

The Source-Sink Relationship in Mustard

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ABSTRACT

Mustard is an important oilseed crop of the tropical and sub-tropical regions of the world. The languid production of oilseeds has converged the attention of agricultural scientists to innovate and implement methods for boosting yield using agricultural, physiological and biotechnological tools. Among other factors, the use of plant growth regulators and management of plant canopy have a proven potential in modulating plant function and improving nutrient use and the source-sink relationship. The present review discusses the factors and the prospects of employment of gibberellic acid and removal of lower leaves as a tool for improving the source-sink relationship in mustard.

Keywords: *Brassica juncea*, carbonic anhydrase, defoliation, gibberellic acid, nitrogen, plant growth regulators

Abbreviations: ABA, abscisic acid; GA₃, gibberellic acid; IAA, auxin; N, nitrogen; PAR, photosynthetically active radiation; PGR, plant growth regulator; Rubisco, ribulose 1,5 biphosphate carboxylase; S, sulfur

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INTRODUCTION

Photosynthetic activity, translocation of photoassimilates from source (leaf) organ to sink (seed) and accumulation of photosynthates in the sink determine the source-sink system. Apart from direct control of photosynthesis by light and carbon dioxide, others factors like nitrogen availability and a balance between carbon and nitrogen play a vital role in determining photosynthetic capacity. Carbon metabolism is essentially linked to nitrogen metabolism and any effect of a change in carbon abundance influences nitrogen metabolism and vice-versa (Noctor and Foyer 2000; Lewis *et al.* 2000). Nitrogen regulates the activity of the photosynthetic machinery as it is a constituent of chlorophyll, thylakoid proteins and enzymes of the Calvin cycle. Moreover, the physiological state that regulates photosynthesis and coordinates the plant carbon and nitrogen balance also determines photosynthetic and storage capacity. The source activity should be responsive to the sink metabolism and thus, optimal use of carbon and nitrogen resources (Paul and Foyer 2001). Plants with a higher sink/source ratio exhibit higher photosynthesis, increased translocation from source to sink organs, and increased source and sink activities (Rogers *et al.* 1995; Mei and Yun 1999). A sink is generally supplied with photosynthate from a nearby source and as growth proceeds new sources develop and the photosynthetic rate of older leaves declines (Rawson and Hofstra 1969; Wardlaw 1990). Moreover, artificially induced changes in the demand for photosynthesis may influence carbon partitioning. There are reports where the export of carbon

from leaves has been positively correlated with photosynthesis. Ho (1976, 1978) demonstrated a strong positive relation between photosynthesis and carbon export in tomato. Komor (2000) reported that total plant productivity relied on appropriate carbon assimilation rate and the export of carbon from source leaves. Similar correlation between photosynthesis and the export of carbon has been shown for a range of plant species including cotton (Hendrix and Huber 1986), sugarbeet (Servaites *et al.* 1989), sorghum and ryegrass (Wardlaw 1990). Fader and Koller (1983) studied the relationship between carbon assimilation, partitioning and export in leaves of soybean and found that rate of accumulation of dry matter and export increased as CO₂ assimilation rate increased. Grodzinski *et al.* (1998) using ¹⁴C labeling of leaves examined twenty-one C₄ versus C₃ species and found that export rate was closely correlated with photosynthesis and sucrose concentration. The studies of Faville *et al.* (1999) and Bai and Kelly (1999) found a positive correlation between light saturated photosynthesis and spear yield among asparagus cultivars. They suggested that it might be source supply rather than sink demand that played a major role in the regulation of carbon export in asparagus. In leaves, sucrose synthesized within the cytosol is the form of carbohydrate translocated via the phloem to sink organs along a concentration gradient, whereas starch synthesized in the chloroplast serves as the immediate deposit for photoassimilate. In sink tissue, sucrose is acted upon by the enzyme sucrose synthase or invertase and metabolized to starch or lipids. The assimilate flow within the phloem is driven by a pressure difference generated by loading of os-

motically active carbohydrates within the source and their unloading in the sink (Turgeon 2000). Guo *et al.* (2002) reported that sucrose concentration increased continuously through the light period even the rate of photosynthesis declined in the afternoon. The reason for the increase in sucrose concentration in the afternoon was attributed to the greater assimilation compared to carbon export.

