

ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3

AGRITECH REVOLUTION: ADVANCING SUSTAINABLE FARMING VOLUME II



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Bhumi Publishing, India
First Edition: October 2024

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(ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3)

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Bhumi Publishing

October 2024

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Published by:



BHUMI PUBLISHING

Nigave Khalasa, Tal – Karveer, Dist – Kolhapur, Maharashtra, INDIA 416 207

E-mail: bhumipublishing@gmail.com



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PREFACE

Agriculture has been the backbone of human civilization for centuries, sustaining societies and economies across the globe. However, as the world's population grows and environmental challenges intensify, the agricultural sector is facing unprecedented pressures. The need for innovative solutions to meet global food demands while ensuring environmental sustainability has never been more urgent. This is where the revolution of AgriTech, the fusion of agriculture and technology, plays a transformative role.

AgriTech Revolution: Advancing Sustainable Farming delves into the innovations that are reshaping the landscape of modern agriculture. This book presents a comprehensive overview of cutting-edge technologies and approaches designed to enhance productivity, improve resource efficiency, and promote sustainability in farming practices. From precision agriculture and smart farming techniques to biotechnological advancements and AI-driven analytics, the contents explore how technology is addressing some of the most critical challenges in the agriculture sector.

In recent years, AgriTech has not only increased agricultural yields but has also reduced the environmental footprint of farming operations. Whether it's through the development of drought-resistant crops, the application of data analytics to optimize resource use, or the deployment of IoT (Internet of Things) devices to monitor and manage farms remotely, the integration of technology is fundamentally changing how we grow, manage, and distribute food.

This book brings together the latest research, case studies, and expert insights into the evolving AgriTech ecosystem. It highlights the potential of these innovations to revolutionize agriculture and create a more sustainable and resilient global food system. Our aim is to inspire researchers, farmers, policymakers, and industry professionals to embrace technological advancements as a means to achieve agricultural sustainability.

As we move forward, the intersection of agriculture and technology will continue to evolve, offering new opportunities for sustainable farming. We hope this book serves as a valuable resource in understanding and advancing this critical field, contributing to a future where agricultural progress is in harmony with environmental stewardship.

- Editors

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ECO-FRIENDLY PULSED ELECTROMAGNETIC FIELD TREATMENT IN SUSTAINABLE CROP PRODUCTION: A CASE STUDY ON SOYBEAN SEED

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Abstract:

At the beginning of the 21st century, agriculture experienced a major technological transformation with the introduction of green directives. The European Green Directive has a series of requirements in food production aimed at reducing the emission of gases that affect the increase in climate change, as well as standards that define a product with a high biological value. Slogans such as Zero Residues, Zero Waste and Zero Kilometers represent a manifesto of a new food concept. This motivated the scientific and professional public to find new directions in food production by introducing ecologically acceptable inputs to replace various intensive measures. Abiotic factors, such as different climatic conditions, to which magnetic, electric and electromagnetic fields belong, interact with living organisms. The effect of different magnetic field strengths, frequencies and exposure times on plant cultures have a positive effect. The chapter provides information on pulsed electromagnetic fields of low frequencies in agricultural production and the participation of environmentally friendly measures with PEMP. Additionally, the presentation of the conducted study specifies the application of the treatment to soybean seeds, which confirms the effectiveness of PEMP. Also, the results show that the stimulation of seeds with PEMP and the cultivation of stimulated seed plants in very different climatic conditions, which are conditioned by global warming, can have a significant positive effect on the productivity of plants, especially in the case of unwanted effects such as drought. On the other hand, these methods are economically profitable, ecologically acceptable and important for the preservation of the environment while producing health-safe food. By introducing these measures into mandatory agrotechnical measures, simple, cheap, safe production of agricultural crops can be enabled, which can also be used in sustainable and organic systems.

Keywords: Pulsating electromagnetic field, eco-friendly measure, soybean, yield

Introduction:

All living things emit an electromagnetic field and waves in the frequency range from 0 to 25 Hz. Our planet, that is. nature, has its own Schumann frequency of 7.8 Hz and every cell in a healthy and mentally stable organism uses it as a reference system. The absence of this natural frequency can lead to serious problems of the immune system, thus creating an extremely unfavorable and geopathogenic environment for life. In addition to the natural component of the environment such as the Earth's geomagnetic field, to which the entire living world is exposed, technological innovations in the application of magnetic fields of different frequencies and its effect on organisms have an increasing influence (Sarraf *et al.*, 2020). Among the first researches on the impact of stimulation of different levels of magnetic, electric, electromagnetic, laser and other waves/fields were carried out for medical purposes (Bajagić *et al.*, 2021). Today's civilization makes extensive use of electromagnetic waves and fields in a whole range of technologies that were unimaginable just a century ago. Electromagnetic fields used in agriculture can be roughly divided into natural and artificial. Natural radiations are all types of radiation that are useful (or harmful), and which come from sources that cannot be influenced by humans, such as the Sun. Artificial - technical radiations are produced by humans and this group includes radiations for which various devices are used.

Physical treatments are among the oldest known treatments for improving semen health. Due to the success of chemical seed treatment products, physical methods have been forgotten. Traditional physical methods are different combinations of hot water, steam, ultrasound, hot air, etc. (Micheloni *et al.*, 2002).

The progress of chemical technology caused a scientific and production revolution in agriculture, and on the other hand, a series of negative consequences, which are reflected in the decline of plant resistance, the reduction of seed yield and soil fertility capacity.

Today, the production of one unit of agricultural products requires ten times more energy than at the beginning of the last century, so many agricultural experts are looking for opportunities to increase efficiency and efficient use of plant energy.

All living processes are highly dependent on the exchange of energy between cells and the environment. In the case of using chemical measures, the necessary substances are directly introduced into the cell. In the case of physical treatment, the energy introduced into the cells creates conditions for molecular transformations, independent of their origin,

(El-Gizawy *et al.*, 2016), which leads to the fact that these methods are useful for plants. This is the basic concept of "quantum agriculture" that has been intensively discussed in recent years (Aladjadjiyan, 2007), and implies the introduction of biophysical methods. By affecting biochemical processes, for example in seeds, these methods do not sample changes in physiological pathways that are under the control of genetic regulations. Therefore, using these methods at appropriate frequencies will not lead to genetic changes (Hoseini *et al.*, 2003; Ghodbane *et al.*, 2013).

Due to the great diversity of living organisms and physical phenomena, the interactions of electromagnetic energy with biological organisms are very complex. The interaction involves atomic changes, breaking of chemical or genetic bonds, disruption and possible generation of thermal energy (Shckorbatov 2014; Vian *et al.*, 2016).

The advantage of using electromagnetic treatments compared to conventional processes is that it does not leave any toxic effect (Macovei *et al.*, 2014).

Considering that the MF values used in the literature are of a wide range, according to the value of Maffei (2022) MF inductions can be divided into low MF and high MF, where the dividing line is the value of the Earth's MF induction (ranging from less than 30 μT to almost 70 μT). According to Maffei (2022), treatments with magnetic or electromagnetic fields, which include the range of frequencies from 0 to 300 Hz, are classified in the group of extremely low-frequency magnetic fields, and Tombuloglu *et al.*, (2023) concluded that these treatments are non-destructive to the seed or plant.

The use of a low-frequency electromagnetic field in plant production is in the initial phase of application in our country. A low-frequency field is usually considered to have continuous sinusoidal waves, while a pulsed electromagnetic field (PEMP) is considered to have intermittent sinusoids (Figure 1). A pulsed electromagnetic field (PEMP) is a special case of a low-frequency field.

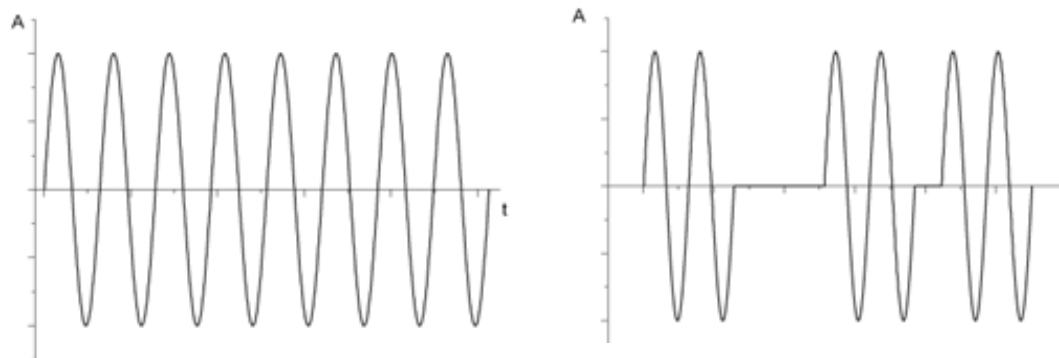


Figure 1: Continuous and interrupted sinusoid of electromagnetic field waves

Considering that plant crops are simple models for various researches, the effects of seed and plant stimulation have made impressive progress in technical-technological innovations in agriculture (Lewandowska *et al.*, 2019). Magnetic field treatment of seeds has become very popular in the agricultural sector. Therefore, researchers' efforts are focused on finding an efficient environmentally friendly production technology based on physical seed treatment (Vashisth and Nagarajan, 2010), because pre-sowing treatments improve germination, quantitative and qualitative yield values (Aladjadjiyan, 2007).

The mechanism of action of any stimulation option has not yet been defined. The reason for this is that many researches are carried out on specific investigated parameters. Research is carried out both at the cellular level and on whole organisms, where the mechanism of action of the treatment affects various biochemical processes of cells in plants (Nair *et. al.*, 2018; Radhakrishnan, 2019). The impact of the effects of magnetic/electromagnetic biostimulation of seeds are different: uptake and translocation of nanoparticles (micro and macroelements) in plants (Tombuloglu *et al.*, 2023), increase in γ -aminobutyric acid content (Luo *et al.*, 2023), enhanced cell division (Radhakrishnan, 2019), faster movement of charged particles through the cell membrane (Nyakane *et al.*, 2019), increased activity of enzymes such as α -amylases, acid phosphatases, polyphenol oxidases and catalases (Radhakrishnan and Kumari Ranjitha, 2012), to an increase in membrane electropotential (Vasilevski, 2003), positive changes in the photosynthesis process and pigment content (Abdel Latef *et al.*, 2020).

The largest number of studies refers to the stimulation of seeds that gave positive or negative effects on the intensity and percentage of germination, morphological characteristics of plants, chlorophyll content, yield and seed quality, such as protein and oil content (Tanvir *et al.*, 2012, Menegatti *et al.*, 2019; Tirono and Hananto, 2023). In addition, many authors report that the use of treatments mitigates various impacts on plants that may occur due to drought (Hassain *et al.*, 2020), salt (Kataria *et al.*, 2017) and heavy metals (Chen *et al.*, 2017). According to the research mentioned above, it is a fact that seed treatments lead to changes, but in the future it is necessary to carry out research on which comprehensive changes occurring at the cellular level will be monitored at the molecular level, and then further developments will be followed, in order to provide a comprehensive definition of mechanism of action. It is important to point out that the results of seed treatment are comprehensively dependent on plant species, laboratory and climatic

growing conditions, growing technology, as well as exposure time, intensity and nature of the field, and the various interactions that arise between them.

For more precise and effective research with electromagnetic treatments, it is advised to collect and store data on the present static magnetic fields of the Earth, (Maffei, 2014), as well as the results of experimental research on different treatments and plants grown in the field, which are directly related to climate conditions (Đukić *et al.*, 2017; Bajagić *et al.*, 2022), on which anthropogenic factors have no influence, and greenhouse production, which are maximally controlled with all inputs (Cvijanović *et al.*, 2021)

Promoting environmental protection through the production of health-safe food influences the motivation of various agricultural experts for the creation and implementation of new production technologies (Cvijanović *et al.*, 2022). In this regard, various studies report a positive impact of pulsed electromagnetic field (PEMP) on seed germination, morphological and productive characteristics, and stimulation with PEMP can be introduced as one of the environmentally acceptable techniques, as they meet the requirements of organic agriculture. Additionally, global climate changes should be constantly monitored and forecasted, given the frequent extreme conditions that have a negative impact on high yields and stable production (Bajagić *et al.*, 2022).

In general, most attention has been focused on seed germination of important crops, such as wheat, maize, barley, rice and legumes (including especially soybean) (Kataria *et al.*, 2017; Hussain *et al.*, 2020; Tirono and Hananto, 2023; Putti *et al.*, 2023).

A research study

1. Generation of Magnetic Field

A low-frequency pulsating electromagnetic field is generated by a suitable microprocessor generator that emits pulses through a tape applicator, the values of magnetic induction in these devices are variable and range from 0.5 to 20 mT. The electromagnetic field is applied through a tape applicator (on which the seed is located) with a diameter of 5 cm. The generator is still in the testing phase. The pulse generator consists of a power supply that transforms the input network from 220VAC to DC, which further feeds the inductive circuit at the output that treats the desired mass. The power supply is provided with the help of a driver that is controlled by a microcontroller to generate waveforms, frequency and exposure time. To select the frequency and time duration of the exposure, the device has two controls. The first command serves to set the electromagnetic field of low frequency (from 1 Hz to 50 Hz, and at most 100 Hz) with a

potentiometer for the possibility of setting ± 1 Hz, and the second one to select the time duration in minutes (1 - 60 min). It is considered that within these limits the vector of magnetic induction prevails over the vector of the associated electric field, more than 90%.

2. Soybean Seeds of the Cultivar.

Soybean seeds that were used for research belong to the Valjevka soybean variety, selected by the Institute of Field and Vegetable Crops, Serbia (not genetically modified, 0 ripening groups, length of the vegetation period up to 120 days, genetic potential for a yield of 4500 kg/ha, tree of medium height overgrown with gray hairs, purple flower color). The grain is of moderate size with a yellow seed and a yellow hilum. It is recommended for products for human consumption.

3. Giving Treatment

In laboratory conditions, 500 grains were prepared for each subplot, which were packed in biodegradable bags. On the day of sowing, stimulation treatment with a pulsating electromagnetic field was performed. Stimulation was performed on dry soybeans, in variants with PEMF low frequencies of 16, 24, 30 and 72 Hz in different durations of 0 (control), 30, 60 and 90 minutes. The magnetic field in all variants had an intensity of 10 mT. In addition, the magnetic field of the terrain where soybeans were grown was measured, which was 47 mT.

4. Experimental Research and Planting.

Multi-year research on sustainable soybean production, an open cultivation system, was conducted at the Institute of Field and Vegetable Crop, Serbia. The experiment was set up according to a randomized design as a split plot system in 4 replications. The total area of the exhibition was 1219 m² (53 m x 23 m). A Wintersteiger wide-row pneumatic seeder was used for sowing soybeans. The inter-row spacing was 50 cm, and the row spacing was 4 cm, which achieved a plant density of 500,000 per hectare. Additionally, four rows were sown, which represented a protective isolation belt.

5. The Sampling

The strategy and technology of growing crops was carried out according to classical measures and methods for sustainable soybean production. The harvest was carried out with a combine harvester for experimental plots with a small working capacity (Wintersteiger elite), at the technological maturity of the grain, with the help of which the sample and sample moisture were measured, and then the yield was calculated per ha and

14% moisture. The analysis of the results includes meteorological data in the years of the study.

6. Weather Conditions.

At the meteorological station "Rimski Šančevi", near Novi Sad, data on the sum of precipitation and temperature were monitored and collected (Table 1).

Table 1: Sum of precipitation (mm) and average temperature (°C) for the vegetative period of the research 2014-2017 and average values for the multi-year period 1964-2017

Sum of precipitation (mm)					
Year	2014	2015	2016	2017	1964-2017
April	51.2	15.0	74.5	57.0	47.6
May	202.1	192.0	85.0	82.9	67.7
June	38.2	28.0	143.18	65.7	87.2
July	141.1	2.0	68.4	12.0	66.4
August	78.7	99.0	45.8	17.4	58.2
September	84.3	53.0	33.7	81.5	48.2
Sum	595.6	389.0	450.5	316.5	375.3
Average mean temperature (°C)					
	2014	2015	2016	2017	1964-2017
April	13.2	11.8	14.2	11.4	11.7
May	16.3	17.8	16.9	17.6	17.0
June	20.5	20.5	21.7	23.2	20.1
July	21.9	24.5	22.8	24.3	21.8
August	20.9	24.4	21.1	24.8	21.3
September	17.2	19.9	18.5	16.9	16.9
Average	18.3	19.8	19.2	19.7	18.1

The amount of precipitation by research year was different compared to the multi-year average (375.3 mm). In 2014 (595.6 mm), 2015 (389 mm) and 2016 (450.5 mm) they were higher compared to the multi-year average, while in 2017 it was lower (316.5 mm). Soybeans require larger amounts of water than many field crops, especially in the reproductive stages of development, such as grain filling. Looking at the monthly rainfall totals for July-August, the year 2014 stands out as very suitable for the development of soybeans, while in 2015 and 2017 the monthly rainfall totals are extremely low. The

average air temperature of the multi-year period was 18.0 °C, which is lower compared to all the examined years (2014 - 18.3 °C, 2015 - 19.8 °C, 2016 - 19.2 °C, 2017 - 19.7 °C).

7. Statistical Analysis.

To examine the effect, a three-factor statistical analysis of variance (year, frequency and exposure) was used in the DSAASTAT program (Perugia, Italy). The significance of the differences was tested with the LSD test ($p < 0.01$ and $p < 0.05$), as well as the linear association of the investigated parameters. The results are presented in tabular form.

Results and Discussion

Evident climate changes that occur from year to year (from excessive amounts of precipitation that lead to floods to extremely high temperatures that cause drought) create unpredictable and unstable soybean production. Especially in production systems without an additional water regime, such as in these studies.

Observing the obtained data on soybean yield, the statistical analysis shows a high degree of dependence between all investigated factors and their interactions, except for the interaction of year and time of exposure, which was at the level of $p > 0.05$ (Table 2). The total yield of soybeans according to all examined factors is 3544 kg/ha. The highest yield was determined in 2014 (4921 kg/ha), which was also the most favorable in terms of weather, because there was enough precipitation, with a regular distribution by month, as well as high temperatures that were suitable for normal development of soybeans. The lowest yield was determined in the arid year 2015, only 1968 kg/ha, which is 39.99% less than in 2014. The strength of the 24 Hz frequency had the greatest effect on the increase in yield by 6.68% (3663 kg/ha) compared to the variant without seed stimulation (3434 kg/ha). The best influence of the PEMP effect was in the variant with 16 Hz and a duration of 30 minutes (3869 kg/ha) on average for all years of research, which was higher by 12.68% compared to the control.

Different studies of seed treatments suggest an increase in yield, depending on the intensity of the frequency and time of exposure (Sarraf *et al.*, 2021). Vashisth and Joshi (2017) exposed corn seeds to static magnetic fields of strength 50, 100, 150, 200 and 250 for 1, 2, 3 and 4 h for all field strengths, and the best results (percentage germination, germination rate, seedling length) was given by the combination of 200 mT with a single exposure. Also, plants were grown from those seeds, whose morphological and productive parameters were statistically significantly high. Treatment with a magnetic field of 0.1-0.4 mT had a positive effect on soybean growth and productivity (Tirono, 2022a). Tirono

(2022b) explains that with a decrease in the magnetic field and an increase in the frequency strength, better effects are obtained, such as in the case of seed treatment with 0.1-0.4 mT and 100 Hz, where there was an increase in germination, emergence, faster growth of tomatoes and creating resistance to *Fusarium oxysporum f. spp. Lycopersici*.

Table 2: The effect of pulsed electromagnetic field on soybean yield (kg/ha)

Year (A)	Frequency (Hz) (B)	Time (min) (C)				Average	Average
		0	30	60	90	AB	A
2014	16	4985	5302	4719	5069	5019	
	24	4985	5003	5145	5135	5067	
	30	4985	4328	5061	4912	4821	4921
	72	4985	4912	5051	4154	4775	
	Average AC	4985	4886	4994	4818		
2015	16	1962	2175	1898	2073	2027	
	24	1962	2048	2166	2112	2072	
	30	1962	1701	2171	2001	1959	1968
	72	1962	2019	2032	1251	1816	
	Average AC	1962	1986	2067	1859		
2016	16	4287	4736	4175	4707		
	24	4287	4341	4682	4444	4438	
	30	4287	4069	4352	4093	4200	4305
	72	4286	4139	4292	3699	4104	
	Average AC	4287	4321	4375	4236		
2017	16	2228	2595	2120	2403	2336	
	24	2228	2292	2509	2463	2373	
	30	2228	2046	2359	2057	2173	2241
	72	2228	2118	2172	1813	2083	
	Average AC	2228	2263	2290	2184		
2018	16	3632	4265	3657	3953	3877	
	24	3632	4125	4494	4367	4155	
	30	3632	3996	4349	4253	4057	4001
	72	3632	3846	3976	4210	3916	
	Average AC	3632	4058	4119	4196		

	16	3510	4142	3746	3821	3805	
	24	3510	4057	4041	3897	3876	
2019	30	3510	3997	4026	3942	3869	3829
	72	3510	3936	3828	3798	3768	
	Average AC	3510	4033	3910	3865		
	16	3434	3869	3386	3671		3590
	24	3434	3644	3839	3736		3663
Average BC	30	3434	3356	3719	3543	Average B	3513
	72	3434	3495	3558	3154		3410
	Average C	3434	3591	3626	3526		
Average 2014-2019							3544
	A**	B**	C**	AB**	AC*	BC**	ABC**
<i>F test</i>	3045	109.69	20.35	1.86	3.01	62.59	4.69
<i>LSD 0.05</i>	63.88	38.38	44.44	94.00	108.85	88.88	217.71
<i>LSD 0.01</i>	80.02	51.11	58.59	125.19	143.52	117.19	287.05

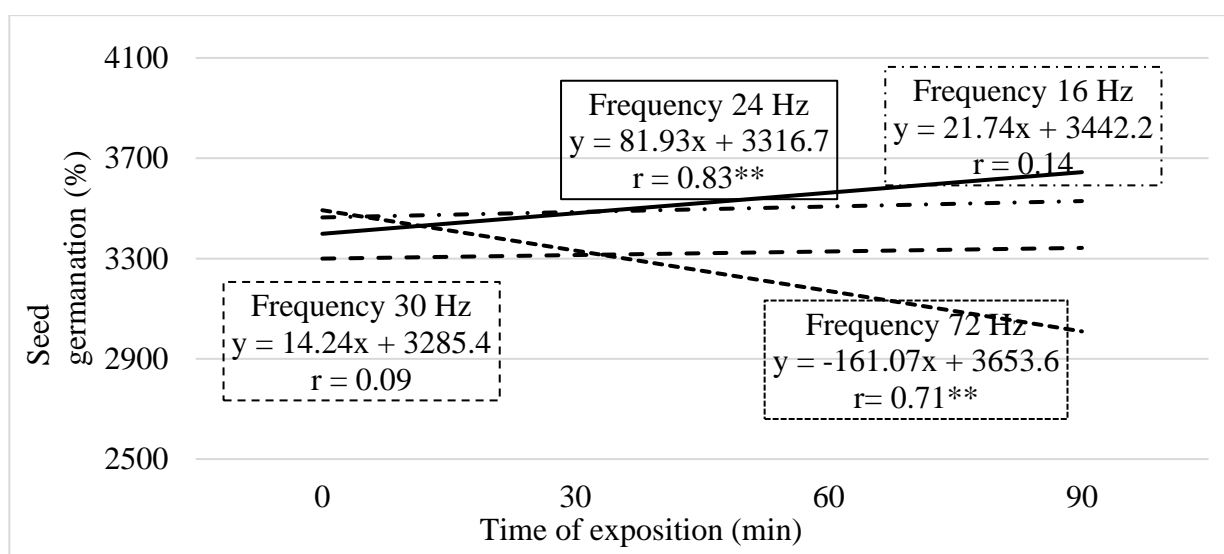


Figure 2: The influence of pulsed electromagnetic waves on soybean yield on average for all years of research

Determining the intensity of the relationship between the examined values is shown by linear regression analysis (Figure 1). On average for all years of research, when examining the dependence of yield values, the highest linear correlation was recorded at a frequency of 24 Hz ($r = 0.83^{**}$), and the values increased in accordance with the increase in

the duration of seed exposure. On the contrary, a high correlation coefficient ($r= 0.71^{**}$) was determined at the highest frequency of 72Hz, but the yield values decreased with the duration of the exposure time.

Conclusions:

The future of agricultural production lies in the interaction of already existing practice and knowledge, new technologies and methods and specific products, with the main goal - creating high and stable yields while protecting the environment and producing health-safe food. In this regard, there should be sustainable production in synergy with electroculture in agriculture, precision agriculture and other systems in order to define technologies. The mentioned biophysical methods need to be further improved, both the application technology and the devices used, so that the mentioned measures are effective, easily accessible, which implies their economy with long-term action. Also, the application of these treatments requires more research to determine the applicability of these non-chemical methods, as the future lies in sustainable production systems.

Based on the results obtained from the research study, it can be concluded that the application of seed stimulation with PEMP can alleviate the effect of plant stress during the growing season, especially in conditions of unpredictable agrometeorological factors (increased mean daily temperatures, rainfall deficit). The most effective grain yield results achieved are at a frequency of 16 Hz and an exposure duration of 30 min. Also, it should be noted that higher frequencies also have a positive impact, but with increasing frequencies, there was a decrease in the yield effect.

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BIOCHAR: A GREEN INNOVATION FOR SUSTAINABLE DEVELOPMENT

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Abstract:

The article titled "Biochar: A Green Innovation for Sustainable Development" focuses on biochar, a carbon-rich material produced through the pyrolysis of organic biomass. Biochar has a unique structure with a high surface area, allowing it to retain water, nutrients, and pollutants. This makes it useful in various environmental and agricultural applications, such as improving soil health, filtering water, and sequestering carbon. The pyrolysis process, which occurs in an oxygen-limited environment, can be customized based on temperature and duration to yield biochar with specific characteristics suited for different uses. The production of biochar can involve a wide range of biomass feedstocks, including agricultural residues, wood chips, and manure. The process supports sustainable waste management by converting organic waste into valuable carbon-rich material. Biochar has a long history, including its use by ancient civilizations to improve soil fertility, and it is increasingly recognized for its potential in modern sustainable practices. Despite its benefits, biochar production faces economic and technological barriers, particularly the high cost of pyrolysis plants. The article emphasizes the need for government incentives and technological innovation to make biochar production more commercially viable. In conclusion, biochar offers significant potential for contributing to sustainability goals, including carbon sequestration, soil enhancement, and environmental remediation, but overcoming economic challenges is crucial for its large-scale adoption.

Keywords: Biochar, Pyrolysis, Carbon Sequestration, Sustainable Agriculture, Waste Management, Soil Remediation.

What is Biochar?

Biochar is a solid, carbon-rich material produced by heating organic biomass in an oxygen-limited environment, a process known as pyrolysis. The raw materials for biochar

production typically include plant waste such as wood chips, agricultural residues, and even manure. During pyrolysis, the organic matter breaks down at high temperatures, releasing volatile gases and leaving behind a stable, porous carbon structure known as biochar. Biochar's unique composition and structure differentiate it from other forms of charcoal. It is created specifically for environmental and agricultural purposes, not as fuel. Its highly porous nature gives it a large surface area, which can absorb and retain various substances like nutrients and water. This characteristic makes biochar useful for applications such as water filtration and pollutant removal, though its production method can vary depending on the intended use.

The pyrolysis process used to create biochar can vary in temperature and duration, resulting in different qualities of the final product. Lower temperatures yield biochar with more volatile organic compounds, while higher temperatures result in a more stable, carbon-rich material. These differences in production methods affect the physical and chemical properties of biochar, making it customizable for specific applications. Biochar has been produced and used by humans for thousands of years. Ancient civilizations, particularly in the Amazon basin, created dark, fertile soils known as "terra preta" by adding charred organic material to the earth. This practice suggests that biochar has been utilized for millennia, although modern scientific understanding of its properties and production methods has only recently advanced.

Biochar continues to gain attention in scientific and industrial circles, not only for its environmental applications but also as a product with varied production techniques and customizable characteristics.

