Optimizing Sulfosulfuron and Sulfosulfuron Plus Metsulfuronmethyl Activity when Tank-Mixed with Vegetable Oil to Control Wild Barley (*Hordeum spontaneum* Koch.)

E. Izadi-Darbandi^{1*}, and A. Aliverdi²

ABSTRACT

Wild barley has invaded wheat fields ever since flamprop-isopropyl was outdated in Iran. Newly developed herbicides such as sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuronmethyl can control it at higher than recommended dosages, but causing significant wheat injury. Hence, two dose-response experiments were conducted to evaluate their efficacy when tank-mixed with thirteen different vegetable oils, at the Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran, during 2013. Moreover, a wheat cultivar (Gaskogen) was also treated with effective dose of 90% (ED $_{90}$) of both herbicides (21.44 grams active ingredient (g ai) of sulfosulfuron ha⁻¹ and 41.95 g ai of sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl ha⁻¹) with and without each vegetable oil to check selectivity. Averaged over vegetable oils, the effective dose of 50% (ED₅₀) was decreased 2.6- and 3.0-fold with sulfosulfuron and sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl, respectively. Among the evaluated vegetable oils, cottonseed and coconut oil were the best ones to enhance the efficacy of both herbicides. The castor oil had the least effect. A negative correlation was observed between the efficiency of vegetable oils and its unsaturated/saturated fatty acids ratio. No phytotoxic effect on wheat was observed when these herbicides were applied with or without the vegetable oils.

Keywords: Crop selectivity, Herbicide efficacy, Penetrant agent, Vegetable oils, Wild barley.

INTRODUCTION

The genus Hordeum contains several weed species such as wild barley (Hordeum spontaneum Koch.). mouse barley (Hordeum murinum L.), smooth barley (Hordeum glaucum Steud.), and volunteer barley (Hordeum vulgare L.), infesting both wheat and barley fields all over the world (Hosseini et al., 2011). In Iran, wild barley has successfully adapted to a wide range of climatic conditions and is documented as a major weed in 16 provinces (Baghestani et al., 2008). It is believed that a weed shift has occurred in communities from Avena spp.

and Phalaris spp. to Hordeum spp. because of close morphological and physiological similarities between wild barley and wheat (Sheibani and Ghadiri, 2012). With the exception of flamprop-isopropyl, wild barley is naturally tolerant to the majority of selective herbicides used in wheat (Jamali and Jokar, 2010). Previous research has indicated that wild barley can rapidly metabolize clodinafop-propargyl (Kreuz et al., 1991), metsulfuron-methyl (Anderson et al., 1989), and mesosulfuron-methyl plus iodosulfuron-methyl sodium (King et al., 2003) to non-lethal metabolites. Therefore, selective herbicides to control wild barley are lacking since flamprop-isopropyl was

¹ Department of Agronomy and Plant Breeding, Faculty of Agriculture, Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Islamic Republic of Iran.

^{*} Corresponding author; e-mail: e-izadi@um.ac.ir

² Department of Agronomy and Plant Breeding, Faculty of Agriculture, Bu-Ali Sina University, Hamedan, Islamic Republic of Iran.



outdated, causing a weed shift to wild barley that now threatens wheat production in Iran (Jamali and Jokar, 2010).

sulfosulfuron Since the herbicides sulfosulfuron (Apyrous®) and metsulfuron-methyl (Total®) inhibit Aceto Lactate Synthase (ALS) enzvme biosynthesize the branched-chain amino acids, they provide wild barley suppression, but they are not effective enough for this use in wheat (Baghestani et al., 2007, 2008; Zand et al., 2007; Jamali and Baghestani, Therefore, higher 2011). a recommended dosage of both herbicides is required to achieve an appropriate control (Hosseini et al., 2011). In Iran, sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl at the rates of 27 and 50 g ha⁻¹ are recommended in wheat to control other grass weeds. As a result, crop injury is higher unavoidable due to than recommended dosages. Ball and Walenta (1997) observed a height reduction in winter wheat with sulfosulfuron applied postemergence at 35 g ha⁻¹, but seed yield was not significantly reduced.

Previous research indicated that a nonionic surfactant must be added as a tank-mixture for increasing the efficacy of both herbicides (Hosseini et al., 2011; Baghestani et al., 2008). It is well established that using activator adjuvant (e.g. penetrant, wetter, sticker, acidifier, and fertilizer agents) is one of the acceptable manners to improve the efficacy of post-emergence herbicides, which may allow herbicide dosage to be reduced (Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2011). Activator adjuvants, especially penetrant agents, are used to improve the transfer of active ingredients from surface to interior tissues (Izadi-Darbandi et al., 2013). Chemically, penetrant agents are derived from either vegetable or mineral oils. Performance of mineral oils and vegetable oils has often been compared. In some reports, vegetable oils were less effective than mineral oils. This has been reported for propanil (Jordan et al., 1997), clethodim (Jordan al., 1996), quinclorac (Zawierucha and Penner, 2001) and clodinafop-propargyl, haloxyfop-p-methyl and difenzoquat-methyl-sulfate (Hammami et al., 2014). In contrast, in many reports, vegetable oils were reported to be more effective than mineral oils. This has been noted for sethoxydim (Matysiak Nalewaja, 1999), diclofop, fluazifop-butyl (Manthey et al., 1989), dithiopyr (Keeley et al., 1997), phenmedipham (Ruiter et al., 1997), isoxaflutole (Young and Hart, 1998), triflusulfuron (Starke etal., 1996), tralkoxydim (McMullan et al., 1995), clethodim (Jordan et al., 1996), nicosulfuron (Strahan et al., 2000), aciflurofen (Nalewaja et al., 1995), primisulfuron (Nandula et al., 1995), rimsulfuron (Tonks and Eberlein, 2001) and atrazine (Robinson and Nelson, 1975). Occasionally, vegetable oils enhance herbicidal activity as much as mineral oils. This has been reported for quizalofop, (Manthey et al., haloxyfop sethoxydim (Mack et al., 1995), fenoxaprop-P (McMullan et al., 1995). It is generally believed that improved penetration occurs because penetrant agents are able to solubilize or disrupt cuticular waxes (Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2011).

