalnjih raziskavah določiti lastnosti ekstraktov z EDTA, predvsem identificirati spojine, na katere je vezan krom, saj nimamo dokaza, ali EDTA v resnici le permeabilizira celično steno in veže krom, ki se je nahajal v celičnih stenah kvasnih celic ali prehaja v notranjost kvasnih celic.

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Agrovoc descriptors: parasitoids, food chains, hosts, trophic levels, semiochemicals

Agris category codes: H10

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Department of Agronomy

COBISS koda 1.02

Medsebojni vplivi trofičnih nivojev v prehranjevalni verigi parazitoidov

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Delo je prispelo 12. marca 2008; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008
Received March 12, 2008, accepted April 28, 2008.

IZVLEČEK

Prispevek predstavlja odnose med trofičnimi nivoji v prehranjevalni verigi parazitoidov. Z njihovim poznavanjem je mogoče lažje razumeti interakcije med organizmi, ki so za nas pomembni z gospodarskega in biološkega vidika. Vsi trofični nivoji so med seboj povezani s semiokemikalijami, ki služijo za komunikacijo med gostiteljskimi rastlinami in herbivori, parazitoidi, plenilci, hiperparazitoidi in drugimi organizmi v trofičnih nivojih. V prispevku je v besedi in sliki predstavljenih pet scenarijev prehranjevalnih verig parazitoidov.

Ključne besede: trofični nivoji, prehranjevalna veriga, parazitoidi, hiperparazitoidi, semiokemikalije, scenariji

ABSTRACT

MUTUAL INFLUENCES OF TROPHICAL LEVELS IN FOOD CHAIN OF PARASITOIDS

The paper introduces the relationships between trophic levels in food chain of parasitoids. With their familiarity it is possible much easier to understand the interactions between organisms, which are important from the economical and biological point of view. All trophic levels are connected between each others with semiochemicals, which serves for communication between host plants and herbivores, parasitoids, predators, hyperparasitoids and other organisms in trophic levels. In this contribution five scenarios of food chain of parasitoids are represented in written and illustrated forms.

Key words: trophic levels, food chain, parasitoids, hyperparasitoids, semiochemicals, scenarios

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1 UVOD

Prehranjevalno verigo sestavljajo trije pomembni členi: proizvajalci, porabniki in razkrojevalci. Med proizvajalce večinoma štejemo rastline, porabniki (ti lahko pripadajo različnim trofičnim nivojem) so lahko herbivori, karnivori ali omnivori, razkrojevalci pa krog zaključijo, saj razkratijo rastlinske in živalske ostanke. Pri tem nastane v tleh organska snov, ki jo v anorganski obliki porabijo rastline (proizvajalci). Glavni cilj pri raziskavah tritrofičnih interakcij je ugotoviti ali je mogoče biotično varstvo rastlin kombinirati z odpornostjo gostiteljskih rastlin. Na ta način bi bilo namreč mogoče razviti učinkovit program okolju sprejemljivega zatiranja škodljivcev gojenih rastlin (Hare, 2002).

Hlapljive snovi imajo pomembno vlogo v trofičnih sistemih, ki vključujejo gostiteljske rastline, rastlinojede in parazitoide (ali plenilce), pa tudi sekundarne parazitoide (hiperparazitoide) in terciarne parazitoide. Tako lahko specifično lastnost rastlin, da privabljajo naravne sovražnike herbivorov, imenujemo kar posredna obramba rastlin pred škodljivci (Thompson, 1996). Rastline lahko posredno ali neposredno vplivajo na parazitoide ali plenilce, in sicer tako z morfološkimi lastnostmi (velikost rastline, oblika celotne rastline in posameznih delov, barva rastlin, fenološke razlike in lastnosti rastlinskega površja, kot je poraščenost ali povoskanost), kot tudi s semiokemikalijami, ki delujejo neposredno na naravne sovražnike.

Hlapljive semiokemikalije so pogosto atraktanti; ne le za herbivore, ampak tudi za naravne sovražnike. Nekatere od teh snovi se tvorijo v rastlinah, ne glede na to ali je rastlina poškodovana ali ne. Druge snovi se iz rastlin izločajo le ob mehanskih poškodbah ali pa se izločajo le ob prehranjevanju točno določene vrste herbivora. Alelokemikalije rastlin, ki jih sprejmejo herbivori, so lahko večkrat neugodne za naravne sovražnike. To se zgodi tedaj, ko se herbivor prilagodi rastlinskim toksinom, parazitoid pa ne, ali pa posredno, ko rastlinski toksi vplivajo na manj intenzivno prehranjevanja herbivorov. Takšni gostitelji so manjši in predstavljajo manj kakovostno hrano za parazitoide. Po drugi strani pa lahko toksi oslabijo obrambne sposobnosti rastlinskih škodljivcev in s tem povečajo njihovo občutljivost na naravne sovražnike. To je ugodno tako za slednje, kot tudi posredno za rastline. Na njih vpliva tudi rastlinska diverziteta in gostota rastlin (Hare, 2002).

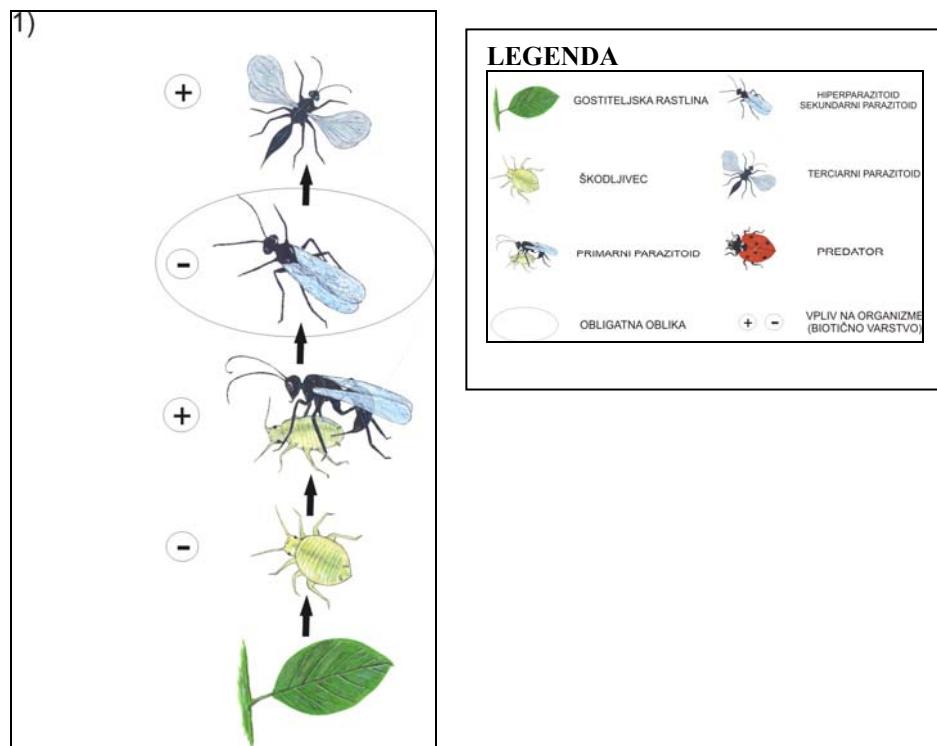
2 SCENARIJI RAZLIČNIH PREHRANJEVALNIH VERIG PARAZITOVIDOV

Hiperparazitoidi so sekundarni parazitoidi žuželk. Imajo izredno velik pomen ob razmnožitvi primarnih parazitoidov, saj predstavljajo četrti trofični nivo (Sullivan in Völkl, 1999). V biotičnem varstvu rastlin jih navadno obravnavamo kot negativni dejavnik, saj večinoma parazitirajo koristne primarne parazitoide rastlinskih škodljivcev. Poznamo tudi terciarne parazitoide, ki parazitirajo hiperparazitoide in izhajajo iz kompeticije med vrstami ali znotraj vrste.

Hiperparazitizem je lahko obligaten ali fakultativen (hiperparazitoidi se lahko razvijajo kot primarni ali kot sekundarni parazitoidi). Fakultativni hiperparazitoidi so nastali zaradi kompeticije med parazitoidi zaradi pomanjkanja gostiteljev –

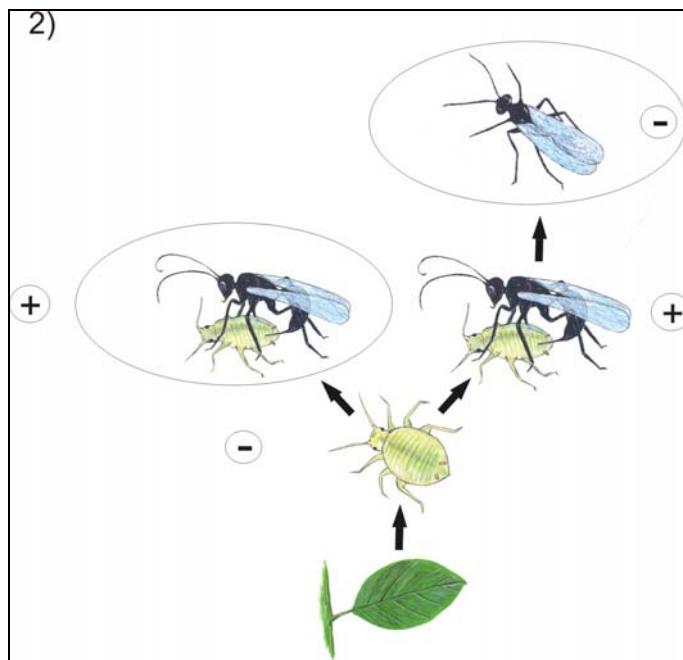
rastlinskih škodljivcev. V večini primerov je fakultativni hiperparazitizem interspecifičen. Heteronomne vrste iz družine Aphelinidae producirajo samice kot primarne parazitoide, samce pa kot hiperparazitoide (tudi na samicah iste vrste) (Godfray, 1994).

Kompleksnost prehranjevalne verige lahko ponazorimo s prikazom petih scenarijev, ki povezujejo gostiteljske rastline, rastlinojede in primarne, sekundarne ter terciarne parazitoide, ki so hkrati lahko tudi parazitoidi drugih naravnih sovražnikov škodljivih organizmov (Hochberg in Ives, 2000). V nadaljevanju prikazujemo omenjene scenarije.



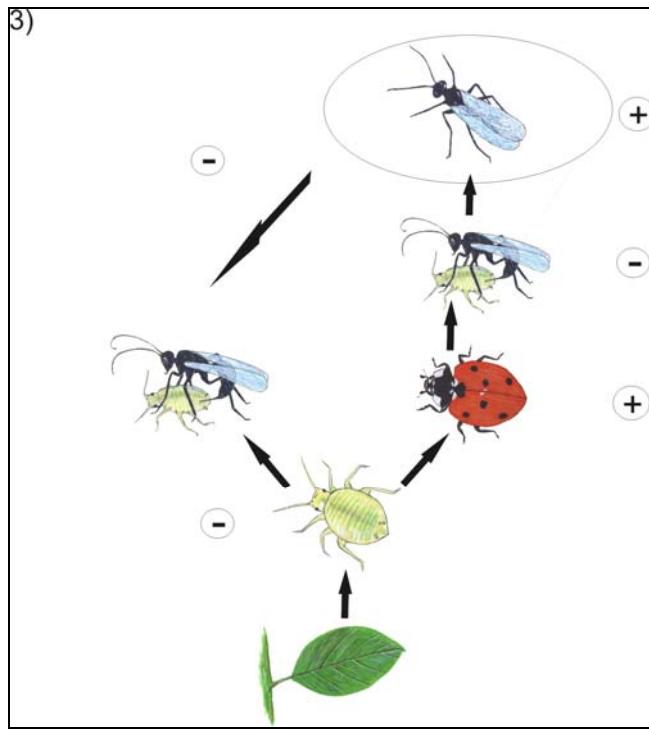
Slika 1: Preprosta linearna prehranjevalna veriga parazitoidov (K. Kos).

1. scenarij. Obligatni hiperparazitoidi napadejo primarne parazitoide herbivorov (slika 1). Ta scenarij kaže tudi primer terciarnega parazitizma, ko hiperparazitoidi napadejo drug drugega na naslednjem trofičnem nivoju. Tu imajo obligatni hiperparazitoidi negativni vpliv na biotično varstvo, medtem ko so terciarni hiperparazitoidi koristni.

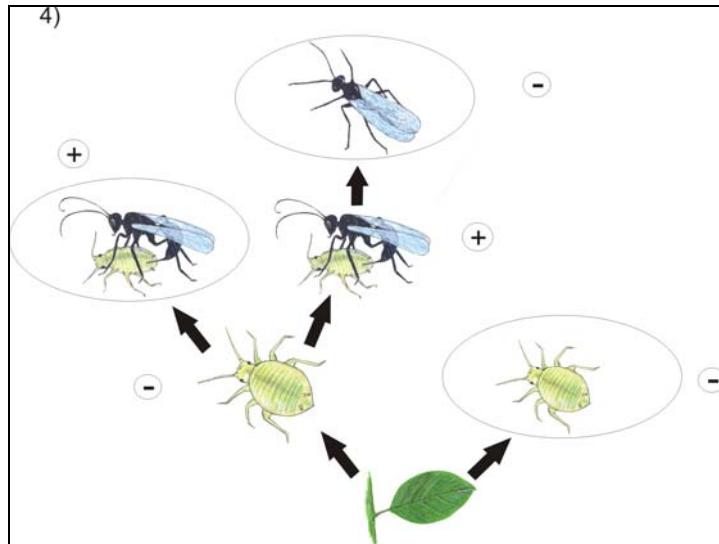


Slika 2: Enostavna veriga fakultativnih hiperparazitoidov. Pomen posameznih členov verige je opisan v legendi slike 1 (K. Kos).

2. scenarij. Ta odgovarja situaciji, kjer imajo hiperparazitoidi vlogo fakultativnih hiperparazitoidov, ki so lahko primarni ali sekundarni parazitoidi herbivorov (slika 2). Tako imajo lahko koristen ali negativen vpliv na herbivore. Čeprav se fakultativni hiperparazitoid lahko razvije kot primarni parazitoid, lahko deluje tudi kot sekundarni hiperparazitoid, pri čemer ima lahko ob namernem izpustu negativno vlogo (ga ne uporabljamo v biotičnem varstvu).
3. scenarij. V tem primeru se lahko vrsta razvije kot hiperparazitoid herbivora ali herbivorovega prenilca (slika 3). Vrsta *Prochiloneurus aegyptiacus* (Mercet) je lahko hiperparazitoid agrumovega volnatega kaparja (*Planococcus citri* [Risso]), saj izkorišča njegovega primarnega parazitoida, vrsto *Anagyrus pseudococcii* (Girault). Lahko je tudi hiperparazitoid vrste *Homalotylus flaminius* (Dalman), ki je primarni parazitoid plenilske polonice *Chilocorus bipustulatus* (L.). Tako ima lahko hiperparazitoid vlogo koristnega organizma, saj napade primarnega parazitoida plenilca, ali pa ima negativno vlogo, ko napade primarnega parazitoida herbivora (Neuenschwander in sod., 1987).

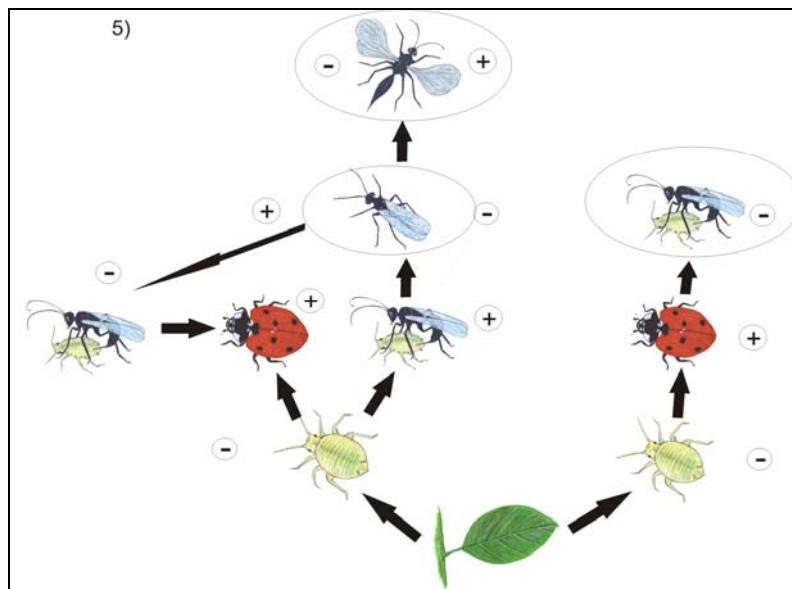


Slika 3: Druga oblika obligatnega hiperparazitizma. Pomen posameznih členov verige je opisan v legendi slike 1 (K. Kos).



Slika 4: Kompleksnost odnosov med hiperparazitoidi in njihovimi gostitelji. Pomen posameznih členov verige je opisan v legendi slike 1 (K. Kos).

4. scenarij. Grizlica *Eurytoma brunniventris* Ratzelburg lahko živi v šiškah osic iz družine Cynipidae in ima sposobnost hranjenja s tkivom rastlinskih šišk, parazitiranja povzročiteljev nastanka šišk (herbivorov) ali parazitiranja primarnih parazitoidov osic, ki povzročajo šiške (slika 4). Ta fakultativni idiobiont je ektoparazitoid in ima sposobnost, da izrablja kateregakoli od teh treh prehrambenih nivojev v istem mikrohabitatu. Tega je sposobnih le nekaj vrst iz rodov *Eurytoma* in *Sycophila* (Eurytomidae) (Gauld in Bolton, 1988).



Slika 5: Prilagodljivost vrste *Pachyneuron concolor* (Förster) na gostitelje. Pomen posameznih členov verige je opisan v legendi slike 1 (K. Kos).

5. scenarij. Opisuje fascinantne gostiteljske odnose vrste *Pachyneuron concolor* (Förster) iz družine Pteromalidae, ki se razvija kot ektoparazitoid na bubah znotraj kokona ali na mumijah njenih drugih gostiteljev. Je polifagni obligatni hiperparazitoid kaparjev in primarni parazitoid plenilcev listnih uši. Razvije se lahko na vrsti *Microterys flavus* (Howard), parazitoidu kaparjev in na različnih vrstah primarnih parazitoidov plenilske polonice kaparjev, vrste *Chilocorus bipustulatus* Linnaeus. Lahko se razvije tudi kot fakultativni inter- ali intraspecifični terciarni hiperparazitoid ali kot primarni parazitoid predstavnikov iz rodu *Leucopis*, afidofagnih plenilcev iz reda dvokrilcev (Kfir in Rosen, 1981).

3 ZAKLJUČKI

Prikazani scenariji nakazujejo, da splošna predstavitev hiperparazitoidov, ki so postavljeni na sam vrh prehranjevalne verige, ne odseva vedno dejanskega dogajanja v naravi. Fakultativni hiperparazitoidi se lahko vključujejo v kompleksne trofične

odnose, ko lahko ena vrsta zasede dva, tri ali celo štiri različne nivoje (Memmott in Godfray, 1994).

Vsi organizmi v ekosistemu so med seboj biokemično povezani in ta odnos se izraža predvsem v prehranjevalnih verigah in mrežah. Najpreprostejša linearna prehranjevalna veriga vsebuje vsaj tri med seboj povezane trofične nivoje. V tej trofični interakciji se je član nižjega trofičnega nivoja prisiljen razvijati tako, da zmanjša hranjenje višjega trofičnega nivoja, medtem ko člani višjega trofičnega nivoja težijo k povečani porabi. Pomembna lastnost tritrofične interakcije je tudi, da imajo alternativni trofični nivoji v prehranjevalni verigi pogosto simbiotski odnos. Naravni sovražniki škodljivev rastlinam koristijo, ko zmanjšujejo številčnost škodljivcev, medtem ko lahko rastline oslabijo škodljivce in jih tako naredijo bolj ranljive za naravne sovražnike (Price in sod., 1980).

Rastlinojedi so najpomembnejši člen v tritrofični interakciji, saj so v interakciji tako z gostiteljskimi rastlinami, kot tudi z naravnimi sovražniki. Herbivori proizvajajo semiokemikalije z namenom oslabitve rastline ali odvrnitve naravnega sovražnika (proizvajanje medene rose pri listnih ušeh privabi mravlje, ki jih varujejo pred plenilci). Herbivori proizvajajo tudi kairomone, ki privabijo naravne sovražnike. Letti navadno izkoriščajo feromone njihovega plena/gostiteljev. Alomoni lahko služijo herbivoru pri ustvarjanju ustreznega življenjskega habitata (žuželke z izločanjem kemikalij vplivajo na nastanek rastlinskih šišk, ki so vir hrane in obramba pred naravnimi sovražniki) (Ahmad in sod., 2004).

Tudi naravni sovražniki oddajajo sinomone, alomone (obramba ali pritegnitev plena) in kairomone, ki vplivajo tako na rastline, herbivore (škodljivec zazna te kairomone in pobegne, da se izogne napadu) kot tudi na naslednji trofični nivo (Ahmad in sod., 2004).

4 ZAHVALA

Prispevek je nastal s finančno pomočjo Javne agencije za raziskovalno dejavnost RS in podjetja Unichem d.o.o. v okviru projekta L4-1013-0481-08.

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Agrovoc descriptors: diabrotica virgifera, disease surveys, epidemiology, identification, geographical distribution, population dynamics

Agris category codes: H10

COBISS koda 1.01

Širjenje koruznega hrošča *Diabrotica v. virgifera* v Sloveniji v obdobju 2003 - 2007

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Delo je prispelo 13. decembra 2007; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008.
Received December 13, 2007; accepted April 28, 2008.

IZVLEČEK

Koruznega hrošča, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* (*Dvv*), smo v Sloveniji prvič našli leta 2003 na vzhodu v Pomurju in Podravju vzdolž meje z Madžarsko in Hrvaško ter na zahodu na Goriškem v bližini meje z Italijo. V obdobju 2003-2007 smo sistematično spremljali njegovo širjenje v Sloveniji. Za ulov škodljivca smo uporabljali feromonske in spolno-prehranske vabe ter rumene lepljive plošče. Na podlagi rezultatov smo ugotovili, da se je koruzni hrošč v obdobju 2003-2006 postopoma širil od severovzhoda proti notranjosti države za povprečno 24 km/leto, v letu 2007 pa se je, zaradi zanj ugodnih okoljskih razmer, areal njegove razširjenosti povečal za dobrih 70 km. Vzorec širjenja *Dvv* kaže na to, da so glavne transportne poti, kot so ceste, železnica, letališče Jožeta Pučnika, vključno z nekaterimi manjšimi letališči s povečanim notranjim prometom ter večjimi počivališči ob avtocestah, poleg njegovega naravnega širjenja in pridelave koruze v monokulturi, eden glavnih dejavnikov, ki vplivajo na njegovo razširjenost pri nas. V letu 2007 se je koruzni hrošč pojavi prej kot v prejšnjih letih, zaradi česar je prišlo tudi do občutnih razlik v obsegu širjenja.