Production of Biochar

In theory, any type of biomass can be used to produce biochar, but practical considerations like production costs and regulatory restrictions limit the available feedstocks. Key properties of feedstock for biochar production include moisture content, ash content, calorific value, and the proportions of lignin, cellulose, and volatile components. Various feedstocks such as kitchen waste, agricultural residues, forest by-products, and even algae have been utilized. Using waste biomass for biochar not only aids in waste management by reducing landfill use and preventing groundwater contamination but also supports multiple Sustainable Development Goals (SDGs), including clean water, sanitation, climate action, and life on land. Importantly, biomass with high lignin and low cellulose content is preferred for higher biochar yields, especially when pyrolyzed at high

temperatures. Moisture content should be kept below 30% for efficient pyrolysis, with sun-drying being a cost-effective method to reduce moisture without adding energy demands. This approach aligns with responsible consumption and production goals, conserving energy for vulnerable communities and addressing broader energy security challenges.

Biochar production involves the thermal decomposition of organic material under oxygen-limited conditions, a process known as pyrolysis. This method transforms various biomass feedstocks—such as agricultural residues, wood, and manure—into a stable, carbon-rich product. Here’s a detailed breakdown of the biochar production process, along with key references for further reading.

a). Feedstock Selection

The first step in biochar production is selecting the appropriate biomass feedstock. Almost any organic material can be used, including crop residues, wood chips, leaves, animal manure, and even municipal waste. The type of feedstock significantly influences the quality and characteristics of the resulting biochar. For instance, wood-based feedstocks generally produce biochar with higher carbon content, while manure results in nutrient-rich biochar (Joseph, S., 2012).

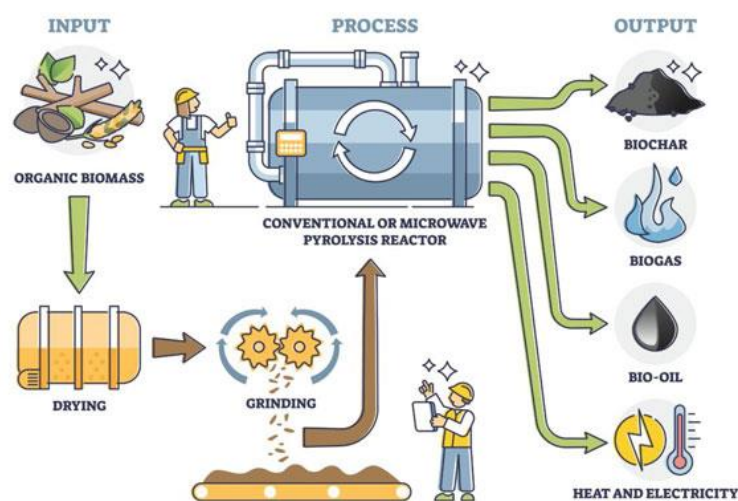


Figure 1: Biomass to Biochar Processes

b). Pyrolysis Process

Pyrolysis is the thermal decomposition of organic materials in the absence of oxygen. The temperature and residence time during pyrolysis significantly impact the properties of biochar:

- **Low-temperature pyrolysis** (300–500°C): This results in a biochar with higher levels of volatile organic compounds and a greater potential to retain nutrients and water.
- **High-temperature pyrolysis** (500–700°C): Produces a more stable, carbon-rich biochar with higher porosity and surface area, making it better suited for long-term carbon sequestration.

The process typically involves heating the feedstock in a pyrolysis reactor, either in a slow or fast pyrolysis process. Slow pyrolysis, which takes hours to complete, is the most common method for biochar production. In contrast, fast pyrolysis can be completed in seconds, yielding a mix of biochar, bio-oil, and syngas (Mohan *et al.*, 2006).

c). Process Variables

Several key variables can be controlled during the pyrolysis process, including:

- **Temperature:** Higher temperatures produce more stable biochar, with lower levels of volatile compounds and higher carbon content.
- **Residence Time:** Longer times result in more complete conversion of feedstock into biochar.
- **Heating Rate:** Slow heating rates result in more uniform biochar, whereas fast heating rates can produce a mix of biochar and other byproducts like bio-oil and syngas (Jindo *et al.*, 2012).

d). Post-Processing

After pyrolysis, the biochar is typically cooled and collected. The size and consistency of the biochar may need adjustment depending on its intended application. In some cases, biochar is activated (often by steam or chemical treatment) to enhance its porosity and adsorption capacity, especially for environmental remediation purposes (Novak *et al.*, 2012).

Biochar production is a highly flexible process that can be tailored to suit various feedstocks and applications. The pyrolysis conditions, including temperature, residence time, and feedstock type, all play critical roles in determining the final characteristics of the biochar. Advances in biochar research continue to refine production methods, making biochar a valuable tool for addressing environmental challenges.

Pyrolysis, the most common method for biochar production, involves heating biomass between 300–900 °C in an oxygen-free environment, breaking it down into char, oil, and gases. Depending on the heating rate, pyrolysis can be slow, intermediate, or fast,

with slow pyrolysis being the most efficient for biochar production, yielding about 35% biochar. The process is influenced by factors like residence time, temperature, pressure, and heating method. Pyrolysis not only optimizes biochar yield but also supports sustainable development goals by promoting responsible consumption and production.

3. Properties of Biochar

Here are the key properties of biochar, each described briefly with supporting reviews:

a). Carbon Content

Biochar is highly carbon-rich, with carbon typically comprising 50–90% of its composition. This stable carbon structure results from pyrolysis, which transforms organic materials into a form that can sequester carbon in soils for centuries. This property makes biochar a powerful tool for long-term carbon storage and climate mitigation (Lehmann *et al.*, 2007).

b). Porosity

Biochar's porous structure increases its surface area, making it excellent for retaining water and nutrients. This porosity helps improve soil aeration and supports microbial activity. Its high surface area also allows biochar to absorb pollutants, making it useful for soil and water remediation (Downie *et al.*, 2012).

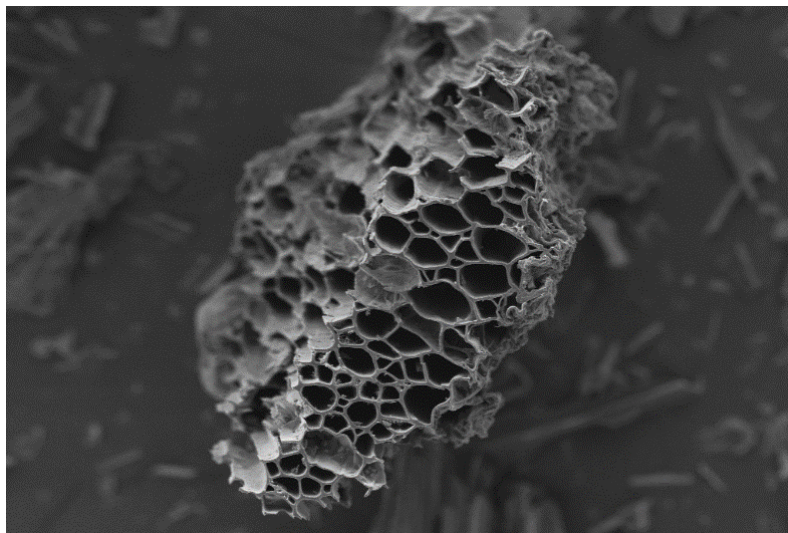


Figure 2: Microscopy Image of Biochar

c). Cation Exchange Capacity (CEC)

Biochar enhances the soil's cation exchange capacity (CEC), which allows it to hold and release positively charged nutrients like potassium, magnesium, and calcium. This

property improves nutrient availability in soils and reduces the leaching of essential nutrients, leading to more efficient fertilizer use (Glaser *et al.*, 2002).

d). Water Retention

Biochar's high water retention capacity makes it valuable in drought-prone areas, as it helps soils retain moisture for longer periods. Its porous structure allows it to store water, improving soil hydration and supporting plant growth under water-scarce conditions (Kinney *et al.*, 2012).

e). pH Modulation

Biochar can help neutralize acidic soils due to its generally alkaline nature. By raising soil pH, biochar improves nutrient availability, creating better growing conditions for crops. The extent of pH adjustment depends on the feedstock and pyrolysis temperature (Yuan *et al.*, 2011).

f). Nutrient Retention

Biochar reduces nutrient leaching from soils, particularly nitrogen and phosphorus. Its porous structure and high CEC allow it to trap nutrients, making them more available to plants and reducing environmental contamination from agricultural runoff (Major *et al.*, 2010).

g). Stability

Due to its carbon-rich and chemically stable nature, biochar resists decomposition in the soil for hundreds to thousands of years. This stability makes biochar a reliable means for long-term carbon sequestration and improving soil structure over extended periods (Kuzyakov *et al.*, 2009).

h). Enhancement of Microbial Activity

Biochar creates favorable conditions for soil microorganisms by providing shelter and a stable environment. Its porous structure supports microbial colonization, leading to enhanced nutrient cycling and improved soil health (Thies and Rillig, 2012).

i). Adsorption of Contaminants

Biochar can absorb various contaminants, including heavy metals, organic pollutants, and pesticides. Its ability to bind toxins makes it a valuable tool for environmental remediation, particularly in contaminated soils and water systems (Mohan *et al.*, 2006).

j). Thermal Properties

Biochar is produced through pyrolysis, where the biomass is heated to high temperatures in the absence of oxygen. This gives biochar its thermal stability and resistance to decomposition, which is essential for its long-term role in soil applications and carbon sequestration (Sohi *et al.*, 2010).

4. Potential Applications of Biochar

The various properties of biochar including higher carbon content, larger surface area, well-developed porosity and surplus surface functional groups make it a huge prospect for a variety of applications. Some of the applications, apart from heavy metal removal, could be listed out as follows: Biochar has a wide range of potential applications due to its unique properties. Here are some of the key applications along with descriptions (Ravindiran *et al.*, 2024) (Gurwick *et al.*, 2013):

a). Soil Amendment

Biochar is commonly used to improve soil quality. When added to soil, it enhances water retention, improves nutrient availability, and increases microbial activity. Its porous structure helps retain moisture and nutrients, making them more available to plants, which can lead to increased crop yields and healthier plant growth.

b). Carbon Sequestration

Biochar has the ability to sequester carbon, meaning it can capture and store carbon in the soil for long periods, reducing the amount of carbon dioxide in the atmosphere. This contributes to climate change mitigation by lowering greenhouse gas concentrations.



Figure 3: Versatile Applications of Biochar Across Various Sectors

c). Water Filtration

Due to its high adsorption capacity, biochar can be used as a filter material to remove contaminants from water, including heavy metals, pesticides, and other organic pollutants. This makes it useful for treating wastewater, purifying drinking water, and protecting aquatic ecosystems from pollution.

d). Waste Management

Biochar can be produced from various types of organic waste, such as agricultural residues, forestry by-products, and municipal waste. By converting waste into biochar, it helps reduce landfill use, decrease methane emissions, and manage waste more sustainably. The process also generates by-products like bio-oil and syngas, which can be used as renewable energy sources.

e). Animal Husbandry

Biochar is sometimes added to animal feed or used as bedding in livestock farming. In feed, it can improve digestion, reduce methane emissions from ruminants, and enhance overall animal health. As bedding, it helps absorb moisture and odors, creating a cleaner environment in barns and stables.

f). Construction Materials

Biochar can be incorporated into construction materials, such as concrete and bricks, to improve their insulating properties and reduce the carbon footprint of building materials. It enhances durability and thermal performance while also sequestering carbon within the structure.

g). Energy Production

During the pyrolysis process of producing biochar, bio-oil and syngas are generated as by-products. These can be used as renewable energy sources, providing an alternative to fossil fuels. This not only contributes to energy security but also helps in reducing greenhouse gas emissions.

h). Remediation of Contaminated Sites

Biochar is effective in remediating contaminated soils by adsorbing heavy metals and organic pollutants, thereby reducing their bioavailability and toxicity. This application is particularly valuable in restoring polluted industrial sites, agricultural lands, and water bodies.

i). Composting

Adding biochar to composting processes can accelerate decomposition, reduce odours, and improve the nutrient content of the compost. Biochar helps retain nutrients within the compost, making the final product more effective as a soil amendment.

j). Horticulture

In horticulture, biochar is used as a soil conditioner in potting mixes and garden soils. It helps improve soil structure, aeration, and moisture retention, which is beneficial for growing a wide variety of plants, especially in urban gardening and landscaping.

Each of these applications leverages biochar's ability to enhance environmental sustainability, making it a versatile tool in addressing various global challenges.

5. Future Perspectives on Biochar

Biochar stands out as a transformative solution to numerous environmental challenges, particularly within the realm of renewable resources. To fully unlock its commercial potential, comprehensive techno-economic analyses and life cycle assessments are essential. These studies will provide a clear understanding of biochar's environmental impact and sustainability across various industries.

Further research should focus on optimizing biochar activation techniques tailored for specific applications, as well as investigating its interaction with soil microbial populations. The processes by which biochar efficiently removes toxic contaminants remain unclear, particularly in the context of electrochemical conversion and its prospective use in supercapacitors. To ensure safety and efficacy, rigorous regulations must be enforced, with detailed protocols outlining raw material selection and production methods (Ingle *et al.*, 2024).

Innovative technologies hold the key to advancing scientific understanding of biochar's reactions with different materials and in advancing technologies like biochar activation convert waste biomass into bioenergy and chemical products is key, focusing on environmental impact and energy efficiency. Waste-to-energy technologies are central in biomass research within the circular economy framework (Faldu *et al.*, 2024). Biochar ultimately improving its performance across sectors such as energy, agriculture, and water treatment. A deep dive into the effects of different production methods on biochar characteristics is crucial, given the variability of biochar types across applications. Additionally, biochar exhibits immense potential for synergy with other sustainable technologies. When integrated with renewable energy systems—such as biomass or solar

power—biochar production can become a cornerstone of a circular bio-economy. Waste from renewable energy processes can serve as feedstock for biochar, fostering a closed-loop system that minimizes environmental harm. This synergy underscores the importance of circular bio-economy practices, which are pivotal for achieving sustainable solutions across various sectors (Amonette *et al.*, 2021).

6. An Economic Barrier to Biochar

One of the key barriers to large-scale biochar production is the significant financial constraint faced by commercial enterprises and land managers. As Li *et al.*, (2023) point out, the overall cost structure of biochar production is influenced by both capital and operating expenditures, with feedstock quality and availability playing a critical role in determining the total production costs across different regions. Capital costs encompass infrastructure investment, equipment acquisition, and vehicles required for transporting feedstock, all of which are essential but costly components of the biochar production process (Li *et al.*, 2023).

Operating expenses, on the other hand, cover ongoing costs such as maintenance, repairs, manpower, and various taxes associated with the production activities. These costs combine to make biochar production a high-investment venture. Globally, current biochar production techniques remain costly, and this has deterred broader commercial adoption. The high cost of pyrolysis plants, in particular, poses a significant hurdle, as these facilities represent the core technology for biochar production but require substantial capital investment.

Moreover, government incentives aimed at supporting biochar production for carbon neutrality goals are currently insufficient to offset these high costs. Despite biochar's environmental benefits, particularly in carbon sequestration and soil health improvement, the lack of financial support limits the scalability of biochar production technologies. Therefore, the development and adoption of new, cost-effective technologies are critical for reducing production costs and making biochar a more commercially viable solution for industries and land managers (Bergman *et al.*, 2022).

7. Challenges

Despite the many advantages of biochar, several global challenges remain regarding its production and application:

a). Feedstock Selection and Availability

The quality and quantity of biochar are highly dependent on the type of feedstock used. Contaminated feedstock can negatively impact biochar quality, reducing its effectiveness in soil remediation and water treatment. Additionally, feedstock shape and size can increase energy costs during production. A steady and sustainable feedstock supply is critical, which can be supported by promoting energy-focused crops, responsible land management, and utilizing agricultural and forestry residues.

b). Inconsistent Biochar Production

Biochar production varies due to multiple factors such as feedstock type, pyrolysis temperature, particle size, and operating conditions. For example, higher pyrolysis temperatures reduce volatile matter content, affecting biochar's chemical properties like pH and surface area. This inconsistency can lead to challenges when applying biochar for environmental purposes, potentially creating secondary pollutants.

c). Technological Barriers

Scaling biochar production is expensive, and cost-effective methods are needed. Major barriers include the availability and quality of feedstock, high production costs, and the lack of infrastructure, technology, and standardized certifications. Future innovations in biochar production technologies are crucial for overcoming these barriers.

To support large-scale biochar production, government incentives and subsidies are essential. Consistent quality must be ensured through certification and quality standards, which can build consumer confidence and expand the biochar market. Educating stakeholders about biochar's benefits in agriculture, environmental remediation, and other fields will help drive demand. Governments can further stimulate market growth through policies like grants, incentives, and procurement programs. Finally, sustainable production requires careful evaluation of biochar's life cycle impacts, including greenhouse gas emissions and water usage, ensuring that benefits are fairly distributed across communities and stakeholders (Ravindiran *et al.*, 2024).

Conclusions:

Biochar, a carbon-rich material produced through pyrolysis, holds tremendous potential for promoting sustainable development across various sectors. By utilizing organic biomass like wood chips, agricultural residues, and manure, biochar production aids waste management while contributing to climate action through carbon sequestration.

Its unique porous structure allows it to retain water, nutrients, and contaminants, making it valuable in agricultural applications, soil remediation, and water purification.

The versatility of biochar arises from its customizable properties, determined by factors such as pyrolysis temperature and feedstock selection. Low-temperature pyrolysis results in biochar with higher nutrient retention, while high-temperature processes yield a more stable, carbon-rich material ideal for long-term applications like carbon storage. These characteristics make biochar a powerful tool in addressing environmental challenges, from enhancing soil fertility to mitigating climate change. Despite its promise, biochar faces economic and technological barriers to large-scale adoption. The high costs of pyrolysis plants and feedstock procurement hinder its broader commercial application. Government incentives and technological innovations are crucial in overcoming these obstacles. Furthermore, ensuring consistent production quality and building stakeholder awareness are essential for expanding biochar's role in global sustainability efforts.

In conclusion, biochar stands at the intersection of environmental conservation, resource efficiency, and renewable energy. Its integration with other sustainable technologies, such as biomass and solar power, can create circular economies that minimize environmental harm. By addressing the current challenges, biochar could play a transformative role in achieving a greener, more sustainable future.

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AGRONOMIC INTERVENTIONS IN CONTROLLING INSECT PESTS AND DISEASES IN MAJOR FIELD CROPS

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Abstract:

Agronomic interventions are vital for managing insect pests and diseases in major field crops, offering sustainable and eco-friendly alternatives to chemical control methods. These interventions focus on enhancing the natural defences of crops and creating conditions that are less conducive to pest and disease outbreaks. Practices such as crop rotation, intercropping, and the selection of pest- and disease-resistant varieties disrupt pest cycles and reduce disease incidence. Maintaining soil health through balanced fertilization, appropriate irrigation, and organic amendments helps strengthen crop resilience against biotic stresses. Timely sowing and harvesting also reduce the crops' exposure to pests and diseases at vulnerable stages. Additionally, practices like cover cropping and mulching help suppress weeds, improve soil structure, and promote the presence of beneficial organisms that act as natural enemies to pests. Agronomic methods are central to integrated pest management (IPM) strategies, aiming to minimize reliance on chemical pesticides and reduce the risks of pesticide resistance, environmental pollution, and harm to non-target organisms. These practices not only support sustainable crop production but also contribute to long-term agricultural resilience by promoting biodiversity, improving soil health, and ensuring higher crop yields. With increasing challenges posed by climate change and pest evolution, agronomic interventions are essential in developing effective, sustainable solutions for pest and disease management in agriculture.

Keywords: Agronomic intervention, Disease management, Field crops, Pest management

Introduction:

Agronomic or cultural approaches play a major role in integrated pest and disease management. It is a preventive measure on pest, disease and also weed status to decrease pest populations and disease inoculum before intervening with direct plant protection measures. Agronomic interventions are followed at two scales. First, at the field scale, the challenge is to build a coherent cropping system by coordinating a set of decisions such as the choice of appropriate resistant/tolerant cultivars, sowing time, planting density, irrigation management and crop sequences over time. At the farm scale, Second, at the farm scale, the challenge is to spatially allocate cropping systems to field plots and to introduce natural biodiversity to design a farmscape favorable to pest natural enemies.

What is Pest?

A pest is any living organism, which is invasive or troublesome to plants, animals, humans, human concerns and livestock.



Weeds



Invertebrate pests



Diseases



Vertebrate pests

Table 1: Per cent crop losses due to insect pest in India (Dhaliwal *et al.*, 2019)

Crop	Yield loss (%)
Rice	25
Wheat	5
Groundnut	15
Oil seeds	20
Pulses	15
Cotton	30
Maize	18
Sugarcane	20
Sorghum	8

Diseases

It refers to various abnormalities, disorders, or illnesses that affect the health, growth and productivity of plants, caused by various pathogens such as fungi, bacteria, viruses, nematodes.



Powdery mildew

Damping off

Table 2: Per cent crop losses due to diseases in India (Oerke *et al.*, 2015)

Crop	Yield loss (%)
Rice	10.8
Cotton	10.2
Maize	7.2
Wheat	10.2

Soybean	8.9
Potato	14.5

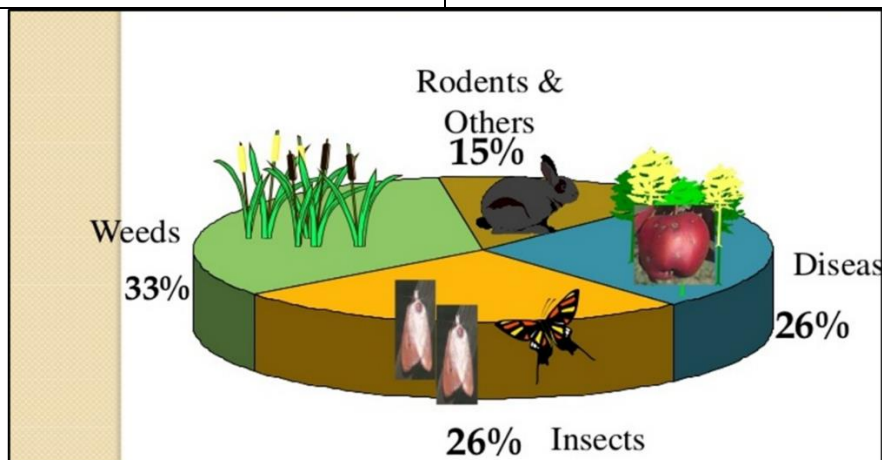


Figure 1: Share of losses caused by different pests (Source: NCIPM, 2017)

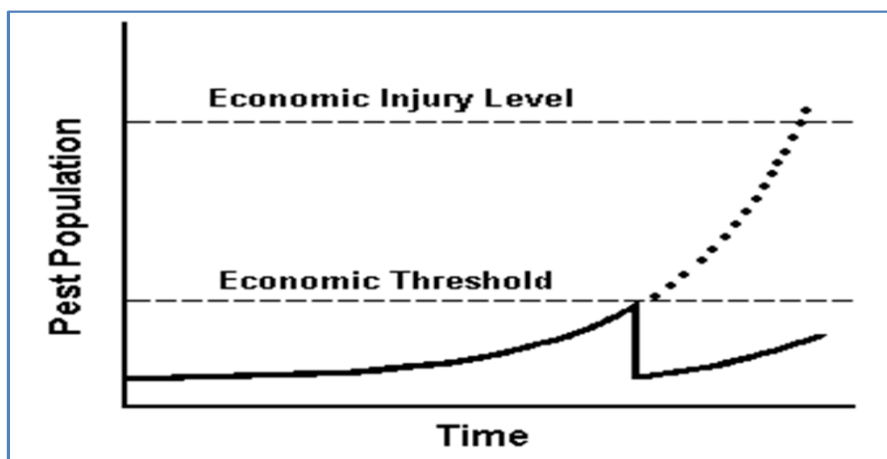


Figure 2: Change in pest population density over a time

Different approaches to manage pests

1. Agronomic practices
2. Physical practices
3. Biological practices
4. Chemical practices
5. Mechanical practices
6. Integrated practices

Different methods of pest management through Agronomic practices

Before Sowing	At Sowing	After Sowing
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Removal of crop residues and alternate hosts ➤ Summer ploughing ➤ Soil solarization ➤ Soil amendments 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Selection of resistant/tolerant varieties ➤ Seed treatment ➤ Time of sowing ➤ Spacing ➤ Trap cropping ➤ Crop rotation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ➤ Earthing-up ➤ Mulching ➤ Irrigation management ➤ Nutrient management

	➤ Intercropping Border crops	
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Agronomic practices followed before sowing

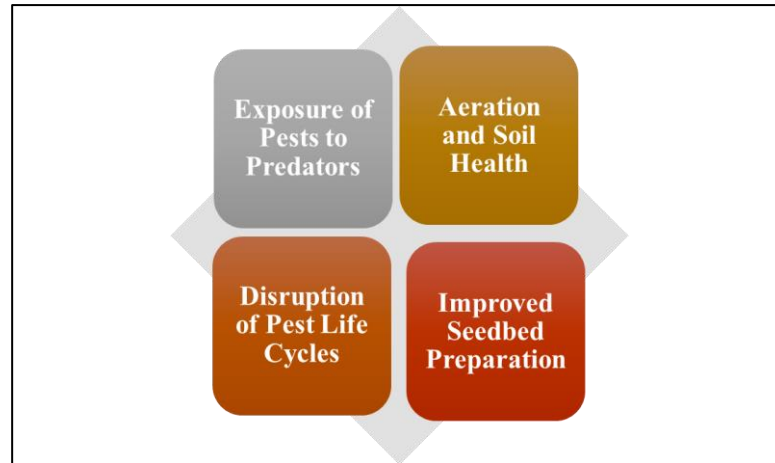
1. Removal of crop residues and alternate hosts

- **Elimination of Reservoirs for Pests and Pathogens:** Crop residues left in the field can serve as shelters and breeding grounds for pests and pathogens removing these residues helps in eliminating the potential reservoirs of pests.
- **Interrupting the Pest Life Cycle:** Many pests have life cycles that involves the stages where they reside crop residues and alternate hosts. By removing these, we can disrupt the life cycle of pests and diseases.
- **Reducing Overwintering Sites:** Crop residues often provide overwintering sites for various pests and diseases, removing these residues helps to prevent the infestation to new crops in the following growing season.
- **Minimizing Inoculum Sources:** Crop residues and alternate hosts can act as sources of inoculum for diseases. Removing these helps in lowering the risk of diseases outbreaks in following crops.

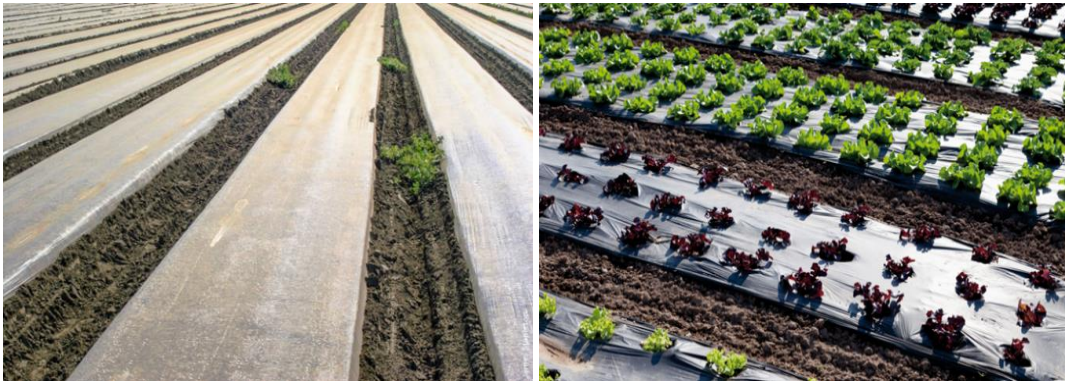
Table 3: Alternate hosts of some important pest and diseases

Crop	Pest	Alternate host
Red gram	Gram caterpillar	<i>Amaranthus, Datura</i>
Castor	Hairy caterpillar	<i>Crotalaria spp.</i>
Rice	Stem borer	<i>Echinochloa, Panicum</i>
Wheat	Black rust	<i>Agropyron repens</i>
Pearl millet	Ergot	<i>Cenchrus ciliaris</i>
Maize	Downy mildew	<i>Sacharum spontaneum</i>

2. Summer ploughing involves plowing fields during the summer season, typically after the harvest of winter crops and before the planting of new crops.