Vegetable oils are less phytotoxic, safer, renewable, and degrade quicker than mineral oils. Therefore, the application of vegetable oil seems to be a suitable alternative to conventional synthetic activator adjuvants (Izadi-Darbandi *et al.*, 2013). The objective of this study was to seek for a vegetable oil that can significantly enhance the efficacy of sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl against wild barley without causing unacceptable injury to wheat.

MATERIALS AND METHODS

Bio-efficacy Studies

Caryopses of wild barley were collected from a heavily infested wheat field in Shiraz area, in Fars Province, Iran, during June to July 2012. Intact caryopses were stored in the dark at room temperature (20±5°C) until



use. **Bioassays** conducted in were greenhouses located on the Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran, during March to May 2013. To improve seed germination, the glumella were removed by hand and the naked seeds were placed in 11 cm diameter Petri dishes on a single layer of filter paper (Whatman No.1; Whatman International, Maidstone, UK). Then, 15 mL of 0.2% KNO₃ solution were added to each Petri dish and incubated for 72 hours at 7±1°C in the dark (Hamidi et al., 2009). As soon as the radicles emerged from the seeds, 10 seedlings were planted at 1cm of depth in 2 L plastic pots filled with an equal proportion of clay, loam soil, and sand (consisting of 19.8% sand, 19.1% clay, 57% silt, 4.1% organic matter, and a pH of 6.7). The pots were irrigated every three days. At one-leaf stage, the seedlings were thinned to five per pot.

Treatments included six concentration levels of 75% emulsifiable concentrate (WG) Apyrous® (0, 2.5, 5, 10, 15, and 20 g sulfosulfuron ha⁻¹) and six concentration levels of 5%+75% WG Total® (0, 5.625, 11.25, 22.5, 33.75, 45 sulfosulfuron+metsulfuron-methyl ha⁻¹). Sulfosulfuron was prepared with distilled water, based on 20 g ai ha⁻¹ as a stock solution, from which the other treatment solutions were prepared. Likewise, from 45 g ai ha⁻¹ of sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuronmethyl as a stock solution, the treatment solutions were prepared with distilled water and then mixed with and without the emulsifiable vegetable oils including: (i) castor (Ricinus communis L.), (ii) olive (Olea europaea L.), (iii) canola (Brassica napus L.), (iv) soybean (Glycine max L.), (v) cotton (Gossypium hirsutum L.), (vi) sesame (Sesamum indicum L.), (vii) linseed (Linum usitatissimum L.), (viii) rapeseed (Brassica napus L.), (ix) groundnut (Arachis hypogaea L.), (x) sunflower (Helianthus annus L.), (xi) maize (Zea mays L.), (xii) safflower (Carthamus lanatus L.), and (xiii) coconut (Cocos nucifera L.) at 0.5% (v/v). The vegetable oils were obtained from the Oil Laboratory, Department of Food Industries,

Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Mashhad, Iran. Average composition of the vegetable oils is given in Table 1. The emulsifiable vegetable oils were prepared by dissolving the emulsifier alkylarylpolyglycol ether (Zarnegaran Pars Company, Karaj, Iran) in each vegetable oil (95% crude vegetable oil plus 5% emulsifier). The experiment was arranged in a completely randomized design with a factorial arrangement of treatments and four replications.

The plants were treated at the four-leaf stage (Syedipuor *et al.*, 2009) using moving boom sprayer equipped with an 8002 flatfan nozzle, delivering 200 L ha⁻¹ at 200 kPa. Shoots were harvested by cutting at the soil surface four weeks after spraying, dried for 48 hours at 70°C and dry weight was determined. For statistical analysis, the data were changed to individual plant and were subjected to a non-linear regression analysis using the following logarithmic logistic dose-response model described by Ritz and Streibig (2005):

$$Y = C + \{D - C/1 + \exp[B(\log X - \log E)]\}$$
(1)

Where, Y is the response (dry weight), C is the lower limit, D is the upper limit, B is the slope of the curve, E denotes the dose required to give a response halfway between the upper and lower limits; and X is the herbicide dose. The dose-response curves were analyzed by open-source statistical software (R_{2.6.2}), utilizing the drc statistical addition package (Ritz and Streibig, 2005). The values of ED_{10} , ED_{50} , and ED_{90} i.e. herbicide dose needed to give 10, 50, 90% wild barley control, respectively, were detected. Significances among ED values were determined by the standard error. The Relative Potency (RP), which is the horizontal displacement between the two curves, was calculated using the ratio of doses producing the same response (Ritz and Streibig, 2005), as follows:

$$RP = ED_{50a}/ED_{50b}; R \le 1 \le R$$
 (2)

Where, ED_{50a} denotes the ED_{50} of the herbicide formulation alone; and ED_{50b} denotes the ED_{50} of the herbicide



Unsat/Sat ratio

Unsaturated

Table 1. Average fatty acids composition and unsaturated to saturated fatty acid ratio of thirteen vegetable oils.^a