The improvement of available carbon to the harvested organ signifies the crop harvest index. For many crops the increase in harvest index reaches a plateau and a further increase is not possible without an increase in the efficiency of carbon harvesting and the translocation to the sink. Therefore, the control of increase in carbon fixation, translocation and storage of assimilate to the sink form the basis on which crop yield is based (Neales and Incoll 1968; Herold 1980). Phytohormones have been implicated in various aspects of the control of photosynthesis and distribution of photosynthates to sink. They have been found engaged in increasing photosynthetic and yield potential of several crops, and increasing source-sink interactions. Apart from this the management of plant canopy also increases assimilate balance and improves source-sink growth. Several reviews have covered different aspects of source/sink relations, like the control of source or sink capacity or the regulation of photosynthetic machinery and sink system (Gifford and Evans 1981; Sonnewald and Willmitzer 1992; Paul and Foyer 2001). The present article focuses on the factors affecting source-sink interactions and the possible role of gibberellic acid (GA₃) and the influence of removal of lower leaves on leaf photosynthetic potential, nitrogen (N) use and yield of mustard, an oleiferous crop third in importance as a source of vegetable oil in the world.

FACTORS AFFECTING SOURCE-SINK RELATIONS

Plant growth regulators

Plant growth hormones are naturally occurring or chemically synthesized organic substances, acting at a low concentration to influence physiological and biochemical processes. They are also referred as phytohormones or plant growth regulators (PGRs). The action of PGRs in plants includes various developmental phases ranging from seed germination to seed set. It is now known that PGRs regulate expression of the intrinsic genetic potential of plants involving mechanism both at transcriptional and translational levels. For some phytohormone, receptors and binding proteins on the surface of membrane have been identified (Sisler *et al.* 2006).

Plant growth regulators have been employed to improve the physiological efficiency of plants by modifying the balance between photosynthesis and respiration (Arteca and Dong 1981; Zerbe and Wild 1981; Makeev *et al.* 1992), affecting stomatal aperture or the activity of photosynthetic enzymes (Khan 1996a, 1996b; Foroutan-Pour *et al.* 1997; Khan 2005). The photosynthetic response of crops to phytohormones varies from one extreme to the other.

Gibberellins (GAs) have been shown to influence photosynthesis in various crops. GAs are a large family of diterpene acids, isolated as metabolites of the fungus *Fusarium moniliforme*, the imperfect stage of *Gibberella fujikuroi*. Stodola *et al.* (1955) and Brian *et al.* (1954) working with large scale preparation of GAs from fungus cultures isolated an entirely new compound, which was named as "Gibberellin X" by the former team while the latter opted the name "Gibberellic acid" which is universally accepted and retained.

GAs are essential growth factors affecting various aspects of plant developmental processes (Hoaley 1994). The number of identified GAs has crossed over hundred but only few like GA₁, GA₃, GA₄ and GA₇ are known to have biological activity. The regulatory mechanisms of GAs include reception, signal transduction and gene expression (Richards *et al.* 2001). The major studies on GA are related

to induction of enzymes during the germination of certain grass seeds. GA induces the aleurone cells of barley seeds to produce α -amylase which is then transported to the endosperm where it helps in the production of soluble sugars from starch. The other aspect of GA studies is the promotion of elongation of stem. GA activates cell division in the intercalary meristem assisting in the change of rosette plants in long stem and bolting.

Application of GA₃ results in an increase, decrease or no change in the photosynthetic process (Hayashi 1961; Gale *et al.* 1974; Sanhla and Huber 1974; Little and Loach 1975; Erkan and Bangerth 1980; **Table 1**). It has been observed that the treatment of GA₃ increased photosynthetic rate in leaves of bean (Alvim 1960), rice and tomato (Hayashi 1961), maize (Nenova and Stoyanov 2000), cotton (Kumar *et al.* 2001), soybean (Yuan and Xu 2001) and wheat (Ashraf *et al.* 2002). However, the mechanisms for the increased photosynthetic rate were not clear. The treatment of plants with GA₃ could lead to the changes in plastid development and chloroplast structure (Wellburn *et al.* 1973). There are some contradictory reports showing the stimulatory (Treharne and Stoddart 1968; Popova *et al.* 1982; Nath and Mishra 1990) or inhibitory (Treharne *et al.* 1970; Huber and Sankhla 1974) effect of GA on ribulose 1,5 bisphosphate carboxylase (Rubisco) activity. It is still uncertain whether GA-induced Rubisco activity is responsible for the increase of photosynthetic rate. GA₃ at certain concentrations has been shown to be beneficial for the physiology and metabolism of many plants (Sinelnikova *et al.* 1972; Banyal and Rai 1983), since it may provide mechanisms to regulate physiology, biochemistry-growth and development as a function of water availability (Davies *et al.* 1986). The studies published about the effect of GA on photosynthesis are contradictory (Biemelt *et al.* 2004), and possibly were due to different ways of measuring and calculating photosynthesis as well as the different experimental system used (Nagel and Lambers 2002).