Ključne besede: Koruzni hrošč, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera*, geografska razširjenost, populacijska dinamika, Slovenija

SPREADING OF WESTERN CORN ROOTWORM *Diabrotica v. virgifera* IN SLOVENIA IN THE PERIOD 2003 – 2007

ABSTRACT

The western corn rootworm, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* (*Dvv*), was found for the first time in Slovenia in 2003, in the eastern regions of Pomurje and Podravje along the border with Hungary and Croatia, and in the western region Goriška near the border with Italy. Between 2003 and 2007, its spreading in Slovenia was systematically monitored. To catch the pest we used pheromone and floral bait traps and yellow sticky traps. Computer analyses adopting plant protection geographical information systems (GIS) suggested that between 2003 and 2006 *Dvv* was spreading progressively from north-east towards the interior of the country by 24 km/year

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on the average while in 2007, due to favourable environmental conditions, the area of its spread increased by 70 km. The pattern of *Dvv* spreading indicates that the main transport routes such as roads, railway, Jože Pučnik Airport including some small scale airports with an increased inland traffic and larger resting places along the highways are, beside its natural spreading and growing of maize as monoculture, one of the major factors affecting its spread in Slovenia. In 2007, *Dvv* appeared earlier than in the previous years which resulted in a considerable difference as to the extent of spreading.

Key words: western corn rootworm, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera*, geographical distribution, population dynamics, Slovenia

1 UVOD

Koruznega hrošča, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* LeConte (Coleoptera, Chrysomelidae), uvrščamo v rod *Diabrotica*, ki šteje 338 vrst in ga delimo v tri skupine: *fucata*, *signifera* in *virgifera*. Od teh sta, z vidika kmetijstva, pomembni skupini *virgifera* in *fucata* (Krysan in Miller, 1986).

Prvi je koruznega hrošča opisal LeConte, ki je posamezne osebke tega hrošča našel že leta 1868 v cvetovih buče *Cucurbita foetidissima* H.B.K. blizu mesta Fort Wallace v zahodnem delu Kansasa (Smith in Lawrence, 1967). Kot škodljivca koruze ga prvič omenja Gillette (1912) v Koloradu leta 1909.

Pridelava koruze v monokulturi je v začetku štiridesetih let prejšnjega stoletja povečala hitrost širjenja koruznega hrošča. V dvajsetem stoletju je, z razširitvijo območij pridelave koruze, postal najpomembnejši škodljivec koruze v Severni Ameriki. Po ocenah stroškov, porabljenih za njegovo obvladovanje, kot tudi po ocenah neposrednih izgub pridelka, povzroči koruzni hrošč v ZDA letno škodo v višini ene milijarde ameriških dolarjev (Krysan in Miller, 1986).

Kmalu po pojavu v Srbiji, leta 1992 (Bača, 1993), kjer se je hrošč uspešno prilagodil, se je začel nezadržno širiti tudi v sosednje države. V Evropi je bil tako ob koncu leta 2003 zastopan v že več vzhodno- in srednjeevropskih državah, pojavit pa se je tudi na zahodu evropske celine. Strnjeno območje naselitve koruznega hrošča v jugo-vzhodni in srednji Evropi sega od Srbije proti Bosni in Hercegovini, Črni gori, Bolgariji, Romuniji, Hrvaški, Madžarski, Češki, Slovaški, Ukrajini, Avstriji, Poljski, Sloveniji (Kiss in sod., 2005), od leta 2007 dalje zajema tudi južni del Nemčije, natančneje dolino Rena in okolico jezera Constance (Hummel, 2007) in je posledica naravnega širjenja hrošča iz prvotnega žarišča. Čeprav koruzni hrošč ogroža pridelavo koruze že skoraj sto let in se z njim ukvarjajo številni strokovnjaki po vsem svetu, kjer pridelujejo koruzzo, ga do danes še niso uspeli popolnoma preučiti, še manj pa zaustaviti njegovega širjenja. Namen in cilj našega prispevka je predstaviti intenzivnost širjenja koruznega hrošča na območju Slovenije.

Glede na to, da ležijo glavna pridelovalna območja pridelave koruze v Sloveniji na severovzhodu države, v Pomurju in Podravju in glede na to, da smo prve hroščke tega škodljivca pri nas ugotovili leta 2003 vzdolž meje z Madžarsko in Hrvaško, smo že eleli preveriti, v kolikšnem obsegu se koruzni hrošč širi od severovzhoda proti

notranjosti Slovenije. Prav tako smo želeli raziskati, kako hitro se koruzni hrošč širi proti notranjosti države iz zahoda, torej iz smeri Italije, drugega strnjenega območja koruznega hrošča v Evropi.

2 MATERIAL IN METODE

2.1 Spremljanje širjenja koruznega hrošča

V letih 2003-2007 smo spremljali številčnost in širjenje odraslih osebkov koruznega hrošča v različnih območjih v Sloveniji. Ker se je v preteklem desetletju hrošč v Evropi širil v glavnem iz smeri Srbije proti severu ter proti zahodu preko Madžarske in Hrvaške, smo pričakovali, da se bodo prvi hrošči D.v.v. pojavili tudi v Sloveniji v bližini meje z Madžarsko in Hrvaško. Istočasno je obstajala tudi možnost naleta škodljivca iz padske nižine v Italiji. Zato smo že leta 1997, vzdolž meje z Madžarsko in Hrvaško (v Pomurju, Podravju, Posavju), v osrednji Sloveniji, na Gorenjskem (blizu mednarodnega letališča Jože Pučnik) in na Goriškem, blizu meje z Italijo, vzpostavili skupno dvainšestdeset nadzornih točk. Po najdbi prvih osebkov koruznega hrošča v Sloveniji leta 2003 (Urek in sod., 2004) smo leta 2004 povečali število nadzornih točk na dvesto. Za preučevanje širjenja koruznega hrošča smo v letu 2005 na območju Podravja dodatno postavili še 30 (skupno 230) nadzornih točk v dvajset kilometrskem pasu od vzhoda proti zahodu države. V letu 2006 smo širjenje koruznega hrošča spremljali že na 246 lokacijah od vzhoda in zahoda proti notranjosti Slovenije, na širšem območju Savinjske doline, Murske Sobote, Lendave, Ljutomerja, Ormoža, Središča ob Dravi, Ptuja, Slovenske Bistrike, Lenarta, Maribora, Celja, Krškega, Brežic, Nove Gorice, Ajdovščine, Ljubljane in letališča Jožeta Pučnika. Leta 2007 smo število nadzornih točk povečali na 260.

Pri izbiri lokacij smo upoštevali naslednje kriterije: odstotek pridelave koruze v kolobarju, potek glavnih cestnih prometnic in vpadnic, potek železniških prog in rek, bližina mednarodnega letališča Jožeta Pučnika, letališč z notranjim prometom, obmejnih območij in nekaterih mednarodnih mejnih prehodov. Izbrane lokacije smo prostorsko opredelili z vpisom parcelnih številk, GPS koordinat ali centroidov sloja GERK (MKGP).

Številčnost koruznega hrošča smo ugotavljali s feromonskimi vabami Csalomon® PAL (Budimpešta, Madžarska) in rumenimi lepljivimi ploščami Pherocon AM (ZDA). Vzporedno z njimi pa smo, od leta 2004 naprej, na lokacijah v Pomurju in Podravju dodatno nameščali še spolno-prehranske vabe Csalomon® KLP flor (Budimpešta, Madžarska).

Vabe smo na posamezno koruzno njivo namestili konec junija v višini zgornjih storžev posameznih rastlin, ki so rasle v peti vrsti. Vabe so bile medsebojno oddaljene najmanj petdeset metrov. Skupaj z rastjo rastline, se je v višino dvigala tudi nameščena vaba. Vabe smo pregledovali tedensko od konca junija do sredine oktobra. V začetku avgusta in v začetku septembra smo stare vabe zamenjali z novimi. Rumene lepljive plošče smo menjali na širinajst dni, po potrebi tudi pogosteje.

2.2 Prostorska obdelava podatkov

Zbrane rezultate smo analizirali po posameznih letih. Pri tem smo upoštevali število ulovljenih hroščev na feromonske vabe Csalomon® PAL (Budimpešta, Madžarska). Rezultate smo vnesli v računalniški program »FITO-nadzor« in jih obdelali z MS Access ali MS Excel programom ter z ustreznimi GIS programskimi orodji - programska oprema ESRI-ArcGIS 9.1.

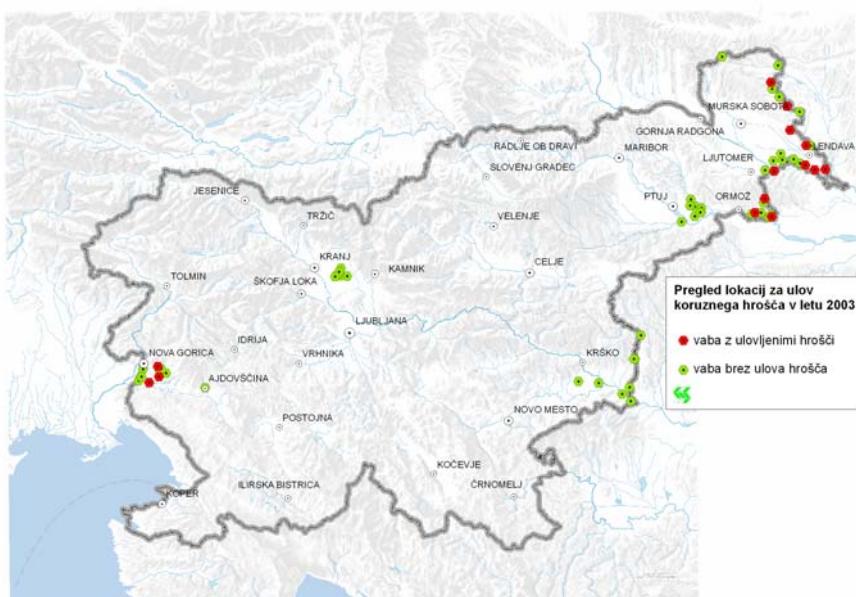
Pri umeščanju feromonskih vab v prostor pa smo uporabljali baze MKGP oz ARSKTRP; Dejanska raba kmetijskih zemljišč ter baze vlog za subvencioniranje kmetijske pridelave za obdobje 2003-2006. Končno izbiro lokacij so, na osnovi predlogov, izbrali sodelavci na terenu.

3 REZULTATI

3.1 Leto 2003

Leta 2003 smo v Sloveniji ulovili prve odrasle osebke koruznega hrošča. Na feromonske vabe PAL smo ujeli samce 23. julija v bližini vasi Gibina (1), Benica (2) ter Mostje (1) v Pomurju in 24. julija blizu vasi Jastrebc (1) v Podravju, nedaleč od tromeje med Slovenijo, Madžarsko in Hrvaško. Hrošče smo potem ujeli tudi 30. julija v Pincah (2) in Domanjševcih (1), 6. avgusta v Domanjševcih (1), Loperšicah (1), Motvarjevcih (1) in Grabah (2), 13. avgusta v Žitkovcih (1) ter 20. avgusta v bližini vasi Gaberje (1).

6. avgusta smo ujeli prve samce tudi na območju severne Primorske, natančneje v bližini vasi Vogrsko (2), 10 km od slovensko-italijanske meje. Pozneje, 19. avgusta, pa blizu Ajševice (1) in 27. avgusta v okolici vasi Bukovica (1) (slika 1).



Slika 1: Lokacije, na katerih smo leta 2003 ugotavljali zastopanost koruznega hrošča. Zeleni krogi označujejo lokacije, kjer koruznega hrošča nismo ulovili, rdeči krogi pa lokacije, kjer je bil koruzni hrošč ulovljen.

Figure 1: Locations on which the presence of WCR was monitored in 2003. Green circles designate locations on which WCR was not captured, while red circles denote locations on which WCR was captured.

Na štirinajstih lokacijah, od skupno 62-ih, smo ujeli 19 hroščev, kar pomeni, da je bilo 22,6 % pozitivnih lokacij.

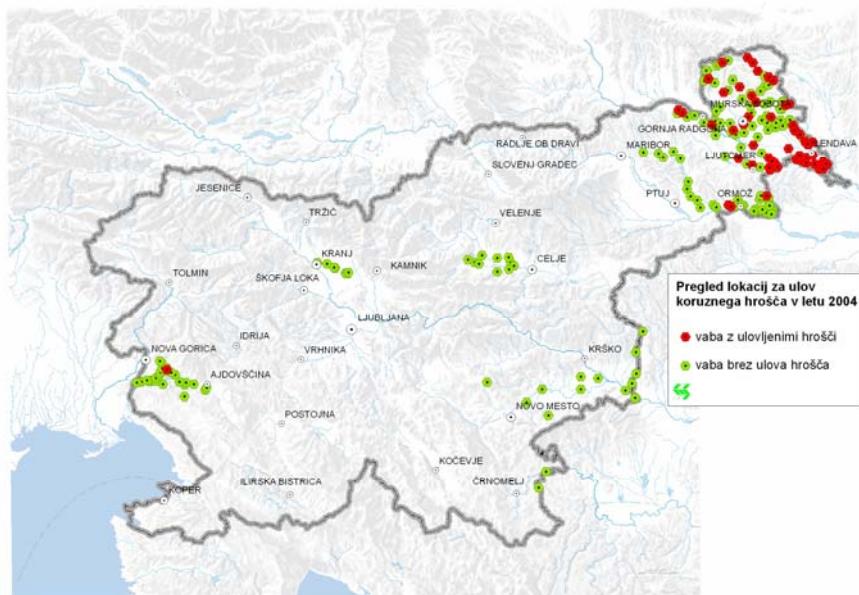
Koruznega hrošča smo v letu 2003 ulovili le na lokacijah neposredno ob mejah Slovenije z Madžarsko, Hrvaško in Avstrijo ter na Goriškem blizu Italije.

Številčnost populacije je bila tedaj zelo majhna, saj nismo ujeli več kot dva samca na nobeni lokaciji.

3.2 Leto 2004

Prve osebke koruznega hrošča smo leta 2004 ulovili 22. julija na območju Prekmurja, v bližini vasi Pince (2) ter v Podravju v Ljutomeru (1). Prvi večji nalet populacije smo zasledili v prvi dekadi avgusta (05.-11.08.2004) v Lakošu-1 (30) in Dolini pri Lendavi (25); v drugi dekadi avgusta (20.08.2004) v Lakošu-2 (21) ter 27.07.2004 (18) in 01.09.2004 v Pincah (19). Zadnje hrošče smo ujeli v tretji dekadi septembra in sicer med 21. in 23. septembrom v Gornjih Petrovcih (1), Murski Soboti (1), Genterovcih (3) in Lakošu-1 (3) pri Lendavi (slika 32).

Skupno smo ujeli 386 hroščev, večino v severovzhodni Sloveniji blizu slovensko-madžarske in slovensko-hrvaške meje, prve hrošče pa smo ujeli tudi v bližini meje z Avstrijo (Petanjci, Večeslavci, Kuzma, Lešane, Črnci, Šratovci). Enega samega hrošča smo ujeli blizu slovensko-italijanske meje (Šempas) (slika 2).



Slika 2: Lokacije, na katerih smo leta 2004 ugotavljali zastopanost koruznega hrošča. Zeleni krogi označujejo lokacije, kjer koruznega hrošča nismo ulovili, rdeči krogi pa lokacije, kjer je bil koruzni hrošč ulovljen.

Figure 2: Locations on which the presence of WCR was monitored in 2004. Green circles designate locations on which WCR was not captured, while red circles denote locations on which WCR was captured.

Na skupno 200 opazovalnih mestih smo osebke koruznega hrošča ugotovili na 55 lokacijah, kar predstavlja 27,5 % vseh lokacij.

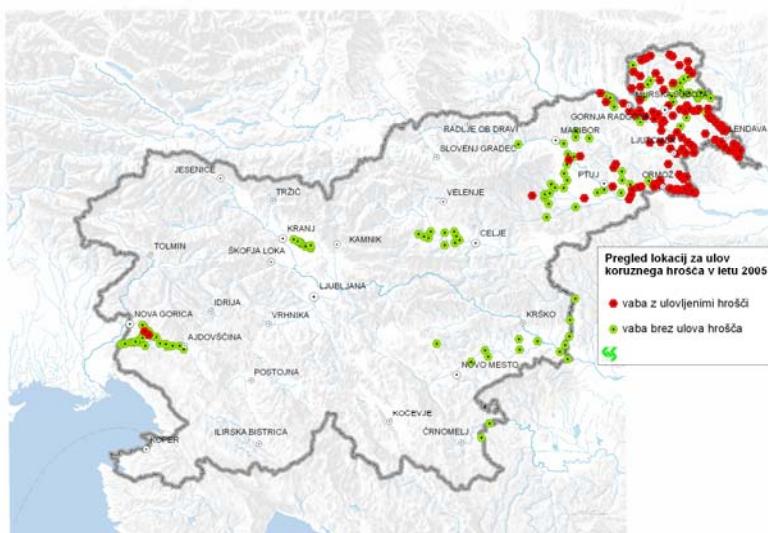
Na nadzornih točkah, kjer smo ujeli prve hrošče že leta 2003, smo v naslednjem letu ugotovili večje število hroščev. Koruzni hrošč se je v letu 2004 pojavljal posamezno tudi na nekaterih lokacijah ob glavnih prometnih poteh. Vzdolž slovensko-avstrijske meje se je hrošč razširil do Apaške doline, medtem ko se je vzdolž slovensko-hrvaške meje razširil do okolice Ormoža. Več kot polovico vseh hroščev (199 od 386) smo ulovili na območju ob tromeji med Slovenijo, Madžarsko in Hrvaško. Po naših ugotovitvah se je hrošč v severovzhodni Sloveniji leta 2004, v primerjavi z letom 2003, razširil za približno 15 km proti zahodu države.

3.3 Leto 2005

Prvi pojav koruznega hrošča leta 2005 smo zabeležili 14. julija v Prekmurju, v vasi Bakovci pri Murski Soboti ter na lokacijah Lakoš, Dolina in Pince pri Lendavi. Prvega hrošča smo na Primorskem ulovili 25. julija na lokaciji Ozeljan, drugega pa 12. avgusta na lokaciji Šempas pri Novi Gorici (slika 3).

Število ulovljenih hroščev na območju Prekmurja in Podравja se je v juliju leta 2005 povečevalo in doseglo vrh v začetku avgusta. Potem se je število hroščev zmanjševalo. Zadnje hrošče smo ulovili oktobra na lokacijah pri Lendavi.

Skupno smo ujeli 1349 hroščev, večino v severovzhodni Sloveniji blizu slovensko-madžarske in slovensko-hrvaške meje in samo dva hrošča blizu slovensko-italijanske meje (Šempas, Ozeljan).



Slika 3: Lokacije, na katerih smo leta 2005 ugotavljali zastopanost koruznega hrošča. Zeleni krogi označujejo lokacije, kjer koruznega hrošča nismo ulovili, rdeči krogi pa lokacije, kjer je bil koruzni hrošč ulovljen.

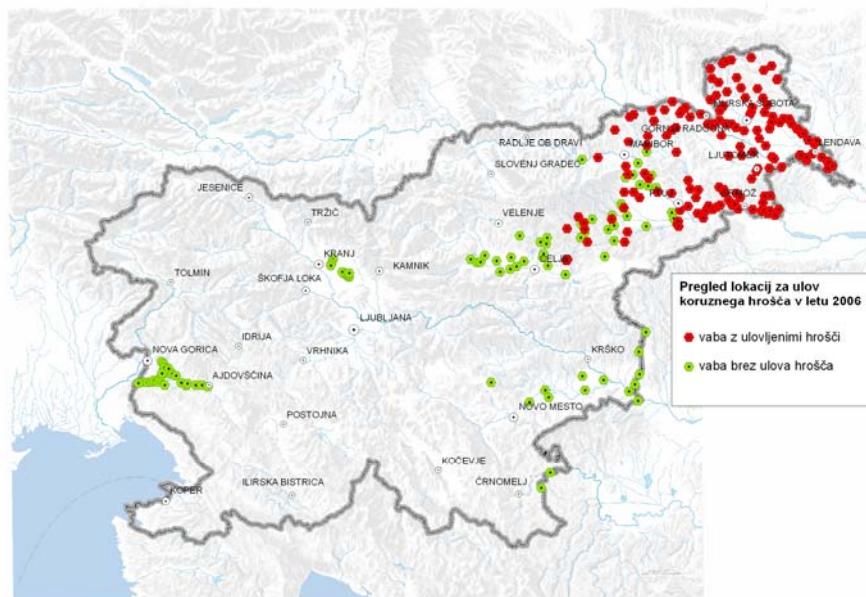
Figure 3: Locations on which the presence of WCR was monitored in 2005. Green circles designate locations on which WCR was not captured, while red circles denote locations on which WCR was captured.

Od skupno 238 lokacij smo osebke koruznega hrošča ugotovili na 120 lokacijah, kar predstavlja 50,4 % vseh lokacij.

Številčnost ulova hroščev se je torej povečala tudi v letu 2005, in sicer najbolj izrazito ob glavnih prometnih poteh na območju tromeje med Slovenijo, Madžarsko in Hrvaško. Prav tako smo več hroščev ulovili tudi na območju, kjer Slovenija meji z Avstrijo. Hrošč se je leta 2005, v primerjavi z letom 2004, razširil za 38 km proti notranjosti države. Širil se je vzdolž slovensko-hrvaške meje ob glavnih prometnih poteh in reki Dravi ter dosegel okolico Ptuja. Posamezne hrošče smo ulovili tudi nekaj kilometrov od Ptuja, v smeri proti Mariboru, in sicer pri Miklavžu na Dravskem polju in v Zgornjem Dupleku ter 25 km od Ptuja, v smeri proti Celju, natančneje v Slovenski Bistrici.

3.4 Leto 2006

Prve hrošče smo leta 2006 našli 12. julija v Prekmurju in sicer na lokacijah Bokrači (1) in Domanjševci (2) pri Murski Soboti. Na Primorskem leta 2006 nismo ujeli nobenega hrošča (slika 4). Število ulovljenih hroščev na območju Prekmurja in Podravja se je v juliju povečevalo in doseglo vrh v začetku avgusta. Potem se je število hroščev zmanjševalo.



Slika 4: Lokacije, na katerih smo leta 2006 ugotavljali zastopanost koruznega hrošča. Zeleni krogi označujejo lokacije, kjer koruznega hrošča nismo ulovili, rdeči krogi pa lokacije, kjer je bil koruzni hrošč ulovljen.

