(LUMO) of P3TAA estimated from the oxidation potential and the band gap $(\pi-\pi^*)$ value are situated ~ -2.95 eV vs vacuum. As reported in the literature, the conduction band (CB) of TiO₂ and the valance band level of CuI are situated at ~ -4.2 eV and ~ -4.85 eV vs vacuum respectively^{2,10,16}. Therefore, upon illumination a majority of the excited dye molecules attached covalently to the TiO₂ electrode transfer electrons to the conduction band of TiO₂, while the holes are transferred to the valence band of the CuI, thus producing a respectable photocurrent through an external circuit.

In conclusion, we have successfully constructed and demonstrated the possibilities of fabrication of volatile solvent-free polymer-sensitized solar cells composed of chemically attached thiophene polymer to an inorganic semiconductor ${\rm TiO_2}$ with CuI as the hole transporting material. Even though these values are far from practical applications, we believe that the methodology demonstrated here would lead to the use of conducting polymers in solar cells more effectively.

- O'Regan, B. and Grätzel, M., A low-cost, high-efficiency solar cell based on dye-sensitized colloidal TiO₂ films. *Nature*, 1991, 353, 737-740.
- 2. Grätzel, M., Photoelectrochemical cells. Nature, 2001, 414, 338-344.
- Matsumoto, M., Wada, Y., Kitamura, T., Shigaki, K., Inoue, T., Ikeda, M. and Yanagida, S., Fabrication of solid-state dyesensitized TiO₂ solar cell using polymer electrolyte. *Bull. Chem.* Soc. Jpn., 2001, 74, 387–393.
- Tennakone, K., Senadeera, G. K. R., De Silva, D. B. R. A. and Kottegoda, I. R. M., Highly stable dye-sensitized solid-state solar cell with the semiconductor 4CuBr 3S(C₄H₉)₂ as the hole collector. *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, 2000, 77, 2367–2369.
- O'Regan, B. and Sehwarz, D. T., Large enhancement in photocurrent efficiency caused by UV illumination of the dye-sensitized heterojunction TiO₂/RuLL'NCS/CuSCN: Initiation and potential mechanisms. *Chem. Mater.*, 1998, 10, 1501–1509.
- Senadeera, G. K. R., Jayaweera, P. V. V., Perera, V. P. S. and Tennakone, K., Solid-state dye-sensitized photocell based on pentacene as a hole collector. Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cell, 2002, 73, 103–108.
- Hara, K. et al., Dye-sensitized nanocrystalline TiO₂ solar cells based on ruthenium(II) phenanthroline complex photosensitizers. Langmuir, 2001, 17, 5992-5995.
- Hara, K., Sayama, K., Ohga, Y., Shinpo, A., Sugihara, H. and Arakawa, H., A coumarin-derivative dye sensitized nanocrystalline TiO₂ solar cell having a high solar-energy conversion efficiency up to 5.6%. *Chem. Commun.*, 2001, 6, 569–570.
- Huynh, W. U., Dittmer, J. J. and Alivisatos, A. P., Hybrid nanorod-polymer solar cells. Science, 2002, 295, 2425–2427.
- Smestad, G. P. et al., A technique to compare polythiophene solidstate dye sensitized TiO₂ solar cells to liquid junction devices. Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cell., 2003, 76, 85.
- Skotheim, T., Petersson, L. G., Inganas, O. and Lundstrom, I., Photoelectrochemical behaviour of n-Si electrodes protected with pt-polypyrrole. J. Electrochem. Soc., 1982, 129, 1737–1741.
- Senadeera, G. K. R., Nakamura, K., Kitamura, T., Wada, Y. and Yanagida, S., Fabrication of highly efficient polythiophene-sensitized metal oxide photovoltaic cells. *Appl. Phys. Lett.*, 2003, 83, 5470-5472
- Lu, W. et al., Use of ionic liquids in \(\pi\)-conjugated polymer electrochemical devices. Science, 2002, 297, 983-987.

- Kim, B. S., Chen, L., Gong, J. and Osasa, Y., Titration behavior and spectral transitions of water-soluble polythiophene carboxylic acids. *Macromolecules*, 1999, 32, 3964–3969.
- Saito, Y., Fukuri, N., Senadeera, R., Kitamura, T., Wada, Y. and Yanagida, S., Solid state dye sensitized solar cells using in situ polymerized PEDOTs as hole conductor. *Electrochem. Commun.*, 2004, 6, 671-674.
- Sirimanne, P. M., Shirata, T., Damodare, L., Hayashi, Y., Soga, T. and Jimbo, T., An approach for utilization of organic polymer as a sensitizer in solid-state cells. Sol. Energy Mater. Sol. Cell, 2003, 77, 15–24.