| Canola - <th></th> <th>8:0</th> <th>10:0</th> <th>12:0</th> <th>14:0</th> <th>16:0</th> <th>18:0</th> <th>20:0</th> <th>22:0</th> <th>24:0</th> <th>1:91</th> <th>18:1</th> <th>20:1</th> <th>22:1</th> <th>18:2</th> <th>18:3</th> <th></th> | | 8:0 | 10:0 | 12:0 | 14:0 | 16:0 | 18:0 | 20:0 | 22:0 | 24:0 | 1:91 | 18:1 | 20:1 | 22:1 | 18:2 | 18:3 | |
|---|------------|-----|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|------|-------|
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Canola | | í. | ı | ı | 3.9 | 1.9 | 9.0 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 0.2 | 64.1 | 1.0 | 2 | 18.7 | 9.2 | 14.45 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Castor | • | ı | ı | ı | 4.0 | 1.0 | ı | ı | ı | • | 82.0 | • | | 4.0 | ı | 17.20 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Coconut | 7.8 | 6.7 | 47.6 | 18.1 | 8.8 | 2.6 | 0.1 | 0.1 | , | , | 6.2 | , | ı | 1.6 | ı | 0.08 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Cottonseed | 1 | į | 1 | 0.8 | 24.0 | 2.6 | 0.3 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 8.0 | 19.0 | 1 | ī | 52.5 | ı | 2.57 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Linseed | , | į | 1 | , | 6.1 | 3.2 | ı | ī | 1 | 0.1 | 16.6 | 1 | 1 | 14.2 | 59.8 | 9.75 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Maize | , | į | 0.1 | 0.2 | 13.0 | 2.5 | 0.5 | 0.3 | , | 0.1 | 30.5 | 0.2 | | 52.0 | 0.1 | 4.99 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Olive | , | į | | 1 | 13.7 | 2.5 | 0.2 | 0.3 | ı | 1.2 | 71.1 | 0.5 | 0.2 | 9.4 | 0.3 | 4.95 |
| 3.0 1.0 1.0 16.0 6.0 49.0 14.0 10.0 0.1 6.5 2.9 0.4 0.2 - 0.1 13.8 75.3 0.1 7.9 5.2 0.1 0.1 - 0.1 39.9 0.1 - 45.5 0.5 0.1 14.6 4.0 1.0 0.6 - 0.1 22.0 1.0 - 53.0 7.5 1.0 5.5 4.7 0.3 0.9 0.2 0.1 19.5 0.1 1.0 68.5 0.1 | Peanut | 1 | į | 1 | 0.1 | 12.5 | 2.5 | 1.2 | 2.5 | 1.3 | 0.1 | 37.0 | 0.7 | 1.0 | 41.0 | 0.3 | 4.33 |
| 0.1 6.5 2.9 0.4 0.2 - 0.1 13.8 75.3 75.3 0.1 7.9 5.2 0.1 0.1 - 0.1 39.9 0.1 - 45.5 0.5 0.1 14.6 4.0 1.0 0.6 - 0.1 22.0 1.0 - 53.0 7.5 1.0 5.5 4.7 0.3 0.9 0.2 0.1 19.5 0.1 1.0 68.5 0.1 | Rapeseed | , | í | 1 | ı | 3.0 | 1.0 | 1.0 | í | ı | , | 16.0 | 0.9 | 49.0 | 14.0 | 10.0 | 18.00 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Safflower | | í | ı | 0.1 | 6.5 | 2.9 | 0.4 | 0.2 | ı | 0.1 | 13.8 | | ţ | 75.3 | ı | 8.83 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Sesame | • | į | ı | 0.1 | 7.9 | 5.2 | 0.1 | 0.1 | ı | 0.1 | 39.9 | 0.1 | 0 | 45.5 | 0.5 | 6.43 |
| $\begin{array}{cccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccccc$ | Soybean | | í | ı | 0.1 | 14.6 | 4.0 | 1.0 | 9.0 | ı | 0.1 | 22.0 | 1.0 | ţ | 53.0 | 7.5 | 4.12 |
| | Sunflower | | Ĺ | ı | 1.0 | 5.5 | 4.7 | 0.3 | 6.0 | 0.2 | 0.1 | 19.5 | 0.1 | 1.0 | 68.5 | 0.1 | 7.22 |

formulation with each emulsifiable vegetable oil. If R= 1, the addition of emulsifiable vegetable oil would not have any effect on herbicide response. But, if R was higher or lower than 1, the herbicide accompanied by emulsifiable vegetable oil would be more or less potent than the herbicide alone, respectively. Significances among R values were determined by the standard error.

Phytotoxic Studies

The winter wheat (Triticum aestivum L. cultivar Gaskogen) seeds were obtained Khorasan Razavi Agricultural Research Center, Iran. Before using, seeds were disinfected with sodium hypo chloride (5%) for 5 minutes and followed by dipping for 2 hours in water. Wheat plants were raised, treated at the same growth stage and harvested similar to wild barley. This experiment was set up as a completely randomized design with four replications from October to December 2013. Since the acceptance of 10% damage to the crop is used as a selectivity index (Tind et al., 2009), all doses of both herbicides, which were required to give 90% wild barley control, were chosen as the optimized doses. Therefore, the treatments consisted of a control and the optimized doses of sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl with and without each emulsifiable vegetable oil, used in bioefficacy study. The dry weight data were changed to individual plant and subjected to ANOVA using PROC GLM in SAS software by the least significant difference test at 5% level of probability.

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Bio-efficacy Studies

The validity of the above model and the comparisons between the parameters were made using F-test for lack of fit at 5% level

Data were obtained from Velasco et al. (2004). b Abbreviations: Unsaturated fatty acids, Sat: Saturated fatty acids.



of significance. Thereby, no significant lack of fit was detected when model 1 was tested; hence, the model was acceptable and the curves were parallel. The parameters determined by model 1 are given in Table 2. The dose-response curves of wild barley dry weight in response to sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl alone or in the presence of the vegetable oils were significantly similar as indicated by the same slope. This signifies that the dose-response curves can be considered to be parallel (Kudsk and Mathiassen, 2007). These data indicated that the vegetable oils

were biologically inactive when applied at 0.5% (v/v). Nonetheless, Izadi-Darbandi *et al.* (2013) observed that cottonseed oil had a phytotoxic potential at 0.5% (v/v) on wild oat; however, the opposite result has been demonstrated by Tworkoski (2002) on dandelion.

The estimated ED_{10} , ED_{50} , and ED_{90} parameters by dose-response model based on wild barley dry weight in response to sulfosulfuron were 9.2, 13.4, and 21.4 g ai ha⁻¹, respectively. The corresponding values for sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl were 16.9, 26.6, and 41.9 g ai ha⁻¹.

Table 2. Estimated ED_{10} , ED_{50} , and ED_{90} of sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl with and without the vegetable oils against wild barley.^a

