

Aspects of Biological Nitrogen Fixation



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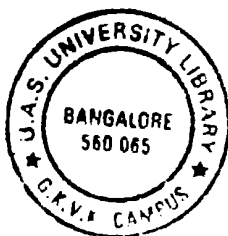
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Aspects of Biological Nitrogen Fixation

Proceedings of the Third Southern Regional Conference on
Microbial Inoculants in Crop Production, held at
University of Agricultural Sciences, College of Agriculture
Dharwad Campus, on April 1 and 2, 1977



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The Third Southern Regional Conference on Bacterial Inoculants in Crop Production was held at the University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad Campus, Dharwar, on 1st and 2nd April 1977

Dr V P Bhide, Emeritus Professor, I C A R , Maharashtra Association for Cultivation of Sciences, Poona, inaugurated the Conference Dr S V Patil, Director of Instructions, Agricultural College, Dharwad, presided over the function Dr T K R Reddy, Professor of Agricultural Microbiology, Agricultural College, Dharwad welcomed the delegates and Mr A R Madhav Rao proposed the vote of thanks Dr Peter Dart, Microbiologist, ICRISAT, Hyderabad, addressed the gathering on the importance of biological nitrogen fixation in crop production Dr R B Patil, Professor of Agricultural Microbiology, U A S , Bangalore listed the aims and objects of the Conference

Over 40 delegates from the Universities and Institutes of South India including Maharashtra and representatives of the manufacturers of Bacterial Inoculants participated in the Conference Dr G Rangaswami, Vice-Chancellor, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, was to deliver the key-note address but could not do so on account of the last minute cancellation of the flight to Belgaum However, his address was circulated to the participants

Dr V P Bhide inaugurating the Conference emphasized the need for wider use of Bacterial Inoculants in Crop Production He also pointed out that the research on the use of Bacterial Inoculants has not been satisfactory and is not being carried out in a coordinated manner He urged the Universities and other Agricultural Institutions to take up the studies on the response of various crops under different agro-climatic situations to inoculation He also indicated that the Indian Standards Institute would soon come out with the standards for production and use of Bacterial Inoculants and this would protect the farmers against the spurious claims of some of the inoculant manufacturing firms

Dr Peter Dart pointed out that though India is the home of a wide variety of legumes capable of being nodulated by rhizobia, the Indian soils are impoverished in respect of nitrogen, whereas, the soils of United States of America, Australia and some of the European countries are enriched with nitrogen This may be attributed to the extensive use of rhizobial inoculants in production of legumes in these countries He also listed some of the recent findings of the research on Biological Nitrogen Fixation and their application in agricultural

production. He emphasized the need to assess the distribution of effective and ineffective strains of native rhizobia in Indian soils and the response of grain legumes to inoculation. He noted that the attempts to transfer the 'nif' gene to cereal crops are on the way and by the turn of the century this would be achieved and that these crops like legumes may become largely independent of the use of nitrogenous fertilizers in crop production. He also urged the need to explore the possibilities of using blue green algae, *Azolla* and other free-living nitrogen fixing bacteria in production of crops.

Dr G Rangaswami, Vice-Chancellor, T N A U, in his key note address dealt with newer aspects of research on nitrogen fixation that are being intensively pursued. Amongst them he listed genetic engineering of nitrogen fixing microorganisms, enhancing the nitrogen fixing capacity of the rhizobia in legume root nodules and search for new nitrogen fixing organisms and their associations with non-leguminous plants. He also noted with satisfaction that the group of Scientists who came together since April 1975 have met for the third successive year. This, he stated, in itself was a progress and he hoped this enthusiasm for research in this narrow field of Biological Nitrogen Fixation in crop production would be continued during the coming years. Since, a small minority of scientists are involved in this area of research the emphasis has been more on the applied aspect and therefore, he suggested to the group to take up some work on the fundamental aspects of the problem. He noted that the farmers though, in the initial stages showed great interest in the use of rhizobial inoculants, that interest has been gradually waning in recent years. This he attributed to the inequalities in crop response to inoculation noted by farmers. He, therefore, emphasized the need to evolve a technology that will assure at least a minimal level of benefit to the farmers through the use of rhizobial inoculants. Likewise, the results on the response of crops to *Azotobacter* inoculation were varying. It is therefore, necessary that the cost-benefit ratio with these bacterial cultures should be much higher than that with chemical fertilizers. This alone will sustain the interest of the farmers in the use of these inoculants for production of non-leguminous crops. The technology of inoculation developed so far has been confined to the grain crops. This needs to be extended to fodder legumes and grasses if our Animal Husbandry were also to develop rapidly. In conclusion, he noted that the transfer of technology from the research laboratories to farmers has not been uniform and several factors contributed to this. He, therefore, urged the Agricultural Microbiologists to take every possible step to counter-balance these factors.

The group met in five sessions during two successive days and presented their findings on the response of leguminous and non-leguminous crops to inoculation,

under varying agro-climatic conditions and on the production and quality control of bacterial inoculants. At the end of these sessions panel discussion was held and the following resolutions were passed. Dr Peter Dart presided over the plenary session and the summary reports presented by the recorders and the Chairmen of the different sessions were discussed.

Session I — Crop Response to Inoculation of Legumes

- 1) Response curves for nitrogen fertilizer application and inoculation in respect of important leguminous crops like groundnut, redgram and bengalgram should be worked out
- 2) Factors affecting nodulation and nitrogen fixation namely the surface temperature of the soils, moisture stress, depth of sowing and insect damage to nodules have to be critically studied
- 3) Model experiments on competition between several isolates of rhizobia have to be carried out. In these studies, such markers as serology, resistance to antibiotic and metabolite etc., may be used. To overcome the competition from native rhizobia the necessity to use very high levels of viable cells per seed has to be examined
- 4) Effect of residual nitrogen fixed by legumes on succeeding non-leguminous crops has to be assessed
- 5) In respect of germplasm screening for nodulation, number of nodules produced in the early stages of growth may be an useful criterion. The method needs to be standardized
- 6) In respect of the multistrain inoculants the problem of interaction amongst the strains and with the host plant has to be critically studied.
- 7) It was agreed that the criteria now being used for the evaluation of nitrogen fixation by various strains of rhizobia were inadequate. Hence, it was emphasized that uniform criteria such as dry weight and nitrogen content of tops, grain yield and continuous monitoring of nitrogen fixation in nodules by acetelyne reduction technique or by total nitrogen determination have to be adopted
- 8) Symptoms of Zn and Mo deficiency in legumes need to be defined on the basis of the experimental results
- 9) Methods of root washing and recovery of nodules particularly with legumes having fragile nodules have to be worked out
- 10) Attempts should be made to evolve temperature resistant and moisture stress resistant strains of rhizobia

- 11) Information on the population of rhizobia in different soils during different seasons and under different crops is not available; It is necessary to assess the native population under the above conditions to obtain a better predictability of response to inoculation

Session – II — Crop Response to Inoculation in Non-legumes

- 1) Other classes of nitrogen fixing, free-living bacteria in rhizosphere of various non-leguminous crop plants have to be isolated and studied
- 2) Adaptive and demonstration trials on farmers fields on the response of crops to *Azotobacter* inoculation have to be taken up on a much wider scale
- 3) The extent of excretion of nitrogen fixed by *Azotobacter* and availability of nitrogen to the crop have to be assessed
- 4) Trials on *Azotobacter* inoculation of vegetable, tuber crops and cotton need to be conducted
- 5) Nitrogen uptake by the crops inoculated with *Azotobacter* by acetylene reduction technique needs to be taken up in order to sort out the benefits due to nitrogen fixation and due to production of growth promoting substances by *Azotobacter*
- 6) Sterilized carrier based inoculants of *Azotobacter* have to be included as an additional control in studies on soil application of *Azotobacter* inoculants to crop plants
- 7) Role of organic matter in enhancing the efficacy of *Azotobacter* has to be investigated
- 8) Sub-cultures of *Azotobacter* with claimed capacity for fixation of very high amounts of nitrogen should be exchanged with other laboratories for further verification
- 9) Those laboratories who have been carrying out phyllosphere and spermosphere fixation of nitrogen may continue those studies

Session III — Ecology of Nitrogen Fixing Organisms

- 1) Sizeable amount of information on the effect of pesticides on the symbiotic and non-symbiotic nitrogen fixing organisms has accumulated This needs to be pooled and presented as review The Scientists should send whatever information they have on this to Dr .A Balasubramanian, Microbiologist, TNAU, Combatore-3
- 2) Research on pelleting with lime, rock phosphate and bauxite should be continued

- 3) Nodulation in different soil types such as a black soil, red soil, acidic soil and alkaline soils in terms of continuous production of effective and infective nodules by various strains of rhizobia and the growth of the host plant needs to be studied

Session IV — Problems in Production, Quality Control and use of Bacterial Inoculants

- 1) Wherever convincing data on the response of crops to inoculation are available, the use of Bacterial Inoculants should be included in the recommended package of practices
- 2) The Bacterial Inoculant manufacturers may form an association to present their problems to the concerned extension agencies and Universities and popularise the use of Bacterial Inoculants in crop production
- 3) The Indian Standards Institute may be requested to expedite the standards for *Azotobacter* inoculants
- 4) Research on the carriers, stickers and packaging materials may be continued
- 5) There is a need to evolve a suitable procedure to facilitate the Inter State Movement of Bacterial Inoculants
- 6) The State Departments of Agriculture and the Vice-Chancellors of the respective Universities may be requested to set up Inoculant Testing Laboratories

Dr Peter Dart, in his concluding remarks thanked the organizers for the excellent arrangements made for the stay of the delegates and indicated the possibility of holding the next conference at ICRISAT

Dr N N Prasad thanked the host Institute, in particular Dr S V Patil, Dr T K R Reddy and his staff on behalf of the group. He expressed great disappointment at the inability of Dr G Rangaswami to be at Dharwad on the occasion. He expressed the indebtedness of the group to Dr G Rangaswami for his keen interest in the activities of the group and encouragement.

SESSION I

Crop Response to Inoculation – Legumes

Response of Native and Introduced Strains of *Rhizobium* sp. on the Nodulation and Yield of Different Varieties of Blackgram and Greengram

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ABSTRACT

Application of composite culture of *Rhizobium* consisting of the introduced and native strains of *Rhizobium* sp, such as IARI-E 9, Coimbatore-BMBS P 47, Bangalore, Jabalpur, Madurai-Mash 64 and Nitrobac (Biocultures) significantly increased the growth, nodulation and yield in Co 2, G 104 and H 21-40-14 varieties of blackgram. While the control and various isolates applied singly, gave yields ranging from 8.16 to 10.58 q/ha, the composite culture gave 11.16 q/ha in Co 2 variety thus recording an increased yield ranging from 10.2 to 40.4 per cent over other isolates of *Rhizobium* and control. Similar trend was observed with the use of composite culture in G 104 and H 21-40-14 although they recorded lesser yield and nodulation than Co 2.

In the case of greengram, application of composite culture consisting of the introduced and native strains of *Rhizobium* sp, such as IARI-D 10, Coimbatore GMBS, Bangalore, Jabalpur, Madurai-PLS 287 and Nitrobac, gave 8.06 q/ha in Co 2 variety which was 11.5 per cent to 54.1 per cent more than those of individual isolates and control that gave the yields ranging from 5.23 q/ha to 7.23 q/ha. Similar trend in growth, nodulation and yield was observed with the use of composite culture in S8 and ML 24 varieties of greengram although they recorded lower yields than Co 2.

INTRODUCTION

It is reported that the growth, nodulation and yield of legumes are increased by the treatment of bacterial inoculants consisting of single or multi-strain inoculants of rhizobia. Oblisami *et al* (1976) reported that the composite culture of *Rhizobium* increased nodulation and yield of blackgram and greengram varieties. Srirama Raju (1976) reported about the nodulation of different rhizobial strains from Australia, Bangalore, IARI, Israel strains in bengalgram. Nodulation and yield of legumes can be increased by the combinations of effective strains as against single effective strain (Bhargava *et al*, 1975). Habish and Ishag (1974) reported that inoculation of a local strain of *Rhizobium* significantly increased growth, nodulation and yield of beans. Bhargava *et al*, (1975) reported that seed treatment of different indigenous cultures of *Rhizobium* increased the nodulation and yield of soybeans. Balasundaram and Subba Rao (1972) stressed the importance of composite cultures and reported that the establishment of soybeans with indigenously available cultures of *Rhizobium*

as against the imported cultures of *Rhizobium* from different agro-climatic conditions in the country Patil *et al*, (1972) reported the efficiency of certain *Rhizobium* inoculants obtained from different sources in increasing the nodulation and yield of soybean In the present paper, the efficiency of six strains of *Rhizobium* and the composite culture containing these six strains in increasing the growth, nodulation and yield of different varieties of greengram and blackgram is presented

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Two different field experiments one for blackgram and another for greengram, were conducted in *kharif* season of 1976-77 under irrigated conditions in a split plot design with three replications having a plot size of 4 × 2 m The experiment was laid out with eight treatments including control in which no *Rhizobium* culture was used In the case of blackgram, one native (Madurai-Mash 64) and five introduced strains of *Rhizobium* viz, IARI-E 9, Coimbatore-BMBS P 47, Bangalore, Jabalpur and Nitrobac were used individually and as composite culture The composite culture included all these six different strains Three varieties of blackgram viz, CO 2, G 104 and H21-40-14 were used for the studies The seeds were coated thoroughly with the peat soil based cultures of *Rhizobium* The seeds were sown in lines with the spacing of 30 × 20 cm

Similarly in the case of greengram, one native (Madurai-PLS287) and five introduced strains of rhizobia viz, IARI-D 10, Coimbatore-GMBS 1, Bangalore, Jabalpur, and Nitrobac were used for the studies Three varieties of greengram viz, CO 2, S 8 and ML 24 were used in the experiments The crops were cultivated with all recommended package of practices In both experiments, plant samples were collected on 45th day 75th day after sowing and observations were recorded for growth and nodulation Dry weights of shoot and root were used to assess the effect on growth Total number of nodules per plant and dry weight of nodular tissue were considered as important parameters for nodulation The seed yield was recorded finally for assessing the effect on yield

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Blackgram The effect of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on growth, nodulation and yield of three varieties of blackgram are given in Tables 1 and 2

(1) *Growth* In case of dry weight of shoot, composite culture performed significantly superior to individual strains and control Among the individual strains, the strain from IARI performed better than all other strains, followed by strains from Coimbatore and Bangalore Similarly the strains from Jabalpur

TABLE I

*Influence of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on the growth and nodulation in blackgram**

Strain	Dry weight of shoot (g)			Dry weight of root (g)			Total number of nodules			Dry weight of nodular tissue (g)		
	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃
I A R I E 9	15.59	14.23	13.83	0.96	0.99	0.98	55.0	46.0	38.3	0.741	0.657	0.546
Coimbatore-BMBS P47	15.05	13.32	11.97	0.99	0.95	0.94	50.0	36.7	35.0	0.707	0.415	0.410
Bangalore	14.74	13.15	12.02	0.99	0.99	0.98	51.3	39.7	34.3	0.721	0.578	0.415
Jabalpur	14.08	13.22	11.15	0.98	0.98	0.97	46.3	34.7	33.0	0.640	0.417	0.397
Madurai-Mash 64	14.21	13.10	11.96	0.99	0.98	0.98	47.7	35.3	35.0	0.697	0.417	0.427
Nitrobac (Biocultures)	13.44	13.10	11.15	0.96	0.90	0.90	44.3	33.0	30.7	0.606	0.402	0.374
Composite (Mixture of 1 to 6)	17.91	15.32	15.66	1.03	1.00	1.03	76.0	73.07	69.0	1.462	0.493	1.387
Control	11.39	10.47	9.00	0.85	0.76	0.69	33.3	26.3	23.7	0.397	0.353	0.333
Mean	14.55	13.24	12.09	0.97	0.94	0.93	50.51	40.7	37.4	0.746	0.592	0.537
	Strain	Variety	Interaction	Strain	Variety	Interaction	St	Vt	In	St	Vt	In
SE	0.168	0.261	0.291	0.013	0.005	0.023	0.54	0.73	0.93	0.10	0.007	0.017
CD at 5 %	0.480	1.026	NS	0.037	0.018	NS	1.53	2.87	2.67	0.028	0.027	0.049

Note V₁ Co2, V₂ G 104, V₃ H21-40-14

*Observations recorded on 45th day after sowing

TABLE II

Influence of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on the yield of blackgram

Strain	Seed yield (Q/ha)			Mean
	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	
I A R I E 9	10 58	9 79	8 33	9 57
Coimbatore-BMBS P 47	9 91	9 62	8 33	9 29
Bangalore	9 75	9 16	7 91	8 94
Jabalpur	9 68	9 47	8 12	9.09
Madurai-Mash 64	9 58	9 43	8 08	9 03
Nitrobac	9 75	9 37	9 95	9 02
Composite	11 66	10 00	9 16	10 27
Control	8 16	7 75	7 04	7 65
Mean	9 88	9 32	8 12	9 17

	Strain	Variety	Interaction
SE	0 12	0 05	0 20
CD at 5 %	0 34	0 21	N S

Note V₁ CO₂, V₂ G 104, V₃ H-21-40-14

and Madurai were on par in their performances and superior to Nitrobac and control

(ii) *Nodulation* The composite culture produced highest number of nodules viz , 69 0 to 85 0 per plant and maximum dry weight of nodular tissue viz , 1 38 to 1 46 g per plant depending upon the variety and duration of sampling than the individual strains Among the individual strains, the strain from IARI was superior to all other strains, followed by the strains from Bangalore and Coimbatore The strains from Madurai and Jabalpur were equally effective in nodulation Nitrobac fared least among the various strains

(iii) *Yield* The composite culture was the best by producing 11 66 q/ha which was significantly superior to that of the single strains Among the individual strains the strain from IARI was the best The performances of all other introduced and native strains were on par

Regarding the response of different varieties to the introduced and native strains of rhizobia, Co 2 variety gave seed yield of 11 66 q/ha which was significantly better than G 104 that gave 10 00 q/ha and H 21-40-14 which gave 9 16 q/ha

Greengram The effects of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on the growth, nodulation and yield of three varieties of greengram are presented in Tables 3 and 4

TABLE III

*Influence of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on the growth and nodulation in greengram***

Strain	Dry wt of shoot (g)			Dry wt of root (g)			Total number of nodules			Dry wt of nodular tissues (g)		
	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃
IARI-D 10	17.48	17.28	18.08	1.13	1.37	1.45	63.7	66.0	67.0	0.879	0.879	0.902
Coimbatore-GMBS 1	16.67	16.08	17.25	1.05	1.18	1.18	51.7	54.7	58.7	0.810	0.858	0.870
Bangalore	16.57	15.99	16.48	0.95	0.94	1.03	54.7	56.7	58.7	0.895	0.585	0.898
Jabalpur	15.78	15.91	16.18	0.86	0.93	0.99	46.0	49.7	51.3	0.781	0.812	0.813
Madurai-PLS, 287	16.74	16.07	16.73	0.96	1.03	1.03	57.7	57.7	60.7	0.853	0.851	0.884
Nitrobac	15.71	15.47	15.87	0.87	0.92	0.96	44.0	46.3	44.3	0.819	0.820	0.782
Composite	18.48	18.28	19.50	1.43	1.60	0.75	77.7	80.3	82.3	1.275	1.283	1.285
Control	13.28	13.22	13.96	0.74	0.77	0.85	26.0	27.3	25.7	0.483	0.479	0.477
Mean	16.34	16.04		0.99	1.09	1.15	52.7	54.8	56.9	0.847	0.853	0.864
	Strain	Variety	Interaction	Strain	Variety	Interaction	Strain	Variety	Interaction	Strain	Variety	Interaction
SE	0.181	0.101	0.314	0.023	0.013	0.040	0.641	0.311	1.110	0.009	0.002	0.016
CD at 5%	0.518	0.398	N S	0.065	0.052	N S	1.830	1.223	N S	0.027	0.010	N S

Note V₁ Co 2, V₂ S 8, V₃ ML 24

** Observations recorded on 45th day after sowing

TABLE IV

Influence of native and introduced strains of rhizobia on the yield of greengram

Strains	Seed yield (q/ha)		
	V ₁	V ₂	V ₃
IARI-D 10	7 13	6 86	6 10
Coimbatore-GMBS 1	7 16	6 71	5 58
Bangalore	7 23	6 66	5 31
Jabalpur	6 73	5 90	5 36
Madurai-PLS 287	7 10	6 33	6 10
Nitrobac	6 86	6 13	5 98
Composite	8 06	7 73	6 50
Control	5 23	5 03	4 16

	Strain	Variety	Interaction
SE	0 61	0 17	1 06
CD at 5 %	1 76	0 79	3 05

Note V₁ Co 2, V₂ S8, V₃ ML 24

(i) *Growth* The composite culture produced more dry weight of shoot which was superior to those by all the individual strains. Among the individual strains, the strain from IARI was superior to all other strains, followed by the strains from Coimbatore, Bangalore and Madurai with different varieties of greengram. Although the composite culture was better than the other strains in increasing the dry weight of root, there is no significant difference between the individual strains.

(ii) *Nodulation* The composite culture produced 77.7 to 98.3 nodules per plant while individual strains produced nodules ranging from 44.0 to 77.0 nodules per plant depending upon the variety and duration of sampling. Among the individual strains, the strain from IARI was best followed by strains from Madurai, Bangalore, Coimbatore, Jabalpur and Nitrobac.

(iii) *Yield* The performance of composite culture and of all other individual strains was on par in increasing the grain yield of Co 2 and ML 24 varieties. In case of S 8 variety, the composite culture was superior to individual strains.

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Nodulation Pattern in Certain Germplasm Collections of Blackgram and Greengram

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ABSTRACT

Preliminary screening of the high yielding germplasm collections of blackgram and greengram was carried out for their interactions to *Rhizobium*. Nodulation pattern indicated that the genotypes of blackgram were comparatively more responsive to the *Rhizobium* inoculant than the greengram genotypes, forming more number of nodules per plant. In case of greengram, the same genotype contained maximum number of nodules per plant in both the treated as well as untreated plants, so also minimum number of nodules were recorded in the same genotype. However, in blackgram, though the same genotype contained minimum number of nodules in both the cases, maximum number of nodules were formed in different genotypes. The nodulation in the inoculated genotypes was significantly superior over the uninoculated genotypes of both the plant species. Higher number of nodules were formed during the vegetative stage of both the plant species.

SUCCESSFUL symbiosis between a legume and its rhizobium involves mutual compatibility all the way from an interaction that prepares the root for and initiates the process of 'invasion' to the final stage which secures efficient functioning time for nitrogen fixing tissue to satisfy the plant needs (Vincent 1974). Lot of informations are available on the role of *Rhizobium* in the nodulation of legumes. However, very little information is available on the role of plant genotypes in the interaction between the rhizobium and the legume. Genetically diverse lines of *Trifolium ambiguum* showed marked differences in the

invasibility and when nodules are produced in the time taken to nodulate (Hely, 1972) Rao and Viswanthan (1974) reported that among the 10 genotypes of soybean tested, the cultivars Davis and Bragg recorded the highest number of nodules Sen and Bhaduri (1971) studying the relationship between the number and specific volume of nodules in different species of *Phaseolus* observed significant variations in the nodule volume among different species and varieties of *Phaseolus* The data on nodulation pattern of two important pulse crops, viz , blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo*) and greengram (*P aureus*) are presented in this paper

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Twenty high yielding varieties each of blackgram and greengram from the germplasm collection of the pulses maintained in the Department of Agricultural Botany were treated with an efficient strain of *Rhizobium* sp (Ah 6) and sown into the field to study the interaction between the *Rhizobium* and the legumes The uninoculated series of the same genotypes sown separately served to assess the interaction between native rhizobium and the host The design of the lay out of the trial was Latin Square design The number of nodules produced at vegetative, flowering stages of the crops and the response of the genotypes for the *rhizobium* treatment or native rhizobia was assessed

TABLE I
Nodulation pattern in certain of germplasm collections in blackgram
(No of nodules per plant)

Germplasm Collection	Uninoculated series			Inoculated series		
	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Mean	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Mean
H 21	117	21	69	147	36	92
P 133	73	14	44	118	29	74
H 21-40/22	43	31	37	148	64	106
V Z M 189	117	114	116	46	76	61
CO 2	52	15	34	72	45	59
H 21-40/28	152	59	106	158	64	111
P 58	122	92	107	104	122	113
H 21-50/4	40	38	39	206	49	128
No 55	137	66	102	202	71	137
PLS-364-30/8	87	54	71	223	135	179
T-9	71	19	45	114	65	90
H-21-40/29	191	49	120	91	40	66
M-3	204	19	112	174	54	114
Musiri	117	61	89	127	49	88
H-21-40/30	166	53	110	149	28	89
Pusa-1	118	29	74	131	40	86
H-21-50/15	181	50	116	161	78	118
CO-3	84	16	50	191	56	126
H-21-40/14	26	13	20	41	18	30
U-5-2	39	14	27	131	26	79

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

The results on nodulation pattern in certain of the germplasm collections of blackgram and greengram are presented in Tables I and II

TABLE II
Nodulation pattern in certain of germplasm collections in greengram
(No of nodules per plant)

Germplasm Collection	Uninoculated series			Inoculated series		
	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Mean	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Mean
PLS-334	17	12	15	26	11	19
PLS-265	28	11	20	31	13	22
No 293/1/1	3	9	6	7	4	6
PLS-240	11	12	12	13	6	10
PS 16	64	16	40	65	34	50
CO-1	31	29	30	41	18	30
M 2	93	43	68	104	78	91
PLS 367/2	62	23	43	74	27	51
PS 10	93	56	75	73	32	53
Pusa Baisakt	37	34	36	39	34	37
No 414/1/1	124	65	95	163	51	107
Kopargaon	84	64	74	83	59	71
Madira moong	73	23	48	82	43	63
No 122	45	21	33	48	24	36
No 118/1/1	81	36	59	93	14	49
L 24 2	71	21	46	81	24	53
B 1	36	20	28	70	17	44
CO 2	58	28	43	41	46	44
PLS 307	58	14	36	57	11	34
H 70-16	43	7	25	26	13	20

The number of nodules formed in the blackgram and greengram genotypes varied considerably. The nodulation in the inoculated genotypes was superior over the uninoculated series. In general, high number of nodules were recorded at the vegetative phase of both the crop plants. In the uninoculated series of blackgram the mean number of nodules ranged from 20 to 120 per plant whereas in the inoculated series, it varied from 30 to 179. Maximum number of nodules was recorded in the genotype H-21-40/29 having 120 numbers of nodules in the

uninoculated series whereas in the inoculated series, the genotypes PLS-364-30/18 contained 179 nodules per plant. Minimum number of nodules were recorded in both the series in the genotype H-21-40/14. The mean number of nodules formed in the uninoculated series of greengram varied from 6 to 95 per plant whereas in the inoculated series it was from 6 to 107. The same genotypes (No 414/1/1) contained maximum number of nodules in both the series (being 95 and 107, respectively), similarly minimum number of nodules (6/plant) were also observed in the genotype No 293/1/1.

The present results indicated that the blackgram genotypes were comparatively more responsive to the *Rhizobium* treatment than the greengram genotypes which could be seen by the increased number of nodules in blackgram than in the greengram. This is in agreement with the earlier report by Sen and Bhaduri (1971). Similar results were reported by Kumar *et al* (1976) in case of soybean genotypes indicating marked variations in the nodule numbers between spring and winter season cultivars. Considering the genotypes lot of variations were observed in the nodulation pattern even though they were put into the same environmental conditions. Critical study is needed to establish the environmental factors and their role on the *Rhizobium*-legume symbiosis so as to enable us to derive the maximum benefit by selecting the high yielding varieties and highly responsive varieties to *Rhizobium*, as well as most efficient strain of the *Rhizobium* and such a situation might be an ideal one.

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Effect of Composite Cultures of *Rhizobium* on Important Legumes Grown in Marathwada Region

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ABSTRACT

A greenhouse experiment on performance of single strain and composite culture indicated that composite culture was as good as single strain culture and both had significantly increased the nodulation, dry matter and grain yield/plant over uninoculated plants in greengram and blackgram. In groundnut, the performance of both single and composite cultures was similar. Arhar did not show response with composite or single strain culture in respect of dry matter and grain yield. Soybean responded well to single strain or composite culture and produced two fold dry matter and grain yield.

INTRODUCTION

Use of *Rhizobium* inoculants to legume crops is now a well accepted agronomic practice in legume cultivation. Efficient strains of *Rhizobium* increased the yield of legumes (Rangaswami and Oblisami, 1962, Ramaswami and Nair, 1965). Inoculation of composite culture responded better with legume crops like soybean and French-bean over the single strain inoculation (Das and Bhaduri, 1975). At least one of the many strains used in the composite culture might establish well and cause effective nodulation in the given legumes (Rangaswami, 1975).

Rhizobia are specific to their hosts and constitute cross inoculation groups. The advantage in composite culture is that it would eliminate the supply of different cultures to different crops separately and also the farmers would be able to use one composite culture to inoculate a good number of leguminous crops. The performance of composite cultures of *Rhizobium* on five legumes *i.e.* greengram, blackgram, groundnut, arhar and soybean is reported here.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A greenhouse experiment was conducted in *khariif* season using earthen pots of 250 mm in diameter and with a capacity for 12 kg soil. The soil used was a calcareous medium black soil (pH 8.5, CaCO₃ 10.4 per cent, clay 69.14 per cent, CEC 54.33 me/100 g of soil). *Rhizobium* strains from greengram, blackgram, arhar, groundnut and soybean were employed for the preparation of

composite cultures Composite culture no 1 included rhizobia of greengram, blackgram, arhar and composite culture No 2 included rhizobia of greengram, blackgram, arhar, groundnut and soybean Seeds were inoculated with specified cultures Although five seeds of each crop were sown in pots, only three plants were maintained for studies The uninoculated plants served as control Nodules were counted at flowering and dry matter was determined 15 days before harvesting Final yields were recorded on harvest There were three replications Sterilized soil was used in all the experiments

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data on performance of single strain culture and composite culture of *Rhizobium* on greengram are presented in Table I Dry matter yield of greengram

TABLE I
Effect of pure and composite cultures of Rhizobium on growth parameters and grain yield

Treatments	Nodulation (nodule number/plant)	Dry matter (g/plant)	yield (g/plant)
<i>Greengram</i>			
Control	3	13.00	2.5
Pure culture (Single strain culture)	61	25.7	4.7
Composite culture* number one	58	20.4	3.8
Composite culture** number two	56	20.0	4.1
<i>Blackgram</i>			
Control	10	14.0	2.8
Pure culture (Single strain culture)	35	27.0	5.5
Composite culture* number one	36	22.5	4.5
Composite culture number two	42	22.5	5.3
<i>Groundnut</i>			
Control	8	12.0	4.0
Pure culture (single strain culture)	80	26.0	8.0
Composite culture number one	76	23.5	7.0
Composite culture number two	75	26.5	9.0
<i>Arhar</i>			
Control	5	44.0	8.0
Pure culture (single strain culture)	25	50.6	9.6
Composite culture number one	27	48.7	8.9
Composite culture number two	22	49.0	9.2
<i>Soybean</i>			
Control	30	5.8	2.1
Pure culture (Single strain culture)	367	13.5	4.3
Compositive culture number two	319	11.4	3.8

*Composite culture number one Contains specific rhizobium strains for greengram, blackgram, arhar crops

**Composite culture number two Contains specific rhizobium strains for greengram, blackgram, arhar, groundnut and soybean crops

was almost doubled when compared with uninoculated control by employing single strain culture, and inoculation with composite cultures increased dry matter yield by one and a half times over the uninoculated treatment. Similar pattern was also observed for grain yield/plant. The pattern of results obtained with blackgram in respect of nodule count, dry matter yield and grain yield/plant was also similar for single strain and composite culture inoculations.

Inoculation either with single strain of *Rhizobium* or with composite cultures produced two-fold dry matter yield. Bhargava *et al*, (1975) observed maximum dry matter accumulation and increase in yield with composite culture irrespective of soil conditions. Inoculation of arhar either with single strain or composite cultures resulted in significantly higher nodule count per plant when compared with uninoculated plants. But the dry matter yield and grain yield/plant in arhar did not show response to inoculation either with single strain or composite cultures, suggesting that rhizobium cultures did not develop effective nodules.

Nodule count in soybean was found greatly increased by inoculation with *Rhizobium japonicum* either as single strain or in composite culture. Dry matter yield and grain yield in inoculated soybean was about two-fold higher than in uninoculated treatment.

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Effect of Seed Inoculation with *Rhizobium japonicum* on Nodule Formation and Yield of Soybean (*Glycine max* L.)

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ABSTRACT

Response of soybean (*Glycine max* L.) variety Kalitur to *Rhizobium* inoculation in different row proportions proved superiority over control. Complete inoculation of seeds in all rows proved to be best in increasing nodulation and grain yield thus attaining full benefits in soybean production. Partial inoculation or some of uninoculated rows enhance yield but does not warrant full potential yield.

INTRODUCTION

APPLICATION of *Rhizobium* culture to seed is an important input in the package of practices for increased pulse production.

The air we breathe contains 79 per cent nitrogen gas, but it cannot be absorbed and made use of by plants directly except through the mediation of microorganisms. Certain microorganisms like *Rhizobium* living in root nodules of legume plants convert atmospheric nitrogen into ammonia at ordinary soil conditions. On a global scale industrial nitrogen fixation is of the order of 30 million tonnes per year while annual fixation of nitrogen by *Rhizobium* in root nodules is about 14 million tonnes per year (Subba Rao, 1973).

In India due to gradual decline in the acreage under legume crops "Nodule nitrogen fixation" has considerably decreased. Application of preparations containing specialized living bacteria to seed or soil can enhance soil fertility and yield of crops by rendering unavailable sources of elemental nitrogen, bound phosphate and cellulose containing plant residue into available form as to facilitate root system of plant to absorb the nutrients. *Rhizobium* can increase the number and performance of root nodules on a variety of edible pulses and oil yielding crops. In recent years much emphasis has been laid to popularise bacterial fertilization to soil.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field experiment in randomised block design with four replications was conducted at Agronomy Farm, Marathwada Agricultural University, Parbhani, during *kharif* season of 1976. Five treatments were sown in 3.6 × 2.7 m

plot size having spacing 45 x 15 cm. Soybean seeds were inoculated with *Rhizobium japonicum* culture. Five patterns in sowing followed were as follows: (i) one row of non-inoculated seeds and one row of inoculated seeds (1:1), (ii) Two rows of non-inoculated seeds and one row of inoculated seeds (2:1), (iii) All rows of inoculated seeds, (iv) Inoculated and non-inoculated seeds blended in equal proportions for sowing all rows and (v) All rows of non-inoculated seeds (control). Crop was not fertilized with any fertilizer or manure. The nodule count was taken at the time of initial stage of pod formation by selecting five random plants from each treatment, yields were recorded on plot basis.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Number of nodules on soybean roots were significantly increased by inoculation of seed. The average count of root nodules per plant was increased from 104 to 388.2 with *Rhizobium* inoculation. The maximum nodulation was recorded in the treatment (T₄) where all inoculated seeds were sown. This increase in nodulation was 19 per cent more over treatment, 1:1 row of non-inoculated and inoculated, 32 per cent over 2:1 two rows of non-inoculated and one inoculated, 21 per cent over 50 per cent non-inoculated seed blended and 274 per cent over control (Table I). As the rows of inoculated seed or

TABLE I
Nodule count and yield of soybean as affected by Rhizobium inoculation

T	Treatment	Mean No. of nodules/plant	Grain yield (g/plot)	Grain yield (kg/ha)
T ₁	Control	104.0	446.75	413.65
T ₂	1:1 row of noninoculated inoculated	325.0	575.25	532.63
T ₃	2:1 rows noninoculated inoculated	281.5	535.00	495.36
T ₄	All rows inoculated	388.2	725.75	671.99
T ₅	50% non-inoculated seed blended	219.7	523.25	484.49
	S.E.	47.7	51.43	47.62
	C.D. at 5%	146.91	158.46	146.72

proportion increased, the average nodule count also increased. This may be because of absence of effective strain of rhizobium needed for soybean nodulation in Marathwada soils where soybean crop is recently introduced. In this region with semiarid climate where temperatures are high in summer (up to 40°C) and dry conditions during this period perhaps have suppressive effect on *rhizobium* population in soils. Saxena and Tilak (1975) observed increased

nodulation in soybean using by *rhizobium* culture to seed. Sahu (1973) reported that increase in root nodules and proteins in seed of legumes by using rhizobium inoculation and phosphorus doses to legumes, while Longeri and Herrera (1972), reported absence of nodulations in non-inoculated seeds and proposed nodulation in inoculated seeds.

Grain yield of soybean was significantly increased by using *rhizobium* culture over control. The maximum yield of 671 kg/ha was recorded in treatment (T₄) where all inoculated seeds were sown in all rows. The yield seems to be relatively low but considering the fact that the crop did not receive any fertilization is above average (430 kg/ha). *Rhizobium* inoculated treatments. (1) complete inoculation has increased 28.8 per cent, (2) Two rows of non-inoculated and one row of inoculated has increased 19.8 per cent while 50 per cent non-inoculated seed blended treatment has increased 17.2 per cent grain yield of soybean over control indicating as the dilution of inoculation or proportion in rows decreased the yield of soybean also decreased. The trend of grain yield corresponded to nodulation patterns. Maximum nodulation could be ensured by using full stock of seeds inoculated with *rhizobium*. Partial inoculation or some of un-inoculated rows interspaced might help to a certain extent enhancing yield but did not warrant full potential yield. The yield responses are reported by different workers at various locations. Subba Rao (1972) in pot culture study got response up to 45 per cent by inoculating the seed with *rhizobium* culture. The yield trials with different soybean varieties in different agro-climatic zones of the country indicated positive response to rhizobium inoculation. Bhatnagar (1971); Sokorenki and Vyvalko (1972) reported a beneficial response to application of *rhizobium* inoculation while testing it for yield, nitrogen content in plant and soils.

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Nodulation of Pigeon Pea in Red and Black Soils at Patancheru

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THE aim is to study nodulation and N_2 fixation by pigeon pea in the two contrasting soil types at Patancheru—a deep black soil and a medium depth red soil, and to see if nitrogen supply was limiting growth and yield of pigeon pea. During the 1976 *khari*f season treatments included 0, 20, 200 kg N/ha as calcium ammonium nitrate and 20T FYM per ha.

Nodulation was rapid, with up to 26 nodules per plant (zero N) in red soil by 15 days after sowing, about half of these were on the primary root. 200 N inhibited nodulation only up to 30 days after planting (e.g. in black soil there were 15 nodules per plant for the 200 N treatment *cf* 29 per plant for the zero N and FYM treatments). Nodules continued to form up to 120 days in both soil types, but senescence of nodules was apparent even by 30 days. Most nodules formed on the secondary roots and were spread over the root system and up to 50 cm deep in the soil. Only 1–2 primary root nodules were present per plant at 60 days when there were 23 nodules on the secondary roots in black soil and 56 in red soil.

A greater number and mass of nodules formed in the red soil compared with the black soil, and these nodules had much more nitrogenase activity (acetylene reduction). Most nitrogenase activity per plant occurred at the 30 days harvest in black soil, and at 60 days in red soil. Nitrogenase activity was greatest for the FYM treatment, there was no inhibition of activity for the 200 N treatment in red soil at 60 days *cf* either zero N or FYM. Virtually no activity was detected at 120 days after sowing when the plants were in the early pod filling stage, and nodules virtually completely senesced in black soil and only 12 pink-red nodules per plant (11 per cent of the total number) present in red soil. At earlier harvests the numbers of apparently active (red) nodules per plant did not correlate well with nitrogenase activity.

Nodules were severely damaged by insect grubs in both red and black soils, and this eating of the nodules began by 30 days after planting. Proportionately more nodules were attacked in black than in the red soil and by 120 days 96 per cent of the nodules were damaged in black soil, with 74 per cent in red soil. Such attack seems a major factor limiting nitrogen fixation by

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pigeon pea at Patancheru. Similar observations were recorded from farmers fields in Mahabubnagar district in A.P. and Sholapur in Maharashtra.

Plant growth was stimulated by the 200 N treatment *cf* zero or 20 N treatments up to 120 days from sowing in red soil and up to 60 days in black soil. Plant growth was better in red soil than in black at 30 days, perhaps reflecting the better nodulation, but thereafter there was little overall difference between soil types until 120 days when plants in black soil were heaviest.

These results indicate that pigeon pea nodulates poorly in both soil types at Patancheru, in that nodule activity was very small during pod filling. N supply from nodules limited early plant growth which was stimulated by N fertiliser addition. Nitrogen fertilising had surprisingly little effect on nodule formation and activity from 30 days after planting.

Studies on Certain Factors Influencing Legume-Rhizobia Interrelationship VII Total Nitrogen, Organic Carbon and C/N Ratio of the Root Material

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ABSTRACT

The present study on the effect of nitrogen and carbon present in plant tissues on nodulation revealed the absence of any kind of correlation between total nitrogen of the root of three leguminous plant species and nodule number. Similarly the effect of organic carbon on nodulation did not support the theory that increase in available carbohydrate would enhance nodulation. A comparison of the results of carbon/nitrogen (C/N) ratio and nodulation also indicated no correlation between C/N ratio and nodule number in the three plant species studied.