Received 4 March 2004; revised accepted 14 June 2004

Induction of oxidative stress and ultrastructural changes in moss *Taxithelium* nepalense (Schwaegr.) Broth. under lead and arsenic phytotoxicity

S. Choudhury^{1,*} and S. K. Panda^{1,2}

¹Plant Biochemistry Laboratory, School of Life Sciences, Assam (Central) University, Silchar 788 011, India ^{1,2}Research Institute for Bioresources, Okayama University, Kurashiki 7100646, Japan

Changes in physiological, biochemical and ultrastructural level under lead (Pb) and arsenic (As) phytotoxicity were investigated in moss, Taxithelium nepalense. Decrease in dry matter and total chlorophyll was observed in moss under metal treatment. Increase in lipid peroxidation, hydrogen peroxide and superoxide anion radical were visible under Pb compared to As. Accumulation of Pb was found to be maximum compared to As. An increase in superoxide dismutase activity with a concomitant decrease in catalase, peroxidase and glutathione reductase activity was recorded. Both ascorbate and glutathione accumulated to a greater extent under Pb treatment in moss. A distortion in thylakoid ultrastructure in moss chloroplast was noticed under Pb compared to As and control.

THE living organism possesses the ability to withstand specific quantity of essential and non-essential elements present in the environment, and utilize them for their growth and development. These elements are toxic if taken up at a higher concentration than required¹. In contrast to the essential elements which serve as metabolic precursors for plants, the non-essential elements do not have any known metabolic function. Non-essential elements are grouped together into one major category termed as heavy metals. Heavy metals are the integrated component

^{*}For correspondence. (e-mail: shubo_aus@sify.com)

of the biosphere and are released through industrial effluents and other human activities. With the advancement of science and technology, environmental pollution has become a global problem. Rapid industrialization has led to the accumulation of major atmospheric pollutants like SO_x, NO_x, CO₂, metal ions, etc. Plastic, pesticides, disinfectants, tanneries, electroplating, etc. have also added many metal ions into the ecosystem.

Heavy metals are known to cause oxidative damage and biochemical lesions in plant cells². The heavy metalinduced toxicity results in proline accumulation and alteration of various enzymic activities^{3,4}. In addition to these effects, heavy metal ions induce alterations in chlorophyll biosynthesis and electron transport activities, and other enzymes related to photosynthetic process. The in vitro uptake of heavy metals in plants results in interference of growth and metabolism by triggering secondary responses such as oxidative damage by producing highly reactive oxygen species (ROS). Disintegration of biomembranes by lipid peroxidation is a general mechanism of stressinduced responses in living systems with the generation of ROS like OH⁻ and O₂ radicals⁴. These ROS are highly active in the hydrophobic environment rather than in hydrophilic aqueous systems. Lead (Pb) and Arsenic (As) are two toxic heavy metals that can cause oxidative damage in plants. Lead toxicity in many plants is known to be associated with inhibition of growth, changes in enzyme activities, leaf chlorosis⁵⁻⁷, reduction in photosynthetic rate and also inhibition of root elongation^{8,9}. Arsenic occurs predominantly in the soil and also in groundwater. Like lead, arsenic can also induce phytotoxic symptoms and can generate ROS. Likewise, other heavy metals like chromium were found to inhibit seed germination, seedling growth and also induce oxidative damage and various biochemical lesions².

Bryophytes are important contributors to the biomass in various ecosystems. The capacity of bryophytes to accumulate various metal ions, has opened the possibility of its use as a biomonitoring agent of environment quality in remote areas¹⁰. Bryophytes grow in almost all kinds of habitats like rocks, stones, hillsides, tree trunks, etc. Although most of the plant species are affected by the presence of metal ions in the environment, a few lower plants and higher plants have evolved populations with the ability to survive and thrive in metal-rich soil. These plants are referred to as hyperaccumulators. Hyperaccumulators are plant species that have the potential to survive uptake and sequester high levels of metal ions in their tissue without exhibiting any phytotoxic symptoms¹¹. Bryophytes being hyperaccumulators of metals, can have the potential phytoremediation capacity. The ability of the bryophytes to accumulate metals is because of its high surface-to-surface ratio12. Hence they can be used as biosensors to monitor environment quality and as indicators of morphological and genomic changes induced by heavy metals 13-15. However, little is known about the subsequent mechanism of oxidative stress and molecular damage in bryophytes under metal pollution¹⁶. *Taxithelium nepalense* (Schwaegr.) Broth is a subtropical genus belonging to the family Sematophyllaceae and occurs generally on tree barks of wet forests. In India, it is commonly called pleurocarpous moss and is widely distributed in the wet forests of the country. It is a terricolous moss highly sensitive to pollution and can be used as biomonitoring agent to monitor air quality. The present investigation was carried out to analyse phytotoxicity response of *T. nepalense* (Schwaegr.) Broth to lead and arsenic, with the induction of oxidative stress and ultrastructural changes in moss cells.