Similar varying response of other phytohormones has also been observed. Foliar application of auxin (IAA) enhanced the photosynthetic rate in maize (Nenova and Stoyanov 2000) and cotton (Kumar *et al.* 2001) whereas no significant effect (Robinson *et al.* 1978) or reduction (Erkan and Bangerth 1980) was noted. In a very like manner the effects of ethylene or ethylene-releasing compounds on photosynthesis was observed. Promoting or inhibitory effects of ethephon, an ethylene-releasing compound on photosynthesis were observed depending on the rate of ethylene release. A low concentration of ethylene increases photosynthesis (Buhler *et al.* 1978; Grewal *et al.* 1993; Khan *et al.* 2000; Khan 2004, 2005). Contrarily, a high concentration of ethylene inhibits photosynthesis (Kays and Pallas 1980; Rajala and Peltonen-Sainio 2001; Khan 2004, 2005). The increase in photosynthesis has been attributed to a variation in stomatal conductance (Gunderson and Taylor 1991; Kamaluddin and Zwiazek 2002; Khan 2004). In addition to the effect of ethylene on photosynthesis via the control of stomatal conductance, it also regulates photosynthesis through leaf area expansion and sugar metabolism. The down-regulation of the Calvin cycle enzymes by carbohydrate end products is another mechanism that controls photosynthetic activity and gene expression (Paul and Pellny 2003).

The application of cytokinins has stimulatory effects (Borzenkova 1976; Dong and Arteca 1982). Cytokinins have been reported to increase the expression of genes for light-harvesting chlorophyll a/b binding protein (Flores and Tobin 1989), carbonic anhydrase (Sugiharto *et al.* 1992), Rubisco (Lerbs *et al.* 1984) and phosphoenolpyruvate carboxylase (Suzuki *et al.* 1994). Abscisic acid (ABA) is also involved in photosynthetic responses via sugar metabolism and the regulation of gene expression (Davies and Jones 1991; Arenas-Huertero *et al.* 2000; Finkelstein and Lynch 2000). Studies on *A. thaliana* mutants showed that ABA plays a direct role in mediating photosynthesis via sugar signaling. Kumar *et al.* (2001) found a decrease in photosynthesis due to ABA application in cotton.

Table 1 Photosynthetic characteristics and phytohormone treatment.

Plant	Phytohormone	Characteristics	Response	Reference
<i>Abies balsama</i>	GA ₃	Photosynthesis	0	Little and Loach 1975
<i>Aspen</i>	Ethylene	Stomatal conductance	+ +	Kamaluddin and Zwiazek 2002
<i>Brassica juncea</i>	GA ₃ , ethylene	Carbonic anhydrase activity, photosynthesis Stomatal conductance	+ +	Khan 1996, 2004, 2005
<i>Glycine max</i>	GA ₃ , ethylene	Photosynthesis, stomatal conductance	+ +	Yuan and Xu 2001; Gunderson and Taylor 1991
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	IAA, GA ₃	Photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, carboxylation efficiency	+ +	Kumar <i>et al.</i> 2001
<i>Gossypium hirsutum</i>	ABA	Photosynthesis, stomatal conductance, carboxylation efficiency	- -	Kumar <i>et al.</i> 2001
<i>Lycopersicon esculentum</i> , <i>Oryza sativa</i>	GA ₃	Photosynthesis	+ +	Hayashi 1961
<i>Pennisetum typhoides</i>	GA ₃	Photosynthesis	- -	Huber and Sankhla 1974; Sanhla and Huber 1974
<i>Phaseolus vulgaris</i>	GA ₃	Rubisco activity	+ +	Treharne <i>et al.</i> 1970
<i>Plantago major</i>	GA ₃	Photosynthesis	- -	Dijkstra <i>et al.</i> 1990
<i>Trifolium pretense</i>	GA ₃	Rubisco activity	- -	Treharne and Stoddart 1968
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	GA ₃	Photosynthesis	+ +	Gale <i>et al.</i> 1974; Ashraf <i>et al.</i> 2002
<i>Triticum aestivum</i>	Ethylene	Photosynthesis	- -	Rajala and Peltonen-Sainio 2001
<i>Zea mays</i>	IAA, cytokinin	Photosynthesis, carbonic anhydrase activity, phosphoenol pyruvate carboxylase activity	+ +	Sugiharto <i>et al.</i> 1992; Suzuki <i>et al.</i> 1994; Nenova and Stoyanov 2000

+ +, increase; - -, decrease; 0, no change

The synthetic growth regulators, triazole, mixtalol, paclobutrazol, uniconazole and triadimefon considerably enhance the rate of photosynthesis (Child *et al.* 1987; Liu 1987; Zhou and Xi 1993; Yang *et al.* 1994; Zhou and Ye 1996). The GA₃-antagonist, cycocel has been reported to cause stimulation in the activity of Rubisco (Pando and Srivastava 1985), enhancement in hill reaction activity and total chlorophyll contents (Bashist 1990).