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INTRODUCTION

THE profound influence of the environment on nodule formation and symbiotic nitrogen fixation has been known for a long time. A delicate balance prevails between the host plant and the micro-symbiont which can easily be disturbed by environmental stress conditions. The response of the symbiosis to the environment is mainly determined by the genetical and physiological condition of the host plant (Lie, 1974). Raggio *et al* (1957) suggested that the nutritional conditions required by the root of legume plants for normal growth and nitrogen fixation are not provided by the external medium while the internal C/N ratio of the plant system governs the nodule number (Wilson, 1935). The present study communicates the influence of carbon and nitrogen of the roots of three legume plant species on nodulation.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Greengram (*Phaseolus aureus* Roxb), Blackgram (*P. mungo* L) and sunnhemp (*Crotalaria juncea* L) plants grown in earthen pots were sprayed with gibberellic acid (GA 50 and 100 ppm), 2,4-Dichlorophenoxy acetic acid (2,4-D 5 and 10 ppm) and indole acetic acid (IAA 250 and 500 ppm) at periodical interval as per the procedure described by Kandasamy and Prasad (1975). Samples of root material were collected at vegetative, flowering and pod-bearing stages of the crop for the estimation of total nitrogen and organic carbon. Total nitrogen was estimated as per the procedure described by Bremner (1960) and organic carbon by Walkley and Black (Piper, 1950). The nodules from the plants sprayed with the growth regulators were counted at the three stages of crop growth. Assuming total nitrogen, organic carbon and C/N ratio as independent variable, and nodule number as dependant variable, the relationship was worked out by computing the correlation coefficients and dependability following the procedure given by Steel and Torrie (1960).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The changes in total nitrogen, organic carbon, C/N ratio of the root materials and nodulation in greengram, blackgram and sunnhemp following foliar spray of growth regulators are given in Tables I to V. That the amount of nitrogen present in plant tissues may exert an internal effect on nodulation has been reported by Chailakhyan and Megiabyan (1945) and MacConnell and Bond (1957). Cartwright and Snow (1962) observed that decrease in nodulation may be due to high level of nitrogen within the plant. However, in the present study the foliar spray of IAA-500 ppm at vegetative stage on blackgram, and GA-100 ppm at flowering and pod bearing stages and GA-50 ppm, 2,4-D (5 and 10 ppm) and IAA-250 ppm at pod-bearing stages on sunnhemp increased both the

nodulation and total nitrogen of the root material (Tables I and IV) The statistical analysis of the results also indicated the absence of any kind of correlation between these two factors in any of the three legume species studied

The effect of organic carbon on nodulation did not fit in with the theory that increase in available carbohydrate would enhance nodulation (Wilson, 1935, Kanata, 1957) Though foliar spray of GA-100 ppm, IAA (250 and

TABLE I
Influence of foliar treatment with growth regulators on the total nitrogen, organic carbon and C/N ratio of the roots of greengram*

Treatment	Vegetative stage			Flowering stage			Pod-bearing stage		
	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio
GA-50 ppm	1.47	24.0	16.32	1.28	27.0	21.09	1.21	37.5	30.99
GA-100 ppm	1.33	25.5	19.17	1.33	28.5	21.42	1.33	39.0	29.32
2,4-D-5 ppm	1.21	21.0	17.35	1.10	25.5	23.18	1.08	30.0	27.77
2,4-D-10 ppm	1.35	19.5	14.14	1.14	27.0	23.68	1.21	31.5	26.03
IAA-250 ppm	1.35	21.5	15.92	1.28	30.0	23.43	1.28	34.5	26.95
IAA-500 ppm	1.21	24.0	19.83	1.28	28.5	22.26	1.30	31.5	24.23
Control (Dist water spray)	1.21	19.5	16.11	1.35	33.0	24.44	1.21	37.0	30.57

*expressed as percentage

TABLE II
Influence of foliar treatment with growth regulators on the total nitrogen, organic carbon and C/N ratio of the roots of blackgram*

Treatment	Vegetative stage			Flowering stage			Pod-bearing stage		
	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio
GA-50 ppm	1.47	24.0	16.32	1.12	27.0	24.10	1.05	28.5	27.14
GA-100 ppm	1.33	25.5	19.17	1.47	30.0	20.40	1.33	30.0	22.55
2,4-D-5 ppm	1.19	19.5	16.38	1.54	28.5	18.50	1.40	33.0	23.57
2,4-D-10 ppm	1.47	22.5	15.30	1.54	24.0	15.58	1.33	28.5	21.42
IAA-250 ppm	1.19	16.5	13.86	1.26	25.5	20.23	0.98	27.0	27.55
IAA-500 ppm	1.47	22.5	15.30	1.54	27.0	17.53	1.26	27.0	21.42
Control (Dist water spray)	1.19	18.0	15.12	1.54	33.0	21.42	1.40	36.0	25.71

*expressed as percentages

TABLE III

Influence of foliar treatment, with growth regulators on the total nitrogen, organic carbon and C/N ratio of the roots of sunnhemp*

Treatment	Vegetative stage			Flowering stage			Pod-bearing stage		
	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio	Total Nitrogen	Organic Carbon	C/N ratio
GA—50 ppm	1.68	30.0	17.85	1.75	34.5	19.71	1.19	38.0	31.93
GA—100 ppm	1.54	30.0	19.48	1.68	36.0	21.42	1.47	37.5	25.51
2,4-D—5 ppm	1.82	24.0	13.18	1.68	30.5	18.15	1.34	35.5	26.49
2,4-D—10 ppm	1.54	28.5	18.50	1.40	33.0	23.57	1.15	36.0	31.30
IAA—250 ppm	1.54	30.0	19.48	1.61	35.0	21.73	1.26	37.5	29.76
IAA—500 ppm	1.40	28.5	20.35	1.33	35.0	26.31	0.98	38.0	38.77
Control (Dist. water spray)	1.40	27.0	19.28	1.33	36.5	27.44	1.12	39.5	35.26

*expressed as percentages

TABLE IV

Changes in the nodule number in greengram, blackgram and sunnhemp as influenced by foliar spray of growth regulators

Treatment	Greengram			Blackgram			Sunn hemp		
	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Pod-bearing stage	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Pod-bearing stage	Vegetative stage	Flowering stage	Pod-bearing stage
GA—50 ppm	23.6	13.6	14.6	23.0	32.6	35.6	50.0	52.0	62.6
GA—100 ppm	15.0	17.3	22.3	11.3	40.6	29.3	57.1	83.6	58.3
2,4-D—5 ppm	42.3	62.0	27.3	20.6	32.0	38.6	32.3	39.3	55.6
2,4-D—10 ppm	14.3	21.3	33.6	43.0	79.0	57.6	51.3	39.0	60.3
IAA—250 ppm	11.0	46.0	31.3	25.6	32.6	40.3	29.3	44.0	52.0
IAA—500 ppm	10.3	51.6	37.6	65.0	38.3	44.6	25.3	30.0	33.6
Control (Dist. water spray)	29.9	32.0	17.6	40.0	54.0	46.0	48.3	68.3	35.6

C D (P=0.05) Stage—2.93, Crop=2.93, Treatments=4.48, Control vs growth regulators=3.88, Between growth regulators=3.16, Between concentration within growth regulators=4.48

500 ppm) on greengram at vegetative stage, 2,4-D—5 ppm on blackgram at vegetative stage, and IAA (250 and 500 ppm) on sunnhemp at vegetative stage increased the organic carbon content of the root material and the treatments did not increase the nodule number correspondingly (Tables II and IV)

TABLE V

Correlation between total nitrogen, organic carbon and C/N ratio of the root and nodule number

Independent Variable	Dependant variable	Coefficient of correlation 'r'	Coefficient of regression 'b'	Prediction equation	Level of significance
<i>Greengram</i>					
Total Nitrogen	Nodule Number	-0.2884	—	—	Not Significant
Organic Carbon	„	-0.0198	—	—	„
C/N Ratio	„	0.0944	—	—	„
<i>Blackgram</i>					
Total Nitrogen	„	0.3477	—	—	„
Organic Carbon	„	0.1598	—	—	„
C/N Ratio	„	-0.1105	—	—	„
<i>Sunnhemp</i>					
Total Nitrogen	„	0.0653	—	—	„
Organic Carbon	„	0.3596	—	—	„
C/N Ratio	„	0.0863	—	—	„

A comparison of the results of Carbon/Nitrogen (C/N) ratio and nodulation also indicated no correlation between C/N ratio and nodule number in the plant species studied. For instance, the spray of GA-100 ppm and 2,4-D-10 ppm at pod-bearing stages of greengram, 2, 4-D-10 ppm at flowering and pod-bearing stages of blackgram and IAA-250 ppm spray at pod-bearing stage of sunnhemp though reduced the C/N ratio of the root, there was no corresponding decrease in nodulation (Tables III and IV). These results, besides confirming the view of Raggio *et al* (1957) that C/N ratio hypothesis may be an inadequate explanation for inhibition of nodulation, tends to uphold the observations of Van Schreven (1959) and Tanner and Anderson (1963) that nodulation was not influenced by the C/N ratio within the plant.

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Effect of Crop Variety on the Multiplication of *Rhizobium* in the Seed Exudates

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ABSTRACT

The multiplication of rhizobia in the seed exudates of different varieties of groundnut, blackgram and greengram was studied. The seed exudates of TMV 4, among the different groundnut varieties, that of Co 2 among the different blackgram varieties, and that of Anjugam among the different greengram varieties have been found to support relatively high rate of multiplication of the respective strains of rhizobia.

The chemotaxis of *Rhizobium* sp towards the seed exudates of different varieties of groundnut, blackgram and greengram indicated lot of variations when assayed by measuring the number of bacteria attracted into a capillary tube containing the respective seed exudate. The seed exudates of TMV 4 groundnut, Co 2 blackgram and Anjugam variety of greengram exerted relatively marked chemotaxis. The exudates of these three varieties also contained relatively higher amounts of amino-nitrogen and sugars and also amylase and invertase activity.

INTRODUCTION

VERONA *et al* (1959) reported that due to elaboration of nutrient substances by the germinating seed, the microflora on its surface greatly differs from its surrounding. Exudation of sugars (Balaraman and Prasad, 1974) and amino acids (Balaraman and Prasad, 1974, Jhooty and Bains, 1976) by the germinating seeds has been reported earlier. The exudation of these nutrient substances may well form the energy source for the establishment of seed inoculated rhizobia (Balaraman and Prasad 1974). That the efficiency of the symbiosis is influenced by the crop variety \times *Rhizobium* strain interaction has been stressed by several workers (Gesser *et al*, 1972, Russell and Garethjones, 1975). The effect of seed exudates on the multiplication of *Rhizobium* sp as influenced by crop variety are reported in the present paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.) varieties viz, TMV 2, TMV 4, TMV 7, TMV 8, TMV 9, TMV 10 and Gungapuri, blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L.) varieties ADT 1, CO 2, CO 3, T 9 and No 55 and greengram (*P. aureus* Roxb.) varieties ADT 1, CO 2, Anjugam, S-8 and H-70-16 were used in this study. Efficient strains of *Rhizobium* sp for groundnut, blackgram and greengram, viz, Rh VI, AUB 2 and AUG 5, were obtained from the culture collections of the Microbiology Division, Faculty of Agriculture, Annamalai University.

Collection of seed exudates The seeds were surface sterilized with 0.1 per cent mercuric chloride solution and washed in several changes of sterile distilled water. Fifteen seeds of groundnut and thirty seeds each of the blackgram and greengram were aseptically transferred to each sterile petri dish containing sterile Whatman No. 1 filter paper and moistened with 5 ml of sterile distilled water. The exudates were collected from five petri dishes at a time for 5 days at 24 hr intervals. 5 ml of sterile distilled water was added to each petri dish after each collection of the seed exudate. The filter papers, with small quantity of water with which the petri dishes were rinsed, were finely crushed in a mortar with a pestle, extract centrifuged and the volume was made up to 50 ml. The seeds have produced radicles by third day. So the exudates from third day onwards also included the exudates from the radicle.

Effect of crop variety on the multiplication of rhizobia in the seed exudates Seed exudates of different varieties of groundnut, blackgram and greengram were collected, as described earlier. Twenty four hour cold cultures of *Rhizobium* sp isolated from respective crop species were suspended in sterile distilled water, shaken well and placed on the laboratory bench for 30 min for the bacterial clumps to settle down. The suspension was aseptically

transferred into another sterile test tube, one ml of the suspension was inoculated into 50 ml of seed exudates collected from different crop varieties. At 1 hr interval, multiplication of the organisms was estimated by plate count method using congo-red agar medium (Allen, 1953). Inoculation of suspension in sterile distilled water served as control.

Assay of chemotaxis of rhizobia towards seed exudates A capillary root model based on the technique described by Royle and Hickman (1964) was used for chemotaxis assay. The assay chamber was formed as detailed below. A 5 cm length capillary tube was bent into a uniform angular U shape and both ends sealed. This tube was placed on a microscope slide and covered with a cover slip. This chamber was then filled with about 0.2 ml of the above bacterial suspension.

Three cm long capillary tubes were taken and their one end was sealed in a flame, the capillary tube was then quickly passed several times through the flame and immediately plunged open end down into a 10 ml of seed exudate. As the capillary cooled, liquid was drawn in. After about 5 min, the capillary was then inserted (without rinsing) open end first into the chamber containing the bacterial suspension. The capillaries were handled with forceps. After incubation for 1 hr, the capillary was removed, its exterior was rinsed with a thin stream of water from a wash bottle and then with ethyl alcohol and the sealed end was broken off over (to catch any droplets) a flask containing distilled water. The capillary tube was broken into very small pieces and mixed with distilled water, suitable dilutions were made and plated in petri dishes using congo-red agar medium (Allen, 1953). After incubation period at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$ the colonies were counted. Assay points were replicated for all experiments and average reported.

Estimation of amino nitrogen and sugars For the estimation of sugars and amino nitrogen the seed exudate was concentrated in a water bath at 60°C . The method of Moore and Stein (1958) was employed to estimate amino nitrogen. Reducing and non-reducing sugars present in the exudate were estimated by Nelson's (1944) method.

Estimation of amylase, invertase and protease The seed exudates were passed through bacterial filters and subsequently used to estimate the activities of amylase, invertase and protease. Amylase and invertase were assayed at pH 5.2 employing Sodium-acetate acetic buffer with 1 per cent soluble starch and sucrose, respectively as substrates (Dawson *et al*, 1959). The release of reducing sugars at the end of 24 hr was determined by employing Nelson's (1944) method.

The invertase activity was assayed at pH 5.2 using acetate buffer. The method followed by Davis and Smith (1955) was used for the estimation of protease.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the multiplication of rhizobia in the seed exudates of different varieties of groundnut, blackgram and greengram are presented in Tables I to III.

TABLE I
Multiplication of Rhizobium sp (Groundnut isolate RH VI) in the seed exudates of different groundnut varieties
Population in X 10⁶/ml

Groundnut Variety	Sampling Time (hr)											Total
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
TMV 2	1.40	4.88	5.78	6.08	6.14	6.24	7.04	7.37	7.93	8.66	9.24	70.76
TMV 4	1.40	4.94	5.94	6.30	6.50	6.74	7.09	7.54	7.77	8.84	8.97	72.03
TMV 7	1.40	4.10	5.58	6.17	6.56	7.02	7.12	7.36	7.65	7.96	8.65	69.57
TMV 8	1.40	4.70	4.84	4.92	5.16	5.52	6.10	6.70	7.03	7.38	7.68	61.43
TMV 9	1.40	3.92	4.97	5.17	5.40	5.64	5.86	5.94	6.44	7.03	7.24	59.01
TMV 10	1.40	4.12	4.42	4.90	4.99	5.65	5.85	6.50	6.78	7.04	7.43	59.08
Gangapuri	1.40	4.66	4.96	5.10	5.54	5.85	6.10	6.81	7.14	7.38	7.60	62.54
Distilled water Control	1.40	2.78	2.93	3.46	3.58	3.93	4.03	4.19	4.36	4.49	4.90	40.17
Total	11.20	34.10	39.42	42.10	43.84	46.59	49.21	52.41	55.10	58.88	61.71	494.59

CD (P=0.05)=1.08

TABLE II
Multiplication of Rhizobium sp (Blackgram isolate AUB 2) in the seed exudates of different blackgram varieties
Population in X 10⁶/ml

Blackgram variety	Sampling Time (hr)											Total
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
ADT 1	0.86	3.28	3.76	4.36	4.68	5.20	5.60	6.00	6.40	6.88	7.36	54.38
CO 2	0.86	3.52	4.08	4.64	5.12	5.56	6.28	6.72	7.12	7.56	8.12	59.58
CO 3	0.86	2.92	3.28	3.72	4.20	4.64	4.92	5.40	5.92	6.32	6.88	48.86
T 9	0.86	2.48	2.88	3.12	3.32	3.68	4.52	4.84	5.04	5.56	5.88	42.18
No 55	0.86	2.76	3.12	3.44	3.92	4.16	4.68	5.32	5.76	6.00	6.28	46.30
Distilled water Control	0.86	1.76	1.98	2.09	2.23	2.45	2.62	2.87	2.96	3.05	3.52	26.29
Total	5.16	16.72	19.20	21.37	23.47	25.69	28.62	31.05	33.20	35.37	37.74	277.59

CD (P=0.05)=1.32

TABLE III
Multiplication of Rhizobium sp (Greengram isolate AUG 5) in the seed exudates of different greengram varieties
 Population X 10⁶/ml

Greengram variety	Sampling time											Total
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	
Control	0.95	1.58	1.69	1.73	1.78	1.85	1.94	2.07	2.18	2.26	2.35	20.38
ADT 1	0.95	3.08	3.36	3.64	3.90	4.52	4.96	5.18	5.46	5.78	6.06	46.89
CO 2	0.95	2.84	3.04	3.30	3.56	3.86	4.20	4.56	4.80	5.06	5.30	41.47
Anjugam	0.95	2.76	3.30	3.86	4.52	5.08	5.44	5.82	6.04	6.50	6.88	51.15
S 8	0.95	2.50	2.80	3.00	3.16	3.28	3.46	3.80	4.08	4.28	4.66	35.97
H 70-16	0.95	2.46	2.64	2.82	3.02	3.22	3.54	3.64	3.78	3.92	4.06	34.05
Total	5.70	15.22	16.83	18.35	19.94	21.81	23.54	25.07	26.34	27.80	29.31	229.91

CD(P=0.05)=0.91

Rhizobium sp multiplied rapidly in exudates of all the varieties and the population increased with increase in the time of incubation. The seed exudates of different groundnut varieties showed variation in supporting the multiplication of *Rhizobium* sp. Among the different varieties, exudate of the variety TMV 4 was found to support significantly higher rate of multiplication (Table I).

The multiplication rate varied with different varieties. Among the different blackgram varieties, Co 2 was found to support relatively high rate of multiplication of *Rhizobium*. The rate of multiplication was in order of Co 2 > ADT 1 > Co 3 > No 55 > T 9 (Table II).

The variety Anjugam was found to support relatively high rate of multiplication. However, it did not significantly vary with ADT 1. The varieties CO 2, S-8 and H-70-16 did not significantly vary with each other (Table III).

In the seed exudates of all the three crop species the multiplication of *Rhizobium* sp was very rapid during the first hour and later increased steadily with increase in the incubation period. That the legume seed exudates form good energy source for the multiplication of rhizobia has been reported earlier by Balaraman and Prasad (1974) and Raman (1974).

Interestingly, when the chemotactic effect of the seed exudates of different varieties of the three crop species was studied on the respective strain of *Rhizobium* sp (Table IV to VI) these three varieties showed maximum chemotactic effect. The chemotactic effect of seed exudates was in the order TMV 4 > TMV 7 > TMV 2 > Gungapuri > TMV 8 > TMV 9 for groundnut varieties,

TABLE IV
*Chemotactic effect of seed exudates of different varieties of
groundnut on Rhizobium sp (Isolate-RH VI)*

Variety	Population* (X 10 ⁴)
Control	0.68
TMV 9	2.20
TMV 4	2.68
TMV 7	2.32
TMV 8	2.04
TMV 9	1.52
TMV 10	1.68
Gungapuri	2.08

TABLE V
*Chemotactic effect of seed exudates of different varieties of
blackgram on Rhizobium sp (isolate-AUB 2)*

Variety	Population* (X 10 ⁴)
Control	2.02
ADT 1	7.68
CO 2	8.98
CO 3	6.66
T 9	6.28
No 55	6.40

TABLE VI
*Chemotactic effect of seed exudates of different varieties of
greengram on Rhizobium sp (Isolate-AUG 5)*

Variety	Population (X 10 ⁴)
Control	0.70
ADT 1	7.15
CO 2	5.30
Anjugum	8.64
S 8	1.78
H-70 16	2.74

CO 2 > ADT 1 > CO 3 > No 55 > T 9 for blackgram varieties and Anjugam > ADT 1 > CO 2 > H-70-16 > S-8 for greengram varieties. Adler (1973) reported the chemotaxis of *Escherichia coli* to L-aspartate. Balaraman and Prasad (1974) reported the occurrence of fourteen amino acids in the seed exudates of groundnut variety TMV 2. Jhooty and Bains (1976) reported the occurrence of fifteen amino acids and three sugars in the seed exudates of

greengram Further studies on the qualitative nature of the seed exudates of different varieties will reveal the substance(s) that are eliciting the chemotactic response

The exudates of the varieties that supported maximum growth rate viz , TMV 4 (groundnut), CO 2 (blackgram) and Anjugam (greengram) also contained relatively high amounts of amino nitrogen and sugars, and the exudates of varieties with low levels of nutrients supported less growth (Tables VII to IX) The exudates of these three varieties also revealed a relatively pronounced activity of protease, amylase and invertase among the varieties of the respective crop species (Tables VII-IX) The high activity of these enzymes might influence the cleavage of macromolecules in the vicinity of germinating seed which, in turn, influences the rhizobial nutrition therein

TABLE VII

Sugars, amino nitrogen and certain enzymes in the seed exudation of different groundnut varieties

Variety	Amino* nitrogen	Reducing* sugar	Non-reducing** sugar	Invertase**	Amylase**	Protease***
TMV 2	4 459	6 471	1 522	6 798	7 137	0 056
TMV 4	4 642	6 851	1 646	7 763	8 235	0 058
TMV 7	2 504	6 379	1 641	6 610	4 187	0 044
TMV 8	3 054	5 708	1 418	6 031	3 284	0 047
TMV 9	1 282	3 140	1 414	4 765	3 140	0 037
TMV 10	2 932	4 320	1 237	5 023	3 521	0 042
Gangapuri	2 137	5 864	1 566	6 094	3 387	0 052

* Glutamic acid equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

** Glucose equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

*** Tryptophan equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudates

TABLE VIII

Sugars, amino nitrogen and certain enzymes in the seed exudation of different blackgram varieties

Variety	Amino* nitrogen	Reducing** sugar	Non reducing** sugar	Invertase**	Amylase**	Protease***
ADT 1	3 420	6 187	1 237	2 36	4 874	0 023
CO 2	4 347	6 471	1 951	2 760	5 233	0 028
CO 3	2 748	6 043	0 856	1 903	4 58	0 021
T 9	3 176	5 088	0 946	1 954	4 061	0 013
No 55	2 565	5 076	0 570	1 856	4 044	0 019

* Glutamic acid equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

** Glucose equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

*** Tryptophan equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudates

TABLE IX
*Sugars, amino nitrogen and certain enzymes in the seed exudation of
different greengram variety*

Variety	Amino* nitrogen	Reducing** sugar	Non-reducing** sugar	Invertase**	Amylase**	Protease***
ADT 1	3 290	5 090	0 570	1 637	1 427	0 013
CO 2	2 443	4 377	0 666	1 532	1 521	0 022
Anjugam	6 720	4 948	0 761	1 998	2 372	0 024
S 8	1 710	4 162	0 390	1 523	1 712	0 011
H 70-16	2 443	1 237	0 380	1 427	1 423	0 013

* Glutamic acid equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

** Glucose equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

*** Tryptophan equivalents in mg/50 ml of seed exudate

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Effect of Crop Variety on the Multiplication of Inoculated Rhizobia in the Spermosphere Region and their Entry into Rhizosphere

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ABSTRACT

The *Rhizobium* sp inoculated on the seeds colonized rapidly in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut, blackgram and greengram. However, the extent of such proliferation varied with crop variety.

INTRODUCTION

The success of seed inoculated rhizobia depends on the rate with which they multiply in the spermosphere region and their subsequent entry into the rhizosphere. One of the important factors which influences the multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere is elaboration of nutrients (Balaraman and Prasad, 1974) as well as inhibitory substances (Kandasamy *et al*, 1974) by the germinating seeds. The crop variety is likely to influence the nature of the substances elaborated by the germinating seed. The effect of variety of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L.) and greengram (*Phaseolus aureus* Roxb.) on the multiplication of inoculated rhizobia in the spermosphere and their subsequent entry into the rhizosphere is presented in this paper.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Different varieties of groundnut *viz*, TMV 2, TMV 4, TMV 7, TMV 8, TMV 9, TMV 10 and Gangapuri, blackgram varieties *viz*, ADT 1, CO2, CO3, T9 and No 55 and greengram *viz*, ADT 1, CO2, Anjugam, S-8 and H 70-16 were surface sterilized with 0.1 per cent mercuric chloride and washed in several changes of sterile distilled water. They were then treated separately for 12 hr with the respective rhizobial strain. Efficient rhizobial strains for groundnut, blackgram and greengram *viz*, Rh VI, AUB 2 and AUG 5, respectively, were obtained from the culture collection of the Microbiology Division of the Faculty of Agriculture, Annamalai University and used in this study. The treated seeds were dried in shade on filter paper.

Circular mud pots of the size 15 cm diameter were filled with soil and sterilized. The seeds treated with *Rhizobium* sp. were sown in these sterilized soil as well as in unsterilized soil. The soil moisture was maintained at 60 per cent level in the pots.

Enumeration of Rhizobium sp. in the spermosphere and rhizosphere soils

1 *Collection of spermosphere soil sample* Germinating seeds along with the adhering spermosphere soil were collected and 1 g of the sample was transferred to 100 ml sterile water blank in a 250 ml Erlenmeyer flask.

2 *Collection of rhizosphere soil sample* The rhizosphere soil samples were collected by pulling out the young seedlings carefully with the root system. The roots after gentle tapping to remove as much of adhering soil as possible, were cut with sterilized scissors and transferred to a 100 ml sterile water blank in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flask (Timonin, 1940).

The dry weight of the samples from each of the flasks were determined by transferring the contents to petridishes of known weight, evaporating over a water bath and drying to a constant weight in a hot air oven at 150°C. The total dry weight of the sample was calculated, taking into consideration the quantity utilized for microbial estimation.

3 *Estimation of Rhizobial numbers* For estimating the rhizobial numbers in the spermosphere and rhizosphere soil, samples collected in the sterile water blanks in Erlenmeyer flasks were shaken thoroughly on a rotary shaker for 5 min, and serial dilutions of the suspensions made using sterile water blanks. One ml of the diluted suspension were transferred aseptically to petridishes and melted congo-red agar medium (Allen, 1953) added. The petridishes were incubated at room temperature ($28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 5 days and the colonies conducted.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The seed inoculated *Rhizobium* sp. has established and multiplied in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of different groundnut varieties. However, the extent of such proliferation varied with different varieties. In both sterile and nonsterile soils rhizobial multiplication and establishment in the spermosphere region was relatively higher in the variety TMV 4. Variety TMV 9 was found to support relatively less number of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere compared to other varieties. The rhizobial numbers in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of these varieties were statistically on par excepting for TMV 9 (Table I).

Among blackgram varieties Co 2 and ADT 1 were found to support relatively higher multiplication of rhizobia. However, these varieties were on par with CO3 and No. 55 varieties (Table II).

TABLE I

Effect of crop variety on the multiplication of Rhizobia in the Spermosphere and Rhizosphere regions of groundnut (Population in 10⁶/g of moisture free soil)

Treatment sampling time (in days)	Variety						
	TMV 2	TMV 4	TMV 7	TMV 8	TMV 9	TMV 10	Gangapuri
<i>Sterile soil</i>							
Spermosphere							
1	7.86	9.54	5.10	3.90	1.10	4.30	5.04
3	8.40	10.30	7.40	6.66	2.54	5.90	7.22
Rhizosphere							
7	8.72	7.74	6.54	6.76	4.54	6.43	6.34
9	4.56	5.44	6.33	4.64	4.88	4.56	62.3
<i>Non-sterile soil</i>							
Spermosphere							
1	4.56	3.70	21.6	2.50	1.14	1.91	3.06
2	4.84	7.20	6.24	4.70	3.80	4.92	5.04
Rhizosphere							
3	7.40	6.90	5.78	5.60	4.20	4.64	5.32
7	2.58	2.66	3.72	3.10	2.84	2.78	3.54

Sterile Soil C D (P=0.05)=2.46

Unsterile soil C D (P=0.05)=1.17

TABLE II

Effect of crop varieties on the multiplication of Rhizobium in the Spermosphere and Rhizosphere regions of blackgram (Population in 10⁶/g moisture free soil)

Treatment sampling time (in days)	Variety				
	ADT1	CO 2	CO 3	T 9	No 55
<i>Sterile soil</i>					
Spermosphere					
1	4.28	4.80	2.60	1.80	2.48
3	4.60	5.40	5.20	2.72	3.68
Rhizosphere					
7	6.60	6.80	5.52	3.68	4.33
9	7.04	7.24	5.68	3.32	5.12
<i>Non-sterile soil</i>					
Spermosphere					
1	2.75	3.40	2.68	1.48	2.20
3	3.28	3.80	2.80	3.20	2.80
Rhizosphere					
7	5.12	5.56	3.88	3.28	3.60
9	5.68	5.92	4.48	3.70	4.02

Sterile C D (P=0.05) = 1.03

Unsterile C D (P=0.05)=1.93

Among the greengram varieties, Anjugam was found to support a relatively higher rate of multiplication of *Rhizobia* compared to other varieties used in both sterile and nonsterile soils. However, it was on par with ADT 1 and CO 2 varieties in sterile soil and ADT 1, CO 2 and S-8 in nonsterile soil (Table III)

TABLE III
Effect of crop varieties on the multiplication of *Rhizobium* in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of greengram
(Population in $10^6/g$ of moisture free soil)

Treatment Sampling time (in days)	Variety				
	ADT 1	CO 2	Anjugam	S 8	H 70-16
<i>Sterile soil</i>					
Spermosphere					
1	3.85	2.70	4.21	1.96	1.62
3	4.13	2.92	4.44	2.92	1.71
Rhizosphere					
7	5.00	3.26	5.50	3.66	3.52
9	5.35	4.80	6.48	2.80	3.35
<i>Non-sterile soil</i>					
Spermosphere					
1	3.68	2.60	3.76	1.92	1.22
3	3.88	3.17	4.67	2.88	1.48
Rhizosphere					
7	5.60	4.36	5.34	3.06	3.66
9	5.88	6.80	6.62	5.22	4.12

Sterile soil C D ($P=0.05$) = 2.26

Unsterile soil C D ($P=0.05$) = 2.39

Thus, the different varieties of the three crop species varied in supporting the multiplication of respective strains of inoculated *rhizobia* in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions. Gasser *et al.* (1972) reported a significant variety \times *R. meliloti* strain interaction among alfalfa cultivars. Russell and Garethjones (1975) reported a considerable variation among the cultivars of red and white clover in their selection of rhizobial strain. The results of the present investigation clearly point to the need for an intensive work on the legume variety \times *Rhizobium* strain interaction in the cowpea cross inoculation group.

The multiplication of *Rhizobium* was higher in the rhizosphere region than in the spermosphere region both in sterile and unsterile soils with respect to the three crop species. Similar result was reported by Balaraman (1970) and Kandasamy (1974). This might be due to the differences in the chemical nature of the seed and root exudates. Balaraman (1970) and Raman (1974) reported that the reducing sugars, non-reducing sugars and amino nitrogen

level in the seed exudates increased with increase in time during germination and Kandasamy (1974) reported that the total phenolics in the root exudates of blackgram, greengram and sunnhemp decreased with increase in the seedling age

The multiplication of rhizobia was in general higher in sterile soil than in unsterile soil Van Schreven (1970) and Danso and Alexander (1974) reported that microorganisms are responsible for the changes in rhizobial numbers in the non-sterile habitat Danso *et al* (1975) reported the appearance of many protozoa in normal soil to which the rhizobia are added which feed on these bacteria and cause decline in multiplication

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Effect of Soil Moisture on the Establishment of *Rhizobium* in the Spermosphere and Rhizosphere Regions of Leguminous Crops

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ABSTRACT

The rhizobial colonization in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions was high at 70 per cent moisture level, in three legumes viz , groundnut, blackgram and greengram

INTRODUCTION

SURVIVAL and multiplication of inoculant rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions is a deciding phase for the success of nodule formation. Many workers (Vincent and Waters, 1954, Rovira, 1961, Marshal 1964, Chowdhury *et al*, 1968, Kandasamy, 1971, Balaraman and Prasad, 1972, Raman, 1974) studied the factors influencing the survival and multiplication of rhizobia on the seed surface. The effect of different soil moisture levels on the establishment and multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L), blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L) and greengram (*P. aureus* Roxb) are presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The seeds of groundnut (TMV 4), blackgram (Co 2) and greengram (Anjugam) were surface sterilized with 0.1 per cent mercuric chloride solution and washed with several changes of sterile water. They were then treated with respective rhizobial suspensions for 12 hr. The treated seeds were dried in shade on filter paper.

Circular mud pots with 15 cm diameter were filled with soil and sterilized. The *Rhizobium* treated seeds were sown in the sterilized pots at different moisture levels viz , 30, 50, 70 and 90 per cent and submerged condition.

The *Rhizobium* population in the spermosphere soils was estimated at the end of 24 hr and 72 hr and that of rhizosphere soil on 7th day and 9th day, following the dilution plate technique using congo-red agar medium (Allen, 1953). The populations were counted after 5 days of incubation using Arnold colony counter.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The *Rhizobium* colonization in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut was high at 70 per cent moisture level. There was no marked variation in the colonization of *Rhizobium* between 50 and 90 per cent moisture levels. The colonization was in order of 70 > 50 > 90 > submerged > 30 per cent moisture levels. The rhizobial numbers declined rapidly after 7th day in the rhizosphere (Table I).

TABLE I

Effect of soil moisture on the establishment and multiplication of Rhizobium in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut

(Population in $\times 10^6$ /g of moisture free soil)

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
30 per cent	2.92	3.92	2.40	2.14
50 per cent	4.40	8.12	7.80	4.60
70 per cent	6.60	10.20	11.20	5.80
90 per cent	3.20	5.23	9.23	5.68
Submerged	1.80	4.40	4.60	3.09

C D (P=0.05)=2.03

TABLE II

Effect of soil moisture on the establishment and multiplication of Rhizobium in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of blackgram

(Population in $\times 10^6$ /g of moisture free soil)

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
30 per cent	1.52	2.28	2.80	2.08
50 per cent	2.53	8.59	9.20	5.00
70 per cent	4.21	8.92	9.03	6.68
90 per cent	2.18	2.48	3.40	2.64
Submerged	1.60	3.20	2.60	2.00

C D (P=0.05)=0.23

The colonization of *Rhizobium* both in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of blackgram was high at 70 per cent moisture levels. The results revealed that the submerged condition does not favour the rhizobia in the rhizosphere.

TABLE III

Effect of soil moisture on the establishment and multiplication of Rhizobium in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of greengram
(Population in $\times 10^6/g$ of moisture free soil)

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
30 per cent	6 05	8 54	7 51	6 08
50 per cent	7 52	8 65	10 80	9 25
70 per cent	8 20	12 81	15 50	10 97
90 per cent	7 21	8 03	9 03	8 56
Submerged	6 22	6 52	8 05	7 02

C D (P=0.05) = 1.81

The colonization of *Rhizobium* in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of greengram was high at 70 per cent moisture level. At different moisture levels the colonization was in order of 70 > 50 > 90 > 30 per cent > submerged moisture levels. The rhizobial numbers were higher in 7th day sampling than on 9th day. At 30 per cent level the spermosphere soil recorded more numbers compared to rhizosphere soil. De-polli *et al.* (1974) reported that survival of native and inoculated rhizobia decreased with increasing moisture levels.

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Effect of Soil Compaction and Moisture on Nodulation and Yield Components in Groundnut

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ABSTRACT

Soil compaction in a range from 0.9 to 1.2 B D tended to increase flower and gynophore production in groundnut grown when with restricted moisture supply at 20 and 60 per cent available moisture in soil. Pod bearing pegs per stand decreased with increasing bulk density at 40 and 60 per cent available moisture levels. Soil compaction delayed total flower production. Increasing soil compaction reduced the development of nodules per stand. Soil bulk density of 1.0 at 20 per cent available moisture produced 120 nodules per stand as against 31.33 nodules per stand for bulk density of 1.2 at 60 per cent available moisture. Pod and dry matter production was affected correspondingly with increasing soil compaction and soil moisture stress.

INTRODUCTION

SOIL compaction is an important problem in areas where soils contain large proportion of clay fraction and poor drainage conditions. Soil compaction developed by way of repeated operations of equipments over a soil greatly affect the germination of seeds and emergence of seedlings. Crop responses to soil compaction have received attention in recent years in an endeavour to identify the factors affecting the plant responses. Bertrand and Kohnke (1957) found that sub soil compaction slowed diffusion of soil atmosphere which in turn reduced the growth of corn. Veihmeyer and Hendrickson (1948) indicated that restricted root growth is a function of bulk density. Adams *et al* (1960) reported that increasing surface soil bulk density lowered the yields of potato, sugar beet, wheat and corn. Flocker *et al* (1958) observed that compaction of fine sandy loam soil to a bulk density of 1.58 g/cm³ reduced the yield of number of winter cover crops and legumes.

Compaction and hardness at the soil surface likewise affect greatly gynophore penetration and pod development in groundnut. Moisture stress in soil further hardens the soil surface. The present study is aimed to investigate the effect of compactness and soil moisture levels on nodulation and yield components in groundnut.

TABLE I

Effect of soil compactness and moisture on nodulation and yield components in groundnut

Moisture levels Soil bulk densities	M 1 (20 % available moisture)			M 2 (40 % available moisture)			M 3 (60 % available moisture)			
	D0	D1	D3	D0	D1	D3	D0	D1	D3	
	(0.9)	(1.0)	(1.1)	(0.9)	(1.0)	(1.1)	(0.9)	(1.0)	(1.1)	
Per cent germination	60.00	80.00	80.00	60.00	80.00	80.00	60.00	66.66	46.66	60.00
Days to first flower	48.00	50.00	39.33	39.66	48.00	39.00	46.00	38.33	39.66	39.66
Total flowers produced/plant	15	21	32	36	23	56	18	63	48	48
Pegs (Cynophores)/plant	10	17	25	26	16	43	15	53	35	35
Pegs as per cent of total flowers	66.66	80.91	77.99	72.11	69.64	77.26	83.59	84.74	72.13	72.75
Pod bearing pegs/plant	4	4	6	5	7	6	4	3	5	2
Pod bearing pegs as per cent of total flowers	26.66	19.07	18.66	14.07	30.40	10.65	21.97	4.81	8.76	4.26
Pegs without pods	2	4	10	15	5	21	7	35	17	19
Pegs without pods as per cent of total flowers	39.99	61.83	59.32	58.03	39.23	66.60	61.62	79.42	63.48	68.48
Per cent flowers not producing pegs	33.33	19.08	22.00	27.88	30.34	22.73	16.39	15.74	27.85	27.24
Days after sowing to produce 50 per cent of total flowers	49.00	54.33	48.00	52.33	47.33	49.00	45.00	54.00	49.66	52.00
Days after start of flowering to produce 50 per cent of total flowers	14.00	19.33	13.00	17.33	12.66	14.00	10.00	19.00	14.66	17.00
Total pods/plant	3	4	6	5	5	6	4	3	5	2
Pod yield in g/plant	00.75	00.83	2.10	2.16	1.75	3.00	1.83	1.75	3.00	2.25
No of undeveloped pods/plant	3	2	2	2	1	2	1	2	3	1.3
No of developed pods/plant	3	2	4	3	4	4	3	2	1	1
Dry weight of plant at harvest	6.00	3.30	5.80	7.30	6.80	7.80	6.00	7.00	10.30	6.50
No of nodules/plant	64.33	120.00	85.00	69.33	77.33	88.66	41.66	34.33	75.00	42.66

MATERIALS AND METHODS

A green house experiment was conducted using metal pots of 27 cm diameter. A medium black cotton soil, previously passed through 2 mm sieve, was filled in the pots. The soil was pressed uniformly to desired bulk density i.e., 0.9, 1.0, 1.1 and 1.2 g/cm³. Soil moisture levels were adjusted to 20 per cent, 40 per cent and 60 per cent available moisture levels. Five bold groundnut seeds of variety SB XI inoculated with rhizobium culture were sown in the pots at the surface and loose soil was spread over uniformly. Only one healthy plant was maintained after two weeks from emergence for further observations. Moisture levels as indicated were maintained throughout the life period of crop. All treatments were replicated thrice. Nodulation count was taken at half flowering stage. Other observations were made at the appropriate time.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Morphological characters It is evident from the data in Table I and II that the differences in per cent germination and days to first flower were not significant.