- 3. Soil solarization** It involves covering the soil with transparent plastic sheets and allowing the sun's energy to heat the soil to high temperatures. The plastic sheets trap solar radiation and create a greenhouse effect in the soil. This results in an increase in soil temperature, which can reach lethal levels for many soil-borne pathogens, nematodes, weed seeds, and insect larvae. It is particularly useful in controlling diseases caused by soil-borne pathogens, such as *Fusarium*, *Verticillium*, and *Pythium*.



- 4. Soil amendments** Soil amendments play a crucial role in controlling soil-borne diseases and nematodes by influencing the physical, chemical, and biological properties of the soil. Soil amendments like organic matter and synthetic fertilizers enhance balanced nutrient levels in the soil. Well-nourished plants are better able to resist and recover from pest and disease attacks. Soil amendment like lime and gypsum adjusts the soil pH and it influences the availability of nutrients to plants. Some pests and diseases thrive in specific pH ranges, so adjusting soil pH can hinder their development.

Agronomic practices followed at the time of sowing

- 1. Selection of varieties**



Table 4: List of crop varieties resistant to pests

Crop	Variety	Resistant to
Rice	ADT 48, Swarnamukhi, Pothana	Yellow stem borer
	PTB 33, MTU 1032, BPT 4358	BPH
	Ratna, jaya, MTU 7414	Blast
	IR 20, IR 54, MTU 9992	BLB
Sorghum	SPV 86, SPV 462	Shoot fly
	CSH 7, CSH 8, SPV 17az	Stem borer
	SPV 191, CSH 5	Ergot
	N 13, CSV 5, BH 4-1-4	Striga
Cotton	Bt varieties	Lepidopteran pests
	Narasimha, H 8	Leaf hopper
	HG 9, G 27	Bacterial blight
Wheat	Lerma rojo	Rust

2. Time of sowing Proper time of sowing can influence the vulnerability of plants to specific pests and diseases. Proper time of sowing can influence the vulnerability of plants to specific pests and diseases. Interrupting pest life cycles: Many pest life cycles are closely tied to phenology of the crop adjusting the time of sowing disrupts the pest life cycle. Mitigating disease spread: Planting the crops earlier or later avoids the condition conducive for the development and spread of pathogens.

Table 5: Effect of time of sowing on reduction of pest incidence

Crop	Pest	Method
Chickpea	Fruit borer	Early sowing (October 1 st fortnight)
Sorghum	Shoot fly	Early sowing (July 1 st fortnight)

3. Spacing: Spacing refers to the ideal distance between individual plants within a field or growing area to maximize yields, promote healthy plant growth, Adequate spacing can reduce humidity levels around the plants, creating an environment less favorable for certain diseases that thrive in damp conditions.

Closely spaced plants can lead to a more crowded canopy, promoting the spread of certain foliar diseases. Wider spacing allows for easy detection of pest and diseases.



4. Trap cropping: A trap crop is plant which is strategically grown to attract the pests away from the main crop Attracting pests away: Certain crops are attractive to specific pests. By planting these crops around the main crop helps to protect the main crop from direct pest damage Reducing pest populations: Farmers can more easily monitor and manage pests on the trap crop, reducing the overall population in the area.

- **Interrupting Pest Life Cycles:** Trap cropping can disrupt the life cycle of pests. If the trap crop is harvested or treated before pests reach maturity, it can break the cycle by preventing the pests from reproducing and moving on to the main crop.



Marigold as a trap crop in tobacco field

Table 6: Important pest controlled by trap cropping system

Main crop	Trap crop	Pest
Maize	Sorghum	<i>Atherigona spp.</i>
Sorghum	Maize	<i>Spodoptera spp.</i>

Cowpea	<i>Crotolaria sp.</i>	<i>Corn borer</i>
Groundnut	Castor	<i>S. litura</i>
Cotton	Maize	<i>Bollworms</i>
Tobacco	Castor, Marigold	<i>S. litura</i>
Sugarcane	Maize	<i>Eldona saccharina</i>

5. Crop rotation: Crop rotation is a traditional agricultural practice that involves growing different crops in a specific sequence on the same piece of land over a defined period. Breaks Pest and Disease Cycles: Changing the crop species from one season to the next, the life cycles of pests and diseases are interrupted. Thus, helps in reducing the buildup of pest and pathogen populations Disease Suppression: Certain crops are susceptible for certain diseases Crop rotation helps suppress diseases by preventing the continuous cultivation of susceptible host plant. Encourages Beneficial Organisms: Crop rotation often supplies food and habitat for beneficial insects, predators and specific microorganisms.



6. Intercropping: The practice of growing two or more crops simultaneously on the same piece of land. Increases biodiversity in the agricultural ecosystem. Pest-repelling properties or can act as deterrents for specific pests. By strategically intercropping these crops can create a system where pests are less likely to thrive.

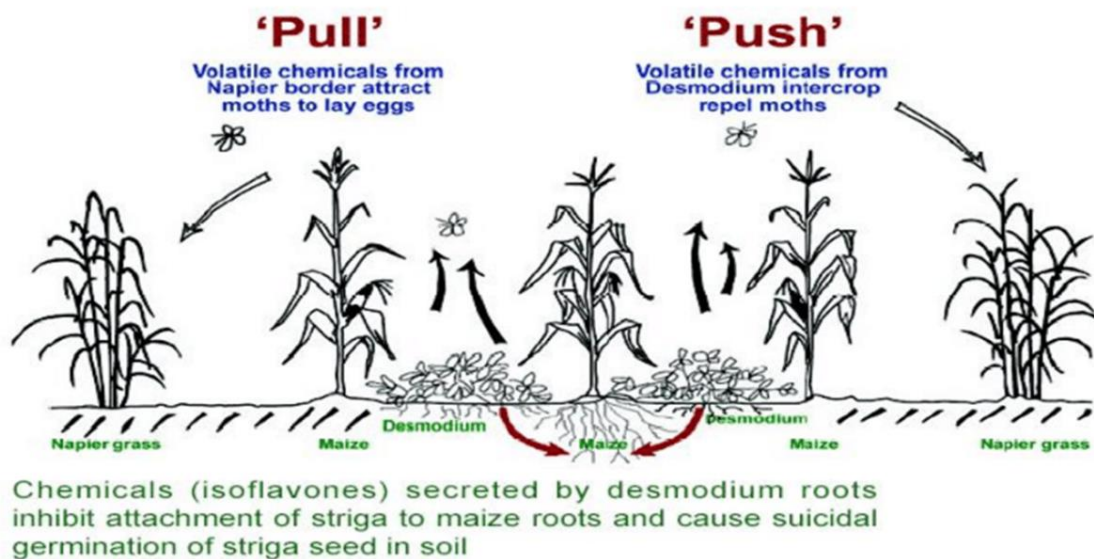


Figure 3: Push-Pull technique in controlling stem borers and striga in maize

Table 7: Important pest controlled by intercropping system

Main crop	Intercrop	Pest
Rice	Maize, Blackgram, Green gram	<i>Scriptophaga incertallas</i>
Sorghum	Cowpea, Lablab	<i>Chilo partellus</i>
Maize	Cowpea	<i>Chilo partellus</i>
	Soybean, Groundnut	<i>Ortinia furnacalls</i>
Pigeon pea	Sorghum	<i>E. kerri</i>
	Groundnut, bajra	<i>H. armigera</i>
Cowpea	Maize	<i>H. armigera</i>
	Sorghum	<i>M. sjostedti</i>
Groundnut	Pigeon pea, Green gram	<i>Taya propingna</i>
	Cowpea, Bajra	<i>Aproerema modicella</i>
Cotton	Groundnut, Soybean	<i>H. armigera</i>
Sesame	Bajra, Groundnut	<i>Antigastra catalaunalis</i>

- 7. Border crops:** Border crops refer to plants grown around the edges of the field, for the purpose of pest management. It acts as barrier for incidence of pests. Growing of safflower, cacti which are thorny in nature restricts the entry of wild boars up to 50-70 per cent.



Agronomic practices practiced after sowing

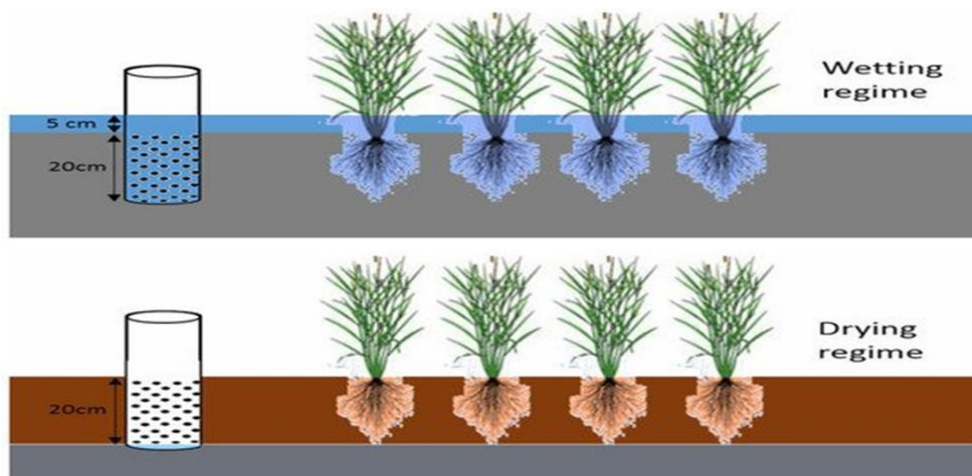
- 1. Earthing up:** Soil is mounded around the base of plants. Earthing up disrupts the environment around the base of plants, making it more challenging for certain pests to access the crop. By forming a protective barrier around the base of the plant, earthing up helps shield the roots from soil-borne pathogens and pests.



- 2. Mulching** Mulching involves covering the soil around plants with a layer of organic and inorganic material. Mulch acts as an insulating layer, moderating soil temperatures. This can be particularly beneficial in preventing certain soil-borne diseases that thrive in specific temperature ranges.



3. Irrigation management: Proper method and time of irrigation influences the pest population by altering the microclimate of crop. Alternate wetting and drying can manage the BPH in rice.



4. Nutrient management: Both type and amount of fertilizer can have a significant impact on a crop's susceptibility and resistance to pests.

Table 8: Effect of different nutrients on pest incidence

Nutrient	Pest /pathogen	Reaction of host	Reference
Nitrogen	Bollworms in cotton	Increases	Butter <i>et al.</i> , (1989)
Phosphorus & Potassium	White fly in cotton	Decreases	Butter <i>et al.</i> , (1996)
Lime & Sulphur	Root borer in sugarcane	Decreases	Kundu <i>et al.</i> , (1994)
Nitrogen	<i>Alternaria solani</i> in potato	Decreases	Barclay <i>et al.</i> , (1972)
Silicon	<i>Pyricularia grisea</i> in rice	Decreases	Zhang <i>et al.</i> , (2006)

Advantages of Agronomic interventions

- ✓ No extra cost
- ✓ No special equipment
- ✓ No health hazards – ecologically sound
- ✓ No harmful effects on non-target organisms
- ✓ Good component of IPM

Limitations of Agronomic interventions

- ✓ Timing decides success

- ✓ No complete control of pests
- ✓ Requires proper planning

Management of Rodents

1. **Sanitation:** Elimination of Shelters and Nesting Sites near the crop fields



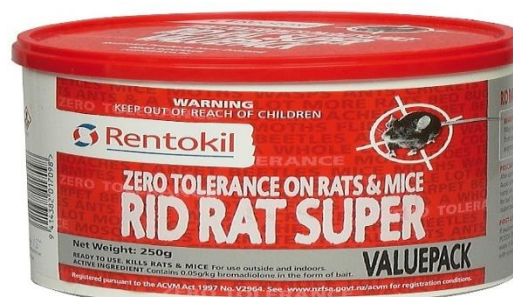
2. **Sealing cracks and holes:** reduces the shelter prevents the breeding sites



3. **Management of residues:** helps in the reduction of favourable habitat and food source.



4. **Baits:** use of anti-coagulant and non-anti-coagulant baits to control rodents in fields



Conclusion:

- Agronomic interventions are preventive measures in controlling pests and disease incidence, even if the complete control is not achieved, but it can significantly reduce the intensity of incidence.
- Implementing effective agronomic interventions is essential for controlling the pests and diseases. By employing a combination of cultural, biological and chemical management strategies, farmers can minimize the impact of pests and diseases on crop yields and quality. While reducing the complete reliance on synthetic pesticides.
- Overall, a holistic approach that combines various agronomic practices which are crucial for sustainable pest and disease management, enhance productivity and promote the long-term agricultural sustainability.

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SUSTAINABLE VEGETABLE FARMING

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Introduction to Sustainability in Agriculture

Sustainability in agriculture refers to farming practices that meet the needs of the present without compromising the ability of future generations to meet their own needs. When it comes to vegetable farming, this means growing crops in a way that preserves the environment, enhances the health of farmers and customers, and guarantees growers' financial stability. The idea of sustainability in agriculture aims to maintain farming's long-term viability by striking a balance between environmental, economic, and social considerations. The growing worldwide population has led to a huge increase in the need for food, particularly vegetables. Conventional agricultural methods, which frequently place a strong priority on yields, have drawn criticism for their detrimental effects on the environment, including biodiversity loss, water shortages, and soil degradation. Sustainable agriculture provides a technique to produce food without compromising the natural resources needed for future generations, especially in the case of vegetable cultivation. Fundamentally, the goal of sustainable agriculture is to produce enough food to fulfill current demand without destroying the natural resources that support agricultural output. Sustainability in vegetable farming refers to a variety of methods that save the

environment, improve soil health, preserve water, use less chemicals, and encourage biodiversity. In addition to protecting the ecosystem, these methods strengthen farming systems' resilience, increasing their capacity to deal with problems like pests, illnesses, and climate change.

Environmental Sustainability:

One of the main tenets of sustainable agriculture is environmental sustainability. This entails using farming methods that lessen the impact of producing vegetables on the environment. One way to lessen soil and water source contamination is to use less synthetic pesticides and fertilizers. Biological pest management techniques, compost, and organic inputs are instead promoted in sustainable vegetable production. Crop rotation, cover crops, and agroforestry are some of the practices that improve soil fertility and structure and guarantee the long-term health and productivity of the soil. Another essential component of sustainable vegetable cultivation is water conservation. Similar to other crops, vegetables need a lot of water to flourish. Sustainable methods emphasize maximizing water consumption by reducing water waste with effective irrigation systems like sprinkler or drip irrigation. Furthermore, techniques for collecting and storing rainwater can be used to lessen dependency on freshwater supplies. These methods assist farmers in continuing to produce even in areas where there is a risk of water scarcity or irregular rainfall patterns.



Sustainable Vegetable Farming

Economic Sustainability:

In sustainable vegetable growing, both economic and environmental sustainability are crucial. A farm needs to be profitable in order to be sustained. This implies that farmers ought to be able to bring in enough money to maintain themselves and make

improvements to their properties. By substituting costly synthetic inputs with readily available local resources, including compost and organic fertilizers, sustainable farming techniques frequently aim to lower input prices. Additionally, farmers can reduce the risks associated with crop failures or market swings by diversifying their crops through strategies like intercropping. Sustainable vegetable farming may also become more profitable if it has access to fair marketplaces and value-added options like direct-to-consumer sales or organic certification.

Social Sustainability:

Sustainable agriculture has a strong emphasis on social sustainability, which is concerned with the welfare of farmers, farmworkers, and rural communities. An equitable agricultural system must guarantee safe working conditions, fair labor practices, and access to resources and knowledge. Additionally, local food systems are frequently strengthened by sustainable vegetable growing, which also encourages community involvement and increases regional food security.

Definition of Sustainable Agriculture

Growing food in a way that balances the environmental, social, and commercial elements of farming is known as sustainable agriculture. It guarantees that agricultural methods do not damage the environment, deplete natural resources, or endanger the health of those engaged in the process of production and consumption.

Other Definition

Here are three definitions of Sustainable Agriculture from different perspectives:

1. Environmental Perspective

Sustainable agriculture is a farming system that protects biodiversity, preserves natural resources like soil and water, and reduces its negative effects on the environment by using environmentally friendly techniques like crop rotation, integrated pest management, and organic farming.

2. Economic Perspective

Sustainable agriculture promotes economical methods that increase crop yields, improve soil fertility, and lessen reliance on artificial inputs with the ultimate goal of making farming profitable over the long run. It places a strong emphasis on regional and local economies, reducing financial risk while assisting farmers and rural communities.

3. Social and Ethical Perspective

Sustainable agriculture maintains community well-being by advocating for fair treatment of farmworkers and equitable resource allocation. Enhancing the quality of life

for humans and animals, promoting social inclusion and rural development, and ensuring that agricultural techniques are socially responsible all come from this. Food is safe and healthful.

Definition of Sustainable vegetable production

- The cultivation of vegetables in a way that preserves natural resources, guarantees farmers' long-term financial success, and enhances community welfare is known as sustainable vegetable production. It entails lowering reliance on dangerous chemicals while preserving soil and water quality via the use of ecologically friendly techniques including crop rotation, organic fertilizers, and water conservation. Through an emphasis on social and economic sustainability, this strategy guarantees a consistent flow of wholesome food for both present and future generations.
- The cultivation of vegetables via environmentally conscious methods that protect the environment, improve economic feasibility, and uphold social justice is known as sustainable vegetable production. While guaranteeing that farming continues to be lucrative, strategies like integrated pest control, soil protection, and biodiversity preservation support the upkeep of healthy ecosystems. By generating nutritious food and boosting local economies, this strategy also promotes community well-being. Its goal is to fulfill current food demands without depleting resources for future generations.

Advantages of Sustainable Vegetable Farming

- Minimizes chemical inputs, resulting in decreased levels of contamination in soil and water.
- Crop rotation and organic amendments are two practices that improve soil fertility and structure.
- Effective irrigation techniques reduce water use and waste, protecting this vital resource.
- Encourages a variety of plant and animal life, which adds to the resilience and balance of the ecosystem.
- Promotes organic pest management, lowering dependence on hazardous insecticides and safeguarding beneficial insects.
- Plants with a variety of cropping methods are more able to resist pests, diseases, and changes in climate.

- Can result in reduced input costs, heightened profitability, and entry into specialized markets for product farmed sustainably.
- Growing consumer demand for eco-friendly and healthful food expands the market for vegetables grown responsibly.
- Encourages regional food systems and fortifies community bonds, promoting social justice and ethical work practices.
- Assists in maintaining a steady supply of wholesome, fresh veggies, improving food security both locally and globally.
- Sustainable techniques encourage carbon sequestration and lower greenhouse gas emissions.
- Include promoting a greater awareness of environmental concerns by teaching farmers and customers about sustainable methods.

Core Principles of Sustainable Vegetable Farming

Ecological Balance

Ecological balance in sustainable vegetable farming refers to the application of farming practices that provide harmony between agriculture and the environment. It ensures that farming increases yields without degrading the ecosystem.

Soil Health and Fertility

Since they have a direct influence on crop output and environmental quality, soil fertility and health are essential for sustainable vegetable growing. Crop rotation, no-till farming, and cover crops are examples of techniques that preserve soil structure. These methods also increase water penetration and aeration, which promotes healthy root development and nutrient uptake. In order to improve soil fertility, sustainable farmers concentrate on naturally managing nutrients by adding organic matter, such as compost and manure. In addition to increasing vital elements like potassium, phosphorus, and nitrogen, this method lessens the need for synthetic fertilizers, which over time can deteriorate the health of the soil. Furthermore, fertility cannot be maintained without encouraging biological activity in the soil. As fungus, earthworms, and beneficial microbes break down organic debris, nutrients are released into forms that plants can use. Soil microbiomes flourish when sustainable practices are implemented, such crop diversity and reduced pesticide usage. Contour farming and cover crops are two examples of erosion management strategies that stop soil erosion and maintain the nutrient-rich topsoil needed to grow vegetables.

Efficient Use of Resources

Sustainable vegetable farming is based on the fundamental idea of resource efficiency, which aims to maximize output while reducing environmental effect. Water management is a crucial tactic in this strategy. Water-saving strategies like rainwater gathering and drip irrigation maximize plant moisture levels without wasting resources. To further improve water efficiency, techniques like mulching and soil moisture monitoring support the maintenance of the ideal water levels in the soil. Furthermore, by using renewable energy sources for irrigation and other farm operations, sustainable vegetable farming places an emphasis on energy efficiency in operations. This strategy reduces greenhouse gas emissions and fuel usage. Finally, by using soil testing to optimize fertilizer use, farmers may apply nutrients depending on the needs of individual crops, cutting down on superfluous inputs and increasing yields. Sustainable vegetable growing ensures long-term agricultural sustainability, supports environmental health, and encourages resource efficiency by implementing these techniques.

Minimizing Chemical Inputs

Sustainable vegetable growing emphasizes the use of natural substitutes like compost and biofertilizers rather than conventional pesticides and fertilizers. These methods improve soil health, lessen their negative effects on the ecosystem, and foster ecological equilibrium. With their potential to negatively impact ecosystems, water quality, and human health, synthetic fertilizers, insecticides, and herbicides are being used less often.

Promoting Biodiversity

Encouraging biodiversity is essential to successful vegetable production because it strengthens soil health, increases ecosystem resilience, and facilitates better pest control. The range of living forms found in an agricultural system, such as various plant species, insects, bacteria, and other creatures, is referred to as biodiversity. Crop diversification, or polyculture—growing a range of vegetable crops in the same space—is one successful tactic. By enhancing nutrient cycling, improving soil health, reducing the danger of pests and diseases, and establishing homes for beneficial creatures, this approach supports the stability of the ecosystem as a whole. Cover crops are an additional crucial strategy. In addition to adding organic matter and preventing soil erosion, cover crops can be planted in the off-season. In addition, cover crops improve nutrient availability, sustain a variety of microbial communities, and offer habitat to beneficial insects. Another tactic for incorporating trees and shrubs into vegetable production systems is agroforestry.

By creating homes for animals, enhancing soil quality, and boosting carbon sequestration—all while providing shade and lowering temperature extremes for vegetable crops—this strategy improves biodiversity. It's also critical to support beneficial insects like pollinators and predatory species in order to encourage natural pest management. By planting natural plants and flowers, farmers may provide homes for beneficial insects and improve pollination. Furthermore, by fostering balanced ecosystems, integrated farming systems that integrate the production of crops and cattle enhance biodiversity. While crops provide food and shelter for a variety of animals, livestock may add organic matter to the soil, suppress weeds, and act as a natural fertilizer.

Energy Conservation

In order to reduce carbon footprints, sustainable vegetable farming places a strong emphasis on reducing the use of fossil fuels, supporting renewable energy sources like solar and wind, and maximizing farm machinery efficiency. A key component of sustainable vegetable farming is energy saving, which also minimizes environmental effect, increases resource efficiency, and drastically lowers operating costs. In addition to saving money, efficient energy usage helps ensure that agricultural techniques are sustainable. Integrating renewable energy sources, like solar or wind turbines, is one practical tactic that can significantly reduce dependency on fossil fuels. By supplying a sustainable energy source for greenhouse operations, irrigation, and other agricultural tasks, these systems lower greenhouse gas emissions. Preservation tillage techniques limit the number of passes needed for crop planting and upkeep, which lowers fuel consumption and lessens soil disturbance, which improves energy conservation even more. Crop rotation and the selection of energy-efficient crops can also reduce energy inputs and increase agricultural output overall. Because organic farming emphasizes fewer energy inputs through a decreased dependence on synthetic fertilizers and pesticides, it also helps conserve energy. Sustainable vegetable farming may greatly increase energy conservation efforts by using these measures, which will lower costs, have a smaller environmental effect, and improve resource efficiency. In the end, these methods give farmers financial advantages and help ensure a more sustainable agriculture sector.

Economic Viability

Vegetable growing needs to be profitable in order to be sustainable. This includes getting product into markets, paying farmers fairly, lowering input costs by using organic methods, and giving produce more value through processing and certification (like fair trade or organic). Sustainable vegetable growing requires economic viability in order to

guarantee that agricultural methods are both ecologically and financially sustainable for farmers. Achieving economic viability requires implementing strategies that support long-term sustainability while striking a balance between expenses, earnings, and investments. Cost effectiveness is a crucial component. Lower operating expenses are frequently the result of implementing sustainable practices. Farmers may reduce their total costs by using energy-efficient devices, improving water use, and limiting chemical inputs. Crop rotation and cover crops are two examples of techniques that improve soil health and save costs by lowering the demand for synthetic fertilizers and pesticides. In addition, there's a rising market for veggies that are grown organically and responsibly. Farmers that use sustainable farming methods might reach specialized markets and sell their products for more money. There are additional chances to boost profitability through direct-to-consumer sales via internet platforms, farmers' markets, and community-supported agricultural initiatives.

Social Responsibility and Fair Labor Practices

Sustainable vegetable farming depends on social responsibility and ethical labor practices to make sure that agricultural systems function in a way that is both socially and environmentally just. In order to develop a just and equitable food system that benefits all parties involved—farmers, laborers, customers, and communities—it is important to emphasize social responsibility. The dedication to equitable pay and benefits is one important component. Fair labor compensation is a top priority in sustainable vegetable growing, guaranteeing that farmworkers have access to sufficient pay, benefits, and secure working conditions. This strategy fosters community support while promoting the livelihood and well-being of employees, resulting in a devoted and productive workforce. Another important consideration is safe working conditions. It is crucial to provide safe and healthy surroundings, which includes giving people access to the right training, safety gear, and frequent health examinations. Ensuring safety contributes to the reduction of accidents and illnesses, which in turn boosts worker morale and productivity.

Challenges to Sustainable Vegetable Farming

Economic Pressures: Sustainable vegetable production has several obstacles due to economic constraints, which also affect farmers' capacity to implement and uphold eco-friendly techniques. These pressures can come from a number of places, including as changes in the market, growing input prices, and competition from traditional farming methods. It is vital to comprehend these financial obstacles in order to advance sustainability in vegetable production. The volatility of the market is a key aspect. It can be

challenging for farmers to forecast their revenue and make long-term plans because prices for vegetables are subject to fluctuations caused by variations in supply and demand, weather, and market trends. They frequently put short-term earnings ahead of long-term sustainability as a result of this uncertainty. Significant obstacles are also brought about by rising input costs. The costs of equipment, seeds, fertilizers, and pest control have been rising substantially. These expenses can be significantly greater than those related to conventional farming for sustainable farmers, who frequently place a higher priority on organic inputs and environmentally friendly agricultural methods. This puts a burden on finances and discourages investment in sustainable practices. Furthermore, conventional farms that can produce crops at cheaper costs due to economies of scale and the use of synthetic inputs compete fiercely with sustainable vegetable producers. Sustainable farmers may be forced to reduce their prices as a result of this pressure, which might jeopardize their profitability and deter them from adopting more sustainable techniques.

Climate Change: Sustainable vegetable growing has several obstacles due to climate change, which affects soil health, insect dynamics, crop productivity, and water availability. Farmers must modify their methods to lessen the consequences of more intense and unpredictable weather patterns while preserving sustainability. Sustainable vegetable growing has to give priority to adaptable techniques that increase climate change resistance in order to overcome these obstacles. It is crucial to put measures like integrated pest control, crop diversity, water-efficient irrigation, and soil conservation into practice. In addition, financial support, knowledge, and resource availability can assist farmers in making the shift to more sustainable techniques that can survive the effects of climate change. Sustainable vegetable growing may better handle the challenges posed by climate change while promoting environmental health and long-term food security by encouraging resilience and flexibility.