Fresh samples of *Taxithelium* sp. were collected during July 2003 from the Botanical Garden at Assam University, Silchar and brought to the laboratory in polythene bags. After thorough washing in running tap water and then in distilled water, the moss was transferred to plastic petri plates containing various concentrations (0, 10, 100 and 1000 μM) of lead acetate and sodium meta arsenate. The plates were transferred to a growth chamber under continuous white light provided with cool, fluorescent white tubes (Philips 20W TLD, India), with a photon flux density of 52 μ E m $^{-2}$ s $^{-1}$ (PAR) and kept at 22 \pm 2°C. After 24 h of metal treatment, the plant material was taken for biochemical and enzymic estimation and transmission electron microscopy (TEM) observations.

To determine the dry matter, the plants were dried in an oven at 70°C for 2 days. The dried samples were then weighed to determine the plant dry matter. The total chlorophyll content was determined spectrophotometrically as described by Arnon¹⁷. To determine Pb²⁺ and As²⁺, the plants were oven-dried at 70°C for 2 days. The dried samples were then digested, as described by Humpries¹⁸, in glass tubes containing 5 ml concentrated HNO₃ and placed in a heat block at 100°C until the solution became clear. The sample volume was raised to 20 ml by adding distilled water. The concentration of total Pb²⁺ and As²⁺ in the tissue was measured by an atomic absorption spectrometer (Perkin Elmer-3110, Germany).

The total peroxide content was estimated by homogenizing the plant material in 5% trichloroacetic acid (TCA), as suggested by Sagisaka¹⁹. Lipid peroxidation was measured as the amount of MDA determined by thiobarbituric acid (TBA) reaction, as described by Heath and Packer²⁰. Plant material (0.2 g) was homogenized in 2 ml of 0.1% (m/v) TCA. The homogenate was then centrifuged at 10,000 g for 20 min. To 1 ml of the supernatant, 1 ml of 20% TCA containing 0.5% TBA and 0.01 ml butylated hydroxyl toluene (BHT: 4% solution in ethanol) were added. The mixture was heated at 95°C for 30 min in a water-bath and then cooled in ice. The contents were centrifuged at 10,000 g for 15 min and absorbance was measured at 532 nm and corrected for 600 nm. The estimation of O₂ was done as suggested by Elstner and Heupel²¹ by monitoring the nitrate formation from hydroxyl amine with some modifications. The plant material was homogenized in 3 ml of 65 mM phosphate buffer (pH 7.8) at 5000 g for 10 min. The reaction mixture contained 0.9 ml of 65 mM phosphate buffer, 0.1 ml of 10 mM hydroxyl amine hydrochloride and 1 ml of the supernatant plant extract. After incubation at room temperature (25°C) for 20 min, 1 ml of 17 mM sulphanilamide and 1 ml of 7 mM α -naphthyl were added. After reaction at 25°C, 1 ml of diethyl ether was added and centrifuged at 1500 g for 5 min and the absorbancy was read at 530 nm. A standard curve with NO_2^- was established to calculate the production rate of O_2^- from the chemical reaction of O_2^- and hydroxylamine.

Extraction and assay of enzymes were done by homogenizing the plant material in 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.8) in pre-chilled mortar and pestle under cold condition. The extract was centrifuged at 4°C for 15 min at 14,000 g in a cooling centrifuge. The supernatant was used for the assay of catalase (CAT), guaiacol peroxidase (GPx), glutathione reductase (GR) and superoxide dismutase (SOD). CAT and GPx were assayed according to Chance and Maehly²². Five millilitres of the assay mixture of catalase comprised of 3 ml of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.8), 1 ml of 30 mM H₂O₂ and 1 ml of the enzyme extract. The reaction was stopped by adding 10 ml of 2% H₂SO₄ after 1 min incubation at 20°C. The acidified reaction mixture was titrated against 0.01 M KMnO₄ to determine the quantity of H₂O₂ utilized by the enzyme. Three millilitres of the assay mixture of GPx comprised of 0.1 M phosphate buffer (pH 6.8), 30 mM guaiacol, 30 mM H₂O₂ and 0.3 ml enzyme extract. The rate of change in absorbance at 420 nm was measured using an UV-visible spectrophotometer (Systronics, Mumbai, India). The assay of SOD was done according to Giannopolitis and Ries²³. Three millilitres of the assay mixture of SOD comprised 79.2 mM Tris-HCl buffer (pH 8.9) containing 0.12 mM EDTA and 10.8 mM tetramethyldiamine, bovine serum albumin (0.0033%), 6 mM nitroblue tetrazolium (NBT), 600 µM riboflavin in 5 mM KOH and 0.2 ml enzyme extract. The reaction mixture was illuminated by placing the glass tubes between two fluorescent tubes (Philips, 20W, India) and the reaction was terminated by switching the light-off. The increase in absorbance due to formation of formazen was recorded at 560 nm. GR was determined according to the method suggested by Smith et al.²⁴.