TABLE II

Effect of soil compactness and moisture on nodulation and yield components in Groundnut

			Moisture		Density		Moisture × Density	
	SE	CD	SE	CD	SE	CD	SE	CD
% Germination	10.99							
Days to first flower	3.12							
Total flowers produced/plant	2.47	7.25	1.23	3.62	1.42	4.19	2.47	7.26
Pegs/plant	1.39	4.10	0.69	2.05	0.80	2.36	1.39	4.09
Pegs as % of total flowers	4.30							
Pod bearing pegs/plant	0.83	2.43	0.41		0.48	1.41	0.83	2.44
Pod bearing pegs as % of total flowers	15.89	46.61	1.69		1.95	5.85	3.38	9.93
Pegs without pods	2.14	6.41	1.07	3.21	1.23	3.63	2.14	6.28
Pegs without pods as % of total flowers	5.93	17.41	2.96	8.71	3.42	10.05	5.93	
% flowers not producing pegs	4.31							
Days after sowing to produce 50 % of total flowers	0.70	2.05	0.12	0.35	0.16	0.47	0.69	2.05
Days after start of flowering to produce 50 % of flowers	0.66	1.95	0.33	0.97	0.38	1.15	0.66	1.95
Total pods/plant	0.75	2.21	0.37		0.43	1.28	0.75	2.22
Pod yield mg/plant	0.40	1.17	0.20	0.59	0.22		0.39	1.16
No. of undeveloped pods/plant	0.55							
No. of developed pods/plant	0.81	2.38	0.42		0.46	1.35	0.81	2.38
Dry weight of plant at harvest	0.92	2.70	0.45		0.52	1.55	0.92	2.70
No. of nodules/plant	2.92	8.58	1.46	4.29	1.69	4.95	2.92	8.58

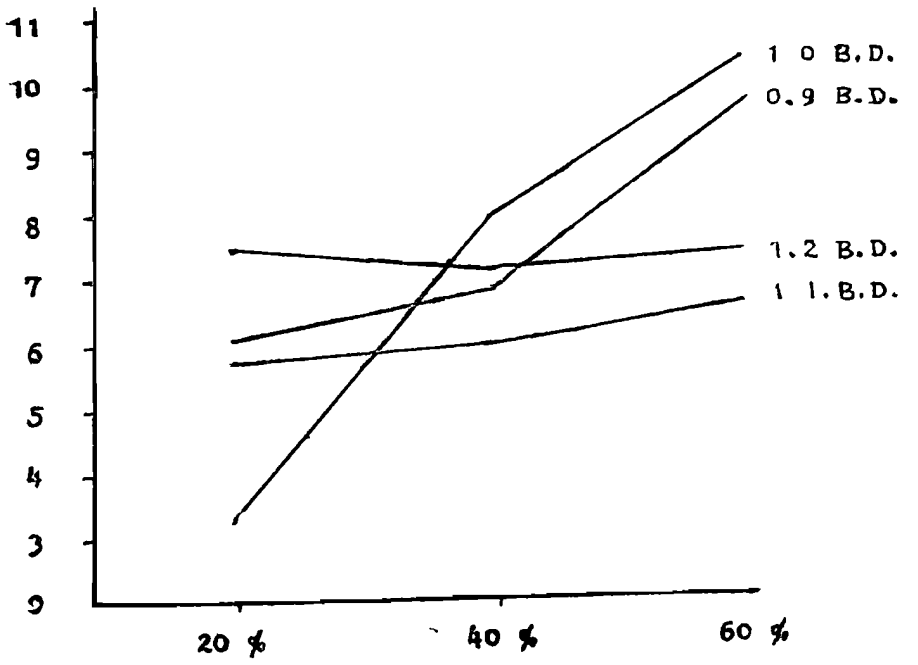
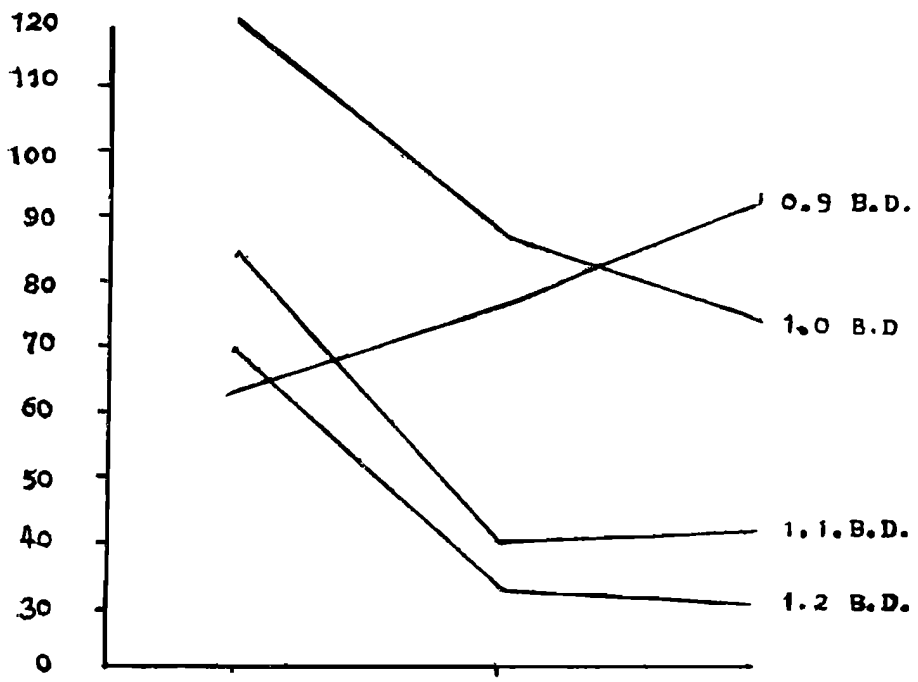


Fig 1 Nodulation and dry matter yield in groundnut as affected by compactness (B.D.) and moisture availability in soil

However, differences in total flower production per stand in all treatments were significant. There was an increasing trend in flower production in 0.9 to 1.2 bulk density at 20 per cent and 60 per cent available moisture. Bulk density of 1.2 at 40 per cent available moisture produced maximum (63) flowers in groundnut in contrast to 15 flowers in a treatment of 0.9 bulk density at 20 per cent available moisture. The interaction effects were significant. Flocker *et al.* (1959) showed that compacting soil to a certain density increased the per cent germination in tomato plant. Compacting the soil delayed the seedling emergence. The differences in the total peg production per stand were significant for different moisture levels. Interaction effects were also significant. 1.2 bulk density at 40 per cent available moisture produced 53 pegs per stand representing 84.74 per cent pegs as per cent of total flowers. This treatment was significantly superior over other treatments. An increasing trend in peg production per stand was observed from 0.9 to 1.2 B D at 20 per cent and 60 per cent available moisture. The number of pod bearing pegs per stand was increased with increasing B D at 40 per cent and 60 per cent available moisture levels. The number of pegs without pods was increased with increasing moisture levels in 0.9 and 1.0 B D and with increasing density at 20 per cent available moisture level. B D of 1.2 at 40 per cent available moisture produced 79.42 per cent pegs without pods as per cent of total flowers in contrast to 33.22 per cent in 0.9 B D at 60 per cent available moisture. The interaction effects were at par. In all the treatments the differences in the per cent flowers not producing pegs were not significant. B D of 1.0 at 20 per cent available moisture required 54.33 days after sowing to produce 50 per cent of total flowers in contrast to 44 days in 0.9 B D at 60 per cent available moisture level. The differences between different moisture and density levels and interactions were significant. 1.1 B D at 40 per cent available moisture required 10 days after flowering to produce 50 per cent of the flowers in contrast to 19.33 days in 1.0 B D at 20 per cent available moisture. Flocker *et al.* (1959) reported that compression of soil beyond certain limits resulted in an overall inhibition of some of the physiological processes of plant growth in tomato. Bertrand and Kohnke (1957) reported that the influence of soil compaction appeared to be related to many soil-plant-climate interaction.

Nodulation, A significant negative response to nodulation was observed with increasing soil B D and moisture levels. 1.0 B D at 20 per cent available moisture level produced 120 nodules per stand in contrast to 31.33 nodules in 1.2 B D at 60 per cent available moisture. Significant differences were also observed between moisture and density levels. 0.9 B D increased nodules per stand with increasing moisture levels significantly, on the other hand 1.0, 1.1 and 1.2 B D decreased nodules with increasing moisture levels. It might be due to poor root growth because of lack of oxygen supply, lesser porosity, poor

water utilization and restricted nutrient uptake Veihmeger and Hendrickson (1948) reported that restricted root growth is a function of B D

Yield and yield components A decreasing trend in pod yield per stand was observed with increasing bulk density and moisture levels 0.9 bulk density significantly increased pod yield/plant with increasing moisture levels. The differences within bulk density were at par 0.9, 1.0 and 1.1 bulk density increased dry matter with increasing moisture levels. However, Wittsell and Hobbs (1965) found reduction in legume yield due to compaction of soil. Adams *et al* (1960) reported that increasing soil bulk density from 1.07 to 1.14 g/cm³ lowered the yield of potato, sugar beet, wheat and corn. Yields of sorghum grains, Sudan grass and wheat were also depressed by soil compaction (Wittsell and Hobbs, 1965)

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Effect of pH, Moisture and Temperature on the Survival of *Rhizobium* sp in Sterile Soil

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ABSTRACT

The effect of pH, moisture and temperature on the growth of rhizobium (AUB 2) was studied. The optimum pH, moisture and temperature were found to be 9, 60 per cent and 30°C respectively.

INTRODUCTION

The process of nodule formation by rhizobia has been influenced by pH, moisture and temperature (Yadav and Vyas, 1971, Roughley, 1968 and Roughley and Vincent, 1967). The present study deals with the influence of such factors on the survival of *Rhizobium*.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

An isolate of *Rhizobium* sp (AUB 2) from blackgram grown in yeast extract mannitol broth was inoculated into sterilized soil, maintained under different pH (7.0 to 10.0), moisture (20 to 100 per cent) and temperature (30 to 45°C) levels. The rhizobial populations in the soil was estimated at 20 days interval by dilution plate technique using yeast extract mannitol agar medium containing congo-red.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The rhizobial population was more on 60th day at pH 9 and it declined thereafter (Table I).

The inoculated rhizobial cells multiplied well at 60 per cent moisture level. Maximum population was observed on 120th day at 60 per cent moisture level (Table II).

The rhizobial population was more at 30°C and at other levels the population was very much affected (Table III).

With most legumes nodule formation takes place in a narrow range of H-ion concentration. Yadav and Vyas (1971) reported that the optimum pH for growth of *Rhizobium* spp varied between strains, for berseem strains it was pH 7-8, for cowpea pH 5-7, for daincha pH 6-7, for gram pH 7-9, for

TABLE I
Effect of pH on the survival of inoculated *Rhizobium sp* in sterile soil
(10⁶/g)

pH	Sampling time in days						Mean
	20	40	60	80	100	120	
7	24.0	19.0	17.5	14.0	10.0	7.5	15.3
8	20.0	29.0	33.0	18.0	12.0	9.0	20.1
9	23.0	34.0	43.5	33.0	24.0	13.0	28.4
10	23.0	30.0	20.0	17.5	12.5	8.0	18.5
Mean	22.5	28.0	28.5	20.6	14.6	9.3	
Initial inoculum 23 × 10 ⁶ /g of soil					Treatment	SE D	2.8
Significant at 1 per cent level						CD	6.0
Treatment	<u>T₁ T₄ T₂ T₃</u>			Period	SE D	3.5	
Period	<u>P₆ P₅ P₄</u>		<u>P₁ P₂ P₃</u>			CD	7.4

TABLE II
Effect of moisture on the survival of inoculated *Rhizobium sp* in sterile soil
(10⁶/g)

Moisture per cent	Sampling time in days						Mean		
	20	40	60	80	100	120			
20	23.0	10.5	5.5	3.5	2.0	1.5	7.6		
30	28.0	12.5	6.5	4.0	3.5	2.0	9.4		
40	30.5	14.5	7.5	6.0	5.0	2.5	11.0		
50	36.0	19.0	9.5	8.0	6.5	5.0	13.9		
60	55.0	20.0	14.0	10.5	9.0	8.0	19.4		
70	45.0	29.0	12.0	9.0	8.0	7.0	18.3		
80	39.0	19.5	10.0	8.0	6.5	6.0	14.8		
90	37.0	13.5	9.0	7.0	5.0	4.0	12.5		
100	37.0	8.5	8.5	6.0	3.5	2.0	10.9		
Mean	36.2	16.2	9.1	6.9	5.5	4.2			
Initial inoculum 23 × 10 ⁶ /g of soil					Treatment	SE D	2.0		
Significant at 1% level						CD	4.0		
Treatment	<u>T₁ T₂ T₉ T₃ T₈</u>			<u>T₄ T₇ T₆ T₅</u>		Period	SE D	1.3	
Period	<u>P₆ P₅</u>		<u>P₄ P₃</u>		<u>P₂ P₁</u>			CD	2.6

groundnut pH 5-7 and for guwar pH 5-6. In the present study the isolate from blackgram was found to survive well at pH 8.0 and 9.0 in the sterile soil up to 60 days after inoculation.

TABLE III

Effect of temperature on the survival of inoculated Rhizobium sp in sterile soil (10⁶/g)

Temperature	Sampling time in days						Mean
	20	40	60	80	100	120	
30°C	33.0	13.0	4.5	2.0	1.5	0.5	9.1
35°C	17.0	7.0	3.0	1.5	0.5	—	4.8
40°C	11.0	6.0	3.0	0.5	—	—	3.4
45°C	7.0	4.5	2.0	0.5	—	—	2.3
Mean	17.0	7.6	3.1	1.1	0.5	0.12	

Initial inoculum 23 × 10⁶/g of soil Not significant

In the present study, the population level was more at 60 per cent moisture level and this higher population load was maintained up to 40 days. This finding is in agreement with the report by Roughley (1968). The introduced rhizobia tolerate a higher moisture level *i.e.*, 40–60 per cent and the most favourable moisture level depends on the soil type. The population level varied with the range of moisture level. At extreme levels of moisture conditions *i.e.*, 20 per cent and 100 per cent the rhizobial population was low. This observation supports the report of Vandecaveye (1927) and Heldin and Neuton (1948) that counts of bacteria in soil are closely related to the moisture level.

The influence of temperature on the survival of rhizobia was studied by Vandecaveye (1927) and Date (1959). In this study the optimum temperature for the multiplication was found to be 30°C, however this was statistically not significant.

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Effect of Moisture Stress and Inoculum Placement on Nodulation, Yield and Protein Content of Soybean

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ABSTRACT

A greenhouse study with soybean var BC-574 grown in a black clay soil exhibited significant effect of moisture stress and inoculum placement on nodulation, yield and protein. Number of nodules, grain yield and seed protein was significantly higher under 80 per cent of field capacity as compared to 60 per cent and 40 per cent of field capacity. Similarly the number of nodules, grain yield and seed protein recovery were significantly higher at 50 mm inoculum depth as compared to 100 and 200 mm inoculum depths. Maximum dry matter yield and total plant protein recovery were obtained at 80 per cent of field capacity and 50 mm inoculum depth. The highest grain yield 14.15 g/plant was obtained with soil moisture at 80 per cent field capacity and inoculum placed at 50 mm below the soil surface.

INTRODUCTION

Soil moisture is known to have a great influence on symbiotic N fixation. Moisture stress in the root zone causes considerable reduction in N fixation. Water stress can seriously reduce nitrogen fixation by depressing the activity of existing nodules and by reducing nodulation (Engin and Sprent, 1973, Sprent, 1976, Weber, 1966). Increased rates of moisture evaporation at the soil surface induce almost a condition of desiccation in upper portions of soil while a good level of moisture still may be present in lower depths. Under normal cultural practices the development of nodules in soybean occurs on roots close to soil surface and this is the layer of soil that is subject to the greatest fluctuation in moisture. The establishment of an effective symbiotic N fixing system deeper in the soil could minimize these environmental fluctuations and permit greater N fixation by the nodules.

Relatively high soil moisture (75 per cent or more of field capacity) is necessary to ensure intensive multiplication of the bacteria and a high degree of nodulation (Masefield, 1961, Mackee, 1961). Soil water stress affects the growth of young nodules and also dry matter production in soybean. Barnett and Naylor (1966) observed inhibition of protein synthesis and decreased levels of protein in bermuda grass growing under water stress.

The purpose of the study was to determine whether nodule position could be controlled by inoculum placement. Further the study was also aimed to determine the optimum level of moisture for an effective N fixation, yield and protein content of soybean.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The experiment was conducted in greenhouse with soybean var. EC-574, grown in 250 mm dia. and 350 mm high plastic pots to hold 12 kg soil. Soil used was black clay soil with pH 8.5, CaCO₃ 10.5 per cent clay, 69.14 per cent CEC 54.53 m.e./100 g of soil and water holding capacity 65 per cent. Soil was mixed with ammonium sulphate and super phosphate to supply corresponding amounts of 15 kg N and 60 kg P₂O₅/ha, respectively. Twenty treatment combinations comprising of four moisture levels (field capacity, 80 per cent of field capacity, 60 per cent of field capacity and 40 per cent of field capacity designated as M₁, M₂, M₃ and M₄, respectively) and five levels of inoculum placement (0, 25, 50, 100 and 200 mm below soil surface designated I₁, I₂, I₃, I₄ and I₅, respectively) were tested. The treatments were replicated four times.

Sufficient inoculum (50 ml) was added as a liquid suspension of *Rhizobium japonicum* containing approximately 10¹⁰ cells/ml. The pot was filled with soil to the desired level, activated carbon was sprinkled at that depth and inoculum was then dispensed into the surface and was covered with the soil. Five seeds

TABLE I
Effect of moisture regimes and inoculum placement on nodulation, grain yield, dry matter, seed protein and total plant proteins in soybean

Treatments	No. of nodules/plant	Grain yield (g/plant)	Dry matter yield (g/plant)	Seed protein yield (g/plant)	Total plant protein (g/plant)
<i>Moisture levels</i>					
Field capacity	339.7	13.15	16.62	4.88	5.80
80 per cent field capacity	348.4	13.11	16.46	4.91	5.83
60 per cent field capacity	117.7	6.73	11.27	2.19	2.72
40 per cent field capacity	27.4	3.90	10.86	1.25	1.75
S.Em. \pm	3.23	0.1316	0.140	0.0516	0.0879
CD at 5 per cent	9.56	0.3895	0.414	0.1527	0.2601
<i>Inoculum placement mm below soil surface</i>					
0	219.3	9.48	14.37	3.41	4.17
25	221.2	9.39	14.46	3.40	4.17
50	231.0	9.86	14.91	3.62	4.43
100	190.0	8.73	12.69	3.09	3.73
200	179.8	8.65	12.56	3.01	3.63
S.Em. \pm	3.61	0.147	0.157	0.0577	0.0983
CD at 5 per cent	10.68	0.435	0.465	0.1708	0.2909

were placed in each pot at a depth of 15 mm. After emergence, three seedlings were maintained per pot. Nodule count was taken depthwise at the time of pod formation. Nitrogen of seed and dry matter was determined by a micro-kjeldahl procedure (Jackson, 1967).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results (Table 1) exhibited significant effect of moisture and inoculum depth on nodulation, yield and protein content of soybean. Twelve fold nodule count was observed at moisture level of 80 per cent field capacity as against nodulation at 40 per cent field capacity moisture level. Similarly higher nodule count (221 nodules/plant) was observed at 50 mm inoculum depth whereas 179 nodules/plant were recorded at 200 mm inoculum depth. Less oxygen supply to the nodules may be responsible for the observed reduction in nodulation at lower depths (Bergerson and Goodchild, 1973). Inoculum depth and moisture levels governed the nodulation and this is in conformity with the observation made by Wilson (1975). Water stress affected the growth of young nodules and also formation of further nodules (Sprent, 1976).

Grain yield and dry matter yield of soybean were considerably lower when moisture was limiting than at optimum moisture level. Moisture levels at field capacity and 80 per cent of field capacity did not affect the grain yield and dry matter production, whereas moisture at 60 per cent of field capacity reduced

TABLE
Effect of moisture and inoculum depth interaction on nodulation,

Treatment	Field Capacity (M ₁)					80% Field Capacity (M ₂)				
	No of nodules plant	Grain yield (g/plant)	Dry matter yield (g/plant)	Seed protein yield (g/plant)	Total plant protein (g/plant)	No of nodules plant	Grain yield (g/plant)	Dry matter yield (g/plant)	Seed protein yield (g/plant)	Total plant protein (g/plant)
<i>Inoculum depth (mm)</i>										
0 (I ₁)	358.5	13.41	17.13	4.96	5.91	361.0	13.50	16.90	5.06	6.02
25 (I ₂)	353.5	13.61	17.20	5.22	6.18	366.5	13.08	17.25	4.19	5.86
50 (I ₃)	372.0	13.65	17.85	5.20	6.30	384.0	14.15	18.10	5.47	6.56
100 (I ₄)	313.5	12.72	15.45	4.63	5.47	318.5	12.30	14.78	4.47	5.30
200 (I ₅)	301.0	12.35	15.45	4.35	5.15	312.0	12.50	15.25	4.61	5.42
			M × I							
S Em	7.22	0.294	0.314*	0.115	0.196*					
CD at 5%	21.37	0.873	0.929	0.340	0.580					

* Non significant

the grain yield to one half of the yield observed at field capacity 16.46 g/plant was the dry matter yield obtained at 80 per cent of field capacity, while it was only 10.86 g/plant when moisture was maintained at 40 per cent of field capacity. Satyanarayana and Ghildyal (1970) have also reported beneficial effect of moisture levels on yield of rice crop. It is also evident from the data that inoculation depth strongly influenced the grain yield and dry matter production. Highest grain yield (9.86 g/plant) and 14.91 g dry matter were obtained when inoculum was placed at 50 mm below the soil surface (Table I). There was considerable reduction in grain yield and dry matter production when inoculum was placed at 100 and 200 mm below the soil surface.

Moisture levels and inoculum depth also influenced significantly the seed protein and total plant protein. Restricted soil moisture decreased the seed protein and total plant protein. Maximum seed protein (4.91 g/plant) and total plant protein (5.83 g/plant) were observed under 80 per cent of field capacity. Considerable low seed protein (1.25 g/plant) was recovered at 40 per cent of field capacity. Similarly maximum of (3.62 g/plant) seed protein and total plant protein (4.43 g/plant) were recorded in the treatments where inoculum depth was 50 mm. The seed protein and total plant protein were found reduced when inoculum was placed 100 and 200 mm below the soil surface.

Effect of moisture-inoculum interaction was significant on nodulation, grain yield and seed protein (Table II). Accordingly, the highest nodulation

II

grain yield, dry matter, seed protein and total plant protein in soybean

	60% Field Capacity (M ₃)				40% Field Capacity (M ₄)					
	No of nodules/ plant	Grain yield (g/plant)	Dry matter yield (g/plant)	Seed protein yield (g/plant)	Total plant protein (g/plant)	No of nodules/ plant	Grain yield (g/plant)	Dry matter yield (g/plant)	Seed protein yield (g/plant)	Total plant protein (g/plant)
	128.0	6.98	12.10	2.32	2.90	30.5	4.03	11.35	1.30	1.85
	128.5	6.88	11.70	2.23	2.80	36.5	3.98	11.70	1.25	1.84
	141.5	7.28	11.95	2.35	2.94	26.5	4.35	11.75	1.40	1.94
	102.0	6.28	10.35	2.09	2.55	26.0	3.63	10.20	1.18	1.61
	88.5	6.23	10.25	1.97	2.42	18.0	3.53	9.28	1.13	1.52

(384 nodules/plant), grain yield (14.15 g/plant) and seed protein (5.47 g/plant) were obtained when inoculum was placed at 50 mm depth and soil moisture maintained at 80 per cent of field capacity. Soil moisture at field capacity and inoculum depth of 200 mm greatly affected nodulation in soybean. Increasing moisture levels increased nodulation, grain yield and seed protein content irrespective of inoculum depth. Further increase in inoculum depth decreased the nodulation, grain yield and seed protein. 366.5 nodules/plant in soybean was the nodule count when inoculum depth was adjusted at 50 mm below the surface in a soil maintained at 80 per cent of field capacity. The nodule count was found reduced to 128 nodules/plant at moisture level of 60 per cent field capacity. The nodule count further dropped to 88 by lowering the inoculum depth to 200 mm.

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Review on *Rhizobium* Inoculation of Principal Legumes in Karnataka

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RHIZOBIAL inoculation of grain and forage legume is a well established practice in most pulse growing areas of the world namely, Europe, Australia, New Zealand and U S A In India, Karnataka is one of the important legume growing States Out of a total area of 10.5 million hectares of land under cultivation in Karnataka 1.28 million hectares has been reported to be under pulse cultivation and 0.8 million hectares under groundnut cultivation A project was formulated at the Department of Agricultural Microbiology, UAS, Bangalore during the year 1972 for a duration of five years, to obtain efficient strains of rhizobia for different pulse and to popularise the use of these among the farmers in the State Some of the results obtained during the last five years have been highlighted here

During the initial stages, tours were undertaken to the major legume growing areas viz , Dharwad, Raichur, Bailhongal, Annigeri, Doddaballapur, Kolar, Kodigehalli, Gulbarga, Gadag, Nelamangala, Bidar and Belgaum Healthy and pink nodules were collected from standing crops of different legumes and a total of 238 isolates of *Rhizobium* were obtained These were subjected to various laboratory tests and 143 isolates turned out to be true rhizobia on the basis host legume These isolates were tested for their efficiency in pot culture trials Cultures of proven efficiency on the basis of pot culture studies were used in field trials to test their performance in various soils and under different agro-climatic conditions

In all the field trials, the experimental design used was randomized block design with three replications in each treatment Basal dressing consisted of 40 kg P_2O_5 + 20 kg K_2O per ha Fertilizer nitrogen was applied only in N-Control plots at the rate of 25 kg N per ha Seeds were treated with lignite based culture of rhizobia before sowing When the crop was six to eight weeks old, observations on the number and dry weight of nodules per plant, dry weight of plant tops and finally the grain yields were recorded The results of the field trials are furnished below

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*) All the 22 efficient strains obtained from pot culture trial were tested at Bangalore, Dharwad and Bijapur initially

Isolate G-28 (UAS B-94) proved effective during this trial, and its efficiency was tested for two consecutive years at Bangalore, Dharwad, Raichur, Bijapur and Bidar. During the third year trial eight exotic strains were also tested, of which CB-512, CB-530 and CB-661 performed well at one or more test locations (Table I). The field trials showed that rhizobial inoculation increased the yield.

TABLE I
Effect of rhizobial inoculation on the yield of groundnut (q/ha)

Treatment	Bangalore	Bidar	Bijapur	Dharwad	Raichur
Control	16.19	21.52	1.78	31.30	2.61
N-Control	15.74	19.44	2.53	30.67	2.29
UASB-94	18.28	20.36	3.36	25.19	2.08
CB-512	17.82	20.36	4.17	36.86	2.18
CB-661	15.74	22.68	4.38	29.81	2.77
Per cent increase due to					
<i>Rhizobium</i>	4.3	3.2 to	18.5 to	4.2 to	6.1
	12.9	7.5	227.5	17.7	
Per cent increase due to N application					
	—	—	42.1	—	—
<i>Economics of results</i>					
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs + or -)				
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 484.97				
With fertilizer nitrogen	+ 49.50				

from 3.2 to 227.5 per cent at five places whereas, nitrogen application increased the yield by 42.1 per cent at one place only. The economics of results clearly indicated that profit obtained due to rhizobial inoculation was about ten times higher as compared to nitrogenous fertilizer application.

Blackgram (*Vigna mungo*) Field trials with the above 22 strains were conducted at Bangalore, Dharwad and Bijapur. Cultures UASB-120 (B-29) and UASB-125 (B-73) recorded 59.4 per cent and 51.3 per cent increase in yield respectively over uninoculated control. Further trials were conducted at Bangalore, Dharwad, Raichur, Bijapur, Annigeri and Bidar to confirm the performance of the two isolates as well as that of some exotic strains over uninoculated control. UASB-125 proved better of the two native isolates in a number of places and CB-512 and CB-530 gave highest yields among the exotic strains (Table II). Seed inoculation with *Rhizobium* gave yield increases ranging from 0.4 to 33.0 per cent. 15 per cent with fertilizer nitrogen over uninoculated control. Economics of results showed that there was benefit by rhizobial inoculation as compared to fertilizer nitrogen application.

TABLE II
Effect of rhizobial inoculation on the yield of blackgram (q/ha)

Treatment	Annigeri	Bidar	Bangalore	Bijapur	Dharwad	Raichur
Control	5.72	6.36	1.89	6.12	15.65	7.05
N-Control	4.89	4.90	5.91	5.86	14.90	8.11
UASB-125	5.46	5.31	6.14	7.89	12.92	7.90
CB-512	5.46	5.56	3.87	5.00	13.78	8.81
CR-530	6.85	5.90	6.84	3.91	16.00	7.47
CB-627	5.48	6.71	4.87	4.87	15.39	7.79
<hr/>						
% increase due to <i>Rhizobium</i>	0.4-33.0	1.1-5.5	28.9	2.2	7.5-24.9	
% increase due to N application	-	-	-	-	15.0	
<i>Economics of results</i>						
<hr/>						
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs ±)					
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 264.97					
With fertilizer nitrogen	+ 111.50					

Redgram (*Cajanus cajan*) Microplot trials revealed that 22 isolates could nodulate redgram efficiently. These were tested for their performance under field conditions at Bangalore, Dharwad, Raichur and Bijapur. Results of the multilocal field trials showed that no single culture was uniformly effective at all the places. However, nine strains viz UAS B-111, 120, 104, 106, 101, 118, 96 and 105 appeared promising. For confirming the performance of these strains, trials were conducted at Bangalore, Dharwad, Raichur, Bijapur and Bailhongal. Performance of some exotic strains was also tested. Results indicated that four native isolates viz, UAS B-111, UAS B-118, UASB-104 and UAS B-101 and three exotic strains viz, CB-661, CB-1057 and CB-2832 performed well at most centres (Table III). Increase in yield due to *Rhizobium* inoculation ranged from 1.2 to 162.3 per cent (at six places) whereas, with nitrogen fertilizer application, it was 2.3 to 74.3 per cent (at four places) over uninoculated control. The economics of the results indicated that seed inoculation with *Rhizobium* was better than nitrogen fertilizer application.

Greengram (*Vigna radiata*) First year field trials with 22 proven isolates conducted at Bangalore, Dharwad, Raichur and Bijapur showed that strains UAS B-113, 106, 107, 95, 96 and 105 were effective. Second year field trials were conducted at Bangalore, Dharwad, Annigeri, Bijapur, Bidar and Raichur, to confirm the performance of the above-said strains as well as that of some exotic strains. Three out of the seven local isolates viz, UAS B-95, UAS B-96 and UAS B-107, and three out of the four exotic strains CB-661, CB-756 and CB-530 were found to perform well at most place (Table IV). The increase in

TABLE III
Effect of rhizobial inoculation on the yield of redgram (q/ha)

Treatment	Bidar	Bijapur	Bailhongal	Dharwad	Raichur
Control	16 48	8 97	13 62	2 73	7 65
N-Control	15 00	10 82	14 20	4 76	5 55
UASB - 101	17 96	12 45	17 82	5 65	12 35
UASB - 111	16 48	14 48	20 83	7 16	3 99
CB - 661	15 74	13 73	20 53	5 42	8 89
CB - 1057	15 37	15 01	22 32	3 76	10 00
CB - 2832	15 00	13 14	20 36	6 45	6 67
% increase due to <i>Rhizobium</i>	1 2-8 9	9 4 - 67 3	4 2-68 6	37 7-162 3	6 1-83 3
% increase due to N application	-	20 6	4 2	74 3	-
<i>Economics of results</i>					
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs \pm)				
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 456 57				
With fertilizer nitrogen	+ 132 30				

TABLE IV
Effect of rhizobial inoculation on the yield of greengram (q/ha)

Treatment	Annigeri	Bangalore	Bijapur	Raichur	Bidar	Dharwad
Control	4 03	5 50	5 13	5 61	7 96	8 61
N - Control	4 06	2 94	4 40	6 83	7 38	8 57
UASB - 95	4 12	6 63	5 16	7 24	6 94	11 29
UASB - 96	4 24	12 03	4 51	6 94	7 91	10 10
UASB - 107	4 83	5 69	3 96	7 95	6 78	8 93
CB - 530	4 28	6 31	4 73	7 47	6 67	10 51
CB - 661	4 56	5 31	4 85	6 35	8 14	6 39
CB - 756	4 35	6 40	3 53	6 73	7 06	9 68
% increase due to <i>Rhizobium</i>	1 7-19 8	3 5-118 7	6-1 6	12 2-41 7	2 2-8 1	3 7-31 1
% increase due to N application	1 5	-	-	21 7	-	-
<i>Economic of results</i>						
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs \pm)					
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 355 37					
With fertilizer N	- 93 40					

yield ranged from 0.6 to 118.7 per cent due to rhizobial inoculation at six places, while with nitrogen fertilizer the increase in yield ranged from 1.5 to 21.7 per cent at two places. From the economics of results, it was clear that rhizobial inoculation was profitable as compared to fertilizer nitrogen application.

Bengalgram (*Cicer arietinum*) Twenty-eight strains which proved promising under pot culture trials were tested for their efficiency under field conditions at Dharwad, Raichur and Bijapur. There was increased yields ranging from 0.4 to 23.4 per cent at Dharwad, 0.7 to 32.4 per cent at Raichur and 0.7 to 37.3 per cent at Bijapur as a result of inoculation with different strains of *Rhizobium*. This multilocational field trial revealed that isolates UASB-3, UASB-55, UASB-57, UASB-67 and UASB-71 were efficient. Second year field trial at Raichur showed that UASB-59 and UASB-13 were the best followed by UASB-66, UASB-67, UASB-60 and UASB-18. The economics of the results showed that *rhizobial* inoculation was profitable.

Demonstration trials on cultivators' fields These trials were conducted in collaboration with the Karnataka State Department of Agriculture and the Directorate of Extension, UAS, Bangalore, during *kharif* 1975. The object of these trials was (a) to know the performance of selected rhizobia on important pulse crops in different soils and agro-climatic zones of the State, (b) to bring out the importance of *Rhizobium* inoculation for obtaining higher yields of pulses and groundnut to the extension staff and farmers of major pulse growing areas of Karnataka.

TABLE V
Effect of rhizobial inoculation on the yield of bengalgram (q/ha)

Treatment	Bijapur	Raichur	Dharwad
UASB-3	9.16	9.81	12.27
UASB-55	10.01	11.42	9.56
UASB-57	10.96	9.97	9.18
UASB-67	10.05	8.95	10.67
UASB-71	8.18	8.33	9.98
	7.98	9.81	9.94

Treatment	Profit Rs/ha (+ or -)
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 289.97

Conducted by Karnataka State Department of Agriculture

Avare (Field Bean) (*Dilichos lab lab*) A demonstration trial was conducted at Mysore. There were ten treatments, which included eight cultures, one nitrogen control (25 kg N/ha) and one uninoculated control. There was significant increase in bean yield ranging from 52.0 to 74.2 per cent as a result of inoculation with different rhizobial cultures compared to uninoculated control (Table VI).

TABLE VI
Effect of rhizobial inoculation of avare (Mysore)

Treatment	Yield (q/ha)	% increase over uninoculated control
Control	6 25	—
N— Control	9 25	48 3
CB— 512	10 89	74 2
CB— 627	10 63	70 0
CB— 661	9 72	55 5
CB— 756	10 19	63 0
CB— 1057	10 89	74 2
CB— 2832	9 50	52 0
Composite	10 41	66 6
UAS Composite	9 72	55 5

<i>Economics of the results</i>	
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs ±)
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+ 677 47
With fertilizer nitrogen	+ 342 50

However, nitrogen fertilizer application increased the bean yield by 48.3 per cent. The results indicated that a substantial increase in bean yield could be obtained by seed treatment with an efficient culture of *Rhizobium* as compared to fertilizer nitrogen application. Economics of results are presented in the table.

Redgram (*Cajanus cajan*), The trial was conducted at four places, viz., Bidar, Mysore, Gulbarga and Bijapur. Here again, the trial included 10 treatments which included eight cultures, one nitrogen control (25 kg N/ha) and one uninoculated control. There were significant differences in nodule number and plant weight in *Rhizobium* inoculated treatments as compared to uninoculated control. In Mysore and Gulbarga, the increase in the grain yield was 24.9 and 7.5 per cent respectively. The increase due to the rhizobial inoculation ranged from 71.8 to 142.2 per cent at Mysore and from 7.5 to 34.9 per cent at Gulbarga, compared to uninoculated control. The data clearly showed that rhizobial inoculation gave profitable yield as compared to nitrogen fertilizer application (Table VII).

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*) The trial was conducted at six places viz., Raichur, Dharwad, Jamkhandi, Bagalkot, Jewargi and Chincholi. The treatments included eight cultures, one nitrogen fertilizer application (25 kg N/ha) and one uninoculated control. There was an increase in yield ranging from 4.0 to 20.0 per cent at Jamkhandi, 1.1 to 14.3 per cent at Bagalkot, 11.4 to 50.0 per cent in Jewargi, 38.7 to 69.9 per cent at Dharwad and 16.6 to 58.3 per cent at Raichur due to *Rhizobium* inoculation as compared to uninoculated control. Though application of fertilizer nitrogen gave more yield as compared

to *Rhizobium* inoculation, it may be noted that this increase was noted only at two out of five places (Table VIII) Conducted by U A S , Directorate of Extension.

TABLE VII

Effect of rhizobial inoculation of the yield of redgram

Treatment	Mysore	Chincholi
Control	4 50	11 12
N-Control	5 62	11 95
UASB-96	8 13	13 90
UASB-101	10 90	15 00
UASB-104	8 47	13 34
UASB-105	7 73	11 95
UASB-106	9 91	10 00
UASB-111	10 11	15 00
UASB-118	8 34	14 45
Composite	8 50	10 00
% increase due to <i>Rhizobium</i>	24 88—142 2	7 4—34 9
% increase due to N application	24 88	7 4
<i>Economics of results</i>		
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs ±)	
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+517 77	
With nitrogen fertilizer	+ 17 10	

Groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea*) The trial was conducted on five farmers' fields using composite cultures only. The results revealed that there was an increase in yield ranging from 11 03 to 20 50 per cent over uninoculated control. An increase in net profit ranged from Rs 38 00 to Rs 157 00 per acre compared to uninoculated control and nitrogen fertilizer application.

Bengalgram (*Cicer arietinum*) These demonstration trials were conducted at 10 taluks using composite cultures supplied by the University of Agricultural Sciences. Yield of Bengalgram increased from 1 55 to 76 66 per cent because of rhizobial inoculation.

Blackgram (*Vigna mungo*) These trials were conducted at five taluks of Belgaum district viz, Athani, Chikkodi, Raibag, Hukkeri and Bailhongal. Increase in yields due to rhizobial inoculation ranged from 6 51 to 83 97 per cent over uninoculated control.

Horsegram (*Phaseolus vulgaris*) The trial was laid out at seven taluks of Belgaum district. The results showed that rhizobial inoculation increased the yields from 3 31 to 49 65 per cent over uninoculated control.

In conclusion it can be said that majority of the farmer in Karnataka have become aware of the usefulness of rhizobial inoculation on crop yields. This can be noticed from the increase in demand for cultures at the time of termination of the scheme as compared to the demand during the initial stages. Table VIII shows the increase supplies of inoculants over the years. It may be noted that only a small portion of the total demand could be met by the Department.

TABLE VIII
Effect of Rhizobial inoculation on the yield of groundnut

Treatment	Bagalkot	Dharwad
Control	19.67	10.27
N-Control	18.75	17.50
UASB-94	19.89	17.45
CB-512	21.79	16.86
CB-530	21.53	15.46
CB-627	21.53	14.25
CB-756	22.44	16.33
CB-1057	20.36	16.66
Composite	20.13	17.03
UAS Composite	20.36	15.55
% increase due to <i>Rhizobium</i>	1.1 to 13.8	38.6 to 70.4
% increase due to N application	—	70.4
<i>Economics of results</i>		
Treatment	Profit/ha (Rs +)	
With <i>Rhizobium</i>	+432.97	
With nitrogen fertilizer	+677.50	

Efficient and proven strains for most of the pulses viz , groundnut, blackgram, geengram, redgram and bengalgram have been isolated. From the reports obtained from farmers, it has been noticed that the multistrain inoculant containing six proven isolates, UASB-94, UASB-101, UASB-120, UASB-125, CB-530 and CB-1024 performed well at most places on many pulse crops. In case of Bengalgram an UAS composite of 3 proven isolates, UASB-67, B D and Revadin is being used.

NOTE Strains CB are from C S I R O Division of Tropical Agronomy, Brisbane
Strains B D (Beldagan) and Revadin are from Israel

A Review of Research on Soybean Microbiology in Karnataka

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THERE has been an increasing emphasis in our country towards the problems of solving protein-calorie malnutrition in human diets. The traditional milk and meat proteins and other pulse proteins being expensive and out of reach of the poor and middle class strata of Indian Society, soybean may serve well as a valuable source of protein in Indian diets. Nutritive value of soybean protein conforms very well with FAO standards for dietary proteins. In addition soybean being rich in oil content, edible oil of high nutritive value is being extracted and used for human consumption. In the state of Karnataka, cultivation of improved varieties of soybean was first introduced about decade ago (Krishnamurthy and Shivashankar 1975). During the early period of introduction of the crop it was found that the yield of grain was suboptimal and this was presumed to be due to the absence of soybean-specific rhizobia in several soil types of the State. To overcome this difficulty studies on isolation, testing and selection of efficient strains of rhizobia for use as inoculants to soybean were undertaken. The results of these studies (Katti *et al*, 1970) indicated that the nodulation and yield of soybean can be significantly improved by seed inoculation with soybean-specific rhizobia. The results of a two-year field trial indicate that among the three rhizobial cultures used namely, E-67 and E-88 obtained from JNKVV, Jubbulpore and UAS composite from this laboratory, the latter was more effective in nodulating and increasing the yield of soybean. Another noteworthy finding from these studies was that phosphate application to soil with seed inoculation of rhizobia proved better in increasing the yield of soybean. Katti *et al* (1970) further conducted crop rotation trials to ascertain whether wheat or ragi (finger millet) could be grown after soybean without additional fertilizers. These results indicated that the grain yield of both ragi and wheat increased considerably in treatments where soybean inoculated with *Rhizobium* and raised with phosphate application was the previous crop in the rotation.

Further studies on the efficacy of some commercial and institutional inoculants on nodulation and yield of soybean by Patil *et al* (1972) indicated that during *kharif* 1971, out of the seven rhizobial inoculants used, seed

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inoculation with IARI and 'NITRAGIN' cultures significantly increased the nodulation in plants. Even though bean yields increased by 24.5 per cent and 26.0 per cent with the two cultures respectively the results were not statistically significant. In the succeeding *rabi* season the residual effect of soybean cultivation on the succeeding crop of wheat (variety Kalyan 227) was tested. With wheat grown after soybean the grain yield increased in plots wherein soybean inoculated with IARI culture was grown as the preceding crop in the rotation. The extent of yield increase was 27.0 per cent as compared to control where no crop was grown previously. These studies were conducted in a red sandy loam soil (Rhodustalf) of pH 6.8 with an application of 60 kg P₂O₅/ha and 40 kg K₂O/ha to soybean crop only.