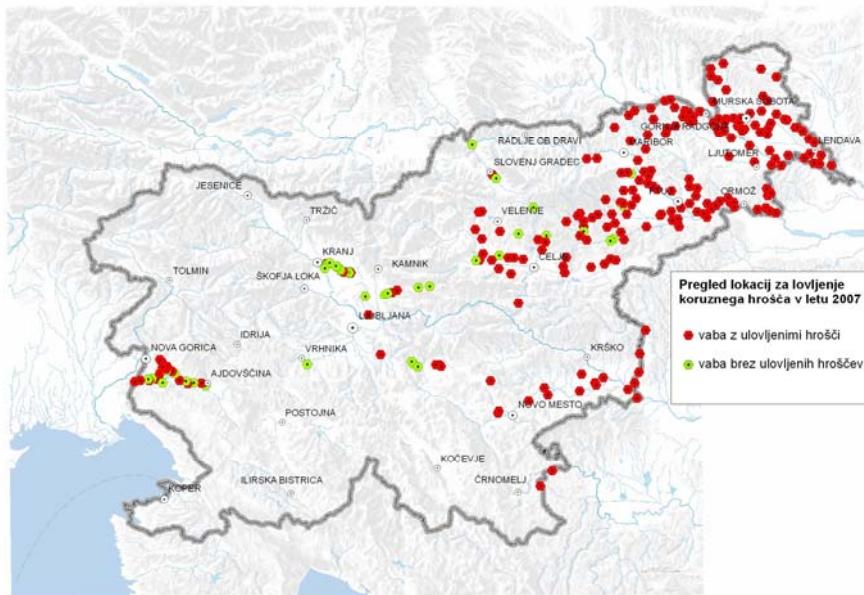
Figure 4: Locations on which the presence of WCR was monitored in 2006. Green circles designate locations on which WCR was not captured, while red circles denote locations on which WCR was captured.

Pojav koruznega hrošča v letu 2006 smo zabeležili na 174 nadzornih točkah, kar predstavlja 70,1 % vseh lokacij. Na njih smo ujeli 4082 osebkov in to le na vzhodu države.

V primerjavi z letom pred tem, je leta 2006 populacija koruznega hrošča v napadenih območjih še narasla. Številčnost ulovljenih hroščev se je močno povečala na območju Prekmurja in Podravja, in to na lokacijah, kjer je bil škodljivec zastopan že od leta 2003. Z Dravsko-Ptujskega polja se je hrošč širil v notranjost države za 18 km in dosegel rob širšega območja Savinjske doline, natančneje okolico Dramelj.

3.7 Leto 2007

Prvi pojav hrošča smo leta 2007 zabeležili konec junija v kraju Pertoča (21.06.) in Domanjševci (26.06) na Goričkem ter blizu slovensko-hrvaške meje v kraju Razkrižje (28. 06.). Od takrat naprej se je številčnost ulova hroščev povečevala tudi na ostalih lokacijah v severovzhodnem delu države. Na Goriškem smo prve hrošče ujeli v začetku julija (9. julija) v okolici Nove Gorice (Ozeljan, Šmihel, Loke, Šempas, Vrtovin, Vipavski križ, Vitovlje) ter 23. julija v Ajdovščini (Selo). Število ulovljenih hroščev se je povsod po državi povečevalo julija in doseglo vrh naleta v začetku avgusta.



Slika 5: Lokacije, na katerih smo leta 2007 ugotavljali zastopanost koruznega hrošča. Zeleni krogi označujejo lokacije, kjer koruznega hrošča nismo ulovili, rdeči krogi pa lokacije, kjer je bil koruzni hrošč ulovljen.

Figure 5: Locations on which the presence of WCR was monitored in 2006. Green circles designate locations on which WCR was not captured, while red circles denote locations on which WCR was captured.

V tem letu smo odkrili številne nove najdbe. Prve samce smo našli tudi na Gorenjskem (okolica letališča Jožeta Pučnika, Šenčur), kar je približno 70 km zračne linije od zadnje najdbe na Štajerskem v Dramljah pri Celju v letu 2006. Z zahodnega in jugovzhodnega dela države pa se je hrošč pomaknil od 20 do 25 km proti osrednji Sloveniji. Poleg tega smo pojav škodljivca zabeležili v Lukovici pri Domžalah in na večjem območju Dolenjske (letališče v Novem mestu in Cerkle ob Krki, Novo mesto, Trebnje, Ivančna Gorica, Grosuplje). Prav tako smo škodljivca ugotovili v Beli Krajini na dveh lokacijah. V severovzhodni Sloveniji je hrošč dosegel širše območje Savinjske doline ter južne Koroške (Slovenj Gradec) (slika 5). Nalet koruznega hrošča smo zabeležili na 218 nadzornih točkah (84 %) od skupno 260. Skupno smo ujeli 10406 hroščev, od tega le 93 v zahodnem delu države. Zadnje hrošče smo ulovili septembra.

4 RAZPRAVA IN SKLEPI

Koruznega hrošča smo prvič našli leta 2003 v Pomurju in Podravju ter na Goriškem (Urek in Modic, 2004). Od prve najdbe pri nas se je škodljivec iz vzhodnega dela države širil proti notranjosti Slovenije. Leta 2004 smo ugotovili, da se je hrošč v severovzhodnem delu Slovenije širil s hitrostjo 15 km/leto. Leta 2005 se je škodljivec širil s hitrostjo 38 km/leto in leta 2006 s hitrostjo 18 km/leto. V teh letih spremeljanja škodljivca je številnosti ulova hroščev naraščala v severovzhodnem delu države. Z vzhoda se je hrošč počasi širil predvsem ob glavnih prometnih poteh proti notranjosti države in v letu 2006 dosegel rob širšega območja Savinjske doline, natančneje okolico Dramelj. Na Goriškem, torej na zahodnem območju države, se škodljivec v obdobju od leta 2003 do leta 2006 ni širil, kljub temu, da je bila populacija škodljivca v Italiji, na območju Manazana in Buttria (Governatori in Frausin, 2007) blizu slovensko-italijanske meje sorazmerno visoka. Prav tako se hrošč ni širil več kot 20-25 km/leto v Avstriji (Cate in Grabenweger, 2006) in Srbiji (Tančić in sod., 2006). Nekoliko hitreje (30 km/leto) se je širil na Hrvaškem (Igrc Barčič in Bažok, 2007).

V okviru spremeljanja koruznega hrošča v obdobju 2003-2006 smo prve odrasle osebke ulovili na vabe v prvi polovici julija, največji nalet vrste pa je bil drugi teden v avgustu. Hrošče smo lovili tudi v septembru, v letih 2005 in 2006 pa tudi v oktobru. Do leta 2005 na vabe nismo ujeli samic.

Leto 2007 je bilo, v primerjavi z leti 2003-2006, za razvoj koruznega hrošča, bolj ugodno. Zima je bila topla in sušna, kar je očitno ugodno vplivalo na preživetje jajčec in njihov razvoj. Prav tako je zgodnja in topla pomlad vplivala na preživetje in izleganje ličink kot tudi na setev in hitrejše dozorevanja koruze. Zato smo, na koruznih poljih, prve odrasle hrošče našli že konec junija, najmanj dva tedna prej kot prejšnja leta. Odrasle osebke koruznega hrošča smo leta 2007 ugotovili tudi v nasadih sončnic in buč, kar pa za nas ni presenetljivo, saj jih je LeConte našel v cvetovih buče že leta 1868 (Smith in Lawrence, 1967). Leta 2007 smo ugotovili, da je bil tudi največji nalet hroščev nekoliko prej kot v predhodnih treh letih, in sicer konec julija oziroma v začetku avgusta (odvisno od lokacije).

Način pridelave (kolobar), čas dozorevanja koruze in zgodnji pojav hroščev so v preučevanem obdobju neposredno vplivali na naravno širjenje koruznega hrošča po državi. Prav tako pa so na njegovo širjenje v precejšnjem obsegu vplivale tudi prometne poti, kar dokazujejo nekatere »nepričakovane« najdbe škodljivca v letu 2007 vzdolž nekaterih manjših letališč s povečanim notranjim prometom (Cerkle) ter večjih počivališč ob avtocestah (Lukovica pri Domžalah). O trendu širjenja hrošča po transportnih poteh je poročal že (Hummel s sod., 2006).

Glede na prvi ulov koruznega hrošča vzdolž južne meje s Hrvaško (Posavje, Dolenjska, Bela Krajina) v letu 2007 lahko sklepamo, da gre tudi na tem območju Slovenije za nadaljevanje naravnega širjenja. Rezultati ulova kažejo, da se je hrošč iz že ustaljenega območja na Hrvaškem, širil po prometnih poteh na še ne napadeno območje južne ter potem tudi osrednje Slovenije.

Na Goriškem se je škodljivec razširil od Nove Gorice do Ajdovščine (Slika 5), kar je posledica naletavanja strnjeneh populacij iz Severne Italije (Videm, Gorica). Znano je namreč, da se hrošč nezadržno širi po Srednji Evropi (Edwards, 2006), veča pa se tudi njegova populacijska gostota, in to predvsem na tistih območjih, kjer pridelujejo korozo več let na istih njivah (Kiss in sod., 2005). Zaradi intenzivnosti pridelave koruze v Italiji in zaradi naraščajoče populacije koruznega hrošča na območju Vidma (Udine), predvidevamo, da se bo škodljivec močneje širil proti osrednji Sloveniji tudi z zahodne strani. Dinamika naleta koruznega hrošča v Sloveniji je primerljiva z dinamiko naleta v sosednjih državah, je pa manjša kot v Združenih državah Amerike, kjer se je škodljivec v enem letu razširil tudi za več kot 100 km (Metcalf, 1983). Ševeda je pri tem pomembna intenzivnost pridelave koruze oziroma njena navzočnost v kolobarju (Sivčev in sod., 1995; Kiss in sod., 2005).

V Sloveniji se je koruzni hrošč v obdobju 2003-2006 širil počasneje, povprečno 24 km/leto. V letu 2007 pa se je, predvsem zaradi zelo ugodnih vremenskih razmer za razvoj škodljivca, kot tudi zgodnejšo setev in dozorevanje koruze, razširil kar za 70 km, čeprav so bili uvedeni sorazmerno strogi in do tedaj tudi učinkoviti fitosanitarni ukrepi za preprečevanje širjenja koruznega hrošča (prepoved pridelave koruze v monokulturi, setev tretiranega semena na območjih pojava koruznega hrošča itn.). Izkazalo se je torej, da je škodljivec izjemno prilagodljiv, ko gre za okoljske dejavnike ter zaradi tega tudi nepredvidljiv in še toliko bolj nevaren. Sicer pa so o njegovi prilagodljivosti že v preteklosti večkrat poročali. Tako so že leta 1960 ugotovili, da je razvil odpornost na klorirane ogljikovodike (Ball in Weekman, 1962), leta 1990 pa so poročali o odpornosti škodljivca na organofosforjeve estre (metil paration), karbamate (karbaril) in dvoletni kolobar soja-koruza (Gray in sod., 1998). Pomembno je tudi to, da pri nas in v Evropi koruzni hrošč ni avtohtonata vrsta in specifični naravni sovražniki, ki bi učinkovito vplivali na njegovo smrtnost niso znani (Toepfer in Kuhlmann, 2006).

Pridelovalci koruze v Pomurju in v Podravju so že spremenili način pridelave v monokulturi in s tem omejili širjenje škodljivca.

5 SUMMARY

The spread of the western corn rootworm, *Diabrotica virgifera virgifera* (*Dvv*), was studied on the territory of Slovenia. Adult beetles were monitored in corn fields from 2003 to 2007 by using pheromone and floral bait traps and yellow sticky traps. The pest was encountered for the first time in 2003 in Pomurje and Podravje near the border to Hungary and Croatia. Only few beetles were caught in 2003 but 385 in 2004, 1347 in 2005, 4082 in 2006 and 10406 in 2007. The pest spread from the borders to Austria, Hungary and Croatia along the main access roads towards the interior of Slovenia and, by 2006, it reached Celje. In Southern Slovenia (Posavje, Dolenjska, Bela Krajina) *Dvv* was found in 2007. In Primorska (Goriška) near the Italian border, less than 10 beetles were caught in the years 2003 to 2006 but 93 in 2007. From Nova Gorica it spread to Ajdovščina in 2007. We assume that the pest must have entered Slovenia several times. Computer analyses adopting plant protection geographical information systems (GIS) suggest that *Dvv* spread naturally (continuously) between 2003 and 2006 at a speed of 24 km per year. Due to favourable weather conditions it may have spread 70 km in 2007. However, in 2007 adult beetles were also caught on smaller airports supplying inland traffic (Cerknje) and larger highway resting places (Lukovica near Domžale), which is why discontinuous spreading may have a great influence as well.

6 ZAHVALA

The work was supported financially by the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Food and by the Ministry of Higher Education, Science and Technology project no. V4-0110-04, and Phytosanitary Administration of the Republic of Slovenia (PARS).

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Agrovoc descriptors: carotenoids, stress, xanthophylls, resistance to injurious factors, photosensitivity, damage

Agris category codes: F62, F60

COBISS koda 1.02

Karotenoidi v fotosinteznem aparatu in odziv na stres

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Received December 19, 2007; accepted May 5, 2008.

Delo je prispelo 19. decembra 2007, sprejeto 5. maja 2008.

IZVLEČEK

Karotenoidi so tetraterpeni, ki so locirani izključno v kloroplastih in kromoplastih. V kloroplastu imajo pomembno vlogo pri zbiranju svetlobe, pri odvajjanju odvečne svetlobe iz fotosistema in pri odstranjevanju škodljivih molekul, ki nastajajo kot posledica delovanja stresorjev na rastlino. V članku so predstavljeni kloroplastni karotenoidi in njihova vloga. Poudarjena je vloga in delovanje ksantofilnega cikla v rastlinah v stresu.

Ključne besede: karotenoidi, stres, β -karoten, ksantofilni cikel, zeaksantin, violaksantin, anteraksantin

ABSTRACT

CAROTENOIDS IN PHOTOSYNTHETIC APPARATUS AND STRESS RESPONSE

Carotenoids are tetraterpenes which are exclusively located in chloroplast and chromoplast. Within the chloroplast, carotenoids have important roles in light-harvesting, photoprotection and stress response. Carotenoids in chloroplast are reviewed in this paper. The importance of carotenoids in plants under stress is discussed. The role and function of xanthophyll cycle in plants under stress is pointed out.

Key words: carotenoids, stress, β -carotene, xanthophyll cycle, zeaxanthin, violaxanthin, antheraxanthin

1 UVOD

Karotenoidi so najbolj razširjeni rastlinski pigmenti. Najdemo jih v membranah kloroplastov v vseh zelenih tkivih in v stromi kromoplastov v rumeno, oranžno in rdeče obarvanih tkivih. Karotenoidi v kromoplastih služijo za privabljanje oprševalcev in raznašalcev semen in plodov. V kloroplastu pa imajo pomembno vlogo pri zbiranju svetlobe, pri odvajjanju odvečne svetlobe iz fotosistema, stabilizaciji pigment-proteinskih kompleksov in membran ter pri odstranjevanju

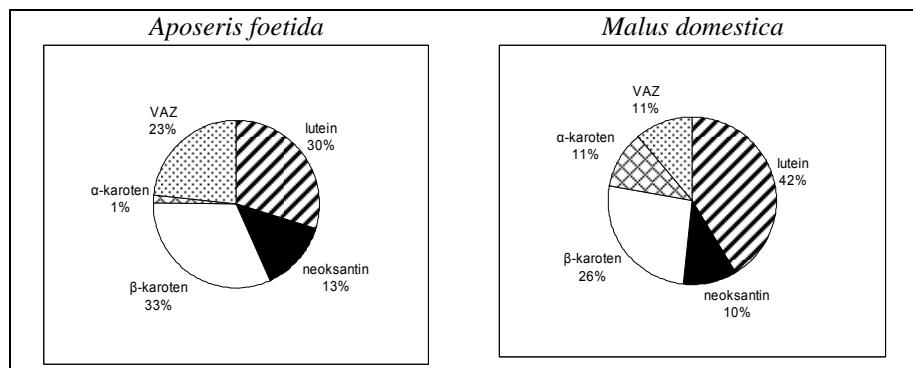
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škodljivih molekul, ki nastajajo kot posledica delovanja stresorjev na rastlino (Rau, 1988; DellaPenna, 1999; Havaux, 1998; Gruszecki, 1999).

V članku so predstavljeni kloroplastni karotenoidi in njihova vloga. Poudarek je predvsem na zaščitni funkciji karotenoidov, ki je zlasti pomembna v razmerah, ki povzročijo v rastlinah stres. Karotenoidi preprečujejo tvorbo škodljivih vrst kisika, ki nastajajo v kloroplastih zaradi delovanja različnih stresorjev. Pogosto je povečanje vsebnosti katerega od zaščitnih karotenoidov del prilagoditvene strategije rastline v stresu. V primeru močnega stresa so zaščitni karotenoidni sistemi preobremenjeni, kar vodi do oksidativnih poškodb karotenoidov in posledično do zmanjšanja vsebnosti teh zaščitnih molekul. V rastlinah v stresu je zato vsebnost karotenoidov lahko kazalec različne jakosti stresa in prilagoditve na stres. Epoksidacijski status ksantofilnega cikla je eden od najboljših kazalcev stresa v rastlini, zato je v prispevku poudarjena vloga in delovanje tega cikla v rastlinah v stresu.

2 KAROTENOIDI V KLOROPLASTU

Večina višje razvitih rastlin vsebuje v kloroplastih predvsem naslednje karotenoide: β -karoten, lutein, violaksantin in neoksantin, ter manjše količine zeaksantina, anteraksantina in α -karotena (Goodwin in Britton, 1988). Razmerja med posameznimi pigmenti v kloroplastu so si podobna pri vseh višjih rastlinah. Za primer je na sliki 1 prikazana procentualna sestava karotenoidov v listih smrdljivega regrata (*Aposeris foetida* (L.) Less. in jablane (*Malus domestica* Borkh.).



Slika 1: Procentualni delež posameznih karotenoidov glede na skupne karotenoide v listih smrdljivega regrata (*Aposeris foetida* (L.) Less.) in jablane (*Malus domestica* Borkh.).

Figure 1: Contribution in percent of the various carotenoids to total carotenoid content in leaves of odorous pig salad (*Aposeris foetida* (L.) Less.) and apple tree (*Malus domestica* Borkh.).

V tilakoidni membrani kloroplasta se karotenoidi nahajajo v pigment-proteinskih kompleksih in sicer v reakcijskem centru PS I (RC I), PS II (RC II) in antenskih (žetvenih) kompleksih (LHC I in II). V RC I najdemo le β -karoten. Tudi v RC II je ta pigment glavni ali celo edini karotenoid. Poleg njega je v RC II lahko še lutein. LHC I vsebuje lutein, neoksantin, violaksantin in β -karoten. Glavne komponente LHC II pa so ravno tako lutein, neoksantin, violaksantin včasih v zelo majhnih koncentracijah tudi β -karoten. V tilakoidah je večinski karoten β -karoten, najbolj zastopan ksantofil pa je lutein, ki lahko predstavlja več kot polovico vseh karotenoidov v kloroplastu (Green in Durnford, 1996; DellaPenna, 1999). Karotenoidi so našli tudi v membranah ovojnice kloroplasta, in sicer večinoma ksantofile (90%), 66,7% teh predstavlja violaksantin (Costes in sod., 1979). Nekateri avtorji menijo, da se karotenoidi v kloroplastih nahajajo izključno v tilakoidah in da so izmerjene vsebnosti v membranah ovojnice kloroplasta izključno posledica priprave vzorcev za analizo teh komponent (Grumbach, 1983).

Biosinteza karotenoidov, ki so po strukturi C40 izoprenoidi ali tetraterpeni, poteka v stromi in sicer po izoprenoidni poti. Začne se z mevalonatom, ki se pretvori v izopentenil pirofosfat (C5). Kondenzacija petih molekul izopentenil pirofosfata da geranilgeranil pirofosfat (C20). Sledi kondenzacija dveh molekul geranilgeranil pirofosfata v fitoen (C40) in desaturacija do likopena. Iz likopena lahko s ciklizacijo nastaneta α in β -karoten. Iz slednjega pa z reakcijami hidroksilacije (zeaksantin) in epoksidacije ksantofili (anteraksantin, violaksantin) (Britton, 1988; Bartley in Scolnik, 1994). Glavni regulator sinteze karotenoidov je svetloba. V kloroplastih na svetlobi najprej nastanejo pigment-protein kompleksi reakcijskega centra in nato antenski (žetveni) kompleksi s ksantofili. Delež posameznega karotenoida je odvisen od svetlobnih razmer. Sinteza in posledično sestava karotenoidov se lahko spreminja tudi pod vplivom drugih okoljskih dejavnikov (Demmig-Adams in sod., 1996; Šircelj, 1999, 2001, 2005, 2007). Primeri vpliva okoljskih dejavnikov na sestav karotenoidov so prikazani na slikah od 2 do 5.

3 VLOGA KAROTENOIDOV V KLOROPLASTU

3.1 Zbiranje svetlobne energije

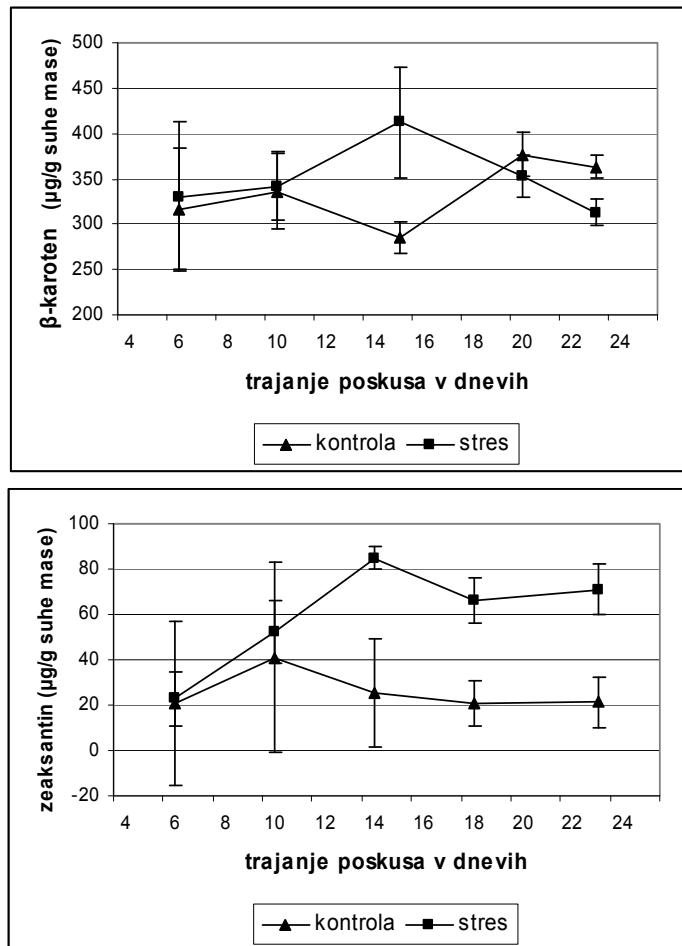
V kloroplastih imajo karotenoidi, v glavnem ksantofili, pomembno vlogo pri zbirjanju svetlobe. Sposobni so absorbirati svetlobo v valovnem območju od 400 do 500 nm (modra svetloba) in jo prenesti na klorofile. S tem razširijo spektralni obseg v katerem svetloba lahko poganja fotosintezo. Karotenoid, ki absorbira svetlobno energijo, preide v vzbujeno singlet stanje. To stanje je kratkotrajno, saj nekaj energije odda (toplota) in preide na nižji energetski nivo. Vzbujen karotenid na (delno) znižanem energetskem nivoju je ključen za prenos energije na klorofil, ki preide v vzbujeno singlet stanje. Ker so karotenoidi in klorofil v tilakoidah blizu skupaj, je ta prenos je zelo učinkovit. Vzbujeni klorofil lahko bodisi sodeluje v fotokemičnih reakcijah ali odda energijo kot fluorescenco ali toploto in se vrne v nevzbujeno (osnovno) stanje ali pa v najslabšem primeru preide v vzbujeno tripletno stanje. Zbiranje svetlobe je bila verjetno glavna funkcija karotenoidov pri

primitivnih rastlinah, ki so živele v atmosferi z malo kisika (Demmig-Adams in sod., 1996; Siefermann-Harms, 1987).