Sink potential is determined after growth and flowering and phytohormones have a prominent role in modifying it. The improvement in harvest index of different crops in response to phytohormones was observed by Ries *et al.* (1977) and Menon and Srivastava (1984). Phytohormones have also been found to be engaged in the assimilate translocation towards reproductive parts of plants (Pando and Srivastava 1985; Khan *et al.* 1996). Foliar spray of *N*-triacetanol to mustard (Ghosh *et al.* 1991) and NAA to Egyptian cotton (Sawan *et al.* 1989) brought an improvement in seed yield. Similarly, winter rape exhibited an increase in seed yield in response to uniconazole (Zhou and Ye 1996) and mixtalol (Zhou and Xi 1993). Cycocel has also been found to increase sink potential. Improvement in seed yield of *Brassica juncea* in response to cycocel application was observed by Khan *et al.* (2003). Contrarily, Scarisbrick *et al.* (1982) and Grewal *et al.* (1993) could not find an increase in seed yield of oilseed rape due to cycocel application. This was because a high concentration of cycocel was used. In other crops like triticale (Naylor and Stephen 1993), sunflower (Pando and Srivastava 1985), and sesame (Saxena *et al.* 1991), the application of PGRs has been found to increase sink potential. Differential responses of plants to ethephon application on yield were observed. Several investigators reported about the beneficial effects of ethephon on yield of winter wheat (Dahnous *et al.* 1982; Leary and Oplinger 1983; Wiersma *et al.* 1986), mustard (Grewal *et al.* 1993; Khan 1996a; Khan *et al.* 2001), while others claimed a reduction in yield with the use of ethephon (Nafziger *et al.* 1986; Simmons *et al.* 1988).

It is apparent that crop responses to PGRs vary and that the response is dependent on the concentration of PGR used. A low concentration increases the photosynthetic potential of leaves and translocation of photosynthates to sink, while high concentration adversely affects these traits.

Carbon and nitrogen balance

Carbon and nitrogen metabolism are highly integrated and regulated processes. Managing N nutrition improves carbohydrate assimilation increasing photosynthetic potential of leaves. Photosynthate production and N supply interact to control the efficiency of leaves and the acquisition of N, which provides the dominant basis for sink strength (Paul and Foyer 2001). Net photosynthetic rate is a pre-requisite for growth and productivity. It is the process that maximizes the use of available light to optimize the use of limiting carbon and nitrogen resources. Therefore, alteration of photosynthetic rate may result in an increase in demand for N assimilation. Carbohydrate accumulation in leaves leads to N release, which can be used for growth process. N fertilization to *Festuca* resulted in increased shoot growth due to changes in carbon partitioning, faster leaf area development and greater light interception (Belanger *et al.* 1994). The rate of senescence and leaf N remobilization was related to the activity of carbon-fixing enzymes. These enzymes, representing a large proportion of leaf protein, tended to decline in relation to N loss (Crafts-Brandner *et al.* 1983). The mechanism that optimizes the whole plant carbon to nitrogen balance may become an important strategy in the improvement of carbon and nitrogen acquisition. It is possible therefore, that at different stages of growth with changing sink demand, there may be significant shifts in carbon flow through the leaf. The storage of photosynthates in the leaf and sink provides an important control in relation to partitioning of carbon in plants. Since source activity drives sink metabolism, and photosynthetic control must also be responsive to the needs of the whole plant, and optimal use of carbon and nitrogen resources (Thorne and Koller 1974; Paul and Foyer 2001). Rice plants with a higher sink:source ratio had higher photosynthetic and net assimilatory rates, increased translocation from photoassimilatory to sink organs and increased source and sink activities (Rogers *et al.* 1995; Mei and Yun 1999). The source-sink interaction may be viewed as the photosynthate accumulation and partitioning to sink influenced by factors like nutritional status and hormonal changes.

IMPROVING SOURCE-SINK RELATIONSHIP IN MUSTARD

Mustard (*Brassica juncea* L. Czern & Coss.) is an important oilseed crop of the tropical and sub-tropical regions of the

world (Weiss 1983). The oleiferous *Brassica* is the third most important source of vegetable oil in the world after palm and soybean oil (Zhang *et al.* 2003). The major mustard oil-producing countries include Canada, China, France, Germany, India and UK. According to a report of USDA, the world oilseed production is 397 Mt in 2006-07. This total production is an increase of 9 Mt, or 2%, on last season (<http://www.hgca.com>). About 90% of the total land under oilseed cultivation in India is occupied by *B. juncea*.

Photosynthetic leaves present in lower layers experience a shading effect and do not receive sufficient light and remain below the light photosynthetic compensation point. They contribute to the development of supra-optimal leaf area indices with accompanying self shading and also by other leaves within the plant axis. Later, at maturity, these lower leaves are shed. Their cost of maintenance exceeds the rate of production in terms of nutrients and water. Moreover, the requirement of N for mustard is high for higher yield. The roots are also able to increase their uptake rate capacity rapidly in order to compensate shoot N requirement, but only 50% of the applied N fertilizer is recovered in the harvested seeds (Schjoerring *et al.* 1995). This implies that there exists an inefficient N utilization together with significant losses of the applied N to the environment. The efficiency with which the leaf N is mobilized to seeds may be improved by increasing N assimilation capacity. The strategies that lead to improving N utilization with the loss of lower leaves early in plant development can lead to the development of better source-sink interactions.