For determination of ascorbate and glutathione, 0.2 g of plant material was homogenized in 5% (m/v) sulphosalicylic acid and the homogenate was centrifuged at 10,000 g for 10 min. The supernatant was used for the estimation of ascorbate according to Oser^{25} and glutathione according to Griffith^{26} .

For TEM study, the thalli of metal-treated moss and control samples were fixed overnight in 1.5% glutaral-dehyde in 0.2 M phosphate buffer at room temperature overnight, as suggested by Makela *et al.*²⁷. Post-fixation, cutting and staining were carried out at the Electron Microscopy Division of the Sophisticated Analytical Instru-

mentation Facility, Regional Sophisticated Instrumentation Centre, North-Eastern Hill University, Shillong. Three sections/treatments were examined and photographed with Jeol 1200X electron microscope (Jeol System Co., Akishima, Tokyo, Japan) for chloroplast ultrastructure analysis.

Data represent means of three separate experiments \pm standard error. Data were analysed by Student's *t*-test at P = 0.05 significance level.

A significant growth inhibition measured in terms of dry matter of moss was visible with an increase in metal concentrations (Figure 1 a). At $1000 \,\mu\text{M}$ concentration, the dry mass showed a 41.3% decrease in case of Pb and 38.5% decrease in case of As compared to control. The inhibition of growth was accompanied by a decrease in chlorophyll content, which reduced by 41.2% in case of

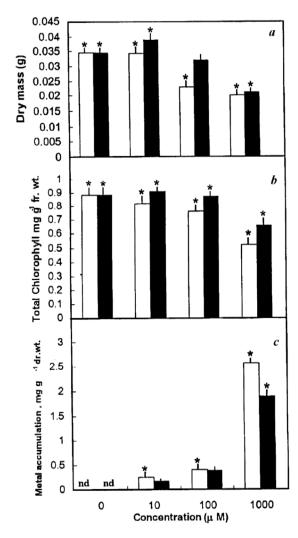


Figure 1. Changes in drymass (a), total chlorophyll (b) and metal accumulation (c) in *Taxithelium nepalense* under Pb (\square and As (\bullet after 24 h. Data represented are the means of three separate experiments \pm SE. Data were analysed by Student's *t*-test at P=0.05 significance level (*). nd, Not detectable.

Pb and 25.5% in case of As compared to control plants (Figure 1 b). The accumulation of Pb in moss cells was found to be higher than that of As after 24 h of metal treatment (Figure 1 c).

An increase in total peroxide content was noticed under both the heavy metal treatments (Figure 2 a), which increased with increase in concentration of Pb and As. The increase was markedly significant at 100 μ M with 172.5% and 151.2% increase for Pb and As respectively, and 213.5% for Pb and 177% for As at 1000 μ M concentration.

As an indicator of lipid peroxidation, the content in thiobarbituric acid reactive substances (TBARS) was measured (Figure 2 b). With increase in the concentration of Pb and As, the TBARS content showed a significant increase. However, the increase was noticed at 100 μ M concentration with 227.2% in case of Pb and 173.4% in case of As and the highest at 1000 μ M with 258.3 and 181.1% in case of Pb and As respectively, compared to control plants. The change O_2^- is shown in Figure 2 c. With the increase in concentration of Pb and As, the superoxide anion production also increased. The increase was higher under Pb than As. Pb-treated plants showed 355.8% in-

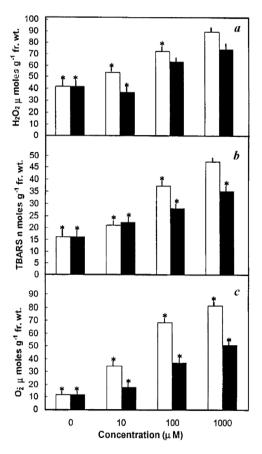


Figure 2. Changes in total peroxide (a), TBARS content (b) and superoxide anion radical production (c) in T. nepalense under Pb $(\square$ and As (\bullet) treatment after 24 h. Others same as in Figure 1.

crease at 10 μ M concentration, which increased by 669.6% and 784.3% at 100 and 1000 μ M concentration respectively, compared to the control. In case of As, at 10 μ M the production of O_2^- was decreased approximately by twofold compared with Pb. At 100 and 1000 μ M concentration of As, production was enhanced only by 353.9 and 546% compared to control.