| Herbicide | Vegetable oil | В | ED_{10} | ED_{50} | ED_{90} |
|--------------------|---------------|-------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | - | | (g ai ha ⁻¹) | (g ai ha ⁻¹) | (g ai ha ⁻¹) |
| Sulfosulfuron | None | 3.61 (1.50) | 9.24 (0.76) | 13.40 (0.77) | 21.44 (2.57) |
| | Canola | 2.63 (0.65) | 2.16 (0.39) | 4.99 (0.51) | 13.48 (3.09) |
| | Castor | 3.46 (1.07) | 4.99 (0.94) | 9.42 (0.76) | 18.77 (4.14) |
| | Coconut | 1.82 (0.47) | 1.08 (0.30) | 3.62 (0.48) | 12.09 (2.76) |
| | Cottonseed | 2.29 (0.60) | 0.98 (0.28) | 2.68 (0.24) | 7.28 (2.10) |
| | Linseed | 3.41 (0.78) | 3.76 (0.55) | 7.16 (0.59) | 13.64 (2.58) |
| | Maize | 2.58 (0.58) | 2.54 (0.46) | 5.92 (0.58) | 13.84 (3.41) |
| | Olive | 2.72 (0.63) | 2.61 (0.46) | 5.84 (0.53) | 13.10 (3.05) |
| | Peanut | 2.23 (0.54) | 2.17 (0.48) | 5.83 (0.69) | 15.61 (1.77) |
| | Rapeseed | 2.76 (0.48) | 1.50 (0.32) | 4.38 (0.53) | 12.73 (4.14) |
| | Safflower | 2.58 (0.60) | 3.47 (0.64) | 8.13 (0.94) | 14.04 (1.05) |
| | Sesame | 2.27 (0.51) | 2.13 (0.38) | 5.60 (0.72) | 13.71 (3.57) |
| | Soybean | 2.21 (0.52) | 1.38 (0.30) | 3.72 (0.39) | 10.01 (2.92) |
| | Sunflower | 2.35 (1.04) | 2.98 (0.51) | 8.69 (1.76) | 21.33 (3.17) |
| Sulfosulfuron plus | | | | | |
| metsulfuron-methyl | None | 3.34 (1.32) | 16.92 (1.59) | 26.64 (1.89) | 41.95 (5.48) |
| | Canola | 2.16 (0.39) | 6.92 (0.99) | 19.09 (3.20) | 34.65 (4.01) |
| | Castor | 3.56 (0.91) | 10.81 (1.70) | 20.03 (1.42) | 39.80 (5.90) |
| | Coconut | 2.46 (0.44) | 3.43 (0.56) | 8.38 (0.66) | 20.44 (3.89) |
| | Cottonseed | 2.30 (0.49) | 3.79 (0.71) | 9.85 (0.99) | 25.62 (6.77) |
| | Linseed | 3.43 (0.68) | 8.58 (1.12) | 16.27 (1.20) | 30.84 (2.02) |
| | Maize | 2.27 (0.47) | 4.80 (0.80) | 12.63 (1.51) | 33.15 (5.58) |
| | Olive | 2.80 (0.61) | 5.96 (1.00) | 13.05 (1.07) | 28.55 (4.01) |
| | Peanut | 2.23 (0.49) | 4.89 (1.01) | 13.13 (1.44) | 35.21 (3.10) |
| | Rapeseed | 2.58 (0.53) | 4.67 (0.73) | 10.93 (0.99) | 25.57 (5.98) |
| | Safflower | 2.59 (0.54) | 5.70 (0.96) | 13.33 (1.21) | 31.13 (6.11) |
| | Sesame | 2.42 (0.49) | 5.69 (0.92) | 14.09 (1.49) | 34.91 (4.86) |
| | Soybean | 2.78 (0.57) | 5.23 (0.78) | 11.53 (0.96) | 25.42 (5.36) |
| | Sunflower | 2.58 (0.55) | 7.81 (1.35) | 18.29 (1.96) | 40.86 (6.55) |

The vegetable oils were added at 0.5% (v/v); B is the slope of curve fitted using model 1; ED_{10} , ED_{50} , and ED_{90} are the required rate of herbicide to give 10, 50, and 95% control, respectively, and standard errors are given in parentheses.



respectively. As judged by the parameters given in Table 2, all vegetable oils decreased the ED_{10} and ED_{50} values significantly (P \leq 0.05), indicating an increase in the performance of both herbicides. A similar trend for the ED_{90} values was also observed. However, there was no significant difference (P \leq 0.05) between the ED_{90} values of each herbicide when they were applied alone or in presence of castor and sunflower oils.

The estimated relative potencies of the herbicides' efficacy in the presence of the vegetable oils, against wild barley, are given in the first column of Table 3. In other columns, the vegetable oils were compared. Data showed that the values of the relative potency were significantly higher than 1.00 when the herbicides were applied in combination with vegetable oils, indicating an increase in the efficacy of herbicides when the vegetable oils were added to their spray solution (Table 3). In case of sulfosulfuron, the highest relative potency was obtained with cottonseed oil and then coconut oil. There was no significant difference between these two vegetable oils in enhancing the efficacy of sulfosulfuron (see the fourth column 4 in Table 3). The efficacy of 1.00 g sulfosulfuron per hectare in the presence of cottonseed oil or coconut oil was equivalent to the efficacy of 4.99 or 3.69 g sulfosulfuron ha⁻¹ when it was applied alone, respectively. With the exception of castor and sunflower oils, all vegetable oils improved the efficacy of sulfosulfuron (P≤ 0.001). significantly Therefore, according to the relative potency values, the ranking of the vegetable oils for enhancing the efficacy of sulfosulfuron to control wild barley was: Cottonseed (4.99)≥ coconut $(3.69) \ge$ soybean (3.60) > rapeseed $(3.05) \ge$ canola $(2.68) \ge$ sesame $(2.38) \ge$ olive (2.29) =Peanut $(2.29) \ge$ maize $(2.26) \ge$ linseed (1.87)> safflower (1.64) \geq sunflower (1.46) \geq castor (1.42) (Table 3).

In the case of sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl, a similar trend was observed, except that the highest relative potency was obtained with coconut oil followed by cottonseed oil. No significant difference was observed between these two vegetable oils in enhancing the efficacy of sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl (see the fourth column in Table 3). The efficacy of 1.00 g sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuronmethyl per hectare in the presence of coconut oil or cottonseed oil was equivalent to the efficacy of, respectively, 3.17 or 2.70 g sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl ha⁻¹ applied alone. With the exception of canola, castor, and sunflower oils, all vegetable oils improved the efficacy of sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl significantly 0.001). Therefore, according to the relative potency values, the ranking of the vegetable oils for enhancing the efficacy sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl to control wild barley was: Coconut (3.17)≥ cottonseed $(2.70) \ge$ rapeseed $(2.43) \ge$ soybean $(2.31) \ge \text{ maize } (2.11) \ge \text{ olive } (2.04) \ge \text{ peanut}$ (2.02) \geq safflower (1.99) \geq sesame (1.89)linseed $(1.63) \ge$ sunflower (1.39) = Canola $(1.39) \ge$ castor (1.33) (Table 3). Previous studies have also shown that the vegetable oils enhanced the efficacy of some herbicides (Muller et al., 2002; Zawierucha and Penner, 2001; Gauvrit et al., 2007; Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2010; Ruiter et al., 1997). This may be attributed to several factors. Firstly, vegetable oils can decrease the surface tension of spray solution (Sharma and Singh, 2000; Shu et al., 2008; Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2011), which is an effective factor to atomize spray droplets (Ejim et al., 2007), allowing it to remain on the foliage (Tu et al., 1986). Secondly, vegetable oils can soften or disrupt the cuticular wax. It is another effective factor to make the cuticular wax penetrable to the active ingredient (Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2011). Previous studies have asserted that the second factor is more effective than the first factor in improving the performance of herbicide (Sharma and Singh, 2000; Rashed-Mohassel et al., 2011). The difference in the performance between the tested vegetable oils could be attributed to their different chemical properties such as fatty acids composition (Table 1). Α relationship between the relative potency