3.2 Odvajane odvečne svetlobne energije in antioksidativna funkcija

Za življenje rastlin, ki živijo v atmosferi z več kisika, je ključna za preživetje druga funkcija karotenoidov – odvajanje odvečne svetlobe iz fotosinteznega aparata. Če fotosintezni aparat sprejema več svetlobne energije kakor je uspe kanalizirati v fotosintezo in pretvoriti v neškodljivo kemično energijo, potem v prisotnosti kisika pride do tvorbe singletnega kisika in škodljivih radikalov, ki lahko poškodujejo celične strukture. Karotenoidi lahko odvečno ekscitacijsko energijo odvedejo kot toploto in tako preprečijo nastanek strupenih fotoproduktov. Če je presežek ekscitacijske energije tako velik, da strupeni fotoprodukti (vzbujeno tripletno stanje klorofila, singletni kisik, superoksid radikal, peroksidi) vseeno nastajajo, karotenoidi zaščitijo fotosintezni aparat pred poškodbami tako, da odstranijo singletni kisik in kisikove radikale, ter, kar je še bolj pomembno, dušijo dolgoživo vzbujeno tripletno stanje klorofila in tako preprečijo nastanek singletnega kisika (Demmig-Adams in sod., 1996; Young, 1991; Siefermann-Harms, 1987; Young in Britton, 1990; Edge in Truscott, 1999). Dušenja tripletnega stanja klorofila in odstranjevanja singletnega kisika so sposobni le karotenoidi z deset ali več konjugiranimi dvojnimi vezmi (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1996). Poleg zeaksantina naj bi bila odvajanja ekscitacijske energije v obliki toplote sposobna tudi anteraksantin in lutein (Horton in sod., 1999), vendar pa je za slednjega veljalo, da je njegova pozicija v fotosistemu neugodna za sodelovanje v tovrstnih procesih (Gilmore, 1997). Garcia-Plazaola in sod. (2007) so v nedavno objavljenem članku predlagali zanimivo rešitev, ki pojasnjuje kako lahko tudi lutein pomembno prispeva k odvajanju odvečne svetlobne energije iz fotosistema.

β -karoten in drugi karotenoidi lahko reagirajo s peroksil radikali. V primeru β -karotena pri tem nastane β -karoten radikal. Če je pri tem prisoten kisik, pride do avtooksidacije β -karotena. V odsotnosti kisika lahko β -karoten radikal reagira z drugim peroksil radikalom. Rezultat reakcije je neaktiven produkt. Odstranitev peroksil radikala pa lahko prepreči ali zaustavi peroksidacijo lipidov. β -karoten je zato učinkovitejši pri nizkem parcialnem tlaku kisika in dopolnjuje delovanje α -tokoferola, ki je bolj učinkovit pri visokem parcialnem tlaku kisika (Pallet in Young, 1993; Trebst, 2003).



Slika 2: Časovni potek sprememb vsebnosti β -karotena in zeaksantina ($\mu\text{g/g suhe mase}$) v listih zalivanih jablan (kontrola) in v listih jablan izpostavljenih počasi napredajoči suši (stres: 6 dan - blaga, 10 do 20 dan - zmerna, 23 dan - močna suša) (Šircelj, 1999).

Figure 2: Time courses of β -carotene and zeaxanthin ($\mu\text{g/g dry weight}$) in leaves of watered (control) apple trees and in leaves of apple trees exposed to slowly progressing drought (stress: mild - day 6, moderate - days 10 to 20, severe - day 23) (Šircelj, 1999).

V določenih primerih (močan stres) so zaščitni karotenoidni sistemi preobremenjeni, kar vodi do oksidativnega stresa in poškodb komponent tilakoidne membrane. Na sliki 2 lahko vidimo primer, ko je močan stres povzročil zmanjšanje vsebnosti β -karotena v listih jablane (Šircelj, 2001). Dovzetnost pigmentov za oksidativne poškodbe oz. bledenje pigmentov ima določeno zaporedje: β -karoten > neoksantin > violaksantin > lutein > klorofil a > klorofil b (Young in Britton, 1990). Karotenoidi so v primeru stresa bolj izpostavljeni kot klorofila, saj

predstavljajo prvo obrambno linijo kot dušilci triplet stanja klorofila in odstranjevalci singletnega kisika.

Rastline se v primeru, ko stres nastopi relativno počasi, na stresne razmere lahko prilagodijo tako, da povečajo intenzivnost sinteze karotenoidov, ki so najbolj pomembni za preprečevanje nastajanja in odstranjevanje škodljivih radikalov. Povečana vsebnost β -karotena in pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla glede na kontrolno stanje kaže na prilagoditev rastline na stresne razmere (slika 2) (Šircelj in sod., 1999; Šircelj in sod., 2005; Šircelj in sod., 2007).

4 CIKLI ZA ODVAJANJE ODVEČNE SVETLOBNE ENERGIJE – KSANTOFILNI CIKLI

V rastlinah je eden od glavnih načinov preprečevanja kopičenja odvečne ekscitacijske energije v fotosinteznem aparatu odvajanje odvečne energije iz zasičenega fotosinteznega aparata v obliki toplove s pomočjo ksantofilnih ciklov, ki pretvarjajo odvečno sončno energijo v toplovo že pred nastankom škodljivih oksidantov. Odvajanje energije iz fotosinteznega aparata v obliki toplove je reguliran proces. S povečevanjem gostote fotonskega pretoka (PFD-photon flux density) njegova aktivnost narašča. Povečano odvajanje presežne energije iz fotosinteznega aparata v obliki toplove se pojavi neodvisno od tega ali je presežek energije posledica povečanega PFD ali pa zmanjšanje fotosinteze, ki jo povzročijo razne vrste stresa brez sprememb v PFD. Odvajanje energije seveda zmanjša učinkovitost fotosinteze, vendar je to le majhen strošek v primerjavi s potencialnimi poškodbami, ki jih povzroča presežek ekscitacijske energije v rastlini (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1993).

Poznanih je šest ksantofilnih ciklov, ki jim pripisujejo sposobnost odvajanja odvečne svetlobne energije iz fotosinteznega aparata:

1. violaksantinski ali ksantofilni cikel opisan v nadaljevanju (3.1), srečamo pri vseh do sedaj preučevanih višjih rastlinah, kakor tudi pri praprotnicah, mahovih, lišajih in nekaterih algah,
2. skrajšani violaksantinski cikel v primitivni algi *Mantoniella squamata* (Manton & Parke), pri katerem gre deepoksidacija samo do anteraksantina in ne do zeaksantina kot v običajnem violaksantskem ciklu (Goss et al., 1998; Gilmore and Yamamoto 2001),
3. še ne popolnoma raziskan modificiran violaksantinski cikel v rdečih algah iz rodu *Gracilaria* (Rmiki et al., 1996), ki ne vsebuje violaksantina in naj bi tako cikel potekal samo med anteraksantinom in zeaksantinom,
4. lutein-epoksidni cikel opisan najprej v zelenem paradižniku (Rabinowitch et al., 1975, kasneje pa še v zajedalski rastlini *Cuscuta reflexa* Roxb. (Bungard et al., 1999) in v nekaterih drugih rastlinah, kot so npr. lovor in nekatere vrste hrastov (Garcia-Plazaola et al., 2007). V lutein-epoksidnem ciklu se monoepoksid lutein-5,6-epoksid (imenovan tudi taraksantin) pretvarja v lutein v razmerah močne osvetlitve in nato nazaj v lutein-5,6-epoksid, ko se jakost osvetlitve zmanjšuje (Bungard et al. 1999). Za razliko od violaksantskega cikla, kjer do pretvorb med pigmenti cikla lahko prihaja zelo hitro (minute), je

- v lutein-epoksidnem ciklu epoksidacija lutein-epokside v lutein zelo počasna (dnevi) (Rabinowitch et al., 1975; Bungard et al., 1999; Snyder et al. 2005). Garcia-Plazaola in sodelavci (2007) so šele pred kratkim predlagali zelo verjeten način delovanja tega cikla v rastlinah.
5. diadinoksantsinski cikel prisoten v številnih algah (Stransky in Hager, 1970; Pfundel in Bilger, 1994),
 6. nedavno odkrit cikel v katerem nastopata sifonaksantin in lutein, opisan samo za zeleno algo *Caulerpa racemosa* (Forsskal) J. Agarth (Raniello et al., 2006).

Pri višjih rastlinah sta od zgoraj naštetih ciklov prisotna le najbolj razširjeni violaksantski ali ksantofilni cikel in manj razširjeni (taksonomsko vezano; na nivoju družin) in še ne popolnoma raziskani luteinepoksidni cikel. V nadaljevanju je podrobnejše opisan violaksantski cikel.

4.1 Violaksantski ali ksantofilni cikel

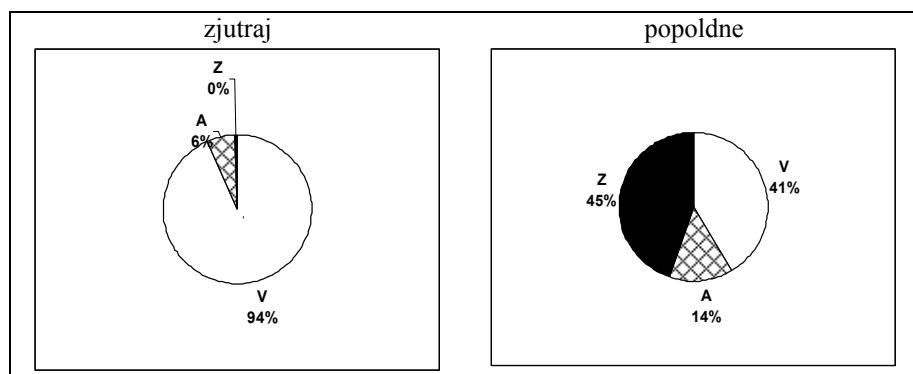
Violaksantski cikel je prvi odkrit, najpogosteji in najbolj učinkovit od šestih poznanih ksantofilnih ciklov, zato ga v literaturi označujejo kar kot ksantofilni cikel. Ključna molekula mehanizma za odvajanje presežne ekscitacijske energije v tem ciklu je zeaksantin. Zeaksantin naj bi dušil vzbujeno singlet stanje klorofila neposredno ali posredno z vplivom na konformacijo ali agregacijo klorofil-proteinskih kompleksov (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1992; Horton in sod., 1999).

Pigmenti violaksantskega cikla nastajajo iz β -karotena. Presežna ekscitacijska energija v fotosinteznem aparatu specifično stimulira β,β -karotenoidno pot, kar vodi do kopičenja β -karotena in pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla. Iz β -karotena s hidroksilacijo nastane zeaksantin iz katerega z epoksidacijo nastaneta anteraksantin in violaksantin. V primeru presežke energije se lahko zeaksantin relativno hitro tvori iz violaksantina in anteraksantina v reakciji encimske deepoksidacije (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1993) in relativno hitro tudi iz β -karotena. Menijo, da je sposobnost za hitre pretvorbe med β -karotenom in pigmenti ksantofilnega cikla povezana z odpornostjo rastline na stres (Demmig in sod., 1988; Depka in sod., 1998).

Končni koraki biosinteze pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla (sinteza zeaksantina iz β -karotena in epoksidacija zeaksantina v anteraksantin in violaksantin) potekajo v ovojnicih membrane kloroplasta. Deepoksidacija violaksantina v anteraksantin in zeaksantin pa poteka izključno v tilakoidah. Verjetno se violaksantin iz membran ovojnice kloroplasta, kjer nastaja prenaša v tilakoide, kjer potekajo vse reakcije ksantofilnega cikla, ki je aktivен tako v PSI kot v PS II (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1992; Eskling in sod., 1997).

Pretvorbe pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla so edine spremembe karotenoidnega sistema fotosinteznega aparata do katerih prihaja v razmeroma kratkem časovnem intervalu. Pojavijo se kot odziv na spremembe v ravnotežju med absorpcijo svetlobe in uporabo svetlobne energije v fotosinteznem metabolizmu ogljika. Ksantofilni cikel sestavlja dve reakciji, ki ju katalizirata dva različna encima. Vključuje deepoksidacijo diepoksida violaksantina v monoepoksid anteraksantin in

deepoksidacijo tega v zeaksantin, kar katalizira deepoksidaza. Obratno reakcijo katalizita epoksidaza (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1993). Reakcija deepoksidacije naj bi potekla zelo hitro (v nekaj sekundah), epoksidacija pa počasneje (več minut do več ur) (Demmig-Adams in sod., 1999). *In vivo* je deepoksidacija odvisna od močne osvetlitve, epoksidacijo pa stimulira šibka svetloba. Pri šibki osvetlitvi prevladuje violaksantin, ko pa PFD naraste nad zahteve za saturacijo fotosinteze, se poveča vsebnost zeaksantina (slika 3). Svetlobna regulacija cikla oziroma povezava epoksidacijskega statusa z jakostjo svetlobe je mogoča zaradi lastnosti encimov vključenih v cikel. Deepoksidaza ima pH optimum v kislem, epoksidaza pa v alkalnem (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1996; Demmig-Adams in sod., 1999). Ker sta oba encima lahko hkrati aktivna na svetlobi, ko je pH lumna tilakoid nizek, pH strome kloroplasta pa visok menijo, da se deepoksidaza nahaja v tilakoidni membrani blizu lumna tilakoid, epoksidaza pa blizu strome. Cikel naj bi potekal v lipidni fazi tilakoidne membrane. Pigmenti cikla naj bi se izmenjevali med antenskim kompleksom in cikлом v membrani (Sarry in sod., 1994; Yamamoto in sod., 1999; Eskling in sod., 1997; Pfundel in Bilger, 1994).

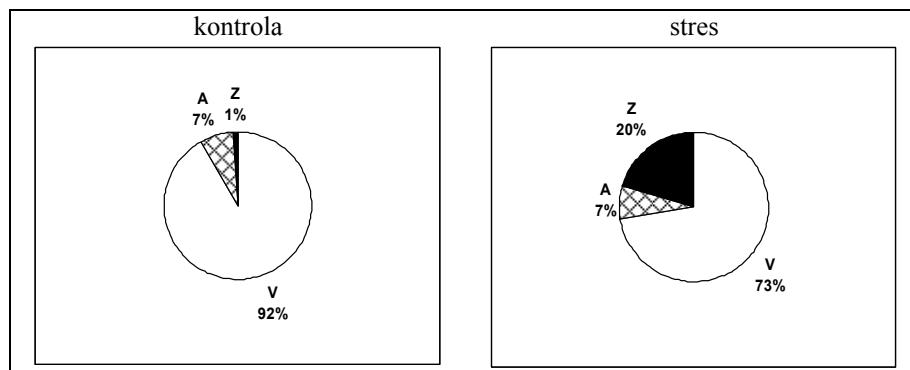


Slika 3: Procentualni delež posameznih pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla (zeaksantin (Z), violaksantin (V) in anteraksantin (A)) v listih velike koprive (*Urtica dioica* L.), ki so bili pobrani zgodaj zjutraj (majhen PFD) in v listih, ki so bili pobrani popoldne (velik PFD).

Figure 3: Contribution in percent of the single xanthophyll cycle pigment (zeaxanthin (Z), violaxanthin (V) in antheraxanthin (A)) to total xanthophyll cycle pigment content in leaves of Stinging Nettle (*Urtica dioica* L.) collected in the morning (low PFD) or in the afternoon (high PFD).

V reakciji deepoksidacije in epoksidacije pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla je vključen NADPH in sicer neposredno kot kosubstrat v primeru epoksidacije in posredno v primeru deepoksidacije, kjer deluje kot regenerator oksidirane oblike askorbata, ki nastane iz reduciranega askorbata pri deepoksidaciji violaksantina. Poraba NADPH za redukcijo askorbata prispeva k linearному elektronskemu transportu in povečanju transtilakoidnega pH gradiента (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1992; Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1993; Eskling in sod., 1997).

Za delovanje zeaksantina pri odvajjanju ekscitacijske energije v obliki topote je nujno potreben transtilakoidni pH gradient (zmanjšanje pH lumna tilakoid) (Horton in sod., 1999; Yamamoto in sod., 1999), ki nastane kot posledica elektronskega transporta ali/in hidrolize ATP (Gilmore, 1997). Protonski gradient aktivira deepoksidazo in s tem pretvorbo violaksantina v anteraksantin in zeaksantin. Hkrati pa protonski gradient povzroči protonacijo karbonilnih skupin in posledično spremembo konformacije nekaterih proteinov, ki obdajajo pigmente v anteni PSII. Zeaksantin in anteraksantin zaradi spremenjene konformacije proteinov v fotosistemu lahko zavzameta položaj, ki omogoča sprejemanje ekscitacijske energije od molekul klorofila a, ki jo oddata kot topoto (Gilmore, 1997). Baker in sod. (neobj., cit. po Demmig-Adams in sod., 1999) so pri raziskavah ekofiziologije juke v puščavskih razmerah ugotovili, da velika količina zeaksantina ne pomeni vedno manjše fotosinteze, kar potrjuje domnevo, da so za odvajanje odvečne ekscitacijske energije poleg zeaksantina zelo pomembni še drugi dejavniki, npr. transtilakoidni protonski gradient.



Slika 4: Procentualni delež posameznih pigmentov ksantofilnega cikla (zeaksantin (Z), violaksantin (V) in anteraksantin (A)) v listih pobranih zgodaj zjutraj (majhen PFD) z zalivanih jablan (kontrola) in z jablan izpostavljenih močni suši (stres).

Figure 4: Contribution in percent of the single xanthophyll cycle pigment (zeaxanthin (Z), violaxanthin (V) in antheraxanthin (A)) to total xanthophyll cycle pigment content in leaves collected early in the morning (low PFD) from well watered (control) apple trees (*Malus domestica* Borkh.) or from apple trees exposed to severe drought (stress).

Vsebnost skupnih pigmentov cikla ostaja v normalnih razmerah tekom dneva konstantna, epoksidacijski status pa se spreminja s PFD (slika 3). Odvisen je od ekspozicije lista in od svetlobne saturacijske točke rastline ali lista. Če rastlina ni v stresu, se delež zeaksantina glede na skupne pigmente ksantofilnega cikla in posledično odvajanje presežne ekscitacijske energije v obliki topote zmanjša z zmanjševanjem PFD (slika 3). V primeru, da je rastlina v stresu, pa lahko ostane delež zeaksantina velik tudi, ko se PFD zmanjšuje (slika 4). Posledica je odvajanje

energije v obliki toplotne tudi v primeru majhnega PFD in tako manjša aktivnost fotosinteze. V tem primeru je velik del fotoinhibicije posledica fotozaščite (Demmig in sod., 1988; Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1993; Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1992a; Šircelj 2001). Demmig-Adams in sod. (1999) menijo, da je zadrževanje velike količine zeaksantina v stresnih razmerah lahko posledica sprememb v stereokemiji v pigment-proteinskih kompleksih fotosistemov, do katerih naj bi prišlo med drugim tudi zaradi fosforilacije proteinov v kompleksih, kar je lahko posledica akumulacije ogljikovih hidratov zaradi stresa.

Pri odzivu ksantofilnega cikla na okoljske dejavnike lahko ugotavljamo dva tipa sprememb na ravni pigmentov. Hitre spremembe (v minutah ali urah) vključujejo pretvorbe v obstoječi sestavi pigmentov in so odvisne predvsem od PFD. Spremembe, ki zahtevajo več časa pa vključujejo bodisi zmanjšanje vsebnosti skupnih pigmentov cikla zaradi poškodb in razpada ali pa povečanje vsebnosti skupnih pigmentov v primeru, da gre za adaptacijo na stresne razmere (Demmig-Adams in Adams, 1999).

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Agrovoc descriptors: heavy metals, soil pollution, contamination, lead, zinc, bioaccumulation, digestive system

Agris category codes: T01, P33

COBISS koda 1.01

Remediacija zemljine z območja stare cinkarne v Celju z metodo stabilizacije s cementom

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Delo je prispelo 3. aprila 2008; sprejeto 5. maja 2008

Received April 03, 2008; accepted May 05, 2008

IZVLEČEK

Pet reprezentančnih vzorcev močno onesnažene zemljine z območja stare cinkarne v Celju (Slovenija), ki so vsebovali od 7300 do 17200 mg kg⁻¹ celokupnega Pb, od 6000 do 63600 mg kg⁻¹ celokupnega Zn in od 24 do 250 mg kg⁻¹ celokupnega Cd, smo remedirali z metodo stabilizacije s 15 ut.% portland cementa. Po 4 mesecih stabilizacije se je mobilnost Pb, Zn in Cd določena s TCLP metodo (»Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure«) 5,8 - 17,4, 8,1 - 35,8 oz. 4,3 - 7,3-krat zmanjšala. Potencialna dostopnost Pb, Zn in Cd za rastline, določena z ekstrakcijo z dietilentriaminpentaoacetno kislino (DTPA), se je po stabilizaciji 1,6 - 9,8, 1,1 - 2,1 oz. 1,3 - 4,1-krat zmanjšala. Biodostopni delež Pb določen s fiziološko osnovanim ekstrakcijskim testom (»Physiologically Based Extraction Test«; PBET) se je v črevesni frakciji po stabilizaciji 5,9 - 11,3-krat zmanjšal.

Ključne besede: Težke kovine, stabilizacija, cement, biodostopnost, mobilnost.

REMEDIATION OF SOIL FROM A FORMER ZINC SMELTER AREA WITH STABILIZATION WITH CEMENT

ABSTRACT

Five representative samples of heavily polluted soil from a former industrial area in Celje (Slovenia) containing 7300 – 17200 mg kg⁻¹ total Pb, 6000 - 63600 mg kg⁻¹ total Zn and 24 - 250 mg kg⁻¹ total Cd were remediated with the stabilization method with 15 % (w/w) portland cement. After 4 months of stabilization the mobility of Pb, Zn and Cd assessed with Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure (TCLP) decreased by factors 5.8 - 17.4, 8.1 - 35.8 and 4.3 - 7.3, respectively. Potential availability of Pb, Zn and Cd for plants assessed with diethylenetriaminpentaaetic acid (DTPA) extraction decreased by factors 1.6 - 9.8, 1.1 - 2.1 and 1.3 - 4.1 after stabilization, respectively. Bioaccessibility of Pb assessed with a physiologically based extraction test (PBET) decreased after stabilization by factors up to 11.3 in the small intestine fraction.