Changes in antioxidant enzymes are shown in Figure 3. Under metal treatment, the activity of SOD showed an initial increase with increase in metal concentration, but decreased at higher concentration. After 12 h of treatment, SOD activity gradually increased in case of both the metals; a decrease was noticed at 1000 µM concentration. In case of CAT, a decrease was noticed in moss cells under metal treatment. However, a decrease was noticed in the case of Pb (29.1%) compared to As (25.1%). The peroxidase (POX) activity showed a gradual decrease with higher inhibition of its activity under Pb (37.7%) compared to As (30.5%). The activity of GR was found to decrease with increase in concentration of Pb with that of As treated moss cells.

Changes in non-enzymic antioxidants, ascorbate and glutathione are shown in Figure 4. The ascorbate content showed an increase with increase in metal concentration. The increase was pronounced in case of Pb-treated plants. At $1000~\mu M$, the ascorbate content increased by 296% in case of Pb, with only 164.4% in case of As compared to control. The glutathione activity also showed an increase with increase in concentration of Pb and As. The increase was highest at $1000~\mu M$ concentration for both the metals, but more pronounced effect was noticed in case of Pb where it increased by 173% compared to control. In case of As the increase was 149.4%, which was approximately 1.5 times lower than that of Pb.

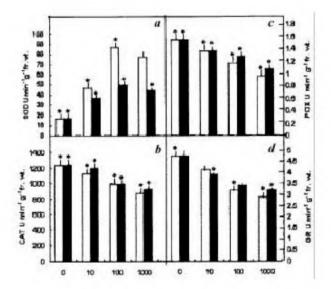


Figure 3. Changes in superoxide dismutase (a), catalase (b), peroxidase (c) and glutathione reductase (d) in T. nepalense under Pb (\square) and As (\bullet) treatment after 24 h. Others same as in Figure 1.

TEM analysis of chloroplast ultrastructure is shown in Figure 5. As a consequence of Pb and As treatment, distortion of the thylakoid membrane was observed under both the metals compared with the chloroplast of the control plants. Marked increase in degree of distortion of thylakoid and plastoglobule was noted at higher Pb concentration followed by As compared to control.

The decrease in dry biomass and chlorophyll content under Pb and As in moss cells were similar with that of other higher plants and moss studied, which may be a metal-specific response on chlorophyll biosynthesis as seen for other heavy metals like Cu, Cd, Cr, Zn, etc. ^{16,28–30}. A decrease in dry biomass as seen in results under metal treatment may be due to a degradation of chlorophyll resulting in inhibition of photosynthesis ³¹. Plants are known to hyperaccumulate various metals and this helps in bioremediation of the environment ^{12,13,32}. Though at lower concentration both Pb and As showed higher accumulation as seen for higher plants and *Sphagnum*, suggesting that *Taxithellium* with an efficient bioconcentration mechanism can act as pollution indicator ^{12,13,33}.

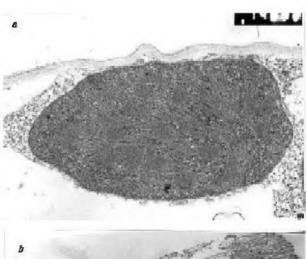
As a part of triggering of common defence pathways in plant cells to abiotic stress, cytotoxic hydrogen peroxide gets accumulated which acts as a secondary messenger³⁴. Accumulation of peroxide is a general stress response, which has been observed in plants exposed to various biotic and abiotic stresses³⁵. A similar increase in H₂O₂ level was mar-

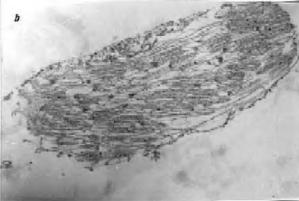
ASC µ moles g-1 fr. wt. Glutathione µ moles g⁻¹ fr. wt. Concentration (µ M)

Figure 4. Changes in ascorbate (a) and glutathione (b) in T. nepalense under Pb (\square) and As (\bullet) treatment after 24 h. Others same as in Figure 1

ked in both Pb and As treatments as seen for moss under other heavy metals toxicity and for higher plants^{4,16}.