Pest and Disease Pressure: Pressure from pests and diseases poses a serious threat to sustainable vegetable farming as it has an impact on crop yields, quality, and the viability of the farm as a whole. The appearance and spread of pests and diseases are influenced by a number of variables, including global commerce, monoculture practices, and climate change. For this reason, it is crucial to create sustainable management solutions. Another difficulty with sustainable farming is the need on chemicals for insect control. Chemical pesticides can offer fast fixes, but using them too often can damage beneficial insects, cause pests to become resistant to the chemicals, and degrade the ecosystem. The goal of sustainable vegetable growing is to use as few chemicals as possible, yet this might

complicate and increase the expense of pest management, especially when dealing with severe infestations. Epidemics of diseases and pests can also have a significant financial impact. Pest-related crop losses lower farmer revenue and make it more challenging to fund sustainable practices. Moreover, using alternative pest management techniques like biological control or integrated pest management (IPM) can be costly, adding to farmers' financial burden. Sustainable vegetable farming encourages methods like intercropping to increase biodiversity, employing cover crops, and promoting beneficial insects as natural pest control agents as a solution to these difficulties. For farmers to handle pest and disease burdens sustainably, access to resources and education on efficient pest control approaches is also essential. Sustainable vegetable growing strives to minimize the effects of pests and illnesses while preserving agricultural production over the long term and environmental health by emphasizing resilient farming techniques.

Summary:

To sum up, the fundamental tenets of sustainable vegetable farming offer an essential structure for attaining equilibrium between farming output and ecological preservation. Farmers may reduce their ecological footprint while increasing resistance against pests and climate change by emphasizing ecological balance, soil health, and effective resource usage. In addition to fostering biodiversity and less chemical inputs, this approach promotes healthier ecosystems and guarantees the long-term survival of crops. Agriculture is good for the environment and society because it ensures economic viability and fair labor standards, which in turn contribute to the overall sustainability of farming communities. Adopting these concepts becomes more crucial as the agriculture industry deals with issues like resource scarcity and climate change. The market for vegetables grown sustainably may be strengthened by informing customers and raising knowledge of the advantages of these goods, which will provide a positive feedback loop that encourages sustainable practices. Sustainable vegetable farming may make a significant contribution to food security, environmental health, and the welfare of rural communities by adhering to these guiding principles. This will pave the way for a resilient and equitable agricultural future.

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ECOLOGICAL GROUPS OF MICROORGANISMS AND THEIR INTERACTIONS TO THE PLANTS

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Introduction:

Ecology is the study of microorganisms in their natural habitats. The microorganisms include all living components of the systems. Microorganisms have different way of nutrition for their growth and development.

Saprophytes: Saprophytes is a phenomenon which refers to getting nutrition from dead organic materials, and such microorganisms are known as saprophytes. The saprophytes are equipped with extracellular enzyme producing capacity according to the available substrate. The presence of a living hosts few saprophytes change their tendency and cause disease. Such saprophytes are called facultative Parasites. Facultative parasites are basically saprophytes but have tendency to behave as parasite well. They are also termed as opportunistic microorganisms.

Parasitism: Parasitism refers to deriving nutrition from a living plant or animal host, and microorganisms associated with parasitism are known as parasites. There are certain nutrients which are not found in dead organic materials. When a parasite is very virulent and cannot live without living host, it is called obligate parasite. On the other hand, a parasite, in the absence of a suitable living host can pass its life as saprophyte. It is a second

mode of leading the life and survival mechanism. Such types of parasites are known as facultative saprophytes i.e. the parasites that have faculty to live as saprophyte in the absence of a suitable host

Symbiosis: Symbiosis case both the microbes and hosts are benefited as far as nutrition is concerned. Such association of mutual benefit is known as symbiosis. Symbiosis can be seen in lichens, mycorrhiza, root nodules of legumes and non-leguminous plants

1. Microbial Interactions

Microorganisms are ubiquitous in their occurrence. However, in natural environment they interact among themselves with plants, with animals, and, moreover, with their niches. Finally, different types of interrelations are established. Reasons for microbial interactions are the competition for nutrients and space in an ecological niche. Baker and Cook (1974) pointed out that a microbe may not affect the other, or may affect by one or more of the following ways: (a) by stimulation of growth and development of associate, (b) by inhibition of growth and development of the associate, (c) by stimulating the formation of resting bodies by the associate, (d) by inhibiting the formation of resting bodies by the associate, (e) by enforcing the dormancy of the associate, (f) by causing lysis of the associate, (g) by harming the population of plants, (h) by directly benefiting the plants, and (i) by getting influenced by its own microenvironmental factors. Some of the possible microbial interactions have been discussed in this section. However, based on relative advantage to each partner i.e. hosts and microorganisms, the relationships are basically of three types: (a) neutralism where host remains unaffected by the microbe, (b) mutualism where both partners get benefits from the association, and (c) parasitism where one partner gets benefits and the second suffers from damages.

1.1. Soil Microbe Interaction

Clay mineral (and humic substances) affect the activity, ecology and population of microorganisms in soil. Clays modify the physicochemical environment of the microbes which either enhance or attenuate the growth of individual microbial population. After release from clays, the organic material is either degraded by microorganisms or again bind to clays. Microorganisms have a negative charge at the pH of most microbial habitats. The magnitude of electronegativity on cell walls of bacteria and fungi is regulated by pH, amino acid residues and changes in wall composition (Archibald et al, 1973). Clay minerals get adsorbed and bind with proteins, amino acids, small peptides and humic substrates. Microorganisms utilize the nutrients for their growth and activity directly from clay-protein, clay-amino acids or peptides, and clay-humic substrate complexes. Moreover, high

levels of clay soil interfere and restricts infection of banana rootlets by *Fusarium oxysporum*, and thus exerts natural biological control of Panama disease. The clays and humic colloids influence the distribution and activity of Streptomyces,

1.2. Plant Microbe Interactions

The above ground and below ground portions of plants are constantly interact with many microorganisms such as bacteria, actinomycetes, fungi, amoebae, nematodes, algae, viruses, and develop several types of inter relationships. Microbial interactions with both above ground and below ground parts of plants are briefly discussed in this section. Moreover, considering the result of interactions, it may develop destructive, neutral, symbiotic or beneficial association with plants

2. Interactions on Above Ground Parts

Microbial interactions on above ground part of plant occur in a variety of ways where the foliage especially leaf surface phyllo sphere and phylloplane acts as microbial niche.

2.1. Destructive Associations

Plants provide a substantial ecological niche for microorganisms. However, the abundance of this potential niche with respect to any individual microbe is more apparent than real, since a few are able to grow on a wide range of plant species. Microorganisms show specificity with the hosts, organ, tissue and age of plants. The microorganisms that lead to destructive association are called pathogens. Disease development is governed by the resultant of three important factors: (a) host susceptibility, (b) congenial environment, and (c) virulent pathogen.

Plant-microbe interaction occurs at molecular level. A gene-for-gene relationship exists when the presence of a gene in one population is contingent on the continued presence of a gene in another population and where the interactions between the two genes lead to a single phenotypic expression by which the presence or absence of the relevant gene in either organism may be recognised (Person et al, 1962).

2.2. Beneficial Association

The excellent example of plant-microbe interaction resulting beneficial association visualised on above ground part is the development of stem nodules. There are three known genera of legumes which are known to bear stem nodules are *Aeschynomene*, *Sesbania* and *Neptunia*. The stem nodules develop because of interaction between these plants and *Azorhizobium* species. Rhizobia develop symbiotic association with hosts, fix atmospheric nitrogen and benefit the plants. *A. americana* is a wild annual legume which is

also used as green manure. *S. rostrata* bears both stem as well as root nodules. In addition, *Anabaena azollae* establish symbiotic association with *Azolla* sp. which is a member of Pteridophyte. Species of *Nostoc* establishes symbiotic relationship with *Anthoceros* and *Blasia*, members of Bryophyta.

3. Interactions on Below Ground Parts

Like above ground part, plant root-microbe interactions occur in soil as well which lead different types of associations, e.g. destructive, associative or symbiotic. One of the interesting points is that the microbe must pass the 'rhizosphere' region before the start of interaction with plant roots.

3.1. Destructive Associations

Like destructive association of above ground parts, the roots also result in a destructive association. The symptoms developed by the pathogens on root are damping off, wilt, rot, knot, scab, etc.

The pathogens infect roots. Entry of pathogens takes place through wounds caused by fungi or nematodes, cracks or root hairs. In most of the cases penetration is preceded by the formation of a specific cushion-like structure appressorium which exerts mechanical pressure on root surface. Some pathogens directly penetrate the root tissues. In *Rhizoctonia solan* multicellular cushions are seen on the roots or hypocotyl of infected plants. Nematodes directly inflict a slight mechanical injury on plant root. Their saliva is toxic for host tissues which results in cellular hypertrophy and hyperplasia, suppression of mitosis, cell necrosis and growth stimulation. Second stage larvae of *Meloidogyne* and *Heterodera* normally enter the root at or just behind the root tip. *Meloidogyne* larvae enter through the ruptures made by emerging roots, cracks on root surfaces, nodular tissues, etc. and results in development of root knots.

Certain wilt causing species of *Fusarium udum*, and *F. axysporum* infect root, enter in vascular supply i.e. xylem bundles and produce mycelia that block the xylem vessels. These act as mechanical plug for xylem vessels. Consequently, plants show wilting symptoms, interestingly, *Macrophomina*, *Haseolina* enters in roots and gets established in root tissues. It produces intraxylem sclerotia. Sclerotia are produced in such a high amount that impart sprinkling charcoal like symptoms. Therefore, root rot caused by this pathogen is called charcoal-rot. Certain fungi such as *Pythium*, *Rhizoctonia*, etc. cause damping-off of seedlings of several crop plants. *Synchytrium endobioticum* causes wart of potato tubers of a member of actinomycetes eg. *Streptomyces scabies* causes scab disease potato. *Agrobacterium tumefaciens*, a soil- born bacterium, causes crown gall of fruit trees including roots affected

plants become stunted with restricted growth of plant part and poor fruit set. *Pseudomonas solanacearum* causing brown-rot and bacterial wilt of tomato, potato and other solanaceous plant is a well-known pathogen. After cutting open the affected tubers, and creamy, viscous exudation from open surface is observed and the dark brown discolouration of the vascular region becomes distinct. Consequently, tuber formation is affected, and size of tubers is greatly reduced.

3.2. Beneficial Associations

Symbiosis is the phenomenon of living together where both the partners are benefited. The microsymbionts derive freshly prepared food from the host plant which lack in soil. The macrosymbionts get certain nutrients from soil which are not readily available such as trace elements, nitrogen, phosphorus, etc. However, because of interaction of microorganisms with plant roots there may or may not develop apparent symbiotic structure. Symbiotic associations with different groups of microorganisms are discussed below:

3.2.1. Cyanobacterial Symbiosis

The term cyanobacteria are of recent origin which includes the members of cyanophyceae. They may be both heterocystous and non-heterocystous forms heterocyst is the site of nitrogen fixation. The non-heterocystous forms also fix nitrogen. *Anabaena cycadae* is associated with the coralloid roots of *Cycas*. It is present in cortex in a well-defined region which is known as algal zone.

3.2.2 Bacterial Symbiosis

Among bacteria there are two categories of symbiosis, one that does not form apparent symbiotic structured root nodules, and the second group which forms root nodules. However, there is a third group which enhances plant growth without entering in symbiosis,

a. Associative Symbionts

The first group includes the species of *Azospirillum* which are intimately associated with their host. These have been isolated from the rhizoplane region. As a result of infection root nodules are not formed but pictures of root hair deformation are known. Moreover, *Azospirillum sp.* also invades cortical and vascular tissues of host and enhances the number of lateral root hairs. This results in an increase in mineral uptake which are probably due to phytochrome production rather than nitrogen fixation. Host specificity of *Azospirillum sp.* differs from that of *Rhizobium sp.* Due to intimate association of *Azospirillum sp.* with roots of several non-leguminous plants, *Azospirillum sp.* and the other

such bacteria are called 'associative symbiont. The other non- nodule forming associative symbionts are *Azotobacter paspali* found on roots of tropical grasses, *Beijerinckia* sp shows host specificity with sugarcane root, *Azospirillum* sp. with roots of corn, wheat, sorghum, etc. It is associated with roots in such a way that a gentle washing does not dislodge the nitrogen metabolizing activity.

b. Rhizobacterial Symbionts

The bacteria which colonize the rhizosphere of root are commonly known as rhizobacteria. The non-symbiotic beneficial rhizobacteria which affect the plant growth favourably are called PGPR. The PGPR have been discovered by Kloepper *et al.*, (1980). PGPR belong to genera of *Pseudomonas*, *Bacillus* and *Streptomyces*, and most of them are fluorescent pseudomonads. The other types are non-fluorescent Pseudomonads, e.g. *Serratia* sp and *Arthobacter* sp. The most common species of *Bacillus* sp are *B. polymyxa*, *B. circulans* and *B. macerens*. These bacteria increase the growth of host plants. The increase in plant growth is due to (a) changes in balance of rhizosphere microflora producing an indirect effect on the crop, (b) control of pathogens and other harmful microorganisms in the rhizosphere, (c) production of growth hormones like gibberellin and indole acetic acid, (d) release of nutrients from soil, (e) possible production of vitamins or conversion of materials to a usable form by the host, and (f) possible nitrogen fixation by rhizobacteria.

i. Legume symbiosis

Rhizobium sp, a soil bacterium, enters in symbiosis with leguminous plants. It develops root nodules which are the site of nitrogen fixation.

ii. Non-legume Symbiosis

From this class the species of *Frankia* are known to develop nodules which are known as actinorhiza. Nitrogen fixing nodule non-legumes are the species of *Alnus Casuarina*, *Cercocarpus*, *Comptonia*, *Hippophae*, *Discaria*, *Dryna*, *Elaeagnis*, *Myrica*, *Purshia*, *Shepherdia*, etc. These plants grow in such a condition where the concentration of nitrogen is low. One of the most extensively studied plant is the alder trees, *Alnus nepalensis* which grows in nitrogen-deficient soil. The extent of nitrogen gain by such angiosperms varies with soil types, climatic conditions and plant age.

iii. Fungal Symbiosis

In 1885, it was a German Forest pathologist, A.B. Frank, who for the first time coined the term mycorrhiza to denote plant-fungus association. Mycorrhiza fungus-root has been defined as an apparent structure developed because of symbiotic association between fungi and plant roots. Mycorrhizal associations are diverse in both structure and

physiological function. Garrett (1950) grouped the mycorrhizal fungi into the ecological category of root-inhabiting fungi. This indeed be regarded as end terms in the specialization of root- inhabitants, that is, of an ecological group that includes many important soil-borne plant pathogens. Frank classified the mycorrhizae into ectotrophic and endotrophic ones based on trophic levels. However, based on strictly morphological and anatomical features, mycorrhizae are divided into the three broad groups: ectomycorrhiza, endomycorrhiza and ectendomycorrhiza which correspond to the older and still commonly used terms ectotrophic, endotrophic and ectendotrophic mycorrhizae that is literally by outside, inside and outside-inside feeding, respectively.

Ectomycorrhiza

Only 5% vascular plants develop ectomycorrhiza which predominates in family Pinaceae, Fagaceae, Betulaceae, Juglandaceae and Myrtaceae and in o Baridinal and temperate families. Fungi that participate in ectotrophic association include agaric Basidiomycetes, Gasteromycetes, Ascomycetes, fungi imperfecti and occasionally phycomycetes Strict host specificity is rare and, therefore, one plant may form mycorrhizae with several fungi simultaneously. The fungi interact with feeder roots which in turn, undergo morphogenesis. The mycorrhizae may be unforked, bifurcated, nodular, multiforked or coralloid. Outside the root surface fungal mycelia form a compact and multilayered covering known as mantle. It prevents the direct contact of root tissues with rhizosphere.

Thickness of mantle varies from 20-40 mm depending on mycorrhizal fungi, temperature, nutritional factors, etc. The fungus forms a network of mycelia in cortex which is known as hartig net. The mycelia never enter the endodermis. The fungi forming ectomycorrhiza are *Amanita muscaria*, *Boletus edulis*, *Cenococcusgeophilus*, *Inocybe rimoso*, *Laccaria laccata*, *Leccinum*, *Lepiota*, *Russula spp.*, *Pisolithus tinctorius*, *Suillus spp.*, *Scleroderma citrinum*, *Rhizopogon spp.*,

Ectendomycorrhiza

Ectendomycorrhiza shares the features of both ecto and endomycorrhiza. They have less developed external mantle. The hyphae within the host penetrate its cells as well as grow within them. These are found in both gymnosperms and angiosperms. Very little is known about the fungi involved in these types of association due to little research on them.

Vesicular-Arbuscular Mycorrhiza

Over 90% of vascular plants of world flora form VA mycorrhiza. The mycosymbionts are widespread among both cultivated and wild plants, and found in bryophytes,

pteridophytes, gymnosperms and angiosperms (Harley and Smith, 1983). The fungi forming VAM belong to family Endogonaceae of Zygomycotina. Hyphae are aseptate, inter- and intra-cellular in cortex. The intracellular hyphae either become coiled or differentiated into densely branched arbuscules. Arbuscules function as haustoria and perhaps involved in interchange of materials between plant and fungus. In addition, large, multinucleate, terminal or intercalary oil-rich vesicles may be produced on both inter- and intra-cellular hyphae. VAM are formed by about hundreds of fungal species. All of them belong to only six genera viz., *Acaulospora*, *Gigaspora*, *Glomus*, *Entrophospora*, *Sclerocystis* and *Scutellospora*. *Diagrams of Glomus and Gigaspora*.

Ericoid Mycorrhiza

Ericoid mycorrhiza occurs throughout the fine root systems hair roots in the tribe Ericoidae of family Ericaceae. Many genera such as *Epachris*, *Leucopogon*, *Monotoa*, *Rhododendron*, *Vaccinum*, etc. develop ericoid mycorrhiza. Plants are woody shrubs or small trees found in open or acid peaty soil. They have usually fine roots on which the fungus established to outermost layer of cortical cells forming dense intracellular cells. The fungi may all be ascomycetes, for example *Pezizella sp*, *Clavaria spp.*, etc.

Arbutoid Mycorrhiza

Mycorrhiza of the tribe Arbutoidae of family Ericaceae was first described from *Arbutus unedo*. The host plants are mostly woody shrubs and trees. Roots are typically herorrhizic (the short roots being converted into mycorrhiza with a well-defined sheath and a Hartig net), the fungus penetrates cortical cells where it forms extensive coils of hyphae. The plant, also form mycorrhiza with conifers (Harley and Smith, 1983). It has been suggested that a transition between ecto and endomycorrhizae exists in the arbutoid type of mycorrhiza, accounting for the term ectendomycorrhiza sometimes applied to this phenomenon.

Monotropoid Mycorrhiza

The family Monotropaceae which includes achlorophyllous plants e.g. *Monotropa hypopitys*, develops monotropoid mycorrhiza. These plants completely depend on mycorrhizal fungi for carbon and energy. Roots form ball throughout which fungal mycelium ramifies enclosing the mycorrhizal roots of neighbouring green plants. The root ball is the survival organ of *Monotropa* during winter and after return of favourable conditions it gives rise to flowering shoots. With the root growth, a sheath and Hartig net are formed. From the hyphae a peg like haustoria push into epidermal and cortical cells. In the start, host cell wall invaginates to include fungal pegs, but finally pegs penetrate cell

wall and emerge into cells. The structure and function of monotropoid mycorrhiza change with seasonal development of the host plants (Harley and Smith, 1983).

Orchid Mycorrhiza

In nature, orchids germinate only with infected endomycorrhizal fungi that subsequently colonize the host plants. The fungi are mostly the form genus *Rhizoctonia* with perfect state *Ceratobasidium*, *Sebacina* and *Tulasnella* occurring in Basidiomycetes (mainly *Tulasnales*) and Ascomycetes.

Mycorrhizal effect on their hosts

Like rhizosphere, mycorrhizosphere the close vicinity of ectomycorrhizae shows increased microbial community leading to mycorrhizosphere effect. The photosynthates flow into soil through roots and mycorrhizae support a diverse community of soil microorganisms, many of which influence plant growth. The mycorrhizosphere microorganisms may be facultative anaerobes, extracellular chitinase producers, phosphate solubilizers, and producers of siderophores, antibiotics, hormones, plant growth-suppressors and promoters (Lindermann, 1988). (b) Nutrient uptake and Translocation: Mycorrhizae increase the absorptive surface of root resulting in increased uptake of water and nutrients from the soil. The ectomycorrhizal fungi translocate phosphorus, nitrogen, calcium and amino acids, and increase translocation of Zn, Na and other minerals to the hosts. Their hyphae extract N and transport from soil to plant due to increased absorptive surface area. The byproducts of fungi dissolve several insoluble nutrients. Three mechanisms of mycorrhizal activity have been discussed for weathering soil phosphorous and transport to host plants:

- (a) The interaction of mycorrhizal fungi and phosphate solubilizing bacteria.
- (b) Production of phosphatases by the mycorrhizal fungi.
- (c) Production of organic acids by mycorrhizal fungi. Translocation of phosphorus in fungal hyphae takes place by cytoplasmic streaming. P is stored in the form of polyphosphates due to polyphosphate kinase activity. P is stored in the after-break phosphates by phosphatases and release of Inorganic phosphate. P is accumulated in mantle and Hartig net and, thereafter, transferred from Hartig net to host tissue. Similarly, the VAM fungi also influence growth, exudation and nutrient uptake in host plants. Polyphosphate granules have been found in arbuscules, hyphae and vesicles of VAM fungi. Chitin appears to be the main carbohydrate-related material present in vesicle and hyphal walls. *Glomus fasciculatus* translocate P over a distance of at least 7 cm, and *Rhizopogon luteus* to 12 cm.

- (d) Transfer of metabolites from host to Fungal symbiont and the other plants: The products of photosynthesis move from host to the fungal symbiont. However, host to host transfer of carbohydrate via a shared fungal symbiont also takes place.
- (e) Growth-hormone antibiotic production: Some of the ectomycorrhizal fungi produce indole acetic acid (IAA) which possibly is involved in morphogenesis and longevity of roots. Moreover, *Leucopaxillus cerealis* var. *piceina* is known to produce growth inhibiting antibiotics.
- (f) Plant protection biocontrol of pathogens: Both VAM and ectomycorrhizal fungi make the plants drought and frost resistant, increase tolerance to stress against soil temperature, soil toxins, high acidity, and heavy metal toxicity.

VAM and ectomycorrhizal fungi inhibit the infection of pathogens to plant roots. The fungal mantle acts as a passive mechanical barrier influencing either the pathogen or its spread in host tissues.

Conclusion:

The microorganism host interactions are key strategy to colonize and established in variety of different environments. This interaction play an important role in shaping the structure and function of microbial communities. The interaction occurs by transfer of molecular and genetic information and many mechanisms involved in this exchange.

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BREAKING THE SALT BARRIER: EXAMINING GERMINATION, SEEDLING GROWTH, AND BIOCHEMICAL ADAPTATIONS IN *ORYZA SATIVA* CULTIVARS

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Abstract:

Salinity is a significant abiotic stress affecting rice, and it is projected to impact 50% of irrigated areas by 2050. This study evaluates the impact of salt stress on rice seed germination and growth across 10 rice genotypes. Results show that increased salt stress reduced germination initiation, percentage, growth, and seedling vigor compared to non-stressed controls. Among the genotypes, Manuratna and Sreyas were identified as potentially salt-tolerant, while the others were salt-sensitive. The study provides insights into salt tolerance during germination, laying the groundwork for future research on improving salt tolerance in rice.

Keywords: Abiotic Stress, Soil salinity, Salt stress, Salt tolerance, Rice productivity, Crop yield loss

Introduction:

Abiotic stresses such as drought, salinity, temperature extremes, nutrient deficiencies, and toxicity are significant challenges to agriculture, impacting plant growth and productivity. These stressors often occur in combination, collectively referred to as abiotic stress (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2005). Among these, salinity stress is particularly widespread and harmful, affecting a large portion of the world's agricultural lands. Soil salinity severely reduces crop yield and quality, with sensitive crops like rice being especially vulnerable (Shelden & Roessner, 2013). Over 50% of crop yield losses are attributed to abiotic stress, with salinity affecting more than one-third of irrigated lands globally (Zhao *et al.*, 2020).

Salinity is especially problematic in dry and semi-arid regions where soluble salts, particularly sodium chloride (NaCl), accumulate in the root zone, reducing plant water uptake. Salinity stress impacts plant growth through osmotic stress and ionic toxicity.

Osmotic stress lowers water availability by reducing the water potential in the soil, while ionic toxicity occurs when excessive Na⁺ and Cl⁻ ions accumulate in plant tissues, disrupting metabolic processes (Zhao *et al.*, 2020). These factors interfere with physiological processes such as photosynthesis and produce reactive oxygen species (ROS), leading to oxidative damage in plant cells (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2005). In response to salinity, plants employ several strategies to mitigate stress, including regulating ion transport, synthesizing compatible solutes, and activating antioxidant systems (Rodríguez *et al.*, 2005). Despite these mechanisms, many crops, including rice, remain highly sensitive to salt stress, leading to reduced growth, impaired reproductive development, and, in extreme cases, plant death (Tuteja *et al.*, 2013).

Rice (*Oryza sativa*) is a staple crop for over half the world's population, particularly in Asia, where it is widely cultivated (Hussain *et al.*, 2017). However, rice is highly susceptible to salt stress, especially during the early growth stages, such as germination and seedling establishment (Gregorio, 1997). Salinity negatively affects several physiological aspects of rice, including germination rates, root and shoot development, and overall yield potential (Munns & Tester, 2008). Under salt stress, rice plants experience reduced chlorophyll content, impaired photosynthetic activity, and altered nutrient uptake (Djanaguiraman & Ramadass, 2004). The extent of salinity's impact on rice also depends on the developmental stage of the plant and the duration of exposure (Bundo *et al.*, 2022). Therefore, understanding how different rice genotypes respond to salt stress, especially at the germination stage, is crucial for identifying salt-tolerant varieties and enhancing crop performance under saline conditions (Sabouri & Biabani, 2009).

Numerous studies have explored the physiological and biochemical mechanisms of salt tolerance in rice. Salinity stress hinders seed germination and growth by limiting nutrient availability, damaging cellular membranes, and inducing oxidative stress (Liu *et al.*, 2018; Quintero *et al.*, 2007). However, rice genotypes vary in their response to salt stress, with some showing greater tolerance, especially during germination and seedling stages (Bundo *et al.*, 2022). Identifying salt-tolerant varieties is crucial for sustainable rice production in saline regions and ensuring global food security.

The primary aim of the present study is to investigate the salt tolerance capacity of selected rice genotypes during their germination stage. Ten rice varieties were chosen randomly to compare salt stress's effects on various paddy cultivars. The rice varieties employed in the study were obtained from the Rice Research Station, Moncompu,

Kerala. This study seeks to evaluate the effects of salinity on seed germination, seedling establishment, and biochemical responses in rice plants. The specific objectives of the study are:

- i. To investigate the salt tolerance capacity of the selected rice genotypes at the germination stage.
- ii. To assess the duration of seed germination onset and success by evaluating germination initiation and germination percentage.
- iii. To examine seedling establishment in successful germinated varieties by investigating growth parameters and seedling vigour.
- iv. To evaluate the biochemical responses of the germinating seedlings by estimating free amino acids and total phenolic content.
- v. To identify the most salt-tolerant varieties by assessing any significant growth variations between the successfully established seedlings subjected to different salt concentrations.

By achieving these objectives, this study aims to provide valuable insights into the mechanisms of salt tolerance in rice and to contribute to the development of salt-tolerant rice varieties for regions affected by soil salinization.

Materials and Methods:

Study Samples:

Seeds of ten randomly chosen rice varieties obtained from the Rice Research Station, Moncompu, Kerala, were selected for the present study. Each seed variety obtained was stored in a polythene zip cover, transported to the laboratory and stored in an airtight container at room temperature until the start of the experiment. The germination experiments and subsequent studies were conducted at the Department of Botany, Marthoma College, Thiruvalla, Kerala during May to July, 2023. The details of the rice varieties are included in Table 1. Sodium chloride (NaCl) solution of different concentrations 50Mm, 100Mm, 150mM, 200mM and 300 mM was used to induce salt stress. Distilled water was used as a control for the experiment.