Under the All India Coordinated Research Project on Soybean, single strains as well as multi strain cultures of rhizobia were used as inoculants for soybean to test their efficiency. In these studies the preliminary work on isolation and field testing of rhizobia were undertaken by Patil *et al* (1972). They isolated 14 strains of rhizobia from soybean plants grown in some soil types of Karnataka and screened them for their purity. Only six strains were identified with genes *Rhizobium*. A mixed culture of the six strains was used as seed inoculum for studying nodulation in soybean cultivar-Davis. First, second and third plant passage isolates were obtained from nodulated plants. In all seven strains of *Rhizobium* representing all the three plant passages were isolated. All these appeared to belong to the 'Cowpea' group rather than *Rhizobium japonicum* whereas the other two strains used, for comparison, namely E-67 and E-88 obtained from J N K V V, Jubbalpure, conformed to the characteristics of *R. japonicum*. In a multilocation trial conducted at six different locations the nodulating efficiency was tested by recording nodule number and plant weight. The results presented on Table I indicate that the third plant passage isolates proved to be better in nodulating the soybean plants which suggested the possibility of increasing nodulating efficiency of rhizobia by repeated plant passage. The data also indicate that five out of six soils lacked native rhizobia which could nodulate soybean and in only one location Sirsi, nodulation in uninoculated control was recorded.

The performance of various composite cultures of *Rhizobium* specific for soybean was field tested during the past four years. Kumar Rao (1974) reported that among the seven composite cultures tested IARI-2, G B P U A T (Pantnagar) and U A S Bangalore cultures increased the bean yield of soybean cultivar Davis. Kumar Rao (1975) further testing the efficacy of five composite cultures in a red sandy loam soil type reported that IARI, G B P U A T Pantnagar and U A S Bangalore cultures were more efficient than uninoculated control or the inoculants supplied by J N K V V Jubbalpure or C S Azad University of Agriculture and Technology, Kanpur.

TABLE I

Nodulation and dry matter yield of soybean inoculated with Rhizobium in different soil types

Observations		Rhizobial strain number									
		E-67	E-88	S-5	S-6	S-7	S-8	S-11	S-12	S-13	Control
Nodule	Sirsi	13	6	3	4	6	3	8	14	14	3
	Mudigere	—	13	—	20	—	—	—	65	10	—
	Mandya	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	19	30	—
Number Per Plant*	Hebbal	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	32	—	—
	Raichur	—	—	3	—	—	—	—	14	4	—
	Dharwad	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	26	24	—
Nodule Size and Wt (g) per plant*	Sirsi	L3 0	M1 5	S0 8	MS1 3	M1 4	S1 4	S1 0	LM4 0	LM4 6	S1 2
	Mudigere	—	M0 11	—	S0 03	—	—	—	L0 24	S2 04	—
	Mandya	—	—	L0 16	—	—	—	—	L0 36	LS0 63	—
	Hebbal	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	L1 07	—
	Raichur	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	L0 13	M0 06	—
	Dharwad	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	L1 80	L1 55	—

* Average of 6 plants

L=Large (Larger than sorghum grains),

M=Medium (Size of sorghum grains)

S=Small (Smaller than sorghum grains),

MS=Medium and Small Patil *et al* (1972)

S-5, S-6 First plant passage isolates

S-7, S-8 Second plant passage isolates

S-11 S-12 Third plant passage isolates

S-13

E-67, E-88 Obtained from JNKVV, Jabbalpure

The compatibility of different strains of *Rhizobia* with varieties of soybean was investigated in field trials in a red sandy loam soil of Bangalore by Kumar Rao (1975) and the experiment was repeated by Shantharam and Patil (1976). Both the investigations revealed the absence of any interaction between the five different strains of *Rhizobia* used *viz* UASB Nos 126, 127, 128, 137 and 143 and the four cultivars of soybean *viz*, Davis, Hardee, 33-2 (locally evolved at U A S, Bangalore) and UPSS-38 (U P Agril University, Pantnagar).

Relative efficiency of different strains of Rhizobia on nodulation and yield of soybean Kumar Rao and Patil (1974) observed that the soils of Karnataka are usually deficient in soybean-specific *Rhizobium* and therefore recommended inoculation with efficient strains of *Rhizobia* for obtaining better soybean yields. During their field trials with inoculants from different sources they observed that a few plants without any rhizobial seed inoculation were healthy and comparable to stand to the plant raised from inoculated seeds. This led them to isolate a few strains of *Rhizobium* from such nodulated plants.

An initial screening of the 31 isolates yielded ten promising strains with better nodulating ability. These ten isolates were further field-tested with eight other exotic (obtained from U.S.A. and Australia) strains. Dry matter yield data indicate that compared to the exotic strain UASB 136 the relative efficiency of native strains ranged from 101.66 to 70.54 as against 104.53 to 164.05 by exotic strains. The relative efficiency of native strains as compared to exotic strain UASB 140 ranged from 77.0 to 129.17 as against the efficiency of exotic strains which ranged from 76.0 to 124.25 (Table II). Bean yield also increased

TABLE II
Nodulation and growth soybean inoculated with native and inoculant strains of Rhizobium japonicum under field conditions

Culture No	No of nodules plant		Dry Wt of nodules/plant (mg m)		Dry Wt of plant top (mg)		Dry Wt of plant top in comparison to	
	1	2	1	2	1	2	UASB-136	UASB-140
UASB								
126	17.5	76.2	95	784	0.63	9.45	142.75	108.12
127	15.5	51.0	100	825	0.70	10.87	164.20	124.37
128	12.7	77.0	85	828	0.63	8.40	126.89	96.00
129	27.0	50.0	68	892	0.59	7.79	117.68	89.00
130	16.2	80.8	95	822	0.72	11.29	170.54	129.17
131	12.7	81.0	93	838	0.78	8.01	120.99	91.00
132	15.2	71.2	88	828	0.66	6.98	105.43	79.00
133	15.5	40.5	102	608	0.71	8.24	124.47	94.00
134	13.0	41.7	83	787	0.58	7.00	105.74	80.00
135	19.7	42.8	70	610	0.75	6.73	101.66	77.00
136	11.8	50.0	85	640	0.57	6.62	100.00	76.00
137	12.2	60.7	85	1007	0.77	8.54	129.00	98.00
138	9.5	108.7	62	698	0.66	7.74	116.91	88.00
139	9.7	71.0	50	563	0.48	8.63	130.35	99.00
140	14.5	70.0	63	1053	0.71	8.74	132.02	100.00
141	5.2	27.3	38	157	0.56	7.12	107.55	81.00
142	18.0	96.2	87	703	0.50	6.92	104.00	79.00
144	16.2	65.5	92	818	0.82	10.86	164.05	124.25

1 30-day period of plant growth

2 60-day period of plant growth

Kumar Rao and Patil (1974)

significantly as a result of inoculation with native and exotic strains of *Rhizobium*. The relative efficiency of native strains as compared to exotic strain No UASB 136 ranged from 89 to 145 while that of the exotic strains was 93 to 143. Compared to exotic strain No UASB 140 the relative efficiency of native and exotic strains ranged from 76 to 123 and 79 to 121 respectively. These results are presented in Table III. In view of this it may be concluded that some of the native strains of *Rhizobium* were as good as exotic strains in nodulating and increasing bean yield in Soybean. The authors suggested that such proven native

strains should be recommended to replace the exotic strains for inoculation for such native strains may be endowed with better adaptability to local soil and other environmental conditions

TABLE III
Bean yield of soybean inoculated with native and inoculant strains of soybean Rhizobium

Culture Number	Yield/ha in* Quintals	% increase over control	Relative efficiency in comparison to	
			Strain No UASB 134	UASB 140
UASB				
126	39 29	320 94	145 14	123 35
127	29 24	214 07	108 01	92 00
128	30 29	225 34	111 89	95 00
129	28 20	202 90	104 17	88 00
130	30 39	226 42	112 26	95 00
131	32 42	248 23	119 76	101 79
132	32 59	250 05	120 39	102 32
133	30 51	227 71	112 70	96 00
134	24 07	158 54	89 00	76 00
135	34 63	271 97	127 92	108 72
136	27 07	190 76	100 00	85 00
137	35 07	276 69	129 55	110 10
138	36 86	295 92	136 16	115 73
139	28 98	211 27	107 05	91 00
140	31 85	242 11	117 65	100 00
141	26 61	185 82	98 00	83 00
142	25 15	170 14	93 00	79 00
144	38 61	314 71	142 63	121 22
Control	9 31	—	—	—

* Results significant at 1% level C D , at 1% level is 9 315 q/ha

Kumar Rao and Patil (1974)

TABLE IV
Effect of lime pelleting the Rhizobium inoculated seed on nodulation and growth of soybean

Treatment	No of nodules per plant	Dry wt of nodules per plant in mgm	Dry Wt of whole plant in g	Average yield per plant g	% increase over control
T ₁ Uninoculated unpelleted	0	0	2 0	1 18	—
T ₂ Uninoculated pelleted with CaCO ₃	0	0	2 9	1 35	14 41
T ₃ Inoculated unpelleted	20	214	2 9	2 66	125 42
T ₄ Inoculated pelleted	31	401	5 4	2 98	152 54
C D at 5%	1 99	5 51	1 20	0 833	—

Kumar Rao (1973)

Inoculant establishment in acidic soil conditions The efficiency of lime pelleting in establishment of inoculated *Rhizobium* was tested by Kumar Rao (1973) In a pot culture trial using variety 'Davis' and UAS-Composite-1 culture of *Rhizobium* in an acidic soil of pH 4.0, it was observed that seed pelleting with lime during inoculation increased nodulation, dry matter and grain yields The data presented in Table IV indicate that increase in grain yield as a result of inoculation was 125.42 per cent as compared to uninoculated control but it was enhanced to 152.54 per cent when 'inoculated seeds were lime pelleted

Interaction between inoculated Rhizobium and Azotobacter on nodulation and yield of soybean Kumar Rao and Patil (1976) evaluated the effect of inoculation of *Rhizobium* and *Azotobacter* on soybean The data presented in Table V indicated that the nodulation pattern was not affected to any significant

TABLE V
Effect of *Rhizobium* and *Azotobacter* inoculation on Soybean

Treatment	No of nodules/plant		Dry Wt of nodules/plant (mg)		Dry Wt of plant top (mg)		Bean yield/ha quintals	Per cent increase in bean yield over control
	a	b	a	b	a	b		
Control (Uninoculated)	2.3 (1.26)	2.6 (1.55)	4.0 (1.47)	52.0	1.19	2.31	6.37	
<i>Rhizobium</i> only	20.1 (4.49)	47.5 (6.81)	135.0 (11.54)	801.0	1.25	7.32	20.22	217.4
<i>Azotobacter</i> only	8.0 (2.69)	13.4 (3.63)	7.5 (2.56)	325.0	1.27	2.71	12.14	90.6
<i>Rhizobium</i> + <i>Azotobacter</i>	20.6 (4.55)	44.1 (6.53)	148.0 (11.78)	838.0	1.36	6.16	21.11	231.2
CD at 1 per cent	1.48	2.59	2.792	281.97	NS	2.11	6.82	
CD at 5 per cent							4.86	
SE							3.53	
CV							23.4%	
Plant growth		A	30 days					
		B	60 days					

Values in parenthesis are transformed using $\sqrt{X+0.5}$ treatments

Kumar Rao & Patil (1976)

extent There was also no significant difference in dry matter production at 60 day period between *Rhizobium* treatment alone and *Rhizobium* with *Azotobacter* Bean yield data showed that *Azotobacter* seed treatment alone increased the yield to an extent of 90.6 per cent as compared to uninoculated control The differences in grain yield with *Rhizobium* inoculation alone or *Rhizobium* with *Azotobacter* was not significant. It was therefore concluded that seed inoculation of soybean with an efficient strain of *Rhizobium* was as good as a mixed

inoculation with *Rhizobium* and *Azotobacter* and *Azotobacter* treatment did not contribute either to nodulation or nitrogen fixation efficiency by *Rhizobium*. However treatment with *Azotobacter* alone seemed to be beneficial which was reported to be possibly to the production of biologically active compounds stimulatory to plant growth.

Effect of Agricultural Chemicals on Symbiotic Nitrogen Fixation by Rhizobium in Soybean This aspect of research has not been dealt with in detail with respect to soybean specific rhizobia. The one report by Reddy and Kumar Rao (1974) on the effect of certain non-volatile nematicides on nodulation and yield of soybean indicated no apparent deleterious effect on either nodulation or yield of soybean.

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SESSION II

Crop Response to Inoculation—Legumes

Effect of Bio-fertilizers on Rice Crop

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ABSTRACT

A field trial on the effect of bio-fertilizers employing efficient strains of *Azotobacter chroococcum*, *Bacillus polymyxa* and *B. megaterium* was conducted on the long duration group rice variety, viz, CO 40-Rajarajan, under the conditions prevailed in Coimbatore, along with four levels of fertilizer nitrogen. The bio-fertilizers were compatible with each other and all the three organisms put together performed better giving the maximum grain yield of 7.19 tonnes/ha, effecting a saving of fertilizer nitrogen to the tune of 30 to 40 per cent.

RICE cultivation is being carried out traditionally in major portion of the country and in Tamil Nadu it is grown in an area of 27 lakh hectares, having an annual production of 2.10 tonnes/ha. The non-symbiotic nitrogen fixation associated with cereal crops is potentially most valuable for tropical agriculture. Certain strains of *Azotobacter* adapted to rice soil ecosystem as well as facultatively anaerobic organisms like *Bacillus polymyxa* were believed to play an important role in nitrogen fixation under submerged soil conditions (Mishustin, 1970, Nutman, 1971, Brown, 1974, Dobereiner, 1974, Rangaswami, 1975). Inoculation of *Azotobacter* to the paddy seeds, seedlings and soil is well known to establish under rice soil conditions and bring about various types of beneficial effects to the rice crop (Balandreau *et al*, 1974, Broughton *et al*, 1976, Oblisami *et al*, 1976). Various varieties of rice crop respond varyingly to the treatment of *Azotobacter* and other nitrogen fixing organisms (Oblisami *et al*, 1976, Broughton *et al*, 1976) and short duration and medium duration varieties are performing well in association with *Azotobacter* whereas not much information is available on the performance of long duration group of rice varieties. The present paper reports on the performance of the latest rice variety from Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, CO 40-Rajarajan, to the treatment of *Azotobacter* and other bacterial inoculants along with graded levels of fertilizer nitrogen.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field trial on the effect of bio-fertilizers employing efficient strains of *Azotobacter chroococcum* and *Bacillus polymyxa* and *Bacillus megaterium* on CO

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40 (Rajarajan) a high yielding long duration rice variety was carried out in the Paddy Breeding Station, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore, during the season July, 1976-January, 1977. Peat soil based inoculants were prepared and applied to the crop following the methods reported earlier (Oblisami *et al*, 1976). The bio-fertilizer treatments were given along with different combinations of fertilizer nitrogen in the form of urea. The crop was supplied with P and K, respectively in the form of superphosphate and muriate of potash as the basal application. Data on various plant parameters meant for yield attributes as well as grain yield were collected. The yield data were put to statistical scrutiny.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the effect of bio-fertilizers on the rice variety (Rajarajan) are presented in Tables I to IV.

TABLE I

Effect of bacterial inoculants on rice (CO 40-Rajarajan) in combination with 100 per cent of the recommended level of fertilizer nitrogen (Fertilizer nitrogen applied as 80+80 kg N/ha)

Treatment	Height (cm/plant)			No of tillers per hill	Panicle length (cm)	Grain yield kg/ha
	60th day	120th day	160th day			
<i>A. chroococcum</i>	54.3	95.9	152.7	8.1	22.7	6845
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i>	54.8	99.6	119.7	8.3	22.6	6895
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	52.6	99.5	115.5	8.8	22.2	6565
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	55.2	99.6	110.8	8.5	22.5	6660
No bacterial inoculant (control)	51.1	93.0	114.2	8.2	22.1	6595

TABLE II

Effect of bacterial inoculants on rice (CO 40-Rajarajan) in combination with 75 per cent of the recommended level of fertilizer nitrogen (Fertilizer nitrogen applied as 40+80 kg N/ha)

Treatment	Height (cm/plant)			No of tillers per hill	Panicle length (cm)	Grain yield kg/ha
	60th day	120th day	160th day			
<i>A. chroococcum</i>	48.1	93.9	119.2	7.6	22.2	6880
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i>	45.2	90.4	113.7	8.3	22.3	6460
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	47.4	91.3	113.7	7.5	23.6	6890
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	46.6	94.6	123.3	7.6	22.3	6920
No bacterial inoculant (control)	46.0	94.0	115.8	8.2	22.5	6710

TABLE III

Effect of bacterial inoculants on rice (CO 40-Rajarajan) in combination with 62.5 per cent of the recommended level of fertilizer nitrogen

(Fertilizer Nitrogen applied as 20+80 kg N/ha)

Treatment	Height (cm/plant)			No of tillers per hill	Panicle length (cm)	Grain yield kg/ha
	60th day	120th day	160th day			
<i>A. chroococcum</i>	49.2	96.8	119.2	8.6	22.7	6930
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>Polymyxa</i>	44.9	90.4	113.7	7.6	22.8	6795
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>megaterium</i>	47.0	91.3	113.7	7.5	22.9	6610
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i> + <i>megaterium</i>	48.3	94.6	123.3	8.3	22.2	7190
No bacterial inoculant (control)	48.8	94.0	115.8	7.6	22.1	6440

TABLE IV

Effect of bacterial inoculants on rice (CO 40-Rajarajan) in combination with 50 per cent of the recommended level of fertilizer nitrogen

(Fertilizer nitrogen applied as 0+80 kg N/ha)

Treatment	Height (cm/plant)			No of tillers per plant	Panicle length (cm)	Grain yield kg/ha
	60th day	120th day	160th day			
<i>A. chroococcum</i>	46.9	93.3	145.2	8.5	22.5	6960
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i>	49.8	92.4	111.0	7.5	22.0	6895
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	48.3	91.2	114.2	8.0	22.7	7150
<i>A. chroococcum</i> + <i>B. polymyxa</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	48.6	93.8	115.9	7.6	22.9	6820
No bacterial inoculant (control)	45.2	89.8	110.0	7.7	22.8	6545

The plant height and number of tillers per hill at different age of the crop exhibited slight variations due to the bio-fertilizer treatments. The panicle length did not show any variation between the treatments. The *Azotobacter* inoculant alone was found to give better grain yield than the fertilizer alone. *Azotobacter* and *B. polymyxa* performed better with the reduced level of nitrogenous fertilizer application. *A. chroococcum* and *B. megaterium* performed better with 50.0 per cent fertilizer nitrogen alone. When all the three organisms were inoculated together, maximum grain yield of 7190 kg/ha was recorded with the application of 62.5 per cent of fertilizer nitrogen. *Azotobacter* inoculant could bring out the benefit to the farmers with the application of reduced level of fertilizer nitrogen, which is in conformity with the earlier reports (Oblisami, *et al*, 1976, Patil *et al*, 1976, Shivappa Shetty *et al*, 1976). The performance of *B. polymyxa* in association with *Azotobacter* was encouraging and probably

due to its capability to adopt to the rice soil conditions (Doberiner, 1974) Similarly the beneficial performance of *B megaterium* in effecting higher grain yield of the crop might be due to its activity in releasing the phosphorus for the benefit of the rice crop However, detailed studies are needed to establish the exact role of *B megaterium* in combination with *Azotobacter* The compatibility between all the three organisms put together is established in the present study and this might be responsible for getting the maximum grain yield These results are of great significance in the present context of high cost of fertilizer nitrogen Thus 25.0 to 40.0 per cent of fertilizer nitrogen could be saved by employing the bio-fertilizers in rice crop production Also, the beneficial performance of the combined inoculants in the case of long duration rice variety is of great significance because of the probability of any one of these organisms or all of them might get adjusted to the varying environmental factors and bring about the beneficial effects to the rice crop under the field conditions

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Response of IR 20 Rice Variety to *Azotobacter* Inoculant in Farmer's Holding

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ABSTRACT

A field trial under the conditions of farmer's holding was undertaken to assess the performance of *Azotobacter* inoculant to the IR 20 rice crop. A saving of fertilizer nitrogen to the tune of 18.75 to 75.0 kg/ha was observed without affecting the grain yield. The water holding capacity and percentage of pore space of the soils from *Azotobacter* treated plots were better over the control. Nitrogen balance studies indicated that with reduced fertilizer nitrogen, the performance of *Azotobacter* inoculant was better and maximum quantity of available nitrogen was recorded in such plots.

Azotobacter inoculants are well known to perform better under gardenland soil conditions and number of crops derived the benefit of better growth and even increased yield of grains, vegetables, kapas, etc. occasionally (Mishustin, 1970, Mehrotra and Lehari, 1971, Rao *et al*, 1974, Brown, 1974, Oblisami *et al*, 1976, Shivappa Shetty *et al*, 1976, Badigire and Bindu, 1976). The response of rice crop to *Azotobacter* inoculation varied with the variety, soil types, pH and agro-climatic conditions (Oblisami *et al*, 1976, Patil *et al*, 1976, Rangarajan and Muthukrishnan, 1976). The performance of *Azotobacter* inoculant in combination with varying levels of fertilizer nitrogen application to a popular variety of rice (IR 20) under the conditions prevailed in the farmer's holding is presented in the present paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field trial was taken up during October 1975–February 1976, season, in a farmer's holding at Keelanchikulam, Madurai district, Tamil Nadu. The *Azotobacter* inoculant treatment was given to IR 20 variety of rice as seed treatment, seedling root dipping and soil application as reported by Oblisami *et al* (1976). The following treatments were taken up in the present study.

- T₁ – No *Azotobacter* + 75 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (100.0 per cent N alone)–control
- T₂ – *Azotobacter* + 75 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (100.0 per cent N + *Azotobacter*)
- T₃ – *Azotobacter* + 56.25 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (87.5 per cent N + *Azotobacter*)

T₁ – Azotobacter + 37.50 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (75.0 per cent N + Azotobacter)

T₅ – Azotobacter + 18.75 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (62.5 per cent N + Azotobacter)

T₆ – Azotobacter + 0 kg N basal + 75 kg N top dressing (50.0 per cent N + Azotobacter)

The phosphorus and potassium were applied at 75 kg/ha each as superphosphate and muriate of potash, respectively as the basal dose. The plot size was five cents. The plant parameters like plant height, number of productive tillers per hill and grain yield were recorded. The soil samples were collected before and after the field trial and analysed for the physical characteristics like maximum water holding capacity and pore space using the Kee Raczowski brass cup (Piper, 1950). The available and total nitrogen content of the soils and the total nitrogen content of the plant samples were estimated following the standard procedures (Piper, 1950, Subbiah and Asija, 1956).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the effect of *Azotobacter* inoculant along with varied levels of nitrogenous fertilizers under the field trial as existed in the farmer's holding are presented in Table I. The treatments receiving *Azotobacter* along with

TABLE I
Effect of *Azotobacter* inoculant on IR-20 rice under the conditions of farmer's holding

Treatment	Plant height (cm)	Productive tillers (No./plant)	Grain yield (kg/ha)	% increase
No Azotobacter + 100 per cent fertilizer —(control)	71.3	6.9	5090	—
Azotobacter + 100.0 per cent fertilizer N	74.4	8.1	5250	3.1
Azotobacter + 87.5 per cent fertilizer N	77.3	8.0	5500	8.1
Azotobacter + 75.0 per cent fertilizer N	73.5	7.1	5380	6.0
Azotobacter + 62.5 per cent fertilizer N	74.4	7.8	5400	6.1
Azotobacter + 50.0 per cent fertilizer N	75.1	9.0	5615	10.3

reduced levels of fertilizer nitrogen recorded better plant height and number of tillers when compared to the treatment receiving 100 per cent fertilizer nitrogen alone. The grain yield from the treatments receiving *Azotobacter* inoculant gave more or less similar yield as that of the control indicating the saving of fertilizer nitrogen to the tune of 18.75 to 75.0 kg N/ha without affecting the grain yield. These results are in agreement with the earlier reports (Oblisami *et al.*, 1976, Rangarajan and Muthukrishnan, 1976). A marginal increase in the grain yield (160 to 525 kg/ha) was recorded in plots receiving *Azotobacter*

treatment in combination with different levels of fertilizer nitrogen which is similar to the earlier reports (Oblisami *et al* 1976, Patil *et al*, 1976, Rangarajan and Muthukrishnan, 1976) The performance of *Azotobacter* inoculant was better with the minimum fertilizer nitrogen application However, the beneficial effect of *Azotobacter* inoculant along with the 100 per cent fertilizer N application was poor which might be probably, because of the deleterious effect of readily available nitrogen in inhibiting the activities of *Azotobacter* (Rangaswami, 1975)

The maximum water holding capacity of the field samples from *Azotobacter* treated plots got increased by 1.6 to 7.0 per cent Also, the percentage of pore

TABLE II
Effect of Azotobacter inoculant on certain physical properties of soil grown to IR-20 rice under the conditions of farmer's holding

Treatment	Maximum water holding capacity %	Pore space %
No Azotobacter+100.0 per cent fertilizer N —(control)	37.89	54.72
Azotobacter+100.0 per cent fertilizer N	41.61	60.89
Azotobacter+87.5 per cent fertilizer N	44.94	65.10
Azotobacter+75.0 per cent fertilizer N	39.50	55.50
Azotobacter+62.0 per cent fertilizer N	40.88	60.46
Azotobacter+50.0 per cent fertilizer N	40.33	60.49

TABLE III
Nitrogen balance in the field due to treatment with Azotobacter inoculant on IR-20 rice under the conditions of farmer's holding

Treatment	Initial available N in soil (kg/ha)	Fertilizer N added to soil (kg/ha)	Total available N (kg/ha)	Total available N removed by crop (kg/ha)	Balance N (probable) (kg/ha)	Final available N in soil (kg/ha)	Difference (kg/ha)
No Azotobacter+100.0 per cent fertilizer N —(control)	158.6	150.0	308.6	129.7	178.9	193.7	+14.8
Azotobacter +100.0 per cent fertilizer N	158.6	150.0	308.6	126.6	182.0	169.4	-12.6
Azotobacter+87.5 per cent fertilizer N	158.6	131.2	289.2	140.1	149.7	161.9	+12.2
Azotobacter+75.0 per cent fertilizer N	158.6	112.2	270.8	128.0	142.8	186.7	+43.9
Azotobacter+62.5 per cent fertilizer N	158.6	93.7	252.3	139.1	113.2	180.2	+67.0
Azotobacter+50.0 per cent fertilizer N	158.6	75.0	233.7	135.2	98.4	200.5	+102.1

space was found to increase by 0.7 to 10.4 in the samples from *Azotobacter* treated plots. Maximum increase in these two characteristics were recorded in the *Azotobacter* treatment along with 87.5 per cent of the fertilizer nitrogen (Table II). Such an observation on the better physical characteristics of the soil due to *Azotobacter* treatment might have been due to the proliferation of the bacterial cells and production of polysaccharides by the *Azotobacter* cells (Mishustin, 1970, Brown, 1974), which in turn might have been responsible for improving the aggregation of the soil particles.

The nitrogen balance in the soil after the trial (Table III) indicated that the treatments receiving *Azotobacter* along with reduced fertilizer nitrogen doses showed greater value of available nitrogen in soil. This would mean that the *Azotobacter* inoculant might have played a greater beneficial role in the nitrogen fixation and release to the soil by different means such as excretion of amino acids into soil and mixing of cell constituents after lysis. The increase in the available nitrogen in the control plot might be due to the activities of native microflora involved in the nitrogen fixation. This study needs further testing under varied agro-climatic conditions for assessing nitrogen economy due to the application of *Azotobacter* inoculant.

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Effect of Graded Levels of Nitrogen Fertilization and *Azotobacter* Inoculation on Yield of Paddy

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ABSTRACT

The effect of graded levels of nitrogenous fertilization viz , 25 00, 31 25, 37 50 and 43 75 kg/ac together with *Azotobacter* inoculation was compared with 50 00 kg/ac level of nitrogen fertilization with two varieties of paddy viz , AU 1 and Madhu. *Azotobacter* inoculation with 43 75 kg/ac level of N fertilization gave grain and straw yields similar to 50 00 kg N/ac without *Azotobacter* inoculation.

INTRODUCTION

THE improved crop yields and soil fertility due to *Azotobacter* inoculation have been reported by several workers (Greaves and Jones, 1942, Garbosky 1956, Gopalakrishnamurthy *et al* , 1967) That the nitrogenous fertilization level could be reduced, if supplemented with *Azotobacter* inoculation has been reported by Oblisami *et al* (1976) and Patil *et al* (1976) The results on the effect of graded levels of nitrogen fertilization combination with *Azotobacter* inoculation when compared with 50 kg N/ac level without *Azotobacter* inoculation are presented in this paper

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field trial was conducted with a plot size of 4m × 3m, in split plot design. The varieties AU 1 and Madhu were used in this study. A common basal dressing of K₂O, as muriate of potash, and P₂O₅ as super phosphate at the rate of 25 kg/ac was given to all the treatments. Graded levels of nitrogen were applied as urea at 25 00, 31 25, 37 50 and 43 75 kg/ac. The full dose of nitrogen at 50 kg/ac with no *Azotobacter* inoculation was included to serve as control. *Azotobacter* inoculum (AU 3 isolate) obtained from Microbiology Division, Faculty of Agriculture, Annamalai University was used. The soil treatment was given at the rate of 6 packets (each weighing 150 g) per acre just before transplantation.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In AU 1 decrease in height to the extent of 10.72, 4.47, 7.78 & 1.18 per cent was obtained with *Azotobacter* inoculation in combination with 25 00, 31 25,

37.50 and 43.75 kg N/ac levels, respectively over 50.00 kg N/ac application without *Azotobacter*. In Madhu increase in height of 1.22 per cent was obtained with treatment of *Azotobacter* in combination with 43.75 kg N/ac over 50.00 kg N/ac without *Azotobacter* (Table I). The *Azotobacter* treatment with 43.75 kg N/ac gave equal yield to 50 kg N/ac without *Azotobacter* in AU 1 variety (Table II). In Madhu *Azotobacter* treatment with 43.75 kg N/ac gave 5.61 per

TABLE I
Effect of graded levels of nitrogen application and *Azotobacter* inoculation on the height + at of rice

Treatments	AU 1				Mean	Madhu				Mean
	Sampling time after transplantation in days					Sampling time after transplantation in days				
	15	35	55	75		15	35	55	75	
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 25 kg N/ac (No nitrogen* + 25.00 kg**)	32.7	49.3	68.9	84.4	58.82	29.6	48.4	70.9	86.8	58.92
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 31.25 kg N/ac (6.25 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	33.6	51.1	72.3	86.2	60.80	30.6	50.2	71.8	88.1	60.17
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 37.5 kg N/ac (12.50 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	35.6	53.1	74.9	88.2	62.9	32.3	52.1	75.0	91.3	62.67
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 43.75 kg N/ac (18.75 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	37.0	54.7	77.7	91.1	65.12	33.8	56.3	77.7	93.8	66.40
50.00 kg N/ac (25.00 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	36.1	56.8	78.7	92.0	65.90	33.8	52.4	78.1	94.6	64.60

+ at Height in cm * Basal dressing ** Top dressing

TABLE II
Effect of graded levels of nitrogen application and *Azotobacter* inoculation on the grain yield of rice

Treatment	AU 1		Madhu	
	Per plot in kg	Per acre in kg	Per plot in kg	Per acre in kg
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 25.00 kg N/ac (No nitrogen* + 25.00 kg**)	4.50	1518	4.80	1619
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 31.25 kg N/ac (6.25 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	4.80	1619	5.00	1687
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 37.5 kg N/ac (12.50 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	5.20	1746	5.33	1798
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 43.75 kg N/ac (18.75 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	5.30	1822	5.63	1899
50.00 kg N/ac (25.00 kg* + 25.00 kg**)	5.30	1822	5.33	1798

* Basal dressing ** Top dressing C D (P=0.05) = 0.572

TABLE III

Effect of graded levels of nitrogen application and Azotobacter inoculation on the straw yield of rice

Treatment	AU 1		Madhu	
	per plot in kg	per acre in kg	per plot in kg	per acre in kg
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 25 00 kg N/ac (No nitrogen* + 25 00 kg**)	7 60	2564	7 80	2631
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 31 25 kg N/ac (6 25 kg* + 25 00 kg**)	8 10	2732	8 30	2800
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 37 5 kg N/ac (12 50 kg* + 25 00 kg**)	8 50	2867	8 60	2900
<i>Azotobacter</i> + 43 75 kg N/ac (18 75 kg* + 25 00 kg**)	9 50	3204	9 60	3238
50 00 kg N/ac (25 00 kg* + 25 00 kg**)	9 50	3204	9 36	3157

* Basal dressing

** Top dressing

C D (P=0 01) = 0 909

cent increased yield over 50 00 kg N/ac Oblisami *et al* (1976) reported that *Azotobacter* treatment with 45 kg N/ha gave higher yields of grain ranging from 1 7 to 8 0 per cent over the nitrogen (60 kg N/ha) Patil *et al* (1976) also reported an increase of 28 per cent in the yield of paddy when nitrogen was applied with *Azotobacter* *Azotobacter* inoculation with 43 75 kg N/ac and 50 00 kg N/ac without *Azotobacter* inoculation gave similar straw yield in AU 1 On the other hand, in Madhu variety an increase of 2 1 per cent in the former treatment was found compared to the latter (Table III)

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Effect of Certain Organic Amendments on the Efficiency of Inoculation with *Azotobacter*

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ABSTRACT

Application of certain organic amendments viz, Sesbania, glyricidia, sunnhemp and paddy straw gave an increased grain yield over control. Application of these amendments with *Azotobacter* inoculation gave higher yields compared to their application without *Azotobacter*. Sesbania + *Azotobacter* and glyricidia + *Azotobacter* combinations were found to be very effective. Application of organic amendments in combination with *Azotobacter* increased the nitrogen content of shoot and nitrogen and organic matter contents of the soil compared to the application of organic matter alone.

INTRODUCTION

SEVERAL workers have suggested the use of bacterial fertilizers to improve the rice (*Oryza sativa* L.) yields (Manna *et al*, 1962, Shivappa Shetty *et al*, 1976, Patil, 1976). The beneficial effect of organic amendments added to soil on its *Azotobacter* population was reported by Ekbote (1973) and Singh *et al* (1975). The effect of application of certain organic amendments in combination with *Azotobacter* inoculation to soil on yield of rice and nitrogen content of plant and soil are reported in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field trial was conducted with IR 20 rice variety. The plots were laid out in split plot design with three replications. The plot size was 4m x 3m. Green manures Sesbania, glyricidia and sunnhemp and paddy straw were incorporated at the rate of 2.5 tonnes per acre and left for decomposition for 30 days. The plots without *Azotobacter* and organic amendments served as control. Basal dressing of K₂O and P₂O₅ was given at the rate of 25 kg/ac to all the plots. Nitrogen was applied, as Urea at 25 kg/ac level in two equal split doses, one at the time of transplantation and another at 25th day after transplantation. Soil treatment with *Azotobacter* (isolate AU 3 of *Azotobacter chroococum*) inoculum was done with 6 packets each weighing 150 g, of lignite-based culture per acre, obtained from Microbiology Division, Faculty of Agriculture, Annamalai University. The nitrogen content of shoot and soil samples collected

from rhizosphere was estimated following the method of Bremner (1960) The organic matter content of the rhizosphere soil was estimated following the method of Walkley and Black (1947)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Increased growth of the plant was observed in all the treatments generally over the unamended control The height of plants with glyricidia + *Azotobacter* was maximum over the unamended control (Table I) Among the treatments

TABLE I

Effect of application of certain organic amendments and Azotobacter inoculation on the height of rice plants

Treatment	Height of the plants in cm				Mean	Percentage increase or decrease over control
	Sampling time after transplantation in days					
	15	35	55	75		
Control	36.4	55.9	66.9	89.7	66.22	—
<i>Azotobacter</i> alone	37.5	58.7	70.5	91.9	64.65	+3.37
Sesbania	38.4	56.3	73.7	90.7	64.77	+4.09
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	39.0	59.3	75.8	92.1	66.55	+6.95
Glyricidia	37.4	56.4	73.1	92.1	64.77	+4.09
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	38.0	59.1	76.8	95.9	67.45	+8.80
Sunnhemp	38.6	58.9	69.8	92.8	65.02	+4.50
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	39.0	60.9	73.6	94.3	66.95	+7.60
Paddy straw	35.6	59.9	64.6	86.4	60.62	-2.57
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	37.5	57.4	68.3	92.1	63.82	+2.57

TABLE II

Effect of application of certain organic amendments and Azotobacter inoculation on grain yield of rice

Treatments	Grain yield in kg		Percentage of increase over control
	per plot	per acre	
Control	3.76	1269	—
<i>Azotobacter</i> alone	4.23	1427	12.5
Sesbania	4.60	1552	22.3
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	4.95	1669	31.7
Glyricidia	4.23	1427	12.5
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	4.93	1663	31.1
Sunnhemp	4.16	1403	7.9
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	4.63	1562	23.1
Paddy straw	4.03	1359	7.1
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	4.33	1461	15.1

C D (P=0.05) = 0.481

sesbania + *Azotobacter* gave the maximum increase (31.7 per cent) in the grain yield over the control followed by glyricidia + *Azotobacter* and sunnhemp + *Azotobacter*. Application of different organic manures in combination with *Azotobacter* gave higher yields compared to their application without *Azotobacter* (Table II). Ekbote (1973) reported that incorporation of compost, sunnhemp, paddy straw and jowar straw increased soil microbial activity considerably, with highest increase in *Azotobacter* population with jowar straw. Singh *et al.* (1975) reported that Mahua cake increased *Azotobacter* population in soil at concentration of 0.25 per cent and above. In the present study the straw yield was maximum with glyricidia and *Azotobacter* inoculation compared to control (Table III). The shoot samples from the sesbania + *Azotobacter*,

TABLE III
Effect of the application of certain organic amendments and *Azotobacter* inoculation on straw yield of rice

Treatment	Straw yield in kg		Percentage increase over control
	per plot	per acre	
Control	12.00	4048	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	13.93	4699	16.08
Sesbania	15.23	5136	26.91
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	16.83	5676	40.25
Glyricidia	15.31	5164	27.58
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	17.60	5936	48.75
Sunnhemp	13.90	4688	15.83
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	15.06	5079	25.55
Paddy straw	13.13	4429	9.41
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	14.00	4722	16.66

C D (P=0.01) = 1.428

TABLE IV
Effect of the application of certain organic amendments and *Azotobacter* inoculation on nitrogen content of shoots (expressed in percentage)

Treatment	Sampling time after transplantation in days			
	15	35	55	75
Control	0.504	0.812	1.421	1.708
<i>Azotobacter</i> alone	0.588	0.952	1.528	1.792
Sesbania	0.644	1.120	1.680	1.904
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0.812	1.260	1.764	2.492
Glyricidia	0.784	1.204	1.540	1.944
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0.896	1.344	1.792	2.200
Sunnhemp	0.644	1.120	1.652	1.904
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0.700	1.260	1.792	2.380
Paddy straw	0.784	0.896	1.540	1.848
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0.952	0.980	1.568	1.988

glyricidia + *Azotobacter* and sunnhemp + *Azotobacter* contained 2 492, 2 200 and 2 380 per cent nitrogen compared to 1 708 per cent in the shoots of plants raised from *Azotobacter* alone inoculated plots (Table IV) Similar results were found with respect to nitrogen content of the rhizosphere soil in the above mentioned treatments (Table V) Beishova (1954) claimed that application of

TABLE V

Effect of the application of certain organic amendments and Azotobacter inoculation on total nitrogen content of rhizosphere soil (expressed in percentage)

Treatment	Sampling time after transplantation in days			
	15	35	55	75
Control	0 031	0 037	0 044	0 056
<i>Azotobacter</i> alone	0 039	0 046	0 056	0 067
Sesbania	0 038	0 047	0 058	0 070
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0 048	0 058	0 068	0 084
Glyricidia	0 038	0 048	0 056	0 075
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0 052	0 064	0 069	0 092
Sunnhemp	0 036	0 048	0 060	0 073
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0 050	0 068	0 075	0 087
Paddy straw	0 036	0 056	0 061	0 071
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	0 048	0 067	0 073	0 082

TABLE VI

Effect of application of certain organic amendments and Azotobacter inoculation on the organic matter content of soil (expressed in percentage)

Treatments	Sampling time after transplantation in days			
	15	35	55	75
Control	0 86	0 99	1 19	1 27
<i>Azotobacter</i> alone	0 93	1 26	1 02	1 48
Sesbania	0 99	1 12	1 28	1 57
Sesbania + <i>Azotobacter</i>	1 19	1 31	1 49	1 72
Glyricidia	1 07	1 19	1 32	1 59
Glyricidia + <i>Azotobacter</i>	1 19	1 31	1 43	1 80
Sunnhemp	1 12	1 19	1 38	1 48
Sunnhemp + <i>Azotobacter</i>	1 31	1 41	1 51	1 63
Paddy straw	0 89	1 08	1 24	1 80
Paddy straw + <i>Azotobacter</i>	1 04	1 19	1 50	1 94

Azotobacter increased the nitrogen status in the rhizosphere soil Purushothaman *et al* (1976) reported more nitrogen fixation in the rice rhizosphere soil than in the uncropped soil The rhizosphere soil samples from plots in which the organic amendments were added in combination with *Azotobacter* inoculation recorded a relatively higher organic matter content compared to samples collected from plots in which either organic amendments are added without *Azotobacter* or *Azotobacter* inoculated without organic amendments (Table VI) This may be due to the favourable effect of the treatments on the root growth with consequent increase in the sloughed off root materials and microbial activity in this metabolically active ecological region

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The Response of Maize and Sorghum to *Azotobacter* Inoculants

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ABSTRACT

Field trials to assess the response of two cereal crops like sorghum and maize to *Azotobacter* inoculant in combination with three levels of fertilizer nitrogen indicated that maize was more responsive to *Azotobacter* inoculant than the sorghum crop. Maximum benefit due to *Azotobacter* inoculants was obtained when the fertilizer nitrogen level was reduced to 75 per cent of the recommended level, in both the crops.