Key words: Heavy metals, stabilization, cement, bioaccessibility, mobility.

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1. UVOD

Onesnaženost urbanih tal je posledica večih dejavnikov, kot so npr. promet, odpadki, industrija in ostali antropogeni vplivi, kar posledično spremeni talne lastnosti in vsebnost onesnažil (Adriano, 2001). Onesnažena urbana tla običajno niso namenjena pridelavi hrane, vendar imajo kljub temu vpliv na človekovo zdravje, saj lahko v telo vstopajo po različnih poteh, npr. z vdihovanjem prahu (Madrid in sod., 2006; Adriano, 2001; Ruby in sod., 1996). Onesnažila se lahko zaradi svoje mobilnosti izpirajo v površinske oz. v podtalne vodne vire in tako ogrožijo zdravje na tem področju živečega prebivalstva (Abdel-Sahab in sod., 1994). Med vsemi v tleh prisotnimi onesnažili predstavljajo toksične kovine velik problem zaradi njihove vedno večje prisotnosti, zaradi njihove strupenosti pri že relativno nizkih koncentracijah in zaradi njihovih kemijskih lastnosti, ki omejujejo učinkovitost razpoložljivih remediacijskih tehnik (Alpaslan in Yukselen, 2002).

V grobem obstajata dva načina remediacije onesnaženih tal, in sicer remediacija z odstranitvijo onesnažil ter remediacija s stabilizacijo le-teh, izbira med njima pa je odvisna predvsem od namembnosti onesnaženega območja. Postopki odstranitve oz. ekstrakcije onesnažil iz tal so običajno dragi. Cenovno ugodnejši so postopki stabilizacije onesnažil z dodajanjem aditivov v tla. Z ustrezno izbiro slednjih lahko zmanjšamo mobilnost in posledično toksičnost onesnažil ter izboljšamo mehanske lastnosti tal samih (Alpaslan in Yukselen, 2002; Kabata-Pendias in Pendias, 1992). Glede na objave, je stabilizacija s cementom ena najučinkovitejših metod imobilizacije toksičnih kovin v tleh, saj se tvori trajni monolitni material z bistveno zmanjšanim potencialnim vplivom na okolje (Batchelor, 2006; Baker in Bishop, 1997).

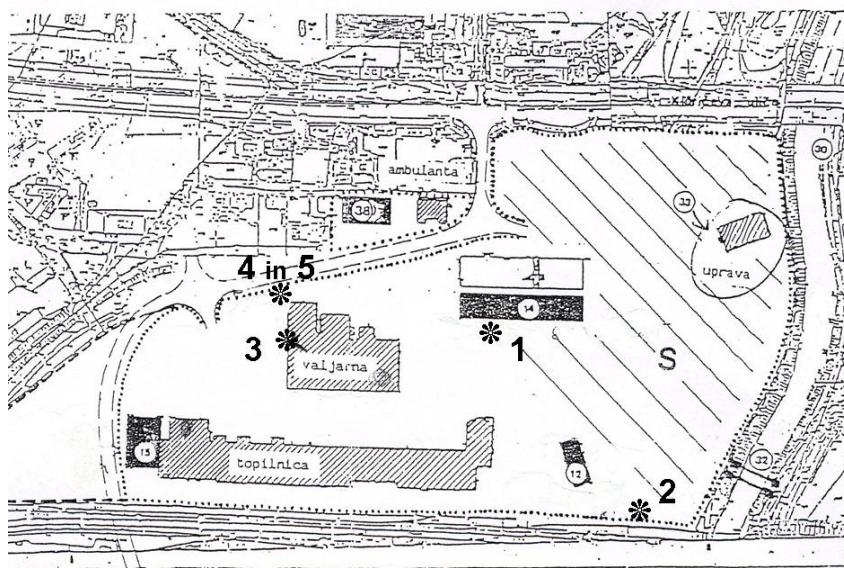
Ocenjevanje tal z vidika onesnaženosti v Sloveniji temelji na celokupni koncentraciji onesnažil v tleh (Ur.l. RS št. 68, 1996), vendar celokupne koncentracije ne smemo enačiti z biološko dostopno koncentracijo. Biološko dostopna koncentracija se nanaša na tisti delež oz. frakcijo celokupne koncentracije toksičnih kovin, ki jo organizem lahko privzame oz., ki ima vpliv na biološki material (Geebelin in sod., 2003). Za določanje biodostopnosti je vpeljanih veliko ekstrakcijskih testov (Jing in sod., 2004). Ekstrakcija z dietilentriaminpentaoacetno kislino (DTPA) (Lindsay in Norwell, 1978) je zelo razširjena enostopenjska ekstrakcija za določanje biodostopnosti toksičnih kovin in ostalih mikronutrientov za rastline (Dean, 2007). Za določanje biodostopnosti toksičnih kovin za človeka uporabljamо fiziološko osnovane biodostopnostne teste, ki simulirajo dogajanje v človekovih prebavilih. Nekatere različice so poenostavljene enostopenjske (npr. Lee in sod., 2006), nekatere pa dvo- ali večstopenjske, saj simulirajo dogajanje v posameznih delih prebavnega trakta (npr. Ruby in sod., 1996; Oomen in sod., 2003). Zaradi možnosti izpiranja onesnažil v tla in posledično v vodne vire je pomembno določiti njihovo mobilnost. Ekstrakcijsko metodo TCLP (»Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure«) se po standardiziranem postopku US Environmental Protection Agency uporablja za določanje mobilnosti organskih in anorganskih onesnažil v tekočih, trdnih in multifaznih odpadkih. S TCLP dobljene rezultate primerjamo z mejnimi vrednostmi za klasifikacijo odpadkov določenimi s strani US EPA.

Namen našega dela je bil oceniti potencialno nevarnost zemljine same ter zmanjšati dosegljivost in mobilnost toksičnih kovin v zemljinah na območju stare cinkarne v Celju z remediacijo s stabilizacijo s portland cementom. Primerjali smo pH, mobilnost in biodostopnost Pb, Zn in Cd v tleh pred ter po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.

2. MATERIALI IN METODE

2.1 Talni vzorci

Zemljino smo vzorčili na petih mestih na območju stare cinkarne v Celju na globini od 0 do -30 cm (Slika 1). Pred nadaljnimi analizami smo zemljino presejali čez 5 mm sito. Za standardno pedološko analizo smo v suspenziji 0,01 CaCl₂ (razmerje tla : raztopina = 1:2) izmerili pH zemljine, količino organske snovi smo določili s titracijo po metodi Walkley-Black, kationsko izmenjevalno kapaciteto z amonij-acetatno metodo, teksturol tal z mehansko analizo in dostopen fosfor (v obliki P₂O₅) kolorimetrično po Egner-Domingovi metodi (Kalra in Maynard, 1991).



Slika 1: Vzorčna mesta zemljine na območju stare cinkarne v Celju.
Figure 1: Sampling sites in the area of the former zinc smelter in Celje.

2.2 Stabilizacija s portland cementom

Postopek stabilizacije smo izvedli na vseh 5-ih vzorcih zemljine, v treh ponovitvah. Vsakemu vzorcu (5 kg), ki smo ga predhodno presejali čez 5 mm sito, smo homogeno vmešali portland cement (15 ut.%). Dobljeno zmes smo navlažili z vodo do 45,5 % poljske kapacitete tal, porazdelili v pet posod ($V= 600 \text{ mL}$), ki smo jih prekrili s prozorno folijo, da bi preprečili izhlapevanje vode ter jih pustili 4 mesece v temi pri konstantni zračni temperaturi 15°C in visoki relativni zračni vlagi (cca. 80%). Po tem času smo nastale monolitne bloke razbili, jih zmleli, presejali in pripravili za nadaljnje analize.

2.3 pH

pH in električno prevodnost (Kalra in Maynard, 1991) smo določali v ekstraktih zemljine pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.

Za določanje pH vrednosti zemljine pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo smo 10g suhega in presejanega vzorca (< 2 mm) dodali 20 mL 0,01M raztopine CaCl_2 (razmerje 1:2), vzorce pustili, da se prepojijo z raztopino, jih nato večkrat premešali, jih pustili, da se posedejo ter določili pH vrednost supernatanta (pH-meter Consort R305). Meritve smo izvedli v treh ponovitvah.

2.4 TCLP (»Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure«)

S TCLP metodo (US EPA, 1995) smo določili mobilnost Pb, Zn in Cd v zemljini pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.

Po 10 g zračno suhih tal smo prelili z 200 mL ekstrakcijske raztopine 0,0992M ocetne kisline in 0,0643M NaOH (pH 4,93) ter jih stresali 18h pri 300 obratih min^{-1} . Vzorce smo vakuumsko filtrirali (Whatman-ov filter št. 42), filtrat zakisali s konc. HNO_3 do pH<2 in shranili v hladilniku pri 5°C do meritve. Ekstrakcijo in meritve smo izvedli v treh ponovitvah.

2.5 Rastlinam dostopne toksične kovine

Dostopnost Pb, Zn in Cd za rastline pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo smo določili z ekstrakcijo z dietilentriaminpentaoacetno kislino (DTPA) (Lindsay in Norwell, 1978). 10 g zračno suhih tal smo prelili z ekstrakcijsko raztopino, ki vsebuje 0,005 M DTPA, 0,01 M CaCl_2 in 0,1 M trietanolamina (TEA) (pH 7,30). Ekstrakcijsko mešanico smo stresali 2h na stresalniku pri 120 obratih min^{-1} in nastalo suspenzijo vakuumsko filtrirali. Filtrat smo shranili v hladilniku pri 5°C do meritve. Ekstrakcijo in meritve smo izvedli v treh ponovitvah.

2.6 Biološka (oralna) dostopnost Pb

Biološko (oralno) dostopnost svinca pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo smo določili s fiziološko osnovanim testom (»Physiologically Based Extraction Test«, PBET), s katerim simuliramo želodčno in črevesno fazo v človeškem prebavnem traktu (Ruby in sod., 1996). Želodčno fazo simuliramo z razapljaljem 1,25 g pepsina, 0,50 g citrata, 0,50 g malata, 420 μL laktata in 500 μL ocetne kisline v 1L deionizirane vode, raztopini nato z 12N HCl uravnamo pH na vrednost $2,50 \pm 0,05$. 0,4 g zmletega in presejanega vzorca (<250 μm) smo prelili s 40 mL želodčne raztopine in vzorčno mešanico 1h prepihovali z argonom (simulacija peristaltičnih gibov) v vodni kopeli pri kostantni temperaturi 37°C ter pri vzdrževanem kostantnem pH 2,50 $\pm 0,05$. Po 1h smo vzorčili po 2 mL ekstrakta, odstranjeni volumen nadomestili z 2 mL želodčne raztopine, dodali 20 mg pankreatina in 70 mg žolčnega ekstrakta ter vzorčno mešanico s približno 1 g NaHCO_3 v dializni vrečki (8000 MWCO, Spectra/Por cellulose ester tubing) titrirali do pH 7,00. Po 1h simuliranja črevesne faze smo vzorčili po 2 mL ekstrakta. Vzorčene ekstrakte smo centrifugirali, supernatant odpipetirali in shranili v hladilniku pri 5°C do meritve. Ekstrakcijo in meritve smo izvedli v treh ponovitvah.

2.7 Določanje toksičnih kovin v vzorcih

Zračno suhe vzorce zemljine pred remediacijo s stabilizacijo smo zmleli v ahatni terilnici (3 g), jih presejali čez 160 μm sito, razklolili v zlatotopki (28 mL) (SIST ISO 11466:1996), razredčili z deionizirano vodo do končnega volumena 100 mL in določili celokupno vsebnost Pb, Zn ter Cd z AAS (Perkin-Elmer 1100-B, Norwalk, CT, USA). Pb, Zn in Cd v posameznih ekstraktih (TCLP, DTPA, PBET) smo določili neposredno z AAS. Pri razklopu smo pravilnost postopka preverili s standardnim referenčnim materialom iz HBLFA Raumberg-Gumpenstein, Irdning, Avstrija (ALVA 2001 Boden 1). Meje detekcije so bile 0,5 mg L^{-1} za Pb, 0,018 mg L^{-1} za Zn in 0,028 mg L^{-1} za Cd. Zaradi natančnosti meritve smo v analize vključili slepe vzorce ter ponovitve.

3. REZULTATI IN DISKUSIJA

3.1 Lastnosti zemljine

Standardne pedološke lastnosti zemljine pred remediacijo s stabilizacijo in celokupne koncentracije Pb, Zn ter Cd so podane v Tabeli 1. Kot je razvidno, celokupne koncentracije Pb, Zn in Cd v zemljinah vzorčenih na vseh petih vzorčnih mestih močno presegajo kritične imisijske vrednosti nevarnih snovi v tleh določene v Ur. I. RS Št. 68 (1996) (t.j. 530 mg kg⁻¹ za Pb, 720 mg kg⁻¹ za Zn in 12 mg kg⁻¹ za Cd). Za primerjavo lahko povemo, da se po navedbah avtorjev koncentracije teh kovin v naravi gibljejo med 5 in 40 mg kg⁻¹ za Pb, med 15 in 150 mg kg⁻¹ za Zn ter med 0,1 in 1 mg kg⁻¹ za Cd (Angelone in sod., 2006). Zaradi omejenega časa in finančnih sredstev, ki so bili na voljo za izvedbo raziskave, smo se osredotočili le na Pb, Zn in Cd, vendar tudi celokupne koncentracije ostalih onesnažil (arzena, barija, bakra, kroma, molibdena, nikla, kobalta in živega srebra) v zemljini z istega območja presegajo mejne ter v nekaterih primerih tudi kritične vrednosti določene v Ur. I. RS Št. 68 (1996) (interni vir). Zemljine na teh lokacijah zato niso primerne za pridelavo rastlin v prehrambene namene ljudi in živali ter za zadrževanje in filtriranje vode. Ker so bile vzorčene zemljine na območje stare cinkarne delno tudi navožene, se njihove pedološke lastnosti med seboj razlikujejo (Tabela 1).

Tabela 1: Standardne pedološke lastnosti (pred remediacijo s stabilizacijo) in celokupne koncentracije Pb, Zn in Cd v petih vzorcih zemljin z območja stare cinkarne v Celju.

Table 1: Standard soil analysis (before remediation with stabilization) and total Pb, Zn and Cd concentrations in five soil samples from the former zinc smelter in Celje.

	Vzorec 1	Vzorec 2	Vzorec 3	Vzorec 4	Vzorec 5
pH	6,4	7,3	7,3	7,1	7,1
P ₂ O ₅ (mg 100g ⁻¹)	8,0	oborina	oborina	oborina	7,5
K ₂ O (mg 100g ⁻¹)	52,1	19,3	15,6	17,7	21,4
Org. snov (%)	3,4	10,1	5,4	4,3	1,8
C/N razmerje	20,0	38,7	25,8	22,7	12,5
* Teksturni razred	PI	PI	PI	PI	I
CEC (mmol C ⁺ 100g ⁻¹)	123,6	31,5	80,5	109,7	60,6
Pb (mg kg ⁻¹)	9400±88	13111±255	17256±150	9333±233	7392±167
Zn (mg kg ⁻¹)	6073±67	26678±740	63622±1926	23044±367	12924±269
Cd (mg kg ⁻¹)	24,4±0,1	74,0±1,2	252,9±5,7	56,9±2,4	31,3±0,2

* Teksturni razred: PI - peščena ilovica; I - ilovica.

* Textural class: SL – sandy loam; L – loam.

3.2 pH

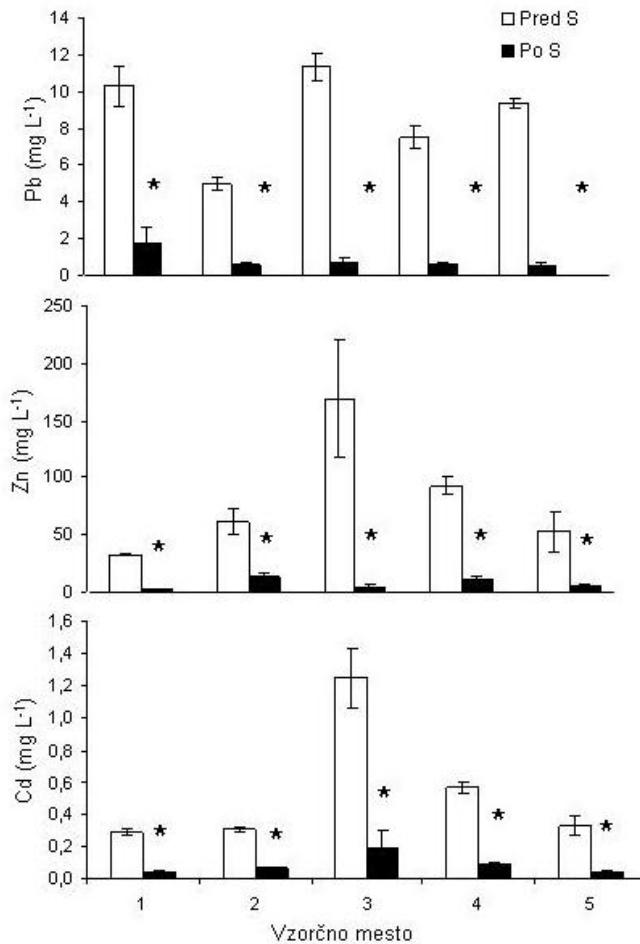
Reakcija tal je eden najpomembnejših dejavnikov vpliva na topnost, mobilnost in dostopnost Pb, Zn ter Cd (Kabata-Pendias in Pendias, 1992). Biološka dostopnost

in mobilnost le-teh namreč upadata z višanjem pH vrednosti tal (Adriano, 2001). Po remediaciji zemljine s stabilizacijo je pH vrednost zemljine po pričakovanjih narasla zaradi alkalne narave cementa samega (Glasser, 1997). Razlike v vrednostih pred in po stabilizaciji so bile statistično značilno večje ($p<0.05$) za vse vzorce. Iz začetnih vrednosti med 6,0 in 6,8 pri neremediranih vzorcih je pH po stabilizaciji narastel do vrednosti med 8,6 in 10,7 (razlike za faktor od 1,4 do 1,6). Že dvig pH vrednosti tal nakazuje, da sta se mobilnost in dostopnost Pb, Zn ter Cd po remediaciji s stabilizacijo zmanjšali. Mobilnost svinca se zniža pri višjih vrednostih pH, predvsem v razponu med 9,0 in 11,0, ko Pb v hidroksidni obliki precipitira in preide v netopno obliko PbO (Paria in Yuet, 2006; Li in sod., 2001). V tleh je cink običajno prisoten v obliki cinkovega klorida, cinkovega oksida, cinkovega sulfata in cinkovega sulfida. V kislih pogojih je cink običajno prisoten v dvovalentni, razmeroma mobilni obliki, ki hidrolizira pri pH med 7,0 in 7,5, hidroksidne oblike pa nastanejo pri pH nad 8, pri čemer se, podobno kot pri svincu, zmanjša njegova mobilnost (Mulligan in sod., 2001). Kadmijski je najbolj mobilen pri pH med 4,5 in 5,5, mobilnost se zniža pri pH nad 7,5, nastale hidroksidne oblike pa so najmanj topne pri pH 11 (Paria in Yuet, 2006; Mulligan in sod., 2001).

3.3 *TCLP (Toxicity Characteristic Leaching Procedure)*

Z metodo TCLP smo določili mobilnost toksičnih kovin v zemljini pred in po stabilizaciji. Študije o izpiranju toksičnih kovin nam nudijo pomembne podatke o kemijski speciaciji onesnažil v tleh in o njihovi morebitni nevarnosti za okolje. Mobilnost toksičnih kovin, kot tudi drugih onesnažil, namreč vpliva tudi na njihovo izpiranje iz tal v površinske in podzemne vodne vire, kar pomeni povečano tveganje za tam živeče organizme. Koncentracije Pb in Cd v ekstraktih vzorčenih zemljin so pred postopkom imobilizacije močno presegale mejne vrednosti, ki jih določa US Environmental Protection Agency (t.j. 250 mg L⁻¹, 5 mg L⁻¹ za Pb ter 1 mg L⁻¹ za Cd) (US EPA, 1995) (Slika 2), zaradi česar obravnavane zemljine uvrščamo med nevarne odpadke.

Po dodatu 15 ut. % portland cementa, se je mobilnost Pb statistično značilno ($p<0.05$) zmanjšala za faktor od 7,7 do 17,4, mobilnost Zn za faktor od 5 do 30,6, mobilnost Cd pa za faktor od 4,3 do 10,4. Koncentracije toksičnih kovin niso več v nobenem primeru presegale mejnih vrednosti (Slika 2); tako remedirane zemljine ni več potrebno obravnavati kot nevaren odpadek. Tudi drugi avtorji navajajo uspešno znižano mobilnost onesnažil po stabilizaciji zemljine. Alpaslan in Yukselen (2002) sta po primerjanju učinkovitosti različnih aditivov (apno, aktivno oglje, glina, zeolit, pesek in cement) pri imobilizaciji Pb ugotovila, da je cement najučinkovitejši od vseh, saj je imobiliziral 99 % prisotnega Pb v poskusnih tleh. Li in sod. (2001) so v svojem delu potrdili dejstvo, da mobilnost toksičnih kovin v stabiliziranem matriksu določajo predvsem alkalne in puferske lastnosti matriksa samega, ter da je izpiranje toksičnih kovin iz stabiliziranega matriksa odvisno od topnosti kovinskih hidroksidov, kar pa uravnava pH.



Slika 2: Koncentracija Pb, Zn in Cd v TCLP ekstraktu petih vzorcev z območja stare cinkarne v Celju pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.
S = stabilizacija; * = statistično značilna razlika (LSD test, $p<0,01$).

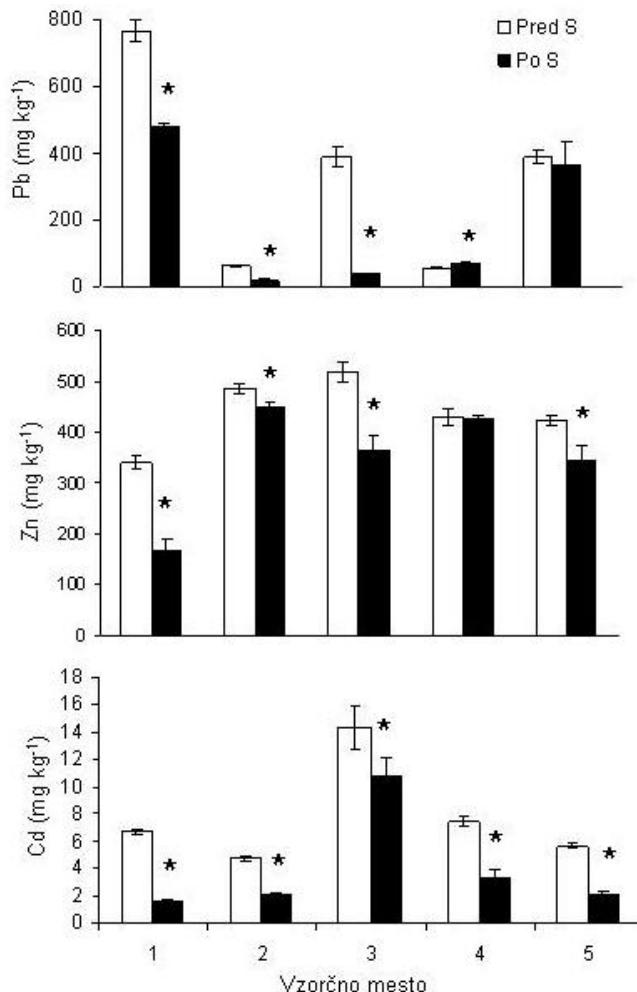
Figure 2: Pb, Zn and Cd concentration in TCLP extracts of five soil samples from the former zinc smelter area in Celje before and after remediation with stabilization.