The role of gibberellic acid

The information on the effect of GA₃ on photosynthesis in mustard has been reported in the literature. The mechanisms presumed to be operative in GA₃-mediated photosynthetic response are the induction of photosynthetic enzymes, effect on leaf area index and light interception, or enhanced use efficiency of nutrients. Application of 50 μM GA₃ at fully developed three leaf stage was found to increase the activity of carbonic anhydrase three-times at 50d, two-times at 70 d and 90 d after sowing (Khan 1996) an enzyme that catalyses the reversible interconversion of HCO₃⁻ and CO₂ and in the leaves of higher plants it represents 1-2% of total soluble protein (Okabe *et al.* 1984). Its distribution pattern is similar to that of Rubisco (Tsuzuki *et al.* 1985) and the co-localization of Rubisco and CA in the stroma suggested its role in photosynthetic CO₂ fixation (Raven 1995; Khan *et al.* 2004). A relationship between carbonic anhydrase activity and photosynthesis has also been established in mustard (Khan 1994). In a study on mustard, Khan *et al.* (1996) reported that the plants which were fed with sufficient nitrogen and treated with GA₃ showed higher activities of carbonic anhydrase and nitrate reductase, photosynthesis and leaf area index. Photosynthetic rate integrated over time and leaf area resulted in increased dry mass. Adequate concentration of GA₃ may be required for maximum plant response. Studies of Dijkstra *et al.* (1990) and Nagel *et al.* (2001) showed that a higher concentration of endogenous GA resulted in higher specific leaf area, and that a GA mutant had lower specific leaf area.

Comparing the stage of GA₃ application, i.e. pre-flowering, post-flowering or pod-fill it was found that plants responded maximally when GA₃ was applied at the pre-flowering stage. GA₃ spraying on mustard plants at the pre-flowering stage contributed 35.5% more leaf area (Khan *et al.* 1998). This led them to have a better chance of trapping more sunlight and producing more dry matter. The 35.5% increase in leaf area contributed to a 27.1% increase in dry matter production. Further, it was found that the pre-flowering stage for GA₃ spraying was the best for developing pods and seed yield.

GA₃ spraying was found to be more suitable than GA₃ soaking in enhancing photosynthetic capacity of mustard leaves and sink strength. GA₃ at 10 μM as spray was found

to be superior than any other concentrations of GA₃. Spraying 10 μM GA₃ caused more cells to differentiate and as a result leaf area and photosynthesis were enhanced by 29.6 and 31.1%, respectively whereas the same concentration applied through seed soaking could enhance only leaf area and photosynthesis by 21.4% and 27.0%, respectively (Khan and Samiullah 2003). GA₃-sprayed plants translocated more photosynthates towards pods and resulted in higher pod dry mass than GA₃-soaked plants. Various reasons for higher efficiency of spray of GA₃ than soaking were put forth. GA₃ spray checks the flower fall and premature pod drop by maintaining hormonal balance, thus increasing sink capacity.

The increased use efficiency of nutrients, particularly nitrogen and sulfur (S) by GA₃ application may also result in increased photosynthetic efficiency of leaves. Nitrogen status affects photosynthetic rate as the enzymes of CO₂ assimilation and thylakoid proteins account for the majority of leaf N content (Makino *et al.* 1992). GA₃ enhances nitrogen uptake because GA₃-enhanced shoot growth requires more utilization of soil N. GA₃ enhanced nitrogen uptake results in increasing photosynthetic efficiency through maintenance of photosynthetic enzymes. GA₃ at 10 μM was found to increase carbon dioxide exchange rate, plant N and seed N, especially at optimal N. Supra-optimal N applied to crop was not utilized (Khan *et al.* 2002c). At optimal N plants receiving GA₃ made maximum use of available N due to enhancement of vegetative growth and development of more sink (Khan *et al.* 2002c). A similar concentration of GA₃ enhanced seed yield (Khan *et al.* 1997).