BACTERIZATION of crops with *Azotobacter* is being extensively practiced in various countries as well as India (Mishustin, 1970, Brown 1974, Oblisami *et al*, 1976). The response of cereal crops to *Azotobacter* treatment has been reported by number of earlier workers (Patel, 1969, Brown, 1974, Mishustin, 1970, Oblisami *et al* 1976). The field performance of *Azotobacter chroococcum* inoculant on two important cereal crops viz, sorghum and maize under field conditions, is presented in the present paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Randomized and replicated trials were taken up at the Agricultural Research Station, Bhavanisagar. Sorghum seeds (Co 21 variety) and maize seeds (Ganga 5 variety) were treated with peat soil based *Azotobacter chroococcum* inoculant. The soil application of the inoculant was also done following the procedure reported earlier (Oblisami *et al*, 1976). The fertilizer nitrogen was applied at three different levels viz, 100, 75 and 50 per cent of the recommended levels for both the crops. The phosphatic and potassic fertilizers were applied at the recommended levels as basal application. The height of the plant at different intervals and the grain yield were recorded.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The performance of the *Azotobacter* inoculant on the cereal crops are presented in Tables I and II. The sorghum plants from *Azotobacter* treated seeds were comparatively taller than the uninoculated plants. Whereas the height of the maize plant receiving *Azotobacter* treatment was somewhat smaller than the uninoculated treatment. The grain yield of *Azotobacter* treated sorghum plants was more or less similar to that of the uninoculated plants with the treatments receiving 100 and 50 per cent of the recommended fertilizer.

nitrogen, however, there was a marginal increase in *Azotobacter* treated plants with 75 per cent of the fertilizer nitrogen (Table I) *Azotobacter* inoculated maize plots gave increased yield of grain over that of uninoculated treatment with all the three levels of fertilizer nitrogen, the increase varied from 8.8 to 19.4 per cent (Table II) The present results are similar to the earlier reports

TABLE I
Effect of *Azotobacter* inoculant in combination with three levels of fertilizer nitrogen on Co 21 variety of sorghum

Treatment	Plant height (cm/plant)			Grain yield (kg/ha)	% increase
	40th day	70th day	100th day		
<i>No Azotobacter treatment</i>					
45.0+45.0 kg N/ha (100 per cent N)	108.3	220.0	223.3	3765	—
22.5+45.0 kg N/ha (75 per cent N)	103.2	210.9	213.9	3470	—
0+45.0 kg N/ha (50 per cent N)	101.6	202.4	210.6	3465	—
<i>Azotobacter treatment</i>					
45.0+45.0 kg N/ha (100 per cent N)	116.2	220.2	221.8	3735	-0.8
22.5+45.0 kg N/ha (75 per cent N)	111.7	220.5	225.4	3820	+10.0
0+45.0 kg N/ha (50 per cent N)	108.5	210.4	215.5	3460	-0.1

TABLE II
Effect of *Azotobacter* inoculant in combination with the three levels of fertilizer nitrogen on Ganga 5 variety of maize

Treatment	Plant height (cm/plant)		Grain yield (kg/ha)	per cent increase
	40th day	70th day		
<i>No Azotobacter treatment</i>				
67.0+67.0 kg N/ha—(100 per cent N)	183.4	249.1	4411	—
33.5+67.0 kg N/ha—(75 per cent N)	193.5	255.6	4116	—
0+67.0 kg N/ha—(50 per cent N)	165.2	221.8	4033	—
<i>Azotobacter treatment</i>				
67.0+67.0 kg N/ha (100 per cent N)	159.0	229.5	4566	3.8
33.5+67.0 kg N/ha (75 per cent N)	180.3	242.3	4915	19.4
0+67.0 kg N/ha (50 per cent N)	169.4	224.4	4443	10.2

by various workers with other cereal crops as well as others (Brown *et al*, 1963, Patel, 1969, Badgire and Bindu, 1976, Oblisami *et al*, 1976, Patel *et al*, 1976, Shivappa Shetty *et al*, 1976) It is well known that C₄ plants are responsive to *Azotobacter* treatments (Purushothaman *et al*, 1976) In the

present study though both the plants are C₄ plants, maize exhibited better response to *Azotobacter* than the sorghum crop. Dobereiner (1974) has also reported that maize could be better responsive to *Azotobacter* and bacterial treatments and the present results confirm the above view. The response of sorghum with reduced level of fertilizer nitrogen (i.e. 75 per cent N) was however, better and the grain yield was more or less similar to that of the treatment receiving 100 per cent fertilizer nitrogen alone. These results indicated the possibility of saving of fertilizer nitrogen to the tune of 25 per cent of the recommended level of nitrogen without effecting the grain yield by the application of *Azotobacter* inoculants.

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Effect of Combined Inoculants on Potato

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ABSTRACT

Treatment of potato seed tubers and soil application with *Azotobacter*, *Beijerinckia* and *Bacillus megaterium* either alone or in combinations gave higher yields of potato tubers over the uninoculated control. The combined inoculant with all the three bacterial cultures gave the maximum tuber yield, IAA, nitrogen and available phosphorus content were also maximum with all the three inoculants put together. Similarly, maximum phosphatase activity in soil was recorded with all the three inoculants. Considering individual inoculants, *Beijerinckia* performed better over the *Azotobacter* or *Bacillus megaterium*.

SEED bacterization with bacterial inoculants is well known to improve the plant growth and vigour of the plant in the early stages of the crop because of their role in nitrogen fixation and mineralization as well as release of phosphorus in soil by the introduced organisms (Mishutin, 1970, Dobereiner, 1974, Rangaswami, 1975). Bacterial fertilizers improved the yields of a wide range of crop plants, especially vegetables including tubers (Brown *et al.*, 1964, Brown, 1974; Shivappa shetty *et al.* 1976, Oblisami *et al.*, 1976 and 1977). The Western workers have reported that in case of potato the yield increase due to *Azotobacter* inoculation ranged 18-25 per cent (Rakhno and Ryys, 1963, Brown *et al.*, 1964, Volodin, 1969). However, no information is available on potato crop under South Indian conditions. The present paper deals with the performance of biofertilizers on potato crop grown under Nilgiris conditions.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A randomized, replicated field trial was conducted at the State Seed Farm Thummanatty, near Ootacamund, Nilgiris, Tamil Nadu, using Kufri Jothi variety of potato. The seed tubers were treated with peat soil based *Azotobacter* inoculant following the methods suggested (Oblisami *et al.*, 1977) and planted adopting a spacing of 40 × 40 cm. The recommended levels of fertilizers were applied (N P K = 75 150 75 kg/ha). The other bacterial inoculants *Beijerinckia*, *Bacillus megaterium* and combinations of either of the two or all the three bacterial inoculants were also applied similarly. The plot which received only the fertilizers and not bacterial inoculants served as control.

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The indole acetic acid production potential in the soil was estimated following the procedures detailed in the earlier report (Purushothaman *et al*, 1973) The phosphatase activity in the soils of the experimental plots was assessed as per the standard procedure The nitrogen and phosphorus contents of the soil samples from the experimental plot were estimated following the standard procedures (Bremner, 1960 , Jackson, 1962)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the effect of bacterial inoculants on the yield of potato tuber are presented in Table I Maximum yield of potato tubers (20 34 tonnes/ha)

TABLE I
Effect of bacterial inoculants on Kufri Jothi variety of potato

Treatment	Potato tuber yield (Tonnes/ha)	Percentage increase
No bacterial inoculant (control)	16 42	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	18 67	13 7
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	19 42	18 3
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	18 88	15 0
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	17 04	3 8
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	16 79	2 3
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	15 30	—
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	20 34	23 9

was recorded in the treatment receiving all the three inoculants, viz , *Azotobacter*, *Beijerinckia* and *Bacillus megaterium* giving 23 9 per cent increased yield over the uninoculated control Among the single inoculants, *Beijerinckia* gave an yield of 19 42 tonnes/ha followed by *Bacillus megaterium* and *Azotobacter* However, when two of the inoculants were employed there was not much increased in yield *Bacillus megaterium* seems to be not compatible with the other two inoculants When all the three inoculants are introduced simultaneously *Beijerinckia* and *Azotobacter* might have suppressed the effect of *B megaterium* and this needs further critical study The present results of the increased tuber yield of the potato due to bacterial inoculants is in conformity with the earlier reports of Western workers (Rakhno and Ryys, 1963 , Brown *et al* , 1964 , Volodin, 1969) The beneficial effect of the combined inoculants involving the three bacteria as observed in the present study is interesting and needs further critical assessment under varied soil and agro-climatic conditions.

The results on the total nitrogen, available phosphorus, phosphatase activity and IAA production potential in soil as influenced by the bacterial inoculants are presented in Tables II and III The maximum nitrogen content of

TABLE II

Effect of bacterial inoculants on total nitrogen and available phosphorus content of the potato field soil

Treatment	Total 'N'		Available 'P'	
	Per cent	% increase over control	kg/ha	% increase over control
No bacterial inoculant (control)	0 101	—	15 75	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	0 101	—	15 75	—
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	0 103	2 0	16 45	4 4
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	0 108	6 9	16 80	6 7
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	0 130	28 7	17 15	8 9
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 120	18 8	17 85	13 3
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 120	18 8	18 20	15 6
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 133	31 7	17 85	13 3

TABLE III

Effect of bacterial inoculants on phosphatase activity and IAA production potential of the potato field soil

Treatment	Phosphatase activity (Pyrogallol equivalents)		IAA content	
	mg/g soil	% increase over control	mg/g soil	% increase over control
No bacterial inoculant (control)	0 32	—	0 038	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	0 35	9 3	0 044	15 8
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	0 33	3 1	0 041	7 9
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	0 38	18 8	0 044	15 8
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	0 32	—	0 044	15 8
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 44	37 5	0 047	23 7
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 46	43 8	0 041	7 9
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B megaterium</i>	0 54	68 8	0 085	123 7

the soil was recorded in the soil receiving all the three inoculants followed by two inoculants series and individual series. So also IAA content of the soil treated with all three inoculants was maximum. The available phosphorus content of the soils receiving either two or three inoculants were better over single inoculant treatment. Also, the maximum phosphatase activity was exhibited in the soils receiving all the three inoculants.

The increased phosphatase activity in the soils receiving the inoculants is responsible for the increased available phosphorus content in the soil. Similarly the inoculants might have played a major role in the availability of increased nitrogen content which in turn might be responsible for the increased tuber yield. The present results corroborates the earlier reports (Mishustin 1970, Brown, 1974, Doberiner, 1974)

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Effect of Bacterization with Combined Inoculants on Carrot

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ABSTRACT

Bacterization of carrot seeds and soil application of *Azotobacter*, *Beijerinckia* and *Bacillus megaterium* either alone or in combinations resulted in significantly higher yields of tubers than the uninoculated control. *Beijerinckia* inoculant performed better in giving the maximum carrot yield. *Beijerinckia* and *B. megaterium* were compatible and better phosphatase activity and available phosphorus content were resulted. The total nitrogen and available phosphorus contents as well as phosphatase activity in the soil receiving all the three inoculants were better indicating their compatibility to bring out the benefits to the crop.

BACTERIZATION of vegetable seeds with *Azotobacter* inoculants is well known to result in a number of beneficial effects on the various vegetable crops like tomato, brinjal, cabbage, carrot etc (Mishustin *et al*, 1963, Brown *et al*, 1964, Patel, 1969, Mehrotra and Lehari, 1971, Oblisami *et al*, 1977). However, there seems to be no information available on the performance of *Azotobacter* inoculants as well as other bacterial inoculants on carrot under field conditions as existed in the Nilgiris. The effects of bacterization of carrot seeds and soil application with *Azotobacter* inoculant along with other bacterial inoculants like *Beijerinckia* sp, *Bacillus megaterium* on carrot and certain field soil characters are presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A randomized replicated field trial was conducted at the State Seed Farm, Thummanatty, near Ootacamund, Nilgiris, Tamil Nadu, using Danvers Half Long variety of carrot. The seeds were treated with peat soil based *Azotobacter* inoculant having approximately 3×10^3 viable *Azotobacter* cells per seed. Ten packets of *Azotobacter* inoculants (200g/pkt) were mixed with 10 kg of FYM and then mixed with 10 kg of soil to treat one hectare of land. The *Azotobacter*-FYM soil mixture was placed on the holes where the seeds were dibbled. The recommended levels of fertilizer were applied (N P K = 135 135 135 kg/ha) and adopting a spacing of 20 x 5 cm. The other bacterial inoculants like *Beijerinckia* and *B. megaterium* and the combinations of two or three bacterial inoculants were also applied similar to that of *Azotobacter* inoculants. The plot

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which did not receive any of the bacterial inoculants and only the recommended levels of fertilizers served a control.

The Indole acetic acid production potential in the soil was estimated following the procedure detailed by the earlier workers (Purushothaman *et al.*, 1973). The phosphatase activity in the soils from experimental plots was assessed as per the standard procedure. The soil samples were analysed for total nitrogen as well as available P contents following the standard procedures (Bremner, 1960 ; Jackson, 1962).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The effect of bacterial inoculants on the yield of carrot are presented in the Table I. Maximum yield of the carrots was recorded due to the treatment of

TABLE I
Effect of bacterial inoculants on Danvers Half Long variety of carrot

Treatment	Carrot yield (Tonnes/ha)	Per cent increase
No bacterial inoculant (control)	17.22	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	21.00	22.0
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	24.43	41.8
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	22.60	31.3
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	21.00	22.0
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	19.14	11.1
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	20.67	20.0
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	21.88	21.1

S.E : 3.50 C.D. at 5 per cent 7.40

Beijerinckia (24.4 tonnes/ha) while the minimum yield was recorded in the control plot being 17.2 tonnes/ha. The treatment receiving *B. megaterium* (phosphobacteria) gave the next best yield, followed by *Azotobacter* alone and the combinations of two bacterial cultures. When all the three bacterial inoculants were applied together, the performance was better than *Azotobacter* alone. The carrot yield increase varied from 11 to 42 per cent due to the activities of different bacterial inoculants employed.

The total nitrogen and available phosphorus content of the field soil after the harvest of the crop (Table II) exhibited considerable variation. The nitrogen content increased from 1.3 to 17.5 per cent, the maximum was recorded in the treatment containing all the three inoculants put together. Similarly the available phosphorus content showed an increase over the that of the control ; the increase varied from 16.3 to 73.5 per cent. Here again the maximum

TABLE II

Effect of bacterial inoculants on total nitrogen and available phosphorus content of the carrot field soil

Treatment	Total 'N'		Available 'P'	
	Per cent	% increase over control	kg/ha	% increase over control
No bacterial inoculant (control)	0.080	—	17.15	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	0.080	—	17.85	—
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	0.085	6.3	21.70	26.5
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	0.093	16.3	31.50	83.7
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	0.092	15.0	31.50	83.7
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	0.086	7.5	19.95	16.3
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	0.081	1.3	23.10	34.7
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	0.094	17.5	29.75	73.5

increase was recorded in the treatment receiving combination of all the three inoculants

The phosphatase activity in the soil samples indicated an increase ranging from 8.5 to 140.4 per cent. Maximum phosphatase activity was recorded in the treatment receiving all the three inoculants resulting in the content of available phosphorus at higher level. The IAA content of the soil samples indicated that the treatment receiving all the three bacterial inoculants contained the maximum IAA content (Table III)

TABLE III

Effect of bacterial inoculants on phosphatase activity and IAA production potential of the carrot field soil

Treatment	Phosphatase activity (pyrogallol equivalents)		IAA Content	
	mg/g soil	% increase over control	mg/g soil	% increase over control
No bacterial inoculant (control)	0.470	—	0.041	—
<i>Azotobacter</i>	0.570	21.3	0.050	22.0
<i>Beijerinckia</i>	0.510	8.5	0.050	22.0
<i>Bacillus megaterium</i>	0.720	53.2	0.050	22.0
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i>	0.570	21.3	0.041	—
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	0.570	21.3	0.077	87.8
<i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	0.670	42.6	0.044	7.3
<i>Azotobacter</i> + <i>Beijerinckia</i> + <i>B. megaterium</i>	1.130	140.4	0.066	61.0

The combination of all the three inoculants exhibited the maximum nitrogen content in the soil which might be due to the beneficial activities of all the three organisms either by way of excretion of fixed nitrogen into the environment or lysis of the cells (Mishustin, 1970, Brown, 1974, Dobereiner,

1974) The IAA content of the soils collected from treatments receiving combination of *Azotobacter* and *B. megaterium* (phosphobacteria) was better which might be due to the synergistic activity of these two organisms. *Beijerinckia* in the presence of other organisms seemed to inhibit the IAA production by the other two organisms, indicating the possibility of the non-compatible nature of *Beijerinckia* with the other two organisms. Similar studies were reported earlier on the role of IAA production potential of *Azotobacter* and other organisms in soils, phyllosphere and other ecosystems (Purushothaman *et al*, 1973, Bhaskaran *et al*, 1974, Oblisami *et al*, 1974). However, detailed studies are needed to establish the role of the synthesis of IAA in the rhizosphere and the growth characteristics of the plant systems resulting in a better tuber yield.

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Effect of Moisture and Temperature on the Survival of *Azotobacter* in Soil

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ABSTRACT

The effect of different levels of soil moisture and temperature on the survival of *Azotobacter* was studied up to a period of 120 days. The inoculated cells multiplied well at 60 per cent moisture level compared to at other levels. The population was more at 30°C than at 35 and 40°C.

INTRODUCTION

SEVERAL workers have reported on the effect of moisture (Dommergues, 1962, Lazarev, 1964 and Mahmoud and Ibrahim, 1971) and temperature (Green, 1932) on the survival of *Azotobacter* in soil. The results on the effect of different levels of moisture and temperature on the survival of *Azotobacter* inoculated into soil are reported in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

An efficient isolate (AU 3) of *Azotobacter* was inoculated into the sterile broth and grown on a rotary shaker. The broth was adjusted to 50 per cent transmittance by addition of distilled water, using Spectronic 20 at 495 m μ wave length. Well dried, powdered and sieved paddy field soil (100 g) was taken in bottles and sterilized for one hour at 20 lb pressure. To find out the effect of moisture on the survival of inoculated *Azotobacter* isolate, different levels of soil moisture viz, 20, 40, 60, 80 and 100 per cent were maintained in the bottles. Ten ml of the yeast extract mannitol broth culture of *Azotobacter*, multiplied in shake culture was aseptically added to the sterilized soil in each bottle. The bottles were incubated at room temperature for 120 days. Moisture levels were maintained throughout the period of study by periodically weighing the bottles and adding the required quantity of sterile distilled water.

To find out the effect of temperature on the survival of inoculated *Azotobacter* in soil, 30, 35 and 40°C temperature levels were chosen. The bottles were inoculated as detailed earlier and incubated in incubators at the above mentioned temperature levels up to 120 days. The soil was maintained at flooded condition during the period of study.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In the present study the population of the inoculated *Azotobacter* cells increased up to 20th day at all the soil moisture levels, excepting at 20 per cent level and declined thereafter. However, from the initial inoculum of 24.0×10^3 cells/g of soil, a population of 2.0×10^3 cells/g of soil survived up to 120th day (Table I). Dommergues (1964) noted that cultures of *Azotobacter* from tropical

TABLE I
Effect of moisture on the survival of inoculated Azotobacter† in soil
(Population expressed in 10^3 /g of soil)

Moisture per cent	Sampling time in days					
	20	40	60	80	100	120
20	22.5	12.0	6.5	4.0	2.5	2.0
40	30.0	20.0	10.5	6.5	4.5	2.5
60	53.0	24.0	16.5	11.5	10.0	9.0
80	37.0	20.5	10.0	7.0	5.5	5.5
100	34.5	11.0	8.5	5.5	3.5	3.0

† Initial inoculum 24.0×10^3 /g of soil

regions tolerate drying best. Among the different moisture levels tested, the inoculated *Azotobacter* survived better at 60 per cent level. The population was maximum in 120th day sampling at the above moisture level. Mahmoud and Ibrahim (1971) reported that the optimum level of moisture for the growth and proliferation of *Azotobacter* was at 52 to 70 per cent of water holding capacity in clay loam soil.

At 30°C the initial inoculum level was found to maintain up to 20th day, and declined thereafter and at 120th day sampling 0.5×10^3 cells/g of soil survived. At 35 and 40°C the population declined at all the sampling periods and the survival was up to 100 and 80 days only, respectively (Table II). The

TABLE II
Effect of temperature on the survival of inoculated Azotobacter† in soil
(Population expresses 10^3 /g of soil)

Temperature	Sampling time in days					
	20	40	60	80	100	120
30 C	25.0	18.0	6.0	2.5	2.0	0.5
35 C	17.0	9.0	4.0	2.0	0.5	—
40 C	13.0	8.0	4.0	1.0	—	—

† Initial inoculum 24.0×10^3 /g of soil

results in the present study clearly revealed that the population of inoculated *Azotobacter* of paddy soil can tolerate relatively high soil temperatures for a considerable period. Green (1932) established that the *Azotobacter* from soils of Arizona desert fixes no less nitrogen at 40°C than at 30°C.

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Effect of Decomposed Wheat Straw Incorporation on Asymbiotic Nitrogen Fixation by *Azotobacter*

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ABSTRACT

The incorporation of partially decomposed wheat straw into broth medium showed varied effects on nitrogen fixation by *Azotobacter*. In some cases nitrogen fixation was favoured, whereas in others it was adversely affected. In general, incorporation of two per cent wheat straw favoured nitrogen fixation.

INTRODUCTION

A maximum quantity of asymbiotically fixed nitrogen is contributed by *Azotobacter* depending on the availability of carbon source. In tropical countries like India, where the maintenance of soil organic matter is a problem, the survival and multiplication of *Azotobacter* becomes difficult. Gaur *et al* (1968, 71) observed that addition of wheat straw alone in soil increased *Azotobacter* population appreciably. The effect of incorporation of wheat straw

(decomposed by different microorganisms) in broth culture on nitrogen fixation by Azotobacter is presented in this paper

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Wheat straw decomposed by different microorganisms (Wani and Shinde, 1977, 1979) was used in the present investigation. The wheat straw was analysed for its organic carbon, total nitrogen, phosphorus and potash contents by following standard procedures (Jackson, 1973). Fifty millilitres of nitrogen-free Jensen's broth medium was distributed in each of 250 ml capacity conical flasks. Wheat straw from different treatments was incorporated in broth medium at one per cent and two per cent levels. The sterilized flasks were inoculated with Azotobacter and then incubated at room temperature ($30 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) for 21 days under stationary conditions. At the end of incubation period, total nitrogen content of broth culture was determined by macrokjeldhal method. The nitrogen fixed by Azotobacter per 50 ml of broth culture was calculated by subtracting the amount of nitrogen present in decomposed straw from total nitrogen content of broth culture.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The analysis of straw decomposed by different microorganisms (Table I) indicated that treatments vary in their organic carbon, total nitrogen, available

TABLE I
Analysis of the decomposed wheat straw

Treatment	Organic carbon	Total Nitrogen	Mineral N (mg/100g)	Phosphorus (mg/100g)	Potash (mg/100g)
<i>Serratia kiliensis</i>	17.25	895	26.47	4.69	92.40
<i>Cytophaga rubra-I</i>	20.25	915	24.21	5.37	118.07
<i>Cytophaga rubra-II</i>	14.25	825	30.50	6.15	82.28
<i>Bacillus maceians-I</i>	18.00	925	33.11	3.90	117.52
<i>Cytophaga rubra-III</i>	18.75	1030	38.54	3.32	119.96
<i>Bacillus macerans II</i>	18.00	875	20.36	3.99	125.18
<i>Cytophaga rubra IV</i>	21.00	1050	42.26	3.25	141.67
<i>Cellulomonas uda</i>	18.00	950	15.72	3.05	68.14
<i>Pencillum</i> sp	17.25	760	17.48	7.32	214.45
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp I	21.75	1010	24.79	2.71	69.97
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp II	15.00	880	53.73	4.99	128.00
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp III	18.50	885	29.76	4.28	102.14
Composite culture	15.75	875	14.62	2.10	201.30
Undecomposed straw	36.00	450	—	—	—

phosphorus and potash contents. The organic carbon content of straw used varied from 14.62 to 36.00 per cent and mineral nitrogen content varied from 14.62 to 57.73 mg per 100 g of straw.

The response of *Azotobacter* to fix atmospheric nitrogen varied in different treatments. A maximum increase of 134.02 per cent nitrogen over control was recorded in *Azotobacter* inoculated broth containing straw decomposed by *Penicillium* sp. at two per cent level. The treatments where one per cent straw was incorporated, six out of 14 treatments showed positive increase in nitrogen fixation by *Azotobacter*, whereas remaining eight treatments showed negative response over control. About 85.56 per cent increase in the amount of nitrogen fixed over control was recorded wherein, the carbon content of straw was less than half of the undecomposed straw. On the other hand, 75.25 per cent reduction in the amount of nitrogen fixed was recorded in *Cytophaga rubra* IV at one per cent level, where organic carbon content was higher than in treatments showing positive response. There was an inverse relationship existing between mineral nitrogen and nitrogen fixation. The treatment showing

TABLE II

Effect of decomposed wheat straw incorporation on nitrogen fixation by *Azotobacter* in vitro
(Data represent the average of two replications)

Treatment	1 per cent straw		2 per cent straw	
	Amount of N ₂ fixed (mg/100ml broth)	% increase over control	Amount of N ₂ fixed (mg/100 ml broth)	% increase over control
<i>Serratia kiliensis</i>	23.80	22.68	26.50	38.65
<i>Cytophaga rubra I</i>	20.60	11.34	29.50	52.06
<i>Cytophaga rubra II</i>	17.00	-12.37	26.60	37.11
<i>Bacillus macerans I</i>	12.30	-36.59	14.60	-24.74
<i>Cytophaga rubra III</i>	27.30	40.72	8.40	-56.70
<i>Bacillus macerans II</i>	16.60	-14.43	17.60	-11.34
<i>Cytophaga rubra IV</i>	4.80	-75.25	12.80	-38.14
<i>Cellulomonas uda</i>	10.10	-55.15	25.60	31.95
<i>Penicillium</i> sp.	31.80	63.91	45.40	134.02
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. I	15.30	-21.13	14.40	-25.77
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. II	13.80	-28.86	38.40	100.00
<i>Aspergillus</i> sp. III	11.90	-38.65	26.00	34.02
Composite culture	36.00	85.56	20.40	5.15
Undecomposed straw*	19.40	—	23.00	18.53
Control	18.00	—	—	—
	Cal 'F' value	—	826.25**	
	C D at 1 per cent	—	1.27	

Note * = Considered as control for calculating percentage increase

maximum amount of nitrogen fixed, had lowest content of mineral nitrogen. This correlation holds good in all treatments where one per cent straw was incorporated except *C. rubra* III, *Bacillus macerans*, and *Cellulomonas uda* treatments. However, this did not hold good when two per cent straw was incorporated. The fact that biologically decomposed wheat straw favoured or inhibited the nitrogen fixation by *Azotobacter* indicated that probably straw decomposing microorganisms synthesized a variety of substances during the process of degradation and these substances had varied effects on the nitrogen fixing ability of *Azotobacter*. The presence of toxic substances in most crop plant residues have been reported by various workers (Borner, 1960, Guenzi and McCalla, 1964, Guenzi *et al*, 1967 and Patrick and Koch, 1963). In general, incorporation of two per cent straw gave better results than one per cent straw.

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Nitrogen Fixation by *Azotobacter* Occurring in the Rhizosphere of Certain Tropical Plant Species

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ABSTRACT

The distribution of *Azotobacter* in the rhizosphere of sixteen grass species and eight weed plant species (C_4 plants) has been examined and compared with that of some crop plants (C_3 plants). There was not much difference in the rhizosphere effect for *Azotobacter* between the two groups of plants. However, the *Azotobacter* isolate from C_4 plants recorded greater N-fixing ability than the C_3 isolates. Seed inoculation of rice seeds with *Azotobacter* of C_4 plant species resulted in better growth of radicle and plumule than that observed with C_3 isolate. When the isolates were tested in a field trial with the rice variety, Vaigai (Co 37) C_4 isolate gave more grain yield than the C_3 isolate.

THE luxuriant growth of certain tropical grasses and weeds like *Cynodon dactylon*, *Cyperus rotundus* and *Digitaria* sp even under extremely poor soil conditions is known to be at least in part, due to the association of efficient nitrogen fixing microorganisms in their root system (Dobereiner and Day, 1974, Day *et al*, 1975, Purushothaman *et al*, 1976). Several species of free-living nitrogen fixing microorganisms like *Azotobacter*, *Klebsiella*, *Derxia* and *Beijerinckia* have been recognised in the root environments of the plants (Dart, 1976, Tjepkema and Burris, 1976). Recently, Barber and Evans (1976) observed that as much as 3-10 g of N fixation/ha/day in the root environment of the grass, *Digitaria sanguinalis*. Though they were unable to fix up the identity of the organisms implicated, suggested that they closely resembled the members of the family, *Azotobacteriaceae*.

Strangely enough these grass species and weeds exhibit a mechanism of CO_2 fixation quite distinct from the conventional Calvin photosynthetic (C_3) pathway. Plant physiologists admit that the C_4 pathway of CO_2 fixation is an ecological adaptation in plants helping them to grow efficiently even in regions of higher temperature and light intensity with the limited availability of water (Hatch and Slack, 1970). In as much as the very physiology of C_4 plant species is distinctly different from that of C_3 plants in respect of CO_2 fixation it is reasonable to expect subtle qualitative and quantitative differences in the root surface microflora and nitrogen fixing microorganisms in particular. A few investigators (Dobereiner *et al*, 1972), Paul *et al* (1971) and Raju *et al* (1972)

have already come out with valuable information on the fixation of nitrogen in the root surface of grasses. The distribution of *Azotobacter* and their activities in the rhizosphere of certain C₃ and C₄ plant species are presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sixteen species of grasses and eight species of dicotyledonous weeds (C₄ plants) growing in wilderness were identified at the Tamil Nadu Agricultural University Campus. Eight species of crop plants like cotton, tomato, chillies representing the C₃ group plants were also selected. The rhizosphere soil samples of these plant species were carefully collected from their natural habitats following standard microbiological techniques (Pramer and Schmidt, 1966). For each plant species, the non-rhizosphere soils were also collected to arrive at the "rhizosphere effect".

The distribution of *Azotobacter* in the rhizosphere as well as the non-rhizosphere soil samples was determined following the standard dilution plate technique using Waksman No 77 agar medium. *Azotobacter* colonies from the rhizosphere samples of the plants were carefully transferred to Waksman 77 agar slants and maintained. Only those colonies exhibiting distinctly different morphological characteristics alone were picked up.

The isolates of *Azotobacter* were tested for their N-fixing capacity under laboratory conditions following the procedure detailed earlier (Purushothaman *et al.*, 1976). For preparing the inoculum, the isolates were grown in Burks liquid medium (Aaronson, 1970) for three days, under shake culture conditions. A standardised inoculum of 0.1 ml cell suspension (Ca 3×10^8 /ml) was added to 100 ml of Waksman 77 broth (devoid of calcium carbonate) taken in 250 Ehrlenmeyer flasks. The flasks were incubated over a rotary shaker at room temperature ($28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) for 7 days. From representative aliquots withdrawn from the flasks, the total nitrogen content was determined in a micro Kjeldhal apparatus (Bremner, 1960).

Surface sterilised seeds of the rice varieties Bhavani and Vaigai (Co 37) were inoculated with a heavy suspension of *Azotobacter* cells (Ca 10^9 cells/seed) and the seeds were air dried. The seeds were allowed to germinate between folds of moistened filter paper rolled in the form of cylinders (Anon 1966). The cylinders were placed in an upright position in darkness for five days after which the growth of plumule and radicle was measured. Seeds soaked in water served as control.

At the wet lands of the Tamil Nadu Agricultural University a field trial was laid out during October-December, 1976 with the rice variety, Vaigai. The efficient *Azotobacter* isolate from C₃ (AB 3) and C₄ (Cyp 3) plants were used.

These cultures were separately multiplied and processed into peat soil based inoculants. It was applied as seed, seedling and soil inoculant. It was a randomized block design with plot size being 6 × 2 m. At five levels of nitrogen viz, 0, 25, 50, 75 and 100 per cent of the recommended dose and with a standard level of P₂O₅ 30 kg/ha and K₂O 30 kg/ha the trial was conducted.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The occurrence of *Azotobacter* was noted in all the crop species examined. Between the C₃ and C₄ plants the rhizosphere effect for *Azotobacter* is not very much distinctly pronounced (Tables I and II).

TABLE I
Rhizosphere effect for Azotobacter in C₄ plant species

Plant species	Rhizosphere effect
<i>Cynodon dactylon</i>	2.60
<i>Cyperus rotundus</i>	1.80
<i>Zea mays</i>	3.50
<i>Sorghum vulgare</i>	2.60
<i>Brachiaria mutica</i>	2.84
<i>Panicum maximum</i>	2.86
<i>Pennisetum purpureum</i>	2.80
<i>Chloris barbata</i>	3.05
<i>Panicum repens</i>	2.80
<i>Panicum antidotale</i>	2.70
<i>Cenchrus ciliaris</i>	4.20
<i>Paspalum weetsonia</i>	3.20
<i>Setaria italica</i>	3.80
<i>Echinochloa sp</i>	3.60
<i>Digitaria margnata</i>	4.80
<i>Saccharum officinarum</i>	3.10
<i>Amaranthus viridis</i>	4.50
<i>Amaranthus spinosa</i>	3.20
<i>Amaranthus quadrifoliata</i>	4.00
<i>Amaranthus pentaphylla</i>	2.10
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i>	2.60
<i>Portulaca tuberosa</i>	2.60
<i>Mollugo oppositifolia</i>	1.20
<i>Alternanthera sessilis</i>	3.6

There existed wide differences between the C₃ isolates and C₄ isolates in respect of N-fixation. In general the C₄ isolates exhibited greater N-fixing ability than the C₃ isolates. While most isolates of C₃ plant species recorded on an average 18 mg of N/g of carbon source, the C₃ isolates could fix only 8-10 mg of N/g of carbon source.

TABLE II
Rhizosphere effect for Azotobacter in certain C₃ plants

Plant species	Rhizosphere effect
<i>Oryza sativa</i> var Bhavani	4.6
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	4.8
<i>Capsicum annum</i>	2.6
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	3.2
<i>Solanum melongena</i>	3.8
<i>Phaseolus aureus</i>	2.6
<i>Phaseolus mungo</i>	1.8
<i>Vigna catjang</i>	3.6

TABLE III
Nitrogen fixation by different isolates of Azotobacter from C⁴ plant species

Plant species	Isolate No	N-fixation (mg of N/g of mannite)
1	2	3
<i>Panicum maximum</i> Jacq	pm 1	11.50
	pm 2	12.60
	pm 3	18.60
<i>Panicum repens</i> L	Pr 1	22.40
	Pr 2	18.20
<i>Panicum antidotale</i> Retz	Pa 1	12.60
	Pa 2	18.20
<i>Paspalum weetsonia</i>	Pw 1	18.26
	Pw 2	22.00
	Pw 3	16.40
<i>Pennisetum purpureum</i> Sch	Pp 1	11.40
	Pp 2	24.80
	Pp 3	20.00
<i>Chloris barbata</i> Sw	Cb 1	22.10
	Cb 2	16.20
<i>Cenchrus ciliaris</i> L	Cc 1	8.60
	Cc 2	18.20
	Cc 3	19.60
<i>Echinochloa</i> sp Beaur	Ech 1	17.00
	Ech 2	21.40
	Ech 3	18.20
<i>Digitaria marginata</i> Link	Dig 1	22.60
	Dig 2	24.00
	Dig 3	18.20
<i>Setaria italica</i> Beaur	Si 1	16.80
	Si 2	20.00

1	2	3
<i>Amaranthus viridis</i> L	Am v 1	19 60
	Am v 2	22 40
	Am v 3	19 80
	Am v 4	22 40
<i>Amaranthus spinosus</i>	Am sp 1	18 60
	Am sp 2	21 60
	Am sp 3	22 00
<i>Amaranthus pentaphylla</i>	Am p 1	18 50
	Am p 2	16 50
	Am p 3	31 50
<i>Amaranthus quadrifoliata</i>	Am q 1	12 60
	Am q 2	16 20
	Am q 3	18 50
	Am q 4	21 60
	Am q 5	18 20
<i>Portulaca tuberosa</i> Roxb	P tub 1	19 50
	P tub 2	20 10
	P tub 3	23 60
<i>Portulaca oleracea</i> L	P ole 1	17 10
	P ole 2	12 00
	P ole 3	14 20
	P ole 4	32 00
<i>Mollugo oppositifolia</i> L	Mol 1	8 20
	Mol 2	14 60
<i>Alternanthera sessilia</i>	Alt 1	18 20
	Alt 2	17 18
	Alt 3	20 00
<i>Zea mays</i> L	Zm 1	16 80
	Zm 2	12 80
	Zm 3	17 20
<i>Sorghum vulgare</i> Pers	Sorg 1	21 00
	Sorg 2	12 00

The result of the studies made on the influence of seed inoculation with *Azotobacter* on seedling growth are presented in Table V. Both the rice varieties responded well to *Azotobacter* inoculation. The growth of plumule and radicle in both Bhavan1 and Vaigai varieties was significantly more in C₄ isolate treated seeds when compared to the C₃ isolates treated seeds.

The grain yields obtained from the field study of *Azotobacter* isolates are set out in Table VI. Though the yield increase in grains due to C₄ plant isolate (Cyp 3) was not statistically significant, increase in yield was found in all the

TABLE IV
Nitrogen fixation by Azotobacter isolates from C₃ plant species

Plant species	Isolate No	N-fixation (mg of N/g mannite)
<i>Oryza sativa</i> L	Ab 1	16 80
	Ab 3	17 60
	Ab 6	8 60
	Ab 9	15 60
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	Gh 1	7 60
	Gh 2	8 20
	Gh 3	8 60
<i>Capsicum annum</i>	Ca 1	9 50
	Ca 2	9 00
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i>	Le 1	6 40
	Le 2	9 20
	Le 3	11 00
<i>Solanum melongena</i>	Sm 1	6 80
	Sm 2	12 40
	Sm 3	16 20
<i>Phaseolus aureus</i>	Ph a 1	12 40
	Ph a 2	8 40
<i>Phaseolus mungo</i>	Ph m 1	12 00
	Ph m 2	6 40
<i>Vigna catjang</i>	Vig 1	6 40
	Vig 2	12 60

TABLE V
Effect of seed Inoculation with Azotobacter on the seedling growth of rice varieties

Source of Azotobacter	Bhavani		Vaigai	
	Plumule	radicle	Plumule	radicle
C ₃ isolates*	12 3	30 5	16 2	42 3
C ₄ isolates*	15 8	38 6	26 1	51 8
Water-control	8 6	26 5	15 6	31 60

Data represent average of 25 seedlings measured five days after germination
*Average values of 10-isolates in each group

treatments where C₄ isolate was used. The yield difference was more pronounced at 75 per cent and 100 per cent N levels than at lower levels of nitrogen.

Dobreiner and Campelo (1971) have indicated that *Azotobacter paspali* occurring in the rhizosphere of tropical grass were more efficient in N-fixation. Subsequently, Dobreiner *et al* (1972) at Rhothamsted computed that as much as 100 kg of N/ha/year has been fixed by *A. paspali* in the rhizosphere of *Paspalum notatum*.

TABLE VI

Influence of Azotobacter Inoculation (C₃ and C₄ Plant Isolates) on the grain yield of the rice variety, Vaigai (Co 37) (kg/ha)

Nitrogen level	Without	Azotobacter	Azotobacter
	Azotobacter inoculation	isolate (AB 3) from C ₃ plant inoculation	isolate (Cyp 3) from C ₄ plant inoculation
0 per cent	2133	2767	2233
25 per cent	3066	3267	3260
50 per cent	3175	3517	3670
75 per cent	3283	3678	3833
100 per cent	3383	3717	3975

In the present study, all the plant species harboured Azotobacter in their rhizosphere, the rhizosphere effect (R/S ratio) for Azotobacter between the C₃ and C₄ plants indicated not much quantitative variation in their respective habitats rather than under identical environmental condition.

Compared to the isolates of C₃ plants all the C₄ isolates exhibited, a greater N-fixing ability 18-20 mg of N/g of carbon source excepting the isolate Cc 1 from *Cenchrus ciliaris*. It is perhaps these efficient N-fixing organisms in the rhizosphere that sustain plant growth even in adverse environments and is amply supported by earlier workers (Dobreiner, 1974, Dart, 1976, Tjepkema and Burris, 1976).

Plants using the C₄ type of CO₂ assimilation obviously possess a rapid rate of photosynthesis, more dry matter production, and highest growth rate in the world (Black, 1973). The C₄ plants species are thought to translocate more of their carbohydrates to the roots and to exude more in their rhizosphere (Dart, 1976). These exuded sugars serve as better energy source for *Azotobacter* activity. Seed inoculation of paddy with Azotobacter from the C₄ plants promoted better growth of radicle and plumule than the C₃ plant isolates. The growth promoting effect may be due to (i) better N-fixing capacity of the isolates or (ii) the synthesis of growth promoting substances like IAA, GA etc; or (iii) a cumulative effect of both. The results of the field trial did not bring out any appreciable difference between these isolates. Whenever C₄ isolates was employed, there was increase in grain yield but it was not statistically significant. The establishment, activity and competitive survival in the rhizosphere of rice needs to be understood.

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Biochemical Comparison of *Azotobacter* Isolates from C₃ and C₄ Plant species

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ABSTRACT

A comparative study has been made between the *Azotobacter* isolates of C₃ and C₄ plant species. The respiratory activity of the C₄ isolates are far more greater than that of C₃ isolates. A C₄ isolate from *Cyperus rotundus* preferred xylose, malate and succinate for maximum growth, while the C₃ isolate from *Oryza sativa* preferred mannitol and glucose. As regards the ammonia assimilating enzyme, GDH, there is not much difference among the two groups of isolates, however, the C₄ isolates recorded greater activity of GOI than that of C₃ isolates.

It has been amply illustrated that the luxuriant growth of certain weeds and tropical grasses even in nitrogen poor soils might be due to the occurrence of active species of nitrogen fixing organisms (Paul *et al*, 1971). Though quite a large number of microorganisms have been implicated in the process of nitrogen fixation at the root environments, the work on *Azotobacter*, *Spirillum*, *Derxia* and *Beijerinckia* seems significant (Raju *et al*, 1972, Dobereiner, 1974, Dart and Day, 1976). A spate of papers has been published in recent years on the nitrogen fixing activity of *Azotobacter* associated with the tropical grasses (Dobereiner and Day, 1974, Tjepkema and BURRIS, 1976). Recently, Purushothaman *et al* (1976) observed subtle differences in the nitrogen fixing capacities of *Azotobacter* isolated from C₃ and C₄ plant species. In the present communication, a few biochemical comparisons have been made between *Azotobacter* isolates of C₃ and C₄ plants.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Sources of Azotobacter isolates The *Azotobacter* isolates used in the present study have been obtained from the culture collections of the Microbiology Laboratory, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore. All the cultures were maintained on Waksman 77 agar slants.