S = stabilization; * = statistically significant difference (LSD test, $p<0.01$).

3.4 Rastlinam dostopni Pb, Zn in Cd

Dostopnost Pb, Zn in Cd za rastline smo določili z ekstrakcijo z DTPA. Koncentracije merjenih kovin v ekstraktih zemeljin pred remediacijo s petih vzorčnih mest so se med seboj razlikovale glede na njihovo celokupno vsebnost; gibale so se med 63,3 in 765,6 mg kg⁻¹ za Pb, med 340,7 in 517,2 mg kg⁻¹ za Zn ter med 4,7 in 14,3 mg kg⁻¹ za Cd. S stabilizacijo smo znižali dostopni del Pb, Zn in Cd

v zemljinah (Slika 3), in sicer za faktor od 1,6 do 9,8 za Pb, od 1,1 do 2,1 za Zn ter od 1,3 do 4,1 za Cd. Uspešnost stabilizacije pri zmanjšanju dostopnega deleža toksičnih kovin je odvisna od lastnosti tal samih, kot navajajo tudi drugi avtorji (npr. Aboulroos et al., 2006). Statistično neznačilne spremembe ($p < 0.05$) v koncentracijah Pb pri vzorcih 4 in 5 ter v koncentracijah Zn pri vzorcu 4 si zato lahko razlagamo kot posledico razlik v lastnostih uporabljenih zemljin.



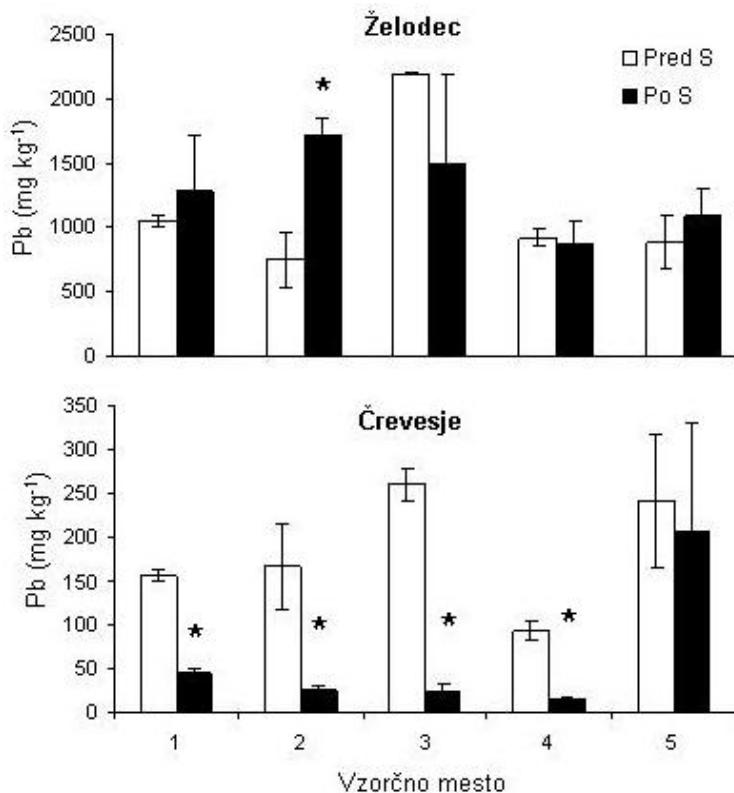
Slika 3: Koncentracija Pb, Zn in Cd v DTPA ekstraktu zemljine s petih vzorčnih mest na področju stare cinkarne v Celju pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.

S = stabilizacija; * = statistično značilna razlika (LSD test, $p < 0,05$).

Figure 3: Pb, Zn and Cd concentration in DTPA extracts of five soil samples before and after remediation with stabilization from the area of the former zinc smelter in Celje.

S = stabilization; * = statistically significant difference (LSD test, $p < 0.05$).

3.5 Biološka (oralna) dostopnost Pb, Zn in Cd



Slika 4: Biološka dostopnost Pb v petih vzorcih zemljine s področja stare cinkarne v Celju določena s fiziološko osnovanim ekstrakcijskim testom (PBET) v želodčni in črevesni frakciji pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo.

S = stabilizacija; * = statistično značilna razlika (LSD test, $p < 0,05$).

Figure 4: Pb biological accessibility in five soil samples from the area of the former zinc smelter in Celje assessed with a physiologically based extraction test (PBET) in stomach and small intestine fractions before and after remediation with stabilization.

S = stabilization; * = statistically significant difference (LSD test, $p < 0.05$).

Zaužitje tal in prašnih delcev predstavlja pomembno obliko izpostavljanja v okolju prisotnim onesnažilom, preko aktivnosti na odprttem, rekreacije, vrtnarjenja, prehajevanja z lokalno pridelano hrano in vdihovanja prašnih delcev. Otroci so še bolj izpostavljeni tovrstnemu onesnaženju, saj ob igranju zaužijejo več talnih in prašnih delcev kot odrasli ljudje (Davis in Mirick, 2006). S fiziološko osnovnim ekstrakcijskim testom (PBET) smo ovrednotili le biološko dostopnost svinca, saj so avtorji (Ruby in sod., 1996) primerjali rezultate »in vitro« PBET z »in vivo« živalskim modelom – podgano le za svinec in za arzen. Pri PBET s poustvarjanjem

primernih pogojev simuliramo dogajanje v prebavnem traktu človeka (v želodcu in v črevesju). Rezultati dobljeni za želodčni ekstrakt (Slika 4) ne kažejo statistično značilnih sprememb ($p<0,05$) v biodostopnosti Pb pred in po remediaciji s stabilizacijo, razen pri vzorcu 4, kjer se je proti pričakovanjem biodostopnost po stabilizaciji zvišala. Rezultate si lahko vsaj delno razlagamo z alkalnimi in puferskimi lastnostmi stabiliziranega matriksa samega (Li in sod., 2001) ter z lastnostmi zemljin samih (Geebelen in sod., 2003), kar je verjetno bistveno vplivalo na ekstrakcijske lastnosti želodčne raztopine z začetno pH vrednostjo 2,50. Vendar so za vrednotenje biodostopnosti Pb uporabnejše vrednosti v črevesnem ekstraktu, saj se absorpcija hranil odvija v tankem črevesju (Ruby in sod., 1996). Iz slike 4 je razvidno, da se je po stabilizaciji biodostopnost Pb statistično značilno ($p<0,05$) zmanjšala pri vseh vzorcih za faktorje od 3,4 do 11,3, z izjemo vzorca 5, kjer je razlika zaradi velike standardne deviacije neizrazita. S tem lahko zaključimo, da je v našem primeru remediacija s stabilizacijo učinkovita pri zmanjševanju biološke dostopnosti Pb.

4.

ZAKLJUČKI

Na podlagi mejnih vrednosti določenih s strani US Environmental Protection Agency (US EPA, 1995) uvrščamo zemljino na območju stare cinkarne v Celju med nevarne odpadke. Z remediacijo s stabilizacijo s portland cementom (15 ut.%) smo močno znižali mobilnost Pb, Zn in Cd pod mejne vrednosti določene s strani US EPA (1995). Znižali smo tudi fitodosegljivost (DTPA ekstrakcija) in biodosegljivost (PBET metoda) Pb, Zn in Cd. S tem lahko trdimo, da je bila remediacija obravnavanih zemljin s stabilizacijo uspešna.

Dobljene rezultate bi bilo smiselno nadgraditi in optimizirati postopek stabilizacije:

- Obravnavati bo potrebno tudi ostala v zemljini prisotna anorganska onesnaževala: arzen, baker, krom, molibden, nikel, kobalt, živo srebro, selen. S tem bi dobili popolnejšo sliko o učinkovitosti remediacije s stabilizacijo za tamkajšnjo zemljino;
- Optimizacija količine portland cementa: v tem poskusu smo pri stabilizaciji uporabili 15 ut. % portland cementa. Delež bi lahko zmanjšali do točke, v kateri bi sicer še dosegli želen učinek stabilizacije, vendar bi obenem s tem tudi zmanjšali stroške. Potrebno bo testirati tudi učinkovitost drugih vrst cementov, npr. kislinsko odpornih poculanskih cementov in kalcij-aluminijevih cementov. Količino uporabljenega izbranega cementa bi lahko zmanjšali in hkrati povečali učinkovitost remediacije z nekaterimi dodatki, npr. s tekočimi silikati, z elektrofilterskim pepelom, glinami itd.;
- Večji nabor ekstrakcijskih testov bi ponudil več informacij o potencialni nevarnosti toksičnih kovin v zemljini pred in po remediaciji ter na ta način dodatno podkrepil izbor remediacijske tehnologije. Potrebno bo vpeljati teste izpiranja toksičnih kovin iz neporušenih monolitnih stabiliziranih blokov: Uporabljene metode so zahtevale njihovo drobljenje, s tem pa smo povečali mobilnost toksičnih kovin in navidezno zmanjšali pozitivne učinke remediacije (Kosson in sod., 2002);
- Staranje, temperaturne razlike, UV-žarki in ostali abiotiski, kot tudi biotski dejavniki vplivajo na lastnosti cementnih blokov (Paria in Yuet, 2006) in

posledično na stabilizacijo toksičnih kovin. O usodi kovin po stabilizaciji pod vplivom abiotiskih in biotskih faktorjev ni veliko znanega. Glede na namembnost zemljine po remediaciji s stabilizacijo in bližine vodnega telesa, je smiselno in nujno preučiti morebitne spremembe v mobilnosti in biodostopnosti kovin v odvisnosti od zunanjih dejavnikov. Kot najizrazitejša abiotiska dejavnika bi lahko izbrali temperaturne razlike in izpiranje kovin s kislo deževnico. Stabilizirane zemljine bi podvrgli več zaporednim ciklom visokih in nizkih temperatur (simulacija letnih časov), ter zaporednemu spiranju s simulirano deževnico. Pri tem bi pridobili pomembne podatke o stabilnosti in trajnosti remediacije.

- Remediacija predstavlja samo del celotnega postopka sanacije odpadne zemljine. Izbrano tehnologijo remediacije bo potrebno v ta proces smiselno umestiti.

5. ZAHVALA

Raziskava je bila izvedena v okviru praktikuma pri predmetu Ekopedologija univerzitetnega dodiplomskega študija agronomije ob sodelovanju sledečih študentk in študentov (po abecednem vrstnem redu): Dirnbek Anita, Gregorc Martin, Jerin Maja, Kešpret Jasmina, Košir Katja, Matijevič Petra, Stritar Aleksandra, Šekoranja Andreja, Šibanc Nataša, Šijanec Miha, Štangelj Ana in Turičnik David.

Raziskavo smo finančirali iz sredstev namenjenim praktikumu pri predmetu Ekopedologija univerzitetnega dodiplomskega študija agronomije in iz projektnih raziskovalnih sredstev Raziskovalne skupine za aplikativno botaniko in ekologijo (ARRS šifra 0481-113).

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Agrovoc descriptors: solanum tuberosum, potatoes, fungicides, foods, monitoring, carbamates, sampling, tubers, spacing, residues

Agris category codes: H20

COBISS koda: 1.01

Vpliv izbire fungicidov in medvrstne razdalje na pojavljanje ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju

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Delo je prispelo 15. oktobra 2007; sprejeto 28. aprila 2008

Received October 15, 2007; accepted April 28, 2008

IZVLEČEK

Monitoring ostankov pesticidov v kmetijskih pridelkah kaže, da so ostanki ditiokarbamatov tudi v Sloveniji med najpogosteje ugotovljenimi. V letih od 2003 do 2005 smo v poljskih poskusih ugotavljali vpliv izbora fungicidov in časa po zadnjem škropljenju krompirja na vsebnost ostankov v gomoljih krompirja. Primerjali smo štiri obravnavanja: enostransko in izmenično škropljenje s fungicidi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov, škropljenje brez ditiokarbamatov in neškropljeno kontrolo. Po končanih škropljenjih smo v zaporednih vzorčenjih naključno jemali vzorce po 10 grmov na polju in po 5 kg krompirja v skladišču. V drugem poskušu smo preučevali vpliv medvrstne razdalje na vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih na različnih globinah. Primerjali smo medvrstne razdalje 66 cm, 75 cm in 90 cm pri sortah Carlingford, Agria in Bright. Razporeditev gomoljev v grebenih smo ugotavljali z napravo za tridimenzionalno merjenje oblike grebena in položaja gomoljev v grebenu. Vzorčili smo gomolje po plasteh 0-5 cm, 5-10 cm in >10 cm in pobirali gomolje posamično. Vzorce krompirja smo na ostanke ditiokarbamatov analizirali s plinskim kromatografom, sklopljenim z masnim spektrometrom. Ostanke ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih smo ugotovili le v letu 2003. Rezultati kažejo, da so okoljske razmere ključen dejavnik za pojavljanje ostankov v gomoljih in imajo lahko celo večji vpliv kot količina uporabljene aktive snovi ali drugi tehnološki ukrepi. Upoštevanje dobre kmetijske prakse in večini let omogoča pridelavo krompirja brez ostankov ditiokarbamatov. V neugodnih letih lahko najdemo ostanke, kljub pridelavi v skladu s tehnološkimi priporočili in upoštevani karenci ob izkopu krompirja.

Ključne besede: ditiokarbamati, ostanke, krompir, fungicidi, medvrstna razdalja

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ABSTRACT**THE INFLUENCE OF FUNGICIDE CHOICE AND ROW WIDTH ON THE APPEARANCE OF DITHiocarbamate RESIDUES IN POTATO**

The residues of dithiocarbamates are very often found in foodstuff monitoring programme in Slovenia. The effect of fungicide choice and time spent since the last spraying on dithiocarbamate residues in potato tubers were studied in the field trials from 2003 to 2005. Four different treatments were applied in trial: exclusive and alternate spraying with fungicides on the basis of dithiocarbamates, spraying schedule without dithiocarbamates and unsprayed control. 10 plants in the field and 5 kg of tubers in storage were randomly sampled in consecutive sampling after the last spraying. The influence of row width on the dithiocarbamate residue content of tubers in different depths was studied in the second experiment. Row distances of 66, 75 and 90 cm were compared using varieties Carlingford, Agria and Bright. Tuber distribution in the hill was measured using device for three-dimensional measurement of hill shape and tuber position. Tubers were sampled in two ways: in layers of 0-5 cm, 5-10 cm and deeper than 10 cm, and each tuber separately. Gas chromatography coupled with mass spectrometry was used for the analysis of dithiocarbamates. They were found only in the year 2003. The results show that the environmental conditions are the key factor for determination of dithiocarbamate residues. They have bigger influence than the amount of active substance used or other technological measures taken. Application of good farming practice enables the production of food without residues in most of the years. In certain years it is possible to find residues despite the utilization of technological recommendations and pre-harvest interval.

Key words: dithiocarbamates, residues, potato, fungicides, row width

UVOD

Ditiokarbamati so soli ali estri aminoditiokarboksilne kisline in njenih derivatov. Po kemijskih lastnostih so si med seboj zelo podobni. Sem spadajo fungicidi s protektivnim delovanjem kot so ciram, mankozeb, maneb, metiram, propineb, tiram in zineb. Delujejo na glivična obolenja poljščin, vrtnin, sadnih rastlin, vinske trte in okrasnih rastlin (plesni, pegavosti, rje, škrlup, peronospore). Uporabljamo jih lahko foliarno ali za tretiranje semena. Najbolj zastopan ditiokarbamat je mankozeb, ki je kompleks cinka in maneba. Je prah sivo-rumene barve, ki razпадa pri temperaturi 192-204°C in je netopen v večini organskih topil, topnost v vodi je 6,2 mg/kg pri pH=7,5. V vodi precej hitro hidrolizira; njegova razpolovna doba je v temnih in sterilnih pogojih manj kot 2 dni (Xu, 2000), 1 dan pa pri pH 5-9 (Lyman in Lacoste, 1974, 1975). V nesterilnih tleh mankozeb razпадa v treh mesecih (Doneche in sod., 1983), pri čemer se preko etilenioure (ETU), etilenure (EU) in etilenbisizotiocianata (EBIS) s pomočjo mikroorganizmov razgradi do CO₂ (Lyman in Lacoste, 1975 - v Xu, 2000). Lyman in Lacoste navajata polovični razpadni čas v tleh pri 20 mg/kg mankozeba 50 dni in pri 10 mg/kg mankozeba 90 dni (Lyman in Lacoste, 1974). Mankozeb in njegovi metaboliti se slabo vežejo na tla. Njegova mobilnost je v vlažnih in peščenih tleh večja kot v suhih in organsko bogatih tleh (WHO, 1988). Razpolovna doba mankozeba v rastlinah je 10,6 dni. Po dveh tednih so njegovi glavnji metaboliti: elementarno žveplo, ETU, UE, EBIS in etilendiamin (Xu, 2000). Na paradižniku sta bila maneb in zineb po 3 tednih najdena v koncu < 1 mg/kg, še prisotna pa po 10 tednih (Nash in Beall, 1980). V krompirju je bila v letih 1999 do 2005 pri nas najvišja dovoljena vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov 0,05 mg/kg (Ur.l. RS št. 54/99 in Ur.l. RS št. 73/03). Od 23. junija 2005 je pri nas najvišja dovoljena vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju

0,1 mg/kg (EC, 2004), z 19. marcem 2008 pa bo najvišja dovoljena vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju pri nas 0,3 mg/kg (EC, 2007). Najvišja dovoljena vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju v Codexu Alimentariusu je 0,2 mg/kg (Codex Alimentarius, 2007).

Intenzivna pridelava krompirja je nujno vezana na rabo fitofarmacevtskih sredstev, saj je varstvo nasadov pred krompirjevo plesnijo eden od osnovnih agrotehničnih ukrepov. V ugodnih vremenskih razmerah za razvoj bolezni opravijo pridelovalci 5-7 škropljenj v rastni dobi, včasih pa tudi 10 ali več. V takih razmerah je tveganje za pojavljanje ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih še toliko večje.

V okviru sistematičnega ugotavljanja vsebnosti ostankov fitofarmacevtskih sredstev v kmetijskih pridelkih, ki že vrsto let poteka na Kmetijskem inštitutu Slovenije, so ostanki ditiokarbamatov med najpogosteje ugotovljenimi. V letih 2002 in 2003 so bile v gomoljih krompirja določene najvišje vsebnosti njihovih ostankov doslej (0,44 in 0,51 mg/kg). Najvišja dovoljena vrednost (Maximum Residue Level = MRL), ki je za krompir takrat znašala 0,05 mg/kg je bila v obravnavanih letih presežena kar v 40,0 % oziroma 37,1 % analiziranih vzorcev (Gregorčič in sod.; 2003, 2004). Da bi zmanjšali možnost pojavljanja ostankov v krompirju, je potrebno pri pridelovanju slediti pravilom dobre kmetijske prakse. Tehnologija pridelovanja krompirja z majhno medvrstno razdaljo pridelovalcem ne omogoča več kakovostne pridelave jedilnega krompirja. To se še posebej pokaže v stresnih razmerah. Majhen greben lahko zadrži manj vode, tla se hitreje osušijo in segrejejo. Pomembno je tudi, da so se pri tržnih pridelovalcih povprečni pridelki jedilnega krompirja močno povečali, saj so bile na sortno listo uvrščene nove visoko rodovitne sorte krompirja z dosegljivim pridelkom po 60 t/ha in več. Majhen greben ne omogoča dovolj dobre pokritosti gomoljev, ki zato zelenijo, večja pa je tudi možnost onesnaženja gomoljev z ditiokarbamatimi.

Da bi ugotovili vzroke za pojavljanje ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih krompirja smo v letih od 2003 do 2005 zasnovali poljske poskuse. Ti so potekali v dveh ločenih sklopih: v prvem smo se osredotočili na ugotavljanje vpliva izbora fungicidov oz. količine uporabljenih ditiokarbamatov in časa po zadnjem škropljenju krompirja na vsebnost ostankov v gomoljih, v drugem pa smo preučevali vpliv velikosti grebenov (medvrstne razdalje) na vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih.

MATERIAL IN METODE

Ugotavljanje vpliva izbora fungicidov in časa po zadnjem škropljenju na vsebnost ostankov ditokarbamatov v gomoljih

Vpliv rabe različnih fungicidov za zatiranje krompirjeve plesni ter časa vzorčenja krompirja smo ugotavljali v natančnih poljskih poskusih. Ti so potekali v Mostah pri Komendi (2003), v Jabljah in v Grobljah (2004) ter v okolici Domžal (2005). Poskusi so bili zasnovani v obliki naključnih blokov v štirih ponovitvah. Med seboj smo primerjali štiri obravnavanja:

- 1: škropljenje le s fungicidi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov,
- 2: izmenično škropljenje s fungicidi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov,
- 3: škropljenje s pripravki brez ditiokarbamatov,
- 4: neškropljene parcele.

V prvem letu je bila velikost osnovne parcelice $34,4 \text{ m}^2$ (v 7 vrstah) v drugem in tretjem letu pa $56,7 \text{ m}^2$ (v 9 vrstah). Gostota saditve je v drugem letu znašala 4 rastline/ m^2 , v prvem in tretjem letu pa po 5 rastlin/ m^2 . V prvem letu smo posadili sorto Cvetnik, v drugem in tretjem pa sorto Pšata.

Z rabo fungicidov proti krompirjevi plesni smo začenjali po navodilu Opazovalno napovedovalne službe za varstvo rastlin. Izbor fungicidov, število škropljenj in razmaki med njimi so bili takšni, da so omogočali uspešno varstvo nasadov pred krompirjevo plesnijo. Parcelice smo škropili z nahrbtno škropilnico Solo. Podatki o številu škropljenj s fungicidi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov in skupni količini vnesene aktivne snovi so prikazani v tabeli 1.