Table 1: Detailed information about the different varieties of rice used in the present study

Variety No.	Variety Name	Year Of Release	Pedigree	Important Characteristics
Mo.9	Makom	1990	ARC 6650/ Jaya MR to BPH	Tolerant to leaf folder, stem borer, gall midge, sheath blight, sheath rot and brown spot
NA	Manuratna	2018	Developed by reselection in rice variety Harswa.	Tolerant to stem borer, leaf folder, whorl maggot
M.O. 22	Sreyas	2015	Pavithra (MO 13) X Triguna	Resist the primary diseases and pests affecting rice.
M.O.16	Uma	1998	Pavizham X Pokali	Resistant to Brown plant hopper and GM Biotype-5 as well as lodging.
M.O.10	Remya	1990	Jaya X Ptb 33 (HS)	It is moderately resistant to Brown plant hopper, gall midge, sheath blight and sheath rot.
Ptb 39	Jyothi	1974	Ptb-10 X IR-8	Resistant to blast.
M.O.21	Prathyasa	2010	IET 4786 X Aruna (A.O.8)	Resist major pests and diseases of rice.
M.O.4	Bhadra	1978	IR 8 X Ptb 20 (HS)	Highly tolerant to Brown plant hopper
NA	Pournami	2018		Tolerant to high temperature. Resistant to lodging. Moderately resistant to sheath blight, sheath rot, BPH and gall midge.
M.O.6	Pavizham	1985	IR 8 X Karivenal (HS)	Moderately resistant to stack burn and sheath rot and relatively resistant to sheath blight and brown plant hopper.

Germination Experiment: A 180 ml thermocol dish was used for germination trials with rice seeds exposed to varying sodium chloride (NaCl) concentrations: 50mM, 100mM, 150mM, 200mM, and 300mM. Each variety was tested with distilled water as a control. Five rice seeds per variety were placed on moist cotton in each dish for 10 days, kept at room temperature under natural light. NaCl solution (appropriate concentration) was added to each dish, and 5 ml of either salt solution or distilled water was provided twice daily to maintain moisture.

Germination Parameters

- Germination Initiation (GI): The onset of seed germination.
- Germination Percentage (GP): $GP = (\text{Number of germinated seeds} / \text{Total seeds sown}) \times 100$ Hakim *et al.*, (2010)

After assessing germination, further analysis was done on growth parameters such as shoot and root length, measured daily for 10 days.

Growth Parameters

- Seedling length: Five seedlings from each dish were measured for shoot and root length using a ruler (in cm).
- Seedling Vigour Index (SVI): $SVI = \text{Mean germination percentage} \times \text{Mean seedling length}$ (Mahender, 2015).

Statistical Analysis

Statistical tests were performed using R software (version 4.2.3) and graphs were plotted in Microsoft Excel. A Two-Way ANOVA analyzed the mean shoot length across NaCl concentrations and rice varieties, with Tukey HSD test for pairwise comparisons. The same analysis was repeated for root length variation across treatments.

Biochemical Analysis

Amino acid content was estimated following Moore and Stein (1948), and total phenolic content was estimated using the method of Rossie *et al.*, (1965).

Results:

Germination Experiment: Germination Parameters

Germination Initiation (GI): The onset of seed germination in all the different rice varieties under study for corresponding concentrations of NaCl are listed in Table: 2. Only six varieties exhibited germination in control and few concentrations of NaCl. The initiation of germination was faster in control and lower concentrations of NaCl (50 mM) compared to higher concentrations of NaCl. The varieties Jyothi, Mauratna, and Sreyas germinated

faster at control and lower concentrations. Varieties like Remya and Makom had late germination initiation and also did not germinate at higher concentration of NaCl. In general, the germination initiation time spans from Day 3 to Day 6 (Table 2).

Table 2: The germination initiation in different rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl

Name Of Variety	Control	50 Mm	100 Mm	150 Mm	200 Mm	300 Mm
Bhadra	-	-	-	-	-	-
Jyothi	Day 3	Day 3	Day 4	Day 4	Day 6	-
Makom	Day 4	Day 5	Day 6	-	-	-
Manuratna	Day 3	Day 3	Day 4	Day 4	Day 5	-
Pavizham	-	-	-	-	-	-
Pournami	-	-	-	-	-	-
Prathyasa	-	-	-	-	-	-
Remya	Day 5	Day 6	Day 6	-	-	-
Sreyas	Day 3	Day 4	Day 4	Day 4	Day 6	-
Uma	Day 4	Day 4	Day 4	Day 4	-	-

Germination Percentage (GP): Seed germination percentage was high (> 80%) in control and for concentrations of 50 mM, 100mM and 150 mM NaCl for four rice varieties namely Jyothi, Manuratna , Sreyas and Uma (**Table 3**).

Table 3: Percentage of seed germination in successful rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl

	Jyothi	Makom	Manuratna	Remya	Sreyas	Uma
Control	100	60	100	60	100	100
50	100	40	100	40	100	100
100	100	40	100	40	80	100
150	100	0	100	0	100	80
200	60	0	60	0	40	60
300	0	0	0	0	0	0

Germination Experiment: Growth Parameters

The successful rice varieties exhibited significant shoot and root growth in both the control and experimental groups between the 8th and 10th day (Figure 1).

Shoot Length: The highest shoot growth was observed in distilled water (control) on the 10th day (Figure 2). Increasing salinity levels reduced shoot growth across all six rice varieties. At 50 mM NaCl, shoot growth began on Day 4 and continued up to Day 8 for all varieties. At 100 mM NaCl, only Remya and Makom varieties showed slight shoot growth, while the other varieties failed to grow at this concentration.

Root Length: Maximum root growth occurred in distilled water (control) on Day 10 (Figure 3). Higher salinity concentrations reduced root growth in all six varieties. At 50 mM NaCl, root growth started on Day 4 but declined by Day 10 in varieties Jyothi, Manuratna, and Uma. Remya and Makom did not show any root growth even at 50 mM NaCl. No varieties displayed significant root growth at higher NaCl concentrations.

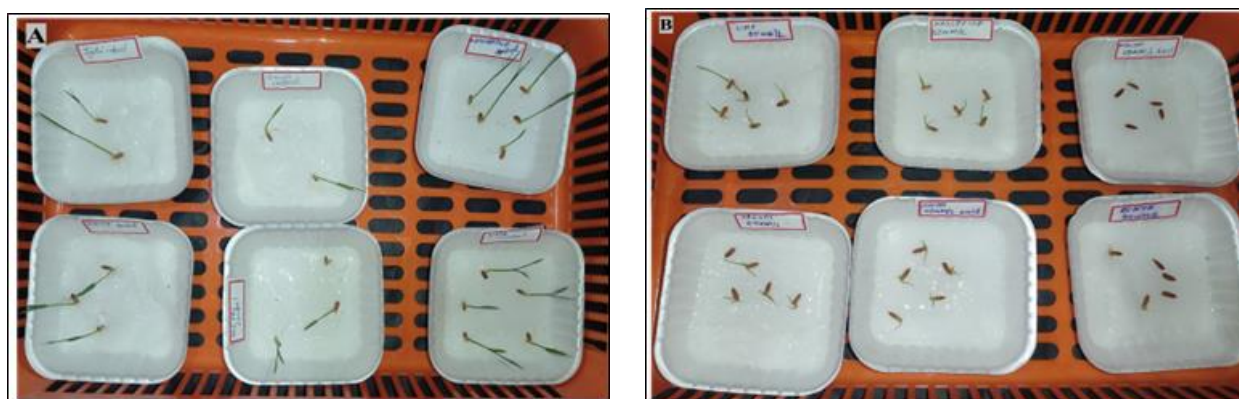


Figure 1: Photo plates depicting the seedling growth and establishment in A) Control, B) saline treatments of six successful rice varieties

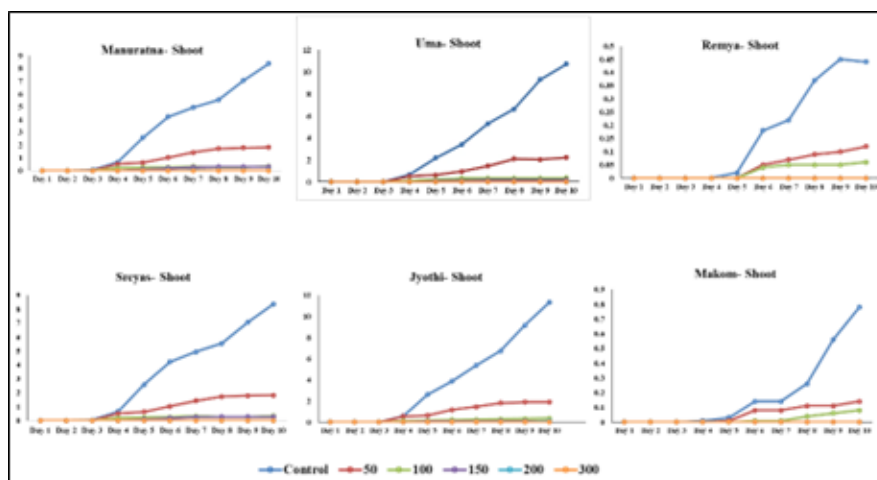


Figure 2: Graphs showing the overall shoot growth pattern in six rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl during the period of germination experiment

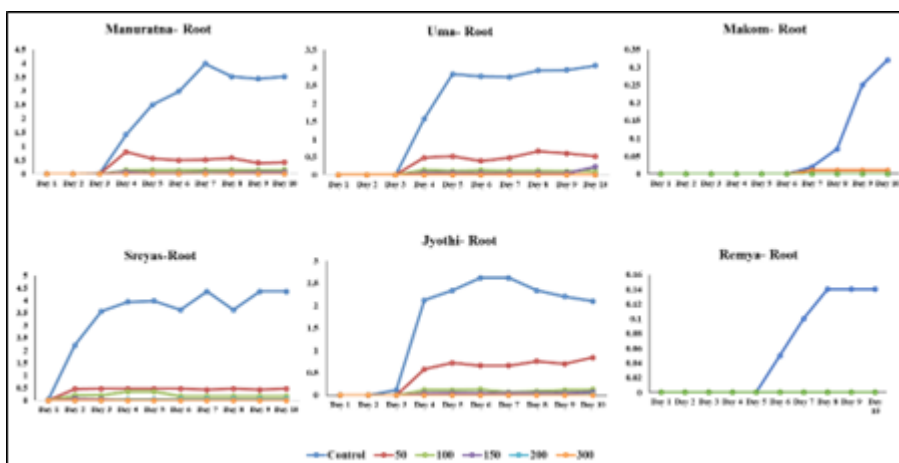


Figure 3: Graphs showing the overall shoot growth pattern in six rice varieties at different concentrations of NaCl during the period of the germination experiment
Variation in Shoot length and Root length

Analysis of mean shoot and root lengths for each rice variety under control and NaCl treatments, followed by Two-Way ANOVA, revealed significantly greater growth in the control group compared to saline treatments ($P < 0.05$) (Table 4; Fig. 4, Table 5; Fig. 4).

Table 4: Summary of Two-Way Anova result depicting significant difference between rice varieties and their corresponding NaCl interactions in seedling shoot growth

Factors	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	P Value	Significance
Rice Varieties	1	2.127	2.127	3.179	0.03406	*
NaCl Concentrations	1	16.126	16.126	24.105	0.00023	***
Rice Varieties: NaCl Concentrations	1	6.939	6.939	10.372	0.00293	**
Residuals	32	21.408	0.669			

Note: Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Table 5: Summary of Two-Way Anova result depicting significant difference between rice varieties and their corresponding NaCl interactions in seedling root growth

Factors	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	P Value	Significance
Rice Varieties	1	6.212	6.212	21.606	0.00061	***
NaCl Concentrations	1	1.493	1.493	5.191	0.02952	*
Rice Varieties: NaCl Concentrations	1	2.593	2.593	9.017	0.00516	**
Residuals	32	9.201	0.288			

Note: Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05

Among saline treatments, lower NaCl concentration (50mM) supported higher shoot and root growth compared to higher NaCl concentrations. This trend was consistent across all rice varieties. Pairwise comparison using Tukey HSD indicated that varieties like Manuratna and Jyothi showed significantly better seedling growth in both control and lower saline concentrations compared to other varieties.

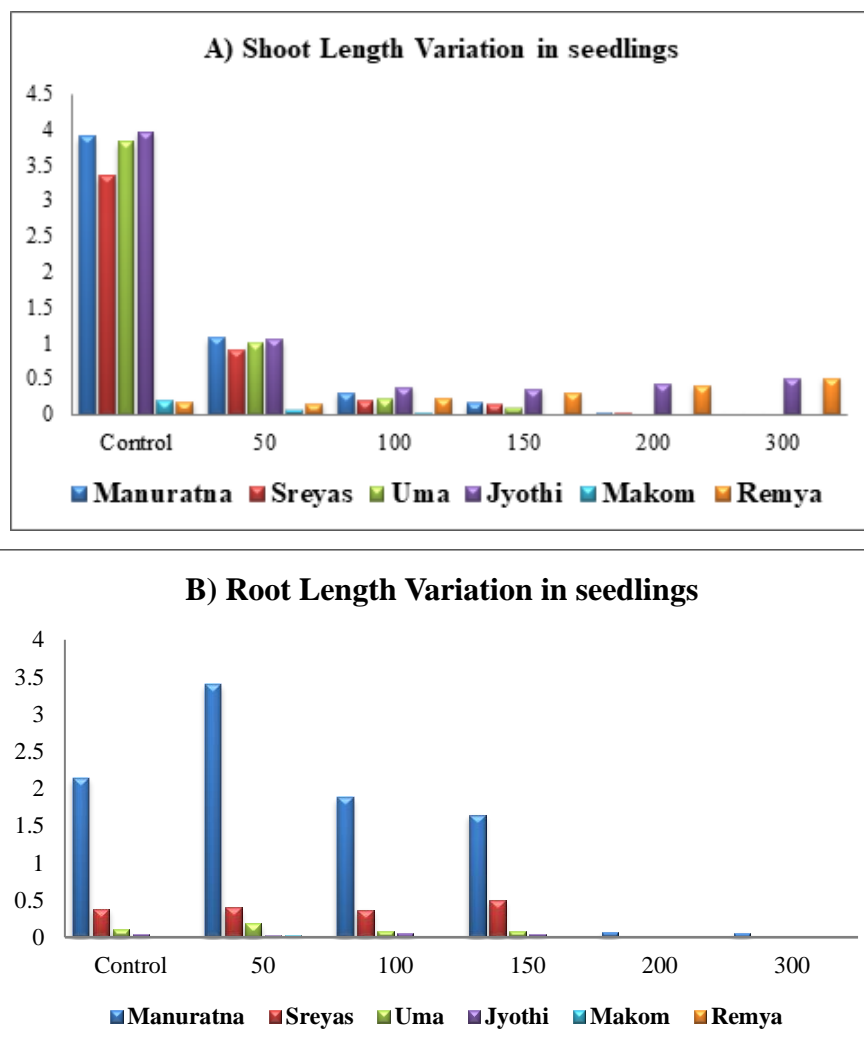


Figure 4: Graphs representing the variation in seedling growth parameters A) Shoot length and B) Root length in different rice varieties at different NaCl concentrations

Seedling Vigour Index (SVI)

Seedling Vigour Index was highest for seeds grown in distilled water followed by seedlings grown in lower concentrations of NaCl. The rice varieties Manuratna, Jyothi, Um.a and Sreyas exhibited high seedling vigour Index compared to Makom and Remya (Table 6).

Table 6: Seedling Vigour Index of seedlings of rice varieties

Rice variety	Control	50 mM	100 mM	150 mM	200 mM	300 mM
Manuratna	389.9	107.3	30.3	0.596547	0.020387	0
Sreyas	334.1	89	18.7	0.454376	0.00534	0
Uma	382.4	99.4	21	0.298272	0	0
Jyothi	396.7	104.5	37	1.392417	0.44308	0.185
Makom	11.52	3.18	1.2	0	0	0
Remya	10.08	8.58	13.5	0.0504	0.0572	0.1125

Estimation of Amino Acids

Estimation of the free amino acids exhibited similar absorbance pattern in all successful rice varieties with control being the highest (Table 7; Figure 5)

Table 7: OD values taken at 570 nm for free amino acid estimation on six germinated rice varieties for different concentrations of NaCl (mM).

Rice Variety	Control	50 mM	100 mM	150 mM	200 mM
Manuratna	0.05	0.05	0.12	0.08	0.13
Sreyas	0.05	0.09	0.06	0.07	0.07
Uma	0.02	0.03	0.06	0.03	0.06
Remya	0.1	0.09	0.02	0.08	0.09
Makom	0.08	0.1	0.04	0.07	0.11
Jyothi	0.03	0.06	0.17	0.07	0.13

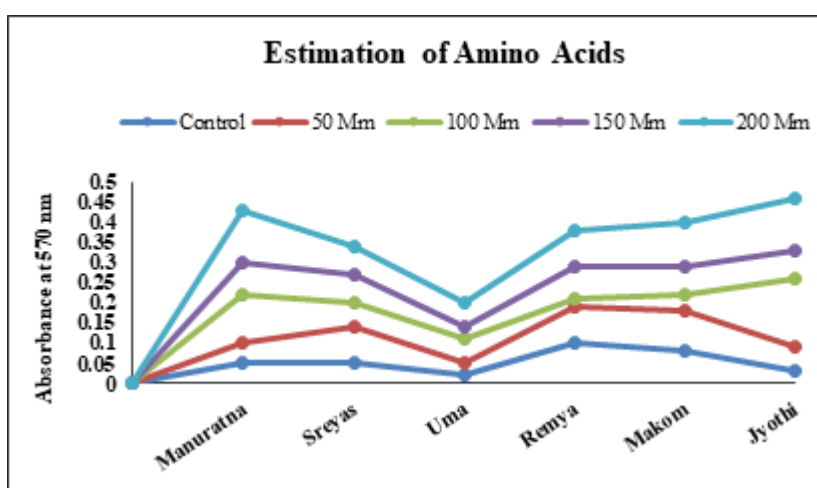


Figure 5: A 2D stalked line graph representing the pattern of absorbance of each successful rice variety at 570 nm for different concentrations of NaCl

Estimation of total phenolics

Estimation of the total phenolics also exhibited similar absorbance pattern in all successful rice varieties with control being the highest (Table 8; Figure 6)

Table 8: OD values taken at 700 nm for total phenolic estimation on six germinated rice varieties for different concentrations of NaCl (mM).

Rice Variety	Control	50 mM	100 mM	150 mM	200 mM
Manuratna	0.63	0.26	0.18	0.2	0.23
Sreyas	0.36	0.45	0.12	0.49	0.11
Uma	0.16	0.51	0.45	0.41	0.38
Remya	0.15	0.24	0.2	0.12	0.26
Makom	0.32	0.16	0.12	0.14	0.24
Jyothi	0.26	0.35	0.32	0.31	0.23

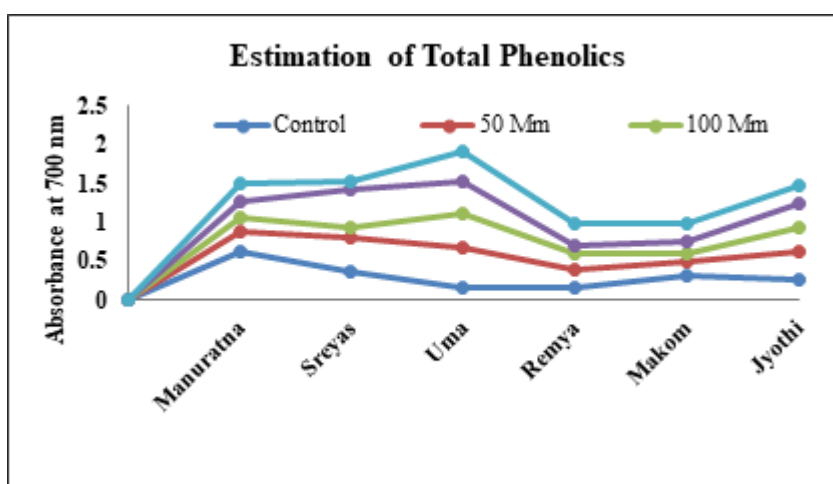


Figure 6: A 2D stalked line graph representing the pattern of absorbance of each successful rice variety at 570 nm for different concentrations of NaCl.

Discussion:

Seed germination is a crucial stage in the plant life cycle, and salinity can significantly hinder this process (Kuriakose *et al.*, 2007). As salt concentrations increase, germination rates decline (Dkhil *et al.*, 2010; Siddiqi *et al.*, 2007). In this study, salt stress delayed germination, with seeds in saline solutions taking longer to sprout than the control. This delay may be due to ion toxicity (Huang & Redmann, 1995) and reduced seed viability at higher salt concentrations (Gloulam & Fares, 2001). Additionally, salinity reduced water absorption during seed imbibition (Hadas, 1977), and elevated salt levels (e.g., 150 mM) impaired both germination and seedling survival (Alam *et al.*, 2004; Zing *et*

al., 2000). Osmotic stress, ion toxicity, and nutrient deficiencies likely contributed to the delayed germination observed (Huang & Redmann, 1995; Jamil *et al.*, 2007).

Significant variations in germination and seedling development were observed among rice varieties under saline stress. Varieties like Jyothi, Manuratna, Sreyas, and Uma performed better under lower salt concentrations, while Remya and Makom showed moderate germination. Other varieties failed to germinate (Almodares *et al.*, 2007). Salinity affects water uptake by increasing osmotic potential (Benidire *et al.*, 2015), and Na⁺ accumulation exacerbates osmotic stress, disrupting water uptake and enzymatic activities (Partheeban *et al.*, 2017). Jyothi, Manuratna, Sreyas, and Uma exhibited higher germination percentages and seedling vigor across saline treatments. Salinity had a more pronounced effect on root length than shoot length, likely due to NaCl's stronger inhibitory effects on roots (Calabrese, 2013). Manuratna and Sreyas emerged as salt-tolerant varieties, with genetic factors influencing the observed responses (Shi *et al.*, 2017).

Conclusion:

This study reveals significant variation in germination and seedling growth across rice genotypes under salt stress. As salinity increased, all growth parameters, including germination initiation and seedling vigor, declined compared to controls. Identifying salt-tolerant varieties, like Manuratna and Sreyas, is crucial for cultivating rice in saline-prone areas and for breeding programs aimed at enhancing salt tolerance. The study highlights the need for further research on salt tolerance, particularly during the germination stage, to improve mitigation strategies.

Acknowledgment:

Author thank the staff and faculty of the Department of Botany, Mar Thoma College, Tiruvalla, Kerala, for providing the necessary resources, and academic support throughout this work.

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NATURAL SOLUTIONS TO PEST PROBLEMS: THE ROLE OF BIOLOGICAL CONTROL IN MODERN AND TRADITIONAL AGRICULTURE

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Introduction:

Biological control refers to the strategic use of natural enemies—such as predators, parasitoids, and pathogens—to manage pest populations in agricultural and horticultural systems. This approach leverages the natural ecological relationships that exist between organisms to effectively suppress pest populations, offering a sustainable alternative to chemical pesticides. Biological control methods contribute to pest management by promoting the health and balance of ecosystems while minimizing negative impacts on non-target species and the environment.

The historical roots of biological control stretch back to ancient agricultural practices where farmers instinctively recognized the importance of natural enemies in pest management. However, the formal study and implementation of biological control as a scientific discipline began in the late 19th century, catalyzed by a growing understanding of ecology and entomology.

Historical Overview of Biological Control

The historical development of biological control is characterized by key milestones that have shaped its evolution into a critical component of modern pest management.

Early Developments

Initial Observations:

Farmers in ancient civilizations recognized beneficial organisms that could reduce pest populations. For example, in ancient Egypt, the use of ants to control crop pests was observed, and in China, certain bird species were welcomed in rice paddies for their pest-eating habits.

Formalization in the 19th Century:

The formal study of biological control began in the late 1800s, primarily with the work of Albert Koebele, who is credited with one of the first documented instances of biological control in 1888. He introduced *Novius cardinalis*, a predatory beetle, into

California citrus orchards to control the cottony cushion scale (*Icerya purchasi*). This marked a significant breakthrough, demonstrating the practical application of biological control.

Expansion of Research:

Following Koebele's success, interest in biological control grew, leading to systematic research on natural enemies and their potential for pest management. Early studies in the United States and Europe established foundational knowledge about the life cycles and behaviors of various beneficial insects.

Expansion in the 20th Century

Establishment of Organizations:

The formation of the **International Organization for Biological Control (IOBC)** in 1948 provided a formal framework for collaboration among researchers globally. This organization aimed to promote the science and practice of biological control through research, information dissemination, and educational initiatives.

Research Developments:

The early 20th century saw significant advancements in entomology, leading to improved methods for identifying and deploying biological control agents. Researchers began exploring the dynamics of predator-prey relationships and the factors influencing the success of biological control interventions.

Government Support and Programs:

Various governments established programs and funding for biological control research, recognizing its potential to reduce agricultural losses from pests while minimizing reliance on synthetic pesticides.

Modern Biological Control

Post-World War II Era:

The post-World War II period saw the widespread adoption of chemical pesticides, which largely supplanted biological control methods. However, the detrimental environmental effects, human health concerns, and the emergence of pesticide-resistant pest populations led to a resurgence of interest in biological control methods.

Revival of Interest:

The late 20th century marked a significant shift back to biological control as scientists, farmers, and policymakers began to understand the value of sustainable

practices. This period saw increased awareness of the ecological impacts of pesticides and the benefits of maintaining biodiversity.

Advancements in Technology:

The advent of molecular biology and genetic engineering has transformed the field of biological control. Techniques such as gene editing and genomic sequencing have facilitated the development of targeted biological control agents that can more effectively manage specific pest species while minimizing impacts on non-target organisms.

Biological Control in India

India has a rich agricultural heritage that has incorporated elements of biological control for centuries, although these practices were often based on indigenous knowledge rather than formal scientific frameworks.

Traditional Practices

Indigenous Knowledge:

Farmers in India have long recognized the value of natural enemies in managing pests. For example, certain species of birds are known to feed on insects in rice paddies, providing an early form of pest control. Similarly, the use of beneficial insects, such as ladybird beetles, has been common in traditional farming practices.

Scientific Exploration

Modern Research Initiatives:

The systematic study of biological control in India began in the mid-20th century. The establishment of the **Indian Council of Agricultural Research (ICAR)** in 1929 marked a pivotal point in organized agricultural research. ICAR has since facilitated extensive research on pest management, including biological control.

Key Research Institutions:

Institutions dedicated to entomological research have played crucial roles in developing biological control methods. The **National Bureau of Agricultural Insect Resources (NBAIR)**, established in 2000, focuses on research, development, and implementation of biological control agents. NBAIR's initiatives include the identification and mass rearing of beneficial insects and pathogens for pest control.

Significant Achievements

Success Stories:

In the 1960s, the introduction of the larval parasitoid *Apanteles liriomyzae* for the control of leaf miners in vegetable crops marked a significant achievement in Indian

biological control efforts. This successful introduction demonstrated the effectiveness of parasitoids in managing agricultural pests.

Development of Biopesticides:

India has also made considerable strides in the development of biopesticides derived from natural sources. The production and use of bio-pesticides have increased, particularly in organic farming systems, contributing to sustainable agricultural practices.

CURRENT TRENDS

Focus on Sustainability:

Today, India emphasizes sustainable agricultural practices, with the government promoting the use of biological control as part of integrated pest management strategies. Training programs for farmers are conducted to raise awareness about the benefits and applications of biological control.

Adoption of Innovative Approaches:

Recent trends indicate a growing adoption of innovative biological control methods, including the use of molecular techniques to enhance the efficacy of biological control agents and improve the resilience of crops to pests.

Principles of Biological Control

The successful implementation of biological control relies on several fundamental principles that guide its application in pest management strategies:

Natural Enemy Utilization:

This principle involves leveraging existing natural enemies, such as predators, parasitoids, and pathogens, to control pest populations without human intervention.

Significance: Promoting biodiversity and conserving natural ecosystems is essential for maintaining effective pest control.

Example: Encouraging the presence of native predatory beetles in agroecosystems to naturally manage pest populations.