Utilization of carbon compounds by Azotobacter To find out the differences, if any, among the *Azotobacter* isolates in respect of carbon compounds utilized, Waksman 77 liquid culture was prepared and several carbon sources were used to replace mannitol. Only two isolates, one from C₃ plant (AB 3) and another from C₄ plant (Cyp 3) were chosen for the study. The flasks containing the sterilized media devoid of CaCO₃ were inoculated with the cell suspension of

the isolate and incubated for 7 days at room temperature ($28 \pm 1^\circ\text{C}$) over a rotary shaker. The biomass (cell growth) was determined by transferring an aliquot of the broth and drying it at 105°C for 8 hours.

Respiratory activity of the Azotobacter isolates Relatively young cultures (3 days old) of the organisms grown in Waksman 77 liquid medium was taken for this purpose. The respiratory activity was followed in a Warburg respirometer (Umbreit *et al.*, 1958). The reaction mixture contained 2.0 ml of the cell suspension, 1.0 ml of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 7.0) in the reaction chamber and 0.2 ml of 40 per cent KOH in the centre well with a filter paper strip. Oxygen consumption was determined for a period of 60 min.

Determination of Glutamate Dehydrogenase, GDH (E C 1.4.1.4) and Glutamate oxaloacetate transaminase, GOT (E C 2.6.1.1)

Three days old cultures of *Azotobacter* isolates, nine from each C_3 and C_4 group of plants were used for enzyme assay. After harvesting and washing the cells with 0.25 M sucrose, they were subjected to sonication at 100 mA for 6 minutes in the Vibronics Sonicator. During sonication the cell suspension was kept in an ice bath. The homogenate was centrifuged at 8000 rpm in an IEC refrigerated centrifuge and the supernatant was used as the enzyme source for determining GDH and GOT activity. GDH was estimated by the colorimetric method of King as described by Bergmeyer (1974) substituting NADPH instead of NADH, GOT activity as per the 2,4, dinitrophenyl hydrazine colorimetric estimation of Reitman and Frankel described by Bergmeyer (1974) and protein was by the method of Lowry *et al.* (1951).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Azotobacter species occurring in the root environments of tropical grasses are recognised to be efficient in nitrogen fixation (Tjekema and Burris, 1976). Surprisingly enough the tropical plant species so far investigated fall under the group of C_4 type plants except rice (Dart and Day, 1976) exhibiting altogether a different pathway of CO_2 fixation (Hatch and Slack 1970). It has been shown that a number of *Azotobacter* isolates from C_4 plant species fixed more nitrogen than that of the isolates from C_3 plants (Purushothaman and Dhanapal, 1977). It has been admitted by plant physiologists that C_4 plants are characterized by a rapid rate of CO_2 assimilation, more dry matter production and highest growth rate. As the CO_2 assimilation pathway is different, the root exudates of C_4 plants will also be different.

Utilization of different carbon sources by *Azotobacter* isolates are depicted in Table I. The isolate Cyp 3 isolated from *Cyperus rotundus*, preferred for its proliferation and N-fixation carbon sources like xylose, malate and succinate,

TABLE I
Utilization of carbon compounds by *Azotobacter* from C₃ and C₄ Plants
(Data represent the mean of two estimations)

Carbon source	Biomass (mg/g of Carbon Source)	
	Isolate AB 3 (C ₃ isolate)	Isolate Cyp 3 (C ₄ isolate)
Acetate	0 480	0 750
Pyruvate	0 460	0 820
Malate	0 230	1 480
Succinate	0 560	1 230
Glucose	0 860	0 962
Xylose	0 530	1 530
Mannitol	1 860	1 170
Lactose	0 230	0 670
Raffinose	0 430	1 030
Rhamnose	0 260	0 350

TABLE II
Respiratory activity of *Azotobacter* from C₃ and C₄ plant species
(Data represent the mean of two determinations)

Isolates from	(μ l of oxygen consumed/g of cell)
C ₃ plants	
AB 1	180 0
AB 2	196 0
AB 3	165 0
Gh 1	260 0
GH 2	203 0
Ca 1	265 0
Ca 2	420 0
Le 1	430 0
Le 2	290 0
C ₄ plants	
Am v 4	800 0
Bm 3	760 0
Cyp 1	912 0
Cyp 3	915 0
P tub 3	860 0
Zm 3	1100 0
Sorg 1	620 0
P ole 4	560 0
Am P 3	720 0

whereas the isolate AB₃ isolated from *Oryza sativa* accumulated maximum biomass in mannitol and glucose to a large extent. Xylose has been reported to be present in the root exudates (Balasubramanian and Rangaswami, 1973) and

malate is the key compound in the C₄ pathway from which succinate could easily be synthesized in the plants. The isolates from C₄ plants may be distinctly different in their physiology and this may be the reason for their selective colonization and proliferation in the rhizosphere of C₄ plant species.

The respiratory activity of the two groups of *Azotobacter* isolates is presented in Table II. While the isolates of C₃ plants registered a low rate of oxygen consumption, that of the C₄ plants have exceedingly higher rate of oxygen consumption. The higher rate of respiration may be one of the reasons for high nitrogenase activity by way of scavenging excess oxygen which might otherwise be inhibiting the oxygen labile nitrogenase (Postgate, 1974).

The comparative activity of GDH and GOT in *Azotobacter* isolates are illustrated in Table III. Though there is no marked difference in GDH activity between the isolates from C₃ and C₄ plants, isolates from C₄ plants registered more activity of GOT than the isolates from C₃ plants. As there is difference in GOT activity, the enzyme responsible for the utilization of assimilated nitrogen, the difference in the capacity of assimilation of fixed nitrogen between

TABLE III
Activity of Glutamate Dehydrogenase (GDH) and Glutamic Oxaloacetic Transaminase (GOT) in *Azotobacter* Isolates from C₃ and C₄ plant species
(Data represent the mean of three determinations)

Isolates from	GDH activity (X 10 ⁻¹)	GOT activity (X 10 ⁻³)
C ₃ plants		
AB 1	4.1	20
AB 2	1.4	61
AB 3	1.7	83
Gh 1	2.2	37
GH 2	14.8	20
Ca 1	1.8	25
Ca 2	2.1	39
Le 1	33.0	50
Le 2	13.0	15
C ₄ plants		
Am v 4	5.6	524
Bm 3	4.1	261
Cyp 3	10.0	250
Cyd 3	17.0	436
P tub 3	6.6	132
Zm 3	32.0	150
Sorg 1	6.1	95
P ole 4	4.2	120
Am P 3	7.2	135

these two groups may lie in the coupled reactions catalysed by glutamine synthetase (GS) and glutamate synthase (GOGAT) as this pathway seems to be predominantly involved in the assimilation of N_2 in most of the N_2 fixing organisms than that of the GDH pathway (Nayatan₁ *et al* , 1971)

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Influence of Foliar Application of Chemicals on the *Azotobacter* Population in the Rhizospheres of *Sorghum vulgare* and *Crotalaria juncea*

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ABSTRACT

Azotobacter population in the rhizospheres of sorghum (*Sorghum vulgare* Pers) and sunnhemp (*Crotalaria juncea* Linn) was maximum when the plants were 75 days old, nearing maturity and minimum at 15 days growth. The foliar spray treatments with 2, 4-D and sodium nitrate reduced the *Azotobacter* population significantly while disodium hydrogen phosphate and dithane Z-78 treatments increased the population in the rhizospheres of both the crop plants. The changes in the *Azotobacter* populations are attributed to the altered root exudations of amino acids due to the foliar chemical treatments.

Azotobacter spp are free-living soil microorganisms that are known to fix atmospheric nitrogen. They have also been reported to colonize the rhizosphere of cultivated plants in appreciable numbers (Vancura and Macura, 1961, Bagyaraj and Rangaswami, 1972). However, the ecology and the role of *Azotobacter* in the plant rhizosphere is not clearly understood. Patel and Brown (1969) observed in wheat rhizosphere, that the numbers of antagonists to *Azotobacter* increased considerably with increasing plant age with parallel decrease in *Azotobacter* numbers in the rhizosphere. While Barea and Brown (1974) observed no nitrogen fixation by *A. paspali* in the rhizosphere of *Paspalum notatum*, but found several growth promoting substances. Day *et al* (1975) reported considerable fixation of nitrogen by *A. paspali* in association with *P. notatum* roots. In this paper, changes in the population of *Azotobacter* in the rhizosphere of two cultivated plant species, viz, *Sorghum vulgare* Pers and *Crotalaria juncea* Linn as influenced by foliar application of chemicals are reported.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Plant culture Surface sterilized, healthy seeds of sorghum (Co 4 variety) and sunnhemp (local) were sown in cement troughs (50 cm × 35 cm × 25 cm) filled with Hebbal red sandy loam soil (pH 6.6 and 0.48 per cent organic carbon). Twenty seeds were sown in each trough leaving equal space between the seeds. At least 12 plants were maintained in each trough with four troughs under each treatment. The soil moisture was adjusted every alternate day to 60 per cent of

the maximum water holding capacity and the troughs were maintained under identical conditions in green house

Foliar spray treatment The following foliar spray treatments were given to the plants (i) sodium nitrate, at 0.1 per cent, (ii) disodium hydrogen phosphate, at 0.1 per cent, (iii) 2, 4-D (2, 4 dichlorophenoxy acetic acid), at 25 ppm, (iv) Dithane Z-78 (Zinc ethylene bis dithio carbamate), at 250 ppm, and (v) distilled water (control)

Sufficient volume of the chemical solutions were sprayed on the foliage following the same procedure as described by Balasubramanian and Rangaswami (1973) The foliar spray treatments were started when the plants were 15 days old and were repeated at 20, 25, 30, 45 and 75 days age However, enumeration of the rhizosphere samples was carried out after 36 to 48 hrs after the foliar treatments on 30, 45 and 75 days only

Enumeration of Azotobacter in the rhizosphere soil *Azotobacter* population in the rhizosphere and non-rhizosphere soils was enumerated by the dilution plate method on Waksman's medium No 77 The populations were calculated on the basis of one g of moisture free sample and the rhizosphere soil (R/S) ratio was also computed

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The populations of *Azotobacter* in the rhizospheres of sorghum and sunnhemp plants at different stages of growth are presented in Table I Sorghum rhizosphere harboured more number of *Azotobacter* than sunnhemp at all the stages of plant growth, however, the maximum population was observed on the 75th day and the minimum on the 15th day in both the plant species The

TABLE I
Changes in *Azotobacter* population in the rhizospheres of sorghum and sunnhemp plants at different stages of growth

Age of plant (days)	Sorghum		Sunnhemp		Soil (10 ² /g)
	Population* (10 ² /g)	R S ratio	Population* (10 ² /g)	R S ratio	
15	1.75	1.73	0.60	—	0.72
30	2.10	1.29	1.42	—	1.62
45	1.50	2.77	0.72	1.33	0.54
75	4.75	2.50	3.16	1.66	1.90

* Data significant at 1% level

Critical difference Plant species at 1% level — 0.100
Plant age — 0.116
Interaction — 0.201

variations in the *Azotobacter* population at different stages of plant growth are in accordance with the observations of Bagyaraj and Rangaswami (1973) in ragi (*Eleusine coracana*) plants. The R/S ratio was also more in sorghum plants than in sunnhemp. No rhizosphere effect was observed upto 30 days of plant growth in sunnhemp while an increase in R/S ratio was observed later with the growth of the plant.

The rhizosphere effect on this organism has been reported to vary with the soil type, plant species and stage of plant growth (Brown *et al*, 1962, Katznelson and Strzelczyk, 1961). Maximum number of *Azotobacter* cells were encountered when the plants were 75 days old, nearing maturity. However, Patel and Brown (1969) observed in wheat that the number of antagonists to *Azotobacter* increased with the decrease in *Azotobacter* numbers in the rhizosphere. The present results are not in agreement with such a conclusion.

The foliar spray treatments with the different chemicals altered the *Azotobacter* population in the rhizospheres of the two plant species significantly (Table II). The spray treatments with 2, 4-D and sodium nitrate drastically

TABLE II

Influence of foliar application of chemicals on the Azotobacter population in the rhizosphere of sorghum and sunnhemp plants

Treatment	Population (10 ² /g)+			R/S ratio		
	*30	45	75	30	45	75
<i>Sorghum</i>						
Sodium nitrate	0.40	0	1.33	0.24	0	0.60
Disodium hydrogen phosphate	3.18	4.33	8.66	2.35	9.62	3.93
2,4-D	0.20	0	1.33	0.12	0	0.60
Dithane Z-78	7.41	6.22	9.33	4.57	13.82	4.24
Distilled water (control)	2.20	1.66	5.50	1.35	3.68	2.50
<i>Sunnhemp</i>						
Sodium nitrate	0	0.23	0.46	0	0.51	0.20
Disodium hydrogen phosphate	2.20	1.60	5.14	1.35	3.55	2.33
2,4-D	0	0	0.72	0	0	3.27
Dithane Z-78	3.20	2.40	7.16	1.97	5.33	3.25
Distilled water (control)	1.20	0.75	2.80	0.74	1.66	1.27
Soil	1.62	0.45	2.20			

+ Data significant at 1% level

* Age of the plant in days

CD at 1% level

Spray	0.1379
Plant age	0.0975
Plant species	0.0796

reduced the *Azotobacter* population in sorghum rhizosphere while disodium hydrogen phosphate and dithane Z-78 sprays increased the population, as compared to the control. Similar effect was observed in sunnhemp rhizosphere also. Negative rhizosphere effect (R/S ratio) was observed at certain stages of plant growth due to 2, 4-D and sodium nitrate treatments in both the plant species.

The association of soil microorganisms with plant roots in great numbers in the rhizosphere region is often attributed to the presence of a variety of chemicals exuded by the plant roots (Rovira, 1962). Balasubramanian and Rangaswami (1973) have demonstrated the relationship between the quality and quantity of root exuded chemicals and the rhizosphere microflora of sorghum and sunnhemp. The exudation of more of qualitatively and quantitatively rich amino acids by the plants treated on the foliage with 2,4-D and sodium nitrate, more of sugars by 2,4-D and disodium hydrogen phosphate treatments and notable reduction in the exuded chemicals by dithane Z-78 treatment, in general, have been reported by them (*loc cit*). It is, therefore, evident that an increase in the exudation of amino acids suppressed *Azotobacter* population, while no significant effect of the exuded sugars on these bacteria was evident. Vancura and Macura (1961) observed that the amino acid fraction of the root exudates inhibited the growth of *Azotobacter* in stationary cultures. This probably explains the suppression of *Azotobacter* in the rhizosphere of plants treated with sodium nitrate and 2,4-D which, generally, increased the amino acids in the root exudates. Such suppression of *Azotobacter* in the rhizosphere of ragi treated with ammonium sulphate and 2,4-D on the foliage has been reported (Bagyaraj and Rangaswami, 1973). Hence, the results of the present studies suggest that the root exudations, particularly the organic nitrogenous fractions such as amino acids, play an important role in the colonization of the rhizosphere region of plant roots by *Azotobacter*. The observations of Balandreau (1975) that, the nitrogenase activity of rhizosphere soil of several grasses were affected by the root exudations, supports such a possibility.

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SESSION III

Ecology of Nitrogen Fixing Organisms
in Soil

Synergistic Effect of Four Granular Insecticides and *Rhizobium* Treatment on the Nodulation and Yield of Blackgram

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ABSTRACT

Seed treatment with *Rhizobium* sp., along with the soil application of granular insecticides such as disyston, phorate, aldicarb, and furadon stimulated the growth, nodulation and yield in Co 2 variety of blackgram indicating the synergistic effect of *Rhizobium* sp., and disyston, phorate, aldicarb and furadon

INTRODUCTION

THE granular insecticides applied to the soil for the control of insect pests of crops are reported to influence rhizobia, which increase the growth, nodulation and yield of legumes. DDT applied at the recommended field rates did not have adverse effect on nodulation and yield of greengram (Pareek and Gaur, 1970)

Selim *et al* (1970) reported that dieldrin and lindane applied at the field dose did not have inhibitory effect on growth and nodulation of cowpea. Lindane applied at field rate did not show toxic effect on growth and nodulation of bengalgram (Magu *et al*, 1972). Application of certain granular insecticides *viz*, phorate, endrin, chlorfenvinphos and disulfoton is reported to stimulate the growth, nodulation and yield of leguminous crops (Oblisami *et al*, 1974, Swamiappan and Chandy, 1975, Chendrayan and Prasad, 1976). The synergistic effects of the granular insecticides *viz*, disyston, phorate, aldicarb, and furadon applied at 0.5 kg a.i./ha and *Rhizobium* sp., with respect to the legume-*Rhizobium* symbiosis in blackgram are presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The field trial was conducted in *kharif* season, 1976-77 under irrigated conditions in a randomised block design with three replications having a plot size of 4.5 × 3m. There were ten treatments including control in which no insecticide and no *Rhizobium* were applied. Application of *Rhizobium* alone formed one treatment. The four granular insecticides *viz*, disyston, phorate, aldicarb and furadon were applied alone and also in combination with *Rhizobium*. The insecticides were applied at the rate of 0.5 kg a.i./ha in long

furrows in between lines to a depth of 4 cm one week after sowing. Seeds of Co 2 variety of blackgram were thoroughly coated with the peat soil based *Rhizobium* culture and sown in lines with the spacing of 30 × 15 cm. The crop was cultivated with all recommended package of practices. Plant samples were collected on 65th and 45th day after sowing and observations were recorded for growth and nodulation. Dry weights of shoot and root were considered as parameters of growth. Total nodules per plant and dry weight of the nodular tissue were considered as indications of nodulation. The grains extracted periodically from three harvests were pooled and final grain yield was assessed.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The observations recorded on 45 days old crop are given in Table I. The combined applications of *Rhizobium* sp., and granular insecticides were significantly superior to individual application of *Rhizobium* or insecticides with regard to growth of plants and nodulation.

TABLE I
Effect of granular insecticides and Rhizobium on the growth and nodulation of blackgram (Observations recorded on 45th day after sowing)

Treatment	Dry weight of shoot (g)	Dry weight of root (g)	Total number of nodules per plant	Dry weight of nodular tissue (g)
Control	10.41	0.96	13.0	0.146
<i>Rhizobium</i> sp	12.37	1.20	25.0	0.239
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Disyston	15.52	1.49	34.7	0.391
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Phorate	14.59	1.29	31.7	0.372
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Aldicarb	14.57	1.26	31.3	0.366
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Furadon	13.99	1.16	28.7	0.297
Disyston	12.80	1.14	15.3	0.154
Phorate	11.83	0.99	14.3	0.155
Aldicarb	11.13	1.00	14.0	0.153
Furadon	11.12	1.00	13.0	0.149
SE	0.198	0.103	0.96	0.013
CD at 5%	0.584	0.306	2.86	0.037

The observations recorded on 65 days old crop are given in Table II. The soil application of disyston and phorate at 0.5 kg a¹/ha along with the seed treatment of *Rhizobium*, gave seed yield of 14.70 and 14.20 q/ha and 45.3 and 45.0 nodules per plant respectively while the *Rhizobium* treatment alone gave seed yield of 9.82 q/ha and 31.0 nodules per plant and disyston and phorate alone gave seed yields of 8.62 and 8.04 q/ha and 17.3 and 16.7 nodules per plant respectively.

TABLE II

Effect of granular insecticides and Rhizobium on the growth, nodulation and yield of blackgram (Observations recorded on 65th day after sowing)

Treatments	Dry weight of shoot (g)	Dry weight of root (g)	Total number of nodules	Dry weight of nodular tissue (g)	Seed yield (q/ha)
Control	12 330	1 170	16 7	0 1650	7 71
<i>Rhizobium</i> sp	13 967	1 627	31 0	0 3427	9 83
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Disyston	17 657	1 907	45 3	0 4393	14 71
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Phorate	16 853	1 793	45 0	0 6000	14 21
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Aldicarb	16 903	1 553	41 3	0 5426	11 31
<i>Rhizobium</i> +Furadon	16 180	1 520	36 0	0 3930	10 91
Disyston	14 580	1 370	17 3	0 1740	8 63
Phorate	13 633	1 310	16 7	0 1680	8 04
Aldicarb	13 417	1 273	15 7	0 1652	8 14
Furadon	13 039	1 227	15 0	0 1573	7 79
SE	0 061	0 029	1 50	0 0191	0 19
CD at 5%	0 181	0 087	4 46	0 0567	0 57

Soil application of aldicarb and furadon at 0.5 kg a⁻¹/ha along with the seed treatment of *Rhizobium* also gave similar increased yields over the application of insecticides or bacterial culture alone, although they recorded lower yields and nodules than disyston and phorate. All the four granular insecticides along with *Rhizobium*, were stimulatory to nodulation. Similar results were recorded by Magu *et al* (1972) in bengalgram due to lindane.

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Effect of Different Insecticides on the Antibiotic Resistant Mutants of *Rhizobium* spp

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ABSTRACT

The influence of different technical grade insecticides viz , Lindane and BHC (Organochlorine), Carbofuran and Sevin (Carbamates) and thimet and phosphomidon (Organophosphorus) at 1,5 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentrations on the growth and polysaccharide production of CAM^r and St^r mutants of *Rhizobium* spp was investigated and compared with the wild type. All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration promoted the growth of St^r mutant and wild type while Lindane alone inhibited the growth of CAM^r mutant. All the insecticides at all the three concentrations inhibited the production of alkali-stable polysaccharides of both the mutants and wild type. All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ stimulated the production of water soluble polysaccharides in both the mutants whereas sevin and carbofuran alone at 1 mg/ml stimulated the production of water-soluble polysaccharides in wild type. At higher concentrations (5 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) all the insecticides inhibited the production of water soluble polysaccharides in both the mutants and wild type. The qualitative analysis of the polysaccharides produced by the mutants and wild type in the presence of the insecticides at the lowest concentration (1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) revealed that the monomeric sugar units of the polysaccharides consisted of both hexoses and pentoses. However, in the absence of any of the insecticides the monomeric sugar units of the polysaccharides produced by wild type consisted only of hexoses indicating that the incorporation of insecticides even at the lowest concentration (1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) altered the pathway of synthesis of the polysaccharides.

INTRODUCTION

ANTIBIOTIC resistant marker strains of rhizobia were employed to study the efficacy of *Rhizobium* legume symbiosis in natural environment (Law and Strijdom 1974). Although different antibiotic resistant mutants of rhizobia tend to lose their infectivity or nodule forming ability, such effects are believed to be governed by the concentration of the antibiotics used to screen specific antibiotic resistant mutants (Schwinghammer, 1967). Notwithstanding the information on the influence of a variety of potent synthetic compounds such as insecticides, fungicides, detergents etc. On different soil microorganisms (Sreenivasulu and Rangaswami, 1973; Van Schreven *et al*, 1970) and particularly on rootnodule bacteria (Kaszubiak, 1968) the available knowledge on the effect of these 'synthetic poisons' on the antibiotic resistant mutants of rhizobia is rather fragmentary. The effect of different groups of insecticides on the CAM^r and St^r mutants of *Rhizobium* spp *in vitro* is presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Organism The wild type *Rhizobium* spp (Cowpea group) and CAM^r and ST^r (100 µg/ml) mutants were obtained from the culture collection of the Department of Biology, Agricultural College and Research Institute, Madurai

Insecticides All the insecticides viz , Lindane (gamma B H C 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6 hexachloro cyclohexane), B H C (Benzene hexachloride), carbofuran (2, 3-dihydro-2,2 dimethyl-7 benzofuran-yl methyl carbamate) Sevin (naphthyl-N-methylcarbamate), thimet (0,0-diethyl-S (ethylthiomethyl) phosphorothiolonate) and phosphomidon [0,0-dimethyl, 0-(2-chloro-2-N-N-diethyl carbamyl-1-1-methylvinyl) Phosphate] used in the present studies were of technical grade Required concentrations of the insecticides were prepared by dissolving the insecticides in 80 per cent acetone

Growth studies To 100 ml of Waksman 79 medium without calcium carbonate in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks one ml of wild type or St^r or CAM^r mutant cells (Ca 1×10^8 /ml) experiencing log phase of growth was inoculated, particular concentration of the insecticides added and incubated on a rotary shaker for 72 hrs at room temperature ($28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) The cells were harvested by centrifuging at $3000 \times g$ for 10 min and the biomass determined after drying in hot air oven at 90°C for 24 hrs

Polysaccharide production From the cells harvested after 72 hrs of incubation, the alkali stable polysaccharides (ASP) were extracted following the method of Hassid and Abraham (1957) and quantified using anthrone method (Salewski *et al*, 1974) Water-soluble polysaccharides (WSP) were determined by precipitating the polysaccharides present in the cell-free centrifugate by the addition of propan-2-ol (3:1 v/v) (Couperwhite and McCallum, 1975) Qualitative analysis of the ASP was done by descending paper chromatography using n-butanol acetic acid water 4:1:5 (v/v) solvent system and benzidine-TCA reagent served as the spray solution (Block *et al*, 1958) The sugars were identified by co-chromatography with authentic Sugar samples

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data revealed that all the insecticides at 1 µg/ml concentration stimulated the growth of St^r mutant and wild type while lindane alone at 1 µg/ml concentration inhibited the growth of CAM^r mutant However, at higher concentrations (5 and 10 µg/ml) all the insecticides inhibited the growth of both the mutants and wild type (Table I)

Influence of different insecticides on the ASP and WSP produced by CAM^r and St^r mutants and wild type *Rhizobium* spp is given in Tables II and III Although all the insecticides at the three concentrations inhibited the ASP

TABLE I
Effect of different insecticides on the growth of CAM¹, St¹ mutants and wild type *Rhizobium spp*

Treatment	Biomass (mg/100 ml)												Phosphomidon (μ g/ml)						
	Lindane (μ g/ml)		B H C (μ g/ml)		Carbofuran (μ g/ml)		Sevin (μ g/ml)		Thimet (μ g/ml)		Phosphomidon (μ g/ml)								
	1	5	1	5	1	5	1	5	1	5	1	5		1	5	10			
Control	820	865	765	650	860	780	635	850	810	625	845	790	695	825	805	695	865	795	675
CAM ^r	630	610	605	535	635	590	560	620	550	530	720	645	600	710	690	605	745	700	620
Wild type	725	665	625	755	755	750	725	765	725	715	805	750	690	755	700	620	800	705	650

TABLE II
Effect of different insecticides on the alkali-stable polysaccharides produced by CAM¹, St¹ mutants and wild type *Rhizobium spp*

Treatment	Alkali-stable polysaccharides (mg/g dry weight of cells)												Phosphomidon (μ g/ml)					
	Lindane (μ g/ml)		B H C (μ g/ml)		Carbofuran (μ g/ml)		Sevin (μ g/ml)		Thimet (μ g/ml)		Phosphomidon (μ g/ml)							
	1	5	10	1	5	10	1	5	10	1	5	10		1	5	10		
Control	90	86	80	91	88	82	90	88	88	92	90	91	90	90	88	90	88	88
CAM ^r	83	83	82	82	80	79	80	79	76	82	77	76	82	79	74	80	78	74
Wild type	78	78	76	78	77	77	78	76	75	77	76	72	77	76	75	76	75	73

TABLE III

Effect of different insecticides on the water-soluble polysaccharides produced by CAM¹, St¹ mutants and wild type Rhizobium spp

Treatment	Water-soluble polysaccharides (mg/100 ml)																		
	Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		B H C ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Sevin ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Phosphomidon ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)								
	1	5	10	1	5	10	1	5	10	1	5	10	1	5	10				
Control	830	800	790	825	810	800	835	800	835	800	825	800	760	855	825	805	830	800	760
St ¹	720	700	700	750	705	675	725	705	645	725	710	680	730	700	640	640	720	700	685
CAM ¹	420	400	395	420	400	385	430	380	355	430	385	370	420	390	380	420	400	390	390
Wild type																			

TABLE IV
Effect of different insecticides on the qualitative analysis of the polysaccharides produced by CAM^r, St^r mutants and wild type Rhizobium spp

Insecticide*	Qualitative differences in the polysaccharides produced by		
	CAM ^r mutant	St ^r mutant	Wild type
Lindane	Glu, Suc, Rib, Xyl	Glu, Suc, Lact, Ara, Rib	Glu, Suc, Fru, Rib, Xyl
B H C	Glu, Suc, Rib, Ara	Glu, Lact, Xyl, Gal	Fru, Suc, Rib, Ara, Gal
Carbofuran	Glu, Fru, Ara, Mann	Glu, Lact, Rib, Gal	Glu, Lact, Xyl, Ara, Gal
Sevin	Glu, Suc, Fru, Xyl, Rib	Glu, Suc, Fru, Gal, Rib	Glu, Suc, Rib, Xyl, Mann
Thimet	Fru, Suc, Lact, Rib, Gal	Glu, Suc, Ara, Xyl	Fru, Lact, Rib, Ara
Phosphomidon	Glu, Fru, Xyl, Rib	Glu, Lact, Xyl, Ara, Mann	Glu, Lact, Rib, Ara, Xyl
Control	Glu, Suc, Fru, Rib, Xyl	Glu, Suc, Lact, Mann, Ara	Glu, Suc, Fru, Lact

* Incorporated at 1 μ g/ml concentration in Waksman 79 medium

Ara—Arabinose	Glu—Glucose	Rib—Ribose
Fru—Fructose	Lact—Lactose	Suc—Sucrose
Gal—Galactose	Mann—Mannose	Xyl—Xylose

production, the inhibition was more pronounced at higher concentrations (5 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration promoted the WSP production in both the mutants, however, at the same concentration sevin and carbofuran alone stimulated the production of WSP in wild type All the insecticides at 5 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration invariably inhibited the WSP in both the mutants and wild type

In the presence of different insecticides (at 1 mg/ml) the monomeric sugar units of the polysaccharides produced by the mutants and wild type consisted of both hexoses and pentoses However, in the absence of any of the insecticides the monomeric sugar units produced by wild type consisted only of hexoses (Table IV)

Rhizobia are known to be greatly influenced by a vast array of pesticides (Gillberg, 1971, Misra and Gaur, 1972) While all the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration promoted the growth of St^r mutant and wild type, lindane alone inhibited the growth of CAN^r mutants Magu *et al* (1974) reported that lindane at 1 ppm promoted the nodulation of *Cicer arietinum* while at higher concentrations nodulation was inhibited

The extra-cellular polysaccharides of the rhizobia are immunologically specific biopolymers that permit immunological differentiation between various cross-inoculation groups All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration inhibited the production of ASP but not the production of WSP Sensitivity of different rhizobia in carrying out different metabolic processes are known to be affected by various fungi-static substances (Mukewar and Bhide, 1969) and metabolic inhibitors (Schwinghamer, 1968) Apparently differential inhibition/stimulation of growth and polysaccharide production of both the mutants and wild type by different insecticides at different concentrations observed in the present study is a reflection of the degree of sensitivity of different rhizobia to different insecticides Further Oblisami *et al* (1974) reported that the activities of rhizobia are greatly influenced by the chemical nature of the insecticides

Albersheim *et al* (1969) reported that the specificity of *Rhizobium*-legume symbiosis could be attributed to extracellular polysaccharides of *Rhizobium* because sugar containing molecules were uniquely sensitive in 'recognizing' different proteins The qualitative differences in the polysaccharides produced by different rhizobia have been elucidated by many workers (Zevenhuizen, 1971, Hepper, 1972) Essentially the constituent monomeric sugar units of the polysaccharides produced by both the mutants and wild type in the presence of any of the insecticides (1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$) consisted of both hexoses and pentoses However, in the absence of any of the insecticides the monomeric sugar units of the polysaccharides produced by wild type consisted only of hexoses indicating a shift in

the pathway of synthesis of the polysaccharides in the wild type and not in either of the mutants. Jayachandran and Balasubramanian (1977) reported a shift in the pathway of synthesis of polysaccharides in the presence of some phenolic compounds in *Rhizobium leguminosarum*.

Notwithstanding the differences in the growth and polysaccharide production of the two mutants further investigations on the effect of these insecticides on the *Rhizobium*-legume symbiosis *in vivo* will throw more light on the applicability and utility of these two mutants in assessing the contribution of inoculated rhizobia in the soil.

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Effect of Pesticides on the Growth, IAA Production and Nodulation by a *Rhizobium* Species

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ABSTRACT

The effect of aldicarb, fensulfothion (Dasanit) and disulfoton (Disyston) on the growth, indole acetic (IAA) production and nodulation by a species of cowpea *Rhizobium* (P-47) were studied under controlled conditions. Aldicarb and disulfoton adversely affected the growth of the *Rhizobium* sp. at 5 ppm and 10 ppm concentrations during 72 hr growth period, while stimulation in growth was observed in cells treated with fensulfothion. Not only the IAA production potential of the *Rhizobium* isolate was adversely affected in presence of the pesticides but the number of nodules in cowpea plants grown in soil treated with the pesticides (at 10 ppm level) were also considerably reduced, the adverse effect being more with fensulfothion and disulfoton.

INTENSIVE agriculture warrants repeated application of large quantities of pesticides for plant protection, the residues of which accumulate in soil. These residues, sufficiently persistent in soil, are apt to come into direct contact with soil microorganisms. Considerable information is available on the effect of certain pesticides on the metabolic activities of *Rhizobium* (Oblisami *et al* , 1973, Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan, 1975, 1976 a and 1976 b)

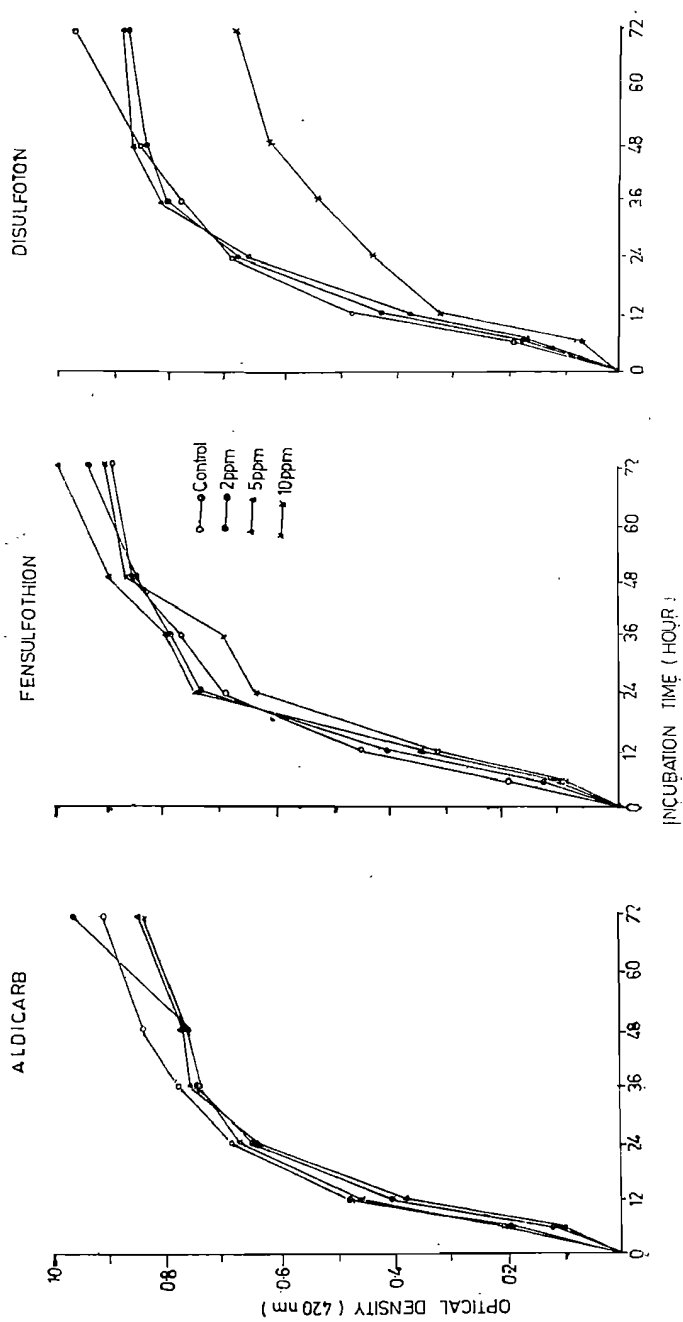
There are also reports to indicate the effect of such residues on the symbiotic effectiveness of the rhizobia in their host plants (Kulkarni *et al*, 1974 and Chendrayan and Prasad, 1976) The present report deals with the effect of three commonly used pesticides viz , aldicarb (Temik), fensulfothion (Dasanit) and disulfoton (Disyston) on the growth, indole acetic acid (IAA) production and nodulation by a *Rhizobium* sp under *in vitro* conditions

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Measurement of the growth of the Rhizobium sp The *Rhizobium* sp an isolate from blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L) was grown in malt extract medium (K_2HPO_4 0.5 g, $MgSO_4 \cdot 7H_2O$ 0.2 g, NaCl 0.1 g, Malt extract (Difco) 10.0 g, yeast extract 1.0 g and distilled water 1000 ml with pH adjusted to 6.81, (Iswaran and Jauhari, 1969) for 72 hr in a rotary shaker. Calculated quantities of the stock solutions of the technical materials of the pesticides, aldicarb [2-methyl -2 (methyl thio) propinaldehyde-O-methyl carbamoyl oxime], fensulfothion (0,0-diethyl-0-4, methyl sulphanyl phenyl monothio phosphite) and disulfoton [0,0-diethyl-S-2 (ethyl thio) ethyl phosphorodithioate] were transferred to 99 ml of malt extract broth to obtain a final concentration of 2, 5 and 10 ppm of the pesticides, and inoculated with 1 ml of 72 hr old culture of the *Rhizobium* sp before the flasks were incubated at $28 \pm 2^\circ C$ in a rotary shaker. Appropriate controls were maintained and the treatments were duplicated. The growth of the organism was periodically determined for a period of 72 hr in an Erma Photoelectric colorimeter using a blue filter (420 nm) (Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan, 1975)

Estimation of IAA production by the Rhizobium sp Malt extract medium (99 ml) containing 0.1 per cent L-tryptophan was inoculated with one ml of a 72 hr old culture of the organism along with 0, 2, 5 and 10 ppm of aldicarb, fensulphothion and disulfoton as described above. Each treatment was replicated twice. After 3 days incubation on a rotary shaker at $28 \pm 2^\circ C$ the cells were harvested by centrifugation and the cell free supernatant was used for the quantitative estimation of IAA, following the method of Chandramohan and Mahadevan (1968). The IAA in the supernatant was also identified chromatographically using n-butanol acetic acid water (4:1:1 v/v) as the solvent system and Salkowski reagent as spray reagent.

Determination of nodulation. Circular mud pots of 12" diameter, filled with garden land soil and farm yard manure were sterilised at 20 psi for 2 hr. Granular formulations of aldicarb (Temik 10 G), fensulfothion (Dasanit 10 G) and disulfoton (Disyston 5G) were added at the rate of 10 ppm of a 1 of the chemicals and mixed thoroughly. Cowpea seeds, coated with equal volume of a thick suspension of the *Rhizobium* sp were sown in the soil at the rate of six seeds per pot and five replications for each treatment were maintained. The



pots were watered regularly and the plants were carefully removed 45 days after sowing the roots washed under running tap water and the number of apparently effective nodules were counted

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Results on the influence of the three pesticides on the growth of the *Rhizobium* sp are presented in Fig 1. Although aldicarb was stimulatory at 2 ppm concentration, the 5 and 10 ppm levels inhibited the growth of the organism. While fensulfothion appeared to stimulate the growth of the *Rhizobium* sp at all the three levels, disulfoton adversely affected the growth of the organism, the maximum suppression being recorded with 10 ppm concentration of the pesticide. All the three concentrations of aldicarb, fensulfothion and disulfoton decreased the IAA synthesising ability of the organism, the reduction being maximum with 10 ppm of fensulfothion (Table I). The pesticides significantly reduced the number of nodules per plant and the reduction was maximum with dasanit and disyston (Table II).

TABLE I
Effect of pesticides on indoleacetic acid (IAA) production by the *Rhizobium* sp

Treatment	IAA produced (mg/100 ml medium)		
	Aldicarb	Fensulfothion	Disulfoton
No pesticide (control)	9 188	9 188	9 138
2 ppm	8 125	6 688	7 625
5 ppm	8 813	7 750	7 813
10 ppm	8 750	4 000	7 750

TABLE II
Effect of soil applied pesticides on nodulation in cowpea plants by the *Rhizobium* sp

Treatment	*Nodule number/plant
No pesticide (control)	32 54
Temik 10 ppm	28 96
Dasanit 10 ppm	14 40
Disyston 10 ppm	19 46

*Values represent mean of five replications

Inhibition of the growth of the *Rhizobium* sp at 5 and 10 ppm levels, but a stimulation at 2 ppm concentration, is in agreement with the earlier reports of Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan (1975, 1976a and 1976b). Stimulatory effect on the growth of the *Rhizobium* by the pesticides, as in the present case of fensulfothion, is not uncommon (Gupta and Sud, 1971). The observations on the increased inhibition of disulfoton with increasing concentrations of the

chemical also corroborated with the earlier reports of Oblisami *et al.* (1973). The reduction caused in the IAA production potential of the *Rhizobium* sp. by all the three pesticides is in conformity with the observations of Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan (1976b) with *R. japonicum* and aldicarb. Such an inhibition of the IAA production potential of the organism by the pesticides and a reduction in the mean number of nodules formed in the cowpea plants raised in the pesticides treated soil, suggests a positive relationship between the IAA production potential of the *Rhizobium* and its symbiotic efficiency. A positive correlation between the IAA production *in vitro* and symbiotic efficiency of rhizobia has already been brought out by Vidhyasekaran *et al.* (1973). Similar reduction in the number of nodules in bean roots due to treatment with 30 to 40 ppm of Temik and with 50 ppm of the chemical in clover have been reported by Gawaad *et al.* (1972). Kulkarni *et al.* (1974) observed significant reduction in the number of nodules in groundnut plants raised in soil treated with dasanit. Disyston has also been reported to decrease the nodule number in groundnut plants at 200 ppm, though an increase in the same was reported due to 12 ppm of the chemical (Prasad and Ramani, 1976). However, the mode of action of these pesticide residues in soil on the IAA synthesis *in vitro* of the *Rhizobium* sp. and its symbiotic effectiveness, remains to be demonstrated.