Tabela 1: Število škropljenj s fungicidi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov in skupna količina uporabljene aktivne snovi v letih od 2003 do 2005

Table 1: Number of sprayings and total amount of active substances of dithiocarbamates used in the years 2003 to 2005

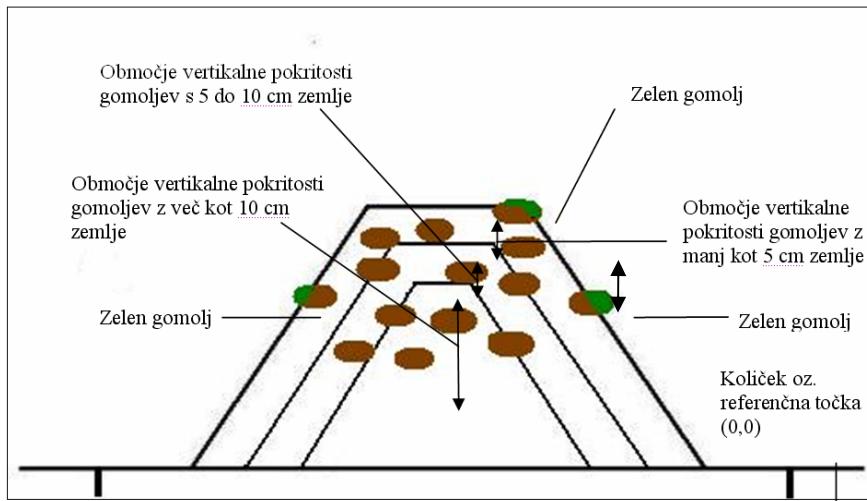
Postopek	2003		2004		2005	
	Število škropljenj	Količina a.s. kg/ha	Število škropljenj	Količina a.s. kg/ha	Število škropljenj	Količina a.s. kg/ha
1	7	14,0	6	9,6	7	12,0
2	3	5,6	4	6,4	4	6,0
3	0	0	0	0	0	0
4	-	-	-	-	-	-

Nekaj dni po zadnjem škropljenju s fungicidi smo začeli z zaporednimi vzorčenji gomoljev krompirja, najprej na polju in nato v skladišču. Na polju smo odvzeli vzorec iz vsake od 16 poskusnih parcelic tako, da smo v vsaki od notranjih petih vrstic po naključnem razporedu izruvali po dva grma krompirja in pobrali vse gomolje, ki so združeni predstavljali en vzorec. V vzorčenje nista bili zajeti robni vrstici in v letu 2003 metrski, v letih 2004 in 2005 pa dvometrski pas na vsakem koncu parcelic. Po izkopu pridelka smo krompir shranili v skladišču, ločeno za vsako poskusno parcelico, od koder smo nadaljevali z vzorčenji po 5 kg gomoljev. V letu 2003 smo tako v štirih vzorčenjih s polja (3, 7, 15 in 22 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) in enem iz skladišča (42 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) pobrali skupaj 80 vzorcev krompirja. V letu 2004 smo vzorčili štirikrat na polju (od 8 do 25 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) in osemkrat v skladišču (od 35 do 112 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) in odvzeli skupaj 208 vzorcev. V letu 2005 smo na polju vzorčili šestkrat (7 do 51 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) in dvakrat v skladišču (77 in 105 dni po zadnjem škropljenju) in odvzeli skupaj 128 vzorcev krompirja.

Ugotavljanje vpliva velikosti grebenov na vsebnost ditiokarbamatov

V letih 2003 in 2004 smo zasnovali poskuse na Zgornjem Brniku, v Ljubljani in v Brežicah. Primerjali smo medvrstne razdalje 66 cm, 75 cm in 90 cm pri sortah Carlingford, Agria in Bright. Pri vseh treh medvrstnih razdaljah smo sadili na enako gostoto ($4,5 \text{ rastlin/m}^2$). Poskus je bil zasnovan v naključnem bločnem sistemu, v split-plot obliki v petih ponovitvah. Glavni dejavnik je bila medvrstna razdalja, poddejavnik pa sorta. Grebene smo formirali pred vznikom z osipalnikom s pogonom preko priključne gredi traktorja. Poskusni nasad smo oskrbovali tako, da so bile razmere kar najbolj podobne razmeram v tržni pridelavi, pri čemer smo za varstvo pred krompirjevo plesnijo izbrali pretežno pripravke, ki so vsebovali ditiokarbamate. Tako smo v letu 2003 na Zgornjem Brniku in na Pšati uporabili po 11,8 in v Brežicah 17,4 kg/ha aktivne snovi na osnovi ditiokarbamatov. V letu 2004 smo na Zgornjem Brniku uporabili 9,5, na Pšati 6,8 in v Brežicah 15,3 kg/ha ditiokarbamatov.

Razporeditev gomoljev v grebenih smo ugotavljali z napravo za tridimenzionalno merjenje oblike grebena in položaja gomoljev v grebenu, ki so jo izdelali na Katedri za kmetijsko mehanizacijo BF v Ljubljani (Godeša, 2002). Na poskusnem polju smo imeli že prej zakoličena mesta, na katerih smo merili obliko grebena. Pred izkopom smo najprej izmerili obliko grebena, nato pa še položaj posameznih gomoljev v grebenu pri posamezni rastlini (Dolničar in sod., 2005).



Slika 1: Shema ugotavljanja položaja gomoljev po plasteh v grebenu
Picture 1: The scheme of assessment of tuber position using layers in the ridge

V prvih štirih ponovitvah smo vzorčili gomolje iz treh plasti pokritosti: gomolji pokriti z do 5 cm zemlje, gomolji pokriti s 5 do 10 in gomolji pokriti z več kot 10 cm debelo plastjo zemlje (Slika 1). V enem letu smo na ta način pobrali po 108 vzorcev na lokacijo (4 ponovitve x 3 medvrstne razdalje x 3 sorte x 3 globine), skupaj na vseh lokacijah torej 324 vzorcev. Poleg tega smo v peti ponovitvi pobrali gomolje za posamično analizo (135 gomoljev = 3 medvrstne razdalje x 3 sorte x povprečno po 15 gomoljev), skupno okoli 405 vzorcev v posameznem letu.

Priprava vzorcev in analize ostankov ditiokarbamatov

Vsak gomolj v vzorcu smo razrezali na štiri dele, vzeli nasprotni četrtini in ju razrezali na manjše kose. Vzorec smo do analize shranili v plastičnih posodah pri -20°C. Pri analizni metodi smo vzorce krompirja segrevali v dvofaznem sistemu izooktan/kositrov (II) klorid v razredčeni klorovodikovi kislini. Pri tem je nastal ogljikov disulfid, ki se je raztopil v organski fazi (izo-oktanu). CS₂ smo kvalitativno in kvantitativno določili s plinsko kromatografijo z masno selektivnim detektorjem (Baša Česnik in Gregorčič, 2006).

Vremenske razmere v poskusnih letih

Za analizo vremenskih razmer smo uporabili podatke z najbližjih meteoroloških postaj (Ljubljana, Brnik in Bizejjsko).

Leto 2003 je bilo izjemno sušno z visokimi temperaturami in malo padavinami. Povprečna temperatura zraka v obdobju april-september je bila presežena za skoraj 3 °C glede na dolgoletno povprečje. Odstopanja so bila največja v juniju in avgustu (za 4,5 do 5,9 °C), povprečne majske in julijске temperature so bile presežene za 2,2 do 3,7 °C. Skozi celo rastno dobo je povsod izrazito primanjkovalo padavin,

predvsem v mesecu maju in juniju. V obdobju april-september je v Ljubljani padlo 68 %, na Brniku 56 % in na Bizejškem vsega 43 % običajne količine dežja. V letih 2004 in 2005 so bile povprečne temperature v dobi vegetacije za slabo stopinjo višje od običajnih, tudi padavin je bilo povsod nekoliko več kot ponavadi. Izrazito veliko dežja je padlo v letu 2005, ko je bila skupna količina padavin v obdobju april-september presežena za približno tretjino (Vir: Mesečni bilten ARSO).

REZULTATI IN RAZPRAVA

Ugotavljanje vpliva izbora fungicidov in časa po zadnjem škropljenju na vsebnost ostankov ditiocarbamatov v gomoljih

V letu 2003 smo ugotovili ostanke ditiocarbamatov v vseh vzorcih krompirja, tudi v kontrolnih (Tabela 2), kar bi lahko bila posledica kontaminacije iz večjega okoliškega polja. Zato iz dobljenih rezultatov ni mogoče ugotoviti vpliva količine uporabljene aktivne snovi na vsebnost ostankov v končnem pridelku, čeprav smo pri priporočenem in v praksi večinoma ustaljenem načinu varstva, kjer gre za izmenično rabo različnih aktivnih snovi, določili v povprečju nižje vsebnosti ostankov kot pri izključni rabi ditiocarbamatov. Na osnovi dobljenih rezultatov lahko sklepamo o hitrosti razgradnje ditiocarbamatov v gomoljih. Povprečna vsebnost je bila najnižja ob prvem in najvišja ob drugem vzorčenju. V petem vzorčenju je bila ugotovljena vsebnost ostankov ditiocarbamatov nad dopustno mejo in celo višja kot v četrtem vzorčenju. Ugotavljamo, da so ditiocarbamati ostali v gomoljih precej dlje kot je čas karence (do 21 dni), zato upoštevanje karence ob izkopu krompirja še ni zagotovilo, da v gomoljih ne bo ostankov.

Tabela 2: Vsebnost ostankov ditiocarbamatov v Komendi v letu 2003 (v ppm)

Table 2: Dithiocarbamate residue content in Komenda in 2003 (in ppm)

Obravnavanje	Vzorčenje v dnevih po zadnjem škropljenju					Povprečje
	3 dni	7 dni	15 dni	22 dni	42 dni	
7 x ditiocarbamati	0,025	0,233	0,223	0,053	0,148	0,136
3 x ditiocarbamati	0,023	0,200	0,180	0,078	0,118	0,120
Brez ditiocarbamatov	0,013	0,173	0,195	0,078	0,133	0,118
Neškropljeno	0,023	0,165	0,070	0,068	0,208	0,107
Povprečje	0,021	0,193	0,167	0,069	0,151	0,120

V letih 2004 in 2005 v nobenem od skupno 336 analiziranih vzorcev nismo ugotovili ostankov ditiocarbamatov. Ostankov ni bilo oz. so bile vrednosti pod mejo detekcije metode tudi po sedemkratnem škropljenju z ditiocarbamati in skupnem vnosu 12 kg/ha aktivne snovi, kar kaže na to, da so za pojavljanje ostankov ključne okoljske razmere, ki imajo lahko večji vpliv kot količina uporabljenih aktivnih snovi.

Ugotavljanje vpliva velikosti grebenov na vsebnost ditiocarbamatov

V letu 2003 so bili ostanki ditiocarbamatov določeni v večini analiziranih vzorcev, pri čemer smo ugotovili velik delež vzorcev z ostanki pod ali malo nad MRL, ki je

hkrati tudi meja detekcije metode (Tabela 3). Le v nekaj vzorcih smo ugotovili povišane vrednosti ostankov. Statistična analiza ni pokazala značilnih razlik pri nobenem od preučevanih dejavnikov: med sortami, medvrstnimi razdaljami in globino gomoljev. Prav tako niso bile statistično značilne interakcije med naštetimi dejavniki. V Brežicah smo ugotovili manj ostankov ditiokarbamatov kot v Ljubljani in na Brniku, kar je verjetno povezano s pridelovalnimi razmerami. Pokazalo se je, da večje medvrstne razdalje ne zagotavljajo pridelka brez ostankov ditiokarbamatov, kaže pa se trend njihovega zmanjševanja z globino.

Tabela 3: Povprečne vsebnosti ostankov ditiokarbamatov pri treh sortah, medvrstnih razdaljah in globinah gomoljev na treh lokacijah v letu 2003

Table 3: The average contents of dithiocarbamate residues in tubers of three varieties, three row distances and three soil depths on three locations in 2003

Lokacija	Povprečna vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju (ppm)			
	Povprečje	Ljubljana	Brnik	Brežice
Sorta				
Agria	0,11	0,14	0,15	0,04
Bright	0,26	0,27	0,32	0,14
Carlingford	0,14	0,20	0,14	0,09
Medvrstna razdalja				
66 cm	0,19	0,27	0,15	0,15
75 cm	0,20	0,23	0,30	0,06
90 cm	0,12	0,12	0,17	0,07
Globina				
0-5 cm	0,17	0,22	0,20	0,11
5-10 cm	0,19	0,23	0,24	0,10
> 10 cm	0,13	0,15	0,18	0,06

Tudi analize posameznih gomoljev po različnih globinah niso pokazale konsistentnih rezultatov, saj smo našli ostanke v le nekaterih vzorcih, v večini pa ne, zato na podlagi dobljenih rezultatov ne moremo potrditi vpliva globine položaja gomoljev na vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov (primer Tabela 4). Ti rezultati ne potrjujejo ugotovitev Rhodesa, ki je ob uporabi ^{14}C -ETU po 12 tednih večino radioaktivnosti ugotovil prav v sloju tal od 2,5 do 12,5 cm in le 0,2 % v globini od 20 do 30 cm (WHO, 1988).

Tabela 4: Ostanki ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih krompirja vzorčenih posamezno pri sorti Agria v Ljubljani v letu 2003

Table 4: Dithiocarbamate residues in Agria potato tubers sampled individually in Ljubljana in 2003

Gomolj	Vsebnost ostankov ditiokarbamatov v krompirju (ppm)		
	66	75	90
1	0	0	0,06
2	0	0	0
3	0	0	0
4	0	0	0
5	0	0	0
6	0	0	0
7	0	0	0
8	0	0	0
9	0	0,17	0
10	0	0,14	0
11	-	0,1	0
12	-	0,16	0
13	-	0,11	0
14	-	0,07	-
15	-	0,07	-
16	-	0,07	-

Legenda:

0 pri analizi nismo odkrili ostankov ditiokarbamatov

- analiza ni bila opravljena

V letu 2004 v nobenem od analiziranih vzorcev nismo določili ostankov ditiokarbamatov.

Iz rezultatov lahko sklepamo, da v večini let upoštevanje tehnoloških navodil in načel dobre kmetijske prakse omogoča pridelavo krompirja brez ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih. V posameznih letih pa ob specifičnih pridelovalnih razmerah lahko pride do pojavljanja ostankov. Tako je bilo npr. v sušnem letu 2003, ko smo določili ostanke ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih na vseh poskusnih lokacijah. Tudi v okviru rednega monitoringa so bili ostanki ditiokarbamatov v tem letu določeni v 40 % analiziranih vzorcev, v letu 2004 pa le v 8,1 % vzorcev (Gregorčič in sod.; 2004, 2005). Kateri dejavniki so tisti, ki najbolj vplivajo na to, kdaj in v kakšni meri bo prišlo do pojavljanja ostankov v gomoljih je zaradi množice prepletajočih se vplivov v naravi težko ugotoviti. Zdi pa se, da so vremenske razmere, predvsem padavine, eden od ključnih dejavnikov. Količina in razporeditev padavin pomembno oblikuje talne razmere in vpliva na številne procese v tleh, med drugim tudi na izmenjavo snovi ter na potek in hitrost različnih kemijskih in mikrobioloških procesov.

Zaradi širšega izbora učinkovitih fitofarmacevtskih sredstev za varstvo krompirja v zadnjih letih, je mogoče zagotoviti dober pridelek in zadovoljivo zaščito krompirič pred najpomembnejšimi glivičnimi boleznimi tudi brez ali z minimalno rabo fungicidov iz skupine ditiokarbamatov. Vendar pa je s stališča zmanjševanja tveganja za pojav odpornosti na fitofarmacevtska sredstva priporočljiva čim bolj pesta raba teh snovi, zato izključevanja sredstev na bazi ditiokarbamatov ne priporočamo. Dobljeni rezultati kažejo, da to tudi ni potrebno.

SKLEPI

Pojavljanje ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih krompirja je kompleksen problem. Kljub temu, da nekaterih začetnih domnev in delovnih hipotez iz različnih razlogov nismo uspeli zavreči ali potrditi, smo v naši raziskavi prišli do nekaterih pomembnih ugotovitev. Ugotovili smo, da so za pojavljanje ostankov ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih krompirja ključne rastne razmere. Njihov vpliv je lahko večji kot vpliv količine uporabljene aktivne snovi ali medvrstne razdalje. V večini let je mogoče z upoštevanjem tehnoloških navodil in dobre kmetijske prakse pridelati krompir brez ostankov ditiokarbamatov. V posameznih letih s specifičnimi pridelovalnimi razmerami pa lahko pride do tega, da najdemo ostanke ditiokarbamatov v gomoljih. V takih letih lahko ugotovimo ostanke tudi pri običajnih (neprekoračenih) količinah uporabljene aktivne snovi. Ugotavljamo tudi, da so ditiokarbamati v gomoljih precej obstojni in da upoštevana karenca ob izkopu krompirja še ni zagotovilo, da v gomoljih ne bo ostankov. Dobljeni rezultati ne kažejo, da bi bilo potrebno spreminjati sedaj uveljavljena tehnološka navodila in kriterije dobre kmetijske prakse. Zaradi zagotavljanja zdravega živeža pa je vsekakor smiselno nadaljevati z naključnim spremljanjem vsebnosti ostankov ditiokarbamatov pri pridelovalcih. V primeru ugotovljenih presežnih vrednosti ostankov je potrebno počakati z uporabo takega krompirja in spremljati razgradnjo ostankov med skladiščenjem.

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Agrovoc descriptors: zea mays, maize, inbred lines, mutation, kernels, gene banks

Agris category codes: F30

COBISS koda: 1.02

Pojav naravnih mutacij pri nekaterih linijah koruze (*Zea mays L.*) iz genske banke

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Delo je prispelo 30. januarja 2008; sprejeto 15.aprila 2008.

Received January 30, 2008; accepted April 15, 2008.

IZVLEČEK

Z namenom ugotovitve vrste in frekvence mutacij na nekaterih linijah koruze iz genske banke koruze Oddelka za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani smo v letu 2003 na poskusnem polju BF v Jablah pri Trzinu posejali 100 linij koruze iz genske banke. Na poskusni parcelici vsake linije je bilo posejanih po 40 rastlin. Storže linij smo po spravilu v laboratoriju vizualno pregledali in s pomočjo literature beležili pojav naravnih mutacij na storžih in zrnih posamezne linije. Vrste mutacij, ki smo jih na podlagi literature ugotovili, so bile: sladka zrna, zrna s praznim perikarpom, zgrbančena – nerazvita zrna, slabo razvita – abortirana zrna, zrna podobna visoko-lizinskim ali moknatim zrnom, zrna z zmanjšanim endospermom ter zrna v plevah. Nekaterih mutacij na podlagi literature (pisani – sivobel perikarp, nepravilne in odprte vrste zrnja na storžu) nismo mogli natančno definirati.

Ključne besede: koruza, *Zea mays L.*, linije, genska banka, naravne mutacije

ABSTRACT

THE APPEARANCE OF SPONTANEOUS MUTATIONS ON MAIZE (*Zea mays L.*) INBRED LINES OF MAIZE GENE BANK

The aim of this study, conducted in 2003, was to investigate the appearance and frequency of spontaneous mutations in maize inbred lines. In the investigation were included 100 maize inbred lines obtained from the maize gene bank of the Department of Agronomy, Biotechnical Faculty of the University of Ljubljana. The experimental plots included 40 plants per each inbred line. The ears of inbred lines were analysed, and on the base of literature, the appearance of spontaneous mutations on ears and kernels, were scored. The mutations that were determined are sugary kernels, kernels with empty pericarp, shrunken – undeveloped kernels, nonviable – defective kernels, kernels like opaque and floury endosperm, reduced endosperm and kernels with papyrescent glumes. On the base of literature some mutations (variegated – greyish white perikarp, irregular kernel row) we couldn't have determined.

Key words: maize, *Zea mays L.*, inbred lines, gene bank, spontaneous mutations.

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1 UVOD

Za uspešno žlahtnjenje rastlin je variabilnost genskega materiala, ki ga ima žlahtnitelj na razpolago, izrednega pomena. Z medsebojnim križanjem genetsko različnega materiala, ki je eden od najpomembnejših vzrokov variabilnosti, lahko žlahtnitelj sam povečuje variabilnost rastlin. Drugi zelo pomemben povzročitelj variabilnosti pa so mutacije, nenadne dedne spremembe, ki se lahko v naravi dogajajo spontano, lahko pa jih umetno povzroči človek z različnimi povzročitelji mutacij. V naravi se spontane mutacije dogajajo neprestano, vendar se fenotipsko lahko opazi le nekatere mutacije, predvsem mutacije kvalitativnih lastnosti, ki jih povzročajo geni z močnejšim delovanjem t.i. major geni, medtem ko so za ugotavljanje mutacij kvantitativnih lastnosti (t.i. minor geni ali poligeni) potrebna natančnejša merjenja in statistične analize (Borojević K., 1991). Čeprav se zdi, da je frekvence mutacij zelo nizka (10^{-4} do 10^{-8}) se v naravi mutacije pojavljajo pogosto, če vemo, da ima vsak organizem oz. rastlina veliko število genov in če upoštevamo število rastlin na enoto površine (80-100.000 rastlin koruze/ha, 3-5.000.000 rastlin pšenice/ha). Kljub prevladujočemu številu škodljivih mutacij, ki se v naravi izgubijo, ker organizmi (rastline) propadejo zaradi nesposobnosti preživetja ali nesposobnosti reprodukcije, so vendarle poznani nekateri pozitivni oz. koristni mutantni, ki se še danes uporabljajo lahko neposredno ali kot vir koristnih genov v žlahtnjenju rastlin. Pri koruzi je znana sladka koruza, koruza s povečano vsebnostjo lizina (opaque) (Borojević, S., 1992), v sadjarstvu nektarina (mutant breskve), črni mutantni pri jablani (Mišić, 1987) ali v cvetličarstvu (60 mutantov raznih barv tulipana 'Murillo') (Doorenbos, 1954). Mnogo koristnih mutacij se v naravi zgodi, a se jih zaradi tega, ker jih pravočasno ne opazimo, tudi izgubi. Da jih opazimo oz. odkrijemo je, med drugim, potrebno predvsem dobro poznavanje genskega materiala, ki ga proučujemo.

Namen raziskave je bil natančno proučiti in določiti naravne mutacije na storžih in zrnju koruze, ki so se pojavile v času ene rastne dobe na samooplodnih linijah koruze, ki so hranjene v genski banki Oddelka za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete Univerze v Ljubljani.

2 MATERIAL IN METODE

Na poskusnem polju Biotehniške fakultete v Jablah pri Trzinu je bilo posejanih 100 linij iz genske banke koruze Oddelka za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani. Na poskusni parcelici posamezne linije je bilo posejanih po 40 rastlin. Priprava in obdelava zemlje, setev ter nadaljnja oskrba poskusa v času rastne dobe je potekala po standardnih metodah, ki veljajo za pridelavo koruze v praksi.

Po spravilu in sušenju storžev linij koruze smo v laboratoriju ugotovljali pojav naravnih mutacij na zrnju koruze, tako da smo storže vseh linij natančno vizualno pregledali ter beležili vse spremembe posameznih zrn na storžu, ki so odstopala od normalnih in tipičnih zrn za posamezno linijo. Kot osnova za določanje tipa mutacij nam je služil katalog naravnih mutacij »Mutants of maize« (Neuffer in sod., 1997), kjer je poleg slikovnega prikaza posamezne mutacije navedeno ime mutacije, ki jo izraža gen, odgovoren za pojav določene mutacije ter lokus in oznaka kromosoma, na katerem je prišlo do mutacije.