Lipid peroxidation is a process by which the functionality and integrity of the membrane is affected and can produce irreversible damage to cell function. Lipid peroxidation gets initiated by ROS such as O_2^- , OH, and 1O_2





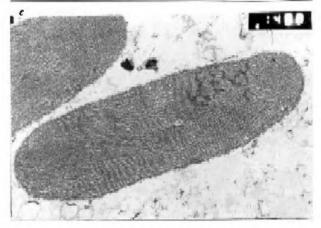


Figure 5. TEM analysis of chloroplast of *Taxithelium nepalense* with or without Pb and As. *a*, Chloroplast ultrastructure after 24 h without Pb or As. *b*, Micrograph obtained after 24 h of 1000: M Pb treatment. Complete distortion in chloroplast membrane and disorganization of thylakoid are seen with change in shape. *c*, Chloroplast after 24 h of 1000: M of As. Change in chloroplast structure and disorganization of thylakoid can be seen.

or by lipooxygenases³⁶. Both lead and arsenic enhanced the TBARS level in moss, which is an index of lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress^{6,16}. Pb and As are not redox metals like Cu and Fe and therefore cannot catalyse Fentontype reactions yielding hydroxyl radicals. However, this may indirectly cause oxidative stress by disturbing the photosynthetic electron transport that will lead to the production of ROS as substantiated by the degradation of chlorophyll and electron micrographs of chloroplast showing thylakoid disintegration.

An increase in superoxide radical at higher concentrations suggested a loss of normal reduction of oxygen to water and other electron carriers during mitochondrial electron transport. O_2^- is a moderately reactive, shortlived ROS with a half-life of 2–4 μ s, which cannot cross biomembranes and is dismutated readily³⁷ to H_2O_2 .

The activity of antioxidative enzymes determines the steady-state levels of ROS in the cell and augmentation of the antioxidative defence plays a pivotal role in regulating oxidative stress. SOD is a key enzyme in protecting the cell against oxidative stress. It catalyses the dismutation of superoxide radical to H2O2 and oxygen. An increase in SOD activity indicates higher production of H₂O₂, which has been seen in the case of an increase in endogenous peroxide accumulation^{16,38}. Decrease in CAT, GPx and GR by heavy metal ions could result from the attack caused by metal ion-induced ROS, which may be possible in case of non-redox metals causing elevated lipid peroxidation, indirectly resulting in free radical production^{4,7,25,29,36}. Ascorbate plays a role as a primary cellular antioxidant and also functions as secondary antioxidant because it represents a cellular reservoir to regenerate αtocopherol, which scavenges lipid peroxide radicals^{39,40}. Glutathione is a measure of non-protein thiol in plants and is involved in the detoxification of heavy metals and xenobiotic compounds that play an important role in gene activation for protection against oxidative stress⁴¹. Increase in ascorbate and glutathione content therefore, might restrict heavy metal-induced lipid peroxidation and oxidative stress^{3,35}.

TEM analysis showed disturbances in the cell structure of metal-treated plants with a disruption in chloroplast ultrastructure with a disorganized thylakoid system. The damage in thylakoid structure suggests important disturbances in the metabolic function of organelles affecting chlorophyll biosynthesis, photosynthesis and activities of redox enzymes^{38,42}, justifying a decrease in growth.

From the above study, it can be concluded that imposition of heavy metal toxicity induces a concentration-dependent oxidative stress as evidenced by biochemical changes, oxidative damage and antioxidant activity. Ultrastructural distortions suggest that the mechanism of heavy metal toxicity might be characterized by oxidative stress.