Table 3. The estimated relative potencies ($R = ED_{50}a/ED_{50}b$) of different vegetable oils.^a

| | | Sunflower | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | | aron-methyl | | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1 00 | 1.00 |
|--|------------|--------------------|---------------------|----------|------------|--------------------|-----------------|---------------|---------------------|-----------------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------------|---|---------------------------------------|------|-------------|---------|---------|------------------------|-------------|----------------------|-------------|----------|----------|-----------|---------|----------|-----------|-----------|
| | | Soybean | | | | | | | | | | 9 | 1.00 | ! | Sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1 00 | 0.63 ** | 0.00 |
| | 5 | Sesame | | | | | | | | | , | 1.00 | 0.1.00 | | Sulfosulfuro | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 1 22 NS | * 22:1 | 7.70 |
| | | Safflower | | | | | | | | 9 | 1.00 NS | 1.44 | 2.18 0.93 ^{NS} | | | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 0.94 NS | 1 15 NS | ** 07.0 | 71.0 |
| | | Rapeseed | | | | | | | 9 | 1.00 *** | 0.53 0.53 NS | 0.78 NS | 0.50 |) | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 0.82 NS | 0.77 | 0 94 NS | 0.50 | (0.0) |
| | | Peanut | | | | | | , | 1.00 1.33 NS | | 0.71 | 1.03 | 1.56 | | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 1 20 NS | SN 86.0 | 0.93 NS | 1 13 NS | * 17.0 | 0.71 |
| | $ED_{50}a$ | Olive | | | | | 9 | 1.00 NS | 1.00 iii 1.33 NS | 1.33 | 0.71 | 1.04 | 1.57 0.67 | | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | SN 66.0 | 1 19 NS | 0.97 NS | 0.92 NS | 1 13 NS | 0.71 | 0.71 |
| ġ | | Maize | | | | , | 1.00 1.01 NS | 1.01 | 1.01 is 1.35 NS | * 65.0 | 0.72 | 1.05 | 1.59 | | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 0.97^{NS} | SN 96.0 | 1.15 NS | 0.94 NS | 0.89 NS | 1 09 NS | * 09 0 | 0.0 |
| io alamaga. | , | Linseed | | | | 1.00 | 1.20 NS | 1.22 NS NS | 1.22 *** | 1.03 NS | 0.88 | 1.27 | 1.92 0.82 NS | | | | | | | | 1.00 | 1.29^{NS} | 1.24^{NS} | 1.23 NS | ** 48 ** | 1.22 NS | 1.15 NS | 1 41 ** | SN 88 0 | 00.0 |
| Sulfosulfuron | | Cottonseed | | | 1.00 | 0.37 | 0.45 | 0.45 | 0.46 0.61 | ** 000 | 0.33 | 0.47 | 0.72 | | | | | | | 1.00 | 09.0 | 0.78^{NS} | 0.75^{NS} | 0.75 NS | SN 06 0 | 0.73 NS | ** 69.0 | 0.85 | 0.53 ** | 0.0 |
| 2000 2000 | | Coconut | | 1.00 | 1.35 NS | 0.50 | 0.61 | 0.62 | 0.62 0.82 NS | 0.02 | 0.44 | 0.64 0.04 NS | 0.9/ | : | | | | | 1.00 | $0.85 ^{\mathrm{NS}}$ | 0.51 | 0.66 | 0.64 *** | 0.63 ** | * 92.0 | 0.62 | 0.59 | 0.73 ** | 0.75 | 6.5 |
| STATE OF THE STATE | 3 | Castor | 90 | 2.59 *** | 3.51 *** | 1.31 | 1.58 | 1.01 | 1.62 | 7.14 1.15 NS | 1.15 ** | 1.67 | 2.53 1.08 NS | | | | | 1.00 | 2.39 | 2.03 *** | 1.23^{NS} | 1.58** | 1.54 ** | 1.52 ** | 1.83 | 1.50 ** | 1.42 | 1 73 *** | 1 09 NS | 1.07 |
| oranic por | | Canola | 1.00 | 1.37 NS | 1.86 *** | 0.69 ^{**} | 0.84 NS | C8.0 | 0.85 1 13 NS | 1.13 | 0.01 0.00 NS | 0.88 NS | 1.34 *** | | | | 1.00 | 0.95 NS | 2.27 | 1.93^{*} | 1.17 NS | 1.51^{NS} | 1.46^{NS} | 1.45 NS | 1 74 * | 1.43 NS | 1.35 NS | 1 65 * | 1 04 NS | 1.01 |
| furon | | None 1.00 | 2.68 *** 1.42 NS | 3.69 | 4.99 | 1.87 | 2.26 | 2.29 | 2.29 | 3.03 | 1.04 | 2.38 | 3.60 1.46 ^{NS} |) | | 1.00 | 1.39^{NS} | 1.33 NS | 3.17 | 2.70 *** | 1.63 *** | 2.11 | 2.04 *** | 2.02 *** | 2.43 *** | 1.99 | 1.89 | 2 31 *** | 1 30 NS | 75.1 |
| Sulfosulfuron | | $ED_{50}b$ None | Canola | Coconut | Cottonseed | Linseed | Maize | Olive | Peanut Dangsad | Napescu | Sattlower | Sesame | Soybean | | | None | Canola | Castor | Coconut | Cottonseed | Linseed | Maize | Olive | Peanut | Raneseed | Safflower | Sesame | Sovhean | Sunflower | Califford |

 a ED_{10} , ED_{20} , and ED_{20} are the required rate of herbicide to give 10, 50, and 95% control, respectively. R is relative potency. If R>1, the treatment A is more effective than treatment B, and if R<1, the reverse is correct. * Statistical significance ($P\le0.05$); ** Highly statistical significant ($P\le0.01$); *** Very highly statistical significant $P\le0.001$, NS: Not statistical Significant.