In addition to high N requirement, mustard has the highest sulfur requirement among various crops (McGrath and Zhao 1996) but the amount required is not met due to priority of use of N-based fertilizers (Zhao *et al.* 1993). It has been reported that on average a loss of every kg of S results in a potential loss of 15 kg of N (Schung *et al.* 1993). Thus, the shortage of S to the crop lowers the use of N, and decreases rate of photosynthesis and dry mass accumulation. Several studies have established regulatory interactions between N and S assimilation in *Nicotiana tabacum* and *Lemna minor* plants (Barney and Bush 1985; Kopriva *et al.* 2002). The application of 10 μM GA₃ to mustard plants receiving sufficient sulfur (200 mg S/kg soil) increased photosynthesis and dry mass and N and S accumulation. At a low sulfur level (100 mg S/kg soil) GA₃ could not improve photosynthesis and dry mass of mustard plants (Khan *et al.* 2005). It has been suggested that leaf N is not utilized when mustard plants are grown with insufficient sulfur. Stewart and Porter (1969) suggested that leaf N is not utilized when *Triticum aestivum*, *Zea mays* and *Phaseolus vulgaris* plants are grown with insufficient sulfur. The adequate supply of S increased the utilization of N in protein (Rubisco) synthesis enhancing photosynthetic rate. Moreover, S also helps to maintain integrity of enzyme structure. A two-fold increase in sulfur use efficiency of GA₃ treated plants was noted at sufficient S (200 mg S/kg soil). Application of S more than that required did not increase sulfur use efficiency (Khan *et al.* 2005).

It may be said that GA₃ enhances source and sink potential through increasing photosynthetic enzymes increasing leaf area for higher interception of photosynthetically active radiation (PAR) and enhancing use-efficiency of nutrients. The integrated mechanisms enhance source potential and redistribution of photosynthates by GA₃ results in increased sink strength.

The importance of defoliation

Photosynthetic efficiency of leaves and productivity of crops primarily depends on the canopy structure, leaf area index and the efficiency of conversion of light into biomass. It has been suggested that modification in canopy structure subsequently improved crop yield by the influence on light interception by plants. Any modification in crop canopy affects photons absorbed by the plants and thus photosynthesis of individual leaves (Duncan 1971; Norman 1980;

Beadle *et al.* 1985). In a plant, photosynthetic photon flux decreases from top to lower axis. Therefore, photosynthetic potential of lower leaves on plant axis is less in comparison to the upper leaves. In *B. juncea* these factors are more pertinent because the plant bears a large number of broader leaves whose orientation is such that they are horizontally inclined giving the plant a pyramidal shape (Weiss 1983). The broader leaves in the middle hinder light penetration into the lower layers. Thus, the leaves in the lower layers on the plant axis remain below the photosynthetic light compensation point for most of the day and contribute less to net photosynthesis. Moreover, such leaves senesce, abscise and shed at maturity by losing 30-50% of their dry mass (Nobel 1991). Also the large leaf surface causes leaf area indices to reach supra-optimal levels leading to a decrease in photosynthetic biomass accumulation and seed yield. Any strategy by which such leaves are removed and the photosynthesizing potential of the remaining leaves is increased may lead to enhanced biomass accumulation and seed yield. Defoliation (removal of leaves) is practiced by the Northern Indians since old times for the use of leaves as a green vegetable, condiment and spice without knowing its impact on subsequent plant morphological and physiological changes. Research on other crops has shown that defoliation affects growth and mobilization of carbon and N compounds, and influences the total carbon input and determines the biomass accumulation as new source-sink relationships are established between the organs remaining after defoliation and the regrowing leaves of *Lolium temulentum* and *Lolium perenne* (Ourry *et al.* 1996).

Since the pathways of carbon and N assimilation are linked in higher plants (Evans and Terashima 1988; Pace *et al.* 1990), carbon assimilation provides the driving force for N assimilation. Therefore, internal cycling of carbon and N compounds is of great importance during plant development, and also a pre-requisite for regrowth after defoliation (Ourry *et al.* 1996). Thus, the success of a plant within a given environment is dependent on the compromise within the carbon and N interaction (Foyer *et al.* 1995).

Photosynthetic rate is limited not only by the physical resistance to CO₂ diffusion but also by the levels of carboxylating enzymes in the leaf. Partial defoliation has rejuvenating effects on the remaining leaves, restoring their photosynthetic capacity to near the values of newly formed leaves (Wareing *et al.* 1968; Hodgkinson 1974). The ability of leaves to photosynthesize increases as they grow until they are fully expanded, then it begins to decrease. Mustard plants defoliating at a pre-flowering stage exhibited higher photosynthetic characteristics compared to leaves removed at the post-flowering stage (Khan and Lone 2005). The early stage of leaf removal reduces competition between the organs for efficient utilization of light, water and nutrients. Moreover, young leaves produced after defoliation were photosynthetically more active than those attained at a later stage of the plant cycle. The plants defoliated at pre-flowering showed enhanced efficiency and contributed significantly to CO₂ assimilation. The changes in photosynthesis following defoliation were triggered by altered stomatal and non-stomatal processes (Khan and Lone 2005). The increases in the activities of carbonic anhydrase and Rubisco were found upon removal of lower leaves (Khan 2002). Caemmerer and Farquhar (1984) reported an increase in the CO₂ assimilation rate and Rubisco activity following the removal of shaded leaves. Partial defoliation leads to increased levels of Rubisco and PEP carboxylase and a parallel increase in photosynthetic rate (Wareing *et al.* 1968). Hua and Qui (1998) found that defoliation increased the activities of Rubisco and sucrose phosphate synthase in flag leaves of rice. Contrarily, de Roover *et al.* (1999) reported a decrease in fructan metabolizing enzyme activity in *Cichorium intybus* immediately after defoliation, which increased at later stages. Moreover, crop photosynthesis depends on the distribution of PAR among layers and also on the remaining leaves, restoring their photosynthetic capacity (Wareing *et al.* 1968; Hodgkinson 1974). Anten and Ac-