- Panda, S. K. and Patra, S. K., Physiology of chromium toxicity in plants – a review. *Plant Physiol. Biochem.*, 1997, 24, 10–17.
- Schat, H., Sharma, S. S. and Vooijs, R., Heavy metal induced accumulation of free proline in metal tolerant and non-tolerant ecotypes of Silene vulgaris. Plant Physiol., 1997, 101, 477–482.
- Panda, S. K., Chaudhury, I. and Khan, M. H., Heavy metal induced lipid peroxidation affects antioxidants in wheat leaves. *Biol. Plant.*, 2003, 46, 289–294.
- Johnson, M. S., Mc Neily, T. and Putwain, P. O., Revegetation of metaliferous mine soil contaminated with lead and zinc. *Environ. Pollut.*, 1977, 12, 261–277.
- Mishra, A. and Choudhuri, M. A., Possible implication of heavy metals (Pb⁺² and Hg⁺²) in free radical mediated membrane damage in two rice cultivars. *Indian J. Plant Physiol.*, 1996, 1, 43–47.
- Verma, S. and Dubey, R. S., Lead toxicity induces lipid peroxidation and alters the activities of antioxidant enzymes in growing rice plants. *Plant Sci.*, 2003, 164, 645–655.
- Lane, S. D. and Martin, E. S., Further observation on the distribution of lead in juvenile roots of *Raphanus sativus*. Z. Pflanzenphysiol., 1980, 97, 145–152.
- Bazzaz, F. A., Rolfe, G. L. and Carlson, R. W., Effect of lead on photosynthesis and transpiration of excised leaves of corn and sunflower. *Physiol. Plant.*, 1992, 32, 373–377.
- Saxena, D. K., Sharma, B. K., Srivastava, H. S., Saxena, A., Sankar, N., Kamakshi and Goswami, A., Need of bryophyte bank for environment monitoring in India. Curr. Sci., 2001, 81, 1395–1396.
- Saxena, D. K., Saxena, A. and Srivastava, H. S., Heavy metal accumulation and in vivo nitrate reductase activity in the Sphagnum squarrosum Carm. Samnl. Proc. Natl. Acad. Sci., India, 1999, 69, 307–312.
- Carginale, V., Sorbo, S., Capasso, C., Trinchella, F., Cafiero, G. and Basile, A., Accumulation, localization and toxic effects of cadmium in the liverworth *Lunularia cruciata*. *Protoplasma*, 2004, 223, 53-61.
- Bargagli, R., Mosses as passive and active biomonitors of trace elements. In *Trace Elements in Terrestrial Plants* (ed. Bargagli, R.), Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1998, pp. 207–236.
- Carballeria, A., Vazquez, M. D. and Lopez, J., Biomonitoring of sporadic acidification of rivers on the basis of release of preloaded cadmium from aquatic bryophyte Fontinalis antipyretica Hedw. Environ. Pollut., 2001, 111, 95-106.
- Bassi, P. et al., Effect of lead on nuclear repetitive DNA of the moss Funaria hygrometrica (Funariales). Ann. Bot. (London), 1995, 87, 537-554.
- Panda, S. K., Heavy metal phytotoxicity induces oxidative stress in a moss *Taxithelium* sp. *Curr. Sci.*, 2003, 84, 631–633.
- Arnon, D. I., Copper enzyme in the isolated chloroplast, polyphenol oxidase in *Beta vulgaris*. *Plant Physiol.*, 1949, 24, 1– 15.
- Humpries, C. C., Modern Methods of Plant Analysis (eds Peach, K. and Tracey, N. V.), Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1956, vol. 1, pp. 468–502.
- Sagisaka, S., The occurrence of peroxide in perennial plant Populus glerica. Plant Physiol., 1976, 57, 308–309.
- Heath, R. L. and Packer, L., Photoperoxidation in isolated chloroplast. I Kinetics and stoichiometry of fatty acid peroxidation. *Arch. Biochem. Biophys.*, 1968, 125, 189–198
- Elstner, E. F. and Heupel, A., Inhibition of nitrate formation from hydroxyl ammonium chloride: A simple assay for superoxide dismutase. *Anal. Biochem.*, 1976, 70, 616–620.
- Chance, B. and Maehly, A. C., Assay of catalase and peroxidase. *Methods Enzymol.*, 1955, 2, 746–778.
- Giannopolitis, C. N. and Ries, S. K., Superoxide dismutase. I. Occurrence in higher plants. *Plant Physiol.*, 1977, 59, 309–314.
- Smith, I. K., Vierhgeller, T. L. and Throne, C. A., Assay of glutathione reductase in crude tissue homogenate using 5, 5', dithiobis (2-nitrobenzoic acid). *Anal. Biochem.*, 1988, 175, 408–413.

Bradshaw, A. D. and Mc Neily, T., Stress Tolerance in Plants: The Evolutionary Framework (eds Rozemaj and Verlkeig, J. A. V.), Kluwer, Dordrecht, 1991.