Target Specificity:

Biological control agents are often highly specific to their target pests, significantly reducing the risk of non-target effects on beneficial organisms.

Significance: Selecting agents that minimally impact non-target species is critical for ecological balance.

Example: Using *Aphidius colemani* specifically against aphids without harming beneficial insects like ladybirds.

Pest Population Dynamics:

Understanding the life cycles, reproductive rates, and interactions between pests and their natural enemies is essential for effective management.

Significance: Implementing biological control strategies based on pest population dynamics can lead to more sustainable control.

Example: Timing the release of *Trichogramma* wasps to coincide with the egg-laying period of lepidopteran pests maximizes control effectiveness.

Ecological Balance:

Promoting a balanced ecosystem where natural enemies can thrive and manage pest populations effectively is vital.

Significance: Focus on maintaining and enhancing ecological health within agroecosystems supports beneficial organisms.

Example: Establishing hedgerows or cover crops that provide habitats for beneficial insects and promote soil health.

Integrated Pest Management (IPM):

The integration of biological control with other pest management strategies, such as cultural, mechanical, and chemical controls, is essential for comprehensive pest management.

Significance: An IPM approach reduces reliance on any single method, leading to more sustainable and effective pest management.

Example: Combining the release of predatory mites with proper irrigation and crop rotation practices to manage spider mite populations in strawberries.

Adaptive Management:

Continuous monitoring and evaluation of pest management strategies allow for adjustments based on effectiveness and environmental changes.

Significance: Flexibility in management practices based on real-time data ensures the most effective use of biological control agents.

Example: Adjusting the release rates of biological control agents based on ongoing assessments of pest populations and environmental conditions.

Advancements in Biological Control: A Comprehensive Overview

Biological control is a sustainable approach to managing pest populations using natural enemies, including microorganisms (bacteria, fungi, viruses, rickettsia, and nematodes), parasitoids, and predators. Recent advancements in biological control have

focused on improving the efficacy, delivery, and integration of these agents into modern agricultural practices. Below is a comprehensive overview of these advancements, along with suitable examples.

1. Microbial Control

Microbial control agents include bacteria, fungi, viruses, rickettsia, and nematodes, all of which are utilized to target pest species effectively.

A. Bacteria

1. *Bacillus thuringiensis* (Bt):

❖ **Advancement:** Genetically engineered crops (e.g., Bt corn and Bt cotton) have been developed to express specific Cry proteins that target insect pests.

❖ **Example:** Bt crops are effective against lepidopteran pests like the **European corn borer (*Ostrinia nubilalis*)**, leading to significant reductions in pest populations and decreased reliance on chemical insecticides.

2. *Bacillus sphaericus*:

❖ **Advancement:** Formulations have been improved for targeting mosquito larvae, enhancing effectiveness in various aquatic environments.

❖ **Example:** Used in larviciding programs to control ***Culex quinquefasciatus***, helping manage mosquito populations in urban settings.

3. *Serratia entomophila*:

❖ **Advancement:** Research has focused on optimizing mass production and application methods to ensure effective field deployment.

❖ **Example:** This bacterium is utilized to control grass grubs (*Costelytra zealandica*) in pastureland, effectively reducing pest populations without harming beneficial organisms.

B. Fungi

1. *Beauveria bassiana*:

❖ **Advancement:** Enhanced formulations using nano-encapsulation technology have improved the stability and application of this fungus in various climates.

❖ **Example:** Commercial products based on *B. bassiana* are used to control **whiteflies (*Bemisia tabaci*)** and **aphids** in vegetable crops, significantly reducing pest populations.

2. ***Metarhizium anisopliae*:**

- ❖ **Advancement:** Advances in biopesticide formulations have allowed for better integration with conventional chemical pest control methods.
- ❖ **Example:** This fungus is effective against soil-dwelling pests like the **honey locust borer (*Podosesia syringae*)**, providing a natural alternative to chemical insecticides.

3. ***Trichoderma spp.*:**

- ❖ **Advancement:** Research has shown that these fungi can enhance plant resistance to pests through induced systemic resistance.
- ❖ **Example:** Used as a soil amendment in crops like tomatoes, *Trichoderma* helps suppress root pathogens and indirectly controls pest populations by promoting plant health.

C. Viruses

1. **Nucleopolyhedrovirus (NPV):**

- ❖ **Advancement:** Genetic modification of NPVs has enhanced their virulence and host specificity, allowing for targeted pest control.
- ❖ **Example:** **Helicoverpa armigera NPV (HaNPV)** is used against the cotton bollworm, demonstrating high efficacy in cotton and vegetable crops.

2. **Granulovirus:**

- ❖ **Advancement:** Development of multi-target formulations increases the effectiveness of granuloviruses against various pests.
- ❖ **Example:** **Madex®**, a commercial product for controlling codling moths (*Cydia pomonella*) in apple orchards, showcases the effectiveness of granulovirus in integrated pest management.

D. Rickettsia

1. **Rickettsial Control:**

- ❖ **Advancement:** Research is exploring the potential of rickettsia to manipulate host insect populations through reproductive control mechanisms.
- ❖ **Example:** The use of *Wolbachia* (a type of rickettsia) to induce sterility in mosquitoes is being studied as a means to control populations of disease vectors such as *Aedes aegypti*, the carrier of dengue and Zika viruses.

E. Nematodes

1. *Steinernema carpocapsae*:

- ❖ **Advancement:** Improved delivery systems, such as soil injection and baiting techniques, enhance the effectiveness of these nematodes in controlling soil-dwelling pests.
- ❖ **Example:** *S. carpocapsae* is used against cutworms in various crops, providing effective control with minimal environmental impact.

2. *Heterorhabditis bacteriophora*:

- ❖ **Advancement:** Research into cryopreservation techniques allows for long-term storage and enhanced application timing.
- ❖ **Example:** This nematode effectively targets white grubs and root weevils, reducing their populations in turf and ornamental plants.

2. Parasitoids

Parasitoids are insects that lay their eggs on or in a host insect, leading to the host's eventual death. Recent advancements in the use of parasitoids focus on improving mass rearing, understanding host-parasitoid dynamics, and integrating them into IPM strategies.

1. *Trichogramma spp.* (Egg Parasitoids):

- ❖ **Advancement:** The development of automated mass-rearing systems has increased the availability and efficiency of *Trichogramma* releases in agricultural fields.
- ❖ **Example:** *Trichogramma* wasps are released in corn fields to control the European corn borer, leading to significant reductions in pest populations.

2. *Aphidius colemani* (Aphid Parasitoid):

- ❖ **Advancement:** Studies on the life history and behavioral ecology of *A. colemani* have optimized release strategies for enhanced efficacy in controlling aphids.
- ❖ **Example:** Used in greenhouse crops like cucumbers and peppers to manage aphid populations, demonstrating significant improvements in crop health.

3. *Cotesia glomerata* (Larval Parasitoid):

- ❖ **Advancement:** Research has focused on improving the establishment and spread of *Cotesia* in pest populations through targeted releases.

❖ **Example:** Effective against the cabbage looper, this parasitoid contributes to the biological control of pest outbreaks in brassica crops.

4. ***Encarsia formosa*** (Whitefly Parasitoid):

❖ **Advancement:** Enhanced mass-rearing techniques and improved release strategies have led to increased success in managing whiteflies.

❖ **Example:** *Encarsia* is widely used in greenhouse crops, significantly reducing whitefly populations and promoting healthy plant growth.

3. Predators

Predators actively hunt and consume pests, and their role in biological control has seen significant advancements in recent years.

1. **Ladybird Beetles (*Coccinellidae*):**

❖ **Advancement:** Improved understanding of ladybird beetle behavior has led to better habitat management practices that support their populations.

❖ **Example:** In apple orchards, the release of ladybird beetles has shown remarkable success in controlling aphid populations, resulting in healthier trees and improved fruit quality.

2. **Lacewings (*Chrysoperla carnea*):**

❖ **Advancement:** Mass-rearing techniques have been optimized for lacewings, allowing for more efficient releases in crop systems.

❖ **Example:** Lacewing larvae are released in greenhouses to control aphids and thrips, significantly reducing pest numbers and improving crop yields.

3. **Predatory Mites (*Phytoseiulus persimilis*):**

❖ **Advancement:** Advances in the understanding of predatory mite biology have led to improved mass-rearing and field application methods.

❖ **Example:** Used in strawberry and cucumber crops, predatory mites effectively control spider mite populations, contributing to sustainable pest management strategies.

4. **Spiders:**

❖ **Advancement:** Research into spider diversity and their roles in pest control has highlighted the importance of maintaining habitats that support spider populations.

- ❖ **Example:** Studies show that spider populations in cornfields significantly reduce aphid and caterpillar numbers, providing an ecological pest management solution.

Future Prospects of Biological Control

Despite these challenges, the future of biological control remains promising, with several advancements and opportunities on the horizon that can enhance its adoption and effectiveness.

1. Climate-Resilient Strains and Adaptation

Prospect: As climate change alters agricultural ecosystems, there is increasing research focused on developing climate-resilient strains of biological control agents. This includes enhancing the tolerance of bioagents to extreme temperatures, drought, and fluctuating environmental conditions.

Example: Developing heat-tolerant strains of entomopathogenic fungi like *Beauveria bassiana* and *Metarhizium anisopliae* could help maintain their efficacy in hotter climates, allowing for more consistent pest control in regions prone to high temperatures.

2. Advancements in Genetic Engineering

Prospect: Recent advancements in genetic engineering, such as CRISPR technology, present opportunities to enhance the efficacy, host specificity, and resilience of biological control agents. Genetic modification could be used to improve the virulence of microbial agents, increase the reproductive capacity of predators, or reduce the risk of resistance development in pests.

Example: Researchers are exploring the use of CRISPR technology to enhance the virulence of nucleopolyhedroviruses (NPVs) or to create genetically modified parasitoids that have better host-finding abilities.

3. Integration with Precision Agriculture

Prospect: The rise of precision agriculture and smart farming technologies can significantly improve the application and monitoring of biological control agents. Internet of Things (IoT) devices, sensors, and drones can be used to monitor pest populations in real-time and optimize the release of bioagents at the right time and place.

Example: Drones equipped with sensor technology can release biological control agents like *Trichogramma* wasps or predatory mites precisely where pest populations are highest, ensuring more targeted and efficient pest control.

4. Development of Microbial Consortia

Prospect: The use of microbial consortia—combinations of different microbial species or strains—can provide synergistic effects that enhance pest control. These consortia can target multiple pests or provide better resilience to environmental stresses.

Example: Combining entomopathogenic bacteria like *Bacillus thuringiensis* with fungi like *Beauveria bassiana* may provide broader protection against multiple pest species and lead to more consistent performance under varying conditions.

5. Increased Focus on Conservation Biological Control

Prospect: Conservation biological control, which focuses on enhancing and protecting natural enemies already present in the ecosystem, is gaining more attention. This involves modifying habitats, planting cover crops, and reducing pesticide use to support beneficial organisms.

Example: Implementing hedgerows, wildflower strips, and insectary plants can provide habitats for natural enemies like predatory beetles, spiders, and parasitoid wasps, reducing pest pressure over time.

6. Policy Support and Government Initiatives

Prospect: Governments around the world are increasingly recognizing the importance of sustainable agriculture, and many are promoting policies that encourage the use of biological control. This includes financial incentives for farmers to adopt biological control methods, as well as funding for research and development in biological pest control.

Example: The Indian government has introduced various initiatives to promote biological control and IPM strategies, offering training programs, subsidies for biopesticides, and technical support to farmers.

7. Public Awareness and Education

Prospect: Increased public awareness of the environmental and health risks associated with chemical pesticides is driving greater demand for organic and sustainably grown crops. This shift presents an opportunity to expand the use of biological control agents in organic farming and consumer-driven agricultural practices.

Example: Public education campaigns, certification programs for organic products, and the promotion of eco-friendly farming practices are likely to boost the demand for biological control agents.

8. Rapid Development and Registration of Biopesticides

Prospect: With more research focused on identifying new microbial strains and refining the production of biological control agents, there is potential for quicker development and registration of new biopesticides. Innovations in formulation and delivery will also ensure that these agents are more practical and accessible to farmers.

Example: New regulatory frameworks that streamline the approval process for bioagents and reduce barriers to commercialization will allow farmers faster access to biological control solutions.

Conclusion:

The biological control of insect pests has evolved from traditional practices to a sophisticated scientific discipline that integrates ecological principles with modern technological advancements. The historical journey of biological control, both globally and in India, highlights its significance as a sustainable solution to pest problems in agriculture. As we face increasing challenges from pests, diseases, and environmental changes, the importance of biological control in integrated pest management strategies cannot be overstated. By harnessing the power of natural enemies and embracing sustainable practices, agriculture can effectively manage pest populations while promoting ecological balance and food security for future generations. Continued research, innovation, and investment in biological control will be essential for adapting to emerging pest threats and ensuring resilient agricultural systems worldwide.

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RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN WEATHER VARIABLES AND POPULATION DYNAMICS OF MUSTARD APHID: A CASE STUDY

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Abstract:

The production of rapeseed-mustard is largely dependent on the mustard aphid, *Lipaphis erysimi* (Kalt.). This insect alone causes 30–70% losses in production potential across different agroclimatic zones, with a mean loss of 54.2% in India. Its population dynamics are influenced by various environmental factors, especially weather variables. The aphid infestation is maximum towards the end of December. The Mustard aphid, also known as *Lipaphis erysimi* Kalt, can attack the crop from the seedling stage to maturity, causing significant damage during the reproductive stage and thereby reducing the crop yield. Moreover, aphid emergence and population growth were found to be temperature-dependent, with warm, humid areas requiring less time to reach peak population. Aphids typically occur between 810 and 847 hours of cumulative thermal time, and the diurnal temperature range play a significant influence in the accumulation of pests.

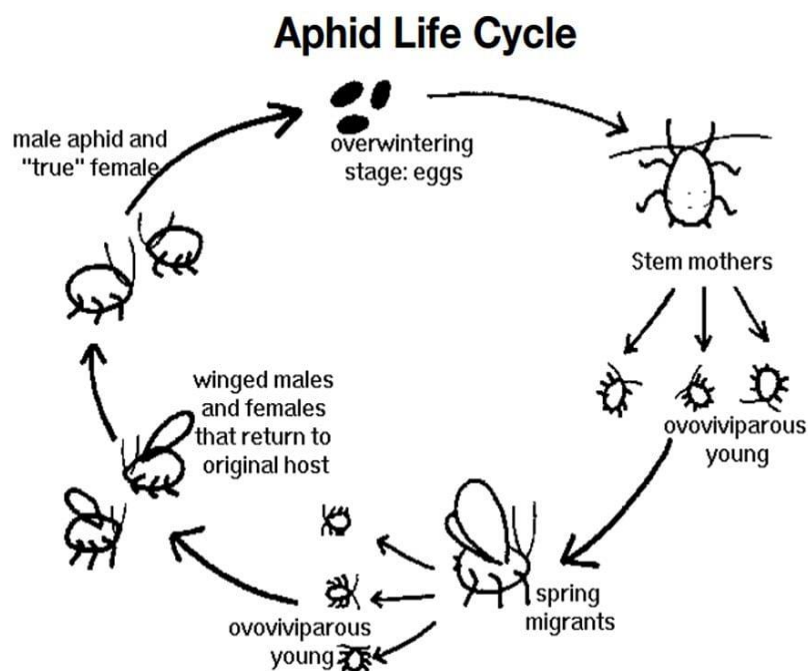
Keywords: Agroclimatic zones, Environmental factors, Infestation, Population dynamics,

Introduction:

Mustard or Brassica sp. is a significant oilseed crop and serves as a primary source of edible oil in India. The crop is partially self-pollinating, and its pollination primarily occurs through wind, gravity, and insects. It is indigenous to Western Europe, the Mediterranean, and temperate regions in Asia. Due to the demand for oilseed surpassing supplies, the unsatisfactory production trend is attributed to insect-pest attacks (Rai, 1976). However, mustard is susceptible to infestation by various insect pests. The mustard

aphid, *Lipaphis erysimi*, is a significant pest of cruciferous crops, notably mustard and canola. Its population dynamics are influenced by various biotic and abiotic factors, with weather variables playing a critical role (Mishra and Mukherjee, 2020). *Lipaphis erysimi* Kalt is a member of the Aphididae family and is commonly referred to as mustard aphid or turnip aphid. *Lipaphis erysimi* Kalt is only found in female form and does not have wings. However, during migration periods, winged mustard aphids can also be observed. The mustard aphid is typically pale green or whitish green in color and can produce up to one hundred offspring during its short lifespan of few weeks. The length of the insect can range from 1.4 mm to 2.4 mm. Occasionally, wingless males with an olive green to brown color can be observed. It is observed that infestation by the mustard aphid not only leads to reduced seed yields but also decreases the oil content by up to 66.87%. (Singhvi *et.al.*, 1973). The population of mustard aphid increase during a specific minimum temperature range of 9.7 °C to 14.8 °C. However, there is no further increase in the aphid population beyond this range. The highest mean aphid population is observed at 07:00hr (morning) when the relative humidity was 100, and followed by 14:00hr (afternoon), with a relative humidity of 100% and 71.7% respectively. However, the peak average aphid population occurred when the humidity was 99.1 at 0700 hr. and 90.4 at 1400 hr. (Mishra and Mukherjee, 2019). Aphid that is yellow in colour, mainly feeds on mustard plants.

Life Cycle of Mustard Aphid



Source: <https://www.seedsman.com>

On a mustard plant, as generations pass, newly born nymphs take longer to mature into adults, and the adults generate fewer and fewer offspring. Aphids produce nymphs after 7–10 days of reproduction. However, in a single calendar 45 generations of aphids have been observed. Although, the insect problem is present in all years, December-March is the active months of aphids. Further, increased percentage of nymphs transform into elates during the flowering and fruiting stages of the mustard (DRMR, 2009).

Ambient climate for Mustard Aphid

Aphid build-up is favored by gloomy weather with a maximum temperature of 20–29°C, but it is more favorable at a lower maximum temperature range of 22–25°C and a morning relative humidity (RH) of >92%, which is further enhanced when RH >98% with the day mean RH of >75%. Empirically, the aphid infestation is also promoted by extended periods of leaf wetness and a minimum temperature of 5°C over the previous three days. Aphids with wings migrate to mountainous regions of the nation, where they remain in their wingless state during unfavorable seasons on Brassica crops. Further, the wings reappear and the aphid migrates to the country's plains as soon as favorable conditions persist (DRMR, 2009). The aphid infestation begins towards the end of December and reach its highest point with an average population density of 44.65 aphids per five plants. In the final week of January, the population count reaches 448.65 aphids per 5 plants. Thereafter, the population decrease. During 2000-2001, the highest recorded temperature was 21.4 °C, while the combination of a minimum temperature of 3.7 °C and 59% relative humidity aided in the sharp rise in proliferation.

Case studies on relationship between weather and aphid dynamics

Mishra and Kanwat (2018) observed a strong negative correlation between aphid population and maximum temperature (-0.4576, -0.7692 and -0.6094) during 2000-2002. The relative humidity was 53% and 59% in 2000–2001 and 2001–2002, respectively. Aphid population and relative humidity were found to positively correlate ($r = 0.4196$, and 0.5059) for the years 2000–2001, 2001–2002. Similarly, Chakravarty and Gautam (2004) found that the flowering stage of the crop is the one that the mustard aphids prefer.

Mandawi *et al.* (2017) observed that the aphid population began to fall on February (9th SMW), and continued until the end of the harvest season. On March 20, 2014, the least number of aphids per plant was recorded at (12th SMW). Aphid populations varied from 3.86 to 314.52 per plant in Rabi during 2014–15. On the first observation day, which was January 5th (1st SMW), 3.86 aphids per plant were noted. Following that, it was discovered

that the population was on the rise, peaking at 314.52 aphids per plant on February 23 (the eighth SMW). Subsequently, on March 23, 2015 (12th SMW), the number of aphids per plant dropped precipitously to 2.98. Moreover, the weekly average of the aphid population was associated with both the highest and lowest temperatures recorded during the study period. Additionally, it was also observed that the temperature during noon hours is the predominant factor to govern the appearance of alate mustard aphid in rapeseed-mustard field (Roy and Baral, 2002). Stepwise regression analysis revealed that temperature and relative humidity played an important role for its development. The variety RW white flower glossy stem harbored minimum number of aphids in comparison to other two varieties B9 and T6342.

A collective study undertaken by Yadav *et al.*, (2023) revealed that 52nd standard metrological week (SMW) marked the beginning of the mustard aphid's development, while the 5th and 6th SMW marked its climax. The results also revealed that Aphids showed a significant positive correlation with relative humidity, a positive correlation with rainfall, and a negative non-significant and significant association with maximum and minimum temperature, respectively. However, the Principal Component Analysis (PCA) substantiate the variations in the population of *L. erysimi* (Kalt) with respect to rainfall, relative humidity, temperature (both maximum and minimum), and natural enemies. Overall, the aphid population growth in mustard is majorly favored by higher maximum temperatures (>15°C), given the optimal conditions for aphid population dynamics appear to be greater maximum temperature paired with higher morning relative humidity (Saxena *et al.*, 2012). Even in the absence of anthropogenic climate forcing, rapid increases in the frequency of extreme weather events are substantial issues because they may cause a significant impact on agriculture and allied industries (Bal and Minhas 2017; Subba Rao *et al.*, 2024).

Dharavat *et al.* (2016) studied that maximum incidence of aphids was recorded on the first, second, and third sowing dates, respectively, while the average maximum temperature was 26.48, 30.54, and 30.810 C. However, the largest frequency of aphids was recorded on the first, second, and third sowing dates, when the average minimum temperature was 11.31⁰, 12.62⁰, and 14.65⁰C respectively. As the temperature increased further, the population decreased subsequently. Similarly, the maximum and minimum temperature had a substantial positive correlation with the third sowing date, and a negative correlation with the first and second sowing dates. Moreover, the following

microclimatic conditions are very favorable for the aphid population, viz., Maximum temperature (26.48^o-30.81^oC), Minimum temperature (11.31^o-14.65^oC), Max relative humidity (87.28-89.14%) and Min relative humidity (49.57-50.71%), Bright sunshine hours (4.54-6.86 hrs), Cloud cover (1-1.14 octa), Growing Degree Days (13.89-17.73^oC), and Humid Thermal Ratio (3.03-3.67). In contrast to early-planted crops, the highest aphid incidence was noted in late sown crops. The maximum temperature (Tmax), minimum temperature (Tmin), and Growing Degree Days (GDDs) had a significant negative link with the aphid population, according to the correlation research between the aphid population and weather data (Das *et al.*, 2019). The regression models that were created using Tmax and GDD were able to account for 72–87 % of the variations in the aphid population across various cultivars.

Conclusion:

In this chapter, we have explored the intricate relationship between weather variables and the population dynamics of the mustard aphid. Through a detailed analysis of climatic factors such as temperature, humidity, and precipitation, we have identified key patterns that influence aphid population. However, the data suggest that optimal temperature ranges and specific humidity levels significantly enhance reproductive rates, while extreme weather conditions can lead to population declines. Thus, our case study highlights the importance of understanding these dynamics for effective pest management strategies in mustard cultivation by correlating aphid population with weather data for better outbreak predictions and the implementation of timely interventions.

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SUSTAINABLE PRACTICES IN INDIAN BANANA PRODUCTION

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Banana cultivation is a key agricultural activity in India, the world's largest producer of bananas, contributing about 25% of the global output. While conventional farming methods have led to significant yields, they have also raised concerns about environmental degradation, water overuse, and pest management challenges. To ensure long-term sustainability, Indian farmers are increasingly turning to more sustainable practices that prioritize ecological balance, resource efficiency, and economic resilience.

1. Introduction to Banana Cultivation in India

India grows bananas across various states, with Tamil Nadu, Maharashtra, Karnataka, Gujarat, Andhra Pradesh, and Bihar being the major producers. Traditional farming practices, including the use of chemical fertilizers and monocropping, have been prevalent. However, challenges like soil degradation, the increasing cost of inputs, and vulnerability to pests and diseases such as Fusarium wilt (Panama disease) have spurred interest in more sustainable farming methods (Ravi & Mustafa, 2013).

Sustainable banana cultivation focuses on agroecological approaches, organic farming, water conservation, and integrated pest management, helping to ensure long-term productivity without compromising the environment (Indian Council of Agricultural Research [ICAR], 2020).

2. Agroecological Approaches in India

Agroecology emphasizes the interaction between farming and ecological systems, promoting biodiversity and natural soil fertility. In India, several practices have emerged that align with this philosophy.

a. Agroforestry

Agroforestry, where banana plants are grown alongside other crops or trees, is gaining traction in states like Tamil Nadu and Kerala. Intercropping bananas with legumes (like pigeon peas or groundnuts) not only improves soil fertility through nitrogen fixation

but also helps in pest management (Velmurugan & Loganathan, 2019). Legumes are often used in traditional systems in Tamil Nadu, where mixed cropping enhances overall productivity and resilience.

b. Organic Farming

In regions like Maharashtra and Kerala, organic banana cultivation is expanding. Organic methods emphasize the use of compost, farmyard manure, and vermicomposting to maintain soil health (Ravi & Mustafa, 2013). The National Centre of Organic Farming (NCOF) promotes these practices by offering training and certification programs for organic banana farmers (National Centre of Organic Farming [NCOF], 2021).

Studies in India have shown that organic banana farming improves soil organic matter, enhances microbial activity, and maintains yields comparable to conventional farming over the long term. For instance, the use of biofertilizers such as *Azospirillum* and *Phosphobacteria* is popular in Maharashtra for enhancing nutrient availability without resorting to chemical fertilizers (ICAR, 2020).

c. Soil Health and Nutrient Management

Maintaining soil health is crucial for sustainable banana production. Conventional practices often lead to soil compaction and erosion, especially in banana-growing regions of Karnataka. In contrast, sustainable practices like mulching and the use of cover crops help retain soil moisture, prevent erosion, and improve soil organic matter (Ravi & Mustafa, 2013).

In states like Andhra Pradesh, farmers are adopting crop rotation and green manuring to rejuvenate soil nutrients. Green manuring, where leguminous plants are ploughed back into the soil, improves nitrogen content and enhances banana productivity while reducing the reliance on synthetic inputs (ICAR, 2020).

3. Water Management Techniques

Bananas are a water-intensive crop, and efficient water management is critical for sustainability. In India, especially in water-scarce regions such as Maharashtra and Gujarat, innovative water-saving techniques have been adopted to optimize water use.

a. Drip Irrigation

The drip irrigation system, which delivers water directly to the plant roots, is widely promoted through government schemes like the Pradhan Mantri Krishi Sinchayee Yojana (PMKSY). Drip irrigation significantly reduces water wastage compared to flood irrigation, and in banana cultivation, it helps maintain optimal moisture levels for plant growth. A

study conducted in Gujarat found that drip irrigation increased water use efficiency by up to 40%, leading to better yields and reduced water consumption (Jain *et al.*, 2017).

b. Rainwater Harvesting

In rain-fed regions like Tamil Nadu and Odisha, **rainwater harvesting** structures have been set up to collect and store rainwater for banana farming. This not only ensures water availability during dry periods but also reduces dependence on groundwater, which is crucial for the long-term sustainability of banana cultivation in these regions (ICAR, 2020).

4. Integrated Pest Management (IPM)

Bananas in India are susceptible to several pests and diseases, including banana aphids, banana weevil, and fungal diseases like Sigatoka. Integrated Pest Management (IPM) is a holistic approach that combines biological, cultural, and chemical methods to control pests while minimizing environmental impact.

a. Biological Control

The use of biological control agents is becoming common in banana farms in Kerala and Tamil Nadu. For instance, the introduction of *Trichoderma spp.*, a beneficial fungus, helps control soil-borne diseases like Fusarium wilt (Ramamoorthy & Subramanian, 2015). Similarly, using natural predators like ladybird beetles and lacewings helps manage aphid populations (Ramamoorthy & Subramanian, 2015).

b. Cultural Practices

In Tamil Nadu, trap cropping (growing specific plants that attract pests away from bananas) and crop rotation are cultural practices that reduce pest pressure. Additionally, practices such as sanitation (removal of diseased plant parts) are employed to prevent the spread of pathogens (Ramamoorthy & Subramanian, 2015).