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Influence of Soil Applied Pesticides on the Translocation of Foliar Applied ¹⁴C-Glucose to the Root Nodules of *Vigna sinensis* L.

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ABSTRACT

The influence of soil applied pesticides, viz., Temik (aldicarb), Dasanit (fensulfotion) and Disyston (disulfoton) at 10 ppm level on the nodulation and translocation of foliar applied ¹⁴C-glucose to the root nodules of cowpea (*Vigna sinensis* L.) was examined. Although, the number of nodules per plant and the weight of nodules decreased in presence of the pesticides in the soil, the specific activities of ¹⁴C translocated to the nodules were enhanced significantly, as compared to the untreated control. Soil application of dasanit (at 10 ppm) mobilised maximum ¹⁴C-radio activity in the root nodules. While a major portion of the absorbed radio activity remained in the shoot, the percentage of ¹⁴C-radioactivity translocated to the root nodules was more than that incorporated in the root tissue, in all the cases.

LARGE quantities of pesticides find their way into the soil due to intensive plant protection schedules for the control of pests and diseases. Influence of such soil applied insecticides and nematicides on the symbiotic, nitrogen fixing rhizobia and the host plant have been brought out by several workers (Gawaad *et al.*, 1972; Pareek and Gaur, 1969 and 1970; Balasubramanian *et al.*, 1974; Kulkarni *et al.*, 1974). Information on the effect of these pesticidal residues in soil on the translocation of photosynthates to the root nodules in leguminous crops is very meagre. The present paper gives a preliminary account on the influence of certain soil applied insecticides viz., Temik (aldicarb), Dasanit

(fensulfothion) and Disyston (disulfoton) on the translocation of foliar applied radio active (^{14}C) glucose to the root nodules of cowpea (*Vigna sinensis* L.)

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Cowpea plants (*Vigna sinensis* L.) were raised in mud pots with sterilised gardenland soil containing 10 ppm concentration of Temik (10 G), Dasanit and Disyston and the treatments were replicated thrice. To 70 day plants, uniformly labelled (^{14}C) d-glucose was applied on the leaves. An aliquot of 0.5 ml of radioactive solution of 0.5 microcurie per ml was applied to five plants in each pot using an automatic microsyringe. The plants were left for 48 hr after the foliar treatment and then removed without damaging the root system and washed under running tap water.

Determination of nodulation and dry matter production: The root nodules of each plant from different treatments were counted and the fresh weight of the nodules was recorded. The shoots and roots of the plants were separated and the dry weights were recorded.

Determination of radioactivity in the plant samples: Two to three large pinkish nodules were selected at random and placed in an aluminium planchet, crushed well with a glass rod and dried under infra red heat. The radioactivity was monitored in a gas flow Proportional Counting System (Electronics Corporation of India Ltd.,) and the specific activity was calculated based on the dry weight of the nodules from each treatment.

The dried root and shoot samples from each treatment were powdered and sieved through 1 mm sieve. A known quantity of the root or shoot sample was placed on a planchet to which few drops of distilled water were added and then dried under infrared heat so that the powdered sample formed a cake on the planchet. The radioactivity was monitored and the specific activity calculated as described above.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The residues of Temik, Dasanit and Disyston were found to reduce both the number of nodules per plant and the fresh weight of nodules (Table I). Significant reduction in nodulation of bean roots was noticed due to 30 to 40 ppm of Temik and due to 50 ppm of Temik on clover roots (Gawaad *et al.*, 1972). Kulkarni *et al.* (1974) reported significant reduction in the number of nodules in groundnut plants raised in soil treated with Dasanit. Soil incorporation of the pesticides resulted in reduction of dry weight of roots, except in dasanit, where an enhancement in the root weight was observed (Table II); however, all the pesticides increased the dry weight of shoot.

TABLE I
Translocation of foliar applied (¹⁴C) glucose to root nodules as influenced by soil application of the pesticides

Treatment	*Nodule number per plant	*Nodule weight (mg/plant)	¹⁴ C-specific activity in root nodules (Counts/100 sec/100 mg dry tissue)
No pesticide (Control)	56.66	266.41	120 ± 11.7
Temik 10 ppm	44.58	209.91	115 ± 15.7
Dasanit 10 ppm	40.50	179.50	321 ± 10.6
Disyston 10 ppm	36.25	163.00	261 ± 7.3

*Data represent the mean of 12 plants

TABLE II
Specific activity of ¹⁴C-glucose translocated to root and shoot of cowpea plants as affected by the pesticides application

Treatment	*Dry wt. of root (mg/plant)	C ¹⁴ -specific activity in root (Counts/100 sec/100 mg dry tissue)	*Dry wt. of shoot (mg/plant)	C ¹⁴ -specific activity in shoot (Counts/100 sec/100 mg dry tissue)	% radioactivity translocated to		
					Nodules	Root	Shoot
No pesticide (Control)	311.80	24 ± 11.3	1236.3	355 ± 14.3	6.69	1.57	91.74
Temik 10 ppm	248.00	55 ± 4.0	1330.0	298 ± 22.4	7.33	3.07	89.60
Dasanit 10 ppm	368.10	35 ± 4.0	2186.8	254 ± 14.9	9.20	2.06	88.74
Disyston 10 ppm	294.80	20 ± 15.9	1472.1	278 ± 14.1	9.33	1.29	89.38

*Data represent the mean of 12 plants

The results indicated that a major portion of the ¹⁴C-glucose applied on the foliage remained in the shoot of the cowpea plants. However, considerable portion of the radioactivity translocated to the roots was incorporated into the root nodules. The pesticide residues caused marked variation in the radioactivity translocated to both the nodules and roots of cowpea plants. Temik and Dasanit increased the translocation of ¹⁴C-glucose to root system while Disyston decreased the same. Accumulation of more radioactivity in the nodules of the treated plants possibly indicates an enhanced metabolic activity in the nodular tissues. The significance of such enhanced assimilation of foliar applied glucose in the nodular tissues on the nitrogen fixation is yet to be explored.

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Use of Difolatan and Nitrofix R¹ Culture as a Seed Treatment on Groundnut and their Effect on Germination, Nodule Formation and Yield

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DIFOLATAN (Captafol) as an effective seed treatment for controlling the root rot caused by *Macrophomina phaseoli* on groundnut under field conditions is reported by Shanmugam and Govindaswamy (1973) and alfa root disease of groundnut caused by *Aspergillus flavus* by Anjla *et al* (1975) Increase in germination as well as higher yields of kernel was noticed by these investigators by using Difolatan Jackson (1965) reported that Difolatan was one of the best amongst the fungicides tried for controlling the development of pod infecting organisms on groundnut Papavizas and Lewis (1975) reported captafol seed treatment having given effective control of *Fusarium solani* on bean The effect of Difolatan captafol Cis-N-(1, 1, 2, 2-tetrachloroethyl thio)-4-cyclohexene-1, 2-dicarboximide) seed dresser on root nodule formation in groundnut was studied in a field trial

Groundnut variety Sulamit (60 days old seed) received from Pondicherry and from Gujarat (140 day old seed) and S-203 were used in this trial Sulamit frequently gave poor germination because of infection caused by *Aspergillus* and

¹ Rallis Nitrofix R is the trade name for *Rhizobium* incorporated in lignite base produced by Rallis India Ltd, R and D Laboratories

Rhizoctonia sp. Before sowing the seeds were dry treated first with Difolatan 80W at 3 g/kg and pelleted with CaCO₃ and the pelleted seed was inoculated with Nitrofix R (*Rhizobium*) culture. Ten grams of inoculant was used per kg. of groundnut seed. Germination and nodule counts were taken on 15th and 60th day after sowing respectively.

Variety S-203 recorded better germination than Sulamit. Difolatan treated plots recorded better germination than untreated plots especially in variety Sulamit where seed rot was more. Irrespective of varieties, all *Rhizobium* treated plots recorded more number of nodules than untreated. Sulamit recorded 3 times higher pod yield than S-203, whereas the latter had not shown any remarkable difference in yield between the treatments. Sulamit (new seed) had recorded more yield in a case where Difolatan was used. *Rhizobium* treatment in Sulamit (old seed) gave more yield than untreated control (Table I). Groundnut which

TABLE I
Effect of Difolatan and Nitrofix on groundnut

Treatment	Germination %	Av.No. of nodules/plant	Yield in q/acre
Sulamit new seed+Difolatan (seed treatment)	95	52	32.0
Sulamit new seed+Difolatan+Nitrofix R (seed treatment)	71	41	22.7
Sulamit new seed+Nitrofix R (seed treatment)	54	17	21.4
Sulamit new seed (no treatment)	64	16	23.9
Sulamit old seed+Difolatan (seed treatment)	21	37.5	22.0
Sulamit old seed+Difolatan+Nitrofix R (seed treatment)	59	24.5	16.0
Sulamit old seed+Nitrofix R	16	19	33.1
Sulamit old seed (no treatment)	15	16	26.7
S-203+Difolatan (seed treatment)	90	19	8.8
S-203+Difolatan+Nitrofix R (seed treatment)	97	23	10.8
S-203+Nitrofix R (seed treatment)	95	28	10.4
S-203 (no treatment)	91	25	11.5

belongs to the cowpea cross inoculation group nodulates well in almost all the soils surveyed for nodulation so far (Gaur *et al.*, 1976). Groundnut also shows promiscuity towards *Rhizobium* for nodulation and even if the nodulation noticed in these trials was due to native *Rhizobium* strains, the results showed that *Rhizobium* was not adversely affected by Difolatan treatment.

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A Note on the Effect of Fungicidal Seed Treatment on Rhizobial Inoculation of Peas (*Pisum sativum* L.)

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PEA is susceptible to several fungal diseases such as downy mildew, leaf rust and damping off. The fungicides recommended for the control of these diseases are captan, Dithane-M45, Morestan and sulphur. Mukewar and Bhide (1969) have shown that fungicides did not affect the nodulation to any significant extent when used at normal doses in case of groundnut. Balaraman and Prasad (1973) and Sardeshpande *et al.* (1973) also reported the similar effects of fungicides on nodulation in groundnut.

The influence of fungicidal treatment with Captan and Dithane M-45, and rhizobial inoculation of peas on nodulation and nitrogen fixation is presented in this note.

Commercial grade captan (N-trichloro-methyl-thiotetrahydrophthalimide) and Dithane M-45 (Mn Zn ethylene 1.2 bisdithiocarbamate) were employed. Two rhizobial inoculants UASB-101 and UAS composite (consisting of four local isolates of rhizobia and UASB-101) were used for seed treatment. The field trial was laid out in randomised block design with three replications in each treatment at G.K.V.K. farm of University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore. The plots of 3m × 4 m size were prepared. Basal dressing of 60 kg P₂O₅ and

45 kg K₂O per ha was given. Bounville variety of pea which does not require staking was selected and after seed treatment it was sown with a spacing of 30 × 8 cm. The seeds were first treated with fungicides and then with the *Rhizobium* control consisted of seed not treated with either the fungicide or *Rhizobium*. Observations on the number and dry weight of nodules and dry weight of plant tops were taken six weeks after sowing. Harvesting of green pods was done in three pickings starting from ninth week at weekly intervals.

Maximum nodulation was obtained with composite culture followed by UASB-101 in combination with captan, while the dry weight of nodules was more with composite culture and UASB-101 plus fungicide combinations. There was not much significant difference in dry weight of plant tops. Here again the composite culture proved to be superior, while UASB-101 gave lesser weight than the control (Table I). The yield data showed that there was a reduction in the yield when UASB-101 was used alone. Of the two fungicides used, Captan was more efficient as compared to Dithane M-45 as it increased the pod yield by 36 per cent in combination with both UASB-101 and the composite, inoculants (Table II).

TABLE I

Effect of fungicidal seed treatment and rhizobial inoculation on nodulation of pisum sativum

Treatment	No. of nodules	Dry weight of nodules (mg)	Dry weight of plant tops (g)
Control	88	139	3.493
UASB-101	85	112	2.810
UASB-101 + Captan	109	149	3.103
UASB-101 + Dithane	94	168	3.163
Composite	130	159	4.190
Composite + Captan	63	91	3.507
Composite + Dithane	65	106	3.430

TABLE II

Effect of fungicidal seed treatment and rhizobial inoculation on the pod yield of Pisum sativum

Treatment	Pod yield (q/ha)	% increase over uninoculated control
Control	29.49	—
UASB 101	24.48	—
UASB-101 + Captan	40.26	36.52
UASB-101 + Dithane	35.27	19.59
Composite	32.27	9.42
Composite + Captan	40.18	36.24
Composite + Dithane	36.73	24.55

Nodule number was not related to the yield. The dry weight of plant tops was related to the yield. The present results are in conformity with the earlier reports of Mukewar and Bhide (1969), Balaraman and Prasad (1973) and Sardeshpande *et al.* (1973).

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Effect of Lasso and Tok E-25 on *Rhizobium*-Greengram Symbiosis

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ABSTRACT

Of the two herbicides Lasso and Tok E-25 tested at three different concentrations only Lasso at 0.5 kg ai/ha stimulated rhizobial population, N₂ content of soil and yield of pods. All the other treatments in general exerted inhibitory effect on all the above mentioned characters.

AGRICULTURAL soils are the ultimate recipient and depository of most applied foliar and soil pesticides and the pesticides thus used for plant protection influence both microbial and plant proclivities (Kearney *et al.*, 1967; Morris and Penney, 1971; Sahrawat, 1975). Notwithstanding the abundance of information on the establishment nodule formation and N₂ fixation of different rhizobia (Vincent, 1974) the effect of different herbicides on various biological processes of 'native' and 'introduced' rhizobia is poorly understood. More often the herbicides proved to be deleterious to the soil microorganisms and particularly to the root nodule bacteria (Fletcher *et al.*, 1957; Lakshmikumari

et al, 1975) The effect of two herbicides, Lasso and Tok E-25 at different concentrations on *Rhizobium* greengram symbiosis is reported in this paper

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Mud pots of 45 cm diameter at the top and 45 cm height were filled with 10 kg of air dried red sandy loam soil. Two herbicides viz, Lasso and Tok E-25 were applied in the form of a fine mist at the rate of 0.5, 1.0 and 1.5 kg ai/ha. The soil moisture was kept at approximately 60 per cent water holding capacity with tap water. Six CO₂ greengram seeds either treated or untreated with appropriate *Rhizobium* were sown in each pot. On the 9th day they were thinned to three plants per pot. Three replicates were kept in each treatment.

The most probable number (MPN) of *Rhizobium* from each treatment on 48th day was estimated from the serially diluted suspension of rhizosphere soils by plate dilution count method (Clark, 1965). All plants in different treatments were removed when they were 48 days old taking care to retain maximum number of nodules intact with the roots. The total number of nodules in each plant was counted and recorded. The dry weight of nodules and plants were determined after oven drying at 101°C for 24 hrs. The yield of pods in each plant under different treatments were also recorded. Total nitrogen of plant and soil was determined by micro-kjeldahl (Bremner, 1960) and macro-kjeldahl (Piper, 1950) methods respectively.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The data on the effect of two different herbicides at varying concentrations on nodulation and other characters of greengram treated with *rhizobium* ('introduced') are set out in Table I. All the treatments except Lasso at 0.5 and 1.0 kg

TABLE I

Effect of herbicides on nodulation and other plant characters of greengram treated with Rhizobium 'introduced'

Treatment	Concentration (kg/ai/ha)	<i>Rhizobium</i> population (x10 ⁵ /g of soil)	No of nodules/plant	Wt of nodules (mg/plant)	Dry wt of plants (g/plant)	Nitrogen content of plants (%)	Nitrogen content of soil (%)	No of pods/plant
Lasso	0.5	14.05	18.00	216.67	2.24	2.18	0.95	13.66
Lasso	1.0	12.93	15.33	171.67	1.98	2.07	0.73	11.33
Lasso	1.5	12.37	14.33	150.00	1.61	1.95	0.71	10.66
Tok E-25	0.5	12.66	11.67	149.33	2.10	2.40	0.87	11.00
Tok E-25	1.0	11.88	11.00	150.00	1.84	2.02	0.84	9.66
Tok E-25	1.5	11.00	9.00	77.33	1.68	2.00	0.16	10.00
Control	—	13.27	14.67	255.00	2.13	2.19	0.91	12.33
C D at 5%	—	0.205	0.65	6.25	0.08	0.04	0.01	1.15

a₁/ha inhibited the number of nodules formed. The weight of nodules was found to be less than that of the control in all the treatments. Excepting Lasso at 0.5 kg a₁/ha all other treatments inhibited dry matter production, N₂ content of soil and pod yield. However, Tok E-25 at 0.5 kg a₁/ha exerted a stimulatory effect in respect of N₂ content of plants only.

The effect of two herbicides at different concentrations on nodulation and other plant characters of greengram untreated with *Rhizobium* ('native') is given in Table II. All the herbicides at different concentrations tested significantly

TABLE II
Effect of herbicides on nodulation and other plant characters of greengram untreated with *Rhizobium* 'native'

Treatment	Concentration (kg/a ₁ /ha)	No of nodules/plant	Wt of nodules (mg/plant)	Dry wt of plants (g/plant)	Nitrogen content of plants (%)	Nitrogen content of soil (%)	No of pods/plant
Lasso	0.5	4.00	111.67	2.07	1.81	0.72	10.66
Lasso	1.0	3.00	48.67	1.95	1.82	0.55	10.00
Lasso	1.5	1.00	15.00	1.50	1.76	0.51	9.66
Tok E-25	0.5	4.67	108.33	2.08	2.02	0.72	10.33
Tok E-25	1.0	2.00	46.00	1.84	1.96	0.62	10.00
Tok E-25	1.5	1.00	12.00	1.62	1.90	0.57	9.66
Control	—	6.33	107.00	2.10	1.85	0.75	10.66
C D at 5%	—	0.65	6.25	0.08	0.04	0.01	1.15

inhibited nodulation and N₂ content of soil. However, Lasso and Tok E-25 at 0.5 kg a₁/ha neither stimulated nor inhibited the weight of nodules, dry matter production and pod yield and were on par with control. Tok E-25 at all the three concentrations increased the N₂ content of plants.

Most often the effectiveness of the herbicides applied to the soil are governed by many intrinsic factors viz., concentration of the herbicides, time of application, agro-climatic conditions etc (Alexander, 1961). Some of the herbicides that give very good control of weeds when applied in legumes in addition to exerting hazardous effects on the rhizobia, often prove to be phytotoxic either on the standing crop or on the succeeding crop or on both. However Rankov *et al* (1966) and Yogeswara Rao *et al* (1973) reported that herbicides if applied at lower concentrations exhibit 'auxin-like' effects both on the *Rhizobium* as well as on legume plant.

Differential stimulation or inhibition of *Rhizobium* to various herbicides is directly correlated with their sensitivity or resistance to respond to the herbicides in question (Kearney *et al* 1967). Lasso alone at 0.5 kg a₁/ha stimulated the *Rhizobium* population in soil (Table I). L. kshmi Kumari *et al*, (1974) and Tewfik *et al* 1975 also reported that application of Dalapan and DBCB at lower

concentrations stimulated *Rhizobium meliloti* and *leguminosarum*, respectively. The stimulation of nodule formation, increase in the dry matter production, enhanced N₂ content of soil and increase in pod yield observed in the present study when Lasso was applied at 0.5 kg ai/ha is in conformity with the findings of Rethinam *et al.*, (1974). With respect to Tok E-25 the results from the present studies corroborated the findings of Rethinam *et al.*, (1974).

More often than not the 'native' rhizobia present in the soil prove to be less efficient in fixing atmosphere N₂ (Brockwell and Dudman, 1968) and more susceptible to different herbicides (Avrov, 1966) and this might explain the poor performance of the 'native' rhizobia in the presence of different herbicides on nodulation and other parameters of greengrams.

The production of indoleacetic acid (IAA) by *Rhizobium* both *in vitro* and *in vivo* from an exogenous tryptophan has been unequivocally proven by many workers (Rovira and Mc Dougall, 1967). The interaction of Lasso (0.5 kg ai/ha) with the inoculated *Rhizobium* has significantly yielded better nodulation, more dry matter production and N₂ content of soils than the interaction of Lasso (0.5 kg ai/ha) with 'native' *Rhizobium*. As suggested by Bovey (1971) the observed differences might be due to 'hormone-like' activities of Lasso at lower concentrations on the 'introduced Rhizobium'. The production of 'hormone-like' substances in the 'introduced' rhizobia may perhaps be more than in the 'native' rhizobia which in turn is reflected on rhizobial population and other plant characters. However, further work on the qualitative and quantitative differences in the growth promoting substances produced due to interaction of Lasso with the 'introduced' and 'native' *Rhizobium* is essential.

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Effect of Certain Pesticides on the Establishment of Rhizobia in the Spermosphere and Rhizosphere Regions of Leguminous Crops

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ABSTRACT

The effect of certain fungicides, insecticides and herbicides on the establishment of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L.) and greengram (*P. aureus* Roxb.) was studied. The organophosphorus pesticides, disyston and phorate did not reduce the populations of rhizobia in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of the three crop species. On the other hand, the fungicides, Brassicol and Benlate and the herbicides, TOK-E 25 and Matchet have slightly reduced the population levels in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of the three crop species. However, such a reduction in the rhizobial colonization due to fungicides and herbicides was relatively less marked in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut compared to those of either blackgram or greengram.

THE colonization and multiplication of *Rhizobium* in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions are of considerable importance in bacterial inoculation. The effect of plant protection measures on the efficiency of legume-*Rhizobium* symbiosis in fixing nitrogen has been studied by several workers (Leonard, 1936, Ebbels, 1967, Pareek and Gaur, 1969, Balaraman and Prasad, 1973, Oblisami *et al.*, 1973). The effects of certain fungicides, insecticides and herbicides on the survival and multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere of groundnut (*Arachis hypogaea* L.), blackgram (*Phaseolus mungo* L.) and greengram (*P. aureus* Ro × b) are reported in this paper.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

The seeds of groundnut (TMV 4), blackgram (Co 2) and greengram (Anjugam) were surface sterilized with 0.1 per cent mercuric chloride solution and washed with several changes of sterile water. They were then treated for 12 hr with respective rhizobial suspension. The treated seeds were dried in shade on filter paper. The seeds were sown in sterile soil incorporated with the following pesticides.

Fungicides: Brassicol 60WP (Pentachloronitrobenzene), Benlate 50 WP (methyl-1-(Butyl carbamoyl)-2-Benzimidazole carbamate).

Insecticides: Disyston 5G (0,0-diethyl-0-quinoxaliny (2)-thionophosphate, Phorate 100 (0,0-diethyl-5-(ethyl thio methyl phosphorodithioate)

Herbicides: Matchet-(Butuchloro)=3-chloro-2'6'-diethyl-N-(Butoxy-methyl)-acetamide. TOK-E. 25-2,4-Dichlorophenyl 4-nitrophenyl ether.

The pesticides were applied at their respective field rates. Brassicol, Benlate and Matchet were applied at 11 ppm and disyston, phorate and TOK-E-25 at 12.9 and 7 ppm respectively.

The spermosphere soil samples were collected at the end of 24 hrs and 72 hrs after sowing. Rhizosphere soil samples were collected at the end of 7th day and 9th day after sowing. The *Rhizobium* populations were estimated by serial dilution method employing congo red agar medium (Allen, 1953).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the effect of certain pesticides on the multiplication of *Rhizobium* in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut, blackgram and greengram are presented in Tables I to III.

TABLE I

Effect of certain pesticides on the establishment and multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of groundnut*

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
Control (<i>Rhizobium</i> alone)	3.60	4.80	7.20	7.84
Brassicol+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	3.50	4.65	6.80	7.20
Benlate+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	3.32	4.64	6.90	6.80
Disyston+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	3.50	4.90	7.25	7.00
Phorate+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	3.80	4.78	7.10	6.60
Matchet+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	3.40	3.48	7.10	7.20
Tok-E-25+ <i>Rhizobium</i>	2.40	3.12	6.00	6.72

*Population in 10⁶/g of moisture free soil.

In all the three crop species the seed inoculated *Rhizobium* sp. multiplied and colonized in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions. The organophosphorus pesticides disyston and phorate treatments, did not significantly reduce the colonization of inoculated rhizobia in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of the three crop species. Moreover, phorate treatment slightly increased the colonization of inoculated rhizobia in blackgram and greengram. Similar observations were reported by Ramani (1974), when groundnut seeds were

TABLE II

Effect of certain pesticides on the establishment and multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of blackgram*

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
Control (<i>Rhizobium</i> alone)	2 00	8 82	10 52	9 05
Brassicol+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	1 78	8 71	8 28	7 99
Benlate+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	2 00	7 19	8 25	8 53
Disyston+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	1 89	8 55	10 86	9 63
Phorate+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	1 58	9 20	11 05	9 81
Matchet+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	1 05	6 66	8 95	8 07
Tok-E-25+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	1 40	6 08	8 07	7 56

*Population 10⁶/g of moisture free soil

TABLE III

Effect of certain pesticides on the establishment and multiplication of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of greengram*

Treatment	Spermosphere		Rhizosphere	
	1st day	3rd day	7th day	9th day
Control (<i>Rhizobium</i> alone)	8 50	13 05	15 08	9 57
Brassicol+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	8 08	11 50	13 82	8 05
Benlate+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	8 92	11 85	8 99	7 58
Disyston+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	8 60	13 28	15 32	8 27
Phorate+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	8 48	15 02	16 55	9 60
Matchat+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	6 92	9 52	10 23	7 50
Tok-E-25+ (<i>Rhizobium</i>)	5 69	9 23	9 55	6 92

*Population in 10⁶/g of moisture free soil

treated with *Rhizobium plus* Disyston or D D T Oblisami *et al* (1974) reported that the nodulation, root length and dry weight of the groundnut plant was not affected by the application of four granular insecticides viz, Dasanite, Ekalux, Furadan and Solvirex

In the present study the Brassicol treatment did not markedly reduce the colonization of inoculated rhizobia in spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of the three crop species Benlate and two herbicides, Matchet and TOK-E 25, were found to significantly reduce the colonization of rhizobia in the spermosphere and rhizosphere regions of the three crop species Vransy (1975) reported that Benlate application brought about a fall in the bacterial population in the rhizosphere region However, significant reduction was not found with Benlate treatment in groundnut Balaraman and Prasad (1972) reported that groundnut seeds when treated with *Rhizobium plus* wet cerasan or captan or thiram did

not affect, the multiplication of rhizobia in the rhizosphere region of young plant. Similar finding was also reported by Ramani (1974) when groundnut seeds were treated with *Rhizobium plus* Brassicol or wet ceresan or Lasso or TOK-E 25

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Effect of Yellow Mosaic Virus Disease on Nodulation and Yield of Horsegram

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ABSTRACT

Eleven varieties of horsegram (*Dolichos biflorus* L.) were examined for the incidence of yellow mosaic and its effect on growth nodulation and yield. All the eleven varieties of horsegram were susceptible to the disease having lot of variation in the degree of susceptibility. Varieties such as BGM, Co 1, HPK 1 were less susceptible having infection up to 10 per cent, whereas two varieties viz, HPK 4 and HPK 2 were highly susceptible having the yellow mosaic infection of more than 25 per cent. The virus disease reduced the dry weight of the plant by 9 to 11 per cent, total number of nodules by 44.4 to 87.6 per cent and grain yield by 16 to 21.6 per cent in highly susceptible varieties.

INCIDENCE of yellow mosaic virus disease in different pulse crops such as greengram, blackgram and horsegram is reported to be widely prevalent in Tamil Nadu (Nariani, 1960, Williams *et al*, 1968). It affects horsegram (*Dolichos biflorus*) and seriously reduces the growth and yield of the plants (Nariani, 1960). Nagaich and Singh (1972) reported that sesbania mosaic reduced the growth, nodulation and yield of *Sesbania* and French-beans. Nene *et al* (1972) reported that the yellow mosaic disease caused serious losses to blackgram and greengram thus reducing the grain yield of the crop by about 90 per cent under natural conditions. Sivaprakasam *et al* (1974) observed that all the varieties of greengram and blackgram were susceptible to the yellow mosaic and the growth was stunted in legumes. In horsegram the yellow mosaic virus disease appears on young leaves in the form of mild scattered yellow specks or spots. Irregular yellow and green patches are found alternating each other. The green areas are slightly raised and the leaves show slight reduction in size. Irregular leaf lamina is found and the plant is greatly dwarfed due to reduction in leaf size.

The effect of the yellow mosaic disease under natural conditions on growth, nodulation and yield of eleven varieties of horsegram is reported in the present paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

A field trial was laid out in *rabi* season of 1976-77 under irrigated conditions in a randomised block design with four replications having plot size of 5 × 2.5 m. The trial comprised of eleven treatments in which the eleven different varieties of horsegram such as BGM, Co 1, HPK 1, HPK 3, HPK 4, HPK 5, Hebbal 1, Hebbal 2, Hebbal 3, HG 76, HG 93, were grown. The plants were allowed at the rate of one plant per hole with spacing of 30 × 20 cm. The crop was cultivated by adopting all the recommended package of practices. The incidence of yellow mosaic was first observed on 35th day after sowing and later, the observations were recorded on 65th day. The number of infected plants and healthy plants in a plot were first counted and then the percentage of infection was assessed. Healthy and diseased plant samples were collected from each plot and observations were recorded to assess the effects on growth and nodulation. Dry weight of the whole plant was taken as a parameter to assess the effect on growth. Total number of nodules per plant and the dry weight of the nodular tissue were considered as parameters to assess the effect on nodulation. The grains extracted from the pods harvested regularly, were finally pooled and weighed and the grain yield per plant was estimated.

TABLE I
Effect of yellow mosaic disease on nodulation and yield of horsegram

Horsegram varieties	Yellow mosaic infection (%)	Dry wt of plant (g)		Total nodules per plant (No)		Dry wt of nodular tissue (g)		Grain yield/plant (g)	
		Healthy	Diseased	Healthy	Diseased	Healthy	Diseased	Healthy	Diseased
<i>Less Susceptible (0-10%)</i>									
BGM	6.8	23.1	22.9	35.8	35.8	0.4249	0.4113	12.1	12.1
Co 1	7.0	7.7	7.5	16.5	15.8	0.1695	0.1672	10.1	10.0
HPK 1	8.4	4.8	4.8	38.8	38.8	0.4373	0.4369	4.6	4.5
<i>Moderately Susceptible (10-25%)</i>									
HG 76	10.3	14.4	14.4	63.5	63.0	0.6815	0.6789	5.1	5.1
HG 93	10.9	18.6	18.6	30.8	30.5	0.3636	0.3371	5.6	5.5
HPK 5	14.3	5.0	4.9	20.3	20.0	0.2517	0.2518	4.1	4.0
Hebbal 1	19.7	5.3	5.3	24.0	23.3	0.2635	0.2623	12.2	12.0
Hebbal 3	21.0	5.4	5.3	18.3	18.3	0.2291	0.2260	5.9	5.8
Hebbal 2	23.7	8.9	8.4	27.0	26.8	0.3267	0.3263	4.7	4.6
<i>Highly Susceptible (Above 25%)</i>									
HPK 4	25.0	8.3	7.6	32.0	18.0	0.3735	0.2494	6.9	5.5
HPK 2	28.0	6.1	5.4	36.0	20.0	0.3410	0.2495	8.8	9.9
S.E.	1.92	0.71	0.71	1.21	1.01	0.018	0.013	0.034	0.035
CD at 5%	5.54	2.06	2.05	3.48	2.91	0.051	0.038	0.100	0.100

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All the eleven varieties of horsegram were susceptible to yellow mosaic disease. However, the horsegram varieties such as BGM, Co 1 and HPK 1 were comparatively less susceptible having the infection up to 10 per cent. The varieties such as HG 76, HG 93, HPK 5, Hebbal 1, HPK 3 and Hebbal 2 were moderately susceptible having the infection ranging from 10 to 25 per cent. But the varieties such as HPK 4 and HPK 2 were highly susceptible showing the infection above 25 per cent. It was found that the dry weight of the whole plant, total number of nodules per plant, dry weight of nodular tissue and the grain yield per plant did not vary very much between the diseased and healthy plants of the less susceptible and moderately susceptible varieties. But varieties of highly susceptible group, such as HPK 4 and HPK 2 were affected very much in growth, nodulation and yield (Table I). In the case of HPK 4 the reductions in growth and nodulation were 9 per cent and 87.6 per cent, respectively while in case of HPK 2 reductions in growth and nodulation were 11 per cent and 44.4 per cent, respectively. Similarly, there was significant reduction in the dry weight of nodular tissue. Yield of grain was also reduced by 16 per cent in HPK 4 and by 21.6 per cent in HPK 2. These observations are in conformity with the findings of Nagaich and Singh (1972).

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Effect of Different Insecticides on *Azotobacter* Isolates Obtained from the Rhizosphere of C₄ Plants

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ABSTRACT

The effect of different technical grade insecticides *viz.*, lindane, thimet and carbofuran at 1 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentrations on the growth, polysaccharide production, pigmentation and nitrogen fixation of three isolates of *Azotobacter* obtained from *Brachiaria mutica* (Azo. 1), *Mollugo* sp. (Azo. 2) and *Portulaca oleraceae* (Azo. 3) was investigated. At 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration all the insecticide stimulated the growth of the three isolates. However at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration while all the three insecticides stimulated the growth of Azo. 2, thimet and carbofuran stimulated the growth of Azo. 1. All the insecticides at 1 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration inhibited the alkali-stable polysaccharide production; all the insecticides at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ exerted inhibitory effect on water soluble polysaccharide production. Although at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration all the insecticides and at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration of lindane stimulated pigment production, in all the isolates tested. None of the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration exhibited any marked difference with respect to nitrogen fixation. However, all the insecticides at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration inhibited nitrogen fixation of all the isolates.

ALTHOUGH it has become axiomatic that the plants fix CO₂ by Calvin cycle, recent studies have revealed yet another pathway—C₄ dicarboxylic acid pathway in some tropical plants that accumulate more carbohydrates (Zelitch, 1971; Bhagwat and Sane, 1976). Dobereiner *et al.* (1972a, 1972b) reported that *Azotobacter* associated with such C₄ plants are more efficient in fixing molecular nitrogen presumably by utilising the 'ready-made' carbohydrate materials provided by the C₄ plants in the rhizosphere region. Soil, ultimately being the repository of various pesticides, detergents etc., the microorganisms prevalent in the soil are tremendously influenced by such chemicals (Van Schreven *et al.*, 1970; Sreenivasalu and Rangaswami, 1973) and more so the heterotrophic, free living nitrogen fixing bacteria—*Azotobacter* (MacKenzie and MacRae 1972; Sahrawat, 1975). The effect of some insecticides and the activities of *Azotobacter* isolates obtained from different C₄ plants are reported in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Organism: From the rhizosphere of three C₄ plants *viz.*, *Brachiaria mutica*, *Mollugo* sp. and *Portulaca oleraceae*, *Azotobacter* isolates Azo. 1, Azo 2

and Azo 3, respectively were obtained following standard microbiological techniques (Pramer and Schmidt, 1966)

Growth studies The various insecticides viz , lindane (gamma BHC 1,2,3, 4,5,6, hexachloro cyclohexane), thimet [0,0-diethyl-S-(ethylthiomethyl) phosphorothiolothionate] and carbofuran (2,3,-dihydro-2-2-dimethyl-7 benzo furanyl methylcarbamate) at 1 and 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration were incorporated into Waksman 77 medium and dispersed in 100 ml quantities into 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks. One ml of *Azotobacter* isolates in log phase of growth (ca 7×10^9 cells/ml) was inoculated and incubated on a rotary shaker 72 hr at $28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$. The growth of the organism was assessed by determining the biomass.

Estimation of polysaccharides Cells were harvested by centrifugation at $3000 \times g$ for 15 min and the alkali-stable polysaccharides (ASP) were extracted following the method of Hassid and Abraham (1957) and quantified using anthrone method (Selewski *et al* , 1974). Water-soluble polysaccharides (WSP) were estimated by a modified procedure of Damery and Alexander (1969). To 100 ml of cell-free centrifugate 200 ml of acetone were added and after 2 hr at room temperature ($28 \pm 2^\circ\text{C}$) the crude polysaccharide was filtered through Whatman No 42 filter paper and the residue was dried at 70°C to constant weight.

Pigment production From the cells harvested after centrifugation at $3000 \times g$, pigments were extracted and estimated by boiling the cells in 5 ml of 11 M KOH for 1 hr and adjusting the pH to 3.0 by the addition of 1 N HCl. The volume was made up to 20 ml and the optical density measured at 600 nm.

Nitrogen estimation The total nitrogen in the broth was estimated by micro Kjeldahl method (Bremner, 1960).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration promoted the growth of the three isolates of *Azotobacter*. However at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration while all the insecticides stimulated the growth of Azo 2, thimet and carbofuran stimulated the growth of Azo 1 also (Table I). All the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration inhibited the ASP production but not the WSP production. However at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration all the insecticides inhibited both the ASP and WSP production in all the isolates (Table II).

With regard to the influence of different insecticides on pigment production (Table III) all the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration stimulated pigment production in the three isolates. However at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration while lindane stimulated pigment production in all the isolates, thimet stimulated pigment production in Azo 1 alone. The effect of different insecticides on

TABLE I
Effect of different insecticides on the growth of Azotobacter isolates
 (Expressed as biomass mg/100 ml)

Isolate	Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)			Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)			Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		
	Control	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10
Azo 1	515	780	465	660	540	800	620		
Azo 2	860	1060	920	910	880	935	875		
Azo 3	765	905	715	785	655	960	745		

TABLE II
Effect of different insecticides on the production of polysaccharides by different Azotobacter isolates

Isolate	Water soluble polysaccharides (mg/100 ml)						Alkali stable polysaccharides (mg/g dry weight)							
	Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Control		Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	
Control	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10	1	10
Azo 1	1825	1830	1710	1855	1725	1825	1805	1825	125	105	115	95	110	85
Azo 2	1915	1950	1805	1930	1860	1920	1825	1825	110	85	105	75	100	80
Azo 3	1405	1505	1300	1480	1305	1420	1365	105	105	65	95	60	95	75

TABLE III

Effect of different insecticides on pigment production by Azotobacter isolates
(Expressed as pigment produced in OD/g dry weight)

Isolate	Control	Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	
		1	10	1	10	1	10
Azo 1	4.05	4.25	4.15	4.20	4.15	4.15	4.05
Azo 2	3.75	3.95	3.80	3.90	2.75	4.15	2.25
Azo 3	5.15	5.20	5.20	5.25	3.25	5.00	3.10

nitrogen fixation of the three isolates is quite revealing (Table IV) in that none of the insecticides at 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration exhibited any marked difference in their nitrogen fixing capacity. However, at 10 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration marked inhibition of nitrogen fixation was observed.

TABLE IV

Effect of different insecticides on nitrogen fixation by Azotobacter isolates
(Expressed as mg of N_2 fixed/g of mannite)

Isolate	Control	Lindane ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Thimet ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)		Carbofuran ($\mu\text{g/ml}$)	
		1	10	1	10	1	10
Azo 1	24.0	24.0	20.5	23.5	20.5	23.5	20.5
Azo 2	23.5	24.0	20.0	23.0	19.0	23.0	20.0
Azo 3	25.0	25.0	23.0	24.5	20.0	24.5	22.5

Sensitivity of *Azotobacter* to various groups of insecticides has been reported by many workers (Gaur and Misra, 1970, MacRae and Celo, 1974, Mallikarjuniah and Bhide, 1975). The differential inhibition or stimulation of growth of three isolates in the presence of the insecticides at the concentrations tested could be attributed either to the time lag in the adaptation of bacteria (Sahrawat, 1975) or to the degradation and utilization of the insecticides respectively (Kearney *et al.*, 1967). However further investigations on the enzymatic analysis and the nature of various intermediates of pesticide degradation are warranted.

The production of polysaccharides is an important character of aerobic nitrogen fixing *Azotobacter*. At 1 $\mu\text{g/ml}$ concentration while all the insecticides stimulated the WSP production, the production of ASP was inhibited. Sutherland (1972) reported that the quantity and quality of the polysaccharides synthesised are governed by many factors *viz.*, nutritional conditions, presence of certain trace elements, genetic character of the strains etc. Thus the differences in the quantity of ASP and WSP produced by the three isolates in the presence of different insecticides is probably due to the change in the

physiology of the organisms brought about by the insecticides. The degree of inhibition or stimulation of growth by different insecticides at various concentrations does not bear any correlation on the production of ASP or WSP in all the isolates and this is in conformity with the findings of Jayachandran *et al* (1977) who reported that growth and polysaccharide production were not related with each other in *A. chroococcum*.

The fact that polysaccharide production occurs only with those nitrogen fixers found in soil or plant surfaces but not with those in water lends further support to the view that polysaccharides serve in impeding the entry of oxygen into *Azotobacter* cells and thus protect the 'oxygen labile' nitrogenase enzyme (Postgate, 1974). Hill *et al* (1972) also reported that *Deixia* cells devoid of slime could not fix molecular nitrogen. However, no conclusive evidence is available on the role and function of polysaccharides on nitrogen fixation.

The production of a specific pigment by *Azotobacter* is a genetically controlled character (Mulder and Brotonegoro, 1974). Purushothaman *et al* (1977) reported that the intensity of pigmentation in different *Azotobacter* isolates obtained from C₃ and C₄ plants were different from each other. Further, the introduction or deletion of some chemicals like copper was reported (Mulder and Brotonegoro, 1974) to affect pigment production in *A. chroococcum*.

One of the fringe consequences of intensive study on N₂ fixation in *Azotobacter* is the recognition of various ecological, edaphic and agro-climatic factors on the magnitude of N₂ fixed in soil. The inhibition of N₂ fixation by all the insecticides at 10 µg/ml concentration is in conformity with the findings of Sahrawat (1975) who reported the inhibition of N₂ fixation in *Azotobacter* by 2, 4, 5 T. Although lindane, thimet and carbofuran inhibited the growth, polysaccharide production, pigmentation and N₂ fixation to varying levels on the *Azotobacter* isolates tested there existed no correlation between (i) growth and polysaccharide production (ii) growth and pigmentation and (iii) growth polysaccharide production, pigmentation and N₂ fixation.