kerly (2001) reported that defoliation significantly increased the light available to the remaining leaves and light-saturated photosynthesis per unit leaf area. This was due to an improved light penetration in the canopy in *Chamaedorea elegans*. Defoliation in maize increased light penetration, thereby increasing grain yield (Emam and Seghatoleslami 1999). Kruger *et al.* (1998) reported that defoliating *Populus* increased light penetration in the crop canopy.

Defoliation brings changes in nutritional status of plants, and increased photosynthetic rate is associated with the increase in N assimilation. Stockhoff (1994) proposed that foliar losses are balanced by increased irradiance of leaves after defoliation and N allocation pattern. Macduff *et al.* (1989) reported that response of plants to defoliation has important implications in the efficient utilization of fertilizer N. Adaptation to defoliation in many grass species involves capacity for remobilization of N compounds stored in roots (Volenc *et al.* 1996). In mustard, the application of N as 100 kg/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg/ha at post-flowering to plants defoliated at pre-flowering influenced carboxylating enzymes and photosynthesis (Lone and Khan 2007). The increase in photosynthetic rate with this treatment was associated with increased content of plant N and activities of N assimilation enzymes. A positive correlation between photosynthetic capacity and N content of leaves has been reported (Evans and Terashima 1988; Evans 1989; Makino *et al.* 1992). Increased allocation of N with increased N supply has been found to increase the activities of carbonic anhydrase and Rubisco (Terashima and Evans 1988; Burnell *et al.* 1990; Khan *et al.* 1996).

Sink strength is a function of the production of assimilate by photosynthesis, translocation of assimilate to reproductive parts and its utilization by the developing sinks to produce the storage materials, that give the seed its econo-

Table 2 Comparison of per cent increase in photosynthetic characteristics and plant N at pod-fill, i.e. 80 d after sowing (DAS) and yield traits at harvest of mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) due to defoliation of 50% leaves on lower layers of plant axis at pre-flowering, i.e. 40 DAS or post-flowering i.e. 60 DAS over no defoliation control.

Characteristics	Per cent increase over control due to	
	Defoliation at 40 DAS	Defoliation at 60 DAS
Carbonic anhydrase activity	13.6	3.4
Net photosynthetic rate	17.1	2.3
Stomatal conductance	2.4	1.2
Water-use efficiency	14.3	5.9
Plant N content	26.1	15.2
Pod number	12.8	10.3
1000 seed weight	10.3	4.7
Seed yield	16.1	6.6

Table 3 Comparison of per cent increase in photosynthetic characteristics and plant N at pod-fill, i.e. 80 d after sowing (DAS) and yield traits at harvest of mustard (*Brassica juncea* L.) due to defoliation of 50% leaves on lower layers of plant axis at pre-flowering, i.e. 40 DAS and treated with soil-applied 100 kg N/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg N/ha at post-flowering, i.e. 60 DAS [BN100+N50 (60 d)] over no defoliation plants treated with soil-applied 150 kg N/ha at the time of sowing (BN150) or no defoliation plants treated with soil-applied 100 kg N/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg N/ha at 60 DAS [BN100+N50 (60 d)].

Characteristics	Per cent increase due to	
	Defoliation + [BN100+N50(60 d)] over	
	No defoliation + BN150	No defoliation + BN100 + N50 (60 d)
Carbonic anhydrase activity	18.2	12.5
Net photosynthetic rate	17.2	11.1
Stomatal conductance	2.2	0.8
Water-use efficiency	14.6	10.8
Plant N content	53.6	27.6
Pod number	19.9	11.7
1000 seed weight	31.0	15.1
Seed yield	22.6	12.9