5. Climate Resilience in Banana Cultivation

Climate change poses a significant threat to banana farming in India, with increasing temperatures, erratic rainfall, and the frequency of extreme weather events. Sustainable banana cultivation must address these challenges by enhancing climate resilience.

a. Drought-Resistant Varieties

Researchers in India are developing and promoting drought-tolerant banana varieties that are better suited to the changing climate. Varieties like Grand Naine and BRS have shown better adaptability to water-stressed conditions in parts of Maharashtra and Tamil Nadu (ICAR, 2020).

b. Agroforestry for Climate Mitigation

Agroforestry systems not only enhance biodiversity but also act as carbon sinks, helping mitigate the effects of climate change. Planting trees alongside banana crops helps sequester carbon, while also offering shade and reducing the impact of temperature extremes on banana plants (Velmurugan & Loganathan, 2019).

6. Fair Trade and Farmer Support

Sustainability also extends to the economic well-being of farmers. In India, organizations like Fairtrade India and Organic India are working to ensure that banana farmers receive fair prices for their produce while promoting environmentally friendly farming practices. Certification programs for organic bananas have enabled smallholder farmers in Tamil Nadu and Kerala to access premium markets, improving their livelihoods (Fairtrade India, 2020).

In addition, government schemes like the National Horticulture Mission (NHM) provide financial and technical support to banana farmers for adopting sustainable practices. The Mahatma Gandhi National Rural Employment Guarantee Act (MGNREGA) also plays a role in promoting sustainable agriculture by funding infrastructure projects like rainwater harvesting and irrigation systems (ICAR, 2020).

7. Challenges and Future Directions

Despite the progress in sustainable banana cultivation in India, several challenges remain:

- **Limited access to organic inputs and biofertilizers:** Many small-scale farmers still rely on chemical inputs due to their accessibility and cost.
- **Market access:** While organic and Fair-Trade bananas fetch higher prices, access to these markets is often limited for small farmers without proper certification or supply chain support.
- **Awareness and training:** Many farmers lack awareness of sustainable practices, highlighting the need for extension services, education, and capacity building.

To address these challenges, future efforts should focus on:

- Expanding organic certification programs and market linkages.
- Enhancing research on climate-resilient varieties and farming systems.
- Providing greater financial incentives for the adoption of sustainable water management and pest control techniques.

Conclusion:

Sustainable banana cultivation in India is essential for meeting the growing demand for bananas while preserving natural resources and improving farmer livelihoods. By adopting agroecological practices, improving water use efficiency, managing pests through IPM, and promoting Fair Trade, India can ensure that banana farming remains productive and environmentally sustainable in the years to come. With continued research, government support, and farmer engagement, sustainable banana cultivation can play a key role in India's agricultural future.

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THE GREEN LEAF REVOLUTION: TRANSFORMING TEA CULTIVATION FOR A SUSTAINABLE FUTURE

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Introduction:

The tea industry, a cornerstone of global agriculture, is steeped in tradition and cultural significance. Tea farming is an important industry in India, but it can also have a significant environmental impact. Now a days tea industry faces a mounting environmental challenge from climate change to biodiversity loss and therefore need for sustainable practices in tea farming has been more urgent. This chapter explores how a revolution in tea cultivation can lead not only to environmental restoration but also to enhanced livelihoods for farmers and healthier products for consumers. By embracing sustainable practices, we can ensure and protect our tea industry by reducing hazardous environmental impact. In recent years, there has been a growing movement among tea producers to promote sustainable farming practices on tea cultivation.

Importance of Sustainability in Tea Industry:

The tea industry has traditionally relied on traditional growing methods, which frequently result in soil deterioration, water scarcity, and the abuse of chemicals. As consumer awareness rises, so does demand for sustainable products. The Green Leaf Revolution tackles these concerns by advocating measures that not only conserve the environment, but also improve tea producers' lives.

Some tea businesses use dangerous agrochemicals like herbicides and pesticides, as well as non-organic, low-quality fertilisers, to boost crop yields and profit margins. Most of the Indian tea is exported to nations such as Germany, the United Kingdom, Japan, and the United States, both in bulk and as value-added goods. Production has steadily increased over the years since its inaugural cultivation, owing to extensive cultivation, improved technology, nutrition and fertility control, the introduction of high producing clones, and a

longer pruning cycle. These variables, on the other hand, promoted biotic pressures such as insect pests and diseases, limiting tea yield. In recent years, it has become a serious worry for the tea business, since importing countries impose tight restrictions on the acceptability of manufactured tea due to pesticide residues.

That's why tea industry must give emphasis to choose all the good agriculture practices for producing ethical, sustainable and quality batches of tea.

Different practices for producing sustainable tea:

1. Agroecological practices in tea gardens include

a. Soil and water conservation:

Since tea is grown in places with slopes ranging from 10% to 50% and at elevations between 500 and 2500 meters above mean sea level, soil erosion is a significant issue and a key factor in soil loss in these newly established plantation sites. Tea is grown over 5780 km³ in India, mostly in sloping, rain-fed environments (Madhu, Sahoo, Sharda, & Sikka, 2010) with annual rainfall varying from 1150 to 6000 mm. Tea is grown in the south Indian Nilgiris where there is a uniform yearly rainfall of roughly 1200 mm. Massive soil loss occurs when growing tea on sloping ground without any water or soil conservation techniques, especially in the early years (Madhu, Sikka, Tripathi, Raghupathy, & Singh, 2001). In the lack of any vegetative canopy and soil conservation measures, the problem of erosion in newly planted tea plantations in the Nilgiris is increasing worse with time, reaching as high as 28–40 t ha⁻¹ yr⁻¹ (Chinnamani (1977), Madhu & Tripathi (1997)). Accordingly, evaluating soil loss is crucial in the long run since it influences the sustainability and production of green leaves. By using soil and water conservation measures like trenching and mulching, to conserve rainwater and make it available to plants.

b. Biodiversity conservation:

By promoting biodiversity and natural pest control, agroecological practices enhance the resilience of tea farms. Long-term sustainability can be supported, and local ecosystems can be protected by putting conservation measures into practice, such as planting native flora, protecting natural areas, and refraining from monoculture farming. Intercropping with tea alongside compatible crops can improve soil health and reduce pest infestations. For instance, planting legumes can fix nitrogen in the soil, minimizing the need for chemical fertilizers. Farms adopting these methods have reported not only improved soil quality but also increased yields over time.

c. Sustainable Water Management

Water scarcity is a pressing issue in many tea-growing regions, exacerbated by climate change. Sustainable water management practices are essential for maintaining the health of both the crops and local ecosystems. Techniques like rainwater harvesting and drip irrigation can significantly reduce water consumption while ensuring that tea plants receive adequate moisture.

d. Integrated Pest and Disease Management (IPM)

By combining biological controls, habitat manipulation, and careful monitoring, Integrated Pest Management (IPM) offers a solution to the problems caused by the overuse of chemical pesticides, such as the development of pesticide-resistant pests and harm to beneficial insects. Farmers who use IPM strategies report healthier crops and a decrease in their dependency on chemicals. For example, using pheromone traps to monitor pest populations enables farmers to make informed decisions about interventions, applying treatments only when necessary. Success stories from Chinese tea farms highlight the effectiveness of IPM in maintaining both yield and environmental health.

e. Building Climate Resilience

Climate change poses a significant threat to tea production, altering growing conditions and introducing new pests. To combat these challenges, farmers must adopt practices that enhance resilience. Diversifying crops, improving soil health through organic matter addition, and selecting climate-resilient tea varieties can help mitigate the impacts of climate variability. In Assam, India, farmers are experimenting with new tea varieties that are more resistant to drought and disease. These efforts not only safeguard their livelihoods but also contribute to the long-term sustainability of the region's tea industry.

f. Economic Viability of Sustainable Practices

Farmers that are concerned about expenditures may find it difficult to transition to sustainable techniques at first. However, data suggests that these measures can improve profitability. Organic certifications can open new markets and increase prices, rewarding farmers for their commitment to sustainability. The tea that is grown sustainably is becoming more and more popular, according to market trends. Consumers are willing to pay more for products that reflect their values as environmental awareness grows. For farmers that adopt sustainable practices, this change offers a huge opportunity.

g. Consumer Awareness and Education

Consumer education is essential to the Green Leaf Revolution's success. The growing awareness of the negative effects tea cultivation has on the environment and society is driving up demand for chemical-free, sustainably produced tea. Education can help bridge the knowledge gap between producers and consumers by illuminating the process from tea garden to cup. Brand may increase consumer trust and loyalty by emphasising sustainability and transparency in their sourcing methods. Businesses gain from this relationship, which also strengthens the larger push towards sustainable agriculture.

h. Innovations in Technology for sustainable tea production:

Technological developments are a major factor in the way tea cultivation is changing. Drones and other precision agriculture equipment, such soil sensors, pest and disease indicator, enable farmers to make data-driven decisions and monitor conditions in real time. These innovations increase sustainability, decrease waste, and boost efficiency. The Green Leaf Revolution can be further strengthened by research and development initiatives that concentrate on sustainable practices. Innovations addressing issues faced by tea producers can result from cooperative efforts between scientists and farmers.

Conclusion:

The Green Leaf Revolution offers a significant chance to reshape tea farming's future. Farmers can improve their livelihoods, save the environment, and support vibrant communities by using sustainable practices. In order to drive this shift, farmers, consumers, and governments must work together. The ambition for the future is evident: a sustainable tea sector that embraces innovation while paying tribute to its heritage. One cup of tea at a time, we can work together to create a more sustainable and just future.

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INNOVATIVE APPROACHES IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY RESEARCH TRANSFORMING AGRIBUSINESS

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Introduction:

Agribusiness is undergoing a revolutionary transformation fueled by advancements in science and technology. In an age of rapid population growth, environmental concerns, and shifting climate patterns, modernizing agricultural practices has become essential. This chapter explores innovative scientific and technological approaches that have emerged, helping agribusiness become more efficient, sustainable, and resilient. These developments, encompassing data analytics, biotechnology, IoT (Internet of Things), renewable energy, and more, are reshaping the way food is produced, processed, and distributed.

Precision Agriculture and the Internet of Things (IoT) in Agribusiness

Precision agriculture, or smart farming, represents a paradigm shift in agribusiness, where data-driven technologies allow for precise resource management, optimized crop health, and improved overall yield. The Internet of Things (IoT) serves as the backbone of precision agriculture, connecting various smart devices, sensors, and automated systems to continuously monitor and manage field conditions. By utilizing IoT devices to capture data in real-time, agribusinesses can make timely, accurate decisions that minimize waste, conserve resources, and enhance productivity.

Soil and Crop Monitoring for Precision Agribusiness

Soil health and crop condition are the foundational elements of successful farming. IoT-enabled soil and crop monitoring systems use a network of sensors that collect real-time data, giving farmers deeper insights into the environmental and nutritional status of their fields.

- **Soil Health Monitoring:** Soil sensors embedded in fields measure key indicators such as pH levels, temperature, moisture content, and nutrient availability. This data allows farmers to adjust inputs like fertilizers, lime, or organic matter to create optimal growing conditions. Additionally, monitoring pH levels and nutrient profiles ensures that soil quality is maintained for future crop cycles, supporting long-term sustainability.
- **Crop Health Indicators:** IoT sensors and imaging tools (like multispectral cameras) continuously monitor crop health by detecting signs of stress, nutrient deficiencies, or pest infestations early on. By identifying these issues early, farmers can take corrective action promptly, reducing crop losses and the need for excessive pesticide application.
- **Geospatial Mapping of Fields:** IoT data is often integrated with geospatial information systems (GIS) to produce detailed field maps. These maps enable farmers to make precise decisions regarding variable-rate application of water, fertilizer, and pesticides, optimizing usage according to the specific needs of each field section.

IoT-Enabled Smart Irrigation Systems

Smart irrigation is one of the most effective applications of IoT in precision agriculture, especially valuable in water-scarce regions or areas prone to drought. IoT-based irrigation systems gather real-time data on soil moisture, weather forecasts, and plant water needs to create precise watering schedules.

- **Automated Watering Based on Soil Moisture:** Soil moisture sensors monitor the water levels in the soil continuously and send data to the central irrigation system, which adjusts water flow accordingly. This ensures that plants receive adequate hydration without excess, preserving water and preventing root diseases caused by overwatering.
- **Weather-Responsive Irrigation:** IoT systems can be integrated with local weather stations or forecast data to adjust irrigation schedules based on expected rainfall. If rain is anticipated, the irrigation system can delay watering to avoid unnecessary use of water and potential runoff.
- **Remote Monitoring and Control:** Farmers can monitor and control smart irrigation systems remotely using smartphones or computers, allowing them to adjust settings without being physically present. This feature is especially beneficial

for large agribusinesses with multiple farms, as it centralizes management and reduces labor costs.

By reducing water consumption and enhancing water use efficiency, IoT-enabled irrigation systems support sustainable agribusiness practices, particularly vital as climate variability impacts water availability worldwide.

Data-Driven Fertilizer and Pest Management

Precision agriculture enables data-driven application of fertilizers and pest control measures, furthering agribusiness goals of cost-effectiveness and environmental stewardship. Through the data collected by IoT devices, farmers can implement variable-rate technology (VRT) to apply fertilizers and pesticides more accurately.

- **Nutrient Optimization through Fertilizer Sensors:** Fertilizer sensors assess nutrient levels in the soil, allowing for precise application that meets crop needs without excess. This not only conserves fertilizer but also prevents runoff that can contaminate water sources, supporting agribusiness's move towards more sustainable practices.
- **Targeted Pest Control:** IoT devices integrated with machine learning algorithms can detect patterns indicating pest presence. With data on pest density and distribution, farmers can apply pesticides only where needed, significantly reducing chemical usage and promoting a healthier ecosystem.
- **Automated Drones and Sprayers:** Drones equipped with sensors and AI capabilities can detect variations in crop health across fields and apply fertilizers or pesticides precisely. By combining sensor data with drone technology, agribusinesses can target specific areas rather than treating entire fields, saving costs and reducing environmental impact.

These precision techniques provide agribusinesses with the advantage of minimizing input costs while maximizing yield quality and quantity.

Yield Forecasting and Market Readiness

One of the greatest benefits of IoT in precision agriculture is its role in yield forecasting, an essential element for agribusinesses that aim to maximize profitability by aligning production with market demands.

- **Real-Time Yield Forecasting:** IoT systems collect data on plant growth stages, soil health, and weather patterns to predict potential yields. With accurate yield forecasts, agribusinesses can prepare for the expected harvest volume and adjust supply chain activities accordingly.

- **Market Readiness and Quality Assurance:** By monitoring crop health indicators like nutrient levels and disease resistance, farmers can ensure that crops meet market quality standards. Additionally, IoT-driven data helps in selecting optimal harvest times, ensuring the produce reaches peak ripeness for market delivery.

Yield forecasting helps agribusinesses reduce risk, improve planning, and enhance profitability by ensuring that production levels align with consumer demand and market trends.

Economic and Environmental Impact of IoT in Agribusiness

The implementation of IoT in agribusiness has notable economic and environmental benefits. Through precision agriculture, agribusinesses can streamline operations, reduce costs, and minimize resource wastage, directly impacting their bottom line and ecological footprint.

- **Cost Reduction and Efficiency Gains:** By optimizing inputs such as water, fertilizer, and pesticides, IoT technology reduces the costs associated with overuse. This efficiency translates to lower production costs and increased profitability.
- **Environmental Sustainability:** Reduced chemical and water usage not only lowers expenses but also minimizes the environmental impact of farming. With precision agriculture, agribusinesses can avoid excess runoff, conserve water resources, and preserve biodiversity, aligning with sustainability goals.
- **Scalability and Adaptability:** IoT systems can be easily scaled and adapted to different farm sizes and crop types, making precision agriculture accessible to agribusinesses of all scales. This flexibility supports the wider adoption of sustainable farming practices across the industry.

Biotechnology and Genetic Engineering

Biotechnology and genetic engineering have introduced groundbreaking possibilities in crop enhancement. These innovations have allowed the development of crops with higher resilience to diseases, pests, and environmental stresses.

- **Genetically Modified Organisms (GMOs):** GMOs have been developed to be pest-resistant, drought-tolerant, and nutrient-rich, reducing the need for chemical inputs and improving yields.
- **Gene Editing with CRISPR:** The CRISPR-Cas9 technology allows scientists to introduce or enhance specific traits in crops, creating plant varieties with better growth rates, enhanced nutritional profiles, and increased resistance to adverse conditions.

These biotechnological advancements have contributed significantly to food security and sustainability, addressing issues like food scarcity, crop loss, and malnutrition.

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Data Analytics in Agribusiness

The application of artificial intelligence (AI) and data analytics in agribusiness has led to remarkable advancements in how crops are managed, harvested, and marketed. This approach introduces a level of precision and insight previously unimaginable, allowing farmers to make decisions based on concrete, data-driven projections. As a result, agribusinesses can manage resources efficiently, reduce operational costs, and minimize environmental impact. Below is an in-depth look at how predictive analytics and AI-powered robotics are transforming agribusiness practices.

Predictive Analytics for Crop Management

Predictive analytics in agribusiness involves using AI algorithms to analyze vast amounts of data—historical weather patterns, soil quality metrics, water availability, and even market trends. This approach equips farmers with a robust toolkit for planning and adjusting operations to align with environmental and economic shifts.

- **Optimized Planting Schedules:** Predictive models utilize historical data on temperature, precipitation, and soil conditions to recommend the best times for planting. By aligning planting schedules with the ideal environmental conditions, farmers can increase the likelihood of higher yields and healthier crops.
- **Irrigation Management:** AI systems monitor factors such as soil moisture, crop growth stages, and weather forecasts to create dynamic irrigation schedules. This helps ensure that crops receive just the right amount of water when they need it, minimizing water waste and promoting sustainable water usage.
- **Disease and Pest Prediction:** AI-driven models can analyze data on weather patterns and historical pest outbreaks to predict potential disease and pest threats. Early detection enables farmers to implement preventive measures, reducing crop loss and the need for extensive chemical intervention.
- **Harvest Optimization:** AI analytics also play a crucial role in determining optimal harvest times by analyzing crop maturity data and market trends. By timing harvests to align with peak market demand or favorable conditions, farmers can maximize profits and minimize waste.

AI-Powered Robotics in Agribusiness Operations

Robotics equipped with AI technology are taking on essential, labor-intensive tasks across the agricultural value chain. These robots are particularly beneficial in large-scale

farming operations, where labor shortages and high costs can impact productivity and profitability. AI-powered robots bring precision and efficiency to various stages of crop production, from planting to harvesting.

- **Planting Robots:** AI-enabled planting robots can be programmed to place seeds at exact depths and spacing, ensuring uniform growth and better use of land. These robots use sensors to analyze soil conditions in real-time, adjusting planting techniques to optimize growth. This precision reduces seed wastage and helps maximize crop yields.
- **Weeding and Pest Control:** Robots with AI and machine vision capabilities can identify and remove weeds without damaging crops. Some systems even apply herbicides directly to weeds, reducing chemical usage and protecting soil health. Similarly, AI-powered pest control robots can detect and target pest hotspots, minimizing the need for widespread pesticide application.
- **Harvesting Robots:** Automated harvesting systems can determine the exact ripeness of fruits and vegetables, ensuring only mature produce is picked. This selectivity improves crop quality and reduces the risk of damage during harvest. Additionally, AI-enabled sorting robots can categorize produce by size, color, and quality, optimizing packing and market value.
- **Crop Monitoring and Field Analysis:** Field robots are equipped with cameras and sensors to monitor crop health continuously. These robots can detect issues like nutrient deficiencies, pest infestations, or water stress. Farmers receive alerts on these observations, allowing them to intervene quickly and efficiently.

Benefits of AI and Data Analytics in Agribusiness

The deployment of AI and data analytics in agribusiness offers a variety of benefits, including cost reductions, higher productivity, and more sustainable practices. These technologies create a synergistic impact, transforming traditional farming practices and ushering in a new era of agribusiness innovation.

- **Increased Efficiency:** AI-driven systems can perform tasks with higher precision and consistency than human labor, enhancing overall operational efficiency. For instance, automated irrigation systems based on AI recommendations reduce water wastage and ensure crops receive the necessary nutrients.
- **Cost Savings:** Predictive models and AI-powered robots reduce dependency on manual labor, cutting down costs significantly. Furthermore, by optimizing resource

usage—like water, fertilizer, and pesticides—agribusinesses can save on operational expenses.

- **Enhanced Crop Yields:** Precision in planting, watering, and harvesting improves crop yield by ensuring crops are grown under ideal conditions. Early detection of pests and diseases also prevents extensive crop damage, contributing to a more stable output.
- **Reduced Environmental Impact:** By optimizing the use of inputs, AI and data analytics promote sustainable farming practices. Reduced pesticide and water usage contribute to healthier soil, cleaner water sources, and less impact on local ecosystems.
- **Better Market Timing:** With real-time insights into crop readiness and market trends, farmers can adjust harvesting and selling schedules to align with market demand. This reduces waste and boosts profitability, especially for perishable crops.

Drone and Satellite Technology

Drones and satellite imagery have brought aerial intelligence to farming. These technologies offer a bird's-eye view of agricultural fields, allowing for better decision-making and more precise crop management.

- **Field Mapping and Monitoring:** Satellite and drone images help farmers identify patterns of crop growth, detect pest infestations, and assess soil health.
- **Early Detection of Crop Health Issues:** High-resolution images from drones can identify problems before they become visible to the naked eye, allowing for timely intervention and reducing crop loss.

The high accuracy and timeliness of drone and satellite monitoring contribute to both enhanced productivity and sustainability, as farmers can address issues promptly without resorting to excessive chemical use.

Vertical Farming and Controlled Environment Agriculture (CEA)

In response to land scarcity and urban population growth, vertical farming and controlled environment agriculture (CEA) have emerged as viable solutions for producing food in urban settings and under controlled conditions.

- **Hydroponics and Aeroponics:** These soilless farming methods allow for high-density crop production in small spaces. By providing nutrients directly to the plant roots, hydroponics and aeroponics promote rapid growth and maximize yields.

- **Environmental Control:** CEA facilities control temperature, humidity, and lighting, allowing for year-round production and reducing dependence on seasonal variations.

Vertical farming and CEA are ideal for urban areas, reducing transportation costs and carbon emissions while providing fresh, locally-grown produce.

Blockchain Technology for Supply Chain Transparency

Blockchain technology is enhancing traceability and trust within agricultural supply chains, benefiting producers, distributors, and consumers alike.

- **Supply Chain Transparency:** By recording every transaction on a decentralized ledger, blockchain ensures that each step in the production and distribution process is documented and verifiable. Consumers can trace their food back to its origin, ensuring quality and ethical standards.
- **Smart Contracts:** Blockchain enables automated smart contracts, streamlining transactions between farmers and buyers, reducing the need for intermediaries, and ensuring fair compensation.

Blockchain has the potential to transform food safety, minimize fraud, and improve efficiency in agribusiness supply chains.

Renewable Energy Integration in Agribusiness

Agribusiness is increasingly turning to renewable energy sources to reduce its reliance on fossil fuels and to adopt more sustainable practices.

- **Solar-Powered Irrigation:** Solar panels power irrigation systems, providing a sustainable solution to water crops in off-grid or remote areas.
- **Bioenergy from Agricultural Waste:** By converting agricultural waste into bioenergy, farms can power their operations, reduce waste, and lower greenhouse gas emissions.

Renewable energy not only reduces operational costs but also positions agribusiness as a leading sector in the global shift towards sustainability.

3D Printing for Custom Farming Equipment

The use of 3D printing in agribusiness allows for the rapid production of customized tools, machinery parts, and other equipment.

- **Customized Tools and Parts:** Farmers can produce equipment tailored to their specific needs, reducing the time and expense associated with ordering from large manufacturers.

- **Efficient Repairs and Maintenance:** 3D printing facilitates on-site production of parts, reducing downtime and enabling immediate repairs.

This technology is particularly useful in remote or resource-limited regions where access to specialized machinery parts is challenging.

Conclusion:

The innovative approaches discussed in this chapter underscore the transformative power of science and technology in agribusiness. These advancements enable increased efficiency, sustainability, and resilience, providing solutions to some of the most pressing challenges in global food production. By embracing these modern tools and techniques, the agribusiness sector is not only boosting productivity and profitability but also contributing to a sustainable future. The road ahead holds exciting potential for further innovations, promising a new era of agribusiness that is both cutting-edge and eco-conscious.

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ARTIFICIAL INTELLIGENCE AND MACHINE LEARNING IN AGRITECH

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Abstract:

Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML) are reshaping the agricultural landscape by offering new ways to enhance productivity, minimize environmental impact, and optimize farm operations. These technologies allow for data-driven decisions that improve yield prediction, resource management, pest and disease control, and labor utilization. This chapter explores the application of AI and ML in agriculture, focusing on predictive analytics, disease detection, labor optimization, and sustainable farming practices. We analyze case studies, examine the challenges, and discuss future directions for AI in agriculture, presenting a comprehensive view of the transformative potential AI and ML hold in AgriTech.

Keywords: Artificial Intelligence (AI) and Machine Learning (ML), Agritech.

Introduction:

Agriculture is one of humanity's oldest industries, yet it is now at the forefront of some of the most cutting-edge technological innovations. With the demand for food expected to rise due to a growing population, sustainable agriculture has become essential. Traditional farming practices, though foundational, face challenges such as climate variability, pest outbreaks, and soil degradation. The integration of AI and ML offers innovative solutions to these issues, promising a new era of precision and efficiency in agriculture. AI-driven applications, from image recognition for pest control to predictive analytics for yield forecasting, empower farmers to make informed decisions, reduce waste, and ultimately support a sustainable future.

1. Predictive Analytics in Crop Management

Predictive analytics, a branch of AI that utilizes historical data and machine learning models to forecast outcomes, is proving essential in agriculture. With accurate predictions, farmers can plan for crop cycles, mitigate risks, and optimize the use of resources.

- **Crop Yield Prediction:** ML algorithms analyze variables like weather conditions, soil health, and historical crop data to predict crop yields. This information enables farmers to adjust planting strategies, resource allocation, and crop choices according to expected yields.
- **Weather Forecasting and Climate Adaptation:** By analyzing vast datasets on climate patterns, AI models can predict weather conditions and recommend adaptive measures. Farmers receive data-driven guidance on when to plant, irrigate, and harvest, reducing crop loss due to extreme weather events.

2. Pest and Disease Detection

Pests and diseases are among the greatest threats to crop health and productivity. AI-powered disease and pest detection tools, particularly those utilizing computer vision and ML algorithms, are helping farmers manage these issues in real time.

- **Image Recognition for Disease Identification:** AI models can analyze images of leaves, stems, and other plant parts to detect signs of disease. For instance, Convolutional Neural Networks (CNNs), a type of deep learning model, can identify diseases based on leaf patterns and coloration. This technology minimizes crop loss by enabling early detection and rapid response.
- **Pest Prediction and Control:** Machine learning models can predict pest outbreaks by analyzing factors like temperature, humidity, and historical pest data. These predictive tools help farmers implement timely control measures, reducing the need for broad-spectrum pesticides and fostering more targeted, eco-friendly pest management.

3. Soil Health and Precision Farming

Soil quality is foundational to agricultural productivity, and AI-driven soil analysis techniques allow for more precise management of soil health. By integrating AI with precision farming practices, farmers can monitor and manage soil quality, water levels, and nutrient availability with unprecedented accuracy.

- **Soil Moisture Monitoring:** AI and IoT sensors provide real-time data on soil moisture levels, helping farmers make informed irrigation decisions. This approach conserves water and ensures crops receive the optimal amount of moisture.
- **Nutrient Optimization:** ML models analyze soil samples to determine nutrient content and recommend fertilization schedules. By applying only the required amount of nutrients, farmers reduce waste, enhance soil fertility, and minimize runoff that can harm local ecosystems.

4. Labor Optimization and Robotics

AI and robotics are transforming the labor-intensive nature of farming by automating repetitive tasks, allowing for more efficient resource management, and alleviating labor shortages. Robotics powered by AI are already being used for tasks like planting, harvesting, and crop maintenance.