values of sulfosulfuron or sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl in the presence of each vegetable oil with the unsaturated/saturated fatty acids ratio was obtained by a simple linear regression model with a coefficient of determination (R^2) of 0.35 or 0.52, respectively (Figure 1). In fact, the higher unsaturated/saturated fatty acids ratio of a vegetable oil, the lower is the adjuvancy properties. This finding was in agreement with the results of Izadi-Darbandi et al. (2013). Shu et al. (2008) stated that the number of unsaturated bands and the length of fatty acid hydrocarbon chain affect the surface tension. The surface tension was increased by increasing of unsaturated bonds at a similar hydrocarbon chain. Therefore, the higher the unsaturated/saturated fatty acids ratio of a vegetable oil, the higher is its surface tension. As mentioned above, a decrease in surface tension of spray solution affects atomization and retention of the droplets by plant foliage.

Furthermore, the vegetable oils decreased ED₅₀ about 2- and 3-fold with sulfosulfuron sulfosulfuron and plus metsulfuron-methyl, respectively, when averaged over the thirteen vegetable oils (Table 2). Therefore, oil receptivity sulfosulfuron higher than was

sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl. The reason for these different responses may be attributed to their different chemical properties, such as "Log-K_{ow}" (n-octanolwater partition coefficient), as described elaborately by Izadi-Darbandi *et al.* (2013).

Phytotoxic Studies

No significant phytotoxic effect was observed by applying the optimized doses of both herbicides with and without the vegetable oils on shoot dry weight of wheat. Because the means could not be separated, data are not shown. Therefore, these vegetable oils at 0.5% concentration (v/v) could enhance the ability of both herbicides to kill wild barley without damaging wheat.

CONCLUSIONS

Recently, a shift has occurred from nonenvironmentally friendly mineral oil-based adjuvants to environmentally friendly vegetable oil-based adjuvants (Zollinger, 2000). Vegetable oils are less phytotoxic, safer, more renewable, and quickly degradable compared to mineral oils. Since a

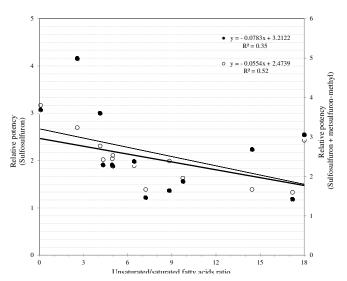


Figure 1. Relationship between relative potencies values obtained from sulfosulfuron (○), sulfosulfuron plus metsulfuron-methyl (●) in presence of vegetable oils and unsaturated/saturated fatty acids ratio of vegetable oils.



higher than recommended dosage of sulfosulfuron sulfosulfuron or plus metsulfuron-methyl is required to control wild barley appropriately, it is necessary to look for a vegetable oil that can help reduce their dosage. Besides, since crop selectivity is a function of application rate (Zimdahl, 2007), a vegetable oil can improve not only herbicide efficacy but also crop selectivity. From the present study, it could be concluded that, among the evaluated vegetable oils, cottonseed and coconut oils showed strong adjuvancy properties for both sulfosulfuron and sulfosulfuron metsulfuron-methyl against wild barley. The castor oil had the least effect.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

This work was supported by a grant from Research Assistant of the College of Agriculture, the Ferdowsi University of Mashhad, Iran, through the RESEARCH program (Project No. 25069/2). Caryopses of wild barley were collected by Mojtaba Hosseini. The practical assistance was done by Somayeh Ebrahimpour Faraji, Hossein Hammami, and Salman Rahimi. Hereby, the authors thank them whole heartedly.

REFERENCES

- Anderson, J. J., Priester, T. M. and Shalaby, L. M. 1989. Metabolism of Metsulfuronmethyl in Wheat and Barley. J. Agric. Food Chem., 37: 1429-1434.
- Baghestani, M. A., Zand, E., Mesgaran, M. B., Veysi, M., PourAzar, R. and Mohammadipour, M. 2008. Control of Weed Barley Species in Winter Wheat with Sulfosulfuron at Different rates and Times of Application. Weed Biol. Manage., 8: 181-190.
- Baghestani, M. A., Zand, E., Soufizadeh, S., Jamali, M. and Maighani, M. 2007. Evaluation of Sulfosulfuron for Broadleaved and Grass Weed Control in Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) in Iran. *Crop Prot.*, 26: 1385-1389.

- Ball, D. A. and Walenta, D. L. 1997. Downy Brome Control in Winter Wheat with MON 37500. In: "Proceedings of the Western Society of Weed Science". Western Society of Weed Science, Portland, OR, USA, PP. 90-94.
- Ejim, C. E., Fleck, B. A. and Amirfazli, A. 2007. Analytical Study for Atomization of Biodiesels and Their Blends in A Typical Injector: Surface Tension and Viscosity Effects. Fuel, 86: 1534-1544.
- 6. Gauvrit, C., Muller, T., Milius, A. and Trouve, G. 2007. Ethoxylated Rapeseed Oil Derivatives as Non-ionic Adjuvants for Glyphosate. *Pest Manag. Sci.*, **63:** 707-713.
- 7. Hamidi, R., Mazaheri, D. and Rahimian, H. 2009. Wild Barley (*Hordeum spontaneum* Koch) Seed Germination as Affected by Dry Storage Periods, Temperature Regimes, and Glumellae Characteristics. *Iran. J. Weed Sci.*, **5:** 1-12
- Hammami, H., Aliverdi, A. and Parsa, M. 2014. The Effectiveness of Clodinafop-propargyl, Haloxyfop-p-methyl and Difenzoquat-methyl-sulfate Plus AdigorTM and PropelTM Adjuvants to Control Avena ludoviciana Durieu. J. Agr. Sci. Tech., 16: 291-299.
- Hosseini, S. A., Rashed-Mohassel, M. H., Spliid, N. H., Mathiassen, S. K. and Kudsk, P. 2011. Response of Wild Barley (*Hordeum spontaneum*) and Winter Wheat (*Triticum aestivum*) to Sulfosulfuron: The Role of Degradation. Weed Biol. Manage., 11: 64-71.
- 10. Izadi-Darbandi, E., Aliverdi, A. and Hammami, H. 2013. Behavior of Vegetable Oils in Relation to Their Influence on Herbicides' Effectiveness. *Ind. Crop. Prod.*, **44:** 712-717.
- 11. Jamali, M. and Baghestani, M. A. 2011. Effect of The Application Time and Rate of Herbicides to Control Barley Weed (*Hordeum spontaneum* Koch.) in Wheat Fields of Fars Province. *Iran. J. Weed Sci.*, 7: 79-87. (Abstract in English)
- 12. Jamali, M. R. and Jokar, L. 2010. Effect of Crop Rotation in Controlling Barley Weed (*Hordeum spontaneum* Koch.) in Wheat Fields of Fars Province. *Iran. J. Plant Prot.*, **24:** 99-107. (Abstract in English)
- Jordan, D. L., Burns, A. B., Barnes, C. J., Barnett, W. and Herrick, J. K. 1997. Influence of Adjuvants and Formulation on Barnyardgrass (Echinochloa crus-galli)