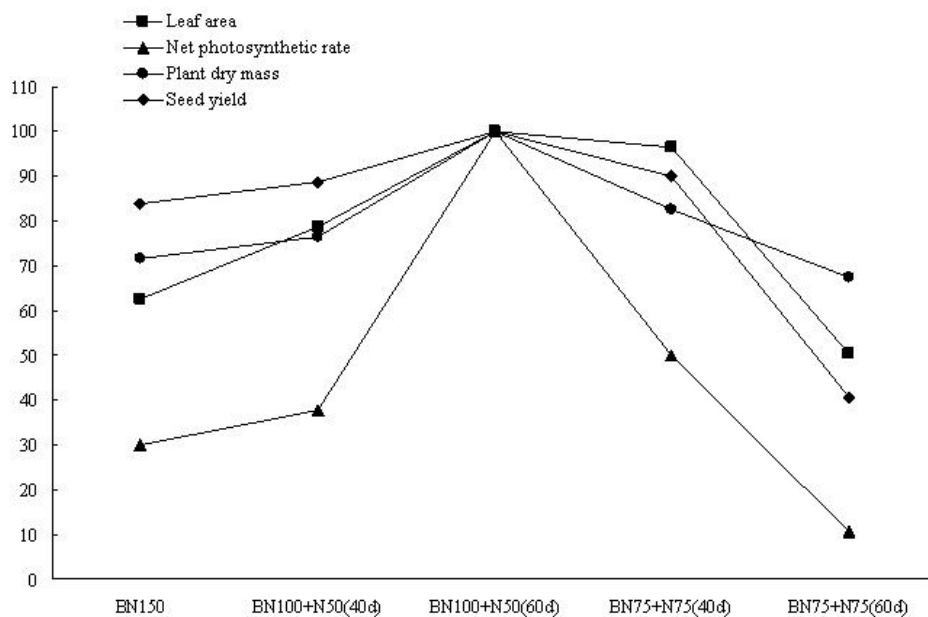


Fig. 1 Index of relationship among leaf area, plant dry mass, net photosynthetic rate and seed yield of mustard after defoliation at pre-flowering (40 d) and treated with 150 kg N/ha at the time of sowing (BN150), application of 100 kg N/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg N/ha at 40d [BN100+N50 (40 d)] or at 60d, i.e., post-flowering [BN100+N50 (60 d)], application of 75 kg N/ha at the time of sowing and 75 kg N/ha at 40d [BN75+N75 (40 d)] or at 60d [BN75+N75 (60 d)].

mic value. The mustard plants which were defoliated at pre-flowering showed higher photosynthetic rate than the plants defoliated at post-flowering also exhibited enhanced sink strength (Table 2). Higher seed productivity of *B. juncea* on the removal of lower leaves has been reported (Raut and Ali 1986; Khan and Ahsan 2000; Khan *et al.* 2002a, 2002b). Becker *et al.* (1997a, 1997b) also found that defoliation at the pre-flowering stage is important in increasing plant dry mass and seed yield. The reduction in seed yield following defoliation at post-flowering is attributed to a lower number of pods per plant and seed weight at this stage of defoliation (Table 2). The post-flowering stage of defoliation coincided with the start of pod setting and the requirement for carbon and nitrogen was high but was not available to the seeds. Tayo and Morgan (1979) and Pecham and Morgan (1985) also showed a reduction in the number of pods and seed yield of *Brassica napus* due to leaf removal at anthesis because of reduced carbon assimilation. Raut and Ali (1986) also reported a decrease in seed yield on defoliation of mustard at post-flowering. A part of the nitrogen (50 kg N/ha) application at post-flowering and 100 kg N/ha at the time of sowing to plants subjected to defoliation at pre-flowering resulted in greater increase in the source-sink strength in mustard than no defoliation and one time application of 150 kg N/ha at the time of sowing or no defoliation and the application of 100 kg N/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg N/ha at post-flowering (Table 3). The assimilate availability plays an important role in determining seed yield as the massive N remobilization takes place from the vegetative part to provide N to growing seeds (Schjoerring *et al.* 1995). An index of the relationship among leaf area, plant dry mass, net photosynthetic rate and seed yield showed that the treatment of N as 100 kg/ha at the time of sowing and 50 kg/ha at post-flowering to mustard plants subjected to defoliation at pre-flowering caused maximum increase in photosynthetic rate and seed yield (Fig. 1). This supported the argument that greater regrowth followed utilization of soil N more efficiently and enhanced photosynthetic rate, dry mass and finally seed yield.

CONCLUSION

Photosynthate accumulation and translocation to the sink during plant ontogeny are the main determinants of sink strength. The information on photosynthetic activity during leaf development and senescence and on the carbon and nitrogen status of different tissues will provide a means to enhance photosynthesis and crop productivity. The photosynthetic activity of leaves can be enhanced by identifying

molecules that provide signals for the loss of lower leaves at an early stage of plant development. Moreover, translocation of photosynthates from source organ to sink may involve complex mechanisms which integrate the expression of the different enzymes involved in carbohydrate partitioning and sink metabolism. A clear understanding of these mechanisms is essential for manipulating source-sink interactions. The interaction study of plant growth regulators on the regulation of source-sink transitions may be fruitful as a single hormone may only act as an inducer for other hormones to set a cascade in motion.

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