- **Autonomous Harvesting Robots:** Equipped with AI algorithms, robots can detect and pick ripe crops with minimal human intervention. These robots are particularly beneficial for crops like strawberries and tomatoes, where manual labor is traditionally required.
- **AI-Driven Farm Equipment:** Self-driving tractors, equipped with AI-based navigation systems, are helping automate planting and weeding tasks. By optimizing routes and reducing fuel consumption, these tractors support sustainable farming practices and reduce labor costs.

5. AI for Supply Chain Optimization

AI and ML are also transforming agricultural supply chains, from the farm to the consumer. These technologies help streamline logistics, reduce waste, and ensure food quality and traceability throughout the supply chain.

- **Predicting Market Demand:** AI models analyze market trends, historical sales data, and consumer behavior to forecast demand for specific crops. This prediction helps farmers align their production with market needs, reducing post-harvest losses.
- **Blockchain Integration for Traceability:** While not directly AI, blockchain combined with AI provides a reliable way to track the journey of agricultural products from field to fork. This integration enhances transparency, allowing consumers to verify product origin, quality, and safety.

6. Challenges and Limitations

While the benefits of AI in agriculture are evident, several challenges remain:

- **Data Availability and Quality:** High-quality data is essential for effective AI models, but many farmers lack access to comprehensive datasets. In regions with limited digital infrastructure, this can pose a significant barrier.
- **Cost of Implementation:** The cost of AI and ML technologies, from data collection to implementation, can be prohibitive for small-scale farmers, leading to disparities in adoption rates.
- **Ethical and Privacy Concerns:** The use of data in agriculture, particularly with IoT devices, raises concerns about privacy and data ownership. Establishing clear regulations is crucial to protect farmers' interests.

7. Future Directions for AI in AgriTech

The future of AI in agriculture is promising, with research focusing on improving model accuracy, reducing costs, and enhancing accessibility:

- **Enhanced Predictive Models:** Future AI models will integrate real-time data from multiple sources, including satellites, IoT devices, and climate databases, to improve prediction accuracy.
- **Affordable AI Solutions for Small Farmers:** Innovators are working to develop cost-effective AI tools that are accessible to smallholder farmers, especially in developing regions.
- **Sustainable AI Practices:** Research is ongoing into eco-friendly AI technologies that minimize energy consumption, addressing the environmental impact of data processing.

Conclusion:

Artificial Intelligence and Machine Learning have ushered in a new era in agriculture, offering tools that make farming more precise, efficient, and sustainable. These technologies provide farmers with valuable insights into crop management, pest control, labor optimization, and supply chain operations. However, to realize the full potential of AI in agriculture, efforts must address challenges like data accessibility, cost, and ethical considerations. As AI technology becomes more accessible and affordable, it promises to play an essential role in achieving a sustainable agricultural future, benefiting farmers, consumers, and the environment alike.

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THE ROLE OF GENETICS AND PLANT BREEDING FOR CROP IMPROVEMENT: CURRENT PROGRESS AND FUTURE PROSPECTS

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Abstract:

Genetics and plant breeding are essential in advancing crop improvement, supporting sustainable food production, and addressing global issues such as population growth and climate change. This review offers an in-depth analysis of how genetics and plant breeding contribute to crop enhancement. It covers foundational genetic principles, including inheritance patterns and genetic diversity, and their influence on trait expression in crops. The article examines the use of genetic markers, quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping, and the emerging field of genomic selection in aiding the selection of favorable traits for plant breeding initiatives. Traditional breeding techniques, hybridization, and the integration of advanced molecular tools are discussed as strategies to boost crop performance. Moreover, the potential of genome editing technologies, like CRISPR-Cas9, to accelerate breeding processes and enable precise alterations in plant genomes is explored. The review also addresses critical aspects of crop improvement, such as optimizing yield alongside agronomic traits, strengthening resistance to biotic and abiotic stresses, and factoring in socio-economic and environmental considerations. Emphasis is placed on germplasm conservation and its use in future breeding efforts. Overall, the review underscores the central role of genetics and plant breeding in crop improvement and emphasizes the need for continuous research and innovation to address future challenges.

Keywords: Genetics; Plant Breeding; Crop Improvement; Genetic Markers; Genomic Selection; Traditional Breeding; Hybridization; Molecular Breeding; Genome Editing.

1. Introduction :

Genetics and plant breeding have long been acknowledged as essential tools for enhancing crop improvement, significantly contributing to agricultural productivity, nutritional quality, and food security. The collaborative integration of these fields has transformed agriculture, allowing for the development of superior crop varieties with desirable traits and greater adaptability to shifting environmental conditions.

Genetics forms the basis for understanding inheritance principles and genetic variation, elucidating the intricate mechanisms that govern plant traits and their expression. It provides valuable insights into the inheritance patterns of specific characteristics, such as disease resistance, tolerance to abiotic stresses, yield potential, and nutritional content. By decoding the genetic composition of crops, researchers can pinpoint critical genes and alleles linked to desired traits, thus facilitating targeted plant breeding approaches. In contrast, plant breeding applies this genetic knowledge to create new crop varieties with improved characteristics. This process involves the intentional crossing of plants exhibiting desirable traits to produce offspring that combine favorable genetic attributes. Traditional breeding techniques, such as recurrent selection and hybridization, have long been utilized to introduce genetic diversity and enhance the genetic potential of crop plants.

In recent years, advances in molecular biology and genomics have revolutionized plant breeding. Genetic markers, including DNA-based markers and molecular tools, have allowed breeders to identify and select plants with desired traits more effectively. The rise of high-throughput sequencing technologies has made it possible to map quantitative trait loci (QTL) linked to complex traits, enabling more precise and focused breeding initiatives. Additionally, the advent of genome editing technologies, such as CRISPR-Cas9, offers significant potential for the targeted modification of specific genes, thus speeding up the breeding process.

The fusion of genetics and plant breeding has led to notable advancements in crop improvement, resulting in the development of high-yielding varieties, cultivars, and disease-resistant crops with enhanced nutritional profiles. Nonetheless, challenges persist, including the need to balance yield enhancements with other crucial agronomic traits, address resistance to emerging pests and diseases, and consider socio-economic and environmental factors. This chapter aims to provide a thorough overview of the role of genetics and plant breeding in crop improvement, emphasizing current advancements and future opportunities. It will examine the fundamental principles of genetics and their application in plant breeding programs. Moreover, it will discuss the various breeding techniques employed to improve crop performance, including the integration of advanced molecular breeding tools. The chapter will also address the challenges and opportunities within genetics and plant breeding, underscoring the necessity of sustainable and inclusive approaches to crop improvement.

2. Bottom of Form Fundamentals of Genetics: Inheritance Patterns and Genetic Variation

Genetics and plant breeding play pivotal roles in crop improvement, contributing to the development of improved crop varieties and the advancement of agriculture. Understanding the fundamentals of genetics, including inheritance patterns and genetic variation, is essential for effective plant breeding strategies.

2.1 Inheritance Patterns

Inheritance patterns determine how traits are passed down from one generation to the next. Mendelian genetics, based on the work of Gregor Mendel, describes the inheritance of traits controlled by single genes with clear dominant and recessive alleles. Other inheritance patterns, such as cytoplasmic inheritance, involve the transmission of genetic material through organelles like mitochondria or chloroplasts. Furthermore, quantitative inheritance encompasses traits controlled by multiple genes and environmental factors, resulting in continuous variation.

2.2 Genetic Variation

Genetic variation is the raw material for plant breeding. It arises through various mechanisms, including mutations, genetic recombination, and gene flow. Mutations introduce new genetic variants into populations, while genetic recombination during sexual reproduction shuffles existing genetic material, increasing diversity (Myles et al., 2011). Gene flow, the movement of genes between populations, can introduce new alleles and enhance genetic variation (Tanksley and McCouch, 1997).

2.3 The Importance of Genetic Variation in Plant Breeding

Genetic variation is essential for plant breeders as it offers a wide range of genes to choose from, facilitating the enhancement of traits and the creation of crop varieties with improved productivity, quality, and resilience. Genetic diversity enhances adaptability and strengthens the capacity to endure biotic and abiotic stresses. By integrating diverse genetic material into breeding programs, breeders can expand the genetic foundation of cultivated crops, thereby reducing their susceptibility to diseases, pests, and fluctuating environmental conditions.

2.4 Integration of Genetics into Plant Breeding Strategies

Understanding inheritance patterns and genetic variation is essential for developing plant breeding strategies that expedite the creation of improved crop varieties. Genetic markers, including molecular markers and DNA sequencing techniques, facilitate trait

mapping and marker-assisted selection, enabling breeders to pinpoint individuals that possess desired genes or genomic regions. Through quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping and association studies, researchers can identify genomic regions linked to crucial traits, thereby enhancing targeted breeding initiatives. A solid grasp of genetics, encompassing inheritance patterns and genetic diversity, is vital for leveraging the potential of genetics and plant breeding in advancing crop improvement. The integration of genetic insights into breeding strategies empowers breeders to create crop varieties with superior traits, productivity, and resilience. By employing genetic markers and appreciating the significance of genetic diversity, breeders can accelerate the development of enhanced crop varieties, ultimately contributing to addressing the challenges of global food security.

3. Genetic Markers and Quantitative Trait Loci (Qtl) Mapping

Genetic markers and quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping are powerful tools used in genetics and plant breeding for identifying and tracking specific genomic regions associated with important traits. This subheading explores the significance of genetic markers and QTL mapping in crop improvement, providing insights into their applications and methodologies.

3.1 Genetic Markers

Genetic markers are DNA sequences that can be easily detected and vary among individuals. They serve as signposts along the genome, helping researchers locate and track specific regions of interest. There are various types of genetic markers, including restriction fragment length polymorphisms (RFLPs), amplified fragment length polymorphisms (AFLPs), simple sequence repeats (SSRs), and single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs). Genetic markers are employed in plant breeding for mapping, marker-assisted selection (MAS), and genomic selection. Trait mapping involves identifying the genomic regions associated with specific traits of interest. By correlating the presence or absence of genetic markers with the expression of target traits, breeders can identify candidate regions responsible for trait variation.

3.2 Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS)

Marker-assisted selection (MAS) utilizes genetic markers to aid in the selection of plants carrying desired traits. By identifying and using markers linked to target genes or genomic regions, breeders can indirectly select for specific traits during the breeding process. This allows for more efficient and precise selection compared to conventional phenotypic-based selection. MAS has been successfully applied in various crops for traits

such as disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, and quality characteristics. For instance, in rice breeding, markers linked to genes conferring resistance to diseases like blast and bacterial blight have been utilized for efficient selection of resistant individuals.

3.3 Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) Mapping

Quantitative trait loci (QTL) mapping is a statistical approach used to identify genomic regions associated with quantitative traits, which exhibit continuous variation. QTL analysis involves genotyping a population of individuals and phenotyping them for the target trait. By correlating genotypic and phenotypic data, researchers can identify the genomic regions influencing the variation in the trait of interest. QTL mapping provides valuable insights into the genetic architecture of complex traits and allows breeders to understand the underlying genetic control of traits such as yield, plant height, and stress tolerance. This knowledge can then be utilized to develop improved crop varieties with enhanced performance. QTL mapping methods have evolved over the years, from traditional interval mapping to more advanced approaches such as composite interval mapping and genome-wide association studies (GWAS). These methods utilize statistical models and sophisticated algorithms to accurately detect and map QTLs. Genetic markers and QTL mapping are indispensable tools in genetics and plant breeding for identifying and tracking genomic regions associated with important traits. Genetic markers enable efficient trait mapping and marker-assisted selection, facilitating the selection of desirable traits in breeding programs. QTL mapping provides valuable insights into the genetic architecture of complex traits and assists breeders in developing improved crop varieties with enhanced performance.

4. Genomic Selection in Plant Breeding

Genomic selection is a powerful tool in plant breeding that utilizes genomic information to predict the breeding value of individuals and facilitate the selection of superior genotypes. It has revolutionized the breeding process by accelerating genetic gain, enhancing selection accuracy, and enabling the selection of traits that are difficult or expensive to measure directly. This section will discuss the role of genomic selection in plant breeding and its applications. Genomic selection leverages the information contained within the entire genome of an individual or a population. It involves the use of high-throughput genotyping technologies, such as single nucleotide polymorphism (SNP) arrays or whole-genome sequencing, to obtain genetic markers distributed across the genome. These markers serve as a representation of the genetic variation present in the population.

One of the key advantages of genomic selection is its ability to predict the breeding value of individuals before they are phenotyped. By employing statistical models that relate the genomic markers to the phenotypic data of a training population, genomic estimated breeding values (GEBVs) can be estimated for individuals in a breeding population. GEBVs provide an estimate of the genetic potential of an individual for a specific trait of interest. Genomic selection has proven to be particularly effective for traits influenced by many genes with small effects, known as polygenic traits. These traits are often complex and difficult to improve using traditional phenotypic selection methods. Genomic selection allows breeders to capture the cumulative effects of multiple small-effect genes, leading to more accurate predictions of genetic potential and faster genetic gain. Furthermore, genomic selection enables the selection of traits that are challenging to measure directly or require destructive sampling. For example, disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, or nutritional quality traits may require time-consuming and costly phenotyping. By using genomic selection, breeders can indirectly select for these traits based on genomic markers associated with them, bypassing the need for labor-intensive phenotypic evaluations. The success of genomic selection relies on the availability of large and diverse training populations with both genotypic and phenotypic data. The accuracy of predictions depends on the genetic relationship between the training population and the breeding population, as well as the heritability of the traits under consideration. Additionally, incorporating new genotypic and phenotypic data in successive breeding cycles can lead to continuous improvements in prediction accuracy. The adoption of genomic selection in plant breeding has resulted in remarkable advancements in various crops, including maize, wheat, rice, and soybean. It has facilitated the development of improved cultivars with enhanced yield, disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, and quality traits. Genomic selection has also been applied in plant breeding programs for trees, forages, and other perennial crops. In conclusion, genomic selection has revolutionized plant breeding by harnessing genomic information to predict the breeding value of individuals and enhance selection accuracy. It offers tremendous potential for improving complex traits and selecting for traits that are challenging to measure directly. With continued advancements in genotyping technologies and increased availability of genomic resources, genomic selection is poised to play a pivotal role in accelerating genetic gain and developing crop varieties with enhanced agronomic and quality attributes.

5. Traditional Breeding Methods and Hybridization

Traditional breeding methods and hybridization have long been integral components of plant breeding programs, contributing significantly to crop improvement. These methods harness natural genetic variation to develop improved crop varieties with desirable traits. This section will discuss the role of traditional breeding methods and hybridization in plant breeding and their applications. Traditional breeding methods involve the controlled cross-pollination or self-pollination of plants with desired traits. By selecting and crossing individuals with complementary traits, breeders aim to combine favorable traits in the offspring. This process relies on the genetic diversity within plant populations and the principles of Mendelian genetics. One of the key advantages of traditional breeding methods is their ability to explore and exploit the natural genetic variation present in crop species. Through careful selection and breeding, breeders can enhance traits such as yield, disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, nutritional quality, and agronomic characteristics. Traditional breeding methods have been successfully employed in various crops, including cereals, vegetables, fruits, and ornamental plants. Hybridization is a specific form of traditional breeding that involves crossing two genetically diverse parental lines to produce offspring with desirable traits. Hybrids often exhibit improved vigor, yield, disease resistance, or other advantageous traits compared to their parent lines. Hybrid breeding is particularly effective for exploiting heterosis, also known as hybrid vigor, which results in superior performance and increased productivity in the hybrid offspring. Hybridization can occur through various breeding techniques, including open-pollinated crosses, controlled pollination, and male sterility systems.

6. Incorporating Advanced Molecular Breeding Tools

Advanced molecular breeding tools have revolutionized the field of plant breeding by providing powerful and precise methods for accelerating genetic gain and developing improved crop varieties. These tools leverage molecular markers, genomics, and other molecular techniques to enhance the efficiency and effectiveness of breeding programs. This section will discuss the incorporation of advanced molecular breeding tools and their impact on plant breeding. Molecular markers are a key component of advanced molecular breeding tools. They are specific DNA sequences that can be easily detected and analyzed, allowing breeders to track and manipulate specific genes or genomic regions of interest. Common types of molecular markers include single nucleotide polymorphisms (SNPs), simple sequence repeats (SSRs), and insertion/deletion markers (InDels). The use of

molecular markers in plant breeding enables breeders to streamline the selection process, as it allows for marker-assisted selection (MAS). MAS involves using molecular markers linked to target traits to identify individuals with the desired genetic profiles. This approach enables breeders to select for traits of interest at an early stage, reducing the need for time consuming and costly phenotypic evaluations. Genomic selection, as mentioned earlier, is another advanced molecular breeding tool that utilizes genome-wide molecular markers for predicting the breeding value of individuals. By integrating large-scale genotypic data with phenotypic information, genomic selection enables more accurate and efficient selection of individuals with superior genetic potential for complex traits. Furthermore, advanced molecular breeding tools encompass techniques such as genome sequencing, transcriptomics, and proteomics, which provide a comprehensive understanding of the genes and molecular processes underlying important traits. These tools enable breeders to identify candidate genes associated with desired traits, unravel the molecular mechanisms controlling these traits, and develop strategies for targeted genetic improvement. The incorporation of advanced molecular breeding tools has had a profound impact on plant breeding programs. It has accelerated the development of improved crop varieties with enhanced agronomic traits, disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, and nutritional quality. These tools have also contributed to the development of crops with reduced input requirements, improved post-harvest qualities, and better adaptation to changing environmental conditions. The adoption of advanced molecular breeding tools has led to increased breeding efficiency, reduced breeding cycle times, and enhanced selection accuracy. By enabling the identification and selection of individuals with superior genetic potential, these tools have expedited the breeding process and facilitated the rapid deployment of improved varieties to meet the demands of a growing population and changing agricultural landscapes.

7. Genome Editing Technologies in Crop Improvement

Genome editing technologies, such as CRISPR Cas9, have emerged as powerful tools for precise and targeted modifications of the plant genome. These technologies enable plant breeders to make specific changes in the DNA sequence, resulting in the creation of novel traits and the improvement of existing ones. This section will discuss the role of genome editing technologies in crop improvement and their potential applications. CRISPR-Cas9 (Clustered Regularly Interspaced Short Palindromic Repeats-CRISPR-associated protein 9) is one of the most widely used genome editing technologies. It utilizes

a small RNA molecule (guide RNA) to direct the Cas9 protein to a specific target site in the genome. Once at the target site, the Cas9 protein creates a double-strand break in the DNA, which can be repaired by the cell's repair machinery. This repair process can be exploited to introduce specific changes in the DNA sequence, such as gene knockouts, gene insertions, or gene replacements. One of the key advantages of genome editing technologies is their ability to introduce precise changes in the genome without the need for foreign DNA insertion. This is in contrast to traditional genetic engineering methods, which often involve the introduction of foreign genes. By avoiding the introduction of foreign DNA, genome editing technologies can help address concerns related to genetically modified organisms (GMOs) and facilitate the development of crops with improved traits through precise modifications of their own genetic material. Genome editing technologies offer numerous potential applications in crop improvement. They can be used to introduce or enhance desirable traits such as disease resistance, abiotic stress tolerance, improved nutritional content, and enhanced yield potential. For example, CRISPR Cas9 has been successfully employed to engineer disease-resistant crops by disrupting genes responsible for susceptibility to pathogens. Similarly, genome editing has been utilized to enhance abiotic stress tolerance by modifying genes involved in stress response pathways. Furthermore, genome editing can be used to accelerate the breeding process by providing breeders with the ability to rapidly introduce specific genetic changes into elite crop varieties. This allows for the creation of improved varieties with targeted modifications in a shorter timeframe compared to traditional breeding methods. For instance, genome editing can be used to introduce traits that are difficult to achieve through conventional breeding, such as precise changes in regulatory regions or the modification of multiple genes simultaneously. The adoption of genome editing technologies in crop improvement is still evolving, and several challenges need to be addressed. These include the off-target effects of genome editing, the regulatory frameworks surrounding the use of genome-edited crops, and public acceptance of these technologies. However, ongoing research and advancements in genome editing techniques continue to address these challenges and pave the way for wider implementation in crop improvement programs. In conclusion, genome editing technologies, particularly CRISPR-Cas9, have revolutionized crop improvement by providing precise and targeted modifications to the plant genome. These technologies offer immense potential for the development of crops with improved traits, enhanced productivity, and greater resilience to biotic and abiotic stresses. The incorporation of

genome editing in crop breeding programs holds promise for accelerating genetic gains and addressing global challenges in agriculture.

8. Enhancing Biotic and Abiotic Stress Resistance

Genetics and plant breeding play crucial roles in enhancing biotic and abiotic stress resistance in crops. Through the manipulation of genetic traits and the selection of desirable characteristics, breeders can develop new varieties that are better equipped to withstand various stresses. Here, I will discuss the role of genetics and plant breeding in enhancing biotic and abiotic stress resistance, supported by relevant references. Biotic Stress Resistance: Biotic stresses are caused by living organisms such as pathogens, insects, and weeds. Plant breeders employ several strategies to enhance biotic stress resistance:

a) Genetic Resistance: Breeding for genetic resistance involves identifying and incorporating naturally occurring resistance genes from wild relatives or other sources into cultivated approach crop varieties. This has been successful in developing resistant varieties for various diseases. For example, the introgression of resistance genes from wild relatives has led to the development of wheat varieties resistant to stem rust caused by the *Puccinia graminis* fungus.

b) Marker-Assisted Selection (MAS): MAS is breeding technique that uses molecular markers linked to specific traits of interest. It allows breeders to select plants with desired resistance traits more efficiently. For instance, MAS has been employed to improve resistance against the soybean cyst nematode (SCN) in soybean, resulting in the development of resistant cultivars.

c) Transgenic Approaches: Genetic engineering techniques have facilitated the introduction of genes conferring resistance against pests and diseases. For example, the introduction of the Bt gene, which encodes an insecticidal protein, into crops like cotton and corn has provided effective protection against target pests.

9. Abiotic Stress Resistance

Abiotic stresses include factors such as drought, salinity, extreme temperatures, and nutrient deficiencies. Plant breeders employ various strategies to enhance abiotic stress resistance:

a) Phenotypic Selection: Traditional breeding methods involve selecting plants with desirable traits through visual assessment. Breeders can identify and select individuals with improved tolerance to specific abiotic stresses such as drought or salinity based on

their phenotypic performance. This approach has been successful in developing stress-tolerant crop varieties, such as drought-tolerant maize hybrids.

b) Quantitative Trait Loci (QTL) Mapping: QTL mapping identifies regions of the genome associated with stress tolerance traits. This approach allows breeders to target specific genomic regions and develop markers for marker-assisted selection. For instance, QTL mapping has facilitated the development of rice varieties with improved tolerance to submergence stress.

c) Genomic Selection: Genomic selection involves using genomic information to predict the breeding values of individuals without phenotypic evaluation. It enables breeders to select plants with superior stress tolerance based on their genomic profiles. Genomic selection has been applied to improve drought tolerance in crops such as maize.

10. Socio-Economic and Environmental Considerations

Genetics and plant breeding play crucial roles in addressing socio-economic and environmental considerations in agriculture. They contribute to the development of improved crop varieties that are more resilient, productive, and sustainable, thereby benefiting farmers, consumers, and the environment. Here are some key points on the role of genetics and plant breeding in socio-economic environmental considerations:

10.1 Increased Crop Productivity: Genetic improvement through plant breeding has significantly contributed to enhancing crop productivity. High-yielding varieties developed through breeding programs have played a vital role in increasing agricultural output and ensuring food security. These improved varieties possess traits such as disease resistance, tolerance to abiotic stresses, and enhanced nutrient use efficiency, leading to higher yields and reduced crop losses.

10.2 Crop Adaptation to Climate Change: Climate change poses significant challenges to agricultural systems. Plant breeding can help address these challenges by developing climate resilient crop varieties. Breeding programs aim to incorporate traits such as heat and drought tolerance, improved water use efficiency, and resistance to emerging pests and diseases, enabling crops to withstand environmental conditions.

10.3 Resource Use Efficiency: Plant breeding contributes to the development of crops with improved resource use efficiency, such as water-use efficiency and nutrient-use efficiency. By developing varieties that require fewer inputs, such as water and fertilizers, plant breeding helps reduce production costs, enhances sustainability and environmental impacts.

11. Germplasm Conservation and Utilization

Genetics and plant breeding play crucial roles in germplasm conservation and utilization. Germplasm refers to the collection of genetic resources, including seeds, tissues, and other reproductive materials, that are preserved for future use in plant breeding and research. The conservation of genetic diversity is essential for maintaining resilience and adaptability in plant populations. Plant breeding programs rely on diverse germplasm resources to introduce new traits, improve disease resistance, enhance productivity, and develop new varieties. Germplasm evaluation is a crucial step in utilizing and conserving germplasm resources. Plant breeders evaluate germplasm collections to identify plants with desirable traits such as high yield, disease resistance, nutritional quality, and environmental adaptability. This evaluation involves analyzing genetic markers, phenotypic traits, and performance under different environmental conditions. The knowledge gained from evaluating germplasm helps breeders select suitable parents for hybridization and develop improved varieties. Hybridization and selection are fundamental processes in plant breeding. Plant breeders use germplasm resources to create new genetic combinations through controlled hybridization by crossing different germplasm accessions, breeders introduce new traits and create genetic variability. The subsequent selection process involves choosing plants with the desired characteristics and breeding them over successive generations, resulting development of superior varieties. In the Advances in molecular genetics and genetic engineering have greatly facilitated germplasm conservation and utilization. Techniques such as DNA sequencing, marker-assisted selection, and genetic transformation enable breeders to identify and manipulate specific genes responsible for desired traits. These tools enhance the precision and efficiency of plant breeding, leading to the development of improved varieties with targeted traits. In some cases, local communities and farmers play a crucial role in germplasm conservation and utilization through participatory plant breeding. Participatory plant breeding involves collaboration between farmers, scientists, and breeders, where farmers actively participate in the selection and evaluation of germplasm. This approach ensures that locally adapted varieties are developed, conserving traditional knowledge and promoting sustainable agriculture.

Conclusion:

The role of genetics and plant breeding in crop improvement is of paramount importance for addressing the global challenges of food security, climate change, and

sustainable agriculture. Over the years, advancements in genetics, genomics, and breeding methodologies have significantly accelerated the progress in developing improved crop varieties with enhanced productivity, resilience, and nutritional qualities. The utilization of germplasm collections, coupled with molecular techniques and participatory approaches, has played a crucial role in unlocking the genetic potential of plants. Through germplasm conservation, plant breeders have been able to safeguard the genetic diversity necessary for future breeding efforts. Genetic diversity provides the foundation for trait improvement and adaptation to changing environmental conditions. Evaluation of germplasm resources has enabled breeders to identify valuable traits and select suitable parents for hybridization. The use of molecular tools and genetic engineering has further enhanced breeding precision and efficiency, allowing for targeted trait manipulation and accelerated variety development.

Future Perspectives:

Looking ahead, the field of genetics and plant breeding holds immense potential for further advancements and contributions to crop improvement. Here are some future perspectives:

1. **Genomic Selection** Genomic selection, which utilizes high throughput genomic data and statistical models, has the potential to revolutionize plant breeding. By predicting the breeding value of plants based on their genetic markers, genomic selection can greatly accelerate the breeding process, leading to the development of improved varieties in a shorter time frame.
2. **Climate Resilience** Climate change poses significant challenges to agriculture. Future breeding efforts will focus on developing climate-resilient varieties that can withstand extreme weather events, tolerate abiotic stresses, and exhibit improved water and nutrient-use efficiency. Harnessing the genetic diversity available in germplasm collections will be crucial for this purpose.
3. **Nutritional Enhancement** Addressing malnutrition and improving the nutritional quality of crops will be a key area of focus. Breeding for increased micronutrient content, enhanced protein quality, and improved digestibility will contribute to combating nutrient deficiencies and promoting healthier diets.

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AgriTech Revolution: Advancing Sustainable Farming Volume II

(ISBN: 978-81-981907-0-3)

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