- Oser, B. L., Hawks Physiological Chemistry, Mc Graw Hill, New York, 1979.
- Griffith, O. W., Determination of glutathione and glutathione disulphide using glutathione reductase and 2-vinyl pyridine. *Anal. Biochem.*, 1980, 106, 207–211.
- Makela, P., Karkkainen, J. and Somersalo, S., Effect of glycinebetain on chloroplast ultrastructure, chlorophyll and protein content, and RuBPCO activities in tomato grown under drought or salinity. *Biol. Plant.*, 2000, 43, 471–475.
- Luna, C. M., Gonzalez, C. A. and Trippio, V. S., Oxidative stress caused by excess copper in oat leaves. *Plant Cell Physiol.*, 1994, 35, 11-15.
- Gallego, S. M., Benavioes, M. P. and Tomaro, M. L., Effect of heavy metal ions on sunflower leaves – Evidence for involvement of oxidative stress. *Plant Sci.*, 1996, 121, 151–159.
- Panda, S. K. and Patra, H. K., Does chromium(III) produce oxidative stress in excised wheat leaves? J. Plant Biol., 2000, 11, 105–110.
- Salt, D. E., Blaylock, M., Kumar, P. B. A. N., Dushenkov, E., Ensley, B. B., Chet, I. and Raskin, I., Phytoremedation: A novel strategy for removal of toxic metals from environment using plants. *Biotechnology*, 1995, 13, 468–474.
- Jiang, W., Lin, D. and Hon, W., Hyperaccumulation of lead by roots, hypocotyls and shoots of *Brassica juncea*. *Biol. Plant.*, 2000, 43, 603–606.
- 33. Dietz, K. J., Baier, M. and Kramer, U., Free radicals and reactive oxygen species as mediator of heavy metal toxicity in plants. Heavy Metal Stress in Plants. From Molecules to Ecosystem (eds Prasad, M. N. V. and Hagemeyer, J.), Springer-Verlag, Berlin, 1999, pp. 73–79.
- Levine, A., Tenhaken, R., Dixon, R. and Lamb, C., H₂O₂ from the oxidative brust orchestrates the plant hypersensitive disease resistance receptors. *Cell*, 1994, 79, 583–593.
- Halliwell, B. and Gutteridge, J. M. C., Free Radical in Biology and Medicine, Clarendon Press, Oxford, 1988, pp. 1–51.
- Vranova, E., Inze, D. and Van Breusegem, F., Signal transduction during oxidative stress. J. Exp. Bot., 2002, 53, 1227–1236.
- Sandalio, L. M., Dalurzo, H. C., Gomez, M., Romero-Puertas, M. C. and del Rio, L. A., Cadmium-induced changes in growth and oxidative metabolism of pea plants. *J. Exp. Bot.*, 2001, 52, 2115–2126.
- Fryer, M. J., The antioxidant effect on thylakoid vitamin E (α-tocopherol). Plant Cell Environ., 1992, 15, 381–392.
- Foyer, C. H., Ascorbic acid. Antioxidants in Higher Plants (eds Alscher, R. G. and Hess, J. L.), CRC Press, Boca Raton, 1993, pp. 31–58.
- Alscher, R. G., Donahue, J. L. and Cramer, C. L., Reactive oxygen species and antioxidants. Relationship in green cells. *Plant Physiol.*, 1997, 100, 224–233.
- Noctor, G. and Foyer, C. H., Ascorbate and glutathione: Keeping active oxygen under control. *Annu. Rev. Plant Physiol. Plant Mol. Biol.*, 1998, 49, 250–279.
- Baryla, A., Laborde, C., Montillet, J. E., Triantaphylides, C. and Changvardiefe, P., Evaluation of lipid peroxidation as a toxicity bioassay for plants exposed to copper. *Environ. Pollut.*, 2000, 109, 131–136.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS. We thank Dr Sudip Dey, Sophisticated Analytical Instrument Facilities, North Eastern Hill University, Shillong for Transmission Electron Microscopy facility.

Received 6 December 2003; revised accepted 24 March 2004

Trichromatic sorting of in vitro regenerated plants of gladiolus using adaptive resonance theory

Mahendra, V. S. S. Prasad and S. Dutta Gupta*

Department of Agricultural and Food Engineering, Indian Institute of Technology, Kharagpur 721 302, India

A machine vision system is described to sort the regenerated plants of gladiolus into groups using trichromatic features of leaves. The machine vision system consisted of a scanner, image analysis software and an adaptive resonance theory neural network. Leaf attributes extracted from the image histograms and used for network classification are the mean brightness, grey-scale level and the maximum pixel count. The system was able to sort the regenerated plants into two distinct groups based on the photometric behaviour. Vigilance parameter had a significant effect on grouping. The approach may provide a means of selecting plants suitable for ex vitro transfer and also helps in quality control of commercial micropropagation.

THE primary goal of commercial micropropagation is to achieve a large number of genetically identical, physiologically uniform and developmentally normal plants with the ability to survive upon transfer to *ex vitro* conditions in a relatively short period of time. However, one of the major problems in commercialization of the micropropagation technique is the poor survival of regenerated plants upon *ex vitro* transfer. The intrinsic quality of the regenerated plants is largely responsible for its survival during the period of acclimatization. Various approaches such as photoautotrophic micropropagation¹, use of raft and immersion culture with or without growth retardants²⁻⁴ and machine vision system have been adopted to reduce the costs and improve plant survival.

In plant tissue culture system, machine vision has found applications in growth determination of suspension cultures⁵ and regenerated whole plants⁶, somatic embryo sorting⁷, automatic shoot separation⁸ and selection of embryogenic cultures⁹. The purpose of this work is to test the hypothesis whether regenerated plants can be sorted out into groups based on their photometric behaviour using image analysis system coupled with neural network algorithm. It is well understood that the successful clustering of regenerated plants gives an opportunity to identify and select plants amenable for *ex vitro* survival.

In the present communication, we describe a method to project the trichromatic variations of regenerated plants and sort them out into groups using adaptive resonance theory (ART2). ART2 is a neural network algorithm deri-

^{*}For correspondence. (e-mail: sdg@agfe.iitkgp.ernet.in)