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Effect of Insecticides on Growth, IAA Production and Nitrogen Fixation of *Azotobacter chroococcum*

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ABSTRACT

The effect of Aldicarb (2 methyl-2 [methyl thio] thio) propionaldehyde-O methyl carbamoyl oxime), Disyston (disulfoton) (0,0-diethyl-S-2 (ethylthio) ethyl phosphorodithioate) and Dasanit (fensulfothion) (0,0 dimethyl 0-4, methyl sulphanyl phenyl monothio phosphate) on the growth, indole acetic acid (IAA) production and nitrogen fixation of *Azotobacter chroococcum* Beij were studied *in vitro*. Significant reduction in the growth of the cells treated with 5 ppm (normal dose) of the pesticides was observed while the effect at 2 ppm level varied with the pesticide. Not only the IAA production but the *in vitro* nitrogen fixation was also adversely affected by increasing concentration of the pesticides.

INTENSIVE plant protection methods necessitate application of large quantities of pesticides for the control of pests and diseases of crops. Eventhough most of these chemicals are known to be degraded fairly quickly by several soil microorganisms, a considerable portion of them remain in soil for a long period as recalcitrant molecules and they are known to accumulate in soil in due course. These insecticide residues on coming into direct contact with the soil microorganisms are likely to affect the microbiological processes of the soil. Although several workers have shown that these pesticides, at normal concentrations, do not affect the population of *Azotobacter chroococcum* Beij, they have not elucidated the effect of these chemicals on the activities of this organism at the cellular level (Eno, 1958, Gaur and Mishra, 1970 and Sreenivasalu and Rangaswamy, 1973). The effect of three common soil insecticides on the growth and certain metabolic activities of *A. chroococcum* are reported in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Growth measurements The original inoculum was prepared by transferring the authentic culture from an agar slope to 100 ml of Waksman-77 broth contained in a 250 ml Erlenmeyer flask and incubated for 72 hr on a rotary shaker at $28^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 2^{\circ}\text{C}$. For growth studies, one ml of this uniform suspension was inoculated into 99 ml of the same liquid medium. Calculated quantities of sterilised, technical grade insecticides, aldicarb (2 methyl-2 (methyl thio) propionaldehyde-0-methyl carbamoyl oxime), Dasanit (fensulfothion) (0,0-dimethyl 0-4-methyl sulphanyl phenyl phosphorothioate) and Disyston (disulfoton) (0,0-diethyl S-2-ethyl thio ethyl phosphoro-dithioate) solutions were injected into the medium.

to obtain final concentrations of 2, 5 and 10 ppm (a l), just before inoculating the *A. chroococcum* cells. Each treatment was replicated twice. The flasks were inoculated at 28°C on a rotary shaker and at periodical intervals the growth was measured with an Erma colorimeter at 420 nm (blue filter) (Balasubramanian and G. ta Nilakantan, 1976). The optical density (O D) was computed and the growth curve was plotted.

Estimation of indole acetic acid (IAA) production One ml of 72 hr old culture was inoculated into 99 ml of Waksman-77 broth containing 10 mg of L-tryptophan along with 0,2,5 and 10 ppm of the insecticides and incubated for 15 days at 28°C. The indole acetic acid content was estimated at 4, 8 and 15 days intervals following the procedure of Chandramohan and Mahadevan (1968). The total quantity of IAA produced per 100 ml of mediam was calculated from a standard curve prepared from authentic samples of IAA.

Estimation of nitrogen content One ml of 72 hr old inoculum was transferred to 99 ml of Waksman-77 broth along with 0, 2, 5 and 10 ppm of the insecticides and incubated for 15 days at 28°C. Nitrogen content of the cells was estimated at 5, 10 and 15 day intervals in a microkjeldhal's distillation unit following the procedure described by Humphries (1956).

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

While the lower concentration of aldicarb (2 ppm) treatment showed slight stimulation in the growth of *A. chroococcum* cells, the normal (5 ppm) and the higher (10 ppm) levels inhibited the growth, with disulfoton and fensulfotion, there was not much variation in growth at 2 ppm level, whereas at 5 and 10 ppm levels growth was considerably affected (Fig 1).

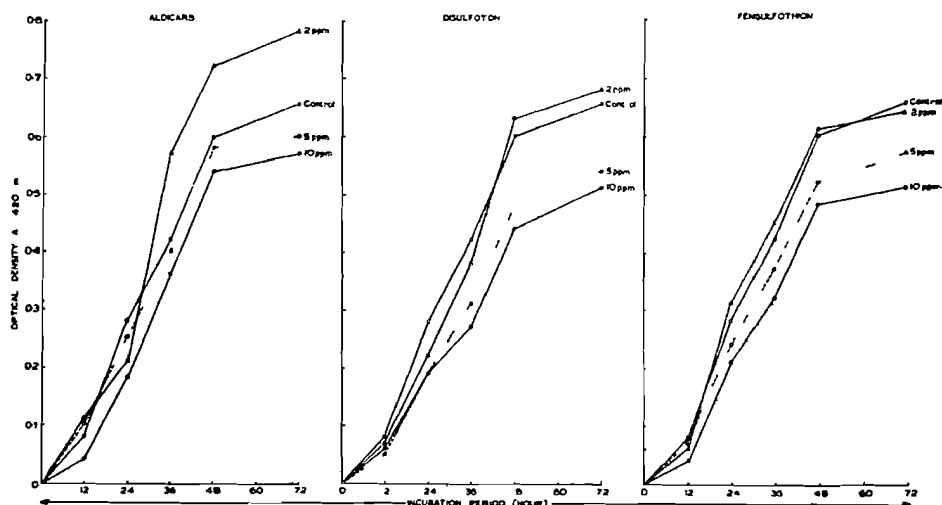


Fig 1

That the lower concentration of the pesticides did not affect the growth of *Azotobacter* have been reported by earlier workers (MacKenzie and MacRae, 1972). Inhibition of growth of *A. chroococcum* at higher concentrations of pesticides has also been reported earlier (Kandasamy *et al*, 1975, Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan, 1975 and 1976, Garg, 1977). The results indicate that at very low concentrations the insecticides have no significant effect on *A. chroococcum* cells, while at the higher concentrations affected the growth of the organism. It may be due to toxicity of the chemicals or inhibition on the assimilatory processes and consequently on growth.

The IAA production potential of *A. chroococcum* cells was maximum on the 4th day of incubation which declined thereafter. All the three insecticides considerably reduced the IAA production potential of the organism *in vitro* at 5 and 10 ppm concentrations, with little effect at the 2 ppm level (Table I).

TABLE I
Effect of the insecticides on indole acetic acid (IAA) production by *A. chroococcum*

Treatment	*IAA produced in micrograms/100 ml culture		
	4th day	8th day	15th day
Control (No insecticide)	331.56	128.57	34.50
Aldicarb 2 ppm	349.98	162.71	20.00
„ 5 ppm	299.33	121.27	23.10
„ 10 ppm	242.53	96.71	26.70
Disulfoton 2 ppm (Disyston)	345.38	132.01	30.70
„ 5 ppm	287.05	127.41	31.50
„ 10 ppm	217.97	101.31	23.80
Fensulfothion 2 ppm	328.49	135.85	38.40
(Dasanit) 5 ppm	305.47	118.97	35.30
„ 10 ppm	205.69	85.54	34.50

* values represent mean of duplicates

Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan (1976) have shown that aldicarb at the recommended level adversely affected the *in vitro* production of IAA by both *A. chroococcum* and *Rhizobium japonicum*.

The *in vitro* nitrogen fixation of *A. chroococcum* was maximum on the 10th day of incubation, however, the nitrogen fixation in presence of different concentrations of the insecticides, decreased significantly with increase in the insecticide concentration (Table II). Considering the reduced growth and IAA production by the insecticide treated cells, the decrease in the quantity of nitrogen fixed is quite understandable. In view of the adverse effect of the insecticides on the growth, IAA production and nitrogen fixation of *A. chroococcum* at the normal (5 ppm) and higher (10 ppm) levels of the insecticides it is

TABLE II

Effect of the insecticides on the in vitro nitrogen fixation by A. chroococcum

Treatment	*Nitrogen content in mg/100 ml culture		
	5th day	10th day	15th day
No insecticide (control)	11.90	14.48	11.03
Aldicarb 2 ppm	10.90	10.90	10.10
„ 5 ppm	11.20	11.29	8.84
„ 10 ppm	8.40	9.15	8.49
Disulfoton 2 ppm (Disyston)	9.50	10.68	9.19
„ 5 ppm	8.80	9.49	8.58
„ 10 ppm	7.70	7.98	8.05
Fensulfothion 2 ppm	9.80	10.15	9.36
(Dasanit) 5 ppm	7.70	8.75	7.96
10 ppm	8.80	7.84	7.00

*values represent mean of duplicates

likely that the beneficial effects of this organism on plant growth may also be affected adversely by these presence of the insecticides in soil (Balasubramanian and Gita Nilakantan, 1976)

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Variations in the Degradation of Disyston by *Azotobacter chroococcum* and *Aspergillus niger*

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MUCH of current research is concerned with the fate of pesticides in soil and their effect on microorganisms and their activities. As inhibitors of biological systems, the pesticides may exert deleterious effect on soil microorganisms, the result of which may be detrimental to many soil microbiological processes. Microorganisms, however, play a major role in the degradation of pesticides (Ahmed and Cassida, 1958, Matsumura and Boush, 1971). Although extensive evidences are available on the biodegradation of insecticides by microorganisms in general, not much information is at hand, in particular on the extent of degradation by *Azotobacter chroococcum* and *Aspergillus niger*.

Disyston (100 ppm) was added to (a) sterile red sandy loam soil, (b) sterile red sandy loam soil inoculated with a suspension of *Azotobacter* or *Aspergillus* and (c) Normal (unsterile) soil. The residue of disyston was estimated colorimetrically as per the procedure described by Schumann and Olson (1964) at weekly interval. Total microbial populations in normal soil and *Azotobacter* and *Aspergillus* populations from the inoculated soils were estimated at weekly interval following the standard procedures.

The results revealed that the dissipation of disyston increased with incubation time (Table I). In sterile soil eventhough there are no biological

TABLE I
Dissipation of disyston in soil inoculated with microorganisms
(initial level of insecticide 100 ppm)

Treatment	Days of incubation			
	7	14	21	28
Sterile soil	91.78	89.39	79.10	68.45
Normal soil	84.22	66.60	54.22	34.15
	(91.76)	(74.50)	(68.54)	(49.89)
<i>Aspergillus niger</i>	88.41	74.66	69.00	57.18
inoculated soil	(96.32)	(83.52)	(87.23)	(83.53)
<i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i>	58.35	49.82	30.41	9.38
inoculated soil	(63.57)	(55.73)	(38.44)	(13.70)

Figures in the parentheses denote the percentage of residue in soil

system there was about 30 per cent dissipation at the end of 4 weeks which might be due to photo-decomposition of the chemical or evaporation into the atmosphere by dust particles and water vapour (Matsumura and Boush, 1971) In normal soil the dissipation was rapid when compared to sterile soil indicating the role of soil microflora in the degradation Among the two organisms studied, *Azotobacter* degraded the insecticide very rapidly The percentage of residue left in *Azotobacter* inoculated soil was very low at all stages of sampling when compared to the level of residue in *Aspergillus* inoculated soil The difference is quite distinct at the end of fourth week when the quantity of residue was very less in *Azotobacter* inoculated soil The reason may perhaps, be due to its capacity to absorb the insecticide as reported by Kandasamy *et al* (1976)

TABLE II
Changes in microbial population in soil added with disyston
(population $\times 10^x$ per g of moisture free soil)

Treatment	Population				
	Before application	After application (days)			
		7	14	21	28
Normal soil (Total population) ($\times 10^7$)	12.35	15.48	18.30	21.55	26.06
<i>Aspergillus niger</i> inoculated soil ($\times 10^5$)	50.71	51.02	56.21	36.41	37.20
<i>Azotobacter chroococcum</i> inoculated soil ($\times 10^4$)	61.44	58.17	63.15	71.47	108.14

In *Aspergillus*-inoculated soil, there was an increase in the residue level during the third and fourth weeks although it was decreasing during the initial stages The fact that a depression in *Aspergillus* population at these stages (Table II) suggested the possible absorption and slow release of insecticide from the dead cells into the medium (Ahmed and Cassida, 1958)

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In Vitro Screening of *Azotobacter* for Tolerance towards Certain Fungicides, Granular Insecticides and Herbicides

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ABSTRACT

The effect of Benlate, Dexon, Demosan, Brassicol and Wet Ceresan on the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter* was studied at different concentrations viz, 100, 250, 500 and 1000 ppm. Benlate and Brassicol did not markedly inhibit the growth at all the concentrations tested. Demosan and Dexon slightly inhibited the growth up to 500 ppm, but 1000 ppm concentration inhibited the growth markedly. Wet Ceresan affected the growth very pronouncedly at higher concentrations. Ekalux, Disyston, Thimet and Furadan exerted only a slight inhibitory effect on growth. Machete and Lasso inhibited the growth only at 100 ppm.

THE improved yield and soil fertility due to inoculation with *Azotobacter* have been reported by many workers. Various agro-chemicals applied to the soil are likely to affect the population of *Azotobacter* in the soil. The effect may be stimulatory or harmful (Deshmukh and Shrikhande, 1974, Siddaramgowda *et al*, 1973, and Mallikajuniah and Bhide, 1975). The results on the effect of certain fungicides, granular insecticides and herbicides at different concentrations on the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter* are presented in this paper.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

The following fungicides, granular insecticides and herbicides were used in this study.

FUNGICIDES

- i) Benlate 50 WP (methyl-1-(Butyl Carbamoyl)-2-Benzimidazole carbamate),
- ii) Brassicol 60 WP (Pentachloronitrobenzene),
- iii) Demosan 60 WP (1, 4-dichloro 2-5 dimethoxy benzene)
- iv) Wet Ceresan (Methoxy ethyl mercuric chloride)

GRANULAR INSECTICIDES

- i) Ekalux 5 G (0, 0-diethyl-0 (Quinoxalanyl (2)-thionophosphate),
- ii) Disyston 5 G (0, 0-diethyl -S-2 (ethylthio) Phosphorodithioate),
- iii) Thimet 10 G (0, 0-diethyl-5, 5 (ethyl thio methyl phosphorodithioate),
- iv) Furadan 3 G (2, 3-dihydro-2, 2-dimethyl-7-benzofuranylmethyl Carbamate)

HERBICIDES

- 1) Machete (2-chloro-2'-6'' - diethyl - N -(Butoxy methyl) - acetanilide)
- ii) Lasso (2-chloro -2'-6'' - diethyl -N- (methoxy methyl) - acetanilide)

The fungicides, insecticides and herbicides were incorporated aseptically into 50 ml of sterilized yeast extract mannitol broth at different concentrations. Uniform inoculation potential was added into these flasks and the growth of *Azotobacter* isolate (AU 3) was measured at 24hr interval up to 72hr by reading the absorbance at 610 m μ in a Spectronic - '20 Colorimeter

The fungicides were tested at 100, 250, 500 and 1000 ppm concentrations. The insecticides and herbicides were tested at 10, 20, 50 and 100 ppm levels

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

The results on the effect of different fungicides on the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter* are presented in Table I. All the fungicides tested adversely

TABLE I
Effect of certain fungicides on the in vitro growth of Azotobacter

Treatment (ppm)	Benlate	Dexon	Demosan	Brassicol	Wet Ceresan
Control	0.270	0.270	0.110	0.195	0.195
100	0.240	0.205	0.075	0.190	0.187
250	0.195	0.195	0.070	0.172	0.170
500	0.185	0.125	0.065	0.150	0.160
1000	0.122	0.058	0.035	0.132	0.077
C D (P=0.01)	0.007	0.006	0.019	0.020	0.007

Absorbance at 610 m μ

affected the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter*. The inhibitory effect increased with increase in the concentration of the fungicide. However, none of the fungicides tested have inhibited the growth markedly up to 100 ppm. Even at a concentration of 1000 ppm, Benlate and Brassicol did not reveal pronounced inhibition of the growth of the culture. Siddarama Gowda *et al* (1973) reported an increase in *Azotobacter* population when soil was treated with Benlate

at concentration of 10,000 ppm. Mallikarjunaiah and Bhide (1975) also reported stimulation of *Azotobacter* growth by Benlate and Brassicol.

The effect of insecticides on the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter* are presented in Table II. With Disyston and Thimet the growth increased with

TABLE II
Effect of certain insecticides on the in vitro growth of Azotobacter

Treatment (ppm)	Ekalux	Ditsyston	Thimet	Furadan
Control	0.152	0.180	0.180	0.172
10	0.135	0.227	0.145	0.152
20	0.125	0.165	0.137	0.142
50	0.120	0.137	0.127	0.112
100	0.107	0.115	0.110	0.112
C.D.	(P=0.05)=0.026	(P=0.05)=0.008	(P=0.01)=0.026	(P=0.05)=0.029

Absorbance at 610 m μ

increase in concentration up to 10 ppm. Thereafter the growth decreased with increase in concentration. Pochan and Lajudie (1948) reported stimulation of *Azotobacter* by BHC at the recommended doses. On the other hand, in the case of Ekalux and Furadan the growth decreased steadily with increase in concentration. However, the growth was not markedly lowered with these two insecticides even up to 20 ppm. Jones (1956) and Duda (1958) reported that non-symbiotic nitrogen fixing bacteria were not inhibited by excessive amounts of Chlordane, Aldrin, Dieldrin, Endrin and Methoxychlor.

The effect of herbicides on the *in vitro* growth of *Azotobacter* are presented in Table III. No inhibitory effect of Machete was observed up to 100 ppm and that of Lasso up to 20 ppm. Even at 50 ppm of Lasso considerable growth was present. Arthur (1953), Magee and Colmer (1955) and Goarin and

TABLE III
Effect of herbicides on the in vitro growth of Azotobacter

Treatment (ppm)	Machete	Lasso
Control	0.160	0.160
10	0.220	0.187
20	0.205	0.165
50	0.182	0.130
100	0.162	0.087
C.D. (P=0.01)	0.016	0.020

Absorbance at 610m μ

Armand (1957) stated that herbicides like 2, 4-D, MCPA Dalapon, triethanolamine and dinitrocresol applied at recommended doses were without any effect on the soil *Azotobacter*. The results of the present investigation have revealed that the fungicides, insecticides and herbicides tested are not likely to inhibit *Azotobacter* in soil at the usual field rate application.

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Behaviour of *Azotobacter chroococcum* in the Presence of Certain Herbicides

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SEVERAL workers have reported a decline in the number of *Azotobacter* species in soil following herbicide applications and inferred that nitrogen fixation would, therefore, be affected (Galler and Khariton, 1961 Babak, 1968) However the effect of herbicides on the metabolic activities of specific soil microorganism especially of agricultural importance is little understood This note deals with the results on the effect of three soil applied, pre-emergence herbicides viz, Karmex [3, (3, 4-dichlorophenyl)-1, 1-dimethyl urea (Diuron), simazine (2, 4-Bis] (ethylamino)-6(chloro)-5-triazine) and Tok-E-25 (2, 4-Dichlorophenyl), 4-nitrophenyl ether) (Nitrofen) on biomass, respiration and extracellular water-soluble polysaccharide production of *Azotobacter chroococcum*

The organism was grown in the nitrogen free Waksman No 77 broth The medium was dispensed in 250 ml Erlenmeyer flasks and sterilized One ml of uniformly suspended *Azotobacter* cells, experiencing stationary phase of growth, was inoculated into the flask containing the medium Calculated quantities of sterile commercial grade herbicides solution were added into the medium just before inoculating the bacterial cells to obtain final concentrations of 1 ppm, 5 ppm and 10 ppm active ingredient

After inoculation, the culture were incubated in a rotary shaker for 48 hr at $28^{\circ}\text{C} \pm 1^{\circ}\text{C}$ Duplicates were maintained for each treatment with appropriate control

The endogenous respiratory activity was measured in a Warburg respirometer The biomass production and extracellular water-soluble polysaccharide production was estimated following the method detailed by Couperwhite and McCallum (1975)

The results are presented in Table I The growth (Biomass production) of the organism was reduced in the presence of higher concentrations (5 and 10 ppm) of Karmex and Tok-E-25 Babak (1968) found that pure cultures of *Azotobacter* were sensitive to some extent to variety of herbicides at levels approximating normal dosage for weed control However, Chandra (1964) and Bounds and Colmer (1964) reported that some herbicides did not inhibit microbial growth for any significant period Similarly, Mackenzie and MacRae (1972)

TABLE I
Influence of pre-emergence herbicides on Azotobacter chroococcum

Treatment		Biomass (mg/100 ml)	Respiratory activity (μm of O_2 /g/hr)	Water soluble polysaccharide (mg/100 ml)
Karmex	—1 00 ppm	100 00	367 45	190 0
„	—5 0 „	50 0	123 60	165 0
„	—10 0 „	40 0	103 30	130 0
Simazine	—1 0 „	250 0	390 53	270 0
„	—5 0 „	120 0	320 76	255 0
„	—10 0 „	100 0	310 20	185 0
TOK-E-25	—1 0 „	120 0	405 00	250 0
„	—5 0 „	50 0	114 61	160 0
„	—10 0 „	30 0	101 82	145 0
Control		100 0	372 50	235 0

also reported that at field application rate and fifty times the levels of herbicides had no effect on *Azotobacter vinelandii*

Endogenous respiratory activity of the organism, in general, was reduced by all the three herbicides, although 1 0 ppm concentration of simazine and TOK-E-25 were slightly stimulatory. Extracellular water-soluble polysaccharide production was inhibited in the presence of Karmex and higher concentration of Tok-E-25 (5 and 10 ppm and simazine (10 ppm)

Interestingly enough, there exists an apparent positive relationship between respiratory activity, biomass and polysaccharide production. A reduction in respiratory activity reflects, in general, on less biomass and polysaccharide indicating an altered metabolism of the organism in the presence of the herbicide.

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SESSION IV

Problems in the Production and Quality
Control of Inoculants

A Note on Cheap Substitute for Mannitol in *Rhizobium* Inoculant Production Medium

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In India large scale production of legume inoculants on commercial scale is of recent origin and is gaining importance. Major factors contributing to the cost of the inoculant are availability and price of mannitol which is a commonly used carbon substrate in the production medium of yeast extract mannitol broth.

Earlier reports by Vangnai *et al* (1976) have shown that in case of *Rhizobium japonicum*, good growth could be obtained with sucrose as carbon and energy source and reducing the cost of production by 70 per cent. Nandi and Sinha (1975) have shown mollasses to be a superior carbon source to malt extract, sucrose and mannitol mixture or mannitol alone. Their modified medium, comprised of 10 g sucrose, 5 g mannitol and 200 ml yeast extract solution per litre. It proved to be the best among the various formulations tried.

In the present study two isolates of *Rhizobium viz*, UASB-94 and UASB-126, and media containing one per cent mannitol, glucose, sucrose, malt extract, sorbitol or commercial grade sugar, as the case may be were used. Two sets were maintained with two replications each. One set was incubated in the shake culture while the other was kept under stationary conditions. Samples were removed at periodic intervals and plated on yeast extract mannitol agar with congo red for viable count.

The results (Table I) indicated that under stationary culture conditions the isolate, UASB-126 attained the maximum growth on sixth day with glucose as carbon source.

Under shake culture conditions all the carbon sources gave higher cell yield per ml than control containing mannitol alone. Among these sorbitol was the best followed by sucrose. On ninth day of incubation malt extract gave the highest cell yield followed by mannitol.

In case of UASB-94, (Table II) shake culture proved better than stationary culture. On the fourth day all the sugars other than mannitol gave higher cell yield. Of these, commercial grade sugar was the best followed by sorbitol. On the sixth day mannitol gave higher cell yield than the other carbon sources.

TABLE I

*Cheap substitute for mannitol in mass culture medium
with Rhizobium japonicum (USAB-126)*

Treatment	Rhizobium count per ml ($\times 10^8$) on		
	3rd day	6th day	9th day
	<i>Standing Culture</i>		
Mannitol	1.63	13.0	5.82
Glucose	2.45	31.0	2.64
Sucrose	0.72	12.0	8.40
Malt Extract	0.20	15.0	2.80
Sorbitol	1.12	7.0	6.56
Sugar	0.80	11.0	4.88
	<i>Shake Culture</i>		
Mannitol	5.0	9.0	28.0
Glucose	18.0	17.0	19.0
Sucrose	10.0	23.0	15.0
Malt Extract	0.8	12.0	110.0
Sorbitol	8.0	47.0	11.0
Sugar	8.0	23.0	8.0

TABLE II

*Cheap substitute for mannitol in mass culture medium
with Rhizobium sp (USAB-94)*

Treatment	Rhizobium count per ml ($\times 10^8$) on		
	2nd day	4th day	6th day
	<i>Standing Culture</i>		
Mannitol	0.046	0.040	0.095
Glucose	0.031	0.030	Contaminated
Sucrose	0.150	0.090	0.195
Malt Extract	0.066	0.120	0.032
Sorbitol	0.150	0.060	0.215
Sugar	0.013	0.063	0.370
	<i>Shake Culture</i>		
Mannitol	0.110	0.800	36.00
Glucose	0.115	1.000	29.00
Sucrose	0.250	2.400	21.00
Malt Extract	0.170	2.100	27.00
Sorbitol	0.140	4.300	18.00
Sugar	0.090	6.000	28.00

Malt extract in general was superior to other sugars. Nandi and Sinha (1975) also arrived at the same conclusion.

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Effect of Sorbitol on the Growth of *Rhizobium* for Inoculant Production

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RHIZOBIA are not highly fastidious in their nutrient requirements; they utilize mono-di and poly-saccharides readily, although some slow growing strains prefer pentoses as carbon source (Graham and Parker, 1964; Burton, 1967). Mannitol is employed in culturing cowpea rhizobia for large scale production (Burton, 1967). A high count broth is required to ensure a high quality inoculant. For this, a rapid growth period is desirable to reduce the risk of contamination and also to reduce the running costs of the equipment under large scale production of legume inoculants. Due to scarcity and increased cost of mannitol, the possibility of replacing the same with comparatively cheaper carbon sources like sucrose and sorbitol was attempted and the results are presented in this note.

The mannitol content of the yeast extract mannitol broth medium was replaced by different carbon sources like dextrose, sucrose and sorbitol and the sterilized medium was introduced with the standard uniform load of inoculum (*Rhizobium* sp - Ah6 strain) and kept under shake culture with sufficient numbers of replication. Samples were removed at periodical intervals and the optical density was recorded employing Spectronic 20 colorimeter using 470 nm. The rhizobial cells were removed by filtration and with repeated washings and dry weight of the biomass was estimated at 36 hour after the growth.

Maximum O.D. was recorded with sucrose followed by mannitol and sorbitol. The biomass as recorded by cell weight was maximum in the medium containing sucrose (291 mg/l) followed by mannitol (242 mg/l) and sorbitol (237 mg/l). However, very poor biomass production (125 mg/l) was recorded with dextrose (Table I).

In another experiment, sorbitol and sucrose at 1 : 1 ratio gave the maximum growth followed by mannitol and sorbitol, which were superior over the individual carbon sources. The present results indicated the possibility of replacement of mannitol by the combination of sucrose and sorbitol to give the sufficient load of rhizobial cells in the growth medium. The present results confirmed the earlier works of Nandi and Sinha (1975) and the possibility of

TABLE I
Effect of different carbon sources on the growth of Rhizobium

Carbon source	Growth (O D)			Cell weight at 36th hr (mg/100 mg)
	12th hr	24th hr	36th hr	
Dextrose	0 25	0 41	0 45	12 5
Sucrose	0 25	0 44	0 54	29 1
Mannitol	0 24	0 45	0 51	24 2
Sorbitol	0 24	0 44	0 51	23 7
SE		0 0163		
CD (at p 0 05)		0 0355		

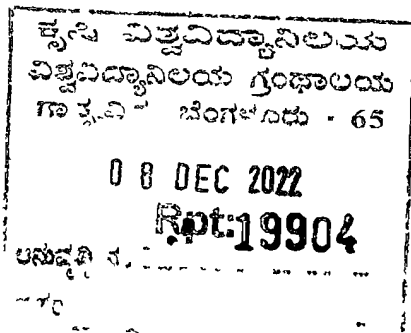
TABLE II
Effect sorbitol in combination with other carbon sources on the growth of Rhizobium
(Growth recorded in O D value)

Treatment	Growth at different time interval		
	12th hr	24th hr	36th hr
Mannitol	0 210	0 483	0 563
Sorbitol	0 193	0 520	0 570
Sucrose	0 193	0 457	0 500
Mannitol + Sorbitol (1 1)	0 237	0 547	0 617
Mannitol + Sucrose (1 1)	0 237	0 500	0 510
Sorbitol + Sucrose (1 1)	0 190	0 450	0 673
SE		0 020	
CD (at p 0 05)		0 040	

manufacture of rhizobial inoculants required for pulse crops by employing comparatively cheaper ingredients

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A Study on Carriers for *Rhizobium* sp

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ABSTRACT

Survival and efficiency of *Rhizobium* sp of greengram (*Phaseolus aureus* Roxb) for six months at 10°C in locally available material viz, press-mud, penicillin waste, groundnut husk and their soil combinations were studied in comparison with peat, lignite and soil+FYM+sand. Lignite was the most superior carrier to all other carriers followed by press-mud alone. Soil combinations viz, saw dust+soil, groundnut husk+soil and soil+FYM+sand gave better results. Penicillin waste alone and in combination with soil was significantly inferior to all carriers.

INTRODUCTION

COMMERCIAL production and extensive use of peat based inoculants have been profitable in many countries like U S A, Newzealand, U S S R etc. In India, however, a large scale production of legume inoculants on commercial basis is of recent origin.

Sankaram (1960) and Iswaran *et al* (1969) showed the peat soil as carrier for the *Rhizobium* sp on account of its richness in organic matter and good water-holding capacity. Limited availability of peat soil in Nilgiri Hill ranges, that too of low grade quality and high charges involved in transporting it from the source are limiting factors in its extensive use.

Kandasamy and Prasad (1971) showed that *Rhizobium* spp multiplied well in lignite. Pugashetti, *et al* (1971) reported the use of cellulose powder as a satisfactory carrier. Iswaran (1971) reported that coir+soil could serve as a good carrier. Iswaran *et al* (1972) tested artificially decomposed organic material as a carrier. Pugashetti *et al* (1972) studied survival and multiplication of *Rhizobium* spp in coffee husk compost and forest soil as carrier. Sharma and Verma (1973) showed the possibility of use of lignite as carrier and found it suitable for *Rhizobium leguminosarum*, *R. trifolii* and *R. meliloti*. Khatri *et al*, (1973) indicated that the rice husk and sand supported the growth and multiplication of different rhizobia.

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In view of anticipated increase in demand for bacterial inoculants, which is estimated to be as high as 75 million culture packets per year (Subba Rao, 1973) in next few years, it is imperative to locate readily available and cheap source of organic materials, which can be used as a substitute for peat and lignite and other carriers being used in commercial production of inoculants

MATERIAL AND METHODS

Materials collected from the various sources were made fine and passed through a seventy mesh sieve. Materials alone and in combination with soil were used as carriers. The treatments were press-mud, groundnut husk, penicillin waste, peat, lignite, saw dust + soil (1:1), groundnut husk + soil (1:1), penicillin waste + soil (1:1), press-mud + soil (1:1) and soil + farm yard manure + sand (2:1:1). The carriers were analysed for various properties. Maximum water-holding capacity was determined by taking 25 g sample of the material in a dish and measuring the water just required to wet the material. Hydrogen ion concentration was determined on Beckman's zeromatic pH meter. Carriers tending to acidic range were adjusted to pH 7 with the help of calcium carbonate. Organic carbon was determined by potassium dichromate method of Allison (1969) while total nitrogen content was estimated by macro-kjedahl method. Effective strain of *Rhizobium* sp. of green gram (*Phaseolus aureus* Roxb.) was obtained from the Agricultural Bacteriologist, College of Agriculture, Pune and multiplied on yeast extract mannitol broth. The contents were shaken for eight hours a day on rotary shaker at 29°C for nine days.

The carrier material was sterilised for 30 minutes at 20 lbs pressure on two consecutive days. Three hundred and fifty ml of broth culture of *Rhizobium* sp. having population of 1×10^{13} cells/ml were mixed with 800 g of amended carrier separately. Water was added to the material so as to bring moisture level to 50-60 per cent of maximum water-holding capacity (Roughley, 1967, Sharma and Verma, 1973).

Inoculated material was immediately transferred to shallow trays, lined with plastic sheet, at 20°C for ten days (Iswaran, 1971), polythene bags of 0.40 gauge were used for filling ripened carriers after pre storage. Each bag was filled in with fifty grams of ripened carriers, separately. Bags were incubated at 10°C. Sampling of carriers was done for counting number of viable rhizobia. One bag from each carrier was randomly selected and used at a time. Monthly counts were taken after four months storage. Prior to storage plate count after pre storage was taken by using yeast extract mannitol agar containing congo red (Hahn, 1966).

The efficiency of root nodule bacterium to infect host plant is the only test for determining its agricultural value (Vincent, 1954). The nodule forming

TABLE I

Chemical analysis of carrier materials (data represent mean of two samples)

Carrier material	pH	Water- holding capacity (%)	Organic carbon (%)	Nitrogen (%)
Press-mud	6.05	232	19.40	1.025
Groundnut husk	6.80	168	19.60	1.237
Penicillin waste	6.10	88	25.10	3.458
Peat	3.85	75	11.60	0.559
Lignite	5.05	96	35.40	0.538
Saw dust + Soil	5.90	96	37.19	0.370
Groundnut husk + Soil	6.75	84	9.60	0.651
Penicillin waste + Soil	6.25	66	13.50	1.688
Press-mud + Soil	6.25	96	9.40	0.552
Soil + F Y M + sand	6.70	78	1.80	0.258

ability of *Rhizobium* grown in different carriers was tested in sterile soil. The soil was collected from the field, passed through 2 mm sieve and amended with 850 g of farm yard manure, 75 g of single superphosphate and 15 g of muriate of potash per 15 kg of soil. The mixture was sterilised for an hour at 30 lbs pressure for two successive days. Pots of six inches diameter sterilised with 5 per cent CuSO_4 solution were filled in with 7.5 kg of sterilised soil. Pot culture experiment was laid out in a completely randomized design with above treatments using uninoculated as control and replicated thrice.

Seeds of greengram variety Jalgaon 781 was surface sterilized using the method of Dadarwal (1968). Sterilized seeds were inoculated with carriers stored at 10°C for 6 months using slurry method of seed inoculation described by Roughley (1961). Number of nodules, nitrogen content in plant and soil and dry weight of plants were recorded at flowering stage.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

All carrier materials under study were acidic in reaction. Taking into account favourable pH for *Rhizobium* sp. all carriers except groundnut husk alone and in combination with soil and soil + farm yard manure and sand required pH adjustment to 7. All carriers having enough organic matter except soil + farm yard manure + sand could hold good deal of water. The penicillin waste was the only carrier having highest nitrogen content.

High population of *Rhizobium* sp. soon after per storage was observed in press-mud and groundnut husk and their soil combinations followed by peat and lignite. No rhizobial growth was observed in penicillin waste and its soil combination. Soil + farm yard manure + sand had a lowest rhizobial cell count.

TABLE II
Plate counts of *Rhizobium sp* in various carriers at 10°C

Treatment	<i>Rhizobia</i> × 10 ⁹ at different periods			
	Interval in months			
	0*	4	5	6
Press-mud	350	250	230	90
Groundnut husk	450	60	40	30
Penicillin waste	—	—	—	—
Peat	200	142	134	96
Lignite	210	75	58	30
Saw dust + soil	87	90	64	50
Groundnut husk + soil	140	180	80	120
Penicillin waste + soil	—	—	—	—
Press-mud + soil	100	37	30	140
Soil + F Y M + sand	80	57	40	130

* Count after pre storage

per gram of a carrier (Table II) There was not much influence of storage period on survival of *Rhizobium sp* in various carriers at 10°C A gradual decrease in rhizobial population was observed in all carriers Even after six months storage at 10°C-counts were quite high in all carriers except penicillin waste and its soil combination as per Australian standard (Date, 1970, Roughley, 1970)

Results regarding nodule forming ability and efficiency of greengram *Rhizobium* after six months storage at 10°C, presented in Table III, revealed that soil + farm yard manure + sand, groundnut husk + soil, saw dust + soil, peat and lignite produced significantly higher dry matter over control The highest dry matter was recorded in lignite whereas lowest was in groundnut husk

Soil + farm yard manure + sand, saw dust + soil, groundnut husk + soil, press-mud and lignite showed significantly higher nodulation over control Lignite produced significantly highest number of effective nodules over other carriers Saw dust + soil, groundnut husk + soil and press-mud were of same order with each other, but differed significantly over soil + farm yard manure + sand in effective nodulation Brockwell (1954) reported that over a period of six months, eleven peat culture inoculants for subterranean clover contained non-infective bacteria Moreover, in groundnut husk, pressmud + soil complete loss of the nodule forming ability was observed probably due to loss of virulence of rhizobial cells Highest survival of root nodule bacteria and also nodulation after six months storage at 10°C was noted in the lignite based inoculant Sharma and Verma (1973) also reported that very satisfactory number of rhizobia retained their viability up to storage of sixteen weeks at low temperatures in lignite

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Preface

There has been an increasing impetus to research efforts on biological nitrogen fixation in the context of worldwide shortage of non-renewable sources of energy. The spiralling costs of petroleum products used in fertilizer industry has added to cost of chemical fertilizer and in consequence resulted in pushing up the cost of cultivation of many a chemical fertilizer dependent high-yielding variety of commercial and food crops.

A possible solution to the intense fertilizer deficit particularly in relation to nitrogen nutrition of crops, is to utilize the natural biological nitrogen fixing systems. The optimization of nitrogen fixing activity in soils depends on several factors such as presence of the proper kind of microorganisms involved and management of soil to intensify their activity. In India, particularly with its varying climates, types of soils, varieties of crops cultivated and the different farming systems, there is a need to study the effects of varying meteorological factors and edaphic conditions on the capabilities of nitrogen fixing microorganisms, to sustain the nitrogen needs of crop plants. With a view to bring together the active groups involved in biological nitrogen fixation research in particular and the development of other microbial inoculants in general, a regional conference was convened for the first time in 1975 at the Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore and during 1976 at the Annamalai University Annamalainagar.

The third regional conference on Microbial Inoculants in crop production was held at the University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad campus during April 1977 where over forty research papers on various aspects of microbial inoculant research was presented and discussed.

The delegates from Agricultural Universities of Karnataka, Kerala, Andhra Pradesh, Tamil Nadu and Maharashtra and representatives from other research institutes and commercial organisations involved in the development and production of microbial inoculants participated in the deliberations. Most of the work presented in these papers have a bearing on problems related to nitrogen fixation through legumes and non-legumes in soil in agroclimatic situations prevailing in Karnataka and other adjoining southern Indian States. The papers presented have been brought out in this publication which hopefully, may help in bringing to light the areas of interest and the recent findings on aspects of biological nitrogen fixation and other problems related to the development, production and quality control of microbial inoculants, being pursued in the region.

The arduous task of collection and editing of the manuscripts was done by Dr. M. V. Shantaram, Microbiologist, Department of Agricultural Microbiology, University of Agricultural Sciences, G.K.V.K. Campus, Bangalore and Dr. G. Oblisami, Professor and Head, Department of Agricultural Microbiology, Tamil Nadu Agricultural University, Coimbatore. They were ably and willingly assisted by Dr. Suhas, P. Wani, Mr. H. N. Chanakya, Mr. V. B. Kanvi and Mr. M. R. Jagannath, graduate students and the other members of the staff and graduate students of the department of Agricultural Microbiology, University of Agricultural Sciences, Bangalore. The keen interest evinced in this effort by Dr. R. B. Patil, Director of Instruction (Agri), University of Agricultural Sciences, Dharwad Campus, deserves special mention.

---B. V. VENKATA RAO

TABLE III
*Influence of six months storage at 10° C in various carriers on efficiency of
 Rhizobium sp. in pot culture*

Treatment	Parameters of efficiency				
	Mean dry matter weight (g/plant)	Mean No. of nodules plant	Mean dry weight of nodules (mg/plant)	Mean per cent nitrogen in plant	Mean per cent nitrogen in soil
Press-mud	1.295	7.80	1.170	3.720	0.043
Groundnut husk	0.906	10.00	2.420	2.756	0.028
Penicillin waste	0.950	0.00	0.000	2.473	0.025
Peat	1.290	0.21	0.790	3.256	0.047
Lignite	1.308	13.80	3.433	3.910	0.049
Saw dust + soil	1.285	6.96	1.503	3.750	0.046
Groundnut husk + soil	1.280	7.80	1.096	3.836	0.047
Penicillin waste + soil	0.996	0.00	0.000	2.386	0.027
Press-mud + soil	0.936	5.0	1.5	2.503	0.022
Soil + F.Y.M. + sand	1.205	2.79	1.300	3.303	0.044
Uninoculated (control)	0.966	0.00	0.00	2.320	0.020
S.E.	0.07215	0.628	0.48	0.1042	0.0015
C.D.	0.2127	1.8420	1.4079	0.3057	0.0040

Dry matter weight of nodules per plant indicated that size of nodules (Wilson, 1971) in saw dust + soil and lignite significantly increased the weight of nodules over control. Lignite significantly increased nodules size over other carriers. Press-mud, soil + farm yard manure + sand and saw dust - soil were of same order as regards weight of nodules. Nitrogen content in plant was significantly increased in all treatments over control except penicillin waste alone and in combination with soil and press-mud + soil.

In all treatments except soil combinations of penicillin waste and press-mud increased soil nitrogen level. Although penicillin waste and groundnut husk increased just significant nitrogen in soil over control but they were statistically inferior to other treatments.

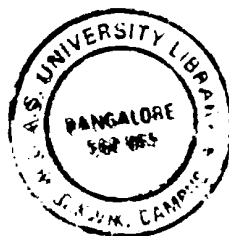
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