3 REZULTATI

Čeprav se mutacije v naravi pojavljajo relativno pogosto, se jih zaradi nepozornosti ali neopaznosti večina izgubi. Opazimo jih le s pozornim spremeljanjem in dobrim poznavanjem materiala, ki ga imamo na razpolago. Najbolj očitna in dobro poznana naravna mutacija, ki se je pojavila tudi na našem genskem materialu, je mutacija iz navadne škrobnate koruze v sladko korozo. Dominantni gen *Su*, ki povzroča škrobnat endosperm, je mutiral v recessivni gen *su* (sugary), ki preprečuje tvorbo škroba, namesto njega se v zrnju tvori amilodekstrin, ki povzroča sladek okus zrna. Za tako mutacijo je odgovornih več genov, ki se nahajajo na različnih lokusih in kromosomih v koruznem genomu. Gen *su1*, z oznako [4S-47] (Neuffer in sod., 1997), se nahaja na krajišem kraku četrtega kromosoma in sicer na lokusu, ki je oddaljen 47 baznih parov (bp) od začetnega gena na lokaciji 0. Poleg tega gena povzročata sladko korozo še gena *su2* [6L-58] na šestem kromosому in *su3*, katerega lokacija do sedaj še ni znana. Zrela in suha zrna sladke koruze so nagubana in prosojna in se zlahka ločijo od navadnih škrobnatih zrn (Sl. 1). Ta mutacija se je pojavila pri linijah Lin-GB-55/03, Lin-GB-122/03, Lin-GB125/03 in Lin-GB-127/03 (Pregl. 1). Sladko zrno povzroča tudi gen *sh2* (shrunken) na tretjem kromosomu [3L-149.2], katerega zrnje je še bolj nagubano in bolj sladko, zato to korizo imenujemo tudi »super sladka koruza«. Na našem materialu te mutacije nismo opazili.

Pri linijah Lin-GB-55/03 in Lin-GB-87/03 so se pojavila posamezna zrna s praznim perikarpom. To mutacijo povzročajo geni z oznako *emp* (empty). Gen *emp1* [1S] se zelo močno izraža in povzroči popoln propad koruznega zrna. Embrio je neživ, prav tako tudi samo zrno, ki je nekalivo in ima prazen perikarp z zmanjšanim ali celo brez endosperma. Podobne simptome mutacij kot gen *emp1*, povzroča tudi gen *emp2* [2L-blizu gena *v4*]. Tako zrno ima nekoliko več endosperma, medtem ko gen *emp3* [8L-89] vpliva na nastanek majhnih, praznih in okvarjenih zrn, ki prav tako niso sposobna preživeti in so nekaliva. Sladko zrno s skoraj praznim perikarpom pa povzroča gen *cp2* [4S-blizu *ts5*], katerega zrnje je kalivo, vendar mlade rastline, ki so bele z zelenimi črtami, kmalu propadejo. Taka mutacija z različno stopnjo praznega perikarpa se je pojavila pri liniji Lin-GB-55/03 (Sl. 2).

Drobnejša, nepopolno razvita zrna, Neuffer s sod. (1997) jih poimenuje »miniatura zrna«, povzroča gen *mn1* (miniature seed) [2S-blizu *f11*]. Zrna izgledajo kot prisilno dozorela, katerim je zmanjšalo hranil za normalni razvoj. Zrna so normalno kaliva, prav tako sta normalna tudi nadaljnja rast in razvoj rastline. Najbolj očitno se je taka mutacija pojavila pri liniji Lin-GB-24/03 (Sl. 3) in to na dveh storžih pri vseh zrnih. Pri linijah Lin-GB-81/03, Lin-GB-82/03 in Lin-GB-127/03 so se pojavila samo posamezna mutirana zrna na storžih.

Preglednica 1: Mutacije, ki so se pojavile na zrnih linij koruze, hranjenih v genski banki Oddelka za agronomijo Biotehniške fakultete v Ljubljani, posejanih na selekcijskem polju v Jablah v letu 2003.

Table 1: Mutations, found on the kernel of maize inbreds of maize gene bank at Dept. of Agronomy, Biotechnical Faculty Ljubljana, investigated in Jable 2003.

Vrsta mutacije Type of mutation	Mutiran gen Mutate gene	Linije, pri katerih so se pojavile mutacije Inbreds, that express the mutations
Sladka zrna Sugary kernel	<i>su1, su2, su3, sh2</i>	Lin-GB-55/03, Lin-GB-122/03, Lin-GB-125/03, Lin-GB-127/03
Prazen perikarp Empty pericarp	<i>emp1, emp2, emp3</i>	Lin-GB-55/03, Lin-GB-87/03
Zgrbančena, nerazvita zrna Miniature, shrunken kernel	<i>mn1,</i>	Lin-GB-24/03, Lin-GB-81/03, Lin-GB-82/03, Lin-GB-127/03
Slabo razvita, abortirana oz. okvarjena zrna Defective kernel	<i>dek1 – dek33</i>	Lin-GB-45/03, Lin-GB-59/03, Lin-GB-87/03, Lin-GB-90/03, Lin-GB-99/03, Lin-GB-101/03
Visokolizinska zrna Opaque kernel	<i>o2, o5, o14</i>	Lin-GB-63/03
Moknat endosperm Floury endosperm	<i>f11, f12, f13</i>	Lin-GB-19/03, Lin-GB-63/03, Lin-GB-86/03, Lin-GB-130/03
Zmanjšan in moknat endosperm Reduced, floury endosperm	<i>ref1, ren1, ren2, ren3</i>	Lin-GB-130/03
Zrna v plevah Papyrescent glumes	<i>pn1</i>	Lin-GB-8/03
Pisan sivobel perikarp Variegated, greyish white pericarp		Pri 21 linijah On the 21 inbreds
Nepravilne oz. pomešane vrste Irregular kernel rows		Lin-GB-12/03
Odprte oz. razklenjene vrste Open irregular kernel rows		Lin-GB-118/03

Slabo razvita abortirana zrna smo opazili kot posamezna zrna pri linijah Lin-GB-45/03, Lin-GB-59/03, Lin-GB-87/03, Lin-GB-90/03, Lin-GB-99/03 in Lin-GB-101/03. Zrna so majhna, z močno zmanjšano prostornino zrna, ki je posledica slabo razvitega endosperma, tanke alevronske plasti in perikarpa. Tako mutacijo povzroča več genov z oznako *dek* (defective kernel) in sicer geni z oznako od *dek1* do *dek33*, ki se nahajajo na različnih lokusih in kromosomih. Čeprav ti geni povzročajo okvarjenost zrna, ki se izražajo s slabo razvitimi, abortiranimi zrni (Sl. 4), ki so nekaliva; nekateri od teh genov povzročajo tudi nastanek zrna z visoko vsebnostjo lizina. Med drugim tako vrsto mutacij povzročajo tudi geni *dek2, dek6*,

dek10, dek13, dek16, dek17, dek19 in *dek28*. Dvanajst *dek* genov povzroča tudi nastanek moknatega endosperma. Vsi *dek* geni pa povzročajo nekalivost zrna ali propad mladih rastlin kmalu po vzniku.

Sicer pa visokolizinska zrna povzročajo geni z oznako *o1* (opaque) do *o14* (razen *o3*), zrna z moknatim endospermom pa geni *fl* (floury): *fl1* [2S-68], *fl2* [4S-39] in *fl3* [8L-24]. Pri obeh mutacijah so zrna močno bledorumena (krednata), pri visokolizinskih so zrna tudi rahlo prosojna. Med njimi je najbolj znan gen *o2* [7S-16], ki regulira nastanek proteina *b-32*, ki vsebuje aminokislino lizin. Najbolj tipična zrna, podobna visokolizinskim, so se pojavila pri Lin-GB-63/03 (Sl. 5), medtem ko so se zrna, podobna zrnju z moknatim endospermom, pojavila pri Lin-GB-19/03, Lin-GB-45/03, Lin-GB-63/03, Lin-GB-86/03 in Lin-GB-103 (Pregl. 1). Pri liniji Lin-GB-130/03 so se pojavila tudi posamezna zrna z zmanjšanim in moknatim endospermom, ki jih povzroča gen *ref1* (reduced floury) [2S-68] (Sl. 6), medtem ko samo zmanjšan endosperm povzročajo geni *ren1* (reduced endosperm) [5L-blizu *pr1*], *ren2* [7L-blizu *tp1*] in *ren3* [10L-blizu *r*].

Pri liniji Lin-GB-8/03 so se pojavile pleve, ki so daljše in tanjše od običajnih, t.i. papirnate pleve, povzroča jih gen *pn1* (papyrescent glumes) [7L-112]. Zrna na storžu pa so lahko deloma ali v celoti ovita v pleve, v naši raziskavi so bila zrna samo deloma pokrita s plevami.

Poleg mutacij, ki jih navaja Neuffer s sod. (1977), so se v naši raziskavi pojavile še mutacije na zrnu s pisanim sivobelim perikarpom (Sl. 7) z različnimi niansami oz. intenzitetu pri kar 21 linijah; ter dve mutaciji na storžu. Pri liniji Lin-GB-12/03 so se pojavile nepravilne oz. pomešane vrste zrnja na storžu, pri liniji Lin-GB-118/03 pa so bile vrste zrnja na storžu odprte oz. razklenjene.

4 RAZPRAVA

V naše proučevanje so bile vključene linije z različno stopnjo homozigotnosti (od S6 generacije dalje) (Rozman, 1998), zato sta vzroka za izražanje mutacij lahko dva. Ker običajno dominantni gen 'A' mutira v recessivnega 'a' (Borojević, K., 1992), se mutacija izrazi le v homozigotnem stanju. Pri linijah, ki so že v homozigotnem stanju se je zgodila nenadna mutacija v letu proučevanja, medtem ko je pri linijah, ki še niso popolnoma homozigotne, mutantni alel lahko bil že prisoten, a se je izrazil šele, ko je prišlo do homozigotnega stanja mutiranega alela.

Za žlahtnjenje rastlin je pomembno, da mutacije pravočasno opazimo, še predvsem, če so to koristne mutacije, ki nam služijo za vzgojo novih genotipov z novimi boljšimi lastnostmi. V našem proučevanju se je mutacija sladke koruze, ki spada med ene od najbolj koristnih mutacij pri koruzi, pojavila pri 4 linijah. Pri liniji Lin-GB-55/03 so se istočasno pojavila tudi zrna, ki so imela bolj ali manj prazen perikarp. Posamezna sladka zrna iz različnih linij se bodo lahko uporabila v nadalnjem žlahtnjenju novih genotipov sladke koruze s selekcijo na homozigotnost še drugih agronomsko pomembnih fenotipskih lastnosti (izenačenost, odpornost, ranost, ...) in kasnejšim medsebojnim križanjem.

Koristni mutanti so tudi zrna z visoko vsebnostjo lizina, imenovana 'opaque' zrna. Ker smo mutacije ocenjevali predvsem po fenotipskih lastnosti oz. vizualno, ne moremo z gotovostjo trditi, da so to 'opaque' zrna, zato smo jih definirali kot zrna podobna visokolizinskim zrnom. Podobna so tudi zrna z moknatim endospermom, le da so ta zrna manj prosojna kot visokolizinska. Tudi taka zrna so se pojavila na več linijah z različno intenziteto izražanja. S kemičnimi analizami na vsebnost lizina v zrnju (Landry in sod., 2005; Azevedo in sod., 2003) ali na vsebnost ključnih encimov, ki so odgovorni za sintezo le-teh (Varisi in sod., 2007; Azevedo in sod., 2006) je možno ta predvidevanja potrditi.

Večje število mutacij, ki smo jih opazili, spada med nekoristne ali celo škodljive mutacije. Te so v procesu žlahtnjenja manj zaželene, zato je kljub temu potrebno beležiti tudi pojav le-teh, da te genotipe, v kolikor sami ne propadejo, izločimo iz nadaljnje selekcije. Nekoristne mutacije, ki smo jih opazili, se izražajo predvsem z zmanjšanim ali celo praznim endospermom, s slabo razvitimi okvarjenimi ter drobnejšimi zrni. Čeprav so si nekatere med njimi zelo podobne ali težje določljive, smo jih lahko vizualno dobro določili s primerjanjem zelo nazornih slik iz kataloga 'Mutants of maize' (Neuffer in sod., 1997). Za še večjo sigurnost so potrebne molekulski analizi, med katerimi se najpogosteje uporablja mikrosatelite (Lia in sod., 2007; Carson in sod., 2004; Vigouroux in sod., 2002). Nekatere od teh mutacij pa lahko določimo zelo enostavno s setvijo mutiranih zrn, saj so okvarjena zrna, katera povzročajo številni *dek* geni, popolnoma nekaliva, medtem ko so zrna z zmanjšanim endospermom normalno kaliva.

Od vseh 100 proučevanih linij, se je na 33 linijah pojavila vsaj ena vrsta mutacije. Nekatere od teh linij so bolj podvržene mutacijam, saj se je pri njih pojavilo več različnih vrst mutacij. Pri liniji Lin-GB-86/03 se je poleg moknatega endosperma na enem storžu, na drugem storžu pojavila mutacija s pisanim sivobelim perikarpom (Sl. 8), ki je v katalogu mutacij (Neuffer s sod., 1997) nismo našli. Nedvomno pa gre tu za mutacijo, saj je perikarp lahko različne barve (brezbarven, sivobel, rdeč ali rjav) (IBPGR, 1991; Tavčar, 1965), odvisno od prisotnih genov. Pisan sivobel perikarp smo ugotovili pri 21 linijah, kjer se je razvil z različno intenziteto pisanosti. Podobni znaki se na zrnju pojavijo lahko tudi ob rahli napadenosti glive iz rodu *Fusarium*, ki pa se zaradi sušnih vremenskih razmer v letu proučevanja ni množično pojavila. Naša domnevanja o pojavu take mutacije se lahko potrdijo ali ovržejo z nadaljnjo setvijo teh zrn.

5 SKLEPI

Na genskem materialu linij koruze iz genske banke smo ugotovili koristne kot tudi nekoristne ali celo škodljive mutacije.

Sladka zrna koruze, ki spadajo med koristne mutante in se najbolj očitno razlikujejo od normalnih škrobnatih zrn, so se pojavila pri linijah Lin-GB-55/03, Lin-GB-122/03, Lin-GB-125/03 in Lin-GB-127/03.

Zrna podobna visokolizinskim so se pojavila pri liniji Lin-GB-63/03, zrna podobna zrnom z moknatim endospermom pa pri linijah Lin-GB-19/03, Lin-GB-63/03, Lin-GB-86/03 in Lin-GB-130/03.

Večje število mutacij, ki so se pojavile v našem proučevanju, spada med nekoristne mutacije, kot so npr. okvarjena, zmanjšana ali zgrbančena zrna.

Mutanti s koristnimi lastnostmi bodo vključeni v nadaljnji program selekcije ali žlahtnjenja koruze, nekateri pa bodo, glede na dosedanje ugotovitve, še nadalje preizkušani.

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Slika 1: Posamezna sladka zrna, ki so nagubana in prosojna, na storžu trdinke.

Figure 1: Individual sugary kernel, the shrunken and translucent, on the ear of flint maize.



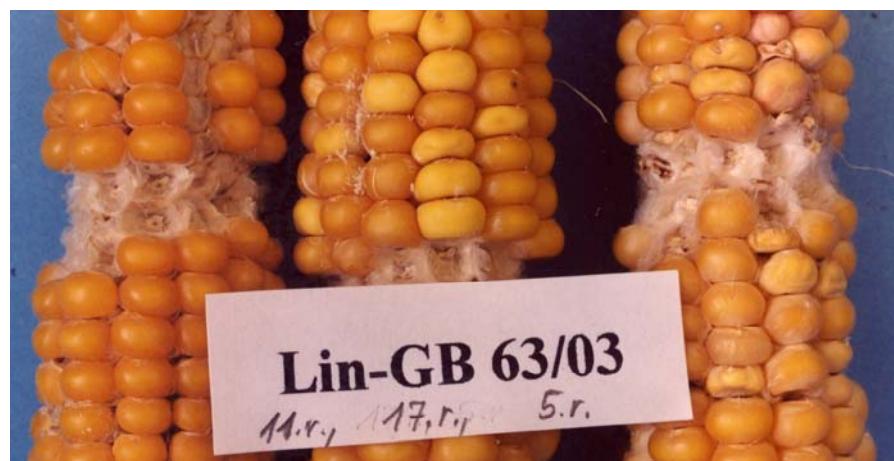
Slika 2: Storž s sladkimi zrni in zrni s praznim perikarpom.
Figure 2: Ear with sugary kernels and kernels with empty pericarp.



Slika 3: Drobnejša, nepopolno razvita zrna.
Figure 3: Miniature kernels, expressed as incomplete developed kernels.



Slika 4: Slabo razvita, abortirana oz. okvarjena zrna..
Figure 4: Incomplete developed, defective kernels.



Slika 5: Posamezna bledorumena (krednata) zrna, podobna visokolizinskim (*opaque*) zrnom.
Figure 5: Individual chalky kernels, like to high lysine content (*opaque*) kernels.



Slika 6: Posamezna zrna z zmanjšanim in moknatim endospermom.

Figure 6: Individual kernels with reduced and floury endosperm.



Slika 7: Zrna s pisanim sivobelim perikarpom.

Figure 7: Kernels with variegated greyish white pericarp.



Slika 8: Linija Lin-GB-86/03 z izražanjem dveh vrst mutacij, pisan sivobel perikarp (levi storž) in zrna podobno zrnu z moknatim endospermom (desni storž).

Figure 8: Inbreds Lin-GB-86/03 with express variegated, greyish white pericarp (ear on left) and kernel like to floury endosperm (ear on right).

CONTENT ANALYSIS OF THE PAPERS IN THE ACTA AGRICULTURAE SLOVENICA

VSEBINSKA OBDELAVA PRISPEVKOV V ACTA AGRICULTURAE SLOVENICA let. 91 št. 1

Tomaž BARTOL^a, Karmen STOPAR^b,

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NAVODILA AVTORJEM

Prispevki

Sprejemamo izvirne znanstvene članke, predhodne objave in raziskovalne notice s področja agronomije, hortikulture, rastlinske biotehnologije, raziskave živil rastlinskega izvora, agrarne ekonomike in informatike ter s sorodnih področij v slovenskem, angleškem in nemškem jeziku, znanstveno pregledne članke samo po poprejnjem dogovoru. Objavljamo prispevke, podane na simpozijih, ki niso bili v celoti objavljeni v zborniku simpozija. Če je prispevek del diplomske naloge, magistrskega ali doktorskega dela, navedemo to in tudi mentorja na dnu prve strani. Navedbe morajo biti v slovenskem in angleškem jeziku.

Pri prispevkih v slovenskem jeziku morajo biti preglednice, grafikoni, slike in priloge dvojezični, povsod je slovenščina na prvem mestu. Naslovi grafikonov in slik so pod njimi. Slike in grafikoni so v besedilu. Priloženi morajo biti tudi jasno označeni izvirniki slik. Na avtorjevo željo jih vračamo, s tem da je želja pisno sporočena ob oddaji gradiva in ponovno v teku 30 dni po izidu. Latinske izraze pišemo ležeče. V slovenščini uporabljamo decimalno vejico, v angleščini decimalno pikto. Prispevki v angleščini morajo imeti povzetek v slovenščini in obratno. Prispevki v nemščini morajo imeti tudi povzetka v slovenščini in angleščini.

Prispevki naj bodo strnjeni, kratki, praviloma največ 12 strani. Uporabljamo Microsoft Word 97 (Windows); pisava Times New Roman, velikost strani 16,2 x 23,5 cm, velikost črk besedila 10, v obsežnih preglednicah je lahko 8; izvlečki in metode dela Arial velikost 8, levi in desni rob 2,1 cm, zgornji rob 1,3 cm, spodnji rob 1,6 cm,

Prva stran

Na prvi strani prispevka na desni strani označimo vrsto prispevka v slovenščini in angleščini, sledi naslov prispevka, pod njim avtorji. Ime avtorjev navedemo v polni obliki (ime in priimek). Vsak avtor naj bo označen z indeksom, ki ga navedemo takoj pod avtorji, in vsebuje polni naslov ustanove ter znanstveni in akademski naslov; vse v jeziku prispevka. Navedemo sedež ustanove, kjer avtor dela. Če je raziskava opravljena drugje, avtor navede tudi sedež te inštitucije. Na željo avtorjev bomo navedli naslov elektronske pošte.

Pod naslovi avtorjev je datum prispetja in datum sprejetja prispevka, ki ostaneta odprta. Sledi razumljiv in poveden izvleček z do 250 besedami. Vsebuje namen in metode dela, rezultate, razpravo in sklepe. Sledijo ključne besede.

Izvlečku v jeziku objave sledi naslov in izvleček s ključnimi besedami v drugem jeziku.

Viri

V besedilu navajamo v oklepaju avtorja in leto objave: (priimek, leto). Če sta avtorja dva, pišemo: (priimek in priimek, leto), če je avtorjev več, pišemo: (priimek in sod., leto). Sekundarni vir označimo z "navedeno v" ali "cv.". Seznam virov je na koncu prispevka, neoštivilčen in v abecednem redu. Vire istega avtorja, objavljene v istem letu, razvrstimo kronološko z a, b, c. Primer: 1997a. Navajanje literature naj bo popolno: pri revijah letnik, leto, številka, strani; pri knjigah kraj, založba, leto, strani. Za naslove revij je dovoljena uradna okrajšava, za okrajšanimi besedami naj bodo vedno pike. Navedbo zaključimo s piko. Za primere upoštevajte objave v Zborniku BFUL.

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NOTES FOR AUTHORS

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Papers in Slovenian language should have tables, graphs, figures and appendices in both languages, Slovenian language being the first. Titles of graphs and figures are below them. Figures and graphs are part of the text. Clearly marked origins of figures should be added; they can be returned if author desires. Latin expressions are written in italics. Decimal coma is used in Slovenian and decimal point in English. Papers in English should contain abstract in Slovenian and *vice versa*. Papers in German should contain abstracts in German, Slovenian and English.

The papers should be condensed, short and usually should not exceed 12 pages. Microsoft Word 97 (Windows) should be used, fonts Times New Roman, paper size 16.2 x 23.5 cm, font size in main text 10; in large tables size 8 could be used, abstracts and material and methods Arial size 8, right and left margin 2.1 cm, upper margin 1.3 cm and lower margin 1.6 cm.

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The type of the paper should be indicated on the first page on the right side in Slovenian and English language following by title of the paper and authors. Full names of authors are used (first name and surname). Each name of the author should have been added an index, which is put immediately after the author(s), and contains address of the institution and academic degree of the author, in the language of the paper. The address of the institution in which the author works is indicated. If the research was realised elsewhere, the author should name the headquarters of the institution. E-mail is optional.

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