- Control with Propanil in Rice (*Oryza sativa*). Weed Technol., **11:** 762-766.
- Jordan, D. L., Vidrine, P. R., Griffin, J. L. and Reynolds, D. B. 1996. Influence of Adjuvants on Efficacy of Clethodim. Weed Technol., 10: 738-743.
- 15. Kudsk, P. and Mathiassen, S. K. 2007. Analysis of Adjuvant Effects and Their Interactions with Variable Application Parameters. *Crop Prot.*, **26:** 328-334.
- 16. Keeley, S. J., Branham, B. E. and Penner, D. 1997. Adjuvant Enhancement of Large Crabgrass (*Digitaria sanguinalis*) Control with Dithiopyr. *Weed Sci.*, **45**: 205-211.
- 17. King, S. R., Hagood, E. S., Bradley, K. W. and Kriton, K. H. 2003. Absorption, Translocation, and Metabolism of AE F13006003 in Wheat, Barley, and Italian Ryegrass (*Lolium multiflorum*) with or without Dicamba. *Weed Sci.*, **51**: 509-514.
- Kreuz, K., Gaudin, J., Stingelin, J. and Ebert, E. 1991. Metabolism of the Aryloxyphenoxypropionate Herbicide, CGA 184927, in Wheat, Barley and Maize: Differential Effects of the Safener, CGA 185072. Zeitschrift fur Naturforschung, 46: 901-905.
- 19. Muller, T., Brancq, B., Milius, A., Okori, N., Vaille, C. and Gauvrit, C. 2002. Ethoxylated Rapeseed Oil Derivatives as Novel Adjuvants for Herbicides. *Pest Manag. Sci.*, 58: 1243-1249.
- Matysiak, R. and Nalewaja, J. D. 1999. Temperature, Adjuvants, and UV Light Affect Sethoxydim Phytotoxicity. Weed Technol., 13: 94-99.
- Mack, R. E., Volgas, G. C., Roberts, J. R., Thomas, J. and Underwood, A. K. 1995. Effects of Several Adjuvant Classes on Two Herbicides for Weed Control. In: "Proceeding 4th International Symposium on Adjuvants for Agrochemicals", (Ed.): Gaskin, E., Melbourne, PP. 448-453.
- 22. Manthey, F. A., Nalewaja, J. D. and Szeleziank, E. F. 1989. Esterifed Seed Oils with Herbicides. In: "Adjuvants and Agrochemicals", (Eds.): Chow, P. N. P., Ggrant, C. A., Hinshalwood, A. M. and Simundsson, E.. CRC Press, Boca Roton, FL, II: 139-148.
- McMullan, P. M., Harker, K. N., Blanckshaw, R. E., Volgas, G. C. and Roberts, J. R. 1995. Effect of Methyl Ester Composition and Phosphate Ester on Tralkoxydim and Fenoxaprop-P-ethyl. In:

- "Proceeding 4th International Symposium on Adjuvants for Agrochemicals", (Ed.): Gaskin, E.. Melbourne, PP. 426-431.
- 24. Nandula, V. K., Curran, W. S., Roth, G. W. and Harting, N. L. 1995. Effectiveness of Adjuvants with Nicosulfuron and Primisulfuron for Wirestem Muhly (Muhlenbergia frondosa) Control in No-till Corn (Zea mays). Weed Technol., 9: 525-530.
- 25. Nalewaja, J. D., Praczyk, T. and Matysiak, R. 1995. Surfactants and Oils Adjuvants with Nicosulfuron. *Weed Technol.*, **9:** 689-695.
- Rashed-Mohassel, M. H., Aliverdi, A., Hammami, H. and Zand, E. 2010. Optimizing the Performance of Diclofopmethyl, Cycloxydim, and Clodinafoppropargyl on Littleseed Canarygrass (*Phalaris minor*) and Wild Oat (*Avena ludoviciana*) Control with Adjuvants. Weed Biol. Manage., 10: 57-63.
- Rashed-Mohassel, M. H., Aliverdi, A. and Rahimi, S. 2011. Optimizing Dosage of Sethoxydim and Fenoxaprop-p-ethyl with Adjuvants to Control Wild Oat. *Ind. Crop. Prod.*, 34: 1583-1587.
- 28. Ritz, C. and Streibig, J. C. 2005. Bioassay Analysis Using R. J. Stat. Softw. 12: 1-22.
- 29. Robinson, R. G. and Nelson, W. W. 1975. Vegetable Oil Replacements for Petroleum Oil Adjuvants in Herbicide Sprays. *Econ. Bot.*, **29**: 146-151.
- Ruiter, H. D., Uffing, A. J. M. and Meinen, E. 1997. Influence of Emulsifiable Oils and Emulsifier on the Performance of Phenmedipham, Metoxuron, Sethoxydim, and Quizalofop. Weed Technol., 11: 290-297.
- 31. Sharma, S. D. and Singh, M. 2000. Optimizing Foliar Activity of Glyphosate on *Bidens frondosa* and *Panicum maximum* with Different Adjuvant Types. *Weed Res.*, **40:** 523-533.
- 32. Sheibani, S. and Ghadiri, H. 2012. Integration Effects of Split Nitrogen Fertilization and Herbicide Application on Weed Management and Wheat Yield. *J. Agr. Sci. Tech.*, **14:** 77-86
- 33. Shu, Q., Wang, J., Peng, B., Wang, D. and Wang, G. 2008. Predicting the Surface Tension of Biodiesel Fuels by a Mixture Topological Index Method, at 313 K. *Fuel*, **87:** 3586-3590.



- 34. Starke, R. J., Renner, K. A., Penner, D. and Roggenbuck, F. C. 1996. Influence of Adjuvants and Desmedipham plus Phenmedipham on Velvetleaf (*Abutilon theophrasti*) and Sugarbeet Response to Triflusulfuron. *Weed Sci.*, **44:** 489-495.
- 35. Strahan, R. E., Griffin, J. L., Jordan, D. L. and Miller, D. K. 2000. Influence of Adjuvants on Itchgrass (*Rottboellia cochinchinensis*) Control in Corn (*Zea mays*) with Nicosulfuron and Primisulfuron. *Weed Technol.*, **14:** 66-71.
- 36. Syedipuor, H., Baghestani, M. A. and Zand, E. 2009. Integrated Wild Barley Weed Management in The Fields of Qom Province. *Agri. Bull.*, **2:** 23-45. (Abstract in English)
- 37. Tu, Y. Q., Lin, Z. M. and Zhang, J. Y. 1986. The Effect of Leaf Shape on the Deposition of Spray Droplets in Rice. *Crop Prot.*, **5:** 3-7
- 38. Tind, T., Mathiesen, T. J., Jensen, J. E., Ritz, C. and Streibig, J. C. 2009. Using a Selectivity Index to Evaluate Logarithmic Spraying in Grass Seed Crops. *Pest Manag. Sci.*, **65:** 1257-1262.
- 39. Tonks, D. J. and Eberlein, C. V. 2001. Postemergence Weed Control with Rimsulfuron and Various Adjuvants in

- Potato (Solanum tuberosum). Weed Technol., 15: 613-616.
- 40. Tworkoski, T. 2002. Herbicide Effects of Essential Oils. *Weed Sci.*, **50:** 425-431.
- 41. Velasco, L., Perez-Vich, B. and Fernandez-Martinez, J. M. 2004. Grain Quality in Oil Crops. In: "Handbook of Seed Physiology Applications to Agriculture" (Eds.): Benech-Arnold, R. L. and Sanchez, R. A.. The Haworth Press, Inc., USA.
- 42. Young, B. G. and Hart, S. E. 1998. Optimizing Foliar Activity of Isoxaflutole on Giant Foxtail (*Setaria faberi*) with Various Adjuvants. *Weed Sci.*, **46:** 397-402.
- 43. Zand, E., Baghestani, M. A., Soufizadeh, S., Eskandari, A., PourAzar, R., Veysi, M., Mousavi, K. and Barjasteh, A. 2007. Evaluation of Some Newly Registered Herbicides for Weed Control in Wheat (*Triticum aestivum* L.) in Iran. *Crop Prot.*, 26: 1349-1358.
- 44. Zawierucha, J. E. and Penner, D. 2001. Adjuvant Efficacy with Quinclorac in Canola (*Brassica napus*) and Turf Grass. *Weed Technol.*, **15:** 220-223.
- 45. Zimdahl, R. L. 2007. *Fundamentals of Weed Science*. 3rd Edition, Academic Press, USA.
- 46. Zollinger, R. K. 2000. Extension Perspective on Grower Confusion in Adjuvant Selection. *Weed Technol.*, **14:** 814-818.

بهینه سازی فعالیت سولفوسولفورون و سولفوسولفورون+متسولفورون متیل با استفاده از روغنهای گیاهی در کنترل جو دره (.Hordeum spontaneum Koch)

۱. ایزدی دربندی، و ۱. علی وردی

چکیده

از زمانی که کاربرد فلمپروپمتیل ایزوپروپیل منسوخ شد، علفهرز جو دره به اکثر مزارع گندم کشورمان تهاجم پیدا کرده است. علف کشهای جدیداً توسعه یافته، یعنی سولفوسولفوورن و سولفوسولفوورن+متسولوفورونمتیل، در مقادیر بالاتر از مقدار توصیه شده قادر به کنترل این علف هرز هستند که این باعث خسارت به گندم می شود. از این رو، دو آزمایش واکنش به مقدار به منظور بهینه سازی مقدار مصرف این دو علف کش در کنترل علف هرز جو دره با استفاده از ۱۳ روغن گیاهی در دانشگاه فردوسی مشهد در سال ۱۳۹۲ به اجرا در آمد. تیمارها شامل ۶ غلظت از هر علف کش با و بدون



هر یک از روغنهای گیاهی بودند. علاوه براین، غلظتی از علف کشها که موجب فراهمی کنترل ۹۰ درصدی جو دره (۲۱/۴۴ گرم ماده موثره از سولفوسولفوورن و ۴۱/۹۵ گرم ماده موثره از سولفوسولفوورن و ۴۱/۹۵ گرم ماده موثره از سولفوسولفوورن+متسولوفورونمتیل) با و بدون روغنهای گیاهی شده بودند، نیز بر روی رقم گاسکوژن گندم بکار برده شدند تا انتخابی بودن آنها مورد سنجش قرار گیرد. در حالتی که متوسط عملکرد روغنهای گیاهی در نظر گرفته شود، در مجموع، آنها توانستند غلظتی از سولفوسولفوورن و سولفوسولفوورن و سولفوسولفوورن+متسولوفورونمتیل که موجب فراهمی کنترل ۵۰ درصدی جو دره شوند را به ترتیب مهترین مرکز و ۳۰۰ برابر کاهش دهند. بین روغنهای مورد ارزیابی، روغنهای پنبه و نارگیل دارای بهترین عملکرد در بهبود کارایی هر دو علف کشها داشتند. در حالی که، روغن کرچک بدترین بود. یک ارتباط منفی بین عملکرد روغنهای گیاهی و نسبت اسیدهای چرب غیراشیاع به اشباع مشاهد شد.